

INITIAL ASSESSMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF PEDIATRIC TRAUMA PATIENTS

Abstract

Children's injuries are the main cause of fatalities and disabilities. Over 10,000 children die from accidents every year within the USA, wherein almost one in six children want remedy at the emergency branch (ED). youngsters who have suffered critical accidents want to be taken to a facility this is staffed round-the-clock with the aid of adults professional in caring for youngsters and that has all of the necessary equipment for diagnosing and treating injuries in children. kids aren't simply smaller versions of adults due to anatomical, physiological, and emotional distinctions between them and adults. So that you can lessen the mental consequences of the harm on the child and their circle of relatives/caregivers, facilities accepting injured kids need to be toddler-and own family-pleasant. After acute trauma, the survival charge is drastically accelerated by way of early prognosis and remedy of life-threatening airway blockage, poor breathing, and intra-stomach and intracranial hemorrhage. The same ATLS® collection used for adults is used for the first evaluation and care of the injured teen.

Keywords: Initial assessment, damage, ache, pediatric, number one survey, trauma.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Children and adults have different anatomical, physiological, and psychological structures, which has crucial consequences for how pediatric trauma patients are initially evaluated and treated.

Children's skeletons are supple and their connective tissue is more elastic, safeguarding their closely spaced abdominal and thoracic components. Nearly 50% of children who experience major trauma suffer from multiple system damage as a result of the force of an impact being distributed broadly throughout the body of a child. They have higher hydration and calorie needs because of their increased body surface area to body mass ratio, which makes them more susceptible to heat and insensible fluid loss than adults.

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Following the ATLS® recommendations, a quick and systematic team examination of a hurt kid is crucial. Although not strictly defined, the term "golden hour" refers to an early and crucial stage in the care of trauma victims, when the right management may considerably boost patients' chances of survival. Initial stabilization aims to prevent further organ damage by providing appropriate oxygen delivery, breathing, and fluid resuscitation. Geographical factors and regional regulations have a significant role in the decision of whether to send an injured child to a trauma center or to the nearest facility. The best kind of institution for the treatment of pediatric trauma is a subject of some debate. Osler et al. examined 53,113 kids who were a part of the National Pediatric Trauma Registry.

They discovered that pediatric trauma centers (PTCs) have lower fatality rates for children than adult trauma centers (ATCs). Children admitted to ATCs, however, suffered more serious wounds. They did not discover a difference in mortality after accounting for this. 13,351 kids who were a part of the Pennsylvania Trauma Outcome Study were examined by Potoka et al. They discovered that compared to ATCs, PTCs and ATCs with additional certification to treat children (ATC-AQs) had considerably higher overall survival rates. Patients in this study receiving care at PTCs and ATCs had comparable levels of injury severity. 53,702 children from the National Trauma Data Bank were examined by Oyetunji et al. They discovered that compared to ATCs, mortality was considerably reduced in ATC-AQs.

The primary survey's objective is to identify and treat any conditions that are now posing an immediate threat to life.

The initial examination begins at the scene of the accident and tries to confirm a patent airway, assure appropriate breathing and circulatory support, and determine any significant neurologic impairment.

For both adults and children, the 2010 the Heart Association of America resuscitation guidelines changed from an A-B-C sequence to a C-A-B sequence. This translates into looking for a pulse in the trauma situation and beginning external cardiac compressions if one is not felt, before focusing on the airway.

Priority should be given to controlling major exsanguinating hemorrhage, especially hemorrhage from pelvic fractures, while the airway is being evaluated.

According to a recent analysis, about 22% of cardiac associated with trauma in youngsters. Of the children who needed pre-hospital CPR after suffering trauma, 8.75% made it out of the hospital. 16% of people survived in a different 11-year assessment. Neurologically, half of these survivors were healthy. When they arrived at the trauma hospital, all of the kids who needed continued CPR did not survive.

II. AIRWAY

Measuring the ability of air to enter the lungs unhindered constitutes the examination of the airway. Anywhere between the lips and the carina, the airway can become blocked due to direct trauma, edema, secretions, blood, stomach contents, or foreign things. Due to a loss of the gag reflex, a kid with a depressed level of consciousness (LOC) may not be able to maintain a patent airway or protect the lungs against aspiration of stomach contents.

Inspiratory stridor is the typical symptom of upper airway partial blockage. Complete occlusion of the airways is indicated by respiratory effort without any airflow.

