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Volume Three

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Peter C. Neligan

# Plastic Surgery

Craniofacial, Head and Neck Surgery

Volume Editor

Eduardo D. Rodriguez

Pediatric Plastic Surgery

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# Plastic Surgery

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Volume Three

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Fourth Edition

# Plastic Surgery



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Pediatric Plastic Surgery

Volume Three

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**Chapter 30: Growth considerations in pediatric upper extremity trauma and reconstruction**

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**Growth considerations in pediatric upper extremity trauma and reconstruction**

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**Restoration of upper extremity function in tetraplegia**

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# Preface to the Fourth Edition

When I wrote the preface to the 3rd edition of this book, I remarked how honored and unexpectedly surprised I was to be the Editor of this great series. This time 'round, I'm equally grateful to carry this series forward. When Elsevier called me and suggested it was time to prepare the 4th edition, my initial reaction was that this was way too soon. What could possibly have changed in Plastic Surgery since the 3rd edition was launched in 2012? As it transpires, there have been many developments and I hope we have captured them in this edition.

We have an extraordinary specialty. A recent article by Chandra, Agarwal and Agarwal entitled "Redefining Plastic Surgery" appeared in *Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery—Global Open*. In it they gave the following definition: "Plastic surgery is a specialized branch of surgery, which deals with deformities, defects and abnormalities of the organs of perception, organs of action and the organs guarding the external passages, besides innovation, implantation, replantation and transplantation of tissues, and aims at restoring and improving their form, function and the esthetic appearances." This is an all-encompassing but very apt definition and captures the enormous scope of the specialty.<sup>1</sup>

In the 3rd edition, I introduced volume editors for each of the areas of the specialty because the truth is that one person can no longer be an expert in all areas of this diverse specialty, and I'm certainly not. I think this worked well because the volume editors not only had the expertise to present their area of subspecialty in the best light, but they were tuned in to what was new and who was doing it. We have continued this model in this new edition. Four of the seven volume editors from the previous edition have again helped to bring the latest and the best to this edition: Drs Gurtner, Song, Rodriguez, Losee, and Chang have revised and updated their respective volumes with some chapters remaining, some extensively revised, some added, and some deleted. Dr. Peter Rubin has replaced Dr. Rick Warren to compile the Aesthetic volume (Vol. 2). Dr. Warren did a wonderful job in corralling this somewhat disparate, yet vitally important, part of our specialty into the Aesthetic volume in the 3rd edition but felt that the task of doing it again, though a labor of love, was more than he wanted to take on. Similarly, Dr. Jim Grotting who did a masterful job in the last edition on the Breast volume, decided that doing a major revision should be undertaken by someone with a fresh perspective and Dr. Maurice Nahabedian stepped into that breach. I hope you will like the changes you see in both of these volumes.

Dr. Allen Van Beek was the video editor for the last edition and he compiled an impressive array of movies to complement the text. This time around, we wanted to go a step further and though we've considerably expanded the list of

videos accompanying the text (there are over 170), we also added the idea of lectures accompanying selected chapters. What we've done here is to take selected key chapters and include the images from that chapter, photos and artwork, and create a narrated presentation that is available online; there are annotations in the text to alert the reader that this is available. Dr. Daniel Liu, who has taken over from Dr. Van Beek as multimedia editor (rather than video editor) has done an amazing job in making all of this happen. There are over 70 presentations of various key chapters online, making it as easy as possible for you, the reader, to get as much knowledge as you can, in the easiest way possible from this edition. Many of these presentations have been done by the authors of the chapters; the rest have been compiled by Dr. Liu and myself from the content of the individual chapters. I hope you find them useful.

The reader may wonder how this all works. To plan this edition, the Elsevier team, headed by Belinda Kuhn, and I, convened a face-to-face meeting in San Francisco. The volume editors, as well as the London based editorial team, were present. We went through the 3rd edition, volume by volume, chapter by chapter, over an entire weekend. We decided what needed to stay, what needed to be added, what needed to be revised, and what needed to be changed. We also decided who should write the various chapters, keeping many existing authors, replacing others, and adding some new ones; we did this so as to really reflect the changes occurring within the specialty. We also decided on practical changes that needed to be made. As an example, you will notice that we have omitted the complete index for the 6 Volume set from Volumes 2-6 and highlighted only the table of contents for that particular volume. The complete index is of course available in Volume 1 and fully searchable online. This allowed us to save several hundred pages per volume, reducing production costs and diverting those dollars to the production of the enhanced online content.

In my travels around the world since the 3rd edition was published, I've been struck by what an impact this publication has had on the specialty and, more particularly, on training. Everywhere I go, I'm told how the text is an important part of didactic teaching and a font of knowledge. It is gratifying to see that the 3rd edition has been translated into Portuguese, Spanish, and Chinese. This is enormously encouraging. I hope this 4th edition continues to contribute to the specialty, remains a resource for practicing surgeons, and continues to prepare our trainees for their future careers in Plastic Surgery.

Peter C. Neligan  
Seattle, WA  
September, 2017

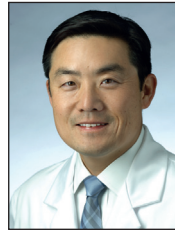
<sup>1</sup> Chandra R, Agarwal R, Agarwal D. Redefining Plastic Surgery. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open*. 2016;4(5):e706.

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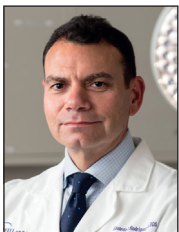
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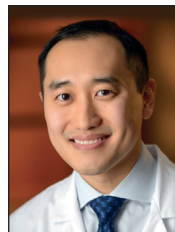
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Driven by constant innovation, the field of head, neck, and craniofacial surgery has truly evolved and made noteworthy advances over the last several decades. The diverse expertise of the renowned contributors has provided the latest clinical evidence and surgical techniques to facilitate

the decision-making process, which ultimately impacts the outcomes of patients with conditions involving congenital, oncologic, traumatic, and acquired deformities. This volume is a comprehensive resource for specialists of all levels. It has been a true privilege to work with such a distinguished faculty willing to share their vast experience and insights in their respective fields. It is with great admiration that I sincerely thank the contributors for their generous donation of time, commitment to excellence, dedication to education, and advancement of the field.

**Eduardo D. Rodriguez, MD, DDS**

This volume represents the expertise of the current leaders within pediatric plastic surgery; and I am grateful for their dedication and efforts in making this “labor of love” a reality and the standard within the field. This work is dedicated to my families – at work and at home – and serves as a living example of work–life integration for me. “Thank you” to my work family – my colleagues, staff, patients and their families; and, to my home family – Franklyn P. Cladis, MD and our son Hudson. You all have and continue to provide significant meaning to my life.

**Joseph E. Losee, MD, FACS, FAAP**

*Dedicated to future plastic surgeons. Take up the torch  
and lead us forward!*



# Anatomy of the head and neck

Ahmed M. Afifi, Ruston J. Sanchez and Risal S. Djohan

## SYNOPSIS

- The superficial fascial layer of the face and neck is formed by the superficial cervical fascia (enclosing the platysma), the superficial facial fascia (synonymous with the superficial musculo-aponeurotic system (SMAS)), the superficial temporal fascia (often called the temporoparietal fascia), and the galea.
- The deep fascial layer of the face and neck is formed by the deep cervical fascia (or the general investing fascia of the neck), the deep facial fascia (also known as the parotidomasseteric fascia), and the deep temporal fascia. The deep temporal fascia is continuous with the periosteum of the skull.
- The deep temporal fascia splits into two layers at the level of the superior orbital rim. The two layers insert into the superficial and deep surfaces of the zygomatic arch.
- The facial nerve is initially deep to the deep fascia, eventually penetrating it towards the superficial fascia. The fat and connective tissue filling the space between the superficial temporal fascia and the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia is a subject of significant debate. Its importance stems from the temporal branch of the facial nerve crossing from deep to superficial in this layer.
- Most surgeons believe that it is the superficial temporal fat pad that fills this space. Others believe there is a distinct fascial layer in this region, named the parotidomasseteric fascia.
- The facial nerve is at significant risk of injury in the area right above the zygomatic arch.
- Pitanguy's line describes the course of the largest branch of the temporal division of the facial nerve.
- The marginal mandibular nerve can be located above or below the level of the mandible. It is usually located between the platysma and the deep cervical fascia and is always superficial to the facial vessels.
- There are multiple fat pads in the face. They can be superficial to the SMAS, between the SMAS and the deep fascia, or deep to the deep fascia.
- Knowledge of the sensory nerves is important, especially within the context of evaluating and treating migraine headaches.

Aesthetic and reconstructive surgery of the head and neck depends on appreciating the three-dimensional anatomy and

the functional and cosmetic methods of rearranging the different structures. This chapter is not intended to be a detailed description of the head and neck anatomy, which is beyond such a limited space. It rather offers a different perspective on the anatomy that is more relevant to the plastic surgeon and highlights certain anatomical regions that have fundamental importance or are more controversial.

## The fascial planes of the head and neck and the facial nerve

A peculiar feature of the anatomy of the head and neck is the concentric arrangement of the facial soft tissues in layers. These layers have different names and characteristics from one area of the head and neck to the other, but they maintain their continuity across boundaries (Fig. 1.1). Unfortunately, inconsistent nomenclature has been used to describe these layers leading to significant confusion among readers. The facial nerve usually passes in defined planes in between these layers, crossing from one layer to the other only in specific well-described zones. Knowledge of these planes and their relation to the facial nerve is vital if plastic surgeons are to safely access the soft tissues and bony structures of the head and neck.<sup>1,2</sup> In the following discussion, we will not only describe the anatomy and nomenclature of these layers as mostly agreed upon, but also try to elucidate the sources of deliberation and confusion in describing this crucial anatomy.<sup>3</sup>

The bordering regions of neck, cheek (lower face), temple, and the scalp are arbitrarily divided by the lower border of the mandible, the zygomatic arch, and the temporal line, respectively. Topographically, there are two layers of fascia covering the face, a superficial and deep, which cover these regions and extend over other structures, such as the eyelid and the nose (see Fig. 1.1).

