

Inpatient Pediatric Opioid, Benzodiazepine, and Alpha agonist Withdrawal Prevention Guideline

DISCLAIMER: LEGAL DISCLAIMER: The information provided by Dell Children's Medical Center (DCMC), including but not limited to Clinical Pathways and Guidelines, protocols, and outcome data, (collectively the "Information") is presented to educate patients and providers on various medical treatment and management. The information should not be relied upon as complete or accurate; nor should it be relied on to suggest a course of treatment for a particular patient. The Clinical Pathways and Guidelines are intended to assist physicians and other health care providers in clinical decision-making by describing a range of generally acceptable approaches for the diagnosis, management, or prevention of specific diseases or conditions. These guidelines should not be considered inclusive of all proper methods of care or exclusive of other methods of care reasonably directed at obtaining the same results. The ultimate judgment regarding the care of a particular patient must be made by the physician in light of the individual circumstances presented by the patient. DCMC shall not be liable for direct, indirect, special, incidental, or consequential damages related to the user's decision to use this information contained herein.

Guideline Inclusion Criteria

Patients admitted to Dell Children's Hospital who are at risk for withdrawal from opioids, benzodiazepines, and alpha agonists (see risk categories below).

Guideline Exclusion Criteria

Patients in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit. Patients who are receiving treatment for chronic pain or palliation.

Background

Children admitted to intensive care are frequently exposed to opioid, benzodiazepine, and/or alpha agonist infusions for analgesia and sedation.⁽¹⁾ Owing to the severity of illness of many children, prolonged exposure to these medications frequently occurs, resulting in an increased risk of withdrawal when these medications are no longer required.^(2,3) To prevent iatrogenic withdrawal, these medications must be carefully tapered.

The symptoms of withdrawal, which may occur from abrupt discontinuation or tapering medications too quickly, include neurological excitability, gastrointestinal dysfunction, and autonomic dysfunction.⁽⁴⁻⁶⁾ These symptoms cause physiological and emotional distress for the patients and their families and can lead to prolongation of medication tapering and, potentially, length of stay.^(7,8) Currently, significant practice variation exists within and between institutions concerning the weaning of opioids, benzodiazepines, and alpha agonists.^(9,10) In the absence of a standardized approach, patients are frequently treated at the discretion of the provider, which can lead to overtreatment or undertreatment of withdrawal.⁽¹¹⁻¹⁴⁾

Total exposure, including both duration of therapy and dose, are important determinants of withdrawal risk for opioids,^(4,8,9,17-19) benzodiazepines,^(19,20) and alpha agonists.^(33,34) Our guideline, therefore, incorporates both of these factors in the design of patients' weaning plans. Providers are strongly encouraged to wean patients on stable sedation to the minimal doses required to minimize exposure risk. Weaning is particularly important for patients on long-term sedation (high and ultra-high-risk groups).

In this guideline, risk categories were selected based on a review of our data (Wilson, 2021) and experience at DCMC, along with an extensive review of the literature and protocols currently employed by other children's hospitals (see External Guidelines/Clinical Pathways Reviewed).

Withdrawal Risk Criteria:

Risk of withdrawal relative to duration of exposure to continuous infusions

- Minimal Risk \leq 3 days
- Low Risk > 3-5 days
- Moderate Risk > 5-10 days
- High Risk > 10-21 days
- Ultra High Risk > 21 days

Besides duration and total dose, other factors such as age and cognitive impairment affect the risk of withdrawal,⁽⁹⁾ so making a "one size fits all" approach to weaning dose and duration is impossible. Therefore, the guideline includes prescribed steps to manage withdrawal and oversedation to allow rapid interventions by bedside providers and prescribers, which is essential for patient comfort and safety. In addition, certain populations are at increased risk of deterioration if withdrawal occurs, and providers should consider consulting with unit pharmacists in these cases. At-risk groups include patients with:

- Seizure disorders
- Hemodynamically significant congenital heart disease
- Pulmonary hypertension
- History of complications from withdrawal

The rationale for the choice of weaning medications

Opioids

Although several medications can be used to treat withdrawal symptoms, methadone was selected in this guideline because of its favorable characteristics, including its enteral route of administration and long half life, which minimizes dosing frequency.

