

# PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIA: A GUIDE FOR THE NON-PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIA PROVIDER - PART II

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**Pediatric Anesthesia:  
A Guide for the Non-Pediatric  
Anesthesia Provider  
Part II**

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***Part II***

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## CONTENTS

FOREWORD .....	i
PREFACE .....	ii
<b>WHO CONTRIBUTED TO THIS BOOK</b> .....	ii
<b>THANKS</b> .....	ii
<b>SUMMARY</b> .....	ii
LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS .....	iii
<b>CHAPTER 1 ANESTHESIA FOR PEDIATRIC PATIENTS WITH COMMON COMORBIDITIES PART I</b> .....	1
<i>Divya Dixit, M.D. and Dinesh K. Choudhry</i>	
<b>UPPER RESPIRATORY TRACT INFECTION</b> .....	2
Introduction .....	2
Perioperative Respiratory Adverse Events .....	2
Risk Factors .....	2
Preoperative Evaluation .....	3
<i>Investigations</i> .....	4
<i>Postponement of Elective Surgery</i> .....	4
Perioperative Management .....	5
<i>Premedication</i> .....	5
<i>Anesthetic Induction</i> .....	5
<i>Airway Device</i> .....	5
<i>Emergence</i> .....	6
<b>ASTHMA</b> .....	6
Introduction .....	6
Wheezing as a Risk Factor for PRAEs .....	7
Preoperative Evaluation .....	7
<i>Investigations</i> .....	7
Perioperative Management .....	8
<i>Preoperative</i> .....	8
<i>Premedication</i> .....	8
<i>Anesthetic Induction</i> .....	9
<i>Airway Device</i> .....	9
<i>Ventilation Strategy During Anesthesia</i> .....	10
<i>Intraoperative Bronchospasm</i> .....	10
<i>Medications that may Precipitate Bronchospasm</i> .....	11
<i>Emergence</i> .....	12
Conclusion .....	12
<b>DOWN SYNDROME</b> .....	12
Clinical Manifestations .....	13
<i>Craniofacial Features</i> .....	13
<i>Neurological Features</i> .....	13
<i>Respiratory System</i> .....	13
<i>Musculoskeletal</i> .....	14
<i>Cardiac Anomalies</i> .....	14
<i>Behavioral Issues</i> .....	14
<i>Other Conditions</i> .....	14
Preoperative Evaluation .....	15
<i>Cardiac Assessment</i> .....	15
<i>Neurological Evaluation</i> .....	16

<i>Airway Abnormalities</i> .....	17
<i>Obstructive Sleep Apnea</i> .....	17
Perioperative Management .....	17
<i>Investigations and Premedication</i> .....	17
<i>Anesthetic Induction</i> .....	17
<i>Intubation</i> .....	18
<i>Pulmonary Hypertension</i> .....	18
<i>Positioning</i> .....	18
<i>Pain Management</i> .....	19
<i>Emergence</i> .....	19
Conclusion .....	19
<b>SICKLE CELL DISEASE</b> .....	19
Introduction .....	19
Prevalence and Epidemiology .....	19
Pathophysiology .....	20
Clinical Features .....	20
<i>Cerebrovascular</i> .....	21
<i>Acute Chest Syndrome</i> .....	21
<i>Cardiovascular</i> .....	21
<i>Aplastic Crisis</i> .....	22
Genitourinary .....	22
Skeletal Complications .....	22
Laboratory Findings .....	23
Hemoglobin F and Hydroxyurea .....	23
Perioperative Management .....	24
<i>Preoperative</i> .....	24
<i>Red Blood Cell Transfusion</i> .....	24
<i>Intraoperative</i> .....	25
<i>Pain Management</i> .....	26
<i>Postoperative</i> .....	26
Conclusion .....	26
<b>OBSTRUCTIVE SLEEP APNEA IN CHILDREN</b> .....	26
Introduction .....	26
Central Sleep Apnea .....	27
Obstructive Sleep Apnea .....	27
Mixed Sleep Apnea .....	27
Hypopnea .....	27
Etiology .....	27
Pathophysiology .....	28
Clinical Features .....	29
Investigations .....	29
Perioperative Management .....	30
Preoperative .....	30
Intraoperative .....	30
Postoperative .....	31
Conclusion .....	31
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	31
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	32
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	32
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	32

<b>CHAPTER 2 ANESTHESIA FOR PEDIATRIC PATIENTS WITH COMMON COMORBIDITIES PART II</b> .....	42
<i>Saranya Chinnappan and Monica Banerjee</i>	
<b>AUTISM</b> .....	43
Introduction .....	43
Preoperative Concerns and Premedication .....	44
Intraoperative/Postoperative Management .....	45
<b>ATTENTION DEFICIT HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER</b> .....	45
Introduction .....	45
Pharmacologic Interactions .....	45
Perioperative Concerns .....	46
Children with ADHD are more uncooperative during induction [8] so premedication will be essential .....	46
<b>CYSTIC FIBROSIS</b> .....	47
Introduction .....	47
Pathophysiology .....	47
Perioperative Management .....	48
<b>EPIDERMOLYSIS BULLOSA</b> .....	49
Introduction .....	49
Preoperative Evaluation .....	50
Perioperative Management .....	50
<b>VON WILLEBRAND'S DISEASE</b> .....	53
Disease Classification and Management .....	53
Perioperative Management .....	54
Conclusion .....	54
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	55
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	55
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	55
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	55
<b>CHAPTER 3 ANESTHESIA FOR PEDIATRIC PATIENTS WITH COMMON COMORBIDITIES PART III</b> .....	59
<i>Pravin Taneja and Nathalie Peiris</i>	
<b>EX-PREMATURE PATIENTS</b> .....	60
Introduction .....	60
Definitions .....	60
Morbidity and Mortality .....	61
Consequences of Prematurity .....	61
Ex-Premature Infants and Children .....	62
Respiratory and Airway Problems of the Ex-Premature Infant .....	62
Apnea of Prematurity .....	63
Neurologic Considerations .....	65
Intraventricular Hemorrhage .....	65
Cerebral Palsy .....	67
Retinopathy of Prematurity .....	68
Gastrointestinal Problems .....	68
Anesthetic Considerations .....	69
<i>Pre-evaluation</i> .....	69
<i>Perioperative Concerns</i> .....	70
<i>Pain Control</i> .....	71
Diabetes .....	72



<i>Introduction</i> .....	72
<i>Preoperative Evaluation</i> .....	73
Insulin Pump and Continuous Glucose Monitor Considerations .....	74
Hypoglycemia Management .....	75
Insulin Correction Factor .....	75
<i>Intraoperative Management</i> .....	75
<i>Postoperative Management</i> .....	76
<b>OBESITY</b> .....	77
Introduction .....	77
<i>Preoperative Assessment</i> .....	78
Intraoperative Management .....	78
Drug Dosing .....	79
<i>Postoperative Management</i> .....	79
<b>ONCOLOGY PATIENTS</b> .....	80
Introduction .....	80
Anesthetic Implications .....	81
<i>Preoperative Evaluation</i> .....	82
<b>PEDIATRIC MALIGNANCIES</b> .....	83
Leukemias .....	83
<i>Clinical Presentation</i> .....	83
Central Nervous System Tumors .....	84
<i>Clinical Presentation</i> .....	84
Lymphomas .....	85
<i>Clinical Presentation</i> .....	85
Intraoperative Considerations .....	86
<i>Airway Considerations</i> .....	86
<i>Mediastinal Considerations</i> .....	86
<i>Intracranial Considerations</i> .....	88
<i>Systemic Effects of Malignancy</i> .....	88
Chemotherapy and Radiotherapy Considerations .....	89
<i>Myocardial Toxicity</i> .....	90
<i>Pulmonary Toxicity</i> .....	91
<i>Tumor Lysis Syndrome</i> .....	91
Summary .....	92
<b>POST CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE SURGERY PATIENTS FOR NON-CARDIAC SURGERY</b> .....	93
Introduction .....	93
The Challenge .....	93
A Simple Classification .....	94
Preoperative Considerations .....	94
Intraoperative Considerations .....	96
A balanced Circulation .....	96
Right to Left Shunt .....	96
Left to Right Shunt .....	98
Pulmonary Hypertension .....	99
Single Ventricle Physiology .....	100
Anesthesia Considerations in “Fontan Circulation” .....	100
Infective Endocarditis Prophylaxis .....	101
Summary .....	102
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	103
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	103

<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	103
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	103
<b>CHAPTER 4 ANESTHETIC CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE CRITICALLY ILL PEDIATRIC PATIENT</b> .....	111
<i>Vincent Lau, D.O., Levi Mulladzhyanov, M.D., Srikant Patel, D.O., Irwin Gratz, D.O. and Bharathi Gourkanti, M.D.</i>	
<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	111
<b>INFECTIOUS DISEASE</b> .....	112
Sepsis in Children .....	112
Diagnosis .....	112
Treatment of Shock .....	113
Empiric Broad-spectrum Antimicrobial Therapy .....	114
Invasive Ventilation .....	115
Anesthetic Considerations Duration Endotracheal Intubation and General Sedation .....	115
Goal-Directed Therapy .....	115
Perioperative Considerations .....	116
<b>ENDOCRINE DISEASE</b> .....	116
Diabetic Ketoacidosis .....	117
Diagnosis .....	117
Management .....	118
Propofol-Related Infusion Syndrome .....	118
Management .....	119
<b>NEUROLOGIC DISEASE</b> .....	120
Cerebral Edema .....	120
Status Epilepticus .....	121
Treatment .....	121
Perioperative Epilepsy Management .....	122
<b>HEMATOLOGIC DISEASE</b> .....	123
Sickle Cell Disease .....	123
Preoperative Considerations .....	124
Intraoperative Considerations .....	124
Postoperative Considerations .....	124
<b>CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE</b> .....	124
Patent Ductus Arteriosus .....	126
<b>RESPIRATORY SYSTEM DISEASE</b> .....	129
Assessment .....	129
Supplemental Oxygen Sources .....	129
Asthma .....	129
Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome and Acute Lung Injury .....	130
ARDS Treatment Modalities .....	131
Surfactant Therapy .....	132
Inhaled Nitric Oxide .....	132
Corticosteroids .....	132
High-Frequency Oscillatory Ventilation .....	132
Tracheostomy Management During Respiratory Distress .....	133
<b>GASTROINTESTINAL SYSTEM - NUTRITION</b> .....	133
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	135
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	135
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	135
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	135

<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	135
<b>CHAPTER 5 ANESTHESIA-RELATED GENETIC DISORDERS</b> .....	140
<i>Ian Brotman, M.D. and David Youssef, M.D.</i>	
<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	140
<b>MALIGNANT HYPERTHERMIA</b> .....	141
Inheritance .....	141
Clinical Features .....	141
Management of an MH Crisis .....	142
Anesthesia for High-Risk Malignant Hyperthermia Patients .....	145
Malignant Hyperthermia Testing .....	146
<b>PSEUDOCHOLINESTERASE DEFICIENCY</b> .....	146
<b>OPIOID USE IN PEDIATRICS</b> .....	147
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	149
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	149
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	149
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	149
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	149
<b>CHAPTER 6 PEDIATRIC PAIN MANAGEMENT AND REGIONAL ANESTHESIA</b> .....	153
<i>Dinesh K. Choudhry and Kesavan Sadacharam</i>	
<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	154
<b>PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND NEUROBIOLOGY</b> .....	154
<b>DEVELOPMENTAL PHARMACOLOGY</b> .....	155
<b>PAIN ASSESSMENT</b> .....	155
<b>PAIN IN NEONATES</b> .....	157
<b>APPROACH TO PAIN MANAGEMENT AND PHARMACOTHERAPY</b> .....	157
Opioids .....	157
Non-opioid Medications .....	159
<b>MULTIMODAL APPROACH TO PAIN MANAGEMENT</b> .....	160
<b>ENHANCED RECOVERY AFTER SURGERY</b> .....	161
<b>OPIOID-INDUCED HYPERALGESIA</b> .....	162
<b>REGIONAL ANALGESIA IN CHILDREN</b> .....	163
Upper Extremity Blocks .....	163
<i>Supraclavicular Approach</i> .....	164
<i>Interscalene Approach</i> .....	165
<i>Infraclavicular Approach</i> .....	166
Truncal Blocks .....	167
<i>Caudal Epidural Versus Truncal Blocks</i> .....	167
<i>Rectus Sheath Block</i> .....	168
<i>Quadratus Lumborum Block</i> .....	170
<i>Transverse Abdominis Plane Block</i> .....	172
<i>Ilioinguinal Block</i> .....	173
Lower Extremity Blocks .....	175
<i>Femoral Nerve Block</i> .....	175
<i>Adductor Canal Block</i> .....	176
<i>Fascia Iliaca Block</i> .....	177
<i>Sciatic Nerve Block</i> .....	179
<i>Lumbar Plexus Block</i> .....	183
<i>Spinal Anesthesia</i> .....	184
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	185
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	185

CONFLICT OF INTEREST .....	186
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	186
REFERENCES .....	186
<b>CHAPTER 7 RESEARCH IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIA .....</b>	<b>195</b>
<i>Noud van Helmond, M.D. and Bharathi Gourkanti, M.D.</i>	
<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIOLOGY?</b>	<b>196</b>
Pediatric Anesthesiologists Cannot Extrapolate Findings from Adult Research to Children	196
Scientists and Physicians need to Conduct Research to Increase Safety and Quality in Pediatric Anesthesiology .....	196
Research is an Essential Part of Anesthesiology Training .....	196
<b>SPECIFIC CONSIDERATIONS FOR RESEARCH IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIA VS. RESEARCH IN ADULT ANESTHESIA .....</b>	<b>197</b>
Ethical Justification .....	197
<i>Minimizing Risk</i> .....	197
Study Procedure-related Distress .....	198
Obtaining Assent and Consent .....	198
Practical Considerations when Carrying out a Research Project .....	200
<b>CONCLUDING REMARKS .....</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION .....</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST .....</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>203</b>
<b>CHAPTER 8 PRINCIPLES OF QUALITY AND PATIENT SAFETY IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIOLOGY .....</b>	<b>205</b>
<i>Keri Cronin and Erin Pukenas</i>	
<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>205</b>
<b>FUNDAMENTALS OF PATIENT SAFETY .....</b>	<b>206</b>
Just Culture .....	207
<b>HIGH RELIABILITY ORGANIZATIONS (HROS) .....</b>	<b>207</b>
<b>ERRORS IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIOLOGY .....</b>	<b>209</b>
Medication Errors .....	209
Handoff Communication .....	210
Use of Cognitive Aids to Enhance Patient Safety .....	210
Reporting Adverse Events .....	211
<b>FUNDAMENTALS OF QUALITY IMPROVEMENT .....</b>	<b>212</b>
National/International Quality Improvement Programs .....	212
Wake Up Safe (WUS) .....	213
POCA Registry .....	213
The American College of Surgeons Children’s Surgery Verification and Quality Improvement Program .....	214
The Global Initiative for Children’s Surgery (GICS) .....	214
Developing a Quality Improvement Program .....	214
Quality Improvement in Developing Countries .....	215
The Use of Simulation to support Patient Safety and Quality Improvement Efforts .....	216
<b>CONCLUDING REMARKS .....</b>	<b>218</b>
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION .....</b>	<b>218</b>
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST .....</b>	<b>218</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>218</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>218</b>