The superficial layer of fascia is formed by the superficial cervical fascia (platysma), the superficial facial fascia (SMAS), the superficial temporal fascia (temporoparietal fascia), and



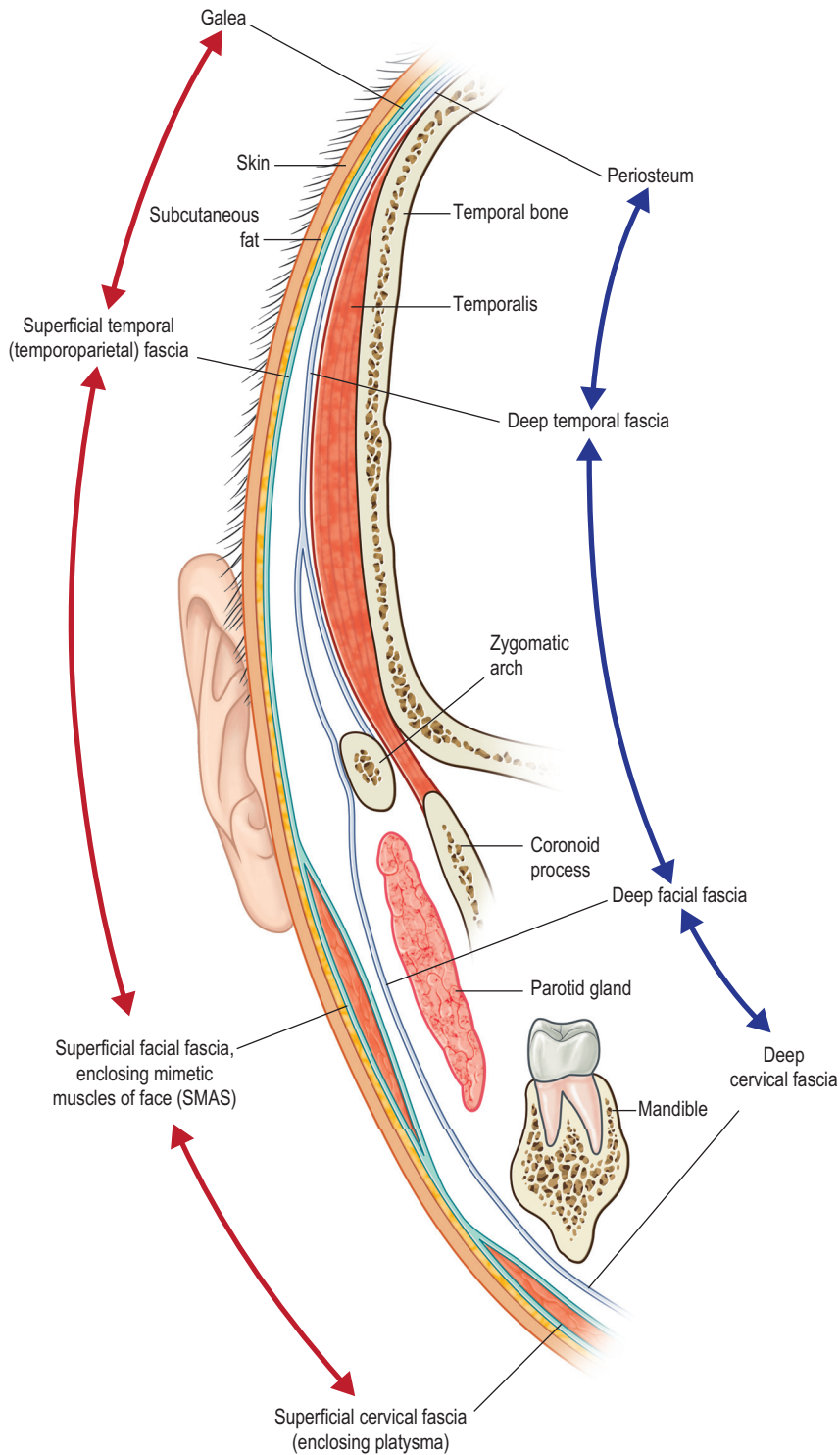
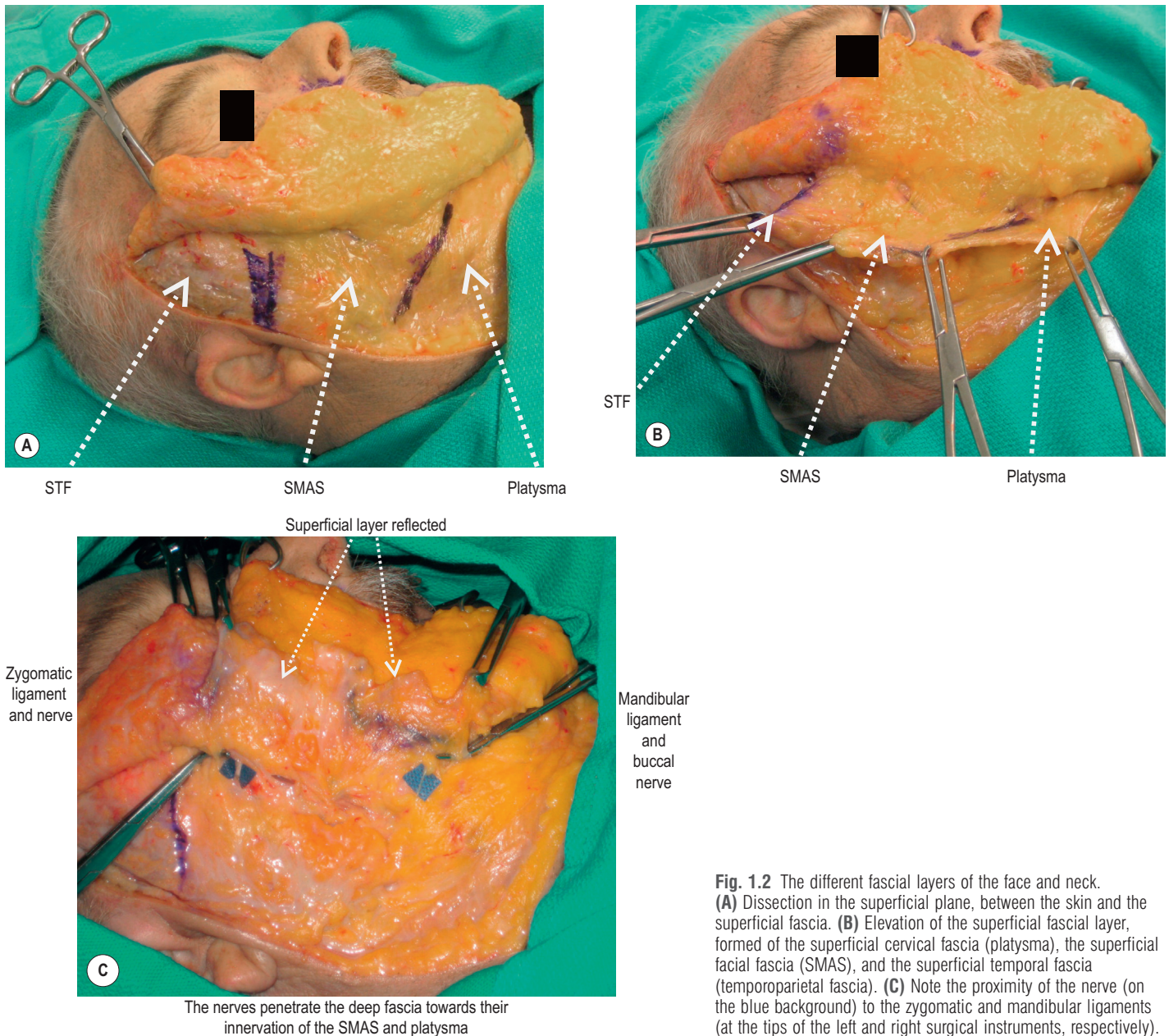


Fig. 1.1 The facial layers of the scalp, face, and neck.

the galea aponeurotica (Figs. 1.1 & 1.2). To be more precise, this superficial fascia splits to enclose many of the facial muscles. This is a consistent pattern seen all over the head and neck region; e.g., the superficial cervical fascia splits into a deep and superficial layer to enclose the platysma, the superficial facial fascia splits to enclose the midfacial muscles, and the galea splits to enclose the frontalis. The two layers of the superficial fascia then rejoin at the other end of the muscle, before splitting again to enclose the next muscle and so on.

The deep layer of fascia is formed by the deep cervical fascia, the deep facial fascia (parotidomasseteric fascia), the deep temporal fascia, and the periosteum. This layer is superficial to the muscles of mastication, the salivary glands and the main neurovascular structures (see Figs. 1.1 & 1.2). Over bony areas, such as the skull and the zygomatic arch, this deep fascia is inseparable from the periosteum.

The facial fat pads are localized collections of fat present deep to the superficial layer of fascia. These are anatomically



**Fig. 1.2** The different fascial layers of the face and neck. **(A)** Dissection in the superficial plane, between the skin and the superficial fascia. **(B)** Elevation of the superficial fascial layer, formed of the superficial cervical fascia (platysma), the superficial facial fascia (SMAS), and the superficial temporal fascia (temporoparietal fascia). **(C)** Note the proximity of the nerve (on the blue background) to the zygomatic and mandibular ligaments (at the tips of the left and right surgical instruments, respectively).

and histologically distinct structures from the subcutaneous fat present between the skin and the superficial fascia (which will be discussed later). These fat pads include the superficial temporal fat pad, the galeal fat pad, suborbicularis oculi fat pad (SOOF), the retro-orbicularis oculi fat pad (ROOF), and the preseptal fat of the eyelids. Deep to the deep fascia are several other fat pads: the deep temporal fat pads, the buccal fat pads, and the postseptal fat pads of the eyelids.<sup>4</sup>

## The fascia in the face

The first layer the surgeon encounters in the face deep to the skin and its associated subcutaneous fat is the SMAS (superficial musculo-aponeurotic system) (see Figs. 1.1 & 1.2).<sup>5</sup> The SMAS varies in thickness and composition between individuals and from one area to another, and it can be fatty, fibrous, or muscular.<sup>6</sup> The muscles of facial expression, e.g.,

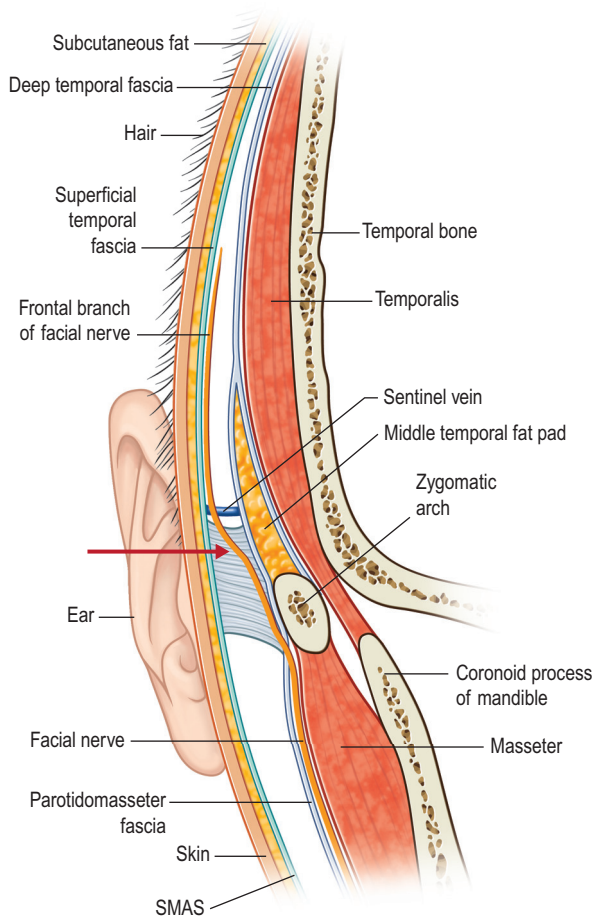
orbicularis oculi, oris, zygomaticus major and minor, frontalis, and platysma, are enclosed by (or form part of) the SMAS. The SMAS is often referred to as the superficial facial fascia. In reality, the superficial facial fascia covers the superficial and deep surfaces of the muscles. However, these layers are hard to separate intraoperatively (except in certain areas such as the neck). Dissection superficial to the superficial facial fascia (just under the skin) will generally avoid injury to the underlying facial nerve. However, such dissection can compromise the blood supply of the overlying skin flaps. Often, the surgeon can safely maintain this superficial fascia in the lower face and neck (whether it is the platysma or the SMAS) with the skin, allowing a secure double layer closure and maintaining skin vascularity (e.g. during a neck dissection). In the anterior (medial) face, the facial nerve branches become more superficial just under or within the SMAS layer.



