B5. ΘΕΜΑΤΑ ΜΑΙΕΥΤΙΚΗΣ ΑΝΑΙΣΘΗΣΙΑΣ B5.A. UTEROTONIC AND VASOACTIVE DRUGS IN OBSTETRIC ANESTHESIA

VASILIKI SKANDALOU

Consultant Anesthesiologist, Alexandra Hospital

Anesthesiologists involved in obstetric anesthesia use uterotonic and vasoconstrictor drugs in their everyday practice to prevent or treat uterine atony and postpartum hemorrhage as well as hypotension after neuraxial anesthesia respectively. Considerable past and current research has shown that these agents have a narrow therapeutic range. Surprisingly enough current guidelines for the administration of these drugs during cesarean delivery are diverse, empiric, and vague. A detailed knowledge by anesthetists of optimal drug use, dosage and side effects is therefore required.

The most common cause of postpartum hemorrhage is uterine atony which complicates 1 in 40 births in the united states and is responsible for at least 75% of cases of postpartum hemorrhage^{1,2}. After placental delivery the uterus contracts and stays contracted so its myometrial fibers occlude spiral arterioles. Oxytocin is the only evidence based uterotonic drug given for prophylaxis and therapy of uterine atony 3,4 . Carbetocin is a synthetic analogue of oxytocin with different pharmacological profile, and more expensive. Second line uterotonics include ergot alkaloids, such as methylergonovine and ergometrine, and synthetic analogues of prostaglandins F2 α (carboprost), E1 (misoprostol) and E2 (dinoprostone). Syntometrine is a combination preparation, seldom used during cesarean section, containing 5 iu oxytocin and 0,5 mg ergometrine. Manual uterine massage and oxytocin are almost universally accepted as the first line treatments of choice for uterine atony. Methylergonovine and carboprost are second line agents in most treatment protocols^{5,6}. The choice of which therapeutic agent to use should be based on the comorbidities of the patient, the clinical judgement of the practitioners involved in the case, and of course availability of drugs^{7,8}.

Oxytocin is a short polypeptide causing a stimulatory effect on myometrial contractility by increasing the intracellular concentration of calcium. Oxytocin receptors appear in myometrial cells at approximately 13 weeks gestation and increase in concentration until term. Their distribution is not uniform throughout. During elective cesarean an oxytocin bolus is used to initiate adequate uterine tone, followed by an oxytocin infusion to maintain uterine contractility. Initial dose and infusion rate should optimize drug efficacy while minimizing side effects^{9,10}. Repeated exposure of the myometrial cells to oxytocin leads to oxytocin receptor desensitization, so repeated doses of oxytocin may become increasingly ineffective^{11,12,13} and second line uterotonics should be considered earlier for laboring patients. The recommended dose, timing and rate of administration for oxytocin during cesarean delivery remain ambiguous^{14,15}. Adverse effects of the drug include hemodynamic instability, nausea, vomiting, headache, flushing and in high dosages

hyponatremia, seizures, and coma. The "Rule of Threes" algorithm can be used to minimize dose and rate related side effects by applying a standardized method of administering oxytocin during elective cesarean deliveries^{16,17,18}.

Carbetocin is a synthetic analogue of oxytocin with a half-life 4-10 times the duration of oxytocin. A tetanic uterine contraction is produced 2 min after an intravenous injection of 10-70 μ g, which persist for approximately 11 min. There is still no clear-cut dosage recommendation while the side effect profile of carbetocin is similar to that of oxytocin¹⁹. There is comparative efficacy of carbetocin and conventional uterotonics agents while heat stable carbetocin is being investigated as a potential alternative to oxytocin^{20,21}.

Ergot, derived from a fungus, was the first effective oxytocic drug. Ergometrine also known as ergonovine, is a naturally occurring alkaloid while methylergometrine is a synthetic analogue of ergonovine. Ergonovine is a partial agonist of α -adrenergic, 5HT-1 and dopamine receptors while the mechanism of action on the uterus is unknown. It provides rapid and sustained contraction of pregnant and non-pregnant uterus and although it is appropriately banned from intrapartum use still remains a second line uterotonic^{22,23}. Dosage guidelines vary from 0,2 to 1 mg within an hour. The drug should be given cautiously because it raises arterial and pulmonary pressure and has a high incidence of vomiting and nausea.

