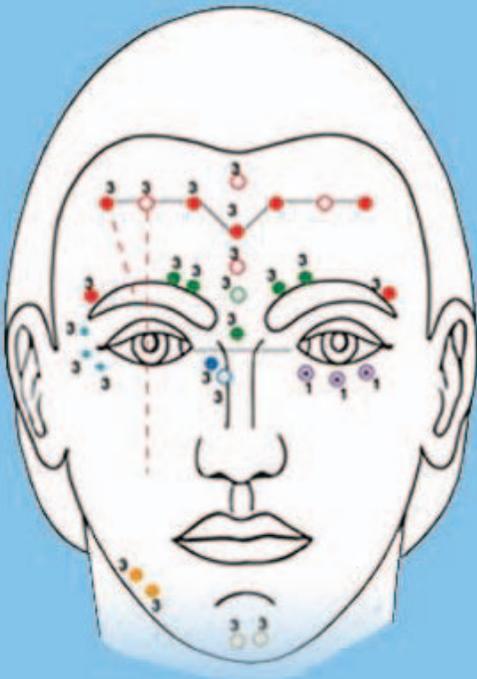


Injection Treatments in Cosmetic Surgery



Edited by

Benjamin Ascher

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Marina Landau

Bernard Rossi

INJECTION TREATMENTS IN COSMETIC SURGERY

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Contents

List of contributors	ix
Preface from Benjamin Ascher	xiii
Preface from Marina Landau	xiv
Preface from Bernard Rossi	xiv

SECTION I SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

1	Practical anatomy of the face <i>Philippe Kestemont, Antoine Jaklis, and José Santini</i>	1
2	Anatomy of the skin <i>Marina Landau and Hananya Vaknine</i>	9
3	Skin morphology and volume: methods of evaluation <i>Hassan Zahouani and Roberto Vargiolu</i>	13
4	Skin aging: clinical diagnosis and other factors <i>Anny Cohen-Letessier</i>	35
5A	The aging face and neck <i>Patrick Bui and Gilbert Zakine</i>	39
5B	Hands and décolleté <i>Vladimir Mitz</i>	51
6	Sweat glands <i>Marina Landau and Hananya Vaknine</i>	59
7	Anesthesia in dermatology <i>Catherine Wintrebert</i>	65

SECTION II BOTULINUM TOXINS

A	<i>Fundamental Aspects</i>	
8	History <i>Bernard Rossi</i>	71
9A	Structure, pharmacology, and immunology of the botulinum neurotoxins <i>K Roger Aoki</i>	73
9B	The clinician's point of view <i>Danièle Ranoux</i>	83
10	Applications and indications <i>Sophie Sangla</i>	87
11	Variant preparations of botulinum toxin A: PurTox®, Xeomin®, and BTX-A® <i>David J Goldberg, Berthold Rzany, Sergio Talarico-Filho, and Sabrina Rodrigues Talarico</i>	93
B	<i>General Clinical Aspects</i>	
12	Patient considerations <i>Timothy C Flynn</i>	95

13	Legal and regulatory issues surrounding injectable dermal fillers and botulinum toxin in Europe <i>Martine Baspeyras</i>	101
14	General monitoring: conservation, dilution, and storage <i>Doris Hexsel, Débora Zechmeister do Prado, and Maryelle Moreira Lima</i>	109
15	Optimal dosing and side-effects <i>Benjamin Ascher and Bernard Rossi</i>	115
<i>C Facial Cosmetic Treatments</i>		
16	The periorbital area <i>Marina Landau and Arik Nemet</i>	125
17	The glabella, frontalis, eyebrow area, and eyelids <i>Timothy C Flynn</i>	131
18	The mid- and lower face <i>Berthold Rzany</i>	141
19	The neck area <i>Daniel Labbé and Julien Nicolas</i>	147
<i>D Other Cosmetic and Dermatological Treatments</i>		
20	The upper trunk: décolleté wrinkles and breast lift <i>Doris Hexsel and Taciana Dal’Forno</i>	153
21	Masseteric muscle hypertrophy and leg treatments <i>Kim Nam-Ho, Chung Jee-Hyeok, Park Rho-Hyuk, and Park Jong-Beum</i>	159
22	Facial palsy and asymmetries <i>Maurício De Maio</i>	173
23	Hyperhidrosis and other dermatologic indications <i>Isaac Bodokh</i>	181
24	Other dermatologic indications <i>Doris Hexsel, Rosemari Mazzuco and Berthold Rzany</i>	189
<i>E Combining Treatments</i>		
25	Medical and surgical combinations with botulinum toxins <i>Benjamin Ascher and Bernard Rossi</i>	197
26	Combining chemical peels with botulinum toxin injections <i>Marina Landau</i>	203
<i>F Complications</i>		
27	Complications and their legal implications <i>David J Goldberg</i>	209
SECTION III FILLERS		
<i>A Fillers and Injection Technique</i>		
28	Preoperative care: photography documentation and the subdermal test <i>Elisabeth Domergue Than Trong</i>	213
29	Lip augmentation and rejuvenation <i>Marina Landau</i>	223
30	Mesolift: a new ‘soft’ approach in rejuvenation techniques <i>Daphne Thioly-Bensoussan</i>	231
31	Body mesotherapy and ‘mesobotox’ <i>Chislaine Beilin</i>	239

