

## 10.3 ACTIVE WARMING AND THERMAL INSULATION IN THE PREOPERATIVE AND INTRAOPERATIVE PHASES FOR THE PREVENTION OF IPH

### CHARACTERISTICS OF CLINICAL STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE REVIEW (APPENDIX C)

Six studies were included in this pre and postoperative warming mechanisms review (Bock 1998; Buggy 1994; Sheng 2003; Smith 2007; Wong 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998). The Sheng (2003) study randomised the patients to four groups, with different interventions given in the preoperative (silver hat and jacket versus none) and intraoperative (reflective blanket versus cloth blanket) phases. However, results were not reported separately for the four groups, so that the comparison, preoperative (reflective hats and jackets) plus intraoperative (reflective blanket) versus usual care could not be accessed. Thus, Sheng (2003) became ineligible for the pre and intraoperative review, leaving five included studies. An additional study (Horn 2002) was included as indirect evidence, and is presented separately: patients were pregnant women undergoing elective Caesarean section under epidural anaesthesia. There were no excluded studies for this review.

#### Study details

A total of 563 patients were included in five studies. Thirty further patients were included in the indirect study, Horn (2002). One study was conducted in the UK (Wong 2007), one in Ireland (Buggy 1994), one in Germany (Bock 1998), and one in Australia (Wongprasartsuk 1998); Smith (2007) and the indirect study, Horn (2002), were conducted in the US. The Smith study was funded by Smiths Medical ASD Inc (the manufacturers of the warming device).

Most studies were of small size, the total number of patients ranging from 26 (Wongprasartsuk 1998) to 336 (Smith 2007). Three of the studies had 20 or fewer patients in the intervention arm (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect).

#### Participants

The age range of participants across studies was 14 (Buggy 1994) to 79 years, with the mean age (where given) ranging from 32 to 46 years. Although the Buggy (1994) study of 68 patients had an age range from 14 years, the mean age was 35, so the inclusion of some children was not considered important. One study was carried out exclusively in women (Horn 2002, indirect).

The ASA grade was stated to be I to II in Buggy (1994). Four studies had patients of ASA grades I to III (Bock 1998; Smith 2007; Wong 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998). For the indirect study, Horn (2002), the patients were said to be 'healthy'.

A range of procedures was undertaken. Two studies included patients undergoing abdominal surgery (Bock 1998; Wong 2007); one in orthopaedics (Wongprasartsuk 1998); one in

1 orthopaedics and plastic surgery (Buggy 1994) and one in gynaecology, orthopaedics, urology  
2 and general surgery (Smith 2007). The surgery grade was classified as 2/3 for Buggy (1994),  
3 grade 4 for Bock (1998) and unclear in two studies (Smith 2007; Wong 2007).

4  
5 Classification by magnitude of surgery was possible for the following studies:

- 6 • Patients in three studies had major surgery (Bock 1998; Wong 2007; Wongprasartsuk  
7 1998)
- 8 • One study was classified as having intermediate surgery (Horn 2002, indirect)
- 9 • One study was mixed major and minor (Buggy 1994)
- 10 • One study was unclear (Smith 2007; gynaecological /orthopaedic/ urological/ general  
11 surgery scheduled greater than 30 minutes: could be major or intermediate).

12  
13 All patients received elective surgery under general anaesthesia, apart from the indirect study  
14 Horn (2002), which used regional anaesthesia. Four studies gave premedication:

- 15 • One study gave 7.5mg midazolam (Bock 1998 oral route, 10 minutes before arrival in the  
16 holding area)
- 17 • Smith (2007) gave 1 to 2mg midazolam (no details)
- 18 • One study gave 10mg oral temazepam or diazepam (Buggy 1994)
- 19 • The indirect study, Horn (2002), gave ranitidine 2 hours before surgery.

20  
21 The other studies did not mention premedication, but it is not clear if the studies failed to  
22 report this or if it was not given: Wong (2007) did give many details about the anaesthetic  
23 drugs used; but Wongprasartsuk (1998) gave few details about the anaesthesia.

24  
25 The duration of anaesthesia was between 30 and 60 minutes in one study (Buggy 1994) and  
26 more than one hour for the other studies. The duration of surgery was 30 to 60 minutes for  
27 one study (Buggy 1994); a mean of 1 hour for one study (Smith 2007); 1 to 3 hours for one  
28 (Wongprasartsuk 1998); over 3 hours for two studies (Bock 1998; Wong 2007).

29  
30 For the indirect study, Horn (2002), the patients received surgery under epidural anaesthesia.  
31 Surgery started approximately 80 minutes after induction of anaesthesia and the duration of  
32 surgery was 30 to 60 minutes.

### 33 34 **Interventions**

35 One study (Buggy 1994) gave the patients reflective blankets, four used forced air warming  
36 (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Smith 2007; Horn 2002) and one placed the patients on  
37 heated conductive mattresses (Wong 2007).

38  
39 The temperature settings and durations of forced air warming were:

- 40 • Warm Touch® 40 to 42°C from 30 minutes pre-induction (Bock 1998);

- 1 • Bair Hugger® from at least 30 minutes pre-induction (mean 55 to 58 minutes)  
2 (Wongprasartsuk 1998);
- 3 • Snuggle Warm® convective warming system (SIMS) 40°C (SD 1) from about 30 minutes  
4 preoperatively (mean 42, SD 38 min) (Smith 2007);
- 5 • Bair Hugger® 43°C from 15 minutes before insertion of epidural catheter (indirect Horn  
6 2002).

## 8 **Comparisons**

9 The following comparisons were reported:

- 10 • Thermal insulation versus usual care (Buggy 1994);
- 11 • Active warming versus usual care (Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect);
- 12 • Active warming 1 + Active warming 2 versus Active warming 2 (Bock 1998; Wong 2007);
- 13 • Active warming + fluid warming (38 to 39°C) versus usual care + PRN active warming and  
14 fluid warming (Smith 2007).

15  
16 More specifically, the comparisons were:

### 17 **A. Thermal insulation versus usual care (pre and intraoperative phases)**

- 18 • Reflective blankets versus usual care (surgical drape), from before induction – duration  
19 not specified:
  - 20 ○ No patients received IV fluids during anaesthesia (Buggy 1994).

### 22 **B. Active warming versus usual care (pre and intraoperative phases)**

- 23 • Upper body forced air warming versus usual care (cotton blanket), from 15 minutes before  
24 insertion of epidural catheter (Horn 2002, indirect).

### 26 **C. Active warming 1 (pre+intra) + active fluid warming (intra) versus active fluid 27 warming (intra)**

- 28 • Pre+intra: Upper body forced air warming versus usual care (two cotton blankets), for at  
29 least 30 minutes before induction: mean 55 and 58 minutes:
  - 30 ○ Intraoperatively, both groups received IV fluids warmed with a warming coil  
31 (Wongprasartsuk 1998).

### 33 **D. Active warming 1 (pre+intra) + active warming 2 (intra) versus active warming 2 34 (intra)**

- 35 • Pre+Intra: Upper body forced air warming versus no intervention from 30 minutes before  
36 induction:
  - 37 ○ Intraoperatively, both groups received circulating water mattress, blankets and fluid  
38 warming (Bock 1998);
- 39 • Pre+Intra: warming mattress versus placebo warming mattress (switched off), from 30

1 minutes before induction:

- 2 ○ Intraoperatively, both groups received forced air warming (40°C) and fluid warming;
- 3 ○ The intervention group also had mattress warming in recovery (Wong 2007).

4  
5 **E. Active patient warming (pre+intra) plus active fluid warming (intra) versus usual care**  
6 **(pre+intra)**

- 7 • Forced air warming (pre+intra) plus Hotline fluid warming 1.13 litre (38 to 39°C;  
8 intraoperatively) versus usual care (pre+intra):
  - 9 ○ Control group had PRN active warming and fluid warming intraoperatively at the  
10 discretion of the anaesthetist;
  - 11 ○ Both groups had warmed blankets preoperatively according to need (Smith 2007).

12  
13 The GDG decided to combine the results from comparison types (B), (C) and (D). This  
14 assumes that the effects from different types of warming are additive. Smith (2007) was  
15 treated separately because it was mainly a comparison of the combination of two types of  
16 warming versus usual care.

17  
18 **Outcomes**

19 The studies measured the following outcomes:

20  
21 **Primary outcomes:**

22 Only one study (Smith 2007) reported the number of patients with IPH, but most recorded the  
23 core temperature at different times. For this core temperature outcome, the GDG considered  
24 an increase of 0.5°C over the control group temperature to be clinically significant for a control  
25 group temperature above 36.0°C and a difference of 0.2°C to be clinically significant for  
26 control group temperatures below 36.0°C.

27  
28 Core temperature was measured at various times in different studies.

- 29 • In the intraoperative period (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Smith 2007; Wong 2007;  
30 Horn 2002, indirect);
- 31 • At the end of surgery (Buggy 1994; Smith 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002,  
32 indirect);
- 33 • In PACU (Smith 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998).

34  
35 Shivering was measured in five studies (Buggy 1994; Bock 1998; Smith 2007;  
36 Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect).

37  
38 Three studies reported patient centred outcomes:

- 39 • Thermal discomfort (Buggy 1994; Smith 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998);
- 40 • Pain (Wongprasartsuk 1998).

Three studies measured core temperature at the tympanic membrane (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect); one study (Buggy 1994) used a nasopharyngeal temperature probe; one study measured core temperature at the distal oesophagus or nasopharynx intraoperatively and sublingually otherwise (Smith 2007). In one study (Wong 2007), baseline and PACU core temperatures were measured at the tympanic membrane and the nasopharyngeal temperature was recorded in the intraoperative period.

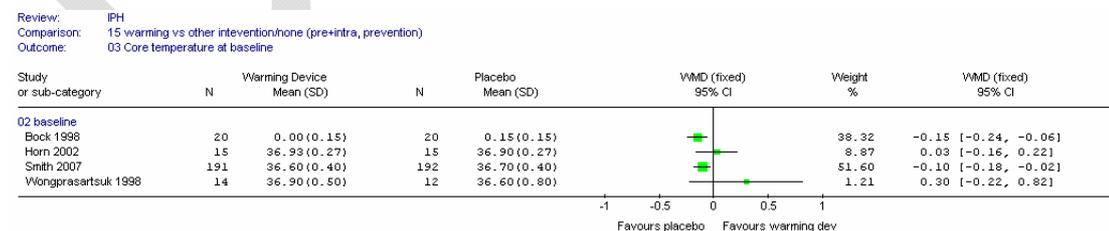
**METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY OF INCLUDED STUDIES (APPENDIX D)**

An adequate method of sequence generation was recorded in three studies (Smith 2007; Wong 2007; Horn 2002, indirect: computer generated), and was not described in the other studies. A partially adequate method of allocation concealment was reported in two studies (Wong 2007: sealed opaque envelopes; and Horn 2002, indirect: sequentially numbered opaque envelopes). The other studies did not report allocation concealment.

Blinding of the outcome assessors for shivering was stated in three studies (Buggy 1994; Bock 1998; Smith 2007) and not stated in the other study (Horn 2002, indirect). In one study, a blinded observer assessed criteria for discharge from PACU (Bock 1998). Blinding of the outcome assessor for patients' surgical wounds was carried out in one study (Wong 2007). Temperature measurement was not blinded, except postoperatively in one study (Smith 2007).

Baseline comparability was demonstrated in all but one of the studies, at least for age, gender, and duration of surgery. Smith (2007) reported a significant difference in the type of surgery, with more patients having general surgery in active warming group; otherwise this study had no baseline differences. The core temperatures at baseline were examined for both groups in each study, where given, and are plotted below:

**Figure 1: Core temperatures at baseline**



The Wong (2007) study only gave the median and range core temperatures for each group. The median was 36.5°C for each and the authors reported a p-value of 0.880 (i.e. not statistically significant).

One study (Smith 2007) showed a significant difference in sublingual baseline temperature of

1 0.1°C. Two studies (Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect) showed no significant  
2 difference between groups. The Bock (1998) study showed an apparent statistically significant  
3 difference in baseline temperatures of 0.15°C, but this is because the time zero for 'baseline'  
4 was at induction, i.e. 30 minutes after prewarming for one group. This study only reported  
5 change scores from baseline, with their standard deviations, at all other times, and so all  
6 values for the prewarmed group are overestimated by 0.15°C. Therefore, we only considered  
7 the Bock (1998) study if the effect size was much larger than 0.15°C. In practice, this meant  
8 that Bock (1998) was excluded from the analysis for durations up to 2 hours. In a similar way,  
9 the baseline difference in Smith (2007) was compared with the effect size.

10  
11 Three studies carried out a power calculation (Wongprasartsuk 1998; Wong 2007; Horn 2002,  
12 indirect). In Wongprasartsuk (1998), in order to detect a difference in postoperative oxygen  
13 consumption ( $VO_2$ ) of at least 20% between the warmed and the control group, the power  
14 calculation estimated a sample size of 11 patients for each group. In Wong (2007), in order to  
15 detect a 25% reduction in postoperative complications at the 5% level, 80% power calculation  
16 estimated a sample size of 50 patients for each arm. In Horn (2002), in order to detect a  
17 treatment effect of 1.0°C at the 5% level, 80% power calculation estimated a sample size of  
18 30 for each group.

19  
20 One control group patient in the Bock (1998) study was transferred to ICU and was not  
21 included in the postoperative analyses. In one study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) 4/26 (15%)  
22 patients withdrew from the study during baseline measurements complaining of  
23 claustrophobia. Forced air warming was ceased in three patients because the core  
24 temperature increased above 38.0°C, but data for these patients were included in the  
25 postoperative analyses. In one study (Smith 2007), 35/191 (18%) active warming; 12/192 (6%)  
26 routine care was excluded from the analysis, mainly for reasons unconnected to the  
27 interventions. For the other studies, all patients were included.

28  
29 Smith (2007) was considered to be partially confounded because 29% of patients assigned to  
30 the routine care arm received forced air warming and 9% received warmed fluids at the  
31 discretion of the anaesthetist. Although the study also reported results for subgroups of the  
32 routine care group that did and did not receive additional warming, the GDG considered these  
33 subgroups to be unrepresentative, as they were likely to bias the distribution of lower risk  
34 patients. Consequently the GDG decided to use the full (intention to treat) results, which were  
35 likely to underestimate the size of the effect.

36  
37 As mentioned above, three of the studies had 20 or fewer patients in the intervention arm  
38 (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect), although two studies  
39 (Wongprasartsuk 1998; Horn 2002, indirect) carried out a power calculation.

40

1 Bock (1998) was considered to be confounded at early times, and Smith (2007) had a  
 2 difference in baseline and was partially confounded, but otherwise no studies were thought to  
 3 have potential for bias.

4  
 5 **RESULTS**

6 We stratified the studies by type of warming mechanism into active warming and thermal  
 7 insulation, and treated separately the regional anaesthesia study (indirect Horn 2002).  
 8 Subgroup analyses were carried out by type of warming mechanism.

9  
 10 **I. General anaesthesia**

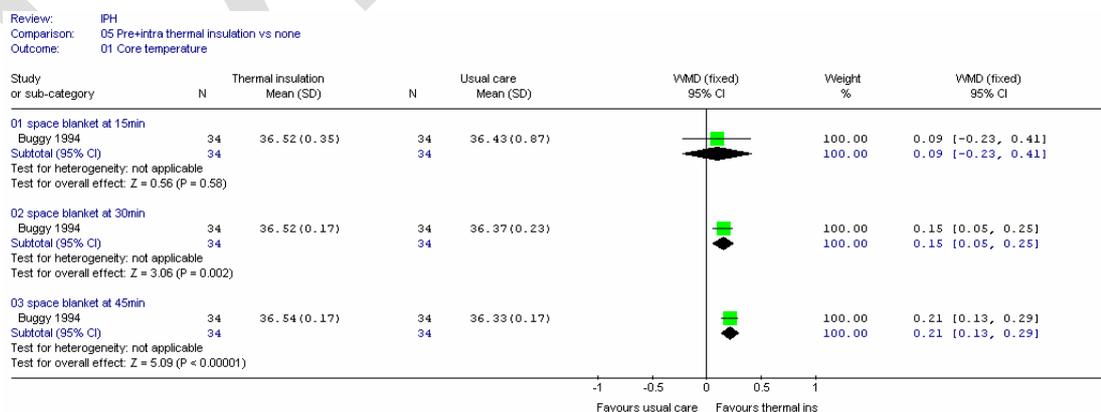
11 **A. Thermal insulation versus usual care**

12 **1. Core temperature at different intraoperative times (time after induction of**  
 13 **anaesthesia)**

14 Buggy (1994) studied the effect of a reflective blanket in 68 patients, and recorded the  
 15 intraoperative temperature at 15, 30 and 45 minutes (Figure 2). The study also reported that  
 16 there was no difference in initial temperature between the groups (this is assumed to mean  
 17 at the start of the intraoperative period), despite thermal insulation in one group  
 18 preoperatively.

19  
 20 At 15 minutes the difference in core temperature was not statistically significant. At 30  
 21 minutes the thermal insulation patients had a significantly higher temperature than the  
 22 control group. MD 0.15°C (95% CI 0.05, 0.25) for a control group temperature of 36.4°C; this  
 23 is not a clinically important difference. At 45 minutes, the core temperature was significantly  
 24 higher for the thermal insulation group; MD 0.21°C (95% CI 0.13, 0.29), for a control group  
 25 temperature of 36.3°C; this difference was not clinically significant.

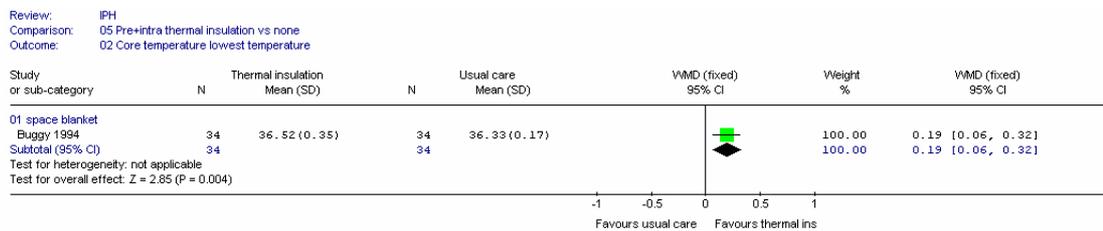
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 27 **Figure 2: Intraoperative core temperature (15 min, 30 min and 45 min); thermal**  
 28 **insulation versus usual care**



29  
 30  
 31 **2. Core Temperature – lowest Intraoperative temperature**

The lowest intraoperative temperature was reached at 15 minutes for the treatment group and at 45 minutes for the control group. The result was statistically significant but not clinically significant, MD 0.19°C (0.06, 0.32), for a control group temperature of 36.3°C.

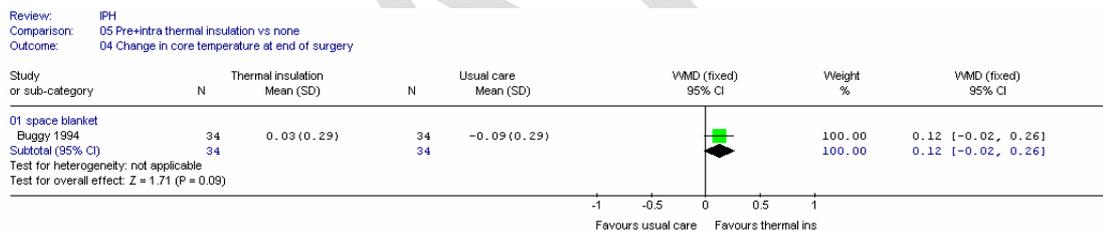
**Figure 3: Lowest intraoperative core temperature; thermal insulation versus usual care**



### 3. Change in core temperature at the end of surgery

The mean difference in the temperature at the end of surgery (30 to 60 minutes) was not statistically significant (Figure 4).

**Figure 4: Change in core temperature at the end of surgery; thermal insulation versus usual care**

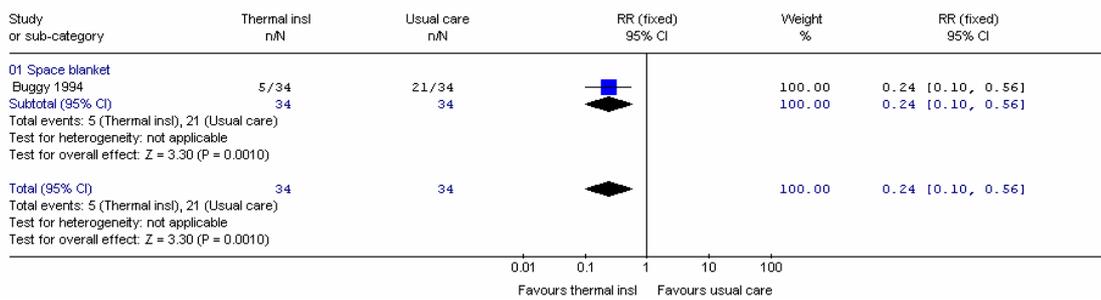


### 4. Shivering

Buggy (1994) assessed shivering during the recovery period in 68 patients. Occurrence of shivering was defined as 'readily detectable fasciculations and tremor of the jaw, neck, trunk and extremities lasting longer than 20 seconds and was assessed by recovery room nursing staff blind to the treatment. There was significantly less shivering for the thermal insulation group, although the confidence interval was wide. The relative risk was 0.24 (95% CI 0.10, 0.56), which indicates a 4 times higher risk of shivering for patients given no warming, compared to a reflective blanket (Figure 5). This is a number needed to treat of 3 (95%CI 2, 4) for a control group risk of 21/34 (62%).

**Figure 5: Incidence of shivering; thermal insulation versus usual care**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 05 Pre+intra thermal insulation vs usual care  
 Outcome: 03 incidence of shivering



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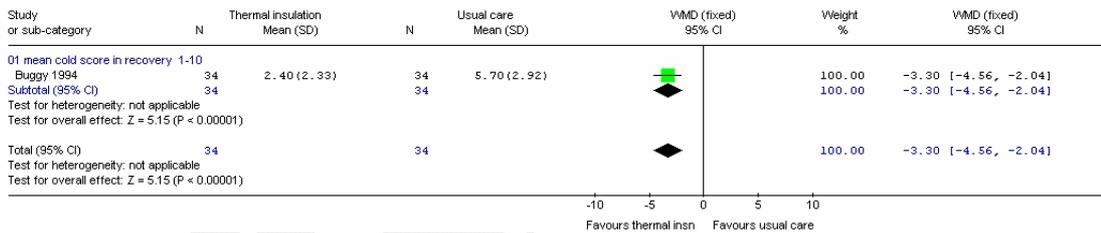
NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

**5. Thermal Discomfort (perception of cold)**

Buggy (1994) assessed patients' perception of cold at any point since waking in recovery in 68 patients. Perception of cold was graded on a linear scale of 1 to 10, with a score of 1 indicating *feeling pleasantly warm*, and 10 representing *colder than you've ever felt before*. The mean score was significantly lower for the thermal insulation group, and the effect was large, a difference of -3.30 on a scale of 1 to 10 (Figure 6).

**Figure 6: Patients' perceptions of cold; thermal insulation versus usual care**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 06 Pre+intra active warming device vs usual care  
 Outcome: 11 Patient's perception of cold



**B. Active warming versus usual care**

Three studies reported active warming versus usual care (Bock 1998; Wong 2007; Wongprasartsuk 1998).

- Wongprasartsuk (1998) compared in 26 patients, upper body forced-air warming versus usual care in both the pre and intraoperative phases; intraoperatively, both groups received IV fluids warmed with a warming coil.
- Wong (2007) compared in 103 patients, a warming mattress versus placebo warming mattress in the pre and intraoperative phases; both groups had forced air warming and fluid warming in the intraoperative phase.
- Bock (1998) compared in 40 patients, upper body forced air warming blanket used in the pre and intraoperative phases with usual care, and both groups had a circulating water mattress and fluid warming in the intraoperative phase.

1 Two direct studies (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998) were combined in a meta-analysis,  
2 despite differences in duration, site of warming and other intraoperative treatments. The  
3 results for Bock (1998) were included in a limited way because of baseline differences. The  
4 results for Wong (2007) were not combined because the median and range were given.  
5

### 6 **1. Core temperature at different intraoperative times**

7 Three studies (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Wong 2007) reported a series of  
8 intraoperative temperature measurements and data were extracted from graphs (as  
9 appropriate for Bock 1998). The results for Wong (2007) are presented separately as  
10 medians.  
11

#### 12 **a) 20 minutes (Figure 7)**

13 One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported results on a small graph, for  
14 which only the means, ranges and p values were given. It was unclear if the time was from  
15 induction or the start of surgery. At 20 minutes, there was no significant difference between  
16 groups; MD 0.33°C (p=0.20), for a control group temperature of 36.6°C. The confidence  
17 interval was wide.  
18

#### 19 **b) 30 minutes (Figure 7)**

20 One study (Wong 2007) reported the intraoperative temperature at 30 minutes (this  
21 appeared to be the time into surgery), as median values of 36.2°C and 36.0°C for the  
22 warmed (conducting heating mattress + forced air warming + warmed fluids) and control  
23 (forced air warming + warmed fluids) groups respectively, but the significance of this  
24 difference was not given.  
25

#### 26 **c) 40 minutes (Figure 7)**

27 One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported there was no significant  
28 difference between groups; MD 0.17°C (p=0.25), for a control group temperature of 36.8°C.  
29 The confidence interval was fairly wide.  
30

#### 31 **d) 60 minutes (Figure 7)**

32 Three studies reported intraoperative temperatures at 60 minutes (Bock 1998;  
33 Wongprasartsuk 1998; Wong 2007). Bock (1998) was excluded from the analysis because  
34 of the baseline difference, and Wong (2007) only reported the median values. The  
35 remaining study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported results on a small graph, for  
36 which only the means, ranges and p values were given. At this duration there was a  
37 borderline significant difference favouring the warmed group; MD 0.50°C (p=0.053), for a  
38 control group temperature of 36.6°C. The confidence interval was wide.  
39

40 Wong (2007) reported median core temperatures of 36.2°C and 36.0°C for the warmed

1 (conducting heating mattress + forced air warming + warmed fluids) and control (forced air  
2 warming + warmed fluids) groups respectively, but the significance of this difference was not  
3 given.

4  
5 **e) 2 hours (Figure 7)**

6 Three studies reported the intraoperative temperature at 2 hours into surgery (Bock 1998;  
7 Wongprasartsuk 1998; Wong 2007). Bock (1998) was excluded for the reasons stated  
8 above and Wong (2007) only reported the median values. The remaining study  
9 (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported there was a statistically significant difference  
10 favouring the warmed group; MD 0.75°C (p=0.002), for a control group temperature of  
11 36.7°C. The confidence interval was fairly wide.

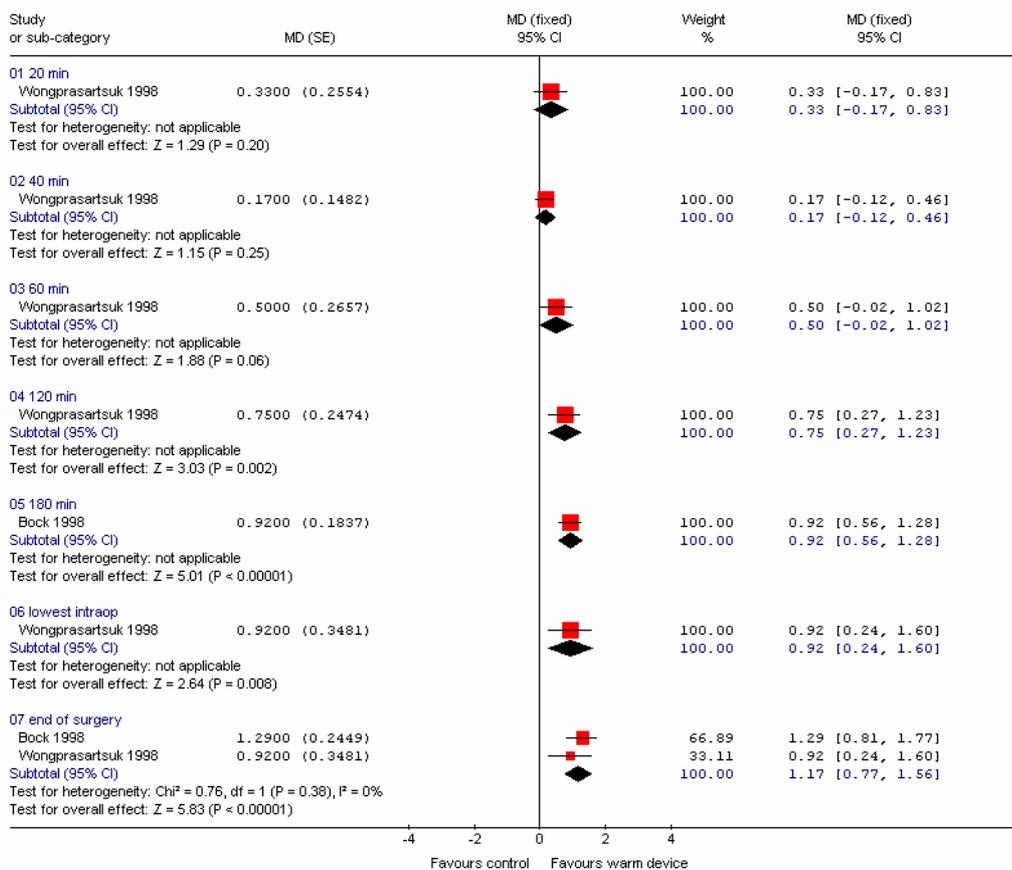
12  
13 Wong (2007) reported median core temperatures of 36.1°C and 36.2°C for the warmed  
14 (conducting heating mattress + forced air warming + warmed fluids) and control (forced air  
15 warming + warmed fluids) groups respectively, but the significance of this difference was not  
16 given.

17  
18 **f) 3 hours (Figure 7)**

19 One study reported the change in core temperature 3 hours after induction of anaesthesia  
20 (Bock 1998). The temperature difference was statistically and clinically significant, MD  
21 0.92°C (95% CI 0.56, 1.28) for a change in control group temperature of -1.65°C. The GDG  
22 decided that this difference was sufficiently large compared with the difference in 'baseline'  
23 (6 times) so that this outcome could be included.

24  
25 **Figure 7: Forced air warming at various times intraoperatively**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 06 Pre+intra active warming device vs usual care  
 Outcome: 15 forced air warming pre+intra - prevention



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NB: Scale -4 to 4

**2. Core Temperature - lowest intraoperative temperature recorded (Figure 8)**

In Wongprasartsuk (1998), the lowest intraoperative temperature was recorded at 140 minutes for both groups. As discussed earlier, Bock (1998) was not included in this analysis because of inadequate reporting of the results. The remaining study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported there was a statistically significant difference favouring the warmed group; MD 0.92°C (p=0.008), for a control group temperature of 35.9°C. The confidence interval was wide.

In Wong (2007), the lowest median intraoperative temperature was recorded at 30 minutes for the control group (36.0°C) and at 120 minutes for the warmed group (36.1°C).

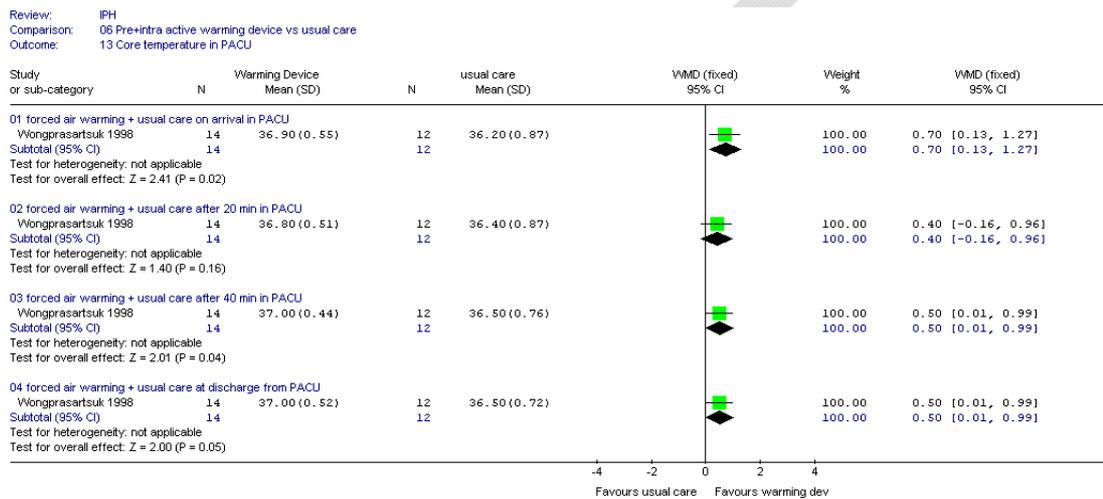
**3. Core Temperature - Final intraoperative temperature (Figure 8)**

Three studies (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998; Wong 2007) measured the core temperature at the end of the intraoperative period. The duration of anaesthesia was over one hour in all studies. Meta-analysis of the first two studies gave a statistically significant difference, with higher core temperatures for the active warming group: WMD 1.17°C (95%CI 0.77, 1.56), with no heterogeneity (I<sup>2</sup>=0%, p=0.38), but the confidence interval was fairly wide.

**4. Core Temperature - PACU**

One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) in 26 patients reported the core temperature upon arrival into the recovery room and at 20 and 40 minutes and at discharge from PACU. The mean difference was clinically and statistically significant on arrival, in favour of the warming group, 0.70°C (95% CI 0.13, 1.27) for a control group temperature of 36.20°C, although the confidence interval was wide.

**Figure 8: Core temperature - PACU; active warming versus usual care**



NB: Scale -4 to +4

**5. Incidence of shivering**

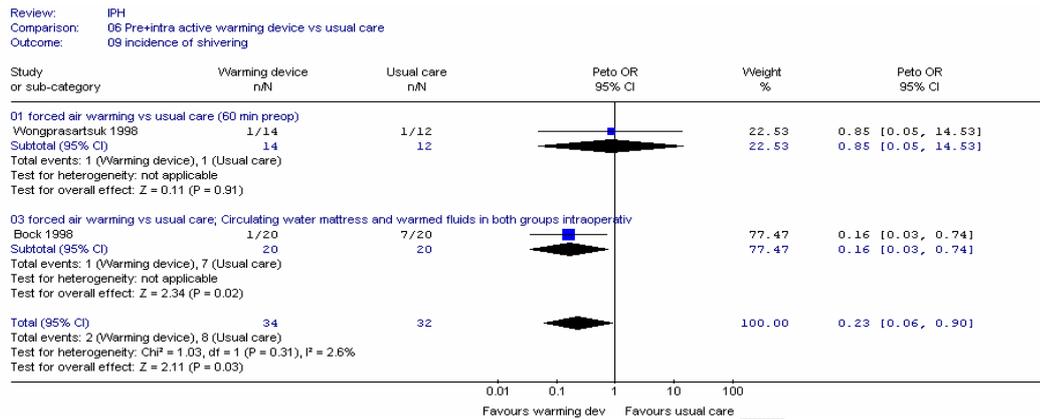
Three direct studies assessed shivering during the recovery period (Bock 1998; Wongprasartsuk 1998). Bock (1998) had circulating water mattress plus warmed fluids during the intraoperative period. The studies used different methods to measure shivering:

- Wongprasartsuk (1998) assessed the occurrence and duration of shivering. However, the study did not provide details on categories of shivering;
- In Bock (1998), the presence or absence of shivering was assessed by an anaesthetist blinded to the groups.

We dichotomised the categorical outcomes and included all patients with shivering regardless of the severity.

Meta-analysis of two studies showed a statistically significant reduction in the rate of shivering for the patients receiving forced air warming, but the confidence intervals were very wide. RR: 0.20 (95% CI 0.04, 0.98), which corresponds to an NNT of 6 (5%CI 3, 34).

**Figure 9: Incidence of shivering; active warming versus usual care**



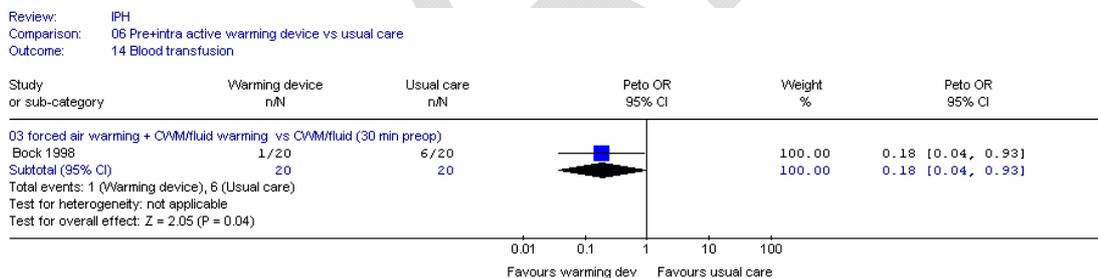
NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

### Secondary Outcomes in the intraoperative period

#### 6. Blood transfusion

One study (Bock 1998) reported the number of patients receiving 2 units of packed red blood cells during operation. The amount of blood loss and transfusion was estimated by an anaesthetist not involved in the study. There were significantly fewer patients receiving blood, but the confidence interval was very wide.

**Figure 10: Blood transfusion – intraoperative period; active warming versus usual care**

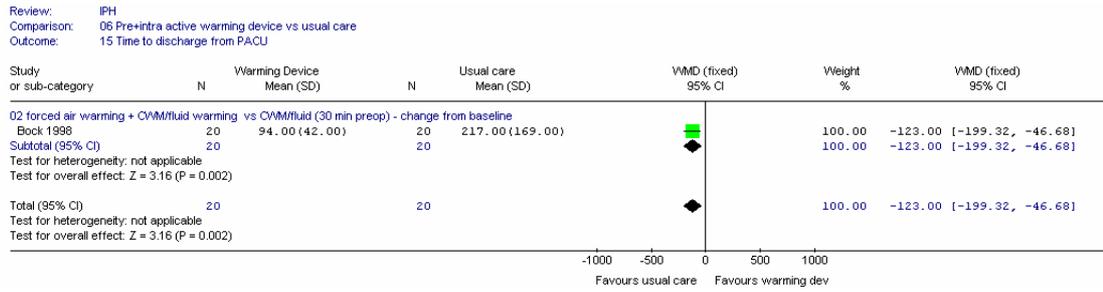


NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

#### 7. Duration of stay in PACU/Discharge from PACU

One study (Bock 1998) reported the time to discharge from PACU. A core temperature of greater than 36°C and a score of 14 points (out of a total of 24 points) on a modified version of Aldrete and Kroulik scoring system (Aldrete and Kroulik 1970) were the criteria for discharge. Criteria for discharge on the Aldrete and Kroulik scoring system was assessed retrospectively by a blinded observer. The time to discharge was significantly lower for the prewarmed patients (active + CWM/Fluid group) by 123 minutes, but the confidence interval was fairly wide.

**Figure 11: Time to discharge from PACU; active warming versus usual care**



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NB: Scale -1000 to +1000

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**Secondary outcomes in the postoperative period**

One study (Bock 1998) reported secondary outcomes in the postoperative period.

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**8. Blood products (PACU)**

One study (Bock 1998) reported the volume of blood products (millilitres/patient) given on admission to PACU. The volume of blood products was significantly less for prewarmed patients by 210 ml/patient.

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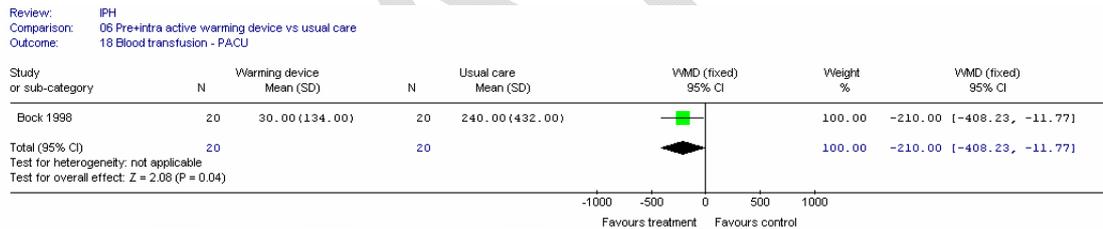
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**Figure 12: Volume of blood products infused (PACU); active warming versus usual care**

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**9. Adverse effects**

One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998), in 26 patients, reported the incidence of hyperthermia (a temperature greater than 38°C), it was assumed in PACU. 4/14 patients in the intervention group and 0/12 in the control group had overheating adverse effects.

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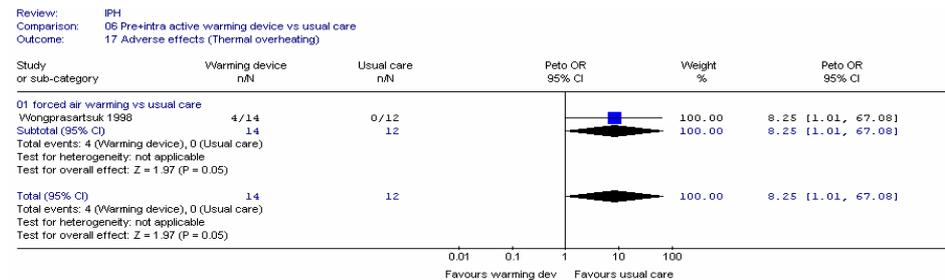
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**Figure 13: Adverse effects (thermal overheating); active warming versus usual care**

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NB Scale 0.01 to 100

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**a) Postoperative pain**

One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998), in 26 patients, reported postoperative pain 20 and 40 minutes after arrival in PACU. Postoperative pain scores were assessed on a visual analogue scale (0-10cm); however, the scale was unclear and there were no standard deviations given. At 20 minutes, the mean pain score for the treatment group was 5.6 and it was 5.5 for the control group (NS; p=0.74). After 40 minutes in PACU, the treatment group's mean pain score was 5.7 and it was 6.1 for the control group.

**b) Thermal discomfort**

One study (Wongprasartsuk 1998) reported postoperative thermal discomfort 20 and 40 minutes after arrival into PACU. Postoperative thermal discomfort was assessed on a visual analogue scale (0-10mm), with the scale not described.

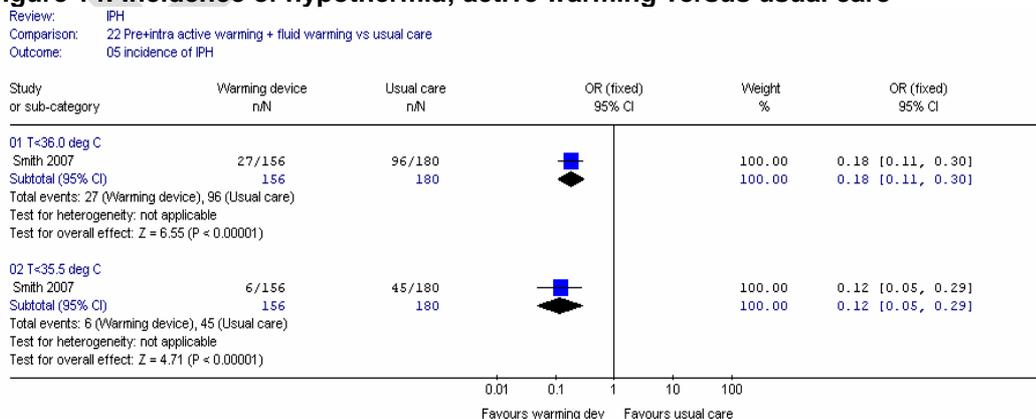
**C. Active warming (pre+intraoperatively) plus active fluid warming (intraoperatively) versus usual care**

One study (Smith 2007), in 336 patients, compared the combination of forced air warming in both pre and intraoperative phases with actively warmed IV fluids versus routine care. The routine care arm, however, included patients who were warmed at the discretion of the anaesthetist (29% received forced air warming and 9% received warmed fluids). The intervention and control groups respectively received a mean of 1.13 litres (SD 0.4) and 1.09 (SD 0.4) of crystalloid over a mean of 56 minutes anaesthesia time.

**1. Incidence of IPH at the end of surgery**

Smith (2007) reported the incidence of IPH at the end of surgery (56 minutes mean) for definitions of less than 36.0°C and less than 35.5°C. There was a large statistically significant difference for both definitions, with less IPH for the intervention group. For the definition, less than 36.0°C, the relative risk was 0.32 (95% CI 0.22, 0.47), for a control group rate of 53%. This corresponds to an NNT of 4 (95% CI 3, 5).

**Figure 14: Incidence of hypothermia; active warming versus usual care**



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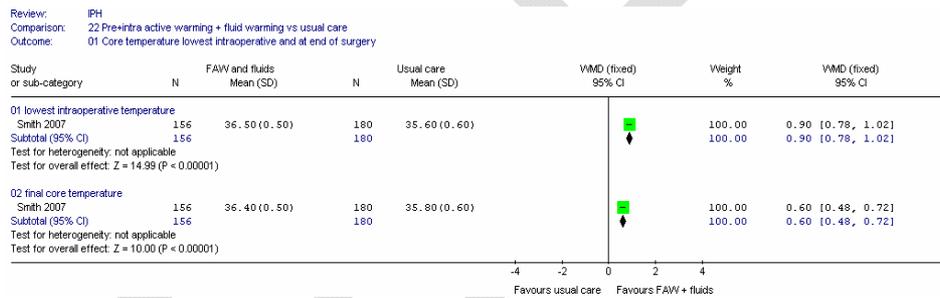
**2. Core Temperature - lowest intraoperative temperature recorded (Figure 15)**

In Smith (2007), the lowest intraoperative temperature was recorded at 25 minutes for the warmed group and 35 minutes for the control group. The core temperature was significantly higher for the intervention group; MD 0.90°C (95% CI 0.78, 1.02) for a control group temperature of 35.6°C. We note that this effect size is considerably larger than the difference at baseline (0.1°C).

**3. Core Temperature - Final intraoperative temperature (Figure 15)**

The core temperature was significantly higher for the intervention group at the end of surgery (mean duration 56 minutes; mean duration of anaesthesia 94 minutes); MD 0.60°C (95% CI 0.48, 0.72) for a control group temperature of 35.8°C. This difference is much larger than the baseline difference.

**Figure 15: Core temperature – lowest and final intraoperative; active warming versus usual care**

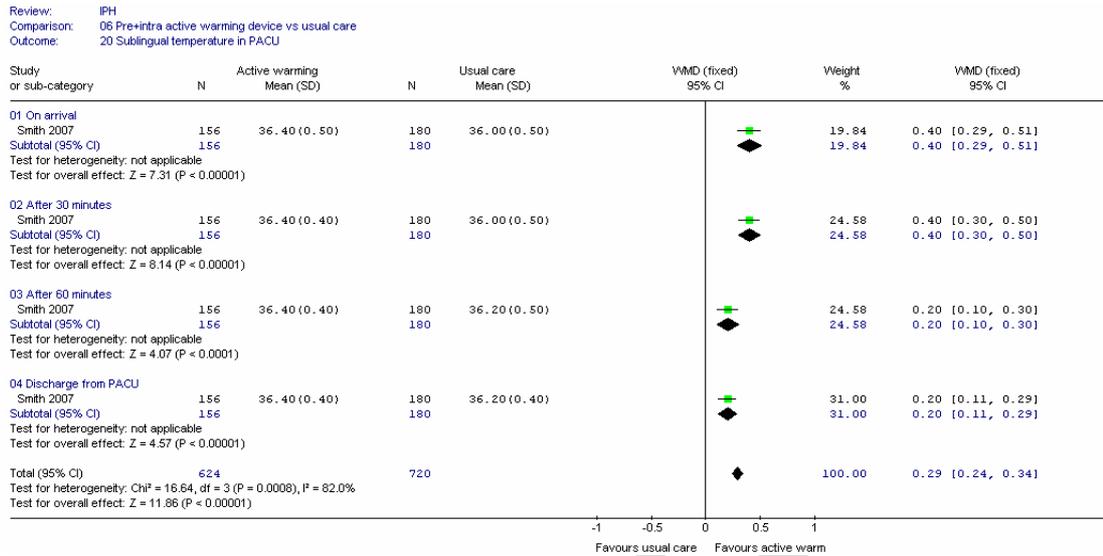


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**4. Core Temperature – PACU**

One study (Smith 2007) in 336 patients reported the sublingual temperature upon arrival into the recovery room and at 30 and 60 minutes. The core temperature was significantly higher for the intervention group on arrival, MD 0.4°C (95% CI 0.29, 0.51) for a control group temperature of 36.0°C. This was similar after 30 minutes in PACU (MD 0.4°C [95%CI 0.3, 0.5]). At 60 minutes the difference was 0.2°C (95% CI 0.1, 0.3) and at discharge was 0.2°C (95% CI 0.11, 0.29).

