


Unit Objectives

- **Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to:**
 - Describe the epidemiology and etiology of extremity trauma.
 - Describe the normal anatomy and physiology of the extremities.
 - Discuss the pathophysiology, assessment findings, and management of sprains, dislocations, fractures, and amputations.
 - Explain the techniques of assessment of extremity injuries.
 - Describe the general principles of splinting.

Chapter 15. Extremity Trauma



2



Unit Objectives

- List the complications of extremity injuries.
- List the associated blood loss of various fracture sites.
- Explain the healing process of fractures.
- List and describe the various types of fractures.



Epidemiology and Etiology

- Most common discharge diagnosis in 1991 survey was fracture, representing 37 percent of all patients.
- 53 percent of all injuries reported in the National Health Interview Survey from 1985 to 1988 involved the musculoskeletal system.
- Fractures are more common in males than females under the age of 44, but there is a dramatic reversal after that age.
- In the elderly aged 85 and older, fractures are four times more common in females than males.

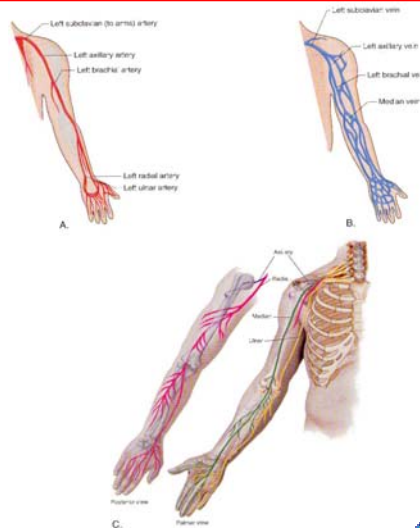
-
- AXIAL SKELETON**
- Frontal bone
 - Parietal bone
 - Occipital bone
 - Temporal bone
 - Temporomandibular joint
 - Maxilla
 - Mandible
 - Acromioclavicular joint
 - Glenohumeral joint
 - Clavicle (collarbone)
 - Ribs
 - Scapula (shoulder blade)
 - Humerus (arm bone)
 - Elbow
 - Forearm
 - Ulna
 - Radius
 - Sacrum
 - Iliacium
 - Coccyx (tail bone)
 - Carpals (wrist)
 - Metacarpals (hand)
 - Phalanges (fingers)
 - Femur (thigh bone)
 - Patella (knee cap)
 - Lower leg bones
 - Tibia
 - Fibula
 - Tarsals (ankle)
 - Metatarsals (foot)
 - Phalanges (toes)
 - Calcaneus (heel)
- AXIAL**
- APPENDICULAR**

-
- The image contains several anatomical diagrams of the human arm and hand bones, labeled A through F.
- A. Anterior View of Humerus:** Shows the humerus from the front. Labels include: Head of humerus, Tuberosity of lesser tuberosity, Greater tuberosity, Surgical neck, Anatomical neck, Proximal humeral joint, and Shaft.
 - B. Posterior View of Humerus:** Shows the humerus from the back. Labels include: Head of humerus, Tuberosity of greater tuberosity, Surgical neck, Anatomical neck, Distal humeral joint, and Shaft.
 - C. Metacarpals and Phalanges:** Shows the bones of the hand. Labels include: Phalanges (Distal, Middle, Proximal), Metacarpals (I-V), and Carpals (Trapezoid, Trapezoid, Capitate, Scaphoid).
 - D. Anterior View of Wrist and Hand:** Shows the bones of the wrist and hand. Labels include: Scaphoid, Lunate, Triquetrum, Pisiform, Trapezoid, Trapezoid, Capitate, Scaphoid, and Ulna.
 - E. Anterior View of Radius and Ulna:** Shows the radius and ulna. Labels include: Head of radius, Tuberosity of radius, Styloid process of radius, Distal radius, Head of ulna, and Shaft.
 - F. Anterior View of Radius and Ulna:** Shows the radius and ulna. Labels include: Head of radius, Tuberosity of radius, Styloid process of radius, Distal radius, Head of ulna, and Shaft.

