

on the face and in the mouth, oropharynx, and trachea. In addition, the awake patient may assist in positioning and protect the unanesthetized limbs. Finally, contact with the awake patient may limit the number and intrusiveness of monitors required.

In summary, we have presented a case of an infant with EB simplex undergoing circumcision successfully managed with caudal epidural blockade. When surgical site, procedure, and patient condition permit, a regional technique can provide safe and effective anesthesia in patients with EB.

REFERENCES

1. Tabas M, Gibbons S, Bauer EA: The mechanobullous diseases. *Dermatol Clin* 5:123-136, 1987
2. Lee C, Nagel EL: Anesthetic management of a patient with recessive epidermolysis bullosa dystrophica. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 43: 122-124, 1975
3. Reddy ARR, Wong DHW: Epidermolysis bullosa: A review of anesthetic problems and case reports. *Can Anaesth Soc J* 19: 536-548, 1972
4. Pratilas V, Bienzunski A: Epidermolysis bullosa manifested and treated during anesthesia. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 43:581-583, 1975
5. Kubota Y, Norton ML, Goldenberg S, Robertazzi RW: Anesthetic

- management of patients with epidermolysis bullosa undergoing surgery. *Anesth Analg* 40:244-250, 1961
6. Kaplan R, Strauch B: Regional anesthesia in a child with epidermolysis bullosa. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 67:262-264, 1987
 7. Kelly RE, Koff HD, Rothaus KO, Carter DM, Artusio JF: Brachial plexus anesthesia in eight patients with recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa. *Anesth Analg* 66:1318-1320, 1987
 8. Spielman FJ, Mann ES: Subarachnoid and epidural anaesthesia for patients with epidermolysis bullosa. *Can Anaesth Soc J* 31: 549-551, 1984
 9. Broster T, Placek R, Eggers GWN: Epidermolysis bullosa: Anesthetic management for cesarean section. *Anesth Analg* 66: 341-343, 1987
 10. Yeoman PM, Cooke R, Hain WR: Penile block for circumcision? *Anaesthesia* 38:862-866, 1983
 11. Takasaki M, Dohi S, Kawabata Y, Takahashi T: Dosage of lidocaine for caudal anesthesia in infants and children. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 47:527-529, 1977
 12. Broadman LM: Pediatric regional anesthesia and postoperative analgesia, American Society of Anesthesiologists Refresher Courses in Anesthesiology, Vol. 14. Edited by Barash PG. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott, 1986, pp 43-60
 13. Arthur DS, McNicol LR: Local anaesthetic techniques in paediatric surgery. *Br J Anaesth* 58:760-778, 1986
 14. Holzman RS, Worthen HM, Johnson KL: Anaesthesia for children with junctional epidermolysis bullosa (letalis). *Can J Anaesth* 34:395-399, 1987

Anesthesiology
70:151-153, 1989

Recurrent Respiratory Depression after Alfentanil Administration

RORY S. JAFFE, M.D.,* DENNIS COALSON, M.D.†

Recurrent respiratory depression after apparent recovery from the administration of fentanyl was first reported in 1976,¹ over 10 yr after its introduction. Subsequent reports have implicated secondary rises in plasma fentanyl concentration as the cause of many (but not all²) of these events.³⁻⁶ Alfentanil is a new opioid analgesic, with a shorter terminal elimination half-time ($t_{1/2\beta}$) than fentanyl. This is due to its smaller steady-state volume of distribution, although its hepatic clearance is also less.⁷ These pharmacokinetic differences may mean that recurrent respiratory depression is less likely after alfentanil,⁸ and that secondary peaks in alfentanil plasma concentration should not occur by the same mechanism

thought to cause secondary peaks in plasma fentanyl concentration: reuptake from tissue stores.⁷ However, we now report an episode of recurrent respiratory depression after alfentanil administration and discuss the possible causes.

