

1 **Original Article**

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3 Addition of magnesium sulphate to ropivacaine for spinal analgesia in dogs undergoing tibial  
4 plateau levelling osteotomy

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6 C.Adami,<sup>a</sup> D.Casoni,<sup>b</sup> F.Noussitou,<sup>c</sup> U.Rytz,<sup>c</sup> C.Spadavecchia<sup>b</sup>

7 a. Department of Clinical Sciences and Services, Royal Veterinary College, University  
8 of London, Hawkshead Campus, North Mymms, AL97TA Hatfield, Herts, UK

9 b. Department of Veterinary Clinical Science, Anaesthesiology and Pain Therapy  
10 Division, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Berne, Länggassstrasse 124, CH-3012  
11 Berne, Switzerland

12 c. Department of Veterinary Clinical Science, Surgery Division, Vetsuisse Faculty,  
13 University of Berne, Länggassstrasse 124, CH-3012 Berne, Switzerland

14

15 **Corresponding author:**

16 Chiara Adami DMV, MRCVS, DACVAA, DECVAA, RCVS Specialist in Anaesthesia,  
17 EBVS® □ European Specialist in Veterinary Anaesthesia and Analgesia, PhD

18 Department of Clinical Sciences and Services, Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Lane,  
19 AL97TA, Hatfield, UK

20 Email: [cadami@rvc.ac.uk](mailto:cadami@rvc.ac.uk)

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 The aim of this blinded, randomised, prospective clinical trial was to determine whether the  
28 addition of magnesium sulphate to spinally-administered ropivacaine would improve peri-  
29 operative analgesia without impairing motor function in dogs undergoing orthopaedic surgery.  
30 Twenty client-owned dogs undergoing tibial plateau levelling osteotomy were randomly  
31 assigned to one of two treatment groups: group C (control, receiving hyperbaric ropivacaine  
32 by the spinal route) or group M (magnesium, receiving a hyperbaric combination of magnesium  
33 sulphate and ropivacaine by the spinal route). During surgery, changes in physiological  
34 variables above baseline were used to evaluate nociception. Arterial blood was collected before  
35 and after spinal injection, at four time points, to monitor plasma magnesium concentrations.  
36 Post-operatively, pain was assessed with a modified Sammarco pain score, a Glasgow pain  
37 scale and a visual analogue scale, while motor function was evaluated with a modified Tarlov  
38 scale. Assessments were performed at recovery and 1, 2 and 3 h thereafter. Fentanyl and  
39 buprenorphine were administered as rescue analgesics in the intra- and post-operative periods,  
40 respectively.

41

42 Plasma magnesium concentrations did not increase after spinal injection compared to baseline.  
43 Group M required less intra-operative fentanyl, had lower Glasgow pain scores and  
44 experienced analgesia of longer duration than group C ( $527.0 \pm 341.0$  min vs.  
45  $176.0 \pm 109.0$  min). However, in group M the motor block was significantly longer, which  
46 limits the usefulness of magnesium for spinal analgesia at the investigated dose. Further  
47 research is needed to determine a clinically effective dose with shorter duration of motor block  
48 for magnesium used as an additive to spinal analgesic agents.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Prevention and control of pain is one of the most important ethical obligations of veterinarians.  
52 As a result, various aspects of this fascinating branch of anaesthesia have been explored, and a  
53 number of novel techniques have been developed over the past decades to improve peri-  
54 operative pain management. It is likely that a multimodal approach has increased efficacy and,  
55 consequently, there has been particular interest in agents that, although not classified as  
56 analgesics, do exert antinociceptive effects (Kukanich, 2013, Madden et al, 2014, Crociolli et  
57 al, 2015; Norkus et al., 2015).

58

59 The use of magnesium has generated widespread interest as it could prevent central  
60 sensitisation by acting as a non-competitive antagonist at N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors in  
61 the dorsal horn, in a voltage-dependent fashion. Magnesium sulphate is commercially available  
62 in Europe, and the formulation developed for parenteral use is inexpensive, stable at room  
63 temperature and approved for use in dogs. Several studies in both human patients and dogs  
64 suggest that magnesium sulphate exerts antinociceptive effects (Bahrenberg et al., 2015), and  
65 consistently prolongs the duration of analgesia of various local anaesthetics and opioid  
66 combinations when administered via either the epidural or spinal route (Buvanendran et al,  
67 2002, Oezalevli et al, 2005, Arcioni et al, 2007). Additionally, a study in dogs investigating the  
68 neurotoxicity of intrathecal magnesium sulphate found that a dose rate of 3 mg/kg did not cause  
69 neurological deficits or histopathological changes in the spinal cord (Simpson et al., 1994).

