



Recommendation for the practice of total intravenous anesthesia

Shinju Obara¹ · Kotoe Kamata² · Masakazu Nakao³ · Shigeki Yamaguchi⁴ · Shuya Kiyama⁵

Received: 22 April 2024 / Accepted: 16 August 2024 / Published online: 1 September 2024

© The Author(s) under exclusive licence to Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists 2024

Abstract

This Recommendation was developed by the Japanese Society of Intravenous Anesthesia Recommendation Making Working Group (JSIVA-WG) to promote the safe and effective practice of total intravenous anesthesia (TIVA), tailored to the current situation in Japan. It presents a policy validated by the members of JSIVA-WG and a review committee for practical anesthesia management. Anesthesiologists should acquire and maintain the necessary knowledge and skills to be able to administer TIVA properly. A secure venous access is critically important for TIVA. To visualize and understand the pharmacokinetics of intravenous anesthetics, use of real-time pharmacokinetic simulations is strongly recommended. Syringe pumps are essential for the infusion of intravenous anesthetics, which should be prepared according to the rules of each individual anesthesia department, particularly with regard to dilution. Syringes should be clearly labeled with content and drug concentration. When managing TIVA, particularly with the use of muscle relaxants, monitoring processed electroencephalogram (EEG) is advisable. However, the depth of sedation/anesthesia must be assessed comprehensively using various parameters, rather than simply relying on a single EEG index. TIVA should be swiftly changed to an alternative method that includes inhalation anesthesia if necessary. Use of antagonists at emergence may be associated with re-sedation risk. Casual administration of antagonists and sending patients back to surgical wards without careful observation are not acceptable.

Keywords Total intravenous anesthesia · Recommendation · Japan

Abbreviations

TIVA	Total intravenous anesthesia	PD	Pharmacodynamics
JSIVA	Japanese Society of Intravenous Anesthesia	TCI	Target-controlled infusion
JSIVA-WG	The Japanese Society of Intravenous Anesthesia Recommendation Making Working Group	CSHT	Context-sensitive half-time
		CSDT	Context-sensitive decrement time
		AAGA	Accidental awareness during general anesthesia
JSA	Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists	PRIS	Propofol infusion syndrome
PONV	Postoperative nausea and vomiting	pEEG	Processed electroencephalogram monitor
PK	Pharmacokinetics	BIS	Bispectral index

✉ Shinju Obara
obashin99@gmail.com

Kotoe Kamata
macaroon@nifty.com

Masakazu Nakao
masa.nakao@nifty.ne.jp

Shigeki Yamaguchi
shigeki@dokkyomed.ac.jp

Shuya Kiyama
byg07622@nifty.com

¹ Department of Anesthesiology, Fukushima Medical University Hospital, 1 Hikarigaoka, Fukushima, Fukushima 960-1295, Japan

² Department of Anesthesiology and Perioperative Medicine, Tohoku University School of Medicine, 2-1 Seiryō-Machi, Aoba-Ku, Sendai, Miyagi 980-8575, Japan

³ Department of Anesthesiology, Shimura Hospital, 3-13 Funairi-Machi, Naka-Ku, Hiroshima, Hiroshima 730-0841, Japan

⁴ Department of Anesthesiology, School of Medicine, Dokkyo Medical University, 880 Kitakobayashi, Mibu, Tochigi 321-0293, Japan

⁵ Department of Anesthesiology, The Jikei University School of Medicine, Nishi-Shimbashi, 3-25-8, Minato, Tokyo 105-8461, Japan

PSI	Patient state index
SQI	Signal quality index
SR	Suppression ratio
EMG	Electromyography
DSA	Density spectral array
PPOU	Persistent postoperative opioid use
NMBA	Neuromuscular blocking agents

Introduction

As of 2024, total intravenous anesthesia (TIVA) is a widely used method of administering anesthesia, and is taught and practiced in many institutions. Numerous publications, including textbooks on TIVA techniques have been published, and new knowledge continues to expand through clinical research and case reports. However, guidelines or specific information produced by academic groups regarding practice of TIVA are not yet available in Japan. Therefore, the Japanese Society of Intravenous Anesthesia (JSIVA) herein presents a Recommendation on TIVA practice, with an aim to provide information for appropriate clinical decision-making when administering TIVA.

Based on the diverse TIVA methods used across institutions and by individual anesthesiologists, as well as previously limited published clinical evidence, the Japanese Society of Intravenous Anesthesia Recommendation Making Working Group (JSIVA-WG) and its review committee have developed this Recommendation to outline appropriate policies for TIVA practice.

