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Research advancements in ultrasound-guided popliteal sciatic nerve block

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Abstract: Popliteal sciatic nerve block is commonly used for anesthesia and analgesia in foot and ankle surgery. The traditional localization method of body surface marker assisted neurostimulator is cumbersome and has a low success rate of blocking. Moreover, the safety of conventional nerve block techniques in patients with pre-existing neuropathy (e.g., diabetic peripheral neuropathy) remains unclear. The success rate of blockage can be greatly enhanced through the utilization of ultrasound guidance, reduce the volume of local anesthetic and shorten the onset time. In this paper, several common focal issues in popliteal sciatic nerve block were discussed, such as the position of the needle tip, the puncture plane, puncture path, the diffusion mode of local anesthetics and the injection volume and concentration, in order to provide a reference for clinical application.

Keywords: Ultrasound; Popliteal sciatic nerve block; Regional anesthesia; Postoperative analgesia

The sciatic nerve (SN) is the thickest nerve in the human body, originating from the fourth lumbar nerve (L4) to the third sacral nerve (S3). It passes below the piriformis muscle through the greater sciatic foramen into the gluteal region, descending between the greater trochanter of the femur and the ischial tuberosity, and along the posterior thigh. Near the knee joint, it divides into the tibial nerve (TN) and the common peroneal nerve (CPN) [1]. The SN mainly innervates the motor function of the muscles in the posterior thigh and below the knee, as well as the sensory function of part of the posterior thigh, posterior knee joint, and the area below the knee except the medial aspect of the lower leg. Popliteal sciatic nerve block (PSNB) is commonly used for anesthesia and postoperative analgesia in foot and ankle surgeries [2]. It has recently been demonstrated that ultrasound-guided PSNB for managing resting pain in patients can enhance comfort and compliance during intravascular surgical procedures. Interventional radiologists recommend mastering this block technique [3]. Previous methods using surface localization or nerve stimulation devices for nerve blocks often had a certain rate of incomplete block. Most studies have shown that ultrasound-guided PSNB significantly increases the success rate of the block, reduces the local anesthetic dose, and shortens the onset time, in line with the current accelerated rehabilitation surgical concepts [4-6]. In recent years, scholars have conducted numerous studies to improve the efficacy of ultrasound-guided PSNB. This article discusses several common focal issues in PSNB and provides references for clinical application.

1. Needle tip location: intrasheath, extrasheath, and intraneural

Anatomical studies have revealed that the main trunk of the SN and its branches (TN and CPN) are collectively surrounded by a nerve sheath, with no nerve fiber crossing

between the two branches [7]. This nerve sheath differs from the epineurium: it extends from the origin of the SN to a certain distance distal to the bifurcation point, surrounding both branches. In the proximal segment of the SN, the nerve sheath does not completely encircle the nerve; in the popliteal segment, however, the nerve sheath completely wraps the SN and has a clear boundary with the epineurium. The two nerves are separated by the Compton-Cruveilhier septum and surrounded by their respective epineuria (**Figure 1**) [8]. Andersen *et al.* [9] found in cadaveric studies that the nerve sheath is a thin, transparent, and fragile tissue layer composed of multiple fascia layers that surrounds the epineurium. Injecting 10 mL of fluid into this sheath can spread 10-15 cm along the long axis of the nerve but cannot completely encase the nerve; in contrast, extrasheath injection can only spread 5-6 cm. Meanwhile, the researchers suggested that intrasheath injection is not intraneural injection (since intraneural injection leads to an increase in nerve diameter and the drug solution can spread 15-17 cm along the nerve). Therefore, they recommended injecting local anesthetics into the nerve sheath during PSNB. Missair *et al.* [10] used three-dimensional ultrasound to compare the diffusion of local anesthetics after intrasheath and extrasheath injections during PSNB. They found that the intrasheath injection group had a significantly larger amount of local anesthetic around the nerve than the extrasheath injection group (5.57 mL vs 1.48 mL), a longer longitudinal diffusion distance along the nerve (9.3 cm vs 5.6 cm), and a higher success rate of complete sensory block (90% vs 60%). Studies by Perlas, Choquet, *et al.* [11-12] also confirmed that compared with extrasheath injection, intrasheath injection improved the block success rate, accelerate the onset time, and prolong the sensory block duration without increasing the incidence of nerve injury.