<b>CHAPTER 9 ANESTHETIC CONSIDERATIONS FOR COVID-19 (YEAR 2020)</b> .....	223
<i>David Youssef, M.D. and Bharathi Gourkanti, M.D.</i>	
<b>PREOPERATIVE CONSIDERATIONS AND SYMPTOMOLOGY</b> .....	223
<b>COVID-19 TESTING</b> .....	225
Anesthesia Machine and Equipment Maintenance .....	226
Laryngoscopy & Intubation in a COVID-19 Patient .....	227
Ventilation Management .....	229
Patient Transfer and Post-operative Care .....	231
Regional Anesthesia .....	232
<b>SUMMARY</b> .....	232
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	233
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	233
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	233
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	233
<b>CHAPTER 10 MUSCULAR DYSTROPHIES AND MITOCHONDRIAL MYOPATHIES</b> .....	235
<i>Divya Dixit, M.D., Dinesh K. Choudhry, M.D. and Kumar G. Belani</i>	
<b>MUSCULAR DYSTROPHIES</b> .....	236
<b>DUCHENNE MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY</b> .....	237
Introduction .....	237
Clinical Manifestations .....	237
<i>Cardiac Involvement</i> .....	238
<i>Pulmonary Issues</i> .....	238
<i>Gastrointestinal Issues</i> .....	239
Diagnosis .....	239
Anesthetic Management .....	239
<i>Rhabdomyolysis</i> .....	240
<i>Intraoperative Concerns</i> .....	241
Conclusion .....	241
<b>BECKER MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY</b> .....	242
<b>LIMB-GIRDLE MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY</b> .....	242
<b>EMERY-DREIFUSS MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY</b> .....	242
<b>MYOTONIC MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY</b> .....	243
Introduction .....	243
Types of Myotonic Muscular Dystrophy .....	244
<i>Congenital Myotonic Dystrophy Type 1</i> .....	244
<i>Childhood Onset of Myotonic Dystrophy Type 1</i> .....	244
<i>Classic Adult Onset of Myotonic Dystrophy Type 1</i> .....	244
Clinical Manifestations .....	245
<i>Respiratory System</i> .....	245
<i>Cardiovascular</i> .....	245
<i>Musculature</i> .....	245
Perioperative Concerns .....	246
<i>Airway Management</i> .....	246
<i>Anesthetic Induction</i> .....	246
<i>Use of Muscle Relaxants</i> .....	246
<i>Respiratory Issues</i> .....	247
<i>Cardiac Issues</i> .....	247
Anesthetic Management .....	247
<i>Preoperative</i> .....	247
<i>Intraoperative</i> .....	248

<i>Postoperative</i> .....	248
Conclusion .....	249
<b>MITOCHONDRIAL MYOPATHIES</b> .....	249
Introduction .....	249
Clinical Features .....	250
Diagnostic Tests for Mitochondrial Myopathies .....	251
Anesthetic Management .....	252
Conclusion .....	253
<b>CEREBRAL PALSY</b> .....	253
Introduction .....	253
Surgical Epidemiology .....	254
Perioperative Concerns .....	254
<i>Neurologic</i> .....	254
<i>Respiratory System</i> .....	254
<i>Cardiovascular</i> .....	254
<i>Gastrointestinal</i> .....	255
<i>Fluids and Electrolytes</i> .....	255
<i>Musculoskeletal</i> .....	255
<i>Thermoregulatory</i> .....	256
<i>Pharmacologic</i> .....	256
<i>Positioning</i> .....	257
Anesthetic Management .....	257
<i>Preoperative</i> .....	257
<i>Intraoperative</i> .....	258
<i>Intrathecal Baclofen Pump</i> .....	259
<i>Postoperative</i> .....	259
Conclusion .....	260
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION</b> .....	260
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST</b> .....	260
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	260
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	260
<b>CHAPTER 11 ANESTHESIA FOR UNCOMMON PEDIATRIC DISEASES</b> .....	270
<i>B. Randall Brenn and Dinesh K. Choudhry</i>	
<b>ANTERIOR MEDIASTINAL MASSES</b> .....	271
Introduction .....	271
Prevalence .....	271
Mediastinal Compartments .....	272
Pathophysiology of AMM .....	274
Airway Effects .....	274
Systemic Venous System .....	274
Heart and Great Vessels .....	274
Risk Factors for Anesthesia Complications .....	275
Preoperative Testing .....	275
Risk Stratification .....	276
Management .....	277
Conclusion .....	278
<b>CONGENITAL PULMONARY AIRWAY MALFORMATION</b> .....	278
Introduction .....	278
Etiopathogenesis .....	279
Clinical Presentation .....	279

Anesthetic Management .....	280
Conclusion .....	282
<b>ARTHROGRYPOSIS MULTIPLEX CONGENITA .....</b>	<b>283</b>
Introduction .....	283
Etiopathogenesis .....	283
Classification .....	283
Diagnostic Workup .....	284
Perioperative Concerns .....	284
<b>ANESTHETIC MANAGEMENT .....</b>	<b>286</b>
<b>PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA .....</b>	<b>287</b>
Introduction .....	287
Epidemiology .....	288
Pathophysiology .....	288
Risks Assessment .....	288
Preoperative Management .....	289
Intraoperative Management .....	290
Postoperative Management .....	292
Conclusion .....	292
<b>CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION .....</b>	<b>292</b>
<b>CONFLICT OF INTEREST .....</b>	<b>292</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>293</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>293</b>
 <b>SUBJECT INDEX .....</b>	 <b>297</b>

## FOREWORD

“Pediatric Anesthesia A Guide for the Non-pediatric Provider” edited by Bharathi Gourkanti, MD with Drs. Gratz, Dippo, Peiris and Choudhry is a worthwhile addition to the library of every anesthesia resident and anesthesia practitioner. It is a solid reference for common and uncommon encounters in pediatric anesthesia practice.

Pediatric anesthesia is a complicated and often intimidating subject for anesthesia trainees as well as non-pediatric trained anesthesia providers. This textbook gives a new light to various topics in a user-friendly format including pediatric emergencies inside and outside the operating room. It includes the most recent literature at the time of publication for evolving topics including anesthetic considerations for COVID 19. It also has a section on the current state of research in the pediatric population as well as updates on quality and patient safety in pediatric anesthesia. The authors have written and illustrated a resource with high yield charts, graphs and tables.

One of the primary goals of this book is to provide a user-friendly resource for the safe care of infants and children and this book meets this goal. It breaks down the current clinical practice into an approachable outline for all providers. I recommend it for anesthesia trainees, new and established practicing clinical anesthesiologists, anesthesiologists, pediatric dental, emergency medicine providers, and pediatric intensivists.

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## PREFACE

Our second volume was added to focus on specific topics that reflect current issues in anesthesia practice. This volume was constructed to complement the first volume but can also stand alone. As always, our goal was to be a comprehensive and readily available resource that the busy practitioner can easily utilize. Many of the same authors contributed to this volume.

As the content of the text has grown, we made a concerted effort to ensure a coordinated approach and stay focused on topics relevant to the current practice of anesthesiology. Chapters have been added that focus on the ongoing changes that affect the current practice of pediatric anesthesia. The problems associated with the COVID-19 pandemic are discussed in a chapter. We also included some specialized chapters, such as Research in Pediatric Anesthesia and Quality Assurance and Patient Safety in Pediatric Anesthesia, in hopes of inspiring others to further improve the practice and advance the science.

### WHO CONTRIBUTED TO THIS BOOK

Contributions to this book are made by different anesthesia providers from qualified pediatric anesthesiologists, researchers, general anesthesiologists who do occasional pediatric anesthesia, including anesthesia residents, pediatric anesthesia fellows, and certified registered nurse anesthetists. This book could serve as an invaluable source of knowledge for all who provide pediatric anesthesia because of the wide range of contributors and their diverse perspectives in the medical care of children.

### THANKS

As in the first volume, I am extremely grateful to all the contributors who generously gave their time to bring their knowledge, points of view, and unique expertise to this book in order to provide this rich resource of information.

I thank my co-editors, Drs. Irwin Gratz, Grace Dippo, Nathalie Peiris, and Dinesh K. Choudhry for their knowledge, experience, patience, and scrupulous attention to detail to make this manuscript more meaningful.

### SUMMARY

In summary, we designed this book for all practitioners who routinely or occasionally provide pediatric anesthetic care with a readily available source of reference. We sincerely hope this book will be of help to you in providing safe practice of pediatric anesthesia.

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## CHAPTER 1

# Anesthesia for Pediatric Patients with Common Comorbidities Part I

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**Abstract:** Children undergoing anesthesia have many considerations of disease processes that require careful attention to details and addressing specific needs. There are several comorbidities that are frequently encountered in a pediatric setting. A common scenario is a child with an upper respiratory tract infection presenting for elective surgery. We will discuss the criteria to be considered regarding when it is safe to proceed with elective surgery and when the risk is high. Asthma is common among children, and exacerbation can occur during an anesthetic. Anesthetic management of children with these respiratory illnesses is discussed. Children with Down syndrome frequently present for various cardiac and non-cardiac surgical interventions. Anesthetic issues relating to their non-cardiac surgeries will be discussed. Children with sickle cell disease is yet another group of patients frequently admitted to the hospital with sickle cell crisis. They warrant attention to specific details to ensure getting through surgery safely and require optimal pain management. Obstructive sleep apnea is increasingly encountered in children presenting for surgical procedures. Anesthetic challenges and risks they pose will be discussed.

**Keywords:** Acute chest syndrome, Apnea-hypopnea index, Asthma, Bronchospasm, Central sleep apnea, Cervical spine instability, Deep extubation, Down syndrome, Hemoglobin F, Laryngeal mask airway, Laryngospasm, Obstructive sleep apnea, Perioperative respiratory adverse events, Red blood cell transfusion, Short-acting beta2 agonist, Sickle cell disease, Sleep-disordered breathing, Upper respiratory tract infection, Vaso-occlusive crisis, Wheezing.

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## **UPPER RESPIRATORY TRACT INFECTION**

### **Introduction**

Upper respiratory tract infection (URI), the common cold, refers to infection limited to the upper respiratory tract airway and involves a runny nose, nasal congestion, cough, sneezing, sore throat, wheezing, low-grade fever and malaise as presenting symptoms. Most adults in the United States experience 2 to 4 URIs per year, while youngest children experience 6 to 8 episodes per year [1]. Ninety-five percent of URIs are secondary to acute viral causes, of which rhinovirus with >100 serotypes accounts for a large majority, 30%-50% [2]. Preschool children attending large daycare centers were reported to have more colds than children at home [3].

In the Anaesthesia Practice In Children Observational Trial (APRICOT) study, a large prospective observational study of 30,874 children from birth to 15 years of age in 261 hospitals located across 33 European countries, the incidence of perioperative severe critical events was 5.2%. Respiratory critical events were the most frequent (3.1%) followed by critical cardiovascular events (1.9%) [4].

### **Perioperative Respiratory Adverse Events**

Current or recent URI in children undergoing surgery poses a higher risk of perioperative respiratory adverse events (PRAEs), which include laryngospasm, bronchospasm, coughing, airway obstruction, breath-holding, and arterial hypoxemia [5, 6]. Significant respiratory complications, such as atelectasis, aspiration, post-intubation croup, stridor, and pneumonia could result in unanticipated tracheal intubation or re-intubation, return to the emergency department or unexpected hospital admission [4, 6]. Twice the usual length of stay in the hospital and higher costs were associated in a prospective study of children with PRAEs undergoing non-cardiac surgery [7]. Complications are generally mild and managed easily and safely [8, 9] and do not have long-term sequelae [6, 10, 11]. Few reports of children with URI undergoing surgery resulting in death were related to unsuspected myocarditis [12].

URIs are generally self-limiting, but airway hyperactivity can persist for 6-8 weeks with increased secretions, mucosal inflammation, and altered neural reflexes. Anesthetic risks are greatest in the first few days after a URI but remain increased for up to 6 weeks [13].

### **Risk Factors**

The relative risk of PRAEs doubled for children who had symptoms of URI

present or less than two weeks preceding surgery, particularly for laryngospasm [14]. The risk for PRAEs, however, was lower when URI symptoms were 2-4 weeks prior to procedures requiring anesthesia in this study. In the Pediatric Sedation Research Consortium database, 83,491 sedations were analyzed for complications. Risk of PRAEs was found to be greater than 22% in children undergoing procedural sedation with current URI with thick and/or green secretions [15]. A parental statement that the child has a 'cold' on the day of surgery is a good indicator of increased risk of PRAEs [16]. This study had eight variables associated with increased risk of PRAEs that included sputum production, nasal congestion, snoring, passive smoking, orotracheal intubation, choice of an induction agent, and whether muscle relaxant was reversed. With every additional year of age risk of occurrence of PRAEs decreased by about 8% in one study [11] and relative risk decreased by 11% in another [14]. Various factors that have been found to be associated with a greater risk of PRAEs are summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1. Factors associated with increased risk of perioperative respiratory adverse events.**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• URI within 2-4 weeks of surgery [4, 6, 14, 17]</li> <li>• URI with green rhinorrhea, moist cough, and fever [14 - 16]             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wheezing/reactive airway disease [4, 6, 14]</li> <li>• Parental confirmation of URI [16, 18]</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Younger age group, infants at highest risk [6, 11, 17 - 20]             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prematurity was associated with higher risk [4, 6]</li> <li>• Obstructive sleep apnea/snoring [4, 16]</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Parental/environmental smoking [4, 6, 13, 14, 21]             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Family history of asthma or atopy [4, 14]</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Airway anomalies (subglottic stenosis and cysts, laryngeal papillomatosis, cleft palate, Pierre Robin syndrome, tracheal stenosis, vocal cord paralysis and laryngomalacia) [22]             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ear, nose, and throat/airway procedure [4, 6, 11, 14, 18, 19]                 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Urgent procedure [14]</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Lack of pediatric experience [4, 6, 11, 14, 18]</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Increasing ASA risk category is associated with significantly more PRAEs [4]</li> </ul>
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ASA = American Society of Anesthesiology

## Preoperative Evaluation

Preoperative assessment begins with obtaining a thorough history. Special attention is given to the presence of current respiratory symptoms and those in the past 2-4 weeks. Symptoms, such as high fever (core body temperature higher than 100.4 °F or 38 °C) with dry or productive cough, clear or purulent nasal discharge, presence of wheezing, lethargy, poor oral intake, and general feeling of being unwell should be considered for postponement of surgery (Table 2). Risk factors, such as airway endoscopic procedure, the urgency of surgery, presence of

## Anesthesia for Pediatric Patients with Common Comorbidities Part II

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**Abstract:** In this chapter, we will discuss the perioperative anesthetic concerns of children with autism, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), cystic fibrosis, epidermolysis bullosa, and von Willebrand disease. Children with autism and ADHD are at high risk for having severe anxiety and distress when undergoing anesthesia due to difficulty in adjusting to the changes in daily routine and new environment. Careful planning to limit waiting time in the preoperative area and appropriate premedication are critical to minimizing distress. Children with cystic fibrosis may have involvement of pulmonary, gastrointestinal, and pancreaticobiliary organ systems. Due to the increasing longevity of this population, both children and adults may present for a variety of surgical procedures; pulmonary status is a key concern when formulating an anesthetic plan. Children with epidermolysis bullosa present special challenges when undergoing anesthesia because both airway devices and the equipment used to monitor vital signs can cause serious postoperative complications. Von Willebrand disease is the most common congenital bleeding disorder encountered in pediatric anesthesia. Safe perioperative management requires interdisciplinary coordination to create a plan for prophylaxis prior to surgery, intraoperative and postoperative management to maintain hemostasis.

