

Neuromuscular monitoring: an update

Mădălina Duțu, Robert Ivașcu, Oana Tudorache, Darius Morlova, Alina Stanca, Silviu Negoită, Dan Corneci

Anaesthesiology and Critical Care Department, Elias Clinical Emergency Hospital, Bucharest, Romania

Abstract

This review makes an advocacy for neuromuscular blockade monitoring during anaesthesia care, by: (i) describing the fundamental principles of the methods currently available, at the same time emphasizing quantitative recording measurements; (ii) describing the different ways in which muscles respond to the effect of neuromuscular blockade and their use in clinical practice; (iii) presenting results of different studies on timing and agents of neuromuscular block reversal, including a recommendation for sugammadex use and experimental results with calabadiol and (iv) in the end emphasizing the need for implementing neuromuscular monitoring as a practice that should be used every time a neuromuscular block is required.

Keywords: neuromuscular monitoring, residual neuromuscular blockade, peripheral nerve stimulator, quantitative monitoring, sugammadex, calabadiol

Received: 12 March 2018 / Accepted: 26 March 2018

Rom J Anaesth Intensive Care 2018; 25: 55-60

Introduction

Neuromuscular monitoring (NMT) is good guidance whenever there is a need to use neuromuscular blockade to significantly improve the quality of intubation and reduce airway injury [1]. Neuromuscular blocking agents (NMBAs) are usually administered during anaesthesia to facilitate endotracheal intubation and to improve surgical conditions.

Why monitor?

There is a great discrepancy between the literature's recommendations on NMT and clinical practice, as many anaesthetists do not monitor neuromuscular function, or do not know how to correctly interpret results. Studies revealed that about 20% of European anaesthesiologists and 10% of US, Australian and New Zealand anaesthesiologists never use nerve stimulation for neuromuscular blockade's depth monitoring [2, 3].

Recent studies continue to emphasize that subjective assessment using nerve stimulators is performed in less than 40% of patients and objective monitoring in only used for 17% of patients [4, 5].

Residual neuromuscular block is defined by the presence of signs or symptoms of muscular weakness after administration of NMBAs, even when neuromuscular blockade is reversed in the operating room. Residual neuromuscular block is a frequent occurrence and is associated with serious complications such as: pharyngeal dysfunction, increased risk for aspiration and pneumonia, acute respiratory events (hypoxemia, airway obstruction), need of tracheal intubation, discomfort for patients and surgeons, increased length of stay in the Post Anaesthesia Care Unit (PACU), all of the above occurring at TOF ratios below 0.9 [6-8]. A quantification of neuromuscular blockade is essential for all stages of anaesthesia when NMBAs are used [9]. Even if anticholinesterase reversal agents are routinely used, the incidence of residual block is still high: 20-40% [10, 11].

NMT is also useful in choosing the antagonist strategy. When using anticholinesterases or sugammadex, the choice of the reversal agent must be guided by neuromuscular monitoring (NMT). Antagonism dosage and injection time can also be optimized by the proper monitoring of the neuromuscular blockade's depth.

Address for correspondence: Mădălina Duțu, MD
Department of Anaesthesia
Elias Clinical Emergency Hospital
17 Marasti Bd, Bucharest, Romania
E-mail: madalinadutu236@yahoo.com

Methods of neuromuscular monitoring

Clinical tests consist of the evaluation of respiratory parameters and muscle function (5-s head lift, grip strength) [12]. Extensively used since the introduction of NMBAs in clinical practice, they are unreliable, none of them having a sensitivity of > 0.35 or a positive predictive value of > 0.52 [13]. At a level of neuromuscular recovery that allows normal ventilation in an intubated patient, airway patency may still be impaired [14], while the 5-s head lift can be performed at train of four ratio (TOFR) as low as 0.5 in more than 70% of patients [15]. In addition, they require a high degree of cooperation and wakefulness, often difficult to obtain in an emergent patient [16].