Benzodiazepines

We similarly chose lorazepam as it may be administered enterally, has fewer drug interactions, and lacks active metabolites compared with diazepam.⁽³⁾

Dexmedetomidine (alpha agonist)

Like most other pediatric and adult centers, we selected enteral clonidine as our weaning medication.^(36,38) Transdermal patch administration has been studied in a few centers^(33, 34) and is an alternative in a select group of patients (see criteria below).

Conversion of infusions to weaning medications

Patients requiring weaning (on > 5 days of infusions) are converted to intermittent weaning medications as described below. Starting doses of medications should be calculated from the respective infusion rate the patient received for at least 12 consecutive hours in the previous 24 hours. These conversions consider differences between the agent's potency, half-life, and oral bioavailability. ⁽³⁾

Opioids

Providers should exercise caution when converting current opioid infusions to methadone. Equianalgesic dose conversions are estimates and do not account for individual variability in genetics and pharmacokinetics. Methadone has a long and variable half-life, and the peak respiratory depressant effect occurs later and lasts longer than the peak analgesic effect. ⁽³⁹⁾ The conversions outlined here are based on the review of 177 patients at Dell Children's Hospital ⁽⁴²⁾ and a review of the literature.

Fentanyl

To convert Fentanyl infusion to methadone, 50% of the equipotent dose ⁽¹⁴⁾ is used to account for methadone's long half-life and high bioavailability. Specifically, the hourly rate of fentanyl (mcg/kg/hr) is multiplied by 0.05 to determine the starting dose of methadone (mg/kg), max 0.2 mg/kg, never more than 10 mg, which is dosed every 6 hours.

Morphine

For morphine infusions, the hourly rate (mg/kg/hr) is multiplied by 0.5 to determine the starting dose of methadone (mg/kg), max 0.2 mg/kg, never more than 10 mg. This dose is dosed every 6 hours and incorporates 50% of the equipotent dose. This approach is a more conservative conversion than we proposed in our original guidelines based on more recent published protocols ^(12,13) and subsequent experience.

Hydromorphone

Our institution has increasingly favored hydromorphone over morphine for analgesia and analgo-sedation due to its low risk of side effects and decreased tachyphylaxis. To convert from hydromorphone, we converted to morphine equivalents. We then followed the conversion to methadone described above using a conversion of the hourly rate (mg/kg/hr) multiplied by 3.4 to determine the starting dose of methadone (mg/kg), max 0.2 mg/kg, never more than 10 mg, which is dosed every 6 hours. ⁽⁴⁷⁾ This conversion incorporates a 50% dose reduction from the equipotent dose. Of note, because of its longer half-life, providers may consider weaning hydromorphone infusions with every other dose of methadone in patients with prolonged exposure.

Benzodiazepines

For midazolam infusions, the hourly rate (mg/kg/hr) is multiplied by 0.5 to determine the starting dose of lorazepam (mg/kg) every 6 hours. ⁽³⁾ A maximum dose of 0.2 mg/kg/dose and never more than 4 mg/dose was used.

Dexmedetomidine

There is limited data on how to convert dexmedetomidine to clonidine. In one study, patients who received an average infusion of 1 mcg/kg/hour of dexmedetomidine, a clonidine dose of 9 mcg/kg per day given via transdermal patch, was needed to prevent withdrawal symptoms.⁽³³⁾ Non-published protocols use similar doses in the range of 8-12 mcg/kg/day for all patients regardless of infusion rate or a range of 8-12 mcg/kg/day for patients receiving 0.6-1 mcg/kg/hr or 12 mcg/kg/day exposed to infusions of > 1.1 mcg/kg/day (CHLA, Cleveland Clinic, Childrens Nebraska, Duke). Based on our experience over the past ten years at DCMC, we recommend a dose of 8 mcg/kg/day for the low-dose group and 12 mcg/kg/day for the high-dose group. In patients who are on > 1.5 mcg/kg/hr and are at high risk of hemodynamic instability, providers should strongly consider weaning the infusion to <1.5 mcg/kg/hr so a lower dose of clonidine can be utilized. Based on adult literature, a maximum dose of 0.2 mg/dose of oral clonidine should be used for the low-dose group and 0.3 mg/dose for the high-dose group.^(36, 34, 37)

Conversion Enteral to IV for patients unable to tolerate the enteral route

If the patient can not tolerate enteral lorazepam, the same dose can be given intravenously for both based on its high oral bioavailability.⁽²⁶⁾ For Methadone, we recommend an oral-to-IV ratio of 1:0.8 based on current literature.^(40, 43) Clonidine may be converted to a transdermal patch using a 1:1 conversion based on the total daily dose. Due to patch size, they are best suited to children calculated to receive > 50 mcg /day due to difficulty in proper dosing due to patch sizes. If a patch is chosen, providers should consult with the pharmacy.

