

Preoperative Infiltration Analgesia Prior to Cesarean Section

Thesis

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List of Contents

Title	Page
♦ List of Abbreviations	II
♦ List of figures	IV
♦ List of Tables	VI
♦ Introduction	1
♦ Review of the Literature	
▪ Chapter (1): Pain.....	3
▪ Chapter (2): Pre-emptive Analgesia	34
▪ Chapter (3): Local Anesthetics.....	40
▪ Chapter (4): Pharmacology of Analgesics.....	60
♦ Subjects and Methods	97
♦ Results	101
♦ Discussion	112
♦ Summary	126
♦ Conclusion and Recommendation	129
♦ References	130
♦ Arabic Summary	—

List of Abbreviations

5-HT	: Serotonin
ACh	: Acetylcholine
ACLS	: Advanced cardiac life support
AMPA	: 2-amino-3- hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole-propionic acid
APS	: Acute pain service
ATP	: Adenosine triphosphate
cAMP	: Cyclic adenosine monophosphate.
CNS	: Central nervous system
COX-1	: Cyclooxygenase 1
COX-2	: Cyclooxygenase 2
CPNB	: Continuous peripheral nerve block
CYP	: Cytochrome P450,
DOP	: Delta (Δ) opioid peptide
DRG	: Dorsal root ganglion
GABA	: Gamma-Aminobutyric acid
KOP	: Kappa (K) -opioid peptide
LA	: Local anesthetics
MHRA	: Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency
MOP	: Mu (M) opioid peptide
NMDA	: N-methyl-D-aspartate
NMDA	: N-Methyl-D-aspartic acid
NOP	: Nociceptin receptor

NPSA	: National Patient Safety Agency
NS	: Nociceptive-specific
NSAIDs	: Non-steroidal antiinflammatory drugs
OTC	: Over-the-counter
PABA	: Para-aminobenzoic acid
PAG	: Periaqueductal grey
PCA	: Aspatient-controlled analgesia
PONV	: Postoperative nausea and vomiting
TENS	: Transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation
TRP	: Transient receptor potential
VAS	: Visual Analogue Scale
VSCC	: Voltage sensitive calcium channels
WDR	: Wide-dynamic-range
WHO	: World Health Organization

List of Figures

Fig. No.	Title	Page No.
1	The gate control theory of pain.	6
2	Nociceptive Pain.	16
3	Sites of referred Pain.	22
4	Visual analog scale (VAS) for pain severity measurement.	28
5	World Health Organization (1986) pain ladder.	33
6	Tissue damage initiates a number of alterations of the peripheral and the central pain pathways.	39
7	The complete action potential of a large mammalian myelinated fiber. Drawn without time or voltage distortion to show the proportions of the components.	42
8	Voltage-gated sodium channels exist in three states resting, activated (open), and inactivated.	45
9	Mechanism of analgesic action of non-opioid agents.	62
10	Seven transmembrane structure of opioid G-protein-coupled receptor.	80
11	In the NRM stimulation of primary cells is thought to induce secondary cells, the output from which is inhibitory (GABA) toward primary cells.	89
12	Mechanism of analgesic action of opioids.	93

13	Visual analog scale (VAS) for pain severity measurement.	99
14	Comparison between cases and controls as regard visual analogue scale (VAS) within 1st 6 hours.	103
15	Comparison between cases and controls as regard VAS within 2nd 6 hours.	105
16	Comparison between cases and controls as regard VAS during the next 12 hours.	108
17	Changes in VAS during the 24 hours among lidocaine group and control group.	110

List of Tables

Table No.	Title	Page No.
1	Peripheral nerve fibres relevant to pain.	14
2	Multidimensional effects of pain.	20
3	Physiologic sources of pain.	22
4	Nerve fibers classifications.	47
5	Physicochemical Properties of Local Anesthetics.	48
6	Systemic actions of local anesthetics.	52
7	Clinical Use of Local Anesthetic Agents.	53
8	Clinical manifestations of local anesthetic overdose.	55
9	Cautions, contraindications and adverse effects associated with non-opioid analgesics.	67
10	Minimising the risk of adverse drug interactions.	75
11	Risk factors for non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) induced adverse effects on the gastrointestinal tract.	76
12	Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) and cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 properties for post-operative pain.	77
13	Examples of drug interactions.	78
14	Endogenous opioid peptides, synthetic and semi-synthetic opioid agonists and antagonists, along with their selectivity for the different subtypes of opioid receptor.	83
15	Comparison between cases and controls as regard demographic data.	102

16	Comparison between cases and controls as regard visual analogue scale (VAS) within 1st 6 hours.	103
17	Changes in VAS from 2 hours till 6 hours after among lidocain group.	104
18	Changes in VAS from 2 hours till 6 hours after among control group.	104
19	Comparison between cases and controls as regard VAS within 2nd 6 hours.	105
20	Changes in VAS within 2nd 6 hours among lidocain group.	106
21	Changes in VAS within 2nd 6 hours among control group.	107
22	Comparison between cases and controls as regard VAS during the next 12 hours.	108
23	Changes in VAS during the next 12 hours in comparison to 2 hours among lidocain group.	109
24	Changes in VAS during the next 12 hours in comparison to 2 hours among control group.	110
25	Comparison between cases and controls as regard analgesic requirement.	111



