


## Aha circulation acs guidelines

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I often get the question: Are the 2019 ACLS Guidelines different from the 2020 ACLS Guidelines? So here's the answer to that question. They're the same. Most of the links on this site will say that the site is up to date with the 2015-2020 ACLS Guidelines. The 2015 ACLS guidelines are the most recent published guidelines. Therefore, the 2020 ACLS guidelines are actually the 2015 ACLS guidelines. Every five years the American Heart Association has a meeting, and they will develop new guidelines for PPC, BLS, ACLS and PALS. These guidelines are based on data collected over the previous 5 years. You can view the new 2015-2020 ACLS guidelines here. Before these ACLS guidelines are released, the American Heart Association publishes an Executive Summary that appears in the journal Circulation. This Summary provides an overview of the most important changes made to the update. It also provides a short snippet of how the changes apply to BLS, ACLS, and PALS. 2020 ACLS Guidelines 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020 ACLS Guidelines So now you understand that until the beginning of mid-2021, ACLS providers will be responsible to learn and master the 2015 ACLS protocols. The 2019 American Heart Association Update has arrived! 1 CanadiEM is working with AHA to create a series of three infographic articles highlighting new changes in guidelines. Our infographic visually summarizes recommendations new to the 2019 update. The first part of our infographic series focuses on updates to the 2019 ACLS Adult Guidelines. You can find the full AHA article here. Updates to the 2019 Adult ACLS Guidelines include: Use of advanced airway during CPRThe role of vasopressors during CPRThe use of extracorporeal PPC To view the full 2019 AHA focused update guidelines, visit . Stay tuned for our other infographics in the series: Pediatric ALS Updates, and Care Systems updates. You can find all the 2019 AHA Infographic Update Guidelines here! This infographic was reviewed by AHA and CanadiEM. This post was uploaded by Andy Tolmie. Panchal A, Berg K, Hirsch K, et al. 2019 American Heart Association focused update on advanced cardiovascular life support: Use of Advanced Airways, Vasopressors and extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation during cardiac arrest: Update of the Guidelines of the American Association for cardiopulmonary resuscitation and emergency cardiovascular care. Circulation. November 2019;CIR00000000000000732. doi:10.1161/CIR.00000000000000732 (visited 5098 times, 9 visits today) Abstract Basics of Cardiac Resuscitation include the immediate provision of high-quality cardiopulmonary cardiopulmonary combined with rapid defibrillation (as needed). These foundations of therapy laid the groundwork for other possible interventions such as medications, advanced airways, extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation, and post-cardiac care, including targeted temperature management, cardiorespiratory support, and percutaneous coronary intervention. Since 2015, more and more studies have been published evaluating some of these interventions, requiring a reassessment of their use and impact on survival after cardiac arrest. This 2019 focused update of the American Heart Association's advanced cardiovascular life support guidelines summarizes recent published evidence and recommendations on the use of advanced respiratory tracts, vasopressors, and extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation during cardiac arrest. It includes revised recommendations for all three areas, including the choice of advanced respiratory devices and strategies during cardiac arrest (e.g. bag-mask ventilation, over-prepared airways, or endotracheal intonation), training and retraining required, administration of a standard dose of epinephrine, and decisions related to the use of extracorporeal cardiopulmonary resuscitation and its potential impact on cardiac arrest. This 2019 focused update of the American Heart Association's Advanced Cardiovascular Life Support (ACLS) guidelines for cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) and emergency cardiovascular care-based evidence, identified in systematic reviews and as a result of the 2019 International Consensus on Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Medicine with recommendations for treatment from the International Committee for Resuscitation Communications (ILCOR).1 The Advanced Life Support Consensus on Science project with treatment recommendations has been posted online for public discussion.2-4 and summary, Containing the final formulation of the