**Keywords:** Aggressive child emergencies, Autism spectrum disorder, Asperger's syndrome, Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, Anxiety, Cystic fibrosis, Desmopressin, Dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa, Epidermolysis bullosa, Hemostasis, Perioperative care, premedication, Postoperative aggression, Von Willebrand disease.

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## AUTISM

### Introduction

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder with impairment of communication and social skills. It is defined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual Edition 5 (DSM5) as a persistent deficit in social interaction and social communication across multiple contexts and restricted, repetitive pattern of behaviors, interests, or activities [1]. Autism spectrum disorder includes autism, Asperger syndrome, and pervasive developmental disorder. The prevalence worldwide is thought to be approximately 1% [4]. Boys are four times more likely to be diagnosed with ASD than girls [7]. The etiology is still unknown; genetic, immunologic, and environmental factors are thought to be involved [4].

Many autistic children will have other medical, developmental, psychiatric problems, or intellectual disability. Common comorbidities include epilepsy, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, anxiety, oppositional defiant disorder, conduct disorder, and sensory processing disorder. Gastrointestinal disturbances such as malabsorption, maldigestion, food intolerance, and food allergies can often be seen [4]. Verbal and nonverbal communication can be limited in these children [4].

There are both pharmacological and nonpharmacological treatments used in ASD [5]. Nonpharmacological interventions include cognitive and behavioral therapy starting at an early age. Pharmacologic agents can be used to help manage the symptoms (Table 1). The following table shows many of the commonly used medications [4 - 6]. Consultation with a psychiatrist is recommended before stopping long term medications [5].

**Table 1. Medications used for Children With Autism.**

Medications used for Children With Autism		
Medication	Mechanism of action	Potential adverse effects
Haloperidol Risperidone Aripiprazole	Antipsychotic drugs	Sedation, weight gain, extrapyramidal symptoms, hypotension with general anesthesia; risperidone → arrhythmia
Clozapine	Atypical antipsychotic	Agranulocytosis, cardiac conduction problems, hyperthermia, hypotension
Divalproex sodium	Anti-epileptic medication	Liver disease, coagulation abnormalities
Fluoxetine Citalopram	Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors	GI symptoms, agitation, reduced platelet aggregation and increased transfusion risk



(Table 1) cont....

Medications used for Children With Autism		
Methyphenidate Amphetamines	Stimulants	May increase anesthesia requirement, increased risk of hypertension and arrhythmias, lower seizure threshold, interact with vasopressors
Melatonin		
Clonidine Guanfacine	Alpha-adrenergic agonists	

### Preoperative Concerns and Premedication

In addition to surgical needs, autistic children will often need sedation for diagnostic procedures such as magnetic resonance imaging, echocardiogram, phlebotomy, or auditory brainstem reflex studies [2]. Autistic children have a difficult time coping with changes in their routine which can lead to a stressful perioperative experience. They may have difficulty expressing their anxiety in the new environment and progress to becoming inconsolable and disruptive. Premedication is very effective in reducing anxiety in most children. Autistic children are more likely to need a premedication to reduce distress and also more likely to receive a nonstandard premedication [3]. The following Table 2, lists the most commonly used agents for premedication [4].

**Table 2. Commonly used agents for premedication.**

Medication	Route	Dose
Midazolam	Oral	0.5-1 mg/kg
	Intranasal	0.2 mg/kg
	Intramuscular	0.1-0.2 mg/kg
	Intravenous	0.01-0.1mg/kg
Ketamine	Oral	3-6 mg/kg
	Nasal	3 mg/kg
	Intramuscular	3-5 mg/kg
Dexmedetomidine	Oral	4 mcg/kg
	Intranasal	1 mcg/kg

Ideally, these children should be scheduled early in the day with minimal time in the waiting room and preoperative area. They are more sensitive to visual and auditory stimuli in the hospital, so a quiet and private preoperative area is essential. Child life specialists may be helpful in controlling anxiety in the preoperative area. Other helpful practices include allowing both parents to be

**CHAPTER 3****Anesthesia for Pediatric Patients with Common Comorbidities Part III****Pravin Taneja<sup>1</sup> and Nathalie Peiris<sup>2,\*</sup>**<sup>1</sup> *Department of Anesthesiology, St. Christopher's Hospital for Children, Philadelphia, PA, USA*<sup>2</sup> *Department of Anesthesiology and Perioperative Medicine, Nemours Children's Health, Delaware Valley, Wilmington DE, USA*

**Abstract:** There have been dramatic improvements in the survival of neonates and children with many diseases and disorders due to advancements in medicine over the past several decades. These advances are attributed to the better understanding of these disease processes, the advent of multidrug combinations, molecularly targeted therapies, critical care and various surgical interventions. In the wake of this rapidly developing wide range of treatment protocols, the anesthesiologist needs to have a clear understanding of these disorders and their comorbidities, and stay abreast of the various treatment modalities, including their safety and toxicity profiles. This review attempts to emphasize some of the clinical conditions unique to these patients and special considerations for the conduct of anesthesia in this population.

Some of the disease processes and comorbidities discussed here include anesthetic considerations for ex-premature infants, diabetes mellitus, obesity, childhood cancer, and children with congenital heart disease who present for non-cardiac surgery. The objective of this discussion is to provide an updated and comprehensive review of current perioperative anesthetic management of pediatric patients with these conditions. We also delineate the effects of anesthesia during the perioperative course, including major metabolic changes that may result in increased morbidity. We provide guidelines for any anesthesia provider involved in the care of these vulnerable patients. Special considerations need to be taken to promote the physical and mental wellbeing of these children and their families. Collaborative coordination with all providers involved in care is essential to provide safe and effective anesthesia to this subset of patients

**Keywords:** Apnea, Bronchopulmonary dysplasia, Cardiotoxicity, Chemotherapy, Congenital heart defects, Continuous glucose monitoring, Diabetes type 1, Diabetes type 2, Ex-premature, Fontan, Hyperglycemia, Hypoglycemia, Insulin, Insulin pumps, Left-to-right, Leukemias, Low birth weight, Lymphomas, Media-

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stinal mass, Obesity, Prematurity, Pulmonary vascular resistance, Respiratory distress syndrome, Right-to-left, Systemic vascular resistance.

## **EX-PREMATURE PATIENTS**

### **Introduction**

Anesthesia for ex-premature and term infants has undergone enormous change during the past several decades. There has been steadily improved survival and quality of life in preterm and very low birth weight infants since the 1980s due to advances in prenatal, obstetric, and neonatal care. These advances in care affect a subset of the premature patient population who present with distinctive illnesses and pose unique challenges for surgical procedures and their anesthesia care. As patients with these diseases live longer, the morbidity in these surviving infants has also increased. Many of them develop acute or chronic organ dysfunction, which can require surgical attention and add to the anesthetic risk.

The impact of premature birth is life-long, affects multiple organ systems, and is associated with reduced life expectancy. Preterm newborns and ex-premature infants who present for surgery are uniquely challenging due to the immaturity of all organ systems and associated congenital defects. They have ongoing complex medical needs in addition to the urgent reasons for any surgical procedures.

Every year, an estimated 15 million babies are born preterm (before 37 completed weeks of gestation), and this number is rising [1]. The improved care and survival of the premature babies of decreasing gestational age over the last four decades have been attributed to advances in medicine, improvement in healthcare, and the advent of the neonatal intensive care unit (NICU).

### **Definitions**

The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) defines gestational age (GA) as time elapsed between the first day of the last menstrual period and the day of delivery. Postconceptional age (PCA) is defined as gestational age (in weeks) plus the number of weeks since birth. A full-term neonate is born between 37 to 42 weeks' gestation and aged less than 1 month. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines preterm birth as babies born alive before 37 weeks of pregnancy have been completed. Further, preterm birth babies are sub-categorized based on their gestational age (GA) into:

*Moderate to Late preterm (32 to 37 weeks)*

*Very Preterm (28 to 32 weeks)*

*Extremely Preterm (less than 28 weeks)*

Preterm birth infants are also classified based on their birth weight as [2]:

*Low birth weight (LBW) of <2500 grams*

*Very low birth weight (VLBW) of <1500 grams, or*

*Extremely low birth weight (ELBW) of <1000 grams*

### **Morbidity and Mortality**

Preterm birth is associated with high perinatal morbidity and mortality. Prematurity affects multiple systems in the body as important aspects of organ development are not complete. The clinical consequences of prematurity ultimately depend on the gestational age at birth and any underlying abnormalities that may have caused the preterm birth [3]. Babies that are more premature have increased severity of disabilities in later life [4]. Low gestational age at birth is an independent risk factor for increased mortality from respiratory, cardiovascular, endocrine, and congenital disorders in childhood through early adulthood [5]. The data from the perioperative cardiac arrest registry (POCA) suggest that the incidence of cardiac arrest in ex-premature infants is much higher than in older children. A similar high incidence of perioperative severe critical events in pediatric anesthesia (APRICOT Trials) was found in the European prospective multicenter observational study in 261 hospitals. They reported an overall incidence of 5.2%, with an incidence of respiratory critical events in 3.1% of patients and cardiovascular instability in 1.9%. An immediate poor outcome occurred in 5.4% of their cases [6]. Prolonged hospital stay after birth and multiple readmissions to the hospital in the first year of life increase morbidity in these fragile children. Many of the surviving babies face a lifetime of learning disabilities, visual problems, or hearing difficulties.

### **Consequences of Prematurity**

The consequences of premature birth are life-long. Although the risk of many of the acute complications declines throughout infancy and early childhood, long-term morbidity remains high. Ex-premature infants remain at a higher risk for postoperative complications than term infants even after minor surgical procedures and interventions. Some of the problems that a preterm infant may present in subsequent years of growth include the following:

- Neurological disability (including cerebral palsy)
- Intraventricular hemorrhage (IVH)

## CHAPTER 4

# Anesthetic Considerations for the Critically Ill Pediatric Patient

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**Abstract:** In comparison to adults, critical illness is relatively uncommon in the pediatric population. Many facilities may be unprepared or ill-equipped for treating these rare conditions. The conventional anesthesiologist may not be familiar with the common pathologies of critical illness in children. These patients may need complex and life-saving urgent procedures to stabilize them. It is logistically challenging to have pediatric trained personnel readily available at all hospitals and care centers. These patients have special perioperative needs that the anesthesiologist should consider. They may potentially present to the operating room, emergency department, or pediatric intensive care unit. Here, we offer a direct and practical approach to managing the care of these younger patients.

**Keywords:** Acute sickle cell crisis, Acute respiratory distress syndrome, Cardiac shunts, Cerebral edema, Congenital cardiac diseases, Critical illness myopathy, Diabetic ketoacidosis, Enteral feeding and nutrition, Increased intracranial pressure, Propofol related infusion syndrome, Patent ductus arteriosus, Respiratory distress in tracheostomy patients, Sepsis, Septic shock, Seizure disorders, Status epilepticus, Sickle cell disease, Status asthmaticus.

## INTRODUCTION

As medical advancements continue, an increase in the survival of neonates and children with congenital disorders and pathology can be challenging and often unfamiliar to the conventional anesthesia provider. Often, these patients undergo procedures that require general anesthesia, sedation, and analgesia. These patients differ significantly in their clinical response to anesthetics compared to adult patients.

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Many procedures differ in their degree of stimulation and invasiveness, which can affect the appropriate anesthetic technique. Sedation techniques are very institutionally dependent. In the United States, the most common sedative technique in critically ill children utilizes midazolam and fentanyl [1]. Although most modern-day anesthetic techniques are straightforward and safe, adverse events related to “under-sedation” and “over-sedation” are still common and must be promptly diagnosed and treated [2]. Caregivers should appreciate anatomic and physiologic differences unique to the pediatric population, including congenital disorders. Recognition of these differences and adjustment of the anesthetic technique is necessary to avoid potential complications. Airway management, medication choice and dosing, and sedation levels should always be individualized based on the child's needs and performed procedure.

Studies have shown that inadequate sedation and analgesia for critically ill pediatric patients are not uncommon. These patients experience sleep disturbances, increased risk for delirium, and prolonged hospital stays [3]. These stress factors also increase parental anxiety and can result in a traumatic and unpleasant experience for these patients. The implications for neurocognitive development due to adverse environmental factors and inadequate analgesia have yet to be fully discovered. Prolonged hypoxia in critically ill pediatric patients may be one of the most significant causes of long-term impairment in cognitive function [4].

## **INFECTIOUS DISEASE**

### **Sepsis in Children**

Infectious disease is common in children. A prematurely developed immune system puts these patients at risk. The majority of infections in children are mild, resolve quickly, and usually do not require extensive care. Patients with stable vital signs can be monitored and discharged home with observation [5]. The treatment of sepsis in children is different from adult treatment in terms of clinical diagnosis and management. Sepsis is uncommon in children, accounting for 0.56 cases per 1,000 people each year; however, the associated mortality remains high [6]. Although sepsis can occur at any time, the incidence tends to occur at a peak at the age of 2 months. Infections peak seasonally for pediatric patients in the colder winter months. Interestingly, the incidence is about 15% greater in boys than in girls.<sup>7</sup> The cost burden of treating sepsis has been documented to be about 5 billion dollars yearly in the United States [7].

### **Diagnosis**

Sepsis is defined as systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) combined

with a suspected or identified infection. Pediatric SIRS criteria are age-dependent and differ from the diagnostic SIRS criteria for adults [7]. In sepsis, a complex and widespread immune-mediated response involves overwhelming inflammatory cytokines, resulting in systemic vasodilation. This leads to overall decreased cellular tissue perfusion and end-organ dysfunction. SIRS criteria include the following: core body temperature greater than 38.5 degrees C or less than 36 degrees C, tachycardia, tachypnea, and abnormal leukocyte count or greater than 10% neutrophils. Two out of the four criteria with one abnormal temperature or leukocyte count are diagnostic of pediatric SIRS [8, 9].

