

The Effect of Tourniquet Use and Sterile CO₂ Gas Bone Preparation on Cement Penetration in Primary Total Knee Arthroplasty

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4 Abstract

5 Introduction: Tourniquetless total knee arthroplasty (TKA) is experiencing resurgence in

6 popularity due to potential pain control benefits. Further, optimal cement technique and implant

7 fixation remain paramount to long-term cemented TKA success, as aseptic loosening continues

8 to be a leading cause of revision. The purpose of this study was to determine how tourniquet use

and/or novel bone preparation using sterile, compressed carbon dioxide (CO₂) gas affected
 cement penetration in TKA.

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12 Methods: A retrospective review was performed on 303 consecutive primary TKAs with the

13 same implant in three groups: (1) a tourniquet without sterile CO_2 compressed gas used for bone

preparation, (2) no tourniquet with CO_2 gas, and (3) tourniquet use and CO_2 gas bone

15 preparation. Cement penetration was measured on radiographs by two independent, blinded

16 raters across seven zones defined by the Knee Society Radiographic Evaluation System.

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18 **Results**: The three groups did not differ on age, BMI, or sex ($p \ge 0.1$). Cement penetration was

greater in six of seven zones with significantly greater cement penetration in three zones (Tibial

AP Zone 2, Femoral Lateral Zones 3A and 3P) in groups that utilized CO_2 gas bone preparation

21 compared to the tourniquet only group ($p \le 0.039$).

22

Conclusion: Bone prepared with CO_2 gas showed significantly more cement penetration in three

24 zones with greater cancellous bone. The results suggest use of CO_2 gas bone preparation may

achieve greater cement penetration than using a tourniquet with lavage only.

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27 Keywords: total knee arthroplasty; cement penetration; bone preparation; tourniquet;

28 Radiographic Evaluation System

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32 Introduction

33 While cemented total knee arthroplasty (TKA) is a widely successful procedure to treat many forms of arthritis, aseptic loosening remains one of the primary causes for early and late 34 revisions. [1-5] Studies and 2017 national registries report up to 28.7% of all revisions are due 35 to aseptic loosening. [3, 6-8] The projected economic burden of these revisions makes the 36 prevention of TKA failures imperative. [9-11] An evaluation of TKA failures estimated that 37 40% of early revisions could be avoided, in part, with optimal cement fixation. [12] Increasing 38 the amount of cement into the tibial and femoral bone (cement penetration) has been shown to 39 40 provide a stronger bone-cement interface which leads to increased stability and long-term survivorship of the implants. [13-15] 41

Traditionally, a tourniquet is used during TKA to optimize cement fixation via 42 minimizing the blood within the cancellous bone to allow more cement penetration and 43 44 subsequent interdigitation. Studies with and without tourniquet use have reported conflicting 45 results with respect to optimizing cement penetration; however, no difference in implant migration has been reported out to two years. [16-19] Further, there are potential clinical 46 drawbacks reported in the literature with using a tourniquet such as increased postoperative 47 blood loss and pain scores with slower recovery, and decreased quadriceps strength which make 48 tourniquetless TKA appealing. [16-18, 20-22] 49

Recently, a novel bone preparation method of sterile pressurized carbon dioxide (CO₂) gas has been used for its ability to clean out more fluids, fat and other lipid soluble debris than a pulsatile lavage alone. [23, 24] This technique theoretically offers an even cleaner bone surface for greater bone cement penetration and can be used during TKA to minimize the potential

deleterious effect of blood within the cancellous bone during cementation. Recently, the 54 technique of sterile CO₂ compressed gas was utilized in completely tourniquetless TKA, which 55 resulted in less pain and narcotic use in females compared to those utilizing a tourniquet. [22] 56 However, a paucity of published literature exist showing the effect on cement penetration of CO₂ 57 gas as a bone preparation technique. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to evaluate cement 58 penetration in three groups: (1) tourniquet only group with no CO_2 gas bone preparation, (2) 59 tourniquet group utilizing CO_2 gas bone preparation and (3) completely tourniquetless surgery 60 utilizing CO₂ gas used as bone preparation prior to bone cement application in a consecutive 61 series of primary TKAs. 62

