

FROM BLOODWORK TO BRAIN IMAGING: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY REVIEW OF DIAGNOSTIC APPROACHES IN NEONATAL SURGERY

Haziel Rynjah^{1*}, Khilbar Sonowal², Fidelity Rynjah³, Ireen Mirza⁴

^{1*}Assistant Professor, Department of Optometry, University of Science & Technology Meghalaya,
Email – hazielrynjah12@gmail.com

²Master in Optometry, Email - sonowalkhilbar@gmail.com

³Community Health worker, Department of Medical Laboratory, The Inclen Trust International, Somaarth,
Email – fidelityrynjah@gmail.com

⁴Master in Optometry, Email- ireenmirza55@gmail.com

*Corresponding author:

hazielrynjah12@gmail.com

Abstract

Purpose: Neonatal surgery requires precise diagnostic pathways to ensure optimal outcomes in this highly vulnerable population. This review synthesizes current evidence across three major diagnostic pillars: laboratory investigations, radiological imaging, and ophthalmic or visual assessments. By exploring the evolving role of biochemical markers, neuroimaging, and ocular evaluations, we highlight how an integrated diagnostic model improves perioperative decision making, early detection of complications, and long term monitoring in neonatal surgical care. The review also examines recent technological advancements including point of care testing, low-dose imaging, and AI supported interpretation tools, which promise to enhance diagnostic precision while minimizing risks.

Keywords: Neonatal surgery, laboratory diagnostics, radiological imaging, ophthalmic, artificial intelligence

Introduction

Neonatal surgery represents one of the most delicate and complex areas of pediatric medicine, requiring rapid, accurate, and minimally invasive diagnostic strategies¹. The neonatal period is marked by significant physiological immaturity, limited physiological reserves, and heightened vulnerability to infections, fluid imbalances, and neurological damage. These factors make early and precise diagnosis critical not only for surgical planning but also for ensuring optimal perioperative and postoperative outcomes².

Historically, neonatal surgical diagnostics relied heavily on clinical examination and basic radiographs. However, advances in laboratory science, medical imaging, and ophthalmic technology have led to the emergence of a multidimensional approach, combining biochemical, structural, and functional assessments³. Each diagnostic modality laboratory investigations, radiological imaging, and ocular evaluation contributes unique and complementary information that collectively guides clinicians in the evaluation of congenital anomalies, infections, trauma, and complications associated with surgical interventions⁴.

Laboratory tests offer essential biochemical and hematological insights, enabling early detection of infection, metabolic derangements, and organ dysfunction⁴. Radiological imaging provides non-invasive visualization of internal anatomy, aiding in the diagnosis of congenital malformations, intracranial pathologies, and gastrointestinal obstructions^{5,6}. Meanwhile, ocular assessments though often underutilized can reveal early signs of systemic or neurological compromise, such as retinopathy of prematurity, intracranial hemorrhage, or congenital eye anomalies.

This review aims to provide an interdisciplinary synthesis of current diagnostic approaches used in neonatal surgical care. By examining the roles of blood-based investigations, advanced imaging techniques, and ocular screening tools, we highlight the necessity of a comprehensive diagnostic strategy that integrates multiple domains of neonatal care. Furthermore, we explore emerging technologies, such as point of care diagnostics and artificial intelligence, which are poised to enhance diagnostic precision while minimizing procedural risks. In doing so, this review underscores the importance of collaboration among neonatologists, pediatric surgeons, radiologists, laboratory scientists, and ophthalmologists in delivering safe and effective care to the surgical neonate.

Laboratory Diagnostics in Neonatal Surgery

Laboratory investigations form a cornerstone in the early diagnosis, surgical planning, and postoperative monitoring of neonates undergoing surgical procedures. Hematological parameters such as hemoglobin, hematocrit, total and differential leukocyte counts, and platelet levels provide critical insights into the physiological status of neonates⁶. Anemia, thrombocytopenia, or leukocytosis may indicate underlying pathology, ongoing infection, or surgical complications. These markers also guide transfusion decisions and antibiotic initiation, particularly in cases involving sepsis or gastrointestinal perforations⁷. Biochemical parameters, including serum electrolytes, renal and liver function tests, are essential in preoperative assessment and fluid management. Neonates are particularly susceptible to electrolyte imbalances due to immature renal function, and any surgical intervention may exacerbate fluid shifts and metabolic instability. Monitoring levels of sodium, potassium, calcium, urea, creatinine, bilirubin, and liver enzymes enables clinicians to anticipate and correct abnormalities that may compromise surgical outcomes⁷.

