

Evaluation the clinical effects of neuroleptanalgesia (Remifentanil-Acepromazine, Remifentanil-Xylazine, and Remifentanil-Midazolam) during intubation and some minor surgical operations in dogs

Samir Aoda Jaffar Ayad Abed-Al-Jabbar Amin

Coll. of Vet. Med. / Univ. of Baghdad

email: ayadamin@yahoo.com

(Received 9 January 2014, Accepted 21 April 2014)

Abstract

The present study intends to evaluate and compare the clinical effects of neuroleptanalgesia induced by using one of the sedative-opioid or tranquilizer-opioid (neuroleptanalgesia) combinations during intubation and some minor surgical operations in dogs. Twenty seven apparently healthy dogs weighing from (15-20 kg) and aged (2-4 years) were divided into three groups, all animals were premedicated with atropine (0.03 mg/kg BW) IM, after 15 minutes neuroleptanalgesia induced as following: Group 1, giving Acepromazine 1mg/kg BW IM and remifentanil 0.5 µg/kg BW IV. Group 2, giving Xylazine 2mg/kg BW IM and remifentanil 0.5 µg/kg BW IV. Group 3, giving Midazolam 0.2mg/kg BW IM and remifentanil 0.5 µg/kg BW IV), in 10 minutes interval respectively in all groups. The following parameters were used for evaluation during the state of (neuroleptanalgesia), eye reflexes, duration and degree of surgical analgesia, degree of sedation, muscle relaxation, respiratory rate, rectal body temperature, and heart rate and rhythm. The results of the study was characterized by good sedation with minor change in heart and respiratory rates and body temperature with excellent analgesia and muscle relaxation quite enough to performed intubation, docking and declawing in groups one and two and less in quality in third group. Neuroleptanalgesia programs in all groups are good for reduce fear and induce restraint necessary for diagnostic procedures, physical examination or some minor surgical operations.

Key words: Neuroleptanalgesia, remifentanil, acepromazine, xylazine, midazolam, dog.

تقييم التأثير السريري لحالة التسكين المقلدي المحدث في الكلاب باستخدام (الريميفنتانيل والاسيبيرومازين ، الريميفنتانيل والزيلازين ، الريميفنتانيل والميدازولام) من خلال اجراء بعض العمليات الجراحية و ادخال انبوب الرغامى

سمير عودة جعفر اياد عبد الجبار امين

كلية الطب البيطري / جامعة بغداد

الخلاصة

اجريت هذه الدراسة لغرض تقييم ومقارنة التأثير السريري لحالة التسكين المقلدي المحدث باستخدام المسدرات ، المهدئات مع الافيونات من خلال اجراء بعض العمليات الجراحية البسيطة او ادخال انبوب الرغامى في الكلاب. استخدمت في التجربة سبعة وعشرين من الكلاب (والتي تبدا معافاة) يتراوح وزنها ما بين (15-20 كغم) واعمارها ما بين (2-4 سنوات) جرى اعطاءها الأتروبيين (0.03 ملغ/كغم) قبل 15 دقيقة من اعطاء ادوية التسكين المقلدي. قسمت الحيوانات إلى ثلاث مجموعات: المجموعة 1، تم إعطاءها الاسيبيرومازين 1 ملغ/كغم بالعضلة والريميفنتانيل 0.5 ميكروغرام/كغم من وزن الجسم وريديا. المجموعة 2، اعطيت الزيلازين 2 ملغ/كغم بالعضلة والريميفنتانيل 0.5 ميكروغرام/كغم من وزن الجسم وريديا. المجموعة 3، تم إعطاءها الميدازولام 0.2 ملغ/كغم والريميفنتانيل 0.5 ميكروغرام/كغم من وزن الجسم وريديا في فترة 10 دقائق على التوالي في جميع الفئات. تم استخدام المعلمات التالية لتقييم حالة التسكين المقلدي: منعكسات العين، مدة ودرجة التسكين الجراحي، درجة التسدير، استرخاء العضلات، ومعدل التنفس، ودرجة حرارة المستقيم ، معدل ضربات القلب. اظهرت النتائج حصول تسدير جيد مع تغير قليل في معدل التنفس ومعدل ضربات القلب ودرجة حرارة الجسم مع حصول تسكين وارتخاء عضلات ممتازين في المجموعتان الاولى والثانية كافيان لإدخال انبوب الرغامى