70

71 Overall, these findings supported our hypothesis that a clinical trial investigating the effects of  
72 spinally administered magnesium in client-owned dogs would be feasible and ethically  
73 acceptable. The aim of this study was to compare the intensity and duration of peri-operative  
74 analgesia and motor block in client-owned dogs undergoing elective orthopaedic surgery, after  
75 spinal administration of either ropivacaine, or a combination of ropivacaine–magnesium

76 sulphate. Our hypothesis was that the inclusion of magnesium sulphate would provide longer  
77 lasting, better quality analgesia than ropivacaine alone, without impairing neurological  
78 function of the pelvic limbs and/or prolonging the duration of the motor block.

79

## 80 **Materials and methods**

81

### 82 *Animals and determination of sample size*

83 Twenty client-owned dogs undergoing elective tibial plateau levelling osteotomy (TPLO)  
84 between May 2014 and March 2015 were enrolled in the study. On arrival, a pre-anaesthetic  
85 physical examination was performed, as well as venous blood sampling for haematology and  
86 chemistry. Exclusion criteria were an American Society of Anaesthesiologists risk category  
87 higher than 2, infectious skin diseases affecting the lumbosacral area, and bleeding disorders.  
88 The clinical trial was approved by the Committee for Animal Experimentation, Canton of  
89 Berne, Switzerland (approval no. BE11/14, 28 April 2014), and performed with informed  
90 owner consent.

91

### 92 *Study design*

93 The study was designed as an investigator-blinded, block-randomised, prospective clinical  
94 trial. Dogs were randomly allocated to one of two treatment groups using a block  
95 randomisation method, based on shuffle and drawing of treatment assignments inside an  
96 opaque, sealed envelope. One operator not involved in the study was in charge of the  
97 allocations list, which was disclosed only at the end of the trial.

98

99 A sample size calculation determined that 10 dogs were needed in each treatment group, to  
100 achieve a power of 0.9 with an  $\alpha$  of 0.05, to detect a minimum difference of 60 min in the mean

101 duration of analgesia (defined as the time elapsed from the spinal injection to the first  
102 administration of rescue analgesics, either intra-operative fentanyl or post-operative  
103 buprenorphine), between groups.

104

#### 105 *Anaesthetic protocol and procedures*

106 After IM premedication with acepromazine (0.03 mg/kg, Prequillan, Aproved), an  
107 appropriately sized IV catheter was placed in a cephalic vein. General anaesthesia was  
108 induced with IV propofol (Propofol, Fresenius Kabi) titrated to effect to enable orotracheal  
109 intubation, and maintained with isoflurane (IsoFlo, Abbott) vaporised in an oxygen–air  
110 mixture and delivered via a circle system. All dogs received IV lactated Ringer's solution  
111 (Ringer-Lactate, Fresenius Kabi) at a rate of 10 mL/kg/h during anaesthesia. The dorsal  
112 pedal artery of the non-surgical pelvic limb was catheterised to allow blood sampling and  
113 continuous measurement of the systolic (SAP), mean (MAP) and diastolic (DAP) arterial  
114 blood pressures. A multiparametric monitor was used to assess cardiovascular (SAP, MAP,  
115 DAP, heart rate [HR]) and respiratory (end-tidal carbon dioxide,  $P_{E}CO_2$ ; peak inspiratory  
116 pressure, PIP; respiratory rate, RR; tidal volume, TV; inspired fraction of oxygen,  $FiO_2$ ; end-  
117 tidal isoflurane tension,  $P_{E}I_{50}$ ) variables, as well as oesophageal temperature (T, °C). Data  
118 were manually recorded every 5 min until the end of anaesthesia. The dogs were allowed to  
119 breathe spontaneously unless  $P_{E}CO_2$  was >45 mmHg, in which case pressure-controlled  
120 ventilation with PIP set at 10 cm H<sub>2</sub>O was used to maintain  $P_{E}CO_2$  within the normal range.  
121 A constant  $P_{E}I_{50}$  of 1.3%, equivalent to the minimum alveolar concentration (MAC) for the  
122 species (Steffey and Mama, 2007), was targeted during anaesthesia.

123

124 Hypotension, defined as MAP lower than 60 mmHg, was treated with a crystalloid bolus  
125 (10 mL/kg lactated Ringer's delivered IV over 10 min). Non-responsive hypotension was

126 treated initially with a colloid bolus (2 mL/kg tetrastarch delivered IV over 10 min), and then  
127 with dopamine infusion, starting at a rate of 5 µg/kg/min. The dose was increased by  
128 2.5 µg/kg/min every 10 min until MAP was above 60 mmHg.

129

130 Bradycardia, defined as HR lower than 45 beats per min (bpm), was treated with IV  
131 glycopyrronium, 10 µg/kg, administered as a bolus. Any clinical signs compatible  
132 with hypermagnesaemia, including cardiac bradyarrhythmias and persistent hypotension,  
133 were recorded.

134

135 After tracheal extubation, carprofen (4 mg/kg) was administered IV to all dogs. Dogs were  
136 discharged from the hospital 24 h after surgery.