Anatomy and Physiology continued

• Upper extremity continued

- Subclavian, axillary, brachial, radial, median, and ulnar arteries
- Radial, median, and ulnar nerves



Chapter 15. Extremity Trauma

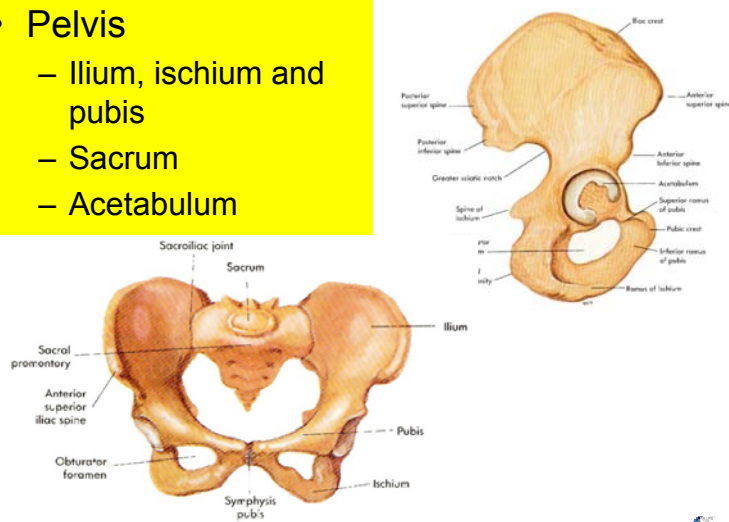


7

Anatomy and Physiology continued

• Pelvis

- Ilium, ischium and pubis
- Sacrum
- Acetabulum



Chapter 15. Extremity Trauma

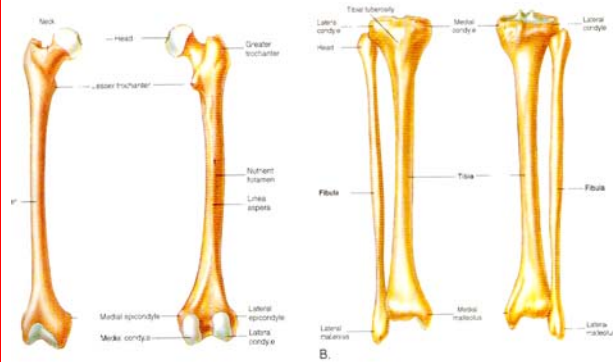


8

Anatomy and Physiology continued

• Lower extremity

- Femur, tibia, fibula, tarsals, metatarsals, phalanges
- Femoral, popliteal, anterior tibial, posterior tibial arteries
- Sciatic, tibial, and peroneal nerves



Focused Assessment

- **History**
 - Chief complaint
 - MOI
 - Magnitude, mechanism, and direction of forces
 - Patient position on arrival
- **Physical exam**
 - Inspection
 - Position, deformity, angulation, swelling, discoloration
 - Palpation
 - Deformity, tightness, crepitus, point tenderness, distal pulses, skin temperature, capillary refill
 - ROM - best left for emergency department



Focused Assessment continued

• Circulation

– Mechanisms

- Direct laceration, stretching, platelet aggregation with delayed occlusion

– Assess

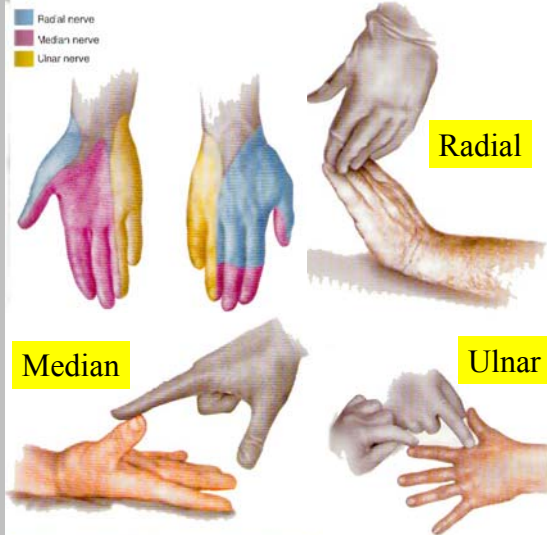
- Nail bed color, warmth of the skin, pulse strength
- Auscultation for bruits
- Doppler assessment for blood flow



Focused Assessment continued

• Sensory and motor function

- Evaluate before and after any intervention
- Sensory function
 - Light touch and two point discrimination (5 mm normal)
- Sensory testing of upper extremity
 - Axillary nerve lateral arm
 - Musculocutaneous lateral forearm
 - Radial thumb
 - Median index fingertip
 - Ulnar little fingertip





