

Evidence-Based Medicine: Rhinoplasty

Daniel O. Beck, M.D.
Jeffrey M. Kenkel, M.D.

Dallas, Texas



American Board of
Plastic Surgery
ABMS MOC®

Learning Objectives: After studying this article, the participant should be able to: 1. Discuss the key components in the aesthetic, functional, and emotional evaluation of a patient presenting for rhinoplasty. 2. Describe the various surgical options to achieve the goals identified during consultation. 3. Recognize appropriate nonsurgical options and their limitations for treating nasal deformities. 4. Assess the benefits and risks of using perioperative antibiotics in rhinoplasty. 5. Identify common postoperative sequelae of rhinoplasty and formulate a plan of care based on best evidence data.

Summary: This article was prepared to accompany practice-based assessment with ongoing surgical education for the Maintenance of Certification for the American Board of Plastic Surgery. It outlines the evaluation of the rhinoplasty patient and highlights both surgical and nonsurgical options to address nasal defects. In addition, data from the current literature are included to supplement physician knowledge for enhanced perioperative care and improved outcomes. (*Plast. Reconstr. Surg.* 134: 1356, 2014.)

Rhinoplasty is one of the most challenging operations in all of plastic surgery. With little margin for error, guided and precise movements are essential to successful functional and aesthetic outcomes. Despite its complexity, rhinoplasty remains the second most common aesthetic surgical procedure performed by plastic surgeons, with 242,684 cases in 2012.¹ The purpose of this article is to briefly review key anatomy and concepts and provide a summary of recent evidence-based studies on rhinoplasty to guide the surgeon's practice. An excellent comprehensive review of rhinoplasty techniques was published in this *Journal* as a CME article in 2011 by Rohrich and Ahmad.²

PREOPERATIVE ASSESSMENT

The preoperative assessment is the opportunity for the surgeon to learn what specifically the patient is dissatisfied with regarding his or her nose. In addition, it allows the surgeon to perform a complete nasal examination and analysis. Based on these assessments, an appropriate surgical plan can be made. Just as important, it provides the opportunity for the surgeon to assess patient expectations, evaluate whether these expectations

are realistic, and ascertain the patient's psychological fit for rhinoplasty.

A comprehensive nasal history to elicit factors affecting surgical planning and perioperative care is documented. The duration, frequency, and laterality of all symptoms should be noted. A record of allergies, recurrent epistaxis, rhinitis, or sinusitis must be well characterized and controlled before surgery.³ Prior nasal trauma, surgical interventions, cocaine use, or a history of obstruction may present with altered anatomy and may be missed on cursory examination. Current prescription and over-the-counter medications are reviewed to identify those with a known increased risk of bleeding. Finally, any factors contributing to compromised wound healing including smoking and metabolic disorders are documented.

The external and internal nasal valves, the inferior turbinates, and the nasal septum all influence flow through the nasal airway and should be evaluated thoroughly in patients presenting for rhinoplasty. On examination, external indicators of nasal abnormality include inspiratory collapse of the external nasal valves and subjective inspiratory improvement with

From the Department of Plastic Surgery, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center.

Received for publication April 2, 2014; accepted May 8, 2014.

Copyright © 2014 by the American Society of Plastic Surgeons

DOI: 10.1097/PRS.0000000000000718

Disclosure: Dr. Beck has no commercial or financial disclosures. Dr. Kenkel is an investigator for Allergan, Ultra Shape, and Solta and a member of the advisory board for Kythera and Ulthera. No outside funding was received for this work.

application of the Cottle maneuver. Anterior rhinoscopy with a lighted nasal speculum facilitates internal examination, including dynamic collapse of the internal nasal valve and evaluation of the inferior turbinates for hypertrophy. The septum is examined for any deformities or perforations, and the availability of cartilage as a source of graft material is assessed. The presence of uncharacteristic masses or obstruction from an unidentified source warrants further workup and investigation by rhinomanometry or sinus computed tomography.⁴⁻⁶

Idyllic proportions attempting to define aesthetic beauty are well detailed in the literature and have evolved to recognize the impact of age, sex, and ethnic variances.⁷⁻²⁴ A complete systematic nasofacial analysis, guided by these norms, identifies existing anatomical relationships and irregularities (Table 1).

At this point, pertinent findings and the surgical goals should be discussed and any discrepancies between patient expectations and the surgical plan addressed. Recent advances in computer imaging and three-dimensional modeling can assist in creating this unified vision (Figs. 1 and 2).^{25,26} It may be helpful to see the patient more than once to review the surgical goal and how it fits with the patient's expectations.

Patient Selection

Proper patient selection is the single most important determinant of procedural success. With minimal assistance, most patients are able to define and prioritize specific concerns of nasal appearance and function. Any inability to meet initial expectations is tempered by an understanding of the limitations of rhinoplasty. For patients who remain focused on minor defects or maintain unrealistic expectations after consultation, the chance of poor postoperative satisfaction, regardless of aesthetic result, is high. Before any intervention, the emotional stability and motivating factors for seeking rhinoplasty should be evaluated thoroughly (Fig. 3). Picavet et al. assessed the psychiatric state of 226 patients seeking rhinoplasty by evaluating the prevalence and severity of body dysmorphic disorder (**Level of Evidence: Risk, III**).²⁷ In the overall rhinoplasty population, 33 percent demonstrated moderate or severe symptoms of body dysmorphic disorder, increasing to 43 percent in patients seeking aesthetic rhinoplasty. There was a significant correlation between the prevalence of body dysmorphic disorder and aesthetic consultation, previous rhinoplasty, and an existing psychiatric history. However, no significant correlation was found between patient age, sex, marital status,

Table 1. Systematic Nasal Analysis*

View	Characteristics for Evaluation
Frontal	
Facial proportions	With focus on symmetry of middle and lower thirds
Skin type/quality	Fitzpatrick type; thin or thick; sebaceous
Symmetry and nasal deviation	Midline; C-, reverse C- or S-shaped deviation
Bony vault	Narrow or wide; short or long nasal bones; asymmetries
Midvault	Narrow or wide; lateral or dorsal collapse; inverted-V deformity
Dorsal aesthetic lines	Well- or ill-defined; symmetry; continuity; straight or divergent; narrow or wide
Nasal tip	Symmetry of tip-defining points; bulbous, boxy or pinched tip; supratip break; columellar-lobular angle; symmetry of infratip lobule
Alar rims	Gull-wing appearance with columella; notching; retraction; flare
Alar base	Width, alone and in relation to nasal tip
Upper lip	Long or short; dynamic effect of depressor septi muscles; creasing
Lateral	
Nasofrontal angle	Acute or obtuse; high or low position of radix
Nasal length	Long or short
Dorsum	Smooth vs. dorsal hump; overprojection or scooping
Supratip	Presence or absence of break; fullness; polybeak deformity
Tip projection	Overprojected or underprojected
Tip rotation	Overrotated or underrotated; evaluation of nasolabial angle; fullness at columellar-lobular angle
Alar-columellar relationship	Hanging or retracted ala and/or columella
Periapical hypoplasia	Deficiency of maxilla, soft tissue, or both
Lip-chin relationship	Normal; vertical deficiency or excess; horizontal deficiency or excess
Basal	
Nasal projection	Columellar-to-lobular ratio
Nostril	Shape, symmetry, axial orientation
Columella	Septal tilt, flaring of the medial crura
Alar base	Base width and width-to-height ratio

*Adapted from Rohrich RJ, Ahmad J. Rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:49-73.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/plasreconsurg by RZUSYS/Rly/qZqH+J5N/YoV/6s8t/G+hNOVYjTY/C2t5u-bV2Mw44N6awDkKbJm0/CBSWIB/TZvol.4I4GjgJznd6KQeqePqdTYzTrn66446mqdCHZE8W20wLAvDv4K55fjImy9b230= on 11/06/2023

other previous aesthetic procedures, and the severity of body dysmorphic disorder symptoms.

Antibiotics

The intranasal area is a clean contaminated field, with *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, and *Streptococcus viridans* the most commonly identified organisms of the nasal flora. The drive to prevent surgical-site infection by these potential infectious organisms has fostered an increased use of perioperative antibiotics in rhinoplasty despite no definitive consensus on site contamination, efficacy, or dosing.^{28–34}

Rajan et al.³⁵ performed a prospective study of 200 patients undergoing septorhinoplasty. Patients received prophylactic antibiotics as a single intravenous dose or a single intravenous dose with an oral course for 7 days. No significant difference in postoperative wound infection was seen between the two groups. However, the incidence of antibiotic-related side effects was significantly greater (29 percent versus 2 percent) in the combined regimen group, suggesting that prolonged antibiotic use is not warranted. Andrews et al.³⁶ performed a prospective trial of 164 patients undergoing septorhinoplasty who were randomized to receive either three prophylactic intravenous doses of antibiotic over 12 hours or three intravenous doses with an oral course for 7 days. No significant difference in infection rate was noted between patients receiving perioperative versus postoperative antibiotics.

