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2 PROFESSOR TED WHITTEM (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-4182-903X)

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8 **A controlled randomised clinical trial to assess post-operative analgesia after**
9 **thiopental-isoflurane anaesthesia or total intravenous anaesthesia with**
10 **alfaxalone in dogs.**

11 **Running Title:** No analgesia from alfaxalone TIVA in dogs12 Paula M. Bennell, Ted Whitem¹ and Elizabeth Tudor.

13 Melbourne Veterinary School, University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC 3010

14 ¹ Author for correspondence

15 Phone +61 3 9731 2061

16 ted.whitem@unimelb.edu.au

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Alfaxalone, a synthetic neuroactive steroid, has been attributed with properties including sedation,
19 anaesthesia and analgesia. The clinical relevance of any analgesic properties of alfaxalone has not
20 been demonstrated. This study was a prospective, blinded, randomised, negative control clinical trial
21 in 65 healthy dogs presented for ovariohysterectomy. Anaesthesia was induced and maintained; for
22 Group 1 (TIVA) dogs (n=30) with intravenous alfaxalone alone and for Group 2 dogs (n=35) with
23 thiopental followed by isoflurane in 100% oxygen inhalation. After ovariohysterectomy, quantitative

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24 measures of pain or nociception were recorded at 15 min intervals for 4 h using three independent
25 scoring systems; a composite measure pain scale (CMPS), von Frey threshold testing and measures
26 of fentanyl rescue analgesia. The mean CMPS scores of Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs remained higher
27 than Group 1 (TIVA) dogs from 15 to 135 min post-surgery but this difference was not statistically
28 significant. There were no significant differences between groups in the proportions of dogs
29 requiring rescue fentanyl analgesia, the total fentanyl dose used or the time to first fentanyl dose.
30 Frey threshold testing was found to be unsuitable for measurement of pain in this experimental
31 model. When administered as total intravenous anaesthesia, alfaxalone did not provide analgesia in
32 the post-operative period.

33 **Key Words:** alfaxalone, anaesthesia, analgesia, dog, thiopental, TIVA

34 INTRODUCTION

35 Alfaxalone is a progesterone derivative which acts as a synthetic neuroactive steroid. Neuroactive
36 steroids influence a variety of behavioural and neuroendocrine processes (Lambert, Belelli et al.,
37 1995; Belelli & Lambert, 2005; Dubrovsky, 2005). Demonstrated activities of neurosteroids include
38 sedation, general anaesthesia and analgesia. The analgesic properties of neurosteroids have been
39 attributed to a positive allosteric potentiation of ligand-gated gamma-amino butyric acid type A
40 (GABA_A) receptors and to inhibition of voltage-gated T-type Ca²⁺ channels (Goodchild, Guo et al.,
41 2000; Todorovic, Pathirathna et al., 2004; Pathirathna, Todorovic et al., 2005). Modifications to
42 structure alter activity, so not all neurosteroids exhibit all activities (Maitra & Reynolds, 1998; Visser,
43 Gladdines et al., 2002). Alfaxalone has been demonstrated to alleviate thermal and mechanical
44 hyperalgesia in rats (Gilron &Coderre, 1996; Pathirathna, Todorovic et al., 2005). However, some
45 experimental studies with alfaxalone in laboratory animals, in cats and in dogs have failed to
46 demonstrate analgesic properties (Nadeson & Goodchild, 2000; Murison & Taboada, 2010; Bennett,
47 Salla et al., 2017). Whether alfaxalone provides analgesia for dogs in clinical settings has not been
48 evaluated.

49 Alfaxalone is formulated in 2-hydroxypropyl beta cyclodextrin for use as a veterinary anaesthetic for
50 cats and dogs (Alfaxan[®], Jurox Pty. Ltd, Rutherford, NSW, Australia). The formulation is labelled for
51 the induction and maintenance of general anaesthesia by intravenous bolus injection and
52 intravenous infusion. The properties and use of this formulation in the dog were initially described
53 elsewhere (Ferre, Pasloske et al., 2006; Muir, Lerche et al., 2008; Pasloske, Sauer et al., 2009).

54 The barbiturate intravenous anaesthetic thiopental is not thought to have any analgesic effects
55 (Ilkiw, 2002; Ilkiw, 2002). Isoflurane is a volatile anaesthetic agent used for maintenance of general
56 anaesthesia in dogs, similarly without analgesic effects (Cheng, Yeh et al., 2008).

57 The routine veterinary surgical procedure of ovariohysterectomy in dogs is an example of painful
58 surgery. Administration of an analgesic agent or agents prior to the surgical insult is thought to pre-
59 emptively improve analgesic outcomes. Effective pre-emptive analgesia is thought to require both
60 the establishment of an effective degree of analgesia before injury and the continuation of this
61 analgesia into the post-injury period (Ong, Lirk et al., 2005).

62 Although multimodal analgesia is recommended, it is also known that with an increasing number of
63 agents that are co-administered, the probability of adverse drug reactions increases (Fattinger, Roos
64 et al., 2000). Therefore, it would be ideal if the anaesthetic agent used for total intravenous
65 anaesthesia (TIVA) also contributed to analgesia.

