Irrespective of variations across geography, culture, and socioeconomic status, paediatric surgery differs from other surgical subspecialties. Children are not small adults. Surgery for infants and children is typically undertaken for congenital, rare, and complex conditions and the consequences of both the condition and its treatment can affect that individual for life. Above all, the surgical outcome needs to stand the test of time.

Our Lancet Series papers in this issue on advances in paediatric urology and gastroenterology highlight the transition of paediatric surgery from a focus on short-term patient survival to evidence and innovations for long-term quality of life globally. We believe the lessons and challenges have wide implications and offer insights into how knowledge gaps can be filled and new treatments designed.

Most paediatric surgery requires general anaesthesia and concern about anaesthetic agents harming the developing brain has been raised by some experimental animal studies. The 2016 US Food and Drug Administration’s warning about possible neurodevelopmental effects of anaesthetic and sedative drugs in infants younger than 3 years and in the fetus during the third trimester should, however, be interpreted with caution. Evidence of harm in human beings is inconclusive and, reassuringly, a randomised controlled trial has shown no medium-term adverse neurodevelopmental effects after a single general anaesthetic during infancy. Nevertheless, the long-term outcome of repeated or lengthy anaesthetic exposure, especially in more vulnerable subgroups such as premature infants, remains unknown. This potential risk of anaesthesia in infancy has created a dilemma about whether to delay the timing of surgery until after the age 3 years for elective conditions such as hypospadias and craniofacial anomalies in which early correction can confer functional and psychocosmetic benefits.

Surgical decisions made in infancy and childhood have even more profound effects on adult life in the management of some disorders of sexual development (DSD). In the past, decisions about genital surgery and assignment of gender were made during infancy and remained a compact between the surgical team and the parents and did not account for underlying ethical implications related to the exclusion of patient’s choice. Surgeons are now more aware of the problems arising from surgery for DSD in infancy. For example, early reduction clitoroplasty for enlarged clitoris in female DSD can compromise later sexual function, and often leads to major concerns about gender identity, body habitus, and psychosexual functioning. Although the exact timing of reconstructive surgery remains controversial, common practice follows the Chicago DSD Consensus guidelines. Ethical considerations also affect surgical management for other conditions such as total intestinal aganglionosis in which surgery results in a major health burden of life-long total parenteral nutrition. When parental wishes and surgical opinions differ, for example in end-of-life decisions for multiple anomalies, the medical community has to be prepared for ethical, legal, and public debate.

Quality of life in adults with DSD is also affected by hormonal replacement, issues with fertility, an increased risk of malignancy, and personal, family, and cultural perceptions of “normal” sex development. Many adults with complex anorectal malformations similarly experience sexual dysfunction and more than 50% of children with such congenital malformations need special education. In terms of increased risk of malignancy, there can be a predisposition to later-life malignancy inherent in the condition (eg, DSD, undescended testes, or choledochal cysts), or the actual nature of the surgical reconstruction can predispose...
to cancer (eg, gastrocystoplasty or colocystoplasty for neurogenic bladder).12,13

Successful transition of care for patients with paediatric surgical conditions from childhood to adulthood requires policy support,6 an international consensus,17 and a well developed action plan over many years. Important elements of this long-term care are for patients to become educated about their conditions and participate actively in their own care and for systematic follow-up by a multidisciplinary team of paediatric and adult specialists and health carers.18,19

Transition of care is one challenge. We must also make use of technology and science to advance paediatric surgery to benefit more patients. The effect of high-cost technology is a challenge. Although minimally invasive surgery is technically feasible for many common conditions in childhood,20 good quality evidence is scarce and uptake remains patchy in many parts of the world.21 Perhaps it is not only how you do an operation but also whether an experienced surgeon does it and where the operation is done that could provide lessons for improving paediatric surgery. Centralisation of resources and personnel to allow the development of multidisciplinary teams with sufficient surgical familiarity with rare conditions and accumulation of volume for randomised clinical trials seems an obvious solution.22 The complexity of congenital anomalies often calls for innovative solutions. Paediatric surgery has been at the forefront of surgical advances, including pioneering fetal surgery23 and tissue engineering,24 introducing an extra-uterine system for extreme prematurity,24 and developing genetic and stem-cell research such as CRISPR technology to correct underlying mutations.2

There are, of course, parts of the world where such applications are unavailable and where the provision of simple, safe surgery near the community is the priority. The Global Initiative on Children’s Surgery25 campaigns on such needs in low-income and middle-income countries. Indeed, the high cost of minimally invasive technology can be mitigated in such settings, as has been seen in China.26

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We declare no competing interests.

Sexual health, as an area of health and as a concept, has evolved during the past 40 years. WHO’s earliest deliberations on sexual health, in 1974, urged a positive approach to human sexuality, with an emphasis on pleasure, the enhancement of personal relationships, and the right to information.\(^1\) Subsequent considerations described the concept in terms of its relation with reproductive health. The 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) positioned sexual health as a subset of reproductive health.\(^2\) A decade later, WHO’s global Reproductive Health Strategy identified promotion of sexual health as one of five core aspects of reproductive and sexual health.\(^3\)

Recognising the need for further clarity, WHO published working definitions for the terms sex, sexual health, sexuality, and sexual rights.\(^4,5\) These definitions reflected progress, after ICPD, in establishing sexual health as a research and programmatic area distinct from reproductive health. In the past decade, WHO has continued to advance the notion that sexual health not only encompasses but also transcends a person’s fertility capacity and status; sexual health needs also exist before and beyond the reproductive years.\(^5–7\)

To this end, in 2017, the WHO Working Group for Operationalizing Sexual Health was convened to develop an operational framework for sexual health. The framework,\(^8\) launched on Sept 4, 2017, describes sexual health intervention areas and the inter-relationship between sexual health and reproductive health, in recognition of the synergy between intervention delivery and affected outcomes. The framework presents eight intervention areas for sexual health and reproductive health as one piece of an intertwined rosette (figure)—eg, counselling on contraception can be a crucial component of sexual health interventions,

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Figure: WHO framework for operationalising sexual health and its linkages to reproductive health