

Painless Dentistry: Contemporary Concepts and Emerging Approaches to Dental Pain Management

Artham Meghana¹, Jayaprada Reddy Surakanti²,
Jaya Nagendra Krishna Muppala³, Sreenidhi Madhadi⁴
Susmitha Alapati⁵

^{1,2,3,4,5}Department Of Conservative Dentistry And Endodontics, Kamineni Institute Of Dental Sciences,
Narketpally, Nalgonda, Telangana, India

ABSTRACT

Dental pain is a major cause of fear, anxiety, and avoidance of dental treatment. Pain perception is influenced by a complex interplay of biological, psychological, and behavioral factors. This review summarizes the mechanisms and theories of dental pain, factors influencing pain perception, local anaesthesia, pharmacological pain management, and emerging techniques for painless dentistry. Dental pain is primarily mediated by A δ and C fibers through the trigeminal system and involves the processes of transduction, transmission, modulation, and perception. Effective local anaesthesia remains the cornerstone of dental pain control, although supplementary techniques may be required in challenging clinical situations. Pharmacological agents, particularly non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and acetaminophen, are commonly used for postoperative pain management. Emerging approaches, including computer-controlled local anaesthesia delivery, vibrotactile stimulation, hypnosis, acupuncture, cryotherapy, and laser-based analgesia, may further enhance patient comfort and reduce procedural discomfort. Painless dentistry requires a patient-centered, multimodal approach combining effective anaesthesia, anxiety reduction, appropriate analgesic therapy, minimally invasive techniques, and emerging technologies to improve patient comfort, cooperation, and acceptance of dental treatment.

Keywords: Dental pain; Painless dentistry; Local anaesthesia; Analgesia; Pain management; Nociception.

INTRODUCTION

Pain is one of the most frequently encountered symptoms in dental practice and remains a major concern for both patients and clinicians.¹ It is traditionally considered a protective mechanism because it alerts the individual to actual or potential tissue injury. However, pain is not simply a direct reflection of the degree of tissue damage. Individuals exposed to similar stimuli may report substantially different levels of pain because perception is influenced by biological, psychological, and environmental factors.¹

The subjective nature of pain makes its assessment particularly challenging. A patient's previous dental experiences, expectations, anxiety, fear, attention, and emotional state can influence the perception and expression of pain.¹ Therefore, effective dental pain management requires an understanding of both the physiological mechanisms responsible for nociception and the factors that modify the patient's experience.

The history of dental treatment has been closely associated with the fear of pain, particularly pain related to injections and surgical procedures. The development of local anesthesia revolutionized dental practice by allowing painful procedures to be performed with substantially greater patient comfort.²

Despite these advances, complete elimination of dental pain remains challenging in certain clinical situations. Inadequate anesthesia, particularly in patients with symptomatic pulpitis, can result in pain during treatment and may negatively influence future dental attendance.³ Consequently, contemporary painless dentistry encompasses not only local anesthesia but also pharmacological, psychological, behavioral, technological, and minimally invasive approaches. Pain is a complex sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage.⁴

NEUROPHYSIOLOGY OF DENTAL PAIN

Dental tissues are richly innervated by branches of the trigeminal nerve. The dental pulp contains sensory nerve fibers that respond to mechanical, thermal, chemical, and inflammatory stimuli.⁵

Two major types of nociceptive fibers contribute to dental pain:

A δ fibers

A δ fibers are thinly myelinated and conduct impulses relatively rapidly. Their stimulation is generally associated with sharp, relatively well-localized pain.

C fibers

C fibers are unmyelinated and conduct impulses more slowly. Their activation produces a dull, aching, poorly localized pain and is particularly important in inflammatory pulpal conditions.⁶

Inflammation can lower the activation threshold of nociceptors, producing increased sensitivity to stimuli. Continued peripheral stimulation may subsequently contribute to central sensitization, thereby increasing the responsiveness of central neurons to nociceptive input.