Many previous studies have found that PSNB guided by a nerve stimulator has a high incidence of intraneural

injection, yet no obvious clinical symptoms of nerve injury or electrophysiological abnormalities have been observed. They hypothesized that the structure of the SN may play a protective role for neural components: from proximal to distal, the neural components in the SN gradually decrease while non-neural components such as connective tissue gradually increase. Moreover, all nerve fibers inside the nerve are surrounded by a thick and tough perineurium, making it easier for the puncture needle to enter the connective tissue between nerve fascicles rather than directly pierce the perineurium to enter the nerve fascicles [13-14]. Some recent studies have also shown that ultrasound-guided intraneural injection can not only improve the block success rate and accelerate the onset time but also significantly reduce the dose of local anesthetic required for the block (only 6.6 mL), with no clinical symptoms of nerve injury observed within 6 months after the block. However, neuro-electrophysiological examinations at 5 weeks and 6 months after the block showed a decrease in the amplitude of action potentials, which was not different from the decrease observed with intrasheath injection [15-16]. Theoretically, during peripheral nerve blocks, the closer the injected local anesthetic is to the nerve fibers, the faster the onset and the more reliable the effect [12]. However, intraneural injection of local anesthetics may cause the nerve to suffer mechanical, vascular, or chemical injury [17]. Numerous animal experiments have shown that intraneural injection can lead to neuroinflammatory injury and axon death, while extraneural injection only causes mild or no neuro-histological changes and is relatively safe [18-19]. Additionally, due to the nerve's certain self-repair ability, obvious clinical symptoms often do not appear after injury. However, its subclinical injury (such as neuro-electrophysiological changes) is a high-risk factor for nerve injury when the nerve suffers a secondary insult [20]. In addition, the resolution of ultrasound commonly used in clinical practice is not sufficient to accurately distinguish between whether the needle tip is inside or between nerve fascicles, which may increase the risk of nerve injury. In conclusion, the current limited evidence does not support intraneural injection, but whether the popliteal sciatic nerve is an exception remains to be studied (Figure 2) [21].

2 Puncture plane: proximal to bifurcation, distal to bifurcation, and at bifurcation

The location of the SN bifurcation varies significantly [22-23]. Barbosa *et al.* [24] dissected 44 cadaveric specimens and found that 67.96% of SN bifurcations were below the apex of the popliteal fossa, 15.90% above the apex, 11.36% adjacent to the apex, and 4.78% in the gluteal region. In contrast, Vloka *et al.* [7] found that the bifurcation was approximately (60.5 ± 27.0) mm above the popliteal crease. The high variability of the bifurcation location may be one of the reasons for the unpredictable block efficacy of single-injection PSNB guided by a nerve stimulator: it is impossible to accurately determine whether the local anesthetic is injected proximal or distal to the

bifurcation [7]. Studies have shown that PSNB guided by a nerve stimulator, which separately blocks TN and CPN at the distal site, offers many advantages such as improving the block success rate and shortening the block onset time [25]. Similarly, ultrasound-guided separate blocking of TN and CPN at the distal site of the bifurcation is significantly superior to blocking the main trunk of the SN proximal to the bifurcation [26-27]. However, unlike nerve stimulators that can only roughly estimate the location of the bifurcation, ultrasound allows direct visualization of the SN bifurcation and provides real-time guidance for the advancement of the puncture needle and the diffusion of local anesthetics. Thus, studies have found that compared with separate blocking of TN and CPN, ultrasound-guided injection of local anesthetics at the bifurcation can significantly improve the block success rate, shorten the procedure time, block onset time, and anesthesia-related time [28]. This conclusion has also been verified in clinical observations by Perlas' team [11]. Notably, Tran *et al.* [29] compared the efficacy of intrasheath injections proximal to the bifurcation and at the bifurcation under ultrasound guidance and found no difference between the two groups in block success rate, procedure time, onset time, or total anesthesia-related time. They believed that the possible reason is that the nerve sheath acts as a barrier to restrict the outward spread of local anesthetics and allow free diffusion within the sheath, thereby increasing the contact area between the nerve and the local anesthetic. Therefore, injecting local anesthetics into the nerve sheath is more important than the injection plane. In summary, since the SN is surrounded by a nerve sheath along its entire course in the thigh, intrasheath injection can theoretically be performed at any plane. However, at the bifurcation, the two nerves split to form a natural groove where the nerve sheath is most easily identifiable, making it potentially the optimal puncture site [11].

