

Comparison of Ropivacaine with Clonidine Versus Ropivacaine alone in Supraclavicular Block: A Randomised Study

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Abstract

Introduction: Ropivacaine is a new local anesthetic agent with minimal cardiovascular toxicity. Various adjuvant have been tried with local anesthetics to prolong post operative analgesia, clonidine is one such drug. The aim of our study was to evaluate the effect of adding clonidine to ropivacaine on brachial plexus block characteristics, post operative analgesia and complications. **Materials and methods:** A controlled prospective clinical study was carried out among 60 patients of either gender belonging to ASA I and II undergoing upper limb surgeries. Patients were randomly allocated to either of the 2 groups of 30 each. Group- R received: Inj. Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) +Inj. Normal saline 1 ml. Group-RC received Inj. Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) +inj. Clonidine 1 ml (150 µg). **Results:** The mean time for Onset of the sensory block was 10.06 ± 35.43 minutes in group-R and 11.86 ± 65.21 minutes in group-RC (P<0.05). The mean time for Onset of the motor block was 11.96 minutes in group-R and 13.93 minutes in group-RC (P >0.5). The total duration of sensory block was 10.03 ± 1.1 hours in group R and 13.96 ± 0.69 hours in group RC, the p < 0.01. The total duration of post operative analgesia was 11.62 hours in group R and 14.57 hours in group RC, the p value being < 0.001. **Conclusion:** Thus we conclude from our study that addition of Clonidine 150 µgm to ropivacaine in supraclavicular brachial plexus block improves post operative analgesia without any side effects.

Keywords: Ropivacaine; Clonidine; Supraclavicular; Sensory; Motor etc.

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Introduction

Regional anesthesia enables site-specific, long-lasting, and effective anesthesia and analgesia. Peripheral blockade remains a well-accepted component of comprehensive anesthetic care. Skillful application of peripheral neural blockade broadens the anesthesiologist's range of options in providing optimal anesthetic care. It can be used as surgical anesthetic, or as a supplement to provide

analgesia and muscle relaxation along with general anesthesia, or as the initial step in the provision of prolonged postoperative analgesia.

Optimal pain relief with minimal side effects after surgery can have a major impact on patient outcome including patient satisfaction and earlier mobilization which is the need of the hour. Halsted was the first to block the brachial plexus [1], he did not use a percutaneous technique. George Crile 13 years later used to surgically expose the roots

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and then inject each nerve directly. G. Hirschel [2] produced the first percutaneous brachial plexus block in 1911 through an axillary approach since then brachial plexus block remains a popular technique till today.

Supraclavicular brachial plexus block provides anaesthesia for surgeries around elbow, forearm and hand. As it provides dense block and also relieves tourniquet pain, this technique was chosen for upper limb surgeries in our study. Though few potential complications like pneumothorax, injury to vessels, hematoma are described with this technique, it can be minimized with proper technique and strict vigilance.

Peripheral nerve blocks with local anaesthetics provides excellent operating conditions but the duration of analgesia is rarely maintained for more than 4-8 hrs, even with the longest acting local anaesthetic bupivacaine. The search for a replacement for bupivacaine began in the 1980s. Ropivacaine was first tested in 1988 and appeared to have many of the blocking characteristics of bupivacaine but was much less toxic [3]. Ropivacaine was the first synthetically produced local anesthetic that was a single enantiomer, and for that reason was predictably less toxic.

Ropivacaine is a novel alternative to bupivacaine, the well known CVS & CNS adverse effects of bupivacaine seems to be less with ropivacaine. Many experimental studies on the animals have shown the safety profile [4]. Studies have shown that adjuvants like fentanyl, tramadol, Clonidine, midazolam butorphanol, dexamethasone etc. when added to the local anaesthetic mixture in peripheral nerve blockade [5] markedly prolonged the duration of analgesia.

