Reconstructive Surgery of the Hand and Upper Extremity



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To Karin Arns-Germann whose brilliant illustrations enriched many presentations over the years, my wonderful children Tina, Anna & Jonas, and to Ulli who is a constant source of love, support and inspiration.

GG

To Martha and Max, the two irreplaceable people in my life. **RS**

To my children Celia and Ben and my wife Helga thanks for your love, support, and sacrifice on behalf of my patients and my profession.

LSL

Foreword

It is an honor for me to write a foreword for this text by three good friends and colleagues. The three authors are truly world experts in the field of reconstructive surgery and have close to 100 years of combined experience in reconstruction of the upper extremity. This text is the culmination of that experience and is a magnum opus on the subject. This book is particularly useful for those starting their career in reconstructive surgery as it gives a superb outline of how to manage nearly every type of problem in the upper extremity. It provides all the reasonable options for management of these problems, but it is also an excellent atlas of flaps for the hand and upper extremity. The emphasis is appropriately on primary reconstruction, but options for secondary reconstruction are covered as well. After this it covers rehabilitation protocols, which surgeons

are often not familiar with. Finally, they cover various classification systems which can be overwhelming to the young surgeon. This text offers a comprehensive approach to the management of upper extremity reconstruction and should be in the library of every surgeon performing reconstruction of the upper extremity. My congratulations to the authors.

William C. Pederson, MD, FACS

Head, Hand and Microsurgery
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Foreword

The restoration of both form and function is the ultimate goal of the hand surgeon and is possible through adherence to firmly established surgical principles, which must be constantly challenged, clarified, instituted, refined, and periodically re-evaluated. Both simple and complex clinical problems in hand trauma can present a moving target to the young surgeon, similar to specialty board examinations whose questions remain the same year after year, and only the answers change. The quantity of information can be overwhelming, possibilities for treatment unclear, newer solutions tantalizing, and both short- and long-term outcomes contradictory. Where does the uninitiated or less experienced upper extremity surgeon start?

Most traumatic and acquired hand problems simply require a thorough physical examination, knowledge of anatomy, sound judgment, and consistent care based on principles. Reflecting on their 40-plus-year careers in the trenches, Drs. Günter Germann, Randy Sherman, and L. Scott Levin have distilled their collective experience as traumatic hand surgeons into a unique, comprehensive set of algorithms, which analyze the treatment of common upper extremity injuries in a clear, succinct fashion. This approach can be used to help the young physician tailor treatment to the goals and needs of the patient, setup a strategic plan, execute the appropriate surgery, and rehabilitate the patient properly. The book is practical, clear, well organized and easy to read, especially by those who are confronted by difficult problems in the middle of the night or who are in regions where specialized care is not immediately available. The decision-making process is much easier. The summary of classification systems, illustrations of fractures, and summaries of common clinical scenarios are useful for quick reference for all surgeons.

In its revised edition, this unconventional book has become a practical guide for younger general, orthopedic, and plastic surgical hand surgeons, as well as all those in training. On our service it has been used effectively as a starting point for the young house officers on call for the hand service. It would be a mistake for even the more

experienced to overlook this book, which is packed with practical pearls especially in the treatment algorithms, the precautions and pitfalls of the most commonly used flaps, and the clinical cases, all of which are clearly illustrated and anatomically accurate. There is an excellent integration of the skeletal, vascular, neural, and soft tissue aspects of reconstruction, as well as an emphasis on full-thickness coverage, early definitive reconstruction, and thoughtful rehabilitation. At the time of initial evaluation and subsequent surgical exploration, these guides will help the surgeon decide what should be discarded, prudently saved, or strategically redistributed within the injured upper limb to achieve the best functional and aesthetic outcome.

Present-day millennial medical students and surgical house officers are more comfortable with the algorithmic approach as most of their preparation starts with a Google search and subsequent scrolling down menus of possibilities. This book will clarify their options for salvage and/or reconstruction, and coupled with a comprehensive knowledge of anatomy, will help them make wiser decisions.

Rigid binary thinking and algorithms may potentially lead to oversimplification and omission of salient alternatives. Every algorithm presented in this book is debatable. However, this book can be used in a different light: to introduce different forms of treatment and to stimulate controversy and a discussion of why a particular form of treatment may be best for a given patient at a particular point in his or her life. It may stimulate the surgeon to consider both surgical and non-surgical options before making a strategic decision, which cannot be altered. No hand surgical library would be complete without this gem.

Joe Upton, MD

Hand Surgeon, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgeon Boston Children's Hospital, Boston Shriners Hospital, Beth Israel Deaconess Hospital Professor of Surgery, Harvard Medical School Boston, Massachusetts

Preface

Why did three senior surgeons decide to revise a book that was published 15 years ago?

Despite changes in training paradigms and health care delivery, we believe that we can offer valuable contributions to the education of students, residents, fellows, and colleagues who are early in their practice and prepare them for the treatment of challenging clinical cases.

We began this journey almost 20 years ago with the concept of providing an algorithmic approach for clinical problem-solving in reconstructive surgery of the upper extremity. Decision-making based on "Yes" or "No" answers has dominated our own thinking and teaching for many decades. Our approach takes a complex problem and separates it into single sequential steps. The treatment plan is

based on the profile of the patient, the resources that are available, and the physicians' level of skill.

When a publisher asked us if we would be willing to update, refine, and improve the book, we didn't hesitate to accept this request. Every aspect of the book has undergone a thorough critical analysis and revision. New techniques have been added, and others have been deleted. Illustrations have been revised to make the crucial technical points of a surgical procedure clearer to the reader.

As before, this update celebrates the privilege of combining European and North American philosophies, concepts, and approaches to create a text that we hope may be helpful for all colleagues who are treating reconstructive problems of the upper extremity.

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Introduction

The hand is one of the most extraordinary tools in nature. A combination of strength, dynamic stability, and precision movements provide the hand the ability to carry out the work of the upper extremity. Despite advances in prosthetics, targeted muscle reinnervation and vascularized composite allotransplantation, preserving and reconstructing the human hand remains the goal of the reconstructive surgeon.

Hand surgery is functional restorative surgery. The hand is one of our most important points of contact with our environment and possesses a myriad of important functions such as cognitive discrimination, tactile gnosis, and the ability to transmit and receive emotional signals. The hand serves as the eye for the blind, the ears for the deaf, and the mouthpiece for the mute. Character virtues are often attributed to size, shape, and appearance of a person's hands. Galen considered the hand an instrument of human ratio and as a mirror image of the human soul. Charles Bell reflected on the relationship of the hand to the mind. The monks of the Middle Ages used their fingers as a help in mathematic calculations ("Si tria digita scribunt, totum corpus laborat"). This tradition has now evolved to the "digital era" in which the hand is used to press buttons on a keyboard, operate a mouse, or use a cellular phone.

"Hand surgery is also aesthetic surgery": The significance of this statement by Dr. Guy Foucher, a well-recognized hand surgeon and author, becomes clear if we consider that the face and hands are usually the only points of contact in the western civilization with the exception of warmer days when, through more casual dressing, other body parts become visible. If one observes individuals with mutilated hands care-

fully, it becomes obvious that the majority of these patients attempt to conceal their injured and disfigured hands.

In such cases this may lead to psychological disturbances in some patients whose professions require frequent contact with the public. The goal of reconstruction of this complicated biomechanical tool, with restoration of appearance, function, and tactile gnosis, is to achieve general well-being and professional and social reintegration.

Specific tactics and overall strategy depend on many variables that evolve as the surgeon's experience increases. They have to be integrated into a complex decision-making process which involves comparing and evaluating all factors that affect outcome.

Reconstructive procedures should be tailored to the individual needs of the patient. For example, application of only one coverage technique to different wounds and injuries may result in solutions that may not match the patient's needs. The principle of "one technique fits all" has little place in hand and upper extremity reconstruction. The main goal of reconstructive surgeons should be to achieve functional reconstruction using the most similar tissue possible, thus preserving or restoring hand aesthetics so that patients may resume their daily activities as soon as possible.

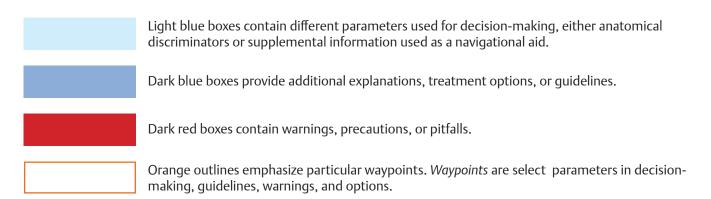
This book will help to explain decision-making processes developed by the authors throughout many years of clinical practice. The method of using algorithms has been selected to achieve the greatest possible clarity. This book is not all encompassing; there will always be exceptions and clinical situations for which the described categories do not apply.

The Key to the Map—How to Use the Book

As the cover implies, this text is designed to be a guide to decision-making through the labyrinth of problems we face in treating patients with hand and upper extremity problems. Using algorithms, specific injuries and clinical situations can be managed in a logical, deductive fashion. These algorithms constitute the centerpiece of the book. They serve as a map to guide reconstructive surgeons from point of origin to intended destination.

The other information in the book are designed to support your use of the algorithms.

The utility of the algorithms will be maximized by understanding how we have highlighted certain parts of each diagram. A summary of the key below will appear as necessary throughout the book.



Glossary

ABD:	abduction	FPB:	flexor pollicis brevis
ADD:	adduction	FPL:	flexor pollicis longus
ADL:	activity of daily living	FTSG:	full-thickness skin graft
ADM:	, , ,	FMC:	fine motor coordination
	abductor digiti minimi		
AIN:	anterior interosseous nerve	ICAM:	Immediate controlled active motion
ALT:	anterolateral thigh	ICG:	indocyanine green
AMT:	anteromedial thigh	IP:	interphalangeal
AO/ASIF:	Association for Osteosynthesis/Association for	IV:	intravenous
10/1311.	Stable Internal Fixation	K-wire:	Kirschner wire
A DD			
APB:	abductor pollicis brevis	LT:	lunotriquetral
APL:	abductor pollicis longus	MCI:	midcarpal instability
AR:	axial radial	MP:	metacarpophalangeal
AROM:	active range of motion	MRI:	magnetic resonance imaging
AU:	axial ulna	MVA:	motor vehicle accident
AxRI:	axial radial instability	OR:	operating room
AxUI:	axial ulnar instability	ORIF:	open reduction internal fixation
BR:	brachioradialis	PA:	posterioanterior
CIC:	carpal instability complex	PET:	positron emission tomography
CID:	carpal instability dissociative	PGA:	polyglycolic acid
CIND:	carpal instability nondissociative	PIN:	posterior interosseous nerve
CMC:	carpometacarpal	PIP:	proximal interphalangeal
	·	PL:	
CPM:	continuous passive motion		palmaris longus
CRP:	C-reactive protein	PROM:	passive range of motion
CT:	computed tomography	PT:	palmar translation (carpal instability)
DBS:	dorsal blocking splint	PT:	physical therapy
DD:	differential diagnosis	PT:	pronator teres
DIEP:	deep inferior epigastric perforators	RMCI:	radiomidcarpal instability
DIP:	distal interphalangeal	RMO:	relative motion orthosis
DISI:	dorsal intercalated segment instability	ROM:	range of motion
DMCA:	dorsal metacarpal artery	RT:	radial translation
DMSO:	dimethyl sulfoxide	SL:	scapholunate
DT:	dorsal translation	SLAC:	scapholunate advanced collapse
ECRB:	extensor carpi radialis brevis	SNAC:	scaphoid nonunion advanced collapse
ECRL:	extensor carpi radialis longus	STSG:	split-thickness skin graft
ECU:	extensor carpi ulnaris	STT:	scaphotrapeziotrapezoidal
EDC:	extensor digitorum communis	TBSA:	total body surface area
EDM:	extensor digiti minimi	TFCC:	triangular fibrocartilage complex
EDQ:	extensor digiti quinti	TFL:	tensor fascia lata
EI:	extensor indicis	TGE:	tendon gliding exercise
EIP:	extensor indicis proprius	TH:	triquetrohamate
EMG:	electromyogram	TPF:	temporoparietal fascia
EPB:	extensor pollicis brevis	UMCI:	·
	·		ulnar midcarpal instability
EPL:	extensor pollicis longus	UT:	ulnar translation
FCR:	flexor carpi radialis	VISI:	volar intercalated segment instability
FCU:	flexor carpi ulnaris	WBC:	white blood cell [count]
FDP:	flexor digitorum profundus	WHO:	wrist-hand orthosis
FDS:	flexor digitorum superficialis		
	angita ann ang annaiana		

Part I

General Principles

Chapter 1

General Principles of Upper Extremity Reconstruction

Reconstructive surgery of the upper extremity as it relates to trauma, tumor, and sepsis has progressed significantly over the past 50 years. The introduction of microsurgical techniques—including a wide variety of new flaps, functional free muscle transfer, nerve conduits, motor nerve transfers and allografts, and even hand transplantation—complements the vast array of sophisticated treatment concepts, which now include vascularized composite allotransplantation. These additions have greatly expanded the number of options available to the reconstructive surgeon.

The current philosophy of treatment in combination with early functional rehabilitation represents a significant evolution; historically, treatment was much more limited and sequential. It involved multiple-stage interventions that simply covered defects, with functional restoration not being considered until later in the process. More recently, surgeons have demonstrated the ability to perform "one-stage" multiphase reconstructions with the use of precisely tailored composite flaps of skin, tendons, nerves, vessels, and, often, vascularized bone for the earliest possible definitive and appropriate repair.

Today, the reconstructive surgery plan may be fully executed during the initial operative exploration (i.e., replantation) or after a "second-look" procedure and definitive wound closure. Definitive reconstruction during the primary injury period saves time, shortens the postinjury morbidity interval, and allows for earlier rehabilitation intervention, thereby maximizing functional outcomes.

This combined treatment strategy reduces overall professional and hospital expenditures and speeds the patient along a path toward faster recovery and reintegration with family, work, and community. A growing body of literature supports primary reconstruction as highly cost effective. This approach decreases the time and cost of disability resulting from injury.

Secondary reconstruction, when necessary, is often performed in scarred tissue planes in extremities that may be contracted and dysfunctional. Despite the surgeon's best efforts, it is not always possible to keep a patient's joints and soft tissues mobile with the use of passive motion exercise while awaiting secondary reconstruction. Such delays inevitably lead to compromised outcomes and further morbidity.

Our ultimate treatment goal must be to quickly and definitively restore the best possible form and function of the injured upper extremity. By implementing the latest techniques for immediate bony stabilization, restoring joint congruency, repairing motor tendon units—and mobilizing these repairs rapidly, with aesthetically oriented soft tissue

coverage—our patients will achieve personal, social, and professional reintegration.

Treatment Goals

The goals of patient care and treatment throughout the process of restoring an upper extremity include the following:

- Extremity salvage
- Preservation and restoration of function
- Correction of acquired defects (i.e., after trauma or tumor)
- Optimization of aesthetic appearance
- Social and professional reintegration
- Cost-effective therapy

After an injury, the selection of specific treatment concepts and preferred reconstructive procedures is based on a thorough analysis that includes the following considerations:

- Clinical evaluation of the patient
- Pertinent medical and demographic profiles
- Wound assessment, including tissue loss and functional impairment
- Injury classification as an adjunct to guide management

Compliance with these guidelines will lead to the use of standardized treatment protocols with sufficient flexibility to select the best operative procedure for each patient and each injury. The upper extremity should be thought of as a highly integrated and multidimensional functional organ. The hands and arms are the primary mechanisms by which we, as humans, physically interact with the world and with each other. The skin, tendons, muscles, nerves, joints, and bones of these extremities should not be thought of as isolated structures; rather, they must be recognized as meticulously calibrated interacting parts of a highly complex machine. Subsequently, reconstructive procedures to address complex defects should not be thought of as repairing isolated structures; they represent an orchestrated process that is performed in the service of the integral restoration of the function of the hand and the upper extremity.

The following chapters present a comprehensive and detailed roadmap for upper extremity reconstruction. They will provide definitions, classifications, guidelines, algorithms, and procedures. These chapters were developed with the intent of offering both the surgical student and the master upper extremity surgeon a framework for achieving the best outcomes possible for their patients.

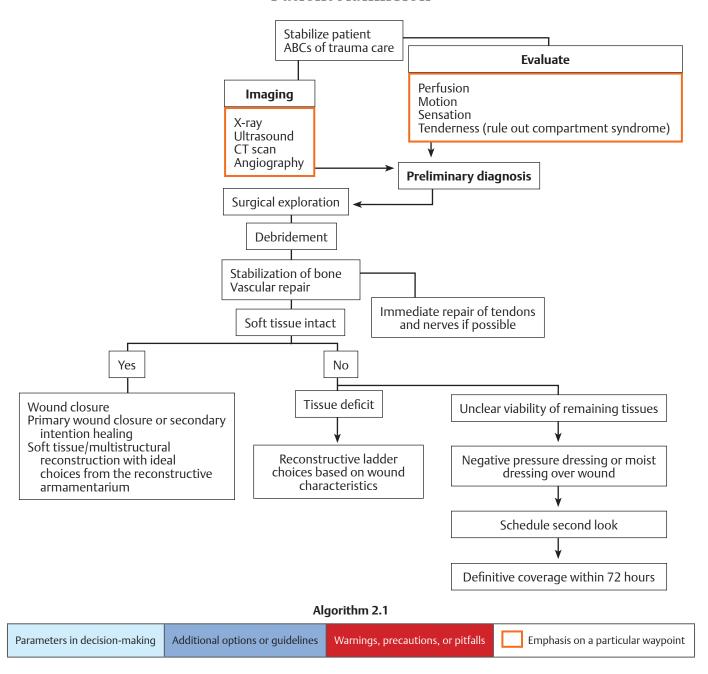
Chapter 2

Assessment and Management Strategy

Traumatic wounds should be evaluated as soon as possible after the patient has been admitted to the emergency department. When the patient's condition permits, an

operative exploration should be performed. After adequate debridement, primary structure repair should occur if at all possible.

Patient Admission

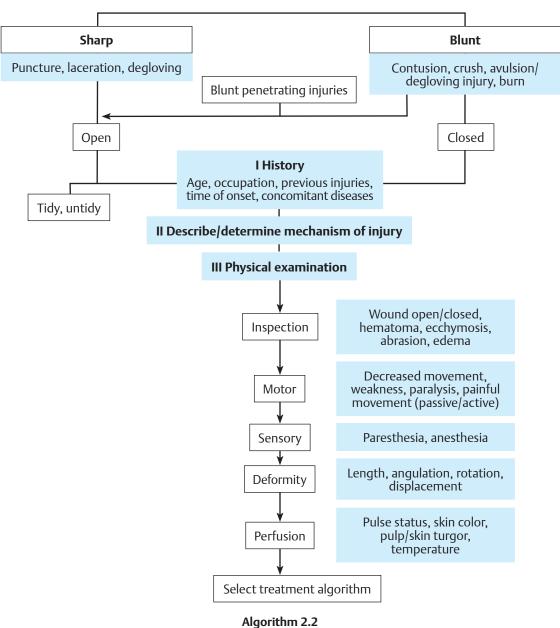


During the first surgical exploration, all nonviable tissue is debrided. The skeleton must be stabilized first, and blood flow must be re-established if the limb is avascular. A shunt should be considered if prolonged ischemia has occurred or is anticipated. If possible, vital structures such as vessels, nerves, tendons, and bones should be repaired primarily. Depending on the mechanisms of injury, the condition of the patient, and the options available, primary wound closure is preferred. If there is any doubt about the viability of the tissues that remain in the wound, the wound should

be managed temporarily with the use of topical saline dressings or a negative pressure device, which can maintain a moist wound environment for 48 to 72 hours. A second-look procedure should be scheduled within 24 to 48 hours.

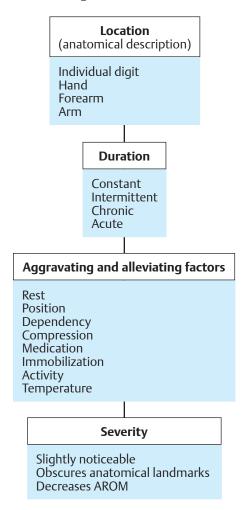
During the second procedure, definitive coverage should be performed. In rare cases (i.e., after crush, avulsion, burn, or electrical injuries), this "second look" may not allow for the adequate determination of the viability of the tissues. When this occurs, delayed closure is preferred so that sufficient debridement can be assured.

Patient Evaluation Algorithm

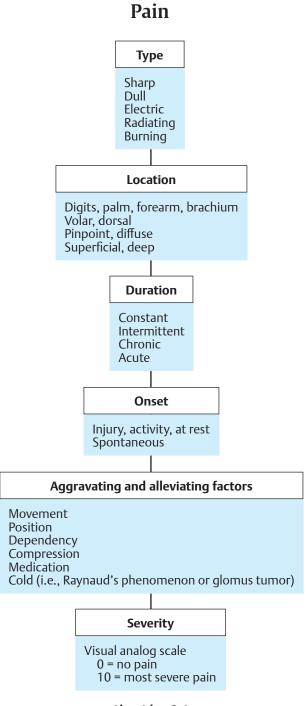


6 General Principles

Workup of Hand Edema



Algorithm 2.3



Algorithm 2.4

Chapter 3

Clinical Examination

After a detailed patient history is obtained, a careful physical examination of the upper extremity is essential in order to make a diagnosis and formulate a treatment plan. Despite the ever-expanding technology available for patient imaging, the physical examination is key to the appropriate assessment and treatment of these patients.

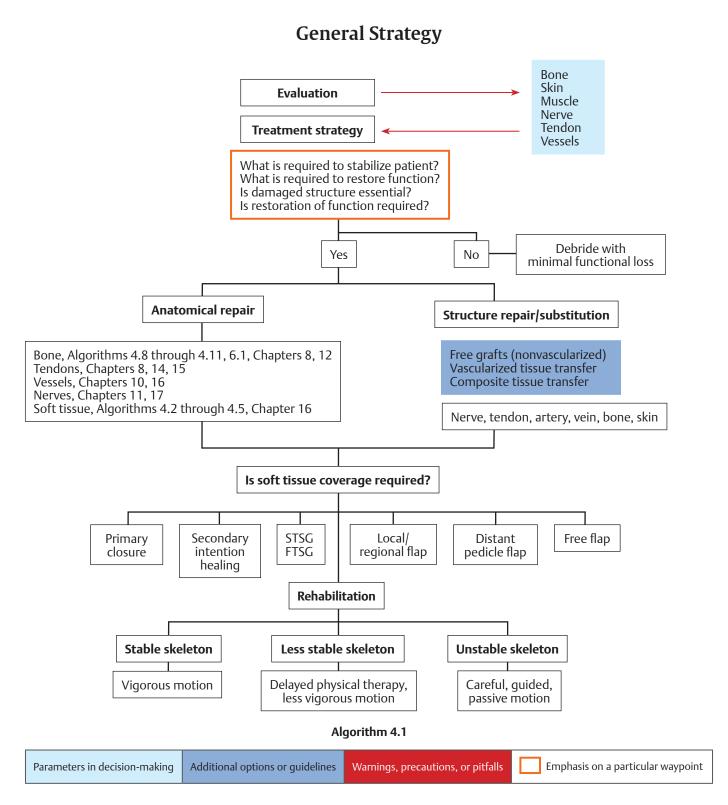
In this video chapter (**Video 3.1**), the techniques of physical examination are highlighted; these include manual muscle testing, sensory testing, and provocative maneuvers that can help to define upper extremity pathology. A complete examination should be performed on each patient to optimize clinical decision-making.

The following points should be included in the examination of the hand.

- Skin
- Vascularity, color, pulp, and refill
- Nerves: two-point, sharp, and dull
- Tendon movement: isolate (extrinsic and intrinsic)
- Bone and joint: palpation, motion, and pain
- Ligaments
- Nails
- Finkelstein test: de Quervain's disease
- Tinel test: nerve irritation and regeneration
- Phalen test: median nerve compression
- Froment test: ulnar nerve palsy
- "OK" sign: anterior interosseous palsy
- Hitchhiker sign: posterior interosseous nerve palsy
- Allen test: vascular integrity
- "Grind" test: basilar joint and arthritis
- Watson test: scapholunate instability
- Lumbrical plus test: intrinsic muscles
- Flexor tendons
- Bunnell test: intrinsic tightness

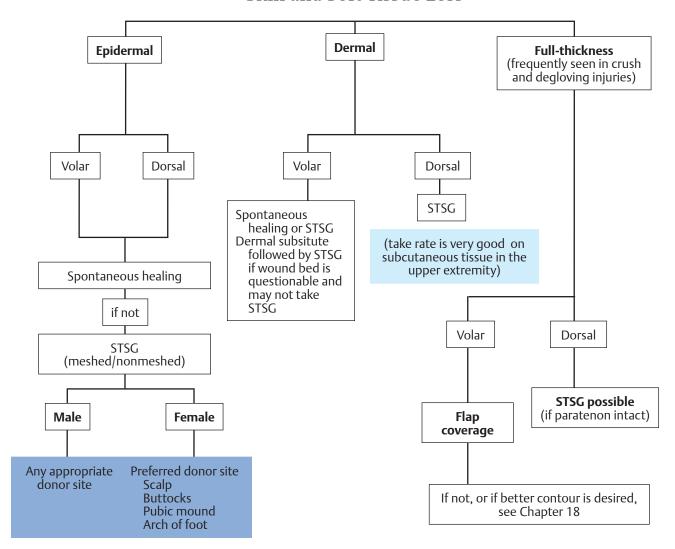
Chapter 4

Principles of Treatment and Management



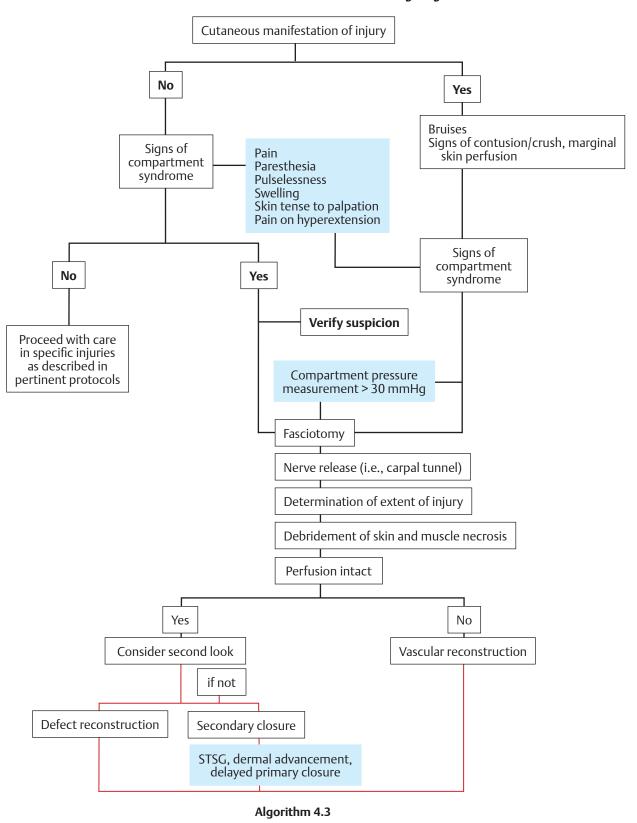
10 General Principles

Skin and Soft Tissue Loss



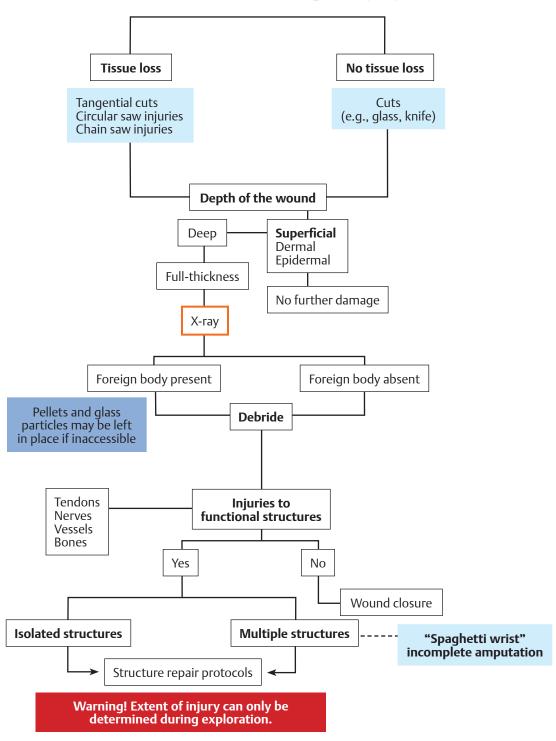
Algorithm 4.2

Skin and Soft Tissue-Closed Injury



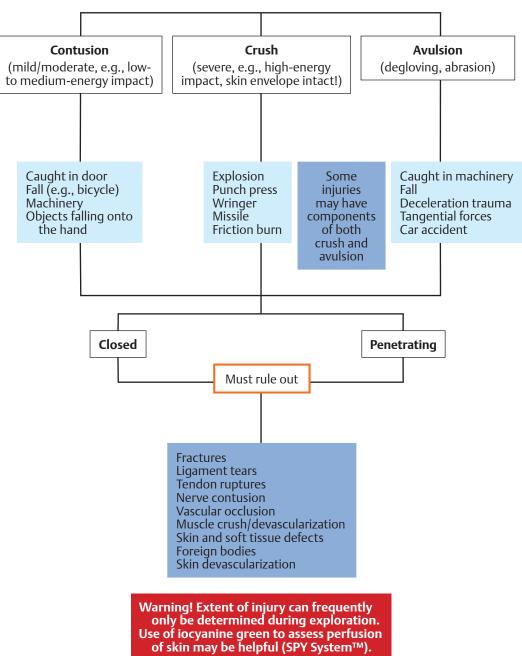
12 General Principles

Skin and Soft Tissue-Open Injury



Algorithm 4.4

Blunt Injuries

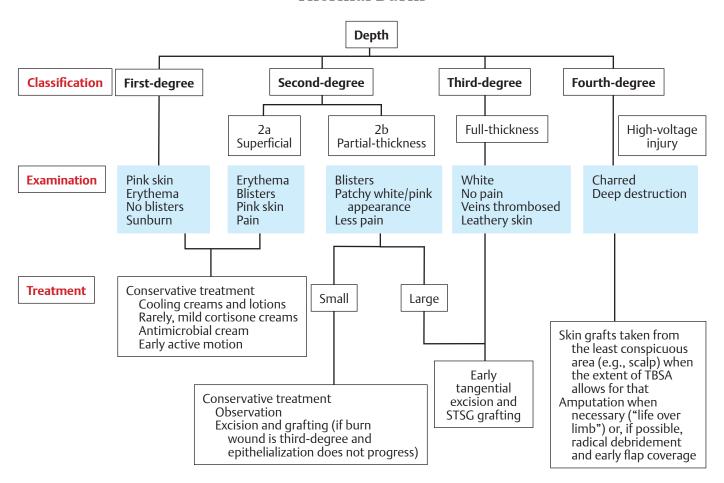


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Algorithm 4.5

14 **General Principles**

Thermal Burns



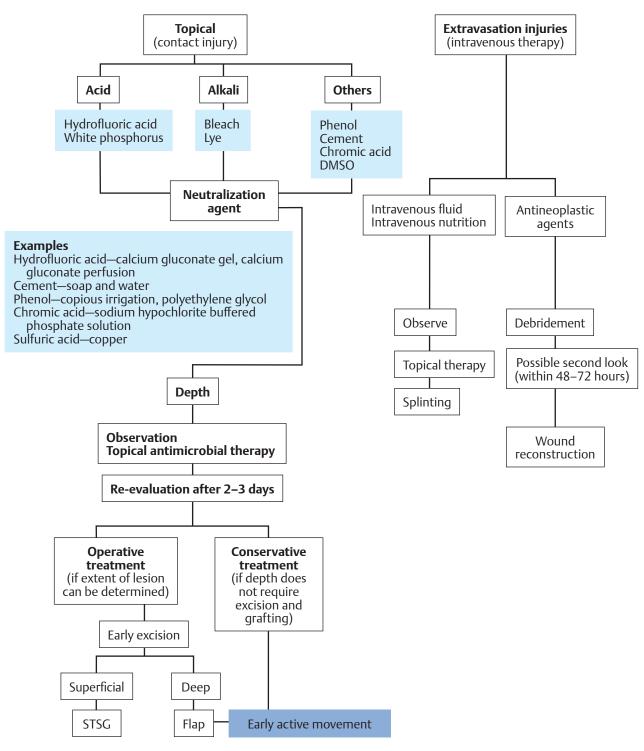
Note: In volar hand burns, conservative treatment is encouraged due to the tremendous capacity for re-epithelialization and the difficulty of adequate

Indications for volar excision only are nonhealing second- to fourth-degree

Criteria for referral to Burn Center are > 15% TBSA; face, genital area, hands involved; inhalation trauma; full-thickness burns.

Algorithm 4.6

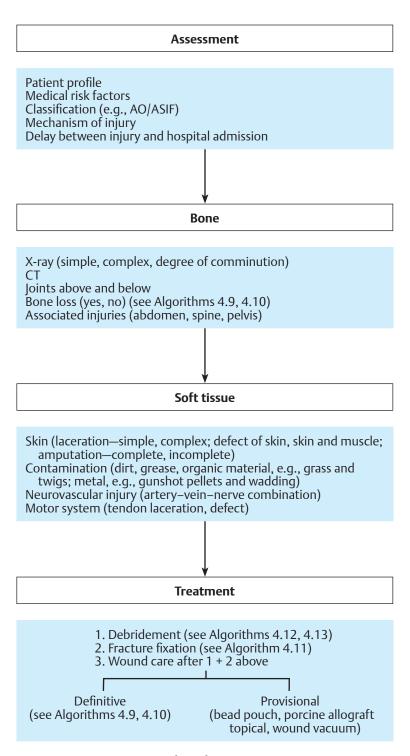
Chemical Lesions



Algorithm 4.7

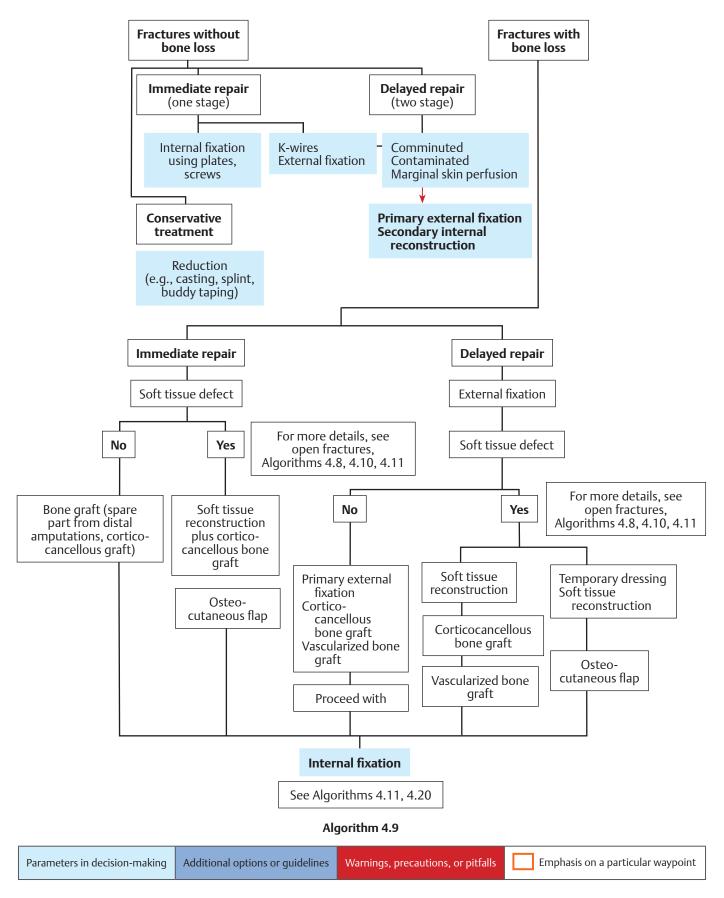
16 General Principles

Management of Open Fractures

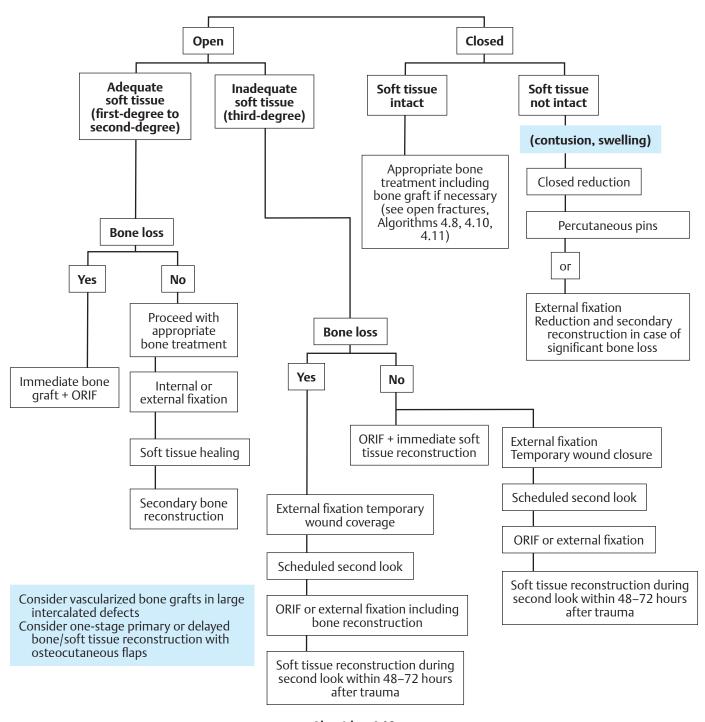


Algorithm 4.8

Fractures



Management of Fractures with Associated Soft Tissue Involvement



Algorithm 4.10

Choice of Fracture Fixation

External fixation Internal fixation

Bone comminuted
Severe contamination
Long delay from injury to OR
If unable to achieve wound closure in a timely fashion
If second look and debridement are required
If bone or soft tissue is devascularized
Major soft tissue defects

Intact soft tissue
Fracture accessible with minimal
stripping (in open injuries)
Clean wounds
Internal fixation possible
Bridge or span locking plate can be used with bone
graft after wound closure (i.e., flap)
Intra-articular injuries—absolute indications even in
open injuries

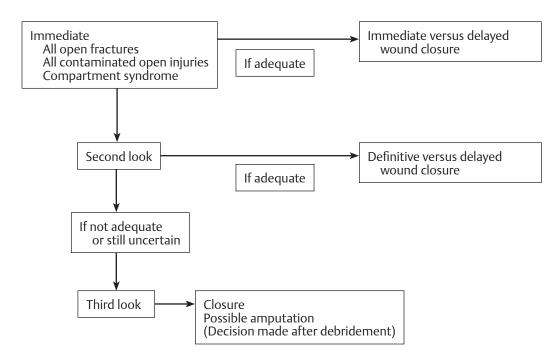
Algorithm 4.11

Debridement

All wounds in the upper extremity will require debridement to optimize wound conditions that will allow for wound closure. In cases of open fractures, debridement and stabilization are the most important prophylaxis against sepsis.

Sequence

I. Timing



Delayed debridement
Major systemic injury–patient unstable
Contusion injury–amount and extent of dermal/
subcutaneous infarction cannot be determined
Burn injury–deep second-degree, superficial third-degree

- II. Tourniquet inflation
- III. Wound inspection
- IV. Centripetal debridement by structure

Algorithm 4.12

Debridement-Structures

Skin, Subcutaneous tissue Dissect to bleeding dermis using a scalpel.

Trim edges 1–2 mm to create clean wound edge. Cut skin back to healthy fat (punctate bleeding, with minimal hemosiderin staining).

Fascia May be debrided sharply and should always be

removed if not vascularized.

Liberal opening/extensive exploration of

compartments.

Muscle Debride to contractile muscle (color is pink,

bleeding from cut muscle tissue).

Bone Remove all fragments devoid of significant soft

tissue attachments.

Nerve Be aware of cutaneous nerves—they may cause

painful neuromas. Epineurium can be removed if contaminated (median, radial, and ulnar nerve) with fascicles remaining. If nerve is not vascularized it can remain, provided it does not desiccate, and

wound closure is achieved early.

Vessels Remove any perforated, thrombosed segments.

Identify main vascular trunks. If not intact and if there is no flow, perform segmental vascular debridement; ligate major vessels, clip minor. Identify, mark, and protect major viable vessels that can be used for vascular access during immediate/

delayed free tissue transfer.

V. **Pulsatile irrigation**

Caveat: avoid implosion of foreign material, hydrodissection of tissue planes, and insufflation of tissues.

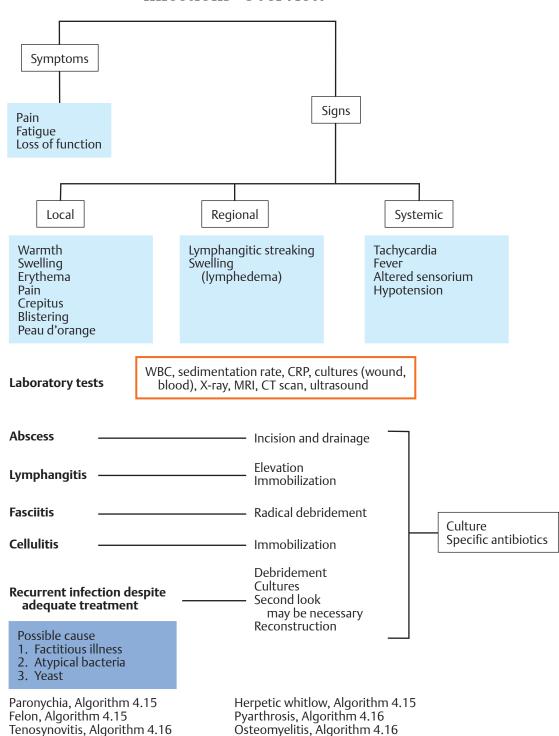
VI. Deflate tourniquet

Evaluate structures for bleeding.

VII. Decision-making on wound closure

Algorithm 4.13

Infections-Overview



Algorithm 4.14

Infections Fingertip Nail **Pulp** Paronychia **Felon** Herpetic whitlow Swollen Often in health professions Red (e.g., nurse, dental Acute Recurrent Tense hygienist) Clear vesicles on fingertips Pulp Elevation Early surgical Immobilization drainage with **Antibiotics** debridement Local antiseptic Elevation cream or soaks Immobilization **Antibiotics** Closure by Moist dressings Local antiseptic secondary intention No debridement! cream or soaks Drain only if not resolving with above Antibiotic cream for Drain if no response superinfection **Eponychial** or neurologic deficit (hockey-stick) occurs incision Midlateral subungual incision Incise pulp septa

Algorithm 4.15

Rule out associated felon

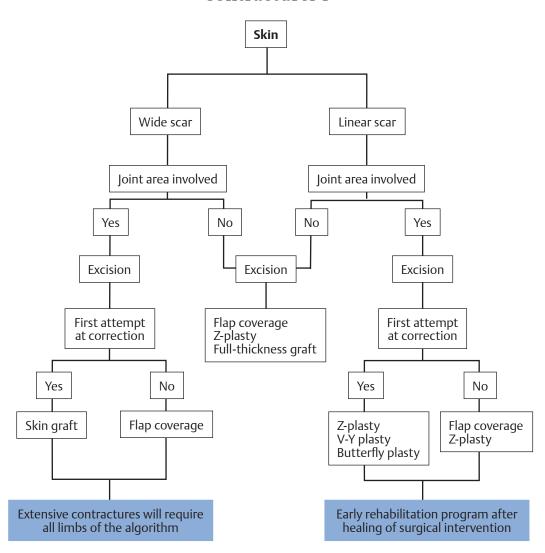
Infections Tendon, bones, joints Suppurative Osteomyelitis **Pyarthrosis** tenosynovitis History of History of trauma History of open trauma penetrating trauma Open fracture Septic arthritis (e.g., paintgun, animal Penetrating wound (animal or human bite) bite, tack, nail) Aspiration Kanavel's four signs X-ray (foreign body Finger held in flexion osteolysis sequestra) Purulence Observation Pain on extension MRI encountered or if high No Fusiform swelling on aspiration index of Pain on sheath palpation SPY System™* suspicion for infection consider Yes Cultures arthrotomy Anaerobe/aerobe Operative drainage Irrigation Arthrotomy Catheter irrigation Articular surface intact Postoperative Antibiotics Irrigation Early PT Yes No Debridement Irrigation Debridement Aggressive approach Conservative approach Drainage Secondary Suction irrigation joint fusion External fixation Resection of infected segment according Loose closure Arthroplasty to "tumor surgery principles" until "clear Antibiotic beads as spacer External fixator? Arthrolysis margins" are identified Well-vascularized soft tissuemuscle into defect Early active motion as Pulse irrigation soon as possible! Wait until no more signs of Primary reconstruction infection Secondary reconstruction Vascularized bone graft (bone graft and ORIF, for longer defects joint fusion) Algorithm 4.16

Parameters in decision-making

Additional options or guidelines Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls Emphasis on a particular waypoint

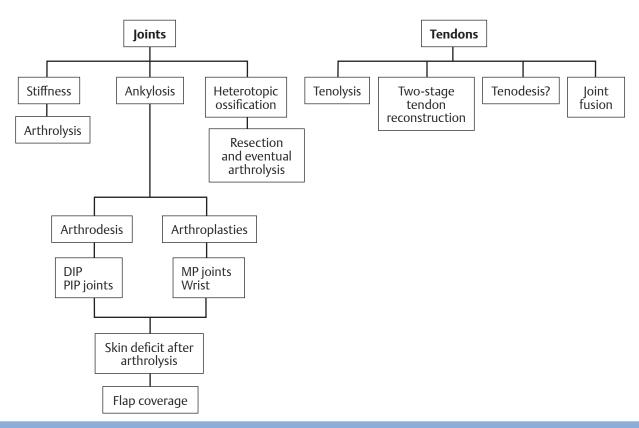
^{*}ICG tissue perfusion monitoring system.

Contractures I



Algorithm 4.17

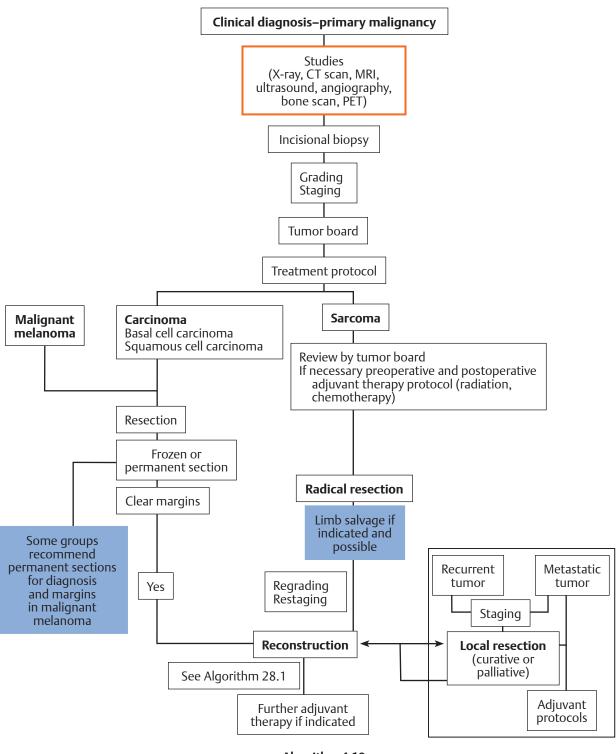
Contractures II



Extensive contractures will require all limbs of the algorithm Early rehabilitation program after healing of surgical intervention

Algorithm 4.18

Tumors



Monitoring of Flaps and Impending Flap Failure

Signs of regular perfusion

Signs of abnormal perfusion

Skin: Pink, warm

Normal capillary refill; comparative

diagnostic (SPY System™) Muscle: Normal color, brisk bleeding when

scarified normal Doppler signal; pink, adherent skin graft

Fascia: Normal Doppler signal; palpable

pulse in pedicle; pink, adherent

skin graft

Venous compromise

Patchy, bluish fast capillary refill; cool

Dark; dark red bleeding; skin graft not adherent

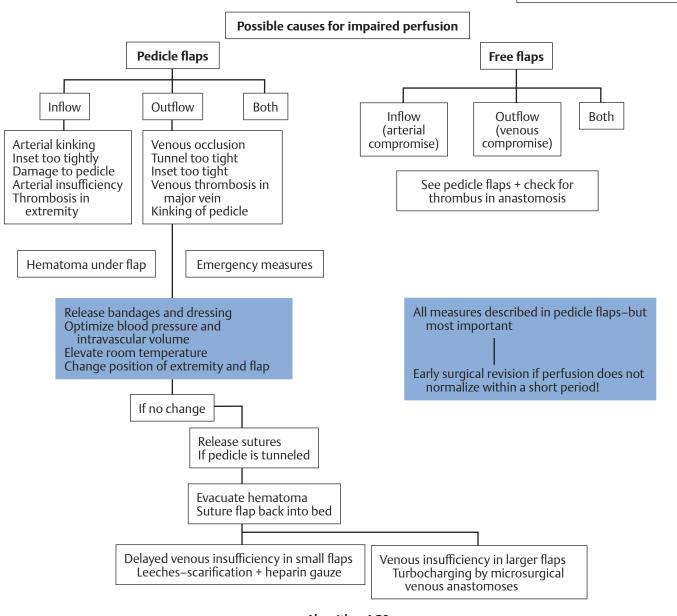
Dark; grayish

Doppler signal may remain normal for a longer period Dark blood on pinprick of flap with 22-quage needle **Arterial compromise**

Pale; slow capillary refill; cool Pale; no brisk bleeding; skin graft not adherent; no Doppler signal

No palpable pulse; skin graft not adherent; no Doppler signal

Lack of arterial bleeding on pinprick of flap with 22-quage needle



Algorithm 4.20

Parameters in decision-making

Additional options or guidelines

Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls



Emphasis on a particular waypoint

Splinting

Splints play a critical role in the acute care and rehabilitation of hand and upper extremity injuries. The appropriate understanding, selection, and use of these devices will maximize the potential for positive outcomes after relatively insignificant injuries to the most devastating traumatic events. Casts should be considered as more durable and resilient. Both casts and splints fulfill several fundamental needs for an injured extremity: rest, comfort, protection, hygiene, mechanically advantageous, static positioning, dynamic assist potential in selected instances, and aesthetic and psychological support. Common materials for their fabrication include plaster, fiberglass, and thermoplastic sheeting. Casts are best suited for fracture management and should be prudently applied when significant soft tissue swelling is present during the acute injury phase. Most

importantly, the maintenance of an optimal hand position is the key to successful splint application and use. The terms position of function, intrinsic plus, and neutral position have been used to describe the most elemental position for a hand that is to be placed in a cast or splint (**Fig. 4.1**).

