

National Registry of Emergency Medical Technicians® THE NATION'S EMS CERTIFICATION

National Continued Competency Program: EMT and Paramedic Education Curriculum Objectives

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Contents

- Day 1 EMR/EMT/Paramedic Objectives and Content
- Day 2 EMR/EMT/Paramedic Objectives and Content
- Day 3 EMT/Paramedic Objectives and Content
- Day 4 Paramedic Objectives and Content



Required for EMR/EMT/Paramedic

NCCR Topic	 AFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS Professionalism Cultural competency Changing demographics
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Appreciate the current issues with disparities in health care in specific populations Advocate for improved care in different cultural contexts Recognize and exhibit professional behaviors in the 11 characteristic identified in the National EMS Education Standards
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Professionalism The examples of professional behaviors that are provided below are not all-inclusive and may be modified to meet local standards. Integrity Consistently honest Able to be trusted with the property of others Can be trusted with confidential information Complete and accurate documentation of patient care Empathy Showing compassion for others Responding appropriately to the emotional response of patients and family members Demonstrating respect for others Demonstrating a calm, Compassionate, and Helpful demeanor toward those in need Being supportive and reassuring to others

Self-Motivation

- Taking initiative to complete assignments
- Taking initiative to improve and/or correct behavior
- Taking on and following through on tasks without constant supervision
- Showing enthusiasm for learning and improvement
- consistently striving for excellence in all aspects of patient care and professional activities
- Accepting constructive feedback in a positive manner
- Taking advantage of learning opportunities

Appearance and Personal Hygiene

- Clothing and uniform is appropriate, neat, clean and well maintained
- Good personal hygiene and grooming

Self-Confidence

- Demonstrating the ability to trust personal judgment
- Demonstrating an awareness of strengths and limitations
- Exercises good personal judgment

Communications

- Speaking clearly
- Writing legibly
- Listening actively
- Adjusting communication strategies to various situations

Time Management

- Consistent punctuality
- Completing tasks and assignments on time

Teamwork and Diplomacy

- Placing the success of the team above self-interest
- Not undermining the team
- Helping and supporting other team members
- Showing respect for all team members
- Remaining flexible and open to change
- Communicating with others to resolve problems

Respect

- Being polite to others; not using derogatory or demeaning terms
- Behaving in a manner that brings credit to the profession

Patient Advocacy

- Not allowing personal bias or feelings to interfere with patient care
- Placing the needs of patients above self-interest
- Protecting and respecting patient confidentiality and dignity

Careful Delivery of Service

- Mastering and refreshing skills
- Performing complete equipment checks
- Demonstrating careful and safe ambulance operations
- Following policies, procedures, and protocols

Cultural Competency

• Health care disparities

http://www.iom.edu/~/media/Files/Report%20Files/2001/Crossing-the-Quality-Chasm/Quality%20Chasm%202001%20%20report%20brief.pdf

The Institute of Medicine has identified the following groups as priority patients

- Low income
- Minority
- Women
- Children
- Elderly
- Individuals with special health care needs, including individuals with disabilities and individuals who need chronic care or end-of-life care

 AFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS Professionalism Cultural competency
Adult and pediatric
Paramedic
Review National EMS Education Standards
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Cultural Competency

Have each student complete the Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity worksheet (APPENDIX 1) before beginning this topic.

Culture is "the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, actions, customs, beliefs, values, and institutions of a racial, ethnic, religious, or social group."¹

It is important for EMS providers to be aware of and competent with the culturally diverse patients they may encounter in their local area.

The Institute of Medicine has identified the following groups as priority patients:

- Low income groups
- Minority groups—i.e., racial (Federally recognized racial categories are: American Indian or Alaska Native; Asian; Black or African American; Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander; and White) and ethnic (Federally recognized ethnic categories are: Hispanic or Latino, or not Hispanic or Latino)
- Women
- Children
- Elderly
- Individuals with special health care needs, including individuals with disabilities and individuals who need chronic care or end-of-life care

http://www.iom.edu/~/media/Files/Report%20Files/2001/Crossing-the-Quality-Chasm/Quality%20Chasm%202001%20%20report%20brief.pdf

1. Cross, T., Bazron, B., Dennis, K., & Isaacs, M., as cited in U.S. Department of Human Services, Office of Minority Health. (2001). *National standards for culturally and linguistically appropriate services in health care*. Final report. Retrieved 2/8/13

See Appendix for Lab Skills Activities Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

NCCR Topic	 COMMUNICABLE DISEASES Hygiene (hand washing, etc.) Vaccines Antibiotic resistant infections Influenza Public health – epidemics, pandemics, reporting, etc. Systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) vs. Sepsis vs. Septic shock Fluid resuscitation
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
1	Review CDC recommendations
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	 Understand proper hand washing technique Identify appropriate use of alcohol-based hand cleaner Discuss the CDC's recommendations of vaccines for healthcare providers Describe the risks and prevalence of drug resistant infections Understand the transmission of influenza virus Discuss the role of the EMS provider in disease and injury surveillance and reporting Distinguish between an epidemic and pandemic Distinguish between SIRS, sepsis and septic shock
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Hand washing using soap and water When to wash your hands Before and after patient contact Before eating After cleaning the ambulance or equipment After using the toilet After blowing your nose, coughing or sneezing
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CDC Recommendations

- Remove all jewelry
- Wet your hands with clean running water, and apply soap
- Be sure to scrub the back of your hands, and clean underneath your fingernails
- Continue rubbing your hands for at least 20 seconds
- Rinse your hands well under running water
- Dry your hands using a clean towel or air dry

Alcohol-based hand cleaner

Washing hands with soap and water is the best way to reduce the number of germs on them. If soap and water are not available, use an alcohol-based hand sanitizer that contains at least 60% alcohol. Alcohol-based hand sanitizers can quickly reduce the number of germs on hands in some situations, but sanitizers do **not** eliminate all types of germs.

Alcohol-based hand sanitizers do not kill viruses, but create an inhospitable environment for viruses to live.

Hand sanitizers are not effective when hands are visibly dirty. When your hands are visibly dirty, use soap and water.

How to use alcohol-based hand sanitizers

- Apply the product to the palm of one hand
- Rub your hands together
- Rub the product over all surfaces of your hands and fingers until your hands are dry
- When soap and water become available, wash your hands

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Vaccines available to healthcare provider

Vaccines are an effective means to help prevent the transmission of certain diseases. Some vaccines are attenuated (weakened or killed) viruses, and some vaccines mimic certain diseases to produce antibodies in the blood. Other vaccines provide the antibodies directly.

The instructor should review and discuss the CDC's current vaccine recommendations on vaccines for the health care provider. (http://www.cdc.gov/vaccines/hcp.htm)

Some vaccines that are recommended for the health care provider include (but are not limited to)

- Hepatitis
- Influenza
- MMR (measles, mumps and rubella)
- Varicella
- Pneumococcal
- Pertussis

Antibiotic resistant infections

People infected with drug-resistant organisms are more likely to have longer and more expensive hospital stays, and may be more likely to die as a result of the infection. When the drug of choice for treating their infection doesn't work, they require treatment with second- or thirdchoice drugs that may be less effective, more toxic, and more expensive. This means that patients with an antimicrobial-resistant infection may suffer more and pay more for treatment.

Antimicrobial drug resistance occurs everywhere in the world and is not limited to industrialized nations. Hospitals and other healthcare settings are battling drug-resistant organisms that spread inside these institutions. Drug-resistant infections also spread in the community at large. Patients with open skin wounds, those that have had recent surgery, or have undergone invasive procedures (e.g. PICC lines, IVs, or other in-dwelling catheters) are more likely to contract an antibiotic resistant infection.

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Some common antibiotic resistant infections that the EMS provider will come into contact with are:

- MRSA
- VRE
- VRSA

Influenza

According to the CDC

- Influenza viruses
- spread from person to person
 - Primarily through large-particle respiratory droplet transmission
 - Requires close contact between source and recipient persons
 - Contact with respiratory-droplet contaminated surfaces is another possible source of transmission
 - Airborne transmission via small-particle residue of evaporated droplets that might remain suspended in the air for long periods of time is thought to be possible
- Typical incubation period for influenza is 1-4 days (average: 2 days)
- Adults are contagious from the day before symptoms begin through 5-10 days after onset
- Young children also might be contagious several days before illness onset, and can be infectious for 10 or more days after onset of symptoms
- Severely immunocompromised persons can shed virus for weeks or months

It is estimated that the influenza vaccine is approximately 60% effective. There are many strains of influenza that occur seasonally. The influenza viruses in the seasonal flu vaccine are selected each year based on surveillance-based forecasts about what viruses are most likely to cause illness in the coming season. The seasonal flu vaccine is a trivalent vaccine (a three component vaccine) with each component selected to protect against one of the three main groups of influenza viruses circulating in humans.

Public Health

Epidemic – The occurrence in a community of cases of an illness, specific health related behavior, or other health related events clearly in excess of normal expectancy

Pandemic – A worldwide epidemic

Disease and Injury Surveillance (EMS providers are in a unique position)

- First contact
- Notice trends
- Common symptomatic presentations
- Geographical area

Reporting

- Know who to contact in your system
- Policy/Parameters for what/when to report
- Centralized reporting
 - o Help identify local/state/national trends in disease and injury
 - o Data needs to be aggregated

SIRS, Sepsis and Septic Shock

Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS) - Presence of two or more of the following:

- Temperature less than 97°F or greater than 100.4°F
- Heart rate greater than 90/minute
- Respiratory rate greater than 20/minute

Sepsis – SIRS with a suspected or proven infection

Septic Shock – Sepsis with refractory hypotension or signs of hypoperfusion despite adequate fluid resuscitation

- End organ dysfunction
- Oliguria
- Altered mental status

Patients are considered to have septic shock if they have sepsis plus hypotension after aggressive fluid resuscitation (up to 40mL/kg).

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NCCR Topic	 FIELD TRIAGE MUCC (Model Uniform Core Criteria) CDC Field Triage Decision Scheme SALT (Sort, Assess, Lifesaving Interventions, Treatment/Transport)
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review CDC Trauma Triage Decision Scheme
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize the impact that MUCC had on the development of the CDC Field Triage Decision Scheme and SALT Identify the triage criteria in the CDC's Field Triage Decision Scheme Compare and contrast your local trauma triage practices and the CDC's Field Triage Decision Scheme Triage patients using the SALT algorithm in a simulated multiple casualty scenario
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 MUCC (Model Uniform Core Criteria) A science and consensus-based national guideline that recommends 24 core criteria for all mass casualty triage systems. Used as the basis for CDC Field Triage Decision scheme and SALT (Sort, Assess, Lifesaving Interventions, Treatment/Transport) http://www.ems.gov/pdf/2011/December/10-MUCC_Options_Paper_Final.pdf CDC Field Triage Decision Scheme
	http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/rr/rr6101.pdf
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SALT Triage

Construct a mock MCI with either simulated patients or note cards, and have each student practice triaging patients with the SALT tool.

http://www.naemsp.org/PublishingImages/SALT%20Mass%20Casualty %20Triage_Final.jpg

If time permits, have groups of students evaluate the local MCI protocol for MUCC compliance. Otherwise, the instructor should demonstrate the evaluation of the local MCI protocol for MUCC compliance.

NCCR Topic	 FIELD TRIAGE MUCC (Model Uniform Core Criteria) CDC Field Triage Decision Scheme SALT (Sort, Assess, Lifesaving Interventions, Treatment/Transport)
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Provider Level	Paramedic
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Patient Group Provider Level	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	
	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Weigh the benefits vs. the risks of tourniquet application Advocate for the early application of a tourniquet Demonstrate rapid application of a tourniquet
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
CONTENT	 The instructor should demonstrate the application of both an improvised and a commercially available tourniquet commonly used in your area. Risks And Benefits Of Early Tourniquet Application (PHTLS p.211 cite 13, 14) Direct pressure is the primary bleeding control technique, followed by the application of a tourniquet in ongoing and uncontrolled bleeding Battlefield application of tourniquets has reduced mortality Tourniquet does not require a provider at the patient's side; thus capable of completing other tasks Risk of permanent tissue is less than previously thought if used correctly for short periods of time (under 2 hours) Small risk of limb being sacrificed does not compare to conserving life Pressure points are no longer recommended. No evidence suggests benefit Do not delay use of an improvised tourniquet while waiting for a commercial device Early application If direct pressure doesn't immediately control the hemorrhage, a tourniquet should be applied.

NCCR Topic	TOURNIQUETS
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Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Weigh the benefits vs. the risks of tourniquet application Advocate for the early application of a tourniquet Demonstrate rapid application of a tourniquet
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
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	Early application
	• If direct pressure doesn't immediately control the hemorrhage, a tourniquet should be applied.
	Psychomotor
	No student should receive credit for this lecture unless he or she has properly applied a tourniquet on a simulated patient.

NCCR Topic	OXYGENATION
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Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	 Review physiology related to oxygen transport and metabolism Recite the AHA's guidelines on oxygen therapy in the acute coronary syndrome and stroke patient Discuss the role of free radicals related to oxygen therapy
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	In 1994, the EMT National Standard Curriculum recommended that patients with chest pain receive oxygen by non-rebreather mask at 15 L/min.
	In 2000, the American Heart Association Guidelines recommended that patients with chest pain receive oxygen by nasal cannula at 2-4 L/min.
	In 2010, the American Heart Association Guidelines now recommend that patients with suspected acute coronary syndrome (ACS) not receive oxygen unless they have an SpO_2 of less than 94% (on room air) or complain of dyspnea, have signs and symptoms of shock or heart failure. If the pulse oximeter is unreliable or not available, oxygen should be administered.
	Oxygenation of chest pain and stroke patients has changed.
	 Patients that complain of dyspnea, experience signs and symptoms of shock, heart failure, or have an SpO₂ of less than 94% should receive oxygen at 2 L/minute via nasal cannula Oxygen administration should be titrated to maintain an SpO₂ of at least 94%
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Delivery of high concentrations of oxygen to ACS and stroke patients who are not hypoxic may increase tissue damage.

The reason that oxygen is no longer recommended is because of the release of "free radicals."

- Free radicals are byproducts of metabolism that when released in large numbers are toxic to neighboring cells, destroying their membranes and causing increased local tissue damage
- Reintroduction of a high concentration of oxygen to cells that have been functioning anaerobically increases the production of free radicals causing cell membrane damage and tissue death
- When EMS providers deliver high concentrations of oxygen to patients with suspected ACS or stroke, delivering high concentrations of oxygen may be more harmful than keeping the patient on room air

NCCR Topic	 VENTILATION Minute ventilation Effect on cardiac return Assisted ventilation Respiratory failure vs. distress Assessment – when to ventilate Adjuncts Automatic Transport Ventilator (ATV) Positioning
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technicians (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Discuss the difference between alveolar ventilation and minute ventilation Differentiate between adequate and inadequate breathing Differentiate between respiratory distress and respiratory failure Recognize and manage a patient that requires assisted ventilations Discuss the effect of ventilation on venous return and cardiac output Spontaneously breathing patient Artificially ventilated patient Decide when to oxygenate and when to ventilators when managing patients Discuss the use of automated transport ventilators when managing patients Discuss the use of padding during ventilation of the pediatric patient
Curriculum Hours	3.0 hours
CONTENT	 Minute ventilation – The volume of air a person moves in and out of the respiratory system in one minute Minute ventilation (MV) consists of: Tidal volume x Respiratory rate in one minute Tidal volume (V₁) – The volume of air a person moves in and out of the respiratory system in each breath Respiratory rate (Frequency (F)) – The number of times a person breathes per minute Minute ventilation = Tidal volume x Respiratory rate (example: 500mL of air x 12 breaths per minute = 6000mL/minute)

Explain adequate and inadequate breathing based on minute ventilation Adequate breathing - In order to have adequate breathing, you 0 must have an adequate minute ventilation (adequate rate AND adequate tidal volume.) Adequate breathing does not require positive pressure ventilation Inadequate breathing is caused by • An inadequate tidal volume An inadequate rate 0 A combination of both 0 Inadequate breathing requires immediate management with positive pressure ventilation Alveolar ventilation (V_a) – The amount of air that moves in and out of the • alveoli per minute Alveolar ventilation consists of: (tidal volume (V_t) minus dead air (T_d) space) multiplied by respiratory rate in one minute. \circ V_a = (V_t - V_d) x F Tidal volume – The volume of air a person moves in and out of the • respiratory system in each breath Dead air space – The volume of air during breathing that does not reach the alveoli or is not involved in gas exchange Respiratory rate (Frequency (F)) – The number of times a person breathes per minute Alveolar ventilation = $(V_t - T_d) \times F$ *example*: $(500mL of air - 150mL) \times 12$ breaths per minute = 4200mL/minute) The difference between minute ventilation and alveolar ventilation is important because alveolar ventilation is the volume of air reaching the alveoli that participates in gas exchange (what oxygenates the blood.) By increasing the rate of ventilation in a patient with shallow breathing (inadequate tidal volume) may maintain the minute ventilation near normal, however alveolar ventilation (gas exchange) would be inadequate.