Ricci and D'Ascanio³⁷ performed a prospective trial of 630 patients undergoing septoplasty to assess the necessity of antibiotic prophylaxis. Subjects were randomized to receive no antibiotic prophylaxis, a single intravenous dose at induction, or a single intravenous dose with an oral course for 7 days. Postoperative complication and infection rates were nearly identical between all groups and in line with previous studies, leading to the conclusion that prophylactic antibiotic use is not required. Toia et al.³⁸ performed a prospective study of 1100 plastic surgery patients, with 287 that underwent a clean procedure including rhinoplasty. In this group, antibiotic prophylaxis was administered only when the operation lasted more than 3 hours and/or the American Society of Anesthesiologists score was 3 or higher. This resulted in a 1.1 percent overall surgical-site infection rate, which was lower than previously reported studies, leading to the conclusion that antibiotic prophylaxis in rhinoplasty is required only when the above criteria are met.

S. aureus/Methicillin-Resistant *S. aureus*

The anterior nares and vestibule of approximately 60 percent of the general population are intermittently colonized by methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus*, in line with colonization rates exhibited by patients presenting for septorhinoplasty (**Reference 33 Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, III**).^{33,39} Routine preoperative screening followed by nasal and extranasal decolonization of carriers has demonstrated a significant reduction in hospital-acquired surgical-site infection by endogenous methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* during prolonged hospital admissions (>4 days).⁴⁰ However, local infection by *S. aureus* following septorhinoplasty is less common than with other local flora, and a paucity of literature exists demonstrating a direct correlation between nasal colonization and subsequent infection. Currently, no high-level, evidence-based data exist to suggest a benefit to identification and treatment of nasal colonization by methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* in the typical healthy, day-surgery rhinoplasty patient. Furthermore, the presence of methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* in healthy carriers is protective against nasal colonization by any of the more virulent strains of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*. Preoperative eradication of methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* with the use of broad-spectrum antibiotics permits colonization by methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* and is of particular concern in cohorts with greater risk of exposure to methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*, including health care workers, patients with hospital admissions in the past year, those caring for children or the elderly, and the immunocompromised.^{41,42} To further delineate risk factors for nasal colonization by methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*, Nicholas et al.⁴³ reviewed 157 patients presenting for outpatient rhinologic surgery. The prevalence of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* colonization was noted to be 1.3 percent and found to have a significant correlation with a previous history of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infection. Conversely, recent antibiotic use, recent hospitalization, previous intranasal surgery, or occupations in health care were not significant lone risk factors for preoperative methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* colonization.

Although the reported incidence of localized methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infection after septorhinoplasty is extremely low, difficulties in treating resistant bacteria and potential compromise of functional or cosmetic results warrant consideration of preoperative identification and eradication in nasal carriers. In addition, best practice

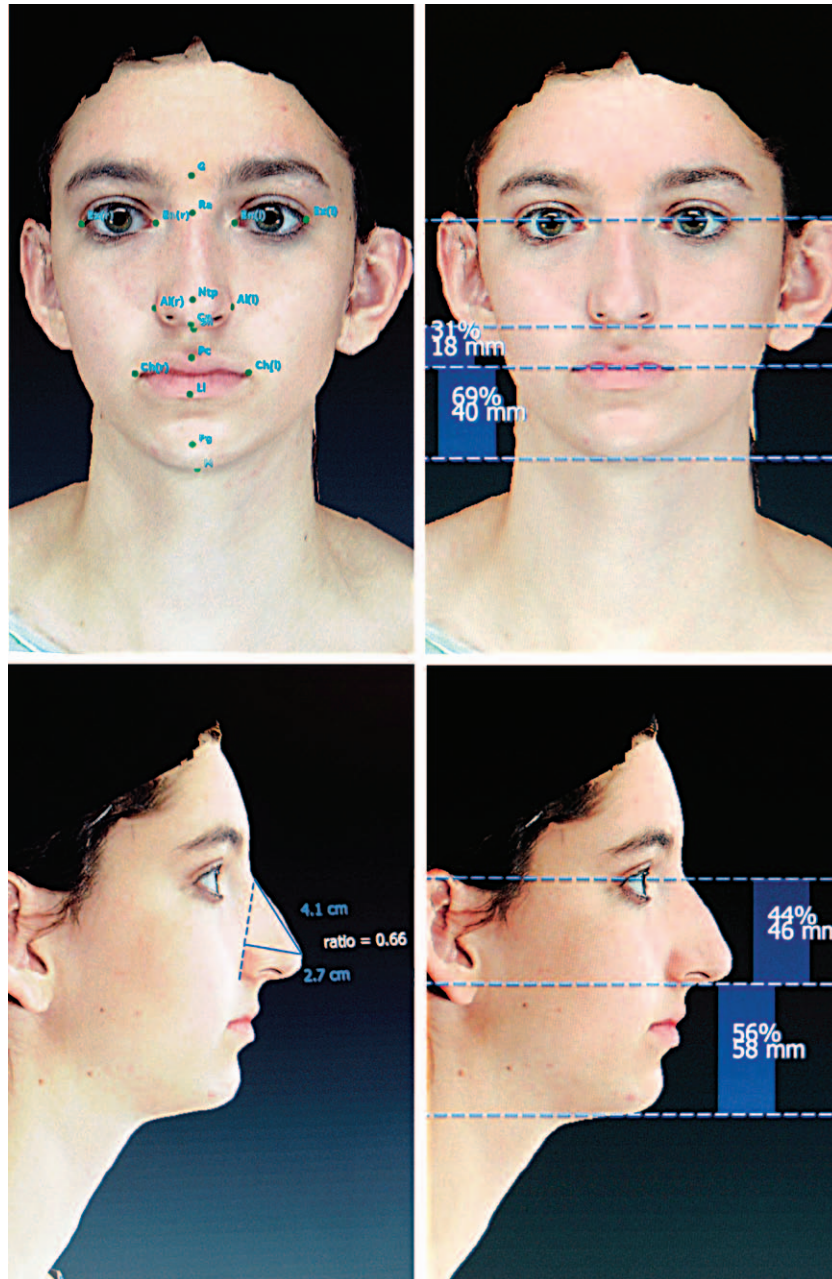


Fig. 1. Three-dimensional modeling and analysis by stereophotogrammetry. (Above) Multiple synchronous digital photographs are captured at various angles to the patient and merged to create a three-dimensional image. Key landmarks are selected either manually or automatically on the three-dimensional model (above, left) and analyzed with special software. Image morphing and manipulation of the facial proportions (above, right, and below, right) and nasal parameters (below, left) can be performed immediately with the patient or saved for later use. All generated images can be rotated and visualized in multiple planes. Images shown here were captured and analyzed using the Vectra 3D system (Canfield Scientific, Inc., Fairfield, N.J.).

management includes identification of at-risk patients presenting with suspected surgical-site infection after rhinoplasty along with thorough clinical assessment and delineation of simple

soft-tissue infections from those requiring surgical intervention.⁴⁴ Routine postoperative surgical-site testing in nonsymptomatic patients is not recommended. Common agents for empiric therapy of

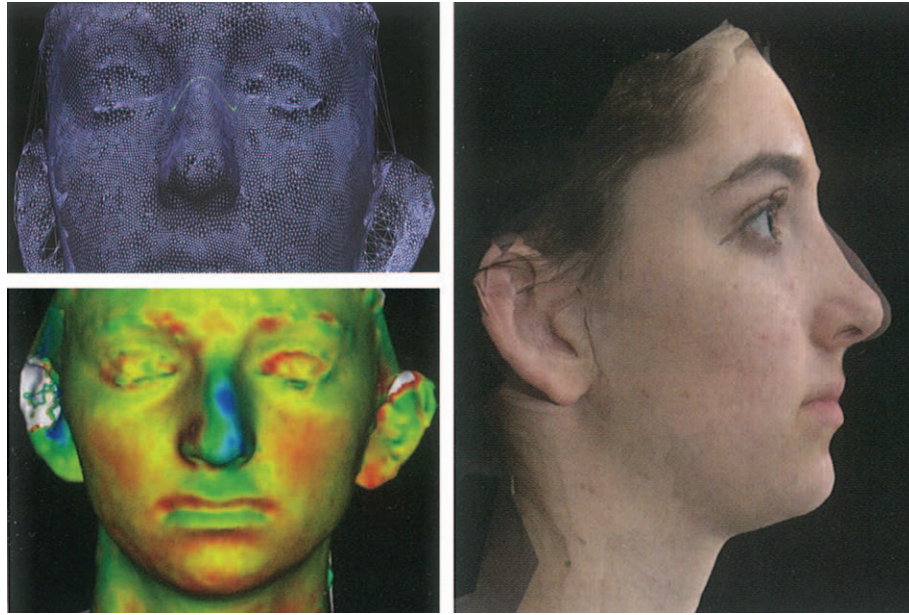


Fig. 2. Unlike standard two-dimensional photography, three-dimensional imaging software allows point-to-point measurements along the contour of the nose (*above, left*) and analysis of volume differences by means of changes in a color gradient (*below, left*) to further operative planning. After digital manipulation of the targeted areas, the preoperative and postoperative images can be superimposed to conceptualize the planned operative changes (*right*). The overlay photograph can be saved and used for review of the surgical goals at subsequent preoperative visits with the patient. (Reprinted with permission from Afrooz PN, Amirlak BA. Digital imaging and standardized photography in rhinoplasty. In: Rohrich RJ, Adams WP Jr, Ahmad J, Gunter JP, eds. *Dallas Rhinoplasty: Nasal Surgery by the Masters*. 3rd ed. Boca Raton, Fla: CRC Press; 2014:111–132.)

a suspected methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infection include trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole, rifampin, and clindamycin; however, methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* strains display complex susceptibility patterns, and choice of antibiotic therapy should be based on local prevalence and susceptibility data.⁴⁵

Surgical Intervention

Addressing patient concerns and achieving a balance of nasofacial relationships in line with age, sex, and ethnic considerations are the primary goals of aesthetic rhinoplasty. Successful execution depends on anatomical identification and adequate exposure of all deformities, followed by directed incremental correction with preservation of normal anatomy. Access for evaluation and repair can be gained through an open or endonasal approach. Both tactics have their merits and disadvantages (Table 2). Currently, no study with a high level of evidence comparing the open versus closed approach exists. Proper selection of technique is dependent on the anatomical deformities to be addressed and surgeon

preference.^{46–49} A sequential process for open rhinoplasty is presented (Table 3).

