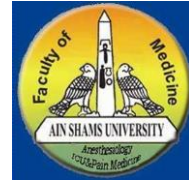


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Current Anesthetic Trends in Ophthalmic Surgery

Essay

Submitted for Partial Fulfilment of Master Degree in
Anesthesiology

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Contents

	Page
• Introduction	I
• Anesthetic Ophthalmic Anatomical Considerations	1
• Characteristics of Ophthalmic Patients Population	12
• Current General Anesthetic Techniques	22
• Current Regional Anesthetic Techniques	53
• Summary	109
• References	111
• Arabic Summary	137

Abbreviations

AAG	Alpha acid glycoprotein
ACC	American college of cardiology
AHA	American heart association
C₃F₉	Perfluoropropane
CG	Ciliary ganglion
CHF	Congestive heart failure
CNS	Central nervous system
CO₂	Carbon dioxide
COPD	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
DCR	Dacrocystorhinostomy
DTFNBA	Deep topical fornix nerve block anesthesia
ECG	Electro-cardiography
EEG	Electro-encephalography
EMLA	Eutectic mixture of local anesthetic
EOM	Extraocular muscle
ERV	Expiratory reserve volume
ETT	Endotracheal tube
EUA	Examination under anesthesia
Fe⁺⁺	Ferrous Iron
Fe⁺⁺⁺	Ferric Iron
FRC	Functional residual capacity
g	Gram
GFR	Glomerular filtration rate
GG	Gasserian ganglion
IO	Inferior oblique
IOL	Intra ocular length
IOP	Intra ocular pressure
IPPV	Intermittent positive pressure ventilation
IR	Inferior rectus
IV	Intravenous
Kg	Kilogram
LCN	Long ciliary nerve
LMA	Laryngeal mask airway
LR	Lateral rectus
LV	Left Ventricular
M3	Muscarinic receptors
MAO	Monoamine oxidase

mg	Milligram
MI	Myocardial infarction
ml	Milliliter
MR	Medial rectus
N₂O	Nitrous oxide
NaHCO₄	Sodium bicarbonate
NPO	Nil per os
NSAIDs	Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
OCR	Oculo-cardiac reflex
P_aCO₂	Partial pressure of carbon dioxide
P_aO₂	Partial pressure of oxygen
PBA	Peribulbar anesthesia
PK	Perforating keratoplasty
PONV	Postoperative nausea and vomiting
RV	Residual volume
SA	Sino auricular
SBE	Sub acute bacterial endocarditis
SBP	Systemic blood pressure
SCH	Supra choroidal hemorrhage
SCN	Short ciliary nerve
SF₆	Sulfur hexafluoride
SO	Superior oblique
SR	Superior rectus
SVR	Systemic vascular resistance
TLC	Total lung capacity
V	Vagus nerve
VC	Vital capacity
X	Trigeminal nerve
µg	Microgram

List of Figures

<i>NO.</i>	<i>Figure</i>	<i>Pages</i>
Figure (1):	Horizontal section in the eye	1
Figure (2):	Diagrammatic representation of the angles of the lateral and medial walls of the orbits in transverse section	2
Figure (3):	The bony orbit	3
Figure (4):	Extraocular Muscles	6
Figure (5):	Sagittal section in the eye	6
Figure (6):	Blood supply of the eye	10
Figure (7):	Procaine (synthesized in 1904) and lidocaine (synthesized in 1943)	60
Figure (8):	Comparison of the Atkinson needle (A) with the sharp needle (B). The Atkinson needle is blunt and has a rounded point and a short bevel	77
Figure (9):	Retrobulbar (intraconal) block	80
Figure (10):	Insertion point and direction of needle for extreme inferolateral intraconal injection	80
Figure (11):	Final position of needle after intraconal needle placement	80
Figure (12):	Needle for main inferotemporal injection (27 gauge 2 cm long)	80
Figure (13):	Peribulbar (extraconal) block	81
Figure (14):	The position of the needle during placement of a peribulbar block via superior and inferior injections	82
Figure (15):	schematic diagram of Sub-Tenon's space	85
Figure (16):	The technique of sub-Tenon's anesthesia using the Venflon i.v. cannula.	87
Figure (17):	Posterior sub-Tenon's metal cannula 19 gauge (2.54 cm length)	88
Figure (18):	Mid sub-Tenon's cannula	88
Figure (19):	Anterior sub-Tenon's cannula	88
Figure (20):	Ultra-short sub-Tenon's cannula	88
Figure (21):	Infraorbital Nerve: Block Technique	92
Figure (22):	Medial Compartment: Block Technique	92
Figure (23):	Lacrimal Canal: Block Technique	92

