

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/semvascsurg



Review article

Emergency vascular surgical care in populations with unique physiologic characteristics: Pediatric, pregnant, and frail populations

David Warner^a, Kathryn W. Holmes^b, Rana Afifi^c, Melissa L. Russo^{d,e}, Sherene Shalhub^{a,*}

^a Division of Vascular and Endovascular Surgery, Department of Surgery, Oregon Health and Science University, 3181 SW Sam Jackson Park Road, Mail Code OP11, Portland, OR 97239

^b Division of Cardiology, Department of Pediatrics, Oregon Health and Science University, Portland, OR

^c Department of Cardiothoracic and Vascular Surgery, McGovern Medical School at The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston (UTHealth), Houston, TX

^d Division of Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Women and Infants Hospital, Providence. RI

^e Warren Alpert Medical School of Brown University, Providence, RI

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Pediatric Marfan syndrome Vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome Loeys Dietz syndrome ACTA2 Pregnancy Frailty Palliative care

ABSTRACT

Vascular surgical emergencies are common in vascular surgical care and require complex decision making and multidisciplinary care. They are especially challenging when they occur in patients with unique physiological characteristics, such as pediatric, pregnant, and frail patients. Among the pediatric and pregnant population, vascular emergencies are rare. This rarity challenges accurate and timely diagnosis of the vascular emergency. This land-scape review summarizes these three unique populations' epidemiology and emergency vascular considerations. Understanding the epidemiology is the foundation for accurate diagnosis and subsequent management. Considering each population's unique characteristics is crucial to the emergent vascular surgical interventions decision making. Collaborative and multidisciplinary care is vital in gaining expertise in managing these special populations and achieving optimal patient outcomes.

© 2023 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Emergency vascular care is a common aspect of a vascular surgeon's practice, and clinical decision making is often complex and requires multidisciplinary care. Complexity increases when caring for patients with unique physiologic characteristics, such as pediatric, pregnant, and frail individuals. In this landscape review, we summarize the epidemiology and considerations for emergency vascular management of these patient groups. Understanding the unique epidemiology is the foundation for accurate diagnosis and management in these populations. When making decisions about emergent vascular surgical interventions, it is also crucial to consider the unique characteristics of each population. In the case of pediatric patients, we will discuss traumatic vascular injuries, catheter-related acute limb ischemia (ALI), and aortic

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: Shalhub@ohsu.edu (S. Shalhub).

https://doi.org/10.1053/j.semvascsurg.2023.04.015

^{0895-7967/\$ -} see front matter © 2023 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

dissections (AD). For pregnant patients, we will focus on traumatic vascular injuries, ALI, AD, splenic artery aneurysms (SAAs), and thromboembolic complications. Finally, for frail patients, we will highlight the assessment of frailty and the role of palliative care in the vascular emergency setting.

2. Emergency vascular surgical care in the pediatric population

Vascular emergencies are rare in the pediatric population, and pediatric vascular operations are generally uncommon. Emergency vascular surgical care is required in cases of trauma, ALI, and aortic or arterial aneurysms and dissections among infants and children. As many free-standing children's hospitals lack adult vascular surgery expertise, the care of vascular surgery injuries in the pediatric population is surgically managed by pediatric, vascular, trauma, and orthopedic surgeons. Given the rarity of vascular surgical needs, there are no specific training competencies for pediatric vascular surgical care in vascular or pediatric surgery specialty training [1-3]. Data are sparse regarding vascular surgery practice patterns by specialty. A single-center retrospective review of 94 pediatric trauma patients (65.9% were male patients) between 1993 and 2015 demonstrated changing patterns of specialty care provided, with vascular surgeons performing none of the surgical repairs in 1993-2004 to 23% of the cases in 2005-2015 [3].

2.1. Pediatric vascular trauma

2.1.1. Pediatric vascular trauma epidemiology

Unintentional injury is the leading cause of death among children and adolescents aged 1 through 16 years [4]. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention reported a 2001–2020 crude rate of 6.9 deaths per 100,000 children in this age group [4]. Traumatic vascular injuries are rare among the pediatric population, with an incidence of 0.6% of pediatric trauma, less than what is seen in the adult population (1.6%; P < .001) [5]. A similar finding was observed in a 2021 single-center experience reported by Perea et al [6] found that vascular injuries accounted for 0.8% of all pediatric trauma. Among 22,089 vascular injuries in the American College of Surgeons National Trauma Data Bank (NTDB) from 2002 to 2006, 1,187 were among individuals younger than 16 years, thus accounting for 5.4% of all vascular trauma [5].

Most of the injured patients were male (73.7%) [7]. Blunt trauma was the predominant mechanism of injury, accounting for 57% of the cases in NTDB [5,7]. In a single-center study of 60 pediatric trauma patients, 78.3% of the patients were male and vascular injuries due to blunt trauma accounted for 70% of the cases among patients younger than 14 years [6]. Penetrating trauma was more common among pediatric patients aged 14 through 18 years at the same center, accounting for 67.5% of the pediatric trauma cases [6]. In this cohort, gunshot wounds were the most common mechanism of vascular injury, affecting 36.7% of the injured pediatric patients younger than 18 years [6]. The leading cause of death was firearm injuries, followed by motor vehicle crashes (MVCs), noted at 36.9% and 34.6%, respectively, in the NTDB data

[7]. Similar findings were also reported in single-institutional studies [3,6,8].

Upper extremity vessels were the most commonly injured (approximately 34.9%) [5,7]. The least commonly injured vessels were the thoracic vessels (7.5%) [5,7].

The California Office of Statewide Health Planning and Development patient discharge database for 2007-2014 showed that of 577 upper extremity arterial injuries among patients younger than 18 years (78.3% were male), the brachial artery was the most commonly injured (31.7%) and the subclavian artery was the least commonly injured (4.6%) [9]. In-hospital mortality was highest among pediatric patients; injured subclavian and axillary arteries were at 11.1% and 6.3%, respectively [9]. None of the patients with upper extremity arterial injuries had a major amputation [9]. An injury notable in children was the supracondylar humeral fracture. This injury is associated with an 8% to 12% risk of brachial artery injury [10]. The risk of brachial artery injury is increased when there is a posterolateral displacement of the humerus fracture [11]. Examination findings consistent with the arterial injury include a cool pale pulseless hand. The presence of antecubital fossa ecchymosis is suggestive of brachial artery injury [12]. The injury can be associated with median and anterior interosseous nerve injury, and long-term complications include Volkmann's ischemic contracture risk [10–12].

Lower extremity vessel injury affects an estimated 21% of pediatric trauma cases and carries higher mortality and amputation rates than upper extremity vessel injury [7,9,13]. The California Office of Statewide Health Planning and Development patient discharge database for 2007-2014 showed that of 274 lower extremity arterial injuries among patients younger than 18 years (82.1% were male), the superficial femoral artery was the most commonly injured (39.1%) [9]. The anterior tibial artery was the least commonly injured (10.9%) [9]. The study also demonstrated variation in risk of in-hospital mortality ranging from none, in cases of tibial arterial injuries, to 8.8% in-hospital mortality among patients with injured common femoral arteries. Major amputation also varied by the location of the injury, with the highest amputation rates associated with anterior tibial artery injuries (6.7%), followed by popliteal artery injuries (4.5%) and superficial femoral artery injuries (3.7%) [9].

Abdominal vascular injuries are the leading cause of death in the pediatric trauma population (42.1% of the cases in the NTDB data) [7]. Abdominal vessel injuries account for 20.1% of the cases, affecting the inferior vena cava, iliac (Fig. 1), and renal vessels most frequently [5,7]. Abdominal aortic injuries, especially blunt abdominal aortic injuries (BAAIs), are rare, not unlike the adult population [14]. BAAI commonly results from an MVC, often present with a seat belt sign, and are associated with hollow viscus perforation and spine fractures [15]. Less frequently, they can also present with paraplegia, as detailed in Table 1, which summarizes the presentation and management of pediatric BAAI case reports [15–36]. Unfortunately, the long-term outcomes reported in this population are limited.

2.1.2. Pediatric vascular trauma management

Pediatric vascular trauma management principles include early identification and control of exsanguinating hemorrhage, especially in chest and abdomen injuries due to high-

Table 1 – Presentation and management of pediatric blunt abdominal aortic injury case reports.

