

1 **The effects of subanaesthetic S-ketamine on postoperative delirium and**  
2 **cognitive function in elderly patients undergoing non-cardiac thoracic**  
3 **surgery: a protocol for a randomised, double-blinded, placebo- and**  
4 **positive-controlled, non-inferiority trial**

5 **(SKED Trial)**

6  
7  
8 **Identifier: NCT05242692**  
9

10  
11 **Date of the document: June 1, 2022**  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

1 **The effects of subanaesthetic S-ketamine on postoperative delirium and**  
2 **cognitive function in elderly patients undergoing non-cardiac thoracic**  
3 **surgery: a protocol for a randomised, double-blinded, placebo- and**  
4 **positive-controlled, non-inferiority trial**

5 **(SKED Trial)**

6 **Introduction**

7 Postoperative delirium (POD) is a neuropsychiatric disorder in elderly  
8 patients, manifested as an acute onset of altered and fluctuating  
9 consciousness, inattention, and disorganised thinking. POD occurs in hospital  
10 up to 1 week postoperatively or until discharge (whichever occurs first), and  
11 typically the highest incidence is observed during the first 72 hours. [1] The  
12 incidence of POD varies between 4% to 60%, depending on the age and  
13 surgical type, although its incidence is underestimated since the hypoactive  
14 subtype is not well appreciated. [2-7] Postoperative delirium is associated with  
15 prolonged hospital stay, long-term cognitive and social dysfunction, and even  
16 death. [8-10] The 1-year survival probability is reduced by approximately 10%  
17 for each additional day of postoperative delirium. [11] The pathophysiological  
18 mechanisms of delirium have not been well-elucidated, and  
19 neuroinflammation remains a topic of mainstream research interest.

20 Furthermore, its development results from the complicated interaction of  
21 multifactorial risks, such as pain, opioids, sleep deprivation, and inflammation,  
22 which poses a challenge for the prevention and treatment of postoperative  
23 delirium. [12] Although various techniques, including multi-component non-  
24 pharmacological interventions, are suggested to reduce the risks, there is  
25 limited pharmacological methods to reduce the incidence of delirium. [13]

26 Dexmedetomidine is a highly selective  $\alpha$ -2 adrenergic receptor agonist that  
27 is associated with sedative, sympatholytic, and anti-inflammatory effects, and  
28 has the highest-ranking possibility of preventing postoperative delirium in a

1 recent network meta-analysis. [10] Furthermore, the plausibility of  
2 dexmedetomidine's positive effects on postoperative delirium is enhanced by  
3 evidence of less anticholinergic activity and opioid-sparing properties. [14]  
4 Postoperative prophylactic low-dose dexmedetomidine could remarkably  
5 reduce the incidence of delirium during seven days after non-cardiac surgery;  
6 [15] moreover, perioperative infusion of dexmedetomidine halved the  
7 incidence of delirium in the elderly after major cardiac and non-cardiac  
8 surgery without the increase in adverse effects. [16,17] A randomised  
9 controlled trial found that intraoperative dexmedetomidine did not decrease  
10 postoperative delirium or affect cognitive function in the elderly undergoing  
11 major non-cardiac surgery. [18] A meta-analysis including 11 RCTs revealed  
12 that perioperative dexmedetomidine reduced the incidence of POD in elderly  
13 patients after non-cardiac surgery, but this came at the cost of an increased  
14 incidence of hypotension and bradycardia. [19] A meta-analysis of 1301  
15 patients undergoing cardiac surgery revealed that dexmedetomidine  
16 decreased postoperative delirium. [20] Nevertheless, this meta-analysis  
17 should be interpreted with caution, because several of the included studies  
18 did not consider delirium as the primary outcome, the methodology of delirium  
19 assessment varied, and dexmedetomidine administration was also  
20 inconsistent, with differing doses and durations. Furthermore, the finding that  
21 dexmedetomidine prevents postoperative delirium is also controversial. In the  
22 DECADE trial, continuous infusions of dexmedetomidine, started at induction  
23 and maintained for 24 hours, failed to reduce delirium in patients recovering  
24 from cardiac surgery. Notably, dexmedetomidine non-significantly aggravated  
25 delirium, probably mediated by hypotension. [21] However, the plausibility that  
26 dexmedetomidine prevents POD should be discussed separately, because  
27 physiopathology and incidence of delirium is quite different between non-  
28 cardiac surgery and cardiac surgery (frequent cerebral embolism). The  
29 heterogenous ways that dexmedetomidine is administrated (pre- or post-  
30 operative or both, bolus, continuous et al) also complicated the analysis even

1 more. As with all pharmacological treatment options, the side effects of  
2 dexmedetomidine are bradycardia and hypotension in a dose-dependent  
3 manner, and more strikingly in the elderly; hence, close haemodynamic  
4 monitoring is warranted.

5 Ketamine, a non-competitive N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor  
6 antagonist, is pharmacologically rationalised as an effective medication for  
7 reducing postoperative delirium, probably due to its neuroprotective  
8 properties. Under surgical conditions, the enhanced AMPA/NMDA signalling  
9 caused by the activation of cytokine receptors, and high mobility group box 1  
10 facilitate an increased influx of glutamate in hippocampal neurones, which  
11 ultimately promotes glutamate toxicity. [22] Ketamine can mitigate neuronal  
12 apoptosis by inhibiting the activation of NMDA receptors and the transduction  
13 of excitatory signals. [23] The assumption of ketamine's beneficial effects on  
14 delirium is also strengthened by evidence of its opioid-sparing and  
15 antidepressant effects. Depression and delirium, induced by similar  
16 pathophysiological mechanisms, are thought to overlap. [24,25] A small  
17 sample size of a randomised controlled trial indicated that a low-dose single  
18 bolus of ketamine at induction significantly attenuated delirium after cardiac  
19 surgery. However, the PODCAST study showed that low-dose ketamine failed  
20 to decrease postoperative delirium, pain, and opioid consumption, and  
21 generated a dose-dependent increase in the occurrence of negative  
22 experiences. [26] The PRIDE study offered no possibility for ketamine to  
23 prevent postoperative cognitive decline, including delirium. [27] Ketamine  
24 remains an off-label treatment for treatment-POD with factors that limit  
25 widespread use including its dissociative effects and abuse potential.

