

MEDAVIE

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TRAUMATISME DE LA MOELLE ÉPINIÈRE

Formation paramédicale en soins primaires

Module : 05

Section : 09

- Introduction
- Physiopathologie
- Évaluation
- Gestion

- Les lésions de la moelle épinière peuvent :
 - menacer la vie
 - entraîner une incapacité à vie
- 1 500 nouvelles lésions à la moelle épinière chaque année
 - Les personnes de 20 à 30 ans sont les plus touchées (fréquence plus élevée chez les hommes)
 - Accidents d'automobile : 42,8 %
 - Chutes : 43,2 %

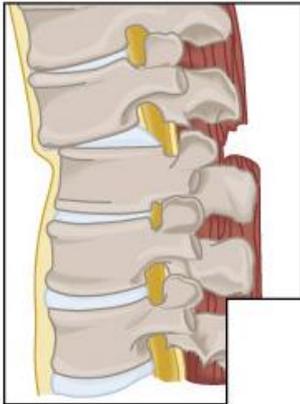
- La moelle épinière est faite de tissu nerveux très spécialisé.
 - Aucune capacité de régénérescence
 - Interruption des voies de communication en cas de lésion
 - Paraplégie, quadriplégie
 - Perturbation de l'environnement interne et du contrôle des organes
- Les soins à vie des blessés médullaires coûtent plus d'un million de dollars.
- La meilleure forme de prise en charge réside dans la sécurité publique et les programmes de prévention.

- Mouvements extrêmes
 - Flexion, extension, rotation, flexion latérale
- Tensions le long de l'axe de la colonne vertébrale
 - Charge axiale, distraction
- Conséquence directe d'un traumatisme contondant ou pénétrant
- Conséquence indirecte de la compression de la moelle par une masse en expansion
 - Hémorragie ou œdème

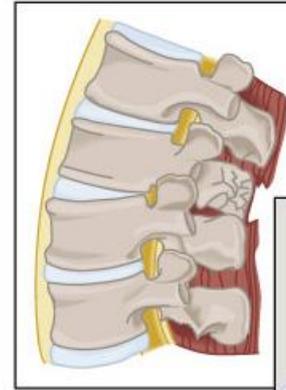
- Hyperextension et hyperflexion
 - Mouvement de la colonne au-delà de sa limite
 - Se produit habituellement dans les régions cervicale et lombaire
- Hyperextension
 - Lors d'une collision arrière, le haut du torse est projeté vers l'avant et la tête, vers l'arrière.
- Hyperflexion
 - Lors d'une collision frontale, le haut du torse est retenu, mais la tête poursuit sa course vers l'avant.

Mouvements extrêmes

LÉSION PAR FLEXION



LÉSION PAR HYPEREXTENSION



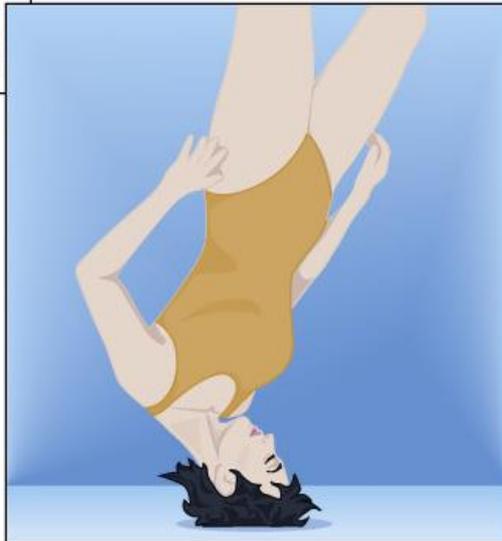
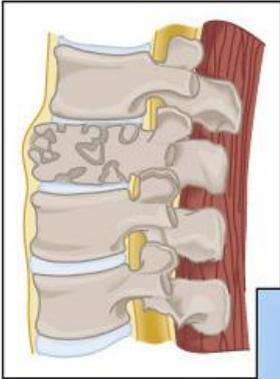
- Rotation
 - Touche généralement la colonne cervicale
 - Se produit lors d'un impact latéral
- Flexion latérale
 - Peut survenir dans n'importe quelle région de la colonne vertébrale
 - En règle générale, la force n'a pas besoin d'être grande pour infliger des blessures.

LÉSION PAR FLEXION-ROTATION

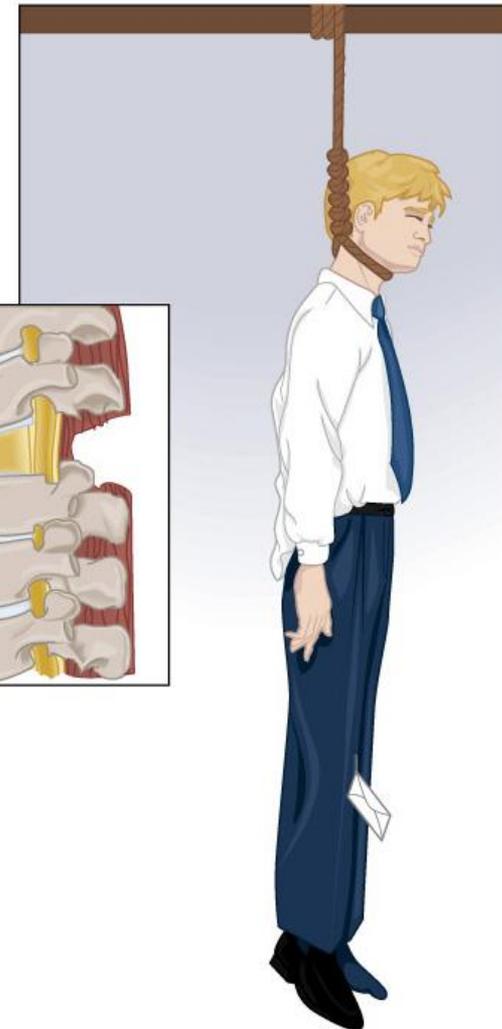
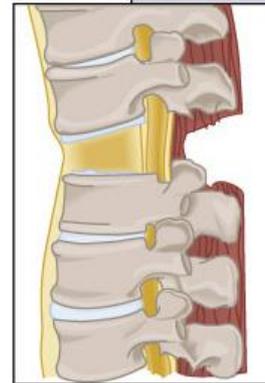