The next layer in the face is the deep facial fascia, which is also known as the parotidomasseteric fascia (see Figs. 1.1 & 1.2). Over the parotid gland, this layer is adherent to the capsule of the gland. The facial nerve is initially (i.e., right after it exits the parotid gland) deep to the deep facial fascia. Most of the muscles of facial expression are superficial to the planes of the nerve. The nerve branches pierce the deep fascia to innervate the muscles from their deep surface, with the exception of the mentalis, levator anguli oris, and the buccinators (see Fig. 1.2). These three muscles are deep to the facial nerve and are thus innervated on their superficial surface.

## The fascia in the temporal region

The cheek and lower face are separated from the temporal region by the zygomatic arch. There are two layers of fascia in the temporal region (below the skull temporal lines): the superficial temporal fascia (also known as the temporoparietal fascia (TPF)) and the deep temporal fascia (Figs. 1.3 & 1.4A).<sup>7-9</sup> The deep temporal fascia lies on the superficial surface of the temporalis muscle. Between the superficial and deep temporal fascia is a loose areolar plane that is relatively avascular and easily dissected. However, the frontal branch of the facial nerve is within or directly beneath the superficial temporal



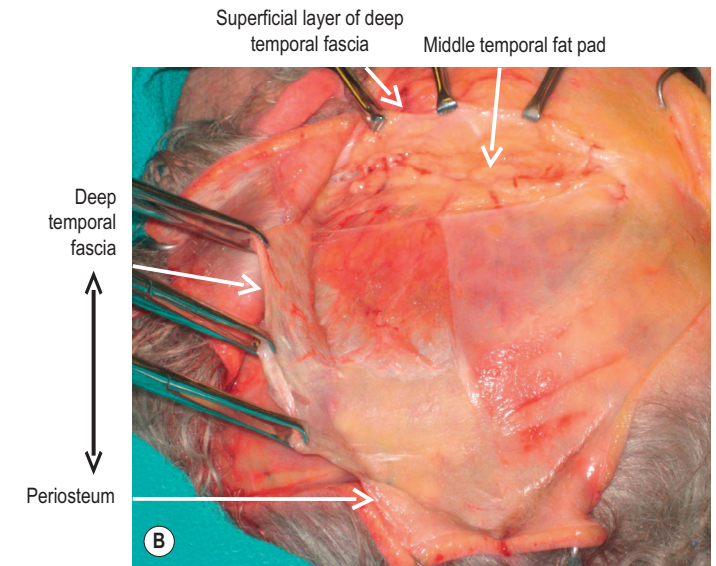
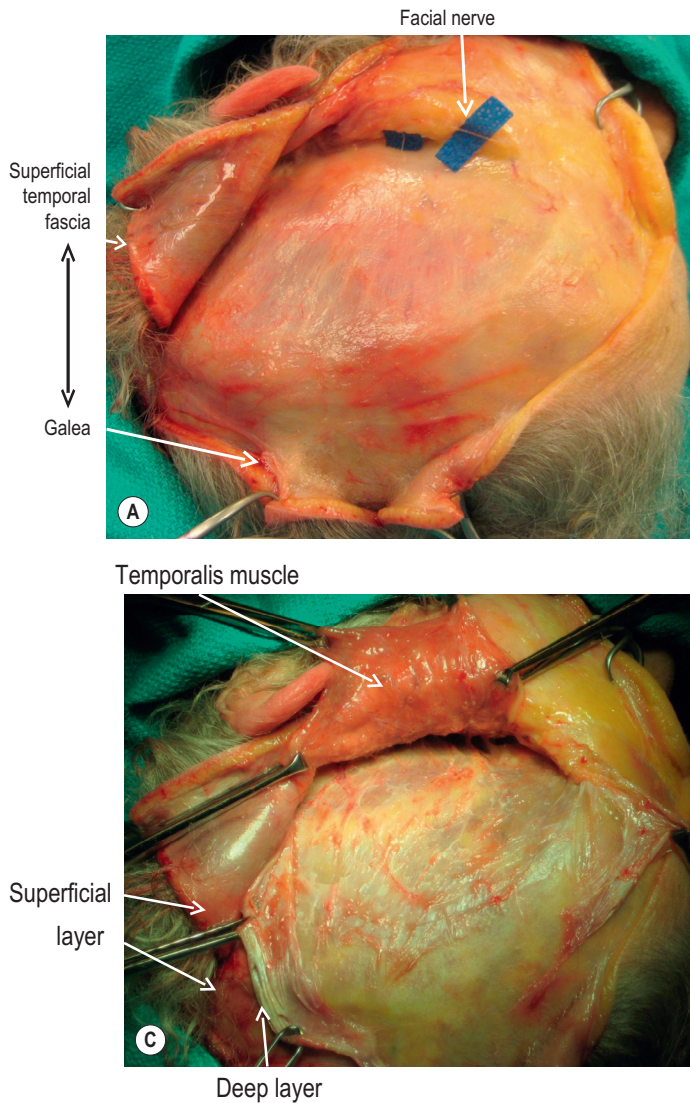
**Fig. 1.3** The fascial layers of the temporal region. The fat/fascia in the subaponeurotic plane (arrow; between the temporal fascia and deep temporal fascia) is intimately related to the facial nerve. Some authors believe that there is a separate fascial layer in this space, referred to as the parotidomasseteric fascia.

fascia (see Fig. 1.4A).<sup>5</sup> Therefore, dissection in this plane should be strictly on the deep temporal fascia, which can be identified by its bright white color and sturdy texture. To ensure that the surgeon is in the right plane, he or she can attempt to grasp the areolar tissues over the deep temporal fascia using an Adson forceps; if in the right plane, one will not catch any tissue. Once deep enough and right on the deep temporal fascia, dissection can proceed quickly using a periosteal elevator hugging the tough deep temporal fascia (Fig. 1.5).

In the region right above the zygomatic arch the space between the superficial TPF and the deep temporal fascia (sometimes referred to as the subaponeurotic space) and the fat/fascia it contains is both a debatable and an important subject (see Fig. 1.4). Its importance stems from the facial nerve crossing this space from deep to superficial right above the zygomatic arch. A third layer of fascia has been described in this space (between the superficial and deep temporal fascia) and is referred to as the parotidotemporal fascia, the subgaleal fascia, or the innominate fascia.<sup>10,11</sup> The term “fascial layer” is used loosely, as there is no general consensus as to how thick connective tissue must be before it can be considered a “fascial layer”. What some authors refer to as “loose connective tissue” may be called a “fascial layer” or a “fat pad” by others. Our own cadaver dissection showed that this third fascial layer could often be identified. It extends for a short distance above and below the arch. Directly superficial to the arch, the facial nerve is deep to this layer, piercing it to become more superficial 1–2 cm cephalad to the arch (see below).

Above the zygomatic arch and at the same horizontal level as the superior orbital rim, the deep temporal fascia splits into two layers: the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia (sometimes referred to as the middle temporal fascia, intermediate fascia, or the innominate fascia) and the deep layer of the deep temporal fascia (see Fig. 1.3).<sup>7</sup> The deep and superficial layers of the deep temporal fascia attach to the superficial and deep surfaces of the zygomatic arch. There are three fat pads in this region.<sup>7,12</sup> The superficial fat pad is located between the superficial temporal fascia and superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia and, as described above, is analogous with the parotidotemporal fascia, subgaleal fascia, and/or the loose connective tissue between the superficial and deep temporal fascia. The middle fat pad is located directly above the zygomatic arch between the superficial and deep layers of the deep temporal fascia. Finally, the deep fat pad (also known as the buccal fat pad) is deep to the deep layer of the deep temporal fascia, superficial to the temporalis muscles and extends deep to the zygomatic arch. It is considered an extension of the buccal fat pad.

Most of the controversy in describing the fascial layers in the temporal region arises from confusing the *superficial temporal fascia* with the *superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia*. This is very significant since the facial nerve is deep to or within the former and superficial to the latter. The second point is the location of the *deep temporal fascia superficial* to the temporalis muscle. There is another fascial layer on the deep surface of the muscle; this is not the deep temporal fascia and is of little significance from a surgical standpoint. The final controversy is what exactly is the *innominate fascia*? This term is often used to describe the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia above the arch. Other surgeons reserve the



**Fig. 1.4** The different planes of dissection in the temporal region. **(A)** Dissection between the superficial temporal fascia (temporoparietal fascia) and the deep temporal fascia. In this plane, the surgeon should try to stay right on the deep temporal fascia. **(B)** Dissection deep to the deep temporal fascia. This is a safe plan that will lead to the zygomatic arch. The facial nerve will be protected by the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia. **(C)** Dissection deep to the temporalis muscle. The muscle can be left as part of the skin flap. This is a safe and easy plan if no exposure of the arch is needed.

term to the areolar tissue between the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia and the superficial temporal fascia (i.e., the innominate fascia can be synonymous with the parotidotemporal fascia or subgaleal fascia or the superficial temporal fat pad).<sup>13</sup>

The plane of dissection in the temporal region depends on the goal of the surgery (see Fig. 1.4). In general, the surgeon should avoid the superficial temporal fascia as it harbors the frontal branch of the facial nerve. During surgery to expose the orbital rims and the forehead musculature, the dissection plane is between the superficial temporal fascia and deep temporal fascia (see Fig. 1.4A). To expose the arch, the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia is divided and dissection proceeds between it and the middle fat pad (the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia will act as an extra layer protecting the nerve) (see Fig. 1.4B). Finally, when a coronal approach is used, but the arch does not need to be exposed, dissection can proceed deep to the temporalis muscles, elevating them with the coronal flap (see Fig. 1.4B). Using this avascular plane avoids potential traction or injury to the frontal nerve and ensures good aesthetic results as it prevents possible fat atrophy or retraction of the temporalis muscle.

While the fascial layers in the temporal region are well described, there is more debate and variability of the anatomy of the fascial layers and the facial nerve directly superficial to the arch.<sup>12,14,15</sup> The superficial facial fascia (SMAS) is continuous with the TPF, but it is not clear if the deep facial and deep temporal fasciae are continuous to each other or attach and arise from the periosteum of the arch separately. In addition, the thickness of the soft tissues from the periosteum to skin is minimal and the tissues are tightly adherent, making identification of the fascial planes and the facial nerve hazardous in this region.<sup>16</sup> The frontal branch of the facial nerve pierces the deep temporal fascia to become more superficial near the vicinity of the upper border of the arch, and this area constitutes one of the danger zones of the face (see below).

