REVIEW

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVE: Readers will consider cardiopulmonary exercise testing to investigate the cause of unexplained shortness of breath on exertion

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Cardiopulmonary exercise testing: A contemporary and versatile clinical tool

ABSTRACT

Cardiopulmonary exercise testing (CPET) helps in detecting disorders of the cardiovascular, pulmonary, and skeletal muscle systems. It has a class I (indicated) recommendation from the American College of Cardiology and American Heart Association for evaluating exertional dyspnea of uncertain cause and for evaluating cardiac patients being considered for heart transplant. Advances in hardware and software and ease of use have brought its application into the clinical arena to the point that providers should become familiar with it and consider it earlier in the evaluation of their patients.

KEY POINTS

Technological advances and ease of use have brought CPET out of specialized centers and into the realm of daily clinical practice.

CPET is a versatile test that has unique ability to assess cardiopulmonary and metabolic responses to exercise that can reflect underlying pathology.

CPET has established value in assessing patients with exertional dyspnea and can guide clinical decision-making and help streamline patient management by focusing on the cause or excluding pathology.

CPET has useful prognostic capabilities in patients with heart failure to guide medical treatment or referral for advanced therapies.

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C ARDIOPULMONARY EXERCISE TESTING (CPET) is a versatile tool that can be useful in patient management and clinical decision-making. Many physicians are unfamiliar with it, in part because historically it was cumbersome, done mostly in research or exercise physiology centers, and used mostly in assessing athletic fitness rather than pathologic conditions. In addition, medical schools provide little instruction about it, and hands-on use has typically been relegated to pulmonologists.

Improvements in hardware and software and ease of use have brought this test into the clinical arena to the point that clinicians should consider it earlier in the evaluation of appropriate patients. It now has a class I recommendation (ie, the test is indicated) from the American College of Cardiology and American Heart Association for evaluating exertional dyspnea of uncertain cause and for evaluating cardiac patients being considered for transplant.¹ It also is a powerful prognosticator of outcomes in heart failure patients.

CARDIOPULMONARY EXERCISE TESTING MADE SIMPLE

CPET is the analysis of gas exchange during exercise. Modern systems measure, breath-by-breath, the volume of oxygen taken up (Vo_2) , and the volumes of carbon dioxide (Vco_2) and air expired (VE).

Testing can be done with nearly any kind of exercise (treadmill, cycle, arm ergometry), thus accommodating patient or provider preference. Most exercise protocols involve a gradual increase in work rather than increasing stages of

TABLE 1

Selected cardiopulmonary exercise testing variables

Peak Vo₂

Highest oxygen uptake obtained (aerobic capacity) Values vary widely with age, sex, activity level, weight, and disease (< 20 mL/kg/min in elderly; > 90 in elite athletes)

Nonspecific but starting point for interpretation and stratification

Peak Vo₂ ≥ 85% of predicted is generally favorable; <u>≤ 14</u> mL/kg/min carries a poor prognosis in heart failure (≤ 10 if on beta-blockers)

Ventilatory threshold

Point at which anaerobic metabolism increases Vo₂ at ventilatory threshold typically is 40%–60% of peak Vo₂

A low value is consistent with deconditioning or disease; a high value is consistent with athletic training

VE/VCO₂ slope

Ventilatory volume/carbon dioxide output; reflects ventilatory efficiency

Normal 25–30

May be slightly elevated in isolation in otherwise healthy elderly patients

Elevated value reflects ventilatory inefficiency or ventilation-perfusion mismatch

Values ≥ 34 indicate clinically significant cardiopulmonary disease (heart failure, pulmonary hypertension, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease Higher values = worse prognosis

Peak respiratory exchange ratio (Vco₂/Vo₂)

Reflects substrate metabolism Normal < 0.8 at rest; progressively increases during exercise

Value > 1.1 signifies physiologically maximal response; lower value suggests submaximal effort

Peak heart rate

Varies with age, fitness level, use of beta-blockers Should increase linearly with ramped increase in work Peak rate <u>> 85%</u> of predicted is generally favorable

Heart rate reserve

(Maximum heart rate – resting heart rate) divided by (predicted maximum heart rate – resting heart rate) Reflects chronotropic competence

Normal ≥ 80% if not on beta-blocker; ≥ 62% if on betablocker; less than this = chronotropic incompetence