Prostaglandins are bioactive lipids derived from arachidonic acid. They are synthesized within human fetal membranes and decidua. They play a major role in both the initiation and maintenance of labor by enhancing contractions and ripening the cervix. Prostaglandins $F2\alpha$ and E are reported to increase in a time dependent manner during later gestations indicating that they are important in the labor process²⁴. Both influence myometrial contractility. Clinically synthetic analogues of prostaglandins have been used for many years for termination, labor induction and treatment of postpartum hemorrhage. Carboprost is a synthetic analogue of prostaglandin F2a. It can be used intramuscularly, intramyometrially while there is limited experience with intravenous administration. Frequently reported side effects include nausea, vomiting and diarrhea while it can precipitate severe bronchospasm and hypoxemia. Misoprostol is synthetic analogue of prostaglandin E1, inexpensive and widely available. Clinically useful routes of administration include the following: oral, buccal, sublingual, vaginal and rectal, with different pharmacokinetic profiles. Side effects include shivering, hyperthermia, tremor, and convulsions. Misoprostol remains a treatment option for uterine atony, but its utility as an adjunct to the other uterotonic medication may be limited ²⁵.

Neuraxial anesthesia is the technique of choice for cesarean delivery^{26,27}. Hypotension is a very common consequence of the sympathetic vasomotor block caused mainly by spinal or combined spinal epidural anesthesia. Maternal symptoms such as nausea, vomiting and dyspnea frequently accompany severe hypotension, and adverse effects on the fetus, including depressed Apgar scores and umbilical acidosis, have been correlated with severity and duration of hypotension. Amongst several actions taken to prevent and treat hypotension, like administration of fluids, ondasetron, positioning, and leg compression²⁸, it is unacceptable to proceed with spinal anesthesia without the availability of a vasopressor and an anticholinergic agent ²⁹.

Vasopressor drugs mediate their cardiovascular effects primarily through their actions on $\alpha 1$, $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ receptors. Ephedrine not only has mainly indirect adrenergic receptor activity but also exerts weak direct effects, which explains the comparatively slow onset and long duration of action. Ephedrine typically increases heart rate and contractility by cardiac $\beta 1$ adrenergic receptor stimulation. Phenylephrine has a potent direct $\alpha 1$ effect, with virtually no β effect. When given at higher than required doses it may induce bradycardia. Noradrenaline is a potent $\alpha 1$ adrenergic agonist, with comparatively modest β agonist activity. It causes marked vasoconstriction with some direct inotropic effects and it may be a reasonable alternative to phenylephrine, but there are concerns about the use of such a potent agent in a non-intensive care unit environment^{30,31}. Adrenaline has high affinity for $\alpha 1$, $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ receptors. β effects predominate at low doses while $\alpha 1$ effects are more significant at higher doses.

There are considerable differences in practice among countries regarding the choice and method of administration of vasopressors in obstetrics patients³². Ephedrine became the drug of choice in obstetric anesthesia following work in animals, however it is now acknowledged that ephedrine in higher doses worsen fetal acidosis^{33,34} due to direct effect on fetal metabolism that negates any improvement in uterine blood flow produced by normalizing blood pressure^{35,36}. Clinical work dating from the 2000s indicated that α adrenergic agonists are effective at reducing hypotension and are associated with less neonatal acidosis than ephedrine³⁷. Surveys of clinical practice indicate that there has been a shift away from what was the almost universal vasopressor of choice. Further research and studies could contribute to better clinical practice.