Example: Mrs. Smith has increased her respiratory rate from 12 to 24 times per minute, however her tidal volume with each breath has decreased from 500mL to 250mL. This means that she is breathing faster but shallow. Her minute ventilation is now (250mL x 24 per minute) 6000mL which appears to be normal. Because of her respiratory rate increase she is able to move what appears to be an adequate volume of air per minute. Mrs. Smith's tidal volume is 250mL, however dead air space is taking up 150mL per breath. This means that only 100mL of air is available for gas exchange per breath. She is inadequately oxygenating her blood. Although her minute ventilation appears to be within normal limits, her alveolar ventilation ([250mL – 150mL] x 24 per minute = 2400mL/minute) is inadequate. This will lead to hypoxemia and will result in a decrease in her SpO₂ reading. She requires positive pressure ventilation.

Effect Of Ventilation On Venous Return And Cardiac Output

In the normal patient, the negative pressure that causes inhalation facilitates venous return necessary for adequate cardiac output and perfusion.

Remind the class what cardiac output is.

Cardiac output is the amount of blood ejected from the left ventricle in one minute (Stroke Volume x Heart Rate).

Stroke Volume = Amount of blood ejected from the left ventricle with each contraction.

Heart Rate = Number of times the heart contracts in one minute.

To demonstrate this, take a full breath of air and explain to the student that during inhalation, a large volume of venous blood is returned to the heart because of the extreme negative pressure generated during inhalation.

Negative pressure during inhalation allows venous blood return to the right side of the heart, which is necessary for adequate cardiac output.

When artificial ventilation is being delivered, air is pushed into the chest (positive pressure ventilation). The increase in intrathoracic pressure impedes the amount of blood flow back to the heart. Each time you deliver ventilations, you are making the intrathoracic pressure positive. More frequent ventilations cause a greater duration of positive pressure in the chest than a patient with normal spontaneous breathing, which further impedes blood return and reduces cardiac output and perfusion of the vital organs.

Positive pressure in the thorax during ventilation impedes venous blood return to the right side of the heart, decreasing cardiac output. Excessive ventilation rates during positive pressure ventilation result in a decrease in cardiac output and perfusion.

In the adult patient, artificial ventilatory rates greater than 12 times per minute (one ventilation every 5-6 seconds) decrease cardiac output and perfusion; therefore if you are artificially ventilating a patient, do not exceed a ventilatory rate of 10-12 times per minute (one ventilation every 5-6 seconds). High artificial ventilatory rates (greater than 12 times per minute, one breath every 5-6 seconds) result in poor patient outcomes.

[This must be clearly reinforced and integrated into scenarios that include artificial ventilation.]

Exercise: Ask each student to breathe 10 times per minute and count out their breaths while you count the seconds between breaths (one breath every 5-6 seconds).

Respiratory Distress vs. Failure

All respiratory conditions are dynamic and fall with a spectrum from minor respiratory distress to respiratory arrest. Respiratory conditions can be acute, chronic, or chronic with acute exacerbation. Signs and symptoms that are present when EMS arrives are dynamic and could change over time depending on the state of the patient's disease process. Many patients with respiratory diseases remain in some phase of distress and need only comfort care. What remains important for an EMS provider to know when exactly to provide an intervention (such as artificial ventilation) in order to increase the likelihood of patient improvement. Recognizing the transition of a respiratory disease from distress to respiratory failure is of paramount importance in EMS care.

Review signs of distress and failure

- Respiratory distress
- Respiratory failure

When a patient in respiratory distress begins to exhibit deterioration in mental status because of hypoxia, the EMS provider needs to provide assisted artificial ventilations.

Many other signs or symptoms can accompany this deterioration in mental status including decrease in SpO₂, cyanosis, accessory muscle use, head bobbing, grunting, nasal flaring or confusion. Patients in respiratory failure have inadequate alveolar ventilation which will be exhibited by either a decrease in or an excessively high respiratory rate (reducing tidal volume and amount of air available for alveolar gas exchange) a decrease in tidal volume, or both. Patients in respiratory failure are severely ill. When providing artificial ventilation it is critical that you ventilate no more than 10-12 times per minute (every 5-6 seconds). Artificial ventilations provided at a rate greater than 10-12 times per minute could compromise cardiac output and perfusion.

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 Your assessment draws you to the conclusion that the patient needs artificial ventilation. Patients receiving assisted ventilation will be anxious when you cover their face and force air into their lungs. You must explain this procedure to the patient and reassure him you will be helping him breathe easier and improve his ability to receive oxygen. Tell the patient that it may be necessary to take occasional breaks if he becomes anxious. This procedure is best accomplished with the patient in the semi-Fowler's position. The head should be placed in a sniffing position and no airway adjunct shou be placed. Attach the BVM to supplemental oxygen to deliver the highest concentratio of oxygen. Observe the patient's respirations and when they begin to inhale, gently squeeze the BVM and deliver the ventilation over 1-2 seconds and with a logen to the place of the patient in the logen to the place of the patient in the logen to the place of the pla
 volume (do not squeeze the bag with high pressure). 6. Allow the patient to exhale normally. 7. During the next inhalation deliver another ventilation over 1-2 seconds until you see some chest rise. 8. Continue this process until the patient's mental status improves or you are

Automated Transport Ventilators

A patient requiring artificial ventilation for a period of time may benefit the use of an automated transport ventilator (ATV). An ATV can be used whether a patient is intubated or not.

Advantages

- Can be used for breathing and non-breathing patients, intubated and non-intubated patients
- Can be used in patients in respiratory failure and apneic patients
- Frees the rescuer for other tasks when used in intubated patients
- In patients who are not intubated, the rescuer has both hands free to apply the mask and maintain the airway
- Adjustable settings; once set, provides a specific tidal volume, respiratory rate and minute ventilation

Disadvantages

- Need for an oxygen source, and sometimes electric power
- Inability to detect increasing airway resistance
- Some ATVs should not be used in children younger than 5 years old

Positioning In The Pediatric Patient For Artificial Ventilation

According to the American Heart Association Pediatric Advanced Life Support Provider Manual (2011):

> "A "sniffing" position without hyperextension of the neck is usually best for infants and toddlers. To achieve a sniffing position, place the child supine. Flex the child's neck forward at the level of the shoulders while extending the head. Position the opening of the external ear canal at the level of or in front of the anterior aspect of the shoulder while the head is extended. Avoid hyperextending the neck because this may obstruct the airway.

> Children under 2 years of age may require padding under the occiput. Younger children and infants may need padding under the shoulders or upper torso to prevent excessive flexion of the neck that can occur when the prominent occiput rests on a flat surface."

Show the class the drawings of the sniffing position in the 2011 PALS book, figure 4 page 64.

NCCR Topic	VENTILATION
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Differentiate between alveolar ventilation and minute ventilation Differentiate between adequate and inadequate breathing Differentiate between respiratory distress and respiratory failure Recognize and manage a patient that requires assisted ventilations Articulates the effect of ventilation on venous return and cardiac output Spontaneously breathing patient Artificially ventilated patient Recognize and discuss the management of a patient that would benefit from CPAP Decide when to oxygenate and when to ventilate a patient Recognize the use of automated transport ventilators when managing patients Justify the use of padding during ventilation of the pediatric patient Recite the AHA's position on routine suctioning of the newborn
Curriculum Hours	3.0 hours
CONTENT	 Ventilation Minute ventilation – The volume of air a person moves in and out of the respiratory system in one minute Minute ventilation (MV) consists of: Tidal volume(Vt) x Respiratory rate in one minute Tidal Volume (Vt) – The volume of air a person moves in and out of the respiratory system in each breath Respiratory rate (Frequency (F)) – The number of times a person breathes per minute Minute ventilation = Tidal volume x Respiratory rate (example: 500mL of air x 12 breaths per minute = 6000mL/minute) Explain adequate and inadequate breathing based on minute ventilation on Adequate breathing - In order to have adequate breathing, you must have an adequate minute ventilation (adequate rate AND adequate tidal volume.)
Adequate breathing does not require positive pressure ventilation. Inadequate breathing is caused by • An inadequate tidal volume • An inadequate rate • A combination of both Inadequate breathing requires immediate management with positive pressure ventilation. Alveolar Ventilation – The amount of air that moves in and out of the alveoli per minute Alveolar ventilation (Va) consists of: (tidal volume minus dead air space) multiplied by respiratory rate in one minute. \circ Va = (Vt – Vd) * F Alveolar ventilation = (Tidal volume – Dead Air Space) x Respiratory rate (example: $(500 \text{mL of air} - 150 \text{mL}) \times 12$ breaths per minute = 4200mL/minute) The difference between minute ventilation and alveolar ventilation is important because alveolar ventilation is the volume of air reaching the alveoli that participates in gas exchange (what oxygenates the blood.) By increasing the rate of ventilation in a patient with shallow breathing (inadequate tidal volume) may maintain the minute ventilation near normal, however alveolar ventilation (gas exchange) would be inadequate. Example: Mrs. Smith has increased her respiratory rate from 12 to 24 times per minute, however her tidal volume with each breath has decreased from 500mL to 250mL. This means that she is breathing faster but shallow. Her minute ventilation is now (250mL x 24 per minute) 6000mL which appears to be normal. Because of her respiratory rate increase she is able to move what appears to be an adequate volume of air per minute. Mrs. Smith's tidal volume is 250mL, however dead air space is taking up 150mL per breath. This means that only 100mL of air is available for gas exchange per breath. She is inadequately oxygenating her blood. Although her minute ventilation appears to be within normal limits, her alveolar ventilation ($[250mL - 150mL] \times 24$ per minute = 2400mL/minute) is inadequate. This will lead to hypoxemia and will result in a decrease in her SpO₂ reading. She requires positive pressure ventilation.

Effect of ventilation on venous return and cardiac output

In the normal patient, the negative pressure that causes inhalation facilitates venous return necessary for adequate cardiac output and perfusion.

Remind the class what cardiac output is -

Cardiac output is the amount of blood ejected from the left ventricle in one minute (Stroke volume x Heart rate)

Stroke volume = Amount of blood ejected from the left ventricle with each contraction

Heart rate = Number of times the heart contracts in one minute.

To demonstrate this, take a full breath of air and explain to the student that during that inhalation, a large volume of venous blood returned to the heart because of the extreme negative pressure generated during the inhalation.

Negative pressure during inhalation allows venous blood return to the right side of the heart, which is necessary for adequate cardiac output.

When artificial ventilation is being delivered, air is pushed into the chest (positive pressure ventilation). The increase in intrathoracic pressure impedes the amount of blood flow back to the heart. Each time you deliver ventilations, you are making the intrathoracic pressure positive. More frequent ventilations cause a greater duration of positive pressure in the chest than a patient with normal spontaneous breathing, which further impedes blood return and reduces cardiac output and perfusion of the vital organs.

Positive pressure in the thorax during ventilation impedes venous blood return to the right side of the heart, decreasing cardiac output. Excessive ventilation rates during positive pressure ventilation result in a decrease in cardiac output and perfusion.

In the adult patient, artificial ventilatory rates greater than 12 times per minute (one ventilation every 5-6 seconds) decrease cardiac output and perfusion; therefore if you are artificially ventilating a patient, do not exceed a ventilatory rate of 10-12 times per minute (one ventilation every 5-6 seconds). High artificial ventilatory rates (greater than 12 times per minute, one breath every 5-6 seconds) result in poor patient outcomes.

[This must be clearly reinforced and integrated into scenarios that include artificial ventilation.]

Exercise: Ask each student to breathe 10 times per minute and count out their breaths while you count the seconds between breaths (one breath every 5-6 seconds).

Respiratory distress vs. failure

All respiratory conditions are dynamic and fall with a spectrum from minor respiratory distress to respiratory arrest. Respiratory conditions can be acute, chronic, or chronic with acute exacerbation. Signs and symptoms that are present when EMS arrives are dynamic and could change over time depending on the state of the patient's disease process. Many patients with respiratory diseases remain in some phase of distress and need only comfort care. What remains important for EMS providers to know when exactly to provide an intervention (such as artificial ventilation) in order to increase the likelihood of patient improvement. Recognizing the transition of a respiratory disease from distress to respiratory failure is of paramount importance in EMS care.

Continuous Positive Airway Pressure (CPAP) can be used in a patient needing ventilatory support who is in moderate to severe respiratory distress or early respiratory failure. The patient must be awake, be able to obey commands, and have intact airway reflexes. CPAP is not designed to ventilate patients, but to provide better oxygenation to patients who are hypoxic. CPAP provides continuous positive airway pressure that reduces the effort for the patient to breathe, improves oxygenation and reduces hypercarbia. CPAP can prevent the exacerbation of respiratory distress or respiratory failure. CPAP applies positive airway pressure above atmospheric pressure during inhalation and provides positive end expiratory pressure (PEEP) during exhalation.

Contraindications

- Inability of the patient to maintain an open airway
- Severe hypotension (systolic BP < 90)
- A respiratory rate of less than 8 breaths/min

When a patient in respiratory distress begins to exhibit deterioration in mental status because of hypoxia and hypercarbia, the EMS provider needs to deliver assisted artificial ventilations.

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Many other signs or symptoms can accompany this deterioration in mental status including decrease in SpO_2 , cyanosis, hypercarbia, accessory muscle use, head bobbing, grunting, nasal flaring or confusion. Patients in respiratory failure have inadequate alveolar ventilation which will be exhibited by either a decrease in or an excessively high respiratory rate (reducing tidal volume and amount of air available for alveolar gas exchange) a decrease in tidal volume, or both. Patients in respiratory failure are severely ill. When providing artificial ventilation it is critical that you ventilate no more than 10-12 times per minute (every 5-6 seconds). Artificial ventilations provided at a rate greater than 10-12 times per minute could compromise cardiac output and perfusion.

Lab Skills

- Your assessment draws you to the conclusion that the patient needs artificial ventilation. Patients receiving assisted ventilation will be anxious when you cover their face and force air into their lungs. You must explain this procedure to the patient and reassure him you will be helping him breathe easier and improve his ability to receive oxygen. Tell the patient that it may be necessary to take occasional breaks if he becomes anxious.
- 2. This procedure is best accomplished with the patient in the semi-Fowler's position.
- 3. The head should be placed in a sniffing position and no airway adjunct should be placed.
- 4. Attach the BVM to supplemental oxygen to deliver the highest concentration of oxygen.
- 5. Observe the patient's respirations and when they begin to inhale, gently squeeze the BVM and deliver the ventilation over 1-2 seconds and with a low volume. (Do not squeeze the bag with high pressure)
- 6. Allow the patient to exhale normally.
- 7. During the next inhalation deliver another ventilation over 1-2 seconds until you observe some chest rise.
- 8. Continue this process until the patient's mental status improves or you are ventilating 10-12 times per minute with adequate tidal volume.

Patients who are breathing at a rate of less than 10 times per minute should receive assisted ventilations at a rate of 10-12 times per minute.

Patients who are breathing at an excessively high rate (greater than 30) should receive assisted ventilations to bring their rate down to 10-12 times per minute.

Some patients in respiratory failure may have a severely altered mental state and no longer have a gag reflex. In this case, insertion of an airway adjunct is indicated. Ventilate the patient at a rate of 10-12 per minute (every 5-6 seconds).

Assisted ventilation practice – It is suggested that each student in the class should assist the ventilation of a spontaneously breathing person. It is required that each student watch a video of an awake and spontaneously breathing patient receiving assisted ventilations.

Some recommended methods to complete this practice session include high fidelity simulator, anesthetized patients in an operating room or outpatient clinical setting.

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Advantages

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- Can be used in patients in respiratory failure and apneic patients
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- Adjustable settings; once set, provides a specific tidal volume, respiratory rate and minute ventilation

Disadvantages

- Need for an oxygen source, and sometimes electric power
- Inability to detect increasing airway resistance
- Some ATVs should not be used in children younger than 5 years old

Positioning in the pediatric patient for artificial ventilation

According to the American Heart Association Pediatric Advanced Life Support Provider Manual (2011):

"A "sniffing" position without hyperextension of the neck is usually best for infants and toddlers. To achieve a sniffing position, place the child supine. Flex the child's neck forward at the level of the shoulders while extending the head. Position the opening of the external ear canal at the level of or in front of the anterior aspect of the shoulder while the head is extended. Avoid hyperextending the neck because this may obstruct the airway.

Children under 2 years of age may require padding under the occiput. Younger children and infants may need padding under the shoulders or upper torso to prevent excessive flexion of the neck that can occur when the prominent occiput rests on a flat surface."

Show the class the drawings of the sniffing position in the 2011 PALS book, figure 4 page 64.

Newborn Care - Suctioning the Airway

According to the 2010 American Heart Association Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care, suctioning the airway in the newborn may cause bradycardia. It is recommended that suctioning the newborn immediately following birth (including the use of a bulb syringe) should only be done in newborns who have an obvious obstruction to spontaneous breathing or who require positive pressure ventilation. The presence of meconium does not in itself require suctioning.