Heart rate recovery

Maximum heart rate minus rate at 1 minute recovery Recovery ≥ 12 bpm is normal; < 12 is abnormal across all populations; < 6 is threshold in heart failure scoring system

Vo₂/work slope

Oxygen uptake per unit of work Normal is 10 ± 1.5 mL/min/watt

Normal is 10 ± 1.5 mL/min/watt

Validated with cycle ergometry; not valid with treadmill exercise, as unable to calculate specific unit of work

A high slope reflects increased anaerobic demand or high oxygen cost, eg, in obesity or hyperthyroidism; low slope reflects increased anaerobic work, eg, in heart failure or coronary artery disease

O₂-pulse

Oxygen delivered per heart beat; a surrogate for stroke volume

Curvilinear increase with exercise

Norms based on predicted peak Vo₂ and peak heart rate; value $\ge 85\%$ of predicted is favorable

Blunted response or decline suggests ventricular failure; response can be falsely high if heart rate is blunted

End-tidal Pco₂

Reflects perfusion: better cardiac output = better CO_2 diffusion

In heart failure, values > 33 mm Hg at rest and > 36 mm Hg at ventilatory threshold are favorable; low values = poor prognosis

Exercise oscillatory breathing

Abnormal breathing pattern often seen in heart failure; no universal definition

Sustained visible fluctuations in ventilations support a poorer prognosis

Oxygen uptake efficiency slope

Additional logarithmic model of ventilatory efficiency In heart failure, values < 1.4 carry a poor prognosis

Peak respiratory rate

Rarely exceeds 50/min

High value suggests pulmonary limitation or exceptional effort

Value < 30 suggests submaximal effort

Peak VE/Mvv

Ventilatory reserve: peak exercise ventilations (VE) divided by predicted or measured maximum voluntary ventilations (Mvv)

Normal: 15%–20% reserve in most people May be reduced or absent in elite athletes; reduced reserve suggests pulmonary limitation; excessive value suggests submaximal effort

CPET differs from standard stress testing in that the workload 'ramps up,' ie, increases gradually and continuously



FIGURE 1. Diagram of response to work. Impairment from any cause will lower the peak Vo_2 and ventilatory threshold.

work for smooth data collection, and graphical display for optimal test interpretation.

After undergoing baseline screening spirometry, the patient rides a stationary bicycle or walks on a treadmill while breathing through a nonrebreathing mask and wearing electrocardiographic leads, a blood pressure cuff, and a pulse oximeter. The test starts out easy and gets progressively harder until the patient fatigues, reaches his or her predicted peak Vo₂, or, as in any stress test, experiences any other clinical indication for stopping, such as arrhythmias, hypotension, or symptoms (rare). We advise patients to wear comfortable workout clothes, and we ask them to try as hard as they can. The test takes about 10 to 15 minutes. Patients are instructed to take all of their usual medications, including beta-blockers, unless advised otherwise at the discretion of the supervising physician.

What the numbers mean

Table 1 lists common CPET variables; Table2 lists common patterns of results and whatthey suggest. Other reviews further discussdisease-specific CPET patterns.²⁻⁵

Peak VO₂. As the level of work increases, the body needs more oxygen, and oxygen consumption (VO_2) increases in a linear fashion up to a peak value (**Figure 1**). Peak VO_2 is the

TABLE 2

What cardiopulmonary exercise test patterns suggest

Nonspecific: suggest significant cardiopulmonary or metabolic impairment of any sort

Peak $Vo_2 < 80\%$ of predicted VE/Vco₂ slope > 34 Ventilatory (anaerobic) threshold < 40% of peak Vo_2

Deconditioning

Low-normal peak Vo₂ Low ventilatory (<u>anaerobic</u>) <u>threshold</u> Absence of any other abnormal responses

Obesity

Increased Vo₂/work slope

Indexed peak Vo₂ (mL/kg/min) less than predicted Absolute Vo₂ (L/min) normal or greater than predicted Oxygen indexed to lean body mass normal or greater than predicted

Cardiac limitations

Oxygen pulse (O_2 -pulse) < 80% predicted or flattened or falling curve Chronotropic incompetence Heart rate recovery ≤ 12 beats per minute after 1 minute of recovery Standard electrocardiographic criteria for ischemia

Pulmonary limitations

Peak exercise respiratory rate > 50 per minute Ventilatory reserve (peak VE/MVV) < 15% Oxygen desaturation by pulse oximetry Abnormal results on pretest screening spirometry Abnormal exercise flow-volume loops

Muscular disease

Submaximal cardiac and respiratory responses Ventilatory (anaerobic) threshold < 40% of peak Vo₂ Elevated lactate at any given level of submaximal work

central variable in CPET. Whereas elite athletes have high peak Vo_2 values, patients with exercise impairment from any cause have lower values, and average adults typically have results in the middle. Peak Vo_2 can be expressed in absolute terms as liters of oxygen per minute, in indexed terms as milliliters of oxygen per kilogram of body weight per minute, and as a percentage of the predicted value.