After initial exposure and evaluation, modification of the nasal dorsum is addressed. A prominent dorsal hump composed of bony and/or cartilaginous elements is a frequent presenting complaint in rhinoplasty patients. Reduction with preservation of the middle nasal vault and internal nasal valve can be achieved through a composite or component reduction technique. The component technique (Fig. 4) allows greater precision by following five essential steps: (1) separation of the upper lateral cartilages from the septum; (2) incremental reduction of the septum; (3) incremental dorsal bony reduction by rasping; (4) verification by palpation; and (5) any indicated final modifications (e.g., grafts, suturing techniques, osteotomies).^{50,51} Mojallal et al.⁵² performed a retrospective analysis of 100 patients undergoing primary rhinoplasty using the component technique for dorsal hump reduction (**Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, IV**). Preoperative and postoperative software imaging analysis demonstrated marked improvement in dorsal aesthetic

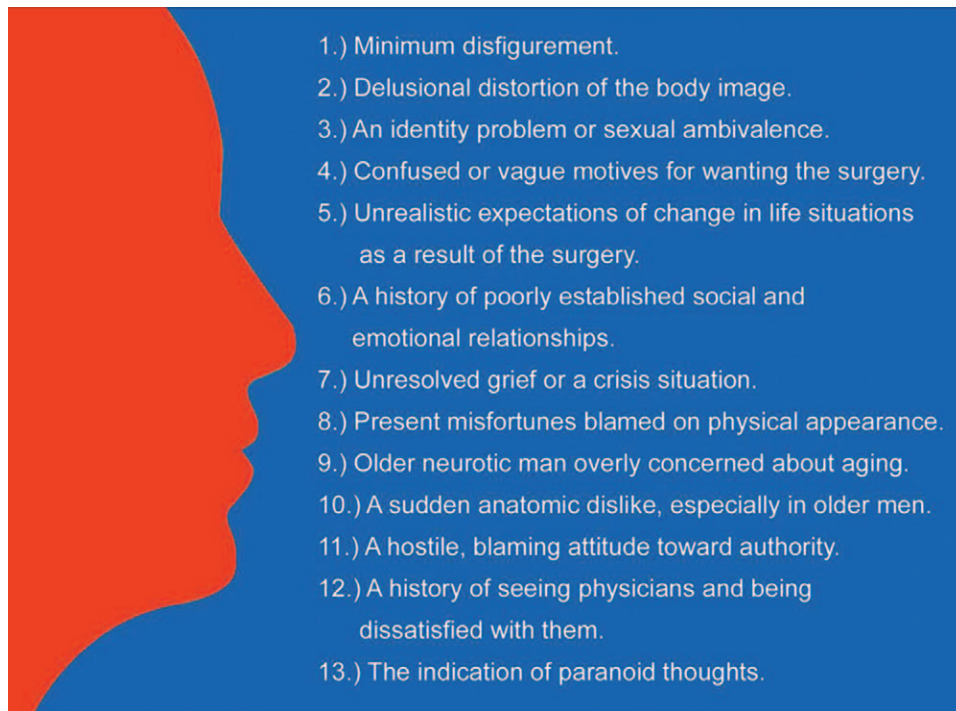


Fig. 3. Warning signs that may indicate a patient is not psychologically fit to be considered a candidate for elective aesthetic surgery. (Reprinted from Rohrich RJ, Janis JE, Kenkel JM. Male rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2003;112:1071–1085.)

line symmetry and facial balance, validating component dorsal reduction as a reliable and reproducible technique.

The component dorsal reduction technique can be used as a means of isolating the bony and midvault components in preparation for augmentation as well. Dorsal augmentation with cartilage, bone, soft tissue, and various synthetic components has been described. A comprehensive literature review by Lee et al.⁵³ examines the level of evidence, outcomes, and complications of studies using various techniques and materials for augmenting the nasal dorsum. They found that most studies reported favorable outcomes regardless of method used, although these results were composed largely of low-level (IV/V) evidence.

Thereafter, structures composing the internal nasal airway are addressed. Maintaining the anatomy and support of the midvault is vital to preventing collapse and compromise of the internal nasal valve. The need for graft support of this region should be assessed.^{54–59} Septal deviation can involve the quadrangular septal cartilage or bony elements from the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid and vomer. Configuration and degree of deviation can dictate treatment options and potential autologous graft availability.^{60–63} Adequate correction depends on complete release

of all mucoperichondrial attachments along with appropriate restorative techniques (e.g., cartilage scoring, resection, buttress grafts). Bony spurs are identified and resected as necessary. Inferior turbinate hypertrophy refractory to medical management is treated primarily with a turbino-plasty procedure.⁶⁴ Analysis of the common surgical techniques demonstrated an optimal level of nasal patency and mucociliary clearance at 6-year follow-up using submucosal resection with or without outfracture (**Reference 65 Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, II**).^{65,66}

Next, the intricate relationships among the lower lateral cartilage, caudal septum, ligamentous support structures, and the overlying soft tissue are addressed. Collectively, these structures comprise the nasal tip, infratip lobule, columella, and ala and define the lower third of the nose.^{67,68} Maneuvers for nasal tip contouring include cephalic trim of the lower lateral cartilages, tip-suturing techniques, tip grafting, and use of a columellar strut graft.^{69–87} Shortening and suturing of the middle and medial crura supplement correction of the infratip lobule and columella base not addressed using the above techniques.⁸⁸ Notching of the alar rims is effectively addressed with cartilage-based rim grafts, whereas more severe collapse requires maneuvers that reposition or revise

Table 2. Open versus Endonasal Rhinoplasty

Open
Advantages
Full exposure of nasal anatomy for diagnosis, evaluation, and correction of deformities
More options for graft refinement of nasal defects
Precise graft placement and suture stabilization
Ease of suture refinement techniques
Ability to control bleeding under direct visualization
Disadvantages
Transcolumellar incision with potential for wound healing and scarring
Extended operative time
Prolonged nasal tip edema
Closed
Advantages
Dissection limited to area(s) of deformity
No external scar
Ability to create a precise graft pocket, limiting the need for suture stabilization
Reduced operative time
Maintains full vascularity to the nasal tip, promoting wound healing
Reduced postsurgical edema
Disadvantages
Requires accurate preoperative diagnosis and surgical planning
Limits visualization of nasal anatomy
Limited ability to manipulate anatomy, making complex modifications difficult
Potential for overdissection of graft pocket and malposition of grafts

the length and strength of the lateral crura.^{89–99} Respecting the dynamic associations between structures in the lower third of the nose is the key to successfully creating balanced nasal contour, projection, and rotation.¹⁰⁰ Final shaping can be achieved with nasal osteotomies,^{101–109} depressor septi muscle translocation,^{110,111} and alar base resections^{112,113} as indicated.

Nonsurgical Intervention: Soft-Tissue Fillers

Synthetic Fillers

The use of soft-tissue fillers on minor irregularities after rhinoplasty provides a minimally invasive means of correction without subjecting the patient to the costs and risks of revision surgery. Furthermore, fillers are increasingly being used to correct discrete congenital and age-related asymmetries in patients looking for alternatives to primary surgical intervention.^{114–118} Proper use of fillers as an adjunct to rhinoplasty requires a full understanding of filler properties, injection techniques, and local anatomy for optimal outcome and avoidance of complications.

Of the available fillers, the most frequently reported materials used to improve the nasal silhouette include hyaluronic acid, calcium hydroxylapatite, and silicone. Hyaluronic acid, a component of human connective tissue, and

Table 3. Surgical Approach to Open Rhinoplasty

Local anesthetic injection, nasal packing for vasoconstriction
Transcolumellar and infracartilaginous incision
Skin elevation for exposure of lower and upper lateral cartilages
Intraoperative evaluation
Assessment of tip projection
Component dorsal hump reduction (bony, cartilaginous)
Septal reconstruction/graft harvest
Augmentation of dorsum/internal nasal valves
Cephalic trim of lower lateral cartilage (if indicated)
Establishment of final tip projection (suture techniques, columellar strut, tip grafts)
Alar rim grafts (if indicated)
Inspection/revision as necessary
Inferior turbinoplasty (if indicated)
Osteotomies
Final inspection and closure of incisions
Approximation of medial crural footplates (if indicated)
Alar base resection (if indicated)
Depressor septi muscle transection (if indicated)
Splints and dressing

calcium hydroxyapatite, a nonimmunogenic mineral constituent of bone, both provide a temporary, pliable, and predictable filler material. In addition, both display an excellent safety profile, and although not specific for nasal augmentation, both have been approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for augmentation of facial soft-tissue rhytides. The use of liquid silicone, a permanent highly viscous synthetic compound for augmentation, remains controversial.^{119–123} Reports of contour irregularities and granuloma formation have impacted its use as a soft-tissue filler. Currently, no U.S. Food and Drug Administration–approved injectable silicone for facial soft-tissue augmentation is available. The recommended layers for injection of soft-tissue fillers in rhinoplasty are typically within the mid to deep dermis, the immediate subdermal layer, and the supraperiosteal/supraperichondrial region to maximize the volumizing effect and avoid visual and palpable contour irregularities.^{124,125} Injection techniques vary and should be chosen based on the area being treated (Fig. 5).