وأجراء عملية إزالة الضفر وعملية بتر الذيل. أما المجموعة الثالثة كانت أقل في الجودة. نستنتج من هذا أن برامج التسكين المقلدي في جميع المجموعات كان جيدا لإزالة الخوف واحداث السيطرة اللازمة لإجراءات التشخيص و الفحوصات البدنية أو إجراء بعض العمليات الجراحية البسيطة.
الكلمات المفتاحية: التسكين المقلدي ، الريميفنتانيل ، الاسبيرومازين ، الزيلازين ، الميدازولام ، الكلاب.

Introduction

Remifentanyl is a potent ultra-short acting synthetic opioid analgesic drug. (1). It is a recently developed full opioid agonist, which is now extensively used in human anesthesia, and has been the subject of research in veterinary anesthesia. It is given to patients during surgery to relieve pain and as an adjunct to an anesthetic. Remifentanyl is used for sedation as well as combined with other medications for use in general anesthesia. Remifentanyl administered either as a constant infusion, or as a PCA (patient controlled analgesia) system, or both is a very good alternative to Pethidine as an obstetric analgesic (2). The Mu-opioid activity of remifentanyl is antagonized by naloxone. It is an ultra-short-acting agent of similar potency to fentanyl administered by intravenous infusion during surgery (3). The major advantage of remifentanyl over fentanyl and alfentanil is that the drug is broken down by non-specific plasma and tissue esterase, and does not rely on metabolism and excretion by the liver and kidneys. Thus, there should be no cumulating in patients with hepatic or renal disease. Recovery from the effects of remifentanyl occurs rapidly (within 5 to 10 minutes). New steady-state concentrations occur within 5 to 10 minutes after changes in infusion rate. When used as a component of an anesthetic technique, remifentanyl can be rapidly titrated to the desired depth of anesthesia/analgesia (e.g., as required by varying levels of intraoperative stress) by changing the continuous infusion rate or by administering IV bolus injection (4). Xylazine is a potent sedative, analgesic and muscle relaxant drug in animals. It is a typical alpha-2 adrenoceptor agonist and exerts its effects most likely by activation of central presynaptic alpha 2- receptors in the brain. Activation of these central alpha2-receptors seems to regulate central dopamine norepinephrine storage or release (so sedation and analgesia occur), sedative and

analgesic activity are related to CNS depression mediated by stimulation of central presynaptic α -2 adrenoceptors, resulting in inhibition of norepinephrine release from adrenergic nerve terminals, while the muscle-relaxant effect is due to inhibition of intranural transmission of impulses to the CNS) (5,6,7). Acepromazine is a phenothiazine neuroleptic agent. The primary desired effect for the use of acepromazine in veterinary medicine is its tranquilizing action. Additional pharmacologic actions that acepromazine possess, include antiemetic, antispasmodic, anticonvulsant and hypothermic actions. It may decrease respiratory rates, with little or no effect on the blood gas picture, pH or oxyhemoglobin saturation. A dose dependent decrease in hematocrit is seen within 30 minutes after dosing in the horse and the dog (8). Besides a lowering of arterial blood pressure in the dog, acepromazine causes an increase in central venous pressure, a vagally induced bradycardic effect and transient sinoatrial arrest (9). Acepromazine is approved for use in dogs, cats, and horses as an antiemetic and as a preanesthetic agent. Animals may require lower dosages of general anesthetics. The benzodiazepine group has been widely used in human and veterinary medicine applications. Midazolam is two times potent more than diazepam. It is considered to be fast acting with a short elimination half-life, it unlike diazepam can be administered by the intramuscular route as well as the intravenous route, and it has mild respiratory effects and is commonly used as a mild tranquilizer (10). The sedative and hypnotic effects of midazolam are dose-dependent as well as dependent on route of administration, midazolam can produce maximal sedative effects in 20 minutes after intramuscular administration of 0.6 mg/kg (11).