Ventilatory threshold. Before people reach their peak Vo_2 , they reach a point where the work demand on the muscles exceeds the oxygen that is being delivered to them, and their metabolism becomes more anaerobic. This point is called the <u>anaero-</u> bic threshold, or more precisely the ventila-



FIGURE 2. One method of determining the ventilatory threshold is to determine the intersection of the VE/Vo₂ and VE/Vco₂ curves.

tory threshold. In states of deconditioning or disease, this threshold is often lower than predicted. It can be detected either directly by measuring blood lactate levels or, more often, indirectly from the Vo₂, Vco₂, and Ve data (Figure 2).

Gas analysis data augment information gathered from conventional stress tests

VE/VCO₂ slope. As exercise impairment advances, ventilatory efficiency worsens. Put simply, the demands of exercise result in greater ventilatory effort at any given level of work. This is a consequence of ventilationperfusion mismatching from a milieu of metabolic, ventilatory, and cardiac dysregulation that accompanies advanced cardiopulmonary or metabolic disease.^{6,7} The most validated CPET variable reflecting this is the minute ventilation-carbon dioxide relationship (VE/ Vco, slope) (Figure 3).

Coupled with other common CPET variables and measures such as screening spirometry, electrocardiography, heart and respiratory rate responses, pulse oximetry, and blood pressure, the VE/V co_2 allows for a detailed and integrated assessment of exercise performance.

USING CPET TO EVALUATE EXERTIONAL DYSPNEA

Shortness of breath, particularly with exertion, is a common reason patients are referred



FIGURE 3. The VE/VCO₂ slope is elevated in advanced heart failure and other hemodynamically significant cardiopulmonary conditions.

to internists, pulmonologists, and cardiologists. It is a nonspecific symptom for which a precise cause can be elusive. Possible causes range from physical deconditioning due to obesity to new or progressive cardiopulmonary or muscular disease.

If conventional initial studies such as standard exercise testing, echocardiography, or spirometry do not definitively identify the problem, CPET can help guide additional investigation or management. Any abnormal patterns seen, together with the patient's clinical context and other test results, can give direction to additional evaluation.

Table 2 outlines various CPET patterns that can suggest clinically significant cardiac, pulmonary, or muscle disorders.^{8–13} Alternatively, normal responses reassure the patient and clinician, since they suggest the patient does not have clinically significant disease.

Case 1: Obesity and dyspnea

You evaluate a 53-year-old mildly obese man for dyspnea. Cardiology evaluation 1 year earlier included normal transthoracic and stress echocardiograms. He is referred for CPET.

His peak Vo₂ is low in indexed terms (22.3 mL/kg/min; 74% of predicted) but 90% of predicted in absolute terms (2.8 L/min), re-

flecting the contribution of his obesity. His ventilatory threshold is near the lower end of normal (50% of peak Vo_2), and all other findings are normal. You conclude his dyspnea is due to deconditioning and obesity.

Case 2: Diastolic dysfunction

You follow a normal-weight 65-year-old woman who has long-standing exertional dyspnea. Evaluation 1 year ago included an echocardiogram showing a normal left ventricular ejection fraction and grade II (moderate) diastolic dysfunction, a normal exercise stress test (details were not provided), normal pulmonary function testing, and high-resolution computed tomography of the chest. She too is referred for CPET.

The findings include mild sinus tachycardia at rest and low peak Vo₂ (23.7 mL/kg/ min; 69% of predicted). The VE/Vco₂ slope is substantially elevated at 43. Other measures of cardiopulmonary impairment and ventilatory inefficiency such as the end-tidal Pco₂ response, oxygen uptake efficiency slope, and oxygen-pulse relationship (O₂-pulse, a surrogate for stroke volume) are also abnormal. In clinical context this suggests diastolic dysfunction or unappreciated pulmonary hypertension. You refer her for right heart catheterization, which confirms findings consistent with diastolic dysfunction.