Clinical studies have shown that alpha2 adrenergic agonists were able to prolong the duration of action of local anaesthetics and produce analgesia after epidural and intrathecal administration. Recent reports also pointed out that Clonidine, an alpha2 agonist, may have benefited patients when it was injected at peripheral nerve sites. After femoral nerve blocks with either lidocaine or bupivacaine, the analgesia obtained with Clonidine lasted longer than analgesia obtained with epinephrine [6]. The choice of local anaesthetics affects the efficacy of Clonidine. Dose-dependent prolongation of Clonidine admixed with mepivacaine or lidocaine is well established, but its ability to increase analgesic duration after brachial plexus blocks with long-acting local anaesthetics is less clear [7].

Aims of Study

The aim of this study was to compare between Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) with that of Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) with clonidine 150 microgram in brachial plexus block through supraclavicular approach, on following parameters.

1. Onset time & peak effect time for sensory block.
2. Onset time & peak effect time for motor block.
3. Vital Parameters like Pulse rate, Blood Pressure and SpO₂.
4. Duration of sensory & motor block.
5. Post-operative analgesia.
6. Side effects and Complications if any.

Materials and Methods

After getting clearance from institutional ethical committee, A controlled prospective clinical study was carried out on 60 patients of either sex undergoing various orthopedic surgeries of upper limb under supraclavicular brachial plexus block using a mixture of Local anaesthetic agent ropivacaine with addition of clonidine 150 micrograms at S.N. Medical collegel, between the academic years 2011-2012.

Surgeries around elbow, forearm and hand were included in the study. The patients included in the study belonged to ASA physical status I and II. Patients in the age group of 20-70 years were included in the study.

Pre Requisites

Pre-anaesthetic check up

All patients underwent a thorough pre-anaesthetic checkup which included history taking, general and systemic examination patients were included and excluded based on the below mentioned criterias.

Inclusion Criteria

- a) Age Group: 20-70 yrs of Either Sex
- b) Weight 50-80 Kgs
- c) ASA Physical Status I & II
- d) Both Planned & Emergency Upper Limb Surgeries

Exclusion Criteria

- a) Uncooperative, Unwilling & Not able to Understand VAS Procedure
- b) Known Hypersensitivity to LA
- c) Bleeding Disorders or Patient is on Anticoagulants
- d) Pregnant Women
- e) Any Major Illness
- f) Patients with Neuromuscular Disorder

The procedure was explained to the patients and written informed consent was taken. All patients were kept nil by mouth for at least 8 hours. An intravenous line was secured with an intravenous cannula in the unaffected limb and 5% dextrose normal saline was started. Inj. glycopyrrolate 0.2 mg, inj. Ondansetron 4 mg and inj. ranitidine 150 mg was given intravenously as pre-medication. Pulse oximeter, non invasive blood pressure cuff and ECG electrodes were applied. Baseline pulse rate, blood pressure, and respiratory rate were recorded. Patients were randomly allocated to either of the 2 groups of 30 each. Randomisation was done by computer based randomization technique. Group- R: inj. Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) +Inj. Normal saline 1 ml

Group-RC: inj. Ropivacaine 35 ml (0.75%) +inj. Clonidine 150 micrograms (1 ml)

Position and Procedure

The patient was made to lie in supine position with both the arms adducted and straight. Head was turned away from the side to be blocked. Anaesthetist stood at the head end of the patient, facing towards patients foot end. With all aseptic and antiseptic precautions, pulsation of subclavian artery was palpated with thumb of one hand at 1 cm above the mid- point of clavicle and the point of maximum pulsation was marked. Then a 24G 1^{1/2} inch short fine needle was attached to 10 cc syringe filled with 3 cc distilled water and was held in other hand in a pen holding fashion. Distilled water was taken to detect inadvertent apical pleural puncture.

The subclavian artery was displaced medially, the needle was introduced just lateral to artery at about 80 degree to skin, 1 cm above clavicle. Then needle was walked anteriorly and posteriorly on the 1st rib and the patient was asked for feeling tingling at the elbow and fingers (paresthesia). Once the patient felt paresthesia, suggestive that needle is near the nerve bundle, 36 ml of drug mixture was given after careful aspiration. Return of anaesthetic

solution from same needle also confirms presence of needle with in sheath. Immediately after drug injection, massage was done for 3 minutes for even distribution of drug.