First author	Year	Age (y)/sex	Injury description	Management and outcome		
Kory [16]	2000	2.5/M	Aortic thrombosis, paraplegia	Surgical exploration, thrombectomy,		
Inaba [17]	2001	8/M	2-cm infrarenal abdominal aorta dissection_leg weakness	Non-operative, mild left weakness at 6 mo		
Lin [18] Milas [19]	2003	6/F	Distal aortic transection, leg	Hypogastric artery patch repair,		
Soares [20]	2003	6/F	Partial transection and thrombosis paraplegia	Thrombectomy and intimal repair, residual paraplegia at 21 d		
Muniz [21]	2004	8/M	Infrarenal abdominal aortic transection, normal motor	8-mm interposition Gore-Tex (W. L. Gore and Associates) graft		
Prince [22]	2004	9/F	examination Distal aortic dissection, paraplegia	Postoperative paraplegia, 6-mo follow-up 12-mm bifurcated Hemashield aortic		
Milas [19]	2004	11/NR	Distal aortic "disruption"	bi-iliac graft, no follow-up PTFE interposition graft, recovery, 21-mo		
Diaz [23]	2006	3/M	Delayed presentation 10 y later	follow-up Web excision and bovine pericardium		
			formation	follow-up		
Choit [15]	2006	9/F	Distal aortic transection	16-mm Hemashield interposition graft, recovery, 4 y follow-up		
		11/M	Distal aortic pseudoaneurysm	Non-operative, stable with 2 y of follow-up		
		12/F	Aortic bifurcation transection,	Bifurcated PTFE aortic bi-iliac graft, 18 d		
Aidinian [24]	2006	10/M	Aortic transection	Endovascular repair 16 × 5.5-mm Zenith endograft, complicated by common femoral attent thrombosis 24 d follow-up		
Khanna [25]	2007	7/M	Focal infrarenal aortic intimal flap	Aspirin only, intimal flap healed at 2 mo of follow-up		
McCarthy [26]	2007	10/F	Infrarenal aortic thrombosis, paraplegia, compartment sundrome	10-mm interposition PTFE graft, residual paraplegia at 8 y of follow-up		
Anderson [27]	2008	7/F	NR	Primary repair		
		7/M	NR	Non-operative		
Burjonrappa [28]	2008	9/M	Focal dissection of the infrarenal abdominal aorta	Non-operative Stable at 18 mo of follow-up		
Heck [29]	2009	1.3/M	Pseudoaneurysm	Non-operative, stable at 3 mo of follow-up		
Blanco [30]	2011	2/M	Aortic bifurcation rupture	Primary repair with Prolene (Ethicon) sutures, stable at 6 mo of follow-up		
Sadaghianloo [31]	2011	4/B	Pseudoaneurysm	Primary repair non-absorbable interrupted suture on d 8, no follow-up		
		7/F	Pseudoaneurysm	Primary repair non-absorbable interrupted suture on d 10, no follow-up		
Shalhub [32]	2012	6/NR	Infrarenal abdominal aortic rupture	Primary repair with Prolene sutures, postoperative death		
Papazoglou [33]	2015	9/M	Infrarenal abdominal aortic dissection, paraplegia	Abdominal aorta 12 × 40-mm self-expandable Protégé Everflex (ev3) stent Iliac 8 × 60 mm, Protégé Everflex,1-y follow-up, persistent paraplegia		
Parrish [34]	2015	12/M	Abdominal aortic intimal flaps	Non-operative, pseudoaneurysm at at 1 y		
Daniele [35]	2017	7/M	Pseudoaneurysm	Bovine pericardium patch, no follow-up		
Jammeh [36]	2020	2/NR	Renal artery avulsion, aortic intimal flap	Right nephrectomy, stable at 2 y follow-up		
		11/NR	Contained transection of the juxtarenal aorta, paraplegia	12-mm Dacron (Dupont) interposition, paraplegia at 15 mo		
Abbreviations: F, female; M, male; NR, not reported; PTFE, polytetrafluoroethylene.						



Fig. 1 – Transabdominal exposure of a left common iliac artery in a 5-year-old child post blunt injury to the abdomen, revealing the intimal transection and repair primarily.

energy trauma [8]. Diagnosis of vascular injury depends on identifying hard signs of vascular injury (eg, external bleeding and expanding hematoma) and a high level of suspicion based on the trauma mechanism. Arterial injury diagnostic strategies are variable among the different centers, including angiography and duplex examination [37]. Duplex ultrasound can be used to evaluate extremity arterial injuries in children, and axial imaging is necessary to evaluate neck, chest, and abdominal injuries. Arterial vasospasm is frequently encountered in the pediatric population and is associated with fractures or a cold extremity. Severe vasospasm can present with a pulseless extremity. Thus, warming the patient and critically evaluating the etiology of the pulseless limb is imperative [13]. Exsanguinating extremity bleeding can be controlled with prehospital tourniquet application, a practice that has shown benefits [38]. When extremity injury is associated with a fracture, the first line of management is the closed reduction and fixation of the fracture. Arterial management depends on the degree of associated ischemia and immediate surgical repair of the artery is indicated in clear ALI cases. An area of variation in practice exists in the cases of brachial artery injury associated with supracondylar humeral fracture. In a systematic review of 16 studies and 608 cases of pediatric brachial artery injury associated with supracondylar humeral fracture, 57.4% regained pulses after the reduction and fixation of the humerus, and 42% remained pulseless (referred to as "pink pulseless hand") [37]. Of the patients with a pink pulseless hand, variation in practice exists, with nearly onehalf (48.6%) undergoing surgical management with brachial artery exploration and the remaining 51.4% were managed non-operatively with a "watchful expectancy" approach [37]. The latter is dictated by the brachial artery size and feasibility of repair.

The predominant vascular repair modality in pediatric surgery remains open surgical repair [7,9,39]. Similar to adults, surgical repair principles include arterial exposure and restoration of blood flow to end organs. This can be achieved via primary repair, end-to-end anastomosis, interposition grafting, and bypass grafting. As with adults, autogenous vein graft is preferred over prosthetics in extremity arterial bypasses [13]. Challenges unique to the pediatric population include the small diameter of the arteries and the need to accommodate future axial and radial arterial growth. Interrupted sutures during anastomoses creation allow the repaired artery to grow as the child grows without stenosis [13,40]. Another unique challenge in this population is the high degree of arterial spasticity leading to vasospasm with trauma. During arterial repairs or cannulation procedures, intraoperative papaverine can be used as an adjunct to promote the relaxation of arterial smooth muscle and resolve vasospasm [41].

The role of endovascular techniques in the pediatric population is evolving. The main challenge to adoption is devices too large for pediatric vessels. In addition, pediatric arteries are prone to iatrogenic dissection and vasospasm. With the development of smaller-caliber devices, there has been an increase in the prevalence of endovascular techniques in surgical trauma care for children in recent years. A review of the 2007-2014 NTDB of 35,771 children with vascular injuries demonstrated an increase in endovascular techniques in managing blunt trauma from 7.8% to 12.9% [39], most commonly, thoracic endograft deployment and internal iliac embolization [39]. Children with high Injury Severity Scores (ISS) had a higher proportion of endovascular procedures than those with lower ISS [39]. Children who underwent endovascular procedures were older than those who underwent open operations (mean \pm SD age, 12.4 \pm 4 υ 10.3 \pm 4.8 years, respectively) [39]. This is likely related to the size of arterial access and target vessels' inability to accommodate existing sizes of endovascular devices such as thoracic endografts. A major consideration in using thoracic endografts is future axial and radial aortic growth with the possibility of developing coarctation physiology due to the stable device size compared with the growing aorta. These biological demands should shape future biomaterials and endovascular stent graft designs. Literature on the use of thoracic aortic endografts in pediatric trauma patients is limited to case reports [42]. The youngest patient with a thoracic aortic injury treated was 8 years old [42].

2.2. Pediatric access-related acute limb ischemia

In infants and children, iatrogenic complications from femoral cannulation for invasive hemodynamic monitoring, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, or cardiac catheterization are the leading cause of ALI [43–47]. The highest risk for catheterization and intervention-related ALI is observed in premature infants and children with congenital heart disease [43,45–47]. Arterial thrombosis occurs due to intimal injury related to access. Other complicating factors include increased blood viscosity in this population, stasis due to low cardiac output or vasospasm, and small arterial diameter compared with catheter size [48]. Vasospasm increases wall contact surface area with the cannula and is associated with fibrin deposition and thrombosis [48]. The most common injury sites include the external iliac artery (42%) and the common femoral arteries (30%) [49].