137

### 138 *Spinal injection*

139 Once the plane of anaesthesia was judged as adequate on the basis of clinical assessments (jaw  
140 relaxation, absence of active blinking, slight or absent palpebral reflex, immobility and  
141 physiological variables within normal ranges for the species), spinal injection was performed  
142 by one of two anaesthetists (C.A. or D.C.), who were blinded to the treatment. The dogs were  
143 positioned in lateral recumbency with the limb to be operated on in a dependent position, with  
144 both pelvic limbs pulled symmetrically cranially to maximise the length of the dorsal lumbar  
145 intervertebral spaces. The iliac wings and the dorsal spinous processes of L5, L6 and L7 were  
146 used as anatomical landmarks. After surgical preparation of the area, a 75 mm × 19 G spinal  
147 needle was inserted towards the epidural space, with the bevel facing cranially, through the  
148 interspinous ligament between L6 and L5. The stylet was then withdrawn and the needle slowly  
149 advanced until cerebrospinal fluid was observed at the hub of the needle. A ‘dry tap’ after the  
150 third attempt of needle insertion was considered an exclusion criterion.

151 *Treatment groups*

152 Group C (control) received ropivacaine (Naropin 1%, AstraZeneca), at a dose of 1 mg/kg  
153 (0.1 mL/kg). Group M (magnesium) received a mixture of magnesium sulphate (2 g/10 mL,  
154 Magnesio Solfato, Galenica Senese), at a dose of 2 mg/kg (equivalent to a volume of  
155 0.01 mL/kg), and ropivacaine at a dose of 1 mg/kg. All treatments were administered spinally.

156

157 For both treatments, the solution for injection was made hypertonic immediately before the  
158 injection by adding 50% glucose (Glucose 50% BBraun, 0.002 mL/kg) to the solution. The  
159 specific gravity of the solutions, measured with a refractometer, was 1.032 and 1.035 at 25 °C  
160 for groups C and M, respectively. The solution was injected over 1 min. Doses and volumes  
161 were based on previous reports in both human and veterinary medicine (Oezalevli et al, 2005,  
162 Arcioni et al, 2007, Bilir et al, 2007, Sarotti et al, 2011).

163

164 *Assessment of nociception*

165 Intra-operatively, any increase in HR, MAP and/or RR of 20% above baseline values  
166 (defined as the values recorded before skin incision, after  $P_{E_{ISO}}$  values of 1.3% had been  
167 recorded consecutively for 15 min) was considered indicative of nociception. When such  
168 increases were seen for at least two of these parameters, fentanyl (3 µg/kg, IV) was  
169 administered as rescue analgesia.

170

171 Post-operatively, pain was assessed with a modified multifactorial pain score (Sammarco et  
172 al, 1996, Adami et al, 2012) and the Glasgow pain scale (Holton et al., 2001). Additionally, a  
173 10 cm visual analogue scale (VAS) with end points labelled 'worst pain imaginable' (0) and  
174 'no pain' (10) was used. Cut-off values to administer rescue buprenorphine (Temgesic,  
175 10 µg/kg IV) were one or more pain scores exceeding 40% of the maximum value possible

176 (>4 for the VAS, >6 for the Sammarco pain score, and >10 for the Glasgow pain scale).

177 Neurological function of the pelvic limbs and the degree of motor block were assessed with a  
178 modified Tarlov scale (Table 1) (Buvanendran et al., 2002).

179

#### 180 *Blood sampling*

181 The assessments were performed as soon as the dogs were conscious enough to respond to  
182 stimulation (vocal call and incitement to sit or stand up) and then at 60, 120, 180, 240 and  
183 300 min thereafter. The evaluations were performed by one of two observers (C.A. and D.C.),  
184 who were blinded to the treatment. During preliminary tests, comparable pain and motor block  
185 scores were determined by the two observers when independently evaluating the same dogs.

186

#### 187 *Statistical analysis*

188 Normality of data was tested with the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and the Shapiro–Wilk test.  
189 Repeated measures ANOVA, followed by Tukey–Kramer's multiple comparison test, was used  
190 for the plasma magnesium concentrations, for physiological variables and for post-operative  
191 pain and Tarlov scores, with treatment (group) and time of data collection as factors.  
192 Physiological variables used for statistical analysis were recorded at three predefined time  
193 points: (1) before the beginning of surgical stimulation (used as baseline); (2) immediately after  
194 skin incision; and (3) immediately after the beginning of tibial osteotomy.

195

196 The duration of anaesthesia and analgesia, as well as the number of intra-operative fentanyl  
197 and post-operative buprenorphine boluses received by each group, was tested using either one  
198 way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni multiple comparison test, or Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA  
199 on ranks followed by Dunn's test. The proportion of dogs within each group showing  
200 hypotension and/or bradyarrhythmias was analysed with Fisher's exact test.