1. Patches **can not be cut**. To administer a half patch, place a Tegaderm underneath 50% of the patch.
2. Use the conversion as described for enteral clonidine to calculate the total daily dose for the patch.
3. The dose may need to be rounded to available patch sizes. For example, for a patient on 15 mcg q6, the total daily dose is 60 mcg. Therefore, the closest patch size would be half of a 0.1 mg patch (50 mcg)
4. Place the patch 48 hours before weaning off Dexmedetomidine, as this is the time required to achieve a steady-state clonidine concentration via the patch.
5. RNs should verify patch placement q 12h.
6. If the patient is oversedated, remove the patch and discuss the plan with the pharmacy.
7. If the patient has signs of withdrawal, give enteral PRN clonidine per withdrawal algorithm and discuss the change in patch dose with the pharmacy if needing frequent PRNs.
8. In the moderate-risk group, the patch may be removed after one week. Discuss with the pharmacist to determine an individualized weaning plan for patients in the high and ultra-high-risk groups.

Timing of Conversion to weaning medications

Weaning medications, particularly methadone, which has a long half-life, should be started at least 24-48 hours prior to extubation, depending on the length of exposure. Once initiated, infusions should be weaned per the weaning algorithm.

In some situations, providers may consider leaving dexmedetomidine on through extubation without starting clonidine, particularly if the patient may require non-invasive ventilation. If clonidine is started later, consider stopping dexmedetomidine at the time enteral clonidine is started or a rapid wean of 50% with each dose to avoid the risk of oversedation in extubated patients.

With all weaning medications, if a patient's status changes and providers are not planning to extubate, we recommend resuming infusion medications and discontinuing weaning medications to prevent dual therapy.

Tapering of weaning medications

Once patients were stable on weaning medications for 24 hours with (WAT-1) scores < 3 and off continuous infusions, providers should begin weaning the medications based on the patient's risk category.

Please see the wean algorithm for details on how to wean medications. Due to methadone's longer half-life, some providers may consider consolidating the same TOTAL daily dose earlier to less frequent dosing (e.g., moving from q6h to q8h, then q12 h more rapidly). However, this should be done cautiously as higher, less frequent doses can lead to oversedation. Please contact your pharmacist for assistance.

Identification of iatrogenic withdrawal syndrome (IWS)

IWS occurs when sedation and analgesic medications are stopped, weaned rapidly, or chemically reversed after prolonged exposure. IWS symptoms tend to be non-specific and may be driven by autonomic dysfunction secondary to sympathetic activation (tachypnea, tachycardia, elevated temperature, and diaphoresis), gastrointestinal symptoms (vomiting and diarrhea), alterations within the central nervous system (agitation, trembling, seizures, and delirium). Commonly reported symptoms by each class include:

Opioid: Gastrointestinal (diarrhea, vomiting, feeding intolerance), central nervous system (tremors, seizures, agitation, insomnia, yawning, sneezing), and sympathetic hyperactivity / autonomic dysfunction (tachycardia, diaphoresis, hypertension, tachypnea, nasal stuffiness, hyperpyrexia)

Benzodiazepine: Central nervous system (agitation, restlessness, irritability, delirium, hallucinations, seizures) and sympathetic hyperactivity (tachycardia, hypertension, tachypnea, hyperpyrexia)

Alpha-agonist: Tachycardia, hypertension, agitation, tremors, increased muscle tone, and insomnia,⁽³⁴⁾ with vomiting, diarrhea, and fever occasionally noted.⁽³⁵⁾

Depending on the medication's half-life and other factors, such as whether it has active metabolites, the onset of IWS may be delayed up to 48 to 72 hours after discontinuation or weaning medications.