NCCR Topic	CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM (CNS) INJURY Sports injuries Concussion
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize the signs, symptoms, and the historical findings of a patient with a concussion Advocate for patient transport and proper patient education around the effects of concussions
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
CONTENT	 Signs And Symptoms of a Concussion Observed Signs Appears dazed or stunned Is confused about events Repeats questions Answers questions slowly Can't recall events prior to the hit, bump, or fall Can't recall events after the hit, bump, or fall Loses consciousness (even briefly) Shows behavior or personality changes Forgets class schedule or assignments Physical Symptoms Headache or "pressure" in head Nausea or vomiting Balance problems or dizziness Fatigue or feeling tired Blurry or double vision Sensitivity to light Sensitivity to noise Numbness or tingling Does not "feel right"
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Cognitive Symptoms

- Difficulty thinking clearly
- Difficulty concentrating
- Difficulty remembering
- Feeling more slowed down
- Feeling sluggish, hazy, foggy, or groggy

Emotional Symptoms

- Irritable
- Sad
- More emotional than usual
- Nervous

Care And Education of the Concussion Patient

- If you suspect your patient has a concussion, transport them to the appropriate facility
- If the patient refuses transport, educate them over the following warning signs and tell them if any are present, to seek medical attention
 - One pupil larger than the other
 - o Drowsiness or cannot be awakened
 - A headache that gets worse and does not go away
 - Weakness, numbness, or decreased coordination
 - Repeated vomiting or nausea
 - o Slurred speech
 - o Convulsions or seizures
 - Difficulty recognizing people or places
 - o Increasing confusion, restlessness, or agitation
 - o Unusual behavior
 - Loss of consciousness (even a brief loss of consciousness should be taken seriously)

Patient Group Provider Level Instructor Preparation Learning Objectives	 Concussion ETCO₂ Monitoring Adult and Pediatric Paramedic Review National EMS Education Standards By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize the signs, symptoms, and the historical findings of a patient with a concussion Advocate for patient transport and proper patient education around the effects of concussions Discuss using ETCO₂ readings as a guide for altering ventilation rates in head information
	in head injury patients
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hours
CONTENT	 Signs And Symptoms Of A Concussion Observed Signs Appears dazed or stunned Is confused about events Repeats questions Answers questions slowly Can't recall events after the hit, bump, or fall Car't recall events after the hit, bump, or fall Loses consciousness (even briefly) Shows behavior or personality changes Forgets class schedule or assignments

Physical Symptoms

- Headache or "pressure" in head
- Nausea or vomiting
- Balance problems or dizziness
- Fatigue or feeling tired
- Blurry or double vision
- Sensitivity to light
- Sensitivity to noise
- Numbness or tingling
- Does not "feel right"

Cognitive Symptoms

- Difficulty thinking clearly
- Difficulty concentrating
- Difficulty remembering
- Feeling more slowed down
- Feeling sluggish, hazy, foggy, or groggy

Emotional Symptoms

- Irritable
- Sad
- More emotional than usual
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Care And Education Of The Concussion Patient

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 - Difficulty recognizing people or places
 - Increasing confusion, restlessness, or agitation
 - Unusual behavior
 - Loss of consciousness (even a brief loss of consciousness should be taken seriously)

NCCR Topic	 AT-RISK POPULATIONS Pediatric Geriatric Economically disadvantaged Domestic violence Human trafficking
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
instructor r reparation	Review Department of Homeland Security Human Trafficking Resources http://www.dhs.gov/human-trafficking-awareness-training
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	 Recognize the unique characteristics of at-risk populations Recall the appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of at-risk patients Recognition of circumstances that may indicate abuse Domestic abuse Human trafficking Non-accidental trauma Recall appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of abused patients
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Recognize the unique characteristics of at-risk populations Pediatric Wide range in development Neonatal to young adult Non-verbal to highly communicative Response to shock changes with organ development Injury and illness patterns change with development Depend on adults for protection and prevention Geriatric Fragility is a better indicator of risk than age in years Polypharmacy is common Age-related cognitive impairment Delirium Loss of independence

		Unreliable historians	
	0	 Difficulty in relaying pr 	evious medical history
		medications and other c	-
	0	Reliance on caregivers	arrent anorapies
	0	Requires proper interpretation o	f the patient's verbal and
		verbal communication	-
	0	EMT's interpretation of physica drive care	
	0	Assess the environment in which need for additional follow-up	h patient was found and
•		edge of community resources (i.e	., child protective servic
	elder c	are, meals on wheels, etc.)	
Recog	nition of	f circumstances that may indica	te abuse
8			
•		tic abuse [Boehme D (2001) EMS	
	Violen	ce Curriculum and Resource Man	nual
	0	Documented studies of domestic	r violence generally rend
	Ŭ	following physical sites and per	.
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		 33% Face and neck 	
		 12% Back and buttocks 	
		10% Breasts	
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		16% Arms5.5% Abdomen (Increase)	ses during pregnancy)
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- Classical presentations found in trafficking victims
 - Bruises in various stages of healing caused by physical abuse
 - Scars, mutilations, or infections due to improper medical care
 - Urinary difficulties, pelvic pain, pregnancy, or rectal trauma caused from working in the sex industry
 - Chronic back, hearing, cardiovascular, or respiratory problems as a result of forced manual labor in unsafe conditions
 - \circ Poor eyesight and/or eye problems due to dimly lit work sites
 - Malnourishment and/or serious dental problems
 - Disorientation, confusion, phobias, or panic attacks caused by daily mental abuse, torture, and culture shock

Recall appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of abused patients

• Follow your local laws and protocols regarding reporting potential abuse cases, regardless of age

NCCR Topic	 AT-RISK POPULATIONS Pediatric Geriatric Economically disadvantaged Domestic violence Human trafficking
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review Department of Homeland Security Human Trafficking Resources http://www.dhs.gov/human-trafficking-awareness-training
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize the unique characteristics of at-risk populations Recall the appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of at-risk patients Recognition of circumstances that may indicate abuse Domestic abuse Human trafficking Non-accidental trauma Recall appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of abused patients
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Recognize the unique characteristics of at-risk populations: Pediatric Wide range in development Neonatal to young adult Non-verbal to highly communicative Response to shock changes with organ development Injury and illness patterns change with development Depend on adults for protection and prevention

• Geria	tric
0	Fragility is a better indicator of risk than age in years
0	
	May have certain drug interactions
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0	Dementia
	 Delirium
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Recall the ap	propriate actions of EMTs in the presence of at-risk patients
• Asses	sment challenges
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	 Difficulty in relaying previous medical history,
0	medications and other current therapies Reliance on caregivers
0	
	verbal communication
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	drive care
0	Assess the environment in which patient was found and the need for additional follow-up
	Aledge of community resources (i.e., child protective services, care, meals on wheels, etc.)
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Recognition of circumstances that m	ay indicate abuse
• Domestic abuse [Boehme D (2 Violence Curriculum and Reso	001) EMS Response to Domestic purce Manual]
following physical site 14.5% Head 33% Face and 12% Back and 10% Breasts 16% Arms 5.5% Abdome 4% Genitals • Another important asp refers to victims who a mind, you may encour	
Color	Age of Bruise
Red it Reddish Blu	
Dark purple/Dark B	
Greenish/Yellow G	
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Recall appropriate actions of EMTs in the presence of abused patients
 Follow your local laws and protocols regarding reporting potential abuse cases, regardless of age



Required for EMR/EMT/Paramedic

NCCR Topic	ROLE OF RESEARCH
Patient Group	n/a
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review National EMS Information Systems (NEMSIS) Goals & Objectives
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Define evidenced- based medicine and practice Explain the reasons EMS professionals should participate in research Discuss how research affects best practice
Course planning time	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Define Evidenced-Based Practice Evidence-based medicine asks questions, finds and appraises the relevant data, and harnesses that information for everyday clinical practice Evidenced-based medicine drives your protocols
	 Explain the Reasons EMS Professionals Should Participate in Research Refines care in the prehospital setting Ensures the safest and most effective care and treatment for patients Participation in research projects are a professional responsibility in order to grow the evidence base May include Completing data collection forms Including accurate documentation in patient care records Alerting researchers when certain cases are encountered Completing questionnaires Volunteering to participate in research studies Enrolling patients in research projects and obtaining consent
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 Job security Outcomes research is becoming increasingly important in funding and support of patient care in medicine EMS is the practice of medicine In EMS, specific outcomes include Survival Physiological impairment Disability Pain/discomfort Satisfaction Cost-effectiveness EMS outcomes research is key to the future of EMS system development and maintenance Workforce support and training is influenced by research If EMS fails to demonstrate, by research, that EMS makes a difference in patient outcomes, EMS will cease to receive support
 Improves working conditions Understanding the occupational environment, and developing best practices to mitigate risk improves working conditions

NCCR Topic	ROLE OF RESEARCH
Patient Group	n/a
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review National EMS Information Systems (NEMSIS) Goals & Objectives
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Define evidenced based medicine and practice Explain the reasons EMS professionals should participate in research Describe the scientific method Contrast different types of research methods Know the principles of how to conduct a literature review
Curriculum Hours	1.0 Hour
CONTENT	 Define Evidenced Based Practice Evidence-based medicine asks questions, finds and appraises the relevant data, and harnesses that information for everyday clinical practice Evidenced based medicine drives your protocols Explain The Reasons EMS Professionals Should Participate In Research Refines care in the prehospital setting Ensures the safest and most effective care and treatment for patients Participation in research projects are a professional responsibility in order to grow the evidence base May include: Completing data collection forms Including accurate documentation in patient care records Alerting researchers when certain cases are encountered Completing questionnaires Volunteering to participate in research projects and obtaining consent
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 Job security Outcomes research is becoming increasingly important in funding and support of patient care in medicine EMS is the practice of medicine In EMS, specific outcomes include Survival Impaired physiology Limit disability Alleviate discomfort Satisfaction Cost-effectiveness EMS outcomes research is key to the future of EMS system development and maintenance Workforce support and training is influenced by research If EMS fails to demonstrate, by research, that EMS makes a difference in patient outcomes, EMS will cease to receive support Improves working conditions Understanding the occupational environment, and developing best practices to mitigate risk improves working conditions
 Ask a question Conduct a literature review Determine a hypothesis Test your hypothesis Analyze the data to come to a conclusion Report your findings Repeat in different populations

Contrast different types of research methods
 Experimental The investigator controls events then record an outcome May be randomized E.g. Intravenous vs intramuscular therapy for prehospital status epilepticus (Silbergleit R, Durkalski V,Lowenstein D, Conwit R, Pancioli A, Palesch Y, Barsan W. Intramuscular versus Intravenous Therapy for Prehospital Status Epilepticus. N Eng J Med 2012; 366:591-600
 Or non-randomized E.g. Clinical consequences of the introduction of mechanical chest compressions in the EMS system for treatment of out-of-hospital cardiac arrest (Axelsson C, Nestin J, Svensson L, Axelsson AB, Herlitz J. Clinical Consequences of the Introduction of Mechanical Chest Compression in the EMS System for Treatment of Out-Of- Hospital Cardiac Arrest-A Pilot Study. Resuscitation 2006; 71:47-55 Difficult to perform and very costly When performed appropriately, provides a high level of scientific evidence
Observational
 Investigators do not control events, rather they observe the occurrence of events and record the outcome Retrospective study When the outcome of interest has occurred in the past E.g. The association between prehospital endotracheal intubation attempts and survival to hospital discharge among cardiac arrest patients (cite: Studnek, J. AEM 2010)
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	 Prospective Study Exposure/intervention occurs in the past, but the outcome of interest has yet to occur E.g. Early Cardiac Cath-Lab activation by paramedics for patients with STEMI on prehospital 12-lead ECG (Lee CH, Van Gelder MC, Cone DC. Early Cardiac Catheterization laboratory Activation by Paramedics for Patients with ST-segment Elevation Myocardial Infarction on Prehospital 12-Lead Electrocardiograms. PEC 2010; 14(2) 153-158) When performed appropriately, a prospective observational study adds significantly to evidence base Descriptive Study A study to identify patterns or characteristics in a population, but not the causal linkages among its different elements. Often described as hypothesis generating E.g. Assessment of depression, anxiety and stress among Nationally Certified EMS professionals (Bentley MA, Crawford JM, Wilkins FR, Fernandez AR, Studnek JR. An Assessment of Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Among Nationally Certified EMS professionals. PEC 2013; Epub ahead of print.
K	 Xnow the principles of how to conduct a literature review Understand what you are asking Identify key words Utilize specific search engines such as PubMed.gov, sponsored by the National Library of Medicine Know the difference between peer reviewed research and trade magazines Peer-reviewed journal – Prehospital Emergency Care, Annals of Emergency Medicine, Journal of Trauma, Circulation, etc. Contains articles which utilize the scientific method Reviewed by subject matter experts Trade magazines – JEMS, EMS World, etc. Articles are not scientifically rigorous Should not be used as primary sources

NCCR Topic	 STROKE Assessment (stroke scale) Oxygen administration Time of onset (duration) Transport destination
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to Using an out-of-hospital stroke assessment tool, identify patients who are possibly experiencing cerebral ischemia Discuss the proper administration of oxygen in the presence of cerebral ischemia Discuss the importance of determining when the patient was last seen without signs or symptoms Identify patients that can benefit from rapid transport most appropriate stroke hospital
Curriculum Hours	1.5 hours
CONTENT	 Out-of-hospital stroke assessment tool Specific tool used will be determined by local protocol Examples include Cincinnati Prehospital Stroke Scale Los Angeles Prehospital Stroke Screen Miami Emergency Neurologic Deficit Checklist Signs and Symptoms assessed by these tools Symmetry of the face Weakness of extremities Speech difficulties Coordination



NCCR Topic	STROKE
	• Assessment
	Oxygen administration
	• Time of onset (duration)
	Transport destination
	Fibrinolytics check sheet
Patient Group	Adult
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Prep	Review National EMS Education Standards
*	Review current AHA Guidelines
Curriculum Hours	1.5 hours
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	• Using an out-of-hospital stroke assessment tool, identify patients who are possibly experiencing cerebral ischemia
	• Discuss the proper administration of oxygen in the presence of cerebral ischemia
	• Discuss the importance of determining when the patient was last seen without signs or symptoms
	Identify patients that can benefit from rapid transport most appropriate stroke hospital
	 Argue the importance of starting the fibrinolytics check sheet
CONTENT	Out-of-hospital stroke assessment tool
	• Specific tool used will be determined by local protocol
	Examples include
	 Cincinnati Prehospital Stroke Scale
	 Los Angeles Prehospital Stroke Screen
	 Miami Emergency Neurologic Deficit Checklist
	• Signs and Symptoms assessed by these tools
	• Symmetry of the face
	• Weakness of extremities
	 Speech difficulties
	• Coordination
	Evaluate blood glucose levels
	• Treat only if less than 60 mg/dL
	 Hyperglycemia is associated with a poor clinical outcome Hypoglycemia may mimic stroke
	\rightarrow

Communicate assessment findings to the hospital while en route

 Allows for early activation of the stroke team

The goal for oxygenation in the stroke patient is to maintain an SpO_2 of 94% to avoid oxygen toxicity

- High flow oxygen decreases cerebral blood flow
- High levels of oxygen produce free-radicals result in cerebral edema and vasodilation

Importance of accurately determining the time that the patient was last seen normal

- Some strokes are treated with fibrinolytics (tPA) which has a limited therapeutic window
- Some strokes are treated with endovascular interventions
 - Angioplasty and stenting
 - Mechanical clot disruption
 - Clot extraction

Definitive care for the stroke patient is delivered at a hospital that specializes in the management for stroke patients. Optimal out-of-hospital care for the stroke patient is recognition and rapid transport.