The anesthetist aims to prevent awareness of pain, provide immobility and, whenever this is needed, relaxation of the skeletal

muscles. These objectives must be achieved in such a way that the safety of the patient is not risked during the preoperative period. Many animals fear and resist the restraint necessary for the administration of drug, diagnostic procedures, physical examination or some minor surgical operations (12). This will increase not only the technical difficulties of such procedures but also the dangers inseparable from their use. To sedate an animal that is in pain a suitable analgesic must be used, possibly in combination with a sedative drug, because most sedative drugs themselves have little or no analgesic activity and may cause exaggerated reactions to painful stimulation. Sedative-opioid or tranquilizer-opioid combinations (neuroleptanalgesia) are used for procedures such as radiography, examinations, bandage changes and minor orthopedic manipulations, and for preanesthetic medication (13). The combination of an opioid with a sedative may accomplish one of two goals. One is to increase the degree of sedation and analgesia beyond that achieved by use of the sedative or opioid alone. The second, the combination allows a decrease in dose rate of one or both of the drugs while still achieving satisfactory sedation. Decreased dose rates may result in less respiratory or cardiovascular depression, less airway obstruction in brachycephalic breed dogs, and less drug to be metabolized for recovery. For these reasons the study intends to evaluate and compare the clinical effects of neuroleptanalgesia induce by using one of the sedative-opioid or tranquilizer-opioid combinations (neuroleptanalgesia) during intubation and some minor surgical operations in dogs.

Materials and methods

The study was conducted on twenty seven apparently healthy dogs weighing (15-20 kg) and aged (2-4 years). Intravenous cannula was fixed in the cephalic vein after fasting of animal 12 hrs. prior giving the drugs to facilitate drug administration. Atropine sulfate (0.03 mg/kg BW) IM were given 15 minutes before neuroleptic drug administration. Animals were divided into three groups. G1 was giving acepromazine 1mg/kg BW IM, and remifentanyl 0.5 µg/kg

BW IV. G2 was giving xylazine 2mg/kg BW IM and remifentanyl 0.5 µg/kg BW IV. G3 was giving midazolam 0.2mg/kg BW IM, and remifentanyl 0.5 µg/kg BW IV in 10-min intervals respectively in all groups. The respiratory rate, heart rate, rectal temperature, degree of analgesia (by pin prick), muscle relaxation, eye reflexes were taken before giving the drugs and consider as control reading, then same reading were taken every 5minutes for one hour. The recovery periods also recorded. The quality and duration of neuroleptanalgesia, endotracheal intubation and some minor surgical operations, like docking, amputation of first digit in some animals were done to evaluate the efficacy of the neuroleptanalgesic protocols.

Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error and had been analyzed by using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Least Significant Differences (LSD) to compare between groups, (P=Value) (14).

Results

The degree of sedation in G1 and G2 was expressed as deep sedation, and the animals were seen depressed, drowsy and sleepy, with attain to sternal recumbence and no resistance to positioning on lateral recumbency. In G3 animals were seen slightly sedated, mild signs of depression, drowsiness or ataxia with diminution the reaction to external stimuli. The heart rate was started increased in all groups from the first five minutes and show significant deference between control time with 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 45 and 60 min. after the injection of xylazine, midazolam, and acepromazine then continues increased and stable above base line to the end of experiment (Table 1). The respiratory rate was gradually decreased during the first ten minutes in all groups and show significant deference between control time and 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 45 and, 60 min. The decreased after the injection of xylazine, then continues clearly decreased after

Table (1): The effects of different neuroleptanalgesic protocols on heart rate (beats/min) in dogs.