- **Charge axiale**
 - Compression de la colonne vertébrale
 - Transmise vers le haut ou vers le bas de la colonne vertébrale
 - Exemple : plongeon en eaux peu profondes
- **Distraction**
 - Contraire de la charge axiale
 - Force qui étire la colonne vertébrale
 - Exemples : pendaison, saut à l'élastique
- **Combinaisons**
 - Distraction-rotation, compression-flexion

LÉSION PAR COMPRESSION

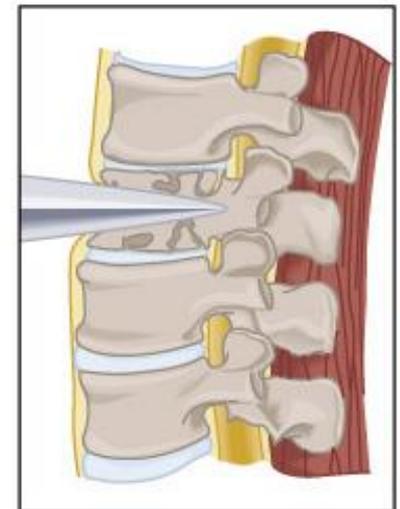


LÉSION PAR DISTRACTION



- Traumatismes contondants ou pénétrants
 - Effets directs du traumatisme
- Mécanismes indirects
 - Compression de la circulation en raison d'une hémorragie ou d'un œdème
 - Ischémie et défaillance
- Électrocution
 - Résultat de contractions musculaires extrêmes

LÉSION PAR PÉNÉTRATION



- Déplacement des vertèbres
 - Subluxation ou luxation
- Fractures
 - Apophyse épineuse et apophyse transverse
 - Pédicule et lames
 - Corps vertébral
- Disques intervertébraux herniés
 - Sites de lésion les plus fréquents
 - C-1 et C-2 : vertèbres fragiles
 - C-7 : transition entre la colonne cervicale flexible et le thorax
 - T-12 et L-1 : différence de flexibilité entre les régions thoracique et lombaire

- **Commotion médullaire**
 - Semblable à la commotion cérébrale
 - Perturbation temporaire de la fonction de la moelle épinière
- **Contusion**
 - Lésion tissulaire, fuite vasculaire et enflure
- **Compression**
 - Plusieurs causes possibles :
 - Déplacement des vertèbres
 - Disque intervertébral hernié
 - Déplacement d'un fragment de vertèbre
 - Gonflement des tissus adjacents

- **Lacération**
 - Hémorragie dans le tissu de la moelle, enflure et perturbation des impulsions
 - Causes :
 - Fragments osseux enfoncés dans le foramen intervertébral
 - Élongation de la moelle épinière jusqu'au point de rupture
- **Hémorragie**
 - Associée à une contusion, à une lacération ou à une élongation

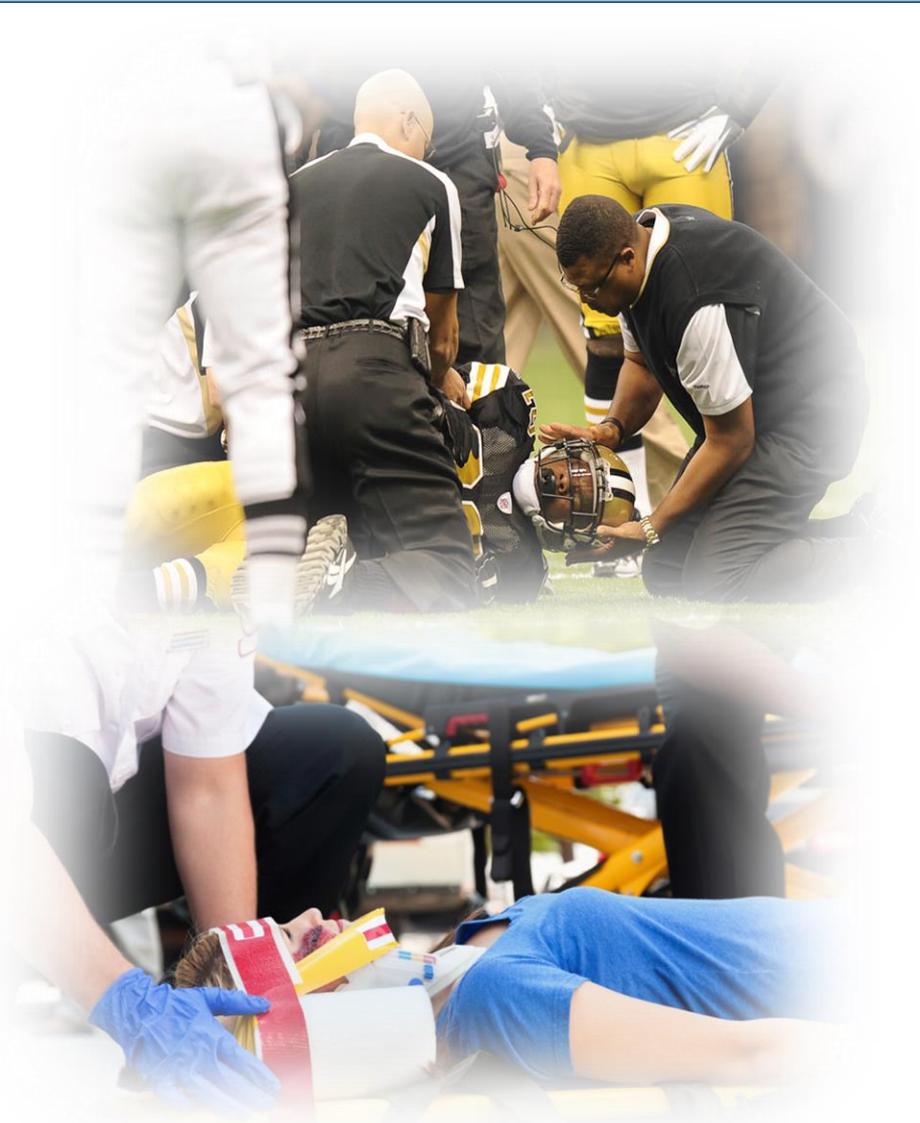
- Rupture complète ou partielle de la moelle épinière
- Section complète
 - Aucune impulsion sous le site de la lésion
 - Colonne cervicale
 - Quadriplégie
 - Incontinence
 - Détresse respiratoire
 - Colonne thoracique
 - Paraplégie
 - Incontinence