Management includes systemic anticoagulation and duplex ultrasound surveillance [45,47,48]. In a case series by Warner et al [45], of 32 patients (59% were male) with lower extremity arterial thrombosis, limb preservation was 100% and no surgical interventions were required. Follow-up duplex ex-



Fig. 2 – (A) Arterial duplex ultrasonography of an 8-month-old male infant demonstrating the absent flow in the right common femoral artery. (B) The flow in the profunda femoris is antegrade beyond the thrombosed common femoral artery. (C) Arterial duplex ultrasonography of a 7-month-old male infant with a thrombosed left common femoral artery. (D) The flow in the profunda femoris is retrograde beyond the thrombosed common femoral artery.

amination demonstrated arterial recanalization in 57% of the cases. In patients with occluded common femoral arteries, the flow was antegrade in the profunda femoris artery in 64%, and retrograde in 31% of duplex ultrasound studies (Fig. 2). In another study by Kayssi et al [49], of 151 patients (55% were male), the non-operative strategy was successful in 93.4% of the cases. Rapid arterial collateralization is likely the reason for successful limb preservation without vessel recanalization [47,49]. Thrombolysis is used in cases where anticoagulation is ineffective, and there are no contraindications for its use [48].

Surgical intervention for access-related ALI includes surgical thrombectomy, arterial repair, fasciotomy, and amputation [43,48,49]. According to a recent study that examined the Japanese national administrative claims data and discharge records for 948 pediatric patients (55% were male) who received venoarterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation treatment, the incidence of fasciotomy and amputation was found to be 0.6% and 0.7%, respectively [43]. In Kayssi et al's [49] study, a 6.6% incidence of operative interventions was reported. The interventions included thrombectomy, bypass, arterial reconstruction, and fasciotomy. In general, operative interventions in neonates and children younger than 3 years have worse outcomes than older children, and consequently, non-operative management is preferred in this population [48].

2.3. Pediatric aortic dissection and aneurysms

AD and aneurysms rarely occur in children. An examination of the 1996-2005 Statewide Planning and Research Cooperative System database of New York State revealed that out of 12,142 cases of AD, only 45 (82% were in male patients) occurred in individuals 21 years or younger, and none were younger than 15 years [50]. In this cohort. the etiology was most commonly trauma (19 of 45 cases), followed by Marfan syndrome (MFS; 11 of 45 cases) [50]. Analysis of the Kids' Inpatient Database, a national sample of pediatric admissions in the United States between 1997 and 2009 identified 168 cases of AD (76% were in male patients) with the following age distribution: 18 (11%) were younger than 1 year, 38 (22.6%) were aged 1 through 14 years, and 112 (67%) were aged 15 through 19 years [51]. The study interestingly demonstrated regional variation, with 42% of the AD cases occurring in the South [51]. The Pediatric Health Information System database, a multi-institutional administrative database of more than 40 participating pediatric hospitals, evaluated all index cases of aortic patients younger than 30 years between 2004 and 2011. The incidence of AD was 3 in 100,000 pediatric hospitalizations, with a bimodal age distribution of 0 through 5 years (27%) and 15 through 20 years (43%) [52]. The most commonly associated condition with AD was congenital heart disease (38%), followed by trauma (24%)

Table 2 – Medical history and management of aortic dissection in pediatric aortic dissection case reports.						
First author	Year	Age/sex	Type of dissection	Medical history		
Hibino [53] Eun [54]	2006 2011	3 y/M 11 y/M	A B	Atrial septal defect, non-operative management IgA nephropathy, non-operative management with plan for repair		
Morais [55] Ware [56]	2011 2014	15 y/M 16 v/M	A	VEDS ACTA2, valve-sparing aortic root replacement.		
		17 y/M	A	ascending and arch replacement ACTA2, valve-sparing aortic root replacement,		
Besli [57]	2015	14 y/M	В	ascending and arch replacement Familial aortopathy, transfer initiated to outside hospital for surgical intervention		
Regalado [58]	2014	14 y/M 14 y/M	B B	ACTA2 ACTA2		
		14 y/M 17 y/M	B A	ACTA2 ACTA2		
Shalhub [59]	2019	16 y/M 16 y/M	B B	PRKG1, TAAA2 repair 2 y after TBAD PRKG1, TAAA2 repair 1 y after TBAD (5.5-cm DTA)		
D'Addese [60]	2019	17 y/F	A	Prior heart transplantation 2 ×, known ascending aortic dilation, homozygous mutation of MYBPC3 gene, emergency ascending aorta and arch replacmenet with Dacron (Dupont) graft		
Venardos [61]	2020	3 d/F	В	Hypoplastic left heart syndrome, aortic and mitral atresia, repaired with pulmonary allograft patch		
Mamishi [62]	2021	14 y/M	А	Williams syndrome, deceased on arrival to hospital		
Comentale [63]	2021	11 mo/M	А	LDS, David V procedure with 18-mm Dacron graft		
Dueppers [64]	2022	9 y/M	В	LDS, nedical management, staged repair for rapid degeneration with David procedure with frozen elephant trunk, then thoracoabdominal repair with 20-mm Dacron interposition graft to supramesenteric aorta with celiac reimplantation		
Liang [65]	2021	10 y/F	А	Bicuspid aortic valve, replacement of aortic valve with St. Jude mechanical valve, aortic root, ascending aorta, and arch		
Matsushita [66]	2021	11 y/M	В	FBN1 and TGFBR2, medical management required open descending aortic repair with partial cardiopulmonary bypass on hospital day 5 for enlargement of the false lumen		
Rathnayake [67]	2022	15 y/M	А	Autism Bentall procedure		

Abbreviations: DTA, XXXX; LDS, Loeys-Dietz syndrome; MFS, Marfan syndrome; TAAA, thoracoabdominal aortic aneurysm; TBAD, type B aortic dissection; VEDS, vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome.

and connective tissue disease (16%) [52]. Similar to the New York State and the Kids' Inpatient Database data, most affected individuals were male (69%) [52]. Table 2 summarizes the case reports of AD in the pediatric population [53–67].

Risk factors for AD in children include male sex; hypertension; genetic aortopathy; congenital abnormalities, such as aortic coarctation; and trauma [50–52]. Pathogenic variants in genes involved in the transforming growth factor (TGF)– β pathway and smooth muscle proteins can cause genetic aortopathies or heritable aortopathies [68].

Syndromic genetic aortopathies include MFS, Loeys-Dietz syndrome (LDS), and vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome (VEDS). MFS is due to autosomal dominant inheritance pathogenic variants in FBN1 affecting 1 in 5,000 individuals. LDS is due to autosomal dominant inheritance pathogenic variants in TGF- β receptor 1 (TGFBR1, TGFBR2, SMAD3, TGFB2, and TGFB3) [68–70]. MFS accounted for 24% of AD cases younger than 21 years in the Statewide Planning and Research Cooperative System database, 14% in the Kids' Inpatient Database study, and 12% in the Pediatric Health Information System study [50-52]. In the Genetically Triggered Thoracic Aortic Aneurysm and Cardiovascular Conditions (Gen-TAC), a well-characterized registry of pediatric and adult individuals with genetic aortopathies, there were 11 of 245 (4%) operations for AD in the pediatric population: 5 with MFS, 3 with LDS, and 3 with non-syndromic heritable thoracic aortic aneurysm [71]. Low numbers in pediatrics are attributed to early surgical intervention in a closely followed population [71]. A known risk factor for ascending thoracic AD (type A) in individuals with MFS and LDS is a dilated aortic root; however, this population is also at risk for descending thoracic AD (type B). Vertebral artery tortuosity is a characteristic feature of patients with MFS and LDS. Morris et al [72] quantified the degree of tortuosity as the ratio of the length of the vertebral artery along its course (actual length) to the longitudinal distance the vessel travels in space (straight length), as demonstrated in Fig. 3. A higher vertebral artery tortuosity (calculated as [actual length / straight length – 1] \times 100) was associated with a younger age at first AD in patients with MFS and LDS [72].

VEDS is due to autosomal dominant inheritance pathogenic COL3A1 affecting 1:50,000 individuals. VEDS accounts for 5% of EDS (which includes 14 subtypes) [73]. Children with VEDS are frequently born more prematurely than the general population, which is attributed to premature rupture of members due to defective type III collagen production [74]. Adolescents are at increased risk for AD, aneurysms, and sudden aortic and arterial rupture (Fig. 4), intestinal perforation (most commonly the sigmoid colon), and spontaneous pneumothorax [75–77]. A recent survey of individuals living with VEDS demonstrated significant frustration with the lack of VEDS-specific knowledge among emergency physicians [78]. This can translate to a delay in aortic or arterial dissection or rupture when presenting to the emergency department.