Groups	Time minutes													
	Zero	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	
G1	78.5 ± 0.68 h	79.9 ± 1.36 h	87.3 ± 1.98 A gh	91.3 ± 2.18 A fg	95.8 ± 1.94 A ef	98 ± 1.52 A ef	103.8 ± 2.32 de	107.5 ± 2.57 cd	111.5 ± 2.56 bsd	114.9 ± 3.04 abc	118.7 ± 3.35 ab	123 ± 2.99 ab	124.8 ± 2.98 AB a	
G2	74.3± 2.08 i	74.3± 2.08 i	84.3± 2.91 AB h	89± 3 AB h	90.4± 3.77AB gh	96.8± 77 AB fgh	102± 4 ef	106.2± 4.1 de	112.2± 2.96 cd	117.3± 3.83 dc	121.3± 3.96 b	124.5± 32.82 ab	130.8± 2.56 AB a	
G3	71.2± 2.58 j	72± 2.36 j	77.9± 2.68 B ij	84± 2.22 B hi	87.4± 2.94 B gh	90.3± 2.88 B fgh	97.3± 2.44 ef	101.4± 2.83 de	106.1± 3.22 cd	110.3± 3.33 bc	114.2± 3.50 abc	117.6± 2.91 ab	120.8± 3.15 B a	

G1: Atropine, xylazine and Remifentanil, G2: Atropine, midazolam and Remifentanil, G3: Atropine, Acepromazine and Remifentanil. Capital letters revealed those significant differences at the level ($p < 0.005$) among times. Small letters revealed that significant differences at the level ($p < 0.005$) among groups.

Table (2): The effects of different neuroleptanalgesic protocols on respiratory rate (breath/min) in dogs.

Groups	Time Zero X± SE	5 min.	10 min.	15 min.	20 min.	25 min.	30 min.	35 min.	40 min.	45 min.	50 min.	55 min.	60 min.
G1	a	ab	ab	bc	cd	cde	def	efg	fg	gh	hi	i	i
	25.33 ±0.33	B 24.44 ±0.66	23.66 ±0.68	22.66 ±0.5	21.44 ±0.81	21 ±0.86	20.2 ±0.93	19.1 ±1.04	18.22 ±0.91	17.66 ±1.04	16.11 ±0.82	15.5 ±0.71	15.1 ±0.71
G2	a	a	ab	abc	abe	be	cde	de	efg	fg	gh	hi	i
	25.3 ±0.33	AB 25.33 ±0.33	24.3 ±0.37	23.5 ±0.37	23.3 ±0.5	22.78 ±0.40	21.89 ±0.51	20.78 ±0.62	20 ±0.58	18.78 ±0.66	17.67 ±0.82	16.44 ±1.30	15.56 ±0.62
G3	a	a	b	bc	cd	cd	de	e	ef	f	g	g	g
	27.11 ±1.11	A 27.11 ±1.11	24 ±0.41	23.22 ±0.66	22.22 ±0.82	21.78 ±0.86	20.78 ±0.86	19.67 ±1.1	19.11 ±0.99	17.67 ±1.0	15.67 ±0.67	15.56 ±0.62	14.22 ±0.36

G1: Atropine, xylazine and Remifentanil, G2: Atropine, midazolam and Remifentanil, G3: Atropine, Acepromazine and Remifentanil. Different capital letters demonstrate significant difference, different small letters horizontally demonstrate significance among times in same group.

Table (3): The effects of different neuroleptanalgesic protocols on rectal temperature (C°) in dogs.

Time Group	Zero X± SE	5 min.	10 min.	15 min.	20 min.	25 min.	30 min.	35 min.	40 min.	45 min.	50 min.	55 min.	60 min.
G1	a	ab	ab	b	bc	bcd	cd	def	defg	efg	fg	g	g
	37.71 ±0.06	37.54 ±0.10	37.41 ±0.10	37.23 ±0.08	C 37.10 ±1.41	37.03 ±0.1	36.86 ±0.10	36.67 ±0.13	36.58 ±0.08	36.42 ±0.11	36.32 ±0.10	36.24 ±0.06	36.16 ±0.05
G2	a	a	a	ab	be	be	Cd	cde	def	efg	f	gi	j
	37.43 ±0.12	37.42 ±0.11	37.2 ±0.10	37.05 ±0.13	B 36.84 ±0.15	36.82 ±0.11	36.68 ±0.12	36.61 ±0.12	36.38 ±0.09	36.3 ±0.06	36.22 ±0.07	36.11 ±0.05	36.88 ±0.04
G3	a	a	abc	bc	cd	de	ef	ef	fg	gh	hi	hi	i
	37.6 ±0.12	37.52 ±0.11	37.37 ±0.09	37.15 ±0.10	A 37.12 ±0.13	36.96 ±0.13	36.73 ±0.12	36.7 ±0.13	36.56 ±0.15	36.44 ±0.10	36.22 ±0.06	36.17 ±0.05	36.13 ±0.03

