

GERIATRIC SURGERY (T. ROBINSON, SECTION EDITOR)

Incorporating Shared Decision Making into Perioperative Care of Older Adults

Mohamed Abdelgadir Adam $^1\cdot$ Shelley McDonald $^1\cdot$ Mitchell Heflin $^1\cdot$ Sandhya Lagoo-Deenadayalan 1

Published online: 7 July 2016 © Springer Science + Business Media New York 2016

Abstract

Purpose of review Older patients represent a growing and significant portion of the surgical population. Due to agerelated changes in physiology and the presence of multiple comorbidities, older patients are more likely to experience complications, functional decline, increased care needs, and decreased independence following surgery. Identification of risk factors preoperatively permits early use of prevention strategies to mitigate risk, which translates into optimal postoperative outcomes.

Recent findings Preexisting cognitive impairment is identified in 30% of patients undergoing elective surgery, and is associated with long-term postoperative cognitive dysfunction. Assessment for the presence of comorbidities, medication history, nutritional status, and frailty is critical. Patient preference, treatment goals, and advanced directives should be discussed and documented preoperatively. Post-hospital disposition requires significant planning, with emphasis on efficient transition of care and early post-operative follow-up.

Summary Multidisciplinary perioperative assessment and appropriate management of the elderly surgical population are of paramount importance.

This article is part of the Topical collection on Geriatric Surgery.

Sandhya Lagoo-Deenadayalan sandhya.lagoodeenada@duke.edu

¹ Duke University, Durham, NC, USA

Keywords Perioperative · Surgery · Geriatrics · Preoperative evaluation · Postoperative care · Postoperative outcomes

Introduction

Individuals over 65 years of age are the fastest growing segment of the United States population, with a projected 53 % increase between 2001 and 2020 [1]. With advances in surgical techniques, anesthesia and postoperative care, an increasing number of older adults are undergoing surgical intervention. According to a study from the National Hospital Discharge Survey and the National Survey of Ambulatory Surgery, the aging of the United States population will result in a significant growth in the utilization of surgical service for these older patients with a projected 14-47 % increase in all surgical fields between 2000 and 2020 [1]. Specifically, between 2010 and 2020, the rate of oncological procedures was expected to increase by 24–51 % [2]. Aging is an independent risk factor for adverse outcomes after surgery because older adults have reduced reserve, making it more difficult to overcome surgical stress. Studies have consistently demonstrated that older surgical patients have increased risks for the development of postoperative morbidity and mortality, prolonged hospitalization, hospital readmission, cognitive dysfunction, functional decline, and loss of independence [3, 4, 5•, 6]. Occurrence of these events is associated with increased resource utilization and higher costs [7]. Identifying those older patients at highest risk will allow for careful consideration of the risks and benefits of surgery and expectant management perioperatively with an emphasis on prevention and enhanced recovery protocols (Table 1).

Preoperative Management

Multidisciplinary Care

A multidisciplinary, interprofessional preoperative assessment is needed, with the surgeon playing a central role (Fig. 1). In addition to involving the patient, caregiver, primary care physician, and anesthesiologist, other essential members of the team include nurses, case managers, social workers, dieticians, physical/occupational therapists, and speech therapists. When available, collaboration or consultation with a geriatrician and/or geriatrics trained advanced practice provider can provide additional specialty expertise in managing mobility, function, cognition, and care planning.

Primary care physicians are well positioned to actively contribute to the preoperative evaluation of older patients because care coordination is needed when complex care management is involved. Even minor surgeries can involve multiple provider visits and procedures with the need for frequent communication as evidenced by one example where the primary physician communicated 40 times with 12 clinicians over an 80-day period [8]. A provider known to the patient can enhance the coordination between the different specialists caring for the patient and enhance communication regarding preoperative teaching, riskbenefit discussion, and the nature and duration of the expected postoperative recovery period. While there is paucity of data directly examining the role of primary care physicians in the preoperative evaluation of older patients, published data demonstrated that better coordination of postoperative care between surgeons and primary care physicians is important to help reduce hospital readmissions within 30 days for older patients undergoing highrisk surgery [9].

Involvement of geriatrics preoperatively is also helpful in identifying patient risk factors and in tailoring a comprehensive management plan. Geriatricians provide unique perspectives in the preoperative evaluation of the older patients given their understanding of the influence of aging on the pathophysiologic responses to stressors, such as surgery. Geriatricians are well-suited to prioritize the complex needs of older patients when planning a strategy to optimize comorbidities, nutrition intake, and functional status before elective surgery. The additional expertise in facilitating discussions regarding advance care planning can help prepare patients for realistic expectations throughout the surgical encounter, with goal setting at each stage of recovery, and care coordination to best leverage the resources in each setting.