Figure (24):	Supraorbital nerve puncture point	93
Figure (25):	Supratrochlear puncture point.	93
Figure (26):	Infraorbital puncture point.	94
Figure (27):	Nasal nerve block and nose anaesthesia	94
Figure (28):	The surgical anatomy and landmarks of the facial nerve	97
Figure (29):	The oculocardiac reflex	104

List of Tables

<i>NO.</i>	<i>Table</i>	<i>Page</i>
Table (1):	Motor innervation to ocular adnexal muscles	7
Table (2):	Sensory innervation of the eye and adnexal structures	8
Table (3):	The autonomic innervation of the eye	9
Table (4):	Categorization of ophthalmic surgery	12
Table (5):	Preferred anesthetic technique for Common surgical procedures in ophthalmology.	13
Table (6):	Anatomic and Physiologic Distinctions between Adults and Pediatric Patients	14
Table (7):	Age-Related Changes in Selected Organ Systems	18
Table (8):	Requirements of Ophthalmic Surgery	22
Table (9):	preoperative investigations	25
Table (10):	Systemic effects of ophthalmic medications	31
Table (11):	The effect of anesthetic agents on IOP	39
Table (12):	Other medical conditions associated with strabismus	50

Introduction

General anesthesia for eye surgery presents a number of special considerations for the anesthesiologist. Patients are frequently at the extremes of age and in the case of the elderly concomitant medical conditions are not uncommon, particularly diabetes, ischemic heart diseases and hypertension (***Kumar, 2007***).

Anesthetic requirements for ophthalmic surgery are dictated primarily by patient's clinical condition, the nature of the proposed surgery, the surgeon's preference and the patient's wishes (***Kumar, 2007***).

Although regional anesthesia is suitable for most ophthalmic operations, general anesthesia is still commonly used worldwide especially for prolonged surgical procedures and regional anesthesia is often reserved for those patients who are unfit for general anesthesia. However, this pattern is currently changing where regional anesthesia becomes a real alternative for general anesthesia during ophthalmic surgery especially with the recent trends towards day-care surgery (***Aleman, 1995***).

Eye blocks provide excellent anesthesia for ophthalmic surgery and success rates are high. Satisfactory anesthesia and akinesia can be obtained with both needle and cannula (***Kumar, 2007***).

Although rare, orbital injections may cause severe local and systemic complications. Knowledge of orbital anatomy and training are essential for the practice of safe orbital regional anesthesia (***Kumar, 2007***).

Although retrobulbar and peribulbar regional anesthetic techniques are used (by both anesthesiologists and ophthalmologists) in various types of eye surgery, topical anesthesia of the conjunctiva and cornea, followed—as needed—by sub-Tenon's block, is now common in routine cataract surgery. Because of the risk of life-threatening complications in ophthalmic regional anesthesia, the services of an anesthesiologist must be available and training of anesthesia residents in ophthalmic regional anesthesia is highly recommended (*Kallio and Rosenberg, 2005*).

Formerly, the term "local-standby" described the anesthesiologist's role in these cases. However, this term has been replaced by "monitored anesthesia care" since the anesthesiologist should be continually monitoring the patient during surgery and not just "standing by" (*Burroughs, et al, 2003*).

Review Article
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Basic knowledge of the anatomy of the orbit and its contents is necessary for the successful performance of anesthesia for ophthalmic surgery (1).

Skilled administration of either local or general anesthesia contributes directly to the successful outcome of the surgery. Close cooperation and clear understanding between surgeon and anesthesiologist are essential. Risks and benefits must be assessed carefully and the anesthetic technique selected accordingly. Ophthalmic surgery can be classified into subspecialties and intraocular or extraocular procedures may be performed each has different anesthetic requirements (2).

Patients who present for eye surgery are frequently at the extreme ends of age. Both neonatal and geriatric anesthesia present special problems (2).

Although regional anesthesia is suitable for most ophthalmic operations, general anesthesia is still commonly used worldwide especially for prolonged surgical procedures and regional anesthesia is often reserved for those patients who are unfit for general anesthesia. However, this pattern is currently changing where regional anesthesia becomes a real alternative for general anesthesia during ophthalmic surgery especially with the recent trends towards day-care surgery (3).

To conduct safe regional anesthesia, preoperative evaluation of the patient's mental status is extremely important. The patient should be alert, cooperative, and comfortable and must accept the idea of being awake during surgery. In addition to the mental status, the ability of the patient to lie supine without dyspnea, persistent cough, discomfort, or pain should also be carefully evaluated. Anesthesiologists are the best personnel to handle any possible systemic complications that may arise after the administration of ophthalmic blocks. Additionally, the availability of long-acting local anesthetics, which provide adequate surgical anesthesia as well as prolonged, postoperative analgesia, has eliminated the need for postoperative narcotics and their associated potential for respiratory depression, nausea, and vomiting (4).

