

INTERACTION BETWEEN BETAMETHASONE AND VECURONIUM

S. M. PARR, B. J. ROBINSON, D. REES AND D. C. GALLETTY

SUMMARY

A possible interaction between betamethasone and vecuronium was examined in 20 rat phrenic nerve-hemidiaphragm preparations. Ten preparations were bathed in a physiological solution with betamethasone $1 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ added and, after a 30-min period were exposed to vecuronium at concentrations of 4, 6, 8 and $10 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ with vecuronium free washings between each exposure. Ten control experiments were performed also using a betamethasone-free bathing solution. In comparison with control, the betamethasone group had significantly ($P = 0.0008$) less depression of muscle contraction (twitch) force at all concentrations of vecuronium. The calculated ED_{50} (50% depression of muscle contraction force) was $5.65 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ for controls and $7.39 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ for betamethasone-pretreated preparations. This study confirms our previous clinical observations that an interaction occurs between vecuronium and betamethasone which is characterized by resistance to neuromuscular block.

KEY WORDS

Interactions: betamethasone, vecuronium. Neuromuscular relaxants: vecuronium.

Steroids have been known for several years to facilitate neuromuscular function, and steroid induced resistance to competitive neuromuscular blocking drugs has been noted in three previous case reports [1-3]. Recently we reported two neurosurgical patients treated with betamethasone who had apparent resistance to vecuronium, and in a subsequent review of anaesthesia case records we found that patients treated with betamethasone required on average, 75% more

vecuronium than patients not treated [4]. In this study we have attempted to demonstrate an interaction between betamethasone and vecuronium in a rat phrenic nerve-hemidiaphragm preparation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Male Dark Agouti rats (8-10 weeks) weighing 150-200 g were killed by cervical dislocation. The right and left hemidiaphragms with accompanying phrenic nerves were dissected out, placed horizontal in individual Res-Del organ baths and bathed with a physiological solution (RS-1 mammalian solution) aerated with 5% carbon dioxide in oxygen [5]. The composition of the solution is summarized in table I.

The bathing temperature was maintained at $34.5 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ and the muscle stretched to a basal preload tension of 4 g. Each preparation was attached to an isometric force transducer inserted through the central tendon of the hemidiaphragm and was stimulated indirectly using suction electrodes attached to the phrenic nerve, with a continuous biphasic double pulse (12-ms pulse interval) square wave at a supramaximal voltage of 0.1 ms duration at 0.2 Hz. Short periods (30 s) of direct muscle stimulation (supramaximal monophasic stimulation at 5 Hz) were performed also using muscle electrodes to exclude any local action of betamethasone or vecuronium on the muscle. Contractions were recorded isometrically and displayed on a pen chart recorder.

S. M. PARR, B.M., F.C.ANAES.; B. J. ROBINSON, B.SC., M.SC.; D. C. GALLETTY, F.F.A.R.A.C.S., F.C.ANAES.; Section of Anaesthesia, Wellington School of Medicine, P.O. Box 7343, Wellington South, New Zealand; D. REES, B.SC., PH.D., School of Biological Sciences, Victoria University, Wellington, New Zealand. Accepted for Publication: March 21, 1991.

Correspondence to D. C. G.

TABLE 1. Solute composition and concentration of the physiological solution. BES = *N,N*-bis[2-hydroxyethyl]-2-aminoethanesulphonic acid

Na ⁺ 136.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	Glycerol 0.11 mmol litre ⁻¹
Cl ⁻ 118.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	L-Aspartate 0.02 mmol litre ⁻¹
K ⁺ 5.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	L-Glutamate 0.30 mmol litre ⁻¹
Ca ²⁺ 1.2 mmol litre ⁻¹	L-Glutamine 0.40 mmol litre ⁻¹
Mg ²⁺ 0.45 mmol litre ⁻¹	DL-Carnitine 0.05 mmol litre ⁻¹
HCO ₃ ⁻ 25.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	Choline 0.01 mmol litre ⁻¹
BES 5.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	Coccarboxylase (TTP) 0.043 mmol litre ⁻¹
D-Glucose 10.0 mmol litre ⁻¹	Insulin (porcine) 25 mIU litre ⁻¹

Where possible, the preparations were used in pairs from the same rat, in independently perfused double organ baths with equal numbers of left/right hemidiaphragms used for each group. The flow rate of the perfusate was 2 ml min⁻¹. At least 30 min was allowed for a steady state to be achieved; muscle contraction (twitch) force measurements produced by indirect and direct stimulation of preparations in the absence of steroid or neuromuscular blocker were recorded. One of the hemidiaphragm preparations was exposed to betamethasone 1 µmol litre⁻¹ for the duration of the investigation. All changes of perfusate solution commenced with a 40-ml flush (the volume of the organ bath) followed by perfusate 2 ml min⁻¹. Control and betamethasone treated preparations were exposed to vecuronium at concentrations of 4, 6, 8 and 10 µmol litre⁻¹. Muscle contraction force (both direct and indirect) was recorded 30 min after each change of perfusate containing vecuronium. Vecuronium-free solutions were used to wash the preparations until twitch height returned to control values, at which time the next vecuronium concentration was added.