Focused Assessment continued

- **Sensory and Motor Function continued**

- Sensory testing of the lower extremity
 - femoral area superior and medial to patella
 - sciatic posterior thigh
- Motor testing of the upper extremity
 - axillary deltoid
 - suprascapular shoulder external rotation
 - musculocutaneous biceps
 - radial thumb extension
 - median index finger flexor



Focused Assessment continued

- Motor testing of the lower extremity
 - Femoral strength of knee extension
 - Sciatic paralysis of muscles distal to the knee
- Skeletal function
 - Stability, position, alignment, ligament vs. fracture
- Joint function
 - Palpate long bones beginning distally and crossing all joints
 - Active ROM
 - Passive ROM

Pathophysiology

• Amputations

- Arteries usually spasm and occlude unless a crushing injury.
- Tourniquets rarely required.
- Amputated tissue usually viable for reimplantation 14-18 hours post injury.
- Treat the patient then the amputation.
- Place amputated tissue in watertight bag and then on ice.
- Do not allow tissue to freeze or frostbite.



Pathophysiology continued

• Compartment syndrome

- Locally increased tissue pressure impedes circulation.
- Usually result of crushing injuries, burns, electrocution, fractures, snake bites and encapsulated hematomas.
- Lower leg and forearm are the most common sites.
- S&S
 - Severe pain out of proportion to the injury
 - Tight muscle compartment
 - Applied pressure, passive stretch, and active contraction increases pain
 - Pain, paresthesia, paralysis, puffiness, pallor, pulselessness
- Treatment
 - Emergency fasciotomy



Pathophysiology continued

- **Crush Injury and Crush Syndrome**

- Weight applied to tissue for several hours
- Muscle tissue releases myoglobin, potassium and phosphorous
- Results in hypovolemia and renal failure.
- Treatment
 - Release pressure
 - 500 cc/hr NaCl
 - Sodium Bicarbonate



Pathophysiology continued

- **Dislocations and sprains**

- Sternoclavicular joint
 - Rarely injured
 - May be anterior or posterior
 - May result from direct blow or from blow to the shoulder
 - Deformity usually palpable
 - Posterior dislocations usually associated with life-threatening chest trauma
 - Patients present with arm supported tightly against the body
 - Complain of pain with movement or palpation of joint
 - Treatment is figure-of-eight splint

Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

- Acromioclavicular joint (shoulder separation)
 - Most commonly result from MVC, contact sports and falls
 - Usually result from direct blow to the point of the shoulder or a fall onto an outstretched arm
 - May be relatively asymptomatic with no external evidence of injury or may present with severe pain, deformity, and adduction of the arm close to the body.
 - Treatment is immobilization with sling and swathe



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

- Glenohumeral joint (shoulder dislocation)
 - Most frequently dislocated major joint
 - May dislocate anteriorly, posteriorly, inferiorly, or superiorly
 - Regardless of type, treated with sling and swathe
 - Anterior
 - Severe pain with arm abducted and externally rotated with prominent acromion process
 - Neurovascular damage occurs in up to 12 percent of cases



Subcoracoid



Subglenoid



Subclavicular



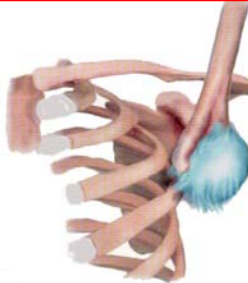
Intrathoracic

Pathophysiology continued

Posterior



Inferior



• Dislocation and sprains continued

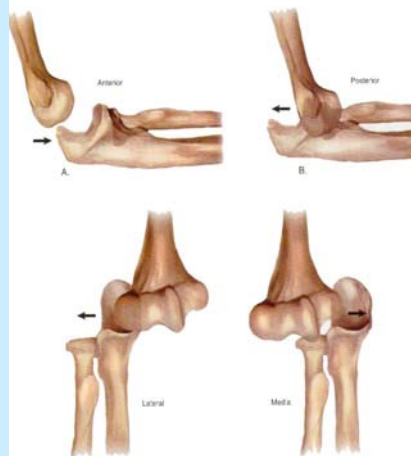
- Glenohumeral dislocation continued
 - Posterior
 - Severe pain, adduction and internal rotation, prominent acromion and coracoid processes
 - Palpable humeral head
 - Inferior
 - Arm locked overhead with elbow flexed and hand either on or behind the head