Bioengineered hyaluronic acid products are chemically cross-linked to improve stability and maintain a specific viscosity and hydrophilicity (Table 4). A highly cross-linked, low-hydrophilic hyaluronic acid such as Restylane (Galderma Laboratories, L.P., Fort Worth, Tex.) will maintain the contour and fill seen at the time of injection and is preferred for augmentation of the thinner skin of the nasal dorsum and sidewalls (Fig. 6). In contrast, the various forms of Juvéderm (Allergan, Inc., Irvine, Calif.) have lower viscosity and greater hydrophilicity, imparting a pliability and potential bulk from

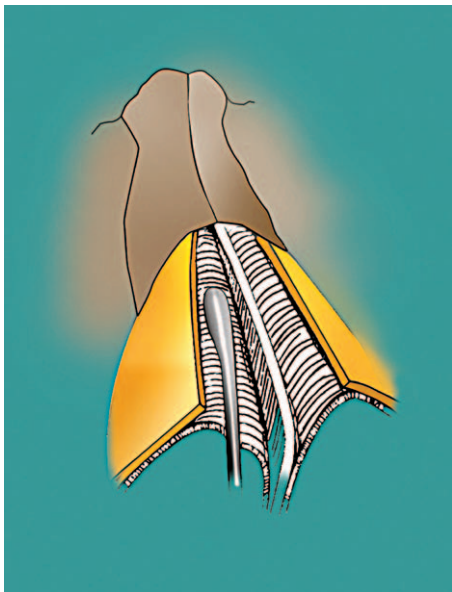


Fig. 4. Component dorsal reduction. Creation of submucoperichondrial tunnels and separation of the upper lateral cartilages from the septum allow preservation of the upper lateral cartilages and incremental reduction of the bony dorsum and cartilaginous septum as distinct units. Complete reduction is verified through three-point external palpation of the midline and bilateral dorsal aesthetic lines. Final modifications (e.g., grafts, suturing techniques, osteotomies) are performed as indicated. Addressing the dorsal components individually minimizes the common sequelae of composite reduction including overresection or underresection of the osseocartilaginous septum, inverted-V deformity, excessive midvault narrowing, irregularities of the dorsal aesthetic lines, cicatricial narrowing of the internal nasal valve, and webbing of the nasal vestibule. (Reprinted from Rohrich RJ, Muzaffar AR, Janis JE. Component dorsal hump reduction: The importance of maintaining dorsal aesthetic lines in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004;114:1298–1308.)

fluid absorption beneficial when augmenting the thicker tissue of the tip and ala¹²⁶ (Table 5). Overcorrection of targeted areas by 10 percent is safe and will help offset the 20 to 30 percent reduction of fill volume typically seen over the first 3 months after augmentation.¹²⁷ Duration of enhancement with hyaluronic acid fillers is influenced by injection site and filler properties but, overall, improvement can predictably range between 6 and 12 months, although correction lasting up to 18 months has been reported.¹²⁸ In addition, hyaluronic acid fillers have the luxury of being able to be reversed with hyaluronidase (10 units of hyaluronidase per 0.1 ml of hyaluronic acid injected).

Lack of hydrophilic properties, postinjection sculptability, and longevity of calcium hydroxylapatite may give a perceived advantage over hyaluronic

acid fillers. Treatment of smaller soft-tissue irregularities and larger bony and cartilaginous deformities of the nose have been treated with good patient satisfaction, few serious complications, and results persisting over 1 year.^{129–131} Rivkin and Soliemanzadeh¹³² retrospectively reviewed 295 patients selected from a 4-year sequential series of patients undergoing nonsurgical rhinoplasty with calcium hydroxylapatite (Radiesse; Merz Aesthetics, Greensboro, N.C.) and reported a revision rate of 44 percent within 2 months and 46 percent between 2 and 12 months of the initial procedure. Adverse events included prolonged (>2 weeks) swelling and erythema (17.6 percent), severe bruising (2.4 percent), cellulitis (2 percent), and skin necrosis (0.7 percent) and were more prevalent in patients undergoing previous rhinoplasty.

Thorough nasal analysis, an understanding of the surrounding vascular anatomy, and adherence to principals of safe injection technique are all vitally important in avoiding complications while augmenting the nose. Most complications such as infection, contour irregularity, and overfill are minor and easily corrected. However, vascular compromise from compression, dermal congestion, or intraarterial embolization can produce rare but devastating sequelae including skin necrosis or embolic occlusion of the retinal artery.^{133–136} Fundamental steps to minimize complications include the following:

- Judicious choice of filler material with appropriate viscosity and elasticity for the region being injected.
- Localization of the lateral and dorsal nasal arteries (anatomical landmarks, manual palpation).
- Consideration of altered vascular anatomy (e.g., previous rhinoplasty, fillers).
- Retrograde injection; with verification of the absence of flashback before injection when possible (a technique used successfully with lower viscosity hyaluronic acid fillers).
- Avoidance of high tissue tension by superficial or high-volume injection.
- Close monitoring for signs of ischemia.
- Use of reversal agents (i.e., hyaluronidase for hyaluronic acid).
- Avoidance of unnecessary external compression (e.g., glasses, splints, jewelry) for 1 week.
- Proper patient education to recognize potential signs of delayed complication (e.g., skin changes, abnormal swelling, pain).

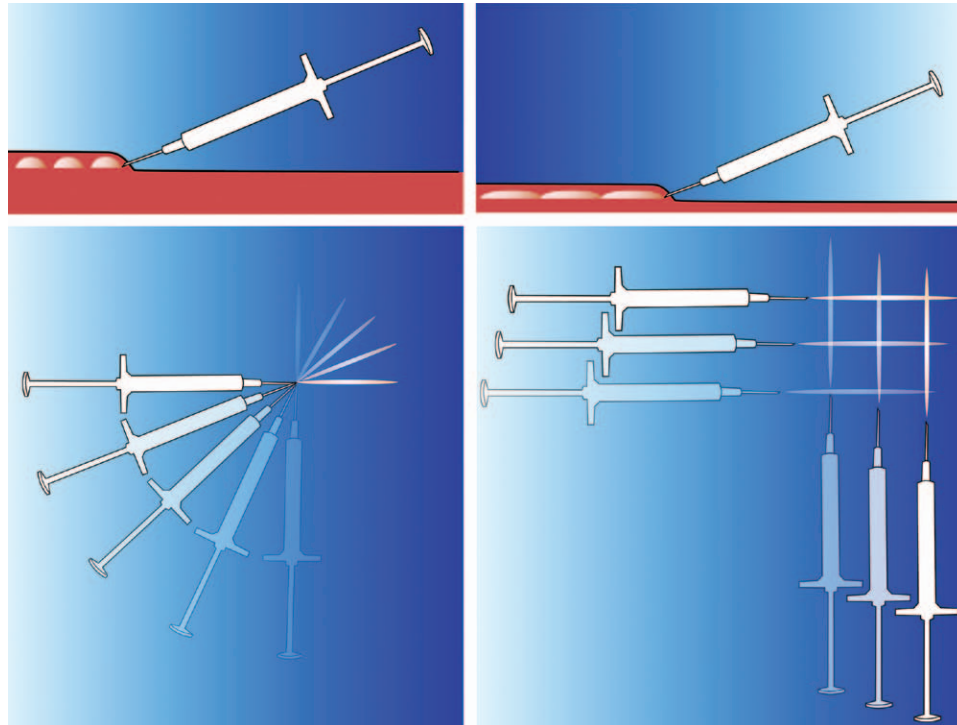


Fig. 5. Injection techniques for soft-tissue fillers: serial puncture (*above, left*), linear threading (*above, right*), fanning (*below, left*), and crosshatching/radial (*below, right*). [Reprinted from Rohrich RJ, Ghavami A, Crosby MA. The role of hyaluronic acid fillers (Restylane) in facial cosmetic surgery: Review and technical considerations. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2007;120:415–545.]

Autogenous Fat

With regenerative properties attributed to adipose cells, deficits and irregularities of the nose requiring long-term, large-volume correction may be better addressed with autologous filler material.^{137,138} The process of fat injections for augmenting facial soft-tissue volume has been well established.^{139–142} Nevertheless, the literature pertaining to aesthetic nasal augmentation remains sparse.^{143–146} Monreal¹⁴⁵ reports a series of 36 consecutive procedures using volumetric fat grafting in lieu of or as a complement to surgical rhinoplasty. Final graft take in all cases was estimated at 60 to 75 percent, with the most extensive volume resorption occurring in the first 2 weeks after treatment and stabilizing by 1 month. Baptista et al.¹⁴⁶ treated

nasal defects of 20 women after primary or secondary rhinoplasty. No resorption rate or final take is estimated, but only two subjects with severe saddle nose deformity required repeated injection at 6 months because of insufficient volume. Both studies report no complications and objective evaluation of results that are overwhelmingly satisfactory at least 1 year out. Beneficial secondary changes in skin and scar quality around the augmentation sites were noted but not formally studied.

