

ACTA SCIENTIFIC DENTAL SCIENCES (ISSN: 2581-4893)

Volume 4 Issue 10 October 2020

Review Article

Conscious Sedation in Pediatric Dentistry: One Step forward

Siji Elizabeth^{1*}, Bhawna G Saraf², Neha Sheoran³, Pramodh Thomas John⁴, Disha Kapil¹ and Megha Chawla¹

¹PG Student, Department of Pediatrics and Preventive Dentistry, Sudha Rustagi
College of Dental Sciences and Research, Faridabad, Haryana, India

²Head of Department and Professor, Department of Pediatrics and Preventive Dentistry,
Sudha Rustagi College of Dental Sciences and Research, Faridabad, Haryana, India

³Professor, Department of Pediatrics and Preventive Dentistry, Sudha Rustagi College of
Dental Sciences and Research, Faridabad, Haryana, India

⁴Senior Lecturer, Department of Orthodontics, Educare Institute of Dental Sciences,
Malappuram, Kerala, India

*Corresponding Author: Siji Elizabeth, PG Student, Department of Pediatrics and Preventive Dentistry, Sudha Rustagi College of Dental Sciences and Research, Faridabad, Haryana, India.

Received: August 17, 2020
Published: September 16, 2020

© All rights are reserved by Siji Elizabeth.,

et al.

Abstract

Early childhood are usually associated with dental pain and anxiety among pediatric patients that is often carried into adulthood. Dental treatment of these patients are often challenging and also require adequate cooperation. Such patients can be managed using pharmacological methods. A thorough knowledge of the basic agents used for sedation is necessary. This article thus has reviewed on basic pharmacological agents used in the procedural sedation in children briefing its pharmacological properties.

Keywords: Conscious Sedation; Children; Pediatric Dentistry; Inhalational Sedation Agents; Intravenous Sedation Agents

Abbreviations

CNS: Central Nervous System; FDA: The Food and Drug Administration, MRD: Maximum Recommended Dose; GI: Gastrointestinal; IM: Intramuscular; IV: Intravenous; IN: Intranasal; SM: Submucosal; SC: Subcutaneous; IO: Intraosseous; ASA: American Society of Anesthesiologists; MAC: Minimum Alveolar Concentration; GABA: Gamma-aminobutyric Acid

Introduction

Pain and fear are the two most frightening enemies of human psyche and an exaggerated perception of pain and anxious behavior is more closely related to dental treatment than any other type of health care. Because of the pain and fear associated with dental treatment, a number of patients try to avoid it until the pathology

becomes very severe and there are no effective home remedies. Some retrospective studies have shown the adult dental fear to unpleasant treatment received at an early age [1]. Dental treatment of pediatric patients with behavioral problems is a very difficult task. Behavior management only through psychological techniques are not sufficient for inspecting the patients' cooperation. Therefore, there is a definite need for pharmacological treatment for the problem. Various oral sedative agents have been used for managing uncooperative young dental patients [2].

Conscious sedation is a technique in which the use of a drug or drugs produces a state of depression of the central nervous system (CNS) enabling treatment to be carried out, but during which verbal contact with the patient is maintained throughout the period of

sedation [3]. It is a drug-induced depression of consciousness during which the patient responds purposefully to verbal commands, either alone or with light tactile stimulation. No interventions are required to maintain patent airway, and spontaneous ventilation is adequate. Cardiovascular function is usually maintained [4].

The definitions for administration of minimal sedation are as follows [5]:

- Maximum recommended dose (MRD): Maximum FDArecommended dosages of a drug, as printed in FDA-approved labeling for unmonitored home use.
- Incremental dosing: Administration of multiple dosages of a drug until a desired maximum recommended dose is obtained (MRD).
- Supplemental dosing: It is a single additional dose of the initial dose of the initial drug that may be necessary for prolonged procedures. The supplemental dose should not exceed one-half of the initial doses and should not be administered until the dentist has determined the clinical half-life of the initial dosing has passed. The total aggregate dose must not exceed 1.5x the MRD on the day of treatment.
- Conscious sedation/moderate sedation: A drug-induced depression of consciousness during which patients respond purposefully to verbal commands, either alone or accompanied by light tactile stimulation. No interventions are required to maintain the patency of airway if adequate ventilation is present. The functioning of Cardiovascular system is usually maintained.