To ensure that preparations had not deteriorated during the experimental period, data were not included in the analysis if the response to direct stimulation had decreased at the end of the experiment.

Statistics

Data from control and betamethasone groups were compared using analysis of covariance, with the dose of vecuronium as the covariate and terms for the control or betamethasone groups and for individual preparations within these groups. A test for difference in slope between the control group and betamethasone group was made by including a dose × group term in the model.

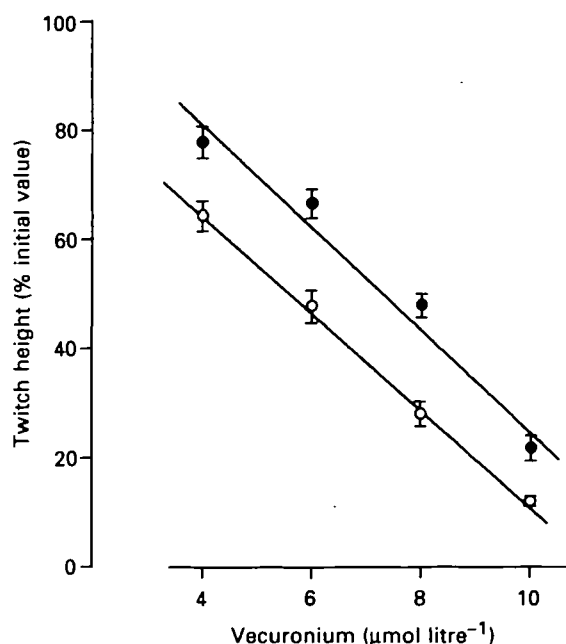


FIG. 1. Dose-response relationship for control (○) and betamethasone-pretreated (●) preparations (mean, SEM). The ED₅₀ for 50% depression of twitch height was 5.65 µmol litre⁻¹ for control and 7.39 µmol litre⁻¹ for betamethasone-pretreated preparations.

RESULTS

Satisfactory data were obtained from 20 hemidiaphragm preparations. Ten received betamethasone and 10 acted as control. No significant difference was observed in indirectly or directly stimulated mean twitch height before and after addition of betamethasone.

The slopes of the dose-response lines to vecuronium in control and betamethasone treated preparations were not significantly different ($P = 0.14$) (fig. 1). When a common slope was fitted, in

comparison with control, the betamethasone group showed significantly ($P = 0.0008$) less depression at all concentrations of vecuronium examined. The calculated ED_{50} for 50% depression of twitch height was $5.65 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ for controls and $7.39 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$ for betamethasone pretreated preparations. Thus the addition of betamethasone increased the ED_{50} for vecuronium by approximately 30%.

DISCUSSION

In 1944, Torda and Wolff demonstrated that neuronal synthesis of acetylcholine could be increased by prior administration of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) [6]. They demonstrated also that, in the absence of ACTH (hypophysectomized rats), there was reduced acetylcholine synthesis resulting in neuromuscular dysfunction, which was restored following administration of ACTH [7].

Recent case reports suggest that an interaction between corticosteroids and the neuromuscular junction may have clinical implications for the anaesthetist. There have been two case reports of partial recovery from pancuronium given in association with steroid therapy [1, 2] and a case of resistance to vecuronium in a patient receiving long-term testosterone [3]. Following two cases of unexpected movement during neurosurgery in patients receiving vecuronium and pretreated with betamethasone, we performed a retrospective review of 50 neurosurgical patients, examining the doses of vecuronium administered to patients with and without betamethasone pretreatment. Those data suggested that patients pretreated with betamethasone were resistant to the neuromuscular blocking properties of vecuronium and required, on average, 75% more blocking drug [4].

Animal studies that have examined the effects of tubocurarine in the presence of glucocorticoids have demonstrated resistance to the effects of the neuromuscular blocker in animals treated with prednisolone [8], dexamethasone [9], betamethasone [10] and triamcinolone [11, 12].

