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ASSOCIATION BETWEEN NIGHT/AFTER-HOURS SURGERY AND MORTALITY: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background:** The association between night/after-hours surgery and patients' mortality
3 is unclear.

4 **Methods:** The protocol of this systematic review was registered in PROSPERO
5 (CRD42019128534). We searched Medline, Pubmed and EMBASE from inception until
6 August 29 2019 for studies examining an association between timing of surgical
7 procedures (time of anaesthesia induction or surgery start) and mortality (within 30 day
8 or in-hospital) in adult patients. Studies reporting patients' mortality after surgery
9 performed during the weekend only were excluded. All analyses were done using the
10 random-effects model.

11 **Results:** We included 40 observational studies (36 retrospective and 4 prospective) that
12 examined a total of 2,957,065 patients. Twenty-eight studies were judged of good
13 quality and 12 of poor quality according to Newcastle-Ottawa score (NOS), due to lack
14 of adequate comparability between study groups. Primary analysis from adjusted
15 estimates demonstrated an association between night/after-hours surgery and a higher
16 risk of mortality (odds ratio [OR] 1.16, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.06 to 1.28, p=
17 0.002; studies=18; I²=67%) based on low certainty evidence. Analysis from unadjusted
18 estimates demonstrated a consistent association (OR 1.47, 95% CI 1.19-1.83;
19 p=0.0005; studies=38, I²=97%; low certainty). The number of centers per study had no
20 credible subgroup effect on the association between the time of surgery and mortality.
21 We were unable to evaluate the subgroup effect of urgency of surgery due to high
22 heterogeneity.

23 **Conclusions:** Night/after-hours surgery may be associated with a higher risk of
24 mortality. Patients' and surgical characteristics seem not to completely explain this
25 finding. However, the certainty of the evidence was low.

26 **Keywords:** anaesthesia; surgery; nighttime; patient safety; perioperative

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Over 320 million surgical procedures are performed annually in response to global
3 health requirements ¹. Recent estimates suggest that approximately 50 million people
4 suffer peri-operative complications annually, leading to more than 1.5 million deaths ².
5 The occurrence of peri-operative complications is multifactorial, and the outcome of
6 these complications is related to the interaction between both *patient-related* and
7 *patient-independent factors* ³. *Patient-related factors* include the individual comorbidities
8 and baseline clinical condition of the patient at the time of surgery. *Patient-independent*
9 *factors* include the characteristics of the specific hospital and perioperative environment
10 (i.e. infrastructure, organization, culture of safety) as well as human-factors. Among
11 *patient-independent factors*, the timing of surgery has been extensively studied in
12 several surgical settings with regards to its impact on patients' outcomes.

13 Urgent surgery is traditionally provided at all times, regardless of office hours, for
14 urgent surgical cases. Scheduling of elective surgery at night or after-hours in an
15 attempt to shorten surgical waiting time and reduce overcrowding of daytime operating
16 rooms is a more recent practice ⁴. Fatigue may worsen both individual physician and
17 team performance ^{5 6} potentially leading to the occurrence of medical errors. Yet fatigue
18 is a common phenomenon among healthcare workers working at night/after-hours ^{7 8 9}
19 ¹⁰. The availability of a sufficient number of skilled medical practitioners is also lower at
20 night or after-hours. As a result there may be less adherence to best practices resulting
21 in lower quality perioperative care at these times.

22 Despite the presence of these and additional factors which seemingly predispose
23 to poorer surgical outcomes in cases performed at night or after-hours, the literature
24 remains divided regarding the association between the timing of surgery and mortality
25 rates. **We therefore conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis with the aim of**
26 **finding in adult patients undergoing elective or nonelective surgery whether**

1 interventions performed during night or after-hours compared with daytime were
2 associated with an increased risk of 30-day or in-hospital mortality.