**Figure 16: Temperature in PACU; active warming versus usual care**

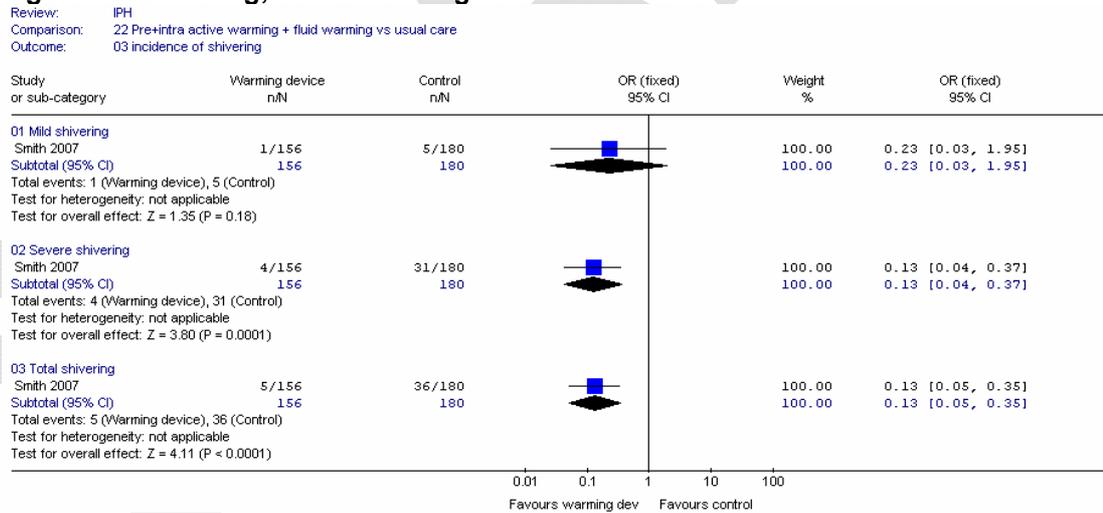


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**5. Incidence of shivering**

Smith (2007) reported shivering in 5/156 actively warmed patients and 36/180 patients treated with usual care. Of these, 4 (2.6%) and 31 (17%) respectively were classified as severe shivering. Significantly fewer patients had shivering in the intervention group compared with the control group, but the confidence interval was wide.

**Figure 17: Shivering; active warming versus usual care**



NB Scale 0.01 to 100

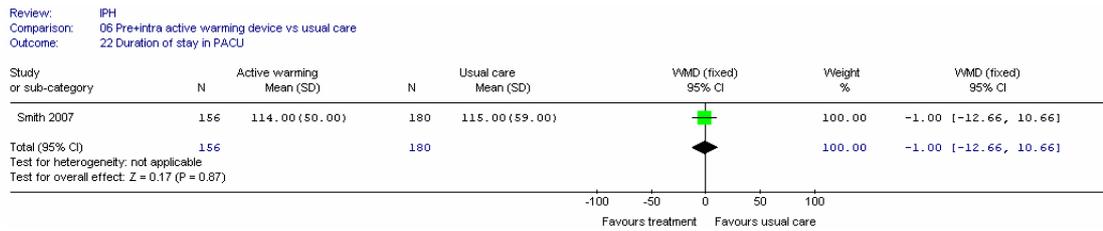
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**Secondary Outcomes**

**6. Duration of stay in PACU**

There was no significant difference in the time to discharge (1 minute).

**Figure 18: Duration of stay in PACU (minutes); active warming versus usual care**

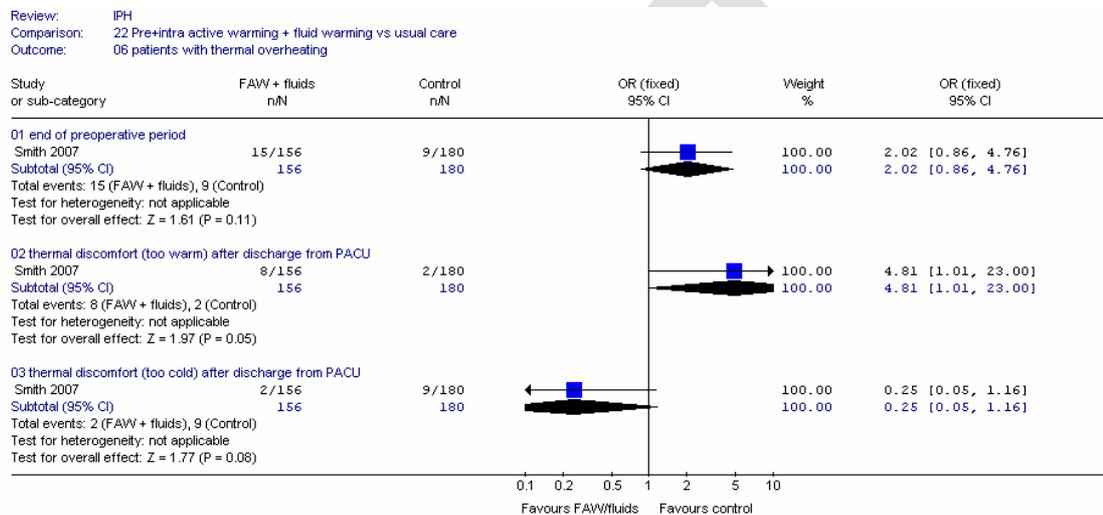


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## 7. Thermal discomfort

Smith (2007) also reported significantly more patients assessed themselves to be too hot postoperatively, but the confidence interval was wide.

**Figure 19: Adverse effects (thermal overheating); active warming versus usual care**



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## II. Regional Anaesthesia

### A. Active warming versus usual care

One indirect study in women undergoing Caesarean section under epidural anaesthesia (Horn 2002) reported a series of intraoperative temperature measurements and data were extracted from graphs. In Horn (2002), the same warming method was employed through the intraoperative period as in the preoperative period.

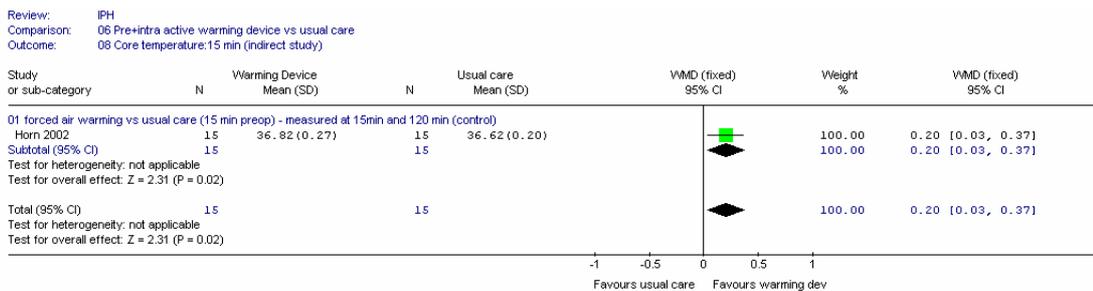
#### 1. Core Temperature at different intraoperative times

##### a) 15 minutes

Horn (2002) recorded the intraoperative temperature 15 minutes into the surgery. The core temperature was significantly higher for the intervention group; MD 0.20°C (95% CI 0.03, 0.37) for a control group temperature of 36.62°C; this was not clinically significant.

**Figure 20: Core Temperature intraoperative temperature at 15 minutes into surgery; active versus usual care**

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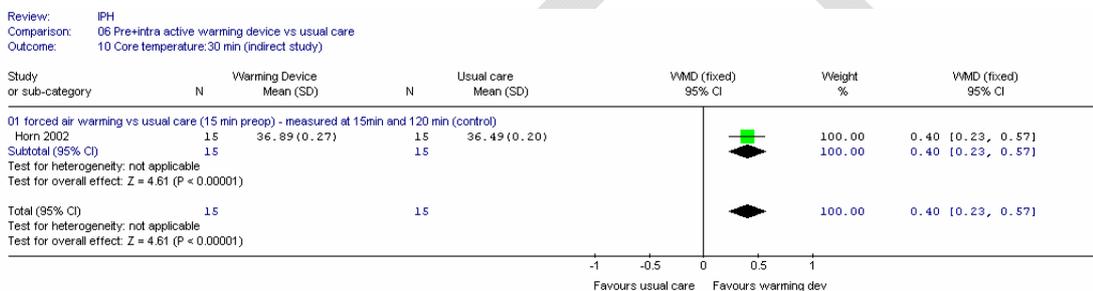


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**b) 30 minutes**

In the indirect study, there was a significantly higher core temperature for the intervention group, MD 0.40°C (95%CI 0.23, 0.57) (Figure 20)

**Figure 21: Core Temperature intraoperative temperature 30 minutes into surgery; active versus usual care**



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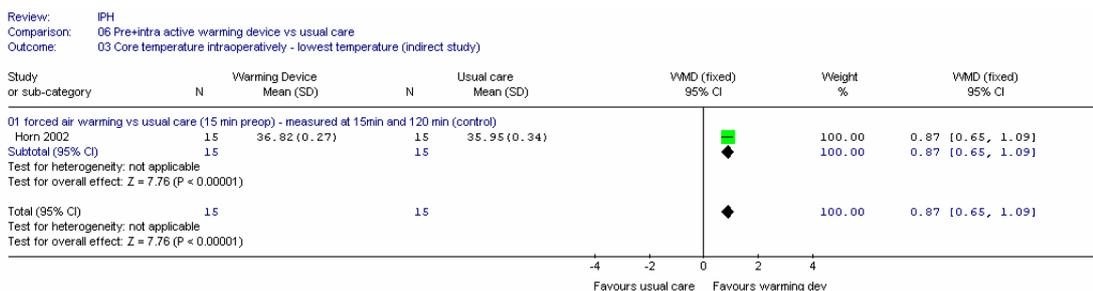
**c) 2 hours**

In the indirect study, with 30 patients (Horn 2002) there was a significantly higher core temperature for the intervention group, MD 1.21°C (95% CI 0.97, 1.45).

**2. Lowest core temperature**

The lowest intraoperative temperature measurement for the warming group was recorded at 15 minutes after induction. The control group showed a decline in core temperature 60 minutes after induction and reached its lowest point at 120 minutes. The core temperature was significantly higher for the intervention group; MD 0.87°C (95% CI 0.65, 1.09), for a control group temperature of 35.95°C (Figure 22).

**Figure 22: Core temperature – lowest intraoperative temperature; active warming versus usual care**



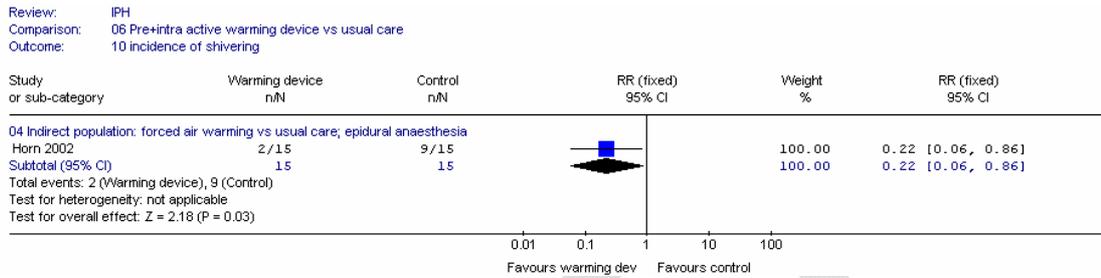
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**3. Shivering**

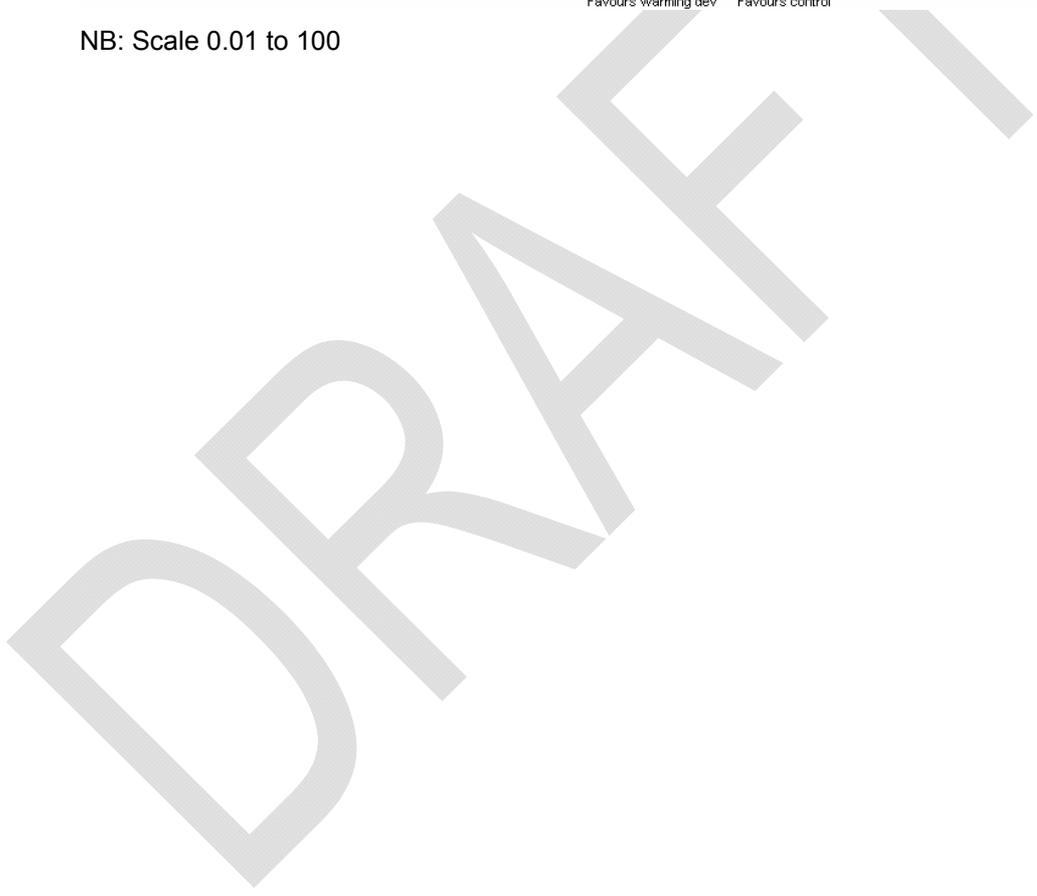
The indirect study, Horn (2002), also recorded shivering, using a 4 point scale (0=none; 1=low; 2=moderate; 3=continuous) by an investigator blinded to core temperatures. There were significantly fewer patients shivering in the intervention group, but the confidence interval was wide.

**Figure 23: Shivering (indirect study); active warming versus usual care**



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NB: Scale 0.01 to 100



## **10.4 Adverse effects arising from warming devices used for the prevention or treatment of inadvertent perioperative hypothermia**

### **Introduction**

The importance of avoiding perioperative hypothermia is well established. There are several advantages perioperatively including reducing blood loss, wound infection, duration of intensive care and hospital stay. Other great advantages also include reducing the risk of cardiac ischaemia and increasing patients' survival. This will, consequently, create comfort and safety for the patient and reduce health care cost. In order to maintain normal temperatures perioperatively a range of medical warming devices have been developed and are currently used in most of the clinical institutions. However, there are a small number of adverse effects relating to warming devices when used for the prevention or treatment of inadvertent perioperative hypothermia.

### **Objective**

To determine adverse effects arising from warming devices used for the prevention or treatment of inadvertent perioperative hypothermia.

### **Selection criteria**

#### ***Selection of studies***

We sought all available published studies in which the adverse effects of warming devices had been evaluated. We used reports previously retrieved for the effectiveness reviews (see Appendix B) and ran a new search strategy in MEDLINE and EMBASE for adverse effects. This included a combination of MeSH terms and search words as specified in detail in Appendix B. We also checked the reference lists of relevant studies and review articles. A total of 77 citations were retrieved of which full text of 49 published studies were screened.

#### ***Study Design: inclusion and exclusion criteria***

We included studies of adults of eighteen years and over undergoing surgery or other procedures under general or regional anaesthesia, published as randomised trials (RCTs) and quasi-randomised studies. Observational studies (1) (prospective and retrospective), mainly cohorts, were also to be included. Case reports and case series were permitted, but we note that these tend to report more unusual experiences, making them more prone to reporting and publication bias (selected interesting cases). Thus, these reports may not be very representative of the general patient population. Studies were restricted to the English language and there were no date restrictions.

We excluded studies in children, patients undergoing surgery under local anaesthesia, patients undergoing therapeutic hypothermia and those with head injuries resulting in impaired

temperature control. Studies in pregnant women and post-bypass patients could only be included as indirect evidence.

### **Characteristics of studies**

From 73 articles identified, we selected 46 potentially relevant studies. After exclusions, a total of 21 studies were included. Characteristics of the studies included in this review are detailed in Appendix C.

The studies were conducted in several countries including the UK (Batistich 2006; Huang 2003; Avidan 1997; Ayala and Coe 1997; Baker 2002; Tumia 2002), the USA (Zuokumor 2004; Frolich 2001; Husser 2004; Kressin 2004; Gali 2003; Zwkowski 1998; Sigg 1999; Cheney 1994; Zink 1993), Canada (Hemmerling 2002), France (Guignard 2000), and China (Ng 2006). Two studies did not report the country where they were conducted (Marders 2002; no authors listed, 1990). The studies were generally small (N ranged from 1 to 60) and 50% of these were case reports.

The following are the types of study included:

- Two observational retrospective insurance studies comprising claims from 28 patients (Cheney 1994) and 64 patients (Kressin 2004)
- Two RCTs, which simply discussed adverse effects, not as a randomised comparison (Ng 2006; Camus 1997)
- Eight case reports (Zuokumor 2004; Guignard 2000; Frolich 2001; Ayala and Coe 1997; Batistich 2006; Husser 2004; Gali 2003; Zukowski 1998)
- Three case series reports: one of 10 patients which included two sets of 5 individuals (Hemmerling 2002) and two reports of two patients each (Marders 2002; no authors listed 1990).
- Five experimental cross infection reports. Two of the reports (Avidan 1997; Sigg 1999) examined bacteria plates from Bair Huggers®. Avidan (1997) examined bacteria plates from 10 patients, with 2 control plates; Sigg (1999) examined bacteria plates from 18 patients, with 10 control plates. Another study (Tumia 2002) examined samples from bacteria tests performed on 4 patients, with control samples obtained from an empty theatre. The fourth study (Baker 2002) collected swab bacteria samples from the interior and the exterior of a forced air warming (FAW) device (WarmAir warming unit model 133A) routinely used during surgical procedures in an ultra clean orthopaedic theatre; and from the distal end of the hose. The last study (Zink 1993) was used as indirect evidence of the risk of infection. The study simulated a surgical site with healthy male volunteers (indirect population). Bacterial culture plates were fastened to patients' abdomen at the start of each trial period.

- One prospective study (Huang 2003) investigated whether use of the Bair Hugger® FAW during prolonged vascular surgery may lead to increased bacterial contamination of the surgical field by mobilisation of the patient's flora.

In the case reports and case series, information about gender was available from all but one study (Marders 2002). There were more men (85%) than women (15%) among the twenty patients reported. The mean age for all studies except for one study (Hemmerling 2002) was 62 years, with a range of 42 to 80 years. Only one study stated that it was carried out in an African-American patient (Zukowski 1998) while the others did not state the ethnicity. Bair Hugger® was the most frequently reported FAW device in these studies.

### Warming systems

- Forced-air warming systems were used in fifteen studies:
  - Bair Hugger® active warming system was used in four studies to cover the upper body (Zuokumor 2004; Huang 2003; Ayala and Coe 1997; Guignard 2000) and in other three studies to cover both head and lower body areas (Hemmerling 2002; Marders 2002; No authors listed 1990). In two more studies, Bair Hugger® was compared with electric heating pad blanket (Ng 2006) and with electric over blanket (Camus 1997).
  - Forced air convection warming systems were used in five other experimental studies to detect potential risk of infection (Baker 2002; Tumia 2002; Avidan 1997; Sigg 1999; Zink 1993) one of which was included as indirect evidence (Zink 1993).
  - Another system, type not stated, was used in one study which used FAW to cover the upper body (Frolic 2001)
- Radiant heat was used in two studies:
  - The Suntouch (model PW820. Fisher and Paykel appl) was applied on the right forearm of a patient in one report (Batistich 2006)
  - The Emerson system was applied on upper body areas in another study (Zukowski 1998)
- A water garment was used in one study:
  - MTRE (advanced technologies) was applied to upper and lower body areas (legs, thoracic and sacral) (Gali 2003)
- Fluid warming was used in one study:
  - Infusion warming device Belmont (FMS 2000) was used for rapid inductive warming of intravenous fluids (Husser 2004)
- Various warming systems were reported in two observational retrospective studies (Kressin 2004; Cheney 1994).

## RESULTS

### 1. Observational retrospective insurance study

An observational study reported on the American Society of Anaesthesiologists (ASA) closed claims project database, a collection of closed malpractice claims, in which 89% of 3,000 claims were made from 1977 to 1987 (Cheney 1994). The study excluded dental damage claims. Of the 3,000 claims, 28 patients presented burns as adverse anaesthetic outcomes. Only 8 (29%) of these were related to warming equipment (electrically powered equipment to treat hypothermia or provide localised heat) and 20 (71%) were from heated materials (warming oven used for generalised or local warming). Characteristics of included studies are detailed in Appendix C.

The rationale for application of heat varied among the studies, from the prevention/treatment of hypothermia, to the maintenance of body temperature in major surgical procedures, to the treatment of intravenous (IV) infiltration or simple warming of patients.

All burns involved patients undergoing long operations. The burns seemed to be caused by a combination of heat and pressure over bony prominences. Almost three-quarters of the burns (20 of 28) were due to IV bags or bottle heated materials (Figure 1), 85% (17) of which occurred in young and healthy women (mean age:  $38 \pm 17$  SD and ASA I-II). The majority of these events (N=10) occurred in women undergoing gynaecologic surgical procedures and the rest were in orthopaedic (N=5) or hernia (N=2) surgeries. Five patients presented burns of second and third degree. The standard of care for this category is noted as less than appropriate for all but one bag/bottle induced burn.

Burns due to electrically powered warming equipment (Figure 2) represented only one third (29%) of the total burns from warming related devices (7 patients). Five of these were due to circulating water blankets: in one, the device was defective and in the others, the patients were over 60 years. Most had an ASA physical status of III-IV and underwent major surgical procedures. Standard care was noted as appropriate in all but one of the cases.

Another study (Kressin 2004) presented an update of the above data. By 2004, the total claims in the ASA Closed Claims Project database had raised to 6,449 of which, 145 were burn injuries. Of these, 84 burns were due to warming devices (N=33) and heated material (N=51) which accumulated since 1985. New data added 31 burns due to warming devices and 33 burns due to IV bags or bottles since previously reported (Cheney 1994). Again in this study, the most common cause of burns was due to heated material followed by warming devices.

Heating blankets were the most common cause (N=16) of burns within warming devices followed by heating pads (N=10). Of the 31 burns caused by warming devices, 16 were located on buttocks, thighs, legs and feet. Location for the other 15 burns was not reported. Of the 33 burns caused by heated material, 15 were located on axila or trunk. There were 18

cautery burns including direct burning from the cautery or burns secondary to a faulty grounding pad. It was not specified whether the cautery burns are from electric blanket or another device.

Of the total 145 claims, nine were burns causing permanent or disabling injuries. Four were attributed to warming blankets placed on abdomen, buttocks, legs and feet. Out of the four, three happened during vascular surgeries. Another burn caused by warming blanket occurred in a child who presented an abdominal burn with subsequent cardiac arrest. There was one death in the 145 burn claims which occurred due to an airway fire during laser vaporisation of tracheal stenosis with use of 100% oxygen. Claims for 82% of the burns by warming devices and 80% of the burns by heated materials (IV bags or bottles) were paid. The largest payments were for cautery burns and the least paid claims were for burns caused by non warming devices.

There were a few discrepancies with the data reported in this study. The study states that 23% of burns equates to 33 burns. However, when the types of warming devices causing these burns are outlined, the figure is actually 35.

## **2. Forced-air warming**

### **RCTs**

One RCT was conducted in China (Ng 2006) on the efficacy of warming devices to maintain normothermia. The study did not report any adverse effects, but discussed the potential for adverse effects of warming devices. Ng (2006) compared FAW (Bair Hugger®; Augustine Medical model 500/OR, Prairie, MN) versus an electric heating pad (Operatherm 2002). The study suggested that, in comparison to FAW, the electric heating pad would be expected to be easier to disinfect since it does not have a hose or hidden spaces, consisting only of a warming unit, an electric cable and a heating pad.

The authors also suggested that careful consideration should be given to potential sources for the increase of bacterial colonisation and contamination when using FAW, including:

- Re-use on other patients
- Difficulty in cleaning the hose and both the interior and exterior of the warming units
- Temperature and air stream of the warming units.

### **Case reports and case series**

One study reported a partial and full thickness burn of 2% of the surface and suggests that this was indirectly caused by the FAW device (Zuokumor 2004). FAW raised the temperature of a fluid filled axillary roll (normal constant temperature = 37°C). Patient's weight pressure on hypothermic and vasoconstricted skin over time may have contributed to skin heat transfer. The burn needed debridement and skin grafting.

Another study related to the risk of bispectral index (BIS) signal alteration and thus misinterpretation of BIS values. In a case series, 5 cases had falsely increased values and 5 had falsely decreased values linked with the concomitant use of upper-body Bair Hugger® warming blankets (Hemmerling 2002). The high BIS indices did not match the clinical assessment of the depth of anaesthesia and there was no indication of malfunctioning. Artefacts and interference with other electrical devices may have influenced BIS alterations and interpretation.

This case series is supported by a previous report in which the use of FAW blankets altered the BIS signal (Guignard 2000). This third study investigated the effect of different settings of the FAW device. When the FAW was on, the BIS increased; when the Bair Hugger® unit was on but disconnected from the blanket, BIS returned to values of <60. Air circulation, due to vibration of head wires, may have caused an artefact not visible on the raw electroencephalographic trace. The study concluded that potential interference from FAW systems must be taken into account when interpreting BIS.

Another case report described the risk of increased systemic fentanyl levels which led to overdose symptoms when a transdermal fentanyl patch (TFP) was exposed to heat by an upper body warming blanket in a 57 year old woman undergoing open reduction and internal fixation of a right tibia stress fracture (Frolich 2001). It is suggested that exposure of the patient's skin which had a temperature of 34.9°C to the heating blanket increased cutaneous skin perfusion. This resulted in an increase in the systemic absorption of fentanyl from the intracutaneous fentanyl depot, leading to higher fentanyl levels and symptoms of opioid overdose. Although the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved the use of TFP in 1991, its labelling warns on the exposure of the TFP site to direct external heat sources but no specific recommendations are provided for its use intraoperatively.

In an earlier study, the use of FAW gave a risk of tracheal tube obstruction and potential damage to the patient's lungs (Ayala and Coe 1997). The tube was moved from its original vertical position after 35 minutes of surgery and high and low thresholds of pressure from the ventilator alarm were set too wide to the peak inflation pressure. Consequently, ventilation peak inflation pressures rose (from 18 to 35 cm H<sub>2</sub>O) and the tracheal uncut polyvinyl chloride tube became soft. The problem was corrected by cutting the tube so none of it was outside the mouth and not exposed to a temperature of 40°C. The study concluded that the use of PVC is not recommended when a FAW system is used and tubing must be supported adequately. The high and low thresholds of the pressure sensitive ventilator alarms should be set close to the peak inflation pressure to give immediate warning of any obstruction.

Another report describes two cases of burns with the use of the FAW Bair Hugger® system (Augustine Medical) (No authors listed, 1990, Health Devices). In the first case of burn injury, the wrong side, i.e. the top layer (plastic side) of the blanket was placed in contact with the patient's skin. Consequently, the blanket flexed in the opposite direction with its middle channel covering legs and knees, causing burns. The second case involved a patient with severe vascular disease who developed a large blistered area due to incorrect use of blanket. The patient's left leg was covered with a blanket for 1.5 hours with the device operating at its maximum temperature. These two cases illustrate that:

- Maximum temperature is not safe in all circumstances, even when the device is used correctly.
- Direct contact of patient's skin with plastic heated to 120°F can cause thermal injury. The extent of injury will depend on the duration of contact with patient's skin.

The study recommends the use of FAW devices according to the manufacturer's directions and instructions.

Two additional cases acknowledged by the FDA as serious injuries due to free-hosing (when a blanket is not attached to the hose) have been reported (Marders 2002). The first was a surgical patient on whom the warm air was blown without attaching the blanket from the warming unit, leading to second and third degree burns to lower extremities. In the second, also a surgical patient, no blanket was attached to the hose. Instead, the hose was placed under the patient's blanket causing thermal injury and subsequent severe muscle necrosis and further above-the-knee amputation. Report of adverse events involving medical devices has been encouraged by the FDA in order to accurately identify problems with the devices and desirable patient outcomes.

Concerns regarding patient safety when using FAW devices have been addressed in a report (Augustine 2002) and a website ([www.stophosing.com](http://www.stophosing.com)) as part of a campaign to raise clinicians' awareness about hosing. Both the risks associated with and the preventative measures for the improper use of these have been reported. It has also been explained that by not attaching the blanket to the hose, the warm air flow is concentrated on only one area of the patient's body for an extended period during surgical procedure, leading to traumatic thermal injuries, e.g. above mentioned cases by Marders (2002). Also, a blanket not properly put in place could consequently cause hosing. Following the manufacturer's directions on operating the units, the service manuals, printed instructions and labels on the devices are recommended as a way to ensure that patients are not harmed.

### **Experimental cross-infection reports**

Four studies explored the potential of cross infection when using FAW devices.

One study (Avidan 1997) investigated whether:

## DRAFT FOR CONSULTATION

- Two warming systems blow contaminated air
- The use of perforated blankets could prevent the detection of contamination
- Microbial filter on the end of the hose of warming device filters out organisms.

A vascular operating theatre was the site of experiments. Although the authors noted that microbial filters are regularly changed and that detachable hoses are regularly decontaminated, there seems to be a low risk of infection. The study detected a potential source of nosocomial infection that may be due to colonisation in the machines distal to the filters. It is stated that normally filters should protect against entrained bacteria and fungus but microbial pathogens were detected in about 50% of the FAW tested devices when air was sampled directly and without perforated blankets. Conversely, the use of perforated blankets in the same experiment produced no contaminated sampled air. This study recommended that:

- FAWs are used only when attached to perforated blankets
- Microbial filters are changed as the manufacturer specifies
- Detachable hoses are sterilised regularly
- Hoses are incorporated into the design of the warmer to reduce contamination.

A second study investigating the hazards of intraoperative FAW obtained similar results (Baker 2002). Growth of bacteria was found in swab samples from the exterior and interior of the warmer and from the distal end of the hose, suggesting that risk assessment should be undertaken before using FAW. Although the perforated blanket was not analysed as a microbial filter, the study suggested that even a small number of non-pathogenic organisms from contaminated air may come into contact with the surgical area and cause serious complications. The study recommends and advises on:

- The intraoperative use of sealed unit machines fitted with appropriate microbial filters based on thorough risk assessments
- Following the manufacturers instructions for changing the microbial filters and for the use of blankets
- Paying special attention to ensure that blankets are properly sealed to patient's skin in order to prevent air contamination.

Another study also discussed the re-use of disposable blankets for other patients, suggesting that bacterial contamination triples after use (Sigg 1999). In this study, FAW of used and new commercial blankets were potential sources of nosocomial infection.

Another study in this category investigated the possible sources of contamination in laminar airflow operating theatres (Tumia 2002). This found that the use of warm air convection heaters increased the number of colonies in the ultra clean air but this was noted to be not clinically significant.

A comparative randomised cross-over study (Zink 1993) was included as indirect evidence to the risk of infection. It raises the concern on the contribution of convective warming devices (CWD) to high air flows in close proximity to the patient, consequently leading to a potential of air-borne bacterial contamination when convective air coverlets are not used as recommended by the manufacturer's instructions. The study hypothesised that use of convective warming therapy (CWT) is unlikely to increase a patient's risk for wound contamination during surgery. A surgical site was simulated with healthy male volunteers (indirect population) not taking antibiotics within a month before the study who had bacterial culture plates fastened to their abdomen at the start of each trial period (see Appendix C for details). Two groups of randomly divided subjects were created:

- Control-therapy: convective cover in place but not inflated for the first 2 hour period with blowers operational setting for the latter 2 hour period
- Therapy-control: convective cover in place initially on for the first 2 hour period with blowers operational setting off the latter 2 hour period.

The authors noted that FAW with lower body commercial blanket did not increase the potential for air-borne bacterial wound contamination and infection in the operating room. On the analysis of bacteria, the number of colony-forming units recovered from operating rooms was not increased by forced air blowers. There also were no signs of the worst pathogens for serious wound contamination and infection (*staphylococcus aureus*). This may be due to several factors:

- The singular use of warming coverlets
- The size of the floor mounted blower had a filter of an air intake much smaller (0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ ) than the average size of bacteria carrying particles
- An adhesive strip on the warming cover which was applied at the waist helping to direct air flow away from the surgical site and personnel.

Huang (2003), a prospective study, investigated the potential for prosthetic material infection with prolonged exposure of the patients undergoing aortic surgery with prosthetic graft insertion to the exhaust of the warming blanket Bair Hugger®, possibly by mobilising their resident skin organisms into the theatre atmosphere then into the surgical field. Vascular surgery was performed in a standard positive pressure theatre. Air samples from theatre atmosphere, around the axillae and swab specimens were taken from the warming unit, hose and from the wound edges from the abdomen. Readings were taken when the warming blanket was first applied and at the end of the operation. None of the patients developed postoperative wound or prosthetic infections during a 6 month follow-up period. Using the Bair Hugger® patient warming system during prolonged abdominal surgery does not increase bacterial contamination of the operating theatre atmosphere and is therefore unlikely to cause contamination of the surgical field.

## **2. Electric blankets**

### **RCTs**

In another RCT study, an electric blanket group using Electroconcept brand for legs to pubis (model CB2) and for head, trunk and arms (CB3) is compared to a usual case control group (Camus 1997). There were no thermal skin lesions detected but the skin temperature under the blankets reached 38.4°C. Although this temperature is under the limit (41°C) allowed by the international standards to avoid thermal lesions, the study speculates on the potential adverse effects of using electric blankets. These include:

- Electrical hazards as a result of insufficient electric insulation, outer sheath breakage or cutting by surgical instruments
- Risk of electrocution to the patient, surgeon or anaesthetist
- Burns due to the inefficient heat transfer resulting from limitation of skin warming to guarantee thermal safety.

## **3. Radiant heat**

### **Case reports**

Two studies reported patients with burns caused by the use of radiant heat systems. One applied radiant heat (Suntouch model PW820 of intra Fisher and Paykel appliances) to an 80 year old patient undergoing right hepatectomy (Batistich 2006). The patient's arm burned when placed too close to the device.

A second report in which radiant heat was also applied described a patient for whom the device (Emerson warming light) caused second degree burns with skin blisters (Zukowski 1998). It was determined that nursing staff inadvertently pushed the light against the bed during patient care manoeuvres leaving the light against the bed rail 32cm from the patient. The authors concluded, from further investigations, that at 32cm from the patient, warming lights can cause tissue compromise after 30 minutes for a focused beam and between 45 and 60 minutes of a defocused beam. The study emphasises to clinicians the importance of proper patient positioning during postoperative care in the recovery room and ward when using warming light therapy.

## **4. Water garment**

### **Case reports**

One study using a circulating water garment (ThermoWrap MTRE Advanced technologies) reported a skin injury from second degree burns in a 67 year old male undergoing liver transplantation (Gali 2003). The study found it difficult to discern the reasons for the burn. Discussion of contributing factors included pressure and heat or a combination of these and the patient's risk factors (age, poor nutritional status, low serum albumin level and prolonged

surgery). The study recommended that clinicians should consider circulating water garments to be a potential risk for prolonged surgeries.

### **5. Fluid warming**

#### **Case reports**

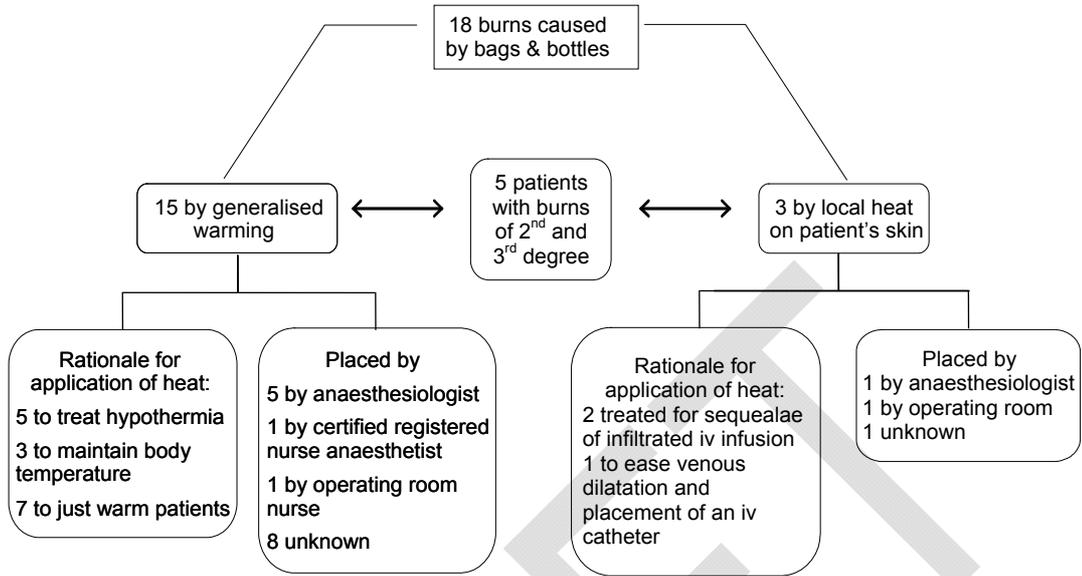
Finally, there is one report on the risk of dramatic haemodynamic damage caused by thermal injury associated with malfunctioning of a Belmont FMS 2000 inductive fluid warming device (Husser 2004). A 42 year old male patient undergoing highly invasive orthopaedic surgery presented with hypotension (from 110/50 to 50/30 mmHg) and tachycardia (from 197 to 130 beats per min). Overheating caused damage and disfiguring of the toroid element of this device during rapid infusion. The study drew attention to the potential physiological damage due to thermal-mediated leukocyte free-radical production, complement activation and release of vasoactive mediators (prostaglandins, leukotrienes, interleukins, cytokines, etc) from thermally lysed or degranulated leukocytes. Generally, the temperature within the toroid itself is not monitored suggesting the possibility that formed elements from the transfused blood were exposed to non-physiological extreme temperatures ( $\geq 100^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) lysing and releasing vasoactive mediators, resulting in patient injury.

#### **Conclusions**

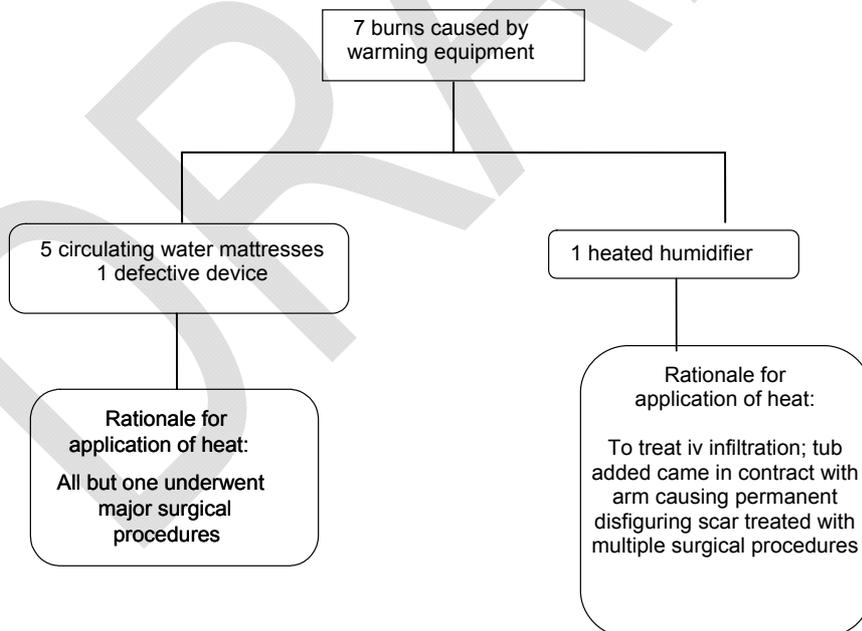
This review identifies some of the risks and adverse effects reported in the literature associated with warming devices. The most common adverse effects were burns and infection. Although many potential sources of adverse effects can be identified, there does not seem to be empirical support that indicates that warming systems increase the risk of infection if properly used. FAW systems are naturally built to eliminate bacteria. Similarly, FAW systems if properly used by following the manufacturer's instructions could prevent clinicians from causing any harm or injury to their patients.

**Figure 1: Cheney (1994), sources of burns from heated material (IV bags and bottles)**

Of 20 patients, 18 had burns, five of which were of second and third degree. 15 were due to generalised warming and 3 were due to local heat.



**Figure 2: Cheney (1994) sources of burns from warming devices**



## 10.5 FLUIDS

### **Characteristics of clinical studies included in the review (Appendix C)**

Twenty studies are included in this review (Camus 1996; Cooper 1994; Dyer 1986; Ellis-Stoll 1996; Hasankhani 2005; Jaffe 2001; Kelly 2000; Kurz 1995; Monga 1996; Moore 1996; Motamed 1998; Muth 1996; Patel 1996; Patel 1997; Pit 1996; Schmied 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Steinbrook 1997; Zhao 2005). The excluded studies are listed in Appendix E.

A total of 854 patients were included in the review. Nine studies (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Moore 1996; Monga 1996; Patel 1997; Smith 1998; Steinbrook 1998; Kelly 2000; Zhao 2005) had fewer than 20 patients in each arm.

### **Participants**

The age range of participants across studies (where given) ranged from 18 to 89 years, with the mean age (where given) ranging from 30 to 72 years.

One study was conducted in the UK (Cooper 1994), nine studies in the USA (Ellis-Stoll 1996; Monga 1996; Moore 1996; Patel 1996; Patel 1997; Steinbrook 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Jaffe 2001); two studies in Austria (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996); one study in Canada (Motamed 1998); one in Germany (Muth 1996); one in France (Camus 1996); one study in the Netherlands (Pit 1996); one in Australia (Dyer 1986); one in China (Zhao 2005) and one study was conducted in Iran (Hasankhani 2005). In one study (Kelly 2000) it was unclear in which country the study was conducted.

One study included patients with ASA I status (Hasankhani 2005), two studies (Camus 1996; Kelly 2000) reported ASA I and II grade, and one study included patients with ASA III (Muth 1996). Six studies (Kurz 1995; Patel 1996; Patel 1997; Steinbrook 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) included patients with ASA I, II and III status. ASA status was not reported in the remaining studies.

A range of procedures were undertaken. Four studies included patients undergoing transurethral resection of the prostate (Dyer 1986; Monga 1996; Pit 1996; Jaffe 2001); three undergoing abdominal surgery (Camus 1996; Steinbrook 1997; Zhao 2005); three in gynaecological surgery (Cooper 1994; Moore 1995; Smith 1998); two studies in orthopaedic, gynaecological or general surgery (Patel 1997; Smith 1998b); colon surgery (Kurz 1995); laparoscopic cholecystectomy (Ellis-Stoll 1996); orthopaedic or gynaecological surgery (Patel 1996); hip arthroplasty (Schmied 1996); colorectal surgery (Motamed 1998); knee arthroscopy (Kelly 2000); orthopaedic surgery (Hasankhani 2005); and abdominal aortic aneurysm (Muth 1996).

1 Type of surgery was stated as elective in 12 studies (Cooper 1994; Kurz 1995; Camus 1996;  
2 Muth 1996; Patel 1996; Patel 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Moore 1997; Motamed 1998;  
3 Hasankhani 2005; Zhao 2005) and not stated in the remaining studies.

4  
5 Mean duration of surgery ranged from 30 to 60 minutes in two studies (Kelly 2000; Pit 1996); 1  
6 to 3 hours in twelve studies (Camus 1996; Ellis-Stoll 1996; Moore 1996; Patel 1996; Patel  
7 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Schmied 1996; Motamed 1998; Jaffe 2001; Hasankhani  
8 2005; Zhao 2005); more than 3 hours in six studies (Dyer 1986; Kurz 1995; Muth 1996; Patel  
9 1996; Patel 1997) and not stated in the remaining studies.

10  
11 Patients underwent general anaesthesia in ten studies (Kurz 1995; Camus 1996; Muth 1996;  
12 Patel 1996; Schmeid 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Moore 1997; Patel 1997; Hasankhani  
13 2005); regional anaesthesia in three studies (Dyer 1986; Pit 1996; Kelly 2000); mixed  
14 anaesthesia (epidural or general) in one study (Motamed 1998); general anaesthesia or  
15 combined epidural-general anaesthesia in one study (Steinbrook 1997); general or regional  
16 anaesthesia in one study (Monga 1996) and not stated in the remaining studies.

17  
18 Type of premedication, dose and method of delivery were as follows:

- 19 • Diazepam (10mg) orally (Kurz 1995; Schmeid 1996: 1 to 2 hours before surgery);
- 20 • IV midazolam was administered to all patients just before leaving the preoperative holding  
21 area (Kelly 2000);
- 22 • Midazolam and fentanyl IV (Steinbrook 1997: 1 to 4mg and 100 to 250µg respectively;  
23 Smith 1998: 2mg and 100 to 200µg respectively);
- 24 • Atropine (0.2 to 0.4mg) (Hasankhani 2005);
- 25 • Hydroxyzine (100mg) orally 1 hour before surgery (Camus 1996);
- 26 • Flunitrazepam (1 to 2mg) orally (Muth 1996);
- 27 • Fentanyl, midazolam (Patel 1997);
- 28 • No premedication was administered in one study (Motamed 1998).

29  
30 The remaining studies did not report on premedication.

### 31 32 **Methodological quality of included studies (Appendix D)**

33 The method of randomisation was adequate in seven studies (computer generated random  
34 numbers table: Kurz 1996; computer generated codes: Schmeid 1996; random numbers table:  
35 Patel 1996; Moore 1997; Smith 1998b; Kelly 2000; coin toss: Steinbrook 1997; Hasankhani  
36 2005); inadequate method of randomisation (according to the day of surgery) in one study  
37 (Muth 1996) and unclear in the remaining studies. Allocation concealment was partially  
38 adequate in one study (sequentially numbered opaque envelope: Schmeid 1996), likely to be  
39 inadequate in one study (Muth 1996) and not stated in the remaining studies. In one study

1 (Cooper 1996) with 14 patients it was unclear how many patients were randomised into each  
2 group; an equal distribution was assumed.

3 In four studies observers assessing shivering were blinded to the treatment group (Camus  
4 1996; Motamed 1998; Hasankhani 2005; Zhao 2005). In two studies (Patel 1996; Smith 1998),  
5 nurses recording postoperative data were blinded to the patient group. In one study (Kurz  
6 1995) nurses and physicians administering pain management and the observer assessing  
7 shivering were blinded to the patients' group assignment and core temperatures. In one study  
8 (Motamed 1998) patients and assessors were unaware of the group allocation. One study  
9 (Jaffe 2001) stated it was a double-blind study.