Four key components apply when positioning a patient's hand for splinting or casting:

- 1. The wrist should be positioned between 0 and 10 degrees of extension.
- 2. The metacarpophalangeal joints should be placed at 70 degrees of flexion.
- 3. The interphalangeal joints should be slightly flexed.
- 4. The thumb should be abducted, either volarly (most common) or dorsally.



Fig. 4.1 Splinted arm showing position of function.



Fig. 4.2 Thumb spica splint.

Fig. 4.3 First web space splint.

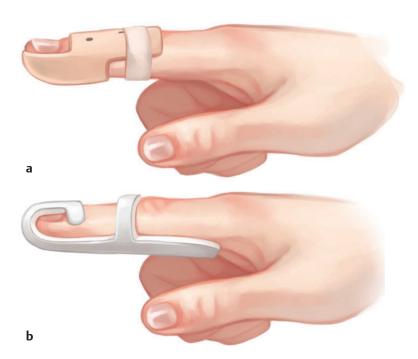


Fig. 4.4 Dorsal digital splints for fingertips.

Either rolled cotton padding or tubular cotton stockinette must be applied to the arm first to protect the skin. The radiographic verification of the hand position after splint placement is recommended.

Spica splints may be used to isolate injured digits or joints while maintaining as much hand mobility as possible (**Fig. 4.2**).

Simple first web space splints are effective for maintaining abduction during the healing phase of penetrating soft tissue injuries or burns in this area (**Fig. 4.3**).

Prefabricated dorsal digital splints are easily placed for fingertip injury, mallet finger, or other isolated phalangeal fractures (**Fig. 4.4**).

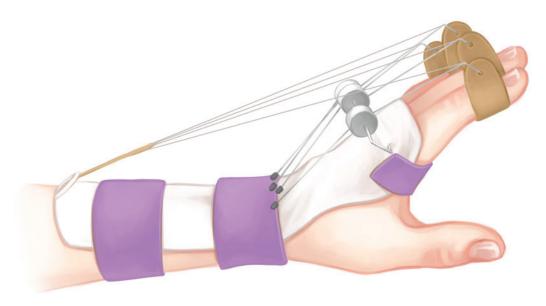


Fig. 4.5 Dynamic splinting for extensor repair.



Fig. 4.6 Dynamic splinting for flexor repair.



Fig. 4.7 Dynamic splinting for flexor repair.

After extensor lacerations are repaired, the joints are splinted in extension to offload tension on the tenorrhaphy (**Fig. 4.5**).

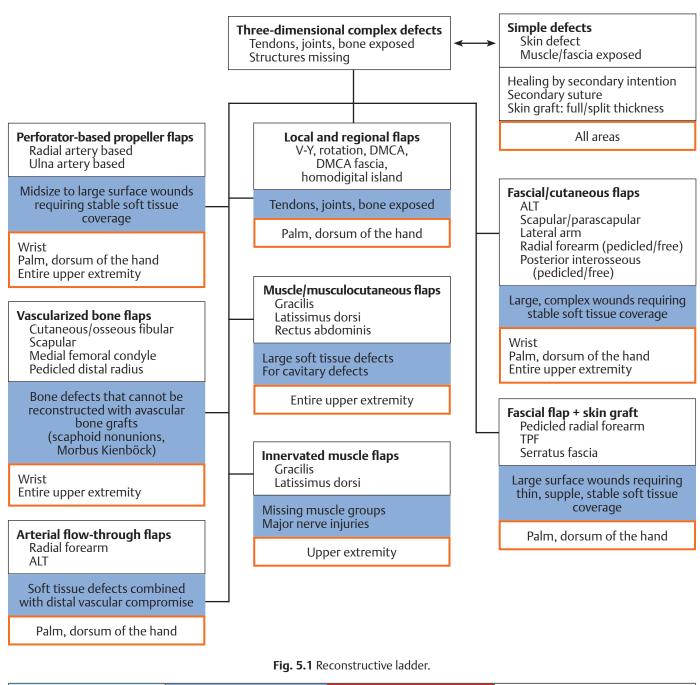
Dynamic splinting for flexor tendon rehabilitation using either the Duran protocol, the Kleinert protocol, or another protocol provides protected early movement at the repair site without loading the suture repair site (**Fig. 4.6**). Correctly constructed dynamic splints should be well monitored (preferably by a hand therapist) and should optimize the patient's long-term range of motion while minimizing tendon rupture and adhesion as early postoperative complications (**Fig. 4.7**).

Part II

Techniques of Structure Repair

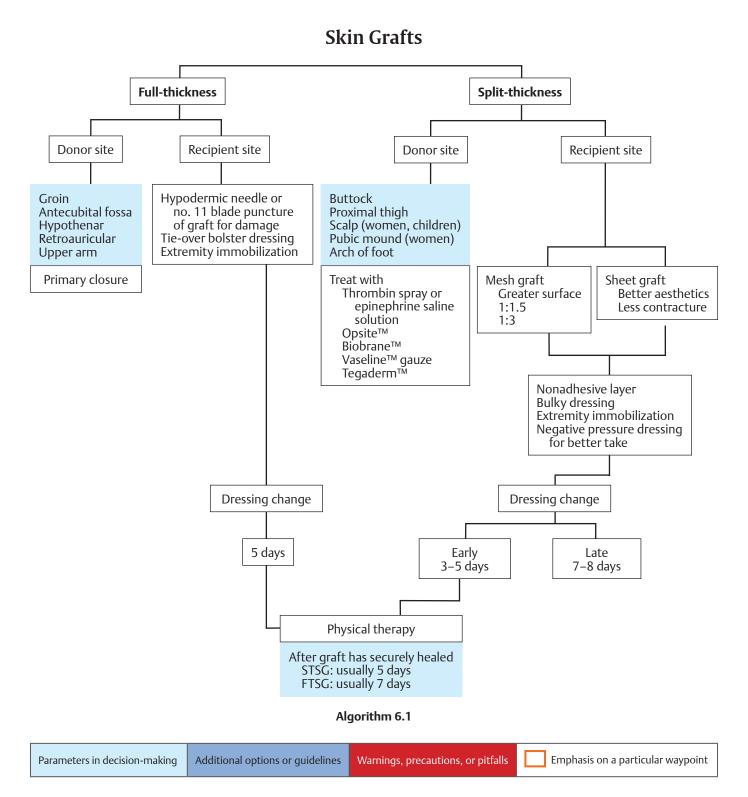
The Reconstructive Ladder

Based on a careful analysis of the injury and the defect, missing structures and missing functions are identified. Options for reconstruction are then considered and selected from the entire armamentarium of tools available.



Parameters in decision-making Additional options or guidelines Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls Emphasis on a particular waypoint

Skin Grafts



Techniques of Osteosynthesis

Options-Osteosynthesis

Internal

K-wire Plate/screws Rod Biodegradable pins Suture (ligaments)

External

Traction Casting External fixation Unilateral Delta

Combination

External fixation + plate External fixation + screws K-wire + external fixation

Implant characteristics

K-wire

Buried

Simple
Percutaneous
Less rigid
Tension possible (in tension band wiring)
Rapid
Easily removed
Inexpensive

Screws

Neutralization device Compression device (lag screw) Alone or with plate For interfragmental compression, a 3:1 ratio is recommended in terms of fracture length and bone width

Intramedullary rod

Limited approach Minimum soft tissue stripping Good for gross alignment Compression limited

Plate

Rigid if combined with screw
Requires soft tissue stripping
Hazardous if used in inadequate soft
tissue
Compression
Neutralization
Spanning
Bridging
Buttress
Locking

External fixation

Helpful in open fractures Stabilizes comminuted fractures Less rigid Helpful in skin contusion Pins can cause infection Can be combined with ORIF if soft tissue is stable

Biodegradable implants (pins)

Not rigid
Good for small osteochondral
fragments
Early mobilization may be delayed

Algorithm 7.1

Techniques of Bone Repair

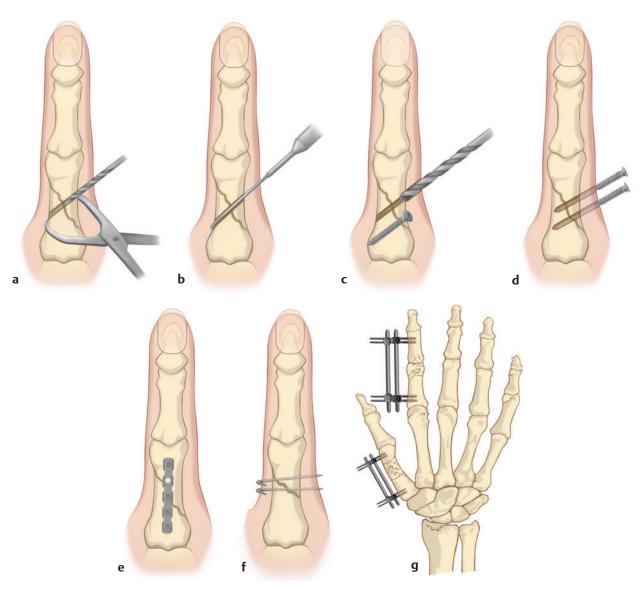


Fig. 8.1 (a) Bicortical drilling after fracture reduction. (b) Measurement of screw length with a depth gauge. (c) Fixation with interfragmentary compression screws. For this fixation, the proximal hole—where the screw enters the bone—is drilled so that it is slightly larger. (d) Correct screw placement. (e) Plate fixation for horizontal or comminuted fractures. (f) For a horizontal fracture that is stabilized with pins, crossing of the pins in the fracture line must be avoided. (g) External fixation of intra-articular and/or comminuted diaphyseal fractures.

Techniques of Tendon Repair

Basic technique is a rectangular suture which has undergone numerous modifications after Kirchmayer's first description in 1917.

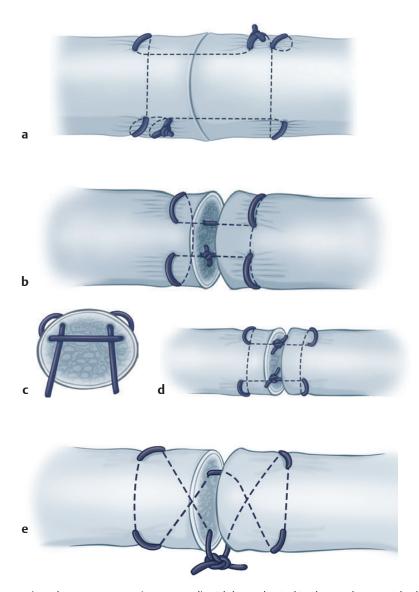


Fig. 9.1 (a) Original Kirchmayer/Kessler: Two sutures (two-strand) with knots buried in the tendon outside the suture line. A two-strand core suture with knots. In the suture line or burled in the tendon outside the suture line. Intratendinous knots may have better gliding properties, but have more suture material in the tendon gap. Theoretically, sutures should be placed insofar as possible at the volar aspect of the tendon to avoid disturbance of the dorsally situated vessels. Too much compression at the suture line should be avoided to prevent bulging of the tendon repair with subsequent impairment of gliding. **(b–e)** Modified Kessler: One or two sutures (two-strand) with intratendinous knots. Cross section demonstrates optimal position of core sutures (*continued*).

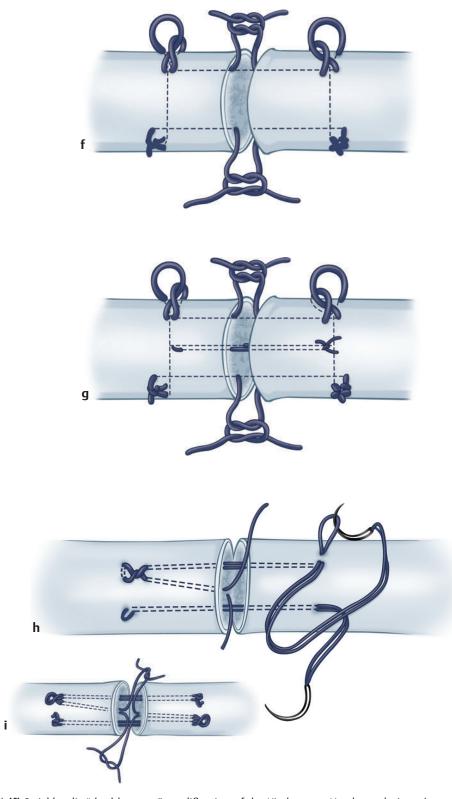


Fig. 9.1 (continued) **(f)** Strickland's "double grasp" modification of the Kirchmayer-Kessler technique (two-strand). **(g)** "Double grasp" technique with an additional rectangular mattress suture (four-strand). **(h,i)** Tsuge's loop technique: Double loop (six-strand)(continued).

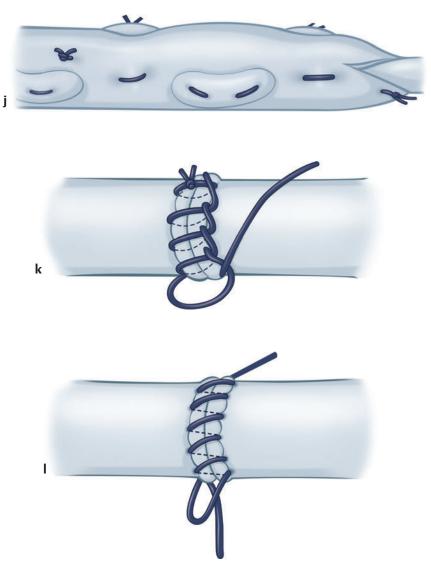


Fig. 9.1 (continued) (j) Pulvertaft technique: The tendon stumps are connected in a braided pattern—excellent tensile strength, allows early active mobilization. (k,l) Epitenon sutures: Epitenon sutures add considerable tensile strength to the tendon repair. They also smooth the contour of the tendon repair, thereby improving gliding properties. The two most commonly used patterns are running stitches (5–0) or interlocking sutures (5–0). A modification is a crisscross pattern that may increase tensile strength.

Techniques of Vascular Repair

Several techniques are used for vascular repair. Best results are usually achieved with familiar techniques. Four techniques are described below:

- End-to-end anastomosis, 180-degree technique
- End-to-side anastomosis

- End-to-end anastomosis, 120-degree technique
- End-to-end anastomosis, "back-wall-first" technique

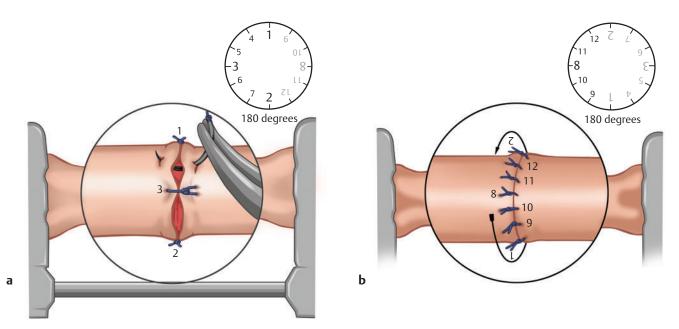


Fig. 10.1 End-to-end anastomosis, 180-degree technique. **(a)** Two corner sutures are placed 180 degrees apart (1,2). A third stitch (3) is placed equidistant from stitches 1 and 2. Stitches 4 through 7 complete the front wall sutures. **(b)** The vessel is then flipped over, and a stitch is placed in position 8. Sutures 9 through 12 complete the procedure.

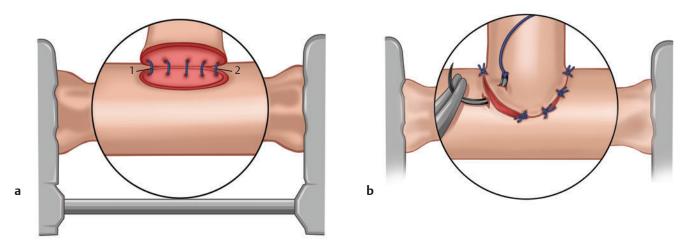


Fig. 10.2 End-to-side anastomosis. **(a)** Two corner sutures are placed 180 degrees apart (1,2). **(b)** Interrupted stitches (in larger vessels, running suture) are used for the vessel wall, with the more difficult access to complete the most difficult part first. Rinsing of the vessel lumen with heparinized saline solution ensures proper visualization of intima. Inspection of the correct placement of stitches is critical upon completion of the anterior wall. Trick: place two sutures close together at either side of the corner sutures to prevent leakage from the angles. Take great care not to grasp the intima of the recipient vessel.

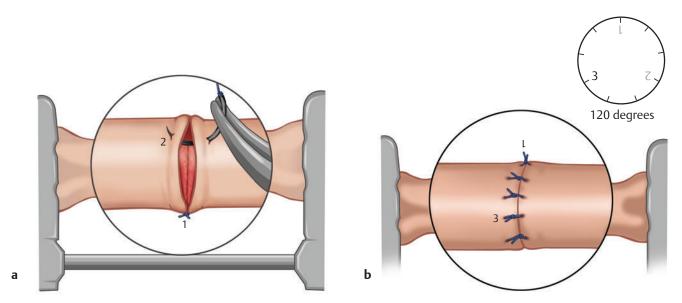


Fig. 10.3 End-to-end anastomosis, 120-degree technique. **(a)** Two corner sutures are placed at a 120-degree position on the front wall. The vessel is flipped over. A third stitch is added 120 degrees from the first, for the segmental completion of the back wall. **(b)** The vessel is flipped again to complete the front wall.

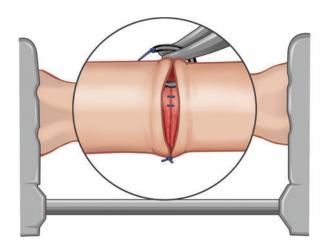
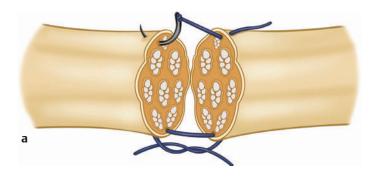
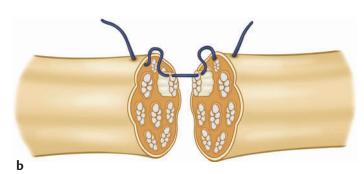
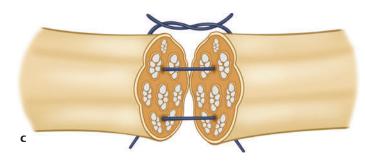


Fig. 10.4 End-to-end anastomosis, back-wall-first technique. One everting suture is placed in the center of the back of the back wall. The back wall is subsequently completed under vision. Completion of the anastomosis is achieved by working from both sides toward the center of the vessel. The vessel is not flipped over during the anastomosis.

Techniques of Nerve Repair







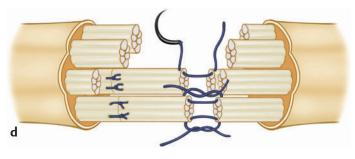


Fig. 11.1 Techniques of nerve repair.

(a) Epineural suture

- By far the most common repair in smaller peripheral nerves
- Trim edges perpendicular to long axis of the nerve
- Mobilize proximal and distal nerve segments
- Use microscope to visually enhance precision
- Use 180-degree technique to guarantee maximal coaptation
- Avoid tension at the neurorrhaphy site at all costs
- Use the smallest suture possible to achieve tensionfree, stable coaptation
- Avoid focal increase of pressure on the suture line to prevent bulging and poor alignment of the fascicle

(b) Epi-perineural suture

- Indicated in nerves with few fascicular bundles
- Allows fascicle matching techniques (visual/staining)
- Stronger suture in the epineurium of the back wall may reduce the tension on the suture line. The same goal can be achieved by using a strip of fascia/tendon that is anchored to the back wall of both nerve stumps
- Maximize alignment of nerve stumps and simultaneous sealing of the epineurial envelope
- Avoid focal increase of pressure on the suture line to prevent bulging and/or poor alignment of the fascicles

(c) Nerve graft donor sites

- Sural nerve
- Medial antebrachial cutaneous nerve
- Lateral antebrachial cutaneous nerve
- Avoid tension on grafts
- Venous conduit—short peripheral defects (less than 2 cm)
- Nerve allograft (i.e., Axogen™)
- Fibrin glue may be used in place of sutures in selected cases

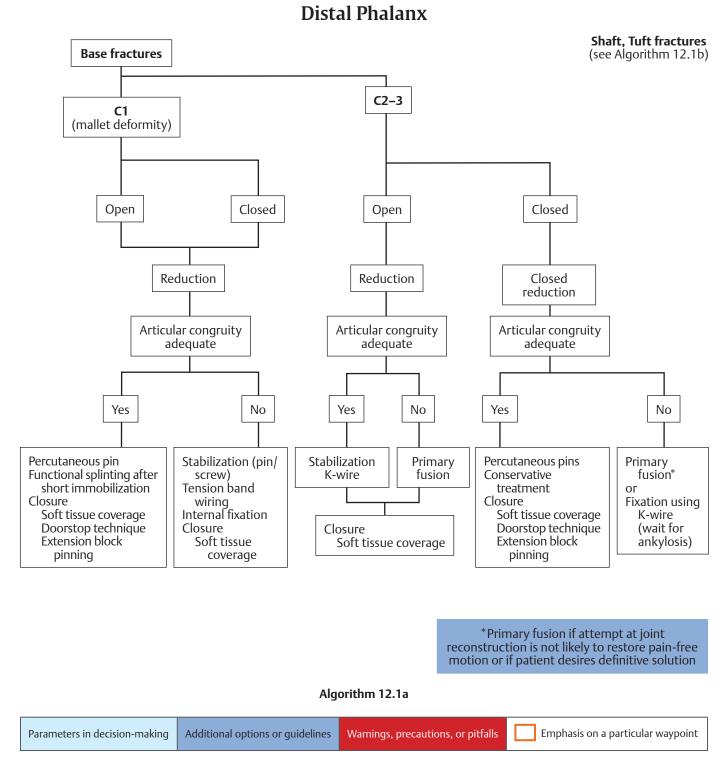
(d) Individual fascicular suture

- Indicated only in nerve grafting and in most distal targets where differentiation can be assured (i.e., motor branch of median nerve just before entry into the muscle; otherwise, too much suture material is brought into the nerve)
- Secure well-perfused soft tissue envelope in case of nerve grafting
- Use 10–0 or maximum 9–0 for exact neurorrhaphy

Part III

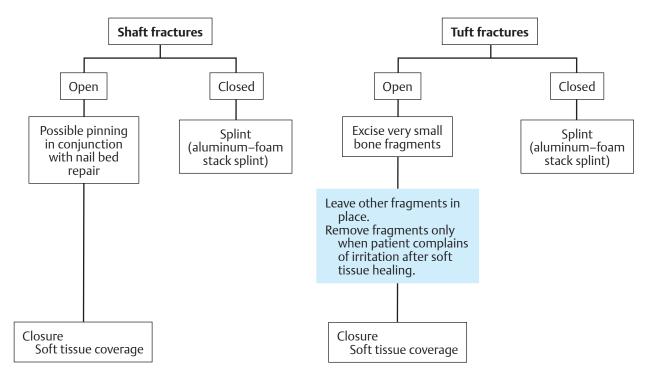
Treatment Algorithms

Bones



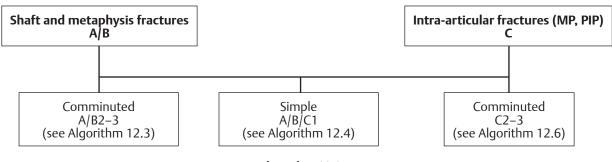
48 Treatment Algorithms

Distal Phalanx



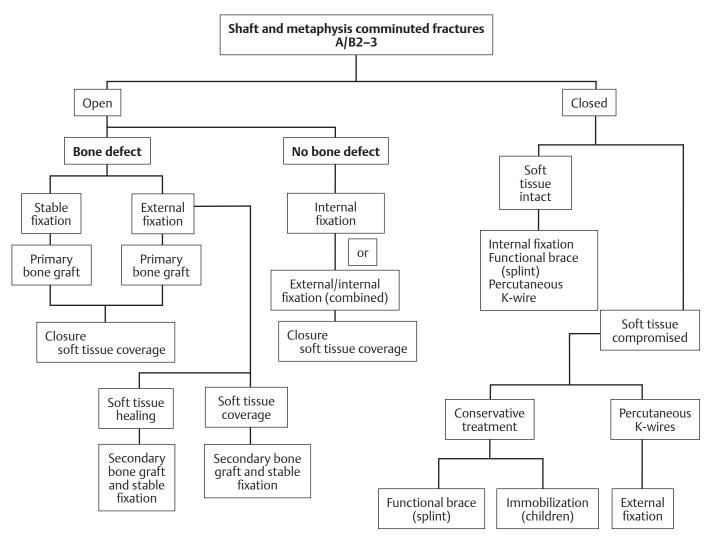
Algorithm 12.1b

Bones 49



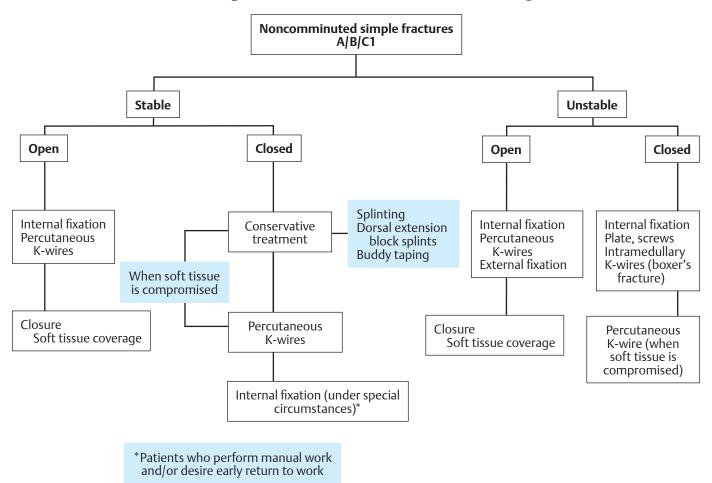
Algorithm 12.2

50 Treatment Algorithms



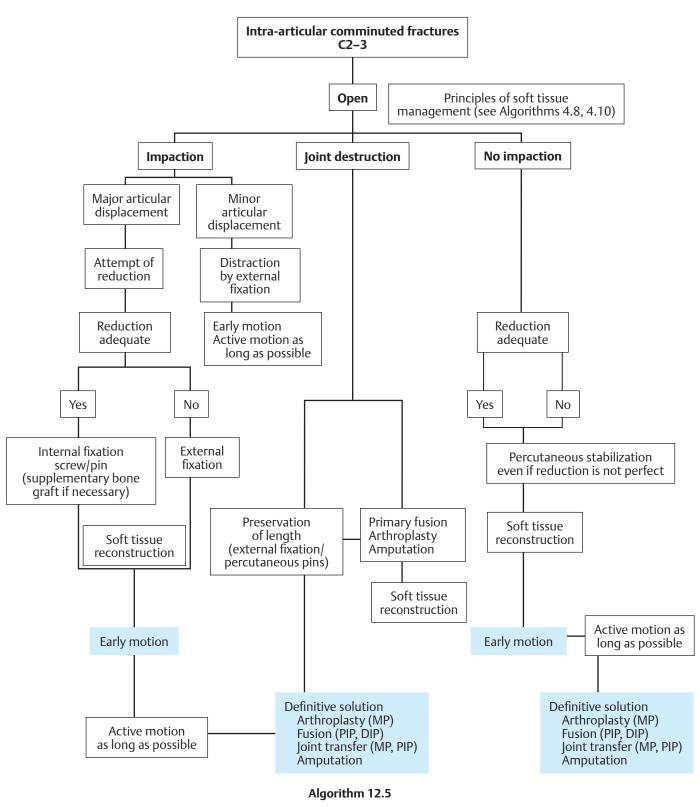
Algorithm 12.3

Bones 51

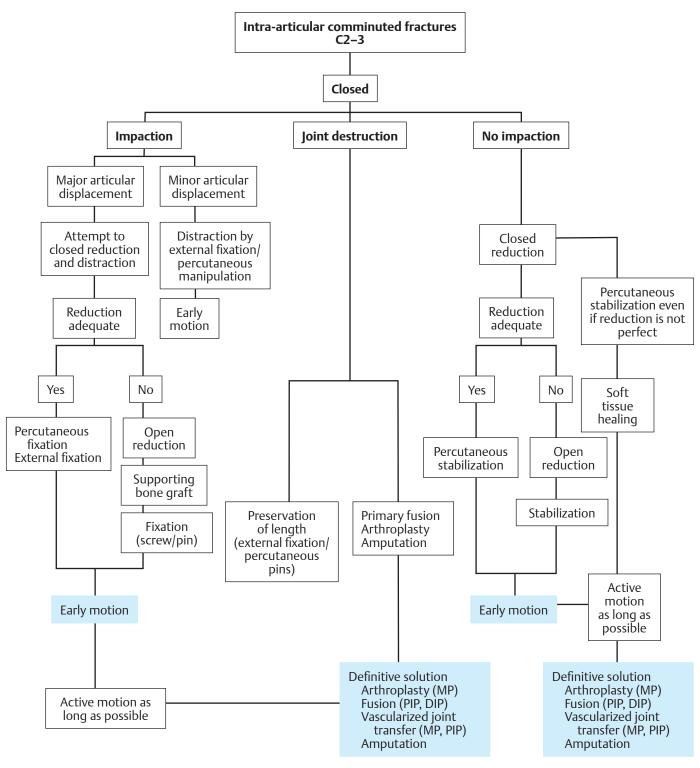


Algorithm 12.4

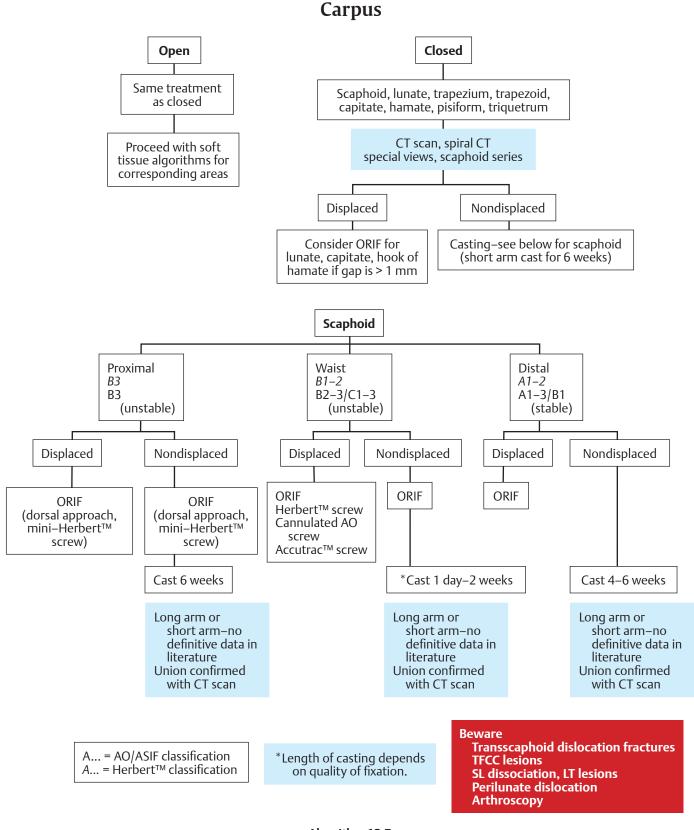
52 Treatment Algorithms



Bones 53



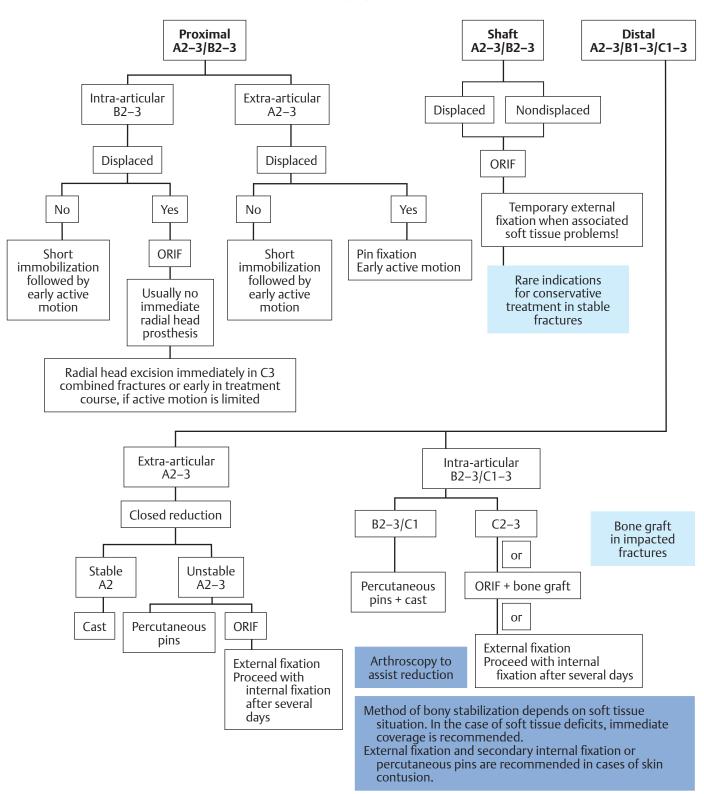
Algorithm 12.6



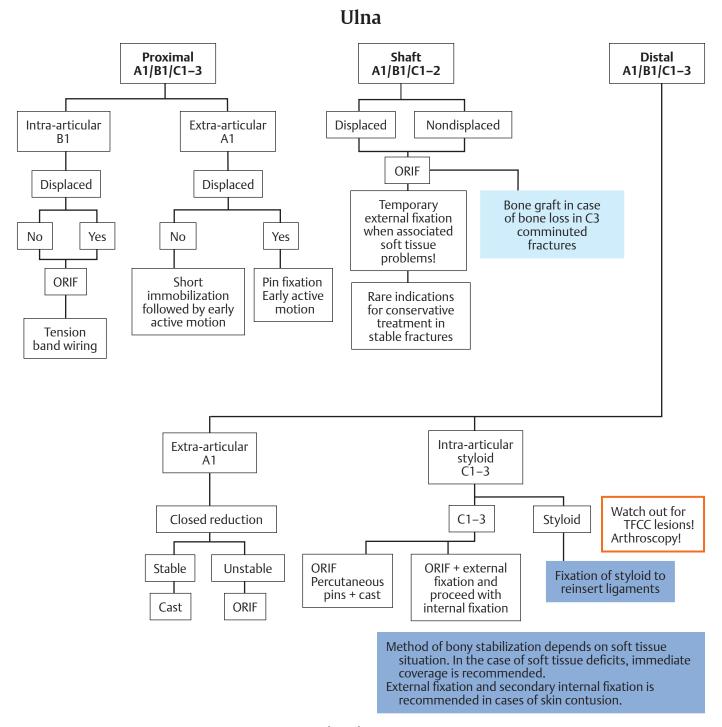
Algorithm 12.7

Bones 55

Radius



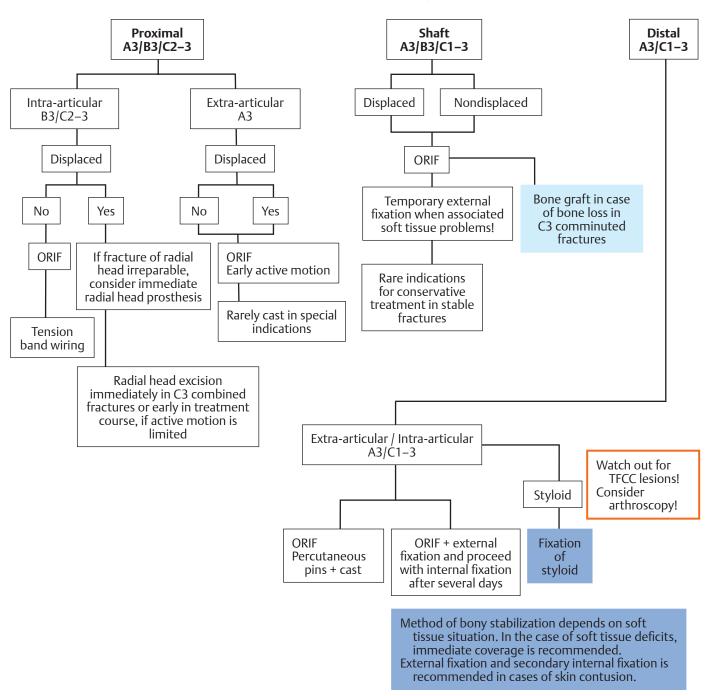
Algorithm 12.8



Algorithm 12.9

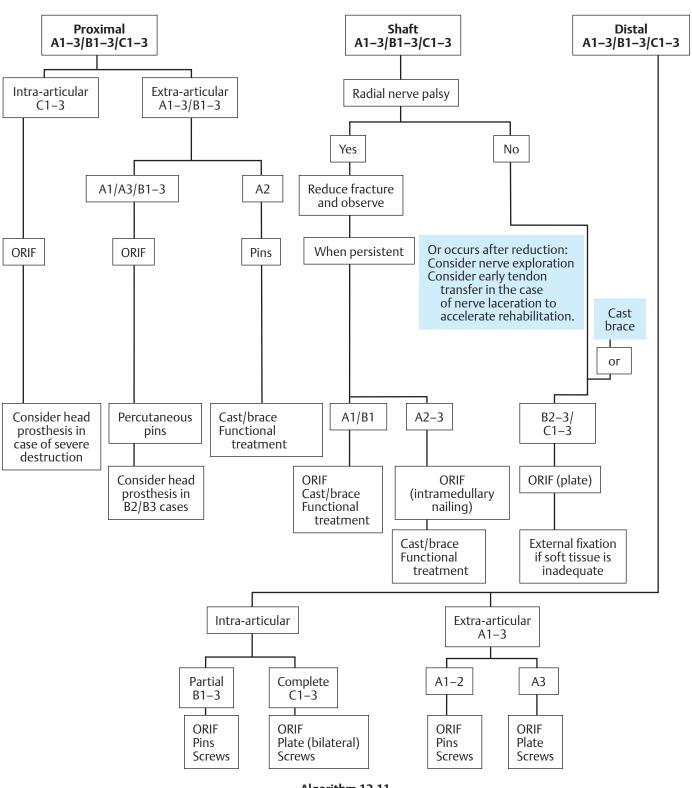
Bones 57

Both-Forearm Fractures



Algorithm 12.10

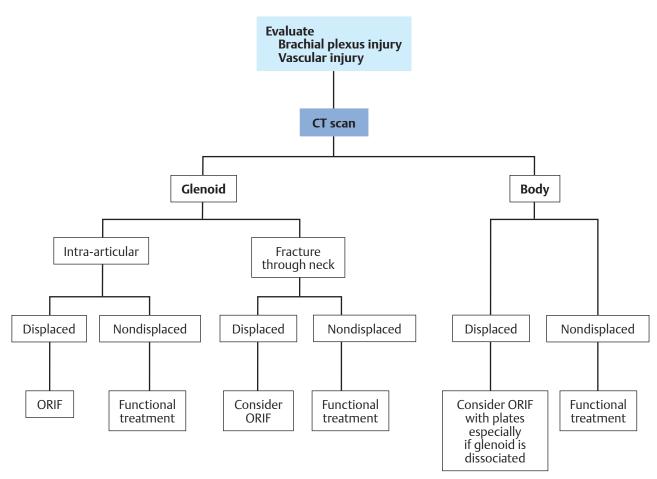
Humerus



Algorithm 12.11

Bones 59

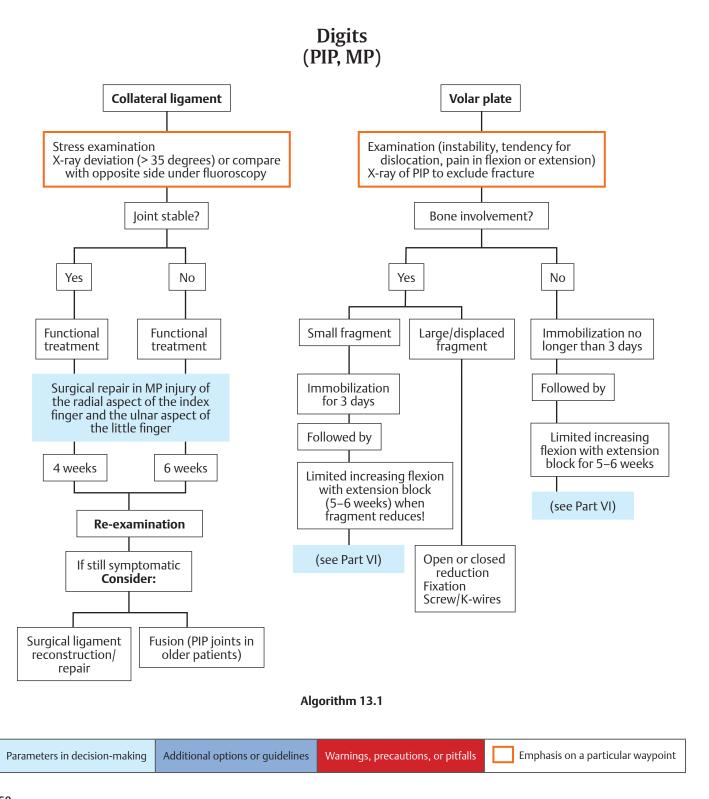
Scapula



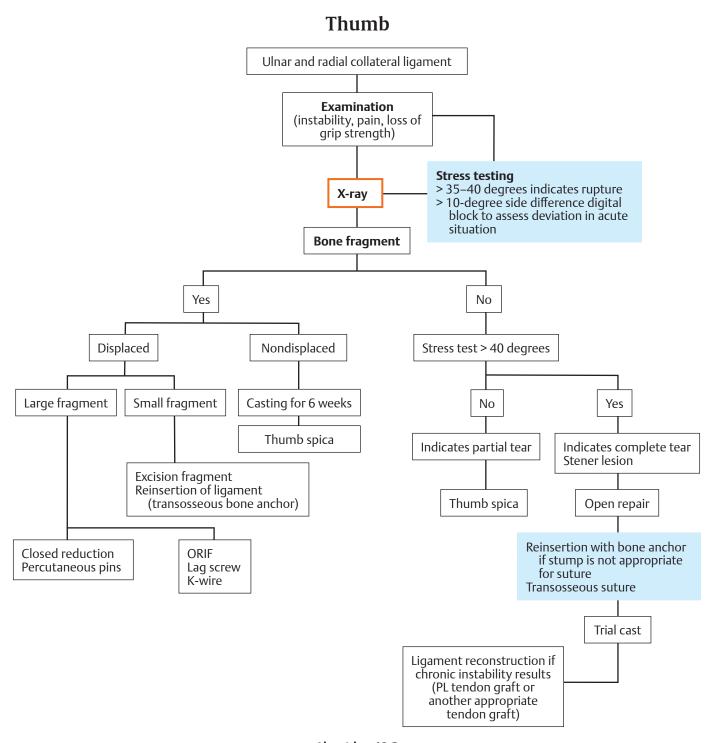
Algorithm 12.12

Chapter 13

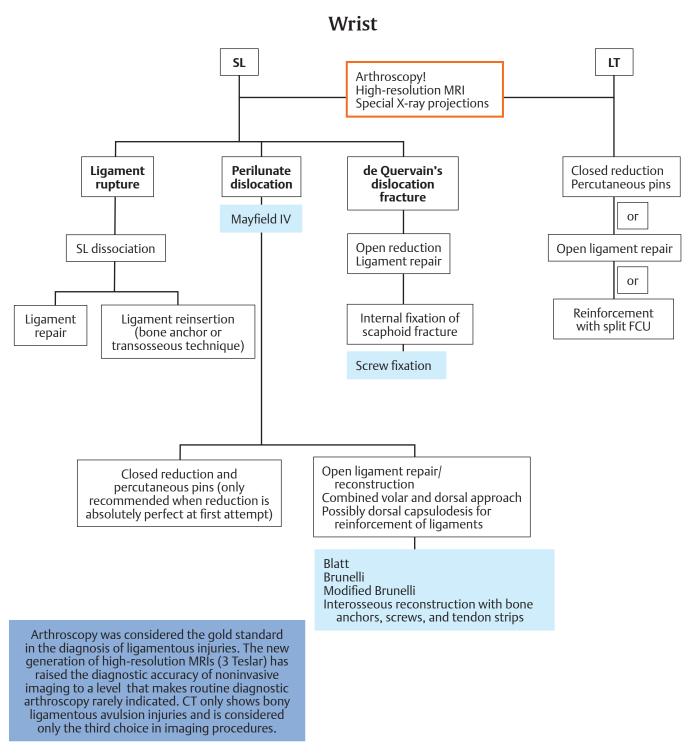
Ligaments



Ligaments 61

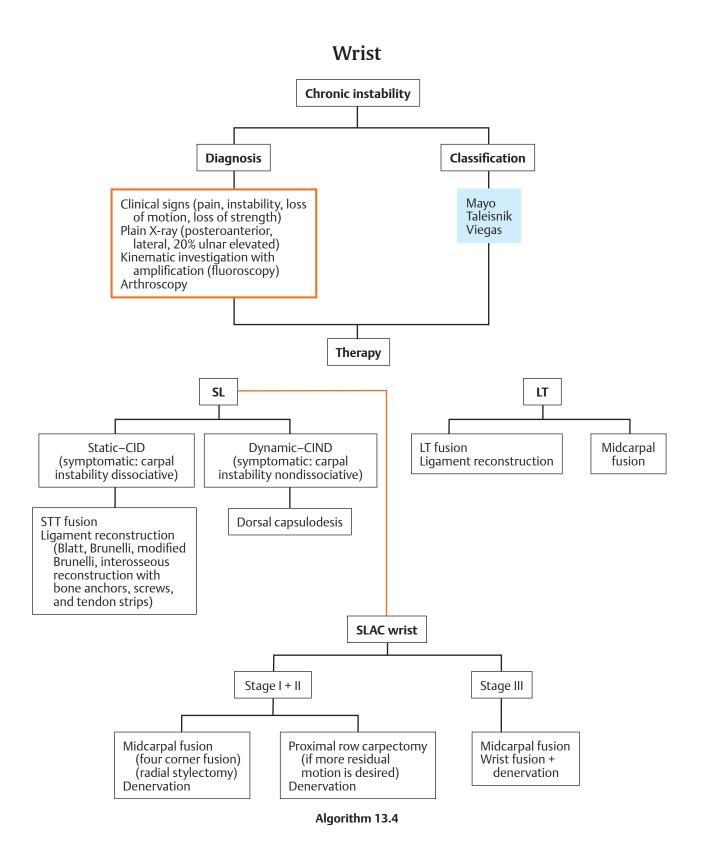


Algorithm 13.2



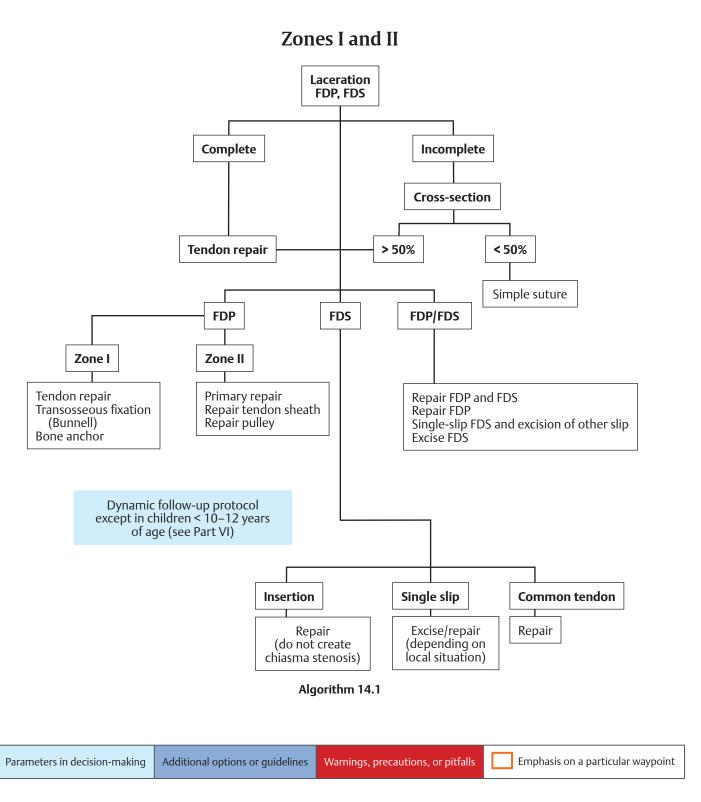
Algorithm 13.3

Ligaments 63



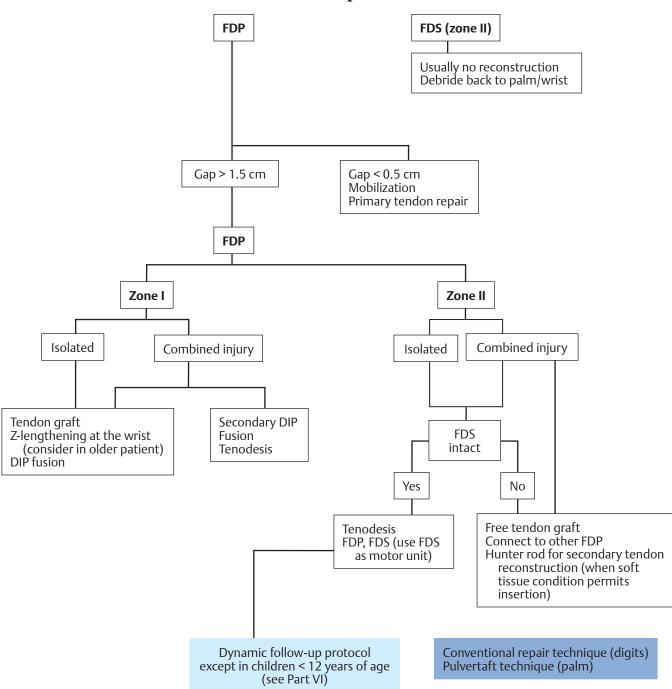
Chapter 14

Flexor Systems



Flexor Systems 65

Tendon Loss, Rupture, Avulsion



Algorithm 14.2

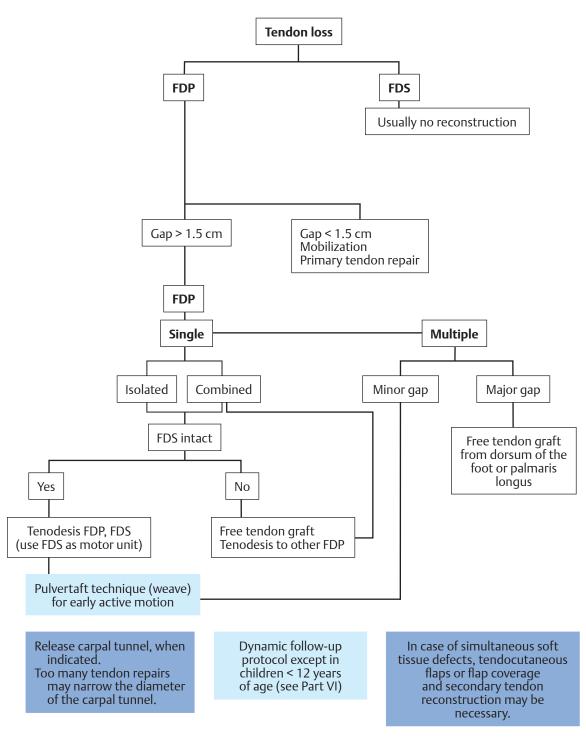
Zones III and IV Laceration FDP, FDS (no tendon loss) **Complete** Incomplete Tendon repair **Cross-section** > 50% < 50% Simple suture **Isolated** Combined Nerve injury Vascular injury **FDP FDS** FDP, FDS Soft tissue injury Primary repair Repair Repair FDP and FDS Repair FDP Release carpal tunnel when indicated. FDS repair only when Too many tendon repairs may narrow situation permits the diameter of the carpal tunnel. Dynamic follow-up protocol except in children < 12 years of age

