

Chapman University

Chapman University Digital Commons

Psychology Faculty Articles and Research

Psychology

12-11-2014

Developmental and Cultural Perspectives on Children's Postoperative Pain Management at Home

Brooke N. Jenkins

Michelle A. Fortier

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.chapman.edu/psychology_articles



Part of the [Anesthesia and Analgesia Commons](#), [Health Psychology Commons](#), [Pediatrics Commons](#), [Surgery Commons](#), and the [Surgical Procedures, Operative Commons](#)

24 culture, development, and the family environment [2,3]. Accordingly, pain often presents a
25 dilemma to the treating health care provider given the complexity of its experience.

26 Postoperative pain is extremely common in children. Each year millions of children in the
27 United States undergo surgery, [4] many of whom experience significant amounts of postoperative
28 pain [5]. Pain continues to be prevalent upon discharge home; in fact, our group and others have
29 documented that approximately 80% of children report immediate postoperative pain at home and
30 up to half continue to experience pain one week following surgery [6,7]. The under treatment of
31 pain in the postoperative setting is particularly problematic given the impact of children's pain
32 experiences. Specifically, children may experience maladaptive behavioral changes, increased
33 analgesic requirements, and delayed postoperative recovery due to pain [8]. Furthermore,
34 postoperative pain is a strong predictor of unanticipated hospitalization [9], the development of
35 chronic pain [10], and greater sensitivity toward pain in the future [11]. Moreover, early exposure
36 to pain has been associated years later to adults' reports of increased pain and anxiety during
37 medical events [12]. Recent findings have even demonstrated alterations in pain neuropathways
38 as a result of activation of the nociceptive system early in development [13]. Accordingly, it is
39 vital to provide optimal pain management in children after surgery in an effort to prevent negative
40 sequelae.

41 **Practice Point**

- 42 • Postoperative pain in children is extremely common and is under treated in the home
43 setting

44 **Parent Management of Child Pain**

45 Changes in health care have led to a transition of children's surgeries to be conducted
46 primarily on an outpatient basis [14]. Accordingly, parents are becoming increasingly responsible

47 for management of children's postoperative pain. Unfortunately, a growing body of literature
48 indicates that parents tend to provide suboptimal postoperative pain management. For example,
49 research by our group confirms that children experience high levels of pain following one of the
50 most common pediatric surgeries, tonsillectomy and adenoidectomy (T&A), yet parents provide
51 very few doses of analgesics in the home setting [6]. Additional research illustrates that families
52 may fail to adhere to recommendations for administration of analgesia from their health care
53 providers, but not necessarily because their children are not experiencing pain [15–19]. For
54 example, the majority of parents provide fewer than the prescribed number of analgesic doses to
55 children [15,16,19]. Furthermore, out of the doses that parents do administer to children, the
56 overwhelming majority (70%) are sub-therapeutic. Parents may also substitute weaker
57 medications than those prescribed, or stretch the time interval between analgesic doses [15–19].
58 The reasons behind parental under treatment of children's postoperative pain are not entirely clear.
59 Managing child postoperative pain may be difficult due to a number of reasons including child
60 factors, such as fatigue from sleep disturbances due to surgery [20], medication factors, such as
61 inadequate medication strength, system factors, such as lack of instruction on how to administer
62 medication, and parental factors, such as attitudes towards medication [21]. Examining parental
63 factors, our group and others have established a link between parental misconceptions regarding
64 analgesic use and pain expression in children and administration of pain medication in the home
65 setting. Data from our research center have documented that parents endorse many misconceptions
66 about using analgesia with children, such as beliefs that pain medication works best the less often
67 it is used and analgesia should only be used when pain is severe [22]. Parents also report fears of
68 side effects and addiction potential and therefore, may withhold medication from their children.
69 These misconceptions have also been empirically connected to the under treatment of children's

70 pain by parents. Specifically, our group has shown that the more parents endorse misconceptions
71 regarding analgesic use for children, the fewer doses administered to children after surgery [23].
72 Moreover, we have also documented that parents may misunderstand the myriad ways that
73 children can express pain. For example, many parents report that “Children always express pain
74 by crying or whining,” “Children complain about pain to get attention,” and “Children who are
75 quiet are not in pain” [22]. Thus, parents who are not able to detect pain will likely be unable to
76 optimally treat pain. These misconceptions about medication and the lack of pain detection by
77 parents are important as medication is only effective when used.