## The fascia in the neck

The nomenclature used to describe the different fascial layers in the neck also creates significant confusion. There are two different fascias in the neck: the superficial and the deep (Figs. 1.3 & 1.6). The latter is composed of three different layers: (1) the superficial layer of the deep cervical fascia, also known as



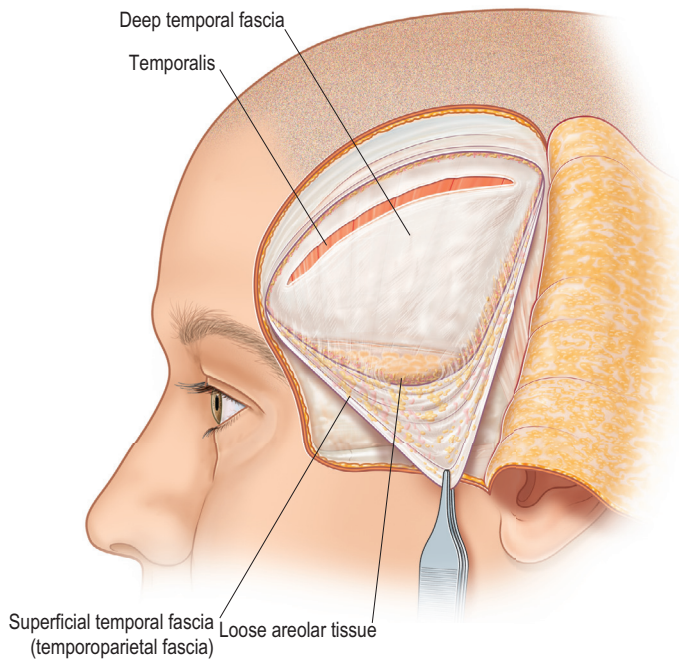
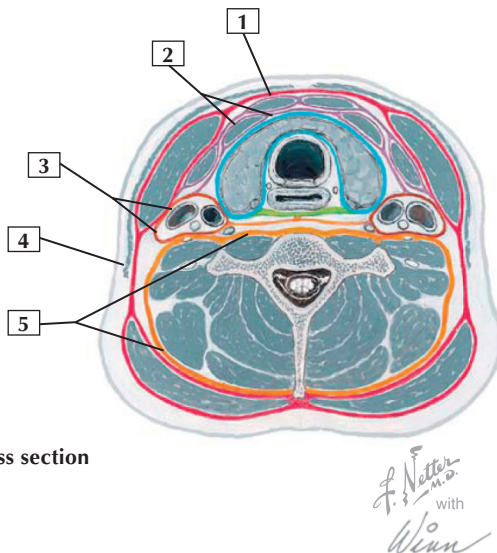


Fig. 1.5 Dissection in the temporal layer.



Cross section

Fig. 1.6 Fascial layers of the neck. 1, Investing layer of deep cervical fascia; 2, pretracheal fascia; 3, carotid sheath; 4, superficial fascia; 5, prevertebral fascia. (Reprinted with permission from [www.netterimages.com](http://www.netterimages.com) © Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.)

the general investing layer of deep cervical fascia; (2) the middle layer, commonly named the pretracheal fascia; and (3) the deep layer, or the prevertebral fascia (see Figs. 1.3 & 1.6). The pretracheal fascia encircles the trachea, thyroid, and the esophagus, while the prevertebral fascia encloses the prevertebral muscles and forms the floor of the posterior triangle of the neck. For practical purposes, it is the superficial cervical fascia and the superficial layer of the deep cervical fascia that the plastic surgeon encounters.<sup>17,18</sup>

The superficial cervical fascia encloses the platysma muscle and is closely associated with the subcutaneous adipose tissue. The platysma muscle and its surrounding superficial

cervical fascia represent the continuation of the SMAS into the neck. In general, when skin flaps are raised in the neck, the platysma muscle is maintained with the skin to enhance its blood supply (e.g. during neck dissections). However, in necklifts the skin is raised off the platysma to allow platysmal shaping and skin redraping. Tissue expanders placed in the neck could be placed either deep or superficial to the platysma. Placing them superficially will create thinner flaps that are more suitable for facial resurfacing, while placing them deeper allows a more secure coverage of the expander.<sup>19,20</sup>

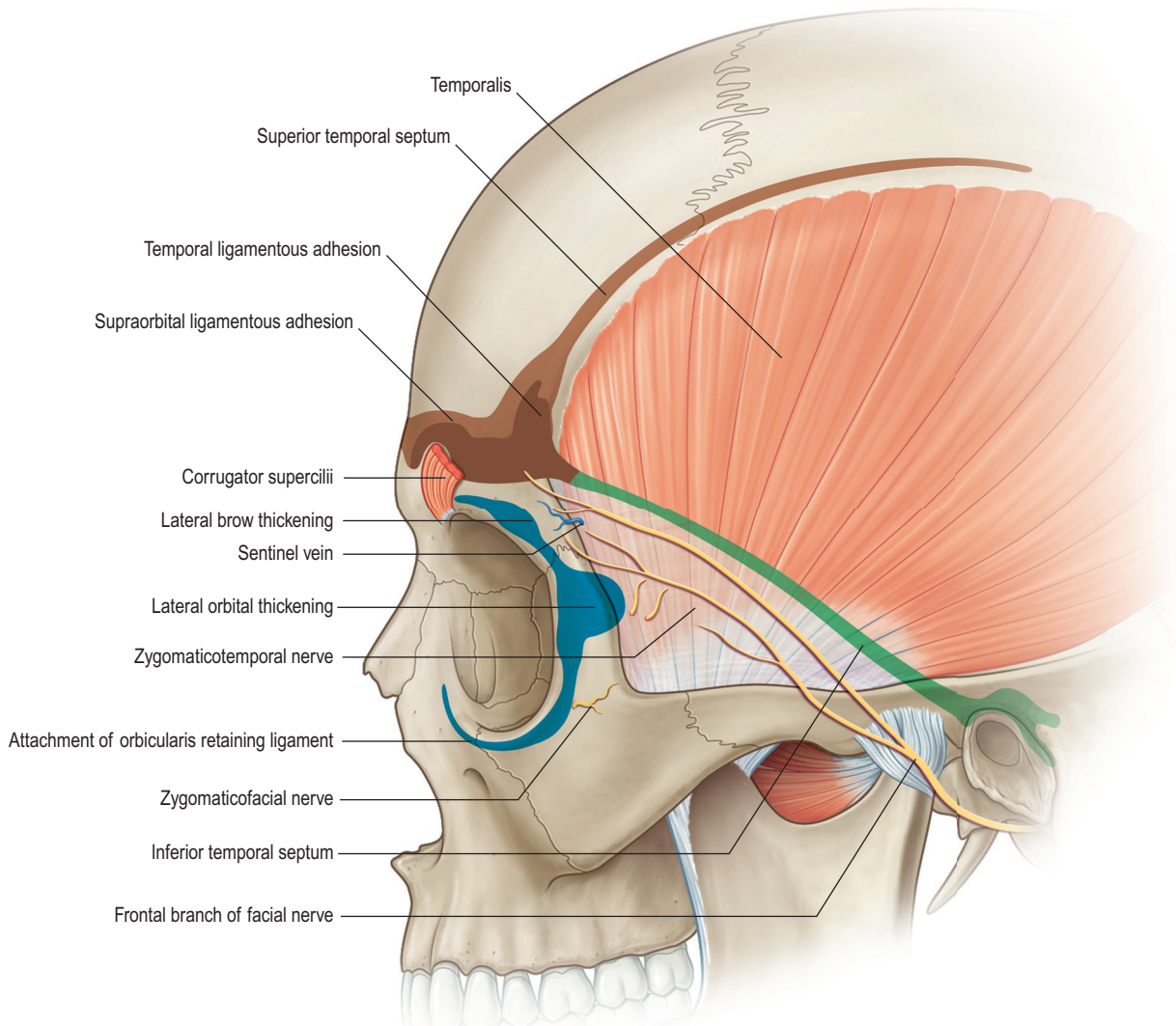
The superficial layer of deep cervical fascia, or the general investing layer of deep cervical fascia, is what plastic surgeons commonly refer to simply as the “deep cervical fascia”. It encircles the whole neck and has attachments to the spinous processes of the vertebrae and the ligamentum nuchae posteriorly. It splits to enclose the sternocleidomastoid and the trapezius muscles. It also splits to enclose the parotid and the submandibular glands. The deep facial fascia, or parotidomasseteric fascia, is therefore considered the continuation of the deep cervical fascia into the face.

## Retaining ligaments and adhesions of the face

The ligaments of the face maintain the skin and soft tissues of the face in their normal positions, resisting gravitational changes. Knowledge of their anatomy is important for both the craniofacial and the aesthetic surgeon for several reasons. For the aesthetic surgeon, these ligaments play an important role in maintaining facial fat in its proper positions. For ideal aesthetic repositioning of the skin and soft tissues of the face, numerous surgeons recommend releasing the ligaments. For the craniofacial surgeon, the zones of adherence represent coalescence between different fascial layers, possibly luring the surgeon into an erroneous plane of dissection. In facial reconstruction or face transplants, reconstructing or maintaining these ligaments is important to prevent sagging of the soft tissues with its functional and aesthetic consequences.

Various terms have been used to describe these ligamentous attachments. Moss *et al.* classified them into ligaments (connecting deep fascia/periosteum to the dermis), adhesions (fibrous attachments between the deep and the superficial fascia), and septi (fibrous wall between layers).<sup>21</sup>

In the periorbital and temporal region, various ligaments and adhesions have been described with numerous names given to each (Fig. 1.7). Along the skull temporal line lies the temporal line of fusion, also known as the superior temporal septum, which represents the coalition of the temporal fascia with the skull periosteum. These adhesions end as the temporal ligamentous adhesions (TLA) at the lateral third of the eyebrow.<sup>21</sup> The TLA measure approximately 20 mm in height and 15 mm in width and begin 10 mm cephalad to the superior orbital rim. Both the temporal line of fusion and the TLA are sometimes referred to collectively as temporal adhesions. The inferior temporal septum extends posteriorly and inferiorly from the TLA on the surface of the deep temporal fascia towards the upper border of the zygoma. It separates the upper temporal region superiorly from the lower temporal region inferiorly and represents the upper boundary of the parotidomasseteric fascia (the fascial layer between the superficial and the deep temporal fascia in the region just



**Fig. 1.7** The ligaments of the periorbital region.

above the zygomatic arch).<sup>22</sup> The supraorbital ligamentous adhesions extend from the TLA medially along the eyebrow.

The orbicularis retaining ligament (ORL) lies along the superior, lateral, and inferior rims of the orbit, extending from the periosteum just outside the orbital rim to the deep surface of the orbicularis oculi muscle (Fig. 1.8).<sup>23,24</sup> This ligament serves to anchor the orbicularis oculi muscle to the orbital rims. The orbicularis oculi muscle attaches directly to the bone from the anterior lacrimal crest to the level of the medial limbus. At this level the ORL replaces the bony origin of the muscle, continuing laterally around the orbit. Initially short, it reaches its maximum length centrally near the lateral limbus.<sup>25</sup> It then begins to diminish in length laterally, until it finally blends with the lateral orbital thickening (LOT). The LOT is a condensation of the superficial and deep fascia on the frontal process of the zygoma and the adjacent deep temporal fascia. The ORL and the orbital septum both attach to the arcus marginalis, a thickening of the periosteum of the orbital rims.<sup>24</sup> The ORL is also referred to as the periorbital septum and, in its inferior portion, as the orbitomalar ligament. The ORL attaches to the undersurface of the orbicularis

oculi muscle at the junction of its pretarsal and orbital components.