Fibrinolytics check sheet should be started during transport when patient condition permits. Use is determined by local protocol

- Expedites the care at receiving hospital
- May be the only time the information can be gathered if the patient's condition deteriorates

NCCR Topic	 PSYCHIATRIC EMERGENCIES Mental health Patient restraint Agitated delirium (only limited depth and breadth) Suicide/Depression
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Describe the components of a mental status examination Perform effective patient restraint Understand the risk factors for suicide Identify common synthetic stimulants and natural or synthetic THC Recognize the effects of Synthetic stimulants Natural and synthetic THC
Curriculum Hours	1.5 hours
CONTENT	Mental status examination Mental health history General appearance Dress Grooming Posture Wringing of hands Facial grimaces Mannerisms Actions Violence
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Speech	
0	Spontaneous or pressured
0	Slow or fast
0	Soft or loud
0	Understandable or not
0	Appropriate or inappropriate
	 Word salad
	 Full words, inappropriately put together
	 Delusional
Mood	
οD	Depressed o
	Êuphoric
0	Manic
0	Anxious
0	Angry
	Agitated
0	Fearful
0	Guilty
Area of	f thought
0	Racing thoughts
0	Hallucinations
-	 Auditory
	 Visual
	 Somatic (strange body sensations)
0	Obsessive thoughts
0	Delusions (false beliefs)
0	Suicidal thoughts
0	Unconnected thoughts
0	Disturbed or distorted thoughts
0	Distance of distonce thoughts
In citua	tions in which you have completed a mental status examination,
	build report
you sin	General appearance
0	Speech
0	Mood
0	Area of thought
0	A de of thought

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 Provider safety Assure that the scene is safe Remove yourself from the scene if weapons are present Determine the need for ALS pharmacological restraint Violent presentation Restrain only those you are capable of overpowering with the physical forces available to you Use only the force necessary to maintain control and prevent injury to you, your partner and your patient The presence of Altered Mental Status (AMS) Multiple drugs producing erratic or bizarre behavior Consider medical conditions that can cause AMS Hypoglycemia Hypoxia Positioning Position the patient appropriately to prevent suffocation, aspiration, or circulatory compromise Continuous monitoring of breathing and circulation Local protocol Medical advice Interfacing with law enforcement 	 Provider safety Assure that the scene is safe Remove yourself from the scene if weapons are presen Determine the need for ALS pharmacological restraint Violent presentation Restrain only those you are capable of overpowering with the physical forces available to you Use only the force necessary to maintain control and prevent injury to you, your partner and your patient The presence of Altered Mental Status (AMS) Multiple drugs producing erratic or bizarre behavior	• R	estraint considerations
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PersonnelEquipment	PersonnelEquipment		•
• Equipment	• Equipment		-
 Consideration of continued ALS support 	 Consideration of continued ALS support 		
			 Consideration of continued ALS support
			\rightarrow

Dhysiology of restraining motion	
Physiology of restraining motion O Understand normal range of motion	
 Restraining range of motion 	
• Understand muscle groups	
Special Patient Considerations	
○Pregnant ○	
Pediatric o	
Geriatric	
Restraint techniques	
• Pre-plan each provider's role during restraint	
 Know your communication signals or verbal cu 	les
• Assign a provider to restrain each limb	
• If multiple providers move toward a patient, it is difficult	It for
the patient to focus	
• Swift, coordinated action is most effective	
 Team leader continues to talk to the patient whi 	le
acting	
• Once a patient is restrained, the restraints should not be	
removed in the out-of-hospital setting	
Characterized by a sudden onset of extreme agitation and extrem	nely
Characterized by a sudden onset of extreme agitation and extrem combative behavior	nely
 Bizarreness, aggressiveness, agitation, ranting, hyperact 	tivity
paranoia, panic	uvity,
 Reported to result from substance intoxication, psychiat 	tric
illness, alcohol withdrawal, head trauma, or a combinati	
these	1011 01
 Hyperthermia typically present 	
 Involves behavioral and physical symptoms that are also 	0
observed in medical and psychiatric patients	
 Rhabdomyolysis, neuroleptic malignant syndrom 	me, and
catatonia	
 Leads to cardiac respiratory and cardiac arrest 	
	$\rightarrow \rightarrow$

Suicide/Depression

Risk factors for suicide:

- History of depression and other mental disorders
- Previous suicidal gestures/attempts
- Confront the patient
- History of family/child abuse (non-accidental trauma)
- Feelings of hopelessness
- Unwillingness to seek mental health care (stigma attached)
- Feeling of being isolated from others
- History of impulsive or aggressive behavior
- Inability to access mental health
- Recent diagnosis of a serious illness, especially an illness that signals a loss of independence
- Recent loss of a loved one, job, money or social loss
- Aged between 15-24, over 40
- Alcohol or drug abuse
- Divorce or widowed (5x)
- Gives away personal belongings/cherished possessions
- Physical or mental stress
- Major physical stress such as surgery and long periods of sleep deprivation
- Expression of a clear plan for committing suicide
- Ability of the mechanisms to carry out suicide

Psychomotor Lab: If time permits, practice effective restraint.

Toxic	ological Emergencies
•	Synthetic stimulants Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC - natural/synthetic)
Synth	etic Stimulants
•	"Bath Salts"
	 Bliss, Blue Silk, Ivory Wave, White Dove, White Knight, White Lightening (etc.)
	 Usually sold as a powder
	 White to off-white in color
	 Can also be sold in capsule
	 Usually inhaled nasally Can also be taken orally, intravenously, or smoked
•	Methamphetamine
	• Crank, Crystal Meth, Glass, Ice, Tweak, Yaba (etc.)
	 Usually sold as crystals White to off-white in color
	 Yellow/red crystalline powder
	• Usually smoked, snorted or injected IV
•	MDMA (methylenedioxymethamphetamine)
	• Ecstasy, E, X, XTC, Smarties, Scooby-Snacks, Skittles
	 Usually sold in tablets or capsules Can also be sold in liquid drops, snorted, or smoked
	 Can be any color
•	Effects of synthetic stimulants
	• Psychological
	 Agitation, insomnia, irritability, dizziness, depression,
	paranoia, delusions, suicidal thoughts, seizures, and panic attacks
	• Somatic (effects on the body)
	 Hyperthermia (significant with MDMA)
	 Rapid heart rate Can lead to heart attacks and strokes
	 Chest pains, nosebleeds, sweating, nausea, and vomiting
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Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC)
 Natural Weed, bud, doobie, Mary Jane, pot, blunt, herb, hemp, grass, etc. A green, brown or gray mixture of dried, shredded leaves, stems, seeds, and flowers of the hemp plant Usually smoked in a cigarette or pipe Synthetic Characterized by mimicking natural THC Can cause psychosis K2, spice, black mamba, Bombay blue, genie, zohai Similar appearance to natural THC Effects of THC Impaired short term memory Decreased concentration and attention
 Impaired balance and coordination Increased heart rate and blood pressure Increased appetite

NCCR Topic	 PSYCHIATRIC EMERGENCIES Mental health Patient restraint Agitated delirium (only limited depth and breadth) Suicide/Depression
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Describe the components of a mental status examination Perform effective patient restraint Understand the risk factors for suicide
Curriculum Hours	1.5 hours
CONTENT	Mental status examination Mental health history General appearance Dress Grooming Posture Facial grimaces Mannerisms Actions Actions Violence Speech Spontaneous or pressured Slow or fast Soft or loud Understandable or not Appropriate or inappropriate Word salad Full words, inappropriately put together Full words, inappropriately put together Delusional
	\rightarrow
- Mood
 - oDepressed o
 - Euphoric
 - Manic
 - Anxious
 - Angry
 - AgitatedFearful
 - o Featiur
 - Guilty
- Area of thought
 - Racing thoughts
 - Hallucinations
 - Auditory
 - Visual
 - Somatic (strange body sensations)
 - o Obsessive thoughts
 - Delusions (false beliefs)
 - Suicidal thoughts
 - Unconnected thoughts
 - o Disturbed or distorted thoughts
- In situations in which you have completed a mental status examination, you should report
 - General appearance
 - o Speech
 - \circ Mood
 - o Area of thought

 Determine the need for ALS pharmacological restraint Violent presentation Restrain only those you are capable of overpowering with the physical forces available to you Use only the force necessary to maintain control and prevent injury to you, your partner and your patient The presence of Altered Mental Status (AMS) Multiple drugs producing erratic or bizarre behavio Consider medical conditions that can cause AMS Hypoglycemia Hypoxia Positioning Position the patient appropriately to prevent suffocation, aspiration, or circulatory compromise Continuous monitoring of breathing and circulation Legal considerations (e.g.: age, in custody) Local protocol Medical advice Interfacing with law enforcement Equipment 	 Provider safety Assure that the scene is safe Remove yourself from the scene if weapons are pre Determine the need for ALS pharmacological restraint Violent presentation Restrain only those you are capable of overpowering with th physical forces available to you Use only the force necessary to maintain control and prevent injury to you, your partner and your patient The presence of Altered Mental Status (AMS) Multiple drugs producing erratic or bizarre behavior Consider medical conditions that can cause AMS Hypoglycemia Hypoglycemia Hypoxia Stroke Position the patient appropriately to prevent suffocation, aspiration, or circulatory compromise Continuous monitoring of breathing and circulation Legal considerations (e.g.: age, in custody) Local protocol Medical advice Interfacing with law enforcement Equipment Regardless of which types of restraints are used, they should secure enough to restrain the patient, but not limiting to circulatory or respiratory status Transportation Assure continued ability to restrain Adequate Personnel Equipment 	
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 Restraining range of motion Understand muscle groups Special Patient Considerations Pregnant ○ Pediatric ○ Geriatric Restraint techniques Pre-plan each provider's role during restraint Know your communication signals or verbal cues Assign a provider to restrain each limb 	 Physiology of restraining motion Understand normal range of motion 	
 Understand muscle groups Special Patient Considerations OPregnant ○ Pediatric ○ Geriatric Restraint techniques OPre-plan each provider's role during restraint Know your communication signals or verbal cues Assign a provider to restrain each limb 	e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	
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Know your communication signals or verbal cuesAssign a provider to restrain each limb		
 Assign a provider to restrain each limb 		
	• •	
	• If multiple providers move toward a patient, it is difficult for	r
the patient to focus on all		
 Swift, coordinated action is most effective 		
 Team leader continues to talk to the patient while 	*	
acting	C C	
• Once a patient is restrained, the restraints should not be	▲ ·	
removed in the out-of-hospital setting	removed in the out-or-nospital setting	
Environmental restraint	Environmental restraint	
• Stabilize the environment (calm patient via therapeutic		
communication techniques)		
 Separate stimulus from environment (e.g. separate two 	• Separate stimulus from environment (e.g. separate two	
screaming, fighting people; remove law enforcement from		
direct view.)	direct view.)	
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0	Indications
	 Patient poses a threat to himself or others
	 Patients requiring physical restraint that continue to
	struggle or fight should immediately be chemically restrained
	Restrained patients require continuous
	monitoring, assessment, and management
0	Medication types
	Ketamine
	 Benzodiazepines (e.g. midazolam, lorazepam etc.)
	Antipsychotics (haloperidol, risperidone etc.)
0	Dosage
	Titrate dosage to level of agitation
	 Combination therapy may be necessary
	• Consult with local medical direction when
	establishing protocols/designing education
0	Medication routes
	 IM IV/IO
	 Nasal
	 Nasai P.O./buccal
Agitated Delin	rium/Excited Delirium
Charac	cterized by a sudden onset of extreme agitation and extremely
Charac	cterized by a sudden onset of extreme agitation and extremely tive behavior
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Suicide/Depression

Risk factors for suicide:

- History of depression and other mental disorders
- Previous suicidal gestures/attempts
- Confront the patient
- History of family/child abuse (non-accidental trauma)
- Feelings of hopelessness
- Unwillingness to seek mental health care (stigma attached)
- Feeling of being isolated from others
- History of impulsive or aggressive behavior
- Inability to access mental health
- Recent diagnosis of a serious illness, especially an illness that signals a loss of independence
- Recent loss of a loved one, job, money or social loss
- Aged between 15-24, over 40
- Alcohol or drug abuse
- Divorce or widowed (5x)
- Gives away personal belongings/cherished possessions
- Physical or mental stress
- Major physical stress such as surgery and long periods of sleep deprivation
- Expression of a clear plan for committing suicide
- Ability of the mechanisms to carry out suicide

Psychomotor Lab: If time permits, practice effective restraint.

NCCR Topic	IMMUNOLOGICAL DISEASES • Allergic reaction
	• Anaphylaxis
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Discuss the physiology related to allergies and anaphylaxis Differentiate between a mild/localized allergic reaction and anaphylaxis Explain the actions of medications used to treat anaphylaxis Epinephrine Benadryl® Demonstrate the administration of epinephrine for anaphylaxis according to local protocol
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Allergic reaction Hyperactive, localized immune response to an allergen Some histamine released Local redness, swelling, hives, itching, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea Typically requires minimal supportive therapies Reactions are generally self-limited Repeat exposures may or may not lead to anaphylaxis (e.g. bee stings, food allergies, etc.)
	 Anaphylaxis Life threatening reaction of the immune system to an allergen Massive histamine and other compounds are released throughout the body Vasodilation and increased capillary permeability Can lead to shock Bronchoconstriction and mucous production Can lead to extremely difficulty breathing Soft tissue swelling of the upper airway Can lead to airway obstruction

Treatment for Anaphylaxis

- Assure adequate airway, ventilation and oxygenation
- Administer oxygen if SpO₂ is less than 94%, titrated to a maximum of 94%
- Epinephrine
 - Reverses many of the effects of histamine via
 - Bronchodilation
 - Vasoconstriction
 - o Continuous reassessment is required
 - May require additional dosing due to short half-life
- Diphenhydramine (Benadryl)
 - Blocks histamine receptors, blunting further histamine response
- Transport to an appropriate facility for evaluation

Each student should demonstrate the administration of epinephrine for anaphylaxis using the appropriate device/medication route according to local protocol.

NCCR Topic	CARDIAC ARREST (VENTRICULAR ASSIST DEVICES (VADs))
Patient Group	Adult and pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Discuss the function of ventricular assist devices (VAD) assessment
	 Discuss the rule for of ventricular assist devices (VAD) assessment and care of patients who have VADs Discuss the criteria to terminate resuscitation efforts versus the need for
	continued resuscitation
Curriculum Hours	2.5 hours
CONTENT	Ventricular Assist Devices (VADs) A mechanical device that is placed inside a person's chest, that assists the heart pump oxygen-rich blood throughout the body.
	 Implanted in heart failure patients Replaces the function of the ventricles in circulating blood Sometimes implanted as a temporary treatment, and sometimes used as a permanent solution to very low cardiac output
	Assessment
	 Initial assessment remains the same Most VADs produce continuous flow, therefore these patients will not have a palpable pulse, or measurable blood pressure SpO₂ readings may be inaccurate because of a weak or absent pulse Mental status and skin findings are most helpful with assessment of perfusion
	 A cable exits the abdominal wall that connects the device to power and the control unit The patient and their family members are experts on the device The patient and/or family will have an identification card that has contact information for the VAD coordinator (call them) Review local protocol for transport destination
	\rightarrow
	Management

- Verify the patient's DNR status
- Allow the patient and caregiver to guide your interaction with the device
- *Keep batteries and controller within reach and secured to the patient*
- Use caution when cutting and removing clothes, to avoid damaging the device
- Verify if chest compressions are indicated with the patient's specific device
 - \circ Consult family
 - $\circ \quad \mbox{View VAD identification card}$
 - Consult with VAD coordinator
- Use the AED as you would with any other patient. Avoid placing the pads directly over the device (consider anterior-posterior pad placement)

NCCR Topic	VENTRICULAR ASSIST DEVICES (VADs)
Patient Group	Adult
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Equipment Needed	
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Discuss the function of ventricular assist devices (VAD) assessment
	and care of patients who have VADs
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
CONTENT	 Ventricular Assist Devices (VADs) A mechanical device that is placed inside a person's chest, where it helps the heart pump oxygen-rich blood throughout the body. Implanted in heart failure patients Replaces the function of the ventricles in circulating blood Sometimes implanted as a temporary treatment, and sometimes used as a permanent solution to very low cardiac output Assessment Initial assessment remains the same
	 Most VADs produce continuous flow, therefore these patients will not have a palpable pulse, or measurable blood pressure Attempt to auscultate over the lest chest for a "whirling" or "smooth, humming" sound indicating that the VAD is working SpO₂ readings may be inaccurate because of a weak or absent pulse Mental status and skin findings are most helpful with assessment of perfusion A cable exits the abdominal wall that connects the device to power and the control unit Many VAD patients also have an implanted cardiac defibrillator (ICD) Many ER admits in VAD patients are secondary to infection, not cardiac problems. Assess for signs of infection (especially at the
	 insertion point) or sepsis Your patient and family members are experts on the device The patient and/or family will have an identification card that has contact information for the VAD coordinator (call them) Review local protocol for transport destination

Manag	ement
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- Verify the patient's DNR status
- Allow the patient and caregiver to guide your interaction with the device
- Keep batteries and controller within reach and secured to the patient
- Use caution when cutting and removing clothes, to avoid damaging the device
- Administer fluid boluses and vasopressors as you would with any other patient as indicated by signs of inadequate perfusion

 When in doubt, administer a fluid bolus
 - Verify if chest compressions are indicated with the patient's specific
 - device
 - Consult family
 - View VAD identification card
 - Consult with VAD coordinator
- Use electrical therapy as you would with any other patient. Avoid placing the pads directly over the device (consider anterior-posterior pad placement)

NCCR Topic	 CARDIAC ARREST Chain of survival Optimal chest compressions Depth, rate, recoil and pause Airway issues in cardiac arrest Halting CPR to intubate Hyperventilation Supraglottic vs. ETT vs. BVM Termination decision criteria NAEMSP/AHA position ETCO₂ changes during arrest and ROSC
Patient Group	Adult
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
	Review current AHA Guidelines
Curriculum Hours	2.0 hours
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Review the chain of survival Describe the current techniques of one and 2-Rescuer CPR Discuss airway issues in cardiac arrest management Determine criteria for field termination of cardiac arrest Review ALS management of cardiac arrest Airway management Vascular access Pharmacology Demonstrate the current techniques of single and 2-Rescuer CPR Demonstrate the current techniques of cardiac arrest management
CONTENT	 Chain of survival There are 5 links in the adult Chain of Survival Immediate recognition of cardiac arrest and activation of the emergency response system Early cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) with an emphasis on chest compressions Rapid defibrillation Effective advanced life support Integrated post-cardiac arrest care A strong chain of survival can improve chances of survival and recovery for victims of heart attack, stroke, and other emergencies.

