## Osteochondral Transplantation in Shoulder Joint

Essay

Submitted For Complete Fulfillment in M.Sc.Degree In Orthopaedic Surgery

By

#### Abdulhaq M M Shaheen

(M.B.B.Ch)

Supervised by

#### **Prof.Dr.Khaled Abd El-Salam Shohayeb**

Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery,
Faculty of Medicine, Cairo University

#### **Dr.Ihab Emran**

Assistant Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery,
Faculty of Medicine, Cairo University

Faculty of Medicine

**Cairo University** 

2010

## بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

#### **AKNOWLEDGMENT**

First and for most ....I thank **ALLAH**, who gave me everything

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Prof. Dr. **Khaled Abd El-Salam Shohayeb**, Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery,

Faculty Of Medicine, Cairo University, for his continuous and unlimited support, throughout my work.

My special thanks are dedicated to Dr. **Ihab Emran,** Assistant Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery, Faculty Of Medicine, Cairo University, for his continued help and cooperation throughout the whole work.

I'm obliged to all my professors, my seniors, my colleagues, and all my friends who contributed to this work.

#### **ABSTRACT**

Osteochondral transplantation from the knee to the shoulder results in a good clinical outcome in terms of pain relief ideal functional recovery. The osteochondral defect osteochondral autologous transplantation in the shoulder is relatively small; however, the results of study suggest that the development of osteoarthritis and the progression of preexisting osteoarthritic changes cannot be altered by the technique. Osteochondral allograft transfer follows similar protocol of osteochondral autograft a transfer, matching a donor plug to a recipient site, but without the limitations on transferable tissue imposed by donor-site morbidity.

The treatment of focal chondral and osteochondral defects of the humeral head remains challenging, especially in younger patients.

#### **Keywords:**

Chondral defects,

Osteochondral defects,

Shoulder instability,

Osteochondral autograft transfer system,

Osteochondral allograft transfer system

### **CONTENTS**

		Page
Introdu	ction	1
Anatom	y and biomechanics of shoulder	6
Normal	articular cartilage	20
	ondral lesions of shoulder joint:	
	oEtiology	28
	o Diagnosis	30
	o Incidence/natural history	
	o Classification of AC lesion	
Manage	ement of osteochondral defects of shoulder join	ı <b>t</b> 37
Osteoch	ondral autograft and allograft transfer sustem	ı:
	o Osteochondral autograft transfer	40
	Osteochondral allograft transfer	51
Overvie	ew techniques of others articular cartilage reco	onstruction
in shoul	der:	
	o Microfracture	66
	o Autologous chondrocyte implantation	69
	o Transhumeral bone grafting	71
Associa	ted salvage procedures in chondral defects of s	houlder
joint:		
Ū	<ul> <li>Soft tissue interposition</li> </ul>	74
	Lesser tuberisty transfer	
Summa	ry	
	ices	
Arabic	summary	100

## **List of Figures**

Λ	o. Figure	Page
1	Three dimension anterior view of glenohumeral joint	8
2	(a) coronal view, (b) axial view, represent humeral	10
	Head and glenoid cartilage thickness.	
3	Three different modes of motion at glenohumeral joint	12
	(a)Rotation, (b)Rolling, (c)translation.	
4	(A-H) glenohumeral contact patterns for a typical	14
	shoulder at (A) $0^{\circ}$ , (B) $60^{\circ}$ , (C) $120^{\circ}$ and (D) $180^{\circ}$ of elevation	
	in scapular plane in the starting rotation (SR) and at (E) $0^{\circ}$ ,	
	(F) $60^{\circ}$ , (G) $120^{\circ}$ and (H) $180^{\circ}$ of elevation in scapular plane.	
	20° internally rotated to the (SR).	
5	Basic cartilage meshwork configuration	22
6	The huge aggrecan molecule that has abundant negatively	23
	charged sulfate molecules that attract positively charged	
	water molecules .This affinity for water combined with a	
	tight meshwork provides the charged hyperhydrated	
	sponge.	
7	The zonal layers of articular cartilage	24
8	Neer impagment sign.	32
9	MRI of chondral defect of humeral head	.33

No.	. Figure	Page
10	Arthroscopic representation of the outerbridge	35
	classification defined by four grades:(A) Grade I, intact	
	soft cartilage; (B) Grade II, partial-thickness lesion<1.5	
	cm; (C) Grade III, partial-thickness lesion>1.5 cm; grade	
	(D) Grade IV, exposed bone .	
11	ICRS grafting system for chondral defect	36
12	Flow diagram representing an approach to	39
	treatment of glenohumeral cartilage lesions.	
13	Radiolgraphic classification of dislocation arthropathy	42
	of shoulder according to Samilson and Prieto.	
	(a) Mild, (b) Moderate, (c) Severe.	
14	Intraoperative findings. A grade IV osteochondral lesion	45
	of the humeral head (a) Before and (b) After autologous	
	transplantation with two osteochondral plugs.	
15	Recipient site humeral head (A), application of the OATS	55
	allograft (B).	
16	preoperative 3- dimentional CT scan in 18 years	59
	Old pt. after failed instability procedure with	
	approximately 35% ant Glenoid bone loss	

No.	. Figure Page
17	(A) Distal tibial allograft cuts for 8mm deficiency <b>61</b>
	the lat. Aspect of distal tibia is used as the graft
	source. (B) The graft is cut to accommodate the
	perpendicular cut to glenoid surface this can be
	adjusted to fit the glenoid.
18	Two K-wires (1.6mm) are placed in tibial allograft at 45°62
	Angle to glenoid surface to facillate positioning in
	Glenoid defect.
19	(A) Intraoperative image shouwing glenoid defect63
	(B) Image obtained after distal tiba allograft has
	been affixed in place with two 3.5mm cortical screws.
20	Focal chondral defectof the humeral head, penetration 67
	of the subchondral bone with a metal awl (A), and
	marrow elements extruding from the microfracture holes
	of the humeral head.
21	Locked posterior dislocation with large reversed Hill

Sachs defect (A); after lesser tuberosity transfer (B).