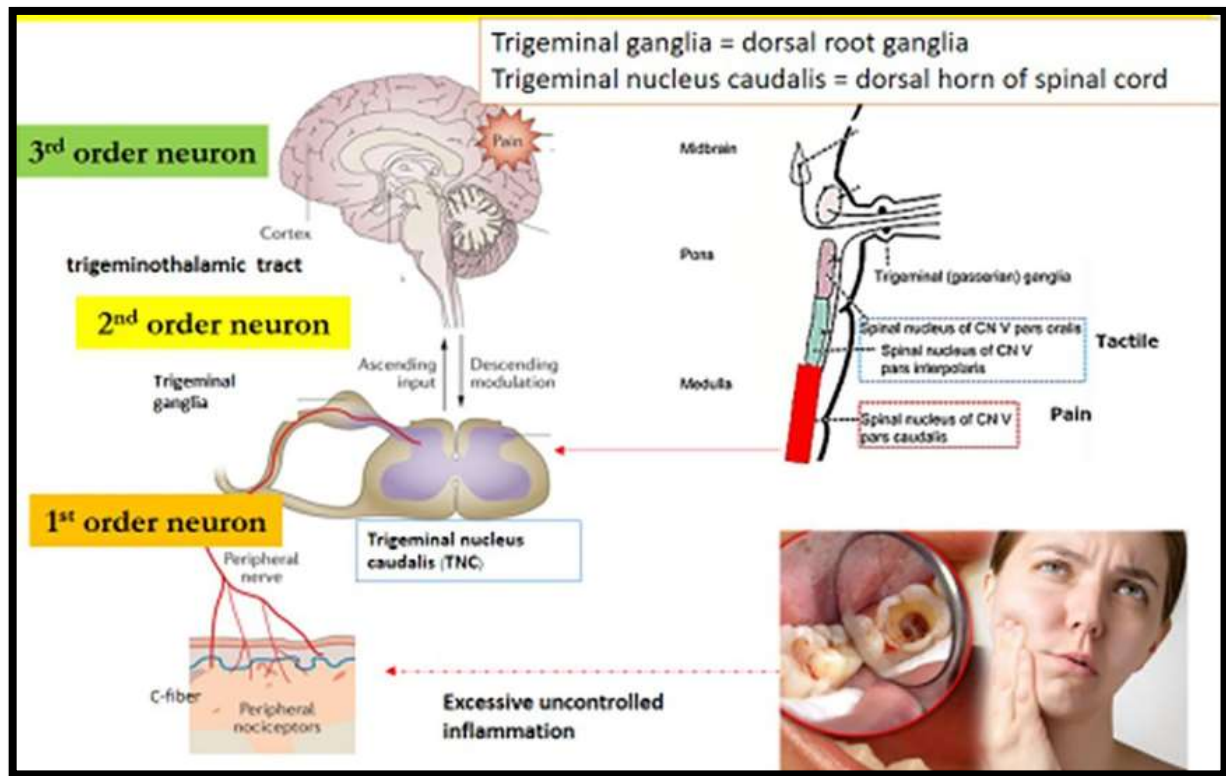
TRIGEMINAL TRANSMISSION OF DENTAL PAIN

Pain arising from teeth and supporting tissues is primarily transmitted through the trigeminal nervous system. Primary sensory neurons have their cell bodies within the trigeminal ganglion and transmit information toward the brainstem trigeminal sensory nuclei.⁷

The trigeminal spinal nucleus, particularly its caudal portion, has an important role in processing nociceptive information arising from oral and facial structures. From the brainstem, second-order neurons transmit information to higher centers including the thalamus and cortical regions involved in sensory discrimination and emotional responses to pain.

This complex pathway explains why dental pain may have both a distinct sensory component and a substantial emotional component.

Figure -1 overview oro facial pain physiology



5. THEORIES OF PAIN

5.1 Specificity Theory

The specificity theory proposes that pain is transmitted through specialized receptors and dedicated neural pathways. This theory contributed substantially to the understanding of nociceptive transmission but cannot fully explain variations in pain perception between individuals.

5.2 Intensity Theory

The intensity theory suggests that pain results when stimulation reaches a sufficiently high intensity. However, the theory cannot completely explain why similar stimuli may produce different pain experiences.

