

Recent Advances In Policies Of Analgesia & Sedation In The ICU

Essay

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قَالُوا سُبْحَانَكَ
لَا عِلْمَ لَنَا
إِلَّا مَا عَلَّمْتَنَا
إِنَّكَ أَنْتَ
الْعَلِيمُ الْحَكِيمُ

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الجديد فى سياسات الأدوية المسكنة والمهدئة بوحدفة العنافة المركزة

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List of Abbreviations

| | |
|----------------|---|
| ADS | Analgesia-Delirium-Sedation |
| AMPA | α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionate |
| APA | American Psychiatric Association's |
| APOE | Apo lipoprotein E |
| ATICE | Adaptation to the Intensive Care Environment |
| BIS | Bispectral index |
| BPS | Behavioral Pain Scale |
| CAM | Complementary and Alternative Medicine |
| CAM-ICU | Confusion Assessment Method for the ICU |
| CGRP | Calcitonin gene-related peptide |
| COX-2 | Cyclooxygenase-2 |
| CPOT | Critical-care Pain Observation Tool |
| CTD | Cognitive Test for Delirium |
| DDS | Delirium Detection Score |
| DEA | Drug Enforcement Agency |
| DIS | Daily interruption of sedation |
| DNICs | Diffuse noxious inhibitory controls |
| DOR | Delta opioid receptors |
| DREAM | Downstream regulatory element antagonistic modulator |
| DSM | Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders |
| EEG | Electroencephalography |
| EMG | Electromyography |
| FLACC | Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, Consolability |
| GABA | Gamma-aminobutyric acid |
| H3G | Hydromorphone-3-glucuronide |
| ICDSC | Intensive Care Delirium Screening Checklist |
| KOR | Kappa opioid receptors |
| LAT1 | Amino acid transporter type 1 |
| M3G | Morphine-3 glucuronide |
| M6G | Morphine-6 glucuronide |
| MAAS | Motor Activity Assessment Scale Medicine |
| MOR | Morphine opioid receptors |
| MSAT | Minnesota Sedation Assessment Tool |
| NCCAM: | National Center for Complementary and Alternative |
| NMDA | N-methyl-d aspartate |
| NPS | Numeric Pain Scale |
| NSAIDs | Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs |
| Nu-DESC | Nursing Delirium Screening Scale |

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|--------------|---|
| NVPS | Nonverbal Pain Scale |
| OAA/S | Observer's Assessment of Alertness/Sedation Scale |
| ORL-1 | Opioid-receptor-like |
| PAD | Pain, Agitation and Delirium |
| PAIN | Pain Assessment and Intervention Notation |
| PBAT | Pain Behavior Assessment Tool |
| PDYN | Pro-dynorphin |
| PENK | Proenkephalin |
| POMC | Pro-opiomelanocortin |
| PRIS | Propofol infusion syndrome |
| PTSD | post-traumatic stress disorder |
| RASS | Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale |
| RSS | Ramsay Sedation Scale |
| SAS | Sedation Agitation Scale |
| SCCM | Society of Critical Care Medicine |
| SEDIC | Sedation Intensive Care Score |
| SSRI | Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor |
| TCAs | Tri-Cyclic Antidepressants |
| VICS | Vancouver Interaction and Calmness Scale |

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INTRODUCTION

Pain, agitation and delirium (PAD) are commonly observed in critically ill patients. In addition to being unpleasant and often disturbing to the patient, these symptoms can lead to increased endogenous catecholamine activity, oxygen consumption, hypermetabolism and immune suppression (*Epstein and Breslow, 1999*).

Unfortunately, the majority of patients at medical and surgical intensive care units (ICUs) experience significant pain during their ICU stay, both at rest and associated with movement and procedures (*Ma et al., 2010*).

Significant pain leads to sleep deprivation, exacerbates delirium and agitation and is the most common unpleasant recollection of patients' ICU stays. It is also associated with higher incidence of posttraumatic stress disorder in ICU survivors (*Granja et al., 2008*).

Delirium occurs in up to 80% of ICU patients and is frequently underdiagnosed. ICU delirium is associated with longer durations of mechanical ventilation and lengths of ICU stay, and an increased risk of disability, long-term cognitive dysfunction and death in these patients (*Brummel et al., 2014*).

Agitation and anxiety occur frequently in critically ill patients and are associated with adverse clinical outcomes. Sedatives are commonly administered to ICU

patients to treat agitation and its negative consequences. Prompt identification and treatment of possible underlying causes of agitation, such as pain, delirium, hypoxemia, hypoglycemia, hypotension, or withdrawal from alcohol and other drugs, are important. Efforts to reduce anxiety and agitation, including maintenance of patient comfort, provision of adequate analgesia, frequent reorientation and optimization of the environment to maintain normal sleep patterns, should be attempted before administering sedatives (*Cohen et al., 2006*).

Analgesic and sedative medications are frequently administered to critically ill patients to treat PAD, to improve synchrony with mechanical ventilation, and to decrease the physiological stress response. However, prolonged, continuous deep sedation of ICU patients is associated with numerous adverse outcomes, including longer durations of mechanical ventilation, prolonged ICU stays, acute brain dysfunction (delirium and coma), and increased risk of death and worse cognitive outcomes. Implementing effective strategies to optimize pain management, reduce sedative exposure and to prevent and treat delirium in ICU patients can lead to significant improvements in ICU and long-term clinical outcomes in these patients (*Jackson and Ely, 2013*).

AIMOFTHEWORK

The aim of the work is to discuss the current concepts in pathophysiology of pain and delirium, evaluation of pain and delirium, pharmacology of analgesia and sedation, treatment options in managing pain in end of life **and** sedation and analgesia drug withdrawal and long term psychological outcome.

Chapter(1):

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF PAIN AND DELIRIUM

A- Pathophysiology of pain:

Definition:

Pain is an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage, or described in terms of such damage (*Merskey et al., 2011*).

Pain categories:

1. Somatogenic pain is pain with cause (usually known) localised in the body tissue that can be classified on pathophysiological base into:
 - a. Nociceptive pain: 1-somatic 2-visceral 3-referred
 - b. Neuropathic pain: 1-central 2-peripheral (**Table 1-1**).
2. Psychogenic pain is pain for which there is no known physical cause but the pain itself is predominantly sustained by psychological factors (*Frances et al., 2000*).

Table (1-1): Differences between nociceptive and neuropathic pain modified from (*Serra, 2006*).

| | Nociceptive | Neuropathic |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| Definition | Pain caused by physiological activation of pain receptors | Pain caused by lesion or dysfunction of the somatosensory system, especially the nociceptive pathway |
| Mechanism | Natural physiological transduction | Ectopic impulse generation, among others |
| Localization | Local +referred pain | Confined to innervation territory of the lesioned nervous structure |
| Quality of symptoms | Ordinary painful sensation (good verbal descriptors) | New strange sensations (poor verbal descriptors) |

Terminology of Pain:

- **Hypersensitivity:** increased sensitivity of the system involved in the pain processing.
- **Hyperesthesia and hypoesthesia:** increase or decrease, respectively, in sensitivity to non-noxious stimuli.
- **Paraesthesia:** abnormal nonpainful sensation.