63 Materials and Methods

With institutional review board approval, a retrospective review of 303 consecutive 64 primary TKAs performed between January 2016 and September 2017 was conducted. All 65 66 procedures were performed by a single surgeon at one designated hip and knee center. The same perioperative pain and rehabilitation protocols were used for all cases. Of the 303 TKAs, 32 67 were excluded due to a variety of confounding factors: tibial screw usage (1), prior ACL surgery 68 (1), patient death within two months of surgery unrelated to TKA (2), unable to identify the bone 69 cement used (1), and suboptimal or a lack of a one-month or one-year radiographs (27) resulting 70 in a sample size of 271 cases. 71

72 Radiographic Cement Penetration

All radiographs were accessed in the institution's digital radiographic repository
(Synapse, PACS, Fujifilm, USA). Radiographs were obtained by a trained radiologist with a
standardized protocol for all cases. Cement penetration was measured according to the zones
described by the Knee Society Radiographic Evaluation System (Figure 1). [25] Tibial AP

77	Zones 1 and 2 (Figures 1 and 2A) represent the medial and lateral inferior surfaces of the tibial
78	baseplate, respectively. Tibial Lateral Zones 1 and 2 (Figures 1 and 2B) represent the anterior
79	and posterior distal surfaces of the tibial baseplate, respectively. Femoral Lateral Zones 3A, 3
80	and 3P (Figures 1 and 2B) represent anterior, distal and posterior proximal surfaces of the
81	femoral component, respectively. For zones 1 and 2 in both the AP and lateral tibial views,
82	cement penetration was measured at the one-third and two-third marks (Figure 2). For the lateral
83	femoral view, cement penetration in zone 3A was measured at the one-third and two-third mark
84	while cement penetration in zones 3 and 3P was measured at the one-half mark due to the
85	smaller relative size of these zones to the other zones (Figure 2B).
86	Only radiographs with implant views collinear to the x-ray beam were measured to allow
87	the most accurate measurement of cement penetration. Cement penetration measurements were
88	made on one-month radiographs for all patients unless suboptimal views of the implants were
89	identified. If suboptimal views were found, then the next available postoperative radiograph was
90	used (i.e. one-year, two-year, etc.). Measurements were collected on digital radiographs with a
91	digital ruler calibrated to the thickness of each tibial baseplate (7.42 mm) which was identical for
92	all sizes of this particular implant. Once each radiograph was calibrated and each zone was
93	measured horizontally and divided into the appropriate number of sections, the vertical linear
94	distance of cement penetration was measured from the distal-most part of the implant to the
95	distal-most part of the cement mantle (Figure 2). The cement penetration measurements
96	collected at the one- and two-thirds partition of each zone were averaged for an overall cement
97	penetration value for that particular zone.

Measurements were made by two independent raters, blinded to the three study groups
(tourniquet only, CO₂ only, and tourniquet with CO₂). Discrepancies between raters greater than

1.0mm were resolved by each rater independently re-visiting measurements until measurements
agreed within 1.0mm. After discrepancies were resolved, measurements between raters were
averaged to calculate an average cement penetration value for each radiographic zone.

103 Surgical Technique

A median parapatellar approach was used for all procedures. The fat pad was completely 104 excised during all procedures and the patella was subluxed into the lateral gutter without patella 105 106 eversion in all cases. In addition, a right angle retractor was placed lateral to the tibia retracting 107 the patella clear of the lateral proximal tibia and a retractor placed posteriorly behind the tibia exposing the entire proximal tibial plateau. Standard coronal plane tibial and femoral bone cuts 108 were made with computer-aided navigation (Stryker Navigation, Kalamazoo, MI). One knee 109 arthroplasty system (DJO EMPOWR 3D[®], DJO Surgical, Austin, TX) was used in all patients 110 and intravenous tranexamic acid was used in all patients. The surgeon routinely utilized a 111 112 cruciate-retaining (CR) implant with a conforming polyethylene insert in all patients with or without preservation of the posterior-cruciate ligament. All sclerotic surfaces were prepared 113 with small drill holes to facilitate bone cement interdigitation and were cleaned thoroughly with 114 a pulsatile lavage in all three study groups. Medium-viscosity polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) 115 bone cement was mixed with low-dose antibiotics and the components were securely cemented 116 with manual hand pressurization (i.e. finger packing) in a standardized manner during the 117 working phase of the bone cement in all cases. The cement was allowed to cure with the knee 118 held in extension and visual confirmation of secured component fixation was obtained. Upon 119 drying, all extraneous cement was removed from all aspects of the knee. Finally, the knee was 120 vigorously irrigated again with a pulsatile lavage to remove any cement particles and the final 121 polyethylene insert was inserted and impacted into a locked position. The only alterations to this 122

protocol were when compressed CO_2 gas (CarboJet[®], Kinamed, Inc., Camarillo, CA) was used for bone preparation prior to applying the bone cement or a tourniquet was not used. When a tourniquet was not utilized, it is important to clarify that the tourniquet was not applied to the operative leg and therefore not utilized at any point during the procedure, not even during cementation.