Inflammatory and infection-related biomarkers such as C-reactive protein (CRP), procalcitonin, and interleukins play a pivotal role in the early identification of sepsis and systemic inflammation. In conditions like necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), these markers are invaluable in determining disease severity and guiding the need for surgical intervention⁸. Serial measurements also help monitor response to therapy and detect emerging complications.

Point of care testing (POCT) has revolutionized neonatal diagnostics by providing rapid, bedside assessment of vital parameters such as glucose, blood gases, lactate, and bilirubin⁸. In surgical settings, the ability to instantly monitor acid-base status and perfusion indicators enhances decision-making during critical periods, including anaesthesia administration, intraoperative monitoring, and immediate postoperative care. The integration of POCT with centralized laboratory systems supports a responsive and dynamic clinical workflow in neonatal intensive care units (NICUs)⁹.

Radiological Imaging in Neonates

Radiological imaging is indispensable in neonatal surgical diagnostics, offering real-time insights into anatomical structures, congenital anomalies, and postoperative complications. Plain radiography remains the first-line modality due to its accessibility, speed, and broad applicability. Chest and abdominal radiographs are routinely used to identify pneumonia, pneumothorax, bowel obstruction, and line placements¹⁰. In surgical neonates, timely radiographs can guide the management of conditions such as esophageal atresia, diaphragmatic hernia, and intestinal perforation.

Ultrasonography (USG) is particularly advantageous in neonatal care due to its non-invasive nature and absence of ionizing radiation. Cranial ultrasound is widely used for detecting intraventricular hemorrhage (IVH), periventricular leukomalacia (PVL), and hydrocephalus with critical findings in neonates undergoing or recovering from neurosurgical procedures¹¹. Abdominal ultrasound aids in diagnosing conditions such as pyloric stenosis, intussusception, or renal anomalies, and is also employed in the evaluation of bowel perfusion in NEC. The portability of ultrasound machines allows bedside imaging in NICUs, eliminating the risks associated with transporting critically ill infants.

Advanced imaging modalities such as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) provide detailed anatomical visualization and are invaluable in complex or uncertain cases¹². CT scans, despite concerns about radiation exposure, are occasionally employed for rapid assessment of craniofacial trauma, thoracic malformations, or urgent intracranial pathology. MRI, on the other hand, offers superior soft-tissue contrast and is the gold standard for central nervous system imaging. Its use, however, is often limited by the need for sedation and longer scan times.

Radiology also plays a crucial role in confirming the placement of intravascular and enteral devices. X-ray imaging is routinely used to verify the position of peripherally inserted central catheters (PICCs), umbilical lines, endotracheal tubes, and feeding tubes¹³. Misplacement of these devices can lead to serious complications such as pneumothorax, pericardial effusion, or bowel perforation, making radiological validation a standard protocol in neonatal surgical care.

Ophthalmic Assessment in Neonates

Although often overlooked in the context of surgery, ophthalmic and optometric evaluations contribute significantly to the comprehensive diagnostic workup of neonates, particularly those in intensive care. Retinal screening for retinopathy of prematurity (ROP) is critical in neonates with prolonged oxygen exposure or those born before 32 weeks of gestation¹⁴. Surgical neonates, especially those with underlying systemic disorders or hypoxic events, are at increased risk for ROP, and early detection can prevent vision-threatening complications.

Red reflex testing is a simple yet powerful tool to identify congenital cataracts, retinoblastoma, and other retinal or lens abnormalities. This test is recommended as part of routine neonatal screening and should be incorporated into the preoperative evaluation of neonates undergoing head or eye-related surgeries¹⁵. An abnormal red reflex may indicate ocular pathology requiring immediate referral or alteration in surgical planning.