Evidence on Management of Postoperative Edema and Ecchymosis

Corticosteroids

To date, no universal evidence-based guidelines aimed at routine administration of perioperative

Table 4. Properties of Soft-Tissue Fillers

Product	Total HA Concentration (mg/ml)	Cross-Linked (Stable) HA Concentration (mg/ml)	CaHA Concentration (%)	G' (Pa)	Viscosity (cPa)
Restylane	20	15	—	513	119,180
Perlane	20	15	—	541	124,950
Juvéderm Voluma	20	15	—	274	62,902
Juvéderm Ultra Plus	24	14	—	75	17,699
Juvéderm Ultra	24	14	—	28	7307
Radiesse	—	—	30	1407	349,830

HA, hyaluronic acid; CaHA, calcium hydroxylapatite.

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/plasreconsurg by RZUS/SR/ly/qz/g+J5iv/YoV/6s8t/G+hV/0Y/jTY/C2t5u
bZ2Mw+4Nk6awDkKb/m0/CBSW/IBTZ/vol.414/Gjg/znd6k/Qqea/PqdTY/zTrn66+46mqdCHYZE8w20wLAvDy4K55/5jlmj/9b230=on
11/06/2023



Fig. 6. Filler rhinoplasty. Correction of asymmetric dorsal aesthetic lines and narrow midvault in a 42-year old woman treated with hyaluronic acid. Preprocedure views (*left*) and postprocedure views (*right*) following treatment with 0.4 ml of Restylane to the left nasal sidewall and 0.1 ml of Restylane to the right nasal sidewall. (Reprinted from Kurkjian TJ, Ahmad J, Rohrich RJ. Soft-tissue fillers in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 2014;133:121e–126e.)

Downloaded from <http://journals.lww.com/plasreconsurg> by RZUSYSRlyqZg+J5ivYjoV6s8t/G+nVOYjTYC2t5u
bV2MMw44Nk6awDKbkfm0CBSWBTZvol.4f4lGjuznd6kQqaAePdTYzTrn66446mqQHYZE8w20wLAvDv4K55f5jimy9b230= on
11/06/2023

Table 5. Recommended Soft-Tissue Filler for Each Anatomical Region

Soft-Tissue Filler	Injection Technique	Note
Dorsum		
Restylane, Juvéderm Voluma	Retrograde; linear threading along long axis of nasal dorsum	May layer deep to superficial for volume
Radiesse	Retrograde; linear threading along long axis of nasal dorsum	Single supraperiosteal/perichondrial layer
Sidewall		
Restylane, Juvéderm Voluma	Retrograde; cross-hatching along flat plane of nasal sidewall	
Radiesse	Retrograde; cross-hatching along flat plane of nasal sidewall	
Tip		
Juvéderm Ultra or Ultra Plus	Serial puncture	Small volume deposits totaling 0.1–0.3 ml Small bolus at tip defining points
Radiesse	Serial puncture	
Ala		
Juvéderm Ultra or Ultra Plus	Single puncture	
Columella		
Juvéderm Ultra or Ultra Plus	Single puncture	Bolus injection at the columella base for simple tip ptosis
Radiesse	Single puncture and/or linear threading	Subcutaneous bolus at the nasal spine and retrograde injection to lengthen and strengthen the columella

corticosteroids for rhinoplasty exist. Variables including type of corticosteroid; dose strength; timing, route, and duration of administration have produced conflicting data as to its efficacy. Pulikkottil et al.¹⁴⁷ published a thorough literature review highlighting the variable findings in controlled trials of corticosteroid administration with rhinoplasty.

Hatef et al. published a systematic review to evaluate the efficacy of perioperative steroid dosing in decreasing edema and ecchymosis following rhinoplasty (**Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, II**).¹⁴⁸ Four prospective randomized trials quantifying upper and lower eyelid changes with single and extended dosing regimens were included.^{149–152} A meta-analysis demonstrated that perioperative use of corticosteroids led to a significant reduction in edema and ecchymosis at all sites of assessment, with an ideal time of administration occurring before surgical induction. In addition, continued oral administration for up to 3 days postoperatively was significantly more effective than a single perioperative dose. Youssef et al.¹⁵³ published a systematic review with meta-analysis of four studies examining corticosteroid administration versus placebo on post-rhinoplasty days 1, 3, and 7. They concluded that administration of perioperative steroids for reduced eyelid edema lost any significant effect after postoperative day 3.

Other Methods

In a recent survey of facial plastic surgeons,¹⁵⁴ the most commonly reported postoperative interventions to reduce edema and ecchymosis following rhinoplasty were head-of-bed elevation (93 percent) and application of ice packs (75 percent).

Only 21 percent of high-volume rhinoplasty surgeons routinely prescribe postoperative steroids, whereas 82 percent of all those surveyed do not administer corticosteroids at any time in the perioperative period. Interestingly, in this same group of high-volume surgeons, 61 percent prescribe *Arnica montana*, an herbal medication thought to have antiinflammatory properties but which has not unequivocally been shown to bestow any benefit (Table 6) (**Reference 157 Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, II**).^{155–158} Other compounds including *Ananas sativus* (bromelain/pineapple extract) and pseudoephedrine have been recognized in the literature as potential compounds to alleviate postoperative edema and ecchymosis following rhinoplasty.^{158,159}

Secondary Rhinoplasty

Altered anatomy, functional irregularities, scar formation with obliterated tissue planes, diminished autogenous graft material, and warping of previous grafts all pose potential challenges in revision rhinoplasty.¹⁶⁰ A recent survey of 1923 plastic surgeons and otolaryngologists revealed that wide access through an open approach for revision is embraced by a majority of respondents; however, 20 percent still rely primarily on endonasal revision.¹⁶¹ The safety of creating a transcolumellar incision while preserving the vascularity of the tip is well established,^{162,163} and a well-positioned incisional scar provides an excellent point for reentry. When an ideal scar does not exist, reentry through a poorly designed or malpositioned scar can compromise exposure

Table 6. Properties of *Arnica montana*

Habitat: perennial herb; indigenous to Central Europe
Synonyms
Wolf's bane
Leopard's bane
Mountain tobacco
Active compounds
Arnica
Helenalin
Formulation (most common as 30× dilution of active compounds)
Pill
Ointment
Tincture
Mouthwash
Properties
Antiinflammatory
Stimulant
Diuretic
Common uses
Bruising
Muscle spasm
Swelling
Muscle/joint pain
Sprains
Swollen gums
Secondary uses
Acne
Motion sickness
Epilepsy
Abortion
Superficial phlebitis
Side effects (primarily attributed to helenalin toxicity)
Rash/eczema
Prolonged bleeding time
Hypertension
Nausea
Dizziness
Tremors
Irregular heartbeat
Gastroenteritis/gastrointestinal bleeding
Hepatic inflammation
Lymphatic inflammation
Drug interactions (prolonged bleeding time)
Heparin
Warfarin
Enoxaparin
Dalteparin
Clopidogrel
Ticlopidine
Aspirin
Pregnancy risk
Avoid because of effects of uterine stimulation; possible transmission to breast milk
Precaution
Use with caution with known allergy to plants in Asteraceae family
Ragweed
Chrysanthemum
Marigold
Daisy

and the surgical result. Unger et al.¹⁶⁴ performed a retrospective review of 100 secondary rhinoplasties in patients undergoing sequential open procedures to assess the safety and scar quality of a second transcolumellar access site (**Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, IV**). No wound-related

complications, including delayed healing, notching, contracture, scar hypertrophy, or pigmentary changes, were noted. In addition, there was no significant change in objective evaluation of the scar between the primary and secondary procedures. They concluded that a prior columellar incision could be safely ignored when planning access for revision rhinoplasty.

Complications

Complications following rhinoplasty include bleeding, infection, prolonged edema, iatrogenic deformity, and nasal airway obstruction. Postoperative epistaxis, one of the most common complications, can be minimized with good perioperative blood pressure control and cessation of aspirin and other nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs for 1 week before and 2 weeks after nasal surgery.^{165,166} Bleeding originating from the incision line or traumatized mucosa is generally mild and can be treated with head elevation, gentle pressure, or intranasal vasoconstrictors (e.g., oxymetazoline nasal spray). Continuous bleeding requiring repeated nasal packing may benefit from administration of desmopressin, a synthetic analogue of the antidiuretic hormone L-arginine vasopressin shown to increase coagulation activity through a rise in plasma concentrations of factor VIII and tissue plasminogen activator. Faber et al.¹⁶⁷ reviewed the hospital records of 268 consecutive nasal procedures and identified nine patients who presented to the emergency department with refractory bleeding (**Level of Evidence: Therapeutic, IV**). All nine had bleeding controlled with administration of 0.3 µg/kg of intravenous desmopressin over 30 minutes. Major or persistent epistaxis always warrants a return trip to the operating room for exploration.