Optimal Chest compressions

- Push hard, push fast
- Minimum of 100 per minute
- The number of compressions per minute is an important determinant of return of spontaneous circulation and good neurological outcomes
- Heel of one hand over the center of the patient's chest (lower half of the sternum) and the heel of the other hand over the first so the hands are overlapped and parallel
- Compress approximately 2 inches
- Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions
- Minimize interruption
 - Ventilation/Compression Ratio
 - 2 breaths after every 30 compressions
 - Each breath should take about 1 second
 - Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise

ALS Management of Cardiac Arrest

- Airway management
 - o BVM
 - Avoid hyperventilation as it decreases preload
 - Best technique is the 2-Rescuer technique with one rescuer holding mask seal and the other squeezing the bag with both rescuers watching for chest rise
 - 2 breaths for every 30 compressions without an advanced airway
 - One breath every 6-8 seconds after placement of advanced airway
 - May need to adjust ventilator rate based on capnography
 - Endotracheal Tube (ETT)
 - Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT
 - Supraglottic airways
 - Considered an advanced airway
 - Alternative to ETT placement
 - Acceptable during CPR
 - Capnography should be attached to these airways

Contin	nuous waveform capnography
0	Typically 35-45mm/Hg in a normally perfusing patient
0	Greater than 45 mm/Hg
Ũ	 Ensure adequate ventilatory rate and volume
0	15-35 mm/Hg
0	 common in cardiac arrest patients with CPR in progre
0	less than 10-15 mm/Hg
Ŭ	 Focus efforts on improving chest compressions
	 Make sure the victim is not receiving excessive
	ventilations
2	
0	spontaneous circulation (ROSC)
	spontaneous encuration (ROSC)
Use caution wi	th interpretation of ETCO ₂ values within 1-2 minutes after
administration	of epinephrine due to decreased pulmonary blood flow.
Termination of	of Efforts in Cardiovascular Resuscitation
According to A	AHA guidelines, the EMT is able to terminate resuscitative
0	ree of the following conditions are present:
	not witnessed
	nder CPR was not performed
	OSC after full ACLS (minimum of 20 minutes)
	ED shocks were delivered
110111	
	lelines also recommend contacting medical direction when
-	minating resuscitative efforts. EMS providers should follow
local protocol.	
No student sho	uld be granted credit for completing this lesson without
	a scenario-based cardiac arrest skills station. This section of the
	only be performed after completion of the Crew Resource
	esson. This scenario should include the principles of crew
	gement identified in that section.
	+

Cardiac Arrest Scenario

The following psychomotor skills must be performed during this scenario

- Ventilation
- Compressions
- Electrical therapy
- Two minutes of 2-Rescuer CPR before ALS scenario begins
- Team leader/team member scenario centered on adult cardiac arrest

During management of the cardiac arrest, each student must:

- Direct the team management of this patient using proper crew resource management techniques
- Correctly interpret and physically manage a rhythm that requires electrical therapy
- Draw up and administer the correct amount of a medication appropriate to the scenario

At all times, the paramedic must ensure that effective chest compressions, airway management and ventilations are maintained.

NCCR Topic	 POST-RESUSCITATION CARE Recognition of Return of Spontaneous Circulation (ROSC) Oxygenation Induced hypothermia (only limited depth and breadth)
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Identify the signs of ROSC Describe the principles of optimization of ventilation and oxygenation Appreciate the benefits of induced hypothermia in post cardiac arrest management Describe systems of care necessary for improving post cardiac arrest outcomes
Curriculum Hours	2.0 hours
CONTENT	 Recognition of ROSC In the cardiac arrest patient, CPR must be continued until signs of life are observed Patient breathing Patient movement Optimizing ventilation and oxygenation in the post cardiac arrest patient The goal for oxygenation in the post cardiac arrest patient is to maintain an SpO₂ of greater than or equal to 94%. Once your patient's SpO₂ is 94%, more oxygen is not necessarily better Avoid excessive ventilation (over-bagging) Reduces cardiac output Decreases cerebral blood flow Consider elevating the head of the stretcher approximately 30° if the patient will tolerate it Reduces aspiration and pneumonia

Induced hypothermia in post-cardiac arrest patient

- Intentional reduction of core body temperature which can be accomplished by a variety of methods
 - Cold packs
 - o Administration of chilled IV fluids
 - Target temperature 32-34° C
 - Can be held at that temperature up to 24 hours
- Has been shown to increase the survivability in patients with ROSC
- Requires coordination between the out-of-hospital systems and receiving facilities
- Controlling the patient's core temperature slows cellular metabolism, reducing cell damage and death
- In some systems, this is initiated in the out-of-hospital environment and continued in the Emergency Department

System of care

- Most deaths following ROSC occur within the first 24 hours
- Transport to the most appropriate facility for the patient
 - May include transport or transfer to an alternate facility
 - STEMI/PCI Center
 - Cardiac Center
 - Therapeutic Hypothermia Centers

NCCR Topic Patient Group Provider Level	POST-RESUSCITATION CARE• Recognition of Return of Spontaneous Circulation (ROSC)• Oxygenation• Induced hypothermia (only limited depth and breadth)Adult and PediatricParamedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 Review current AHA Guidelines By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Identify the signs of ROSC Describe the principles of optimization of ventilation and oxygenation Identify signs of hemodynamic instability and state the correct management Identify the potential cause of a cardiac arrest, and correctly manage the patient based on that cause (including appropriate destination) Appreciate the benefits of induced hypothermia in post cardiac arrest management Describe the process of induced hypothermia Describe systems of care necessary for improving post cardiac arrest outcomes
Curriculum Hours	2.0 hours
CONTENT	 Recognition of ROSC In the cardiac arrest patient, CPR must be continued until signs of life are observed Sudden increase of ETCO2 level Presence a pulse after an organized rhythm is observed Patient breathing Patient movement
	Optimizing ventilation and oxygenation in the post cardiac arrest patient
	The goal for oxygenation in the post cardiac arrest patient is to
	 Maintain an SpO₂ of greater than or equal to 94% Once your patient's SpO₂ is 94%, more oxygen is not necessarily better Avoid excessive ventilation (over-bagging) Reduces cardiac output Decreases cerebral blood flow ETCO₂ between 35-40mm/Hg

Consider elevating the head of the stretcher approximately 30° if the patient will tolerate it

- Reduces cerebral edema
- Reduces aspiration and pneumonia

Hemodynamic instability in the post-cardiac arrest patient

- Monitor vital signs
- Assure vascular access
- Monitor and manage cardiac hemodynamics

Management

- Hypotension Systolic BP less than 90mm/Hg
 - \circ Fluid bolus
 - Cold fluids may be used to initiate induced hypothermia protocol
 - Vasopressors (drips) titrated to systolic BP of at least 90mm/Hg or Mean Arterial Pressure (MAP) of 65
 - Dopamine
 - Dobutamine
 - Norepinephrine
 - Epinephrine
- Arrhythmias
 - Treat cardiac arrhythmias as required
 - Do not administer antiarrhythmics prophylactically

Identifying the potential cause of cardiac arrest

- Obtain and interpret a 12-lead EKG
 - Evidence of AMI may require transport to a specialized facility for further treatment
- Consider and manage reversible causes

Induced hypothermia

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- Following cardiac arrest cellular damage begins an inflammatory cascade that often results in hyperthermia which has been associated with negative outcomes
- Intentional reduction of core body temperature which can be accomplished by a variety of methods
 - Application of cold packs to the axilla, groin and neck
 - Administration of chilled IV fluid boluses
 - Can vary with protocol
 - May be as much as 30mL/kg
 - Target temperature 32-34° C

 Can be held at that temperature up to 24 hours Temperature measurement is an in-hospital consideration Axillary and oral temperatures are inadequate for measuring core temperature Tympanic is rarely available and may be unreliable Has been shown to increase the survivability in patients with ROSC Requires coordination between the out-of-hospital systems and receiving facilities Controlling the patient's core temperature slows cellular metabolism, reducing cell damage and death In some systems, this is initiated in the out-of-hospital environment and continued in the Emergency Department
 System of care to ensure coronary reperfusion Most deaths following ROSC occur within the first 24 hours Triage to the most appropriate facility for the patient May include transport or transfer to an alternate facility STEMI/PCI Center Cardiac Center Therapeutic Hypothermia Centers



Required for EMT/Paramedic

Optional for EMR (Additional CEU's)

NCCR Topic	 CARDIAC RATE DISTURBANCE (PEDIATRIC) Tachycardia Bradycardia Irregular pulse 	
Patient Group	Pediatric	
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)	
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards	
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize abnormally fast and abnormally slow pulse rates in the pediatric patient Discuss the cause of abnormally fast or slow pulse rates in the pediatric patient Discuss the causes of an irregular pulse in the pediatric patient Describe the BLS management of abnormally fast or slow pulse rates in the pediatric patient 	
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour	
CONTENT	Recognize abnormally fast pulse rate in the pediatric patient Pulse rates in infants (less than 1 year) greater than 220 and greater than 180 in children (1 year to onset of puberty) Can be caused by: Dehydration Sepsis Failure to thrive Medication/Drug ingestion Toxins Hemorrhage Management Recognize the need for rapid transport and ALS level care Transportation to pediatric emergency department when possible 	
	\rightarrow	

 Pulse rates less than 60 in pediatric patients associated with hypotension, altered mental status and or signs of shock Can be caused by: Respiratory compromise Toxins Congenital defects Management Ensure properly size equipment for correct management Assisted ventilation with enough tidal volume to just achieve visible chest rise Oxygenation CPR if bradycardia persists despite BVM ventilation Recognize the need for rapid transport and ALS level care Transportation to pediatric emergency department when possible Irregular pulse in pediatric patients Can be caused by congenital defects Management Transportation to pediatric emergency department when possible
when possible

NCCR Topic	 PEDIATRIC CARDIAC ARREST Optimal chest compressions Techniques Ventilation/Compression ratio Single and 2-Rescuer CPR AED use
Datiant Group	Pediatric
Patient Group	
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Describe the current techniques of single and 2-Rescuer CPR and AED use in pediatric patients Demonstrate the current techniques of single and 2-Rescuer CPR and AED use in pediatric patients Note: No student should be granted credit for completing this lesson without completion of a scenario-based pediatric cardiac arrest skills station. When teaching large numbers of students, this scenario may be completed, evaluated and validated at the local level.
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour – lecture 1.5 hour – scenario-based skills station
CONTENT	 Techniques of Single Rescuer CPR Infant (less than 1 year of age) Chest compressions Push hard, push fast Minimum of 100 per minute 1/3 depth of chest wall (about 1 ½ inches) Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions Minimize interruption 2-fingers just below the inter-mammary (nipple) line Ventilation/Compressions are combined with ventilations 2 breaths after every 30 compressions Each breath should take about 1 second Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise
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- Child (1 year of age until onset of puberty)
 - Chest compressions
 - Push hard, push fast
 - Minimum of 100 per minute
 - Use 1 or 2 hands on the lower half of the sternum
 - Compress 1/3 depth of chest wall (approximately 2 inches)
 - Allow complete recoil of chest between compressionsMinimize interruption
 - Ventilation/Compression Ratio
 - Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best if compressions are combined with ventilations
 - 2 breaths after every 30 compressions
 - Each breath should take about 1 second
 - Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise

Techniques of 2-Rescuer CPR

- Rescuer fatigue can lead to inadequate rate, depth and recoil in CPR in minutes, even when the rescuer does not feel fatigued
- When performing 2-Rescuer CPR, rotate the rescuer who is performing compressions with the rescuer who is performing ventilations every 2 minutes
- Infant (less than 1 year of age)
 - Chest compressions
 - Push hard, push fast
 - Minimum of 100 per minute
 - 1/3 depth of chest wall (about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches)
 - Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions
 - Minimize interruption
 - 2 thumb-encircling hands technique, just below the inter-mammary (nipple) line
 - Ventilation/Compression Ratio
 - Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best if compressions are combined with ventilations
 - 2 breaths after every 15 compressions
 - Each breath should take about 1 second
 - Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise

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 Child (1 year of age until onset of puberty) Chest compressions Push hard, push fast Minimum of 100 per minute Use 1 or2 hands on the lower half of the sternum Compress 1/3 depth of chest wall (approximately 2 inches) Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions Minimize interruption Ventilation/Compression Ratio Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best if compressions are combined with ventilations 2 breaths after every 15 compressions Each breath should take about 1 second Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise
AED Use
Children with sudden witnessed cardiac arrest require the rapid application of an AED to assess for the presence of a shockable rhythm.
 Use an AED with pediatric pads in children under 8 years old If pediatric pads are not available – adult pads should be used
AEDs that deliver relatively high energy doses have been used successfully in cardiac arrests in infants and children, with minimal myocardial damage and good neurological outcomes.
Application of the AED should not interrupt chest compressions.
No student should be granted credit for completing this lesson without completion of a scenario-based pediatric cardiac arrest skills station.

NCCR Topic	 PEDIATRIC CARDIAC ARREST Optimal chest compressions Techniques Ventilation/Compression ratio Single and 2-Rescuer ALS Management Unique causes of pediatric cardiac arrest (only limited depth and breadth) HOCM Commotio Cordis Long QT AHA channelopathy
Patient Group	Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
	Review current AHA Guidelines
Curriculum Hours Learning Objectives	2.5 hours By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	 Describe the current techniques of single and 2-Rescuer CPR in pediatric patients Review ALS management of pediatric cardiac arrest Airway management Vascular access Pharmacology Demonstrate the current techniques of single and 2-Rescuer CPR in pediatric patients Demonstrate the current techniques of pediatric cardiac arrest management Discuss unique causes of pediatric cardiac arrest
CONTENT	 Techniques of single rescuer CPR Infant (less than one year of age) Chest compressions Push hard, push fast Minimum of 100 per minute 1/3 depth of chest wall (about 1 ½ inches) Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions Minimize interruption 2-fingers just below the inter-mammary (nipple) line

	• Ventilation/Compression Ratio
	 Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best
	if compressions are combined with ventilations
	 Two breaths after every 30 compressions
	 Each breath should take about 1 second Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise
	 Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise
•	Child (1 year of age until onset of puberty)
	 Chest compressions
	 Push hard, push fast
	 Minimum of 100 per minute
	• Use one or two hands on the lower half of the sternum
	 Compress 1/3 depth of chest wall
	(approximately 2 inches)Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions
	 Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions Minimize interruption
	*
	• Ventilation/Compression Ratio
	 Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best
	if compressions are combined with ventilations
	Two breaths after every 30 compressionsEach breath should take about 1 second
	 Each breath should take about 1 second Ventilate with enough volume to observe chest rise
	-
Techni	ques of 2-Rescuer CPR
•	Rescuer fatigue can lead to inadequate rate, depth and recoil in CPR in
	minutes, even when the rescuer does not feel fatigued
	When performing 2 Decover CDD retate the receiver who is performi
•	When performing 2-Rescuer CPR, rotate the rescuer who is performin compressions with the rescuer who is performing ventilations every tw
	minutes.
٠	Infant (less than one year of age)
	• Chest compressions
	 Push hard, push fast
	 Minimum of 100 per minute
	 1/3 depth of chest wall (about 1 ½ inches)
	 Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions Minimize interruption
	 Minimize interruption True thrush analysis hands technique, just helew the
	 Two thumb encircling hands technique, just below the inter mammary (ninnle) line
	inter-mammary (nipple) line

 Ventilation/Compression Ratio
 Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best
if compressions are combined with ventilations
 2 breaths after every 15 compressions
Each breath should take about 1 second
 Ventilate with enough volume to see chest rise
• Child (one year of age until onset of puberty)
 Chest compressions
 Push hard, push fast
Minimum of 100 per minute
• Use one or two hands on the lower half of the sternum
 Compress 1/3 depth of chest wall (approximately 2 inches)
 Allow complete recoil of chest between compressions
 Minimize interruption
 Ventilation/Compression Ratio
 Resuscitation outcomes in infants and children are best
if compressions are combined with ventilations
 2 breaths after every 15 compressions
Each breath should take about 1 second
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ALS Management of Pediatric Cardiac Arrest
Airway management
 Airway management BVM
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer)
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer)
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT)
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient
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 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT Continuous waveform capnography
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT Continuous waveform capnography Typically 35-45mm/Hg in a normally perfusing patient Greater than 45 mm/Hg Ensure adequate ventilatory rate and volume
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT Continuous waveform capnography Typically 35-45mm/Hg in a normally perfusing patient Greater than 45 mm/Hg Ensure adequate ventilatory rate and volume 15-35 mm/Hg
 Airway management BVM 2 breaths for every 30 compressions (one-rescuer) 2 breaths for every 15 compressions (2-Rescuer) Endotracheal Tube (ETT) Requires special training because of different anatomy in the pediatric patient Can use cuffed or un-cuffed ETT Compressions should not be interrupted in the placement of an ETT Continuous waveform capnography Typically 35-45mm/Hg in a normally perfusing patient Greater than 45 mm/Hg Ensure adequate ventilatory rate and volume
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 less than 10-15 mm/Hg Focus efforts on improving chest compressions Make sure the victim is not receiving excessive ventilations A sudden increase in ETCO₂ could indicate a return of spontaneous circulation (ROSC) Use caution with interpretation of ETCO₂ values within 1-2 minutes after administration of epinephrine due to decreased pulmonary blood flow
 Vascular access Limit the amount of time spent obtaining vascular access Intraosseous (IO) Rapid, safe and effective All IV fluids and resuscitation medications can be administered via IO IV Placement may be difficult in a critically ill patient
 Pharmacology Length based resuscitation devices (e.g. Broslow® tape) Have been clinically validated as a predictor of body weight Often have the doses for common resuscitation medications
 Unique causes of pediatric cardiac arrest Drug overdose –toxic levels of drugs can occur, even if small amounts are ingested Hypertrophic Cardiomyopathy (HOCM) – Heart muscle becomes thick. Many patients have no symptoms. Often, the first symptom of HOCM in young patients is sudden collapse and possible sudden cardiac arrest. Almost half of sudden cardiac arrests due to HOCM occur immediately after physical activity Commotio Cordis – Cardiac arrest secondary to blunt trauma to the chest (R on T). Most common in young, healthy patients Long QT - AHA channelopathy – Previously undiagnosed conduction abnormalities leading to sudden cardiac arrest
No student should be granted credit for completing this lesson without completion of a scenario-based pediatric cardiac arrest skills station.
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Pediatric Cardiac Arrest Scenario should include

- Two minutes of 2-Rescuer CPR before ALS scenario begins
- Team leader/team member scenario centered on pediatric cardiac arrest
- During management, the student must
 - Demonstrate the accurate use of a length-based resuscitation tape by determining
 - The dose of appropriate resuscitation medications
 - Appropriate ETT size
 - Defibrillation energy
- Establish appropriate vascular access
- Draw up and administer the correct amount of a medication appropriate to the scenario

At all times, the paramedic must ensure that effective chest compressions, airway management and ventilations are maintained.

