

Anesthesia and Pulmonary Hypertension: A Narrative Review

Abstract

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is a complex disease of the cardiopulmonary system. Perioperative management of PH is one of the most challenging issues for the anesthetists. Morbidity and mortality are significantly high in PH patients undergoing surgery due to right heart failure, arrhythmia, atrial fibrillation, ischemia, hemodynamic instability, hypoxia, respiratory failure, renal failure, sepsis, and stroke. In PH patients, it is important that more than one physician, including anesthesiologist, intensivist, pulmonologist, cardiologist, and surgeon, discuss the patient's possible difficulties and complications with a multidisciplinary approach and make a decision. In order to optimize the management of PH patients, it is necessary to comprehensively evaluate the underlying cause, pathophysiology, risk factors, course, and treatment of the disease. A balanced anesthesia technique, including inhalation or intravenous agents, appropriate regional anesthesia (RA), opioids, and α -2-adrenoceptor agonists, may provide the most uniform hemodynamic profile in these patients. The basis of anesthesia management should be to prevent and treat triggering factors, provide perfusion pressures, and optimize right ventricular functions. Advanced monitoring, pulmonary vasodilator therapies, adequate anesthesia and analgesia, and appropriate ventilator settings should be performed for patients with PH. Patients with PH should be followed in the intensive care unit in the first 48–72 h postoperatively. Our review aims to focus on appropriate preoperative preparation, perioperative monitoring, anesthesia and ventilator management, pain control, preventive methods, and treatment in patients with PH in light of the literature.

Keywords: Anesthesia management, comprehensive preoperative evaluation, multidisciplinary approach, pulmonary hypertension

INTRODUCTION

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is a heterogeneous systemic disease that affects the heart, brain, liver, kidneys, gastrointestinal tract, skeletal muscles, endocrine, immune and autonomic systems and it eventually leads to the right ventricular failure (RVF).^[1,2] The pathophysiology includes decreased organ perfusion, unbalanced neurohormonal activation, oxidative stress, abnormal immune cell signaling, and various hemodynamic consequences in response to the interaction of these systems. The most common causes of postoperative mortality in PH patients are acute RVF, arrhythmias (particularly atrial fibrillation [AF]), ischemia, congestive heart failure (CHF), unstable hemodynamic status, hypoxia, respiratory and renal failure, sepsis, and stroke.^[2,3]

PH is seen in 15–50 people per million.^[4] Although it usually affects women between the ages of 30 and 60, adverse clinical outcomes are more often pronounced in men. Hereditary and

idiopathic causes account for 52.6% of all PH cases. The most common etiological causes are left heart or lung diseases.^[4,5] Early diagnosis and treatment in patients with PH are critical in preventing morbidity and mortality.^[6]

PH is a severe progressive and chronic cardiopulmonary disease affecting patients' clinical course throughout the peri-operative period. Our review aims to focus on how to manage the patients with PH properly and effectively as anesthesiologists in the perioperative period.

DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION

The diagnostic criteria for PH include:

- a. Mean pulmonary artery pressure (mPAP) > 25 mmHg at rest or

- b. mPAP >30mmHg during exercise
- c. Pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) >240 dyn/s/cm⁵ (N: 100–200).

PH is a hemodynamic and physiopathological condition characterized by a progressive course. An mPAP between 20 mmHg and 24 mmHg is defined as borderline PH.^[2,7,8] PH is divided into five groups in terms of etiological causes, hemodynamic, and therapeutic modalities [Table 1].^[2,5,8]

1. Pulmonary arterial hypertension (Group I)
2. PH associated with left heart disease (LHD) (Group II)
3. PH due to chronic lung disease and/or hypoxia (Group III)
4. PH due to pulmonary artery obstructions (Group IV)
5. PH due to unclear and/or multifactorial mechanisms (Group V)

PH can also be defined according to hemodynamic parameters [Table 1].^[8,9]

1. Precapillary PH: Groups I, III, IV, and V
 - mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg
 - Pulmonary artery wedge pressure (PAWP) ≤ 15 mmHg
 - PVR ≥ 3 wood units (WUs).
2. Isolated postcapillary PH: Groups II and V
 - mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg
 - PAWP > 15 mmHg
 - PVR ≤ 3 WU.
3. Combined precapillary and postcapillary PH: Groups II and V^[8,9]
 - mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg
 - PAWP > 15 mmHg
 - PVR ≥ 3 WU.

The follow-up and treatment of PH in the perioperative period are one of the most significant challenges for anesthesiologists and intensivists due to high mortality and morbidity.^[6,10] By understanding the relevant and important risk factors, administering appropriate treatments based on PH

classification, and enabling careful planning, we can accurately and appropriately perform any surgery or intervention in these patients. Management of patients with PH requires a comprehensive approach to optimize hemodynamics (right ventricular [RV], preload, afterload, and contractility), minimizing risks and triggers, and carefully handling complications.^[13,10,11]

In noncardiac surgery, mortality and morbidity vary between 1%–18% and 14%–42%, respectively for patients with PH.^[3] Therefore, its significant length of both hospital and intensive care unit (ICU) stays. Eventually, it causes an increase in hospital costs and the risk of re-hospitalization.^[2,3]

THE PATHOGENESIS OF PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

Etiological causes that initiate the pathogenesis of PH include inappropriate angiogenesis, DNA damage, genetic mutations, metabolic disorders, and factors that disrupt the vascular structure.^[12] The mediators most accused in the pathogenesis of PH are endothelin 1, serotonin, thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂), epinephrine, norepinephrine (NE), nitric oxide (NO), and prostacyclin (PGI₂). Endothelin 1 is a vasoconstrictor peptide secreted by vascular endothelial cells, leading to pulmonary vasoconstriction and vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation. NO and PGI₂ are endogenous vasodilators produced in pulmonary vascular endothelial cells, and their production is decreased in many types of PH.^[12–14]

The pathogenesis of PH occurs in three different stages pathologically [Figure 1]: (1) endothelial dysfunction, (2) vascular remodeling, and (3) decreased apoptosis, neoadventitial excess cell proliferation, and thrombosis in pulmonary arterioles.^[14,15] Endothelial dysfunction is the primary factor in the pathogenesis of PH, and many molecular pathways have been described. Genetic susceptibility is significant in the development of PH. In particular, the bone morphogenetic protein receptor type II gene is thought to play a role in 75% of familial cases and 20% of sporadic

Table 1: Classification of pulmonary hypertension type based on hemodynamics and world health organization clinical groups

Definition	Characteristic	WHO clinical groups
PH	mPAP > 25 mmHg	All
Precapillary PH	mPAP ≥ 25 mmHg PAWP ≤ 15 mmHg PVR ≥ 3 WU	PAH PH due to CLD CTEPH
Postcapillary PH	CO normal/reduced/high mPAP > 25 mmHg PAWP ≥ 15 mmHg	PH with unclear and/or multifactorial mechanisms PH due to LHD
Isolated postcapillary PH	CO normal/reduced/high PAWP > 15 mmHg	PH due to LHD
Postcapillary PH with precapillary component	DPAP-PAWP < 7 mmHg PAWP > 15 mmHg DPAP-PAWP ≥ 7 mmHg	PH due to LHD

WHO=World health organization, mPAP=Mean pulmonary arterial pressure, PAH=Pulmonary arterial hypertension, PAWP=Pulmonary artery wedge pressure, PH=Pulmonary hypertension, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, CTEPH=Chronic thromboembolic PH, CO=Cardiac output, DPAP=Diastolic PAP, CLD=Chronic lung disease, LHD=Left heart disease, WU=Wood units