- **Syndrome antérieur de la moelle**
 - Perturbation vasculaire antérieure
 - Perte de la fonction motrice et de la perception de la douleur, du toucher et de la température sous le site de la lésion
 - Conservation de la sensation motrice et de la perception de la position et de la vibration
- **Syndrome de la moelle centrale**
 - Hyperextension de la colonne cervicale
 - Faiblesse motrice des membres supérieurs
 - Dysfonctionnement de la vessie

- **Syndrome de Brown-Séquard**
 - Lésion par pénétration qui touche un côté de la moelle épinière
 - Perte sensorielle et motrice ipsilatérale
 - Douleur et perte de perception de la température du côté opposé

Signes et symptômes d'une lésion de la moelle épinière

- Paralysie des extrémités
- Douleur avec ou sans mouvement
- Sensibilité à la pression le long de la colonne vertébrale
- Difficulté à respirer
- Déformation de la colonne vertébrale
- Priapisme
- Rigidité de décortication et de décérébration
- Perte de contrôle des intestins ou de la vessie
- Atteinte de la fonction nerveuse aux extrémités



- Agression temporaire de la moelle épinière
- Touche la région située sous le site de la lésion
- Signes et symptômes dans la zone touchée :
 - Flaccidité
 - Perte de sensation
 - Perte de mouvement (paralysie flasque)
 - Perte de contrôle fréquente des intestins et de la vessie
 - Priapisme
 - Hypotension consécutive à la vasodilatation

- Forme temporaire de choc neurogène
 - Hypotension
 - Bradycardie
 - Signes de lésion médullaire

- La lésion médullaire perturbe la capacité du cerveau à contrôler le corps.
- Perte du tonus sympathique
 - Dilatation des artères et des veines
 - Expansion de l'espace vasculaire
 - Hypotension relative
 - Diminution de la précharge cardiaque
 - Diminution de la force de contraction
 - Mécanisme de Frank-Starling

- Le système nerveux autonome perd le contrôle sympathique des médullosurrénales.
 - Aucun contrôle sur la sécrétion d'adrénaline et de noradrénaline
 - Perte d'effets inotropes et chronotropes positifs
- Signes et symptômes :
 - Bradycardie
 - Hypotension
 - Peau froide, humide et pâle au-dessus de la lésion
 - Peau chaude, sèche et rougie en dessous de la lésion
 - Priapisme

- Associé à la réponse de l'organisme aux effets du choc spinal
- Découle habituellement d'une lésion à la vertèbre T-6 ou en dessous
- Signes et symptômes :
 - Hypertension soudaine
 - Bradycardie
 - Violents maux de tête
 - Vision brouillée
 - Transpiration et rougeur de la peau au-dessus du site de la lésion

- Toute lésion qui perturbe la transmission de l'influx nerveux
 - Enflure
 - Luxation
 - Fracture
 - Syndrome des loges

- **Évaluation des lieux**
 - Porter une attention particulière au mécanisme de blessure
 - En cas de doute, présumer que le patient a subi une lésion médullaire
 - Blessure à la tête
 - Patients sous l'influence de la drogue ou de l'alcool
 - Blessures au-dessus des épaules
 - Blessures trompeuses
- **Examen primaire**
 - Procéder immédiatement à une immobilisation manuelle
 - Maintenir un alignement neutre si possible

- **Cou**
 - Déformation, douleur, crépitation, chaleur, sensibilité à la pression
- **Extrémités bilatérales**
 - Abduction et adduction des doigts
 - Test de pression, de traction et de poigne
 - Fonctions motrice et sensorielle
- **Examen du dermatome et du myotome**
- **Test du signe de Babinski**
- **Position « haut les mains »**
 - Bras levés au-dessus de la tête

