

The "RoC" suture technique to allow early active rehabilitation in flexor tendon repair: a biomechanical study

Marie Castoldi, Federico Solla, Olivier Camuzard, Martine Pithioux, Virginie Rampal, Olivier Rosello

▶ To cite this version:

Marie Castoldi, Federico Solla, Olivier Camuzard, Martine Pithioux, Virginie Rampal, et al.. The "RoC" suture technique to allow early active rehabilitation in flexor tendon repair: a biomechanical study. The Journal Of Hand Surgery, In press. hal-03357452

HAL Id: hal-03357452 https://hal.science/hal-03357452v1

Submitted on 30 Sep 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	The «RoC» suture technique to allow early active rehabilitation in
2	flexor tendon repair: a biomechanical study
3	Marie CASTOLDI, MD, Federico Solla, MD, Olivier Camuzard, MD PhD Martine Pithioux PhD Virginie Rampal MD PhD Olivier Rosello MD
4	T throus, T hb, V it ginte Kampal, Mb T hb, Onvier Koseno, Mb
5	ABSTRACT
6	
7	Purpose. Current flexor tendon repair techniques do not provide sufficient tensile strength to
8	allow immediate active unprotected rehabilitation. The «RoC» repair, a new 4-strand
9	suture technique, is proposed to improve biomechanical properties, combining a high tensile
10	strength and a low gliding resistance without causing suture pullout by tendon laceration.
11	Our hypothesis is that the RoC technique can reach an ultimate tensile strength of 140N, and a
12	higher tensile strength than the Adelaide technique.
13	Methods. Four groups of 10 porcine flexor tendons were sutured with the RoC or
14	Adelaide technique, and with a 3-0 Polypropylene or Dyneema suture. An axial traction test
15	to failure (Instron machine) was administrated to each tendon to measure ultimate tensile
16	strength. Results. With the Dyneema suture, median ultimate tensile strength was 145N
17	for the RoC technique and 80N for Adelaide ($p < 0.01$). RoC tendons were 1.8 times more
18	resistant than Adelaide tendons with the Dyneema suture, and 1.2 times more resistant with
19	Polypropylene. Conclusion. Tendons repaired with the RoC technique and Dyneema suture
20	exceeded a tensile strength of 140N. The ultimate tensile strength was superior to that of
21	Adelaide technique regardless of the suture material.
22	
23	

24 Key words

Flexor tendon, hand injuries, suture techniques, tensile strength

25 INTRODUCTION

26 Hand flexor tendon injuries are frequent and their treatment holds several challenges. Restoring 27 satisfactory function after tendon repair requires a sufficient tensile strength and low gliding resistance to allow for early active mobilization ^{1,2}. Tensile strength of the repair is affected by the number of 28 29 strands, the caliber of the core suture, the suture material (braided or not), surface treatments, size and shape of the needle, the knot configuration, the loop configuration and the number of anchor points ³⁻⁷ 30 . Improvements in suture materials and repair techniques have led to stronger repairs. ^{3,8–10}. Despite these 31 advances, conventional tendon repair techniques do not provide sufficient tensile strength to 32 immediately allow unprotected mobilization 1,3,4,8,11,12 . Protected active rehabilitation implies 33 34 permanently wearing a splint during the six weeks of tendon healing. Even then, adhesions, stiffness, and repair-site gapping remain a frequent outcome ^{8,12–14} There are three possible causes of tendon 35 repair failure ²: suture breakage, knot failure, and suture pullout by tendon dilaceration. 36

The axial tensile force applied to a repaired flexor tendon during full extension of the finger and active flexion is unknown from the literature; the active flexion of a healthy finger in vivo is up to 28N¹⁵; Savage ¹⁶ postulated that the strength of a flexor repair should be 5 times greater than the active flexion force (i.e. 140N).

The most common techniques are a modified 4-strand Kessler technique, Becker, Adelaide or
Strickland, with several variants; their biomechanical properties have been studied with in vitro
tensile tests (on cadaver or porcine tendons) and, more rarely, in vivo ^{2,4,8,17-19}.