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

- Elbow
 - Mostly posterior dislocations, although anterior, medial or lateral are possible
 - 40 percent are associated with fractures of adjacent bony structures
 - Patient presents with elbow locked in flexion, shortening of the forearm, and marked prominence of the olecranon
 - Neurovascular injury occurs in up to 21 percent of patients
 - If distal neurocirculatory function intact, immobilize in the position found with board or wire ladder splint



Pathophysiology continued

- **Dislocations and sprains continued**

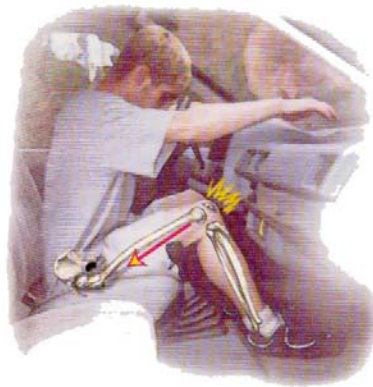
- Radiocarpal dislocation (wrist)
 - Usually results from fall onto a dorsiflexed wrist, although falls onto palmar flexed wrist are also possible.
 - All bones in the wrist are readily palpable and tenderness and swelling indicate fracture or dislocation.
 - Important to assess neurovascular function as these structures are very superficial and prone to injury.
 - Use splint of choice followed by sling and swathe.



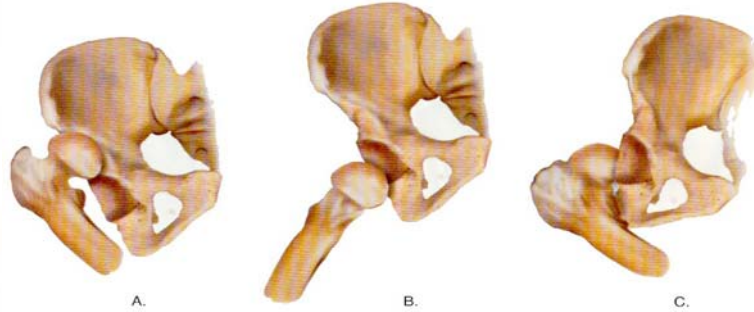
Pathophysiology continued

- **Dislocations and sprains continued**

- Hip
 - Requires tremendous force, usually the result of MVC
 - Posterior
 - Most common (90%) and usually result of MVC with down-and-under pathway
 - Shortened, flexed, adducted, and internally rotated extremity
 - 50% accompanied by fractures



Pathophysiology continued



• Sprains and dislocations continued

– Hip

• Anterior

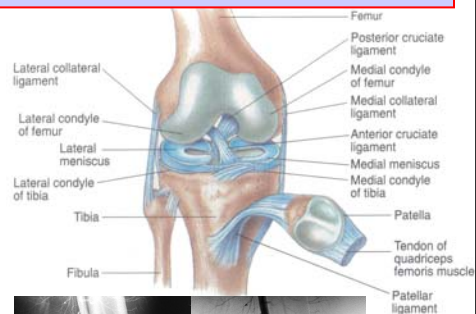
- Superior iliac, superior pubic, and inferior obturator
- External rotation and abduction with slight flexion
- Femoral head is palpable in the anterosuperior iliac spine or below the femoral artery
- Splint in the position found if neurovascular function intact

Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

– Knee

- Hinge joint with a ROM of 0 degrees in full extension to 130 degrees in full flexion
- Injury can be produced by only moderate amounts of energy
- Knee is inherently unstable; All stability is provided by surrounding ligaments
- Dislocation is a true orthopedic emergency because of the high rate of associated neurovascular injury
 - Vascular damage occurs in up to 40% of dislocations
 - Half of these will result in amputation

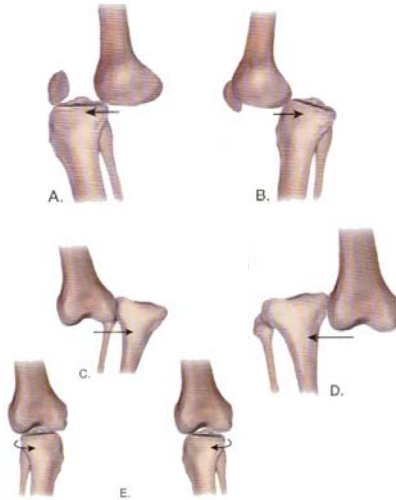


Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

– Knee continued

- 5 types of dislocation based upon resting position of tibia relative to femur
 - Anterior dislocations are most common; Usually result from hyperflexion
 - Posterior dislocations require great force and usually result from MVC
 - Medial dislocations require varus (toward the midline) forces
 - Lateral dislocations require valgus forces that tear the cruciates and medial ligaments
 - Rotary dislocations result from the femur twisting while the foot remains firmly planted



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

– Knee continued

- Patellar dislocations
 - Usually occur as a result of a twisting injury
 - Rarely results in neurovascular injury
- Some knee dislocations spontaneously reduce; History is very important
- Splint in position found if distal neurocirculatory function is intact.