66 Several methods have been developed to quantify the amount of pain or nociception perceived by
67 dogs. Ordinal scales such as the Colorado State University (Hellyer & Gaynor, 1998) and University of
68 Melbourne (Firth & Haldane, 1999) pain scales are based on both behavioural and physiological
69 characteristics. These ordinal scales can be difficult to use experimentally because the effect-
70 distance between ordinal steps is either not known or not equal, precluding reliable interpretation
71 of statistical evaluation. A modification of the Glasgow Pain Scale (Holton, Reid et al., 2001) created
72 an interval level composite measure pain scale (CMPS) where the intervals are thought to be of
73 similar size. Differences observed between the CMPS scores of orthopaedic and of soft tissue
74 surgery, medical and control groups enabled the CMPS to discriminate between levels of pain among
75 treatment groups (Morton, Reid et al., 2005).

76 In order to quantify mechanical sensitivity, von Frey developed a testing system based on a series of
77 calibrated filaments that bend with the application of a known force (von Frey, 1922). In dogs, von
78 Frey filaments have been used to assess mechanical nociceptive thresholds adjacent to a surgical
79 incision on the common digital pad (Duque, Valadao et al., 2004).

80 Interventions in the post-operative period can be used to achieve desired levels of analgesia. Such
81 "rescue" analgesia not only fulfils clinical and ethical obligations but offers a quantitative measure of
82 pain. The proportion of subjects that require rescue analgesia, total analgesic consumption and time
83 to first analgesic administration have each been used to compare the analgesic effects of earlier
84 interventions (Lloyd, Derry et al., 2009; Morgaz, Navarrete et al., 2013). The opioid agonist fentanyl
85 has a rapid onset of action and a short duration of action and therefore is a suitable agent for rescue

86 analgesia where quantification of the analgesic consumption is desired (Sano, Nishimura et al., 2006;
87 Lamont & Mathews, 2007).

88 This study aimed to test the hypothesis that the neuroactive steroid alfaxalone when administered
89 to dogs in a TIVA protocol would provide analgesia in the post-surgical period. A secondary aim was
90 to compare three quantitative pain measurement techniques for the clinical assessment of post-
91 operative pain in dogs.

92 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

93 This study was conducted with the approval of the University of Melbourne Animal Ethics
94 Committee (Approval Number 16148) and the care and use of the animals conformed to national
95 guidelines. The study conformed to the principals of Good Clinical Practice (Anonymous, 2001).

96 Experimental design

97 This study enrolled 65 healthy assorted breed dogs aged from 6 months to 8 years, in a prospective,
98 negative controlled, randomised, investigator-masked clinical trial. The study was conducted
99 between January and June 2007 in Melbourne, Australia. Dogs were eligible for enrolment if they
100 were presented at an animal welfare shelter for ovariohysterectomy and were deemed suitable for
101 the surgery by the attending veterinarian. Further inclusion criteria included; age (6 months to 8
102 years), weight (4 to 25 kg), American Society of Anaesthesiologists (ASA) category I status (American
103 Society of Anesthesiologists 1963). The ASA category scoring was based both on history and clinical
104 examination. Greyhounds and other sight-hounds were excluded because of the prolonged action of
105 thiopental in these breeds (Sams, Muir et al., 1985). The surgery duration was timed and inclusion
106 was restricted to surgeries which were between 10 and 30 minutes in duration.

107 Dogs were randomly allocated without restriction to an anaesthetic protocol group using tables
108 generated by one of the authors (ET) with the random function of Microsoft® Excel (Microsoft Corp.,
109 Redmond WA). The investigator author (PMB) was blinded to both treatment groups and sequence
110 and was not present during induction of anaesthesia or performance of the surgery. After
111 completion of the surgical procedure the animal was disconnected from any anaesthetic delivery
112 and monitoring devices and moved to a separate recovery room, where the investigator was
113 located, for post-operative monitoring.

114 Thirty to sixty minutes prior to the induction of anaesthesia the study dogs were pre-medicated
115 subcutaneously with 0.2 mg/kg of acepromazine (ACP 2; Delvet Pty Ltd, Seven Hills, Australia). This

116 dose was chosen because no other pre-medication was used. In addition, this dose is within the
117 approved labelled dose for acepromazine in the dog. Furthermore, acepromazine's effect on
118 cardiovascular parameters in healthy dogs at this dose have been demonstrated as minimal and also
119 to lack a dose response between 0.05 mg/kg and 1.1 mg/kg (Coulter, Whelan et al., 1981; Whittem,
120 Pasloske et al., 2006). Immediately prior to induction two peripheral veins of each subject were
121 catheterised.

122 Group 1 dogs (n=30) were anaesthetised with 2 mg/kg alfaxalone intravenously over 60 sec
123 (Alfaxan®; Jurox Pty Ltd, Rutherford, Australia) and maintained with a constant rate infusion of
124 alfaxalone diluted with normal saline (Group 1, TIVA). The dilution rate was such that the
125 administration of fluids approximated 2.0 mL/kg/h. The initial 12 cases received a TIVA rate of 7 mg
126 alfaxalone/kg/h. This rate was increased to 11 mg/kg/h for subsequent dogs to maintain a deeper
127 level of anaesthesia.