Consensus on Science with Recommendations for Treatment recommendations was published simultaneously with this targeted update.1Expert writing for this 2019 ACLS focused update reviewed as the 2019 Consensus on Science with Treatment Recommendations Web based on documents and studies included in systematic reviews.5-7 Discussion of the written group and reviews of the evidence were conducted with the structure and resources of out-of-dow and hospital resuscitation systems, that use these ACLS Guidelines. In addition, the written group identified classes of recommendations and levels of evidence (table) in accordance with the latest recommendations of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines8, using the process 2015 American Heart Association Guidelines Update for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care. 9Blaube. 9Bluble. Recommendation class and level of evidence for clinical strategies, interventions, treatment or diagnostic testing in patient care (updated in August 2015) This 2019 document updates recommendations on the use of advanced respiratory tracts, vasopressors and extracorporeal CPR (ECP) only during cardiac arrest. These updates are in addition to those published in the 2017 and 2018 guidelines focused updates.10,11 All other recommendations and algorithms, Published in Part 7: Adult Advanced Cardiovascular Life Support in the 2015 AHA Guidelines update12 and Part 8: Adult Advanced Cardiovascular Life Support in the 2010 American Heart Association Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care13 remain official recommendations of the American Heart Association's Emergency Cardiovascular Science Subcommittee and Written Groups. Using Advanced Airways in Cardiac Arrest For effective use of advanced airways, health care providers must maintain their knowledge and skills through frequent practice. Air control during cardiac arrest usually begins with a basic strategy, such as bag-mask ventilation (BMV). In addition to BMV, it may be helpful for vendors to master advanced airway strategies and second (backup) strategies to use if they are unable to install the first choice of airway supplement. After inserting advanced airway providers should immediately conduct a thorough assessment to make sure that the airway device is properly positioned and effective. This assessment should minimize the interruption of chest compressions. Assessment by physical examination consists of visualizing the enlargement of the chest on a bilateral basis and listening to the epigastrium (the sounds of breathing should not be heard) and lung fields on a bilateral basis (breathing sounds should be equal and adequate). The device should also be used to confirm the correct placement (see Endotracheal Intubation Versus BMV-Updated 2019). Providers must observe persistent dropographic wave forms with ventilation to confirm and monitor the endotracheal tube (ETT) placement in the field, in the vehicle, upon arrival at the hospital, and after any patient transfer to reduce the risk of unrecognized tube irrelevance or movement. The use of capnography to confirm and monitor the correct placement of the supradal airways (SGAs) has been subjected to limited evaluation, and its usefulness will depend on the design of the airways.14,15 However, effective ventilation through the SGA device should lead to a capnograph wave form during CPR and after the return of spontaneous circulation (ROSC). Of how advanced airways are in place during cardiac arrest, providers performing CPR should no longer supply CPR cycles (i.e. compression is interrupted by pauses for ventilation). Instead, the compression provider should give continuous chest compressions at speeds of 100 to 120 per minute without pauses Ventilation. The ventilation is then provided at a rate of 10 breaths per minute (1 breath every 6 seconds). Asynchronous breaths are delivered if ventilation cannot be successfully delivered only when compressed. Providers should avoid delivering excessive ventilation during CPR because it can jeopardize venous return and reduce cerebral blood flow, causing direct vasculature.16Choice Advanced Airway-Updated 2019BMV without an advanced respiratory device may not allow adequate ventilation in all patients during resuscitation from cardiac arrest and does not protect against pulmonary aspiration of acuteness. As a result, advanced airway devices are often placed by suppliers during CPR. However, placing advanced airways during active compressions is a complex task, often requiring interruption of chest compressions. Emerging intubation can result in non-positioning of ETT or device. ILCOR commissioned a systematic review7 assessed