CASE REPORTS

Flumazenil's Reversal of Myoclonic-like Movements Associated with Midazolam in Term Newborns

Win Zaw, MBBS, David C Knoppert, M.Sc.Phm., and Orlando da Silva, M.D.

Sedation is an important aspect of care for critically ill newborns. Proper sedation reduces stress during procedures such as mechanical ventilation. Midazolam, a short-acting benzodiazepine, is widely administered as a sedative in newborn intensive care units but is not without side effects. Three term newborns developed myoclonic-like abnormal movements after receiving midazolam. In one, flumazenil controlled the abnormal movements. Flumazenil is a potent benzodiazepine antagonist that competitively blocks the central effects of benzodiazepines. It can reverse the sedative effects of benzodiazepine overdose. Flumazenil may be considered in cases of abnormal movements associated with midazolam. However, further studies are needed to provide guidelines for the administration of this drug in newborns. (Pharmacotherapy 2001;21(5):642–646)

Sedative and analgesic drugs are administered to newborns experiencing pain and stress during mechanical ventilation.^{1, 2} These drugs also are used as preoperative agents³ and for various procedures where sedation is required.^{4, 5} The most common drugs are benzodiazepines (midazolam, diazepam, and lorazepam), chloral hydrate, and opioids (fentanyl and morphine).⁶

Midazolam is a water-soluble benzodiazepine with sedative, amnesic, anxiolytic, musclerelaxant, and anticonvulsant properties.⁷ It has a faster onset and shorter duration of action than lorazepam.⁷ However, because of adverse effects occasionally reported in children and newborns, there are concerns about its safety. Adverse effects include hypotension,^{8, 9} myoclonic activity,^{8, 10-12} and a paradoxical behavioral reaction.¹³ In 76 premature infants, 6 (7.9%) developed myoclonic activity during a continuous infusion of midazolam.¹¹ In a smaller series, 3 of 10 premature infants developed myoclonic activity after an intravenous bolus of midazolam.¹²

Case Reports

Patient No. 1

An infant weighing 2750 g was born by normal vaginal delivery at 38 weeks' gestation with Apgar scores of 9 and 9 at 1 and 5 minutes, respectively. The pregnancy was uneventful. The infant was transferred to our institution within 24 hours of birth because of episodes of apnea and bradycardia, which resolved later. At 4 days of age, a magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan was done to exclude intracranial abnormalities. The infant was given an intravenous bolus of midazolam 160 μ g/kg for sedation before the procedure. Forty-five minutes after the bolus, he developed bicycling movements of both legs and myoclonic-like movements of the upper limbs that lasted for 90 seconds. After these episodes, the infant became very irritable and unconsolable for approximately 10 minutes before falling

From the Department of Child Health, Medical School, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, Scotland (Dr. Zaw); the Department of Pharmacy, St. Joseph's Hospital, London, Ontario, Canada (Mr. Knoppert); and the Division of Neonatal-Perinatal Medicine, Department of Pediatrics, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada (Dr. da Silva).

Address reprint requests to David C. Knoppert, M.Sc.Phm., Department of Pharmacy, St Joseph's Hospital, 268 Grosvenor Street, London, Ontario, Canada N6A 4V2.

No. of	Gestational	Birth Weight	Administration			
Patients	Age (wks)	(g)	Method	Dosage	Time of Onset ^a	Duration ^b
NP ⁸	< 32	NP	i.v. bolus	200 µg/kg	15-30 sec	NP
6 ¹¹	27-34	970-2060	i.v. infusion	30–60 µg/kg/hr	2–48 hrs	A few hrs
3^{12}	25-30	< 1501	i.v. bolus	100 µg/kg	Immediately	5–60 min
3^{22}	24-26	$671 \pm 170^{\circ}$	i.v. bolus	100 µg/kg	5 min	5–10 min

Table 1. Case Reports of Abnormal Movements after Administration of Midazolam

NP = not provided.

