

- FVL is resistant to inactivation by APC so thrombin generation is allowed to continue and subsequent clot formation.
- FVL paradox describes the higher prevalence of FVL in pts with DVT compared with FVL pts with pulmonary embolism.
- In CPB, FVL pts found to have less blood loss and need less blood transfusion during hospital stay.
- Testing in FVL is the same as other causes of thrombophilia: Venous thrombosis and age <50 y; unusual sites of thrombosis (hepatic, mesenteric, cerebral); recurrent venous thrombosis; venous thrombosis with strong history of thrombotic disease, venous thrombosis in pregnant women taking oral contraceptives, relatives of pts who had venous thrombosis <50 y, MI in female smokers <50 y.
- Screening test: Modified APC resistance functional assay (sensitivity and specificity for FVL close to 100%).
- Confirmation test: DNA test. In liver transplant pts, DNA test positive, plasma FVL negative. In bone marrow transplant pts, DNA test negative, but plasma shows APC resistance.

Etiology

- SNP 1691 G >A on factor V gene that predicts a single amino acid substitution Arg >Gln.
- The mutated factor V protein is resistant to inactivation by APC.

Usual Treatment

- Treat acute thrombosis event according to standard guidelines.

- Long-term anticoagulation not recommended for heterozygotes if no prior thrombosis.
- Prophylactic anticoagulation (heparin, warfarin) considered for high-risk clinical setting.
- Newer oral anticoagulants (dabigatran [Pradaxa], rivaroxaban [Xarelto], apixaban [Eliquis]) may be considered for prophylaxis.
- Consider minimizing other risk factors for VTE: Stopping oral contraceptives (progesterone) in women with VTE, encouraging obese pts to lose weight, and minimize extended travel.

Assessment Points				
System	Effect	Assessment by Hx	PE	Test
CNS	Cerebral vein thrombosis	Headache Abnormal vision Seizures	Stroke signs, weakness	CT/MRI with contrast
RESP	Pulm embolus	Chest pain Shortness of breath	Tachypnea	ABG, CXR, CT scan
HEME	Thrombosis	Pain at site of thrombosis		Prolonged aPTT, PTT
GU	Renal vein thrombosis	Flank or lower back pain	Hematuria, oliguria	Ultrasound, CT scan
MS	DVT most common Upper extremity thrombosis	Calf pain	Calf pain with DVT	Venography, compression ultrasound of legs
OB	Miscarriage Postpartum thrombosis	Bleeding, spotting		Ultrasound, FHR (Doppler)

Key References: Kujovich JL: Factor V Leiden thrombophilia, *Genet Med* 13(1):1–16, 2011; Van Cott EM, Khor B, Zehnder JL: Factor V Leiden, *Am J Hematol* 91(1):46–49, 2016.

Perioperative Implications

Preoperative Preparation

- Preop screening not recommended if asymptomatic.
- Anticoagulation should follow standard guidelines.
- In FVL heterozygotes, risk of bleed from warfarin is greater (1–3%) than risk of thrombosis (<1%).
- Avoid CVC if possible. FVL heterozygotes have twofold to threefold increase in CVC-related thrombosis.
- Sequential compression devices may decrease incidence of DVT.

- Consider consultation with hematology; may require temporary treatment with anticoagulation during periods of high-risk settings: surgery, cast, immobilization, pregnancy, etc.

Monitoring

- If arterial line indicated, use cautiously in homozygous pts.

Airway/Induction/Maintenance/Extubation

- No special precautions

Postoperative Period

- Standard anticoagulation protocols if no prior history of VTE

- Target INR 2.5 effective anticoagulation even in homozygous pts

Anticipated Problems/Concerns

- No need to alter periop management if asymptomatic.
- Confirmation test is a genetic test, so implications for pt and family members should be discussed.
- Aprotinin, an inhibitor of APC, has been used safely in FVL pts undergoing cardiac surgery without increased risk of thrombosis, although caution is often advised.