78 The Parents Postoperative Pain Measure (PPPM) [24] is one tool that may be helpful in
79 allowing parents to detect child pain. The PPPM is a 15 item checklist of behaviors indicative of
80 postoperative pain (e.g., whining, refusing to eat, holding the sore part of his/her body, etc.). This
81 measure can be used by parents to assess their child’s pain by looking for the occurrence of these
82 behaviors. Further, this measure also reflects behavioral indices of recovery. Because of the utility
83 of the measure and because it is the only validated measure of parent report of child postoperative
84 pain, the PPPM has been used in many studies [6–8].

85 In addition to using tools to assess pain, parents play a vital role in reducing children’s pain
86 through behavioral strategies. For example, Taddio and colleagues [25] have reviewed and graded
87 several guidelines for pain management based on empirical evidence. In particular, such guidelines
88 highlight parental use of distraction and coaching (e.g., encouraging child use of coping skills) as
89 effective parent behavioral pain management techniques for acute pain in children.

90 **Practice Point**

- 91 • Interventions based on empirical findings may be an avenue to improve the management
92 of children’s postoperative pain in the home setting

93 **Developmental Factors in Pain**

94 Developmental stages play a pivotal role in how a child’s pain is managed. Frequencies of
95 vocal expressions of pain such as crying, wailing, ingressive vocalization appear in children
96 experiencing postoperative pain but specific rates of occurrence of these expressions change as
97 children age and develop [26]. Verbal expressions often make assessing child pain easier compared
98 to other vocalizations. When children are unable to express their pain verbally, health care provider
99 and parental assessment of child pain is more challenging as adults cannot simply ask children
100 about their discomfort. Given that self-report is considered the gold standard of pain management,
101 lack of ability to verbally report, either due to age or developmental delay/cognitive impairment
102 can provide challenges for the optimal management of postoperative pain.

103 Although pain assessment in non-verbal children can be difficult, validated observational
104 tools have been developed in order to assess pain in this population. For young children, the
105 Neonatal Infant Pain Scale (used for infants) [27] and the Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, and
106 Consolability (FLACC) scale (used for children under 4) [28] each provide observers with a
107 checklist to assess pain-related behaviors. For children slightly older but who are still not verbally
108 fluent, self-assessment pain measures through the use of scales such as the Faces Pain Scale-
109 Revised (used for children aged 4 to 12) [29] and Wong-Baker FACES (used for children 3 and
110 older) [30] are helpful. These scales allow children to point to their level of pain depicted through
111 faces. Additionally, the Visual Analog Scale allows children over the age of 7 to point to their
112 level of pain on a line 100 mm long with one end representing “no pain” and the other representing
113 “worst pain” [31].

114 Observational measures can also be adapted for children with cognitive disabilities. If a
115 child’s verbal ability is impaired, self-report non-verbal measures or observational measures can

116 be used. For example, the Noncommunicating Children's Pain Checklist, an observational
117 measure, and the FLACC have both been utilized to assess pain in children with disabilities [32–
118 34].

119 In addition to determining verbal ability, the age of a child may impact the expression and
120 management of pain. For example, older children have more resources in terms of coping strategies
121 to handle their pain compared to younger children [35]. Specifically, older children are better at
122 describing their pain and using cognitive pain management skills. Older children are also better at
123 distinguishing between their distressful states by identifying differences between fear and physical
124 pain [36]. It is therefore not surprising that older children develop fewer behavioral problems after
125 surgery compared to younger children [37]. For these reasons, the age of a child plays a large role
126 in the course of their postoperative pain and implies that observational tools should be used as
127 complements to self-report measures of pain in younger children.

128 **Cultural Factors in Pain**

129 It is widely accepted that cultural variables can influence the expression and treatment of
130 pain and, in fact, there is a growing body of ethnic and racial disparities in pain management
131 [38,39]. Such disparities have been documented in the experience of postoperative pain in children.
132 For example, examining differences in postoperative recovery, African American children were
133 shown to have higher pain scores and require more pain medication compared to White children
134 [40]. In addition, White children experienced more analgesic side effects compared to African
135 American children. Our group has a growing body of evidence on cultural factors that impact
136 management of children's postoperative pain. Specifically, findings from our lab suggest ethnic
137 and language differences in parental beliefs about children's pain expression, suggesting that

138 Spanish speaking parents report misconceptions to a greater degree than English speaking parents,
139 even after controlling for group differences in socioeconomic status [41].