It is recommended to refer to the drug information provided in the package inserts and the guidelines established by the Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists (JSA) when performing anesthesia practices, including TIVA.

Recommendation

1. Anesthesiologists should receive continuing education on TIVA, and acquire necessary knowledge and skills for safe practice.

Explanation:

While TIVA is widely utilized, inadequate proficiency in equipment operation and lack of basic pharmacological knowledge may cause severe complications such as intraoperative awareness [1]. Accurate knowledge and skills are essential to administer TIVA safely. Previous TIVA guidelines [2, 3] also emphasize the importance of education.

TIVA can be taught via on-the-job training, systematic lectures at educational institutions, and practical courses offered by academic societies and research groups. For example, the JSIVA has been providing hands-on lectures at its annual meetings since 2017.

This Recommendation does not specify the exact number of cases or duration required to be proficient in TIVA.

We recommend that practitioners possess the knowledge and skills listed in Table 1.

2. Ensure there is reliable venous access. Ideally, an entire route from a bag of fluid, three-way taps, intravenous tubing, and a venous catheter should be visible throughout the procedure. Monitoring infusion pump pressure and observation of drops falling through a chamber may help detect problems with a venous route.

Explanation:

In TIVA, drugs must be administered intravenously and PK simulations assume this to predict drug concentrations. If drug administration is interrupted, for example due to loose connections, kinked i.v. tubing, extravasation, or blockage of a catheter, it can lead to serious complications, such as intraoperative awareness and patient movement. Therefore, the entire route should, preferably, be visible, particularly with regard to connections and catheter insertion sites.

Intravenous anesthetics are commonly administered with an intravenous fluid serving as a carrier fluid. Thus, the carrier solution is desirable to be administered at a constant rate. When the fluid bag becomes empty, the infusion rate of intravenous anesthetic is significantly reduced and anesthetics can accumulate in the i.v. tubing. Upon resuming the carrier fluid infusion, concentrated anesthetics may be administered too quickly. To prevent this, always ensure that fluid drops are falling through the drip chamber, especially when adjusting the infusion rate manually with a clamp. When the carrier fluid is administered using an infusion pump, an air bubble detector can alert the attending anesthesiologist when the fluid bag has become empty. Additionally, monitoring infusion pressure can swiftly identify any blockages or kinks in the i.v. tubing.

3. Utilize real-time pharmacokinetic simulations whenever possible. If this is not feasible, gain experience with pharmacokinetic simulators specific to the anesthetics being used.

The plasma concentrations of anesthetics given in standard doses and clinical effects can be predicted to some extent. However, in reality, drug dosage needs to be adjusted in response to each patient's physiological status, as well as changing surgical stimuli. Information regarding the relationships between typical doses, plasma concentrations, and clinical effects may not be directly applicable in situations that deviate from standard circumstances, such as those illustrated in figures within drug information or literature.

Real-time PK simulation systems show the time course of plasma as well as the effect-site concentrations of

Table 1 Recommended knowledge and skills for practitioners of total intravenous anesthesia

Main items	Subitems	Action goals, etc
Understanding the clinical scenarios that favor the use of TIVA	Comparing TIVA with inhalational anesthesia	Detailing complications specific to inhalational anesthetics Outlining scenarios where TIVA is preferable over inhalational anesthesia [4] Elucidating the efficacy of TIVA in mitigating postoperative nausea and vomiting (PONV) [5, 6]
	PK simulations Plasma concentration and effect-site concentration	Conducting PK simulations to visualize plasma and effect-site concentrations during and after drug administration Explaining the difference between plasma and effect-site concentrations Explaining the concept of target-controlled infusion (TCI) Implementing TCI when the conditions allow Converting the effect-site concentrations of fentanyl and remifentanyl to each other [7] Transitioning from TIVA to postoperative analgesia using intravenous opioids If morphine is utilized, early administration is advisable due to the time lag to achieve maximum effect [8] Additionally, it is important to monitor for respiratory depression [9]
Grasping the significance of pharmacokinetics (PK) and pharmacodynamics (PD) in the context of TIVA	Transitional opioid	Explaining the variability in the predictions of plasma and effect-site concentrations by different PK models for the same anesthetic Selecting the optimal model for PK simulations for each patient Explaining how target plasma and effect-site concentrations can vary across different clinical scenarios Explaining the prediction accuracy of the Diprifusor system [10] Explaining that inputting ideal body weight may result in underdosing [11]
	Impact of patient characteristics on PK and PD: variations due to age, gender, and obesity	Explaining the differences between CSHT and CSDT Specifically, describing scenarios where CSHT is short, yet CSDT is prolonged Explaining the rationale for reducing anesthetic dosage per kilogram of body weight in obese patients, including its PK considerations Explaining the effects of decreased hepatic blood flow [12], changes in cardiac output [13], and hemodilution [14] Explaining the increased efficacy of propofol in the context of hypoalbuminemia
	TCI pump with Diprifusor system	
	Context-sensitive half-time (CSHT) and context-sensitive decrement time (CSDT)	
	Weight correction in obese patients	
	Changes in PK and PD in the same patient	
	Hypoalbuminemia [15]	