Algorithm 14.3

(see Part VI)

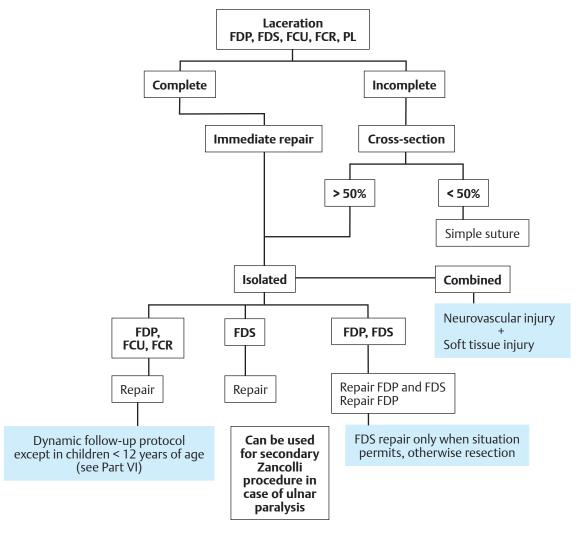
Flexor Systems 67

Zones III and IV



Algorithm 14.4

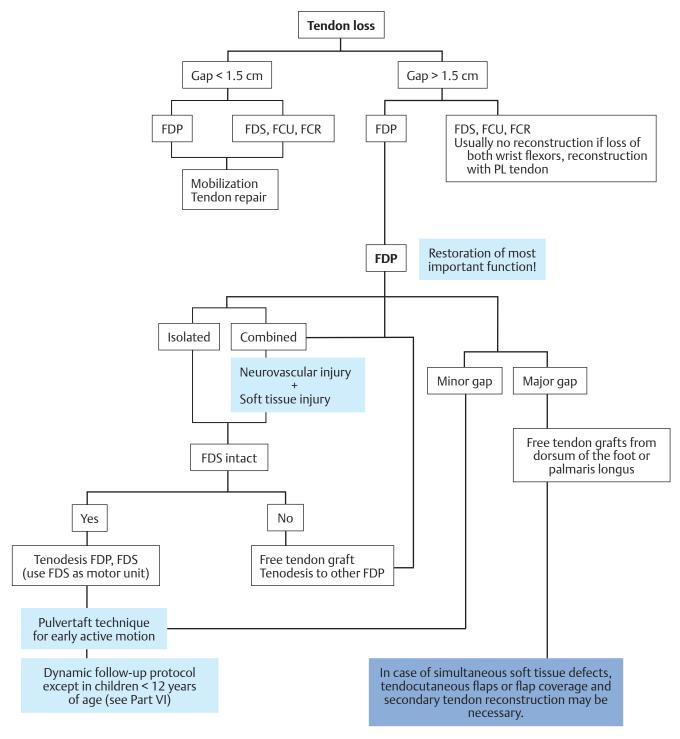
Zones V and VI (Wrist/Forearm)



Algorithm 14.5

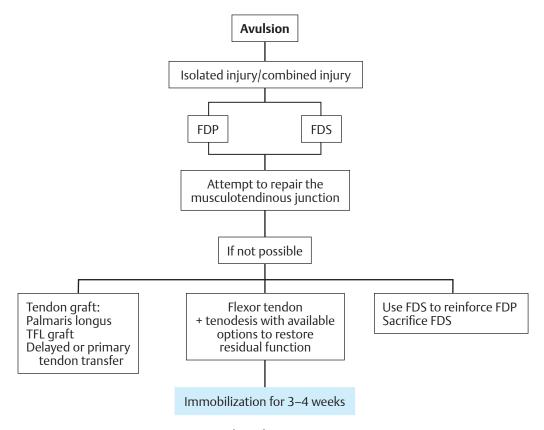
69 Flexor Systems

Zones V and VI (Wrist/Forearm)



Algorithm 14.6

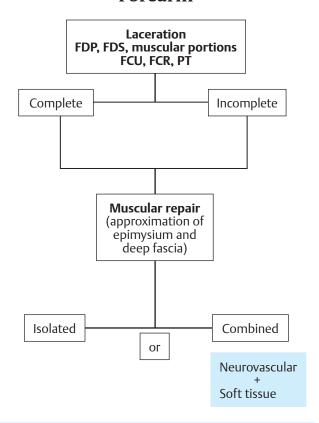
Zone VI (Musculotendinous Junction)



Algorithm 14.7

Flexor Systems 71

Forearm



Immobilization for 4–5 weeks (if no tension)–on repair Immobilization for 5 weeks (if no tension)–on repair

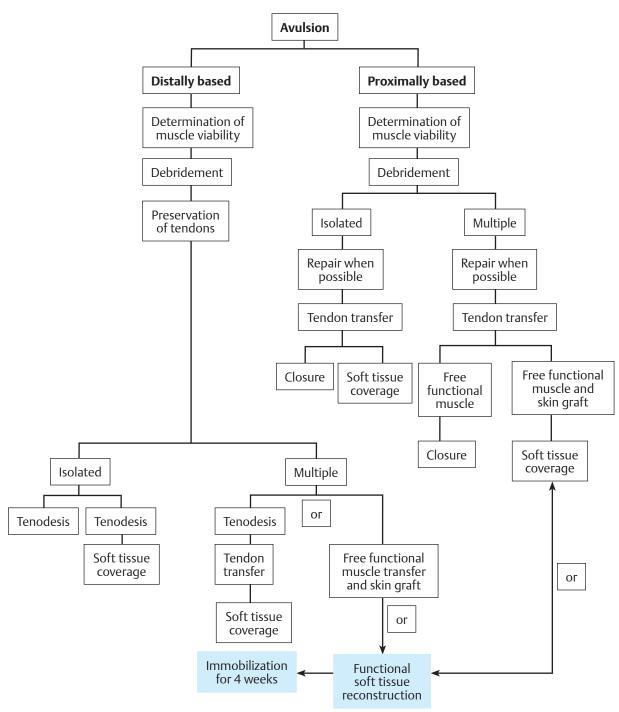
Algorithm 14.8

Forearm Muscle loss Gap < 1.5 cm Gap > 1.5 cm **FDP** FDS, FCU, FCR **FDP** FDS, FCU, FCR Mobilization Usually no reconstruction Muscle repair Immediate muscle/tendon Approximation of deep fascia transfer when both wrist flexors are involved Restoration of most **FDP** important function! Minor gap Major gap Primary muscle/tendon transfer Functional muscle transfer Primary muscle/ tendon transfer (microvascular) Immobilization for 4 weeks Immobilization for 6 weeks

Algorithm 14.9

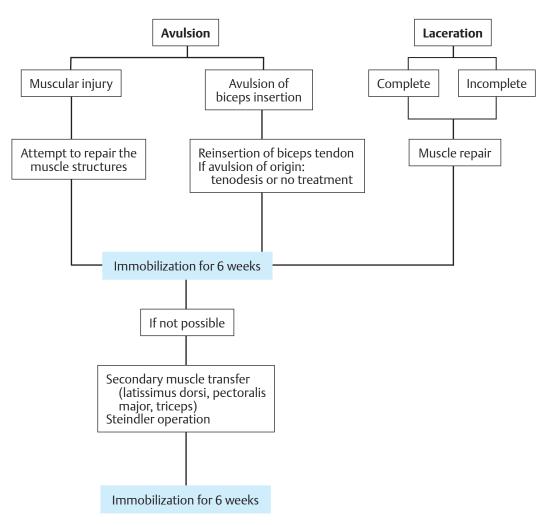
Flexor Systems 73

Forearm



Algorithm 14.10

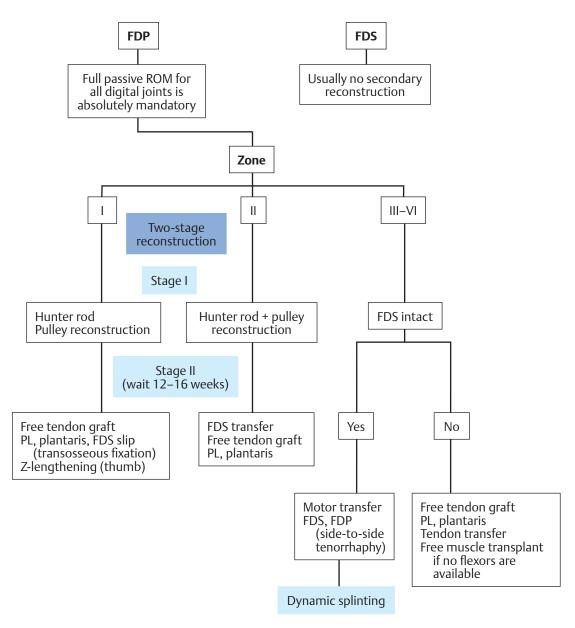
Brachium and Elbow



Algorithm 14.11

Flexor Systems 75

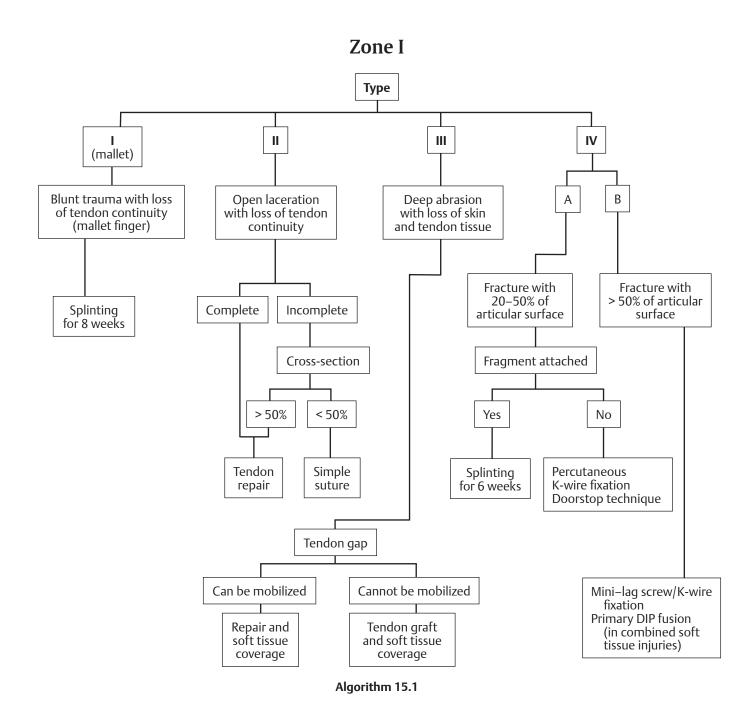
Flexor Tendon Reconstruction



Algorithm 14.12

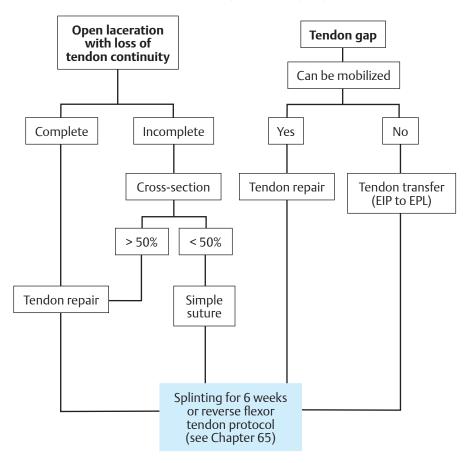
Chapter 15

Extensor Systems



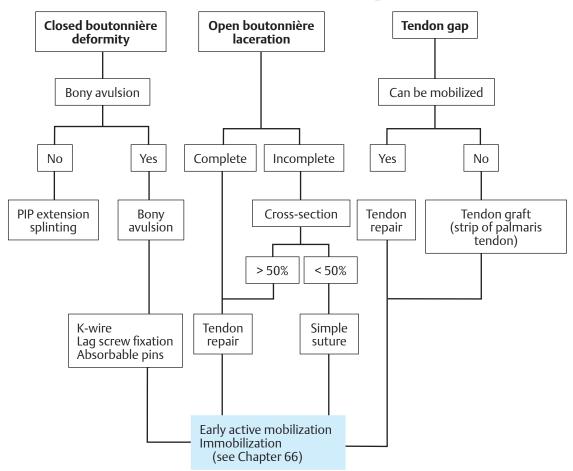
Extensor Systems 77

Zones II and IV-Thumb



Algorithm 15.2

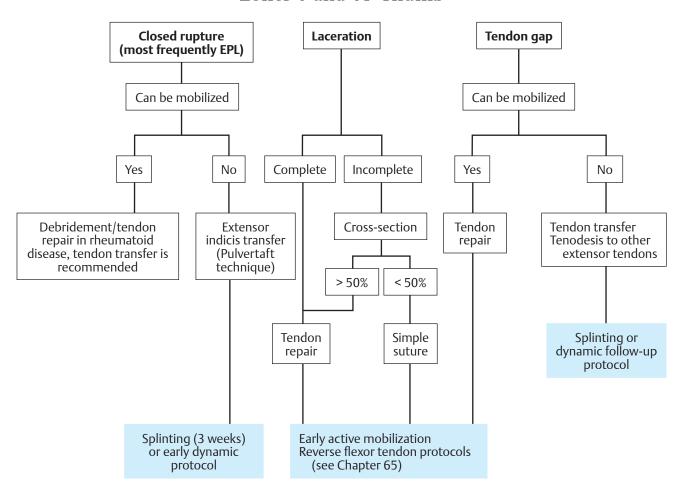
Zones III and IV-Central Slip



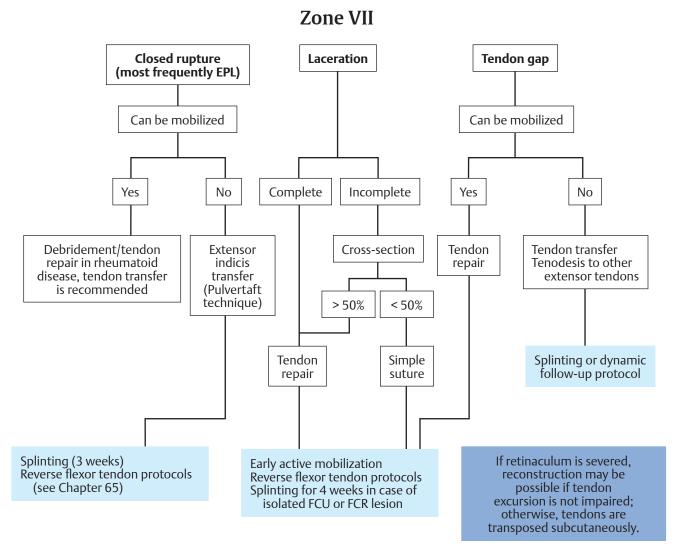
Algorithm 15.3

Extensor Systems 79

Zones V and VI-Thumb



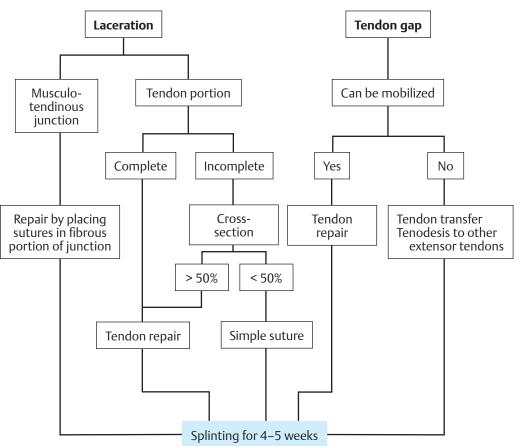
Algorithm 15.4



Algorithm 15.5

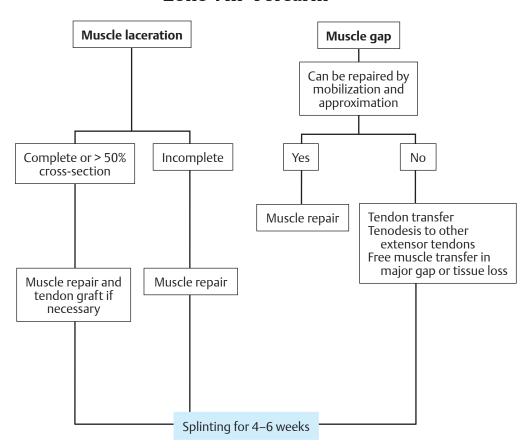
Extensor Systems 81

Zone VIII



Algorithm 15.6

Zone VIII-Forearm



Algorithm 15.7

Extensor Systems 83

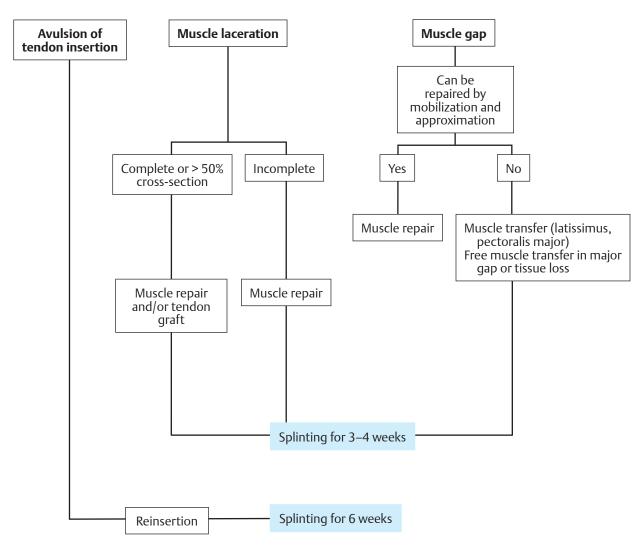
Forearm Avulsion of Muscle laceration Muscle gap tendon insertion Can be repaired by mobilization and approximation Complete or > 50% Incomplete No Yes cross-section Tendon transfer Muscle repair Tenodesis to other extensor tendons Free muscle transfer in major gap or tissue loss Muscle repair and tendon Muscle repair graft if necessary Splinting for 3–4 weeks

Algorithm 15.8

Splinting for 6 weeks

Reinsertion

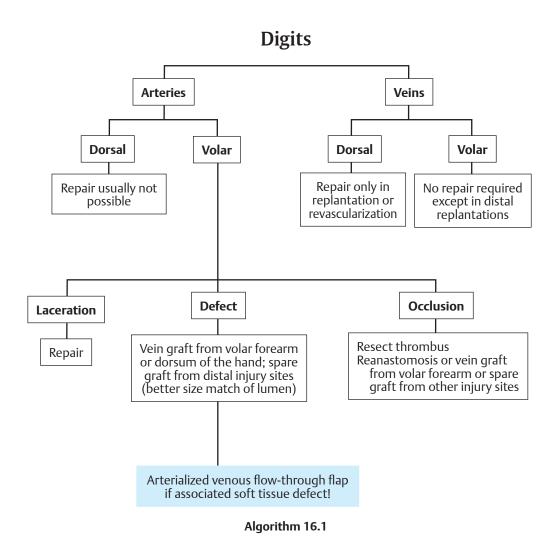
Brachium



Algorithm 15.9

Chapter 16

Vessels



Palm and Dorsum of the Hand **Arteries Veins** Dorsal Volar Dorsal Volar Repair only in No repair Repair princeps pollicis artery replantation or required (unless revascularization distally based skin avulsion) Superficial arch Deep arch Deep arch usually not repaired Laceration Defect Occlusion Vein graft from dorsum of the Resect thrombus Repair hand, volar forearm, or spare Reanastomosis or vein graft from graft from distal injury sites dorsum of the hand (caliber!), volar forearm, or spare graft

Algorithm 16.2

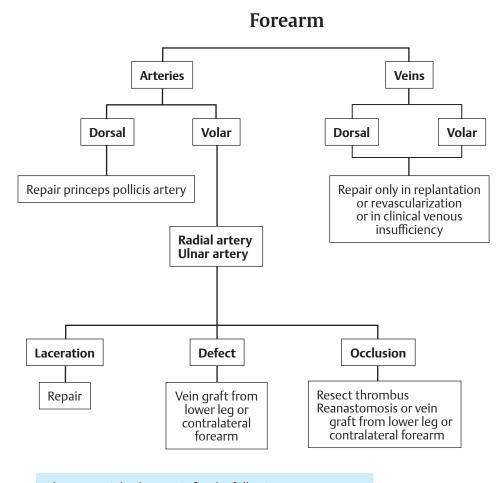
Arterial graft from subscapular system possible when entire

arterial arch is occluded?

Arterial graft from subscapular

system possible when arterial arch is destroyed?

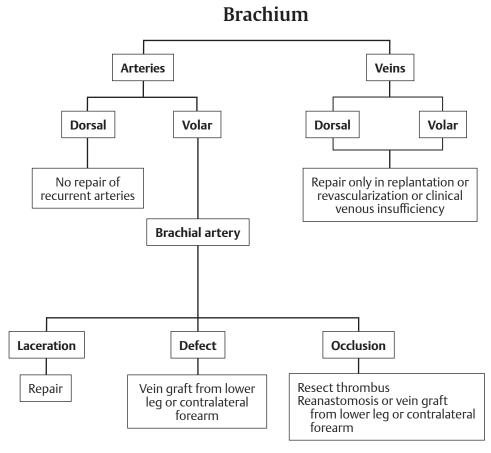
ALT pedicle DIEP pedicle **Vessels** 87



Always repair both arteries for the following reasons:

- 1. Réserve capacity
- Possible secondary occlusion from sequelae of trauma
 Reinjury later in life

Algorithm 16.3



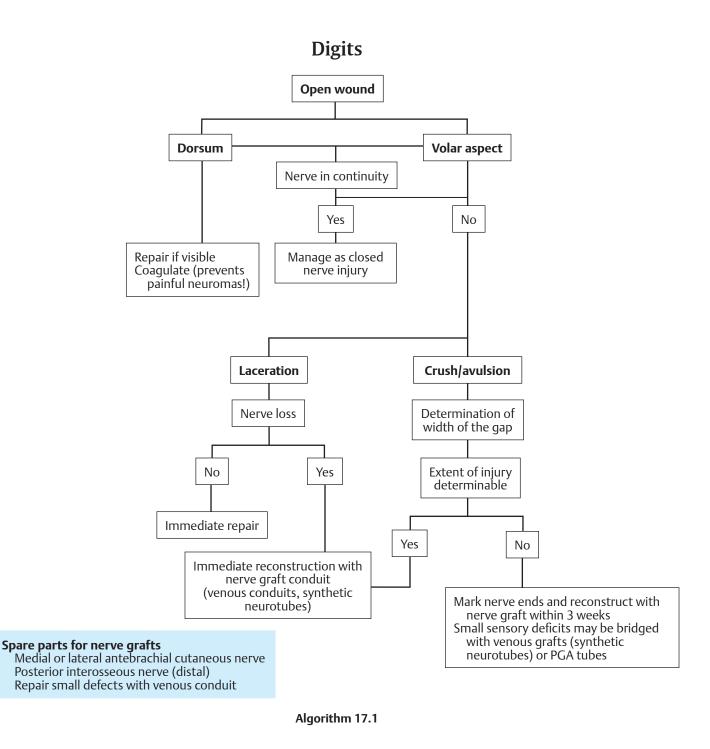
Algorithm 16.4

Chapter 17

Parameters in decision-making

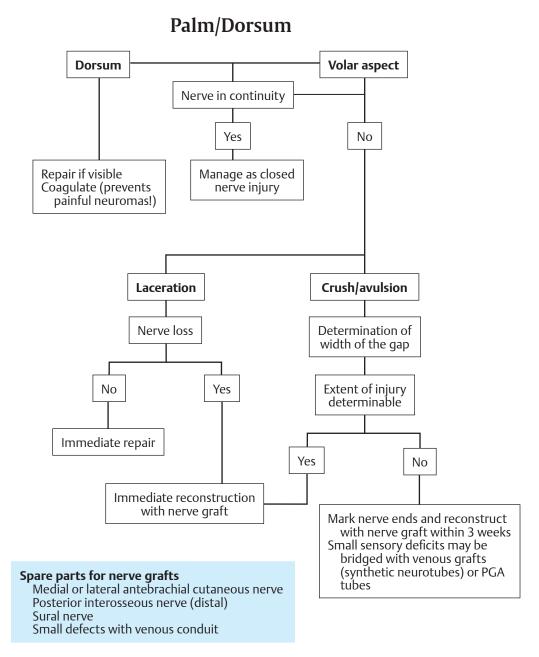
Additional options or guidelines

Nerves



Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls

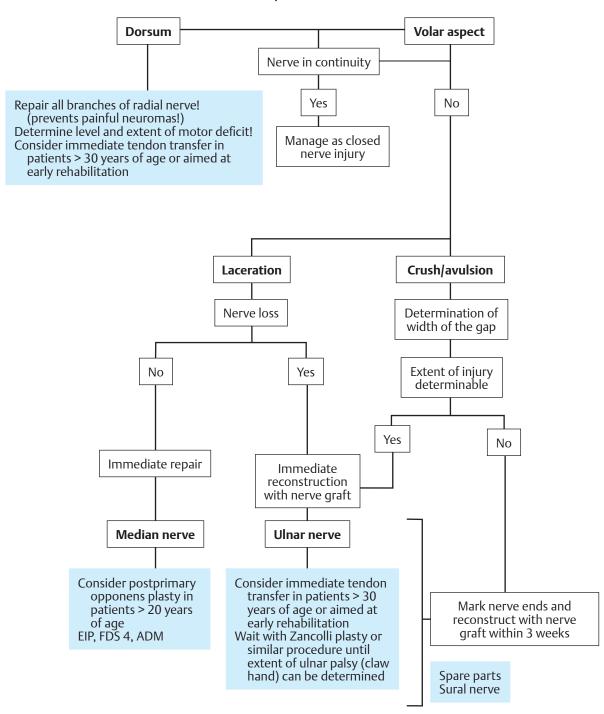
Emphasis on a particular waypoint



Algorithm 17.2

Nerves 91

Wrist/Distal Forearm



Algorithm 17.3

Brachium Nerve in continuity Yes No Manage as closed nerve injury Crush/avulsion Laceration Nerve loss Determination of width of the gap Extent of injury No Yes determinable No Mark nerve ends and reconstruct with nerve graft within 3 weeks **Immediate Immediate** reconstruction with repair Spare parts nerve graft Sural nerve grafts **Median nerve Ulnar** nerve Radial nerve Consider postprimary opponens Consider immediate tendon transfer Consider immediate tendon plasty in patients > 20 years (FDS, FDP) in patients > 30 years of transfer in patients > 30 years age or aimed at early rehabilitation of age or aimed for early Wait with Zancolli plasty or similar rehabilitation

procedure until extent of ulnar palsy is determined

ECRB

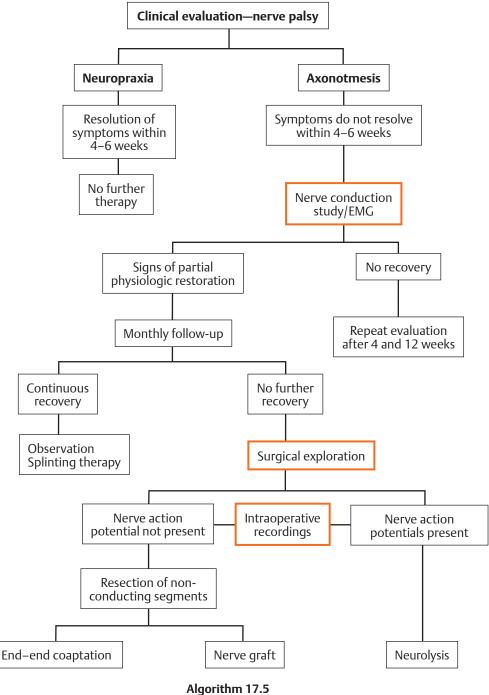
of age

EIP, FDS 4, ADM

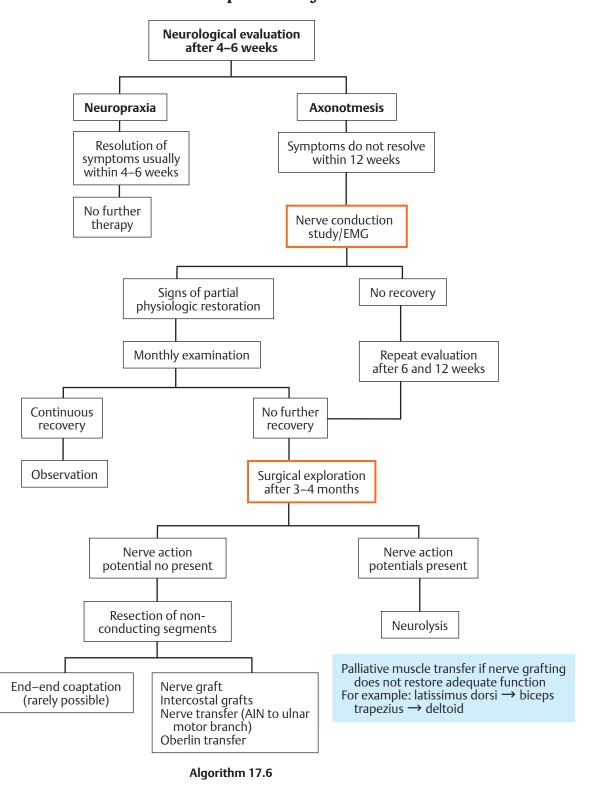
FCU, EDC, FDS 4, EPL, PT, ECRL/

93 Nerves

Closed Nerve Injury

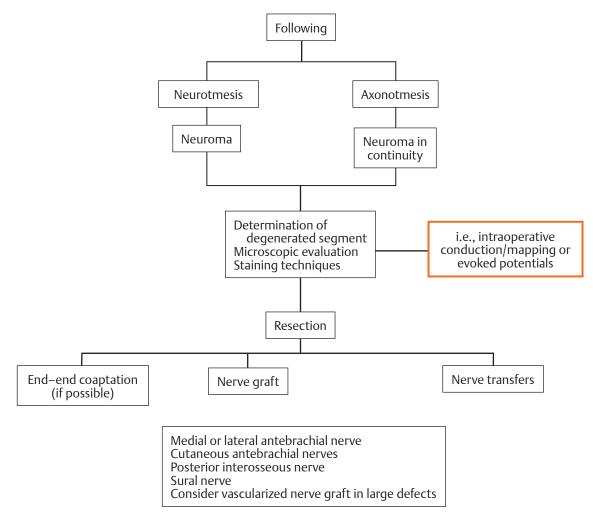


Closed Brachial Plexus Injury with Complete Palsy

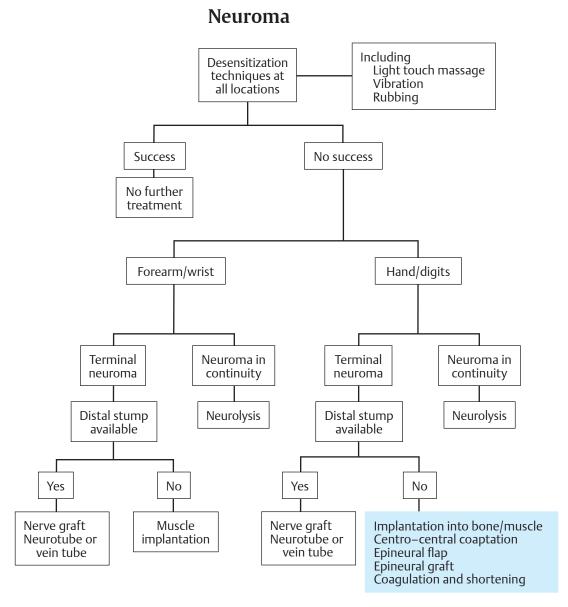


Nerves 95

Secondary Nerve Reconstruction



Algorithm 17.7

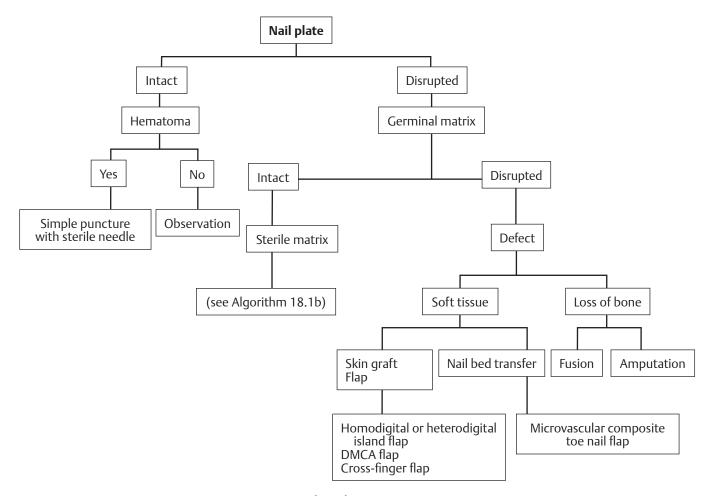


Algorithm 17.8

Chapter 18

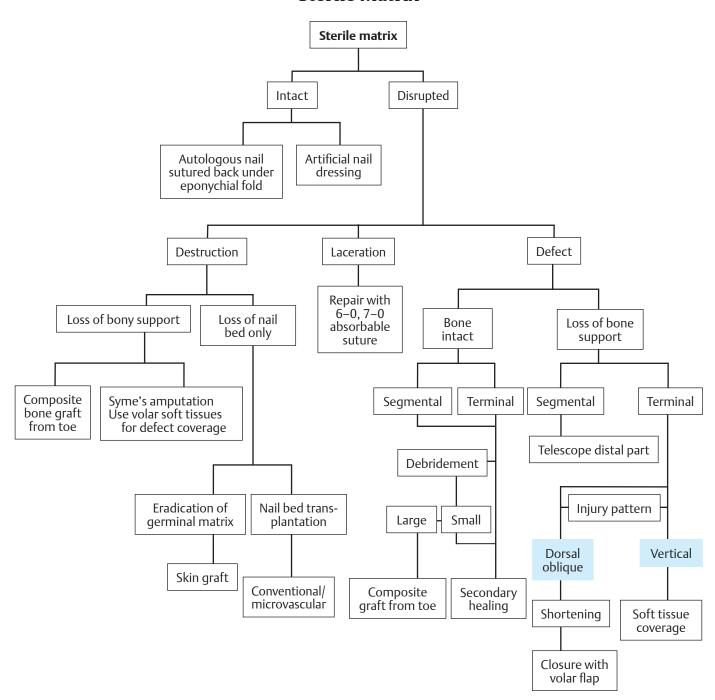
Skin and Soft Tissue

Injuries to the Nail Complex— Nail Plate and Germinal Matrix

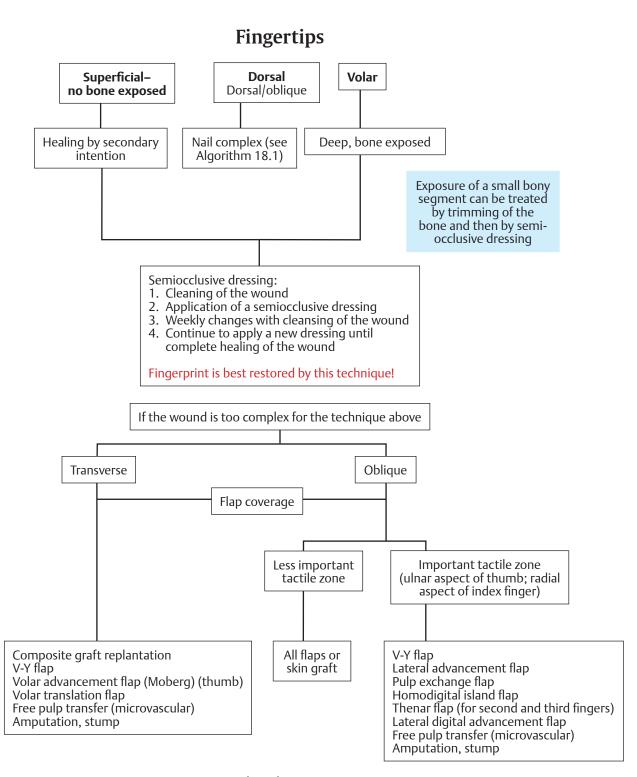


Algorithm 18.1a

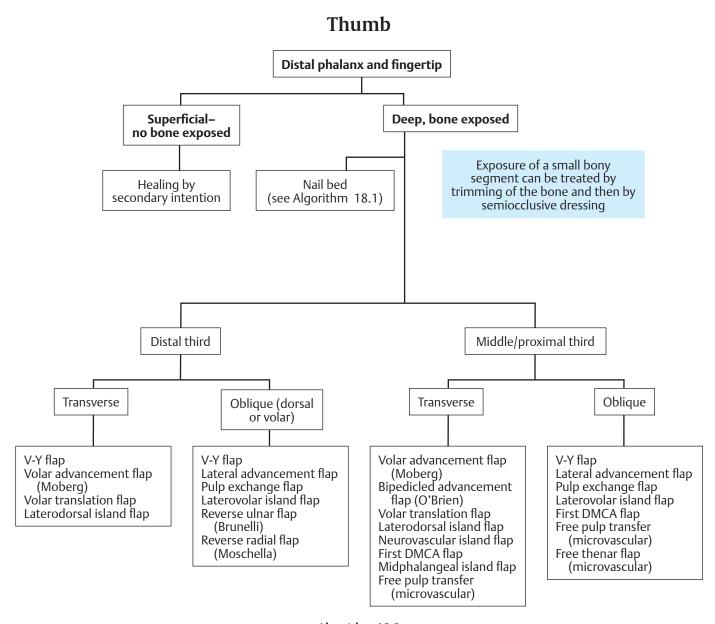
Injuries to the Nail Complex— Sterile Matrix



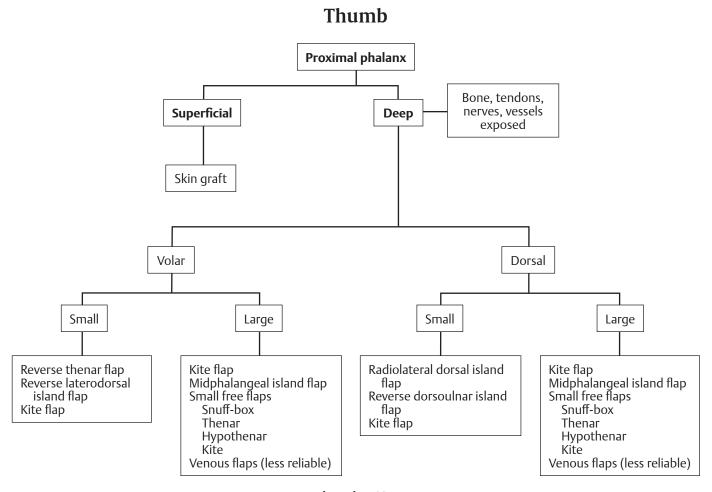
Algorithm 18.1b



Algorithm 18.2



Algorithm 18.3



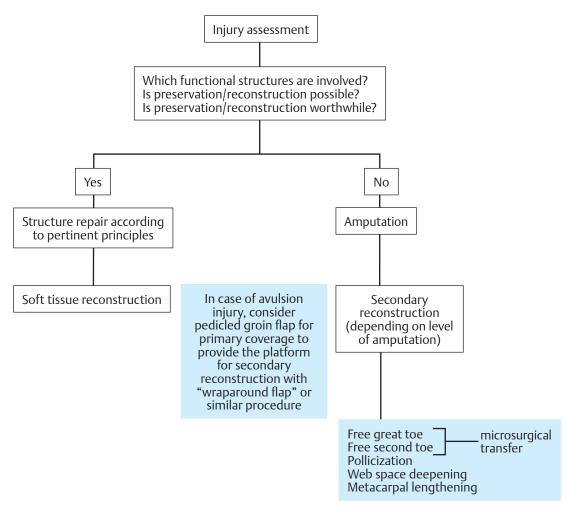
Algorithm 18.4

Thumb Combined defects of proximal phalanx—volar and dorsal Vessels, bones, joints, tendons Superficial Deep exposed Skin graft In case of avulsion injury, consider pedicled groin flap for primary coverage to provide the platform for secondary reconstruction with "wraparound flap" or similar procedure Pedicle flaps Microvascular flaps Small/medium-Small/medium-Larger Larger sized defects sized defects defects defects Kite flap Posterior interosseous Kite flap Lateral arm flap Midphalangeal island island flap (cutaneous Fillet flap or pedicle flap (fascial) from injured adjacent Temporalis fascial flap flap and fascial) Fillet flap or pedicle flap Reverse radial forearm digit may be necessary Free contralateral Venous flap (less reliable) from injured adjacent flap (cutaneous and forearm fascial flap digit may be necessary fascial) All forearm flaps need

Algorithm 18.5

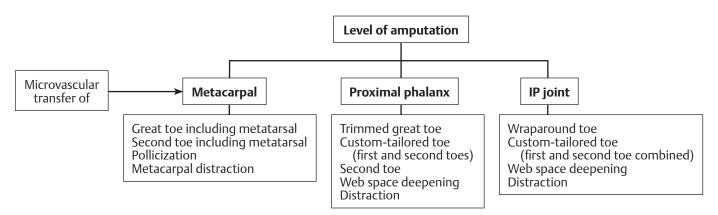
coaptation to recipient nerves to regain sensibility

Compound Defects of Proximal and Distal Phalanx of Thumb

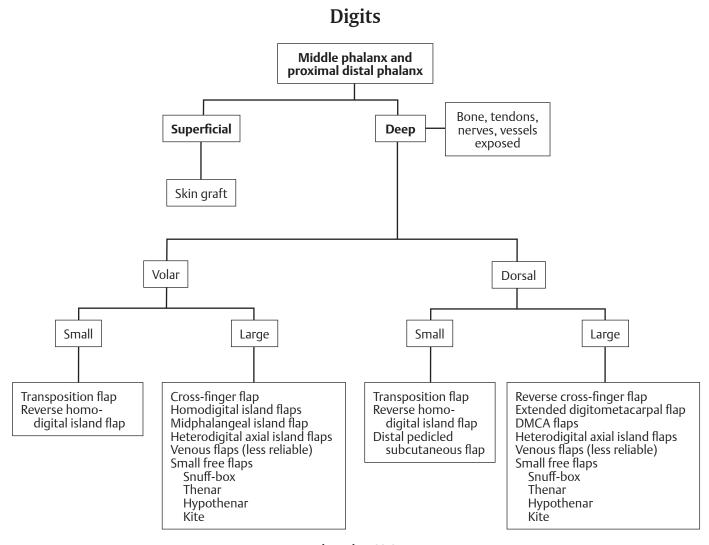


Algorithm 18.6

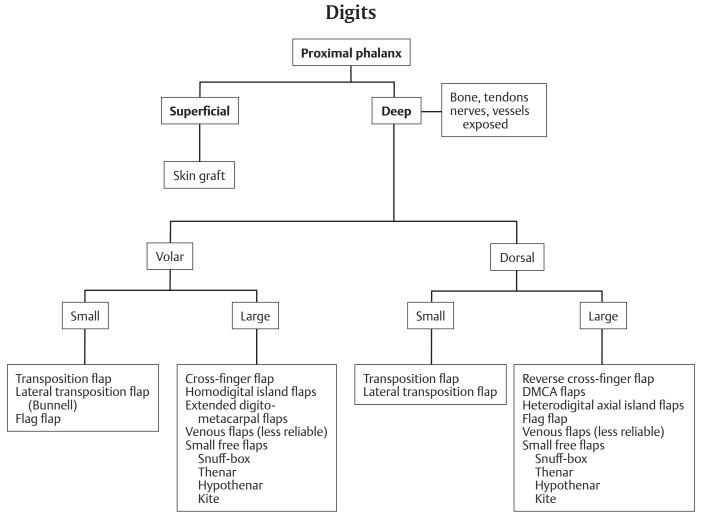
Thumb Reconstruction



Algorithm 18.7

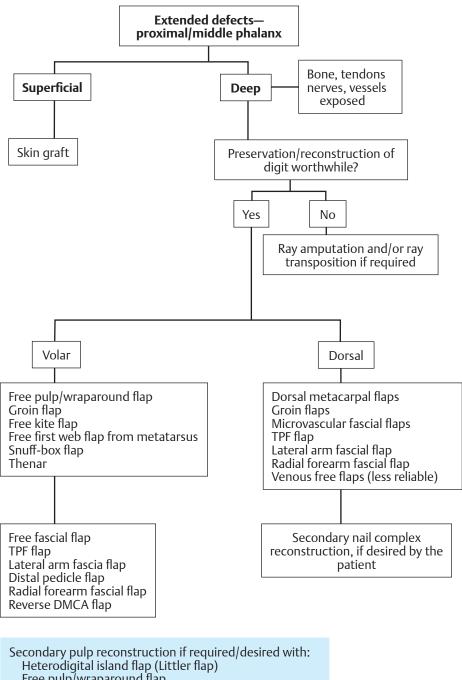


Algorithm 18.8



Algorithm 18.9

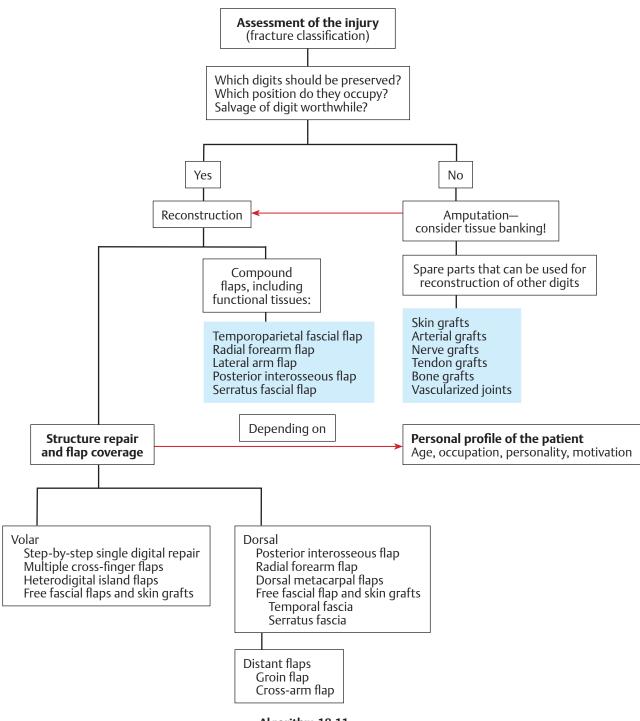
Digits



Free pulp/wraparound flap

Algorithm 18.10

Multidigital Injuries

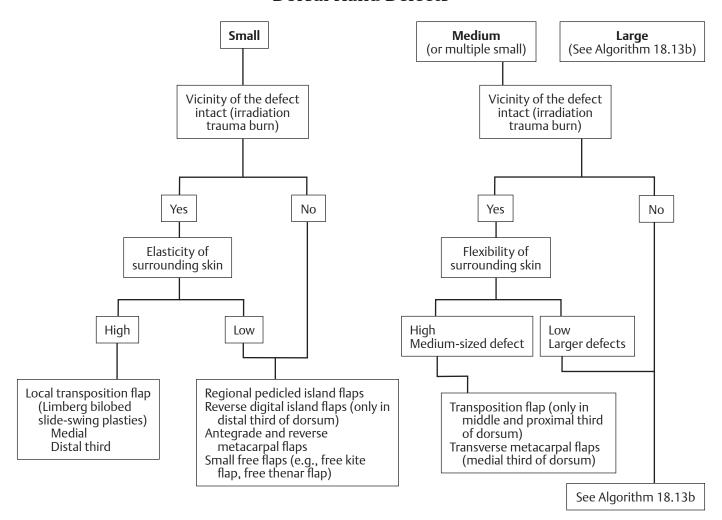


Algorithm 18.11

Palm Superficial/deep Forearm vessels intact (see Algorithm 4.2) Yes No Pedicled forearm flap Free flap Allen test Cutaneous flap Fascial flap Female Female Male Male (to avoid (donor site!) forearm scar) TPF flap Cutaneous **Fascial** TPF flap Instep island flap Serratus flap Serratus flap flaps flaps (from foot) Lateral arm flap Anterior thigh flap Fascial flaps are preferred in volar defects because they are pliable and thin Radial perforator flap Radial forearm flap Ulnar perforator flap Ulnar forearm flap Posterior interosseous flap **Fascial flaps** Partial flap necrosis has been reported in all types of pedicled fascial flaps so that delayed skin grafting should be considered if there are signs of questionable flap viability! Increased capillary bleeding may also been seen in fascial flaps. In these cases secondary grafting is also recommended! Tip: Harvest skin graft at primary operation Storage in refrigerator Leave catheter in brachial plexus for analgesia Skin grafting after 2–3 days as "dressing room" procedure