26 S-ketamine is the S (+) enantiomer of ketamine, which has a higher affinity  
27 with aspartate receptor and  $\mu$  opioid receptor. The anaesthetic potency of S-  
28 ketamine is two-fold higher than that of racemic ketamine, and it has higher in  
29 vivo clearance rate characterized by lower incidence of adverse reactions.  
30 [28] Animal experiments showed that S-ketamine, rather than racemic

1 ketamine, could alleviate the injury of hippocampal neurones exposed to  
2 glutamate in rodents; a subanaesthetic dose of S-ketamine could remarkably  
3 mitigate neuroinflammation by inhibiting microglia proliferation and TLR4/NF-  
4  $\kappa$ B signalling pathway activation, which consequently improved  
5 neurocognitive function. [29,30] Additionally, S-ketamine could promote the  
6 plasticity of hippocampal neurones and improve the function of neurones in  
7 the prefrontal and hippocampal neural circuits. [31] A study on healthy  
8 volunteers showed that S-ketamine exhibited pro-neuroplastic effects on  
9 hippocampal structure, which may improve cognitive function after surgery.  
10 [32] Moreover, a recent study on human metabolome revealed that S-  
11 ketamine decreases the levels of circulating branched chain amino acids  
12 which inhibit the synthesis and release of serotonin and noradrenaline in the  
13 brain. Thus, S-ketamine could, in theory, increase the effects of serotonin and  
14 noradrenaline in the brain, and contribute to the improvement of depression  
15 and cognitive impairment. [33] Furthermore, we hypothesize that the  
16 sympathomimetic and analgesic properties of S-ketamine might partially  
17 explain its non-inferior property for delirium prevention compared to  
18 dexmedetomidine. Though S-ketamine has stronger potency and lower  
19 incidence of adverse reactions, the evidence that it reduces the incidence of  
20 postoperative delirium is fairly insufficient.

21 Since the effects of S-ketamine on postoperative delirium are lack of good  
22 quality evidences, we designed the current prospective, randomised, double-  
23 blinded, placebo- and positive-controlled, non-inferiority trial to investigate the  
24 effect of intraoperative prophylactic S-ketamine on postoperative delirium in  
25 elderly patients undergoing thoracic surgery compared to dexmedetomidine.

## 26 **Methods**

### 27 **Study setting and design**

28 This study will be conducted at the Cancer Hospital and Institute of  
29 Guangzhou Medical University (Guangzhou, Guangdong, China, with

1 principal investigator [PI] Dr Yonghua Yao). The study activities are expected  
 2 to commence in March 2022 and be completed in December 2023. The study  
 3 design is in accordance with the standard protocol items for randomised trials  
 4 guidelines. The overall schedule is illustrated in Table 1, and the Consolidated  
 5 Standards of Reporting Trials flow diagram is shown in Figure 1. The current  
 6 study protocol is the fifth version.

7

8 Table 1. Schedule of enrolment, interventions, and assessments for the trial

	Enrolment	Allocation	Post-allocation								Closeout
	Preoperative assessment	Allocation	Before induction	recovery	4-hour after surgery	24-hour after surgery	48-hour after surgery	72-hour after surgery	96-hour after surgery	30-day after surgery	60-day after surgery
TIME POINT	-T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>0</sub>	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>	F <sub>1</sub>	F <sub>2</sub>	F <sub>3</sub>	F <sub>4</sub>	F <sub>5</sub>	F <sub>6</sub>	F <sub>7</sub>
<b>ENROLMENT:</b>											
Eligibility screen	X										
Informed consent	X										
Allocation		X									
<b>INTERVENTIONS:</b>											
S-ketamine			←————→								
Dexmedetomidine			←————→								
Normal Saline			←————→								
<b>ASSESSMENTS:</b>											
Postoperative delirium (3D-CAM)					X	X	X	X	X		
Pain severity (NRS)					X	X	X				
Sleep quality (NRS)						X	X	X	X		
Cognitive function (TICS-40)										X	X
Haemodynamic variables			←————→								
Emergence delirium (RASS)				X							
Plasma biomarkers (ACh, BDNF, TNF-α)			X	X					X		

9

## 10 Participant recruitment

### 11 Inclusion criteria

- 12 1. Aged 60 to 90 years old.
- 13 2. Both sexes.

- 1 3. American Society of Anaesthesiologists (ASA) physical status classification I-III.
- 2 4. Diagnosed with pulmonary, oesophageal or mediastinal disorders.
- 3 5. Undergoing open or video-assisted thoracic surgery, including lobectomy,
- 4 segmentectomy, pneumonectomy, oesophagectomy, or resection of the mediastinal
- 5 tumour.
- 6 6. General anaesthesia with one lung ventilation (OLV) or bronchial blocker.
- 7 7. An expected operation duration of 2 hours or more.
- 8 8. Voluntary participation in the trial and signed informed consent.

### 9 **Exclusion criteria**

- 10 1. History of severe psychiatric disease.
- 11 2. History of glaucoma or hyperthyroidism.
- 12 3. History of severe hepatic (Child-Pugh grade C) or renal (requirement for renal
- 13 replacement therapy) disorders.
- 14 4. Body mass index (BMI) > 35 kg/m<sup>2</sup>.
- 15 5. Dementia history or baseline Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score of < 23.
- 16 6. Severe audio-visual impairments, or inability to speak Mandarin or Cantonese
- 17 precluding communication.
- 18 7. Sinus bradycardia (heart rate < 50 beats per minute, bpm), sick sinus or Wolff-
- 19 Parkinson-White syndrome, or 2nd degree atrioventricular block and over.
- 20 8. Uncontrolled hypertension (baseline value > 200/110 mm Hg).
- 21 9. Allergic to dexmedetomidine or S-ketamine.
- 22 10. Taking sedatives, antidepressants or glucocorticoids.
- 23 11. Alcohol or Illicit drug misuse disorder.
- 24 12. Life expectancy of less than two months due to extensive tumour metastasis.

25

### 26 **Participants consent**

27 All patients scheduled for thoracic surgery will be screened one day before  
28 the operation for eligibility at the preoperative evaluation clinic (or on Friday  
29 for those who will undergo surgery the following Monday). Eligible patients will

1 be informed by the study team coordinator. For the sake of voluntary  
2 participation, all patients will be informed about the aims, procedures,  
3 benefits, possible risks of study, and how to react if risks occur. If interested in  
4 enrolment, the patients or their next of kin will sign the written consent form in  
5 triplicate.

6

### 7 **Randomisation and blindness**

8 A randomisation code will be generated in a block size of six on the website of  
9 <http://www.Randomization.com> and kept in a sealed opaque envelope by an  
10 anaesthetist nurse. The patients will be randomly allocated by a ratio of 1:1:1  
11 to the S-ketamine group (S group), dexmedetomidine group (D group), or  
12 control group (C group) by an anaesthetist nurse. Dispensing and labelling of  
13 the study drugs will be performed by a pharmacist. Both the anaesthetist  
14 nurse and the pharmacist will not be involved in the following research or  
15 follow-up. The randomisation protocol will be kept secure by the anaesthetist  
16 nurse. The primary investigator, and the clinicians collecting the data, are  
17 allowed to unmask the randomization protocol only when both recruitment and  
18 the database are closed.