Familial Dysautonomia (Riley-Day Syndrome)

Thomas J. Ebert | Craig E. Cummings

Risk

- Autosomal recessive transmission
- Complete penetrance, marked variability in expression
- Predominantly affects Ashkenazi Jewish population (incidence 1:10,000–20,000; carrier frequency 1:27–32)

Perioperative Risks

- Intraop: Primarily cardiovascular with hemodynamic variability
- Postop: Primarily cyclic vomiting and pulmonary complications

Worry About

- Paroxysmal dysautonomic crisis triggered by physiologic or psychologic stress characterized by intractable vomiting, Htn, tachycardia, diaphoresis, erythematous macular rash

- Resp status compromised by dysfunctional swallowing, leading to repeated aspiration pneumonias, and restrictive lung disease secondary to scoliosis
- QTc prolongation and dysrhythmias, including bradycardia and asystole
- Insensitivity to hypoxemia and hypercarbia, including apnea to mild hypoxia
- Increased sensitivity to acetylcholine and catecholamines

Overview

- HSN type III
- Differentiated from other HSN types by profound autonomic dysfunction, Htn, orthostatic hypotension, and excessive or decreased sweating
- Characterized by recurrent pulmonary infections, esophageal dysmotility, spinal abnormalities, and thermal dysregulation
- High morbidity and mortality, with only 50% of newborns expected to reach age 40 y

Etiology

- Mutations of gene coding IKBKAP on chromosome 9q31
- Incomplete neuronal development and progressive neuronal degeneration in the peripheral and autonomic nervous systems
- Symptoms due to denervation of peripheral blood vessels and dysfunctional parasympathetic nervous system, baroreceptors, and chemoreceptors

Usual Treatment

- Dysautonomic crisis: Benzodiazepines are first-line therapy.
- Hemodynamic instability: Managed with hydration and direct-acting vasoactive therapies.

Assessment Points

System	Effect	Assessment by Hx	PE	Diagnostic Test
CV	Orthostatic hypotension QTc prolongation Arrhythmias	Dizziness, syncope Palpitations	Orthostatic vital signs	Autonomic function ECG
RESP	Pneumonia Bronchiectasis Restrictive lung disease	Pleuritic chest pain Productive cough SOB	Abnormal breath sounds, digital clubbing	CXR Pulm function
GI	Poor swallowing Aspiration pneumonia	Drooling, vomiting Paroxysmal crisis		Swallow study
GU	Dehydration Glomerulosclerosis	Nocturia, diaphoresis	Dry mucosa, skin turgor	BMP
CNS	Seizure Developmental delay	Seizure		EEG
MS	Scoliosis		Spinal curvature	Plain films

Key References: Ngai J, Kreymin I, Kim JT, et al.: Anesthesia management of familial dysautonomia, *Paediatr Anaesth* 16(6):611–620, 2006; Weingarten TN, Sprung J, Burgher AH: Perioperative management of familial dysautonomia: a systematic review, *Eur Jour Anaesth* 24(4):309–316, 2007.

Perioperative Implications

Preoperative Preparation

- Consider regional or neuraxial anesthesia as primary anesthetic or combined with general anesthesia to improve analgesia; poor thermal discrimination may affect assessment of blocks.
- Diminished laryngeal reflexes and dysphagia leading to abundant secretions: treat with antisialagogues.
- H₂ blockers can decrease gastric volume and acidity.
- Prevent dysautonomic crisis with anxiolytics; treat crisis with benzodiazepines or clonidine.
- Avoid medications that interact with the autonomic nervous system.
- Correct chronic dehydration secondary to dysphagia and emesis to reduce intraop hemodynamic instability. Maintenance requirements may be higher due to increased insensible losses from excessive sweating and drooling.
- Minimize narcotics as premedication because of the impaired ventilatory response to hypoxia and hypercarbia.
- Lines can often be placed without sedation given insensitivity to superficial pain.

Monitoring

- Standard monitors.
- Arterial line.
- Consider processed EEG monitor.
- Consider noninvasive cardiac output monitoring.

Induction

- Rapid sequence induction.
- Titrate induction agents carefully to minimize risk of hypotension.
- Use of nondepolarizing neuromuscular blocking drugs balanced against risk of postop hypotonia and unpredictable effect of reversal agents on the autonomic nervous system.
- Lubricate eyes to avoid corneal abrasions secondary to alacrima and corneal insensitivity.

