

6002 Knee & Lower Leg Cheat Sheet

by bee.f (bee.f) via cheatography.com/180201/cs/42420/

Anterior Cruciate Ligament (ACL) Injuries

YELLOW

· Intro:

- Stabilises the knee joint along w/ the PCL (forms a cross "X")
- Prevent excessive forward or backward motion of the tibia relative to the femur during FX & EXT
- Nerve supply: middle geniculate artery; Innervation: posterior articular n. (branch of tibial n.)
- Origin: anteromedial aspect of tibial plateau; Insertion: Medial aspect of the lateral femoral condyle
- Has 2 bundles (anteromedial & posterolateral)

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Aetiology (risk factors):

- Most commonly injured ligament in the knee (almost ½ of all knee injuries)
- F>M (esp. F athletes 4.5:1)
- Possible factors contributing to increased F risk include: weaker hamstrings, preferential recruitment of quads during deceleration, & weaker core stability

Biomechanics & landing factors:

- F landing mechanics mat ↑ injury risk, w/ ↑ valgus angulation & knee EXT
- ↓ hip & knee FX & ↓ fatigue resistance also contribute to ↑ stress on the ACL

Other risk factors:

- Anatomical: high BMI, smaller femoral notch, impingement on the notch, smaller ACL, hypermobility, joint laxity, & previous ACL injury

Hormonal & genetic factors:

- Preovulatory phase, may affect coordination & predispose females to ACL injury
- Females on OCP were noted less affected

Associated injuries w/ ACL ruptures:

- Both intra & extra-articular injuries can accompany acute ACL ruptures
- Meniscal tears are common, w/ lateral meniscus injury more prevalent in acute cases, & medial meniscus more involved in chronic cases
- Other ligaments (PCL, LCL, & PLC) could also be injured in conjunction w/ ACL

Chronic ACL deficiency effects:

- Detrimental effects on the knee
- Development of chondral injuries & complex, unrepairable meniscal tears is observed (e.g bucket handle medial meniscus tears)



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Anterior Cruciate Ligament (ACL) Injuries (cont)

Pathophys-

- Common in non-contact sports, esp. non-contact pivoting injuries

iology:

- Tibia translation anteriorly during slight knee FX & valgus
- Direct hits to the lateral knee can also cause ACL injuries
- Injury occurs during activity/sports participation that involves sudden changes in the direction of movement, abrupt stopping

or slowing down while running, or jumping & abnormal landing

Clinical

- Hx of injury mechanisms

presentation:

- Pt would complain of hearing/feeling a sudden "pop" w/ associated deep knee px
- About 70% would experience immediate swelling due to haemarthrosis
- Other Ssx: knee "giving way", difficulty ambulating, reduced knee ROM

Physical

- Pt demonstrates quadriceps avoidance gait (no active knee EXT)

examination:

- Varus knee malalignment should be noted as it increases risk of ACL re-rupture
- Palpation: swollen knee, & potential joint line tenderness w/ an associated meniscal injury
- Move: knee may be locked due to associated meniscal injury (other meniscal & ligamentous structures to be assessed)
- Lachman test, Anterior drawer test, Pivot shift test

· Diagnosis:

- MRI is the 1° modality to diagnose ACL pathology
- Knee arthroscopy to differentiate complete from partial tears & chronic tears (gold standard test)
- Radiography to rule out fractures & other osseous injuries



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Anterior Cruciate Ligament (ACL) Injuries (cont)

· Complicat-

- Surgical: tunnel malpositioning, posterior wall blowout, graft failure due to various other issues

ions:

- Post op: infection & septic arthritis
- Stiffness & arthrofibrosis
- Infrapatellar contracture syndrome
- Patella tendon rupture
- CRPS
- Patella fracture
- Tunnel osteolysis
- OA in the long term
- Saphenous n. irritation
- Cyclops lesion

Management:

Non-operative management:

- Indication: when there's reduced ACL laxity on low-demand pts or athletes involved in no cutting or pivoting activities or partial

ACL tears

- RICE
- Non-WB (crutches or wheelchair)
- NSAIDs
- Phase 1: acute symptomatic treatment

- Phase 2: 12 weeks of supervised physiotherapy starting w/ regaining full ROM & progression to quad, hamstring, hip ABD & core strengthening

Operative management:

- Indication: complete ACL rupture in younger or older active, high-demand pts, & partial ACL rupture w. functional instability
- Two options: ACL reconstruction or repair

· Ddx:

- ACL tear
- Epiphyseal fracture of femur/tibia
- MCL injury
- Meniscal tear
- Osteochondral fracture
- Patellar dislocation
- Posterior cruciate ligament injury
- Tibial spine fracture

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Lateral Collateral (LCL) & PLC Injuries

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Lateral Collateral (LCL) & PLC Injuries (cont)

· Intro:

- 1° resistor of varus stress
- Provides posterolateral stability (preventing medial translation of the tibia)
- LCL & PLT resist external tibial rotation in 0-30° of knee FLX
- Minor role in tibial translation (stabilises anterior & posterior tibial translation when cruciate ligaments are torn)
- Origin: lateral epicondyle of the femur, Insertion: fibular head
- Blood supply: branches of popliteal artery, Innervation: common fibular n.
- Surrounding structures: popliteus tendon (PLT) & iliotibial band (ITB)

Aetiology (risk

- 40% of PLC (posterolateral corner) & LCL injuries result from contact sports

factors):

- Other causes include trauma, motor vehicle accidents, & falls
- F>M
- High-contact sports
- Sports involving high-velocity pivoting & jumping
- Tennis & gymnastics are most specific fro isolated LCL injuries
- Prior knee, ankle, or hip injury increases the risk

· Pathophysiology:

- LCL injuries rarely occur in isolation
- High-energy blow to the antero-medial knee
- Involves hyperEXT & extreme varus force
- Non-contact hyperEXT & varus stressors can also cause LCL injuries

Clinical presentation:

- Acute event consistent w/ a medial blow to the knee while fully EXT, or extreme non-contact varus bending

- Complain of sudden onset lateral knee px, swelling, & ecchymosis after the injury
- May report thrust gait, inc. foot kicking in mid-stance
- May complain of paresthesias over the lateral lower extremity, & weakness &/or a foot drop
- Gain complete Hx inc. bleeding/clot disorders, previous surgeries, occupation, gait, ambulation-assisted devices, living situation (stairs at home)



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Lateral Collateral (LCL) & PLC Injuries (cont)

Physical

- Limited ROM

examination:

- Lateral knee TTP
- Ecchymosis, swelling, & warmth- Gait: classical varus thrust finding
- Special tests: Varus stress test, EXT ROT recurvatum test, Posterolateral drawer test, Reverse pivot shift test, Dial test

· Diagnosis:

- MRI is the gold standard
- US useful for rapid diagnosis

Classification of injury:

- Grade 1: Mild sprain diagnosed w/ lateral knee tenderness, no instability mechanical Ssx
- Grade 2: Partial tear diagnosed w/ more severe localised lateral & posterolateral knee px, as well as swelling
- Grade 3: Complete tear px & swelling vary in pts, usually associated w/ PLC & other related injuries, & mechanical Ssx

· Complications:

- Undiagnosed LCL & PLC injuries have several long-term complications
- Continued knee instability & chronic px
- 35% of PLC injuries may have an associated peroneal n. palsy (probs due to its proximity to the LCL)
- Pts may develop long-term foot drop, as well as lower extremity weakness & decreased sensation
- Post op: hardware irritation & stiffness

· Management:

- Acutely, all grades treated w/ RICE & NSAIDs
- Grade 1 & 2: non-operative, non-WB for 1 week for better px control; next 3-6 weeks, the pt should be in a hinged-knee

brace while performing functional rehab

- Grade 3: surgical reconstruction (best results), post op rehab and functional exercises