Case 3: Systemic sclerosis

A 64-year-old woman with systemic sclerosis, hypertension, diabetes, and sleep apnea is referred for CPET evaluation of dyspnea. Echocardiography 6 months ago showed a normal left ventricular ejection fraction and moderate diastolic dysfunction.

She undergoes screening spirometry. Results are abnormal and suggest restrictive disease, borderline-low breathing reserve, and low peak Vo₂ (20 mL/kg/min; 71% of predicted). She also has chronotropic incompetence (peak heart rate 105 beats per minute; 67% of predicted). These findings are thought to be manifestations of her systemic sclerosis. You refer her for both pulmonary and electrophysiology consultation.

Case 4: Mitral valve prolapse

A generally healthy 73-year-old woman undergoes echocardiography because of a mur-

TABLE 3

Cardiopulmonary exercise testing scoring system for patients with heart failure

Variable	Value	Points
Ventilation/carbon dioxide (VE/Vco ₂) slope	≥ 34	7
Heart rate recovery ^a	≤ 6 bpm	5 ^b
Oxygen uptake efficiency slope	≤ 1.4	2
Peak Vo ₂	≤ 14 mL/kg/min	2

Score > 15 points: annual mortality rate 12.2%; relative risk > 9 for transplant, left ventricular assist device, or cardiac death.

Score < 5 points: annual mortality rate 1.2%.

^a Maximum heart rate minus heart rate at 1 minute in recovery.

^b2 points if on a beta-blocker.

Information from reference 24.

mur. Findings reveal mitral valve prolapse and mitral regurgitation, which is difficult to quantify. She is referred for CPET as a noninvasive means of assessing the hemodynamic significance of her mitral regurgitation.

Her overall peak Vo₂ is low (15 mL/kg/ min). The VE/Vco₂ slope is elevated at 32 (normal < 30), and end-tidal Pco₂ response is also abnormal. The recovery heart rate is also abnormally elevated. Collectively, these findings indicate that her mitral valve regurgitation is hemodynamically significant, and you refer her for mitral valve surgery.

CPET'S ROLE IN HEART FAILURE

Over 2 decades ago, the direct measure of peak Vo_2 during exercise was found to be an important prognosticator for patients with advanced heart failure and thus became a conventional measure for stratifying patients most in need of a heart transplant.¹⁴ To this day, a peak Vo_2 of 14 mL/kg/min remains a prognostic threshold—values this low or less carry a poor prognosis.

Additional CPET variables are prognostically useful, both independently and with each other. Many of them reflect the ventilatory and metabolic inefficiencies that result from the extensive central and peripheral pathophysiology seen in heart failure.^{7,15–17}

TABLE 4

Suggested components of a cardiopulmonary exercise testing report

History and clinical context

Relevant medical history, specifics of exercise intolerance, prior exercise test results, relevant studies (eg, echocardiography, pulmonary function tests, complete blood cell count), relevant medications (eg, beta-blockers)

Resting data

Weight, body mass index, percent body fat, heart rate, blood pressure, pulse oximetry, screening spirometry, hemoglobin, electrocardiogram

Exercise protocol

Treadmill, cycle, or arm geometry; rate of ramp increase; peak work-load

Reason for test termination

Fatigue, symptoms, abnormal electrocardiographic findings

Subjective responses

Peak rating of perceived exertion Specific symptoms and comparison to index symptoms

Validity of test

Peak respiratory exchange ratio \geq 1.1, rating of perceived exertion \geq 17

Oxygen responses

Peak Vo_2 relative to norms, Vo_2 per ideal weight, Vo_2 at ventilatory threshold

Specific cardiac responses

Reflected in exercise and recovery heart rate, blood pressure, O₂-pulse, electrocardiogram

Specific pulmonary responses

Peak respiratory rate, ventilations; ventilatory reserve (VE/MVV), pulse oximetry, blood gases

Markers of central cardiopulmonary inefficiency

VE/Vco₂ slope, end-tidal Pco₂ responses, exercise oscillatory breathing, oxygen uptake efficiency slope

Summary statement

The bottom line for referring provider; normal vs abnormal; if abnormal, suggest differential diagnoses; CPET score for heart failure (see **Table 3**)