5.3 Pattern Theory

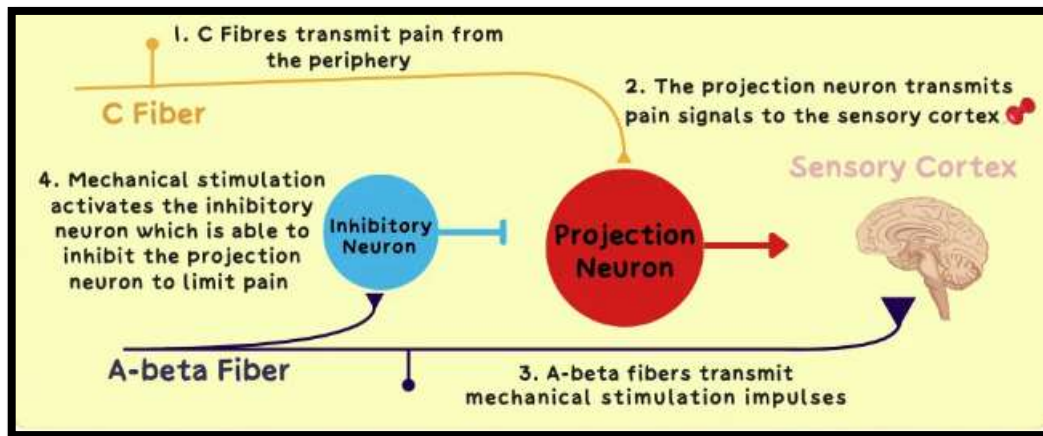
Pattern theory emphasizes the temporal and spatial pattern of neural activity rather than the existence of a completely separate pain pathway.

5.4 Gate Control Theory

The gate control theory proposed by Melzack and Wall represented an important change in the understanding of pain.⁸ According to this theory, nociceptive transmission can be modified by non-noxious sensory stimulation.

The theory provides a physiological basis for techniques involving vibration, pressure, tactile stimulation, and distraction. Activation of non-nociceptive sensory fibers may reduce the transmission or perception of nociceptive information.

Figure -2 gate control theory of pain



5.5 Neuromatrix Theory

The neuromatrix concept further emphasized that pain is produced by patterns of neural activity within a distributed network rather than being a simple representation of tissue injury.⁹ Cognitive processes, emotional state, previous experiences, and sensory input can all influence the final pain experience.

PSYCHOLOGICAL MODULATION OF DENTAL PAIN

Psychological factors have a significant influence on dental pain. Anxiety and fear may increase the patient's expectation of pain and amplify the subjective experience of otherwise similar stimuli.¹⁰

Previous painful dental experiences may create anticipatory anxiety before subsequent treatment. Conversely, appropriate communication, reassurance, distraction, relaxation, and positive expectations can contribute to improved pain tolerance.

This relationship between anxiety and pain is particularly important in pediatric dentistry, where early painful or frightening dental experiences may influence the child's attitude toward future dental treatment.

LOCAL ANESTHESIA AND PAINLESS DENTISTRY

Local anesthesia remains the foundation of intraoperative pain control in dentistry.¹¹ The objective is to temporarily interrupt nerve conduction in the region of treatment while maintaining patient consciousness and normal physiological function.

The effectiveness of local anesthesia depends on several factors, including:

- Choice of anesthetic;
- Concentration and volume;
- Anatomical knowledge;
- Injection technique;
- Tissue condition;
- Presence of inflammation;
- Duration required for treatment; and
- Patient anxiety.

An ideal local anesthetic should provide profound and reversible anesthesia, have a predictable onset and duration, and produce minimal local and systemic adverse effects.

LOCAL ANESTHETIC AGENTS¹²

Lidocaine

Lidocaine remains one of the most widely used local anesthetic agents in dentistry because of its predictable efficacy and safety profile.

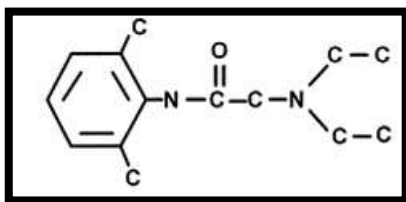


Figure -3 lidocaine

Articaine

Articaine is an amide local anesthetic containing an additional ester group and is characterized by relatively rapid onset and plasma metabolism. Comparative studies have investigated its anesthetic efficacy against lidocaine in various dental procedures.¹³

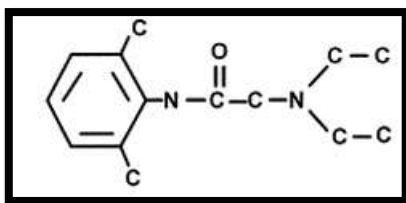


FIGURE-4 ARTICAIN

Mepivacaine

Mepivacaine possesses relatively low vasodilating properties and may therefore be useful in situations where a vasoconstrictor is undesirable.

Prilocaine

Prilocaine is an amide local anesthetic with relatively low systemic toxicity, although excessive doses can increase the risk of methemoglobinemia.

Bupivacaine

Bupivacaine is a long-acting local anesthetic that may be useful when prolonged anesthesia and postoperative analgesia are desirable.

PRINCIPLES OF PAINLESS INJECTION

The injection itself is often one of the most feared components of dental treatment. Proper injection technique can substantially reduce discomfort.