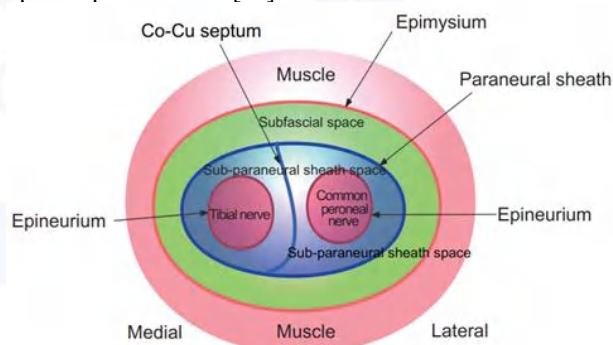


Fig.1 The epineurium and neurilemma surrounding the TN and CPN

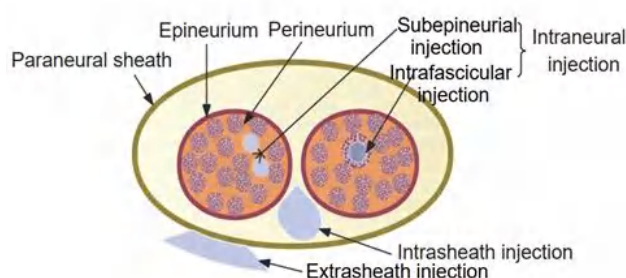


Fig.2 Schematic diagram of needle tip position during injection

3 Puncture approach

PSNB can be performed via multiple puncture approaches (e.g., posterior or lateral approach), but it usually requires the patient to be in the prone or lateral position. Patient positioning is not only time-consuming and labor-intensive but also increases pain in patients with lower limb fractures. Furthermore, it is unfavorable for patients with lumbar fractures, morbid obesity, hemodynamic instability, or those after general anesthesia [30-31]. Therefore, an increasing number of studies tend to explore performing PSNB in the supine position [23, 32]. Taha *et al.* [33] reported two medial approach PSNB techniques in the supine position: the patient only needs to slightly flex the knee (with slight or no tilt of the ipsilateral pelvis) to fully expose the medial and posterior aspects of the knee. Technique 1 involves placing a low-frequency probe on the medial thigh, first identifying and tracing the femoral artery and vein distally under ultrasound until they enter the posterior popliteal fossa and become the popliteal artery and vein. The SN usually runs alongside the popliteal vessels, and PSNB can be completed via out-of-plane needle insertion. Technique 2 involves placing a high-frequency probe in the popliteal fossa, identifying the SN located superficial to the popliteal vessels under ultrasound, and completing PSNB via in-plane needle insertion through the medial thigh (Figure 3). It should be noted that in the middle and lower segments of the thigh, the saphenous nerve courses in the anteromedial region, so both of the above puncture techniques carry the risk of injuring the saphenous nerve. Mistry *et al.* [30, 34] reported a modified lateral approach in the supine position: the affected limb is kept in a neutral position (without knee or hip flexion) or with slight internal rotation. A high-frequency or low-frequency ultrasound probe is placed perpendicularly on the lateral thigh above the popliteal fossa, and the probe is moved cephalad. The SN is identified between the hypoechoic muscles (vastus lateralis, long head of biceps femoris, semitendinosus, and semimembranosus muscles) and the hyperechoic femur (with or without visible popliteal vessels). PSNB can be completed via either in-plane or out-of-plane needle insertion from the lateral to the medial aspect of the thigh (Figure 4). In general, considering the risk of saphenous nerve injury during needle insertion with the medial approach, the lateral approach may be a better option, but this requires more studies to verify.

4 Diffusion pattern of local anesthetics

Circumferential diffusion of local anesthetics around the nerve is considered a guarantee for the success of ultrasound-guided peripheral nerve blocks and has been recognized by the American Society of Regional Anesthesia and Pain Medicine and the European Society of Regional Anaesthesia [35]. This also applies to PSNB: most studies have shown that circumferential diffusion of local anesthetics around the SN can improve the block success rate and accelerate the block onset time [36]. However, some studies have questioned this. They found

