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Pre-hospital analgesia

Whilst awaiting transfer to secondary care it is good practice to manage pain effectively. There is well-documented evidence that we are reluctant to treat patients in this way.^[1] This may stem from:

- Concerns about patient honesty in evaluating the severity of pain.^[2]
- Concern that it may interfere with treatment necessary after admission.
- Not having appropriate treatments available.

Children are most often neglected, with significant disparities in perception of pain, and in frequency that analgesia is given.^[3] Documentation of assessment and treatment given is often sporadic.^[4] Non-pharmacological methods of analgesia particularly useful in trauma (such as empathy, ice-packs, elevation, immobilisation and splinting) should not be forgotten.

Recommendations vary regarding pre-hospital analgesia and it is important to follow local guidelines if available. This article provides a very brief overview. For further information, see Reference and Further Reading links to the British National Formulary (BNF), BNF for Children and pre-hospital management guidelines at the end of this article.

Immediate pain management in adult trauma

Pre-hospital care is a fast-developing subspeciality. The British Association for Immediate Care (BASIC) provides training for any who feel they could benefit.^[5] Virtually all patients complaining of moderate-to-severe pain are candidates for pain management.

Morphine is potent and should not be used indiscriminately. Entonox[®] is also available for moderate pain relief. This is contra-indicated in chest injury and head injury associated with reduced Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS).

For pain management in pre-hospital and hospital settings, the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) recommends:^[6]

- Assess pain regularly in patients with major trauma using a pain assessment scale suitable for the patient's age, developmental stage and cognitive function.
- For patients with major trauma, use intravenous morphine as the first-line analgesic and adjust the dose as needed to achieve adequate pain relief.
- If intravenous access has not been established, consider the intranasal route for atomised delivery of diamorphine or ketamine.
- Consider ketamine in analgesic doses as a second-line agent.

General points:

- Monitor patient observations closely.
- Have naloxone to hand, in case of respiratory depression.
- Use visual analogue scales to document the level of pain before and after treatment.
- Entonox can be used whilst waiting for morphine to take effect.

Contra-indications for morphine use^[7]

For all opioids:

- Acute respiratory depression.
- Comatose patients.
- Head injury (opioid analgesics interfere with pupillary responses vital for neurological assessment).
- Raised intracranial pressure (opioid analgesics interfere with pupillary responses vital for neurological assessment).

• Risk of paralytic ileus.

For morphine:

- Acute abdomen.
- Delayed gastric emptying.
- Heart failure secondary to chronic lung disease.
- Phaeochromocytoma.

Further reading

- Resuscitation Council (UK)
- British National Formulary for Children; NICE Evidence Services (UK access only)
- UK Ambulance Services Clinical Practice Guidelines 2021; Joint Royal Colleges Ambulance Liaison Committee Guideline Development Group (JRCALC-GDG).
- Lindbeck G, Shah MI, Braithwaite S, et al; Evidence-Based Guidelines for Prehospital Pain Management: Recommendations. Prehosp Emerg Care. 2023;27(2):144-153. doi: 10.1080/10903127.2021.2018073. Epub 2022 Jan 25.
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