In this study we have demonstrated that the reduction in twitch tension caused by vecuronium was reduced considerably in the presence of betamethasone $1 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$. Although the mechanism of this interaction is not fully understood, previous work suggests several possible

sites where steroids may affect neuromuscular transmission:

(1) *Motor neurone*

Glucocorticoids have been shown to have a direct facilitatory effect at the impulse generating end of the motor nerve axon. In the cat, administration of large doses of methylprednisolone ($8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1} \text{ i.m.}$) for 1 week altered the electrical properties of spinal motor neurones and increased the excitability of the initial axon segment, the site of physiological impulse initiation [13].

(2) *The presynaptic nerve terminal*

Experimental work suggests that corticosteroids act presynaptically stimulating the synthesis, spontaneous release and stimulated release of acetylcholine.

(a) *Synthesis of acetylcholine.* The synthesis of acetylcholine is related directly to the supply of extraneural choline, which is transported by a sodium dependent carrier system located at the presynaptic membrane of the nerve terminal. Hemicholinium-3 is a presynaptic inhibitor of this carrier-mediated transport and virtually abolishes the synthesis of acetylcholine. Dexamethasone and prednisolone partially antagonize hemicholinium-3 [14] and increase acetylcholine synthesis *in vitro* by facilitating the uptake of choline and its subsequent incorporation into acetylcholine [15]. Electron micrographs of the neuromuscular junction support corticosteroid enhanced acetylcholine synthesis by revealing increases in the mean size of synaptic vesicles after incubation with prednisolone and dexamethasone [16].

(b) *Spontaneous release of acetylcholine.* Micromolar concentrations of prednisolone and dexamethasone have been shown to increase both the amplitude and frequency [17–19] of miniature end-plate potentials. These observations suggest that corticosteroids facilitate spontaneous release of acetylcholine.

(c) *Stimulated release of acetylcholine.* The application of small concentrations of prednisolone ($1 \mu\text{mol litre}^{-1}$) to the frog neuromuscular junction results in a doubling of nerve evoked end-plate currents. However, if prednisolone is added specifically to the end-plate via a micropipette,

such a response is not observed. This implies that stimulated release of acetylcholine may be augmented by corticosteroids acting at a presynaptic site [20].

(3) Postsynaptic nerve terminal

In the rat, large concentrations of prednisolone ($0.6 \text{ mmol litre}^{-1}$) have a depressant effect on neuromuscular transmission. However, dexamethasone counteracts the suppression of contraction caused by tubocurarine at small concentrations, but this effect is not observed when greater concentrations of steroid are used [9]. It has been suggested, therefore, that the presynaptic facilitatory effects of small concentrations of corticosteroids on acetylcholine release may be overcome by a greater postsynaptic depressant effect at large concentrations [21]. This may explain why some workers have failed to demonstrate any evidence of recovery from tubocurarine after administration of prednisolone [22].

The evidence suggests that the major site of the facilitatory actions of corticosteroids at the neuromuscular junction is prejunctional and it seems feasible that the attenuation of competitive neuromuscular block observed in our study is a consequence of steroid-induced enhancement of acetylcholine synthesis and release.

A prejunctional reduction in release of acetylcholine by vecuronium, in addition to postjunctional receptor block, has been reported using *in vitro* toad neuromuscular preparations [23]. However, conclusions made from *in vitro* neuromuscular preparations investigating presynaptic modulation are limited [24] and the presence of autoregulating presynaptic acetylcholine receptors at the motor end-plate area has been questioned [25]. Perhaps of more clinical relevance are the observations of Baker and his colleagues in anaesthetized cats. They reported a biphasic prejunctional effect of vecuronium; at small concentrations of vecuronium, acetylcholine release was increased, while at greater concentrations acetylcholine release was reduced [26]. This may indicate that vecuronium interacts with two distinct populations of presynaptic acetylcholine receptors [24] or that the *in situ* effects of cholinergic antagonists (or agonists) on neuromuscular transmission are mediated, in part, by the central nervous system [25]. Whether the interaction between vecuronium and betamethasone occurs at presynaptic cholinergic receptors has not been demonstrated in this

report, but it would be of interest to examine further the interaction at the neuromuscular junction between corticosteroids and other cholinergic agonists-antagonists in terms of pre- and postjunctional effects.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was supported by the Wellington Medical Research Foundation and the Wellington Anaesthesia Trust. We thank Mr G. Purdie for statistical advice.

