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Randomized prospective comparative study of adductor canal block versus periarticular infiltration on early functional outcome after unilateral total knee arthroplasty

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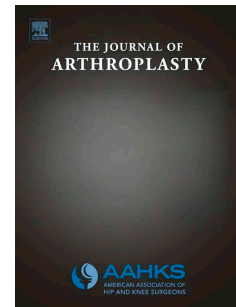
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Title:

Randomized prospective comparative study of
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functional outcome after unilateral total knee
arthroplasty

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1
2 Randomized prospective comparative study of adductor
3 canal block versus periarticular infiltration on early
4 functional outcome after unilateral total knee arthroplasty

5
6
7 **ABSTRACT**

8 **Background:** Total knee arthroplasty (TKA) is associated with significant post-operative
9 pain. Effective pain relief is essential for early post-operative rehabilitation. Periarticular
10 infiltration (PAI) and Adductor canal block (ACB) have become popular modes of pain
11 management after TKA. Our aim is to compare their efficacy and impact on early
12 functional outcome in patients undergoing TKA.

13 **Methods:** A single-blind randomised controlled trial, 100 patients undergoing unilateral
14 primary TKA for symptomatic OA were allocated to either of the two groups (50 in each
15 arm). Postoperative ultrasound guided single shot of ACB (Group A) or intra operative PAI
16 (Group B). All patients underwent TKA without patella resurfacing under spinal
17 anaesthesia. Pre-operative work up, surgical technique, post-operative management were
18 standardised for all the patients. Patients were assessed for pain using VAS (Visual
19 analogue scale) at 6, 12, 24 hrs after surgery, haemoglobin level preoperatively and post
20 operatively on day 1 to calculate blood loss, hospital stay, tourniquet time (TT), operative
21 time (OT) and post-operative complications by an independent observer blinded to the
22 group allocation.

23 **Results:** Patients were matched for age, gender, ASA grade and Deformity. VAS (scale 0-
24 10) between PAI & ACB at 6, 12 & 24 hours were significantly different ($p<0.05$) with
25 higher score seen in the patients with ACB at all time points. TT and OT were significantly
26 longer in the PAI than ACB. No significant difference in the hospital stay observed. No
27 complications occurred during the study.

28 **Conclusion:** PAI achieves better pain control as compared to ACB in patients undergoing
29 unilateral TKA.

30 **Key words:** Total knee arthroplasty (TKA), Adductor canal block (ACB), Periarticular
31 infiltration (PAI), Visual analogue score (VAS), Osteoarthritis (OA).

32 33 **INTRODUCTION:**

34 Patient undergoing Total knee arthroplasty (TKA) suffer from moderate to severe pain
35 postoperatively. Though there have been advances in technologies and instrumentations
36 in TKA, pain management after the operation is still evolving^(1, 2). Early post-operative
37 mobilization is critical for reduction of immobility related complications as well as
38 achieving the optimal functional outcome following surgery. Satisfactory pain relief is
39 essential to ensure early mobilization. Various methods for pain control used in the
40 previous years include epidural analgesia (EA), femoral nerve block (FNB), periarticular
41 infiltration (PAI) and systemic analgesia (SA). The EA provides good pain relief but has
42 side effects like urinary retention, hypotension and risk of epidural haematoma⁽³⁾. The FNB
43 has advantage over EA but has shown to affect the strength of quadriceps muscles and may
44 lead to increase incidences of falls^(4, 5, 6). SA is the most prevalent method of reducing pain
45 with use of opiates or opioids. However some of these patients complain about nausea,
46 vomiting, and pruritus related to it⁽⁷⁾. Therefore, an option for pain control with preserved
47 motor function and adequate analgesia for TKA patients still remains a challenge.

48 Perioperative pain management with PAI is a safe and effective method of controlling
49 pain after TKA and it also eliminates the risk associated with femoral nerve block of
50 quadriceps weakness. Effective use of PAI requires specific knowledge of the relevant
51 neuroanatomy of the knee⁽⁸⁾. PAI contains cocktail of local anaesthetics, NSAIDs,
52 epinephrine (adrenaline) and normal saline which is injected into the peri-articular tissues
53 around the knee joint during the operation. It has gained popularity for its simplicity,

54 safety and selective sensory blockade unlike the motor blockade associated with FNB
55 and EA^(9, 10, 11).