<i>B Filling Products</i>	
32A	Injectable collagen 249 <i>Claude Aharoni and Gérard Flageul</i>
32B	The different types of injectable collagen 253 <i>Daniel Cassuto</i>
33	Agarose gel 259 <i>Daniel Cassuto and Luca Scrimali</i>
34	Hyaluronic acids 263 <i>Benjamin Ascher, Patrick Bui, and Ahmad Halabi</i>
35	The injectable products: slowly resorbables and non-resorbables 275 <i>Patrick Bui, Annick Pons-Guiraud, Roger Kuffer, Françoise Plantier, Pierre J Nicolau, and Gilbert Zakine</i>
<i>C Side-Effects and Complications</i>	
36	Side-effects of fillers 291 <i>Daphne Thioly-Bensoussan</i>
37	Fillers and granuloma: anatomopathological and clinical analysis and treatments 301 <i>Nelly Gauthier and Gottfried Lemperle</i>
<i>D Cell Therapy</i>	
38	Cell therapy in cosmetic surgery: present and future 323 <i>Anne Bouloumié</i>

SECTION IV VOLUMETRIC INJECTABLES

<i>A Facial Aging and Volumetry</i>	
39	Developments in management of facial and body lipoatrophy with exogenous volumetric injectables 329 <i>Benjamin Ascher</i>
<i>B Fat as a Volumetric Implant</i>	
40	Adipose tissue, physiology, and regenerative medicine 339 <i>Béatrice Cousin, Valérie Planat, Guillaume Charrière, Patrick Laharrague, Audrey Charrière, Luc Pénicaud, and Louis Casteilla</i>
41	History of fat grafting in cosmetic surgery 353 <i>Ali Mojallal and Jean Louis Foyatier</i>
42	The effect of different factors on the survival of transplanted adipose tissue 357 <i>Ali Mojallal and Jean Louis Foyatier</i>
43	Global approach and techniques of fat grafting 363 <i>Ali Mojallal and Jean Louis Foyatier</i>
<i>C Fat Injection in Facial Indications</i>	
44	Facial rejuvenation: lipostructure and other techniques 371 <i>Patrick Bui and Gilbert Zakine</i>
45	Chin lipofilling 385 <i>Ahmad Halabi</i>
46	Fat transfer in facial malformations and after trauma 389 <i>Jean Louis Foyatier and Ali Mojallal</i>
<i>D Fat Injection in Extrafacial Areas</i>	
47	Fat transfer in breast and thorax reconstructive surgery 399 <i>Ali Mojallal and Jean Louis Foyatier</i>
48	Fat transfer in lower limb reconstructive surgery 405 <i>Ali Mojallal, Michael Veber, and Jean Louis Foyatier</i>

E Exogenous Volumetric Implants

49	The different products and their pharmacology <i>Pierre J Nicolau</i>	413
50	Side-effects, contraindications, and legislation <i>Pierre J Nicolau</i>	419
	Index	425

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Preface

Preface from Benjamin Ascher



Plastic surgeons and dermatologists, as well as any other practitioner dedicated to the esthetic field, have to be concerned with every aspect of the use of injection treatments. Those training others need not only to be aware of the latest surgical developments; there is also an increasing

intense need for up to date information on the alternative medical, non-invasive treatments and accompanying procedures, which over the past 10 years have become essential aspects of our daily practice. Peelings, cutaneous lasers, bodyshaping techniques – as well as injections with botulinum toxin, fillers, volumetric implants, and fat grafts, both for face and body – are taking on an ever increasing importance which cannot be ignored if we want to optimize our clinical results.

For this reason, the first French and European University diploma dedicated to injection treatments, volumetric implants, and associated techniques in Plastic Surgery and Cosmetic Dermatology was created in 2002 by a group of doctors – Patrick Bui, Annick Pons Guiraud, and me – together with the Universities of Paris V and XII, and sponsored by Professors Jean Paul Escande (for the Dermatology field) and Laurent Lantieri (for the Plastic Surgery field). The goal of this diploma is to evaluate the use of various techniques and to offer teaching of the abovementioned practices, taking into account facial and body anatomy, semiology, and the physiology of facial and body aging. Complications and medical legal issues are broadly discussed throughout these chapters, which have largely been inspired by and developed on the basis of our courses. Further deepening the same concept, I was happy to create with Elisabeth Domergue Than Trong the first University Volumetry Unit at the Henri Mondor University Hospital Center in Paris, sponsored by Professors Martine Bagot (Dermatology) and Laurent

Lantieri (Plastic Surgery). The aim of this unit is to assess different volume-enhancing products within the scope of the medical pathologies and cosmetic indications in relation to face and body lipoatrophies.

Exogenous fillers have been widely used since the development of collagen 20 years ago, and the introduction of hyaluronic acids 12 years ago. These modular injections, often reversible and efficient, must therefore be evaluated on their level of efficiency and their durability but, especially, on their safety. It seems logical to classify them according to their resorbability. The exogenous slowly and non-absorbable injection products have a significant durability and performance, notably in increase of volume, but they may produce somewhat serious complications as well as sequelae. In addition to the use of resorbable and non-resorbable products as fillers, they have been recently developed as volumetric implants and as such take an important place in our practice. In this regard chapters discussing fat as a volumetric implant, adipose tissue physiology, and survival of transplanted adipocytes are absolutely necessary additions to this book. A global approach and a technique overview of fat grafting for both face and body will be increasingly essential in the coming years.