CHEST PAIN FROM CARDIOVASCULAR CAUSE
 Medication administration Nitroglycerin Aspirin (ASA) Oxygen Transportation destination
Adult
Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Review the pathophysiology of cardiac-related chest pain Identify a patient with non-traumatic chest pain and determine the likelihood of cardiovascular cause Recite the indications and contraindications for the administration of nitroglycerin, aspirin, and oxygen Explain the need for reassessment after performing an intervention Explain the importance of choosing the most appropriate transport destination for the patient with chest pain of cardiac origin
1.0 hour
 Pathophysiology of cardiac-related chest pain Review the path of blood flow through the heart and lungs Emphasize coronary perfusion Acute Coronary Syndrome (ACS) Insufficient oxygen supply to meet the heart's needs Heart muscle becomes ischemic Most common type of ischemia is related to coronary artery disease Coronary Artery Disease (CAD)

 of cardiovascular cause Patient Assessment Signs and symptoms - Emphasize Role of fluid in the lungs Significance of positive JVD Significance of skin color and presence of diaphoresis Atypical presentation in women, elderly and diabetic Significance of an irregular pulse Significance of hypotension When authorized by local medical direction, the capture and transmission of 12-lead EKGs by EMTs may prove beneficial in a comprehensive STEMI system of care Allergies Aspirin Medications Effects of antihypertensives, antianginal and anticoagulant medications Effects of erectile dysfunction drugs Compliance of prescribed medications Previous illness/history Diabetes Previous cardiac events Hypertension Asthma Other chronic diseases Last intake Events leading up to the incident 	 Patient Assessment Signs and symptoms - Emphasize Role of fluid in the lungs Significance of positive JVD Significance of skin color and presence of diaphoresis Atypical presentation in women, elderly and diabetic Significance of an irregular pulse Significance of hypotension When authorized by local medical direction, the capture and transmission of 12-lead EKGs by EMTs may prove beneficial in a comprehensive STEMI system of care Allergies 	Identify a patien	 Results in ischemia Cardiac muscle has more mitochondria than any other muscle More sensitive to oxygen depravation
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 Last intake 	• Last intake		
• Events leading up to the incident	• Events leading up to the incident		ast intake

Doin concernent		
Pain assessment		
• Onset of pain What makes it better/what makes it warsa		
• What makes it better/what makes it worse		
• Severity of pain on a scale of 0-10		
• Describe the pain		
• Radiation of pain		
Recite the indications and contraindications for the administration of		
Nitroglycerin, Aspirin, and Oxygen		
• Nitroglycerin		
• Indications		
 Contraindications 		
 Systolic BP less than 90mm/Hg 		
 Diastolic BP less than 30mm/Hg below baseline 		
 HR less than 50 or greater than 100 in patients without 		
heart failure (clear lung sounds)		
• Aspirin		
• Should be given to all patients with suspected MI		
• Should be given to patients even if they are already on a daily		
dose		
• Mechanism of action		
 Platelet aggregation inhibitor 		
Slows further clotting		
 Contraindications 		
 True allergy 		
 Active GI hemorrhage 		
Oxygen administration		
 Indications in the presence of chest pain 		
 Difficulty breathing 		
 Signs of heart failure or shock 		
• SpO_2 less than 94%		
• Titrate to an SpO ₂ \ge 94%		
 Use of low-flow oxygen in most cases will 		
achieve desired SpO ₂		
 Contraindications 		
 Routine administration of oxygen to a non-complicated 		
chest pain patient is not indicated		
\rightarrow		

Explain the need for reassessment after performing an intervention

- Chest pain related to cardiac disease is a dynamic process
- EMTs must reassess patients to determine the effectiveness of their interventions
 - Adjust care accordingly

Explain the importance of choosing the most appropriate transport destination for the patient with chest pain of cardiac origin

- Patients experiencing ACS should be transported to chest pain receiving centers or in accordance with local protocol
- At times, the patient's choice of hospital can be detrimental to their outcome

NCCR Topic	 OB EMERGENCIES Abnormal presentations
	• Nuchal cord
	Neonatal resuscitation
	• Routine suctioning of the neonate
	τ ^α
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric as applicable
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
	Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	Understand abnormal presentations present during childbirth
	• Discuss the actions the EMT would take when managing a patient with
	an abnormal presentation during delivery
	Describe a nuchal cord presentation
	• Discuss the actions the EMT should take when a nuchal cord is present
	during delivery
	Recognize the need for neonatal resuscitation during delivery
	Discuss the management principles of neonatal resuscitation
	• Discuss the AHA's position on routinely suctioning the airway of a
	newborn
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
Curriculum riours	1.0 11001
CONTENT	Abnormal Presentations In Childbirth
	Show pictures of and discuss the following abnormal presentations:
	• Breech
	 Descriptions
	 Frank - the buttocks are presenting and the legs are up
	along the fetal chest
	 Footling - either one foot or both feet are presenting
	 Complete - the fetal thighs are flexed along the fetal
	abdomen, but the fetal shins and feet are tucked under
	the legs
	 Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the knee-chest position
	\rightarrow
 Limb presentation One leg or one arm presents first Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the knee-chest position Compound Fetal hand coming out with fetal head Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the knee-chest position 	

 Shoulder presentation The fetal shoulder is presenting first Management- Provide supportive care and transport in the knee-chest position 	
 Multiple births More than 1 fetus Management - Provide supportive care, transport and deliver as necessary 	
 Prolapsed cord The umbilical cord is presenting first Management - Provide supportive care, transport in the knee- chest position and insert gloved hand to apply pressure on the presenting part of the baby between contractions to relieve pressure on the umbilical cord. Relieving compression on the cord will enhance fetal circulation 	
 Shoulder dystocia Cephalic presentation but the shoulders are unable to be passed beyond the symphysis pubis "Turtle sign" Management - Provide supportive care, perform the McRoberts maneuver (flexion and abduction of the maternal hips and knees to chest to open the pelvic ring) and apply pressure above the symphysis pubis with the heel of your gloved hand to help dislodge the shoulder from beneath the pubic bone 	
 Nuchal cord Cephalic presentation but umbilical cord is around the neck According to current research Nuchal cords are common and are rarely associated with morbidity or mortality in neonates 	
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Neonatal Resuscitation

Newborns who do **not** require resuscitation can generally be identified by a rapid assessment of the following 3 characteristics:

- Full term gestation 37 weeks
- Crying or breathing adequately ensures patent airway
- Good muscle tone moving all extremities

If the answer to any of these assessment questions is "no," resuscitation efforts should be attempted in the following sequence:

First 30 seconds post-partum

- 1. Warm, clean airway if necessary, dry, stimulate
- 60 seconds post-partum
 - 2. If heart rate below 100, gasping or apnea, initiate positive pressure ventilation with room air and monitor. If labored breathing or persistent cyanosis, clear the airway, monitor, SpO₂ and consider CPAP

After 1 minute post-partum

- 3. If heart rate >100, provide post-resuscitation care. If HR < 100, take ventilation corrective steps (consider intubation)
- 4. If heart rate < 60, begin chest compressions, consider intubation, assess for hypervolemia and pneumothorax

Newborn Care - Routine Suctioning Of The Airway

According to the 2010 American Heart Association Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care, suctioning the airway in the newborn may cause bradycardia. It is recommended that suctioning the newborn immediately following birth (including the use of a bulb syringe) should only be done in newborns who have an obvious obstruction to spontaneous breathing or who require positive pressure ventilation. The presence of meconium does not in itself require suctioning.

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Additional OB Emergency Resources
 Additional OB Emergency Resources Mastrobattista JM et al. Effects of nuchal cord on birth weight and immediate neonatal outcomes. Am J Perinatol. 2005;22(2):83-5. Schäffer L, Burkhardt T, Zimmermann R, Kurmanavicius J. Nuchal cords in term and postterm deliveries—do we need to know? Obstet Gynecol. 2005;106(1):23-8. Sheiner E, Abramowicz JS, Levy A, Silberstein T, Mazor M, Hershkovitz R. Nuchal cord is not associated with adverse perinatal outcome. Arch Gynecol Obstet. 2006 May;274(2):81-3. Epub 2005 Dec 23.

NCCR Topic	 OB EMERGENCIES Abnormal presentations
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric as applicable
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
instructor r reparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Time Allotted	1.0 hour
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Understand abnormal presentations present during childbirth Discuss the actions the EMT would take when managing a patient with an abnormal presentation during delivery Describe a nuchal cord presentation Discuss the actions the EMT should take when a nuchal cord is present during delivery Recognize the need for neonatal resuscitation during delivery Discuss the management principles of neonatal resuscitation Discuss the AHA's position on routinely suctioning the airway of a newborn
Curriculum Hours	1 hour
CONTENT	Abnormal Presentations In Childbirth Show pictures of and discuss the following abnormal presentations: • Breech • Descriptions • Frank - the buttocks are presenting and the legs are up along the fetal chest • Footling - either one foot or both feet are presenting • Complete - the fetal thighs are flexed along the fetal abdomen, but the fetal shins and feet are tucked under the legs • Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the knee-chest position

Limb presentation
• One leg or one arm presents first
• Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the
knee-chest position
Compound
• Fetal hand coming out with fetal head
• Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the
knee-chest position
Chauldon presentation
Shoulder presentation The fatel shoulder is presenting first
• The fetal shoulder is presenting first
• Management - Provide supportive care and transport in the
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Multiple births
\circ More than one fetus
 Management - Provide supportive care, transport and deliver as
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Prolapsed cord
• The umbilical cord is presenting first
• Management- Provide supportive care, transport in the knee-
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 Cephalic presentation but the shoulders are unable to be passed beyond the symphysis pubis
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 Management - Provide supportive care, perform the McRoberts
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to chest to open the pelvic ring) and apply pressure above the
symphysis pubis with the heel of your gloved hand to help
dislodge the shoulder from beneath the pubic bone
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• Cephalic presentation but umbilical cord is around the neck
 According to current research Nuchal cords are common and
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Additional OB Emergency Resources

- 1. Mastrobattista JM et al. Effects of nuchal cord on birth weight and immediate neonatal outcomes. Am J Perinatol. 2005;22(2):83-5.
- 2. Schäffer L, Burkhardt T, Zimmermann R, Kurmanavicius J. Nuchal cords in term and postterm deliveries—do we need to know? Obstet Gynecol. 2005;106(1):23-8.
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NCCR Topic	 ENDOCRINE Diabetes Metabolic syndrome (only limited depth and breadth) Insulin resistance, DKA/HHNS Medication pumps (only limited depth and breadth) Insulin Glucometer (only limited depth and breadth)
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Distinguish between insulin dependent vs. non-insulin dependent diabetes Identify commonly prescribed medications used to treat diabetes Discuss metabolic syndrome and its comorbidities Understand the management of hypo/hyperglycemia Discuss patient use of insulin pumps and other glycemic control options Demonstrate appropriate use of a glucometer
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Diabetes Insulin dependent diabetes (IDDM, Type 1) Earlier age of onset Lack of insulin production Usually requires injection of insulin to replace insulin that is normally produced by the pancreas Insulin is required for most cells to utilize glucose Initial presentation before diagnosis is usually the 3 P's Polydipsia – Increased thirst Polyphagia – Increased hunger After diagnosis, frequently presents to EMS with hypoglycemia Some patients may use medications at home to raise glucose levels Self-injected glucagon Glucose tabs/paste

- Accessment
 Assessment History of type 1 diabetes
 Altered mental status
Consider alternative causes (e.g. ETOH,
trauma etc.)
 Blood glucose reading
• Hypoglycemia – less than 80mg/dL
• Hyperglycemia – greater than 140mg/dL
 Very low blood glucose levels can cause seizures and
stroke like symptoms
 Management of hypoglycemia
 Ensure an open airway, adequate breathing, circulation
and ability to swallow
 Determine the blood glucose level (if available)
 Administer oral glucose as appropriate
 Management of hyperglycemia
 Ensure an open airway, adequate breathing and
circulation
 Determine the blood glucose level (if available)
 Supportive care Transmost
 Transport
Non-insulin dependent diabetes (NIDDM, Type 2)
• Usually later age of onset
 Associated with obesity
 Some cases of type 2 diabetes are resolved with weight
loss
• Cells less receptive to insulin
 Usually requires medication to improve insulin
sensitivity
• These patients are typically aware that they are type 2 diabetic
prior to EMS contact
• After diagnosis, frequently presents to EMS with
hyperglycemia and vague complaints (e.g. fatigue, malaise,
thirst etc.)
 Some patients may use medications at home to
decrease blood glucose levels
Oral medications
 Commonly prescribed
 Metformin (Glucophage®,
Glumetza®)
 Glyburide (DiaBeta®) Chlorence mide (Diabinese®)
Chlorpropamide (Diabinese®)
Some may use insulin
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 Assessment History of type 2 diabetes Altered mental status (severe hyperglycemia) Rapid, deep breathing Dry skin due to dehydration Elevated blood glucose Management of hyperglycemia Ensure an open airway, adequate breathing and circulation Determine the blood glucose level (if available) Supportive care Transport
Metabolic syndrome
 Named for a group of risk factors that increase the risk for coronary artery disease, stroke and type 2 diabetes Extra weight around the middle and upper parts of the body (central obesity). The body may be described as "apple-shaped" Insulin resistance. The body uses insulin less effectively than normal. Insulin is needed to help control the amount of sugar in the body. As a result, blood sugar and fat levels rise People with metabolic syndrome have an increased long-term risk for developing heart disease, type 2 diabetes, stroke, kidney disease, and poor blood supply to the legs
Medication pumps (insulin)
 Device that is designed to pump insulin into the body at a controlled rate through a subcutaneous catheter (usually placed in the abdominal area) Typically has a pager-type device that controls insulin delivery May need to be deactivated during a hypoglycemic emergency
Glucometer
If time permits and the equipment is available, demonstrate appropriate use of the glucometer and have each student practice obtaining a blood glucose level.

NCCR Topic	 SPECIAL HEALTHCARE NEEDS Tracheostomy care Dialysis shunts How to deal with patients and equipment Feeding tubes, CSF shunts, etc. Common cognitive issues
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric (as appropriate)
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Identify and describe common special needs patients seen in EMS Describe the involvement of caregivers in emergency care of the special needs patient Describe the difference in patient assessment when dealing with a special needs patient
Curriculum Hours	2.0 hour
CONTENT	 General considerations when managing a special needs patient Maintain traditional EMS priorities of airway, breathing and circulatory support Involve parents/caregivers in the assessment and management of care Medical history Is the patient acting appropriately? Normal baseline vital signs Medications Caregiver's "go bag" for the patient Supplies necessary to manage the patient's special needs Speak quietly and calmly Employ slower movements and firm, secure contact Request that the caregiver accompany EMS when transporting the patient
	$\rightarrow \rightarrow$

Special considerations and questions when assessing a special needs patient

- Latex allergy (greater incidence)
- Developmental level
- Vision or hearing problems
- Do not assume that a child with a physical disability is cognitively impaired
- Preferred hospital

Common devices that can malfunction at home

- Tracheostomy tube
 - Surgical opening in the trachea (stoma)
 - o Oxygen delivery
 - Blow-by
 - Face mask/non-rebreather mask
 - BVM
 - May need an adapter
- Indwelling central venous catheters
 - Can provide nutrition or medications parenterally
 - Potential for infection or occlusion

• Feeding tubes

- Provide nutrition to patients who are unable to eat by mouth
- Common complications
 - Infection
 - Occlusion
 - Malpositioned/dislodged tube
 - Tube deterioration
- Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) shunts
 - Device used to drain excess CSF from the brain
 - Shunt runs from a ventricle in the brain, under the skin, and down the neck into either the peritoneum of the abdomen or the right atrium
 - Common complications
 - Brain infection
 - Obstruction
 - Peritonitis

Cognitive Impairments

Cognitively impaired or non-communicative patients may still be aware of your actions and words.

Despite their apparent age, cognitively impaired patients might still need a caregiver.

Common difficulties encountered in emergency medicine when dealing with cognitively impaired patients in the EMS setting is obtaining an accurate and complete history. Accommodations may be necessary when providing patient care. Allow adequate time for gathering a history, performing an assessment, patient management procedures, and preparing the patient for transport.

