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**Paper presented to the Federal University  
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# **Iatrogenic Withdrawal Syndrome in Critically Ill Neonates: A Review of Mechanisms, Assessment, Management, and Prevention**

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## **Abstract**

Considering that neonatal pain is a relevant matter given its implications and consequences, many neonates, particularly those undergoing critical care, are subjected to analgo-sedation therapies, which commonly includes treatment with opioids and benzodiazepines. These drugs, however, can induce tolerance and dependency, leading to the development of the so-called iatrogenic withdrawal syndrome (IWS) which is observed following discontinuation of these therapeutic agents particularly when utilized for a prolonged period of time ( $\geq 5$  days). IWS consists of signs and symptoms manifested especially in young children, such as term and premature newborns in the neonatal intensive care unit (NICU), who are less capable of metabolizing and eliminating these drugs, compared to older patients. In this study, we review assessment tools that were developed to identify, evaluate and manage children affected by IWS. The studies reviewed demonstrate that optimal management of IWS includes consideration of alternate routes of drug administration, the need for adequate time for drug tapering, and also the presence of planned rescue therapy when encountering cases refractory to ongoing management. Equally important is prevention of IWS which can be accomplished with the implementation of drug rotation protocols and, adherence to evidenced based guidelines which facilitate an overall decline in the use and duration of opioids and benzodiazepines. Finally, our review strongly supports the need for more research on IWS in neonates given their increased susceptibility and sparse published data for this age group.

**Keywords:** analgo-sedation; benzodiazepine; neonatal; opioid; withdrawal.

## **Introduction**

In the past, health care professionals believed that neonates would not feel pain as their nervous system was still immature and under development.<sup>1</sup> However, over the years, it has been observed that newborns are more sensitive to pain than older children and adults due to increased excitability of nociceptive pathways and a lack of a robust modulatory system.<sup>2</sup> In addition, neonates, particularly those that are preterm requiring neonatal intensive care (NICU), are routinely exposed to procedures that induce pain, such as blood sampling, mechanical ventilation, and surgery.<sup>3</sup>

Despite being subject to these painful stimuli, newborns are non-verbal and have limited ability to express or indicate common characteristics of pain. As a result, researchers have developed tools to facilitate neonatal pain assessment based on their behavior, serial vital signs, and facial expression.<sup>4</sup> The goal is to balance analgesia and sedative requirements while minimizing acute and potential long-term consequences such as inadequate recovery, unfavorable developmental outcomes, and ineffective pain management.<sup>3,5</sup> Consequently, more effective analgesia and sedation management is required in the NICU.

Despite providing clear benefits for newborns, analgo-sedation must be handled with caution as it is also associated with known risks such as hypotension, respiratory depression, and paralytic ileus.<sup>6</sup> Another important issue is that of neonatal withdrawal to both analgesic and sedative medications commonly used in the NICU, either of which can lead to abstinence or dependency in newborn infants.<sup>7</sup> These effects are well described through the use of the term, iatrogenic withdrawal syndrome (IWS).

The provision of neonatal pain control is an important issue for NICU patients which requires judicious use of medications with known potential side effects such as IWS. As a result, we present the findings from our review of IWS in neonates in which we focus on its epidemiology, etiology, diagnosis, management, and prevention. Our goal is to provide health

care professionals, especially pediatric intensivists, with an updated, valuable and evidence based overview of IWS management in newborns to facilitate their ongoing care leading to optimal patient outcomes.

### **Definition**

IWS can be defined as a collection of signs and symptoms that follow the sudden discontinuation of drugs, such as opioids and/or benzodiazepines, in patients that are physically dependent on these agents. Dependency and tolerance usually occur after prolonged drug exposure, most commonly described as following 5 days of continuous infusion. Subsequently, withdrawal symptoms may be apparent within 1 hour up to 2 days following drug discontinuation.<sup>8</sup> In addition, it must be differentiated from neonatal abstinence syndrome (NAS) which refers to drug dependency in newborns ( $\leq 28$  days) that were exposed to those drugs during the prenatal period and not after birth.<sup>7</sup>

Neonates suffering from IWS can exhibit symptoms that are related to central nervous system (CNS) overstimulation, dysregulation of the autonomic system, and gastrointestinal disturbances.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, withdrawal symptoms can bring negative consequences for newborns such as prolonged drug exposure leading to extended NICU and possible hospital length of stay following transfer from the NICU to the PICU or pediatric ward.<sup>7</sup>

### **Epidemiology**

There is currently sparse evidence in the literature that describes the frequency of IWS specifically in neonatal patients. However, some studies suggest that, for opioid analgesia, the younger the patient, the greater the risk of dependency.<sup>9</sup> Among pediatric patients in general, the incidence of IWS also varies depending on the duration of analgo-sedation. It is estimated that it affects around 50% of patients that receive drug infusion for  $\geq 24$  hours and may reach 80-100% when drug administration lasts more than 5 days.<sup>10</sup>