Much attention is devoted in this book to the detection of side-effects and to their treatment and prevention. Some examples of inadequate European legislation regarding CE approval and the regulations governing production and distribution of products will be specifically described in the following chapters. In Europe CE marking is a prerequisite for any injectable products to be offered as safe; however, CE marking does not necessarily imply that the product's efficacy and side-effects have been assessed objectively during clinical studies. This marking is expected in time to fall into line with US legislation, where the marketing of any medicinal product is subject to FDA approval, based on comprehensive animal and clinical studies and on more systematic and better centralized side-effect reporting. The primary concerns involved are knowledge of the elaboration of the procedures, promotion of legal obligations, the publication of physiochemical data, and the realization of clinical studies with objective institutional results and possible medium- to long-term side-effects. All this will

allow us to measure and evaluate data of actual classification, uniquely and independently obtained by industry, compared to non-clinical procedures and invalid science which are sometimes picked up in the mass media. In our specialty, which is always rapidly evolving, it is logical to combine different techniques to optimize results. This alliance of injection treatments is the best example of the evolution of our specialty today and has become the main current trend in it.

These chapters constitute a collective work independent of the esthetic industry, but have obvious economic and legal constraints inseparable from our professional activities. I would like to thank all authors, my colleagues and friends, for having agreed to contribute to this effort in spite of numerous other solicitations for their precious time. There should be particular thanks to my friends, the Coeditors Marina Landau and Bernard Rossi (two brilliant and well known dermatologists and experts in the field of cosmetic injection treatments), and to Robert Peden, Commissioning Editor for Informa Healthcare, without whom this book would have never been published.

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In the professional milieu new interdisciplinary interactions have been created: dermatologists and plastic surgeons meet with ENT specialists, ophthalmologists, and maxillofacial surgeons. Moreover, non-traditional specialists such as gynecologists, anesthesiologists and cardiologists have entered the field of cosmetic medicine.

All this has happened because of the introduction of a vast variety of new non-invasive technologies for skin rejuvenation and enhancement. Injectable products, such as the botulinum toxins and dermal fillers, are the main cause for this revolutionary medical as well as social trend.

Injection Treatments in Cosmetic Surgery is a team operation and creation aiming to make the work with injectable products more rewarding for both you and your patient. It gathers an enormous amount of personal knowledge and the experience of a multinational, multidisciplinary group of experts.

I would like to thank all the colleagues who enthusiastically committed themselves to this complex project. I also want to deeply thank all my patients, who over the years have continuously encouraged me to introduce into my practice the novel cosmetic and anti-aging procedures. I want to thank my family for their patience and support. And above all thanks are due to Benjamin Ascher, who artistically conducted this symphony.

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Preface from Marina Landau



Traditionally, dermatologists were responsible for taking care of the diseased as well as for the enhancement of allegedly healthy skin, mainly by topical preparations. Plastic surgeons were involved in reconstructive and esthetic procedures using a more invasive approach.

In the last 20 years esthetic medicine and surgery have changed tremendously. From procedures being accessible for the upper socioeconomic classes exclusively, they have become achievable and possible for almost everybody; from treatments being employed in secret by middle aged wealthy women, cosmetic treatments are now consumed by almost every age group and by both genders in the open; from social ‘taboo’ it has become one of the most popularly discussed topics in social encounters and by the printed and digital media.

Preface from Bernard Rossi



It is a pleasure to acknowledge our contributors who spent their precious time working with us on this book, contributing their insight. Their chapters will be most valuable for us in our professional life and will have a significant impact on our

view of the management of aging.

I am particularly grateful to Marina Landau for her masterful insight in esthetics and the science of peels, and to Benjamin Ascher for his ability and patience in communicating his masterful insight into the use of botulinum toxins and fillers and more generally the entire esthetic area and for his leadership throughout the development process of this book.

‘The deepest thing in Man, is his skin’, said the famous French poet, Paul Valéry (‘L’idée fixe’, 1932).

Our skin reflects our age. After 20 years of research and improvement many non-invasive technologies are now able to decrease the effects or the appearance of aging, and they have become achievable for a large part of the population. However, this proliferation of methods needs to be scientifically evaluated and compared to optimize the clinical results and avoid side-effects – side-effects which may be due in large part to the lack of European legislation regarding CE approval, especially for injectable products, but are also due to the lack of training for the practitioner.

In *Injection Treatments in Cosmetic Surgery* we share our multinational and multidisciplinary

experience, for our mutual benefit and also for the benefit of our patients.

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1

Practical anatomy of the face

Philippe Kestemont, Antoine Jaklis, and José Santini

Introduction

Many reference textbooks offer an exhaustive description of the head and neck anatomy. This chapter is tailored to provide the reader with a comprehensive review of the subject, highlighting the functional aspect of facial anatomy with special emphasis on practical details concerning important, simple, and more complex structures involved in facial expression. These static and dynamic subtle structures control our facial mimetic, defining the way we look to others. For that matter, it is mandatory to have a thorough knowledge of these anatomical structures before we use any method or substance that could alter their shape or modify their function, namely the botulinum toxin.

