

EMST Immediate Management

■ Priority Plan

1. primary survey
2. resuscitation phase
3. secondary survey
4. definitive treatment & re-evaluation
5. transfer if appropriate

■ Primary Survey

1. **Airway and Cervical spine**
 - assess for patency ± removal of foreign material, chin lift, jaw thrust
 - assume Cx spine injury in all patients with multisystem trauma
 - lateral Cx spine XRay **does not** exclude all cervical injuries
2. **Breathing**
 - exposure of the chest
 - high F_IO₂ > 0.85
 - three commonest traumatic causes of embarrassed ventilation,
 - i. tension pneumothorax
 - ii. open pneumothorax
 - iii. flail chest with pulmonary contusion
3. **Circulation**
 - i. blood-volume & CO
 - conscious state
 - skin colour & perfusion
 - pulse rate & character
 - ii. bleeding
 - esanguinating external haemorrhage should be immediately controlled
 - occult internal haemorrhage may be difficult to detect / control
 - MAST suit may be appropriate for abdominal/lower limb bleeding
4. **Disability** - overt neurological status
 - i. level of consciousness
 - A - alert
 - V - responds to verbal stimuli
 - P - responds to painful stimuli
 - U - unresponsive
 - ii. pupillary size & response to light
5. **Exposure** - complete exposure of the patient

■ Resuscitation

1. supplemental O₂
2. IV access
 - i. minimum of 2x 16G cannulae
 - ii. blood drawn for X-match, FBE, Coags, MBA
 - iii. commence fluid replacement
 - initially with either balanced salt solution or synthetic colloid
 - use blood if > 2-3 litres in adult with no improvement
 - **type-specific** unmatched, or **O-negative** blood acceptable
 - adequacy of resuscitation judged by physiological parameters
3. ECG monitoring
 - HR, dysrhythmias
 - EMD → hypovolaemia, tamponade, tension pneumothorax, massive embolism: air, fat, AFE, PTE, massive MI, profound metabolic disturbance
4. urinary catheter
 - CUD insertion generally contraindicated when,
 - i. blood at the external meatus
 - ii. blood in the scrotum
 - iii. impalpable, or high riding prostate
5. naso/oro-gastric tube

■ Secondary Survey

Def'n: "head-to-toe & front-to-back" examination of patient

1. **Head**
 - i. eyes - pupillary size, response, EOM's, conjunctival haemorrhage
- visual acuity, lens dislocation, fundi/optic disc changes
 - ii. ears - TM patency, haemorrhage, CSF leak
 - iii. scalp - lacerations, haematoma
2. **Maxillo-facial trauma**
 - when **not** associated with airway compromise, should be deferred to definitive management
 - mid-face fractures may have fractures of the **cribriform plate**
3. **Cervical Spine / Neck**
 - presume in all patients with blunt maxillo-facial trauma & multisystem trauma
 - absence of neurological deficit, pain or tenderness **does not** exclude significant injury
 - helmets should be removed with manual in-line stabilisation
 - penetrating wounds through the platysma require surgical exploration in theatre

4. ***Chest***
 - anterior, posterior, rib-cage, thoracic spine
 - bone injury, soft-tissue injury, penetrating injury
 - diminished apical breath sounds may be only sign of pneumothorax
 - soft heart sounds / narrow pulse pressure in tamponade
5. ***Abdomen***
 - anterior, posterior, lumbar spine
 - obvious swelling, penetrating injury
 - consider peritoneal lavage vs CT scan
 - many centres now trialling emergency ultrasound in assessment
6. ***Rectum***
 - anal sphincter tone
 - integrity of rectal wall, presence of fractures
 - position of prostate
 - presence of blood
7. ***Fractures***
 - long bones, joints, digits
 - pelvis, thoracic cage
 - spine, cranium
8. ***Neurological***
 - CNS status - AVPU
 - GCS, pupillary responses
 - motor & sensory evaluation of extremities
 - vasomotor stability, HR, sphincter tone
9. ***Investigations***
 - i. blood - X match, FBE, MBA, Coags
 - ii. XRays - CXR, AXR, Cx spine
- pelvis, Tx/Lm spine, long bones
± contrast studies
 - iii. DPL
 - iv. U/Sound
 - v. CT scan
 - vi. laparotomy

Haemorrhage

1. **class 1** < 15% blood volume
 - minimal tachycardia, no measurable changes in BP, pulse pressure, RR, perfusion
2. **class 2** ~ 15-30% ~ 800-1500 ml in 70kg adult
 - ↑ HR > 100 bpm, ↓ pulse pressure and peripheral perfusion
 - ↑ RR
 - SAP changes little, DAP increases due to ↑ SNS tone
 - ↓ urine output
 - many in this group will eventually require blood replacement, however this can follow colloid/crystalloid resuscitation
3. **class 3** ~ 30-40% ~ 2000 ml
 - clinically shocked, ↑ RR, ↑ HR, ↓ BP, CNS changes
4. **class 4** > 40%
 - life-threatening shock & CVS collapse
 - require immediate volume resuscitation & blood ASAP

NB: compensation generally prevents a fall in systolic BP until > **30%** BV loss

haematocrit/Hb is an unreliable guide to volume loss

■ Exceptions

1. elderly
2. athletes
3. medications - β-blockers
4. hypothermia
5. pacemakers

■ Emergency Transfusion

1. **full crossmatch**
 - preferable where possible
 - takes ~ 45-60/60 in most laboratories
 - compatibility ~ **99.95%**
2. **type specific** - "saline crossmatched" blood
 - ABO-Rh typing plus immediate phase X-match ~ 5-10 minutes
 - compatibility ~ **99.8%**
 - only **1:1000** patients has an unexpected Ab found in full X-match
 - greater risk in previously transfused patients ~ 1:100 unexpected Ab
 - first choice for life-threatening shock states
3. **type O Rh-negative**
 - universal donor, uncrossmatched blood
 - some type O donors produce high titres of anti-A,B immunoglobulins
 - **packed cells** better than whole blood
 - transfusion of > 2 units of whole type O requires continued use until the blood bank determines levels of anti-A/B have declined (theoretically !)
 - continued use of type O results in minor haemolysis & hyperbilirubinaemia
4. **fluid warmers**
 - iatrogenic hypothermia associated with,
 - i. shivering & \uparrow VO_2
 - ii. platelet dysfunction and coagulopathy
5. **coagulopathy**
 - rare problem in the first hour & with less than 10 units Tx
 - clotting factor deficiency less common than,
 - i. surgical bleeding
 - ii. hypothermia
 - iii. thrombocytopenia
 - administer FFP according to APTT/INR
6. **MAST trousers** - see over

MAST Suit

NB: improves early haemodynamics
no evidence of improved survival

■ Indications

1. splinting and control of pelvic fractures with continued haemorrhage / hypotension
2. intra-abdominal trauma with severe hypovolaemia in patients being transported to definitive care

■ Contraindications

1. absolute
 - i. pulmonary oedema
 - ii. myocardial dysfunction
 - iii. ruptured diaphragm
2. relative - uncontrolled haemorrhage outside of confines of suit
 - i. intrathoracic haemorrhage
 - ii. severe head injury / raised ICP

■ Complications

- a. lower limb ischaemia
- b. compartment syndrome
- c. pulmonary oedema
- d. increased haemorrhage from thoracic injuries
- e. raised ICP
- f. post-deflation
 - i. hypotension
 - ii. acidaemia
 - iii. reperfusion injury

CHEST TRAUMA

■ Acute Life Threatening Injuries

- a. airway obstruction
- b. tension pneumothorax
- c. open pneumothorax
- d. haemothorax ≥ 1500 ml
- e. flail chest
- f. cardiac tamponade
- g. aortic rupture
- h. air embolism - broncho-pulmonary venous fistula

NB: chest injuries result in ~ 1/4 trauma deaths,
only ~ 15% of such injuries require operative intervention

■ Indications for Intercostal Tube Drainage

1. pneumothorax
2. haemothorax
3. empyema
4. bronchial rupture
5. oesophageal rupture
6. prior to transport in high risk patients

Tension Pneumothorax - Causes

NB: results from "one-way-valve" air leak,
either from the lung or through the chest wall

