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Review

Article

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW ON MUSCLE RELAXANTS: CLASSIFICATION, MECHANISMS, THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS, AND SAFETY

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Abstract:

Muscle relaxants are a heterogeneous group of pharmacological agents used to relieve muscle spasms, reduce spasticity, and induce skeletal muscle paralysis during surgical and critical care procedures. They are broadly classified into centrally acting skeletal muscle relaxants, direct-acting agents, and neuromuscular blocking agents. These drugs act through diverse mechanisms, ranging from modulation of GABAergic or adrenergic neurotransmission in the central nervous system to direct inhibition of calcium release in skeletal muscle fibers or blockade of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors at the neuromuscular junction. Clinical applications span the management of acute musculoskeletal disorders, chronic spasticity in neurological conditions, treatment of malignant hyperthermia, and facilitation of anesthesia and intubation. Preclinical studies have provided valuable insights into their efficacy, specificity, and safety, while clinical trials have defined their therapeutic role. Despite their benefits, adverse effects such as sedation, hepatotoxicity, dependency, and life-threatening reactions like malignant hyperthermia necessitate cautious prescribing and monitoring. Non-pharmacological strategies such as physiotherapy and exercise serve as complementary approaches. This review summarizes the pharmacology, therapeutic applications, preclinical and clinical evidence, and safety considerations of muscle relaxants, with references from standard pharmacology texts and open-access journals.

Keywords: Muscle relaxants; Spasmolytics; Neuromuscular blocking agents; Baclofen; Dantrolene; Tizanidine; Preclinical trials.

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1. INTRODUCTION:

Muscle relaxants are drugs that reduce abnormal skeletal muscle activity and are employed in diverse clinical contexts, ranging from musculoskeletal injuries to neurological disorders and anesthesia. Unlike analgesics, which primarily alleviate pain, muscle relaxants target hyperactive muscle tone, thus improving patient comfort, mobility, and surgical outcomes [1,2]. Historically, the discovery of neuromuscular blockers such as curare derivatives revolutionized anesthesia, while centrally acting relaxants like baclofen and tizanidine have become essential in neurological rehabilitation [1–3].

The therapeutic importance of these drugs is underscored by their dual roles: spasmolytics for chronic spasticity and neuromuscular blockers for short-term surgical use. However, their adverse effects and misuse potential demand rational prescribing. This review provides a detailed overview of muscle relaxants, covering classification, pharmacological mechanisms, therapeutic applications, preclinical research, adverse effects, and alternative strategies.

2. NORMAL MUSCLE CONTRACTION MECHANISM

Skeletal muscle contraction is a highly coordinated process initiated by signals from motor neurons. The action potential generated in the motor nerve travels to the neuromuscular junction, where it triggers the release of acetylcholine (ACh) from presynaptic vesicles. ACh diffuses across the synaptic cleft and binds to nicotinic receptors (Nm type) located on the motor end plate, leading to opening of ligand-gated sodium channels and depolarization of the muscle membrane.

This depolarization propagates along the sarcolemma and into the transverse (T) tubules, where it activates voltage-gated dihydropyridine receptors (DHPRs). These receptors are mechanically linked to ryanodine receptors (RyR1) on the sarcoplasmic reticulum, causing calcium release into the cytoplasm.

The surge in intracellular calcium binds to troponin-C, producing conformational changes that displace tropomyosin and expose actin-binding sites for myosin. The actin–myosin cross-bridge cycle is then activated, powered by ATP hydrolysis, leading to sarcomere shortening and muscle contraction.

Relaxation occurs when calcium is actively pumped back into the sarcoplasmic reticulum by Ca^{2+} -ATPase pumps, restoring low cytosolic calcium levels and ending cross-bridge formation. This

