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### *Concepts for Analgesia in Pediatric Patients*

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Palliative Care and Pain Unit  
Clalit Health Services  
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### *Pain Myths*

- ◆ Children do not experience pain because of CNS immaturity
- ◆ Because they are up playing (sleeping, not complaining), they must not be experiencing discomfort
- ◆ Potent medications are too strong for children, may cause addiction, or may not be available when children really need them

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### *General Overview*

- ◆ Huge outpouring of research
- ◆ Information in pediatric pain now accessible in most pediatric textbooks
- ◆ Myths effectively debunked
- ◆ Pain can be experienced by the end of 2nd trimester; Infants may be hyperalgesic
- ◆ Addiction is essentially a non-issue in children and adults

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## ***Pain Management in Children***

- ◆ Limited controlled trials
- ◆ Physicians' preferences
- ◆ Extrapolated from experience with adults
- ◆ Limited empirical data except:  
Cancer, Sickle cell, Rheumatoid Arthritis.

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- ◆ 1990, Selbst and Clark reported in a retrospective study that 60% of adults but only 28% of children presenting to an emergency department with long bone fractures received adequate analgesia.

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- ◆ Christopher and Kriwinsky documented a rate of analgesic use for long bone fractures in emergency rooms of 53% in children and 73% in adults.

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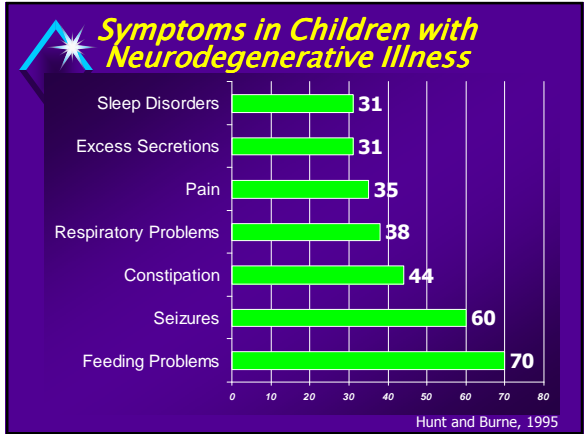
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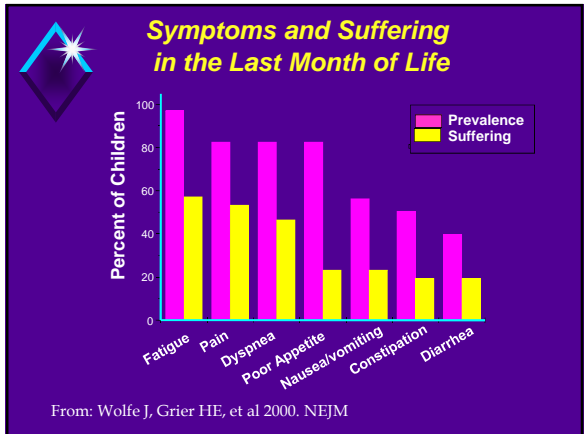
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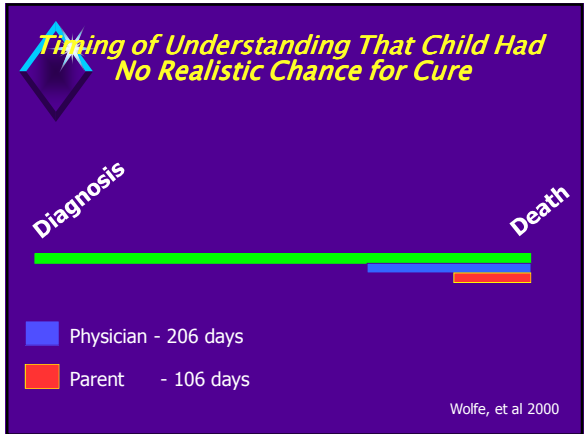
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### Life in the NICU

- 2-10 painful procedures each day
- Estimated up to 488 painful procedures overall
- The more premature the infant, the more painful procedures.
- Analgesia used for less than 10% of painful procedures.

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### Memory?

Preterm infants (28-32 GA)

- Observed for 5 heelsticks over 2 weeks
- HR and facial actions
- By 5th test, HR response to picking up foot and holding

Learning to predict painful stimulation?

