



NEW TRENDS IN PRE-OPERATIVE ASSESSMENT OF CARDIAC PATIENTS IN NON-CARDIAC SURGERY

An Essay

*Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree in
Anesthesiology*

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2016

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

وَأَنْزَلَ اللَّهُ عَلَيْكَ
الْكِتَابَ وَالْحِكْمَةَ
وَعَلَّمَكَ مَا لَمْ تَكُنْ
تَعْلَمُ وَكَانَ فَضْلُ
اللَّهِ عَلَيْكَ عَظِيمًا

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سُورَةُ النِّسَاءِ (آيَةُ ١١٢)



*First and above all thanks to **ALLAH**.*

*I would like to express my profound gratitude to **Professor/ Hesham Mohammed El-Azzazi**, Professor of Anesthesia and Intensive Care, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for his most valuable advises and support all through the whole work and for dedicating much of his precious time to accomplish this work,*

*I am also grateful to **Dr/ Sahar Mohamed Talaat Taha**, Assistant Professor of Anesthesia and Intensive Care, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for her unique effort, considerable help, assistance and knowledge she offered me throughout the performance of this work,*

*My special thanks and deep obligation to **Dr/ Dina Salah Eldin**, Lecturer of Anesthesia and Intensive Care, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for her continuous encouragement and supervision and kind care.*

I would also like to thank my family & my dear Fiancee for their continuous support & encouragement.

✍ Ahmed S. El Faioumy

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List of Abbreviations

AAA	Abdominal aortic aneurysm
ACEI	Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor
ACHD	Adult congenital heart disease
ACS	Acute coronary syndrome
AF	Atrial fibrillation
AR	Aortic regurgitation
ARB	Angiotensin receptor blocker
AS	Aortic stenosis
ASA	American Society of Anesthesiologists
AVR	Aortic valve replacement
b.i.d	bis in diem (twice daily)
BMS	Bare-metal stent
BNP	B-type natriuretic peptide
bpm	Beats per minute
CABG	Coronary artery bypass graft
CAD	Coronary artery disease
CAS	Carotid artery stenting
CHF	Congestive heart failure
CIEDs	Cardiovascular implantable electronic devices
COP	Cardiac output
CPG	Clinical practice guideline
CT	Computed tomography
CVD	Cardiovascular disease

List of Abbreviations (Cont...)

CYP3a4	Cytochrome P3a4 enzyme
DAPT	Dual anti-platelet therapy
DECREASE	Dutch Echocardiographic Cardiac Risk Evaluation Applying Stress Echocardiography
DES	Drug-eluting stent
DSE	Dobutamine stress echocardiography
ECG	Electrocardiography
EF	Ejection fraction
EMI	Electromagnetic interference
ESA	European Society of Anesthesiology
ESC	European Society of Cardiology
EVAR	Endovascular abdominal aortic aneurysm repair
GDMT	Guideline-directed medical therapy
HF	Heart failure,
ICD	Implantable cardioverter defibrillator
ICU	Intensive care unit
IHD	Ischemic heart disease
INR	International normalized ratio
LMWH	Low molecular weight heparin
LV	Left ventricular
LVEF	Left ventricular ejection fraction
MACE	Major adverse cardiac events
MaVS	Metoprolol after Vascular Surgery

List of Abbreviations (Cont...)

METs	Metabolic equivalent tasks
MI	Myocardial infarction
MICA	Myocardial Infarction Cardiac Arrest
MPI	Myocardial perfusion imaging
MR	Mitral regurgitations
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
MS	Mitral stenosis
NB	No benefit
NOAC	Non-vitamin K oral anticoagulant
NSQIP	National Surgical Quality Improvement Program
NSTE-ACS	On-ST-elevation acute coronary syndromes
NT-proBNP	N-terminal pro-BNP
O2	Oxygen
PAC	Pulmonary artery catheter
PAD	Peripheral artery disease
PAH	Pulmonary artery hypertension
PARTNER	Placement of Aortic Transcatheter Valves
PCI	Percutaneous coronary intervention
POBBLE	Peri-Operative Beta-BLockadE
POISE	Peri-Operative Ischemic Evaluation
POISE-2	Peri-Operative Ischemic Evaluation 2
q.d	Quaque die (once daily)

List of Abbreviations (Cont...)