Monitoring

Sensory block - was assessed by pin prick method. (Done with tip of 24 g needle)

1. *Sensory onset*: was considered, when there was dull sensation to pin prick along the distribution of the respective nerves.

Grade-0: Anaesthesia - no sensation felt

Grade-1: Analgesia- dull sensation felt

Grade-2: Sharp pain felt

Assessment of sensory block was done at 0 min, 1 min, 2 min, 3 min, 4 min, 5 min, 6 min, and 6.5 min till 15 minutes after completion of drug injection in skin areas corresponding to median nerve, radial nerve, ulnar nerve and musculo- cutaneous nerve.

2. *Peak effect time*: interval from injection of the drug to the loss of deep & severe pain stimulation.

Motor block was determined according to a modified Bromage scale for upper extremities.

0 = able to move normally

1 = inability to move wrist and /or elbow without resistance

2 = inability to lift wrist and /or elbow i.e. against resistance

3 = inability to move entire arm

Assessment was carried out by the same observer at 0 min, 1 min, 2 min, 3 min, 5 min, 6 min, 8 min, and 10 min and 15 min after drug injection.

Individual nerves can be tested by their area of distribution

Grade - 0: Complete paralysis

Grade - 1: Paresis

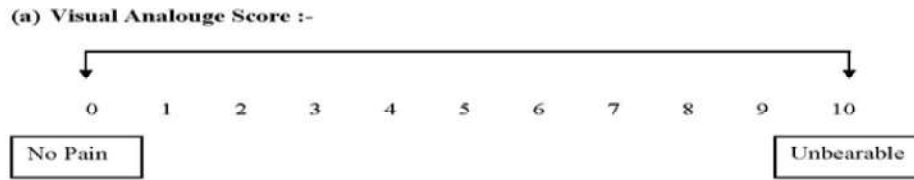
Grade - 2: Normal muscle force.

1. *Onset of motor block*: was considered when there was Grade-0 motor blockade.

2. *Peak effect time*: time interval from injection of drug to the complete motor blockade.

Patients who had incomplete analgesia were not included in the study.

Intra-operatively: Patients were monitored for hemodynamic variables Assessment of blood loss was done and fluid was administered as per the loss. Duration of surgery was noted.



Post-operatively

Pulse, blood pressure, respiratory rate, consciousness, and response were noted. Patients were examined for duration of analgesia as per Visual Analogue Scale (VAS). VAS score is the most commonly used methods of assessing acute pain and its relief. VAS is a 10 cm line which is marked as shown Above.

The patients were asked to make a vertical mark on the line to indicate the intensity of their pain and Visual Analogue Scale was scored by measuring from the left side, how far the patient marked towards the maximum pain end. This number was then used to compare changes in pain level. Score on Visual Analogue Scale was recorded post operatively at every 2 hours till VAS score of ≥ 5 , when rescue analgesia was given in the form of Inj. Diclofenac Sodium 1.5 mg/ kg Intramuscularly and time of Rescue analgesia was noted.

All the patients were observed for incidence of any side effects and complications like nausea, vomiting, Pneumothorax, hematoma, local anaesthetic toxicity and post block neuropathy in the Intra and post-operative period.

Statistical analysis: All the quantitative and qualitative data were analysed by using chi square test and unpaired t test. Results were expressed

as mean \pm standard deviation. p value <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant and values <0.001 were taken as highly significant.

