# Expert Reviews

Development of an algorithm for the management of cervical lymphadenopathy in children: consensus of the Italian Society of Preventive and Social Pediatrics, jointly with the Italian Society of Pediatric Infectious Diseases and the Italian Society of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology

Expert Rev. Anti Infect. Ther. Early online, 1–11 (2015)

Elena Chiappini\*1 Angelo Camaioni<sup>2</sup>, Marco Benazzo<sup>3</sup>. Andrea Biondi<sup>4</sup>, Sergio Bottero<sup>5</sup>, Salvatore De Masi<sup>6</sup>, Giuseppe Di Mauro<sup>7</sup>, Mattia Doria<sup>8</sup>, Susanna Esposito<sup>9</sup> Giovanni Felisati<sup>10</sup>, Dino Felisati<sup>10</sup> Filippo Festini<sup>11</sup>, Renato Maria Gaini<sup>12,13</sup>, Luisa Galli<sup>1</sup>, Claudio Gambini 14, Umberto Gianelli<sup>15</sup>, Massimo Landi<sup>16</sup>

Cervical lymphadenopathy is a common disorder in children due to a wide spectrum of disorders. On the basis of a complete history and physical examination, paediatricians have to select, among the vast majority of children with a benign self-limiting condition, those at risk for other, more complex, diseases requiring laboratory tests, imaging and, finally, tissue sampling. At the same time, they should avoid expensive and invasive examinations when unnecessary. The Italian Society of Preventive and Social Pediatrics, jointly with the Italian Society of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, the Italian Society of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology, and other Scientific Societies, issued a National Consensus document, based on the most recent literature findings, including an algorithm for the management of cervical lymphadenopathy in children. Methods: The Consensus Conference method was used, following the Italian National Plan Guidelines. Relevant publications in English were identified through a systematic review of MEDLINE and the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews from their inception through March 21, 2014. Results: Basing on literature results, an algorithm was developed, including several possible

Other members of the Italian Guideline Panel for the Management of Cervical Lymphadenopathy in Children
Sabrina Becciani, Caterina Bonaccini, Sofia D'elios, Pasquale Di Pietro, Ludovica Facchini, Martina Giacalone, Simona Montano,
Sara Sollai, Paola Piccini, Giulia Remaschi, Daniele Serranti, Alessia Stival, Elisabetta Venturini.

List of scientific societies involved: Italian Society of Preventive and Social Pediatrics, Italian Society of Pediatric Infectious
Diseases, Italian Society of Pediatric Otolaryngology, Italian Society of Otolaryngology, Italian Federation of Family Pediatricians,
Italian Society of Primary Care Pediatrics, Italian Society of Chemotherapy, Italian Association of Clinical Microbiology, Italian
Association of Pediatric Hematology and Oncology, Italian Society of Pathology and Diagnostic Cytopathology, Italian Society
of Pediatric Allergy and Clinical Immunology, Italian Pediatric Nurses Association, Italian Society of Medical Radiology, Parents'
Association: "We For You".

www.tandfonline.com 10.1586/14787210.2015.1096777 © 2015 Taylor & Francis ISSN 1478-7210

Marco Lucioni<sup>17</sup>. Nicola Mansi<sup>18</sup>. Rachele Mazzantini<sup>1</sup>, Paola Marchisio<sup>9</sup>. Gian Luigi Marseglia<sup>19</sup>, Vito Leonardo Miniello<sup>20</sup>. Marta Nicola<sup>21</sup> Andrea Novelli<sup>22</sup> Marco Paulli<sup>23</sup>. Marina Picca<sup>24</sup> Marta Pillon<sup>25</sup> Paolo Pisani<sup>26</sup>. Carlotta Pipolo<sup>27</sup> Nicola Principi<sup>9</sup>, lacopo Sardi<sup>28</sup> Giovanni Succo<sup>29</sup>, Paolo Tomà<sup>30</sup> Enrico Tortoli<sup>31</sup> Filippo Tucci<sup>32</sup>, Attilio Varricchio<sup>33</sup> and Maurizio de Martino<sup>1</sup> Italian Guideline Panel for the Management of Cervical lymphadenopathy in Ćhildren<sup>34</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Paediatric Infectious Disease Unit, Department of Health Sciences. University of Florence, Anna Meyer Children's University Hospital, Florence, Italy <sup>2</sup>ENT Department, San Giovanni-Addolorata Hospital Rome Italy <sup>3</sup>Department of Otorhinolaryngology, "San Matteo" Hospital, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy <sup>4</sup>Paediatric Haematology-Oncology Department and "Tettamanti" Research Centre, Milano-Bicocca University, "Fondazione Mbbm", San Gerardo Hospital, Monza, Italy <sup>5</sup>ENT Unit, Department of Surgery and Transplantation Centre Rambino Gesù Children's Hospital, IRCCS, Rome, Italy <sup>6</sup>Epidemiology Unit, Meyer University Hospital, Florence, Italy <sup>7</sup>Primary Care Pediatrician, Caserta, <sup>8</sup>General Paediatrician, Milan, Italy <sup>9</sup>Pediatric Highly Intensive Care Unit, Department of Pathophysiology and Transplantation, Fondazione Irccs Ca Granda Ospedale Maggiore Policlinico, Università Degli Studi Di Milano, Milan, Milan, Italy

<sup>10</sup>Department of Otolaryngology,

San Paolo Hospital, University of

Milan, Milan, Italy

clinical scenarios. Situations requiring a watchful waiting strategy, those requiring an empiric antibiotic therapy, and those necessitating a prompt diagnostic workup, considering the risk for a severe underling disease, have been identified. Conclusion: The present algorithm is a practice tool for the management of pediatric cervical lymphadenopathy in the hospital and the ambulatory settings. A multidisciplinary approach is paramount. Further studies are required for its validation in the clinical field.

**KEYWORDS:** cervical lymphadenopathy • children • algorithm • evidence based medicine

#### Introduction

Cervical lymphadenopathy is a common disorder in children due to a wide spectrum of diseases, including infectious, immunologic, neoplastic, and idiopathic disorders.[1-3] Among severe conditions (i.e. cancer or tuberculosis), cancer occurs at a rate lower than 1%. However, it should be bared in mind that more than 25% of malignant pediatric cancers involve the head and neck regions.[4-7] On the basis of a complete history and physical examination, pediatricians have to select, among the vast majority of children with a benign self-limiting condition, those at risk for other, more complex, diseases requiring laboratory tests, imaging investigations, and, finally, tissue sampling. At the same time, they should avoid expensive and invasive examinations when unnecessary.[4]

To date, there is no consensus in the international pediatric literature on a diagnostic/therapeutic algorithm for cervical lymphadenitis in children. Few practical algorithms have been published, reporting substantial discrepancies both in the diagnostic and in therapeutic management. [5,8–14] The most discussed issues include (a) the use of empirical antibiotic therapy; (b) when to perform blood tests and which ones; and (c) when to execute ultrasound scan, chest X-ray, and biopsy. In particular, the role on fine needle aspiration biopsy (FNAB) in children is highly discussed.