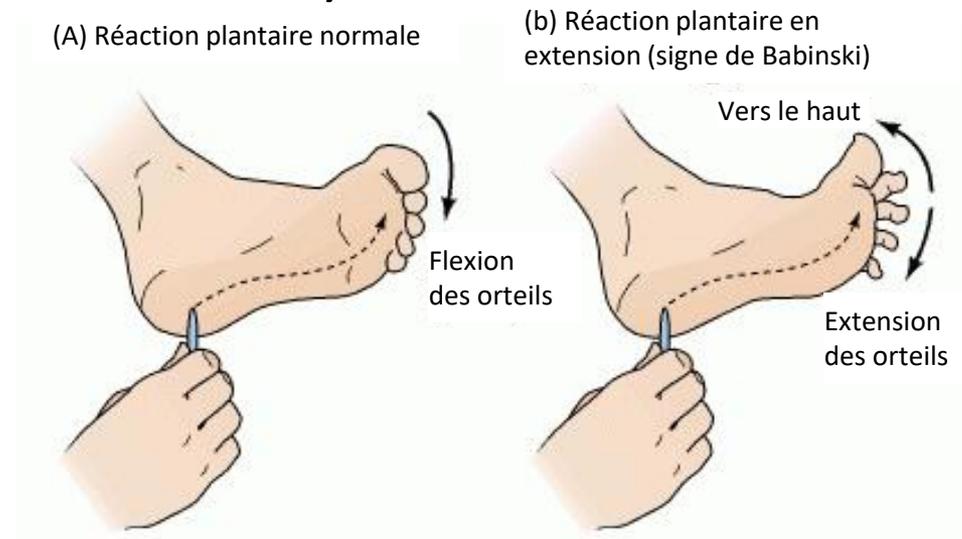


Figure 24-4 Comparer la force de préhension dans les deux mains



Figure 24-5 Comparer la force dans les deux jambes

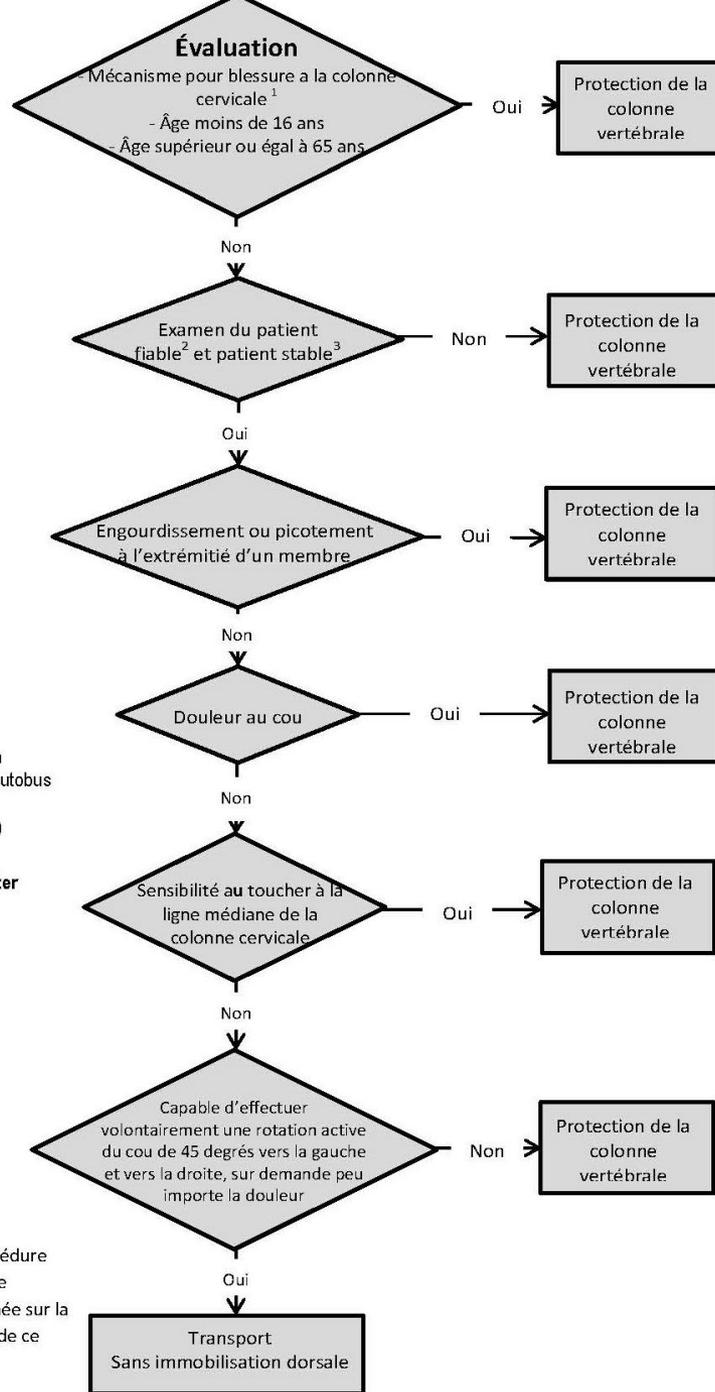
- Stimuler la face externe de la plante du pied
- Examiner le mouvement des orteils
- Extension des orteils
 - Signe de lésion le long du système pyramidal (moelle épinière descendante)



- Redoubler de prudence avec les patients atteints de bradycardie
 - Surtout lorsqu'on soupçonne une hypovolémie et un choc
- Facteurs qui augmentent le potentiel de lésion médullaire :
 - Faible pression artérielle
 - Aucune respiration, ou respiration superficielle ou diaphragmatique

- Alignement de la colonne vertébrale
- Immobilisation cervicale manuelle
- Collier cervical
- Immobilisation et mouvement

Évaluation de la colonne cervicale



¹ Mécanismes pour blessure à la colonne cervicale : (n'importe lequel des suivants)

- Chute > 1m / 5 escaliers
- Traumatisme par compression axiale (accident de plongeon)
- Collision de la route >100 km/hr, capotage, éjection
- Collision de la route, automobile vs gros camion / autobus
- Collision motocyclette / bicyclette
- Accident de véhicule récréatif motorisé (p. ex. VTT)
- Traumatisme pénétrant à la colonne vertébrale

² Examen du patient fiable (le patient ne doit présenter aucune des suivantes)

- Réaction aiguë causée par le stress
- Intoxication
- Score à l'échelle de Glasgow <15
- Blessures gênantes
- Problèmes de communication

³ Stable (les deux conditions doivent être présentes)

- Tension systolique supérieure ou égale à 90 et
- Rythme respiratoires supérieur ou égal à 10 et inférieur ou égal à 24 par minute (c.-à-d. RR doit être entre 10 à 24 par minute inclusivement).

* Protection de la colonne vertébrale

Un patient qui échoue n'importe quel point de la procédure d'élimination du besoin d'immobilisation de la colonne cervicale exige un collet cervical et une position couchée sur la civière. Pour plus de détails, consulter la partie écrite de ce document.



- Placer le patient dans une position neutre, la tête alignée avec le corps
 - Position de fonction
 - Hanches et genoux légèrement fléchis
 - Couverture roulée sous les genoux
- Toujours soutenir la tête et le cou



- Contre-indications à la position neutre
 - Augmentation de la douleur au mouvement
 - Résistance perceptible durant la manipulation
 - Augmentation des déficits neurologiques au mouvement
 - Déformation apparente de la colonne vertébrale
- Il est toujours préférable de réduire les déplacements du patient au minimum.



- Patient assis
 - Approcher le patient de face
 - Demander à un soignant d'exercer une légère traction manuelle
 - Diminution de la charge axiale
 - Évaluer la partie postérieure de la moelle épinière
 - Placer lentement la tête du patient en position neutre, alignée avec le corps
- Patient couché sur le dos
 - Demander à un soignant d'exercer une légère traction
 - Adulte
 - Surélever la tête de 2,5 à 5 cm (1 à 2 po) du sol et la maintenir en position neutre, alignée avec le corps
 - Enfant
 - Garder la tête au niveau du sol et éviter toute flexion

- Placer le collier le plus tôt possible
- Examiner le cou du patient au préalable
- Le collier limite certains mouvements et réduit la charge axiale.
- Il n'immobilise pas complètement le cou.

- Régler la grandeur du collier cervical et le placer selon les recommandations du fabricant
 - Régler le collier avant de le mettre au patient
 - Le collier doit être bien ajusté.
 - Il ne doit pas gêner la respiration.
 - La tête doit demeurer en position neutre.
- Maintenir l'immobilisation cervicale manuelle jusqu'à la mise en place du collier cervical

Indications

- Le casque n'immobilise pas la tête du patient.
- On ne peut immobiliser adéquatement le casque sur une planche dorsale.
- Le casque empêche de prodiguer des soins respiratoires.
- Il empêche d'examiner les blessures anticipées et les troubles respiratoires manifestes ou anticipés.
- Le retrait du casque ne causera pas de blessures supplémentaires.