Results

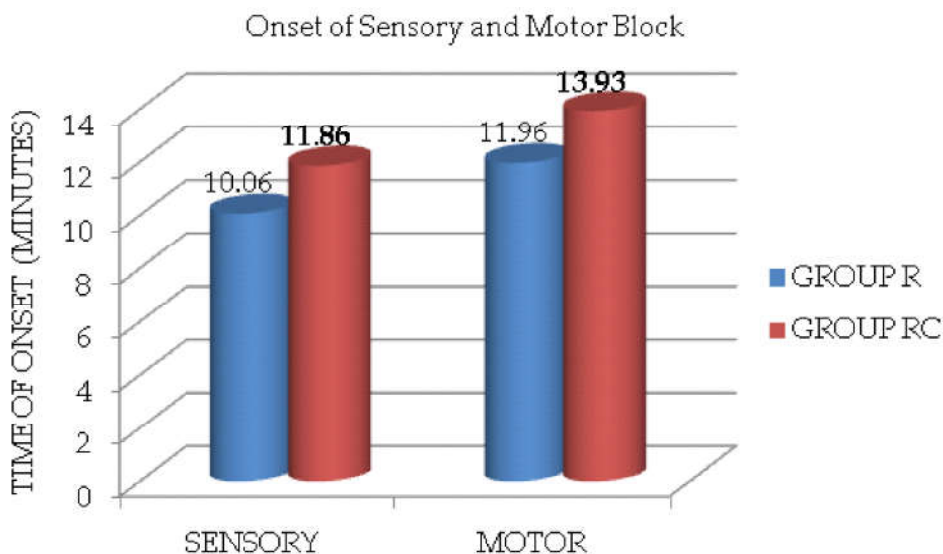
Our study was carried out in the Department of Anaesthesiology, Medical College and S.S.G. Hospital, Vadodara to evaluate and compare the effects of ropivacaine (0.75%) with clonidine versus roipivacaine alone in elective and emergency upper limb surgeries.

The mean age of patients was 36.13 ± 12.44 years in Group RC and 41.43 ± 12.88 years in Group R . The ratio of Male to Female was 21:9 in Group RC and 21:9 in Group R. The mean weight of patients was 56.83 ± 4.22 kg in Group RC and 57.06 ± 3.75 kg in Group R.

Thus both the groups were comparable to each other without significant difference with $p >0.05$.

Table 1: ASA Physical Status of Patients

ASA Status	Group R	Group RC	P value
I	25 (83.33%)	27 (90%)	>0.05
II	5 (16.67%)	3 (10%)	>0.05
Total	30 (100%)	30 (100%)	



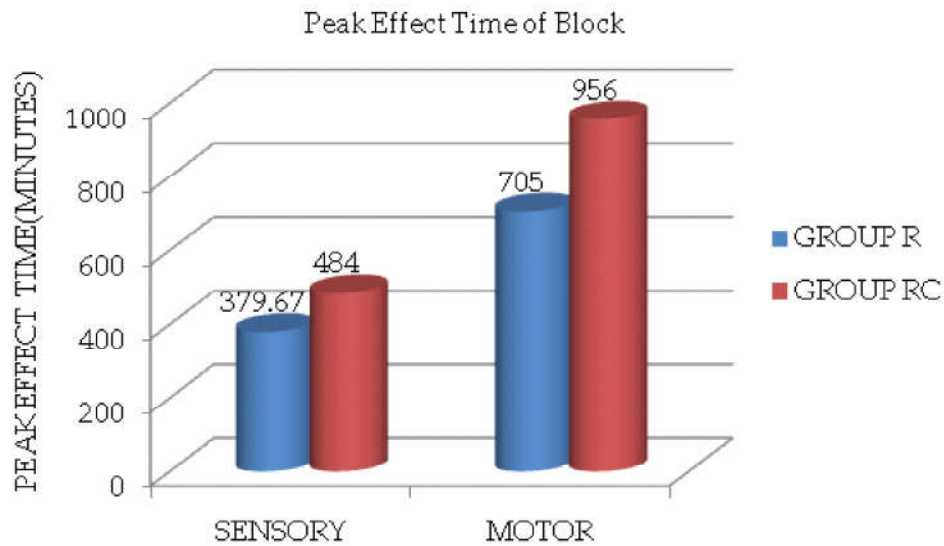
Graph 1: Time taken for onset of sensory and motor block