Regional anesthesia is commonly used for ophthalmic surgery. Various Ophthalmic surgeries require a potent motor blockade (akinesia) of the eyeball and eyelids. Retrobulbar anesthesia was the only technique used for many years since the late 1800s, but became more widely used in the 1940s, (5).

In an attempt to reduce some of the complications of retrobulbar anesthesia, peribulbar anesthesia was introduced in the 1960s. However; peribulbar anesthesia has some limitations (6).

Intraconal and extraconal blocks using needles are commonly used. The techniques are generally safe but although rare, serious sight- and life-threatening complications have occurred following the inappropriate placement of needles. Sub-Tenon's block was introduced as a safe alternative to needle techniques but complications have arisen following this block as well. Currently, there is no absolutely safe ophthalmic regional block. It is essential that those who are involved in the care of these patients have a thorough knowledge of the techniques used (7).

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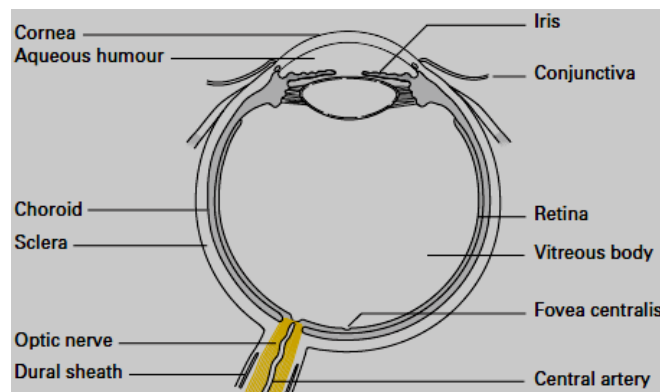
Anesthetic Ophthalmic Anatomical Considerations

Basic knowledge of the anatomy of the orbit and its contents is necessary for the successful performance of anesthesia for ophthalmic surgery (*Varvinski and Eltringham, 1996*).

(1) The Eyeball.

Position of the eyeball:

The eyeball is situated in the anterior part of the orbital cavity, closer to the roof than to the floor and nearer to the lateral than to the medial wall. The orbital margins have a fairly constant relationship to the eyeball. A vertically straight line applied to the superior and inferior orbital margins passes in contact with the cornea or slightly anterior to it, a horizontally straight line applied to the lateral and medial margins reveals that about one-third of the eyeball lies anterior to it. The anteroposterior diameter of the eye measures about 24 mm, the vertical diameter is about 23 mm, and horizontal diameter is 23.5 mm. The eyeball comprises three concentric layers, an outer fibrous layer (the cornea and sclera), a middle vascular layer (the iris, ciliary body and choroid) and an inner neural layer (the retina) (*Wrong, 1991*).



-Figure (1): Horizontal section in the eye (*Ellis et al, 2004*).

Intraocular contents consist of the following:

Aqueous humour in the anterior chamber (space lined by the cornea, iris, and pupil) and the posterior chamber (space behind the iris and in front of the vitreous), the crystalline lens, and the vitreous humour (space behind the lens and in front of the retina)(Figure 1). The optic nerve pierces the globe just above and 3 mm medial to the posterior pole. The nerve has a diameter of 1.5 mm and an intraorbital length of about 30 mm (*Bruce, 1992*).

(2) The orbit

The orbit is a four sided bony pyramid cavity with its base forming the orbital opening and its apex placed posteromedially. It has a total volume of about 30 ml. The medial wall of each orbit is in the sagittal plane of the head and parallel to the contralateral medial orbital wall. The angle between the lateral walls of the two orbits is approximately 90 degree and the angle between the lateral and medial walls of each orbit is approximately 45 degree (Figure 2). It should be noted that the apex including the optic foramen is in the same sagittal plane as the medial orbital wall (*Varvinski and Eltringham, 1996*).

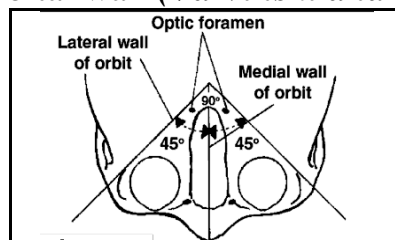


Figure (2): Diagrammatic representation of the angles of the lateral and medial walls of the orbits in transverse section (*Varvinski and Eltringham, 1996*).

At the apex is the optic foramen, transmitting the optic nerve, and ophthalmic artery, and the superior and inferior orbital fissures transmitting the other nerves and vessels. The depth of the orbit from the inferior orbital rim to the apex ranges from 42 to 55 mm. this has important implications when injections are made in to the orbit. The deeper the injection the narrower is the space, and the greater the