This article forms part of the Instructional course lectures from the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons under the editorial supervision of FM Azar, and is a practical guide to the treatment of intertrochanteric fractures. As our population ages, and with ever-increasing fracture systems available from the industry, it is imperative that the basic principles of treating these specific fractures are reviewed. The article further contains a good discussion with clinical X-rays.

Tip 1: Tip-to-apex distance
When inserting a central lag screw (nail or plate) the maximal distance from the tip of the lag screw to the apex of the femoral head is 25 mm (ideal <20 mm). The placement of a posterior-inferior lag screw is incorrect.

Tip 2: No lateral wall, no hip screw
If the fracture destroys the lateral wall of the proximal femur (reverse obliquity or transtrochanteric) a laterally placed hip screw is biomechanically unsound and will lead to deformity, non-union and screw cut-out. These should be treated with a cephalomedullary nail. The role of proximal locking plates is still controversial, as they may provide a prosthetic lateral wall.

Tip 3: Patterns of instability
Certain fracture types are very unstable and need to be treated with cephalomedullary nailing. This is due to continued inter-fragmentary instability following fixation. These are: reverse obliquity, transtrochanteric fractures, fractures with a large postero-medial fragment (medial column lost) and fractures with subtrochanteric extension. Lateral placed hip screws create too great a lever arm.

Tip 4: Beware of femoral bowing
With increasing age the anterior femoral bowing increases. The locking screws of anteriorly placed intramedullary nails create stress risers in the distal femur. Some bowing will not allow distal nails and can lead to impingement, perforation or even iatrogenic fractures. The ideal radius of curvature of intramedullary nails should be <2 m.

Tip 5: Medial entry
Lateralisation of the entry point often occurs during surgery (drapes, subcutaneous tissue, reamer trajectory, etc.). This leads to lateral wall damage, varus malreduction and high lag screw placement. An initial starting point slightly medial to the tip of the greater trochanter can avoid this.

Tip 6: No pre-reaming
Contrary to diaphyseal fractures, the nail cannot reduce the fracture. Reaming of the proximal fragment prior to anatomical reduction will lead to malreduction. Attempts at reduction with a proximally introduced tool or nail will often fail due to the soft proximal bone. The fracture should be reduced using closed methods with or without percutaneous hooks and clamps.

Tip 7: Nail insertion technique
The soft proximal bone can be compressed during nail insertion, leading to an oval entry point and malreduction around the nail. The nail should therefore be inserted directly down the reamed trajectory. The nail should never be hammered into position. The author recommends overreaming by 1 mm.

Tip 8: Avoid proximal varus
Intra-operative varus can often be difficult to detect. Know the angle of the device being used and use the trochanter-head relationship to aid reduction. The level of the tip of the greater trochanter and the centre of the femoral head should be coplanar. If the trochanter is above the centre of the head then the proximal fragment is in varus. Pre-operative X-rays allow measurements of the contralateral side. Varus fixation leads to higher failure rates.

As our population ages, and with ever-increasing fracture systems available from the industry, it is imperative that the basic principles of treating these specific fractures are reviewed.

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Tip 9: Consider long nails
Although short nail designs have changed to decrease proximal stress risers, the author advocates the use of long interlocked nails for all unstable intertrochanteric fracture patterns. This is due to the fact that these are osteoporotic fractures, a condition that affects the entire bone. Furthermore, the population being treated is prone to falls. Short nails can be considered in undisplaced, minimally displaced and stable fracture patterns.

Tip 10: Avoid distraction
Transverse and reverse obliquity fractures are prone to over-distraction. This happens during reduction in the traction table. Prior to distal locking the traction should be released and the limb manipulated until bone-to-bone contact is achieved.

Dissection through the muscle fibres should ideally be blunt dissection along the fibres of the muscle, avoiding indiscriminate coagulation

Additional key points
Although the article presents these tips in a well-structured format, there are some additional key points that are not addressed. The following additional key points should be remembered when treating these fractures.

Key point 1:
Injury to the superior gluteal nerve
Especially in obese patients the proximal cutaneous entry point needs to be advanced more proximally. Dissection to the trochanter can endanger the superior gluteal nerve and lead to postoperative weakness and a Trendelenburg gait. Great care must be employed and the dissection through the muscle fibres should ideally be blunt dissection along the fibres of the muscle, avoiding indiscriminate coagulation. This entry point should then be protected during the entire procedure with a sleeve. (Hoppenfeld S, de Boer P. Surgical exposures in Orthopaedics: The anatomic approach. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins;2003.)

Key point 2:
Proximal fixation in poor bone
Severe osteopaenia can lead to improper purchase of the lag screw in the proximal fragment. Acrylic cement is often advised, but can lead to non-union of the fracture. We have found injectable radio-opaque calcium phosphate or apatite useful in this scenario. (Eriksson F, Mattsson P. The effect of augmentation with resorbable or conventional bone cement on the holding strength for femoral neck fracture devices. Journal of Orthopaedic Trauma May 2002;16(5):302-10.)

