

(REVIEW ARTICLE)



Floating knee management

Lachkar Adnane *, Najib Abdeljaouad and Yacoubi Hicham

Department of orthopedic surgery B, University Hospital Center of Oujda – Morocco.

Publication history: Received on 19 September 2018; revised on 14 October 2019; accepted on 16 October 2019

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2019.3.3.0065>

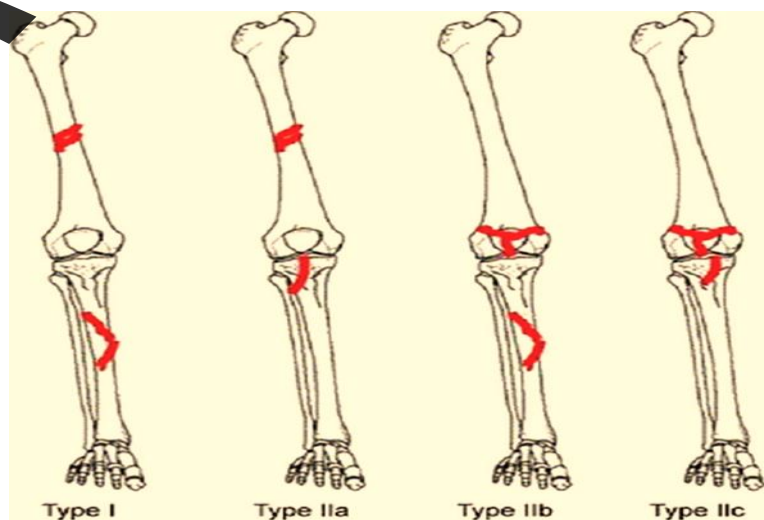
Abstract

Floating knee injury is described as the simultaneous ipsilateral disruption of skeletal integrity above and below the knee. It is usually associated with high-energy impact and often a part of polytrauma. Management of associated life-threatening injuries should take precedence over the orthopedic injury. The soft tissue trauma to the limb is significant and it is prudent to be wary. Each fracture in a floating knee injury is unique and treatment should be decided based on individual analysis and the extent of soft-tissue injuries. A combination of multiple fractures might influence the choice of treatment in complex cases.

Keywords: Floating knee; Femur fracture; Tibia fracture; Nailing; Plating

1. Introduction

In 1975, Blake and McBryde [1] established the concept of the “floating knee” to describe homolateral fractures of the femur and tibia, where the knee is disconnected from the rest of the limb. Type I (71%) constitutes the true “floating knee” in which neither the femoral nor the tibia fracture extends to the knee, instep or hip. Type II (29%) is a variant in which one or both fractures involve the knee [2]. In 1978, Fraser [3] classified type II according to knee injury type (Fig. 1). Type II-a (8%) is a tibia plateau fracture associated with a femoral shaft fracture, type II-b (12%) is an articular fracture of distal femur associated with a tibial shaft fracture and type II-c (9%) is a fracture of the tibia plateau and articular fracture of the distal femur [2] (Figure 1).



* Corresponding author

E-mail address: dr.lachkar@gmail.com

Figure 1 Fraser classification [3]

2. Initial management

The floating knee is much more than a bone lesion (figure 2). The mechanism is usually a high-energy trauma in cyclists, collisions between cars and “knocked down” pedestrians, often observed in young men [4]. Severe associated injuries have a mean Injury Severity Score (ISS) of over 16 [2, 5, 6] with severe head injury in 14% [7] and chest and abdominal lesions in addition to those of the affected limb, such as severe associated soft-tissues [8]. Popliteal artery lesions affect 7% and at least the femur or the tibia fracture is open in 69% of the cases [2]. Associated fractures can be present in 44% of patients [9]. The death rate on admission can be up to 10% [10-12]. Popliteal artery lesions and/or severe open fractures and mangled limbs can lead to amputation in 9% of the patients during the first 24 hours of admission [13]. Joint and knee ligament injuries are common, with a laxity up to 19% [8]. Fat embolism and compartment syndromes are also common [1, 4, 14].