Routes of administration in conscious sedation [6]

- **Enteral**: Any technique of administration in which the agent is absorbed through the gastrointestinal (GI) tract or oral mucosa [i.e. oral, rectal, sublingual].
- Parenteral: A way of administration in which the drug bypasses the gastrointestinal (GI) tract [i.e. intramuscular (IM), intravenous (IV), intranasal (IN), submucosal (SM), subcutaneous (SC), intraosseous (IO)].
- **Transdermal**: A way of administration in which the drug is administered by patch or iontophoresis through skin.
- Transmucosal: A method of administration in which the drug is administered into the mucosa such as intranasal, sublingual, or rectal.
- **Inhalation:** A method of introducing a gaseous or volatile agent into the lungs and whose primary effect is due to absorption through the gas/blood interface.

American society of anesthesiologists (ASA): Patient Physical Status Classification (last modified in 1961) [6]

- ASA I A normal healthy patient.
- ASA II A patient with mild systemic disease.
- ASA III A patient with severe systemic disease.
- ASA IV A patient with severe systemic disease that is a constant threat to life.
- ASA V A moribund patient who is not expected to survive without the operation.
- ASA VI A declared brain-dead patient whose organs are being removed for donor purposes.
- E Emergency operation of any variety (used to modify one of the above classifications, i.e., ASA III-E).

Objectives of conscious sedation

Bennett (1978) listed the understanding of the objectives as the most important factor for success. Conscious sedation has several objectives [5]:

- Altering of the patient's mood is the main objective. The use
 of any pharmacologic agent will reduce the child's apprehension and reaction to painful stimuli. The use of a moodaltering drug will render the child more receptive to dental
 procedures. Hence, future dosages of drugs may be reduced.
- The child should remain conscious, the patient should be responsive even if the child's response to verbal stimuli may seem sluggish.
- The child should be highly cooperative. The dental care needed is completed more quickly and productively to the advantage of both the patient and the dentist.
- All protective reflexes are intact and active. The normal physiological reflexes are in a functioning state. The airway is active, the respiratory mechanism is reflexive, the cardiovascular system is well within normal functioning limits.
- The vital signs must remain stable and normal. If the patient is conscious with all reflexes intact, vital signs should be normal.
- The child's pain threshold should be elevated. Even though local anesthesia is used as an adjunct to conscious sedation, an additional drug can be added to reduce pain at the level of the central nervous system.
- Amnesia should occur. Amnesia is not a major objective, but certain drugs will eliminate the awareness of the procedure, that is, the administration of local anesthesia.

Indications

Conscious sedation is indicated when both patient and dental indications are present.

Patient indications:

- Patients with inadequate cooperation.
- Patients with high dental fear/anxiety/odontophobia.
- Need for reduction of patient's pain perception (prevent fear induced pain), if pain threshold is low.

Dental indications

- Oral examination and treatment of moderate extent and complexity (invasive treatment need should done under general anesthesia)
- Emergency treatment (e.g. Extractions and emergency treatment of dental trauma).

It is the combined assessment of these two types of indications that indicates whether a certain type of oral examination or treatment should be done conventionally or under sedation or general anesthesia. Children with low coping ability (e.g. immature children) or high dental anxiety, and with extensive or complicated treatment needs, should be treated under deep sedation or general anesthesia. This is more appropriate from the perspective of the child, parents, and dental staff, as it is cost effective and also the majority of the treatment may be done in one session.

Contraindications

- For the pre-operative assessment of the patient particularly whether there are any Contraindications for the use of sedation, the ASA classification should be used. The Dentist should consult the physician or anesthesiologist for classes III and IV.
- Sedation of children under 2 years of age is connected with extreme risks and should be done in collaboration with an anesthetist.
- Upper airway problems, trauma, sleep apnea and snoring.

- Uncontrolled seizures.
- Psychotic patients.
- Untreated, acute narrow angle glaucoma.
- Biomycin chemotherapy.
- Cerebral palsy, neck instability, hemodynamic instability.
- Allergy to any drugs, neuromuscular diseases and if any interaction with other medicines is suspected.
- Emergency treatment (e.g. extractions and emergency treatment of trauma).