- a. IPPV & barotrauma
- b. spontaneous pneumothorax / ruptured bullae
- c. blunt chest trauma - rib fractures
- d. penetrating chest trauma - less often
- e. bronchial rupture
- f. iatrogenic
 - i. CVC cannulation
 - ii. pleural aspirate/biopsy
 - iii. non-functioning chest tube

• **clinical diagnosis** for which radiology is used for confirmation,

- a. respiratory distress
- b. tracheal deviation
- c. unilateral diminished breath sounds
- d. tympanic percussion note
- e. pulse paradoxus ± hypotension
- f. distended neck veins
- g. cyanosis

• management,

1. 14G IV cannula insertion 2nd interspace MCL
2. intercostal catheter

Open Pneumothorax

• if the opening defect is > 2/3 the tracheal diameter, effective ventilation is impaired

• management options,

1. apply sterile occlusive dressing with 3/4 sides taped forming valve
2. use totally occlusive dressing & insert remote intercostal catheter

Massive Haemothorax

- usually the result of > **1500 ml** blood in the thoracic cavity
 1. shock
 2. stony dull percussion note
 3. neck veins → **flat**, due to severe hypovolaemia, or **distended**, due to impaired venous return
 4. confirmed by CXR
 - management,
 1. simultaneous drainage & volume replacement
 2. **autotransfusion** if device available
 3. **thoracotomy**
 - i. initial drainage > 1500 ml
 - ii. continued loss > 200 ml/hr
- NB:** thoracotomy more often required for penetrating wounds medial to the nipple line

Flail Chest

- usually 2° multiple rib fractures as a result of blunt trauma
- if large enough may result in lung pump failure,
 1. **dominant lesion** is injury to underlying lung
 2. rarely does flail alone result in respiratory failure
 3. hypoventilation 2° to pain
- CXR may show multiple fractured ribs, but may miss costo-chondral separation
- paradoxical movement may be hidden by splinting in acute setting
- AGA's required for assessment
- management,
 1. supplemental O₂ - humidified
 2. volume resuscitation
 - contused lung is sensitive to both under/over resuscitation
 3. pain relief
 - i. oral narcotics, mild analgesics
 - ii. systemic opioids
 - iii. interpleural catheter - local anaesthetics
± opioids
 - iv. thoracic epidural / spinal opioids
 4. intubation / IPPV

Cardiac Tamponade

- Beck's triad,
 1. hypotension
 2. elevated JVP
 3. silent heart

 - elevated CVP may be absent with hypovolaemia
 - distended neck veins may be obscured by a cervical collar
 - initial IV resuscitation will elevate CVP and improve CO initially
 - **Kussmaul's sign**, a rise in CVP with inspiration, is a true paradoxical venous pressure abnormality associated with tamponade
 - performance of pericardiocentesis pre/post-echocardiography depends upon,
 1. the level of suspicion that tamponade exists
 2. the degree of decompensation of the patient
- NB:** *all* patients having a positive pericardiocentesis require a thoracotomy

Chest Trauma - Delayed Major Injuries

1. pulmonary contusion - without flail chest
2. myocardial contusion - arrhythmias
3. aortic rupture / haemorrhage
4. ruptured diaphragm - respiratory failure
5. ruptured bronchus - bronchopleural fistula
- pneumothorax
6. ruptured oesophagus - mediastinitis

Pulmonary Contusion

- most common potentially lethal chest injury seen
- may be managed with or without intubation, but require observation due to progression over the first 24-48 hrs
- factors indicating a need for *early intubation*,
 1. impaired level of consciousness
 2. pre-existing cardiopulmonary disease
 3. any injury dictating anaesthesia/operation
 - i. associated abdominal injury requiring laparotomy
 - ii. skeletal injuries requiring immobilization
 - iii. craniotomy - ICH, raised ICP and monitor insertion
 4. renal failure

Myocardial Contusion

- incidence ~ **65%** of major blunt chest trauma
- site affected,
 - a. RV ~ 65%
 - b. LV ~ 15%
 - c. both ~ 20%
- clinical presentation,
 - a. unexplained hypotension
 - b. unexplained elevation of CVP/JVP
 - c. acute cardiac failure
 - d. arrhythmias
 - e. new murmur - VSD, MV rupture
 - f. tamponade
- investigations,
 - a. ECG changes
 - ischaemic changes in RV leads
 - multiple ectopics, sinus tachycardia, AF
 - RBBB, ST/T wave changes
 - ± myocardial infarction
 - b. high CK/CK_{MB} * poor correlation
 - c. troponin I ? sensitivity / specificity
 - d. gated nucleotide scans = "gold standard"

Traumatic Aortic Rupture

- most common major vessel injured following blunt chest trauma
- common cause of immediate death in MVA, ~ **90%** fatal at the scene of accident
- 50% of surviving patients die per left untreated

- a. 60% rupture just distal to the origin of the left subclavian artery
 - at the level of the *ligamentum arteriosum*
- b. 25% rupture at the ascending aorta
 - just proximal to the origin of the brachiocephalic artery
- c. characteristic pathophysiology of *contained haematoma*
 - i. initial BP fall associated with loss of 1000-1500 ml
 - ii. hypotension responds to IV volume replacement

NB: ∴ require high index of suspicion & radiological exclusion

■ Diagnosis

1. CXR
 - * may be essentially *normal*
 - * no single finding reliably predicts or excludes significant injury
 - i. widening of the superior mediastinum
 - ii. fractures of the 1st & 2nd ribs
 - iii. blurring of the left margin of the aortic knuckle
 - iv. tracheal shift → right
 - v. left pleural cap | effusion
 - vi. elevation & right-shift of the RMB
 - vii. depression of the LMB
 - viii. obliteration of the space between PA and aorta
 - ix. oesophageal deviation (NGT)
2. angiography
 - "gold-standard" for diagnosis
 - high index of suspicion, ∴ high false negative rate
 - LIGW, "if negative angiography rate < 50%, then not doing enough angiograms"
3. CT scan
4. TEE
 - NEJM 1995, completed studies in 93/101 within 29 ± 12 min
 - 11 positives → sensitivity = 100%
specificity ~ 98%
 - additional information
 - LV function, valvular competence
 - tamponade
 - **but** operator dependent & blind spots in ascending aorta & other arteries
 - transthoracic echo of *no use* in diagnosis

■ Management

1. surgical repair
2. post-operative paraplegia ~ 5%

Diaphragmatic Rupture

NB: high index of suspicion in the patient with major abdominal injuries, modes of *presentation*,

- i. acute respiratory failure
- ii. bowel sounds in left hemithorax
- iii. peritoneal lavage fluid "disappears", or drains from chest tube
- iv. bowel / NGT in hemithorax on CXR
- v. failure to wean from mechanical ventilation

■ CXR

- a. loops of bowel in *left hemithorax*
- b. "pseudo-haemopneomothorax" = air/fluid level of stomach
- c. persistent elevated left hemidiaphragm
- d. NG tube in left hemithorax

NB: may be *mimicked* by (misinterpreted as),

- i. elevated left hemidiaphragm
- ii. acute gastric dilatation
- iii. loculated pneumothorax
- iv. subpulmonic haematoma

Tracheobronchial Tree Injuries

■ Laryngeal Injury

- a. history of injury
- b. may be minimal external tissue damage
- c. hoarseness
- d. subcutaneous emphysema
- e. crepitus

NB: in the presence of *acute obstruction* oral intubation should be attempted, failing this *surgical tracheostomy* is the procedure of choice, *not* cricothyroidotomy

■ Bronchial Rupture

- a. sites
 - i. lower trachea ~ 80% transverse
 - ii. major bronchus - spiral
 - iii. post. tracheal wall - vertical
- b. presentation
 - may be insidious
 - high suspicion in major chest trauma
 - i. haemoptysis - major or minor
 - ii. subcutaneous emphysema
 - iii. tension pneumothorax
 - iv. acute bronchopleural fistula
 - v. persistent lobal collapse

NB: majority of patients with this injury die at the scene, of those who survive to hospital, *mortality* ~ **30%**, usually due to associated injuries

- diagnosis may be confirmed by bronchoscopy
- large leaks may require insertion of a second intercostal catheter
- management may be conservative or by operative repair