The Italian Society of Preventive and Social Pediatrics, jointly with the Italian Society of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Italian Society of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology, other Scientific Societies (listed in the title page), issued a National Consensus document, based on the most recent literature findings, including an algorithm for the management of cervical lymphadenopathy in children, defined as age <18 years, intended to be a practical tool for the pediatrician in the hospital and the

ambulatory settings. The algorithm also underlines the importance of an integrated multidisciplinary approach.

#### Methods

The Consensus Conference method was used. following the National Institutes of Health and the National Plan Guidelines as previously reported.[15,16] Relevant publications in English were identified through a systematic review of MEDLINE and the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews from their inception through March 21, 2014. Search strategy: "(children[Title/Abstract] AND lymphadenitis[Title/Abstract]) AND English[lang] AND cervical[Title/Abstract] AND lymphadenopathy[Title/Abstract] AND (children[Title/ Abstract] OR pediatric[Title] OR Pediatric [Title/Abstract]) AND English[lang]". Trained personnel performed the critical appraisal of the acquired literature using the Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network methodological checklists.[17] Subsequently, the bibliographical material and a preliminary draft of the document were provided to the panel members. In the various meetings, literature evidence was reported and discussed and the Delphi method was used to reach a consensus when the evidence did not provide consistent and unambiguous recommendations.[17] The final text was revised on the basis of these discussions and submitted by e-mail to participants at the Consensus Conference for final approval. The full version is available at the website: http://www.sitip.org/files/fileusers/ 7113 linee guida linfoadenopatie 2014 21% 20marzo.pdf.

The multidisciplinary panel of clinicians and experts in evidence-based medicine were identified with the help of the participating scientific societies. Specifically, the panel included experts in the fields of general pediatrics, otorhinolaryngology, microbiology, pharmacology,

<sup>11</sup>Department of Health Science, University of Florence, Florence, Italy <sup>12</sup>Department of Otorhinolaryngology, San Gerardo Hospital, Monza, Italy <sup>13</sup>Department of Surgery and Translational Medicine, University of Milano-Bicocca, Milan, Italy <sup>14</sup>Pathology Unit, Istituto Giannina Gaslini, Genua, Italy 15 Fondazione Ircss Ca' Granda-Ospedale Maggiore Policlinico, Italy University of Milan, Milan, Italy <sup>16</sup>General Paediatrician, Turin, Italy <sup>17</sup>Otolaryngology Unit, Vittorio Veneto Hospital, Vittorio Veneto, <sup>18</sup>ENT Unit, Santo Bono Posillipo Hospital, Naples, Italy <sup>19</sup>Department of Pediatrics, University of Pavia, Fondazione Irccs Policlinico San Matteo, Pavia, Italy <sup>20</sup>Department of Paediatrics, Aldo Moro University of Bari, Bari, Italy <sup>21</sup>Department of Molecular Medicine, University of Pavia, Pavia, <sup>22</sup>Department of Health Sciences, Section of Pharmacology, University of Florence, Florence, Italy <sup>23</sup>Department of Pathology, Fondazione Irccs Policlinico San Matteo, and Department of Molecular Medicine, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy <sup>24</sup>Primary Care Paediatrician, Milan, <sup>25</sup>Oncoemaology Unit, Department of Paediatrics, University of Padua, Padua, Italy <sup>26</sup>Otorhinolaryngology Unit, Head and Neck Department, San Paolo Hospital, University of Milan, Milan, <sup>27</sup>Department of Cardiovascular Surgery, Ncc Città Di Alessandria Hospital, Alessandria, Italy

Univeristy Hospital, Florence, Italy <sup>29</sup>Otorhinolaryngology Service, Department of Oncology, San Luigi Gonzaga Hospital, University of Turin, Turin, Italy <sup>30</sup>Department of Diagnostic Imaging, Children's Hospital Bambino Gesù, Rome, Italy <sup>31</sup>San Raffaele Institute, Milan, Italy <sup>32</sup>University Hospital Pediatric Department, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital, Rome, Rome, Italy <sup>33</sup>San Gennaro Hospital, Naples, Italy <sup>34</sup>Florence University, Florence, Italy

\*Author for correspondence: Tel.: 0039 055 5662488

Fax: 0039 055 5662900

elena.chiappini@unifi.it

<sup>28</sup>Neuro-Oncology Unit, Meyer

infectious diseases, immunology, nursing practice, and research methodology, and a member of the parents' association "We for You". No panel member declared any conflict of interest considering the guideline topics. The panel met on three occasions, and many of the consultations involved in the document development took place interactively by e-mail or telephone contact.

#### **Definitions**

Lymphadenopathy was defined as an alteration of lymph node in size, number, and consistency. [4] In children, a lymph node was considered abnormal if it has a diameter greater than 1 cm in the cervical or axillary site, 2 mm in the supraclavicular site, and 5 mm in the preauricular site. [2,3]

Lymphadenopathy may be categorized as acute (present for 1–2 weeks), subacute (present for 2–6 weeks), or chronic (persisting for more than 6 weeks), on the basis of duration, and as localized, including both monolateral or bilateral forms) or generalized (involving two or more non-contiguous sites on the basis of localization.[4,18]

# Results from the systematic review Patient's history and clinical examination

Several factors can initially suggest the etiologic diagnosis: age, time since onset, systemic symptoms (e.g. fever, night sweats, or weight loss), recent respiratory tract infection, earache, toothache, insect bite, trauma, rash, contact with animals, travel, tuberculous contact, ingestion of possibly contaminated food, immunization, and medications [2,3] (Tables 1,-3). The physical examination is paramount and should address localization and laterality, evolution (acute, subacute, chronic course), size, overlying skin changes, characteristics on palpation (soft, warm, firm, floating), relationship with surrounding tissues (mobility, immobility), soreness and achiness, and other associated systemic signs (i.e. hepato-splenomegaly, thoracic findings, rash).[2,3]

Benign viral-associated lymphadenopathy may be suspected in the event of an associated upper respiratory infection, pharyngitis, tonsillitis, or otitis media. [2,6] Involvement is usually bilateral and lymph node is generally small, soft, nontender, mobile, and without overlying skin changes. Citak *et al.* in a retrospective observational study, including 273

# Table 1. Drugs which can cause cervical lymphadenopathy.

antiretroviral drugs (abacavir, nevirapine)
Allopurinol
Aromatic anticonvulsants
Atenolol
Captopril
Carbamazepine
Quinidine
Phenytoin
Hydralazine
Penicillin
Primidone
Sulfonamides
Sulindac
Modified from [20,21].

children aged <16 years, observed that 73.75% of children had bilateral cervical lymphadenopathy, associated with infectious mononucleosis in the majority of cases.[19]