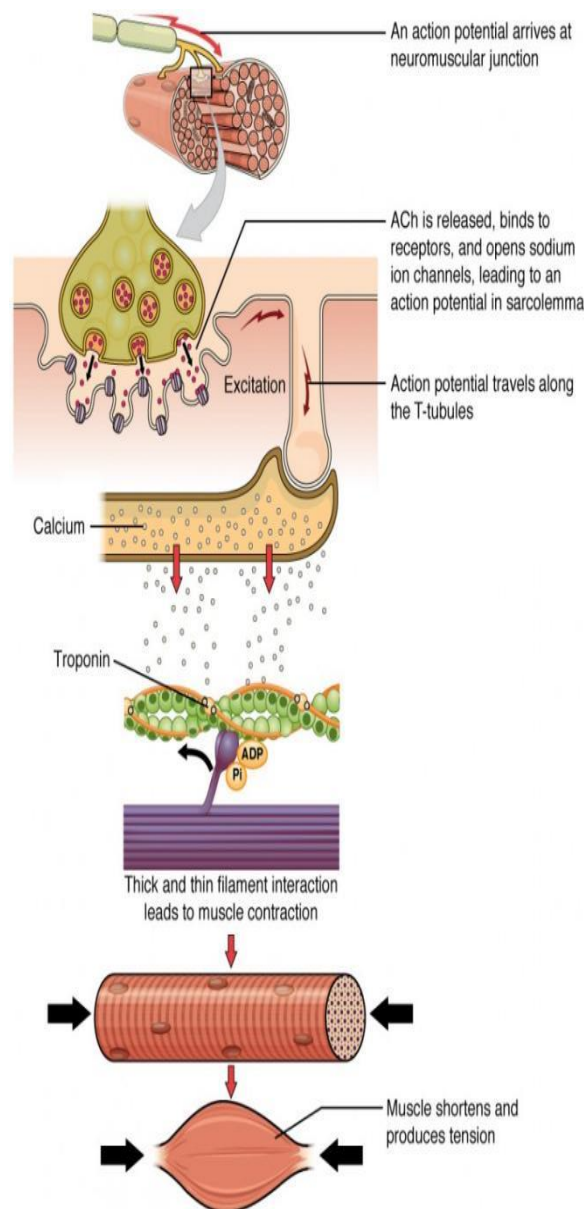


Figure 1. Contraction of a Muscle Fiber. A cross-bridge forms between actin and the myosin heads triggering contraction. As long as Ca^{++} ions remain in the sarcoplasm to bind to troponin, and as long as ATP is available, the muscle fiber will continue to shorten.

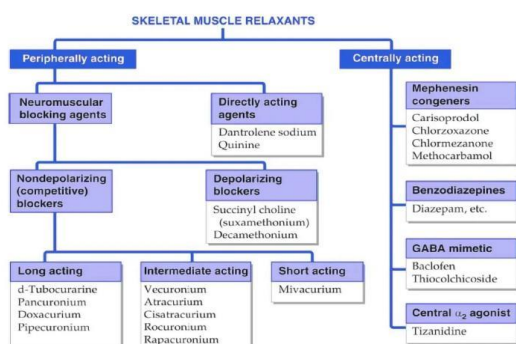
tightly regulated sequence ensures precise control of muscle tone and voluntary movement. Drugs that interfere with any of these steps form the pharmacological basis of muscle relaxants.

3. CLASSIFICATION OF MUSCLE RELAXANTS

Muscle relaxants are broadly classified according to their site and mechanism of action into three major groups:

1. Peripherally Acting Neuromuscular Blockers:

These drugs act at the neuromuscular junction and



are mainly used in anesthesia to produce skeletal muscle paralysis.

Depolarizing blockers: Succinylcholine is the only drug in this group. It mimics acetylcholine, binds to nicotinic receptors, and produces persistent depolarization, leading to flaccid paralysis.

Non-depolarizing blockers: Agents like atracurium, vecuronium, and rocuronium act as competitive antagonists at nicotinic receptors, preventing ACh-induced depolarization. Their effect can be reversed by cholinesterase inhibitors such as neostigmine.

2. Centrally Acting Muscle Relaxants (Spasmolytics)

These drugs reduce muscle tone by acting on the spinal cord and supraspinal centers.

GABA agonists: Baclofen (GABA-B receptor agonist) reduces excitatory neurotransmitter release; diazepam enhances GABA-A activity.

α₂-adrenergic agonists: Tizanidine decreases polysynaptic reflex activity via presynaptic inhibition.

Others: Cyclobenzaprine acts at brainstem pathways; carisoprodol has central sedative action.

3. Direct-Acting Agents

Dantrolene: Acts directly on skeletal muscle by inhibiting calcium release from sarcoplasmic reticulum, useful in spasticity and malignant hyperthermia.

Botulinum toxin: Blocks ACh release at the presynaptic terminal, producing prolonged chemodenervation, used in focal dystonias.