4 **METHODS**

5 The protocol of this systematic review was prospectively registered in PROSPERO
6 (CRD42019128534).

7 **Data sources and searches:** we performed a comprehensive search of Pubmed,
8 Medline and EMBASE from inception until August 29th 2019. We searched for studies
9 that referred to patients undergoing surgery using the key words “surgery” OR
L0 “anesthesia” OR “anaesthesia” AND “night” OR “nighttime” OR “out-of-hour” OR “after-
L1 hour” OR “off-hour”. We restricted the search to studies of humans in the English
L2 language but did not apply any a-priori quality restrictions. The full search strategy is
L3 described in the **Supplementary appendix A**.

L4 Eligible studies (randomized and nonrandomized) reported on adult patients
L5 undergoing surgical procedures (elective, urgent or emergency) regardless of specialty,
L6 and provided data on mortality, comparing procedures performed during nighttime/after-
L7 hours versus daytime. The time of surgery was defined as either the time of
L8 anaesthesia induction or the time of surgery initiation, as reported by the authors. We
L9 used the definitions of the authors for night/after-hours surgery, provided this category
L0 included cases that began after 4pm and included hours after 8pm. In studies
L1 comparing more than two groups, the data were re-classified into two groups
L2 (‘night/after-hours’ vs. ‘day’). This was performed through discussion of the paper
L3 among the authors in order to achieve consensus regarding the best mode of division
L4 and only for raw data of deaths and total number of patients per group. We excluded
L5 case series, studies that did not describe surgical procedures, and those that included
L6 only paediatric patients. Studies reporting patients’ mortality after surgery performed

1 during the weekend only were excluded. We also excluded any study that did not report
2 mortality until after hospital discharge.

3 We performed screening in two stages; first, two authors (AC, GM) independently
4 screened all titles and abstracts to select potentially eligible studies. In the initial
5 screening we excluded conference proceedings, case reports and case series. We also
6 searched the reference list ('snowballing method') of all studies selected for full text
7 review (by authors AC, GM, GI) to identify additional eligible studies. Studies selected
8 for full review were included if two of the reviewers (MI, GI) agreed on their eligibility.
9 Data extraction was performed in duplicate (AC, MI) and using a standard data
L0 extraction form. Discrepancies at any stage were adjudicated by two other authors (SE,
L1 AG). We contacted the corresponding authors of any study with questions regarding
L2 eligibility or data presentation. **Supplementary appendix B, Fig. S1** describes the
L3 inclusion/exclusion process of the papers according to PRISMA ¹¹.

L4 *Outcomes and data abstraction*

L5 The primary outcome was mortality, within 30 days of surgery, **or in-hospital if the**
L6 **former was unavailable as the longest relevant timepoint.** In case of multiple time points,
L7 we used the closest to day 30. We abstracted mortality estimates and confidence
L8 intervals (CIs) or standard errors from the multivariable models of included studies that
L9 reported adjusted effect estimates for relevant covariates (e.g. patients' severity,
L10 surgical characteristics) ¹². If more than one multivariable model was presented in a
L11 study, we selected the adjusted estimate from the model that included the greatest
L12 number of covariates. The number of events (deaths) and the number of variables
L13 included in the model was captured ¹³. Studies in which the ratio of covariates per
L14 events included in the model provided was too low (i.e. less than 1:10) were excluded
L15 ¹³. We also abstracted the unadjusted number of deaths and total number of patients in

1 the included studies in the two study groups ('night/after-hours' vs. day'). Finally, we
2 abstracted data from propensity score matching analyses if reported.

3 We collected study data including patient and surgery characteristics as well as
4 the definitions used by the authors to describe the times of surgery using a standardized
5 case report form. The types of surgery were classified as follows: 1) Major abdominal-
6 urological-vascular; 2) Cholecystectomy-appendectomy; 3) Bone-joint-spine-trauma; 4)
7 Cardiac; 5) Transplantation or 6) Mixed (if more than one type of surgery was included
8 in the cohort). For the classification in "elective" and "nonelective" we used the
9 definitions and information provided by the authors; for studies including both elective
L0 and nonelective surgeries without providing separated data, we used a cut-off of at least
L1 60% of the total number of surgical procedures to categorise such studies.

