

Anesthesia for geriatric patients: Special considerations and best practices.

Fedik Abdul Rantam*

Department of Vaccine Technology and Development, Universitas Airlangga, Indonesia

Introduction

The aging population is rapidly increasing globally, and with it comes a greater demand for healthcare services, particularly in the field of surgery. As the number of geriatric patients undergoing surgical procedures continues to rise, anesthesia providers must understand the unique challenges and considerations required when managing older adults. The physiological changes associated with aging, along with the increased likelihood of comorbidities, make anesthesia in geriatric patients more complex compared to younger populations. This article delves into the special considerations and best practices for administering anesthesia to older adults, ensuring both their safety and comfort during surgical procedures [1].

Understanding the physiological changes that occur with aging is crucial in tailoring anesthesia for geriatric patients. The aging process leads to alterations in various organ systems, which can impact the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of anesthetic drugs. These changes must be taken into account when planning anesthetic management [2].

As people age, their cardiovascular system undergoes significant changes. The heart becomes less efficient due to stiffening of the blood vessels, a reduction in myocardial contractility, and diminished responsiveness to adrenergic stimulation. The result is an increased risk of hypotension and arrhythmias during anesthesia. Additionally, older adults often have atherosclerosis and other underlying cardiovascular diseases, which further complicate anesthesia management. Anesthesiologists must be prepared to manage hemodynamic fluctuations, use vasopressors appropriately, and closely monitor blood pressure and heart rate throughout the procedure [3].

Aging affects the lungs and respiratory system in several ways, such as decreased lung elasticity, reduced chest wall compliance, and diminished ciliary function, leading to a decreased ability to clear mucus. The aging lung is also less responsive to hypoxia and hypercapnia, which can result in respiratory instability during surgery. Older patients may have a higher incidence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) or interstitial lung disease, both of which can complicate anesthesia. Anesthesiologists need to carefully monitor oxygenation, ventilation, and respiratory function during the perioperative period. Preoperative pulmonary

function tests may be helpful to assess baseline respiratory status and optimize management [4].

Renal function declines with age, primarily due to a reduction in glomerular filtration rate (GFR) and renal blood flow. As a result, older patients are more likely to experience delayed clearance of anesthetic drugs and their metabolites. This can lead to prolonged sedation, increased risk of drug toxicity, and difficulties in managing fluid balance. The liver also undergoes age-related changes, such as a decrease in liver size, hepatic blood flow, and enzyme activity, which can affect the metabolism of anesthetic agents. Careful dosing and monitoring of drugs with renal or hepatic metabolism are essential in older patients to avoid complications such as drug accumulation and adverse effects [5].

Geriatric patients often present with multiple comorbidities, including cardiovascular disease, diabetes, hypertension, arthritis, and cognitive impairment. Each of these conditions can affect anesthetic management. For example, patients with diabetes may require careful blood glucose monitoring, and those with cardiovascular disease may need more intensive hemodynamic monitoring during anesthesia. An anesthesiologist must collaborate with other members of the healthcare team to optimize the management of comorbid conditions preoperatively and adjust anesthetic strategies accordingly [6].

A comprehensive preoperative assessment is essential for geriatric patients. This assessment should include a thorough history and physical examination, focusing on cardiovascular, respiratory, renal, hepatic, and neurological function. Laboratory tests, including renal function tests, liver function tests, and complete blood count, may be warranted. Additionally, preoperative screening for cognitive impairment or delirium should be conducted, especially for patients undergoing major surgery. An assessment of the patient's medication list is critical to identify potentially interacting drugs or medications that may need to be discontinued before surgery [7].