· Ddx:

- ACL/PCL tears
- Lateral meniscus tears
- Popliteal injury
- Bone contusion
- ITB syndrome

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Posterior Cruciate Ligament (PCL) Injuries

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· Intro:

- 1/4 major ligaments of the knee that function to stabilise the tibia on the femur
- Origin: anterolateral aspect of the medial femoral condyle in the area of the intercondylar notch, Insertion: posterior aspect of the tibial plateau
- Prevents posterior translation of the tibia on the femur
- Lesser extent, the PCL functions to resist varus, valgus, & EXT ROT forces

Aetiology (risk

factors):

- Caused by extreme anterior force applied to the proximal tibia of the FX knee

- Dashboard injuries during car accident or falling forward onto a FX knee

- M>F (2:1)
- Motorcycle accidents (28%) & soccer-related injuries (25%) are the leading causes

· Pathophysiology:

- Least common knee injury
- Anterolateral portion is more commonly injured due to majority of injuries occurring in knee FX
- Resists posterior translation w. the assistance of the posterolateral joint capsule, popliteus, MCL, & posterior oblique ligament

Clinical presentation:

- Pts often present w/ acute onset of posterior knee px, swelling, & instability
- Hx includes mechanism of injury, ic. falling onto FX knee or recent vehicle accident

Physical examination:

- Pulses
- SMR
- Mild to moderate joint effusion
- Swelling usually less than in ACL tear
- Pt may present w/ antalgic gait & potential difficulty walking up & down stairs
- Palpation: potential effusion, joint line for tenderness (suggestive of meniscal tears)
- Muscle strength test: should be normal, but there may be weakness w/ knee EXT & FX 2° to guarding
- Limited ROM
- Special tests: Posterior drawer test, Quadriceps active test, Dial test or EXT ROT test, Varus/valgus stress



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Posterior Cruciate Ligament (PCL) Injuries (cont)

- MRI is the gold standard

Diagnosis: - Initial imaging w/ plain X-rays

Classification of injury:

- Grade 1 (partial tear) 1-5mm posterior translation, tibia remains anterior to femoral condyles
- Grade 2 (complete isolated) 6-10mm posterior tibial translation, complete tear of PCL w/o another injury, anterior tibia flush w/ femoral condyles
- Grade 3 (complete PCL w/ combined capsular &/or ligamentous injury) >10mm posterior tibial translation, tibia posterior to femoral condyles which may indicate a concomitant capsuloligamentous injury

· Compli-

- Intra & postoperative complications of PCL surgery

cations:

- Neuromuscular injury (e.g. popliteal artery injury)
- Fracture
- Residual instability
- Osteoarthritic progression
- Osteonecrosis
- Stiffness
- Failure of associated ligament reconstructions or meniscal repairs
- Revision of PCL reconstruction



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Posterior Cruciate Ligament (PCL) Injuries (cont)

· Management:

- Variables to consider: Acute or chronic; isolated or combined

Non-operative:

- Acute grade 1 & 2 injuries w/ posterior tibial translation (8-12mm)
- Grade 3 injuries w/ mild Ssx or low-demand activities
- Acute treatment inv. RICE, initial knee bracing, & crutches
- Rehab focuses on knee EXT strengthening
- Est. return-to-play in 2-4 weeks for Grade 1 & 2 injuries
- Grade 3 may inv. knee immobilisation followed by rehab

Operative

- Acute injuries w/ tibial translation >12mm, associated meniscal tears, dislocation, bony avulsions, & combined injuries
- Chronic injuries w/ posterior tibial translation >8mm, symptomatic cases, instability, & combined injuries
- Arthroscopic procedures
- Reconstruction
- Graft fixations
- High tibial osteotomy
- · Ddx:
- ACL injury
- LCL injury
- MCL injury
- Meniscus injury
- Talofibular ligament injury

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Baker's Cyst

GREEN

- Intro:
- Also known as popliteal or paramedical cyst
- Fluid-filled sac, typically between semimembranosus & medial head of the gastroc
- Common in adults & associated w/ degenerative knee conditions
- Often linked to degenerative meniscal tears as one of the most common causes
- In children, popliteal cysts more commonly arise as a 1° condition (resulting from herniated post knee joint synovium/capsule)



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Baker's Cyst (cont)

Aetiology

- Children aged 4-7 yo

(risk factors):

- Adults aged 35-70
- Most commonly found in adults w/ Hx of trauma, knee joint diseases (OA, RA, etc), or as incidental findings
- They form due to accumulation & extrusion of synovial fluid between the semimebranosus & medial head of the gastroc
- Popliteal cysts are located on the medial side of the popliteal fossa just below the crease at the posterior knee
- Prevalence increases w/ age, likely due to an increase in knee-burial communication

Pathophys-

Several mechanisms:

iology:

- 1. Joint-cyst communication
- 2. Sequestration of synovial fluid in popliteal fossa due to a valve-like effect between the joint & cyst (controlled by gastroc-s-emimembranosus m. w/ FX & EXT at the knee)
- 3. Negative intraarticular knee pressure during partial FX combined w/ a positive pressure during extension (as a result directing fluid flow towards the cyst from the suprapatellar bursa during FLX)
- 4. Gastroc-semimembranosus bursa enlargement resulting from micro-traumas to the bursa w/ muscle contractions
- 5. Herniation of the joint capsule into the popliteal fossa

Clinical presentation:

- Sensation of tightness, discomfort, or px behind the knee
- Swelling Moree noticeable when standing w/ full knee EXT
- Swelling reduces or disappears when the knee is flexed to 45° (Foucher's sign)
- Px worsens w/ increased activity & may limit full knee FX & EXT

Physical

- Compression of surrounding vessels

examination:

- Lower extremity oedema due to venous obstruction
- Enlargement into the calf m. (dissecting cyst) can cause swelling, erythema, distal oedema, & +ve Homan's sign
- Venous obstruction can mimic Ssx of DVT or thrombophlebitis



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Baker's Cyst (cont)

· Diagnosis:

Diagnosis methods:

- Pt stand & full knee EXT
- Mass is most prominent in this position
- Mass often softens or disappears when the knee is FX to 45° (Foucher's sign)
- Supine exam: knee passively moved from full EXT to at least 90° FX

Imaging:

- Plain radiograph & US
- MRI is recommended, esp. if considering surgery

Complicat-

Complications & Ssx of ruptured Baker's cyst:

ions:

- Rapid fluid accumulation may cause cyst rupture
- Released fluid into surrounding tissues can lead to inflammation
- Ssx similar to thrombophlebitis: sharp pc in the knee & calf; swelling or erythema of the calf; sensation of water running down the calf

Complications of cyst rupture:

- Post tibial n. entrapment: posterior plantar numbness & calf px
- Popliteal artery occlusion: lower extremity oedema
- Anterior compartment syndrome: foot drop, oedema of anterolateral leg
- Posterior compartment syndrome: plantar dysesthesia, weakness of toes, calf swelling, px worsens w/ passive toe extension



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Baker's Cyst (cont)

- · Management:
- Asymptomatic cases are managed through observation & reassurance alone
- Essential to treat any underlying joint disorder in pts w/ symptomatic Baker's cysts
- Helps reduce synovial fluid accumulation & cyst enlargement

Non-operative:

- Rest/activity modification
- NSAIDs
- Physical therapy & rehab regimes are effective for minimal Ssx & smaller degenerative meniscal tears
- Aspiration & steroid injection
- Lower recurrence in younger pts
- Higher recurrence rates in older pts & those w/ degenerative meniscal tears

Operative:

- Arthroscopy
- Open cyst excision (not recommended in case of underlying degeneration due to recurrence risk)
- Ddx:
- Abscess
- Arteriovenous fistula
- DVT
- Ganglion cyst
- Hemangioma
- Lipoma
- Lymphadenopathy
- Malignancy (e.g. fibrosarcoma, liposarcoma)
- Popliteal (Balker's) cyst

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Chondrocalcinosis (pseudogout)

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Chondrocalcinosis (pseudogout) (cont)

· Intro:

Overview:

- Calcium pyrophosphate deposition disease (CPPD)
- Crystal deposition arthropathy involving synovial & periarticular tissues
- Asymptomatic to acute or chronic inflammatory arthritis

Phenotypes & terminology:

- Various terms used for different phenotypes
- Acute CPP deposition arthritis: "Pseudogout"
- Chronic CPP deposition arthritis: informally called "pseudo-rheumatoid arthritis"
- Characterised by a waxing & waning clinical course, resembling RA

Radiological findings:

- Term: chondrocalcinosis
- Describes intra-articular fibrocartilage calcification

Commonly affected joints:

- Hips
- Knees
- Shoulders

Underlying factors:

- Often associated w/ underlying joint disease or metabolic abnormalities
- Predisposing factors: OA, trauma, surgery, RA
- · Aetiology (risk factors):
- Often pts >65 yo, w/ 30-50% >85 yo
- M>F
- Rare < 60 yo
- High prevalence of radiographic chondrocalcinosis in the general population

Comorbidities associated w/ CPPD:

- Hyperparathyroidism
- Gout
- OA
- RA
- Hemochromatosis

Other related comorbidities:

- Osteoporosis
- Hypomagnesium
- Chronic kidney disease
- Calcium supplementation



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Chondrocalcinosis (pseudogout) (cont)

· Pathophysiology:

- Caused by an imbalance between pyrophosphate production & pyrophosphate levels in diseased cartilage
- Pyrophosphate deposits in the synovium & adjacent tissues combine w/ calcium to form CPP
- Deposition of calcium pyres-hate can activate the immune system, leading to inflammation & soft tissue injury

Clinical & physical presentation:

Acute cases:

- Typically, self-limiting, & inflammation resolves within days weeks w/ treatment
- Similar to acute rate arthropathy
- Joint oedema, erythema, & tenderness
- Up to 50% may have a low-grade fever
- Most commonly affected joint: knee
- Other affected joints: hip, shoulders

Chronic cases:

- May show Ssx of RA inc. morning stiffness, localised oedema, & ↓ ROM
- Waxing & waning episodes of non-synchronous, inflammatory arthritis
- Affeects multiple non-WB joint: wrist & MCP joint
- Causes "crowned dens syndrome" (deposition of CPP around C2)
- Mostly asymptomatic
- · Diagnosis:
- Confirm diagnosis through synovial fluid analysis

Imaging:

- For involved joints is recommended
- Presence of chondrocalcinosis in imaging supports CPPD Dx
- Absence of chondrocalcinosis doesn't rule out CPPD
- US may reveal early signs like cartilage abnormalities
- Radiographic imaging may show joint cartilage calcification
- MRI is useful can evaluate crystal deposition in joint cartilage



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Chondrocalcinosis (pseudogout) (cont)

· Complications:

- Potential of triggering inflammatory responses
- Presence of chondrocalcinosis has associations w/ degradation of menisci & synovial tissue
- Pts rarely present w/ palpable nodules (resembling gout) that may lead to further joint degradation
- Rare spinal involvemen, causing clinical manifestations like spine stiffness & bony ankylosis (resembling AS)
- Some pts present w/ manifestations similar to DISH w/ PLL calcification leading to spinal cord compression Ssx
- · Management:
- 1st step reduce inflammation & addressing underlying metabolic conditions
- NSAIDs
- Acute flares inv. 1-2 joints often treated w/ joint aspiration
- Medication
- Low-alkaline diet

• Ddx:

- Tenosynovitis w/ carpal or cubital tunnel s. can occur (multiple joints affected)
- RA
- AS
- Erosive OA
- Gout

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Acute Compartment Syndrome

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· Intro:

- Increased pressure in closed osteofascial compartmetn
- Leads to impaired local circulation
- Surgical emergency
- -Untreated ACS can lead to ischemia & necrosis

Compartments:

- Lg has 4 compartments: anterior, lateral, deep posterior, & superficial posterior
- Anterior compartment is most common ACS
- Contains extensor m., tibialis anterior m., deep peroneal n., & tibial artery
- *Open fractures:
- Skin laceration doesn't relieve compartment pressure
- ACS is still predictable, esp. in open Gustily type 2 & 3 lesions in proximal intra-articular tibia fractures



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Acute Compartment Syndrome (cont)

- M>F (7.3:0.7)

Aetiology - Majority of cases result from trauma, w/ tibial shaft fracture being the most common

(risk - More common in males <35 yo, possibly due to larger muscle mass & high-energy trauma involvement

factors): - Pts w/ bleeding diathesis (e.g. hemophilia) are at high risk

- ACS reported w/o trauma in paediatric leukaemia cases

- Pts w/o fractures at high risk of complications & delayed treatment

- Other causes:** soft tissue injuries, burns, vascular injuries, crush injuries, drug overdoses, repercussion injuries, thrombosis, bleeding disorders, infections, improperly placed casts or splints, tight circumferential bandages, penetrating trauma, intense athletic activity, & poor positioning during surgery

- In children, supracondylar # of the humerus & ulnar/radial # are associated w/ compartment syndrome

- Caused by ↓ intracompartmental space OR ↑ fluid volume, making the surrounding fascia non-compliant
 Pathop - ↑ compartment pressure impairs hemodynamics, disrupting the equilibrium between venous outflow & arterial inflow

hys- - Elevated compartment pressure leads to reduced venous outflow, ↑ venous capillary pressure

iology: - If intracompartmental pressure surpasses arterial pressure, arterial inflow ↓, causing tissue ischemia

- Reduced venous outflow & arterial inflow result in ↓ tissue oxygenation, potentially leading to irreversible necrosis

- Normal compartment pressure is <10mmHg, while reading of 30mmHg or higher indicates ACS

• Clinical - Can occur within few hours to up to 48h after trauma

- Px is severe & disproportionate to the injury; may be felt as a burning sensation or deep ache

tation: - Initially, px may only occur w/ passive stretching but can be absent in advanced cases

- Paresthesia, hypoesthesia, or poorly localised deep muscular px may be present
- The "5 P's" (px, pulselessness, paresthesia, paralysis, & pallor) are classic signs, but they're typically late findings

- Paresthesia may occur earlier

- In some cases, a pulse may still be present, even in a severely compromised extremity

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presen-

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Acute Compartment Syndrome (cont)

Physical examination:

- Earliest objective physical finding is the tense, or 'wood-like' feeling int he involved compartment

Focus on neurovascular exam.*

- Observe skin for lesions, swelling, or colour change
- Palpate compartment, noting °C, tension, & tenderness
- Check pulses in the affected area
- Evaluate two-point discrimination & sensation
- Assess motor function
- Due to potential rapid progression, serial exam should be performed to monitor changes over time

· Diagnosis:

- Radiographs are recommended if # suspected
- Measurement of intracompartmental pressure (not required), can aid in Dx
- Normal pressure: 0-8mmHg
- Abnormal: exceeding 30mmHg indicates compartment s. & necessitates intervention
- Pressure within 10-30mmHg of diastolic blood pressure suggests inadequate perfusion & relative ischemia, prompting clinical attention
- DUS can be used to detect occlusion or thrombus
- Elevated CPK levels may suggest muscle breakdown from ischemia, damage, or rhabdomyolysis
- Pre-operative studies: CBC & coagulation studies