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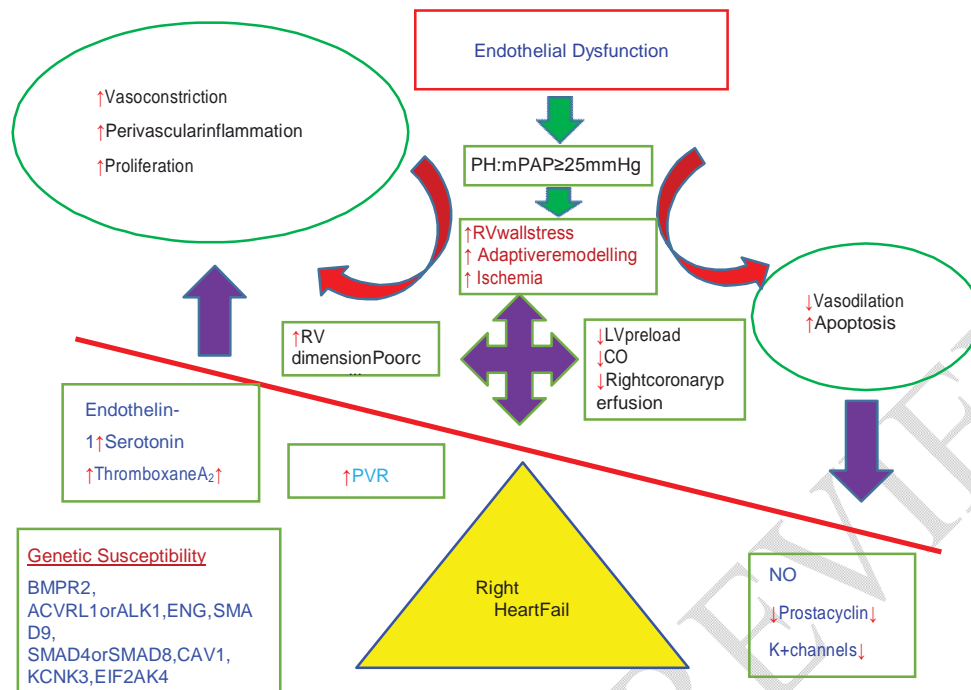


Figure 1: Pathogenesis and genetic susceptibility of pulmonary hypertension. mPAP=Mean pulmonary arterial pressure, PH=Pulmonary hypertension, RV=Right ventricular, LV=Left ventricular, CO=Cardiac output, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, NO=Nitric oxide

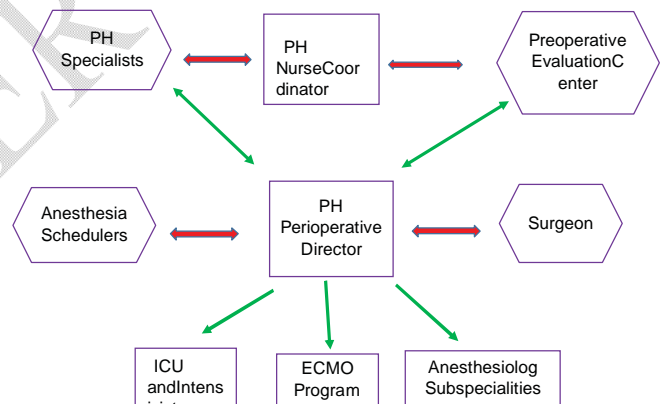
cases.^[16] Other mutations associated with the development of PH include GDF2 (codes BMP9), type I receptor (ACVRL1), and SMAD9 (codes Smad8). K channel subfamily K member 3 and caveolin-1 mutations have also been described, along with others.^[14,16] Therefore, there is a relationship between vasoconstrictive and proliferative mediators (endothelin-1, serotonin, and TXA₂), which are normally regulated and balanced according to physiological requirements. This balance is disturbed in PH among mediators with vasodilatory and anti-proliferative effects (NO, PGI₂, and K⁺ channels of smooth muscle cells). PH develops due to increased activity of serotonin, endothelin-1, TXA₂ mediators and decreased activity of NO, PGI₂ mediators, K⁺ channels of smooth muscle cells.^[14-17] Raised PVR caused by progressive vascular remodeling may lead to PH crisis and RVF, that has very high morbidity and mortality [Figure 1].^[18,19]

PERIOPERATIVE ANESTHETIC MANAGEMENT

Preoperative evaluation

The management of PH patients can be challenging and complicated. Detailed preoperative evaluation and correct anesthetic management will significantly increase the chances of a successful perioperative outcome in these patients. Since PH affects many organ systems (heart, lungs, liver, and kidneys), surgical preparations should be guided by a team's comprehensive anesthetic, surgical, pulmonary, and cardiac evaluation. Perioperative planning should be done by a multidisciplinary team in equipped centers [Figure 2].^[1,10,11,20]

Detailed history, signs, symptoms, and physical



examination are extremely important in the preoperative assessment.

Figure 2: Management of pulmonary hypertension in the peri-operative period. PH=Pulmonary hypertension, ICU=Intensive care unit, ECMO=Extracorporeal membrane oxygenation

The preoperative evaluation of the patient with PH and the identified risk factors are summarized in **Figure 3**.^[6,10,11,20] All important factors should be considered in the evaluation, such as the etiology and disease severity, comorbid conditions, type and urgency of the surgery, the patient's functional status, home medication regimen, treatment adherence, preoperative medication optimization and appropriate treatment, and assessment of baseline oxygen requirements.^[6,20-22] The presence of RVF findings such as S3 gallop, neck venous distention, peripheral edema, hepatomegaly, and abdominal ascites in the physical examination are important for clinical follow-up.^[23,25]

In general, the primary investigations include a comprehensive metabolic panel, preoperative routine laboratory evaluations

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(hemoglobin and hematocrit, creatinine, glomerular filtration rate, pro-brain natriuretic peptide [pro-BNP],

and liver function tests), pulmonary function tests involving arterial blood gas

(ABG) analysis, chest radiography, an electrocardiogram (ECG), transthoracic echocardiogram (TTE), 6-min walk distance (6-MWD) test, should be obtained and reviewed when necessary.^[6,10,21,22] There are identified risk factors to determine the prognosis in terms of mortality and morbidity [Table 2].^[3,6,10]

If the patient has dyspnea at rest, syncope history, functional impairment, presence of hypoxemia, exacerbated symptoms of RVF, or acid-based changes on the day of surgery,

the anesthesiologist and surgical team should consider the risk-benefit ratio if the operation is not urgent and confirm that the anesthesiologist has the knowledge, attitude, and tools to manage this status well, in case of acute RVF development.^[10] Preoperative risk factors include operation-specific and patient-related factors. The most important patient-related factors are the New York Heart Association grade >2, 6-MWD <300 m, estimated history of diagnosis, coronary artery disease, RVF, chronic kidney disease, and pulmonary thromboembolism (PTE).^[23,25] Surgical factors include emergency surgical procedures that last longer than 3h, moderate or high-risk surgeries (including thoracic, major abdominal, and orthopedic surgeries), and procedures that may increase the risk of venous insufficiency or embolization, and use of vasopressors.^[3,10,26] To predict postoperative cardiac mortality in noncardiac surgery, monitoring of pro-BNP levels is recommended.^[6]

It is common for patients with PH to overlook their disease in the preoperative period, and TTE findings can often

be unnoticed in these patients. Therefore, TTE should be evaluated

in detail in patients with suspected PH. We should consider that systolic pulmonary artery pressure (sPAP) measurement can be beneficial for the risk stratification and optimal guiding for the intraoperative management of these patients. Patients with PA P above 35 mmHg should be evaluated more thoroughly.^[23] Tricuspid annular plane systolic excursion (TAPSE) should be between 17 mm and 20 mm. TAPSE provides a great deal of information about RV function and prognosis in PH. In addition, right atrial enlargement surface (>27 mm²), TAPSE/sPAP (N: <0.19 mm/mmHg), tricuspid regurgitation velocity (TRV) (N: <2.8 m/s) measurements can also give information about the prognosis. The presence of pericardial effusion, decreased TAPSE, increased TAPSE/sPAP, TRV, and right atrial enlargement surface (>27 mm²) are distinguished prognostic markers.^[22] Preoperative determination of prognostic factors by TTE in patients with PH is vital for optimizing

anesthetic management, preventing complications, and decreasing mortality and morbidity [Table 3].^[23,24]

Patients should be reassessed and optimized before operation to decrease PVR and improve RV function if necessary. In addition, transesophageal echocardiography (TEE) and pulmonary artery catheterization (PAC) should be evaluated preoperatively if the patient has comorbidities or symptoms of RVF.^[10-13,23]

Medications used for treating PH should be taken before the operation. If the patient is not on treatment and the operation will not be postponed, Sildenafil 0.5 mg/kg PO every 6 h, 50–100 mg daily for adults, or 0.2 mg/kg/h intravenous (i.v.) should be started.