 Table 1
 Summary of perioperative care of older adults undergoing elective surgery

Preoperative	Intraopertive	Postoperative
Comprehensive history and physical	Proper positioning/padding	Geriatrics involvement
Indication	Warm blankets/IVFs	Early screening for delirium
Physical status	Regional anesthesia	Delirium treatment
Frailty	Judicious goal directed IVFs	Nonpharmacologic therapy
Comorbidities	Avoid certain medications	Pharmacologic agents only when indicated
Nutritional status	Scopolamine	Chest toileting
Cognition	Promethazine	Epidural analgesia
Depression	Prochlorperazine	Early ambulation with fall precautions
Delirium		Early dietary consultation/swallow evaluation
ETOH/substance abuse		Early diet resumption
Cardiac status		Nutritional supplement
Pulmonary function		Aspiration precautions
Fall risk factors		Prophylactic bowel regimens
Medications		Early Foley removal
Family/social history		Pressure ulcer evaluation/prevention
Appropriate testing		Judicious intravenous fluids
Vision/hearing		
Patient preferences		
Risks-benefits discussion		
Advanced directives		
Preventive strategies		

IVF intravenous fluid

Fig. 1 A model for shared decision making in the perioperative care of older adults undergoing elective surgery



Preoperative Assessment

Comprehensive preoperative assessment is necessary for achieving optimal clinical outcomes in older surgical patients. Older patients undergoing surgery should undergo a thorough evaluation for medical history and physical examination, comorbid conditions, nutritional status, cognitive ability and capacity, depression, risk factors for delirium, alcohol/substance dependence, cardiac status (per guidelines), risk factors for pulmonary complications, functional physiological status, risk for fall, frailty, medications, family and social support status, and appropriate preoperative testing [10••]. While all of these areas are important, the following aspects of the preoperative evaluation deserve special attention:

Cognitive Assessment

Preexisting cognitive dysfunction is highly prevalent in older patients, affecting nearly a third of those over age 65 undergoing elective surgery [11]. Assessment of patients' cognitive function preoperatively establishes a baseline level from which changes in cognition can be determined. In an observational clinical trial of 300 patients >60 years undergoing noncardiac surgery, preexisting cognitive impairment was identified in 31 % of the patients. Patients with preoperative cognitive impairment were more likely to develop postoperative cognitive dysfunction and cognitive decline [11]. Underlying cognitive impairment is one of the many predisposing conditions for delirium, which develops in as many of half of those over 65 years undergoing surgery [12]. Moreover, delirium is associated with postoperative prolonged hospital length of stay, decreased quality of life, and increased 1-year mortality [13–16].

Identification of high-risk patients preoperatively permits employment of strategies to reduce risks for postoperative cognitive impairment, such as avoidance of precipitating factors for delirium, utilization of nonopioid medications, and avoidance of benzodiazepines.

Nutritional Status

Older age is associated with increased risk of malnutrition. According to one study of acutely hospitalized older patients, up to 71 % present with nutritional risk or malnourishment [17]. Preoperative nutritional status is an important determinant of postoperative morbidity and mortality [18]. The diagnosis of malnutrition is established by presence of two of the following: insufficient energy

intake; weight loss; loss of muscle mass; loss of subcutaneous fat; localized or generalized fluid accumulation that may sometimes mask weight loss; diminished functional status as measured by handgrip strength [19]. Once the diagnosis of malnutrition is established, corrective nutritional strategies should be implemented such as oral supplementation, tube feeding, or parenteral feeding; however, enteral nutritional support is superior and should be considered first, given its simplicity, lower complication profile, cost-effectiveness, and an enhanced ability to maintain mucosal barrier function. Extended periods of preoperative fasting should therefore be minimized [20, 21].

Comorbidities

Older patients are more likely to present with multiple comorbidities. Presence of comorbid conditions is strongly associated with adverse postoperative outcomes and greater likelihood that the older adult will not regain optimal function [22]. Older patients with multiple comorbidities need to be considered as high risk, and measures should be undertaken to mitigate its effects whenever possible.

Medication History

A complete list of the patient's medications should be documented, including over-the-counter medications and nutritional supplements. Many medications place older patients into higher risks for the development of postoperative complications and may impede recovery, such as anticholinergics, benzodiazepines, and sedatives. The "Beers List" from the American Geriatrics Society (AGS) provides an evidence-based compendium of potentially inappropriate medications to be avoided or used with caution in older adults [23]. All essential medications should be continued or substituted if needed, with the plan to resume appropriate baseline medications postoperatively. Consultation with other specialists or a pharmacist may be helpful in determining the need for high-risk medications.

Frailty

Frailty is a state of increased vulnerability to stressors due to age-related declines in physiologic reserve across neuromuscular, metabolic, and immune systems [24]. Frail older adults are vulnerable to the poor resolution of homoeostasis after a stressor event, such as surgery, trauma, or acute illness. This increased vulnerability contributes to the increased risk for multiple adverse outcomes, including postoperative complications, falls, institutionalization, disability, and death [25]. The prevalence of frailty ranges from 14 to 16 % in the older population [26-28]. The presence of frailty before surgery is associated with greater risk for postoperative complications, longer hospital stays, and higher likelihood of being discharged to a skilled nursing or assisted-living facility [5•].