REFERENCES

- 1. Say L, Chou D, Gemmill A, Truncal Ö, Moller AB, Daniels JD, et al. Global Causes of Maternal Death: A WHO Systematic Analysis. Lancet Global Health. 2014;2(6): e323-e333.
- Gill P, Van Hook MD JW. Uterine, Atony. [Updated 2018 Mar 22]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2018 Jan-. Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK493238/
- 3. Westhoff G., Cotter A. M., Tolosa J. E. Prophylactic oxytocin for the third stage of labour to prevent postpartum haemorrhage. The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. 2013;10CD001808 [PubMed]
- 4. WHO Recommendations for the Prevention and Treatment of Postpartum Haemorrhage. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2012.
- 5. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Postpartum hemorrhage. Practice Bulletin 183; October 2017
- 6. Smith JR. Postpartum Hemorrhage Treatment & Management. eMedicine, 2018.
- Vallera C1, Choi LO2, Cha CM2, Hong RW2. Uterotonic Medications: Oxytocin, Methylergonovine, Carboprost, Misoprostol. Anesthesiol Clin. 2017 Jun;35(2):207-219. doi: 10.1016/j.anclin.2017.01.007. Epub 2017 Mar 30.
- 8. Dyer RA, Van Dyk D, Dresner A. The use of uterotonic drugs during caesarean section. Int J Obstet Anesth 2010; 19:313–9

- 9. Carvalho JC, Balki M, Kingdom J, et al. Oxytocin requirements at elective cesarean delivery: a dose-finding study. Obstet Gynecol 2004; 104:10005–10.
- 10. George RB, McKeen D, Chaplin AC, et al. Up-down determination of the ED (90) of oxytocin infusions for the prevention of postpartum uterine atony in parturients undergoing Cesarean delivery. Can J Anaesth. 2010; 57:578–582.
- 11. Balki M, Ronayane M, Davies S, et al. Minimum oxytocin dose requirement after cesarean delivery for labor arrest. Obstet Gynecol 2006; 104:45–50.
- 12. Dyer RA, Butwick AJ, Carvalho B. Oxytocin for labour caesarean delivery: implications for the the anaesthesiologist. Curr Opin Anesthesiol 2011; 24:255–61.
- 13. Anne Lavoie, MD, Robert J. McCarthy, D Pharm, and Cynthia A. Wong, MD The ED90 of Prophylactic Oxytocin Infusion After Delivery of the Placenta During Cesarean Delivery in Laboring Compared with Nonlaboring Women: An Up-Down Sequential Allocation Dose-Response Study Anesth Analg 2015;121:159–64
- Adrienne Duffield et al. Effect of a High-Rate Versus a Low-Rate Oxytocin Infusion for Maintaining Uterine Contractility During Elective Cesarean Delivery: A Prospective Randomized Clinical Trial Anesth Analg2017; 124:857– 62
- 15. L. C. Stephens, T. Bruessel Systematic review of oxytocin dosing at caesarean section Anaesth Intensive Care 2012; 40: 247-252
- 16. Tsen L, Balki M. Oxytocin protocols during cesarean delivery: time to acknowledge the risk/benefit ratio? Int J Obstet Anesth. 2010; 19:243–245.
- 17. Balki M1, Tsen L. Oxytocin protocols for cesarean delivery. Int Anesthesiol Clin. 2014 Spring;52(2):48-66. doi: 10.1097/AIA.00000000000016.
- 18. Vesela P. Kovacheva, M.D., Ph.D., Mieke A. Soens, M.D., Lawrence C. Tsen, M.D. A Randomized, Double-blinded Trial of a "Rule of Threes" Algorithm versus Continuous Infusion of Oxytocin during Elective Cesarean Delivery Anesthesiology 2015; 123:92-100
- 19. Su LL, Chong YS, Samuel M. Carbetocin for preventing postpartum haemorrhage. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2012, Issue 2. Art. No.: CD005457. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD005457.pub3.
- 20. Widmer M1, Piaggio G1, Nguyen TMH1 et al; WHO CHAMPION Trial Group. Heat-Stable Carbetocin versus Oxytocin to Prevent Hemorrhage after Vaginal Birth. N Engl J Med. 2018 Jun 27. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1805489. [Epub ahead of print]
- 21. Gil-Rojas Y1, Lasalvia P1, Hernández F1, Castañeda-Cardona C1, Rosselli D2. Cost-effectiveness of Carbetocin versus Oxytocin for Prevention of Postpartum Hemorrhage Resulting from Uterine Atony in Women at high-risk for bleeding in Colombia. Rev Bras Ginecol Obstet. 2018 May;40(5):242-250. doi: 10.1055/s-0038-1655747. Epub 2018 Jun 18.
- Liabsuetrakul T, Choobun T, Peeyananjarassri K, IslamQM. Prophylactic use of ergot alkaloids in the third stage of labour. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2018, Issue 6. Art. No.: CD005456. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD005456.pub3.