Oesophageal Rupture

- clinical presentation,
 - a. penetrating, most common, or severe closed chest trauma
 - b. retrosternal pain
 - c. dysphagia
 - d. haematemesis
 - e. cervical emphysema
 - f. CXR:
 - left pleural effusion, haemothorax
 - widened mediastinum
 - mediastinal emphysema, air/fluid level
 - cervical emphysema
 - hydropneumothorax / pneumothorax
 - g. pleural aspirate
 - pH < 6.0
 - bloody fluid, high WCC
 - high amylase
 - h. late events
 - fever, shock, septicaemia
- confirmatory diagnosis is by gastrograffin swallow or endoscopy
- there is a high associated mortality ~ 2% / hr left untreated
- aetiology,
 - a. traumatic
 - external
 - internal / vomiting
 - b. iatrogenic
 - c. FB
 - d. carcinoma

Coma: Causes of Respiratory Failure

- a. airway obstruction
- b. aspiration
- c. acute neurogenic pulmonary oedema
- d. post-obstructive pulmonary oedema
- e. thoracic injuries
 - i. tracheobronchial disruption
 - ii. pulmonary contusion
 - iii. haemothorax / pneumothorax
 - iv. flail chest
 - v. diaphragmatic disruption
- f. acute gastric dilatation
- g. cervical cord trauma
- h. central hypoventilation

ABDOMINAL TRAUMA

Peritoneal Lavage

- a. sensitivity ~ 95-98%
 - b. specificity ~ 85%
 - c. positive result
 - i. **aspiration**
 - fresh blood ≥ 10 ml prior to lavage
 - faecal soiling or vegetable material
 - ii. **lavage**
 - fluid exits via intercostal or urinary catheter
 - iii. **analysis**
 - RBC count
 - > 100,000/ μ l
 - > 50,000/ μ l \equiv equivocal
 - > 5,000/ μ l for penetrating injuries
 - WCC
 - > 500/ μ l
- causes of **false positives** ~ 15%
 - a. traumatic lavage
 - b. retroperitoneal haemorrhage
 - c. pelvic haematoma - 2° fractures
 - causes of **false negatives** ~ 2-5%
 - a. incorrectly performed
 - b. diaphragmatic rupture
 - c. retroperitoneal injuries
 - haemorrhage
 - duodenum
 - pancreas
 - renal injury
 - d. isolated hollow viscus perforation
 - small bowel
 - bladder

■ Indications

- a. multiple trauma patient in whom abdominal examination is,
 - i. equivocal
 - ii. unreliable - CHI, intoxication, cord injury
 - iii. impractical - prolonged XRays, angiography
- requiring GA
- b. unexplained fluid requirements in resuscitation
- c. penetrating injuries - including lower thoracic
- d. gunshot wounds

■ Contraindications

- a. full bladder
- b. pregnancy
- c. recent abdominal surgery
- d. obvious signs of intraperitoneal haemorrhage/infection

NB: the only *absolute contraindication* is an existing indication for laparotomy

■ Complications

- a. haemorrhage
- b. intestinal perforation
- c. bladder perforation
- d. infection

■ Peritoneal Lavage - Technique

- a. empty bladder, sterile technique, IV access
- b. dialysis catheter introduced into pelvis via sub-umbilical incision
- c. aspiration for frank blood
- d. 1000 ml of normal saline introduced over 5 minutes + ballotment
- e. fluid drained sent for,
 - i. red & white blood cell counts
 - ii. urgent gram stain & culture
 - iii. amylase
 - iv. ? cytology

Abdominal CT Scanning

- suggested as a substitute for DPL in haemodynamically stable patients
- criticism of DPL is indication for laparotomy in cases of minor liver laceration
- several clinical studies suggest double contrast CT may miss life-threatening intra-abdominal injuries
 - a. diaphragmatic tears
 - most commonly 5-10 cm length, involving posterolateral left hemidiaphragm
 - initial CXR is usually non-specific
 - high association with wedge #L1, (b) and (c)
 - b. duodenal rupture
 - c. pancreatic injury
 - normal serum amylase **does not** exclude pancreatic fracture
 - conversely, may be elevated from non-pancreatic sources

Penetrating Trauma

NB: an aggressive policy for exploratory laparotomy is justified, due to the high incidence of hollow visceral injury & vascular involvement

1. gunshot wounds
 - entry of the peritoneum mandates laparotomy
 - in the absence of an exit wound, AXR required to establish trajectory
 - broad spectrum antibiotic therapy early
2. stab wounds
 - selective laparotomy procedure
 - wound exploration
 - DPL
 - < 50% of such injuries will require urgent laparotomy
3. lower thoracic wounds
 - defined as
 - line from 4th ICS anteriorly to 7th ICS posteriorly
 - nipple line to inferior border of scapula
 - incidence of significant abdominal injury with penetrating injury,
 - i. stab wound ~ 15-25%
 - ii. gunshot wound ~ 45-60%
 - ∴ laparotomy for all gunshots & selective for stab wounds
4. flank & back wounds
 - risk of significant visceral injury following penetrating,
 - i. back wounds ~ 5-15%
 - ii. flank wounds ~ 20-30%
 - routine laparotomy is the safest policy, as there are no reliable tests

Genitourinary Tract

▪ Blunt Trauma

- increased incidence of injury with,
 1. renal
 - i. back / flank haematomas, ecchymoses
 - ii. fractures of lower ribs
 - iii. fractures of spinal transverse processes
 - b. bladder/urethra
 - i. perineal haematomas
 - ii. anterior pelvic fractures
 - c. overt signs of lower tract injury
 - i. blood at the urethral meatus
 - ii. inability to void

- urethral disruptions are divided into,
 - a. posterior
 - above the urogenital diaphragm
 - usually multisystem trauma. pelvic fractures
 - b. anterior
 - below the urogenital diaphragm
 - usually starddle injuries & isolated

- imaging techniques,
 1. IVP
 - unilateral non-function
 - congenital absence, previous nephrectomy
 - massive parenchymal shattering
 - vascular pedical disruption
 2. urethrography
 - should be performed prior to CUD in all suspected urethral tears
 3. cystography
 4. CT scan

Pelvic Fractures

- open pelvic fractures → **mortality > 50%**
- rectal & genital injuries should be suspected in all major fractures
- DPL should be performed, preferably from **above** the umbilicus, due to extension of haematoma
 - a. negative DPL - reliably excludes major intraperitoneal bleeding
 - b. positive DPL ~ 15% FP, due to leaking into the peritoneum
- a MAST suit may be used if there is haemodynamic instability
- continued bleeding then become a therapeutic dilemma,
 - a. if DPL is grossly positive, then laparotomy indicated to exclude co-existent abdominal pathology
 - b. **arteriography / embolization** may be life-saving for uncontrolled haemorrhage

HEAD TRAUMA

- head injury is associated with,
 - a. ~ 50% of all trauma deaths
 - b. ~ 60% of MVA deaths

Def'n: *coma* is defined as,

1. no eye opening = 1
2. not obeying command = 1-5
3. no word verbalisation = 1-2

virtually all patients with GCS < 8 and most with GCS = 8 are comatose

Def'n: head injury is arbitrarily divided according to GCS as,

1. severe HI GCS < 9
2. moderate HI GCS = 9-12
3. minor HI GCS > 12

- other factors considered as severe HI, despite GCS,
 - a. unequal pupils > 1 mm difference
 - b. unequal motor response
 - c. open HI - CSF leak, exposed brain tissue
 - d. neurological deterioration
 - e. depressed skull fracture
- a change in GCS ≥ 2 represents clear deterioration, ≥ 3 major deterioration requiring immediate assessment & therapy
- other factors of concern,
 - a. increased severity, or unusually severe headache
 - b. unilateral increase in pupil size
 - c. unilateral onset of weakness

■ Imaging Techniques

- a. CT scan
 - examination of first choice in all but trivial injuries
- b. SXR
 - limited value in early management, except in penetrating injuries
- c. examination with limited/no role in acute head injury
 - i. LP
 - ii. EEG
 - iii. isotope scanning