In the midface, the retaining ligaments have been divided into direct, or osteocutaneous, ligaments and indirect ligaments. Direct ligaments run directly from the periosteum to the dermis, and include the zygomatic and mandibular ligaments. Indirect ligaments represent a coalescence between the superficial and deep fascia and include the parotid and the masseteric cutaneous ligaments (Fig. 1.9; see Fig. 1.2C). The retaining ligaments indirectly fix the mobile skin and its intimately related superficial fascia (SMAS) to the relatively immobile deep fascia and underlying structures (masseter and parotid).

The zygomatic and the masseteric ligaments together form an inverted L, with the angle of the L formed by the major zygomatic ligaments (Fig. 1.9; see Fig. 1.2C). These ligaments are typically around 5–15 mm wide and are located 4.5 cm in front of the tragus and 5–9 mm behind the zygomaticus minor muscle.<sup>26–30</sup> Anterior to this main ligament are multiple other bundles that form the horizontal limb of the inverted L. There have been different descriptions of the anatomy of these



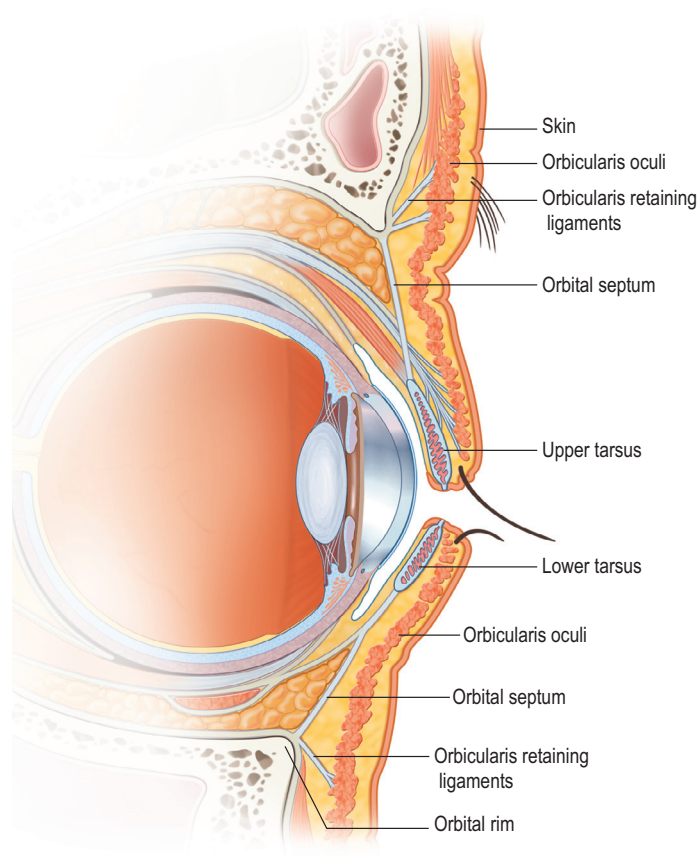


Fig. 1.8 The orbicularis retaining ligaments.

zygomatic ligaments, likely related to the variability in their thickness and location, as well as the different criteria used by different authors to define what is truly a “ligament”. Often the surgeon will encounter these ligaments along the whole length of the zygomatic arch.<sup>30</sup> The vertical limb of the L is formed by the masseteric ligaments, which are stronger near their upper end (at the zygomatic ligaments), and extend along the entire anterior border of the masseter as far as the mandibular border.<sup>5,31</sup> The parotid ligaments, also referred to as preauricular ligaments, represent another area of firm adherence between the superficial and deep fascia.<sup>26,28,29</sup> The mandibular ligaments originate from the parasymphiseal region of the mandible around 1 cm above the lower mandibular border.<sup>28,29</sup> There are several descriptions of other retaining ligaments in the face, most notably the mandibular septum and the orbital retaining septum.<sup>32,24</sup>

## The prezygomatic space

The prezygomatic space is a glide plane space overlying the body of the zygoma, deep to the orbicularis oculi and the suborbicularis fat (see Fig. 1.8).<sup>33</sup> Its floor is formed by a fascial layer covering the body of the zygoma and the lip elevator muscle (namely the zygomaticus major, zygomaticus minor, and the levator labii superioris). This fascial layer extends caudally over the muscles, gradually becoming thinner and allowing the muscle to be more discernible. The superior

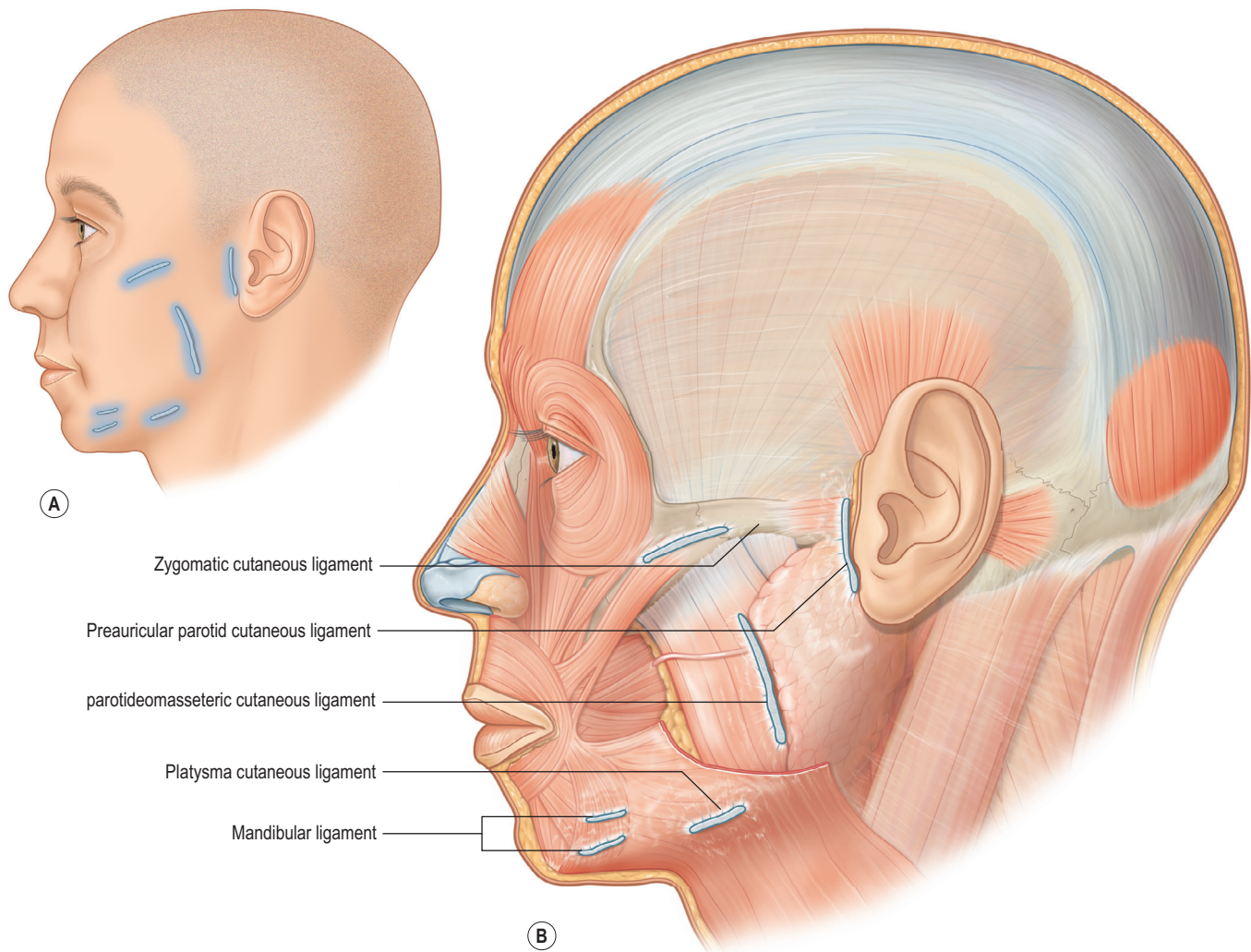
boundary of the prezygomatic space is the orbicularis retaining ligament, which separates it from the preseptal space. The more rigid inferior boundary is formed by the reflection of the fascia covering the floor as it curves superficially to blend with the fascia on the undersurface of the orbicularis oculi. This inferior boundary is further reinforced by the zygomatic retaining ligaments. Medially, the space is closed by the origins of the levator labii and the orbicularis oculi muscle from the medial orbital rim. Finally, the lateral boundary is formed superiorly by the LOT over the frontal process of the zygoma and more inferiorly by the zygomatic ligaments.<sup>34</sup> The facial nerve branches cross in the roof of (i.e., superficial to) this space. The only structure traversing the prezygomatic space is the zygomatic branch of the facial nerve, emerging from its foramen located just caudal to the ORL.

## The malar fat pad and the subcutaneous fat compartments of the face

Rohrich and Pessa, in an extensive study of the facial subcutaneous fat, found the cheek to be partitioned into multiple, independent anatomical compartments superficial to the superficial fascia.<sup>35</sup> These subcutaneous fat compartments (also referred to as fat pads) are separated by distinct facial condensations that arise from the superficial fascia and insert into the dermis of the skin.<sup>36–38</sup> These superficial fat pads include the nasolabial, jowl, malar, or cheek (subdivided into medial, middle, and lateral-temporal compartments); periorbital (subdivided into inferior, superior, and lateral compartments); and forehead (subdivided into central and medial compartments).<sup>36</sup> This anatomy is important because elements of facial aging may be characterized by how these compartments change relatively in both position and volume with time.<sup>38</sup> Elevation of the malar fat pad, which is triangular in shape with its base at the nasolabial crease and its apex more laterally towards the body of the zygoma, is important for facial rejuvenation and in facial palsy.<sup>39</sup> During facelift dissection, septal transition zones between these superficial fat compartments are regions of potential injury to deeper structures, including branches of the facial nerve as well as the greater auricular nerve.<sup>38</sup>

## The buccal fat pad

The buccal fat pad is an underappreciated factor in post-traumatic facial deformities and senile aging and is frequently overlooked as a flap or graft donor site.<sup>40,41</sup> Senile laxity of the fascia allows the fat to prolapse laterally, contributing to the square appearance of the face.<sup>42</sup> With many traumatic injuries the fat herniates, either superficially, towards the oral mucosa, or even into the maxillary sinus.<sup>25,43–45</sup> This fat is anatomically and histologically distinct from the subcutaneous fat. It is voluminous in infants to prevent indrawing of the cheek during suckling, and gradually decreases in size with age.<sup>46</sup> It functions to fill the glide planes between the muscles of mastication.



**Fig. 1.9** The retaining ligaments of the face. (Reproduced with permission from *Gray's Anatomy 40e*, Standing S (ed), Churchill Livingstone, London, 2008.)