Skin and subcutaneous tissue

The face and neck can be divided into two major regions according to the texture, thickness, and quality of the skin and the underlying subcutaneous fat tissue.

The periorificial craniofacial region

This constitutes the support for the facial dynamics. The eyes, the nose, and the mouth are surrounded by the thinnest skin of the face, with an extremely poor subcutaneous fat component overlying the muscles in these areas (Figure 1.1). The tight adhesions between these superficial muscles and the overlying dermis appear as fine periorificial wrinkles known as ‘expression lines’.

The eyelids are covered by thin skin almost devoid of subcutaneous fat. When present, this fat tissue should not be confused with the retro-orbital and peri-orbital (retroseptal) fat pockets (Figure 1.2).

The cervicofacial region

This is characterized by an abundant subcutaneous fat tissue and thicker skin. The underlying layer is musculoaponeurotic, comprising the superficial musculoaponeurotic system (SMAS)–platysma sheath. It is a rather static segment, usually less vulnerable to wrinkle formation.



Figure 1.1 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI): note the difference between subcutaneous fat in the periorificial craniofacial region and in the cervicofacial region.

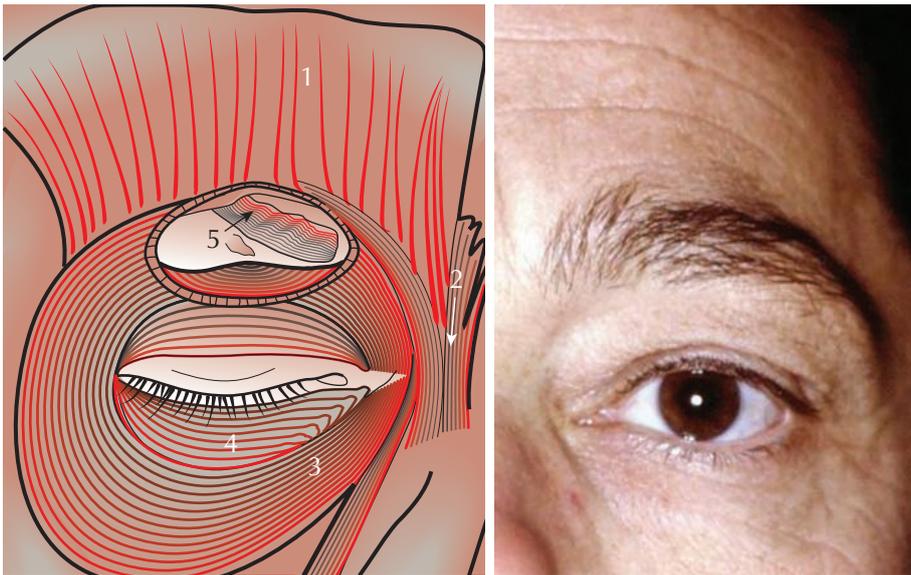


Figure 1.2 1: The frontalis muscle. 2: The procerus muscle. 3: The orbicularis oculi muscle, pars orbitalis. 4: The orbicularis oculi muscle, pars palpebralis. 5: The corrugator muscle.

The subcutaneous fat spreads all over the cheek area and the neck resulting in a homogeneous thick sheath, except in the malar area where the fat gains further volume forming the so-called ‘malar fat pad’ (Figure 1.1).

The subcutaneous fat plays an essential role in facial esthetics. It softens the bony landmarks, fills the facial contours, and enhances skin quality.

Platysma muscles and musculoaponeurotic structures

Periorifacial and centropacial region

This is the muscular region of the face. The perioral, perinasal, and periorbital muscles provide two essential functions:

- a primary protective function over the eye globes and the oral cavity
- a secondary dynamic function of facial mimics reflecting facial expression.

The periorbital region (Figure 1.2)

The eyebrow is a mobile structure subject to two antagonist groups of muscles: an eyebrow elevator group mainly made up by the frontalis muscle, and a depressor group made up by the orbicularis oculi muscle, the procerus muscle, and the corrugator supercilii muscle.

The musculoaponeurotic elevator group of muscles is formed by the association of the frontalis muscle, the galea aponeurotica (epicranial aponeurosis), and the occipitalis muscle.

The frontalis is a 6 × 7 cm quadrilateral-shaped muscle. Its medial fibers join at the level of the glabella where they intersect with fibers of the procerus muscle. Its central and lateral fibers overlay the corrugator

supercilii muscle and intersect with the outer fibers of the pars orbitalis component of the orbicularis oculi muscle. It is located between the galea and the skin, closely adherent to the latter. From their lower insertions on the supraorbital margin, the frontalis fibers spread over the forehead, and fuse with the galea aponeurotica to join posteriorly, in the occipital region, the occipitalis muscle. The repeated contractions of this muscle lead to the formation of horizontal forehead wrinkles.

The galea aponeurotica or epicranial aponeurosis is a broad musculoaponeurotic layer covering the calvaria. Posteriorly, it is firmly anchored to the occipital protuberance and the superior nuchal line. It is separated from the outer table of the cranium by the loose connective tissue layer. This area, also called Merkel’s space, allows smooth sliding of the scalp over the cranium. Laterally, over the temporal crest, the epicranial aponeurosis is continuous with the superficial temporal fascia. We find, at that level, the superficial temporal vessels and the temporal and frontal branches of the facial nerve.