CASE REPORT

A 49-yr-old, 60-kg man with squamous cell carcinoma of the posterior wall of the hypopharynx was scheduled for panendoscopy and biopsies for tumor mapping, and fine-needle aspiration of an enlarged left cervical lymph node. The patient complained only of mild dysphagia without hoarseness. Past medical history included 30 yr of heavy smoking and alcohol consumption. The patient was taking no medications. Examination showed a thin man, edentulous, without gross deformities of the upper airway. The trachea was in the midline and the cardiopulmonary examination was normal. Complete blood count, serum electrolytes, chest radiograph, and ECG were normal.

Without premedication, anesthesia was induced with alfentanil $75 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ iv and isoflurane 0.5% along with vecuronium $0.1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ iv for muscle relaxation. Direct laryngoscopy was performed and the trachea intubated without difficulty. Alfentanil $1.0 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ iv, nitrous oxide 60%, and isoflurane 0.5% maintained anesthesia. During bronchoscopy, the $\text{F}_{\text{I}\text{O}_2}$ was increased to 1.0, and ventilation controlled via the side arm of the bronchoscope. Forty-eight minutes after induction of anesthesia, thiopental 75 mg and additional vecuronium was given iv in response to movement, and the alfentanil infusion was

* Assistant Professor.

† Resident.

Received from the Department of Anesthesiology, School of Medicine, University of California, Davis, California. Accepted for publication August 18, 1988.

Address reprint requests to Dr. Jaffe: Department of Anesthesiology, School of Medicine, TB-170, University of California, Davis, California 95616.

Key words: Analgesics: alfentanil. Complications: apnea.

slowed to $0.75 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. The alfentanil infusion ended 93 min after its beginning, 30 min before tracheal extubation. Isoflurane was discontinued 15 min later, but nitrous oxide 60% and muscle relaxation were continued during the fine-needle aspiration. Neuromuscular blockade was reversed at the conclusion of the procedure with neostigmine $50 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ and glycopyrrolate $10 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$. One hundred percent O_2 was then administered.

The patient rapidly became alert; when his trachea was extubated, his spontaneous respiratory rate was 16 min^{-1} , E_tCO_2 (end-tidal pCO_2) 42 mmHg and E_t isoflurane 0.04%. He moved to the stretcher without assistance. In the recovery room, he was alert and talking, with a respiratory rate of 16 min^{-1} . Fifteen minutes later, he was cyanotic, apneic, and unresponsive, with a heart rate of 84 bpm. Ventilation was controlled with 100% O_2 via face mask, and then his trachea was intubated without additional medication. Blood was noted in the posterior pharynx at the time of laryngoscopy and blood was present in the endotracheal tube after intubation, but no clots or causes of respiratory obstruction were seen. Shortly thereafter, he awoke and responded to commands. He breathed spontaneously, but EtCO_2 rose from 58 to 62 mmHg. His pupils were pinpoint. Following naloxone 0.2 mg iv, the EtCO_2 decreased to 48 mmHg and pupil size increased. E_t isoflurane was 0.02%. His trachea was extubated, and he had no further ventilatory difficulties.

DISCUSSION

Immediately after the respiratory arrest, this patient, while responsive, had pinpoint pupils and a high, rising end-tidal CO_2 indicative of excessive opioid effect. That naloxone antagonized these signs is corroborating evidence of residual opioid effect.

Recurrent respiratory depression after alfentanil administration has not been reported, although the phenomenon is well described after the use of fentanyl.¹ Three theories of fentanyl associated recurrent respiratory depression are: gastroenterohepatic recirculation, reuptake from tissue stores, and interaction between degree of arousal, stimuli, and opioid-induced respiratory depression.

For gastroenterohepatic recirculation to cause a significant recurrent peak in plasma opioid concentration, these events must occur: accumulation and concentration in acidic gastric secretions as a result of ion trapping (conversion of unionized, diffusible drug at pH 7.4 to ionized form at low pH), movement of fluid from the stomach to duodenum with alkalization by pancreatic secretions converting most of the drug back to unionized form, uptake into the portal circulation, and low first-pass extraction by the liver so that a significant amount of the drug escapes into the systemic circulation. Several authors^{7,9,10} believe that fentanyl recurrent peaks are not a result of gastroenterohepatic recirculation. While the pK_a of 8.43¹¹ and the degree of ionization of 91% at pH 7.4 permit some ion trapping (and high concentrations can be measured in gastric fluid),⁴ the total amount of trapped fentanyl is low and hepatic extraction is high.⁹ In humans, fentanyl is primarily cleared by the liver (about 94% of

