



Nonintubated Anesthesia in Video-assisted Thoracoscopic Surgery

 Ali Sait Kavaklı

Department of Anesthesiology and Reanimation, İstinye University Faculty of Medicine, İstanbul, Türkiye

ABSTRACT

The standard anesthesia method in intubated patients during thoracoscopic surgery is one-lung ventilation (OLV). Accumulated experience in video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery (VATS) has remarkably advanced minimally invasive techniques in thoracic surgeries, a progress that has prompted anesthesiologists to pursue different and alternative methods. The desire to avoid possible general anesthesia side effects, such as intubation-related airway trauma, mechanical ventilation-induced lung damage, residual neuromuscular blockade, and postoperative nausea and vomiting, has led to the introduction of nonintubated anesthesia techniques as an alternative anesthesia method in thoracic surgery. Nonintubated techniques are established to preserve the patient's spontaneous breathing during iatrogenic pneumothorax created by the surgeon during VATS and the atelectasis on the side to be operated on, providing sufficient surgical field of view and allowing successful completion of the surgery. Although this does not compete with continuing traditional thoracic anesthesia, in the future, nonintubated techniques will gain greater acceptance for VATS with appropriate patient selection and increased experience. This article reviews nonintubated anesthesia techniques used in VATS, including their advantages, disadvantages, appropriate patient selection, and complications.

Keywords: Anesthesia, non-intubated, video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery

Please cite this article as: "Kavaklı AS. Nonintubated Anesthesia in Video-assisted Thoracoscopic Surgery. GKDA Derg 2023;29(3):123-132".

Introduction

Traditionally, in thoracoscopic surgeries, one-lung ventilation (OLV) under general anesthesia has been a standard anesthesia method which provides a good safety profile and optimal conditions. The development of uni- and multiportal video-assisted minimally invasive techniques in thoracic surgery has become a springboard for the use of minimally invasive approaches in anesthesia techniques for thoracic surgery to the fore. Since thoracoscopic surgeries conducted under local, regional, or general anesthesia with the aid of subglottic devices in spontaneously breathing patients produce successful results, especially in selected patients, the routine use of these techniques has gained widespread interest.^[1,2] Minor and major video-assisted thoracoscopic surgeries (VATS) can be safely performed under regional anesthesia or general anesthesia with subglottic devices in nonintubated spontaneously breathing patients.^[3,4] The most important factor limiting their standardization in daily routine use is the risks involved in these anesthesia techniques, especially in major surgical procedures.

In thoracic surgery, non-intubating techniques present challenges and potential advantages for both the anesthetist and the surgeon. This article aimed to review nonintubated anesthesia techniques in VATS.

Brief History

Until the adaptation of an inflatable cuff to an endotracheal tube described by Guedel et al.^[5] in 1928, ether or chloroform anesthesia with mask was the most popular anesthesia technique. In the early 1900s, metal endotracheal tubes were designed and later rubber tubes were placed in the absence of laryngoscopy; however, these applications were not widely accepted because these required expertise and skill in blind placement and had to be performed under deep anesthesia. The advent of cuffed tubes was a turning point. Cuffed tubes protected the lungs from gastric aspiration and allowed controlled breathing through the suppression of spontaneous breathing with controlled hyperventilation, while concurrently achieving anesthesia levels deep enough to provide diaphragmatic immobility and apnea.

Address for correspondence: Ali Sait Kavaklı, MD. İstinye Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi, Anesteziyoloji ve Reanimasyon Anabilim Dalı, İstanbul, Türkiye

Phone: +90 505 677 51 21 **E-mail:** alisaitkavakli@hotmail.com

Submitted: April 18, 2023 **Revised:** April 19, 2023 **Accepted:** May 09, 2023 **Available Online:** September 19, 2023

The Cardiovascular Thoracic Anaesthesia and Intensive Care - Available online at www.gkdaybd.org

OPEN ACCESS This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>).



In thoracic surgery, cuffed tubes prevented pneumothorax and suppressed the patient's spontaneous breathing; however, contamination from the diseased lung to the healthy lung and the inability to isolate a single lung remained important obstacles in these surgeries. In 1931, Gale et al.^[6] described selective one-lung ventilation. In this technique, after patient intubation with a cuffed endotracheal tube, the cuff was advanced to the east of the bronchus of the intact lung and then inflated. Hence, while the healthy lung continued to ventilate, the other lung was deflated. The definition of modern laryngoscopes and the subsequent emergence of the Macintosh laryngoscope blades in 1943, still used today, provided convenience and accuracy in endotracheal tube placement.^[7] With the definition of bronchial blocker by Archibald in 1935 and double-lumen tubes (DLT) by Carlens in 1949, great advances in thoracic anesthesia were achieved.^[8,9]

Pompeo et al.^[10] used epidural anesthesia for solitary pulmonary nodule resection in an awake patient in 2004. In 2007, Al-Abdullatif et al.^[11] elucidated that some major surgeries and even lung resections were possible with minimal sedation in a nonintubated patient.

Presently, advancements in VATS allow the use of less invasive anesthesia techniques in these surgeries.