Figure 2 Example of floating knee injury

In the past, the concept of immediate definitive reduction and fixation of femur fracture was thought to reduce complications and mortality by preventing fat embolism [4, 16-18]. Today the condition of a patient who has sustained a major orthopedic trauma must be ranked as “stable”, “borderline”, “unstable” or “in extremis” and treatment should be guided according to the evolving concept of damage control orthopedics [19]. Chest and head injuries, significant abdominal injuries, popliteal artery lesions and open fractures are to be treated first and femoral and tibial fractures should be temporary stabilized by external fixation or traction. Immediate definitive reduction and fixation is reserved for hemodynamically stable patients. Intramedullary nailing of both fractures is ideal. The femur fracture being fixed prior to the tibia fracture, except in the case of an open tibia fracture in which the tibia should be fixed first (figure 3).

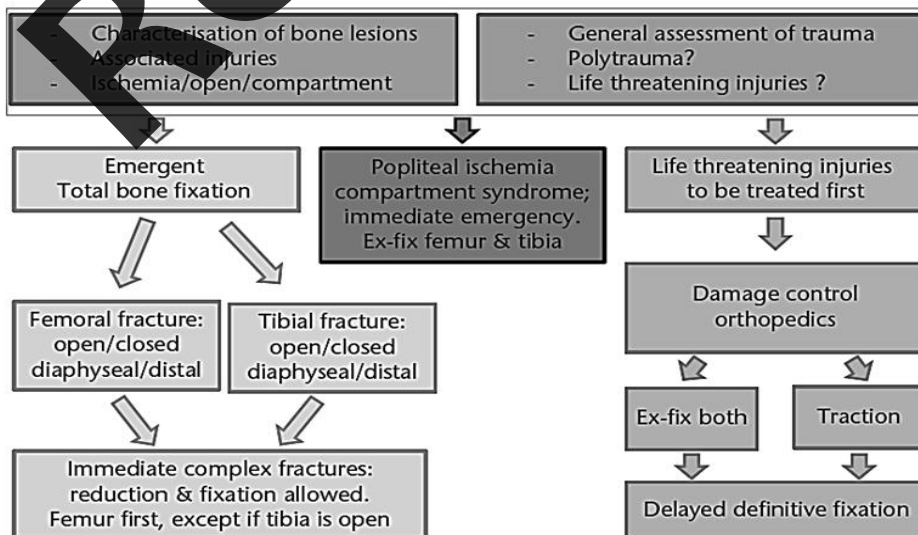


Figure 3 Algorithm for management of floating knee injuries

2.1. Nailing

Since the definition by Blake and McBride [1] of floating knee as an ipsilateral fracture of femur and tibia, nailing has been a treatment option in the “true” floating knee; that is to say when none of the fractures are intra-articular. Even before the term was coined, Ratliff [20] already pointed out that this type of injury yielded better results when treated operatively; in his series, the group treated with nailing of both fractures had the better results. These results have been replicated by most subsequent series, and even those in resource-constrained settings advocate surgical treatment of both bones as the results are better in the surgically-treated group [9].

Antegrade nailing was advocated until 1996, when Gregory et al. introduced retrograde nailing [12]. Since then most authors have recommended this type of treatment for “true” floating knees. Gregory et al. performed retrograde nailing of the femur either via a portal in the medial condyle or the intercondylar notch. The medial condyle portal had fallen into disuse and, in 2000, Ostrum [21] recommended the intercondylar notch portal for all type I fractures. Some proximal third femoral fractures cannot be fixed with a retrograde nail, so in these cases antegrade nailing should be chosen. Nailing is not usually advocated for type II fractures, although in some type II-b fractures it is possible to fix first the articular surface of the femur and then nail the shaft. Retrograde nailing can be combined with screws or a sliding hip screw for segmental femoral fractures.

Most authors recommend nailing the femur first [2, 20] which allows for the removal of the patient from traction and mobilization. Quick splinting of the tibia in situations where the patient becomes unstable permits positioning of the limb and provides sufficient knee flexion for tibial nailing. Noumi et al. [22] found that floating knee was a risk factor for infection after nailing in open fractures of the femur, but this was mostly related to the fact that floating knee is related to a higher degree of soft-tissue injury. If nailing can be done safely after external fixation of femoral and tibial fractures [23, 24] then the same should apply. When both fractures combine in the same patient, the principle of early conversion to nailing should be kept in mind; when the external fixation is continued for more than three weeks and the conversion is immediate, the infection rate can rise to 11% [22] (figure 4).