On the other hand, bacterial cervical lymphadenopathy is typically unilateral, most commonly involving submandibular (50–60%) or upper cervical (25–30%) regions. Inflammatory signs, i.e. pain, tenderness, fluctuancy and skin changes, are frequent.[20,21]

Infections by Bartonella henselae or nontuberculous mycobacteria are frequently associated with subacute or chronic forms.[3] A child with cat-scratch disease typically presents with erythema, papules, or pustules occurring at the scratch line. Regional lymphadenopathy (most commonly axillary, submandibular, preauricular, or intraparotideal) becomes evident 2-3 weeks after the scratch or bite and may last up to 6 months. General malaise and fever may be present. Only in 50% of cases a previous cat scratch or bite is present, and dog can be affected by Bartonella spp. infection, as well. Thus, this disease may be suspected even in the absence of a cat scratch/bite. The nontuberculous mycobacteria lymphadenopathy is usually unilateral and persists for more than 3 weeks. The child, generally aged less than 5 years, appears in a good general condition and afebrile. Submandibular upper cervical regions, including intraparotideal lymph nodes, are most commonly involved. Erythema or a violaceous skin discoloration may be associated,

Table 2. Common causes of cervical lymphadenopathy, according to temporal evolution.

Acute lymphadenopathy	Subacute/chronic lymphadenopathy
Bacterial infections	Bacterial infections
Staphylococcus spp.	Mycobacterium tuberculosis
Streptococcus spp.	nontuberculous mycobacteria
Anaerobic bacteria	Bartonella henselae
Borrelia burgdorferi	Brucella spp.
Viruses	Leishmania spp.
CMV	Francisella tularensis
EBV	Listeria monocytogenes
Adenovirus	Viruses
Herpes simplex virus 1–2	HIV
Herpes simplex virus 6–7	CMV
Mumps virus	EBV
Influenza, parainfluenza virus, rhinovirus	Other
Rubella	Lymphoma and leukemia
Measles	Metastasis
Varicella	Sarcoidosis
Other	Juvenile idiopathic arthritis
Toxoplasma gondii	Lupus erythematosus systemic
Kawasaki disease	
PFAFA	
CMV, cytomegalovirus; EBV, Epstein-Barr virus; PFAFA, periodic fever, aphthous	

CMV, cytomegalovirus; EBV, Epstein–Barr virus; PFAFA, periodic fever, aphthous stomatitis, pharyngitis and adenitis; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus.

and central colliquative necrosis with possible subsequent fistulization is a common evolution.[6]

Malignancy may be suspected if lymph nodes are rapidly enlarging, nontender, and fixed. Cervical lymph node greater than 2 cm should be considered potentially malignant and this risk is substantially higher when diameter exceeds 3 cm.[6,22-24] Regardless of size, age >8 years, generalized lymphadenopathy, supraclavicular or lower cervical nodes involvement are associated with increased risk of malignancy.[6,22-24] In a retrospective study of 175 children, the involvement of the high, middle, and lower jugular nodes and the posterior triangle of the neck was significantly associated with an increased risk of malignancy compared with involvement of submental and submandibular regions (P = 0.001, 95% CI = 5.46 to 25.57).[25] This finding is also confirmed in an observational study including 120 Indian children.[26] Associated systemic symptoms, including weight loss, night sweats, unexplained fever, or fatigue, should also be addressed and suggest malignancy or a chronic inflammatory condition.[2]

According to the Referral for suspected Cancer Guidelines issued by the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE), urgent referral is advised if one or more of

lymphadenopathy, according to the child's age. <u>Aetiology</u> 1-4 weeks Staphylococcus aureus β-hemolytic group B Streptococcus pyogenes 1-12 months Staphylococcus aureus β-hemolytic group B Streptococcus pyogenes Toxoplasma gondii CMV **EBV** 1-5 years Upper respiratory tract infections Beta-hemolytic group B Streptococcus pyogenes Staphylococcus aureus Nontuberculous mycobacteria Toxoplasma gondii CMV **EBV** 

Upper respiratory tract infections

Mycobacterium tuberculosis

Bartonella henselae

Anaerobic bacteria

Toxoplasma gondii

CMV EBV

CMV, cytomegalovirus; EBV, Epstein-Barr virus

Table 3. Common infectious causes of cervical

the following characteristics are present, particularly if there is no evidence of local infection: (a) lymph nodes are non-tender, firm, or hard; (b) lymph nodes are greater than 2 cm in size or are progressively enlarging; (c) other features of general illness, i.e. fever or weight loss; (d) the axillary nodes (in the absence of local infection or dermatitis) or the supraclavicular nodes are involved.[27] Also, the presence of hepatosplenomegaly or persistence for 6 weeks or more requires immediate referral.[27]

In several primary immunodeficiency diseases (PIDs), including severe combined immunodeficiency and X-linked agamma-globulinemia, lymph nodes and tonsils are small or absent. On the other hand, in other PIDs, lymphadenopathy is frequently present. According to the recent German guidelines,[28] lymphoproliferative disorders (including chronic benign lymphadenopathy) should be considered for the suspicion of PID, besides susceptibility to infections (recurrent infections with common pathogens, or infections with unusual/opportunistic pathogens) and chronic inflammation or autoimmune disorders.[28] These concepts are summarized in the German guidelines by the mnemonic acronyms ELVIS and GARFIELD, as reported in Table 4. [28] In the Omenn syndrome, the Chediak–Higashi disease in its "accelerated phase", or in the common variable immune

4 Expert Rev. Anti Infect. Ther.

6-14 years

Modified from [6]

Table 4. The classic warning signs of primary immune deficiency, summarized for patients with increased susceptibility to infection in the acronym ELVIS, and other signs of immune system impairment, summarized by the acronym GARFIELD, on behalf of the German Association of the Scientific Medical Societies [AWMF, Arbeitsgemeinschaft der Wissenschaftlichen Medizinischen Fachgesellschaften e. V., www.

#### FI VIS

- Pathogen (Erreger): Infections due to opportunistic pathogens such as Pneumocystis jirovecii
- Localization (Lokalisation): atypical localization of the infection, e.g., brain abscess due to Aspergillus cerebral toxoplasmosis, or pneumococcal arthritis, are suggestive of PID
- Course (Verlauf): an unusual course in terms of chronicity/recurrence and an unsatisfactory response to antibiotic therapy represent signs [although difficult to differentiate) of PID
- Intensity (Intensität): the same applies to infections that follow an unusually severe course
- Number of infections (Summe der Infektionen): this parameter is distinctly age-dependent: ≥8 minor infections/year, ≥2 cases of pneumonia or severe sinusitis/year are considered abnormal in young children while the rule of thumb

## GARFIELD

- Granulomas: in particular in the lungs, lymph nodes, skin, as well as in other organs
- Autoimmunity: in particular autoimmune cytopenia, as well as organ autoimmunity
- Recurrent fever: periodic fever, hemophagocytosis
- Eczema: often early-onset, atypical, refractory to therapy
- Lymphoproliferative disorders: chronic benign lymphadenopathy, splenomegaly