■ Skull Fractures

- a. linear, non-depressed
 - across vascular arterial grooves or suture lines increases the risk of ***extradural haematoma***
- b. depressed
 - increased risk of sequelae (eg seizures) in depressed > thickness of skull
- c. open
 - early operative intervention, elevation & removal of fragments & closure of the dura
- d. basal skull fractures
 - internally compound, and loss of CSF may be occult into sinuses
 - factors suggestive of diagnosis,
 - i. Battle's sign - mastoid ecchymoses
 - ii. raccoon eyes - bilateral periorbital ecchymoses
 - associated with cribriform plate fracture
 - iii. CSF leak - rhinorrhoea, otorrhoea
 - iv. haemotympanum

■ Diffuse Brain Injury

a. *concussion*

- is a brain injury accompanied by brief loss of neurological function
- various neurological abnormalities may be described, however, these have usually resolve by the time a tertiary institution is reached
- ∴ **any** neurological abnormality observed in a patient **should not** be attributed to concussion
- rule of thumb is that if the patient has been unconscious for > 5 minutes then they should be observed for 24 hrs

b. *diffuse axonal injury*

- characterised by prolonged coma, lasting days to weeks
- overall mortality ~ 30%
- autonomic dysfunction, fever, hypertension, sweating etc is common

■ Focal Injuries

- a. contusions
- b. haemorrhages
- c. haematomas

NB: operative intervention usually only required for mass effect

■ Meningeal Haemorrhage

1. extradural haemorrhage
 - most commonly middle meningeal artery, rarely dural sinus
 - usually 2° linear fracture of parietal/temporal bones
 - relatively rare
 - ~ 0.5% of unselected HI
 - ~ 0.9% of HI resulting in coma
 - classical description of progress,
 - i. LOC followed by lucid interval
 - ii. secondary depression of conscious state
 - iii. development of contralateral hemiparesis
 - iv. ipsilateral dilated pupil
 - outcome is directly related to the condition of the patient prior to surgery
 - i. light coma → ~ 9% mortality
 - ii. deep coma → ~ 20% mortality
2. subdural haemorrhage
 - much more common than extradural ~ 30% of severe HI
 - most commonly rupture of **bridging veins**, less often cortical arteries or brain
 - underlying primary brain injury is often severe
 - poor prognosis → mortality ~ 60%
 - recent studies suggest some improvement of outcome with early evacuation
3. subarachnoid haemorrhage
 - blood in CSF → meningeal irritation, headache, photophobia, etc.
 - LP not required → CT scan

■ Parenchymal Haemorrhage

1. intracerebral haematomas
2. impalement injuries
3. bullet wounds

SPINAL TRAUMA

■ Demographics

- a. age ~ 70-80% are between **11-30 yrs**
- b. sex ~ 2/3 are **males**
- c. **mortality** ~ 30% die before reaching hospital
~ 10% during the first year
~ normal for age thereafter

- although semi-rigid cervical collars are useful, securing the head to a spinal board is equally, or more effective
- a conscious patient with paralysis is usually able to identify pain at the site of injury due to sensory loss below the level

NB: paralysis/sensory loss may mask abdominal or lower extremity injury

- in unconscious patients 2° MVA or a fall, chance of Cx spine injury ~ **5-10%**
- risk of Cx spine injury in unconscious patients increases with,
 1. flaccid areflexia
 2. flaccid rectal sphincter
 3. ability to flex, but **not extend** the elbow
 4. grimaces to pain above, but not below the clavicle
 5. hypotension with bradycardia & dilated veins
 6. priapism

■ Vertebral Assessment

- a. usually associated with pain & tenderness
- b. less often palpable step-deformity
- c. oedema / ecchymoses
- d. tracheal tenderness / deviation - retropharyngeal haematoma
- e. muscle spasm ± head tilt

■ Neurological Assessment

- a. motor power
- b. tone
- c. reflexes
- d. sensory deficit
 - light touch is conveyed in both lateral and posterior columns & may be the only modality preserved in incomplete injuries
 - sparing of sensation in the *sacral dermatomes* may be the only sign of incomplete injury
 - evaluation of sacral sparing should include sensory perception and voluntary contraction of the anus
- e. autonomic dysfunction - bladder / rectal control, priapism

■ Neurogenic & Spinal Shock

1. *neurogenic shock*

- hypotension associated with high thoracic & cervical injuries
- hypotension, bradycardia & dilated veins → "relative hypovolaemia"
- atropine may be used to Rx bradycardia

2. *spinal shock*

- refers to neurological function of the spinal cord following injury
- "shock" may result in almost total non-function despite viability of the cord
- produces flaccid paralysis, cf. normal spasticity, brisk reflexes & ↑ plantars

■ Fractures / Dislocations

1. *C1 Atlas*

- usually involves a blow-out of the ring → *Jefferson* fracture
- associated with axial load
- 30% have associated C2 fracture
- usually *not* associated with cord injury
- they are unstable & require immediate immobilization

2. *C2 Axis*

i. dislocation

- odontoid may be displaced posteriorly into the spinal canal
- injury to the transverse ligament, between odontoid & anterior arch of C1
- consider whenever C1-arch to odontoid distance > **5 mm**
- displacement can occur without injury → Steel's rule:
"1/3 of the area in the atlas is occupied by odontoid, 1/3 by spinal cord"

ii. odontoid fractures

- *type I*: above the base & stable
- *type II*: through the base & usually unstable
- *type III*: extends into the vertebral body
- NB: in children under 6 yrs the epiphysis may appear as a fracture line
cf. type II fractures

iii. posterior element fractures → "*hangman's* fracture"

- posterior elements damaged by flexion & distraction
- unstable

3. **C3-C7**

- assess distance from anterior aspect of C3 to pharyngeal shadow
→ prevertebral thickness < 5 mm
- increased thickness "without" fracture classically seen with minimally displaced C2 fracture
- "rule-of-thumb" for prevertebral haematoma is the distance to the air-shadow should be < ½ the vertebral body thickness
- radiological evidence identifying an unstable fracture,
 - i. **disruption** of all of either anterior or posterior elements
 - ii. **over-riding** of a superior vertebral body > **3.5 mm**
 - iii. **angulation** between vertebral bodies > **11°**

4. **facet dislocations**

- unilateral facet injury → vertebral displacement ~ 25% of body width
- bilateral facet injury → vertebral displacement > 50% of body width
- malalignment of spinous processes on AP film
- bilateral dislocations frequently unstable

Pathophysiology

- injury results from both primary and secondary injury
- the anatomic and histological findings associated with **primary injury**,
 - a. direct neurilemmal & neuronal disruption ± destruction
 - b. petechial haemorrhages
 - c. gross haematomyelia
 - d. total cord transection * a rare event
- subsequent **secondary injury** involves,
 - a. progressive haemorrhagic necrosis
 - b. oedema
 - c. inflammatory response

NB: → proportional to the extent of the 1° injury
- the proposed mechanism of the **2° injury** includes,
 - a. activation of **phospholipase A₂**, due to release of
 - i. Ca⁺⁺
 - ii. bradykinin
 - iii. thrombin
 - b. formation of arachidonic acid & other FFA's from cell membrane
 - c. metabolism of arachidonic acid to,
 - i. prostaglandins * mainly **thromboxane**
 - ii. leukotrienes → microcirculatory thrombosis & stasis
vasogenic oedema
tissue ischaemia
chemotaxis of inflammatory cells
 - d. free radical formation & hydrolysis of membrane lipid fragments
→ **lipid fragment peroxides**
 - e. lipid hydrolysis and peroxidation of fragment membrane phospholipids
→ further release of Ca⁺⁺ & positive feedback
 - f. increased PGF_{2α} and thrombin augment phospholipase activity
 - g. raised intracellular Ca⁺⁺ leads to disordered energy metabolism and maintenance of cell integrity (Na⁺/K⁺-ATP'ase)
 - h. increased endogenous kappa opioid agonist **dynorphin**, plus an increase in receptor binding capacity following experimental SCI in rats

■ Effects on Spinal Cord Blood Flow

- immediately following SCI there is a marked **reduction** in SCBF, resulting in ischaemia and biochemical changes as above
- these changes may not commence for up to 1-4 hrs post SCI
- therefore postulated that interruption of the above cascade may protect against ischaemia
- the normal mean **SCBF ~ 40-50 ml/100g/min**
- this is partitioned between grey & white matter ~ 3:1
- SCBF normally **autoregulates** between ~ 60-150 mmHg MAP in rats
- SCBF has been shown to vary with P_{aCO_2} ~ 1:1 ratio (1 ml/mmHg)
- most of the decrease in SCBF following SCI is in the central cord region
- work with cats has shown that autoregulation is **abolished** following SCI