Figure 4 Antegrade nailing (femur) with tibial nailing

2.2. Plating

The evidence for the indications, specific technical considerations and outcomes of the plating of floating knee injuries is sparse. Most of the literature comes from case reports and retrospective reviews of case series. Plating should be used in cases of intra-articular involvement of the distal femur and distal tibia [3] (figure 5). The need for such an approach is obvious when dealing with intra-articular fractures. The reduction of the articular surface is of paramount importance and cannot be over-emphasized. Additional benefits of plating include the simultaneous management of concomitant intra-articular soft-tissue pathology such as lateral meniscal tear through the same surgical incision. In a recent retrospective case series study, Ran et al. [25] reported on the management of 28 consecutive patients with floating knee injuries. Simultaneous plating of the distal femur and tibia was the most common mode of definitive fixation in 14

cases. Of note is the fact that in four of these 14 cases, the fractures were plated, despite the fact that they were extra-articular. Two of these fractures were open.

The clinical results of the plating of both fractures according to the Karlström and Olerud classification were excellent in one case, good in seven, acceptable in three and poor in three. Beyond the obvious need for plating of intra-articular fractures of the femur and tibia, there are some special situations in which plating is beneficial. Ng et al. [26] described a floating knee injury with simultaneous epiphyseal injuries of the distal femur and proximal tibia equivalent to Salter-Harris type II injuries, in a six-year-old patient who was managed by closed reduction and percutaneous fixation with Kirschner (K-) wires. The authors pointed out the need for anatomical reduction of the physical injury in these rare situations.

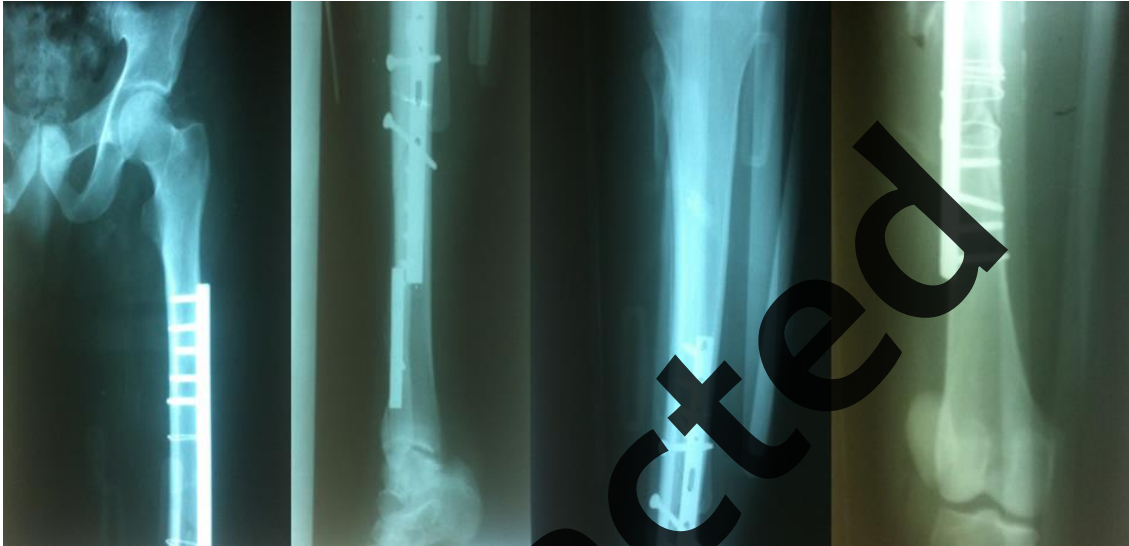


Figure 5 Plating of femur and tibia (with a small peroneal plate).

Other clinical scenarios where plating of the distal femur and proximal tibia could be appropriate are fractures of the femur or tibia with pre-existing deformity (in which case a nail cannot be used), when nail entry points of the nail (soft-tissue infection around the entry points) and in situations of damage control orthopedics and fat embolism syndrome [27].