19 The labelled "Study medication" syringes (50 ml), identical in appearance,  
20 and the infusion regimen formulated by the pharmacist based on the  
21 randomisation, will be distributed to the attending anaesthesiologists  
22 responsible for anaesthetic management as soon as the research team  
23 informs the central pharmacy about the patient heading for surgery. In order  
24 to avoid anaesthesiologists' speculation about the randomised assignment,  
25 the study drugs will be infused at the same rate (see Table 2). The  
26 anaesthesiologists, patients, investigators responsible for follow-up, and  
27 statisticians will be all blinded to the randomised allocations until the final  
28 statistical analyses are completed. The blindness will be unmasked by the  
29 primary investigator in a medical emergency, including deterioration of the  
30 patient's condition intraoperatively or adverse events postoperatively.



1

## 2 **Standard anaesthetic management**

3 On the day of the operation, the patients will be admitted to the operating  
4 room after random assignment. Vital signs will be routinely monitored,  
5 including heart rate (HR), blood pressure (BP), oxyhaemoglobin saturation by  
6 pulse oximetry (SpO<sub>2</sub>), end-tidal carbon dioxide partial pressure (EtCO<sub>2</sub>),  
7 nasopharyngeal temperature, and urine output throughout surgery. Pre-  
8 oxygenation with 100% oxygen for 15 min before the induction of anaesthesia  
9 will be delivered to the patient using a face mask. Atropine will be  
10 administered intravenously in avoidance of excessive secretions.

11 After arterial line and central venous line are cannulated under ultrasound  
12 guidance, anaesthesia induction will be performed by administration of  
13 midazolam (0.05 mg/kg), propofol (1-2 mg/kg) or etomidate (0.2 mg/kg), and  
14 sufentanil (0.2-0.4 µg/kg). After the patient becomes unconscious, rocuronium  
15 (0.6 mg/kg) will be injected intravenously. Bronchial intubation will be  
16 performed smoothly with a video laryngoscope after 3-minute positive  
17 pressure ventilation. The tip of double lumen tubes (DLTs) will be inserted into  
18 the glottis under direct vision and advanced until a mild resistance is  
19 perceived. After the fiberoptic bronchoscope is fully lubricated, it will be  
20 advanced into the tracheal lumen of the DLTs until the carina is identified.  
21 Afterwards, the ideal position of the bronchial lumen (the blue bronchial cuff  
22 should be invisible for left DLTs, the opening in the upper lobe of the right lung  
23 should be visible for right DLTs) will be verified. Dual-controlled ventilator  
24 modes (i.e. pressure-controlled ventilation with volume guaranteed or  
25 pressure-regulated volume control) will be applied. One-lung protective  
26 ventilation regimen will be conducted by a combination of tidal volumes (V<sub>t</sub>) of  
27 6 ml/kg or lower, by predicted body weight, with a positive end-expiratory  
28 pressure of 6 cmH<sub>2</sub>O or beyond based upon guidelines and expert opinion for  
29 optimal practice during OLV. [34] High inspiratory fractions of oxygen (FiO<sub>2</sub> >  
30 70%) will be administered to maintain SpO<sub>2</sub> higher than 94%. In addition,

1 continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) regimen will be considered when  
2 necessary. The respiratory rate will be adjusted to maintain EtCO<sub>2</sub> at 35-45  
3 mmHg. Sedative maintenance will be performed with a TCI (target-controlled  
4 infusion) of propofol according to the Schnider model at a plasma  
5 concentration (Cp) of 2-3 µg/ml to maintain the bispectral index value  
6 between 40 and 60. Analgesic maintenance will be achieved with a TCI of  
7 remifentanyl according to the Minto model at a Cp of 1-6 ng/ml to fluctuate the  
8 HR and BP within the baseline value ± 20%. An intermittent bolus of  
9 rocuronium will be administered to maintain TOF < 1 intraoperatively. Forced  
10 air-warm blankets will be used to ensure an intraoperative body temperature  
11 of 36-37°C. The surgeon will implement an intercostal nerve block (T3-7) with  
12 20 ml of 0.5% ropivacaine under direct thoracoscopic view before placing a  
13 chest tube. The sign of a successful block is the presence of pleural  
14 displacement. All participants will be given hydromorphone (0.015 mg/kg)  
15 when a chest tube is placed for the sake of prophylaxis of hyperalgesia.

16 A patient-controlled analgesia (PCA) device, with hydromorphone (0.15  
17 mg/kg) and ondansetron (12 mg) in a total volume of 100 ml, will be  
18 connected to the intravenous cannula at the end of surgery. The device is  
19 programmed to administer a background dose of 2 ml/h, as well as a bolus  
20 dose of 0.5 ml with a lockout interval of 15 min for 48 hours. Hydromorphone  
21 (0.008 mg/kg) will be administered if the numeric rating scale (NRS) score is >  
22 5 despite the PCA regimen. Residual neuromuscular blockade will be  
23 routinely reversed with neostigmine (40 µg/kg) and atropine (20 µg/kg), and  
24 the endotracheal tube will be removed when the patients are able to follow  
25 verbal commands.

26

### 27 **Study drugs administration**

28 S-ketamine (50 mg, 2 ml) is diluted to 50 ml (1 mg/ml) with 48 ml normal  
29 saline; dexmedetomidine (200 µg, 2 ml) is diluted to 100 ml (2 µg/ml) with 98  
30 ml normal saline; the control group only receives 50 ml normal saline in light

1 of blindness. All drugs are identical in appearance, packaged in identical 50  
 2 ml syringes labelled with "Study medications". The loading dose of study  
 3 drugs will be infused within 10 minutes before induction, and the maintenance  
 4 dose will be infused at a constant rate continuously until skin closure. In the  
 5 preliminary trial, we found that a loading dose of 0.4  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$   
 6 dexmedetomidine lead to obvious bradycardia and transient hypertension  
 7 events. Therefore, we modified the loading dose of dexmedetomidine to 0.2  
 8  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ; In addition, in order to ensure blindness, the infusion speed of  
 9 dexmedetomidine is consistent with that of S-ketamine, which also reduces  
 10 the side effects of dexmedetomidine. The detailed administrative protocol of  
 11 study drugs is shown in Table 2.