Important principles include:

1. Explain the procedure to the patient.
2. Use appropriate topical anesthesia when indicated.
3. Use an appropriate needle.
4. Maintain accurate anatomical positioning.
5. Aspirate before deposition.
6. Deposit the solution slowly.
7. Avoid excessive tissue pressure.

8. Allow sufficient time for anesthetic action.

Slow deposition of anesthetic is particularly important because rapid injection increases tissue pressure and may cause pain.¹⁴

The patient's psychological preparation should also be considered. Sudden or unexpected needle insertion may increase anxiety and produce an exaggerated response.

FACTORS AFFECTING LOCAL ANESTHETIC SUCCESS

Local anesthetic failure can occur because of anatomical variations, improper technique, inadequate dosage, infection, inflammation, or psychological factors.¹⁵

Pulpal inflammation presents a particular challenge. Patients with irreversible pulpitis may experience inadequate pulpal anesthesia despite apparently successful soft-tissue anesthesia.

Inflammatory changes may alter tissue conditions and increase the excitability of nociceptive fibers. As a result, supplementary anesthetic techniques may be necessary.

SUPPLEMENTARY LOCAL ANESTHETIC TECHNIQUES

1. Periodontal Ligament Injection

Periodontal ligament injection is a supplementary technique in which a small volume of anesthetic is deposited under pressure into the periodontal ligament region.¹⁶ It may provide localized anesthesia when conventional infiltration or nerve block is inadequate.

2. Intraosseous Injection

Intraosseous anesthesia involves deposition of the anesthetic directly into cancellous bone adjacent to the target tooth. It may provide rapid and profound pulpal anesthesia when conventional techniques fail.

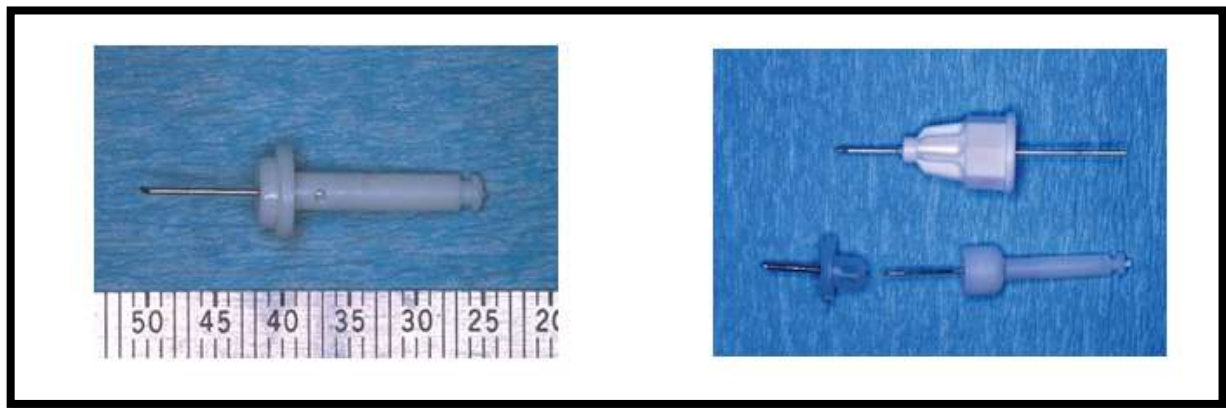


Figure 5: The Hypo intraosseous injection system has a 32-mm 30-gauge needle compatible with standard breech-loading syringes.

3. Intrapulpal Injection

Intrapulpal anesthesia involves direct administration of anesthetic into the pulp. It can provide profound anesthesia but may produce brief discomfort during administration and is therefore generally considered a supplementary technique.¹⁷

4. Intraseptal Injection

Intraseptal anesthesia involves deposition of a small volume of local anesthetic into the interdental septal region and can provide localized anesthesia for selected dental procedures.

COMPUTER-CONTROLLED LOCAL ANESTHETIC DELIVERY

Computer-controlled local anesthetic delivery systems regulate the rate of anesthetic deposition and were developed to provide a slow and controlled injection.¹⁸

The system may allow the clinician to maintain a consistent flow rate and reduce variations associated with manual syringe delivery.

Such systems may be particularly useful for patients with significant injection anxiety. However, cost, equipment availability, and operator familiarity can influence their clinical application.

VIBROTACTILE ANALGESIA

Vibration has been proposed as a method of reducing injection discomfort through non-noxious sensory stimulation.¹⁹

Devices such as VibraJect and DentalVibe provide vibration near the injection site. The proposed mechanism is related to the gate-control concept, in which stimulation of non-nociceptive sensory fibers may interfere with nociceptive transmission.