Table 2: Nature and Duration of Surgery

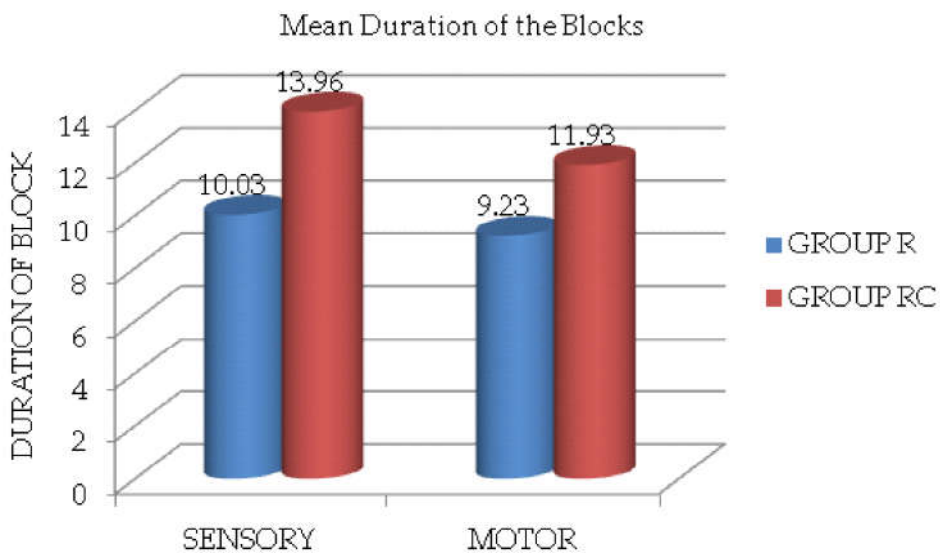
	Group R	Group RC	P value
Planned	28 (93.33)	29 (96.66%)	>0.05
Emergency	2 (6.67%)	1 (3.34%)	>0.05
Total	30 (100%)	30 (100%)	
Total duration of surgery in min. (Mean ± SD)	65.33 ± 25.36	68.17 ± 25.48	>0.05

Table 3: Types of Surgeries Performed

Surgeries	Group - R	Group - RC
Open reduction and internal fixation	10 (33.33%)	18 (60%)
Closed reduction with or without internal fixation	19 (63.34%)	10 (33.34%)
Implant extraction	0	01 (3.33%)
Excision (Radial head)	01 (3.33%)	01 (3.33%)



Graph 2: Peak Effect Time of Sensory and Motor Block (Minutes)



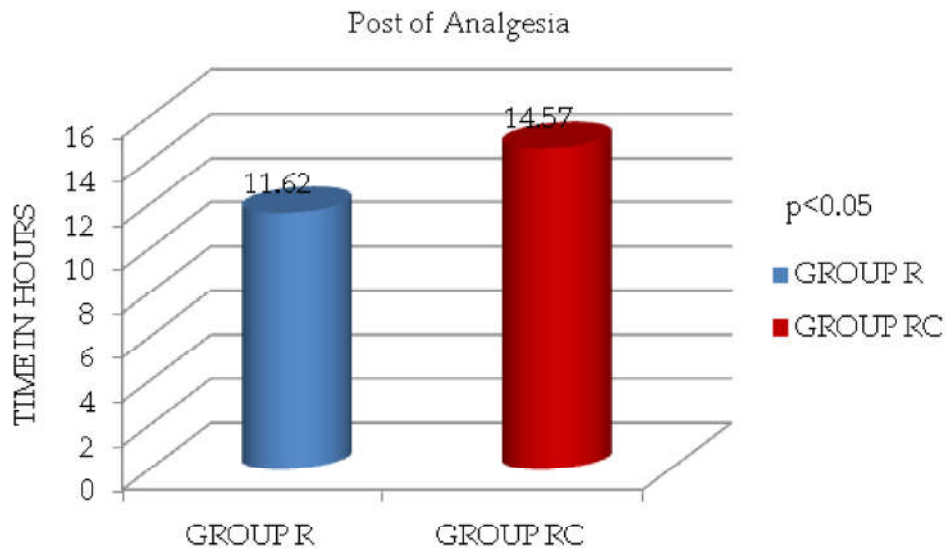
Graph 3: Duration of the Block.