- La manœuvre nécessite au moins deux travailleurs paramédicaux.
 - Élaborer un plan et communiquer avec ses partenaires
 - Enlever la visière et détacher la mentonnière
 - Immobiliser la tête
 - Glisser une main sous la nuque et la tête
 - De l'autre main, soutenir la partie antérieure du cou et la mâchoire
 - Retirer le casque
 - Bouger légèrement la tête pour dégager la région occipitale
 - Chaque manœuvre doit être lente et contrôlée.
 - Transporter le casque avec le patient

Retrait du casque



FIGURE 24-12 Retrait
du casque

- Coordonner chaque mouvement
 - Rythme en quatre temps
- Déplacer le patient d'un bloc
 - Éviter les poussées latérales
 - Bouger le patient vers le haut et vers le bas pour éviter toute flexion latérale
- Le travailleur paramédical à la tête commande chaque mouvement.
- Chaque manœuvre doit être lente et bien contrôlée.
- Visualiser la position finale du patient avant d'amorcer chaque déplacement.

- Déplacement en bloc
- Relevage par pont néerlandais
- « Rope-sling slide »
- Civière de relevage à lames
- Attelle d'extraction
- Désincarcération rapide
- Position finale du patient
- Planche dorsale longue
- Immobilisation des blessures par plongeon

Déplacement en bloc à quatre personnes



Attelle d'extraction de Kendrick (dispositif d'immobilisation)



Attelle d'extraction de Kendrick (dispositif d'immobilisation)

- L'attelle d'extraction sert à pivoter le patient, et non à le soulever.



- Désincarcération rapide d'un blessé médullaire



- Immobilisation d'un blessé médullaire sur une planche dorsale longue avec un dispositif d'immobilisation cervicale



Émergence d'un consensus



Les données probantes récentes ont remis en question les méthodes utilisées de longue date pour traiter les traumatismes potentiels de la moelle épinière.



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Consensus statement

Pre-hospital spinal immobilisation: an initial consensus statement

D Connor,¹ I Greaves,² K Porter,³ M Bloch,⁴ On behalf of the consensus group, Faculty of Pre-Hospital Care

INTRODUCTION

Spinal injuries are thankfully relatively uncommon but have the potential to cause very significant morbidity and mortality. It is reported that between 0.5% and 3% of patients presenting with blunt trauma suffer spinal cord injury (SCI).^{1,2} The incidence varies globally and time has yielded increased numbers of injuries annually. American figures estimate an incidence in the region of 40 cases per million per year.³ In the UK, the majority of traumatic SCI are attributable to land transport (50%), followed by falls (43%), then sports (7%).⁴ Of those fractures causing SCI, half involve fractures of the cervical spine, with 37% due to thoracic spine injury and 11% due to lumbar spine injury. Of the Cervix, 50% occur at the C6/7 junction and a third at C2.⁵ Data show a crossover rate in the region of 10%–15% of patients with a confirmed cervical fracture also having a thoracic/lumbar fracture.⁶ It is well recognised that immobilisation is not without harm but the ‘number needed to treat’ in order to include one actual injury is high.

SCI occurs when unstable spinal fractures (only diagnosed by imaging in hospital) cause direct mechanical damage as a result of traction and compression, following which ischaemia and cord swelling ensues. Unstable fractures are those where there is disruption of two or three vertebral columns. The anterior column is formed by the anterior longitudinal ligament and the anterior half of the vertebral body, disc and annulus, the middle column by the posterior half of the vertebral body, disc and annulus and the posterior longitudinal ligament and the posterior column by the facet joints, ligamentum flavum, the posterior elements and the interconnecting ligaments.

Immobilisation is based on the logical premise that preventing movement should decrease the incidence of SCI or further deterioration of existing damage. This is undertaken by, in effect, adding external supports to the body, preventing secondary injury during certification, resuscitation, transport and evaluation.

Immobilisation is a routinely performed procedure in the prehospital environment. Its potentially serious adverse sequelae and the rigorous nature of modern medicine have seen the development of an extraordinarily conservative approach to immobilisation where it is applied in many cases in which neither the mechanism of injury nor the clinical findings would support its use.

Method vary and research has drawn together consensus opinion on immobilisation techniques. Common practice involves the use of a rigid cervical collar, head blocks with straps or tapes and a long board with steps. A number of organisations use the orthopaedic scoop stretcher or Kendrick Extrication Device. The scoop stretcher is of value in reducing the amount of handling to which victims of trauma are subjected and the Faculty of Pre-Hospital Care is shortly to issue consensus guidance regarding minimal handling protocols in trauma. The vacuum mattress is indicated in prolonged transportation to minimise the risks explained below. A pelvic sling should therefore be placed in the correct position in the vacuum mattress and the patient transferred in the scoop onto the mattress and the pelvic binder fastened appropriately. Once on a vacuum mattress, the scoop can be removed in such prolonged transfers.

SEARCH STRATEGY

Prior to the Faculty meeting in March 2012, a review of the published literature was undertaken using PubMed to search the Medline database. Secondary searches were made using UK PubMed Central and Google Scholar. The search terms included prehospital, out-of-hospital, spinal immobilisation, cervical collar and cephalic clearance. A tertiary search

analysed the references of reviewed articles to identify further sources.

THE DEBATE

Immobilisation is a key concept in most trauma guidelines. The ATLS course recommends that all trauma patients considered to be at potential risk of spinal injury have immediate neck immobilisation.⁷ This guidance is founded upon expert opinion rather than definitive evidence and current protocols have a strong historical rather than scientific precedent. In the practice's favour, Reid in 1987 reported that secondary neurological injury occurred in 14% of patients with spinal injury diagnosed in the ED whereas the secondary neurological injury rate was 10.5% in those in whom a diagnosis of spinal injury was missed.⁸

However, a full review undertaken by Kwan and colleagues concluded that there is no high-level evidence quantifying the effect of immobilisation versus no immobilisation on adverse effects.⁹ They commented that the low prevalence of SCI would mean 50–100 patients would need to be immobilised for every patient at risk of SCI. Opinions are increasingly being expressed that the practice is overused and needs review since the procedure itself is not benign. It is uncomfortable; takes time and delays initiation of specialist treatment in time-critical patients; raises intracranial pressure; increases aspiration risk and the risk of decubitus ulceration; and also potentially induces airway opening and respiratory efficacy.⁷ Indeed, the latter two risks reduce an action of prehospital care where airway maintenance takes precedence over other considerations. Kwan concludes her review by stating that, ‘...the possibility that immobilisation may increase mortality and morbidity cannot be excluded.’