56 In the recent years ultrasound guided ACB has gain popularity over FNB, SA, and EA for
57 management of pain in TKA patients. The adductor canal, (also known as the sub-sartorial
58 or the Hunter's canal) is located within the middle third of the anterior-medial thigh and
59 extends from the apex of the femoral triangle to the adductor hiatus. The contents of the
60 adductor canal have traditionally been described as the femoral artery and vein, two
61 fascicular branches of the femoral nerve, the saphenous nerve and the nerve to the
62 vastus medialis, and the articular contribution of the obturator nerve, which enters the
63 distal adductor canal just proximal to the adductor hiatus⁽¹²⁾. The ACB is sensory
64 nerve block with some effect on the motor function of vastus medialis as the motor
65 branch passes through the adductor canal. Isolated and partial effect on motor weakness
66 of vastus medialis decreases tendency of fall while walking⁽¹³⁾. Use of ACB needs
67 ultrasound and does not provide pain relief at the posterior aspect of the knee.

68 Whether PAI offers better pain control than ACB after TKA remains controversial. The
69 primary aim of this study is to compare the pain relief with PAI Vs ACB in patients
70 undergoing primary TKA. The secondary aim is to assess time to mobilise, related
71 complications and length of stay with either of these techniques.

72 **MATERIALS AND METHODS:**

73 **Inclusion criteria:-**Adult patients undergoing primary unilateral TKA, ASA Grade1
74 or 2 with normal cognitive function.

75 **Exclusion criteria:-** Patients unwilling to participate, poorly controlled diabetes, history of
76 inflammatory arthritis, non-ambulatory/ bed ridden patients, known allergy to the
77 anaesthetic drugs, history of bleeding disorder, history of arrhythmia or seizures, sepsis,
78 pre-existing lower extremity neurological abnormality.

79 **Study design:** - This single blind prospective randomised controlled trial was conducted
80 at Deenanath Mangeshkar Hospital, Pune, India from September 2017 to June 2018.
81 Approval was provided by Institute's human research ethics committee. Patients
82 scheduled for primary unilateral TKA were invited to take part in the study and informed
83 consent was obtained from those willing to participate in the study. 100 opaque sealed
84 envelopes were prepared in advance with random sequence generated by computer and
85 contained a label marked A or B. The envelope was opened by the scrub nurse before start
86 of the surgery. If the sheet showed label marked A, Ultrasound guided Adductor canal
87 block was given on the side of surgery postoperatively and if it showed B then periarticular
88 infiltration was injected intra-operatively before implantation. Surgical team, scrub staff
89 and anaesthesiologist were aware of the allocation. One hundred patients were included
90 in this study with 50 patients in Group A designated to ACB and 50 patients in Group B
91 designated to PAI.

92 None of the patients were on long-term opioids pre-operatively. At the time of initial
93 outpatient assessment, all patients received same standardized instructions about which
94 medications they should take and which they should try and avoid. We do not routinely
95 prescribe gabapentinoids or opioids to patients as pre-operative medication. All patients
96 undergoing TKA, were KL grade IV.

97 For the Group A (ACB) an ultrasound transducer was used to identify the adductor canal.
98 The transducer located the adductor canal at mid-thigh, halfway between the inguinal
99 crease and patella. Superficial femoral artery, sartorius, the adductor longus and
100 adductor magnus muscle were identified. The hyper echoic structure located anterolateral
101 to the artery (sephanous nerve and nerve to vastus medialis) was identified as the target
102 injection site. A 22-Gauge, 100mm needle (stimuplex; B Braun) was introduced in plane
103 lateral to medial under ultrasound guidance using linear probe of a sonosite (Fujifilm,
104 Japan) machine. Solution containing 30ml of 0.5% of ropivacaine and 100 mcg of
105 clonidine (total volume = 30.7 ml) was injected after ensuring correct placement of the
106 needle.