Goubet et al.: J Dev Behav Pediatr 2001

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### Newborns of diabetic mothers

- repeated heel lances in first 24-36 hours
- assessed during a later venipuncture
- increased grimace, cry, VAS compared to normal babies

Taddio et al. JAMA 2002;288(7):857-61

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## Neonatal surgery

Full-term newborns requiring major surgery

- Healthy controls
- Medical NICU admissions

National exams. (English, Maths, Science)

- Decreased performance at 11-13 years
- Independent predictor: vent > 3 days; behaviour problems at 3 years

Ludman et al. J Pediatr Surg. 2001;36(6):858-62.

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## Peripheral

Behavioural response

- Pain threshold
  - lower at very low gestational age, decreased further with repetitive stimuli (Fitzgerald et al.: Dev Med Child Neurol 1988)
- Recent pain exposure
  - decreased pain threshold (Andrews & Fitzgerald: Pain 1994; Porter et al.: Pediatrics 1998)
  - increased response to procedures (Grunau et al.: Clin J Pain 2000)

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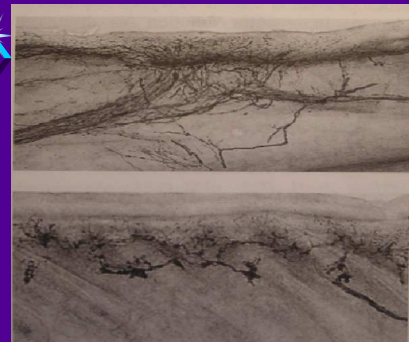


FIG. 2.6. Hyperinnervation of mouse skin after neonatal skin wounding (**top**) compared with normal contralateral side (**bottom**). Sections of

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### Systemic

Immune response

- Rats received daily paw pricks (4 paws) P0-P7
- Tested at maturity
- Decreased habituation to open field → i.e. more anxious
- Increased lung tumour retention (decreased NK cell response) — males > females
- Males had increased exacerbation with swim stress

Page et al. Brain Behav Immun 2005;19:78-87.

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### What do we need to do?

- Assess the pain.
- Believe it!
- Make pain visible.
- Make staff accountable.
- Treat the pain.
- Measure the outcomes.

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### Preventing Procedure Pain

- Think of it!
- Avoid procedures (reduce number)  
Gibbons et al. Expert Opin Pharmacother 2003;4(4):475-83
- Sweet taste (sucrose)  
Stevens et al. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2001;(4):CD001069
- Skin-to-skin contact - Kangaroo care  
Johnston et al. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2003;157:1084-88
- Non-nutritive sucking  
Johnston et al. Biol Neonate. 1999 Aug;76(2):120-4
- Local anesthetics
  - EMLA/Ametop
  - Local infiltration (buffered lidocaine)

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**Pain treatment**

Oral/rectal

- Acetaminophen/paracetamol
- NSAIDs (little data in neonates)

Intravenous medications

- Opioids (benzodiazepines are not analgesic)
- Tramadol?
- Ketamine?

· for procedures is a general anesthetic → not a trivial intervention

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**Reasons to prevent pain**

Humanitarian

Physiological

- Long-term neurophysiological changes  
Taddio et al. Lancet 1995, 1997; NEJM 1997

Immunological?

Page et al. Brain Behav Immun 1994;8:241-50/ Pain 2001;90:191-9  
Page et al. Brain Behav Immun 2005;19:78-87

Accreditation/policy

Pragmatic

- What happens on the next visit?

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**Why isn't pain prevented?**

We don't know there's pain (measurement).

We know there is going to be pain, but we don't prevent it...

- "There's no time."
- We think there's no time...

We know there's pain but we don't treat it...

- "It's too dangerous."
- We think it's too dangerous...

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### *Reasons for Undertreatment*

- ◆ Limited interest in symptoms; focus on cure
- ◆ Multi-system symptom; no discipline had “ownership”
- ◆ Difficulty of assessment

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### *Reasons for Undertreatment*

- ◆ Minimal research - lack of financial, ethical problems of research on children
- ◆ Societal biases about pain and its treatment
- ◆ Persistence of myths

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### *Why Children’s pain in undertreated:*

- ☞ Fear of addiction
- ☞ Fear of tolerance
- ☞ Fear of hastening death
- ☞ Fear of giving up too soon
- ☞ Fear of excessive opioid dosing
- ☞ Lack of experience



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### *Pain in Children*

- ◆ Pain is understated
- ◆ Children do not perceive pain as do adults
- ◆ Children do not remember painful occurrences
- ◆ Fear that treating pain would mask problems
- ◆ Children do not feel pain
- ◆ Nociceptive neural pathways are in place by 23-24 weeks of gestation