The "tourniquet only" group utilized a tourniquet without compressed CO_2 gas for bone preparation. The " CO_2 only" group did not use a tourniquet and used compressed CO_2 gas for bone preparation. The "tourniquet with CO_2 " group utilized both a tourniquet and CO_2 gas for bone preparation. All three groups received pulsatile lavage regardless of CO_2 gas bone preparation or tourniquet use. All other events for the surgical protocol were unchanged for all cases.

134 Statistical analysis

Minitab[®] 17 (State College, PA) was used for statistical analyses. Outliers were assessed 135 with a form of Dixon's outlier test dependent on the sample size. Data were evaluated for 136 normality using Anderson-Darling (AD) tests. Tibial AP Zone 1, Tibial AP Zone 2, Tibial 137 Lateral Zone 1, Tibial Lateral Zone 2 and the overall cement penetration across all seven zones 138 were normally distributed ($p \ge 0.456$). Consequently, cement penetration measurements for 139 these five variables were evaluated with an Analysis of Variance (F) while the cement 140 penetration measurements of the other three zones were non-normally distributed ($p \le 0.043$) and 141 therefore required a Kruskal-Wallis (H) test adjusted for ties. Pearson's Chi-Square (X^2) test 142 was used to test independence among categorical variables, with Fishers Exact test *p* values 143 reported for 2 x 2 contingency tables. A significance level of 0.05 was used for all statistical 144 analyses. 145

147	Results
148	Demographics
149	Two hundred seventy-one TKAs were available for analysis. Overall, mean age was 67.8
150	years (SD 8.7) and median body mass index (BMI) was 33.0 kg/m ² . Seventy-two percent
151	(n=194) of the study population was female. TKAs were then grouped by intraoperative
152	tourniquet use and bone preparation method. Thirty-seven percent of the cohort used a
153	tourniquet only with no CO_2 bone preparation (n=101), 34% used a tourniquet and CO_2 bone
154	preparation (n=91) and 29% used CO_2 bone preparation with no tourniquet (n=79). No
155	difference in age, BMI, or proportion of females to males was detected in the three groups (Table
156	$1, p \ge 0.1$).

157 Cement Penetration

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158 The depth of cement penetration was compared in each radiographic zone among the three groups. No differences in cement penetration were found for Tibial AP Zone 1, Tibial 159 Lateral Zone 1, Tibial Lateral Zone 2 or Femoral Lateral Zone 3 (Table 2, $p \ge 0.173$). However, 160 Tibial AP Zone 2, Femoral Lateral Zone 3A and Femoral Lateral Zone 3P showed significantly 161 more cement penetration for groups using the compressed CO₂ gas for bone preparation (Table 162 2, $p \le 0.039$). In fact, one of the two groups that utilized the compressed CO₂ gas almost always 163 showed equivalent or greater cement penetration compared to the tourniquet only group (except 164 for Tibial Lateral Zone 2) although some zones did not achieve statistical significance (Figure 3). 165 The average cement penetration across all seven zones also showed no difference (F = 1.12, p =166 (0.326); however, the tourniquet with CO₂ gas had the greatest overall cement penetration 167

(2.23mm SD 0.41) followed by the CO₂ only group (2.18mm SD 0.50) and then the tourniquet
only group (2.13mm SD 0.48, Figure 3).

170 Discussion

Previous reports have advocated for tourniquet use to enhance cement fixation strength so 171 that blood does not interfere with the bone-cement interface and therefore provides an increased 172 shear strength for the interface. [16, 26] However, the use of a tournique has been reported to 173 174 be correlated with potential clinical drawbacks such as higher *postoperative* pain and blood loss, and slower recovery. [16, 20, 22] Due to these findings, tourniquetless TKAs have experienced 175 a resurgence with similar clinical results compared to tourniquet TKAs. [19, 27] In addition, 176 177 alternative techniques (i.e. compressed, sterile CO₂ gas) are being pursued to increase cement penetration and provide increased initial stability and hopefully better long-term survivorship for 178 179 cemented TKAs.