Table 4: Changes in Mean Pulse Rate

Time	Pulse rate /min (Mean \pm SD)		P value
	Group R	Group RC	
Pre - operative	88.67 \pm 7.88	88.67 \pm 7.88	>0.05
Intra - operative	80.47 \pm 9.61	83.47 \pm 7.98	>0.05
Post - operative	88.33 \pm 6.97	86.13 \pm 6.79	>0.05

Table 5: Changes in the Mean Blood Pressure

Time	Blood Pressure in mm. Hg (Mean \pm SD)				P value
	Group R		Group RC		
	Systolic	Diastolic	Systolic	Diastolic	
Pre - operative	126 \pm 11.6	78.33 \pm 6.48	127 \pm 12.9	81 \pm 6.07	>0.05
Intra - operative	114.6 \pm 12.62	72.73 \pm 6.99	121.33 \pm 11.67	75.33 \pm 5.07	>0.05
Post - operative	120 \pm 7.88	76.67 \pm 5.47	122.67 \pm 8.68	79 \pm 3.05	>0.05

**Graph 4:** Total Duration of Analgesia

There was no significant change in oxygen saturation and respiratory rate amongst the 2 groups in the peri - operative period.

None of the group patients had any complications.

Discussion

Pain is defined as “an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage. Alleviation of pain remains one of the most vital duty of anaesthetist.

Pain relief after upper limb surgeries can be achieved by various methods which include

- 1) Parenteral administration of opioid and non-opioid Analgesics.
- 2) Continuous infusion of Local anaesthetics and
- 3) Non-Pharmaceutical methods like TENS

But all these are associated with high incidence of side effects like nausea, vomiting, respiratory depression, pruritus etc.

Studies have shown that addition of several adjuncts like neostigmine, opioids, dexamethasone, hyaluronidase, tramadol to local anaesthetic mixture in peripheral nerve blocks prolongs the duration of analgesia, but the results have been inconclusive because of associated side effects or doubtful efficacy [8-13].

Perineural injection of alpha2 agonists is reported to influence post op analgesia [14]. This study demonstrated that, when Clonidine was added to ropivacaine and injected into the brachial plexus sheath, it resulted in longer analgesia than ropivacaine alone. However, it was difficult to define the exact duration of analgesia following ropivacaine with clonidine. Indeed, we relied on our Patients tolerance to pain to define the end

of analgesia, and this end-point varied markedly among patients. Nevertheless, these results are in agreement with those obtained by Saied et al., using Clonidine with ropivacaine in brachial plexus block. The mechanism of action for such a potentiation of analgesia remains controversial and poorly understood [15].

After taking ethical committee clearance and written consent, We studied 60 patients and randomly divided them into 2 groups, group I patients were given ropivacaine 0.75% (30 ml) and group II patients were given ropivacaine 0.75% (30 ml) with clonidine (150 microgram). All patients were randomly selected according to sex, age, weight. Mean age was 41.43 ± 12.88 years in group R & 36.13 ± 12.44 years in group RC, both groups were comparable with respect to age (p value > 0.05, not significant). Mean weight was 57.06 ± 3.75 kgs & 56.83 ± 4.22 kgs in group R&RC respectively, both groups were comparable with weight (p value >0.05, not significant). ASA grading & sex ratio were also comparable. The type of surgeries included were all the upper limb surgeries which could be accomplished under supraclavicular approach and hence shoulder surgeries were excluded. Maximum number of surgeries were of radius & ulna repair. Duration of surgery were comparable in both the groups.

We found that the mean onset of sensory blockade was 10.06 minutes in group R and it was 11.86 minutes in group RC, so sensory onset is delayed by adding clonidine, which was statistically significant (p value <0.05).

The mean time for sensory onset was similar with Vaghadia et al. and Casati et al. In both the studies it was around 10 min [16-17].