WAT-1 Tool is validated for pediatric patients to aid clinicians in the recognition of clinically significant opioid or benzodiazepine withdrawal symptoms to guide the treatment of IWS.⁽⁶⁾ Patients at low or higher risk of withdrawal should be scored q 6h to 12hs. Withdrawal typically occurs within 48 hours and is unlikely if there has been no wean in the previous 72 hours.⁽⁴⁴⁾ Withdrawal should be considered if the patient's WAT-1 score is ≥ 3 .⁽⁶⁾ If a patient has preexisting conditions such as hypertonia, tremor, diarrhea, emesis, and hypertonia) providers should choose a higher WAT-1 score. For example, providers are encouraged to change the reportable/actionable WAT-1 score to ≥ 5 in patients with baseline tremor and hypertonia.

Vital Signs For patients at risk of withdrawal from dexmedetomidine, providers should also monitor heart rate and blood pressure and consider withdrawal if these parameters are greater than 20% above the patient's baseline, as tachycardia and hypertension are not evaluated by WAT-1 and have been associated with alpha agonist withdrawal.⁽⁴⁸⁾

Management of withdrawal

If a patient's WAT-1 score and/or vital signs are suggestive of withdrawal, providers should assess the patient to rule out other causes, such as sepsis, cardiac failure, respiratory distress, or gastrointestinal problems. As there is a significant overlap in withdrawal symptoms between opioids, benzodiazepines, and alpha agonists,⁽⁴¹⁾ once withdrawal is suspected, the likely agent should be determined by reviewing the patient's symptoms and medication history to determine which medication was most recently weaned.

If the WAT-1 score ≥ 3 or > 2 above baseline and presentation is consistent with withdrawal after considering other causes for symptoms, administer a rescue dose of medication as outlined in the withdrawal/over-sedation algorithm. Reassess WAT-1 score in 1 hour. If WAT-1 is still high, consider repeating the dose of the initial medication (if there is a partial response) or giving a rescue dose of other weaning medication if applicable (i.e., Lorazepam or Clonidine)

If the provider is unable to determine the causative agent of withdrawal based on symptoms, vital signs, and history, we recommend using rescue medications in the following order: morphine > Clonidine > Lorazepam.

Identification and Management of Over Sedation

If excessive sedation is apparent on clinical assessment, including Pasero Opioid-induced Sedation Scale (POSS) > 2 (e.g. patient is frequently drowsy, arousable but drifts off to sleep during conversation) or Richmond Agitation–Sedation Scale (RASS) < - 1, after beginning weaning medications, the provider should consider holding all weaning medications until the patient is stable and then decreasing the dose of the medication associated with the onset of symptoms according to the next step recommended in the patient's weaning plan. If the patient is on the medication's starting dose, consider decreasing the dose by 20%.

Important: EHR Documentation and Ordering

Providers should enter the medication orders using the opioid, benzodiazepine, and alpha agonist weaning plan (PEDI). They should update the medication doses as the patient progresses on the weaning plan to avoid failure to progress.

When weaning multiple agents, it is best to alternate the medications. It is important to space out the weaning steps, especially for ultra-high-risk patients, to identify which medication is causing withdrawal symptoms. Additionally, there is a need to space medication administration to avoid overlapping doses, which increase the risk of oversedation and risk for hypotension. For example, if weaning clonidine, lorazepam, and methadone and all are given q6h, time them so there are 2 hours between doses.

The patient's medication history (length of infusion, rate used for conversion to wean medication) and weaning plan with updates should be documented in the EHR. Any provider amending the plan should add a comment with the rationale for the change and the proposed updated weaning schedule.

External Guidelines/Clinical Pathways Reviewed

Organization	Date accessed
Cleveland Clinic	1/24
CHLA	9/23
CCU CHOP	9/23
PICU CHOP	9/23
Stanford	9/23
Minnesota Children's Hospital	9/23
Norton Children's	9/23
University of Washington	9/23
Duke University	9/23
STARSHIP Hospital	5/24