that the efficacy of median nerve block seems unrelated to the diffusion pattern of local anesthetics: circumferential diffusion of local anesthetics around the nerve does not improve the block success rate, and it is impossible to determine whether the faster onset of circumferential diffusion block is due to the diffusion pattern or the larger dose of local anesthetic used [37]. This view has also been confirmed by Tiyaprasertkul *et al.* [38]: they compared the efficacy of single-point and three-point intrasheath injections at the SN bifurcation under ultrasound guidance and found no difference in block success rate within 30 min between the two groups. Although the three-point injection group had a slightly shorter onset time (12.5 min vs 15.8 min), the single-point injection group required fewer needle insertions and shorter needle insertion time, and three-point injection increased procedural difficulty. In addition, ensuring circumferential diffusion of local anesthetics may require multiple punctures or repeated injections, which may increase the risk of nerve injury, prolong the procedure time, and increase patient discomfort [39]. Therefore, some scholars believe that since the SN has a nerve sheath that restricts the free diffusion of local anesthetics within the sheath, it may not be necessary to deliberately pursue circumferential diffusion during PSNB, and effective block can be achieved simply by injecting the anesthetic into the nerve sheath. However, this still requires clinical verification [40]. Nevertheless, Nag *et al.* [41] showed that compared with single-point intrasheath injection (20 mL of 1.5% lidocaine mixed with epinephrine injected 2 cm above the bifurcation), two-point intrasheath injection (10 mL of 1.5% lidocaine mixed with epinephrine injected 2 cm and 6 cm above the bifurcation, respectively) did not significantly shorten the onset time of complete sensory block (16.7 min vs 12.1 min). However, because the local anesthetic diffuses more extensively along the longitudinal axis of the SN during two-point intrasheath injection, resulting in a longer length of nerve fibers exposed to the anesthetic, the onset time of complete motor block was shorter (20.9 min vs 14.5 min) and the block duration was longer (344.4 min vs 420.4 min).

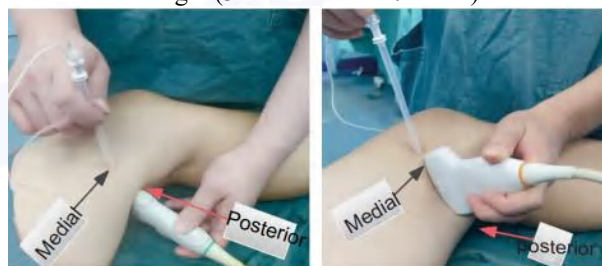


Fig.3 PSNB via the medial approach in the supine position



Fig.4 PSNB via the lateral approach in the supine position

5 Injection volume and concentration

The SN is the thickest nerve in the human body. During its downward course, different segments contain different neural components: from proximal to distal, the neural components gradually decrease, and by the popliteal segment, the neural components account for only 46%±11%. This may be the reason for the differences in the minimum effective volume (MEV) of local anesthetics required for blocking different segments. In addition, factors such as the type, concentration, and adjuvants of local anesthetics, the location of the needle tip, and the patient's age may affect the MEV required for block [42-45]. Jeong *et al.* [46] found that the median effective dose (ED₅₀) of 0.5% ropivacaine was 6 mL, and the 95% effective dose (ED₉₅) was 16 mL. Bang *et al.* [47] suggested that the MEV₅₀ for intrathecal injection of 0.75% ropivacaine was 6.14 mL (4.33-7.94 mL), and the MEV₉₀ was 8.9 mL (7.09-21.75 mL). Keplinger *et al.* [48] believed that the cross-sectional area of the SN varies greatly, so using the cross-sectional area of the nerve rather than a fixed volume to calculate the 99% effective dose (ED₉₉) of local anesthetics is more reliable. The study found that the ED₉₉ of 0.75% ropivacaine for blocking proximal to the bifurcation was 0.15 mL/mm². Cappelleri *et al.* [16] found in their study that the MEV₉₀ for intraneural injection during SN block with 1% ropivacaine was 6.6 mL, with an onset time of approximately (19±12) min and a success rate of approximately 98%, but its safety remains to be verified. In addition, patients with comorbid peripheral neuropathy (e.g., diabetic peripheral neuropathy) may have increased sensitivity to local anesthetics, so the dose of local anesthetic required to complete the block is correspondingly reduced. For example, a study by Parthasarathy *et al.* [49] found that for patients with comorbid diabetic peripheral neuropathy, the MEV₉₀ of ultrasound-guided intrathecal injection of 0.5% bupivacaine at the bifurcation was 5.85 mL.