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Dedication

*I would like to dedicate this thesis to the
soul of my Great **Father**, for him I will
never find adequate words to express my
gratitude.*

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

قالوا

لَسْبَحَانَكَ لَا عِلْمَ لَنَا
إِلَّا مَا عَلَّمْتَنَا إِنَّكَ أَنْتَ
الْعَلِيمُ الْعَظِيمُ

صدق الله العظيم

سورة البقرة الآية: ٣٢

Introduction

Delivery by caesarean section (CS) is becoming more frequent and is one of the most common major operative procedure performed worldwide. In the USA a CS rate of 26% for all births is reported. The rate approaches 25% in Canada and is over 20% in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (**CDC, 2006 and RCOG, 2001**).

Childbirth is an emotional experience for a woman and her family. The mother needs to bond with the new baby as early as possible and initiate early breastfeeding, which helps to contract the uterus and accelerates the process of uterine involution in the postpartum period (**Novy, 1991**).

So Achieving optimal pain relief after cesarean delivery is an important issue due to a higher risk for thromboembolic events, because of the surgery and the hypercoagulable state of pregnancy and puerperium. In addition, these patients are highly motivated and desire early ambulation in order to breastfeed and care for their newborn (**Roy Kessous et al., 2011**).

The degree of postoperative pain, as ultimately perceived by the patient, is multifactorial and depends on variables such as type and duration of the operation, type of anesthesia and operation, type of anesthesia and analgesia used, and the patient's mental and emotional status (for example: laparotomy for cesarean delivery versus laparotomy for uterine cancer (**Pan et al., 2006**)).

There are many methods of postoperative pain treatment. The traditional and most widely used is parenteral opioids. Parenteral narcotics in general are associated with nausea, vomiting, constipation, respiratory depression, and sedation. Newer technologies, such as continuous epidural analgesia or patientcontrolled analgesia, have adverse effects, are expensive, and require trained personnel and special equipment another option for postcesarean pain management is to administer oral analgesics immediately after the procedure (**Faboyaa and Unclesb, 2007; Cohen and Smetzer, 2005 and Jakobi et al., 2000**).

Preemptive analgesia is an analgesic regimen initiated before the onset of tissue trauma and could have effects that outlast the pharmacokinetic presence of the intervention and its efficacy. It is based on the theory of prevention of central pain sensitization. Different techniques of preemptive analgesia have been reported, including intramuscular, intravenous, epidural, and local anesthetics used in peripheral nerve block, intraperitoneal instillation, or wound Infiltration (**Moiniche et al., 2002 and Kaufman et al., 2005**).

Several studies have reported on use of pre-emptive local anaesthetics (local anaesthetic given during the operation to prevent or reduce pain afterwards) to relieve postoperative pain, with results ranging from being beneficial (**Leila Sekhavat, 2011; Ganta et al., 1994 and Johanssen et al., 1997**) to conferring no benefit (**Roy Kessous, 2011; Adams et al., 1991 and Friedman et al., 2000**).

Pain

Introduction:

Pain often occurs in critical care patients and is one of the most clinically challenging problems for critical care nurses. Pain and discomfort in these patients can be due to surgical and posttraumatic, invasive monitoring devices, prolonged immobilization, mechanical ventilation, and routine nursing procedures such as suctioning and dressing changes (**Jodka and Heard, 2005**).

In addition, patients may have a preexisting chronic pain condition, complicating the assessment and treatment of acute pain. Pain is a problem in critical care that has not been adequately addressed. Strategies for changing pain management practices include providing documentation, implementing pain guidelines, using algorithms and increasing education in pain management for acute and critical care nurses. A review of pain physiology is essential to fully understand the principles of pain management (**Shannon and Bucknall, 2003**).

Defining pain:

McCaffery (1972) defined pain as ‘whatever the experiencing person says it is, and exists whenever he says it does’. The International Association for the Study of Pain provides a comprehensive definition of pain as ‘an unpleasant

sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage, or described in terms of such damage. Pain is an individual experience and a complex phenomenon influenced by biological, psychological and social factors (Merskey and Bogduk, 1994).

Evolution of Pain Theories:

As early as 1644, Descartes proposed a theory of pain, that a straightline channel of pain exists from skin to brain (Melzack, 1973).

During the 19th century, von Frey theorized that pain pathways move from specialized receptors in body tissues to a pain center in the brain. The focus of this theory, known as the specificity theory, is specialized peripheral receptors rather than a central mechanism of pain in the brain. However, although receptors are specialized, a focus on peripheral receptors does not explain how an amputee can feel pain in the amputated limb (a phenomenon known as phantom limb pain) when the peripheral receptors no longer exist. According to the pattern theory of pain proposed in the late 19th century, pain is the result of stimulation of certain nerve impulses that form a pattern and are then combined and dumped into the spinal cord as a lump sum of pain, a process called “central summation (Melzack, 1973).

This theory can better account for the phantom limb phenomenon, because the focus is on what occurs in the brain