A systematic review from 2019 gathered studies showing the prevalence of IWS ranges from 7.5% to 100% of hospitalized pediatric patients.<sup>11</sup> The authors aptly explain that this variability likely results from differences in IWS definition, methods to determine its occurrence, weaning protocols, and the heterologous nature of study populations.<sup>11</sup> The variability of IWS prevalence is commonly described in the literature and was noted in another review in which IWS was identified in 5% to 87% of pediatric patients of all ages.<sup>12</sup>

### **Pathogenesis**

Opioid-derived drugs such as morphine, fentanyl, and methadone are important components of IWS. Opioids are potent analgesics not uncommonly used to relieve pain in neonates. Their effects are facilitated by their binding to several types of membrane opioid receptors (e.g. mu, kappa, and delta) which are located not only in the CNS but in the related ascending and descending pain pathways as well. When a molecule binds to an opioid receptor in the ascending pain pathway, hyperpolarization of neurons in the spinal cord stimulates postsynaptic potassium channels decreasing their probability of firing action potentials.<sup>9</sup> In the descending pain pathway, the activation of opioid receptors in the brainstem leads to stimulation of regions responsible for pain modulation, known as the periaqueductal gray and the rostral ventromedial medulla. These regions can inhibit pain by reducing the excitability of neurons in the spinal cord through the release of monoamines such as noradrenaline. In short, the basic effect of administered opioids is to reduce the firing of action potentials that signal pain.<sup>9</sup>

When opioid cessation occurs, several body systems can be affected and manifest the known complication of dependency. An example is the *locus coeruleus* (LC), a structure located at the base of the brain and responsible for autonomic regulation through noradrenergic circuits. Usually, the binding of an opioid to mu receptors reduces the release of noradrenaline by the LC through inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and reduction of AMPc levels. To maintain

homeostasis, the organism increases the production of these molecules and, when withdrawal occurs, these metabolic changes result in increased noradrenaline levels and the consequent autonomic dysregulation seen in IWS, as shown in Figure 1.<sup>13</sup>

Particularly in neonates and preterm infants, opioids may reach high serum concentrations that induce the risk of toxicity and dependency.<sup>14</sup> These risks are enhanced by the reduced hepatic and renal metabolism of drugs in newborns compared to older children or adults, leading to slower elimination and subsequently a longer half-life of opioids seen in this age group.<sup>15</sup> Acute critical illness and any chronic co-morbidities also may contribute to the presence of hepatic and renal impairment and therefore exacerbate the prolonged presence of opioids and their related complications in neonates due to reduced clearance of these agents.<sup>14</sup>

Another drug class that is frequently prescribed to critically ill newborn patients are benzodiazepines such as midazolam, lorazepam, and diazepam whose main goal is provision of required sedation.<sup>16</sup> Although their molecular mechanisms are still not completely understood, it is well accepted that benzodiazepines interact with the gamma amino butyric acid (GABA)-A receptor.<sup>17</sup>

GABA is one of the main inhibitory neurotransmitters in the CNS, found mostly in the cerebral cortex and limbic system where it reduces neuronal excitability.<sup>17</sup> GABA binds to three different receptors (A, B, and C); benzodiazepines interact with the A-type receptors. GABA-A receptors are ligand-gated chloride-selective ion channels and exhibit an allosteric site on which benzodiazepines exert a positive effect. This means that drugs such as midazolam will produce sedation by increasing the neuroinhibitory effect of the bond between GABA and its type-A receptor resulting in reducing general neuronal excitability.<sup>17</sup> Long-term exposure to benzodiazepines can also cause physical dependency and lead to withdrawal symptoms. The exact mechanism by which this takes place remains uncertain, but it is thought that dependency is related to development of tolerance.<sup>18</sup> Prolonged use of



benzodiazepines may cause changes in the structure, localization, and function of GABA-A receptors, which ultimately may require a higher dose of medication to achieve the same therapeutic result. Known as drug tolerance, this effect may also be responsible for the development of dependency and consequent withdrawal symptoms upon discontinuation of benzodiazepine therapy, as represented in Figure 2.<sup>18</sup>

Benzodiazepine pharmacokinetics, in neonates and preterm infants, are similar to that of opioids where immature hepatic and renal pathways lead to reduced elimination rates and subsequently longer drug half-lives.<sup>14</sup> Interestingly, midazolam has been noted by some authors to have great variability of drug clearance based on gestational age with higher midazolam clearance in neonates born after 39 weeks of gestation.<sup>14,19</sup>

