

Management of intraoperative acute pulmonary embolism in a patient with subarachnoid haemorrhage undergoing femoral fracture repair

Journal of International Medical Research

2019, Vol. 47(10) 5307–5311

© The Author(s) 2019

Article reuse guidelines:

sagepub.com/journals-permissions

DOI: 10.1177/0300060519874158

journals.sagepub.com/home/imr



Yang Aiping, Zhang Shuangyin, Xing Yanhong
and Zhang Rongzhi 

Abstract

Acute pulmonary embolism (APE) during surgery can be life-threatening. We herein report a case of a 56-year-old man with subarachnoid haemorrhage who underwent surgical repair of a femoral fracture. During surgery with the patient under general anaesthesia, his oxygen saturation and end-tidal carbon dioxide decreased dramatically. An emergency transoesophageal echocardiogram demonstrated mobile echogenic densities in the right pulmonary artery and enlargement of the right atrium, and these findings were suggestive of APE. Considering the patient's history of subarachnoid haemorrhage, anticoagulation with heparin or thrombolysis therapy for APE was contraindicated. We recommended inferior vena cava filter placement to prevent recurrence of the APE. Unfortunately, the patient and his family members refused the filter implantation, and the patient was discharged.

Keywords

Acute pulmonary embolism, general anaesthesia, transoesophageal echocardiogram, subarachnoid haemorrhage, inferior vena cava filter, case report

Date received: 22 January 2019; accepted: 15 August 2019

Introduction

Acute pulmonary embolism (APE) during surgery can be life-threatening. The incidence of APE ranges from 0.3% to 30.0% in different surgical groups, and the highest

Department of Anesthesiology, Lanzhou University Second Hospital, Lanzhou, China

Corresponding author:

Zhang Rongzhi, Department of Anesthesiology, Lanzhou University Second Hospital, No. 80 Cuiyingmen, Chengguan District, Lanzhou 730030, China.
Email: appleyap0721@163.com



incidence is found in orthopaedic patients.¹ Symptoms such as dyspnoea, chest pain, haemoptysis, and syncope can be indicators of APE.^{2,3} However, the presence of these typical characteristics is difficult to determine in patients under general anaesthesia, increasing the difficulty of early diagnosis and timely treatment. Intraoperative transoesophageal echocardiography (TEE) can provide direct evidence of APE. This report describes a case involving a patient who developed intraoperative APE during general anaesthesia. This case demonstrates the value of using echocardiography in the diagnosis of APE.

Case presentation

A 56-year-old man with a history of smoking was admitted to the emergency department for treatment of a femoral fracture. Falling from a height had led to a slight disturbance of consciousness. Brain computed tomography (CT) revealed a laceration in the right temporal lobe of the brain and subarachnoid bleeding. Neurosurgical consultation showed no abnormalities. Chest CT showed changes indicating hypostatic pneumonia in both lungs. The patient had no history of hypertension, diabetes mellitus, or heart disease. The results of laboratory tests were within normal limits. The patient did not undergo routine anticoagulant therapy before surgery because of the subarachnoid haemorrhage.

On the third day of hospitalisation, the patient was scheduled to undergo surgery for internal fixation of the femoral fracture. In the operating room, peripheral intravenous access was established in the right upper limb, and standard monitors were placed. The Allen test was performed, and the left radial artery was then cannulated for continuous blood pressure monitoring. The monitors showed a blood pressure of 124/76 mmHg, heart rate of 108 bpm, and oxygen saturation of 95%. Considering the

patient's anxiety, the anaesthesiologist administered 70 µg of dexmedetomidine intravenously over 10 minutes. For anaesthetic induction, the patient received midazolam (4 mg), sufentanil (50 µg), etomidate (15 mg), and cisatracurium (12 mg). After intubation, the anaesthesiologist auscultated the chest and confirmed good bilateral air entry. Anaesthesia was maintained with remifentanyl (0.1–0.2 µg/kg/minute), sevoflurane (2%) in an air–oxygen mixture, and dexmedetomidine (0.4 µg/kg/h). Cisatracurium (5 mg) was administered at 1-hour intervals to maintain muscle relaxation. Considering the intraoperative application of vasoactive drugs, the anaesthesiologist inserted the central venous line through the right internal jugular vein.