An extensive literature review in 2000 defined the 6 characteristics of an ideal suture technique². Accordingly, the sutures have to be easily placed in the tendon with secure suture knots, allowing for a smooth juncture of the tendon ends, minimal gapping at the repair site, minimal interference with tendon vascularity, and a sufficient tensile strength throughout healing. Following these criteria, the Adelaide repair technique¹ (also known as locked Cruciate) can be considered a gold standard, because it provides the highest tensile strength in 50 in vitro studies (up to $120N^9$). However, in a recent study, tendons repaired with a helical 6-51 strand Cruciate had a greater ultimate tensile strength (65N) than with the Adelaide technique 52 $(46N)^{20}$. Barbed sutures seem to provide a higher tensile strength, up to 64N, but largely below 53 the 140N requested for active unprotected rehabilitation ^{21,22}.

54 We propose a new 4-strand repair technique, the "RoC" technique, to combine a high tensile 55 strength and a low gliding resistance without causing suture pullout by tendon laceration.

The objective of this study is to compare, in vitro, the biomechanical properties of this new technique with those of the Adelaide repair technique. We hypothesized that the RoC repair can reach an ultimate tensile strength of 140N, in order to withstand an immediate active unprotected rehabilitation protocol.

60

61 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

62 2.1. Study protocol

This study followed the design of published biomechanical evaluations of in vitro porcine
flexor tendon repair techniques ^{4,9,18,23}. The use of animal tissues complied with the guidelines
of the authors' institution, the National Institutes of Health, and French law on the use of
laboratory animals.

Fresh porcine forelimbs were purchased and dissected. Both flexor tendons were harvested from each forelimb, with an average cross-sectional area of 20 mm² and a minimum length of 10cm, allowing them to be installed in the clamps of the traction machine. A clean cross-tendon cut with a scalpel simulated a traumatic section. To ensure consistency of the technique, section sites and points of entry of the core suture were pre-marked on the tendons, and all sutures were performed by a single surgeon (MC).

Forty porcine flexor tendons were randomly allocated to 4 groups of 10 tendons (figure 1), cut transversally then repaired and tested in axial traction. The core suture (RoC or Adelaide) was performed with a 3-0 suture, either Prolene® (Ethicon® NJ 08876 USA) or Dyneema (KastKing®), and reinforced with a peripheral epitendinous running suture with a Prolene 6-0, 2mm from the section site. After the suture, the tendons were immediately stored in a freezer at -80°C ²².

- 79
- 80 2.2. Surgical technique: the "RoC" repair

The knots used for mountaineering inspired the loop configuration of this new repair 81 82 technique, which owes its name to the initials of the creators and to a regional summit in the region of the authors. The basic pattern of the RoC repair is a 3-dimensional figure of eight 83 with 4 anchors in the 3 planes of space. This pattern is repeated with two sliding sutures on 84 both ends of the tendon, forming a 4-strand repair. The loop configuration is illustrated in 85 figures 2 and 3. For optimal tensile strength, suture tensioning should result in approximately 86 10% shortening of the tendon length at the suture site ²⁴. The ends are tied suture by suture 87 88 and then together in one knot.

The gold standard repair technique chosen for comparison in this study was the Adelaide ²³,
or 4-strand locked cruciate repair (figure 4).

91

92 2.3. Suture materials

During preliminary testing, tendons repaired with the RoC technique and Prolene suture failed
by suture breakage. Prolene is a non-absorbable polypropylene monofilament suture
commonly used for flexor tendon repairs, pre-mounted with a curved taper needle. The
observation of suture breakage prompted us to use a stronger suture. In existing studies,
repairs with Dyneema suture had the highest tensile strength ^{9,10}. Dyneema is a non-

absorbable fiber made from ultra-high-molecular-weight polyethylene, a lightweight and high
strength material used in arthroplasties since the 1980s and more recently in sutures.
Therefore, we used a commercially purchased 100% Dyneema unmounted braid 0.25mm
(diameter of a surgical 3-0 suture ²⁵) with a curved cutting-edge needle. Thus, both repair
techniques were tested with a 3-0 Prolene (Ethicon®), and a 0.25mm Dyneema (KastKing®)
suture.

104 2.4 Outcomes and mechanical testing

The primary outcome was the ultimate tensile strength measured in Newtons (N). Secondary
outcomes were the 2-mm gap formation force (N), failure mode of the repair (knot failure,
suture breakage or suture pullout), stress (ultimate tensile strength divided by the tendon
cross-section area, in N/mm2), and stiffness (in N/mm).

