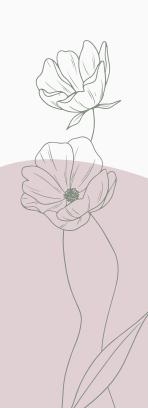
General Physical Examination



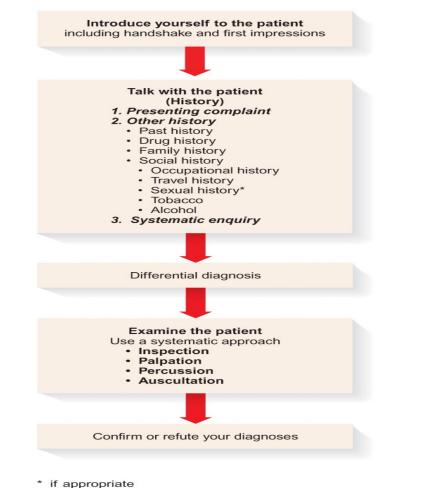


Figure 3.1: Overall plan of clinical assessment.

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1

General principles of physical examination

Your physical assessment of patients undoubtedly begins as soon as you see them.

Thus by mastering structured skills in physical examination, clinicians can improve the reliability and precision of their clinical assessment, which, together with the appropriate diagnostic investigations, lead to accurate diagnosis.





Preparing for physical examination









Step 1

Preparing For Physical Exam



Step 2

Sequance of Physical Exam



WIPPER



- 1. Wash your Hand (soap or alcohol)
- 2. Introduction and check pt detalies +- handshake*
- 3. Permission and Disscus the steps of exam with pt
- 4. Privacy *
- 5. Environment(Warm and well light room, free of intruption and noise, Equipment, couch or bed should be adjustable)
- 6. Reposition of both patient and doctor (the doctor is always on the RIGHT side)
- 7. Ask for chapiron*
- 8. Exposure the area of exam

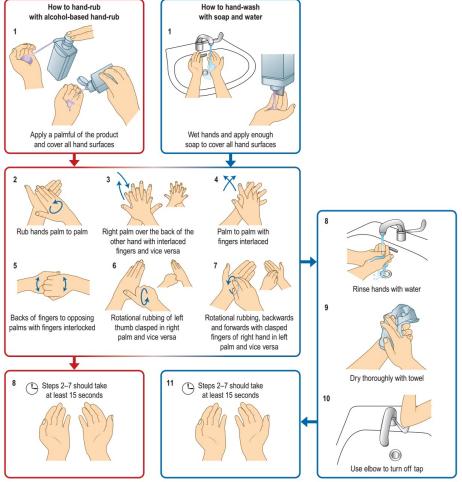


Fig. 3.1 Techniques for hand hygiene. From WHO Guidelines on Hand Hygiene in Health Care First Global Patient Safety Challenge Clean Care is Safer Care; http://www.who.int/gpsc/clean_hands_protection/en/ © World Health Organization 2009. All rights reserved.

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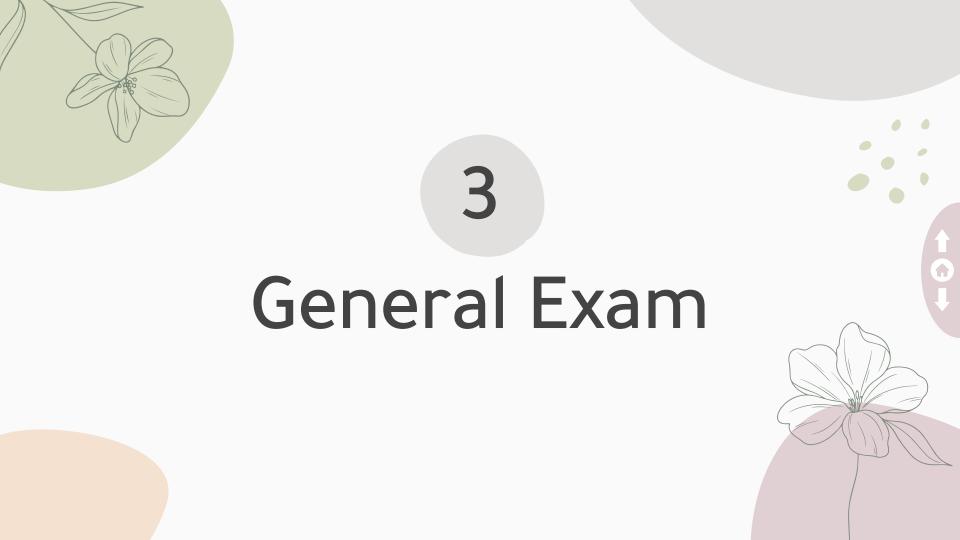
3.1 Information gleaned from a handshake