References

1. Tobias JD. Sedation and analgesia in the pediatric intensive care unit. *Pediatr Ann.* 2005;34(8):636–645.
2. Anand KJS, Arnold JH. Opioid tolerance and dependence in infants and children. *Crit Care Med.* 1994;22(2):334–342.
3. Tobias JD. Tolerance, withdrawal, and physical dependency after long-term sedation and analgesia of children in the pediatric intensive care unit. *Crit Care Med.* 2000;28(6):2122–2132.
4. French JP, Nocera M. Drug withdrawal symptoms in children after continuous infusions of fentanyl. *J Pediatr Nurs.* 1994;9(2):107–113.
5. Ista E, van Dijk M, Tibboel D, de Hoog M. Assessment of opioid and benzodiazepine withdrawal symptoms in critically ill children: Current state of the art. *Neth J CritCare.* 2009;13(5):247–253.
6. Franck, L. S., Harris, S. K., Soetenga, D. J., Amling, J. K., & Curley, M. A. (2008). *The Withdrawal Assessment Tool-1 (WAT-1): an assessment instrument for monitoring opioid and benzodiazepine withdrawal symptoms in pediatric patients.* *Pediatric critical care medicine: a journal of the Society of Critical Care Medicine and the World Federation of Pediatric Intensive and Critical Care Societies*, 9(6), 573–580. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PCC.0b013e31818c8328>
7. Franck LS, Vilardi J, Durand D, Powers P. Opioid withdrawal in neonates after continuous infusions of morphine or fentanyl during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Am J Crit Care.* 1998; 7(5):364–369.
8. Fisher D, Grap MJ, Younger JB, et al. Opioid withdrawal signs and symptoms in children: frequency and determinants. *Heart Lung.* 2013;42(6):407–413.
9. Best KM, Boullata JI, Curley MAQ. Risk factors associated with iatrogenic opioid and benzodiazepine withdrawal in critically ill pediatric patients. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2015;16(2):175–183.
10. Fisher D, Ameringer S. Survey of opioid tapering practices of pediatric healthcare providers: a national perspective. *J Opioid Manag.* 2017;13(1):59–64.
11. Steineck KJ, Skoglund AK, Carlson MK, Gupta S. Evaluation of a pharmacist-managed methadone taper. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2014;15(3):206–210.
12. Sanchez-Pinto LN, Nelson LP, Lieu P, et al. Implementation of a risk-stratified opioid weaning protocol in a pediatric intensive care unit. *J Crit Care.* 2018;43:214–219.
13. Amirnovin R, Sanchez-Pinto LN, Okuhara C, et al. Implementation of a risk-stratified opioid and benzodiazepine weaning protocol in a pediatric cardiac ICU. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2018;19(11):1021–1032.
14. Robertson RC, Darsey E, Fortenberry JD, et al. Evaluation of an opiate-weaning protocol using methadone in pediatric intensive care unit patients. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2000;1(2):119–123.
15. Johnson MR, Nash DR, Laird MR, et al. Development and implementation of a pharmacist-managed, neonatal, and pediatric opioid-weaning protocol. *J Pediatr Pharmacol Ther.* 2014;19(3):165–173.
16. Bowens CD, Thompson JA, Thompson MT, et al. A trial of methadone tapering schedules in pediatric intensive care unit patients exposed to prolonged sedative infusions. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2011;12(5):504–511.
17. Arnold JH, Truog RD, Orav EJ, et al. Tolerance and dependence in neonates sedated with fentanyl during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Anesthesiology.* 1990;73(6):1136–1140.
18. Katz R, Kelly HW, Hsi A. Prospective study on the occurrence of withdrawal in critically ill children who receive fentanyl by continuous infusion. *Crit Care Med.* 1994;22(5):763–767.
19. Fernández-Carrión F, Gaboli M, González-Celador R, et al. Withdrawal syndrome in the pediatric intensive care unit: incidence and risk factors. *Med Intensiva.* 2013;37(2):67–74.
20. Amigoni A, Vettore E, Brugnolaro V, et al. High doses of benzodiazepine predict analgesic and sedative drug withdrawal syndrome in paediatric intensive care patients. *Acta Paediatrica.* 2014;103(12):538–543.
21. Lugo RA, Maclaren R, Cash J, et al. Enteral methadone to expedite fentanyl discontinuation and prevent opioid abstinence syndrome in the PICU. *Pharmacotherapy.* 2001;21(12):1566–1573.
22. Meyer MT, Berens RJ. Efficacy of an enteral 10-day methadone wean to prevent opioid withdrawal in fentanyl-tolerant pediatric intensive care unit patients. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2001;2(4):329–333.