### **Assessment**

A precise diagnosis of IWS may be very difficult to make since patients are usually in an intensive care setting, where many of their symptoms can be misinterpreted due to their overlap with other conditions and interventions.<sup>7,8</sup> In addition, newborns in the NICU may be submitted to more than one drug that may cause withdrawal symptoms.<sup>11</sup> Overall, the literature describes a wide variety of IWS associated symptomatology to include CNS-related symptoms (e.g. agitation, insomnia, and increased muscle tone), autonomic system dysregulation (e.g. tachypnea and sweating) and, gastrointestinal disturbances (e.g. diarrhea and vomiting).<sup>11</sup>

In consideration of the variety of medications and symptoms that are related to IWS great efforts have been made to develop standardized methods for assessing withdrawal symptoms that have led to validated assessment tools. The most commonly used tools are the Opioid and Benzodiazepine Withdrawal Score (OBWS), the Withdrawal Assessment Tool-1 (WAT-1), and the Sophia Observation Withdrawal Symptoms scale (SOS).<sup>10</sup> Although they

were not developed exclusively for neonatal patients, the WAT-1 and SOS did include neonates in their development.

OBWS<sup>20</sup> consists of a checklist of 21 items, 16 of which are related to drug withdrawal. This tool is used to assess the frequency and severity of withdrawal symptoms. It was first developed in 1998, but was updated in a 2004 study by the same authors.<sup>20</sup> In this study, nurses were asked to assess a group of 15 children aged 6 weeks to 28 months who had been exposed to opioid and/or benzodiazepine therapy for longer than 5 days. The OBWS was performed every 4 hours for approximately 2 days after the discontinuation of these drugs. The score ranges from 0 to 21 and, a cutoff of  $> 8$  is considered presence of withdrawal with an associated sensitivity and specificity of 0.50 and 0.87, respectively.<sup>20</sup>

WAT-1<sup>21</sup> is a symptom assessment scale developed in 2007 and used to monitor withdrawal symptoms in pediatric patients exposed to opioids and benzodiazepines. It was designed to be performed twice a day, which facilitates its use in clinical practice.<sup>22</sup> Its developers evaluated 19 symptoms, derived in part from OBWS, and came up with an 11-item scale resulting in a score range of 0 to 12. A cutoff value of  $WAT-1 \geq 3$  has a sensitivity of 0.872 and, a specificity of 0.880.<sup>21</sup> In a study involving 40 pediatric patients (newborns to 18 years of age) undergoing mechanical ventilation and analgo-sedation, the prevalence of IWS using the WAT-1 tool was 95% without a protocol for proper tapering of drugs.<sup>23</sup>

The SOS scale<sup>24</sup> was introduced in 2009 to create a more valid and reliable assessment tool and, was constructed in four steps. First, an extensive literature review was used to develop a list of 24 signs and symptoms related to analgo-sedation withdrawal.<sup>25</sup> Then, a prospective observational study was conducted on a group of critically ill pediatric patients aged  $\leq 16$  years old who underwent weaning of midazolam and/or opioids. Bedside nurses utilized the list to record the occurrence of the signs and symptoms related to withdrawal and data was analyzed. The authors then sought expert opinion from which an assessment tool was created

reflecting those symptoms considered necessary for inclusion by the consulted experts.<sup>24</sup> Finally, they created a scale that ranges from 0 to 15 with a cutoff value of  $\geq 4$ , resulting in sensitivity and specificity of 0.83 and 0.93, respectively.<sup>26</sup> According to Duceppe and colleagues (2019), studies that used SOS in pediatric patients have found IWS frequencies that range from 18% to 100%, while the ones using WAT-1 presented frequencies ranging from 37% to 77%.<sup>11</sup>

Another well-known scale used to assess withdrawal symptoms is the Finnegan's Neonatal Abstinence Score (FNAS)<sup>27</sup>. Although it was developed to evaluate patients exposed to drugs in the prenatal period, it also focuses on newborn infants and includes symptoms such as the hyperactive Moro-reflex, which were not included in the other scales.<sup>25</sup> The limitations of the FNAS include its purpose, which does not include recognition of IWS<sup>27</sup> and, its dated conception in 1975 leading to the use of modified versions to overcome its outdated nature.<sup>9</sup> In addition, it was designed to evaluate neonates born to mothers addicted to opioids, not the use of benzodiazepines thereby limiting its use in the management of IWS.<sup>25,27</sup> Therefore, despite its application to assess IWS in prior studies<sup>11,25</sup>, FNAS may not be well suited for this use.