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

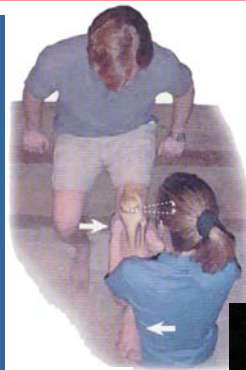
- Knee continued
 - Medical collateral ligament (MCL) sprain
 - Usually result from blow to outer part of the knee
 - Valgus stress tears MCL
 - Patient complains of medial knee pain and joint instability
 - To test the MCL, grasp the ankle and the knee and apply opposing forces (medial against the knee and lateral against the ankle) while visualizing and palpating the medial joint space.
 - A gap in the joint space or “clunk” when opposing forces are relived indicates MCL injury



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

- Knee continued
 - Lateral collateral ligament (LCL) sprain
 - Rarely injured
 - Results from varus stress
 - Patient complains of tenderness over the head of the fibula with lateral instability
 - To test the LCL, reverse the hand position used to test the MCL



Pathophysiology continued

- **Dislocations and sprains continued**

- Knee continued
 - Anterior cruciate ligament (ACL)
 - Most commonly injured ligament of the knee.
 - Usually results in non-contact sports when the foot is planted while running and the direction of travel is abruptly changed. May also result when a ski binding fails to release.
 - Patient will report a “pop” followed by joint instability.
 - Pain is variable as there are few pain fibers in the area.
 - When present, pain is located in the posteriolateral area.
 - Testing of the ACL is the same as for PCL except the direction of force is reversed.



Pathophysiology continued

- **Dislocations and sprains continued**

- Knee continued
 - Posterior cruciate ligament (PCL) sprain
 - Usually the result of sports injuries or MVC and accompanied by injury to other ligaments
 - Patient complains of posterior knee pain and may walk with knee flexed to avoid full extension
 - Ecchymosis and swelling may be observed in the posterior popliteal space
 - To test the PCL place the knee in a flexed position with the foot held flat against the ground. Grasp the knee below the patella and push the tibia backwards.
 - The PCL is probably damaged if the tibia slides backward on the femur



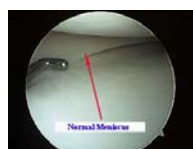
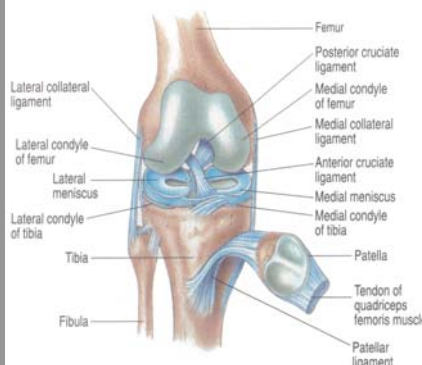
Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

– Knee continued

• Meniscus injury

- Menisci are 2 semilunar cartilages in the capsule of the knee joint which act as shock absorbers
- Medial meniscus is more commonly injured than the lateral
- The usual MOI is a twisting motion.
- Because of their limited blood supply, menisci do not heal well even when repaired.
- Damaged menisci lead to arthritic joint changes.
- Patient will complain of medial or lateral joint line tenderness with exacerbation of the pain at the extremes of normal knee motion.
- Often swelling is delayed and the joint remains stable, prompting the patient to continue activity immediately following the injury.
- If the meniscus is severely torn and becomes incarcerated within the joint space, the knee is locked in position.



Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

– Ankle

- Almost always accompanied by fractures of both malleoli.
- 4 types: posterior, anterior, upward, and lateral
- One of the most common musculoskeletal injuries.
- Anterior drawer test: firmly stabilize the tibia with one hand while pulling the foot forward with the other. Movement forward signifies a grade 3 disruption.
- Splint the foot and ankle in the position found if neurovascular function is intact.