4. PHARMACOLOGY OF MUSCLE RELAXANTS

• Pharmacodynamics:

A. Neuromuscular Blockers:

Depolarizing (Succinylcholine): Mimics acetylcholine, binds to Nm receptors, and causes persistent depolarization. Initial fasciculations are followed by flaccid paralysis due to inactivation of sodium channels.

Non-depolarizing agents (e.g., vecuronium, rocuronium): Competitively block Nm receptors, preventing depolarization. Paralysis develops in

sequence: small muscles → limbs → trunk → diaphragm. Their effect is reversed by acetylcholinesterase inhibitors such as neostigmine.

B. Centrally Acting Agents

Baclofen: GABA-B receptor agonist, reduces excitatory neurotransmitter release, lowering spasticity without major muscle weakness.

Diazepam: Enhances GABA-A receptor activity, increasing inhibitory transmission; useful in acute muscle spasms.

Tizanidine: α₂-adrenergic agonist, inhibits presynaptic glutamate release, producing fewer cardiovascular effects compared to clonidine.

C. Direct-Acting Agents

Dantrolene: Inhibits ryanodine receptor (RyR1), reducing calcium release from sarcoplasmic reticulum, leading to muscle relaxation. Lifesaving in malignant hyperthermia.

Botulinum toxin: Cleaves SNARE proteins, blocking acetylcholine release at presynaptic terminals, producing focal chemodenervation.

• Pharmacokinetics

Succinylcholine: Rapid onset (<1 min), ultra-short duration (5–10 min), metabolized by plasma pseudocholinesterase.

Non-depolarizing agents: Vecuronium and rocuronium have intermediate duration; atracurium undergoes Hofmann elimination, useful in renal/hepatic impairment.

Centrally acting drugs: Baclofen is orally active, partly metabolized in the liver, excreted via kidneys. Diazepam has a long half-life due to active metabolites.

Dantrolene: Oral bioavailability ~70%, hepatic metabolism, long half-life (~8 hrs), cumulative toxicity possible.

C. Adverse Effects

Depolarizing blockers (succinylcholine): Hyperkalemia, malignant hyperthermia, bradyarrhythmias, muscle pain.

Non-depolarizing blockers: Hypotension (histamine release), prolonged apnea in enzyme deficiency.

Centrally acting agents: Sedation, dizziness, withdrawal reactions with baclofen or benzodiazepines.

Dantrolene: Hepatotoxicity, muscle weakness.

Botulinum toxin: Local muscle paralysis, dysphagia, antibody resistance.

D. Drug Interactions

Cholinesterase inhibitors antagonize non-depolarizing blockers but potentiate depolarizing block.

Aminoglycoside antibiotics and magnesium salts enhance neuromuscular blockade.

CNS depressants (alcohol, opioids) increase sedation with centrally acting relaxants.

5. CLINICAL USES

Muscle relaxants have wide applications in anesthesia, critical care, and neurology. Neuromuscular blockers are essential during general anesthesia for endotracheal intubation, mechanical ventilation, and to provide surgical relaxation, especially in intra-abdominal and thoracic procedures.

Centrally acting agents such as baclofen, diazepam, and tizanidine are primarily used to treat chronic spasticity due to multiple sclerosis, spinal cord injury, or cerebral palsy. Cyclobenzaprine and carisoprodol are prescribed for acute musculoskeletal conditions such as low back pain. Direct-acting agents have specialized roles: dantrolene is lifesaving in malignant hyperthermia, while botulinum toxin is used in focal dystonias, blepharospasm, chronic migraine, and cosmetic procedures.

Thus, clinical use depends on drug mechanism, with careful monitoring to prevent adverse effects and optimize patient safety.

6. CONCLUSION:

Muscle relaxants remain an essential component of modern pharmacotherapy. By acting at different levels—neuromuscular junction, central nervous system, or directly on muscle—they provide valuable benefits in anesthesia, critical care, and management of spasticity. While agents like succinylcholine and rocuronium are crucial in surgery, drugs such as baclofen, tizanidine, and dantrolene play important roles in chronic neurological and emergency conditions. However, their adverse effects, drug interactions, and potential for misuse necessitate careful monitoring and rational prescribing. Future advances aim toward safer, more selective agents with fewer systemic complications.

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