The sensory onset with group R & R.C is not similar with saied et al in which it was around 20 min for both the groups. and francois et al. [18] study showed adding clonidine quickens the onset. Our study showed the delayed onset with clonidine group which may be related to the difference of approach & technique. The onset time for sensory block with clonidine group was delayed in casati et al. (2001) [19] which was similar to our study. Wolfgang et al. [20] showed that sensory onset time was around 10 min in most of the patients with ropivacaine which was similar with our study but in their study adding clonidine did not change the onset time which is not in accordance with our study.

The mean onset time of motor blockade was 11.86 min in group R & 13.93 min in group RC. The difference in onset is statistically significant (p value = .0034, significant), where in clonidine

delays the onset of motor blockade which is not similar with Saied et al., Francois et al., but it is similar with casati et al.

In Vaghadia et al. the onset of motor blockade with ropivacaine varied between 10-14 mins which is similar with our study where in motor blockade started around 12 min in ropivacaine group. Bertini et al. showed that time for readiness for surgery was 14.5 min in ropivacaine group which is not in accordance with our study [21].

In our study it was found that mean duration of motor blockade 9.23 hrs in Group R & 11.93 hrs in group RC, which is statistically significant. (p value <0.0001, highly significant.) the duration of postop analgesia was 11.62 hrs in group R & 14.57 hrs in group RC which is highly significant. (p value <0.0001). Casati et al. showed in their study that motor blockade duration with ropivacaine was 10 hrs which is similar with our study. In Bertini et al. the duration of motor blockade was 8 hrs which is slightly less than our study, they have used the axillary approach which may be the reason for the varied results.

Wolfgang et al. showed the duration of motor block was around 11 hrs with ropivacaine group and duration by adding clonidine was slightly more which is not statistically significant. In our study we found that duration of motor blockade was improved with clonidine which is not in accordance with the above study. The duration of motor blockade with clonidine was same as that of our study.

Saied et al. showed the prolongation of motor blockade and enhanced postop analgesia with addition of clonidine. In their study motor block improved from 9 hrs to 12 hrs, and analgesia from 10 hrs to 14 hrs. This is similar with our study wherein postop analgesia improved by 3 hrs and motor blockade improved by 2.7 hrs.

Francois et al showed that adding clonidine to ropivacaine improves postop analgesia & motor blockade which is in accordance with our study. Casati et al. in their study on major nerve block showed that prolongation of post op analgesia occurs by adding clonidine and the duration was around 11 hrs which is similar to our study [22].

The longer duration of motor blockade & postop analgesia in clonidine group could be due to the direct action of clonidine on nerve fibre conduction, specifically C and A delta fibres. However, this would require high local concentrations and would not explain why clonidine alone injected into the nerve sheath failed to produce prolonged

analgesia. The action of clonidine would then more likely be via a synergistic mechanism of action in combination with the local anesthetic resulting in the prolonged effect. This is probably the only mechanism that would explain the extended duration of both the sensory and motor blockade. What is certain is that clonidine has mixed α_1 and α_2 agonist effects at both pre and postsynaptic receptors as well as effects on a number of other specific receptors. Its mechanism of action and effects, therefore, are likely to be compound and complex [23-26].

Our results showed that sensory block tended to last longer as compared to motor block which agrees with the observation by de Jong et al. These authors explained that large fibres require a higher concentration of local anaesthetic than small fibres. The minimal effective concentration of local anaesthetic for large (motor) fibres is greater than for small (sensory) fibres. Thus, motor function return before pain perception and duration of motor block is shorter than the sensory block [24-25].

Group R & RC showed no significant hemodynamic changes intraoperatively or post operatively. This is similar with Saied et al. and vaghadia et al. and wolfing et al. and in T. satsume, convulsions had occurred with clonidine in axillary approach [26-29].

Conclusion

Thus we conclude from our study that, the ropivacaine when used in concentration of 0.75% (35 ml) with Clonidine 150 μ gm delays the onset of sensory & motor blockade while improving the post op analgesia significantly without producing any clinically significant side effects.

