

## Comparative Study of Dexmedetomidine and Dexamethasone as Adjuvant to Bupivacaine in Evaluation of Motor Sensory Blockade and Duration of Analgesia

Rashim Vachhani<sup>1</sup>, Babita Agrawal<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1,2</sup>Associate Professor, Department of Anesthesiology, Shri Shankaracharya institute of medical sciences (SSIMS), Bhilai, Chhattisgarh, India

Received: 18-05-2022 / Revised: 28-05-2022 / Accepted: 01-06-2022

Corresponding author: Dr. Rashim Vachhani

Conflict of interest: Nil

### Abstract

**Background:** To evaluate Motor Sensory Blockade and Duration of Analgesia with Dexmedetomidine and Dexamethasone as Adjuvant to Bupivacaine.

**Material and Methods:** This randomized study was conducted in the department of Anesthesiology from September 2021 to May 2022. Total 400 patients were included in this study. These patients were divided into two groups having 200 patients in each group. Group A received 20ml of 2% lignocaine with adrenaline plus 18ml of 0.5% bupivacaine plus 50µg of dexmedetomidine and group B received 20ml of 2% lignocaine with adrenaline plus 18ml of 0.5% bupivacaine plus 8mg of dexamethasone.

**Results:** Onset and duration of sensory and motor block, quality and duration of intraoperative analgesia were recorded. In our study we revealed similar onset of sensory block in group A and B. While Group A showed early onset and longer duration of motor block compared to group B. Hemodynamic were similar in both groups during intraoperative periods.

**Conclusion:** We concluded that dexmedetomidine as adjuvant to bupivacaine increases the duration of block and postoperative analgesia as compared to dexamethasone with minimal or negligible adverse events.

**Keywords:** Sensory block, Bupivacaine, Dexmedetomidine, Dexamethasone.

This is an Open Access article that uses a fund-ing model which does not charge readers or their institutions for access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>) and the Budapest Open Access Initiative (<http://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/read>), which permit unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided original work is properly credited.

### Introduction

Pain is defined by the international association for study of pain as an “unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage or described in terms of such damage. Pain perception actually begins before birth.[1] Surgical pain not only causes immediate nociceptive response but also results in changes in nociceptive activation

pathways leading to hypersensitivity, hyperalgesia and allodynia.[2]

Brachial plexus block is a popular approach for upper limb surgeries as an alternative to general anesthesia. This type of anesthesia mainly helps in to achieve ideal operating conditions by producing muscular relaxation, maintaining stable intraoperative hemodynamic condition and sympathetic block which reduces

postoperative pain, vasospasm and edema.[3]

Bupivacaine is used most frequently as it has a longer duration of action varying from 3 to 8 hours. However, it has limiting factors like delayed onset, patchy or incomplete analgesia.<sup>[4]</sup> To minimize these drawbacks many drugs like Neostigmine, Opioids, Hyaluronidase, Midazolam, Clonidine, Dexamethasone etc., have been added to local anesthetics to improve the quality and duration of action and postoperative analgesia.[5]

Among the  $\alpha_2$  agonists clonidine and dexmedetomidine are commonly used. Dexmedetomidine is a highly selective  $\alpha_2$  agonist with sedative and analgesic properties with minimal respiratory depression. It has a  $\alpha_2/\alpha_1$  selectivity ratio of (1600:1) which is eight times more potent than clonidine (200:1). It is shorter acting drug than clonidine with a distribution half-life of 9 min and elimination half-life of 2 hours.[6,7]

However, the studies are scant about the analgesic efficacy of the Dexamethasone and dexmedetomidine. Hence this study was taken up to assess the efficacy of Dexamethasone as an analgesic especially for upper limb surgeries.

### Materials and methods

This randomized study was conducted in department of Anesthesiology from from September 2021 to May 2022. Total 400 patients were included in this study. Ethical clearance was taken from Institutional Ethical review committee. An informed written consent was obtained from all patients

### Inclusion Criteria:

- Patients with ASA class I and II
- Patients aged between 18 to 70 years who undergoing upper limb surgeries

### Exclusion Criteria:

- Morbid obesity
- Coagulopathy

- Peripheral vascular disease
- Diabetes
- Pregnancy or lactating women
- Significant neurological, psychiatric, neuromuscular, cardiovascular, pulmonary, renal, hepatic disease
- Alcoholism or drug abuse
- Patients who refused to consent
- Drug allergy

### Randomization:

Patients were allocated into two groups using simple computerized based randomization techniques. Group A (n = 200) Patients received 20ml of 2% lignocaine with adrenaline plus 18ml of 0.5% bupivacaine plus 50 $\mu$ g of dexmedetomidine (0.5ml drug plus 1.5ml NS), a total volume of 40ml. While in Group B (n = 200) 8mg of dexamethasone (2ml) was used in place of dexmedetomidine with same 40 ml volume. The anesthesiologist performing the block and observing the patient was blinded to the treatment group. Data collection was done by the same anesthesiologist who was unaware of the group allocation.