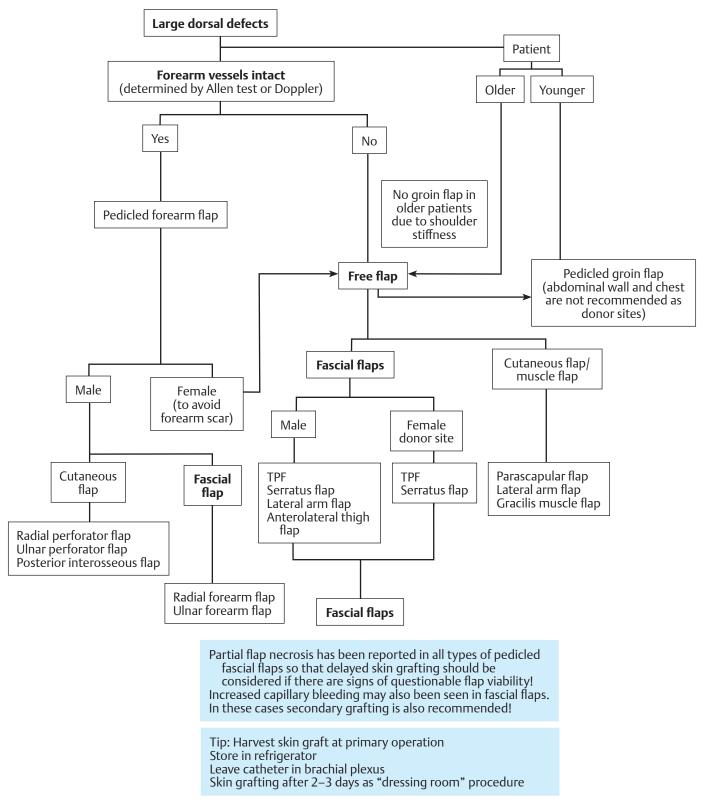
Algorithm 18.12

Dorsal Hand Defects



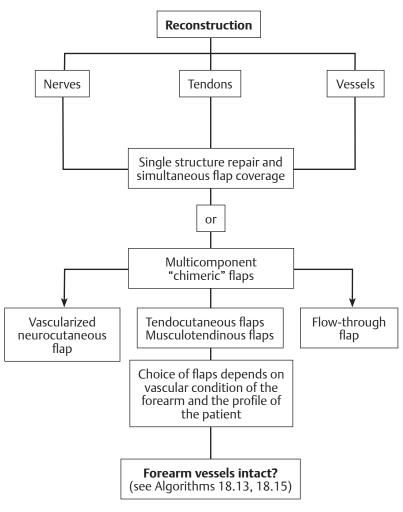
Algorithm 18.13a

Dorsal Hand Defects



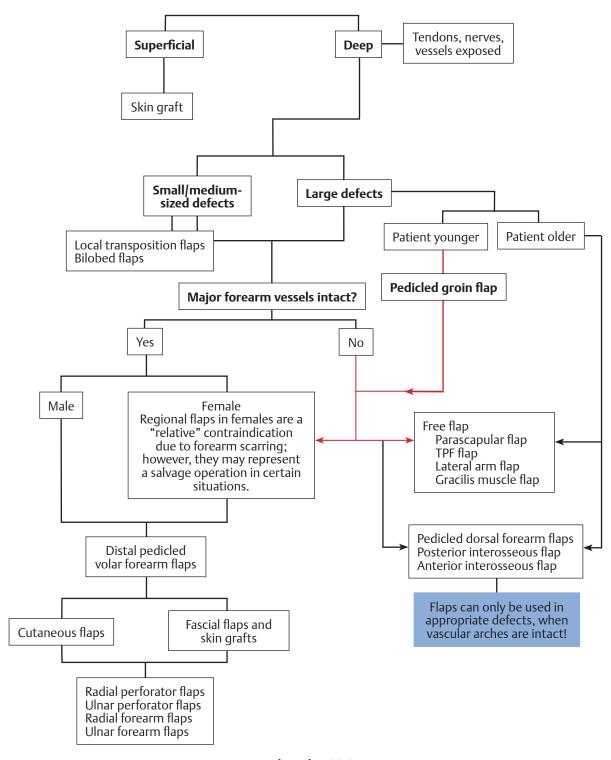
Algorithm 18.13b

Complex Volar and Dorsal Defects



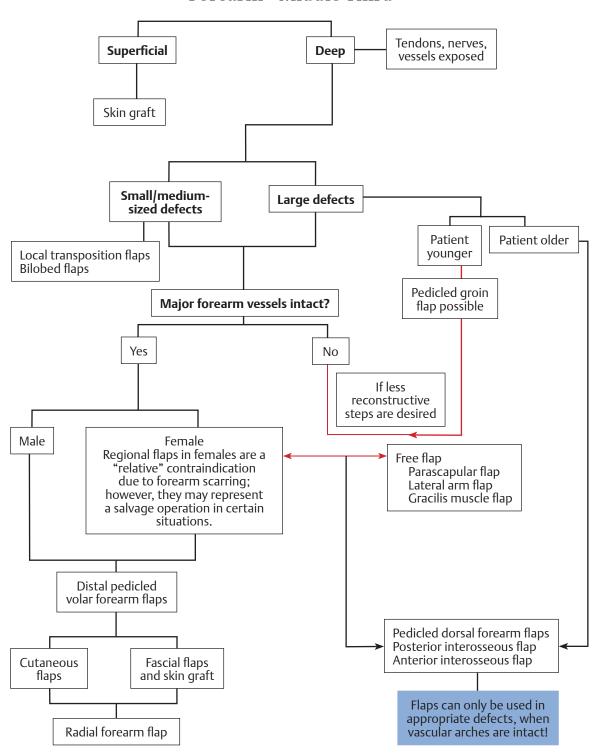
Algorithm 18.14

Forearm—Distal Third and Wrist



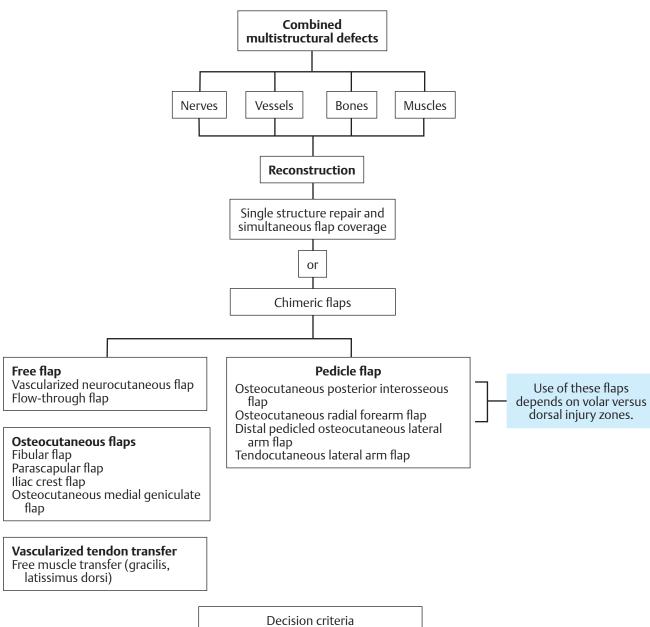
Algorithm 18.15

Forearm-Middle Third



Algorithm 18.16

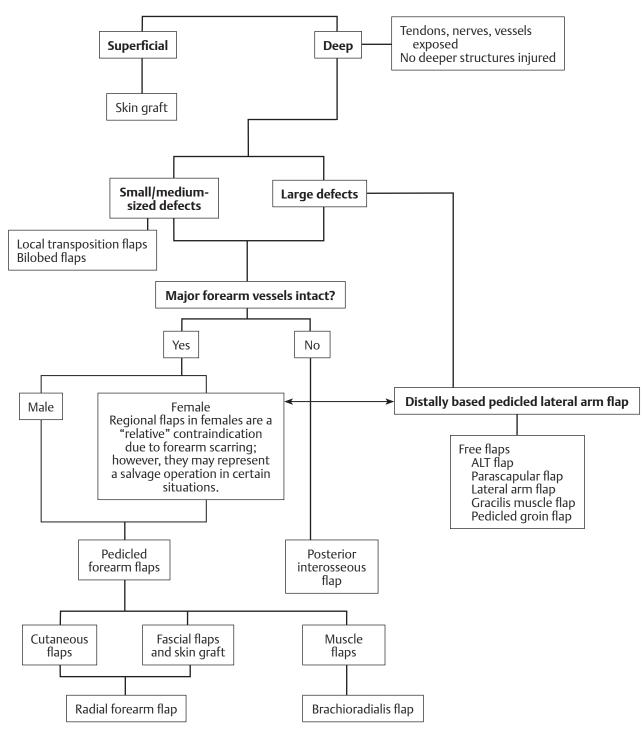
Complex Forearm Defects



(see Algorithms 18.12 through 18.16)

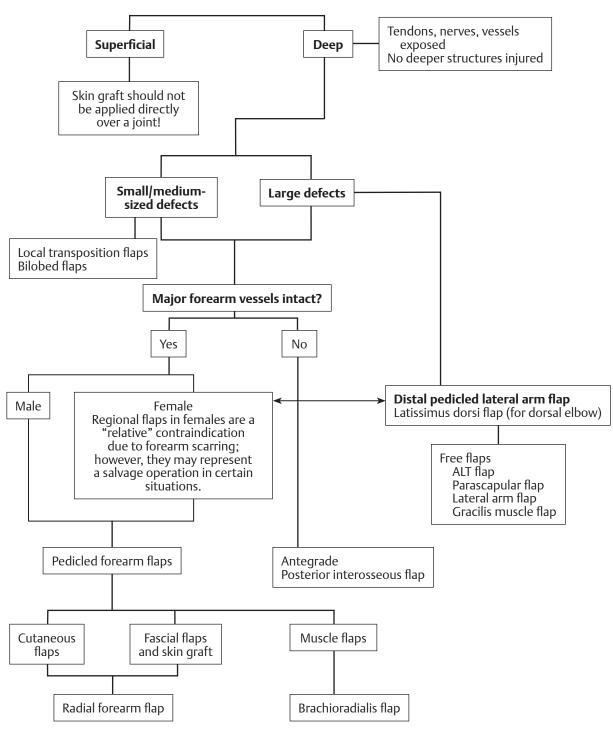
Algorithm 18.17

Ventral Elbow and Proximal Forearm

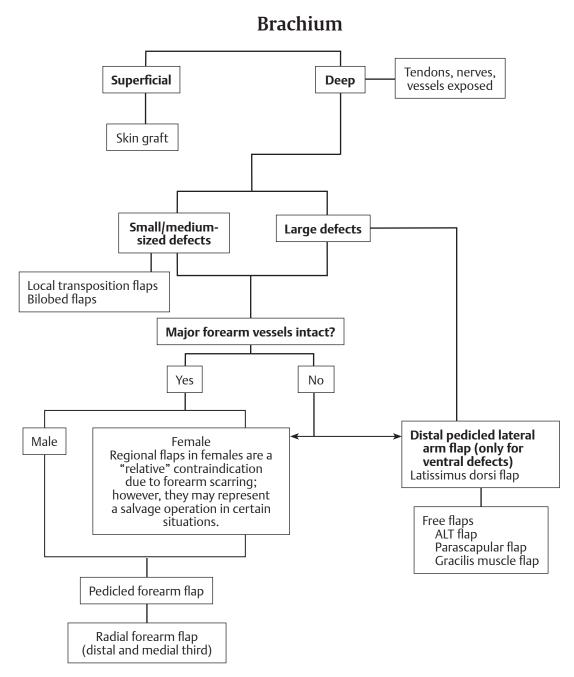


Algorithm 18.18

Elbow and Proximal Forearm

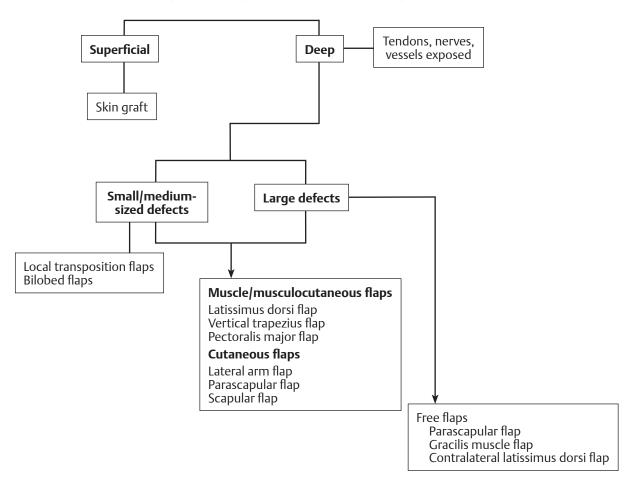


Algorithm 18.19



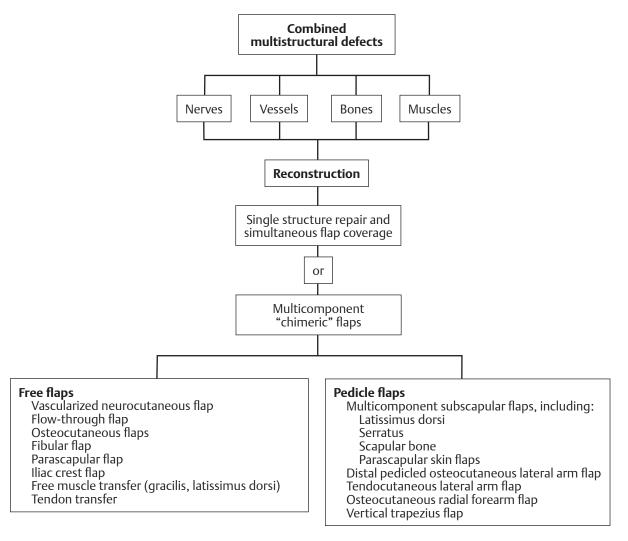
Algorithm 18.20

Shoulder and Proximal Brachium



Algorithm 18.21

Complex Defects of the Upper Arm



Algorithm 18.22

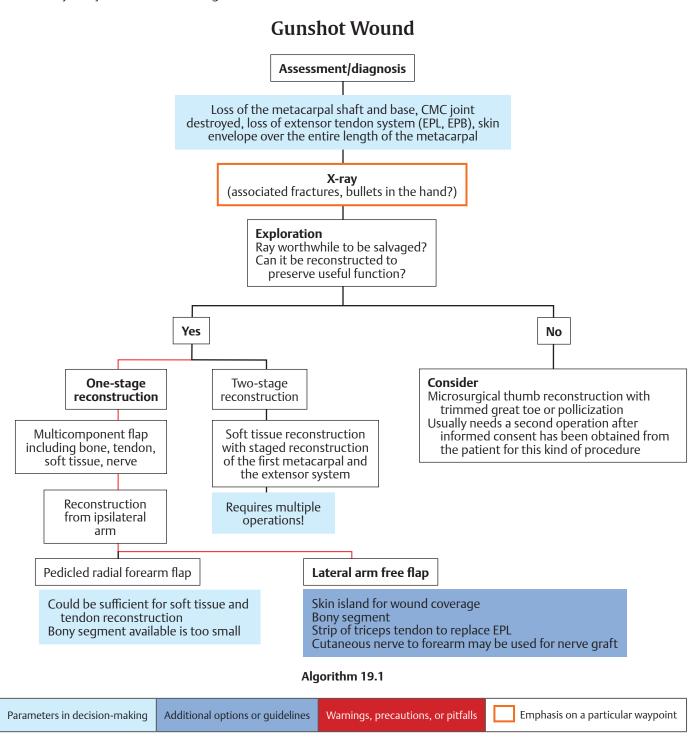
Part IV

Clinical Examples

Chapter 19

Gunshot Wound

Case history: 23-year-old man with a qunshot wound to the hand.



124 Clinical Examples



Fig. 19.1 (a) This patient has sustained a gunshot wound to the hand, with loss of the metacarpal and concomitant soft tissue injury. **(b)** A spanning external fixator is used to stabilize the thumb remnant and to maintain the thumb-index web space. **(c)** The design of the osteocutaneous flap includes a segment of the humeral corticalis. **(d)** The flap is elevated on the posterior radial collateral artery. This composite flap includes skin, subcutaneous tissue, and vascularized bone (*continued*).

Gunshot Wound 125



Fig. 19.1 (*continued*) **(e,f)** The metacarpal graft is fixated during the healing of vascularized bone to create a metacarpal shaft. **(g)** The final appearance of the patient's reconstructed hand is shown; thumb function and the thumb-index web space have been maintained. EPL was reconstructed with a second-stage free tendon graft.

Burn

Case history: 22-year-old woman with a third-degree friction burn to the dorsum of her hand. Second-degree burns on the left leq and thigh will spontaneously heal.

Friction Burn Assessment/diagnosis Second-degree burn on left thigh and lower leg (will spontaneously heal) Third-degree burn to the hand Index finger: MP, PIP joints exposed; paratenon preserved Ring finger: extensor hood exposed at MP joint, articular capsule exposed at PIP joint Long finger: extensor hood exposed at MP joint; PIP joint exposed with paratenon preserved MP joint of index finger PIP joint of index finger and long finger MP long finger PIP ring finger MP ring finger Skin graft from scalp (donor site not visible) Dorsum of hand intact? If DMCA flaps are already used for MP joints Yes No Reverse DMCA flaps Antegrade digital island flap Free fascial flaps Antegrade digital island flaps Lateral arm + skin graft Reverse cross-finger flap from scalp from ring finger ОΓ Inclusion in fascial flap to MP joints Groin flap in young female patients Algorithm 20.1 Parameters in decision-making Additional options or guidelines Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls Emphasis on a particular waypoint

Burn 127



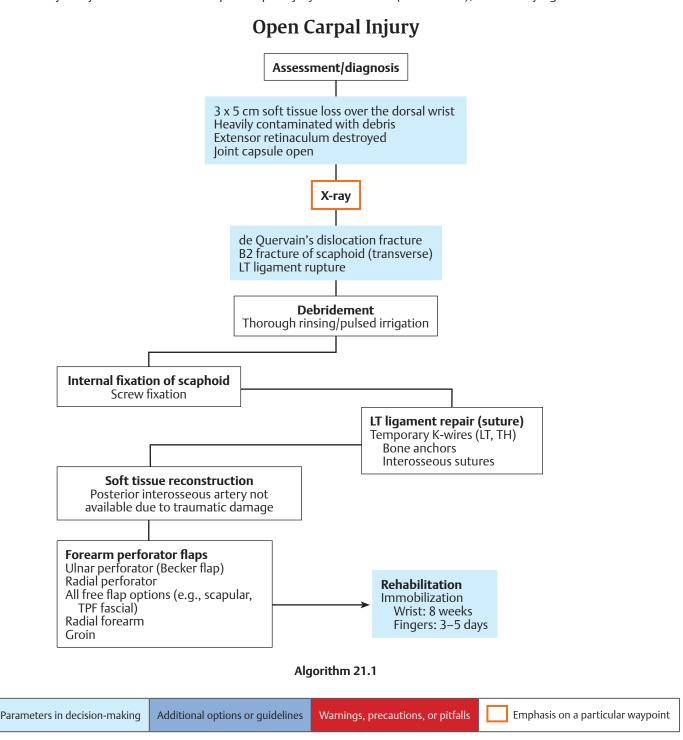
Fig. 20.1 (a) This patient had a crush/burn injury in a hot press machine. The palm was avulsed and a portion of this did not survive. **(b)** She also had third-degree burns to the dorsum of the hand. **(c)** Markings for deep circumflex iliac artery and superficial circumflex iliac artery flaps. **(d)** The flaps were raised. **(e)** Both flaps were attached to the hand. **(f)** The hand is shown before tissue expansion for the thumb-index web contracture (*continued*).



Fig. 20.1 (continued) **(g)** A tissue expander was placed under the groin flap. **(h)** Web space was improved after expansion of the dorsal flap and transposition. **(i)** Writing. **(j)** Opposition.

Carpal Injury

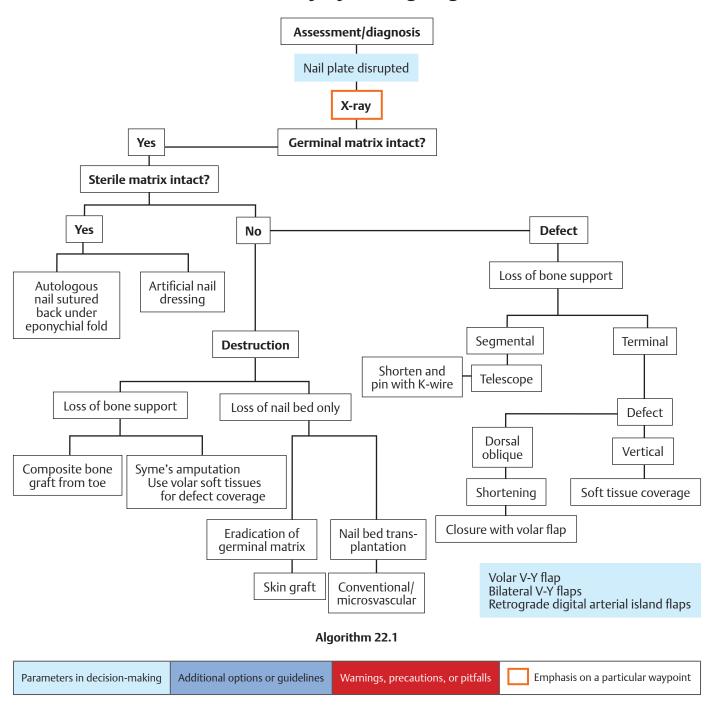
Case history: 42-year-old man with an open carpal injury from an MVA (convertible), with overlying soft tissue loss.



Crush Injury

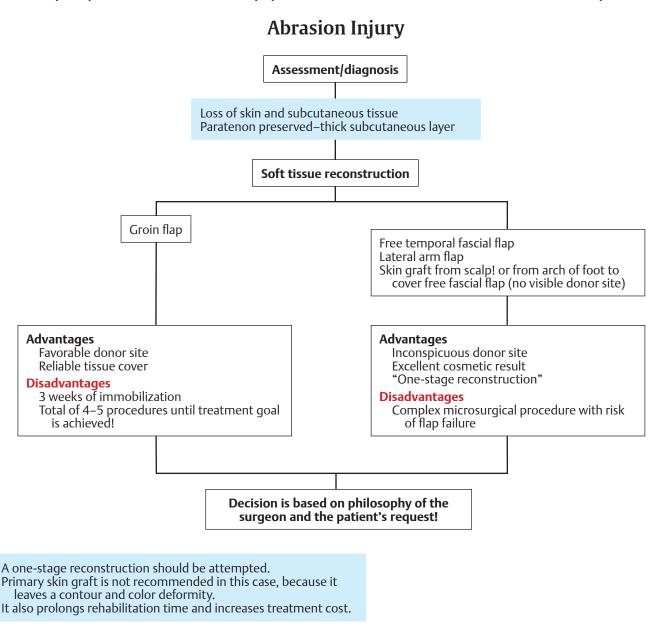
Case history: 34-year-old man with an occupational crush injury to the distal phalanx of the long finger.

Crush Injury to Long Finger



Dorsal Soft Tissue Injury to Finger and Hand

Case history: 18-year-old man with avulsion injury of the dorsum of the left hand after a fall from a motorcycle.



Algorithm 23.1

Parameters in decision-making Additional options or guidelines Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls Emphasis on a particular waypoint

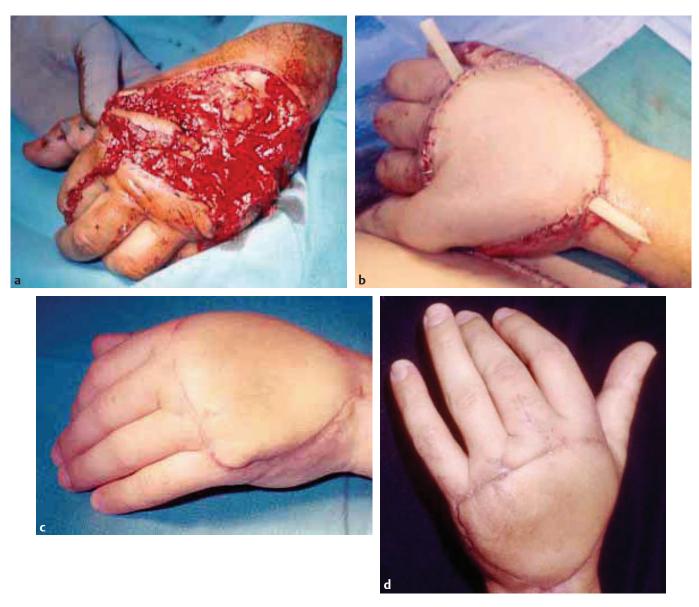
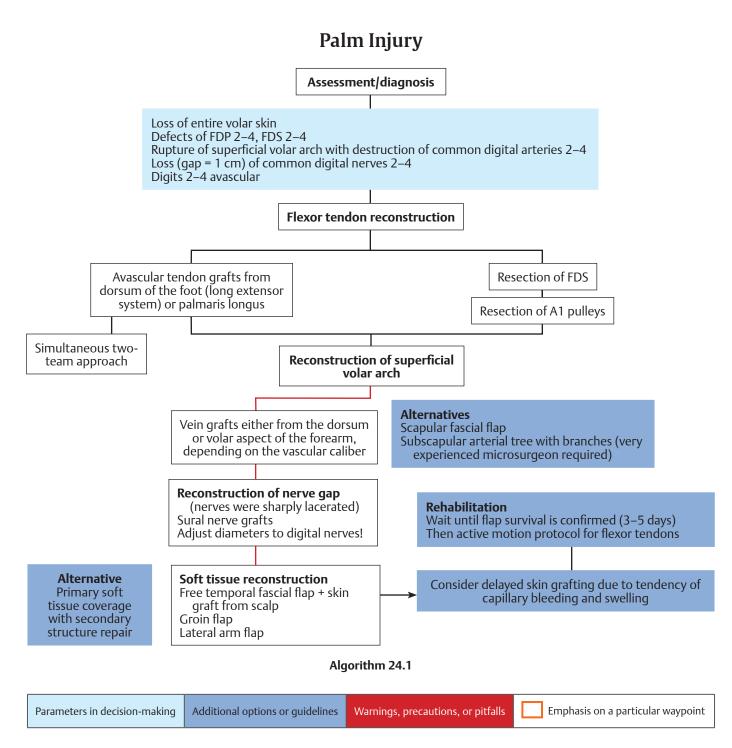


Fig. 23.1 In this case we selected a multiple-stage approach because of the contamination of the wound. **(a)** This patient had a dorsal avulsion injury that involved damage of the skin and the extensor tendons. **(b)** A pedicle flap was grown for dorsal soft tissue coverage. Note the position of the pedicle and the hand position. **(c)** The flap was allowed to heal before second-stage extensor tendon reconstruction was performed with Hunter rods followed by tendon grafts. **(d)** Digital extension is shown after second-stage reconstruction with free tendon grafts.

Volar Soft Tissue Injury to Finger and Hand/Palm

Case history: A 34-year-old woman injured her palm in an industrial grinder accident. She has loss of functional structures.



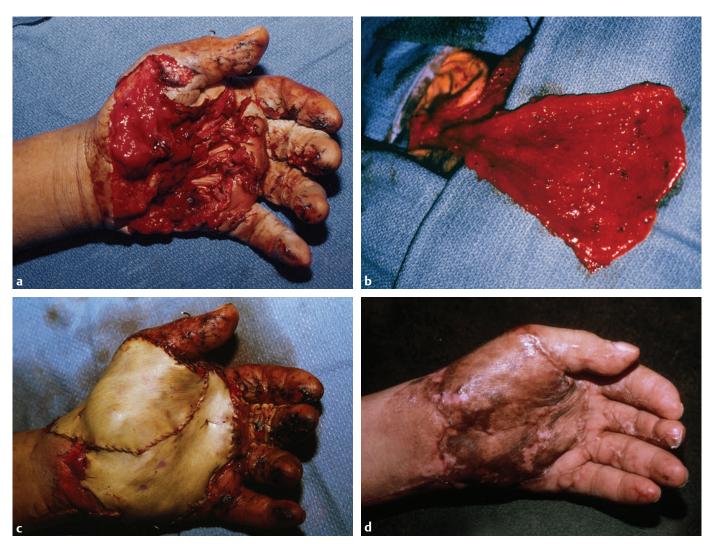


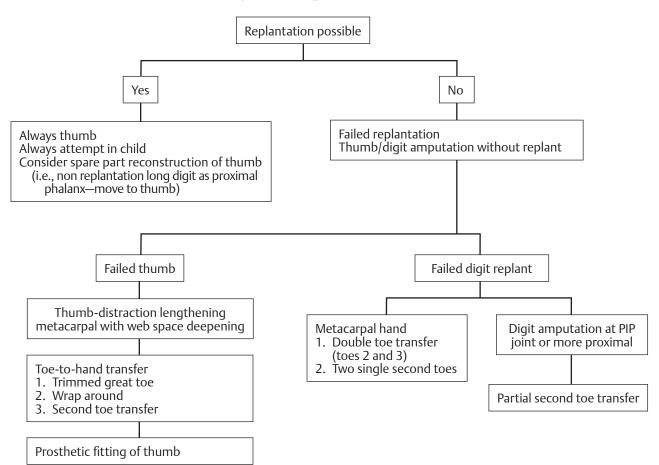
Fig. 24.1 (a) This patient had a volar crush injury caused by an incendiary device. **(b)** A TPF flap was created. **(c)** The transferred flap was covered with an FTSG. **(d)** The patient's hand is shown 3 months after flap transfer.

Digital Amputation

Case history: 23-year-old man with circular saw injury to the dominant, right long finger.

Circular Saw Injury Assessment/diagnosis Incomplete amputation of long finger through middle of proximal phalanx Comminuted A3 fracture with bone loss Finger is avascular and insensitive Salvage **Functional Functional** Yes No restoration restoration is possible unrealistic Debridement Amputation Bony stabilization of A3 fracture Through phalanx Ray Bone graft Shortening **Rehabilitation protocol** Bone graft from radius or iliac crest Chow Kleiner CPM **Duran and Hauser** K-wires (less stable: Lateral external Microplate (best no further dissection; stabilization; requires fixation (may impair PT is limited) further dissection) Loose skin adaptation Tendon repair zone II In this case, most likely only repair of FDP; FDS used as motor if defect in FDP (otherwise resect FDS) Nerve repair Vascular repair Primary nerve repair Repair both arteries if Venous repair only when signs of venous Posterior interosseous nerve technically possible congestion occur after flow is re-established Medial or lateral antebrachial nerve When nerve gap, immediate grafting When arterial gap, repair dominant artery Vein graft from volar wrist Arterial graft from nondominant artery Algorithm 25.1 Emphasis on a particular waypoint Additional options or quidelines Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls Parameters in decision-making

Digital Amputation



Algorithm 25.2

Digital Amputation 137

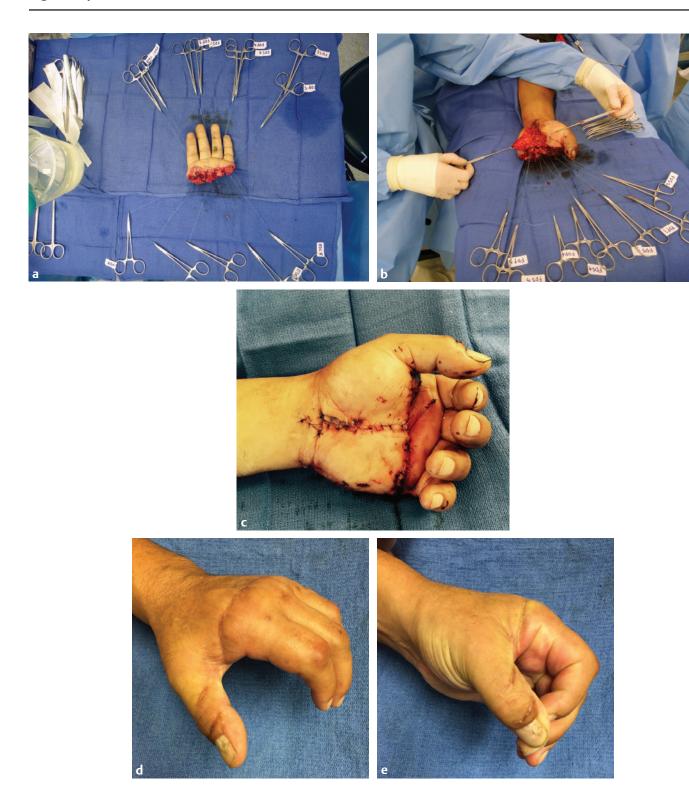


Fig. 25.1 (a) Amputated digits after transmetacarpal amputation. All structures have been tagged to facilitate replantation. **(b)** All structures in the stump have also been tagged and labelled. **(c)** Complete amputation through metacarpals. **(d,e)** The final functional result is shown 1 year after surgery.

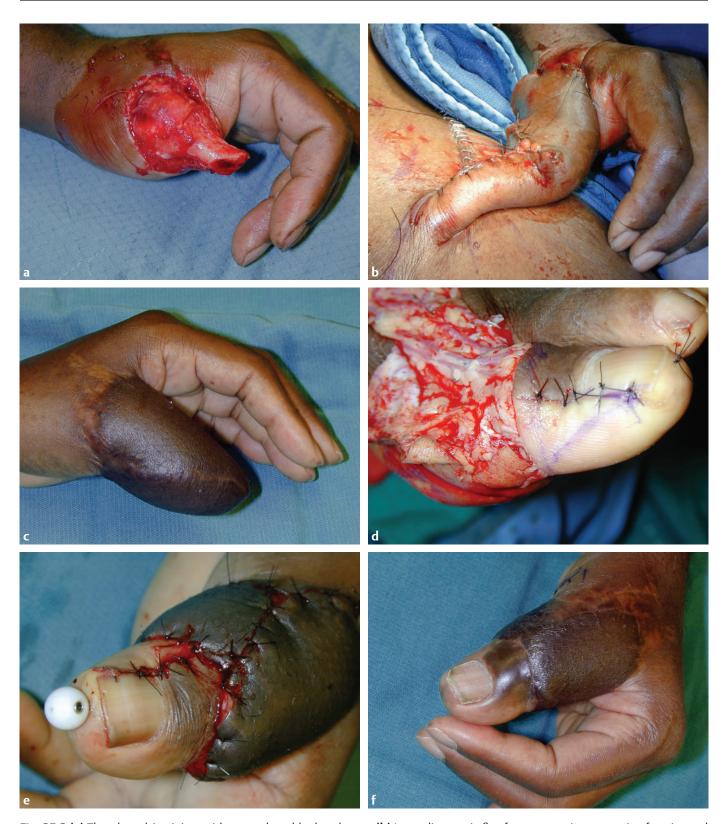
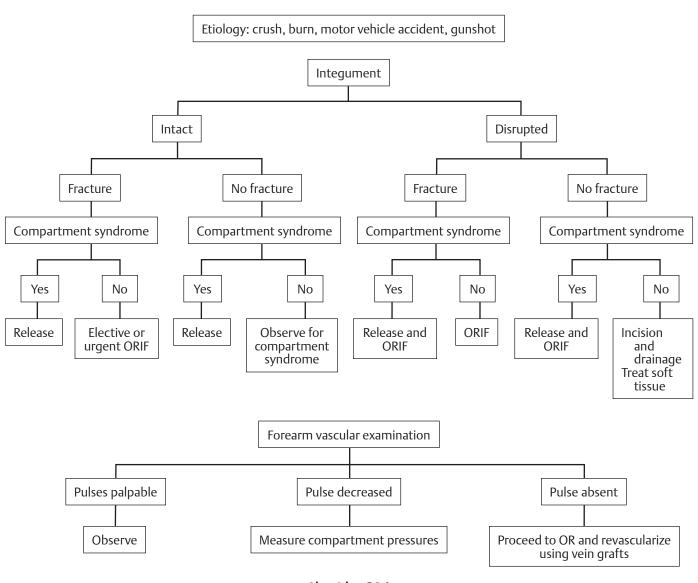


Fig. 25.2 (a) Thumb avulsion injury with nonreplantable thumb part. **(b)** Immediate groin flap for coverage in preparation for trimmed toe transfer. **(c)** Divided and inset groin flap as first stage prior to toe transfer. **(d)** Intraoperative photograph demonstrating reduction of nail plate phalanx and pulp. Toe perfusing in situ prior to transfer to thumb. **(e)** Immediate postoperative appearance with toe transfer. Note the use of the groin flap to limit donor site morbidity from foot. **(f)** Final result at six months with good opposition and sensibility.

Forearm Trauma

Forearm Trauma



Algorithm 26.1

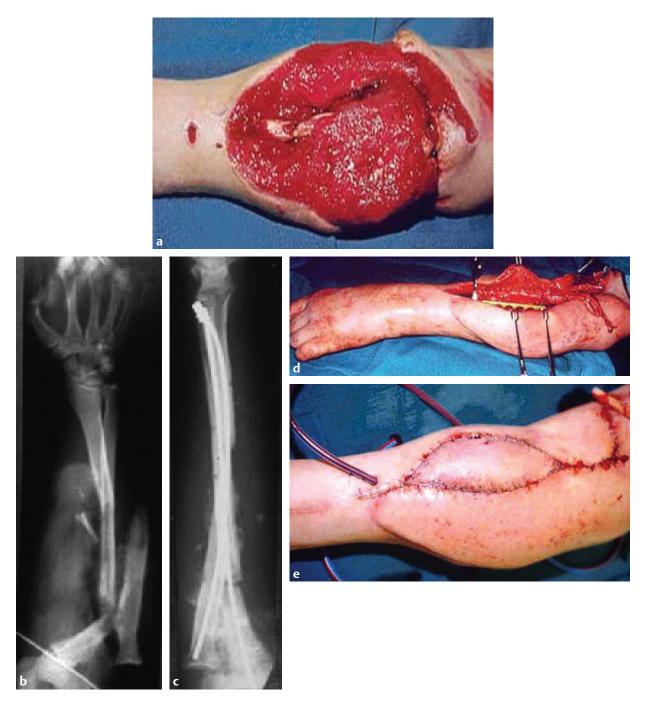


Fig. 26.1 (a) This patient had an infected open forearm fracture that had not received definitive treatment. This photograph was taken 3 weeks after the injury. **(b)** The initial presentation of the bone. **(c)** After revision stabilization with intramedullary locking rods. **(d)** The patient's arm is shown after the application of a free scapular flap for wound coverage and treatment with an approach involving vascularized osteocutaneous fibula for the radius defect. **(e)** After free fibular transfer (*continued*).

Forearm Trauma 141

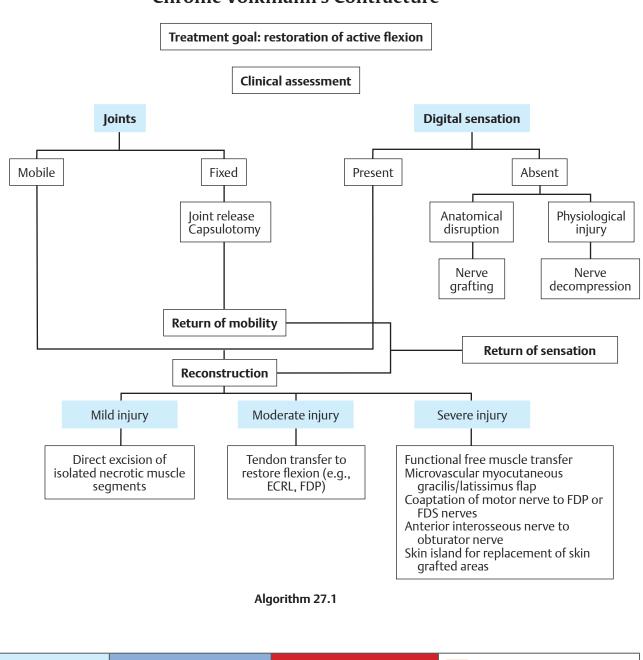


Fig. 26.1 (continued) **(f)** The spanning plate and healed radius. **(g)** Radial nerve tendon transfers were performed. **(h)** The healed scapular flap and osteocutaneous fibula flap are shown. **(i–k)** Functional results.

Compartment Syndrome

Case history: A 10-year-old girl has chronic Volkmann's contracture secondary to compartment syndrome after posterior dislocation of the elbow.

Chronic Volkmann's Contracture



Warnings, precautions, or pitfalls

Emphasis on a particular waypoint

Parameters in decision-making

Additional options or guidelines

Compartment Syndrome 143

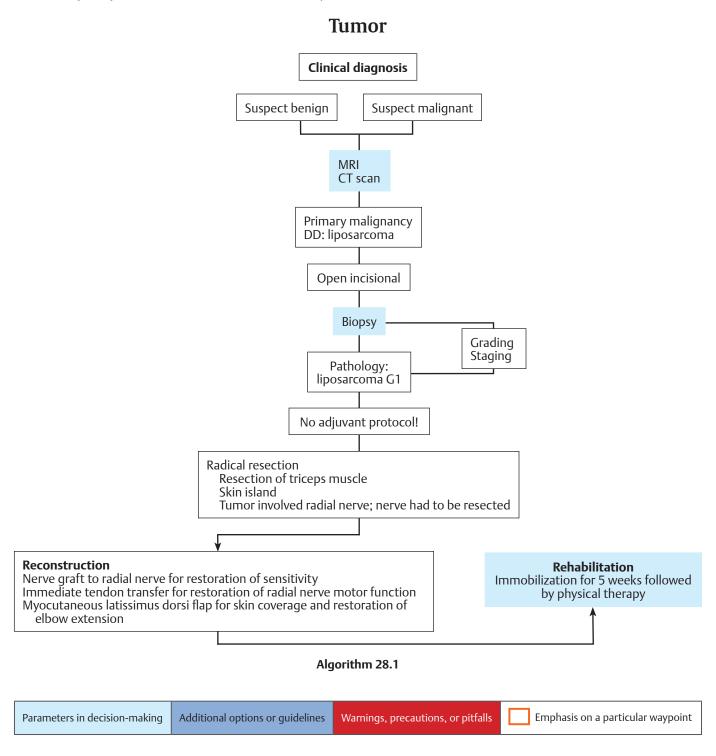




Fig. 27.1 (a) Volar release for the treatment of compartment syndrome, which was diagnosed in this patient 24 hours after an aborted open reduction and internal fixation procedure for a right distal radius fracture. **(b)** A thin STSG was placed on the granulating wound bed 1 week after initial debridement and after several dressing changes with vacuum-assisted closure. **(c)** The graft took well and is shown 8 weeks after decompression. Note the significant decrease in circumferential swelling.

Tumor

Case history: 55-year-old man with a mass in the triceps muscle.



Tumor 145



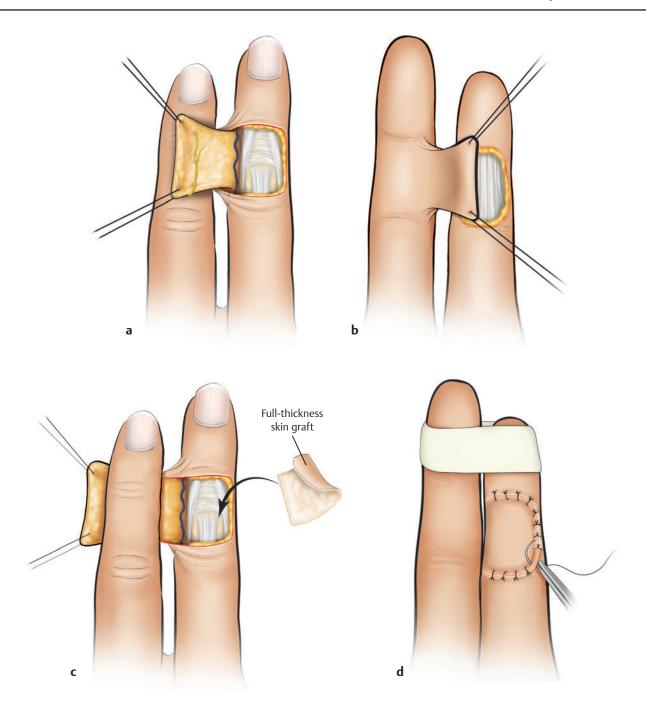
Fig. 28.1 (a) Defect after the treatment of rhabdomyosarcoma in a 4-year-old child. **(b,c)** Outline and elevation of the prescapular flap. **(d)** The appearance of the child's hand immediately after surgery. **(e)** The healed flap and radiation portal.

Part V

Atlas of Flaps—Pearls and Pitfalls

Cross-Finger Flap

Table 29.1 Cross-finger flap	
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Skin (conventional flap) or adipofascial tissue (reverse flap) Axially in the subcutaneous tissue (no identifiable named vessel) 2.5 × 2 cm for both conventional and reverse flaps —
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	No defined pedicle — — — — — —
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings	Preferred donor site: middle phalanx
Flap design Patient position Dissection	Arm on arm table to avoid tourniquet-induced ischemia Conventional flap: incise at the dorsolateral border of the digit and raise the flap in the plane above the tendon, with preservation of the paratenon; free the laterovolar vessels as far as possible without violating the neurovascular bundle, then suture the flap into the defect; apply a skin graft to the donor site Reverse flap: incise and raise a thin skin flap, with preservation of the subdermal plexus; raise a flap of adipofascial tissue, with preservation of the paratenon; flip the subcutaneous flap into the defect; cover the donor site with the previously dissected skin flap
Advantages Dissection Flap size and shape Combinations	Simple and reliable Sufficient for most typical defects over the flexor and extensor tendons Refinement in design with axial vessel included (C-ring flap)
Disadvantages Flap size Donor site morbidity	Not optimally suited for a longitudinal oval defect over several joints Skin graft for the conventional flap may be conspicuous during the postoperative period but improves with time
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection	Preservation of the paratenon is of utmost importance for skin graft take; preservation of the subdermal plexus guarantees excellent reconstruction of the donor site with a reverse flap
Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	— Rarely required Conventional flap: volar digital defects Reverse flap: dorsal digital defects



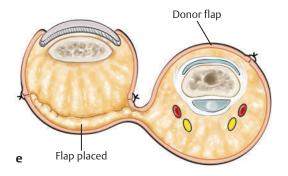


Fig. 29.1 Typical indication for a cross-finger flap is a volar defect with exposed flexor tendons. **(a,b)** Preserve paratenon to guarantee skin graft take. The dorsal nerve can be included to facilitate neural reconstruction. Preserve the laterodorsal cutaneous veins in the base of the pedicle. **(c,d)** Use full-thickness graft to achieve good cosmetic appearance of the donor site. Secure flap with suture or buddy taping. **(e)** Cross-section after closure.

Cross-Finger Flap 151



Fig. 29.2 (a) This patient's flexor tendons are exposed as a result of wound-healing problems after surgery for Dupuytren's contracture. **(b)** A cross-finger flap was raised on the ulnar aspect of the dorsum of the ring finger. **(c)** The patient's hand is shown with the flap sutured in place immediately after surgery.