1. Breathing: Assess breathing to ascertain the child's capacity for oxygenation and ventilation. In the event that any of the following symptoms exist, expect respiratory failure:

- An increased respiratory rate, especially when accompanied by signs of distress (such as increased respiratory effort, such as nasal flaring, retractions, seesaw breathing, or grunting); an inadequate respiratory rate, effort, or chest excursion (such as diminished breath sounds or gasping); cyanosis with abnormal breathing despite additional oxygen.
- Inspiratory stridor is the typical symptom of upper airway partial blockage.
- Effortful breathing without airflow implies a closed airway.
- A lack of spontaneous ventilation, absent or asymmetrical breath sounds that suggest a pneumothorax or endotracheal tube (ETT) malposition, hyperresonance or dullness to chest percussion that indicates a tension pneumothorax or hemothorax, respectively, and severe chest wall defects that impair ventilation (such as a flail chest or sucking chest wound) are all critical findings. The interpretation of pulse oximetry measurements should be done with caution.
- Despite maintaining normal O₂ saturations (SpO₂), a child may be in imminent respiratory failure, especially if additional O₂ is being given.

2. Review

- **Circulation**

- **Pulse:** Infants' brachial arteries, up to one year;
- Carotid artery in a child older than one year
- Femoral vein
- Tachycardia is a symptom of worry and panic as well as shock.
- An imminent death indicator is bradycardia.
- In shock, the pulse volume is smaller.

3. **Cavernous Refill:** Count the seconds until reperfusion after 5 seconds of sternum pressure. Normal is up to two seconds.

Early in the course of shock, capillary refill is delayed, but it is also delayed by pain, fever, and external stimuli like cold.

Although sensitive, this non-specific indicator should only be utilized in conjunction with other shock-related symptoms.

4. **Skin tone and temperature:** Skin mottling, pallor, and cyanosis are symptoms of inadequate perfusion, which can be brought on by a sympathetic reaction to decreased cardiac output, as well as to discomfort, fearness cold. Hypertension (high blood pressure) is a late indicator of shock and impending death.

Search for additional indications of inadequate circulation, such as: respiratory difficulty or failure; agitation, confusion, or a drop in consciousness; rapid, deep breathing that could be a sign of metabolic acidosis; and decreased urine output.

5. **Controlling Circulation:**

- Examine the necessity of chest compressions
- Ensure sufficient vascular access
- Collect blood samples
- Evaluate and treat bleeding
- Fluid Reanimation
- Drugs
- Re-assessment

Maintain appropriate saturation monitoring with a cardiac monitor and a finger on the femoral pulse to check the pulse.

Start full cardiopulmonary resuscitation and start chest compressions right away if the pulse is absent or less than 60 and there are no other signs of life.

6. Chest Squeezes baby to one year

Landmark	1 finger-breadth below inter-nipple line.
Technique	Two fingers depth 1/3 of the AP diameter of the chest
Rate	100 per minute

Ratio of compressions to breaths: 5:1



7. Small Child <8 years

Landmark	1 finger-breadth above the xiphisternum
Technique	Heel of one hand - depth 1/3 of the AP diameter of the chest
Rate	100 per minute

Ratio of compressions to breaths 5:1

8. Larger Child: Landmark Two fingers above the xiphisternum Technique Two hands overlaid (as in adults) Rate 100 per minute Ratio of compressions to breaths 15:2

III.ASCERTAIN SUFFICIENT VASCULAR ACCESS

A minimum of two large-bore cannulas. If access cannot be gained in 90 seconds, inserting an intraosseous needle is advised.

If you have experience with advanced vascular access, you might think about putting a largebore, rapidinfusion canula into the internal jugular, subclavian, or femoral where there is significant ongoing blood loss. Veins cut off. Use just if everything else fails. venous access points.

- Long saphenous vein at the ankle
- medial antecubital fossa at the elbow
- Higher up in the upper arm is the cephalic vein
- Use the dorsum of the hand and foot on a newborn when a larger vein cannot be cannulated.

A Size 22G cannula can often be inserted. If there is persistent bleeding or a poor response to the initial fluid bolus, this might not be enough for older children, but it will be for initial volume expansion.

1. **Intra-osseous:** If venous access cannot be obtained in 90 seconds in a child who has established shock, inserting an intra-osseous needle is advised if the procedure is skillful and there is no serious pelvic or intra-abdominal bleeding.
2. **Collect blood samples for the following tests:** FBC, Blood Sugar, and Cross-Match (minimum requirements): Child 4 units Infant 2 units 6 units for a large youngster.

IV. EVALUATE AND TREAT HEMORRHAGE

1. Control Bleeding

- **External:** Evaluation of the blood loss (on the ground, in the clothes, and at the scene). Keep in mind that children's scalps can be a significant source of blood loss. With direct pressure, the majority of children's external hemorrhages can be controlled. Large bandages are less likely to control bleeding than the use of targeted pressure with sparse coverings.

A tourniquet might be useful in cases where direct pressure is unable to control extremities bleeding.

