



Post-operative atrial fibrillation: should we anticoagulate?

Pooja S. Jagadish¹, Irene Kirolos², Sarthak Khare³, Aranyak Rawal⁴, Victor Lin¹, Rami N. Khouzam²

¹Department of Internal Medicine, ²Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Cardiovascular Diseases, University of Tennessee Health Science Center, Memphis, TN, USA; ³Department of Medicine, St Elizabeth's Medical Center/Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA;

⁴Department of Internal Medicine-Pediatrics, University of Tennessee Health Science Center, Memphis, TN, USA

Contributions: (I) Conception and design: PS Jagadish, A Rawal, RN Khouzam; (II) Administrative support: None; (III) Provision of study materials or patients: PS Jagadish, V Lin; (IV) Collection and assembly of data: None; (V) Data analysis and interpretation: PS Jagadish, I Kirolos, S Khare, V Lin; (VI) Manuscript writing: All authors; (VII) Final approval of manuscript: All authors.

Correspondence to: Pooja S. Jagadish, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Tennessee Health Science Center, 956 Court Ave., Suite H314, Memphis, TN 38163, USA. Email: jagadish@uthsc.edu.

Abstract: The prevalence of atrial fibrillation (AF) is estimated to be 12 million by the year 2030. A subset of those patients fall into the category of post-operative atrial fibrillation (POAF) and either develop POAF after cardiac procedures [coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) and valvular procedures] or non-cardiac procedures. With the rise in surgical procedures, POAF represents a significant economic burden. POAF usually converts to sinus rhythm on its own, prompting questions about whether there is a need to treat it and if there is a need for anticoagulation. This review discusses risk factors, pathophysiology, complications of POAF, and mechanisms of risk stratifying patients to determine when to anticoagulate.

Keywords: Atrial fibrillation (AF); post-operative; anticoagulation; arrhythmia

Submitted Jun 11, 2019. Accepted for publication Jun 28, 2019.

doi: 10.21037/atm.2019.07.10

View this article at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.21037/atm.2019.07.10>

Introduction: post-operative atrial fibrillation (POAF) in cardiac and noncardiac scenarios

Atrial fibrillation (AF) is a relatively common disorder affecting between 2.7 and 6.1 million individuals in the US alone, based on 2010 data, and having a projected prevalence of up to 12 million by the year 2030, based on logarithmic growth trends (1). AF from a reversible cause is known as secondary AF (2,3). These secondary causes include cardiac and noncardiac surgery in the past 30 days, acute myocardial infarction occurring in the past 30 days, acute infection, acute alcohol intoxication, thyrotoxicosis, acute pericarditis or tamponade, and acute pulmonary phenomena (including pulmonary embolism, pneumothorax, and bronchoscope intervention) (3,4). Focusing on the subpopulation of POAF, there are two major categories: cardiac and non-cardiac. The incidence of AF among adults aged 45+ is only 3% for non-cardiac surgery but ranges from 20% to 40% among those undergoing thoracic or cardiac surgery (5,6). In fact, patients undergoing both coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG) as well as valvular surgery have the greatest

risk of developing POAF, at 60–80% (5,7).

POAF typically converts to sinus rhythm without intervention (8,9), creating questions about whether to treat the arrhythmia or begin anticoagulation. The most critical complication of untreated AF is stroke, including stroke severity and mortality from stroke (1), which is especially common in the post-cardiothoracic surgery AF population (5). Because recent data suggests that new-onset POAF has a similar long-term thromboembolic risk profile when compared to non-valvular AF (9,10), it is imperative to consider POAF when assessing stroke risk.

Risk factors, pathophysiology, and complications of POAF

Pathophysiology

The pathophysiology of POAF is multifactorial (5). First, patients undergoing surgery are generally hypercoagulable with a high risk of bleeding (5). Post-surgically, sympathetic activation leads to heart rate elevation and catecholamine

release, which predisposes the myocardium to arrhythmias. Electrolyte imbalances, transient hypoxemia, and electrophysiological disturbances may additionally be contributory. Next, hypervolemia from intraoperative fluid administration can lead to right atrial stretching, causing an arrhythmia. In post-cardiac surgery populations, specifically, coronary artery disease in atrial-supply vessels independently predicts new onset POAF (5,11). Finally, elevated C-reactive protein, interleukins, and leukocyte count may also play a role in especially post-cardiac surgery patients; though, this mechanism is not as well defined (5).