The eyebrow depressor muscles are formed by the association of three distinct muscles: the corrugator supercilii muscle, the pyramidal or procerus muscle, and the orbicularis oculi muscle.

The corrugator supercilii muscle is a deep facial muscle (Figure 1.3). It is narrow and strong, with deep medial insertions on the glabellar periosteum and another more superficial lateral transorbicular insertion on the medial portion of the eyebrow. It depresses and brings closer the inner parts of the eyebrows. Its repeated contractions result in the formation of vertical glabellar wrinkles, also called ‘lion’s wrinkles’.

The pyramidal or procerus muscle appears as a medial extension of the frontalis muscle. It overlaps the nasal bones in which it inserts distally along with the upper lateral cartilages. It depresses the medial

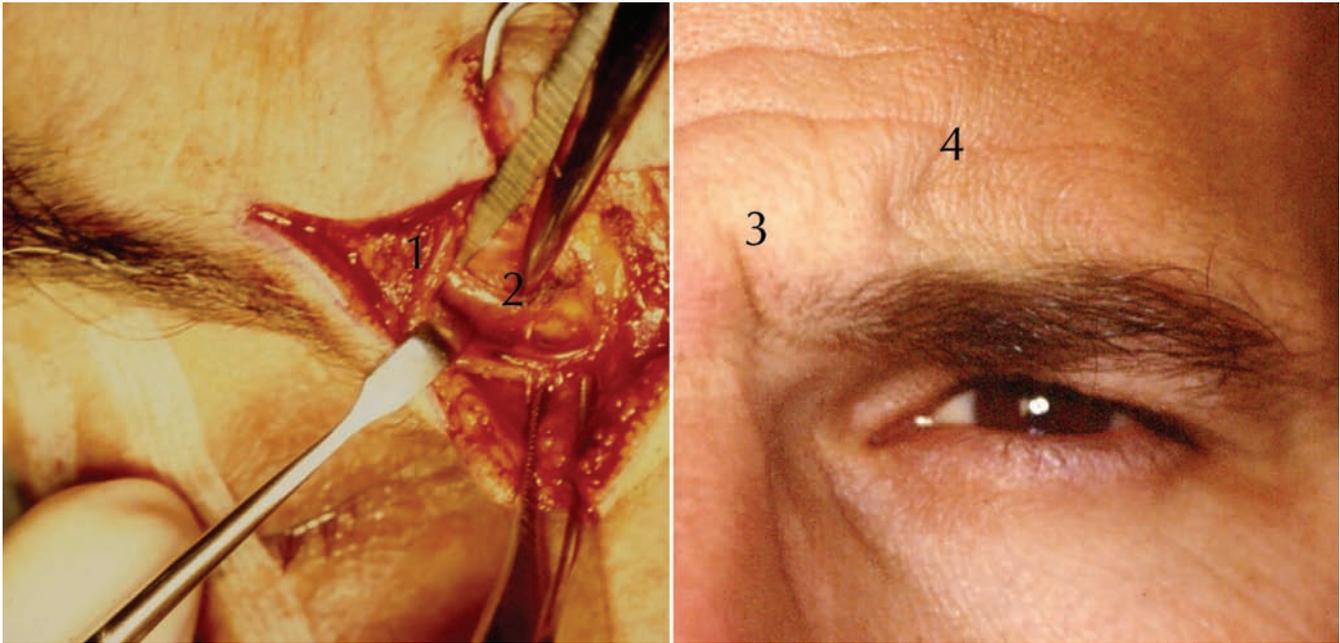


Figure 1.3 1: The procerus muscle. 2: The corrugator muscle. 3: Lion's line. 4: Corrugator's skin insertion.

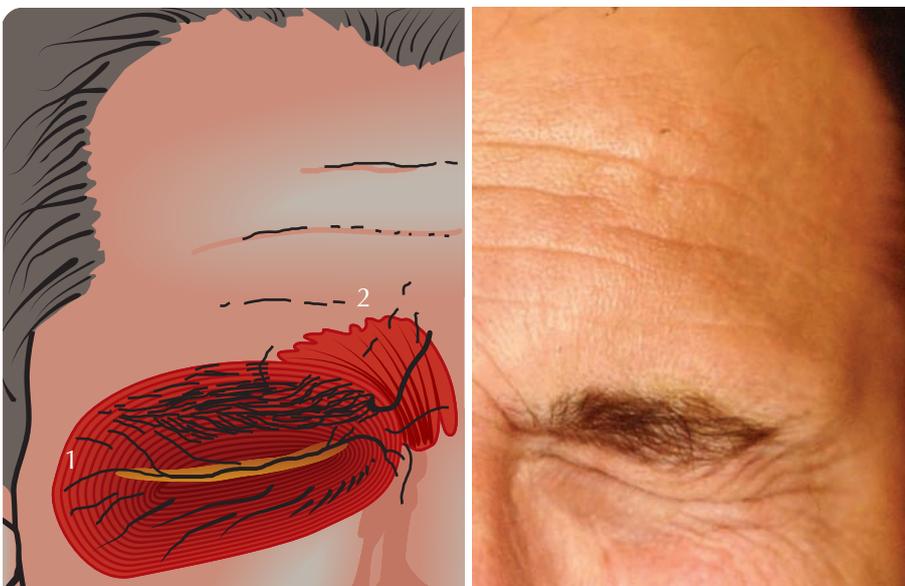


Figure 1.4 1: The orbicularis oculi muscle creates crow's feet and oblique glabellar lines. 2: The procerus muscle creates horizontal glabellar lines.

portion of the eyebrow. Its repetitive contractions lead to the formation of horizontal glabellar wrinkles.