the impact on overall cardiac arrest survival and neurological outcomes when providers used advanced respiratory devices such as ETT or SGA compared to BMV and other respiratory control strategies during resuscitation attempts for out-of-hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA) and in cardiac hospital (IHCA). Summary of Evidence - Updated 2019Endotracheal Intubation Versus BMVOne large randomized controlled trial (RCT) 2043 subjects with OHCA versus BMV (with predetermined potential salivation insubation) with the end of intubation (ETI) in the system, ETI's success in this study was 98%, illustrating what appears to be a relatively optimal parameter for ETI's potential success as an intervention. In this context, there were no general differences in 28-day survival (relative risk .RR), 1.02 (95% CI, 0.71-1.47) or 28-day survival with favorable neurological function (RR, 1.03 (95% CI, 0.68-1.55) between groups, processed ETI and BMV.17B supplement to the randomized controlled study Jabre et al.17 systematic review has identified a number of observational studies assessing the use of BMV compared to ETI.7 Many of these studies have suggested a link between ETI and the worst outcome, but the choice of bias and confusion severely limit the certainty of data.7 Confusion on the indications is also problematic, because ETI is likely to be used in patients with a more severe disease. Almost all studies have had resuscitation or immortal time bias, which are forms of bias/confusion that can occur in observational intervention assessment studies if the timing is not taken into account. More information to give a systematic Granfeldt et al., 7 works by Donnino et al., 18 and analysis conducted by Levesque et al.19 provide additional information. SGA DevicesTwo's large RCTs compared the use of the SGA strategy with ETI's Emergency systems.20,21 There was a significant heterogeneity in design in various studies, excluding data pooling. One RCT of 9,296 subjects compared inserts i-gel (from Intersurgical Ltd, Berkshire, UK) SGA with ETI, finding no difference in survival (RR, 0.95 95% CI, 0.82-1.10) or survival with a good neurological outcome (RR, 0.92 95% CI, 0.77-1.09) in hospital discharge.20 Other RCTs enrolled 3004 patients with OHCA and compared ETI with the insertion of a laryngeal tube (from VBMzinnik MednikTech GmbH, Sul Neck , Germany), finding both higher survival rates for hospital discharge (RR, 1.34 (95% CI, 1.07-1.68); 27 more patients per 1000 (95% CI, 6-48) and higher hospital survival discharge with good neurological results (RR, 1.42 (95% KI, 1.07-1.89); 21 more patients per 1000 (95% KI, 3-38)) when discharged from the hospital when the laryngeal tube was used.21Thicy study Jabre et al17 illustrated the high success rates of ETI (98%) Bengner et al20 and Wang et al21 studies were conducted in conditions with much lower success rates. In particular, the recorded success rate of ETI in the Bengner et al test was 69%, and in the Wang et al trial it was 52%. In addition, the definition of intubation success also differed between these tests. Like the method used in systematic review7, we viewed these studies as occurring in conditions with historically high or low intubation success. With historically lower ETI success rates, the results of these recent studies may not accurately reflect the effectiveness of ETI compared to SGA devices. Recommendations - Updated 2019The BMV or advanced respiratory strategy can be considered during adult OHCA arrest in any setting (class 2b; B-R evidence level). If advanced airways are used, SGA can be used for adults with OHCA in conditions with low tracheal intubation success or minimal learning opportunities to accommodate ETT (class 2a; B-R evidence level). If advanced airways are used, SGA or ETT can be used for adults with OHCA in conditions with high trachea success rates or optimal learning opportunities to accommodate ETT (class 2a; B-R evidence level). If advanced airways are used in the hospital by expert suppliers trained in these procedures, either SGA or ETT (Class 2a; B-R evidence level) can be used. Frequent experience or frequent retraining is recommended to service providers who perform ETI (Class 1; B-NR Evidence Level). Emergency medical systems that perform pre-hospital etihonization should provide a continuous quality improvement programme to minimize complications track the overall success rates of SGA and ETT (Class 1; C-EO Evidence Level). THE RCTs included in this assessment allow the supplier to be rejected on the basis of clinical clinical Reported. It is impossible to assess the individual potential benefit of the patient (or harm) that was guided by each