What to do about psychological distress in emergency department senior house officers? The article by McPherson et al. generates some interesting questions concerning disproportionately high levels of psychological distress among emergency department senior house officers (SHOs). The combination of shift work, a challenging working environment, and a demanding workload likely contribute to the distress levels. SHOs are responsible for the care of patients in emergency departments, which can be stressful and demanding. The high levels of distress among SHOs may be due to the intensity of their workload, the stress of making life and death decisions, and the lack of support and recognition they receive.

The article suggests that SHOs are often not aware of their potential vulnerability to psychological distress and that they may not seek support due to fear of being stigmatised or feeling unable to cope. The authors propose a number of strategies to reduce psychological distress among SHOs, including regular assessment of their mental health, access to support services, and recognition of the importance of self-care.

McPherson et al. also highlight the importance of creating a supportive working environment that recognises the challenges faced by SHOs and provides adequate support. This may involve regular meetings with supervisors to discuss any concerns, access to psychological support services, and provision of training to help SHOs recognise and manage stress.

In conclusion, the article by McPherson et al. raises important questions about the psychological distress experienced by SHOs and suggests strategies to reduce this distress. Further research is needed to understand the factors contributing to the high levels of distress and to develop effective interventions to support SHOs.

Aetiology of cerebral oedema in diabetic ketoacidosis The excellent evidence based review of the emergency management of diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) in adults by Hardern and Quinn perpetuates the premise that “unnecessarily large volumes of intravenous fluids should be avoided because of the high case fatality rate of cerebral oedema”. This presupposes that the rate of fluid delivery is causally related to the development of cerebral oedema, which has not been proved. The large retrospective study of 15 year paediatric DKA patients in the USA that analysed 6977 hospitalisations for DKA found among the 61 cases of cerebral oedema (0.9%) that after multiple logistic-regression analysis with random and matched controls, the only variables statistically associated with cerebral oedema were higher initial serum urea nitrogen concentrations and lower partial pressures of carbon dioxide at presentation. In addition, smaller increases in serum sodium concentration during treatment and the use of bicarbonate were also implicated. Importantly, the rate of fluid, sodium, and insulin administration were not associated with the development of cerebral oedema, nor was the initial serum glucose or its rate of change.

Clearly these findings relate to patients aged 18 years or less but most occurrences of cerebral oedema in DKA are in children and adolescents, with only rare cases in adults. However, the underlying aetiology should be no different. One unifying hypothesis is that although cerebral oedema is related to cerebral vasosconstriction, brain ischaemia, and hypoxia, as hypcapnoea causing cerebral vasoconstriction and extreme dehydration would both decrease cerebral perfusion. In addition, as children's brains have higher oxygen requirements than adults this may explain their unique susceptibility.

Perhaps clinicians should focus more on recognising the warning signs of cerebral oedema such as headache, lethargy, and deterioration in conscious level, prior to seizures, incontinence, pupillary changes, bradycardia, and respiratory arrest as brain stem herniation occurs. Early hyperosmolar treatment and presumably supplemental oxygen with exemplary supportive care would both decrease cerebral perfusion. In addition, as children’s brains have higher oxygen requirements than adults this may explain their unique susceptibility.

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References

The hidden dangers of dietary supplements With increasing health awareness, many parents give children dietary supplements. Getting children to take tablets is difficult therefore manufacturers have produced supplements in “novelty” shapes, for example cartoon characters.

In our emergency department there have been two cases to date of children presenting with accidental overdoses of vitamin and iron supplements. The toddlers, aged 2 and 3, had taken 20 and 15 tablets respectively. The children had thought that the supplements were sweets and indulged themselves. Both were admitted and blood serum iron concentrations taken. Fortunately, neither child needed further treatment, both making an uneventful recovery.

Severity of iron ingestion depends on the total elemental iron taken. Preparations are available incorporating iron in a number of different compounds. Ferrous sulphate contains 20% elemental iron, ferrous fumarate 33%, and ferrous gluconate 12%. To calculate the total elemental iron ingested, the iron content of 6 and 12 mg. For a typical 3 year old therefore, ingestion of less than 25 tablets may result in toxicity requiring treatment; 70 tablets potential fatality.