Features	Diagnosis	
Cold, sweaty hands	Anxiety	
Cold, dry hands	Raynaud's phenomenon	
Hot, sweaty hands	Hyperthyroidism	
Large, fleshy, sweaty hands	Acromegaly	
Dry, coarse skin	Regular water exposure Manual occupation Hypothyroidism	
Delayed relaxation of grip	Myotonic dystrophy	
Deformed hands/fingers	Trauma Rheumatoid arthritis Dupuytren's contracture	



Sequence for performing a physical examination

- 1. Inspection
- 2. Palpation
- 3. Percussion
- 4. Auscultation



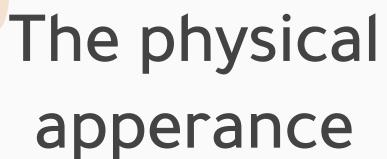




- 1. The physical apperance
- 2. The mental status (anxious, distress, confused)
- 3. Vital signs
- 4. Gait and posture
- 5. Facial Expressions
- 6. Body habitus and nutrition
- 7. Hydrational status *

- 8. Complexion
- 9. Odders
- 10. The hands
- 9. The tongue
- 10. Lymph node examination
- 11. Mass and Lumb exam
- 12. Edema











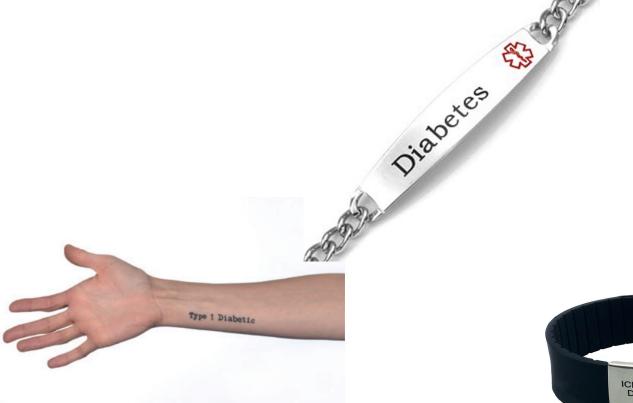
- 1- Pt general looking (stable or generally well patient, unwell, ill, in pain, comfortable)
- 2- the postion of the patient (Are they sitting up , lying on bed)
- 3- Notice the patient's clothes.(gives many clues*)
- 3- Often there will be clues to the patient's underlying medical condition either about the person *
- 4- Patients may be wearing a medical identity bracelet or other jewellery alerting you to an underlying medical condition or life-sustaining treatment.
- 5- Note any tattoos or piercings, any venepuncture marks of intravenous drug use or linear (usually transverse) scars

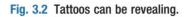


Fig. 3.3 The linear marks of intravenous injection at the right antecubital fossa.



Fig. 3.4 Scars from deliberate self-harm (cutting).