Common Cognitive Impairments

Mental retardation (MR)

- Generalized disorder appearing before adulthood characterized by significantly impaired cognitive functioning and deficits in 2 or more adaptive behaviors
- Syndromic mental retardation intellectual deficits associated with other medical and behavioral signs and symptoms
- Non-syndromic mental retardation intellectual deficits that appear without other abnormalities

Down Syndrome (Downs)

• A complex of symptoms associated with mental retardation caused by chromosomal abnormalities

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- Common physical signs
 - o Mental retardation
 - Decreased muscle tone at birth
 - Upward slanting eyes
 - Wide, short hands with short fingers
- Common mental and social complications
 - Impulsive behavior
 - Poor judgment
 - o Short attention span
 - Slow learning

36

Cerebral Palsy (CP)

- A group of chronic, non-progressive disorders caused by damage to the motor centers of the brain in the early stages of life
- Most of these problems occur in the womb, but can happen any time during the first 2 years of life while the brain is developing
- Characterized by
 - Abnormal muscle tone and posture
 - Muscular spasms
 - Hearing and vision problems
 - o Seizures
 - Cause is difficult to determine
 - May be caused by
 - Low levels of oxygen
 - Infection
 - Head injury
 - RH incompatibility
 - Infections in the mother (e.g. Rubella, Herpes Simplex)

NCCR Topic	 SPECIAL HEALTHCARE NEEDS Tracheostomy care Dialysis shunts How to deal with patients and equipment Feeding tubes, CSF shunts, etc. Cognitive issues
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric (as appropriate)
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Identify and describe common special needs patients seen in EMS Describe the involvement of caregivers in emergency care of the special needs patient
	• Describe the difference in patient assessment when dealing with a special needs patient
Curriculum Hours	2.0 hours
CONTENT	 General considerations when managing a special needs patient Maintain traditional EMS priorities of airway, breathing and circulatory support Involve parents/caregivers in the assessment and management of care Medical history Is the patient acting appropriately? Normal baseline vital signs Medications Caregiver's "go bag" for the patient Supplies necessary to manage the patient's special needs Speak quietly and calmly Employ slower movements and firm, secure contact Request that the caregiver accompany EMS when transporting the patient
	$\rightarrow \rightarrow$

Special considerations and questions when assessing a special needs patient:

- Latex allergy (greater incidence)
- Developmental level
- Vision or hearing problems
- Do not assume that a child with a physical disability is cognitively impaired
- Preferred hospital

Common devices that can malfunction at home:

- Tracheostomy tube
 - Surgical opening in the trachea (stoma)
 - Oxygen delivery
 - Blow-by
 - Face mask/non-rebreather mask
 - BVM
 - May need an adapter
- Indwelling central venous catheters
 - Can provide nutrition or medications parenterally
 - Potential for infection or occlusion
- Feeding tubes
 - Provide nutrition to patients who are unable to eat by mouth
 - Common complications
 - Infection
 - Occlusion
 - Malpositioned/dislodged tube
 - Tube deterioration
- Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) shunts
 - Device used to drain excess CSF from the brain
 - Shunt runs from a ventricle in the brain, under the skin, and down the neck into either the peritoneum of the abdomen or the right atrium
 - Common complications
 - Brain infection
 - Obstruction
 - Peritonitis

Cognitive Impairments

Cognitively impaired or non-communicative patients may still be aware of your actions and words.

Despite their apparent age, cognitively impaired patients might still need their caregiver.

Common difficulties encountered in emergency medicine when dealing with cognitively impaired patients in the EMS setting is obtaining an accurate and complete history. Accommodations may be necessary when providing patient care. Allow adequate time for gathering a history, performing assessment and patient management procedures, and preparing the patient for transport.

Common Cognitive Impairments

Mental retardation (MR)

- Generalized disorder appearing before adulthood characterized by significantly impaired cognitive functioning and deficits in two or more adaptive behaviors.
- Syndromic mental retardation intellectual deficits associated with other medical and behavioral signs and symptoms.
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**Information from SCOPE (Special Children's Outreach and Prehospital Education)

NCCR Topic	PEDIATRIC TRANSPORT • NHTSA
Patient Group	Pediatric
Provider Level	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards
	Review National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)
	recommendations
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:
	• Explain how to appropriately secure a child safety restraint to a wheeled ambulance stretcher
	Understand that children need to be properly restrained in an approved abild restraint daviag during transport
	 child restraint device during transport Explain to another provider the characteristics of an approved child
	restraint system
	Reference:
	http://www.nasemso.org/Councils/PEDS/documents/EMS_Child_Transport_W
	orking_Group_July_Final_Draft_7-2-20102.pdf
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
CONTENT	The instructor should demonstrate the appropriate method to secure a car seat to a wheeled ambulance stretcher.
	Children need to be properly restrained in an approved child restraint device during transport
	• Proper pediatric transportation devices reduce morbidity and mortality in accidents
	For a Child who is uninjured / not ill
	• Transport using a size-appropriate child restraint system that complies with FMVSS 213 in a vehicle other than a ground ambulance
	For a child who is ill and/or injured and whose condition may or may not require continuous monitoring and/or interventions
	• Transport child in a size-appropriate child restraint system that complies with the injury criteria of FMVSS 213—secured appropriately on cot
	\rightarrow

A child whose condition requires spinal immobilization and/or lying flat

• Secure the child to a size-appropriate backboard using standard spinal immobilization techniques

A child or children requiring transport as part of a multiple patient transport (newborn with mother, multiple children, etc.)

- If possible, for multiple patients, transport each as a single patient according to the guidance shown above
- For mother and newborn, transport the newborn in an approved sizeappropriate child restraint system in the rear facing EMS provider seat with a forward-facing belt path that prevents both lateral and forward movement, leaving the cot for the mother

PEDIATRIC TRANSPORT • NHTSA
Pediatric
Paramedic
Review National EMS Education Standards Review National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) recommendations
 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Explain how to appropriately secure a child safety restraint to a wheeled ambulance stretcher Understand that children need to be properly restrained in an approved child restraint device during transport Explain to another provider the characteristics of an approved child restraint system Reference: http://www.nasemso.org/Councils/PEDS/documents/EMS_Child_Transport_W orking_Group_July_Final_Draft_7-2-20102.pdf
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Day 4

Required for Paramedic

Optional for EMR/EMT (Additional CEU's)

NCCR Topic	CULTURE OF SAFETY • Adverse event reporting		
	Medication safety		
Patient Group	n/a		
Provider Level	Paramedic		
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Culture of Safety documents http://www.emscultureofsafety.org/		
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Define culture of safety Review the six key elements for advancing a culture of safety in EMS Identify the role of the EMS provider in establishing a culture of safety within their EMS organization 		
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour		
CONTENT	 Define Culture of Safety "The enduring value and priority placed on worker and public safety by everyone in every group at every level of an organization. It refers to the extent to which individuals and groups will commit to personal responsibility for safety; act to preserve, enhance and communicate safety concerns; strive to actively learn, adapt and modify (both individual and organizational) behavior based on lessons learned from mistakes; and be rewarded in a manner consistent with these values." (http://www.emscultureofsafety.org/) Review the six key elements for advancing a culture of safety in EMS Advancement of values similar to those in a school of thought known as Just Culture Coordinated support and resources for provider agencies and other stakeholders A national data system for responder safety and patient safety in EMS Evolution of the EMS education system; Promulgation of safety standards and related information Reporting/investigation of applicable incidents 		
	\rightarrow		

Identify the role of the EMS provider in establishing a culture of safety within their EMS organization

EMS providers should

- Collaborate with EMS management in the development, promotion, and implementation of a comprehensive system-wide safety program for their EMS system such as Just Culture or other similar programs to facilitate an honest and prompt reporting of mishaps and errors
- Support the need for coordination of all EMS safety related programs at the local, regional, state, and federal levels to share items such as best practices and improved safety standards
- Participate in current local and/or national EMS responder and patient data collection systems (e.g. E.V.E.N.T.)
- Support increased EMS educational initiatives to address EMS system safety and a new culture of safety for EMS and seek opportunities to expand their knowledge base on culture, patient safety, and research on clinical safety, responder safety, personal protective equipment, etc.
- Corporate in the development of new and improved safety standards that affect all aspects of the EMS system such as participating with studies in safety related research
- Support the creation of a national EMS safety data system that collects both patient and EMS personnel data

Medication Safety

Review the "5 rights" of medication administration

- Right patient
- Right medication
- Right dose
- Right route
- Right time



NCCR Topic	 ACUTE CORONARY SYNDROME (ACS) 12-lead review STEMI imposters 			
Patient Group	Adult			
Provider Level	Paramedic			
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards			
_	Review current AHA Guidelines			
Learning Objectives	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:			
	Recognize injury patterns on a 12-lead EKG Differentiate STEMI from STEMI immediate			
	Differentiate STEMI from STEMI imposters			
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour			
Curriculum Hours	1.0 nour			
CONTENT	Recognize injury patterns on a 12-lead EKG			
	 Review the anatomical view of the heart with each lead Provide 12-lead examples that demonstrate STEMI's from each area of the heart Differentiate STEMI from STEMI imposters Common STEMI imposters (provide examples of 12-lead EKGs that show imposters) Left ventricular hypertrophy 			
	 Bundle branch blocks It is difficult to determine an acute from a chronic left bundle branch block without access to a previous 12- lead EKG A left bundle branch block, without other signs or symptoms of MI is not a STEMI Implanted pacemakers Pericarditis 			

NCCR Topic	 CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE (CHF) Recognition Treatment 		
Patient Group	Adult		
Provider Level	Paramedic		
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines		
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Recognize the patient who is experiencing congestive heart failure Discriminate appropriate and inappropriate treatment modalities in CHF 		
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour		
CONTENT	Recognize the patient who is experiencing congestive heart failure		
	Congestive heart failure is compensated cardiogenic shock		
	 Review the blood flow through the heart and lungs No valves between left atria and lungs Can allow fluid back-up Review heart valves Differentiate the pressure difference between circulatory vessels and the capillary beds Lungs Periphery 		
	COMMON CAUSES OF CHF		
	Increased peripheral vascular resistance (PVR)		
	 Chronic hypertension Increased left ventricular workload Hypertrophy/cardiomegaly P mitrale Chronic COPD Pulmonary emboli Non-compliance with medications 		
	\rightarrow		

Ventricular failure

- Myocardial Infarction
 - o AMI
 - Previous MI with ventricular involvement
 - \circ Non-compliance with medications

Fluid overload

- Non-compliance with medications
- Renal failure

PRESENTATION

Congestive heart failure can refer to right or left sided heart failure.

Common signs and symptoms of CHF can include

- Distended neck veins
- Peripheral edema
 - Can be pitting (late sign)
- Crackles and wheezes in dependent portions of the lungs

Treatment

- Continuous Positive Airway Pressure (CPAP)
 - o Positive end expiratory pressure
 - o Forces alveoli open and helps keep them open
 - o Forces fluid out of alveoli
 - Increases oxygenation
 - o Contraindications
 - Inability for the patient to maintain their own airway
 - Hypotension (systolic BP of 90mm/Hg or less) may be a contraindication. Follow local protocol or guidelines.
 - Recent esophageal surgery

• Nitroglycerin
 Peripheral vasodilator
 Reduces oxygen demand in the heart
 Dilates coronary arteries
• Contraindications
 Hypotension (systolic BP of 90mm/Hg or less)
 If unable to tolerate sublingually, use nitroglycerin paste

NCCR Topic Patient Group Provider Level Instructor Preparation Learning Objectives	FLUID RESUSCITATION
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
Content	 Fluid Therapy Permissive hypotension - allowing specific patients to experience some degree of hypotension in certain settings. The goal of fluid resuscitation is to maintain vital organ perfusion Level of consciousness is an indicator of vital organ perfusion Assessment of the level of consciousness may guide the need for fluid administration Normalization of blood pressure through fluid administration may be harmful and is discouraged Dangers of excessive crystalloid administration Dilution of clotting factors and platelets Physical disruption of a clot Expanding the area of vascular defect as blood pressure increases Enhances red blood cell loss, thus reducing the total oxygen carrying capacity of the blood

Discussion
Out of hospital fluid resuscitation is a controversial topic. Below are several different organizations' opinions on fluid resuscitation. Review and discuss current research and position statements from relevant sources.
v i

 MEDICATION DELIVERY IM vs. SQ (e.g. epinephrine) Intranasal (nasal atomizer) 	
• Intranasal (nasal atomizer)	
Adult and Pediatric	
Paramedic	
Review National EMS Education Standards	
Review Local Protocols 1.0 hour	
By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:	
• Discuss why intramuscular (IM) administration is superior to the	
subcutaneous (SQ) route	
• Compare and contrast the delivery of medication with a nasal atomizer vs. other routes of administration	
Benefits of IM drug administration over the SQ route	
 With certain drugs (e.g. epinephrine) IM drug administration is more consistent than SQ in the prehospital setting Obese patients Pediatrics Movement of the ambulance Prehospital medications that have previously been given via the SQ route are transitioning to the intramuscular route due to more predictable absorption in critical patients Peripheral vasoconstriction or poor perfusion (e.g. shock) Larger volumes of medication can be given via the IM route vs. the SQ route 	
IM over SQ) Recommend injection into thigh for anaphylaxis $\rightarrow \rightarrow$	

Intranasal Delivery of Medications
 This delivery technique combines a method of measuring a unit dose of medication Delivered with a syringe or unit dose pump with a spray tip Medication is aerosolized into fine particles as it is being sprayed into the nose Results in a broader distribution of the medication across the nasal mucosa and an increased bioavailability
 Not all medications can be delivered intranasally Must have the correct pharmacokinetics
 Medications that can be delivered via intranasal route include but are not limited to oFentanyl oMidazolam o Naloxone Ketamine Glucagon Split dosage between nares Max volume in each naris is 1.0mL

Patient Group Provider Level Instructor Preparation	AAP pediatric pain management Adult and Pediatric Paramedic Review National EMS Education Standards Review NAEMSP position paper (link provided below)
Provider Level	Paramedic Review National EMS Education Standards
	Review National EMS Education Standards
Instructor Preparation	
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Summarize the position paper published by the National Association of EMS Physicians regarding Prehospital Pain Management (http://www.naemsp.org/Documents/POSITION% 20Prehos pitalPainMgmt.pdf)
CONTENT	 Pain Assessment Adequate pain control is not routinely provided for a number of reasons Most commonly underestimation of patient's needs EMS personnel may base their judgment on past similar patients Prehospital protocols should require assessment of pain severity and reassessment and document of the level of pain after every intervention Tools for pain assessment Use the same scale to assess and reassess Interpretation of the signal includes physiologic, psychological, emotional, and behavioral dimensions Assessment instrument – document Presence of pain Intensity of pain Change in pain severity with time and treatment

	There is a first for
•	• Types of scales
	• Numeric Rating Scale
	 "Rate your pain on a scale of 0-10"
	Proven more reliable in trauma
	• Graphic Scale
	 Commonly used in pediatric patients (see
	supplement)
Indicatio	ons and Contraindications of Pain Management
Oligoana	lgesia – Under use of analgesics in the face of valid indications for
treatment	t. Typically used to represent the under-use of pain management
medicatio	ons or techniques.
Clinical	protocols for prehospital pain management
•	• Must list clear indications and contraindications for each form of
	analgesic intervention
•	
	trauma centers
•	• Consensus of opinion and acceptance by receiving physicians
Non-pha	rmacologic interventions for pain management
	• Careful use of appropriate wording
	Distraction away from painful stimuli
•	
	shown to reduce the level of distress in both the child and the
	parents
•	
	pharmacological interventions are used
	• Immobilization of fractures
	• Elevation
	o Ice
	 Padding of spinal immobilization
	o etc.
Pharmacological interventions for pain management – Review of most commonly used agents • Narcotics (morphine, fentanyl, hydromorphone (Dilaudid®) etc.) • Ketamine • Nitrous oxide Non-narcotics • Nalbuphine (Nubain®) • NSAIDS - Ketorolac (Toradol®) Patient Monitoring and Documentation Before and after analgesic administration • Documentation of the patient's clinical status before and after analgesic administration is required • Vital signs – Baseline, and following each intervention • Level of consciousness • HR. BP. Pulse • Document any significant change in clinical status, then any corrective action taken • Follow all local controlled substances policies for documentation, wastage, storage, etc. Quality improvement and medical oversight • Systems with established QI programs have better compliance to pain management protocols • Establish benchmarks • Tracking plan • Feedback and discussion with ED staff, medical director, patients Acute vs. chronic pain management • Dependence, abuse, and addiction of prescribed medications is well documented • Perform a thorough pain assessment prior to providing treatment • Pain management should depend upon objective clinical decision making • Pain is individualized with each patient. When they report where their pain is on the scale, it should not be influenced by the individual provider's bias

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Pediatric specific topics

• EMS providers sometimes struggle with assessment and management of pain in the pediatric patient

Research

• Conduct a local research program evaluating pain management in your area

SUPPLEMENT:



PATIENT
Adult
Paramedic
Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Differentiate between airway management, ventilation, and oxygenation Compare and contrast the advantages and disadvantages of various advanced airway adjuncts Justify the use of an endotracheal tube to protect a patient's airway Recognize correct endotracheal tube placement using clinical assessment techniques Analyze the efficacy of endotracheal tube confirmation placement devices Demonstrate competency in placing an endotracheal tube in a simulated airway Evaluate and report proper endotracheal tube placement using clinical assessment and available devices
1.0 hour
 This lesson plan does not address airway management in the cardiac arrest patient. Please see the "Cardiac Arrest" lesson plan for airway management in the pulseless, apneic patient. Many EMS providers lump "airway" topics together which fails to focus providers on three important decisions and/or skills that are necessary to assure adequate respiratory function. This topic is about "airway," a passage for air from the nares to the alveoli. It is not a topic about air movement (ventilation), or a topic about oxygenation (saturation of hemoglobin). When respiratory system function is less than optimal EMS providers need to keep these three functions separate. A breathing person can aspirate gastric contents One ounce of aspirated gastric juice is a lethal dose. If it can digest a hamburger, imagine what it does to your lungs

Blood can flow around the body that is very desaturated of oxygen and opening an airway on this patient will not resolve the desaturation.