From 12 March 1998 to 31 December 2001, there were 90 product accesses to combined iron and multivitamin tablets on Toxbase, 12 of which were from Northern Ireland (Scottish Poisons Information Bureau, The Royal Infirmary, Edinburgh, personal correspondence April, 2002; NHS National Poisons Information Service, Edinburgh Centre, Personal correspondence Feb, 2002).

Products of this type are licensed as food supplements, not as a medicine, as they do not purport any medicinal claim. The quality of the product is governed by the Food Standards Agency. Children are legally permitted to purchase the product. Carefully worded packaging and increased consumer awareness is necessary to prevent a fatality.

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Aetiology of cerebral oedema in diabetic ketoacidosis The excellent evidence based review of the emergency management of diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA) in adults by Hardern and Quinn perpetuates the premise that “unnecessarily large volumes of intravenous fluids should be avoided because of the high case fatality rate of cerebral oedema”. This presupposes that the rate of fluid delivery is causally related to the development of cerebral oedema, which has not been proved. The large retrospective study of 15 year paediatric DKA patients in the USA that analysed 6977 hospitalisations for DKA found among the 61 cases of cerebral oedema (0.9%) that after multiple logistic-regression analysis with random and matched controls, the only variables statistically associated with cerebral oedema were higher initial serum urea nitrogen concentrations and lower partial pressures of carbon dioxide at presentation. In addition, smaller increases in serum sodium concentration during treatment and the use of bicarbonate were also implicated. Importantly, the rate of fluid, sodium, and insulin administration were not associated with the development of cerebral oedema, nor was the initial serum glucose or its rate of change.

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Glucagon use in symptomatic β blocker overdose

I was interested to read the best BET “Glucagon for the treatment of symptomatic β blocker overdose” by Boyd and Ghosh. As the authors recognised, the six studies tabulated were of mixed overdose or had the authors recognised, the six studies tabulated were of mixed overdose or had the search strategy included individual drug names (for example, propranolol, atenolol) more relevant papers would have been found, including two cases of pure β blocker overdose successfully treated with glucagon alone. The evidence for glucagon in treating symptomatic β blocker overdose will probably never reach a higher level than case reports. This is true of most “antidotes” because of ethical constraints on toxicology studies. Glucagon, however, has been shown to be effective in treating symptomatic β blocker overdose in various controlled animal studies.

About 20 deaths per year in the UK are attributed to β blocker overdose. The authors state that glucagon is expensive. It is true that large doses may be required and that this may outstrip hospital supplies. However, at an initial dose of 5–10 mg (100 μg/kg) intravenously at £19.95/mg, the cost compares favourably with thrombolysis as a potential lifesaving intervention. Atropine has been shown to be spectacularly ineffective in this setting and alternatives such as β agonists, phospho-diesterase inhibitors, insulin-euglycaemia, and pacing have significantly more associated complications than glucagon without improving outcome.

Glucagon treatment for symptomatic β blocker overdose should not yet be discarded on grounds of cost or lack of evidence.

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References

Contact lenses can compromise the corneal epithelium and act as pathogenic vectors, facilitating the development of bacterial keratitis. Most corneal abrasions heal quickly when treated with topical antibiotics, which act as lubricants and antimicrobial agents. However, in contact lens wearers there may be rapid progression to corneal scarring or even perforation.

Two patients with contact lens related corneal abrasions, who were initially treated with topical fusidic acid or chloramphenicol, have presented with corneal stromal abscesses. The abscesses developed 12 hours and three days respectively after diagnosis of simple corneal abrasion. Visual acuity was perception of light and hand movements. Both required admission for intensive topical fortified gentamicin and gatifloxacin.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Proteus species were grown, which were resistant to chloramphenicol and fusidic acid. Best corrected visual acuity were 2/60. The hospitalization of the infections; one patient has proceeded to corneal grafting. A 15 year study of resistance in bacterial isolates from corneal scrapings found that 30% of isolates were resistant to chloramphenicol (54% of Gram negative organisms), with a significant increase in resistance during this period. Once microbial keratitis is established, a combination of topical fortified aminoglycoside and cephalosporin or fluoroquinolone is indicated; no trend for increasing resistance to these antibiotics was observed in the aforementioned study.