10  
11 One study (Schmeid 1996) reported conducting a power calculation. A pilot study indicated  
12 that in order to detect a significant increase in blood loss induced by hypothermia (at 80%  
13 power;  $p=0.05$  two tailed), 60 patients were required.

14  
15 Two studies (Patel 1996; Kelly 2000) reported that more than 20% of the patients dropped out  
16 from any one group or overall:

- 17 • Patel (1996) reported that 10/49 patients were excluded from the analysis. There were  
18 7/25 (28%) in the Flotem II group and reasons for exclusion included: warming mattress  
19 used throughout surgery ( $n=3$ ); failure to use warmer ( $n=3$ ); closed head injury with  
20 perioperative temperature above  $38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $n=1$ ). In the Hotline group there were 3/24 drop  
21 outs; reasons for exclusion included: failure to use the warmer ( $n=2$ ); surgery lasting 28  
22 minutes ( $n=1$ ).
- 23 • Kelly (2000) reported that 4/24 patients were excluded from the analysis. In the warming  
24 group 3/9 (33%) dropped out; reasons were: tourniquet inflation required ( $n=2$ ); warming  
25 ( $n=1$ ). In the control group 1/11 patients dropped out because warming was required and  
26 this patient was not included in the analysis.

27  
28 Five studies (Steinbrook 1996; Moore 1997; Patel 1997; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005)  
29 reported dropouts fewer than 20%:

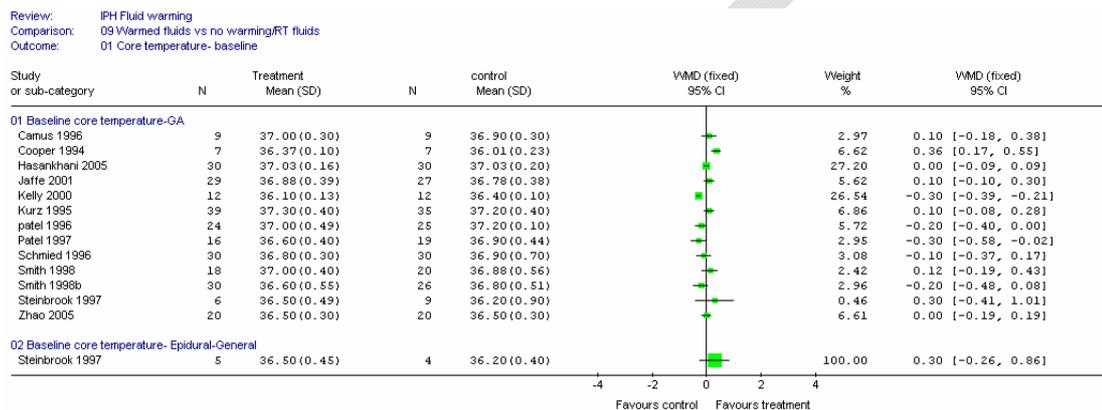
- 30 • In Steinbrook (1996), 3/24 patients were excluded from the analysis due to deviations  
31 from experimental protocol, changes in anaesthetic or surgical procedures or technical  
32 problems with equipment.
- 33 • In Moore (1997), 6/35 patients did not require irrigation fluid and were treated as a  
34 separate group. It is unclear into which groups these patients were originally assigned.
- 35 • In Patel (1997), 2/15 patients were excluded from the treatment group because: surgery  
36 lasted more than an hour ( $n=1$ ); fluid warmer malfunction ( $n=1$ ).
- 37 • In Hasankhani (2005), 5/60 patients were excluded following randomisation: use of  
38 epidural anaesthesia ( $n=3$ ) and use of midazolam as premedication ( $n=3$ ).
- 39 • In Smith (1998b), reported 5/61 patients were excluded after randomisation. In the  
40 intervention group one patient ( $n=1/31$ ) was excluded because the surgeon requested the

convective warmer was turned off; in the control group, 4/30 patients were excluded: anaesthesiologist's decision to use enflurane instead of isoflurane (n=1); intraoperative bleeding and decision to use fluid warmer (n=3).

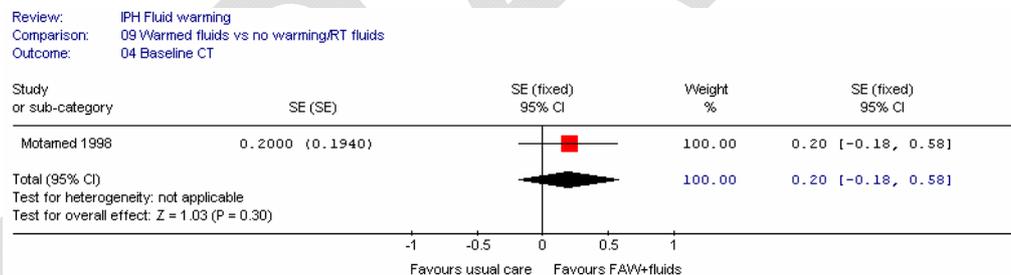
One study (Schmied 1996) indicated an intention to treat analysis.

Comparabilities for the baseline core temperatures (Figure 1) and the volume of infused fluids (Figure 2) are shown below.

**Figure 1: Baseline core temperature**



NB: Scale -4 to 4



In one study (Ellis-Stoll 1996), baseline core temperatures were extracted from a graph, but standard deviations were not provided; therefore, it is not included in Figure 1. In one study (Muth 1996), baseline core temperatures were reported at the beginning of surgery. The core temperature was above 35.5°C for both groups and there was no significant difference. We note that baseline core temperature was measured at the sublingual site in study.

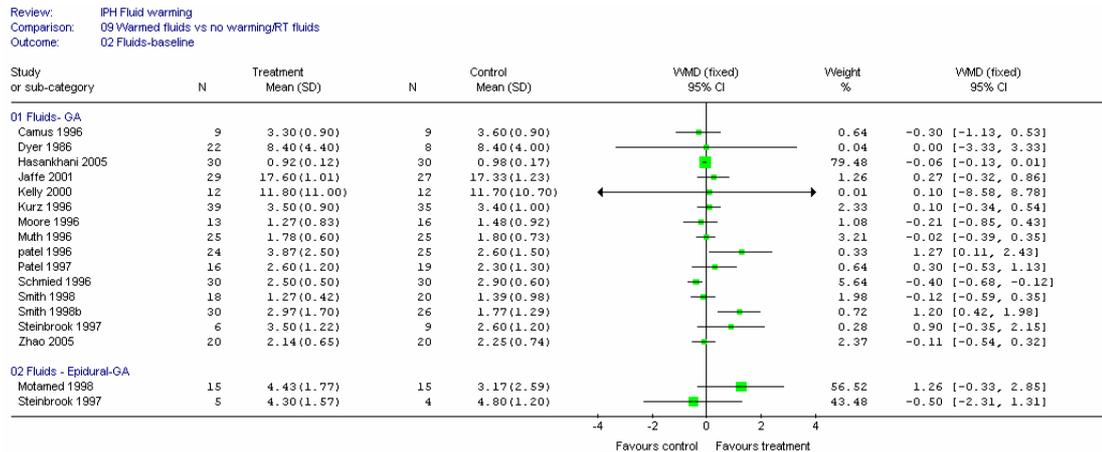
Baseline core temperature was not stated in the remaining studies.

The following studies had significant differences in baseline core temperature:

- 0.36°C higher for the actively warmed group (Cooper 1996);
- 0.30°C higher in the control group (Kelly 2000);
- 0.20°C higher for the active warming device 2 (countercurrent water heat exchange)

1 (Patel 1996);  
 2 • 0.30°C higher for the forced air warming group (Patel 1997).  
 3  
 4 Results for these studies will be considered only if the baseline difference is less than 20% of  
 5 the effect size.  
 6  
 7

**Figure 2: Differences in the volume of infused fluids**



8 NB: Scale -4 to 4  
 9

10 In three studies the volume of infused fluids was significantly different:  
 11 • 1.27 litres (on 2.60 litres) higher in active warming device 1 group (countercurrent water  
 12 heat exchange fluid warmer) (Patel 1996);  
 13 • 0.40 litres (on 2.50 litres) higher in the control group (Schmied 1996);  
 14 • 1.20 litres (on 2.97 litres) higher in the actively warmed group (Smith 1998b).  
 15

16 The volume of infused fluids was not stated in four studies (Cooper 1994; Ellis-Stoll 1996;  
 17 Monga 1996; Pit 1996).  
 18

19 In one study (Motamed 1998), the body weight was significantly higher in the control group  
 20 and in one study (Patel 1996) the mean age was significantly higher in group 1  
 21 (countercurrent water heat exchange fluid warmer) group.  
 22

23 **Summary**

24 Overall, one study was considered to be at higher risk of bias (Muth 1996), which had an  
 25 inadequate method of allocation concealment. Six other studies were treated with caution, four  
 26 because of differences in baseline core temperatures (Cooper 1996, Kelly 2000, Patel 1996,  
 27 Patel 1997), and three studies had differences in the volume of fluid infused (Patel 1996,  
 28 Schmied 1996; Smith 1998b). All of these studies were considered in sensitivity analyses, and  
 29 the studies with baseline differences were not included in the analyses unless the outcome  
 30 had an effect size at least 5 times that of the baseline difference.  
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**Interventions**

**I. Intravenous fluid warming**

**A. Active fluid warming versus no fluid warming (room temperature fluids)**

**i. Active fluid warming versus no fluid warming (room temperature fluids)**

- Warmed IV fluids versus room temperature IV fluids (Cooper 1994);
- Warmed IV fluids (set point 42°C) versus room temperature fluids (Smith 1998);
- Warmed IV fluids (flow rates and set point temperature at 3 settings) versus room temperature IV fluids (Hasankhani 2005);
- Warmed IV fluids (37°C) versus room temperature IV fluids (21°C) plus prewarmed blood products (37°C) (Muth 1996)

**ii. Active fluid warming versus room temperature fluids (with active patient warming in both groups)**

- Actively warmed IV fluids (37°C) versus room temperature IV fluids plus electric blanket (40°C) in both groups (Camus 1996)
- Actively warmed IV fluids (38°C to 39°C) versus room temperature IV fluids plus forced air warming (48.9°C) in both groups (Camus 1996).

**B. Active fluid warming 1 versus active fluid warming 2**

**i. Active fluid warming type 1 versus active fluid warming 2**

- Dry heat exchange fluid warmer versus concurrent water heat exchange fluid warmer (Patel 1997).

**ii. Active fluid warming type 1 versus active fluid warming 2 (with active patient warming in both groups)**

- Warmed IV fluid versus pre-warmed IV fluid (Ellis-Stoll 1996) + warmed blanket (upper body) in both groups.

**C. Active patient warming + active fluid warming versus usual care**

- Upper body forced air warming (40°C) + actively warmed IV solutions (37°C) versus routine thermal care (Kurz 1995);
- Lower body forced air warming (42 to 43°C) + actively warmed IV solutions including blood (39°C) versus cotton sheet (Zhao 2005);
- Upper body forced air warming(high) + warmed IV fluids (37°C) versus usual care (Schmied 1996);
- Forced air warming (set to maintain core temperature near 37°C )+ actively warmed IV solutions (37°C) versus routine thermal care (Steinbrook 1997) (general; epidural-general anaesthesia);

- 1           • Upper body forced air warming + actively warmed IV fluids (37°C) versus usual care  
2           (Motamed 1998) (epidural-general anaesthesia).

3  
4           **II. Irrigation fluid warming**

5           **A. Irrigation fluid warming versus no warming (room temperature fluids)**

6           **i. Passive fluid warming versus no warming (room temperature fluids)**

- 7           • Pre-warmed saline irrigation fluid (40°C) versus room temperature saline irrigation fluid  
8           (Kelly 2000);  
9           • Pre-warmed glycine irrigation fluid (37°C) versus room temperature glycine irrigation  
10          fluid (Dyer 1986).

11  
12          **ii. Active fluid warming versus no warming (room temperature fluids)**

- 13          • Actively warmed irrigation fluid (>36.8°C) versus room temperature irrigation fluid (Pit  
14          1996)

15  
16          **iii. Active or passive fluid warming versus no warming (room temperature fluids)**

- 17          • Actively warmed irrigation fluid (37°C) or passively warmed (incubator) fluid (35°C)  
18          versus room temperature irrigation fluid (Monga 1996).

19  
20          **iv. Active fluid warming versus room temperature fluids (with active patient warming  
21          in both groups)**

- 22          • Warmed irrigation fluid (33.1°C) versus room temperature irrigation fluid plus warmed  
23          blanket in both groups (Jaffe 2001);  
24          • Warmed irrigation fluid (39°C) versus ambient temperature irrigation fluid (20 to 22°C)  
25          plus heating blanket in both groups (Moore 1996).

26  
27          **III. Other comparisons**

28          **A. Thermal insulation + Passive fluid warming versus usual care**

- 29          • Reflective blankets plus passively warmed fluids (37°C) versus usual care  
30

31          **B. Thermal insulation + active fluid warming versus active patient warming**

- 32          • Aluminium (Thermadrape) blankets, head covers & leggings plus actively warmed IV  
33          fluids (42°C) versus Forced air warming plus room temperature IV fluids (Patel 1997)  
34          ○ This comparison changes two variables at once (FAW /thermal insulation and  
35          temperature of IV fluids).

36  
37          **Primary outcomes**

38          Four studies (Muth 1996; Patel 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) recorded the number of  
39          patients with IPH, but most measured the core temperature at different times. For this  
40          outcome, an increase of 0.5°C over the control group temperature was considered to be

1 clinically significant for a control group temperature above 36°C and a difference of 0.25°C  
2 was considered to be clinically significant for control group temperatures below 36°C.

3  
4 Core temperature was measured:

- 5 • During the intraoperative period (Cooper 1994; Kurz 1995; Camus 1996; Ellis-Stoll 1996;  
6 Patel 1997; Motamed 1998; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Jaffe 2001; Hasankhani 2005;  
7 Zhao 2005);
- 8 • In PACU (Kurz 1995; Patel 1997; Steinbrook 1997; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Kelly 2000).

9  
10 Other outcomes were:

- 11 • Shivering (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Patel 1997; Steinbrook 1997; Motamed 1998;  
12 Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005; Zhao 2005);
- 13 • Blood loss (Schmied 1996; Zhao 2005);
- 14 • Thermal comfort (Kurz 1995);
- 15 • Extubation time (Zhao 2005);
- 16 • Thermal discomfort (Pit 1996);
- 17 • Pain (Kurz 1995; Motamed 1998).

18  
19 Core temperature was measured at the following sites:

- 20 • Tympanic (Kurz 1995; Camus 1996; Ellis-Stoll 1996; Moore 1996; Patel 1996; Schmeid  
21 1996; Patel 1997; Steinbrook 1997 (PACU); Motamed 1998; Smith 1998; Kelly 2000; Jaffe  
22 2001; Zhao 2005);
- 23 • Oesophageal (Cooper 1994; Steinbrook 1997(intraoperative); Hasankhani 2005; Moore  
24 1996; Smith 1998b\*);
- 25 • Rectal (Pit 1996);
- 26 • Sublingual (Dyer 1986; Monga 1996).

27 \* Core temperature was measured at the sublingual site for the pre and postoperative  
28 periods.

## 30 RESULTS

31 The GDG originally decided to stratify only by presence/absence of comorbidities, trauma, and  
32 hyperthermia. Perioperative phases were also to be considered separately, as were  
33 intravenous and irrigation fluids.

34  
35 However, a post-hoc decision was made to stratify by type of anaesthesia (general; regional;  
36 combined), as these were expected to have different mechanisms of action. The GDG also  
37 decided to combine active and passive forms of irrigation fluid warming because there was  
38 likely to be rapid delivery of these fluids.

1 Initially, the GDG decided to combine all comparisons of active fluid warming versus usual  
2 care, regardless of the presence of other active patient interventions.

### 3 4 **I. Intravenous fluid warming**

#### 5 **A. Active fluid warming versus no fluid warming (room temperature fluids)**

##### 6 **A1. General anaesthesia**

7 Five studies (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005)  
8 compared the effectiveness of active IV fluid warming versus room temperature IV fluids. In  
9 one study (Camus 1996) patients in both arms received electric blanket set at 40°C and in one  
10 study (Smith 1998b) patients in both arms received forced air warming set at high setting  
11 (48.9°C) (Figure 3).

12  
13 In four studies, patients underwent general anaesthesia (Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith  
14 1998b; Hasankhani 2005) and type of anaesthesia was not stated in one study (Cooper  
15 1994).

16  
17 One study utilised a dry fluid warmer (Hasankhani 2005), three studies used a concurrent  
18 water heat exchange technique (Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b). One study did not  
19 state the type of fluid warmer (Cooper 1994). The temperature at which fluids were infused  
20 varied. Fluid warmers were set at the following temperatures: 37.5°C (Cooper 1994); 38 to  
21 39°C (Smith 1998); 39.5°C (Hansankhani 2005); 40°C (Camus 1996); 42°C (Smith 1998b).

22  
23 The volume of infused fluids was as follows (for the active warmed fluid and the room  
24 temperature groups respectively):

- 25 • 3.3 litre (SD 0.9) versus 3.6 litre (SD 0.9) (Camus 1996);
- 26 • 1.27 litre (SD 0.42) versus 1.39 litre (SD 0.98) (Smith 1998);
- 27 • 2.97 litre (SD 1.7) versus 1.77 litre (SD 1.39) (Smith 1998b);
- 28 • 0.918 litre (SD 0.12) versus 0.984 litre (SD 0.17) (Hasankhani 2005).

29  
30 The volume of infused fluids was not stated in one study (Cooper 1996).

31  
32 Flow rates of infused fluids were as follows (in some cases these were calculated from the  
33 mean weight and flow rate):

- 34 • 8 to 10ml/kg/h (Camus 1996);
- 35 • 11 to 20ml/kg/h (Smith 1998);
- 36 • 6 to 11mg/kg/h (Hasankhani 2005).

37  
38 In two studies (Cooper 1994; Smith 1998b) the flow rates were not stated.

1 The type of IV fluids varied. In one study patients received sterile 1.5% glycine solution  
2 (Cooper 1994); Ringer's solution (Hasankhani 2005) and not stated in the remaining studies.

3  
4 In one study (Cooper 1994) we note that there is a baseline difference in core temperature  
5 (0.36°C higher in the group assigned to active fluid warming). Results from this study will be  
6 considered only if the baseline difference is less than 20% of the effect size.

7  
8 We note that in one study (Cooper 1994) it was unclear whether the error bars represented  
9 standard deviations or standard error means. The study provided the p value ( $p=0.05$ ) for the  
10 change in temperature for the warmed group from baseline to 20 minutes. We extracted the  
11 mean temperature from the graph at baseline and at 20 minutes ( $p=.02$ ) which confirmed that  
12 the error bars represented the standard deviations.

13  
14 We note that in one study (Hasankhani 2005) in which data were extracted from graph the  
15 authors stated that the error bars denote standard deviations and the difference was  
16 statistically significant at  $p<0.05$ . However, the p values we obtained were much different  
17 ( $p<0.0001$ ). As the reliability of the graph was questionable, we opted to use the standard  
18 deviation (0.50) reported in the text for the final core temperature for all intraoperative  
19 temperature measurements. This assumption will be explored in a sensitivity analysis.

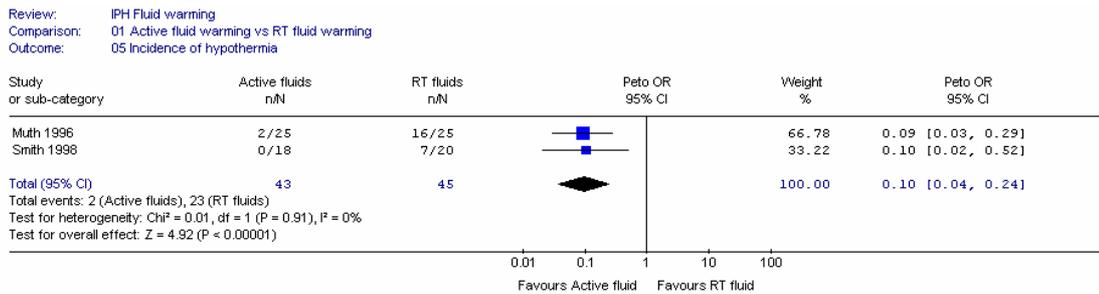
20  
21 Results for Muth (1996) were considered in sensitivity analyse because the method of  
22 randomisation was inadequate.

### 23 24 **1. Incidence of hypothermia at the end of surgery**

25 Three studies (Muth 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) with patients reported the number of  
26 patients with a core temperature less than 35.5°C (Muth 1996; Smith 1998) or less than 36°C  
27 (Smith 1998b) at the end of surgery. The results for Smith (1998b) are not included as  
28 warming was ceased for  $n=10/30$  and  $n= 3/26$  patients in the intervention and control groups,  
29 respectively and it was unclear if these patients were included in the analysis.

30  
31 The results for Muth (1996) was considered in a sensitivity analysis (inadequate method of  
32 randomisation), The Peto odds ratio for the Muth (1996) study was similar to that for Smith  
33 (1998) and meta-analysis of the two studies in 88 patients showed no heterogeneity ( $I^2=0\%$ ,  
34  $p=0.91$ ). There was a significantly smaller incidence of hypothermia for the active fluid  
35 warming group (Peto OR 0.10 [95% CI 0.04, 0.24]). This corresponds to an NNT of 3 (95% 2,  
36 4) for a control group rate range 35% to 64% (Figure 3).

37  
38 **Figure 3: Incidence of hypothermia; actively warmed IV fluids versus room temperature**  
39 **IV fluids; general anaesthesia**



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NB: Scale: 0.01 to 100

**2. Core temperature at various intraoperative times**

At 15 minutes, meta-analysis of three studies (Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005) with 154 patients showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the active fluid warming group: WMD 0.28°C (95% CI 0.11, 0.44) for a control group range of 35.6°C to 36.5°C. This difference is clinically significant. There was no heterogeneity (Figure 4).

At 30 minutes, meta-analysis of four studies (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005) in 186 patients showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the group receiving warmed fluids: WMD 0.40°C (95%CI 0.26, 0.54) for a control group temperature range of 35.5°C to 36.25°C. This is a clinically significant difference. There was no heterogeneity. For this duration, we excluded Cooper (1996) from the analysis as the effect size (0.48°C) is not more than 5 times the baseline core temperature difference (0.36°C).

At 60 minutes, meta-analysis of four studies (Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005) with 172 patients showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the group receiving warmed fluids: WMD 0.38°C (95% CI 0.21, 0.54) for a control group range 35.8°C to 36.2°C. We note that in one study (Hasankhani 2005) for this time period we have used the final intraoperative core temperature (possibly at 60 or 70 minutes duration of surgery) as reported in the text.

At 2 hours, meta-analysis of two studies (Camus 1996; Smith 1998b) with 74 patients, showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the actively warmed fluids group: WMD 0.49°C (95% CI 0.18, 0.81) for a control group temperature of 35.8°C to 35.9°C. This difference is clinically significant. The confidence interval is fairly wide.

At 3 hours, in one study (Camus 1996) with 18 patients the mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warming group: MD 0.72°C (95% CI 0.17, 1.27) for a control group temperature of 35.7°C. The difference is clinically significant, but the confidence interval is wide.

1 At 4 hours, in one study (Camus 1996) with 18 patients, the mean core temperature was  
2 significantly higher for the warming group: MD 0.86°C (95% CI 0.11, 1.61) for a control group  
3 temperature of 35.7°C. The difference is clinically significant, but the confidence interval is  
4 wide.

### 6 **3. Core temperature at the end of surgery**

7 Five studies (Camus 1996; Muth 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b; Hasankhani 2005) reported  
8 the core temperature at the end of surgery. The mean duration of surgery was just over 1 hour  
9 in two studies (Smith 1998; Hasankhani 2005), over 2 hours in one study (Muth 1996) and 6  
10 hours in the other (Camus 1996) (Figure 4).

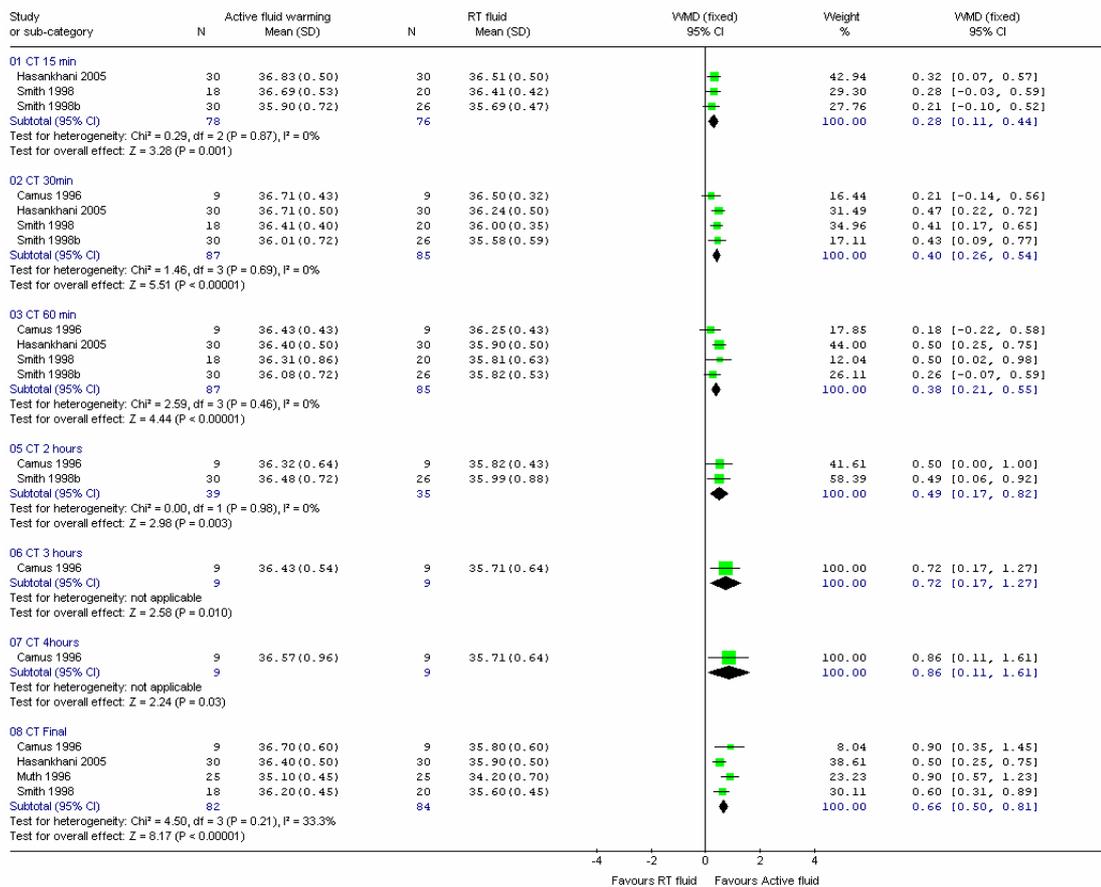
11  
12 In one study (Smith 1998b) the mean duration of surgery was significantly longer by 68  
13 minutes ( $p=0.01$ ) for the warmed group compared to the control group which is likely to be  
14 confounding. In addition, warming was ceased at 131 minutes ( $n=10/30$ ) and 165 minutes  
15 ( $n=3/26$ ) in the intervention (forced air warming and warmed fluids) and control groups (forced  
16 air warming and room temperature fluids) respectively. It was decided not to include this  
17 outcome for the Smith (1998b) study.

18  
19 The results for Muth (1996) were considered in a sensitivity analysis (inadequate method of  
20 randomisation). The odds ratio for the Muth (1996) study was similar to that for Camus (1996).  
21 There was no significant heterogeneity.

22  
23 Meta-analysis of the four studies (Camus 1996; Muth 1996; Smith 1998; Hasankhani 2005)  
24 with 166 patients showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the actively  
25 warmed group 0.66°C (95% CI 0.50, 0.81) for a control group range of 34.2°C to 35.9°C.  
26 There was no significant heterogeneity.

27  
28 **Figure 4: Core temperature – intraoperative period; actively warmed IV fluids versus**  
29 **room temperature IV fluids; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Fluid warming  
 Comparison: D1 Active fluid warming vs RT fluid warming  
 Outcome: D9 Core temperature : Intraoperative period- A vs RT, Hasankhani SD 0.5



NB: Scale -4 to 4

A sensitivity analysis was conducted to examine the assumption that for Hasankhani (2005) the standard deviation for the end of surgery could be used at 15 and 30 minutes; Hasankhani (2005) has been excluded in the forest plot (Figure 4b)

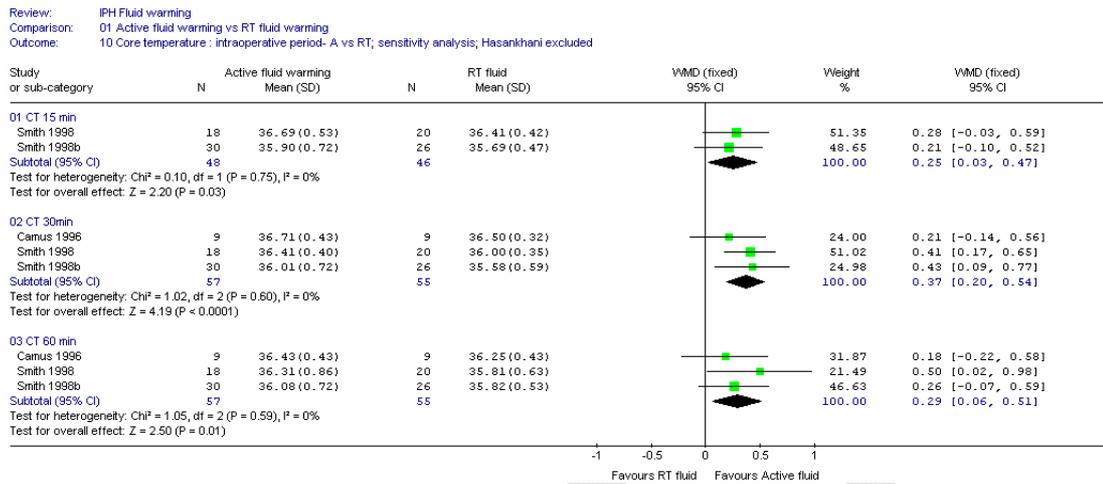
At 15 minutes, in the remaining two studies (Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) with 99 patients the mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 0.24°C (95% CI 0.03, 0.46) for a control group temperature range 35.6°C to 36.5°C, which is similar to the meta-analysis including Hasankhani 2005 (0.28°C (95% CI 0.11, 0.44)).

At 30 minutes, for a meta-analysis of three studies (Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998) with 117 patients the mean difference was significantly higher for the group receiving actively warmed fluids (0.37°C [95% CI 0.20, 0.54]) for a control group range 35.5°C to 36.5°C. This was similar to the meta-analysis that included Hasankhani (WMD 0.40°C [95%CI 0.26, 0.54]).

At 60 minutes, meta-analysis of three studies (Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) with 117 patients gave a borderline significant difference, favouring fluid warming: WMD 0.29°C (95% CI 0.06, 0.51) for a control group temperature range 35.8°C to 36.2°C. This is fairly similar to the meta-analysis including Hasankhani 2005 (0.38°C [95% CI 0.21, 0.54]).

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**Figure 4b: Core temperature – intraoperative period; actively warmed IV fluids versus room temperature IV fluids; general anaesthesia; sensitivity analysis**

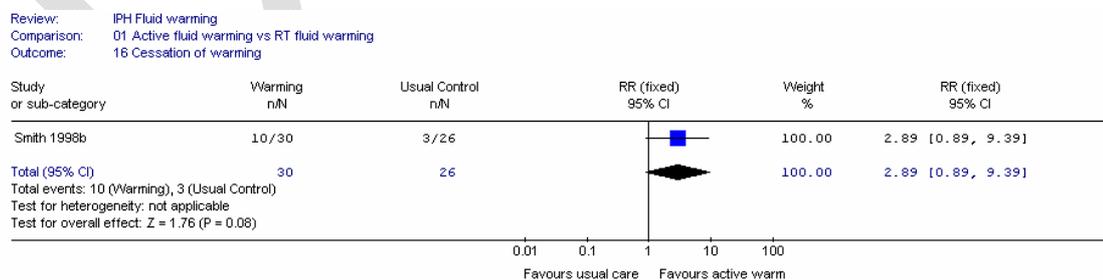


Comparing the mean differences at 15, 30 and 60 minutes in Figure 4a with Figure 4b (sensitivity analysis) it was agreed that excluding Hasankhani (2005) was not justified as the mean difference did not change sufficiently.

**4. Number of patients requiring cessation of warming intraoperatively**

One study (Smith 1998b) with 56 patients reported the percentage of patients who required cessation of forced air warming in the intraoperative period. There was no significant difference between warmed and unwarmed fluids, but the confidence interval is wide (Figure 5). Cessation of warming was required after 131 minutes (SD 22) and 165 minutes (SD 40) for the intervention (forced air warming and fluids) and the control (forced air warming) groups respectively.

**Figure 5: Cessation of warming; actively warmed IV fluids versus room temperature IV fluids; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

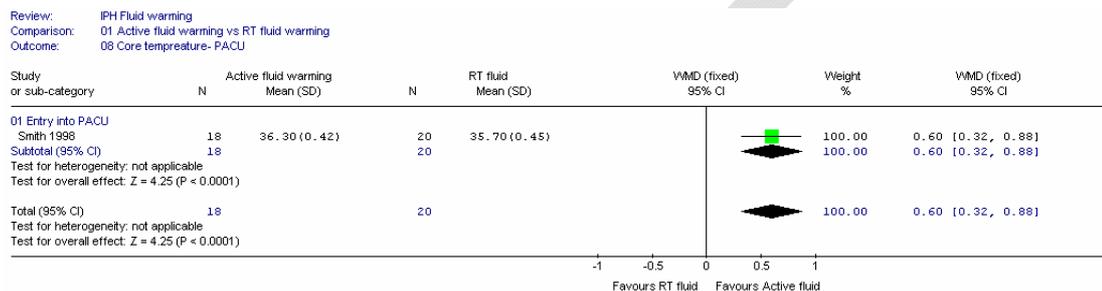
**5. Core temperature in PACU**

One study (Smith 1998) with 38 patients recorded the core temperature in PACU (on arrival, and at 30 and 60 minutes). Only the results for core temperature at entry into PACU are

presented because six patients (2 in the warmed group; 4 in the usual care group) with shivering or core temperature less than 35.5°C were treated with radiant heat during their stay in PACU.

There was a significantly higher mean core temperature for the active fluid warming group: MD 0.60°C (95% CI 0.32, 0.88) for a control group temperature of 35.7°C (Figure 6). The confidence interval is fairly wide.

**Figure 6: Core temperature – PACU; actively warmed IV fluids versus room temperature IV fluids; general anaesthesia**



## 6. Shivering

Five studies reported on shivering (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b Hasankhani 2005). One study (Cooper 1994) did not provide details on how shivering was assessed.

Methods of assessing shivering varied between the remaining three studies. In one study (Camus 1996) shivering was assessed at 5 minute intervals in recovery by an observer blinded to treatment. Shivering was classified as absent, mild (detected by electrocardiographic artefacts) or severe (clinically obvious). The GDG decided that shivering evaluated with ECG artefacts was not an appropriate method of assessment, because other involuntary movements (e.g. in those with Parkinson's disease) may be recorded. Therefore the incidence of mild shivering was not considered for this study.

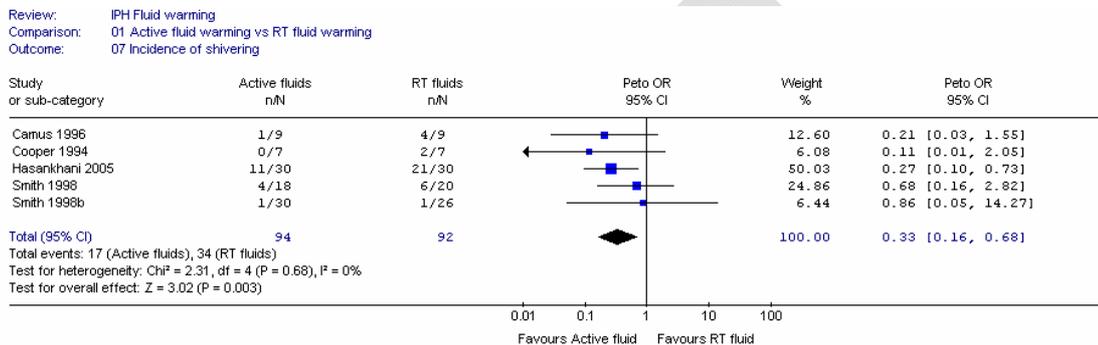
In two studies (Smith 1998; Smith 1998b) shivering was scored as mild if it did not interfere with monitoring and classified as severe if IV meperidine treatment was required. Results were dichotomised to either presence (mild or severe) or absence of shivering. Severity of shivering was assessed on arrival by a PACU nurse blinded to the treatment.

In one study (Hasankhani 2005) shivering was graded on a 5 point scale (0 = No shivering; 1 = Fasciculation of face and lips; 2 = Fasciculation of face and neck; 3 = Visible tremor involving more than one muscle group; 4 = Gross muscular activity involving the entire body). The results were dichotomised to either presence or absence of shivering. Shivering was

1 assessed every 10 minutes after arrival in the recovery room by an assessor blinded to the  
2 treatment group.

3  
4 Meta-analysis of five studies (Cooper 1994; Camus 1996; Smith 1998; Smith 1998b;  
5 Hasankhani 2005) with 186 patients showed the incidence of shivering was significantly lower  
6 in the warmed group. The confidence interval is fairly wide (Peto OR 0.33 [95% CI 0.16, 0.68]  
7 for a control group range 4% to 70%). This corresponded to an NNT of 6 (95% CI 4, 15).  
8 There was no heterogeneity (Figure 7).

9  
10 **Figure 7: Shivering; Active IV fluid warming versus room temperature IV fluid; general**  
11 **anaesthesia**



12 NB: Scale 0.001 to 100

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14  
15 **B. Active fluid warming 1 versus active fluid warming 2**

16 **B1. General anaesthesia**

17 Two studies (Patel 1996; Ellis-Stoll 1996) compared two active IV fluid warming mechanisms.

18  
19 One study (Patel 1996) with 49 patients undergoing orthopaedic or gynaecological surgery  
20 under general anaesthesia compared the effectiveness of countercurrent water heat exchange  
21 fluid warmer (group 1) with a dry heat exchange fluid warmer (group 2).

22 The groups were not comparable on the following:

- 23 • Baseline core temperature (0.20°C higher in group 2; p=0.05);
- 24 • Volume of infused fluids (1.27 litre more in group 1; p=0.03);
- 25 • Age (mean difference: 11 years higher in group 1; p=0.03).

26  
27  
28 This study was not considered for further analysis.

29  
30 One study (Ellis-Stoll 1996) with 50 patients compared the effectiveness of continuously  
31 warmed IV fluids versus prewarmed IV fluids; patients in both arms received a prewarmed  
32 blanket. The study did not report the volume of infused fluids.

1 The study reported the core temperature but not standard deviations or p values. The core  
2 temperatures during the intraoperative period for the treatment and control groups were as  
3 follows:

- 4 • Baseline: 36.8°C versus 36.7°C;
- 5 • 30 minutes: 36.1°C versus 36.1°C;
- 6 • 60 minutes: 35.9°C versus 35.8°C;
- 7 • 120 minutes: 35.4°C versus 35.5°C;
- 8 • Final intraoperative (170 minutes): 36.6°C versus 36.8°C;
- 9 • Lowest intraoperative (110 versus 120 minutes): 35.6°C versus 35.5°C.

10  
11 The authors performed an analysis of covariance of mean temperatures and reported that  
12 there were no statistically significant differences in the mean intraoperative or postoperative  
13 temperatures.

#### 14 15 **C. Active patient warming plus active fluid warming versus usual care**

16 Five studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996; Zhao 2005; Steinbrook 1997; Motamed 1998)  
17 compared the combined effects of active patient and fluid warming in comparison to routine  
18 care (unwarmed fluids).

19  
20 In three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996; Zhao 2005), patients underwent general  
21 anaesthesia. Results for these studies were presented separately from studies in which  
22 patients underwent regional anaesthesia (Motamed 1998). In Steinbrook (1997), in addition to  
23 randomisation to warming mechanisms, patients were further randomised to receive either  
24 combined epidural and general anaesthesia or general anaesthesia. Results for the general  
25 anaesthesia group were combined with the other three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996;  
26 Zhao 2005) where appropriate. Results for the combined anaesthesia (epidural-general)  
27 patients were presented separately.

28  
29 Volume of fluids infused for the warmed group and the usual care group, respectively were as  
30 follows:

- 31 • 3.5 (SD 0.9) versus 3.4 (1.0) litre (Kurz 1995);
- 32 • 2.14 (0.65) versus 2.25 (0.74) litre (Zhao 2005);
- 33 • 2.5 (0.5) versus 2.9 (0.6) litre (Schmied 1996);
- 34 • 3.5 (1.22) versus 2.6 (1.2) litre (Steinbrook 1997; general anaesthesia);
- 35 • 4.8 (1.2) versus 4.3 (1.57) litre (Steinbrook 1997; combined anaesthesia);
- 36 • 4.4 (0.46) versus 5.2(0.67) litre (Motamed 1998) (volume of fluids infused during surgery  
37 and recovery) (combined anaesthesia).

38  
39 Flow rates were stated in three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmeid 1996; Motamed 1998).

- 40 • 10 to 15ml/kg/h (Kurz 1995);

- 10ml/kg/h (Schmied 1995);
- 6 to 8ml/kg/h (Motamed 1998).

In one study (Motamed 1998) patients received 0.9% NaCl.

Results are reported at each of the following time periods: 30, 60, 120, 180 minutes; time when lowest intraoperative temperature was reached; and core temperature at the end of surgery. The incidence of shivering is also reported for two studies (Steinbrook 1997; Zhao 2005).

## **C1. General anaesthesia**

### **1. Core temperature: intraoperative period**

Three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996; Zhao 2005) compared forced air warming plus fluid warming with usual care. In one study (Zhao 2005) blood was warmed as well in the intervention arm (Figure 8), which may have increased the effect size.

At 60 minutes, meta-analysis of two studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005) with 114 patients showed significantly higher mean core temperatures for the warmed group: WMD 0.41°C (95% CI 0.26, 0.57) for a control group temperature 35.6°C. This is clinically significant. There was significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=62.6%$ ;  $p=0.02$ ).

At 2 hours, meta-analysis of two studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005) showed significantly higher mean core temperatures for the warmed group: WMD 1.12°C (95% CI 0.94, 1.30) for a control group temperature range of 34.9°C to 35.47°C. This is clinically significant. There was significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=80.3%$ ;  $p=0.02$ ).

At 3 hours, one study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients reported core temperature. The mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group at 2.04°C (95% CI 1.85, 2.23) for a control group temperature of 34.5°C.

The observed heterogeneity at 60 minutes and 2 hours was considered by the proposed factors for subgroup analyses. We also note that the Zhao (2005) study had warmed blood in the intervention group only, but it is unclear when the blood was given.

In both studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005) patients underwent elective surgery, the mean age of the patients was less than 60 years, and duration of surgery was over 3 hours. Information on BMI status was not available in either study. The studies differed on ASA status, with Kurz (1995) including I-III status patients. There were 4/74 patients with ASA III status.

1 In terms of factors specific to warming devices (setting and site of warming), in each study the  
2 setting on the forced air warming was 'high'. The setting was approximately 40°C in one study  
3 (Kurz 1995). In one study (Zhao 2005) setting was at high level (42 to 43°C) and switched to  
4 medium (41 to 42°C) if core temperature was above 37.8°C. We note that the mean core  
5 temperature was below 36.0°C throughout the entire intraoperative period for the control  
6 groups in both studies, but dropped to 34.5°C at 3 hours in the Kurz (1995) study.

7  
8 In Kurz (1995) the site of forced air warming was restricted to the upper body and the lower  
9 body in Zhao (2005).

10  
11 It was thus difficult to account for the observed heterogeneity, but we note that the two studies  
12 are each statistically significant, with higher mean temperatures for the warmed groups.

## 13 14 **2. Core temperature: end of surgery**

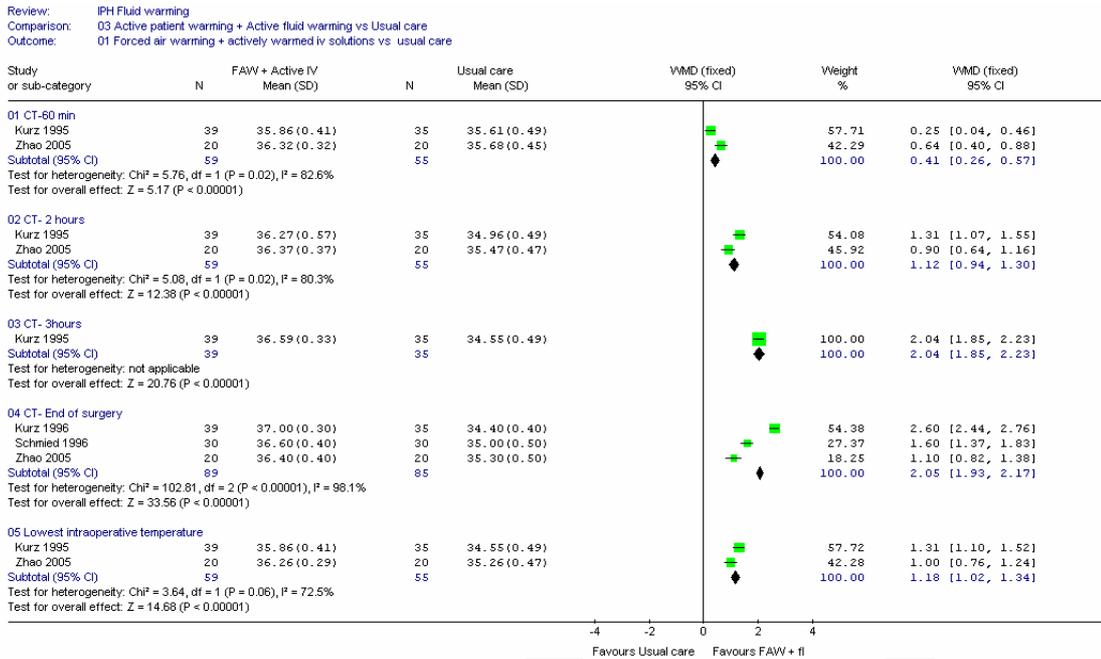
15 Core temperature at the end of surgery was reported in three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied  
16 1996; Zhao 2005) with 174 patients. Duration of surgery was less than 3 hours in one study  
17 (Schmied 1996) and over 3 hours in two other studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005). Meta-analysis  
18 of the three studies showed significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=98.1\%$ ;  $p<0.00001$ ). Each study was  
19 statistically significant (Figure 8).

## 20 21 **3. Lowest intraoperative core temperature**

22 The lowest intraoperative temperature was reported in two studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005)  
23 with 114 patients. In Kurz (1995), the lowest temperature was recorded at 1 hour and 3 hours  
24 for the treatment and control groups respectively. In Zhao (2005), the lowest temperature was  
25 recorded at 40 minutes and 2.6 hours for the treatment and control groups respectively.

26  
27 Meta-analysis of the two studies showed a statistically significant mean difference: WMD  
28 1.18°C (95% CI 1.02, 1.34) for a control group temperature of 34.5 to 35.2°C. There was  
29 significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=72.5\%$ ;  $p<0.06$ ).

