PostScript

LETTERS

Pain relief in children: how good are we?

The literature suggests that the provision of pain relief in children is suboptimal despite guidelines from the British Association for Emergency Medicine.¹⁻³

In July 2003, we assessed the prescription of analgesia by senior house officers (SHOs) for children presenting with acute painful conditions to emergency departments (EDs). We contacted 50 conveniently chosen EDs within the UK and asked one SHO from each department to complete a telephone survey comprising four clinical scenarios for children with acute painful conditions, including a fractured femur, second degree burn, undisplaced greenstick fracture, and grossly deformed forearm. Eight of the departments contacted were in dedicated paediatric EDs.

HOs were asked to comment on the need for analgesia. If they recommended analgesia, they were asked which drug they would give and by which route. All 50 SHOs contacted completed the questionnaire; none were locums. SHOs recommended analgesia in a total of 182 responses out of a maximum of 200 (91%). The analgesic agent chosen was appropriate for 86% of responses, whilst the route of administration was appropriate for 73% of responses. In paediatric EDs 89% of SHOs chose an appropriate route for drug administration compared to 71% of SHOs working in general EDs.

Our study demonstrates that SHOs are able to recognise pain in children but that the drug chosen and the route by which it is given are often inconsistent and inappropriate. Without continuing educational initiatives children will continue to receive inadequate analgesia. We recommend specific SHO teaching during ED induction on the use of analgesia in the ED, in particular options available for pain relief in children including intranasal diamorphine and Entonox.

S J Brennan, T F Beattie, S Kidd

Royal Hospital for Sick Children, Edinburgh, UK

Correspondence to: S J Brennan, Pinderfields General Hospital, Aberford Road, Wakefield, West Yorkshire, WF1 4DG, UK; brennansarah@hotmail.com

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Unconscious incompetence and the foundation years

One popular educational model suggests that trainees progress through the following

sequence of competencies, and awareness of those competencies:

1. Unconscious incompetence
2. Conscious incompetence
3. Conscious competence
4. Unconscious competence

In our experience this model does not fit with training in emergency medicine. An additional first step can be added to represent the new senior house officer (SHO): that of initial conscious incompetence. We find that new SHOs are acutely aware of how little they know about many of the conditions they will see in the emergency department. Typically, as they grow in confidence, they progress through to unconscious incompetence, usually by about the 3rd or 4th month. Frequently something will happen to help them progress to the next step, conscious incompetence, through which they may or may not pass by the end of their 6-month attachment. The two states of conscious incompetence are distinguished by improvements in knowledge and skills. Worryingly, proposals for foundation year 2 will result in many SHOs spending only 4 months working within our speciality. This could result in trainees leaving us in a state of unconscious incompetence.

Senior consultants may be interested to read that we have further developed our five-stage model. Most registrars and younger consultants reside happily in a state of conscious or unconscious competence. We are finding the issue of deskilling a significant concern. We anticipate adaptation. The full eight stage model looks like this:

1. Initial conscious incompetence
2. Unconscious incompetence
3. Conscious incompetence
4. Conscious competence
5. Unconscious competence
6. Conscious incompetence (intolerant of self)
7. Conscious incompetence (tolerant of self)
8. Conscious of incompetence in others, and intolerant

I Higginson, A Hicks

Derriford Hospital, Plymouth, UK

Correspondence to: Dr Ian Higginson, Derriford Hospital, Plymouth PL2 8DH, UK; lan.higginson@phnt.swest.nhs.uk

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Myocardial infarction in a 21-year-old healthy man on rapid ascent

Exposure to high altitude without acclimatisation can result in acute mountain sickness. Although increased angina and arrhythmia have been reported in coronary patients with acute elevation, moderate elevation up to 2500-3500 m does not pose a hazard for a

patient with stable coronary artery disease and good exercise tolerance.^{1,2} However, we treated a young, healthy man who experienced myocardial infarction from ascending rapidly to this height.

This 21-year-old man has a non-contributory medical history. He drove to an altitude of 3275 m from sea level within 3 h, and then climbed a neighbouring mountain 3421 m high. He had intractable chest pain that night. He descended the next day to visit our emergency department. On arrival, his vital signs and physical examination were unremarkable. Pathological Q waves were found in inferior leads and cardiac enzymes were raised (CK-MB/CK: 93.8/919 IU/L, troponin-I: 14.689 ng/ml). Other blood tests were normal. Mild hypokinesia of the inferior wall but preserved left-ventricle functions were shown by echocardiography and ventriculography. Coronary arteriography (CAG) disclosed a dominant right coronary artery (RCA). Although a 70-80% eccentric stenosis was found initially at the proximal RCA, it never recurred when a smaller-sized catheter was changed. No anatomical abnormality was found by CAG.

Barometric pressure and temperature fall with increasing altitude. Arterial oxygen tension and oxyhaemoglobin decrease, pulmonary artery pressure increases, and the sympathetic system is activated.³ The myocardium is stressed from increased oxygen demand and decreased supply. Although various kinds of mountain sickness have been discussed, to our knowledge, acute myocardial infarction in such a young, healthy person at this altitude has not been discussed. Cardiac attach, in addition to acute mountain sickness, should never be forgotten for urban vacationers who can easily reach high altitudes in a short time, with the convenient transportation.

Y C Huang

Department of Emergency Medicine, Chiayi Christian Hospital, Chiayi, Taiwan

I-T Chu

Division of Cardiology, Department of Internal Medicine, Chiayi Christian Hospital

Correspondence to: Y C Huang, 86 Golden Dragon Street, Chiayi, 60069, Taiwan; Galaxy.bear@msa.hinet.net

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Extreme sports—ignore the safety advice at your peril

Extreme sports are more popular and more accessible to adrenaline junkies than ever.

