

NEW ERA OF SYMPATHECTOMY

Essay

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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

"سَنُرِيهِمْ آيَاتِنَا فِي الْآفَاقِ وَفِي أَنْفُسِهِمْ حَتَّى يَتَبَيَّنَ لَهُمْ
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Introduction

Introduction

Introduction

The sympathetic division of the autonomic nervous system is the portion that equips the body to respond maximally during crisis conditions. Such reflexes, which prepare the individual for "fight or flight," include papillary dilation, deepened respiration, increased heart rate, and cutaneous vasoconstriction (*Willd-ris and Rengachary, 1996*).

Surgeons first employed sympathectomy during, the last decade of the 19th Century. At that time, Jonnesco performed cervical ganglionectomies for the treatment of epilepsy, exophthalmic goiter and (somewhat later), angina pectoris. During these same years, Jaboulay and later LeRiche carried out sympathectomies for the relief of trophic ulcers in the lower extremity. Further interest in the operation was stimulated by the work of Royleand Hunter, who believed that sympathectomy would relieve spasticity. Although their theory was proved erroneous, observations of the patients who undergone sympathectomy led to increased use for the operation for vasoactive disease. Subsequently, this procedure was used to treat a wide variety of conditions, including angina pectoris, hypertension, and vascular disease of large and small vessels. Currently, many of these conditions are no longer indication for sympathectomy, probably because new methods of treatment have been developed as in the case of angina pectoris and hypertension (*Bunker et al., 2002*).

Although the early enthusiasm for sympathectomy has waned, as in cases of spastisty, epilepsy, transient cerebral ischemia, migraine, hypertension, angina pectoris, and glaucoma. Nevertheless, sympathectomy remains as a uniquely effective treatment for a number of distressing

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disorders as in cases of causalgia, essential hyperhidrosis, vascular occlusive states, Raynaud's disease and visceral pain (pancreatic carcinoma, chronic pancreatitis), and shoulder-hand syndrome (*Willd-ris and Rengachary, 1996*).

At present, the use of sympathectomy is limited to a handful of conditions, but remains an important surgical technique because it is uniquely effective in hyperhidrosis, major causalgia, and some forms of minor causalgia, shoulder hand syndrome and certain pain of visceral origin. sympathectomy is also used for the treatment of ischemic ulceration, Raynaud's phenomenon, rest pain, and other sequelae of vascular insufficiency (*Rapee and Spence, 2004*).

A variety of surgical techniques have been described for sympathetic denervation. These include: (1) preganglionic cervicodorsal sympathectomy, either through: supraclavicular, transaxillary anterior transpleural (Thoracotomy) and several posterior thoracic approaches. (2) operative method for lumbar sympathectomy. (3) Endoscopic method. (4) percutaneous radiofrequency sympathectomy. (5) chemical method (*Saeed et al., 2006*).

Historical Review

Historical Review

Galen's many contributions to the field of anatomy include the earliest history of the sympathetic nervous system. A text published in 1028 describes a nerve trunk along the rib heads that communicates with the spinal cord. He also noted three enlargements along this nerve trunk and described a ganglion at the entrance of the nerve into the abdomen. Although Galen erroneously thought this nerve was a branch of the vagus nerve, he initiated a concept that sympathy or consent existed between different parts of the body. Later anatomists described the vagus nerve and sympathetic trunk as a single functional entity until *Estienne* () correctly identified them as individual anatomical structures. *Window* () was the first to term the paravertebral chain "the great sympathetic nerve." Later, *Whytt* () wrote that all sympathy or consent must be referred to the central nervous system (CNS) initially, because it occurred between body parts without interconnecting nerves (*Bonica, 1953*).

The 19th century brought meticulous and extensive dissections by men like *Bichat, Ehrenberg, Red, Meissner, and Auerbach*. Numerous publications during this period helped to essentially complete the anatomical understanding of the sympathetic nervous system. *Lengley* and *Dickinson* (1889) proposed the name autonomic nervous system and differentiated the functional effects of the thoracolumbar and craniosacral outflows, subsequently naming the latter system parasympathetic (*Bonica, 1968*).

The beginning of the 20th century brought extensive research examining the role of sympathetic nerves and the transmission of visceral

pain. **Jonnesco** first demonstrated that visceral pain in humans was transmitted by the sympathetic nervous system when he resected the stellate ganglion and successfully relieved a patient of angina pectoris (**White and Sweet et al.**, 1955).

Whereas **Koller** first demonstrated the local anesthetic properties of cocaine in 1884, **Sellheim** first used a Paravertebral approach in 1900 to inject somatic Spinal nerves of surgical anesthesia. Techniques were later refined to allow blocks of parts of the sympathetic nervous system. **Kappis** and others in 1923 began to use Paravertebral sympathetic blocks as a therapeutic measure for severe pain and certain visceral pain (**Bonica**, 1968).

During the 1920s, **Leriche** studied the function of the stellate ganglion and subsequently reported superb pain relief from causalgia and reflex sympathetic dystrophy with stellate ganglion blocks in the upper extremities and lumbar sympathetic blocks in the lower extremities. A large group of patients injured in World War II, with causalgia and reflex sympathetic dystrophy were successfully managed with sympathetic nerve blocks (**Rauck**, 2000).

Stellate ganglionectomy for the treatment of epilepsy was performed over sympathectomy by periarterial stripping, as reported by **Jaboulay** 1899 and **Leriche** in 1913 become popular for the treatment of vasospastic disorders of the extremities. Although **Leriche** reported lower extremities hyperemia following this form of sympathectomy (**Bay and Dohn**, 1996).

Tivlkinson described posterior percutaneous radiofrequency ablation of the thoracic ganglia which was subsequently performed by **C'huang** and colleague stereotactically in 1988. The transsthoracic approach to the upper sympathetic chain using video assisted endoscopic techniques is a well

tolerated and effective method to disrupt the sympathetic supply to the upper extremities, and likely to replace other more invasive open posterior or anterior surgical procedures (*Wilkinson, 1991*).

The debate over the extent of tissue that must be removed for adequate sympathectomy has been at least as active as that over the appropriate approach for the operation in the past, treatment failures have been attributed to hypersensitivity for epinephrine following denervation that might be an incomplete denervation or the development of collateral pathways, as a result multiple versions of upper extremity sympathectomy have been proposed (*Rothenthal and Dickman et., 1999*).

Recent clinical and Laboratory findings indicate that T₂ ganglionectomy is likely sufficient to treat palmer hyperhydrosis. If the hyperhydrosis includes the axilla, the T₂ and possibly T₃ and T₄ ganglia should be removed as well. To treat minor causalgia or hyperhydrosis affecting the upper extremity, removal T₂ and T₃ ganglia along with the adjacent sympathetic nerve fibers. Removal of stellate ganglion rarely improves outcome, and it leads to Homer's syndrome in most cases. For Other disorders that respond to disruption of the sympathetic outflow respond at least partially to removal or ablation of the sympathetic chain and the T₂ to T₄ ganglia (*Bay and Dohn, 1996*).

Since World War II, refinements have continued in nerve block techniques used in the sympathetic nervous system. Needle design has improved, new local anesthetics have been developed, and a rebirth of interest in regional anesthetic techniques has helped to popularize the clinical use of sympathetic nerve blocks (*Rauck, 2000*).