Fluid restriction and diuretics should be considered in RVF and hypervolemia. Anti-coagulation is needed for thrombosis

Table 2: Prognostic assessment in pulmonary hypertension

Prognostic determinant	Risk		
	Low	Intermediate	High
Clinical sign of RHF	Absent	Absent	Present
Progression of symptoms	No	Slow	Rapid
Syncope	No	Occasional	Repeated
Functional class	I, II	III	IV
6-MWD (m)	>440	165–440	<165
Cardiopulmonary exertion test	VO ₂ -peak >15 mL/kg/min (>65%) VE/VCO ₂ <36%	VO ₂ -peak 11–15 mL/kg/min (35%–65%) VE/VCO ₂ (36%–44.9%)	VO ₂ -peak <11 mL/kg/min (<35%) VE/VCO ₂ ≥45%
BNP or NT-proBNP	BNP <50 ng/L NT-proBNP <300 ng/L	%	BNP 50–300 ng/L NT-proBNP 300–1,400 ng/L
Imaging techniques	RA area <18 cm ² No pericardial effusion	ScvO ₂ >70% PaO ₂ <80 mmHg	RA area 18–26 cm ² g With or without minimal pericardial effusion RAP 8–14 mmHg CI 2.0–2.4 L/min/m ² SvO ₂ 60%–65%
Hemodynamics	RAP <8 mmHg CI ≥2.5 L/min/m ² SvO ₂ >65%		

ScvO₂ 55%–70%
PaO₂ 50–65 mmHg

BNP > 300 ng/L
NT-proBNP > 1,400 ng/LRA
area > 26 cm² Pericardial effusion
RAP > 14 mmHg
CI < 2.0 L/min/m²
SvO₂ < 60%
ScvO₂ < 55%
PaO₂ < 50 mmHg

VE/VCO₂ = The ratio between minute ventilation and CO₂ production, VO_{2-peak} = Peak oxygen uptake, RHF = Right heart failure, 6-MWD = 6-min walk distance test, BNP = Brain natriuretic peptide, CI = Cardiac index, NT-proBNP = N-terminal prohormone brain natriuretic peptide, RA = Right atrium, RAP = Right atrium pressure, SvO₂ = Oxygen saturation mixed venous blood, ScvO₂ = Central venous oxygen saturation

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prophylaxis. Besides, if the risk of venous thrombosis is high and there are clinical signs, heparin should be given as bridging therapy instead of coumadin. Anemia and iron deficiency should be corrected in the preoperative period to prevent worsening of PH. ACEI, ARBs, β -blockers, and diuretics should be avoided in the preoperative period.^[3,7,10,23] In our clinic, we start treatment to PH patients according to the etiological reason preoperatively (sildenafil, heparin, diuretic, etc.) and continue with appropriate medication (milrinone, inotropes, and diuretics) in the intraoperative period.

Intraoperative monitoring and management

Anesthesia or sedation is highly risky in PH patients with or without RVT. Operation groups according to risk ratio are given in Table 4.^[3,10] Since PH patients are difficult to manage, hemodynamic instability is quite common. Currently, anesthesiologists are increasingly likely to encounter PH patients who apply for elective operations.^[10,27] Understanding the underlying cause, subgroup, and severity of PH allows anesthesiologists to make a comprehensive anesthesia management plan to reduce patient-related risks. With the advent of advanced hemodynamic monitoring techniques and treatments, successful management of these patients is increasing.^[27]

Individualized preoperative risk evaluation, treatment optimization, and advanced peri-operative planning can reduce difficulties and complications. To minimize complications, evidence-based, systematic, and disciplined team consensus

is required. Anesthetic and surgical stress can exacerbate PH and lead to arrhythmias, CHF, myocardial infarction, postoperative respiratory failure, hemodynamic instability, and delayed extubation.^[23] Anesthesiologists need to provide optimizing hemodynamics, ventilation, oxygenation, perfusion, maintaining body temperature, acid-base, and fluid-electrolyte balance, using therapeutic vasodilators or vasopressors when necessary, by avoiding factors that may trigger PH, and controlling pain peri-operatively to ensure better outcomes.

Anesthetic applications of PH are shown in Table 5.^[3,10,23]

In the case of intravascular volume depletion due to insensible loss and excessive blood loss, the CO decreases because of insufficient right-sided filling pressures, and therefore perfusion cannot be achieved.^[3] If necessary, volume replacement with appropriate fluids and inotropes should be started immediately. The main goal of anesthetic management in PH patients should be to prevent RVT and PH crises and to provide systemic perfusion.^[12]

Patients with PH should be appropriately premedicated, but adequate preoxygenation should be ensured, especially in anesthesia induction, and hypotension and respiratory acidosis should be prevented as much as possible. Invasive monitoring should be performed in addition to standard monitoring, based on the risk of the operation, duration, and concomitant diseases. The American Society of Anesthesiologists recommends ECG, noninvasive heart rate, blood pressure (BP) devices, pulse oximetry (SpO₂),

Table 3: Peri-operative risk assessment according to transthoracic echocardiogram (systolic pulmonary artery pressure, tricuspid annular planes systolic excursion/systolic pulmonary artery pressure and tricuspid regurgitation velocity)

RV/PA systolic pressure (sPAP)	TAPSE/sPAP (mm/mmHg)	TRV (m/sn)	Secondary signs of PH	Probability of PH	Severity of PH
<35 mmHg or undetectable	<0.19	≤2.8	No	Low	Mild
<35 mmHg or undetectable 35–50 mmHg	0.19–0.32	2.9–3.4	Yes	Intermediate	Moderate
35–50 mmHg	>0.32	>3.4	Yes	High	Severe
>50 mmHg			Not required	High	

sPAP=Systolic pulmonary artery pressure, TAPSE=Tricuspid annular planes systolic excursion, TRV=Tricuspid regurgitation velocity, PH=Pulmonary hypertension, RV=Right ventricular, PA=Pulmonary artery

Table 4: Types of surgery according to risk status in patients with pulmonary hypertension

Low risk: <1%	Intermediate risk: 1%–5%	High risk: >5%
Superficial surgery Breast	Intra-peritoneal splenectomy, hiatal hernia repair	Aortic and major vascular surgery
Dental	olecystectomy	Open lower limb revascularisation or amputation
Endocrine	CEA and CAS	Thromboembolism
thyroid Eye	Peripheral arterial	Duodenal-pancreatic surgery
Reconstructive	angioplasty Endovascular aneurysm	Live resection
Carotid asymptomatic (CEA or CAS)	aneurysm repair	Bile duct surgery
Gynaecologic minor	Head and neck surgery	Oesophagectomy
Orthopedic minor (meniscectomy)	Neurological or orthopedic major (hip and spine surgery)	Adrenal resection
Urological minor (transurethral resection of the prostate)	logical or gynecological major	Total repair of perforated bowel
	Renal transplant	Tal cystectomy
	Intra-thoracic nonmajor	Pneumectomy