128 Groups 2 dogs (n=35) were anaesthetised with 5% thiopental at a calculated dose rate of 12.5 mg/kg
129 administered by intravenous boluses, to effect (VR Thiobarb Powder; Jurox Pty Ltd, Rutherford,
130 Australia) and anaesthesia was maintained with a vaporiser setting of ~2% isoflurane in oxygen
131 (I.S.O.; Veterinary Companies of Australia Pty Ltd, Artarmon, Australia) (Group 2, Thio/ISO). These
132 dogs also received a normal saline infusion at 2.0 mL/kg/h to simulate the fluid administration of the
133 Group 1 (TIVA) dogs.

134 Ovariohysterectomy was performed by experienced veterinarians using a standard midline open
135 laparotomy approach. Routine anaesthetic monitoring parameters were recorded at 5 min intervals
136 intra-operatively.

137 Assessment of pain

138 Pain was assessed pre-operatively for baseline determination and then following
139 ovariohysterectomy. Endotracheal extubation was initiated at first coughing or gagging response,
140 then the quantitative measures of pain were recorded at 15 min intervals for 4 h; CMPS, mechanical
141 sensitivity testing and titrated fentanyl rescue analgesia.

142 The CMPS assessment of acute pain in dogs used six of the seven behavioural categories; posture,
143 comfort, vocalisation, attention to wound, demeanour, and response to touch to give a total CMPS
144 score. Assessment of mobility was excluded from the CMPS in this study because of the differing
145 effects of the anaesthetic agents. Total CMPS scores for each time point were obtained by
146 summation of the values assigned to each of the six behavioural categories (Morton, Reid et al.,

147 2005). The maximum possible CMPS score was 11.53. A cut-off score of 2.3 out of 11.53 was chosen
148 by consensus in consultation with the Animal Welfare Officer, as the intervention point for rescue
149 analgesia.

150 Von Frey threshold testing was conducted using a series of 13 Touchtest™ Sensory Evaluators
151 (Stoelting Co., Wood Dale, Illinois, USA) with logarithmically incremental stiffness ranging from 0.6 to
152 180 grams. Von Frey hairs of increasing force were sequentially applied to the testing sites: carpal
153 pad; hind paw; wound-perpendicular; wound-stroking. If a response was obtained to the smallest
154 filament the threshold was assigned a value of 3.61 and if no response was observed to any filament
155 a threshold value of 6.45 was assigned. Von Frey thresholds within the testing range were
156 determined using two different methods. In the first method, the logarithmic value of the filament
157 one increment smaller than the first filament to which the dog responded was assigned as the
158 threshold. A second threshold value was computed using the up-down method of Dixon as
159 previously described (Chaplan, Bach et al., 1994).

160 Rescue analgesia was available to all dogs. Fentanyl (Fentanyl citrate; AstraZeneca Pty Ltd, North
161 Ryde, Australia) at 1 µg/kg was administered as an intravenous bolus if the CMPS score was greater
162 than 2.3 at any time in the post-operative monitoring period (Lamont & Mathews, 2007). For three
163 dogs the investigator deemed the level of analgesia achieved by repeat boluses of 1 µg/kg bolus of
164 fentanyl to be inadequate on ethical grounds and for the remainder of the monitoring period for
165 these cases the fentanyl bolus dose was increased to 2 µg/kg. The pain score remained above the
166 cut-off value for rescue analgesia despite using intravenous fentanyl bolus dosing for two dogs.
167 Postoperative monitoring was terminated early for these cases and upon exit from the study the
168 dogs were administered meloxicam subcutaneously at 0.2 mg/kg (Metacam Anti-inflammatory
169 Injectable for Dogs and Cats, Boehringer Ingelheim Animal Health Australia Pty. Ltd.). The time from
170 extubation to first dose of rescue analgesia was regarded as the primary outcome measure.

171 Other monitoring and secondary outcomes

172 Baseline rectal temperature was measured pre-surgery and mean rectal temperature at base line
173 was the same for both groups (38.4 C). Rectal temperature was also recorded during recovery.
174 Standard anaesthetic monitoring included heart and respiratory rates and oxygen saturation (SpO₂),
175 and reflexes responses.

176 Onset of anaesthesia was defined as the time of endotracheal intubation, and termination of
177 anaesthesia was defined as the time of endotracheal extubation.

178 Sedation scoring used the ordinal assessment scale evaluating posture and alertness to give a
179 numerical score from 0 (fully alert) to 5 (very sedate) as previously described (Hardie, Hansen et al.,
180 1997). All dogs were assessed for sedation for four hours post extubation, at which time they
181 received meloxicam subcutaneously at 0.2 mg/kg and were returned to the care of the shelter using
182 their standard operating procedures.

183

184 Statistics

185 An initial sample size was estimated at 55 dogs per group, calculated to allow detection of a
186 between-group effect difference of 1 based on known variance in the CMPS (Morton, Reid et al.,
187 2005), with 80% power and alpha error of 0.05.

188 Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism Version 5.00 for Windows (GraphPad
189 Software Inc., San Diego, California, USA) unless indicated otherwise. Results are presented as mean
190 \pm standard error; two-tailed P values \leq 0.05 were regarded as statistically significant.

191 Visual appraisal of 'box and whisker' and 'scatter dot' plots was used to assess the distribution of
192 data. Student's t tests were used for data of Gaussian distribution and Mann-Whitney tests were
193 used for data not of Gaussian distribution. The P values were calculated using Student's t tests
194 unless otherwise indicated. Fisher's exact test was used to compare proportions for the two
195 treatment groups.