109 Mechanical testing was conducted on an Instron 5566A® axial traction machine (Instron 110 Corp, MA) (figure 5A). The tendons were thawed in saline-soaked gauze at 4°C for 24 hours. 111 The dimensions of the tendon were recorded at the suture site and at a healthy site 30mm 112 distal, to calculate the cross-section areas. Both ends of the repaired tendon were mounted 113 into standard clamps. The initial distance between the clamps was set at 40mm for all tendons. 114 Loading was applied to the repaired tendons to a single load-to-failure compression test. After 115 application of a 1-N preload, the tendons were pulled at a constant speed of 10mm/min. 116 Quasi-static loading with prescribed displacements at 1mm per min was applied up to failure. 117 Data were recorded at a rate of 10 Hz. The software (Bluehill Universal, Instron Corp) created 118 a load-displacement curve, from which the ultimate tensile strength was determined (peak of 119 the curve). Stiffness was calculated as the slope of the initial linear section of the curve. A 120 ruler was attached to the upper clamp next to the tendon, and the test was monitored by a 121 high-definition camera in order to determine the 2-mm gap formation force (figure 5B and C). 122 Failure was considered to be the first local maximum before a load decrease was observed on

the load-displacement curve. Failure mode was determined by visual examination of thetendons, photographed after testing.

125

126 2.5 Statistical Analysis

127 The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to ensure that the cross-section areas of the tendons were 128 normally distributed. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the numeric 129 outcomes (mechanical testing results and cross-section areas) between each group. The exact 130 Fisher test were used to compare the failure mode between each group. The alpha risk was set 131 at 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$)²⁶.

132

133 3. RESULTS

Gross mechanical testing results are presented in table 1 and compared group by group in tables2 and 3.

136 With the Dyneema suture, median ultimate tensile strength for the RoC technique was 145N.

137 RoC tendons were 1.8 times more resistant than Adelaide tendons with the Dyneema suture,

and 1.2 times more resistant with the Prolene suture (p < 0.01).

139

140 4. DISCUSSION

141 4.1. Primary outcome - Ultimate tensile strength

142 Tendons repaired with the RoC technique had a significantly higher ultimate tensile strength 143 than tendons repaired with the Adelaide technique, regardless of the suture used (Prolene or 144 Dyneema). The median ultimate tensile strength with RoC and Dyneema exceeded 140N, which was the targeted tensile strength to allow immediate unprotected active rehabilitation.
The lower value of the confidence interval was 130N, which is higher the previous data with a
4, 6, and 8-strand techniques ^{2,4,8,10,17,19–23,27}.

148 The tensile strength of 140N was not achieved with Prolene suture. RoC repairs with Prolene 149 exceeded the tensile strength of Adelaide by only 11N, and failed by suture breakage in all 150 cases, implying that the resistance of the suture material was the limiting factor. Indeed, RoC 151 tendons with Dyneema gain 82N in ultimate tensile strength compared with Prolene (p < 0.01). 152 In a previous study by Lawrence and Davis⁴, repairs with the Adelaide technique reached a 153 mean ultimate tensile strength of 63N with a 4-0 Prolene suture; all their repairs reportedly 154 failed by suture rupture. On the contrary, in our study Adelaide tendons failed by suture pullout 155 in 9 out of 10 cases with Prolene and 8 out of 10 cases with Dyneema. Varying outcomes with 156 Adelaide and Prolene may be attributed to differences in tendon quality, suture caliber, and 157 loading speed during testing.

158 With Dyneema, Adelaide tendons in our study reached 79N, a similar tensile strength to Adelaide with 4-0 Fiberwire in the study by Lawrence and Davis ⁴, whereas the maximum 159 tensile strength reported for Adelaide was 119N with 3-0 Fiberwire in the study by Croog et 160 al.⁹ This difference may be explained by the cross-section area of the sutures²⁵: the area of 3-0 161 162 Fiberwire was 0.083mm² corresponding to a standard 2-0 size (USP), whereas the area of 4-0 Fiberwire wass 0.067mm² which is between standard 2-0 and 3-0 size, and that of a 3-0 Prolene 163 was 0.056mm², also between 2-0 and 3-0. By comparison, the cross-section area of 0.25mm 164 165 Dyneema suture we used would be 0.049mm². This difference in suture caliber between 3-0 166 Fiberwire and 0.25mm Dyneema may explain the higher tensile strength for Adelaide tendons in the study by Croog et al. compared to our study¹⁴. 167

168 4.2. Secondary outcomes: cross-section area and 2-mm gap

169 There was no significant difference in cross-section area (suture site and healthy site) between170 the groups. The stress outcome thus mirrored the ultimate tensile strength.