In the presence of these scales, a recently published guideline (2022) recommends the use of either WAT-1 or SOS to assess IWS.<sup>28</sup> When comparing these two scales, clear advantages and disadvantages become apparent. WAT-1 is focused on older infants and children and is superior for evaluation and management of opioid withdrawal. In comparison, SOS is designed to assess children up to 16 years of age and is best used for evaluation and management of benzodiazepine withdrawal.<sup>21,24</sup> Furthermore, WAT-1 involves verbal stimulation of patients which may not be well suited for newborns and, SOS assessment involves only observational criteria, which presents limitations relevant to the age of the patient.<sup>21,24</sup>

## **Management**

Once patients have been assessed with a proper scoring tool, it is also important to know how to manage infants with withdrawal symptoms. The literature describes a variety of drugs used for the dual role of pharmacological treatment and prevention. The most commonly used drugs to manage IWS patients are clonidine, methadone, and dexmedetomidine. The best specific agent depends on whether IWS stems from opioid use alone or the combination of opioids and benzodiazepines.<sup>10</sup>

Considering that the molecular mechanisms underlying IWS depend on drug-receptor interactions, its management should focus on an agent(s) that act on the same receptor(s) as the analgesic or sedative agent that led to IWS.<sup>28</sup> As expected, a recent review indicated that methadone was the most commonly used agent to manage withdrawal related to opiate use.<sup>16</sup> The benefits of this medication include both intravenous and oral administration and long half-life.<sup>28,29</sup> The recommended transition is from intravenous opioid therapy to oral methadone with dose adjustment to achieve the same analgesic effect.<sup>16</sup> Once the transition is initiated the methadone dose should then be reduced by 10-20% each day<sup>29</sup> facilitating a longer taper period to prevent withdrawal symptoms.<sup>28</sup> Protocols using methadone to promote opioid weaning have shown a decrease in IWS occurrence utilizing an adjusted methadone dose (based on previous duration and intensity of opioid exposure) which has been shown to be effective in clinical trials.<sup>30</sup>

As for benzodiazepines, there is little information available regarding how to treat related IWS because they are commonly used in conjunction with opioid analgesic agents in the intensive care unit leading to mixed effects.<sup>16</sup> Lorazepam, diazepam, and midazolam are the agents of choice that can be used as benzodiazepine weaning agents<sup>16</sup>; however, lorazepam is commonly described in the literature due to its prolonged duration of action. The technique is

similar to that recommended for opioid weaning in that a transition from an intravenous infusion to oral administration should be initiated with subsequent gradual daily reduction in drug dosage.<sup>28</sup> Regardless of the medications and technique used for managing IWS it should be accompanied by serial withdrawal assessment to evaluate treatment success.<sup>28,29</sup>

When referring to the duration of weaning, the literature is unclear on an exact period of time.

Options described by authors include a treatment period proportional to the time the infant has been exposed to analgo-sedation, while others suggest a short fixed period of time up to 10 days.<sup>31</sup> In addition, some authors provide a practical guide on how to make the transition from intravenous drugs to oral administration. For example, the fentanyl dose (mcg/kg/hr) should be multiplied by 0.05-0.1 to achieve the appropriate methadone dose (mg/kg/daily), which should then be divided into every 6-hour administration.<sup>29,31</sup> A similar conversion can be made for midazolam, by multiplying its dose by 0.5-1 to achieve the appropriate daily lorazepam dosage, which should also be divided into every 6-hour administration.<sup>31</sup>

Alpha-2 agonists, such as dexmedetomidine, can also be used for analgo-sedation purposes during intensive care. This medication acts on both the LC and the dorsal horn of the spinal cord providing both sedative and analgesic effects.<sup>32</sup> For this reason, it can be used concurrently with opioid therapy and also to prevent withdrawal symptoms.<sup>33</sup> As with other commonly used analgo-sedation, prolonged dexmedetomidine infusion may also cause dependency; therefore, a weaning protocol should also be taken into consideration.<sup>32</sup> The tapering of dexmedetomidine can be accomplished by multiplying its hourly dose by 5 to arrive at a converted daily dose of clonidine, whose benefit is that it also is an oral alpha-2 agonist that may then be administered orally every 4 hours.<sup>31</sup> The methods of conversion for all analgo-sedative agents described in this review are summarized in Table 1.

Another facet to consider in the management of IWS is the duration of intravenous analgo-sedative infusions as highlighted by Sanavia, et al.<sup>34</sup> If the drug is utilized for less than

5 days, the infusion should be rapidly reduced (50% per day) and the symptoms treated with oral methadone 0.1–0.2 mg/kg/6 hr and oral clorazepate 0.5–2 mg/kg/8 hr. However, if the drug exposure lasts for more than 5 days, a gradual reduction of infusion is suggested (20% per day), with prophylaxis during weaning and, management of withdrawal symptoms by utilizing oral clonidine 1–4 mcg/6–8 hr and, dexmedetomidine 0.2–0.75 mcg/kg/hr, as shown in Table 2.<sup>34</sup>

### **Prevention**

To avoid IWS in neonates, it is necessary to establish a proper weaning protocol. Our review found that, studies that utilized a standardized protocol observed fewer withdrawal events, through a reduction in length of exposure to analgo-sedation therapy and, therefore the predominant risk associated with the occurrence of IWS. Of note, was that successful weaning was dependent on strict protocol adherence.<sup>16</sup>