Advantages of Nonintubated Techniques in Vats

Avoiding the risk of possible general anesthesia complications is one of the most significant advantages of non-intubating techniques. In patients undergoing mechanical ventilation under general anesthesia, the incidence of postoperative nausea, vomiting, pulmonary complications, and residual block has been reported as high.^[12–14] Difficulty in DLT placement highlights bronchial blocker preference, especially in patients with difficult airways.^[15] These difficulties can be overcome with the development and increasing use of flexible bronchoscopies; however, it has been reported that both DLTs and bronchial blockers may be associated with complications, such as sore throat and hoarseness, including very serious airway complications such as arytenoid dislocation and rupture.^[16–19] The limited number of studies and meta-analyses comparing non-intubating techniques with traditional intubated OLV techniques in VATS has demonstrated that non-intubated techniques are associated with shorter hospital stays and shorter anesthesia and operation times and thus lower costs, including lesser incidence for hoarseness and sore throat. It has been also demonstrated that non-intubated techniques provide less nursing care and shorten postoperative fasting time.^[20–29]

Existing literature has not elucidated whether nonintubating techniques are superior to traditional intubated meth-

ods in terms of survival, but it has been reported that they are less efficacious in inflammatory cytokine and lymphocyte responses and stress hormone levels, especially in the postoperative period.^[30–32] In patients with comorbidities such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease who may require intensive care in the postoperative period, nonintubated techniques should be considered as an alternative to conventional OLV.^[33]

Disadvantages of Nonintubated Techniques in Vats

Patients can maintain spontaneous breathing during non-intubated VATS. Hypoventilation develops with iatrogenic pneumothorax created during the procedure, which causes pulmonary perfusion decline. Functional residual capacity decreases and hypercapnia develops.^[34]

Maintaining airway safety in an emergency is one of the most important problems in nonintubated patients, especially patients in the lateral decubitus position. Although VATS is a safe surgical procedure featuring small incisions, encountering major complications that are difficult to manage is possible.^[35] One of the most important complications requiring urgent intervention is bleeding that originates from the pulmonary artery. Emergency thoracotomy may be required for uncontrolled bleeding. In this case, the patient should be intubated in the lateral decubitus position or quickly placed in the supine position. However, where intubation is expected to be difficult, attempting intubation in the lateral decubitus position may render the situation extremely challenging.^[36]

Although some conditions such as obesity, emphysema, excessive movement of the diaphragm or mediastinum, or cough render non-intubation techniques difficult to employ, they may not be definite contraindications. Anesthesiologists who will use nonintubated techniques should have experience in this field and the ability to address problems that may occur intraoperatively.

Patient Selection

More often, nonintubated techniques have been used in minor thoracic surgeries involving low-risk patients; however, advancements in technology and increased experience have demonstrated that these techniques are safe and applicable in more complicated procedures for selected and high-risk patients. Their good safety profile has been shown in surgeries such as pulmonary nodule resections,^[4,10,37,38] pleural and pericardial effusions,^[39] pneumothorax,^[40–42] biopsies,^[43–45] thymectomy,^[46–48] volume reduction surgeries,^[29,49] segmentectomy,^[50,51] and lobectomy.^[26,52,53]

In the past, patients with American Society of Anesthesiologists grades 1–2, body mass index of <30, cardiopulmonary

Table 1. Contraindications for nonintubated techniques**General contraindications**

The patient declines
 Patients with an ASA score ≥ 4
 Obesity

Anesthesia-related contraindications

Difficult airway expectation
 Preoperative FEV₁ <30%
 Situations where isolation is necessary to protect the contralateral lung from contamination (acute lung infection, tbc, etc.)
 Presence of persistent cough or excessive secretions
 Gastric reflux, risk of regurgitation
 Presence of phrenic nerve paralysis on the opposite side
 Severe cardiopulmonary dysfunction
 Hemodynamic instability
 Coagulopathy
 Neurological disorders (risk of seizures, inability to cooperate), increased intracranial pressure
 Presence of hypoxia (PaO₂ <60 mmHg) and/or hypercapnia (PaCO₂ >50 mmHg) during resting
 Situations resulting in contraindications for regional anesthesia

Surgical-related contraindications

Large pleural adhesions
 History of pulmonary resection or ipsilateral thoracic surgery
 Pulmonary artery bleeding

ASA: American Society of Anesthesiologists; FEV₁: Forced expiratory volume in one second; PaO₂: Arterial partial pressure of oxygen; PaCO₂: Partial carbon dioxide pressure

stability, and no expectation for difficult airway were preferred for nonintubated techniques.^[10,28,54] At present, these techniques can be used safely in high-risk patients.^[11,45,55–57] Thus far, despite the absence of a definite consensus, similar contraindications for nonintubated techniques are mentioned in the literature.^[2,54,58,59] Table 1 summarizes the contraindications for nonintubated techniques. Moreover, in the table, recommendations are presented including what should be considered in the context of surgery and anesthesia team's experience and current patient risk factors.

