

CHRONIC LEG ULCERS
THE SIS
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REVIEW OF LITERATURE

(1): AIM OF THE WORK

Ulceration of the lower extremities is common in surgical practice. They present as diagnostic and therapeutic problems. The aetiology of the ulcers varies. It may be due to arterial insufficiency or venous stasis. Infection plays a role in these ulcers, which may be fungal or bacterial. Trauma, Tumors and underlying metabolic disorders may be one of the Causes.

Gonin, (1963) stated that 70 % of his patients has associated vascular conditions such as varicose veins or a history of thrombophlebitis.

Lofgren, (1965) described stasis ulcer as a distressing and disabling complication of chronic venous insufficiency.

Taylor and cotton, (1973) described stasis ulcer as an open defect in the skin and subcutaneous tissues brought on by venous congestion. Synonyms are varicose, postphlebitic, indolent, Gravitational venous and simply leg ulcer.

Roennick and Young, (1975) described stasis ulcer as occlusive disease of large and medium sized veins and is the cause of 90 % of chronic leg ulcers.

We are going to discuss the different aetiological factors, and the pathology of chronic leg ulcers.

Investigations of cases will be done to reach diagnosis.

Different methods of treatment will be discussed in this work.

The Venous System of the Lower
Limb

The lower limb has three anatomically and functionally distinguishable sets of veins :-

1. Subcutaneous (Superficial). These have relatively thick, muscular walls. The major trunks run in tunnels, created by a condensation of the superficial fascia and lined by areolar tissue. Each limb has two major superficial systems of veins that intercommunicate freely with each other as well as with the deep veins. Each superficial system ends by penetrating the deep fascia to enter a major deep vein.
2. Deep (intermuscular, intramuscular) These have thin, scantily muscled walls. The intermuscular veins accompany named arteries, taking the form of a plexus below the level of the knee, and forming a single major vein toward the root of the limb.
3. Perforating (Communicating) veins, These, too, are thin walled. They pass through the deep fascia to link the superficial and deep sets of veins.

The great saphenous vein begins at a point midway between the medial malleolus and the tendon of the

tibialis anterior muscle, and ends by passing through an opening in the deep fascia (fossa ovalis) to enter the femoral vein at a fairly constant site 3 cm. Lateral to, and 3 cm below, the pubic tubercle. The trunk of the great saphenous vein is sometimes reduplicated (Particularly in the lower thigh), and there may be a double entry into the femoral vein. In the last 5cm of its course the great saphenous vein receives a variable number of subcutaneous tributaries : pudendal, epigastric, circumflex iliac, and medial and lateral femoral.

In the leg, the great saphenous vein is closely accompanied by the saphenous nerve. Just below the knee it usually receives a major tributary (Sometimes called the posterior arch vein) this collects blood from a complex of veins overlying the posteromedial aspect of the calf, and has multiple communications with the deep system. Both below and above the knee the great Saphenous vein receives tributaries that run upward and medially from the small saphenous vein. Throughout its course the great saphenous vein is closely accompanied by lymphatic trunks.

Below the knee, numerous perforating veins join tributaries of the great saphenous vein to the deep veins

of the leg. The most important from the surgical point of view is the medial set, which joins the posterior arch complex of veins to the venae comitantes of the posterior tibial artery, and the anteromedial set running close to the periosteum of the tibia. An anterolateral set enters the anterior tibial vein. In the thigh, a perforating vein often joins the great saphenous vein (or a tributary) to the femoral vein (or its subsartorial tributary).

The small saphenous vein begins at a point midway between the Achilles tendon and the posterior border of the lateral malleolus. It passes almost vertically to the middle of the popliteal fossa, accompanied by the sural nerve and by lymphatics. It penetrates the deep fascia at about the middle of the leg. It usually enters the deep system (the popliteal vein) in the middle of the popliteal fossa, but the precise level is variable. A posterolateral set of perforating veins joins its tributaries to the peroneal vein, while less constant perforating veins enter calf muscle veins.

At the root of the lower limb there are alternative routes for venous drainage from the skin, by way of the internal pudendal vein (Scrotum, Vulva) and through

the gluteal veins (thigh below the gluteal crease) ultimately these drain into the internal iliac vein.