G1: Atropine, xylazine and Remifentanil, G2: Atropine, midazolam and Remifentanil, G3: Atropine, Acepromazine and Remifentanil. Different capital letters demonstrate significant difference, different small letters horizontally demonstrate significance among times in same group.

injection of remifentanyl and stable above base line to the end of experiment. However, no signs of apnea or cyanotic mucous membranes were observed in any of the dogs in all groups (Table 2). Body temperature was gradually reduced in all animals of the three groups (Table 3). Deep analgesia (DA) was extend from 30 min to 55 min in G1, from 35 min to 50 min in G2, and from 45 min to 55 min in G3 (Table 4). The degree of

muscle relaxation in G1 and G2 started early after the animals premeditated with xylazine in G1 and midazolam in G2 and reach to the optimum degree and extending to 60 min. time of observation (Table 5). The palpebral and corneal reflexes in neuroleptanalgesic groups were never abolished completely, it become nearly sluggish at time 35 min. in G1. The pupil size reflex was found contracted in all groups.

Table (4): The effects of different neuroleptanalgesic protocols on analgesia in dogs

Time Groups	Zero	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m	30m	35m	40m	45m	50m	55m	60m
G1	NA	NA	NA	NA	LA	MA	DA	DA	DA	DA	DA	DA	MA
G2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	MA	DA	DA	DA	DA	MA	LA
G3	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	LA	MA	MA	MA	LA

G1: Atropine, xylazine and Remifentanyl, G2: Atropine, midazolam and Remifentanyl, G3: Atropine, Acepromazine and Remifentanyl. NA =No analgesia, LA =Light analgesia, MD=Mild analgesia, DA=Deep analgesia.

Table (5): The effects of different neuroleptanalgesic protocols on degree of muscle relaxation in dogs.

Time Groups	Zero	5m	10m	15m	20m	25m	30m	35m	40m	45m	50m	55m	60m
G1	NR	NR	NR	NR	LR	MR	DR	DR	DR	DR	DR	DR	MR
G2	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	MR	DR	DR	DR	DR	MR	LR
G3	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	MR	LR	LR	LR	LR

G1: Atropine, xylazine and Remifentanyl, G2: Atropine, midazolam and Remifentanyl, G3: Atropine, Acepromazine and Remifentanyl. NR=No relaxation, LR =Light relaxation, MR=Mild relaxation, DR=Deep relaxation.

Discussion

The concept of neuroleptanalgesia involves the combination of a neuroleptic agent (Alpha 2 adrenoceptor agonist, benzodiazepines, or phenothiazines) with a potent opioid, when combined a state of "neuroleptic-analgesia" may be produced in which the patient lies at rest and is completely passive. When sedatives of any of the three major groups are combined with opioids, the sedative effect is synergistic. The degree of sedation, as judged by lack of response to stimulation, being greater than the additive effect (15). The result of sedation in two groups (xylazine and midazolam groups) was seen deep. Benzodiazepines cause retrograde amnesia when used on their own, but can be act as depressant in various combinations. Alpha 2 agonist and opioid combination shows

marked synergism, it is possible to obtain all degrees of sedation and, in some cases, anesthesia with such combinations. Alpha 2 adrenoceptor effects are numerous positive effects are sedation and analgesia (16). In acepromazine group the sedation was mild. Phenothiazines calm the animal and in some individuals may make them sleepy, but however higher dose causes hypnosis and deep sedation achieved when combined with opioids, the sedative effect of opioids is synergistic the degree of calamines of phenothiazine lead to lack of response to stimulation, being greater than alone effect. (17). The heart rate was seen elevated during the time of observation till the end of experiment. The anticholinergic have been used to prevent bradycardia caused by administration of different sedatives in dogs.