The 2-mm gap formation force of RoC repairs was significantly higher than that of Adelaide repairs with Dyneema, but similar with Prolene. As with the ultimate tensile strength, lower resistance of the Prolene suture may explain this outcome. Gap formation (1 to 3mm) has been associated with adhesions and poorer clinical results ^{28,29}, but the exact limit for tendon healing remains unknown ⁹.

176 4.3 Suture material and failure mode

Dyneema is the main component of the most resistant current braided sutures, but also fishing 177 178 lines, climbing and boat ropes. We selected the most resistant available suture to test the repair 179 technique itself and the knot without limitation related to the intrinsic resistance of the material. 180 While using a Prolene suture for the RoC repair, failure occurred at 63N because of suture 181 breakage. With the more resistant Dyneema suture, RoC tendons failed by suture pullout. In 182 Adelaide tendons repaired with Prolene, suture pullout occurred in all but one case before 183 reaching the maximum resistance of the suture or the knot. Suture pullout was also the main 184 failure mode with Dyneema, but this result may be impacted by the use of a cutting needle. 185 Indeed, the Dyneema suture was used with a separate cutting needle, whereas the Prolene suture 186 has a pre-mounted taper needle. We hypothesize that the RoC repair with a surgical Dyneema 187 suture and mounted taper needle such as Fiberwire would result in few suture pullouts, which 188 may increase the ultimate tensile strength of the repair.

189 4.4. Limitations

190 The main limitation in this study is the use of a non-surgical Dyneema unmounted braid,

191 instead of a surgical Dyneema suture, which was unavailable at the time of the study. The

192 core resistance of the Dyneema suture we used should be identical to that of a surgical suture,

193	but surface treatments and threading techniques can alter the biomechanical properties.
194	Moreover, the use of a separate cutting needle, different in shape and size from the pre-
195	mounted needle of a surgical suture, may have increased the tissue damage during the repair
196	and favored suture pullout. Therefore, these outcomes require further confirmation with a
197	surgical Dyneema suture.
198	Other limitations are the classic limitations of in-vitro biomechanical studies for flexor tendon
199	repair and their extrapolation to in-vivo conditions. The unique axial tensile test fails to
200	account for different speeds and angles of elongation stress, for fatigue after multiple cycles,
201	and for work of flexion, which will be the object of a following study. The use of porcine
202	flexor tendons instead of human cadaver tendons can also constitute a limitation, although
203	most studies about flexor repair have used porcine tendons due to their similarities to human
204	tendons and the easy access to well-preserved tissue. Thus, the next step to evaluate the RoC
205	repair will be a comparative work of flexion study on cadaver hands.
206	
207	
208	
209	
210	
211	
212	
213	
214	

215 REFERENCES

- 216 1. Sandow MJ, McMahon M. Active mobilisation following single cross grasp four-
- strand flexor tenorrhaphy (Adelaide repair). J Hand Surg Eur Vol. 2011;36(6):467-475.
- 218 doi:10.1177/1753193411405937

Strickland JW. Development of flexor tendon surgery: Twenty-five years of progress.
 J Hand Surg. 2000;25(2):214-235. doi:10.1053/jhsu.2000.jhsu25a0214

3. Wu YF, Tang JB. Recent developments in flexor tendon repair techniques and factors

influencing strength of the tendon repair. *J Hand Surg Eur Vol.* 2014;39(1):6-19.

doi:10.1177/1753193413492914

4. Lawrence TM, Davis TRC. A Biomechanical Analysis of Suture Materials and Their

Influence on a Four-Strand Flexor Tendon Repair. J Hand Surg. 2005;30(4):836-841.

- doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2005.03.011
- 5. Taras JS, Raphael JS, Marczyk SC, Bauerle WB. Evaluation of suture caliber in flexor

tendon repair. J Hand Surg. 2001;26(6):1100-1104. doi:10.1053/jhsu.2001.28946

229 6. Trail IA, Powell ES, Noble J. An evaluation of suture materials used in tendon

230 surgery. J Hand Surg Edinb Scotl. 1989;14(4):422-427. doi:10.1016/0266-7681(89)90160-5

231 7. Vizesi F, Jones C, Lotz N, Gianoutsos M, Walsh WR. Stress relaxation and creep:

232 viscoelastic properties of common suture materials used for flexor tendon repair. J Hand

233 Surg. 2008;33(2):241-246. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2007.10.011

8. Chauhan A, Palmer BA, Merrell GA. Flexor Tendon Repairs: Techniques, Eponyms,

- and Evidence. J Hand Surg. 2014;39(9):1846-1853. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2014.06.025
- 236 9. Croog A, Goldstein R, Nasser P, Lee SK. Comparative Biomechanic Performances of
- 237 Locked Cruciate Four-Strand Flexor Tendon Repairs in an Ex Vivo Porcine Model. J Hand
- 238 Surg. 2007;32(2):225-232. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2006.11.009
- 239 10. Waitayawinyu T, Martineau P, Luria S, Hanel D, Trumble T. Comparative

240 Biomechanic Study of Flexor Tendon Repair Using FiberWire. J Hand Surg. 2008;33(5):701-

241 708. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2008.01.010

- 242 11. Woythal L, Hølmer P, Brorson S. Splints, with or without wrist immobilization,
- 243 following surgical repair of flexor tendon lesions of the hand: A systematic review. Hand
- 244 Surg Rehabil. 2019;38(4):217-222. doi:10.1016/j.hansur.2019.05.004
- 245 12. Klifto CS, Bookman J, Paksima N. Postsurgical Rehabilitation of Flexor Tendon
- 246 Injuries. J Hand Surg. 2019;44(8):680-686. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2019.02.010
- 247 13. Moriya K, Yoshizu T, Tsubokawa N, Narisawa H, Maki Y. Incidence of tenolysis and
- 248 features of adhesions in the digital flexor tendons after multi-strand repair and early active
- 249 motion. J Hand Surg Eur Vol. 2019;44(4):354-360. doi:10.1177/1753193418809796
- 250 14. Pan ZJ, Pan L, Xu YF, Ma T, Yao LH. Outcomes of 200 digital flexor tendon repairs
- using updated protocols and 30 repairs using an old protocol: experience over 7 years. J Hand
- 252 Surg Eur Vol. 2020;45(1):56-63. doi:10.1177/1753193419883579
- 253 15. Schuind F, Garcia-Elias M, Cooney WP, An K-N. Flexor tendon forces: In vivo
- 254 measurements. J Hand Surg. 1992;17(2):291-298. doi:10.1016/0363-5023(92)90408-H
- 255 16. Savage R. In vitro studies of a new method of flexor tendon repair. J Hand Surg Br
- 256 Eur Vol. 1985;10(2):135-141. doi:10.1016/0266-7681(85)90001-4
- 257 17. Vigler M, Palti R, Goldstein R, Patel VP, Nasser P, Lee SK. Biomechanical Study of
- 258 Cross-Locked Cruciate Versus Strickland Flexor Tendon Repair. J Hand Surg.
- 259 2008;33(10):1826-1833. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2008.07.009
- 260 18. Hirpara KM, Sullivan PJ, Raheem O, O'Sullivan ME. A biomechanical analysis of
- 261 multistrand repairs with the Silfverskiöld peripheral cross-stitch. Bone Jt J. 2007;89-
- 262 B(10):1396-1401. doi:10.1302/0301-620X.89B10.19360
- 263 19. McLarney E, Hoffman H, Wolfe SW. Biomechanical analysis of the cruciate four-
- 264 strand flexor tendon repair. *J Hand Surg.* 1999;24(2):295-301. doi:10.1053/jhsu.1999.0295