Advanced ocular imaging techniques, including optical coherence tomography (OCT) and wide-field digital fundus photography, have gained traction in neonatal units. These tools provide high-resolution images of the retina, optic nerve, and anterior segment structures, aiding in the diagnosis of subtle or complex ocular disorders^{14,16}. Bedside imaging using portable devices allows for non-invasive and detailed assessments, minimizing the need for neonatal transport or sedation. Ocular findings may also serve as indicators of broader systemic or neurological conditions. For instance, optic nerve pallor or retinal hemorrhages can suggest intracranial abnormalities, birth trauma, or coagulation disorders¹⁶. Therefore, collaboration between ophthalmologists, neonatologists, and pediatric surgeons enhances diagnostic accuracy and ensures that ocular signs are not overlooked in the surgical neonate.

Integrating Diagnostics: Case Scenarios in Neonatal Surgery

A multidisciplinary diagnostic approach becomes especially evident in complex clinical scenarios. For example, in a neonate suspected of necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), laboratory findings such as elevated CRP and leukocytosis, in conjunction with abdominal radiographs showing pneumatosis intestinalis and confirmatory ultrasound revealing bowel wall thickening, provide a composite picture that guides surgical intervention^{6,17}. In another scenario, a neonate with rapidly enlarging head circumference may undergo cranial ultrasound followed by MRI to assess for hydrocephalus or intracranial hemorrhage, with concurrent ophthalmic evaluation to detect papilledema or retinal hemorrhages¹⁶.

In congenital heart disease, a full understanding of structural and functional abnormalities is achieved through the integration of multiple diagnostic tools. Echocardiography assesses cardiac anatomy and function^{18,19}. Arterial blood gas analysis provides information on oxygenation and acid-base balance. Retinal evaluations can reveal complications related to hypoxia or systemic disease^{14,20}.

Similarly, a neonate with a suspected metabolic disorder may present with a constellation of findings. These include seizures, abnormal MRI results, and altered liver function tests. Additionally, ocular signs such as lens dislocation or retinal degeneration may be observed. Together, these features often suggest a syndromic or genetic disorder, warranting multidisciplinary diagnostic coordination.

Innovations in Neonatal Diagnostics

Recent advances in biomedical technology have led to the development of novel diagnostic tools that are transforming neonatal surgical care²¹. Among these, molecular diagnostics and genomics have gained increasing attention. Rapid whole-genome sequencing and targeted genetic panels can now identify rare congenital disorders, chromosomal abnormalities, and inherited metabolic diseases within days information that can drastically influence surgical decision-making and long-term management²².

Point of care ultrasonography (POCUS), performed by neonatologists or surgeons at the bedside, allows for immediate evaluation of cardiac function, fluid status, and abdominal pathology. This reduces the need for transport to radiology departments and accelerates time-sensitive clinical decisions²³. Similarly, portable MRI scanners are being tested for neonatal use, offering advanced imaging capabilities directly within the NICU environment.

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) are emerging as powerful tools in neonatal diagnostics. Algorithms trained on large datasets can aid in the early detection of sepsis, respiratory distress, or neurologic injury based on subtle patterns in vital signs, lab values, and imaging studies²⁴. AI-enhanced retinal screening for retinopathy of prematurity and automated interpretation of chest X-rays are already showing promising results²⁵.

Wearable biosensors and wireless monitoring devices now allow continuous assessment of vital signs, oxygen saturation, and perfusion indices with minimal skin contact—an important consideration for fragile neonates. These technologies not only reduce handling and infection risk but also provide high-resolution data streams that support predictive analytics for clinical deterioration.

Challenges and Limitations

Although significant advancements have been made, numerous obstacles still hinder the effective implementation of comprehensive diagnostic strategies in neonatal surgical care. One major issue is the limited blood volume of neonates, which restricts the frequency and volume of laboratory testing²⁶. This necessitates the use of micro-sampling techniques and prioritization of essential tests. Availability of advanced imaging and molecular diagnostic tools is still uneven,

especially in regions with limited healthcare resources. High costs, lack of specialized equipment, and scarcity of trained personnel often hinder the routine use of modalities such as MRI or genetic testing. Even in well-equipped centers, logistical barriers like scheduling delays and transport risks can impede timely diagnosis^{26,27}.

Interpreting diagnostic results in neonates is inherently complex due to their rapidly changing physiology and age-specific reference ranges. False positives or nonspecific findings may lead to unnecessary interventions, while subtle abnormalities might be overlooked in the absence of clinical correlation²⁷.