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### *Pain in Children – Cont.*

- ◆ Term and preterm newborns have fully developed pain transmission pathways
- ◆ Term and preterm newborns lack fully developed inhibitory systems
- ◆ Fear of serious opioids side effects
- ◆ False assumption, children are at increased risk for addiction to narcotics

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### *Current Status of Pediatric Pain*

- ◆ Predictable pain problems such as postoperative pain have improved significantly
- ◆ Infants and children with chronic disease whose pain is harder to address still are inadequately treated
- ◆ Sedation more common but not well standardized
- ◆ Though concerned about minor procedure pain, clinicians not attempting interventions

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**Unlike adults, children cannot independently seek pain relief and are therefore vulnerable.**

**They need adults to recognize their pain before they can receive appropriate treatment.**

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***Factors in Children's Perception of Pain***

- ◆ Children expectations: previous experience, family, culture
- ◆ Parental response
- ◆ Context

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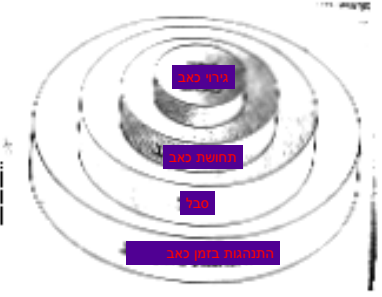

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The diagram illustrates the pain pathway with the following components labeled from top to bottom:

- NOXIOUS STIMULUS
- PAIN RECEPTORS
- PAIN SIGNALS
- BRAIN

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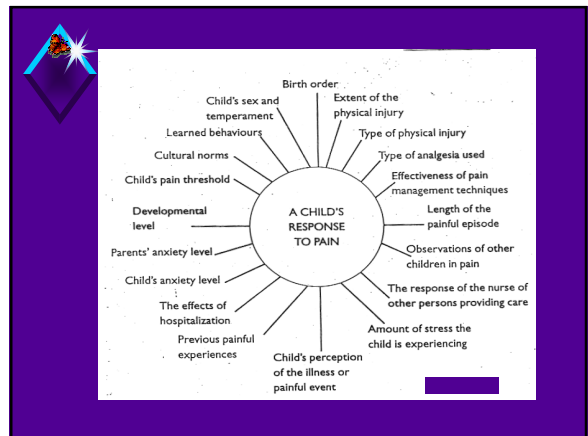
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### Physiological measures

Studied in infants  
Short, sharp pain only (attenuate)  
Clinical practicality?

- Heart rate
- Vagal tone/heart rate variability
- Skin blood flow/palmar sweating
- Blood pressure
- Oxygen saturation/ $PO_2$
- Cutaneous flexor response, reflexes

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### Biochemical measures

Measures of stress

- Cortisol (Boyer et al. Biol Neonate 2002)
- Glucagon
- Growth hormone, etc.

Slow response, non-specific, not well understood

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### Problem Populations

Infants and newborns  
Premature newborns  
Developmental delay  
Cerebral palsy  
Intubated patients  
Teen-agers!

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### Pain assessment

- ◆ Children with brief, strong pain exhibit more obvious physical distress
- ◆ Children with persistent pain usually exhibit more subtle signs
- ◆ Absence of behavioural signs does not necessarily mean absence of pain
- ◆ Parents know their children and can recognize very subtle changes in manner or behaviour

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### Ability to describe pain

- ◆ < 6 years - children can describe only the general amount of pain they feel
- ◆ > 6 years - children can describe the severity, quality, location, duration, and changes over time



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### Children Coping with Pain

- ◆ Information seekers
- ◆ Information providers
- ◆ Focusing attention
- ◆ Distracting attention

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### Primary Pain Behaviors

- ◆ Crying
- ◆ Distressed Facial Expression
- ◆ Motor Disturbances
- ◆ Lack of Interest in Surroundings
- ◆ Decreased Ability to Concentrate
- ◆ Sleeping Difficulties

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### Non Pharmacological Interventions

- ◆ Positive reinforcement
- ◆ Providing procedural information, sensory information
- ◆ Allow child input
- ◆ Distraction: singing, counting, story...
- ◆ Hypnotherapy: master control
- ◆ Massage and touch
- ◆ Relaxation: breathing

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### טיפול התנהגותי בכאב בילדים