Qualitative evaluation employs peripheral nerve stimulators (PNSs) and assesses visually or tactilely the response of the stimulated muscle [12]. A standard PNS can provide several patterns of nerve stimulation such as train of four (TOF), double-burst (DBS), tetanic and post-tetanic count (PTC), allowing the evaluation of train-of-four count (TOFC) or the degree of fade. Although more reliable than clinical tests, qualitative evaluation does not eliminate the risk of postoperative

residual curarization (PORC). When evaluating TOFC, clinicians usually overestimate it, especially at moderate levels of block [17]. As regards fading, it is to be noted that tetanic fade can only be detected subjectively at $\text{TOFR} < 0.3$, while TOF fade is detected subjectively even by experienced clinicians only when $\text{TOFR} < 0.4$ [18, 19]. Using DBS, the TOFR threshold to detect fade can reach 0.6-0.7, but that prevents clinicians from detecting residual paralysis at TOFRs between 0.6-0.9 [18, 20].

Quantitative monitoring uses neuromuscular monitors, devices that stimulate the peripheral nerve while also recording, quantifying and displaying numerically the evoked responses [21]. Multiple techniques are in use, for which we presented advantages and limitations in Table 1.

Choosing the right nerve-muscle unit to monitor

Different muscle groups have various sensitivities to NMBAs. Neuromuscular block has faster onset, shorter duration and faster recovery at laryngeal and diaphragmatic muscles than at the APM, although the

Table 1. Techniques used for quantitative neuromuscular monitoring

Monitoring technique	Description	Devices for clinical use	Advantages	Limitations
Mechanomyography (MMG)	Measurement of the evoked mechanical response of the APM following ulnar nerve stimulation.	None	Precise Reproducible Gold standard	Cumbersome setup [21]
Electromyography (EMG)	Measurement of the muscle action potential following nerve stimulation.	Datex-Ohmeda NMT ElectroSensor	Best indicator of pure neuromuscular function [22]. Comparable with MMG but more consistent in time [23, 24]. Available for many sites [25]. Free muscle movement not required.	Influenced by other electronic devices in the OR (diathermy) or local temperature [21, 24].
Acceleromyography (AMG) most widely used technique, the de facto standard of clinical care [16, 22].	Measurement of the acceleration of the stimulated muscle with a piezoelectric sensor.	Classic AMG: TOF-Watch InfinityTrident NMT Pod 3D AMG: STIMPOD TOFscan [21]	Easy to handle Suitable for any free-moving muscle [10] 3D transducer to measure more precisely the muscle movement [29]	Not interchangeable with EMG/MMG TOFR overestimation by at least 0.15 [26, 27] Baseline TOFR > 1.0 [28].
Kinemyography (KMG)	Measurement of the electrical signal generated by the bending of a piezoelectric sensor strip placed between the thumb and the index	Datex-Ohmeda NMT MechanoSensor	Easy to use	Available only for the ulnar nerve – APM group Free thumb movement required Good strip placement between the fingers required [22]
Phonomyography (PMG)	Measurement of the low-frequency sounds evoked by muscle contraction	None	Easy to apply Usable for many sites [21] Good correlation with AMG, EMG, MMG [30]	
Compressomyography (CMG)	Modified non-invasive blood pressure cuff measuring the block depth by brachial plexus stimulation through electrodes attached on its inner surface [31]	TOF-Cuff	No need for free arm movement	Not interchangeable with MMG, but a TOF-Cuff® TOFR > 0.9 correlates well with a MMG TOFR > 0.7 [32]

former are more resistant to NMBAs [22]. Therefore, during surgery, the absence of a twitch at the APM does not guarantee paralysis of the diaphragm [33]. Concerning facial nerve stimulation, the corrugator superciliosus muscle (CSM) follows tightly the blockade kinetics of the laryngeal adductor muscles, while the orbicularis oculi muscle (OOM) behaves more like a limb muscle [34]. Facial muscles are still more resistant to NMBAs than APM, which may result in overdosing of NMBAs and overestimation of the degree of recovery [25, 33]. Consequently, Thilen et al. revealed a fivefold risk of postoperative residual curarization when using facial muscle monitoring [35].