Vital sign





VITAL SIGNS

BODY TEMPERATURE



BLOOD PRESSURE



HEART RATE



RESPIRATORY RATE



PAIN



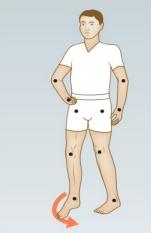








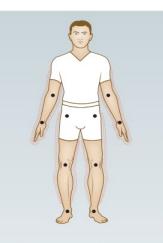




One arm held immobile and close to the side with elbow, wrist and fingers flexed Leg extended with plantar flexion of the foot On walking, the foot is dragged, scraping the toe in a circle (circumduction) Caused by upper motor neurone lesion, e.g. stroke



Steppage gait
Foot is dragged or lifted high
and slapped on to the floor
Unable to walk on the heels
Caused by foot drop owing to
lower motor neurone lesion



Sensory or cerebellar ataxia

Gait is unsteady and widebased. Feet are thrown forward and outward and brought down on the heels In sensory ataxia, patients watch the ground. With their eyes closed, they cannot stand steadily (positive Romberg sign) In cerebellar ataxia, turns are difficult and patients cannot stand steadily with feet together whether eyes are open or closed Caused by polyneuropathy or posterior column damage, e.g. syphilis



D Parkinsonian gait
Posture is stooped with head
and neck forwards
Arms are flexed at elbows and
wrists. Little arm swing
Steps are short and shuffling
and patient is slow in getting
started (festinant gait)
Caused by lesions in the basal
ganglia

Fig. 7.17 Abnormalities of gait.





Facial Expressions





Facial Expressions

3.3 Facial expression as a guide to diagnosis		
Features	Diagnosis	
Poverty of expression	Parkinsonism	
Startled expression	Hyperthyroidism	
Apathy, with poverty of expression and poor eye contact	Depression	
Apathy, with pale and puffy skin	Hypothyroidism	
Agitated expression	Anxiety, hyperthyroidism, hypomania	







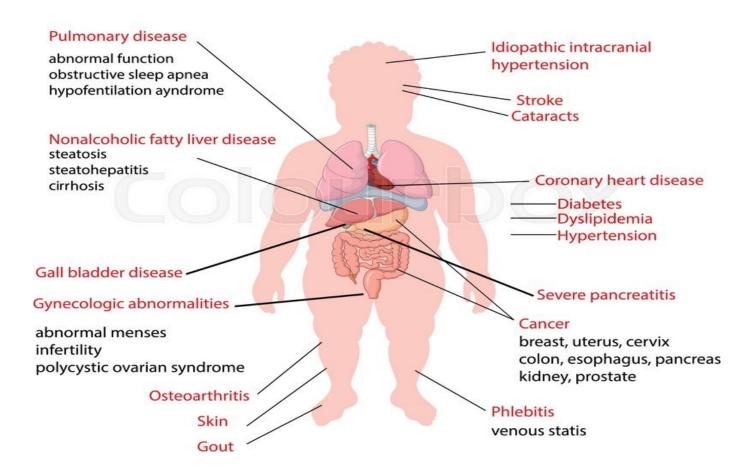


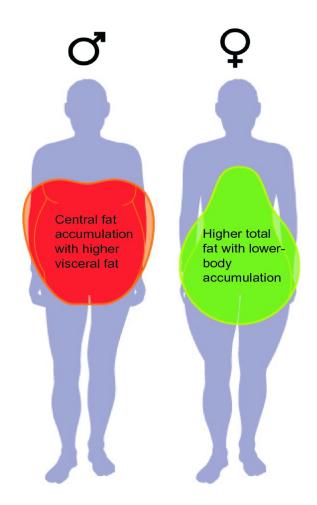
Body habitus and nutrition

3.7 The relationship between body mass index (BMI), nutritional status and ethnic group

Nutritional status	BMI non-Asian	BMI Asian
Underweight	<18.5	<18.5
Normal	18.5–24.9	18.5–22.9
Overweight	25–29.9	23-24.9
Obese	30–39.9	25-29.9
Morbidly obese	≥40	≥30

Medical Complications of Obesity





Waist-to-hip ratio can also be a useful assessment of adipose distribution:

gluteal–femoral obesity or the 'pear shape' (waist:hip ratio of ≤0.8 in females or <0.9 in males) has a better prognosis,

whereas 'apple-shaped' patients with a greater waist:hip ratio have an increased risk of coronary artery disease and the 'metabolic syndrome'

Weight loss or malnutrition

- 1. Inadequate energy consumption or utilisation (such as malabsorption, anorexia, glycosuria)
- 2. Conditions in which nutritional demand is increased (such as fever, infection, thyrotoxicosis, malignancy, surgery).
- 3. Psychiatric disease and alcohol or drug dependency may also result in weight loss.