The most common pathogens are specific to certain age groups. Neonates with sepsis are typically infected with Group B streptococci, E.coli, or HSV. The symptoms of sepsis can be nonspecific. The difficulty of obtaining a history from the pediatric patient can pose an obstacle to diagnosing and treating sepsis promptly. It is essential to receive a comprehensive history from the child and their parents or caregivers and perform a thorough physical exam. Early but nonspecific signs of infection include decreased oral intake, fever, and symptoms of dehydration such as sunken fontanelles [10]. Pediatric patients are susceptible to decompensating more rapidly than adults. Most importantly, early recognition and treatment of sepsis have been shown to decrease mortality [10].

### **Treatment of Shock**

Septic shock is defined as sepsis with hypotension requiring the use of vasopressors to maintain a MAP > 65 or serum lactate > 2 mmol/L despite adequate fluid resuscitation. These patients are typically intravascularly depleted, in addition to being systemically vasodilated. Septic shock is associated with significantly higher mortality than sepsis alone. It is essential to recognize shock quickly and start fluid resuscitation as soon as possible. Prompt intravenous (IV) or emergency intraosseous (IO) access should be initiated.

Fluid resuscitation should begin with a 10-20 cc/kg bolus with isotonic crystalloid or colloid. Empiric broad-spectrum antibiotics should be started as soon as possible to treat the underlying disease, as delays in treatment have been shown to increase mortality. Antibiotic coverage should be narrowed once the pathogen and sensitivities have been identified. If shock is not adequately treated with fluids and hypotension persists, vasoactive should be utilized [11].

Cold shock is characterized by cold, clammy extremities, weak pulses, and narrow pulse pressure and should be treated with IV dopamine at 5 µg/kg/min and titrated up to 10 µg/kg/min as needed. If shock persists, consider adding IV epinephrine at 0.05–0.3 µg/kg/min, to a maximum of 1 µg/kg/min. This syndrome is seen more commonly in pediatrics, with increased systemic vascular resistance

## Anesthesia-Related Genetic Disorders

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**Abstract:** Numerous pediatric genetic disorders have anesthetic implications; however, the ones that should be familiar to all anesthesiologists are those associated with malignant hyperthermia, pseudocholinesterase deficiency, and opioid prescribing. Genetic defects leading to ryanodine receptor mutations in malignant hyperthermia require attention in both anesthetic technique and pre-induction preparation. Pseudocholinesterase deficiency associated with rare mutations of pseudocholinesterase may be encountered by all anesthesiologists and has specific operative and postoperative considerations. Finally, opioids are a common modality for pain control throughout surgical care. Awareness of genetic differences in activation and metabolism for different opioids, as illustrated with codeine usage in pediatrics, is necessary for safe pain management prescribing.

**Keywords:** Butyrylcholinesterase, Central Core disease, Codeine, CYP enzyme, King-Denborough syndrome, Malignant hyperthermia, Native American myopathy, Opioids, Pediatric anesthesia, Pediatric, pseudocholinesterase deficiency, Pediatric analgesia.

### INTRODUCTION

Pediatric genetic diseases with anesthetic implications are numerous, each disorder with a unique phenotype and pathology. The entirety of these defects would be too numerous to cover in this chapter, and many would be unlikely to be encountered in general practice. Genetic variabilities that should be familiar to all anesthesiologists are those that carry significant morbidity and mortality with anesthesia administration. The focus in the following pages will be on those disorders with strong genetic associations. Malignant hyperthermia, a condition every anesthesiologist is intimately familiar with, will be reviewed, along with

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associated genetic syndromes and management. Pseudocholinesterase deficiency is also discussed and its anesthetic management. Finally, genetic variations and pediatric opioid responses are discussed, focusing on codeine and the clinical impact seen in America last decade.

## **MALIGNANT HYPERTHERMIA**

The unexpected sudden death of a patient is one of a clinician's greatest fears, and despite all the advances to make anesthesia safer, a child with malignant hyperthermia (MH) may be left with severe multiorgan dysfunction or death if not recognized or treated promptly.

As a brief review, during normal muscle contraction, sarcolemma depolarization causes a cascade of intracellular events to activate the ryanodine receptor, which regulates calcium efflux from the sarcoplasmic reticulum. Calcium then binds to troponin, and this combination links actin and myosin, resulting in muscle contraction. During repolarization, calcium is taken back into the sarcoplasmic reticulum by the enzyme SERCA, leading to muscle relaxation [1].

With MH muscle physiology, there is typically a mutation in the ryanodine receptor, where exposure to anesthetic drugs, such as volatile agents or succinylcholine, leads to calcium dysregulation. This unregulated calcium elevation results in sustained muscle contraction and increasing metabolic demand [2].

### **Inheritance**

Malignant hyperthermia is typically an autosomal dominant inheritance pattern [3]. In other words, if a patient has MH there is about a 50% chance of passing the mutation to their offspring. Over 300 DNA changes have been implicated in MH susceptible patients; however, not all identified mutations are specific to the ryanodine receptor, but to other channels working alongside the receptor in controlling normal muscle contraction and calcium regulation [3].

### **Clinical Features**

The majority of MH cases are associated with volatile agents or succinylcholine [4]. The most reliable initial clinical sign of an MH crisis is an unexplained increase in end-tidal CO<sup>2</sup>. Continued muscle contraction results in increased anaerobic metabolism and lactate production, leading to metabolic and respiratory acidosis. Prolonged cellular stress ends in cell lysis and intracellular content

release. Increased potassium and myoglobin in the serum is indicative of this cell death. The increased metabolic demand leads to hyperthermia and ultimately causes further organ and coagulation failure [4].

The timing of clinical features varies from patient to patient and can occur at any time during the anesthetic or post-operative unit. Furthermore, not every patient will exhibit all the clinical manifestations. Sometimes these patients in the post-operative unit may only present with arrhythmias from hyperkalemia as end-tidal carbon dioxide is not frequently monitored in the recovery unit [5].

Generalized muscle rigidity despite nondepolarizing neuromuscular blockade is almost always indicative of MH, and an anesthesia provider should promptly check potassium, carbon dioxide, and temperature with this presentation [6]. Masseter Muscle Rigidity (MMR) is a sustained contraction of the jaw muscles following succinylcholine administration and is associated with malignant hyperthermia in up to 20% of instances [6]. The general opinion is that rigidity lasting less than one minute does not carry the same MH risk, but the decision to cancel the case and monitor these patients should be discussed with the proceduralist and evaluated on a case-by-case basis.

### **Management of an MH Crisis**

The first steps after recognizing an MH crisis are to immediately stop all triggering agents, notify the surgeon and staff, and call for help. Several things must happen rapidly; having multiple providers in the room allows these tasks to be completed in a timely fashion. The United States Malignant Hyperthermia Association (MHAUS) has created an emergency algorithm to cover all aspects of MH management and can be easily accessible at [www.mhaus.org](http://www.mhaus.org) (Figs. 1 and 2).

## CHAPTER 6

# Pediatric Pain Management and Regional Anesthesia

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**Abstract:** Inadequate pain management in children not only leads to immediate stress and suffering, but it can also influence long-term psychological, physiological, and emotional outcomes for the patient and family. It is well-established that neonates not only feel pain, but also have an exaggerated perception due to immaturity of the descending inhibitory pathways. In addition, various physiologic differences influence the effect and duration of various medications. Despite the existence of many validated tools and pain scales, the assessment of pain in children is challenging. Successful acute pain management targets various elements in the complex system of pain transduction, transmission, modulation, and perception. A multimodal approach targeting multiple steps in the nociceptive pathway is more effective than those involving a single target. Regional analgesic techniques supplemented with opiates and nonopioid medications have proven to be effective in controlling postoperative pain. Traditionally, caudal and epidural analgesia have an established record of safety and are popular regional techniques in children. However, advances in ultrasound-guided techniques have encouraged pediatric anesthesiologists to perform more regional blocks in children. Additionally, application of the enhanced recovery after surgery (ERAS) protocol for major surgeries and concern about the opioid epidemic has led to increasing awareness about the benefits of regional anesthesia. In this chapter, we will discuss the fundamentals of pain perception in children, the assessment of pain and the multimodal approach to manage it, relevant pharmacology, and various regional techniques in routine and complex pediatric surgical patients.

**Keywords:** Caudal epidural, Central neuraxial blocks, Cerebral palsy, Chronic postsurgical pain, Developmental pharmacology, Enhanced recovery after surgery, Lower extremity nerve blocks, Lumbar epidural, Multimodal approach, Neonates, Nonopioid analgesics, Opioid analgesics, Opioid-induced hyperalgesia, Pain assessment, Pain neurobiology, Peripheral nerve blocks, Pharmacotherapy, Spinal fusion surgery, Spinal in neonates, Upper extremity nerve blocks.

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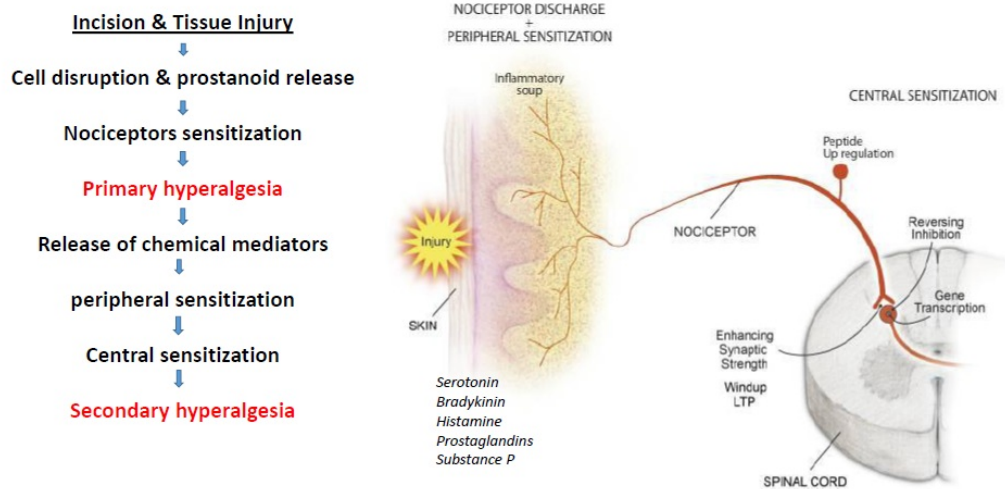
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## INTRODUCTION

Inadequate pain management in children not only leads to immediate undue stress and suffering, but it can also influence long-term psychological, physiological, and emotional outcomes for the patient and family [1, 2]. A successful pain management strategy in the pediatric population warrants consideration of age-related changes in neurobiology, pain processing, age-appropriate pain assessment tools, and developmental pharmacokinetics.

## PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND NEUROBIOLOGY

Pain is not simply a transmission of impulses from the peripheral neurons to the center but is a complex interplay of pain perception, amplification, and suppression. It results from the activation of sensory receptors specialized in detecting actual or impending tissue damage called the nociceptors. However, the correlation between activation of nociceptors and the sensory experience of pain is variable and is significantly influenced by emotional state; degree of anxiety; attention, distraction, and experiences; memories; and many other factors that can either enhance or diminish the pain experience. Tissue injury associated with surgery initiates a systemic reaction accompanied by inflammatory cytokines [3]. Inflammatory mediators (serotonin, bradykinin, histamine, prostaglandins, and leukotrienes) that are released in the wound and adjacent tissues lead to heightened synaptic transmission and reduction in pain threshold in the injured area called **primary hyperalgesia**. Tissue injury, nerve damage, and intense noxious stimuli generate a barrage of impulses from the site of injury leading to increased synaptic efficacy in somatosensory neurons in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord that is referred to as **central sensitization** (Fig. 1). The action potential causes the presynaptic terminals of A-delta and C fibers to release a variety of pronociceptive substances such as glutamate, substance-p, and calcitonin gene-related peptide into the synaptic cleft. This heightened synaptic transmission leads to a reduction in pain threshold and central amplification of pain responses and a spread of pain sensitivity to non-injured areas. Spread of pain sensitivity to the surrounding non-injured areas is called **secondary hyperalgesia** and may lead to the occurrence of pain by stimuli that are normally not painful, such as touch, which is referred to as **allodynia** [5]. Presence of **allodynia** likely indicates amplified A-delta and C fiber activity, and activity in A-beta fibers that normally mediate touch begins to be interpreted as pain signals. In addition to nociceptive and inflammatory pain, a **neuropathic** component is likely due to surgical injury to local nerve tissue, leading to spontaneous firing of injured nerve endings that adds to increased pain sensitivity in the early postoperative period with a potential to become chronic postsurgical pain [6].



**Fig. (1).** Schematic diagram of major mechanisms involved in peripheral and central sensitization. Injury results in release of inflammatory mediators (inflammatory soup) that enhance the nociceptor discharge produced directly by the injury [4]. Reprinted with permission from Mendell LM. Computational functions of neurons and circuits signaling injury: Relationship to pain behavior. PNAS 2011; 108 (Supplement 3): 15596-601.

## DEVELOPMENTAL PHARMACOLOGY

Children are not just miniature adults and differ physiologically and pharmacologically [7, 8]. It is during the first year of life that most maturational changes take place. There are significant pharmacokinetic differences that warrant consideration for dosage and timing of analgesic medications. High body water content in neonates and infants results in a larger volume of distribution for water-soluble drugs with a potential for longer duration of action. Since a higher percentage of cardiac output is delivered to the brain in neonates, brain concentration of drugs may be higher than in adults. Immaturity of the blood-brain barrier further facilitates drug delivery to the CNS. Lower levels of albumin and alpha-1 acid glycoproteins (to which highly protein-bound drugs such as opioids and local anesthetics bind) allow for greater availability of unbound plasma drug concentration with increased drug effect and toxicity [7]. Immaturity of hepatic enzyme systems and renal function results in reduced clearance of drugs necessitating adjustment in dose and interval. These organs reach adult function by 1 year of age. Drug clearance in children between 2 and 6 years of age may actually be greater than in adults because of the larger hepatic mass relative to body weight [9].

## PAIN ASSESSMENT

Pain in children is poorly understood, underrecognized, and therefore,

## Research in Pediatric Anesthesia

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**Abstract:** In the United States and globally, governmental organizations have initiated programs to stimulate clinical research in the pediatric population. The most important reason for these programs is a lack of high-quality evidence to guide effective and safe treatment in children. In pediatric anesthesiology, physicians and scientists need to evaluate anesthetic drugs, medical equipment, and devices. Under improved global regulations, current and new anesthetic strategies will undergo a scientific evaluation of safety and effectiveness. Along these lines, the number of pediatric patients participating in anesthesiology research is expected to increase. Federal regulations deem minors to lack the required decision-making capacity to consent to participate in studies. In line with the Declaration of Helsinki, enrolling children in research should encompass legal guardian permission and assent of the child. Proxy consent and assent procedures should enable the legal representative to safeguard the child's interest while allowing the child to give meaningful agreement. Assent has been defined in detail by ethical scholars but is generally poorly defined legally. A specific challenge to appropriate proxy consent and a child's assent in pediatric anesthesiology research is the brief treatment interaction the pediatric anesthesiologist can have with patients. This challenge may require contacting potential research subjects well before admission to the hospital, depending on the risk and complexity associated with the study at hand.