12  
 13 **Table 2 Study drugs and administrative protocol (take a 60 kg patient as**  
 14 **an example)**

<b>Group</b>	<b>Concentration</b>	<b>Loading dose</b>	<b>Maintenance dose</b>
S-ketamine	1 mg/ml	0.25 mg/kg	0.1 mg/kg/h
i.e. The administrative protocol of a 60 kg patient will be a loading dose of 15 ml and a maintenance dose of 6ml/h			
Dexmedetomidine	2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	0.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$	0.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{h}$
i.e. The administrative protocol of a 60 kg patient will be a loading dose of 15 ml and a maintenance dose of 6 ml/h			
Control	Normal saline	—	—
i.e. The administrative protocol of a 60 kg patient will be a loading dose of 15 ml and a maintenance dose of 6 ml/h			

15

16 **Data collection**

17 The following data will be collected through patient interviews and  
 18 abstractions from the electronic medical record system:

1 **Preoperative data collection**

- 2 1. Patient demographic data including age (years), sex, height (cm), weight (kg), BMI  
3 (kg/m<sup>2</sup>), and education level (years).  
4 2. ASA classification, Charlson comorbidity index, baseline MMSE, and type of surgery.  
5 3. Plasma biomarker concentrations including acetylcholine (ACh), brain-derived  
6 neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) before the  
7 administration of study drugs (T1).

8 **Intraoperative data collection**

- 9 1. Haemodynamic parameters including HR (bpm), mean arterial pressure (MAP, mmHg),  
10 SpO<sub>2</sub> and BIS value at 15-minute intervals.  
11 2. Hypotension and bradycardia episodes (see Table 3).  
12 3. Hypertension and tachycardia episodes (see Table 3).  
13 4. Duration of desaturation (SpO<sub>2</sub> < 94%, minutes).  
14 5. The cumulative dosage of noradrenaline ( $\mu$ g) and atropine (mg).  
15 6. The consumption of propofol (mg) and opioids (converted to morphine milligram  
16 equivalent by Global RPH, MME).  
17 7. Surgery, anaesthesia and OLV duration (minutes).  
18 8. Time to extubation (minutes, duration from discontinuation of propofol to removal of  
19 the tracheal tube).  
20 9. Emergence agitation (Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale, RASS score  $\geq$  1).  
21 10. Plasma biomarker concentrations at the end of operation (T2).

22 **Postoperative data collection**

- 23 1. Incident postoperative delirium between 4 h after surgery and the 4th postoperative day, and  
24 twice daily from postoperative day 1 to postoperative day 4 (8:00-10:00 am) with an  
25 interval of at least 6 hours.  
26 2. Severity and duration of delirium.  
27 3. Postoperative pain at 4 h, 1 and 2 days after surgery.  
28 4. Consumption of hydromorphone (mg).  
29 5. Quality of sleep within 4 days after surgery.  
30 6. Cognitive function at 30 and 60 days after surgery.

1 7. Plasma biomarker concentrations at the 4<sup>th</sup> day after surgery (T3).

2 Data Safety and Monitoring Committee (DSMB) is consist of three senior  
3 anaesthesiologists and one surgeon who are blinded to the study. The DSMB  
4 will provide independent oversight of the SKED trial and will review the study  
5 data for the participant safety as well as CRF storage. The data will be  
6 entered into the Epidata V4.6 database protected by password only  
7 accessible to DSMB. Then, the data will be exported from Epidata database  
8 to a statistical package for analysis by biostatisticians independent of the  
9 study.

10

## 11 **Outcomes**

### 12 **Primary outcomes**

13 The primary outcome will be the incidence of postoperative delirium as  
14 defined by any positive assessment between 4 h after surgery and the 4th  
15 postoperative day.

### 16 **Secondary outcomes**

17 The main secondary outcome will be the subtype, severity and duration of  
18 postoperative  
19 delirium.

20 Other prespecified secondary outcomes will be the incidence of emergence  
21 delirium; pain  
22 severity at 4 h, 1 and 2 days after surgery; quality of sleep within 4 days after  
23 surgery;  
24 cognitive function at 30 and 60 days after surgery; plasma biomarker (ACh,  
25 BDNF, TNF- $\alpha$ )  
26 concentrations at T1-3; and incidence of adverse events.

27

### 28 **Measurement of outcomes**

### 29 **Measurement of delirium**

1 Delirium will be assessed using a validated 3-minute diagnostic confusion  
2 assessment method (3D-CAM Chinese version, with a sensitivity of 84%–99%  
3 and specificity of 90%–97%) [35,36] or Confusion Assessment Method for the  
4 Intensive Care Unit (CAM-ICU), for patients who have a tracheal tube or  
5 underwent tracheostomy. [37] 3D-CAM resolves the four diagnostic features  
6 of delirium: (1) acute onset and fluctuating course, (2) inattention, (3)  
7 disorganised thinking, and (4) altered level of consciousness. A patient who  
8 displays both features 1 and 2, with either feature 3 or 4, will be diagnosed  
9 with delirium (see Figure 2). [35] Delirium assessments will be performed only  
10 when patients can be aroused sufficiently with an RASS score of -3 to 4  
11 (Supplementary Table 1). Patients with postoperative delirium will be  
12 classified into three subtypes. Hyperactive delirium will be defined when the  
13 RASS score ranges from 1 to 4; hypoactive delirium will be defined when the  
14 RASS score ranges from -1 to -3, and mixed delirium will be defined when the  
15 RASS score ranges from 1 to 4 and -1 to -3 alternatively. The severity of  
16 postoperative delirium will be rated using the CAM-Severity short-form scale  
17 (Supplementary Table 2). Mild-to-moderate delirium will be defined as a CAM-  
18 S score of 3 to 5, while severe delirium will be defined as a CAM-S score of 6  
19 to 7. [38]

20 Four investigators who are not involved in perioperative care will be  
21 responsible for postoperative delirium assessments and will be trained by a  
22 psychiatrist with regard to symptoms, diagnosis, and treatment of delirium.  
23 Furthermore, the psychiatrist will explain the protocols of 3D-CAM and CAM-  
24 ICU in detail, and will perform the simulation training of delirium assessment  
25 until a kappa value over 0.8 is achieved between investigators and  
26 psychiatrists. The training process will be repeated every 4-6 months  
27 throughout the study. In addition, the chart-based delirium identification  
28 instrument with the information primarily derived from electronic medical  
29 records system and recalling descriptions of caregivers will be employed to

1 detect any cases of delirium in patients that may occur outside of in-person  
2 delirium assessments (Supplementary Table 3). [39]

### 3 **Pain and sleep quality measurement**

4 Postoperative pain at rest and during a cough will be evaluated using an 11-  
5 point NRS (0 = [no pain], 0 < NRS < 4 [mild pain], 4 ≤ NRS < 7 [moderate  
6 pain], 7 ≤ NRS < 10 [severe pain], NRS = 10 [worst pain imaginable]).