## LIST OF TABLES

No.	Title	page
I	Glenohumeral contact areas	15
II	Characteristics of patients and defects in treatment with	43
	osteochondral autograft in shoulder joint.	

## **INTRODUCTION**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Hyaline articular cartilage is an avascular and insensate tissue that allows low friction transmission of physiologic loads diarthrodial joints. Ideally, the functional structure of articular cartilage is maintained in homeostasis over the lifetime of an individual. However. hyaline cartilage is mature relatively hypocellular and incapable of mounting an effective repair response in the skeletally mature adult. Partial-thickness when injured chondral lesions often remain occult due to the insensate nature of articular cartilage and even small, focal full-thickness lesions can remain asymptomatic. While the natural progression of degenerative changes and associated disability is multifactorial, increasing defect size contributes to the development of symptoms and, ultimately, osteoarthritis. Progressive enlargement of articular defects involve loss of containment in the articular cartilage, leading to increases in load bearing and stress concentration at the defect rim (Guettler et al., 2004).

Chondral lesions of the glenohumeral joint pose a significant clinical problem. The natural history of such lesions is unclear; there is no established treatment mentioned in the literature, and nonoperative treatment may not provide sufficient relief from pain (Snow and Funk, 2008).

The threshold intervention treatment for surgical unequivocal, but patients with symptomatic lesions are considered as candidates for cartilage procedures. Of the many different techniques that have been proposed over time, the ones that in common use today include marrow-stimulating techniques are micro-fracture, autologous chondrocyte implantation in its such as different variations, and osteochondral grafting using autologous allogeneic tissue (Alford and Cole, 2005).

Marrow-stimulating techniques are commonly considered an initial reparative treatment option for relatively small, contained articular cartilage lesions because they are simple to perform. economical and often appropriate and effective. However, these efforts generally result in fibrocartilagenous repair with biomechanical properties and wear characteristics that are inferior to that of hyaline cartilage. Autologous chondrocyte implantation (ACI) has gained popularity over the last decade as a restorative procedure. Criticisms of ACI include the high cost of culturing and expanding chondrocytes, the invasive, two-step nature of the procedure, learning curve associated with the technique, and the inconsistent hyaline quality of the resultant tissue as it matures. Consequent generations of ACI have tried to address some of the issues of donor site morbidity and graft hypertrophy by introducing patches collagen for coverage and by seeding the cultured chondrocytes in artificial scaffolds (Bartlett et al., 2005).

The use of osteochondral grafts of autologous or allogeneic origin is well supported on a basic science level and has a long successful clinical history as a means of biologic resurfacing. While either application has unique advantages and challenges, both subscribe to a common paradigm of transplanting mature hyaline containing viable chondrocytes attached to cartilage subchondral bone to restore the architecture and characteristics of native tissue in By osteoarticular defects. transplanting acquired structurally complete osteochondral units with an intact tidemark, the fixation issue is mostly related to that of osseous ingrowth (Bobic, 1999).

One obvious disadvantage of autologous graft sources is that the maximum graft surface area is self-limited by donor volume, to small and medium-sized lesions. Also, donor site morbidity can significantly add to the disease burden during intra-articular transfer, or even introduce it if the transfer is inter-articular. However, autologous grafting does hold advantages over other graft sources, such as fresh osteochondral allografting. It is relatively cheap, immediately available, nonantigenic, and osteogenetic, leading reliable osteointegration. One of osteochondral advantage allografting is that even very large and multiple lesions can be addressed with a solid orthotopic graft that reproduces the anatomy both macroscopically the native joint and microscopically, without the risk of inducing donor site morbidity. No other current cartilage repair procedure can match the versatility of osteochondral allografts when addressing complex lesions in topographically challenging environments, especially if they present with an osseous

deficiency. Obvious drawbacks to the methodology are the scarcity of organ donor tissue, financial and logistical issues of procurement, and residual risk of infection, albeit small. The surgical techniques for either graft source are straight forward but require precision to restore articular surface congruity while maximizing the potential for The mosaicplasty technique incorporates bony healing. multiple, autologous grafts, with fibrocartilage to fill in the small between osteochondral grafts, whereas the osteochondral autologous transfer system (OATS) utilizes bigger and fewer dowels (Duchow et al., 2000).

Osteochondral allografting employs orthotopic donor tissue to recreate topographically appropriate articular surface anatomy, using either dowel that are analogous to the OATS grafts, especially for contained small- to medium-sized condylar lesions that are accessible, while larger, more complex lesions can be addressed with freehanded shell grafts (Lane et al., 2004).

# ANATOMY AND BIOMECHANICS OF THE SHOULDER JOINT