Identification of frailty preoperatively can guide additional evaluation and help tailor treatment plans. Several validated tools identify these high-risk patients, such as the FRAIL scale [29, 30] and the Study of Osteoporotic Fractures (SOF) frailty tool [31].

Surgical Decision Making

During the surgical visit, the surgeon should take steps to ensure that older patients understand the nature of the disease process and the need for treatment. Prior to any discussion, an assessment of factors that affect communication and decision making among older adults should occur. Examples include accounting for hearing or vision deficits, addressing other factors that limit comprehension, including limited education or health literacy, language barriers or cognitive impairment, and cultural factors that may guide language choice and inclusion of family or clergy in key decision. In cases where capacity is questionable, further cognitive testing and inclusion of a designated surrogate is essential. Explanation of the proposed procedure and its risks and benefits should be conducted in a manner that is meaningful to the patient, encourages the patient to evaluate alternative treatment options (including the option of nonsurgical treatments), and allows time to discuss this with family members or other key decision makers. All patients' and caregivers' questions should be adequately answered. Patients' preferences should then be fully documented. If necessary, patients and families may need time outside the visit to consider options and seek further input.

The preoperative period is an ideal opportunity to discuss factors that need patient participation and adherence for a true patient centered optimization plan, which could include strategies for preoperative nutritional support, better glycemic control, improvement of functional status, smoking cessation, and/or recruitment of support/resources that are anticipated during recovery after discharge from the hospital.

Surgery teams caring for older adults must account for their unique preferences and priorities in understanding their goals for surgery. Older adults often value maintaining independence over reductions in mortality [32]. A survey of Medicare beneficiaries has shown patients have different levels of involvement when participating in decision making regarding their care with different surgical procedures. When considering treatment preferences, patients should be more involved in discussing differing options while weighing the risks and benefits of each [33].

Tools for Shared Decision Making

The published literature includes several examples of effective use of decision-making tools to improve this critical stage of communication, both for the surgeon as well as for the patient and family. One study conducted to gain insight into the preferences used to guide content and design of decision aids, showed that physicians usually consider the technical details, benefits, and risks of the procedure while patients are often influenced by nonmedical factors such as location [34]. It is important, therefore, for the surgeon to explore what factors concerns the patient most so that pertinent information can be shared in order to facilitate decisions that are mutually acceptable to the patient and provider. Questionnaires used in vascular surgery highlight that shared decision making is very useful due to multiple treatment options. It is important that surgeons ask patients for their preferred approach to receiving information, verify that the patient has understood the provided information, and inquire about how patients would like to be involved in shared decision making [35]. One tool created by the American College of Surgeons (ACS) as part of the National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP) is the Surgical Risk Calculator, which uses the current procedural terminology (CPT) code for the anticipated procedure with patient-specific risk information to estimate the chances for adverse outcomes within 30 days following surgery for nine separate areas [10••].

Although time and effort are precious commodities, they are invaluable in establishing good, meaningful communication. A preconsultation educational group intervention for breast cancer survivors undergoing breast reconstruction was found to improve patients' shared decision-making quality compared to routine preoperative patient education [36]. Interventions involving novel telephonebased early and intensive dietetic model of care for newly diagnosed upper gastrointestinal cancer patients have shown improved outcomes compared to the standard of care counterparts. Patients also reported satisfaction with consistent communication, emotional support, and pain and symptom management [37].

Communication can be particularly challenging when the procedure is an emergent one, and when it involves an older patient with a life-threatening condition. Good communication is critical as breakdown in communication may lead to nonbeneficial procedures at the end of life [38]. Discussion about quality of life (QOL) plays a substantial role in the decisions regarding the various treatment modalities as with the choices available for aortic valve replacement in older patients with multiple comorbidities and a limited life expectancy. Current evidence shows that trans catheter aortic valve replacement (TAVR) results in improvement of QOL in older patients with aortic stenosis, an effect that is sustained for up to two years and medical results comparable to an open procedure, yet with much less surgical risk [39]. Education and open discussion about end of life care is important in geriatric surgery patients. While goals of care should be discussed with the patient and family to help with surgical decision making, there should be a frank discussion about events that may lead to poor outcomes. Differences between DNR, palliative care, hospice care, and symptom management should be made clear to avoid conflict [40].

Decision About Specific Choice of Procedures

Beyond decisions to have surgery and how to optimize, older patients often face choices regarding the range of types of procedures and their different levels of benefit and risk. Gastrojejunostomy and stent placement are the most commonly used interventions for malignant gastric outlet obstruction. The preference for either treatment largely depends on the expected survival. The WHO score was found to be a significant predictor of survival in patients with malignant gastric outlet obstruction. A simple prognostic model was to be efficient in guiding the palliative treatment decision for either gastrojejunostomy (WHO score 0–1) or stent placement (WHO 3–4) in these patients [41].