6 Summary

As a commonly used clinical peripheral nerve block technique, improving the block efficacy of PSNB while reducing complications such as nerve injury has always been the goal that clinicians have been striving for. Current evidence indicates that the space between the nerve sheath and the epineurium between the two branches (TN, CPN) at the SN bifurcation is the optimal target for the puncture needle tip. However, the optimal puncture approach and injection dose, whether it is necessary to deliberately pursue circumferential diffusion of local anesthetics around the nerve during intrathecal injection, and the safety of intraneural injection still require further clinical verification.

Conflict of interest None

Reference

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· 研究进展 ·

超声引导下腘窝坐骨神经阻滞的研究进展

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摘要: 腘窝坐骨神经阻滞常用于足踝部手术的麻醉与镇痛,但其传统的体表标志辅助神经刺激仪定位法操作繁冗,阻滞成功率低。而且对于已患有神经病变(例如糖尿病周围神经病变)的患者,常规神经阻滞技术的安全性仍不清楚。采用超声引导能明显提高阻滞的成功率、减少局麻药用量及缩短阻滞起效时间等。本文就腘窝坐骨神经阻滞中常见的几个焦点问题——针尖位置、穿刺平面、穿刺入路、局麻药的扩散方式及注射用量、浓度等进行了探讨,以期为临床应用提供参考。

关键词: 超声; 腘窝坐骨神经阻滞; 区域麻醉; 术后镇痛

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Research advancements in ultrasound-guided popliteal sciatic nerve block

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Abstract: Popliteal sciatic nerve block is commonly used for anesthesia and analgesia in foot and ankle surgery. The traditional localization method of body surface marker assisted neurostimulator is cumbersome and has a low success rate of blockage. Moreover, the safety of conventional nerve block techniques in patients with pre-existing neuropathy (e.g., diabetic peripheral neuropathy) remains unclear. The utilization of ultrasound guidance can greatly enhance the success rate of blockage, reduce the volume of local anesthetic and shorten the onset time. In this paper, several common focal issues in popliteal sciatic nerve block were discussed, such as the position of the needle tip, the puncture plane, puncture path, the diffusion mode of local anesthetics and the injection volume and concentration, in order to provide a reference for clinical application.

Keywords: Ultrasound; Popliteal sciatic nerve block; Regional anesthesia; Postoperative analgesia

坐骨神经(sciatic nerve, SN)是人体最粗大的神经,起源于第4腰神经(L4)至第3骶神经(S3),在梨状肌下方经坐骨大孔进入臀部,在股骨大转子 and 坐骨结节之间下行,沿股后部,在近膝关节附近分为胫神经(tibial nerve, TN)和腓总神经(common peroneal nerve, CPN)^[1]。SN 主要支配大腿后部和膝盖以下肌肉的运动,以及部分大腿后部、膝关节后部和膝部以下除小腿内侧的感觉。腘窝坐骨神经阻滞(popliteal sciatic nerve block, PSNB)常用于足踝手术的麻醉与术后镇痛^[2]。近来已被证明,超声引导下的 PSNB 用于管理静息痛患者,可提高血管内手术过程中的舒适度和依从性。介入放射科医生都推荐掌握这种阻滞技术^[3]。以往采用体表定位或神经刺激仪引导进行神经阻滞常存在一定阻滞不全的几率,而大部分研究表明超声引导下 PSNB 能明显提高阻滞的成功率、减少局麻药用量及缩短阻滞起效时间等,符合目前的加速康复外科

理念^[4-6]。近年来,学者们针对提高超声引导下 PSNB 的阻滞效果进行了许多研究,本文探讨了 PSNB 中常见的几个焦点问题,为临床应用提供参考。

1 针尖位置:神经鞘内、神经鞘外与神经内

解剖学研究发现 SN 主干及其分支 TN、CPN 共同被神经鞘包绕,两分支之间无神经纤维交叉^[7]。该神经鞘不同于神经外膜,从 SN 起始一直延伸到分叉点远端包绕两分支一段距离;在 SN 起始段,神经鞘并未完整地包绕神经一周;而在腘窝段,神经鞘完整包裹 SN,与神经外膜分界清晰;两根神经由“康普顿-克吕韦耶”隔膜间隔开,并被各自的神经外膜包绕(图1)^[8]。Andersen 等^[9]在尸体研究中发现神经鞘是包绕在神经外膜外的由多层筋膜组成的、薄的、透明的、脆弱的组织层,在此鞘内注射 10 mL 液体可沿神经长轴扩散 10~15 cm,但并