30  
31 **Figure 8: Core temperature: intraoperative period; active patient warming 1 + active**  
32 **fluid warming versus usual care; general anaesthesia**



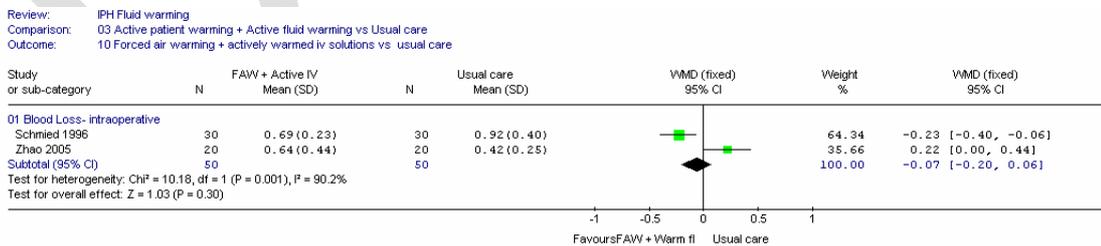
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 2 NB: Scale -4 to 4

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 4 **Intraoperative complications**

5 **4. Blood loss: intraoperative period**

6 Two studies (Schmied 1996; Zhao 2005) reported intraoperative blood loss. Meta-analysis of  
 7 the two studies showed significant heterogeneity ( $I^2 = 90.2\%$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Each study was  
 8 statistically significant, but in different directions. The volume of blood loss (0.22 litre) was  
 9 significantly higher in the actively warmed group in Zhao (2005) in 40 patients undergoing  
 10 abdominal surgery. Schmied (2005) with 60 patients undergoing total hip arthroplasty showed  
 11 a significantly higher volume of blood loss (0.23 litre) for the unwarmed group (Figure 9). The  
 12 result for the Zhao (2005) study was unexpected.

13  
 14 **Figure 9: Blood Loss: Active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual**  
 15 **care; general anaesthesia**



16  
 17  
 18 **Postoperative outcomes**

19 **5. Core temperature: PACU**

20 Three studies (Kurz 1995; Schmied 1996; Steinbrook 1997) reported core temperature in  
 21 PACU. Core temperature in PACU was recorded on arrival, up to 6 hours (Kurz 1995) and 24  
 22 hours postoperatively (Schmied 1996). In one study (Steinbrook 1997) it was unclear if the

1 core temperature reported for the postoperative period was recorded immediately on arrival or  
2 prior to discharge. In Kurz (1995), it was stated that neither group was warmed during the  
3 recovery period (Figure 10).

4  
5 Meta-analysis of two studies (Kurz 1995; Steinbrook 1997) with 89 patients showed a  
6 significantly higher mean core temperature at entry into PACU for the actively warmed group:  
7 WMD 2.07°C (95% CI 1.87, 2.28) for a control group temperature range 34.7°C to 35.0°C.  
8 There was no significant heterogeneity.

9  
10 After 1 hour in PACU, one study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients showed a significantly higher  
11 mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD 1.72°C (95% CI 1.47, 1.97) for a control  
12 group temperature of 35.2°C. The difference is clinically significant.

13  
14 After 2 hours in PACU, meta-analysis of two studies (Kurz 1995; Schmeid 2005) with 134  
15 studies showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD  
16 1.17°C (95% CI 0.99, 1.35) for a control group temperature of 35.7°C to 35.9°C. The  
17 difference is clinically significant. The confidence interval is fairly wide. There was significant  
18 heterogeneity ( $I^2 = 77.0\%$ ;  $p = 0.04$ ).

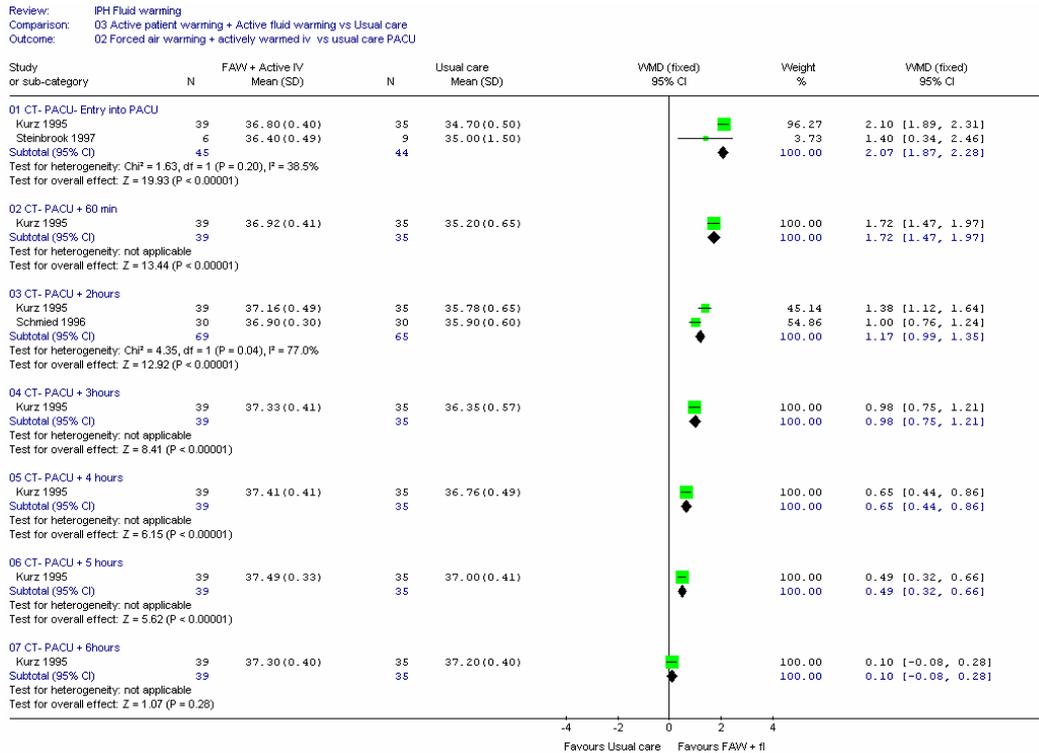
19  
20 After 3 hours in PACU, one study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients showed a significantly higher  
21 mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD 0.98°C (95% CI 0.75, 1.21) for a control  
22 group temperature of 36.3°C. The difference is clinically significant.

23  
24 After 4 hours in PACU, one study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients showed a significantly higher  
25 mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD 0.65°C (95% CI 0.44, 0.86) at a control  
26 group temperature of 36.7°C.

27  
28 After 5 hours in PACU, one study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients showed a significantly higher  
29 mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD 0.49°C (95% CI 0.32, 0.66) for a control  
30 group temperature of 37.0°C. The difference is clinically significant.

31  
32 After 6 hours in PACU, the mean difference was not significant.

33  
34 **Figure 10: Core temperature: PACU: active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming**  
35 **versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

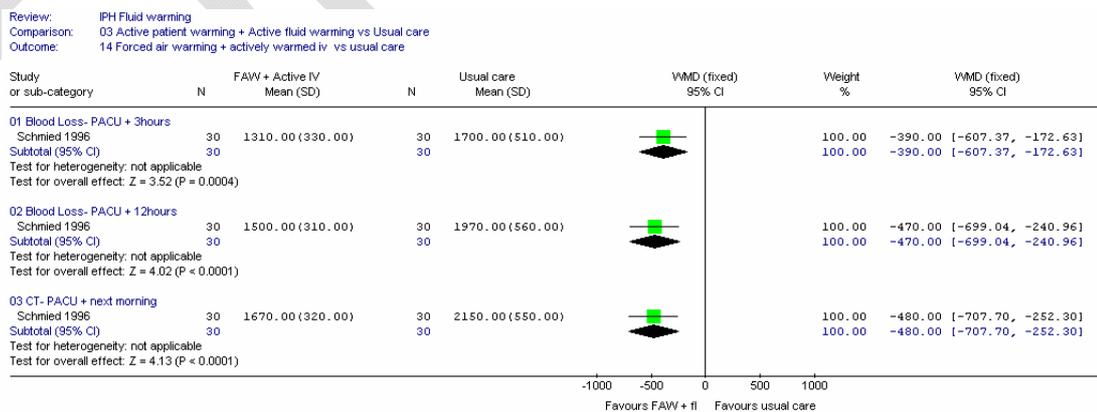


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 2 NB: Scale -4 to 4

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 4 **6. Blood Loss (PACU)**

5 One study (Schmied 1996) with 30 patients reported cumulative blood loss (ml) from 3 hours  
 6 after surgery until 24 hour postoperative period. The volume of cumulative blood loss (480ml)  
 7 was significantly higher for the unwarmed group for the entire postoperative period (Figure  
 8 11).

9  
 10 **Figure 11: Blood loss (PACU): active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus**  
 11 **usual care; general anaesthesia**



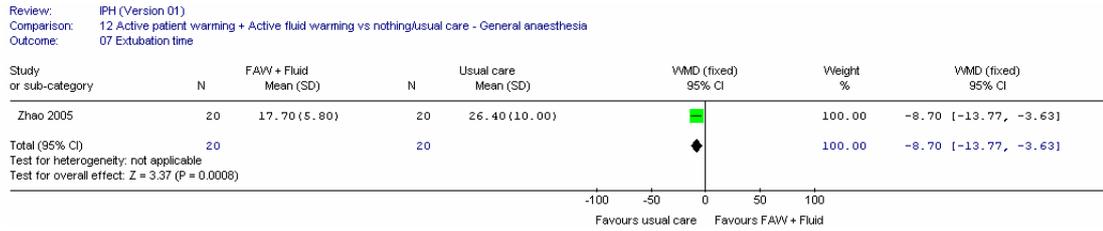
12  
 13 NB: Scale -1000 to 1000

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 15 **7. Extubation time**

16 One study (Zhao 2005) with 40 patients showed the actively warmed group had a significantly  
 17 shorter extubation time (by 8.7 minutes) compared to the usual care group (Figure 12).

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**Figure 12: Extubation time: active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual care; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale -100 to 100

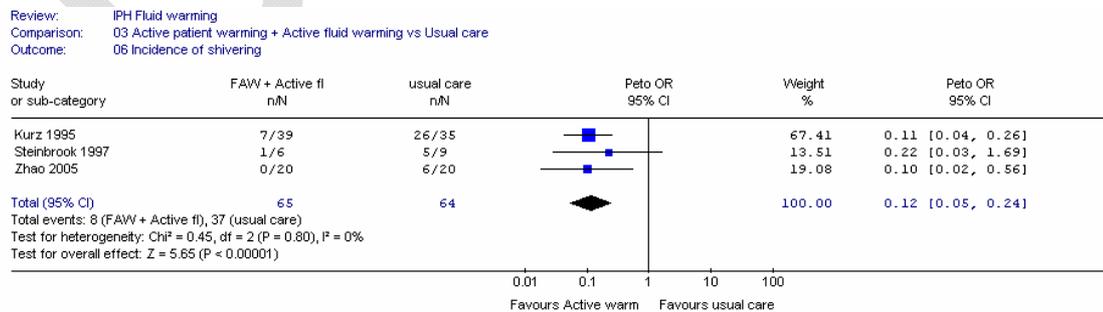
**8. Shivering**

Three studies (Kurz 1995; Steinbrook 1997; Zhao 2005) assessed shivering. Two studies (Kurz 1995; Zhao 2005) reported on the method by which shivering was assessed and varied between the studies.

In one study (Kurz 1995) shivering was evaluated on a three-point scale: with grade 0 indicated no shivering; grade 1 indicating mild or intermittent shivering; grade 2 indicated moderate shivering; and grade 3 indicating prolonged, intense shivering. The paper reported the percentage of patients demonstrating shivering grade 2 or grade 3. In one study (Zhao 2005) shivering was evaluated by a blinded observer and classified as absent, mild, medium, or severe. Total incidence of shivering was reported for the treatment and control groups.

Meta-analysis of three studies (Kurz 1995; Steinbrook 1997; Zhao 2005) with 129 patients showed a significantly lower incidence of shivering in the actively warmed group (Peto OR 0.12 [95% CI 0.05, 0.24]). This corresponded to an NNT 3 (95% CI 2, 4) for a control group rate range of 30% to 74% (Figure 13). There was no heterogeneity.

**Figure 13: Incidence of shivering: active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual care; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

**9. Thermal comfort**

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One study (Kurz 1995) with 74 patients reported thermal comfort in the postoperative period. Thermal comfort was evaluated using a visual analogue scale (VAS) on a 100mm scale, with 0mm indicating intense cold, 50mm indicating thermal comfort and 100mm indicating intense warmth (Figure 14).

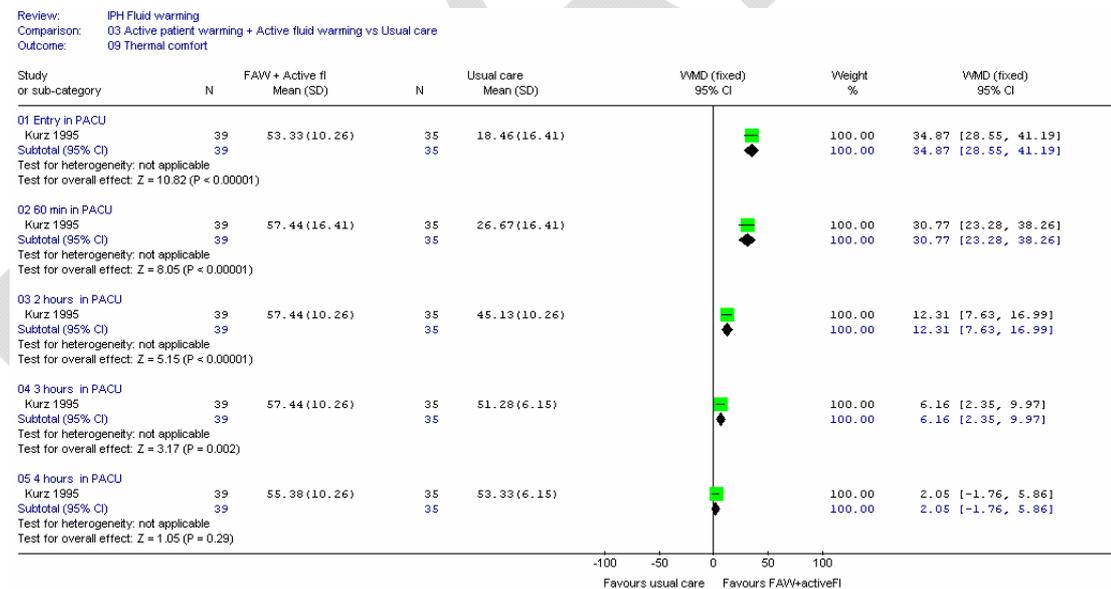
At entry into PACU, thermal comfort was significantly higher for the actively warmed group: MD 34.87mm (95% CI 28.55, 41.19) for a control group thermal comfort 18.46mm.

After 1 hour in PACU, the difference in thermal comfort was significantly higher for the actively warmed group: MD 30.77mm (95% CI 23.28, 38.26) for a control group thermal comfort 26.67mm.

After 2 hours in PACU, the difference in thermal comfort remained significantly higher for the actively warmed group: MD 12.31mm (95% CI 7.63, 16.99) for a control group thermal comfort 45.13mm.

After 3 hours in PACU, the difference in thermal comfort was not significant.

**Figure 14: Thermal comfort; active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual care; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale -100 to 100

**10. Pain**

One study (Kurz 1996) assessed post-surgical pain by an observer blinded to the patients' group assignment and temperature, using a VAS scale, with 0mm indicating no pain and 100mm indicating the most intense pain imaginable.

The paper did not report means and standard deviations and only reported a narrative synopsis of pain scores.

The authors reported that VAS pain scores were ‘virtually identical’ in both groups at each postoperative measurement interval. Pain score was near 50mm after surgery, approximately 30mm after 1 hour and approximately 10mm after 2 hours.

**Combined epidural-general anaesthesia**

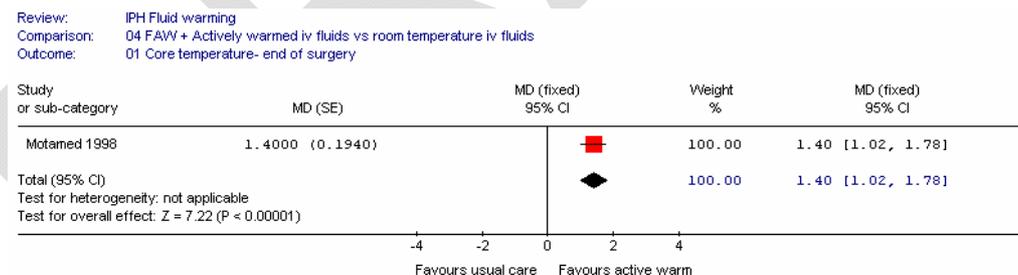
Two studies (Steinbrook 1997 subgroup; Motamed 1998) undergoing surgery under mixed anaesthesia (epidural-general) compared active warming (forced air and fluid warming) with routine thermal care. One study (Motamed 1998) reported the core temperature at the end of surgery, and one study (Steinbrook 1997) reported core temperature in the PACU and incidence of shivering.

**1. Core temperature: End of surgery**

One study (Motamed 1998) with 30 patients undergoing colorectal surgery under epidural anaesthesia compared active warming (combination of convective warming with fluid and blood warming) with usual care and reported the core temperature at the end of surgery.

At the end of surgery, the mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 1.40°C (95% CI 1.02, 1.78), but the confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 15).

**Figure 15 Core temperature: end of surgery; active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual care; combined epidural-anaesthesia anaesthesia**



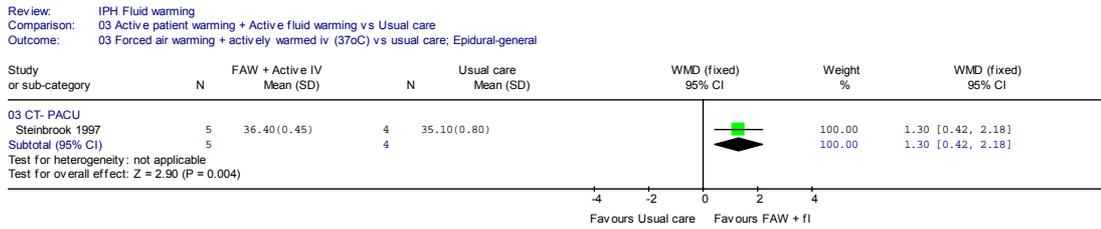
NB: Scale -4 to 4

**Postoperative Outcomes**

**2. Core temperature: PACU**

One study (Steinbrook 1997) with 9 patients reported core temperature in PACU. It was unclear if measurement was taken immediately on arrival in the PACU or just prior to discharge. The mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 1.30°C (95% CI 0.42, 2.18) for a control group temperature of 35.1°C. The difference is clinically significant. The confidence interval is wide (Figure 16).

1 **Figure 16: Core temperature: PACU; active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming**  
 2 **versus usual care; combined epidural-general anaesthesia**

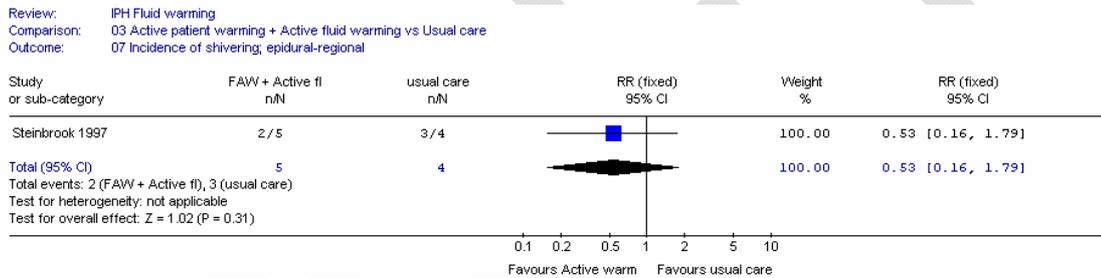


3  
 4 NB: Scale -4 to 4

5  
 6 **3. Shivering**

7 One study (Steinbrook 1997) with 9 patients assessed shivering in PACU. Details on how  
 8 shivering was assessed was not provided (Figure 17).

9  
 10 **Figure 17: Shivering; active patient warming 1 + active fluid warming versus usual care;**  
 11 **combined epidural-general anaesthesia**



12  
 13  
 14 **II. Irrigation fluid warming**

15 **A. Fluid warming versus no warming (room temperature fluids)**

16 Six studies (Dyer 1986; Jaffe 2001; Moore 1996; Pit 1996; Monga 1996; Kelly 2000)  
 17 compared the effectiveness of warmed irrigation fluid with room temperature fluids. One study  
 18 gave the patients general anaesthesia (Moore 1996); in three studies (Dyer 1986; Pit 1996;  
 19 Kelly 2000) patients received regional anaesthesia and in one study (Monga 1996) the  
 20 majority of the patients (n=21/26) received spinal anaesthesia and will be combined with the  
 21 above studies where appropriate. One study did not state the type of anaesthesia (Jaffe 2001)  
 22 so this study was included with the general anaesthesia study. We note that two studies  
 23 (Moore 1996; Jaffe 2001) had additional active warming of the patients in both groups.

24  
 25 **A1. Regional anaesthesia**

26 In one study (Pit 1996) irrigation fluid (5% sorbitol containing chlorhexidine [1:5000]) was  
 27 warmed by a heater set at 37.5°C, warmed glycine 1.5% bladder irrigation solution was  
 28 prewarmed to 37°C in one study (Dyer 1986) and prewarmed saline at 40°C in the other study  
 29 (Kelly 2000). Patients received active or passively warmed 1.5% glycine in one study (Monga  
 30 1986). The GDG advised that although the type of warming varied (active in Pit 1996 and

1 passive in Dyer 1986 and Kelly 2000) it was acceptable to pool results because of the rapid  
2 delivery of irrigation fluids.

3  
4 The volume of irrigation fluids for the treatment and control groups were as follows:

- 5 • 11.8 litres (SD 11.0) and 11.7 litres (SD 10.7) (Kelly 2000);
- 6 • 8.4 litres (SD 4.4) and 8.4 litres (SD 4) (Dyer 1986).

7  
8 Pit (1996) stated that patients received 5% sorbitol containing chlorhexidine (1:5000) in 5 litre  
9 bags. Monga (1996) did not report the volume of fluids infused intraoperatively.

10  
11 In one study (Kelly 2000) the baseline core temperature in the control group was 0.30°C  
12 higher, and this significant difference was compared with the effect size.

13  
14 We note that one study (Monga 1996) did not provide details on how many patients were  
15 randomised to each group. We assumed an equal randomisation.

### 16 17 **1. Mean percent change in core temperature intraoperatively**

18 One study (Kelly 2000) reported mean percent change in core temperature from baseline at  
19 various times in the intraoperative period. The largest mean difference was 0.34% at 90  
20 minutes. Baseline core temperatures were 36.1°C or 36.4°C, so a difference of 0.34% is about  
21 0.12°C, i.e., less than the difference in baseline. Therefore this study was considered to be  
22 confounded.

### 23 24 **2. Change in core temperature**

25 Three studies reported change in core temperature. One study (Dyer 1986) with 47 patients  
26 reported change in core temperature from the start of resection. The duration of resection was  
27 not significantly different in the two groups. The mean difference in core temperature was not  
28 significant at 30, 60 and 120 minutes (Figure 18).

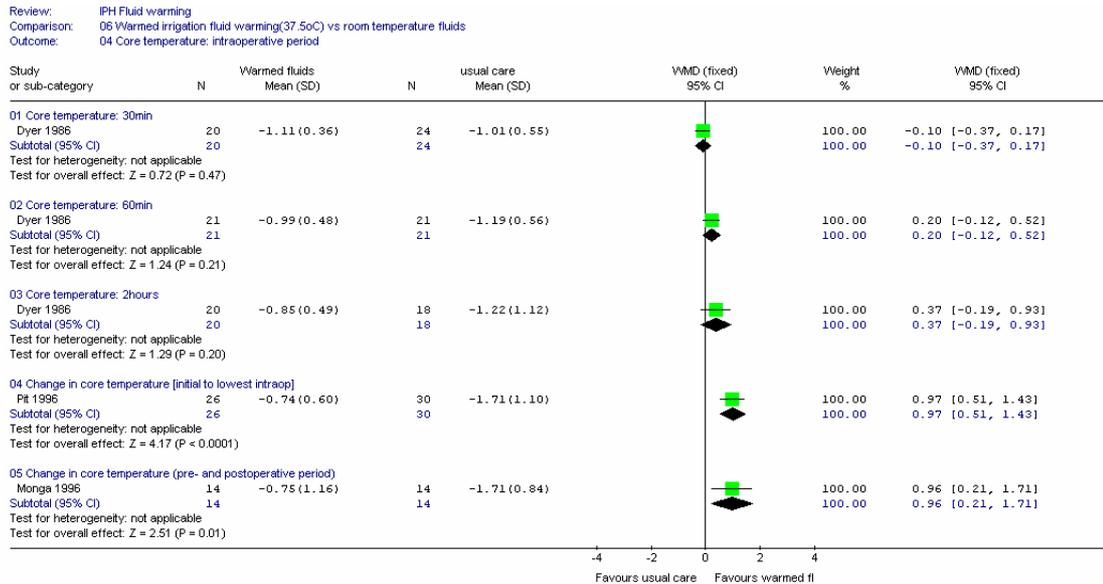
29  
30 One study (Pit 1996) with 56 patients reported the difference between the lowest rectal  
31 temperature and the initial core temperature. The authors reported that the lowest  
32 intraoperative temperature was reached after the resection was completed (28 versus 29  
33 minutes for the treatment and control groups respectively). However, it is unclear how much  
34 time had elapsed since the completion of the resection.

35  
36 The change in the mean core temperature was significantly less for the actively warmed  
37 irrigation fluid group: MD 0.97°C (95%CI 0.51, 1.43) for a change in control group temperature  
38 of -1.7°C. The confidence interval is fairly wide. We note that the initial rectal temperature was  
39 36.3°C (SD 0.5) and 36.3°C (SD 0.4) for the treatment and control groups respectively (Figure  
40 18).

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One study (Monga 1986) with 28 patients undergoing transurethral resection of the prostate reported change in core temperature (difference between pre and postoperative periods). The confidence interval is too wide to determine if there is a difference in core temperature.

**Figure 18: Change in intraoperative core temperature; irrigation fluid warming versus room temperature fluids; regional anaesthesia**



8  
9

NB: Scale -4 to 4

10

**Postoperative period**

11

**3. Thermal discomfort**

12

One study (Pit 1996) reported thermal discomfort (perception of cold) for 58 patients. Patients in the active irrigation group reported feeling cold significantly less than the control group [RR 0.29°C (95% 0.11, 0.76)]. This corresponded to an NNT of 3 (95% CI 2, 8) for a control group rate of 50% (Figure 19). The confidence interval is wide.

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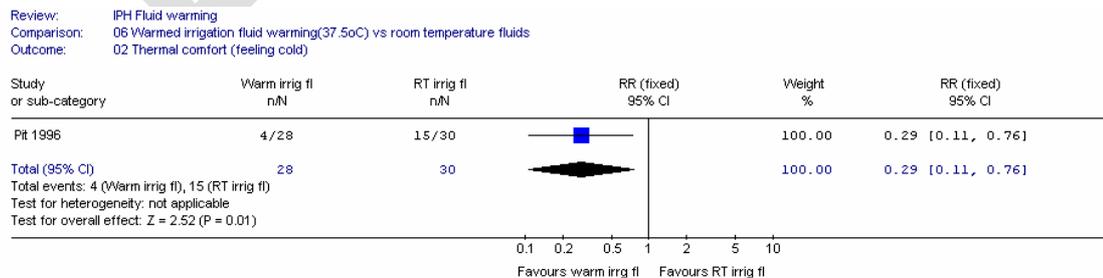
16

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**Figure 19: Thermal comfort; irrigation fluid warming versus room temperature fluids; regional anaesthesia**

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**A2. General and unstated anaesthesia**

i. Warmed irrigation fluid (33.1°C) versus room temperature irrigation fluid (warmed blanket in both groups) (Jaffe 2001)

ii. Warmed irrigation fluid (39°C) versus ambient temperature irrigation fluid (20–22°C) + heating blanket in both groups (Moore 1996)

Two studies (Moore 1996; Jaffe 2001) compared the effectiveness of warmed irrigation fluid with room temperature fluid; in each study patients in both arms received active patient warming.

In Moore (1996) the type of irrigation fluid was lactated Ringer's solution and in the other (Jaffe 2001) patients received glycine. In one study (Moore 1996), patients in both groups rested on a heating blanket (37.8°C) and in the other study (Jaffe 2001), patients in both groups received a warmed blanket (approximately 45°C).

The volume of irrigation fluid for the warmed and room temperature groups was as follows:

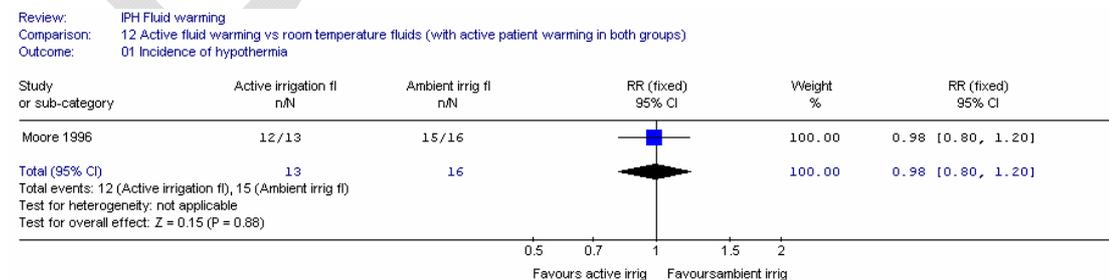
- 1.26 litre (SD 0.83) versus 1.48 litre (SD 0.92) (Moore 1996);
- 17.60 litre (SD 10.13) and 17.33 litre (SD 12.23) (Jaffe 2001).

In one study (Moore 1996) the baseline core temperature was not stated and in the other (Jaffe 2001) the baseline core temperature was above 36.0°C for both groups and there was no significant difference.

### 1. Incidence of hypothermia

One study (Moore 1996) with 29 patients reported the incidence of hypothermia (core temperature less than 36°C; time of measurement not stated). There was no significant difference in the incidence of hypothermia (Figure 20).

**Figure 20: Incidence of hypothermia: irrigation fluid warming versus room temperature fluids**



NB: Scale 0.5 to 2

### 2. Core temperature

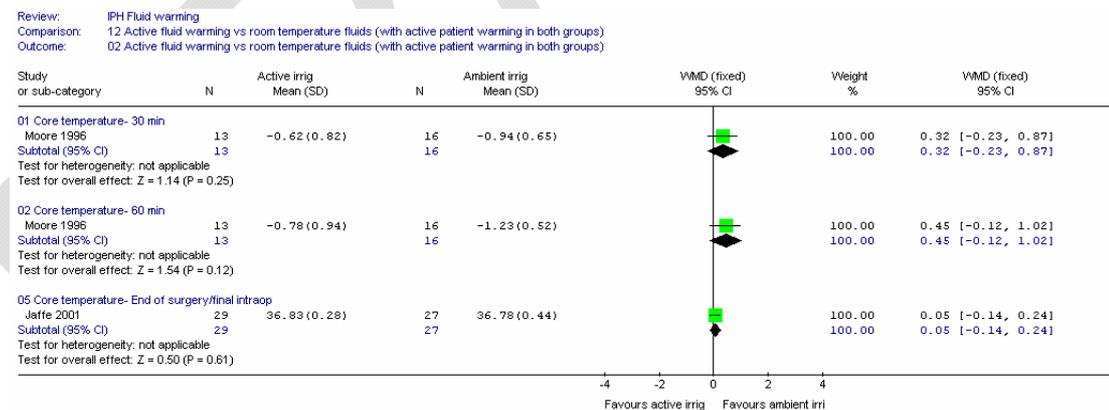
One study (Moore 1996) reported intraoperative core temperatures, and the end of surgery core temperature was reported for two studies (Moore 1996; Jaffe 2001), which were combined in a meta-analysis. Mean duration of surgery was approximately 100 minutes in Jaffe (2001), and the final intraoperative temperature was recorded at 150 minutes in Moore (1996). The Moore (1996) study recorded both tympanic membrane and oesophageal temperatures and results for both are given below (Figures 21 and 21b).

The mean difference was not significant at 30 and 60 minutes. At longer times there was significant drop out of patients; the total number had dropped down to 12 patients (of 29) at 2 hours and 8 patients at 135 minutes. Therefore, the results at these durations were excluded from the analysis.

### 3. End of surgery

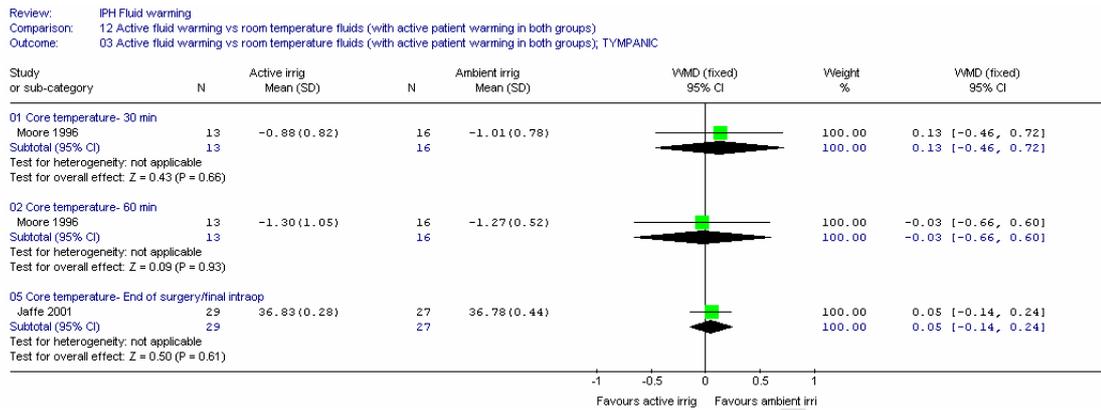
Two studies reported core temperature at end of surgery (Moore 1997; Jaffe 2001). Results from one study (Moore 1997) were excluded from the analysis as there was a significant drop out of patients. At the end of surgery one study (Jaffe 2001) with 56 patients showed no significant difference in oesophageal core temperature: MD 0.05 (95%CI -0.14, 0.24) (Figure 21) and no significant difference in tympanic core temperature, although the confidence intervals are wide (Figure 21b).

**Figure 21: Core temperature (oesophageal): irrigation fluid warming versus room temperature fluids**



NB: Scale -4 to 4

**Figure 21b: Core temperature (tympanic): irrigation fluid warming versus room temperature fluids**



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**IV. Other comparisons**

**A. Thermal insulation plus active fluid warming versus usual care**

**A1. Regional anaesthesia**

One study (Dyer 1986) with 48 patients undergoing transurethral resection of the prostate under spinal anaesthesia compared the effectiveness of reflective blankets combined with warmed irrigation fluid versus usual care. The warmed glycine 1.5% bladder irrigation solution was prewarmed to 37°C.

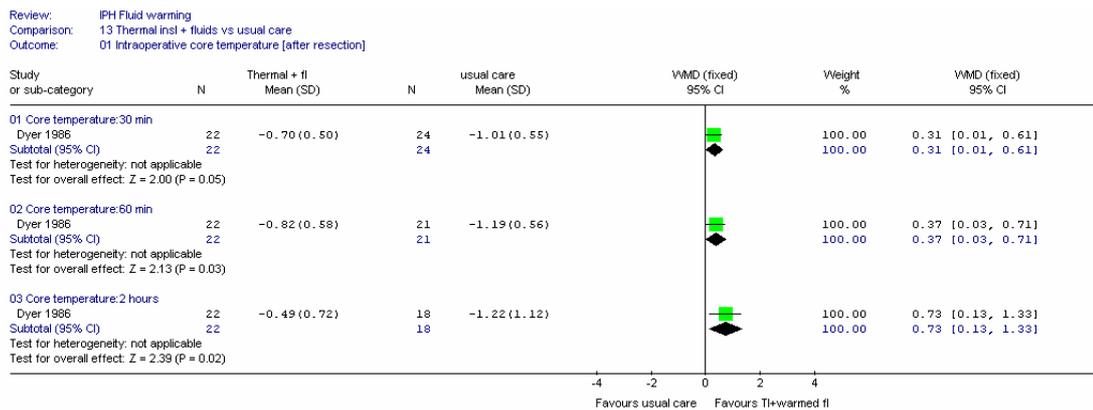
**1. Core temperature**

At 30 minutes the change in mean core temperature was significantly less for the warmed group: MD 0.31°C (95% CI 0.01, 0.61) for a change in control group temperature of -1.01°C. The confidence interval is fairly wide.

At 60 minutes the change in mean core temperature was significantly less for the warmed group: MD 0.37°C (95% CI 0.03, 0.71) for a change in control group temperature of -1.19°C. The confidence interval is fairly wide.

At 2 hours the change in mean core temperature was significantly less for the warmed group: MD 0.73°C (95% CI 0.13, 1.33) for a change in control group temperature of -1.22°C. The confidence interval is wide.

**Figure 22: Core temperature: intraoperative period; thermal insulation + active fluid warming versus usual care; regional anaesthesia**



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NB: Scale -4 to 4

**B. Thermal insulation + active fluid warming versus active patient warming**

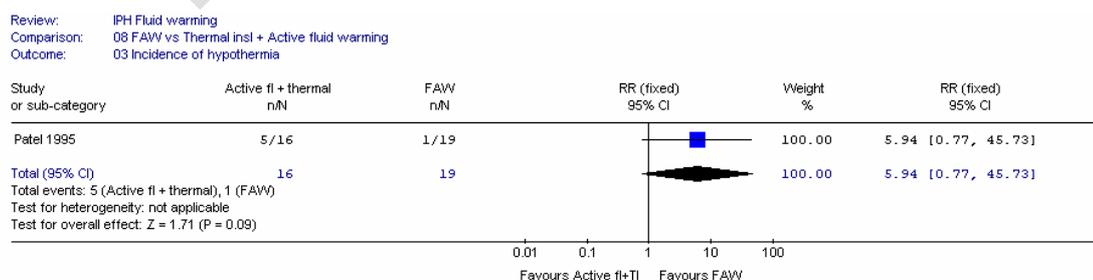
**B1. General anaesthesia**

One study (Patel 1997) with 37 patients undergoing gynaecological, orthopaedic and general surgery under general anaesthesia compared the effectiveness of combined active fluid warming and thermal insulation versus forced air warming. Thermal insulation was applied in the holding area, and it is unclear the duration of time between application and induction of anaesthesia. Patients in this group continued to receive thermal insulation in the intraoperative phase and in the postoperative period. There was no significant difference in the volume of infused fluids; 2.3 litres (SD 1.3) and 2.6 litres (SD 1.2) for the treatment and control groups respectively. We note the baseline core temperature for both groups was above 36.0°C. The difference in baseline core temperature was significantly higher for the group assigned to forced air warming (0.30°C). Results were considered only where the baseline difference is less than 20% of the effect size.

**1. Incidence of hypothermia**

One study (Patel 1997) with 35 patients reported the number of patients with a core temperature less than or equal to 35.9°C at the end of surgery. Duration of surgery was over 2.5 hours. The confidence interval is too wide to determine significance (Figure 23).

**Figure 23: Incidence of hypothermia: thermal insulation + active fluid warming versus active patient warming; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

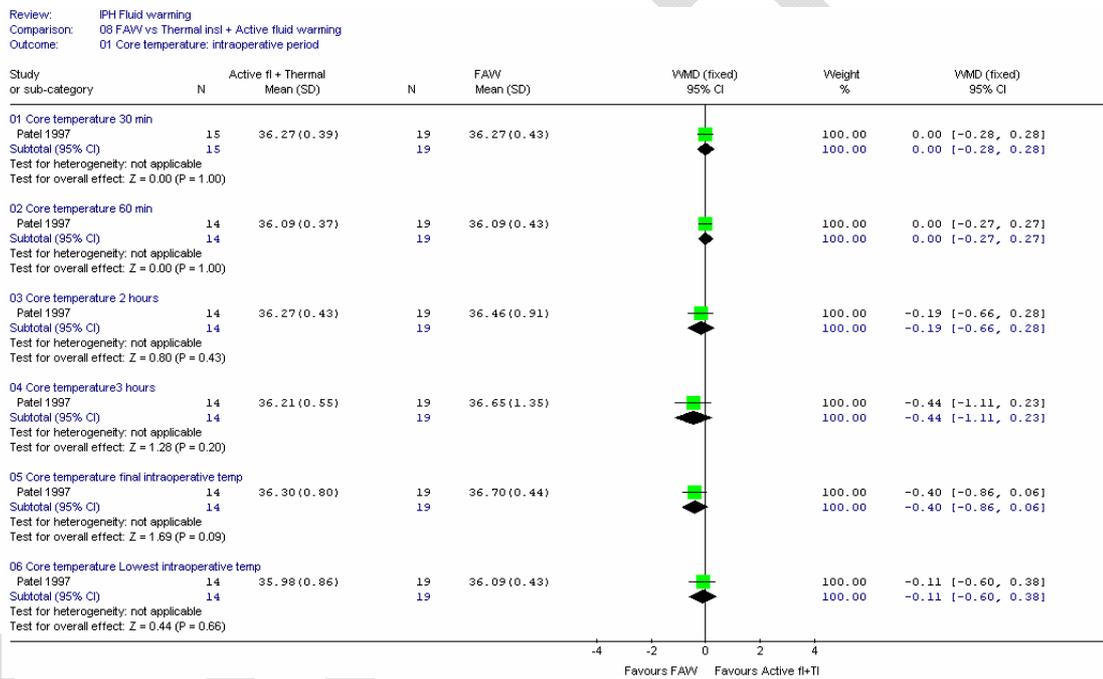
**2. Core temperature – intraoperative period**

One study (Patel 1997) reported the core temperature during the intraoperative period. The mean difference was not significant throughout the intraoperative period, although the confidence intervals are fairly wide (Figure 24).

**3. Lowest intraoperative core temperature**

Lowest intraoperative was recorded at 1 hour and at 2 hours 45 minutes for the thermal insulation and the active warming groups respectively. The mean difference was not significant (Figure 24).

**Figure 24: Core temperature: intraoperative period; thermal insulation + active fluid warming versus active patient warming; general anaesthesia**



NB: Scale -4 to 4

## 10.6 Gases (Inspired and Insufflation)

### Characteristics of clinical studies included in the review (Appendix C)

Twenty- three studies [26 comparisons] are included in this review (Bäcklund 1998; Conahan 1987; Champion 2006; Eckerbom 1990; Farley 2004; Goldberg 1992 [2 comparisons]; Hamza 2005; Hynson 1992; Joachimsson 1987; Johansson 2003 [3 comparisons]; Mouton 1999; Nelskylä 1999; Nguyen 2002; Ott 1998; Saad 2000; Savel 2005; Slim 1999; Stone 1981; Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Ouellette 1993; Wills 2001; Youngberg 1985). Reasons for exclusion are listed in Appendix E.

A total of 948 patients were included in the review. Fourteen studies had fewer than 20 patients in each arm (Stone 1981; Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Conahan 1987; Ouellette 1993; Bäcklund 1998; Eckerbom 1990; Goldberg 1992 [2 comparisons]; Hynson 1992; Nelskylä 1999; Saad 2000; Nguyen 2002; Johansson 2003[3 comparisons]; Savel 2005).

### Participants

The age range of participants across studies (where given) ranged from 16 (Goldberg 1992) to 89 years, with the mean age (where given) ranging from 33 to 74 years. For the purpose of this guideline, adult surgical patients are defines as 18 years or over, and whilst the Goldberg (1992) study had an age range from 16 years, the mean age was 43 (inclusion of some children aged between 16 and 18 was not considered important).

Twelve studies were conducted in the USA (Stone 1981; Youngberg 1985; Conahan 1987; Goldberg 1992; Hynson 1992; Ouellette 1993; Ott 1998; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Savel 2005; Champion 2006); three in Sweden (Eckerbom 1990; Joachimsson 1987; Johansson 2003); two in Finland (Backlund 1998; Nelskyla 1999); two in Norway (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b) two in Australia (Mouton 1999; Wills 2001); one in France (Slim 1999)and one in Germany (Saad 2000).

### ASA status

Two studies had patients with ASA I and II status (Slim 1999; Saad 2000; Johansson 2003), one study had patients with either ASA I or II status (Nelskylä 1999), two with ASA I-III status (Goldberg 1992; Bäcklund 1998). One study (Stone 1981) reported a mean ASA status of 2.1. One study (Youngberg 1985) stated that ASA IV patients were not included in the study. ASA status was not reported in the remaining studies.

### Type of surgery

A range of surgical procedures were undertaken. Laparoscopic gastric bypass (Hamza 2005; Savel 2005; Champion 2006); laparoscopic cholecystectomy (Mouton 1999; Saad 2000; Farley 2004); abdominal aorta (Tølløfsrud 1984a); extra-abdominal vascular surgery

1 (Tølløfsrud 1984b); oral surgery, transsphenoidal hypophysectomy, middle ear surgery or  
2 surgery of the pharynx, nose and neck (Eckerbom 1990); laminectomy, major abdominal,  
3 major vascular, total hip and radical neck (Stone 1981); kidney transplant (Hynson 1992);  
4 minor abdominal surgery (Joachimsson 1987); laparoscopic fundoplication, heniooplasty,  
5 resection of sigmoid colon or rectopexia (Bäcklund 1998); lower abdominal procedures  
6 (Goldberg 1992); cervical or lumbar laminectomy (Ouellette 1993); laparoscopic upper  
7 abdominal surgery (Slim 1999); laparoscopic hysterectomy for benign diseases (Nelskylä  
8 1999); laparoscopic fundoplication (Wills 2001; Nguyen 2002); laparoscopic gynaecologic  
9 procedures (Conahan 1987; Ott 1998); fundoplication (general or urological surgery  
10 (Johansson 2003) and type of surgery not stated in one study (Youngberg 1985).

11  
12 Type of surgery was stated as elective in eleven studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b;  
13 Conahan 1987; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Slim 1999; Johansson 2003; Hamza  
14 2005; Nelskylä 1999; Wills 2001) and not reported in the remaining studies.

15  
16 Duration of surgery ranged from 30 minutes to 60 minutes in three studies (Conahan 1987;  
17 Nelskylä 1999; Wills 2001); 1 to 3 hours in 16 studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b;  
18 Youngberg 1985; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Hynson 1992; Ouellette 1993; Bäcklund  
19 1998; Slim 1999; Nguyen 2002; Johansson 2003; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Saad 2000;  
20 Savel 2005; Champion 2006) over 3 hours in one study (Stone 1981) and in two studies the  
21 range of surgery was 60 minutes to over 3 hours (Goldberg 1992; Ott 1998). Duration of  
22 surgery was not reported in the remaining studies.

23  
24 In twelve studies (Stone 1981; Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Conahan 1987;  
25 Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Hynson 1992; Mouton 1999; Nelskylä 1999; Slim 1999;  
26 Saad 2000; Wills 2001; Johansson 2003; Hamza 2005; Savel 2005; Champion 2006) patients  
27 underwent general anaesthesia. Type of anaesthesia was not stated in the remaining studies.

## 28 **Interventions**

### 29 **Primary outcomes (including surrogate measures)**

30 One study (Joachimsson 1987) reported incidence of hypothermia.

31 Core temperature was measured:

- 32 • During the intraoperative period (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Youngberg 1985;  
33 Conahan 1987; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Ouellette 1993; Nguyen 2002;  
34 Bäcklund 1998; Mouton 1999; Wills 2001; Johansson 2003; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005);
- 35 • End of surgery (Hamza 2005; Nelskylä 1999; Saad 2000; Savel 2005; Champion 2006);
- 36 • Recovery (PACU) (Nelskylä 1999; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion  
37 2006).

38  
39 Other outcomes were:  
40

- Length of stay in PACU (Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion 2006);
- Length of stay in hospital (Mouton 1999; Slim 1999; Wills 2001; Nguyen 2002);
- Shivering (Goldberg 1992; Nelskylä 1999; Hamza 2005);
- Wound infection (Mouton 1998);
- Perception of pain (Wills 2001; Savel 2005).

Core temperature was measured at the following sites:

- Tympanic (Hynson 1992; Nelskylä 1999; Johansson 2003);
- Oesophageal (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Youngberg 1985; Joachimsson 1987; Ouellette 1993; Mouton 1999; Saad 2000; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005);
- Pulmonary artery (Bäcklund 1998);
- Rectal (Eckerbom 1990);
- Nasopharyngeal (Stone 1981; Wills 2001; Champion 2006);
- Sublingual (Conahan 1987; Goldberg 1992).