· Complications:

- 1 ^
- Contractures
- Rhabdomyolysis
- N. damage & associated numbness &/or weakness
- Infection
- Renal failure
- Death

· Management:

- Immediate surgical consult
- Keeping extremity at heart level

• Ddx:

- DVT
- Cellulitis
- Peripheral vascular injury

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Chronic (Exertional) Compartment Syndrome

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Chronic (Exertional) Compartment Syndrome (cont)

· Intro:

- Often a Dx of exclusion characterised by ↑ pressures in a muscular compartment , leading to ischemia & px
- CECS inv/ recurrent, reversible ischemic episodes after activity cessation, leading to predictable ↓ in fascial compartment pressures
- Rare condition w/ delayed diagnosis, resembling ACS
- Requires surgical emergency intervention through fasciotomies to prevent irreversible m. ischemia & neurovascular injury
- Usually occurs in the LL but can also affect forearm, thigh, or hand

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Relatively common among young adult athletes (running, endurance training, soccer, field hockey, & lacrosse)
- Anterior compartment most commonly affected (70% of cases), then deep posterior
- B limb in 37-82% of symptomatic cases
- 20-25 yo, M>F, & often B
- Associated w/ sports like running or skating, & higher activity intensities
- Can result from overuse injuries, repetitive mechanisms causing tissue degeneration, scar formation, & military training
- Pts w/ decreased fascial elasticity may be at risk for nerve entrapment & quicker rises in pathological pressures

Pathophysiology:

- Has multiple etiologies
- Muscle compartment swelling during exercise, leading to increased pressure within musculofascial compartments
- Rise in pressure compromises blood flow, causing px, motor weakness, & paresthesia, in corresponding neurovascular distributions
- Specific Ssx depend on the affected compartment: e.g. anterior & lateral compartment involvement in the LL may present w/ px & tingling on the dorm of the foot
- Increased intracompartmental pressure results in reduced myocyte oxygenation, leading to myonecrosis & neurological damage



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Chronic (Exertional) Compartment Syndrome (cont)

Clinical presentation:

- Pts often present following sport-related activity ro exertion w/ non-specific leg px & persist after strenuous or repetitive
- Ssx will predictably abate following activity cessation
- Particular attention to pts characterisation of px during strenuous activity, well-localised to a specific compartment, & the px/Ssx disappear quickly after the cessation of activity
- Pts will generally complain of discomfort described as squeezing, cramping, aching, or burning that typically begins within 15-20 minutes of activity
- Discomfort resolves completely w/ rest, although the duration may vary

Physical

- In 70-95% of cases B px

examination:

- Physical exam often unremarkable, esp. if not done during or immediately after exercise
- Suspected cases should undergo pre- & post-exercise physical exams
- After exercise, the affected compartment may feel tender, bulge, or be tight, & passive stretching may cause px
- Focal neuro findings may inc. ↓ sensation, paresthesia, or weakness

Stryker pressure monitoring system:

- Baseline measurements w/ pt at rest
- Pts then perform controlled exercise until severe Ssx occur
- After 5-minute rest, compartment pressure measured again

· Diagnosis:

Pedowitz criteria:

- -Rule out a Dx of CECS
- Resting pressure ≥ 15mmHg &/or a pressure of ≥ 30mmHg at 1 min post-exercise in any compartment, &/or;
- Post-exercise pressure greater than 20mmHg at 5 min post-exercise

Complicat-

- Benign condition characterised by resolution of Ssx w/ rest

ions:



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Chronic (Exertional) Compartment Syndrome (cont)

· Management:

- Conservative treatment generally ineffective, inc. rest, activity modification, stretching, orthotics, & physical therapy
- Non-operative modalities inc. NSAIDs, injections, gait training (forefoot strike patterns)
- Open fasciotomy is the predominant surgical technique

· Ddx:

- Initially gets misDx as shin splints or medial tibial stress syndrome (MTSS)
- Vascular pathologies (intermittent claudication, popliteal artery impingement)
- Tibial stress #
- Tendon pathologies (tendinitis, tendinosis, or tendon rupture)
- N. entrapment

link text

Fibular Nerve (Peroneal N.) entrapment

• GREEN



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Fibular Nerve (Peroneal N.) entrapment (cont)

- Branches off the sciatica n. in the distal posterior thigh & receives fibres from L4-S2 nerve roots

Intro:

- Runs down the thigh, posterior to the biceps femoris m., & crosses laterally to the head of the lateral gastroc m.
- Provides sensory innervation to the lateral leg via the lateral sural n.
- Two branches: *superficial* which innervates the lateral compartment of the leg, & *deep* which innervates the anterior compartment of the leg & foot dorsum
- Both have roles in foot eversion & dorsiflexion

Innervation of superficial

Motor:

- Lateral compartment
- Peroneus longus
- Peroneus brevis

Sensory:

- Anterolateral leg

Innervation of deep

Motor:

- Anterior compartment
- Tibialis anterior
- Extensor hallucis longus
- Extensor digitorum longus
- Peroneus tertius

Sensory:

- First dorsal webspace



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Fibular Nerve (Peroneal N.) entrapment (cont)

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Most common mononeuropathy in the LL & 3rd most common focal neuropathy overall (after carpal tunnel s. & ulnar neuropathies)
- Common in traumatic injuries in young athletes (e.g. football, soccer) & following high energy trauma (car accidents) in adults
- Occurs in about 16-40% of knee dislocations

Trauma or injury to the knee:

- Knee dislocation
- Direct impact, penetrating trauma, or lacerations
- Fibula #, esp. proximal fibula

External compression sources:

- Tight splint/cast
- Compression wrapping/bandage
- Habitual leg crossing
- Prolonged bed rest
- Positioning during anaesthesia & surgery (important to pad bony prominences)

Systemic causes:

- Diabetes mellitus
- Inflammatory conditions
- Anorexia nervosa

Others:

- Intramural ganglion
- Peripheral nerve tumour
- latrogenic injury following surgery to the hip, knee, & ankle

Clinical presen-

tation:

- Varies based on location, severity, & anatomic variations
- Commonly presents w. weakness in ankle dorsiflexion
- Classic result is foot drop or catching toes while walking
- Development of acute or gradual, complete or partial
- Numbness or paresthesia along lateral leg, dorsal foot, &/or first toe webspace
- Possible px in traumatic cases



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Fibular Nerve (Peroneal N.) entrapment (cont)

Physical examination:

- Gait: significant for chronic peroneal nerve palsy w/ foot drop, high stoppage gait weakened dorsiflexors to prevent toe dragging

Localisation of lesions:

- Proximal lesions (e.g. knee dislocations) may present w/ numbness in both superficial & deep n. distributions
- Upper lateral leg numbness indicates a lesion proximal to fibular head (possibly inv. sciatic n. or lumbosacral n. roots)
- Lower lateral leg & dorms of the foot involvement suggests superficial peroneal n.
- Altered sensation in the dorsal aspect of the first web space implicates the deep peroneal n.