Table 1 (continued)

Main items	Subitems	Action goals, etc
Accidental awareness during general anesthesia (AAGA)	Pharmacodynamic interaction	<p>Explaining the concept of isobolograms and their application in assessing drug interactions</p> <p>Explaining the concept of the response surface model</p> <p>Performing TIVA with awareness of pharmacodynamic interactions between propofol and opioids</p> <p>Explaining the risk of accidental awareness in TIVA with propofol and opioids</p> <p>Performing TIVA with remimazolam and opioids, and explaining the precautions</p>
	Selected anesthetics that require a deep understanding of PK and PD	<p>Propofol [16–19]</p> <p>Remifentanyl [20–23]</p> <p>Remimazolam [24–28]</p> <p>Fentanyl [29–31]</p> <p>Ketamine [32]</p> <p>Dexmedetomidine [33, 34]</p>
	Epidemiology	<p>Explaining the risk factors for AAGA</p> <p>Explaining that AAGA can lead to post-traumatic stress disorder</p> <p>Explaining the importance of early detection and response to AAGA [1]</p>
Equipment used for TIVA		<p>Explaining the siphoning phenomenon</p> <p>Explaining the phenomenon in which it takes time for the pump flow rate to stabilize or the flow rate to fluctuate</p> <p>Understanding that the bolus administered using the priming button is not included in the total dose calculation</p> <p>Understanding that the only patient factor affecting the on-board PK model is weight</p> <p>Deciding to interrupt TIVA and convert to alternative anesthetic methods</p>
Troubleshooting	Propofol	<p>Assembling propofol pre-filled kits</p> <p>Managing vascular pain associated with propofol infusion [35]</p> <p>Possessing knowledge of propofol infusion syndrome (PRIS) [36], urine discoloration [37], and bacterial contamination</p> <p>Managing glottal closure (especially with supraglottic airway device use) [38, 39], the lead pipe phenomenon, and shivering</p> <p>Explaining the risks associated with extremely high dosing</p>
	Remifentanyl	<p>Being aware of the risk of obstructing an intravenous line when diluted at a high concentration</p>
	Remimazolam	<p>Explaining the risks associated with uniform antagonism</p>
	Ketamine	<p>Being aware of the risks of increased saliva and nightmares</p>
	Dexmedetomidine	<p>Being aware of the risks of elevated blood pressure and bradycardia</p>

Table 1 (continued)

Main items	Subitems	Action goals, etc
Processed electroencephalogram monitor (pEEG)		<p>Explaining the importance of monitoring raw brain waves [40]</p> <p>Explaining situations where pEEG presents abnormal values [41]</p> <p>Explaining parameters other than sedation indices including bispectral index (BIS) or patient state index (PSI), such as signal quality index (SQI), suppression ratio (SR), and electromyography (EMG)</p> <p>Interpreting density spectral array (DSA)</p> <p>Acute tolerance and hyperalgesia associated with opioid use [42]</p> <p>Chronic pain [42]</p> <p>Persistent postoperative opioid use (PPOU) [43, 44]</p> <p>Possible risk of postoperative neurocognitive impairment associated with oversedation [45]</p> <p>Multimodal anesthesia approach [46, 47]</p> <p>Opioid-sparing and opioid-free anesthesia [48]</p> <p>Effect of anesthesia choice on the prognosis of patients with malignant tumors [49, 50]</p> <p>Utility of TIVA in cardiac anesthesia [51]</p> <p>Expanded indications for intravenous anesthetics (e.g., remifentanyl in the intensive care setting)</p>
Knowledge update	Recent topics related to TIVA	

intravenous anesthetics based on medication history. The information of PK simulation may facilitate adjustment of dosage and/or timing of anesthetic administration. As of 2024, PK simulators integrated into an electronic anesthesia record are becoming more and more widely used, while numerous stand-alone applications are also available for smartphones and personal computers. It should be noted that the present Recommendation does not endorse any specific PK simulation software.