Key point 3:
Contralateral limb positioning
Obtaining good intra-operative fluoroscopic images of the femoral neck in both the anterior-posterior as well as the lateral views is essential. Hip arthritis, arthroplasty and other conditions in this population group often make positioning of the contralateral limb in flexion and abduction impossible. Obtaining a 15° sagittal shoot-through lateral with the ipsilateral limb in 10-20° of flexion and the contralateral limb in 10-20° of extension can often provide adequate exposure for fluoroscopic imaging. (Jahangir A, Russell T. Intraoperative nailing of subtrochanteric fractures – relevant anatomy and entry portals, supine, or lateral positioning techniques. Orthopaedics 2008;23(2).)

Key point 4:
Primary arthroplasty as a surgical option
Although well established in treating femoral neck fractures, the use of primary arthroplasty following intertrochanteric fractures remains controversial, even though the incidence of ipsilateral osteoarthritis is higher in the intertrochanteric group. If the ipsilateral hip joint is severely arthritic and ankylosed, the lever arm forces placed on the instrumentation become very great. In these cases arthroplasty could be considered. (Faldini C, Giannini S, et al. Total hip arthroplasty as treatment option for surgical treatment of intertrochanteric fractures. Journal of Bone & Joint Surgery - British Volume 2004;86-B (Supplement III):226.)

Key point 5:
Proximal blocking screws
Several authors advocate the use of proximal anteroposterior blocking screws in the area of the medial calcar. This is to maintain valgus orientation while awaiting fracture consolidation. Iatrogenic surgical neck fractures during screw placement have been reported with this technique. (Pape H-C, Tarkin I. Intraoperative reduction techniques for difficult femoral fractures. J Orthop Trauma 2009;23:S6–S11.)

Key point 6:
Circlage wiring
Attempts at stabilising the proximal fragment with circlage wiring or cables can be problematic. The femoral head’s blood supply from the deep branch of the medial circumflex artery (MCFA) is in close relation to the sub- and intertrochanteric area. Published distances vary from 18.2 mm at the level of the lesser trochanter to 8.8 mm at the level of the insertion of the obturator externus tendon in the piriform fossa. The insertion and tension of cables or wires potentially damages this blood supply leading to femoral head necrosis and instrument failure. (Tile M, Helfet D, et al. Fractures of the pelvis and acetabulum, Third edition. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2003)
The authors evaluated 535 consecutive primary knee replacements of which 153 patients were obese (BMI >30) and 382 non-obese. They evaluated implant survival and reviewed the clinical and radiological outcomes to assess the effect of obesity on primary total knee replacement (TKR) surgery.

They retrospectively compared 50 TKRs in 50 obese patients with 50 matched patients from the non-obese group. The same prosthesis was used in all patients, comparable surgical techniques were used and the postoperative protocols were standard. The mean follow-up was 9.2 years.

They found significantly less improvement in the HSS clinical scores in the obese group as compared to the non-obese group. Radiological assessment showed no difference between the two groups, and statistically there was no difference in the revision rate between the two groups.

There has recently been a lot of interest in the outcomes of hip and knee replacements in obese patients. Health funders are attempting to use BMI as a means of cutting back on the number of arthroplasties being performed, citing increasing costs, complications and poorer outcomes as the reasons.

The authors dispute this as they found no difference in the survival of the knee replacements between the two groups. They feel that the theoretical concept that obesity will lead to increased polyethylene wear and revision is offset by the higher activity levels of the non-obese group.

They did find that the obese group had less flexion than the non-obese group, explained by restrictions due to apposition of soft tissues.

They conclude that obese patients can be told that their mid-term implant survival rate is not different to non-obese patients, and that their overall clinical result and satisfaction with the operation should be excellent. They should be counselled that their range of movement is likely to be less than that of non-obese patients.

Patients should not be denied the potential benefits of a knee replacement on the grounds of obesity alone.

Chondro-osseous growth abnormalities after meningococcemia
A clinical and histopathological study
DP Grogan, SM Love, JA Ogden, EA Millar, LJ Johnson
JBJS (Am) 1989;71-A:920-8

The authors describe the clinical and histopathological features of nine children with major orthopaedic sequelae after meningococcal septicemia and secondary disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC). The specimens were obtained after amputation for gangrene (acute changes), and at revision of amputation (chronic changes).

Although not recent, it is the landmark article for the understanding and management of orthopaedic problems following meningococcal septicemia. This was the first study to show histologically that ischaemia due to vasculitis was the cause of physeal arrest.

Histologically the specimens showed involvement secondary to a combination of acute inflammation and intravascular coagulopathy of small vessels. Acute bone involvement showed osteonecrosis, multiple erosions of the cortex, subperiosteal new bone formation, and intramedullary and subperiosteal fibropurulent exudate (acute osteomyelitis). Late specimens showed complete recovery of endosteal and cortical bone. Acute growth plate involvement showed vascular thrombosis of small vessels, particularly those associated with the germinal zone of the physis resulting in disruption of the columnar arrangement of the growth plate. Late specimens showed that this ischaemia resulted in bony bridge formation and growth plate arrest which was either focal, complete or premature closure of the growth plate. This manifested clinically as leg length discrepancy or angular deformity.