CONCLUSIONS

Successful outcomes in rhinoplasty rely on proper patient selection and evaluation, grounding patient expectations within the limits of the procedure, a graduated surgical approach using a combination of techniques, attentive perioperative management, and judicious use of nonsurgical adjunct procedures. Significant literature on patient evaluation and surgical techniques is available; however, few studies with a high level of evidence are available to guide perioperative and nonsurgical management. Until these studies are available, the rhinoplasty surgeon must be vigilant in the use of up-to-date best evidence data to ensure safe, high-quality results.

Daniel O. Beck, M.D.

Department of Plastic Surgery
University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center
1801 Inwood Road
Dallas, Texas 75390-9132
doliverbeck@gmail.com

PATIENT CONSENT

The patient shown in Figure 6 provided written consent for the use of her images.

REFERENCES

- American Society of Plastic Surgeons. 2012 Plastic Surgery Statistics Report. Available at: <http://www.plasticsurgery.org/Documents/news-resources/statistics/2012-Plastic-Surgery-Statistics/Cosmetic-Procedure-Trends-2012.pdf>. Accessed November 8, 2013.
- Rohrich RJ, Ahmad J. Rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:49–73.
- Howard BK, Rohrich RJ. Understanding the nasal airway: Principals and practice. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2002;109:1128–1144.
- Chandra RK, Patadia MO, Raviv J. Diagnosis of nasal airway obstruction. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am*. 2009;42:207–225, vii.
- Becker DG, Bloom JD, Gudis D. A patient seeking aesthetic revision rhinoplasty and correction of nasal obstruction. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am*. 2009;42:557–565.
- Becker DG, Ransom E, Guy C, Bloom J. Surgical treatment of nasal obstruction in rhinoplasty. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2010;30:347–378; quiz 379.
- Byrd HS, Hobar PC. Rhinoplasty: A practical guide for surgical planning. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1993;91:642–654; discussion 655.
- Gunter JP, Hackney FL. Clinical assessment and facial analysis. In: Gunter JP, Rohrich RJ, Adams WP Jr, eds. *Dallas Rhinoplasty: Nasal Surgery by the Masters*. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Quality Medical; 2007:105–123.
- Woodard CR, Park SS. Nasal and facial analysis. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:181–189.
- Rohrich RJ, Hollier LH Jr, Janis JE, Kim J. Rhinoplasty with advancing age. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004;114:1936–1944.
- van der Heijden P, Korsten-Meijer AG, van der Laan BF, Wit HP, Goorhuis-Brouwer SM. Nasal growth and maturation age in adolescents: A systematic review. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2008;134:1288–1293.
- Chauhan N, Warner J, Adamson PA. Adolescent rhinoplasty: Challenges and psychosocial and clinical outcomes. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2010;34:510–516.
- Rohrich RJ, Janis JE, Kenkel JM. Male rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;112:1071–1085; quiz 1086.
- Springer IN, Zernial O, Nölke F, et al. Gender and nasal shape: Measures for rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2008;121:629–637.
- Rohrich RJ, Bolden K. Ethnic rhinoplasty. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:353–370.
- Rohrich RJ, Muzaffar AR. Rhinoplasty in the African-American patient. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;111:1322–1339; discussion 1340–1341.
- Guyuron B, Griffin AC, Hoefflin SM, Stal S. African-American rhinoplasty. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2004;24:551–560.
- Gruber R, Kuang A, Kahn D. Asian-American rhinoplasty. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2004;24:423–430.
- Toriumi DM, Pero CD. Asian rhinoplasty. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:335–352.
- Rohrich RJ, Ghavami A. Rhinoplasty for Middle Eastern noses. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2009;123:1343–1354.
- Daniel RK. Middle Eastern rhinoplasty in the United States: Part I. Primary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2009;124:1630–1639.
- Daniel RK. Middle Eastern rhinoplasty in the United States: Part II. Secondary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2009;124:1640–1648.
- Daniel RK. Hispanic rhinoplasty in the United States, with emphasis on the Mexican American nose. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;112:244–256; discussion 257.
- Higuera S, Hatef DA, Stal S. Rhinoplasty in the Hispanic patient. *Semin Plast Surg*. 2009;23:207–214.
- Mehta U, Mazhar K, Frankel AS. Accuracy of preoperative computer imaging in rhinoplasty. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2010;12:394–398.
- Toriumi DM, Dixon TK. Assessment of rhinoplasty techniques by overlay of before-and-after 3D images. *Facial Plast Surg Clin North Am*. 2011;19:711–723, ix.
- Picavet VA, Prokopakis EP, Gabriëls L, Jorissen M, Hellings PW. High prevalence of body dysmorphic disorder symptoms in patients seeking rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:509–517.
- Kaygusuz I, Kizirgil A, Karlidag T, Yalcin S, Keles E. Bacteremia in septoplasty and septorhinoplasty surgery. *Rhinology* 2003;41:76–79.
- Okur E, Yildirim I, Aral M, Ciragil P, Kiliç MA, Gul M. Bacteremia during open septorhinoplasty. *Am J Rhinol*. 2006;20:36–39.
- Cabouli JL, Guerrissi JO, Mileto A, Cerisola JA. Local infection following aesthetic rhinoplasty. *Ann Plast Surg*. 1986;17:306–309.
- Yoder MG, Weimert TA. Antibiotics and topical surgical preparation solution in septal surgery. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 1992;106:243–244.
- Lyle WG, Outlaw K, Krizek TJ, Koss N, Payne WG, Robson MC. Prophylactic antibiotics in plastic surgery: Trends of use over 25 years of an evolving specialty. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2003;23:177–183.
- Georgiou I, Farber N, Mendes D, Winkler E. The role of antibiotics in rhinoplasty and septoplasty: A literature review. *Rhinology* 2008;46:267–270.
- Lane MA, Young VL, Camins BC. Prophylactic antibiotics in aesthetic surgery. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2010;30:859–871; quiz 873.
- Rajan GP, Fergie N, Fischer U, Romer M, Radivojevic V, Hee GK. Antibiotic prophylaxis in septorhinoplasty? A prospective, randomized study. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2005;116:1995–1998.
- Andrews PJ, East CA, Jayaraj SM, Badia L, Panagamuwa C, Harding L. Prophylactic vs postoperative antibiotic use in complex septorhinoplasty surgery: A prospective, randomized, single-blind trial comparing efficacy. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2006;8:84–87.
- Ricci G, D'Ascanio L. Antibiotics in septoplasty: Evidence or habit? *Am J Rhinol Allergy* 2012;26:194–196.
- Toia F, D'Arpa S, Massenti MF, Amodio E, Pirrello R, Moschella F. Perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis in plastic surgery: A prospective study of 1,100 adult patients. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg*. 2012;65:601–609.
- Sharma A, Philpott C, Pope L, McKiernan D. Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: Is it a problem for nasal surgery? *J Laryngol Otol*. 2007;121:415–418.
- Bode LG, Kluytmans JA, Wertheim HF, et al. Preventing surgical-site infections in nasal carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;362:9–17.