- **Internal:** Surgical intervention may be necessary to reduce chest and abdominal bleeding. Stabilize and splint fractures. A binder to the pelvis may significantly lessen the amount of blood loss that may result from a pelvic fracture. The hemorrhage may be stabilized by wrapping a sheet or towel tightly around the entire pelvis. Where appropriate, later definitive control in the theater.
2. **Fluid Resuscitation:** Check for any indications of circulatory compromise as mentioned above. If present, take into account fluid resuscitation with blood in accordance with your own institution's procedure or the APLS. Obtain a URGENT SURGICAL REVIEW if the initial two fluid boluses did not produce the desired results.

Reevaluate the heart rate, capillary refill, and other circulatory health indicators. Consider whether there is ongoing internal bleeding, tension pneumothorax, hemothorax, or a spinal cord injury (low blood pressure, warm skin, slow heart rate, no limb movement, patulous anus) if the circulatory signs are deteriorating and not responding to a fluid bolus.

Fluids will need to be injected quickly in hypovolemic patients. For small volumes and tiny children, this calls for the use of a 50 ml bolus by syringe; rapid infusion catheters, if accessible; blood pump sets; pressure bags; and blood warmers.

3. **Inotropic Support:** Injured patients typically need volume replacement rather than the administration of inotropes. If you believe your patient needs inotropic assistance, talk with a paediatric critical care physician about your concerns.

- 4. Reassessment following Evaluation:** Repeat the primary survey while keeping an eye on the vital signs, saturation, level of consciousness, and output of the urine.

V. INJURIES TO THE CERVICAL SPINE

Even while only 2% of injured children have spinal cord injuries, a missed injury could have grave effects for the kid and have medical and legal repercussions for the trauma team. Unless otherwise demonstrated by an objective clinical assessment, it is mandatory to assume that all seriously injured children have suffered cervical spine injuries.

Children with traumatic myelopathy who have spinal cord injury without radiological abnormality (SCIWORA) account for 30–40% of all cases. Applying the following five clinical criteria for avoiding cervical spine imaging in pediatric blunt trauma had a sensitivity of 99%, according to the National Emergency X-Radiography Utilization Study: no midline cervical tenderness, no focal neurologic deficit, normal alertness, no intoxication, and no painful, distracting injury.

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VI. DISABILITY

To check for changes in the child's neurologic health, perform a short assessment of neurologic function at the conclusion of the primary survey and repeat it during the secondary survey.

Children who have been harmed may lose consciousness for a variety of reasons, including hypoxia, traumatic brain injury (TBI), and low cerebral perfusion.

The latter two have the potential to aggravate a TBI and cause subsequent brain damage. Children who have been harmed may lose consciousness for a variety of reasons, including hypoxia, traumatic brain injury (TBI), and low cerebral perfusion.

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VII. INTRATHORACIC INJURIES

Blunt trauma accounts for the great majority of significant chest injuries in children. The majority are caused by auto and bicycle accidents.

Significant chest injury doubles the likelihood of multisystem trauma mortality by ten times.

During the initial survey, lifethreatening thoracic injuries such as airway obstruction, tension pneumothorax, large hemothorax, and cardiac tamponade are detected and treated.

VIII. INTERAABDOMINAL ABRUPTIONS

The most frequent unrecognized fatal injury in children is abdominal trauma. More than 50% of children's abdominal injuries result from blunt trauma due to MVCs, which is also the most fatal type. The handlebars of bicycles frequently result in blunt abdominal damage. Compared to adults, children have proportionally larger solid organs, less subcutaneous fat, and weaker abdominal musculature. Both blunt and piercing techniques cause them substantially more solid organ harm than other animals. Children who have suffered substantial trauma make up about one-third of those who have severe intra-peritoneal damage.

During the secondary survey, the child's abdomen is first physically examined. Decompression of the stomach and bladder is necessary, and the torso should be examined for abrasions and contusions.

If there are no distracting injuries and the level of consciousness is not compromised, persistent, gentle probing of the abdomen may reveal substantial soreness.

IX. PAIN EVALUATION

There are many reasons why kids cry, so it's crucial to figure out if they're hurt. The injured child who appears to be in pain most certainly is, as obvious as it may sound. Before beginning treatment, the trauma physician must ascertain the degree, origin, and nature of the pain. To gauge children's pain, a variety of pain assessment instruments are available. For childages 0 to 16 at triage in an ED environment, the Alder Hey Triage Pain Score (AHTPS) was created and validated.

1. Airway management, including stabilization of the C-spine: If the airway is blocked, look inside the mouth for any foreign objects and take them out. Avoid using a blind finger sweep, which could drive the object farther into the airway. Suction is used to remove vomit, fluids, or blood. Perform a jaw push or chin raise to open the airway. Avoid using the head tilt maneuver if the risk of C-spine injury exists. Lifting the soft palate away from the tongue's base may be necessary if the infant is unconscious. Keep in mind that placing an oral airway in a child who is only partially aware could result in gagging and vomiting. Use a non-rebreathing face mask with an oxygen reservoir to administer high-flow oxygen.