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不能完全包裹神经;而鞘外注射仅能扩散 5~6 cm;同时研究人员认为鞘内注射并非神经内注射(因神经内注射时神经的直径增加,药液可沿神经扩散 15~17 cm),因此建议在进行 PSNB 时将局麻药注射到神经鞘内。Missair 等^[10]采用三维超声比较了 PSNB 时鞘内注射与鞘外注射后局麻药的扩散,发现鞘内注射组神经周围麻药量明显多于鞘外注射组(5.57 mL vs 1.48 mL),沿神经纵向扩散距离较长(9.3 cm vs 5.6 cm),完全感觉阻滞成功率较高(90% vs 60%)。Perlas 及 Choquet 等^[11-12]的研究也证明与鞘外注射相比,鞘内注射可提高阻滞成功率、加速起效时间和延长感觉阻滞时间,且不增加神经损伤发生率。

以往许多研究发现神经刺激仪引导下的 PSNB 神经内注射发生率很高,但并未出现明显的临床神经损伤症状或电生理异常,他们推测可能是 SN 的结构对神经成分起到了保护作用:从近端到远端,SN 内的神经成分逐渐减少,结缔组织等非神经成分逐渐增多,且在神经内部所有的神经纤维都被厚而坚韧的神经束膜包裹着,使穿刺针更易进入神经束之间的结缔组织而非直接刺穿神经束膜进入神经束内^[13-14]。最近一些研究也表明超声引导下神经内注射不仅可提高阻滞成功率、加速起效时间,还能大幅减少阻滞所需局麻药用量(仅需 6.6 mL),且阻滞 6 个月内未发现神经损伤的临床症状;然而阻滞 5 周、6 个月的神经电生理检查显示动作电位的幅度降低,但与神经鞘内注射的降低幅度无差异^[15-16]。理论上讲,外周神经阻滞时注射的局麻药越靠近神经纤维,起效越快、效果越可靠^[12],但神经内注射局麻药可能导致神经遭受机械性、血管性或化学性损伤^[17]。许多动物实验都表明神经内注射可导致神经炎性损伤和轴突死亡,而神经外注射仅引起轻微损伤或无神经组织学改变,相对比较安全^[18-19];且由于神经具有一定的自我修复能力,损伤后常不表现出明显的临床症状,但其亚临床损伤(如神经电生理改变)是神经遭受二次打击时出现神经损伤的高危因素^[20]。另外,目前临床常用的超声分辨率还不足以精确分辨出针尖是在神经束内还是神经束之间,这可能增加神经损伤的风险。总之,目前有限的证据尚不支持神经内注射,但腓窝坐骨神经是否例外尚有待研究(图 2)^[21]。

2 穿刺平面:分叉点近端、远端与分叉点

SN 的分叉点位置变异很大^[22-23]。Barbosa 等^[24]解剖了 44 例尸体标本,发现 SN 分叉点 67.96%在腓窝顶点下方,15.90%在顶点上方,11.36%紧靠顶点,还有 4.78%在臀区;而 Vloka 等^[7]发现分叉点大致在腓横纹上方(60.5±27.0)mm。分叉点变异性大的特点可能是神经刺激仪引导的单点 PSNB 阻滞效果不确定的原因之一:因无法准确判断局麻药是注射到分叉点近端还是远端^[7]。研究表明神经刺激仪引导下 PSNB 在远端分别阻滞 TN、CPN 可带来许多优势:如提高阻滞成功率、缩短阻滞起效时间等^[25]。同样,超声引导下在分叉点远端分别阻滞 TN、CPN 也明显优于分叉点近端阻滞 SN 主干^[26-27]。然而,不同于神经刺激仪仅能大致推测分叉点的位置,超声下能直视 SN 分叉点,实时引导穿刺针的行进及局麻药的扩散,因而有研究发现相比分别阻滞 TN、CPN,超声引导下在分叉点注射局