When dealing with pediatric population it is important not to envision the child as a small adult. Treating a child as a small adult may inevitably lead to errors in medication dosage, fluid administration, and resuscitative measures. The pediatric population is identified as:

- Neonates (< than 30 days)
- Infants (1 12 months)
- Children (1 12 years)
- Adolescents (13 19 years).

For the preoperative assessment of the patient, particularly when there are any contraindications for use of sedation, the ASA Classification system of the patient's physical status should be used. The dentist is expected to take the responsibility for treating patients in Classes I and II under conscious sedation, while those under Classes III and IV should be decided after consulting a physician/anesthesiologist.

Types of sedation agents

Various agents are available to provide conscious sedation depending on the invasiveness of treatment, cooperation of child, duration of treatment, facilities for monitoring and resuscitation and expertise of the personnel involved. Several key features from various studies on sedative agents used in children has been collaborated and compared (Table 1).

Authors	Date	Type of Study	No of Pa- tients	Drugs used and Dosage	Route of Adminis- tration	Specialty	Conclusions
Oriby., et al. [8]	2019	Prospective		Dexmedetomidine 2µg/kg	Intranasal	Anaesthesi- ology	Premedication with intra- nasal dexmedetomidine and oral ketamine was rapid and effective compared to Midazolam
		Doubleblind	76	Ketamine at 3 mg/kg or	Oral		
		Randomized		Midazolam 0.2 mg/kg	Oral		
Mehran., et al. [9]	2018	Crossover Double blind	ouble blind 30	Midazolam 0.4 mg/kg + Water	Intranasal	Dentistry	improvement in cooperation level of those receiving mid- azolam/chloral hydrate com- bination when com-pared to those receiving midazolam/ promethazine combination
		clinical trial		Midazolam 0.4 mg/kg + Promethazine 5 mg/kg of	inu anasai		

Samir., et al. [10]	2017	Random- ized clinical study	60	$30\%~\mathrm{N_2O}$ and $70\%~\mathrm{O_2}$	Intranasal	Dentistry	significant difference in the time taken to achieve ideal sedation by rapid induction which was almost half the time taken with slow induction.
Peerbhay., et al. [11]	2016	Prospective Randomized	118	Midazolam0.3 mg/kg Midazolam0.5 mg/kg	Intranasal	Dentistry	All drugs resulted in safe and effective sedation.
				Midazolam			The intranasal route of midazolam administration has a
Musani., et al. [12]	2015	randomised crossover	30	(0.2 mg/kg + Nitrous oxide	Oral Intranasal	Dentistry	quick onset of action and a quick recovery of the patient
un [12]		crossover		Midazolam (0.1 mg + Nitrous oxide			from sedation as compared to the oral route of midazolam administration.
				Dexmedetomidine 1μ/kg			
	2014	Randomized 014 Triple-blind	84	Dexmedetomidine 1.5μg /kg	Intranasal	Dentistry	All the drugs are safe and effective in the light sedation of
Surendar., et al. [13]				Midazolam			uncooperative
				0.2 mg/kg			patients
				Ketamine 5 mg/kg			
				Alprazolam 0.5 mg +			The combination
	2014	Prospective Doubleblind 80		melatonin 3 mg	Oral	Anesthesi- ology	of alprazolam with melato- nin reduces anxiety Level of
Pokharel., et al. [14]				Alprazolam 0.5 mg			sedation
		Randomized		Melatonin 3 mg			is similar to the
				Placebo			alprazolam groups
		Prospective		Clonidine 4 µg/kg +	Intranasal		Midazolam provides a faster
Mitra., <i>et</i> <i>al</i> . [15]	2014	Doubleblind	60	Atropine 20 μg/kg	Intravenous	Anesthesi- ology	onset sedation; both drugs provide adequate anxiolysis
		Randomized		Midazolam 0.3 mg/kg			after 30 minutes
		Prospective		Propofol 1-1.5 mg/kg			Propofol is safer but both
Mittal., et al. [16]	2013	13 Doubleblind Randomized	40	Ketofol 1-1.5 mg/kg +	Intravenous	Dentistry	drugs have similar sedative effects
				Ketamine 0.25 mg/kg			
				Midazolam 0.5mg/kg	Oral		
Tyagi., et al. [17]	2013	Prospective 2013 Randomized 40		Diazepam 0.5 mg/kg	Oral Intravenous Oral	Dentistry	Midazolam allows for a
			40	Midazolam 0.06			higher level of sedation, bet- ter anxiolysis, and it is safer
		Triple-blind		mg/kg			than diazepam
				Placebo			