Useful markers of malnutrition include arm muscle circumference and grip strength.





Stature

Short stature

- 1. general nutritional state
- 2. significant illness during childhood
- 3. familial (ask about the height of the patient's parents and siblings)

Loss of height is part of normal ageing but is accentuated by compression fractures of the spine due to osteoporosis, particularly in women.

Tall stature

(less common than short stature)

- 1. familial
- Pathological causes of increased height include Marfan's syndrome, prepubertal hypogonadism and gigantism.











Odours can provide clues to a patient's social or behavioural habits

- the smell of alcohol, tobacco or cannabis may be readily apparent.
- Stale urine and anaerobic skin infections also produce distinctive smells.
- Halitosis (bad breath) can be due to poor dental hygiene, gingivitis, stomatitis, atrophic rhinitis, tumours of the nasal passages or suppurative lung conditions such as lung abscess or bronchiectasis.
- ketones: a sweet smell (like nail varnish remover) due to acetone in diabetic ketoacidosis or starvation
- fetor hepaticus: the stale, 'mousy' smell of the volatile amine dimethylsulphide in patients with liver failure uraemic fetor: a fishy or ammoniacal smell on the breath in uraemia
- foul-smelling belching in patients with gastric outlet obstruction
- a faecal smell in patients with gastrocolic fistula.







deformity color tepmreature nail







Fig. 13.22 Advanced rheumatoid arthritis. Small muscle wasting, subluxation and ulnar deviation at the metacarpophalangeal joints, boutonnière deformities at the ring and little fingers, and swelling and deformity of the wrist.



Fig. 3.5 Dupuytren's contracture.

Dupuytren's contracture is a thickening of the palmar fascia causing fixed flexion deformity, and usually affects the little and ring fingers



Arachnodactyly (long, thin fingers) is typical of Marfan's syndrome



Fig. 5.8 Tobacco 'tar'-stained finger.



Fig. 3.6 Normal palms. African (left) and European (right).





3.4 The nails in systemic disease			
Nail changes	Description of nail	Differential diagnosis	
Beau's lines	Transverse grooves (see Fig. 3.7B)	Sequella of any severe systemic illness that affects growth of the nail matrix	
Clubbing	Loss of angle between nail fold and nail plate (see Fig. 3.8)	Serious cardiac, respiratory or gastrointestinal disease (see Box 3.5)	
Leuconychia	White spots, ridges or complete discoloration of nail (see Fig. 3.7C)	Trauma, infection, poisoning, chemotherapy, vitamin deficiency	
Lindsay's nails	White/brown 'half-and-half' nails (see Fig. 12.7)	Chronic kidney disease	
Koilonychia	Spoon-shaped depression of nail plate (see Fig. 3.7D)	Iron deficiency anaemia, lichen planus, repeated exposure to detergents	
Muehrcke's lines	Narrow, white transverse lines (see Fig. 12.6)	Decreased protein synthesis or protein loss	
Nail-fold telangiectasia	Dilated capillaries and erythema at nail fold (see Fig. 14.13B)	Connective tissue disorders, including systemic sclerosis, systemic lupus erythematosus, dermatomyositis	
Onycholysis	Nail separates from nail bed (see Fig. 3.7A)	Psoriasis, fungal infection, trauma, thyrotoxicosis, tetracyclines (photo-onycholysis)	
Onychomycosis	Thickening of nail plate with white, yellow or brown discoloration	Fungal infection	
Pitting	Fine or coarse pits in nail (see Fig. 3.7A)	Psoriasis (onycholysis, thickening and ridging may also be present), eczema, alopecia areata, lichen planus	
Splinter haemorrhages	Small red streaks that lie longitudinally in nail plate (see Fig. 4.5B)	Trauma, infective endocarditis	

Vellow nail syndrome

Vellow discoloration and thickening (see Fig. 14.13C)

Vellow nails

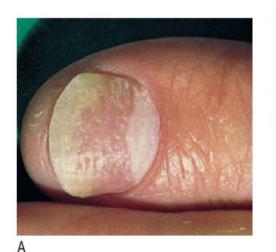








Fig. 3.7 Nail abnormalities in systemic disease. A Onycholysis with pitting in psoriasis. B Beau's lines seen after acute severe illness. C Leuconychia. D Koilonychia. (A) From Innes JA. Davidson's Essentials of Medicine. 2nd edn. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 2016.