L2 We report the detailed methods and results of this systematic review and meta-
L3 analysis according to the MOOSE checklist for Meta-analysis of observational Studies
L4 in **Supplementary appendix C** ¹⁴.

L5 *Risk of bias and certainty assessment*

L6 Two authors (YH, AC) independently assessed the methodological quality of the
L7 studies using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) ^{12 15}. This scale has three main
L8 domains and assigns one point of each subset of assessment criteria within the
L9 selection and exposure domains. Studies can obtain up to two points within the
?0 comparability domain. A "good" quality score required three or four stars in selection,
?1 one or two stars in comparability, and two or three stars in outcomes. A "fair" quality
?2 score required two stars in selection, one or two stars in comparability, and two or three
?3 stars in outcomes. A "poor" quality score reflected no or one star(s) in selection, or no
?4 stars in comparability, or no or one star(s) in outcomes. We assessed certainty in
?5 overall effect estimates using Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development
?6 and Evaluation (GRADE) methods ¹⁶.

1 *Statistical analysis*

2 In accordance with Cochrane guidance, we used the generic inverse variance
3 method to pool adjusted estimates and standard errors from included studies reporting
4 odds ratios (ORs) and 95% CIs from multivariable models ¹². The ORs were
5 transformed to natural log, and standard errors (SEs) were calculated from the 95% CIs
6 using standard formulas ¹². The results are reported as ORs with 95% CI. We used the
7 DerSimonian and Laird method to analyze mortality from raw data (events and totals for
8 each group) ¹⁷.

9 All the p-values were two tailed and considered significant if <.05. We assessed
10 for statistical heterogeneity (i.e. chance variation between studies) using the non-
11 parametric X^2 (Cochran Q) test, the I-squared statistic and visual inspection of the forest
12 plots. Heterogeneity was considered likely if $Q > df$ (degrees of freedom) and considered
13 confirmed if $P \leq 0.10$. This p-value was adopted to adjust for possible under-powering
14 due to low event rates. We performed all analyses using a random-effects model
15 (DerSimonian and Laird) ¹⁷.

16 We performed sensitivity analyses using unadjusted data (events and totals) and
17 data from propensity score matched populations. We stratified studies according to the
18 type of surgery subgroups in the primary and sensitivity analyses. Formal subgroup
19 analyses were performed according to the number of centres (single vs. multi-centre in
20 included studies) and according to the urgency of surgery (elective vs.
21 urgent/emergency). All the analyses were performed by AC and MI with input from SE
22 and BR, using Revman 5.3.

24 **RESULTS**

25 *Characteristics of included studies*

1 Of 5731 citations, 274 were selected for full text review and 40 observational
2 studies proved eligible (see **Supplementary appendix B, Fig. S1**)^{4 18-56}. These studies
3 included 2,957,065 patients. Thirty-six studies were retrospective, one was a post-hoc
4 analysis and one was a secondary analysis of a prospective study. Only two studies
5 were defined as prospective. Fourteen studies were multi-centre while 26 were single
6 centre. We classified five studies as relating to major abdominal-urological-vascular
7 surgery, five to cholecystectomy-appendectomy, eleven to bone-joint-spine-trauma
8 surgery, six to cardiac surgery, five to transplant surgery and eight as mixed. **Table 1**
9 presents the included studies, their designs, their patient and surgical characteristics
10 and their definitions for night/after-hours.

11 *Risk of bias*

12 Twenty-eight studies were judged of good quality and 12 of poor quality
13 (**Supplementary appendix B, Table S1**). The main reason for downgrading was the
14 lack of adequate comparability between groups.