Modified from [28].

deficiency (CVID), lymphadenopathy is commonly described. Indeed in these diseases, lymphoid tissue is often substituted by extensive histiocytic infiltrates. In chronic granulomatous disease, recurrent suppurative lymphadenopathy is frequent. This should be differentiated from cutaneous granulomas which are not related to infection but rather due to ineffective neutrophil function and dysregulated inflammatory response. In a recent case series, lymphadenopathy was the second most frequent clinical condition (59.4%), after recurrent pneumonia (76.8%). Other described features included granulomata (49.3%), skin infections (42%), chronic diarrhea (41.9%), otitis (29%), sepsis (23.2%), abscesses (21.7%), recurrent urinary tract infection (20.3%), and osteomyelitis (15.9%).[29]

Lymphadenopathy is common also in the autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome (ALPS). ALPS is a disorder of abnormal lymphocyte survival caused by dysregulation of the FAS apoptotic pathway. Patients with ALPS develop chronic non-malignant lymphoproliferation (lymphadenopathy, splenomegalia, hepatomegalia), autoimmune disease (i.e. autoimmune cytopenia), and secondary malignancies (i.e. NHL). Lymphadenopathy is usually

multifocal, lasts more than 6 months, and lymph node sizes fluctuate with time. Cervical and inguinal lymph nodes are the most commonly involved.[30]

ALPS patients have highly heterogeneous phenotypes with clinical findings that overlap with several lymphoproliferative disorders (i.e.: Castleman disease, Rosai-Dorfman disease, X-linked lymphoproliferative disease, Kikuchi–Fujimoto disease, Caspase 8 deficiency syndrome, and Ras-associated leukoproliferative disorder). Tissue biopsy (bone marrow and/or lymph node] at initial presentation is therefore needed to obtain a specific diagnosis.

It should be remembered that in patients with CVID, ALPS, as well as other PIDs, lymphadenopathy may underline a malignant lymphoproliferative disease. Approximately 10% of patients with CVID and 10–20% of those with ALPS have a lymphoproliferative disorder, which manifests most frequently as splenomegaly, lymphadenopathy, and interstitial lung disease. Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL) is the commonest lymphoproliferative disorder in these patients. In general, PIDs are one of the strongest known risk factors for the development of NHL.[30]

Extra-pulmonary, cervical fungal lymphadenitis, including Aspergillosis, Candidiasis, Criptococcosis, Histoplasmosis, Coccidiomicosis, is a rare clinical disorder, mainly occurring in children with primary or acquired immunodeficiency. Aspergillosis is a saprophytic and ubiquitous infection due to the inhalation of airbone spores of Aspergillus spp. (mainly Aspergillus fumigatus and Aspergillus flavus), and, rarely, to the ingestion of contaminated food. Invasive aspergillosis may develop in granulocytopenic patients (i.e. leukemic children) and cystic fibrosis patients, and mainly affects the lungs. Head and neck involvement is possible, including cervical lymphadenitis, aspergillosis of the paranasal sinuses, and intraoral aspergillosis.[31] Histoplasmosis is an opportunistic infection caused by the inhalation of chicken droppings or bat guano containing spores (microconidia) of the dimorphic fungus Histoplasma capsulatum. Although histoplasmosis is commonly subclinical or gives rise to a flu-like syndrome, it may abrupt develop into a disseminated disease in about 10% of cases, especially in immunosuppressed patients (particularly those with T-cell impairment) and infants. Peripheral lymphadenitis mainly affects the cervical chains of children with histoplasmosis. Parotid involvement has also been described. A diagnosis may be reached by means of fungal culture, antigen detection, fungal staining of peripheral blood, and antibody testing.[31]

Cryptococcus is encapsulated yeast, which is present in environment, especially in soil contaminated with bird excreta. Approximately 85% of patients with cryptococcosis have impaired cell-mediated immunity, including patients undergoing solid organ transplant, those with hematology malignancy or HIV infection. It has been rarely reported in otherwise healthy children. Disseminates cryptococcosis can involve the lungs, central nervous system, skin, lymph nodes, and liver. Lymph node involvement as a presenting feature in cryptococcosis is not a common manifestation, but it has been reported in adults and children. Final diagnosis can be confirmed by cervical

lymph node biopsy for histopathologic investigations and fungal culture.[31]

Finally, in children who had received a solid organ transplantation or an allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, the post-traplant lymphoproliferative disorder (PTLD) should be considered since lymphadenopathy is described in about 40% of these children.[32] PTLD is a complication associated with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) infection of B cells, either as a consequence of reactivation of the virus post-transplantation or from primary EBV infection. Most cases of PTLD occur within the first post-transplant year. Whether PTLD presents as localized or disseminated disease, the tumors are often aggressive, rapidly progressive, and potentially life threatening. Clinical presentation is variable and includes fever (57%), lymphadenopathy (38%), gastrointestinal symptoms (including obstruction (27%), infectious mononucleosis-like syndrome that can be fulminant (19%), pulmonary symptoms (15%), CNS symptoms (13%), and weight loss (9%).[32] The EBV viral load in the peripheral blood, measured by quantitative PCR, is the most commonly used laboratory test to monitor patients who are at risk for developing PTLD after transplantation. A single elevated EBV PCR value is less informative than a trend of rising (or falling) values over time but a negative EBV PCR does not allow ruling out a PTLD. The diagnosis relies histologic confirmation on biopsy. The World Health Organization classification system recognizes four major histopathologic subtypes: (1) early hyperplastic lesions, (2) polymorphic lesions (which may be polyclonal or monoclonal), (3) monomorphic lesions, and (4) classic Hodgkin-type lymphomas.[32]

Considering the child's history and clinical presentation, four clinical scenarios have been identified by the expert panel, as reported in Figure 1. On this basis, an algorithm was developed.

### Clinical scenarios

The first clinical scenario refers to children with unilateral or bilateral lymphadenopathy associated to pharyngitis, fever, and/ or mononucleosis-like syndrome. Most commonly, this situation underlines a benign viral infection of the upper respiratory tract.[18] Streptococcal pharyngitis should also be considered according to the guidelines recommendations.[33] A watchful waiting for 3-5 days is recommended. In case of persistence and/or worsening of lymphadenopathy, a minimal workup is suggested (including count blood cell; C reactive protein [CRP]; liver enzymes; Epstein-Barr Virus Viral Capsid [VCA]-IgM). VCA-IgM becomes positive already during the first week of infection in more than 75% of cases. This percentage rises to 93-95% during the second week.[34] Other agents responsible for mononucleosis-like syndrome (i.e. cytomegalovirus [CMV]; Herpes simplex virus; Human Herpes virus-6; adenovirus; Toxoplasma. gondii), systemic bacterial infections, Kawasaki syndrome, or lymphoproliferative disorders should be considered if EBV serology is negative for acute infection and/or alterations of other blood tests are present and/or fever persist.[21] In children with one or more symptoms of Kawasaki syndrome, the execution of echocardiography is mandatory.[34] A careful

clinical monitoring for 8–12 weeks is recommended in any case, even in the event of clinical improvement and/or normal blood tests.