^aTime of onset of abnormal movements after administration of midazolam.

^bDuration of abnormal movement activity after administration of midazolam.

^cData are mean ± SD.

asleep. Investigations showed normal glucose, calcium, and electrolytes. The MRI, an electroencephalogram (EEG), and an auditory brain stem evoked response (the latter two done the day after the MRI) showed no abnormalities. The only other drugs that the patient had received were intravenous ampicillin and gentamicin. No more midazolam was given, and no further abnormal movements were noted. At 10 days of age, the infant was well and was discharged.

Patient No. 2

A full-term infant weighing 3770 g was born at 41 weeks' gestation by spontaneous vaginal delivery after an uncomplicated pregnancy. Apgar scores were 7 and 9 at 1 and 5 minutes, respectively. At 26 minutes of age, he was intubated for episodes of apnea and cyanosis. He then experienced generalized seizures. Diazepam 0.3 mg/kg was given intravenously. When seizures persisted, a loading dose of intravenous phenobarbital 20 mg/kg was added, with a maintenance dosage of 5 mg/kg every 12 hours. An EEG that day showed probable epileptiform discharges in the frontal, left temporal, and right midtemporal regions. Other investigations urea, electrolytes, glucose, calcium, magnesium, cerebrospinal fluid, ammonia, amino acids, lactate, long-chain fatty acid, and computerized tomography of the head—did not reveal any cause for seizures. Phenobarbital was stopped on day 4 of age.

On day 6 of age, the infant was given midazolam 500 µg/kg orally for sedation before an MRI. Thirty minutes later, he became increasingly agitated. He then displayed myoclonic-like movements of both upper and lower extremities. These abnormal movements were controlled successfully with intravenous phenobarbital 20 mg/kg. An EEG failed to show seizure activity, with the exception of intermittent bitemporal spikes of uncertain significance. The patient did not receive any other drugs. No more midazolam was given, and no further abnormal movements were noted.

Patient No. 3

A baby girl weighing 2045 g was delivered by spontaneous vaginal delivery at 38 weeks' gestation. Before birth, a left-sided diaphragmatic hernia and abnormal karyotype with terminal deletion in the short arm of chromosome 8 had been diagnosed. At birth, the infant's Apgar scores were 5 and 7 at 1 and 5 minutes, respectively. The infant was intubated at 2 minutes of age and kept on a high frequency oscillator. Initially, she was paralyzed with a vecuronium infusion for 10 days and sedated with a morphine infusion. Primary repair was done successfully on day 7 with a silastic patch.

On day 12, a continuous intravenous infusion of midazolam 60 μ g/kg/hour was started in addition to the ongoing morphine infusion. Within an hour, the infant developed myoclonic jerks of the extremities. The midazolam infusion was stopped, and an intravenous bolus of flumazenil 7.8 μ g/kg was given. Abnormal movements ceased within 5 minutes. Other drugs at that time were morphine infusion 40 μ g/kg/hour, heparinized saline (heparin 1 U/ml in 0.9% sodium chloride), and total parenteral nutrition. Arterial blood gases, serum electrolytes, glucose, calcium, and magnesium were within normal limits.

Discussion

These three cases highlight the paradoxical effects of midazolam in term newborns. Benzodiazepines are known to cause paradoxical stimulation of the central nervous system and thus may increase the frequency of nightmares, euphoria, restlessness, hallucinations, and hypomanic behavior in adults¹⁴ and children.^{13, 15} Anticonvulsant benzodiazepines can also increase the frequency of seizures in patients with epilepsy.¹⁶ In fact, lorazepam has caused seizures in newborns.^{17–21}

Abnormal movements after midazolam administration in preterm infants (Table 1)^{8, 11, 12, 22} and adults have been reported.²³ Involuntary epileptiform movements lasting 15–30 seconds in premature newborns with gestational ages under 32 weeks appeared after intravenous boluses of midazolam 200 μ g/kg.⁸ Myoclonus in six premature infants (gestational ages 27–34 weeks) was observed after intravenous infusions of midazolam in dosages ranging from 30–60 μ g/kg/hour.¹¹ In these infants, myoclonus was noticed 2–48 hours after beginning the midazolam infusion, ceased a few hours after discontinuing the infusion, and never recurred.