A youngster needs assisted ventilation if they are apneic or not exerting themselves enough to breathe. When done correctly, ventilation using a bag-valve-mask (BVM) for a brief length of time is just as efficient as ventilation using an ETT and might even be safer. There was no discernible difference between the BVM group and the ETT group in terms of survival or the likelihood of reaching a positive neurological result in a controlled trial of BVM versus ETT ventilation in an urban pre-hospital scenario.

The emergency department (ED) doctor and/or anesthesiologist shouldn't presume that an airway device that has been inserted before getting to the trauma bay is the right one or that it has been installed properly. The airway devices used by pre-hospital staff should be known to the receiving team as they may not be the same as those used at the hospital. The gold standard for determining lung ventilation is capnography. However,

capnography does not exclude mainstem bronchial intubation. A waveform on the capnograph could also be caused by an ETT that has been knocked loose very next to the vocal cords.

Prior to inducing anesthesia and administering a neuromuscular blocking medication, if intubation is required, a brief evaluation of the airway should be performed. In case of a difficult or unsuccessful intubation, a backup strategy should be in place. There should be an appropriate-sized gum elastic bougie on hand right away. Additionally, keep a video laryngoscope, fiberoptic scope, or LMA Fastrach™ on available.

Particularly in a youngster who has had a head injury, assume that the child's C-spine is hurt until otherwise confirmed. Using a spinal board, cervical collar, towel rolls, or tape can immobilize the C-spine. For intubation, the C-spine must be manually stabilized inline (MILS).

- 2. Management of Breathing, Ventilation and Oxygenation:** It is crucial to evaluate, re-evaluate, and maintain re-evaluating the ABCs for sufficiency for non-intubated patients presenting at the emergency department (ER) until the patient is transported to the final location of treatment (the ICU, floor, or operating room). Even with severe blood loss, pediatric polytrauma sufferers have nearly normal vital signs and can worsen quickly. These kids should receive particular attention while being transported to the CT scanner, while using the CT scanner, and while in the emergency room.

In addition to ensuring that their oxygenation and ventilation are adequate, patients who arrive at the ER intubated should be watched for any complications that may be present or developing, such as barotrauma or endobronchial intubation.

Mild hyperventilation may be required for resistant rises in ICP if the child has a proven or suspected head injury and if ICP is being monitored.

Prophylactic hyperventilation is not advised and may be hazardous because it can result in cerebral ischemia and vasoconstriction.

- 3. Prevention of hypothermia:** In order to avoid hypothermia: Hypothermia should be a concern for all victims of severe trauma. Compared to adults, kids are more likely to get hypothermia. Acidosis, irregular coagulation, and arrhythmias can all result from hypothermia. The latter two together with hypothermia are known as "the triad of death" in individuals with trauma. As part of the primary survey, an initial core temperature measurement should be taken (oral, rectal, or bladder).

It's important to keep the pediatric trauma room in the ED above 80 degrees Fahrenheit. All children should practice passive rewarming, which entails removing damp bedding and clothing and covering them with warm blankets, as well as limiting exposure to diagnostic procedures. A reflective hat should be worn to protect the child's head. Fluid warmers should be used to warm up all IV fluids and blood components. All children with a core temperature of less than 36°C should be given active external rewarming using a convective air blanket (such as the Bair Hugger®).

S.no	Response	Score 0	Score 1	Score 2
1	Cry or voice	No complaint /cry	Consolable	Inconsolable
2	Facial expression	Normal	Short grimace <50 % of time	Long grimace <50 % of time
3	Posture	Normal	Touching/rubbing/sparing	Defensive/tense
4	Movement	Normal	Reduced or restless	Immobile or thrashing
5	Colour	Normal	Pale	Very pale/green

4. Flacc Scale

Categories	Scoring		
	Score -1	Score-2	Score-3
Face	No particular expression or smile; disinterested	Occasional grimace or frown, withdrawn	Frequent to constant frown
Legs	No position or relaxed	Uneasy,restless, tense	Kicking, or legs drawn up
Activity	Lying quietly, normal position, moves easily	Squirming, shifting back and forth	Arched, rigid or jerking
Cry	No crying	Moans or whimpers	Crying steadily, screams or sobs
Consolability	relaxed	Reassurance by occasional touching, hugging	Difficult to console or comfort.

X. PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT FOR THE CHILD AND FAMILY

Some children's memories of incidents involving accidents, injuries, physical abuse, or hospitalization may be permanently altered.

While some people are able to get over their trauma and move on, others as well as their families—might benefit from psychosocial support and intervention.

To assist patients and their families in coping with the impacts of a traumatic experience, medical facilities that treat traumatized children should have a multidisciplinary team made up of social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, and other professionals.

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