REFERENCES

1. Meyers EF. Partial recovery from pancuronium neuromuscular blockade following hydrocortisone administration. *Anesthesiology* 1977; 46: 148-150.
2. Laffin MJ. Interaction of pancuronium and corticosteroids. *Anesthesiology* 1977; 47: 471-472.
3. Reddy P, Guzman A, Robalino J, Shevde K. Resistance to muscle relaxants in a patient receiving prolonged testosterone therapy. *Anesthesiology* 1989; 70: 871-873.
4. Parr SM, Galletly DC, Robinson BJ. Betamethasone induced resistance to vecuronium: a potential problem in neurosurgery? *Anaesthesia and Intensive Care* 1991; 19: 103-105.
5. Rees D. Consideration of the inorganic and organic composition of mammalian perfusion solutions. In: Doring MJ, Dehnert H, eds. *Isolated Perfused Organ Preparations*. March: Biomesstechnik-Verlag, 1989; 85-94.
6. Torda C, Wolff HG. Effect of adrenotrophic hormone of pituitary gland on ability of tissue to synthesize acetylcholine. *Proceedings of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine* 1944; 57: 137-139.
7. Torda C, Wolff HG. Effects of hypophysectomy and adrenocorticotrophic hormone on neuromuscular function and acetylcholine synthesis. *American Journal of Physiology* 1950; 161: 534-539.
8. Arts WF, Oosterhuis HJ. Effect of prednisolone on neuromuscular blocking in mice *in vivo*. *Neurology* 1975; 25: 1088-1090.
9. Leeuw RS, Veldsema-Currie RD, Van Wilenburgh H, Ottenhof M. Effects of corticosteroids on neuromuscular blocking actions of d-tubocurarine. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 1981; 69: 165-173.
10. Webb SN, Parker SG. Effect of corticosteroids on partially curarised skeletal muscle. *International Congress of Pharmacology* 1978; 7: 477.
11. Riker WF, Hall ED, Baker T. Glucocorticoid unmasking of an anti-curare action of curare. *Pharmacologist* 1977; 19: 197.
12. Hall ED. Glucocorticoid modification of the responsiveness of a fast (type 2) neuromuscular system to edrophonium and d-tubocurarine. *Experimental Neurology* 1980; 69: 349-358.
13. Hall ED. Glucocorticoid effects on the electrical properties of spinal motor neurons. *Brain Research* 1982; 240: 109-116.
14. Wolters EChMJ, Leeuw RS. Effects of corticosteroids on the phrenic nerve-diaphragm preparation treated with hemicholinium-3. *Neurology* 1976; 26: 574-578.
15. Veldsema-Currie RD, Wolters EChMJ, Leeuw RS.

- The effect of corticosteroids and hemicholinium-3 on choline uptake and incorporation into acetylcholine in rat diaphragm. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 1976; 35: 399–402.
16. Van Wilenburg H, Nijio KD, Belling GAC, Van Den Hoven S. Effects of corticosteroids on the myoneural junction. A morphometric and electrophysiological study. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 1982; 84: 129–137.
17. Van Wilenburg H. The effect of prednisolone on neuromuscular transmission in the rat diaphragm. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 1979; 55: 355–361.
18. Veldsema-Currie RD, Van Wilenburg H, Labruyere WTh, Langemeijer MWE. Presynaptic, facilitatory effects of the corticosteroid dexamethasone in rat diaphragm: modulation by beta-bungarotoxin. *Brain Research* 1984; 294: 315–325.
19. Dalkara T, Onur R. Facilitatory effects of dexamethasone on neuromuscular transmission. *Experimental Neurology* 1987; 95: 116–125.
20. Dreyer F, Peper K, Sterz R, Bradley RJ, Muller KD. Drug-receptor interaction at the frog neuromuscular junction. *Progress in Brain Research* 1979; 49: 213–223.
21. Wilson RW, Ward MD, Johns TR. Corticosteroids: A direct effect at the neuromuscular junction. *Neurology* 1974; 24: 1091–1095.
22. Hofmann WW. Antimyasthenic action of corticosteroids. *Archives of Neurology* 1977; 34: 356–360.
23. Torda TA, Kiloh N. Myoneural actions of Org NC 45. *British Journal of Anaesthesia* 1982; 54: 1217–1221.
24. Starke K, Gothert M, Kilbinger H. Modulation of neurotransmitter release by presynaptic autoreceptors. *Physiological Reviews* 1989; 69: 864–989.
25. Haggblad J, Heilbronn. Release of acetylcholine at the endplate of the rat—evidence against a muscarinic acetylcholine autoreceptor. *British Journal of Pharmacology* 1983; 80: 471–476.
26. Baker T, Agüero A, Stance A, Lowndes HE. Prejunctional effects of vecuronium in the cat. *Anesthesiology* 1986; 65: 480–484.