Pathogenic variants in smooth muscle cell proteins, such as ACTA2, MYH11, MYLK, and PRKG1 are associated with nonsyndromic genetic aortopathy. This population is also at risk for AD (Fig. 5) [58,59,79].

It is important to note that there are significant differences in the cumulative risk of aortic aneurysm and AD among individuals with different genotypes [79]. This improved understanding of genotype–phenotype correlation guides elective root and ascending aortic repair recommendations [80]. We anticipate that in the future, personalized guidelines can be developed for the remainder of the aorta and arteries [80].

Unlike the syndromes caused by genetic aortopathy, Turner syndrome is caused by monosomy for the X chromosome during embryonic development and has an estimated prevalence of 1:2,000 live births. Turner syndrome is also a risk factor for AD. Although the mean age of AD was 30.7 years among 85 cases reported between 1961 and 2006, the youngest was 4 years old [81].

Congenital abdominal aortic aneurysms without a diagnosable etiology are also rare and have been described in the pediatric population in the form of case reports. Repair is technically challenging in infancy and childhood due to the small aortic size and potential for the child's growth [82]. There are no standard approaches to repair, and conduit choices include cryopreserved allografts and prosthetic grafts (Dacron [Dupont] and Gore-Tex [W. L. Gore and Associates]). Most case reports have short-term follow-up. Salient technical points to consider in these cases is that patency of grafts at diameters < 6 mm is generally poor and that the child will likely require a redo operation as they grow [82].

3. Emergency vascular surgical care during pregnancy

"Complicated pregnancy" ranked as the sixth leading cause of death among female patients aged 15 through 35 years in the United States from 2000 to 2020 [4]. Several cardiovascular changes occur during pregnancy, and these can be associated with some of the vascular emergencies that occur during pregnancy. These include increased circulating blood volume and cardiac output, which peak in the third trimester. Moreover, circulating pregnancy hormones, namely relaxin, estrogen, and progesterone, adversely affect the structural integrity of the arterial wall. The increase in arterial elasticity induced by these hormones may be amplified by fragmentation of the internal elastic lamina, subendothelial thickening, medial fibrodysplasia, and glycosaminoglycan deposition in the subintimal and medial layers [83]. Both estrogen and progesterone increase significantly in the third trimester at 30 to 32 weeks of gestation and progress with gestational age. The progression peaks in the late third trimester around the time of delivery. In addition, pregnancy is a prothrombotic state, thus increasing the risk for pulmonary embolism and deep vein thrombosis (DVT).

Overall, vascular emergencies requiring vascular surgical consultations or interventions are rare in pregnant individuals. These include vascular injuries, ALI, AD, visceral aneurysm rupture, and limb-threatening thromboembolic complications. When these emergencies occur, multidisciplinary team care is essential for patient care and should include fetal assessment and monitoring.

3.1. Vascular emergency imaging concerns during pregnancy

For most vascular emergencies during pregnancy, computed tomography is the diagnostic modality of choice to expedite accurate diagnosis and surgical intervention planning. Hesitancy to perform a computed tomography scan because of concerns about fetus radiation exposure can lead to delays in diagnosis [84]. Although it is important to decrease the exposure to ionizing radiation when possible, the ionizing radiation dose in most imaging modalities is much lower than the exposure associated with harm, especially in the second and third trimesters (usually below the threshold of < 50 mGy) [85]. The mean radiation dose to patients undergoing thoracic endovascular aortic repair is 323.7 ± 161.0 Gy/cm², equivalent to 45.3 ± 22.5 mSv of uterine radiation dose (organ-specific) [86,87].

3.2. Traumatic vascular injuries during pregnancy

Traumatic injury is the leading cause of non-obstetric maternal death, affecting 7% to 10% of pregnancies [88]. The leading causes of trauma during pregnancy are MVC, falls, and domestic violence [89]. Pregnancy complications related to blunt trauma include uterine rupture, placental abruption, preterm birth, perinatal death, and cardiac arrest [89]. Although specific outcomes related to major vascular injuries have not been well described, trauma care principles are similar to nonpregnant individuals, with the goal of maternal stabilization.

3.3. Acute limb ischemia in pregnancy

ALI during pregnancy and the postpartum period is rare. A systemic review of 14 articles found 14 patients (median age, 31.5 years). Eight of the patients analyzed had an embolic origin, with peripartum cardiomyopathy being the primary cause. Other causes included popliteal entrapment, iatrogenic factors, and polyarteritis. Management was surgical embolectomy in 11 cases and anticoagulation alone in 3 cases. None



Fig. 3 – Measuring vertebral artery tortuosity index (VTI). The curved length and straight (crow's flight) length are measured in three-dimensional space. VTI for each vessel is calculated using the equation: $VTI = ([curved length / straight length] - 1) \times 100$, and the maximum of the two VTIs is the study VTI. (A) left vertebral artery VTI in patient $1 = ([128.1 / 121.0] - 1) \times 100 = 5.9$. (B) right vertebral artery VTI in patient $1 = ([101.9 / 80.6] - 1) \times 100 = 26.4$. Patient 1: VTI = 27.4. (C) Left vertebral artery VTI in patient 2: $VTI = ([138.1 / 45.9] - 1) \times 100 = 201$. Figures courtesty of Shaine A. Morris, MD, Division of Cardiology, Department of Pediatrics, Baylor College of Medicine, Texas Children's Hospital, Houston, TX.



Fig. 4 – (A) Chest x-ray of a 15-year-old boy with vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome presenting with sudden atraumatic onset back pain demonstrating a widened mediastinum. The patient became hypotensive and had a cardiac arrest. (B) The autopsy demonstrated full-thickness rupture of the descending thoracic aorta at T9 to T10 with dissection to the level of the aortic bifurcation.



Fig. 5 – (A) Sagittal and (B) axial images of a computed tomography scan of a 14-year-old boy with a large ascending aortic aneurysm and a type B aortic dissection related to a pathogenic variant in ACTA2.

of the patients underwent an endovascular intervention [90]. Heparin is the anticoagulant of choice in this population, as it does not cross the placenta. Low-molecular-weight-heparin is preferred over unfractionated heparin. Warfarin is contraindicated during pregnancy due to the risk of teratogenicity; however, it can be administered postpartum. Direct oral anticoagulants are avoided during pregnancy and postpartum due to a lack of safety information [91].

3.4. Aortic dissection in pregnancy

AD during pregnancy is a rare but catastrophic event estimated to occur in 0.1% of all AD cases in the United States and 0.0004% of all pregnancies [92]. AD is the third most frequent cause of maternal death from cardiovascular disease and is associated with 12% to 16% maternal mortality and 28% to 40% fetal mortality [92–95]. Most pregnancy-related ADs occur in the third trimester [93,96,97]. Another vulnerable time is the postpartum period [93,96,97]. Analysis of the 1998–2019 International Registry of Acute Aortic Dissection data demonstrated that 29 individuals had an acute AD during pregnancy or postpartum (< 12 weeks, thus accounting for 0.3% of 9,709 individuals with AD and 1% of 2,788 women with AD who had pregnancy data recorded. AD was type A in 45% and type B in 55% of the cohort. Timing of AD was most common in the third trimester and in the postpartum period at a mean interval of 12.5 days (range, 2 to 56 days) postpartum [97]. In a single-institutional series from the University of Texas at Houston, among 1,190 ADs, 10 individuals had peripartum AD (0.8%) at a median age of 31.5 years (interquartile range, 28 to 38 years): 5 type A and 5 type B ADs [98]. In addition to the cardiovascular physiologic changes that occur in pregnancy, gestational hypertension, such as seen with preeclampsia and eclampsia, may increase the risk of AD [94].

Pregnant individuals with genetic aortopathy are at high risk for AD [97]. MFS is the most common genetic aortopathy present in AD in pregnant individuals. Additional genetic aortopathy risk factors include VEDS, LDS, and nonsyndromic heritable thoracic aortic disease [99]. AD is estimated to occur in 5% to 7% of individuals with MFS and LDS [100]. Among the International Registry of Acute Aortic Dissection cohort, 18 had genetic aortopathy [97]. Among the University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston cohort, 3 of 10 had MFS [98]. In the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute GenTAC cohort, data were available for 94 individuals with 227 pregnancies (mean maternal age, 29 years; range, 13 to 43 years). Among this cohort, 7 (7.4%) experienced an AD: 4 type A and 3 type B ADs. Most of the ADs (n = 5) occurred in the postpartum period [100] Sub-analysis revealed that pregnancy in individuals with MFS was associated with an eightfold increase in the risk of AD compared with nonpregnant individuals. Pathogenic variants in smooth muscle cell proteins associated with non-syndromic genetic aortopathy, such as ACTA2, MYH11, MYLK, and PRKG1, are risk factors for AD. Among individuals with ACTA2 pathogenic variants, 20% had AD associated with pregnancy [58]. Turner syndrome and bicuspid aortic valve are also risk factors for AD during pregnancy [84].