Patient reported outcomes after pancreaticoduodenectomy for pancreatic cancer or periampullary malignancy were found to have deteriorated in the short term, but recovered after 6 months and was maintained at 2 years in survivors [42]. This type of information is important to share with a patient who is trying to decide on the utility of surgery.

Patients with rectal cancer in whom either a low anterior resection or an abdominoperineal resection could be performed were given a rectal cancer decision aid. This was developed to help patients weigh features of options and share their preference. Patients reported that their knowledge regarding the procedure improved, and that their decisional conflict was reduced [43].

Advanced Directives

While there are several forms of advanced directive, the most common types are: (1) the living will; (2) health care power of attorney; (3) the do not resuscitate (DNR) order; and (4) Medical Orders for Scope of Treatment (MOST)/ Physician Orders for Life Sustaining Treatment (POLST). The first two provide general guidance for decision making and, most importantly, designation of a surrogate decision maker in the event of loss of capacity. The latter two provide specific limits on life saving or sustaining measures and may be particularly important for guiding care among patients with advanced chronic or terminal illness.

The 2015 American College of Surgeons and American Geriatrics Society guidelines recommend that older adult patients undergoing surgery should have an advanced directive and a designated health care proxy documented in the patient's medical record prior to surgery [44••].

Intraoperative Management

In addition to careful risk stratification in the preoperative period, attention to specific preventive measures in the operating room and during recovery can avoid unnecessary complications. Older adults undergoing surgery are at increased risk for peripheral nerve damage and pressure injuries from malpositioning in the operating room, leading to a high prevalence of intraoperative pressure ulceration (8.5 %) [45]. Proper positioning and padding of older patients is therefore essential to decrease the risk of pressure ulceration.

Older patients are predisposed to intraoperative hypothermia, due to the altered thermoregulatory function as a result of anesthesia, decreased muscle mass, metabolic rate, and/or vascular reactivity [46]. Utilization of warming blankets and/or warmed intravenous fluids is recommended for cases lasting longer than 30 min [44••].

Anesthetic agents can have profound systemic effects in older patients due to the pathophysiological processes associated with aging. The choice and technique of anesthesia should be individualized based on individual patient risk. Regional anesthesia (e.g., epidural and spinal) may present as appealing alternative to general anesthesia in high-risk patients. Regional analgesia in older adults is associated with improved pain control and reduced sedation, opioid use, duration of tracheal intubation, and post-operative morbidity [47–50].

While older patients at high risks for postoperative nausea and vomiting requiring prophylactic antiemetic interventions, use of certain antiemetic medications should be avoided, such as transdermal scopolamine, promethazine, and prochlorperazine, all of which have anticholinergic properties and may precipitate cognitive impairment [51, 52]. Given an association of volume overload with nausea, judicious use of fluids in the intra-operative period is advised [53, 54].

Postoperative Management

Information gathered in the preoperative assessment can inform safe and effective approaches to care of the older adult in the postoperative period. The approach needs to utilize an interdisciplinary and interprofessional team with care coordination, with continued elicitation of patient and family preferences with emphasis on reducing risk and preventing problems needs to continue throughout the hospitalization. When comprehensive geriatric care is provided to hospitalized older adults, they are more likely to be alive and in their own homes at 6 months (OR 1.25, 95 % CI 1.11–1.42, P = 0.0002), less likely to be institutionalized at 12 months (OR 0.79, 95 % CI 0.69–0.88, P < 0.0001), and less likely to have functional decline or death at 12 months (OR 0.76, 95 % CI 0.64–0.90, P = 0.001) [55].

Postoperative Delirium

Delirium is an acute state of confusion, characterized by changes in consciousness and the ability to focus, sustain, or shift attention. Postoperative delirium is the most common age-related postoperative complication [44••]. Older patients are more susceptible to postoperative delirium, with prevalence rates ranging from 7 to 44 % depending on surgery type and other specific risk factors [44••, 56]. Delirium is associated with adverse postoperative outcomes, longer hospitalization, and higher mortality and costs [56–60].

Older patients should be screened for risk factors for postoperative delirium for early detection, prophylactic interventions, risk mitigating strategies, and initiation of treatment; the most effective treatment for delirium is prevention. Risk factors for the development of postoperative delirium include age >65 years, chronic cognitive decline or dementia, poor vision or hearing, severe illness, and presence of infection [44..]. Postoperative delirium is multifactorial; therefore, screening of all potential risk factors or precipitating components should be undertaken for more effective management. The American College of Surgeons and American Geriatrics Society recommend consideration of daily delirium screening for all older adults using a validated screening tool; intensive care and high-risk patients should regularly be assessed for postoperative delirium [44...]. Pain management should be optimized with utilization of nonopioid agents, and medications associated with cognitive impairment should be avoided.