It is usually described as being formed of a central body and four extensions, the buccal, pterygoid, and superficial and deep temporal. The body is located on the periosteum of the posterior maxilla (surrounding the branches of the internal maxillary artery) overlying the buccinator muscle and extends forwards in the vestibule of the mouth to the level of the maxillary second molar. The buccal extension is the most superficial, extending along the anterior border of the masseter around the parotid duct. Both the body and the buccal extension are superficial to the buccinator and deep to the deep facial fascia (parotideomasseteric fascia) and are intimately related to the facial nerve branches and the parotid duct. The buccal extension is in the same plane as the facial artery, which marks its anterior boundary. The pterygoid extension passes backwards and downwards deep to the mandibular ramus to surround the pterygoid muscles. The deep temporal extension passes superiorly between the temporalis and the zygomatic arch. The superficial temporal extension is actually totally separate from the main body and lies between the two layers of the temporal fascia above the zygomatic arch.<sup>47</sup>

## The facial nerve

During most facial plastic surgeries, whether congenital, reconstructive, or aesthetic, there are one or more branches of the facial nerve that are at risk for injury. Although there is abundant literature on the anatomy of the facial nerve branches, the majority of publications describe two-dimensional anatomy, depicting the trajectory of the nerve and its surface anatomy in relation to anatomic landmarks (see Fig. 1.3).<sup>9,16,48–55</sup> However, it is the third dimension, the depth of the facial nerve in relation to the layers of the face, that is most relevant to the practicing surgeon. In spite of the significant variability in the branching patterns, the facial nerve consistently passes in defined planes, crossing from one plane to another in certain zones.<sup>1</sup> It is in these “danger zones” that dissection should be avoided or done carefully. In the rest of the face, the dissection can proceed relatively quickly by adhering to a certain plane, either superficial or deep to the plane of the nerve.



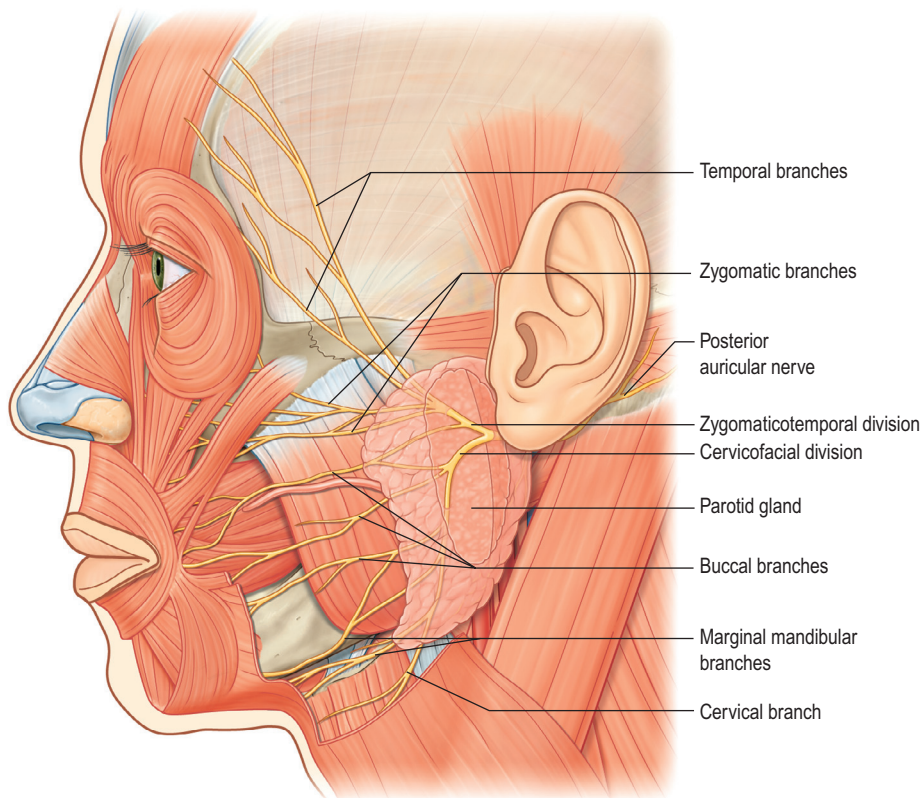


Fig. 1.10 The facial nerve.

The facial nerve nucleus lies in the lower pons and is responsible for motor innervation to all the muscles derived from the second branchial arch. A few sensory fibers originating in the tractus solitarius join the facial nerve to supply the skin of the external acoustic meatus. The nerve emerges from the lower border of the pons, passes laterally in the cerebellopontine angle, and enters the internal acoustic meatus. The facial nerve then traverses the temporal bone (being liable to injury in temporal bone fractures) to exit the skull through the stylomastoid foramen. Just after its exit it is enveloped by a thick layer of fascia that is continuous with the skull periosteum and is surrounded by a small aggregation of fat and usually crossed by a small blood vessel. This makes its identification in this area a challenging task. Several methods for identification of the facial nerve trunk have been described:

1. If the tragal cartilage is followed to its deep end, it terminates in a point. The nerve is 1 cm deep and inferior to this “tragal pointer”. There is an avascular plane anterior to the surface of the tragus that allows a safe and quick dissection to this tragal pointer.
2. By following the posterior belly of the digastric posteriorly, the nerve is found passing laterally immediately deep to the upper border of the posterior end of the muscle.
3. If the anterior border of the mastoid process is traced superiorly, it forms an angle with the tympanic bone. The nerve bisects the angle formed between these two bones (at the tympanomastoid suture).
4. By feeling the styloid process in between the mastoid bone and the posterior border of the mandible. The nerve is just lateral to this process.

5. By following the terminal branches of the nerve proximally.

The nerve passes forwards and downwards to pierce the parotid gland. In the parotid gland the nerve divides into the zygomaticotemporal and the cervicofacial divisions, which in turn divide into the five terminal branches of the facial nerve: frontal, zygomatic, buccal, marginal mandibular, and cervical (Fig. 1.10). However, the zygomatic and buccal branches show significant variability in their location and branching patterns, as well as a significant overlap in the muscles they innervate – they are sometimes grouped together and referred to as “zygomaticobuccal”. The temporal and the mandibular branches are perhaps at the highest risk for iatrogenic injury, especially as the muscles they innervate show little if any cross-innervation, making injury to these branches much more noticeable.

### Frontal (temporal) branch

This consists of 3–4 branches that innervate the orbicularis oculi muscle, the corrugators and the frontalis muscle. Several anatomic landmarks are used to describe their surface anatomy. The most common description is Pitanguy’s line, extending from 0.5 cm below the tragus to a point 1 cm above the lateral edge of the eyebrow (or 1 cm lateral to the lateral canthus).<sup>9,56</sup> Ramirez described the nerve as crossing the zygomatic arch 4 cm behind the lateral canthus.<sup>57</sup> However, other surgeons describe the area spanning the middle two-thirds of the arch as the territory of the nerve. Gosain *et al.* found frontal nerve branches are found at the lower border of the zygomatic arch between 10 mm anterior to the external

auditory meatus and 19 mm posterior to the lateral orbital rim.<sup>16</sup> Finally, Zani *et al.* in 300 cadaver dissections reported that the nerve is in a region limited by two straight diverging lines; the first line from the upper tragus border to the most cephalic wrinkle of the frontal region, and the second line from the lower tragus border to the most caudal wrinkle of the frontal region.<sup>51</sup> Although there is no connection between the frontal nerve and other branches of the facial nerve, there are connections within the frontal branches themselves.<sup>16</sup> In addition, the more posterior divisions of the frontal nerve may be less clinically significant than the anterior branches, the injury of which will lead to noticeable brow deformities.<sup>16</sup> A line from the tragus to 1 cm above the lateral eyebrow or 1.5 cm lateral to the lateral canthus seems to be a fairly accurate marking of the largest branch of the frontal nerve.

With this great variation in surface anatomy, it is the plane of the nerve (the depth) that is most important (see Fig. 1.4). After emerging from the parotid gland, the nerve is protected by the deep facial fascia (parotidomasseteric fascia) lying on the masseter muscle. In midfacial procedures (e.g. facelift), dissection is usually *superficial* to the deep facial fascia (which protects the nerve deep to it). In the temporal area, the nerve is on the undersurface of the superficial temporal fascia (see Fig. 1.5). Here dissection is usually *deep* to the nerve, either directly superficial or deep to the deep temporal fascia (or the superficial layer of the deep temporal fascia). However, the crossing of the nerve from deep to superficial in the vicinity of the zygomatic arch is a matter of debate. This is largely because of the confusion regarding the anatomy of the fascia in relation to the arch. Directly over the arch, the facial layers are tightly adherent (with little thickness of tissues from the bone to the skin). While the SMAS is continuous with the temporoparietal fascia across the arch, it is not clear if the deep facial fascia is continuous with the deep temporal fascia or they are separate layers that adhere to the periosteum of the zygomatic arch.<sup>7,8,58,59</sup> At the lower border of the arch, the nerve is very close to the periosteum.<sup>60–63</sup> The nerve is still deep to the SMAS/TPF and deep to the areolar tissue between the TPF and the deep temporal fascia (which, as described above, is sometimes considered as a separate layer of fascia called the parotidotemporal fascia). This deep location of the nerve allows safe transection of the SMAS at the level of the zygomatic arch in facelift surgeries.<sup>13,63,64</sup> The nerve passes from its deep location to the superficial temporal fascia in the region right above the zygomatic arch.<sup>13</sup> In this area, the fascia layers are more tightly adherent, which is a warning sign that the facial nerve is in close proximity. Dissection in this transition zone, extending over the arch and the 2–3 cm above it, should be done carefully (see Fig. 1.3).

## Zygomatic and buccal branches

These branches emerge from the parotid and diverge forwards lying over the masseter muscle under the parotidomasseteric (deep facial) fascia. The exact point where they pierce the deep fascia is variable but is in the vicinity of the anterior border of the masseter. The upper branches to the midfacial muscle (zygomatic branches) pierce the deep fascia approximately 4 cm in front of the tragus in close proximity (around 1 cm inferior) to the zygomatic ligaments (see Fig. 1.2C). These branches soon innervate the zygomaticus major muscle through its deep surface. The zygomatic and masseteric

retaining ligaments can aid in identification of these nerve branches. As mentioned previously, the major zygomatic ligament is located around 45 mm in front of the tragus (it might be helpful to mark this location on the skin prior to facelift surgery). Medial to this ligament is the zygomaticus major muscle and the overlying prezygomatic space, and just inferior to this ligament are the upper zygomatic branches of the facial nerve. These branches are deep to the deep facial fascia at this level. The lower zygomatic branches of the facial nerve pass inferior to the upper masseteric ligaments and are closer to the SMAS. Therefore, both the zygomatic and upper masseteric ligaments should be divided close to the SMAS to protect the facial nerve branches.<sup>30</sup> The buccal branches emerge from the parotid in the same plane as the parotid duct (deep to the parotidomasseteric fascia). They pierce the deep fascia at the anterior edge of the masseter, close to the masseteric cutaneous ligaments (see Fig. 1.2C). Together, the zygomatic and buccal branches supply the orbicularis oculi, midfacial muscle, orbicularis oris, and the buccinator. Unlike the marginal mandibular and the frontal divisions, there are a number of communicating branches between the buccal and zygomatic divisions, and injury to a single branch of these nerves is usually unnoticeable. Facial lacerations medial to the level of the lateral canthus are usually not amenable to exploration or repair of the facial nerve.