The implementation of a drug rotation protocol can prevent IWS occurrences. The main goal of drug rotation is the reduction of the length of time receptors are exposed to the same drug facilitating a decrease in patient tolerance and dependency. Sanavia, et al conducted a prospective observational study over four years that analyzed 100 children (1 month to 16 years old) who required continuous infusion of analgo-sedative agents for >4 days while managed in the intensive care unit setting during which the SOS scale was utilized to assess withdrawal symptoms while conducting a drug rotation protocol that alternated use of opioid and non-opioid agents and, benzodiazepine and non-benzodiazepine agents to achieve adequate analgesic and sedative therapy, respectively. The underlying goal was to use alternative means of drug therapy to limit exposure to prolonged use of drugs known to associated with high risk of IWS.<sup>34</sup> The primary analgesic agents used were fentanyl and remifentanyl with ketamine and metamizole used as their analgesic alternatives. Likewise, the primary sedative drug was midazolam with propofol and dexmedetomidine used as its

sedative alternative. With the knowledge that drug infusions lasting longer than 5 days increase the risk of IWS, the investigators also instituted a weaning protocol where the duration of each rotation was limited to four days. The results were interpreted as a reduction in the odds ratio for the incidence of IWS that was approximately 10 fold lower in those children managed with protocolized drug rotation thereby proving the efficacy of the protocol.<sup>34</sup> The protocol is outlined in Table 3.

A recent study from McPherson, et al, in 2021 also summarizes the evidence for IWS and, highlights practical approaches to reduce the risk of this complication. Their conclusion also supports the use of an opioid rotation protocol to avoid tolerance and withdrawal through transition of fentanyl to morphine and hydromorphone. They recommended an approach in which fentanyl is replaced by morphine multiplying its dose by 10-20 and, in the next rotation, morphine is replaced by hydromorphone dividing its dose by 7. In both transitions, the dosage should be reduced by approximately 25% to prevent cross-tolerance.<sup>31</sup> This technique is outlined in Table 4.

Another option to prevent the occurrence of IWS is to consider efforts to reduce the use of the analgesic and sedative agents that precipitate the presence of IWS in the NICU. Rana, et al utilized a multidisciplinary group at a large pediatric hospital to perform an extensive literature review to include published expert opinions and available guidelines on the practice of neonatal pain and sedation management. Their efforts facilitated the creation of guidelines for analgesic and sedative management for infants undergoing either surgery (major and minor) or mechanical ventilation.<sup>35</sup> The implementation of their guidelines was found to benefit neonates by an observed decrease in opioid and benzodiazepine use without incurring the risk of compromised pain management. The results demonstrated a significant reduction in the cumulative dose of analgo-sedation while maintaining the same level of pain scores. Of particular interest, the authors found that analgesia may be achieved with non-opioid drugs,

such as acetaminophen, or non-pharmaceutical measures that do not precipitate dependency.<sup>35</sup> The incorporation of a partnership with nursing and patient families may further accelerate plans for the successful implementation of strategies to optimize evaluation and management of neonatal analgo-sedation. The comfort provided to families will enhance a better understanding of their child's behavior and prospectively contribute to the success of analgo-sedative pain assessment and management plans.<sup>36</sup>

In the future,, artificial intelligence (AI) may also emerge as a useful technology to improve the evaluation and management of neonatal analgesic and sedative use. AI can potentially reduce the manual workload of collecting subjective information intermittently through the continuous retrieval of data through the use of AI leading to improved recognition and management of neonatal analgo-sedative requirements in critically ill neonates. An example of the proposed use and benefit of AI was described by Salekin, et al (2021), utilizing readily available data such as vital signs, body movement, crying frequency, and facial expressions of neonates. The authors conclusion suggest that, utilizing this data, AI would allow early recognition and management of the newborn's pain through timely implementation of non-opioid agents by neonatologists to facilitate avoidance of IWS and its related complications.<sup>37</sup>

## **Conclusion**

Although the majority of the studies described in this review included patients of ages outside the newborn period, this limitation is explained by the scarcity of available data focusing on IWS in neonates. As previously stated, neonatal pain is an important topic due to evidence indicating that newborns are more susceptible to pain and can suffer from acute and long-term consequences if they do not receive appropriate analgesic therapy. Pain management, particularly in critical care, commonly involves both analgesic and sedative therapies usually managed through the use of opioids and benzodiazepines. Despite clinically



effective analgo-sedation, these agents also present risks which include tolerance and dependency which may lead to the development of IWS.

Even though there is limited information available concerning IWS epidemiology specifically for the neonatal group, data from the general pediatric population shows high prevalence and incidence rates for this problem particularly when drug exposure lasts more than 5 days. This finding supports the development of more extensive research and subsequent widespread distribution of evidenced based education concerning evaluation, recognition, management and prevention of IWS.