D





Fig. 3.8 Clubbing. A Anterior view. B Lateral view.

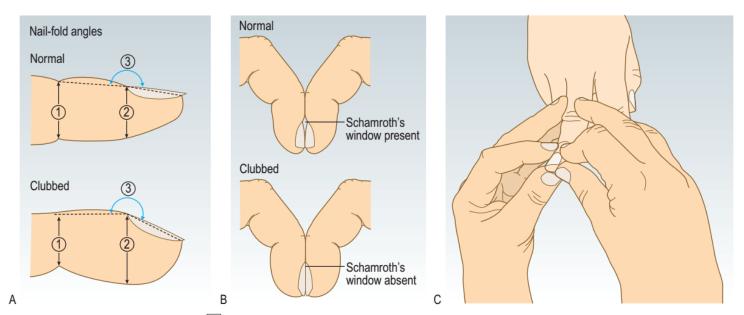


Fig. 3.9 Examining for finger clubbing. A Assessing interphalangeal depth at (1) interphalangeal joint and (2) nail bed, and nail-bed angle (3).

B Schamroth's window sign. C Assessing nail-bed fluctuation.

3.5 Causes of clubbing

Congenital or familial (5-10%)

Acquired

- Thoracic (~70%):
 - Lung cancer
 - Chronic suppurative conditions: pulmonary tuberculosis, bronchiectasis, lung abscess, empyema, cystic fibrosis
 - Mesothelioma
 - Fibroma

 Pulmonory fibr
- Pulmonary fibrosisCardiovascular:
 - Cyanotic congenital heart disease
 - Infective endocarditis
 - Arteriovenous shunts and aneurysms
- Gastrointestinal:Cirrhosis
 - Inflammatory bowel disease
 - Coeliac disease
- Others:
- Thyrotoxicosis (thyroid acropachy)
- Primary hypertrophic osteoarthropathy







Discoloration





Complexion

Unusual skin colors due to abnormal pigment deposition

- ✓ Oxyhaemoglobin/reduced heamoglobin
- ✓ Melanin
- ✓ Carotene
- ✓ Bilirubin
- ✓ Iron

Abnormal pigment deposition of drugs

- □ Bluish tinge due to sulphaemoglobin or methaemoglobin
- ☐ Yellow by mepacrine
- □ Brownish black by clofazimine
- □ Bluish grey by amiodarone
- ☐ Slate grey by phenothiazines
- ☐ Yellow-brownish tinge in CRF

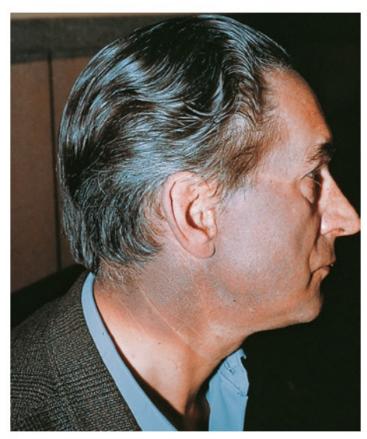


Fig. 3.14 Phenothiazine-induced pigmentation.