Reverse Cross-Finger Flap

Table 30.1 Reverse cross-finger flap		
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Adipofascial subcutaneous tissue Fragile subdermal vascular network 1.5 × 1.5 cm —	
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	No named or identifiable vessel — — — — — — — —	
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Flap design Patient position Dissection	Dorsal aspect of the digits; Doppler identification of the vessels and their courses Mark the defect size on the dorsum of the finger Arm on arm table, with the hand pronated Use an "open the book, close the book" technique: raise the skin flap and preserve the subdermal plexus; arm the skin flap with two stay sutures, and then raise the adipofascial areolar tissue from the paratenon of the extensor tendon; fold the flap into the dorsal defect of the adjacent digit; close the donor site by suturing the skin flap back into place; reconstruct the recipient site with a full-thickness graft, preferably from the hypothenar eminence	
Advantages	Local flap with reliable blood supply when flap is not lacerated during dissection; easy to dissect, even for novices; thin flap with stable coverage	
Disadvantages	Recipient finger and donor finger have to be immobilized together; we prefer to suture through the pulp to allow for conjoint motion after a few days and to prevent the spreading of the fingers, which risks tearing the pedicle; "buddy taping" is frequently not sufficient Pedicle is divided after 12–14 days; physical therapy can be started after 3–4 days	
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	Carefully peel off the flap tissue from the paratenon; with this particular flap, a violation of the paratenon is not harmful, because the defect is closed again with a vascularized skin flap — Secondary contouring is rarely necessary Dorsal defects of the digits	

Reverse Cross-Finger Flap 153

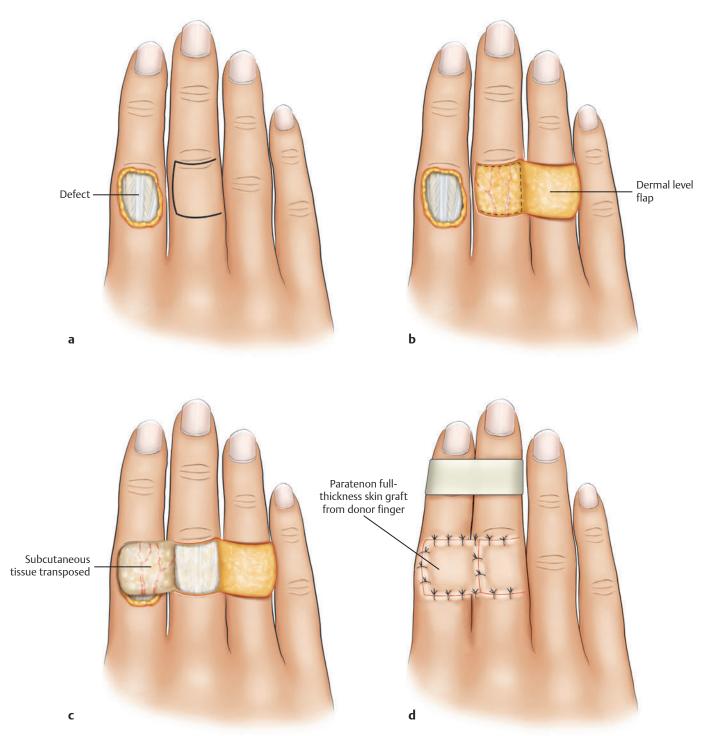


Fig. 30.1 Reverse cross-finger flap. **(a)** Dorsal defect over the PIP joint. A reverse cross-finger flap is designed on the adjacent finger. **(b)** The skin flap is raised, leaving the subcutaneous tissue layer intact. **(c)** The subcutaneous layer is turned over into the defect and fixated with stay sutures. **(d)** A full-thickness skin graft is applied to the reverse cross-finger flap. The donor site is closed with the skin flap from the donor finger (open the book, close the book technique).

V-Y Flap

Table 31.1	V-Y flap for	fingertips
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Flap Volar V-Y (Tranquilli-Leali, Atasoy); lateral V-Y (Geissendörfer, Kutler)

Tissue Skir

Course of the vessels In the subcutaneous tissue of the pulp

Dimensions 1 × 1.5 cm

Extensions and combinations —

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle No defined pedicle

Artery — Veins — Length and arc of rotation —

Diameter 5–10 mm

Nerve —

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings

Patient position Dissection Slightly laterally curved triangular incision

flap with sutures or use two needles

Arm on arm table, digital block or plexus anesthesia, tourniquet Volar flap: incise the skin without violating the subcutaneous tissue; release the fibrous septa from the pulp to the periosteum; trim the bone; pull the flap distally with a Gillies hook; divide the remaining septa; fixate the flap in the defect with a needle; no distal suture needed

Lateral flap: cover the defect with bilateral triangular flaps; the limbs of the incision should meet at the distal flexor crease; incise the skin without violating the subcutaneous tissue; release the fibrous septa from the periosteum; trim the bone; pull the flap medially with a Gillies hook; release the remaining septa; fixate the flap to the contralateral

Advantages

Dissection Simple and reliable

Flap size and shape

Small defects of the fingertip can be covered with sensate skin

Donor site

Primary closure with V-Y technique or loose approximation of the skin

Disadvantages

Flap size Sometimes too small

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not injure the subcutaneous tissue; do not suture the flap distally,

because this will impair the blood supply; the flap is frequently pale after release of the tourniquet, wait and then rinse with warm saline

Extensions and combinations

Contouring and correction Very rarely required

Clinical applications Small defects of the fingertips

V-Y Flap 155

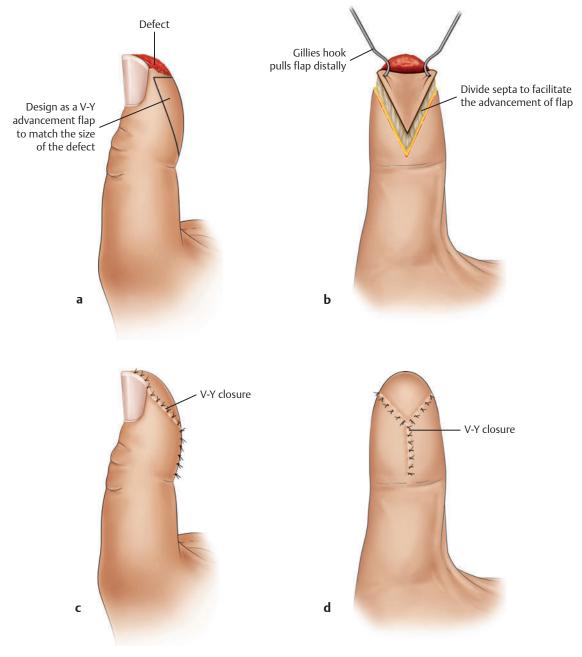


Fig. 31.1 (a) The V-Y advancement flap should be large enough to cover the defect. **(b)** Use Gillies hooks to pull flap gently distally. Divide all septa to facilitate advancement of the flap. **(c,d)** V-Y closure.

Lateral Digital Advancement Flap

Table 32.1 Lateral digital advancement flap		
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Skin and subcutaneous tissue Undersurface of the flap; attached to the flap through a fragile septum and perivascular areolar tissue 2 × 1–1.5 cm —	
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	Proper digital artery; no identifiable veins; periarterial plexus — — — — — — — —	
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Flap design Patient position Dissection	Lateral half of a digit; digital Allen test Mark the defect size; the flap is designed as a large "V" that is centered over the proper digital artery and that extends toward the volar flexor crease of the metacarpophalangeal joint Arm on arm table, with the hand pronated Incise the flap circumferentially in the marked and required dimensions; dissection starts by identifying the neurovascular bundle proximal to tip of the designed flap; the nerve is identified, isolated, and separated from the artery in its entire length; all areolar tissue around the artery, which provides the venous outflow, should be preserved; after com- plete dissection of the flap, it is mobile enough to be advanced into the defect; closure is performed in a V-Y fashion; if the defect is not too big, the complete neurovascular bundle can be included in the pedicle flap to provide immediate sensibility	
Advantages	Local flap with reliable blood supply; immediate restoration of sensibility is possible	
Disadvantages	Some cold intolerance has been reported, but this can also be due to the primary injury	
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	Decide before pedicle dissection if the defect allows for the inclusion of the nerve in the pedicle — Secondary contouring is rarely necessary Lateromedial defects of the fingertips that require flap coverage	

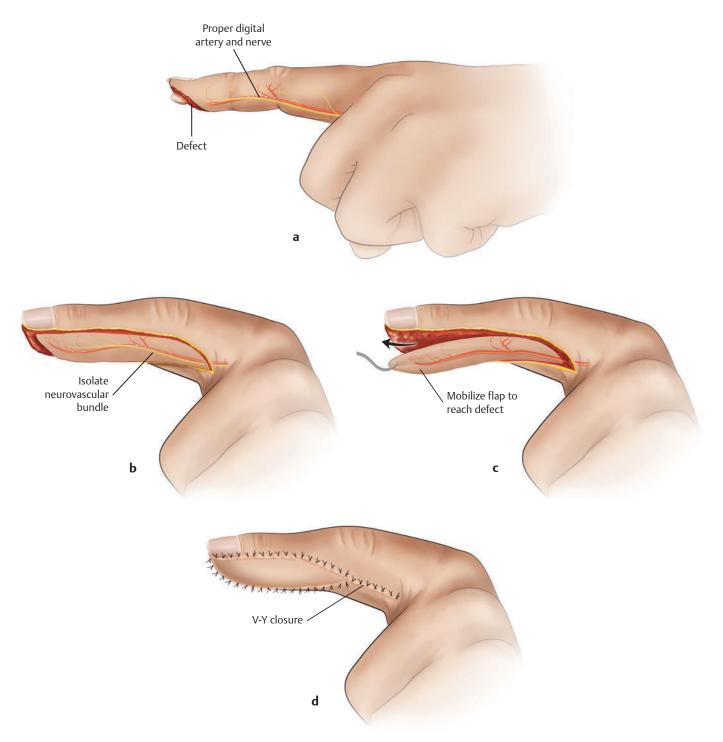


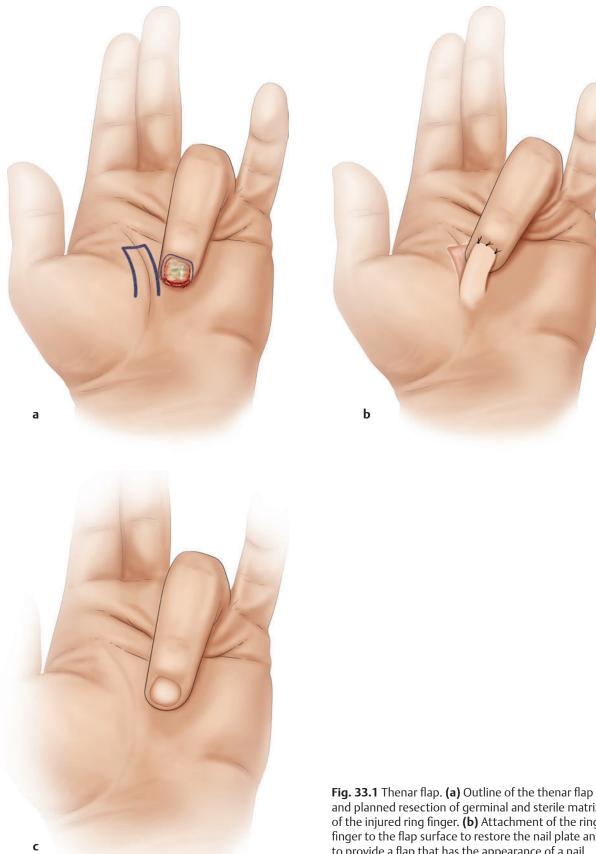
Fig. 32.1 (a) Complex fingertip injury with bone exposed. The patient desired the best possible sensate reconstruction. **(b)** The lateral advancement flap is raised on the ulnar neurovascular bundle. **(c)** Mobilize the flap to reach the defect without tension. Gentle pull with skin hook. **(d)** Flap inset completed and closed with V-Y closure.



Fig. 32.2 (a) This patient sustained a complex fingertip injury with exposed bone. The patient desired the best possible sensate reconstruction. **(b)** A lateral advancement flap is raised, based on the ulnar neurovascular bundle. **(c)** The flap is further mobilized to reach the defect without tension. **(d)** The flap inset has been completed, with perfect perfusion of the flap.

Thenar Flap

Table 33.1 Thenar flap	
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Volar skin Dermal circulation without a named artery 1.5 × 1.5 cm —
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	Relies on the inosculation of the pedicle flap to the wound bed — — — — — — — — —
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Patient position Dissection	The flap is elevated at the subcutaneous plane with a pedicle that is no more than twice the length of the base of the flap; it is oriented to inset into the digital pulp defect of the injured finger — Supine, with the use of a hand table; tourniquet control In the subcutaneous plane, with the preservation of perforating vessels (if seen)
Advantages	Rapid dissection; good color match of skin
Disadvantages	This is a pedicle flap that requires digital flexion and attachment of the digit to the volar flap for 2–3 weeks
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	Risk of proximal IP flexion contracture in elderly patients — — — — —



and planned resection of germinal and sterile matrix of the injured ring finger. **(b)** Attachment of the ring finger to the flap surface to restore the nail plate and to provide a flap that has the appearance of a nail. (c) After division and insetting.

Thenar Flap 161



Fig. 33.2 Thenar flap. **(a)** This scarred and mutilated nail bed resulted from a crush injury the patient had as a child. **(b)** The outlines show the thenar flap and the planned resection of the germinal and sterile matrix of the injured ring finger. **(c)** Attachment of the ring finger to the flap, with the intent to restore the surface of the nail plate and to provide a flap that has the appearance of a nail. **(d)** After division and insetting.

Volar Advancement Flap (Moberg)

Table 34.1	Volar advancemer	nt flap	(Moberg)
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Flap Volar advancement flap (Moberg); O'Brien modification

Tissue Skin

Course of the vessels

Underneath the flap

Dimensions Can reach the dimension of the entire volar surface of a digit or the thumb

Extensions and combinations –

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle -

Artery Proper digital artery

Veins Concomitant veins of the digital artery

Length and arc of rotation Maximal defect size: longitudinal; mobilization: 1.5–2 cm

Diameter -

Nerve Proper digital nerves

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings

Patient position Dissection Midlateral skin markings; the digital Allen test is recommended

Hand on arm table to avoid tourniquet ischemia

Moberg: midlateral incision; identification of the neurovascular bundles; unilateral preservation of the dorsal branches; volar advancement; distal flap fixation with a needle; frequently the flexion of the digit is

necessary to allow for the closure of the defect

O'Brien modification: bilateral dissection of the neurovascular bundles; volar flap advancement; skin graft to the donor site (i.e., the dissection

site of the vessels)

Advantages

Flap Sensate flap to restore sensibility of the pulp

Dissection Straightforward and simple

Vascular pedicle Reliable

Flap size and shape Pulp defects of 1.5–2 cm

Disadvantages

Flap Only small to midsize defects

Donor site morbidity Flexion contracture may occur if defect is too large and mobilization has

not been sufficient

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Preserve the dorsal collaterals on one side; suture the flap distally only

with the needle to avoid further tension and impairment of the distal flap supply; a relaxing incision can be made at the base of the thumb or converted into an O'Brien modification to reduce the risk of flexion contracture, especially in older patients; insert a Z-plasty into a regular

Moberg flap to avoid tension at the flap base

Extensions and combinations

Contouring and correction Extremely rare

Clinical applications Defects of the pulp of the thumb

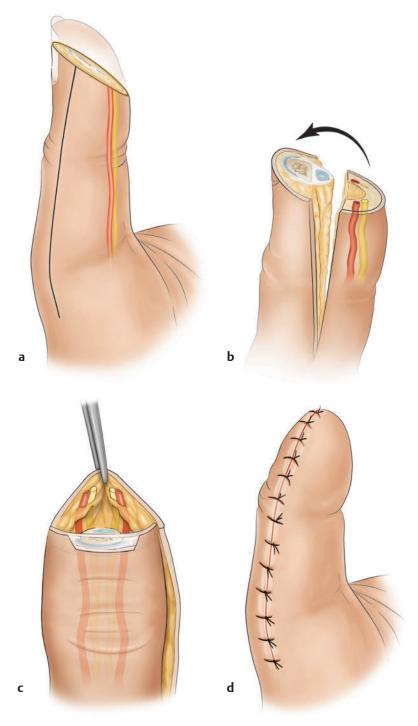


Fig. 34.1 Volar advancement flap (Moberg). **(a)** Midlateral incision to preserve neurovascular bundles. **(b)** Divide all subdermal septa to increase mobility. **(c)** Use forceps to pull flap distally. **(d)** IP joint flexion may be required to achieve closure. If closure can only be achieved with excessive flexion, use other option to prevent flexion contracture.

Reverse First Dorsal Radial Metacarpal Flap (Moschella)

Table 35.1 Reverse first dorsal radial metacarpal flap (Moschella)				
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Skin and subcutaneous tissue On the undersurface of the flap 3 × 1.5 cm —			
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	Recurrent radial branch of the princeps pollicis artery; no identifiable vein — — — — — — — —			
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Flap design Patient position Dissection	Dorsal aspect of the first metacarpal; Doppler identification of the vessels and their course Mark the defect size and include the cutaneous extension distally to facilitate skin closure of the donor site and rotation of the flap into the defect; the flap can be considered a "propeller" flap because it is rotated on an isolated vascular pedicle into an adjacent defect Arm on hand table, with the hand pronated Incise the flap circumferentially in the marked and required dimensions; dissection starts close to the paratenon of the abductor pollicis longus; the vessel that runs along the periosteum of the first metacarpal and has to be "peeled off" of the periosteum; dissect toward the pivot point, where the vessel exits from underneath; rotate the flap into the defect, and then close the skin without tension			
Advantages	Local flap with reliable blood supply when the vessel can be identified with a handheld Doppler			
Disadvantages	The vessel is very fragile and difficult to dissect			
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	It may be necessary to leave a small dog-ear around the pivot point when the perforating vessel is not clearly visible Secondary contouring is rarely necessary Dorsal defects of the thumb distal to the interphalangeal joint			

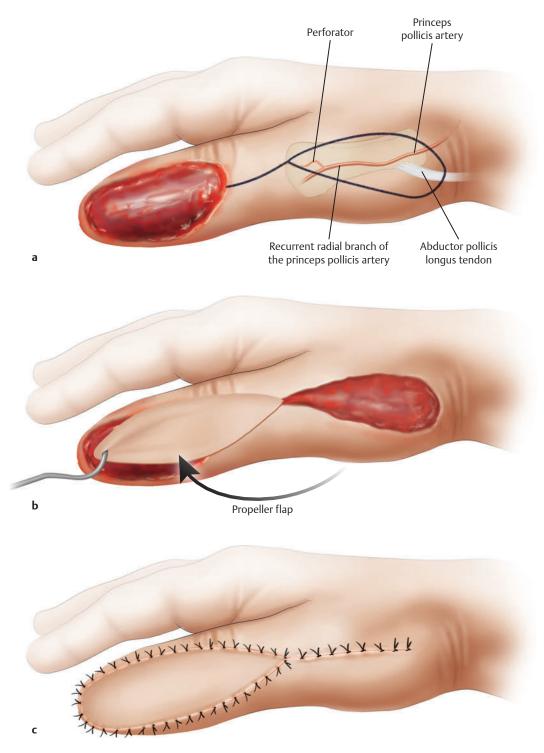


Fig. 35.1 Reverse first dorsal radial metacarpal flap (Moschella). **(a)** Perforator and recurrent radial branch of the princeps pollicis artery. **(b)** Propeller flap. **(c)** Flap inset.



Fig. 35.2 Reverse first dorsal radial metacarpal flap (Moschella). **(a)** This patient sustained a dorsal thumb wound that included the entire nail bed. **(b)** The flap outline is based on a vessel from the princeps pollicis artery. **(c)** The flap has been elevated and transposed. **(d)** The flap after inset. Please note the tiny suture bites on the flap to decrease surface tension and avoid ischemia.

Reverse First Dorsal Ulnar Perforator Flap (Brunelli)

Table 36.1 Reverse first dorsal ulnar perforator flap (Brunelli)			
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Skin and subcutaneous tissue On the undersurface of the flap 3 × 1.5 cm —		
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	 Recurrent ulnar branch of the princeps pollicis artery No identifiable vein — — — 		
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Flap design Patient position Dissection	Dorsal aspect of the first metacarpal; Doppler identification of the vessels and their courses Mark the defect size and include the cutaneous extension distally to facilitate skin closure of the donor site and rotation of the flap into the defect; the flap can be considered a "propeller" type flap since it is rotated on an isolated vascular pedicle into an adjacent defect Arm on arm table, with the hand pronated Incise the flap circumferentially in the marked and required dimensions; begin the dissection close to the paratenon of the extensor pollicis longus; the vessel that runs along the periosteum of the first metacarpal must be "peeled off" of the periosteum; dissect toward the pivot point, where the vessel exits from underneath; rotate the flap into the defect and then close the skin without tension		
Advantages	Local flap with reliable blood supply, when the vessel can be identified with a handheld Doppler		
Disadvantages	Not an easy dissection for novices, because the vessel is very fragile		
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications	It may be necessary to leave a little dog-ear around the pivot point if the perforating vessel is not clearly visible — Secondary contouring is rarely necessary Dorsal defects of the thumb distal from the interphalangeal joint		

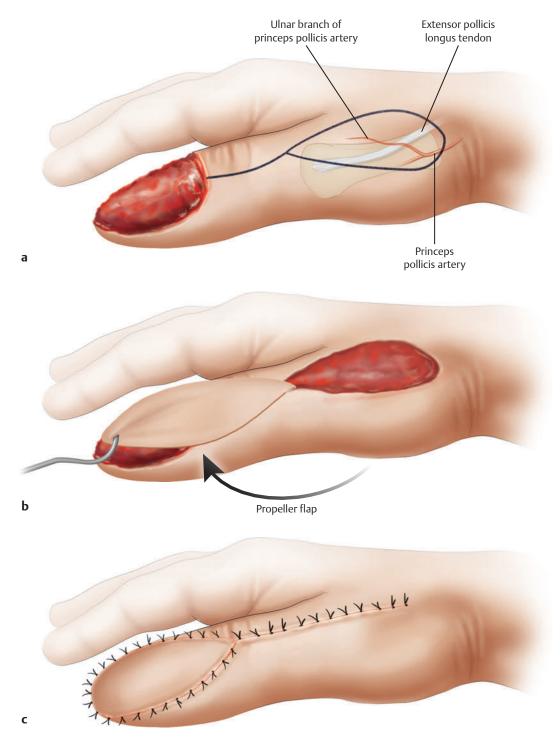


Fig. 36.1 Reverse first dorsal ulnar perforator flap (Brunelli). (a) Dorsal ulnar branch of the princeps pollicis artery. (b) Propeller flap. (c) Flap inset.

Axial Digital Island Flap

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Flap

Tissue Skin and adipofascial subcutaneous tissue

Course of the vessels On the undersurface of the flap

Dimensions $2 \times 1.5 \text{ cm}$

Extensions and combinations –

Anatomy

Artery Proper digital artery
Veins Periarterial venous plexus

Nerve Proper digital nerve (if included in flap)

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Midlateral aspect of the digits; Doppler identification of the artery and its

course

Flap design Flap should be centered over the course of the proper digital artery; usu-

ally harvested from the middle phalanx

Patient position Arm on arm table with tourniquet; forearm mobile so that hand can be

rotated

Dissection Starts away from the designed flap, either proximal or distal from the flap

("Go there—where the flap is *not!*"); identify the proper digital artery and nerve; nerve is isolated and armed with a vessel loop; use a vascular clip (not a hemostat) to secure the vessel loop; include all tissue that contains the areolar network around the artery in the flap pedicle so that venous outflow is secured, the nerve is spared, and the flap is centered over the pedicle; the pedicle is dissected in a way that provides a sufficiently wide arc of rotation; the tourniquet is released after a vascular clamp has been placed on the artery distal to the flap; the artery is divided when the flap is well perfused and does not show signs of venous congestion; the flap is rotated into the defect; the donor site can be reconstructed with a

full-thickness graft from the hypothenar eminence

Advantages Local flap with reliable blood supply; microsurgical dissection requiring some

expertise; provides stable coverage with a rather inconspicuous donor site

Disadvantages Proper digital nerve can show some irritation for a few weeks but this

usually resolves completely

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Carefully free the nerve from the vascular structures; the arc of rotation

has to be wide enough to avoid kinking and venous congestion

Extensions and combinations

Contouring and correction Secondary contouring is rarely necessary

Clinical applications Dorsal defects of the digits that are proximal from the flap donor site;

defects over the MP joint

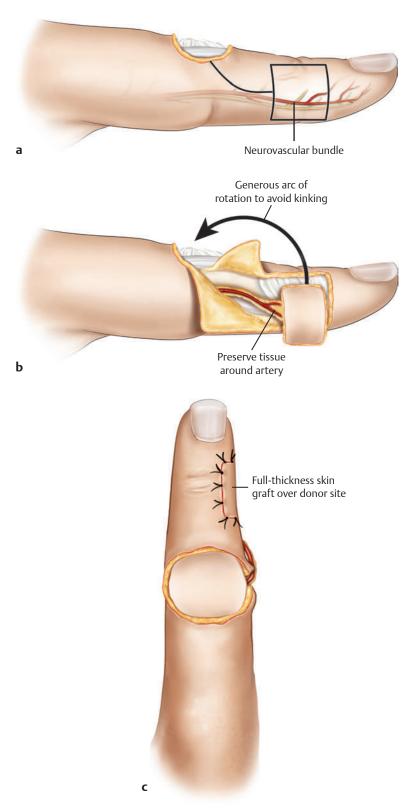


Fig. 37.1 Axial digital island flap. **(a)** Center the flap over the neurovascular bundle. If an innervated flap is required, include the proper digital nerve. If only skin coverage is required, free the nerve carefully from the artery. If an innervated flap is designed (Littler flap), split the common digital nerve intraneurally to increase pedicle length. **(b)** The arc of rotation should be generous to avoid kinking and venous congestion. Preserve areolar tissue around the artery to maintain venous outflow. **(c)** Close the donor site with a full-thickness skin graft.

Reverse Axial Digital Island Flap

Table 38.1 Reverse axial digital island flap

Flap

Tissue Skin and adipofascial subcutaneous tissue

Course of the vessels On the undersurface of the flap

Dimensions 2×1.5 cm

Extensions and combinations —

Anatomy

Artery Proper digital artery
Veins Periarterial venous plexus

Nerve Proper digital nerve (if included in flap)

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and

markings Flap design Patient position Dissection Midlateral aspect of the digits; Doppler identification of the artery and its course; usually harvested from the proximal phalanx

Flap should be centered over the course of the proper digital artery

Arm on arm table with tourniquet; forearm mobile so that the hand can be rotated Perform a digital Allen test if there is suspicion of disturbed circulation in the digit; dissection always starts away from the designed flap ("Go there where the flap is not!"), and this may be proximal or distal from the flap; identify the proper digital artery and nerve, and isolate and arm the nerve with a vessel loop; do not use a hemostat to secure the vessel loop, because a vascular clip is perfect for this purpose; include all tissue that contains the areolar network around the artery into the flap pedicle so that venous outflow is secured, the nerve is spared, and the flap is centered over the pedicle; dissect the pedicle in a way that provides a sufficiently wide arc of rotation; release the tourniquet after a vascular clamp is placed on the artery proximal to the flap; divide the artery when the flap is well perfused through reverse flow and shows no signs of venous congestion, then rotate the flap into the defect; reconstruct the donor site with a full-thickness graft from the hypothenar eminence

Advantages Local flap with reliable blood supply; provides stable coverage with an inconspicuous

donor site

Disadvantages The proper digital nerve can be irritated for a few weeks, but this usually resolves

completely

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Carefully free the nerve from the vascular structures; the arc of rotation has to be wide

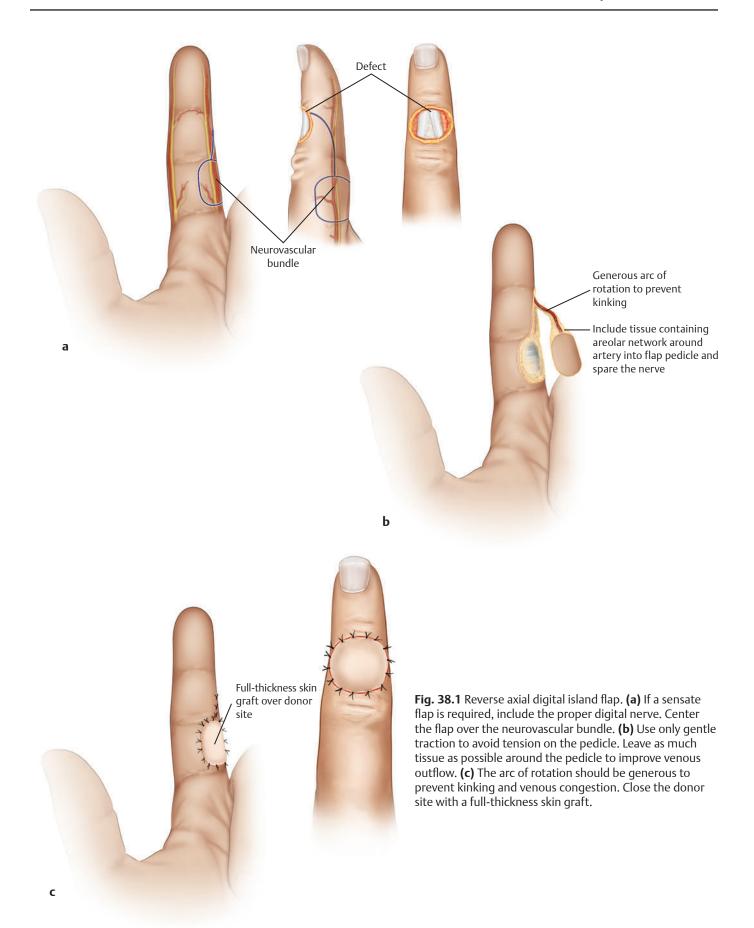
enough to prevent kinking and venous congestion; the flap can be harvested to include the proper digital nerve if sensate fingertip reconstruction is intended; the

nerve can be coapted to the distal nerve stump

Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications

Secondary contouring is rarely necessary

Dorsal defects of the digits proximal to the flap donor site; defects that include the proximal interphalangeal joint; distal defects that include fingertip reconstruction



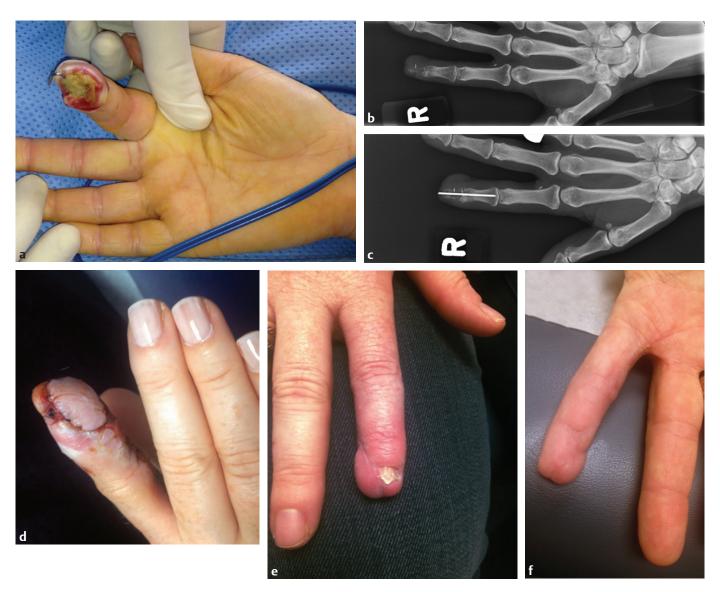


Fig. 38.2 Reverse axial digital island flap. **(a)** This patient sustained a crush injury that resulted in the necrotic pulp shown here. Bony stabilization of the phalangeal remnants is seen **(b)** preoperatively and **(c)** postoperatively. **(d)** An early postoperative view of the flap in place is shown. The repair is shown three months postoperatively in **(e)** dorsal view and **(f)** volar view.

First Dorsal Metacarpal Artery Flap (Kite Flap)

Table 39.1 First dorsal metacarpal artery flap (neurofascioseptocutaneous flap or kite flap)

Flap

Tissue Skin

Course of the vessels Runs with the fascia of the first dorsal interosseous muscle

Dimensions $2 \times 4-6$ cm; pedicle or free flap located on the proximal phalanx of the

index finger

Extensions and combinations Rarely tendon strips from the proper extensor indicis; terminal branch

from the superficial radial nerve

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle

Artery DMCA nourished from the princeps pollicis artery Veins Small venae comitantes; larger subcutaneous vein

Length and arc of rotation Artery, 3–3.5 cm; vein, 3–6 cm

Diameter Artery at the level of princeps pollicis, 2–3 mm; vein, 3–5 mm

Nerve Terminal branch of superficial radial nerve

Surgical technique

Patient position

Preoperative examinations and markings Preoperative Doppler examination for the presence of vessels is manda-

tory; mark the course of the vessels on the skin, because they are

always located more radially than presumed

Dissection Supine with arm on arm table; tourniquet use during harvest

Incise skin along the markings along the second metacarpal; incise the interosseous muscle fascia; preserve the intermuscular septum and raise the fasciocutaneous flap, including the fascia; take care to include the nerve; create a de-epithelialized pedicle; leave approximately 0.5–1 cm of fatty tissue around the artery; preserve the paratenon above the extensor hood; open the tourniquet and check for perfusion; inset the flap at the recipient site; wait for normal perfusion to occur; treat the skin graft donor site with a medium- or full-thickness skin

graft; be careful when tunneling

Table 39.1, cont'd

Advantages

Tissue Sensate thin and pliable flap

Vascular pedicle Reliable pedicle with a wide arc of rotation; large-caliber vessel when used as

a free flap

Flap size and shape

Can cover large defects without sacrificing a proper digital artery

Combinations

Possible to include a tendon strip of the extensor indicis muscle; a bony

segment of the second metacarpal may be a future option

Disadvantages

Pedicle Flap is often white during the first few minutes after opening the

tourniquet; venous congestion may occur if the flap is passed through a

tunnel to the recipient site

Donor site is conspicuous at first but improves significantly over time

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not make arc of rotation too narrow, because venous congestion may

occur; preserve the paratenon of the extensor tendons for perfect skin graft take at the donor site; when the tunnel for the flap seems too narrow, create a skin graft pedicle; apply leeches early when venous congestion occurs; avoid any tension on the pedicle; when the flap does not show adequate reperfusion after the opening of the tourniquet, rinse with warm saline; it may take 20 minutes to re-establish flow; include part of the sagittal band across the MP joint to protect the

pedicle attached to the skin

Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications Bony segment from the metacarpal may be possible

Rarely required; flap shrinks with time

Pedicle flap: small and medium-sized dorsal defects of the thumb; resto-

ration of sensation of the pulp of the thumb

Free flap: small and medium-sized defects wherever local flaps are not

possible or appropriate

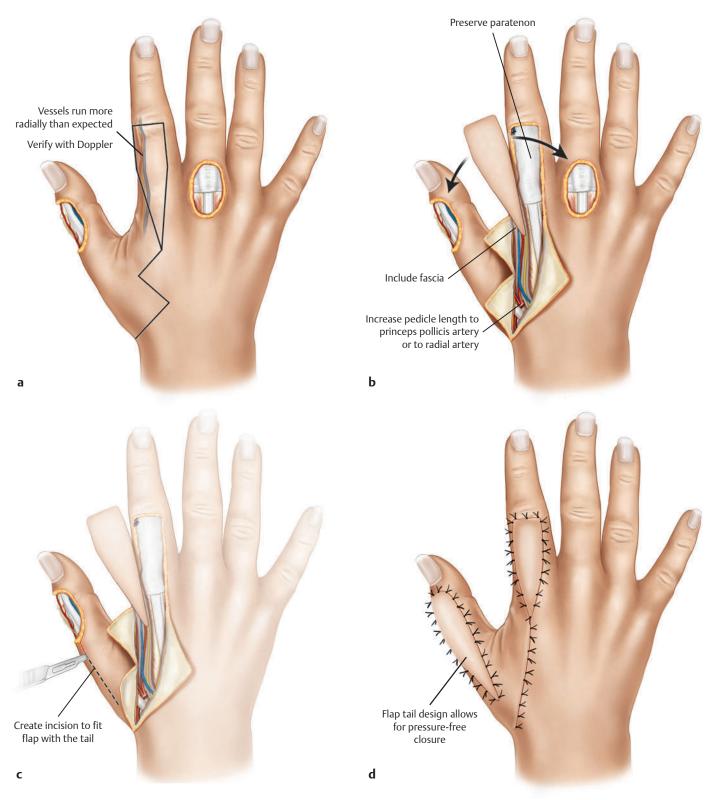


Fig. 39.1 (a) First dorsal metacarpal artery flap design. Vessels always run more radially than usually depicted in illustrations. The vessel's course will be identified by Doppler examination preoperatively. **(b)** Flap dissection. The crucial point of dissection is the area of the extensor hood. Paratenon has to be preserved to guarantee skin graft take. The vessel runs deep in the fascial septum. Include interosseous fascia that contains vessels. The pedicle is traced back to the princeps pollicis artery or radial artery to increase the pedicle length. Try to include a subcutaneous vein for improved outflow. **(c)** Flap movement and placement. Preserve the paratenon over the extensor tendon at the proximal phalanx. To avoid a narrow tunnel or the necessity of skin grafting the pedicle, the "cutaneous tail design" allows for pressure-free closure. Include a branch of the radial nerve to create a neurovascular flap. **(d)** The flap fits perfectly to reconstruct the defect, with no pressure on the pedicle.

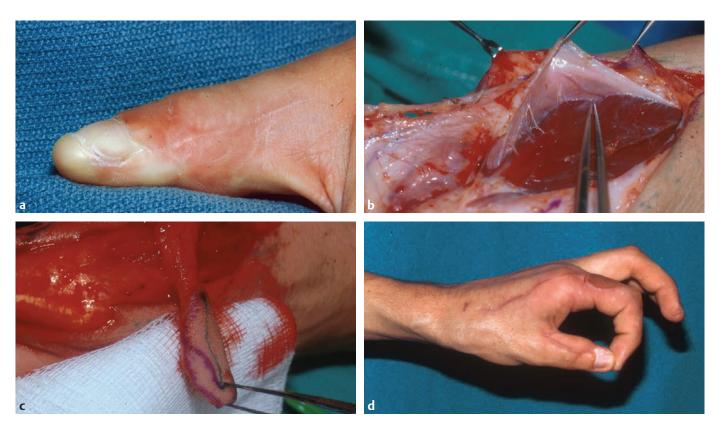


Fig. 39.2 First dorsal metacarpal artery flap (kite flap). **(a)** Insensate deficient soft tissue thumb requiring resurfacing. **(b)** First dorsal interosseous muscle fascia containing first dorsal metacarpal artery. **(c)** Flap elevated and perfusing with tourniquet down. **(d)** Final result with well-healed skin graft over donor site and sensate flap resurfacing ulnar aspect of thumb.

Dorsal Metacarpal Artery Flap

Table 40.1 Dorsal metacarpal artery flap

Flap

Tissue Skin

Course of the vessels In the intermuscular septum

Dimensions 2×4 cm; reverse flap located over the proximal metacarpals; antegrade

flap located over the proximal phalanx

Extensions and combinations Rarely may include tendon strips from the proper extensor indicis or the

proper extensor digiti minimi

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle

Artery DMCA nourished from the dorsal arterial arch or through the volar–dorsal

perforator from the volar arch

Veins Small venae comitantes

Length and arc of rotation Reverse pedicle flap reaches the proximal interphalangeal joint; antegrade

flap reaches the proximal wrist extensor crease

Diameter — Nerve —

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings P

Preoperative Doppler examination for the presence of vessels is mandatory; reliability declines from radial to ulnar aspect; the DMCA artery 4 is only present in approximately 80% of patients.

is only present in approximately 80% of patients

Flap design Patient position Dissection

Supine with arm on arm table; risk of tourniquet-induced ischemia Antegrade pedicle: incise skin along markings; incise interosseous muscle fascia; preserve intermuscular septum and raise fasciocutaneous flap, including fascia; create de-epithelialized pedicle toward volar–dorsal perforator at the level of the metacarpal head; leave approximately 0.5–1 cm of fatty tissue around the artery; ligate the distal pedicle; open the tourniquet; check for perfusion; inset the flap at the recipient

site; wait for normal perfusion

Reverse pedicle: incise skin along markings; incise interosseous muscle fascia; preserve intermuscular septum and raise fasciocutaneous flap, including fascia; create de-epithelialized pedicle toward the volar–dorsal perforator at the level of the metacarpal head; leave approximately 0.5–1 cm of fatty tissue around the artery; ligate the proximal pedicle; open the tourniquet; check for perfusion; rotate and inset the flap into the recipient site; wait for normal perfusion

Table 40.1, cont'd

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Both are reliable pedicles with wide arcs of rotation

Flap size and shape Can cover even larger digital defects

Combinations Can be combined with adjacent DMCA flaps for multidigital injuries

Tissue Thin and pliable

Disadvantages

Only donor sites of smaller flaps can be closed primarily; skin grafts on the Donor site morbidity

dorsum of the hand can be conspicuous; contour defects improve with

Pedicle Veins cannot be identified in most cases; flaps often appear ischemic

during the first few minutes after deflating the tourniquet; venous

congestion may occur

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not make the arc of rotation too narrow, because venous congestion

> may occur; preserve the paratenons of the extensor tendons for perfect skin graft take in the donor site; when the tunnel for the flap seems too narrow, create a skin graft pedicle; apply leeches early when venous congestion occurs; avoid any tension on the pedicle; when the flap does not show adequate reperfusion after the opening of the tourniquet, rinse the area with warm saline; it may take 20 minutes to re-establish

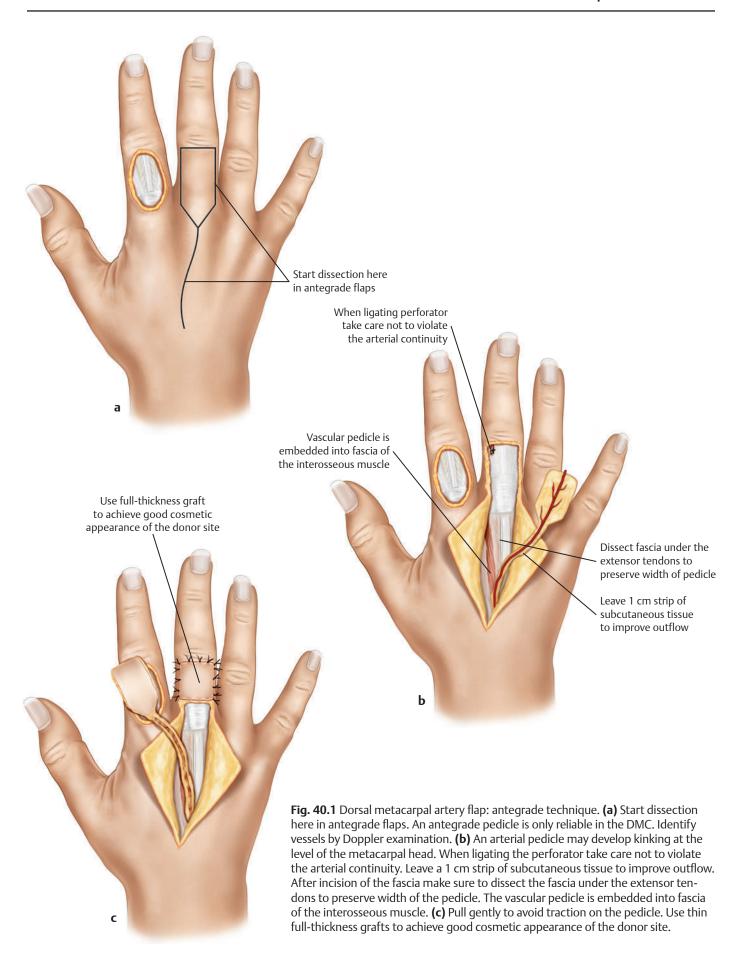
blood flow

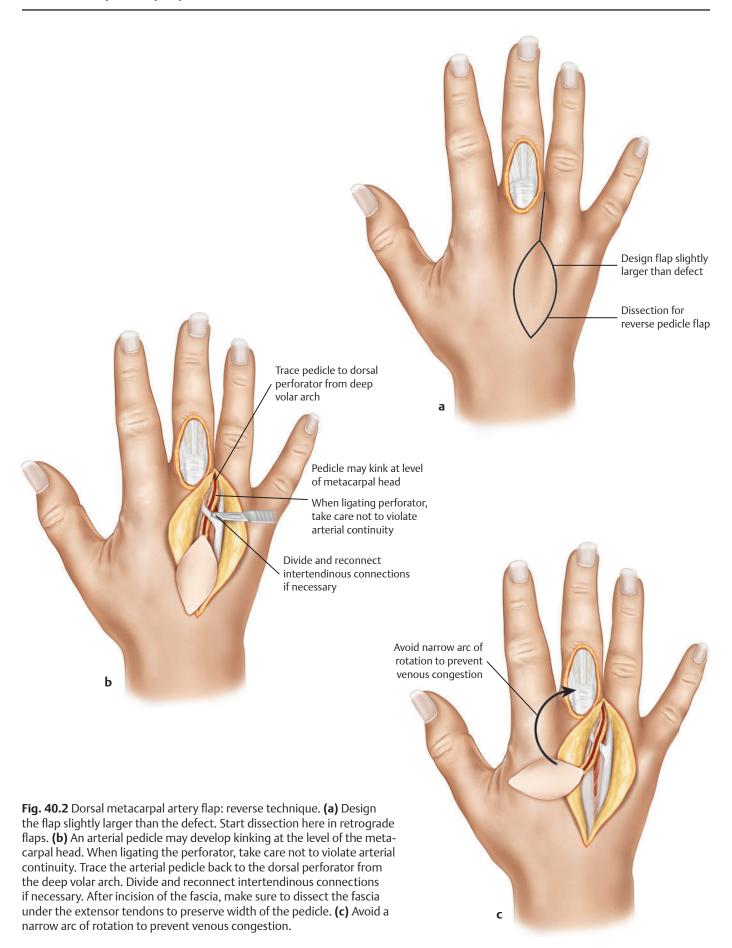
Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications

Bony segment from the metacarpal may be possible Rarely required; flaps shrink with time

Reserve pedicle flap: small- and medium-sized dorsal digital defects as far

as the proximal interphalangeal joint





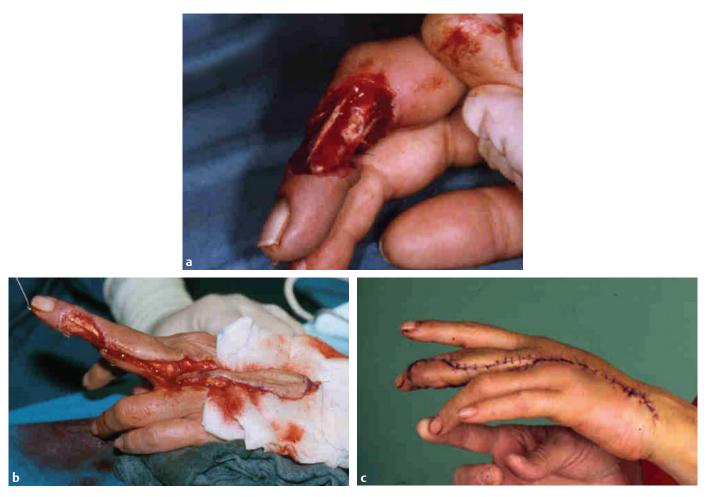


Fig. 40.3 Dorsal metacarpal artery flap. **(a)** The patient's defect is shown after debridement. **(b)** An extended DMCA flap has been created. **(c)** The patient's hand is shown 12 days after surgery.