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Gastroenterology International	Semiannual	6000	5500	469	430
Indian Journal of Anatomy	Quarterly	8500	8000	664	625
Indian Journal of Anesthesia and Analgesia	Bi-monthly	7500	7000	586	547
Indian Journal of Cancer Education and Research	Semiannual	9000	8500	703	664
Indian Journal of Communicable Diseases	Semiannual	8500	8000	664	625
Indian Journal of Dental Education	Quarterly	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Diabetes and Endocrinology	Semiannual	8000	7500	597	560
Indian Journal of Genetics and Molecular Research	Semiannual	7000	6500	547	508
Indian Journal of Hospital Administration	Semiannual	7000	6500	547	508
Indian Journal of Hospital Infection	Semiannual	12500	12000	938	901
Indian Journal of Medical & Health Sciences	Semiannual	7000	6500	547	508
Indian Journal of Pathology: Research and Practice	Bi-monthly	12000	11500	938	898
Indian Journal of Preventive Medicine	Semiannual	7000	6500	547	508
International Journal of Neurology and Neurosurgery	Quarterly	10500	10000	820	781
International Physiology	Triannual	7500	7000	586	547
Journal of Cardiovascular Medicine and Surgery	Quarterly	10000	9500	781	742
Journal of Global Medical Education and Research	Semiannual	5900	5500	440	410
Journal of Global Public Health	Semiannual	12000	11500	896	858
Journal of Microbiology and Related Research	Semiannual	8500	8000	664	625
Journal of Organ Transplantation	Semiannual	26400	25900	2063	2023
Journal of Orthopedic Education	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Journal of Pharmaceutical and Medicinal Chemistry	Semiannual	16500	16000	1289	1250
Journal of Practical Biochemistry and Biophysics	Semiannual	7000	6500	547	508
Journal of Radiology	Semiannual	8000	7500	625	586
New Indian Journal of Surgery	Bi-monthly	8000	7500	625	586
Ophthalmology and Allied Sciences	Triannual	6000	5500	469	430
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Indian Journal of Emergency Medicine	Quarterly	12500	12000	977	938
Indian Journal of Trauma and Emergency Pediatrics	Quarterly	9500	9000	742	703
Journal of Emergency and Trauma Nursing	Semiannual	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Forensic Medicine and Pathology	Quarterly	16000	15500	1250	1211
Indian Journal of Forensic Odontology	Semiannual	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Legal Medicine	Semiannual	8500	8000	664	625
International Journal of Forensic Sciences	Semiannual	10000	9500	781	742
Journal of Forensic Chemistry and Toxicology	Semiannual	9500	9000	742	703
Community and Public Health Nursing	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Surgical Nursing	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
International Journal of Pediatric Nursing	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
International Journal of Practical Nursing	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Journal of Gerontology and Geriatric Nursing	Semiannual	5500	5000	430	391
Journal of Nurse Midwifery and Maternal Health	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Journal of Psychiatric Nursing	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Ancient Medicine and Yoga	Quarterly	8000	7500	625	586
Indian Journal of Law and Human Behavior	Semiannual	6000	5500	469	430
Indian Journal of Medical Psychiatry	Semiannual	8000	7500	625	586
Indian Journal of Biology	Semiannual	5500	5000	430	391
Indian Journal of Library and Information Science	Triannual	9500	9000	742	703
Indian Journal of Research in Anthropology	Semiannual	12500	12000	977	938
Indian Journal of Waste Management	Semiannual	9500	8500	742	664
International Journal of Political Science	Semiannual	6000	5500	450	413
Journal of Social Welfare and Management	Triannual	7500	7000	586	547
International Journal of Food, Nutrition & Dietetics	Triannual	5500	5000	430	391
Journal of Animal Feed Science and Technology	Semiannual	7800	7300	609	570
Journal of Food Additives and Contaminants	Semiannual	5000	4500	391	352
Journal of Food Technology and Engineering	Semiannual	5000	4500	391	352
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