A second clinical scenario includes children with mono/bilateral lymphadenopathy with diameter <2 cm without inflammatory signs. Even in this event, most commonly this scenario underlines a benign viral infection of the upper respiratory tract, and no empiric antibiotic treatment is recommended. A careful clinical monitoring over time is indicated, since any lymphadenopathy which does not regress in 4–6-week or incompletely resolves in 8–12 weeks should be investigated, and, eventually, surgical intervention may be required to achieve a final diagnosis (Figure 1).[24,27]

The third clinical scenario includes children with mono/ bilateral lymphadenopathy with signs of inflammation, regardless of size. Soreness and tenderness suggest a rapid increase in volume of the lymph node, with tension of the capsule, which typically occur in infectious suppurative inflammatory processes. [35,36] Flogosis is defined by the presence of inflammatory signs including rubor, calor, dolor, and the presence of fluctuations and suggests a bacterial infectious disease.[37] The most common pathogens involved in acute bacterial lymphadenopathy are Staphylococcus aureus and Streptococcus pyogenes. Acute bacterial lymphadenitis is most commonly caused by S. aureus in the neonate and in children up to age 4 years. Group B streptococcal infection should be considered in the newborns. In children aged 1- 4 years, Group A β-haemolytic streptococcal infection becomes more prevalent, though S. aureus is still the most common isolated pathogen in this age group.[9] Anaerobic infections should be considered in older children and adolescents, especially in the setting of dental infection or periodontal disease.[38]

In these cases, an empirical antibiotic treatment with amoxicillin or amoxicillin/clavulanic acid 80 mg/kg/day in three divided doses for 14 days is suggested (Figure 1). In severe forms (with compromised medical conditions and/or persistent fever, increased inflammatory markers), the recommended empirical antibiotic therapy is ampicillin + sulbactam or amoxicillin + clavulanic acid, intravenously (80 mg/kg/day, calculated on ampicillin or amoxicillin, in three divided doses).[10] In the absence of response to empiric antibiotic therapy within the first 48-72 h or in the presence of a high risk of infection with methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), clindamycin, rifampicin, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole are recommended. Vancomycin or linezolid should be used in infections sustained by clindamycin-resistant MRSA. In Italy, more than 30% of hospital infections due to S. aureus are MRSA-associated diseases.[39] Few data are available regarding the epidemiology of community-acquired MRSA.[40,41] Revaluation of the child at 7 days after the end of therapy is also recommended. It should be reminded that, even if rarely, cancer may be associated with soreness and tenderness due to rapid volume in case of hemorrhage and necrosis of lymph node. Thus, in the absence of any improvement following the antibiotic treatment, further investigations are recommended, as reported in Figure 1.

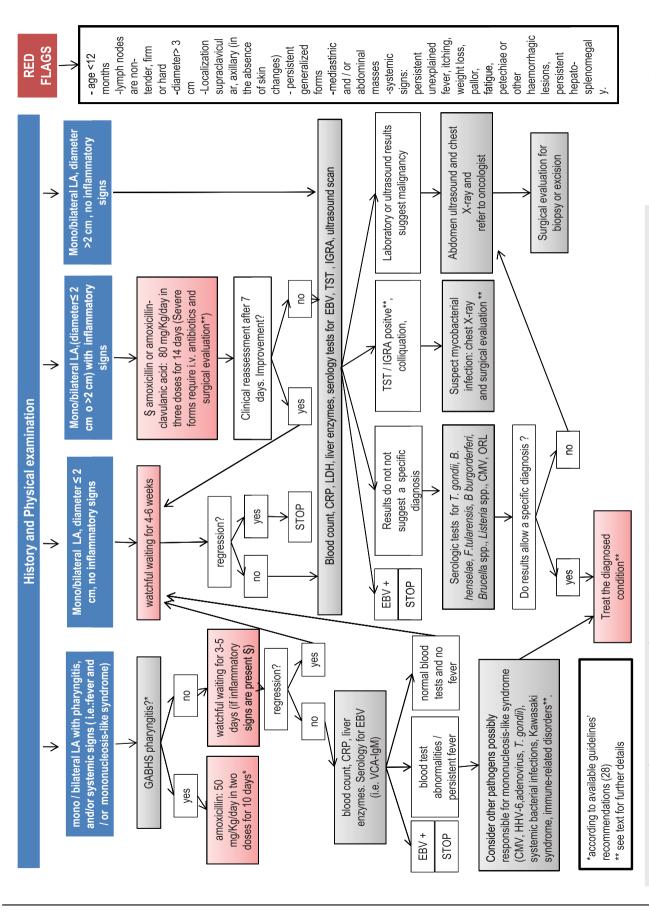


Figure 1. Algorithm for the management of cervical lymphadenopathy in children. LA: lymphadenopathy, CRP: C reactive protein, LDH: lactate dehydrogenase, EBV: Epstein-Barr virus, TST: tuberculin skin test, IGRA: interferon-gamma release assay.

A surgical approach may be considered, especially in the absence of response to antibiotics. [6,9,42]

When a PID is suspected on the bases of guidelines recommendations (Table 4),[28] initial laboratory testing should include screening for human immunodeficiency virus infection, complete blood count with differential, and measurement of serum immunoglobulin and complement levels. Second-level tests (i.e. lymphocyte subset analyses, the dihydrorhodamine test or the nitroblue tetrazolium NBT test) should be performed according to the immunologist's advice and following the available guidelines.

A fourth clinical scenario includes mono/bilateral lymphadenopathy with diameter >2 cm with no associated inflammatory signs. In these cases, investigations should be timely executed and empirical antibiotic therapy is not recommended. Particular attention should be given to the "red flags" reported in the algorithm, which may underline a malignancy, according the NICE guideline recommendation.[27] Investigations include a complete blood count, CRP, lactic dehydrogenase, liver enzymes, serological test for EBV, tuberculin skin test (TST), and Quantiferon Gold in Tube or T-SPOT.TB, plus an ultrasound scan.