107 For group B (PAI) solution contained local anesthetic agent(ropivacaine), NSAID
108 (ketorolac), epinephrine (adrenaline), clonidine and normal saline according to the weight
109 of patient and was injected using a 20G spinal needle with 20cc syringe (table 1).

110 The PAI was given in eight zones around the knee ⁽⁸⁾ as shown in table 2.

112 Procedure:-

113 All patients were admitted on the previous night. Premedication included oral
114 paracetamol 650 mg QID, Pregabalin 75 mg at night & in the morning before surgery
115 with sips of water and Alprazolam 0.5 mg previous night. All patients received spinal
116 anaesthesia. Total knee arthroplasty was performed using midline skin incision and
117 medial parapatellar arthrotomy. Tourniquet was used in all the cases and was released
118 before wound closure. Surgical drains were not used in any patient. All patients received a
119 PS knee and patella was not resurfaced in any of the cases. In both the groups after the
120 closure of arthrotomy, tranexamic acid was infiltrated locally to reduce bleeding at
121 surgical site ^(14,15). Postoperatively patients were encouraged to stand with support on the
122 same day of surgery and used ice packs to the knee four times a day during their
123 hospital stay. Patients received six hourly intravenous (IV) Paracetamol 1g along with
124 twelve hourly IV Tramadol 50 mg and diclofenace 75 mg post operatively for the first
125 48 hours post-surgery. Later PRN oral analgesics were prescribed (Paracetamol and
126 Tramadol). All patients received standard DVT chemoprophylaxis for first two weeks
127 post operatively. DVT chemoprophylaxis included 40 mcg of sub cutaneous low
128 molecular weight heparin for five days post operatively followed by oral Rivaroxaban
129 10 mg for fourteen days. Patients were also provided with below knee anti embolism
130 compression stockings to be used in the post-operative period for six weeks. All pain
131 scores were assessed by an independent observer who was blinded to the allocation of
132 groups. All the patients were followed for a period of 6 months.

133 **Statistical analysis:-**Baseline characteristics, difference between pre- and post-operative
134 Hb as well as VAS scores at 6, 12, and 24 hours were compared between both the
135 groups using independent T-test.

136 137 138 **RESULTS:**

139 The study included total 100 patients with 50 in each group. The two groups were
140 well matched for age, gender, pre-operative deformity and ASA grade (Table 3)

141 There was significant difference between the VAS score at 6, 12, & 24 hours (table 4)
142 with significantly higher pain scores in the ACB as compared to the PAI group.

143 There was significant difference between tourniquet time & operative time with no
144 significant difference between hospital stay in both the groups (ACB & PAI) as shown in
145 Table 5 with higher tourniquet time noted in the patients with PAI.

146 The difference between levels of haemoglobin preoperatively & postoperatively on day 1
147 between both the groups (ACB & PAI) were significant with reduction in level of
148 haemoglobin was higher in ACB group (Table 6). The range of drop in haemoglobin
149 difference in the patient with Adductor canal block was 0.3 to 3.1 while mean is 1.8. While
150 in the patients with periarticular infiltration the range of drop in haemoglobin was 0.1 to 3.4
151 while mean is 1.1.

152 **DISCUSSION: -**

153 Effective analgesic modalities are essential in TKA to facilitate early rehabilitation and
154 optimise post-operative recovery ⁽¹⁶⁾. After TKA the analgesic modality should offer
155 adequate pain relief with no effect or very little effect on muscle power, which would
156 allow early and safe post-operative rehabilitation ⁽¹⁷⁾. The medication for local
157 anaesthesia with selective effect on sensory nerve with no effect on motor nerve fibres does

158 not exist ⁽¹⁸⁾. This study confirmed better post-operative pain relief and less drop in
159 haemoglobin with peri-articular infiltration as compared to adductor canal block. No
160 difference was found in length of stay.