- ◆ נדנוד, שיר, מציצה
- ◆ נשימה-"בועות קסם"
- ◆ הסחת דעת: ספר, קלטת, סיפור
- ◆ טכניקות מתקדמות: "כפת קסם"
- ◆ היפנוזה, דמיון מודרך
- ◆ מעורבות הורים

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### מעורבות הורים

<u>לא עוזר</u>	<u>עוזר</u>
◆ אמפטיה-עודפת	◆ נשימות
◆ התנצלות	◆ הומור
◆ התמקחות	◆ הסבר-בזמן
◆ עודף שליטה	◆ דיבור
◆ הסבר בזמן פרוצדורה	◆ הסחת דעת
◆ הקרנת לחץ	

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### Non-drug pain relief therapies

- ◆ supportive
- ◆ cognitive
- ◆ behavioural
- ◆ physical

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### Cognitive methods

influence a child's thoughts and images

- ◆ Active distraction - toys, games, stories, music
- ◆ Imagery - storytelling to engage the imagination
- ◆ True hypnosis
- ◆ Closing pain "switches" or "gates"

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### Behavioural methods

- ◆ Deep breathing - focuses the attention, reduces muscular tension, relaxes the diaphragm, and oxygenates the body
- ◆ Progressive relaxation - often combined with suggestion and deep breathing - can reduce anticipatory anxiety, nausea and vomiting

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## Physical methods

- ◆ Touch - stroking, holding and rocking, caressing, massaging, swaddling, vibration, tapping, cuddling, palpation
- ◆ Cold
- ◆ Heat
- ◆ TENS

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## Pharmacologic Pain Management

- ◎ General Principles:
  - ◎ Whenever possible, the oral route is chosen.
  - ◎ Subcutaneous infusions, transdermal patches, rectal, or sublingual medications are available when oral or intravenous routes are not available.
  - ◎ Permanent intravenous access should be obtained if other routes of drug administration are impossible.
    - ◎ Central venous catheters
      - ◎ Shiley, Broviac or Hickman catheters
      - ◎ Infusaport catheters
      - ◎ Percutaneous intravenous central catheter (PICC)

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## Opioid analgesics for moderate to severe pain

- ◆ Morphine
- ◆ Hydromorphone
- ◆ Methadone
- ◆ Fentanyl
- ◆ Oxycodone



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## Guidelines for analgesic drug therapy

- ◆ “By the ladder”
- ◆ “By the clock”
- ◆ “By the appropriate route”
- ◆ “By the patient/family”

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**Morphine is the preferred drug since there is wide experience in children**

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## *Morphine Metabolism*

- ◆ There is extensive biotransformation in the liver to number of compounds, of which the two most important are morphine 3-glucuronide (M3G) and morphine 6-glucuronide (M6G)

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### *Morphine Metabolism*

The capacity to form both glucuronides is present from early stage in fetal development and there is some evidence that it increases over the first 12 month of life.

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### *Morphine Metabolism*

- ◆ Distribution of morphine and M6G seems to be similar in children and adults.
- ◆ Better renal clearance and faster glucuronidation in children.
- ◆ Clearance of morphine and M6G in children appears to exceed that in adults.
- ◆ Clearance of the glucuronides is almost entirely renal and much of the parent compound is also excreted in the urine.

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### *Morphine Pharmacodynamics*

- ◆ Volume of distribution per kilogram in children is much the same as adults
- ◆ Clearance and half-life are rather shorter.
- ◆ The ratio of glucuronides to morphine may be higher in children than in adults.
- ◆ A child under 12 months of age have lower clearance particularly in children under 2 weeks old.

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### *Morphine Pharmacodynamics*

- ◆ One study that concluded that clearance appeared to reach adults levels by 2 years of age did not address the likelihood that it then improves further before declining to adults levels at puberty.

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### *Misconception?*

- ◆ Both morphine and M6G can penetrate into the cerebrospinal fluid of children.
- ◆ There is no evidence to suggest that outside infancy this happens more easily in children than in adults.
- ◆ Children are not more sensitive to centrally mediated effects of opioids, such as respiratory depression.

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### *Routine oral dosing* *extended-release preparations*

- ◆ Improve compliance, adherence
- ◆ Dose q 8, 12, or 24 h (product specific)
  - ◆ don't crush or chew tablets
  - ◆ may flush time-release granules down feeding tubes
- ◆ Adjust dose q 2–4 days (once steady state reached)

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### *Practical Tips*

- ◆ In children use a smaller opioid dosage interval particularly in the use of slow-release morphine and fentanyl patches.
- ◆ Children require slow-release oral morphine sulfate to be given at 8-hour intervals rather than the recommended 12 hour interval.