The optimum monitoring site is the most accessible one during surgery and where response muscles can be clearly seen [36]. Some researchers state that it would be more appropriate to use the facial nerve (CSM) for monitoring the earliest time for optimal intubation (for rapid sequence induction) or blockade of the diaphragm and the abdominal wall muscles, whereas the ulnar nerve (APM) unit is best used when information about pharyngeal muscle recovery is needed, especially before extubation [37, 38].

The preferred nerve-muscle unit remains the ulnar nerve (APM), but we must be aware of the overestimation of time required for relaxation of laryngeal muscles when using this site in induction [36]. When the hand is inaccessible, the posterior tibial nerve-flexor hallucis brevis muscle evaluated subjectively or by AMG can be chosen, with similar values compared to APM [39]. Another option is facial muscle monitoring subjectively or by AMG, as long as the stimulator electrodes are moved on the ulnar nerve before extubation, to ensure adequate recovery [22].

When and how we should antagonize NMBA?

In the late 1970s, it was established that a TOF ratio > 0.7 signifies a satisfactory recovery of the neuromuscular function [40]. Subsequent studies have shown that signs and symptoms of the residual blockade (such as swallowing dysfunction, atelectasis, hypercarbia, and postoperative hypoxemia) were recorded at this TOF ratio [41]. The current TOF ratio at which extubation is recommended is above 0.9.

Two types of reversal agents are used: acetylcholinesterase antagonists (pyridostigmine, edrophonium and neostigmine) and selective reversal binding agents (sugammadex). But what is the right time to produce the reversibility of the block? To find an answer to this question, we must guide ourselves by the depth of the neuromuscular block. The profound block is the period

of time when there is no response to TOF stimulation, PTC and measured TOF are 0. A deep block involves TOF of zero and PTC = 1. The time period between recurrence of TOFC 1 and TOFC 3 represents the moderate block. During this period it is not recommended to apply PTC and the measured TOF is 0. The superficial block is characterized by TOFC equal to 4 and TOF measured between 0.1 and 0.4. A minimal block involves a TOF > 0.4 . [42]. For deep neuromuscular block the reversibility time using 0.07 mg/kg neostigmine is 49 minutes (with a range of 13-146 minutes) (TOF ratio > 0.9) for rocuronium and 44 minutes (TOF = 0.7) for atracurium [43, 44]. In 2015, Rodnei and his team demonstrated the efficacy of sugammadex (4 mg/kg) in the reversibility of the deep block following rocuronium [16]. For the moderate neuromuscular block using cisatracurium, Kirkegaard et al. concluded that a dose of 0.07 mg/kg neostigmine produces block reversibility (TOF = 0.9) in 20 minutes (7-71 minutes) [45]. Kim and his team established that the average time required to reverse moderate block with rocuronium, using the same dose of neostigmine, is 23 minutes (range 8-57) [46]. The recommended sugammadex dose for reversing moderate block is 2 mg/kg [16]. Antagonism of low degrees of atracurium-induced neuromuscular blockade was studied by Fuchs-Buder et al. and they found that for successful block's reversal within 10 min, as little as 20 μ g/kg neostigmine may be sufficient [47]. Studying the required dose of sugammadex for smaller degrees of residual block, Schaller found out that sugammadex, 0.22 mg/kg, and neostigmine, 34 μ g/kg, effectively and comparably reverse a rocuronium-induced shallow residual neuromuscular block at a TOF ratio of 0.5 in 2 minutes [48].