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Table 5: Anesthetic implications of severe pulmonary hypertension

Period	Anesthetic implication
Preoperative	A comprehensive evaluation of PH severity Avoid anxiety, pain and sympathetic stimulation Avoid oversedation and hypoventilation Continue all PH-specific, long-term therapy perioperatively
Intraoperative	Use suitable invasive monitoring Provide adequate anesthesia and analgesia PPV parameters FiO ₂ titrate to 60%–100% Low tidal volumes (6 mL/kg) PaCO ₂ : 30–35 mmHg EtCO ₂ : 30–35 mmHg Low PEEP (5–10 cmH ₂ O) Aggressively treat hypotension Maintain sinus rhythm Maintain systemic pressures Optimize RV function and CO with adequate preload, SVR and contractility MAP > 65 mmHg, CI ≥ 2.2 L/min/m ² Monitor RV and treat dysfunction Optimize fluid balance Minimize blood loss Minimize transfusion Avoid trigger factors that worsen PH and increase PVR: Hypoxemia Hypercarbia Acidosis Hypothermia Hypervolemia Increased intrathoracic pressure Atelectasis and hyperinflation Pain Consider pulmonary vasodilators to decrease RV afterload
Postoperative	Avoid pain and shivering Advanced monitoring Closely follow up first 48–72 h in the

ICUPH = Pulmonary hypertension, PPV = Positive pressure ventilation, FiO₂ = Fraction of inspired oxygen, PaCO₂ = Partial pressure of CO₂, EtCO₂ = End-tidal CO₂, PEEP = Positive end-expiratory pressure, RV = Right ventricular, MAP = Mean arterial pressure, CO = Cardiac output, CI = Cardiac index, PVR = Pulmonary vascular resistance, SVR = Systemic vascular resistance, ICU = Intensive care unit

respiratory rate (RR), end-tidal carbon dioxide (EtCO₂), and temperature monitoring for all surgical cases. Cardiac output (CO) monitoring with advanced dynamic parameters may guide the hemodynamic management in major surgeries. Neuromuscular monitoring should be performed with bispectral index (BIS) and train-of-four monitoring. While standard monitoring is considered adequate for minor and moderate operations in functional status II, all major operations and procedures in functional status III should be performed with advanced monitoring.

Warm fluids are of choice to prevent hypothermia and, in.v. liquid heaters, heating blankets, and forced air heaters should be used.^[3,10,11,23]

Intermittent ABG sampling should also be performed. An arterial line may be placed to provide continuous access to ABG samples and systemic BP monitoring. It allows rapid intervention, appropriate ventilation management, and drug treatment determination.^[28-30] Central venous catheterizations should be performed carefully to prevent triggering arrhythmias. Central venous pressure (CVP) can be monitored for volume status. CO monitoring includes the following hemodynamic parameters:

- Systemic vascular resistance (SVR)
- Stroke volume
- Pulse pressure variation
- Stroke volume variation
- Extravascular lung water
- Cardiac index (CI)
- Central venous oxygen saturation (ScvO₂)
- Mixed venous oxygen saturation (SvO₂).

TEE must be kept in the operating room intraoperatively. PAC can be placed and evaluated preoperatively in severe PH cases when necessary.^[10,30-32] The main goal in perioperative targeted therapy should be to ensure the perfusion and oxygenation of vital organs.^[33] In addition, its monitoring can show global tissue perfusion.^[30] In our clinic, we perform PAC in PH patients undergoing major surgery and support it with TEE. TEE can give information on cardiac wall motions, anatomy, valves' functions, and evaluate volume status.^[10,34-36]

ANESTHETIC TECHNIQUE PREFERENCE AND METHODS

Currently, no evidence-based information is available for choosing general, regional, or combined anesthesia as anesthetic technique for PH patients. General anesthesia (GA) is frequently used in patients with PH. However, current PH guidelines and experts recommend regional anesthesia (RA) in eligible patients for elective surgeries, as positive pressure ventilation (PPV) with high positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) and tidal volume may worsen RV afterload and, thus, PH clinic. Spinal anesthesia should be avoided as much as possible due to its sympathetic-blocking effects and rapid onset.^[10] Many opinions suggest a balanced method with high-dose opioids and low-dose inhaled anesthetics if GA is to be applied.^[10,11] It is vital to maintain RV function and reduce risk factors that cause pulmonary vasoconstriction (increasing RV afterload) or systemic hypotension (reducing RV perfusion).^[36] Epidural and/or peripheral nerve blocks are useful in peri-operative pain control. Uncontrolled pain may trigger PH. Therefore, it is important to make a personalized plan according to the underlying etiology, pathophysiology, and systemic involvement in a patient with PH.^[10-12]

The advantages of GA allow controlled ventilation, safe oxygenation, uncomplicated airway, and a direct route for administering inhaled pulmonary vasodilators. The disadvantages of GA are due to PPV, PEEP, and the eBP changes caused by anesthetics. Severe hypotension may dec

that may lead to RV ischemia, disruption of RV contractility, cardiogenic shock, and even death.^[37]

Sufficient depth of anesthesia and analgesia provided reducing catecholamine discharge and PVR. Laryngoscopy and intubation can cause PH crisis, RVF, and death in patients with serious PH; thus, meticulously laryngoscopy and intubation methods are essential. Lidocaine, opioid, Mg⁺⁺, α-2 agonists, and nonhistamine-releasing nondepolarizing muscle relaxants can reduce the sympathetic response and suppress the stress response to intubation.^[10] Moreover, i.v. or nebulized treatments with inhaled NO (iNO) or prostanoids may be given to minimize PH responses to intubation. The overall goal should be to prevent changes in preload, SVR, and contraction of RV to maintain CO.^[38]

Before induction of GA, a patient with PH must be adequately preoxygenated with 100% fractionated inspired oxygen (FiO₂) to prevent hypercarbia, respiratory acidosis, hypoxemia, and to increase functional residual capacity. Oxygen is a pulmonary vasodilator and helps prevent hypoxemia. Triggering factors such as hypoxemia, hypercapnia, acidosis, hypotension, and hypothermia should be **avoided**, and appropriate ventilation, adequate fluid therapy, and low-dose vasopressor should be administered when needed [Table 5].^[3,26,39-41]

There is no ideal anesthetic agent for PH patients. After premedication with benzodiazepines, balanced anesthesia induction and maintenance can be achieved with concomitant use of opioids, etomidate, propofol, ketamine, α-2 agonists (dexmedetomidine and clonidine), and/or volatile anesthetics (such as isoflurane and sevoflurane), as appropriate.^[37]

Benzodiazepines, which cause minor respiratory depression and hemodynamic changes, can be used carefully in unstable conditions. Hemodynamic effects of inhalational or i.v. anesthetics are given in Table 6. Propofol does not increase systemic vasoconstriction with minimal pulmonary vasodilation.^[27] Propofol significantly reduces SVR and slightly reduces cardiac contractility.^[38] Therefore, propofol may trigger oxygen desaturation in patients with cardiac shunt and high PVR by accelerating the right-to-left shunt. Therefore,

=Not known, RV=Right ventricular, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, SVR=Systemic vascular resistance, NO=Nitrous oxide

Table 6: Effect of anaesthetic agents

Anaesthetic agent	RV contractility	PVR	SVR
Isoflurane	↓↓	↑	↓
Desflurane	↓↓	↑	↓
Sevoflurane	↓↓	↔	↓
NO	↓	↑↑	↑↑
Thiopental	↓	↔	↓
Etomidate	-	-	↔
Ketamine	↓	↑ adult, ↔ child	↑
Propofol	↓↓	↓	↓↓
Opioids	↔	↔	↓
Dexmedetomidine	↔	↔	↑