## Marginal mandibular

The marginal mandibular nerve is one of the most commonly encountered branches of the facial nerve and is in jeopardy in multiple operations, including neck dissections, submandibular sialadenectomy, and exposure of the mandible.<sup>65</sup> There are numerous descriptions and variations of both the trajectory of the nerve and its plane (i.e. depth), necessitating care in a wide area of dissection in the lower face and the submandibular triangle.<sup>2,50,66–70</sup> In addition, the nerve can vary between a single branch and up to 3 or 4 branches.<sup>2,67,71,72</sup>

After exiting the parotid gland near its lower border, the nerve loops downward, often below the mandibular border. Whether the nerve crosses the mandibular border into the submandibular triangle in all individuals is a matter of debate.<sup>2,66,73</sup> Although several cadaver studies found the nerve to be more commonly above the mandibular border, clinical experience has shown that it is frequently located in the submandibular triangle, up to 3 or even 4 cm below the mandible.<sup>2,50,66,74–76</sup> This might also vary with the position of the neck, and the surgeon must consider the wide variability of the nerve location in his dissection.<sup>2</sup> The nerve then passes upwards back into the face midway between the angle and mental protuberance. Once the nerve crosses the facial vessels, its major trunk is usually above the border of the mandible, although smaller branches may continue in the neck to supply the platysma.<sup>2</sup>

After exiting the parotid gland, the nerve is initially deep to the parotidomasseteric fascia. In the submandibular triangle, the nerve is usually described as lying between the platysma and the deep cervical fascia. However, it might occasionally be found deep to the deep fascia near the superficial surface of the submandibular gland. The nerve is deep to the platysma and superficial to the facial vessels throughout its course. As the nerve crosses into the lower face, the platysma thins and the nerve can be injured during a subcutaneous dissection.

The marginal mandibular nerve supplies the lower lip muscles, depressor anguli oris, mentalis, and the upper part of the platysma.<sup>67,71</sup> Injury to the marginal mandibular branch usually causes a recognizable deformity,<sup>77-79</sup> and several surgical maneuvers have been advocated to protect the nerve.<sup>80,81</sup> When exposing the mandible, the surgeon can identify the nerve in the usual subplatysmal location. However, it might be safer and faster to go to a deeper plane, elevating the deep fascia and/or the facial vessels and using them to protect the nerve. Dissection above the platysma laterally will also avoid nerve injury.

## Cervical branch

The cervical branch of the facial nerve primarily supplies the platysma. It has received little attention in the literature, as injury of this nerve may pass unnoticed. However, such injury may cause weakness of the lower lip depressors, which is often confused with injury to the mandibular nerve (marginal mandibular nerve pseudoparalysis).<sup>82,83</sup> However, mentalis function differentiates the two conditions, as it is preserved in cases of cervical branch injury.

The cervical nerve exits the parotid gland and passes 1–15 mm behind the angle of the mandible. It then passes forwards, in the subplatysmal plane 1–4.5 cm below the border of the mandible.<sup>84</sup> The cervical nerve is often composed of more than one branch. It may communicate with the marginal mandibular nerve (which might explain the lower lip asymmetry after its injury), and consistently communicates with the transverse cervical nerve, although this latter communication is currently of little significance.<sup>66,85</sup>

## Connection with sensory nerves

Several authors have noticed connections between the branches of the facial nerve with sensory nerves, including the infraorbital, mental nerves, and transverse cervical nerves.<sup>72,84,86-88</sup> The exact clinical importance of this finding is yet to be seen.

## The scalp

The five layers of the scalp are well known by the mnemonic SCALP:

- Skin
- Connective tissue
- Galea Aponeurotica
- Loose areolar tissue
- Pericranium.

The galea aponeurotica is also known as the epicranial aponeurosis and corresponds to the SMAS in the face. Peculiar to the scalp is the tight connection of the skin to the galea by a dense network of connective tissue fibers. This makes separation of the skin from the galea difficult (similar to the palm) and bloody. In addition, this lattice of connective tissue stents the vessels open which, combined with the scalp's rich vascularity, leads to profuse bleeding.

The galea is a dynamic structure, being controlled by the frontalis muscle anteriorly and the occipitalis posteriorly. The skin moves together with the galea due to their tight attachment. This is important in brow rejuvenation where weaken-

ing of the brow depressor muscles allows the epicranial aponeurosis to move backwards leading to elevation of the brow.

The loose areolar tissue between the galea and the periosteum is also referred to as the subgaleal fascia. This fascia is loose especially over the vertex of the scalp, allowing a quick dissection with minimal bleeding. It becomes more dense closer to the supra orbital rims. Most surgeons consider this layer as a potential dissection "plane" rather than a discrete "layer".<sup>8,89</sup> However, it has been shown to be a distinct layer that can be elevated independently as a vascularized flap.<sup>90</sup> This is especially possible closer to the zygomatic arch and the supraorbital rims where this layer is more substantial. It is formed histologically of multiple lamina, with most of the vasculature along the superficial and the deep lamina.<sup>33,91,92</sup>

The pericranium is simply the periosteum of the skull bones and is tightly adherent to normal sutures but easily dissected over the flat skull bones. It can be elevated as a separate flap for various uses, although once separated from the skull bones it significantly retracts.<sup>93,94</sup>

Five arteries supply the scalp. From the front, there is the supraorbital artery and the supratrochlear artery (branches of the ophthalmic artery from the internal carotid artery), the superficial temporal artery from the side, and the posterior auricular and the occipital arteries form the back (the latter three arteries arise from the external carotid artery). In general, these vessels run along the galea as they enter the periphery of the scalp. At this level, they give multiple perforating branches to the deeper subgaleal fascia. Closer to the vertex, most of the vessels become more superficial, anastomosing with the contralateral vessels. This explains why scalp flaps (formed of skin and galea with an intact subdermal plexus) can be safely extended across the midline, while pure galeal flaps cannot.<sup>95</sup>

The nerve supply of the anterior part of the scalp is by four branches of the trigeminal nerve: supratrochlear nerve (STN), supraorbital nerve (SON), zygomaticotemporal nerve (ZTN), and the auriculotemporal nerve. The posterior part of the scalp (roughly behind the level of the auricle) is supplied by four branches of the cervical nerves (C2 and C3): the great auricular nerve, the lesser occipital nerve, the greater occipital nerve, and the third occipital nerve.

## The musculature

In general, the muscles of the forehead and eyebrow are arranged in three planes: the superficial plane right under the skin formed by the frontalis, procerus, and the orbicularis oculi; the deep plane formed by the corrugators; and an intermediate plane formed by the depressor supercillii (Fig. 1.11).

## Frontalis, galeal fat pad, and the glide plane

The frontalis muscle originates from the galea aponeurosis and inserts distally (inferiorly) into the eyebrow skin interdigitating with the procerus, corrugator, and the orbicularis oculi. Just above the nasion, both frontalis muscles are contiguous with each other. At a variable point (1.5–6 cm) above the level of the superior orbital rim, the muscles diverge, with the medial borders becoming connected by an extension of



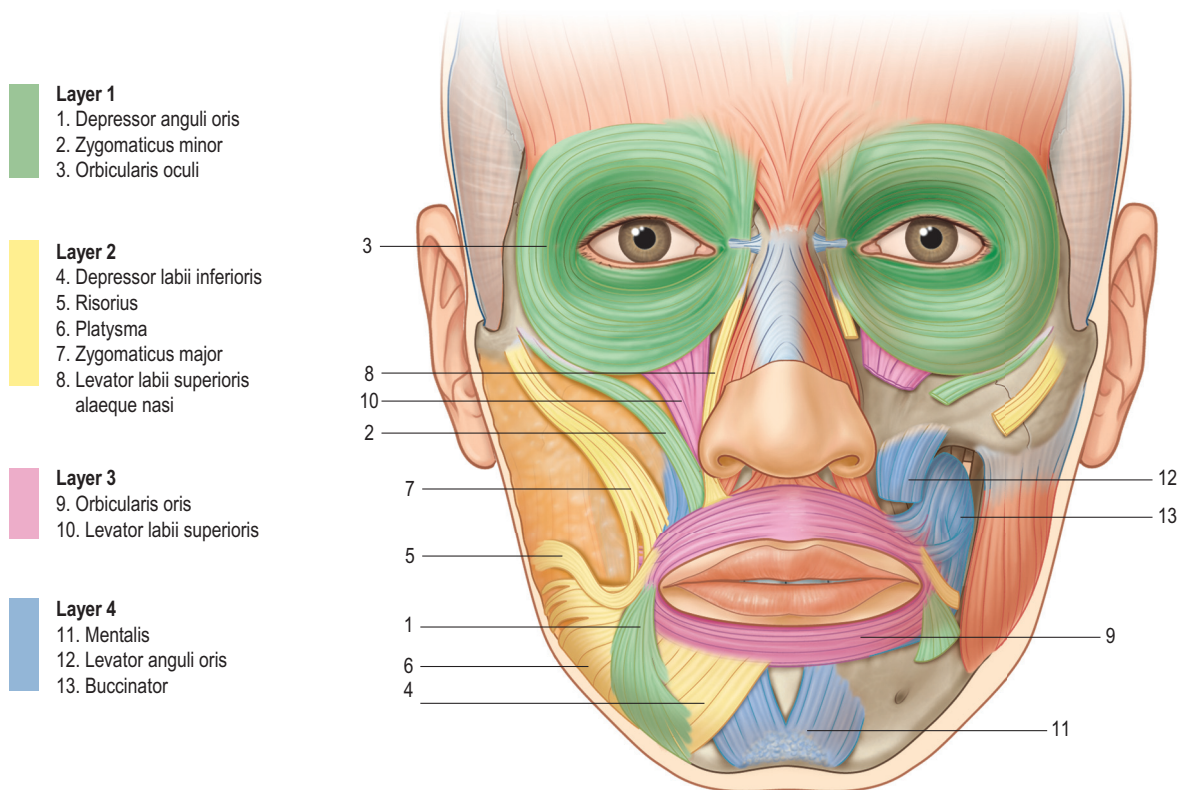


Fig. 1.11 Muscles of facial expression.

the galea aponeurotica.<sup>96</sup> This divergence point is higher in females. This is important when injecting botulinum toxin for treatment of forehead rhytides.

Deep to the frontalis at the level of the eyebrows is the galeal fat pad, a band of fibroadipose tissue that is frequently encountered in brow lift procedures.<sup>97</sup> This fat pad extends for 2–2.5 cm above the supraorbital rims being intimately related to the corrugator muscles. Between the galeal fat pad and the periosteum is the glide plane space, which allows mobility of the brow over the underlying bone. Similar to the SMAS in the face, the galea aponeurotica in the scalp seems to split to cover both deep and the superficial surfaces of the frontalis. At the level of the supraorbital rim, the fascia covering the deep surface of the frontalis becomes more adherent to the periosteum, sealing the galeal fat pad and the glide plane space above it from the eyelids. It is possible that the weakness of these attachments may be predisposed to brow ptosis, especially laterally.<sup>98,99</sup>

## Corrugators

The anatomy of the corrugators has gained significance recently, with the realization of its role in browlift, migraine surgery and treatment of forehead rhytides. This renewed interest has led to multiple anatomical studies reporting that the muscle is larger than originally described.<sup>100,101</sup> The muscle originates from the supraorbital ridge and passes obliquely upwards and laterally to insert into the skin of the eyebrow. Usually described as being comprised of a transverse and an oblique head, Park *et al.* found that this distinction is not clear

and described the muscle as being formed of three or four parallel muscle groups with loose areolar tissue in between.<sup>100</sup> Janis *et al.* similarly found that both heads are indistinguishable shortly after their origin.<sup>102</sup> In all cases, the muscle fibers blend together laterally and become more superficial. Medial to the SON, the corrugator is clearly separated from the overlying frontalis/orbicularis oculi muscle. However, it becomes more superficial laterally near its insertion blending with the frontalis. This close interdigitation with the orbicularis explains the difference in description of the anatomy in this region between the different authors. Intraoperatively, the corrugator can be recognized by its parallel oblique fibers, darker color, and deeper location, as opposed to the orbicularis oculi which is more superficial and inferior, is lighter in color, and has a circular orientation of the fibers.