The most recent American Heart Association guidelines recommend shared decision making for individuals with known genetic aortopathy when considering the cardiovascular risks of pregnancy, the diameter thresholds for prophylactic aortic root surgery to prevent the risk of type A AD, and the mode of delivery [101]. Generally, among individuals with MFS, LDS, or bicuspid aortic valve with dilated aortic roots or ascending aorta, prophylactic aortic aneurysm repair is recommended before conception, with the threshold personalized by the specific gene [101].

Treatment of AD during pregnancy varies by type [84]. In the recently reported International Registry of Acute Aortic Dissection dataset, all 13 patients with type A AD underwent surgical repair, most with type B (n = 10) were treated medically, and the remainder were treated with endovascular procedures (n = 3) and surgical repair (n = 3) [97]. In our experience, we prefer medical management for type B AD as long as it is not associated with malperfusion or rupture with planned repair in the postpartum period (Fig. 6). Type A AD requires emergency repair regardless of gestational age. The timing of surgical aortic repair versus delivery depends on gestational age and AD complications. When it occurs at 28 weeks' gestation, the emergency aortic repair is performed with fetal monitoring and modification to anesthesia and cardiopulmonary bypass in an attempt to decrease the fetal risk by maintaining maternal blood pressure, cardiac output, hemoglobin, and pH [87,93,102,103]. When type A AD occurs at a gestation age of >



Fig. 6 – Sagittal images of a computed tomography scan of a female patient with Marfan syndrome who presented with a type B aortic dissection in the third trimester of pregnancy.

28 weeks, a cesarean section delivery is performed, followed by aortic repair [87,93,97,101,103].

3.5. Splenic artery aneurysms in pregnancy

Visceral arterial aneurysms are uncommon in the general population and even rare in pregnant patients, with a reported incidence of 0.16% to 0.78% [104]. In both populations, SAAs are the most common. Pregnancy hormonal and physiological changes likely play a role in SAA development. As many as 50% of ruptures may be associated with pregnancy; in this setting, the maternal and fetal mortality rates approach 75% and 95%, respectively [83,104–106]. Diagnosis in these cases can be challenging and can be delayed, as presenting signs and symptoms may mimic many obstetric problems. Although the intervention of SAA is recommended for any non-ruptured aneurysm > 3 cm, current guidelines support treatment of SAA of any size in women of childbearing age, regardless of pregnancy status due to the risk of rupture [105]. Both open and minimally invasive techniques (mostly transcatheter em-

bolization) may be used, depending on the anatomic features of the SAA [105].

3.6. Emergent thromboembolic complications in pregnancy

Pregnant individuals have a fivefold risk of DVT and 15% of maternal mortality is caused by pulmonary embolism [107-109]. There have been no randomized trials of thrombolytic agents in pregnant patients for any indication, and only a handful of studies have documented their use. A literature review summarized 141 cases of systemic thrombolysis in pregnant patients for stroke, DVT, pulmonary embolism, and mechanical valve prosthesis thrombosis, in which there were only four maternal deaths and two fetal losses, none related to complications of thrombolysis [110]. These studies are heterogenous, but indicate a role for thrombolysis during pregnancy in life-threatening situations. Generally, radiation exposure is to be minimized by shielding the abdomen with a lead apron when possible, reducing the pulse fluoroscopy frame rate during the intervention, and minimizing digital subtraction angiography [111]. Phlegmasia cerulea dolens is a rare complication of proximal DVT. In addition to systemic anticoagulation, catheter-directed thrombolysis (CDT), pharmacomechanical thrombolysis, or operative venous thrombectomy may be indicated, depending on the characteristics of the thrombus and the patient's response to anticoagulation [111]. Stenting of the common and external iliac veins with self-expanding stents may be needed and can be assessed on a case by case basis [111]. Three case reports described the successful use of CDT in patients in the first trimester of pregnancy without pregnancy-related complications [107-109]. Ladha et al [108] described a case of iliofemoral DVT complicated by phlegmasia cerulea dolens during a first-trimester pregnancy treated with a operative venous throbectomy in addition to CDT and pharmacomechanical thrombolysis, followed by common iliac stent placement. To avoid ionizing radiation, Dua et al [107] described the use of intravascular ultrasound instead of angiography for CDT with recombinant tissue plasminogen activator for a similar case.

4. Emergency vascular surgical care in the frail population

A significant portion of patients undergoing emergent vascular operations are older adults. Increasing age is associated with an increased risk of morbidity and mortality during urgent and emergent vascular operations [112]. However, the ability to withstand the physiologic stress of a vascular emergency is variable and is not entirely age-dependent. Relying solely on age may lead to overestimating or underestimating a patient's overall physiologic reserve. For instance, a physically active individual in their 90s may be more physiologically resilient than a person 2 decades younger, but is frail. Thus, surgical decision making must also consider an individual's frailty and wishes for end-of-life care options. Numerous studies have demonstrated that frailty increases postoperative morbidity and mortality risk [113–115]. A recent metaanalysis demonstrated a fourfold increase in 30-day mortality and a twofold increase in long-term mortality among frail individuals after vascular surgery [116].

Frailty is a biological syndrome of "decreased reserve and resistance to stressors, resulting from cumulative declines across multiple physiologic systems, and causing vulnerability to adverse outcomes" [117]. The term was first described by Vapuel in 1979. Subsequently, Fried and colleagues [117] introduced the "frailty phenotype" concept in 2001. The phenotype evaluates five domains, of which patients with three or more are considered frail. These domains are unintentional weight loss, slow gait speed, self-reported exhaustion, impaired grip strength, and low physical activity [117]. An estimated 25% to 50% of older surgical patients are living with frailty [118]. The tools are available to evaluate patients' physiologic reserve and stratify their surgical risk. The time needed to complete each tool varies widely. In circumstances of emergency vascular surgery, quick assessment of frailty is imperative, as it would facilitate shared decision making with the patient, if able, and their caregivers.

Gottesman and McIsaac [118] suggest using the Canadian Study of Health and Ageing Clinical Frailty Score, the Risk Assessment Index, and Frailty Index tools in the acute care surgery setting due to their ease of use [118]. The Clinical Frailty Score is an 8-point ordinal scale that takes less than 1 minute to complete [119]. The Clinical Frailty Score uses visual cues and brief vignettes to summarize a patient's health and activity level, stratifying them on a frailty continuum [119]. The Risk Assessment Index uses 14 domains of multifactorial deficits to similarly stratify a patient's frailty on an 81-point scoring system. This can be completed in 2 minutes if information technology is used. The frailty index assesses 30 domains of the patient's status, adding the presence of deficits into a cumulative score. This tool takes 5 to 10 minutes to complete, which may render it too cumbersome to be used in an emergency setting. Although multiple tools have been used to evaluate frailty in vascular surgery, the use is variable by practice [116].

4.1. Palliative care

The delineation of end-of-life care wishes includes using advanced directives and physician orders for life-sustaining treatment forms [120]. Patients with vascular emergencies often have complex medical histories, which, combined with the time-sensitive nature of the emergency setting, can make it challenging to discuss their care goals.

There has been increasing recognition of the value of palliative care expertise in vascular surgery. The term *palliative care* was coined by Balfour Mount, a surgeon, in the 1970s [121]. Implementing palliative care in surgical patients has been recognized as a service that improves patient quality of life and patient–physician communication. In addition, it reduces health care costs [122]. The American College of Surgeons and the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation formed a workgroup in 2003 to address palliative care applications in surgical settings [121]. The workgroup identified the following seven domains as potential research areas: (1) surgical decision making, (2) patient decision making, (3) end-of-life decision making, (4) symptom management, (5) communication, (6) processes of care, and (7) surgical education about palliative care [121].

There are limited data on palliative care utilization in patients undergoing emergency vascular operations. The Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project's Nationwide Inpatient Sample data from 2009 to 2014 was analyzed to evaluate the role of palliative care in the care of patients with ruptured abdominal aortic aneurysms [123]. Diagnostic codes for palliative care were used to determine utilization in 28,255 patients identified in the study. Among the cohort, only 14% received a palliative care consultation, which was more frequent among patients who did not undergo operative repair (41% v 6.3%) [123]. Female patients and patients 80 years or older were more likely to receive a consultation, with regional variation showing higher utilization rates in the Western and Southern regions of the United States [123]. A noteworthy finding was that patients who received palliative care consultation had significantly lower overall health care costs and shorter hospital stays [123].