196 The CMPS scores in the two treatment groups were analysed using repeated measures analysis of
197 variance. Data were assessed for a treatment effect, a time effect and a treatment by time
198 interaction. If a time effect was observed, Dunnett's multiple comparison test was used to compare
199 each post-operative time point with baseline.

200 Paired data were used to evaluate the response of dogs to fentanyl. Paired Student's t tests were
201 used for CMPS scores. Pre-rescue CMPS scores were compared to scores five minutes after rescue.
202 The exact McNemar's significance probability was used to compare two paired proportions.

203 Survival curves for the time to first rescue were compared using the Log-rank test and Cox regression
204 using Stata 9.2 for Windows. The Cox proportional hazards regression model was used to estimate a
205 hazard ratio (Cox, 1972). A hazard ratio of one indicates no effect of treatment.

206 **RESULTS**

207 Sample Population

208 None of the 65 dogs that were enrolled were excluded from the study prior to acquisition of the
209 primary outcome variable. Enrolled dogs were predominantly mixed-breed dogs with the large
210 variation in breeds reflecting the demographics of the dog population in the greater Melbourne area
211 (Table 1). All of the dogs enrolled satisfied ASA Class I criteria based on history and clinical
212 examination and no significant differences were detected between groups for baseline heart rate,
213 respiratory rate, rectal temperature bodyweight or age. The population variables are summarised
214 according to treatment group in Table 2.

215 Intraoperative monitoring

216 The thiopental plus isoflurane (Thio/ISO) and TIVA anaesthetic protocols were well tolerated by the
217 majority of dogs. Heart and respiratory rates and SpO₂ were acceptable throughout the anaesthetic
218 for all dogs in both groups. After the first 12 TIVA cases had completed the study, the initial TIVA
219 protocol was revised because a high proportion of these dogs required additional boluses to
220 maintain a surgical plane of anaesthesia. The revised TIVA protocol resulted in a more stable plane
221 of anaesthesia.

222 The number of intra-operative observations per dog varied according to surgery and anaesthetic
223 duration. Recordings made while the dogs were anaesthetised were averaged to give one intra-
224 operative measure per dog. The mean anaesthetised respiratory rate in Group 1 (TIVA) dogs was not
225 significantly different between dosing subgroups (Subgroup-1 = 16 ± 6.0 brpm versus Subgroup-2 =
226 16 ± 9.7 brpm, $p=0.93$). The mean intra-operative heart rate however, was significantly higher for
227 Group 1 (TIVA) dogs which received the higher dose (Subgroup-1 = 115 ± 14.9 bpm versus Subgroup-
228 2 = 134 ± 17.6 bpm, $p=0.007$). The heart rates (Group 1 = 117 ± 15.8 bpm versus Group 2 = $125 \pm$
229 19.1 bpm, $p=0.08$) and respiratory rates (Group 1 = 15 ± 6.5 brpm versus Group 2 = 16 ± 7.9 brpm,
230 $p=0.85$) did not differ statistically between the Groups 1 and 2.

231 Apnoea was subjectively assessed by study nurses. There were no significant differences in the
232 proportions of dogs experiencing apnoea when comparing sub-TIVA protocols or when comparing
233 treatment groups. There were no reports for either group of adverse effects.

234 For rectal temperature, a two way analysis of variance showed that there was no effect of treatment
235 group ($p=0.68$), but there was a time effect ($p<0.0001$) and a treatment group by time interaction
236 ($p<0.0001$). Dunnett's multiple comparison tests showed that mean rectal temperature from
237 extubation to 150 minutes were significantly different from baseline ($p<0.05$). All other time points

238 were not significantly different from baseline, suggesting that rectal temperature had returned to
239 normal 150 minutes after extubation.

240 von Frey filament scores

241 At baseline many of the dogs did not respond to any von Frey filament presented, at any of the four
242 testing sites (carpal pad, hind paw, wound-perpendicular, wound-stroking). When a response was
243 observed there was high variability in terms of the filament within the series which was responsible
244 for the response. A few dogs were responsive to the first filament in the series and these were
245 designated as having a threshold below testing range. If a response was not received for any
246 filament in the series the threshold was classed as above testing range. At all of the testing sites
247 except the hind paw, the majority of dogs had baseline thresholds above testing range.

248 The carpal pad and wound-stroking were the sites least responsive to the filaments. Fifty seven of 65
249 dogs (88%) had baseline carpal pad von Frey thresholds which were above the testing range and
250 post-operatively no carpal pad thresholds were able to be quantified. Similarly, 58 of 65 dogs (89 %)
251 did not respond to stroking of the proposed incision site pre-operatively and this proportion
252 increased post-operatively. The low frequency of responses at these two sites precluded them from
253 any further analysis.

254 The hind paw was the most sensitive site at baseline with 52 of 65 dogs (80 %) responsive. The
255 wound perpendicular was the next sensitive with 15 of 65 dogs (23 %) responding at baseline. The
256 responsiveness at both the hind paw and wound-perpendicular had decreased postoperatively with
257 the lowest proportion of responsive dogs for both sites occurring at 30 min. The reduced
258 responsiveness at the hind paw lasted for the duration of monitoring whereas the proportion of
259 dogs responding at the wound-perpendicular had returned to baseline level at 120 min. At 240 min
260 18 of 65 dogs (28 %) were responsive to wound-perpendicular testing, a higher percentage than at
261 any other time.