Radial Forearm Flap

Table 41.1Radial forearm flap	
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Pedicle or free flap; distal or proximal pedicle Potentially innervated fasciocutaneous flap with little hair; also possible as a fascial flap At the bottom of a fascial septum along the brachioradialis muscle as the leading structure Maximum 8 × 20 cm Can be combined with a strip of brachioradialis or palmaris longus tendon, a bony segment of the radius, or a second proximal skin island based on a perforator vessel
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	— Radial artery Two concomitant veins or the cephalic system Depends on flap location on the forearm; up to 15 cm Artery, 3–4 mm; veins, 3–5 mm (in the case of a free flap) Lateral antebrachial cutaneous nerve
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Patient position Dissection	Identify the course of the radial artery by Doppler examination; Allen test Supine position with arm on arm board Mark the flap centered over the course of the vessel; incise the skin and make a subfascial dissection cuff toward the vessel; stay under the vessels and isolate the pedicle distally; include a cuff of subcutaneous fat and a subcutaneous vein if the flap is raised as a distal pedicle flap For experienced surgeons, create a suprafascial dissection and a possible pedicle flap: raise flap from distal to proximal; isolate the vessels proximally; put a vessel clamp on the proximal pedicle; check for perfusion or signs of venous congestion; wait for 15 minutes; leave a subcutaneous vein long; ligate the proximal vessels and rotate the flap to the distal site; check again for perfusion and venous congestion; if the area is congested, connect the vein to a forearm vein (turbocharging) Proximal pedicle: put a vessel clamp on the distal pedicle after isolating the flap; check perfusion; ligate the distal vessels

Continued

Table 41.1, cont'd

Advantages

Vascular pedicle A long, reliable pedicle with large-caliber vessels; atherosclerosis is rare;

can be used as a "flow-through" flap when used as a free flap

Flap size and shape Large flap; can be raised as a multi-island flap with strips of de-epithelialized

subcutaneous tissue and fascia between the skin islands; many shapes

possible; usually thin and pliable, even in obese patients

Can be combined with extensions or second skin islands based on perfo-

rators, strips of tendons, and bony segments of the radius

Donor and recipient sites can be dissected simultaneously

Disadvantages

Combinations

Dissection

Donor site morbidity

Very conspicuous donor site with potential impairment of tendon func-

tion; indication has to be carefully weighed, especially in women; graft

take can be impaired distally

Pedicle Sacrifice of a major forearm artery

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Avoid separating the fascial septum from the vessels

Extensions and combinations Maintain connections to bone and tendons when combined flaps are

raised

Contouring and correction Flap has only a little tendency to sag; contour corrections are rarely

required

Clinical applications Defects where flat, thin, and supple flaps are indicated; forearm, dorsum

of the hand, and donor site appearance can be improved with suprafas-

cial dissection

Radial Forearm Flap 185

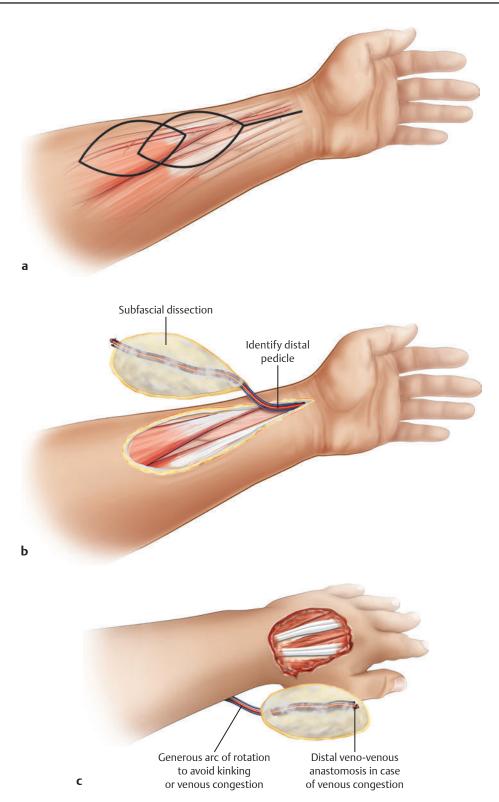


Fig. 41.1 Radial forearm flap. **(a)** Perform a preoperative Allen test. Identify and mark the vessel course preoperatively. **(b)** Dissection is usually subfascial, but epifascial dissection is possible, including only a narrow strip of fascia around the pedicle. Start dissection with identification of the distal pedicle. Start dissection at the ulnar aspect. Try to place the skin island as proximal as possible in reverse pedicle flaps. **(c)** The arc of rotation has to be generous to avoid kinking or venous congestion. Maintain the option of a distal veno-venous anastomosis in case of venous congestion.

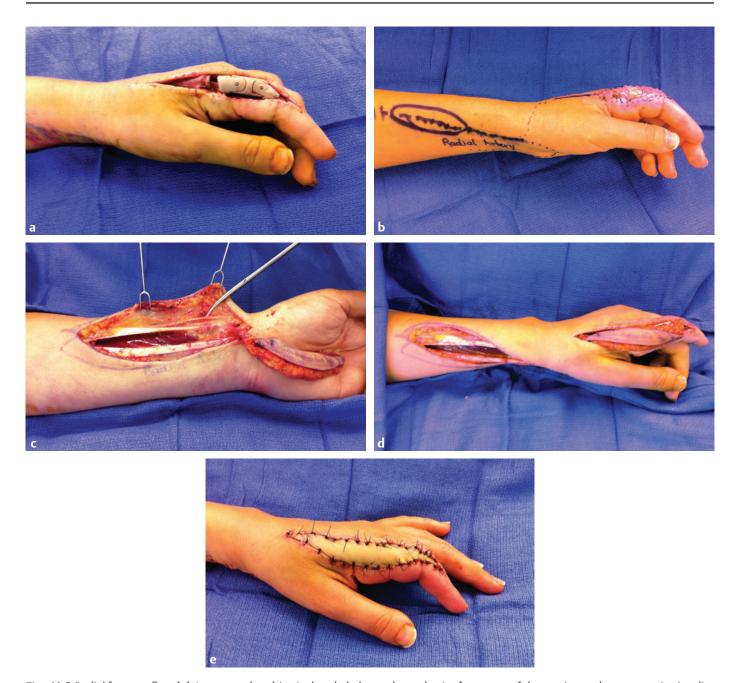
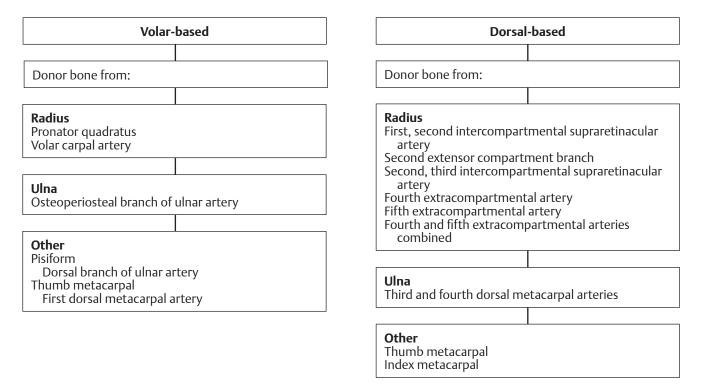


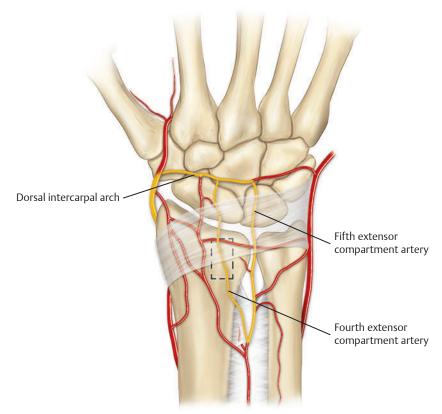
Fig. 41.2 Radial forearm flap. **(a)** An exposed multiarticulated phalangeal prosthesis after successful resection and postoperative irradiation of an osteosarcoma. **(b)** A reverse radial forearm flap was designed for primary donor site closure. **(c)** The flap was raised and islandized with preservation of the superficial branch of the radial nerve. **(d)** The prosthesis was removed and an antibiotic spacer placed. The flap was tunneled and positioned to cover the recipient site defect. **(e)** Radial forearm flap inset.

Pedicled Vascularized Bone Grafts from the Wrist

Pedicled Bone Grafts for Carpal Pathology



Algorithm 42.1



a Graft based on fourth extensor compartment artery (*yellow*)

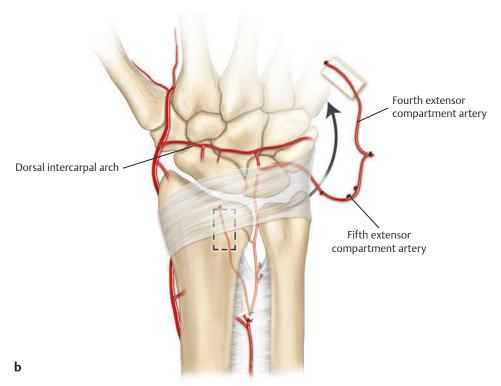


Fig. 42.1 Pedicled vascularized bone grafts from the wrist. **(a)** Graft based on fourth extensor compartment artery (*yellow*). **(b)** Arc of rotation of flap.

Posterior Interosseous Flap

IdDie 43.1 Postelioi lillerosseous liap (reverse pedicied li	Table 43.1	Posterior interosseous	flap	(reverse	pedicled flag	5)
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Flap

Skin and fascia Tissue

Course of the vessels Deep to flap surface in a fascial septum; antegrade vessels in the free flap,

retrograde vessels in the pedicle flap

 8×15 cm; donor sites of flaps < 4 cm wide can be closed primarily Dimensions Extensions and combinations

Tendon strip from the extensor carpi ulnaris; bony segments from the

radius are not reliable

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle

Posterior interosseous artery; recurrent vessels via tenuous anastomoses Artery

with anterior interosseous artery through interosseous membrane

Venae comitantes Veins

Length and arc of rotation

Diameter Artery, 1-1.5 mm; vein, 1 mm

Nerve Ulnar cutaneous antebrachial branch not reliable for the sensory needs of

the innervated flap

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Draw a line from the lateral epicondyle to the dorsal center of the wrist;

> perform a Doppler examination of the two main perforators at the proximal third of the forearm; outline the flap and center it over this

line

Patient position

Dissection

Supine with arm on arm table

Incise laterally along the marking; incise the muscle fascia; perform a subfascial dissection until the fascial septum between the extensor digiti quinti and the extensor carpi ulnaris can be identified; create a medial incision; perform a subfascial dissection until the septum is identified from the other side; free the septum from the periosteum in a distal to proximal direction; raise the flap until the pedicle can be traced to the radial artery; apply a micro-clamp to the proximal pedicle; watch out for nerve branches supplying wrist extensors; open the tourniquet; check for adequate perfusion; rotate the flap after ligation

of the pedicle and then inset the flap in the recipient site

Continued

Table 43.1, cont'd

Advantages

Flap size and shape

Subcutaneous fat can provide excellent gliding tissue for tendon recon-

structions

Combinations Inclusion of tendon strip and bone segments enhances versatility

Disadvantages

Pedicle can contain very small concomitant veins; a tendency for venous

congestion has been reported; nerve transection may be required if

motor branches cross between main perforators

Bulkiness Can be bulky in patients with fleshy forearms

Donor site morbidity

Donor site can be very conspicuous; this flap should not be the first choice

for younger patients and females

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection

Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction

Clinical applications

Try to spare the motor nerve; avoid a too narrow arc of rotation, because the flap has a tendency for venous congestion; include a proximal subcutaneous vein for emergency turbocharging; include a wide segment of dorsal fascia with the pedicle; identify the arterial anastomosis to the anterior interosseous artery first (5% of all patients do not have

this anastomosis)

Include a tendon strip in the subfascial dissection; stay very close to the

periosteum to avoid injury to the pedicle

Secondary corrections may be required in many cases

Dorsal defects of the hand; defects of the first web space; defects around

the wrist

Table 43.2 Posterior interosseous flap (free flap and antegrade pedicled flap)

Flap

Tissue Skin and fascia

Course of the vessels Deep to the flap surface in a fascial septum; antegrade vessels in the free flap

Dimensions 8 × 15 cm; donor sites of flaps < 4 cm wide can be closed primarily

Extensions and combinations Tendon strip from the extensor carpi ulnaris; bony segments from the radius

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle -

Artery Posterior interosseous artery; antegrade vessel from the radial artery

Veins Venae comitantes
Length and arc of rotation Pedicle length, 3–4 cm

Diameter Artery, 2–3 mm; vein, 2.5–3.5 mm Nerve Ulnar cutaneous antebrachial branch

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Draw a line from the lateral epicondyle to the dorsal center of the wrist;

perform a Doppler examination of the two main perforators at the proximal third of the forearm; outline the flap and center it over this line

Supine with arm on arm table

Patient position
Dissection

Incise laterally along the marking; incise the muscle fascia; perform a subfascial dissection until the fascial septum between the extensor digiti quinti and the extensor carpi ulnaris can be identified; create a medial incision; perform a subfascial dissection until the septum is identified from the other side; free the septum from the periosteum in a distally cephalad direction; ligate the pedicle distally; raise the flap until the pedicle branches off toward the radial artery; watch out for nerve branches supplying wrist extensors; open the tourniquet; check for adequate perfusion; rotate the flap or ligate the pedicle and then

inset the flap in the recipient site

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Adequate caliber

Flap size and shape Donor sites of flaps < 4 cm wide can be closed primarily; subcutaneous fat

can provide excellent gliding tissue for tendon reconstructions Inclusion of tendon strip and bone segments enhances versatility

Combinations

Disadvantages

Pedicle Pedicle is short; nerve transection may be required if motor branches

cross between main perforators

Bulkiness Can be bulky in strong patients with fleshy forearms

Donor site morbidity Donor site can be very conspicuous; this flap should not be the first choice

for younger patients and females

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Try to spare the motor nerve; avoid a too narrow arc of rotation, because

the flap has a tendency for venous congestion; include a proximal subcutaneous vein for emergency turbocharging; include a wide segment of dorsal fascia with the pedicle; identify the arterial anastomosis to the anterior interosseous artery first (5% of all patients do not have

this anastomosis)

Extensions and combinations Include a tendon strip in the subfascial dissection; stay very close to the

periosteum to avoid injury to the pedicle

Contouring and correction Secondary corrections may be required in many cases

Clinical applications Forearm defects; dorsal hand defects; complex reconstructions with free

nonvascularized tendon grafts; defects around the elbow when used as

proximal pedicle flaps

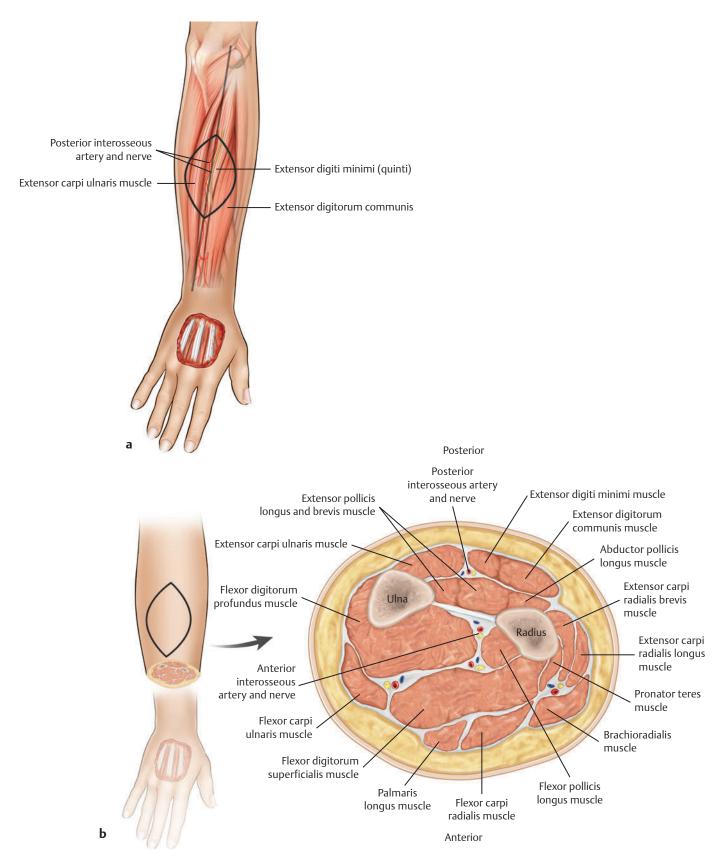


Fig. 43.1 Posterior interosseous flap. **(a)** Identify vessel course with Doppler. Identify proximal perforators prior to planning. **(b)** Start dissection here. Try to spare motor nerve to extensor carpi ulnaris (*continued*).

Posterior Interosseous Flap 193

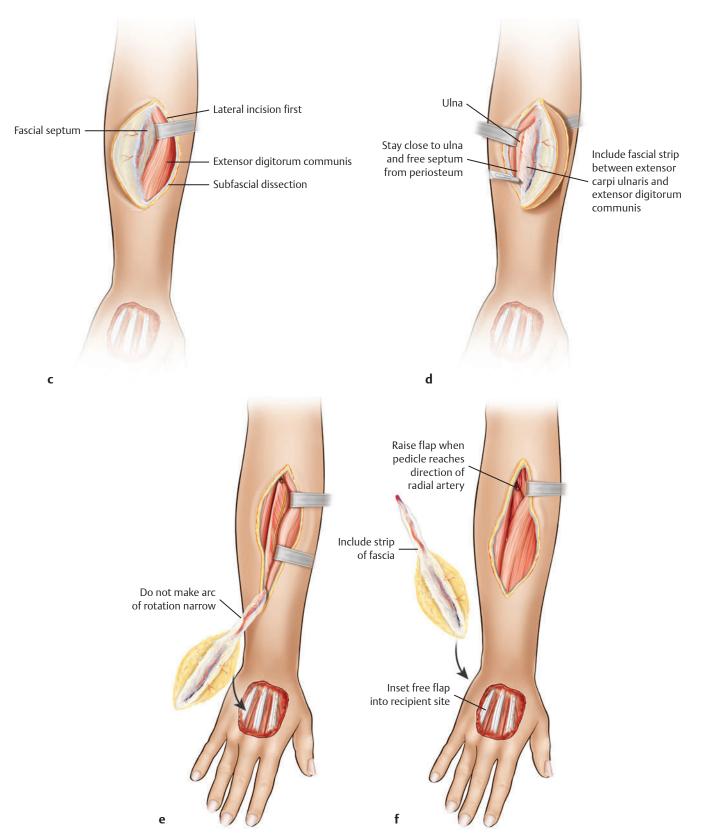


Fig. 43.1 (*continued*) **(c)** Stay close to the ulna to avoid violation of the pedicle. Preserve subcutaneous vein for distal veno-venous anastomosis in case of venous congestion. Do not make arc of rotation too narrow. Include fascial strip between the extensor carpi ulnaris and extensor digiti quinti containing the pedicle vessels. **(d)** Isolation of pedicle. **(e)** Flap elevated as pedicle flap. **(f)** Flap harvested as free flap.



Fig. 43.2 Posterior interosseous flap. **(a)** The patient's flap design is shown. Flap access is from the lateral epicondyle to the distal radial ulnar joint. The midpoint is the location of the posterior interosseous artery. **(b)** Web space release. **(c)** Flap elevation. **(d)** Primary donor site closure and flap insetting. **(e)** The patient's final result, with increased finger-thumb web space, is shown.

Reverse Ulnar Perforator Forearm Flap

Tab	le 44.1	Reverse u	lnar perf	forator f	forearm f	flap
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Flap

Tissue Skin or fascia

Course of the vessels Underneath the flap in Scarpa's fascia; passes laterally under the flexor

carpi ulnaris

Dimensions 4×15 cm at the ulnar aspect of the forearm

Extensions and combinations —

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle -

Artery Distal perforator (4 cm from wrist) of the ulnar artery

Veins Venae comitantes

Length and arc of rotation Flap reaches the proximal palm of the wrist joint

Diameter — Nerve —

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Doppler identification of perforator vessel; flap centered over the lateral

ulnar aspect of the forearm

Patient position Supine with arm on arm table to avoid tourniquet ischemia

Dissection Incise the skin along the markings; perform a subfascial dissection with

sparing of ulnar artery and nerve; preserve the extensor paratenon; identify the distal perforator; create a distal skin incision when taking it as an island flap, otherwise leave the distal skin bridge intact; open the tourniquet; check the flap for perfusion; rotate the flap into the defect

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Reliable and easy to identify

Flap size and shape Large flap possible

Combinations Inclusion of tendon strip possible (flexor carpi ulnaris)

Dissection Easy and straightforward

Disadvantages

Flap leaves doq-ear at pivot point that frequently requires secondary

correction; donor site has to be skin grafted in most cases

Bulkiness Flap may be bulky

Donor site morbidity Skin grafted area may be conspicuous; impairment of tendon gliding

rarely encountered; major risk is injury or division of the ulnar nerve

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not violate the paratenon; identify the perforator before dissection;

frequently check the integrity of the perforator when proceeding

distally with the dissection

Extensions and combinations Inclusion of tendon strip (flexor carpi ulnaris)

Contouring and correction Contouring after 6 months; frequently, smaller dog-ears will appear and

can be smoothed out

Clinical applications Long narrow defects around the wrist

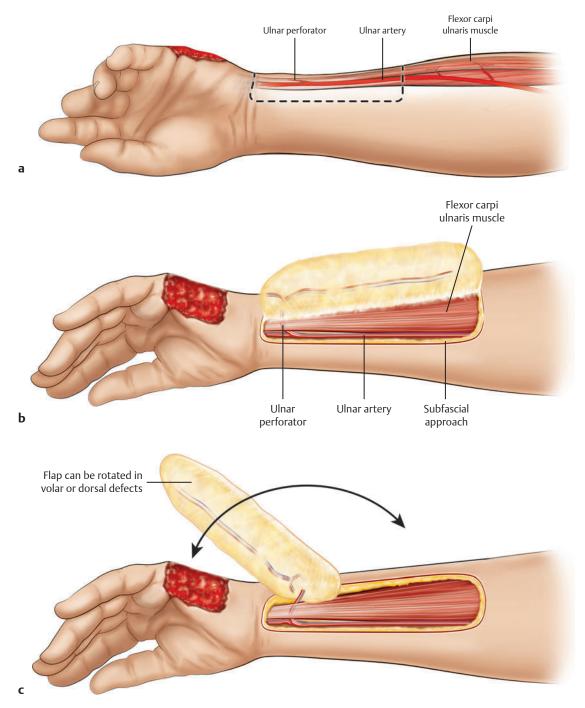


Fig. 44.1 Reverse ulnar perforator forearm flap. **(a)** Center the flap over the course of the ulnar artery. Use Doppler device to identify pedicle approximately 3–4 cm proximal to the wrist crease. **(b)** Start the dissection proximally and proceed distally. Approach pedicle location carefully. Stay subfascial during the dissection. The pedicle passes underneath the flexor carpi ulnaris tendon laterally. **(c)** The flap can be rotated in volar or dorsal defects. When the flap is raised it can be transformed into a true island flap by dividing the distal skin bridge. Preserve the distal skin bridge until perfusion of the flap is confirmed after elevation.

Lateral Arm Flap

Table 45.1Lateral arm flap	
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Pedicle or free flap, antegrade or reverse pedicle Innervated cutaneous flap, frequently from a non−hair-bearing area; also may be de-epithelialized if a subcutaneous fascial flap In a fascial plane, deep along the humerus; perforators enter the flap via a delicate septum from the undersurface Up to 15 × 8 cm (primary closure only possible for flaps ≤ 6 × 12 cm) Can be harvested as an osteocutaneous flap with a segment from the humerus; can include a fasciocutaneous forearm extension
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	 Posterior radial collateral artery (branch of the profunda brachii artery); distal flow from a recurrent radial collateral artery from the articular network around the elbow Two concomitant veins and cephalic system ≤ 8 cm Arteries, 1.5–2 mm; veins, 2–2.5 mm Posterior cutaneous forearm nerve from the radial nerve
Surgical technique Preoperative examinations and markings Patient position Dissection	Doppler identification of vessel course recommended; mark the insertion of the deltoid muscle and the lateral condyle; outline the flap dimensions centered over this line Supine; arm draped to allow for free movement; arm on an arm table or fixed across the chest; tourniquet recommended (but sometimes hard to hold in place) Free flap and antegrade pedicle flap: start with a posterior incision down to the muscle fascia; raise the flap subfascially and tack the fascia to the skin to prevent shearing; continue to the anterior border of the triceps muscle, where the fascia dives deep and inserts into the humerus; perforators are seen in the septum; incise anteriorly down to the fascia; subfascial dissection should include the fascia of the flexor muscles; pursue the fascia down to the humerus; ligate the distal continuation of the posterior radial collateral artery; separate the fascial septum as close as possible to the periosteum; follow the pedicle proximally under the triceps muscle into the spiral groove; separate the lower cutaneous nerve from the radial nerve Reverse pedicle flap: proceed with dissection as described for the free flap dissection; ligate the proximal inflow; pursue the distal pedicle toward the elbow Fasciocutaneous forearm extension: extend the flap 5 cm distal to the elbow, with width that is similar to the lateral arm flap; raise the extension subfascially; include the recurrent pedicle as long as possible

Continued

Table 45.1, cont'd

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Advantages Dissection Vascular pedicle Flap size and shape Combinations	Flap dissection is rapid for experienced surgeons; a simultaneous two-team approach is possible Reliable and constant pedicle with moderate diameter Thin flap that can be made in various shapes; oval is the optimal shape Very versatile due to optional combinations with bone, tendon strip from the triceps, forearm fascia extension, and/or nerve for both innervation and vascularized flow through the nerve graft
Disadvantages Flap Donor site morbidity Pedicle	Depending on the patient, the flap can be bulky due to the subcutaneous layer Scar is conspicuous; only donor sites ≤ 6 cm wide can be closed primarily, or else skin graft is required; no functional loss except numbness on the lateral forearm Pedicle is short; vascular diameter can be small, especially in women
Pearls and pitfalls Dissection Extensions and combinations	Do not confuse the nerve branches; stay extremely close to the periosteum of the humerus to preserve the delicate septum; tack the fascia to the skin to prevent shearing forces; repair the tendon donor site in the triceps muscle Try to center a perforator over the strip of periosteum taken with the bony segment; the posterior cutaneous nerve can be harvested as a vascularized nerve graft
Contouring and correction Clinical applications	Flap tends to sag; contour corrections are frequently needed Defects of the dorsum of the hand and the first web space; defects around the elbow and the shoulder region when used as a distal or proximal pedicle flap

Lateral Arm Flap 199

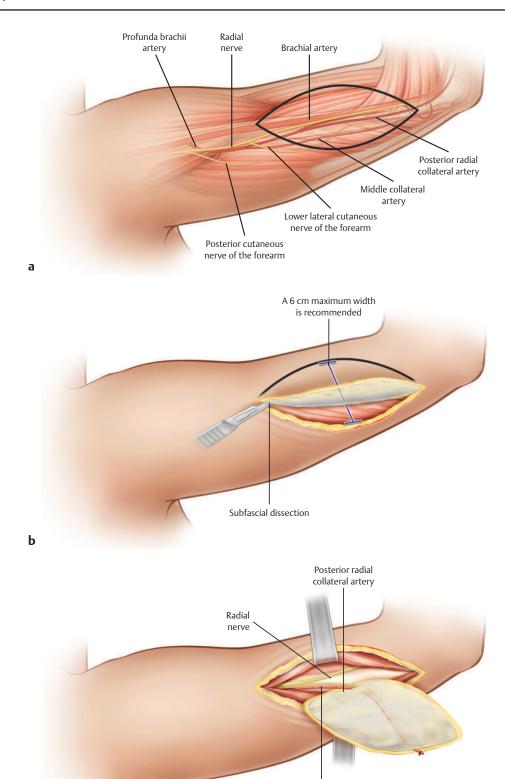


Fig. 45.1 Lateral arm flap. **(a)** Location of the skin island varies with the origin of the vascular pedicle. Proximal skin island is usually only used in distally based pedicle flaps. Incision follows the line between insertion of the deltoid muscle to the lateral epicondyle of the humerus. Distal extension may include proximal fifth of the forearm. **(b)** Stay carefully beneath fascia. **(c)** Identify radial nerve and lower lateral cutaneous nerve. Distal end of posterior radial collateral artery may be used as a flow-through conduit. Flap can be transplanted including a 10 cm nerve segment. Identify posterior radial collateral artery from posterior.

c

Lower lateral cutaneous nerve of the forearm

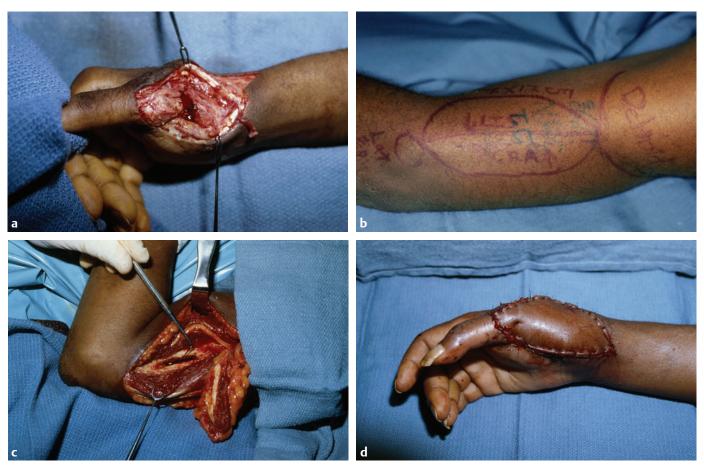


Fig. 45.2 Lateral arm flap. **(a)** This patient sustained a first metacarpal composite injury secondary to a gunshot wound. **(b)** Lateral arm flap. **(c)** Osteocutaneous flap isolated on a pedicle. **(d)** The flap is shown after inset.

Parascapular and Scapular Flaps

Table 46.1 Parascapular and scapular flap			
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Fasciocutaneous/osteocutaneous flap, non-hair-bearing, can also be de-epithelialized as a pedicle or free subcutaneous fascial flap Parallel to the skin above the deep fascia Parascapular flap, 8–10 × 20–25 cm; scapular flap, 10–15 × 12–25 cm Fascial extensions; any combination with other flaps from the subscapular system		
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	 Constant branch of the circumflex scapular artery; vertical branch for parascapular flap; horizontal branch for scapular flap Two concomitant veins 6-10 cm Artery, 1.5-3 mm; veins, 2-4 mm No sensory nerve 		
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Patient position Dissection	Doppler identification of vessels (horizontal and descending branch), identification and marking of triangular space (defined by teres major, teres minor, and long head of the triceps), tip of the scapula, scapular spine, spine, and border of latissimus dorsi muscle Midlateral or oblique prone position Parascapular flap: start with a low medial incision (retrograde elevation); identify the epifascial plane; proceed cranially to the area of the triangular space; complete the skin incision; identify the fatty tissue around the pedicle; carefully retract the flap medially; ligate or clip the muscle and bone branches very carefully; follow the pedicle into the triangular space; identify the thoracodorsal or subscapular artery; check for flap perfusion; perform pedicle transection or flap transfer; some authors favor the identification of the vascular pedicle as the first step of the dissection Scapular flap: employ the same strategy of dissection as for the parascapular flap, then dissect medially and proceed toward the triangular space; as with the parascapular flap, the vascular pedicle can also be identified first during the course of the dissection		

Continued

Table 46.1, cont'd	
Advantages Vascular pedicle	Long; reliable; large caliber; arc of rotation as a pedicle flap reaches the axillary fold and the dorsal brachium
Flap size and shape	Large flaps possible with medial and lateral extensions and scapular fascial extension; uniform thickness of flap; can also be used as a "buried flap" when de-epithelialized
Combinations	Possible with all flaps from the subscapular system; very valuable: combination with bone parts for segmental forearm defects; bone segments can be harvested medially and laterally
Further options	Preserves most of the other flaps from the subscapular system
Disadvantages Bulkiness	Thickness depends on the patient's body habitus; sometimes it is too
Donor site morbidity	bulky No functional loss; conspicuous scarring when scar widens; only donor sites 8–12 cm wide can be closed primarily
Pearls and pitfalls	
Dissection	Watch out for fatty tissue around the pedicle; put some stay sutures in for careful flap retraction; do not sever the large bony/muscular branch, which comes very soon after the pedicle dives deep; have the patient deeply relaxed during the pedicle dissection, which facilitates dissection into the axilla; use long blade retractors to open the triangular space
Extensions and combinations	Most combined flaps can be raised without altering patient position; do not violate the bony/muscular branch when taking a bone segment; include a muscle cuff; an axillary incision is only required when the flap is combined with other flaps from the subscapular system; in the case of combined flaps, do not transect the pedicle before anatomical variations have been excluded
Contouring and correction	May be necessary, as the flap tends to sag; debulking may be required; liposuction can be difficult due to the structure of the dorsal fatty tissue
Clinical applications	Resurfacing of forearm and dorsum of the hand; provision of skin coverage and gliding tissue for flexor and extensor tendons, when the fascial extension is included; perfect for segmental defects of the forearm;

pedicle flap

defects of the shoulder area and the dorsal brachium when used as a

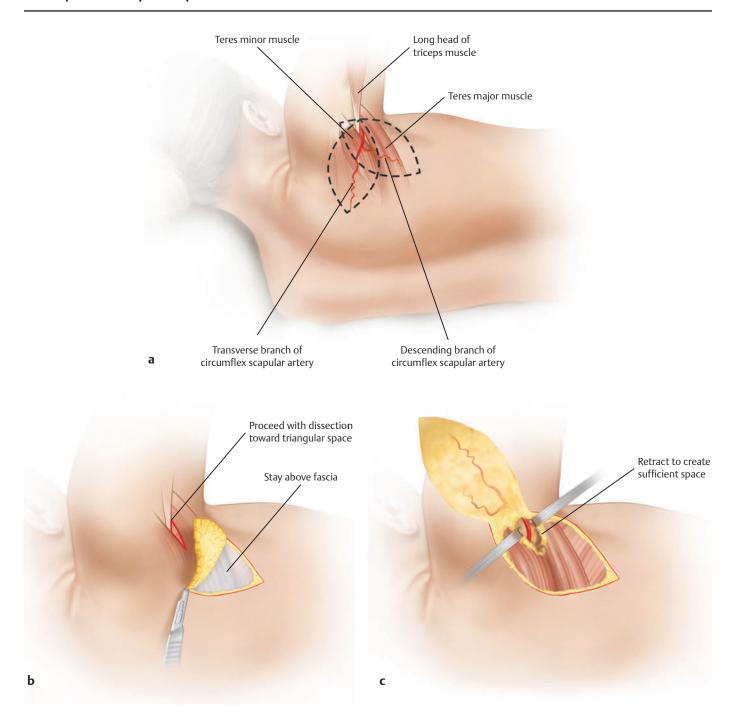


Fig. 46.1 Creation of the parascapular and scapular flaps. **(a)** The rule of "2" should be used when designing the flap: the pedicle is located 2 cm inferior to the scapular spine and 2 cm lateral to the midaxial line. **(b)** Identify the entrance of the pedicle into triangular space preoperatively by Doppler examination. Start the dissection at inferior edge of the flap and proceed toward the triangular space. Stay above the fascia. **(c)** When fatty layers are encountered, use caution near the pedicle and use long blade retractors to create sufficient room within the triangular space. Carefully ligate or clip all branches of the circumflex scapular artery to the lateral border of the scapula and the adjacent muscles. A bony segment can be taken from lateral or medial border.

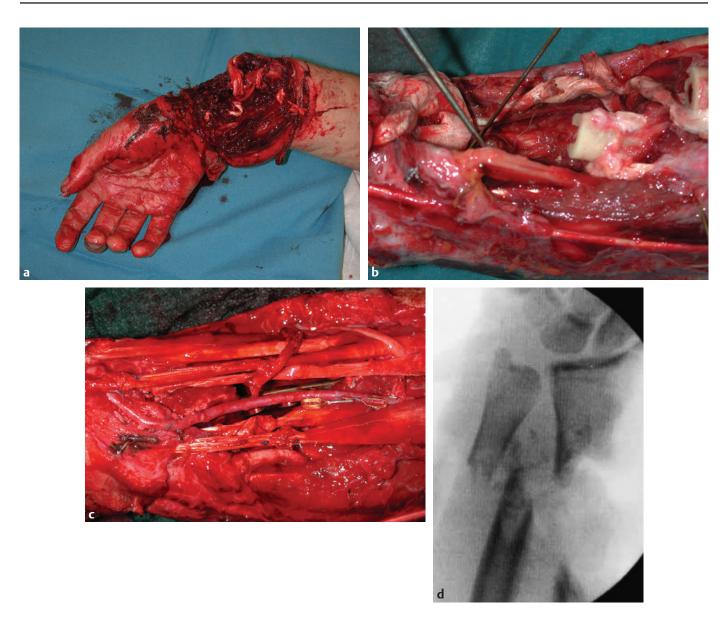


Fig. 46.2 Parascapular and scapular flap. **(a)** This 25-year-old soccer player experienced a severe crush injury of the hand with the disruption of circulation and a segmental bone defect. Debridement and vein grafting were performed to reconstruct the radial artery. **(b)** Intraoperative situs showing the three-dimensional defect. **(c)** Situs after the repair of all structures. **(d)** The patient's comminuted forearm fracture with a radial defect is shown (*continued*).



Fig. 46.2 (continued) **(e)** The patient's graft involved a scapular/parascapular flap with a vascularized scapula bone. **(f)** The postoperative situation after the reconstruction of all defects and the insetting of the flap. **(g)** A radiograph of the patient's arm immediately after surgery, with correct axial positioning of the forearm. **(h)** One year postoperatively.

Anterolateral Thigh Flap

Table 47.1 Anterolateral thigh flap

Flap

Tissue Fasciocutaneous as perforator/myocutaneous

Course of the vessels Base of the intermuscular space between the rectus femoris muscle and

the vastus lateralis muscle

Dimensions Maximum 20 × 10 cm; greatly dependent on the inclusion of the ABC

perforators

Extensions and combinations ALT/TFL, ALT/vastus lateralis, ALT/iliac crest, ALT/AMT

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle -

Artery Descending branch of the lateral circumflex femoral artery

Veins Two concomitant veins
Length and arc of rotation 8–16 cm depending on point

Diameter 2–2.5 cm below rectus femoris branch; 2.5–3.5 cm above rectus femoris

branch

Nerve Lateral femoral cutaneous/lateral branch

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Straight line drawn from the anterior superior iliac spine to the upper/

outer margin of the patella; Doppler confirmation of perforator B just lateral to halfway point; Doppler confirmation of perforators A and C 5

cm above and below perforator B, respectively

Patient position Supine neutral position feet straight up

Dissection Begin with a curvilinear incision 1.5–2 cm medial to the anterior superior

iliac spine/patellar line from a point proximal to perforator A to a point distal to perforator C; depth of dissection should be subfascial, moving from medial to lateral; retracting the rectus femoris medially will expose the descending branch of the lateral circumflex femoral pedicle; identify the appropriate perforators exiting the pedicle and determine their route to the surface; if confined to the septum, visualize their travel and ensure their continuity to the overlying skin paddle; in a majority of cases, the perforators will travel through the vastus lateralis and must be carefully dissected out of and away from the muscle; in this case, dissection is usually directed from superficial to deep; all intramuscular branches should

be mechanically or thermally ligated

When the perforators travel deeper within the muscle, it may be prudent to include a cuff of the muscle around the perforator; after concluding the dissection to the cutaneous island, the lateral curvilinear incision may be completed to the design needs of the recipient defect; the

distal extent of the pedicle should be divided and the main vessels dissected proximally until sufficient length is attained; preservation of the

co-located motor nerve is strongly recommended

Anterolateral Thigh Flap 207

Table 47.1, cont'd

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Generous length, large caliber, reliable location

Flap size and shape Large, elliptical skin paddle

Combinations May be raised with the TFL and/or the vastus lateralis muscle

Donor site Minimal to no functional deficit; aesthetically favorable as compared with

most other cutaneous flap donor sites

Disadvantages

Flap

Donor site morbidity Large flap donor sites may require skin graft closure

Dissection Perforator continuity must be confirmed before cutaneous flap dissection

can be completed; perforator and travel are highly variable

Thickness may present a problem in overweight patients

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not make the initial skin incision too laterally; be patient when deter-

mining the course and travel of the chosen perforator; do not isolate the cutaneous flap until the route of the perforators is ensured

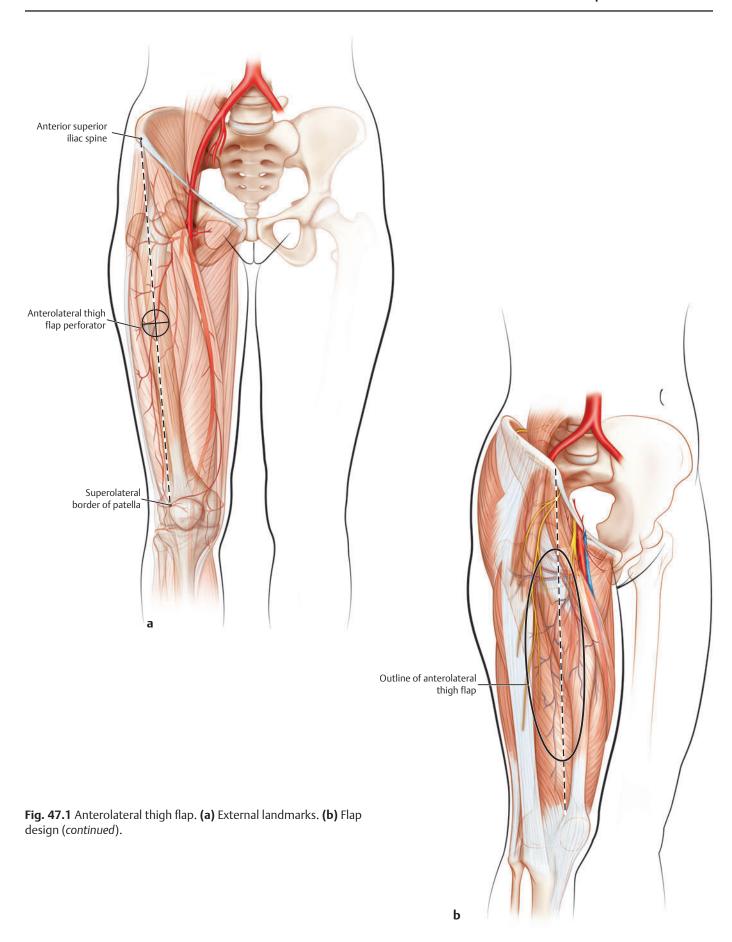
Extensions and combinations Including the TFL requires the inclusion of the transverse branch of the

lateral circumflex femoral vessels

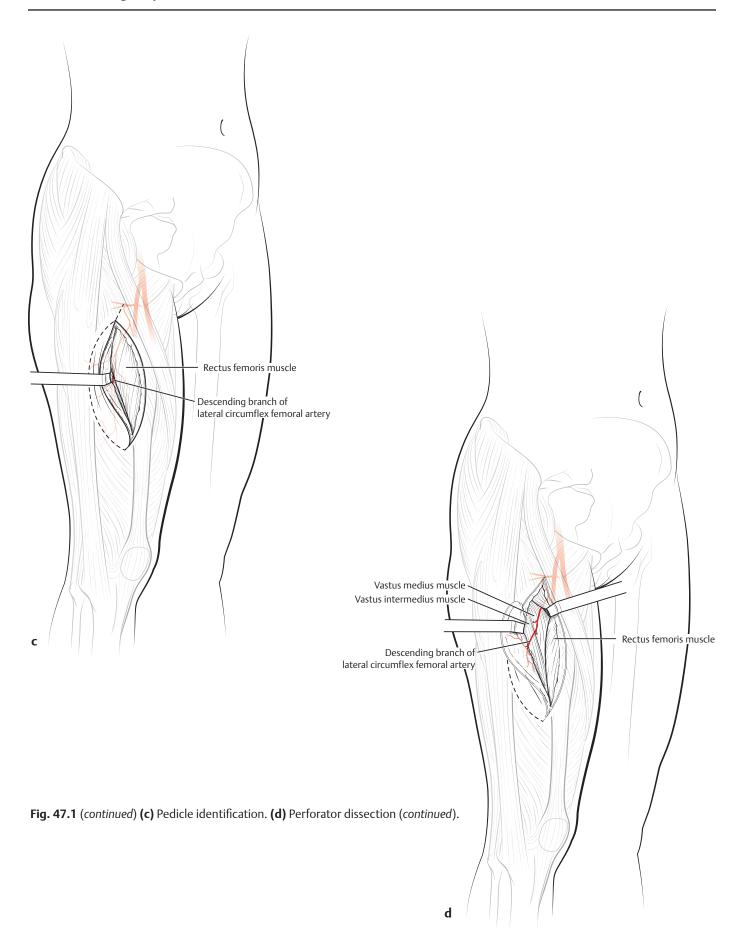
Contouring and correction Thinning the flap is possible

Clinical applications Wide variety of uses, including the head and neck, trunk, and upper and

lower extremities



Anterolateral Thigh Flap 209



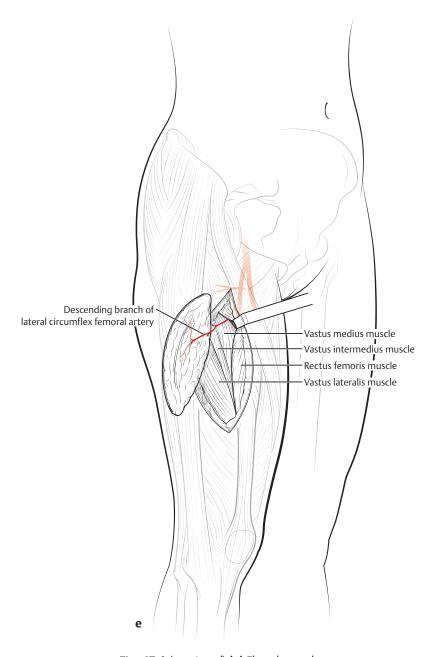


Fig. 47.1 (continued) (e) Flap elevated.

Anterolateral Thigh Flap 211

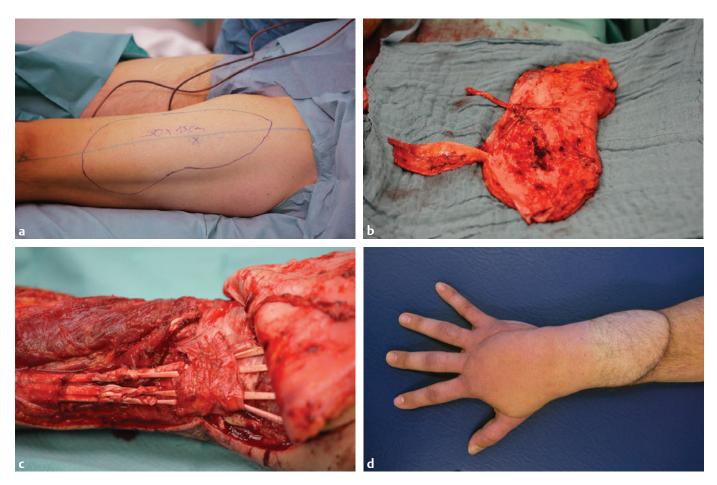


Fig. 47.2 Anterolateral thigh flap. **(a)** Reconstruction of tendons with PL and plantaris tendon from both sides. **(b)** Reconstruction of a soft tissue defect with a free fasciocutaneous ALT flap from the left thigh, with vascularized fascia lata. **(c)** Myxofibrosarcoma of the right hand after resection during inset, with fascial extensor retinacular reconstruction and soft tissue coverage. **(d)** The healed wound with the reconstructed flap is shown 6 months postoperatively.

Latissimus Dorsi Flap

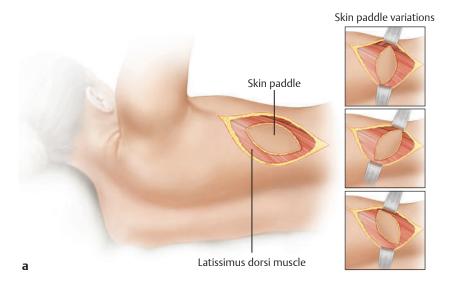
Table 48.1 Latissimus dorsi flap		
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Muscle or musculocutaneous flap, pedicle or free From the axilla along the anterior border of the muscle: it enters the muscle from underneath and then spreads into the three major branches at the undersurface of the muscle Can be tailored to almost any size; maximum dimensions, 20 × 35 cm Can be raised as muscle, musculocutaneous, and perforator flap; combinations are possible with any component from the subscapular system (i.e., bone, skin, fascia, or muscle)	
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	Thoracodorsal artery Usually one vein that originates from the subscapular vein Up to 15 cm; branches of the subscapular system; anatomical variations in 3–5% of population Artery, 2–4 mm; vein, 2–5 mm Motor nerve; some studies report deep sensation 18 months after coaptation to the sensory recipient	
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Patient position Dissection	No vessel identification necessary; in cases of previous axilla dissection or radiation, check muscle function; if muscle function is intact, vessels are usually not violated; mark the anterior muscle border and the tip of the scapula to outline the flap borders Midlateral; arm elevated 90 degrees Mark the flap dimensions; start with an incision along the muscle border; identify the muscle border and branch to the serratus muscle; identify the pedicle and follow the pedicle to its origin; free the anterior border of the muscle and raise the flap from ventral to dorsal toward the spine; take care to coagulate or ligate the perforating vessels; divide the muscle distally as required; divide the muscle at the spine insertions; raise the muscle in a cranial direction; ligate the serratus branches; check perfusion; divide the pedicle	

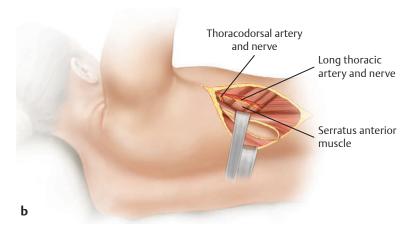
Latissimus Dorsi Flap 213

Table 48.1, cont'd

Table 48.1, cont d	
Advantages Vascular pedicle	Long and reliable; large-caliber vessels
Flap size and shape	Any flap size is possible: the latissimus dorsi is the largest muscle in the body
Combinations	Numerous combinations are possible, including multicomponent flaps with other flaps from the subscapular system; vascularized bone can be harvested as rib grafts with the latissimus dorsi or on a connected pedicle from the scapula; fascia can be added from the serratus muscle
Further options	Scapular flaps are still available if the latissimus dorsi is harvested correctly; the serratus muscle is available, but vessels are small
Disadvantages	
Bulkiness	Muscle can be bulky; skin islands in musculocutaneous flaps are usually bulky and require secondary contour correction
Donor site morbidity	Donor scar is rather conspicuous; approximately 7% loss of shoulder function
Pearls and pitfalls	
Dissection	Watch out for constant large perforator vessels at the tip of the scapula (ligate); finalize the dissection of the pedicle by splitting the fascial leaf, which separates the latissimus dorsi from the teres muscles dorsally; ligate the branch to the scapula, and do not confuse it with the second branch to the muscle; take a skin island as a monitoring island, if desired.
Extensions and combinations	Dissect the pedicle up to the axillary artery to rule out anomalies of the vascular system so that all components are nourished by one pedicle; if there are anomalies, the operative strategy has to be adjusted to perform additional microanastomoses
Contouring and correction	Muscle flaps usually shrink, and contouring is required in approximately 50% of cases; musculocutaneous flaps almost all tend to sag and need contouring; in the case of functional muscle transfers, readjusting muscle tension is sometimes required
Clinical applications	Coverage of large surface area defects; functional free muscle transfer for loss of forearm flexor and extensor systems; pedicle muscle transfer for

restoration of biceps function





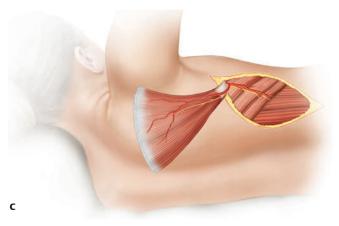


Fig. 48.1 Latissimus dorsi flap. **(a)** The medial border is always found more medially than projected. Make the skin island not too small to allow reliable clinical monitoring. **(b)** Identify the pedicle first. Proceed with dissection along the medial border. Divide distally and move toward the spine. Move up the anterior edge of latissimus dorsi or lateral. Re-orient the skin paddle. Accentuate borders between the latissimus dorsi serratus and teres major. **(c)** Leave the tendon insertion intact until the dissection is completed. Insert a suction drain into the axilla and lower donor site to prevent seromas. Coagulate all minor perforators, clip or ligate major perforators. Leave the circumflex scapular artery intact for possible future use. Mark the nerve with 5–0 suture; this facilitates manipulation of the pedicle during microsurgery. Clip branches of the pedicle to prevent bleeding after vascular microanastomosis.