Palliative care utilization was also evaluated among individuals with chronic limb-threatening ischemia. A 2021 study by Kwong et al [124] of 111 patients (68.5% were male, 26.1% were Black) who underwent a below-the-knee amputation found that only 3 received a palliative care consultation, and 6 received palliative care consultation before death. A 2022 study by Morton et al [125] of 292 patients with chronic limb-threatening ischemia (61% were male, 53% were Black) who underwent a major amputation found that 12% received a palliative care consultation during the hospitalization when they underwent the amputation. The median time to the consultation was 6 days (interquartile range, 1 to 17 days) after the amputation. The patients who did receive a palliative care consult were more likely to be discharged to hospice than to die in the hospital [125].

5. Conclusions

The pediatric, pregnant, and frail populations have unique vascular emergency needs and physiological characteristics. Understanding the epidemiology of vascular emergencies in these populations is essential to diagnose and manage these conditions effectively. Considering each population's unique characteristics is crucial to the emergent vascular surgical interventions decision making. Collaborative and multidisciplinary care is vital in managing these special populations and achieving optimal patient outcomes.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

REFERENCES

 Bonasso PC, Dassinger MS, Smeds MR, et al. Pediatric vascular surgical practice patterns. Ann Vasc Surg 2019;54 103–9.e8.

- [2] Bonasso PC, Gurien LA, Smith SD, et al. Pediatric vascular trauma practice patterns and resource availability: a survey of American College of Surgeon-designated pediatric trauma centers. J Trauma Acute Care Surg 2018;84:758–61.
- [3] Gurien LA, Maxson RT, Dassinger MS, et al. Pediatric vascular injuries: are we preparing trainees appropriately to meet our needs? Am J Surg 2017;214:336–40.
- [4] Ten leading causes for death and injury 2000-2022. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Accessed March 4, 2023. http://www.cdc.gov/injury/wisqars/leadingcauses.html.
- [5] Barmparas G, Inaba K, Talving P, et al. Pediatric vs adult vascular trauma: a National Trauma Databank review. J Pediatr Surg 2010;45:1404–12.
- [6] Perea LL, Hazelton JP, Fox N, et al. Pediatric major vascular injuries: a 16-year institutional experience from a combined adult and pediatric trauma center. Pediatr Emerg Care 2021;37:403–6.
- [7] Eslami MH, Saadeddin ZM, Rybin DV, et al. Trends and outcomes of pediatric vascular injuries in the united states: an analysis of the National Trauma Data Bank. Ann Vasc Surg 2019;56:52–61.
- [8] Evans LL, Aarabi S, Durand R, et al. Torso vascular trauma. Semin Pediatr Surg 2021;30:151126.
- [9] Prieto JM, Van Gent JM, Calvo RY, et al. Evaluating surgical outcomes in pediatric extremity vascular trauma. J Pediatr Surg 2020;55:319–23.
- [10] Brahmamdam P, Plummer M, Modrall JG, et al. Hand ischemia associated with elbow trauma in children. J Vasc Surg 2011;54:773–8.
- [11] Saglam Y, Tunali O, Akgul T, et al. Mid-term results of pediatric vascular injured supracondylar humerus fractures and surgical approach. J Pediatr Orthop B 2014;23:572–8.
- [12] Louahem D, Cottalorda J. Acute ischemia and pink pulseless hand in 68 of 404 gartland type III supracondylar humeral fractures in children: urgent management and therapeutic consensus. Injury 2016;47:848–52.
- [13] Sciarretta JD, Macedo FI, Chung EL, et al. Management of lower extremity vascular injuries in pediatric trauma patients: a single Level I trauma center experience. J Trauma Acute Care Surg 2014;76:1386–9.
- [14] Shalhub S, Starnes BW, Brenner ML, et al. Blunt abdominal aortic injury: a Western Trauma Association multicenter study. J Trauma Acute Care Surg 2014;77:879–85 discussion 885.
- [15] Choit RL, Tredwell SJ, Leblanc JG, et al. Abdominal aortic injuries associated with chance fractures in pediatric patients. J Pediatr Surg 2006;41:1184–90.
- [16] Kory LA. Thrombosis of the abdominal aorta in a child after blunt trauma. AJR Am J Roentgenol 2000;175:553–4.
- [17] Inaba K, Kirkpatrick AW, Finkelstein J, et al. Blunt abdominal aortic trauma in association with thoracolumbar spine fractures. Injury 2001;32:201–7.
- [18] Lin PH, Barr V, Bush RL, et al. Isolated abdominal aortic rupture in a child due to all-terrain vehicle accident—a case report. Vasc Endovascular Surg 2003;37:289–92.
- [19] Milas ZL, Dodson TF, Ricketts RR. Pediatric blunt trauma resulting in major arterial injuries. Am Surg 2004;70:443–7.
- [20] Soares G, Ibarra R, Ferral H. Abdominal aortic injury in a child: intravenous digital subtraction angiogram (IVDSA) for the diagnosis of pediatric vascular trauma. Pediatr Radiol 2003;33:563–6.
- [21] Muniz AE, Haynes JH. Delayed abdominal aortic rupture in a child with a seat-belt sign and review of the literature. J Trauma 2004;56:194–7.
- [22] Prince JS, LoSasso BE, Senac MO Jr. Unusual seat-belt injuries in children. J Trauma 2004;56:420–7.
- [23] Diaz JA, Campbell BT, Moursi MM, et al. Delayed manifestation of abdominal aortic stenosis in a child present-

ing 10 years after blunt abdominal trauma. J Vasc Surg 2006;44:1104–6.

- [24] Aidinian G, Karnaze M, Russo EP, et al. Endograft repair of traumatic aortic transection in a 10-year-old—a case report. Vasc Endovascular Surg 2006;40:239–42.
- [25] Khanna PC, Rothenbach P, Guzzetta PC, et al. Lap-belt syndrome: management of aortic intimal dissection in a 7-year-old child with a constellation of injuries. Pediatr Radiol 2007;37:87–90.
- [26] McCarthy MC, Price SW, Rundell WK, et al. Pediatric blunt abdominal aortic injuries: case report and review of the literature. J Trauma 2007;63:1383–7.
- [27] Anderson SA, Day M, Chen MK, et al. Traumatic aortic injuries in the pediatric population. J Pediatr Surg 2008;43:1077–81.
- [28] Burjonrappa S, Vinocur C, Smergel E, et al. Pediatric blunt abdominal aortic trauma. J Trauma 2008;65(1):e10–12.
- [29] Heck JM, Bittles MA. Traumatic abdominal aortic dissection in a 16-month-old child. Pediatr Radiol 2009;39:750–3.
- [30] Blanco FC, Powell DM, Guzzetta PC, et al. Aortic bifurcation rupture after blunt abdominal trauma in a child: a case report. J Pediatr Surg 2011;46:1452–4.
- [31] Sadaghianloo N, Jean-Baptiste E, Breaud J, et al. Blunt abdominal aortic trauma in paediatric patients. Injury 2014;45:183–91.
- [32] Shalhub S, Starnes BW, Tran NT, et al. Blunt abdominal aortic injury. J Vasc Surg 2012;55:1277–85.
- [33] Papazoglou KO, Karkos CD, Kalogirou TE, et al. Endovascular management of lap belt-related abdominal aortic injury in a 9-year-old child. Ann Vasc Surg 2015;29 365 e11–5.
- [34] Parrish DW, Barnhorst A, Trebska-McGowan K, et al. Nonoperative management of pediatric aortic injury with seat belt syndrome. Ann Vasc Surg 2015;29 1316.e1–6.
- [35] Daniele E, Coleman A, Hirsch B, et al. Pediatric aortoiliac injury following blunt abdominal trauma: a case report. Int J Surg Case Rep 2017;39:253–5.
- [36] Jammeh ML, Ohman JW, Reed NR, et al. Management of seat belt-type blunt abdominal aortic trauma and associated injuries in pediatric patients. Ann Vasc Surg 2020;69 447.e9–447.
- [37] Delniotis I, Delniotis A, Saloupis P, et al. Management of the pediatric pulseless supracondylar humeral fracture: a systematic review and comparison study of "watchful expectancy strategy" versus surgical exploration of the brachial artery. Ann Vasc Surg 2019;55:260–71.
- [38] Cunningham A, Auerbach M, Cicero M, et al. Tourniquet usage in prehospital care and resuscitation of pediatric trauma patients-Pediatric Trauma Society position statement. J Trauma Acute Care Surg 2018;85:665–7.
- [39] Branco BC, Naik-Mathuria B, Montero-Baker M, et al. Increasing use of endovascular therapy in pediatric arterial trauma. J Vasc Surg 2017;66 1175–83.e1.
- [40] Harris LM, Hordines J. Major vascular injuries in the pediatric population. Ann Vasc Surg 2003;17:266–9.
- [41] Gautam NK, Griffin E, Hubbard R, et al. Intraarterial papaverine for relief of catheter-induced peripheral arterial vasospasm during pediatric cardiac surgery: a randomized double-blind controlled trial. Paediatr Anaesth 2022;32:764–71.
- [42] Hosn MA, Nicholson R, Turek J, et al. Endovascular treatment of a traumatic thoracic aortic injury in an eight-year old patient: case report and review of literature. Ann Vasc Surg 2017;39:292.e1–292.e4.
- [43] Honda A, Michihata N, Iizuka Y, et al. Risk factors for severe lower extremity ischemia following venoarterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: an analysis using a nationwide inpatient database. Trauma Surg Acute Care Open 2022;7(1):e000776.