In acute and subacute conditions, with or without inflammatory signs, a mycobacterial infection should also be investigated (Figure 1). QFT-IT or T-SPOT.TB are immunologic tests, otherwise called interferon-gamma release assay (IGRA), which investigated a cell-mediated immune response by measuring in vitro interferon-gamma production in response to stimulation by Mycobacterium tuberculosis antigens, derived from M. tuberculosis which are absent in BCG and most non-tuberculous mycobacteria. According to literature data, IGRAs seem to display higher specificity than TST for the diagnosis of active tuberculosis, since they are generally negative in patients with a positive TST due to a previous BCG vaccination or infection by non-tuberculous mycobacteria. On the other hand, a positive TST (usually with diameter 5-10 mm, but this is not an absolute cut-off) and a negative IGRA in a country with low prevalence for TB suggest a non-tuberculous mycobacterial infection. However, this interpretation of TST/IGRA discordance is not absolute. As an example, a false negative IGRA may be present in severe tuberculosis cases (i.e. miliary TB or pleuritis) or in young children. In general, both the TST and IGRA results should be interpreted with caution in children, taking into account BCG status, child's age, nutritional assessment, and immunologic status. Moreover, several infections sustained by non-tuberculous mycobacteria are associated with a concordant IGRA and TST positivity (i.e. infection by Mycobacterium marinum, Mycobacterium szulgai, Mycobacterium kansasii), since these mycobateria share with M. tuberculosis the same ESAT-6 (6 kDa early secretory antigenic) and CFP-10 (10 kDa culture filtrate antigen) encoding regions. To obtain a differential diagnosis between tuberculosis and infection by non-tuberculous mycobacteria, physicians should consider not only TST and IGRA results but also clinical/anamnestic/radiological findings, as well as results of microbiological investigations and response to eventual antitubercular therapy. Active TB disease should be considered in the presence of a recent TB contact, recent immigration or travel in a TB endemic area, suggestive findings at chest X-ray, fever/cough/weight/loss/swelling.[43] In every case, microbiological investigations should be performed according to the available TB guidelines.[44]

Nontuberculous mycobacterial lymphadenopathy is a benign condition with a spontaneous resolution, although this is often characterized by a prolonged course that adversely affects the children's and family's quality of life. Observation alone can be a strategy, although not optimal. When feasible, complete lymph node surgical excision is the most effective therapeutic option according to results of a randomized controlled trial including overall 100 children.[44] Cure rates were 96% for surgical excision and 66% for antibiotic therapy (95% confidence interval for the difference: 16-44%).[45] On the other hand, in a retrospective study including about 50 children, nonexcisional surgery was associated with a higher risk of persistent/ recurrent disease: of those who underwent complete excisional biopsy initially, 95% were cured compared with 63% patients cured with non-excisional surgery.[46] If the risk of facial nerve damage is substantial, the surgical approach may not be feasible. [46] Antibiotic therapy with clarithromycin (15 mg/kg in two divided doses) in combination with rifampicin (10–20 mg/kg in 1 daily dose) or rifabutin (5 mg/kg in one dose) or associated with ethambutol (20 mg/kg in 1 daily dose) is an alternative option in these cases.[47,48]

According to the American College of Radiology guidelines, ultrasonography scan is recommended as a first level investigation for the assessment of patients with solitary or multiple swelling of the neck. [49,50] This investigation, even if is operator-dependent, is not invasive, it does not require ionizing radiation, and sedation and has a low cost. It also allows to identify clearly the nature of lesion. In one single center observational study, among 126 children referred for lymphadenopathy, 22.2% indeed were demonstrated to suffer from another disease, mimicking lymphadenopathy, as.[51] Moreover, several ultrasound characteristics may orient the diagnosis: (a) malignancy may be suspected in case of a rounded shaped lymph node, (b) absence of hilum, (c) structural inhomogeneity, (d) extracapsular involvement and (e) chaotic lymph nodal vascularization.[50,52] However, it should be underlined that no single ultrasound feature is specific for a benign or a malignant disease. Literature data regarding the performance of ultrasound scan in differentiating benign from malignant lymphadenopathy, based on the ratio short/long axes (S/L) > 0.5, in children are contrasting. The reported predictive value for malignancy ranges from 20% to 95.8%.[25,48,51] Tashiro et al. [51] and Papakonstantinou et al. [49] reported that lymphadenopathy associated with infectious mononucleosis, bacterial lymphadenitis, lymphoma, tuberculous and non-tuberculous mycobacterial lymphadenopathy, cat scratch disease, and Kawasaki disease most often are round with S/L > 0.5. Therefore, in children, differently from adults, the lymph node shape would not allow to distinguish between benign and malignant diseases.

Considering the hilum, Papakonstantinou *et al.* [49] showed that the presence of a large hilum suggests a reactive hyperplasia (94%) such as in infectious mononucleosis, while a tight hilum is more commonly observed in or bacterial lymphadenitis or cancer, such as lymphoma.[52,53] Lymph nodes with non-tuberculous mycobacterial infection can show intranodal cystic necrosis, but the same feature is common in the event of a cancer especially in cases of Hodgkin's and NHL, after treatment.[52]

When second level investigations are recommended (Figure 1), these should include serological tests for Toxoplasma gondii, Bartonella henselae, Francisella tularensis, Borrelia burgdorferi, Brucella spp., Listeria monocytogenes, and CMV. Blood cultures should be limited to cases of systemic involvement with fever and/or suspected sepsis. Among serologic tests, determination of IgM specific for a particular micro-organism is generally useful for the diagnosis of an acute infection. T. gondii-specific IgM antibodies are in most cases detectable already after 15 days of infection.[35] However, in some circumstances, the sensitivity of specific IgM test is low or the test is not available. In these cases, the documentation of increase in specific IgG titer over time may be of help to confirm the diagnosis of acute/recent infection. The diagnosis of tularemia may be confirmed by a positive hemagglutination test and specific antibody titer >1:160 or a 4-fold increase after 2 weeks.[54] The sensitivity of the tests for Bartonellosis is very low when the ELISA test is used; indirect immunofluorescence assay is more sensitive, but not largely widespread.[55]

A chest X-ray, abdominal ultrasound, and referral to oncologist are recommended if previous investigations are not diagnostic and lymphadenopathy persists over time.

In a case of deep neck abscesses, which may require a surgical approach, or if malignancy is suspected, computerized tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) should be performed, according to ACR guidelines.[56] With respect to ultrasound scan, CT/MRI have the advantage of a higher precision in anatomical location, in the description of the shape, internal lymph nodal architecture, possible impregnation of lymph nodes, and a better characterization of the surrounding tissues. The use of FDG-PET should be limited to the assessment of the extent of any underlying disease, in the cases indicated (e.g. Hodgkin's lymphoma). The high dose of radiation is the major contraindication for this imaging in children.[56]

Literature data regarding the sensitivity and specificity of FNAB in children are conflicting. While in adults the specificity and sensitivity for the diagnosis of malignancy by FNAB are reported to be high [respectively 85–95% and 98–100%], the results are less encouraging in children, ranging from 63% to 85%.[57] The performance of FNAB in children is operator-dependent; the whole lymph node architecture is not evident; and high rate of false-negative results does not allow a definitive

diagnosis in many cases. Therefore, the use of FNAB in in children has been not recommended, in general, by the panel, especially in case of suspected malignancy. Excisional biopsy is recommended when the first- and second-level investigations did not allow to reach a final diagnosis, and, in particular, in the presence of at least one of the following criteria: tender lymph nodes larger than 2 cm that is not reduced in size over a period of 4-6 weeks or does not normalize over a period of 8-12 weeks; localization at risk for malignancy (e.g., supraclavicular region); hard, fixed, and/or not painful lymph node; persistent systemic symptoms (fever with no known cause, night sweats, weight loss >10%).[27] Excisional biopsy should be performed on the largest lymph node, and capsule should be removed intact. When biopsy/excision is performed, appropriate histopathological analysis testing should be performed. If possible specimens should be immediately submitted fresh to the laboratory immediately after collection (within 30 minutes from excision).[58] Samples need to be processed such that investigations can be carried out if required, including microscopy on appropriately fixed and stained samples; immunological investigations by immunohistochemistry and/or flowcytometry; cytogenetic analysis by Giemsa-banding (G-banding); FISH on cell suspensions, films, imprints or paraffin sections; molecular genetic analysis by PCR, real-time PCR, or gene sequencing.[58]