Latissimus Dorsi Flap 215





Fig. 48.2 Latissimus dorsi flap. **(a)** A latissimus dorsi subcutaneous flap was prepared before resection with a pedicle for the treatment of recurrent malignant fibrous histiocytoma. **(b)** The patient is shown 6 months after resection and reconstruction.

Serratus Muscle/Fascial Flap

Table 49.1 Serratus muscle/fascial flap

Flap

Tissue Muscle or fascia (lower three muscle slips)

Course of the vessels On the muscle surface

Dimensions 10×15 cm (muscle flap); 10×18 cm (fascial flap)

Extensions and combinations Skin island; vascularized ribs

Anatomy

Nerve

Neurovascular pedicle

Artery Serratus arcade as extension of the thoracodorsal pedicle; direct serratus

branches of the thoracodorsal artery in > 97% of patients

Veins Venae comitantes

Length and arc of rotation \leq 16 cm (when a thoracodorsal pedicle is harvested)

Diameter When thoracodorsal pedicle is harvested: artery, 3.5–4.5 mm;

vein: 4-6 mm

When only serratus arcade is taken: artery, 1–1.5 mm; vein, 1–1.5 mm

Long thoracic nerve (does not always have to be included in the flap)

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Mark the anterior border of the latissimus dorsi muscle at the tip of the

scapula and the 5th through 8th ribs
Patient position

Lateral, with the arm elevated at 90 degrees

Dissection

Muscle flap: make a slightly curved incision along the border of the latissimus muscle; identify the muscle border and the serratus arcade; check if the thoracodorsal pedicle is intact; determine the entrance points of motor fibers into the muscle; outline the flap size on the muscle surface; make a medial incision into the muscle; use ligation, coagulation, or clipping of the intercostal vessels to minimize bleeding; release the muscle from the thoracic wall; preserve three proximal slips

to prevent wing scapula; dissect the thoracodorsal pedicle to the length required; check the flap for perfusion; transfer the flap

Fascial flap: make a slightly curved incision along the border of the latissimus muscle; identify the muscle border and the serratus arcade; check if the thoracodorsal pedicle is intact; determine the entrance points of motor fibers into the muscle; outline the flap size on the muscle surface; raise the fascia from the muscle surface; coagulate the smaller vessels; preserve the motor nerve; dissect the thoracodorsal pedicle to the required length; check the flap for perfusion; transfer the flap

Table 49.1, cont'd

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Very long pedicle possible; extremely reliable

Flap size and shape Thin and pliable as a fascial flap; minimal donor morbidity

Combinations Vascularized ribs can be harvested with the flap; a small skin island can be

included as a monitor island; any combination with other flaps from the

subscapular system is possible

Disadvantages

Flap Dissection can be tedious due to many small intercostal connections;

injury to the motor nerve may cause wing scapula; the fascia is delicate

and can easily be perforated

Bulkiness The muscle flap can be bulky

Donor site morbidity Acceptable; no functional loss except when wing scapula occurs; donor

scar is inconspicuous

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Identify where the motor fiber enters the muscle; avoid injury to the

nerve; the nerve runs laterally from the vascular pedicle; preserve the upper muscle slips; the flaps tend to bleed profusely as fascial flaps;

delayed secondary skin grafting is recommended

Extensions and combinations Bone defects can be simultaneously reconstructed with vascularized rib

grafts

Contouring and correction

Clinical applications

Rarely required
Perfect for mid-sized defects that require thin and pliable tissue; gliding

tissue for tendon reconstruction; a fascial flap that is mechanically stable can be used for defects of the dorsum of the hand and forearm

as well as exposed elbow joints

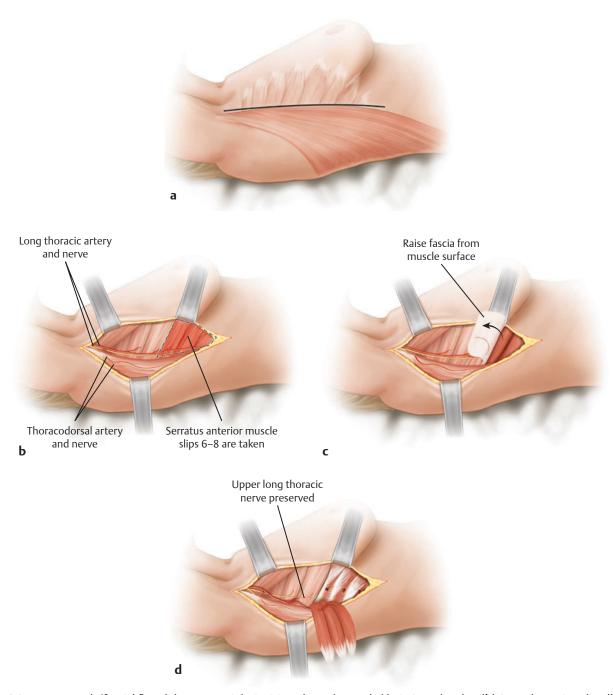


Fig. 49.1 Serratus muscle/fascial flap. **(a)** Use a straight incision along the medial latissimus border. **(b)** Start dissection distally. When the fascial flap is raised, take great care to maintain fascial integrity–defects will impair perfusion to distal parts. **(c)** Preserve the long thoracic nerve to avoid a winged scapula. Carefully coagulate perforators from intercostal vessels. The pedicle can include the entire length of the latissmus dorsi pedicle. Only take the lower slips (6–8) to preserve serratus function. **(d)** Flap elevated on pedicle.

Serratus Muscle/Fascial Flap

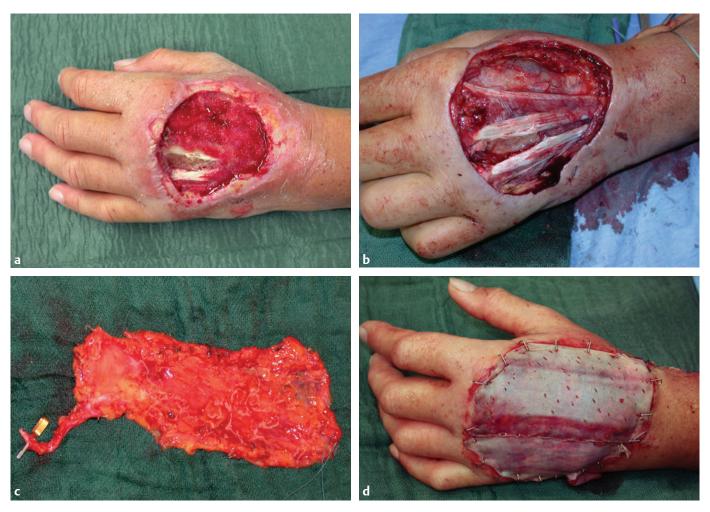


Fig. 49.2 Serratus muscle/fascial flap. **(a)** This patient had a granulating wound after primary treatment elsewhere. **(b)** Radical debridement. All vital structures were exposed, and the tendons still glided freely. **(c)** A free serratus fascial flap raised on the thoracodorsal pedicle. **(d)** The flap is shown after insertion and primary skin grafting (*continued*).



Fig. 49.2 (continued) (e-g) Function and aesthetics after 6 months. (h) Donor site scar.

Temporal Fascial Flap

Tal	ole !	50.1	Tempora	l fascial	flap
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Flap

Tissue Fascia (thickness, 1.5–3 mm)

Course of the vessels Subcutaneously on the fascia, from preauricular into the temporal fossa

Dimensions 8 × 15 cm

Extensions and combinations Can be combined with the deep fascial layer or calvarial bone

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle Common pedicle with deep fascia (proximal branch of superficial tem-

poral vein/superficial temporal artery); there are no communicating

vessels distal to the common pedicle

Artery Superficial temporal artery (terminal branch of the carotid artery)

Veins Superficial temporal vein

Length and arc of rotation 2–4 cm without incising the parotid gland Diameter Artery, 1.5–2.7 mm; vein, 2.0–3.2 mm

Nerve Auriculotemporal nerve is included in the fascial layer, but the flap is not

innervated

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Doppler identification of the course of the vessels; marking of the incision

line parallel to the hair follicles; outline of flap dimensions

Patient position

Supine, with the head slightly tilted to the opposite side

Use a T-shaped outline: start the incision by raising a pre-

Use a T-shaped outline; start the incision by raising a pretragal skin flap; identify and spare the superficial temporal vein anterior and exterior to the superficial temporal artery; identify the superficial temporal artery; proceed with the dissection cephalad, deep to the hair follicles; avoid damage to the very superficial vein; use bipolar coagulation for terminal branches to subdermal plexus; do not damage the frontal branch of the facial nerve; after the cephalad completion of the dissection, incise the flap; lift the flap from the deep fascial plane toward the auricle; observe

the flap for perfusion after the completed dissection

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Reliable pedicle with sufficient caliber and length

Flap size and shape Considerable flap size that can cover, for example, the entire dorsum of

the hand without bulk; dissection of the flap and donor site can be

carried out simultaneously

Combinations Can be combined with the deep temporal fascial layer: in this case, the

middle temporal vessel at the level of the zygoma has to be preserved;

possible combination with calvarial bone graft

Tissue Flap is thin and pliable; cover without bulk

Donor site Donor site completely inconspicuous; no functional loss

Continued

Table 50.1, cont'd

Disadvantages

Flap size

Donor site morbidity Frontal nerve may be damaged during dissection; alopecia may result if

the superficial plane of the dissection is too close to the hair follicles

Dissection –

Flap Capillary bleeding may jeopardize graft take

Pedicle is short; vein is easy to damage due to it superficial location;

sometimes vein is absent

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Watch out for the superficial temporal vein

Extensions and combinations When combined with the deep layer, preserve the middle temporal vessel Contouring and correction Contour correction almost never indicated; delayed skin grafting recom-

mended due to tendency for edema and capillary bleeding

Clinical applications Dorsum of the hand; deep defects of the palm; degloving injuries of the

digits; gliding tissue in scarred wound beds

Temporal Fascial Flap 223

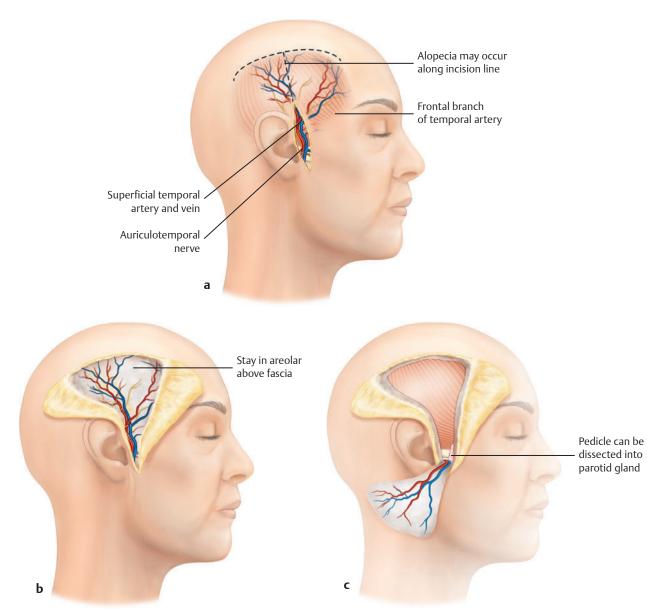


Fig. 50.1 Temporal fascial flap. **(a)** Define and mark the course of the pedicle by Doppler examination preoperatively. Inject the scalp donor site with xylocaine (0.5%) and epinephrine (1:200,000) before the dissection for better visualization and hemostasis. Alopecia may occur along the incision line. Vascular anomalies can be found. Try to identify draining veins by placing a slight touniquet around the head above the ear. Identify the vascular pedicle early in the dissection process. **(b)** Do not violate hair follicles to avoid alopecia. Stay in the areolar layer above the fascia. The frontalis branch can be identified by nerve stimulator. Avoid excessively deep skin incisions to prevent damage of the superficial temporal vessels. **(c)** Raise the flap from cephalad to caudad. The deep temporal fascia can be harvested along with the TPF to form a bilayer flap. The flap can be raised as a bilayer flap. Both flaps have a common pedicle, but no vascular connections after branching off the pedicle. A segment of calvarium can be raised with the flap, if the deep temporal layer is included. The pedicle can be dissected into the parotid gland.

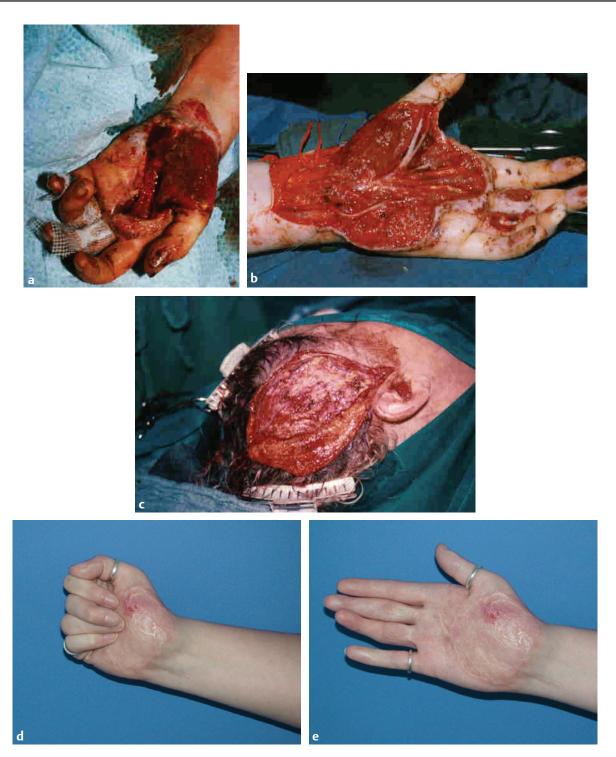


Fig. 50.2 Temporal fascial flap. **(a)** Volar avulsion injury. **(b)** After debridement. **(c)** Flap elevated. A patient with a similar injury is shown with her hand in **(d)** flexion and **(e)** extension. Excellent aesthetic appearance and function of the hand two years after the injury.

Groin Flap

Table 51.1Groin flap	
Flap	
Tissue	Skin or dermal fat flap; can be used as a pedicle (most common) or free flap
Course of the vessels	Superficial to the Scarpa fascia, branching in the overlying skin toward the iliac crest
Dimensions	10 × 25 cm
Extensions and combinations	Usually no combinations with this type of flap; very experienced surgeons may raise the superficial inferior epigastric artery flap as a second skin paddle
Anatomy	
Neurovascular pedicle	_
Artery	Superficial circumflex iliac artery
Veins	Two venous systems: one parallels the superficial circumflex iliac artery and drains into the saphenous bulb, and the other runs deep and directly into the femoral vein
Length and arc of rotation	Artery, 1.5–2 cm; veins, 2.5–4 cm
Diameter	Artery, 0.8–1.8 mm; veins, 2–3 mm
Nerve	Flap is not innervated
Surgical technique	
Preoperative examination and markings	Create an outline of the flap so that one third is above and two thirds are below the inguinal ligament; the dividing line is drawn from the anterior superior iliac spine to the pubic tubercle
Patient position	Supine
Dissection	Lateral approach is preferable for a pedicle flap, which is raised from lateral superficial to deep muscle fascia; care must be taken to avoid injury to the pedicle
	Medial approach for free flaps: identify the superficial circumflex iliac artery approximately 5 cm below the inguinal line; use a medial incision; identify the superficial vein anterior to Scarpa's fascia; identify

check for perfusion

the femoral artery, the superficial inferior epigastric artery, and the superficial circumflex iliac artery; create a lateral skin incision, but leave the deep fascia intact; identify the lateral border of the sartorius muscle; ligate the muscle branches of the deep superficial circumflex iliac artery branch; divide the lateral cutaneous nerve; raise the flap and

Continued

Table 51.1, cont'd

Advantages

Vascular pedicle –

Flap size and shape

Large flap possible; non-hair-bearing flap

Combinations

Medial extensions for hair-bearing flap

Tissue – Dissection –

Donor site Perfect inconspicuous donor site, with primary wound closure when flap

width does not exceed 10 cm

Further options –

Disadvantages

Bulkiness Medial bulk

Donor site morbidity Anesthesia in the lateral cutaneous nerve distribution area

Flap Poor color match in exposed areas

Pedicle Very short pedicle with variable arterial anatomy; arterial diameter is

small, and vein grafts are frequently required

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Identification of pedicle should precede flap harvest when used as a free

flap

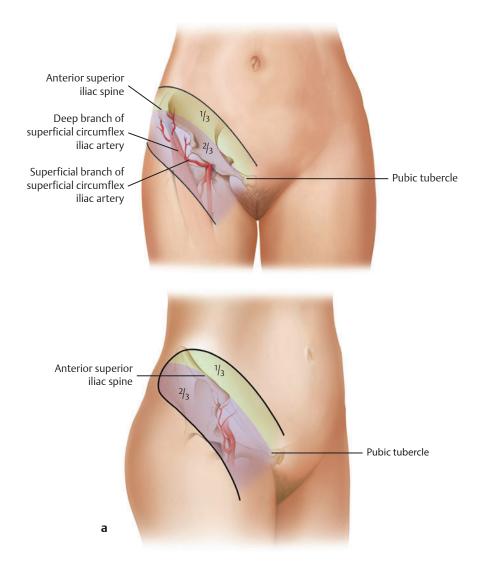
Extensions and combinations

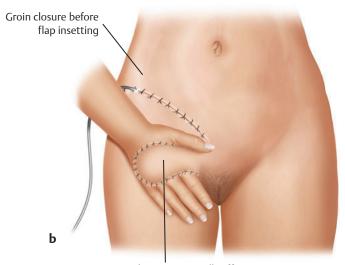
Contouring and correction Correction and debulking are frequently indicated; color match Clinical applications Pedicle flap: dorsal hand and forearm defects in younger patient

Pedicle flap: dorsal hand and forearm defects in younger patients; free flap: dorsal hand and forearm defects in older patients when a short pedicle is possible; not recommended as a pedicle flap in older patients

(risk of shoulder stiffness)

Groin Flap 227





Temporary skin coverage will suffice for remaining donor defect

Fig. 51.1 Groin flap. **(a)** Keep one third above, two thirds below the inguinal crease. Vascular pedicle arises deep to the deep fascia below the inguinal ligament. **(b)** Groin closure before flap insetting. Temporary skin coverage will suffice for remaining donor defect. Tube pedicle if possible (*continued*).

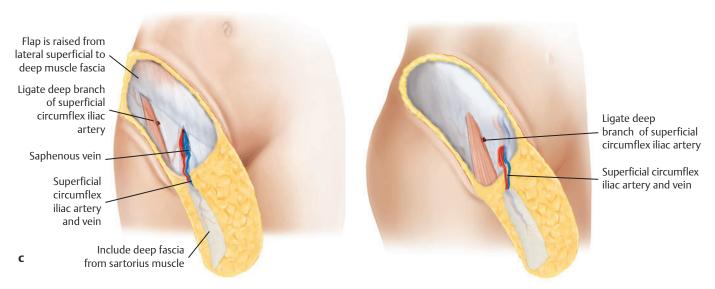


Fig. 51.1 (*continued*) **(c)** In free flaps a medial approach to identify the pedicle may be preferred. In pedicle flaps, a lateral approach is preferable. Identification and tracing of the saphenous vein will lead to the branching of the superior circumflex iliac vein. Do not include deep fascia until the sartorius muscle is encountered. From there the deep fascia is included.

Groin Flap 229



Fig. 51.2 Groin flap. **(a)** Crush avulsion of the thumb, volar view. **(b)** Crush avulsion of the thumb, dorsal view. **(c)** Groin flap with vascular axis. **(d)** Flap inset. **(e)** Flap inset, dorsal view (*continued*).



Fig. 51.2 (continued) (f) After release and insetting, volar view. (g) After release and insetting, dorsal view. (h) Prosthetic thumb opposition brace.

Gracilis Muscle/Musculocutaneous Flap, Innervated Flap

Table 52.1	Gracilis muscle	musculocutaneous fla	o. innervated flap

Flap

Tissue Muscle or muscle with skin paddle

Course of the vessels Underneath the muscle distally after entering the muscle laterally

Dimensions $4-6 \times 20-25$ cm (muscle); $6-8 \times 10-12$ cm (skin island)

Extensions and combinations —

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle –

Artery Terminal branch of the medial femoral circumflex artery
Veins Concomitant veins of the medial femoral circumflex artery

Length and arc of rotation 6–7 cm

Diameter Artery, 1.2–1.8 mm; vein, 1.5–2.5 mm

Nerve Anterior motor branch from the obturator nerve

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings

Patient position Dissection Draw a line from the pubic tubercle to the medial condyle; the prominence of the adductor magnus marks the superior border of the gracilis

Supine, with the hip and knee flexed and the leg abducted

Incise 2 cm inferior and parallel to the line drawn preoperatively; do not violate the greater saphenous vein (anterior to the incision); incise the fascia; identify the gracilis muscle; divide the muscle distally; ligate the minor pedicle; proceed with the dissection cephalad; retract the adductor longus by moving proximally; expose the pedicle 6–12 cm distal to the pubic tubercle; protect the medial cutaneous nerve on the surface of the adductor magnus; clip or ligate small branches; divide the muscle superiorly; check for perfusion and then transfer the flap. NOTE: Center the skin island over the middle of the proximal portion; incise down to the fascia; include the fascia lata in the dissection;

identify the muscle and proceed as above

Advantages

Vascular pedicle Short but reliable; vessel size is sufficient if the pedicle is dissected to

maximal length

Flap size and shape

Long flat muscle with suitable cross-section area to serve as functional

muscle transplant

Combinations Skin island

Donor site Minimal donor site morbidity with acceptable scar

Disadvantages

Flap Distal skin island is not reliable

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection Do not confuse the gracilis and sartorius muscles; do not dissect the skin

island too anteriorly; the gracilis is always more dorsal than projected;

perform good muscle excursion for functional replacement

Rarely required; sometimes needed with bulky skin islands

Extensions and combinations

Contouring and correction

Clinical applications Long narrow defects for coverage alone; functional muscle transfer for

loss of muscle groups

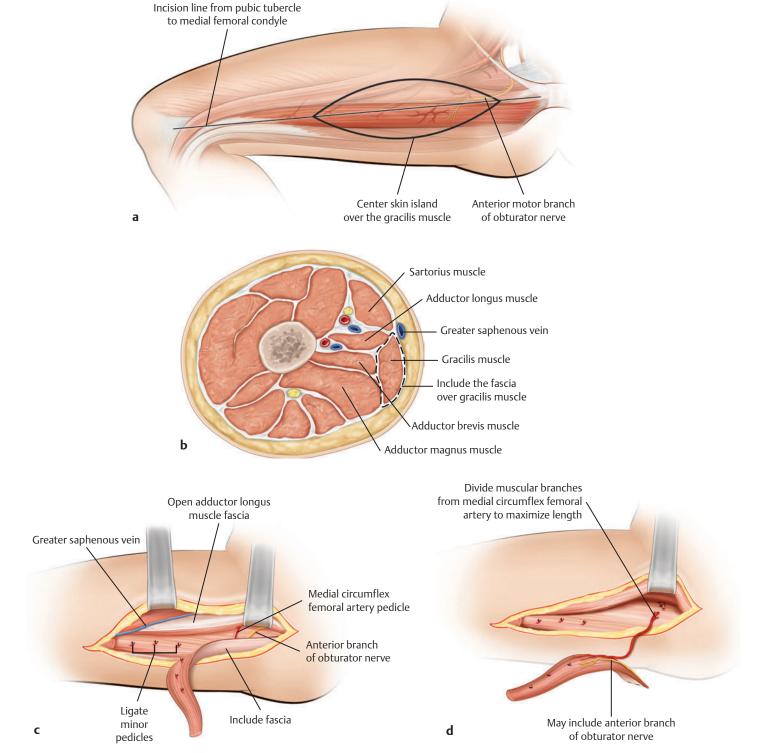


Fig. 52.1 Gracilis muscle/musculocutaneous flap, innervated flap. **(a)** Flap outline. **(b)** Cross-sectional anatomy. **(c)** Pedicle identification. **(d)** Flap isolated on pedicle (*continued*).

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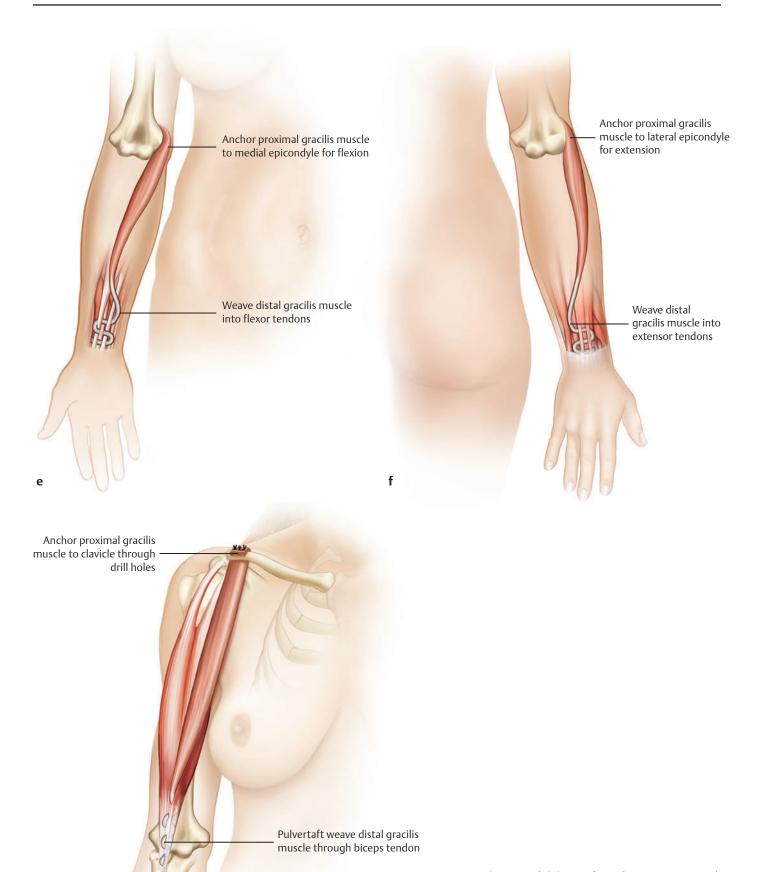


Fig. 52.1 (*continued*) **(e)** Use of gracilis as an innervated functional muscle transfer in flexion, and **(f)** extension. **(g)** Use of gracilis as a functional muscle for elbow flexion.

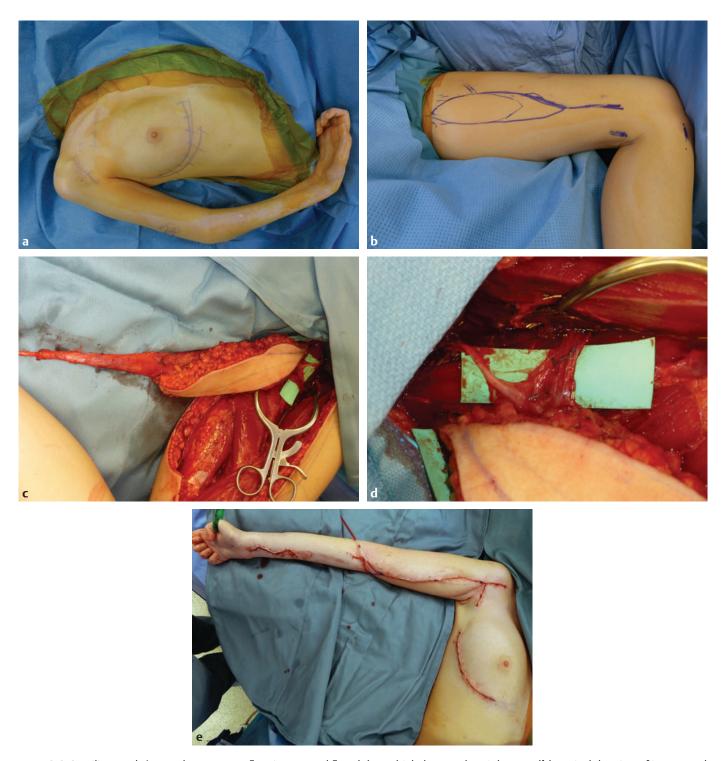


Fig. 52.2 Gracilis muscle/musculocutaneous flap, innervated flap. **(a)** Brachial plexus palsy, right arm. **(b)** Topical drawing of innervated myocutaneous gracilis. **(c)** Muscle in sheath with skin paddle. **(d)** Relationship of obturator nerve to vascular pedicle. **(e)** Final closure.

Fibula Flap

Table 53.1 Fibula flap

Flap

Tissue Bone and skin paddle; bone, skin, and muscle flap

Course of the vessels Posterior to the fibula, through or beneath the flexor hallucis muscle

Dimensions Bone length, \leq 26 cm; skin paddle 8 × 15 cm Extensions and combinations Parts of the soleus muscle can be included

Anatomy

Neurovascular pedicle -

Artery Peroneal artery
Veins Peroneal veins
Length and arc of rotation 2–4 cm

Diameter Artery, 1.5–2.5 mm; vein, 2–4 mm

Nerve –

Surgical technique

Preoperative examination and markings Draw a line from the fibula head to the lateral malleolus posterior to the

peroneal tendons; mark the midpoint approximately 15–17 cm from

the fibula head; identify skin perforators

Patient position Supine, with a tourniquet on the thigh Dissection Lateral approach is preferred for both f

Lateral approach is preferred for both flaps; create the anterior incision of the designed skin paddle through the crural fascia to the peroneus muscles; make a subfascial dissection toward the posterior intermuscular septum; incise through the posterior margin of the skin paddle; make a subfascial dissection of the soleus muscle to the posterior intermuscular septum; the septum is traced to the fibula; the dissection proceeds anteriorly to detach the anterior septum from the fibula; the posterior dissection moves toward the flexor hallucis muscle; identify the vessels (a cuff of the flexor hallucis muscle may have to be incorporated); create a distal osteotomy (insert retractors close to the fibula to protect the vessels); the distal end of the fibula is distracted cephalad with a clamp; divide the interosseous membrane; expose the peroneal vessels; create a proximal osteotomy; trace the vessels back to the origin; open the tourniquet and check for perfusion

Continued

Table 53.1, cont'd	
Advantages Vascular pedicle Flap size and shape	Reliable, large-caliber vessels; loss of donor vessels is usually tolerable Skin paddle is mobile; many defect variations can be reconstructed with a combined osteocutaneous flap; the fibula provides ideal bone for the replacement of the radius, ulna, and humerus
Combinations Donor site	Soleus muscle can be included to fill larger dead spaces Despite a slight torsion instability, donor morbidity is minimal if taken as a bone flap only
Disadvantages	
Donor site morbidity	Donor scar is conspicuous; risk of nerve injury to peroneal nerve or motor nerve of the flexor hallucis muscle; possible exposure of peroneal tendons
Dissection Flap	Dissection is tedious and technically difficult; pedicle is short Skin island may be too small in complex injuries with major soft tissue loss
Pearls and pitfalls	
Dissection	Do not confuse peroneal vessels with posterior tibial vessels; take a muscle cuff (1–2 mm) to ensure bone perfusion; preserve the proximal and distal 6 cm of the fibula to maintain stability; in children, the distal 10 cm should be preserved
Extensions and combinations	When part of the soleus muscle is included, be sure to include a muscle perforator, otherwise risk of muscle necrosis is high
Contouring and correction	Rarely required
Clinical applications	Complex segmental defects of the wrist, forearm, humerus, and shoulder (arthrodesis)

Fibula Flap 237

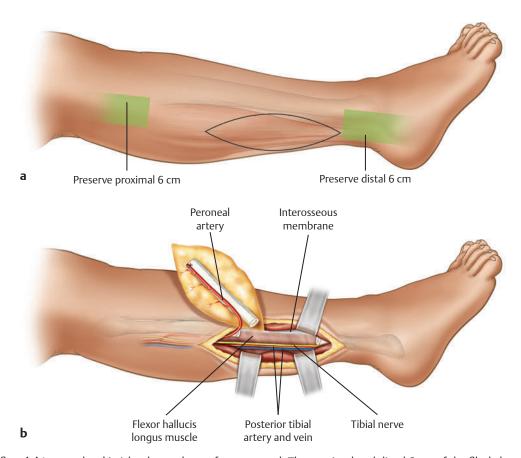


Fig. 53.1 Fibula flap. **(a)** Locate the skin island over the perforator vessel. The proximal and distal 6 cm of the fibula have to be preserved to reduce donor site moribidity. Identify perforator vessels by preoperative Doppler examination. **(b)** Do not confuse the peroneal vessels with the posterior tibial vessels. The distal pedicle is ligated. Dissection proceeds cephalad after distal osteotomy.

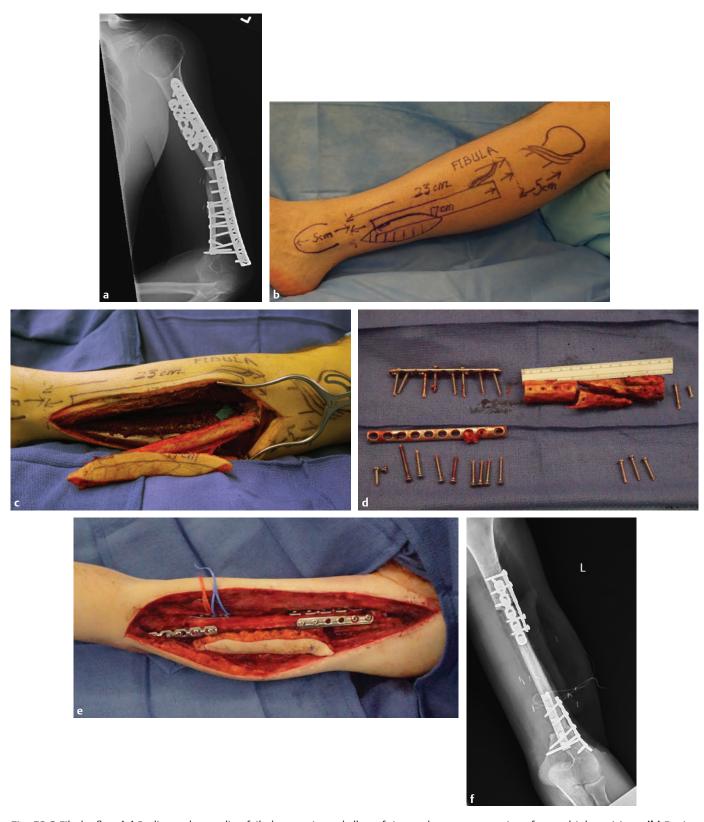


Fig. 53.2 Fibular flap. **(a)** Radiograph revealing failed, comminuted allograft intercalary reconstruction after multiple revisions. **(b)** Design of fibular osteocutaneous flap. **(c)** Fibular flap raised and isolated on peroneal vessels. **(d)** Debrided hardware and allograft. **(e)** Inset, ORIF and revascularization of fibular flap. **(f)** Radiograph shows excellent incorporation after bone healing.

Additional Free Vascularized Bone Grafts

Table 54.1Medial geniculate art	ery flap
Flap Tissue Course of the vessels Dimensions Extensions and combinations	Reliable vascular pedicle that is based on the medial geniculate artery; descending branch originates from the femoral artery in Hunter's canal; variation includes the superior geniculate artery, which courses posterior to the medial femoral condyle; skin flap can be based on the saphenous artery perforators or the perforating vessels that originate directly from the medial geniculate artery
Anatomy Neurovascular pedicle Artery Veins Length and arc of rotation Diameter Nerve	
Surgical technique Preoperative examination and markings Patient position Dissection	
Advantages Vascular pedicle Flap size and shape	 Versatile source of small vascularized bone grafts; may be harvested as a periosteal flap only, a corticocancellous bone flap, an osteocutaneous flap, or an osteomyocutaneous flap; long pedicle possible; muscle can be included; hyaline cartilage can be harvested from the trochlear non-articular portion of the knee as a substitute for articular surface defects (i.e., as a replacement for the proximal pole of the scaphoid)
Combinations Tissue Dissection Donor site Further options	— — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

Continued

Table 54.1, cont'd			
Disadvantages			
Flap size	_		
Donor site morbidity	_		
Dissection	_		
Flap	_		
Pedicle	_		

Pearls and pitfalls

Dissection

Dissection should proceed distal to proximal, with a tourniquet in place; periosteal vessels and optimal condylar vascularity will be found in the distal inferior quadrant of the knee; begin with a longitudinal incision over the mid portion of the medial femoral condyle; divide the skin and dissect to the vastus medialis oblique fascia; incise the fascia and reflect the vastus medialis anteriorly; identify the periosteal perforators on the condylar surface (more superficial layers of fascia that contain vessels can be confused for the medial geniculate artery, but these are not the periosteal perforators); follow the vessels from distal to proximal along the adductor longus tendon; the medial geniculate artery and vein originate from the femoral artery and vein; saphenous branch for skin flap posterior in thigh is a possibility to use as an osteocutaneous flap.

Extensions and combinations Contouring and correction Clinical applications

Use cautery to incise the rich periosteum around bone, being sure to leave the periosteum attached to the cortical surface of the condyle; use an oscillating saw or an osteotome to cut the bone flap; leverage bone from the condyle, and keep it attached to the periosteal sleeve from the surface of the femoral diaphysis; trace the vessels proximally for the pedicle length desired; close the donor site over a drain; bone putty or allograft paste may be placed in the femoral condyle to augment the local site after the harvest of living bone

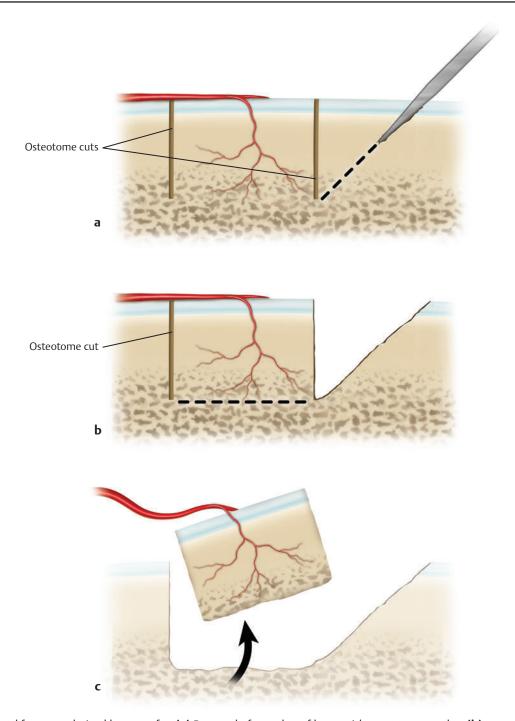


Fig. 54.1 Additional free vascularized bone grafts. **(a)** Removal of a wedge of bone with osteotome so that **(b)** osteotomy can include cancellous bone. **(c)** Wedge of bone removed.

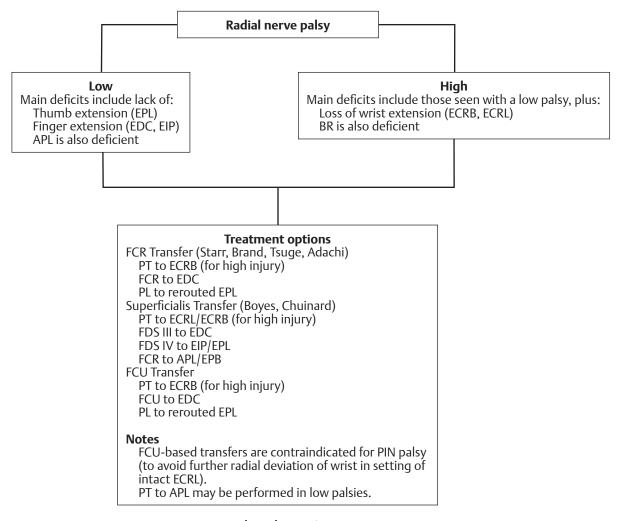


Fig. 54.2 PA **(a)** and lateral **(b)** views of long-lasting scaphoid non-union. One surgical attempt with a nonvascularized bone graft failed already. **(c)** Marking for the harvest of a medial femur condyle vascularized graft. **(d)** Medial genicular artery and concomitant veins (continued).



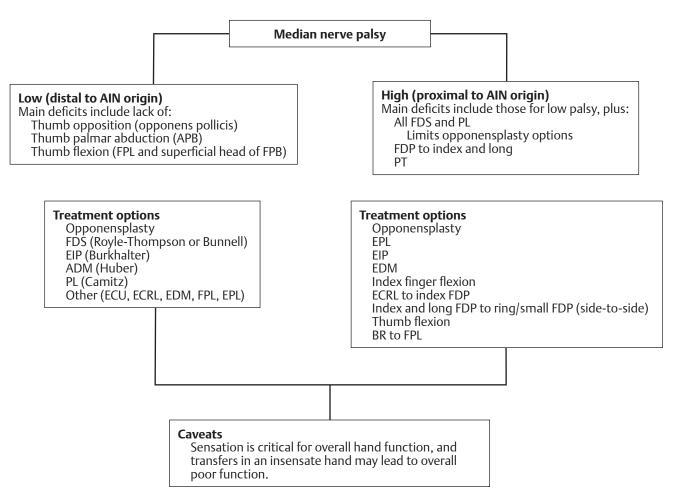
Fig. 54.2 (continued) **(e)** 3D printed model of the scaphoid after a CT scan. The first time in hand surgery such a model was used as a mold for the in situ shaping of a vascularized graft from the medial femur condyle. **(f)** Graft harvested from the medial femur condyle. PA **(g)** and lateral **(h)** views two years after scaphoid reconstruction with the vascularized medial femur condyle graft and a headless compression screw.

Tendon Transfer



Algorithm 55.1

Tendon Transfer 245



Algorithm 55.2

Ulnar nerve palsy

Low (distal to motor origins of FCU, FDP to ring/small) Clinical issues include:

Weak thumb pinch

Treatment approaches, low

Loss of normal finger flexion pattern

Pathologic sequence: DIP → PIP → MP flexion

Loss of hand dexterity and strength

Claw deformity

High (proximal to motor origins of FCU, FDP to ring/small) Clinical issues include those for low palsy, plus:

Loss of active ring/small DIP joint flexion (FDP to ring/

Weak wrist flexion (FCU)

Clawing tends to be less severe

Treatment approaches, high

Similar approaches as for low palsy to address claw deformity, restoration of thumb adduction, restoration of transverse metacarpal arch, and correction of small finger abduction deformity Weak FDP must be avoided as a donor

Restoration of ring and small finger flexion

Brand advocated for similar treatment as for low palsies, because loss of FCU and FDP to small/ ring deemed insignificant

Anderson advocated for restoration of extrinsic flexion power before addressing weak intrinsics May consider suturing of small and ring FDP to middle FDP

Claw deformity	Static techniques to prevent MP hyperextension Zancolli technique Riordan static tenodesis Parkes static tenodesis Fowler wrist tenodesis Fasciodermadesis or bone block (rarely performed) Dynamic techniques (tendon transfer) FDS transfers Stiles and Forrester-Brown Bunnell Littler Burkhalter Shah	EIP and EDM transfers Riordan Anderson Wrist flexor/extensor and BR transfers ECRB/ECRL dorsal route transfer (Burkhalter, Strait) ECRL flexor route transfer (Brand) FCR transfer (Riordan) PL four-tail transfer
Restoration of thumb adduction	ECRB (Smith, Omer) FDS ring (Edgerton and Brand) EIP (Brown) Combined EIP/EDC to small Other donors: BR, ECU, ECRL	
Index finger abduction (transfers	EIP transfer	

Modified ECRL flexor route transfer (Palande) Correction of small finger Split EDM transfer

to first dorsal interosseous)

Restoration of transverse

metacarpal arch

abduction deformity Juncturae tendinum and medial EDC slip of ring finger transfer

PL transfer

EPB transfer (Bruner)

EDM transfer (Ranney)

Bunnell T operation (FDS to thumb P1 and small MC neck with graft)

Part VI

Rehabilitation Protocols

Flexor Tendon Repair

Underlying Principles

- At least four core strands are recommended to allow for early active motion rehabilitation protocols.
- Eight strands may be stronger than four strands from time zero through 6 weeks after treatment.
- Although 3–0 suture is stronger than 4–0 suture, the choice of suture caliber may be influenced by the size of the tendon.
- Nonlocked epitendinous repair improves strength and reduces gliding resistance.
- Locking loops result in greater time zero tensile strength as compared with grasping loops.

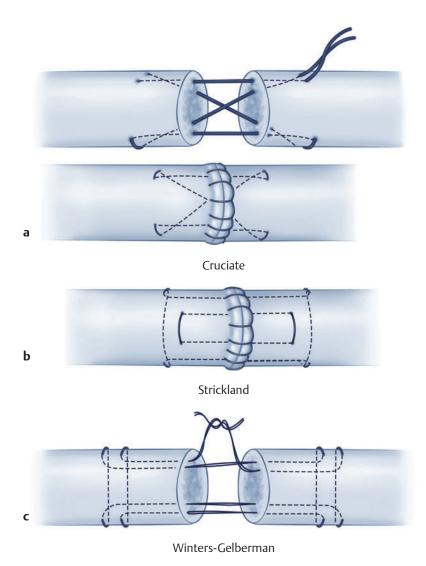


Fig. 56.1 Common suture techniques. (a) Cruciate. (b) Strickland. (c) Winters-Gelberman.

Repair of Long Finger Flexor Tendon

Evaluation

Patient should be seen by postoperative day 3

History

- Date of injury
- Date of surgery
- Mechanism of injury
- Tendons repaired
- Zone
- Status of tendon(s)
- Status of pulleys
- Status of digital nerve

Physical presentation

- Edema
- Incision status

Measurable tests

- Pain level
- PROM measurements
- Two-point discrimination

Table 57.1	Flexor tendon mobilization: early passive						
	Precautions	Splint	Exercises	Other considerations			
Weeks 1–2 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	Splint full time No wrist and digit extension beyond the splint No use of hand No resistance	Dorsal blocking splint Wrist 20 degrees of flexion MPs 50–70 degrees of flexion IPs full extension. If digital nerve is repaired, ask MD about amount of tension on the nerve IP extension strap when not exercising (based on therapist and MD preference)	Perform in the following sequence: Modified Duran exercises 2 times/day, 5 repetitions each Passive composite flexion 5 times/day, 10 repetitions Active extension to limits of the DBS, with MPs held in maximal flexion Wrist tenodesis out of the splint while in therapy (Duran)	Scar management Initiate scar massage when stitches are removed and inci- sion is healed Initiate use of silicone when incision is healed Edema control Elevation Coban Retrograde massage			

Table 57.1,	Table 57.1, cont'd					
	Precautions	Splint	Exercises	Other considerations		
Week 3	Wrist tenodesis at home	Discontinue splint Wrist tenodesis at home Initiate full digit extension with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon gliding Initiate light use with no resistance	Continue present program Continue splint, increase extension to neutral	Continue present program		
Week 4	Initiate blocking Initiate FDS glides Add light resistance	No changes in present program	Discontinue splint Wrist tenodesis at home Initiate digit extension with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon gliding Initiate light use with no resistance	Continue present program		
Week 5	Gradually increase resistance	Initiate blocking Initiate FDS glides Initiate light resistance	No changes in present program	Discontinue splint Initiate full active extension of digits with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon glides Initiate wrist tenodesis at home Initiate light use with no resistance		
Week 6	Heavy resistance	Gradually increase resistance	Initiate blocking Initiate FDS glides Initiate light resistance	Continue present program		
Week 7	Continue	Heavy resistance	Gradually increase resistance	Light resistance		
Week 8	Continue	Continue	Heavy resistance	Hold heavy resistance until week 10		

 ${\it Source:}\ {\it Courtesy}\ {\it Good\ Shepherd\ Penn\ Partners,\ Philadelphia,\ Pennsylvania.}$

Table 57.2 Flexor tendon mobilization: early active					
	Precautions	Splint	Exercises	Other considerations	
Weeks 1–2 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	Splint full time No simultaneous wrist and digit extension No use of hand No resistance	Dorsal blocking splint Wrist in neutral MPs 50–70 degrees of flexion IPs full extension. If digital nerve is repaired, ask MD about amount of tension on the nerve IP extension strap when not exercising (based on therapist and MD preference)	Edema control measures before active exercise: Retrograde massage Compression Elevation Perform in the following sequence: Modified Duran exercises 2 times/day, 5 repetitions each Passive composite flexion 5 times/day, 10 repetitions "Place and hold flexion" 5 times/day, 3–5 repetitions, hold 3–5 seconds Gradually increase to active flexion as tolerated by patient without straining to obtain motion Active extension to limits of the DBS, with MPs held in maximal flexion Wrist tenodesis out of the splint while in therapy (Duran)	Scar management Initiate scar massage when stitches are removed and inci- sion is healed Initiate use of silicone when incision is healed Edema control Elevation Coban Retrograde massage	

Table 57.2, cont	Table 57.2, cont'd					
	Precautions	Splint	Exercises	Other considerations		
Week 3		Discontinue splint Wrist tenodesis at home Initiate full digit extension with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon gliding Initiate light use with no resistance	Continue present program	Continue present program		
Week 4	Initiate blocking Initiate FDS glides Add light resistance	No changes in pres- ent program	Discontinue splint Wrist tenodesis at home Initiate digit extension with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon gliding Initiate light use with no resistance	Continue present program		
Week 5	Gradually increase resistance	Initiate blocking Initiate FDS glides Initiate light resis- tance	No changes in pres- ent program	Discontinue splint Initiate full active extension of digits with wrist in neutral Initiate tendon glides Initiate wrist tenodesis at home Initiate light use with no resistance		
Week 6	Heavy resistance	Gradually increase resistance	Initiate light resis- tance	Continue present program		
Week 7	Continue	Heavy resistance	Gradually increase resistance	Light resistance		
Week 8	Continue	Continue	Heavy resistance	Hold heavy resistance until week 10		

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Extensor Tendon Repair: Zone III

A boutonnière's deformity is caused by disruption of the central slip of the extensor tendon mechanism at the PIP joint. Disruption of the central slip results in a change in pull of the interosseous and lumbrical muscles from the central slip to the lateral bands, which over time causes the lateral bands to migrate volarly and eventually contract if not treated. This volar migration of the lateral bands pulls the PIP joint into a flexed posture. Additionally, secondary shortening of the oblique retinacular ligaments results in hyperextension of the distal phalanx.