麻药可明显提高阻滞成功率、缩短操作时间、阻滞起效时间及麻醉相关时间^[28],该结论在 Perlas 团队的临床观察中也得到验证^[11]。值得注意的是,Tran 等^[29]比较了超声引导下分叉点近端和分叉点神经鞘内注射的效果发现,两组间阻滞成功率、操作时间、起效时间及总的麻醉相关时间并无差异,他们认为可能的原因是神经鞘就像屏障一样限制局麻药外扩并在鞘内自由扩散,从而使神经与局麻药的接触面更广,因此将局麻药注射到神经鞘内比在哪个平面注射更重要。总的来说,由于 SN 在大腿的整个行程中都有神经鞘包裹,理论上在任何平面都可进行鞘内注射,但在分叉点两根神经分裂形成一个天然的凹槽,此处神经鞘膜最易识别,因此可能是最佳穿刺点^[11]。

3 穿刺入路

PSNB 可有多种穿刺入路(如后侧入路或外侧入路),但通常都需要在俯卧位或侧卧位下完成,体位摆放不仅费时费力、增加下肢骨折患者的疼痛,且可能不利于腰椎骨折、病态肥胖、血流动力学不稳定或全麻后的患者^[30-31],因此,越来越多的研究倾向于探索在仰卧位下完成 PSNB^[23,32]。Taha 等^[33]报道了 2 种仰卧位下内侧入路 PSNB 技术,患者仅需稍屈膝(可稍微倾斜或不倾斜同侧骨盆),充分暴露膝部内侧和后侧;技术 1 是将低频探头置于大腿内侧,超声下首先识别股动静脉并向下追踪,直至其进入后侧的腓窝成为腓动静脉,SN 通常与腓血管伴行,可通过平面外进针完成 PSNB;技术 2 是将高频探头置于腓窝,超声下识别位于腓血管浅面的 SN,穿刺针经大腿内侧平面内进针完成 PSNB(图 3)。需要注意的是,在大腿中下段,隐神经走行于前内侧区域,因此以上 2 种穿刺技术均有损伤隐神经的可能。Mistry 等^[30,34]报道了一种仰卧位下的改良外侧入路:患肢保持中立位(不需屈膝或屈髋)或轻微内旋,高频或低频超声探头垂直置于腓窝上大腿外侧,头侧移动探头,在低回声的肌肉(股外侧肌、股二头肌长头、半腱肌和半膜肌)和高回声的股骨之间识别 SN(腓血管可见或不可见),由大腿外侧向内侧平面内或平面外进针均可完成 PSNB(图 4)。总的来说,考虑到内侧入路进针时有损伤隐神经的风险,因此外侧入路或许是更好的选择,但这需要更多的研究来验证。