Identification and treatment of the underlying cause(s) represents the first step in the management of postoperative delirium. Implementation of nonpharmacologic treatment strategies should be considered as first line therapy, such as frequent orientation, limitation of restraint use, presence of familiar objects in the room, and use of assistive devices (e.g., glasses, hearing aids). Having family members or loved ones present to assist with orientation in the postoperative period can reduce delirium risk for patients who have been identified as high risk for delirium preoperatively. Indications for pharmacological agents include prevention of harm to self or others with agitation or hyperactive delirium behavior. While antipsychotics can reduce symptoms of hyperactive delirium, they also have important and serious adverse effects that have led to a black box warning from the FDA. These side effects include metabolic effects, parkinsonian symptoms, vascular events, arrhythmia, and death. Their use should occur in consultation with team members with experience in their safe use and with clear plans for early discontinuation [44••, 61].

Pulmonary Complications

Older adults undergoing surgery are more susceptible to postoperative pulmonary complications, which in turns increases the risk for long-term mortality [62]. Strategies to reduce the risk of postoperative pulmonary complications include preoperative smoking cessation, utilization of laparoscopic approaches, aspiration precautions, chest physical therapy and use of incentive spirometry, use of deep breathing exercises, and epidural analgesia [44••].

Patient Falls

Falls are common among older individuals [63]. All older patients should undergo fall risks assessment. Predisposing factors for falls include altered mental status, dehydration, urinary frequency, history of falls, impaired gait or mobility, medications, and visual impairment. Strategies to prevent falls should be implemented for high-risk patients, such as physical therapy consultation, supervised exercises, environmental elements, assistive technology, and knowledge interventions [44••]. Early mobilization protocols should be promoted as soon as possible after surgery because this helps older adults maintain functional abilities, have less pain, less delirium, and shorter hospital stays [64, 65] and can also help prevent deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolus [64].

Nutrition

Older surgical patients are at increased risk for malnutrition. Studies have consistently demonstrated the association between postoperative malnutrition and compromised postoperative outcomes [66–68]. Current recommendations of the American College of Surgeons indicate that older patients should undergo daily evaluation of their ability to take adequate nutrition and risk of aspiration, with initiation of dietary consultation and/or swallow evaluation when indicated [44••].

Oral feeding is preferred; patients using dentures at home should have them readily available. Due to the increased risk of aspiration, aspiration measures should be instituted routinely, such as elevation of the head of the bed and sitting upright during and 1 h after eating [69]. Nutritional supplements may be indicated for undernourished patients [44••]. Tube feeding may be initiated when there is difficulty with oral intake. Parenteral nutrition may be a last-resort option due its associated complications [20, 21].

Prophylactic bowel regimens are needed to mitigate the negative effect of opioids on bowel function. Utilization of opioid-sparing analgesia techniques is helpful to decrease the incidence of postoperative ileus, such as scheduled postoperative acetaminophen and regional analgesia. Pharmacologic agents such as stool softeners and stimulant laxatives may be used.

Management of Indwelling Urinary Catheter

Older patients are more susceptible to postoperative urinary tract infection. When possible, catheters should be avoided altogether. Strict aseptic techniques must be adhered to. Patients with indwelling urinary catheters should undergo daily review and documentation of its indication; efforts should be made to remove urinary catheters as soon as possible [44••]. Immobilization and/or incontinence are not acceptable justifications for prolonged urinary catheterization. In cases of urinary retention, it is preferable to leave the indwelling catheter for a few days, start the patient on a selective alpha-antagonist, with plans made to remove the catheter after a few days.

Pressure Ulcers

The vast majority of pressure ulcers occur in older patients during an acute hospitalization. All hospitalized older patients should undergo evaluation for pressure ulceration. Several validated scales have been developed to predict the development of pressure ulceration, such as the Braden scale, Waterlow score, and Norton scales [70-73]. In addition to using these, there should be policies in place to ensure that patients will be repositioned regularly to prevent pressure ulcers. Close collaboration with the nursing staff is necessary to facilitate such endeavors.

Determining Need for Higher Acuity of Care

Close monitoring of older patients is critical after surgery. Oral nutrition should be instituted as soon as possible, unless contraindicated based on the nature of the surgical procedure. Multiple factors may prevent satisfactory oral intake and this may lead to dehydration. Judicious supplemental intravenous fluids may be needed to prevent hypotension; a key etiological factor in postoperative delirium. Care should be taken to avoid fluid overloading and subsequent pulmonary edema. In case of hemodynamic instability or increased work of breathing, there should be a low threshold for transfer to a step-down unit for monitoring or to an intensive care unit when needed, as older patients tend to decompensate very rapidly.

Readdressing the issue of goals of care and advance directives should be considered early when there is an unexpected turn of events following surgery. This may include the need for longer mechanical ventilation, the need for a feeding tube, for reoperation or an interventional radiology procedure that carries prohibitively high risk. Timely discussions with patients and/or their caregivers can allow time for consideration and alleviate anxiety related to lack of understanding or uncertainty about potential outcomes and prognosis. Maintaining open lines of communication helps establish trust and makes it easier on the surgical team and the surrogate decision maker, if decisions have to be made regarding withdrawal of care. Appropriate and early involvement of the palliative care team can be of immense help in this regard. Studies have shown that there is lower pain perception despite greater symptom distress and that patients are appreciative of their increased resources and alternatives for pain control, adding value to palliative care consults (Wallen, Baker et al. 2012).