Clinical results have not been completely uniform, and effectiveness may vary depending on the injection site, patient age, anxiety level, and technique.



Figure -6 Vibraject painless injection system attachment, which uses high-frequency vibration to block pain signals during local dental anesthesia



Figure -7 DentalVibe Painless Injection Device, a cordless, handheld tool designed to reduce discomfort and anxiety during dental injections using gentle vibration technology

PHARMACOLOGICAL MANAGEMENT OF DENTAL PAIN

Pharmacological management is an important component of dental pain control, particularly after procedures. Non-opioid analgesics are generally preferred for acute dental pain.

NSAIDs reduce prostaglandin synthesis by inhibiting cyclooxygenase pathways and are therefore particularly useful when inflammation contributes to pain.²⁰

Acetaminophen provides analgesic and antipyretic effects and can be used for mild-to-moderate dental pain.²¹

The choice of analgesic should consider the severity and expected duration of pain, medical history, contraindications, and concurrent medications.

ENDODONTIC PAIN MANAGEMENT

Endodontic pain may arise from pulpal inflammation, periapical inflammation, microbial infection, mechanical irritation, or postoperative inflammatory responses.²²

The primary principle of endodontic pain management is elimination of the underlying cause. Pharmacological analgesia should therefore complement, rather than replace, definitive dental treatment. Appropriate diagnosis, adequate local anesthesia, careful instrumentation, effective irrigation, and prevention of extrusion of infected or irritating materials are important components of pain prevention. Microbial factors have also been implicated in endodontic flare-ups and postoperative pain.²³

POSTOPERATIVE DENTAL PAIN

Postoperative pain is influenced by the type and extent of dental procedure, preoperative inflammation, tissue trauma, and individual patient characteristics.

The use of appropriate analgesics before the onset of severe postoperative pain may provide more effective control than delayed administration after pain becomes intense.²⁴

A multimodal approach combining appropriate dental treatment with pharmacological and non-pharmacological methods may provide effective pain control.

ACUPUNCTURE

Acupuncture has been investigated as an adjunctive method for pain control in dentistry.²⁵

The proposed mechanism involves stimulation of sensory nerve fibers and activation of endogenous analgesic pathways, including opioid-mediated mechanisms.

Although acupuncture may provide analgesic effects in selected patients, its effectiveness is variable and additional clinical evidence is required to define its role in routine dental practice.

OTHER PHARMACOLOGICAL AND ANALGESIC STRATEGIES

Contemporary approaches to dental pain management increasingly emphasize mechanism-based treatment.²⁶

The clinician should distinguish between pain caused by inflammation, infection, tissue trauma, or persistent pathological stimulation. Appropriate treatment of the underlying cause is essential for long-term pain control.

Analgesic therapy should therefore be individualized rather than based solely on a standardized medication regimen.

MANAGEMENT OF ACUTE DENTAL PAIN

Acute dental pain should be assessed according to severity, duration, etiology, and associated clinical findings.²⁷

The treatment plan should identify and eliminate the source of pain whenever possible. Analgesics should be selected according to the patient's age, systemic health, medication history, and contraindications.

In pediatric patients, dose selection must be based on appropriate weight- and age-related considerations.

PAIN CONTROL IN CHILDREN

Pain management is particularly important in children because painful dental experiences may contribute to dental fear and avoidance of future treatment.²⁸

A child-centered approach should include:

- appropriate communication;
- behavior guidance;
- distraction;
- topical anesthesia;
- atraumatic injection;
- slow administration of local anesthetic;
- adequate postoperative analgesia; and
- appropriate sedation or advanced behavior-management techniques when indicated.

The goal should be not only to control pain during a single procedure but also to establish a positive dental attitude.

DRUGS FOR PAIN MANAGEMENT IN DENTISTRY

Analgesics used in dentistry include acetaminophen, NSAIDs, and selected opioid-containing preparations.²⁹

NSAIDs are particularly useful when inflammation is a major component of the pain mechanism. Acetaminophen can provide effective analgesia without the same degree of peripheral anti-inflammatory activity.

The risk-benefit profile of each medication should be considered before prescribing.

ENDODONTIC PAIN: CLINICAL STRATEGIES

Effective endodontic pain management requires recognition of the cause and appropriate treatment planning.³⁰

Preoperative pain, pulpal diagnosis, periapical status, and patient anxiety should all be considered.