201

202 Commercially available software (NCSS-2007, SigmaStat; SigmaPlot 12, Systat Software)  
203 was used. P values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

204

## 205 **Results**

206 Eleven female dogs (seven of which were neutered) and nine males (six of which were  
207 neutered) were enrolled in the study. The dogs weighed  $35.5 \pm 22.0$  kg, with a mean age of  
208  $12.5 \pm 5.8$  years. Data for age, bodyweight, intra-operative fentanyl requirement, duration of  
209 anaesthesia and analgesia and plasma magnesium concentrations were normally distributed.  
210 The number of cases per treatment group was equally distributed between the two observers.

211

212 Duration of anaesthesia was  $267.3 \pm 36.0$  min (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation) in group M and  
213  $282 \pm 36.0$  min in group C; this difference was not statistically significant ( $P = 0.37$ ). Group M  
214 experienced significantly longer analgesia ( $527.0 \pm 341.0$  min; Fig. 1) and required fewer intra-  
215 operative fentanyl boluses (median 0, range 0–1; Fig. 2) than group C ( $176.0 \pm 109.0$  min,  
216  $P = 0.015$ ; median 1.5, range 0–4 boluses,  $P = 0.0018$ ; respectively).

217

218 Intra-operative physiological variables remained within normal ranges for the species and no  
219 differences were detected between treatments or time points (Fig. 3). However, one dog in  
220 group M and one dog in group C showed moderate sinus bradycardia (40 beats per min) and  
221 arterial hypotension (MAP, 50 and 55 mmHg, respectively) shortly after the spinal injection,  
222 which responded to glycopyrronium and colloid administration, respectively. None of the dogs  
223 required rescue buprenorphine before the final pain assessment.

224

225 Post-operatively, there were no significant differences between groups or time points in VAS  
226 ( $P = 0.36$  and  $P = 0.57$ ) and Sammarco ( $P = 0.17$  and  $P = 0.16$ ) pain scales (Fig. 4). However,  
227 group M had significantly lower scores for the Glasgow pain scale ( $P = 0.012$ ) and the Tarlov  
228 scale ( $P = 0.049$ ) compared to group C (Fig. 4). The Glasgow ( $P = 0.08$ ) and the Tarlov  
229 ( $P < 0.001$ ) scores significantly increased over time in both groups. Two dogs in group M  
230 showed a persistent motor block, accompanied by loss of deep pain sensation, which lasted 24  
231 and 18 h; neurological function of the pelvic limbs normalised progressively and no long-term  
232 complications were observed, although these two dogs required longer hospitalisation and were  
233 discharged 72 h after surgery.

234

235 Total plasma magnesium concentrations remained within physiological ranges for the species  
236 (Fig. 5) and no significant differences were observed between subjects ( $P = 0.015$ ) or between  
237 time points ( $P = 0.61$ ).

238

## 239 **Discussion**

240 The main finding of this study is that spinal administration of magnesium potentiates the  
241 analgesia provided by ropivacaine in dogs undergoing elective orthopaedic surgery. However,  
242 magnesium also prolongs the duration of motor block, which makes it a less attractive  
243 adjunctive analgesic for peri-operative pain in client-owned dogs, especially in those  
244 undergoing TPLO, as they are frequently large breed dogs. Persistent motor block is likely to  
245 cause discomfort and to increase the costs of hospitalisation. This is in contrast with the  
246 findings of most reports focusing on the neuroaxial use of magnesium in both humans and  
247 canine patients, which indicated a lack of effect of magnesium on motor function when  
248 administered by either epidural or spinal routes (Buvanendran et al, 2002, Yousef, Amr, 2010,  
249 Shahi et al, 2014, Bahrenberg et al, 2015). Nonetheless, magnesium was found to prolong and

250 enhance brachial plexus motor block when used with lidocaine in human patients (Haghighi et  
251 al., 2015).

252

253 The mechanisms by which magnesium causes motor block are unknown. Magnesium sulphate  
254 is an inorganic salt which readily dissolves in water and becomes almost completely  
255 dissociated across a wide pH range, from the low pH of the stomach to the neutral pH of  
256 extracellular and cerebrospinal fluids<sup>1</sup>. An in vitro study on isolated mammalian dorsal root  
257 ganglion neurons showed that bivalent and trivalent metal cations transiently block voltage-  
258 activated calcium channel currents (Busselberg et al., 1994). The ionised magnesium released  
259 by its salt could have acted so, blocking the calcium currents by altering the resting potential  
260 of the neuronal membrane within the spinal cord.