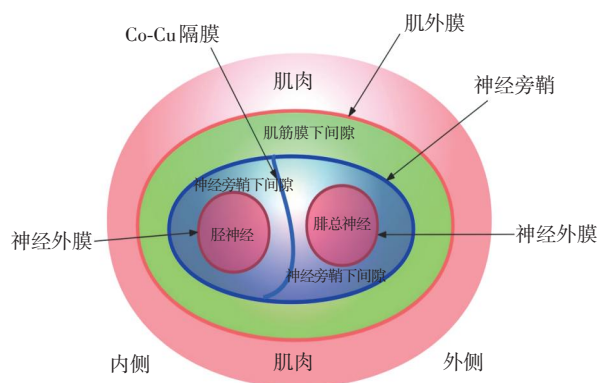


图 1 包绕 TN 和 CPN 的神经外膜和神经鞘

Fig.1 The epineurium and neurilemma surrounding the TN and CPN

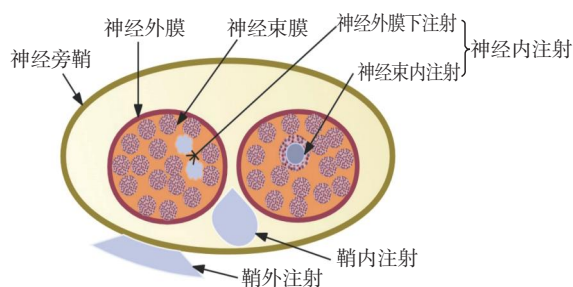


图2 注射时针尖位置示意图

Fig.2 Schematic diagram of needle tip position during injection



图3 仰卧位下内侧入路PSNB示意图

Fig.3 Schematic diagram of PSNB via the medial approach in the supine position



图4 仰卧位下外侧入路PSNB示意图

Fig.4 Schematic diagram of PSNB via the lateral approach in the supine position

4 局麻药的扩散方式

局麻药在神经周围包裹神经环形扩散被认为是超声引导下外周神经阻滞成功的保证,也得到了美国区域麻醉和疼痛医学学会和欧洲区域麻醉学会的认可^[35]。这同样也适用于PSNB:大部分研究都表明局麻药绕SN神经环形扩散可提高阻滞成功率、加速阻滞的起效时间等^[36]。但也有研究对此提出了质疑,他们发现正中神经阻滞效果似乎与局麻药的扩散方式无关:局麻药围绕神经环形扩散并不能提高阻滞成功率,也无法确定环形扩散阻滞起效快是由于扩散方式引起的还是因所用局麻药用量大引起的^[37]。这一观点也在Tiyaprasertkul等^[38]的研究中得到了证实:他们比较了超声引导下SN分叉点单点与三点鞘内注射的效果,发现两组30 min内阻滞成功率无差异,虽然三点注射组起效时间稍短(12.5 min vs 15.8 min),但单点注射组进针次数少、进针时间短,而且三点注射增加了操作的难度。另外,要保证局麻药环形扩散可能需要多点穿刺或重复注射,可能增加神经损伤的风险、延长操作时间、加剧患者的不适^[39]。因此,有学者认为因SN有神经鞘可限制局麻药

在鞘内自由扩散,PSNB时可能不必刻意追求环形扩散,只需将麻药注入神经鞘内即可达到有效的阻滞,但这仍需要临床验证^[40]。尽管如此,黄莉莉等^[41]的研究结果表明相比单点鞘内注射(分叉点上2 cm处注射1.5%利多卡因+肾上腺素混合液20 mL),虽然两点鞘内注射(分叉点上2 cm和6 cm处分别注射1.5%利多卡因+肾上腺素混合液10 mL)并不能明显缩短完全感觉阻滞的起效时间(16.7 min vs 12.1 min),但由于两点鞘内注射时麻药沿SN纵向扩散更广,使暴露于麻药的神经纤维长度更长,因此完全运动阻滞起效的时间更短(20.9 min vs 14.5 min),且阻滞持续时间更长(344.4 min vs 420.4 min)。

5 注射容量与浓度

SN是人体最粗大的神经,在其下行过程中不同的节段所含神经成分不同,从近端到远端,神经成分逐渐减少,至腘窝段其所含神经成分只有46%±11%,这可能是阻滞不同节段所需局麻药的最小有效容积(minimum effective volume, MEV)不同的原因。另外,局麻药的种类、浓度、辅料、针尖的位置及患者的年龄等都可能影响阻滞所需的MEV^[42-45]。Jeong等^[46]发现0.5%罗哌卡因的半数有效剂量为6 mL,95%有效剂量为16 mL;Bang等^[47]认为0.75%罗哌卡因鞘内注射的MEV₅₀为6.14 mL(4.33~7.94 mL),MEV₉₀为8.9 mL(7.09~21.75 mL)。Keplinger等^[48]认为SN的横截面积差异很大,因此应用神经的横截面积而非固定的容量来计算局麻药的99%有效剂量(99% effective dose, ED₉₉)更可靠,研究发现0.75%罗哌卡因在分叉点近端阻滞的ED₉₉为0.15 mL/mm²。而Cappelleri等^[16]研究发现1%罗哌卡因SN阻滞时神经内注射的MEV₉₀为6.6 mL,起效时间约为(19±12) min,成功率约98%,但其安全性尚有待验证。另外,对于合并有外周神经病变(如糖尿病周围神经病变)的患者,可能对局麻药敏感性增加,因此完成阻滞所需的局麻药量也相应减少。如Parthasarathy等^[49]的研究发现对于合并有糖尿病周围神经病变的患者,超声引导下在分叉点处鞘内注射0.5%布比卡因的MEV₉₀为5.85 mL。

6 小结

PSNB作为临床常用的外周神经阻滞技术,如何在提高其阻滞效果的同时减少神经损伤等并发症一直都是临床医生努力的目标。就目前的证据表明在SN分叉点两分支(TN、CPN)之间神经鞘膜与神经外膜之间的间隙是穿刺针尖的最佳靶点;但最佳穿刺入路和注射用量、鞘内注射时是否必须刻意追求局麻药围绕神经环形扩散及神经内注射的安全性仍有待临床进一步验证。

利益冲突 无

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