The popliteal vein is formed from the plexiform venae comitantes of the three main branches of the popliteal artery and then is joined by the veins draining the gastrocnemius and soleus muscles to constitute a single (or sometimes double) Vessel behind the artery. The gastrocnemial and soleal veins are so large and tortuous that the latter have been termed (Soleal venous sinuses).

The peroneal veins are quite small in the distal third of the leg and run deep to the flexor hallucis origin from the fibula in close relation to the interosseous membrane. In this region they receive a fairly constant large lateral perforating vein which as it winds round the fibula receives a tributary from the soleus muscles. In the upper half of the leg the peroneal veins emerge from under the flexor hallucis muscle belly to lie in the posterior compartment and here they receive several large lax tributaries from the lateral aspect at the soleus muscle which rapidly convert them into large veins before they unite with posterior tibial veins in the formation of popliteal vein.

There is one large constant external perforating vein, this vein is called lateral or external ankle perforator. As it perforates the deep fascia, it receives a tributary from the lower part of the soleus muscle and winds round the fibular to joints the peroneal vein. The vessel is also significant for the point of vein of ulceration of the lower $\frac{1}{3}$ of the leg.

There is also a midcalf perforating vein draining directly into the soleus sinusoids in about 25 % of people. At the groin the femoral vein lies a little behind, as well as medial to, the corresponding artery. It receives its large deep femoral tributaries just below the point of entry of great saphenous vein.

Most veins possess valves : two flap cusps attached to a point of thickening of the vein wall (the valve ring). There is a dilatation of the vein wall immediately downstream from the valve ring (the valve sinus).

There are general rules about the frequency distribution of valves, and about the direction in which they face.

They tend to be located immediately distal to a point of entry of a major tributary, and the orifices of the

major tributaries themselves usually bear valves. In the limbs, valves usually directs blood flow from distal to proximal, and from superficial to deep.

Notable exceptions are the perforating veins of the feet in which flow is from deep to superficial valves occur with greater frequency distally in a line than proximally.

Minute venous drainage of skin of lower limb :

There is a capillary venous plexus immediatly below the epidermis which sends tufts of capillaries into the interpapillary spaces.

This subpapillary venous plexus is drained by a number of small veins into larger veins which lie deep in the subcutaneous tissue.

In the dermis these collecting veins anastomose freely, but as they pass through the layer of subcutaneous fat, they recieve a small number of veins, each one of which drains its own area of fatty subcutaneous tissues and is an end vein (that is to say it does not anastomose with other venules draining adjacent fat labules). Thus if one of the veins is thrombosed or if flow from it is hindered by local venous pressure (hypertension), the result can only be swelling and eventual necrosis of the labule of fat drained by it. The effect of local rise

of venous pressure on the subpapillary venous plexus and vessels in the dermis is to cause dilation of the plexus over the affected area and dilation of the capillary tufts.

It is not intended to be accurate representation in the vessels concerned but simply to show the differences between the venous trainage of the two capillary beds. The superficial layer is supplied by a capillary bed draining into a horizontal, reticular venous plexus which is inturn drained by vertical veins connecting with the main veins running deep in the subcutaneous fat and in the plane of the deep fascia.

The capillary bed supplying the deeper layers of the dermis and fat do not drain into a plexus but into labular veins which run directly into vertical veins.

The subepidermal venous plexus and its capillary bed acts as an escape volve for generall rises in the venous pressure in the skin and a diffuser of local ones by distension of the plexus and proliferation of the capillary bed.

The labular vascular supply of the deeper layers has not this ability to expanded and if the venous pressure rises severely in this field due to spasm or

thrombosis circulation ceases and necrosis occurs (Dodd and Cockett, 1976).

The lymphatic drainage of the lower limbs :

In each limb the rule applies that superficial lymphatics follow veins, while deep lymphatics follow arteries. The lymph is taken to lymph nodes lying in the groin.

The superficial lymphatics of the lower limb accompany the great and small saphenous veins. This is because particularly all the superficial tissues and skin of the lower limb drain to the groin along the route of the great saphenous vein, only a very small area of skin and subcutaneous tissues over the heel drains only along the small saphenous vein to the lymph nodes in the popliteal fossa.

The superficial lymphatics along the course of the great saphenous vein drain into nodes lying in a vertical chain along the termination of the vein.

The remaining nodes of the groin lying laterally and medially to the saphenous opening receive lymph from the lateral side of the trunk and from the back below the waist and from the anterior abdominal wall below umbilicus and perineum.