Ethical concerns also arise with the use of AI and genetic testing, particularly regarding data privacy, incidental findings, and decision-making in uncertain prognoses. Ensuring informed consent and integrating new technologies responsibly into neonatal care pathways remains an ongoing challenge²⁸.

Conclusion

The diagnosis of surgical conditions in neonates demands a multifaceted and coordinated approach, integrating laboratory, radiological, and ophthalmic assessments. Each diagnostic domain offers unique insights that, when interpreted together, enhance clinical accuracy and ensure timely intervention. Technological innovations ranging from molecular diagnostics and AI to portable imaging and wearable sensors are expanding the capabilities of clinicians to diagnose and manage complex neonatal conditions more precisely and less invasively. However, translating these advancements into routine clinical practice requires overcoming challenges related to resource availability, technical expertise, and ethical governance. A balanced, patient-centered framework that emphasizes collaboration among neonatologists, pediatric surgeons, radiologists, laboratory scientists, and ophthalmologists is essential. As neonatal surgical care continues to evolve, so too must the strategies we use to understand and monitor our most vulnerable patients. A comprehensive, interdisciplinary diagnostic model holds the key to improving both immediate surgical outcomes and long-term developmental trajectories in neonates.

Reference

1. Saha, U. (2023). General Anatomical and Physiological Considerations in the Newborn and Neonates. In *Clinical Anesthesia for the Newborn and the Neonate* (pp. 137-204). Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore.
2. Malhotra, A., Allison, B. J., Castillo-Melendez, M., Jenkin, G., Polglase, G. R., & Miller, S. L. (2019). Neonatal morbidities of fetal growth restriction: pathophysiology and impact. *Frontiers in endocrinology*, 10, 55.
3. Kirks, D. R., & Griscom, N. T. (Eds.). (1998). *Practical pediatric imaging: diagnostic radiology of infants and children*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
4. Berger, D. (1999). A brief history of medical diagnosis and the birth of the clinical laboratory. Part 1—Ancient times through the 19th century. *MLO Med Lab Obs*, 31(7), 28-30.
5. Gonzales, C. F., Becker, M. H., & Flanagan, J. C. (Eds.). (2012). *Diagnostic imaging in ophthalmology*. Springer Science & Business Media.
6. Chirico, G., & Loda, C. (2011). Laboratory aid to the diagnosis and therapy of infection in the neonate. *Pediatric reports*, 3(1), e1.
7. Gorio, C., Molinari, A. C., Martini, T., Ferretti, A., Albrici, G., Carracchia, G., ... & Santoro, R. C. (2025). Hemostasis Laboratory Diagnostics in Newborns. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 14(14), 5068.
8. Plebani, M., Nichols, J. H., Luppa, P. B., Greene, D., Sciacovelli, L., Shaw, J., ... & Lippi, G. (2025). Point-of-care testing: state-of-the art and perspectives. *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine (CCLM)*, 63(1), 35-51.
9. Katsaras, G. N., Gialamprinou, D., Papacharalampous, E., Chatziioannidis, I., & Mitsiakos, G. (2022). Neonatal bleeding disorders. A practical diagnostic approach. *Journal of Pediatric and Neonatal Individualized Medicine (JPNIM)*, 11(2), e110231-e110231.
10. Morris, S. J. (2003). Radiology of the chest in neonates. *Current Paediatrics*, 13(6), 460-468.
11. Reddy, U. M., Filly, R. A., & Copel, J. A. (2008). Prenatal imaging: ultrasonography and magnetic resonance imaging. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*, 112(1), 145-157.
12. Barrera, C. A., Cohen, S. A., Sankar, W. N., Ho-Fung, V. M., Sze, R. W., & Nguyen, J. C. (2019). Imaging of developmental dysplasia of the hip: ultrasound, radiography and magnetic resonance imaging. *Pediatric radiology*, 49(12), 1652-1668.
13. Aspelund, G., Fingeret, A., Gross, E., Kessler, D., Keung, C., Thirumoorthi, A., ... & Ruzal-Shapiro, C. (2014). Ultrasonography/MRI versus CT for diagnosing appendicitis. *Pediatrics*, 133(4), 586-593.
14. American Academy of Pediatrics Section on Ophthalmology, American Academy of Ophthalmology, American Association for Pediatric Ophthalmology and Strabismus, American Association of Certified Orthoptists, Fierson, W. M., Saunders, R. A., ... & Siatkowski, R. M. (2013). Screening examination of premature infants for retinopathy of prematurity. *Pediatrics*, 131(1), 189-195.
15. Covenant, A. C., & Circumcision, R. (2010). The red reflex examination in neonates: an efficient tool for early diagnosis of congenital ocular diseases. *The Israel Medical Association Journal (IMAJ)*.
16. AlShahri, A. H. M., Alkhatami, A. M., AlAnzi, A. J. F., AlDawsar, F. M., Duheem, A., Alanzi, A. A. M., ... & Alotaibi, R. M. M. (2024). Retinal Hemorrhages: Etiologies, Diagnostic Approaches, and Management Strategies for Ocular and Systemic Disorders. *Integrative Biomedical Research*, 8(8), 1-8.
17. Chiesa, C., Panero, A., Osborn, J. F., Simonetti, A. F., & Pacifico, L. (2004). Diagnosis of neonatal sepsis: a clinical and laboratory challenge. *Clinical chemistry*, 50(2), 279-287.