1				T	I		I
Chopra., <i>et al</i> . [18]	2013	Prospective Randomized	30	Midazolam Midazolam	Aerosol mouth spray Intranasal	Dentistry	Oral midazolam is more effective but not significantly
Fan., et al. [19]	2013	Prospective Doubleblind Randomized	60	Midazolam 0.005 mg/kg/min Dexmedetomidine 0.1μg/ kg/min	Intravenous Intravenous	Dentistry	Dexmedetomidine is a good alternative to midazolam for achieving adequate levels of sedation
Tyagi., et al. [20]	2012	Prospective Randomized Triple-blind	40	Midazolam 0.5 mg/kg Diazepam 0.5 mg/kg Midazolam 0.06 mg/kg Placebo	Oral Oral Intravenous Oral	Dentistry	Midazolam has stronger sed- ative effects than Diazepam
Horacek., et al. [21]	2012	Prospective Doubleblind Randomized	29	Ketamine 5 mg/kg + Clonidine 2 μg/kg + Midazolam 0.3 mg/kg Ketamine 5 mg/kg + Midazolam 0.3 mg/kg	Oral Oral	Dentistry	Oral ketamine and mid- azolam are safe and effective sedatives
Pandey., et al. [22]	2011	Prospective Randomized	34	Ketamine Ketamine	Intranasal spray Intranasal drops	Dentistry	The spray is better tolerated than the intranasal drops, but both are equally effective
Larsson., et al. [23]	2012	Prospective Doubleblind Randomized	60	Saline placebo Clonidine 3-4 µg/kg Clonidine 7-8 µg/kg	Intranasal Intranasal	Anesthesi- ology	Clonidine provides adequate sedation in both groups
Bahetwar., et al. [24]	2011	Prospective Randomized	45	Midazolam Ketamine Midazolam + Ketamine	Intranasal Intranasal Intranasal	Dentistry	Both drugs induce Moderate sedation, but ket- amine is more effective
Klein., et al. [25]	2011	Prospective Randomized	169	Midazolam Midazolam Midazolam	Intranasal Aerosol mouth spray Oral	Facial and orofacial surgery	Midazolam mouth spray is the most effective route of administration
Shabbir., <i>et</i> <i>al</i> . [26]	2011	Prospective Randomized	12	Triclofos 70 mg/kg Midazolam 0.5mg/kg	Oral Oral	Dentistry	Oral midazolam is more ef- fective than triclofos

Pandey., et al. [27]	2010	Prospective Randomized Triple-blind	23	Fentanyl 0.3 µg/kg + Midazolam 0.5 mg/kg Placebo + Midazolam 0.5 mg/kg	Submucosal Oral	Dentistry	A combination of fentanyl and midalozam improves sedative effects Dangerous (oxygen desaturation), a combination of fentanyl and midazolam improves sedative effects but may cause oxygen desaturation
Damle., <i>et al</i> . [28]	2008	Prospective Randomized Doubleblind	20	Midazolam 0.5 mg/kg Ketamine 5 mg/kg	Oral Oral	Dentistry	After 30 minutes, midazolam shows greater sedative effects with less side effects
Da Costa., et al. [29]	2007	Prospective Randomized Doubleblind	12	Placebo Chloral hydrate 75 mg/kg Chloral hydrate 50 mg/kg + Hydroxyzine 2 mg/kg	Oral Oral Oral	Dentistry	Chloral hydrate is a viable method of sedation, however hydroxyzine does not lend any additional benefits
Rai., et al. [30]	2007	Prospective Randomized	30	Propofol Midazolam Ketamine	Intravenous Intravenous Intravenous	Dentistry	Ketamine proved to be the most effective drug
Bhatnagar., et al. [31]	2008	Prospective Randomized	60	Ketamine 6 mg/kg + Midazolam 0.05 mg/kg + Atropine 0.02 mg/kg Ketamine 10 mg/kg + Midazolam 0.2 mg/kg + Atropine 0.05 mg/kg	Intramus- cular Oral	Oncology	Both routes of administration are effective. Oral adminis- tration is less painful
Kantovitz., et al. [32]	2007	Prospective Randomized Doubleblind	20	Chloral hydrate 40 mg/kg Diazepam 5mg	Oral Oral	Dentistry	Diazepam and chloral hy- drate do not affect children's behavior
Horiuchi., et al. [33]	2005	Prospective Randomized	55	Lollipop with ketamine 50 mg Midazolam oral syrup 0.5 mg/kg	Oral submu- cosal Oral	Anesthesi- ology	Ketamine administered transmucosally in the oral cavity does not appear to have any advantages over oral midazolam