RCRI	Revised Cardiac Risk Index
RV	Right ventricular
STEMI	ST-elevation myocardial infarction,
SVR	Systemic vascular resistance
SVT	Supraventricular tachycardia
TAVR	Trans-catheter aortic valve replacement
TEE	Transoesophageal echocardiography
TIA	Transient ischemic attack
UA/NSTEMI	Unstable angina/non–ST-elevation myocardial infarction
UFH	Unfractionated heparin
VHD	Valvular heart disease
VKA	Vitamin K antagonist
VPB	Ventricular premature beat
VT	Ventricular tachycardia

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INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, more than 200 million adults undergo major non-cardiac surgery each year, and the number of such patients is increasing. Both the average age of patients and the risk of cardiac complications are increasing in this group (*Siddiqui et al., 2012*).

Although major non-cardiac surgery has the potential to improve the quality and prolong the duration of a patient's life, surgery may also precipitate complications such as death from cardiac causes as myocardial infarction, cardiac arrest, or congestive heart failure (*Devereaux and Sessler, 2015*).

Each year, more than 10 million adults worldwide have a major cardiac complication in the first 30 days after non-cardiac surgery. If perioperative death was considered as a separate category, it would rank as the third leading cause of death in the United States. Major perioperative cardiac complications are important because they account for at least one third of perioperative deaths, result in substantial rates of complications, prolonged hospitalization, and increase medical costs (*Botto et al., 2014*).

Surgery and anesthesia are associated with activation of the sympathetic nervous system, inflammation, hypercoagulability, hemodynamic compromise, and hypothermia, all of which can trigger cardiac complications (*Kamel et al., 2012*).

Accurate preoperative estimation of the risk of perioperative cardiac events is important as it can guide decisions about; treatment (e.g., whether to use an endovascular or an open surgical approach), the location of postoperative care (e.g., recovery in a monitored setting or an unmonitored setting), intensity of postoperative care (e.g., daily troponin measurements or no measurement of troponin levels) and the urgency of surgery (e.g., If the surgery is not an emergency, there is opportunity to consider postponing or cancelling surgery in high risk patients or converting to lower risk procedures such as laparoscopic or less extensive surgery) (*Greenhalgh et al., 2010*).

Clinical surgical risk and functional capacity are assessed to determine which patients will benefit from further testing and modification of perioperative management. Furthermore, cardiac risk assessment can identify patients who require long term cardiovascular risk management (*Poldermans et al., 2009*).

AIM OF THE WORK

The aim of the work is to discuss the recent updates in pre-operative assessment and risk reduction strategies of cardiac patients undergoing major non-cardiac surgeries.

Chapter I

RISK FACTORS IN CARDIAC PATIENTS UNDERGOING NON-CARDIAC SURGERY

I. Surgical Risk for Cardiac Events:

Cardiac complications after non-cardiac surgery depend on specific risk factors and the type of surgery with the circumstances under which it takes place. Surgical factors that influence cardiac risk are related to the urgency, magnitude, type, and duration of the procedure, as well as the change in body core temperature, blood loss, and fluid shifts (*Mangano, 2004*).

Every operation elicits a stress response. This response is initiated by tissue injury and mediated by neuroendocrine factors, and may induce tachycardia and hypertension. Fluid shifts in the perioperative period add to the surgical stress. This stress increases myocardial oxygen demand (*Poldermans et al., 2010*).

Surgery causes alterations in the balance between prothrombotic and fibrinolytic factors, resulting in hypercoagulability and possible coronary thrombosis

(elevation of fibrinogen and other coagulation factors, increased platelet activation and aggregation, and reduced fibrinolysis). The extent of such changes is proportionate to the extent and duration of the intervention. All these factors may cause myocardial ischemia and heart failure (HF). Certainly in patients with high risk, attention to these factors should be given and lead, if indicated, to adaptations in the surgical plan (*Poldermans et al., 2010*).

Although patient specific factors are more important than surgery specific factors in predicting the cardiac risk for non-cardiac surgical procedures, the type of surgery cannot be ignored when evaluating a particular patient undergoing an intervention. With regard to cardiac risk, surgical interventions can be divided into low risk, intermediate risk, and high risk groups with estimated 30-day cardiac event rates (cardiac death and MI) of <1, 1–5, and >5%, respectively. This risk stratification provides a good indication of the need for cardiac evaluation, drug treatment, and assessment of risk for cardiac events (*Fleisher et al., 2008*).