Risk factors & predictive models

The major risk factors for POAF among both non-cardiac surgery and cardiac surgery patients are male sex, advancing age, congestive heart failure (CHF) history, and hypertension (5,6,10,12). Lung disease and elevated brain natriuretic peptide are also predictors in non-cardiac surgery patients (12). Among cardiac surgery patients, specifically, history of arrhythmias, history of vascular disease, and type of surgery are also implicated (5,6,13,14). In general, older patients and those with more preoperative comorbidities will be more likely to develop POAF, and this has been used to create predictive scoring systems.

Based on a study of 856 patients, of whom 147 (17.2%) developed POAF, Passman *et al.* derived a POAF risk score based on the most key predictors (15). One point was given to each of male sex and heart rate ≥ 72 , age 55–74 was given 3 points, and age ≥ 75 was given 4 points. Zero percent of patients with a score of 0 developed POAF, while 35.3% with a score of 6 developed POAF ($P < 0.001$ for the trend).

Recently, Mariscalco *et al.* created the POAF Score to predict the risk of POAF post-cardiac surgery (14). Points are given for predictors of AF, where there is one point for each of age 60–69, COPD history, estimated glomerular filtration rate < 15 mL/min/1.73 m² or dialysis, emergency surgery, preoperative need for intraaortic balloon pump, left ventricular ejection fraction $< 30\%$, and valvular surgery. Additional points are given for each decade above 70, where 70–79 years old receives 2 points and age ≥ 80 receives 3 points. Those with a score ≥ 3 had higher rates of complications, ranging from mortality to stroke to need for renal replacement therapy.

Complications

Arrhythmias contribute to a longer hospital course and higher mortality rates (8,9), and patients are more likely to

develop complications (5). These include CHF, myocardial infarction, cardiac arrest, and even bacterial pneumonia (5). The most well-documented and critical consequence of POAF (and AF overall) is stroke.

Based on data from the POISE trial, “[a]fter adjustment for perioperative risk factors, POAF remained an independent predictor of stroke within 30 days of surgery (OR 3.51; 95% CI, 1.45–8.52)” (5). The risk of cardioembolic stroke is especially noteworthy among post-CT surgery AF patients, whereby there is a threefold increased risk of stroke (5). Furthermore, stroke risk is 1.47% at 1 year post-discharge in POAF patients compared to 0.36% in controls without AF (5).

More recent data from a meta-analysis including 2,458,010 patients across 35 studies found a higher risk of stroke in patients undergoing non-cardiac surgery versus those undergoing cardiac surgery [hazard ratio (HR) 2.00; 95% CI, 1.70–2.35 *vs.* HR 1.20; 95% CI, 1.07–1.34; P for difference < 0.0001] (9). Butt *et al.* found that the incidence of thromboembolism in POAF versus non-valvular AF patients was similar (HR 0.95; 95% CI, 0.85–1.07) (10). Given the significance of these complications, risk of recurrence of AF must be weighed when treating patients post-operatively.

Recurrence of AF

Addressing the source of the arrhythmia in secondary AF is considered curative, but long-term data on recurrence remains sparse (4). In one study of secondary AF among Framingham Heart Study participants, 56/118 (47%) of recent CT surgery patients and 44/69 (64%) of non-CT patients had AF recurrence (3). A recent meta-analysis on the topic that included 8 multi-national studies of 1,157 participants found that 28.3% of patients with non-invasive monitoring (electrocardiography, telemetry, and wearable event monitors) had AF recurrence in the first 4 weeks post-discharge from cardiac surgery (16). In contrast, 60.9–100% had recurrence over 2 years in the implanted monitoring group (16).

More recently, the MONITOR-AF trial recently completed and found that 14/23 (60.9%) of patients had AF recurrence post-CABG (17). Mariscalco *et al.* noted that among 17,262 cardiac surgery patients, 4,561 (26.4%) developed POAF—primarily within 2 days of surgery. The PRoSpective cohort study of surveillance for perioperative AF RECURRENCE (PREDICT AF RECURRENCE) is an ongoing study that seeks to determine the recurrence of

POAF in patients undergoing major non-cardiac surgery for management of malignancy (18). Because acute AF not only seems to trend towards recurrence (19) but also increases the risk of cardioembolic stroke and systemic embolism (9), there is a need address risk stratification and the importance of anticoagulation in this population.