Table 1: A comparative evaluation of various sedative agents and their studies.

Nitrous oxide

Nitrous oxide is a colorless and odourless gas that act as mild sedation agent producing both a depressant and euphoric effect on the CNS with little effect on respiratory system. It is also a potent analgesic. A 50% inhaled concentration of nitrous oxide equals to that of parenteral morphine injection at a standard dose (10mg per 70kg of adult). It can be used in patients who are reluctant to use local analgesia as it decreases the pain of injections in those who require additional local anaesthesia. The effects of the nitrous oxide depends on: The pattern of exposure, tissue sensitivity, vitamin B12 intake and body stores, extent to which methionine synthetase is deactivated [7].

Sevoflurane

Sevoflurane is a sweet-smelling, non-flammable, volatile anaesthetic agent used for the induction and maintenance of general anaesthesia. It is a potent agent with a MAC value less than 2, leaving it with a narrow margin of safety. anaesthetic agents like halothane and are even more potent drugs than sevoflurane, with low MAC values (the MAC of halothane is 0.76) thus reducing the margin of safety making the induction of general anaesthesia more likely [7]. The use of low concentrations (0.1% - 0.3%) of sevoflurane in combination with 40% nitrous oxide in oxygen showed that the margin of safety was wide enough to render loss of consciousness unlikely [35].

Oxygen

Oxygen is not a sedative agent, however, inhalational agents are always delivered in an oxygen-rich mixture which consists of atleast 30% oxygen by volume. Oxygen is stored as a gas in black cylinders with white shoulders, (initial pressure of 2000 pounds per square inch). In conventional slow induction, - initially, 100% $\rm O_2$ is administered to about 4 - 5 L/min in children to determine the minute volume followed by increments in the $\rm N_2O$ concentration of 5% - 10% for every 1 - 3 min [10]. Therefore it is mainly used as a supplement along with other sedative agents.

Diazepam

Diazepam was the first benzodiazepine to be used in intravenous sedation practice (See figure 1). It is insoluble in water hence it is dissolved in an organic solvent, propylene glycol. Diazepam is metabolised in the liver and eliminated through the kidneys. It has a long elimination half-life (T1/2 β) of 43 hours (+/-13 hours) while its distribution half-life (T1/2 α) is around 40 minutes. An active metabolite, n-desmethyldiazepam, is produced, which can

cause rebound sedation of up to 72 hours after the initial administration of diazepam [7]. In children aged 3 - 8 years old the mean half-life of diazepam has been reported to be 18 hours. A 30-hour half-life was reported in full term infants, with an average half-life of 54 hours in premature infants of 28 - 34 weeks gestational age and 8 - 81 days postpartum.

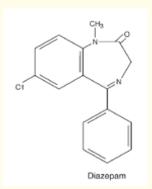


Figure 1: Chemical structure of diazepam, showing a benzene ring structure attached to the diazepine part of the molecule.

It is a reliable hypnosedative which should be given slowly, titrating the dose against the response obtained. The standard dose ranges between 0.1 - 0.2 mg/kg. However, longer period of its recovery and rebound potential makes it inadequate for short dental procedures and its use has largely surpassed by recent and more rapidly metabolised midazolam [7].