#### **Temperature measurement**

Temperature in the Ott (1998) study was measured with an endotracheal temperature probe and Slim (1999) used sub diaphragmatic temperature. Goldberg (1992) recorded intraoperative temperature, using oesophageal and the sublingual methods (standard deviations were not provided for the oesophageal temperature readings). For this reason it was decided to use the sublingual temperature measurements, and results from this study considered in a sensitivity analysis. One study (Savel 2005) did not state site of temperature measurement.

#### **Methodological quality of included studies**

In three studies sequence generation was adequate (computer generated random numbers: Hamza 2005; random numbers table: Goldberg 1992; Wills 2001); partially adequate in two studies (computer model: Farley 2004; random numbers: Slim 1999) and unclear in the remaining studies. Allocation concealment was partially adequate in two studies (sealed envelopes: Slim 1999; Nguyen 2002) and unclear in the remaining studies.

Eight studies reported that the study was double blind (Ott 1998; Nelskylä 1999; Slim 1999; Wills 2001; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Savel 2005; Champion 2006).

Three studies (Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Nelskylä 1999) reported dropouts less than 20%. In one study (Farley 2004) with 117 patients were excluded from analysis due to changes in operation type (n=16), extensive lysis of adhesions (n=2), and removal of device due to technical reasons (n=2). The Farley (2004) study did not provide number of patients excluded from analysis by each group. In one study (Hamza 2005), patients in the usual care group were excluded from analysis because forced air warming was instituted as core temperature was below 34°C (n=2/21) and conversion to open procedures (n=4). In Nelskylä (1999), one

1 patient (unclear from which group) was excluded from analysis as an outlier because of  
 2 surgical problems.

3  
 4 Baseline comparability was demonstrated by:

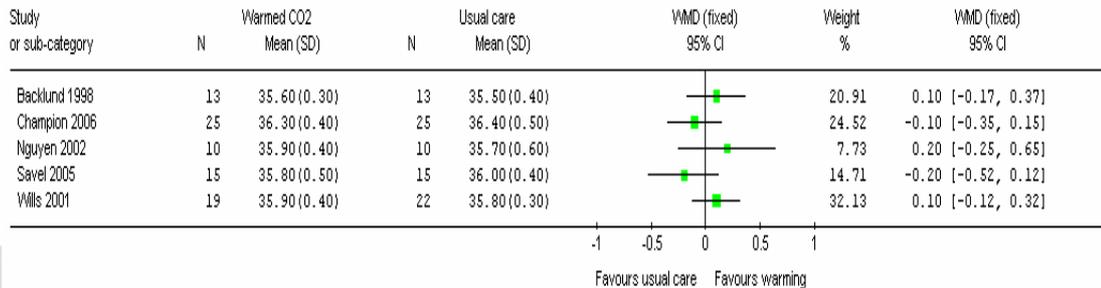
- 5 • Age;
- 6 • Duration of surgery;
- 7 • Core temperature.

8  
 9 Exceptions are noted below.

10  
 11 There were no differences in baseline core temperatures in ten studies (Joachimsson 1987;  
 12 Eckerbom 1990; Goldberg 1992 [2 comparisons]; Ouellette 1993; Backlund 1998; Wills 2001;  
 13 Nguyen 2002; Johansson 2003 [3 comparisons]; Savel 2005; Champion 2006). Of these, in  
 14 four studies (Backlund 1998; Wills 2001; Nguyen 2002; Savel 2005) patients in either the  
 15 intervention or the control groups were hypothermic (Figures 1a and 1b). These studies were  
 16 excluded from the analyses.

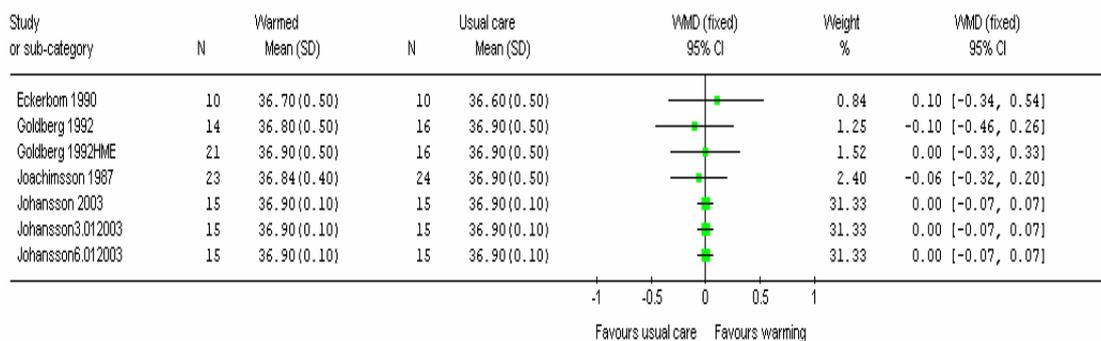
17  
 18 **Figure 1a: Baseline core temperature: insufflation gas**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: 01 Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care- Baseline Core temperature  
 Outcome: 01 Baseline Core temperature



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 20  
 21 **Figure 1b: Baseline core temperature: inspired gas**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 05 Baseline Core temperature- Heated-Humidifier  
 Outcome: 01 Baseline Core temperature



1 Baseline core temperature was not reported in six studies (Stone 1981; Youngberg 1985;  
2 Hynson 1992; Mouton 1999; Slim 1999; Farley 2004). In one study (Hamza 2005) baseline  
3 core temperature was extracted from the graph (warmed: 36.54°C; usual care: 36.80°C) but  
4 as standard deviations were not provided we could not determine if the difference was  
5 statistically significant. In one study (Saad 2000) the preoperative temperature was provided,  
6 but the standard deviations were very large (warmed: 36°C [SD 45] and unwarmed: 36.2°C  
7 [SD160]) which was noted as an error in reporting, meaning we could not determine whether  
8 this difference was significant. In one study (Nelskylä 1999) baseline core temperature  
9 (beginning of anaesthesia) was reported and the confidence interval for mean (37°C [95% CI:  
10 36.8; 37.2] and 37.2°C [95% CI of mean: 37.0; 37.3] for the warmed and unwarmed groups  
11 respectively) and the authors reported that no significant difference was indicated. In one  
12 study (Ott 1998) baseline core temperature was reported for the warmed group (36.3°C) and  
13 data extracted from the graph showed that the baseline temperature was 36.4°C for the usual  
14 care group. Standard deviations were not reported so we were unable to determine if the  
15 difference was significant. In two studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b) there was one  
16 baseline temperature point reported for all groups. The baseline mean core temperature  
17 extracted from the graph was 36.8°C for both groups.

18  
19 There was a significant difference in duration of surgery and (25 minutes longer) in the control  
20 group (Savel 2005).

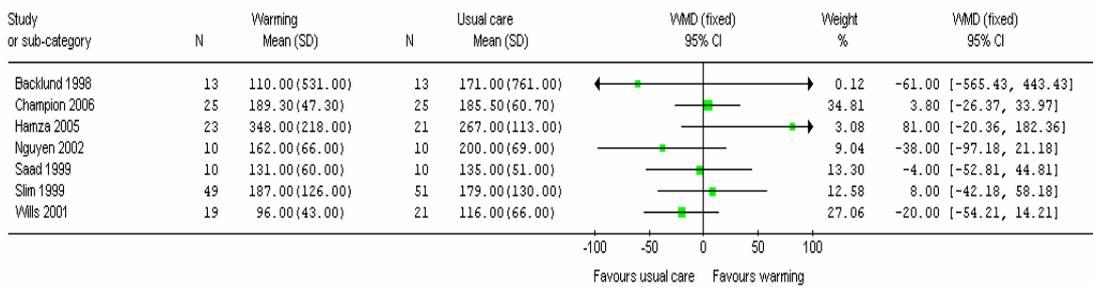
21  
22 There was comparability in volume of insufflation gas between the groups in eight studies  
23 (Backlund 1998; Slim 1999; Saad 2000; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion  
24 2006; Wills 2001) (Figures 2a and 2b). In Farley (2004) the volume of insufflation gas was 67  
25 litres and 64 litres for the warmed and the usual care groups respectively. Results for Farley  
26 (2004) are shown separately in Figure 2b as only the mean values and p-value was reported.

27  
28 One study (Mouton 1999) reported that an average of 10 litres or more CO<sub>2</sub> insufflation was  
29 required for the humidified group versus the usual care group, however, standard deviations  
30 were not provided so we cannot determine if this difference is statistically significant.

31  
32 One study (Nelskylä 1999) reported medians and range and reported that there was no  
33 significant differences [heated group: 128 litre (43-199); warmed group: 120 litre (65-279)].  
34 One study (Ott 1998) with three types of procedures only reported that CO<sub>2</sub> gas volume used  
35 in both groups for just one procedures (warmed:66.4 litre; usual care:95.5 litre); of the  
36 remaining two procedures volume of insufflation gas for the heated group was reported for  
37 one procedure but not reported for the usual care group. Savel (2005) did not report the  
38 volume of insufflation gas.

39  
40 **Figure 2a: Volume of insufflation gas**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: 03 Warmed insufflation gas versus usual care; active warming in both groups  
 Outcome: 04 Comparability on volume of insufflation gas

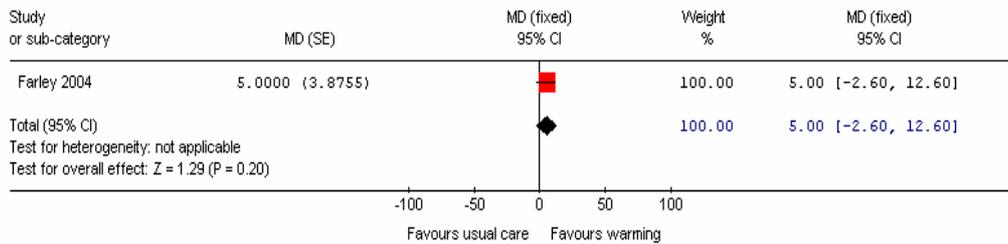


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NB: Scale -100 to 100

**Figure 2b: Volume of insufflation gas**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: 03 Warmed insufflation gas versus usual care; active warming in both groups  
 Outcome: 05 Comparability on volume of insufflation gas



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NB: Scale -100 to 100

Six studies conducted a power calculation (Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Slim 1999; Saad 2000; Wills 2001; Savel 2005). In Farley (2005), the study was powered to detect 0.31°C in the mean intraoperative core temperature and 0.35°C in the mean core temperature change during the operation at an 80% level. One study (Saad 2000) stated that power of study was calculated under assumption that loss of 1°C in core or intra-abdominal temp. It did not indicate at what level and power the analysis was conducted. In Hamza (2005) power analysis was based on a 50% reduction in opioid analgesic requirement in the PACU assuming 10mg (SD5) by control group at power of 0.09 (alpha=0.05). The Slim (1999) study used shoulder tip pain as the primary outcome in detecting at least 1 SD difference with a statistical power of 0.99 at a significance level (2-tailed) of 0.01, showed that at least 49 patients were required in each group. Savel (2005) used a two-tailed unpaired t-test with a probability at 5% level 80% power to detect a difference of 11mg (SD 10) of morphine utilisation at 24 hour needed to recruit 15 patients in each group. The Wills (2001) study aimed to detect a reduction in postoperative morphine consumption by 30% at 90% confidence, required 40 patients.

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**Summary**

Five studies were identified at risk of bias (Goldberg 1992; Nelskylä 1999; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Savel 2005). Three studies (Farley 2004; Nelskylä 1999; Hamza 2005) reported

1 dropouts (less than 20%), one study (Savel 2005) was not comparable as the duration of  
2 surgery was significantly longer by 25 minutes for the usual care group, and one study  
3 (Goldberg 1992) used sublingual temperature recordings (less reliable). All of these studies  
4 were considered in sensitivity analyses.

5  
6 The following comparisons were reported:

7 **A. Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care**

- 8 • Heated-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (35°C; 95%) versus cold-dry CO<sub>2</sub> (Champion 2006);
- 9 • Heated-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> versus room temperature-non-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (Farley 2004);
- 10 • Heated-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (37°C; 95%) versus room temperature CO<sub>2</sub> (Hamza 2005);
- 11 • Warmed-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (34 to 37°C; 88-90%) versus room temperature CO<sub>2</sub> (21.2°C to  
12 25.2°C; humidity: 0 to 5%) (Mouton 1999);
- 13 • Heated-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (37°C) versus unwarmed CO<sub>2</sub> (24°C ) (humidity: 12 to 14mmHg)  
14 (Nelskylä 1999);
- 15 • Heated CO<sub>2</sub> (37°C) versus cold CO<sub>2</sub> (21°C) (Saad 2000);
- 16 • Warmed-humidified CO<sub>2</sub>(35°C; 95%) versus room temperature non-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (Savel  
17 2005);
- 18 • Warmed-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (35°C; 95%) versus room temperature non-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (Ott  
19 1998)\*

20 \* Results from this study will not be included in the analysis as the results were provided  
21 separately for three procedures, however, the number of patients within each subgroup  
22 was not provided.

23  
24 **B. Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care with active patient warming in both  
25 groups**

- 26 • Pre-warmed CO<sub>2</sub> versus room temperature CO<sub>2</sub> (Backlund 1998)  
27 + Warm water bath mattress (39°C);
- 28 • Heated-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (37°C; 95%) versus room temperature CO<sub>2</sub> (<5% humidity)  
29 (Nguyen 2002)  
30 + Forced air warming (upper body) (setting not stated) in both groups;
- 31 • Warmed-humidified CO<sub>2</sub> (22°C to 30.5°C) versus standard CO<sub>2</sub> (Wills 2000)  
32 + Forced air warming (upper body) (setting not stated) in both groups.

33  
34 **C. Warmed inspired gas versus usual care**

- 35 • Heated-humidifier (37°C) versus usual care (no device) (Goldberg 1992)  
36 + Room temperature fluids and warmed blood (36°C);
- 37 • Heated-humidifier (40°C) versus usual care (Hynson 1992)  
38 + Warmed IV fluids (37°C);
- 39 • Heated-humidifier (38°C) versus usual care (Hynson 1992)  
40 + Warmed fluids (temperature not stated) and blood (37°C to 38°C);

- 1 • Heated-humidifier (35°C to 37°C) versus usual care (no device) (Youngberg 1985);
- 2 • Heat and moisture exchange (temperature not stated) versus usual care (no devices)
- 3 (Goldberg 1992)
- 4 + Room temperature fluids and warmed blood (36°C);
- 5 • Heat and moisture exchanger versus usual care (no device)
- 6 At the following flow rates:
- 7 ○ 1.0min<sup>-1</sup> (Johansson 2003a);
- 8 ○ 3.0 min<sup>-1</sup> (Johansson 2003b);
- 9 ○ 6.0 min<sup>-1</sup>(Johansson 2003c)
- 10 • Heated-humidified inspired gases (37°C; 100%) versus standard care (no added humidity
- 11 nor heat) (Stone 1981)
- 12 ○ Patients received circulating-water warming blankets (38°C) at the discretion of the
- 13 anaesthesiologist. It is unclear how many patients in each group received a
- 14 warming blanket. The study may be confounded and will not be considered for
- 15 further analysis.

#### 16 **D. Warmed inspired gas versus usual care; with thermal insulation in both groups**

- 17 • Heat and moisture exchanger (34°C; Relative humidity: 100%) versus room temperature
- 18 inspired gas (23°C; Relative humidity: 1%) (Eckerbom 1990) + aluminium blanket in both
- 19 groups + IV fluids (room temperature).

## 20 **RESULTS**

21 The guideline development group (GDG) originally decided to stratify only by

22 presence/absence of comorbidities, trauma, and hyperthermia. Perioperative phases were

23 also to be considered separately, as were insufflation and inspired gases. Post-hoc analysis to

24 stratify by type of anaesthesia (general; regional; combined) was conducted, as these were

25 expected to have different mechanisms of action. Initially, the GDG decided to combine all

26 comparisons of active gas warming versus usual care, regardless of the presence of other

27 active patient interventions.

28

29

### 30 **A. Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care**

#### 31 **General anaesthesia**

32 Six studies (Mouton 1999; Nelskyla 1999; Saad 2000; Farley 2004; Champion 2005; Hamza

33 2005) compared warmed insufflation gas with standard insufflation.

#### 34 **1. Intraoperative core temperature**

35 Six studies reported intraoperative core temperature (Bäcklund 1998; Mouton 1999; Wills

36 2001; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005). In three studies (Bäcklund 1998; Wills 2001;

37 Nguyen 2002) were hypothermic at baseline so results will not be included.

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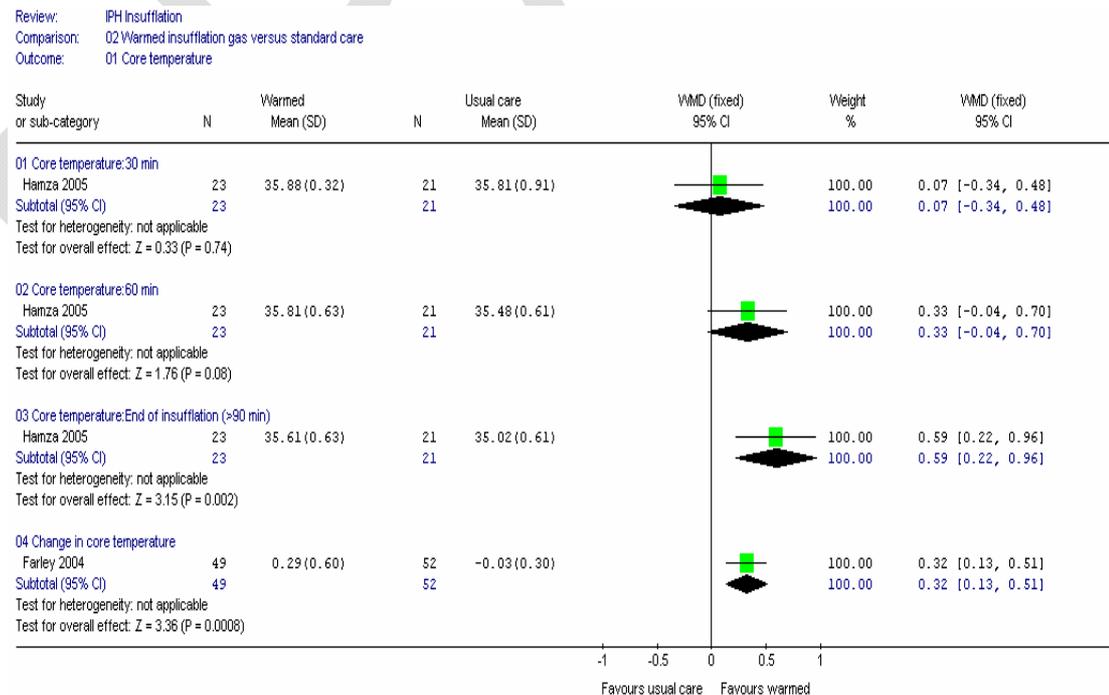
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One study (Hamza 2005) reported core temperature at 30 minutes, 60 minutes and end of insufflation, one study (Farley 2004) provided change in intraoperative temperature and one study (Mouton 1999) only reported change in temperature during pneumo peritoneum (gastric insufflation) but no standard deviations were reported. Results for the three studies were not combined (Figure 3).

In one study (Hamza 2005) there was no significant difference in core temperature at 30 and 60 minutes. At end of insufflation (over 90 minutes) the mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 0.59°C (95% CI 0.22, 0.96) for a control group temperature 35.0°C, but wide confidence interval were noted. One study (Farley 2004) showed a significantly less change in mean core temperature for the warmed group: MD 0.32°C (95% CI 0.13, 0.51) with a change in control group temperature of -0.03°C. We note that the study reported mean intraoperative temperature was 36.0°C in both groups.

One study (Mouton 1999) reported that there was no significant difference in decrease to mean temperature during pneumo peritoneum (0.25°C in the warmed group and 0.3°C in the usual care group). We note duration of pneumo peritoneum was 40 minutes in the warmed group and 48.3 minutes in the usual care group. No decision was reached whether this was clinically significant.

**Figure 3: Intraoperative core temperature; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general anaesthesia**



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**2. Core temperature: End of surgery**

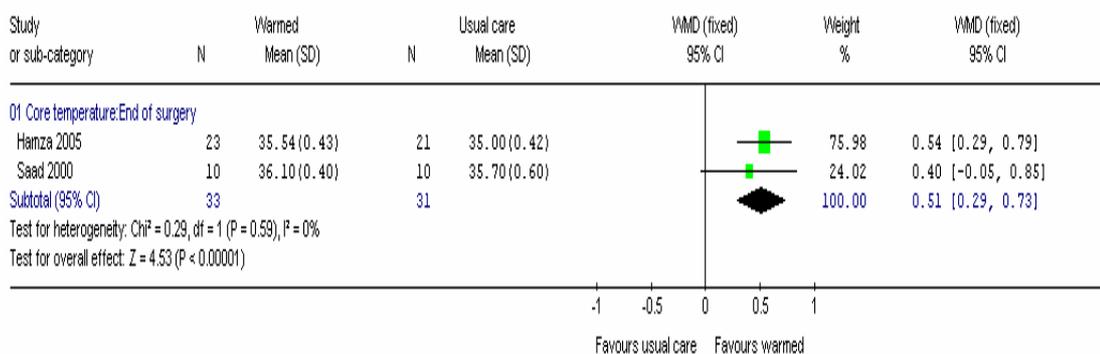
Three studies reported core temperature at end of surgery (Hamza 2005; Nelskylä 1999; Saad 2000). Duration of surgery was less than 2 hours in two studies (Nelskylä 1999; Saad 2000), and greater than 2 hours (Hamza 2005). One study (Nelskylä 1999) did not report standard deviations and results were not combined with the remaining three studies for this reason.

One study (Nelskylä 1999) reported mean core temperature of 36.1°C and 36.3°C for the warmed and usual care groups respectively.

Meta-analysis of two studies (Hamza 2005; Saad 2000) with 65 patients showed a significantly higher core temperature: MD 0.51°C (95% CI 0.31, 0.70) for the warmed group, with control group temperature range reported at 35.0°C to 35.7°C. The difference was clinically significant and no heterogeneity was observed (Figure 4).

**Figure 4: Core temperature: end of surgery; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: 02 Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care  
 Outcome: 02 Core temperature



## Postoperative outcomes

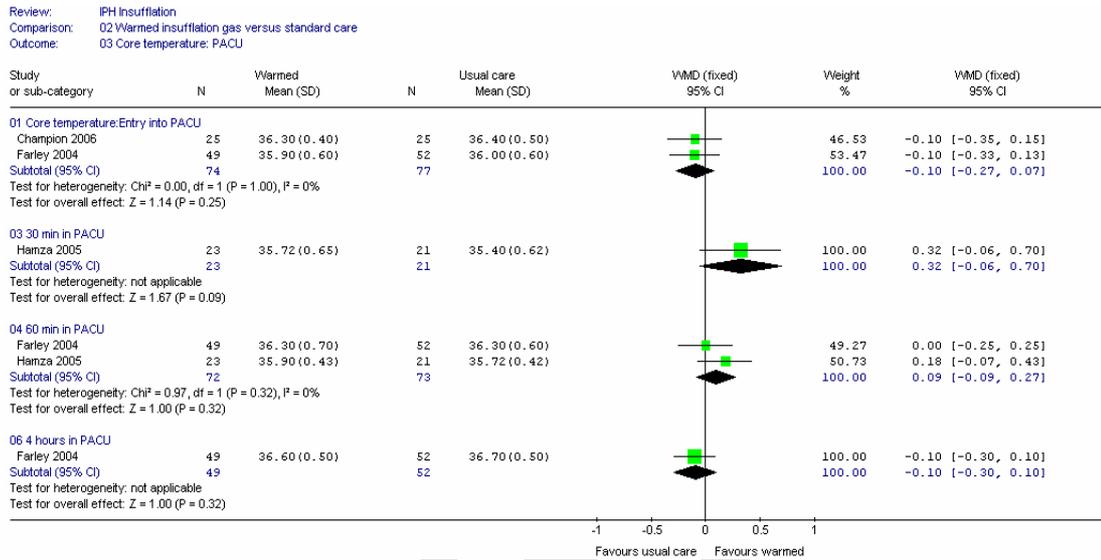
### 3. Core temperature: PACU

Four studies (Bäcklund 1998; Nelskylä 1999; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion 2005) reported core temperature in PACU. In two studies (Bäcklund 1998; Nguyen 2002) patients were hypothermic at baseline and therefore results were not included. Results for Nelskylä (1999) are not combined as standard deviations were not reported (Figure 5).

Meta-analysis of two studies (Farley 2004; Champion 2006) with 151 patients showed no significant difference in core temperature at entry into PACU. After 30 minutes in PACU, one study (Hamza 2005) with 44 patients showed no significant difference in core temperature. After 60 minutes in PACU, meta-analysis of two studies (Farley 2004; Hamza 2005) with 145 patients showed no significant difference. After 4 hours in the PACU, one study (Farley 2004) with 111 patients showed no significant difference in core temperature.

1 In one study (Nelskylä 1999) 15 minutes after entry into PACU the core temperature was  
 2 0.4°C higher in the unwarmed group, however, we cannot determine if this was statistically  
 3 significant as the standard deviations were not provided. At 75 minutes in PACU, the core  
 4 temperature was 0.1°C higher in the unwarmed group.

6 **Figure 5: Core temperature: PACU; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general**  
 7 **anaesthesia**



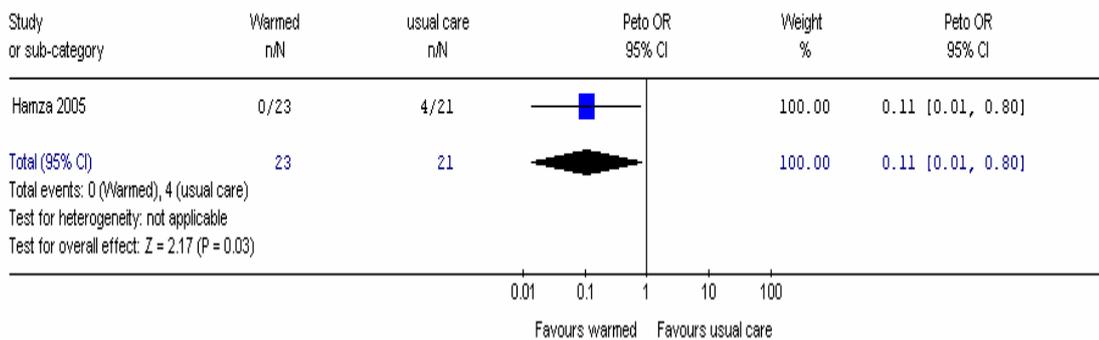
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 10 **4. Shivering**

11 Two studies (Nelskyla 1999; Hamza 2005) reported postoperative shivering. In Nelskyla  
 12 (1999) shivering was evaluated upon arrival to the PACU by a nurse blinded to the treatment.  
 13 The study reported 33.4% of all the patients (n=37) exhibited shivering which disappeared  
 14 within 60 minutes. The study also reported that one patient in the unwarmed group required  
 15 meperidine for shivering.

16 One study (Hamza 2005) with 44 patients reported incidence of shivering in the postoperative  
 17 period. Details on how shivering was assessed were not provided. The incidence of shivering  
 18 was significantly less in the warmed group (OR 0.11 (95% CI 0.01, 0.80), corresponding to a  
 19 NNT (Numbers needed to treat) of 6 (95% CI 3,100). It is noted that the confidence interval is  
 20 wide (Figure 6).

23 **Figure 6: Incidence of shivering; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general**  
 24 **anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: O2 Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care  
 Outcome: O4 Incidence of shivering



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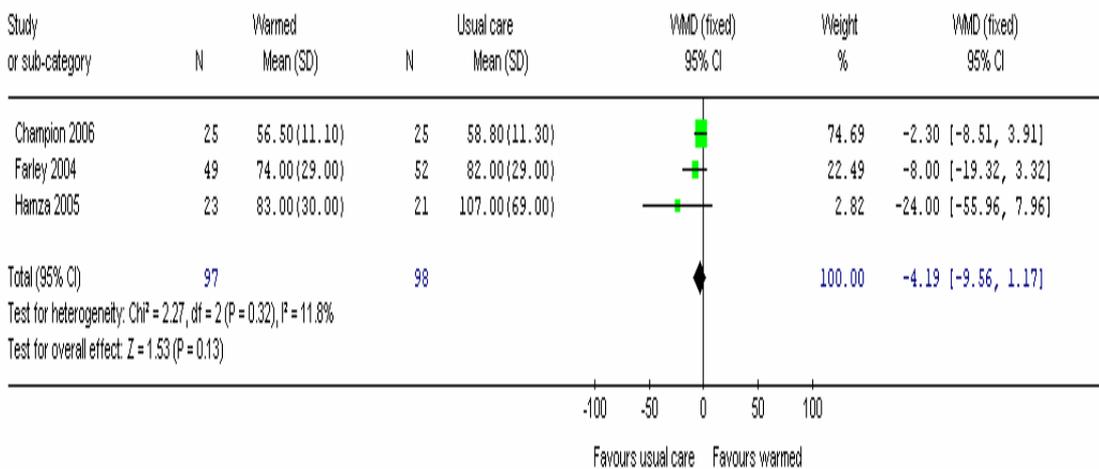
NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

**5. Length of stay in PACU**

Meta-analysis of three studies (Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion 2006) with 195 patients reported length of stay in PACU. There was no significant difference in length of stay between the two groups (Figure 7).

**Figure 7: Length of stay in PACU; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Insufflation  
 Comparison: O2 Warmed insufflation gas versus standard care  
 Outcome: O5 Length of stay in PACU



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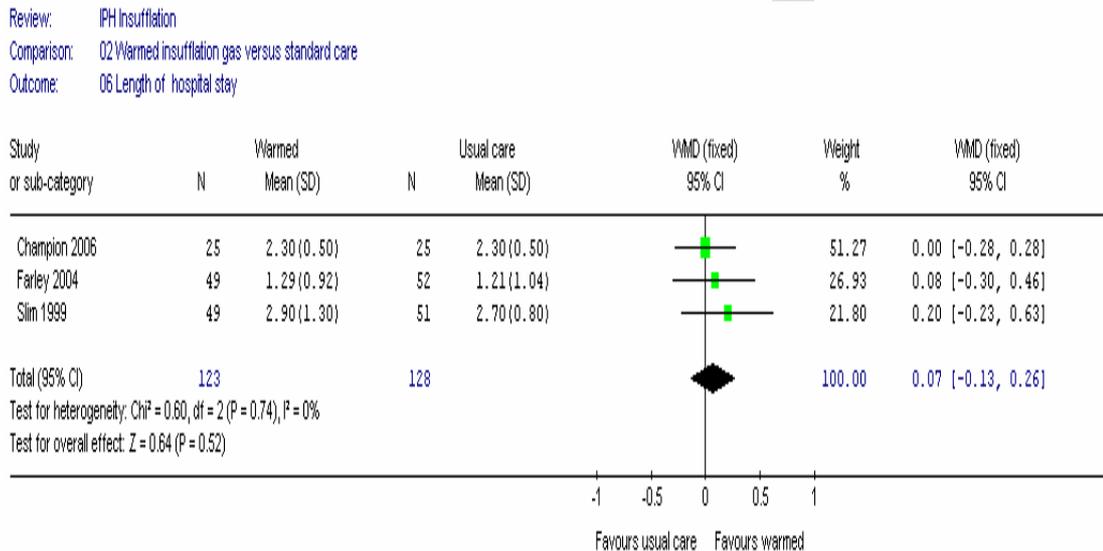
NB: Scale -100 to 100

**6. Length of hospital stay**

Seven studies (Mouton 1998; Slim 1999; Wills 2001; Nguyen 2002; Farley 2004; Hamza 2005; Champion 2006) reported length of stay in hospital. Results for Wills (2001) and Nguyen (2002) will not be included in the analysis as patients were hypothermic at baseline.

1 Mouton (1998) reported that there was no difference in length of stay (warmed: 1.5 days;  
 2 unwarmed: 2.1 days), however, standard deviations were not reported therefore we cannot  
 3 determine if this difference was statistically significant. In one study (Hamza 2005) only the  
 4 mean and range was provided: (warmed: 2 days (range 2-2); unwarmed: 2 days (range 2 to  
 5 3). Meta-analysis of the remaining three studies (Slim 1999; Farley 2004; Champion 2006)  
 6 with 251 patients showed no significant difference (Figure 8).  
 7

8 **Figure 8: Length of stay in hospital; warmed insufflation versus usual care; general**  
 9 **anaesthesia**



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 12 **7. Wound infection**

13 One study (Mouton 1998) with 26 patients reported that was one case of minor wound  
 14 infection was reported in each group. Definition of wound infection and how it was assessed  
 15 was not stated.

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 17 **B. Warmed inspired gases versus usual care**

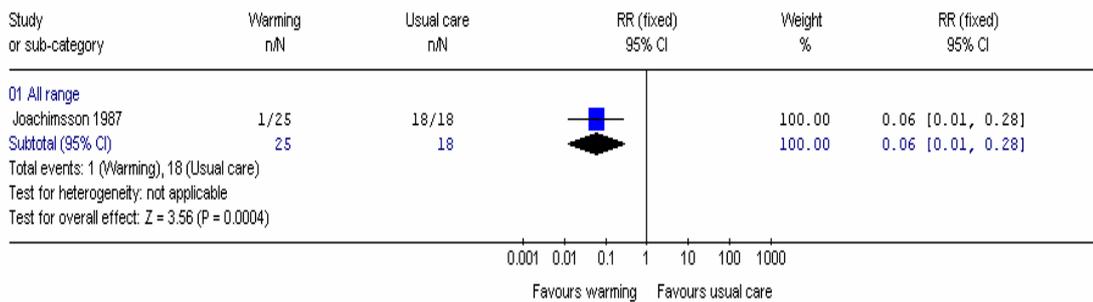
18 Five studies (Youngberg 1985; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Hynson 1992; Johansson  
 19 2003) compared warmed inspired gases with usual care.

20  
 21 **1. Incidence of hypothermia**

22 One study (Joachimsson 1987) reported incidence of hypothermia at three different  
 23 temperature range (35.9°C to 35.0°C; 34.9°C to 34.0°C; less 34.0°C) at the end of surgery. It  
 24 was decided to combine the number of events. There was a significantly lower incidence of  
 25 hypothermia in the warmed group [RR 0.06 (95% 0.01, 0.28)], a NNT of 2 (95% CI 1, 2) for a  
 26 control group rate 100% (18/18) (Figure 9).  
 27

28 **Figure 9: Incidence of hypothermia; warmed insufflation versus usual care + active**  
 29 **warming in both groups; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 02 Incidence of hypothermia  
 Outcome: 01 Incidence of hypothermia



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NB: Scale 0.01 to 1000

**2. Intraoperative core temperature**

Eight studies (Stone 1981; Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Youngberg 1985; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992; Hynson 1992; Ouellette 1993) comparing heated-humidifiers with usual care and two studies comparing heat and moisture exchanger with usual care (Goldberg 1992; Johansson 2003) reported intraoperative core temperature. One study (Youngberg 1985) did not report standard deviations and we cannot therefore determine if the differences observed in core temperature was significant. In one study (Stone 1981) patients received warmed blankets at the discretion of the anaesthetist. The results for this study may be confounded and will not be considered in the analyses.

At 30 minutes three studies (Conahan 1987; Joachimsson 1987; Ouellette 1993) with 90 patients showed borderline significance and a small significantly higher core temperature for the warmed group: MD 0.19°C (95% 0, 0.38) for a control group temperature range of 35.9°C to 36.0°C. There was no heterogeneity. The results for Conahan (1987) were considered in a sensitivity analysis (temperature measured at the sublingual site). The odds ratio for the Conahan (1987) study was large and significant compared to that for the other two studies (Joachimsson 1987; Ouellette 1993) which showed no significant difference, no heterogeneity was noted. A further sensitivity analysis excluding the Conahan (1987) study was conducted. Meta-analysis of the remaining two studies (Joachimsson 1987; Ouellette 1993) with 71 patients resulted in no significant difference and no significant heterogeneity (Figure 10).

In one study (Youngberg 1985) with 40 patients the change in core temperature at 30 minutes was extracted: heated-humidified group: -0.11°C; control group: -0.26°C. Baseline core temperature was not reported or standard deviations, so statistical significance is not determined.

At 60 minutes, meta-analysis of eight studies [10 comparisons] (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Joachimsson 1987; Goldberg 1992 [2 comparisons]; Hynson 1992; Ouellette 1993; Johansson 2003 [3 comparisons]) showed significantly higher mean core temperature for the

1 warmed group: WMD 0.12°C (95% CI 0.03, 0.21) when compared to the control group  
2 temperature of 35.5°C to 36.0°C. There was no significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=13.2\%$ ,  $p=0.32$ ).

3  
4 One study (Youngberg 1985) only reported change in core temperature (warmed group:  
5 -0.22°C; control group: -0.80°C) and did not report standard deviations so we cannot report  
6 whether the difference in core temperatures was significant.

7  
8 At 2 hours, for 5 studies [7 comparisons] (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Joachimsson  
9 1987; Hynson 1992; Johansson 2003 [3 comparisons]) with 187 patients the mean core  
10 temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: WMD 0.42°C (95% CI 0.24, 0.59)  
11 for a control group temperature of 35.2°C to 35.8°C. There was significant heterogeneity  
12 ( $I^2=64.1\%$ ,  $p=0.01$ ). Observed heterogeneity at 2 hours was considered by the proposed  
13 factors for subgroup analyses. We note there was limited demographic information in two  
14 studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b).

15  
16 Five studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b Joachimsson 1987; Hynson 1992;  
17 Johansson 2003 [3 comparisons]) were similar in age (less than 65 years) and the mean age  
18 was over 65 in one study (Tølløfsrud 1984b), type of surgery (elective for all studies), and  
19 duration of surgery (3 hours for all studies). ASA status was reported in only one study  
20 (Johansson 2003: ASA I-II).

21  
22 In terms of factors specific to the warming devices, four studies used a heated-humidifier  
23 (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Joachimsson 1987; Hynson 1992) and one instituted a  
24 heat and moisture exchanger (Johansson 2003). The temperature settings was not stated in  
25 three studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Johansson 2003) and were as follows in  
26 the remaining two studies: 38°C (Joachmisson 1987); 40°C (Hynson 1992); and the fresh gas  
27 flow was not stated in three studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Tølløfsrud 1984b; Joachimsson 1987)  
28 and were maintained at: 5 L/min (Hynson 1992) and 1 to 6 L/min (Johansson 2003).

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30 None of subgroup analyses adequately explained the observed heterogeneity. Only two  
31 studies (Tølløfsrud 1984a; Joachimsson 1987) showed a statistically significant difference in  
32 core temperature.

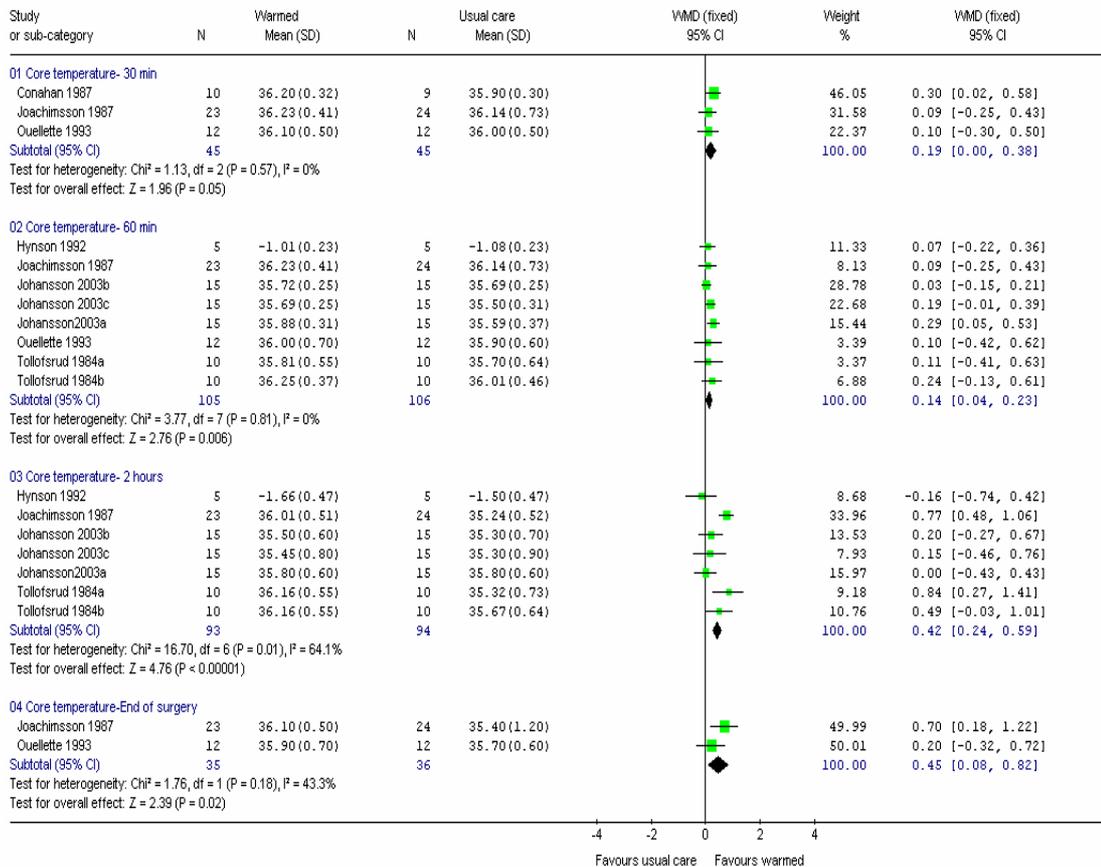
### 34 **3. Core temperature: end of surgery**

35 At end of surgery, two studies (Joachmisson 1987; Ouellette 1993) with 71 patients reported  
36 core temperature. Mean duration of surgery was over 2 hours in both of the studies. The mean  
37 core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 0.45°C (95% CI 0.08,  
38 0.82) for a control group temperature 35.4°C. The difference was clinically significant. The  
39 confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 10).

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**Figure 10: Intraoperative core temperature; warmed inspired gases versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
Comparison: 01 Intraoperative Core temperature  
Outcome: 01 Core temperature



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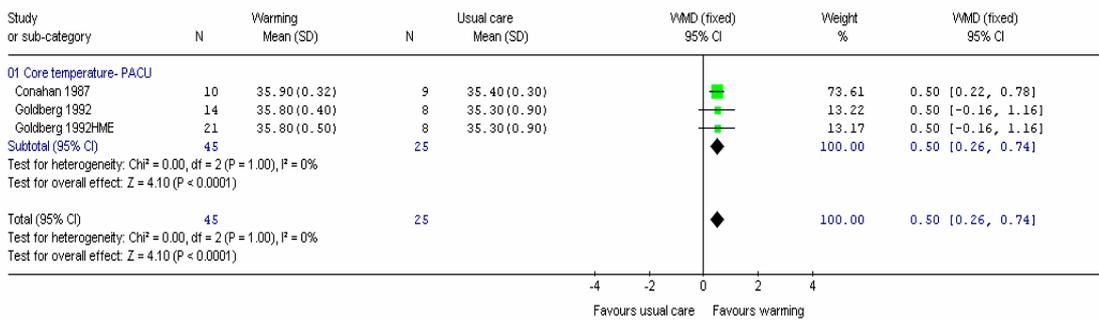
NB: Scale -4 to 4

**4. Core temperature: PACU**

Two studies (Conahan 1987: 3 comparisons; Goldberg 1992: 2 comparisons) with 70 patients reported sublingual temperature at entry in PACU. The mean core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group:MD 50°C (95% CI 0.26, 0.74) for a control group temperature of 35.3°C to 35.4°C. The difference was clinically significant. There was no heterogeneity (Figure 11).

**Figure 11: Core temperature: PACU; warmed inspired gases versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 01 Intraoperative Core temperature  
 Outcome: 02 Core temperature- PACU



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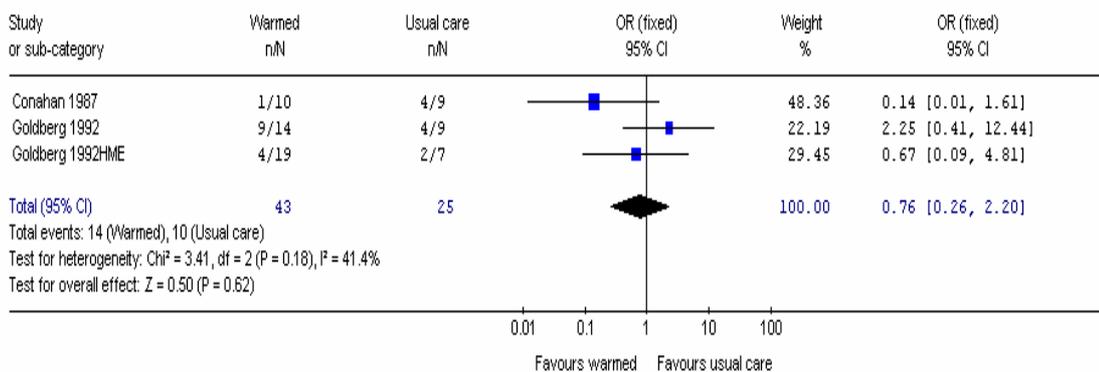
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**5. Incidence of shivering**

Two studies (Conahan 1987: 3 comparisons); Goldberg 1992: 2 comparisons) reported presence of shivering in PACU. Shivering was assessed by nurses blinded to the treatment. The mean difference in the incidence of shivering was not significant (Figure 12).

**Figure 12: Incidence of shivering; warmed inspired gases versus usual care; general anaesthesia**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 03 Incidence of shivering  
 Outcome: 01 Incidence of shivering



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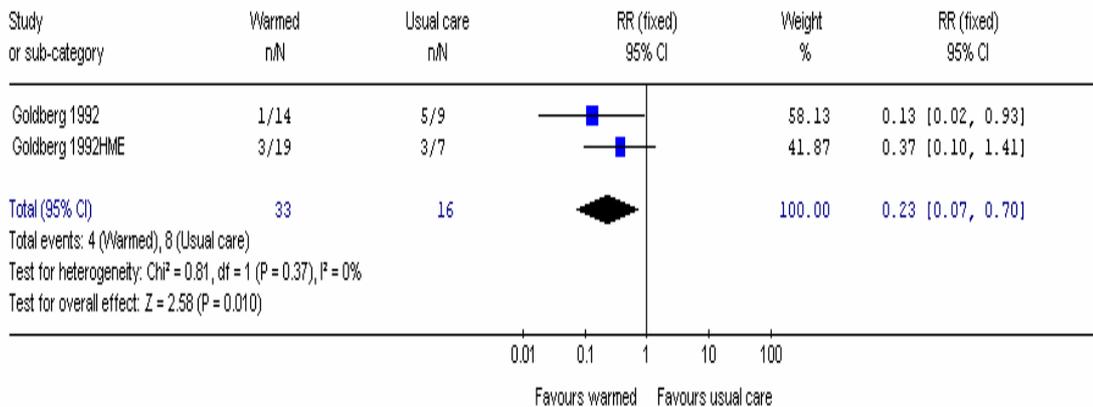
NB: Scale -0.01 to 100

**6. Thermal discomfort: perception of feeling cold**

Two studies (Conahan 1987: 3 comparisons; Goldberg 1992: 2 comparisons) reported patients' perception of feeling cold. The number of patients feeling cold was significantly less in the warmed group [RR 0.23 (95% CI 0.07, 0.70)]. This corresponded to an NNT of 3 (95% CI 2, 8) (Figure 13).