A third category of neuromuscular block antagonists is currently being studied, namely calabadiol. This molecule is a broad spectrum agent with action on both steroidal and benzylquinolone molecules. Huffman and his team tested calabadiol on 60 rats and showed a recovery of TOF > 0.9 neuromuscular function in both the rocuronium block and the atracurium neuromuscular block [49] and Haerter also demonstrated a much faster action of calabadiol compared to sugammadex [50].

In conclusion, current recommendations suggest that in the case of profound neuromuscular block, acetylcholinesterase inhibitors should be avoided and sugammadex (4-16 mg/kg) should be used; in the moderate block, both sugammadex (2 mg/kg) and acetyl cholinesterase antagonists (0.07 mg/kg neostigmine) can be used, and for the reversibility of the superficial block, a dose of 0.02-0.03 mg/kg of neostigmine is sufficient.

What do the guidelines say?

In order to convince the members to introduce the objective monitoring of the level of neuromuscular blockade in the routine management of general anaesthesia, some professional societies established specific guidelines. In 2000, The French Society of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care stated that the presence of four responses to TOF stimulation is not enough to assess recovery; therefore an instrumental monitoring is required [51]. From 2010, the homologous Czech Republic society has recommended the use of the quantitative evaluation of the blockade depth, along with the choice of the ulnar nerve as the most appropriate site for stimulation. Achieving TOF-ratio above 0.9 is considered an adequate sign of recovery from the effect of non-depolarizing muscle relaxants [52]. Guidelines issued by the Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists (ANZCA) consider that neuromuscular function monitoring, preferably quantitative, must be available for every patient who undergoes neuromuscular blockade and should be used whenever the anaesthesiologist is considering extubation following the use of non-depolarizing neuromuscular blockade [53].

The latest recommendations for standard monitoring during anaesthesia issued by The Association of Anaesthetists of Great Britain & Ireland in December 2015 state that the peripheral nerve stimulator is a mandatory device if neuromuscular blocking drugs are used. It should be used from induction time until recovery from blockade and consciousness return. A more reliable guarantee for the return of safe motor function is evidence of a train-of-four ratio > 0.9 made by a quantitative device. As a result, the anaesthetic departments are encouraged to use this kind of monitoring instead of qualitative devices [54].

Guidelines for the management of tracheal extubation released by the Difficult Airway Society emphasize the importance of the reversal of neuromuscular block and its monitoring. The use of a peripheral nerve stimulator to ensure a train-of-four ratio of 0.9 or above is recommended in order to reduce the incidence of postoperative airway complications [55].

Despite the use of nerve stimulating devices to monitor the depth of neuromuscular blockade for more than half a century and the existence of many studies that correlate the patient outcome to neuromuscular residual blockade, the American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) and the European Society of Anaesthesiology (ESA) have not yet published any guidelines or recommendations. The ASA standard of intraoperative monitoring does not include neuromuscular blockade monitoring [56]. An updated report by the ASA on Practice Guidelines for Postanesthetic Care added the next statements: “*assessment of*

neuromuscular function should be performed during emergence and recovery for patients who have received NMBAs or who have medical conditions associated with neuromuscular dysfunction” and “*assessment of neuromuscular function primarily includes physical examination and, on occasion, may include NMBAs monitoring*”. As regards the reversal of NMBAs, the recommendation is to use anaesthetic regimens designed to avoid the need for antagonism in order to reduce adverse outcomes and improve patient comfort and satisfaction. The guidelines use also a vague formulation regarding the indication of block reversing: “*specific antagonists should be administered for reversal of residual neuromuscular blockade when indicated*” [57].

Conclusions

Neuromuscular block should be monitored for all patients who receive NMBAs during anaesthesia, to guide dosing of NMBAs and reversal agents, and to assess the degree of recovery.