Management of Acute SCI

- a. pharmacological
 - i. **steroids**
 - given before, or shortly after decrease 2° injury in animals
 - Braken (1990) showed high dose methylprednisolone improved motor and sensory function at 6 weeks & 6 months
 - benefit is statistically significant only when administered **£ 8 hrs** of SCI
 - there was no increased incidence of septic complications
 - subsequent RCT's have not supported this finding and use currently controversial
 - ii. mannitol
 - effective in reducing parenchymal volume
 - also causes a vigorous osmotic diuresis
 - intravascular volume must be maintained to ensure SCB
- b. spinal cord perfusion
 - following experimental SCI **autoregulation** is lost → **pressure passive**
 - hypotension leads to cord hypoperfusion & ischaemia
 - hypertension leads to increased oedema and haemorrhage
 - therefore the aim is to maintain **MAP ~ normal**
- c. experimental*
 - hypothermia
 - hyperbaric oxygen
 - catecholamine antagonists
 - dimethyl sulphoxide
 - naloxone (opioid antagonism)

NB: *none of these has consistently demonstrated a benefit in human clinical trials

Associated Problems

■ Airway Management

NB: any patient with a significant *closed head injury* potentially has a fractured *cervical spine*

- **neutral position** must be maintained during intubation
- non-incremental traction without radiological control **does not** protect against further injury
- blind nasal & fiberoptic intubation may be attempted only if base of skull fracture can be excluded, however both tend to produce coughing & bucking which may be deleterious

NB: RSI & oral intubation are indicated in the presence of,

- i. complete apnoea
- ii. associated head injury with GCS < 9
- iii. an uncontrollable patient

■ Respiratory Complications

1. **anoxia/hypoxia** is the most common cause of death in acute SCI
2. **pneumonia** is the 2nd most common cause of death

- the degree of respiratory embarrassment depends upon SCI level
- **phrenic paralysis** (C_{3,4,5}) arises with **lesions** ³ C₄, leaving only the accessory muscles
→ severe hypoventilation
- intercostal & abdominal paralysis results in significant reduction in pulmonary function ³ T₇
- pulmonary oedema, **DVT & PTE**, also contribute significantly to early mortality
- **pulmonary oedema** has been seen in up to 44% of patients following resuscitation from spinal shock
- this most likely results from over-enthusiastic volume resuscitation, and attempts to maintain a "normal" arterial BP

■ Cardiovascular Complications

1. **acute changes**
 - in experimental SCI there is an abrupt, brief (2-3 min) increase in MAP, ? due to sympathoadrenal outflow
 - this is associated with significant increases in CBF/ICP, BBB permeability, extravascular lung water, CVP, PAP, PAOP, and CO
 - this supports the tendency for these patients to develop **cerebral & pulmonary oedema** early in resuscitation
 - rarely seen by the time of admission to a 3^o centre

2. **hypotension** \equiv "neurogenic shock"
- varying degrees of hypotension, bradycardia, decreased TPR, low-normal CVP and a normal or slightly elevated CO
 - decreased myocardial function, with \downarrow LVSWI (~ 26%) and CI (~ 18%) in response to volume loading in patients for spinal stabilisation surgery
 - loss of the cardioaccelerator fibres (T_{1-4}) produces **bradycardia**
 - ? the Bainbridge reflex (decreased RAP) may contribute as bradycardia is seen in below T_4 SCI
 - lesions $\geq T_1$ leave only the Frank-Starling mechanism to increase contractility, and may produce a MAP < 40 mmHg
 - the **b-endorphin** surge with SCI may also depress contractility by either a direct action on the heart, or by centrally mediated increases in parasympathetic tone
 - **orthostatic reflexes** are absent & positioning important
 - severe hypotension is observed above a **critical level** ~ T_{6-7}
 - this phase may last days to weeks but is usually **less than** the period of flaccid muscle paralysis
 - cautious addition of fluid is recommended in view of the decreased CVS reserve and tendency to **oedema formation**
 - monitoring by PAOP is frequently indicated as the venous compliance curve is abrupt in the absence of resting tone
3. **autonomic hyperreflexia**
- this follows the phase of hypotension/flaccid paralysis in patients with **lesions** $\geq T_{6,7}$, usually at 1-3 weeks
 - MAP returns to ~ normal or below, with episodes of severe hypertension in ~ **85%** of patients
 - triggered by common noxious stimuli, bladder or rectal distension, labour or surgical pain
 - this generalised response begins **below** the level of the lesion, due to the loss of control from the higher centres
 - it may spread above the lesion due to **sympathetic divergence**
 - symptoms include nasal congestion, severe headache, dyspnoea and nausea
 - signs include pallor, sweating, intense somatic & visceral muscle contraction, & piloerection below the lesion
 - above the lesion there is flushing & severe hypertension with reflex bradycardia
 - SAH & retinal haemorrhages have been observed, with syncope, convulsions and death if unabated
 - management has included ganglionic blockers, catecholamine storage depletion, α -adrenergic blockade, and direct vasodilators
 - however the studies have been small & lacked controls
 - the main aim is to **avoid** known stimuli

4. ***arrhythmias & ECG abnormalities***
 - mid thoracic SCI results in sinus or nodal bradycardia ± PAC's, PVC's, AV dissociation, or ventricular tachyarrhythmias
 - ***atropine*** is usually effective for bradyarrhythmias, which are frequently seen with airway manipulations
 - ***b-blockers*** may be useful for ventricular tachyarrhythmias
 - the ECG frequently shows LV strain ± subendocardial ischaemia
 - similar arrhythmias are seen in ~ 75% of autonomic hyperreflexic episodes

■ **Other Systems**

1. ***genitourinary***
 - ARF may occur 2° to hypotension, dehydration, sepsis, nephrotoxic drugs, acute obstruction, associated renal trauma, or other factors
 - in the chronic phase of SCI, renal failure accounts for ~ **20-75%** of mortality
2. ***disordered thermoregulation***
 - afferent information to the hypothalamus may be interrupted
 - sympathetic denervation causes heat loss
 - inability to shiver reduces heat production
 - general tendency to become ***poikilothermic***
3. ***fluid & electrolytes***
 - chronic SCI patients tend to be ***hypovolaemic & anaemic***
 - hypercalcaemia and hypercalcuria follow immobilisation, especially in young male patients (peak ~ 10/52 post-SCI)
4. ***gastrointestinal complications***
 - ~ 20% of SCI patients develop ***GIT bleeding*** acutely
 - nonspecific liver dysfunction with a normal bilirubin occurs commonly
 - gastric distension & ileus are common
 - increased risk of regurgitation / ***aspiration***
5. ***suxamethonium hyperkalaemia***
 - may be seen as early as **3 days**
 - the magnitude of the rise is more a function of the muscle mass affected than the amount of drug given
 - the underlying overgrowth of receptors may occur well ***before*** spasticity replaces flaccid paralysis
 - pretreatment with a nondepolarising agent ***does not*** reliably prevent the occurrence of significant hyperkalaemia

Management

- between **25-65%** of SCI patients have associated problems, most commonly,
 1. head injury
 2. thoracic trauma
 3. abdominal trauma
 4. major skeletal trauma
- these may compromise respiratory or circulatory function coincident with spinal shock and require a high index of suspicion
- during the acute phase, maintenance of "normal" acid-base & blood gas parameters and adequate cord perfusion are paramount
- experimental animal work has shown ***no advantage*** in either hypercapnia or hypocapnia in neurological recovery or histological tissue damage
- although not statistically significant, there is some data to suggest hypercapnia is more harmful than hypocapnia
- therefore, should aim for a $P_{aCO_2} \sim 35-40$ mmHg and ***hypoxaemia*** should be avoided at all costs
- ***contributing factors*** such must be suspected and managed accordingly,
 1. pulmonary contusion
 2. pneumothorax, haemothorax
 3. pulmonary embolism (fat or thrombus)
 4. foreign body
 5. gastric aspiration
 6. non-cardiogenic pulmonary oedema
- similar to the findings for CNS ischaemia, an elevated ***plasma glucose*** has been shown to be deleterious upon neurological outcome
- mild to moderate increases of BSL ≤ 2.5 mmol/l, tripled the incidence of paraplegia in rabbits following aortic occlusion
- notably there was a ***lack of correlation*** between the degree of BSL rise and the extent of neurological injury
- therefore, as for head injury, the administration of dextrose containing fluids should be restricted to proven hypoglycaemia
- the present data are insufficient to recommend active reduction of an elevated plasma glucose
- Cole (1989) looked at various anaesthetic techniques following SCI in the rat
- of the techniques studied, halothane, fentanyl, N_2O , and SA lignocaine, ***all*** increased the duration of ischaemia required to produce SCI
- no one technique was superior in terms of final ***neurological outcome***