140 Language is another factor that can influence management of children's postoperative pain.
141 For example, language barriers may lead to parents not fully understanding pain management
142 instructions of health care providers and such barriers have been shown to be associated with low
143 treatment adherence [42]. Moreover, there may be cultural preferences for use of complementary
144 and alternative medicine (CAM) in addition to or in place of traditional pain management
145 strategies [43], and data do support differences in CAM use based upon language. Our lab has
146 documented that both English speaking mothers are more likely to use complementary and
147 alternative medicine to treat child pain compared to Spanish speaking mothers [44]. These
148 differences were not associated with mothers' beliefs about CAM, nonetheless, such cultural
149 beliefs should be explored further with more culturally sensitive measures of CAM attitudes.

150 Although ethnic disparities in children's pain management exist, we cannot fully tease
151 apart the role of cultural values and socioeconomic factors. It is possible that values and beliefs
152 are shaped by culture which in turn affects outcomes in pain management [45]. It is also possible
153 that these differences could relate to socioeconomic status. For example, education may impact
154 parent understanding of pain management and willingness to administer medication to children. It
155 is likely that the disparities are a function of the more complex interplay of culture and SES and
156 future research to more clearly identify the relationship among these variables is needed.

157 **Practice Point**

- 158 • Pain management is impacted by parent beliefs regarding analgesic use for children,
159 developmental and language status of children, and cultural and language factors

160 **Best Practice**

161 Assessment is key in adequately treating pain; therefore, ensuring that parents and
162 caregivers can conduct proper assessment of children's postoperative pain at home is imperative.
163 Educating parents on the use of validated pain scales and ensuring parents understand the various
164 ways pain can be expressed by children (e.g., verbal distress, withdrawal, behavioral changes) can
165 help parents detect when children may be in pain but are unable to directly express their
166 discomfort. Avoiding assumptions regarding parent understanding of appropriate analgesic
167 administration is vital. Given that analgesics are weight based and require proper measurement,
168 teaching parents how to administer analgesics is crucial. The media recently reported on the issue
169 of parental confusion regarding administration of liquid analgesics to children and how the "old
170 school" method of using a teaspoon can lead to errors in dosing. Moreover, parents may not know
171 the differences or similarities in the variety of brand and generic medication names – we frequently
172 encounter parents in our setting who are unaware that ibuprofen, Advil, and Motrin are all the
173 same analgesic, for example. In terms of dosing, it has long been proposed that optimal
174 management of children's postoperative pain ought to include around-the-clock dosing of
175 analgesics to prevent pain. We teach parents that it takes more medication to treat pain that has
176 become severe than it does to prevent pain. Finally, pain is best treated using a multimodal
177 approach – that is, combining pharmacological and nonpharmacological pain management
178 strategies. Behavioral strategies, such as distraction, imagery, relaxation can positively impact
179 children's acute pain when used in conjunction with analgesics.

180 **Practice Point**

- 181 • Proper pain assessment, around-the-clock dosing, and a multimodal approach are
182 essential for the optimal management of children's postoperative pain

183 **Conclusion and Future Perspective**

184 Postoperative pain in children remains as a significant problem, particularly given that the
185 majority of postoperative pain management occurs at home under the responsibility of parents and
186 caregivers. A large body of research indicates parents provide suboptimal pain management in the
187 home setting, which may relate to parental beliefs regarding analgesic use and pain expression in
188 children. Developmental and cultural issues can also contribute to challenges in children's pain
189 management. A child's developmental state due to age or ability affects pain expression. Similarly,
190 a child's ability to cope with pain depends on age and maturity level. Cultural issues including
191 ethnicity, language, and socioeconomic status play a role in pain management as well.
192 Accordingly, research in the areas of parental, developmental, and cultural issues in children's
193 postoperative pain management suggest that a tailored, rather than a "one size fits all" approach is
194 needed. Tailored interventions target specific populations and eliminate extraneous information
195 so that information provided is directly relevant, and therefore, more likely to be effective [46].
196 Such interventions can be modified accordingly to children's age, parental beliefs, cultural values,
197 and any other factors empirically associated with children's pain management after surgery.
198 Development of tailored interventions for children's postoperative pain may provide a fruitful
199 avenue for improving children's pain management in the home setting.