Opioids and benzodiazepines are the main drugs responsible for IWS due to their ability to induce changes in the hepatic and renal metabolism that led to reduced elimination and subsequent development of tolerance and dependency in neonates in comparison to older children and adults. Distinct from opioids, benzodiazepine withdrawal effects need to be better understood so that research can elucidate unique treatment options to counter their contribution to IWS.

Regarding currently available assessment tools for evaluating IWS intensivists should be aware of their limitations in order to appropriately determine their best option(s). The FNAS is designed to assess NAS instead of IWS, and considering its date of publication and inherent limitations, it may not be suited for assessment and evaluation of IWS. In contrast, WAT-1 and SOS both offer good sensitivity and specificity but, are limited by their development for pediatric patients of essentially all ages. Overall, despite both being recognized as validated IWS assessment tools, SOS may be more advantageous than WAT-1. As a result, future research efforts should be directed towards the neonatal population to more thoroughly address this shortcoming in the evaluation and management of neonatal IWS.

Most authors agree that IWS management consists basically of a transition from intravenous infusion of opioids and benzodiazepines to oral analogs with a greater half-life, followed by a

protocolized but judicious tapering in order to reduce drug exposure and the related risk of IWS. The prevention of IWS is equally as important and represents an additional effort to reduce the risk of opioid and benzodiazepine withdrawal and subsequent IWS. To this end, the implementation of a drug rotation protocol is recommended to reduce prolonged exposure to these agents and their association to IWS.

In closing, we recommend that neonatologists and pediatric intensivists implement protocolized evaluation and management of IWS with potential future inclusion of AI to reduce the risk of prolonged opioid and benzodiazepine exposure and their association with IWS.

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### **Conflict of Interest**

None declared.

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### **Legend to Figures:**

**Figure 1:** Opioids interact with membrane receptors, inhibiting adenylyl cyclase-induced production of AMPc. During prolonged opioid use, homeostatic changes cause an increase in adenylyl cyclase activity, maintaining normal levels of AMPc. However, during opioid withdrawal, there is no inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, which increases AMPc levels. AMPc then stimulates the release of noradrenaline by the locus coeruleus (LC), and consequently, produces autonomic symptoms such as tachypnea and sweating. Protein structures obtained from: [SwissModel.expasy.org](http://SwissModel.expasy.org)

**Figure 2:** Benzodiazepines bind to an allosteric site in GABA-A receptors and modulate their activity positively. Prolonged exposure to benzodiazepines induces changes that lead to the development of tolerance and dependency. These alterations may include a decrease in receptor density, changes in receptor structure that affect benzodiazepine binding, and changes in GABA-A localization, such as the internalization of receptors. Protein structures obtained from: [SwissModel.expasy.org](http://SwissModel.expasy.org)



**Table 1:** Alternatives for analgesic and sedative drug therapy and, conversion of drug therapy from intravenous (IV) to oral dosing.

Reference	Current IV therapy	Oral alternative	Dose adjustment
McPherson et al. (2021)	Fentanyl (mcg/kg/hr)	Morphine (mg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 0.1 Administer 4/4 hr
	Fentanyl (mcg/kg/hr)	Methadone (mg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 0.05-0.1 Administer 6/6 hr
	Midazolam (mg/kg/hr)	Lorazepam (mg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 0.5-1 Administer 6/6 hr
	Dexmedetomidine (mcg/kg/hr)	Clonidine (mcg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 5 Administer 4/4 hr
D'Souza et al. (2018)	Morphine (mg/kg/hr)	Methadone (mg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 2-8 Administer 6/6 hr
	Fentanyl (mcg/kg/hr)	Methadone (mg/kg/daily dose)	Multiply by 0.05 Administer 6/6 hr

**Table 2:** Prophylactic and rescue treatments options for IWS according to the duration of drug therapy.

<b>Duration of exposure</b>	<b>Dose reduction</b>	<b>Oral prophylaxis</b>	<b>Rescue treatment</b>
<5 days	Reduce by 50% per day	-	Methadone 0.1-0.2 mg/kg/6 hr ± Clorazepate 0.5-2 mg/kg/8 hr
≥5 days	Reduce by 20% per day	Methadone 0.1-0.2 mg/kg/6 hr ± Clorazepate 0.5-2 mg/kg/8 hr	Clonidine 1-4 mcg/kg/6-8 hr ± Dexmedetomidine 0.2-0.75 mcg/kg/hr

Adapted from Sanavia E, Mencía S, Lafever SN, Solana MJ, Garcia M, López-Herce J.

Sedative and Analgesic Drug Rotation Protocol in Critically Ill Children with Prolonged

Sedation: Evaluation of Implementation and Efficacy to Reduce Withdrawal Syndrome\*.