**Keywords:** Assent, Consent, Ethical review, Institutional review board, Pediatric anesthesia, Quality improvement, Research, Risk.

### INTRODUCTION

Pediatric anesthesiology is a dynamic discipline. Continuous advances in the development of anesthetic drugs, anesthesia equipment, and medical devices attempt to enhance the safety and quality of anesthesia provided to pediatric patients undergoing surgery. Research is needed to establish safe and effective clinical applications of new products and strategies. Traditionally, there was a

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lack of adequate research specifically in pediatric populations [1]. Leading national and international programs now stimulate clinical research in pediatric patients to improve the evidence basis for clinical practice in pediatric care [2].

### **IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIOLOGY?**

We highlight three primary reasons for research in pediatric anesthesia – and we discuss each of them within the pediatric anesthesia context as a specialty and with respect to the regulatory environment of the United States.

#### **Pediatric Anesthesiologists Cannot Extrapolate Findings from Adult Research to Children**

Most medications have never been investigated in pediatric patients, forcing pediatric anesthesiologists to resort to off-label use and estimate appropriate drug dosing. Compared with adults, randomized controlled trial data lacks for more than 50% of interventions used in children [1]. Thus, efficacy and safety information for medications is unavailable for the youngest children. Unfortunately, these children are also at the most significant risk. The Pediatric Exclusivity Program was passed by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to minimize the risk of clinical use of non-approved medications causing adverse effects. Initiated in 1997 [3] and made permanent in 2012, this initiative grants 6 months of intellectual property protection to pharmaceutical companies who conduct pediatric clinical trials within the program. Several discoveries regarding pediatric drug efficacy and safety are the result of this program [2].

#### **Scientists and physicians need to conduct research to increase safety and quality in pediatric anesthesiology**

Quality improvement and safety research have been a focal point of anesthesiology practice in the United States. As a result, several national networks initiated registries specifically aimed at capturing adverse events related to the administration of anesthesia in pediatric patients. Examples of databases in the U.S. are Wake Up Safe [4], the Pediatric Perioperative Cardiac Arrest (POCA) Registry [5], as well as the Pediatric Regional Anesthesia Network (PRAN) [6]. These registries, and research using their data, provide important information about the potential prevention of rare but serious adverse events.

#### **Research is an essential part of anesthesiology training**

Clinical research is a key component of anesthesiology residency [7] and is also an essential part of pediatric anesthesiology fellowship training [8]. Practicing

anesthesiology requires the development of critical thinking skills and a commitment to learning throughout one's career. Clinical training programs that actively develop these competencies through engagement in clinical studies likely create more outstanding anesthesiologists who have an enduring commitment to education.

## **SPECIFIC CONSIDERATIONS FOR RESEARCH IN PEDIATRIC ANESTHESIA VS. RESEARCH IN ADULT ANESTHESIA**

### **Ethical Justification**

Pediatric anesthesia patients comprise a patient population that is more vulnerable because their emotional and intellectual capabilities are not mature. Therefore, a researcher needs to weigh the risks and discomfort involved in the planned research when proposing a pediatric anesthesia study. The researcher then should justify these risks against the expected benefits to the pediatric patient and future patients with the same condition.

### ***Minimizing Risk***

Every research study is associated with some risk to the enrolled child. The institutional review board that oversees the institution where the research will take place determines the risk of an investigation. In the U.S., studies in pediatric patients are generally only allowed when they represent minimal risk or a minor increase over minimal risk to the child. A definition of the concept of minimal risk is: "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research are not greater in and of themselves than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests" [9]. The National Commission describes a minor increase over minimal risk as follows: "while [minor increase] goes beyond the boundaries of minimal risk, it poses no significant threat to the child's health or well being" [10]. Research procedures that have been considered a minor increase over minimal risk are skin or bone marrow biopsies, catheterized urine collections, MRI scans with sedation, and emotionally distressing surveys. The somewhat restrictive United States regulations on greater than minimal risk research in children have sometimes hampered scientific investigations compared to other countries [11].

Potential adverse events and study risks must be anticipated before a study starts, with the predefined possibility of study termination should unexpected related adverse events be found. A researcher should limit participant numbers and procedures to the expected number to allow scientifically valid conclusions based on a power calculation. When compared to clinical studies in adults, the efficacy



**CHAPTER 8****Principles of Quality and Patient Safety in Pediatric Anesthesiology****Keri Cronin<sup>1\*</sup> and Erin Pukenas<sup>1</sup>**

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**Abstract:** The delivery of high-quality, safe patient care is fundamental to a successful outcome for pediatric patients undergoing anesthesia. Organizations rooted in a transparent culture where employees are encouraged to speak up for safety will often engage their staff and patients to design systems of care that are meaningful and effective. Successful healthcare organizations continuously analyze data and refine processes in search of opportunities for improvement. This chapter will discuss the core principles of quality and patient safety and review some ongoing national and international collaborative efforts to improve anesthesia care for children. Practical strategies for establishing a quality improvement program are explored, including incorporation of simulation for performance improvement.

**Keywords:** Adverse events, Checklists, Cognitive aids, Handoff communication, High reliability, Just culture, Medication error, Patient safety, Quality improvement, Simulation, System engineering.

**INTRODUCTION**

The pursuit of quality and patient safety is among the top priorities for every healthcare system in the United States today. Healthcare value is derived from patient outcomes in the context of cost, where outcomes are influenced by quality, safety, service, and patient and staff engagement. This is often referred to as the “quadruple aim” of healthcare [1], a framework for creating a positive clinical experience for both patients and providers. Paramount to the success of the quadruple aim is the delivery of optimum care. While the quadruple aim considers each of the domains equally, Fig. (1) below represents a model wherein quality and safety are represented as core drivers of health:

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**Fig. (1).** Quality and Patient Safety Funnel.

In consideration of the principles examined in this chapter, the delivery of safe, high-quality care will be considered fundamental to the success of every healthcare system and pediatric anesthesiology department. Excellent quality outcomes result in improved clinical experience and satisfaction. Health care professionals and policymakers strive to provide the highest quality of care at the lowest cost to benefit the patient [2]. Anesthesiology as a specialty has been a historical leader in the adoption of reliable quality processes to ensure safety and value in the perioperative environment and beyond.

### **FUNDAMENTALS OF PATIENT SAFETY**

The practice of anesthesiology is a key driver in the quality of care delivered to surgical patients [3]. In the Institute of Medicine's publication, **Crossing the Quality Chasm**, six domains of healthcare quality were introduced. These include safety, effectiveness, patient-centeredness, efficiency, equitability, and timeliness [4]. Efficient and equitable care refers to the provision of care that does not vary in quality due to personal characteristics of the patient (*e.g.*, race, gender, socioeconomic status), while efficiency refers to the elimination of waste in the system. Timeliness can help improve efficiency, which can ultimately drive down cost while maintaining the quality of care at a constant level [5]. A simple example of how timeliness can impact care stems from a common process in the care of the surgical patient: the administration of prophylactic antibiotics. During a relatively routine task, prophylactic antibiotics need to be administered at the right time in the perioperative period. If the antibiotic is not administered in time for it to reach effect in concert with surgical incision, the risk of surgical site infection increases. This can potentially lead to increased morbidity, increased

hospital length of stay, increased healthcare costs, and subpar outcomes for the patient.

In 1999, the Institute of Medicine produced a report titled “To Err is Human” [6]. This publication highlighted the failure of the U.S. healthcare system to keep patients safe from preventable harm. Between 40,000 and 98,000 patient deaths were estimated to be preventable due to a lack of standardized safety processes and human error. This report sparked what is now considered to be the modern patient safety movement. Yet despite significant investment of time, resources, and attention over the past 20 years, care delivery errors and preventable deaths remain unsolved issues in healthcare.

### **Just Culture**

One of the outgrowths of the modern-day patient safety movement is the application of the “Just culture” concepts to healthcare. Just culture is aimed at improving patient safety by ensuring shared accountability between healthcare providers and their organizations [7]. Providers are held accountable for the quality of their choices, as they hold their colleagues accountable for theirs [8]. A just culture accomplishes shared accountability by empowering employees so that they feel comfortable monitoring the workplace and participating in safety efforts [7]. An open and honest reporting environment creates an opportunity to shift focus from shame and blame to system design for patient safety.

To achieve a just culture, departments must balance accountability between the organization, *i.e.*, the entity responsible for designing and improving workplace processes, and the provider, *i.e.*, the entity responsible for executing operations within that environment. Approaches to improving patient safety within a just culture are rooted in error analysis, tools to enhance safety, and outcomes engineering [7]. Error analysis includes a robust “deep-dive” into the factors that contributed to the error. This includes assessment of resources, equipment, staffing models and ratios, review of current processes and gaps, and any environmental conditions that may have altered the standard workflow. Specific safety tools can then be devised and employed based on the findings of the error analysis, and outcomes can be specifically engineered in support of human factors and behavior.

### **HIGH RELIABILITY ORGANIZATIONS (HROS)**

In addition to just culture, the concept of high reliability enhances safe patient care in anesthesiology. High reliability organizations (HROs) are defined by their ability to maintain consistently safe and reliable operations in hazardous, high-risk environments. Examples of non-healthcare HROs include the nuclear power

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**CHAPTER 9**

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**Anesthetic Considerations For Covid-19 (Year 2020)****David Youssef, M.D.<sup>1,\*</sup> and Bharathi Gourkanti, M.D.<sup>1</sup>**<sup>1</sup> *Department of Anesthesiology, Cooper Medical School of Rowan University, Camden, New Jersey, USA*

**Abstract:** In December 2019, patients clustered in Wuhan, China, were identified to have a novel virus now known as COVID-19, a virus from the coronavirus family. This virus has spread all across the world, with close to 8 million confirmed cases and over 432,000 confirmed COVID-19 deaths worldwide. This pandemic has rattled the modern era and presented with several new considerations that the anesthesiologist must be aware of. This chapter will cover several anesthetic concerns that involve this virus and all the precautions that one should take during this pandemic.

It should be noted that there is new research emerging rapidly about this novel virus, and one can always depend on World Health Organization, the American Society of Anesthesiologists, Anesthesia Patient Safety Foundation, and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention for updated COVID-19 resources for anesthesiologists. *This chapter was written in September 2020 and is the first textbook chapter that we know that is available at this time.*

**Keywords:** Axillary nerve block, COVID-19, Driving pressure, ELISA, HMEF, IgG and IgA immune response, Intubation, Lung protection strategies, Low tidal volume, Laryngoscopy, Leukopenia, Nasopharyngeal swab, Plateau pressure, RT-PCR, RBD-S protein, VFE.

**PREOPERATIVE CONSIDERATIONS AND SYMPTOMOLOGY**

Besides the normal comprehensive medical history, it is prudent that, as practitioners, we evaluate the patient for possible exposure to COVID-19 and specific anesthetic risks that may occur intraoperatively. All patients and their families should be screened for recent fevers, dry cough, diarrhea, headache, and/or loss of taste and smell. The most common initial symptom for COVID-19 is a fever [17]. In a systematic review in Europe, looking at 7480 children, symptoms were typically mild to moderate, with 51.6% of positive patients developing a fever, followed by cough (47.3%) and sore throat (17.9%). Less

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common symptoms included diarrhea and vomiting (<10% of cases). Neonates, on the other hand, were more likely to be severely ill with symptoms of dyspnea, fever, and feeding intolerance driving their illness. Looking at the pediatric population data published by the Center for Disease Control, the mortality rate is < 0.1% for children, which is strikingly different from the geriatric population, with a 32.4% mortality rate.

Although the mortality rate of COVID-19 is low in the pediatric population, there are reports of a rare severe hyperinflammatory syndrome in association with COVID-19 patients called Multisystem Inflammatory Syndrome in Children (MIS-C). This is thought to be a post-infectious immune dysregulation triggered by the virus. The CDC defines it as a fever lasting for more than 24 hours, laboratory evidence of inflammation, multisystem organ involvement (at least two systems), and a positive COVID test or exposure within four weeks of symptom onset. In June 2020, an article published in the *New England Journal of Medicine* stated that out of 186 patients diagnosed with COVID-19 infection, 80% required intensive critical care. Some individuals may fulfill all or some criteria for Kawasaki Disease. This disease is a vasculitis associated with preceding/active infection causing acute febrile illness of unknown etiology, typically affecting kids younger than five years, associated with fever, mucocutaneous changes, such as (conjunctival injection, rash, mucosal changes) and coronary artery aneurysms – the leading cause of acquired heart disease. A small subset of patients with MIS-C had developed macrophage activation syndrome – a life-threatening condition resulting in the proliferation of macrophage histiocytes and leading to Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation. Some of the most common laboratory findings associated with MIS-C include an elevated ESR, CRP, ferritin, LDH, IL-6, fibrinogen, CPK, and D-dimer.

When deciding whether a diagnostic test is warranted, studies revealed that in children with positive disease, a CT scan of the chest was normal a third of the time.

If a patient was recently treated for COVID-19, it is important to perform an EKG for QT prolongation. The use of azithromycin and hydroxychloroquine has gained traction, appearing in multiple guidelines. Although these medications are no longer recommended, it is likely that a child was prescribed these medications. The combination of these medications has been shown to cause a clinically evident prolongation of corrected QT (QTc) prolongation and possible myocardial injury [7].

Although the overall incidence of severe illness is low in the pediatric population, COVID-19 has brought concerns to public health issues. There has been a

significant decline in routine pediatric visits and immunizations. Various psychosocial and financial stresses from the pandemic have led to increased neglect and inability to care for children, along with a loss of adequate nutrition that many school services have provided to children. Mental health is also at risk given a loss of access to education. Children may not have reliable internet access at home to facilitate virtual learning, and the increase in online activity has opened up the potential for cyberbullying. All these considerations are important things to consider when a physician interacts with a child.

### COVID-19 TESTING

The knowledge of diagnostic testing is still evolving; however, at this point in time, there are two commonly used tests, reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) and ELISA IgM and IgG tests. The RT-PCR works by targeting one or more of the genes specific to COVID-19. Typically, these genes tested are the envelope, spike, or *ORF1* gene. All of the nasopharyngeal RT-PCR swabs have had similar sensitivities [1]. Typically, the RT-PCR test becomes detectable within one day of symptom onset and peaks within one week. By 3 weeks, the test is usually undetectable. Keep in mind that a positive RT-PCR indicates the viral RNA and does not necessarily mean that the virus is detectable. In a study, it was found that the RT-PCR test positivity was highest in the bronchoalveolar lavage specimens (93%), then sputum (72%), nasal sampling, and the lowest positivity was with a pharyngeal swab (32%) [2].