Even if real-time PK simulators are unavailable, gaining experience with such a PK simulator during TIVA anesthesia or training would be useful and well advised. Such experience is invaluable to gaining an understanding of how plasma and effect-site concentrations change with dose adjustments.

4. For continuous administration of intravenous anesthetics, infusion pumps are essential devices. These pumps should be regularly inspected by a clinical engineer, to make sure that they are in proper working order and batteries are fully charged.

Explanation:

Intravenous anesthetics are administered either as a single dose or a continuous infusion. For a continuous infusion, a syringe pump is necessary to ensure accurate flow rate. The present Recommendation does not endorse any specific pump model or brand. Adjusting flow manually, for example by clamp manipulation, is usually inaccurate and thus discouraged.

As syringe pumps are sophisticated medical devices, they are prone to unexpected failures. Regular maintenance and periodic inspections are essential. These tasks should be conducted by qualified personnel, typically in a clinical engineering department, to ensure the reliability of the equipment. The batteries of the syringe pumps should be fully charged to maintain pump operation in case of AC power outage, and to prevent interruptions of drug delivery.

5. Each facility or department should make its own guidelines for dilution of intravenous anesthetics and clear labeling of syringes, to aid in easy identification. Drugs should be prepared according to dilution instructions provided in the package insert.

Explanation:

In Japan, anesthesia has been provided by a wide variety of physicians with variable experience. To prevent accidental overdose or underdose, all anesthesiologists should prepare drugs based on a common local rule in each department. Anesthetic dosage errors represent a significant risk in the operating room, as highlighted by numerous studies [52]. As many anesthetics have a narrow therapeutic index

[53], which is the ratio between toxic dose and therapeutic dose, dilution errors can lead to either inadequate or excessive levels of anesthesia. Therefore, dilution of drugs should be standardized for patient safety. For easy identification of syringe contents, it is ideal to label both the syringes and the pumps clearly, using standardized labels with consistent placement. Safety protocols in each department should be regularly reviewed and renewed if necessary.

“Preventing medication errors in the perioperative setting: recommendations on drug syringe labels,” [54] by JSA also advocates the standardization of drug syringe labels. There is a concern that relying on color alone may actually discourage reading of labels, leading to potential misinterpretations of syringe contents [55].

6. When TIVA is maintained with propofol, use TCI if feasible.

Explanation:

Propofol can be administered either by manually adjusted or TCI. In the former, anesthesia is induced with a propofol bolus of 1–2.5 mg/kg, followed by maintenance infusion at a rate of 4–10 mg/kg/h, as detailed in the Guidelines for the Use of Anesthetics and Related Drugs, 3rd edition. [56] In TCI, a special syringe pump automatically adjusts the rate of infusion to attain and maintain the set target concentration. When both are feasible, TCI is favored as it is more user-friendly and contributes to safety.

Note: TCI systems that directly control effect-site concentrations are not currently available in Japan.

7. When managing TIVA, particularly with the use of muscle relaxants, the use of a processed EEG monitor is advisable. Comprehensive assessment should not only include the sedation level index, but also consider the accuracy of input signals, contamination of myoelectric activity, presence of flat EEG, and evaluation of EEG waveforms. It is crucial to ensure the maintenance of an optimal sedation level, taking into account individual patient characteristics and the varying degrees of surgical invasiveness.

Explanation:

In July 2014, JSA included conditional use of EEG monitors in the third revision of “Monitoring Guidelines for Safe Anesthesia” [57]. Assessment of sedation level using processed EEG monitors is a key component of contemporary anesthesia management. These monitors provide an index by analyzing EEG obtained from the patient’s forehead. Intraoperative EEG waves may be interfered by various factors [41]. Notably, the index of processed EEG is influenced by facial EMG, potentially leading to misjudgment of anesthesia level [58, 59]. NMBA

can artificially lower the processed EEG index; in addition, high-dose opioids lower EEG frequency [60]. Moreover, EEG signal complexity increases when sedatives with different mechanisms of action are co-administered [61, 62]. Cerebral blood flow, hypovolemia, hypoxemia, and hypothermia can also affect EEG monitoring.