Quantitative methods of measuring block's depth (such as acceleromyography or mechanomyography) are preferred. Onset and recovery from neuromuscular block occurs at different rates in different muscles. Satisfactory recovery from neuromuscular block has not occurred until the train-of-four ratio is > 0.9 . By quickly and completely reversing any depth of neuromuscular block, sugammadex may reduce the rate of residual relaxation. There is a great need of global guidelines for neuromuscular monitoring during anaesthesia in order to reduce postoperative residual relaxation and improving patients' outcome.

Conflict of interest

Nothing to declare

References

1. Mencke T, Echternach M, Plinkert PK, Johann U, Afan N, Rensing H, et al. Does the timing of tracheal intubation based on neuromuscular monitoring decrease laryngeal injury? A randomized, prospective, controlled trial. *Anesth Analg* 2006; 102: 306-312. doi: 10.1213/01.ANE.0000181290.37527.CE
2. Naguib M, Kopman AF, Lien CA, Hunter JM, Lopez A, Brull SJ. [A survey of current management of neuromuscular block in the United States and Europe](#). *Anesth Analg* 2010; 111: 110-119. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e3181c07428
3. Brull SJ, Kopman AF. [Current Status of Neuromuscular Reversal and Monitoring: Challenges and Opportunities](#). *Anesthesiology* 2017; 126: 173-190. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0000000000001409
4. Thomsen JL, Nielsen CV, Palmqvist DF, Gätke MR. Premature awakening and underuse of neuromuscular monitoring in a registry of patients with butyrylcholinesterase deficiency. *Br J Anaesth* 2015; 115 (Suppl 1): i89-i94. doi: 10.1093/bja/aev103