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### *Practical Tips*

- ◆ Such a difference has not been shown in immediate release preparations of morphine,

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### *Equianalgesic Opioid Doses*

Name	Equipotent IV Dose (mg/kg)	Equipotent PO Dose (mg/kg)	Parenteral/Oral Ratio
Alfentanil	0.05	-	-
Butorphanol	0.01-0.02	0.05	25%
Codeine	1.2	2.0	66%
Fentanyl	0.001	0.01-0.015 transmucosal	25-50% transmucosal dose
Hydromorphone	0.015	0.02-0.1	20-70%

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**Equianalgesic Opioid Doses-Cont.**

Name	Equipotent IV Dose (mg/kg)	Equipotent PO Dose (mg/kg)	Parenteral/ Oral Ratio
Meperidine	1.0	1.5-2.0	50-60%
Methadone	0.1	0.1	100%
Morphine	0.1	0.3-0.5	20-33%
Nalbuphine	0.1	0.5	20%
Oxycodone	-	0.1	-
Sufentanil	0.0001	-	-

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**Oxycodone**

- ◆ Semisynthetic  $\mu$ -receptor
- ◆ Comparable to MOR
- ◆ Aged 2-10 higher clearance and shorter mean elimination half life
- ◆ Clearance lower at 1-3 months

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**Methadone**

- ◆ Long half life (mean 19 h in age >1)
- ◆ Analgesic effect comparable to MOR after single dose
- ◆ More potent after repeated dose
- ◆ Incomplete cross tolerance with opioids.

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### ... Opioid pharmacology


- ◆ Steady state after 4–5 half-lives
  - ◆ steady state after 1 day (24 hours)
- ◆ Duration of effect of “immediate-release” formulations (except methadone)
  - ◆ 3–5 hours po / pr
  - ◆ shorter with parenteral bolus



### Opioid Analgesic Doses

Drug	Dose (mg)*		Potency	Elimination Half-time (h)	Duration of Action (h)
	i.m.	p.o	Ratio (i.m:p.o)		
Morphine	10	30	1:3	2 - 3,5	3 - 4
		60†	1:6†		
Codeine	130	200	1:1.5	2 - 3	2 - 4
Oxycodone	15	30	1:2	3 - 4	2 - 4
Hydromorphone	1.5	7.5	1:5	2 - 3	2 - 4
Methadone	10‡	20‡	1:2	15 - 120	4 - 8
Meperidine	75	300	1:4	2 - 3	2 - 4
Oxymorphone	1	10 (rectal)	1:10	2 - 3	3 - 4
Levorphanol	2	4	1:2	12 - 16	4 - 8
Tramadol	100	120	1:1.2	3 - 4	4 - 6
Fentanyl	0.1§			1 - 2†	1 - 3†

Source: Cherny (1996)  
 \* by convention, relative potency is expressed in comparison to 10mg of i.m. morphine.  
 These doses are approximate and are intended to serve as guidelines only.  
 † Derived from single-dose study.  
 ‡ Derived from single-dose study. At steady state, potency relative to morphine is probably 1-3:10.  
 § Empirically, transdermal fentanyl 100 µg/h approximately equals i.m. morphine 2-4 mg/h and is prescribed every 48-72 h.



### Sedation - Confusion: Practical Tips

- ☞ Check metabolic disturbance
- ☞ Check and R/O infection
- ☞ Cancer related
- ☞ Consider opioid rotation
- ☞ Consider methylphenidate

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### ***Opioid induced vomiting/nausea:***

- ♦ Ondanestrom 0.1-0.5 mg/kg IV Q 6h.  
Max dose: 4 mg.
- ♦ Diphenhydramine 1 mg/kg IV.  
Max dose: 50 mg.
- ♦ Metoclopramide 0.1-0.2 mg/kg.  
Max dose: 10mg.

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### ***NSAIDs***

- ♦ These are indicated if there is a significant inflammatory component as well as pain.
- ♦ No one drug will suit all patients.
- ♦ Evidence that one NSAIDs has superior efficacy to another.
- ♦ Only one oral NSAID should be prescribed at a time.
- ♦ Regular dosing is required to obtain full anti-inflammatory effect.
- ♦ A sustained release preparation taken at the appropriate time can:
  - ♦ Relieve night-time pain.
  - ♦ Relieve morning stiffness.
  - ♦ Aid compliance.