Rapid points of care (POC) detection of antibodies *via* ELISA are being widely developed. At a basic level, these tests measure a patient's immune response to COVID-19. At the current time, our institution's policy is that all patients receive a POC or PCR testing 72 hours before an elective procedure. A nasopharyngeal swab is preferred, however, if a child is non-compliant, then a substitution for a nasal or oral swab is recommended. If the case is an emergency and there isn't time to do COVID testing, then that patient will be assumed positive and must be placed in a negative pressure environment for the procedure, and all proper protective equipment must be available for all healthcare personnel.

Typically, IgM and IgG serology is observed by the 3rd week. After 5-7 weeks, IgM disappears, whereas IgG persists for a longer period [3]. In a recent study with 140 subjects, the combined sensitivity of RT-PCR and ELISA was 98.6% vs. 51.9% with just a solitary RT-PCR test [4]. The important point is that the most predominant antibody developed against the virus is the nucleocapsid antigen. Also, most tests that measure the antibody to nucleocapsid are sensitive. The virus attaches to human cells *via* the receptor-binding domain of S (RBD-S) protein, and antibodies against RBD S are considered to provide a stronger immune response

**CHAPTER 10****Muscular Dystrophies and Mitochondrial Myopathies****Divya Dixit, MD<sup>1,\*</sup>, Dinesh K. Choudhry, MD<sup>2</sup> and Kumar G. Belani<sup>3</sup>**<sup>1</sup> *Department of Anesthesia and Perioperative Medicine, Alfred I. duPont Hospital for Children, Wilmington, DE, USA*<sup>2</sup> *Department of Anesthesiology, Shriners Hospital for Children, Philadelphia, PA, USA*<sup>3</sup> *Professor of Anesthesiology, Division Head/Clinical Chief and Pediatric Anesthesiologist-in-Chief, M Health Fairview University of Minnesota Masonic Children's Hospital, Minneapolis, MN, USA*

**Abstract:** Children with neuromuscular diseases have a broad range of presentation and anesthesia considerations. Muscle strength is reduced by degenerative nerve supply and affected neuromuscular junctions or by weakening of muscle fibers directly. Muscular dystrophies are an inherited group of disorders characterized by progressive muscle weakness. These children pose specific challenges related to anesthetic care due to skeletal muscle, pulmonary, and cardiac involvement. This chapter discusses the perioperative management of children with Duchenne, Becker, limb-girdle, Emery-Dreifuss, and myotonic muscular dystrophies. Also discussed are mitochondrial myopathies, a group of clinical conditions common to the pediatric population. Cerebral palsy (CP) is a nonspecific, descriptive term that encompasses a constellation of symptoms due to a neurologic lesion resulting from the insult to the developing brain sustained early in life. Although the neurologic lesion in CP is non-progressive, the motor dysfunction due to spasticity may be progressive, leading to spinal deformities, joint contractures, and dislocations requiring medical and surgical interventions. Anesthetic care for children with the above stated neuromuscular disorders requires understanding of their disease process and careful attention to all aspects of perioperative care. Thoughtful planning should include thorough preoperative assessment, attention to co-morbidities, management of chronic medications, and meticulous intraoperative care for these patients. Postoperative assessment of pain and its management are essential to facilitate recovery and uneventful perioperative course.

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**Keywords:** Becker muscular dystrophy, Cerebral palsy, Coagulopathy, Duchenne muscular dystrophy, Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy, Hyperkalemic cardiac arrest, Hypothermia, Intrathecal baclofen pump, Lactic acidosis, Limb-girdle muscular dystrophy, Malignant hyperthermia susceptibility, Mitochondrial encephalopathy, Mitochondrial myopathies, Myotonic dystrophy, Neuromuscular spine fusion, Rhabdomyolysis, Seizure disorder, Spasticity.

## MUSCULAR DYSTROPHIES

The muscular dystrophies are an inherited group of myopathic disorders due to the presence of dysfunctional proteins in the muscle fibers resulting in muscle weakness [1, 2]. The dysfunctional protein is due to a gene defect that is transmitted either as autosomal dominant or recessive or as an X-linked trait with sporadic de novo mutations also being reported [1, 2]. When the gene defect is expressed earlier in childhood, the phenotype is typically more severe. There is significant variability in presentation and involvement of organ systems, namely the musculature, heart, lungs, central nervous, and ophthalmic systems [3]. The perioperative management of Duchenne, Becker, limb-girdle, Emery-Dreifuss, and myotonic muscular dystrophies are discussed. Some of the characteristic features of these illnesses are displayed in Table 1.

**Table 1. Summary of muscular dystrophies [3, 4].**

Muscular Dystrophy	Inheritance	Natural History	Motor Function	Respiratory Impairment	Cardio Myopathy	Other Findings
<b>Duchenne MD</b>	X-linked R	Progressive	Ambulation present Lost at adolescence	Frequent	Common	CK levels high; cognitive & neurobehavioral problems
<b>Becker MD</b>	X-linked R	Variable but slower progression than DMD	Ambulation present	Not usually	Common	CK levels high; milder than DMD
<b>Limb-girdle MD</b>	AD, AR	Progressive	Ambulation present Some lose it in early adulthood or middle age	Variable and seen in advanced stages	Present in some forms	CK usually increased; intellectual disabilities seen



(Table 1) cont....

Muscular Dystrophy	Inheritance	Natural History	Motor Function	Respiratory Impairment	Cardio Myopathy	Other Findings
<b>Emery-Dreifuss MD</b>	X-linked R, AD, AR	Progresses slowly	Ambulation present	Seen in adulthood	Yes, with conduction defects	CK moderately elevated with insulin resistance and rigid spine in some
<b>Myotonic dystrophy</b>	AD	Progresses slowly	Ambulation present	Sleep-disordered breathing	Yes, with conduction defects	CK increased slightly; intellectual disabilities; insulin resistance; cataracts; myotonia; increased sleepiness with circadian issues

MD = muscular dystrophy, R = recessive, AD = autosomal dominant, AR = autosomal recessive, CK = creatine kinase, DMD = Duchenne muscular dystrophy.

## DUCHENNE MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY

### Introduction

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) is associated with severe clinical symptoms at an earlier age of onset when compared with Becker muscular dystrophy (BMD), which typically has a mild clinical course and later onset. There is an intermediate phenotype with clinical symptoms between these two and DMD-associated dilated cardiomyopathy, which presents in adults with little or no skeletal muscle disease. Both DMD and BMD have an X-linked recessive inheritance pattern predominantly affecting males. Female carriers are usually asymptomatic but may have variable degrees of muscle weakness or cardiac involvement [5]. The worldwide incidence of DMD is an estimated 1:3500 live male births [6].

### Clinical Manifestations

Clinical onset of weakness manifests by age 2-6 years, and affected boys are usually late walkers [7]. They have a waddling gait, difficulty running and climbing stairs, and a tendency to fall. Weakness affects the proximal hip and shoulder muscles and, therefore, children have to push down on the floor with the palms of their hands and slowly climb up on themselves, moving their hands up along the thighs/lower trunk to stand up (Gower's sign). Children usually have

## Anesthesia for Uncommon Pediatric Diseases

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**Abstract:** Several uncommon pediatric diseases encountered by non-pediatric anesthesiologists bear discussion because a failure to recognize unique issues relating to them could lead to significant morbidity and mortality. Anterior mediastinal masses share the same space as major pulmonary and cardiovascular structures, which, if compressed, can compromise the airway, heart and great vessels. Awareness of the potential for major physiologic derangement and a multidisciplinary approach to their diagnosis and management will ensure a safe perioperative course. Congenital pulmonary airway malformation is one of the most frequent pulmonary malformations in children that requires surgical intervention by thoracoscopic approach in the first year of life. Their anesthetic management is often challenging due to their small size, need for lung isolation and maintaining adequate oxygenation during surgery. Understanding lung isolation technique in infants is necessary for the safe administration of anesthetics in these children. Arthrogryposis multiplex congenita syndrome is a rare, non-progressive, and congenital heterogeneous group of disorders characterized by congenital joint contractures. These children require frequent surgeries during childhood to address various musculoskeletal abnormalities. Their anesthetic management is often challenging due to comorbidities related to musculoskeletal deformities, neurologic, cardiovascular and respiratory systems involvement. Understanding the disease with thorough evaluation and preparation prior to anesthetic management is essential for a good perioperative outcome. Pheochromocytoma is a rare neuroendocrine tumor in children that may present unexpectedly for the management by anesthesiologists. It secretes catecholamines which can cause life-threatening perioperative hemodynamic instability. The meticulous preoperative pharmacotherapy, intraoperative anesthetic management and postoperative monitoring are vital for a safe outcome.

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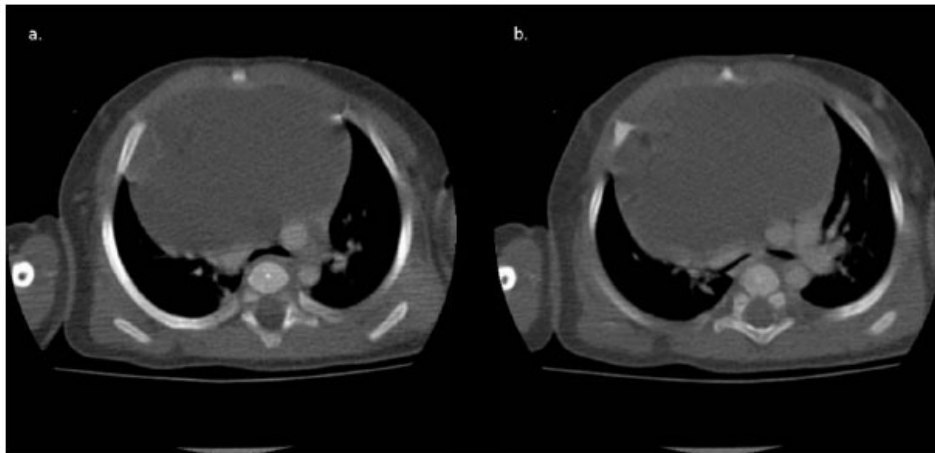
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**Keywords:** Adolescent, Alpha blocker, Anterior mediastinal mass, Arthrogryposis multiplex congenita, Beta blocker, Bronchial compression, Catecholamines, Congenital pulmonary airway malformation, Congenital lung lesion, Contractures, Difficult intubation, Hyperthermia, Infant, Limb deformities, Lymphoma, One lung ventilation, Pediatric, Pheochromocytoma, Superior vena cava syndrome, Teratoma, Thoracoscopic surgery.

## ANTERIOR MEDIASTINAL MASSES

### Introduction

Although relatively rare in children, anterior mediastinal masses (AMM) are a common source of anxiety for pediatric anesthesiologists. Reports of the hazards of general anesthesia in AMM date back to a few decades [1]. This is because the location of the tumor shares the same space as major pulmonary and cardiovascular structures, leading to a greater potential for anesthesia-related complications (Fig. 1). Awareness of the potential for major physiologic derangement and a multidisciplinary approach to the diagnosis and management will ensure a safe course for the patient.



**Fig. (1).** Computerized tomography scan in an infant with anterior mediastinal masses believed to be a teratoma. As can be seen, the tumor occupies most of the thoracic cavity. At the level of the mid-distal trachea (a), just distal to the carina at the level of the mainstem bronchi (b). (Reproduced from the study of Brenn *et al.* Perioperative management of an anterior mediastinal teratoma in an infant: one more tool in the toolbox. *BMJ Case Rep* 2018. with permission from BMJ Publishing Group Ltd.).

### Prevalence

AMMs are represented by a variety of primary tumor types, but their specific prevalence is unknown. This is due to the fact that malignancy reporting is generally done by tumor type and that most cases are treated but not reported. It

must be remembered that AMM tumors are a problem of location regardless of tumor type.

Table 1. is a composite of several of the larger case series and shows the relative proportion of tumor types. Lymphomas are the most prevalent in pediatric patients. However, there are different tumor types that are present at different ages. Typically, the lymphomas occur in the early to late teens, while germ cell tumors such as teratomas may be present in infancy [1].

Case Series	N	Lymphoma	Germ Cell	Thymic	ALL	Other
<i>*Mullen et al. 1986</i>	179	80	43	30	0	26
<i>Angheliescu et al. 2007</i>	118	82	0	0	12	24
<i>Perger et al. 2008</i>	40	40	0	0	0	0
<i>Hack et al. 2008</i>	56	40	0	0	16	0
<i>Stricker et al. 2010</i>	45	28	4	3	0	10
<i>Garey et al. 2011</i>	26	16	0	0	4	6
<i>Acker et al 2015</i>	69	60	1	3	0	5
<b>Totals</b>	533	346	48	36	32	71
<b>Percent</b>	100%	64.92%	9.01%	6.75%	6.00%	13.32%

### Mediastinal Compartments

The mediastinal compartments contain the vital organs in close proximity to each other. While the mediastinum has been traditionally divided into the anterior, middle and posterior rather arbitrarily, most tumors do not respect these boundaries. A new, more functional and anatomic location system is being used to better describe and delineate tumors [2]. This classification system is shown in Fig. (2) and describes three sections, the prevascular, visceral, and paravertebral compartments.