Maintenance

- Consider mechanical ventilation with lung protective strategies, especially with restrictive lung disease.
- Consider total IV anesthesia.
- Titrate volatile anesthetic using processed EEG monitor plus minimum alveolar concentration to minimize autonomic compromise.
- Fluid management and judicious use of direct acting vasopressors and inotropes guided by noninvasive cardiac output monitoring.

- Aggressively treat blood loss.
- Vigilant temperature monitoring and correction.

Emergence

- Titrate analgesics for pain control.
- Spontaneous ventilation may be delayed. Chemo-receptor dysfunction makes PaCO₂ levels a poor trigger.
- Unpredictable response to reversal agents due to increased sensitivity to acetylcholine.
- Aggressive pulm toilet to decrease atelectasis and bronchiectasis.

Postoperative Care

- Multimodal analgesic regimen. Visceral and peritoneal sensations remain intact despite abolishment of peripheral pain sensation.
- Judicious use of opioids given abnormal ventilator response to hypoxia and hypercarbia.
- First-line treatment for cyclic vomiting with benzodiazepines.
- Optimization of resp function with assisted ventilation, deep suctioning, inhalational therapies, and chest physiotherapy.

Familial Periodic Paralysis

Oliver Bandschapp

Risk

- Rare; hyperPP approximately 1:200,000 and hypoPP approximately 1:100,000
- HyperPP with childhood onset; hypoPP with teenage onset

Perioperative Risks

- In hyperPP, succinylcholine may provoke severe myotonia, provide no relaxation, and cause hyperkalemia (resulting postop muscle weakness over days and rhythm disturbances).
- HypoPP associated with supraventricular or conduction defect-type cardiac arrhythmias; weakness may be enhanced by β -adrenergic blocking drugs, and postop resp muscle weakness may occur.
- Hypermetabolic crises (necessitating dantrolene use) reported in hypoPP pts.

Worry About

- Cold can trigger attack in both types of PP.
- K⁺ and glucose have opposite effects in the two disorders; in hyperPP, K⁺ triggers attacks and glucose is cure, whereas in hypoPP, glucose-induced hypokalemia triggers attacks and K⁺ is cure.

- Cardiac complications (dysrhythmias) due to severe dyskalemia during attack.
- Respiratory insufficiency during attack.

Overview

- Channel defects in the sarcolemma lead to aberrant depolarization in the presence of dyskalemia, which inactivates sodium channels and renders muscle fibers inexcitable.
- Autosomal dominant conditions; hypoPP with reduced penetrance in females.
- HyperPP with frequent (daily) episodic attacks for minutes (to hours); episodes of weakness generalized, rarely bulbar and resp muscles involved in severe paralysis; hyperkalemia (in approximately 50%) during attacks; triggered by K⁺ intake, rest after exercise, or cold; often additional EMG myotonia.
- HypoPP with less frequent but more severe episodic attacks for hours (to days); weakness may be focal or generalized, usually sparing facial and resp muscles; invariably hypokalemia during episode; triggered by carbohydrates, cold, stress, specific medications (e.g., β -agonists, corticosteroids, insulin); no myotonia.
- Fixed proximal weakness often develops with increasing age in both types.

Etiology

- HyperPP caused by mutations in the voltage-gated sodium channel Na_v1.4 gene (SCN4A). Mutant channels (inactivation defect) lead to persistent sodium influx and depolarization, muscle membrane becomes inexcitable.
- HypoPP either caused by mutations in the CAC-NAS gene (encodes α_{1S} -subunit of dihydropyridine receptor) (type 1 hypoPP) or in approximately 10% by mutations in the SCN4A gene (type 2 hypoPP). Introduction of new accessory ion conduction pathways independent of normal conduction pathways, leads to paradoxical membrane depolarization in low potassium conditions causing inexcitability.

Usual Treatment

- Both types: In case of prodrome keep moving
- HyperPP: Salbutamol spray, glucose, thiazide diuretics, or carbonic anhydrase inhibitors
- HypoPP: K⁺ salts, carbonic anhydrase inhibitors, or K⁺-sparing diuretics