Approximately 1 hour after the surgery was started, the anaesthesiologist noticed that the patient's end-tidal carbon dioxide (ETCO₂) had decreased from 35 to 15 mmHg within a few seconds. The oxygen saturation decreased to 80%, and the blood pressure dropped to 80/50 mmHg. However, no significant change in the airway pressure was noted. The anaesthesiologist immediately adjusted the mechanical ventilation to manual ventilation and auscultated the bilateral breath sounds. The heart rate gradually increased to 140 bpm, and an electrocardiogram showed atrial fibrillation. The central venous pressure increased to 28 cmH₂O. Intravenous administration of ephedrine (6 mg) was repeated, and 100% oxygen was administered via the endotracheal tube; this was followed by administration of epinephrine (10 µg). However, these protocols did not improve the patient's haemodynamics. Instant arterial blood gas analysis (ABGA) showed hypercapnia (Table 1). Emergency TEE demonstrated mobile echogenic densities in the right pulmonary artery and enlargement of the right atrium, and these findings were suggestive of APE (see Supplemental Video 1). Multidisciplinary consultation started immediately.

Table 1. Arterial blood gas analysis results.

Parameter	T ₀	T ₁	T ₂
pH	7.38	7.13	7.26
pCO ₂ (mmHg)	41	58.5	56.7
pO ₂ (mmHg)	70	52	63.4
SO ₂ (%)	94.6	67.8	93.2
Lac (mmol/L)	0.7	1.4	1.6
ctO ₂ (mmol/L)	19.6	13.4	17.7
HCO ₃ ⁻ (mmol/L)	24.7	22.6	26.5
ABE (mmol/L)	-0.1	-5.7	-3.1
SBE (mmol/L)	0.2	4.2	2.0

T₀: time point at which the patient entered the operating room.

T₁: time point at which respiratory and haemodynamic changes occurred.

T₂: 10 minutes after T₁; time point at which the patient's condition became stable.

pCO₂, partial pressure of carbon dioxide; pO₂, partial pressure of oxygen; SO₂, oxygen saturation; Lac, lactate; ctO₂, oxygen content; HCO₃⁻, bicarbonate; ABE, actual base excess; SBE, standard base excess.

The following treatment was administered: epinephrine (0.05 µg/kg/minute) and norepinephrine (0.03 µg/kg/minute), which were administered continuously; methylprednisolone (200 mg); and 5% sodium bicarbonate liquid (100 mL).

The patient was transferred to the intensive care unit, and the operation was postponed. A follow-up lower extremity Doppler study indicated intraluminal obstructions in the left superficial femoral vein and popliteal vein. Echocardiography suggested slight enlargement of the right heart, a severe increase in the pulmonary artery pressure, and moderate mitral regurgitation. The D-dimer level was high at 36.25 µg/mL (reference range, 0.0–0.3 µg/mL). These results further supported the diagnosis of APE noted on TEE. Considering his history of subarachnoid haemorrhage, the patient could not undergo anticoagulation with heparin or thrombolysis therapy for APE. We recommended placement of an inferior vena cava (IVC) filter to prevent APE recurrence after a multidisciplinary risk–benefit

discussion when the patient's haemodynamic parameters became temporarily stable. Unfortunately, the patient and his family members refused the IVC implantation, and the patient was discharged.

The patient provided written informed consent for publication of this case report. Approval by an ethics committee was unnecessary because of the nature of this study (case report).