Midazolam

Midazolam is an imidazobenzodiazepine which is water soluble with a pH of less than 4.0 It does not irritate veins, and once injected into the bloodstream, at physiological pH, it becomes lipid soluble and readily penetrates the blood-brain barrier. It has an elimination half-life of 1.9 hours (+/-0.9 hours) so that complete recovery is faster compared to diazepam. Midazolam works faster than midazolam, with least 2.5 times more potency and predictable amnesic properties [7]. It is a gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor inhibitor frequently used as premedication in pediatrics due to its sedative, anxiolytic, and amnesic effect [8]. It is rapidly metabolised in the liver along with extra-hepatic metabolism in the intestines. Alpha-hydroxymidazolam is an active metabolite produced by Midazolam. This has a short half-life of 1.25 hours (+/-0.25 hours) which is shorter than that of the parent compound and thus does not produce true rebound sedation.

Figure 2: Chemical structure of midazolam, showing a benzene ring structure attached to the diazepine part of the molecule.

The dose of midazolam is titrated according to the patient's response but most patients usually require a dose in the range of 0.07-0.1mg/kg. On the other hand paradoxical reactions, restlessness, and behavioral changes are the side effects observed [8].

Flumazenil (benzodiazepine antagonist)

Flumazenil, a 1,4-imidazobenzodiazepine, is a specific benzodiazepine antagonist which is indicated for use when the effect of a benzodiazepine needs to be attenuated rapidly [36]. It competitively inhibits the activity of benzodiazepine and non-benzodiazepine substances that interact with benzodiazepine receptors site on the GABA/ benzodiazepine receptor complex. It is a true benzodiazepine although it has virtually no intrinsic therapeutic activity (the administration of huge doses of flumazenil may result in very slight epileptiform activity). It is similar to other benzodiazepines in chemical form but does not have the ring structure attached to the diazepine part of the molecule (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Chemical structure of flumazenil, the benzodiazepine antagonist. The molecule has no benzene ring attached to the diazepine group.

Flumazenil is an effective antagonist as it has a greater affinity for the benzodiazepine receptor compared to other known active drugs. The sedative, cardiovascular and respiratory depressant effects of both diazepam and midazolam can be temporarily reversed by flumazenil. It is currently only recommended for use in emergencies but not to hasten recovery.

Propofol

Propofol (2, 6-diisopropylphenol) is a very short acting sedative, introduced by Kay and Rolly in 1977, and was widely accepted for pediatric sedation regimens due to its minimally reported systemic effects and fast recovery after surgery [30]. It is oil at room temperature and insoluble in aqueous solution with an advantage of undergoing rapid elimination and recovery. It has an elimination half-life of 30-40 minutes and a distribution half-life of 2 - 4 minutes. The clinical effect is of shorter duration because propofol is rapidly distributed into peripheral tissues, and its effects wear off considerably within half an hour of injection. This, together with its rapid effect (within minutes of injection) and the moderate amnesia it induces, makes it an ideal drug for intravenous sedation. Propofol act by enhancing the GABA neurotransmitter system. Propofol is administered as a continuous infusion to maintain general anaesthesia. It may be administered in sub-anaesthetic doses either by a technique using a target-controlled infusion, a patient controlled target infusion or by intermittent bolus administration [7].

Conclusion

Careful patient selection, screening, preparation of prospective patients and prudent administration of the drugs described is the basis for successful use of sedative agents in children. Selected patients should be healthy or have a well-controlled medical condition(s). Safe and adequate administration of sedative and analgesic medications can make painful and anxiety provoking situations tolerable. However, knowledge of medications and the ability to address over sedation and its side effects is essential for safe and effective outpatient procedural sedation [34].

Bibliography

- Singh Neerja., et al. "A Comparative Evaluation of Oral Midazolam With Other Sedatives as Premedication in Pediatric Dentistry". Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry 26.2 (2002): 161-164.
- 2. Torres-Pérez Javier, *et al.* "Comparison of Three Regimens for Pediatric Dental Patients". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 31.3 (2007): 183-186.