161 A recent study by Kampitak W et al ⁽¹⁹⁾ showed better post-operative pain relief with
162 ACB with less requirement of opioids compared to PAI in unilateral TKA patients. In
163 contrast, our study shows better post operative pain relief in the patients with PAI at 6, 12,
164 24 hours as compared to ACB group. This may be due to the difference in the technique
165 for PAI between both the studies. In their study they infiltrated cocktail around prosthesis,
166 fat & subcutaneous tissue but in our study we have infiltrated cocktail in 8 zones as
167 described in materials & methods. Volume of drug used in their study was 60ml for all the
168 patients but in our study volume of drug has been varied according to the weight of the
169 patient. In their study they have used levo-bupivacaine, morphine, adrenaline & normal
170 saline while in our study we have used ropivacaine, adrenaline, ketorolac, normal saline &
171 clonidine. Clonidine exerts its effect via its α -2 adrenergic actions and results in potentiation
172 of the synergistic action of local anaesthetic and local steroids ⁽²⁰⁾.

173 Some investigators have assessed combination of ACB and PAI. Andersen et al ⁽²¹⁾ in a
174 blinded RCT compared the effect of continuous saphenous nerve block (two 15 ml
175 boluses of ropivacaine per day for the first two days post-surgery) in patients undergoing
176 TKA and receiving PAI. In this study, authors reported better pain relief (both at rest as
177 well as on movement) in the nerve block group. In this study we have used single
178 shot of ACB given postoperatively without the use of an indwelling catheter as this
179 can increase the risks of infection, prolong hospital stay and it also increases the cost
180 of procedure to the patient. In a prospective study by Reddy et al ⁽²²⁾ patients who
181 received MIA (multisite infiltration analgesia) showed significantly better VAS scores 8,
182 24, and 48 hours after surgery. Furthermore, they showed a marginally better ROM
183 postoperatively. This study was not blinded, also the ACB was given four hours after the
184 spinal anaesthesia while in our study which was blinded & ACB was given immediately
185 after the closure of wound for better comparison of the effectiveness between both

186 modalities. Very few studies compared blood loss in patients undergoing TKA either
187 with ACB or with PAI. In our study we have noted that the patients who have received
188 ACB had significant blood loss with drop in haemoglobin postoperatively in comparison
189 to the patients who have received PAI. In addition, we noted significant reduction in pain
190 levels at 6, 12 and 24 hours post-surgery. It is possible that with PAI we have targeted
191 delivery of the medication with particular reference to the posterior structures (which are
192 not fully covered by an Adductor Canal Block) and therefore the pre-emptive analgesia
193 achieved is superior. Although the action is unlikely to last for more than 24 hours, this will
194 help in controlling the pain with oral medication better than in those with the regional
195 block. Another reason is the addition of epinephrine (adrenaline) & ketorolac (NSAID) in
196 the PAI cocktail. Epinephrine causes vasoconstriction locally which helps reduce blood
197 loss ⁽²³⁾ also it prolongs the analgesic action of local anaesthetic. NSAID via its alpha-
198 adrenergic effect which reduces the absorption of these drugs ^(24, 25). Though the drop in
199 haemoglobin is statistically significant, clinically does not seem significant as none of our
200 patient require blood transfusion or any sort of intervention for drop in haemoglobin. This
201 is a limitation of our study and to rectify this, a study with larger sample size will be
202 required.

203 In our study tourniquet time & operative time were higher in the PAI group. This is
204 probably due to the time taken to administer PAI before implantation. Our PAI (as
205 described in the methods section) involves multiple small dose deliveries rather than using
206 a spinal needle and delivering a large amount in one place, it takes more time in our hands.
207 We assessed the time taken to inject in the past 20 cases, and on an average it takes around 5
208 minutes to do so. A meticulous technique helps us achieve good pain relief and it is possible
209 that variation in the injection technique can explain different results reported by other
210 researchers when comparing PAI with ACB. In addition, ACB was administered
211 postoperatively after the tourniquet was deflated and therefore did not impact the tourniquet
212 time as well as operative time. It is an unfair comparison and we should have checked total
213 time spent in theatres from arrival into theatres to entry into recovery room to get a better

214 idea of additional time needed to administer PAI or ACB. There were a few other
215 limitations to the study. In our study the injection site was in to the adductor canal not
216 proximal to adductor canal or at the apex of femoral triangle. Therefore further studies
217 would be needed to define the optimal injection site of ACB for TKA. In our study we
218 have used ketorolac for pain relief while in other studies ketorolac along with morphine has
219 been used which may be a better combination for pain relief.