7 Postoperative sleep quality will also be evaluated using the NRS (0 = best-  
8 quality sleep, 10 = worst-quality sleep).

### 9 **Cognitive function measurement**

10 Postoperative cognitive function will be assessed using the Chinese version of  
11 the Telephone Interview for Cognitive Status-40 (TICS-40). The TICS-40  
12 scale used in this study consists of nine items with a maximum score of 40  
13 points, including the following variables and corresponding points: address (3  
14 points), current date (5 points), counting backwards (2 points), word-list  
15 recalling (10 points), subtractions (5 points), object naming (2 points),  
16 repetition (1 point), the president and prime minister's names (2 points), and  
17 delayed recall of the word list (10 points). A score below 21 will be defined as  
18 mild cognitive impairment (Supplementary Table 4). [40]

### 19 **Biomarkers concentration measurement**

20 Venous blood (approximately 6 ml) will be sampled and stored on ice in  
21 vacutainer tubes containing EDTA. Within 30 min, the samples will be  
22 centrifuged at 4°C for 20 min at 2000× g to obtain plasma and then stored at -  
23 80°C. We will measure ACh, BDNF, and TNF- $\alpha$  levels by enzyme-linked  
24 immunosorbent assay method (in accordance to manufacturer's instructions).  
25 The biomarker assay will be performed by a specialist who is blinded to the  
26 randomization. (Supplementary text for the rationales of biomarkers selected)

27

### 28 **Adverse events**

29 An adverse event (AE) can be any unfavourable and unintended symptom or  
30 side effect temporally associated with the use of study medications. The

1 potential AEs that may be considered in this trial are bradycardia,  
 2 hypotension, tachycardia, hypertension, arrhythmia, nystagmus,  
 3 hypersalivation, euphoria, emergence agitation, hallucinations, and  
 4 nightmares. It is possible, but very unlikely, that low-dose S-ketamine (50 mg  
 5 in total) administered intraoperatively will cause these psychiatric effects.

6 Potential adverse events and medical rescue are shown in Table 3. [41]

7 Serious AEs are rare, life-threatening events that may be associated with  
 8 the study drugs or perioperative incidents, such as death or serious cardio-  
 9 cerebral vascular events.

10

11 **Table 3 The definitions of adverse events and corresponding medication**

12 **rescue**

Adverse events	Severity	Definition	Treatment
Hypotension (SBP<90 mm Hg or DBP<50 mm Hg or MAP<80% baseline)	Mild	SBP 80-89 mm Hg	Close monitoring
	Moderate	SBP 70-79 mm Hg>2 min	Noradrenaline 4 μg <sup>\$</sup>
	Severe	SBP 60-69 mm Hg>1 min	Noradrenaline 8 μg <sup>#</sup>
	Life- threatening	SBP 60-69 mm Hg and unresponsive to noradrenaline or SBP<60 mm Hg	Intensive intervention and suspend the study
Hypertension (SBP>140 mm Hg or DBP>90 mm Hg or MAP>120% baseline)	Mild	SBP 141-160 mm Hg or	Close monitoring
	Moderate	DBP 91-100 mm Hg SBP 160-170 mm Hg or	Urapidil 12.5 mg Urapidil 25 mg or
	Severe	DBP 101-110 mm Hg >3 min SBP 171-180 mm Hg or	NG 50 μg Intensive intervention and suspend the
	Life- threatening	DBP 111-120 mm Hg >2 min SBP>180 mm Hg or DBP>120 mm Hg and	study



Bradycardia (HR<60 bpm)	Mild	unresponsive to NG HR 55-60 bpm	Close monitoring
	Moderate	HR 50-54 bpm>3 min	Atropine 0.5 mg
	Severe	HR 40-50 bpm>2 min	Atropine 1.0mg
	Life- threatening	HR<40 bpm and unresponsive to atropine	Intensive intervention and suspend the study
Tachycardia (HR>100 bpm)	Mild	HR 90-100 bpm	Close monitoring
	Moderate	HR 101-110 bpm>3 min	Esmolol 20 mg
	Severe	HR 111-130 bpm>2 min	Esmolol 40 mg
	Life- threatening	HR>130 bpm and unresponsive to Esmolol	Intensive intervention and suspend the study
Hypoxemia (SpO <sub>2</sub> <94%)	Mild	SpO <sub>2</sub> 90%-94%	Close monitoring
	Moderate	SpO <sub>2</sub> 80%-90%>3 min	CPAP
	Severe	SpO <sub>2</sub> 70%-79%>2 min	Two-lung ventilation
	Life- threatening	SpO <sub>2</sub> <70% and unresponsive to two- lung ventilation	Intensive intervention and suspend the study
Emergence delirium	Mild	RASS 1-2	Limb restraint
	Severe	RASS 3-4	Propofol 30 mg
Hallucination/Nystagmus	NA	3D-CAM	Haloperidol 10 mg

1 3D-CAM, 3 minutes diagnostic confusion assessment method; CPAP,  
2 constant positive airway pressure; HR, heart rate; NA, not applicable; NG,  
3 nitro-glycerine; RASS, Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale.

4 \$ followed by continuous infusion with 0.01-0.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$  when necessary

5 # followed by continuous infusion with 0.1-0.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$  when necessary

6

### 7 **Sample size calculation**

8 The sample size was calculated for the main outcome, the incidence of  
9 postoperative delirium, using PASS software version 11.0. Based on previous  
10 studies and our recently completed data, we estimated that the incidence of

1 POD in elderly patients undergoing non-cardiac thoracic surgery was 40%.  
2 [12,42-46] Assuming that dexmedetomidine is associated with a 40% relative  
3 reduction in the incidence of postoperative delirium, the non-inferiority margin  
4 rate ratio (RR) of S-ketamine versus dexmedetomidine will be set at 1.5.  
5 [15,27,47,48] To achieve a two-sided type I error of 5% and 80% power, 729  
6 participants (243 patients per arm) will be recruited. To accommodate a 5%  
7 dropout rate, the final sample size will be 780 (260 patients per arm).

8

### 9 **Statistical methods**

10 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test will be used to evaluate the normal distribution of  
11 continuous variables. Normally distributed data will be presented as means  $\pm$   
12 standard deviation (SD), and non-normally distributed data will be presented  
13 as medians with interquartile ranges. Categorical data will be summarised as  
14 counts (proportions).