Transition to PostAcute Care

Disposition of older surgical patients is a complex process that requires close coordination between the surgical team, nursing, physical therapists, social workers, family/caregiver, and other specialists. The American College of Surgery and American Geriatrics Society guidelines recommend the following evaluations before patient discharge: mini nutritional assessment; cognitive evaluation; determination of ambulation ability; functional status; and presence of delirium [44...]. Social support should be assured and the need for home health needs to be determined. Discharge instructions should be comprehensive detailing the full list of medications, tests, and follow-up appointments. Predictors of discharge to postacute care include being 85 years or older, the presence of septic shock or ventilator dependence preoperatively, American Society of Anesthesiologists class of 4 or 5 and totally dependent functional status [74]. These factors should be considered and discussed with the patient and family members as early as possible to help with the decisionmaking processes.

Transition to Primary Care

Efforts should be focused on adequate transition of care to the patient's primary care physician. Detailed information about the patient surgical history, surgical intervention(s), and postoperative course should be communicated with the primary care physician. Older patients who had early primary care follow-up after discharge and within 30 days after surgery had a 15 % reduction in readmission rate compare to those who did not have an early follow-up visit with their primary care physician [9].

Conclusions

High quality care for older adults undergoing surgical procedures requires a careful and comprehensive approach to risk stratification, communication, and coordination. A preoperative assessment by an interprofessional team that include both surgical and geriatrics expertise can help identify specific risks for postoperative complications, including falls, delirium, malnutrition, and poor care coordination. This assessment informs specific evidencebased interventions in the entire perioperative course to reduce risk and improve outcomes. In addition, a careful preoperative review of goals of care and preferences can improve the patient and family experience and provide the care team with critical information that allows shared decision making at every stage of care.

Compliance with Ethics Guidelines

Conflict of Interest Drs. Adam, McDonald, Heflin, and Lagoo-Deenadayalan declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this manuscript.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

References

Papers of particular interest, published recently, have been highlighted as:

- Of importance
- Of importance
- Etzioni DA, et al. The aging population and its impact on the surgery workforce. Ann Surg. 2003;238(2):170–7.
- Etzioni DA, et al. Workload projections for surgical oncology: will we need more surgeons? Ann Surg Oncol. 2003;10(9):1112–7.
- 3. Hamel MB, et al. Surgical outcomes for patients aged 80 and older: morbidity and mortality from major noncardiac surgery. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2005;53(3):424–9.
- Chung F, Mezei G, Tong D. Adverse events in ambulatory surgery. A comparison between elderly and younger patients. Can J Anaesth. 1999;46(4):309–21.
- 5. Makary MA, et al. Frailty as a predictor of surgical outcomes in older patients. J Am Coll Surg. 2010;210(6):901–8. *This is a sentinel paper that addressed the issue of frailty and its effect on post-opertaive outcomes in the elderly.*
- Turrentine FE, et al. Surgical risk factors, morbidity, and mortality in elderly patients. J Am Coll Surg. 2006;203(6):865–77.