Motor involvement testing:

- Assess foot eversion (superficial n.) & foot/toe dorsiflexion (deep n.)
- Weakness in both suggests common Peroneal n. involvement
- Proximal lesion may result in both distributions
- Detailed examination of dorsiflexion ability is crucial

Tinel sign:

- Tapping along the nerve course, esp. around the fibular neck
- +ve test = tingling or paresthesia distally
- · Diagnosis:
- CT can be used to assess osseous abnormalities
- MRI/US suitable fro evaluating soft-tissue sources or masses (es. in cases of traumatic knee dislocations)
- Electrodiaagnostic studies (inc. NCV & EMG) are used to Dx peroneal nerve palsy
- They evaluate motor & sensory axons of the peroneal n. aiding in localisation of the nerve injury
- Useful in post-operative setting of a known traumatic injury for long-term management planning & pt care
- · Management:
- Full physical therapy
- Ankle-foot orthoses, even for foot-drop when surgery isn't warranted
- Surgical indicators: rapid deterioration & no signs of improvement within 3 months & open injuries w. suspected nerve laceration
- -Open lacerations should undergo exploration & surgical repair within 72h



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Fibular Nerve (Peroneal N.) entrapment (cont)

- Ddx:
- Peroneal tendon pathology
- Other compressive neuropathies (tarsal tunnel s., anterior tarsal tunnel s., non-specific tendinitis affecting lower limb m./t.)
- Chronic ankle px

link text

Meniscal Tears

YELLOW

· Lateral & medial menisci function in load transmission & shock absorption in the tibiofemoral joint

Intro:

- Inner 2/3 (white zone) of the menisci is avascular, likely receiving nutrition through synovial fluid diffusion
- Peripheral 1/3 (red zone) is well-vascularised, supplied by branches of the medial & lateral vehicular arteries
- Medial meniscus is less mobile than the lateral one, firmly attached to the joint capsule & deep fibres of the MCL
- Lateral miscues doesn't connect w/ the LCL & has looser attachments w. the joint capsule
- Anterior margins of the menisci are connected by the transverse inter meniscal ligament
- Peripheral 2/3 of the menisci contain nociceptive free endings (pain perception), while mechanoreceptors are in the anterior & posterior horns, suggesting a proprioceptive function
- Posterior horn of the lateral meniscus connects to the femur via meniscofemoral ligaments & the adjacent popliteus tendon



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Meniscal Tears (cont)

Aetiology

- 61/100,000 in general population (USA), 9/1000 in military population

(risk

- 15% of sports injuries

factors):

- M>F

- Age >40 yo
- ACL deficient knees, esp. if ACL reconstruction is delayed beyond 1 year from initial injury
- Medial>lateral meniscal tears
- Increased risk factors: infantry-related duties, frequent squatting/kneeling, & participation in sports like soccer, rugby, football, basketball, baseball, skiing, & wrestling
- Traumatic impacts to the knee can lead to isolated meniscal tears or tears concomitant w/ bony lesions or damage to primary stabilising ligaments (ACL & MCL)
- Less force is required for tears in individuals w/ degenerative changes of the menisci, typically seen in adults >40 w. concomitant OA
- Isolated meniscal tears result from rotational or shearing forces across the tibiofemoral joint, esp. during activities w/ increased closed kinematic chain FX, heavy lifting, rapid acceleration/deceleration, change of direction, & jumping



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Meniscal Tears (cont)

Pathophysiology:

- Characterised by shape & location on MRI
- Horizontal (cleavage) run parallel to the tibial plateau, associated w/ degenerative changes in people >40 w/o specific causes
- Longitudinal run perpendicular to the tibial plateau & parallel to the meniscus axis
- Radial run perpendicular to both the tibial plateau & the meniscus axis, originating from the inner free edge
- Complex involve combinations of horizontal, longitudinal, or vertical tears
- Displaced involve complete detachment or flipping of a piece still attached to the meniscal body
- Bucket-handle are complete longitudinal tear fragments that migrate centrally
- Parrot-break are radial tears w/ partially detached fragments
- Flap are partially detached fragments of horizontal tears
- Tears in the outer 1/3 vascular zone are "red-red"; those extending into the inner 2/3 avascular zone are "red-white", & tears within the inner 2/3 avascular zone are "white-white"
- Tears in the red zone have the highest potential for spontaneous healing w/ conservative management or successful outcomes after meniscal repair

Clinical presentation:

- "POP" sensation w/ immediate knee effusion suggests ACL tear w/ possible medial meniscal involvement
- Gradual effusion over 24h indicates an isolated meniscal tear
- Ssx can be insidious, featuring low-grade effusion& stiffness w/o a specific triggering event
- Px commonly reported along the anteromedial or anterolateral joint line
- Additional Ssx: locking, clicking, catching, intermittent inability to fully EXT the knee, & a sense of the knee giving way



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6002 Knee & Lower Leg Cheat Sheet

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Meniscal Tears (cont)

Physical examination:

- Inspection of edema, palpation of joint line, standing & supine ROM, muscle strength testing, special testing
- Anteromedial & anterolateral joint line tenderness at 90° FX
- Px & deficits in FX or EXT ROM may vary based on tear type & effusion extent
- Deficits in open kinetic chain knee FX/EXT strength testing are unlikely
- Antalgic gait or increased px w/ squatting may indicate meniscal issues due to compressive forces
- Special tests: Thessaly test, McMurray's test, Apley's compression test

· Diagnosis:

- Begin w/ radiographs AP, lateral, oblique, sunrise, & WB views to assess concomitant bony pathologies, loose bodies, & OA
- Arthroscopy is the gold standard
- MRI is the best mode of imaging to Dx & characterise tears

· Management:

- RICE
- NSAIDs
- Early px-free knee & ankle ROM exercise (help limit motion loss & aid edema)
- Bracing/sleeves (protection & compression)

Simple tears (outer 1/3 of the meniscus) & degenerative tears:

- 4-6 weeks relative rest & physical therapy
- Despite conservative management, pts w/ persistent px, swelling, & mechanical Ssx should be evaluated for surgical intervention

Surgical tears:

- Meniscal repair is preferred over meniscectomy (risk of accelerated OA)
- Factors ↑ success: tears that occur in red zone of the meniscus, shorter than 2cm, vertical longitudinal tears, & acute tears

Rehab:

- First 6 weeks inc. restrictions in knee FX ROM & WB status (depending on tear & repair type)
- Strengthening
- Mobs



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Meniscal Tears (cont)

• Ddx:

- ACL injury
- Contusions
- ITB syndrome
- Knee osteochondritis
- LCL injury
- Lumbosacral radiculopathy
- MCL injuy
- Medial synovial plica irritation
- Patellofemoral joint syndrome
- PCL injury

link text

Osgood-Schlatter Disorder (OSD)

GREEN

· Intro:

- Common cause of anterior knee px in skeletally immature athletes
- Also known as osteochondrosis or traction apophysitis of the tibial tubercle
- Common in sports like basketball, volleyball, sprinting, gymnastics, & football
- Self-limiting & results from repetitive stress on the extensor mechanism (jumping/sprinting)
- While benign, OSD can lead to prolonged recovery & absence from sports

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Leading cause of knee px in adolescent athletes
- Onset typically aligns w/ growth spurts: 10-15 M & 8-13 F
- M>F
- 9.8% of adolescents 12-15 yo (11.4% M; 8.3% F)
- B Ssx observed in 20-30% of pts
- Overuse injury due to repetitive strain from patellar tendon
- Force increases w/ higher activity levels, after rapid growth
- Predisposing factors: poor flexibility of quadriceps & hamstrings, extensor mechanism misalignment



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Osgood-Schlatter Disorder (OSD) (cont)

Pathophysiology:

- Tibial tubercle develops as a 2° ossification centre for patellar tendon attachment
- Bone growth surpasses muscle-tendon-bone-attachment, susceptible to injury from repetitive stress
- Repeated quadriceps muscle contraction, esp. in sports involving running & jumping, can cause apophyseal ossification centre softening & partial avulsion, resulting in osteochondritis

Tibial tubercle development sequence:

- Entirely cartilaginous before age 11
- Apophysis forms between 11-14
- Apophysis fuses w/ proximal tibial epiphysis between 14-18
- Proximal tibial epiphysis & tibial tubercle apophysis fuse w/ the rest of the proximal tibia after age 18
- Prevailing theory: repeated traction over tubercle causes microvascular tears, fractures, inflammation