THERMAL INJURIES

■ Management

1. airway compromise
 - clinical indications of inhalation injury,
 - i. facial & neck burns
 - ii. singeing of the eyebrows, eyelashes or nasal hair
 - iii. carbon deposits /inflammatory changes in oropharynx
 - iv. carbonaceous sputum
 - v. history of impaired mentation
 - vi. fire in an enclosed environment
 - vii. arterial COHb level
 - any suggestion of significant airway injury supports early intubation & ventilation
2. ongoing burning
 - remove all clothing
 - cool burnt area with body temperature saline
3. estimate surface area & depth of burn
4. IV access
 - upper limbs preferable due to high incidence of saphenous phlebitis
 - Brook → Hartmann's @ 4 ml/kg/%burn in first 24 hrs
give half in first 8 hrs, remainder over 16 hrs
in addition to usual fluid requirements
*starting from the time of injury, not assessment
 - all patients with > 20% burn require immediate IV access & IVT replacement
 - formulas are ***guides***, ∴ regular assessment of patient essential
 - hourly urine output probably best guide in otherwise healthy patients
5. baseline investigation
 - i. blood - FBE, XMatch, AGA's/COHb, EC&U
 - ii. CXR
6. analgesia
7. wound care
 - do not open blisters to apply antiseptic
 - avoid extensive use of cold soaks
 - apply clean dressings to painful second degree burns
8. antibiotics
 - ***not indicated*** in the early post-burn period
9. tetanus prophylaxis
10. oral fluids
 - no contraindication with small burns < 10%

■ Circumferential Burns

- the salient point in maintenance of the *peripheral circulation*
 1. remove rings & bracelets
 2. assess status of peripheral circulation
 - cyanosis, impaired capillary refill
 - progressive neurological signs
 - doppler ultrasound
 3. escharotomy
 - theoretically can be done in ED without anaesthesia, but there would seem little justification for this
 - incision must be entire length of eschar
 - consider bilateral midaxillary escharotomy for circumferential thoracic burns
 - fasciotomy is seldom required unless complicated injury or electrical burn

■ Chemical Burns

- alkali burns are generally more serious as alkalis penetrate tissue more deeply
- factors determining severity include,
 1. duration of contact
 2. concentration of agent
 3. amount of agent / area of contact
- main principal of management is copious irrigation

■ Electrical Burns

1. high tension / lightning injuries
 - tissue thermal injury/necrosis \propto **Joule's Law:** Heat $\propto I^2 \times W$
 - electrical flash burns and flame burns 2° to clothing ignition
 2. electrocution
 - disruption of normal physiological function
 - tissue thermal injury
- frequently more serious than appear externally
 - muscle, nerve & blood vessels may be destroyed with sparing of the skin due to its high resistance
 - *rhabdomyolysis* may be severe enough to result in acute renal failure, \therefore require aggressive fluid resuscitation of evidence of pigmenturia
 - *fasciotomy* may be required for compartmental syndrome

■ Burns Unit Transfer Criteria

1. partial thickness burns > 20%
2. partial thickness burns > 10%
+ ages > 50 yrs or < 10 yrs
3. full thickness burns > 5%
4. partial / full thickness burns involving,
 - i. face, eyes, ears
 - ii. hands, feet, major joint
 - iii. genitalia, perineum
5. electrical burns / lightening burns
6. chemical burns
7. complicated injuries, ie. fractures, where the major risk of morbidity is from the burn
8. inhalational burns
9. lesser burns in patients with significant pre-existing disease

Cold Injury

■ Classification

1. frostbite
 - i. first degree - hyperaemia & skin oedema without necrosis
 - ii. second degree - partial thickness necrosis with vesicle formation
 - iii. third degree - full thickness skin, plus some underlying tissue necrosis
 - iv. fourth degree - full thickness skin, muscle & bone with gangrene
2. nonfreezing injury
 - due to microvascular endothelial injury, with stasis & vascular occlusion
eg., "trench foot", "immersion foot"
3. hypothermia
 - states with a core temperature < 35°C
 - see notes on hypothermia

Clinical Effects

■ Cardiovascular

1. ↑ sympathetic tone - ↑ plasma NA/AD and FFA's
2. initially → vasoconstriction, tachycardia & increased CO
 later → bradycardia, hypotension & decreased CO
3. cardiac output - ↓ CO ~ 30-40% at 30°C ∝ ↓ VO₂
 - mainly 2° to **bradycardia**, SV well preserved
 - coronary perfusion well maintained
4. ECG changes - exacerbated by **acidosis & hyperkalaemia**
 - i. bradycardia
 - ii. prolonged PR, QRS, QT duration
 - iii. J point elevation ~ 33°C
 - iv. AF ~ 25-34°C (commonest arrhythmia)
 - v. AV block 1° ~ 30°C
 3° ~ 25°
 - vi. VF ~ 28°C
 - vii. asystole ~ 20°C
5. CPK & LDH levels are elevated
 - ? leakage from cells or microinfarction

■ Central Nervous System

- reasonably well preserved to 33°C, below this function deteriorates progressively,
 1. initial confusion → coma ≤ 30°C with pupillary **dilatation**
 2. ↓ CBF ∝ ↓ CMRO₂ ~ **6-7% / °C**
 ~ similar change cf. whole body VO₂
 3. progressive brainstem depression → ↓ HR & ↓ RR
 4. ↓ **temperature regulation** →
 - ↓ shivering ≤ 33°C
 - loss of T control ≤ 28°C
 5. cerebral protection
 - over and above metabolic depression
 - deep circulatory arrest
 - recovery from near drowning

■ Pulmonary Changes

1. central depression → ↓ RR ≤ 33°C
~ 4 bpm ± respiratory arrest at 25°C
2. impaired cough & gag reflexes → **aspiration risk**
3. reduced CO₂ drive
4. **no change** in hypoxic drive
5. impaired hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction
6. ↓ FRC, increased atelectasis
7. ↓ gaseous diffusion capacity
8. ↑ VO₂ with **shivering** → ↓ VO₂ ≤ 33°C
9. ↓ O₂ availability ∞ ↑ HbO₂ affinity
10. increased **gas solubility**
 - i. ↑ αCO₂ / ↓ P_aCO₂ → ↑ pH
 - ii. anaesthetic gases → ↓ rate of rise of F_A/F_I & elimination
- halothane MAC_{27°C} ~ 50% MAC_{37°C}

■ Metabolic

1. ↓ VO₂ ~ 6-7% / °C
2. severe **acidosis** → HbO₂ curve shifts to the **right**
 - i. respiratory ↓ CO₂ elimination due to hypoventilation
 - ii. metabolic ↓ tissue perfusion
↓ hepatic lactate clearance
↓ renal tubular H⁺ excretion
 - iii. temperature correction of blood gas values offer **no advantage** in management
→ δ pH ~ -0.0147/°C
3. **hyperkalaemia / hypokalaemia**
 - causes for expected rise in K⁺
 - i. decreased activity Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase → ↓Na⁺ / ↑K⁺
 - ii. cellular hypoxia, membrane damage & acidosis
 - however, hypokalaemia more commonly observed
 - i. ? 2° diuresis
 - ii. ICF shift
4. **hyperglycaemia** - ↓ insulin secretion & ↓ peripheral glucose utilisation
- ? mild pancreatitis
- hypoglycaemia may ensue in longstanding hypothermia
5. ↑ drug t_{1/2β} ∞ ↓ hepatic blood flow & enzyme reaction rates
→ **heparin, citrate & lactate**