The muscle origin is approximately 2.5 cm in width and 1 cm in height, starting a few millimeters lateral to the midline and reaching almost to the level of the SON.<sup>100</sup> The muscle then passes laterally to insert in the skin of the eyebrow, reaching as far as the lateral third of the eyebrow. Janis *et al.* found that the most lateral extension of the muscle is 43 mm from the midline and 7 mm medial to the lateral orbital rim, while the most superior extension is 33 mm cephalad to the level of the nasion.

The nerve supply of the corrugator is probably from both the frontal (temporal) and the zygomatic divisions of the facial nerve.<sup>72,76,102,103</sup> The branch(es) from the frontal nerve enter the muscle from its lateral end, and hence the importance of complete muscle excision lateral to the SON so as not to leave intact innervated muscle. The zygomatic (or upper



buccal) division sends a nerve that travels cranially along the side of the nose to innervate the nasalis followed by the procerus and the corrugator.<sup>72,103</sup>

## Procerus

This small muscle arises from the nasal bone and the upper lateral cartilages and ascends superiorly to insert into the glabellar skin between the eyebrows, blending with frontalis along the medial ends of the eyebrow.<sup>104</sup> Contraction of the procerus produces transverse glabellar rhytides.

## Depressor supercilii

This small muscle lies between the orbicularis oculi and the corrugators, although some authors consider it part of either muscle.<sup>99,105–107</sup> It arises from the frontal process of the maxilla 2–5 mm below the frontomaxillary suture, slightly posterior and superior to the posterior lacrimal crest.<sup>105</sup> Daniel and Landon described it as running vertically between the pale circular orbicularis oculi more superficially and the brownish transverse corrugator lying in a deeper plane.<sup>106</sup> It finally inserts into the dermis of the medial eyebrow.

## Midfacial muscles

From lateral to medial, the zygomaticus major, zygomaticus minor, and the levator labii superioris originate from the anterior surface of the maxilla (see Fig. 1.11). Their line of origin is a curved line, convex downwards, with the medial limit higher than the lateral end. These muscles form the floor of the prezygomatic space and are covered by a fascial membrane that is more stout superiorly, being around 2–3 mm thick. This fascial membrane is identified by its pale color and coarse lobulation. The levator labii superioris origin reaches the inferior orbital rim while the zygomaticus major origin is separated from the inferior orbital rim by the front of the body of the zygoma. The three muscles insert into the substance of the upper lip.

The levator labii superioris alaeque nasi originates from the frontal process of the maxilla. Its fibers pass downwards and laterally to insert into the lower lateral cartilage of the nose and the upper lip.

The levator anguli oris arises from the maxilla below the orbital foramen lying deep to the lip elevators. It is one of the few facial muscles innervated on their superficial surface.

The depressor labii inferioris and the depressor anguli oris are continuous with the platysma and draw the lip downwards and laterally.

The mentalis is a thick small muscle that is important in exposure of the mandible and in chin surgery. It arises from the buccal surface of the mandible over the roots of the incisors and inserts into the chin. Repair of the mentalis is vital after buccal incisions to prevent chin ptosis.

## Muscles of mastication

The four muscles of mastication, the temporalis, masseter, and lateral and medial pterygoids, are mostly present in the temporal and infratemporal fossae and control mandibular movement during speech and mastication. Being derivatives

of the first pharyngeal arch, they are all supplied by the mandibular division of the trigeminal nerve.

## The temporalis muscle

The temporalis arises from the bony floor of the temporal fossa, with attachments to the deep surface of the deep temporal fascia. It passes deep to the zygomatic arch to insert into the coronoid process of the mandible and the anterior border of the ramus of the mandible almost down to the third molar tooth. It receives its blood supply from the anterior and posterior deep temporal arteries, arising from the maxillary artery and supplying the muscle through its deep surface.<sup>108</sup> It receives secondary blood supply from the middle temporal artery, which arises from the superficial temporal artery near the zygomatic arch and travels along the deep temporal fascia. Based on its dominant deep pedicle, the muscle's arc of rotation is at the zygomatic arch, and can be rotated as a flap for coverage of the orbit, upper cheek, and ear.<sup>109,110</sup> The muscle is also frequently used for facial reanimation.

## The masseter muscle

This strong muscle arises from the lower border and inner surface of the zygomatic arch by two heads: a superficial head from the anterior two-thirds of the arch and a deep head forms the posterior third. The superficial head descends downwards and backwards, while the deep head descends vertically downwards. Both heads then insert together at the lateral and inferior surfaces of the mandible.

## The medial pterygoid muscle

The medial pterygoid muscle arises by two heads: a small superficial head from the maxillary tubercle behind the last molar and a deep large head from the medial surface of the medial pterygoid. Both heads run downwards and backwards to insert on the inner surface of the angle of the mandible. In mandibular fractures the action of this muscle is responsible for the upwards and forwards movement of the posterior segment.

## The lateral pterygoid muscle

This muscle also has two heads, a smaller upper head from the infratemporal surface and ridge of the greater wing of the sphenoid, and a lower larger head from the lateral surface of the lateral pterygoid plate. The fibers pass backwards to insert into the anterior surface of the neck of the mandible and the capsule of the temporomandibular joint. Some of the fibers pierce the capsule to attach to the intra-articular disc. In condylar fractures, this muscle is responsible for the displacement of the mandibular condyle, while in Le Fort fractures, the muscle pulls the maxillary segment downwards and backwards resulting in premature contact of the molar and resulting in an anterior open bite.

## Actions of muscle of mastication

Together, these muscles control most of the movements of the mandible. Elevation of the mandible is achieved by the temporalis and the masseter, while the pterygoids protract the mandible and move it to the contralateral side.

## The pterygomasseteric sling

The masseter and the medial pterygoid insert respectively into the lateral and medial surfaces of the lower edge of the mandible near the mandibular angle. These insertions are connected to each other by the pterygomasseteric sling, a fibrous raphe extending around the mandibular border and connecting both insertions.<sup>111</sup> Disruption of this raphe will lead to an unaesthetic upward retraction of the masseter, most visible on clinching the jaws.<sup>112</sup>

## The aesthetic importance of the masseter and the temporalis muscle

Atrophy, hypertrophy, or displacement of either the masseter or the temporalis can be aesthetically bothersome. Masseter hypertrophy leads to an increased bigonial angle, although most cases of benign masseteric hypertrophy (BMH) are actually caused by a laterally positioned mandibular ramus and not by a true hypertrophy of the muscle. Deformities of the temporalis muscle are more common, and are usually iatrogenic due to improper resuspension of the origin of the muscle during a coronal incision leading to retraction of the muscle inferiorly. This leads to a visible bulge above the zygoma and a depression near the origin of the muscle. Repair of the atrophy or displacement of the masseter and the temporalis often involves the use of alloplastic implants, as the muscles cannot usually be stretched to their original lengths.

## The sensory innervation

The anatomy of the sensory nerves and their relation to the surrounding muscles has gained significant importance with

the recognition of their role in the aetiology of migraine headaches.<sup>113,114</sup> Knowledge of the anatomy of these nerves is also important both to avoid iatrogenic injury and for local anesthetic blocks.<sup>115,116</sup> In general, the face is supplied by the three divisions of the trigeminal nerve (through three branches from each division), with the scalp receiving additional supply from the cervical superficial spinal nerves (Fig. 1.12; see Fig. 1.9).

The frontal division of the trigeminal nerve supplies the upper eyelid, forehead, and a large portion of the scalp through three branches: the supraorbital, supratrochlear, and the infratrochlear nerves (Fig. 1.13A; see Fig. 1.12). The first two are particularly important due to their role in triggering frontal migraine and the possibility of their injury during forehead and eyebrow rejuvenation.<sup>114</sup> In addition, successful anesthetic blocks of the SON can effectively anesthetize large areas of the scalp.

The SON exits the orbit through either a notch or foramen located at the level of the medial limbus.<sup>117</sup> There is significant variation in its exit point,<sup>114,117–123</sup> which can be a notch, a foramen, or a canal. This point of emergence is approximately 25–30 mm from the midline. It is usually a few millimeters above the orbital rim but can be up to 19 mm above it.<sup>118–121</sup> The nerve then divides into a superficial (medial) and a deep (lateral) branch. The superficial division passes superficial to the frontalis to supply the forehead skin.<sup>114</sup> The larger deep division, which is more prone to iatrogenic injury, passes cephalad in a more lateral location. As its name suggests, it is in a deeper plane lying between the galea and the periosteum.<sup>122,123</sup> It passes upwards 1 cm medial to the temporal fusion line, and supplies sensation to the frontoparietal scalp. Forehead dissection is safer in the subperiosteal plane as opposed to a subgaleal (subfrontalis) plane which places the deep branch of the SON in risk.<sup>124</sup>

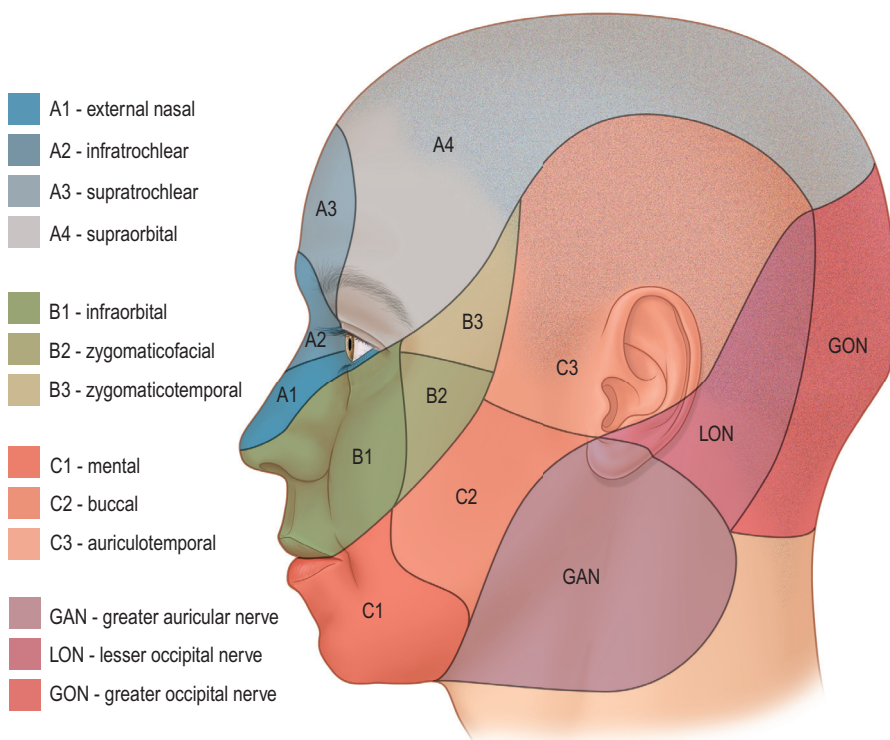


Fig. 1.12 The sensory supply of the face.