18. Liu, X., Hong, H. F., Zhang, H. B., Xu, Z. M., Liu, J. F., & Zhang, H. (2020). Neonatal surgical outcomes after prenatal diagnosis of complex congenital heart disease: experiences of a perinatal integrated diagnosis and treatment program. *World Journal of Pediatrics*, 16(5), 494-501.
19. Lai, W. W., Mertens, L. L., Cohen, M. S., & Geva, T. (Eds.). (2021). *Echocardiography in pediatric and congenital heart disease: from fetus to adult*. John Wiley & Sons.
20. Bhat, V., BeLaVaL, V., Gadabanahalli, K., Raj, V., & Shah, S. (2016). Illustrated imaging essay on congenital heart diseases: multimodality approach part i: clinical perspective, anatomy and imaging techniques. *Journal of clinical and diagnostic research: JC DR*, 10(5), TE01.
21. Rajak, A. (2025). ADVANCEMENTS IN NEONATAL CARE: INNOVATIONS IN EARLY DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT. *Journal of Advanced Healthcare Research in Pediatric* p-ISSN 3051-0856 e-ISSN 3051-0864, 1(1), 01-06.
22. de Souza Diogo, Á. V., de Wite Diogo, F., Ellwanger, M. P., Ellwanger, M. P., de Oliveira, L. A. B. B., Reinert, D., ... & Munhoz, A. C. M. (2024). DEVELOPMENT OF INNOVATIVE MEDICAL DEVICES IN NEONATOLOGY: LITERATURE REVIEW. *Anais New Science Publishers| Editora Impacto*.
23. Singh, Y., Tissot, C., Fraga, M. V., Yousef, N., Cortes, R. G., Lopez, J., ... & De Luca, D. (2020). International evidence-based guidelines on Point of Care Ultrasound (POCUS) for critically ill neonates and children issued by the POCUS Working Group of the European Society of Paediatric and Neonatal Intensive Care (ESPNIC). *Critical Care*, 24(1), 65.
24. Kaur, K., Singh, C., & Kumar, Y. (2023). Diagnosis and detection of congenital diseases in new-borns or fetuses using artificial intelligence techniques: a systematic review. *Archives of Computational Methods in Engineering*, 30(5), 3031-3058.
25. McAdams, R. M., Kaur, R., Sun, Y., Bindra, H., Cho, S. J., & Singh, H. (2022). Predicting clinical outcomes using artificial intelligence and machine learning in neonatal intensive care units: a systematic review. *Journal of Perinatology*, 42(12), 1561-1575.
26. HADDERS-ALGRA, M. I. J. N. A. (2011). Challenges and limitations in early intervention. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 53, 52-55.
27. Forstmeier, W., Wagenmakers, E. J., & Parker, T. H. (2017). Detecting and avoiding likely false-positive findings—a practical guide. *Biological Reviews*, 92(4), 1941-1968.
28. Kothinti, R. R. (2024). Artificial intelligence in healthcare: Revolutionizing precision medicine, predictive analytics, and ethical considerations in autonomous diagnostics. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, 19(3), 3395-3406.