- Dimick JB, et al. Hospital costs associated with surgical complications: a report from the private-sector National Surgical Quality Improvement Program. J Am Coll Surg. 2004;199(4): 531–7.
- Press MJ. Instant replay—a quarterback's view of care coordination. N Engl J Med. 2014;371(6):489–91.
- 9. Brooke BS, et al. Early primary care provider follow-up and readmission after high-risk surgery. JAMA Surg. 2014;149(8): 821–8.
- 10. •• Chow WB, et al. Optimal preoperative assessment of the geriatric surgical patient: a best practices guideline from the American College of Surgeons National Surgical Quality Improvement Program and the American Geriatrics Society. J Am Coll Surg. 2012;215(4):453–66. This article gives a concise summary of factors that are critical in the pre-operative assessment of a geriatric patient.
- Silbert B, et al. Preexisting cognitive impairment is associated with postoperative cognitive dysfunction after hip joint replacement surgery. Anesthesiology. 2015;122(6):1224–34.
- Inouye SK, Westendorp RGJ, Saczynski JS. Delirium in elderly people. The Lancet. 2014;383(9920):911–22.
- Silbert BS, et al. A comparison of the effect of high- and lowdose fentanyl on the incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction after coronary artery bypass surgery in the elderly. Anesthesiology. 2006;104(6):1137–45.
- 14. Monk TG, et al. Predictors of cognitive dysfunction after major noncardiac surgery. Anesthesiology. 2008;108(1):18–30.
- Newman MF, et al. Report of the substudy assessing the impact of neurocognitive function on quality of life 5 years after cardiac surgery. Stroke. 2001;32(12):2874–81.
- Steinmetz J, et al. Long-term consequences of postoperative cognitive dysfunction. Anesthesiology. 2009;110(3):548–55.
- de Luis D, Lopez Guzman A. Nutritional status of adult patients admitted to internal medicine departments in public hospitals in Castilla y Leon, Spain—A multi-center study. Eur J Intern Med. 2006;17(8):556–60.
- Rady MY, Ryan T, Starr NJ. Clinical characteristics of preoperative hypoalbuminemia predict outcome of cardiovascular surgery. JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr. 1997;21(2):81–90.
- White JV, et al. Consensus statement: Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics and American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition: characteristics recommended for the identification and documentation of adult malnutrition (undernutrition). JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr. 2012;36(3):275–83.
- Radtke FM, et al. Duration of fluid fasting and choice of analgesic are modifiable factors for early postoperative delirium. Eur J Anaesthesiol. 2010;27(5):411–6.
- Brady M, Kinn S, Stuart P. Preoperative fasting for adults to prevent perioperative complications. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2003;4:004423.
- 22. Donegan DJ, et al. Use of medical comorbidities to predict complications after hip fracture surgery in the elderly. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2010;92(4):807–13.
- 23. Campanelli CM. American Geriatrics Society updated beers criteria for potentially inappropriate medication use in older adults: the American Geriatrics Society 2012 Beers Criteria Update Expert Panel. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2012;60(4):616.
- 24. Walston J, et al. Research agenda for frailty in older adults: toward a better understanding of physiology and etiology: summary from the American Geriatrics Society/National Institute on Aging Research Conference on Frailty in Older Adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2006;54(6):991–1001.
- 25. Clegg A, et al. Frailty in elderly people. Lancet. 2013;381(9868): 752–62.
- 26. Fried LP, et al. Frailty in older adults: evidence for a phenotype. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci. 2001;56(3):M146–56.

- 27. Bandeen-Roche K, et al. Phenotype of frailty: characterization in the women's health and aging studies. J Gerontol A. 2006; 61(3):262–6.
- Woods NF, et al. Frailty: emergence and consequences in women aged 65 and older in the Women's Health Initiative Observational Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2005;53(8):1321–30.
- 29. Woo J, et al. Frailty screening in the community using the FRAIL scale. J Am Med Dir Assoc. 2015;16(5):412–9.
- Morley JE, Malmstrom TK, Miller DK. A simple frailty questionnaire (FRAIL) predicts outcomes in middle aged African Americans. J Nutr Health Aging. 2012;16(7):601–8.
- Ensrud KE, et al. Comparison of 2 frailty indexes for prediction of falls, disability, fractures, and death in older women. Arch Intern Med. 2008;168(4):382–9.
- 32. Akishita M, et al. Priorities of health care outcomes for the elderly. J Am Med Dir Assoc. 2013;14(7):479–84.
- Fowler FJ Jr, et al. Decision-making process reported by Medicare patients who had coronary artery stenting or surgery for prostate cancer. J Gen Intern Med. 2012;27(8):911–6.
- Al-Itejawi HH, et al. Development of a patient decision aid for the treatment of localised prostate cancer: a participatory design approach. J Clin Nurs. 2016;25(7–8):1131–44.
- Santema TB, et al. Shared decision making in vascular surgery: an exploratory study. Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg. 2016;51(4):587–93.
- 36. Causarano N, et al. Pre-consultation educational group intervention to improve shared decision-making for postmastectomy breast reconstruction: a pilot randomized controlled trial. Support Care Cancer. 2015;23(5):1365–75.
- Silvers MA, et al. Potential benefits of early nutritional intervention in adults with upper gastrointestinal cancer: a pilot randomised trial. Supp Care Cancer. 2014;22(11):3035–44.
- Cooper Z, et al. Pitfalls in communication that lead to nonbeneficial emergency surgery in elderly patients with serious illness: description of the problem and elements of a solution. Ann Surg. 2014;260(6):949–57.
- 39. Deutsch MA, et al. Beyond adding years to life: health-related quality-of-life and functional outcomes in patients with severe aortic valve stenosis at high surgical risk undergoing transcatheter aortic valve replacement. Curr Cardiol Rev. 2013;9(4):281–94.
- Peschman J, Brasel KJ. End-of-life care of the geriatric surgical patient. Surg Clin North Am. 2015;95(1):191–202.
- 41. Jeurnink SM, et al. Predictors of survival in patients with malignant gastric outlet obstruction: a patient-oriented decision approach for palliative treatment. Dig Liver Dis. 2011;43(7): 548–52.
- 42. Rees JR, et al. A prospective study of patient reported outcomes in pancreatic and peri-ampullary malignancy. World J Surg. 2013;37(10):2443–53.
- Wu RC, et al. Evaluation of the rectal cancer patient decision aid: a before and after study. Dis Colon Rectum. 2016;59(3):165–72.
- 44. •• Mohanty S, et al. Optimal perioperative management of the geriatric patient: a best practices guideline from the american college of surgeons NSQIP and the American Geriatrics Society. J Am Coll Surg. 2016;222(5):930–47. This reference details the geriatrics specific issues that should be addressed in the perioperative period.
- Aronovitch SA. Intraoperatively acquired pressure ulcer prevalence: a national study. J Wound Ostomy Cont Nurs. 1999; 26(3):130–6.
- 46. Esnaola NF, Cole DJ. Perioperative normothermia during major surgery: is it important? Adv Surg. 2011;45:249–63.
- 47. The Cochrane database of systematic reviews. issue 7 2013. J Evid Based Med. 2013;6(3):197–8.
- Choi PT, et al. Epidural analgesia for pain relief following hip or knee replacement. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2003; 3:Cd003071.