261

262 Another possible explanation is that, because the magnesium sulphate solution used was  
263 hyperosmolar, it might have altered the osmotic homeostasis of cerebrospinal fluid and spinal  
264 cord, leading to axonal shrinking and transient neurological dysfunction. In vitro studies have  
265 shown that osmotically perturbed neurons are capable of regulating their membrane  
266 capacitance, structural organisation and topology, and that these changes are reversible (Wan  
267 et al, 1995, Mills, Morris, 1998). Furthermore, dynamic changes in neuronal volume and  
268 surface area caused by osmotic manipulation of isolated ganglia resulted in blockade of  
269 transmembrane sodium channels (Mills and Morris, 1998), which is also a well-recognised  
270 mechanism of action by which local anaesthetics interrupt sensory and motor transmission. For  
271 most solutions, however, osmolarity and specific gravity usually change in parallel, and  
272 therefore this explanation is less likely because the solution for injection in both groups had  
273 very similar specific gravity.

274

275 Spinal administration of local anaesthetics has been shown to provide adequate analgesia to  
276 dogs undergoing orthopaedic procedures (Sarotti et al., 2011), and is a commonly used  
277 technique in clinical practice. For this reason, ropivacaine was selected for use in the positive  
278 control group in this trial.

279

280 Spinal administration of magnesium did not increase total plasma magnesium concentrations  
281 in the dogs enrolled in this trial. However, one limitation of our methods is that plasma  
282 magnesium concentrations do not correlate with tissue concentrations, with the exception of  
283 interstitial fluid and bone, nor does it reflect total body magnesium (Elin, 2010). Moreover,  
284 only total magnesium, rather than the ionised, biologically active form of the ion, could be  
285 measured. Another limitation is that blood was collected over a relatively short period of time;  
286 more frequent sampling over a longer period, though not feasible in client-owned animals,  
287 would have provided a more complete picture of magnesium uptake and distribution. However,  
288 because clinical signs compatible with hypermagnesaemia were not observed, it is reasonable  
289 to assume that ionised magnesium stayed within acceptable ranges for the species.

290

291 Although cardiovascular variables remained within physiologically acceptable limits, spinal  
292 injection in both groups resulted in a transient decrease in heart rate and arterial blood pressure.  
293 Additionally, one dog in each group experienced persistent hypotension and bradycardia,  
294 which required treatment with colloids and anticholinergics. Administration of ropivacaine by  
295 the spinal route might result in decreased sympathetic outflow to the cardiovascular system  
296 (Levin et al., 1998). However, because the incidence of cardiovascular side effects did not  
297 differ between treatments, it is unlikely that they were caused by magnesium.

298

299 **Conclusions**

300 The addition of magnesium sulphate to spinal ropivacaine increased the intensity and the  
301 duration of peri-operative analgesia in dogs undergoing orthopaedic surgery, but the potential  
302 for prolonged motor block could limit its utility in clinical practice. Further research might help  
303 identify a dose with similar analgesic effects but with less potential for prolonged motor block.

304

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308

#### 309 **Conflict of interest**

310 None of the authors have financial or personal relationships with individuals or organisations  
311 that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper.

312

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388 Figure legends:

389 Fig. 1. Duration of analgesia (min) in dogs receiving a spinal injection of either ropivacaine

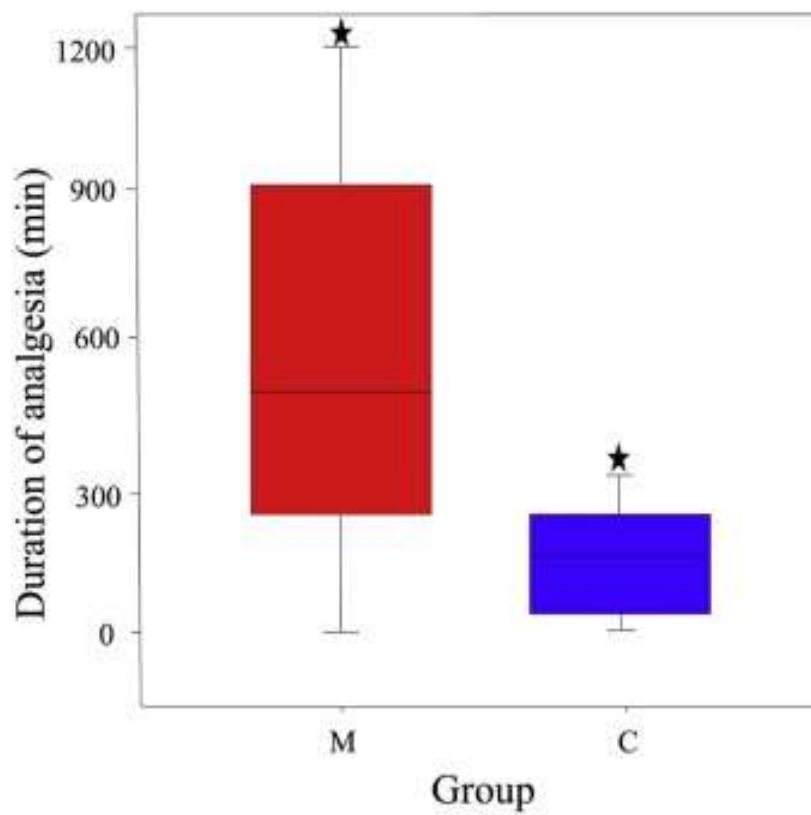
390 alone (group C,  $n = 10$ ) or a combination of ropivacaine and magnesium (group M,  $n = 10$ ).