### Procedure:

Patient was taken to OT after starting ringer lactate infusion using 18G I.V cannula in the non – operated hand. Baseline values of heart rate, ECG, non-invasive blood pressure, peripheral oxygen saturation, respiratory rate was noted before execution of block technique. The study drug was prepared by an anaesthesiologist who was not involved in the study. Patient was asked to lie supine and head of the patient was turned to the contralateral side. Interscalene groove was identified, and the site was cleaned with povidone iodine solution.

A superficial skin wheal was made one finger breadth above clavicle in the interscalene groove with 0.5% lignocaine. A 5cm insulated nerve stimulator needle was attached to a nerve stimulator and the

current to be delivered being set at 2.0mA and a pulse width of 100 $\mu$ s. Needle direction was almost perpendicular with slight inclination towards contralateral nipple and desired response in the form of muscle twitch of fingers was sought.

Once the desired response was attained, current was reduced to 0.5mA and if the response still persisted, the drugs were injected after negative aspiration for blood before injecting the drugs in aliquots of 3ml to a total volume of 40ml.

Onset of sensory block was assessed by spirit swab method. Assessment of motor block was done using the Bromage score.

Grade 0: Normal motor function with full flexion and extension of elbow, wrist, and fingers

Grade 1: Decreased motor strength with ability to move the fingers only

Grade 2: Complete motor block with inability to move the fingers

Surgery duration was noted. Side effects like dryness of mouth, nausea, vomiting and complications like LA toxicity, pneumothorax and post block neuropathy were monitored. Duration of sensory block was defined as the time interval

between the end of drug administration and complete resolution of anesthesia on all nerves.<sup>10</sup> The duration of motor block was defined as the time interval between the end of drug administration and the recovery of complete motor function of hand and forearm.

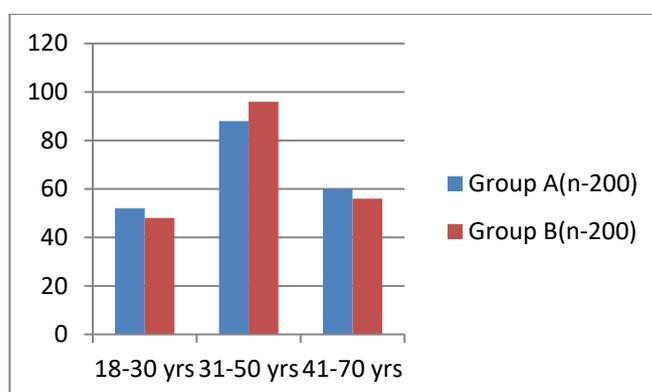
The data was compiled and subjected to statistical analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 27. Demographic and hemodynamic data were subjected to Student's t-test and for statistical analysis of onset time and duration of sensory and motor blocks, and DOA unpaired t- test was applied. P-value < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant and P < 0.001 as highly significant.

## Results

Regarding the age and sex distribution, there was no difference among the two groups taken up for study. The youngest patient in dexmedetomidine group (Group A) was of 20 years whereas oldest was of 54 years. In dexamethasone group (Group B) the youngest patient was of 22 years whereas oldest was of 60 years [Table 1].