decision to place advanced airways. The characteristics of the patient and the service provider can influence the outcome on a case-by-case basis. For example, a provider with poor ETI skills is more likely to serve the patient better without trying ETI. Similarly, for a patient with a witness in hospital ventricular fibrillation, providers should prioritize immediate CPR with defibrillation as the final therapy for delaying defibrillation to ensure the placement of advanced airways. In contrast, a patient with hypoxic-driven arrest with profuse vomiting in the airways may require qualified providers to consider a quick ETI. Thus, a final decision on both the type and timing of modern airways will require consideration of the hostess characteristics of the patient and the supplier, which are not easy to determine in the global recommendation. Based on these problems, there is a specific need to better understand how the characteristics of the patient interact with the rescue training, experience, technical means and skills to solve and overcome specific problems for advanced respiratory control during resuscitation. Recommendations for advanced airway placement during cardiac arrest suggest that the provider has initial training and the skills and current experience to insert the airways and check the correct position with a minimum break in chest compression. BMV ventilation also requires skill and skill. Thus, the choice of BMV instead of advanced airway insertion will be determined by the skill and experience of the supplier and the needs of the patient. An important aspect of all these aircraft management decisions should be a clear and clear plan of situations in which the initial airway structure fails. The rationale for tracking the overall success of ETI systems is to make informed decisions about whether the practice should allow the procedure or move to using SGA for cardiac arrest patients; recommendations will vary depending on the overall success of the system. In addition, frequent experience and training are essential to maintaining high overall success rates for aircraft management and should be part of a continuous quality improvement system. At present, there is insufficient evidence to make a specific recommendation for the ideal frequency of retraining. This is a knowledge gap that needs to be addressed in future investigations. Use of vasopressors in cardiac arrestIn 2018 ILCOR ordered a systematic review and meta-analysis of the use of vasopressor during cardiac arrest as part of update process to evaluate published literature. This systematic ILCOR review, published in 2019.5, deals with the use of epinephrine and vasopressin vasopressin during cardiac arrest. New recommendations in this 2019 ACLS ACLS the update applies only to the use of these vasopressors for cardiac resuscitation. Summary of evidence: The standard dose of epinephrine-Updated 2019Epinephrine was supposed to have beneficial effects during cardiac arrest primarily due to its  $\alpha$ -adrenergic (i.e. vasocon) effects. These effects can increase coronary and perfusion brain pressure during CPR. The importance and safety of  $\beta$ -adrenergic effects of epinephrine are controversial as they can increase the demand for myocardial oxygen and reduce subcutaneous perfusion and can be proarrhythmic. Similarly,  $\alpha$ -adrenergic effects of the drug can cause vasopower at the microvascular level, leading to greater tissue ischemia. The recommendations of the ACLS in 2010 and 2015 AHA guidelines update12 will suggest that it is prudent to consider administering 1 mg doses of intravenous/intra-osseous epinephrine every 3 to 5 minutes during adult CPR. At the time of the 2015 evidence assessment, 1 RCT22 showed that epinephrine increased ROSC and hospitalization, but this trial was stopped early and therefore insufficient to detect any differences in long-term survival or good neurological outcome.22Two RCTs22,23 were identified in the 2019 systematic review, which evaluated the effects of epinephrine in OHCA.5 There were also a number of non-uninuded comparative studies, but a high risk of bias and heterogeneity of the design excluded them from combining them in a meta-analysis.52 RCKI22,23 comparisons of epinephrine use (up to 10 standard doses of 1 mg every 3-5 minutes) with placebo during cardiac arrest were included in the meta-analysis. In bullet tests, the use of epinephrine for patients with any initial rhythm significantly increased survival in hospital discharge (RR, 1.44 (95% CI, 1.11-1.86); 10 more per 1000 (95% CI, 2-19).) Hospital Survival (RR, 2.88 (95% CI, 2.57-3.22); 156 more per 1000 (95% CI, 131-185) and ROSC (RR, 3.09 (95% CI, 