Emergencies in	
Palliative Medicine	
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paliative care) website. Sobelleducation.org.uk	
Curriculum	
Carricarani	
5 emergencies	
Malignant spinal cord compression	
Superior Vena Cava Obstruction	
Hypercalcaemia	
Severe Haemorrhage	
Severe Distress	
Learning Aim	
To cover the five areas listed in the APM	
undergraduate curriculum	

	Learning outcomes	
	Learning outcomes	
1.	You will have a structured approach to considering medical emergencies	
2.	You will have an overview of how to	
	approach the five emergencies in the curriculum	
3.	You will have sufficient facts to pass the exam	
	A medical emergency!	
	Approaches?	
	Severe haemorrhage	
•	Definition — A major haemorrhage from an artery / large vein which results in death due to rapid internal or external loss of circulating blood volume	
	Erosion of a vessel by cancer (e.g head and neck, bowel)	
	Rare & unpredictable event Herald bleeds	
•	Risk factors — Tumour near blood vessel (Scans) Hersteld bloods (Autostino under visible tumour	
	Herald bleeds/ pulsation under visible tumour Infection/inflammation in tumour Recent radiotherapy/chemotherapy Clotting disorders/ Drugs	
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Severe haemorrhage	
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Management — Dark-coloured towels — Administer an anxiolytic	
Anticipatory prescribing of anxiolytic	
Midazolam 10mg sc/im/buccal/iV	
Key points	
key points	
Uncommon	
Patient is dying	
• Sedatives	
Malignant hypercalcaemia	
Corrected Calcium > 2.6 mmol/L (Emergency >3)	
Occurs in 10–20% patients with cancer	
Up to 50% patients with breast and myeloma	
Common in:	
 Lung cancer (NSCLC), head and neck, kidney & cervix 	
Malignant hypercalcaemia is associated with metastatic disease	

	Pathogenesis of hypercalcaemia	
•	Any type of cancer with or without skeletal metastases	
•	More than 80% of patients with malignant hypercalcaemia have skeletal metastases	
•	Common mediator is cancer-secreted parathyroid hormone-related protein (PTHrP) — Not detected by radio-immuno-assay for PTH — Stimulates osteoclastic bone resorption — Impairs calcium renal excretion — PTH levels low or undetectable	
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C	linical features of hypercalcaemia	
	Severity of symptoms correlate with <u>rate</u> of increase in plasma calcium	
•	Mild Symptoms: – polyuria, polydipsia, fatigue, lethargy, mental dullness, anorexia, constipation	
•	Severe symptoms: — Nausea/vomiting (=> dehydration), ileus, delirium, drowsiness, coma	
•	If untreated, severe hypercalcaemia >4mmol/L is fatal	
	Management of hypercalcaemia	
	Indications for treatment — Corrected calcium >2.8, symptomatic	
	Fluid replacement N saline hydration (can need up to 6L in 24 hours)	
	No same ryparation (can need up to 6 or 10 24 nours) Increased circulating volume promotes calciuresis Bisphosphonates	
	Inhibit osteoclast activity >> inhibit bone resorption Dose depending on eGFR and calcium level Zoledronic acid 4mg IV over 15 minutes (less in renal failure) Onset of effect <3 days – recheck bloods after 3 days. Can be recurrent, if quickly recurs, bad prognostic sign	
•	Consider low-dose antipsychotic ie haloperidol 0.5-1mg	

Key points

- Common (10 20%) cancer patients
- Treat > 2.8, urgent > 3. emergency >3.5, fatal >4
- Rehydrate calciuresis
- Zolendronic Acid (Watch EGFR)
- PTHrP





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Superior Vena Caval Obstruction	
 SVCO is generally caused by extrinsic compression by metastases in the upper mediastinal lymph nodes Intravascular extension or thrombosis may contribute 	
Lung cancer is responsible for 80% of cases	
Occurs in about 15% of lung cancer patients [SCLC]	
Other cancers Lymphoma, Breast & Testicular seminoma	
Clinical features of SVCO	
Symptoms dyspnoea neck & facial swelling (worse)	
morning) — trunk & arm swelling — sensation of choking	
• Signs — thoracic vein distension	
neck vein distensionfacial oedema and plethoratachypnoea	
Management of SVCO	
 High dose corticosteroids Reduce peritumour oedema => reduce extrinsic compression Dexamethasone 16mg IV stat then 8mg BD PO 	
SVC Stent insertion for severe SVCO	
 Anticoagulate prior to insertion Radiotherapy to mediastinum [NSCLC] 	
Chemotherapy [SCLC or Lymphoma]	