Anesthesia Management

Preoperative Evaluation

During the preoperative evaluation, patients who are candidates for nonintubated techniques should be educated regarding the surgical procedure to be conducted and the anesthesia method to be employed. Particularly where regional anesthesia techniques are utilized, patients should be warned of the discomforts that may result from staying in the lateral position and the temporary respiratory problems that may occur during iatrogenic pneumothorax.

As premedications, antagonizable agents should be selected. Benzodiazepines may be an optimal option, especially since they can be antagonized with flumazenil to eliminate

cooperation disorder and hypoventilation that may occur prior to and during the procedure. It has been reported that complementary techniques such as hypnosis decrease preoperative anxiety and present as an alternative premedication methods for respiratory depression prevention secondary to pharmacological agents.^[60,61]

Intraoperative Monitoring

Intraoperative monitoring may differ in accordance with the patient's existing comorbidities and surgical procedure. Routine monitoring should include an electrocardiogram (ECG) with a minimum of three channels, pulse oximetry, and noninvasive blood pressure monitoring (depending on the patient's condition, invasive blood pressure monitoring may be preferred). Central venous line and urinary catheter placement can be decided based on the patients' conditions, the selected anesthesia method, and surgical procedure.

When non-intubating techniques are employed, the lung exposed to atmospheric pressure is vulnerable to atelectasis due to the surgical opening of the parietal pleura during spontaneous breathing, and OLV begins. Hypoxia that may occur in this situation can usually be prevented by a face mask or nasally administered supplemental oxygen, unless the patient has an additional pulmonary comorbidity. Hypercapnia that may emerge during OLV should not be ignored.

Generally, this “persistent hypercapnia” is well tolerated by patients. However, end-tidal carbon dioxide (EtCO₂) assessment is vital for monitoring the patient’s breathing pattern, rate, and hypercapnia that may occur during sedation and OLV. In the nonintubated patient, EtCO₂ can be monitored through specially designed nasal cannulas, an oxygen mask, or breathing circuit in patients via a subglottic device. Depth of anesthesia monitoring using the bispectral index (BIS) or patient state index (PSI) guides the appropriate depth of anesthesia to protect and maintain spontaneous breathing in the presence of sedation or subglottic device.

Anesthesia Method Selection

Nonintubating techniques render the surgical procedure possible in the absence of endotracheal intubation. Thereafter, various methods are then employed. The surgical procedure can be performed while the patient is fully awake, under mild sedation, under deep sedation, or under general anesthesia. Regional anesthesia or subglottic device use are also possible alternatives for these surgical procedures.

Regional anesthesia methods

Thoracic epidural anesthesia (TEA) is a well-known established technique among non-intubating techniques.^[10] While reducing the myocardial oxygen demand, its advantages include blood flow improvement, left ventricular function enhancement, pulse rate and arrhythmia frequency reduction, ventilation and peak expiratory flow rate enhancement, pulmonary vascular resistance reduction, and diaphragmatic contractility improvement. However, disadvantages also exist, including hypotension, block failure, postdural headache, and, if opioids are used, respiratory depression and urinary retention.^[11]

Placement of an epidural catheter between T1–T8 and preferably at T4–T5 level allows a T1–T8 block to provide an adequate anesthesia level while maintaining diaphragmatic respiration.^[10] Short-acting or long-acting and low- or high-concentration local anesthetics may be preferred, considering the onset of the effect or surgery duration. However, since the patient may experience pain during intrathoracic manipulations, the use of low-concentration and very high-concentration local anesthetic solutions should be avoided, as this may cause a tidal volume decline due to motor block formation.^[62] Maintenance can be provided as a bolus or continuous infusion. The use of infusion may be preferred as it can provide better hemodynamic stability and pain control compared to bolus administration.^[59]

Paravertebral block

Paravertebral block (PVB), the regional anesthesia method frequently used as an alternative to TEA among nonintubated techniques, is associated with decreased hypoten-

sion and postoperative pulmonary complications and creates a unilateral block without bilateral sympathectomy. It may serve as an alternative to TEA in sepsis, coagulopathy, neurological disorders, and vertebral disorders where epidural catheter placement is difficult or contraindicated.

In the paravertebral space, fatty tissue, dorsal ramus, intercostal nerves, blood vessels, hemiazygos vein, and sympathetic nerve trunks are present. Since the intrathoracic fascia does not encompass this space, the nerves here are more sensitive to the effects of local anesthetics.^[63] Although large-scale randomized studies evaluating PVB efficacy in nonintubated thoracic surgeries are warranted, a limited number of studies with small sample sizes report that PVBs added to nonintubated techniques using subglottic devices can provide effective and safe anesthesia.^[64–67]

Intercostal nerve block

Intercostal nerve blocks (ICB) are a simple and safe method of anesthesia and can be employed intraoperatively under direct vision. ICB is reported to offer advantages in terms of pain control and analgesic consumption in nonintubated VATS and can be used in major surgeries, especially with developments in uni-portal VATS techniques.^[52,68,69]