8. TIVA should be changed to an alternative method including inhalation anesthesia, if necessary.

Explanation:

TIVA can be applied in most anesthesia cases, including those which require intraoperative neurophysiological monitoring such as motor evoked potentials. However, variability in patient's PK/PD or difficulties in accurate assessment of level of anesthesia may sometimes make it impractical to maintain with TIVA. Under those circumstances, anesthesiologists should consider an alternative method that includes inhalation anesthesia. For example, in patients with remimazolam tolerance, consider changing the primary anesthetic responsible for sedation to propofol or inhalation anesthetics [63–65].

This also applies when adverse reactions to intravenous anesthetics occur or equipment fails.

9. Use of antagonists is associated with risks of re-sedation and other side effects. Uniform reversal of anesthesia with antagonists is not recommended.

Explanation:

The effects of benzodiazepines (such as midazolam and remimazolam) can be antagonized by flumazenil. However, after the effect of flumazenil has worn off, re-sedation may occur [66], and re-respiratory depression might also occur. Moreover, in chronic users of benzodiazepines for epilepsy or other neurological disorders, convulsions may occur when flumazenil rapidly antagonizes the effects of benzodiazepines.

Naloxone may be administered to reverse residual ventilatory depression due to opioids (morphine, fentanyl, and remifentanyl). Acute reversal of opioid effects may lead to exacerbation of postoperative pain.

Therefore, antagonists should be administered carefully with awareness of their adverse effects and possibility of re-sedation. Administration of high dose of antagonists is not recommended. Antagonists should be given in small, divided dose, according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Acknowledgements We would like to express our gratitude to the board members of JSIVA for their valuable feedback on the initial Japanese version of this recommendation. We would like to thank the Scientific English Editing Section of Fukushima Medical University for their editing of this manuscript.

Author contributions SO and KK wrote the manuscript. MN, SY, and SK helped write the manuscript and revised the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final draft.

Funding The authors declare no funding for this manuscript.

Data availability Not applicable.

Declarations

Conflict of interest All authors report no conflicts of interest.

Ethical approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

References

1. Pandit JJ, Andrade J, Bogod DG, Hitchman JM, Jonker WR, Lucas N, Mackay JH, Nimmo AF, O'Connor K, O'Sullivan EP, Paul RG, Palmer JH, Plaat F, Radcliffe JJ, Sury MR, Torevell HE, Wang M, Hainsworth J, Cook TM. 5th National Audit Project (NAP5) on accidental awareness during general anaesthesia: summary of main findings and risk factors. *Br J Anaesth*. 2014;113:549–59.
2. Nimmo AF, Absalom AR, Bagshaw O, Biswas A, Cook TM, Costello A, Grimes S, Mulvey D, Shinde S, Whitehouse T, Wiles MD. Guidelines for the safe practice of total intravenous anaesthesia (TIVA): joint guidelines from the Association of Anaesthetists and the Society for Intravenous Anaesthesia. *Anaesthesia*. 2019;74:211–24.
3. Lai HC, Huang YH, Chen JY, Wong CS, Cheng KI, Shen CH, Wu ZF. Safe practice of total intravenous anesthesia with target-controlled infusion in Taiwan: a recommendation. *Asian J Anesthesiol*. 2021;59:123–34.
4. Schraag S, Pradelli L, Alsaleh AJO, Bellone M, Ghatti G, Chung TL, Westphal M, Rehberg S. Propofol vs. inhalational agents to maintain general anaesthesia in ambulatory and in-patient surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Anesthesiol*. 2018;18:162.
5. Herling SF, Dreijer B, Wrist Lam G, Thomsen T, Møller AM. Total intravenous anaesthesia versus inhalational anaesthesia for adults undergoing transabdominal robotic assisted laparoscopic surgery. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2017;4:Cd011387.
6. Gupta A, Stierer T, Zuckerman R, Sakima N, Parker SD, Fleisher LA. Comparison of recovery profile after ambulatory anesthesia with propofol, isoflurane, sevoflurane and desflurane: a systematic review. *Anesth Analg*. 2004;98:632–41.
7. Lang E, Kapila A, Shlugman D, Hoke JF, Sebel PS, Glass PS. Reduction of isoflurane minimal alveolar concentration by remifentanyl. *Anesthesiology*. 1996;85:721–8.
8. Muñoz HR, Guerrero ME, Brandes V, Cortínez LI. Effect of timing of morphine administration during remifentanyl-based anaesthesia on early recovery from anaesthesia and postoperative pain. *Br J Anaesth*. 2002;88:814–8.
9. Fletcher D, Pinaud M, Scherpereel P, Clyti N, Chauvin M. The efficacy of intravenous 0.15 versus 0.25 mg/kg intraoperative morphine for immediate postoperative analgesia after remifentanyl-based anesthesia for major surgery. *Anesth Analg*. 2000;90:666–71.
10. Swinhoe CF, Peacock JE, Glen JB, Reilly CS. Evaluation of the predictive performance of a 'Diprifusor' TCI system. *Anaesthesia*. 1998;53(Suppl 1):61–7.