15 **Primary analysis: Mortality (within 30-day or in-hospital)**

16 *Analysis from adjusted estimates*

17 Twenty studies reported adjusted analyses. However, only eighteen of the studies
18 were included. Two studies were excluded because their event:covariates ratio was
19 below the accepted threshold for the model provided^{26 57}. One study reported adjusted
20 analyses for emergency and nonemergency subgroups separately³⁵.

21 Among the eighteen studies, six related to bone-joint-spine-trauma surgery, four to
22 cardiac surgery, two to major-abdominal-urological-vascular surgery, two to transplant
23 surgery and four described a mixed surgical cohort. All of the studies were of good
24 quality according to NOS (**Supplementary appendix B – Table S1**) and had the
25 highest scores in the within-study “comparability” item. The confounders adjusted for in
26 each study are listed in **Supplementary appendix B – Table S2**. Briefly, almost all the

1 studies adjusted for patient characteristics, comorbidities and the severity of the surgical
2 condition.

3 Overall, surgery performed at night/after-hours was associated with a higher
4 adjusted risk of mortality than surgery performed during the day (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.06
5 to 1.28, $p=0.002$; $I^2=67\%$; **Fig. 1**) based on low certainty evidence (**Table 2**). The
6 adjusted association between the timing of surgery and mortality stratified by the type of
7 surgery is shown in **Fig. 1**.

8 **Sensitivity analysis**

9 *Analysis from unadjusted data*

L0 Thirty-eight studies reported unadjusted data, including 322,228 patients (10,300
L1 deaths) in the night/after-hours group and 2,605,760 patients (13,293 deaths) in the
L2 daytime group. The mixed surgery group contributed for 82.6% of the total number of
L3 patients included in this analysis, followed by major abdominal-urological-vascular
L4 (7.6%), bone-joint-spine-trauma (5.3%), transplant (3.8%), cardiac (0.5%) and
L5 cholecystectomy-appendectomy (0.2%).

L6 Overall, surgery performed during night/after-hours was associated with higher
L7 unadjusted mortality than surgery performed during the day (OR 1.47, 95% CI 1.19 to
L8 1.83, $p=0.0005$; $I^2=97\%$; low certainty) (**Fig. 2**). The unadjusted association between the
L9 timing of surgery and mortality stratified by the type of surgery is shown in **Fig. 2**.

L10 *Analysis using data from propensity score matched groups*

L11 Five studies reported data from propensity score matching analysis, for a total of
L12 130,541 patients in the night/after-hours (134 deaths) and 1,415,453 patients in the day
L13 group (81 deaths). The list of variables used in the propensity score matching analysis
L14 is included in **Supplementary appendix B – Table S3**. Most patients included in this
L15 analysis were from studies relating mixed surgery. Using data from propensity score
L16 analyses we found no significant association between surgery performed at night/after-

1 hours and mortality but the confidence interval was very wide (OR 2.83, 95% CI 0.64-
2 12.52; $p=0.17$; $I^2=95\%$; n studies=5 - **Supplementary appendix B – Fig. S2**).

3 **Subgroup analyses**

4 *Number of centres*

5 **Fig. S3** in the **Supplementary appendix B** showed the results of the analyses
6 from adjusted estimates reported in multi-centre (OR 1.22, 95% CI 1.05-1.42; $p=0.009$;
7 n studies=10) and single centre studies (OR 1.26, 95% CI 0.99-1.60; $p=0.007$; n
8 studies=8). There was no credible subgroup effect based on multi-centre versus single
9 centre ($P=0.84$) on the adjusted association, suggesting that the number of centres per
10 study does not modify the association of night/after-hours surgery on mortality.

11 *Urgency of surgery*

12 **Fig. S4** in the **Supplementary appendix B** shows the forest plot from adjusted
13 estimates reported in studies included in the elective and nonelective subgroups. We
14 were unable to make assumptions on the subgroup effect of urgency of surgery due to
15 both high clinical and statistical heterogeneity.