**Figure 13: Thermal discomfort; warmed inspired gases versus usual care;**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 04 Thermal discomfort (feeling cold)  
 Outcome: 01 Thermal discomfort (feeling cold)



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NB: Scale 0.01 to 100

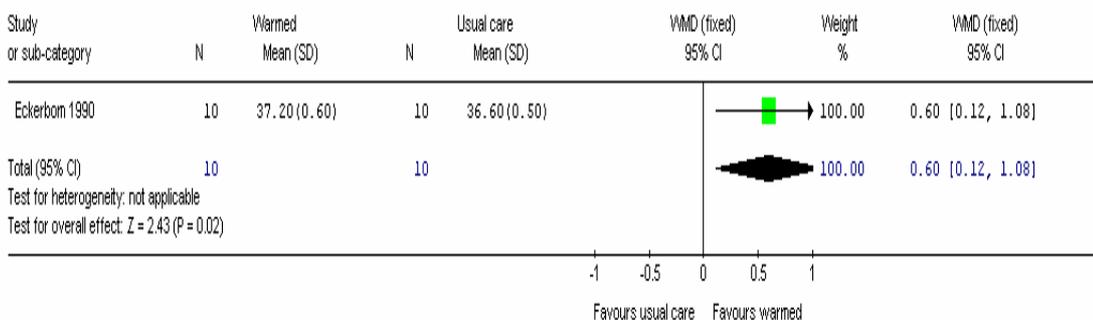
**C. Warmed inspired gas versus usual care; with thermal insulation in both groups**

**1. Core temperature**

One study (Eckerbom 1990) reported core temperature at 45 minutes after induction and 20 minutes after end of anaesthesia. At 45 minutes, the change in core temperature was -0.3°C and -0.2°C (1 SD for core temperature ≤0.3°C) for the warmed and usual care groups respectively. At 20 minutes after end of anaesthesia, the core temperature was significantly higher for the warmed group: MD 0.60°C (95% CI 0.12, 1.08) for a control group temperature of 36.6°C. The confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 14).

**Figure 14: Core temperature; warmed inspired gas versus usual care; with thermal insulation in both groups**

Review: IPH Heated humidifier  
 Comparison: 07 HME vs usual care; thermal insl both groups  
 Outcome: 02 Core temperature- 20 min after end of anaesthesia



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## 10.7 PHARMACOLOGICAL AGENTS FOR THE PREVENTION OF IPH

### SEARCH STRATEGY FOR IDENTIFICATION OF STUDIES

Searches were performed on the following core databases: MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL and *The Cochrane Library* (1966 to current day with guidance from the GDG). Additional databases were not searched for this review. The search strategies are given in Appendix B.

The titles and abstracts from the search strategy were assessed. Thirty-one were identified to be potentially relevant to the review and these papers were retrieved in full. Eleven studies met the inclusion criteria for the review. The reference lists of the retrieved studies were inspected for further potential papers, but none were identified. The 20 excluded studies are listed in Appendix E, along with reasons for exclusion.

### DESCRIPTION OF STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE REVIEW

Eleven studies met the inclusion criteria for the review (Ikeda 1999; Mizobe 2006; Mohamed 2005; Piper 2000; Piper 2001; Sahin 2002; Selldén 1994; Selldén 1996; Selldén 1999; Umenai 2006; Widman 2002). No studies were conducted in the UK; seven were conducted in the rest of Europe, three in Japan and one in Egypt. Four studies had more than two arms, giving a total of 27 comparisons. The Selldén (1999) study was a further report of patients from both the Selldén (1994) and (1996) studies, reporting hospital stay. Results were not given separately for the 1994 and 1996 studies and the amino acids groups from both earlier studies were combined, giving 18% non-randomised patients. Thus, there were only ten primary studies and 27 comparisons.

Seven studies had 50 patients or fewer in each comparison (Ikeda 1999; Mizobe 2006; Mohamed 2005; Sahin 2002; Selldén 1994; Selldén 1996; Widman 2002), two of which had fewer than 20 patients (Ikeda 1999; Selldén 1996). Three studies had more than 100 patients in total: Piper (2000) had 30 patients in each of four arms; Piper (2001) had 30 patients in each of five arms, and; Umenai (2006) had 68 and 66 patients in the two arms.

### Population and details of surgery and anaesthesia

The mean age (where given) ranged across the studies from 32 to 68 years.

Surgery was carried out under general anaesthesia in all the studies except Widman (2002). The duration of anaesthesia was more than 1 hour in eight studies (Mohamed 2005; Piper 2000; Piper 2001; Sahin 2002; Selldén 1994; Selldén 1996; Umenai 2006; Widman 2002) and not stated in the other two (Ikeda 1999; Mizobe 2006).

The types of surgery in the studies were gynaecological (Selldén 1996); neurosurgical (Sahin 2002); abdominal (Mizobe 2006; Mohamed 2005; Selldén 1994); cardiothoracic (Umenai

1 2006); oral (Ikeda 1999); orthopaedic (Widman 2002); mixed (Piper 2000; Piper 2001; Selldén  
2 1999). Surgery lasted 1 to 3 hours in six studies (Ikeda 1999; Piper 2000; Piper 2001; Selldén  
3 1994; Selldén 1996; Widman 2002); over 3 hours in three studies (Mohamed 2005; Sahin  
4 2002; Umenai 2006) and was not stated in one study (Mizobe 2006).

5  
6 Two studies recorded tympanic temperatures, five rectal, three oesophageal, while one  
7 recorded mixed venous blood temperature using a cannula in the pulmonary artery.

## 9 **Interventions**

10 The following interventions were assessed:

- 11 • Alpha adrenergic agonists: phenylephrine, one study (Ikeda 1999);
- 12 • Alpha<sub>1</sub>-adrenergic antagonists: urapidil, two studies (Piper 2000; Piper 2001);
- 13 • Amino acids: six studies:
  - 14 ○ One study gave Aminosteril KE 10% at 125ml/h, corresponding to 240kJ/h (Mohamed  
15 2005);
  - 16 ○ One study gave Traumamine at 100kJ/h (Sahin 2002);
  - 17 ○ Three studies gave Vamin 18gN/l at 126 ml/h, corresponding to 240 kJ/h (Selldén  
18 1994; Selldén 1996; Widman 2002);
  - 19 ○ One study gave Teruamino 18g N/l at 2ml/kg/h, corresponding to 4kJ/kg/h (Umenai  
20 2006);
- 21 • Sugars: fructose, one study (Mizobe 2006).

22  
23 Ikeda (1999) and Mohamed (2005) used warmed intravenous fluids for all the patients. In two  
24 studies some patients had warmed blood:

- 25 • In Selldén (1994), all patients except one were undergoing minor surgery and received no  
26 active warming; 1 patient (in the amino acid group) received 4 units of warmed blood.
- 27 • In Selldén (1996), all patients except one received no active warming; 1 patient (in the  
28 control group) received 1 unit of warmed blood.

29  
30 In the other studies, patients received no active warming.

## 31 **Comparisons**

32  
33 The interventions were subdivided into preoperative, intraoperative, or postoperative phases,  
34 or a combination of phases. The included studies covered the following comparisons:

- 35 • **Preoperative phase**
  - 36 Intervention versus placebo / no intervention:
    - 37 ○ Amino acids solution versus saline (Selldén 1996b).
- 38 • **Intraoperative phase**
  - 39 Intervention versus placebo / no intervention:
    - 40 ○ Phenylephrine versus no intervention (Ikeda 1999);

- 1           ○ Urapidil versus placebo (Piper 2000, Piper 2001);  
2           ○ Amino acids solution versus saline (Selldén 1994).  
3           Intervention 1 + intervention 2 versus intervention 2 alone:  
4           ○ Amino acid solution plus isoflurane anaesthesia versus isoflurane anaesthesia alone  
5           (Sahin 2002);  
6           ○ Amino acids solution plus propofol anaesthesia versus propofol anaesthesia alone  
7           (Sahin 2002).

- 8           Intervention drug class 1 versus class 2:  
9           ○ Urapidil versus clonidine (Piper 2000; Piper 2001).

10          • **Pre and intraoperative phases**

- 11           Intervention versus placebo / no intervention:  
12           ○ Amino acids solution versus placebo (Selldén 1996a; Selldén 1999);  
13           ○ Amino acids solution versus placebo: both groups had circulating water mattress at  
14           37°C (Umenai 2006);  
15           ○ Amino acids solution plus saline as needed versus saline as needed (Mohamed  
16           2005);  
17           ○ Fructose infusion versus placebo (Mizobe 2006).

18           Spinal Anaesthesia:

- 19           ○ Amino acids solution versus acetated Ringer's solution (Widman 2002).

20  
21           The Selldén (1999) study was an amalgamation of Selldén (1994) and Selldén (1996), with all  
22           amino acids groups combined. Thus, some patients had infusions in the preoperative phase  
23           only, some intraoperative only and some in both phases.

24  
25          **Cross-phase comparison**

- 26          • **Pre and intraoperative versus preoperative**  
27           ○ Amino acids solution given 1 hour before + 1 hour during anaesthesia versus amino  
28           acids solution given 2 hours before anaesthesia (Selldén 1996c).

29  
30          **METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY**

31           The quality assessment for the included trials is shown in Appendix D. The method of  
32           randomisation was reported in four studies, three of which were classified as adequate  
33           (computer generated: Ikeda 1999; Mizobe 2006; Umenai 2006). The exception was a quasi-  
34           randomised trial (Selldén 1994) in which patients were allocated alternately to treatment or  
35           control.

36  
37           A further trial, Selldén (1996), randomised two groups of patients to receive either amino acids  
38           (1 hour before and 1 hour during anaesthesia) or saline control. The study also included a  
39           further group of patients, added later but not randomised, who had amino acids for 2 hours  
40           prior to anaesthesia. Thus the comparison of this group with either saline or the pre and intra

1 operative infusion was not randomised, and open to bias. The other studies did not state the  
2 method of randomisation.

3  
4 Partial allocation concealment (sealed envelopes) was reported in three studies (Mizobe 2006;  
5 Umenai 2006; Widman 2002). One study reported what was assumed to be inadequate  
6 allocation concealment: Selldén (1994) stated that patients were allocated alternately to  
7 treatment or control. Allocation concealment was not reported in the other studies.

8  
9 Eight studies reported that the outcome assessors and the patients were blinded to the  
10 interventions, although Ikeda (1999) was reported as single-blind. Blinding was not stated in  
11 Mohamed (2005); one study (Selldén 1996) was not blinded.

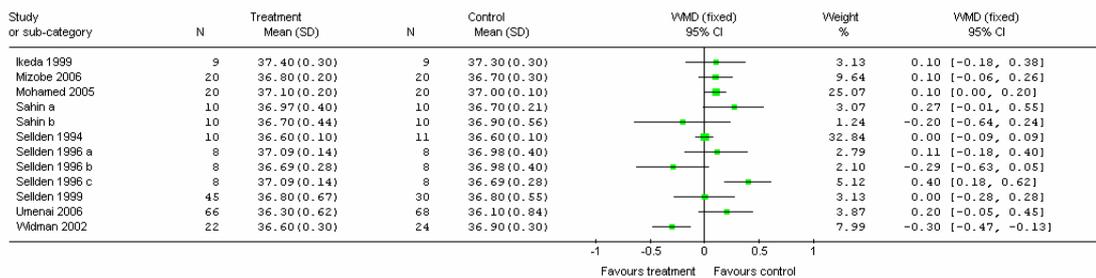
12  
13 Four studies (Piper 2000; Piper 2001; Umenai 2006; Widman 2002) described an *a-priori*  
14 power calculation. These calculations suggested that the sample size should be 30 patients  
15 per group (Piper 2000); 27 (Piper 2001); 65 (Umenai 2006) and 30 (Widman 2002).

16  
17 All studies used an intention to treat analysis. Only one study (Umenai 2006) reported loss to  
18 follow up: 26% of patients [14/68 (20%) in the saline group and 21/67 (31%) in the amino acid  
19 group] had their operations converted during the procedure, after they had received the study  
20 interventions, so they no longer met the inclusion criteria for the study. The authors then  
21 randomised a further 45 patients in a ratio of 2:3 to replace the lost patients. 4/18 and 7/27 of  
22 these were withdrawn from the saline and amino acids groups respectively. There was no  
23 significant difference in the baseline characteristics of the remaining patients. We decided to  
24 treat this study with slight reservation.

25  
26 All studies included in the review demonstrated baseline comparability of the groups on  
27 characteristics such as age, gender, duration of surgery and ambient air temperature. The  
28 comparability of baseline core temperatures is shown in Figure 1. Piper (2000) and Piper  
29 (2001) did not report baseline core temperatures in the groups before the intervention. The  
30 Selldén (1996c) comparison showed a significant difference in baseline core temperature of  
31 0.4°C; Widman (2002) reported a significant difference in baseline temperature of -0.30°C,  
32 and Mohamed (2005) reported a borderline difference of 0.10°C ( $p=0.05$ ). Otherwise there  
33 were no baseline differences. Both of these studies were regarded with caution, especially if  
34 the effect size was not more than 5 times the baseline difference.

35  
36 **Figure 1: Baseline core temperatures**

Review: Inadvertent perioperative hypothermia  
 Comparison: 10 Baseline core temperatures  
 Outcome: 02 Baseline core temperatures



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Six studies were considered to have potential for bias (Mohamed 2005; Sellden 1994; Sellden 1996; Sellden 1999; Widman 2002; Umenai 2006). One study (Sellden 1994) was considered to be at higher risk because the patients were allocated alternately to treatment or control, and this was investigated in sensitivity analyses. Two further studies (Widman 2002; Mohamed 2005) were considered with caution because of differences in baseline temperatures. Another study had a slightly higher potential for bias: Umenai (2006) because of the drop-out rate, and this study was treated with caution. Sellden (1996) had two comparisons that were not randomised and these were not considered with the randomised studies; the Sellden (1996c) comparison also had a large baseline difference (0.4°C).

As mentioned earlier, the Sellden (1999) study was a combination of Sellden (1996) and (1994) and included 18% non-randomised patients. The component studies also had different methods of sequence generation and consequently this study was treated as having potential for bias.

**RESULTS**

**I. Preoperative phase**

**A. Pharmacological agent versus placebo / no intervention**

**A1. Amino acids**

Sellden (1996b) measured the change in temperature in 16 patients, for a solution of amino acids versus saline infused for 2 hours prior to anaesthesia (duration 128 (SEM 13) minutes for the amino acids group versus 154 (SEM 11) minutes for controls; not a significant difference). The theatre temperature was 21 to 23°C; patients received no warming except for one patient in the control group who had 1 unit of warmed blood.

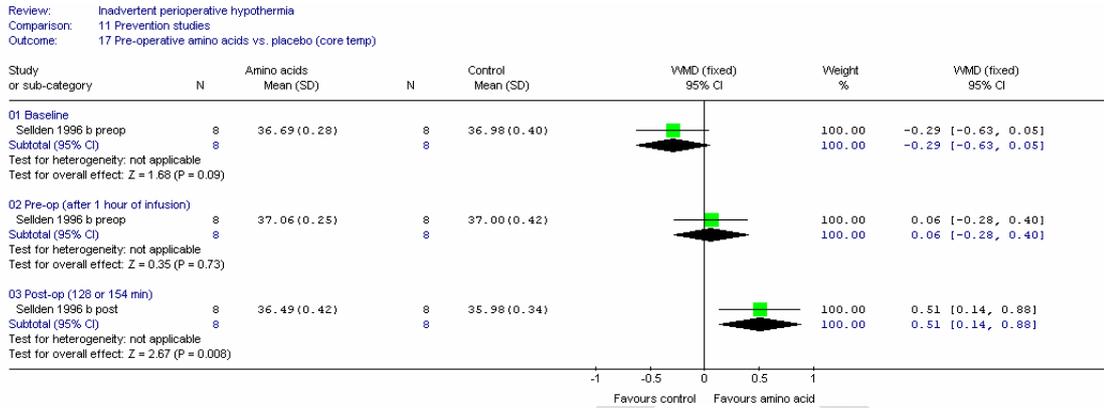
**1. Core temperatures postoperatively**

Core temperatures were measured at baseline, after one hour of infusion (i.e. preoperatively) and postoperatively on awakening. There was a fairly large, statistically significant difference in core temperature postoperatively. The amino acids group was warmer, with a mean difference of 0.51°C (95% CI 0.14, 0.88), for a control group mean temperature of 35.98°C, i.e. the control group was only just hypothermic. We note that the patients were not randomised to treatments for this comparison and that the postoperative temperatures were

1 measured at different times for the two groups. Therefore, this study was considered to be  
 2 biased.

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**Figure 2: Core temperature**



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**II. Intraoperative phase**

**A. Pharmacological agent versus placebo / no intervention**

**A1. Alpha adrenergic agonists (e.g. phenylephrine)**

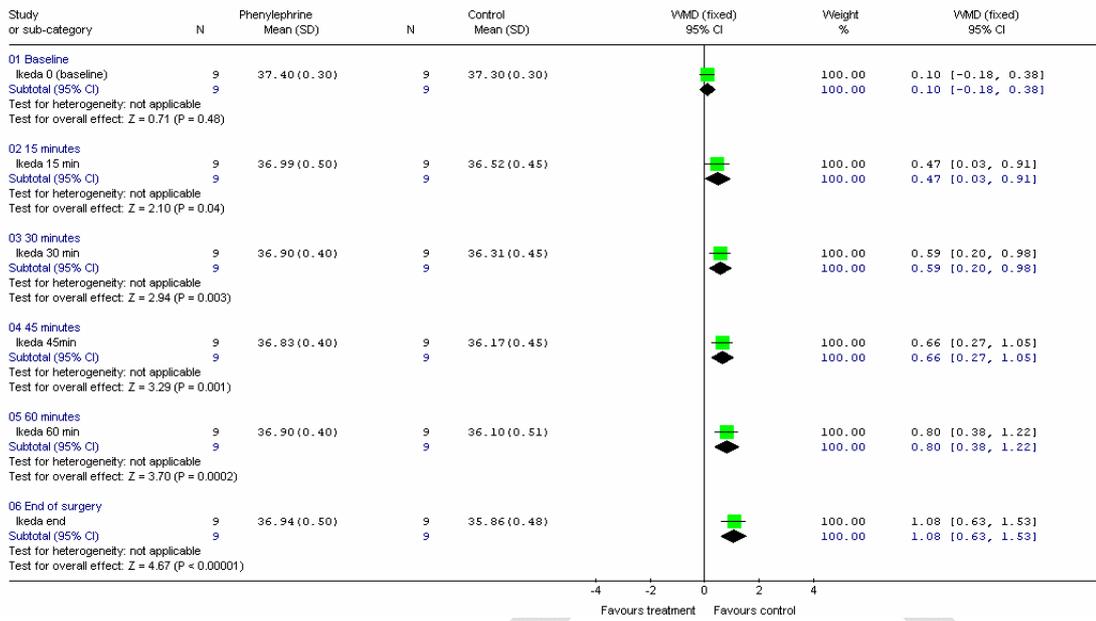
One study (Ikeda 1999) compared phenylephrine 0.5µg/kg/min infusion from the start of anaesthesia versus no treatment in 18 patients. IV fluids were warmed to 37°C; the theatre temperature was 25 to 26°C; patients were covered with single cotton blanket and surgical drape. We note that this study changed two variables at once and effectively had two simultaneous warming interventions, warmed fluids and phenylephrine.

**1. Core temperature at various intraoperative times**

Mean core temperatures were significantly higher in patients given warmed phenylephrine at 15, 30, 45 and 60 minutes and at the end of surgery (mean duration of surgery 125 minutes (SD 92) in the control group; 143 (SD 42) minutes in the phenylephrine group; not significantly different), as shown in Figure 3. The confidence intervals are fairly wide.

**Figure 3: Core temperature**

Review: Inadvertent perioperative hypothermia  
 Comparison: 11 Prevention studies  
 Outcome: 16 Intra-operative phenylephrine vs. placebo



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NB: Scale -4 to +4

**A2. Alpha<sub>1</sub> - adrenergic antagonist**

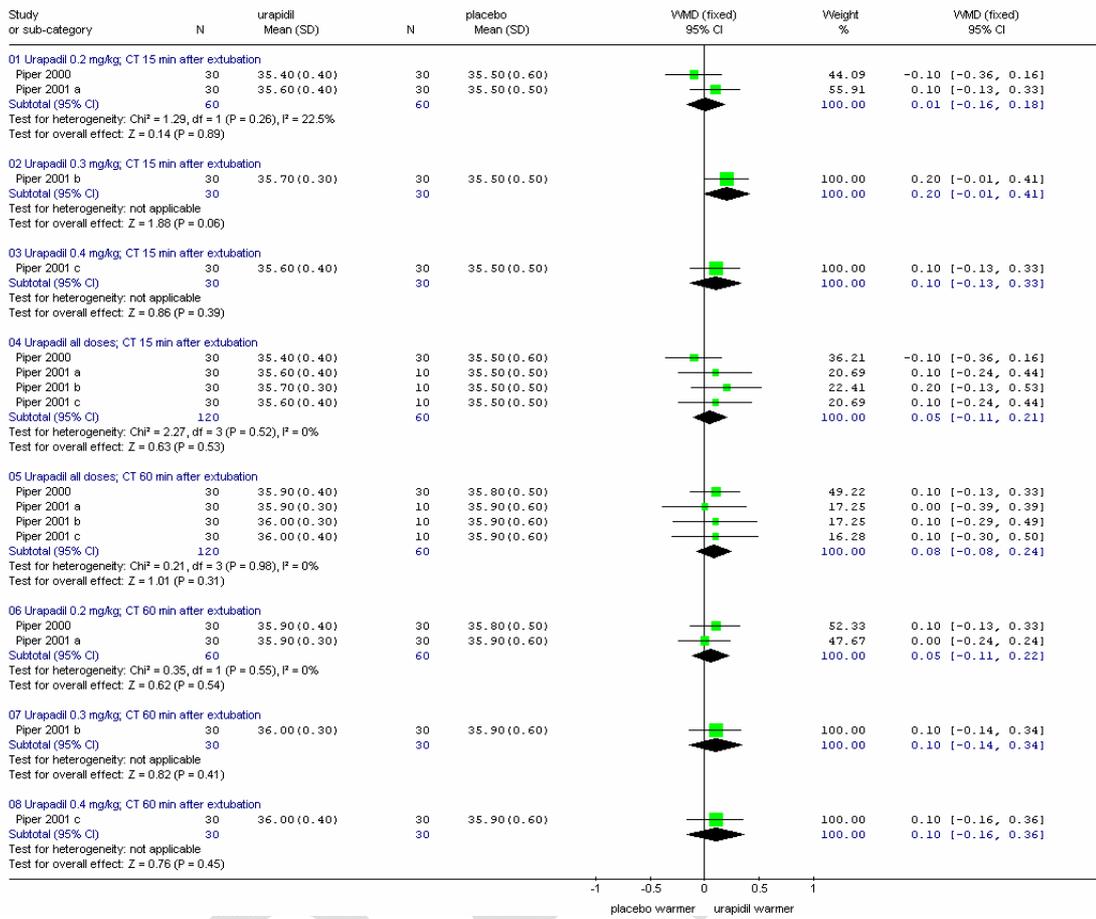
Two studies (Piper 2000; Piper 2001) compared urapidil given IV at the end of surgery versus placebo in 120 patients. Piper (2000) used a dose of 0.2mg/kg and Piper (2001) randomised the patients to three doses: 0.2mg/kg [a], 0.3mg/kg [b], or 0.4mg/kg [c] and placebo. Patients were covered with a cotton sheet. The outcomes were core temperatures 15 and 60 minutes after extubation, the extubation time and the time in the recovery room.

**1. Core temperature 15 and 60 minutes after extubation**

Figure 4 shows the effect of urapidil; this is reported as single comparisons, by dose, and as meta-analyses across all doses. There was no significant difference between interventions, although the 0.3mg/kg dose was almost significant in comparison with placebo, with the urapidil group being warmer by 0.2°C (95% CI -0.01, 0.41; p=0.06). There was no heterogeneity in the meta-analyses.

**Figure 4: Core temperature post extubation**

Review: IPH pharmacological agents  
 Comparison: 01 Alpha1-adrenergic antagonist vs placebo (Intraop)  
 Outcome: 01 Core temperature : time post-extubation



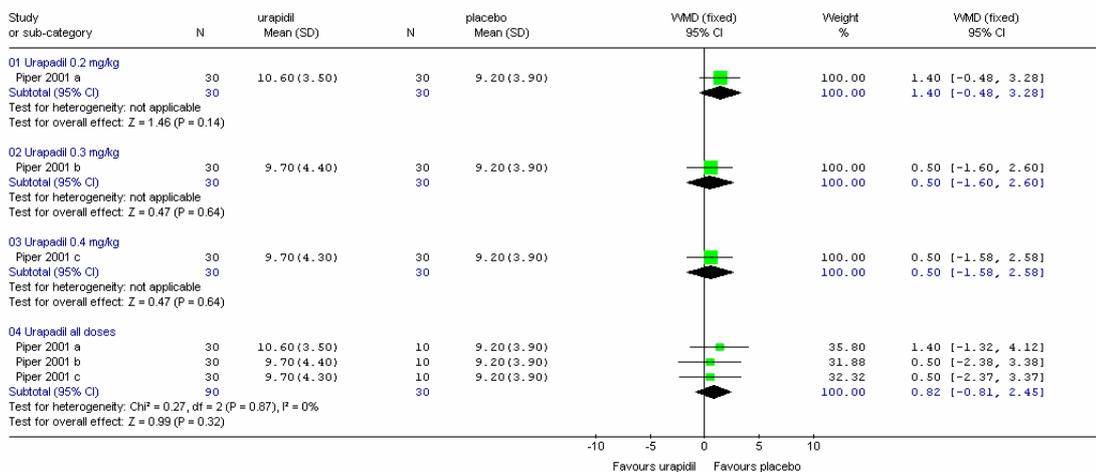
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**2. Time to extubation**

There was no significant difference between groups for the time to extubation at any dose or in the meta-analysis of all three doses. There was no heterogeneity in the meta-analysis.

**Figure 5: Time to extubation**

Review: IPH pharmacological agents  
 Comparison: 01 Alpha1-adrenergic antagonist vs placebo (Intraop)  
 Outcome: 02 time to extubation (minutes)

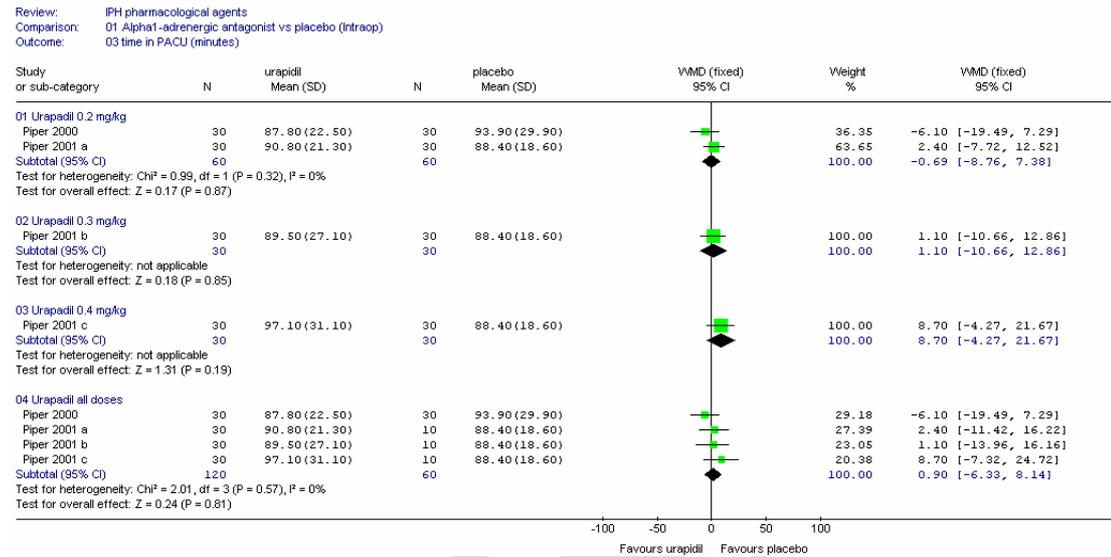


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**3. Time in PACU**

The mean duration of surgery was 87.5 (SD 43.5) minutes in Piper (2000), and in the Piper (2001) study, 88.0 (SD 40.1) minutes for the 0.2mg/kg dose, 77.8 (SD 43.5) for the 0.3mg/kg dose, and 84.7 (SD 46.0) for the 0.4mg/kg dose. There was no significant difference between interventions in the time spent in PACU for any dose. The meta-analysis showed no heterogeneity.

**Figure 6: Time in PACU**



**A3. Amino acids**

Two studies (three comparisons) investigated the effect of amino acids versus placebo or no intervention:

- Sahin (2002) compared an amino acid solution plus isoflurane anaesthesia (group 1) versus isoflurane anaesthesia alone (group 2) (Sahin 2002a), and in the same study, compared an amino acid solution plus propofol anaesthesia (group 3) versus propofol anaesthesia alone (group 4) (Sahin 2002b). All patients received dextrose-free crystalloids and colloids at room temperature; the theatre temperature was 21°C (SD 1). At the end of surgery, patients with temperatures below 35°C were warmed by a forced air warming device in PACU before extubation. We note that there was no placebo infusion, so that room temperature infusion may have led to some cooling, thus underestimating the size of the effect.
- Selldén (1994) compared an amino acids solution versus saline control; the theatre temperature was 21 to 23°C; there was no warming except for one patient with a partial gastrectomy in the amino acids group (major surgery) who had 4 units of warmed blood. The core temperature was measured using mixed venous blood from the pulmonary artery. We note that the Selldén (1994) study was quasi randomised.

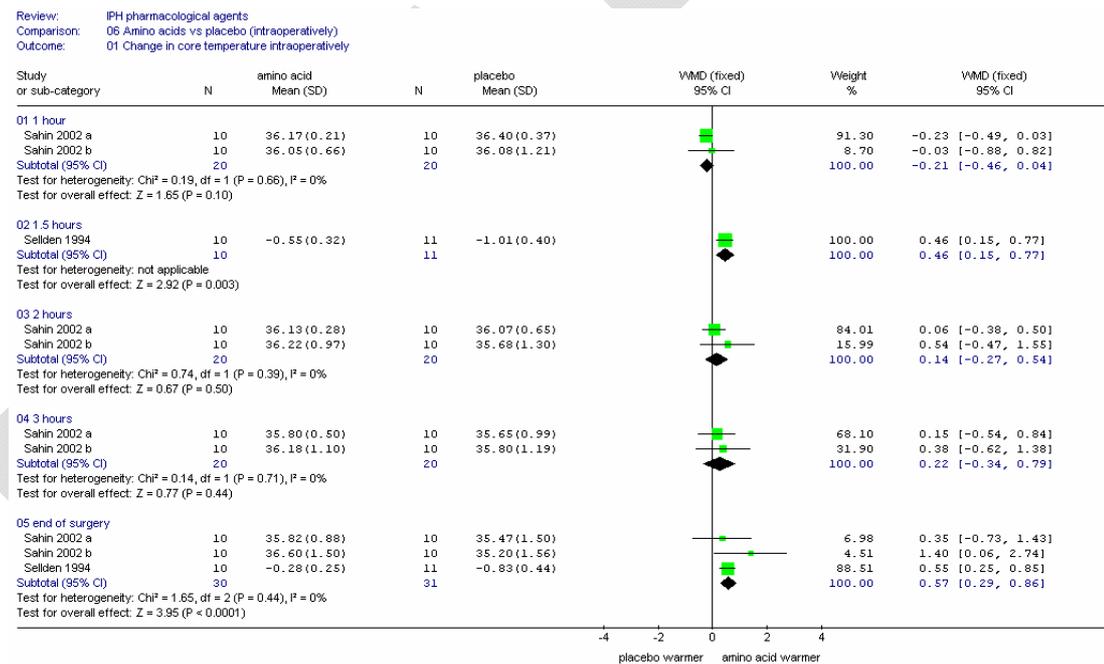
**1. Core temperature intraoperatively**

1 Meta-analysis of the two Sahin studies (n=40) showed no significant difference  
 2 intraoperatively between groups up to 3 hours. The mean duration of surgery was 268.5 (SD  
 3 139.7) minutes for the isoflurane only group; 270.5 (SD 104.6) minutes for the propofol only  
 4 group; 356.0 (SD 136.1) minutes for the isoflurane plus amino acid group and 242.0 (SD 92.6)  
 5 minutes for the propofol plus amino acid group.

6  
 7 The Selldén (1994) study, in 21 patients, however, showed a significant difference at 90  
 8 minutes, which does not align with the Sahin results. The Selldén (1994) study is possibly  
 9 biased by the alternate allocation used, however, we note that there may have been a cooling  
 10 effect in the intervention group of the Sahin (2002) study because of the infusion of room  
 11 temperature fluids.

12  
 13 At the end of surgery, meta-analysis showed a significantly higher mean core temperature for  
 14 the intervention group, but in the absence of the Selldén (1994) study, the meta-analysis was  
 15 not significant; WMD 0.76°C (95% CI -0.08, 1.60).

16  
 17 **Figure 7: Core temperature**



18 NB: Scale -4 to +4

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 21 **III. Pre and intraoperative phases**

22 **A. Pharmacological agent versus placebo / no intervention**

23 Six studies compared the effect of pharmacological agents in the pre and intraoperative  
 24 phases (Mohamed 2005; Mizobe 2006; Selldén 1996a; Selldén 1999; Umenai 2006; Widman  
 25 2002). In Umenai (2006), both groups had circulating water mattress at 37°C. In Mohamed  
 26 (2005), the patients had amino acids solution plus saline as needed versus saline as needed.  
 27 The Widman (2002) study gave the patients spinal anaesthesia and was treated separately.

1  
2 We note that the Selldén (1996a) comparison was randomised (and therefore acceptable) and  
3 that the Umenai (2006) study had some loss to follow-up. The Selldén (1999) study was a  
4 partially randomised, and was an amalgamation of Selldén (1994) and Selldén (1996), with all  
5 amino acids groups combined. Thus, some patients had infusions in the preoperative phase  
6 only, some intraoperative only and some in both phases.  
7

## 8 **A1. Amino acids**

### 9 **GENERAL ANAESTHESIA**

10 Mohamed (2005), Selldén (1996a), Selldén (1999) and Umenai (2006) studied amino acids  
11 given both pre and intraoperatively. The outcomes measured were:

- 12 • Preoperative temperature (Selldén 1996a; after 1 hour of infusion; theatre temperature 21  
13 to 23°C; patients received no warming except for one patient in the control group who had  
14 1 unit of warmed blood);
- 15 • Preoperative temperature (Mohamed 2005) after 30 and 60 minutes of infusion, warmed  
16 to 37°C;
- 17 • Ontraoperative temperatures (Mohamed 2005: 30, 60, 120 and 180 minutes; infusion  
18 warmed to 37°C);
- 19 • Temperature at the end of surgery (Umenai 2006: mean duration of surgery 5.5 hours  
20 [95% CI 5.2, 5.7] for amino acid group versus 5.1 hours [95% CI 4.8, 5.5] for saline  
21 group; difference just non-significant; theatre temperature near 23°C; covered with one  
22 layer sheet during surgery; circulating water mattress under patients set to 37°C);
- 23 • Postoperative temperatures (Selldén 1996a: on awakening at the end of anaesthesia,  
24 and; Mohamed 2005: 30 minutes postoperatively);
- 25 • Duration of hospitalisation (Selldén 1999: theatre temperature 20 to 23°C; no warming  
26 except for five patients who had warmed blood; this report includes the patients in  
27 Selldén 1994 and Selldén 1996).

#### 28 29 **1. Intraoperative temperatures**

30 One study (Mohamed 2005) recorded the core temperature at various times intraoperatively in  
31 40 patients for an amino acid solution (given 1 hour before induction and 1 hour after) versus  
32 no infusion. Both groups were also given IV nutrient-free saline according to the fluid  
33 requirements of the patient and all IV infusions were given at 37°C. Thus, this study gave two  
34 interventions at once: the amino acids and warmed fluids, which were not compared with  
35 placebo. For this study there was a statistically significant difference at all times up to and  
36 including 3 hours. We note that the control group temperature did not drop below 36.0°C until  
37 2 hours.  
38

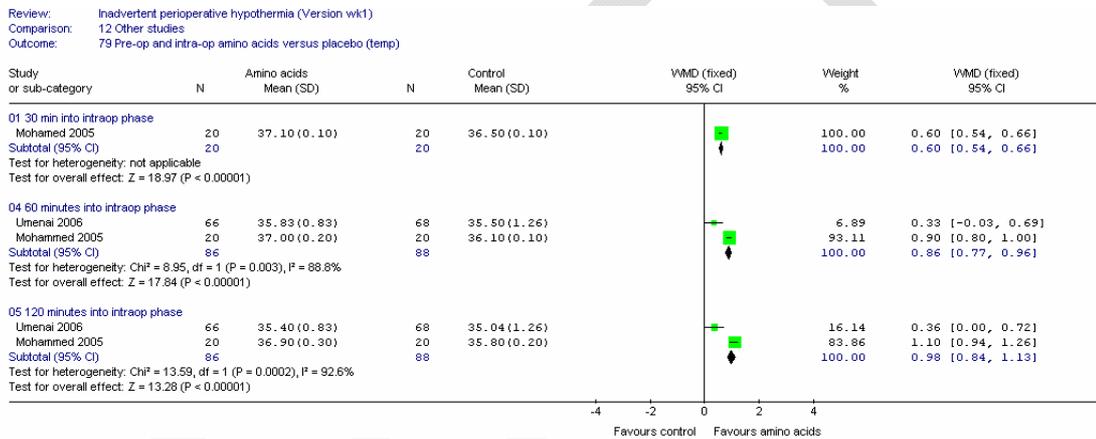
39 Umenai (2006) studied 134 patients and compared an infusion of amino acids, started 2 hours  
40 before induction of anaesthesia and continued for 6 hours, versus an infusion of saline for the

1 same length of time. Umenai (2006) reported that core temperatures became significantly  
 2 higher in the amino acid group than in the saline group from 150 minutes after induction of  
 3 anaesthesia until the end of surgery ( $p=0.005$ ).

4  
 5 These studies were combined in a meta-analysis, but there was significant heterogeneity,  
 6 possibly explained by the different interventions (warmed amino acids in Mohammed 2005  
 7 and unwarmed amino acids in Umenai 2006) combined with the different comparators (no  
 8 placebo in Mohammed 2005; and placebo infusion in Umenai 2006).

9  
 10 For the economic analyses it was decided to use the Umenai (2006) results, which may have  
 11 been a conservative estimate.

12 **Figure 8: Core temperature**

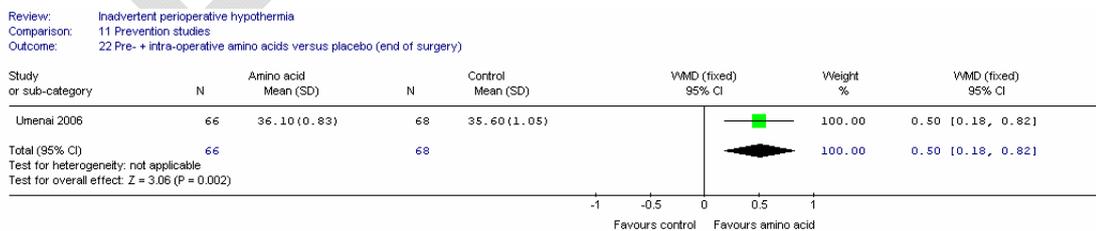


14 NB: Scale -4 to +4

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 17 **2. Temperature at the end of surgery**

18 Umenai (2006) reported that, at the end of surgery, there was a significantly higher mean  
 19 temperature for the amino acids group: MD 0.50 (95% CI 0.18, 0.82). The confidence interval  
 20 is fairly wide, and there was some loss to follow-up.

21  
 22 **Figure 9: Core temperature at end of surgery**

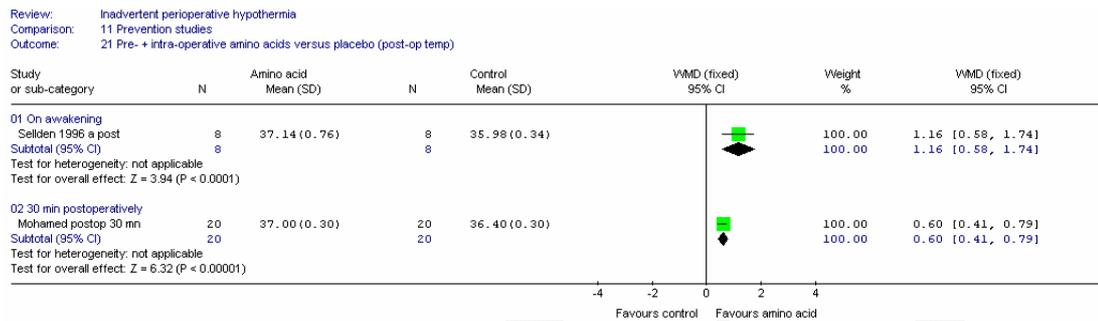


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 25 **3. Postoperative temperatures**

26 Two studies recorded postoperative core temperatures: Seldén (1996a) recorded the change  
 27 in temperature at awakening in 16 patients; Mohamed (2005) gave the temperatures at 30

minutes postoperatively in 40 patients. For Selldén (1996a) there was a large statistically significant difference postoperatively: MD 1.16 (95% CI 0.58, 1.74) for a control group temperature of 35.98°C (i.e. the control group was only just hypothermic); the confidence interval is wide, however. Mohamed (2005) showed a significant difference, 30 minutes post extubation, of 0.60 (95% CI 0.41, 0.79) for a control group temperature of 36.40°C, i.e. not hypothermic).

**Figure 10: Core temperature postoperatively**



NB: Scale -4 to +4

#### 4. Time in ICU

One study (Umenai 2006) in 134 patients undergoing off pump CABG operations, recorded the time spent in ICU, given as median values. The intervention and control groups were in ICU for respectively 20 hours (95% CI 19.5, 38.4) versus 44 (95% CI 21, 45) hours. This was a statistically significant difference (p=0.001). However, we note that there were some drop outs in this study.

#### 5. Duration of hospital stay

Umenai (2006) reported that there was a significant difference (p=0.004) in the median length of stay in hospital for patients undergoing off pump CABG operations: amino acid group stay was 10 days (95% CI 9, 11) and the control group was 12 days (95% CI 11, 13).

Selldén (1999) reported the duration of hospital stay for 75 patients treated across two studies with amino acids or saline. This was significantly longer (MD 1.80 days [95%CI 0.26, 3.34]) for the control group, favouring the amino acids. We note that this study had poor methodological quality and had a mixture of protocols across different phases. The results are considered very cautiously.

#### SPINAL ANAESTHESIA

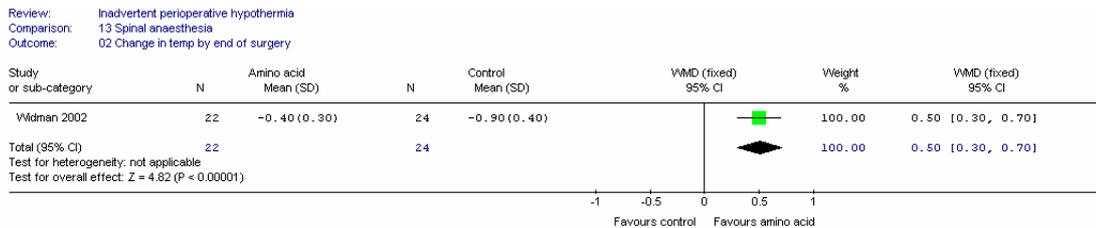
The study using spinal anaesthesia (Widman 2002) assessed amino acids for 1 hour prior to and during hip arthroplasty. The outcomes were temperature at start of operation (i.e. after 1 hour of infusion) and at the end of surgery (120 minutes for the amino acid group and 135 minutes, reported as not significantly different, in the control group).

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**1. Change in temperature at the end of surgery**

For this study, the difference in temperature at baseline was significant (+0.3°C). The difference in effect size was not five times greater than the baseline difference, so these results were considered to be flawed.

**Figure 11: Change in temperature at the end of surgery**



8  
9

**A2. Sugars**

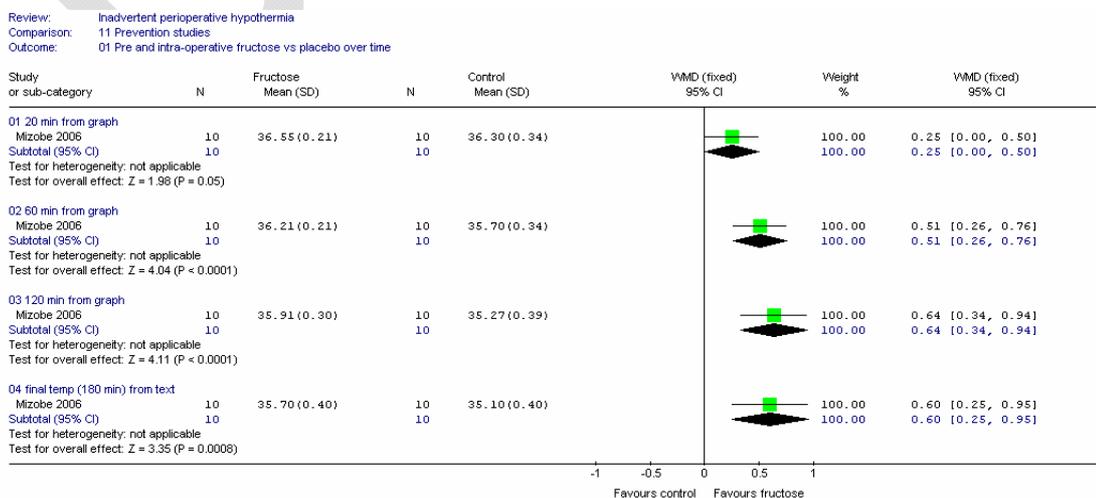
**GENERAL ANAESTHESIA**

Mizobe (2006) compared a fructose infusion (0.5 g/kg/h; not stated to be warmed) with a saline infusion, starting 3 hours before surgery and continuing for a further hour after induction, in 40 patients, but core temperatures were measured in only 20 of these (random selection). The theatre temperature was 24°C; patients were covered with a cotton sheet preoperatively and with drapes during surgery.

**1. Core temperatures**

The core (oesophageal) temperature was measured at various intraoperative times. The temperature was significantly higher in the fructose group at all times. At 3 hours after induction of anaesthesia (i.e. 2 hours after the end of the infusions), the values were given in the text (not extracted from a graph) and for this time the mean difference was 0.60°C (95%CI 0.25, 0.95). The confidence interval is fairly wide.

**Figure 12: Core temperature**



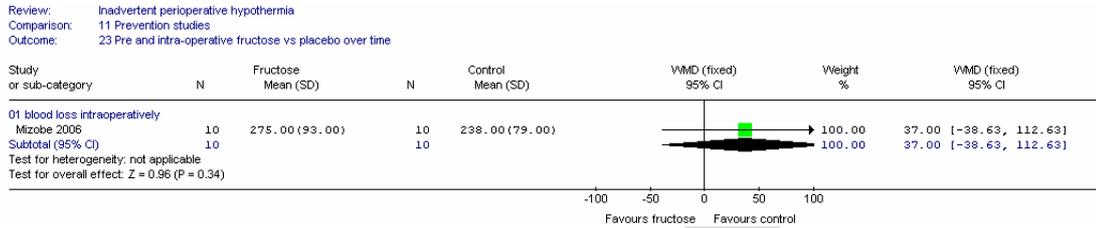
26

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**2. Blood loss**

Mizobe (2006) reported intraoperative blood loss in 20 patients. There was no significant difference between interventions, but the confidence interval is wide.

**Figure 13: Intraoperative blood loss**



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**IV. Cross-phase comparison**

**A1. Amino acids**

Selldén (1996c) compared the effect in 16 patients of an amino acid solution given 1 hour before and 1 hour during anaesthesia versus an amino acid solution given two hours before general anaesthesia. We note that this comparison had one non-randomised group and is thus equivalent to a non-randomised study, and that there was a large baseline difference in core temperature (0.4°C), which was comparable with the effect size. Consequently, the study is and results are not given.

## 11 TREATMENT

Clinical Question: Are warming devices/mechanisms effective in treating IPH in adults in the different phases of perioperative care?

### SELECTION CRITERIA

Selection criteria were as outlined in the general methods section.