Hastwell's biomechanics have been published several times.^{10–12} His group surmises that injury is done at the time of impact by forces of greater magnitude than those encountered in subsequent movement, which is generally not sufficient to cause further damage. They comment that the alert patient will develop a position of comfort with muscle spasm protecting a damaged spine.

A 2009 review also concluded that the alert, cooperative patient does not require immobilisation even if a clinical decision rule is positive, unless their conscious level deteriorates.¹³ They state that muscle spasm is a superior method to an artificial procedure. The College of Emergency Medicine guidance emphasises the need for large-scale studies¹⁴ while acknowledging

“Opinions are increasingly being expressed that the practice is overused and needs review since the procedure itself is not benign” (Connor et al., 2013).

“Validation of the Canadian C-spine Rule undertaken in the prehospital setting has been qualitative and its reliability proven. Paramedics are comfortable using it” (Connor et al., 2013).

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Pre-Hospital Care Management of a Potential Spinal Cord Injured Patient: A Systematic Review of the Literature and Evidence-Based Guidelines

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Abstract

An interdisciplinary expert panel of medical and surgical specialists involved in the management of patients with potential spinal cord injuries (SCI) was assembled. Four key questions were created that were of significant interest. These were: (1) what is the optimal type and duration of pre-hospital spinal immobilization in patients with acute SCI?; (2) during airway manipulation in the pre-hospital setting, what is the ideal method of spinal immobilization?; (3) what is the impact of pre-hospital transport time to definitive care on the outcomes of patients with acute spinal cord injury?; and (4) what is the role of pre-hospital care providers in cervical spine clearance and immobilization? A systematic review utilizing multiple databases was performed to determine the current evidence about the specific questions, and each article was independently reviewed and assessed by two reviewers based on inclusion and exclusion criteria. Guidelines were then created related to the questions by a national Canadian expert panel using the Delphi method for revising the evidence-based guidelines about each question. Recommendations about the key questions included: the pre-hospital immobilization of patients using a cervical collar, head immobilization, and a spinal board; utilization of padded boards or inflatable bean bag boards to reduce pressure; transfer of patients off of spine boards as soon as feasible, including transfer of patients off spinal boards while awaiting transfer from one hospital institution to another hospital center for definitive care; inclusion of manual in-line cervical spine traction for airway management in patients requiring intubations in the pre-hospital setting; transport of patients with acute traumatic SCI to the definitive hospital center for care within 24h of injury; and training of emergency medical personnel in the pre-hospital setting to apply criteria to clear patients of cervical spinal injuries, and immobilize patients suspected of having cervical spinal injury.

Key words: pre-hospital care; spinal cord injury; systematic review

Introduction

CARE MUST BE TAKEN when providing medical care to an acutely injured patient prior to arrival at hospital. About 2% of all blunt trauma patients will have sustained a spinal cord injury, and these rates are higher in the setting of severe closed head injury (Croasty, 1992, 2006). Patients with acute spinal cord injury (SCI) are at risk of neurologic deterioration due to secondary injury to the spinal cord (Fehlings and Luze, 1996). A potential cause of secondary injury is

through inadvertent manipulation of the spinal cord in setting of an unstable spinal column injury (Kroasty, Fehlings et al., 2004; Fehlings and Luze, 1996; Fehlings, 1993). Minimizing the chances of secondary injury can be challenging in the pre-hospital setting due to the local transport environment, a lack of resources, and heterogeneity in health care providers and their skill sets (Hausevald et al., 2000). Furthermore, treatments initiated prior to arrival at hospital can lead to significant morbidity in other body regions, such as sacral and occipital ulcers (Cundell et al., 1999).

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“If patients met all the criteria, paramedics could transport them without spinal immobilization. They found that there was a 33% reduction in the utilization of spinal immobilization compared to pre-study data” (Muhr et al., 1999).

“Patients should be transferred off the hardboard on admission to a facility as soon as is feasible to minimize time on the hardboard” (Ahn et al., 2009).

RESOURCE DOCUMENT

EMS SPINAL PRECAUTIONS AND THE USE OF THE LONG BACKBOARD – RESOURCE DOCUMENT TO THE POSITION STATEMENT OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF EMS PHYSICIANS AND THE AMERICAN COLLEGE OF SURGEONS COMMITTEE ON TRAUMA

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ABSTRACT

Field spinal immobilization using a backboard and cervical collar has been standard practice for patients with suspected spine injury since the 1960s. The backboard has been a component of field spinal immobilization despite lack of efficacy evidence. While the backboard is a useful spinal protection tool during extrication, use of backboards is not without risk, as they have been shown to cause respiratory compromise, pain, and pressure sores. Backboards also alter a patient's physical exam, resulting in unnecessary radiographs. Because backboards present known risks, and their value in protecting the spinal cord of an injured patient remains unsubstantiated, they should only be used judiciously. The following provides a discussion of the elements of the National Association of EMS Physicians (NAEMSP) and American College of Surgeons Committee on Trauma (ACS-COT) position statement on EMS spinal precautions and the use of the long backboard. This discussion includes items where there is supporting literature and items where additional science is needed. **Key words:** EMS; spinal injury; backboards

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INTRODUCTION

The National Association of EMS Physicians (NAEMSP) and the American College of Surgeons Committee on Trauma (ACS-COT) have published a new position paper on "EMS Spinal Precautions and the Use of the Long Backboard."¹ This paper is the resource document for the position paper and is designed to guide practitioners in understanding of the new position statement. Each item in the position is quoted and followed by a discussion and a review of the literature.

- "Long backboards are commonly used to attempt to provide rigid spinal immobilization among EMS trauma patients. However, the benefit of long backboards is largely unproven."

HISTORY OF THE BACKBOARD

Field spinal immobilization using a cervical collar and a backboard has been standard practice for patients with suspected spine injury since the 1960s. Prior to that time no formal immobilization practice was used and advanced first aid was the highest level of training for ambulance personnel.

A 1966 report by Geisler et al. attributed "delayed onset of paraplegia" in hospitalized patients with spinal fractures to "failure to recognize the injury or protect the patient from the consequences of his unstable spine."² This retrospective study of the surgical management of spinal column injury includes a discussion of only two patients, one who incurred a depressed skull fracture from a motor vehicle crash in 1955, but was otherwise "observed to move all four limbs." The authors write that after the patient began to develop paraplegia with a sensory level at T10, an

"The ambulance stretcher is in effect a padded backboard and, in combination with a cervical collar and straps to secure the patient in a supine position, provides appropriate spinal protection for patients with spinal injury" (White et al., 1999).