Contact lenses are the most important risk factor for the development of bacterial keratitis. In the emergency department, a history of contact lens wear should be sought, with urgent review of worsening abrasions. We advise that all contact lens related red eyes should be referred to the ophthalmology department, as clinical signs may initially be subtle and corneal scraping may be warranted. Time of commencement of gatifloxacins with the first sign of infection, may greatly reduce the chance of poor outcome.

Contributors
Shane Quinn treated the second patient, reviewed the literature and wrote the paper. Jeffrey Kwartz treated both patients and contributed to the discussion of core ideas. He was the supervisor and is the guarantor.

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References

Radiology for anaesthesia and intensive care

This book is clearly aimed at anaesthetists preparing to sit the FRCA examination. Any doubt regarding this is quickly dispelled by the two chapters that follow the introduction: “About the FRCA Examination” and “The Pre-Operative Assessment”. Hardly surprising, therefore, that it is of limited relevance to emergency medicine.

Each of the book’s seven main chapters begins with a general introduction to set the scene and introduce underlying concepts, before moving on to a series of realistic “case illustrations”, in question and answer format, accompanied by an explanation and additional background information. This is a clear and effective layout, but because the whole case is often presented on a single page it is sometimes a little too easy to read the answer before the question, or perhaps I’m just a natural cheat.

There are, however, some useful sections. I found the chapter on imaging the chest, particularly in relation to chest radiological interpretation, interesting and educational, but the abdominal section was too heavily weighted towards computed tomography and contrast studies to be of substantial use.

A sizeable section of the book is dedicated to trauma radiology, but while the chapter on the cervical spine is informative and up to date, that on chest and abdominal trauma covers management at a basic level, with little imaging of interest.

As emergency physicians take on a greater role in the management of head injury, and computed tomography becomes more widely available, I find myself interpreting more and more head scans. For this reason, I thought that the chapter on computed tomography of the head was probably the best in the book. It makes a good introduction to those who are approaching this subject for the first time, and has some excellent scans, clearly described with useful clinical detail. There is also a short final chapter on ultrasound in intensive care units, which overlaps considerably with the recent development of “FAST” scanning in the emergency department. I am doubtful, however, that a textbook can teach more than the basic principles underlying such an essentially dynamic skill. For those about to sit the MFAEM or FFEM exams there is some useful information in this book, but probably not sufficient to justify the purchase price. The two major problems are the inevitable anaesthetic slant, and the limitations of the medium itself. This anaesthetic slant is constantly manifest in the presentation of cases that are particularly relevant to anaesthesia (lots of skin and bowel sections, for example), followed by questions such as “are there any precautions necessary prior to anaesthesia?” Some might argue that with the increasing performance of intubation by emergency physicians these questions are now becoming more relevant, but on the other hand detailed imaging is a rare luxury before rapid sequence induction in our departments.
The limitations of the medium are inherent to all books that profess to teach radiology: particularly in an A5 format large radiographs are reduced to small pictures in which the detail is lost. This may be one of the reasons why the section on head computed tomography is so effective: the pictures are about the same size as the original films. For me, however, there is no substitute for handling and examining the real thing. Until digital radiology finally arrives in the south west of England, that is.

J R Benger

Sudden death and the myth of CPR

Most emergency physicians will sometimes recognise a feeling of futility during cardio-pulmonary resuscitation (CPR)—the algorithm is followed despite the fact that most of those present know the attempt is doomed to failure, or frankly inappropriate.

Stefan Timmermans is a Belgian healthcare sociologist who spent time in American emergency departments observing the rituals surrounding CPR. His book questions the notion of CPR for all, and the over-optimistic programmes of survival from out of hospital cardiac arrest that is portrayed in the media, and by some medical authorities. The book describes the attitudes and feelings of doctors, nurses, and paramedics, their definitions of good and bad resuscitation attempts, and the way in which they feel constrained by guidelines and lawyers.

The chapters are wide ranging and include the evolution of resuscitation techniques, death awareness, and what constitutes a “good” death, as well as discussion on advance directives and the presence of relatives during resuscitation attempts. The author divides resuscitation attempts into four distinct cases or trajectories, which he is familiar to all practising emergency physicians: the legal death trajectory, where resuscitation is performed mainly as a legal matter; the elite death trajectory where the victim is presumed to have high social viability and receives aggressive resuscitation irrespective of clinical viability (for example, the young); the temporary stabilization trajectory, in which the patient is resuscitated despite the fact that the short term prognosis is poor; and the stabilization trajectory, in which prompt resuscitation leads to a better outcome.