Serratus anterior plane block

In serratus anterior plane blocks (SAPB) a local anesthetic is injected in the plane between the serratus anterior and latissimus dorsi and between the chest wall and the serratus anterior muscles and are generally effective in T2–T9 dermatomes. Although a randomized controlled study is not available in the literature, a few case reports support the view that SAPB may be a suitable alternative in minor nonintubated VATS procedures.^[70–73]

Erector spina plane block

While studies exist demonstrating the postoperative analgesic efficacy of erector spina plane block (ESPB) in thoracic surgeries,^[74] few case reports exist mentioning ESPB efficacy in nonintubated VATS.^[75,76]

Subglottic devices

Currently, anesthesia management, in which spontaneous breathing is preserved under the subglottic device such as laryngeal mask (LMA) and with the addition of regional anesthesia, is becoming very popular among non-intubating methods.^[4] The requirement for sedation, especially due to anxiety, can sometimes suppress the awake patient’s spontaneous breathing. Such cases benefit from deeper sedation that afford spontaneous breathing and the use of subglottic airway devices for airway protection, particularly in combination with regional techniques.

In 2019, the consensus was reached in that the combination of intravenous anesthesia after LMA placement, ICB, superficial local anesthesia to the visceral pleura, and vagus nerve block was the optimal approach for nonintubated VATS.^[54] The procedure is initiated with induction using propofol and fentanyl/remifentanyl, followed by LMA placement once the BIS value is <60 or the PSI value is <50. To maintain anesthesia, propofol, remifentanyl, and/or dexmedetomidine infusions are used. Dexmedetomidine infusion may be terminated during pleural cavity closure, and propofol and remifentanyl infusions may be terminated during skin closure. With LMA, spontaneous breathing is allowed and oxygen is administered at 50% concentration with a flow rate of 2–3 L/min. The oxygen concentration should be titrated according to the patient's tolerance. If necessary, synchronized intermittent mechanical ventilation (SIMV) modes are preferred both for allowing spontaneous breathing and maintaining ventilation in the event of possible respiratory depression. Decreases in SpO₂ or increases in EtCO₂ can be solved through SIMV mode adjustments or via manual ventilation. Although it varies by patient, it is recommended that the SpO₂ value is >90 and the PaCO₂ value is <55–60 mmHg. This method also supplies a smoother intubation without the need for both preoxygenation and additional anesthetic agents except for a muscle relaxant during a possible need for intubation. Figure 1 demonstrate the standard anesthesia monitorization and adequacy of surgical view in a patient undergoing nonintubated VATS using LMA.

Complications

Hypoxia

In the event of surgeon-induced iatrogenic pneumothorax during non-intubating techniques, hypoxia may occur. However, this resulting hypoxia is minimal and a nasal cannula or mask with oxygen support can usually be employed to address this. If a subglottic device is used under general anesthesia that affords spontaneous breathing, manual ventilation in hypoxia situations or mechanical ventilation with low tidal volume in SIMV mode can be utilized. If the lung on the operated side has completely collapsed, airway resistance will be higher on the surgical side. During low tidal volume ventilation, most of the ventilated air will be diverted to the contralateral lung owing to this resistance. For this reason, the surgical side will swell only negligibly, and this will minimally affect the surgery.

Hypercarbia (hypercapnia)

Hypercapnia usually occurs due to hypoventilation and may be exacerbated by the effects of sedation or general anesthetic drugs. Generally, EtCO₂ values may be higher during nonintubation techniques compared to general an-

esthesia. Thus, caution should be exercised in patients with high pulmonary or intracranial pressure or arrhythmias. An accepted ventilation technique during thoracic surgery is permissive hypercapnia and is generally well tolerated and improves rapidly after the surgery.^[77,78] In cases where PaCO₂ exceeds 60 mmHg, it can be intervened through manual ventilation or SIMV mode. Adjustment of the infusion speeds of the anesthetic agents is another option.

Cough

During non-intubating techniques, cough is the most common problem encountered. Sudden onset of cough will cause both the patient and the lungs to mobilize and render it difficult for the surgeon to complete the surgery. Insufficient blockade or sedation can cause hyperactivity and cough, and despite appropriate blockade and sedation, the cough reflex can be stimulated through manipulation of the bronchi. The cough reflex is primarily controlled by the vagus nerve. If awake thoracic surgery is conducted with epidural anesthesia, vagal tone predominance after sympathetic blockade following epidural anesthesia can theoretically increase bronchial tone and reactivity.

Different methods can induce cough reflex suppression; however, none are absolutely reliable.^[79] Sedation with remifentanyl may aid in suppressing the cough reflex but should be used with caution, as high doses can cause apnea and respiratory depression.^[68] Intravenous lidocaine infusion may be an option, but toxicity is possible. Lidocaine nebulization of 2%–4% administered 30 min prior to surgery may be beneficial for intraoperative cough.^[80] Nerve blockade may be introduced through the application of a local anesthetic in the Nervus vagus vicinity under direct thoracoscopic vision.^[79,81] Despite all these possible applications, in some patients, the cough reflex may not be suppressed.