Adequate anesthesia should be confirmed before instrumentation. When conventional anesthesia fails, supplementary techniques should be used rather than proceeding while the patient is experiencing pain.

PREVENTION AND MANAGEMENT OF ENDODONTIC PAIN

Pain following endodontic treatment may occur because of inflammatory responses to instrumentation, extrusion of debris, persistent infection, overinstrumentation, occlusal factors, or other procedural complications.³¹

Prevention therefore requires careful working-length determination, controlled instrumentation, effective irrigation, and avoidance of unnecessary tissue irritation.

When postoperative pain occurs, appropriate diagnosis is necessary before additional treatment is undertaken.

ROLE OF ANTI-INFLAMMATORY THERAPY

Inflammation is a major contributor to dental pain, particularly in endodontic and surgical conditions. Corticosteroids have therefore been investigated as an adjunctive approach for reducing inflammatory responses associated with dental treatment.³²

Their use should be based on appropriate clinical indications, consideration of contraindications, and an understanding that they do not replace definitive treatment of the underlying cause.

HYPNOSIS

Hypnosis has been investigated as a method for controlling dental anxiety and modifying pain perception.³³

The technique may help patients alter attention toward the painful stimulus and reduce apprehension before treatment. Studies described in the source material suggest that hypnotherapy before dental surgery may reduce anxiety and potentially decrease postoperative analgesic requirements.

Its effectiveness may vary between individuals, and further investigation is required to establish its role in endodontic practice.

PAINLESS ANESTHESIA: NEWER APPROACHES

Several newer approaches have been developed to reduce discomfort associated with local anesthetic administration. These include computer-controlled injection systems, vibrotactile devices, alternative injection techniques, and electronic methods of analgesia.

The objective of these technologies is not necessarily to replace conventional local anesthesia but to improve its administration and reduce patient anxiety.

A review of newer painless anesthesia approaches emphasizes the importance of reducing the psychological and physical discomfort associated with injections.³⁴

PEDIATRIC PAIN AND ANXIETY MANAGEMENT

Children require special consideration because pain and anxiety are closely interconnected. Recent literature emphasizes combining behavioral, pharmacological, and technological methods to improve pain and anxiety control in pediatric patients.³⁵

The approach should be individualized according to age, developmental level, previous dental experiences, anxiety level, treatment complexity, and parental expectations.

PAIN CONTROL IN CONSERVATIVE DENTISTRY AND ENDODONTICS

Pain control in conservative dentistry and endodontics involves a combination of local anesthesia, appropriate operative technique, analgesic medication, and management of anxiety.³⁶

The objective should be to prevent pain whenever possible rather than simply treating it after it develops. Contemporary strategies therefore emphasize accurate diagnosis, effective anesthetic techniques, minimally traumatic treatment, and appropriate postoperative care.

ARTICAINE AND LIDOCAINE

Articaine and lidocaine are among the commonly used amide local anesthetics in dentistry. A review comparing the two agents notes that lidocaine has historically been widely used, whereas articaine was developed as an alternative with distinctive pharmacological characteristics.³⁷

Articaine contains an ester group in addition to its amide structure and undergoes substantial plasma metabolism. Comparative research has evaluated the anesthetic efficacy of articaine and lidocaine in different clinical situations.

The choice between agents should therefore be based on the clinical indication, patient characteristics, required duration of anesthesia, and clinician experience rather than assuming universal superiority of one agent. The source article specifically reviews articaine and lidocaine as alternative dental local anesthetics.

RECENT MODALITIES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Recent approaches to painless dentistry include computer-controlled local anesthetic delivery, cryotherapy, intrapulpal and supplementary anesthesia, laser analgesia, and improved techniques for painless injection.³⁸

These developments reflect an increasing emphasis on minimizing both the physical and psychological components of dental pain.

CRYOTHERAPY

Cryotherapy has emerged as a potential approach for reducing postoperative endodontic pain and inflammation. The technique involves application of cold to reduce tissue temperature and potentially influence local blood flow, neural activity, and cellular metabolism.

The source describes the use of cold saline as a final irrigation protocol and reports a reduction in external root-surface temperature that persisted for several minutes.

Although promising, further clinical research is needed to standardize temperature, application time, volume, and delivery method.