The orbicularis oculi muscle is one of the largest muscles of facial expression. It is wide, circular, and diaphragmatic. It appears as a flat and narrow muscle sheath closely adherent to the skin. Its fibers sweep in concentric circles around the orbital margins and in the eyelids. It consists of three parts:

1. The orbital part, or pars orbicularis, is external and devoid of deep attachments. It forms a ring and inserts medially on the medial palpebral ligament. Its concentric fibers are often more spread

than usually represented in the classical manuals of anatomy. Its repeated contractions lead to the formation of 'crow's feet' (Figures 1.4 and 1.5) and oblique glabellar lines. These lines result from the contraction of the internal superior fibers of the pars orbicularis, also recognized by some authors as an individual muscle, the 'depressor supracilii muscle' (Figure 1.4).

2. The palpebral part, or pars palpebralis, is internal, adherent to the tarsal plates and deeply inserted in the palpebral ligament. A muscle strip known as 'Horner's muscle' detaches from the palpebral muscle and runs towards the posterior lacrimal



Figure 1.5 1: Frontalis muscle. 2: Orbicularis oculi muscle.

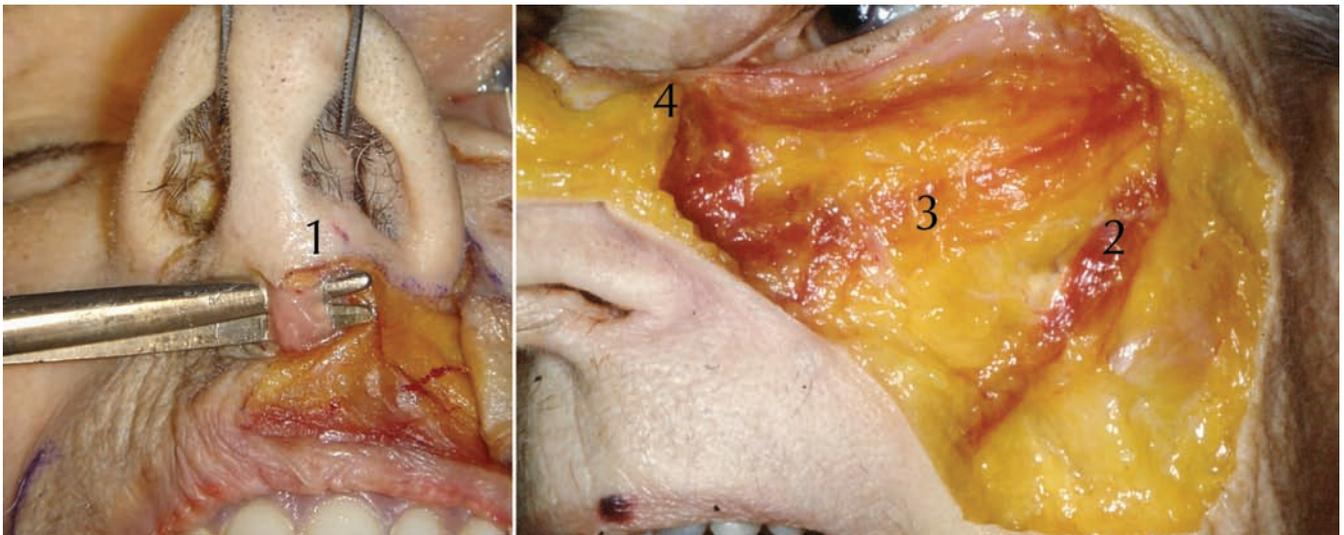


Figure 1.6 1: The depressor septi muscle. 2: The zygomatic major muscle. 3: The zygomatic minor muscle. 4: The levator labii superioris alaeque nasi muscle.

crest. This muscle encourages the emptying of the lacrimal sac and helps lymphatic drainage in the orbital region.

3. The orbitomalar crease corresponds to the inferior border of the orbicularis oculi muscle. It stands out as the limit between the orbital region and the cheek. It also delineates the superior border of the malar fat pad. Beneath the orbicularis oculi muscle there is a thin layer of fat continuous with the jugal fat called the suborbicularis oculi fat (SOOF). This layer provides a natural surgical plan of division.

The levator palpebrae superioris muscle in its retroseptal position raises the upper eyelid. It runs from its superior periosteal insertions in the orbital roof to

its tight skin and tarsal insertions in the upper eyelid. Its posterior head, also called Muller's muscle, inserts in the superior border of the upper tarsal plate.

The fibroelastic layer is a continuous structure formed by the tarsus, the medial and lateral palpebral ligaments, and the orbital septum.