↓↓=Marked decrease, ↑↑=Marked increase, ↑=Increase, ↓=Decrease, ↔=No change, -

careshouldbetakenininduction.^[38]Althoughthiopentalhasno effect on PVR, it decreases RV contractility and causesmyocardialdepression andhypotension.^[23]

Etomidateisawidelyrecommendedinductionagentbecause ofitsrapidonsetandhemodynamicstabilitywith minor effects on myocardial contractility, SVR, andPVR.^[23,38] Ketamine-induced catecholamine release may causepulmonaryvasoconstriction,andthiseffectcanbeattenuatedwith pulmonary vasodilators, benzodiazepines, or increasingFiO₂.^[37] Ketamine preserves SVR and BP without causingexcessive PVR, thereby protecting systemic and pulmonarycirculation. In addition, low doses of ketamine as part of themultimodalanalgesiamaybeneficialforpaincontrol.^[23,42]

Opioids have a modest impact on PVR and can be used to blunt response to sympathetic stimulation.^[23,37,42] Short-actingopioids,includingremifentanyl,arehighlyrecommended anesthetic drugs in balanced anesthesia.^[23,42,43] Neuromuscularagents such as atracurium and mivacurium that can increasePVRbyreleasinghistamineshouldbeavoidedinpatient withPH. Rocuronium and vecuronium are generally preferred asneuromuscularblockers.^[23,43]

Dexmedetomidineisacentrallyacting α -2agonistthatpreventstheincreaseinPVRbyreducingthetressandhemodynamicresponse to intubation and extubation with its sympatholyticeffect.Dexmedetomidineisaconvenientandeffective sedative-anestheticdrugforreducingopioidusageinbothGAand RA. It is an important advantage that dexmedetomidinedoesnotinteractwithdiureticsandphosphodiesterase(PDE)-5inhibitorsused inthe treatment ofPH.^[44]

Volatileanestheticsreducehypoxicpulmonaryvasoconstriction(HPV),thusdecreasingventilation-perfusion(V/Q)matching.^[45] Volatileanestheticagentscanbe administeredwithoutadverseeffects on PVR. Minimum alveolar concentration values ofbelow1.0aregenerallyrecommendedtominimizemyocardial depression. BIS monitoring can be helpful to evaluate theanesthetic depth.^[46] All inhalation anesthetics reduce SVR byblockingATP-dependentK⁺ channels,causingvascularsmoothmuscle relaxation and eventually hypotension. Nitrous oxideshouldnotbeusedduetoincreaseinPVR.^[23,38,42,43] DesfluraneincreasesHPV,whileisofluranereducethe severityofHPV.I soflurane and desflurane may reduce RV contractility in adose-dependentmannerwithariseinRVafterload.^[46]

Isoflurane and enflurane cause pulmonary vasodilation andinhibitionofendothelium-dependentrelaxationwithoutprominent change in pulmonary circulation tonus. SevofluranecausesadecreaseinRVfunctionandhasapulmonar

yvasodilation effect similar to isoflurane, which does not affectPVR.InPHpatients,sevofluraneandisofluranearegeneral lypreferredforinductionandmaintenanceofanesthesia.^[45]

Extubation should be performed in patients with FiO₂ below40%andappropriateventilationparameters.Inaddition,deeporearlyextubationshouldbepreferreddoprevents sympathetic stimulationinthesepatients.^[23,42,43]

As a result, a balanced anesthesia with opioids and low-dose volatile anesthetic agents is used for maintenance. Maintaining the balance between oxygen delivery and consumption during anesthesia and surgery is important.^[23,38,42] In our clinic, etomidate and opioids are mostly used for anesthesia induction. We use remifentanyl or dexmedetomidine, volatile agents (sevoflurane), neuromuscular blockers (rocuronium and vecuronium) for anesthesia maintenance in these patients. We also use dexmedetomidine for anesthesia and sedation in patients who have epidural anesthesia.

RA techniques can help maintain spontaneous breathing and avoid high pulmonary artery pressure (PAP) and intrathoracic pressure caused by PPV.^[38] Plexus blockades and peripheral nerve blocks are advantageous as they minimally affect hemodynamics, and have a high success rate and better postoperative pain control. Continuous RA methods are significant utilities for both intraoperative anesthesia and postoperative analgesia. When administering epidural analgesia, the concentration, dose, and volume of drugs should be fractionated and administered carefully, as they cause SVR, CPP reduction, and RVF.^[38,39] In thoracic and abdominal surgery, the combined administration of GA and thoracic epidural anesthesia (TEA) is recommended to decrease the utilization of GA anesthetics and peri-operative opioid consumption. TEA has no adverse effect on oxygenation and pPVR.^[39,40] However, high-level epidural block (T–T) may

cause sympathetic block that alters cardiac inotropy and chronotropy. Epidural anesthesia and analgesia in patients

with PH are associated with reduced arrhythmias, improved CO, better pain control, and reduced postoperative ileus.

MANAGEMENT OF PULMONARY HYPERTENSIVE CRISIS

Factors such as hypotension, hypoxia, hypovolemia, hypervolemia, hypercarbia, respiratory or metabolic acidosis, hypothermia, raised intrathoracic pressure, and pain may cause major cardiopulmonary complications by increasing PVR.^[3,10,23,38,47] In a PH crisis (e.g., increased PVR and PAP intraoperatively), the most critical point is to avoid increases in RV afterload and PVR. Maintaining RV contractility is crucial. Since calcium channel blockers reduce SVR, CO, and CPP, they may cause ischemia in PH crisis. Decompensated RVF, cardiogenic shock, and even death may occur due to PH crisis.^[47] Hypothermia should be avoided as much as possible since it increases SVR, V/Q mismatch, HPV, shivering, energy consumption, and ultimately PA P to a significant extent. It is essential to maintain ventilation, oxygenation, systemic perfusion, and hemodynamics [Table 5].^[10,28,30]

MANAGEMENT OF HYPOTENSION

Sudden hypotension should be avoided during

scenario.^[1,3,38] Severe hypotension can worsen RV function in two ways: reducing CPP and ventricular interdependence.^[47,48] As a result, perfusion deteriorates gradually and often manifests as cardiogenic shock together with systemic hypotension.^[3,10,23,47,48]

TTE or TEE is the gold standard in diagnosing and guiding treatment approaches in PH patients with hypotension because it provides detailed information about cardiac function and volume status.^[35] Since these patients have poor tolerance to systemic hypotension, they should be treated with appropriate inotropes and/or vasopressors such as NE, vasopressin, phenylephrine, and dobutamine. Treatment with NO, a synthetic analog of PGI₂, or inhaled vasodilators such as iloprost may be beneficial to prevent exacerbations. It does restore systemic BP and CPP.^[48] The hemodynamic effects of drugs used in PH are given in Table 7.^[48-54]

Vasopressin is a noncatecholamine agent that effectively restores SVR without increasing PVR, RV afterload, and tachyarrhythmias.^[49] Since vasopressin induces coronary vasoconstriction at high doses (>0.08 U/min), the doses should be kept within a narrow range (0.01–0.08 U/min). Many authors recommend vasopressin as the first agent to increase contractility and SVR, and to prevent hypotension for patients with PH in general and noncardiac surgery.^[49,50]

Pure α -agonists should not be given to prevent hypotension due to their negative effects on the pulmonary circulation. NE is usually preferred to phenylephrine in these patients.^[51,52] Dobutamine is a synthetic β - and β (β_1 β_2)-agonist with mild peripheral α -agonist activity. Intermittent PPV may also affect RV preload and have deleterious effects.^[10] RVF is the most serious intraoperative complication in patients with PH. Preventing systemic hypotension is critical perioperatively in this

activity. It protects SVR at lower and intermediate doses primarily by its chronotropic effect. It improves CO and reduces PVR. Since dobutamine also produces systemic vasodilation, it will potentiate systemic vasodilation effect of anesthetics. Thus, NE having inotropic and vasopressor properties is more preferred intraoperatively.^[53,54] In our clinic, we use NE or vasopressin as the first choice in case of systemic hypotension.