5. Phillips S, Stewart PA, Bilgin AB. A survey of the management of neuromuscular blockade monitoring in Australia and New Zealand. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 2013; 41: 374-379
6. Kopman AF, Yee PS, Neuman GG. Relationship of the train-of-four fade ratio to clinical signs and symptoms of residual paralysis in awake volunteers. *Anesthesiology* 1997; 86: 765-771
7. Brull SJ, Naguib M. What we know: precise measurement leads to patient comfort and safety. *Anesthesiology* 2011; 115: 918-920. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e318234367d
8. Naguib M, Kopman AF, Ensor JE. Neuromuscular monitoring and postoperative residual curarisation: a meta-analysis. *Br J Anaesth* 2007; 98: 302-316. doi: 10.1093/bja/ael386
9. Checketts MR, Alladi R, Ferguson K, Gemmell L, Handy JM, Klein AA, et al. Recommendations for standards of monitoring during anaesthesia and recovery 2015: Association of Anaesthetists of Great Britain and Ireland. *Anaesthesia* 2016; 71: 85-93. doi: 10.1111/anae.13316
10. Fortier LP, McKeen D, Turner K, de Médicis É, Warriner B, Jones PM, et al. The RECITE study: A Canadian Prospective, Multicenter Study of the Incidence and Severity of Residual Neuromuscular Blockade. *Anesth Analg* 2015; 121: 366-372. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0000000000000757
11. Aytac I, Postaci A, Aytac B, Sacan O, Alay GH, Celik B, et al. Survey of postoperative residual curarization, acute respiratory events and approach of anesthesiologists. *Braz J Anesthesiol* 2016; 66: 55-62. doi: 10.1016/j.bjane.2012.06.011
12. Unterbuchner C, Blobner M, Pühringer F, Janda M, Bischoff S, Bein B, et al. Development of an algorithm using clinical tests to avoid post-operative residual neuromuscular block. *BMC Anesthesiol* 2017; 17: 101. doi: 10.1186/s12871-017-0393-4
13. Cammu G, De Witte J, De Veylder J, Byttebier G, Vandeput D, Foubert L, et al. Postoperative residual paralysis in outpatients versus inpatients. *Anesth Analg* 2006; 102: 426-429. doi: 10.1213/01.ane.0000195543.61123.1f
14. Pavlin EG, Holle RH, Schoene RB. Recovery of airway protection compared with ventilation in humans after paralysis with curare. *Anesthesiology* 1989; 70: 381-385. doi: 10.1097/00000542-198903000-00002
15. Pedersen T, Viby-Mogensen J, Bang U, Olsen NV, Jensen E, Engbæk J. Does perioperative tactile evaluation of the train-of-four response influence the frequency of postoperative residual neuromuscular blockade? *Anesthesiology* 1990; 73: 835-839. doi: 10.1097/00000542-199011000-00007
16. Rodney G, Raju PK, Ball DR. Not just monitoring: a strategy for managing neuromuscular blockade. *Anaesthesia* 2015; 70: 1105-1109. doi: 10.1111/anae.13219
17. Bhananker SM, Treggiari MM, Sellers BA, Cain KC, Ramaiah R, Thilen SR. Comparison of train-of-four count by anesthesia providers versus TOF-Watch® SX: a prospective cohort study. *Can J Anaesth* 2015; 62: 1089-1096. doi: 10.1007/s12630-015-0433-9
18. Capron F, Fortier LP, Racine S, Donati F. Tactile fade detection with hand or wrist stimulation using train-of-four, double-burst stimulation, 50-hertz tetanus, 100-hertz tetanus, and acceleromyography. *Anesth Analg* 2006; 102: 1578-1584. doi: 10.1213/01.ane.0000204288.24395.38
19. Brull SJ, Silverman DG. Visual and tactile assessment of neuromuscular fade. *Anesth Analg* 1993; 77: 352-355. doi: 10.1213/00000539-199377020-00024
20. Drenck NE, Ueda N, Olsen NV, Engbæk J, Jensen E, Skovgaard LT, et al. Manual evaluation of residual curarization using double burst stimulation: a comparison with train-of-four. *Anesthesiology* 1989; 70: 578-581. doi: 10.1097/00000542-198904000-00003