- 265 20. Torres Fuentes CE, Carvajal Flechas FS, Hernández JA, et al. Helical 6-Strand
- 266 Cruciate Tenorrhaphy: Description of a New Technique and Biomechanical Comparative
- 267 Analysis With 2 Standard Techniques. *Hand N Y N*. Published online January 23,
- 268 2020:1558944719897132. doi:10.1177/1558944719897132
- 269 21. Lee JS, Wong Y-R, Tay S-C. Asymmetric 6-Strand Flexor Tendon Repair -
- 270 Biomechanical Analysis Using Barbed Suture. J Hand Surg Asian-Pac Vol. 2019;24(3):297-
- 271 302. doi:10.1142/S2424835519500371
- 272 22. Çolak Ö, Kankaya Y, Sungur N, et al. Barbed sutures versus conventional tenorrhaphy
- in flexor tendon repair: An ex vivo biomechanical analysis. Arch Plast Surg. 2019;46(3):228-
- 274 234. doi:10.5999/aps.2018.00962
- 275 23. Jordan MC, Schmitt V, Jansen H, Meffert RH, Hoelscher-Doht S. Biomechanical
- 276 Analysis of the Modified Kessler, Lahey, Adelaide, and Becker Sutures for Flexor Tendon
- 277 Repair. J Hand Surg. 2015;40(9):1812-1817. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2015.05.032
- 278 24. Wu YF, Tang JB. Effects of tension across the tendon repair site on tendon gap and
- 279 ultimate strength. J Hand Surg. 2012;37(5):906-912. doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2012.01.004
- 280 25. Scherman P, Haddad R, Scougall P, Walsh WR. Cross-Sectional Area and Strength
- 281 Differences of Fiberwire, Prolene, and Ticron Sutures. J Hand Surg. 2010;35(5):780-784.
- 282 doi:10.1016/j.jhsa.2010.02.005
- 283 26. Solla F, Tran A, Bertoncelli D, Musoff C, Bertoncelli CM. Why a P-Value is Not
- 284 Enough. Clin Spine Surg. 2018;31(9):385-388. doi:10.1097/BSD.000000000000695
- 285 27. Angeles JG, Heminger H, Mass DP. Comparative biomechanical performances of 4-
- strand core suture repairs for zone II flexor tendon lacerations. *J Hand Surg*. 2002;27(3):508-
- 287 517.
- 288 28. Seradge H. Elongation of the repair configuration following flexor tendon repair. J
 289 Hand Surg. 1983;8(2):182-185. doi:10.1016/S0363-5023(83)80012-4

290	29.	Gelberman RH, Boyer MI, Brodt MD, Winters SC, Silva MJ. The Effect of Gap
291	Forma	ation at the Repair Site on the Strength and Excursion of Intrasynovial Flexor Tendons.
292	An ex	perimental study on the early stages of tendon-healing in dogs. J Bone Jt Surg Am.
293	1999;8	81: 975-982.
294		
295		
296		
297		
200		
298		
299		
300		
301		
302		
303		
204		
304		
305		
306		
307		
308		
309		
507		
310		

311	Legend
-----	--------

- Figure 1. Study protocol. Allocation of each group of 10 tendons to a repair technique and asuture type.
- Figure 2. Illustration of the basic pattern of the RoC repair following passages of the suture in
- 315 the order of realization (A). Illustration of the completed RoC repair (B).
- Figure 3. Basic configuration of the RoC repair with Prolene 3-0 suture on the distal end of aporcine flexor tendon.
- 318 Figure 4. A : Instron 3360 traction machine. B : HD camera and ruler for the 2-mm gap force.
- 319 C : Example of a tendon sutured with the RoC technique. Simultaneous display of the applied
- load (236N) and the video image of the tendon and ruler measuring 2-mm gap.
- 321 Table 1: Mechanical testing in axial traction.
- 322 Table 2: Statistical comparison of tendons sutured with Prolene suture: RoC versus Adelaide

323 technique (Group A versus C)

- 324 Table 3: Statistical analysis of tendons sutured with Dyneema suture. RoC versus Adelaide
- 325 technique (Group B versus D)

326

Figure 1: The groups

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
Repair	RoC	Roc	Adelaide	Adelaide
Material	Prolene	Dyneema	Prolene	Dyneema

Figure 2 RoC suture: drawing





Figure 3 RoC suture: repaired tendon



Figure 4: Instrom machine



<u>Table 1</u>. Mechanical testing in axial traction. Results are presented for each numeric outcome as Median value [95% Confidence Interval]. Failure mode is expressed as Number of tendons out of 10.