Pathophysiology continued

• Dislocations and sprains continued

- Hindfoot
 - Occurs infrequently, usually the result of a fall
 - Calcaneus may be dislocated medially or laterally relative to the talus
- Midfoot
 - Occur with axial loading of the foot in maximum plantar flexion
 - Usually normally aligned with significant swelling and tenderness
- Toes
 - Uncommon, but can occur to the large toe with moderate force
 - May result from crush injuries
 - Generally dislocated laterally or medially



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures

- Bone is highly vascular and virtually all fractures will bleed.
- Fractures are almost always painful.
- Fractures may be open or closed.
 - Open fractures usually the result of bone ends puncturing the skin but may also be the result of a soft tissue injury that overlies a fracture (e.g., GSW)
- Fracture healing
 - Begins with a hematoma that bridges the bone ends, progresses to an inflammatory phase, and ends with remodeling.
 - Rate of healing is affected by the type of bone, degree of fracture, and systemic states

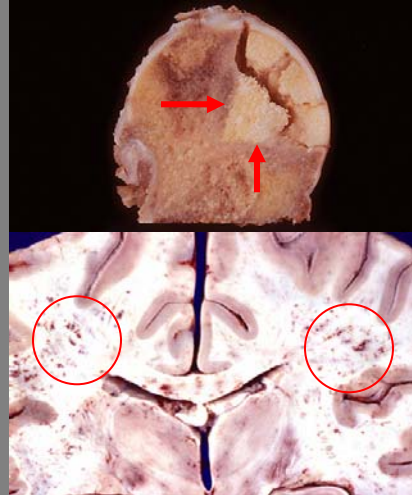


Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Complications of fractures

- Hemorrhage
- Nerve injury
- Compartment syndrome
- Contractures
- Avascular necrosis
- Fat embolism
- DVT
- Wound infection



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Scapula

- Well protected by muscle and soft tissue, thus requiring substantial force to fracture.
- Because of the amount of force required to produce scapular fracture, should be alert to chest and vertebral injury.
- Usually lacks deformity.
- S&S include ecchymosis, swelling, tenderness, difficulty raising the arm, and some respiratory difficulty with pleuritic pain on the side of injury.
- Splint with sling and swathe and spinal immobilization may be indicated.

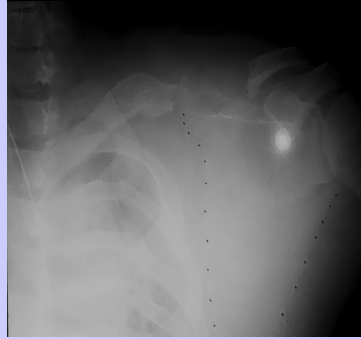


Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Clavicle

- Most frequently fractured bone.
 - Usually results from forces applied to the lateral aspect of the shoulder causing fracture of the middle third of the clavicle.
 - Fractures to the lateral third result from a direct blow to the top of the shoulder.
 - Fractures to the proximal third are relatively rare and are typically associated with direct blows to the chest.
 - The patient presents with the arm held close to the body with complaints of pain over the site.
 - Pain will increase with motion of the arm or shoulder.
 - Gentle palpation should identify the location of tenderness and thus, the fracture site.
 - Pneumothorax, brachial plexus or vascular injury may accompany the fracture.
 - Splint with figure-of-eight or sling and swathe.



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Humerus

- Proximal fracture
 - Usually result from direct forces or axial loads onto the elbow or outstretched arm.
 - Difficult to distinguish from a shoulder dislocation.
 - Patient presents with arm held closely to the body with pain, deformity, and crepitus.
 - Splint with board splint on posterolateral aspect of upper arm and sling and swathe.



Pathophysiology continued

• Humerus continued

- Midshaft fracture
 - Usually result from direct trauma from falls and MVC.
 - Usually have greater degree of deformity than proximal fractures.
 - Patient presents with pain, diminished ROM, shortening and rotation.
 - Splint with padded board or wire ladder with the elbow at 45 or 90 degrees of flexion, and sling and swathe.



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Humerus continued

- Distal fracture
 - Usually result from fall onto an outstretched hand or direct blow to the elbow.
 - Patient presents with pain, tenderness, swelling, exaggeration or absence of the normal olecranon prominence, abnormal position, and crepitus.
 - Immobilize with padded board or wire ladder and sling and swathe.