- 3. Kapur Arpita and Vinay Kapur. "Conscious Sedation in Dentistry". *Annals of Maxillofacial Surgery* 8.2 (2018): 320-323.
- Galeotti Angela., et al. "Inhalation Conscious Sedation With Nitrous Oxide and Oxygen as Alternative to General Anesthesia in Precooperative, Fearful, and Disabled Pediatric Dental Patients: A Large Survey on 688 Working Sessions". BioMed Research International (2016): 7289310.
- Monheim LM and C R Bennett. Monheim's Local Anesthesia and Pain Control in Dental Practice. American Dental Assoc, 1984; Guide lines for the use of Sedation and General Anesthesia by Dentists, Oct (2007).
- 6. American Dental Association; Guide lines for the use of Sedation and General Anesthesia by Dentists; October (2007).
- 7. Girdler NM., *et al.* "Clinical Sedation in Dentistry". John Wiley and Sons (2009).
- 8. Oriby Mohamed EE. "Comparison of Intranasal Dexmedetomidine and Oral Ketamine Versus Intranasal Midazolam Premedication for Children Undergoing Dental Rehabilitation". *Anesthesiology and Pain Medicine* 9.1 (2019): e85227.
- 9. Mehran Majid., et al. "Comparison of Sedative Effects of Oral Midazolam/Chloral Hydrate and Midazolam/Promethazine in Pediatric Dentistry". Journal of Dental Research, Dental Clinics and Dental Prospects 12.3 (2018): 221-226.
- 10. Samir PV., et al. "Assessment of Hypoxia, Sedation Level, and Adverse Events Occurring During Inhalation Sedation Using Preadjusted Mix of 30% Nitrous Oxide+ 70% Oxygen". Journal of the Indian Society of Pedodontics and Preventive Dentistry 35.4 (2017): 338-345.
- 11. Peerbhay Fathima and Ahmed Mahgoub M Elsheikhomer. "Intranasal Midazolam Sedation in a Pediatric Emergency Dental Clinic". *Anesthesia Progress* 63.3 (2016).
- 12. Musani I E and N V Chandan. "A Comparison of the Sedative Effect of Oral Versus Nasal Midazolam Combined With Nitrous Oxide in Uncooperative Children". *European Archives of Paediatric Dentistry* 16.5 (2015): 417-424.
- 13. Fraser Katie. "Why Are We so Scared of Dentists?". BBC News Magazine. newsvote.bbc.co.uk (2009).
- 14. Jackson Douglass L L and Barton SS Johnson. "Conscious Sedation for Dentistry: Risk Management and Patient Selection". *Dental Clinics of North America* 46.4 (2002): 767-780.

- 15. Mitra Sukanya., *et al.* "Intranasal Clonidine vs. Midazolam as Premedication in Children: A Randomized Controlled Trial". *Indian Pediatrics* 51.2 (2014): 113-118.
- Mittal N., et al. "A Double Blind Randomized Trial of Ketofol Versus Propofol for Endodontic Treatment of Anxious Pediatric Patients". Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry 37.4 (2013): 415-420.
- 17. Tyagi P, *et al.* "Sedative Effects of Oral Midazolam, Intravenous Midazolam and Oral Diazepam in the Dental Treatment of Children". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 37.3 (2013): 301-306.
- Chopra Radhika., et al. "Buccal Midazolam Spray as an Alternative to Intranasal Route for Conscious Sedation in Pediatric Dentistry". Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry 38.2 (2013): 171-173.
- 19. Fan Tai Weng Victor W., et al. "Comparison of Dexmedetomidine and Midazolam for Conscious Sedation in Dental Surgery Monitored by Bispectral Index". British Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery 51.5 (2013): 428-433.
- 20. Tyagi Parimala., *et al.* "Sedative Effects of Oral Midazolam, Intravenous Midazolam and Oral Diazepam". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 36.4 (2012): 383-388.
- Horacek Jiri., et al. "The Influence of Clonidine on Oral Ketamine-Midazolam Premedication in Intellectually Disabled Patients Indicated for Dental Procedures: Double-Blind Comparison of Two Sedation Regimes". Neuro Endocrinology Letters 33.4 (2012): 380-384.
- 22. Pandey RK., et al. "A Comparative Evaluation of Drops Versus Atomized Administration of Intranasal Ketamine for the Procedural Sedation of Young Uncooperative Pediatric Dental Patients: A Prospective Crossover Trial". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 36.1 (2011): 79-84.
- 23. Larsson Peter, *et al.* "Onset Time for Pharmacologic Premedication With Clonidine as a Nasal Aerosol: A Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled, Randomized Trial". *Paediatric Anaesthesia* 22.9 (2012): 877-883.
- 24. Bahetwar SK., et al. "A Comparative Evaluation of Intranasal Midazolam, Ketamine and Their Combination for Sedation of Young Uncooperative Pediatric Dental Patients: A Triple Blind Randomized Crossover Trial". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 35.4 (2011): 415-420.