The selection of anesthetic agents for elderly patients should be made with great care. Short-acting agents with a predictable onset and recovery profile are preferred, as they reduce the risk of prolonged sedation or delayed emergence. For example, the use of propofol, which has a rapid onset and short duration of action, may be ideal for induction and maintenance of

*Correspondence to: Fedik Abdul Rantam, Department of Vaccine Technology and Development, Universitas Airlangga, Indonesia, E-mail: rantamabd@gmail.com

Received: 03-Dec-2024, Manuscript No. AAACSR-24-147176; Editor assigned: 04-Dec-2024, Pre QC No. AAACSR-24-147176 (PQ); Reviewed: 18-Dec-2024, QC No. AAACSR-24-147176; Revised: 24-Dec-2024, Manuscript No. AAACSR-24-147176 (R); Published: 31-Dec-2024, DOI: 10.35841/aaacsr-8.4.198

anesthesia. The dose of anesthetic agents should be reduced in elderly patients, as they are more sensitive to the effects of these drugs. Regional anesthesia, such as spinal or epidural blocks, may also be considered in certain cases, as it often provides better pain control with fewer systemic side effects [8].

Continuous and vigilant monitoring is crucial for older adults undergoing anesthesia. In addition to the standard monitoring of vital signs (heart rate, blood pressure, oxygen saturation, and temperature), more advanced monitoring may be necessary for elderly patients with significant comorbidities. For instance, invasive blood pressure monitoring or central venous pressure monitoring may be required in patients with cardiovascular disease. Additionally, monitoring for signs of postoperative cognitive dysfunction, such as confusion or agitation, is important, particularly in patients with a history of dementia or other cognitive impairments [9].

The postoperative period in elderly patients requires careful management to prevent complications and ensure a smooth recovery. Geriatric patients are at higher risk for complications such as delirium, pneumonia, deep vein thrombosis (DVT), and pressure ulcers. Postoperative pain management should be balanced, as elderly patients are at increased risk for opioid side effects, such as constipation, sedation, and respiratory depression. Multimodal analgesia, including the use of non-opioid analgesics, regional blocks, and physical therapy, should be considered to reduce opioid requirements. Postoperative cognitive dysfunction should be monitored, and interventions, such as early mobilization and cognitive support, can help minimize its impact [10].

Conclusion

Anesthesia for geriatric patients requires careful consideration of the unique physiological and clinical factors associated with aging. The changes in cardiovascular, respiratory, renal, hepatic, and neurological systems necessitate adjustments in anesthetic drug selection, dosing, and monitoring. A thorough preoperative assessment, careful management of comorbidities, and vigilant intraoperative and postoperative care are essential in ensuring the safety and well-being of older adults undergoing surgery. By understanding the specific

challenges and tailoring anesthesia techniques to the needs of geriatric patients, anesthesiologists can significantly improve outcomes and reduce the risk of complications, enhancing both the quality and longevity of life for older patients undergoing surgical interventions.

References

1. Anderson GG, Palermo JJ, Schilling JD, et al. Intracellular bacterial biofilm-like pods in urinary tract infections. *Science*. 2003;301(5629):105-7.
2. Armbruster CE, Mobley HL, Pearson MM, et al. Pathogenesis of *Proteus mirabilis* infection. *EcoSal Plus*. 2018;8(1).
3. Balsalobre C, Morschhauser J, Jass J, et al. Transcriptional analysis of the *sfa* determinant revealing multiple mRNA processing events in the biogenesis of S fimbriae in pathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *J Bacteriol*, 2003;185(2):620-29.
4. Schaffer JN, Norsworthy AN, Sun TT, et al. *Proteus mirabilis* fimbriae- and urease-dependent clusters assemble in an extracellular niche to initiate bladder stone formation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2016;113(16):4494-9.
5. Anderson GG, Palermo JJ, Schilling JD, et al. Life below the gum line: pathogenic mechanisms of *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev*. 1998;62:1244-63.
6. Adewoye AH, Nolan VG, Ma Q. Hemostasis and thrombosis. *Genetics*. 2007;119:U13-7.
7. Anemia H. Bibliography Current World Literature Vol 10 No 6 November 2003. *Cur Opin in Hematol* 2003;10:469-98.
8. George JN, Nester CM. Syndromes of thrombotic microangiopathy. *New England J Med*. 2014;371(7):654-66.
9. Cuker A, Cines DB. Immune thrombocytopenia. *Hematology 2010, the American Society of Hematology Education Program Book*. 2010;2010(1):377-84.
10. Neunert C. American Society of Hematology 2019 guidelines for immune thrombocytopenia. *Blood advances*. 2019 Dec 10;3(23):3829-66.