11. Igarashi T, Nagata O, Iwakiri H, Ikeda M, Uezono S, Ozaki M [two cases of intraoperative awareness during intravenous anesthesia with propofol in morbidly obese patients]. *Masui*. 2002;51:1243–7.
12. Kakinohana M, Saitoh T, Kakinohana O, Okuda Y [a case of total intravenous anesthesia with propofol, fentanyl and ketamine for lateral segmentectomy of the liver under pringle maneuver]. *Masui*. 1999;48:523–7.
13. Keyl C, Trenk D, Laule S, Schuppe C, Staier K, Wiesenack C, Albiez G. Predicted and measured plasma propofol concentration and bispectral index during deep sedation in patients with impaired left ventricular function. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth*. 2009;23:182–7.
14. Takizawa E, Takizawa D, Hiraoka H, Saito S, Goto F. Disposition and pharmacodynamics of propofol during isovolaemic haemorrhage followed by crystalloid resuscitation in humans. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 2006;61:256–61.
15. Hiraoka H, Yamamoto K, Okano N, Morita T, Goto F, Horiuchi R. Changes in drug plasma concentrations of an extensively bound and highly extracted drug, propofol, in response to altered plasma binding. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2004;75:324–30.
16. Marsh B, White M, Morton N, Kenny GN. Pharmacokinetic model driven infusion of propofol in children. *Br J Anaesth*. 1991;67:41–8.
17. Schnider TW, Minto CF, Gambus PL, Andresen C, Goodale DB, Shafer SL, Youngs EJ. The influence of method of administration and covariates on the pharmacokinetics of propofol in adult volunteers. *Anesthesiology*. 1998;88:1170–82.
18. Schnider TW, Minto CF, Shafer SL, Gambus PL, Andresen C, Goodale DB, Youngs EJ. The influence of age on propofol pharmacodynamics. *Anesthesiology*. 1999;90:1502–16.
19. Elefeld DJ, Colin P, Absalom AR, Struys M. Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic model for propofol for broad application in anaesthesia and sedation. *Br J Anaesth*. 2018;120:942–59.
20. Minto CF, Schnider TW, Egan TD, Youngs E, Lemmens HJ, Gambus PL, Billard V, Hoke JF, Moore KH, Hermann DJ, Muir KT, Mandema JW, Shafer SL. Influence of age and gender on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of remifentanyl I. *Model Dev Anesthesiol*. 1997;86:10–23.
21. Minto CF, Schnider TW, Shafer SL. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of remifentanyl II. *Model Appl Anesthesiol*. 1997;86:24–33.
22. Elefeld DJ, Colin P, Absalom AR, Struys M. Target-controlled-infusion models for remifentanyl dosing consistent with approved recommendations. *Br J Anaesth*. 2020;125:483–91.
23. Kim TK, Obara S, Egan TD, Minto CF, La Colla L, Drover DR, Vuyk J, Mertens M. Disposition of remifentanyl in obesity: a new pharmacokinetic model incorporating the influence of body mass. *Anesthesiology*. 2017;126:1019–32.
24. Masui K, Stöhr T, Pesic M, Tonai T. A population pharmacokinetic model of remimazolam for general anesthesia and consideration of remimazolam dose in clinical practice. *J Anesth*. 2022;36:493–505.
25. Masui K, Hagihira S. Equilibration rate constant, k_{e0} , to determine effect-site concentration for the Masui remimazolam population pharmacokinetic model in general anesthesia patients. *J Anesth*. 2022;36:757–62.
26. Schüttler J, Eisenried A, Lerch M, Fechner J, Jeletzov C, Ihmsen H. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of remimazolam (CNS 7056) after continuous infusion in healthy male volunteers: part I. *Pharmacokinetic Clin Pharmacodyn Anesthesiol*. 2020;132:636–51.