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### ***Non-opioid Analgesics***

- |                            |                  |
|----------------------------|------------------|
| - Acetaminophen            | 10-20 mg/kg q 4  |
| - ASA                      | 10-15 mg/kg q 4  |
| - Choline mg trisalicylate | 25 mg/kg BID     |
| - ibuprofen                | 10 mg/kg q 6-8   |
| - Diclofenac               | 1-1.5 mg/kg 1 12 |
| - Naproxen                 | 5-7 mg/kg q 8-12 |
| - Ketorolac                | 0.5 mg/kg q 6    |
| - Celecoxib                | 100 mg BID       |
| - Rofecoxib                | 25 mg BID        |

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**NSAIDs Used in Children**

Drug	Age	Oral Dose (mg · kg <sup>-1</sup> · d <sup>-1</sup> )	Frequency per Day	Elimination Half-life (h)	Drug Interaction and Comments
Acetaminophen	Neonates	30	6	3.5	Phenobarbital, rifampin, phenytoin or ethanol may enhance hepatic toxicity. May accumulate in children with fever and fasting.
	Infants and Children	60	6	2	
	Infants and Children	35-45 (rectal)	1		
Ibuprofen	3 mo - 12 y	20-40	4	2.3 ± 0.5	Interaction with digoxin, methotrexate, probenecid, salicylate. A higher (0.1 kg <sup>-1</sup> dose (40 mg) is used for rheumatic disorders in children
Naproxen	>5 y	10-15	2	11-15	Aspirin, aluminum, hydroxide, probenecid, largely renal excretion.
Tolmetin	≥ 2 y	15-30	3	4.5-6	Aspirin
Choline magnesium trisalicylate	>1 y	30-60	3-4	~30	Other NSAIDs. Monitor salicylate blood level.
Diclofenac	> 2 y	1-3	3	1.2-1.8	Aspirin, salicylates, lithium, digoxin, and other NSAIDs.

\*Source: Haappasaari et al (1983); Watson and Mortensen (1989); Skellth and Jamal (1991); Brown et al (1992); Aubret et al (1993); Montgomery et al (1995).

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**Antidepressant as analgetics - practical tips**

- ◆ 30% patients > 50% pain relief, 30% minor side effects, 4% major adverse effect.
- ◆ No pediatric placebo controlled trials.
- ◆ Often used in children: neuropathic pains, cancer or chemotherapy related, phantom pain.
- ◆ SSRI less effective than TCA.
- ◆ Effective analgesic dose unknown.

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**Antidepressants dosage and effect**

Drug	Dose	Sedation	Anticholinergic
Amitriptyline	0.25-2	High	High
Nortriptyline	0.25-2	Moderate	Moderate
Imipramine	0.25-2	Moderate	High
Trazodone	0.25-2	High	Very Low
Desipramine	0.25-2	Low	Low



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### ***Antidepressants - Practical Tips:***

- Start low and gradually increase
- Analgesia achieved within few days - week
- One single dose at night
- Pre pubertal and adolescents may need twice daily
- Educate parents and patients
- Clinical response is the best guide.
- Withdrawal reaction??

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### ***Antidepressants - Side Effects Management***

- Day time sedation - common
- Lack of energy - common
- Dry mouth, dizziness, tachycardia, hypotension
- Constipation, urinary hesitancy - rare in children.
- Cardiac conduction effect.
- Lower seizure threshold.

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### ***Anticonvulsants***

- Are suggested for children with conditions similar to those conditions indicated in adults. We lack controlled clinical trials in children.

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### Sedative/hypnotic

- ◆ Do not produce analgesia but may potentiate analgesia in painful procedures, allow for the child's cooperation for painless procedures, encourage restorative sleep, or reduce anxiety which amplifies pain

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### Sedative/hypnotics

- ◆ **Midazolam**
  - Drug of choice for painful procedures with/without opioid
  - Can be antagonized by flumazenil
  - Oral, intranasal, intravenous
- ◆ **Chloral hydrate**
  - Drug of choice for painless procedures (MRI, CT)
  - High dose reduces failure rate

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### Sedative/Hypnotic Dosing

- ◆ **Midazolam:**
  - 0.05 mg/kg IV
  - 0.5 mg/kg PO
- ◆ **Chloral Hydrate**
  - 25-50 mg/kg PO for EEG
  - 50-100 mg/kg PO for CT/MRI
  - Max 1 gm/dose; 2 gms/day

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