Table 7: Drug's effect on hemodynamic parameters

	CI	PVR	SVR	PVR/SVR	TSG
Inotropes					
Epinephrine	↑↑	↑	↑↑	↓	↑
Dobutamine	↑↑	↓	↓	↓	↓
Isoproterenol	↑	←	←	←	←
Dopamine*	↑↑	←/↑	↑	↑	←/↑
Inodilators					
Milrinone	↑↑	↓↓	↓↓	↓	↓↓
Levosimendan	↑↑	↓↓	↓↓	←/↓↓	↓↓
Vasopressors					
NE	↑	↑	↑	↑	←
Phenylephrine	↓	↑↑	↑↑	↑	←
Vasopressin	↓		↑↑	↓	←/↑
IVprostanoids					
PGI ₂ (epoprostenol/flolan)	←	↓	↓	↓	↓

↑=Increased, ↓=Decreased, ←=No change, CI=Cardiac index, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, SVR=Systemic vascular resistance, TSG=Transeptal gradient, PGI₂=Prostacyclin, NE=Norepinephrine

We use iNO, sildenafil, and milrinone frequently in our clinic in addition to these treatments when necessary. Extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) can contribute cardiopulmonary support when acute RVF is refractory to medical therapy in the appropriate indication and clinical condition.^[37,48,55]

5 inhibitors, and endothelin receptor antagonists (ERA).^[47] The effects and doses of vasodilator drugs are given in Table 8.^[47,48,54-57] The aim of treatment in

MANAGEMENT OF ARRHYTHMIAS

Although ventricular arrhythmias are infrequent, atrial flutter and AF are more common and can lead to right heart decompensation. In addition, these rhythm disturbances impair myocardial oxygenation, resulting in decreased RV compliance and diastolic dysfunction. As a result, systemic hypotension and RV ischemia may develop, worsening decompensation. Establishing and maintaining sinus rhythm in patients with Parkinson's disease is extremely important. The aim should be to rapidly provide normal sinus rhythm with cardioversion, ablation, or amiodarone in the preoperative period.^[55] In cases where cardioversion or ablation are not suitable; calcium channel blockers, β -blockers, and amiodarone should be considered in the preoperative period.^[47]

We insist on maintaining normal sinus rhythm perioperatively whenever possible. We use amiodarone as the first agent for intraoperative arrhythmias. According to the patient's clinic, we also use β -blockers or calcium channel blockers.

FLUID MANAGEMENT

Maintaining an optimal intravascular volume status in PH patients is important and difficult. Relative or true hypovolemia may develop when continuous fluid-blood losses are combined with the inflammatory response and prolonged losses to the third space from major surgery. In such surgeries, replacements should be done with appropriate fluids to ensure effective intravascular volume.^[47,48]

Since RV dysfunction is present in most of the PH cases, fluid overload and development of RVF have to be considered. These may be difficult to detect clinically. Since large volumes of fluid infusion can cause RVF due to existing RV dysfunction and, indirectly, left ventricular (LV) dysfunction. Fluids should be given by analyzing dynamic parameters with CO monitoring. Cold liquids should be avoided as much as possible, as they may cause RV oxygen supply-consumption imbalance.^[3,23,47,55] In major surgeries, patients with RVF poorly tolerate pericardial-pleural effusions due to excessive fluid shifts and blood loss impairing systemic perfusion and pressures. Thus, major surgeries result in increased mortality and morbidity in these population.^[22,23]

DRUG MANAGEMENT

Vasodilator drugs frequently used in PH are iNO, prostanoids, PDE-3-

PH is to reduce RV afterload and PVR. Inhaled pulmonary vasodilators are the most effective, accurate, and safe methods of restoring cardiac functions in PH.

- iNO (5–40 ppm continuously)
- Inhaled PGI₂ (nebulized or i.v. 2–20 µg/kg/min)
- Iloprost (5–10 mg, inhaled over 10 min, every 2–4 h or i.v. 1–3 ng/kg/min)
- Milrinone (25–50 µg/kg bolus, 0.5–0.75 µg/kg/min infusion)
- Sildenafil (0.25–0.5 mg/kg, every 4–8 h per oral, or i.v. 1.6 mg/kg/day)
- Nitroglycerine (i.v. 2–10 µg/kg/min)
- Sodium nitroprusside (0.2–0.3 µg/kg/min)
- Epoprostenol (10–50 ng/kg/min continuously).^[48,54-57]

However, inhaled pulmonary vasodilator therapies have no effect on the chronic thromboembolic PH subtype.^[56,57]

In the treatment of PH, iNO is widely used in all periods.^[37] iNO dilates pulmonary vascular smooth muscle by activating cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). Since iNO is rapidly inactivated by hemoglobin, it has no systemic vasodilator effect. iNO causes pulmonary vasodilation, reducing PVR, RV afterload, and PAP without affecting SVR.^[48] Since iNO only reaches the alveoli involved in gas exchange, it improves the ventilation/perfusion balance by increasing pulmonary blood flow in these areas.^[58-60] In addition, iNO significantly improves ScvO₂ and CO in critically ill patients with circulatory shock secondary to RVF.^[60,61] However, its effects are short-term as it is rapidly degraded by cGMP-PDE. Prostacyclin causes pulmonary vasodilation by activating cyclic adenosine monophosphate.^[60] The effects of inhaled epoprostenol on hemodynamics and V/Q adjustment are similar to those of iNO. Furthermore, prostacyclins inhibit platelet aggregation with vasodilatory effects. Pulmonary vasodilators should be used with caution in PH subtypes caused by pulmonary venous-occlusive disease, pulmonary vein stenosis, and LHD, as their use before the obstruction is resolved can lead to acute, life-threatening fatal outcomes.^[59] Systemic vasodilators cause a significant decrease in RV perfusion pressure by vasodilating the pulmonary and systemic vasculature. ERAs produce vasodilation by antagonizing endothelin. Besides, they have anti-inflammatory effects and they reduce vascular smooth muscle proliferation.^[58] These drugs are effective in improving hemodynamics and exercise capacity. In our clinic, ERAs (Endothelial receptor antagonists) and PDE-5 inhibitors are prescribed orally by the cardiologists in the preoperative period in these patients. Since inhaled pulmonary vasodilators may cause rebound PH and RVF, dose adjustment and discontinuation should be made carefully.^[60,61]

Milrinone is a PDE-3 inhibitor with inodilator properties that improve LV and RV contractility, CO and it causes peripheral and pulmonary vasodilation. C

o- administration of inotropic and/or vasopressors may be required to provide adequate mean arterial pressure (MAP).^[37,48] Drugs used to provide hemodynamic stability during anesthesia for patients with PH are given in