Three infants with very low birth weights (average 671 ± 170 g) experienced accentuated myoclonic jerks resembling clonic seizures within 5 minutes of receiving slow bolus administration of midazolam 100 μ g/kg for sedation.²² In another study, 3 of 10 preterm newborns (25–30 weeks' gestation) with birth weights under 1500 g developed myoclonus after midazolam administration.¹²

Myoclonus was observed after the use of midazolam in 11 neonatal intensive care units in France.²⁴ In these units a loading dose of 100–200 µg/kg was administered followed by a continuous infusion of 30–200 µg/kg/hr. No subsequent neurologic abnormality was seen in any of the infants.

Another study¹¹ recorded EEG patterns in six preterm infants who developed myoclonus after midazolam infusion. Investigators did not observe ictal activity in these infants. Five of the six displayed excessive discontinuity on their EEGs. Disappearance of physiologic fluctuation and excessive theta waves were evident in three patients. An EEG performed on our second patient during the episode of abnormal movements showed no ictal activity.

The mechanism responsible for abnormal movements after midazolam administration is unclear. Adverse reactions may result from inadequate or excessive dosages, improper administration, cerebral hypoxia, or they may be simply paradoxical reactions.²⁵

Dosages used in our patients were within the recommended range, and the drug was properly administered. Among newborns, however, large interpatient variability exists in pharmacokinetic parameters after intravenous infusion of midazolam.^{24, 26–28} Mean clearance rate is lower in newborns younger than 39 weeks' gestation (1.17 ml/kg/min) than in those older than 39 weeks (1.84 ml/kg/min).²⁴ Moreover, infants weighing less than 1000 g at birth have significantly lower clearances than those weighing more.²⁸ The low clearance rate is probably related to immature hepatic enzyme activity rather than differences in renal function.²⁴ Therefore, individual dosage adjustment may be required.²⁷

Benzodiazepines, including midazolam, exert a clinical effect by binding to γ -aminobutyric acid A (GABA_A) receptors in the nervous system. The GABA_A receptors are a family of ligand-gated ion channels that mediate the principal actions of GABA, the principal inhibitory neurotransmitter. Benzodiazepine-binding regions may be homologous to agonist-binding regions but are situated at different subunit interfaces.²⁹ In a hypothetical model of the GABA_A receptor, there are agonist (for GABA) and modulatory (for benzodiazepine-type ligands) binding sites.³⁰ The receptor is composed of five subunits $(2_{-1},$ $2_{\beta 1}$ and $1_{\gamma 2}$ peptides), which are arranged around a central chloride ion-selective pore that opens as a consequence of agonist (GABA) binding. These receptors are found in the greatest density in the olfactory bulbs, cerebral cortex, cerebellum, hippocampus, substantia nigra, and inferior colliculus.31

Benzodiazepines and GABA together regulate the opening of chloride channels in the cell membrane.³² Stimulation of this ionophore has the effect of hyperpolarizing postsynaptic neurons. These hyperpolarized cells are more difficult to depolarize in response to excitatory neurotransmitters.⁷

γ-Aminobutyric acid synthesis in experimental animals is low during the neonatal period. The activity of the synthetic enzyme for GABA, L-glutamate decarboxylase, in the cortex of a newborn rodent is low but rises rapidly to adult levels by 3 weeks of age.³³ Also, binding sites for GABA are present at relatively low concentrations at birth and increase slowly in the postnatal period.³⁴ Therefore, there may be less neuronal inhibition in children than would be expected in adults. In contrast, benzodiazepine receptors are found at relatively high levels in newborns.³² It is unclear if this imbalance between relatively low numbers of GABA receptors (agonist) and relatively high levels of benzodiazepine receptors (modulators) create an

excitatory, rather than inhibitory, influence.