■ Renal

1. ↓ GFR ∞ ↓ renal blood flow ~ 50% at 30°C
 → ↓ drug clearance
2. ↓ tubular function
 - i. cold diuresis - volume of urine initially increased or the same
 - ii. hypoosmolar urine
 - iii. glycosuria, kaluria → additional diuresis

■ Neuromuscular Junction

1. shivering occurs ~ 33-36°C
2. increased muscle tone → **myoclonus** ~ 26°C
3. increased sensitivity to **both** depolarising & nondepolarising with mild hypothermia

■ Haematological

1. **coagulopathy**
 - i. ↓ coagulation ↓ enzyme activity
 - ii. thrombocytopenia ↑ portal platelet sequestration
 ↑ bleeding time
2. increased blood **viscosity** - haemoconcentration
 - ↓ microcirculatory blood flow
3. **immunoparesis** - ↓ WCC & function
4. marrow hypoplasia

■ Immunological

1. ↓ neutrophils, phagocytes, migration, bactericidal activity
2. organ hypoperfusion & increased infection risk
3. diminished gag/cough reflexes
4. atelectasis

Regulation of Body Temperature

NB: balance between heat production and heat loss

- a. heat production / gain
 - i. basal VO_2
 - ii. SDA of food
 - iii. muscular activity
 - iv. non-shivering thermogenesis
 - v. gain from the environment
- b. heat loss
 - i. radiation ~ 40%
 - ii. convection ~ 30%
 - iii. evaporation ~ 29%
 - iv. conduction, feces/urine ~ 1%

NB: *respiratory losses* ~ 10%

- i. humidification ~ 8%
- ii. convection ~ 2%

■ Sensory Systems

- a. cutaneous thermoreceptors ~ 15% of input
 - i. cold receptors < 24°C
 - ii. heat receptors > 44°C
- b. deep/core thermoreceptors ~ 85% of input
 - i. anterior hypothalamus
 - ii. spinal cord
 - iii. hollow viscera

■ Central Integration

- some processing in the spinal cord, majority in the *posterior hypothalamus*
- "central thermostat" regulated by,
 1. diurnal rhythm, age, sex, hormones
 2. endogenous pyrogens
 3. drugs
 4. neurotransmitters (? 5HT)
 5. exercise

■ Effector Systems

1. higher control centres
 - i. posture, avoidance behaviour
 - ii. appetite/hunger
 - iii. clothing
 - iv. level of activity → voluntary muscle metabolism
↑ $\text{VO}_2 \leq 10x$ with exercise
2. **cutaneous blood flow**
 - first line of defence activated against heat loss
 - especially the extremities, cf. normal may decrease
 - i. skin blood flow ~ 5%
 - ii. heat loss to ~ **12%**
3. **shivering thermogenesis**
 - involuntary incoordinate muscular activity ~ 50 Hz
 - may ↑ $\text{VO}_2 \sim 2-5x$
 - may ↑ core temperature ~ 2-3°C/hr
 - requires ↑ $\text{VO}_2 \sim 100\%$ / ↑1°C
4. **nonshivering thermogenesis**
 - increased combustion of FFA's and glucose, regulated by,
 - i. sympathoadrenal outflow → fast response - noradrenaline
 - ii. thyroid function → slow response - adrenaline & T_4
 - liver and skeletal muscles in adults ~ 25% ↑ VO_2
 - **brown fat** in neonates ~ 100% ↑ VO_2
~ 25% of total CO
5. **sweating**
 - direct or reflex stimulation of the spinal cord, medulla, hypothalamus or cortex
 - provides only coarse control of temperature
6. horripilation / piloerection - minimal effects in man cf. animals

NB: usually order of activation,

- i. behavioural modification
- ii. vasoconstriction
- iii. nonshivering thermogenesis
- iv. shivering thermogenesis

■ Perioperative Effects

1. protection against CNS ischaemia, even with mild hypothermia (Sano et al. 1992)
2. metabolic
 - acidosis, hyperkalaemia
 - decreased drug metabolism
3. haematological
 - \uparrow viscosity, \downarrow O₂ delivery & tissue hypoxaemia
 - impaired coagulation
4. CVS
 - \downarrow CO & arrhythmias (*AF)
5. postoperative problems
 - i. shivering
 - \uparrow VO₂ & hypoxia if borderline lung function
 - ii. marked vasoconstriction
 - decreased microvascular flow
 - ? graft survival & wound infection
 - haemodynamic instability on rewarming
 - iii. impaired drug clearance
 - iv. impaired immune function
 - predisposes to **wound infection**
 - v. impaired conscious level

■ Intraoperative Management

1. \uparrow ambient temperature
 - i. adults under cover ~ 21°C
 - ii. neonates \leq 26°C
2. radiant warmers
 - mainly useful in children (higher SA:V ratio)
 - limited by access
 - potential for burns
3. drapes / coverings
 - \downarrow radiant & convective losses
 - **area** more important than type, but must remain **dry**
 - losses from the head important in neonates/bald adults
 - * forced air convective warmers most effective means
4. warming blankets
 - most effective **above** patient, minimal losses to table
 - useful when patient < 10 kg
5. respiratory losses < 10% losses through the respiratory tract
 - i. heat & moisture exchangers prevent most of this loss
 - ii. heater humidifiers will prevent all of this loss
 - however, in adults are **unable** to significantly raise body heat content
 - studies showing otherwise actually looking at oesophageal probe changes
 - iii. heater humidifiers rarely, if ever, indicated in adults
6. blood / IV warmers
 - especially large volumes given rapidly

■ Monitoring During Anaesthesia

- a. central - lower oesophageal & PA → heart
 - tympanic membrane → brain
- b. rectal - intermediate
 - changes lag behind core/shell during cooling & warming
- c. shell - skin/peripheral
 - may estimate vasoconstrictor/vasodilator responses

NB: useful to measure both core & shell,
core-shell gradient → better assessment of overall body temperature
 → adequacy of rewarming & predicts "afterdrop"

Deliberate Hypothermia

■ Surface Cooling

- principally historical interest, main use currently is in the management of **malignant hyperthermia**, or severe hyperthermia in septic ICU patients
- cold environment, ice bathing, especially groins & axillae
- problems of slow & uneven effects both during cooling and rewarming,
 - a. 2-6°C **afterdrop** when cooling / rewarming
 - b. **uneven** effects mean some tissues are still "at risk" for ischaemia

■ Cardiopulmonary Bypass

- a. more rapid & even cooling / rewarming
- b. more precise temperature regulation
- c. maintenance of **tissue perfusion** despite ↓ CO / arrest
- d. combined with **haemodilution**
 - i. offsets the effects on viscosity
 - ii. "optimal Hct." ~ 18-22%

■ Deep Hypothermia & Total Circulatory Arrest

- a. allows operation on still & bloodless heart
- b. principally for correction of complex CHD
- c. current operative times ~ 50-60 minutes at 18-20°C
- d. need for more thorough longterm outcome studies on CNS effects

PAEDIATRIC TRAUMA

- ratio of blunt:penetrating trauma highest for paediatric group
- MVA's and falls account for ~ 80% of trauma
- *multisystem* injury is the rule, rather than the exception

■ Unique Characteristics

1. smaller size - greater force per unit area
2. skeletal immaturity
 - soft bones with active growth centres can absorb large amount of energy without fracture
 - higher incidence of internal organ damage without overlying fracture
 - includes spinal column → SCIWORA
 - open sutures < 18 months
3. surface area
 - thermal energy loss higher
 - absorption of toxins higher
 - systemic effects of burns greater
4. GCS modified for age
5. higher incidence of
 - i. seizure activity
 - ii. mass lesions
 - iii. white matter tears - frontal and temporal lobes
- especially infants < 6 months
 - iv. subdural haematomas - especially NAI
6. major blood loss with *hypotension* may be *concealed*
7. IV access often more difficult
8. acute gastric distension → NG tube
9. psychological immaturity
10. long-term effects
 - growth & deformity
11. equipment
 - specific equipment required → size for age
 - *not* small adults

Shock

- a. normal blood volume ~ 80 ml/kg
- b. estimated weight
 - i. < 9 years ~ (2 x age) + 9
 - ii. > 9 years ~ 3 x age
- c. systolic arterial pressure ~ 80 + (2 x age)
 - cuff width 2/3 upper arm