15 The absolute standardised difference (ASD) will be used for the comparison  
16 of baseline data among the three groups, that is, the absolute difference in  
17 means, mean ranks, or proportions divided by the combined SD. Baseline  
18 variables with  $ASD > 0.013$  (i.e.,  $1.96 \times$   
19  $\sqrt{(260 + 260 + 260)/(260 \times 260 \times 260)}$ ) are considered to be imbalanced  
20 and will be adjusted for in all analyses when necessary.

21 For the primary outcome, the incidence of postoperative delirium, the  
22 intention-to-treat approach and per-protocol (PP) approach will be performed.  
23 Pearson's chi-square test will be applied to compare proportions with the  
24 primary outcome among groups. The difference among groups will be  
25 expressed as RR and 95% confidence interval (CI), while non-inferiority will  
26 be identified if the upper limit of 95% CI of RR is  $< 1.5$ . For the secondary  
27 outcomes, only the PP approach will be used. Normally distributed data will  
28 be analysed with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA); Non-normally  
29 distributed data will be analysed with Kruskal-Wallis test. The median

1 difference will be calculated using the Hodges-Lehmann estimation on the  
2 basis of the Kruskal-Wallis test. Adverse events that are presented as  
3 incidences will be compared by calculating the 95% CI of the incidence  
4 difference: incidence (S group) – incidence (D group), and noninferiority will  
5 be achieved if the upper limit of 95% CI is < 5%. The superiority for outcomes  
6 will be assessed when noninferiority is verified.

7 To account for correlation among repeated measurements, such as numeric  
8 rating scores for pain and sleep quality, plasma biomarker concentrations,  
9 and cognitive function, will be compared using generalised estimating  
10 equation analysis among groups. The time to delirium will be calculated with  
11 the Kaplan-Meier estimator, and the differences among groups will be  
12 assessed by the log-rank test. The number needed to treat will be estimated  
13 for the primary outcome.

14 Missing values will be adjusted using random forest imputation in the  
15 missForest package. However, missing values, due to fatigue in the  
16 assessment or the patient's inability to cooperate, will be imputed with positive  
17 results or means in the corresponding treatment group and time point. If the  
18 patient did not have a delirium assessment at all (e.g. dropout or death), no  
19 values will be imputed. The last assessment is used to replace the missing  
20 value to estimate the incidence of postoperative delirium in patients who are  
21 discharged or die within 4 days, while the missing value of assessment per  
22 day does not need to be replaced.

23 The *P* values and CIs reported from one-way ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis  
24 test will be considered to illustrate statistical significance if they are less than  
25 0.017 and 98.3%, respectively, accounting for three pairwise comparisons.  
26 The family-wise significance and CI levels among the three groups will be set  
27 at 0.05% and 95%, respectively. For the pain intensity score, a 1.1 decrease  
28 will be considered the minimal clinically important difference. [49]

29 Analyses will be conducted using IBM SPSS version 25.0 (SPSS Software,  
30 Chicago, IL, USA), R statistics version 4.1.2 (R Project for Statistical

1 Computing), and GraphPad Prism version 8.0 (GraphPad Software, San  
2 Diego, CA, USA).

3

#### 4 **Ethics and confidentiality**

5 Ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the  
6 Cancer Hospital and the Institute of Guangzhou Medical University  
7 (ZN202119). The study has also been registered at Chictr.org.cn with the  
8 identifier ChiCTR2100052750. The personal information of the participants  
9 will not be disclosed unless authorisation is approved. In addition, each  
10 participant will be provided with a unique identity code, the information of  
11 which will be properly secured. The CRF and Epidata database will be  
12 retained for a minimum of 10 years.

13

#### 14 **Patient and Public Involvement**

15 No patients or public representatives were involved in the design of this trial.

16

#### 17 **Dissemination**

18 At the end of the trial, we commit to making public disclosure available despite  
19 the outcome. Public disclosure will include publication in an appropriate  
20 journal or oral presentation at an academic meeting. The PI will be considered  
21 the first or corresponding author. The investigators who contribute a minimum  
22 of four months to the trial will be co-authors; otherwise, they will be  
23 acknowledged in the publication.

24

#### 25 **Discussion**

26 Lung cancer ranks first among all malignancies in China, and anatomic  
27 pulmonary resection is a major component of multimodal therapy according to  
28 the lung cancer guidelines. [12] However, more than 40% of patients  
29 undergoing lung cancer surgery are inflicted by severe depression-related  
30 psychological suffering postoperatively. [50] Depression is an independent

1 predictor of postoperative delirium in patients who undergo orthopaedic and  
2 cancer surgeries. [24] Based on its pharmacological mechanisms and  
3 antidepressant effects, we speculate that S-ketamine would be non-inferior to  
4 dexmedetomidine in reducing postoperative delirium to some extent in the  
5 elderly, with fewer episodes of hypotension or less opioid consumption.  
6 Hypotension is pertinent to delirium, and minimisation of intraoperative  
7 hypotension episodes is recommended to reduce postoperative delirium. [51]  
8 Additionally, the administration of opioids (long-acting opioids in particular) is  
9 closely related to postoperative delirium in a dose-dependent manner. Hence,  
10 it is critical to abate opioid consumption in order to curtail delirium. [8]

11 Although previous studies have demonstrated that ketamine failed to reduce  
12 the incidence of postoperative delirium in patients undergoing major cardiac  
13 or non-cardiac surgery, we will deploy a different administrative protocol to  
14 evaluate the effect of an isomer of ketamine on postoperative delirium  
15 accompanied by dexmedetomidine as a positive comparator and by an  
16 optimal sample size. Dexmedetomidine is a highly recommended agent in the  
17 prevention and treatment of postoperative delirium; however, it is commonly  
18 accompanied by hypotension and bradycardia in the elderly. As the  
19 prevention of postoperative delirium is more practical and effective than the  
20 treatment itself, creating a means of prevention for delirium is extraordinarily  
21 indispensable. We believe that the possible result will be one of the following:  
22 (1) S-ketamine will be non-inferior to dexmedetomidine in the prevention of  
23 postoperative delirium; meanwhile, more stable haemodynamics, lower  
24 postoperative pain severity, or other beneficial secondary outcomes will be  
25 observed with S-ketamine intervention. Side effects will be compared between  
26 groups, all of which will be our desirables. This suggests that S-ketamine will  
27 be an optimal choice for limiting delirium emergence in the elderly, and further  
28 studies should be performed to evaluate its effect on long-term cognitive  
29 function. (2) S-ketamine will be non-inferior to dexmedetomidine in  
30 postoperative delirium prevention with comparable secondary outcomes;

1 however, it will be accompanied by frequent side effects. This indicates that  
2 S-ketamine will be clinically valueless for delirium prevention, which is also  
3 possible in view of the results from previous studies on ketamine (PODCAST  
4 and PRIDe study). (3) S-ketamine will be inferior to dexmedetomidine in the  
5 prevention of postoperative delirium, which is probably because  
6 dexmedetomidine is recognised as the most effective medication for delirium,  
7 and fewer studies have compared the two drugs.