- 49. Paul JE, et al. Femoral nerve block improves analgesia outcomes after total knee arthroplasty: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Anesthesiology. 2010;113(5):1144–62.
- Neuman MD, et al. Anesthesia technique, mortality, and length of stay after hip fracture surgery. JAMA. 2014;311(24):2508–17.
- Gan TJ, et al. Consensus guidelines for the management of postoperative nausea and vomiting. Anesth Analg. 2014;118(1): 85–113.
- 52. American Geriatrics Society. American Geriatrics Society 2015 updated beers criteria for potentially inappropriate medication use in older adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2015;63(11):2227–46.
- 53. Grocott MP, et al. Perioperative increase in global blood flow to explicit defined goals and outcomes following surgery. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2012;11:Cd004082.
- 54. Pearse RM, et al. Effect of a perioperative, cardiac output-guided hemodynamic therapy algorithm on outcomes following major gastrointestinal surgery: a randomized clinical trial and systematic review. JAMA. 2014;311(21):2181–90.
- Ellis G, et al. Comprehensive geriatric assessment for older adults admitted to hospital. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2011;7: 006211.
- 56. Robinson TN, et al. Postoperative delirium in the elderly: risk factors and outcomes. Ann Surg. 2009;249(1):173–8.
- Ansaloni L, et al. Risk factors and incidence of postoperative delirium in elderly patients after elective and emergency surgery. Br J Surg. 2010;97(2):273–80.
- Demeure MJ, Fain MJ. The elderly surgical patient and postoperative delirium. J Am Coll Surg. 2006;203(5):752–7.
- Flinn DR, et al. Prevention, diagnosis, and management of postoperative delirium in older adults. J Am Coll Surg. 2009; 209(2):261–8 quiz 294.
- 60. Witlox J, et al. Delirium in elderly patients and the risk of postdischarge mortality, institutionalization, and dementia: a meta-analysis. JAMA. 2010;304(4):443–51.
- American Geriatrics Society. American Geriatrics Society abstracted clinical practice guideline for postoperative delirium in older adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2015;63(1):142–50.

- Khuri SF, et al. Determinants of long-term survival after major surgery and the adverse effect of postoperative complications. Ann Surg. 2005;242(3):326–41 discussion 341–3.
- Gillespie LD, et al. Interventions for preventing falls in older people living in the community. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2009;2:007146.
- 64. Pashikanti L, Von Ah D. Impact of early mobilization protocol on the medical-surgical inpatient population: an integrated review of literature. Clin Nurse Spec. 2012;26(2):87–94.
- Inouye SK, et al. A multicomponent intervention to prevent delirium in hospitalized older patients. N Engl J Med. 1999;340(9):669–76.
- Potter J, et al. The nutritional status and clinical course of acute admissions to a geriatric unit. Age Ageing. 1995;24(2):131–6.
- 67. Herrmann FR, et al. Serum albumin level on admission as a predictor of death, length of stay, and readmission. Arch Intern Med. 1992;152(1):125–30.
- Sullivan DH. Risk factors for early hospital readmission in a select population of geriatric rehabilitation patients: the significance of nutritional status. J Am Geriatr Soc. 1992;40(8):792–8.
- McGory ML, et al. Developing quality indicators for elderly surgical patients. Ann Surg. 2009;250(2):338–47.
- Bergstrom N, et al. The Braden Scale for predicting pressure sore risk. Nurs Res. 1987;36(4):205–10.
- 71. Thorn CC, et al. The Waterlow score for risk assessment in surgical patients. Ann R Coll Surg Engl. 2013;95(1):52–6.
- Norton D, McLaren R, Exton-Smith AN. An investigation of geriatric nursing problems in hospital. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 1962.
- Pancorbo-Hidalgo PL, et al. Risk assessment scales for pressure ulcer prevention: a systematic review. J Adv Nurs. 2006;54(1): 94–110.
- 74. Mohanty S, et al. Risk of discharge to postacute care: a patientcentered outcome for the american college of surgeons national surgical quality improvement program surgical risk calculator. JAMA Surg. 2015;150(5):480–4.