Table 8: Drugs used in the treatment of pulmonary hypertension

	Mechanism	Treatment dose	Adverse effects
Prostanoid			
Epoprostenol	Pulmonary vasodilation	IV: 1–2 µg/h increase as tolerated with initial target 6 mL/h after 48–72 h Nebulized: 0.2–0.3 mL/min of 10–20 µg/mL IV: 1–2 ng/kg/min increase as tolerated with initial target 10 ng/kg/min after 48–72 h Nebulized 5–10 µg for 10–15 min	Systemic hypotension, flushing, headache, diarrhoea, leg and joint pain
Iloprost	Pulmonary vasodilation	Nebulized 5–80 ppm continuously	Rebound PH, methemoglobinemia
Inotropes			
Dobutamine	CI ↑↑ PVR ↓ SVR ↓	IV: 2.5–20 µg/kg/min	Tachycardia Hypotension Tachyarrhythmias
Dopamine	CI ↑↑ PVR ↓ SVR ↓	IV: 3–10 µg/kg/min	Tachycardia Hypotension Tachyarrhythmias
Inodilators			
Milrinone	CI ↑↑ PVR ↓↓ SVR ↓↓	IV: 50 µg/kg over 10 min, then 0.375–0.75 µg/kg/min Nebulized: 0.2–0.3 mL/min	Hypotension
Levosimendan	CI ↑↑ PVR ↓↓ SVR ↓↓	6–12 µg/kg/min over 10 min, then 0.1 µg/kg/min infusion	Hypotension
Vasopressors			
NE	CI ↑ PVR ↑ SVR ↑	IV: 0.01–0.4 µg/kg/min	Bradycardia
Phenylephrine	CI ↓ PVR ↑↑ SVR ↑↑	IV: 40–100 µg bolus, 50–300 µg/min	Bradycardia
Vasopressin	CI ↓ SVR ↑↑	IV: 0.001–0.004 U/min	Bradycardia

↑=Increased, ↓=Decreased, ↔=No change. CI=Cardiac index, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, SVR=Systemic vascular resistance, IV=Intravenous, NO=Nitric oxide, NE=Norepinephrine

Table 8. Vasopressin has minimal pulmonary vasoconstrictive effects. Concomitant use of milrinone and vasopressin in the intraoperative period is appropriate for preserving RV contractility, SVR, and reducing PVR.^[48,62] Dobutamine can be used together with milrinone because it reduces PVR.^[37]

In our clinic, we continue i.v. pulmonary vasodilator therapy in the intraoperative period. In addition to this treatment, we use iNO and milrinone with NE or vasopressin. Inhaled pulmonary vasodilators may be administered through a high-flow nasal cannula, which may facilitate weaning and extubation.^[63,64] Oral sildenafil and tadalafil of PDE-5 inhibitors potentiate the effect of inhaled pulmonary vasodilators.^[48] They are effective in all types of PH, including LHD.^[65] Unlike other systemic vasodilators, they do not worsen intrapulmonary shunt in chronic respiratory diseases.^[48,65-67] PDE-5 inhibitors should be titrated slowly as they may cause systemic hypotension in the peri-operative period. The general opinion is to begin sildenafil 10 mg 3 times

and oral sildenafil with milrinone infusion postoperatively when necessary. Inotropics are often necessary to restore RV systolic function.^[48]

Despite all interventions, patients with severe PH may not improve their RV dysfunction and cardiogenic shock with severe deterioration of organ perfusion may occur. Maintaining systemic perfusion is the most critical goal. The most effective and fastest way is to initiate veno-arterial (VA)-ECMO.^[55]

It contributes to the improvement of oxygenation and ventilation, significantly reducing PVR.^[68] This may allow time to supplement other therapies with respiratory and cardiac supports. Furthermore, it is used as a bridge to transplantation in more critical situations.^[69] We use VA-ECMO to prevent RV failure and assist circulation when necessary.

VENTILATION AND OXYGENATION STRATEGY

daily and rise it to 20 mg as tolerated. For

recently diagnosed patients, sildenafil can be started preoperatively to prevent exacerbations of PH.^[59] In our practice, we start oral sildenafil three times daily (for 7 days until surgery, if the surgery is elective, in those diagnosed with PH in preoperative period. We continue milrinone infusion intraoperatively

The optimization of ventilation and oxygenation is based on surgery type and anesthesia strategy. PPV worsens CO,^[70] especially in the failing RV.^[71] For adequate oxygenation, high FiO₂ (0.6–1.0) is typically used to prevent hypoxic vasoconstriction. It is appropriate to start with a tidal volume of 6 mL/kg and not to increase the peak airway pressures above 30 mmHg.^[10] Alveolar overstrain should be avoided to prevent

UNDER PEER REVIEW

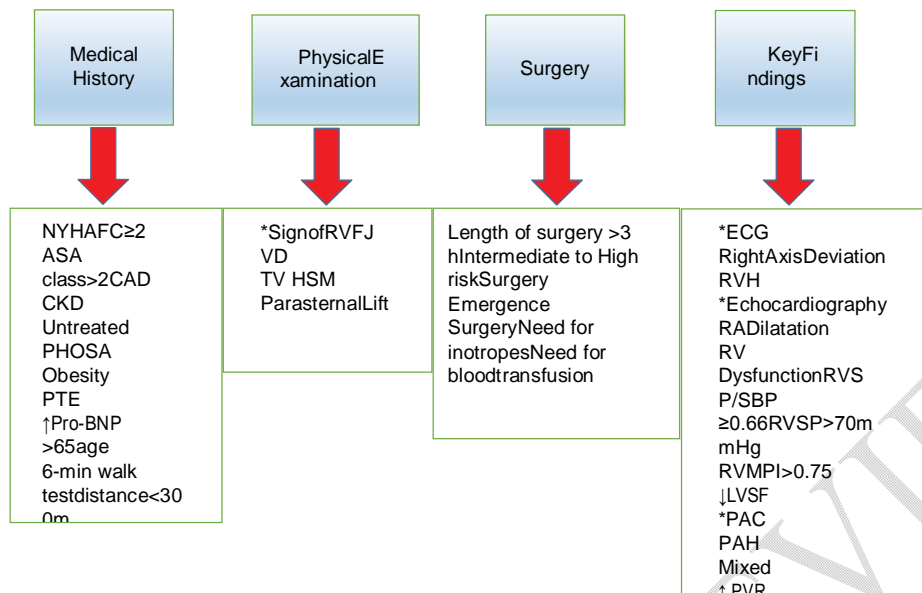


Figure 3: Preoperative evaluation of the patient with pulmonary hypertension and identified risk factors. ASA=American society of anesthesiologist, CAD=Coronary artery disease, CKD=Chronic kidney disease, PCWP=Pulmonary capillary wedge pressure, JVD=Jugular venous distension, LVSF=Left ventricular systolic function, NYHA FC=New York Heart Association Functional Classification, OSA=Obstructive sleep apnea, PAH=Pulmonary arterial hypertension, PTE=Pulmonary thromboembolism, PH=Pulmonary hypertension, PVR=Pulmonary vascular resistance, RA=Right atrium, RVF=Right ventricular failure, RVH=Right ventricular hypertrophy, RVMPI=Right ventricular myocardial performance index, RVSP=Right ventricular systolic pressure, SBP=Systolic blood pressure, TVHSM=Tricuspid valve holosystolic murmur, ECG=Electrocardiographic, * = Indicates the presence of high risk in patients with PH (SHOULD BE IN THE MENTION PAGE OF FIGURE 3)

the increase in PVR. The RR should be adjusted to target PaCO₂ of 30–35 mmHg and EtCO₂ of 30–35 mmHg. Since hypercarbia and acidosis can increase pulmonary vasoconstriction and worsen PH, adequate minute ventilation should be provided.^[10,23] PEEP is set to 5–10 cmH₂O, ideally.^[23] Adequate PEEP and recruitment maneuvers may contribute to the maintenance of V/Q matching. Higher PEEP levels can reduce preload and cause systemic hypotension. It may be required to increase FiO₂ rather than PEEP to improve oxygenation. In thoracic surgery, one-lung ventilation is avoided as much as possible because blood flow to the nonventilated lung decreases and the ventilation/perfusion ratio deteriorates, resulting in acute exacerbation of HPV-related PH.^[10]