The nasal and perioral region (Figure 1.6)

The nasal muscles of expression are:

- the nasalis muscle, consisting of a transverse bundle (pars transversa) that depresses the nostrils, and an alar bundle (pars alaris) that dilates the nostrils
- the procerus muscle, a nasoglabellar muscle

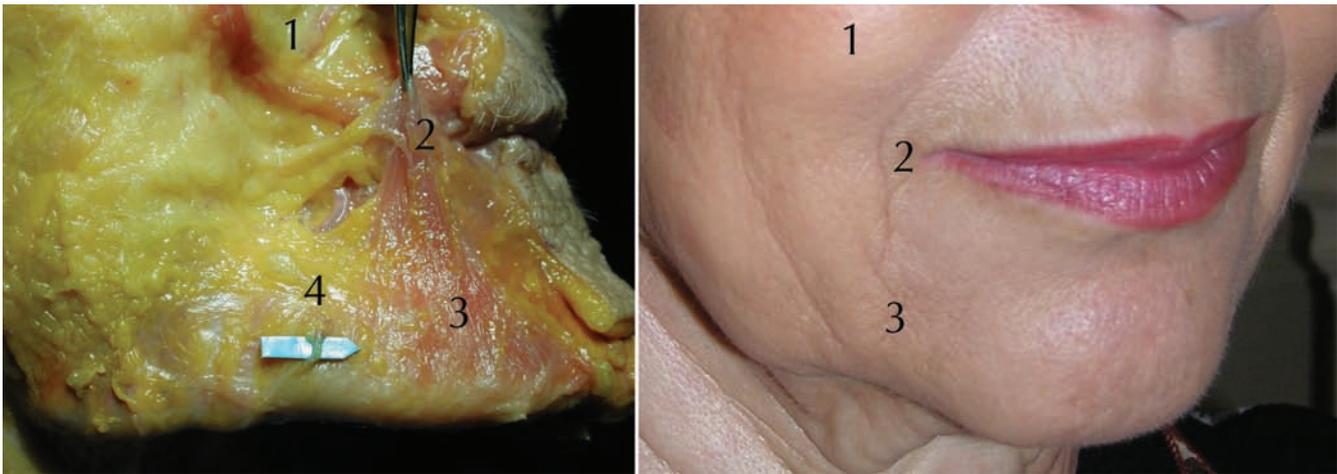


Figure 1.7 1: The zygomatic major muscle. 2: The modiolus. 3: The depressor anguli oris muscle. 4: The mandibular branch of the facial nerve.



Figure 1.8 1: The platysma muscle. 2: The platysma band.

- the depressor septi or myrtiliform muscle, which depresses the nasal septum
- the levator labii superioris alaeque nasi muscle, which elevates the lip and the nose.

The oromental region (Figure 1.7)

Muscles appear in layers or strata as described by Freilinger:

- a superficial layer made of the zygomaticus minor muscle, the depressor anguli oris muscle, and the orbicularis oculi muscle
- a second layer made of the zygomaticus major muscle, the risorius muscle, the platysma muscle, and the depressor anguli oris muscle
- a third layer made of the orbicularis labii muscle and the levator labii superioris muscle
- a deep layer made of the mentalis muscle, the levator anguli oris muscle, and the buccinator muscle.

The platysma (Figure 1.8) is a wide and shallow extensive sheet of vertical muscle fibers covering part of the inferior third of the face and most of the anterolateral region of the neck. It extends from the lower cheek and the perioral region down to the clavicular region. The

right and left platysma muscles draw, as they diverge, an inverted V with the apex pointing towards the mandibular symphysis. The platysma is part of the SMAS–platysma sheath. The cervical component of this sheath is purely muscular (platysma muscle *per se*), whereas its parotid region component is mainly aponeurotic (fibrous platysma). This musculoaponeurotic sheath adheres to the underlying structures through the so-called ‘facial ligaments’.

Vessels of the face

Arteries of the face

The face is mainly supplied by two distinct networks:

- a major superficial network derived from the external carotid artery
- a deep network derived from the internal carotid artery.

These two systems anastomose freely, explaining the great vitality of the facial skin.

The facial artery arises from the external carotid artery and lies superficial as it hooks around the inferior border of the mandible. In its course over the face, it runs along the nasolabial fold and follows a sinuous course between the muscle layers, running deep to the platysma and the zygomatic muscles. Near the angle of the mouth, it sends the labial and alar branches that anastomose on the midline with the contralateral arteries. Near the upper portion of the nasolabial fold it runs along the nose to the inner angle of the eye as the angular artery and anastomoses, only inconstantly, with the ophthalmic artery.

The superficial temporal artery begins in the parotid region where the external carotid artery divides into two branches, the superficial temporal artery and the internal maxillary artery. It ascends through the superficial temporal fascia, always lateral to the temporal branch of the facial nerve. Along its ascending course it gives off three collateral branches, the transverse facial artery, the zygomaticomalar artery, and the deep medial temporal artery. It ends in the scalp by dividing into two branches, an anterior frontal branch that contributes to the periorbital network of vessels and a posterior parietal branch that anastomoses with the contralateral arteries.

The internal maxillary artery contributes to the deep supply of the face. Among its 14 collateral branches we mention the buccal artery supplying the soft tissues of the cheek and the infraorbital artery emerging from the infraorbital foramen and supplying the lower eyelid and the cheek.

The ophthalmic artery branches from the internal carotid artery. It contributes to the vascular supply of the face through its terminal branching from the nasal

artery, the angular artery. It has two facial branches: the supraorbital or external frontal artery, and the supratrochlear or internal frontal artery that runs upward and anastomoses with the frontal branch of the superficial temporal artery.