Pallor

causea:

Aneamia Conjunctiva, lips, tongue, nail bed

Vasoconstriction Fear, vasovagal attack

3.6 Conditions associated with facial flushing

Physiological

- Fever
- Exercise
- Heat exposure
- Emotional

Drugs (e.g. glyceryl trinitrate, calcium channel blockers, nicotinic acid)

Anaphylaxis

Endocrine

- Menopause
- Androgen deficiency (in men)
- Carcinoid syndrome
- Medullary thyroid cancer

Others

- Serotonin syndrome
- Food/alcohol ingestion
- Neurological (e.g. Frey's syndrome)
- Rosacea
- Mastocytoses



B

17 Flushing due to carcinoid syndrome. A Acute carcinoid

CYANOSIS

blue discoloration of skin and mucous membranes (deoxyHb >50g/l, O2 sat <90%)

Central

Lseen in the lips, tongue and buccal or sublingual mucosa (Fig. 3.18; see Fig. 5.12), and can accompany any disease (usually cardiac or respiratory) that results in hypoxia

Peripheral

Hands, feet, ears

Cold weather, poor peripheral circulation, venous obstruction, Raynaud's pnenomenon



Douglas et al.:MacLeod's Clinical Examination 11e



3.8 Causes of abnormal melanin production

Condition	Mechanism	
Underproduction Vitiligo (patchy depigmentation)	Autoimmune destruction of melanocytes	
Albinism	Genetic deficiency of tyrosinase	
Hypopituitarism	Reduced pituitary secretion of melanotrophic peptides, growth hormone and sex steroids	

Adrenal insufficiency (Addison's disease)
Nelson's syndrome (may occur after bilateral adrenalectomy for Cushing's disease)
Cushing's syndrome due to ectopic adrenocorticotrophic hormone secretion by tumours, e.g. small cell lung cancer

Pregnancy and oral

Haemochromatosis

contraceptives

Increased pituitary secretion of melanotrophic peptides

Increased pituitary secretion of melanotrophic peptides

melanotrophic peptides by dysregulated tumour cells

Increased levels of sex

stimulation of melanocytes

Iron deposition and

hormones

Ectopic release of

Overproduction

Vitiligo



Addison's Disease



Douglas et al.: MacLeod's Clinical Examination 11e

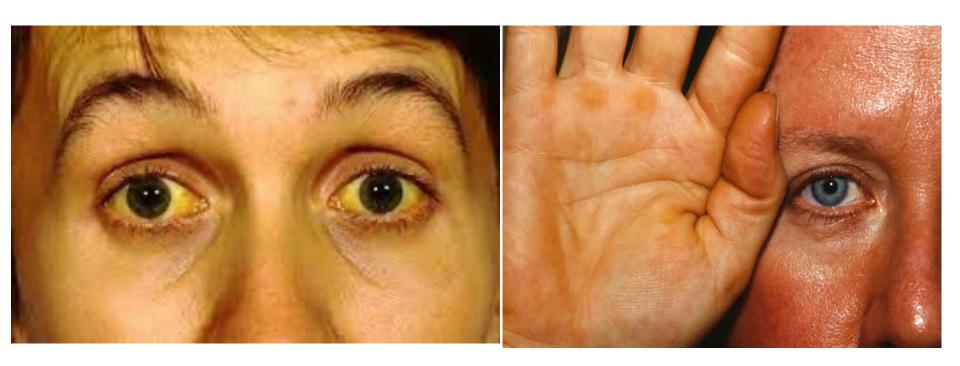
Hypercarotenaemia

yellowish discoloration of face, palms and soles, but NOT SCLERA

Jaundice

serum bilirubin >3 mg/dL

Sclera, mucous membranes and skin become yellow



Haemochromatosis



Douglas et al.: MacLeod's Clinical Examination 11e

Erythema ab igne



Douglas et al.:MacLeod's Clinical Examination 11e













Fig. 3.16 Smooth red tongue (glossitis) and angular stomatitis of iron deficiency.





Lymph nodes





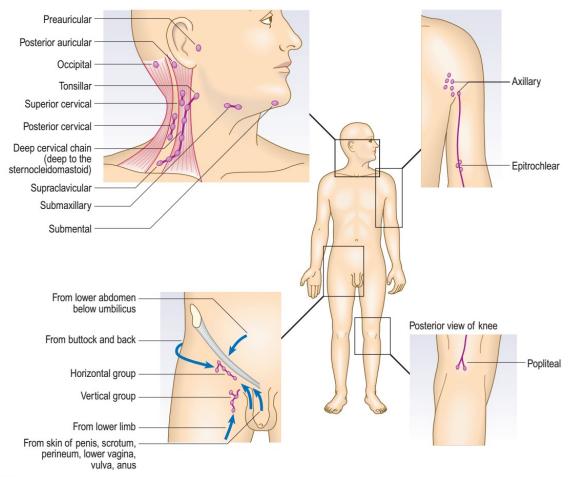


Fig. 3.26 Distribution of palpable lymph glands.