27. Eisenried A, Schüttler J, Lerch M, Ihmsen H, Jeletzov C. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of remimazolam (CNS 7056) after continuous infusion in healthy male volunteers: part II. *Pharmacodyn Electroencephalogr Eff Anesthesiol*. 2020;132:652–66.
28. Doi M. Remimazolam. *JJSCA* (Japanese manuscript with English abstract). 2014;34:860–6.
29. Shafer SL, Varvel JR, Aziz N, Scott JC. Pharmacokinetics of fentanyl administered by computer-controlled infusion pump. *Anesthesiology*. 1990;73:1091–102.
30. Ginsberg B, Howell S, Glass PS, Margolis JO, Ross AK, Dear GL, Shafer SL. Pharmacokinetic model-driven infusion of fentanyl in children. *Anesthesiology*. 1996;85:1268–75.
31. Bae J, Kwon M, Lee YH, Lee EK, Choi BM, Noh GJ. An allometric pharmacokinetic model and minimum effective analgesic concentration of fentanyl in patients undergoing major abdominal surgery. *Br J Anaesth*. 2020;125:976–85.
32. Ihmsen H, Geisslinger G, Schüttler J. Stereoselective pharmacokinetics of ketamine: R(-)-ketamine inhibits the elimination of S(+)-ketamine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2001;70:431–8.
33. Dyck JB, Maze M, Haack C, Azarnoff DL, Vuorilehto L, Shafer SL. Computer-controlled infusion of intravenous dexmedetomidine hydrochloride in adult human volunteers. *Anesthesiology*. 1993;78:821–8.
34. Hannivoort LN, Elefeld DJ, Proost JH, Reijntjens KM, Absalom AR, Vereecke HE, Struys MM. Development of an optimized pharmacokinetic model of dexmedetomidine using target-controlled infusion in healthy volunteers. *Anesthesiology*. 2015;123:357–67.
35. Bakhtiari E, Mousavi SH, Gharavi FM. Pharmacological control of pain during propofol injection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol*. 2021;14:889–99.
36. Krajčová A, Waldauf P, Anděl M, Duška F. Propofol infusion syndrome: a structured review of experimental studies and 153 published case reports. *Critical Care* (London, England). 2015;19:398.
37. Masuda A, Hirota K, Satone T, Ito Y. Pink urine during propofol anesthesia. *Anesth Analg*. 1996;83:666–7.
38. Bennett JA, Abrams JT, Van Riper DF, Horrow JC. Difficult or impossible ventilation after sufentanil-induced anesthesia is caused primarily by vocal cord closure. *Anesthesiology*. 1997;87:1070–4.
39. Kondo T, Izumi H, Kuroda M, Kitagawa M. Two cases of progressive vocal cord closure during desflurane-remifentanyl anesthesia relieved after administration of propofol. *J Anesth*. 2013;27:791–2.
40. Purdon PL, Sampson A, Pavone KJ, Brown EN. Clinical electroencephalography for anesthesiologists: part I: background and basic signatures. *Anesthesiology*. 2015;123:937–60.
41. Dahaba AA. Different conditions that could result in the bispectral index indicating an incorrect hypnotic state. *Anesth Analg*. 2005;101:765–73.
42. Fletcher D, Martinez V. Opioid-induced hyperalgesia in patients after surgery: a systematic review and a meta-analysis. *Br J Anaesth*. 2014;112:991–1004.
43. Macintyre PE, Quinlan J, Levy N, Lobo DN. Current issues in the use of opioids for the management of postoperative pain: a review. *JAMA Surg*. 2022;157:158–66.
44. Adams TJ, Aljohani DM, Forget P. Perioperative opioids: a narrative review contextualising new avenues to improve prescribing. *Br J Anaesth*. 2023;130:709–18.
45. Evered LA, Chan MTV, Han R, Chu MHM, Cheng BP, Scott DA, Pryor KO, Sessler DI, Veselis R, Frampton C, Sumner M, Ayeni A, Myles PS, Campbell D, Leslie K, Short TG. Anaesthetic depth and delirium after major surgery: a randomised clinical trial. *Br J Anaesth*. 2021;127:704–12.
46. Egan TD, Svensen CH. Multimodal general anesthesia: a principled approach to producing the drug-induced. *Revers Coma Anesthesia Anesth Analg*. 2018;127:1104–6.