391 The asterisk indicates a statistically significant difference between treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ). The

392 lines indicate median values. The upper and lower boxes indicate the 75% and 25% of the

393 values which fall below the upper and lower quartiles, respectively. The upper and lower

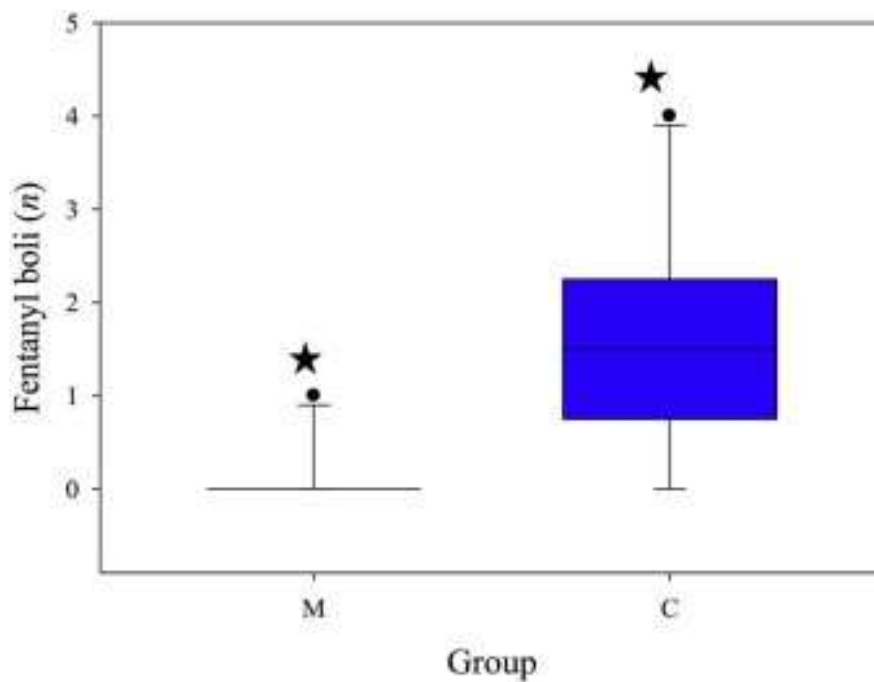
394 whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum values.



395

396

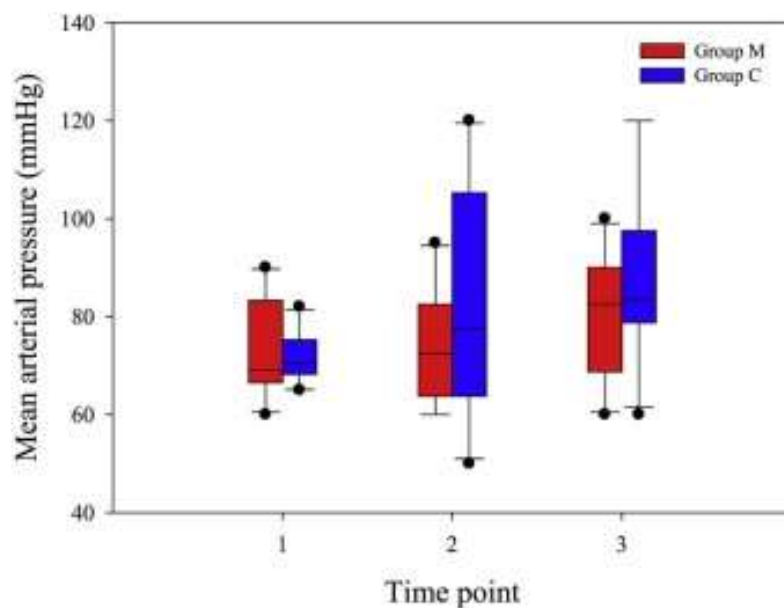
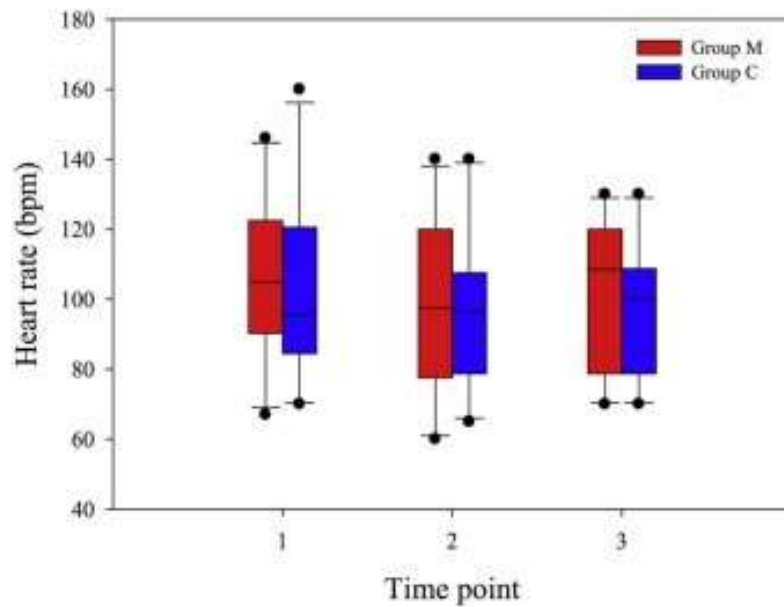
397 Fig. 2. Number of intra-operative fentanyl boluses (3  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  each bolus) administered to 20  
398 dogs receiving a spinal injection of either ropivacaine alone (group C,  $n = 10$ ) or a combination  
399 of ropivacaine and magnesium (group M,  $n = 10$ ). The lines indicate median values. The upper  
400 and lower boxes indicate the 75% and 25% of the values which fall below the upper and lower  
401 quartiles, respectively. The upper and lower whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum  
402 values. The dots indicate the outliers. The asterisks indicate a statistically significant difference  
403 between treatments ( $P < 0.05$ ).