262 An inverse relationship between sedation and von Frey filaments responsiveness was suggested by
263 increasing proportions of responsive dogs with increasing time from extubation.

264 CMPS Pain Scores

265 The majority of dogs had baseline CMPS scores of 0.08 or 0.87 and the maximum pre-operative
266 CMPS score was 2.25. Temperament was attributed as a principal determinant of CMPS score at
267 baseline.

268 The mean CMPS scores are presented in Figure 1. Post-operative pain scores were higher than
269 baseline values and tended to increase with time. At extubation the mean CMPS score for Groups 1
270 and 2 dogs was similar but by 15 minutes the mean pain score of Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs had
271 exceeded that of Group 1 (TIVA) dogs. The mean CMPS scores of Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs remained
272 higher than the Group 1 (TIVA) dogs for 135 min. From 135 to 240 min there was increased variation
273 within groups and no obvious trend between groups. A two-way repeated-measures analysis of
274 variance on CMPS scores showed there was no significant effect of treatment ($p=0.84$) nor a
275 treatment by time interaction ($p=0.90$), although the effect of time was significant ($p<0.0001$).
276 Dunnett's multiple comparison test showed that every time point post-operatively was significantly
277 different from baseline ($p<0.05$).

278 The maximum CMPS score achieved by individual dogs was potentially reduced by rescue fentanyl
279 administration however this was still considered a worthwhile comparison between treatment
280 groups.

281 Maximum post-operative CMPS scores were compared for dogs in the two sub-TIVA groups. The
282 mean maximum post-operative CMPS score recorded for sub-TIVA1 was 2.60 ± 0.24 and the mean
283 maximum post-operative CMPS score for sub-TIVA2 was 2.54 ± 0.16 . These scores were not
284 significantly different ($p=0.81$) and the sub-groups were combined for further comparisons with the
285 Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs.

286 The maximum post-operative CMPS score recorded for a Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dog was 5.55, while the
287 maximum post-operative CMPS score reached by a Group 1 (TIVA) dog was 4.29. The maximum
288 post-operative CMPS scores for individual dogs in each group are shown in Figure 2. The Group 2
289 (THIO/ISO) dogs had a mean of 2.49 ± 0.18 ($n=35$) and the mean for Group 1 (TIVA) dogs was $2.58 \pm$
290 0.12 ($n=30$). There was no significant difference in the mean maximum postoperative CMPS scores
291 of the two treatment groups ($p=0.67$).

292 The mean of CMPS for shivering dogs (1.69 ± 0.072) was significantly different from non-shivering
293 dogs (1.26 ± 0.068) ($p<0.001$). There was no significant difference between post-operative body
294 temperatures by group.

295 Rescue analgesia

296 Intravenous bolus dosing with fentanyl provided rapid and effective analgesia which was successfully
297 titrated to effect.

298 Five of 11 (45 %) sub-TIVA1 dogs required rescue analgesia and 9 of 16 (56 %) sub-TIVA2 dogs
299 required rescue analgesia. There was no evidence of a significant difference in the proportions of
300 dogs requiring rescue treatment for the two sub-TIVA protocols ($p=0.70$). The mean total rescue
301 dose for sub-TIVA1 dogs was 1.0 ± 0.6 ug/kg ($n=10$) while sub-TIVA2 dogs received a mean total dose
302 of 2.1 ± 0.6 ug/kg ($n=16$). The mean total rescue doses were not significantly different ($p=0.23$).

303 There were no significant differences in the survival curves of time to first rescue for sub-TIVA1 and
304 sub-TIVA2 dogs (Log-rank test, $P=0.64$). The hazard ratio derived from the Cox proportional hazards
305 model was 1.3 (95% CI 0.4 to 3.9, $P=0.64$) when comparing sub-TIVA2 with sub-TIVA1. There was no
306 evidence that the two survival curves were not proportional to each other (Test for proportional
307 hazards, $P=0.42$). The time to first rescue for sub-TIVA1 dogs was 91 ± 45 minutes ($n=5$) and the time
308 to first rescue for sub-TIVA2 dogs was 93 ± 17 minutes ($n=9$). For rescued sub-TIVA dogs there was
309 no significant difference between protocols in the time to first rescue ($p=0.45$). Statistical analyses
310 showed no significant difference in the level of post-operative pain experienced by sub-TIVA1 and
311 sub-TIVA2 dogs, so these groups were pooled for comparisons between the two primary treatment
312 groups.

313 Thirty one of 65 dogs (48 %) included in the study required rescue analgesia: 15 of 35 (43 %) Group 2
314 (THIO/ISO) dogs and 16 of 30 (53 %) Group 1 (TIVA) dogs required rescue analgesia. These
315 proportions were not significantly different ($p = 0.46$). The largest total dose of rescue analgesic
316 given to any Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dog was 21 ug/kg compared to 8 ug/kg for any Group 1 (TIVA) dog.
317 Five dogs in Group 2 (THIO/ISO) required more rescue than the maximum Group 1 (TIVA) dog. The
318 mean total dose of rescue administered to Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs was 3.0 ± 1.0 ug/kg ($n=34$) and
319 for Group 1 (TIVA) dogs was 1.7 ± 0.4 ug/kg ($n=29$). There was no significant difference between
320 groups in the total amount of rescue administered ($p=0.92$). When only considering the dogs which
321 required rescue however, there was a significant difference in the total dose of rescue administered
322 between groups ($p=0.02$): the mean total dose for rescued Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs was 7.7 ± 1.7
323 ug/kg ($n=15$) and for rescued Group 1 (TIVA) dogs was 3.3 ± 0.6 ug/kg ($n=16$).