- [44] Garcia AV, Etchill EW, Bembea MM, et al. Pediatric arterial femoral cannulations for extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: does size really matter? J Pediatr Surg 2021;56:1643–6.
- [45] Warner DL, Summers S, Repella T, et al. Duplex ultrasound and clinical outcomes of medical management of pediatric lower extremity arterial thrombosis. J Vasc Surg 2022;76:830–6.
- [46] Knirsch W, Kellenberger C, Dittrich S, et al. Femoral arterial thrombosis after cardiac catheterization in infancy: impact of Doppler ultrasound for diagnosis. Pediatr Cardiol 2013;34:530–5.
- [47] Veldman A, Nold MF, Michel-Behnke I. Thrombosis in the critically ill neonate: incidence, diagnosis, and management. Vasc Health Risk Manag 2008;4:1337–48.
- [48] Sadat U, Hayes PD, Varty K. Acute limb ischemia in pediatric population secondary to peripheral vascular cannulation: literature review and recommendations. Vasc Endovascular Surg 2015;49:142–7.
- [49] Kayssi A, Metias M, Langer JC, et al. The spectrum and management of noniatrogenic vascular trauma in the pediatric population. J Pediatr Surg 2018;53:771–4.
- [50] Fikar CR, Fikar R. Aortic dissection in childhood and adolescence: an analysis of occurrences over a 10-year interval in New York State. Clin Cardiol 2009;32(6):e23–6.
- [51] Hua HU, Tashiro J, Allen CJ, et al. Hospital survival of aortic dissection in children. J Surg Res 2015;196:399–403.
- [52] Shamszad P, Barnes JN, Morris SA. Aortic dissection in hospitalized children and young adults: a multiinstitutional study. Congenit Heart Dis 2014;9:54–62.
- [53] Hibino N, Harada Y, Hiramatsu T, et al. Intraoperative aortic dissection in pediatric heart surgery. Asian Cardiovasc Thorac Ann 2006;14:e55–7.
- [54] Eun LY, Cho DK, Cho YH, et al. Aortic dissection and rupture in an 11-year-old child: a case report. J Cardiol Cases 2011;3(1):e46–9.
- [55] Morais P, Mota A, Eloy C, et al. Vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome: a case with fatal outcome. Dermatol Online J 2011;17(4):1.
- [56] Ware SM, Shikany A, Landis BJ, et al. Twins with progressive thoracic aortic aneurysm, recurrent dissection and ACTA2 mutation. Pediatrics 2014;134:e1218–23.
- [57] Besli GE, Durakbasa CU, Yildirim S, et al. Acute aortic dissection mimicking acute abdomen in a 14-year-old boy. Pediatr Int 2015;57:1169–71.
- [58] Regalado ES, Guo DC, Estrera AL, et al. Acute aortic dissections with pregnancy in women with ACTA2 mutations. Am J Med Genet A 2014;164A:106–12.
- [59] Shalhub S, Regalado ES, Guo DC, et al. Montalcino Aortic Consortium. The natural history of type B aortic dissection in patients with PRKG1 mutation c.530G>A (p.Arg177Gln). J Vasc Surg 2019;70:718–23.
- [60] D'Addese L, Komarlu R, Zahka K. Incidental finding of type A aortic dissection in a paediatric heart transplant recipient. Cardiol Young 2019;29:1219–21.
- [61] Venardos N, Browne LP, Fujiwara T, et al. Type B aortic dissection complicating stage 1 Norwood procedure. World J Pediatr Congenit Heart Surg 2020;11:805–7.
- [62] Mamishi S, Navaeian A, Shabanian R. Acute aortic dissection in a patient with Williams syndrome infected by COVID-19. Cardiol Young 2021;31:132–4.
- [63] Comentale G, D'Andrea C, Pilato E, et al. Type A aortic dissection in an 11-month-old infant with Loeys-Dietz syndrome. Ann Thorac Surg 2021;112:e287–9.
- [64] Dueppers P, Pretre R, Hofmann M, et al. Complex multi-stage total aortic and subclavian artery replacement in a 9-year old boy with Loeys-Dietz-syndrome. Ann Vasc Surg 2022;80 396.e1–6.

- [65] Liang Y, Wan M, Wang L, et al. Case report: management of a 10-year-old patient who presented with infective endocarditis and Stanford type A aortic dissection. Front Cardiovasc Med 2021;8:816213.
- [66] Matsushita H, Omiya H, Uehara K, et al. Management of an 11-year-old patient who presented with acute aortic dissection. J Cardiol Cases 2021;24:72–4.
- [67] Rathnayake A, Chang O, Mejia R. Acute type-A dissection in a 15-year-old Australian indigenous male - a case report. J Surg Case Rep 2022;2022(12):rjac607.
- [68] Shalhub S, Wallace S, Okunbor O, et al. Genetic aortic disease epidemiology, management principles, and disparities in care. Semin Vasc Surg 2021;34:79–88.
- [69] Coelho SG, Almeida AG. Marfan syndrome revisited: fFrom genetics to the clinic. Rev Port Cardiol (Engl Ed) 2020;39:215–26.
- [70] Loeys BL, Schwarze U, Holm T, et al. Aneurysm syndromes caused by mutations in the TGF-beta receptor. N Engl J Med 2006;355:788–98.
- [71] Holmes KW, Markwardt S, Eagle KA, et al. Cardiovascular outcomes in aortopathy: GenTAC Registry of genetically triggered aortic aneurysms and related conditions. J Am Coll Cardiol 2022;79:2069–81.
- [72] Morris SA, Orbach DB, Geva T, et al. Increased vertebral artery tortuosity index is associated with adverse outcomes in children and young adults with connective tissue disorders. Circulation 2011;124:388–96.
- [73] Malfait F, Castori M, Francomano CA, et al. The Ehlers-Danlos syndromes. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2020;6:64.
- [74] Stephens SB, Russo M, Shalhub S, et al. Evaluating perinatal and neonatal outcomes among children with vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome. Genet Med 2022;24:2134–43.
- [75] Byers PH, Belmont J, Black J, et al. Diagnosis, natural history, and management in vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome. Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet 2017;175:40–7.
- [76] Collins MH, Schwarze U, Carpentieri DF, et al. Multiple vascular and bowel ruptures in an adolescent male with sporadic Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type IV. Pediatr Dev Pathol 1999;2:86–93.
- [77] Shalhub S, Neptune E, Sanchez DE, et al. Spontaneous pneumothorax and hemothorax frequently precede the arterial and intestinal complications of vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome. Am J Med Genet A 2019;179:797–802.
- [78] Shalhub S, Sage L, Demasi J, et al. Assessment of the information sources and interest in research collaboration among individuals with vascular Ehlers-Danlos Syndrome. Ann Vasc Surg 2020;62:326–34.
- [79] Regalado ES, Morris SA, Braverman AC, et al. Comparative risks of initial aortic events associated with genetic thoracic aortic disease. J Am Coll Cardiol 2022;80:857–69.
- [80] Cecchi AC, Drake M, Campos C, et al. Current state and future directions of genomic medicine in aortic dissection: a path to prevention and personalized care. Semin Vasc Surg 2022;35:51–9.
- [81] Carlson M, Silberbach M. Dissection of the aorta in Turner syndrome: two cases and review of 85 cases in the literature. BMJ Case Rep 2009;2009:bcr0620091998.
- [82] Wang Y, Tao Y. Diagnosis and treatment of congenital abdominal aortic aneurysm: a systematic review of reported cases. Orphanet J Rare Dis 2015;10:4.
- [83] Sadat U, Dar O, Walsh S, et al. Splenic artery aneurysms in pregnancy—a systematic review. Int J Surg 2008;6:261–5.
- [84] Russo M, Boehler-Tatman M, Albright C, et al. Aortic dissection in pregnancy and the postpartum period. Semin Vasc Surg 2022;35:60–8.
- [85] Fiebich M, Block A, Borowski M, et al. Prenatal radiation exposure in diagnostic and interventional radiology. Rofo 2021;193:778–86.