Recommendations

To guide referring provider Reassurance if normal

Formal exercise program for fitness or weight loss

- Suggest adjunctive tests if abnormal (eg, formal spirometry, right heart catheterization, chest computed tomography, natriuretic peptide measurement)
- Beta-blocker modification or pacemaker if chronotropically incompetent

An elevated VE/VCO₂ slope is a strong predictor of adverse outcomes for patients with heart failure with either reduced or preserved ejection fraction.^{18,19} Other recognized prognostic indicators include^{20–23}:

Low end-tidal PCO₂

Exercise oscillatory breathing

Low oxygen uptake efficiency slope. All of these are readily provided in the reports of modern CPET systems. Explanations are in Table 1.

Collectively, these variables are strong predictors of outcomes in heart failure patients in terms of survival, adverse cardiac events, or progression to advanced therapy such as a left ventricular assist device or transplant. A multicenter consortium analyzed CPET results from more than 2,600 systolic heart failure patients and devised a scoring system for predicting outcomes (**Table 3**). This scoring system is a recommended component of the standard evaluation in patients with advanced heart failure.²⁴

EXERCISE TEST REPORTING

Currently there is no universal reporting format for CPET. Using a systematic approach such as the one proposed by Guazzi et al⁵ can help assure that abnormal values and patterns in all areas will be identified and incorporated in test interpretation. **Table 4** lists suggested components of a CPET report and representative examples.

OTHER USES OF EXERCISE TESTING

CPET has also been found useful in several other clinical conditions that are beyond the scope of this review. These include pulmonary hypertension,²⁵ differentiation of pathologic vs physiologic hypertrophy of the left ventricle,²⁶ preclinical diastolic dysfunction,^{27,28} congenital heart disease in adults,²⁹ prediction of postoperative complications in bariatric surgery,³⁰ preoperative evaluation for lung resection and pectus excavatum,^{31,32} hemodynamic impact of mitral regurgitation,³³ and mitochondrial myopathies.³⁴

COST-EFFECTIVENESS UNKNOWN

The Current Procedural Terminology code for billing for CPET is 94621 (complex pulmonary stress test). The technical fee is \$1,605, and the professional fee is \$250. The allowable charges vary according to insurer, but under Medicare A and B, the charges are \$258.93 and \$70.65, respectively, of which patients typically must copay 20%. Total relative value units are 4.60, of which 1.95 are work relative value units.

The cost-effectiveness of CPET has not been studied. As illustrated in the case examples, patients often undergo numerous tests before CPET. While one might infer that CPET could streamline testing and management if done sooner in disease evaluation, this hypothesis has not been adequately studied, and further research is needed to determine if and how doing so will affect overall costs.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Newer hardware and software have made CPET more available to practicing clinicians.

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CPET has proven value in evaluating patients with exertional dyspnea. If firstline evaluation has not revealed an obvious cause of a patient's dyspnea, CPET should be considered. This may avoid additional testing or streamline subsequent evaluation and management. CPET also has an established role in risk stratification of those with heart failure.

The clinical application of CPET continues to evolve. Future research will continue to refine its diagnostic and prognostic abilities in a variety of diseases. Most major hospitals and medical centers have CPET capabilities, and interested practitioners should seek out those experienced in test interpretation to increase personal familiarity and to foster appropriate patient referrals.

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overwhelmed or in the presence of so-called non-osmotic stimuli for ADH release. The fact that the authors still detected ADH does not exclude the above mechanism, because ADH assays are not very sensitive for low concentrations.⁶

In sick patients, however, free water excretion is frequently impaired as a result of non-osmotic stimuli for ADH secretion. Decreased circulating volume (even subclinical), pain, nausea, anxiety, stress, certain drugs and inflammation all trigger ADH release and overrule 'normal' osmoregulation.^{7 8} Such nonosmotic ADH release is a common response to sickness and is highly prevalent in hospitalized patients. In this setting hypotonic infusions can cause hyponatraemia because of retention of water in the ECF. This acute decrease in ECF osmolality can cause potentially life-threatening cerebral oedema, mainly in sick children.⁹⁻¹¹ Furthermore, hyponatraemia is increasingly recognized as an independent risk factor for adverse outcomes.¹²