Clinical presentation:

- Common Ssx: anterior knee px

- Presentation: w/ or w/o swelling, unilateral or bilateral

- Onset: typically insidious, w/o preceding trauma
- Nature of px: dull ache localised over tibial tubercle
- Px progression: gradually increases w/ activity
- Px relief: typically improves w/ rest
- Duration of relief: subsides minutes to hours after stopping activity or sport
- Exacerbating factors: running, jumping, direct knee trauma, kneeling, & squatting

Physical

- Enlarged prominence at the tibial tubercle

examination:

- Tenderness over the patellar tendon insertion site
- Reproduction of px: resisted knee EXT & active/passive knee FX can reproduce px



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Osgood-Schlatter Disorder (OSD) (cont)

· Diagnosis:

- 1° Dx clinically, radiographic evaluation typically not necessary
- Consider comparing B images to help delineate normal vs abnormal in the pt

Radiographic use:

- Plain radiographs may be employed in severe or atypical presentations
- Used to rule out additional conditions like fractures, infections, or bone tumours
- Assessment fro avulsion injury or other traumas may necessitate radiographic evaluation

Classic findings:

- Elevated tibial tubercle w/ soft tissue swelling
- Fragmentation of the apophysis
- Calcification in the distal patellar tendon
- · Complications:
- Prominence of tibial tubercle
- Ongoing px
- Ssx continue to adulthood if treatment isn't provided or poor compliance w/ recommended treatment
- Management:
- Excellent prognosis
- Self-limiting but time to resolution can take up to 2 yrs until apophysis fuses
- Surgery rarely indicated, low benefit & high complication risk
- Relative rest & activity modification based on px levels
- Participation in sports allowed if px resolves w/ rest & doesn't limit activities

Px management:

- Ice & NSAIDs
- Protective knee pad recommended over tibial tubercle to prevent direct trauma
- Hamstring & quadriceps stretching, & strengthening
- In severe cases, short knee immobilisation might be considered

Refractory cases:

- In up to 10%, Ssx may persist >1-2 yrs beyond skeletal maturity
- Ossicle excision may be performed in skeletally mature pts w/ persistent Ssx



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Osgood-Schlatter Disorder (OSD) (cont)

· Ddx:

- Patella tendonitis
- Osteomyelitis of the tibia
- Perthes disease
- Synovial place injury
- Infectious apophysitis

link text

Osteochondritis Dissecans (OCD)

YELLOW

· Intro:

- Rare condition affecting the knee, categorised as a form of osteonecrosis in the subchondral bone
- 1° occurs in school-aged children & adolescents, w/ manifestations of the dysfunction & px
- Juvenile OCD occurs in pts w/ open growth plates, while adult OCD applies to skeletally mature pts
- If left untreated, OCD can lead to degenerative changes, chronic px, & mechanical Ssx such as 'locking' & 'clicking'

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Highest incidence 12-19 yo
- 9.5-29 / 100,00
- M>F
- 75% of affected pts have knee lesion, w/ 64% localised in the medial femoral condyle
- 32% of knee lesions are found in the lateral condyle, while other cases localise to the trochlea, patella, & tibial
- Usually unilateral, but 7-25% of pts have B disease
- Theories inc. micro-trauma, ischemia, & genetic predisposition
- Pts w. extreme obesity & elevated BMI face an increased risk of developing OCD
- Repetitive trauma is widely considered the 1° cause of OCD of the knee
- Adult form of OCD is believed to result from vascular insult



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Osteochondritis Dissecans (OCD) (cont)

- · Pathophysiology:
- Disruption of epiphyseal vessels, leading to ischemia & necrosis at trauma site
- Softening, tearing, fissuring, & erosion of hyaline cartilage follow as a consequence of the disrupted blood supply
- Advancement of the affected area result in focal demineralisation & repeated shear forces, causing detachment of bone & overlying cartilage
- Repetitive axial loading, esp. w/ increased valgus & varus stress, is suggested by experts as a contributing factor tot he condition
- OCD lesions can introduce irregularities in the articular surface, potentially leading to degenerative arthritis
- Clinical presentation:
- Vague, poorly localised knee px that worsens w/ activity
- Stiffness & occasional swelling may occur during or after activity as the disease progresses
- Advanced stages may be indicated by locking or catching, suggesting the presence of a sizeable loose body in the knee
- Hx of trauma, recent increase in activity level, previous knee injuries, & the presence of mechanical Ssx
- Approx. 80% of pts report px when WB
- Juvenile: intermittent, activity-associated px poorly localised around the anterior aspect of the joint
- Adult: more likely effusion, limited ROM, or mechanical Ssx such as 'catching or locking'
- Depending on chronicity of the lesion, pts may report quadriceps dysfunction & intermittent knee instability



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Osteochondritis Dissecans (OCD) (cont)

- Physical examination:
- Genu varus, associated w/ lesions at medial femoral condyle
- Genu valgus, associated w/ lesions at lateral femoral condyle
- Quadriceps atrophy or weakness may be evident
- Foreign body may be palpable
- FX of knee during joint palpation can reveal effusion or bony tenderness along the femoral condyles
- ROM may be restricted due to px, swelling, or the presence of a loose body
- Antalgic gait or lateral rotation of the foot on the affected side may indicate efforts to alleviate WB px

Wilson sign:

- Identifies lesions of the lateral aspect of the medial femoral condyle
- +ve test: px w/ INT ROT, relieved by EXT ROT, indicating impingement of the OCD lesion
- Absence of the Wilson sign does not rule out OCD
- · Diagnosis:
- Arthroscopy is the gold standard for assessing lesion stability
- Plain radiographs used to locate the lesion, assess growth plates, & rule out other conditions
- Initial radiographs may appear normal in OCD

Lesion characteristics:

- Distinct Lucent areas w/ varying density levels
- Calcifications & Lucent lines may or may not be present, depending on lesion severity
- B comparison

Classification:

- Lesion location can provide important prognostic info
- Atypical locations like trochlea or patella may not respond effectively to conservative management

MRI evaluation

- Useful for assessing unstable lesions presenting w/ mechanical Ssx or knee effusion
- Unstable lesions on mRI may exhibit increased T2 signal, destruction of overlying articular cartilage, or multiple cyst-like foci
- Gadolinium contrast may be necessary for assessing blood supply & stability uncertainties
- Line of high signal intensity between fragment & underlying bone is a sensitive prognosticator



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Osteochondritis Dissecans (OCD) (cont)

· Complicat-

- If left untreated, adults often progress to arthritis

ions:

- Degenerative articular changes over time
- A non-union & dissociation of the bony fragment
- Chronic px & mechanical Ssx
- Surgical complications inc. postop infection, pneumonia, haemorrhage, & reactions to anesthesia
- Venous thrombosis due to immobility

· Management:

- Prognosis influenced by age, location & appearance of lesion

Non-operative:

- Recommended for juvenile pts w/o a displaced fragment OR stage 1-3 disease
- Immobilisation & protected WB for 4-6 weeks
- Physical therapy initiated after immobilisation & continued until pain-free, achieving full ROM, strength, power, & mobility
- NSAIDs for px & edema

Operative:

- Surgery recommended if conservative treatment ineffective after 3-6 months or if not suitable
- 1° treatment for Ssx related to OCD in adults, stage 2 disease, or expanding lesions on radiographs
- Surgical intervention warranted in juveniles w/ stage 4 disease, loose bodies, unstable lesions, or impending physeal .