However, having signed up for the next experience of a lifetime, how many participants actually read the health disclaimers? If we read the small print, are we always truthful about our own health?

A 34-year-old pilot presented after dislocating his shoulder at "AirKix™" (www.airkix.com).

The pilot had assumed the freefall position, but very soon his shoulder jerked out of position. Recognising a problem, he signalled to be removed from the simulator and was brought to the emergency department.

During his assessment, it became apparent that he had dislocated his shoulder on two previous occasions, the most recent being 2 years ago.

After an uncomplicated reduction of his right anterior shoulder dislocation, he was discharged.

The literature contains only one letter, published in October 1995, about shoulder injuries associated with skydiving.¹

The health and safety information provided by Airkix™ states contraindications to participation; this includes "You have not previously suffered from a dislocated shoulder".

I contacted the patient to ask whether he had read and signed the health disclaimer. He admitted that he had ignored the contraindication to take part, as he thought his shoulder would be OK. As a professional pilot, he had for many years refused to skydive despite descriptions by friends of a truly fantastic experience. The indoor Airkix skydive seemed a safer alternative.

The patient took part, fully aware of the risks and his own medical history.

I suppose the patient was lucky that the Airkix environment is indoor, well supervised and actually quite safe. A real skydive could have had an altogether different outcome.

So for all those looking for that extra buzz of adrenaline, please remember that the safety restrictions are there for a reason and yes, they do apply to you.

Correspondence to: C Lloyd, Milton Keynes General Hospital, NHS Trust, Eaglestone Standing way, Milton Keynes MK6 5LD, UK; chrislloyd@doctors.org.uk

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Should emergency medical technicians be considered for the role of the emergency care practitioner?

We enjoyed a recent discussion in this journal about the evaluation of the role of the emergency care practitioner (ECP).^{1,2} In the UK, 77% of ECPs are paramedics and most of the remainder are nurses,² although studies report them as a homogeneous group. We also find differences within ECPs interesting, particularly as ECPs in London have also been recruited from emergency medical technicians (EMTs).

In the London pilot, 11 EMTs undertook the same ECP diploma-level education as

paramedic recruits, with EMTs also needing to complete paramedic training before qualifying as ECPs. We examined their performance in the period when they were practising autonomously as ECPs, but before their paramedic training.

Educational performance of EMTs was similar to that of a group of paramedic ECPs matched by operating area and length of time as ECPs—physical assessment average marks 59.8% v 57.3% and clinical decision making average marks by Objective Structured Clinical Examination 59.9% v 60.6% (EMTs v paramedics, respectively).

Practice data for 1086 EMT-ECP and 973 paramedic-ECP-attended patients showed differences in care pathway use, defined as treat and leave (30.8% v 22.5%), treated and referred (11.1% v 12.3%), conveyed, not emergency department (3.5% v 5.8%) and conveyed to the emergency department (54.6% v 59.4%); $\chi^2 = 21.42$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.001$. Without outcome data, the interpretation of findings is limited and the higher treat and leave rate among EMT-ECPs needs further investigation. However, the clinical educational results offer some reassurance about the similarity of competence of EMT-ECPs and paramedic ECPs.

These data raise two issues:

- differences in performance within the ECP group may be important to consider in future studies;
- recruitment from a variety of staff is promoted in the national ambulance review.³ As long as professional registration is embedded in the educational programme, and clinical governance is robust, the possibility of access to the ECP role for EMTs, and potentially for others, is open.

M Halter

Faculty of Health and Social Care Sciences, Kingston University/St George's, University of London, London, UK

T Marlow

London Ambulance Service NHS Trust, London

D Jackson

Faculty of Health and Social Care Sciences, Kingston University/St George's

F Moore

London Ambulance Service NHS Trust

B Postance

Community Services Development, Surbiton, UK

Correspondence to: M Halter, Faculty of Health and Social Care Sciences, Kingston University/St George's, University of London, Cranmer Terrace, London SW17 0RE, UK; mhalter@hscs.sgul.ac.uk

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Transition to the Foundation Programme: does it affect the numbers of patients seen by SHOs?

We read with interest the article by Kilroy and Southward¹ on their experiences of the Foundation Programme. The Mersey Deanery was a pilot site for the Foundation Programme, with the first Foundation Year 2 (FY2) doctors appointed in 2004. Originally our department employed 20 senior house officers (SHOs). In August 2004, half of these became FY2 posts. From August 2004 to July 2005, we maintained a 50:50 split between traditional 6-month posts and 4-month FY2 posts. This gave our department a unique opportunity to study the effect of the transition to the Foundation Programme on workload.

Data were obtained from the hospital information technology system on the number of patients seen by all SHOs during the year. The mean number of patients seen by each set of doctors was compared. Variations over time during the posts were also analysed. Statistical analysis with the unpaired t test was carried out using SPSS V.13.

The department had 80 981 attendances from August 2004 to July 2005, of which 38 416 patients were seen by SHOs. FY2 and 6-month doctors saw 18 928 and 19 488 patients, respectively. At the end of their placements, there were no marked differences between the mean numbers of patients seen by the two types of SHOs. Over the course of the year, FY2 doctors saw a mean of 159 patients per month, whereas 6-month doctors saw 162 patients per month. The stem and leaf plot (fig 1) shows that the means for the number of patients seen are almost identical. Table 1 shows the wide range for the mean number of patients seen during the course of the year, which was greater for those in the 6-month posts. A small number of FY2 doctors saw considerably more patients than their colleagues. No overall differences were identified between the two types of placement. For those doctors in 6-month posts, the numbers of patients seen per month tailed off after 4 months.

Figure 1 Stem and leaf plot of the mean number of patients seen by the type of senior health officer (SHO) placement. FY2, Foundation Year 2; m, months.