324 There did not appear to be any systematic pattern to the time to first rescue administration with
325 some dogs requiring analgesia immediately after extubation and some not requiring analgesia at all
326 during the four hours of post-operative monitoring. There was no obvious time when the risk of
327 requiring rescue was especially high for either of the groups, although from 30 to 120 min Group 2
328 (THIO/ISO) dogs were at slightly more risk than Group 1 (TIVA) dogs. There were no significant
329 differences in the survival curves of time to first rescue of the groups (Log-rank test, $P=0.54$) (see
330 Figure 3). The hazard ratio derived from the Cox proportional hazards model was 1.2 (95% CI 0.6 to

331 2.5, $P=0.54$) when comparing groups. There was no evidence that the two survival curves were not
332 proportional to each other (Test for proportional hazards, $P=0.22$). Given that a dog needed rescue,
333 the time to first rescue for Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs was 82 ± 17 min and for Group 1 (TIVA) dogs
334 was 107 ± 17 min. For dogs given rescue, there was no significant difference detectable between
335 groups in the time to first rescue ($p=0.30$).

336 In summary, the dogs anaesthetised with thiopental plus isoflurane versus those anaesthetised with
337 alfaxalone TIVA experienced post-operative pain which was not statistically different in degree.

338 General

339 The relationship between sedation score and CMPS was examined: both the mean CMPS and the
340 individual within-dog CMPS changed by -0.003 for every one unit increase in sedation score.
341 However, these were not statistically significant associations ($p = 0.89$ and $p = 0.86$, respectively).

342 Shivering was found to strongly correlate with pain scores. Heart rate and respiratory rate were also
343 statistically correlated with pain scores, but these two associations were not perceived to be
344 clinically important because of the small dimension of the changes, i.e. insensitivity.

345 Alfaxalone using TIVA was effective as an anaesthetic; characterised by a stable plane of anaesthesia
346 and a smooth, rapid and uneventful recovery. Although dogs in the Group 1 (TIVA) were maintained
347 for the duration of surgery on a continuous intravenous infusion, the speed of anaesthetic recovery
348 in these dogs was not delayed relative to the inhaled anaesthetic Group 2 (THIO/ISO) dogs.

349 **DISCUSSION**

350 Mechanical testing using manual von Frey filaments was unable to yield reliable results in these dogs
351 because some responded with unpredictable variability while others did not respond at all. This
352 finding may reflect inter-animal differences in breed, age, sex, previous conditioning or the
353 instinctive masking of behavioural changes which may complicate the assessment of pain in animals.

354 The challenge of assessing post-operative pain in dogs is aided by valid, reliable and reproducible
355 behavioural pain scales and an understanding of the parameters which consistently indicate pain.
356 The composite measure pain scale (CMPS) used in this study was an effective pain assessment tool
357 which was sensitive to both surgery and analgesic administration. The sensitivity of the CMPS to
358 surgical pain was demonstrated by significant differences in pain scores before and after surgery.
359 Significant reductions in CMPS scores after the administration of the rescue fentanyl validated the
360 sensitivity of the CMPS to analgesic treatment.

361 The finding that sedation scores were not associated with CMPS between groups or within
362 individuals suggests that evaluation of CMPS scores for the groups was not confounded by sedation.

363 Fentanyl proved to be an ideal rescue analgesic agent; its rapid onset of effective analgesia
364 combined with a short duration of action ensured that pain was ethically managed while enabling
365 titration of analgesia on an individual basis. In this study the use of rescue analgesia served as the
366 end point for quantitative pain scoring because it affected all of the other pain measurements. The
367 groups did not differ statistically in pain score, perhaps because the group sizes may have been too
368 small to provide sufficient power to identify real differences or because of the large inter-dog
369 variability and the parallel group study design.

370 The enrolled number of dogs represented 65/110 (59%) of the target sample population based on
371 the *a priori* power calculation. For pragmatic reasons this study was terminated prior to enrolling the
372 targeted number of dogs. The power calculation was made based on the ordinal CMPS scoring
373 system, since *a priori* information about variance of this primary outcome measure was available.
374 While it is possible that enrolment of more animals might have resulted in identification of a
375 statistically significant difference between groups, the effect-size of the difference between means
376 of groups in this study was only 0.09 i.e., 2.58 (Group 1, TIVA) minus 2.49 (Group 2, THIO/ISO). Even
377 if it were statistically significant, we contend that this effect size is clinically irrelevant. Our
378 contention is supported by the analysis of the secondary outcome, the percent of dogs administered
379 fentanyl for rescue analgesia versus time from extubation (figure 3). This analysis showed that the
380 Group 1 (TIVA) dogs required less rescue analgesia than Group 2 (THIO/ISO) during the first 2 post-
381 operative hours but crossed over with Group 2 (THIO/ISO) and required more in hours 2 to 4 post
382 operatively. The potential for alfaxalone to provide analgesia has been in dispute; Gilron (Gilron &
383 Coderre, 1996) and Nadeson (Nadeson & Goodchild, 2000) used different laboratory animal models
384 of analgesia and achieved contrasting results. In the cat alfaxalone was not demonstrated to
385 produce detectable pre-emptive analgesia (Murison & Taboada, 2010). Our study also failed to
386 demonstrate from intravenous alfaxalone a discernible analgesic effect of a clinically relevant
387 dimension, in the dog.