47. Lersch F, Correia PC, Hight D, Kaiser HA, Berger-Estilita J. The nuts and bolts of multimodal anaesthesia in the 21st century: a primer for clinicians. *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol*. 2023;36:666–75.
48. Edwards DA, Hedrick TL, Jayaram J, Argoff C, Gulur P, Holubar SD, Gan TJ, Mythen MG, Miller TE, Shaw AD, Thacker JKM, McEvoy MD. American society for enhanced recovery and perioperative quality initiative joint consensus statement on perioperative management of patients on preoperative opioid therapy. *Anesth Analg*. 2019;129:553–66.
49. Chang CY, Wu MY, Chien YJ, Su IM, Wang SC, Kao MC. Anesthesia and long-term oncological outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Anesth Analg*. 2021;132:623–34.
50. Yap A, Lopez-Olivo MA, Dubowitz J, Hiller J, Riedel B. Global Onco-Anesthesia Research Collaboration G. Anesthetic technique and cancer outcomes: a meta-analysis of total intravenous versus volatile anesthesia. *Can J Anaesth*. 2019;66:546–61.
51. Makkad B, Heinke TL, Kertai MD. Inhalational or total intravenous anesthetic for cardiac surgery: does the debate even exist? *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol*. 2022;35:18–35.
52. Suzuki R, Imai T, Sakai T, Tanabe K, Ohtsu F. Medication errors in the operating room: an analysis of contributing factors and related drugs in case reports from a Japanese medication error database. *J Patient Saf*. 2022;18:e496–502.
53. Obara S, Egan TD. Pharmacokinetic and Pharmacodynamic Principles for Intravenous Anesthetics. In: Hemmings HC, Egan TD, editors. *Pharmacology and physiology for anesthesia: foundations and clinical application*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier; 2019. p. 20–43.
54. Safety Committee of Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists. Preventing medication errors in the perioperative setting: recommendations on drug syringe labels. *J Anesth*. 2017;31:304–6.
55. Grissinger M, Litman RS. 2019 [updated 2019; cited 2024 3/12]; <https://www.apsf.org/wp-content/uploads/newsletters/2019/0105-ja/APSF0105-JA.pdf>.
56. Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists. Guidelines for the Use of Anesthetics and Related Drugs 3rd Edition. 2019 [updated 2019; cited]; https://anesth.or.jp/files/pdf/venous_medicine_20190905.pdf.
57. Japanese Society of Anesthesiologists. Standards and guidelines: monitoring during anesthesia (in Japanese). . 2019 [updated 2019; cited 2024 3/12]; https://anesth.or.jp/files/pdf/monitor3_20190509.pdf.
58. Vivien B, Di Maria S, Ouattara A, Langeron O, Coriat P, Riou B. Overestimation of bispectral index in sedated intensive care unit patients revealed by administration of muscle relaxant. *Anesthesiology*. 2003;99:9–17.
59. Schuller PJ, Newell S, Strickland PA, Barry JJ. Response of bispectral index to neuromuscular block in awake volunteers. *Br J Anaesth*. 2015;115(Suppl 1):i95–103.
60. Shafer SL, Varvel JR. Pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, and rational opioid selection. *Anesthesiology*. 1991;74:53–63.
61. Tsuda N, Hayashi K, Hagihira S, Sawa T. Ketamine, an NMDA-antagonist, increases the oscillatory frequencies of alpha-peaks on the electroencephalographic power spectrum. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand*. 2007;51:472–81.
62. Miyake W, Oda Y, Ikeda Y, Hagihira S, Iwaki H, Asada A. Electroencephalographic response following midazolam-induced general anesthesia: relationship to plasma and effect-site midazolam concentrations. *J Anesth*. 2010;24:386–93.
63. Yoshikawa H, Hosokawa M, Kashima Y, Oki S, Masui K. Remimazolam tolerance in long-term benzodiazepine users: a case report of 2 cases. *A&A practice*. 2021;15: e01460.
64. Miyanishi M, Yaguramaki T, Maehara Y, Nagata O. Three cases of difficulty in achieving definitive loss of consciousness with remimazolam. *JA clinical reports*. 2022;8:4.
65. Kida K, Taguchi M, Uchiyama K, Fujioka S, Tsubokawa T. Tolerance to remimazolam at a high effect-site concentration. *J Anesth*. 2023;37:168–9.
66. Masui K. Caution!! Reappearance of remimazolam effect after a flumazenil bolus: a larger bolus of flumazenil and a lower total remimazolam clearance are higher risks. *J Anesth*. 2023;37:1–5.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.