LOW-LEVEL LASER THERAPY

Low-level laser therapy has emerged as a non-invasive approach for pain and inflammation control. Unlike high-powered lasers used for cutting and ablation, low-level laser therapy uses lower energy levels to produce photobiomodulatory effects without significant tissue destruction. The proposed biological effects include stimulation of cellular activity, alteration of metabolic processes, reduction of inflammation, and modulation of pain. In dentistry, low-level laser therapy has been investigated for several conditions, including temporomandibular disorders, oral lesions, postoperative pain, and tissue healing.

LASER ANALGESIA

Laser analgesia has also been investigated as a non-invasive method for reducing painful sensations during dental procedures. The source describes several proposed mechanisms, including effects on nociceptors, neural conduction, ion pumps, and gate-control pathways.

Erbium lasers have additionally been investigated for hard-tissue preparation, with the potential advantage of reducing discomfort and the requirement for local anesthesia in selected procedures.



Figure -8 Low-level laser therapy with biostimulation probe at the test site

AUDIO ANALGESIA AND DISTRACTION

Audio analgesia is based on the principle that stimulation of an alternative sensory pathway may reduce the perception of pain. Patients may listen to music or other sounds through headphones during treatment. The technique is particularly relevant to anxious patients because it can provide distraction and reduce attention directed toward dental sounds and procedures.

COLD-AIR ANESTHESIA

Cold-air anesthesia is based on the principle that sufficiently low temperatures can interfere with nerve conduction and thereby reduce pain perception. The source describes systems designed to cool the tooth surface substantially before treatment.

However, the technique requires isolation and continuous application, and concerns regarding tissue injury limit its routine application.

VIRTUAL REALITY AND DISTRACTION

Virtual reality provides an immersive three-dimensional environment that can be used as a distraction technique during dental treatment. The source describes virtual reality as a method capable of reducing discomfort and anxiety while improving patient cooperation.

This approach may be particularly useful in pediatric dentistry, where distraction can redirect attention away from potentially anxiety-provoking dental procedures.



Figure -9 Virtual reality

PERSONALIZED PAIN MANAGEMENT

The future of painless dentistry is increasingly directed toward individualized treatment. Patients differ in their pain sensitivity, psychological state, previous experiences, expectations, and response to anesthetic and analgesic interventions.

Psychological techniques such as cognitive behavioral therapy and mindfulness may be integrated with pharmacological and technological methods to reduce anxiety and improve pain perception.

Personalized pain management therefore represents a logical progression from a one-size-fits-all approach toward treatment based on the individual patient's biological and psychological characteristics.

CONCLUSION

Painless dentistry has evolved from the traditional concept of administering local anesthesia toward a broader, patient-centered approach to pain prevention and management.

Dental pain is a multidimensional phenomenon involving peripheral nociception, trigeminal transmission, central modulation, psychological influences, and previous experience. Local anesthesia remains the foundation of intraoperative pain control, but its effectiveness depends on appropriate agent selection, anatomical knowledge, injection technique, and adequate management of inflammation.

When conventional anesthesia is inadequate, supplementary techniques such as periodontal ligament, intraosseous, intraseptal, and intrapulpal anesthesia can be considered. Pharmacological agents remain important for postoperative pain, while psychological approaches can reduce anxiety and modify pain perception.

Emerging technologies—including computer-controlled anesthetic delivery, vibrotactile stimulation, electronic anesthesia, cryotherapy, laser therapy, audio analgesia, and virtual reality—provide additional opportunities to improve patient comfort. However, the evidence supporting newer approaches varies, and their indications should be considered carefully.

Ultimately, successful painless dentistry requires **accurate diagnosis, effective anesthesia, atraumatic treatment, appropriate analgesia, psychological support, and individualized patient care**. The goal should be not merely to eliminate pain during a single dental procedure but to create a positive dental experience that promotes cooperation, treatment acceptance, and long-term oral-health behavior.

REFERENCES

1. Bennett CR. *Monheim's Local Anesthesia and Pain Control in Dental Practice*. 5th ed. Philadelphia: CV Mosby; 1990.
2. Malamed SF. *Handbook of Local Anesthesia*. 5th ed. St Louis: Mosby; 2004.
3. Cohen S, Burns RC. *Pathways of the Pulp*. 9th ed. St Louis: Mosby; 2006.
4. Ingle JI, Bakland LK. *Endodontics*. 5th ed. Hamilton: BC Decker Inc; 2002.
5. Weine FS. *Endodontic Therapy*. 6th ed. St Louis: Mosby; 2004.
6. Grossman LI, Oliet S, Del Rio CE. *Endodontic Practice*. 11th ed. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1988.
7. Pitt Ford TR, Torabinejad M, Walton RE. *Harty's Endodontics in Clinical Practice*. 5th ed. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 2002.
8. Seltzer S, Bender IB. *The Dental Pulp*. 3rd ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott; 1990.
9. Dental Pain. *Dent Clin North Am*. 1987;31(4):xi-xii.
10. Tripathi KD. *Essentials of Medical Pharmacology*. 5th ed. New Delhi: Jaypee Brothers; 2003.
11. Howe GL, Ivor FH. *Local Anesthesia in Dentistry*. Bristol: Wright; 1987.