Cement penetration appears to be a pertinent measure of implant fixation both in the 180 short-term, but also in the longer term as a predictor of TKA longevity. Miller and colleagues 181 conducted a postmortem retrieval study of 14 TKAs implanted from zero to 20 years and 182 documented decreasing depth of interdigitation and cement interlock correlated with time in situ. 183 [14] In a subsequent analysis, the authors further loaded retrieved implants in mechanical 184 compression to assess micromotion. [28] The authors demonstrated that TKA tibial implants 185 with less initial interdigitation between cement and bone and more time in service had less 186 current cement-bone interdigitation ($r^2=0.86$, p=0.0002) and tibial implants with greater initial 187 interdigitation also had less micromotion after in vivo service ($r^2=0.36$, p=0.0062). [28] This 188 provides direct evidence that greater initial interlock between cement and bone in tibial 189

190 components of TKA results in more stable constructs with less micromotion with in vivo service and validates utilizing cement penetration as a surrogate for implant fixation and longevity. 191 Three radiographic zones (Tibial AP Zone 2, Femoral Lateral Zone 3A and Femoral 192 Lateral Zone 3P) showed significantly more cement penetration for one of two groups that 193 utilized the CO₂ gas for bone preparation compared to tourniquet alone. These three zones tend 194 to have less bone density and greater porosity of cancellous bone, as opposed to the frequently 195 196 sclerotic medial tibial plateau in osteoarthritic varus knees, and therefore by using the CO₂ gas as a bone preparation technique, cleared out more fat and debris to allow for enhanced cement 197 penetration. Our data corroborate the few studies evaluating the efficacy of CO_2 gas as an 198 199 effective alternative to other irrigation and lavage techniques. [23, 24, 29, 30] In a cadaver study conducted by Boontanapibul et al., cement penetration was measured with calipers and shown to 200 be greater in areas of cancellous bone on the proximal tibia for the group that used the 201 202 pressurized CO_2 gas for bone preparation compared to pulsatile lavage alone (1.90mm vs. 1.21mm, p=0.04). [29] Similarly, we report significantly greater cement penetration on the 203 proximal tibia with the use of CO₂ gas used for bone preparation compared to pulsatile lavage 204 alone (Figure 3, 2.08mm vs. 2.43mm, p = 0.007). In another cadaveric study, Ravenscroft et al. 205 [30] investigated the push out strength of bone cement plugs between bone preparation 206 techniques of CO₂ compressed gas and standard syringed saline. The authors reported the 207 required force to remove a bone cement plug was significantly higher when CO2 gas was used 208 for bone preparation compared to standard saline alone (median force 580.6N vs 366.6N, p =209 0.009) suggesting the pressurized CO₂ gas provided enhanced bone cement interdigitation and a 210 211 stronger bone-cement interface. [30] In two other studies, investigating the efficacy of compressed CO₂ gas and osteochondral allografts, both studies found that the use of compressed 212

CO₂ gas more effectively cleared out bone marrow elements than using saline solution only. [23,
214 24]

Cement penetration differences were only seen in one of the two CO₂ gas groups (with 215 and without a tourniquet) compared to tourniquet with lavage alone. However, considering the 216 potential drawbacks of tourniquet use reported in the literature, [16, 20-22, 31] this may obviate 217 the need for a tourniquet clinically. Therefore, based on the cement penetration data presented 218 219 here, the use of CO_2 gas without a tourniquet for bone preparation may achieve equivalent 220 cement penetration without the potential drawbacks of tourniquet use. [16, 20-22, 31] This study had limitations. One limitation was the amount of missing data due to 221 222 suboptimal radiograph quality with implants not being collinear to the radiograph machine collimator for accurate cement penetration measurements. This strict inclusion criterion also can 223 be a strength to the study as only the most accurate measurements of cement penetration were 224 225 collected, avoiding erroneous data points. Another limitation was the lack of bone density data, as this metric was not able to be measured with the available tools at our institution, nor is it 226 practical or within the scope of this clinical study. Studies have shown that patients with lower 227 bone density can achieve greater cement penetration and therefore improved initial implant 228 stability. [15, 32] Although we did not have access to bone density data for each patient, we do 229 not believe it was responsible for the difference in cement penetration between the groups. The 230 three groups did not differ in the proportion of females to males in any group ($p \ge 0.1$) or the 231 overall cement penetration between females and males (mean Female = 2.16mm (SD 0.46) and 232 Male = 2.21mm (SD 0.48); t = 0.78, p = 0.436). Lastly, a limitation to this study was the slight 233 increase in cost associated with using this device (\$130 USD per case); however, the benefit to 234

using this device could help reduce aseptic loosening rates in TKA and therefore reduce cost inthe long-term by minimizing costly revisions.