17 **DISCUSSION**

18 In this study data from nearly 3 million patients suggest that surgery performed at
19 night/after-hours is associated with a higher postoperative risk of death than surgery
20 performed during the day. This effect was consistent in both adjusted and unadjusted
21 analysis and across subgroups of interest. The adjusted odds of death were 16% higher
22 in nighttime/after hour surgery than in daytime surgery (true population effect between
23 6% and 28%). Neither the number of centers per study nor the urgency of surgery had a
24 credible subgroup effect on this association. This finding carries important implications
25 for both scheduling of surgery and peri-operative risk management.

1 To the best of our knowledge this is the largest and most updated systematic
2 review and meta-analysis evaluating the association between the timing of surgery and
3 mortality. A previous meta-analysis on this topic included only 10 studies examining the
4 outcome of mortality, and a much smaller number patients (n=165,409) ⁵⁸. Although
5 they also found increased mortality among patients undergoing surgery after-hours as
6 compared to daytime (non-event: OR=0.71, 95% CI=0.55–0.91, p=0.008), their analysis
7 did not examine adjusted risk estimates of death, or the risk associated with specific
8 types of surgery.

9 We decided to group night and after-hours surgery together as this is how most
L0 studies reported surgical timing and it is reasonable to assume that similar factors may
L1 lead to a decrease in the quality of surgical care at these times (e.g. fatigue, number
L2 and skill of the treating healthcare practitioners, availability of equipment and services).
L3 Although surgery performed during the weekend shares several features **to** that
L4 performed during the night, a decision was made to exclude studies reporting the
L5 outcomes of weekend surgery only in order to reduce the heterogeneity of the reviewed
L6 intervention and because fatigue is less likely to affect outcomes during weekends.

L7 While only one of the studies included in this analysis specifically included
L8 healthcare practitioner fatigue as a variable of interest ⁴⁵ (concluding that acute care
L9 surgeons have similar outcomes in fatigued or rested state), several studies unrelated
L0 to our topic have demonstrated the effect of fatigue on healthcare workers performance
L1 ^{7-10 59}.

L2 In a national survey among anaesthesiologists in New Zealand (70% response
L3 rate) 80% disclosed that they had made a medical error due to fatigue ⁶⁰. Sixty percent
L4 of respondents of a national survey among trainees in anaesthesia in the UK (59%
L5 response rate) believe that fatigue impairs their ability to do their job ⁹. Working at night
L6 seems the most common cause of fatigue ⁹. The implementation of several measures

1 has been suggested to ameliorate fatigue and its effect on performance. These can be
2 applied at both personal and organizational levels. Examples include improving
3 education on rest, sleep and circadian rhythm, improving water and calorie intake during
4 night shifts, enforcement of strategic breaks and micro-naps, shared decision making,
5 the use of checklists and the availability of on- and post-shift rest facilities ^{7 9 61}.
6 However, whether implementation of these strategies actually improves patient
7 outcomes remains unknown.

8 The strength of the association between performance of surgery during night/after-
9 hours surgery and mortality may differ according to the type of surgery. This could be
L0 explained by the large differences in the number of included patients and the rate of
L1 events reported across the different types of surgery It remains to be seen whether
L2 additional adjustment for the type of surgery and additional comorbidities may have
L3 affected the outcome. For some types of surgery, such as transplantation, the surgical
L4 setting often remains unchanged at all hours of the day and night. Regarding the effect
L5 according to study centres, it may well be that specific centres that have chosen to
L6 study this issue are a-priori more aware of the possibility of an increased risk and have
L7 therefore already implemented institutional safety measures ⁶².

L8 *Strengths and Limitations*

L9 This study has a number of strengths. These include protocol preregistration, a
20 comprehensive search, a large number of included studies, both adjusted and
21 unadjusted analysis careful risk of bias assessment and GRADE application to assess
22 certainty of evidence ^{12 16}.