12. Saxen MA, Nusstein J, Reader A, Drum M, Beck M. Anesthesia for endodontic practice. *Dent Clin North Am.* 1999;43(2):247-260.
13. Ali GS, Mulay S. Articaine vs lidocaine: a review. *IOSR J Dent Med Sci.* 2014;13(9):40-44. doi:10.9790/0853-13954044.
14. Siqueira JF Jr, Rôças IN, Favieri A, Machado AG, Gahyva SM, Oliveira JC, et al. Microbial causes of endodontic flare-ups. *Int Endod J.* 2003;36(7):453-463.
15. Wilson RS, John L, Roberts D. Wand versus traditional injections: a comparison of pain related behaviors. *J Dent Child.* 2000;67(6):381-384.
16. Hochman MN, Friedman MJ. Interstitial tissue pressures associated with dental injections. *Quintessence Int.* 2006;37(6):469-473.
17. Bender IB, Pasteris JD. Pulpal pain diagnosis. *J Endod.* 2000;26(3):175-178.
18. Oliet S. Commenting on pain in endodontics. *J Endod.* 2004;30(7):500-504.
19. Fukayama H, Yoshikawa F, Kohase H, Umino M. Efficacy of anterior and middle superior alveolar nerve anesthesia using a new injection system. *Quintessence Int.* 2003;34(7):537-540.
20. Moore PA, Hersh EV. Use of COX-2 inhibitors for acute dental pain. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 2006;137(4):480-487.
21. Meechan JG. Supplementary routes to local anaesthesia. *Int Endod J.* 2002;35(11):885-896.
22. Anaesthesia in the dental office. *Indian Dentist Res Rev.* 2006;5:45-48.
23. Endodontic pharmacology: role of anesthesia and analgesia in acute pain management. *Indian Dentist Res Rev.* 2006;7:33-39.
24. Haas DA. An update on analgesics for the management of acute postoperative dental pain. *J Can Dent Assoc.* 2002;68(8):476-482.
25. Rosted P. Introduction to acupuncture in dentistry. *Br Dent J.* 2000;189(3):136-140.
26. Hargreaves KM. Development of new pain management strategies. *J Dent Educ.* 2002;66(1):113-121.
27. Wetherell J. Management of acute dental pain: a practical approach for primary health care providers. *Aust Prescr.* 2001;24:144-148.
28. Management of oral and dental pain in children. *Pediatr Dent Health.* 2002 Nov 1.
29. Hargreaves KM, Abbott PV. Drugs for pain management in dentistry. *Aust Dent J.* 2005;50 Suppl 2:S14-S22.
30. Rosenberg PA. Clinical strategies for managing endodontic pain. *Endod Topics.* 2002;3:78-92.
31. Jariwala SP, Goel BR. Pain in endodontics: causes, prevention and management. *Endodontology.* 2001;13:63-66.
32. Marshall JG. Consideration of steroids for endodontic pain. *Endod Topics.* 2002;3:41-51.
33. Bell GW. Orofacial pain. *Br Dent J.* [Date not specified in source].
34. Singh N, Agarwal S, Bhagchandani J, Chandra P, Gaur A. Painless anesthesia: a new approach. *J Dentofacial Sci.* 2013;2(2):49-55.
35. Remi RV, Anantharaj A, Praveen P, Prathibha RS, Sudhir R. Advances in pediatric dentistry: new approaches to pain control and anxiety reduction in children: a narrative review. *J Dent Anesth Pain Med.* 2023;23(6):303.
36. Zehravi M, Maqbool M, Ara I. An update on pain control in conservative dentistry and endodontics: a review. *IJND.* 2022 Feb 25:114-125.
37. Pahade A, Bajaj P, Shirbhate U, John HA. Recent modalities in pain control and local anesthesia in dentistry: a narrative review. *Cureus.* 2023 Nov 7.

38. Suresh A, Naidu SN, Ingishetty V, Ravi R. Painless endodontics: emerging trends and technologies. 2025;7(1).