# **Conclusions**

Comprehensive reviews of cervical lymphadenopathy in children have been previously published.[2-5] However, there is still no consensus for a definitive approach to the management of this condition. The purpose of our algorithm is to assist pediatricians in the diagnosis and timely treatment of cervical lymphadenopathy, suggesting situations in which a watchful waiting may be considered a safe approach, those in which empiric antibiotic therapy should be administered and those requiring a timely diagnostic workup, considering the high risk for a severe underling disease. The four scenarios described in our algorithm are the most frequent ones, according to literature reports. However, a child may have characteristics intermediate between two situations or evolving from one situation into the other, and an individualized diagnostic workup may be necessary. However, the algorithm is a useful evidence-based tool for the management of children with cervical lymphadenopathy, allowing a focused strategy according to the child's history and clinical situation, and a rational use of investigations. Further studies are needed for its validation in the clinical practice.

# Financial & competing interests disclosure

The authors have no other relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript apart from those disclosed.

# **Key issues**

- The vast majority of children with cervical lymphadenopathy has with a benign self-limiting condition and cancer occurs at a rate lower than 1%, but >25% of malignant pediatric cancers involve the head and neck regions.
- The present practical algorithm may be followed in order to select children at risk for complex diseases requiring urgent referral to the oncologist (indicated by the red flags), those requiring laboratory tests, imaging investigations or tissue sampling, and those requiring an empirical antibiotic therapy or a watchful waiting.
- A careful follow-up is recommended in every child, since any lymphadenopathy which does not regress in 4–6 weeks or incompletely resolves in 8–12 weeks should be investigated.
- Ultrasonography scan is recommended as a first-level investigation. However, no single ultrasound feature is specific for a benign or a malignant disease.
- Fine needle aspiration biopsy (FNAB) in children is poorly useful, in general, in Western countries, especially in case of suspected malignancy, due to high proportion of false-negative results.
- Excisional biopsy is recommended in the suspicion of cancer or when the first- and second-level investigations did not allow to reach a final diagnosis.
- In nontuberculous mycobacterial lymphadenopathy, when feasible, complete lymph node surgical excision is the most effective therapeutic option.

#### References

Reference annotations

- \* Of interest
- \*\* Of considerable interest
- Larsson LO, Bentzon MW, Berg Kelly K, et al. Palpable lymph nodes of the neck in Swedish schoolchildren. Acta Paediatr. 1994;83:1091–1094.
- Penn EB Jr, Goudy SL. Pediatric inflammatory adenopathy. Otolaryngol Clin North Am. 2015;48:137–151.
- Rosenberg TL, Nolder AR. Pediatric cervical lymphadenopathy. Otolaryngol Clin North Am. 2014;47:721–731.
- Gosche JR, Vick L. Acute, subacute, and chronic cervical lymphadenitis in children. Semin Pediatr Surg. 2006;15:99–106.
- King D, Ramachandra J, Yeomanson D. Lymphadenopathy in children: refer or reassure? Arch Dis Child Educ Pract Ed. 2014;99:101–110.
- Leung AK, Davies HD. Cervical lymphadenitis: etiology, diagnosis, and management. Curr Infect Dis Rep. 2009;11:183–189.
- \*7. Fragkandrea I, Nixon JA, Panagopoulou P. Signs and symptoms of childhood cancer: a guide for early recognition. Am Fam Phy. 2013;88:185–192. A review on possible indicators of cancer.
- Aqrabawi HE, Abu-Zeid AF, Dahabreh MM, et al. Cervical lymphadenopathy in children: a diagnostic approach. JRMS. 2011;18:32–35.
- Friedmann AM. Evaluation and management of lymphadenopathy in children. Pediatr Rev. 2008;29:53–60.

- Nield LS, Kamat D. Lymphadenopathy in children: when and how to evaluate. Clin Pediatr. 2004;43:25–33.
- \*\*11. Locke R, Comfort R, Kubba H. When does an enlarged cervical lymph node in a child need excision? A systematic review. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2014;78:393–401. Comprehensive review on evaluation of cancer risk in children with lymphadenopathy.
- Meier JD, Grimmer JF. Evaluation and management of neck masses in children. Am Fam Phy. 2014;89:353–358.
- Staufner C, Sommerburg O, Holland-Cunz S. Algorithm for early diagnosis in nontuberculous mycobacterial lymphadenitis. Acta Paediatr. 2012;101: e382–385.
- Costa de Araujo P, Battisti O. [How to explore ... a cervical mass in the child]. Rev Med Liege. 2010;65:40–45.
- 15. Il Programma Nazionale per le Linee Guida (PNLG). Methodological handbook-how to produce, disseminate and update clinical practice recommendations. 2009 [cited 2014 Dec 30]. Available from: http://www.pnlg.it/en\_method
- Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Netwok (SIGN). 2011 [cited 2015 Oct 10].
   Available from: http://www.sign.ac.uk/
- Guidelines for the planning and management of NIH Consensus Development Conferences Online. Bethesda (MD): National Institutes of Health, Office of the Director, Office of Medical Applications of Research; 1993. Updated October 2001.

- McCulloh RJ, Alverson B. Cervical lymphadenitis. Hosp Pediatr. 2011;1:52–54.
- \*19. Citak EC, Koku N, Demirci M, et al. A retrospective chart review of evaluation of the cervical lymphadenopathies in children. Auris Nasus Larynx. 2011;38:618–621. A retrospective study on the clinical presentation of different types of lymphadenopathy in children.
- Criado PR, Avancini J, Santi CG, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): a complex interaction of drugs, viruses and the immune system. Isr Med Assoc J. 2012;14:577–582.
- Pangalis GA, Vassilakopoulos TP, Boussiotis VA, et al. Clinical approach to lymphadenopathy. Semin Oncol. 1993;20:570–582.
- Oguz A, Karadeniz C, Temel EA, et al. Evaluation of peripheral lymphadenopathy in children. Pediatr Hematol Oncol. 2006;23:549–561.
- Karaman A, Karaman I, Cavuşoğlu YH, et al. The ongoing problem with peripheral lymphadenopathies: which ones are malignant? Pediatr Surg Int. 2010;26:247–250.
- Papadopouli E, Michailidi E, Papadopoulou E, et al. Cervical lymphadenopathy in childhood epidemiology and management. Pediatr Hematol Oncol. 2009;26:454–460.
- Wang J, Pei G. Yan J et al. Unexplained cervical lymphadenopathy in children: predictive factors for malignancy. J Pediatr Surg. 2010;45:784–788.