**Table 1: Age distribution among the patients**

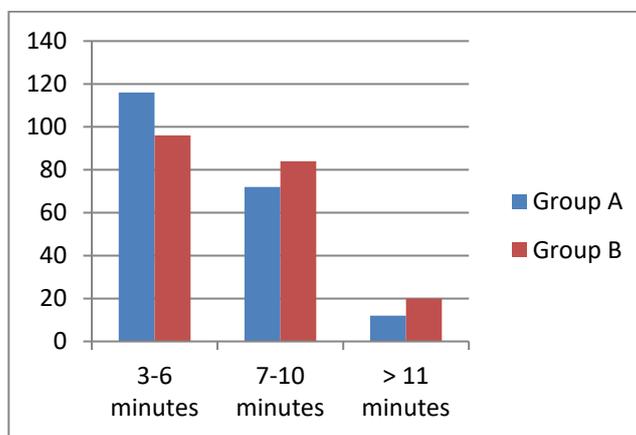
Age in years	Group A (n = 200)	Group B (n = 200)
18 – 30 years	52	48
31 – 50 years	88	96
41 – 70 years	60	56



**Figure 1: Age distribution among the patients**

**Table 2: Time for onset of sensory block**

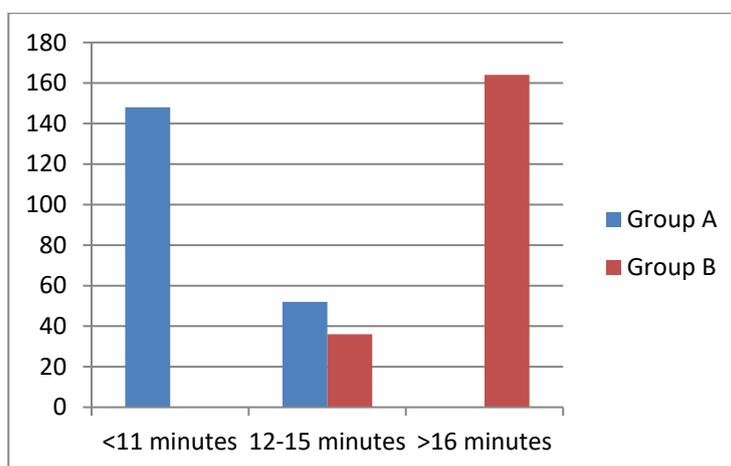
Time for onset	Group A (n = 200)	Group B (n = 200)
3 – 6 minutes	116	96
7 – 10 minutes	72	84
> =11 minutes	12	20
Mean time	5.4 minutes	6.0 minutes



**Figure 2: Time for onset of sensory block**

**Table 3: Time for onset of motor block**

Time for onset	Group A (n = 200)	Group B (n = 200)
<= 11 minutes	148	0
12 – 15 minutes	52	36
> =16 minutes	0	164
Mean time	11.4 minutes	18 minutes



**Figure 3: Time for onset of motor block**

**Table 4: Duration of sensory block**

Time for onset	Group A (n = 50)	Group B (n = 50)
<= 800minutes	8	180
801 – 900 minutes	76	12
> = 900minutes	116	8
Mean time	911 minutes	730 minutes

The time taken for onset of sensory block was almost same in both groups (Table 2) whereas time taken for onset of motor block was much less when dexmedetomidine was used (Group A) as compared to Group B using dexamethasone [Table 2].

The time taken for onset of motor block was much lesser in group A using dexmedetomidine (mean time – 11.4 minutes) as compared to group B using dexamethasone (mean time - 18 minutes) [Table 3].

Regarding the duration of sensory block, the block lasted much longer for dexmedetomidine group as compared to dexamethasone group [Table 4]. Similar results were obtained for duration of motor block where mean time for A group was much greater than B group [Table 5]. Regarding the onset of pain in the postoperative period, it was much later in patients given dexmedetomidine as compared to patients given dexamethasone

### Discussion

Supraclavicular blocks are performed at the level of the brachial plexus trunks. Here, almost the entire sensory, motor and sympathetic innervations of the upper extremity are carried in just three nerve structures (trunks), confined to a very small surface area.<sup>8</sup> Consequently, typical features of this block include rapid onset, predictable and dense anesthesia along with its high success rate. Local anesthetics alone for supraclavicular brachial plexus block provide good operative conditions but have a shorter duration of postoperative analgesia.<sup>9</sup> Hence various drugs such as opioids, clonidine, neostigmine, dexamethasone, midazolam, magnesium etc., were used as adjuvant with local anesthetics in brachial plexus block to achieve quick, dense and prolonged block, but the results are either inconclusive or associated with side-effects.<sup>[10]</sup>

We observed in our study that patients who underwent upper limb surgery after execution of supraclavicular BPB, addition of dexmedetomidine or dexamethasone to LA solution, shortens the motor block onset time and prolongs the duration of block time. BPB is one of the easiest, safest and most commonly performed peripheral nerve blocks in day-to-day practice of anaesthesia. Using adjuvants like dexmedetomidine or dexamethasone further enhances the onset, quality and duration of analgesia.