## SUBJECT INDEX

### A

- Abnormal 84, 125  
   eye moments 84  
   gene interactions 125
- Abnormalities 48, 53, 64, 65, 67, 84, 90, 99, 118, 121, 256, 257, 258, 279  
   cardiac 99  
   congenital 279  
   electrolyte 90, 118  
   metabolic 64, 121  
   neuro-endocrine 84
- ACE inhibitors 95
- Acid, glutamic 19
- Acidosis 18, 25, 66, 98, 99, 117, 118, 119, 120, 123, 124, 127, 144, 252  
   ischemia-related 252  
   metabolic 18, 98, 117, 118, 119, 120, 144
- Acute 1, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 83, 89, 123, 124, 130  
   chest syndrome (ACS) 1, 21, 23, 25, 26, 123, 124  
   cholecystitis 22  
   ischemia 21  
   lung injury 130  
   myelogenous leukemia (AML) 83, 89  
   respiratory distress syndrome and acute lung injury 130
- Acyanotic CHD lesions 94
- Adenoidectomy 6, 15, 102, 147
- Adenotonsillar hypertrophy 27, 29
- Adenotonsillectomy 4, 17, 30
- ADHD medications 45
- Adrenocorticotropin hormone 88
- Adverse events 2, 5, 14, 78, 79, 196, 197, 205, 211, 212, 215, 218, 248  
   respiratory 2, 78, 248
- Agents 10, 19, 92, 145, 240, 247, 258, 283  
   antifibrinolytic 258  
   anti-inflammatory 19, 247  
   antitumor 92  
   infectious 283  
   inhalation 10, 240  
   residual inhalational 145
- Agranulocytosis 43
- Airway 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15, 18, 19, 42, 48, 51, 55, 86, 87, 121, 130, 133, 211, 212, 216, 274, 279, 287  
   devices 5, 9, 42, 55  
   edema 130  
   embryogenesis 279  
   endoscopic procedure 3  
   endoscopy 15  
   injuries 287  
   irritable 12  
   nasal 6  
   nasopharyngeal 19  
   obstruct distal 48  
   obstructive 15  
   oropharyngeal 51  
   trauma 18  
   upper respiratory tract 2
- Airway obstruction 2, 7, 8, 12, 13, 17, 19, 29, 30, 31, 87  
   and obstructive sleep apnea 13
- Alanine transaminase 239
- Allergic sensitization 8
- Alpha blockade, meticulous preoperative 289
- Alveolar 18, 279  
   mesenchyme 279  
   over-inflation 18
- Ambulatory surgery 49, 168
- AMM tumors 272
- Amyoplasia 284
- Anaesthesia 232, 279
- Anaphylactoid reaction 11
- Anemia 21, 23, 24, 123  
   aplastic 21, 123  
   hemolytic 21, 123  
   sickle cell 23, 24
- Anesthesia 5, 209  
   inhalation 5  
   medication template (AMT) 209

- Anesthesiologists 4, 92, 96, 111, 117, 140, 212, 213, 214, 223, 227, 230, 278
- Anesthetic(s) 5, 9, 17, 19, 31, 42, 45, 47, 62, 67, 81, 82, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 95, 96, 97, 98, 103, 112, 124, 140, 143, 149, 185, 213, 214, 216, 235, 244, 252, 253, 255, 260, 270, 274, 280, 282, 284, 285, 286, 287, 289
- care 19, 62, 216, 235, 244, 260, 274
- implications 81, 140, 149
- induction 5, 9, 17, 95, 115, 128, 246, 286
- inhaled 97, 240
- interventions 67, 92
- management 93, 95, 97, 98, 103, 252, 253, 270, 280, 282, 284, 286, 287
- medications 67
- plans 42, 90
- spinal 185
- techniques 92, 112, 124, 140
- triggering 143
- Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) 95
- Anomalies 93, 125, 273, 285
- anorectal 93
- chromosomal 125
- esophageal 273
- Anomalous left coronary artery 94
- Anterior 86, 174, 178, 179, 183, 270, 271, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 283
- horn cell disease 283
- mediastinal masses (AMMs) 86, 183, 270, 271, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278
- superior iliac spine (ASIS) 174, 178, 179
- Antibiotics 90, 101, 102, 206, 257
- anthracycline 90
- prophylactic 101, 206
- Anticonvulsant therapy 257
- Anti-epileptic drugs (AEDs) 121, 122
- Anti-inflammatory properties 132
- Anxiolysis 8
- Aortic stenosis 94, 102, 214
- Apert syndrome 27
- Apnea 1, 30, 59, 62, 63, 64, 65, 69, 77, 78, 79, 84, 147, 148
- hypopnea index (AHI) 1, 30
- Arrhythmias 28, 43, 44, 90, 92, 98, 99, 101, 103, 119, 142, 144, 240, 242, 245, 248, 249, 152, 275
- cardiac 28, 92, 119, 144, 240, 245, 249, 252
- ventricular 98
- Arthrogyposis 270, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287
- multiplex congenita (AMC) 270, 283, 284, 285, 286
- syndromes 283, 285, 287
- Aspartate transaminase 239
- Asperger's syndrome 42
- Assessment, hemodynamic 95
- Asthma 1, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 77, 78, 129, 130
- exercise-induced 7
- refractory near-fatal 130
- Astrocytoma 84
- Atelectasis 2, 8, 26, 49, 62, 77, 79, 127, 238, 245
- predisposes 238
- Athetosis 253
- Atrial septum defect 94
- Atrophy 238, 242
- myocardial 238
- spinal muscle 283
- Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) 42, 45, 46, 54, 55
- Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) 42, 43, 94, 99, 125
- Autoimmune diseases 85
- ## **B**
- Becker muscular dystrophy (BMD) 236, 237, 239, 240, 242
- Bilateral myringotomy tubes (BMT) 4, 5, 15, 18
- Bleomycin-induced pneumonitis (BIP) 91
- Blood 24, 25, 280
- gas analysis 280
- transfusions 24, 25
- Blood flows 66, 96,
- cerebral 66
- pulmonary 96
- systemic 96
- Blood pressure 241, 280, 290, 291
- diastolic 291
- lowering systolic 291
- Body mass index (BMI) 14, 77
- Bone marrow 81, 89, 197
- aspirations 81
- biopsies 197
- Bone necrosis 23
- Botulism toxins 67
- Brain 84, 251
- imaging 251

tumors 84  
 Bronchiectasis 48, 49  
 Bronchodilator treatment 12  
 Bronchogenic cyst 278  
 Bronchopulmonary dysplasia 59, 62, 63  
 Bronchoscopy 48, 102, 274, 278  
 Bronchospasm 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 18,  
 77  
 Butyrylcholinesterase 140

## C

Calcium dysregulation 141  
 Cancer, pediatric 80  
 Cardiac 18, 94, 241, 252  
   depressants 252  
   disease 94  
   post-surgical correction dysrhythmia 18  
   protection 241  
 Cardiomyocytes 90  
 Cardiomyopathy 214, 238, 239, 242, 243, 245,  
 285  
 Cardiovascular 123, 124, 214  
   acute chest syndrome 123  
   arrests 214  
   disease 124  
 Catecholamine(s) 46, 128, 270, 271, 288, 290,  
 292  
   epinephrine 288  
   stores 46  
   synthesis 290  
 Cell lysis 141  
 Central nervous system (CNS) 80, 81, 84,  
 155, 157, 243, 254, 284, 285  
 Cerebral 61, 65, 66, 67, 69, 123, 124, 235,  
 236, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 259, 260  
   blood flow (CBF) 66, 67  
   palsy (CP) 61, 65, 67, 69, 235, 236, 253,  
   254, 255, 256, 257, 259, 260  
   vascular accidents (CVA) 123, 124  
 Cervical 59, 84, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 92, 243  
   adenopathy 86  
   joint hypomobility 243  
   lymphadenopathy 86  
 Chemotherapy 59, 84, 86, 87, 88, 89, 92  
   anthracycline 90  
 Childhood 77, 80, 83  
   leukemias 83  
   malignancies 80  
   obesity 77

Cholecystectomy 22, 172  
 Cholelithiasis 123  
 Choroid plexus carcinomas 84  
 Chronic 6, 78, 123  
   disease 6  
   kidney disease 78, 123  
   myeloid leukemias (CML) 83  
 Computerized tomography (CT) 16, 65, 81,  
 251, 271, 273, 275, 276, 280, 289  
 Congenital 270, 271, 278, 279, 280, 282  
   cystic adenomatoid malformation (CCAM)  
   278  
   pulmonary airway malformation (CPAM)  
   270, 271, 278, 279, 280, 282  
 Congestive heart failure (CHF) 21, 24, 62, 90,  
 95, 98, 99, 123, 126, 127, 290  
 Conjunctival congestion 83  
 Consumption, metabolic 134  
 Corneal abrasion 257  
 Coronary artery 77, 224  
   aneurysms 224  
   disease 77  
 Coronary perfusion 127  
 Corticosteroids, chronic systemic 9  
 Cough 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 21, 48, 223, 238  
   dry nocturnal 7  
 Coughing 2, 7, 9, 31, 49, 52, 232, 238  
 COVID-19 infection 224  
 Cranial neuropathies 88  
 Craniofacial malformation 285  
 Craniopharyngiomas 84, 88  
 Craniosynostosis 285  
 Creatinine kinase 144  
 Crouzon syndrome 27  
 Cyanosis 63, 96, 98, 133, 277  
 Cyanotic heart disease 98  
 Cystic fibrosis 42, 47, 48, 49, 54, 55

## D

Data safety monitoring board (DSMB) 202  
 Defects 14, 15, 48, 60, 94, 96, 99, 140, 249,  
 251  
   associated congenital 60  
   atrioventricular canal 14  
   atrioventricular septal 14, 15, 94  
   endocardial cushion 99  
   non-reversible obstructive 48  
 Diabetes 72, 73, 78, 125, 250  
   maternal 125

- Diabetes mellitus 48, 59, 116, 249, 252, 283  
 cystic fibrosis-related 48
- Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) 73, 77, 111, 117, 118, 120, 135
- Diagnostic tests for mitochondrial myopathies 251
- Dilated cardiomyopathy 90
- Disease 23, 25, 28, 47, 48, 50, 85, 123, 130, 132, 146, 230, 238, 239, 243, 244, 249, 250, 251, 259, 283, 292  
 kidney 146  
 maternal 283  
 metastatic 292  
 multisystem 243, 251  
 obstructive 130  
 spastic 259  
 systemic 123
- Disorders 19, 27, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 49, 53, 59, 61, 67, 69, 111, 112, 123, 140, 149, 235, 239, 242, 243, 247, 250  
 autism spectrum 42, 43  
 autosomal dominant inherited 243  
 autosomal recessive 47, 123  
 congenital 61, 111, 112  
 glycolytic 250  
 hereditary skin 49  
 lymphoproliferative 53  
 neurodevelopmental 43  
 obsessive-compulsive 239  
 pediatric genetic 140, 149
- Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC) 69, 83, 224
- Distress 4, 21, 42, 44, 47, 83, 91, 92, 129, 133, 157, 198, 279, 280  
 reducing 47  
 respiratory 21, 83, 91, 129, 133, 279, 280
- Disturbances 66, 84, 116  
 electrolyte 116  
 endocrine 84  
 hemodynamic 66
- Dizziness 160, 289
- DMD 237, 239  
 and reduced dystrophin 239  
 -associated dilated cardiomyopathy 237
- Double-outlet right ventricle (DORV) 94, 100
- Down syndrome (DS) 1, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 27, 83  
 disintegrative disorder (DSDD) 14
- Drug(s) 64, 67, 70, 72, 78, 79, 80, 89, 90, 92, 95, 127, 155, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161  
 anti-inflammatory 161  
 chemotherapy 80  
 metabolism 78  
 protein-bound 155  
 vasodilating 127
- Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242
- Dysfunction 22, 53, 84, 88, 89, 90, 95, 98, 117, 119, 238, 246, 253, 254  
 autonomic 254  
 cardiac 95  
 cerebral 84  
 diastolic 22  
 endocrine 90, 246  
 hepatic 89  
 metabolic 117  
 mitochondrial 119  
 neuroendocrine 88  
 neurological 253
- Dyspnea 6, 21, 90, 91, 101, 224, 238, 247, 275
- Dysrhythmias 98
- Dystrophia myotonica (DM) 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249  
 protein kinase 244
- ## E
- Echocardiography 49, 87, 95, 99, 277
- Eczema 7
- Eisenmenger syndrome 94, 98, 126
- Electrocardiogram 15, 78, 251
- Electrocardiograph 280
- Electromyography 251, 284
- Electronic anesthetic record 212
- Electron microscopy 251
- Embryogenesis 254
- Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy (EDMD) 236, 242
- Emery-Dreifuss syndrome 243
- Emphysema 48, 62  
 pulmonary interstitial 62
- Empiric 114  
 antimicrobials 114  
 broad-spectrum antimicrobial therapy 114
- Encephalitis 232
- Encephalopathy 250
- Enzyme 46, 92, 147, 251, 290  
 antioxidant 251  
 cytochrome P450 147



deficiency 251  
   recombinant urate oxidase 92  
   tyrosine hydroxylase 290  
 Epidermolysis Bullosa (EB) 42, 49, 50, 51, 54, 55  
 Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) 85  
 Equipment dysfunction 213  
 ERAS pathways 168  
 Erythrocytosis 78

**F**

Factors, tumor necrosis 28  
 Failure 83, 98, 115, 119, 121, 128, 129, 130, 198, 207, 208, 210, 238, 241, 244, 270, 279  
   bone marrow 83  
   cardiac 98  
   myocardial 119  
   respiratory 98, 115, 129, 130, 131, 238, 241, 244  
 Fanconi syndrome 83  
 Fat embolism 21  
 Fatty acids 119  
 Feeding tubes, percutaneous gastrostomy 239  
 Femoral 14, 173, 175, 176, 177, 256  
   epiphysis 14  
   nerve block (FNB) 173, 175, 176, 177  
   osteotomies 256  
 Fiberoptic 51, 52  
   bronchoscope 51  
   bronchoscopy 51, 52  
 Focal neurologic deficits 84  
 Foot deformities 14  
 Forced vital capacity (FVC) 8, 63, 241, 247  
 Function 15, 21, 28, 48, 49, 67, 77, 95, 112, 129, 201, 215, 241, 252, 256, 274, 276, 285, 290  
   cognitive 112  
   confirming normal renal 77  
   hypothalamic 256  
   mitochondrial 252  
   pulmonary 48, 49, 98, 241, 276  
   respiratory 129, 241, 285  
   systolic 21

**G**

Gastrointestinal 15, 22, 42, 48, 55, 123, 243, 250, 255  
   abnormalities 15  
   dysmotility 250  
 Gastrostomy 255  
 Genetic defects 140, 249, 250  
 Glioblastoma 84  
 Global initiative for children's surgery (GICS) 214  
 Gum disease 50

**H**

Haemophilus influenzae 47  
 Hallucinations 160  
 Heart 93, 94, 98, 118, 135  
   failure 98, 118, 135  
   lesions 93, 94  
*Helicobacter pylori*-gastritis 85  
 Hemoglobin 1, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 97, 123, 255, 258  
   abnormal hemoglobin gene variants 20  
   higher-than-expected 255  
   tetramers form polymers 123  
 Hemolysis 20, 22  
   intravascular 20  
 Hemostasis 42, 54, 67  
 Hepatic enzyme systems 155  
 Hepatotoxicity 144  
 Hereditary association 288  
 High reliability organizations (HROs) 207, 208, 218  
 Hirschsprung's disease 15  
 Hodgkin's lymphomas (HL) 85, 86  
 Horner's syndrome 167  
 Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) 85  
 Hypercapnia 28, 29, 48, 101, 245, 247, 248  
 Hyperechoic rectus sheath 169  
 Hyperhydration 92  
 Hyperkalemia 92, 119, 142, 144, 214, 240, 243, 252  
   transfusion-related 214  
 Hyperkalemia reaction 144  
 Hyper-leukocytosis 89  
 Hyperlipidemia 77  
 Hyperphosphatemia 92

Hypertension 15, 46, 66, 77, 78, 98, 128, 211, 288, 291, 292  
 pulmonary arterial 15, 98  
 systemic 77, 78, 128  
 Hypertriglyceridemia 119  
 Hypocalcemia 92  
 Hypokalemia 90  
 Hypomagnesemia 90  
 Hypoplasia 13, 27, 29  
 mandibular 13  
 Hypoplastic left heart syndrome (HLHS) 94, 100, 101, 125, 128  
 Hypotension 17, 20, 25, 43, 46, 66, 69, 98, 113, 118, 119, 288, 289, 291, 292  
 orthostatic 289  
 systemic 98  
 Hypothermia 25, 74, 124, 236, 244, 256, 258, 259  
 Hypothyroidism 15, 17, 53  
 Hypoventilation 15, 77, 79, 97, 124, 245  
 alveolar 97, 245  
 Hypovolemia 25, 73, 214, 252  
 Hysterectomy 172