Airway, ventilation and oxygenation are three separate issues and must be thought of as three separate considerations during patient care.

- Airway management is establishing a conduit for air passage
 - Some patients need airway management without ventilation (ex: Edema to the upper airway)
- Ventilation is a mechanical process of moving air into and out of the alveoli
 - Some patients require ventilation who do not require advanced airway management
- Oxygenation is the saturation of hemoglobin with oxygen
 - Some patients need oxygenated that have an open airway and are ventilating adequately (ex: SpO₂ less than 94% on room air)

Multiple Airway Tools Available

- Supraglottic
 - Examples
 - Laryngeal mask airway (e.g. LMA)
 - Esophageal-tracheal tube (e.g. Comb tube™)
 - Laryngeal tube (e.g. King LTTM)
 - o Advantages

- Does not require visualization of the glottis (blind insertion)
- Initial training and maintenance of skills are easier
- Chest compressions do not need to be interrupted to insert
- Minimal equipment required for insertion
- o Disadvantages
 - Some devices contraindicated in patients at risk for regurgitation which can lead to aspiration (e.g. LMA)
 - Unrecognized improper placement can occur
 - Explain the specific contraindications that are in use in your system

- Endotracheal Tube (ETT)
 - Advantages
 - Keeps the airway patent
 - May protects the airway from aspiration
 - Allows suctioning of deep airway secretions
 - Potential route for drug administration
 - Disadvantages
 - Initial training difficult
 - Skill maintenance insufficient
 - Trauma to the oropharynx
 - Hypoxemia from prolonged intubation attempt
 - Failure to recognize tube displacement or misplacement

There is a high incidence of complications when intubation is performed by inexperienced providers or monitoring of tube placement is inadequate.

Techniques to open the airway

• Must be proficient at basic airway management before performing advanced airway management

ETT as an airway protective skill

- Requires back-up adjunct
- Effective preoxygenation
- Perfusing vs. non-perfusing
- Facilitates some ventilation decisions
 - Unprotected airway
 - Prolonged need for ventilation
 - Restricted airflow
 - Head injuries

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- Rapidly deteriorating airway
 - Anaphylaxis
 - Airway burns
 - Severe asthma
 - Severe facial trauma
 - Poor mask seal
- Rapidly deteriorating mental status

Verifying Endotracheal Tube Placement

The following statement should be read to the class:

2010 American Heart Association Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care (Part 8: Adult Advanced Cardiovascular Life Support pp. S733) states:

> "Providers should always use both clinical assessment and devices to confirm endotracheal tube location immediately after placement and throughout the resuscitation. All confirmation devices should be considered adjuncts to other confirmation techniques."

Detection of exhaled CO_2 is one of several independent methods of confirming ETT position. Continuous waveform capnography is recommended in addition to clinical assessment as the most reliable method of confirming and monitoring correct placement of an endotracheal tube (Class I, LOE A).

Given the simplicity of colorimetric and non-waveform exhaled CO_2 detectors, these methods can be used in addition to clinical assessment as the initial method for confirming correct tube placement in a patient in cardiac arrest when waveform capnography is not available (Class II, LOE B) However, studies of colorimetric exhaled CO_2 detectors and non-waveform PETCO₂ capnometers indicate that the accuracy of these devices does not exceed that of auscultation and direct visualization for confirming the tracheal position of an endotracheal tube in victims of cardiac arrest."

Psychomotor Standard

No person should be given credit for meeting this National Core Competency Requirement without successfully demonstrating this skill and receiving a passing score on an NREMT developed skill sheet for endotracheal intubation. Examiners that validate this skill should be the instructor or training officer of the class. If the cognitive class lecture takes place at a different location, the skill of endotracheal intubation must be validated by the training officer.

You may retrieve the NREMT developed skill sheet for endotracheal intubation on the NREMT website.

https://www.nremt.org/nremt/downloads/Ventilatory_Management_Adult.pdf

NCCR Topic	CAPNOGRAPHY
Patient Group	Adult and Pediatric
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Compare and contrast the difference between ventilation and oxygenation Interpret blood oxygenation through the use of a pulse oximeter Discuss how ETCO₂ measures ventilation and perfusion Break down the phases of the ETCO₂ waveform of a capnography Interpret ETCO₂ readings To assess and monitor proper endotracheal tube placement To determine and monitor effective ventilation To determine and monitor effective perfusion To determine and monitor effective diffusion
Curriculum Hours	1.0 hour
CONTENT	 Oxygenation and Ventilation - What is the difference? Oxygenation and Ventilation Two completely different and separate functions Oxygenation is the transport of O₂ via the bloodstream to the cells Oxygen is required for metabolism Ventilation is the exhaling of CO₂ via the respiratory tract Carbon dioxide is a byproduct of metabolism Oxygenation - Measured by pulse oximetry (SpO₂) Noninvasive measurement Percentage of oxygen in red blood cells Changes in ventilation take minutes to be detected Affected by motion artifact, poor perfusion and some dysrhythmias
	\rightarrow

Ventilation - Measured by the end-tidal CO₂

- Partial pressure (mmHg) or volume (% vol) of CO₂ in the airway at the end of exhalation
- Breath-to-breath measurement provides information within seconds
- Not affected by motion artifact, poor perfusion or dysrhythmias
- SpO₂ measures percentage of O₂ in red blood cells
- Reflects change in oxygenation within 5 minutes
- Ventilation
- Carbon dioxide from metabolism
- ETCO₂ measures exhaled CO₂ at point of exit
- Reflects change in ventilation within 10 seconds

Physiology

- Carbon dioxide can be measured
- Arterial blood gas is PaCO₂
- Normal range: 35-45mmHg
- Mixed venous blood gas PeCO₂
- Normal range: 46-48mmHg
- Exhaled carbon dioxide is ETCO₂
- Normal range: 35-45mmHg

End-tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂) Reflects changes in

- Ventilation movement of air in and out of the lungs
- Diffusion exchange of gases between the air-filled alveoli and the pulmonary circulation
- Perfusion circulation of blood
- End-tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂)
- Monitors changes in
 - Ventilation (e.g. asthma, COPD, airway edema, foreign body, stroke)
 - Diffusion (e.g. pulmonary edema, alveolar damage, CO poisoning, smoke inhalation)
 - Perfusion (e.g. shock, pulmonary embolus, cardiac arrest, severe dysrhythmias)

Why Measure Ventilation—Intubated Patients

Discuss the ETCO₂ findings and show example capnographs regarding the following situations:

- Verify and document ET tube placement
- Immediately detect changes in ET tube position
- Assess effectiveness of chest compressions
- Earliest indication of ROSC
- Indicator of probability of successful resuscitation
- Optimally adjust manual ventilations in patients sensitive to changes in CO₂

Why Measure Ventilation-Non-Intubated Patients

Discuss the ETCO₂ findings and show example capnographs regarding the following situations:

- Objectively assess acute respiratory disorders
 - o Asthma
 - o COPD
- Possibly gauge response to treatment
- Gauge severity of hypoventilation states
- Congestive heart failure
- Sedation and analgesia
- Stroke
- Head injury
- Assess perfusion status
- Noninvasive monitoring of patients in DKA
- Interpreting ETCO₂ and the capnography waveform

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Capnography Waveform

Normal waveform of one respiratory cycle (Similar to ECG)

- Height shows amount of CO₂
- Length depicts time
- Waveforms on screen and printout may differ in duration
- On-screen capnography waveform is condensed to provide adequate information the in 4-second view
- Printouts are in real-time
- Capnograph detects only CO₂ from ventilation
- No CO₂ present during inspiration
- Baseline is normally zero

Capnogram Phase I - Dead Space Ventilation

- Beginning of exhalation
- No CO₂ present
- Air from trachea, posterior pharynx, mouth and nose
- No gas exchange occurs there
- Called "dead space"

Capnogram Phase II - Ascending Phase

- CO₂ from the alveoli begins to reach the upper airway and mix with the dead space air
- Causes a rapid rise in the amount of CO₂
- CO₂ now present and detected in exhaled air

Capnogram Phase III - Alveolar Plateau

- CO₂ rich alveolar gas now constitutes the majority of the exhaled air
- Uniform concentration of CO₂ from alveoli to nose/mouth
- CO₂ exhalation wave plateaus

Capnogram Phase III - End-Tidal

- End of exhalation contains the highest concentration of CO₂
- The "end-tidal CO₂"
- The number seen on your monitor
- Normal ETCO₂ is 35-45mmHg
- End of the wave of exhalation

Capnogram Phase IV - Descending Phase

- Inhalation begins
- Oxygen fills airway
- CO₂ level quickly drops to zero
- Inspiratory downstroke returns to baseline
- Capnography Waveform
- Normal range is 35-45mm Hg (5% vol)

NCCR Topic	CNS Injury – $EtCO_2$
Patient Group	n/a
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review National EMS Education Standards Review current AHA Guidelines
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Understand the pathophysiology of CNS injury related to EtCO₂ Utilize the EtCO₂ Readings in the management of CNS Injury
Curriculum Hours	1.5 hour
CONTENT	ETCO ₂ as a guide for ventilations
	Using $ETCO_2$ measurements to determine the appropriate ventilatory rate in patients with isolated head injuries is controversial.
	There is little evidence to support the titration of ventilation according to specific $ETCO_2$ values.
	In one study (Davis et. all, J Trauma 2004 57;1, 1-10), patients with ETCO ₂ readings under 27mm/Hg had higher mortality.
	According to the Traumatic Brain Foundation guidelines, patients should be maintained with normal breathing rates (ETCO ₂ 35-40mm/Hg) and hyperventilation (ETCO ₂ less than 35 mm/Hg) should be avoided unless the patient shows signs of cerebral herniation.
	Some experts recommend the use of $ETCO_2$ for trending purposes with the understanding that $ETCO_2$ and $PaCO_2$ do not correlate well in the severely ill or injured patient.
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NCCR Topic	CREW RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (CRM)
Patient Group	n/a
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review IAFC CRM Manual (link below)
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Describe crew resource management (CRM) and its benefits to EMS Describe the responsibilities of team leaders and team members Understand the roles of the team member and team leader List the benefits of CRM Explain how CRM fits into your local organizational structure List the difficulties associated with implementation of CRM in your organization's culture
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour
CONTENT	Crew Resource Management (CRM) is the effective use of all resources to minimize errors, improve safety and improve performance. IAFC CRM Manual http://www.iafc.org/files/pubs_CRMmanual.pdf Benefits to EMS • Minimize errors • Utilizes collective wisdom via appreciative inquiry • Verbalizes errors and reports them promptly • "Leave your ego at the door" Improved safety • Improved safety • Improved performance • Conflict resolution • Increased feedback • Better workload management • Improved clinical decision making • Better teamwork • Improved situational awareness
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Crew Resource Management

Crew Resource Management (CRM) is a tool created to optimize human performance by reducing the effect of human error through the use of all resources.

Resources include

- People
- Hardware
- Information

Principles of CRM

- a. Error management through improved training/skills development in six areas
 - i. Communication Skills
 - ii. Teamwork
 - iii. Task Allocation
 - iv. Critical Decision Making
 - v. Situational Awareness
 - vi. Debrief

b. Six steps in detail

i. Communication Skills

Suggestion: Use communication skills exercises from IAFF CRM Manual pp. 29-31

ii. Teamwork

- 1. Leadership
 - a. Authority
 - b. Mentoring
 - c. Conflict Resolution
 - d. Mission Analysis
 - e. Teamwork
- 2. Followership
 - a. Self-Assessment
 - b. Physical Condition
 - c. Mental Condition
 - d. Attitude
 - e. Understanding human behaviors
 - Slip, trip, lapse Culture of Safety reference

f.	Followership Skills	5
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- 1) Respect authority
- 2) Personal safety
- 3) Crew Safety
- 4) Accept authority
- 5) Know authority limits
- 6) Leader success
- 7) Good communication skills
- 8) Learning attitude
- 9) Ego in check
- 10) Balance assertiveness/authority
- 11) Accept orders
- 12) Demand clear tasks
- 13) Admit errors
- 14) Provide feedback
- 15) Adapt

iii. Task Allocation

- 1. Know your limits
- 2. Know your crew's limits
- 3. Capitalize on strengths
- 4. Eat the elephant one bite at a time

iv. Critical Decision Making

- 1. Recognize problems
- 2. Continue to "fly the plane" (treat the patient)
- 3. Maintain Situational Awareness
- 4. Assess Hazards
- 5. Assess Resources
- 6. Solicit Solutions
- 7. Make a Decision!
- 8. Rapid Primed Decision Making
- 9. Ways to increase decision making skills
- a. Experience
- b. Training
- c. Communication
- d. Preplanning

v. Situational Awareness

- 1. Take care of the patient (*edited for EMS application*)
- 2. Assess problems in the time available
- 3. Gather information from all sources
- 4. Choose the best option
- 5. Monitor results—alter as necessary
- 6. Beware of situational awareness loss factors

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vi. Debrief

- 1. Check your feelings at the door
- 2. Facilitate
- 3. Prebrief
- 4. Topics
- 5. Decorum
- 6. Analyze
- 7. Operations
- 8. Human behaviors
- c. A high degree of technical proficiency is essential for safe and efficient operations.
- d. CRM alone cannot overcome a lack of proficiency.
- e. Technical proficiency alone cannot guarantee safe operations in the absence of effective crew coordination.
- f. CRM must be taught to all members of the organization.
- g. Team leader retains authority, recognizes benefits of using all available resources.

Team Member/Team Leader

Team Member

- Communicates accurately and concisely while listening and accepts feedback
- Demonstrates followership is receptive to leadership
- Demonstrates confidence, compassion, maturity
- Maintains situational awareness
- Utilizes appreciative inquiry
- Uses closed-loop communication
- Reports progress on tasks
- Performs tasks accurately and in a timely manner
- Advocates safety concerns and is safety conscious at all times
- Leaves ego/rank at the door
- Performs a dangerous or inappropriate intervention
- Exhibits unacceptable affect with patient or other personnel
- Immediately suggests corrective action if a harmful intervention is ordered/performed by others
- Followership skills

Team Leader

- Creates, implements and revises an action plan
- Communicates accurately and concisely while listening and encouraging feedback
- Receives, processes, verifies and prioritizes information
- Reconciles incongruent information
- Demonstrates confidence, compassion, maturity and command presence
- Takes charge
- Maintains accountability for team's actions/outcomes
- Assesses situation and resources and modifies accordingly
- Maintains situational awareness
- Utilizes appreciative inquiry
- Uses closed-loop communication
- Reports progress on tasks
- Performs tasks accurately and in a timely manner
- Addresses safety concerns and is safety conscious at all times
- Leaves ego/rank at the door
- Performed or ordered a dangerous or inappropriate intervention
- Exhibited unacceptable affect with patient or other personnel

NCCR Topic	CREW RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (Application)
Patient Group	n/a
Provider Level	Paramedic
Instructor Preparation	Review IAFC CRM Manual (http://www.iafc.org/files/pubs_CRMmanual.pdf)
Learning Objectives	 By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to: Practice CRM in simulated scenarios (2-3) Apply CRM principles to EMS activities and tasks Defend the benefits of CRM
Curriculum Hours	0.5 hour (continued from above)
CONTENT	Team leaders receive feedback after demonstrating the following tasks
	 Creates, implements and revises an action plan Communicates accurately and concisely while listening and encouraging feedback Receives, processes, verifies and prioritizes information Reconciles incongruent information Demonstrates confidence, compassion, maturity and command presence Takes charge Maintains accountability for team's actions/outcomes Assesses situation and resources and modifies accordingly Maintains situational awareness Utilizes appreciative inquiry Uses closed-loop communication
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Team members receive feedback after demonstrating the following tasks:

- Communicates accurately and concisely while listening and accepts feedback Demonstrates followership is receptive to leadership
- Demonstrates confidence, compassion, maturity
- Maintains situational awareness
- Utilizes appreciative inquiry
- Uses closed-loop communication
- Reports progress on tasks
- Performs tasks accurately and in a timely manner
- Advocates safety concerns and is safety conscious at all times
- Leaves ego/rank at the door
- Performs a dangerous or inappropriate intervention
- Exhibits unacceptable affect with patient or other personnel
- Immediately suggests corrective action if a harmful intervention is ordered/performed by others
- Followership skills

See Appendix for Lab Skills Activities Team Evaluations Sample Scenarios