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Osteochondritis Dissecans (OCD) (cont)

• Ddx:

Juvenile:

- Patellofemoral syndrome
- Patellar tendonitis
- Osgood-Schlatter disease
- Sinding-Larsen-Johansson syndrome
- Fat pad impingement
- Symptomati discoid meniscus
- Symptomatic synovial plica

Adult:

- Patellofemoral px
- Knee OA
- Chondromalacia
- Patellar tendonitis
- Meniscal tear
- Fat pad impingement
- Symptomatic synovial plica

Adult w/ more severe Ssx:

E.g. atraumatic edema & mechanical Ssx

- Meniscal tear
- Osteochondral loose body
- Neoplasm

link text

Patellofemoral Pain Syndrome (PFPS)

GREEN

· Intro:

- Also known as Chondromalacia patella (CMP) & Runner's knee
- Softening of hyaline cartilage on articular surfaces of bones
- CMP specifically refers to the softening, tearing, fissuring, & erosion of the patellar cartilage
- Can occur in any joint, but common in joints w/ trauma & deformities



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Patellofemoral Pain Syndrome (PFPS) (cont)

· Aetiology (risk factors):

- F>N
- Increased Q angles in F (lateral positioning of the patella)
- No hormonal cause has been identified
- Active young adults (esp. running sports), & workers who stress their patellofemoral joint (stairs, kneeling)
- Often multifactorial
- LL malalignment & patellar maltracking play a significant role
- Foot & ankle variances: pes planus can lead to increased lateral wear of the patellofemoral joint
- Miserable malalignment syndrome, w/ femoral ante version, gene valium, & pronated feet
- Muscular weakness: vests medals & core m.
- Patellar lesions from injuries, immobilisation, or surgical procedures causing quadriceps atrophy
- Abnormal wear & tear of the patellofemoral joint's hyaline cartilage
- latrogenic factors: injecting chondrotoxic medications into joints

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Patellofemoral Pain Syndrome (PFPS) (cont)

· Pathophysiology:

Pathological process:

- Hyaline cartilage composed of chondrocytes, type 2 collagen, proteoglycans, & water
- Avascular w/ nutrients diffusing from synovial fluid
- Poor repair due to lack of blood supply, devoid of lymphatic & neural tissue

Factors leading to hyaline cartilage degeneration:

- Destruction by chondrotoxic substances, cytokinins, & proteolytic enzymes
- Microtrauma from wear & tear
- Repeated compressive stress or increased loads on patellofemoral joint
- Aging-related decrease in chondrocytes, proteoglycan production, & water content
- Cross-linking of collagen fibrils leads to loss of elastic properties
- Superficial zone of hyaline cartilage is the 1st to degenerate in aging process

Px generation:

- Anterior fat pad & joint capsule commonly involved in generating px signals
- SUbchondral bone less likely to cause px signals
- -Initiation of CMP pathology: begins w/ softening, swelling, & edema of articular cartilage

Clinical presentation:

- CC: anterior knee px
- Pts may report insidious onset of diffuse retropatellar or pre patellar px, exacerbated by activities stressing the patellofemoral joint
- Aggravating factors: stair ascending or descending, squatting, kneeling, running, & prolonged sitting (theatre px)
- Additional Ssx: effusion, quadriceps wasting, & retropatellar crepitus (not specific to CMP)
- Hx evaluation: previous trauma, comorbid conditions, joint stability, foot & ankle issues, & activity levels

Physical examination:

- Px is usually sharp & achy
- Examine quadriceps appearance, foot & ankle orientation, & specific evaluation of the patellofemoral joint
- Patella malt racking signs: increased femoral anteversion, EXT tibial torsion, lateral patella subluxation, loss of medial patellar mobility
- +ve patellar apprehension test
- +ve Clark's test



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Patellofemoral Pain Syndrome (PFPS) (cont)

· Diagnosis:

- Reliable Dx requires excluding other conditions causing anterior knee px
- Arthroscopy is the most efficient (invasive, so non-invasive methods essential for initial Dx)
- Plain radiographs: lower sensitivity in earlier stages
- CT: measures TT-TG distance & detects torsional deformities of the LL
- MRI: modality of choice fro articular cartilage, esp. T2 sequence

· Complications:

- 2° to NSAID usage (e.g. GI Ssx)
- Bracing may cause dermatological reactions

· Management:

- Min. 12 months of conservative management before considering surgery
- May be reversible
- Could progress to patellofemoral OA
- Pts often fully recover (can take months to yrs)

Conservative 1st phase:

- Activity modification
- RICE
- NSAIDs

Conservative 2nd phase:

- Knee + hip exercise to increase strength, mobility & function
- Patella taping

· Ddx:

- Patellofemoral OA
 - Osgood-Schlatter
 - Plica syndrome
 - Bursitis
 - Saphenous neuritis
 - Quadriceps tendinopathy
 - Patellar tendinopathy
 - Referred px from hip/back

link text

Medial Tibial Stress Syndrome (MTSS)

- GREEN
- Intro:
- Early stress injury leading to tibial stress fractures
- Known also as shin splints
- Common overuse injury in athletes & military personnel
- Involves exercise-induced px along the anterior tibia



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Medial Tibial Stress Syndrome (MTSS) (cont)

Aetiology (risk

- 13-20% incidence in runners

- Up to 35% in military

factors):

- Factors contributing: significant increasing loads, volume, & high-impact exercises
- $\textbf{-Intrinsic risk factors:} \ \mathsf{F} \ \mathsf{gender}, \ \mathsf{previous} \ \mathsf{MTSS} \ \mathsf{Hx}, \ \mathsf{high} \ \mathsf{BMI}, \ \mathsf{navicular drop}, \ \mathsf{ankle} \ \mathsf{plantar} \ \mathsf{FX} \ \mathsf{range}, \ \mathsf{hip} \ \mathsf{EXT} \ \mathsf{ROT}$

ange

- Overuse condition, specifically a tibial bony overload injury w/ associated periostitis
- Common for: recurrent impact exercise, such as running, jumping, & military personnel
- Suggested link between vitamin D & increased risk of stress injury

· Pathophysiology:

- Involves accumulation of unprepared micrdamage in the cortical bone of the distal tibia
- Overlying periostitis is typically present at the site of bony injury
- Periostitis correlates w/ tendinous attachments of soleus, flexor digitorum longus, & posterior tibialis
- Sharpey's fibers, perforating connective tissue linking periosteum to bone, play a role in the mechanical connection
- Repetitive muscle traction is believed to be the underlying cause of periostitis & cortical microtrauma

Clinical presentation:

- Presence of exercise-induced px along the distal 2/3 of the medial tibial border
- Presence of px provoked during or after physical activity, which reduces w/ relative rest
- The absence of cramping, burning px over the posterior compartment &/or numbness/tingling in the foot

Physical examination:

- Presence of recognisable px reproduced w/ palpation of the posteromedial tibial border >5cm
- The absence of other findings not typical of MTSS (e.g. severe swelling, erythema, loss of distal pulses, etc)

· Diagnosis:

- Dx through clinical & physical findings
- Imaging done when uncertain about cause or to rule out other exercise-induced LL injuries
- Plain radiographs are normal in MTSS & early stress fractures
- "dreaded black line" indicates a stress fracture
- MRI is preferred for identifying MTSS & higher-grade bone stress injuries like tibial stress fractures



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Medial Tibial Stress Syndrome (MTSS) (cont)

· Complicat-

- Px leading to decreased performance &/or time away from training/participation

ions:

- May progress to tibial stress fracture
- Severe tibial stress fractures may require surgical intervention

Manage-

- Full recovery is expected

ment:

- Rest & activity modification w/ less repetitive, load-bearing exercise
- Additional therapies: iontophoresis, phonophoresis, ice massage, US therapy, periosteal pecking, & extracorporeal shockwave therapy
- No benefit: low-energy laser therapy, stretching, strengthening, LL braces, & compression stockings
- Slow response cases: optimising calcium & vitamin D status & gait retraining may improve recovery & prevent further progre-

