EFFECT OF DEXAMETHASONE AS A LOCAL ANESTHETIC ADJUVANT IN ULTRASOUND GUIDED BRACHIAL PLEXUS BLOCK

An Essay Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree in Anesthesiology

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Jist of Abbreviations

Abb.

Full term

μg Microgram
AA Axillary Artery
ASM Anterior scalene muscle
AV Axillary Vein
BPBs Brachial plexus nerve blocks
cSpeed of time
CACarotid artery
CN XI Cranial Nerve XI
DDepth dBDecibel
DIC Disseminated Intravascular Coagulopathy
DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid
EU European Union
f Frequency
FDA Food and Drug Administration
FR First Rib
GR Glucocorticoids receptors
HCHealth Canada
HZ Hertz
I.V Intra venous
IJVInternal Jugular Vein
IPIn Plane
ISB Inter scalene block
IV Intravenous
K Potassium
LALocal anesthetic
LAST Local anesthetic systemic toxicity
mA milliAmpere
MAC Minimum alveolar concentration
MgMilligram
MHz Mega Hertz
msec Milli second
MSM Middle Scalene Muscle

Tist of Abbreviations cont...

Abb.

Full term

MSM	Middle seelene
mV	
N	. Nerve trunks
Na	. Sodium
NSAIDs	. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
00P	
OR	. Operating Room
PABA	. P-amino benzoic acid
PACU	. Post Anaesthesia Care Unit
PMiM	. Pectoralis Minor Muscle
PMM	. Pectroralis major muscle
PNBs	. Peripheral nerve blocks
PONV	. Postoperative nausea and vomiting
SA	. Subclavian Artery
SCBP block	. Supra scapular brachial plexus block
SCM	. Sternocleidomastoid Muscle
Τ	. Time
ТР	. Transverse Process
US	. Ultrasound guided
λ	. Wavelength

Abstract

There has been found a substantial clinical and statistical effect of adding perineural dexamethasone to LA used for brachial plexus blocks in terms of a prolongation of duration of analgesia as well as on the reduction of pain scores and opioid consumption postoperatively.

Low-dose dexamethasone is sufficient to enhance analgesia associated with brachial plexus blocks when applied perineurally.

Keywords: Middle scalene - Nerve trunks- Post Anaesthesia Care Unit -Peripheral nerve blocks - Sternocleidomastoid Muscle- Transverse Process- Ultrasound guided

INTRODUCTION

Peripheral nerve blocks play an important role in modern regional anaesthesia and pain medicine. The concept of direct visualization of nerve structures via ultrasonography is convincing and supported by recent publications *(Marhofer et al., 2005).*

Advocates of use of ultrasound believe that the use of ultrasound technology provides a superior technique by allowing visualization of the target structure (i.e. the nerve) and other structures of interest (i.e. blood vessels, lung, pleura,...), a real time examination of the spread of local anesthetic as it is injected, and the ability of reposition of the needle to both avoid injury and increase success rates *(Hopkins, 2007)*.

Ultra-sonographic guidance for peripheral nerve blocks offers significant advantages compared with conventional methods such as peripheral nerve stimulation and nerve mapping. It shortens sensory onset times, improves the quality and the duration of blocks, may avoid complications such as intraneuronal punctures, inadvertent vessel punctures and pneumothorax during periclavicular brachial plexus blocks, and enables a reduction of the volume of local anaesthetic due to precise administration of the local anaesthetic solution *(Marhofer et al., 2010).*

Ultrasound guidance may eliminate the need for electrical stimulation and therefore reduce pain of the block. This was confirmed by a study of an infraclavicular block comparing ultrasound guidance and nerve stimulator guidance in children *(Frederiksen et al., 2010).*

Claimed benefits of ultrasound guided regional anaesthesia include that it is easier to learn and perform, quicker to perform, has a faster onset, results in higher success rates, results in more complete block, requires lower volumes of local anesthetic, and increases safety *(Denny et al., 2005)*.

Brachial plexus nerve block have analgesic and opioid sparing benefits for upper extremity surgery. Single-injection techniques are limited by the pharmacological duration and the therapeutic index. Continuous catheter techniques while effective can present management challenges (*Choi et al., 2014*).

Use of perineural dexamethasone as an adjuvant to the local anaesthetic has been utilized to prolong single-injection techniques (*Nebojsa et al., 2015*).

AIM OF THE WORK

The aim of this essay is to assess the contemporary literature and highlight the effects of dexamethasone on ultrasound guided BPB.

ANATOMICAL AND PHARMACOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Anatomy of Brachial Plexus:

The anterior horn cells that are cell bodies for motor neurons resides in the ventral horn of the spinal cord and send their motor outflow through the ventral root. The ventral roots exit the spinal cord and combine with the dorsal roots to form spinal nerves .The spinal nerves divide into anterior and posterior rami, and there are the anterior rami that contribute to the formation of the brachial plexus *(Hentz and Hong, 2003)*.

The brachial plexus receives contributions from cervical roots C5, C6, C7, C8 and T1 .The sympathetic supply to the head and neck arises from the first thoracic segment and reaches the spinal nerves through the grey ramus from the inferior cervical ganglion .Damage to the T1 root may result in an ipsilateral Horner's syndrome [Fig. 1] (*Hentz and Hong, 2003*).

In the neck, the brachial plexus lies between the scalenus anterior and scalenus medius and then deep to the sternocleidomastoid muscle. It emerges from below the sternocleidomastoid muscle and three trunks are formed above the clavicle[(upper) C5-C6, (middle) C7, (lower) C8-T1 *(Hentz and Hong, 2003).*

Behind the clavicle, the anterior and posterior divisions of the trunks reconfigure to form three cords. The upper two

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anterior divisions unite together to form the lateral cord, the anterior division of the lower trunk runs on as the medial cord, while all three posterior divisions unite together to form the posterior cord *(Hentz and Hong, 2003)*.

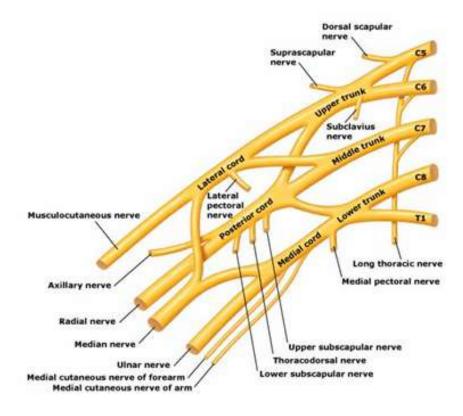


Fig. (1): Brachial plexus from roots to terminal divisions (*Hentz and Hong, 2003*).

Roots:

The anterior rami of the spinal nerves of C5, 6, 7, 8 and T1 form the roots of the brachial plexus; the roots emerge from the transverse processes of the cervical vertebrae immediately