Intraoperative Intubation Requirement

In the literature, the rate of conversion from nonintubated technique to intubation varies between 2% and 11% for thoracic surgeries.^[82] The most important factor for conversion to intubation is mediastinal mobility secondary to respiration, as it will lead to injuries that may result in surgical complications. Undesirable bleeding during non-intubating techniques is usually caused by an unexpected respiratory effort, cough reflex, or an insufficiently collapsed lung that obscures the surgeon's vision. Intubation reduces surgical stress by controlling breathing and protecting the contralateral lung.

Another important factor for intubation is the prolonged hypoxia or hypercapnia. Although there are no definitive criteria, intubation should be considered when oxygen saturation is 85% or less for more than 5 min or if PaO₂ is <60



Figure 1. (a) Nonintubated video assisted thoroscopic surgery under general anesthesia with laryngeal mask in a patient placed in the lateral decubitus position. (b) Spontaneous ventilation monitoring during one-lung ventilation. Patient is spontaneously breathing with tidal volumes of about 320 ml, a respiratory rate of 20 and minute ventilation of 6.2 L/min. (c) Patient state index (PSI) value is between 25 and 50. (d) The surgeon and the camera assistant are in the appropriate position for the surgery. (e) Sufficient surgical field of view is provided for the operation.

mmHg or PaCO₂ is >80 mmHg. Additionally, arrhythmias and hemodynamic changes accompanying these values may also affect the decision for intubation.^[54]

For the conversion to intubation, it is essential that the surgeon and anesthesiologist evaluate the patient together to arrive at a decision. Patients may be in the lateral decubitus position during surgery and emergent intubation may need to be performed in this position. Some authors suggest that intubation can be performed in the lateral decubitus position, while others suggest that the patient be immediately covered with sterile drapes and intubated while in the supine position.^[58] Here, the joint decision and the anesthesia and surgical team experience should direct the course of action. The combination of single-lumen endotracheal tube and bronchial blocker for intubation in the lateral decubitus position may be a more feasible option than DLTs.^[68,77]

Conclusion

In thoracic surgery, nonintubating techniques are innovative procedures that can be conducted and managed safely and successfully by experienced anesthesia teams. Although their long-term results have not been clearly elucidated yet, these techniques should be considered as an alternative to thoracoscopic surgery under OLV, especially in patients with a high intubation risk. The challenges encountered in the initial application of this technique can be overcome through sufficient training and experience. Video-assisted thoracic surgeries in nonintubated patients are increasingly popular. Nevertheless, more studies are warranted to determine which patient groups will benefit these techniques and to investigate their effects on morbidity and mortality.

Disclosures

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

Financial Disclosure: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

References

- Pompeo E, Sorge R, Akopov A, Congregado M, Grodzki T; ESTS Non-intubated Thoracic Surgery Working Group. Non-intubated thoracic surgery-A survey from the European Society of Thoracic Surgeons. *Ann Transl Med* 2015;3:37.
- Gonzalez-Rivas D, Bonome C, Fieira E, Aymerich H, Fernandez R, Delgado M, et al. Non-intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic lung resections: The future of thoracic surgery? *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2016;49:721–31.
- Pompeo E, Mineo TC. Awake operative videothoracoscopic pulmonary resections. *Thorac Surg Clin* 2008;18:311–20.
- Ambrogi MC, Fanucchi O, Korasidis S, Davini F, Gemignani R, Guarracino F, et al. Nonintubated thoracoscopic pulmonary nodule resection under spontaneous breathing anesthesia with laryngeal mask. *Innovations (Phila)* 2014;9:276–80.
- Guedel AE, Waters RM. A new intratracheal catheter. *Anesth Analg* 1928;7:238–9.
- Gale JW, Waters RM. Closed endobronchial anesthesia in thoracic surgery. Preliminary report. *J Thorac Surg* 1932;11:283–8.
- Macintosh RR. A new laryngoscope. *Lancet Glob Health* 1943;1:205.
- Archibald E. A consideration of the dangers of lobectomy. *J Thorac Surg Clin* 1935;4:335–51.
- Carlens E. A new flexible double-lumen catheter for bronchosprometry. *J Thorac Surg* 1949;18:742–6.
- Pompeo E, Mineo D, Rogliani P, Sabato AF, Mineo TC. Feasibility and results of awake thoracoscopic resection of solitary pulmonary nodules. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2004;78:1761–8.
- Al-Abdullatif M, Wahood A, Al-Shirawi N, Arabi Y, Wahba M, Al-Jumah M, et al. Awake anaesthesia for major thoracic surgical procedures: An observational study. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2007;32:346–50.
- Deng QW, Tan WC, Zhao BC, Wen SH, Shen JT, Xu M. Intraoperative ventilation strategies to prevent postoperative pulmonary complications: A network meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Anaesth* 2020;124:324–35.
- Weibel S, Schaefer MS, Raj D, Rücker G, Pace NL, Schlesinger T, et al. Drugs for preventing postoperative nausea and vomiting in adults after general anaesthesia: An abridged Cochrane network meta-analysis. *Anaesthesia* 2021;76:962–73.
- Cammu G. Residual neuromuscular blockade and postoperative pulmonary complications: What does the recent evidence demonstrate? *Curr Anesthesiol Rep* 2020;10:131–6.
- Campos JH. Which device should be considered the best for lung isolation: Double-lumen endotracheal tube versus bronchial blockers. *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol* 2007;20:27–31.
- Knoll H, Ziegeler S, Schreiber JU, Buchinger H, Bialas P, Semyonov K, et al. Airway injuries after one-lung ventilation: A comparison between double-lumen tube and endobronchial blocker: A randomized, prospective, controlled trial. *Anesthesiology* 2006;105:471–7.
- Zhong T, Wang W, Chen J, Ran L, Story DA. Sore throat or hoarse voice with bronchial blockers or double-lumen tubes for lung isolation: A randomised, prospective trial. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 2009;37:441–6.
- Mikuni I, Suzuki A, Takahata O, Fujita S, Otomo S, Iwasaki H. Arytenoid cartilage dislocation caused by a double-lumen endobronchial tube. *Br J Anaesth* 2006;96:136–8.
- Singh S, Garg A, Lamba N, Vishal. Anaesthetic management of intraoperative tracheo-bronchial injury. *Respir Med Case Rep* 2019;29:100970.
- Huang C, Huang Q, Shen Y, Liu K, Wu J. General anaesthesia with double-lumen intubation compared to opioid-sparing strategies with laryngeal mask for thoracoscopic surgery: A randomised trial. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med* 2022;41:101083.