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

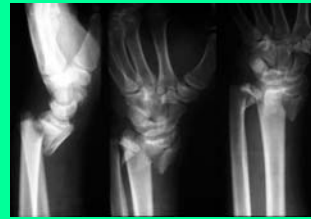
– Radius

- Usually results from direct blow to the forearm.
- Fracture involving the distal radius with dorsal displacement of the distal radius is referred to as Colles fracture.
- Smith fracture has volar displacement and may also be referred to as a "reverse Colles" fracture.
- Immobilize with a padded board splint or wire ladder splint, followed by a sling and swathe.



– Ulna

- Proximal fracture
 - Result from fall onto the posterior elbow.
 - Palpable gap may be located at the olecranon and an open fracture may be present.
 - Splint with hand in position of function.
- Ulnar shaft fracture
 - Frequently associated with fractures of the radius at the same level.



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Carpal (wrist)

- Occur because of significant rotational force or from falls on the hand.
- Pain, swelling, and decreased ROM are usual complaints.
- Splint with padded board, wire ladder, or pillow.
- Immobilize in the position found.

– Metacarpals

- Occurs from crushing injuries or direct blows.
- Tenderness, crepitus, and occasionally deformity are present.
- If adjacent digits are uninjured, splint by taping to adjacent digit.

– Phalanges

- Result from crushing injuries or when digits are caught in equipment.
- Deformity and crepitus make these injuries obvious.
- Splint by taping to uninjured neighboring digits.



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Pelvis

- Generally associated with falls (30%) and MVC (60%).
- Mortality ranges between 6% - 19%, but may be as high as 50% when associated with hypotension. Thus, hemorrhage should be suspected with any pelvic fracture.

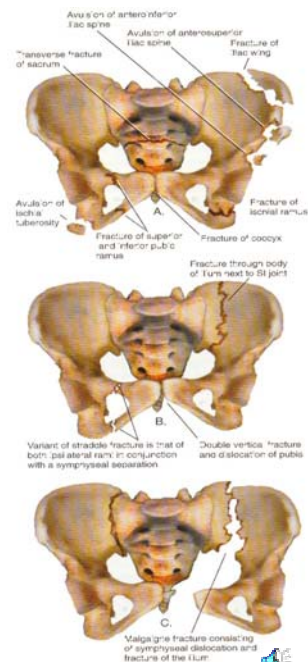


Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Pelvis continued

- Type I fractures
 - Generally stable, do not disrupt the pelvic ring, have the lowest incidence of associated injuries, and heal rapidly with bed rest.
- Type II fractures
 - Involve a single fracture of the pelvic ring
 - Mobility at the symphysis pubis allows single fracture; if completely rigid, would have fractures in 2 or more places.
- Type III fractures
 - Involve 2 or more fracture sites and are usually unstable.
 - Frequently associated with retroperitoneal hemorrhage, intraperitoneal injuries, and injury to the urinary bladder and urethra.
- Type IV fractures
 - Involves the acetabulum and are associated with hip dislocations or fractures.



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Pelvis continued

- Associated injuries

- Hemorrhage is the major cause of death in pelvic injuries, accounting for 65% of deaths from pelvic fractures.
 - Hemorrhage most frequently occurs with type III fractures and results from lacerations to the rich vascular network of the pelvis.
 - Veins of the pelvis are thin-walled and lack the ability to constrict to slow blood loss.
 - Bladder injuries may result depending upon the magnitude of blunt force applied, volume of urine within the bladder, and whether a pelvic fracture exists.
 - Urethral injury commonly associated with pelvic fracture.
 - Bowel and rectum may also be injured by bony fragments of the pelvis.