Vital Signs			
	HR	SAP	RR
Infant	160	80	40
Preschool	140	90	30
Adolescent	120	100	20

Response to Blood-Loss			
	BL < 25%	BL 25-40%	BL > 40%
CVS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↑ HR • weak pulse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↑ HR • BP drop with tilting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • frank hypotension • ↑ or ↓ HR
CNS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lethargic, irritable • confused, combative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↓ LOC • diminished response to pain 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • comatose
Skin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cold, clammy • mottled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cyanotic • ↓ capillary refill 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pale, cold
Renal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ↓ urine output • high SG 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • minimal urine output 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no urine

- initial fluid challenge ~ **20 ml/kg**, or 25% blood volume, for colloid, 3x for crystalloid
- if remain unstable, then give 10 ml/kg P-RBCs
- most common acid-base abnormality is *respiratory acidosis*, correctable by adequate ventilation
- sites for emergency IV acces,
 1. intra-osseus tibial needle
 2. median antecubital vein
 3. long saphenous at ankle
 4. CVC - IJV or subclavian

■ Chest Trauma

- a. majority blunt
- b. underlying *pulmonary contusion* / haemorrhage most common significant injury
- c. tension pneumothorax / haemothorax are less common cf adults, but may be rapidly lethal if unrecognised
- d. injuries relatively rare in paediatric group,
 - i. fractures ribs
 - ii. diaphragmatic rupture
 - iii. injury to great vessels

■ Abdominal Trauma

NB: all should have stomach decompressed by oro/nasogastric tube

- a. high incidence of visceral injury
- b. more difficult to assess cf adults
- c. limited role for DPL → *CT scan*
 - CT must be
 - immediately available
 - not delay diagnostic algorithm
 - suit must have resuscitation facility
- d. majority of solid visceral injuries are managed *conservatively*
 - but require adequate observation
- e. indications for operating on spleen/liver trauma,
 - i. failure to respond to resuscitation
 - ii. continued major haemorrhage > 40 ml/kg/24 hrs
 - iii. suspicion of associated hollow visceral injury
 - iv. severe concomitant HI, where haemodynamic instability is deleterious
- f. many liver/spleen injuries can be repaired, rarely perform *splenectomy*

■ Extremity Trauma

- a. presence of growth plates makes assessment difficult
 - XRay of the opposite limb often useful
- b. blood-loss associated with long-bone & pelvic fractures is proportionately more significant
- c. **physeal** fractures classified by Salter-Harris
 - i. type I - linear through growth plate
 - ii. type II - cf. type I, plus small chip of metaphysis
 - iii. type III - through growth plate & epiphysis
 - iv. type IV - through both metaphysis & epiphysis
 - v. type V - compression fractures
 - types I & II have best prognosis for normal growth
 - type V has worst prognosis & difficult to spot on XRay
- d. greenstick fracture - fracture of cortex only
 - most require reduction
- e. buckle fracture - angulation without cortical fracture
- f. supracondylar fracture
 - high propensity for neurovascular injury
 - high incidence of growth deformity

■ Head Trauma

- a. children < 3 years have worse outcomes following severe HI
 - cf. older children who generally recover better than adults
- b. small children may develop hypovolaemic shock 2° head injury alone, or associated scalp laceration
- c. children < 18 months with open sutures have increased tolerance of expanding intracranial masses
 - check for fontanelle bulging and suture diastasis
- d. vomiting is a common response to injury and may, or may not, equal raised ICP
- e. seizures occurring shortly after injury are usually self-limiting
 - recurrent seizures require Ix & Rx
- f. focal lesions are less common
- g. generalised oedema and raised ICP is more common

- h. GCS, verbal score modified for age,
 - i. appropriate words
social smile
fixes and follows = 5
 - ii. cries but consolable = 4
 - iii. persistently irritable = 3
 - iv. restless, agitated = 2
 - v. none = 1
- i. indications for ICP monitoring in children
 - i. GCS < 5, or motor scores < 3
 - ii. where raised ICP is known, or likely to develop, and signs are masked by neuromuscular paralysis
 - iii. multiple associated injuries, where CT scanning delayed
 - ICP monitoring/management **does not** improve outcome in global ischaemic events
 - near-drowning victims with \uparrow ICP / \downarrow CPP have poor prognosis, and maintenance of 'normal' ICP does not correlate with outcome
- j. child drug doses
 - i. diazepam ~ 0.25 mg/kg
 - ii. phenytoin ~ 15-20 mg/kg
 - iii. mannitol ~ 0.5-1.0 g/kg

■ Spinal Trauma

- paediatric spinal trauma is relatively rare \rightarrow ~ 5% of all spinal injuries
- of children with severe trauma ~ 5% will have a cervical spine injury
- injuries will occur at more than one spinal level in ~ 16% of cases
- the commonest causes are,
 - a. road trauma - MVA, pedestrian, cyclist
 - b. falls - especially diving
- anatomical differences include,
 - a. interspinous ligaments & joint capsules are more flexible
 - b. uncinat articulations are poorly developed & slide forward
 - c. the facet joints are flat
 - d. the vertebral bodies are wedged anteriorly & slide forward with flexion
 - e. the head is relatively large
 - \rightarrow greater angular momentum can be generated with flexion / extension

- normal radiological variations include,
 - a. anterior displacement of C_2 on C_3 →
 - i. ~ 40% of children < 7 yrs
 - ii. ~ 20% of children \leq 16 yrs
 - iii. $\pm \geq$ 3mm movement on flexion/extension
 - b. increased distance between the dens and anterior arch of C_1 ~ 20% of children
 - c. skeletal **growth centres** may resemble fractures
 - d. basilar **odontoid synchondrosis** appears as a radiolucent line at the base of the dens (especially \leq 5 years)

- spinal cord injury without radiographic abnormality, **SCIWORA** is almost unique to the paediatric age group
 - ~ **20-60%** of all SCI
 - ~ 30-50% of these the lesion is complete

- SCI in the first decade of life is,
 - a. almost exclusively at $C_{1/2}$
 - b. either subluxation or SCIWORA and severe cord injury
 - c. rarely associated with fractures

- a high proportion of children who die in MVA's, or suffer cardiorespiratory arrest prior to reaching hospital have cord trauma above C_3 , particularly at the **cervico-medullary junction**
- this is difficult to diagnose in the unconscious patient, signs including,
 - a. flaccid immobility & areflexia
 - b. hypoventilation with paradoxical chest movement
 - c. apnoea and rhythmic flaring of the alae nasi (above C_3)
 - d. hypotension with
 - inappropriate bradycardia
 - peripheral vasodilatation
 - \pm priapism

■ Spinal Shock

- the syndrome of spinal shock occurs more commonly in children,
 - a. SCI lesion resolves after 2-3 days
 - b. progressive return of reflexes - bulbocavernous & anal first
 - c. incomplete lesions may then become apparent
 - i. Brown-Sequard hemisection
 - ii. anterior cord lesion
 - iii. central cord lesion

Non-Accidental Injury

- a. physical
 - b. sexual and emotional abuse
 - c. deprivation of medical care and nutrition
- children are also intentionally poisoned, and endure the consequences of inadequate supervision
 - diagnosis of children who suffer from abuse or neglect is difficult
 - NAI should be suspected where,
 - a. an injury is unexplained
 - b. the history is not consistent with the type of injury
 - c. it is alleged that the injury was self-inflicted
 - d. relatives delay in seeking medical aid
 - e. there are repeated suspicious injuries
 - the history is rarely volunteered by the child
 - the pattern of physical findings can be helpful,
 - a. head injury
 - skull fractures
 - subdural haematomas
 - b. **retinal haemorrhages** occur with head shaking, but also have other causes
 - c. bruises and scars on the back and buttocks in different stages of development and of unusual shapes
 - d. burns from cigarettes or forced immersion in hot water
 - e. overt bone fractures or **healing fractures**
 - f. long-bone fractures in children < 3 years
 - g. injury to genital or perianal areas
 - when non-accidental injury is suspected, referral to a specialised child protection unit to enable appropriate counselling and intervention is helpful
 - safety of siblings must be considered