Pediatr Crit Care Med. 2019;20(12):1111-1117

**Table 3:** Proposed drug rotation protocol for analgesic and sedative medications.

<b>Rotation number</b>	<b>Drug options for analgesia</b>	<b>Drug options for sedation</b>	<b>Rescue treatment</b>
1	Fentanyl 2 mcg/kg/hr (max 4 mcg/kg/hr)	Midazolam 2 mcg/kg/min (max 6 mcg/kg/min)	Clonidine 1-4 mg/k/6 hr oral
2	Ketamine 1 mg/kg/hr (max 2 mg/kg/hr)	Propofol 1 mg/kg/hr (max 4 mg/kg/hr)	Metamizole 6.6 mg/kg/hr IV
3	Remifentanyl 12 mcg/kg/hr (max 30 mcg/kg/hr)	Midazolam 2 mcg/kg/min (max 6 mcg/kg/min)	Clonidine 1-4 mg/k/6 hr oral
4	Metamizole 6.6 mg/kg/hr IV Acetaminophen 15 mg/kg/6 hr oral	Dexmedetomidine 0.75 mcg/kg/hr (max 1.2 mcg/kg/hr)	Morphine chloride 20 mcg/kg/hr IV (max 40 mcg/kg/hr)

Adapted from Sanavia E, Mencía S, Lafever SN, Solana MJ, Garcia M, López-Herce J.

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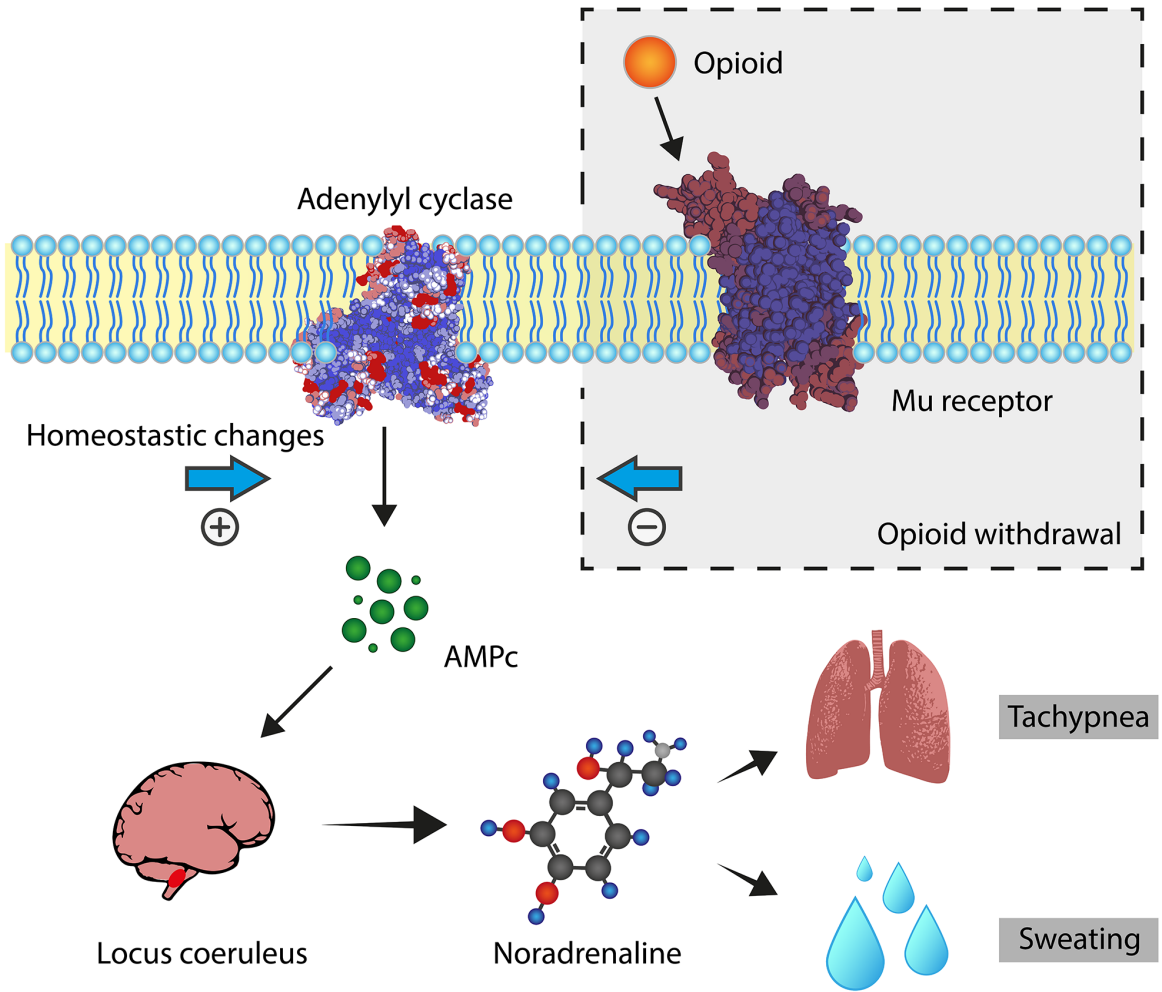
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**Table 4:** Options for opioid rotation and guidance for dose conversion.