8 The SKED protocol has many limitations. First, the current trial is launched  
9 at special  
10 time when inclusion may be constrained by local SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. As  
11 such, the  
12 research period may take longer than anticipated. Second, this is a single-  
13 centre study  
14 that exclusively involves thoracic surgery; therefore, the generalisability may  
15 not be  
16 extrapolated. Third, an anticipated non-inferiority margin ratio of 1.5 in our trial  
17 may be  
18 too large, and consequently, the sample size may be underestimated. Fourth,  
19 a dropout  
20 rate of 5% seems a bit low as adverse events due to dexmedetomidine may be  
21 higher than  
22 that, if so, we would enlarge the sample size upon approval from the IRB.

23  
24  
25

## 1 **References**

- 2 1 Evered L, Silbert B, Knopman DS, et al. Recommendations for the nomenclature of  
3 cognitive change associated with anaesthesia and surgery-2018. *Br J Anaesth*  
4 2018;**121**(5):1005-1012.
- 5 2 Schenning KJ, Deiner SG. Postoperative delirium in the geriatric patient. *Anesthesiol.*  
6 *Clin* 2015;**33**:505–16.
- 7 3 American Geriatrics Society Expert Panel on Postoperative Delirium in Older Adults.  
8 Postoperative delirium in older adults: best practice statement from the American  
9 Geriatrics Society. *J Am Coll Surg* 2015;**220**:136–48.e1.
- 10 4 Rudolph JL, Marcantonio ER. Review articles: postoperative delirium: acute change  
11 with long-term implications. *Anesth Analg* 2011;**112**:1202–11.
- 12 5 Austin CA, O’Gorman T, Stern E, et al. Association Between  
13 Postoperative Delirium and Long-term Cognitive Function After Major  
14 Nonemergent Surgery. *JAMA Surg* 2019;**154**(4):328-334.
- 15 6 Wang Y, Lei L, Ji M, Tong J, et al. Predicting postoperative delirium after  
16 microvascular decompression surgery with machine learning. *J Clin*  
17 *Anesth* 2020;**66**:109896.
- 18 7 Migirov A, Chahar P, Maheshwari K. Postoperative delirium and  
19 neurocognitive disorders. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2021;**27**(6):686-693.
- 20 8 Inouye SK, Westendorp RG, Saczynski JS. Delirium in elderly people. *Lancet*  
21 2014;**383**:911–22.
- 22 9 Lindroth H, Bratzke L, Purvis S, et al. Systematic review of prediction models for  
23 delirium in the older adult inpatient. *BMJ Open* 2018;**8**:e019223.
- 24 10 Park SK, Lim T, Cho H, et al. Comparative effectiveness of pharmacological  
25 interventions to prevent postoperative delirium: a network meta-analysis. *Sci Rep*  
26 2021;**11**:11922.
- 27 11 Pisani MA, Kong SY, Kasl SV et al. Days of delirium are associated with 1-year  
28 mortality in an older intensive care unit population. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*  
29 2009;**180**:1092–7.
- 30 12 Wei W, Zheng X, Gu Y, et al. Effect of general anesthesia with thoracic paravertebral

1 block on postoperative delirium in elderly patients undergoing thoracoscopic lobectomy:  
2 a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Anesthesiol* 2022;**22**:1-10.

3 13 Jin Z, Hu J, Ma D. Postoperative delirium: perioperative assessment, risk  
4 reduction, and management. *Br J Anaesth* 2020;**125(4)**:492-504.

5 14 Djaiani G, Silverton N, Fedorko L, et al. Dexmedetomidine versus propofol Sedation  
6 Reduces Delirium after Cardiac Surgery: A randomized controlled trial. *Anesthesiology*  
7 2016;**124**:362–68.

8 15 Su X, Meng ZT, Wu XH, et al. Dexmedetomidine for prevention of delirium in elderly  
9 patients after non-cardiac surgery: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial.  
10 *Lancet* 2016;**388**:1893–902.

11 16 Li CJ, Wang BJ, Mu DL, et al. Randomized clinical trial of intraoperative  
12 dexmedetomidine to prevent delirium in the elderly undergoing major non-cardiac  
13 surgery. *Br J Surg* 2020;**107**:e123–32.

14 17 van Norden J, Spies CD, Borchers F, et al. The effect of peri-operative  
15 dexmedetomidine on the incidence of postoperative delirium in cardiac and non-  
16 cardiac surgical patients: a randomised, double-blind placebo-controlled trial.  
17 *Anaesthesia* 2021;**76**:1342–51.

18 18 Deiner S, Luo X, Lin HM, et al. Intraoperative infusion of dexmedetomidine for  
19 prevention of postoperative delirium and cognitive dysfunction in elderly patients  
20 undergoing major elective noncardiac surgery: A randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Surg*  
21 2017;**152**:e171505.

22 19 Pan H, Liu C, Ma X, et al. Perioperative dexmedetomidine reduces delirium in elderly  
23 patients after non-cardiac surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis of  
24 randomized-controlled trials. *Can J Anaesth* 2019;**66(12)**:1489-1500.

25 20 Duan X, Coburn M, Rossaint R, et al. Efficacy of perioperative dexmedetomidine on  
26 postoperative delirium: systematic review and meta-analysis with trial sequential  
27 analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Anaesth* 2018;**121**:384–97.

28 21 Turan A, Duncan A, Leung S, et al. Dexmedetomidine for reduction of atrial fibrillation  
29 and delirium after cardiac surgery (DECADE): a randomised placebo-controlled trial.  
30 *Lancet* 2020;**396**:177–85.