Atropine inhibits the action of acetylcholine on the muscarinic cholinergic receptors and would be a drug of choice when severe bradycardia is presented secondary to increased vagal tone (18, 19). Administration of the acepromazine or xylazine combination with other sedative or narcotic analgesic at very high doses resulted in a slight, insignificant increase in heart rate in dogs premedicated with atropine (20). The combined effects of atropine and acepromazine increases in heart rate may be observed in some animals following IV administration of acepromazine in response to peripheral vasodilation (21, 22). The effects such combinations on cardiovascular system are very variable depending on the species, drug, route of administration, and type of preparation. All drugs of the neuroleptic-analgesic cause centrally-mediated cardiovascular effects causing inhibition of sympathetic tone to the heart, but the effects are completely different when such drugs are used alone or as a part of anesthetic protocol (23). Tachycardia are observed following injection of neuroleptic-analgesia combination in this study may be attributed to premedication with Atropine sulfate which block transmission at parasympathetic postganglionic nerve endings and block the effects of impulses in the vagal nerves and prevents bradycardia associated with intravenous administration of the potent neuroleptic-analgesia (24). The respiratory rate was seen gradually decrease during the first ten minutes in all groups and show significant difference compared with control. The decreased respiratory rate may be attributable to sedation and reduced anxiety. In remifentanyl group, the depression more clear may be due the depression effect of this drug (25, 26). The most prominent effect on respiration was seen attributed to the opioid constituent. Generally opioid (naturally and synthetic) causes respiratory depression by inhibition of the brain-stem respiratory center. Sedation with alpha 2-agonist result in a reduction in respiratory rate for varying periods. Respiratory depression occur secondary to the C.N.S depression produced by alpha 2-adrenoreceptor stimulation; however the

degree of depression with alpha 2-agonists alone is less than that with other sedative (27). In all animals of the three groups there was gradual decrease in body temperature. The administration of sedatives and tranquilizers generally depress the basal metabolic rate and induce muscle relaxation, resulting in lowered body temperature (22). Phenothiazines cause peripheral vasodilation, which may exaggerate hypothermia (5). Hypothermia may be much more profound in smaller patients due to their larger body surface area to body mass ratio. The hypothalamic thermoregulatory center is also affected by phenothiazine administration, leading to the loss of thermoregulatory control. The hypothermic effects of α_2 -agonists are mediated by activation of the α_2 C receptor subtype (22). However, α_2 -agonists may reduce cutaneous heat losses by peripheral vasoconstriction and central redistribution of blood, resulting in preservation of body temperature. Deep analgesia was gained from 30 to 55 minutes in G1, from 35 to 50 minutes in G2, and from 45 to 55 minutes in G3. The analgesic effect of our combination was mediated through alpha 2-agonists drugs. Xylazine is a potent analgesic for certain types of pain. Analgesic activity are related to CNS depression mediated by stimulation of central presynaptic α_2 adrenoceptors, resulting in inhibition of norepinephrine release from adrenergic nerve terminals (28, 29). Xylazine combined with an anesthetic drugs result in a synergistic effect, extending both the duration and potency of the total analgesic effect (30). Opioids dampen peripheral and central afferent nociceptive receptors. It produce analgesia by binding to either mu, K or sigma receptors located within the CNS, either spinally or supraspinally, although many suggestions that opioid analgesia can be brought about by activation of opioid receptors located peripherally in inflamed tissues has gained more acceptance (31). All opioid drugs displaying agonist activity at mu receptors are analgesics. Acepromazine group in the present study give the least time of analgesia. Acepromazine is the most common phenothiazine used in small animals this drug generally provides excellent