2.3. Combination of implants

The floating knee injury will always have two different fractures. These fractures range from simple diaphysis fracture to complex articular types. Although the precise incidence of floating knee injuries is not known, it is a relatively uncommon injury. The largest series reported in the literature was of 222 patients over an 11-year period [3]. Accordingly, the treatment is more experience- than evidence-based. As the fractures in the femur and tibia are often different, it is not always possible to achieve optimal fixation with the same implant for both fractures. Furthermore soft-tissue injuries and prosthetic and other previous implants might influence the choice of implant for the individual fracture in the floating knee injury. For the lower part of the femur, a retrograde nail and locking plates are the most common implants used and treatment choice should probably not differ from a similar isolated femur fracture, regardless of the tibial fracture. Retrograde nails and locking plates have shown similar outcomes and complication rates [28] and it is therefore the surgeon's personal experience that decides which implant is most suitable in each case. For the tibia fracture in the upper half, antegrade nail and locking plates are used most widely.

Nails with advanced locking options can manage some simple articular fractures, but locking plates supplemented with lag screws are more commonly used for complex intra-articular fractures in the proximal tibia. The fractures in floating knee injuries can be open in 38% of cases at the femoral level and in 57% at the tibial level [2] and in these cases the soft-tissue injury will influence treatment choice. Depending on local availability of soft tissue coverage by free flaps and other reconstructive measures, a number of fractures must be handled by external fixation. Thin wire circular frames can provide a safe and stable alternative to locking plates and nails. External fixation is used in up to 25% of cases [2] although this is very much dependent on the surgeon's preference.

The presence of prosthetic and other implants can challenge the surgeon and might prevent the use of the preferred implant. A revision knee prosthesis with a central box does not allow for a retrograde nail, and a hip prosthesis in combination with a retrograde femur nail creates a stress riser in the small area between the two implants, producing a high risk of a fracture, and a dynamic hip screw might cause the same problem in combination with a locking plate. Experience with peri-prosthetic fractures and collaboration with arthroplasty surgeons are essential in these cases.

Multiple or segmental fractures in either femur, tibia or both raise a special challenge, as one implant must handle more than one fracture or a special combination of implants are needed to solve the problem.

3. Conclusion

In summary, each fracture in a floating knee injury is unique and treatment should be decided based on individual analysis and the extent of soft-tissue injuries. A combination of multiple fractures might influence the choice of treatment in complex cases.

Compliance with ethical standards

Acknowledgments

The Authors thank the orthopedic surgery Dept., Faculty of Medicine Oujda, Mohamed first Univ. Morocco for supporting this research in all stages.

Disclosure of conflict of interest

All authors declare no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.

References

- [1] Blake R and McBryde A Jr. (1975). The floating knee: ipsilateral fractures of the tibia and femur. *South Med J*, 68, 13-16.
- [2] Piétu G, Jacquot F and Féron J-M. (2007). Le genou flottant: étude rétrospective de 172 cas. [The floating knee: a retrospective analysis of 172 cases]. *Revue de Chirurgie Orthopédique*, 93, 627-634.
- [3] Fraser RD, Hunter GA and Waddell JP. (1978) Ipsilateral fracture of the femur and tibia. *J Bone Joint Surg*, 60-B, 510-515.
- [4] Veith RG, Winquist RA and Hansen ST. (1984). Ipsilateral fractures of the femur and tibia. A report of fifty-seven consecutive cases. *J Bone Joint Surg*, 66-A, 991-1002.
- [5] Hee HT, Wong HP, Low YP and Myers L. (2001). Predictors of outcome of floating knee injuries in adults: 89 patients followed for 2-12 years. *Acta Orthop Scand*, 72, 385-394.
- [6] Yokoyama K, Tsukamoto T and Aoki S. (2002). Evaluation of functional outcome of the floating knee injury using multivariate analysis. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*, 122, 432-435.
- [7] van Raay JJ, Raaymakers EL and Dupree HW. (1991). Knee ligament injuries combined with ipsilateral tibial and femoral diaphyseal fractures: the "floating knee". *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*, 110, 75-77.
- [8] Paul GR, Sawka MW and Whitelaw GP. (1990). Fractures of the ipsilateral femur and tibia: emphasis on intra-articular and soft tissue injury. *J Orthop Trauma*, 4, 309-314.
- [9] Akinyoola AL, Yusuf MB and Orekha O. (2013). Challenges in the management of floating knee injuries in a resource constrained setting. *Musculoskelet Surg*, 97, 45-49.
- [10] Dwyer AJ, Paul R, Mam MK, Kumar A and Gosselin RA. (2005). Floating knee injuries: long-term results of four treatment methods. *Int Orthop*, 29, 314-318.
- [11] Anastopoulos G, Assimakopoulos A, Exarchou E and Pantazopoulos T. (1992). Ipsilateral fractures of the femur and tibia. *Injury*, 23, 439-441.
- [12] Gregory P, DiCicco J and Karpik K. (1996). Ipsilateral fractures of the femur and tibia: treatment with retrograde femoral nailing and unreamed tibial nailing. *J Orthop Trauma*, 10, 309-316.