Midazolam is highly protein bound (96%). Low serum albumin predisposes newborns to potentially elevated serum concentrations of free midazolam. Neurologic sequelae after prolonged intravenous administration of midazolam in infants were significantly associated with low serum albumin concentrations.³⁵ Therefore, the uninhibited movement of free, unbound drug across the blood-brain barrier may be related to the paradoxic stimulation of neural synapses in newborns who already have decreased GABA levels.

It also was suggested that myoclonus-like abnormal movements may be related to hemodynamic changes that may affect cerebral blood flow.^{8, 22} Hypotension is a well-known side effect of midazolam, particularly in premature infants. The mechanisms responsible for hypotension are not clear, but they might involve peripheral vasodilatation, a sudden decrease in circulating catecholamines, or direct myocardial depression.³⁶ In ventilated newborns, midcerebral blood flow velocity decreased by 12–43% after transient drops in systemic blood pressure after midazolam administration.^{10, 12, 37} However, as in an earlier study,²² we did not observe clinically significant changes in blood pressure.

In our first case, the infant fell asleep within approximately 10 minutes of the onset of myoclonic-like movements. Intravenous phenobarbital was used successfully to treat the abnormal movements in our second patient. Flumazenil was used successfully in our third patient to reverse the myoclonic effects of midazolam. There was no clinical or pharmacologic preference between the two agents. We are not suggesting that flumazenil be used based on one case report; we are simply reporting our initial experience with this drug in a newborn. Further studies will provide guidance as to whether phenobarbital, flumazenil, or, possibly, no pharmacologic intervention is best in specific clinical situations.

Flumazenil was approved by the United States Food and Drug Administration in 1991 for use in adults for complete or partial reversal of the sedative effects of benzodiazepines occurring after diagnostic or therapeutic procedures or after benzodiazepine overdose.³⁸ It was administered in children to reverse the sedative action of midazolam.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ Flumazenil also reversed diazepam-induced neonatal apnea and hypotonia,^{41, 42} midazolam-induced laryngospasm in adults,⁴³ and midazolam-induced paradoxical behavioral reactions in children.¹³

Flumazenil is a potent antagonist that displaces benzodiazepines linked to receptors and blocks their central effects.⁴⁴ We observed that abnormal movements stopped within 5 minutes of flumazenil injection. One study¹³ reported that the amount of time to reverse the paradoxical behavior reaction in children with flumazenil was variable (3-50 min) and was dependent on the dosage of midazolam. One case report noted that the paradoxical reaction improved within 1 minute of flumazenil administration in an adult.⁴⁵ Although these are anecdotal case reports, they suggest a role for flumazenil in the control of myoclonus induced by midazolam. It should be emphasized that flumazenil can cause seizures in children,^{46, 47} therefore, caution needs to be exercised in its use. We used an intravenous bolus of flumazenil 7.8 µg/kg arbitrarily based on the dose recommended for managing benzodiazepine overdose in children (10 µg/kg).48

In summary, we have described three cases of midazolam-induced, myoclonic-like abnormal movements in term infants. Flumazenil was effective in reversing these abnormal movements in one infant, indicating that flumazenil may be considered in cases of abnormal movements associated with midazolam. However, further studies are needed to provide guidelines for the administration of this drug to newborns.