Discussion

APE is associated with significant morbidity and mortality during the perioperative period.⁴ The source of the PE may be thrombosis, gas, amniotic fluid, or tumour tissue. The most common cause of PE is deep vein thrombosis.⁵ In our case, the most likely source of the PE was thrombosis caused by venous thrombosis in the lower extremities. First, orthopaedic surgery was a high-risk factor for pulmonary thromboembolism, although no thrombus was present before the surgery. Second, anticoagulant therapy was not performed before surgery because of mild subarachnoid haemorrhage.

TEE is generally considered to be the primary diagnostic technique for identifying intraoperative PE because of its high safety, availability, and utility in the operating room and its lack of interference with resuscitation efforts; its high diagnostic utility in nonsurgical settings has also been reported.^{9,10} A report of patients undergoing pulmonary embolectomy for severe PE showed a survival rate of 89% and suggested that the survival rate was associated with early diagnosis and surgical intervention.¹¹ Trained doctors who perform TEE in a timely manner can quickly diagnose PE and guide haemodynamically unstable resuscitation in patients with APE.¹² In the present case, TEE examination revealed thromboembolism, which serves as direct

confirmation of PE, thus leading to early medical intervention and good outcomes.

We recommend performance of a predictive trial to estimate the risk of PE in orthopaedic patients undergoing surgical intervention. Anaesthesiologists can use two scoring tests: the improved Wells scoring system and the revised Geneva scoring system.^{13,14} Based on the cumulative score of either of these tests, the patient can be classified as being at low, intermediate, or high risk of PE. In high-risk patients, as in our case, surgery must be postponed and a chest CT angiography scan must be performed.¹⁵ In intermediate-risk patients, however, we recommend the use of a prophylactic anticoagulant prior to surgery.

Based on the combination of the TEE results and clinical manifestations, the most likely cause of the haemodynamic and respiratory changes in cases such as ours is pulmonary thromboembolism. Once diagnosed, the treatment options include thrombolysis, IVC filter placement, and surgical embolectomy. Anticoagulant therapy is a basic method for the effective treatment of PE; in patients with cerebral haemorrhage, however, the effectiveness and safety of anticoagulant therapy have not been fully confirmed by clinical data.^{16,17} Thrombolytic therapy is another treatment choice for PE because it can quickly restore lung perfusion. However, it carries a significant risk of bleeding, especially when predisposing conditions or comorbidities exist. In particular, a head injury within 3 weeks is considered an absolute contraindication for thrombolysis.⁵ In the present case, we did not consider thrombolytic or anticoagulant therapy for the APE when weighing the risk of bleeding with the possible benefits of clinical thrombolysis.

We suggested that our patient undergo implantation of a recyclable IVC filter to prevent APE recurrence. IVC filters can reportedly be used when there are absolute contraindications to anticoagulation and a high risk of venous thromboembolism

recurrence.¹⁸ One study showed that the use of IVC filters and standard anticoagulant therapy significantly reduced the incidence of PE compared with anticoagulant therapy alone, but the treatment had no effect on mortality.¹⁹ In addition, surgical thrombectomy can be life-saving in patients with PE. Because of the complication of cerebral haemorrhage, however, the effectiveness of this method is only based on a few reported cases.²⁰

In summary, intraoperative APE is a major complication in orthopaedic patients. The anaesthesiologist must perform a risk assessment before surgery. The timely use of TEE during surgery allows the anaesthesiologist to make a rapid and accurate diagnosis and adopt effective responses and management. Moreover, PE may occur before surgery in patients with cerebral haemorrhage, and clinical treatment is complicated. We must find better ways to prevent this condition and treat such patients.

Declaration of conflicting interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Funding

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

ORCID iD

Zhang Rongzhi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1273-7021>

Supplemental material

Supplemental material for this article is available online.

References

1. Desciak MC and Martin DE. Perioperative pulmonary embolism: diagnosis and anaesthetic management. *J Clin Anesth* 2011; 23: 153–165.