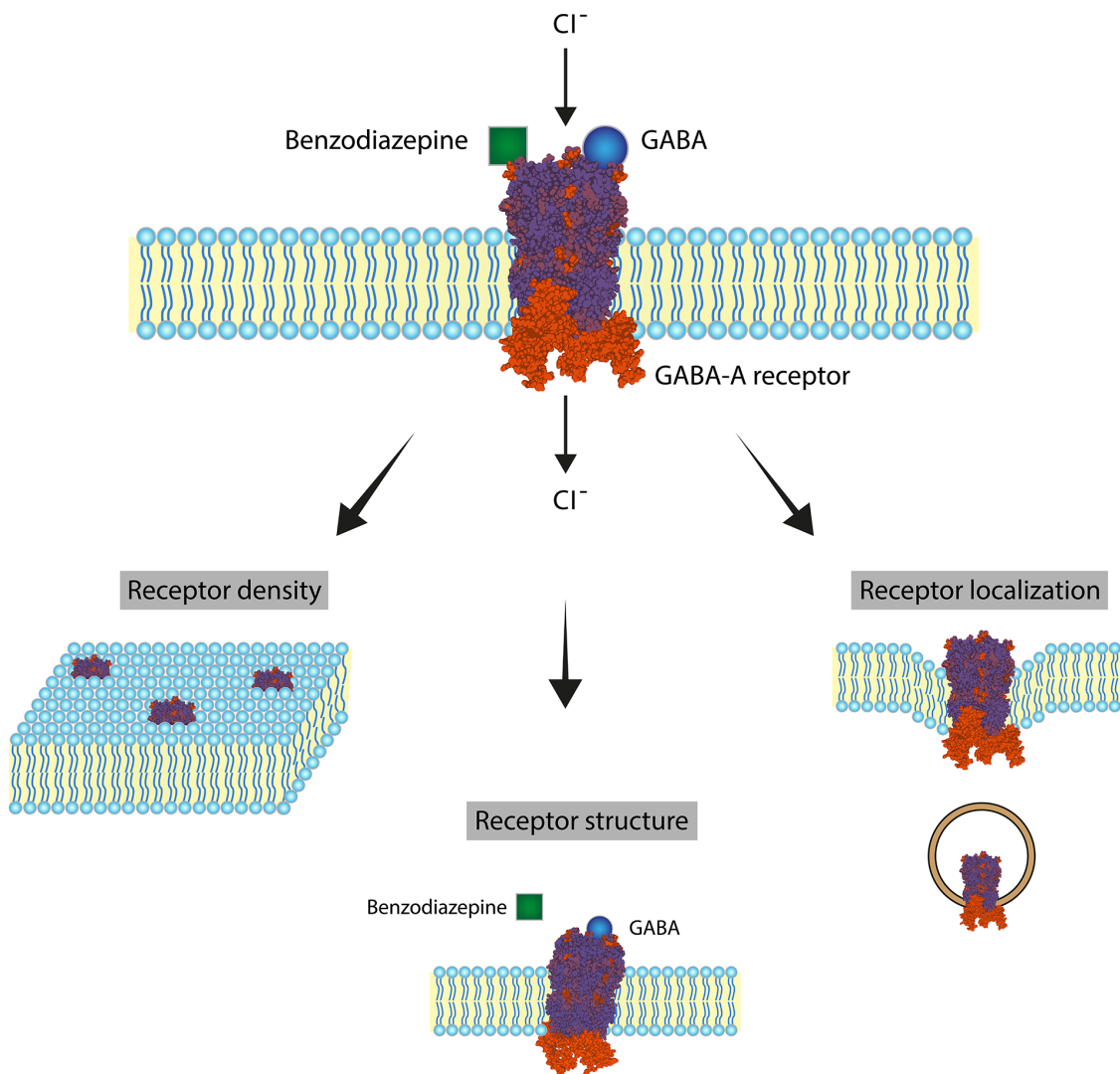
<b>Rotation number</b>	<b>Opioid agent</b>	<b>Dose adjustment</b>
1	Fentanyl (mcg/kg/hr)	-
2	Morphine (mcg/kg/hr)	Multiply fentanyl dose by 10–20 and reduce by ~25% for cross-tolerance
3	Hydromorphone (mcg/kg/hr)	Divide morphine dose by 7 and reduce by ~25% for cross-tolerance

Adapted from McPherson C, Ortinau CM, Vesoulis Z. Practical approaches to sedation and analgesia in the newborn. J Perinatol. 2021;41(3):383-395

**Figure 1**



**Figure 2**



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