200 Children's pain management has long been neglected in both clinical and research settings;
201 however, we have seen a dramatic increase in the focus on this topic in recent decades. Children's
202 pain management in the medical setting has greatly improved, particularly given the increased
203 focus on pain as the "fifth vital sign." We also have available a wealth of knowledge on children's
204 pain management via well-established and evidence-based guidelines, such as Practice Guidelines
205 for Acute Pain Management in the Perioperative Setting published by the American Society of
206 Anesthesiologists Task Force on Acute Pain Management [47]. However, there is a huge gap in

207 the translation of knowledge into practice, particularly with pain management in the home setting.
208 Given the increased focus on children's pain management in the home setting and the
209 incorporation of health information technology into the treatment of pain, it is expected that we
210 would see significant improvements in the management of postoperative pain in children in the
211 home setting in the next 5-10 years. In the next several years we anticipate a growing number of
212 studies reflecting development of tailored interventions to target pain in this area that capitalize on
213 the Internet to provide ongoing access to strategies by parents to provide optimal treatment to
214 children. In addition, given the growing use of ecological momentary assessment strategies such
215 as pain diaries, health care providers are increasingly provided with real time data on pain, which
216 allows for provision of real time intervention to prevent increases in pain severity. Therefore, we
217 hope to see a decrease in unnecessary suffering in children following surgery in the next decade.
218

219 **References**

- 220 [1] IASP Task Force on Taxonomy, *Classification of Chronic Pain, 2nd Ed.* Seattle: IASP
221 press, (2004).
- 222 [2] Free MM. Cross-cultural conceptions of pain and pain control. *Proc. (Bayl. Univ. Med.*
223 *Cent)* 15(2), 143–5 (2000).
- 224 [3] Good MD, Brodwin PE, Good BJ. *Pain as Human Experience: An Anthropological*
225 *Perspective.* University of California Press, 143–145 (1994).
- 226 [4] Cullen KA, Hall MJ, Golosinskiy A. Ambulatory surgery in the United States, 2006. *Natl*
227 *Heal Stat Rep*, 1–25 (2009).
- 228 [5] Fortier MA, Chou J, Maurer EL, Kain ZN. Acute to chronic postoperative pain in
229 children: preliminary findings. *J. Pediatr. Surg* 46(9), 1700–5 (2011).
- 230 **[6] Fortier MA, MacLaren JE, Martin SR, Perret-Karimi D, Kain ZN. Pediatric pain after
231 ambulatory surgery: where’s the medication?. *Pediatrics* 124(4), e588–95 (2009).
- 232 This study examined postoperative pain and medication consumption for children after surgery.
- 233 [7] Stewart DW, Ragg PG, Sheppard S, Chalkiadis GA. The severity and duration of
234 postoperative pain and analgesia requirements in children after tonsillectomy,
235 orchidopexy, or inguinal hernia repair. *Paediatr. Anaesth* 22(2), 136–43 (2012).
- 236 *[8] Kain ZN, Mayes LC, Caldwell-Andrews AA, Karas DE, and McClain BC. Preoperative
237 anxiety, postoperative pain, and behavioral recovery in young children undergoing
238 surgery. *Pediatrics* 118(2), 651–8 (2006).
- 239 By examing children before and after surgery, this study found that pre-surgery anxiety was
240 related to greater levels of postoperative pain.
- 241 [9] Coley KC, Williams BA, Dapos SV, Chen C, Smith RB. Retrospective Evaluation of
242 Readmissions After Same Day Surgery and Associated Costs. 8180(2), 349–353 (2002).
- 243 [10] Perkins FM, Kehlet H. Chronic pain as an outcome of surgery. A review of predictive
244 factors. *Anesthesiology* 93(4), 1123–33 (2000).
- 245 [11] Taddio A, Katz A, Ilersich AL, Koren G. Effect of neonatal circumcision on pain response
246 during subsequent routine vaccination. *Lancet* 349(9052), 599–603 (1997).
- 247 [12] Pate J, Blount R, Cohen L, Smith A. Childhood medical experience and temperament as
248 predictors of adult functioning in medical situations. *Child. Heal. Care* 25(4), 281–298
249 (1996).