2. Wells PS, Ginsberg JS, Anderson DR, et al. Use of a clinical model for safe management of patients with suspected pulmonary embolism. *Ann Intern Med* 1998; 129: 997–1005.
3. Prandoni P, Lensing AW, Prins MH, et al. Prevalence of pulmonary embolism among patients hospitalized for syncope. *N Engl J Med* 2016; 375: 1524–1531.
4. Anderson FA Jr, Wheeler HB, Goldberg RJ, et al. A population-based perspective of the hospital incidence and case-fatality rates of deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism. The Worcester DVT Study. *Arch Intern Med* 1991; 151: 933–938.
5. Konstantinides SV, Torbicki A, Agnelli G, et al. 2014 ESC guidelines on the diagnosis and management of acute pulmonary embolism. *Eur Heart J* 2014; 35: 3033–3069. 3069a–3069k.
6. Wiegand UK, Kurowski V, Giannitsis E, et al. Effectiveness of end-tidal carbon dioxide tension for monitoring thrombolytic therapy in acute pulmonary embolism. *Crit Care Med* 2000; 28: 3588–3592.
7. Goldhaber SZ and Elliott CG. Acute pulmonary embolism: part I: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and diagnosis. *Circulation* 2003; 108: 2726–2729.
8. Baile EM, King GG, Muller NL, et al. Spiral computed tomography is comparable to angiography for the diagnosis of pulmonary embolism. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2000; 161: 1010–1015.
9. Vieillard-Baron A, Qanadli SD, Antakly Y, et al. Transoesophageal echocardiography for the diagnosis of pulmonary embolism with acute cor pulmonale: a comparison with radiological procedures. *Intensive Care Med* 1998; 24: 429–433.
10. Van der Wouw PA, Koster RW, Delemarre BJ, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of transoesophageal echocardiography during cardiopulmonary resuscitation. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1997; 30: 780–783.
11. Aklog L, Williams CS, Byrne JG, et al. Acute pulmonary embolectomy: a contemporary approach. *Circulation* 2002; 105: 1416–1419.
12. Rosenberger P, Shernan SK, Body SC, et al. Utility of intraoperative transoesophageal echocardiography for diagnosis of pulmonary embolism. *Anaesth Analg* 2004; 99: 12–16.
13. Douma RA, Gibson NS, Gerdes VE, et al. Validity and clinical utility of the simplified Wells rule for assessing clinical probability for the exclusion of pulmonary embolism. *Thromb Haemost* 2009; 101: 197–200.
14. Klok FA, Mos IC, Nijkeuter M, et al. Simplification of the revised Geneva score for assessing clinical probability of pulmonary embolism. *Arch Intern Med* 2008; 168: 2131–2136.
15. Allport LE and Butcher KS. Thrombolysis for concomitant acute stroke and pulmonary embolism. *J Clin Neurosci* 2008; 15: 917–920.
16. Lobo JL, Nieto JA, Zorrilla V, et al. Venous thromboembolism in patients with intracranial haemorrhage. *Thromb Haemost* 2011; 106: 750–752.
17. Oneglia C and Gualeni A. Pulmonary embolism after brain haemorrhage in a hypertensive patient: the therapeutic dilemma. *J Thromb Thrombolysis* 2008; 25: 231–234.
18. Davies MG, Hart JP and El-Sayed HF. Efficacy of prophylactic inferior vena caval filters in prevention of pulmonary embolism in the absence of deep venous thrombosis. *J Vasc Surg Venous Lymphat Disord* 2016; 4: 127–130.e1.
19. The PREPIC Study Group. Eight-year follow-up of patients with permanent vena cava filters in the prevention of pulmonary embolism: the PREPIC (Prevention du Risque d'Embolie Pulmonaire par Interruption Cave) randomized study. *Circulation* 2005; 112: 416–422.
20. Fukuda I, Fukui K, Minakawa M, et al. Rescue surgical embolectomy for fatal pulmonary embolism in-patient with intracranial haemorrhage. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2006; 81: 735–737.