Fig. 3.27 Palpation of the cervical glands. A Examine the glands of the anterior triangle from behind, using both hands. B Examine for the scalene nodes from behind with your index finger in the angle between the sternocleidomastoid muscle and the clavicle. C Examine the glands in the posterior triangle from the front.



Fig. 3.28 Palpation of the axillary, epitrochlear and inguinal glands. A Examination for right axillary lymphadenopathy. B Examination of the left epitrochlear glands. C Examination of the left inguinal glands.











3.8 Features to note in any lump or swelling (SPACESPIT)

- Size
- Position
- Attachments
- Consistency
- <u>E</u>dge
- Surface and shape

- Pulsation, thrills and bruits
- Inflammation:
 - Redness
 - Tenderness
 - Warmth
- <u>T</u>ransillumination

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Fig. 3.25 Blister on a leg.





Edema





Edema

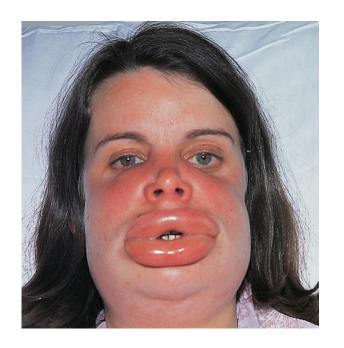


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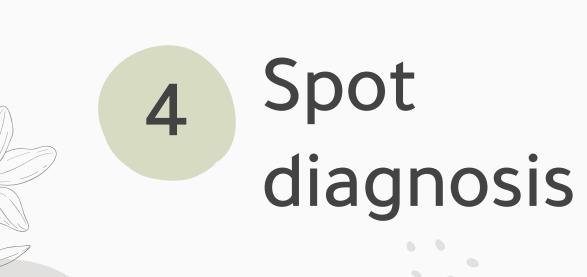
Causes of edema

- Generalized: low plasma oncotic pressure, increased hydrostatic pressure, increase capillary permeability, lymphatic obstruction
- Localized: venous , lymphatic, inflammatory or allergic causes.
- Postural edema









ა.9	Continuons	With Characteris	uc iaciai app	JCai a	ш	ರಾ

Diagnosis

Sparse, coarse hair and eyebrows, periorbital puffiness, dry, waxy skin, apathetic expression,

Facial features

Hypothyroidism (see Fig. 10.5) macroglossia

Graves' disease (autoimmune thyrotoxicosis) Staring appearance due to lid retraction, proptosis, evidence of weight loss

(see Fig. 10.2A)

Pale, often unwrinkled skin with loss of hair

Thickened, coarse skin with enlarged nose and frontal bones, prognathism (lower jaw protrusion), widely spaced teeth, macroglossia

Moon-shaped plethoric facies Blue sclerae

spots in iris

Myotonic dystrophy (see Fig. 3.30D) Down's syndrome (see Fig. 3.31)

Systemic lupus erythematosus

Hypopituitarism

Acromegaly

(see Fig. 10.10A)

(see Fig. 10.9A) Cushing's syndrome

(see Fig. 10.11A)

(see Fig. 3.30A)

(see Fig. 3.30C)

Osteogenesis imperfecta

Hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia (see Fig. 3.30B) Systemic sclerosis