388 The possibility of a relationship between shivering and pain in dogs does not appear to have been
389 previously reported in the literature. Shivering was a reliable indicator of pain in dogs in this
390 experimental setting. The clinical utility of shivering as an indicator of pain may be compromised by
391 the post-anaesthetic return of the shivering reflex and the lowered core body temperature caused
392 by the anaesthesia and surgery (Muir, Lerche et al., 2008). The identified association between

393 shivering and higher pain scores and the known physiological response of shivering to hypothermia
394 together justify effort to avoid hypothermia during anaesthesia for surgical procedures.

395 The rescue analgesia protocol used in this study largely alleviated the ethical cost of conducting a
396 negative-controlled clinical trial for analgesia. The trial site was chosen for this study because it used
397 no routine pre-emptive analgesia in its anaesthetic protocol. Therefore, conduct of this study
398 improved animal welfare at the trial site and, further, demonstrated the benefits to both animal
399 welfare and surgical recovery consequent from the use of analgesic drugs. The trial site now
400 routinely includes pre-emptive analgesics in its pre-anaesthetic protocol, as the acceptable minimum
401 standard for surgical procedures at the time of publication.

402 The neuroactive steroid alfaxalone, when administered as a combination of intravenous bolus and
403 constant rate infusion in a total intravenous anaesthetic protocol, did not provide analgesia in the
404 post-operative period for dogs undergoing ovariohysterectomy.

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408 **Conflicts of Interest**

409 One of the authors (TW) was an employee of Jurox at the time of the in-life parts of this study. No
410 other conflicts of interest exist.

411 **Author Contribution**

412 All authors contributed equally to this study and have read and approved the final manuscript.

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516
 517 **Table 1** Number of dogs enrolled according to breed and treatment allocation.

Breed	Thio/ISO †	TIVA ‡
SMALL BREEDS (≤8 KG)		
Chihuahua	1	0
Fox Terrier	1	0
Jack Russell Terrier	6	7
Maltese	2	1
Pomeranian	2	2
Pomeranian/Australian Terrier	0	1
Poodle	1	0
Pug	0	1
Sheltie/Terrier	0	1
Silky Terrier/Maltese	1	0
Terrier	6	5
Terrier/Kelpie	0	1

LARGE BREEDS (>8KG)

Australian Bull Terrier/Staffordshire Bull Terrier	1	0
Beagle	0	2
Border Collie	0	2
Boxer	2	0
Boxer/Staffordshire Terrier	1	0
German Coolie	0	1
German Shepherd/Kelpie	0	1
German Shepherd	1	0
Golden Retriever	1	0
Heeler	1	0
Kelpie	1	3
Kelpie/Labrador	1	0
Labrador	2	0
Rhodesian Ridgeback	1	0
Staffordshire Bull Terrier	2	2
Staffordshire Bull Terrier/Jack Russell Terrier	1	0
Total	35	30

518 † Thiopental and Isoflurane

519 ‡ Total Intravenous Anaesthesia

Table 2 Baseline variables according to treatment group. The number of Group 1 (TIVA)[‡] dogs was 30 and Group 2 (Thio/ISO)[†] dogs was 35.

Baseline variable	Group 1 (TIVA)					Group 2 (Thio/ISO)					p value
	Mean	SE	SD	Median	Range	Mean	SE	SD	Median	Range	
Weight (kg)	9	0.97	5.31	6.55	3.5 to 21.4	9.6	1.06	6.24	6.2	3.0 to 22.4	0.94 ^a
Age (years)	2.2	0.3	1.6	2	0.5 to 7.0	1.9	0.2	1.3	1.5	0.5 to 5.0	0.37 ^a
Heart rate (beats per minute)	125	5.5	30.1	124	84 to 216	123	4.9	28.8	120	76 to 192	0.81
Respiratory rate (breaths per minute)	26	1.6	9	24	12 to 60	39	5.8	34.5	28	12 to 156	0.30 ^a
Respiratory rate* (breaths per minute)	26	1.6	9	24	12 to 60	32	3.3	19	28	12 to 96	0.50 ^a
Rectal temperature (° C)	38.4	0.08	0.45	38.35	37.7 to 39.6	38.4	0.1	0.57	38.4	37.3 to 39.7	0.86
Sedation score	1	0.1	0.3	1	1 to 2	1	0.1	0.5	1	1 to 2	0.01 ^a
CMPS score[§]	0.73	0.13	0.7	0.87	0.08 to 2.25	0.71	0.12	0.72	0.87	0 to 2.25	0.88

† Thiopental and Isoflurane

‡ Total Intravenous Anaesthesia

§ composite measure pain scale

a p value derived using Mann-Whitney test

* Excluding two panting dogs which were assigned 156 for respiratory rate

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Composite measure pain scale score (mean \pm SE) by treatment group and time from extubation; Group 1 (TIVA, Total Intravenous Anaesthesia) dogs n= 29 and Group 2 (Thio/ISO, Thiopental and Isoflurane) dogs n= 34. Post-operative monitoring for one dog from each group was terminated early and these were excluded from this graph.