An additional issue with the study by Van Regenmortel and colleagues is the use of NaCl 0.9% as the isotonic infusion. The high chloride load predictably caused a hyperchloraemic acidosis. Hyperchloraemic acidosis is increasingly recognized as a factor that impairs microcirculation and kidney function.^{13 14} Therefore it cannot be excluded that a decrease in microvascular renal circulation partially explains the lower urine production in the group that received NaCl 0.9%. Time has come to agree that NaCl 0.9% is not 'a physiological solution' or 'normal saline', but rather 'an abnormal acidogenic solution' that in no way deserves the description as 'physiological'. Fortunately hyperchloraemic acidosis can be prevented by the use of more balanced isotonic solutions.¹⁵

In conclusion, we believe that this study compared two inferior solutions in a nonrepresentative (i.e. healthy) group of study participants lacking non-osmotic ADH triggers that many of our sick patients have. This study provides no evidence to favour the use of hypotonic solutions for IVFMT in sick patients. In our opinion, the evidence-lacking part of this debate is no longer about the optimal fluid composition but rather the amount of fluid that we calculate as normal daily intake. The latter is, unfortunately, still mainly based on dogma and traditions.¹

Declaration of interest

None declared.

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Cardiopulmonary exercise testing in preoperative risk assessment and patient management

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Editor—The article by Swart and colleagues¹ aroused our interest. In 1999 our group published a paper in which we used cardiopulmonary exercise testing (CPX) to stratify surgical risk in 548 consecutive patients >60 years of age (or younger with known cardiopulmonary disease).² We found that, to quote, 'In elderly patients undergoing major intra-abdominal surgery, the AT (anaerobic threshold), as determined by CPX testing, is an excellent predictor of mortality from cardiopulmonary causes in the

postoperative period. Preoperative screening using CPX testing allowed the identification of high-risk patients and the appropriate selection of perioperative management'.

CPX measures aerobic capacity in terms of AT or perhaps peak oxygen uptake. We preferred to use AT, as a number of other important physiologic parameters are defined at that point. At the time we wrote our paper, myocardial ischaemia leading to myocardial infarction was considered the major cause of morbidity and death following surgery. We showed that low aerobic capacity (i.e. heart failure) was by far the most threatening issue preoperatively and could be determined by CPX; the importance of heart failure as a risk factor was later confirmed.³ We risk-stratified patients on the basis of the expected oxygen demand stress of the planned surgery. We identified that an AT $<11 \text{ mlmin}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ placed a patient in a 'high-risk' group. Such patients were admitted to an intensive care area preoperatively and were managed with invasive haemodynamic monitoring. The 'intermediate-risk' group $(AT > 11 \text{ mlmin}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ but with other parameters abnormal) were}$ admitted postoperatively to a high-dependency unit (HDU). This strategy enabled delivery of a complete package of individualized perioperative care by the continuous presence of trained (nursing and junior medical) staff overseen by experienced consultants and using protocols to guide management. We did not have to cancel any, to quote Swart and colleagues, 'elective surgical patients on the day of surgery'. This is a far more serious issue for the patient than recognized, as it involves relatives, the workplace and the psychological state of the patient. What is even worse is to alter the management decision pathway on the basis of bed availability. This is wittingly allowing patient care to be compromised and minimizes the impact of any preoperative assessment.

Using our approach, morbidity and mortality figures were significantly improved and there was also a significant decrease in the number of ICU and HDU bed days required for all surgical patients. Of particular note was that **unplanned admissions** of deteriorating patients from the postoperative wards (which previously had placed a large demand on ICU bed occupancy) were reduced to **zero**.

Having said all this, the article by Swart and colleagues¹ is important, and hopefully we will see more hospitals use CPX for preoperative assessment and perioperative management.

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Does surrounding temperature influence the rate of hypothermia during Caesarean section?

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Editor—I read the meta-analysis by Sultan and colleagues¹ and the comment thereon by Nair² with great interest. Although the duration of a Caesarean section is short, the exposed abdomen loses warmth by radiation and convection, leading to a reportedly high rate of hypothermia after surgery. In addition to the size of the exposed area, temperature loss is proportional to the difference in temperature (Fourier's law). I am astonished that neither the review by Sultan and colleagues¹, nor other reviews like the one by Munday and colleagues,³ mention the temperature of the operation theatre as an influential factor to the parturitients' and neonates' body temperature. Unfortunately this leaves me clueless as to which temperature I should recommend for setting the operation theatre air-conditioning system.

Declaration of interest

None declared.

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