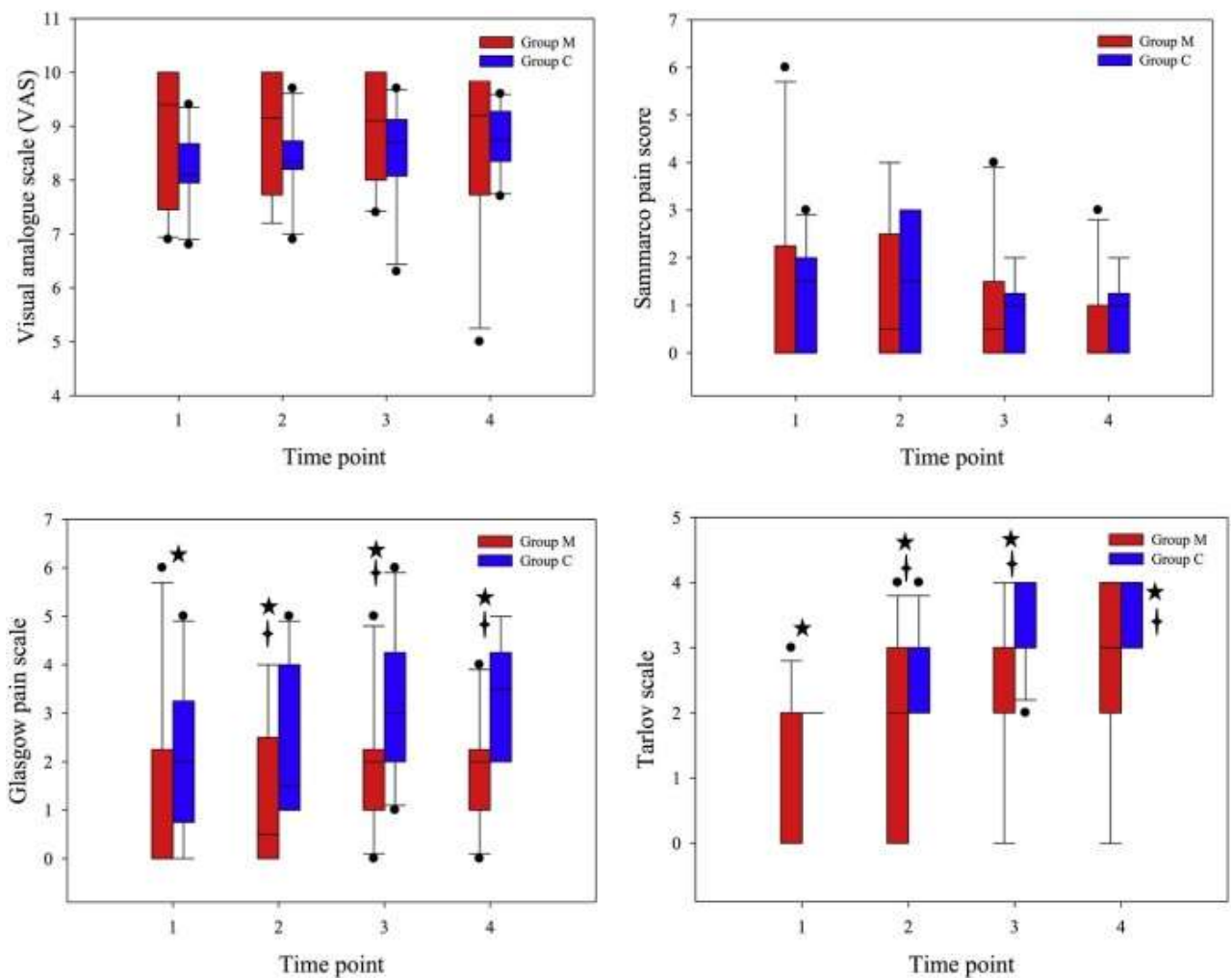
404

405

406 Fig. 3. Values for heart rate (HR, beats per min [bpm]) and mean arterial pressure (MAP,  
407 expressed in mmHg) for 20 dogs receiving a spinal injection of either ropivacaine alone (group  
408 C, n = 10) or a combination of ropivacaine and magnesium (group M, n = 10). Data were  
409 recorded at three different time points: (1) before the beginning of surgical stimulation (used  
410 as baseline); (2) immediately after skin incision; and (3) immediately after the beginning of  
411 tibial osteotomy. The lines indicate median values. The upper and lower boxes indicate the  
412 75% and 25% of the values which fall below the upper and lower quartiles, respectively. The  
413 upper and lower whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum values.



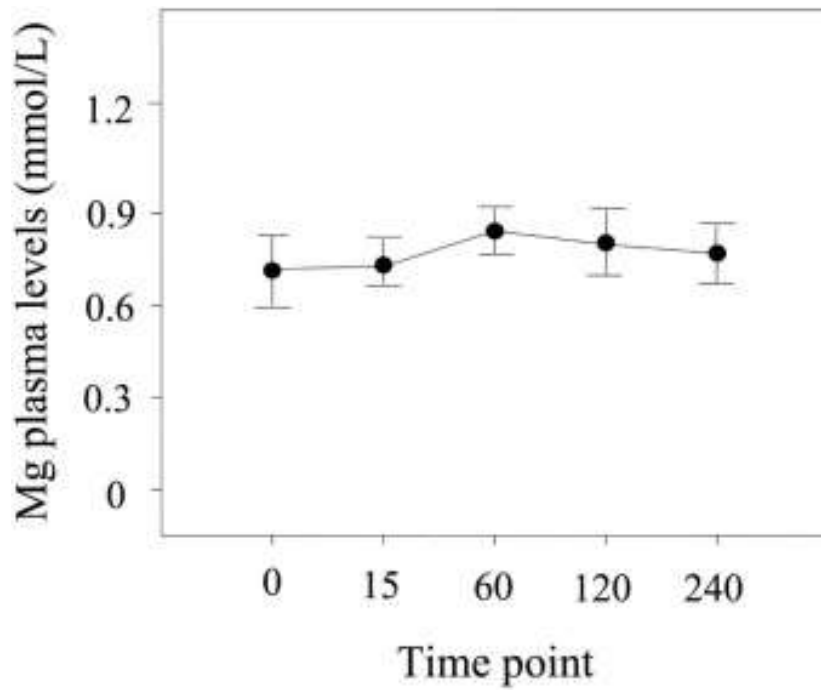
415 Fig. 4. Values for Sammarco pain score, Glasgow pain scale, Visual Analogue Scale (VAS)  
 416 and Tarlov scale for 20 dogs receiving a spinal injection of either ropivacaine alone (group C,  
 417 n = 10) or a combination of ropivacaine and magnesium (group M, n = 10). Data were recorded  
 418 at four different time points: at recovery, as soon as the dogs were conscious enough to be  
 419 examined (time point 1), and then 1, 2 and 3 h after that (time points 2, 3 and 4, respectively).  
 420 The lines indicate median values. The upper and lower boxes indicate the 75% and 25% of the  