- Pandey A, Kureel SN, Pandey J, et al. Chronic cervical lymphadenopathy in children: role of ultrasonography. J Indian Assoc Pediatr Surg. 2012;17:58–62.
- \*\*27. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (2005) Referral for suspected cancer NICE). [cited 2015 Sep 10]. Available from: https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng12. UK Guideline for the evaluation of adults and children with suspected cancer
- \*28. Hausmann O, Warnatz K. Immunodeficiency in adults a practical guide for the allergist. Allergo J Int. 2014;23:261–268.
- Goldblatt D. Recent advances in chronic granulomatous disease. J Infect. 2014;69 (Suppl 1):S32–35.
- \*30. Shah S, Wu E, Rao VK, et al. Autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome: an update and review of the literature. Curr Allergy Asthma Rep. 2014;14:462.
- Pignataro L, Torretta S, Capaccio P, et al. Unusual otolaryngological manifestations of certain systemic bacterial and fungal infections in children. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2009;73(Suppl 1): S33–37.
- Singavi AK, Harrington AM, Fenske TS. Post-transplant lymphoproliferative disorders. Cancer Treat Res. 2015;165:305–327.
- Chiappini E, Principi N, Mansi N, et al. Management of acute pharyngitis in children: summary of the Italian National Institute of Health guidelines. Clin Ther. 2012;34:1442–1458.
- 34. Newburger JW, Takahashi M, Gerber MA, et al. Diagnosis, treatment, and long-term management of Kawasaki disease: a statement for health professionals from the committee on Rheumatic fever, endocarditis and Kawasaki disease, council on cardiovascular disease in the young, American Heart Association. Circulation. 2004;110:2747–2751.
- Dulin MF, Kennard TP, Leach L, et al. Management of cervical lymphadenitis in children. Am Fam Phy. 2008;78:1097–1098.
- Twist CJ, Link MP. Assessment of lymphadenopathy in children. Pediatr Clin North Am. 2002;49:1009–1025.
- Della Monica M, Mauri M, Scarano F, et al. The Salernitan school of medicine: women, men, and children. A syndromological review of the oldest medical

- school in the western world. Am J Med Genet. 2013;161:809–816.
- Spyridis P, Maltezou HC, Scondras C, et al. Mycobacterial cervical lymphadenitis in children: clinical and laboratory factors of importance for differential diagnosis. Scand J Infect Dis. 2001;33:362–366.
- Guss J, Kazahaya K. Antibiotic-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in community- acquired pediatric neck abscesses. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2007;71:943– 948.
- Gagliotti C, Monaco M, Sabia C, et al. Staphylococcus aureus in a northern Italian region: phenotypic and molecular characterization. Scand J Infect Dis. 2012;44:24–28.
- 41. Marchese A, Gualco L, Maioli E, et al. Molecular analysis and susceptibility patterns of meticillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) strains circulating in the community in the Ligurian area, a northern region of Italy: emergence of USA300 and EMRSA-15 clones. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2009;34:424–428.
- Soldes OS, Younger JG, Hirschl RB. Predictors of malignancy in childhood peripheral lymphadenopathy. J Pediatr Surg. 1999;34:1447–1452.
- Mandell DL, Wald ER, Michaels MG, et al. Management of nontuberculous mycobacterial cervical lymphadenitis. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2003;129:341–344.
- \*\*44. National Collaborating Centre for Chronic Conditions (UK); Centre for Clinical Practice at NICE (UK)
  Tuberculosis: clinical diagnosis and management of tuberculosis, and measures for its prevention and control. London:
  National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (UK); 2011. [cited 2015 Sept 10]. Availabe from: https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/cg117. UK guidelines for the management of tuberculosis.
- \*\*45. Lindeboom JA, Kuijper EJ, Bruijnesteijn van Coppenraet ES, et al. Surgical excision versus antibiotic treatment for nontuberculous mycobacterial cervicofacial lymphadenitis in children: a multicenter, randomized, controlled trial. Clin Infect Dis. 2007;44:1057–1064. Randomized clinical trial demonstrating superiority of surgical excision of antibiotic treatment.
- 46. Jl W, Bond J, Sykes KJ, et al. Treatment outcomes for nontuberculous mycobacterial cervicofacial lymphadenitis in children based on the type of surgical intervention.

- Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2008;138:566–571. Study demonstrating the importance of a complete excision in order to achieve a complete resolution.
- Yaris N, Cakir M, Sözen E, et al. Analysis of children with peripheral lymphadenopathy. Clin Pediatr (Phila). 2006;45:544–549.
- Niedzielska G, Kotowski M, Niedzielski A, et al. Cervical lymphadenopathy in children incidence and diagnostic management. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2007;71:51–56.
- Papakonstantinou O, Bakantaki A, Paspalaki P, et al. High resolution and color Doppler ultrasonography of cervical lymphadenopathy in children. Acta Radiol. 2001;42:470–476.
- Ingolfsdottir M, Balle V, Hahn CH. Evaluation of cervical lymphadenopathy in children: advantages and drawbacks of diagnostic methods. Dan Med J. 2013;60:4667.
- 51. Tashiro N, Matsubara T, Uchida M, et al. Ultrasonographic evaluation of cervical lymph nodes in Kawasaki disease. Pediatrics. 2002:109:E77–7.
- \*\*52. Ludwig BJ, Wang J, Nadgir RN, et al. Imaging of cervical lymphadenopathy in children and young adults. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2012;199:1105–1113. Study demonstrating the role of imaging in children.
  - Haber HP, Warmann SW, Fuchs J. Cervical atypical mycobacterial lymphadenitis in childhood: findings on sonography. Ultraschall Med. 2006;27:462–466.
  - 54. Kaya A, Deveci K, Uysal IO, et al.. Tularemia in children: evaluation of clinical, laboratory and therapeutic features of 27 tularemia cases. Turk J Pediatr. 2012;54:105–112.
- 55. Tsuruoka K, Tsuneoka H, Kawano M, et al. Evaluation of IgG ELISA using N-lauroyl-sarcosinesoluble proteins of *Bartonella henselae* for highly specific serodiagnosis of cat scratch disease. Diagno Microbiol Infect Dis. 2012;74:230–235.
- Beitler JJ. American college of radiology appropriateness criteria. Oral Oncol. 2011;47:553.
- Anne S, Teot LA, Mandell DL. Fine needle aspiration biopsy: role in diagnosis of pediatric head and neck masses. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2008;72:1547–1553.
- Wilkins BS. Pitfalls in lymphoma pathology: avoiding errors in diagnosis of lymphoid tissues. J Clin Pathol. 2011;64:466–476.