#### Types of intervention

The following interventions were to be considered:

1. Active warming mechanisms

The following types of warming mechanisms were considered under active warming:

- a. Forced air warming
- b. Electric blanket
- c. Water mattress
- d. Radiant heating
- e. Warmed blankets
- f. Heating gel pad.

2. Thermal insulation mechanisms

The following mechanisms were considered under thermal insulation:

- a. Reflective blanket
- b. Reflective clothing.

Other types of heat loss prevention, such as cotton sheets, cotton blankets, or wool blankets were considered to be 'usual care', unless the blankets were actively warmed.

#### Perioperative phase

Treatment of hypothermia could take place in any of the perioperative phases, but the phases were treated separately.

#### Types of comparison

The following comparisons were to be included:

- 1 Warming versus usual care
- 2 Active Warming Type 1 versus type 2
- 3 Active warming type 1 plus thermal insulation type 1 versus active warming type 2 plus thermal insulation type 1

- 1 4 Thermal insulation type 1 versus type 2
- 2 5 Type 1 plus Type 2 versus type 1
- 3 6 Duration 1 versus duration 2
- 4 7 Temperature setting 1 versus setting 2
- 5 8 Active warming versus thermal insulation.

6

7 Subgroup analyses were planned by type of warming device, power, duration of warming and  
8 degree of hypothermia.

9

### 10 **Characteristics of clinical studies included in the review (Appendix C)**

11 Eleven studies were included in this review (Alfonsi 2003; Bredahl 1995; Giuffre 1991;  
12 Hershey 1997; Jackson 1997; Karayan 1996; Lennon 1990; Stevens 2000; Summers 1990;  
13 Vanni 2003; Weyland 1994).

14

15 An additional study (Bräuer 2004) was included as indirect evidence, and is presented  
16 separately. The indirect population comprised cardiac patients, in the post-bypass stage after  
17 rewarming, who then underwent inadvertent hypothermia ('after drop').

18

19 The three studies excluded from the review are listed in Appendix E.

20

### 21 **Study details**

22 A total of 676 patients were included in the eleven studies. There were 50 additional patients  
23 in the indirect study, Bräuer (2004). The total number of patients in each study ranged from 18  
24 (Alfonsi 2003) to 144 (Hershey 1997). Eight studies had fewer than 20 patients in the  
25 intervention arm (Alfonsi 2003; Bredahl 1995; Jackson 1997; Karayan 1996; Lennon 1990;  
26 Vanni 2003; Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect) and two of these had less than 20 patients  
27 overall (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan 1996).

28

29 No studies were conducted in the UK, four studies were conducted in the US (Giuffre 1991;  
30 Hershey 1997; Lennon 1990; Summers 1990); two studies in France (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan  
31 1996); two in Germany (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect), and one each in Denmark  
32 (Bredahl 1995); Brazil (Vanni 2003); South Africa (Jackson 1997) and Australia (Stevens  
33 2000).

34

35 Mainly the studies did not state the source of funding (if any), but one (Summers 1990) was  
36 part funded by grant from Augustine Medical (forced air warming device manufacturer).

37

38 Five studies had more than two randomised groups: Giuffre (1991) had three arms; Hershey  
39 (1997) had three arms; Vanni (2003) had three arms; Weyland (1994) had three arms; Bräuer  
40 (2004, indirect) had five arms. Overall there were 18 direct study comparisons and ten indirect

1 comparisons.

2  
3 One study (Vanni 2003) treated the patients in the intraoperative phase or in both pre and  
4 intraoperative phases. One study treated the patients in the intraoperative phase (Karayan  
5 1996). The other nine studies investigated treatment of IPH in PACU or ICU.

### 7 **Participants**

8 The age of the patients ranged from 16 to 86 years with a mean age (where given) ranging  
9 from 31 to 66 years; one study only included patients over 50 years (Bredahl 1995), and one  
10 study excluded patients over 60 years (Hershey 1997). Two studies were carried out  
11 exclusively in men (Alfonsi 2003; Bräuer 2004, indirect); one study was exclusively in women  
12 (Vanni 2003). Two studies did not state the gender (Karayan 1996; Lennon 1990). BMI was  
13 not stated in any study, although two (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan 1996) reported that none of the  
14 patients were obese, and two studies (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect) stated that the  
15 body weight was within -10% and +30% of normal.

16  
17 Three studies included patients with ASA I to II status (Alfonsi 2003; Bredahl 1995; Vanni  
18 2003); one studies had patients with ASA II to III (Karayan 1996) and one had patients with  
19 ASA I to III (Weyland 1994). In the indirect study, Bräuer (2004), the patients were ASA III and  
20 the other studies did not state the ASA status.

21  
22 Generally, the studies gave insufficient information about the surgery and anaesthesia. Eight  
23 studies reported the type of surgery:

- 24 • Alfonsi (2003) was orthopaedic;
- 25 • Vanni (2003) and Karayan (1996) were abdominal;
- 26 • Hershey (1997) was predominantly gynaecological;
- 27 • Bredahl (1995) was major thoracic, abdominal (mainly) and orthopaedic;
- 28 • Stevens (2000) was general, orthopaedic, urological, vascular and gynaecological;
- 29 • Weyland (1994) was major orthopaedic, gynaecological and urological;
- 30 • The indirect study was cardiothoracic.

31  
32 The grade of surgery was classified only for two studies (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan 1996) and  
33 was grade 2.

34  
35 Five studies stated the surgery was elective (Bredahl 1995; Karayan 1996; Vanni 2003;  
36 Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect). Six studies stated the duration of surgery:

- 37 • Alfonsi (2003) was 87(SD 37) minutes;
- 38 • Bredahl (1995) was 165 (120 to 320) minutes;
- 39 • Hershey (1997) had mean durations of 184 and 233 minutes;
- 40 • Summers (1990) had 138 and 173 minutes;

- 1 • Vanni (2003) was 180 minutes;
- 2 • Karayan (1996) had 278 and 312 minutes;
- 3 • Stevens (2000) only included patients having operations lasting more than 20 minutes.

4  
5 Patients had general anaesthesia in seven studies (Hershey 1997; Lennon 1990; Jackson  
6 1997; Karayan 1996; Vanni 2003; Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect); combined general  
7 and regional in two (Alfonsi 2003; Bredahl 1995), and a mixture of general and/or regional in  
8 one (Stevens 2000). Two studies did not mention the type of anaesthesia (Giuffre 1991;  
9 Summers 1990). Duration of anaesthesia was more than 60 minutes in six studies (Alfonsi  
10 2003; Bredahl 1995; Giuffre 1991; Summers 1990; Vanni 2003; Bräuer 2004, indirect) and not  
11 stated in the rest.

12  
13 Patients were included if they had hypothermia, as defined by the authors, however, the  
14 degree and definition of hypothermia varied, as did the phase in which it occurred and the  
15 means of measuring temperature.

16  
17 Four studies recorded the core temperature at the tympanic membrane (Alfonsi 2003; Stevens  
18 2000; Summers 1990; Vanni 2003); one recorded temperature at the pulmonary artery  
19 (Karayan 1996); two gave oesophageal temperatures (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect);  
20 two rectal (Bredahl 1995; Jackson 1997) and three oral (Giuffre 1991; Hershey 1997; Lennon  
21 1990). The GDG regarded rectal and oral temperatures as only partially adequate measures  
22 of core temperature, except when sufficient detail was given for the measurement of oral  
23 temperatures and so these studies were included but regarded with caution. Hershey (1997)  
24 stated that the oral thermometer measurements correlated moderately well with tympanic  
25 temperatures in a previous study.

26  
27 Two studies (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan 1996) described mild hypothermia (35.0 to 35.9°C); one  
28 (Giuffre 1991) was moderate (34.0 to 34.9°C); two were mild and moderate (Stevens 2000  
29 excluded patients less than 34.5°C and Vanni 2003 reported mean temperatures between  
30 34.9 and 35.2°C) and the rest did not state explicitly.

31  
32 In the Karayan (1996) study, patients in the intervention group received forced air warming  
33 when their intraoperative core temperature dropped below 36.0°C; in practice, this was two  
34 hours after induction. The Vanni (2003) study was not designed as a trial to treat IPH, rather  
35 the intention was to prevent IPH. However all groups were hypothermic before forced air  
36 warming started. The authors attributed this drop in temperature to the premedication (7.5mg  
37 midazolam IM, 30 minutes before admission to the theatre, at which time patients were  
38 randomised to treatments). The GDG was not wholly convinced by this explanation and noted  
39 that this dose and route of administration is not used in the UK. The other studies had  
40 inclusion criteria for patients having temperatures below 36.0°C.

1  
2 The three studies measuring tympanic membrane temperatures included patients with  
3 temperatures less than 36.0°C (Summers 1990; Stevens 2000 – implied inclusion) or had a  
4 final intraoperative temperature of 35.1°C. The studies recording oesophageal temperatures  
5 included patients with temperatures less than 35.5°C; those with rectal temperatures had to  
6 be less than 35.5°C (Bredahl 1995) or 35.9°C (Jackson 1997). One of the studies measuring  
7 oral temperatures required an inclusion temperature of 35°C or less (Guiffre 1991; no places  
8 of decimal), another was less than 35.0°C (Lennon 1990) and Hershey (1997) had an entry  
9 requirement of less than 36°C (no places of decimal).

10  
11 Two studies had patients who were ventilated in ICU (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect);  
12 one study had about 30% of the patients ventilated (Hershey 1997); two studies had no  
13 patients ventilated (Alfonsi 2003; Lennon 1990 [exclusion criterion]). One other study stated  
14 the patients were in ICU (Jackson 1997).

## 15 16 **Interventions**

17 There was a range of interventions used:

- 18 • Forced air warming device in nine studies, all had full body covering unless otherwise  
19 stated:
    - 20 ○ Bair Hugger® maximum setting, 43°C, (Alfonsi 2003; Karayan 1996 (upper body  
21 only) and Stevens 2000 (both said to be 'high' setting); and Bräuer 2004, indirect);
    - 22 ○ Warm Touch® 42°C to 46°C (Jackson 1997; Vanni 2003);
    - 23 ○ Warm Touch® maximum setting (Bräuer 2004, indirect);
    - 24 ○ Bair Hugger® at a setting of 57°C, which was said to be medium<sup>#</sup> (Guiffre 1991);
    - 25 ○ Bair Hugger® at an unclear setting (Lennon 1990; Summers 1990 (coverage not  
26 stated).
  - 27 • Electric blanket (50W), used until the temperature reached 37°C (Weyland 1994)
  - 28 • Radiant heaters in five comparisons:
    - 29 ○ Aragona Thermal Ceilings CTC X overhead heater, power setting 1kW, with the  
30 heater placed 75cm above the patient's chest (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect);
    - 31 ○ Aragona Thermal Ceilings CTC X overhead heater, power setting 500W, about 60cm  
32 above the chest (Bredahl 1995);
    - 33 ○ Radiant heater with two radiant lights placed 71cm above the patient's skin (Guiffre  
34 1991);
    - 35 ○ Self-assembled combination of four halogen lamps (each 160W) placed 65cm above  
36 the patient's body surface (indirect Bräuer 2004).
  - 37 • Head covering in one study (Hershey 1997)
    - 38 ○ Warmed, but not said to be changed in Hershey (1997).
- 39

---

<sup>#</sup> Presumably this was a misprint and should have read 37°C

1 The temperature settings and durations of warming were as follows:

2

3 The Vanni (2003) study gave the patients forced air warming either 60 minutes before  
4 induction and during the intraoperative period, or intraoperatively only. Karayan (1996) gave  
5 forced air warming intraoperatively, two hours after induction of anaesthesia. Most of the other  
6 studies using forced air warming devices warmed the patients until they reached a specified  
7 temperature, but Summers (1990) seemed to restrict the warming period to one hour, and the  
8 durations for Lennon (1990) and Jackson (1997) were 90 minutes and three hours  
9 respectively.

10

11 Mostly the duration of radiant heating was until a specified temperature was reached, but the  
12 Bredahl (1995) study heated the patients for 2 hours and the power was decreased if the skin  
13 temperature exceeded 37°C.

14

### 15 **Comparators**

16 Several studies used heated blankets as a comparator. Two (Guiffre 1991; Stevens 2000)  
17 specified that the blankets were changed on a regular basis (e.g. every 15 minutes); one  
18 changed the blankets as needed (Summers 1990) and the others did not state if the blankets  
19 were changed (Hershey 1997; Lennon 1996). One study (Lennon 1996) stated that the  
20 blankets were warmed to 37°C, one reported that the blankets were stored at 66 to 77°C  
21 (Giuffre 1991) and the others did not report the temperature. The GDG noted that the  
22 procedure of changing blankets was not carried out in the UK.

23

1           **Comparisons**

2           The following comparisons were reported:

3

4           **I. Intervention in the preoperative phase**

- 5           • Active warming (preoperatively) plus active warming (intraoperatively) versus active  
6           warming (intraoperatively) (Vanni 2003) [cross-phase].

7

8           **II. Intervention in the pre and intraoperative phases**

- 9           • Active warming versus usual care (Vanni 2003).

10

11           **III. Intervention in the intraoperative phase**

- 12           • Active warming versus usual care (Karayan 1996; Vanni 2003).

13

14           **IV. Intervention in the postoperative phase**

- 15           • Active warming versus usual care (Alfonsi 2003; Jackson 1997; Weyland 1994; Bräuer  
16           2004, indirect [4 comparisons]);
- 17           • Active warming 1 versus Active warming 2 (Lennon 1990; Summers 1990; Weyland 1994;  
18           Bräuer 2004, indirect [6]);
- 19           • Active warming 1 + other warming mechanism versus active warming 2 + other warming  
20           mechanism (Giuffre 1991 [3]; Stevens 2000);
- 21           • Active warming versus thermal insulation (Bredahl 1995);
- 22           • Thermal insulation + other warming mechanism versus other warming mechanism  
23           (Hershey 1997 [2]);
- 24           • Thermal insulation 1+ other warming mechanism versus thermal insulation 2 + other  
25           warming mechanism (Hershey 1997).

26

27           There were no studies that simply investigated a thermal insulation mechanism versus usual  
28           care.

29

30           More specifically the comparisons were:

31           **I. Preoperative phase**

32           **A. Active warming versus usual care**

33           **A1. Active warming (preoperatively) plus active warming (intraoperatively) versus**  
34           **active warming (intraoperatively) [cross-phase]**

- 35           • Forced air warming for 60 minutes pre-induction (pre) plus forced air warming (intra)  
36           versus usual care (pre) + forced air warming (intra) (Vanni 2003)

37

38           **II. Pre and intraoperative phase**

39           **A. Active warming versus usual care**

- Forced air warming (full body) versus usual care (cotton sheet), from 60 minutes pre-induction; all patients received room temperature fluids at 8 to 10ml/kg/h (Vanni 2003).

### III. Intraoperative phase

#### A. Active warming versus usual care

- Forced air warming (full body) versus usual care (cotton sheet) from induction
  - All patients received room temperature fluids at 8 to 10ml/kg/h (Vanni 2003).
- Forced air warming (upper body) versus usual care (warm cotton sheet) from when the patients became hypothermic (2 hours after induction)
  - All patients received warmed fluids, at a volume of 3.1 and 3.8 litre (Karayan 1996).

### IV. Postoperative phase

#### A. Active warming versus usual care

- Forced air warming versus usual care (two direct and two indirect studies):
  - Full body forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®, 43°C) versus cotton blanket (Alfonsi 2003);
  - Forced air warming blanket from neck down (Warm Touch®, 42 to 46°C) versus two cotton blankets (Jackson 1997);
  - Full body forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®, max setting) versus standard polyester filled hospital blanket; insulation value 1.7 clo (Bräuer 2004, indirect);
  - Full body forced air warming blanket (Warm Touch®, max setting) versus standard polyester filled hospital blanket; insulation value 1.7 clo (Bräuer 2004, indirect).
- Radiant heater versus usual care
  - Radiant heater (Aragona Thermal Ceilings; 1kW, 75cm from chest) versus standard hospital blanket (Weyland 1994);
  - Radiant heater (Aragona Thermal Ceilings; 1kW, 75cm from chest) versus standard polyester filled hospital blanket; insulation value 1.7 clo (Bräuer 2004, indirect);
  - Radiant heater (self assembled): 4 Hydrosun 500 halogen lamps (4x160W; 60cm from chest) versus standard polyester filled hospital blanket; insulation value 1.7 clo (Bräuer 2004, indirect).
- Electric heating blanket versus usual care (standard hospital blanket; Weyland 1994).

#### B. Active warming 1 versus active warming 2

##### B1. Active warming 1 versus active warming 2 (with no additional warming)

- Forced air warming blanket versus warmed blankets (three studies):
  - Forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®; 43°C) versus cotton blankets warmed to 37°C; not stated if changed systematically (Lennon 1990);
  - Forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®; no details) versus warmed blankets changed as needed (temperature not stated) (Summers 1990).
- Radiant heater versus electric blanket (one study):

- Radiant heater (Thermal Ceilings; 1kW; 75cm from chest) versus electric blanket (50W, placed between two standard hospital blankets) (Weyland 1994)

**B2. Active warming 1 versus active warming 2 (with additional warming mechanisms in both groups)**

- Forced air warming versus warmed blanket (two direct and two indirect studies)
  - Forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®) versus warmed blanket (changed every 15 minutes, temperature not stated) (Stevens 2000)
    - Both groups had a head covering, which was not said to be warmed;
  - Forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®; medium, presumed 37°C) versus warmed cotton blanket (changed every 20 minutes, stored 66 to 77°C)
    - Both groups had a warmed head covering which was replaced every 20 minutes (Giuffre 1991);
- Radiant heater versus warmed blankets (one study)
  - Radiant heater ( 2 radiant lights 71cm from skin) versus warmed cotton blanket (changed every 20 minutes, stored 66 to 77°C)
    - Both groups had a warmed head covering which was replaced every 20 minutes (Giuffre 1991).

**C. Active warming 1 (subtype 1) versus active warming 1 (subtype 2)**

- Forced air warming blanket 1 versus forced air warming blanket 2
  - Full body forced air warming blanket (Bair Hugger®, max setting) versus full body forced air warming blanket (Warm Touch®, max setting) (Bräuer 2004, indirect);
- Radiant heater 1 versus radiant heater 2
  - Radiant heater (Aragona Thermal Ceilings; 1kW, 75cm from chest) versus radiant heater (self assembled): 4 Hydrosun 500 halogen lamps (4x160W; 60cm from patient's chest) (Bräuer 2004, indirect).

**D. Active warming versus thermal insulation**

- Radiant heater (Thermal Ceiling; 500W; about 65cm above body surface) versus reflective blanket (type not stated) plus 3 cotton blankets (Bredahl 1995)

**E. Thermal insulation versus usual care**

**E1. Thermal insulation versus usual care with active warming in both groups**

- Reflective blanket (type not stated) plus reflective head covering (thermal insulation) versus usual care (Hershey 1997):
  - Both groups had two warmed thermal blankets (not stated to be changed; temperature not stated; active warming).

**F. Thermal insulation 1 versus thermal insulation 2, with active warming in both groups**

1           **F1. Thermal insulation 1 versus thermal insulation 2, with active warming in both**  
2           **groups**

- 3           • Reflective blanket plus reflective head covering (thermal insulation) versus reflective  
4           blanket (thermal insulation) (Hershey 1997):  
5           ○ Both groups had two warmed thermal blankets (not stated to be changed;  
6           temperature not stated; active warming).

7  
8           **Outcomes**

9           The studies measured the following outcomes:

10  
11           **Primary outcomes:**

12           Two studies recorded the number of patients with IPH (Karayan 1996; Vanni 2003), but  
13           several measured the core temperature at different times. The GDG decided that the most  
14           useful outcome measures, where given, were the rate of increase in temperature and the time  
15           taken to reach normothermia.

16  
17           Four studies recorded the core temperature at the tympanic membrane (Alfonsi 2003; Stevens  
18           2000; Summers 1990; Vanni 2003); one measured pulmonary artery temperatures (Karayan  
19           1996); two measured oesophageal temperatures (Weyland 1994; Bräuer 2004, indirect); two  
20           rectal (Bredahl 1995; Jackson 1997) and three oral (Giuffre 1991; Hershey 1997; Lennon  
21           1990).

22  
23           **METHODOLOGICAL QUALITY OF INCLUDED STUDIES**

24           An adequate method of sequence generation was recorded in four studies (Alfonsi 2003,  
25           computer generated; Giuffre 1991, shuffled envelopes; Hershey 1997, random numbers table;  
26           Summers 1990, coin toss); there was an inadequate method in one study (Stevens 2000;  
27           alternation) and the method was unclear in the remaining studies.

28  
29           A partially adequate method of allocation concealment was reported in three studies (Alfonsi  
30           2003: sequentially numbered opaque envelopes; Lennon 1990, sealed envelopes; Vanni  
31           2003: sequentially numbered opaque envelopes); allocation concealment was inadequate in  
32           one study (Stevens 2000; alternation) and unclear in the remaining studies.

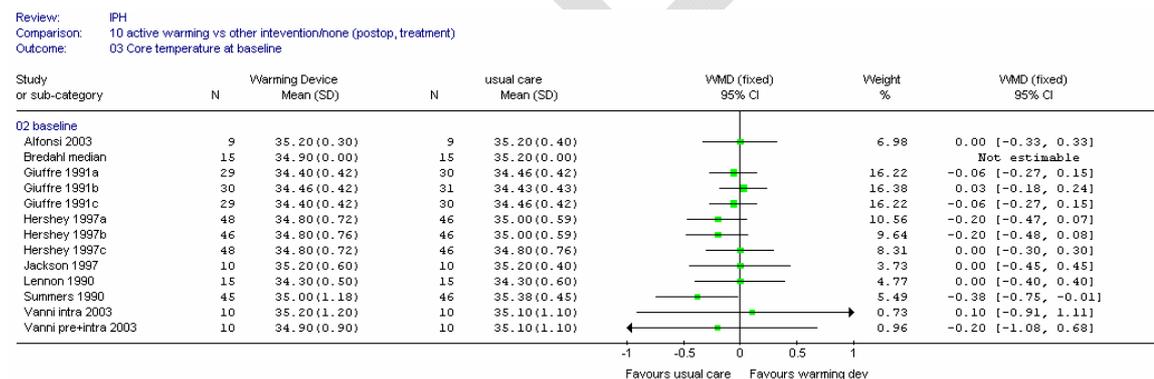
33  
34           Two studies reported that the outcome assessors were blinded for shivering (Alfonsi 2003;  
35           Vanni 2003) and two that they were not (Hershey 1997; Jackson 1997), the others did not say.  
36           It was unlikely that the patients were blinded, except for studies in ICU (Weyland 1994; Bräuer  
37           2004, indirect).

38  
39           Most of the studies demonstrated baseline comparability. Two studies were not comparable  
40           for the length of time in the theatre. In Summers (1990), the warming group was longer by 35

minutes, and in Hershey (1997) the reflective blanket group mean was 32 and 49 minutes respectively longer than the reflective blanket + hat and control groups. One study (Stevens 2000) was not comparable for the proportion of orthopaedic patients (more in control group: 3.6 versus 13.2%).

For the preoperative and intraoperative treatment studies (Karayan 1996; Vanni 2003) the temperature at baseline was comparable between the groups. For the postoperative treatment studies, the temperature on arrival in PACU/ICU was reported for all studies except Stevens (2000); Weyland (1994); Bräuer (2004), indirect. All except Summers (1990) showed comparable temperatures at baseline (Figure 1). This study had a significantly lower mean baseline temperature on arrival in PACU for the intervention group (0.38°C). We note that two of the comparisons in Hershey (1997) showed a difference in baseline of 0.2°C, but this was not statistically significant, and there was a difference in the median of 0.3°C for Bredahl (1995), which the authors said 'did not yield intergroup differences'.

**Figure 1: Baseline core temperatures**



Three studies described an *a-priori* power calculation (Alfonsi 2003; Bredahl 1995; Hershey 1997). In Alfonsi (2003), the power calculation required 9 patients per group to achieve a difference of 0.4°C. The Bredahl (1995) study required 13 patients in each group to achieve a core temperature change of 0.5°C. The Hershey (1997) study calculated a sample size of 48 per group was required to detect a medium effect size of F=0.25.

One study reported more than 20% of dropouts for one outcome (6/15 (40%) of the forced air group did not have the temperature recorded at 90 minutes) (Lennon 1990). In the Stevens (2000) study 3/60 (5%) of the forced air group and 4/60 (7%) of the control group had incomplete data. The Hershey (1997) study had missing data for 2/48 (4%) in the reflective blankets and reflective blanket + hat groups.

Overall, three studies were regarded as having potential for bias (Stevens 2000, allocation concealment; Hershey 1997 and Summers 1990, baseline comparability). These were treated with caution and examined in sensitivity analyses. The Lennon (1990) outcome at 90 minutes

was also potentially biased.

**RESULTS**

**I. Treatment in the preoperative phase**

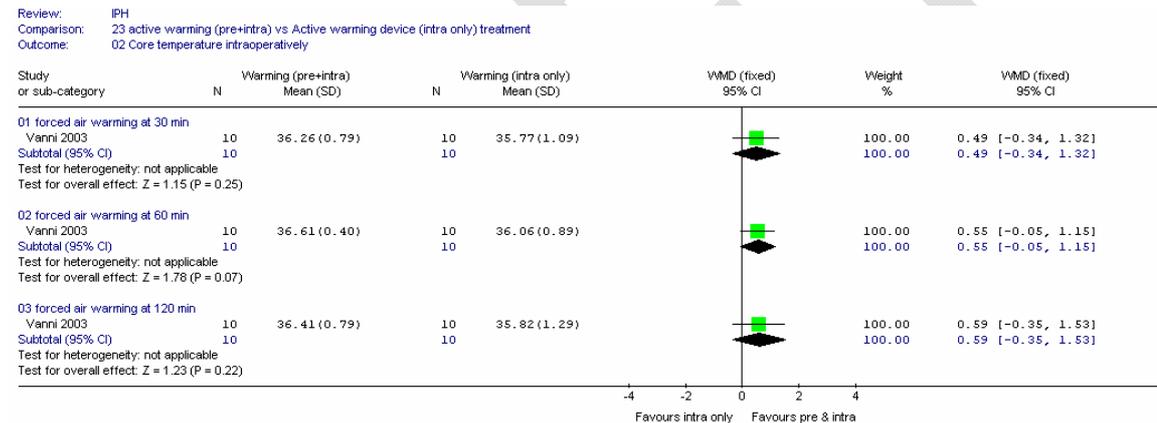
**A. Active warming versus usual care (cross phase comparison)**

One study (Vanni 2002) in 20 patients investigated the additive effect of preoperative warming to intraoperative warming for the treatment of IPH.

**1. Core temperature at different intraoperative times**

Data were extracted from a graph for a series of intraoperative times (Figure 2). The confidence intervals at 30, 60 and 120 minutes were too wide to determine if there was a difference between interventions.

**Figure 2: Core temperature: intraoperative temperature; active warming (pre and intraoperative) versus active warming (intraoperative)**



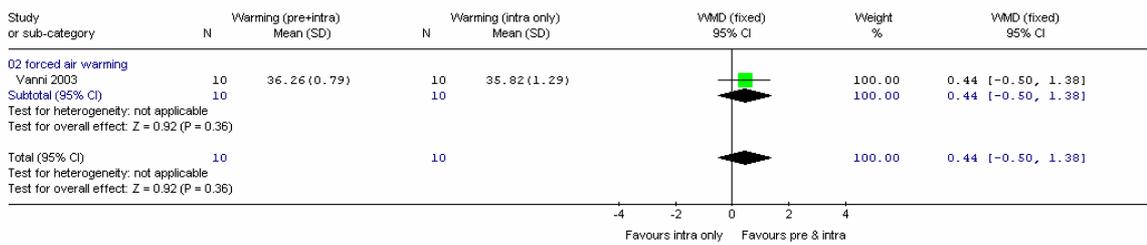
NB: Scale -4 to +4

**2. Core temperature: lowest intraoperative temperature**

The lowest intraoperative measurements were extracted from graphs (Figure 3) and were found at 30 minutes for the pre and intraoperative warming group and 120 minutes for the intraoperative warming group. The confidence interval is too wide to determine if there was a difference between interventions.

**Figure 3: Core temperature: lowest intraoperative temperature; active warming (pre and intraoperative) versus active warming (intraoperative)**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 23 active warming (pre+intra) vs Active warming device (intra only) treatment  
 Outcome: 01 Core temperature lowest temperature intraoperatively



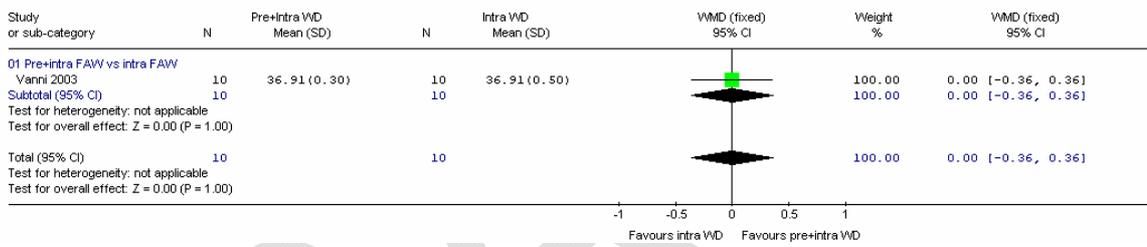
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### 3. Core temperature: end of surgery

At the end of surgery, there was no significant difference in the core temperature at the end of surgery, although the confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 4).

**Figure 4: Core temperature: end of surgery; active warming (pre and intraoperative) versus active warming (intraoperative)**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 21 Active warming versus usual care - treatment - preop  
 Outcome: 02 Core temperature: end of surgery



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### 4. Time to reach 36.0°C

The time to reach 36.0°C was estimated from a graph. For the group that was warmed preoperatively, it took between 60 and 75 minutes for the core temperature to exceed 36.0°C (36.5°C was reached) from 34.9°C. Once the temperature was at 36.5°C it did not fall below 36.0°C intraoperatively during further warming.

### 5. Shivering

Vanni (2003) evaluated shivering as absent, mild (when only detected by ECG artefacts) or severe (when clinically obvious). Only mild shivering was observed in Vanni (2003), and the GDG decided that shivering evaluated with ECG artefacts was not an appropriate method of assessment, because other involuntary movements (e.g. in those with Parkinson's disease) may be recorded. Therefore the incidence of mild shivering was not considered for this study, and there was no incidence of severe shivering in either group.

## II. Treatment in the pre and intraoperative phases

### A. Active warming versus usual care

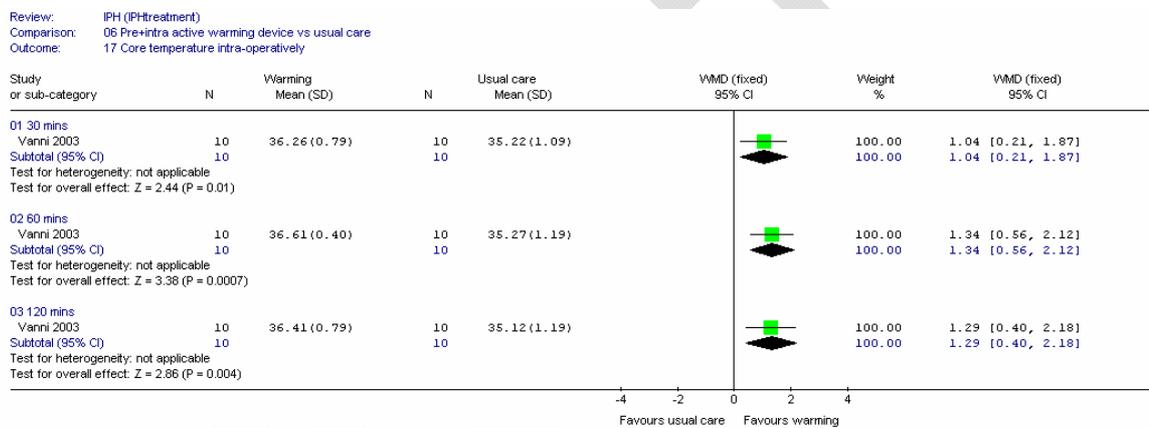
One study (Vanni 2003) in 20 patients compared full body forced air warming in both the pre and intraoperative phases versus usual care for the treatment of IPH; all patients received room temperature fluids at 8 to 10ml/kg/h.

**1. Core temperature at different intraoperative times**

Vanni (2003) reported a series of intraoperative temperature measurements in 20 patients and data were extracted from graphs.

The analysis showed a large significant difference between interventions at all durations, with the patients warmed in the pre and intraoperative phases having higher mean core temperatures than those given usual care. However, at all times the confidence intervals are wide.

**Figure 5: Core temperature intraoperatively – forced air warming in the pre and intraoperative phases versus usual care**

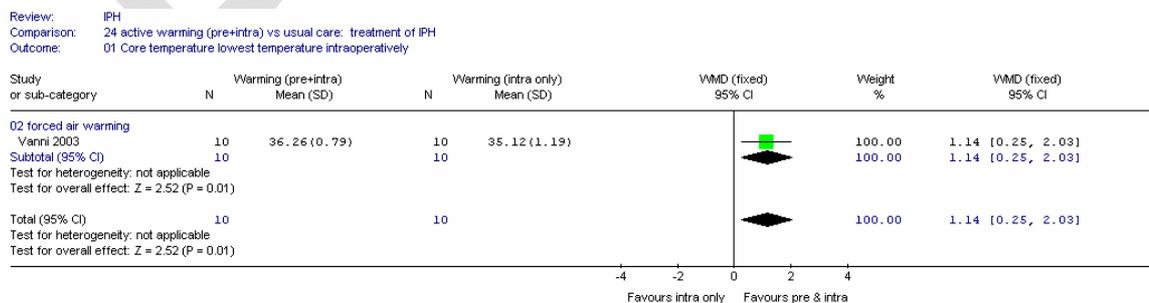


NB: Scale -4 to +4

**2. Core Temperature – lowest intraoperative temperature measured**

The lowest temperatures for the treatment group and control group were at 30 and 120 minutes in Vanni (2003). The confidence interval is wide, but there is a large statistically significant difference between groups; mean difference: 1.14°C (95% CI 0.25, 2.03) for a core temperature of 35.1°C for the control group.

**Figure 6: Lowest intraoperative temperature**

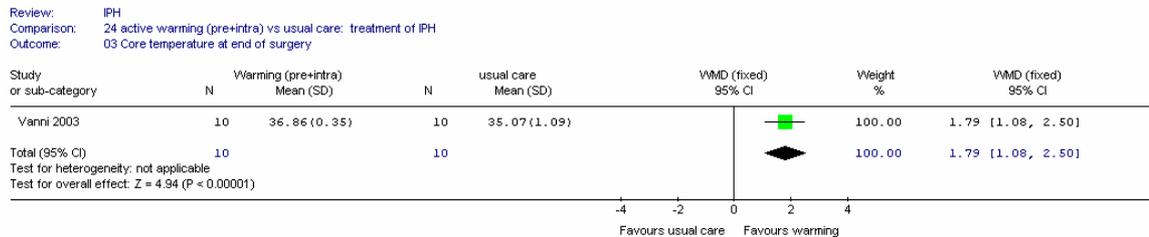


NB: Scale -4 to +4

**3. Core temperature – final intraoperative temperature (Figure 7)**

1 The Vanni (2003) study in 20 patients reported the core temperature at the end of the  
 2 intraoperative period (duration of surgery was 167 minutes (SD 57) for the control group and  
 3 175 min (SD 66) for the intervention group). There is a large statistically significant difference  
 4 between groups; but the confidence interval is wide.  
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6 **Figure 7: Final intraoperative temperature**

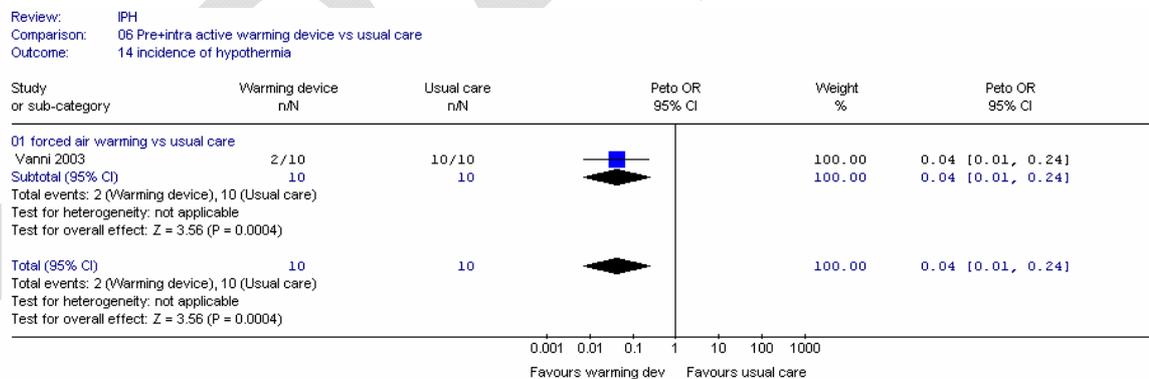


7 NB: scale -4 to +4

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 10 **4. Incidence of hypothermia at the end of anaesthesia**

11 One study (Vanni 2003) in 20 patients reported the incidence of hypothermia (core  
 12 temperature less than 36.0°C) at the end of anaesthesia (duration of surgery was 167 minutes  
 13 (SD 57) for the control group and 175 minutes (SD 66) for the intervention group. There was a  
 14 very large effect, with all patients being hypothermic in the control group and two in the  
 15 intervention group. The confidence interval is very wide.  
 16

17 **Figure 8: Incidence of hypothermia at end of anaesthesia**



18 NB: Scale 0.001 to 1000.

21 **5. Incidence of shivering**

22 Vanni (2003) categorised shivering as absent, mild (when only detected by ECG artefacts) or  
 23 severe (when clinically obvious). Shivering was assessed by an independent observer blinded  
 24 to the study treatment. The GDG suggested that as any involuntary movement (e.g. in those  
 25 with Parkinson's disease) would be recorded by ECG artefacts, this would not be an accurate  
 26 method of assessing shivering. Therefore only shivering classified severe was considered for  
 27 this study. However, no patients experienced severe shivering in this study.  
 28

29 **6. Time to reach 36.0°C**

1 The time to regain a core temperature of 36°C was reported as 57 (SD 15) minutes in the  
2 control group and from 15 to 30 minutes in the three patients in the warming groups (pre plus  
3 intraoperative phase = 2 patients; intraoperative only = 1 patient).

### 5 **III. Treatment in the intraoperative phase**

6 Two studies (Karayan 1996; Vanni 2001) with 38 patients compared the effectiveness of  
7 forced air warming compared with usual care in patients undergoing surgery under general  
8 anaesthesia.

9  
10 In the Karayan (1996) study, 18 patients undergoing abdominal aortic surgery received upper  
11 body (equivalent to 24% of the body surface area) forced air warming (set at 'high'); the forced  
12 air blanket was covered with additional 2 cotton sheets and the usual care group received a  
13 warm cotton sheet. All patients received warmed IV fluids.

14  
15 In the Vanni (2001) study, 20 patients undergoing abdominal surgery lasting at least 2 hours  
16 received forced air warming (42 to 46°C); the blanket covered the thorax, shoulders, arms and  
17 hands and was covered by an additional cotton sheet. Patients in the usual care group  
18 received two cotton sheets covering the thorax, shoulders, arms and hands. All patients  
19 received fluids kept at the theatre temperature (21.5 to 22°C) before infusion.

20  
21 In Vanni (2001), patients were hypothermic before induction of anaesthesia (35.2°C [SD 1.2];  
22 35.1°C [SD 1.1]). In Karayan (1996), both groups were above 36.0°C before induction of  
23 anaesthesia.

24  
25 In the Karayan (1996) study, warming (or no warming) commenced when patient's core  
26 temperature fell below 36.0°C. The core temperature in the patients randomised to the forced  
27 air warming group fell below 36.0°C at 2 hours after induction.

28  
29 The delays in activating the warming system were for the following reasons:

- 30 • Use of a warming system before induction would require a cover on the lower limbs: the  
31 authors considered this a risk in patients with aorto-iliac occlusive disease because of the  
32 risk of burning.
- 33 • Insertion of invasive monitoring in the upper part of the body would have been precluded.

#### 34 35 **1. Core temperature at different intraoperative times**

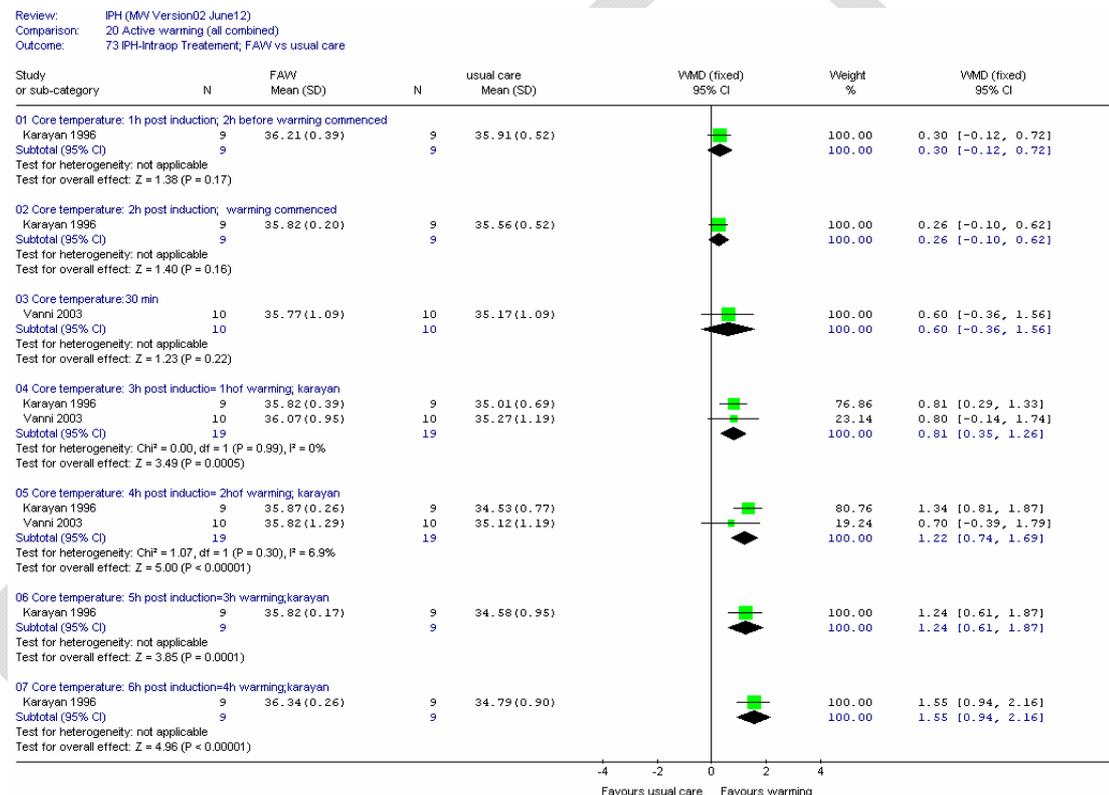
36 For the Karayan (1996) study the following results are presented: 1 hour after induction  
37 (although no warming at this stage - shown for completeness); 2 hours after induction (when  
38 warming commenced); 3 hours after induction (1 hour of warming), 4 hours after induction (2  
39 hours of warming), 5 hours after induction (3 hours of warming) and 6 hours after induction (4

hours of warming). Results for Vanni (2001) are presented at 30 minutes and combined with Karayan (1996) at 1 hour of warming and 2 hours of warming.

The mean difference was not significant at 30 minutes (Vanni 2003). In the meta-analysis of the two studies with 38 patients at 60 and 120 minutes, there was a significantly higher mean temperature for the warmed group; 60 minutes: WMD 0.81°C (95% CI 0.36, 1.26; and 120 minutes: WMD 1.22°C (95% CI 0.74, 1.69). In each case the confidence interval is fairly wide.

At 3 hours and 4 hours, data are available from one study (Karayan 1996) with 18 patients: there was a significantly higher mean temperature for the warmed group, although the confidence interval is wide.

**Figure 9: Core temperature at different intraoperative times**



**2. Incidence of hypothermia**

The Vanni (2003) study reported the incidence of hypothermia on arrival in the recovery room. This showed that all 10 patients in the usual care group had hypothermia, compared with only 1 of 10 in the warmed group.

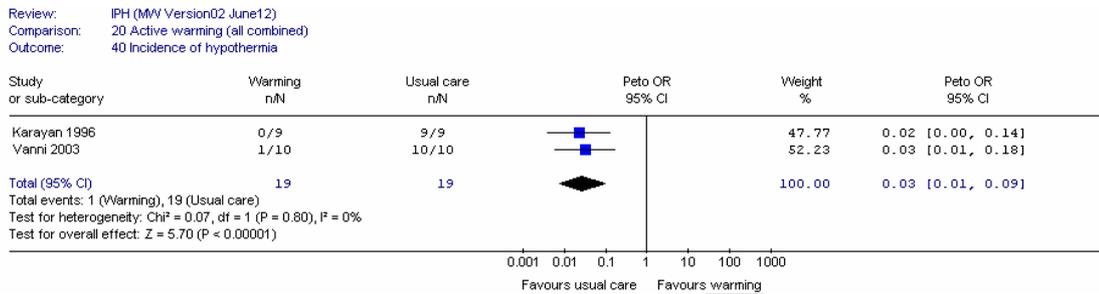
Karayan (1996) also reported that all unwarmed patients were hypothermic at end of surgery. Mean core temperature for the warmed group at the end of surgery was 36.5°C (SD 0.3°C).

Then assuming that none of these patients were hypothermic, the comparison in this study becomes: 0/9 versus 9/9 patients hypothermic, and the two studies can be combined. Meta-

1 analysis showed a highly significantly lower incidence of hypothermia for the warmed group;  
 2 Peto OR 0.03 (95%CI 0.01, 0.09). The confidence interval is very wide.

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**Figure 10: Incidence of hypothermia**



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**3. Time to reach 36.0°C**

8 The time to regain a core temperature of 36.0°C was reported in Vanni (2003) as 57 (SD 15)  
 9 minutes in the control group and from 15 to 30 minutes in the three patients in the warming  
 10 groups (pre and intraoperative phase = 2 patients; intraoperative only = 1 patient).

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In Karayan (1996), the time to regain a core temperature of 36.0°C was around 3 hours in the warmed group while the control group had not regained a core temperature of 36.0°C at the last measurement at 4 hours.