Dexamethasone as an adjuvant to local anesthetic for peripheral nerve or neuraxial block has various mechanisms of actions such as direct membrane action in unmyelinated fibers, vasoconstriction, action on potassium channels, and suppression of other inflammatory mediators.<sup>[11]</sup> Though the exact mechanism of action has not been definitely elucidated, one or more of the above mechanisms alone or in combination could play a role in its use as an analgesic adjuvant.<sup>[12]</sup>

Dexmedetomidine; a highly selective,  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic agonist; has analgesic, sedative, anesthetic sparing effects when used in systemic route.<sup>[13]</sup> Use of dexmedetomidine as an adjuvant mixed with local anesthetics has been performed with neuraxial anesthesia in both adult and pediatric patients. Mixing dexmedetomidine as adjuvant with local anesthetics during peripheral nerve and nerve plexus blockade has recently been practiced by anesthesiologists.<sup>[14]</sup>

### Conclusion

We concluded that dexmedetomidine as adjuvant to bupivacaine increases the duration of block and postoperative analgesia as compared to dexamethasone with minimal or negligible adverse events

### References

1. Gorczyca R, Filip R, Walczak E: Psychological aspects of pain. *Ann Agric Environ Med* 2013, 1:23-7.
2. Ji R-R, Kohno T, Moore KA, Woolf CJ: Central sensitization and LTP: do pain and memory share similar mechanisms? *Trends in neurosciences* 2003, 26:696-705.
3. Hosalli V, Ganeshnavar A, Hulakund S, DS P: Comparison of dexmedetomidine and clonidine as an adjuvant to levobupivacaine in ultrasound guided axillary brachial plexus block: a randomised double blind prospective study. *Int J Clin Diagn Res* 2015, 3:1-7.
4. Pullerits J, Holzman RS: Pediatric neuraxial blockade. *Journal of clinical anaesthesia* 1993, 5:342-54.
5. Muir WW, Hubbell JA: *Handbook of Veterinary Anesthesia-E-Book*: Elsevier Health Sciences, 2014.
6. Saadawy I, Boker A, Elshahawy M, Almazrooa A, Melibary S, Abdellatif A, Afifi W: Effect of dexmedetomidine on the characteristics of bupivacaine in a caudal block in pediatrics. *Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica* 2009, 53:251-6.
7. Dahl V, Raeder J: Non-opioid postoperative analgesia. *Acta anaesthesiologica scandinavica* 2000, 44:1191-203.
8. Singh S, Aggarwal A: A randomized controlled double-blinded prospective study of the efficacy of clonidine added to bupivacaine as compared with bupivacaine alone used in supraclavicular brachial plexus block for upper limb surgeries. *Indian journal of anaesthesia* 2010, 54:552.
9. Das A, Majumdar S, Halder S, Chattopadhyay S, Pal S, Kundu R, Mandal SK, Chattopadhyay S: Effect of dexmedetomidine as adjuvant in ropivacaine-induced supraclavicular brachial plexus block: A prospective, double-blinded and randomized controlled study. *Saudi journal of anaesthesia* 2014, 8:S72.
10. Mukherjee K, Das A, Basunia SR, Dutta S, Mandal P, Mukherjee A: Evaluation of Magnesium as an adjuvant in Ropivacaine-induced supraclavicular brachial plexus block: A prospective, double-blinded randomized controlled study. *Journal of research in pharmacy practice* 2014, 3:123.
11. Lirk P, Hollmann MW, Strichartz G: The science of local anesthesia: Basic research, clinical application, and future directions. *Anesthesia & Analgesia* 2018, 126:1381-92.
12. Parameswari A, Krishna B, Manickam A, Vakamudi M: Analgesic efficacy of dexamethasone as an adjuvant to caudal bupivacaine for infraumbilical surgeries in children: A prospective, randomized study. *Journal of anaesthesiology, clinical pharmacology* 2017, 33:509.
13. Kamibayashi T, Maze M: Clinical uses of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic agonists. *Anesthesiology: The Journal of the American Society of Anesthesiologists* 2000, 93:1345-9.
14. Brummett CM, Williams BA: Additives to local anesthetics for peripheral nerve blockade. *International anaesthesiology clinics* 2011, 49: 104.