The book is written from a sociologist’s perspective, and therefore does not aim to provide answers—just observations. Yet despite the North American setting, it raises questions that are highly applicable to UK practice, and this book should be required reading for all ALS providers.

J E France

Handbook of paediatric emergency medicine

Upwards of two million children will attend accident and emergency departments in the United Kingdom every year. Many thousands more will attend general practice for advice or treatment after acute illness or injury. Large numbers of practitioners in many different settings therefore need to be prepared to deal with children with a variety of urgent and emergency conditions. As an old Chinese proverb states “Small children do not pretend to be sick”. The problem is that the vast majority of children have minor to moderate illness, much of which is self limiting. Indeed many of the injured children require little more than symptomatic relief and general supportive care.

The problem therefore is identifying the wheat from the chaff. In other words, how does one identify the critically ill child, or the child who is breathing something serious? Age and experience help. Certainly knowledge is useful. More often the wisdom of Solomon is required. There is no doubt that experience brings greater wisdom, and with it ability to deal with children effectively. I suppose that is really what I like about this book. The authors have brought their collective experience and wisdom, gathered over the years (I am not brave enough to state how many, but I know it is considerable!) to produce an extremely readable text that is well laid out and well presented. The salient features are highlighted in boxes and the use of diagrams is good. I personally would have liked to have seen more radiographs and clinical pictures, but then again this may not be the purpose of a handbook. This may best be left to a colour atlas, or better still actual clinical practice. Computed tomograms of the head are poorly produced and this is again disappointing.

This book covers virtually all the salient features of paediatric emergency medicine. There are no glaring omissions, although one always has pet subjects one would wish to see incorporated. It would be churlish to let these personal idiosyncrasies detract from the overall good feel I have for this text.

There is no doubt that this book will provide useful reading at all levels of experience. Reading it and being familiar with the contents will bring greater knowledge. Wisdom, I’m afraid will have to come with time. The only major problem with this book is that it is a bulky, heavy hardback. As such it won’t fit into a pocket conveniently and may well end up on the shelf. By being left on the shelf it runs the risk of being ignored and this, I think, would be a tragedy.

Martin Luther King would be proud of this effort.

T Beatlie

Core cases in critical care

In 230 pages and a few monochrome illustrations this paperback covers the top 20 clinical problems in a stockpile of case sets for every intensive care unit. The authorship is a reassuring collection of UK intensivists, a who’s who of the Intensive Care Society. I liked the standardised format; case histories are tales in testimonial form with reference to pathophysiology, treatment options, and outcome. A panel of key learning points rounds off each chapter, and the recommended further reading is appropriate and proportionate.

A number of the cases bear upon emergency care and many are set in the resuscitation room. The importance of securing the ABCs is emphasised before discussion of theoretical concepts, not always the case in books of this sort. This reflects the interests of the authors, many of whom are active in education at the interface between intensive care and emergency medicine. Relevant cases include burns, trauma, and overdose, but pyrexia is included uncomfortably in the chapter on status epilepticus. The chapters are up to date; the roles of inhaled nitric oxide and prostacyclin is now incorporated. And there is a review of the evidence on non-invasive ventilation in COPD. Activated protein C is (to this reviewer at least) a very new treatment in septic shock, and its brief account is testimony to the book’s contemporariness. The Swan Ganz catheter is placed in its correct context, alongside alternatives including the pulse induced continuous cardiac output monitor. I was also reassured to see the role of corticosteroids set out in accordance with current thinking on the treatment of sepsis.

This reviewer has an aversion to diagrammatic representation of pulmonary physiology, lung capacities, closing volumes, and zones of perfusion. The authors avoid such esoteric concepts, and there is no assumption of knowledge of molecular biology in the chapter on sepsis and multiple organ failure. Cardiac care is the major omission from what is otherwise a reasonably broad based content.

Trainees in intensive care medicine from all parent specialties will find this a useful and accessible resource. It sets out to present a consensus approach to common clinical problems, and is not a comprehensive textbook. For any specialist registrar about to start a secondment in the ICU this little book would be a good investment.

P Nee