41. Jiang RS, Jang JW, Hsu CY. Post-functional endoscopic sinus surgery methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* sinusitis. *Am J Rhinol*. 1999;13:273–277.
42. Angelos PC, Wang TD. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection in septorhinoplasty. *Laryngoscope* 2010;120:1309–1311.
43. Nicholas BD, Bhargava G, Hatipoglu A, Heffelfinger R, Rosen M, Pribitkin EA. Preoperative prevalence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) colonization in patients undergoing intranasal surgery. *Med Sci Monit*. 2010;16:CR365–CR368.
44. Sawyer RG. Detection and initial management of complicated skin and soft tissue infections caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)* 2008;9(Suppl 1):s11–s15.
45. Abuzeid WM, Brandt MG, Moyer JS, Baker SR. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*-associated infections following septorhinoplasty. *Facial Plast Surg*. 2012;28:354–357.
46. Gunter JP. The merits of the open approach in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1997;99:863–867.
47. Constantian MB. Differing characteristics in 100 consecutive secondary rhinoplasty patients following closed versus open surgical approaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2002;109:2097–2111.
48. Tebbetts JB. Open and closed rhinoplasty (minus the “versus”): Analyzing processes. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2006;26:456–459.
49. Janis JE, Ahmad J, Rohrich RJ. Primary rhinoplasty. In: Nahai F, ed. *The Art of Aesthetic Surgery: Principles & Techniques*. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Quality Medical; 2010:1895–1923.
50. Rohrich RJ, Muzaffar AR, Janis JE. Component dorsal hump reduction: The importance of maintaining dorsal aesthetic lines in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004;114:1298–1308; discussion 1309–1312.
51. Rohrich RJ, Janis JE, Muzaffar AR, Adams WP Jr. Evaluation and surgical approach to the nasal dorsum: Component dorsal hump reduction. In: Gunter JP, Rohrich RJ, Adams WP Jr, eds. *Dallas Rhinoplasty: Nasal Surgery by the Masters*. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Quality Medical; 2007:221–244.
52. Mojallal A, Ouyang D, Saint-Cyr M, Bui N, Brown SA, Rohrich RJ. Dorsal aesthetic lines in rhinoplasty: A quantitative outcome-based assessment of the component dorsal reduction technique. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:280–288.
53. Lee MR, Unger JG, Rohrich RJ. Management of the nasal dorsum in rhinoplasty: A systematic review of the literature regarding technique, outcomes, and complications. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:538e–550e.
54. Sheen JH. Spreader graft: A method of reconstructing the roof of the middle nasal vault following rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1984;73:230–239.
55. Rohrich RJ, Hollier LH. Use of spreader grafts in the external approach to rhinoplasty. *Clin Plast Surg*. 1996;23:255–262.
56. Boccheri A, Macro C, Pascali M. The use of spreader grafts in primary rhinoplasty. *Ann Plast Surg*. 2005;55:127–131.
57. Byrd HS, Meade RA, Gonyon DL Jr. Using the auto-spreader flap in primary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;119:1897–1902.
58. Gruber RP, Park E, Newman J, Berkowitz L, Oneal R. The spreader flap in primary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;119:1903–1910.
59. Gruber RP, Perkins SW. Humpectomy and spreader flaps. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:285–291.
60. Byrd HS, Salomon J, Flood J. Correction of the crooked nose. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1998;102:2148–2157.
61. Guyuron B, Uzzo CD, Scull H. A practical classification of septonasal deviation and an effective guide to septal surgery. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1999;104:2202–2209; discussion 2210.
62. Rohrich RJ, Gunter JP, Deuber MA, Adams WP Jr. The deviated nose: Optimizing results using a simplified classification and algorithmic approach. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2002;110:1509–1523; discussion 1524–1525.
63. Mowlavi A, Masouem S, Kalkanis J, Guyuron B. Septal cartilage defined: Implications for nasal dynamics and rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2006;117:2171–2174.
64. Leong SC, Eccles R. Inferior turbinate surgery and nasal airflow: Evidence-based management. *Curr Opin Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2010;18:54–59.
65. Passali D, Passali FM, Damiani V, Passali GC, Bellussi L. Treatment of inferior turbinate hypertrophy: A randomized clinical trial. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol*. 2003;112:683–688.
66. Bhandarkar ND, Smith TL. Outcomes of surgery for inferior turbinate hypertrophy. *Curr Opin Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2010;18:49–53.
67. Daniel RK. The nasal tip: Anatomy and aesthetics. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1992;89:216–224.
68. Daniel RK, Glasz T, Molnar G, Palhazi P, Saban Y, Journal B. The lower nasal base: An anatomical study. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2013;33:222–232.
69. Rohrich RJ, Adams WP Jr. The boxy nasal tip: Classification and management based on alar cartilage suturing techniques. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2001;107:1849–1863; discussion 1864.
70. Rohrich RJ, Griffin JR. Correction of intrinsic nasal tip asymmetries in primary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;112:1699–1712; discussion 1713–1715.
71. Constantian MB. The boxy nasal tip, the ball tip, and alar cartilage malposition: Variations on a theme. A study in 200 consecutive primary and secondary rhinoplasty patients. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2005;116:268–281.
72. Ghavami A, Janis JE, Acikel C, Rohrich RJ. Tip shaping in primary rhinoplasty: An algorithmic approach. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2008;122:1229–1241.
73. Toriumi DM, Checcone MA. New concepts in nasal tip contouring. *Facial Plast Surg Clin North Am*. 2009;17:55–90, vi.
74. Behmand RA, Ghavami A, Guyuron B. Nasal tip sutures part I: The evolution. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;112:1125–1129; discussion 1146.
75. Guyuron B, Behmand RA. Nasal tip sutures part II: The interplays. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2003;112:1130–1145; discussion 1146–1149.
76. Gruber RP, Weintraub J, Pomerantz J. Suture techniques for the nasal tip. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2008;28:92–100.
77. Gruber RP, Chang E, Buchanan E. Suture techniques in rhinoplasty. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:231–243.
78. Dosanjh AS, Hsu C, Gruber RP. The hemitransdomal suture for narrowing the nasal tip. *Ann Plast Surg*. 2010;64:708–712.
79. Sheen JH. Tip graft: A 20-year retrospective. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1993;91:48–63.
80. Peck GC Jr, Michelson L, Segal J, Peck GC Sr. An 18-year experience with the umbrell graft in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1998;102:2158–2165; discussion 2166.
81. Daniel RK. Tip refinement grafts: The designer tip. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2009;29:528–537.
82. Dobratz EJ, Tran V, Hilger PA. Comparison of techniques used to support the nasal tip and their long-term effects on tip position. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2010;12:172–179.
83. Gunter JP, Rohrich RJ, Friedman RM. Classification and correction of alar-columellar discrepancies in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1996;97:643–648.
84. Rohrich RJ, Kurkjian TJ, Hoxworth RE, Stephan PJ, Mojallal A. The effect of the columellar strut graft on nasal tip position in primary rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;130:926–932.
85. Rohrich RJ, Hoxworth RE, Kurkjian TJ. The role of the columellar strut in rhinoplasty: Indications and rationale. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;129:118e–125e.

86. Lee MR, Tabbal G, Kurkjian TJ, Roostaeian J, Rohrich RJ. Classifying deformities of the columella base in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2014;133:464e–470e.
87. Geissler PJ, Lee MR, Roostaeian J, Unger JG, Rohrich RJ. Reshaping the medial nostril and columellar base: Five-step medial crural footplate approximation. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2013;132:553–557.
88. Rohrich RJ, Liu JH. Defining the infratip lobule in rhinoplasty: Anatomy, pathogenesis of abnormalities, and correction using an algorithmic approach. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;130:1148–1158.
89. Gunter JP, Friedman RM. Lateral crural strut graft: Technique and clinical applications in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1997;99:943–952; discussion 953–955.
90. Guyuron B. Alar rim deformities. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2001;107:856–863.
91. Rohrich RJ, Ranieri J Jr, Ha RY. The alar contour graft: Correction and prevention of alar rim deformities in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2002;109:2495–2505; discussion 2506.
92. Gunter JP, Yu YL. The tripod concept for correcting nasal tip cartilages. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2004;24:257–260.
93. Janis JE, Trussler A, Ghavami A, Marin V, Rohrich RJ, Gunter JP. Lower lateral crural turnover flap in open rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2009;123:1830–1841.
94. Gubisch W, Eichhorn-Sens J. Overresection of the lower lateral cartilages: A common conceptual mistake with functional and aesthetic consequences. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2009;33:6–13.
95. Cervelli V, Spallone D, Bottini JD, et al. Alar batten cartilage graft: Treatment of internal and external nasal valve collapse. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2009;33:625–634.
96. Boahene KD, Hilger PA. Alar rim grafting in rhinoplasty. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2009;11:285–289.
97. Weber SM, Baker SR. Alar cartilage grafts. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:253–264.
98. Gruber RP, Zhang AY, Zang A, Mohebbi K. Preventing alar retraction by preservation of the lateral crus. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2010;126:581–588.
99. Hackney FL. Diagnosis and correction of alar rim deformities in rhinoplasty. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:223–229.
100. Unger JG, Lee MR, Kwon RK, Rohrich RJ. A multivariate analysis of nasal tip deprojection. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;129:1163–1167.
101. Kuran I, Ozcan H, Usta A, Bas L. Comparison of four different types of osteotomes for lateral osteotomy: A cadaver study. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 1996;20:323–326.
102. Guyuron B. Nasal osteotomy and airway changes. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1998;103:856–860; discussion 861–863.
103. Rohrich RJ. Osteotomies in rhinoplasty: An updated technique. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2003;23:56–58.
104. Gyskiewicz JM, Gyskiewicz KM. Nasal osteotomies: A clinical comparison of the perforating methods versus the continuous technique. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004;113:1445–1456; discussion 1457.
105. Cochran CS, Ducic Y, Defatta RJ. Rethinking nasal osteotomies: An anatomic approach. *Laryngoscope*. 2007;117:662–667.
106. Gruber R, Chang TN, Kahn D, Sullivan P. Broad nasal bone reduction: An algorithm for osteotomies. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;119:1044–1053.
107. Erişir F, Tahamiler R. Lateral osteotomies in rhinoplasty: A safer and less traumatic method. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2008;28:518–520.
108. Dobratz EJ, Hilger PA. Osteotomies. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2010;37:301–311.
109. Zoumalan RA, Shah AR, Constantinides M. Quantitative comparison between microperforating osteotomies and continuous lateral osteotomies in rhinoplasty. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2010;12:92–96.
110. Rohrich RJ, Huynh B, Muzaffar AR, Adams WP Jr, Robinson JB Jr. Importance of the depressor septi muscle in rhinoplasty: Anatomic study and clinical application. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2000;105:376–383; discussion 384–388.
111. Kalantar-Hormozi A, Beiraghi-Toosi A. Smile analysis in rhinoplasty: A randomized study for comparing resection and transposition of the depressor septi nasi muscle. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2014;133:261–268.
112. Ship AG. Alar base resection for wide flaring nostrils. *Br J Plast Surg*. 1975;28:77–79.
113. Ellis DA, Dinzans L. The geometry of alar base resection. *J Otolaryngol*. 1987;16:46–48.
114. Han SK, Shin SH, Kang HJ, Kim WK. Augmentation rhinoplasty using injectable tissue-engineered soft tissue: A pilot study. *Ann Plast Surg*. 2006;56:251–255.
115. Beer KR. Nasal reconstruction using 20 mg/ml cross-linked hyaluronic acid. *J Drugs Dermatol*. 2006;5:465–466.
116. de Lacerda DA, Zancanaro P. Filler rhinoplasty. *Dermatol Surg*. 2007;33(Suppl 2):S207–S212; discussion S212.
117. Radaelli A. Medical rhinoplasty with hyaluronic acid and botulinum toxin A: A very simple and quite effective technique. *J Cosmet Dermatol*. 2008;7:210–220.
118. Humphrey CD, Arkins JP, Dayan SH. Soft tissue fillers in the nose. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2009;29:477–484.
119. Pearl RM, Laub DR, Kaplan EN. Complications following silicone injections for augmentation of the contours of the face. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1978;61:888–891.
120. Webster RC, Hamdan US, Gaunt JM, et al. Rhinoplastic revisions with injectable silicone. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 1986;112:269–276.
121. Rapaport MJ, Vinnik C, Zarem H. Injectable silicone: Cause of facial nodules, cellulites, ulceration and migration. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 1996;20:267–276.
122. Orentreich DS. Liquid injectable silicone: Techniques for soft tissue augmentation. *Clin Plast Surg*. 2000;27:595–612.
123. Rohrich RJ, Potter JK. Liquid injectable silicone: Is there a role as a cosmetic soft-tissue filler? *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2004;113:1239–1241.
124. Rohrich RJ, Ghavami A, Crosby MA. The role of hyaluronic acid fillers (Restylane) in facial cosmetic surgery: Review and technical considerations. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;120(Suppl):41S–54S.
125. Nguyen AT, Ahmad J, Fagien S, Rohrich RJ. Cosmetic medicine: Facial resurfacing and injectables. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;129:142e–153e.
126. Kurkjian TJ, Ahmad J, Rohrich RJ. Soft-tissue fillers in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2014;133:121e–126e.
127. Kim P, Ahn JT. Structured nonsurgical Asian rhinoplasty. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2012;36:698–703.
128. Bray D, Hopkins C, Roberts DN. Injection rhinoplasty: Nonsurgical nasal augmentation and correction of post-rhinoplasty contour asymmetries with hyaluronic acid: How we do it. *Clin Otolaryngol*. 2010;35:227–230.
129. Dayan SH, Greene RM, Chambers AA. Long-lasting injectable implant* for correcting cosmetic nasal deformities. *Ear Nose Throat J*. 2007;86:25–26.
130. Stupak HD, Moulthrop TH, Wheatley P, Tauman AV, Johnson CM Jr. Calcium hydroxylapatite gel (Radiesse) injection for the correction of post-rhinoplasty contour deficiencies and asymmetries. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2007;9:130–136.