Veins of the face

The venous system of the face can be superposed to the arterial one. There is a superficial network made up mainly by the facial vein that arises from the union of the supratrochlear and the supraorbital veins. The facial vein runs inferiorly through the face and ends by draining into the internal jugular vein.

The superficial temporal vein drains the forehead and scalp. It unites with the maxillary vein, posterior to the neck of the mandible, to form the retromandibular vein. The retromandibular vein divides into an anterior branch that unites with the facial vein, and a posterior branch that joins the posterior auricular vein to form the external jugular vein. The external jugular vein drains into the subclavian vein.

There is a deep venous network linked to the superficial one through the angular vein that connects the cavernous sinus to the facial vein.

Nerves of the face

Motor nerves of the face: the facial nerve

Cranial nerve (CN) VII, the facial nerve, supplies the muscles of facial expression. Posteriorly, over the cheek, the extracranial portion of the facial nerve is protected by the parotid gland and then by the parotidomasseteric fascia. In fact, the facial nerve emerges from the skull through the stylomastoid foramen and runs within the parotid gland giving rise to a cervicofacial branch and a temporofacial branch. These, in turn, subdivide into five major branches. All the branches run superficially within the substance of the parotid gland before they supply the muscles of expression or mimetic muscles.

The cervical branch of the facial nerve is the most posterior and inferior of the five branches. It runs behind and below the mandibular angle and supplies the platysma muscle.

The mandibular branch of the facial nerve can be unique or divided into two branches. The inferior branch is always more significant. It runs superficially over the facial artery before giving rise to several motor branches supplying the inner surface of the mentalis muscle, the depressor labii inferioris, and the depressor anguli oris.

The buccal branch of the facial nerve divides early into two branches running over the masseter muscle just beneath the parotidomasseteric fascia:

- a superior ramus which follows an anterior and inferior oblique path, and crosses above Stensen's duct before supplying the outer surface of the buccinator muscle
- an inferior ramus supplying the inner surface of the orbicularis oris.

The zygomatic branch of the facial nerve passes transversely over the zygomatic bone before dividing into three major branches:

- the superior palpebral branch supplying the orbicularis oculi muscle and the corrugator muscle
- the inferior palpebral branch supplying again the orbicularis oculi muscle
- the infraorbital branch supplying the zygomatic muscles and muscles of the upper lip and nose.

There are many anastomoses between the buccal and zygomatic branches of the facial nerve.

The temporal branch of the facial nerve is the most vulnerable to injury during facial surgery. Its path can be outlined by drawing a line passing through a point 0.5 cm below the tragus and another 1.5 cm above the lateral border of the eyebrow. Its different branches anastomose among each other. It crosses the zygomatic arch approximately 2 cm anterior to the tragus, and reaches the superficial temporal fascia where it runs below the superficial temporal artery. It ends by supplying the inner surface of the frontal muscle.

Sensory nerves of the face: the trigeminal and the great auricular nerves

Knowledge of these is essential for the practice of local anesthesia of the face.

The trigeminal nerve provides sensory innervation of the face through its three branches:

1. The ophthalmic nerve is the superior division of the trigeminal nerve. It divides into three branches: the lacrimal, the frontal, and the nasociliary branches. The lacrimal nerve supplies the lacrimal gland, the upper eyelid, the conjunctiva, and the lateral angle of the eye. The frontal nerve further divides into two branches: supratrochlear and supraorbital. The supratrochlear nerve supplies the medial angle of the eye, the upper eyelid, the nasion, and part of the glabella. The supraorbital

nerve emerges from the superior orbital margin through a foramen or a small canal before it supplies the lateral canthus, the upper eyelid, and the temporal and frontoparietal regions of the head. The nasociliary nerve in turn divides into two branches, one internal and one external supplying the nasal dorsum and the nasal tip.

2. The maxillary nerve is the intermediate division of the trigeminal nerve. In the infratemporal region, it gives off an orbital branch before it divides into a lacrimopalpebral branch supplying the lateral part of the upper eyelid and a temporo-maxillary branch supplying the anterior temporal region. It emerges then below the inferior orbital margin, through the infraorbital foramen as a large terminal branch, the infraorbital nerve that supplies the the lower eyelid, the lateral aspect of the nose, the cheek, and the upper lip.
3. The mandibular nerve is the inferior division of the trigeminal nerve. It also has cutaneous sensory branches, namely, the inferior alveolar nerve. After passing through the inferior alveolar canal, the nerve emerges from the mental foramen giving the mental nerve that provides sensation to the chin and lower lip. Medial to the neck of the mandible, the mandibular nerve gives off the auriculotemporal nerve that supplies the tragus, the ear lobe, and the skin in the temporal region. These nerves arise from the posterior division of the mandibular nerve. The anterior division provides the the buccal nerve that supplies the skin over the cheek area.

The great auricular nerve belongs to the superficial cervical plexus. It is derived from the ventral rami of C2 and C3. It runs in the superficial cervical aponeurosis over the external surface of the sternocleidomastoid muscle, lateral to the external jugular vein. Below the ear, it becomes strictly subcutaneous before it supplies the ear lobe, the retroauricular region, and part of the cheek around the tragus.

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