- 1 22 Safavynia SA, Goldstein PA. The role of neuroinflammation in postoperative cognitive  
2 dysfunction: moving from hypothesis to treatment. *Front Psychiatry* 2018;**9**:752.
- 3 23 Hudetz JA, Pagel PS. Neuroprotection by ketamine: a review of the experimental and  
4 clinical evidence. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2010;**24**:131–42.
- 5 24 Elsamadicy AA, Adogwa O, Lydon E, et al. Depression as an independent predictor of  
6 postoperative delirium in spine deformity patients undergoing elective spine surgery. *J*  
7 *Neurosurg Spine* 2017;**27**:209–14.
- 8 25 O’Sullivan R, Inouye SK, Meagher D. Delirium and depression: inter-relationship and  
9 clinical overlap in elderly people. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2014;**1**:303–11.
- 10 26 Avidan MS, Maybrier HR, Abdallah AB, et al. Intraoperative ketamine for prevention of  
11 postoperative delirium or pain after major surgery in older adults: an international,  
12 multicentre, double-blind, randomised clinical trial [published correction appears in  
13 *Lancet* 2017;**390**:267–75.
- 14 27 Hollinger A, Rüst CA, Riegger H, et al. Ketamine vs. haloperidol for prevention of  
15 cognitive dysfunction and postoperative delirium: A phase IV multicentre randomised  
16 placebo-controlled double-blind clinical trial. *J Clin Anesth* 2021;**68**:110099.
- 17 28 Krystal JH, Charney DS, Duman RS. A new rapid-acting antidepressant.  
18 *Cell* 2020;  
19 **181(1)**:7.
- 20 29 Himmelseher S, Pfenninger E, Kochs E et al. S(+)-ketamine up-regulates neuronal  
21 regeneration associated proteins following glutamate injury in cultured rat hippocampal  
22 neurons. *J Neurosurg Anesthesiol* 2000;**12**:84–94.
- 23 30 Himmelseher S, Pfenninger E, Georgieff M. The effects of ketamine-isomers on  
24 neuronal injury and regeneration in rat hippocampal neurons. *Anesth Analg*  
25 1996;**83**:505–12.
- 26 31 Treccani G, Ardalan M, Chen F, et al. S-ketamine Reverses hippocampal dendritic  
27 Spine Deficits in Flinders Sensitive Line Rats Within 1 h of Administration. *Mol*  
28 *Neurobiol* 2019;**56**:7368–79.
- 29 32 Höflich A, Kraus C, Pfeiffer RM, et al. Translating the immediate effects of S-ketamine  
30 using hippocampal subfield analysis in healthy subjects-results of a randomized

- 1 controlled trial. *Transl Psychiatry* 2021;**11**:200.
- 2 33 Nummela AJ, Laaksonen LT, Laitio TT, et al. Effects of dexmedetomidine, propofol,  
3 sevoflurane and S-ketamine on the human metabolome: A randomised trial using  
4 nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *Eur J Anaesthesiol* 2021;**10**:1097.
- 5 34 Batchelor TJP, Rasburn NJ, Abdelnour-Berchtold E, et al. Guidelines for enhanced  
6 recovery after lung surgery: recommendations of the Enhanced Recovery After  
7 Surgery (ERAS®) Society and the European Society of Thoracic Surgeons (ESTS).  
8 *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2019;**55**:91–115.
- 9 35 Marcantonio ER, Ngo LH, O'Connor M, et al. 3D-CAM: derivation and validation of a 3  
10 minute diagnostic interview for CAM-defined delirium: a cross-sectional diagnostic test  
11 study. *Ann Intern Med* 2014;**161**:554–61.
- 12 36 Mu DL, Ding PP, Zhou SZ, et al. Cross-cultural adaptation and validation  
13 of the 3D  
14 CAM Chinese version in surgical ICU patients. *BMC Psychiatry*  
15 2020;**20(1)**:133.
- 16 37 Ely EW, Inouye SK, Bernard GR, et al. Delirium in mechanically ventilated patients:  
17 validity and reliability of the confusion assessment method for the intensive care unit  
18 (CAM-ICU). *JAMA* 2001;**286**:2703–10.
- 19 38 Inouye SK, Kosar CM, Tommet D, et al. The CAM-S: development and validation of a  
20 new scoring system for delirium severity in 2 cohorts. *Ann Intern Med* 2014;**160**:526–  
21 33.
- 22 39 Inouye SK, Leo-Summers L, Zhang Y et al. A chart-based method for identification of  
23 delirium: validation compared with interviewer ratings using the confusion assessment  
24 method. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2005;**53**:312–8.
- 25 40 Wang JH, Huang J, Guo FQ, et al. Circulating neurofilament light predicts cognitive  
26 decline in patients with post-stroke subjective cognitive impairment. *Front Aging*  
27 *Neurosci* 2021;**13**:665981.
- 28 41 Strayer RJ, Nelson LS. Adverse events associated with ketamine for procedural  
29 sedation in adults. *Am J Emerg Med* 2008;**26**:985–1028.
- 30 42 Humeidan ML, Reyes JC, Mavarez-Martinez A, et al. Effect of cognitive prehabilitation

1 on the incidence of postoperative delirium among older adults undergoing major  
2 noncardiac surgery: the Neurobics randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Surg* 2021;**156**:148–  
3 56.

4 43 Jung DM, Ahn HJ, Yang M, et al. Hydroxyethyl starch is associated with early  
5 postoperative delirium in patients undergoing esophagectomy. *J Thorac Cardiovasc*  
6 *Surg* 2018;**155**:1333–43.

7 44 Fuchita M, Khan SH, Perkins AJ, et al. Perioperative risk factors for postoperative  
8 delirium in patients undergoing esophagectomy. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2019;**108**:190–5.

9 45 Smith PJ, Rivelli SK, Waters AM, et al. Delirium affects length of hospital stay after lung  
10 transplantation. *J Crit Care* 2015;**30**:126–9.

11 46 Robinson TN, Raeburn CD, Tran ZV et al. Postoperative delirium in the elderly: risk  
12 factors and outcomes. *Ann Surg* 2009;**249**:173–8.

13 47 Hu J, Zhu M, Gao Z, et al. Dexmedetomidine for prevention of postoperative delirium in  
14 older adults undergoing oesophagectomy with total intravenous anaesthesia: A double-  
15 blind, randomised clinical trial. *Eur J Anaesthesiol* 2021;**38**(Suppl 1):S9–S17.

16 48 Perbet S, Verdonk F, Godet T, et al. Low doses of ketamine reduce delirium but not  
17 opiate consumption in mechanically ventilated and sedated ICU patients: A  
18 randomised double-blind control trial. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med* 2018;**37**:589–95.

19 49 Kelly AM. The minimum clinically significant difference in visual analogue scale pain  
20 score does not differ with severity of pain. *Emerg Med J* 2001;**18**:205–7.

21 50 Park S, Kang CH, Hwang Y, et al. Risk factors for postoperative anxiety and depression  
22 after surgical treatment for lung cancer†. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 2016;**49**:e16–21.

23 51 Wesselink EM, Kappen TH, van Klei WA, et al. Intraoperative hypotension and  
24 delirium after on-pump cardiac surgery. *Br J Anaesth* 2015;**115**:427–33.

25  
26

27 **Figure legends**

28 **Figure 1.** Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) flow  
29 diagram.

1 **Figure 2.** Overview of 3-minute Diagnostic Confusion Assessment Method  
2 (3D-CAM) assessment.

3

4

5

6