Telangiectasia on and around lips

Tight skin constricting mouth, 'beaking' of nose, loss of nasolabial folds

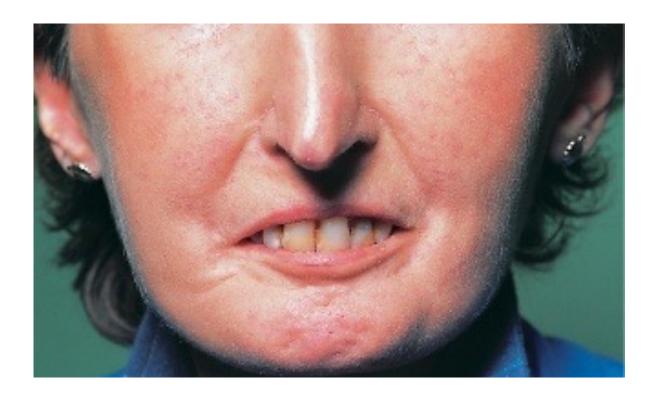
Frontal balding, paucity of expression, bilateral ptosis

Flat facial profile, up-slanting palpebral fissures, small, low-set ears, macroglossia, Brushfield

'Butterfly' erythematous rash on cheeks



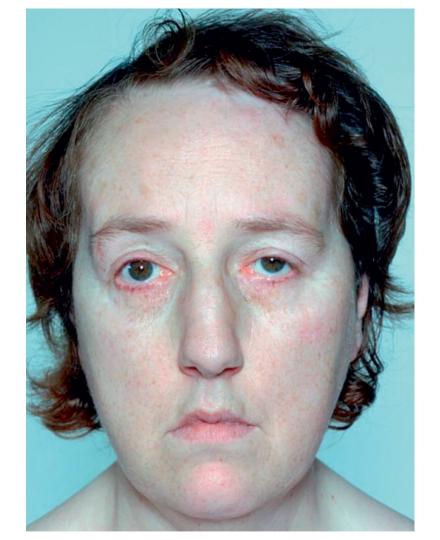
Blue sclerae of osteogenesis imperfecta.



Systemic sclerosis with 'beaking' of the nose and taut skin around the mouth



Telangiectasia around the mouth, typical of hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia.



Myotonic dystrophy with frontal balding and bilateral ptosis





hypothyroid



Fig. 10.5 Typical facies in hypothyroidism.



PHOTO RESEARCHERS/BIOPHOTO ASSOCIATES

hyperthyroidism.



Fig. 10.11 Cushing's syndrome. A Cushingoid fac







Fig. 3.31 Down's syndrome.

A Typical facial appearance.
B Brushfield spots: grey—white areas of depigmentation in the iris. C Single palmar crease.
A From Kerryn Phelps, Craig Hassed; Genetic conditions.
In General Practice: The Integrative Approach, 1e, Churchill Livingstone; 2011.

В

C



Fig. 3.32 Turner's syndrome. From Henry M. Seidel, Jane Ball, Joyce Dain, G. William Benedict. Growth and measurement. In: Mosby's Guide to Physical Examination, 6e; 2006.



Fig. 3.33 Child with achondroplasia. From Keith L. Moore, T. V. N. Persaud. Congenital Anatomic Anomalies or Human Birth Defects. in the Developing Human: Clinically Oriented Embryology, 8e; 2008.

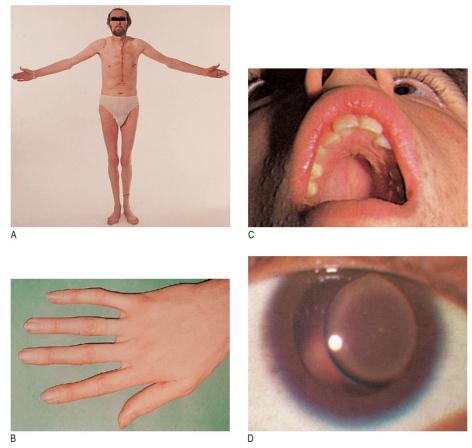


Fig. 3.21 Marfan's syndrome, an autosomal dominant condition. A Tall stature, with the torso shorter than the legs (note surgery for aortic dissection). B Long fingers. C High-arched palate. D Dislocation of the lens in the eye. (A–D) From Forbes CD, Jackson WF. Color Atlas of Clinical Medicine. 3rd edn. Edinburgh: Mosby; 2003.