References

- Rosen DA, Rosen KR. Midazolam for sedation in the pediatric intensive care unit. Intensive Care Med 1991;17(suppl 1):S15–19.
- 2. Notterman DA. Sedation with intravenous midazolam in the pediatric intensive care unit. Clin Pediatr 1997;36:449–54.
- Holloway AM, Jordaan DG, Brock-Utne JG. Midazolam for the intravenous induction of anaesthesia in children. Anaesth Intens Care 1982;10:340–3.
- 4. Diament MJ, Stanley P. The use of midazolam for sedation of infants and children. Am J Roentgenol 1988;150:377–8.
- Rosen DA, Rosen KR. Intravenous conscious sedation with midazolam in paediatric patients. Int J Clin Pract 1998;52:46-50.
- 6. Wolf AR. Neonatal sedation: more art than science. Lancet 1994;344:628–9.
- 7. Blumer JL. Clinical pharmacology of midazolam in infants and children. Clin Pharmacokinet 1998;35:37–47.
- 8. van den Anker JN, Sauer PJ. The use of midazolam in the preterm neonate [letter]. Eur J Pediatr 1992;151:152.
- 9. Burtin P, Daoud P, Jacqz-Aigrain E, Mussat P, Moriette G. Hypotension with midazolam and fentanyl in the newborn. Lancet 1991;337:1545-6.
- 10. van Straaten HL, Rademaker CM, de Vries LS. Comparison of the effect of midazolam or vecuronium on blood pressure and cerebral blood flow velocity in the premature newborn. Dev Pharmacol Ther 1992;19:191–5.
- Magny JF, d'Allest AM, Nedelcoux H, Zupan V, Dehan M. Midazolam and myoclonus in neonate. Eur J Pediatr 1994;153:389-90.

- Harte GJ, Gray PH, Lee TC, Steer PA, Charles BG. Hemodynamic responses and population pharmacokinetics of midazolam following administration to ventilated, preterm neonates. J Pediatr Child Health 1997;33:335–8.
- Massanari M, Novitsky J, Reinstein LJ. Paradoxical reactions in children associated with midazolam use during endoscopy. Clin Pediatr 1997;36:681–4.
- Hall RC, Zisook S. Paradoxical reactions to benzodiazepines. Br J Clin Pharmacol 1981;11(suppl 1):99S–104.
- Davies FC, Waters M. Oral midazolam for conscious sedation of children during minor procedures. J Acc Emerg Med 1998;15:244-8.
- Hobbs WR, Rall TW, Verdoorn TA. Hypnotics and sedatives; ethanol. In: Hardman JG, Limbird LE, Molinoff PB, Ruddon RW, Gilman AG, eds. Goodman and Gilman's the pharmacologic basis of therapeutics, 9th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1996:361–96.
- Cronin CM. Neurotoxicity of lorazepam in premature infant. Pediatrics 1992;89:1129–30.
- Lee DS, Wong HA, Knoppert D. Myoclonus associated with lorazepam therapy in very low birth weight infants. Biol Neonate 1994;66:311–15.
- 19. **Reiter PD, Stiles AD**. Lorazepam toxicity in a premature infant. Ann Pharmacother 1993;27:727–9.
- Sexon WR, Thigpen J, Stajich GV. Stereotypic movements after lorazepam administration in premature infants: a series and review of the literature. J Perinatol 1995;15:146–9.
- Chess PR, D'Angio CT. Clonic movements following lorazepam administration in full-term infants. Arch Pediatr Adol Med 1998;152:98–9.
- 22. Waisman D, Weintraub Z, Rotschild A, Bental Y. Myoclonic movements in very low birth weight premature infants associated with midazolam intravenous bolus administration [letter]. Pediatrics 1999;104:579.
- Engstrom RH, Cohen SE. A complication associated with the use of midazolam [letter]. Anesthesiology 1989;70:719.
- 24. Burtin P, Jacqz-Aigrain E, Girard P, et al. Population pharmacokinetics of midazolam in neonates. Clin Pharmacol Ther 1994;56:615-25.
- Anonymous. Benzodiazepines. In: McEvoy GK, ed. AHFS drug information. Bethesda, MD: American Society of Health-System Pharmacists, 1998:1934–60.
- Jacqz-Aigrain E, Wood C, Robieux I. Pharmacokinetics of midazolam in critically ill neonates. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1990;39:191-2.
- Jacqz-Aigrain E, Burtin P. Clinical pharmacokinetics of sedatives in neonates. Clin Pharmacokinet 1996;31:423–43.
- Lee TC, Charles BG, Harte GJ, Gray PH, Steer PA, Flenady VJ. Population pharmacokinetic modeling in very premature infants receiving midazolam during mechanical ventilation: midazolam neonatal pharmacokinetics. Anesthesiology 1999;90:451–7.
- Galzi J-L, Changeux J-P. Neurotransmitter-gated ion channels as unconventional allosteric proteins. Curr Opin Struct Biol 1994;4:554–65.
- 30. Sigel E, Buhr A. The benzodiazepine binding site of GABA(A)