- 250 [13] Woolf CJ, Salter MW. Neuronal plasticity: increasing the gain in pain. *Science* 288(5472),
251 1765–1769 (2000).
- 252 [14] Cullen KA, Hall MJ, Golosinskiy A. Ambulatory surgery in the United States, 2006. *Natl*
253 *Heal. Stat Rep.*, 1–25 (2009).
- 254 ****[15]**Finley GA, McGrath PJ, Forward SP, McNeill G, Fitzgerald P. Parents’ management of
255 children's pain following ‘minor’ surgery. *Pain* 64(1), 83–87 (1996).
- 256 This investigation documents child pain and the amount of medication given by parents at home
257 after surgery.
- 258 [16] Hamers JP, Abu-Saad HH. Children’s pain at home following (adeno) tonsillectomy. *Eur.*
259 *J. Pain* 6(3), 213–219, (2002).
- 260 ****[17]**Kankkunen P, Vehvilainen-Julkunen K, Pietila AM, Kokki H, Halonen P. Parents’
261 perceptions and use of analgesics at home after children's day surgery. *Paediatr Anaesth*
262 **13**(2), 132–140 (2003).
- 263 This study found that at least some parents had inaccurate perceptions of children's analgesics.
- 264 [18] Munro HM, Malviya S, Lauder GR, Voepel-Lewis T, Tait A. Pain relief in children
265 following outpatient surgery. *J. Clin. Anesth* 11(3), 187–191 (1999).
- 266 [19] Warnock FF, Lander J. Pain progression, intensity and outcomes following tonsillectomy.
267 *Pain* 75(1), 37–45 (1998).
- 268 [20] MacLaren JE, Kain ZN. Prevalence and predictors of significant sleep disturbances in
269 children undergoing ambulatory tonsillectomy and adenoidectomy. *J. Pediatr. Psychol*
270 33(3), 248–57 (2008).
- 271 [21] Dorkham MC, Chalkiadis GA, von Ungern Sternberg BS, Davidson AJ. Effective
272 postoperative pain management in children after ambulatory surgery, with a focus on
273 tonsillectomy: barriers and possible solutions. *Paediatr. Anaesth.* 24(3), 239–48 (2014).
- 274 [22] Zisk RY, Grey M, MacLaren JE, Kain ZN. Exploring sociodemographic and personality
275 characteristic predictors of parental pain perceptions. *Anesth. Analg* 104(4), 790–8 (2007).
- 276 [23] Rony RYZ, Fortier MA, Chorney JM, Perret D, Kain ZN. Parental postoperative pain
277 management: attitudes, assessment, and management. *Pediatrics* 125(6), e1372–8 (2010).
- 278 [24] Chambers CT, Reid GJ, McGrath PJ, Finley GA. Development and preliminary validation
279 of a postoperative pain measure for parents. *Pain* 68(2), 307–313 (1996).