21. Murphy GS. Neuromuscular Monitoring in the Perioperative Period. *Anesth Analg* 2018; 126: 464-468. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0000000000002387
22. Naguib M, Brull SJ, Johnson KB. Conceptual and technical insights into the basis of neuromuscular monitoring. *Anaesthesia* 2017; 72 Suppl 1: 16-37. doi: 10.1111/anae.13738
23. Engbæk J, Roed J, Hangaard N, Viby-Mogensen J. The agreement between adductor pollicis mechanomyogram and first dorsal interosseous electromyogram. A pharmacodynamic study of rocuronium and vecuronium. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 1994; 38: 869-878. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-6576.1994.tb04020.x
24. Brull SJ, Murphy GS. Residual Neuromuscular Block: lessons unlearned. Part II: methods to reduce the risk of residual weakness. *Anesth Analg* 2010; 111:129-140. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e318181da8312
25. Hemmerling TM, Schmidt J, Hanusa C, Wolf T, Schmitt H. Simultaneous determination of neuromuscular block at the larynx, diaphragm, adductor pollicis, orbicularis oculi and corrugator supercilii muscles. *Br J Anaesth* 2000; 85: 856-860. doi: 10.1093/bja/85.6.856
26. Claudius C, Viby-Mogensen J. Acceleromyography for use in scientific and clinical practice: a systematic review of the evidence. *Anesthesiology* 2008; 108: 1117-1140. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e318173f62f
27. Liang SS, Stewart PA, Phillips S. An ipsilateral comparison of acceleromyography and electromyography during recovery from nondepolarizing neuromuscular block under general anesthesia in humans. *Anesth Analg* 2013; 117: 373-379. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e3182937fc4
28. Suzuki T, Fukano N, Kitajima O, Saeki S, Ogawa S. Normalization of acceleromyographic train-of-four ratio by baseline value for detecting residual neuromuscular block. *Br J Anaesth* 2006; 96: 44-47. doi: 10.1093/bja/aei273
29. Colegrave N, Billard V, Motamed C, Bourgain JL. Comparison of the TOF-Scan™ acceleromyograph to TOF-Watch SX™: Influence of calibration. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med* 2016; 35: 223-227. doi: 10.1016/j.accpm.2016.01.003
30. Trager G, Michaud G, Deschamps S, Hemmerling TM. Comparison of phonomyography, kinemyography and mechanomyography for neuromuscular monitoring. *Can J Anaesth* 2006; 53(2): 130-135. doi: 10.1007/BF03021816
31. Schepens T, Cammu G. Neuromuscular blockade: what was, is and will be. *Acta Anesthesiol Belg* 2014; 65: 151-159
32. Veiga Ruiz G, García Cayuela J, Orozco Montes J, Parreño Caparrós M, García Rojo B, Aguayo Albasini JL. Monitoring intraoperative neuromuscular blockade and blood pressure with one device (TOF-Cuff): A comparative study with mechanomyography and invasive blood pressure. *Rev Esp Anesthesiol Reanim* 2017; 64: 560-567. doi: 10.1016/j.redar.2017.03.013
33. Brull SJ, Ross Renew J, Naguib M. Monitoring neuromuscular blockade. UpToDate [Internet]. 2017 Nov 27 [cited 2018 March 11]. Available from Uptodate.com: <https://www.uptodate.com/contents/monitoring-neuromuscular-blockade>
34. Ungureanu D, Meistelman C, Frossard J, Donati F. The orbicularis oculi and the adductor pollicis muscles as monitors of atracurium block of laryngeal muscles. *Anesth Analg* 1993; 77(4): 775-779. doi: 10.1213/00000539-199310000-00021
35. Thilen SR, Hansen BE, Ramaiah R, Kent CD, Treggiari MM, Bhananker SM. Intraoperative neuromuscular monitoring site