21. Pathonsamit C, Tantraworasin A, Poopipatpab S, Laohathai S. Perioperative outcomes of non-intubated versus intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery in different thoracic procedures: A propensity score-matched analysis. *BMC Anesthesiol* 2022;22:154.
22. Xue W, Duan G, Zhang X, Zhang H, Zhao Q, Xin Z, et al. Comparison of non-intubated and intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgeries of major pulmonary resections for lung cancer—a meta-analysis. *World J Surg Oncol* 2021;19:87.
23. Zhang XX, Song CT, Gao Z, Zhou B, Wang HB, Gong Q, et al. A comparison of non-intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery with spontaneous ventilation and intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery: A meta-analysis based on 14 randomized controlled trials. *J Thorac Dis* 2021;13:1624–40.
24. Zhang K, Chen HG, Wu WB, Li XJ, Wu YH, Xu JN, et al. Non-intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery vs. intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery for thoracic disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis of 1,684 cases. *J Thorac Dis* 2019;11:3556–68.
25. Chen PH, Chuang JH, Lu TP, Hung WT, Liao HC, Tsai TM, et al. Non-intubated versus intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery in patients aged 75 years and older: A propensity matching study. *Front Surg* 2022;9:880007.
26. AlGhamdi ZM, Lynhiavu L, Moon YK, Moon MH, Ahn S, Kim Y, et al. Comparison of non-intubated versus intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic lobectomy for lung cancer. *J Thorac Dis* 2018;10:4236–43.
27. Liu J, Cui F, Pompeo E, Gonzalez-Rivas D, Chen H, Yin W, et al. The impact of non-intubated versus intubated anaesthesia on early outcomes of video-assisted thoracoscopic anatomical resection in non-small-cell lung cancer: A propensity score matching analysis. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2016;50:920–5.
28. Pompeo E, Tacconi F, Mineo D, Mineo TC. The role of awake video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery in spontaneous pneumothorax. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2007;133:786–90.
29. Pompeo E, Rogliani P, Tacconi F, Dauri M, Saltini C, Novelli G, et al. Randomized comparison of awake nonresectional versus non-awake resectional lung volume reduction surgery. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2012;143:47–54.
30. Liu J, Cui F, Li S, Chen H, Shao W, Liang L, et al. Nonintubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery under epidural anesthesia compared with conventional anesthetic option: A randomized control study. *Surg Innov* 2015;22:123–30.
31. Vanni G, Tacconi F, Sellitri F, Ambrogi V, Mineo TC, Pompeo E. Impact of awake videothoracoscopic surgery on postoperative lymphocyte responses. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2010;90:973–8.
32. Tacconi F, Pompeo E, Sellitri F, Mineo TC. Surgical stress hormones response is reduced after awake videothoracoscopic. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2010;10:666–71.
33. Deng S, Cen Y, Jiang L, Lan L. Effects of non-intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery on patients with pulmonary dysfunction. *Front Surg* 2022;8:792709.
34. Liu YJ, Hung MH, Hsu HH, Chen JS, Cheng YJ. Effects on respiration of nonintubated anesthesia in thoracoscopic surgery under spontaneous ventilation. *Ann Transl Med* 2015;3:107.
35. Grossi W, Masullo G, Londero F, Morelli A. Small incisions, major complications: Video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery management of intraoperative complications. *J Vis Surg* 2018;4:12.
36. Janík M, Juhos P, Lučenič M, Tarabová K. Non-intubated thoracoscopic surgery—pros and cons. *Front Surg* 2021;8:801718.
37. Tseng YD, Cheng YJ, Hung MH, Chen KC, Chen JS. Nonintubated needlescopic video-assisted thoracic surgery for management of peripheral lung nodules. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2012;93:1049–54.
38. Ambrogi V, Patirelis A, Tajè R. Non-intubated thoracic surgery: Wedge resections for peripheral pulmonary nodules. *Front Surg* 2022;9:853643.
39. Cox SE, Katlic MR. Non-intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery as the modality of choice for treatment of recurrent pleural effusions. *Ann Transl Med* 2015;3:103.
40. Guo Z, Yin W, Zhang X, Xu X, Liu H, Shao W, et al. Primary spontaneous pneumothorax: Simultaneous treatment by bilateral non-intubated videothoracoscopy. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2016;23:196–201.
41. Nezu K, Kushibe K, Tojo T, Takahama M, Kitamura S. Thoracoscopic wedge resection of blebs under local anesthesia with sedation for treatment of a spontaneous pneumothorax. *Chest* 1997;111:230–5.
42. Tschopp JM, Brutsche M, Frey JG. Treatment of complicated spontaneous pneumothorax by simple talc pleurodesis under thoracoscopy and local anaesthesia. *Thorax* 1997;52:329–32.
43. Cherchi R, Ferrari PA, Guerrero F, Grimaldi G, Pinna-Susnik M, Murenu A, et al. Lung Biopsy with a non-intubated VATS approach in an obese population: Indications and results. *Front Surg* 2022;9:829976.
44. Jeon CS, Yoon DW, Moon SM, Shin S, Cho JH, Lee SM, et al. Non-intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic lung biopsy for interstitial lung disease: A single-center experience. *J Thorac Dis* 2018;10:3262–8.
45. Pompeo E, Rogliani P, Cristino B, Schillaci O, Novelli G, Saltini C. Awake thoracoscopic biopsy of interstitial lung disease. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2013;95:445–52.
46. Hartert M, Tripsky J, Brandt A, Huertgen M. Non-intubated uniportal subxiphoid video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery for extended thymectomy in myasthenia gravis patients: A case series. *J Chest Surg* 2022;55:417–21.
47. Liu Z, Zhang L, Tang W, Yang R. Non-intubated uniportal subxiphoid thoracoscopic extended thymectomy for thymoma associated with myasthenia gravis. *World J Surg Oncol* 2021;19:342.
48. Liu Z, Yang R, Sun Y. Non-intubated subxiphoid uniportal video-assisted thoracoscopic thymectomy. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2019;29:742–5.
49. Mineo TC, Pompeo E, Mineo D, Tacconi F, Marino M, Sabato AF. Awake nonresectional lung volume reduction surgery. *Ann Surg* 2006;243:131–6.