131. Becker H. Nasal augmentation with calcium hydroxylapatite in a carrier-based gel. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2008;121:2142–2147.
132. Rivkin A, Soliemanzadeh P. Nonsurgical injection rhinoplasty with calcium hydroxylapatite in a carrier gel (Radiesse): A 4-year, retrospective, clinical review. *Cosmet Dermatol*. 2009;22:619–624.
133. Lazzeri D, Agostini T, Figus M, Nardi M, Pantaloni M, Lazzeri S. Blindness following cosmetic injections of the face. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2012;129:995–1012.
134. Park SW, Woo SJ, Park KH, Huh JW, Jung C, Kwon OK. Iatrogenic retinal artery occlusion caused by cosmetic facial filler injections. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 2012;154:653–662.e1.
135. He MS, Sheu MM, Huang ZL, Tsai CH, Tsai RK. Sudden bilateral vision loss and brain infarction following cosmetic hyaluronic acid injection. *JAMA Ophthalmol*. 2013;131:1234–1235.
136. Kim SN, Byun DS, Park JH, et al. Panophthalmoplegia and vision loss after cosmetic nasal dorsum injection. *J Clin Neurosci*. 2014;21:678–680.
137. Hsu VM, Stransky CA, Bucky LP, Percec I. Fat grafting's past, present, and future: Why adipose tissue is emerging as a critical link to the advancement of regenerative medicine. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2012;32:892–899.
138. Ong WK, Sugii S. Adipose-derived stem cells: Fatty potential for therapy. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol*. 2013;45:1083–1086.
139. Rohrich RJ, Pessa JE. The fat compartments of the face: Anatomy and clinical implications for cosmetic surgery. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;119:2219–2227; discussion 2228.
140. Fitzgerald R, Graivier MH, Kane M, et al. Update on facial aging. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2010;30(Suppl 1):11s–24s.
141. Stallworth CL, Wang TD. Fat grafting of the midface. *Facial Plast Surg*. 2010;26:369–375.
142. Metzinger S, Parrish J, Guerra A, Zeph R. Autologous fat grafting to the lower one-third of the face. *Facial Plast Surg*. 2012;28:21–33.
143. Duskova M, Kristen M. Augmentation by autologous adipose tissue in cleft lip and nose: Part I. Final aesthetic touches in clefts. *J Craniofac Surg*. 2004;15:478–481.
144. Cárdenas JC, Carvajal J. Refinement of rhinoplasty with lipoinjection. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2007;31:501–505.
145. Monreal J. Fat grafting to the nose: Personal experience with 36 patients. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2011;35:916–922.
146. Baptista C, Nguyen PS, Desouches C, Magalon G, Bardot J, Casanova D. Correction of sequelae of rhinoplasty by lipofilling. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg*. 2013;66:805–811.
147. Pulikkottil BJ, Dauwe P, Daniali L, Rohrich RJ. Corticosteroid use in cosmetic plastic surgery. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2013;132:352e–360e.
148. Hatf DA, Ellsworth WA, Allen JN, Bullocks JM, Hollier LH Jr, Stal S. Perioperative steroids for minimizing edema and ecchymosis after rhinoplasty: A meta-analysis. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2011;31:648–657.
149. Hoffmann DF, Cook TA, Quatela VC, Wang TD, Brownrigg PJ, Brummett RE. Steroids and rhinoplasty: A double-blind study. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 1991;117:990–993.
150. Kara CO, Gökalan I. Effects of single-dose steroid usage on edema, ecchymosis, and intraoperative bleeding in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1999;104:2213–2218.
151. Kargi E, Hoşnüter M, Babuçcu O, Altunkaya H, Altinyazar C. Effect of steroids on edema, ecchymosis, and intraoperative bleeding in rhinoplasty. *Ann Plast Surg*. 2003;51:570–574.
152. Gurlek A, Fariz A, Aydogan H, Ersoz-Ozturk A, Eren AT. Effects of different corticosteroids on edema and ecchymosis in open rhinoplasty. *Aesthetic Plast Surg*. 2006;30:150–154.
153. Youssef TA, Elihiary H, Amish KF. Role of steroids in reducing postoperative edema in rhinoplasty: A meta-analytic study. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol*. 2013;270:1189–1193.
154. Shadfar S, Deal AM, Jarchow AM, Yang H, Shockley WW. Practice patterns in the perioperative treatment of patients undergoing septorhinoplasty: A survey of facial plastic surgeons. *JAMA Facial Plast Surg*. 2014;16:113–119.
155. Alonso D, Lazarus MC, Baumann L. Effects of topical arnica gel on post-laser treatment bruises. *Dermatol Surg*. 2002;28:686–688.
156. Seeley BM, Denton AB, Ahn MS, Maas CS. Effect of homeopathic *Arnica montana* on bruising in face-lifts: Results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *Arch Facial Plast Surg*. 2006;8:54–59.
157. Totonchi A, Guyuron B. A randomized, controlled comparison between arnica and steroids in the management of post-rhinoplasty ecchymosis and edema. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2007;120:271–274.
158. Rowe DJ, Baker AC. Perioperative risks and benefits of herbal supplements in aesthetic surgery. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2009;29:150–157.
159. Saedi B, Sadeghi M, Fekri K. Comparison of the effect of corticosteroid therapy and decongestant on reducing rhinoplasty edema. *Am J Rhinol Allergy*. 2011;25:e141–e144.
160. Rohrich RJ, Lee MR. External approach for secondary rhinoplasty: Advances over the past 25 years. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2013;131:404–416.
161. Warner J, Gutkowski K, Shama L, Marcus B. National interdisciplinary rhinoplasty. *Aesthet Surg J*. 2009;29:295–301.
162. Rohrich RJ, Gunter JP, Friedman RM. Nasal tip blood supply: An anatomic study validating the safety of the transcolumellar incision in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 1995;95:795–799; discussion 800.
163. Rohrich RJ, Muzaffar AR, Gunter JP. Nasal tip blood supply: Confirming the safety of the transcolumellar incision in rhinoplasty. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2000;106:1640–1641.
164. Unger JG, Roostaeian J, Cheng DH, et al. The open approach in secondary rhinoplasty: Choosing an incision regardless of prior placement. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2013;132:780–786.
165. Rohrich RJ, Potter JK, Landecker A. Postoperative management of the rhinoplasty patient. In: Gunter JP, Rohrich RJ, Adams WP Jr, eds. *Dallas Rhinoplasty: Nasal Surgery by the Masters*. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Quality Medical; 2007:125–134.
166. Cochran CS, Landecker A. Prevention and management of rhinoplasty complications. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2008;122:60e–67e.
167. Faber C, Larson K, Amirlak B, Guyuron B. Use of desmopressin for unremitting epistaxis following septorhinoplasty and turbinectomy. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2011;128:728e–732e.