220 One may argue that the reduction achieved in pain levels is similar for both the groups and the
221 differences are not clinically significant. The difference in pain scores was statistically significant at
222 6hours, 12 hours and 24 hours post-surgery. The difference between the means at each of these time points
223 was 1.06, 1.24 and 1.82. Previous studies have used a difference of 0.9 as minimally clinically important
224 difference (MCID) for pain studies ⁽²⁶⁾.

225 The protocol at our centre is to give either ACB or PAI. We do not routinely practice the combination of
226 both modalities. This study confirms that both techniques work well on their own although PAI provides
227 superior pain relief. We have not found the need for using both ACB and PAI in the same patient although
228 it is likely to further reduce the pain levels.

229 230 **CONCLUSIONS:-**

231 Periarticular infiltration is safe and effective as it provides better pain relief in early
232 postoperative period than adductor canal block in patients undergoing unilateral total knee
233 arthroplasty. This helps in early postoperative rehabilitation & adds to patient satisfaction.

234 Periarticular infiltration also reduces blood loss.

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TABLES:*Table 1: - Periarticular Infiltration cocktail*

For patient weight less than 70 kg	For patient weight more than 70 kg
Ropivacaine 0.75 = 40 ml Clonidine = 0.6ml Adrenaline = 0.3ml Ketorolac = 1 ml Normal saline = 19 ml	Ropivacaine 0.75 = 54 ml Clonidine = 0.8ml Adrenaline = 0.3ml Ketorolac = 1ml Normal saline = 25 ml
Total volume = 60cc	Total volume = 80cc

Table 2: - Zones for periarticular infiltration around knee

Zone 1	Suprapatellar Pouch/Quadriceps Tendon
Zone 2	Medial Retinaculum
Zone 3	Patellar Tendon and Fat Pad
Zone 4	Medial Collateral Ligament and Medial Meniscus Capsular Attachment
Zone 5	Posterior Cruciate Ligament Tibial Attachment site
Zone 6	Anterior Cruciate Ligament Femoral Attachment site
Zone 7	Lateral Collateral Ligament and Lateral Meniscus Capsular Attachment
Zone 8	Lateral Retinaculum and also in the periosteum around distal femur and proximal tibia.

Table 3: Variables including age, sex, deformity, ASA Grade

Variables	ACB group (n=50)	PAI group (n=50)
Age (years)	67.4±11.9	67.7±11.4
Sex (male/female)	17/33	17/33
Deformity	50 (varus)	50 (varus)
ASA grade I/II/III	5/34/11	6/32/12

Table 4:-VAS comparison at 6, 12, 24 hours between ACB & PAI Group

Block	N	Mean	SD	Median	SE	T	P
VAS 6 hr ACB	50	2.6	.94	2	.13	6.014	<0.05
PAI	50	1.5	.81	1	.11		
VAS 12hr ACB	50	3.4	1.21	3	.17	5.368	<0.05
PAI	50	2.1	1.09	2	.15		
VAS 24hr ACB	50	5.1	1.02	5	.14	8.571	<0.05
PAI	50	3.3	1.16	3	.16		

Table 5:- Difference between operative time & tourniquet time in ACB & PAI groups

Block	N	Mean	SD	SE	independent t test	p-value
Op Time ACB	50	70.4	10.04	1.42	-3.364	<0.05
PAI	50	77.1	9.62	1.36		
Tourniquet time ACB	50	48.8	7.41	1.04	-3.306	<0.05
PAI	50	54.1	8.62	1.22		
Hospital stay ACB	50	4.8	1.43	0.20	-0.744	>0.05
PAI	50	5.1	1.24	0.17		

Table 6:- Haemoglobin difference pre op & post op day 1 between both ACB & PAI

Hb diff= POD1hb-PreopHb

Block		N	Mean	SD	SE	T	P	Group Statistics
Hb diff	ACB	50	-1.8	.92	.13	-5.014	<0.05	
	PAI	50	-1.0	.65	.09			