To the authors' knowledge, this is one of the first studies to evaluate in vivo differences 237 in cement penetration using this novel bone preparation method of sterile pressurized CO₂ gas. 238 These results suggest that a movement toward CO₂ gas bone preparation in cemented TKA could 239 achieve improved implant fixation via greater cement penetration than using a tourniquet with 240 lavage only. The improved cement penetration when using CO₂ gas for bone preparation may 241 242 lead to less implant loosening and therefore better patient outcomes. Longer follow-up of these cases is recommended to evaluate any differences with implant survivorship related to aseptic 243 244 loosening.

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Figure Legend

Figure 1. Radiographic zones defined by the Knee Society Radiographic Evaluation System.

Figure 2. A – Cement penetration (AP view). Each AP zone was divided into thirds and cement penetration was measured. B – Cement penetration (Lateral views). Each lateral zone was divided into thirds and measured except for Femoral Zones 3 and 3P which were divided in half due to the smaller size of these zones.

Figure 3. Cement penetration for all radiographic zones. CO_2 only or tourniquet with CO_2 groups had equivalent or greater penetration compared to tourniquet only in each zone except for Tibial Lateral Zone 2.

Table 1. Study Group Demographics.								
	Tourniquet Only	CO ₂ Only	Tourniquet with CO ₂	Test Statistic	р			
N (%)	101 (37%)	79 (29%)	91 (34%)	-	-			
Mean Age (Years)	68.9 (SD 8.5)	66.9 (SD 7.9)	67.4 (SD 9.7)	F = 1.35	0.261			
Median BMI (kg/m ²)	31.0	35.0	33.6	H = 2.56	0.279			
Female (%)	79%	67%	67%	$X^2 = 4.598$	0.100			
N, sample size	ation							

SD, standard deviation

F, ANOVA test statistic

H, Kruskal-Wallis test statistic X^2 , Pearson's chi-square BMI, body mass index

Table 2. Cement Penetration (in mm) by Radiographic Zone.								
	Tournig	uet Only	CO ₂ Only		Tourniquet with CO ₂		Test Statistic	р
Overall	n = 101		n = 79		$n = 90^+$			
Average Across 7 Zones	2.	13	2.18		2.23		F = 1.12	0.326
Range (min, max)	1.18	3.68	1.02	3.44	1.20	3.45		
AP Tibia	n = 69		n =	= 45	n = 48			
Zone 1	e 1 1.79		1.72		1.93		F = 1.01	0.367
Range (min, max)	0.26	3.32	0.35	3.00	0.54	4.14		
Zone 2	2.0	2.08 ^A		4 ^{AB}	2.43 ^B		F = 5.15	0.007
Range (min, max)	0.44	3.52	1.03	3.82	1.39	3.98		
Lateral Tibia	n = 81		n = 57		n = 64			
Zone 1	2.	64	2.72		2.81		F = 0.89	0.412
Range (min, max)	1.16	4.35	0.50	4.60	1.08	5.46		
Zone 2	2.	61	2.60		2.38		H = 3.50	0.173
Range (min, max)	1.12	4.08	1.50	4.54	0.85	4.99		
Lateral Femur	n = 75		n = 58		n = 67			
Zone 3A	A 2.16 ^A		2.48 ^B		2.38 ^{AB}		H = 6.77	0.034
Range (min, max)	0.00	3.44	1.26	3.65	1.10	3.57		
Zone 3	1.	71	1.76		1.79		H = 0.38	0.829
Range (min, max)	0.00	3.19	0.67	3.89	1.02	2.47		

Zone 3P	1.64 ^A		1.90 ^{AB}		1.87 ^B		H = 6.50	0.039
Range (min, max)	0.00	2.90	0.00	3.54	0.00	2.93	-	-
n, sample size SD, standard deviation H, Kruskal-Wallis test statistic F, ANOVA test statistic Means or medians that do not share a letter are statistically different $^+$ One significant outlier was removed from the overall cement penetration average (value = 5.22mm, r22 = 0.54, p < 0.001)								

ration average (.





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