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury

Physical presentation

- Edema
- Incision status

Measurable tests

- Pain level
- PIP extension lag
- DIP flexion: AROM or contractor
- Edema (circumferential)

Table 58.1	Extensor tendon zone III					
	Precautions	Frequency of treatment	Splint	Exercises		
Weeks 1–5	No PIP flexion Splint full time	1 time/week as needed Check: Splint position Skin integrity Exercises	Finger-based splint PIP in full extension DIP and MP free If lateral bands are lacerated, include DIP in splint, full extension	DIP flexion and extension (AROM/PROM): 10 times/hour Full MP ROM		
Week 6	If extensor lag becomes notice- able once ROM is allowed: Stop all PIP ROM Wear splint full time for 2 additional weeks Resume exercises (after the 2 addi- tional weeks) as if patient is beginning at week 6, and progress	1–3 times/week as needed Monitor motion Adjust program	Continue splint except when exercising	Introduce gentle PIP flexion while maintaining ability to fully extend the PIP after flexion (goal: 30 degrees of PIP flexion) Continue DIP and MP ROM		

Continued

Table 58.1, cont'd					
	Precautions	Frequency of treatment	Splint	Exercises	
Week 7	If extensor lag becomes notice- able once ROM is allowed: Stop all PIP ROM Wear splint full time for 2 additional weeks Resume exercises (after the 2 addi- tional weeks) as if patient is beginning at week 6, and progress	1–3 times/week as needed Monitor motion Adjust program	Gradually wear splint less as flexion of PIP increases and exten- sion is maintained Continue splint	Continue to increase PIP flexion while maintaining full extension (goal: 50 degrees) Gradually add light functional use and strengthening	
Weeks 8–11	If extensor lag becomes notice- able once ROM is allowed: Stop all PIP ROM Wear splint full time for 2 additional weeks Resume exercises (after the 2 addi- tional weeks) as if patient is beginning at week 6, and progress	1–3 times/week as needed Monitor motion Monitor strength Adjust program	Discontinue splint during the day as long as full extension of PIP is maintained Continue to splint at night for 4 weeks after the splint is discontinued during the day	Continue to increase PIP flexion while maintaining full extension (goal: obtain full fist) Gradually increase use of hand with heavy resistance as needed	
Week 12	If extensor lag becomes notice- able once ROM is allowed: Stop all PIP ROM Wear splint full time for 2 additional weeks Resume exercises (after the 2 addi- tional weeks) as if patient is beginning at week 6, and progress	Discharge to home program unless continued strengthening is required to get back to work and is ordered by the physician Consider: Refer to work hardening if more strengthening is required to return to work Job site evaluation			

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Extensor Tendon Repair: Zones IV-VIII

Evaluation

Patient should be seen by postoperative day 3

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Date of surgery
- Tendons repaired
- Zone
- Status of tendon(s)

Physical presentation

- Incision status
- Edema
- Current immobilization device

Measurable tests

- Edema
- Pain level
- Visual Analog Scale
- ROM (protective positioning)
- Outcome measures
- Two-point discrimination

Table 59.1	l Early active			
	Precautions	Frequency of treatment	Splint	Exercises
Days 1–5	No digit flexion No wrist ROM Splint full time No resistance No PROM	1 time/week as needed Check splint position Check skin integrity Review and adjust program	Static forearm-based splint Wrist extension 30 degrees MPs 30 degrees of flexion IPs full extension	5 times/hour Full MP and IP exten- sion while in the splint
Days 6–7	No simultaneous MP and IP flexion No wrist ROM Splint between exercises No resistance No PROM	1–2 times/week as needed Check splint position Check skin integrity Review and adjust program	Continue splint except when exercising	Continue previous exercises Remove splint: support wrist in extension, begin AROM Flexion/extension MPs to 45 degrees with IPs in extension Flexion/extension IPs with MPs in extension

Table 59.1, cont'd				
	Precautions	Frequency of treatment	Splint	Exercises
Week 2	No simultaneous MP and IP flexion No wrist ROM Splint between exercises No resistance No PROM	1–2 times/week as needed Check splint position Check skin integrity Review and adjust program	Continue splint except when exercising	Continue previous exercises, increase MP flexion to 60 degrees Add active wrist extension/wrist flexion
Week 3	No resistance No PROM	1–2 times/week as needed	Continue splint except when exercising	Continue previous exercises, increasing to full MP flexion Add active fist exercises
Weeks 4–6	No resistance	2–3 times/week as needed	Discontinue splint during the day Continue splint during the night until week 6	Continue previous exercises Add PROM Light functional use Add light resistance at week 6
Weeks 7–8		2–3 times/week as needed Begin to prepare patient for discharge to home program Refer to work hardening if needed for return to work		Increase to heavy resistance at week 8

 ${\it Source:}\ {\it Courtesy}\ {\it Good\ Shepherd\ Penn\ Partners,\ Philadelphia,\ Pennsylvania.}$

Table 59.2 Early	y passive			
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other consider- ations
Weeks 1–2 Therapy 1–2 times/ week	Spint full time No active digit exten- sion No use of hand	Dynamic forearm-based splint for daytime use Wrist in 45 degrees of extension Dynamic outrigger to maintain MPs at 0 degrees with volar block allowing approximately 30 degrees of MP flexion Static volar-based splint for nighttime use Wrist 45 degrees of extension MPs and IPs in full extension	20 times/hour Active flexion of MPs to 30 degrees with passive extension to 0 degrees	Scar management Initiate scar massage when stitches are removed and inci- sion is healed Initiate use of silicone when incision is healed Edema manage- ment Elevation Coban Retrograde massage
Week 3 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	Continue dynamic splint No resistance	Remove volar block on dynamic splint and continue use during the day Continue static volar splint at night	Progress to digit flexion ROM with dynamic extension splint	Continue present scar management program
Weeks 4–5 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No resistance to extensors No simultaneous WF and digit flexion Stop ROM and return to splint if exten- sion lag develops	Gradually discontinue as long as exten- sion is maintained	Progress to full digit flexion while maintaining digit extension Progress to full wrist ROM Gradually introduce light functional use	Continue present scar management program as needed
Weeks 6–7 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No heavy resistance to extensors	May begin flexion splinting as needed to gain full ROM	Add simultaneous digit and wrist flexion Add light resistive strengthening to extensors	Continue present scar management program as needed
Weeks 8–12 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No precautions	Continue flexion splinting if needed	Continue to increase digit and wrist flexion Add heavy resistance	Continue present scar management program as needed

Table 59.3	Immediate controlled active motion (ICAM)			
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Phase I: Days 0–21	Wear both orthoses 24/7 No heavy activity No strengthening AROM within confines of orthoses	Wrist/hand orthosis (WHO, aka volar wrist splint) in 20–25 degrees of extension Relative motion orthosis (RMO) holding involved digit in 15–25 degrees of relative extension	Digit AROM within confines of both orthoses Goal: full-digit AROM within confines of both orthoses	Edema management Pain management Wound and scar management
Phase II: Days 22–35	Must have full digit AROM within confines of both orthoses before starting Phase II Must wear both components for medium to heavy activity See orthosis weaning schedule	Must wear RMO at all times Discontinue WHO for light activity only once patient regains wrist ROM Must wear both components for medium to heavy activity and for sleep	Digit AROM within confines or RMO Wrist AROM tendonysis pattern with wrist component removed If no lag develops, begin reverse tenolysis	Edema management Pain management Wound and scar management
Phase III: Days 36–49	No heavy activity	Discharge WHO Continue RMO or buddy strapping except for exercises Discharge RMO once full wrist and digit ROM achieved	AROM out of all orthoses Consider: TGE, digit extension, EDC glides, digit ABD/ ADD, FMC Light to moderate functional task	PRN: Edema management Pain management Wound and scar management
Phase IV: 4 months	No restrictions	Discharge splint	Exercises PRN	

 ${\it Source:}\ {\it Courtesy}\ {\it Good\ Shepherd\ Penn\ Partners,\ Philadelphia,\ Pennsylvania.}$

Table 59.4 Immo	obilization			
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other consider- ations
Weeks 1–4 Therapy 1 time/week	No ROM Splint full time	Forearm-based splint: Wrist in 30–45 degrees of extension MPs in 0–20 degrees of extension IPs in full extension If only the EI or EDM is lacerated, splint only the injured finger If repair is distal to the juncturae tendinum, splint adjacent MPs in 30 degrees of flexion	No exercises	Scar management Initiate scar massage when stitches are removed and incision is healed Initiate use of silicone when incision is healed Edema management Elevation Coban Retrograde massage
Weeks 4–6 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No resistance No simultaneous wrist flexion and digit flexion Stop ROM and return to splint if exten- sor lag develops	Gradually discharge splint at postop- erative week 4 Full extension is maintained	Progress to full digit flexion while maintaining digit extension Progress to full wrist ROM Gradually introduce light functional use	Continue present scar management program
Weeks 4–5 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No heavy resistance to extensors	Extension splint should be fully discharged May begin flexion splinting as needed to gain full ROM	Add simultaneous digit and wrist flexion Add light resistive strengthening to extensors	Continue present scar management program as needed
Weeks 6–7 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No heavy resistance to extensors	Extension splint should be fully discharged May begin flexion splinting as needed to gain full ROM	Add simultaneous digit and wrist flexion Add light resistive strengthening to extensors	Continue present scar management program as needed
Weeks 8–12 Therapy 2–3 times/ week	No precautions	Continue flexion splinting if needed	Continue to increase digit and wrist flexion Add heavy resistance	Continue present scar management program as needed

 ${\it Source:}\ {\it Courtesy}\ {\it Good\ Shepherd\ Penn\ Partners,\ Philadelphia,\ Pennsylvania.}$

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Injuries to the Digital Joints

Conservative and Postoperative Treatment

Metacarpophalangeal collateral ligament injury (digits II-V)

Collateral ligaments of the MP joint support the joint, especially during grip and pinch. Taut in flexion and lax in extension, these ligaments are most frequently injured as a result of hyperextension or extreme lateral force. The radial ligament is more vulnerable than the ulnar collateral ligaments. Partial tears are usually treated conservatively, whereas complete tears are corrected surgically. Conservative management and postoperative management are nearly similar and have been consolidated here.

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Pain
- Functional status

Physical presentation

- Ecchymosis at MP joint
- Joint deformity
- Lateral joint tenderness

Measurable tests

- ROM
- Outcome measures
- Edema measures
- Visual Analog Scale
- Sensation
- Pain level

Goals

- Stable MP joint
- Pain reduction
- Prevent adhesions of extensor mechanism with IP ROM
- Stable, mobile MP joint
- Avoid rotation or angulation
- Return of function

Table 60.1	Metacarpophalangeal collateral ligament injury (digits II–V): conservative and
postoperativ	ve treatment

postoperative treatment				
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Weeks 0-3	No lateral stress No key pinch if index finger injured	Wear orthosis full time Hand-based splint: MP at 50 degrees, IP free	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions IP AROM	Edema management Pain management Scar management Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 3	Avoid lateral stress Avoid hyperextension No strengthening	Buddy strap during the day Splint as above at night	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions Tendon glides Digital AROM exten- sion	Edema management Pain management Scar management Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 6	No heavy resistance or strong pinch	Static progressive or dynamic splint for ROM deficits	PROM/stretching if necessary Light strength	Edema management Pain management Scar management Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 8	No restrictions	Tape/buddy strap for contact support	Grip/pinch strength as tolerated	Edema management Pain management Scar management Monitor for digital nerve symptoms

Proximal interphalangeal collateral ligament injury

The PIP collateral ligament consists of the proper collateral ligament and the accessory collateral ligament. The primary stabilizer, the PCL, is taut in flexion and lax in extension, whereas the ACL is taut in extension and lax in flexion. Grade I sprains are stable through AROM and PROM. Stress testing may be painful, but stable. Grade II indicates a complete tear of at least one collateral ligament. It is stable through AROM and demonstrates less than 20 degrees of angulation. Grade III injuries include at least one collateral ligament and some aspect of the volar or dorsal structures. It is unstable in both AROM and PROM and usually requires surgical correction.

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Pain
- Functional status

Physical presentation

- Ecchymosis at MP joint
- Joint deformity
- Lateral joint tenderness

Measurable tests

- ROM
- Outcome measures
- Edema measures
- Visual Analog Scale
- Sensation
- Pain level

Goals

- Stable joint
- Pain reduction
- Prevent adhesions of extensor mechanism with IP ROM
- Avoid rotation or angulation
- Resume function

Table 60.2 Proximal interphalangeal collateral ligament injury: conservative and postoperative treatment

				e.1
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Initial stage Grade I: 0–10 days Grade II: 2–4 weeks	Immobilization No lateral stress No resistance	Immobilize in static PIP 0–20 degrees	Gentle AROM digit flexion as tolerate	Edema management Scar management
Intermediate stage Grade III: 6 weeks Duration of 3–4 weeks after immobilization	No lateral stress No resistance No pinch with involved digit	Daytime: Buddy strap except if radial collateral ligament and small finger ulnar collateral ligament require splint Nighttime: Continue immobili- zation splint	AROM digit flexion	Edema management Scar management
Late stage	Activity as tolerated	Extension splint to regain any motion loss	Flexion and extension blocking PROM and splinting PRN for extension lag or flexion contractures Strength as tolerated and necessary for patient's ADLs	Edema management Scar management

Fracture Protocol

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Pain
- Functional status

Physical presentation

- Ecchymosis
- Joint deformity
- Joint tenderness

Measurable tests

- ROM
- Outcome measures
- Edema measures
- Visual Analog Scale
- Sensation
- Pain level

Table 60.3	Metacarpophalangeal and proximal interphalangeal injury: fracture protocol			
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Weeks 0–3	No resistance to fracture site No strengthening Orthosis	Worn full time MP fracture: MP in 70 degrees of flexion, IPs free, MD to determine forearm- versus hand-based PIP fracture: Include PIP and DIP, finger- based	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions AROM Extensor tendon gliding Digital flexion tendon gliding	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Weeks 4–6	No strengthening	Decrease wearing schedule based on fracture healing per MD Consider buddy straps for PIP fractures	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions Tendon glides Digit AROM exten- sion	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 7	No heavy resistance	Discharge once cleared by MD	PROM if necessary Light strength	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 8	None		Increase to heavier strengthening	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms

Volar Plate Injury

Dorsal dislocation proximal interphalangeal

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Pain
- Functional status

Physical presentation

- Ecchymosis at MP joint
- Joint deformity
- Lateral joint tenderness
- Edema
- Pain

Measurable tests

- ROM
- Outcome measures
- Edema measures
- Visual Analog Scale
- Sensation
- Pain level

Table 60.4	Volar plate injury: dorsal dislocation proximal interphalangeal joint			
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Weeks 0-4	No resistance	Worn full time PIP extension block orthosis Degree of PIP blocked extension determined by MD	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions Full PIP flexion AROM/PROM PIP extension to lim- its of the orthosis	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Weeks 5-6	No strengthening	Buddy strap worn during the day Orthosis (as above) worn at night	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions Tendon glides Digit AROM exten- sion (determined by MD)	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 7	No heavy resistance Light resistance allowed	Discharge	Continue tendon glides as needed Light strength	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 8	None	Discharge	Grip/pinch strength as tolerated	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms

Volar dislocation proximal interphalangeal joint

History

- Date of injury
- Mechanism of injury
- Pain
- Functional status

Physical presentation

- Ecchymosis at MP joint
- Joint deformity
- Lateral joint tenderness
- Edema
- Pain

Measurable tests

- ROM
- Outcome measures
- Edema measures
- Visual Analog Scale
- Sensation
- Pain level

Table 60.5	Volar plate injury: v	olar dislocation proxim	al interphalangeal join	t
	Precautions	Orthosis	Exercises	Other considerations
Weeks 0-4	No resistance	Worn full time PIP extension gutter orthosis DIP free	3–5 times/day, 5–10 repetitions DIP flexion and exten- sion	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Weeks 5–6	No strengthening	Dynamic PIP extension orthosis during the day as long as exten- sion is maintained Finger gutter at night	Patient may flex PIP while in dynamic extension orthosis as long as PIP extension is maintained	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 7	No heavy resistance Light resistance allowed	Wean from dynamic orthosis during the day as long as PIP extension is maintained Continue figure gutter at night	Gradual increased digit flexion while main- taining extension Light strength	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms
Week 8	None	Wean from all orthoses	Grip/pinch strength as tolerated	Edema management Scar management Pain management Activity modification Monitor for digital nerve symptoms

Source: Courtesy Good Shepherd Penn Partners, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

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Locking Plate Principles

Locking Versus Nonlocking Plates: Advantages to a Locking Plate/Screw System

There are several advantages to a locking plate/screw system:

- Locking plate and screw systems have advantages over the conventional screw systems. Conventional plate/screw systems require precise adaptation of the plate to the underlying bone. Without this intimate contact, tightening of the screws will draw the bone segments toward the plate, resulting in alterations in the position of the osseous segments and the occlusal relationship. Locking plate/screw systems offer certain advantages over other plates in this regard. The most significant advantage may be that it becomes unnecessary for the plate to intimately contact the underlying bone in all areas. As the screws are tightened, they "lock" to the plate, thus stabilizing the segments without the need to compress the bone to the plate. This makes it impossible for the screw insertion to alter the reduction.
- Another potential advantage in locking plate/screw systems is that they do not disrupt the underlying cortical bone perfusion as much as conventional plates, which compress the undersurface of the plate to the cortical bone.
- A third advantage to the use of locking plate/screw systems is that the screws are unlikely to loosen from the plate. This means that even if a screw is inserted into a fracture gap, loosening of the screw will not occur. Similarly, if a bone graft is screwed to the plate, a locking screw will not loosen during the phase of graft incorporation and healing. The possible advantage to this property of a locking plate/screw system is a decreased incidence of inflammatory complications from loosening of the hardware. It is known that loose hardware propagates an inflammatory response and promotes infection. For the hardware of a locking plate/screw system to loosen, loosening of a screw from the plate or loosening of all of the screws from their bony insertions would have to occur.
- Locking plate/screw systems have been shown to provide more stable fixation than conventional nonlocking plate/ screw systems.

Plate Design

Locking plates 2.0 are available in four thicknesses, with or without center space (**Fig. 61.1**):

- 1. Small profile
- 2. Medium profile
- 3. Large profile
- 4. Extra-large profile

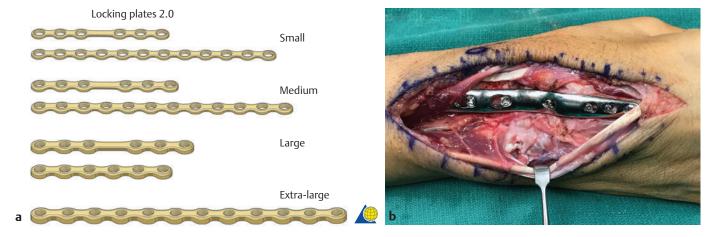


Fig. 61.1 (a) Locking plates 2.0. (b) Locking plate used for wrist arthrodesis.

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Fig. 61.2 Locking reconstruction plate 2.4.

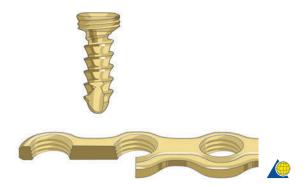


Fig. 61.3 Locking head screws.

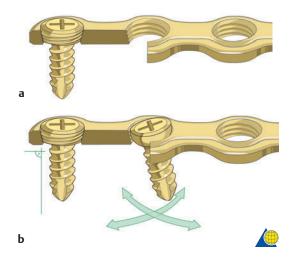


Fig. 61.4 Insertion of a locking head screw (a) and a conventional screw (b).

They are also available in multiple shapes to meet a variety of clinical applications. The threaded head of the 2.0 mm locking head screws is conical. It is therefore possible to insert locking head screws at small angles. A threaded drill quide is not necessary.

There is only one thickness of the locking reconstruction plate (LRP) 2.4 (**Fig. 61.2**). However, there are multiple plate configurations to meet a variety of clinical applications.

The threaded head of the 2.4 mm locking head screws is cylindrical. Therefore, a threaded drill guide is mandatory to assure the correct perpendicular insertion of 2.4 mm locking head screws (**Fig. 61.3**). Angulation is not possible.

The locking plate has a corresponding threaded plate hole. During insertion the locking head screw engages and locks into the threaded plate hole (**Fig. 61.4, a**). If necessary the threaded plate hole also accepts nonlocking screws, which permit greater angulation (**Fig. 61.4, b**).

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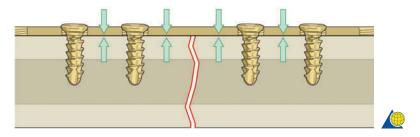


Fig. 61.5 Fixation of plate to bone using conventional screws.

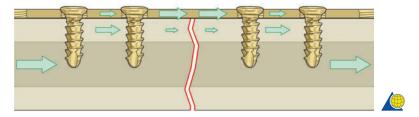


Fig. 61.6 Loading forces with conventional screws.

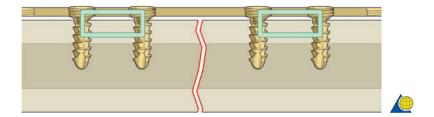


Fig. 61.7 Fixation and loading forces with locking head screws.

Biomechanics

With the conventional technique, the tightening of the screws presses the plate against the bone. This pressure generates friction, which contributes significantly to primary stability (**Fig. 61.5**). Loading forces are transmitted from the bone to the plate, across the fracture, and back into the bone. Friction between plate and bone is necessary for stability using conventional screws.

However, with the locking head screws engaged in the plate, the plate is not pressed onto the bone. This reduces the blood supply to the bone underlying the plate. Loading

forces are transmitted directly from the bone to the screws, then onto the plate, across the fracture, and again through the screws into the bone (**Fig. 61.6**). Friction between plate and bone is not necessary for stability.

The plate and screws provide adequate rigidity and do not depend on the underlying bone (load-bearing osteosynthesis) when using a locking reconstruction plate 2.4. On each side of the fracture, the screws are locked into the plate as well as into the bone (**Fig. 61.7**). The result is a rigid frame construct with high mechanical stability (internal external fixator).

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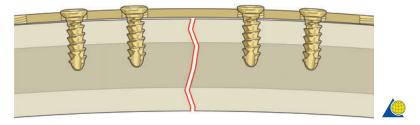


Fig. 61.8 Conventional plate system.

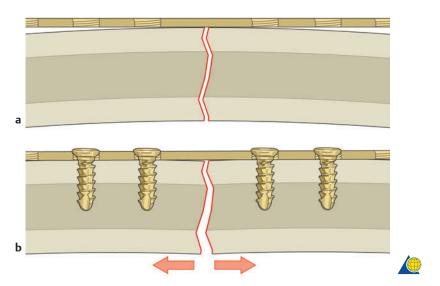


Fig. 61.9 Primary loss of reduction with a conventional plate system.

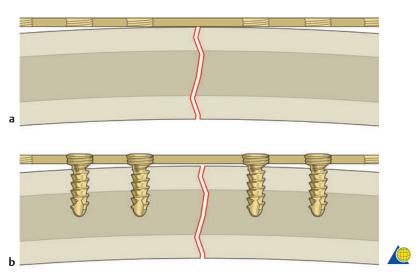


Fig. 61.10. No loss of reduction with a locking plate system.

Primary Loss of Reduction

When using conventional plates and screws it is essential to contour the plate precisely to the bone surface (Fig. 61.8).

When using a conventional plate and screws the plate must be precisely adapted to the bone, otherwise the tightening of the screws will lead to a primary loss of reduction (**Fig. 61.9**).

Note how in **Fig. 61.10**, **a**, the plate is not well adapted to the outer cortex. **Fig. 61.10**, **b**, shows that when the screws are inserted, the bone will be pulled to the plate,

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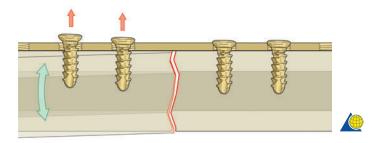


Fig. 61.11 Secondary loss of reduction (*left*) when conventional screws loosen.

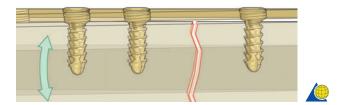


Fig. 61.12. Screw loosening rarely occurs with locking screws.

causing malreduction of the fracture. When using a locking plate/screw system, the plate does not have to be precisely adapted to the bone. When tightening a locking head screw, the screw will not cause a primary loss of reduction as it tightens into the threaded plate hole and will not draw the bone fragments to the plate.

Secondary Loss of Reduction

In conventional plate systems, screw loosening may lead to loss of reduction (**Fig. 61.11**).

In a locking system, screw loosening rarely occurs, because the screw head is locked to the plate (**Fig. 61.12**).

Part VII

Classification and Zones of Injury

AO/ASIF Fracture Classification

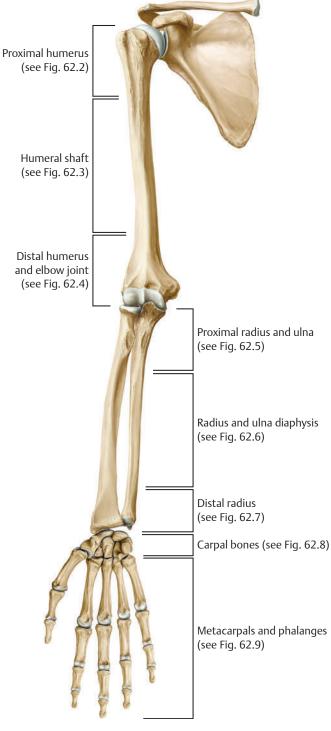


Fig. 62.1 AO/ASIF fracture classification.

Proximal Humerus

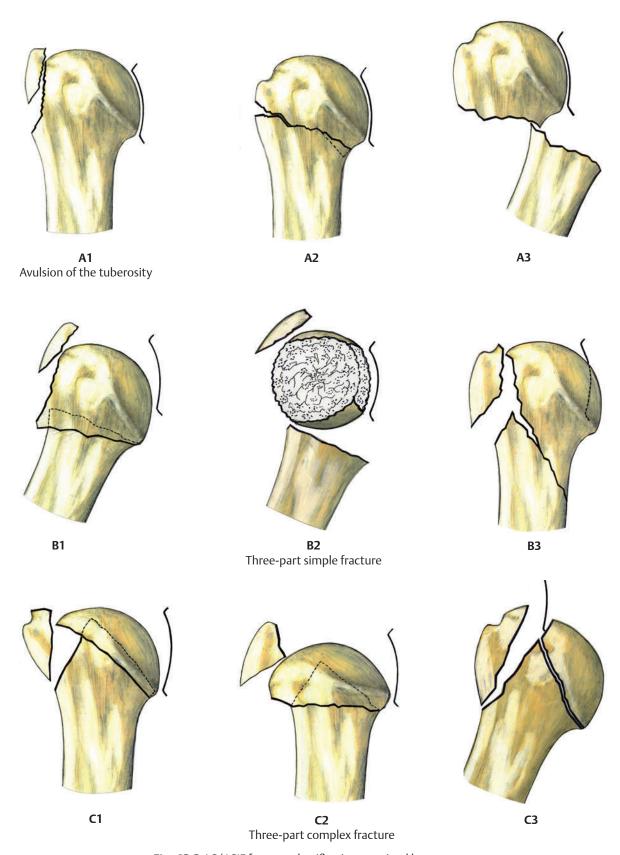
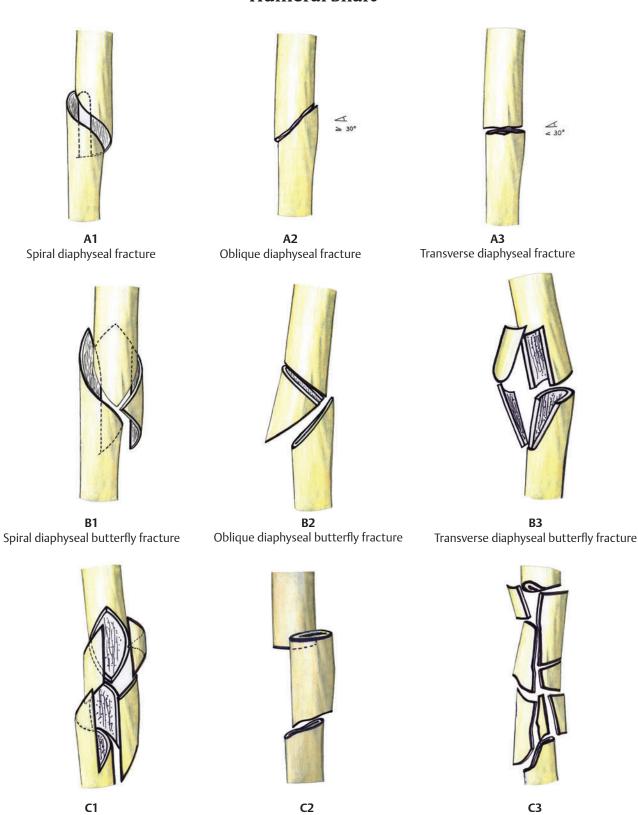


Fig. 62.2 AO/ASIF fracture classification: proximal humerus.

AO/ASIF Fracture Classification 279

Humeral Shaft



Segmental or comminuted diaphyseal fracture

Fig. 62.3 AO/ASIF fracture classification: humeral shaft.

Distal Humerus and Elbow Joint

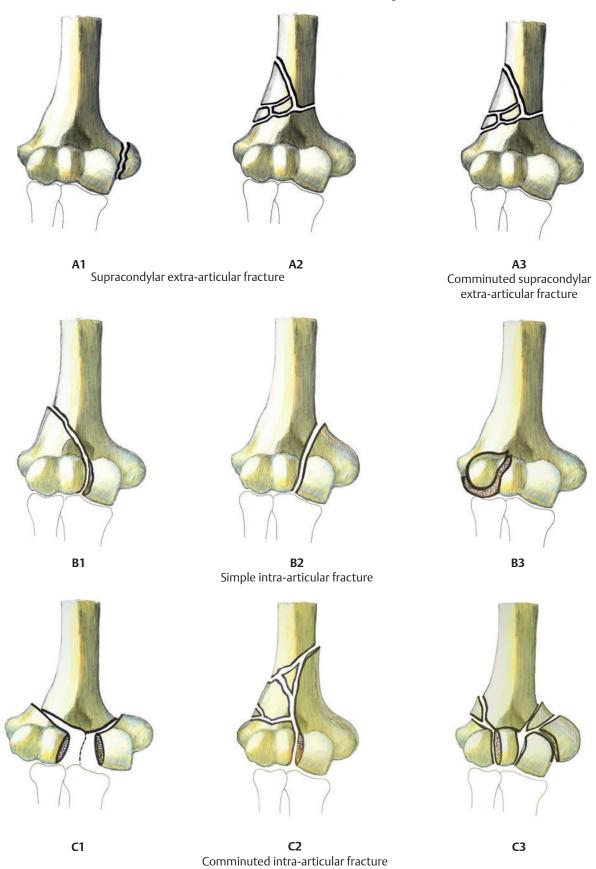


Fig. 62.4 AO/ASIF fracture classification: distal humerus and elbow joint.

Proximal Radius and Ulna



A1
Extra-articular ulnar fracture



A2 Extra-articular radial head fracture



A3
Both bones extra-articular fracture



B1 Simple olecranon fracture



B2 Radial head fracture



B3Dislocated olecranon fracture with radial head fracture



Comminuted both bones intra-articular fracture

Fig. 62.5 AO/ASIF fracture classification: proximal radius and ulna.





C3

Radius and Ulna Diaphysis

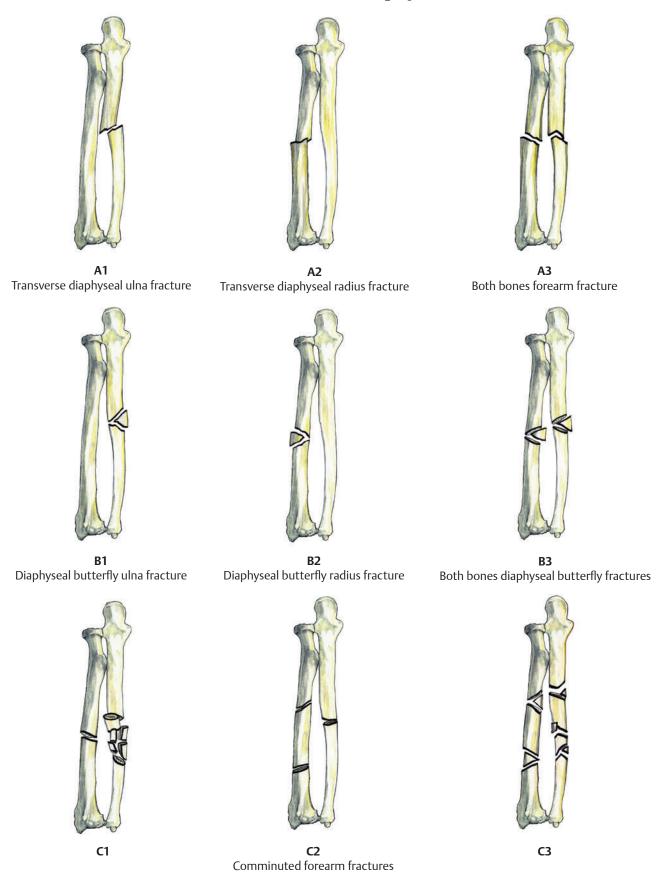


Fig. 62.6 AO/ASIF fracture classification: radius and ulna diaphysis.

AO/ASIF Fracture Classification 283

Distal Radius A1 Simple extra-articular ulna fracture **A2** А3 Extra-articular radius fracture Comminuted extra-articular fracture **B2** Simple intra-articular fracture **B1** В3 C1 **C**3 C2

Complex intra-articular fracture with metaphyseal extension **Fig. 62.7** AO/ASIF fracture classification: distal radius.

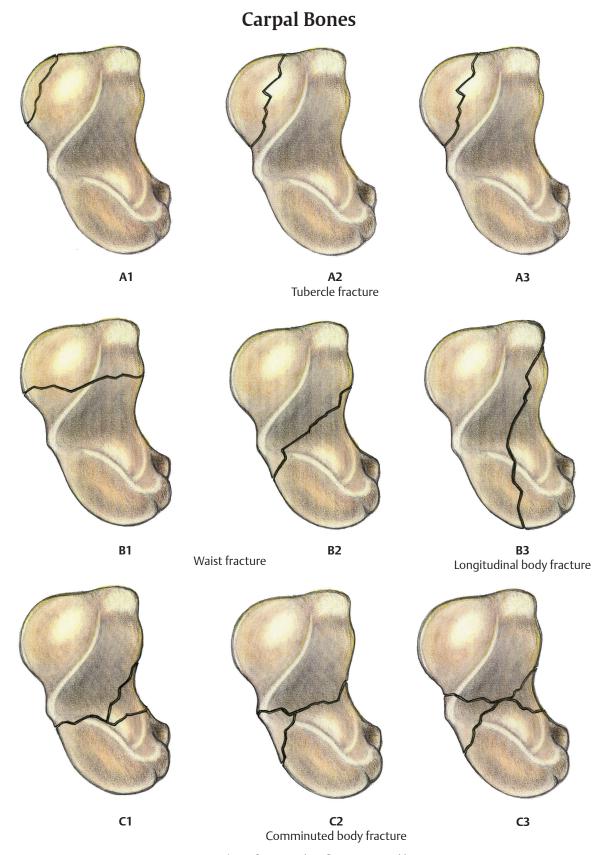


Fig. 62.8 AO/ASIF fracture classification: carpal bones.

Unicondylar intra-articular fracture

Metacarpals and Phalanges

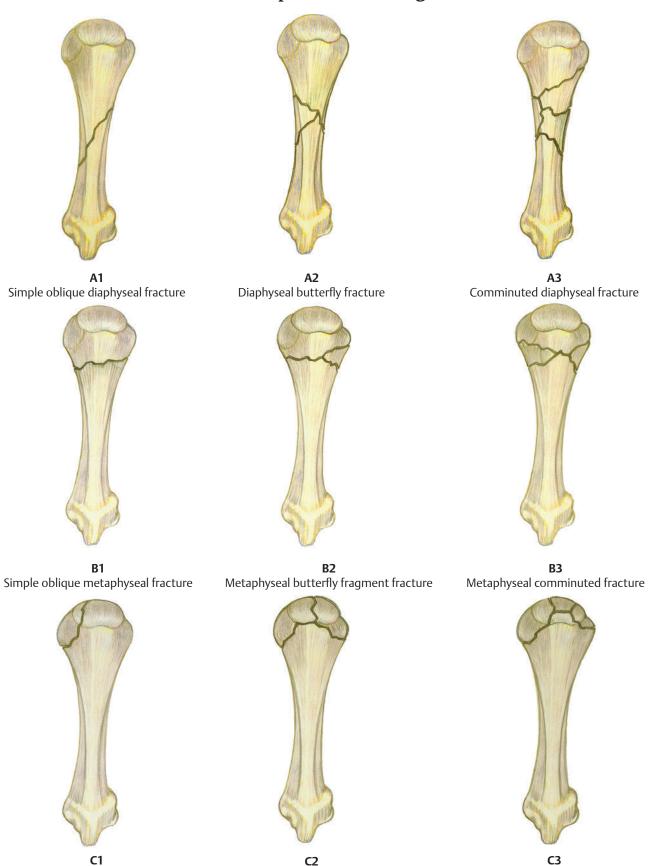


Fig. 62.9 AO/ASIF fracture classification: metacarpals and phalanges.

Comminuted intra-articular fracture

Bicondylar intra-articular fracture

Salter-Harris Classification of Pediatric Growth Plate Fractures

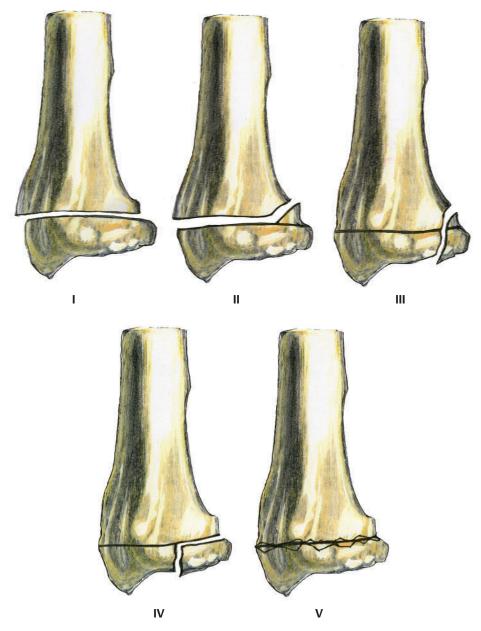


Fig. 63.1 Salter-Harris classification. (Data from Salter RB, Harris WR. Injuries involving the epiphyseal plate. Bone Joint J 1963; 45(3):623–641.)

Type I: Injury traverses horizontally across the physis (i.e., separation of the epiphysis)

Type II: Injury includes separation of a triangular piece of metaphyseal bone at one boundary of the physeal fracture

Type III: Injury traverses the physis incompletely and then extends through the epiphysis into the joint (i.e., intra-articular

fracture without interference with the epiphyseal plate)

Type IV: Injury involves a vertical displaced fracture that passes from the articular surface through the epiphysis, plate,

and metaphysis

Type V: Injury involves crushing of the physis without a bony fracture

Classification of Nerve Injuries

In 1951, Sunderland expanded Seddon's classification to five degrees of peripheral nerve injury.

First-degree (Class I)

Seddon's neurapraxia and first-degree are the same.

Second-degree (Class II)

Seddon's axonotmesis and second-degree are the same.

Third-degree (Class III)

Third-degree is included within Seddon's Neurotmesis. Sunderland's third-degree is a nerve fiber interruption. In third-degree injury, there is a lesion of the endoneurium, but the epineurium and perineurium remain intact. Recovery from a third-degree injury is possible, but surgical intervention may be required.

Fourth-degree (Class III)

Fourth-degree is included within Seddon's Neurotmesis. In fourth-degree injury, only the epineurium remain intact. In this case, surgical repair is required.

Fifth-degree (Class III)

Fifth-degree is included within Seddon's Neurotmesis. Fifth-degree lesion is a complete transection of the nerve. Recovery is not possible without an appropriate surgical treatment

Data from Sunderland S. A classification of peripheral nerve injuries producing loss of function. Brain 1951;74(4):491–516.

Table 64.1 Mackinnon classification of nerve injuries							
		Histopathologic changes				Tinel sign	
Degree of injury	Myelin	Axon	Endoneurium	Perineurium	Epineurium	Present	Progresses distally
I Neurapraxia	±	-	_	_	-	_	
II Axonotmesis	+	+	_	_	_	+	+
III	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
IV	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
V Neurotmesis	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
VI Various fibers an	nd fascicles	demon	strate various pat	hologic changes		+	±

Source: Data from Mackinnon SE. New directions in peripheral nerve surgery. Ann Plast Surg 1989;22(3): 257–273.

Zones of Flexor Tendon Injuries

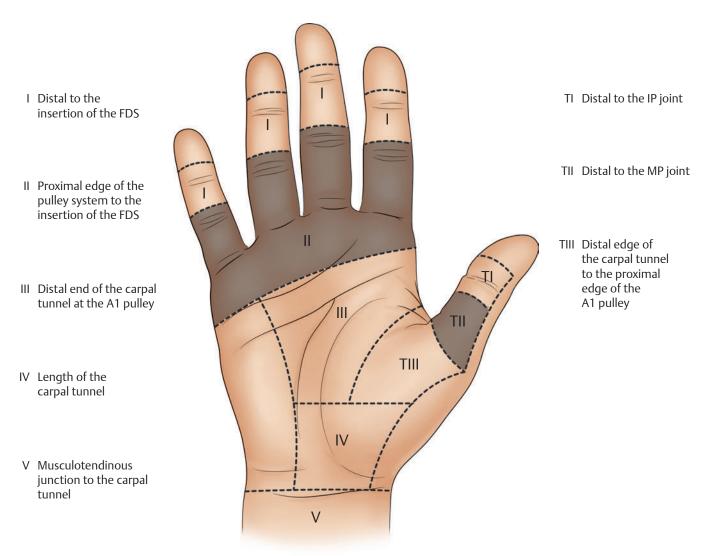


Fig. 65.1 Zones of flexor tendon injuries. (Data from Kleinert HE, Schepel S, Gill T. Flexor tendon injuries. Surg Clin North Am 1981; 61:267–286.)

Zones of Extensor Tendon Injuries

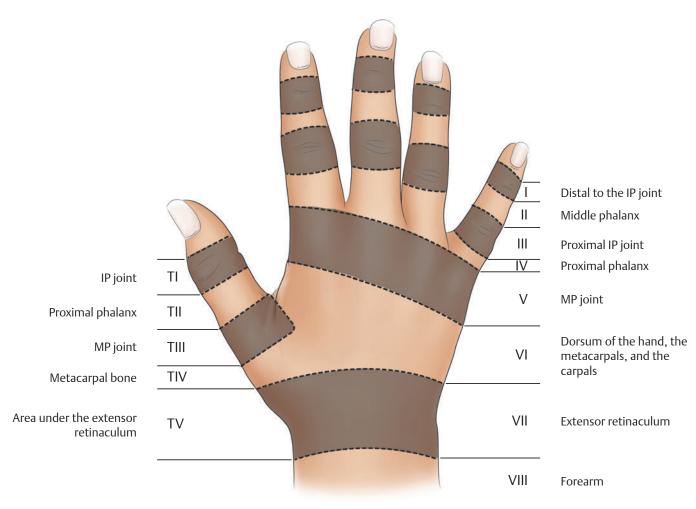


Fig. 66.1 Zones of extensor tendon injuries. (Data from Kleinert HE, Schepel S, Gill T. Flexor tendon injuries. Surg Clin North Am 1981; 61:267–286.)

Carpal Instability

Box 67.1 Viegas' classification of carpal instability

- I. Ulnar-sided perilunate instability
 - A. Stage I: Partial to complete lunotriquetral tear (no VISI)
 - B. Stage II: Complete tear of lunotriquetral ligaments, interosseous and volar (dynamic VISI)
 - C. Stage III: As in Stage II plus disruption of the dorsal radiotriquetral ligament (static VISI)
- II. Radial-sided perilunate instability
 - A. Stage I: Partial to complete scapholunate tear (no DISI)
 - B. Stage II: Complete scapholunate interosseous ligament tear plus tear of attenuation of the volar ligaments (dynamic DISI)
 - C. Stage III: Complete disruption of the ligaments of Stage II plus dorsal radiotriquetral ligament disruption (static DISI)
 - D. Stage IV: Complete disruption of all ligaments noted in Stage III (static DISI)
- III. Dissociative

Ligament lesion that is usually between the bones of the proximal carpal row but occasionally between the bones of the distal carpal row, the metacarpals, or even the radius and ulna

Data from Viegas SF, Patterson RM, Peterson PD, et al. Ulnar-sided perilunate instability: an anatomic and biomechanic study. J Hand Surg Am 1990;15: 268-278.

Mayo Classification of Carpal Instabilities

Table 68.1	Mayo classification of carpal instabilities	
	Type, site, and name	Radiographic pattern
I. CID	 1.1 Proximal row CID a. Unstable scaphoid fracture b. Scapholunate dissociation c. Lunotriquetral dissociation 1.2 Distal carpal row CID a. AR disruption b. AU disruption c. Combined AR and AU disruption 1.3 Combined proximal and distal CID 	DISI DISI VISI RT, PT UT, PT
II. CIND	 2.1 Radiocarpal CIND a. Volar ligament rupture b. Dorsal ligament rupture c. After radius malunion, Madelung deformity, scaphoid malunion, lunate malunion 2.2 Midcarpal CIND a. Ulnar MCI from volar ligament damage b. Radial MCI from volar ligament damage c. Combined UMCI and RMCI, volar ligament damage d. MCI from dorsal ligament damage 2.3 Radiocarpal-midcarpal CIND a. Clip b. Disruption of radial and central ligaments 	DISI, UT of entire proximal row, UT with increased SL space VISI, DT VISI VISI VISI DISI VISI and DISI, alternating UT with or without VISI or DISI
III. CIC	a. Perilunate with radiocarpal instabilityb. Perilunate with axial instabilityc. Radiocarpal with axial instabilityd. Scapholunate dissociation with UT	DISI and UT AxUI and UT AxRI and UT DISI and UT
IV. "Adaptive ca	a. Malposition of carpus with distal radius malunion b. Malposition of carpus with scaphoid nonunion c. Malposition of carpus with lunate malunion d. Malposition of carpus with Madelung deformity	DISI or DT DISI DISI or VISI UT, DISI, PT

Source: From Carlsen BT, Shin AY. Wrist instability. Scand J Surg 2008;97(4):324—332. doi:10.1177/145749690809700409.

Posttraumatic Arthritis

Stage I

Arthritis that is localized to the lateral (radial) side of the scaphoid and the radial styloid region of the distal radius

Stage II

Arthritis that extends to the entire radioscaphoid joint, with progressive radioscaphoid changes (II A) or arthritis from the radioscaphoid joint that secondarily involves the STT joint (II B)

Stage III

Arthritis that extends in a periscaphoid distribution and that involves the radioscaphoid and lunocapitate joints

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Part VII: Classification and Zones of Injury

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