Pathophysiology continued



Type I- Fracture of individual bones without disruption of ring

Type II – Single break in pelvic ring

Type III – Double break in pelvic ring



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

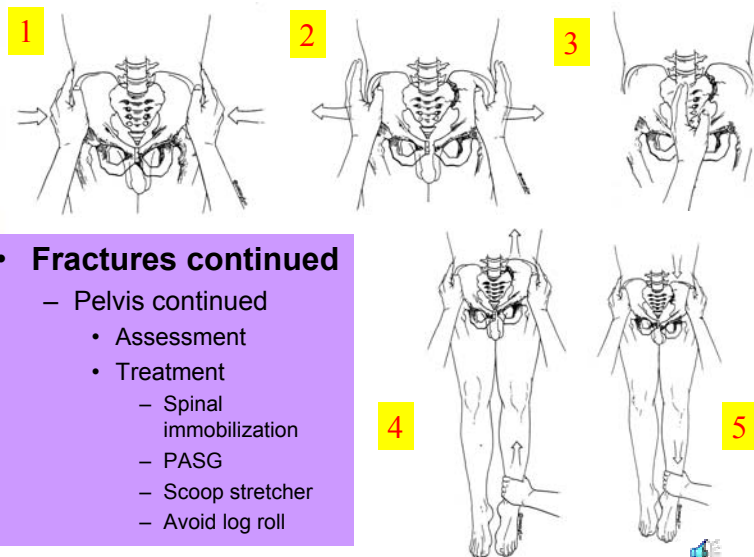
– Pelvis continued

• S&S

- Pain
- Instability
- Crepitus
- Deformity
- Swelling
- Ecchymosis, shortening of the leg on the affected side
- Because pelvic fractures may also injure the cauda equina, the lower extremities should be evaluated for abnormal sensation and motor weakness.
- Cauda equina injuries may also result in loss of bowel and bladder control and loss of innervation to the sex organs.
- Priapism
- Rectal bleeding or blood around the urethral meatus



Pathophysiology continued



• Fractures continued

– Pelvis continued

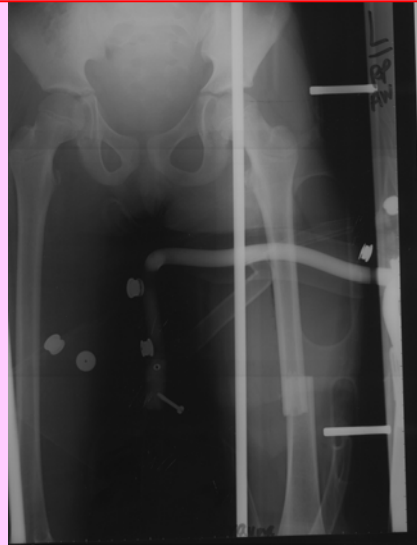
- Assessment
- Treatment
 - Spinal immobilization
 - PASG
 - Scoop stretcher
 - Avoid log roll



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Proximal femur
 - Usually the result of falls, MVC, and GSW
 - Fractures of the neck usually produce little swelling or deformity around the hip.
 - Pain with movement.
 - Shortening and external rotation.
- Femoral shaft
 - Pain, deformity, crepitus are usually present.
 - Open fractures associated with significant hemorrhage.
- Distal femur
 - Frequently intraarticular with impacted condyles
- Treatment
 - Traction splint (generally contraindicated in open fracture or high proximal or low distal fractures that may involve the joint)
 - PASG



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- Tibia and Fibula
 - Most frequently injured from MVC, falls and jumps
 - Pain, swelling and deformity are usually obvious
 - These fractures bleed profusely causing rapid onset of joint edema.
 - Tibial plateau may be injured with knee dislocations.
 - Tibial shaft fractures usually accompanied by fibular shaft fractures.
 - May result in compartment syndrome.
 - Realign and splint with padded board splint.





Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Ankle

- The distal tibia, medial malleolus, distal fibula, or any combination may be involved in an ankle fracture.
- Generally produced by large amounts of torsion around a fixed foot.
- May also result from a fall or jump.
- Should be realigned and splinted. Pillow splint works well.

– Tarsals

- Calcaneus and talus are most often fractured during jumps or falls when the patient lands on his feet.
- Patient presents with heel pain, tenderness, swelling, and crepitus.
- Splint as with ankle fracture.



Pathophysiology continued

• Fractures continued

– Metatarsal

- Often occur in combination with midfoot dislocation.
- Occur from axial loading of the foot.
- Patient complains of midfoot pain, swelling, crepitus, and tenderness.
- Splint with pillow, vacuum splint, or air splint.
- Do not allow patient to walk as further injury and swelling may result.

– Phalanx

- Usually result from crush injuries.
- Splint by taping the toe to an adjacent toe



Pathophysiology continued

- **Fractures continued**

- General management and splinting techniques
 - Extremity injuries are rarely a threat to life and should not interfere with the usual assessment and treatment priorities of airway, breathing and circulation.
 - Evaluate the joints above and below the injury prior to splinting.
 - Avoid unnecessary movement.
 - Straighten angulated fractures prior to splinting unless resistance is met.
 - Splint in the position found if it involves a joint and neurovascular function is intact.
 - Do not allow bone ends to be retracted beneath the skin in open fractures.
 - When splinting the upper extremities, place the hand in the position of function.
 - Always assess neurovascular function before and after splinting, and frequently during transport.