sedation but provides no analgesia on its own. However, acepromazine can enhance the effects of analgesic drugs when co-administered. The degree of muscle relaxation started early in two groups after the animals premedicated with xylazine in G1 and midazolam in G2 which reached to the optimum degree extending to 60 minutes. Generally muscle relaxation produce by benzodiazepines is probably mostly central in origin although some of this action is also attributable to direct activity at the postsynaptic neuromuscular junction and cause depression of musculoskeletal reflexes (32). The muscle-relaxant effect of xylazine is by the inhibition at the alpha 2-adrenoreceptor at the interneuron of the spinal cord and inhibition of intranural transmission of impulses to the CNS (5). The palpebral and corneal reflexes were never

abolished completely in the three neuroleptanalgesic protocols, it become nearly sluggish at time 35 minute in G1. The palpebral and corneal reflexes were difficult to suppress these reflexes may be consistently abolished only immediately before fatal respiratory arrest (15). The pupil size reflex was found contracted in all neuroleptanalgesic groups this may be due to the presence of opioid substitute in the combination of mixtures. Miosis is often considered an effect of opioid administration during anesthesia (33, 34) Remifentanyl induce miosis and impairment of extra ocular muscle control (35). Mydriasis is commonly observed after xylazine administration, this effect is caused by central inhibition of parasympathetic tone to the iris and/or direct sympathetic stimulation of alpha-2 adrenoceptors located in iris and CNS (30).

References

- 1-Vennila R, Hall A, Ali M, Bhuiyan N, Pirota D, Raw DA (2011) Remifentanil as single agent to facilitate awake fibreoptic intubation in the absence of premedication. *Anaesthesia*, 66(5): 368-72.
- 2-Rai MR, Parry TM, Dombrovskis A, Warner OJ (2008) Remifentanil target-controlled infusion vs propofol target-controlled infusion for conscious sedation for awake fibreoptic intubation: a double-blinded randomized controlled trial. *Br J Anaesth*. 100(1):125-30.
- 3-Komatsu R, Turan AM, Orhan-Sungur M, McGuire J, Radke OC, Apfel CC (2007) Remifentanil for general anaesthesia: a systematic review. *Anaesthesia*. 62(12):1266-80
- 4-Beers R, Camporesi E (2004) Remifentanil update: clinical science and utility. *CNS Drugs*, 18(15):1085-104
- 5-Paddleford RR, Harvey RC (1999) Alpha 2 agonists and antagonists. *Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract*. 29(3):737-45
- 6-Gross ME (2001) Tranquilizers, alpha-2-adrenergic agonists, and related agents. In *Veterinary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*. (Adams H R, ed.), 8th ed., pp. 299-343. Iowa State University Press, Ames, IA.
- 7-Sinclair MD (2003) A review of the physiological effects of alpha2-agonists related to the clinical use of medetomidine in small animal practice. *Can Vet J*. 44(11):885-97.
- 8-Valverde A, Cantwell S, Hernandez J, Brotherson C (2004) Effects of acepromazine on the incidence of vomiting associated with opioid administration in dogs. *Vet Anaesth Analg* 31, 40-45.
- 9-Thurmon JC, Tranquilli WJ, Benson G J (1999) *Essential of Small Animal Anesthesia and Analgesia*. 1st ed. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins. PP: 129-153.
- 10-Nordt SP, Clark RF (1997) Midazolam: a review of therapeutic uses and toxicity. *The Journal of emergency medicine*, 15(3): 357-365
- 11-Olkola K T, Ahonen J (2008) Midazolam and Other Benzodiazepines. *Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology*. 182:335-360.
- 12-Heavner JECD (2008) *Pharmacology of Analgesics*. In: Fish RE, Danneman PJ, Karas AZ, editors. *Anesthesia and analgesia in laboratory animals*. San Diego (CA):Academic Press. p 97-123.
- 13-Quandt J (2013) Analgesia, anesthesia, and chemical restraint in the emergent small animal patient. *Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract*. 43(4):941-953.
- 14-Snedecor G W, Cochran W G (1989) *Statistical Methods*, 8th Edition, Iowa State University Press. Ames, Iowa.
- 15-Hall LW, Clarke KW, Trim CM (2001) Principles of sedation, analgesia and premedication. In: *Veterinary Anaesthesia*, 10th ed., W.B. Saunders, Harcourt Publishers Limited London, Pp: 75-112.
- 16-Murrell JC, Hellebrekers LJ (2005) Medetomidine and dexmedetomidine: a review of cardiovascular effects and antinociceptive properties in the dog. *Vet Anaesth Analg*. 32(3): 117-27.
- 17-Brodbelt D (2009) Perioperative mortality in small animal anesthesia. *Vet J*. 182(2):152-61
- 18-Short C E (1991) Effects of anticholinergic treatment on the cardiac and respiratory systems in dogs sedated with medetomidine. *Vet. Rec*. 129: 310-313.
- 19-Ko JC, Fox S M, Mandsager R E (2001) Effects of preemptive atropine administration on incidence of