receptors. Trends Pharmacol Sci 1997;18:425-9.

- Reves JG, Glass PS, Lubarsky DA. Nonbarbiturate intravenous anaesthetics. In: Miller RD, ed. Anesthesia. New York: Churchill-Livingstone, 1994:247–89.
- Johnston MV, Silverstein FS. Development of neurotransmitters. In: Polin R, Fox WW, eds. Fatal and neonatal physiology. Philadelphia: W.B Saunders, 1998:2110-17.
- 33. Coyle J, Enna S. Neurochemical aspects of the ontogenesis of GABAnergic neurons in the rat brain. Brain Res 1976;111: 119–33.
- Johnston MV. Biochemistry of neurotransmitters in cortical development. In: Peters A, Jones EG, eds. Cerebral cortex. New York: Plenum Press, 1988:211–36.
- Bergman I, Steeves M, Burckart G, Thompson A. Reversible neurologic abnormalities associated with prolonged intravenous midazolam and fentanyl administration. J Pediatr 1991;119:644–9.
- Heikkila J, Arola M, Kanto J, Laaksonen V. Midazolam as adjunct to high dose fentanyl anaesthesia for coronary artery bypass grafting operation. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand 1984;28:683-9.
- Jacqz-Aigrain E, Daoud P, Burtin P, Desplanques L, Beaufils F. Placebo-controlled trial of midazolam sedation in mechanically ventilated newborn babies. Lancet 1994;344:646–50.
- Shannon M, Albers G, Burkhart K, et al. Safety and efficacy of flumazenil in the reversal of benzodiazepine-induced conscious sedation. J Pediatr 1997;131:582–6.
- Collins S, Carter JA. Resedation after bolus administration of midazolam to an infant and its reversal by flumazenil. Anaesthesia 1991;46:471-2.
- 40. Rodriguez Nunez A, Martinon Sanchez JM, Rivas Pumar P, Martinez Soto I, Relova Quinteiro JL, Pena Guitian J. Use of flumazenil to reverse the effects of midazolam in children. Anales Espanoles de Pediatria 1991;35:332–4.
- Richard P, Autret E, Bardol J, Soyez C, Barbier P, Jonville AP. The use of flumazenil in a neonate. J Toxicol Clin Toxicol 1991;29:137–40.
- Cone AM, Nadel ASB. Flumazenil reverses diazepam-induced neonatal apnoea and hypotonia [letter]. Eur J Pediatr 1993;152:458–9.
- Davis DP, Hamilton RS, Webster TH. Reversal of midazolaminduced laryngospasm with flumazenil. Ann Emerg Med 1998;32:263–5.
- Votey SR, Boose GM, Bayer MJ, Hoffman JR. Flumazenil: a new benzodiazepine antagonist. Ann Emerg Med 1991;20:181–8.
- Rodrigo CR. Flumazenil reverses paradoxical reaction with midazolam. Anesth Prog 1991;38:65–8.
- McDuffee AT, Tobias JD. Seizure after flumazenil administration in a pediatric patient. Ped Emerg Care 1995;11:186-7.
- 47. Davis CO, Wax PM. Flumazenil associated seizure in an 11month-old child. J Emerg Med 1996;14:331–3.
- Taketomo CK, Hodding JH, Kraus DM. Pediatric dosage handbook. Cleveland: Lexi-Comp Inc., 2000–2001:423.