In laparoscopic surgeries, pneumoperitoneum with insufflation reduces lung compliance and venous return due to increased intraabdominal pressure leading to the deterioration of oxygenation and hemodynamics. In addition, increased intraabdominal pressure and hypercarbia may trigger existing PH and lead to significant complications.^[10] Therefore, close and careful monitoring is recommended to ensure PAP < 35, PVR/SVR ratio < 0.5, MAP > 65 mmHg, systolic pressure > 90 mmHg, and CI > 2.2 L/min/m².^[3,10,23,48]

ANESTHESIA FOR PREGNANTS WITH PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

Changes occur in vital organs due to physiological, mechanical, and hormonal effects during pregnancy. These effects, in turn, are due to:

- (1) constrict (constriction)

of the uterus, (2) increment of relaxin peptide, which mediate the vasodilatory effects of hormonal changes by estrogen and progesterone and facilitate blood flow to critical organs, (3) increases in the systemic circulation. PH makes significant changes in all systems (cardiovascular, respiratory, and hematologic) of pregnant woman.^[72] In pregnant with PH, the outcome is not good despite advanced treatments. Avoiding pregnancy as possible for these patients is recommended. Epoprostenol, treprostinil, nebulized iloprost, sildenafil, and iNO can be used in medical treatment. ERAs are contraindicated during pregnancy due to their teratogenic effects.^[72-74]

In these patients, elective cesarean section is usually recommended under epidural or low-dose combined spinal-epidural anesthesia at 34–36 weeks.^[73,74] The target should be to maintain sufficient pain control while minimizing adverse effects. Early neuraxial analgesia (epidural, combined spinal-epidural) is recommended to reduce catecholamine-related cardiovascular stress due to labor pain. Controlled infusion analgesia or programmed intermittent bolus technique is preferred. The goal is normal labor is painless delivery without significant motor block.^[74] Appropriate volume replacement and, if necessary, a vasopressor infusion can be used to minimize the vasodilator effects of spinal and/or epidural anesthesia. Most anesthesiologists choose a combined spinal-epidural approach. According to the literature, the maternal mortality rate has been reported to be similar in RA and GA (~20%).^[73]

Comprehensive knowledge of pathophysiological changes in pregnancy and multidisciplinary approach with related

specialties are needed for better anesthetic management of pregnant with PH. Pregnant women have a higher risk of difficulty with airway and aspiration. Due to these risks and the variable cardiopulmonary balance in patients with PH, RA should be preferred to GA whenever possible. It is suggested that these patients are followed-up in ICU.

Both pregnancy and PH predispose to thrombosis.^[72-74] The most common cause of mortality is RVF and PTE in the peripartum period. Pregnant women with PH undergoing RA have a high risk of hematoma, and care should be taken in the peripartum period.^[73,74] We prefer epidural anesthesia to reduce sympathetic charge and control pain if surgery is not emergent.

POSTOPERATIVE CARE IN PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

The most risky period for PH patients undergoing noncardiac surgery is the postoperative period. These patients are followed up in postanesthesia care unit (PACU) and ICU for the first 48–72 h. Many patients with mild PH (mPAP <35 mmHg) undergoing low-risk and minor surgery can be effectively managed in the PACU. Appropriate management of these patients with a multidisciplinary approach perioperatively will reduce mortality and morbidity.^[75,76]

PACU staff should be given clear instructions regarding early physiological symptoms of deterioration and be thoroughly informed about who should be informed.^[76,77] In our clinic, we follow the patients with mild PH in PACU for the first 24 h and those with moderate and severe PH in ICU for the first 48–72 h.

Patients with PH are at high risk of sudden increases in PVR, arrhythmias, fluid shifts, PTE, ischemia, respiratory failure, and RVF. The most common causes of mortality are respiratory failure (60%) and RVF (50%).^[3,23,47,48,76,77]

As in acute respiratory distress syndrome, a protective ventilator strategy should be used for patients on mechanical ventilation.^[48] Hypercarbia and acute respiratory acidosis may develop with a protective ventilation strategy, which may increase PVR. Therefore, the ventilator parameters must be adjusted accordingly. Hypoventilation and alveolar derecruitment may occur during spontaneous breathing trials.^[10,37,48] Early mobilization and respiratory therapies are important to prevent atelectasis.^[48] To prevent hypoxemia, oxygen supplementation must be provided, and SpO₂ must be kept above 92%.^[48,75,77,78]

Post-operative atelectasis may increase RV afterload, impair the V/Q ratio, and increase intrapulmonary shunt. In addition, atelectasis may cause fever and thus increased metabolic rate, oxygen consumption, and eventually hypoxemia. Aggressive pulmonary toilet is important for all PH patients and should be started as early as possible. Spirometry, respiratory therapy, and if necessary, noninvasive PPV with low PEEP should be performed early.^[48,77,78]

Ensuring diuresis is critical in the postoperative period to prevent RV volume overload. Cardiac biomarkers such

as Pro-BNP and troponin may be increased due to RV overload.

These markers, together with perfusion markers such as lactate, S_{cvO_2} and S_{vO_2} , may contribute to the adjustment of diuretic therapy.^[76] In patients with oliguric renal failure who do not respond to diuretic therapy, nephrology consultation is needed for continuous renal replacement therapy, and a decision should be made by common consensus.^[48,76-79]

Price *et al.* reviewed 13 clinical studies with adult PH, 8 with PH undergoing endoscopy, 16 reviews, and 5 case reports for patients undergoing GA or sedation for noncardiac and nonobstetric surgery. In these studies, 30-day mortality was 2%–18% and 15%–50% for elective surgeries and emergency surgery, respectively. The most critical complication was RVF. Moreover, they suggest that personalized preoperative risk evaluation, treatment optimization, and advanced perioperative planning may improve outcomes.^[80]

Finally, the most common causes of early mortality in patients with PH are respiratory failure, arrhythmia, and RVF.^[26] The incidence of surgery for any reason in patients with previously treated or undiagnosed or diagnosed and incompletely treated PH continues to increase worldwide. Anesthesiologists need to recognize the symptoms and signs correctly in the preoperative evaluation to determine the safest anesthesia method and to manage the patient correctly in the perioperative period, as it will reduce the risk of complications and death.^[2,3,10,20,23,26,37,48] In our clinic, we have created a multidisciplinary team-based approach to (in) evaluating patients with anesthesia. In our study, which is in progress in our clinic, we evaluate the postoperative follow-up, important risk factors, and first 30-day complications in the postoperative period, mortality and morbidity of previously diagnosed patients with PH.

CONCLUSION

Management of patients with PH peri-operatively requires knowledge and experience. It is necessary to discuss the patient's short and long-term care goals, potential difficulties, and complications with a multidisciplinary team. The main goals in anesthesia management are understanding the main pathophysiology, optimizing functional status and hemodynamics, managing comorbidities, and avoiding PH crisis and RVF. A balanced anesthesia technique, including inhalation agents, appropriate RA, and opioids may provide these patients steady hemodynamic profile. In PH patients, advanced intraoperative and postoperative follow-up, pulmonary vasodilator treatments, adequate anesthesia, and analgesia should be considered. It is essential to optimize the patient for surgery in a nonemergency situation and to organize treatment and education of the patient for the long-term period of the disease.

Author contributions Nedim Çekmen came up with the concept, designed the study and supervised the manuscript. Nedim Çekm

en and Begüm Nemika Gökdemir collected, analyzed and interpreted (interpreted) the data. Both authors participated in the manuscript preparation and have given final approval for the current version to be published.

Ethical statement

The ethical statement is not applicable for this article.

Data availability statement

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analyzed during the current study.

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