- medetomidine-induced bradycardia in dogs. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* 218: 52-58.
- 20-Cronin M F, Booth N H, Hatch R C, Brown J (1983) Acepromazine-xylazine combination in dogs: antagonism with 4-amino pyridine and yohimbine. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* 44: 2037-2042.
- 21-Alvaides RK, Neto FJ, Aguiar AJ, Campagnol D, Steagall PV (2008) Sedative and cardiorespiratory effects of acepromazine or atropine given before dexmedetomidine in dogs. *Vet Rec.* 2008 Jun 28;162(26):852-856.
- 22-Lemke K A (2007) Anticholinergics and sedatives. In: Lumb and Jones Veterinary Anesthesia and Analgesia, 4th ed. (Tranquilli W. J., J. C. Thurmon, K. A. Grimm, Eds.). Blackwell Publishing, Iowa, USA, pp. 203-239.
- 23-Haskins SC (2006) Comparative cardiovascular and pulmonary effects of sedatives and anesthetic agents and anesthetic drug selection for the trauma patient. *J Vet Emerg Crit Care.* 16(4):300-328.
- 24-Heavner J E (2001) Anesthesia update: Agents, definitions, and strategies. *Comp Med.* 51(6):500-503.
- 25-Haskins S C, Patz J D, Farver T B (1986) Xylazine and xylazine-ketamine in dogs. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* 47:636-641.
- 26-Stepien R L, Bonagura J D, Bednarski R M, Muir W W (1995) Cardiorespiratory effects of acepromazine maleate and uprenorphine hydrochloride in clinically normal dogs. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* 56:78-84.
- 27-Lammintausta R (1991) The alpha-2 adrenergic drugs in veterinary anesthesia. *Inter. Congress. Vet. Anaes. Utrecht, Netherlands, Aug. 4th.*
- 28-Kul M, Koc Y, Alkand F, Ogurtan Z (2000) The effects of xylazine ketamine and diazepam-ketamine on arterial blood pressure and blood gases in dogs. *Journal of Veterinary Research.* 4: 123-132.
- 29-Kastner S B R, Seymour C, Vakovski D T (2007) Intravenous anesthesia in BSAVA Manual of Canine and Feline Anesthesia and Analgesia. British Small Animal Veterinary Association, Gloucester. 133 – 149.
- 30-Moens Y, Fargetton X (1990) A comparative study of medetomidine/ketamine and xylazine/ketamine anaesthesia in dogs. *Vet Rec.* 127(23):567-71.
- 31-Stein C (1993) Peripheral mechanisms of opioid analgesia. *Anesthesia and Analgesia* 6: 182-191.
- 32-Lakoski J M, Murray W B, Kenny J M (2000) The Advantages and Limitations of Calmatives for Use as a Non-Lethal Technique. Applied Research Laboratory, www.mindfully.org.
- 33-Weinhold L L, Bigelow G E (1993) Opioid miosis: effect of lighting intensity and monocular and binocular exposure. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 31 (2): 177-81.
- 34-Larson M D (2003) The effect of antiemetics on pupillary reflex dilation during epidural / general anesthesia. *Anesth. Analg.* 97 (6): 1652-1656.
- 35-Zacny JP, Lichtor JL, Zaragoza JG, de Wit H (1992) Effects of fasting on responses to intravenous fentanyl in healthy volunteers. *J Subst Abuse.* 4(2):197-207.