2.82-3.39); 243 more per 1000 (95% KI, 211-277) However, there was no significant difference between the groups in the survival of hospital discharge with a favorable neurological outcome. In this study, epinephrine improved survival by 30 days (RR, 1.40 (95% KI, 1.07-1.84); 9 more per 1,000 (95% KI) 2-18). Although there was an increase in survivors with poor neurological function when discharged in the epinephrine group, there was no difference in survival with a favorable or adverse neurological outcome in a 3-month period of time. In fact, the difference in survival with a favorable neurological outcome came close to the value in the group (RR, 1.30 (95% KI, 0.94-1.80); another 5 per 1000 1000 CI, 1 less-13 more).23Epinephrine effect and arrest rhythms There may be a difference in the effect of epinephrine on favorable neurological outcomes based on the rhythm of arrest. In court, PARAMEDIC 2, among people with an unshockable rhythm treated with epinephrine, an increase in survival with a favorable neurological outcome at three months of approaching statistical significance (RR, 3.03 95% CI, 0.98-9.38; 3 more in 1000 95% CI, 0 few-11 more).24 There was no difference in this outcome for those with shockable rhythms. The systematic review also analyzed short-term results in the pool analysis of 2 RCTs based on the presentation of the rhythm.5 This subgroup analysis, although informative, has limitations because the number of patients is small, so the analysis is not sufficiently powerful, and therefore the conclusions are less definitive than the overall conclusions. In this analysis, epinephrine improved survival in hospital discharges in those with non-sockable rhythms (RR, 2.56 95% KI, 1.37-4.80; another 6 per 1000 95% KI, 1-15) but not those with shock-in-rhythms. Epinephrine increased ROSC in patients with both non-sockable (RR, 4.45 95% 95% KI, 3.91-5.08); 254 more per 1000 95% CI, 214-301) and shock (RR, 1.68 95% CI, 1.48-1.92;185 more per 1000 (95% CI, 130-250)) rhythms.22,23 There was a statistically significant interaction between epinephrine and the initial rhythm, suggesting that epinephrine may be effective for non-sockable rhythms.5Rec recommendation: Standard dose of epinephrine-Updated 2019 We recommend that epinephrine be administered to patients at cardiac arrest (class 1; B-R. Based on the protocol used in clinical trials, it is reasonable to administer 1 mg every 3 to 5 minutes (class 2a; C-LD evidence level). The strength of the recommendation is based on a significant difference in 30-day survival and survival when discharged from the hospital, as well as on the short-term results of ROSC and survival in hospitalization. Although epinephrine has not been shown to definitively improve survival with a favorable neurological outcome, this result was difficult to assess given the small number of charred subjects at 3-month time. However, the results suggest a possible benefit, especially for patients with an initial non-sockable rhythm. Although the PARAMEDIC 2 trial did not report any increase in long-term survival with adverse neurological outcome, there was an increase in short-term survival with adverse neurological outcome.23 Very low survival with a favorable neurological outcome when discharged (1.9%-2.2%) in this study,23 may not be generalized to other health systems or places where survival may be higher; therefore, exposure to epinephrine can vary. Variations in post-cardiac arrest can also have a significant impact on the outcomes of patients with OHCA who survive to death Significant improvements in ROSC, short-term survival, and potentially good neurological outcomes support a strong recommendation for epinephrine, despite some remaining uncertainty about the overall effect on neurological outcomes. The systematic review did not identify RCF testing of epinephrine compared to placebo in IHCA.5 It is unclear how the results of the OHCA studies applied to IHCA; also it is unclear the potential impact of fluctuations in the timing of the drug, the presentation of rhythms and the presence of immediate reversible factors. The timing of the drug is noticeably shorter in the IHCA, suggesting that epinephrine may be more beneficial, especially for non-sockable rhythms, but this remains unknown. Conversely, witnesses to arrests, especially in the case of shock, can be curable without epinephrine, especially if a reversible cause is identified. Finally, these estimates did not address the potential value of the method of delivery of epinephrine (intra-osseous against intravenous) and whether there was a threshold dose of benefit or harm to epinephrine. These knowledge gaps need to be addressed and are important