the total dose)¹² at a rate nearly equivalent to normal hepatic blood flow, representing an estimated first pass extraction close to 100%.⁷ Instillation of fentanyl into the stomach does not result in significant plasma concentrations of the unmetabolized drug, presumably as a result of this high extraction ratio.¹⁰ Alfentanil has characteristics that make gastroenterohepatic recirculation more feasible. Approximately 0.4% of a dose of alfentanil is excreted unchanged by the kidneys, and the rest is presumably cleared by the liver.⁸ The clearance of alfentanil is lower than fentanyl, and the hepatic extraction has been estimated at 33–40%.^{7,8} Alfentanil has a pK_a of 6.50,¹¹ and 11% is ionized at pH 7.4, favoring ion trapping in the stomach. Indeed, in the rat the gastric concentration of alfentanil surpasses the plasma concentration 15 min after administration; after 1 h, it is ten times the plasma concentration. However, the amount of drug in the stomach (including metabolites) is less than 3% of the total dose, probably due to the low volume of fluid involved.† Gastroenterohepatic recirculation can theoretically cause a recurrent peak in plasma alfentanil concentration,⁷ but the peak would not be clinically significant if the total amount trapped in gastric secretion is as low in humans as in rats.

Reuptake from tissue stores can cause a recurrent peak in plasma opioid concentration if these events occur: significant uptake in low blood-flow tissues with a later increase in blood flow to these same tissues, increasing efflux of accumulated drug from low blood-flow tissues to the central compartment. Fentanyl is highly lipid soluble and has a steady-state volume of distribution (Vd_{ss}) of $3.99 \text{ l} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$.¹² It is avidly taken up by muscle, and release from peripheral stores, not hepatic clearance, determines its terminal plasma concentration half-time ($t_{1/2\beta}$).¹² Sequentially decreasing and then increasing muscle blood flow after fentanyl administration does produce a recurrent plasma concentration peak.¹⁰ Also, patients after cardiac surgery can experience recurrent peaks at the time they wake up and start moving voluntarily (and presumably increase previously depressed muscle blood flow).² Thus, fentanyl recurrent peaks appear to be the result of reuptake from tissue stores. Alfentanil, however, has a much smaller volume of distribution. Its Vd_{ss} is $0.86 \text{ l} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$,¹³ and it is less lipid soluble: an octanol:water coefficient of 129:1 at pH 7.4, whereas for fentanyl it is 955:1.¹¹ Muscle uptake should be much less and a clinically significant increase in plasma concentration from redistribution into the central compartment appears unlikely.

† Schuermans V, Heykants J: Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion of alfentanil in animals. Preclinical research report 27246, 1982, Janssen research products information services.

Unlike the two mechanisms discussed above, the interaction of arousal and opioid-induced respiratory depression is not the result of secondary peaks in plasma opioid concentration. Sudden cessation of stimulation after arrival in the recovery room may contribute to recurrent respiratory depression if significant plasma concentrations of opioid are still present.¹ Also, the transition from awake to sleep markedly depresses the ventilatory response to CO₂ in a patient given an opioid.¹⁴ Our patient was undisturbed for the 15-min period between conclusion of check-in to the recovery room and the respiratory arrest. We estimate that at the time of the event the patient's alfentanil plasma concentration was 63 ng · ml⁻¹ (68% confidence limits of 27 to 99, and t_{1/2β} of 94 min) by the method of Maitre *et al.*¹⁵ For spontaneous ventilation, the Cp₅₀ (plasma concentration for 50% response) is 223 ng · ml⁻¹ (age range 23–54 yr, diazepam 10 mg premedication).¹⁶ Using the logistic equation from that study, we calculate the probability of apnea to be 0.1% at 99 ng · ml⁻¹, and 0% at both 63 and 27 ng · ml⁻¹. The predicted alfentanil plasma concentration (assuming no recurrent peak) at the time of renarcotization appears to be too low to produce apnea when combined with lack of stimulation. However, if we extend to the 95% confidence limits, the plasma fentanyl concentration upper limit is 135 ng · ml⁻¹, with an apnea probability of 1%.