- 25. Klein Eileen JJ., et al. "A Randomized Clinical Trial Comparing Oral, Aerosolized Intranasal, and Aerosolized Buccal Midazolam". Annals of Emergency Medicine 58.4 (2011): 323-329.
- 26. Shabbir A., *et al.* "Comparison of Oral Midazolam and Triclofos in Conscious Sedation of Uncooperative Children". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 36.2 (2011): 189-196.
- 27. Pandey RK., et al. "Midazolam-Fentanyl Analgo-Sedation in Pediatric Dental Patients—A Pilot Study". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 35.1 (2010): 105-110.
- 28. Damle SG., et al. "Comparison of Oral Ketamine and Oral Midazolam as Sedative Agents in Pediatric Dentistry". *Journal of the Indian Society of Pedodontics and Preventive Dentistry* 26.3 (2008): 97-101.
- 29. Costa Luciane Ribeiro de Rezende Sucasas R., *et al.* "A Randomized Double-Blinded Trial of Chloral Hydrate With or Without Hydroxyzine Versus Placebo for Pediatric Dental Sedation". *Brazilian Dental Journal* 18.4 (2007): 334-340.
- 30. Rai Kavitha., *et al.* "Sedation in Uncooperative Children Undergoing Dental Procedures: A Comparative Evaluation of Midazolam, Propofol and Ketamine". *Journal of Clinical Pediatric Dentistry* 32.1 (2007): 1-4.
- 31. Bhatnagar, Sushma., *et al.* "Efficacy and Safety of a Mixture of Ketamine, Midazolam and Atropine for Procedural Sedation in Paediatric Oncology: A Randomised Study of Oral Versus Intramuscular Route". *Journal of Paediatrics and Child Health* 44.4 (2008): 201-204.
- 32. Kantovitz, Kamila R R., *et al.* "Sedative Effect of Oral Diazepam and Chloral Hydrate in the Dental Treatment of Children". *Journal of the Indian Society of Pedodontics and Preventive Dentistry* 25.2 (2007): 69-75.
- 33. Horiuchi Toshinori., *et al.* "Evaluation of Relatively Low Dose of Oral Transmucosal Ketamine Premedication in Children: A Comparison With Oral Midazolam". *Paediatric Anaesthesia* 15.8 (2005): 643-647.
- 34. Attri Joginder Pal P., *et al.* "Conscious Sedation: Emerging Trends in Pediatric Dentistry". *Anesthesia: Essays and Researches* 11.2 (2017): 277-281.
- 35. Lahoud G Y and P A Averley. "Comparison of Sevoflurane and Nitrous Oxide Mixture With Nitrous Oxide Alone for Inhalation Conscious Sedation in Children Having Dental Treatment: A Randomised Controlled Trial". *Anaesthesia* 57.5 (2002): 446-450.

36. Brogden RN., *et al.* "Flumazenil. A Preliminary Review of Its Benzodiazepine Antagonist Properties, Intrinsic Activity and Therapeutic Use". *Drugs* 35.4 (1988): 448-467.

Assets from publication with us

- Prompt Acknowledgement after receiving the article
- Thorough Double blinded peer review
- Rapid Publication
- Issue of Publication Certificate
- High visibility of your Published work

Website: www.actascientific.com/

Submit Article: www.actascientific.com/submission.php

Email us: editor@actascientific.com
Contact us: +91 9182824667