23. daSilva PSLD, Reis ME, Fonseca TSM, Fonseca MCM. Opioid and benzodiazepine withdrawal syndrome in PICU patients. *J Addict Med.* 2016;10(2):110–116.
24. Dale O, Sheffels P, Kharasch ED. Bioavailabilities of rectal and oral methadone in healthy subjects. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2004;58(2):156–162.
25. Eap CB, Buclin T, Baumann P. Interindividual variability of the clinical pharmacokinetics of methadone: implications for the treatment of opioid dependence. *Clin Pharmacokinetics.* 2002;41(14):1153–1193
26. Greenblatt DJ, Shader RI, Franke K, et al. pharmacokinetics and bioavailability of intravenous, intramuscular, and oral lorazepam in humans. *J Pharm Sci.* 1979;68(1):57–63.
27. Mchugh ML. Interrater reliability: the kappa statistic. *Biochem Med.* 2012;22(3):276–282.
28. Vipond JM, Heiberger AL, Thompson PA, Huber JN. Shortened taper duration after implementation of a standardized protocol for iatrogenic benzodiazepine and opioid withdrawal in pediatric patients: results of a cohort study. *Pediatr Qual Saf.* 2018;3(3)1–7.
29. Kozin ED, Cummings BM, Rogers DJ, et al. Systemwide change of sedation wean protocol following pediatric laryngotracheal reconstruction. *JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2015;141(1):27–33.
30. Sanavia E, Mencía S, Lafever SN, et al. 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.
31. Curley MAQ, Wypij D, Watson RS, et al. Protocolized sedation vs usual care in pediatric patients mechanically ventilated for acute respiratory failure. *JAMA.* 2015;313(4):379–389.
32. Hyun D-G, Huh JW, Hong S-B, et al. Iatrogenic opioid withdrawal syndrome in critically ill patients: a retrospective cohort study. *J Korean Med Sci.* 2020;35(15):e106. doi:10.3346/jkms.2020.35.e106
33. Lardieri AB, Fusco NM, Simone S, Walker LK, Morgan JA, Parbuoni KA. Effects of Clonidine on Withdrawal From Long-term Dexmedetomidine in the Pediatric Patient. *J Pediatr Pharmacol Ther.* 2015 Jan-Feb;20(1):45-53. Doi: 10.5863/1551-6776-20.1.45. PMID: 25859170; PMCID: PMC4353200.
34. Glaess SS, Attridge RL, Christina Gutierrez G. Clonidine as a strategy for discontinuing dexmedetomidine sedation in critically ill patients: A narrative review. *Am J Health Syst Pharm.* 2020 Mar 24;77(7):515-522. doi: 10.1093/ajhp/zxaa013. PMID: 32086509.
35. Haenecour AS, Seto W, Urbain CM, Stephens D, Laussen PC, Balit CR. Prolonged Dexmedetomidine Infusion and Drug Withdrawal In Critically Ill Children. *J Pediatr Pharmacol Ther.* 2017 Nov-Dec;22(6):453-460. Doi: 10.5863/1551-6776-22.6.453. PMID: 29290746; PMCID: PMC5736258.
36. Sanu Rajendraprasad, Molly Wheeler, Erin Wieruszewski et al. Clonidine use during dexmedetomidine weaning: A systematic review *J Crit Care Med.* Jan 9, 2023; 12(1): 18-28 Published online Jan 9, 2023. doi: 10.5492/wjccm.v12.i1.18
37. Gagnon DJ, Riker RR, Glisic EK, Kelner A, Perrey HM, Fraser GL. Transition from dexmedetomidine to enteral clonidine for ICU sedation: an observational pilot study. *Pharmacotherapy.* 2015 Mar;35(3):251-9. doi: 10.1002/phar.1559. PMID: 25809176
38. Thompson, R. Z., Gardner, B. M., Autry, E. B., Day, S. B., & Krishna, A. S. (2019). Survey of the Current Use of Dexmedetomidine and Management of Withdrawal Symptoms in Critically Ill Children. *The Journal of Pediatric Pharmacology and Therapeutics: JPPT: the official journal of PPAG*, 24(1), 16–21. <https://doi.org/10.5863/1551-6776-24.1.16>
39. Dowell D, Ragan KR, Jones CM, Baldwin GT, Chou R. CDC Clinical Practice Guideline for Prescribing Opioids for Pain — United States, 2022. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2022;71(No. RR-3):1–95. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.rr7103a1>.
40. González-Barboteo, J., Porta-Sales, J., Nabal-Vicuña, M., Díez-Porres, L., Canal-Sotelo, J., Alonso-Babarro, A., Vilches-Aguirre, Y., Pérez-Pujol, S., Sanlloriente, M., Llorens-Torromé, S., Gómez-Batiste Alentorn, X., & Bruera, E. (2021). Switching Ratio from Parenteral to Oral Methadone 1:1.2 Is Safer Compared with Ratio 1:2 in Patients with Controlled Cancer Pain: A Multicenter Randomized-Controlled Trial (RATIOMTD-010810). *Journal of palliative medicine*, 24(3), 382–390. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jpm.2020.0244>
41. Smith, H. A. B. (2022, February 4). SCCM: PANDEM Guidelines for infants and children. Society of Critical Care Medicine (SCCM). <https://www.sccm.org/Clinical-Resources/Guidelines/Guidelines/PANDEM-Guidelines-for-Infants-and-Children>