23 The main limitation is the lack of randomized controlled studies addressing this
24 question. As no randomised trials were identified, we only included non-randomised
25 studies. As a result, residual confounding remains an important concern. To address
26 this, we considered only the outcome of mortality as it is less prone to bias and is

1 described most homogeneously across studies. We used adjusted estimates and
2 standard error from studies that employed different statistical models and this may have
3 contributed to heterogeneity in pooled estimate of effect. High clinical heterogeneity
4 across included studies is another limitation. Indeed, a high degree of statistical
5 heterogeneity was encountered in all analyses. The definition of night/after-hours varied
6 among the studies included. This difference was most notable in the hour used to define
7 the start of the “day” and in that defining the cut-off between day- and after-hours and
8 nighttime as no consensus exists in the literature about the definition of “after-hours” or
9 “night” surgery. Data on “human factors” (e.g. practitioner age, experience, hours on
10 duty, wellbeing, fatigue) were largely lacking in included studies. We were therefore
11 unable to directly evaluate the relation between these factors and mortality. This should
12 be seen as a limitation of available evidence rather than of our review and further
13 research on night/after-hours perioperative care should focus on these potentially
14 modifiable factors. The results of the subgroup analysis basing on urgency of surgery
15 should be considered with caution due to high heterogeneity and because three studies
16 ^{25,32,52} included in the adjusted analysis reported on a cohort composed of both elective
17 and nonelective surgeries, in various proportions. We used the ratio of events per
18 covariates included in the models to evaluate the possibility of inclusion in the adjusted
19 analysis but there is no single correct solution to this conundrum¹³. Large part of this
20 review population came from one study ⁵². However, excluding this study from the
21 adjusted analysis did not alter conclusions (OR 1.09, 95% CI 1.01-1.19; p=0.04;
22 I²=54%). Lastly, we decided not to create a funnel plot to assess potential publication
23 bias due to the high degree of heterogeneity ¹⁷.

24 CONCLUSIONS

25 Surgery performed during night/after-hours seems associated with a higher adjusted
26 risk of death than surgery performed during the day, but the certainty of the evidence

1 supporting this finding is low. The patient and surgical characteristics that we have
2 studied do not completely explain this finding. Further research should focus on human
3 and logistic factors that could potentially modify this association.
4
5
6

7 **Figure legend**

8 **Fig. 1** – Forest plot from adjusted estimates and standard error (primary analysis) for
9 the outcome of mortality.

L0 I-V: generic inverse variance method; SE: standard error; Yaghoubian 2010a refers to
L1 reference n. 54. Kelz 2009E refers to the emergency and NE to the nonemergency
L2 subgroups of the reference n. 35.

L3 **Fig. 2** – Forrest plot from unadjusted raw data for the outcome of mortality.

L4 M-H: Mantel-Haentsel method; Yaghoubian 2010a refers to reference n. 54;
L5 Yaghoubian 2010b refers to reference n. 55.

L6 **Authors' Contributions**

L7 AC, CG, AG, SE conceived the content of this study. AC, MI, GM, GB, GI, YH, CG
L8 performed the systematic review and/or extracted the data and/or the assessment of
L9 quality of the study. AC, MI performed the analysis with input from BR and SE. AG, YH,
L0 GB, GI, CG, AG, BR, SE gave important intellectual content for the interpretation of the
L1 data. AC, MI, BR, SE wrote the manuscript. All authors' read and approved the final
L2 version of the manuscript.

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L4 None.

L5 **Acknowledgment**

L6 None.

1 Declaration of interest

2 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

3 Appendix A: Search strategy

4 Appendix B: Supplementary data including PRISMA flow chart of inclusion-exclusion
5 process, risk of bias table, subgroup and sensitivity analyses

6 Appendix C: MOOSE checklist

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