Risk stratification and anticoagulation

The CHA₂DS₂-VASc score is the guideline-directed risk-stratification tool that is part of the 2014 American Heart Association/American College of Cardiology/Heart Rhythm Society (AHA/ACC/HRS) Guideline for the Management of Patients with AF (20). Traditionally, oral anticoagulation (OAC) is recommended for CHA₂DS₂-VASc score of ≥ 2 in males and ≥ 3 in females, especially in patients with an AF duration of at least 48 hours (5,20). OAC may be optionally started in male patients with a score of 1 and females with a score of 2 (20). This scoring tool is used for all types of AF, including secondary/POAF, despite lack of validation studies in the post-surgical population (5). Because risk of bleeding and subsequent complications is high, OAC should be started carefully, consider the risks.

Current data on the benefit of OAC is mixed. In a general population of patients with secondary AF, Quon *et al.* suggests that anticoagulation does not improve stroke incidence [odds ratio (OR) 1.22; 95% CI, 0.65–2.27] (2), while Butt *et al.* demonstrates that anticoagulation (OAC) significantly reduces the risk of thromboembolic phenomena among non-cardiac POAF-patients when compared to those who were not anticoagulated (HR 0.52; 95% CI, 0.40–0.67) (10). Using their POAF score, Mariscalco *et al.* suggest the consideration of anticoagulation in high-risk patients—those with a score of at least 3—because OAC reduces mortality associated with thromboembolism (14). Other authors similarly suggest anticoagulating those post-surgical patients (cardiac and non-cardiac) who are higher risk (12,21) but acknowledge that most patients will probably not need therapy (12). All authors recommend weighing bleeding risk carefully before starting OAC (5,10,12,14,21).

However, the decision on when to discontinue anticoagulant therapy remains controversial. Yadava *et al.* suggests following the 2005 American College of Chest Physicians guidelines and continuing OAC for at least 30 days after conversion to normal sinus rhythm (22). In contrast, Greenberg *et al.* states that therapy “*should be continued for a minimum of 4–6 weeks after return to sinus rhythm*” (23). Both authors recommend considering a

patient’s risk factors for stroke and recurrence of AF prior to discontinuing OAC.

Conclusions

Despite low-level evidence in this population, the general consensus per the AHA/ACC/HRS guidelines appears to be that anticoagulation is recommended for patients with prolonged duration POAF (>48 hours) with either multiple stroke risk factors or other AF comorbidities. Expert opinion per the current literature on the subject concurs with this advice. When considering whether to discontinue therapy, a patient’s stroke risk must be considered, but patients likely will require a minimum of 4 weeks of anticoagulation.

More questions remain to be answered through future research to strengthen the guidelines. First, should anticoagulation be used only for high risk POAF patients or for all POAF patients? Second, are the scoring systems described in previous studies valid tools for the evaluation of POAF patients who need anticoagulation? Third, what is the risk-benefit ratio for patients who were offered anticoagulation in the long-term, and can we ever stop anticoagulation in those patients? In conclusion, further randomized trials are imperative to guide answers to these questions and to add more depth to the guidelines regarding use of anticoagulation in POAF patients.

Acknowledgments

None.

Footnote

Conflicts of Interest: The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Ethical Statement: The authors are accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

References

1. Benjamin EJ, Muntner P, Alonso A, et al. Heart Disease and Stroke Statistics-2019 Update: A Report From the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 2019;139:e56-528.