- [86] Haga Y, Chida K, Sota M, et al. Hybrid operating room system for the treatment of thoracic and abdominal aortic aneurysms: evaluation of the radiation dose received by patients. Diagnostics (Basel) 2020;10(10):846.
- [87] Regitz-Zagrosek V, Lundqvist CB, Borghi C, et al. [ESC guidelines for treatment of cardiovascular disease in pregnancy]. Turk Kardiyol Dern Ars 2012;40(suppl 1):70–120.
- [88] Mendez-Figueroa H, Dahlke JD, Vrees RA, et al. Trauma in pregnancy: an updated systematic review. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2013;209:1–10.
- [89] De Vito M, Capannolo G, Alameddine S, et al. Trauma in pregnancy clinical practice guidelines: systematic review. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2022;35:9948–55.
- [90] Govsyeyev N, Malgor RD, Hoffman C, et al. A systematic review of diagnosis and treatment of acute limb ischemia during pregnancy and postpartum period. J Vasc Surg 2020;72 1793–801.e1.
- [91] Cohen H, Arachchillage DR, Middeldorp S, et al. Management of direct oral anticoagulants in women of childbearing potential: guidance from the SSC of the ISTH: reply. J Thromb Haemost 2017;15:195–7.
- [92] Sawlani N, Shroff A, Vidovich MI. Aortic dissection and mortality associated with pregnancy in the United States. J Am Coll Cardiol 2015;65:1600–1.
- [93] Zhu JM, Ma WG, Peterss S, et al. Aortic dissection in pregnancy: management strategy and outcomes. Ann Thorac Surg 2017;103:1199–206.
- [94] Kamel H, Roman MJ, Pitcher A, et al. Pregnancy and the risk of aortic dissection or rupture: a cohort-crossover analysis. Circulation 2016;134:527–33.
- [95] Immer FF, Bansi AG, Immer-Bansi AS, et al. Aortic dissection in pregnancy: analysis of risk factors and outcome. Ann Thorac Surg 2003;76:309–14.
- [96] Crawford JD, Hsieh CM, Schenning RC, et al. Genetics, pregnancy, and aortic degeneration. Ann Vasc Surg 2016;30 158.e5–9.
- [97] Braverman AC, Mittauer E, Harris KM, et al. clinical features and outcomes of pregnancy-related acute aortic dissection. JAMA Cardiol 2021;6:58–66.
- [98] Rommens KL, Sandhu HK, Miller CC 3rd, et al. In-hospital outcomes and long-term survival of women of childbearing age with aortic dissection. J Vasc Surg 2021;74 1135–42.e1.
- [99] Murray ML, Pepin M, Peterson S, et al. Pregnancy-related deaths and complications in women with vascular Ehlers– Danlos syndrome. Genet Med 2014;16:874–80.
- [100] Roman MJ, Pugh NL, Hendershot TP, et al. Aortic complications associated with pregnancy in Marfan syndrome: the NHLBI National Registry of Genetically Triggered Thoracic Aortic Aneurysms and Cardiovascular Conditions (GenTAC). J Am Heart Assoc 2016;5(8):e004052 5(8). doi:10.1161/JAHA. 116.004052.
- [101] Isselbacher EM, Preventza O, Hamilton Black J 3rd, et al. ACC/AHA guideline for the diagnosis and management of aortic disease: a report of the American Heart Association/American College of Cardiology Joint Committee on Clinical Practice Guidelines. Circulation 2022;146: e334–e482.
- [102] Lansman SL, Goldberg JB, Kai M, et al. Aortic surgery in pregnancy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2017;153:S44–8.
- [103] Yates MT, Soppa G, Smelt J, et al. Perioperative management and outcomes of aortic surgery during pregnancy. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2015;149:607–10.
- [104] Vaughan E, Carlsson T, Brooks M, et al. Splenic artery aneurysm rupture in pregnancy: challenges in diagnosis and the importance of multidisciplinary management. BMJ Case Rep 2022;15(4):e249227. doi:10.1136/bcr-2022-249227.
- [105] Chaer RA, Abularrage CJ, Coleman DM, et al. The Society for Vascular Surgery clinical practice guidelines

on the management of visceral aneurysms. J Vasc Surg 2020;72(suppl):3S–39.

- [106] Khurana J, Spinello IM. Splenic artery aneurysm rupture: a rare but fatal cause for peripartum collapse. J Intensive Care Med 2013;28:131–3.
- [107] Dua A, Rothenberg KA, Rao C, et al. Thrombolysis for management of phlegmasia cerulea dolens in the first trimester of pregnancy. Ann Vasc Surg 2019;59 313.e1–313.e3.
- [108] Ladha AB, Fareeduddin R. Phlegmasia cerulea dolens and may-thurner syndrome in the first trimester of pregnancy. AJP Rep 2016;6(1):e71–3.
- [109] Siah TH, Chapman A. Should catheter-directed thrombolysis be the standard of care for pregnancy-related iliofemoral deep vein thrombosis? BMJ Case Rep 2018;2018:bcr2017223105.
- [110] Sousa Gomes M, Guimaraes M, Montenegro N. Thrombolysis in pregnancy: a literature review. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2019;32:2418–28.
- [111] Herrera S, Comerota AJ, Thakur S, et al. Managing iliofemoral deep venous thrombosis of pregnancy with a strategy of thrombus removal is safe and avoids post-thrombotic morbidity. J Vasc Surg 2014;59:456–64.
- [112] Hemingway JF, French B, Caps M, et al. Preoperative risk score accuracy confirmed in a modern ruptured abdominal aortic aneurysm experience. J Vasc Surg 2021;74:1508–18.
- [113] Czobor NR, Lehot JJ, Holndonner-Kirst E, et al. Frailty in patients undergoing vascular surgery: a narrative review of current evidence. Ther Clin Risk Manag 2019;15:1217–32.
- [114] Kennedy CA, Shipway D, Barry K. Frailty and emergency abdominal surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Surgeon 2022;20:e307–14.
- [115] Melin AA, Schmid KK, Lynch TG, et al. Preoperative frailty Risk Analysis Index to stratify patients undergoing carotid endarterectomy. J Vasc Surg 2015;61:683–9.

- [116] Wang J, Zou Y, Zhao J, et al. The impact of frailty on outcomes of elderly patients after major vascular surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg 2018;56:591–602.
- [117] Fried LP, Tangen CM, Walston J, et al. Frailty in older adults: evidence for a phenotype. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2001;56:M146–56.
- [118] Gottesman D, McIsaac DI. Frailty and emergency surgery: identification and evidence-based care for vulnerable older adults. Anaesthesia 2022;77:1430–8.
- [119] Jones D, Song X, Mitnitski A, et al. Evaluation of a frailty index based on a comprehensive geriatric assessment in a population based study of elderly Canadians. Aging Clin Exp Res 2005;17:465–71.
- [120] Wilson DG, Harris SK, Peck H, et al. Patterns of care in hospitalized vascular surgery patients at end of life. JAMA Surg 2017;152:183–90.
- [121] Surgeon's Palliative Care WorkgroupOffice of Promoting Excellence in End-of-Life Care: Surgeon's Palliative Care Workgroup report from the field. J Am Coll Surg 2003;197:661–86.
- [122] Lilley EJ, Khan KT, Johnston FM, et al. Palliative care interventions for surgical patients: a systematic review. JAMA Surg 2016;151:172–83.
- [123] Liu S, Heller DR, Jean RA, et al. Palliative care is underutilized and affects healthcare costs in ruptured abdominal aortic aneurysms. Surgery 2020;16:234–6.
- [124] Kwong M, Curtis EE, Mell MW. Underutilization of palliative care for patients with advanced peripheral arterial disease. Ann Vasc Surg 2021;76:211–17.
- [125] Morton C, Hayssen H, Kawaji Q, et al. Palliative care consultation is associated with decreased rates of in-hospital mortality among patients undergoing major amputation. Ann Vasc Surg 2022;86:277–85. doi:10.1016/j.avsg.2022.05.005.