- and residual paralysis. *Anesthesiology* 2012; 117: 964-972. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e31826f8fdd
36. Fabregat López J, Candia Arana CA, Castillo Monzón CG. Neuromuscular monitoring and its importance in neuromuscular blockade. *Rev Colomb Anestesiol* 2012; 40: 293-303. doi: 10.1016/j.rca.2012.05.001
37. Plaud B, Debaene B, Donati F. The corrugator supercilii, not the orbicularis oculi, reflects rocuronium neuromuscular blockade at the laryngeal adductor muscles. *Anesthesiology* 2001; 95: 96-101. doi: 10.1097/00000542-200107000-00019
38. Hemmerling TM, Le N. Brief review: Neuromuscular monitoring: an update for the clinician. *Can J Anaesth* 2007; 54: 58-72. doi: 10.1007/BF03021901
39. Saitoh Y, Fujii Y, Takahashi K, Makita K, Tanaka H, Amaha K. Recovery of post-tetanic count and train-of-four responses at the great toe and thumb. *Anaesthesia* 1998; 53: 244-248. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2044.1998.00336.x
40. Ali HH, Wilson RS, Savarese JJ, Kitz RJ. The effect of tubocurarine on indirectly elicited train-of-four muscle response and respiratory measurements in humans. *Br J Anaesth* 1975; 47: 570-574. doi:10.1093/bja/47.5.570
41. Sauer M, Stahn A, Soltesz S, Noeldge-Schomburg G, Mencke T. The influence of residual neuromuscular block on the incidence of critical respiratory events. A randomised, prospective, placebo-controlled trial. *Eur J Anaesthesiol* 2011; 28: 842-848. doi: 10.1097/EJA.0b013e31828345cd11
42. Fuchs-Buder T, Claudius C, Skovgaard LT, Eriksson LI, Mirakhor RK, Viby-Mogensen J; 8th International Neuromuscular Meeting. Good clinical research practice in pharmacodynamics studies of neuromuscular blocking agents II: The Stockholm revision. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2007; 51: 789-808. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-6576.2007.01352.x
43. Jones RK, Caldwell JE, Brull SJ, Soto RG. Reversal of profound rocuronium-induced blockade with sugammadex: a randomized comparison with neostigmine. *Anesthesiology* 2008; 109: 816-824. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e31818a3fee
44. Caldwell JE, Robertson EN, Baird WL. Antagonism of profound neuromuscular blockade induced by vecuronium or atracurium. Comparison of neostigmine with edrophonium. *Br J Anaesth* 1986; 58: 1285-1289. doi: 10.1093/bja/58.11.1285
45. Kirkegaard H, Heier T, Caldwell JE. Efficacy of tactile-guided reversal from cisatracurium-induced neuromuscular block. *Anesthesiology* 2002; 96: 45-50. doi: 10.1097/00000542-199809170-00011
46. Kim KS, Cheong MA, Lee HJ, Lee JM. Tactile assessment for the reversibility of rocuronium-induced neuromuscular blockade during propofol or sevoflurane anesthesia. *Anesth Analg* 2004; 99: 1080-1085. doi: 10.1213/01.ANE.0000130616.57678.80
47. Fuchs-Buder T, Meistelman C, Alla F, Grandjean A, Wuthrich Y, Donati F. Antagonism of low degrees of atracurium-induced neuromuscular blockade: dose-effect relationship for neostigmine. *Anesthesiology* 2010; 112: 34-40. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e3181c53863
48. Schaller SJ, Fink H, Ulm K, Blobner M. Sugammadex and neostigmine dose-finding study for reversal of shallow residual neuromuscular block. *Anesthesiology* 2010; 113: 1054-1060. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e3181f4182a
49. Hoffmann U, Grosse-Sundrup M, Eikermann-Haerter K, Zaremba S, Ayata C, Zhang B, et al. A new agent to reverse the effects of benzyloisoquinoline and steroidal neuromuscular-blocking agents. *Anesthesiology* 2013; 119: 317-325. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e3182910213
50. Haerter F, Simons JC, Foerster U, Moreno Duarte I, Diaz-Gil D, Ganapati S, et al. Comparative Effectiveness of Calabation and Sugammadex to Reverse Non-depolarizing Neuromuscular-blocking Agents. *Anesthesiology* 2015; 123: 1337-1349. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0000000000000868
51. Indications of neuromuscular blockade in anaesthesia. Short text. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim* 2000; 19(Suppl 2): 352s-355s
52. Cerny V, Herold I, Cvachovec K, Sevcik P, Adamus M. Guidelines for managing neuromuscular block: not only Czech beer deserves a taste. *Anesth Analg* 2011; 112: 482. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e3181fff10b
53. Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists (ANZCA); Professional documents [Internet]. Melbourne: Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists. 2015. [cited 2018 February 12]. Available from: <http://www.anzca.edu.au/resources/professional-documents>.
54. The Association of Anaesthetists of Great Britain & Ireland (AAGBI); Guidelines [Internet]. London, UK: The Association of Anaesthetists of Great Britain & Ireland. 2015. [cited 2018 February 9] Available from: <https://www.aagbi.org/publications/publications-guidelines/S/Z>
55. Popat M, Mitchell V, Dravid R, Patel A, Swamipillai C, Higgs A. Difficult Airway Society Guidelines for the management of tracheal extubation. *Anaesthesia* 2012; 67: 318-340. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2044.2012.07075.x
56. American Society of Anesthesiologists; Standards and Guidelines and Related Resources [Internet]. Schaumburg, IL: American Society of Anesthesiologists. 2016. [cited 2018 February 9] Available from: <http://www.asahq.org/quality-and-practice-management/standards-guidelines-and-related-resources/standards-for-basic-anesthetic-monitoring>
57. Apfelbaum JL, Silverstein JH, Chung FF, Connis RT, Fillmore RB, et al. Practice guidelines for postanesthetic care: an updated report by the American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on Postanesthetic Care. *Anesthesiology* 2013; 118: 291-307. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0b013e31827773e9