2. Quon MJ, Behloul H, Pilote L. Anticoagulant Use and Risk of Ischemic Stroke and Bleeding in Patients With Secondary Atrial Fibrillation Associated With Acute Coronary Syndromes, Acute Pulmonary Disease, or Sepsis. *JACC Clin Electrophysiol* 2018;4:386-93.
3. Lubitz SA, Yin X, Rienstra M, et al. Long-term outcomes of secondary atrial fibrillation in the community: the Framingham Heart Study. *Circulation* 2015;131:1648-55.
4. January CT, Wann LS, Alpert JS, et al. 2014 AHA/ACC/HRS guideline for the management of patients with atrial fibrillation: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on practice guidelines and the Heart Rhythm Society. *Circulation* 2014;130:e199-267.
5. Bessissow A, Khan J, Devereaux PJ, et al. Postoperative atrial fibrillation in non-cardiac and cardiac surgery: an overview. *J Thromb Haemost* 2015;13 Suppl 1:S304-12.
6. Bhavne PD, Goldman LE, Vittinghoff E, et al. Incidence, predictors, and outcomes associated with postoperative atrial fibrillation after major noncardiac surgery. *Am Heart J* 2012;164:918-24.
7. Helgadóttir S, Sigurdsson MI, Ingvarsdóttir IL, et al. Atrial fibrillation following cardiac surgery: risk analysis and long-term survival. *J Cardiothorac Surg* 2012;7:87.
8. Walsh SR, Tang T, Gaunt ME, et al. New arrhythmias after non-cardiothoracic surgery. *BMJ* 2006;333:715.
9. Lin MH, Kamel H, Singer DE, et al. Perioperative/Postoperative Atrial Fibrillation and Risk of Subsequent Stroke and/or Mortality. *Stroke* 2019;50:1364-71.
10. Butt JH, Olesen JB, Havers-Borgersen E, et al. Risk of Thromboembolism Associated With Atrial Fibrillation Following Noncardiac Surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;72:2027-36.
11. Kolvekar S, D'Souza A, Akhtar P, et al. Role of atrial ischaemia in development of atrial fibrillation following coronary artery bypass surgery. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 1997;11:70-5.
12. Smith H, Yeung C, Gowing S, et al. A review and analysis of strategies for prediction, prevention and management of post-operative atrial fibrillation after non-cardiac thoracic surgery. *J Thorac Dis* 2018;10:S3799-808.
13. Vaporciyan AA, Correa AM, Rice DC, et al. Risk factors associated with atrial fibrillation after noncardiac thoracic surgery: analysis of 2588 patients. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2004;127:779-86.
14. Mariscalco G, Biancari F, Zanobini M, et al. Bedside tool for predicting the risk of postoperative atrial fibrillation after cardiac surgery: the POAF score. *J Am Heart Assoc* 2014;3:e000752.
15. Passman RS, Gingold DS, Amar D, et al. Prediction rule for atrial fibrillation after major noncardiac thoracic surgery. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2005;79:1698-703.
16. Lowres N, Mulcahy G, Jin K, et al. Incidence of postoperative atrial fibrillation recurrence in patients discharged in sinus rhythm after cardiac surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2018;26:504-11.
17. El-Chami MF, Merchant FM, Smith P, et al. Management of New-Onset Postoperative Atrial Fibrillation Utilizing Insertable Cardiac Monitor Technology to Observe Recurrence of AF (MONITOR-AF). *Pacing Clin Electrophysiol* 2016;39:1083-9.
18. Higuchi S, Kabeya Y, Matsushita K, et al. The study protocol for PREDICT AF RECURRENCE: a PROSPECTIVE cohort study of surveillance for perioperative Atrial Fibrillation RECURRENCE in major non-cardiac surgery for malignancy. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord* 2018;18:127.
19. Ayoub K, Habash F, Almomani A, et al. Long Term Risk of Recurrent Atrial Fibrillation and Ischemic Stroke after Post-Operative Atrial Fibrillation Complicating Cardiac and Non-Cardiac Surgeries. *J Atr Fibrillation* 2018;10:1660.
20. January CT, Wann LS, Calkins H, et al. 2019 AHA/ACC/HRS Focused Update of the 2014 AHA/ACC/HRS Guideline for the Management of Patients With Atrial Fibrillation: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Heart Rhythm Society. *Heart Rhythm* 2019;16:e66-93.
21. Maaros M, Pohjantähti-Maaroos H, Halonen J, et al. New onset postoperative atrial fibrillation and early anticoagulation after cardiac surgery. *Scand Cardiovasc J* 2017;51:323-6.
22. Yadava M, Hughey AB, Crawford TC. Postoperative atrial fibrillation: incidence, mechanisms, and clinical correlates. *Cardiol Clin* 2014;32:627-36.
23. Greenberg JW, Lancaster TS, Schuessler RB, et al. Postoperative atrial fibrillation following cardiac surgery: a persistent complication. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2017;52:665-72.

Cite this article as: Jagadish PS, Kirolos I, Khare S, Rawal A, Lin V, Khouzam RN. Post-operative atrial fibrillation: should we anticoagulate? *Ann Transl Med* 2019;7(17):407. doi: 10.21037/atm.2019.07.10