50. Lu YF, Hung MH, Hsu HH, Chen JS. Non-intubated thoracoscopic segmentectomy for second primary lung cancer in a patient with previous contralateral lobectomy and emphysematous bullae. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2016;30:1639–40.
51. Guo Z, Shao W, Yin W, Chen H, Zhang X, Dong Q, et al. Analysis of feasibility and safety of complete video-assisted thoracoscopic resection of anatomic pulmonary segments under non-intubated anesthesia. *J Thorac Dis* 2014;6:37–44.
52. Gonzalez-Rivas D, Fernandez R, de la Torre M, Bonome C. Uniportal video-assisted thoracoscopic left upper lobectomy under spontaneous ventilation. *J Thorac Dis* 2015;7:494–5.
53. Wang H, Li J, Liu Y, Wang G, Yu P, Liu H. Non-intubated uniportal video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery: Lobectomy and systemic lymph node dissection. *J Thorac Dis* 2020;12:6039–41.
54. He J, Liu J, Zhu C, Dai T, Cai K, Zhang Z, et al. Expert consensus on spontaneous ventilation video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery in primary spontaneous pneumothorax (Guangzhou). *Ann Transl Med* 2019;7:518.
55. Wu CY, Chen JS, Lin YS, Tsai TM, Hung MH, Chan KC, et al. Feasibility and safety of nonintubated thoracoscopic lobectomy for geriatric lung cancer patients. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2013;95:405–11.
56. Ambrogi V, Mineo TC. VATS biopsy for undetermined interstitial lung disease under non-general anesthesia: comparison between uniportal approach under intercostal block vs. three-ports in epidural anesthesia. *J Thorac Dis* 2014;6:888–95.
57. Matsumoto I, Oda M, Watanabe G. Awake endoscopic thymectomy via an infrasternal approach using sternal lifting. *Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 2008;56:311–3.
58. Irons JF, Martinez G. Anaesthetic considerations for non-intubated thoracic surgery. *J Vis Surg* 2016;2:61.
59. Kiss G. Technical issues and patient safety in nonintubated thoracic anesthesia. *Thorac Surg Clin* 2020;30:1–13.
60. Saadat H, Drummond-Lewis J, Maranets I, Kaplan D, Saadat A, Wang SM, et al. Hypnosis reduces preoperative anxiety in adult patients. *Anesth Analg* 2006;102:1394–6.
61. Potié A, Roelants F, Pospiech A, Momeni M, Watremez C. Hypnosis in the perioperative management of breast cancer surgery: Clinical benefits and potential implications. *Anesthesiol Res Pract* 2016;2016:2942416.
62. Kiss G, Claret A, Desbordes J, Porte H. Thoracic epidural anaesthesia for awake thoracic surgery in severely dyspnoeic patients excluded from general anaesthesia. *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2014;19:816–23.
63. Bouman EAC, Sieben JM, Balthasar AJR, Joosten EA, Gramke HF, van Kleef M, et al. Boundaries of the thoracic paravertebral space: Potential risks and benefits of the thoracic paravertebral block from an anatomical perspective. *Surg Radiol Anat* 2017;39:1117–25.
64. Mogahed MM, Elkahwagy MS. Paravertebral block versus intercostal nerve block in non-intubated uniportal video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery: A randomised controlled trial. *Heart Lung Circ* 2020;29:800–7.
65. Yang H, Dong Q, Liang L, Liu J, Jiang L, Liang H, et al. The comparison of ultrasound-guided thoracic paravertebral blockade and internal intercostal nerve block for non-intubated video-assisted thoracic surgery. *J Thorac Dis* 2019;11:3476–81.