- [13] Hung SH, Chen TB, Cheng YM, Cheng NJ and Lin SY. (2000). Concomitant fractures of the ipsilateral femur and tibia with intra-articular extension into the knee joint. *J Trauma*, 48, 547-551.
- [14] Adamson GJ, Wiss DA, Lowery GL and Peters CL. (1992). Type II floating knee: ipsilateral femoral and tibial fractures with intraarticular extension into the knee joint. *J Orthop Trauma*, 6, 333-339.
- [15] Rethnam U, Yesupalan RS and Nair R. (2007). The floating knee: epidemiology, prognostic indicators & outcome following surgical management. *J Trauma Manag Outcomes*, 1, 2.
- [16] Bone LB, Johnson KD, Weigelt J and Scheinberg R. (1989). Early versus delayed stabilization of femoral fractures. A prospective randomized study. *J Bone Joint Surg*, 71-A, 336-340.
- [17] Johnson KD, Cadambi A and Seibert GB. (1985). Incidence of adult respiratory distress syndrome in patients with multiple musculoskeletal injuries: effect of early operative stabilization of fractures. *J Trauma*, 25, 375-384.
- [18] Karlström G and Olerud S. (1977). Ipsilateral fracture of the femur and tibia. *J Bone Joint Surg*, 59-A, 240-243.
- [19] Roberts CS, Pape H-C and Jones AL. (2005). Damage control orthopaedics: evolving concepts in the treatment of patients who have sustained orthopaedic trauma. *Instr Course Lect*, 54, 447-462.
- [20] Ratliff AH. Fractures of the shaft of the femur and tibia in the same limb. (1968). *Proc R Soc Med*, 61, 906-908.
- [21] Ostrum RF. (2000). Treatment of floating knee injuries through a single percutaneous approach. *Clin Orthop Relat*, 375, 43-50.
- [22] Noumi T, Yokoyama K, Ohtsuka H, Nakamura K and Itoman M. (2005). Intramedullary nailing for open fractures of the femoral shaft: evaluation of contributing factors on deep infection and nonunion using multivariate analysis. *Injury*, 36, 1085-1093.
- [23] Bhandari M, Zlowodzki M, Tornetta P III, Schmidt A and Templeman DC. (2005). Intramedullary nailing following external fixation in femoral and tibial shaft fractures. *J Orthop Trauma*, 19, 140-144.
- [24] Antich-Adrover P, Martí-Garin D, Murias-Alvarez J and Puente-Alonso C. (1997) External fixation and secondary intramedullary nailing of open tibial fractures. A randomised, prospective trial. *J Bone Joint Surg*, 79-B, 433-437.
- [25] Ran T, Hua X and Zhenyu Z. (2013). Floating knee: a modified Fraser's classification and the results of a series of 28 cases. *Injury*, 44, 1033-1042.
- [26] Ng A, Morley JR, Prasad RN, Giannoudis PV and Smith RM. (2004). The paediatric floating knee: a case report of ipsilateral epiphyseal injury to the distal femur and proximal tibia. *J Pediatr Orthop B*, 13, 110-113.
- [27] Bertrand ML and Andrés-Cano P. (2015). Management of the floating knee in polytrauma patients. *Open Orthop J*, 31, (Suppl 1: M10), 347-55.
- [28] Griffin XL, Parsons N, Zbaeda MM and McArthur J. (2015). Interventions for treating fractures of the distal femur in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*, 8, CD010606.

How to cite this article

Lachkar A, Najib A and Yacoubi H. (2019). Floating knee management. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, 3(3), 41-46.