"Patients who are ambulatory or able to self-extricate without causing undue pain should be encouraged to move themselves to a supine position on the EMS cot, after application of a cervical collar" (White et al., 2014).

Émergence d'un consensus

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Research Suggests Time for Change in Prehospital Spinal Immobilization



Tuesday, March 19, 2013
Jim Morrissey, MA, EMT-P

Prehospital spinal immobilization has long been held as the standard of care for victims of blunt or penetrating trauma who have experienced a mechanism of injury (MOI) forceful enough to possibly damage the spinal column. The majority of EMS textbooks stress that any significant MOI, regardless of signs and symptoms of spine injury, requires full-body immobilization, which is typically defined as a cervical collar being applied and the patient being secured to a backboard with head stabilizers in place.

The approach to patient immobilization has been accepted and implemented as the standard of care for decades with little scientific evidence justifying the practice.¹⁻³ In addition, recent data shows that immobilization in the field has a positive effect on neurological outcomes in patients with blunt or penetrating trauma.^{4,5} In fact, several studies and articles show that spine immobilization may cause more harm than good in a select sub-set of trauma patients.^{6,7}

Many experts question the current practice of prehospital spinal immobilization.^{1,2,4-19} There are now some guidelines, textbooks and an increasing number of EMS agencies that support a progressive, evidence-based approach in an effort to lessen unnecessary spinal immobilizations in the field.

It's problematic to use MOI alone as the key indicator for prehospital spinal immobilization. In addition, the harmful sequelae and potential dangers of immobilization need to be considered in any field protocol. We need to examine appropriate spine injury assessment guidelines and algorithms that take the selective immobilization of injured patients.

We also should review immobilization devices and techniques that are more appropriate for patients who do require immobilization, or better termed motion restriction (DMR), by EMS providers.

Outdated Indicators?

It typically takes several years for EMS textbooks to catch up with new evidence and then additional time for the EMS instructional community to re-evaluate and change current practice. For example, definitions of mechanisms that require spinal immobilization found in most EMS textbooks are vague and problematic. Such indicators for potential spine injury as fall, damage to the vehicle, injury above the clavicle and mechanism of injury involving air are not particularly helpful when determining the best course of action in the field.

Especially troubling has been the lack of emphasis on the assessment of the patient before making a decision about immobilization. Historically, no attention has been placed on what happened to the vehicle or the best guess on how far someone may have fallen, instead of what actually happened to the person.

It isn't the fall that causes injury; it's the sudden stop at the end. The more sudden the stop, the more likely an injury results, especially if the kinetic energy was transmitted to the head and/or neck.

The physical condition of the patient must also be considered. A young, athletic person is able to withstand more forces than an elderly patient. So spectrum of potential injury is best determined through a detailed history and physical exam.

Vehicle damage has long been considered a strong indicator of potential spine injury, yet improvements in vehicular design and construction along with the way we look at vehicle damage, vehicle technology and passenger protection is far superior to what it has been, particularly since the 70's when textbooks began advocating back boarding of patients in vehicles with significant damage.

Vehicle damage zones are now inherently built into newer vehicles, designed to absorb and dissipate the kinetic energy of a collision, and keep the cabin relatively isolated and protected. An experienced paramedic once said, "The safe box might be crumpled, but the cabin can be fine."

Some textbooks accurately address this issue. Even as far back as 1990, the American Academy of Orthopedic Surgeons addressed emergency responders in an extended-care environment, stating, "Patients with a positive mechanism of injury, without signs and symptoms, and with a normal response may be treated without full spine immobilization, if approved by your medical control physician."¹⁷

Emergency medical personnel who work in extended-care, tactical, combat and wilderness environments have long realized the need to safely assess and clear patients regarding spinal injuries.^{18,19}

“Studies have also shown limited or no benefit of prehospital immobilization of penetrating trauma patients. Immobilization of this subset of trauma patients can result in prolonged on-scene time and delayed transport to definitive care, which may increase morbidity and mortality” (Morrissey, 2013).

“Spinal immobilization isn't always a benign intervention. It can result in increased scene time, delay of delivery to definitive care, problematic airway management, increased patient pain or dyspnea, and unnecessary radiographic testing” (Morrissey, 2013).

Émergence d'un consensus

“As tissue hypoxia remains the most important factor in trauma management, Hauswald (2012) point out that delaying hospital care (i.e. surgery, airway management, blood transfusions) through the act of spinal stabilization can subsequently harm even those patients with unstable spinal injury” (Fehlings et al., 2013).

“Spinal immobilization has also been cautioned in the patient with penetrating injuries to the body, neck, or head without neurologic complaint or deficit as an association with increased mortality has been observed with its use” (Fehlings et al., 2013).



TITLE: The Use of Spine Boards in the Pre-Hospital Setting for the Stable Patients Following Trauma: A Review of the Clinical Evidence and

DATE: 31 May 2013

CONTEXT AND POLICY ISSUES

Traumatic spinal cord injuries (SCI) predominantly affect adolescents and young males.¹⁻³ The annual occurrence is estimated to be 1,785 Canadians¹ and 10,000 Americans. The most common causes of SCI are motor vehicle collisions,^{1,2} violent acts, and sports.^{1,2} In the United States upwards of \$3.48 billion dollars as a result of traumatic SCI following motor vehicle accidents⁴ while the combined cost of short- and long-term care in patients sustaining SCI is estimated to exceed \$1 billion.⁵ Patients with acute SCI are at risk for neurologic deterioration as a result of secondary injury to the spinal cord caused by movement.^{4,5} It is estimated that 3 to 25% of spinal cord injuries occur subsequent to the original trauma during early management of the patient or during transportation.⁵ Therefore, current acute management focuses on the stabilization of the spinal column to prevent secondary injury or further neurologic insult.⁵

The improved status of patients with SCI arriving in the emergency department over the past 30 years has been attributed to emergency medical services (EMS), including spinal immobilization, provided by trained EMS personnel.⁵ Spinal immobilization for all patients with suspected SCI after trauma has been advocated by nationwide EMS programs⁶ and the American College of Surgeons.⁷ The recommendations from the American College of Surgeons include immobilizing the patient with suspected SCI onto a hard backboard and using a cervical collar,^{2,8} lateral support devices, and straps or tape to further secure the patient to the backboard.⁵