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**IV. Treatment in the postoperative phase**

**A. Active warming versus usual care**

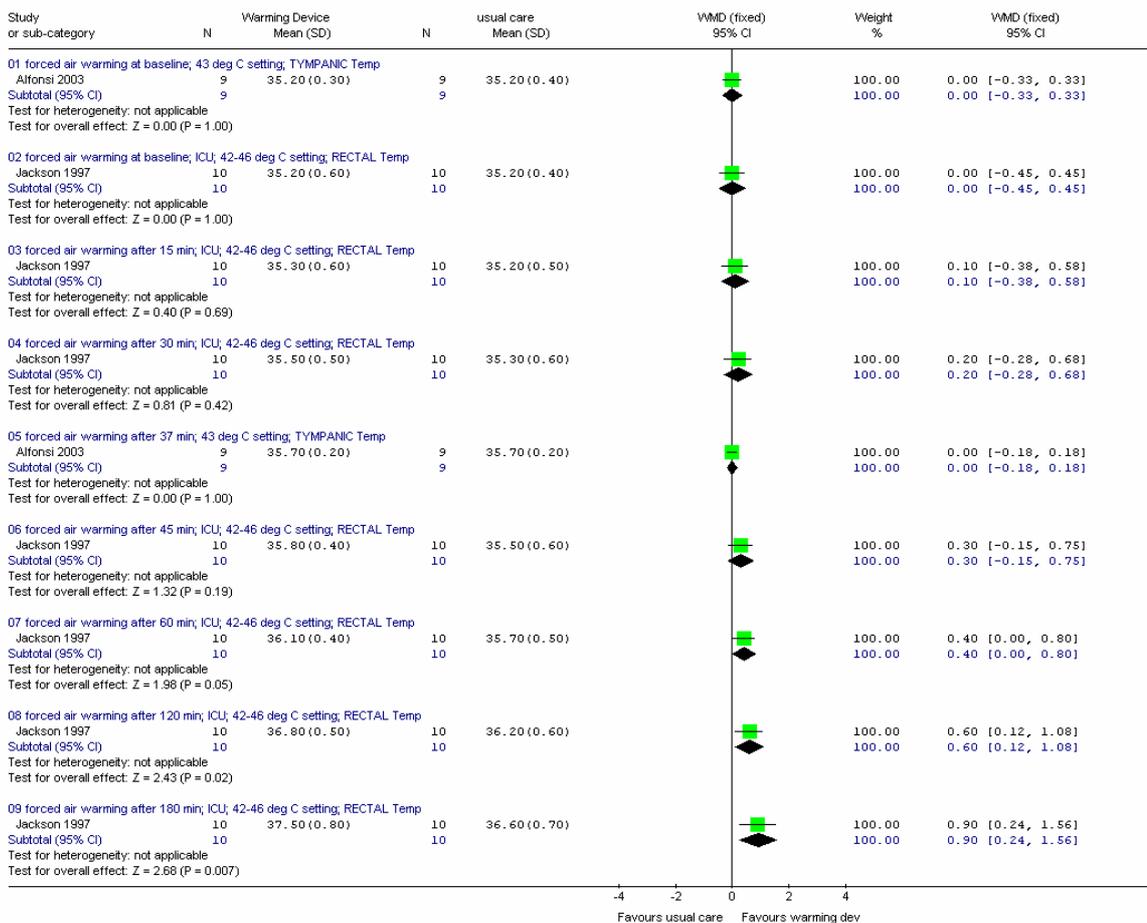
**1. Core temperature in the postoperative period**

19 Two studies with 18 and 20 patients recorded the core temperature (Jackson 1997, rectal;  
 20 Alfonsi 2003, tympanic temperature); temperatures in the Jackson (1997) study were recorded  
 21 at various times postoperatively. Generally, the confidence interval is fairly wide, but at longer  
 22 times (60 minutes and above) the mean temperature is significantly higher for the active  
 23 warming group. At 60 minutes, the mean control group temperature was still below 36.0°C,  
 24 but that for the warmed group was above. It is noted that rectal temperatures were measured  
 25 for the Jackson (1997) study. There was no significant difference in tympanic temperature at  
 26 37 minutes in the Alfonsi (2003) study.

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**Figure 11: Core temperature**

Review: IPH (Version pre 140907)  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 02 Core temperature



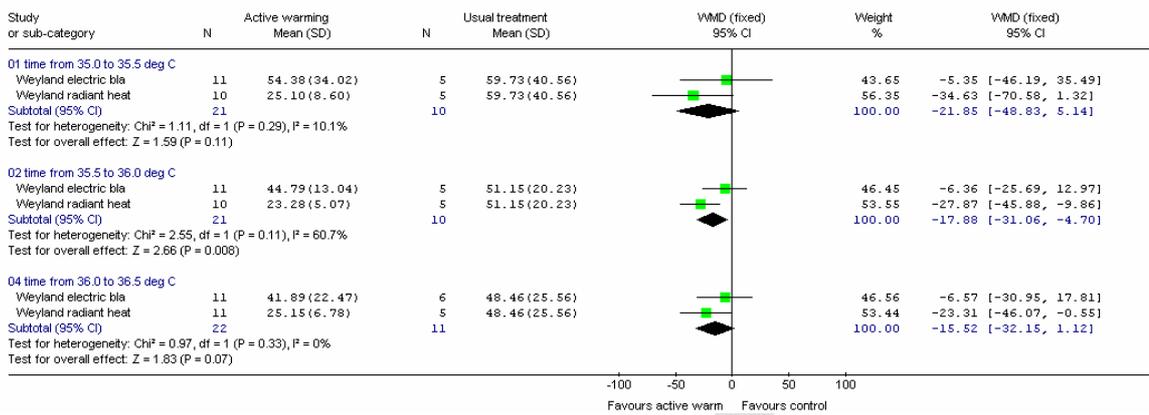
NB: Scale -4 to +4

**2. Time taken to increase the temperature**

One study (Weyland 1994) in ICU patients reported individual patient data for the time taken to increase the temperature from 35.0°C to 35.5°C; from 35.5°C to 36.0°C and from 36.0°C to 36.5°C. These data were extracted from a graph. In this study, 12 patients were allocated to radiant heater, of whom 10 had temperatures that fell to 35.0°C; these patients took a mean of 25.1 minutes (SD 8.6) to regain a temperature of 35.5°C; a further 23.3 minutes (SD 5.1) to regain 36°C; and a further 25.2 minutes (SD 6.8) to raise the temperature to 36.5°C. 12 patients were allocated to an electric blanket, of whom 11 had temperatures that fell to 35°C; these patients took a mean of 54.4 minutes (SD 34.0) to regain a temperature of 35.5°C and a further 44.8 minutes (SD 13.0) to regain 36°C; and a further 41.9 minutes (SD 22.5) to raise the temperature to 36.5°C. These results compared with the 11 patients in the control group, of whom 10 had temperatures that fell to 35.0°C; these patients took a mean of 59.7 minutes (SD 40.3) to regain a temperature of 35.5°C; a further 51.2 minutes (SD 20.2) to regain 36°C and 11 took a further 48.5 minutes (SD 25.6) to raise the temperature to 36.5°C.

**Figure 12: Time to raise the temperature**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 04 Time to raise temperature

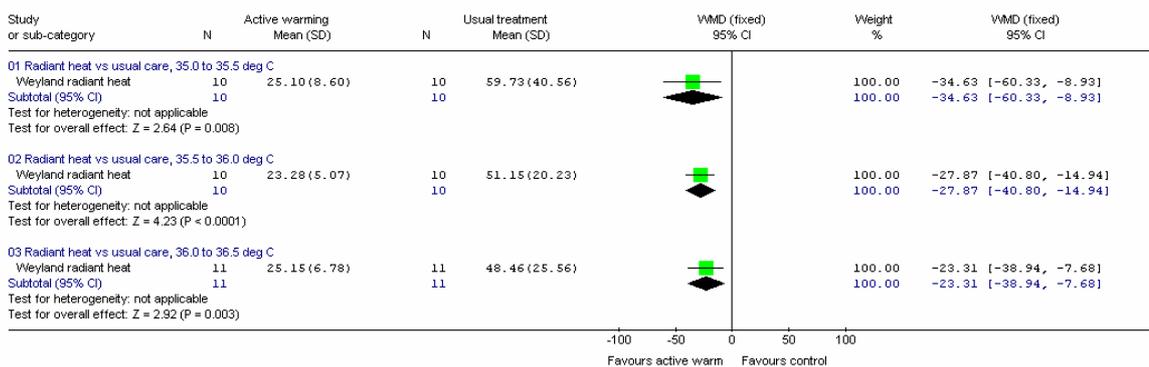


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The meta-analysis of the two comparisons showed some heterogeneity in the time to raise the temperature from 35.5 to 36.0°C ( $I^2=61\%$ ;  $p=0.11$ ), and a subgroup analysis by type of active warming was carried out.

**Figure 13a: Time to raise temperature (subgroup analysis for radiant heaters)**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 09 Time to raise temperature (subgroups)

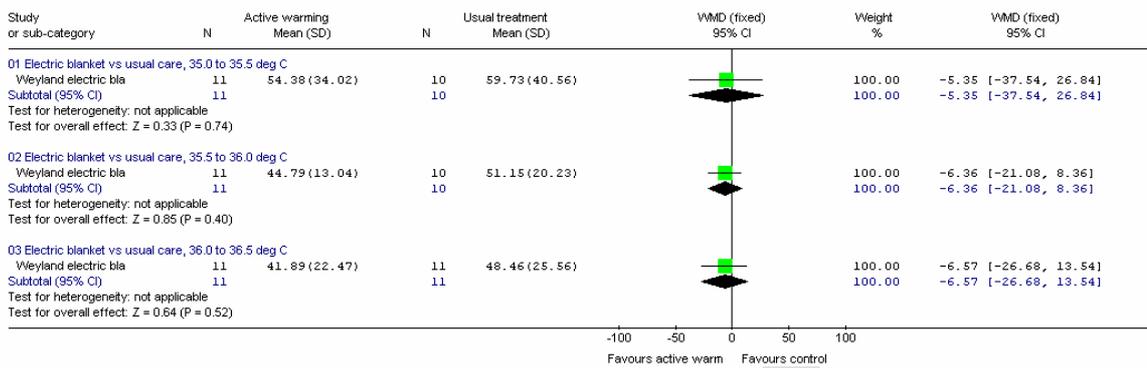


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For the radiant heater (1000W) versus usual care, in 23 patients, there was a statistically significant difference between interventions and the difference in time taken to raise the temperature by 0.5°C was similar for the different initial temperatures.

**Figure 13b: Time to raise temperature (subgroup analysis for electric blankets)**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 08 Time to raise temperature (subgroups)



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For the electric blanket (50W) intervention versus usual care, in 23 patients, there was no significant difference between electric blanket and usual care in the time taken to raise the temperature from 35.0°C to 35.5°C; 35.5°C to 36.0°C or 36.0°C to 36.5°C.

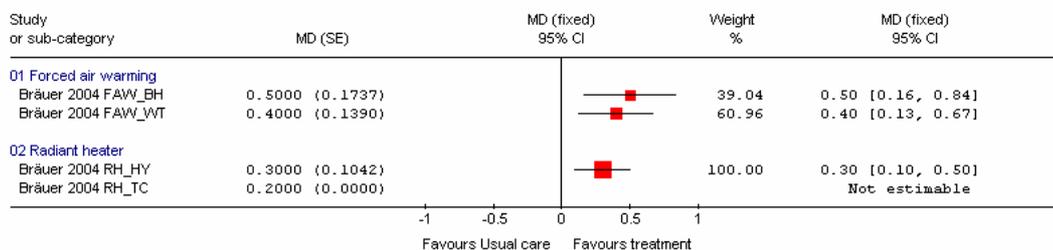
**3. Rate of temperature change (°C/h)**

The indirect study Bräuer (2004) in post-bypass patients recorded the median rate of increase of temperature, giving p values for the difference. These were converted to standard errors and used in the generic inverse variance option of the Review Manager software. There were 20 patients in each comparison.

Bräuer (2004) compared two forced air warming blankets, and two radiant heaters with a polyester filled blanket, and found statistically significant differences, compared with usual care, for both forced air warming blankets, but only for one radiant heater – a self assembled set of four 160W lamps. These differences in the median temperature were clinically significant.

**Figure 14: Rate of warming**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 05 Rate of warming (degC/h, median)



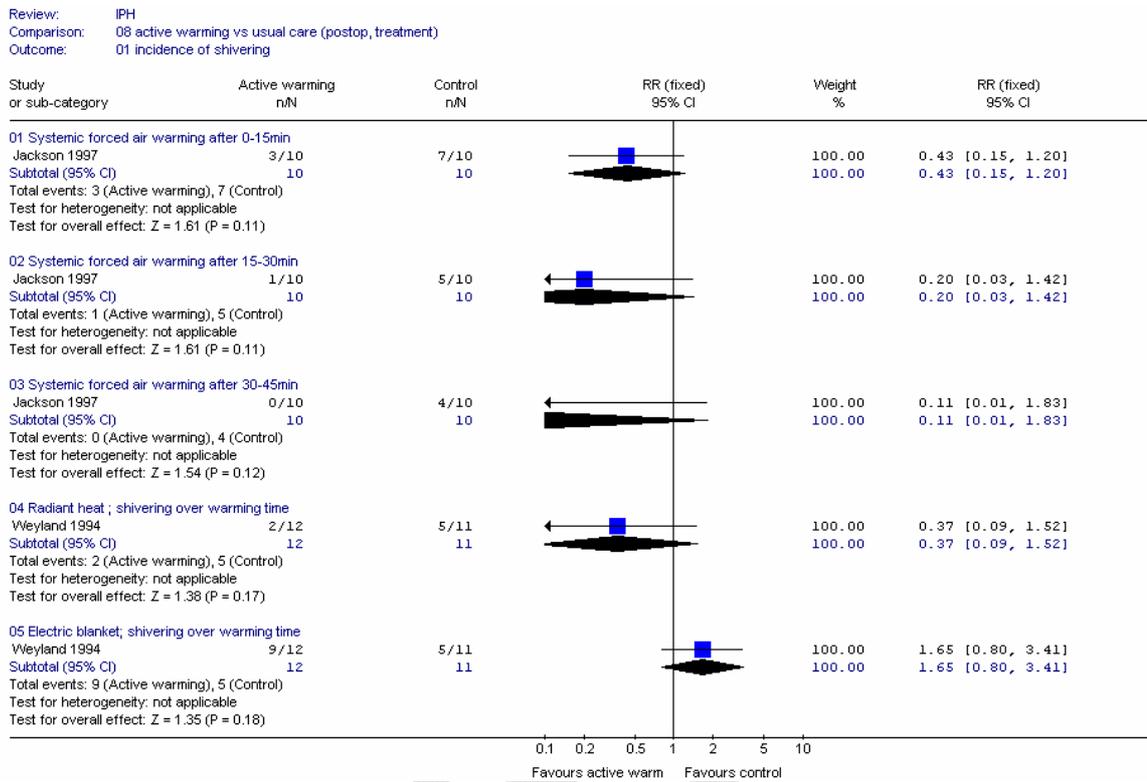
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**4. Incidence of shivering**

Two studies with 55 patients (Jackson 1997; Weyland 1994) assessed shivering in the recovery room, Jackson for different time periods postoperatively and Weyland over the whole monitoring period (Figure 15). Generally, the confidence interval is too wide to draw conclusions.

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**Figure 15: Incidence of shivering**



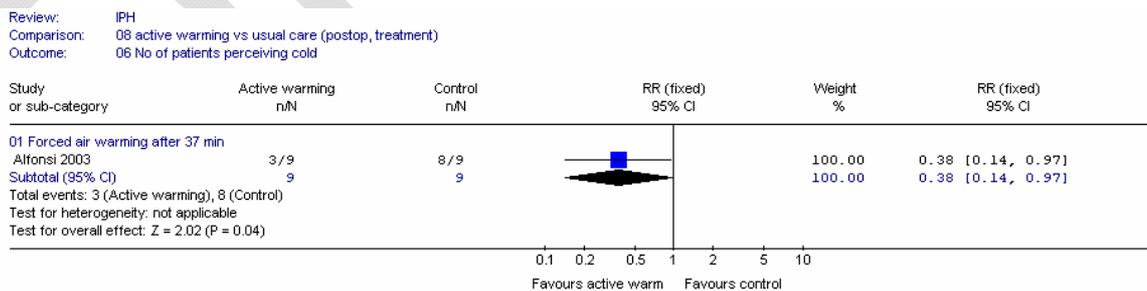
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**Postoperative complications**

**5. Patient's perception of cold**

One study with 18 patients (Alfonsi 2003) reported the patient's perception of cold at the end of the forced air warming period (Figure 16).

**Figure 16: Patient's perception of cold**



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There was a statistically significant difference in the number of patients perceiving that they were cold, although the confidence interval is wide. The relative risk was 0.38, i.e. about 3 times the risk for the control patients. This corresponds to a number needed to treat of 2 (95% CI 2, 6), for a control group risk of 89%.

**6. Patient's perception of pain**

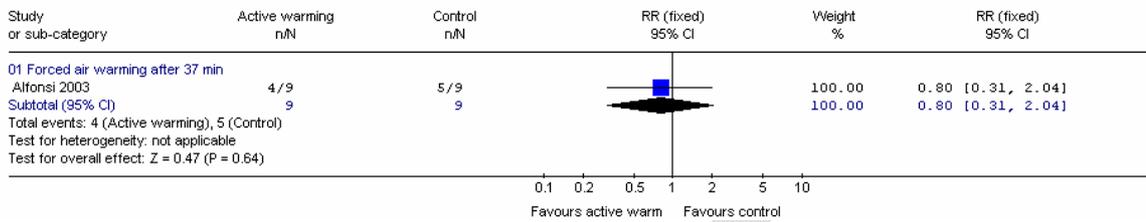
One study with 18 patients (Alfonsi 2003) reported the patient's perception of pain at the end

1 of the forced air warming period (Figure 17). There was no significant difference in the number  
 2 of patients perceiving pain, although the confidence interval is fairly wide.

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**Figure 17: Patients' perception of pain**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 08 active warming vs usual care (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 07 No of patients perceiving pain



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We considered it useful to have an estimate of how long it took patients to warm to 36.0°C in PACU (or ICU) under usual care. Therefore, the mean durations were estimated from the above studies. We note these are observational data based on very small numbers of patients.

1 **Table 1: Time to raise temperature for the usual care group for different studies**

Study	Location measured	Method	Initial temperature	Final temperature	Time
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	36.2°C	120 min
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	36.6°C	180 min
<b>35.0°C to 35.5°C</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.0°C	35.5°C	59.7 min (SD 40.3)
Alfonsi (n=9)	PACU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	35.7°C	37 min
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	35.5°C	45 min
<b>35.5°C to 36.0°C</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.5°C	36.0°C	51.2 min (SD 20.2)
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.5°C	36.2°C	75 min
<b>36.0°C to 36.5°C</b>					
Weyland (n=11)	ICU	time	36.0°C	36.5°C	48.5 min (SD 25.6)
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	36.2°C	36.6°C	60 min

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**B. Active warming 1 versus active warming 2**  
**B1. Forced air warming versus warmed blanket**

1 One often-used treatment for postoperative hypothermia is warmed blankets: these may be  
2 regularly changed, changed as needed, or not changed, but all are methods of active warming  
3 of the patients. Four studies compared forced air warming with warmed blankets (Giuffre  
4 1991; Lennon 1990; Stevens 2000; Summers 1990).

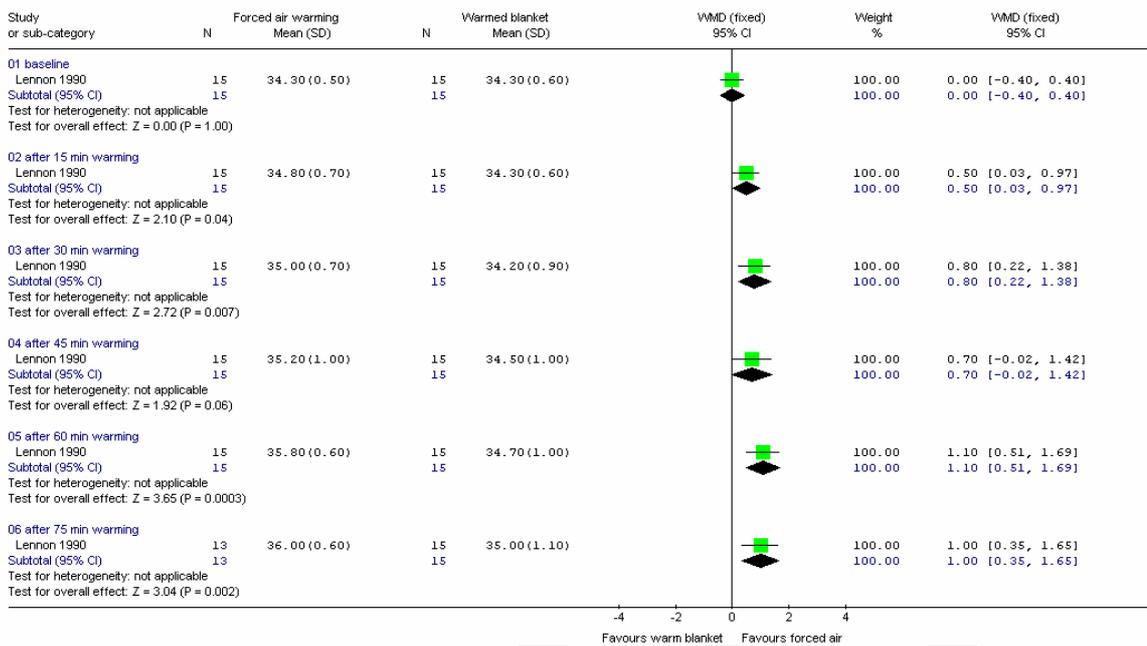
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6 **1. Core temperature postoperatively**

7 Two studies assessed the core temperature at different times postoperatively (Summers 1990;  
8 Lennon 1990). Lennon (1990) recorded oral temperatures; Summers (1990) had a baseline  
9 discrepancy of 0.38°C (higher for the warmed blanket). Both studies used a forced air  
10 warming device: the setting was 43°C for Lennon (1990), but was not reported for Summers  
11 (1990). Lennon (1990) warmed blankets to 37°C, but did not state if the blankets were  
12 changed; Summers (1990) did not state the temperature, but changed the blankets as  
13 needed. The results at different times are shown in Figure 18.

14  
15 The two studies show significant heterogeneity at all times except 15 minutes. The Lennon  
16 (1990) study in 30 patients measured oral temperatures, which may not be closely related to  
17 core temperature; Summers (1990) had a baseline difference that was comparable or bigger  
18 than the difference in effect. This study also had significant difference in the time spent in  
19 theatre (the forced air warming group was longer by 35 minutes). It was decided to treat  
20 Summers (1990) as confounded, and draw tentative conclusions only from the Lennon (1990)  
21 study, even though this was not the best method of measuring temperature. This study  
22 showed that the forced air warming device was significantly more effective at rewarming than  
23 a warmed blanket that probably was not changed. We note that the oral temperature of the  
24 warmed blanket patients was low (below 35.0°C), indicating moderate hypothermia, and that  
25 the control group did not reach 36.0°C even after 75 minutes.

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27 **Figure 18: Temperature for different times**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 07 Forced air warming vs warmed blanket - core temperature



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NB: Scale -4 to +4°C

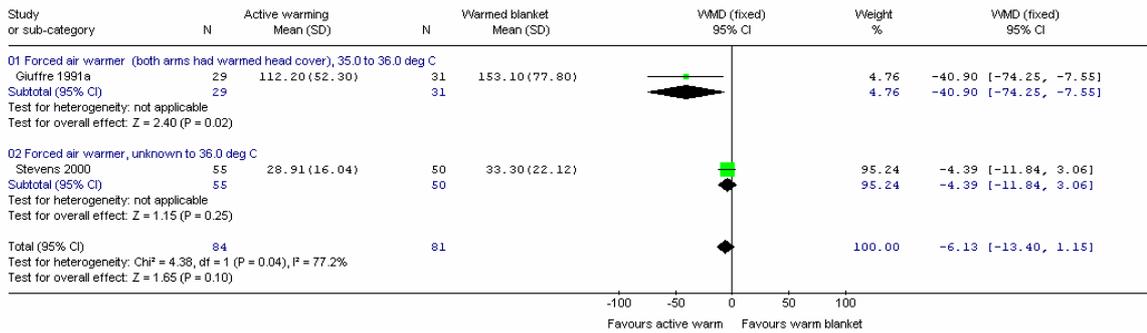
**2. Time taken to increase the temperature**

Two studies (Guiffre 1991; Stevens 2000) reported the time taken to increase the temperature to 36.0°C. The initial mean temperatures for the Guiffre (1991) study were 34.40°C (SD 0.42) and 34.43°C (SD 0.43) for the intervention and control groups respectively. Initial temperatures were not reported for Stevens (2000). The Guiffre (1991) study also employed a warmed head covering in all patients and recorded oral temperatures; the Stevens (2000) study recorded tympanic temperatures. For the forced air warming intervention, the setting was said to be medium, presumed to be 37°C for the Guiffre (1991) study, and 'high' for Stevens (2000). Both studies replaced the control group warmed blanket regularly (every 15 to 20 minutes); blankets in the Guiffre (1991) study were stored at 66 to 77°C and the temperature was not stated for Stevens (2000).

The results are shown in Figure 19. There was a significantly shorter time to 36.0°C for the forced air warming device in the Guiffre (1991) study, but this difference was not found in the Stevens (2000) study. Meta-analysis showed significant heterogeneity ( $I^2=77%$ ,  $p=0.04$ ), but there is insufficient evidence to decide the cause of the heterogeneity. However, we note that the Stevens (2000) study had potential for bias because alternation was used to assign the treatments, although the Guiffre (1991) study only recorded oral temperatures and the confidence interval was wide.

**Figure 19: Time to 36.0°C**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 08 Time to raise temperature



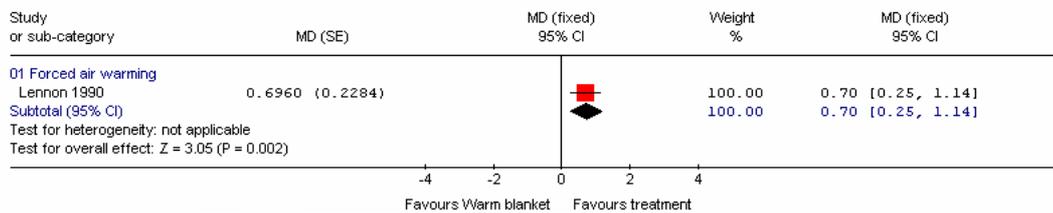
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### 3. Rate of temperature change (°C/h)

One study (Lennon 1990) in 30 patients recorded the rate of change in temperature, giving p values for the difference. These were converted to standard errors and used in the generic inverse variance option of Review Manager. Lennon 1990 found a statistically significant difference of 0.70°C/h (95%CI 0.25, 1.14) for forced air warming compared with blankets warmed to 37°C (figure 20).

Figure 20: Rate of increase in temperature

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 09 Rate of warming (degC/h)



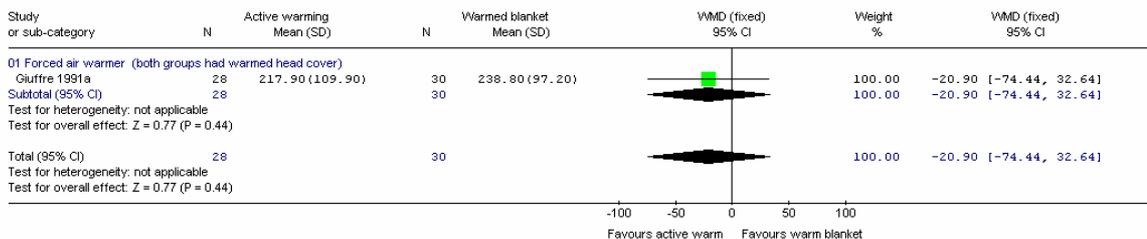
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### 4. Time to discharge from PACU

One study with two comparisons (Guiffre 1991) recorded the time to discharge from PACU. This was the time when the nurse judged the patient ready to leave rather than when the patient actually left. This study also employed a warmed head covering in all patients and recorded oral temperatures. There was no significant difference between interventions, although the confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 21).

Figure 21: Time to discharge from PACU (minutes)

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 10 Time to discharge from PACU (minutes)



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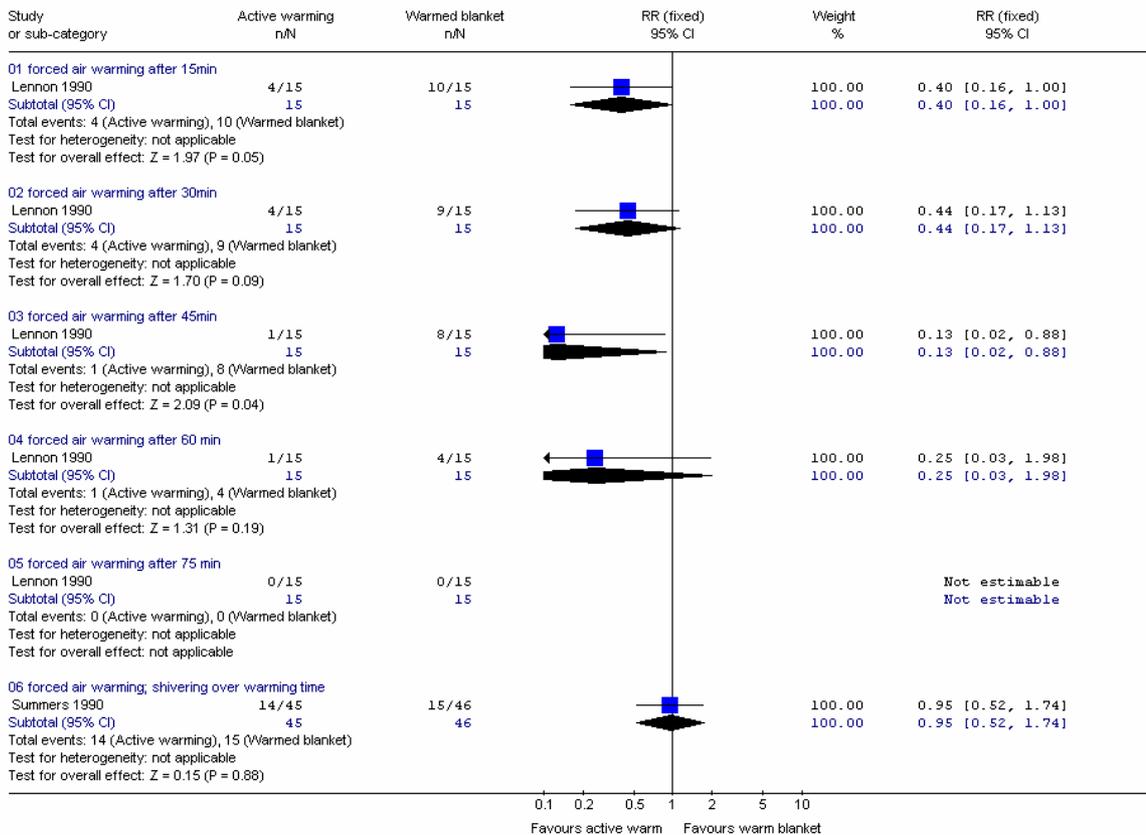
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**5. Incidence of shivering**

Two studies with 121 patients (Lennon 1990; Summers 1990) assessed shivering in the recovery room, Lennon (1990) at different time periods and Summers (1990) over the whole monitoring period (Figure 22). Generally, the confidence interval was too wide to draw conclusions, although the Lennon (1990) study showed a significantly less shivering for the forced air warming group at 45 minutes and borderline significance at 15 minutes.

**Figure 22: Incidence of shivering**

Review: IPH  
Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
Outcome: 11 incidence of shivering

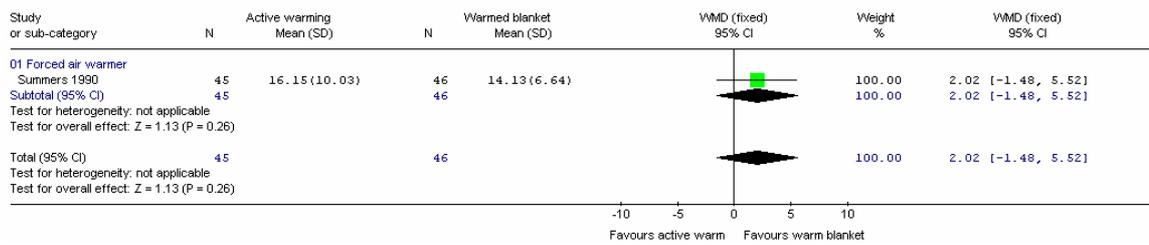


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The Summers (1990) study also reported the duration of shivering (Figure 23). There was no significant difference between groups, although the confidence interval is fairly wide. We also note that the Summers (1990) study had significant differences in baseline characteristics (time spent in the operating room).

**Figure 23: Duration of shivering**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 12 Shivering time (minutes)



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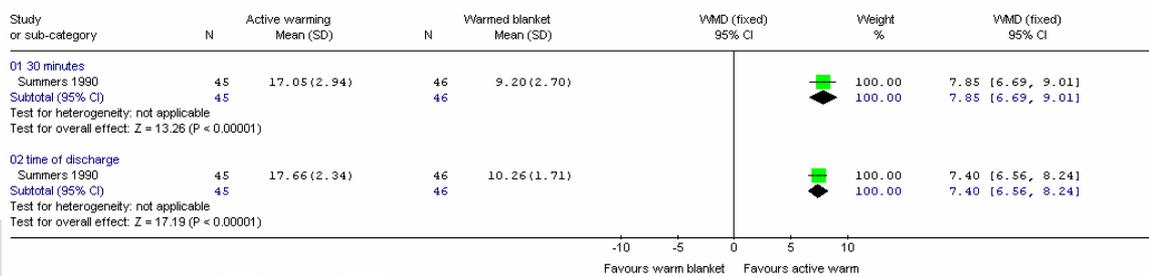
**Postoperative Complications**

**6. Patient’s thermal comfort**

One study with 91 patients (Summers 1990) reported the patient’s thermal comfort 30 minutes after forced air warming commenced and at the time of discharge (probably 60 minutes) (Figure 24). The scale used was the Christoph comfort scale, but it was not clear what this was. However, the study authors commented that the patients’ perception of comfort was greater for the forced air warming group, which indicates that a higher value on the scale is an improvement. A statistically significant difference was found in favour of the forced air warming group, but its magnitude is unclear. We also note that the Summers (1990) study had significant differences in baseline characteristics (time spent in theatre).

**Figure 24: Thermal comfort**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 13 Thermal comfort (high is good)



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We also recorded the time to raise the temperature to 36.0°C for the warmed blankets group. We note these are observational data.

**Table 2: Time to raise the temperature for warmed blankets groups for different studies**

Study	Location measured	Method	Initial temperature	Final temperature	Time
Lennon (n=15)	PACU	Core temperature	34.3°C (baseline)	35.0°C (i.e. still hypothermic)	75 min
Guiffre	PACU	Time	35.0°C	36.0°C	153.1 min

(n=31)					(SD 77.8)
<b>Stevens</b>	<b>PACU</b>	<b>Time</b>	<b>Not stated</b>	<b>36.0°C</b>	<b>33.3 min</b>
(n=50)					(SD 22.1)

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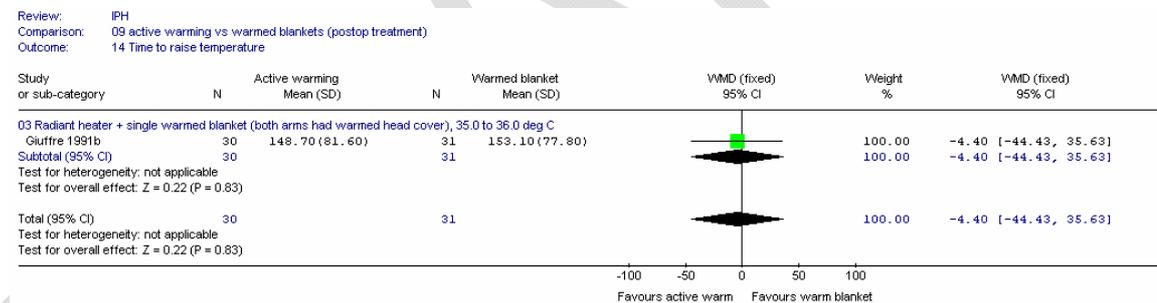
**B2. Radiant heating versus warmed blankets**

One study compared radiant heating with warmed blankets (Giuffre 1991).

**1. Time taken to increase the temperature**

One study (Giuffre 1991) reported the time taken to increase the temperature to 36.0°C. The initial mean temperatures for the Guiffre (1991) study were 34.46 (SD 0.42) and 34.43°C (SD 0.43) for intervention and control groups respectively. The Guiffre (1991) study also employed a warmed head covering in all patients and recorded oral temperatures. The control group had warmed blankets replaced regularly (every 15 to 20 minutes); blankets were stored at 66°C to 77°C. There was no significant difference between groups, but the confidence interval is fairly wide.

**Figure 25: Time to 36.0°C**



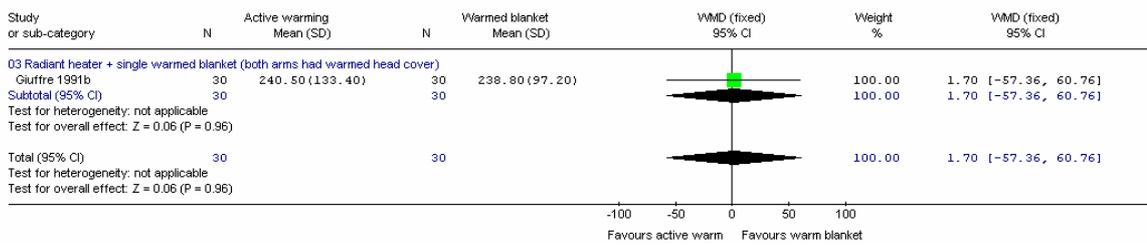
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**2. Time to discharge from PACU**

One study (Giuffre 1991) recorded the time to discharge from PACU. This was the time when the nurse judged the patient ready to leave rather than when the patient actually left. This study also employed a warmed head covering in all patients and recorded oral temperatures. There was no significant difference between interventions, although the confidence interval is fairly wide (Figure 26).

**Figure 26: Time to discharge from PACU (minutes)**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 09 active warming vs warmed blankets (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 15 Time to discharge from PACU (minutes)



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**B3. Radiant heat versus electric blanket**

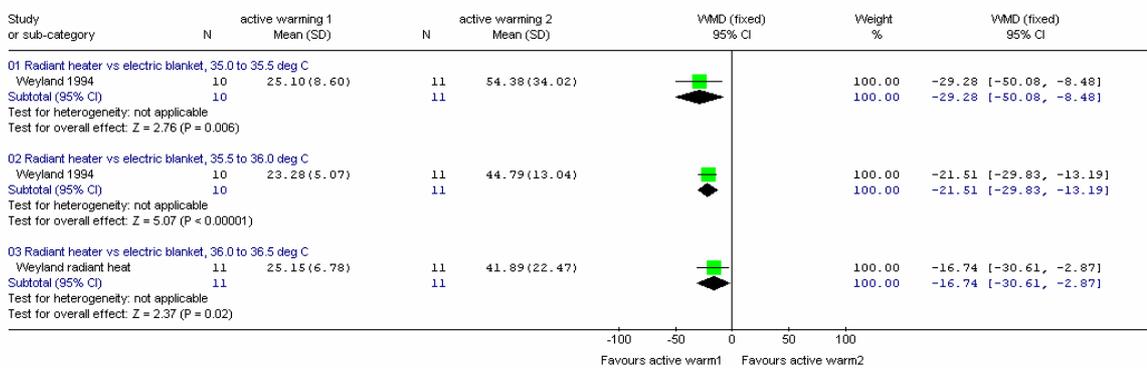
One study in 24 patients (Weyland 1994) compared a radiant heater (1000W) with an electric blanket (50W). Individual patient data were extracted from a graph. The oesophageal temperature was recorded.

**1. Time to raise temperature**

Weyland (1994) recorded the time to increase the temperature from 35.0°C to 35.5°C; 35.5°C to 36.0°C and 36.0°C to 36.5°C. In this direct comparison, warming was significantly faster (17 to 29 minutes) for the radiant heater compared with the electric blanket, for all ranges of temperature.

**Figure 27: Time to raise temperature**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 11 active warming 1 vs active warming 2 (postop treatment)  
 Outcome: 07 Time to raise temperature

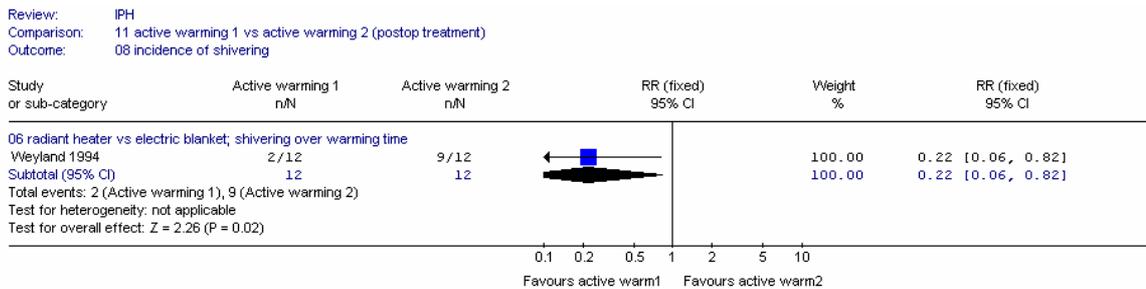


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**2. Incidence of shivering**

Weyland (1994) reported shivering over the warming period and showed significantly less shivering for the radiant heater, although the confidence interval is wide. The risk of shivering is 1/5th that of the electric blanket, and the NNT is 2 (95% CI 2, 4) for a control group risk of 75%.

**Figure 28: Incidence of shivering**



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**B4. Forced air warming versus radiant heating**

One indirect study in post-bypass patients compared two forced air warming devices (Bair Hugger® and Warm Touch®, setting and flow maximal for both) and two radiant heaters (Thermal Ceilings 1000W and self assembled 4 x 160W) (Bräuer 2004). Oesophageal temperatures were raised from below 35.5°C to above 37.5°C.

**1. Rate of change of temperature**

The study reported medians with 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles. These are reported in the table below. The authors reported no significant difference between any of these active interventions.

**Table 3: Rate of change of temperature**

Rate of change of temperature	
Type of warming device	Rate of oesophageal rewarming (°C / h) median (10%, 90% percentiles)
Forced air warming (Bair Hugger®)	0.9 (0.4, 1.3)
Forced air warming (Warm Touch®)	0.8 (0.4, 1.7)
Radiant heater (Thermal Ceilings)	0.6 (0.4,1.0)
Radiant heater (self assembled)	0.7 (0.5, 0.9)

**C. Active warming versus thermal insulation**

One study (Bredahl 1995) compared a radiant heater (500W) with a reflective blanket in 30 patients who had undergone combined general and regional anaesthesia. Both arms of the study had warmed IV fluids and the rectal temperature was measured.

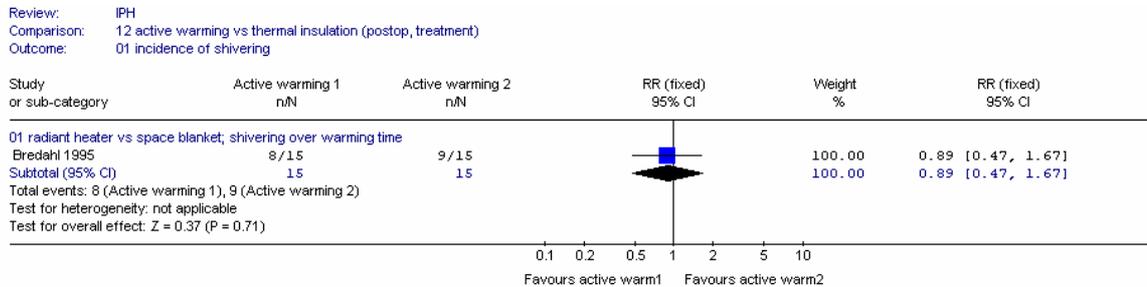
**1. Core temperature after two hours in PACU**

The Bredahl (1995) study reported the median and interquartile range at 15 minute intervals in a graphical form, and it is clear that the rate of change of median rectal temperature is greater for the radiant heating group compared to the reflective blanket group. The authors reported that the increase in median temperature over two hours was significantly greater for the radiant heating group (1.6°C in the radiant heater group; 0.9°C in the thermal insulation group; p<0.05).

1 **2. Shivering**

2 There was little difference in the number of patients shivering, either over the whole warming  
 3 period (Figure 29) or at any time during it. The confidence interval is fairly wide.

5 **Figure 29: Incidence of shivering**



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**D. Thermal insulation versus usual care**

One study with 144 patients (Hershey 1997) compared different types of thermal insulation as an adjunct to the use of two warmed thermal blankets. The study did not mention if the blankets were changed, and their warming temperature was not stated. Patients were randomised to one of the following three interventions:

- Two warmed thermal blankets (group 1; control group);
- Reflective blanket plus two warmed thermal blankets (group 2);
- Reflective blanket + reflective head covering + two warmed thermal blankets (group 3).

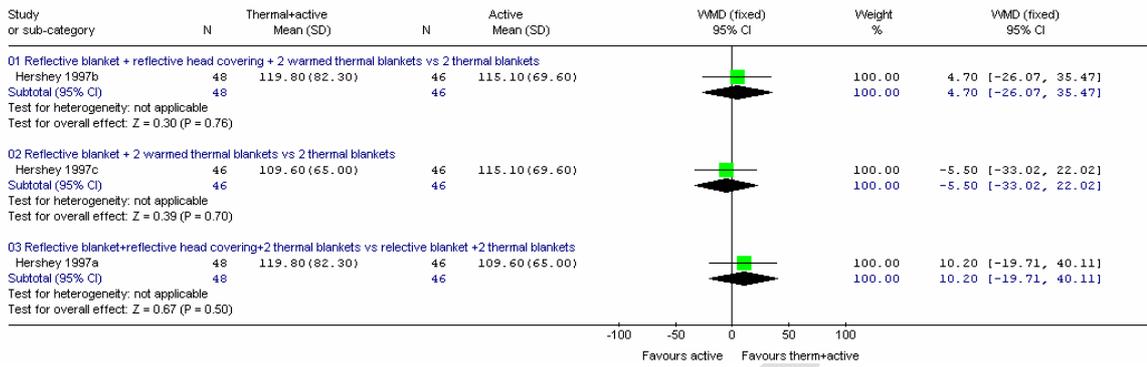
There were some reservations about the study: it measured oral temperatures, and the reflective blanket group (group 2) spent longer in theatre than either of the other groups (mean duration in theatre 184 minutes for control group; 233 minutes for group 2 and 201 minutes for group 3; SDs not given).

**1. Time to raise the temperature**

Hershey (1997) reported the time taken to reach 36.0°C from an initial mean temperature of 34.8°C or 35.0°C (Figure 30). There was little difference between interventions, and the addition of a reflective blanket and hat did not appear to help in reducing the time taken to reach 36.0°C.

**Figure 30: Time to raise temperature**

Review: IPH  
 Comparison: 13 active warming vs thermal insulation (postop, treatment)  
 Outcome: 02 Time to increase temperature to 36 deg C



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**Summary of times to raise the temperature for various warming mechanisms**

Table 4 summarises the times taken to raise the temperature for different warming mechanisms for all the trials. We note that these are observational data, usually in small numbers of patients, but are included as an indication of how long it takes to rewarm hypothermic patients in PACU and ICU.

1 **Table 4: Time to raise temperature for patients given forced air warming and radiant**  
 2 **heat**

Study	Location measured	Method	Initial temperature	Final temperature	Time
<b>FORCED AIR WARMING</b>					
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	36.1°C	60 min
Lennon (n=15)	PACU	Core oral temperature	35.0°C	36.0°C	45 min
Guiffre (n=31)	PACU	Time (oral T)	35.0°C	36.0°C	112.2 min (SD 52.3)
<b>RADIANT HEAT</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.0°C	37.0°C	median 100 min (range 76 to 143)
35.0°C to 35.5°C					
<b>FORCED AIR WARMING</b>					
Lennon (n=15)	PACU	Core oral temperature	35.2°C	35.8°C	15 min
Alfonsi (n=9)	PACU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	35.7°C	37 min
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.2°C (baseline)	35.5°C	30 min
<b>RADIANT HEAT</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.0°C	35.5°C	25.1 min (SD 8.6)
Bredahl	PACU	Median core	median	median	30 min

(n=15)

temperature 34.9°C

35.3°C

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35.5°C to 36.0°C					
<b>FORCED AIR WARMING</b>					
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	35.5°C	36.1°C	30 min
Lennon (n=15)	PACU	Core oral temperature	35.8°C	36.0°C	15 min
<b>RADIANT HEAT</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.5°C	36.0°C	23.3 min (SD 5.1)
Bredahl (n=15)	PACU	Median core temperature	median 35.3°C	median 36.0°C	45 min
36.0°C to 36.5°C					
<b>FORCED AIR WARMING</b>					
Jackson (n=10)	ICU	Core temperature	36.1°C	36.8°C	60 min
<b>RADIANT HEAT</b>					
Weyland (n=10)	ICU	time	35.5°C	36.0°C	25.2 min (SD 6.8)
Bredahl (n=15)	PACU	Median core temperature	median 36.0°C	median 36.4°C	45 min

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