 421 values which fall below the upper and lower quartiles, respectively. The upper and lower  
 422 whiskers indicate the maximum and minimum values. The asterisks and the daggers indicate  
 423 statistically significant differences between treatments and between time points, respectively  
 424 ( $P < 0.05$ ).



425

426

427 Fig. 5. Mean values ( $\pm$ standard deviations) of total plasma magnesium concentrations  
428 (mmol/L) for 20 dogs receiving a spinal injection of either ropivacaine alone (group C, n = 10)  
429 or a combination of ropivacaine and magnesium (group M, n = 10). Blood was sampled at the  
430 following time points: before spinal injection (0, baseline), and then at 15, 60, 120 and 240 min  
431 thereafter.



432

433

434 Table 1. Tarlov's scale (modified from Buvanendran et al., 2002) used for neurological  
435 assessment.

Grade	Description
Grade 0	Flaccid paraplegia, no movements of the pelvic limbs, possible loss of bowel/urinary bladder control
Grade 1	Spastic paraplegia with moderate or vigorous purposeless movements of the pelvic limbs. No sitting, unable to walk
Grade 2	Good movements of the pelvic limbs but unable to stand
Grade 3	Able to stand but unable to walk normally, hips and pelvic limbs obviously unstable, moderate to severe ataxia
Grade 4	Able to stand and walk normally, some muscle weakness of the pelvic limbs may be seen

436