We do not have a ready explanation for the apneic episode experienced by this patient. Recurrent respiratory depression after alfentanil can be caused by the combination of lingering opioid (especially in patients with prolonged t_{1/2β}, *e.g.*, the elderly or someone with atypical pharmacokinetics) and decreased stimulation or the onset of sleep. Recurrent respiratory depression might also be caused by gastroenterohepatic recirculation of alfentanil, although this has yet to be documented. Recurrent respiratory depression due to reuptake from tissue stores appears to be unlikely for alfentanil. In any case, patients recovering from alfentanil anesthesia may enter the recovery room awake, yet later experience somnolence and respiratory depression.

REFERENCES

1. Becker LD, Paulson BA, Miller RD, Severinghaus JW, Eger EI: Biphasic respiratory depression after fentanyl-droperidol or fentanyl alone used to supplement nitrous oxide anesthesia. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 44:291–296, 1976
2. Jaffe RS, Moldenhauer CC, Hug CC, Finlayson DC, Tobia V, Kopel ME: Nalbuphine antagonism of fentanyl-induced ventilatory depression: A randomized trial. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 68: 254–260, 1988
3. McQuay HJ, Moore RA, Paterson GMC, Adams AP: Plasma fentanyl concentrations and clinical observations during and after operation. *Br J Anaesth* 51:543–550, 1979
4. Stoeckel H, Hengstmann JH, Schüttler J: Pharmacokinetics of fentanyl as a possible explanation for recurrence of respiratory depression. *Br J Anaesth* 51:741–745, 1979
5. Stoeckel H, Schüttler J, Magnussen H, Hengstmann JH: Plasma fentanyl concentrations and the occurrence of respiratory depression in volunteers. *Br J Anaesth* 54:1087–1095, 1982
6. Hudson RJ, Thomson JR, Cannon JE, Friesen RM, Meatherall RC: Pharmacokinetics of fentanyl in patients undergoing abdominal aortic surgery. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 64:334–338, 1986
7. Bower S, Hull CJ: Comparative pharmacokinetics of fentanyl and alfentanil. *Br J Anaesth* 54:871–877, 1982
8. Schüttler J, Stoeckel H: Alfentanil (R39209) ein neues kurzwirkendes Opioid. *Anaesthesist* 31:10–14, 1982
9. Mather LE: Clinical pharmacokinetics of fentanyl and its newer derivatives. *Clin Pharmacokinetics* 8:422–446, 1983
10. Lehmann KA, Freier J, Daub D: Fentanyl-Pharmakokinetik und postoperative Atemdepression. *Anaesthesist* 31:111–118, 1982
11. Meuldermans WEG, Hurkmans RMA, Heykants JJP: Plasma protein binding and distribution of fentanyl, sufentanil, alfentanil and lofentanil in blood. *Arch Int Pharmacodyn Ther* 257:4–19, 1982
12. McClain DA, Hug C: Intravenous fentanyl kinetics. *Clin Pharm Ther* 28:106–114, 1980
13. Bovill JG, Sebel PS, Blackburn CL, Heykants J: The pharmacokinetics of alfentanil (R39209): A new opioid analgesic. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 57:439–443, 1982
14. Forrest WH Jr, Bellville JD: The effect of sleep plus morphine on the respiratory response to carbon dioxide. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 25:137–141, 1964
15. Maitre PO, Vozeh S, Heykants J, Thomson DA, Stanski DR: Population pharmacokinetics of alfentanil: The average dose-plasma concentration relationship and interindividual variability in patients. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 66:3–12, 1987
16. Ausems ME, Hug CC Jr, Stanski DR, Burm AGL: Plasma concentrations of alfentanil required to supplement nitrous oxide anesthesia for general surgery. *ANESTHESIOLOGY* 65:362–373, 1986