66. Wei W, Fan Y, Liu W, Zhao T, Tian H, Xu Y, et al. Combined non-intubated anaesthesia and paravertebral nerve block in comparison with intubated anaesthesia in children undergoing video-assisted thoracic surgery. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2020;64:810–8.
67. Zheng Y, Wang H, Ma X, Cheng Z, Cao W, Shao D. Comparison of the effect of ultrasound-guided thoracic paravertebral nerve block and intercostal nerve block for video-assisted thoracic surgery under spontaneous-ventilating anesthesia. *Rev Assoc Med Bras (1992)* 2020;66:452–7.
68. Gonzalez-Rivas D, Fernandez R, de la Torre M, Rodriguez JL, Fontan L, Molina F. Single-port thoracoscopic lobectomy in a non-intubated patient: The least invasive procedure for major lung resection? *Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg* 2014;19:552–5.
69. Hsieh MJ, Wang KC, Liu HP, Gonzalez-Rivas D, Wu CY, Liu YH, et al. Management of acute postoperative pain with continuous intercostal nerve block after single port video-assisted thoracoscopic anatomic resection. *J Thorac Dis* 2016;8:3563–71.
70. Shariat A, Bhatt H. Successful use of serratus plane block as primary anesthetic for video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery (VATS)-assisted pleural effusion drainage. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2018;32:e31–2.
71. Lee YJ, Chung CC, Chou HC, Lin JA. Block for uniportal video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery: An ultrasound-guided, single-penetration, double-injection approach. *Br J Anaesth* 2015;115:792–4.
72. Corso RM, Piraccini E, Byrne H, Poggi P, Tedesco M. The serratus anterior plane block for pediatric non-intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery. *Minerva Anesthesiol* 2017;83:775–6.
73. Shi ZY, Zhang ZH, Rong GX, Shao G. The application of serratus anterior plane block combined with thoracic paravertebral nerve block in non-intubated spontaneous ventilation video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery. *Asian J Surg* 2022;45:1220–1.
74. Fiorelli S, Leopizzi G, Menna C, Teodonio L, Ibrahim M, Rendina EA, et al. Ultrasound-guided erector spinae plane block versus intercostal nerve block for post-minithoracotomy acute pain management: A randomized controlled trial. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2020;34:2421–9.
75. Longo F, Piliago C, Tomaselli E, Martuscelli M, Agrò FE. Erector spinae plane block allows non-intubated vats-wedge resection. *J Clin Anesth* 2020;60:89–90.
76. Hu B, Zhou H, Zou X. The erector spinae plane block (ESPB) for non-intubated video-assisted thoracoscopic surgery. *J Clin Anesth* 2019;54:50–1.
77. Chen KC, Cheng YJ, Hung MH, Tseng YD, Chen JS. Nonintubated thoracoscopic lung resection: A 3-year experience with 285 cases

- in a single institution. *J Thorac Dis* 2012;4:347–51.
78. Pompeo E. State of the art and perspectives in non-intubated thoracic surgery. *Ann Transl Med* 2014;2:106.
79. Chen KC, Cheng YJ, Hung MH, Tseng YD, Chen JS. Nonintubated thoracoscopic surgery using regional anesthesia and vagal block and targeted sedation. *J Thorac Dis* 2014;6:31–6.
80. Navarro-Martínez J, Galiana-Ivars M, Rivera-Cogollos MJ, Gálvez C, Nadal SB, Lamaignère MO, et al. Management of intraoperative crisis during nonintubated thoracic surgery. *Thorac Surg Clin* 2020;30:101–10.
81. Dong Q, Liang L, Li Y, Liu J, Yin W, Chen H, et al. Anesthesia with nontracheal intubation in thoracic surgery. *J Thorac Dis* 2012;4:126–30.
82. Chiang XH, Lin MW. Converting to intubation during non-intubated thoracic surgery: Incidence, indication, technique, and prevention. *Front Surg* 2021;8:769850.