In some patients, spinal cord immobilization has also been associated with additional morbidity.^{4,6} The National Association of EMS Physicians and the American College of Surgeons Committee on Trauma acknowledge that long backboards can lead to various morbidities including pain, the development of pressure ulcers, and compromised respiratory function.⁶ In addition, patient agitation has also been observed.⁶ These groups have determined that immobilization with backboards, “may be indicated in patients with blunt trauma and a level of consciousness, spinal pain or tenderness, neurologic complaint (e.g., numbness or

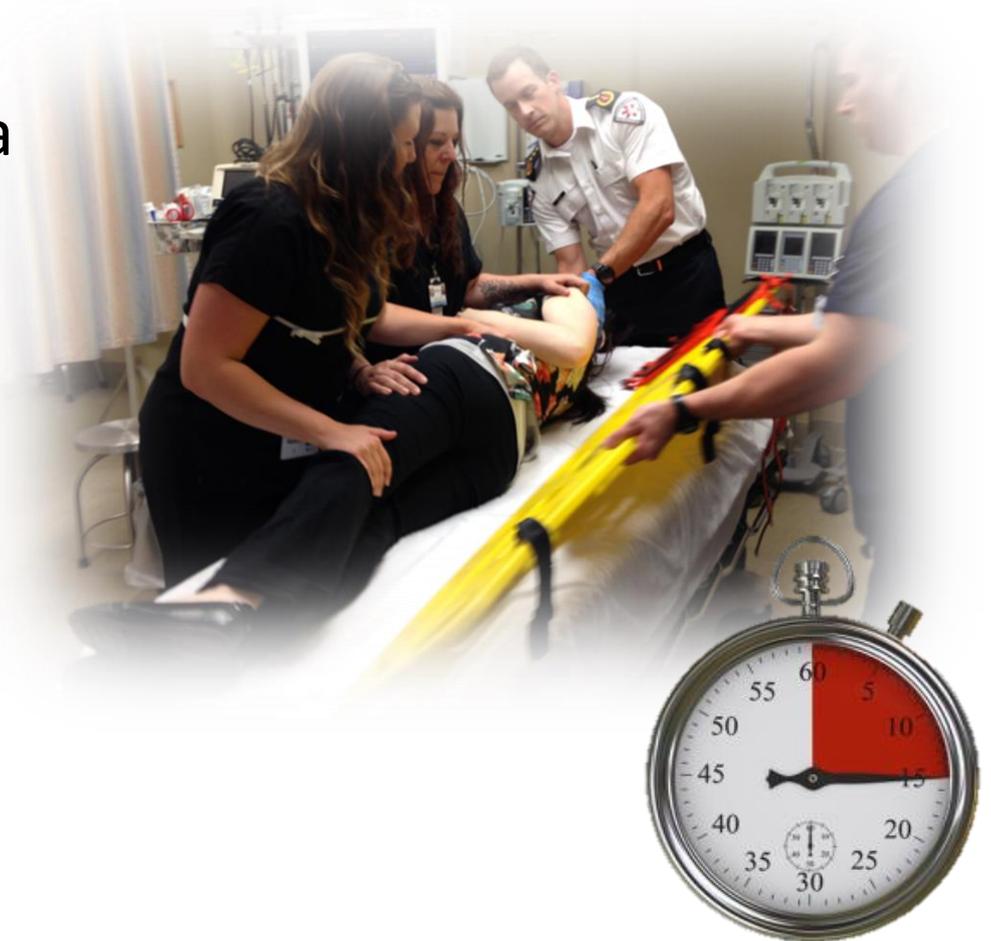
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- Les normes de l'industrie évoluent en fonction des données probantes les plus récentes :
 - L'évaluation de l'état de la colonne cervicale pour écarter la présence d'une lésion a été validée comme une pratique sécuritaire pour les travailleurs paramédicaux.
 - L'utilisation d'une planche dorsale longue n'est pas sans danger; en fait, elle comporte un risque important.
 - L'immobilisation en position debout peut être risquée et superflue.
 - Il a été démontré que chez les victimes de blessures pénétrantes (non associées à un déficit neurologique), l'immobilisation sur une planche dorsale longue peut avoir des conséquences néfastes.
 - Le fait de laisser la victime s'extraire elle-même du véhicule (lorsque c'est possible) est probablement moins susceptible d'entraîner des blessures iatrogènes.

- Le centre de traumatologie qui accueille le patient est responsable de retirer la planche dorsale sans tarder.
 - Même si on soupçonne une lésion de la moelle épinière
- Il faut viser un délai de 15 minutes, sauf si des interventions cliniques immédiates sont nécessaires.



- Les travailleurs paramédicaux doivent indiquer au personnel depuis combien de temps au total le patient est sur la planche et participer au retrait rapide de la planche.



- Les civières cuillères peuvent être utiles sur le terrain et à l'hôpital.





- Déverrouiller le levier situé de chaque côté du cadre
- Tirer sur la section réservée aux pieds jusqu'à la longueur désirée
- Verrouiller les leviers
- Pousser ou tirer la section réservée aux pieds jusqu'à ce qu'elle s'enclenche



- Séparer les deux sections de la civière
- Placer les deux moitiés de chaque côté du patient
- Aligner les parties droite et gauche des pièces de jumelage à la tête et au pied de la civière; pousser jusqu'à l'enclenchement du système de verrouillage Twin Safety Locks®



- Pedi-Pac® est un système de retenue et d'immobilisation de la colonne vertébrale conçu pour les enfants mesurant entre 71 cm et 137 cm (28 à 54 po) et pesant entre 9 et 41 kg.



- Les boucles d'attache intégrées permettent de fixer le système aux sangles de lit existantes pour assurer une sécurité maximale pendant le transport.
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- Support de tête réglable avec ouvertures pour les oreilles afin de surveiller le drainage des liquides.
- Sangles remplaçables de couleur pour une identification facile.
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 - Dopamine
 - Atropine
- Patients combattifs
 - Envisager l'administration de sédatifs pour réduire l'anxiété et calmer le patient
 - Préviennent l'aggravation de la lésion médullaire
 - Altération du niveau de conscience
 - Médicaments
 - Mépéridine (Demerol)
 - Diazépam (Valium)
 - Envisager l'administration d'agents paralysants

- Physiopathologie
- Évaluation
- Gestion