- 23. RCOG. Prevention and management of postpartum haemorrhage. Green-top guideline 52. London: RCOG, 2016.
- 24. Arrowsmith S, Kendrick A, Wray S. Drugs acting on the pregnant uterus. Obstetrics, Gynaecology and Reproductive Medicine. 2010;20(8):241-247doi: 10.1016/j.ogrm.2010.05.001.
- 25. Gallos ID1 et all. Uterotonic agents for preventing postpartum haemorrhage: a network meta-analysis. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Apr 25;4:CD011689. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD011689.pub2.
- 26. American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on obstetric anesthesia. Practice guidelines for obstetric anesthesia. An updated report by the American Society of AnesthesiologistsTask Force on obstetric anesthesia and the Society for Obstetric Anesthesia and Perinatology. Anesthesiology 2016;124: 270–300.
- 27. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Caesarean section: clinical guideline [CG132]. 2011. www.nice.org.uk/ guidance/cg132. (accessed 01/08/2017)
- 28. Chooi C, Cox JJ, Lumb RS, Middleton P, Chemali M, Emmett RS, Simmons SW, Cyna AM. Techniques for preventing hypotension during spinal anaesthesia for caesarean section.

Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2017, Issue 8. Art. No.: CD002251.DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD002251.pub3.

- 29. Kinsella SM, Carvalho B, Dyer RA et al. International consensus statement on the management of hypotension with vasopressors during caesarean section under spinal anaesthesia. Anaesthesia. 2018 Jan;73(1):71-92. doi: 10.1111/anae.14080. Epub 2017 Nov 1.
- 30. Carvalho B, Dyer RA. Norepinephrine for spinal hypotension during cesarean delivery: another paradigm shift? Anesthesiology 2015; 122:728–730.
- 31. Ngan Kee WD, Lee SW, Ng FF, et al. Randomized double-blinded comparison of norepinephrine and phenylephrine for maintenance of blood pressure during spinal anesthesia for cesarean delivery. Anesthesiology 2015; 122:736–745.
- 32. Ngan Kee WD1. The use of vasopressors during spinal anaesthesia for caesarean section. Curr Opin Anaesthesiol. 2017 Jun;30(3):319-325. doi: 10.1097/ACO.000000000000453.
- 33. Lee A, Ngan Kee WD, Gin T. A quantitative, systematic review of randomized controlled trials of ephedrine versus phenylephrine for the management of hypotension during spinal anesthesia for cesarean delivery. Anesthesia and Analgesia 2002; 94: 920–6.
- 34. Lee A, Ngan Kee WD, Gin T. A dose-response meta-analysis of prophylactic intravenous ephedrine for the prevention of hypotension during spinal anesthesia for elective cesarean delivery. Anesthesia and Analgesia 2004; 98: 483–90.
- 35. Ngan Kee WD, Khaw KS, Tan PE, Ng FF, Karmakar MK. Placental transfer and fetal metabolic effects of phenylephrine and ephedrine during spinal anesthesia for cesarean delivery. Anesthesiology 2009; 111: 506–12.
- 36. Butwick AJ, Columb MO, Carvalho B. Preventing spinal hypotension during Caesarean delivery: what is the latest? Br J Anaesth 2015; 114:183–186.

37. Veeser M, Hofmann T, Roth R, Kl€ohr S, Rossaint R, Heesen M. Vasopressors for the management of hypotension after spinal anesthesia for elective caesarean section. Systematic review and cumulative meta-analysis. Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica 2012; 56: 810–6.