**I**

Impaired glucose tolerance 78  
 Impairment 21, 119  
 metabolic 119  
 neurocognitive 21  
 Infections 1, 2, 8, 20, 22, 23, 26, 49, 80, 83, 85, 89, 101, 112, 113, 117, 119, 123, 128, 129, 228  
 fungal 89  
 healthcare worker 228  
 life-threatening 101  
 nosocomial 49  
 pulmonary 8  
 upper respiratory tract 1, 2  
 urinary tract 123  
 Infectious disease 112  
 Infective endocarditis infection 102  
 Infertility 245  
 Infiltration by local anesthetic 244  
 Inflammation 2, 6, 28, 117, 131, 132, 224, 281  
 alveolar 132  
 chronic low-grade 28  
 mucosal 2  
 pulmonary 131  
 Inflammatory 20, 113, 154, 251

cytokines 20, 113, 154  
 myopathies 251  
 Infra-diaphragmatic disease 86  
 Infusion 71, 74, 76, 111, 120, 158, 159, 291  
 insulin intravenous 74  
 intravenous bolus 159  
 syndrome 111  
 Inguinal hernia repairs 168, 174  
 Inhalational 5, 9, 18, 45, 51, 96, 280  
 induction 5, 9, 18, 45, 51, 96  
 mask induction 280  
 Inhaled nitric oxide (INO) 100, 132  
 Inherited hemoglobinopathy 19  
 Inhibitors 95, 100, 122, 241  
 angiotensin-converting enzyme 241  
 phosphodiesterase 100  
 Instability 46, 61, 257  
 cardiovascular 46, 61  
 Insulin 75,  
 sensitivity factor (ISF) 75  
 therapy 75  
 International league against epilepsy (ILAE)  
 121  
 Interstitial pneumonitis 91  
 Ischemia 100, 257  
 myocardial 100  
 retinal 257

**K**

Kawasaki disease 224  
 Kearns-Sayre syndrome 250  
 Ketogenesis 117  
 Kyphoscoliosis 258

**L**

Lactate dehydrogenase 239  
 Lactic acidosis 119, 236, 250, 253  
 Laryngeal mask airway (LMA) 1, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 18, 51, 52, 243, 287  
 Laryngomalacia 3, 13  
 Laryngotracheoplasty 17  
 Lesions, congenital cardiac 14, 19  
 Leukemias, chronic myeloid 83  
 Leukopenia 223  
 Leukostasis 89  
 Limb-girdle muscular dystrophies (LGMD)  
 242

Liver 23, 82, 246  
  dysfunction 82  
  enzymes 23, 246  
Liver disease 78  
  pediatric non-alcoholic fatty 78  
Lung disease 63, 69, 255  
  aspiration-associated 255  
  developing chronic 63  
Lung isolation techniques 282  
Lymphadenopathy 83  
Lymphomas 59, 80, 85, 86, 88, 90, 271, 272,  
  273, 275  
  triggering splenic 85

**M**

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) 16, 18,  
  21, 44, 62, 65, 74, 81, 170, 284, 289  
Malabsorption 43, 69  
Malignant 81, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145,  
  211, 240, 241, 242, 243, 246, 252, 286,  
  287  
  
  hyperthermia (MH) 140, 141, 142, 143,  
    144, 145, 211, 240, 241, 242, 243, 246,  
    252, 286, 287  
  melanomas 81  
Malignant hyperthermia 142, 143, 146, 240  
  association (MHAUS) 142, 240  
  management 143  
  testing 146  
  treatment algorithm 143  
Management of bronchospasm 10, 77  
Mean arterial pressure (MAP) 66, 113  
Medication errors and equipment dysfunction  
  213  
Medications 7, 11, 43, 44, 45, 46, 67, 72, 74,  
  95, 96, 98, 115, 155, 147, 196, 216, 224,  
  256  
  analgesic 155, 216  
  anticonvulsant 256  
  antispasmodic 67  
  cardiac 95  
  diuretic 98  
Mitochondrial 250  
  DNA 250  
  neurogastrointestinal encephalopathy 250  
Motor function 236, 237, 255

Mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue (MALT)  
  85  
Mucositis 86  
Multimodal 49, 162  
  analgesia 49  
  perioperative care pathways 162  
Multiple sclerosis 283  
Muscles 144, 164, 165, 166, 238, 240, 245,  
  275  
  cardiac 144, 275  
  dystrophic 240  
  oropharyngeal 238  
  sternocleidomastoid 164, 165, 166, 245  
Mutations 19, 20, 47, 50, 81, 141, 146, 239,  
  242, 249  
  disease-causing 239  
  sickle beta thalassemia 20  
Myelodysplastic diseases 81  
Myocardial 22, 88, 90, 99, 116, 118, 128  
  contractility 128  
  dysfunction 88, 90  
  function 99, 116  
  infarction 22, 118  
Myocarditis 90  
Myoglobinuria 119, 240, 250, 251

**N**

Nausea 82, 89, 90, 158, 239  
Necrosis 119, 131, 239  
  muscle fiber 239  
  myocyte 119  
Necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC) 62, 68, 69  
Neoplasms 81  
  endothelial 81  
  malignant epithelial 81  
Nerve 46, 154, 169, 175, 176, 178, 179, 180,  
  181, 182, 183, 257  
  damage 154  
  medial femoral cutaneous 176  
  medial retinacular 176  
  presynaptic 46  
Neurofibromatosis 84, 288  
Neurological 24, 122  
  activity 122  
  deficits 24  
  derangements 249  
Neurologic disease 120  
Neuromuscular 27, 235, 236  
  diseases 235

disorders 27, 235  
 spine fusion 236  
 Neurons 155, 157, 273  
 postsynaptic 157  
 somatosensory 154  
 Neurosurgery 24  
 Neurotoxicity 184  
 Nociceptive pathways 153, 157  
 Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) 78  
 Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis 78  
 Non-cardiac surgical procedures 94  
 Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas (NHL) 85  
 Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs  
 (NSAIDs) 19, 31, 54, 71, 148, 159, 161  
 Noonan syndrome 145  
 North American malignant hyperthermia  
 registry (NAMHR) 143

**O**

Obesity-associated diseases 78  
 Opioids 19, 26, 30, 31, 71, 72, 140, 147, 148,  
 149, 153, 157, 158, 159, 162, 247, 248  
 analgesics 153  
 metabolism 149  
 popular semisynthetic 148  
 Oral 74, 133  
 anti-hyperglycemic medication 74  
 antihyperglycemic medications 74  
 tracheal intubation 133  
 Organ dysfunction 69, 85  
 Orthopedic procedures 239  
 Osteomyelitis 22, 123  
 Osteonecrosis 123  
 Oxidant pathways 91  
 Oxygen 27, 63, 68, 99, 101  
 saturations 27, 68, 101  
 therapy 63, 68, 99

**P**

Pain 20, 21, 80, 82, 84, 153, 154, 155, 156,  
 157, 159, 160, 162, 180, 185, 215, 245,  
 256, 259, 260  
 inflammatory 154  
 ischemic 180  
 muscle 245  
 neurobiology 153  
 neuropathic 159, 160

pediatric 215  
 sensitivity 154  
 surgical 259  
 transduction 153, 160  
 Pancreatic endocrine function 48  
 Pathogens 113, 114, 227, 228  
 airborne 227  
 Pathology, respiratory 131  
 Pediatric 18, 93, 196  
 cardiac anesthesiologist 18  
 perioperative cardiac arrest 93, 196  
 regional anesthesia network (PRAN) 196  
 Pelvic hematoma 173  
 Perioperative 61, 93, 94, 98, 99, 116, 196,  
 212, 213, 259  
 cardiac arrest (POCA) 61, 93, 94, 99, 196,  
 212, 213  
 chest physiotherapy 259  
 hypoglycemia 116  
 hypoxemia 98  
 Pituitary adenomas 84  
 Polysomnography 29, 78  
 Positive 10, 62, 63, 70, 77, 79, 80, 87, 97, 101,  
 230, 274, 281  
 end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) 10, 70, 79,  
 87, 97, 101, 230, 281  
 pressure ventilation (PPV) 62, 63, 77, 80,  
 87, 101, 274  
 Post 10, 12, 64, 66, 124, 224, 229  
 -anesthesia care unit (PACU) 10, 12, 64,  
 124, 229  
 hemorrhage hydrocephalus (PHH) 66  
 -infectious immune dysregulation 224  
 Postoperative 64, 65, 69, 184, 228, 229, 252,  
 292  
 apnea 64, 65, 69, 184  
 hypoglycemia 292  
 nausea 252  
 Powered, air-purifying respiratory (PAPR)  
 228, 229  
 Pressure 66, 100, 126, 223, 230, 231  
 plateau 223, 230, 231  
 pulmonary 100, 126  
 systemic blood 66  
 Progression, extra-pulmonary disease 49  
 Progressive 243, 250, 287  
 degenerative disease 243  
 external ophthalmoplegia (PEO) 250  
 postoperative physiotherapy 287

Protein synthesis 53  
 Pseudocholinesterase 140, 146, 147, 149  
   activity 147  
   deficiency 140, 141, 146, 147, 149  
 Pseudohypertrophy 239  
*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 47  
 Pulmonary 15, 18, 19, 21, 48, 49, 77, 78, 91,  
   94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 125,  
   126, 127, 132  
   arterial hypertension (PAH) 15, 98, 99  
   artery pressure (PAP) 15, 99  
   blood flow (PBF) 94, 96, 97, 98, 100, 101,  
   125  
   fibrosis 91  
   hypertension (PH) 18, 19, 21, 48, 49, 77,  
   78, 95, 99, 100, 125, 126, 132  
   stenosis 94  
   vascular resistance (PVR) 60, 95, 96, 97,  
   98, 99, 100, 101, 126, 127  
 Pulmonary disease 47, 48, 88  
   chemotherapy-induced 88

**R**

Radiation 82, 84, 87, 89, 90, 277  
   -induced pericardial disease 90  
   therapy 81, 88, 89, 90  
 Rapid eye movement (REM) 28  
 Reactive 6, 9, 63, 249, 254  
   airway disease 6, 9, 63, 254  
   oxygen species 249  
 Recurrent 128, 250  
   laryngeal nerve (RLN) 128  
   rhabdomyolysis 250  
 Respiratory 5, 31, 70, 72, 79, 96, 99, 103, 141,  
   147, 158, 159, 161, 213, 245, 248, 252,  
   259  
   acidosis 141  
   complications 5, 31, 79, 99, 245, 259  
   depressant effects 31, 72, 248  
   depression 70, 96, 103, 147, 158, 159, 161,  
   213, 248, 252  
   distress syndrome (RDS) 60, 62, 63, 111,  
   131  
 Resuscitation, cardiopulmonary 64  
 Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain  
   reaction 225  
 Right ventricular hypertrophy (RVH) 22, 28,  
   125, 126

**S**

Scoliosis 14, 238, 239, 241, 257, 285  
 Secretions 47, 254  
   oral 254  
   reduced chloride 47  
 Sedating 46, 112  
   antihistamines 46  
   techniques 112  
 Sedative supplementation 71  
 Seizure disorders 15, 67, 84, 111, 122, 236,  
   254, 257  
 Shamrock technique 183  
 Sickle cell disease (SCD) 1, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23,  
   24, 25, 26, 123, 124  
 Sleep 1, 4, 27, 28, 29, 185, 237, 238  
   apnea 4, 238  
   -disordered breathing 1, 237  
   drug-induced 29  
 Snoring 3, 78  
 Society for pediatric anesthesia (SPA) 211,  
   217  
 Splenic sequestration crisis 22  
 Splenomegaly 83  
 Steinert's disease 244  
 Stress 26, 134, 153  
   surgical 20  
 SVC syndrome 274, 275  
 Syndromes 12, 13, 14, 16, 78, 83, 84, 91, 92,  
   93, 95, 112, 113, 119, 125, 224, 250,  
   270  
   arthrogryposis multiplex congenita 270  
   macrophage activation 224  
   metabolic 78  
   retinitis pigmentosa 250  
   systemic inflammatory response 112  
   tumor lysis 91, 92  
 Systemic ) 60, 96, 97, 98, 100, 101, 112, 115,  
   127  
   inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS)  
   112  
   organ perfusion 98  
   vascular resistance (SVR) 60, 96, 97, 98,  
   100, 101, 115, 127  
 Systems 45, 47, 77, 78, 90, 98, 115, 128, 205,  
   206, 209, 210, 224, 257, 272  
   anatomic location 272  
   cardiovascular 78, 90, 98  
   dysfunctional dopaminergic 45  
   genitourinary 47

immature calcium transport 128  
 sympathetic nervous 115  
 thermoregulatory 257

**T**

Therapies 47, 54, 59, 80, 82, 91, 114, 120, 135, 199, 241  
   broad-spectrum antimicrobial 114  
   glucocorticoid 241  
 Thermoregulatory 256  
 Thoracoscopic surgery 271  
 Thoracotomy 87, 128  
 Throat, sore 2, 10, 223  
 Thrombocytopenia 17, 83, 88, 232  
 Tissues, gastric mucosa-associated lymphoid 85  
 Tonsillectomies 15, 102, 148  
 Total parenteral nutrition (TPN) 68, 70, 86  
 Toxicities 89, 90, 91, 92, 148, 155, 291  
   myocardial 90  
   pulmonary 89, 91  
   renal 89  
   thiocyanate 291  
 Toxic shock syndrome 114  
 Toxoplasmosis 283  
 Tracheal stenosis 3, 63  
 Tracheobronchial tree 276  
 Tracheostomy 63, 238, 254, 287  
 Transesophageal echocardiography 102  
 Transfusion 24, 25, 88, 124, 258  
   -associated graft-versus-host disease 88  
 Transverse process 170, 171, 184, 273  
 Trauma 51, 53, 117, 119, 133  
   mucosal 51  
   surgeons 133  
 Treatment 8, 53, 54, 66, 67, 68, 71, 82, 85, 89, 90, 91, 92, 112, 113, 120, 121, 147, 259, 291  
   analgesic 71  
   bronchodilator nebulizer 8  
   codeine 147  
   fast-acting 291  
   immunosuppressive 85  
 Tumors 81, 84, 85, 86, 88, 90, 91, 272, 273, 274, 275, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292  
   germ cell 81, 84, 272  
   growing CNS 90  
   massive lymphoproliferative 91  
   metastatic 288

neuroectodermal 84  
 neuroendocrine 273, 287

**V**

Vasoconstriction 68, 132, 281, 290  
   pulmonary 132, 281  
 Vasodilation 20, 100, 113  
   pulmonary 100  
   systemic 113  
 Ventilated lung 281, 282  
 Ventriculostomy 66  
 Viral 6, 223, 226  
   filtration efficiency (VFE) 223, 226  
   infections 6  
 Virus 85, 223, 224, 225  
   human immunodeficiency 85  
   lymphotropic 85  
 Vitamin deficiency 48  
 Volatile anesthetics 70, 88, 97, 145, 240

**W**

Wheezing/reactive airway disease 3  
 WHO classification of lymphomas 85  
 Willebrand disease 42, 54, 55  
 Wound healing 75