Key points	
Rare – most diagnosed scans	
Right sided tumour burden + / - Thrombus Steroids and stent	
Steroids and steric	
Malignant Spinal Cord Compression	
Compression of the dural sac and its contents (spinal cord and/or cauda equina) by an extradural tumour mass (80%)	
Compression from a tumour within the spinal canal	
Common – in 3-5% of cancer patients. 10% of patients with spinal mets will have MSCC	
Common cancers – Myeloma, prostate, breast, bronchus.	
Mechanisms of SCC in cancer	
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Pathogenesis of SCC	
Compression leads sequentially to:	
Venous stasis → venous hypertension	
White matter (axonal) vasogenic oedema	
Decreased spinal cord blood flow → ischaemia	
→ infarction	
Clinical features of SCC	
 Pain > 90% Generally predates other symptoms by weeks or months Radicular 'band like' pain Exacerbated by neck extension / coughing 	
 Weakness > 75% - 2/3 of these are unable to walk 	
 Sensory level >50% - above L1 (where spinal cord ends) – BUT can be vague sensory symptoms 	
Bladder dysfunction > 40% (loss of sphincter function bad prognostic sign).	
Red flag symptoms	
Pain on coughing, sneezing, straining	
Lhermitte's sign (Barber's chair)	
Sudden loss mobility / bladder function	

Examination

Neural symptoms and signs of SCC

- Acute onset pain often predates weaknesss, flaccid paralysis / paraparesis
- Progressing over time to spasticity
- Plantars upgoing (except cauda equina syndrome below L1 – lower motor neurone picture)
- Sensory loss with well-defined dermatomal level

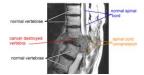
Cauda equina syndrome



- Spinal Cord ends approx L1 – L2
- Cauda equina syndrome
 - Asymmetrical weakness
 - Saddle anaesthesia
 - Sphincter disturbance

Investigations

- MRI Whole Spine
 - Confirm the clinical diagnosis
 - Exclude multiple levels of SCC
- CT if MRI contraindicated
- Assess stability of spine SINS Spinal Instability Neoplastic Score (location, pain, bone lesion, alignment, collapse, involvement of spinal elements)



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	Another image	
•	Pathological fracture - T5 vertebral collapse	
	with retropulsion resulting in SCC	
•	T12 metastatic disease	
	I (row 32)	
	Management	
•	Emergency – have high level of suspicion if complaining of back pain, trouble walking and incontinent.	
	Neurological function at diagnosis predicts future recovery, don't wait for classical signs, better to treat as such and then investigate	
•	Corticosteroids - high dose, 16mg Dexamethasone – give immediately while waiting for MRI	
•	Urgent oncological assessment o Surgical Decompression?	
	Urgent radiotherapy?	
	Surgery for malignant SCC	
•	Provides immediate relief of compression and mechanical stabilisation of an unstable spine	
•	In patients with recent deterioration in mobility surgery has superior outcomes compared to those treated with radiotherapy (DXT) alone	
•	Possible indications for surgery - Solitary lesion	
	- Radioresistant (melanoma/ sarcoma) or radiotherapy has been ineffective — Unstable spine	
	Compression from intraspinal fragments or a collapsed vertebra To obtain histology	

Radiotherapy	
Indications for DXT — Radiosensitive tumour	
Multiple levels of compressionUnfit for major surgery	
- Patient choice	
Management after	
definitive treatment Multidisciplinary care	
 Rehabilitation 	
Pressure area careBladder & bowel management	
 Psychological support 	
Prognosis — If no recovery in mobility after treatment median	
 If no recovery in mobility after treatment median survival 1-3 months If able to walk after treatment median survival 5-8 months 	
Thames Valley Cancer Network NVIS Baseline Buckenparence, Collections, Service MMETATRIC SPIRAL CORD COMPRESSION (MSCC) Referrel Patterny for MSCC in patients with accomm natignancy	
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Key points	
• Common 3 – 5%	
 Red flag symptoms – cervical risk Need MRI 	
Neuro exam is to document baseline NOT	
make a diagnosisFeed in to MSCC pathway locally	
reed in to MSCC pathway locally	
Severe distress	
Is this delirium?	
• Is this fear?	
Calm, consistent staffing approach	
Anxiolytic +/- Antipsychotic	