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
	RoC +	RoC +	Adelaide +	Adelaide +
	Prolene	Dyneema	Prolene	Dyneema
Ultimate tensile strength (N)	63.6	145.54	52.21	79.76
	[59.56 -	[130.96 -	[46.80 -	[72.57 - 88.28]
	69.49]	179.03]	58.79]	
2-mm gap force (N)	48.00	136.50	47.50	79.00
	[43.91 -	[119.23 -	[40.65 -	[71.82 - 87.37]
	54.28]	170.76]	53.34]	
Stiffness (N/mm)	5.95	14.92	4.48	10.12
	[5.30 - 6.73]	[12.67 -	[4.01 - 4.77]	[9.27 - 11.62]
		17.42]		
Stress (N/mm ²)	2.99	8.70	2.23	4.76
	[2.58 - 3.82]	[7.19 - 9.46]	[2.06 - 2.66]	[4.31 - 5.63]
Cross-section area at healthy	19.93	18.97	22.53	15.56
site (mm ²)	[17.40 -	[16.37 -	[20.51 -	[13.96 - 19.19]
	25.05]	21.41]	24.55]	
Cross-section area at suture	30.29	40.69	37.22	41.97
site (mm^2)	[25.71 -	[38.89 -	[33.38 -	[37.20 - 49.57]
	40.38]	48.65]	40.67]	
FAILURE MODE :	n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	n=10
Suture breakage	10/10	0	1/10	0
Knot failure	0	0	0	2/10
Suture pullout	0	10/10	9/10	8/10

Table 2. Statistical comparison of tendons sutured with Prolene suture: RoC versus Adelaide technique (Group A versus C)

	Group A	Group C	Comparison group A
	RoC + Prolene	Adelaide + Prolene	versus C
Ultimate tensile strength	63.6	52.21	p < 0.01
(N)	[59.56 - 69.49]	[46.80 - 58.79]	
2-mm gap force (N)	48.00	47.50	p > 0.05
	[43.91 - 54.28]	[40.65 - 53.34]	
Stiffness (N/mm)	5.95	4.48	p < 0.01
	[5.30 - 6.73]	[4.01 - 4.77]	
Stress (N/mm ²)	2.99	2.23	p < 0.05
	[2.58 - 3.82]	[2.06 - 2.66]	
Cross-section area at	19.93	22.53	p > 0.05
healthy site (mm ²)	[17.40 - 25.05]	[20.51 - 24.55]	
Cross-section area at	30.29	37.22	p > 0.05
suture site (mm ²)	[25.71 - 40.38]	[33.38 - 40.67]	
FAILURE MODE :	n = 10	n = 10	
Suture breakage	10 (100%)	1 (10%)	
Knot failure	0	0	p < 0.001
Suture pullout	0	9 (90%)	

Table 3. Statistical analysis of tendons sutured with Dyneema suture. RoC versus Adelaide technique (Group B versus D)

	Group B	Group D	Comparison
	RoC + Dyneema	Adelaide + Dyneema	B vs D
Ultimate tensile	145.54	79.76	p < 0.01
strength (N)	[130.96 - 179.03]	[72.57 - 88.28]	
2-mm gap force (N)	136.50	79.00	p < 0.01
	[119.23 - 170.76]	[71.82 - 87.37]	
Stiffness (N/mm)	14.92	10.12	p < 0.01
	[12.67 - 17.42]	[9.27 - 11.62]	
Stress (N/mm ²)	8.70	4.76	p < 0.01
	[7.19 - 9.46]	[4.31 - 5.63]	
Cross-section area at	18.97	15.56	p > 0.05
healthy site (mm ²)	[16.37 - 21.41]	[13.96 - 19.19]	
Cross-section area at	40.69	41.97	p > 0.05
suture site (mm ²)	[38.89 - 48.65]	[37.20 - 49.57]	
FAILURE MODE :	n = 10	n = 10	
Suture breakage	0	0	
Knot failure	0	2 (20%)	p = 0.47
Suture pullout	10 (100%)	8 (80%)	