- 280 [25] Taddio A, Appleton M, Bortolussi R *et al.* Reducing the pain of childhood vaccination: an
281 evidence-based clinical practice guideline. *CMAJ* 182(18), e843–55 (2010).
- 282 [26] Dubois A, Bringuier S, Capdevilla X, Pry R. Vocal and Verbal Expression of
283 Postoperative Pain in Preschoolers. *YJPMN* 9(4), 160–165 (2008).
- 284 [27] Lawrence J, Alcock D, McGrawth P, Kay J, MacMurray S, Dulberg C. The development
285 of a tool to assess neonatal pain. *Neonatal Netw. NN* 12(6), 59–66 (1993).
- 286 [28] Manworren R, Hynan L. Clinical Validation of FLACC: Preverbal Patient Pain Scale.
287 *Pediatric Nursing* 29(2), 140–146 (2003).
- 288 [29] Bieri D, Reeve RA, Champion GD, Addicoat L, Ziegler JB. The Faces Pain Scale for the
289 self-assessment of the severity of pain experienced by children: development, initial
290 validation, and preliminary investigation for ratio scale properties. *Pain* 41(2), 139–50
291 (1990).
- 292 [30] Hockenberry MJ, Wilson D. *Wong’s Essentials of Pediatric Nursing*, 8th ed. St. Louis,
293 MO: Mosby, (2009).
- 294 [31] Todd KH, Funk KG, Funk JP, Bonacci R. Clinical significance of reported changes in
295 pain severity. *Ann. Emerg. Med.* 27(4), 485–9 (1996).
- 296 [32] Nader R, Oberlander TF, Chambers CT, Craig KD. Expression of pain in children with
297 autism. *Clin. J. Pain* 20(2), 88–97 (2004).
- 298 [33] Hadden KL, Von Baeyer CL. Pain in children with cerebral palsy : common triggers and
299 expressive behaviors. *Pain* 99(1), 281–288 (2002).
- 300 [34] McGrath PJ, Romus C, Canfield C, Campbell MA, Hennigar A. Behaviours caregivers
301 use to determine pain in non-verbal, cognitively impaired individuals. *Dev. Med. Child*
302 *Neurol.* 40(5), 340–343 (1998).
- 303 [35] Bennett-Branson SM, Craig KD. Postoperative Pain in Children : Developmental and
304 Family Influences on Spontaneous Coping Strategies. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral*
305 *Science* 25(3), 355–383 (1993).
- 306 [36] Young KD. Pediatric procedural pain. *Ann. Emerg. Med.* 45(2), 160–71 (2005).
- 307 [37] Kain ZN, Linda MC, O’Conner TZ, Cicchetti DV. Preoperative Anxiety in Children.
308 *Arch. Pediatr. Adolesc. Med.* 150(12), 1238 (1996).
- 309 [38] Cintron A, Morrison RS. Pain and Ethnicity in the United States: A Systematic Review.
310 *Journal of Palliative Medicine* 9(6), 1454-73 (2006).

- 311 **[39] Anderson KO, Green CR, Payne R. Racial and ethnic disparities in pain: causes and
312 consequences of unequal care. *J. Pain* 10(12), 1187–204 (2009).
- 313 This review examines the relevant literature surrounding racial disparities in child pain and finds
314 that such disparities do exist.
- 315 [40] Sadhasivam S, Chidambaran V, Ngamprasertwong P, Esslinger HR, Prows C, Zhang X,
316 Martin LJ, McAuliffe J. Race and unequal burden of perioperative pain and opioid related
317 adverse effects in children. *Pediatrics* 129(5), 832–8 (2012).
- 318 [41] Batista ML, Fortier MA, Maurer EL, Tan E, Huszti HC, Kain ZN. Exploring the Impact of
319 Cultural Background on Parental Perceptions of Children's Pain. *Children's Health Care*
320 41(2), 97–110 (2012).
- 321 [42] Hsu Y, Mao C, Wey M. Antihypertensive medication adherence among elderly Chinese
322 Americans. *J Transcult Nurs* 21(4), 297–305 (2010).
- 323 [43] Birdee GS, Phillips RS, Davis RB, Gardiner P. Factors associated with pediatric use of
324 complementary and alternative medicine. *Pediatrics* 125(2), 249–56 (2010).
- 325 [44] Fortier MA, Gillis S, Gomez SH, Wang SM, Tan ET, Kain ZN. Attitudes toward and use
326 of complementary and alternative medicine among Hispanic and white mothers. *Altern.*
327 *Ther. Health Med.* 20(1), 13–9 (2014).
- 328 [45] Zisk RY, Grey M, MacLaren JE, Kain ZN. Exploring sociodemographic and personality
329 characteristic predictors of parental pain perceptions. *Anesth. Analg.* 104(4), 790–8
330 (2007).
- 331 [46] Rimer BK, Lyna CMP, Glassman B, Yarnall K, Lipkus I, Barber L. The impact of tailored
332 interventions on a community health center population. *Pat Ed Couns.* 37(2), 125–140
333 (1999).
- 334 [47] American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on Acute Pain Management, *Practice*
335 *guidelines for acute pain management in the perioperative setting: an updated report.*
336 *Anesthesiology* 100(6), 1573–1581 (2004).

337

338

339

340