• Ddx:

- Tibial stress fracture
- Compartment syndrome
- Functional popliteal artery entrapment syndrome

link text

Varicose Veins

YELLOW

· Intro:

- Characterised by subcutaneous dilated, tortuous veins of ≧3mm
- Age & FHx are important risk factors
- Common clinical manifestations of chronic venous disease
- Evaluating associated superficial axial venous reflux is crucial
- Manifestations can range from limited leg discomfort to swelling & non-healing ulcers

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Up to 30% of general population
- F>M
- Risk factors: F gender, multiparty, high BMI, constipation, Hx of venous thrombosis, smoking, & circulating iron levels
- Both genetic & environmental factors



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Varicose Veins (cont)	
Pathophysiology:	 Valve dysfunction leads to increased pressure in veins Elevated pressure causes vein walls to weaken & dilate Ironic pressure causes the vein walls to stretch & lose elasticity Weakened walls contribute to the development of varicosities
Clinical presentation:	 Leg heaviness Itching Cramps Mild tenderness Skin discoloration Exercise intolerance Leg fatigue
Physical examination:	 Visible distended veins from thigh to ankle Discolouration most prominent around ankle & calf Special test: Trendelenburg test - assesses deep venous valve competency
• Diagnosis:	CEAP classification: - C0: no visible, palpable signs - C1: spider veins - C2: varicose veins - C3: edema - C4a: pigmentation, eczema - C4b: lipodermatoslerosis - C5: healed ulcer - C6: active ulcer - Colour duplex venous US exam is recommended for suspected venous reflux
Complications:	 Venous ulcers Pain Poor cosmesis DVT PE (rare) Superficial thrombophlebitis might be complicated w/ prolonged bleeding & px Superficial vein thrombosis
Management:	No cureLong-term graduated compression stockings, leg elevation, & oral px medicationSurgery (recurrence is likely)



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Varicose Veins (cont)

· Ddx:

- Lymphedema

- DVT

- Cellulitis

- Dermatological disorders (e.g. stasis dermatitis)

link text

Vascu	

• RED

· Intro:

- Heterogenous group of over 30 different kinds of vasculitis. presenting either as a 1° process or 2° to another pathology

- Clinical & pathological manifestation vary based on the affected blood vessels' type & location

Aetiology

- Incidence of 20-40 million / year

(risk

- Gender dominance depending on type of vasculitis

factors):

- Giant cell arteritis is the most common form

- Risk factors: Behcet disease (ancient Silk route), Takayasu disease (South Asian), Kawasaki disease (children <5), hepatitis

B/C

· Pathop-

- Unknown specific cause

hysiology:

- Immune system activation: becomes overactive

- Inflammation of blood vessels: immune system mistakenly identifies blood vessels as foreign invaders

- Attack on endothelium: attacks the endothelium (inner lining of blood vessels)

- Adhesion molecules & leukocyte activation: cytokines. signalling molecules in the immune system, cause changes in adhesion

molecules on the endothelium → inappropriate activation of leukocytes & their adherence to the blood vessel walls

- Vessel damage: combined effect of immune cells sticking to the blood vessel walls & the inflammatory response damages the

vessels

- Formation of immune complexes or antibodies: different forms of vasculitis may involve the formation of immune complexes or

the production of antibodies targeting specific components in the blood vessels

- Granuloma formation (in some cases): in certain vasculitis types. granulomas may form. contributing to tissue damage

Clinical

- Ssx dependent on location of vasculitis

presen-

- Potential organ damage from vasculitis

tation:

- Fevers, unexplained weight loss

- Nose bleeding, hemoptysis, hematuria



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Vasculitis (cont)

Physical examination:	 - Upper airway disease - Ocular inflammation - Limb claudication - +ve sensory/motor neuropathy, purpura, change of pulses
Diagnosis:	 Chest x-ray or high-resolution CT for respiratory Ssx Vascular imaging (MRI, MRA, CTA, vascular US, PET) to detect large artery lesions in vasculitis cases Labs: CBC, kidney & liver function, ESR, serologies, & urinalysis w/ urinary sediment
Complications:	 Depend on the type of vessel involved Large vessel involvement: acute MI, stroke, mesenteric ischemia, aortic s., critical extremity ischemia Life threatening complications of small vessels: alveolar haemorrhage, renal failure, intestinal ischemia
Management:	 Long-term survival highly depends on the Dx, response to treatment, & adverse effects of drugs Managed w/ medication 3 main components: remission induction, remission maintenance, & monitoring
• Ddx:	Infections, neoplasms & certain drug toxicities can mimic vasculitisCoagulopathies can present w/ similar Ssx to vasculitis
link text	

Venous Thrombo-embolism (VTE)

• RED

• Intro: - Significant complication of hospitalisation

- 3rd leading CV Dx, following heart attacks & strokes

- VTE encompasses DVT & PE

Growing public health concernNeed for increased awareness among the public & healthcare providers

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Venous Thrombo-embolism (VTE) (cont)

Aetiology (risk factors):

- Global annual burden of VTE is in millions
- Significant morbidity & mortality associated w/ VTE cases worldwide
- Majority of VTE cases are hospital-related or acquired (60%)
- Leading preventable cause of death in hospitalised pts
- Risk factor: >40 yrs, obesity, varicose veins, immobility, oral contraceptive, smoking, hypercoagulability, pregnancy, & pelvic/hip/long-bone fractures
- Disease states † risk: malignancies, spinal cord injury, nephrotic s., congestive heart failure, IBD, & recent MI

Pathophysiology:

- Venous thrombosis involves the formation of a clot made of platelets & fibrin within blood vessels
- Clinically significant thrombi typically form in large-lumen vessels, such as deep veins in the legs, pelvis, & arms
- Clots can propagate & extend proximally, leading to clinical Ssx when vascular flow is obstructed
- Dislodged clots may embolise to distant sites, w/ the pulmonary vasculature being a common location
- Obstruction in pulmonary vascular flow can result in impaired gas exchange, alveolar edema, & pulmonary alveolar necrosis
- Chronic repetitive pulmonary embolisation can increase pulmonary vascular resistance, ultimately causing pulmonary hypertension
- In the presence of cardiac abnormalities like a patent foramen ovale or atrial septal defect, paradoxical embolism may occur, leading to systemic arterial vascular involvement

 Clinical & physical findings of DVT:

- Unilateral limb px is a common complaint
- Physical signs may include swelling, warmth, & tenderness to touch
- Physical exam signs for DVT have low Dx yield



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Venous Thrombo-embolism (VTE) (cont)

 Clinical & physical findings: Sudden onset of dyspnea (most common presenting complaint) Pleuritic chest px, cough, & hemoptysis Massive PE can lead to syncope, hypotension, & shock Physical examination findings for PE are variable & often nonDx 	
- Tachypnea (resp. rate >18/min) is common - In older pts, new-onset atrial fibrillation may be a presenting Ssx Established PE physical findings: - Tachypnea (resp. rate >18/min) is common - Rales may be present in up to 50% of cases - Tachycardia (HR >100/min) & fever occur in about 45% - Diaphoresis & S3 or S4 gallop may be audible in about 30% - Pleural friction rub may indicate peripheral PE w/ pulmonary necrosis	
Diagnosis:	
Bleeding Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia Warfarin-induced skin necrosis	

Management:

- Treatment is based on associated conditions

- 1° treatment is anticoagulation

• Ddx:

- Localised Ssx of DVT can be similar to cellulitis, arterial insufficiency, lymphedema, & hematoma

- PE: congestive heart failure, acute respiratory distress s., pneumonia, & MI

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