42. Wilson, A. K., Ragsdale, C. E., Sehgal, I., Vaughn, M., Padilla-Tolentino, E., Barczyk, A. N., & Lawson, K. A. (2021). *Exposure-Based Methadone and Lorazepam Weaning Protocol Reduces Wean Length in Children*. *The Journal of Pediatric Pharmacology and Therapeutics: JPPT: the official journal of PPAG*, 26(1), 42–49. <https://doi.org/10.5863/1551-6776-26.1.42>
43. Liu, J., Smith, K. E., Riker, R. R., Craig, W. Y., McKelvy, D. J., Kemp, H. D., Nichols, S. D., & Fraser, G. L. (2021). *Methadone bioavailability and dose conversion implications with intravenous and enteral administration: A scoping review*. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy: AJHP: Official journal of the American Society of Health-System Pharmacists*, 78(15), 1395–1401. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajhp/zxab166>
44. Rettig, R.A.; Yarmolinsk, A. (1995). *Federal regulation of methadone treatment*. The National Academies Press. <https://nap.nationalacademies.org/catalog/4899/federal-regulation-of-methadone-treatment>
45. Pathan S, Kaplan JB, Adamczyk K, Chiu SH, Shah CV. *Evaluation of dexmedetomidine withdrawal in critically ill adults*. *J Crit Care*. 2021 Apr;62:19-24. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2020.10.024. Epub 2020 Nov 2. PMID: 33227592.
46. Glaess, S. S., Attridge, R. L., & Christina Gutierrez, G. (2020). *Clonidine as a strategy for discontinuing dexmedetomidine sedation in critically ill patients: A narrative review*. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy: AJHP: Official journal of the American Society of Health-System Pharmacists*, 77(7), 515–522. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajhp/zxaa013>
47. Lexi-comp: Opioid conversion table and morphine equivalent dose table. (n.d.-a). <http://webstore.lexi.com/sample-pages/pdf/dih-1.pdf> Accessed 2/5/24.
48. Crabtree, M. F., Sargel, C. L., Cloyd, C. P., Tobias, J. D., Abdel-Rasoul, M., & Thompson, R. Z. (2021). *Evaluation of an enteral clonidine taper following prolonged dexmedetomidine exposure in critically ill children*. *Journal of Pediatric Intensive Care*, 11(04), 327–334. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0041-1726091>

Physician Lead: Dr. Alexandra Wilson, MD

Next Full Review: March 2029

Guideline Revision History	
August 2014	First published to EBOC
March 2025	Full Guideline Review as well as updates to the accompanying algorithms.

EBOC Workgroup Team:

Alexandra Wilson, MD
Claire Bundick, PharmD
Derek Templet, PharmD
Carmen Garudo, EBOC PM
Reviewed by PICU, Pharmacy

EBOC Leadership Team:

Sarmistha Hauger, MD
Patty Click, RN
Melissa Cossey, MD
Tory Meyer, MD
Nilda Garcia, MD
Meena Iyer, MD
Amanda Puro, MD
Lynsey Vaughan, MD
Sheryl Yanger, MD