Figure 2: Maximum post-operative composite measure pain scale score according to treatment group; Group 1 (TIVA, Total Intravenous Anaesthesia) dogs n= 30 and Group 2 (Thio/ISO, Thiopental and Isoflurane) dogs n= 35. The maximum post-operative composite measure pain scales scores were not significantly different between groups (p = 0.67). Symbols in the graph represent the following;

---- Mean
— Median
■ Standard error
┆ Range
□ Interquartile range

Figure 3: Percent of dogs administered rescue analgesia and standard errors according to treatment group and time from extubation; Group 1 (TIVA, Total Intravenous Anaesthesia) dogs n= 30 and Group 2 (Thio/ISO, Thiopental and Isoflurane) dogs n= 35. There were no significant differences in the survival curves of time to first rescue between groups (Log-rank test, p=0.54).

Figure 1:

Composite measure pain scale score

Figure 2:

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Figure 3:

Maximum CMPS Score

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Percent rescued

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Figure 1:

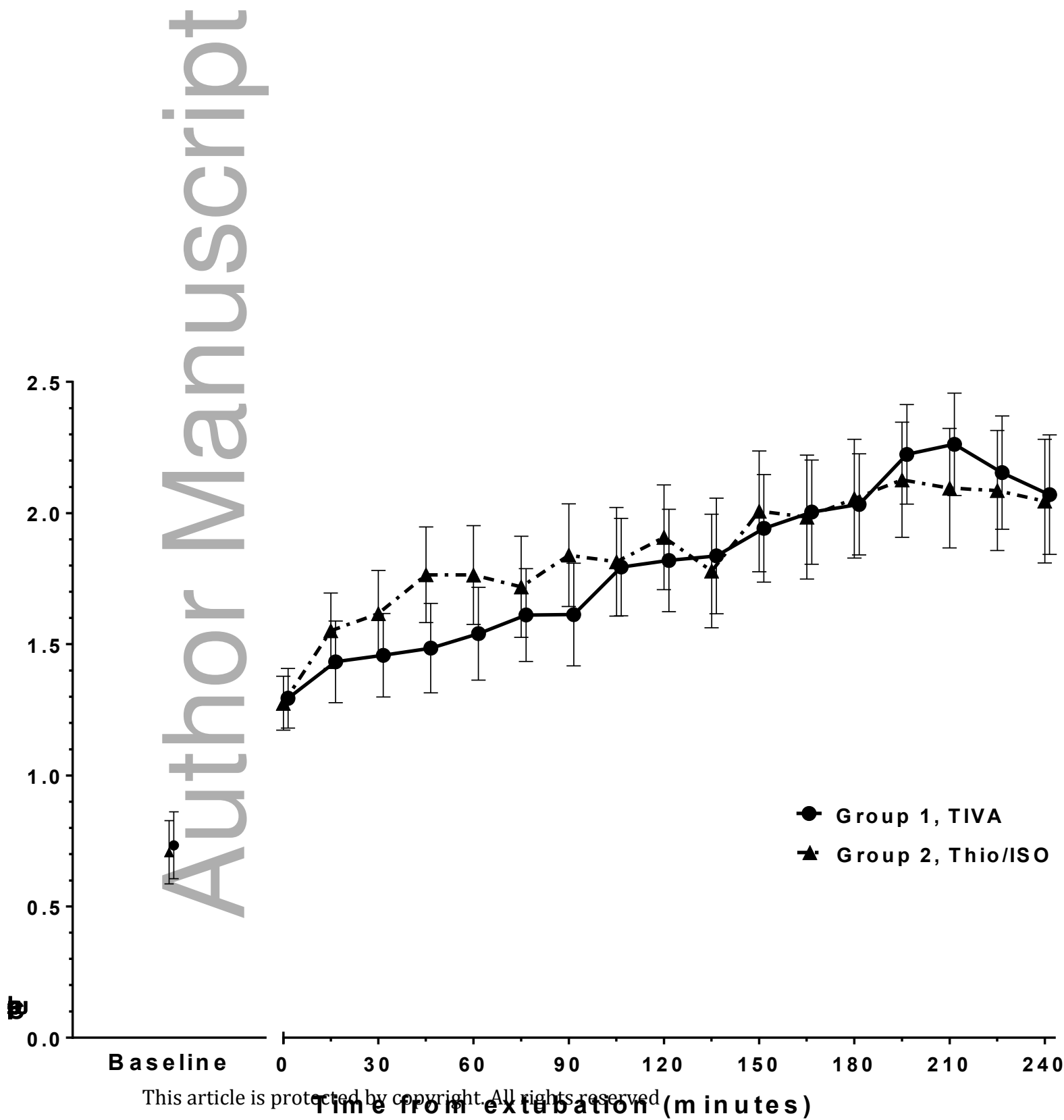


Figure 3:

