SURVEY OF PEDIATRIC NURSES’ KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES REGARDING PAIN

Dissertation submitted in part fulfillment of the requirement of the award of the degree of Master of Medicine in Anaesthesiology of the University of Nairobi

Wambui Mwangi
MBChB (Nbi)
June 2009
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Dr. Gathuya for your inspiration and guidance.

Mr. Mogi for your assistance and encouragement.

The Ethics and Research Committee at the Kenyatta National Hospital for allowing me to carry out this study.
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. John Mwangi.

In this fast evolving world, you have been my stable force.
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DECLARATION
This dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for any award in any university.

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This dissertation has been submitted for the degree of master of medicine in anaesthesia with my approval as the university supervisor.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APS..........................American Pain Society

IASP..........................International Association for the Study of Pain

VAS............................Visual Analogue Scale

PPP..............................Pediatric Pain Profile

FLACC..........................Face, Legs, Activity, Crying and Consolability

CHEOPS........................Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario Pain Scale

PNKAS..........................Pediatric Nurses Knowledge and Attitude Survey regarding pain

NKAS............................Nurses Knowledge and Attitudes Survey regarding pain
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KEY DEFINITIONS

Pediatric age group
The pediatric age group encompasses infants, children and adolescents. In literature, infants are generally classified as being under one year, with children being one to twelve years, and adolescents being over the age of twelve years. According to the Kenyan law, a child is an individual less than eighteen years of age. At the Kenyatta National Hospital, admission to the pediatric wards is for patients aged twelve and below.

Pediatric nurse
In Kenya, there is no graduate education specific to pediatric nursing. The term pediatric nurse usually refers to a qualified diploma or degree educated nurse working in a pediatric setting. In this thesis, the term pediatric nurse refers to nurses working with infants and children in pediatric hospital setting.
SUMMARY

Background: Children commonly experience pain resulting from injury, illness or medical procedures. The pediatric pain experience involves the interaction of physiological, behavioral, developmental, and situational factors. It is often associated with anxiety, fear, stress and distress. Since children are developmentally, physiologically and pharmaco-dynamically different from adults, the assessment and management of children’s pain is a particular challenge for healthcare professionals.

Objective: To evaluate current knowledge and attitudes in pediatric pain management among pediatric nurses and also to identify gaps in knowledge and attitudinal barriers that warrant further education.

Methods: A modified version of Manworren’s Pediatric Nurses’ Knowledge and Attitudes Survey Regarding Pain tool was used for this study. The questionnaire was distributed to pediatric nurses by research assistants. The data collected was analyzed by use of Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and Statistical Package for Social Sciences. PNKAS scores were expressed as percent (%) correct responses. Differences in PNKAS scores between groups were determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA). Statistical significance was established at \( p < 0.05 \).

Results: Data collection was completed between March 20, 2009 and May 19, 2009. The response rate was 54.9%. Education qualifications included Hospital Certificate \( (n=7, 14\%) \), Diploma \( (n=28, 56\%) \), Bachelor’s Degree \( (n=6, 12\%) \), and Post Graduate \( (n=7, 14\%) \). Most respondents were between 30-34 years of age. More than 60% of the nurses had worked in the pediatric unit for 5 years or less.

32% of respondents had not received any education in any aspect of pain management either before or since commencing work in the pediatric setting. 28% occasionally attended in service sessions on pain and 18% frequently read journal articles on pain.
66% of respondents felt comfortable in basic pain assessment. Most respondents reported that they are greatly influenced by facial expressions (n=45), vital signs (n=42), family report of an infant’s or child’s discomfort (n=39) or the child’s own report of pain using a pain rating tool (n=33).

Nurses’ individual scores on the PNKAS ranged from 8.7-82.6 % with a mean of 49.6%. Overall, no significant differences in PNKAS scores were found among the groups formed by age ($F= 1.096, p= 0.379$), among the groups by years of nursing experience ($F=0.513, p= 0.726$), among groups formed by years of pediatric nursing experience ($F=1.16, p=0.334$) and among groups formed by highest level of education ($F=0.214, p=0.886$).

**Conclusion:** Areas of weakness identified by this study centered on pharmacology, the potential side effect of respiratory depression and pain assessment. Areas of weakness can be used to structure educational programs for improving nurses’ knowledge, attitudes and subsequent practice of pediatric pain management.
INTRODUCTION

The importance of effective pain management cannot be overemphasized, given that pain left untreated, under or over treated can have long lasting psychological and physical effects.¹

In 1996, the American Pain Society (APS) introduced the phrase “Pain is the fifth vital sign”.² This initiative emphasized that pain assessment is as important as assessment of the standard four vital signs and that clinicians need to take action when the patient reports pain.

Effective management of pain in children is a major priority for patients, parents and health care providers³. Despite this, pain in children is often inadequately assessed, managed and treated.

Until recently, traditional medical teaching suggested that since the nervous system is not fully developed and most children have no memory of their early years, that they do not experience as much pain as adults. Recent animal and human studies have shown that the opposite is true. Due to a more robust inflammatory response and the lack of a central inhibitory influence, infants and young children most likely experience more pain than adults do.⁶,⁷ Early painful experiences can have long term effects, actually lowering pain tolerance for months after the procedure.⁸

Many pediatric treatments and guidelines were empirically based on data from adults.⁴ In the first edition of Acute Pain Medicine: Scientific Evidence in 1999, only 8% of pediatric citations were based on Levels 1 & 2 evidence (in contrast to 67% of adult citations) increasing to 50% in 2005. Although more is now known about pain management in children, it has not been widely or effectively translated into clinical practice.⁵

‘Children’ encompasses an extremely broad group from premature neonates to adolescents. There are marked age-related changes affecting all aspects of pain
management including assessment, physiological and pharmacological responses. Their ability to communicate the source and severity of their pain also varies. As a result, children are often given minimal or no analgesia for procedures that would routinely be aggressively treated in adults.\textsuperscript{8,9}

The American Academy of Pediatrics and the American Pain Society have issued a joint statement recommending that pain be recognized and treated more aggressively in children.\textsuperscript{10} They point to several misconceptions that can lead to under treatment of pain in children;

- The myth that infants and children do not feel pain, or suffer less from it than adults
- Lack of routine pain assessment in children
- Lack of knowledge regarding newer modalities and proper dosing strategies for the use of analgesics in children
- Fear of respiratory depression or other adverse effects of analgesic medications
- The belief that preventing pain takes too much time and effort.

They recommended the following strategies by clinicians to improve pediatric pain management;

- Expand knowledge about pediatric pain and pediatric pain management principles and techniques.
- Provide a calm environment for procedures that reduces distress-producing stimulation
- Use appropriate pain assessment tools and techniques
- Anticipate predictable painful experiences, intervene and monitor accordingly
- Use a multimodal (pharmacologic, cognitive, behavioral, and physical) approach to pain management and use a multidisciplinary approach when possible
- Involve families and tailor interventions to the individual child
- Advocate for child specific research in pain management and Food and Drug Administration evaluation of analgesics for children
- Advocate for the effective use of pain medication for children to ensure compassionate and competent management of their pain.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Knowledge related to pain is continuously expanding and developing. However, understanding the basic pain concept and the multi-dimensional nature of pain forms the basis upon which pain is assessed and managed.

Definition of pain.
The word ‘pain’ comes from the Latin word ‘poena’ which means penalty, punishment, grief and the Greek word ‘poine’ meaning penalty.\textsuperscript{11,12} Most dictionary definitions are very similar defining pain as either an unpleasant physical sensation, or a feeling of discomfort, or an emotional distress.

The first major scientific meeting on pain (May 1972), established the International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP). The IASP Subcommittee on Taxonomy defined pain in 1986 as ‘an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential damage, or described in terms of such damage’.

Shortly after this McCaffery proposed another definition of pain, stating that ‘pain is what the experiencing person says it is, existing whenever and wherever he says it does’.\textsuperscript{13} This definition stresses the subjective nature of pain and identifies the patient as the expert.

Pain theories.
Aristotle believed that pain was an emotion that grew in the head and as such was the opposite of pleasure.\textsuperscript{14} 17\textsuperscript{th} century French philosopher, Descartes, proposed that mind and body were two separate entities and therefore, pain was either in the mind or body. Descartes also proposed that there was a direct relationship between the severity of injury and the amount of pain felt.\textsuperscript{15}

Following Descartes’ concept, the traditional theory of pain, as it was known, became identified as the \textit{specificity theory}.\textsuperscript{15} The theory proposed that pain is a specific sensation and that the intensity of pain is proportional to the extent of tissue damage. Muller
contributed to the understanding of the sensory process when he recognized that the brain receives information about external objects by way of five sensory systems; seeing, taste, hearing, smell and touch. Von Frey expanded this and deduced that the skin was comprised of sensory spots that responded to specific sensations.\textsuperscript{15}

Various other theories followed this and are classified in literature as \textit{pattern theories}.\textsuperscript{15} Goldscheider for example, was the first to propose that the intensity and frequency of the stimuli (known as pattern of stimulation), and the brain’s interpretation of this, are the critical determinants of pain. All pattern theories developed from the premise that stimuli produced a pattern of impulses in neurons that are transmitted as pain.

In 1965, psychologists Melzack and Hall proposed their theory of \textit{‘The Gate control Theory of pain’}. They suggested that a ‘gating system’ in the central nervous system opens and closes pain pathways. The gates can be opened to let pain proceed through the afferent and efferent pathways to and from the brain, or the gates can be closed to block these pathways. The gate control mechanism can be influenced by nerve impulses in the efferent pathways, and the latter affected by various psychological factors.\textsuperscript{12} This pain theory integrates the physiological, psychological, cognitive and emotional components that regulate the perception of pain.\textsuperscript{15} It is this theory that governs current pain assessment and management pediatric settings.

\textbf{Psychological aspects of pain}

The gate control theory of pain emphasizes the tremendous interplay of psychological and neuro-physiological variables in pain perception.\textsuperscript{15, 16} However, physiological and psychological components of pain are impossible to separate. Past experience, spiritual underpinnings, social structure and cultural background has an effect on pain perception and pain tolerance of an individual.\textsuperscript{17}

\textbf{Cultural aspects and expression of pain}

Culture plays an enormous role in the assessment and management of pain. Theories of pain themselves can be culturally determined. Children requiring pain management bring
their own cultural perspective, as both their understanding of, and response to pain may be culturally determined.\textsuperscript{18} For some children and their families the verbal expression of pain is an acceptable cultural behavior. In others, silence from their cultural perspective is a more acceptable form of behavior.\textsuperscript{18}

Like the experience of pain, the expression of pain is also very individual. Pain can expressed in behavior, body language, verbal and non verbal expressions, and as a physiological response, all of which vary for each individual child. Language is defined by Waddie as ‘part of the cultural expression of individuals’ and that ‘culture is transmitted through language’.\textsuperscript{19} The words children and parents use for identifying pain varies.

**Pain Assessment in Children**

Children have a limited range of experience and may be unable to use words that adequately express their discomfort. Determining, therefore, just how much pain a child is in can be difficult. Cognitive, behavioral, emotional and psychosocial factors play a role in a child’s pain experience, with children responding to noxious experiences differently at different developmental stages.\textsuperscript{10}

To treat pain adequately, ongoing assessment of the presence and severity of pain and the child’s response to treatment is essential.\textsuperscript{10} Ideal pain assessment necessitates a multi-dimensional and comprehensive approach, which is outcome based.\textsuperscript{20} The assessment requires consideration of children’s developmental level, type of pain experienced, history and context of pain, family influences and interaction with the health care team.\textsuperscript{21} Pain assessment should be regular and using validated age appropriate tools.

Pain measurement, with pain tools or scores, is an aid to the more complex holistic assessment process. Reliable, valid and clinically sensitive assessment tools are available for neonates through adolescents.\textsuperscript{23} No pain assessment tool, however, is judged to be globally valid, but must be judged in relation to its specific purpose.\textsuperscript{21}
Pain Assessment Tools
The three methods for measuring pain in children are: self-report techniques (what children say), behavioral observation (what children do), and physiological measurements (how their bodies react).

It is possible for children down to the age of three years to self report the location and severity of pain using developmentally appropriate terms but younger children cannot do so readily. The younger the child, the more behavioral cues and physiological values are used to pick up the signs and symptoms of pain. These are open to misinterpretation and can be affected by symptoms and other events other than pain.

Self report techniques address the experience of pain and are considered to the gold standard against which all pain assessment tools are judged. These include Wong-Baker Faces scale, Visual analogue scale (VAS), Color scale, and Numerical rating and Poker-chip tool.

![Wong-Baker Faces scale](image)
Pain scales that use behavior as indicator of pain have been developed especially for pre-verbal children. These tools concentrate on the different types of behavior which include crying, facial expression, motor responses, body posture, activity and appearance. These include Pediatric Pain Profile (PPP), modified FLACC (Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, and Consolability) and CHEOPS (Children’s Hospital of Eastern Ontario).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face</td>
<td>No particular expression or smile</td>
<td>Occasional grimace or frown, withdrawn, disinterested</td>
<td>Frequent to constant quivering chin, clenched jaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legs</td>
<td>Normal position or relaxed</td>
<td>Uneasy, restless, tense</td>
<td>Kicking, or legs drawn up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Lying quietly, normal position, moves easily</td>
<td>Squirming, shifting back and forth, tense</td>
<td>Arched, rigid or jerking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cry</td>
<td>No cry (awake or asleep)</td>
<td>Moans or whimpers; occasional complaint</td>
<td>Crying steadily, screams or sobs, frequent complaints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolability</td>
<td>Content, relaxed</td>
<td>Reassured by occasional touching, hugging or being talked to, distractible</td>
<td>Difficult to console or comfort</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the five categories (F) Face; (L) Legs; (A) Activity; (C) Cry; (C) Consolability is scored from 0-2, which results in a total score between zero and ten.

Table 1
(Adapted from the City of Hope Pain Online Resource Centre)

Physiological methods for assessing acute pain in children propose to indicate the presence and intensity of pain through changes in variables that can be associated with pain. These include heart and respiratory rate, blood pressure, oxygen saturation, palmer sweating and metabolic and endocrine variables. Most physiological measures of pain focus on the presence or absence of pain rather than the severity, intensity or magnitude of pain. Therefore, they are best used in combination with other forms of pain assessment.
Inadequate Pain Management in Children

Studies have shown that children receive insufficient pain relieving strategies when compared to adults in similar circumstances. Unrelieved or poorly managed pain delays recovery from illness, alters immune functions and increases the levels of stress and anxiety of the child and their family resulting in increased complications and prolonged hospital stay. Poorly managed pain can also have profound long lasting consequences and may alter emotional and behavioral responses during future painful experiences.

Because nurses administer analgesics to pediatric patients, factors that influence their decisions to medicate for pain play a crucial role in the effectiveness of pain relief.

Several studies have been carried out to identify nursing attitudes and practices with regard to pain assessment and management in children. In one such study, nurses indicated that infants feel exactly the same or even less as adults and that infant cannot anticipate pain. Many nurses indicated that pain medications were only used during the postoperative period. Pain medications were not routinely given before invasive procedures, in dying infants or those who were paralyzed. In a similar study, 228 nurses (65% return rate) at a pediatric hospital were surveyed. Barriers to effective pain management were identified and grouped into four categories as the need for; (a) more education of physicians about pain management, (b) increased collaboration between nurses and physicians, (c) more education on neonatal/infant pain management, and (d) increased support for nurses to modify pain management.

Other studies have established that the nurses’ ability to accurately assess the level of pain intensity can affect their management of a child’s pain. In most studies, vital signs were ranked as the primary tool for pain assessment with occasional consideration of non verbal behaviors.

Nurses’ beliefs, knowledge and comfort regarding opiates have been extensively investigated. The nurses’ decisions to provide analgesics for pain were related to their knowledge of opioids, the amount of pain displayed by the patient, the age of the child,
and the seriousness of the child's condition. Nurses chose more nonopiates and lower doses of opiates for younger children. In addition, most nurses had frequent concerns for addiction and respiratory depression.

Schmidt and colleagues reported that nurses lacked knowledge regarding pain medications; and that they did not recognize the value of pharmacological and non-pharmacological combination therapies. In Margolius study, many nurses reported that they were not aware of the pain interventions guidelines (Acute Pain Management Guideline, 1992).

Others have studied barriers to research utilization in the area of pediatric pain management. Clinicians' knowledge relating to pain management and their ability to incorporate theory into practice is dependent on the education they receive, in both academic and clinical setting, a view held by many workers. Also, lack of cooperation from physicians, administrators, nurse colleagues, and family members was a barrier identified in one study.
Study Justification

Pain management is a concern and challenge to healthcare professionals in all parts of the world. Successful pain management is crucial to achieving the patient’s expectations and the objectives sanctioned by international health care organizations.

It has been suggested that healthcare providers’ knowledge, attitude, practice and beliefs contribute to and affect the overall outcome of patient care.

Pain management is important to anaesthetic and surgical outcomes as well as management of other clinicopathological scenarios.

Pain assessment is not routinely done in Kenyatta National Hospital, no study has been undertaken to understate this. No study has been undertaken to in the institution to evaluate knowledge, attitudes and practices of nurses towards pediatric pain.
GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Goal
To improve pediatric pain management in the Kenyatta National Hospital.

Objective
To assess nurses' knowledge, attitude and practice of pediatric pain management.

Specific Objectives
1. Evaluate nurses' knowledge of pediatric pain experience and pain management.
2. Identify how nurses working with children obtain and update their pediatric pain management knowledge.
3. Identify barriers to adequate pediatric pain management by nurses.
4. Identify nursing attitudes and practices with regard to assessment and management of pain in children.
STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Study Design
A prospective, descriptive study.

Setting
The research was undertaken at the Kenyatta National Hospital, a tertiary referral and teaching hospital in Nairobi.

Study Population
The target population for this research was hospital-based qualified nurses who regularly work with children. The study targeted those nurses working in the pediatric medical and surgical wards.

Sample size
The sample size was calculated using the formula;

\[ n = \frac{z^2 pq}{d^2} \]

where;

- \( n \) is sample size (if the target population is more than 10,000)
- \( z \) is the standard normal deviation at the required confidence level (1.96)
- \( p \) is the proportion in the target population estimated to have the characteristics being measured. Since the proportion is unknown 50% was used.
- \( q \) is \( 1-p=0.5 \)
- \( d \) is the level of statistical significance set (0.05)

\[ n = (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \]
\[ (0.05)^2 \]
\[ = 384.16 \]

Since the study population in this study is less than 10,000, the sample size was calculated as follows;

\[ n_f = \frac{n}{1+n/N} \]

where;
nf is the desired sample size when population is less than 10 000

n is the desired sample size when population is more than 10 000 (which is 384.16 as calculated above)

N is the estimate of the population size (the number of pediatric nurses working in the surgical and medical pediatric wards). The total number was 120.

\[
nf = \frac{384.16}{1 + \frac{384.16}{120}} = 91.4 \text{ which is rounded to 91}
\]

**Inclusion & Exclusion Criteria**

**Inclusion criteria**

1. Nurses working either full or part-time in the pediatric medical and surgical wards
2. Nurses who consent to the study.

**Exclusion criteria**

1. Nurses who decline consent
2. Nurses working in adult wards
The Tool

The tool used was a questionnaire based on the ‘Pediatric Nurses Knowledge and Attitudes Survey Regarding Pain’ (PNKAS) questionnaire, an instrument developed by Manworren (2001), for use in surveying nurses working in pediatric settings. The tool is available online at the City of Hope Pain Resource Centre (http://prc.coh.org).

The questionnaire consisted of three sections;

1. **Section one**: Consisted of eight (8) questions relevant to level of control and preparedness of participants to manage pain. Participants were required to tick the box that reflected this for them. This section is not in the Manworren tool.
2. **Section two**: Consisted of twenty-three questions (23) about pain knowledge and attitudes. These required a simple true or false response.
3. **Section three**: Consisted of four (4) questions related to demographic data such as age, employment and education.

Participants were asked to complete all these questions as these were vital in the final analysis.

Reliability and Validity of the tool

Contents of the PNKAS tool reflect the standards for pediatric pain management. The reliability and validity of the tool was not re-tested but rather reliance made on previous studies. Manworren modified PNKAS from the ‘Nurses Knowledge and Attitudes Survey Regarding Pain’ (NKAS) tool, first developed by Ferrell and McCaffery. A team of pain experts have previously established reliability and validity of the original NKAS tool, extensive test-retest has also occurred. Development of the PNKAS tool and establishment of its validity, reliability and internal consistency has been described. Manworren has published results using this survey and continues to gather data as more nurses and institutions use the tool.
Tool Distribution
The questionnaire and a letter informing the participants of the study were hand delivered to the participants. All the participants were asked to complete the questionnaire without seeking help and return within a specified time frame.

Data management
Data obtained from returned questionnaires was verified and stored in hard and soft copies. Data was be analyzed using the SPSS for Windows version 12.0. Results were presented in pie charts, graphs and tables.

Ethical Considerations
1. The nature of the study was explained to all the participants.
2. No nurse was under any obligation to participate.
3. The data gathering and analysis process protected the participant’s identity and confidentiality.
4. Study was undertaken after approval by the Kenyatta National Hospital Ethics Committee.
RESULTS
Data collection was done between March 19, 2009 and May 20, 2009. Out of the 91 questionnaires distributed, 71 were returned, 11 of these were blank and 10 were inadequately filled for analysis. The questionnaires analyzed were 50 (54.9% response rate).

RESPONDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS
Respondents’ education level included Hospital Certificate (n=7, 14%), Diploma (n=28, 56%), Degree (n=6, 12%) and Post Graduate (n=7, 14%). Two of the respondents did not complete the test portion of the survey and seven respondents did not provide complete demographic data despite the assurance of anonymity.

Figure 3: Age Distribution
Experience in Paediatrics

66% of respondents had worked in the pediatric unit for five years or less, 14% between six and ten years while 6% had worked for eleven to fifteen years. Seven respondents did not fill in the number of years they had worked in the pediatric unit.

Figure 4: Years worked in Paediatric Unit
EDUCATION ON PAIN

21 (42%) respondents indicated they had received some education in anatomy or physiology of pain, 23 (46%) respondents in pain assessment, 20 (40%) in non-pharmacological interventions with 27 (54%) indicating they had received education in pharmacological interventions prior to working in a pediatric setting.

In contrast, 8 (16%) of the respondents had received education in anatomy or physiology of pain, 10 (20%) in pain assessment, 6 (12%) in non-pharmacological interventions and 10 (20%) in pharmacological interventions since commencing work in a pediatric setting. 16 (32%) of the respondents had not received any education in any aspect of pain management either before or since commencing work in their current setting.

Figure 5: Number of respondents educated prior to versus while working in pediatric unit
FREQUENCY OF ACCESSING LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

Participation in multi-disciplinary discussions on pain

24 respondents indicated they had never taken part in any multi-disciplinary discussions while the rest indicated they occasionally did so. None of the respondents indicated that they frequently participated in multi-disciplinary sessions on pain.

Figure 6: Pie chart showing participation in multi-disciplinary discussions
Attending in-service sessions related to pain

35 (70%) respondents indicated they had never attended in-service sessions related to pain, 14 (28%) respondents occasionally did so and only one respondent frequently attended such sessions.

Figure 7: Pie chart showing frequency of attendance in in-service sessions related to pain
Read journal articles on pain management

14 (28%) respondents indicated they had never read journal articles or pain literature on the Internet related to pediatric pain while 27 (54%) respondents indicated they occasionally undertook this activities. 9 (18%) respondents indicated they frequently read journal articles or pain literature on the Internet.

Figure 8: Pie chart showing frequency of reading journal articles
FACTORS INFLUENCING USE OF NARCOTICS

While the majority of respondents felt workload had small or no influence on their ability to administer narcotics, 19 (38%) respondents felt that the reluctance of other medical staff to order narcotics inhibited them from administering narcotic analgesia.

Half of the respondents ($n=25$) felt that the fear of opioid addiction had significantly influenced their decision to administer narcotic analgesia.

14 (28%) respondents felt that lack of knowledge had an influence on their decision regarding narcotic analgesia while 18 (36%) respondents felt lack of assessment skills influenced their administration of narcotics.

Figure 9: Factors influencing administration of narcotic analgesia
PEDIATRIC PAIN ASSESSMENT

Comfort level with basic pain assessment

Most respondents felt very comfortable with basic pain assessment, while 12 (24%) and 5 (10%) of the respondents felt not comfortable and very uncomfortable respectively.

Figure 10: Pie Chart showing comfort with basic pain assessment
Pain assessment tools

Most respondents reported that they are greatly influenced by facial expressions (n=45), vital signs (n=42), family report of an infant’s or child’s discomfort (n=39) or the child’s own report of pain using a pain rating tool (n=33).

Figure 11: Factors influencing pain assessment
### BARRIERS TO OPTIMUM PAIN MANAGEMENT

#### Patient related factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient knowledge about the patient</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>29 (58%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child’s cooperation taking medication</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>35 (70%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Doctors’ related factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient knowledge of the doctor</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient co-operation by the doctor in relation to nurses’ suggestions</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>24 (48%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors perception of pain</td>
<td>15 (30%)</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate prescribing of pain relief</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>24 (48%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Nurses’ related factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient knowledge of other nursing staff</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>24 (48%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient time to spend with individual patients</td>
<td>25 (50%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A personal lack of knowledge</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>31 (62%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Factors influencing optimum pain management
**GENERAL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES**

Respondents were asked to complete 23 true/false questions related to knowledge and attitudes towards pain and pain management in children. These questions related to pain assessment, patient variables, pharmacological and non-pharmacological interventions, and addiction knowledge.

Most respondents answered all the questions in this section while two of the respondents answered only 6 questions. Unanswered questions were assumed to be incorrect responses.

No respondent achieved 100% correct response, the highest score was 19 (n=9) and the lowest was 2 (n=1).

![Figure 12: Total score](image-url)
Table 3: Questions most answered correctly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Correct answer</th>
<th>N(%) correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. After the initial recommended dose of opioid analgesic, subsequent doses should be adjusted to response*</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The child in pain should be encouraged to endure as much pain as possible*</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parents should not be present during painful procedures*</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comparable stimuli in different people produce the same of pain*</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Because of underdeveloped neurological system, children under 2 years have decreased sensitivity and limited memory of painful experiences*</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Children who require repeated painful procedures should receive maximum treatment for the pain and anxiety of the first procedure</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Giving Panadol or NSAID along with other narcotics is a logical method of increasing pain relief</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(* These questions were reported in the top ten questions answered correctly by nurses completing the PNKAS, Manworren 2000)
DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to assess knowledge, attitude and practice of pediatric nurses regarding pain management at the Kenyatta National Hospital.

Only 54.9% of the sample responded to the survey. Manworren, in a similar survey, achieved a response rate of 35.7%\(^\text{36}\) while Rienman achieved an average 44% response rate with a 30-66% response rate at different sites.\(^\text{40}\) Some of the respondents reported that the format of the questionnaire was too difficult while others reported they did not have enough time between clinical duties to complete the questionnaire.

Given the complex nature of clinical practice, previous studies have concluded that measuring nurses’ knowledge and attitudes is merely a method to identify areas of weakness and hence develop strategies to improve pain management practices.\(^\text{36,38}\) In this study, as in previous studies, the items in which scores were low were considered areas of weakness, and high score items as areas of strength in knowledge and attitude.

The questionnaire used for this study was adopted from the PNKAS tool developed by Manworren. comparisons were made with other studies that have used the tool either in part or whole. The original authors NKAS of PNKAS recommended using total scores rather than attempting to break the results into knowledge or attitude. No predetermined acceptable score had been selected by these developers, however, most researchers have identified 80% or higher as acceptable.\(^\text{36,38}\) The range in scores for this survey was 8.7-82.6% with a 49.6% average score. Rieman and Gordon score ranged 37-100% correct with a mean of 74%.\(^\text{40}\) Manworren reported 31-97.6% score with 66% average.\(^\text{36}\)

It may be considered that the nursing staff in the areas surveyed may not be adequately educated about pain or have negative attitudes of pediatric pain management. This is supported by the less than 50% respondents who reported to have received training in various aspects of pain management. There was a low frequency of accessing learning opportunities about pain management while working in the pediatric units. Furthermore,
only 14% of respondents were confident that a personal lack of knowledge was not a barrier to optimum pediatric pain management. (Table 2)

Some areas of knowledge and attitudes scored significantly better than others. Areas of strength identified by this study centered on the concept of caring, as they were concerned with the individual’s pain perception and the nurses’ desire to relieve that pain. Areas of strength (Table 3) were generally consistent with those reported by Manworren and Rieman.

Two of the nine questions that were most frequently answered incorrect were similar to those in other studies (Table 4). Areas of deficits in knowledge and negative attitudes could be categorized into two main areas; pharmacological management of children’s pain and pain assessment.

Five of the nine incorrect answered questions were related to the pharmacological aspect of pain, specifically opioids. McCaffery theorized that similar results in her study reflected the belief of many nurses that pharmacological information and prescription falls in the realm of physician’s practice. In this survey, more than 50% of respondents did not feel lack of knowledge affected their use of narcotics. There were concerns for addiction and respiratory depression, a finding noted in other studies.

80% of the respondents (Table 4) considered respiratory depression to be the commonest side effect of morphine compared with 39.2% and 48% in Manworren’s and Vincent’s studies respectively. It has been reported that this fear of respiratory depression turns into a barrier that affects optimum pain management for children. Non respiratory side effects of opioids, for example, nausea, constipation and pruritus are more common. Furthermore, the respiratory depression caused by morphine or fentanyl is no greater in three to six months of age than in adults with similar plasma concentrations. 68% (Table 4) of nurses indicated that infants cannot tolerate opioids for pain relief. Empirical evidence has shown that providing appropriate analgesics is crucial especially
for infants. Understanding age related changes in pharmacokinetics has allowed use of intravenous morphine in preterm and term infants and infants.

34 respondents (68%) indicated children or adolescents with history of substance should not be given opioids as they are at a risk of repeated addiction. The risk of addiction (compulsive drug seeking behavior) appears low among children receiving opioids for pain. Nurses' overestimation of the incidence of addiction in patients receiving opioids for pain has been found in previous studies.

Another area of weakness identified in this study was pain assessment. 46% and 20% of respondents (Fig 5) had received education in pain assessment prior to and while working in pediatric units respectively. 66% of nurses felt comfortable in basic pain assessment (Fig 6). In this study, more respondents relied on facial expressions and vital signs to assess pain as compared to use of child's own report of pain. 76% believed that observable changes in vital signs must be relied on to verify a child's report of pain. Other studies have shown that nurses tend to rely on the children's behavioral manifestation than child's self report of pain. In Rienman's study however, 95.3% of respondents thought that the child was the most accurate judge of the severity of pain. Vincent reported that 82% of pediatric nurses trusted children's report when there was overt behavioral manifestations of pain, however, only 40% of nurses trusted the self report when these manifestations were absent.

Investigation of assessment of children's pain behavior in the current study indicated that 20% of respondents knew that children are able to sleep in spite of severe pain. This is much lower than the 84% recorded in Vincent's study.

Other than the deficits in knowledge identified by the study, two major barriers to optimum pain management as reported by the nurses were noted (Table 3). Half of the respondents attributed poor pain management to a low patient to nurse ratio resulting in insufficient time to spend with individual patients. A third of the nurses thought that there was inadequate prescribing of pain relief.
Beyond knowledge, clinical experience has been thought to contribute to competent patient care.\textsuperscript{40} According to Benner's model of novice to expert, a competent nurse is one who has been in the same role for at least 2 years.\textsuperscript{40} In this study, 66\% of the respondents had worked in the pediatric unit for 5 years or less. It was not evaluated how many had worked for less than two years.

Rienman found that the 0-2 year group scored significantly less than the other groups. It was recommended from that study that this group may benefit most from skill assessment and supportive measures during this time as a novice. In this study, the 0-5 group did not score significantly less than the other groups. Further, there was no difference in score in the various education levels. However, the small sample size may have contributed to the demonstration of no differences in scores in the various groups.
Limitations of the study

1. In this study, nursing characteristics, knowledge and attitudes regarding pain were examined in a section of pediatric nurses (working in surgical and medical wards). Results of this study cannot be generalized to nurses working with children in other units.

2. These study results reflect knowledge and attitudes in pain assessment and management as measured by this survey, but they do not necessarily translate into actual pain management clinical practices.

3. Only 54.9% of the sample surveyed responded to the survey. This may bias the findings. Nurses with an interest in pain may have been more likely to complete the survey, whereas non-responders may have been those with greater pain knowledge deficiencies.
CONCLUSION

Pain management knowledge deficiencies were identified among pediatric nurses although results also indicate that pediatric nurses are aware that their patients experience pain.

Most nurses rely on knowledge acquired in training prior to working in the pediatric unit. This knowledge may not be sufficient to adequately care for children in pain. Other barriers to optimum pain management in children are lack of enough time to spend with patients and inadequate prescription of pain relief.

Based upon these results, pediatric nurses need more information about pharmacologic management including opioids, risks of addiction and risks of respiratory depression and pain assessment. The inadequacy of time to attend to individual patients is a problem that can be addressed by allocating more nurses to the pediatric nurses.
REFERENCES


34. Carr EC, Mann EM. Pain: creative approaches to effective management. London: Arnold.


38. Mc Caffery M. Your patient is in pain, here’s how you respond. *Pediatric Nursing* 2000; 36-45.


APPENDIX 1

Letter of explanation

Dear Participant,

My name is Dr Wambui Mwangi, a postgraduate student in anaesthesia at the University of Nairobi. I would like to invite you to participate in a Pediatric pain assessment and management survey, by completing the enclosed questionnaire. This research is being completed as a requirement of my Master of Surgery in Anaesthesia.

As you will be aware pain, and fear of pain are major concerns for many hospitalized children and of many nurses. Previous research in pediatric pain has primarily occurred in other parts of the world. No such study has been done at this institution. The purpose of this research is to examine the management of pediatric pain at the Kenyatta National Hospital.

By participating, you will be helping to increase the body of nursing knowledge in relation to pediatric pain assessment and management and improve practice at the institution.

Please ensure you complete all the items of the questionnaire without help, as seeking help will affect the validity and reliability of any analysis of the data gathered. Please don’t indicate your name; your identity will remain confidential.

Remember: this is NOT a test.

Thank you very much for your support.
Please feel free to contact me with any questions you may have regarding the survey.

Contact details:
Dr. Wambui Mwangi
Mobile: 0722-299023
E-mail address: o.wambui@yahoo.com
APPENDIX 2

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I understand the relevance of this study. I have not been coerced or enticed with any benefits and agreed to take part in the study voluntarily.

By completing this questionnaire, I indicate my consent to participate in the study. I understand that confidentiality will be maintained.

Participant’s signature.................................

I...........................have explained the nature of the study to the participant and have not withheld any information. I have assured the participant of their confidentiality and the voluntary nature of the study.

Researcher’s signature.................................
APPENDIX 3

QUESTIONNAIRE

Section One - Place a tick ( v) by the correct answer.

1. Prior to working in a Paediatric setting did you receive or participate in any of the following:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Education in Anatomy / physiology of pain.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Education in Pain assessment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Education in Non-pharmacological interventions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Education in Pharmacological interventions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Certification in Pain management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Since commencing work in a Paediatric setting have you receive or participate in any of the following:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. In-service education in Anatomy / physiology of pain.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. In-service education in Pain assessment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. In-service education in Non-pharmacological interventions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. In-service education in Pharmacological Interventions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Certification in Pain management.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Please indicate the frequency with which you access or experience the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Consistently</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Infrequently</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Taken part in multi-disciplinary discussions related to pain assessment or management.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Attend in-services related to pain.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Read journal articles or pain literature on the Internet, related to paediatric pain.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Received any education on paediatric pain assessment / management.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Discussed pain management with the Team or Nurse Leader.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Deciding whether or not an infant / child has pain.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Deciding what medication to administer to an infant.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
<td>5 □</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. To what degree has a recent experience with pain: self, family influenced your nursing decisions about pain management:--

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence</th>
<th>No Influence</th>
<th>Small Influence</th>
<th>Moderate Influence</th>
<th>Great Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Personal experience with pain – self.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Personal experience with pain – family.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. To what degree do the following inhibit you from administering narcotic analgesia:--

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence</th>
<th>No Influence</th>
<th>Small Influence</th>
<th>Moderate Influence</th>
<th>Great Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Too busy with other patients or duties.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Reluctance of medical staff to order narcotic.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Fear of opioid addiction.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Lack of knowledge of drugs.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Lack of assessment skills.</td>
<td>1 □</td>
<td>2 □</td>
<td>3 □</td>
<td>4 □</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Which of the following patient responses influences your decisions to provide interventions for pain relief:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No Influence</th>
<th>Small Influence</th>
<th>Moderate Influence</th>
<th>Great Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Facial expression.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Sleeping.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Vital Signs.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Increased motor movements.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Decreased motor movements.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Family report of infant / child discomfort.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Child's report of pain using a pain measurement tool.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Please indicate your comfort level on the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Very Comfortable</th>
<th>Comfortable</th>
<th>Not Comfortable</th>
<th>Very Uncomfortable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Basic pain assessment.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Assessment of pain in pre-verbal infants / children.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Opioid titration.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Recognizing respiratory depression.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Managing opioid side effects.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Programming and managing a PCA pump.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Nursing care of an infant with a morphine infusion.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Using non-pharmacological pain management measures.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Physiology of pain.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Please indicate the frequency with which you consider the following to be barriers or problems related to nursing staff being able to provide optimum pain relief:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Consistently</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Infrequently</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Insufficient knowledge about the patient or family.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Insufficient knowledge of the doctor.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Insufficient knowledge of other nursing staff.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Insufficient co-operation by the doctor in relation to your suggestions.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Inadequate prescribing of pain relief.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Patient to nurse ratio (i.e. insufficient time to spend with individual patients).</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. A personal lack of knowledge.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Infant / child’s / adolescent’s cooperation taking medication.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Doctor’s knowledge and perception of pain.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section Two - True and False
True/False – Circle the one which you consider is the correct statement.

9. Observable changes in vital signs must be relied upon to verify a child’s / adolescent’s statement that he/she has severe pain.  
   T   F

10. Because of an underdeveloped neurological system, children under 2 years of age have decreased pain sensitivity and limited memory of painful experiences.  
    T   F

11. If the infant/child/adolescent can be distracted from his pain this usually means that he/she is not experiencing a high level of pain.  
    T   F

12. Infants/children/adolescents may sleep in spite of severe pain.  
    T   F

13. Comparable stimuli in different people produce the same intensity of pain.  
    T   F

14. Non-drug interventions (e.g. heat, music, imagery, etc.) are very effective for mild-moderate pain control but are rarely helpful for more severe pain.  
    T   F

15. Children who will require repeated painful procedures (i.e. daily blood draws) should receive maximum treatment for the pain and anxiety of the first procedure to minimize the development of anticipatory anxiety before subsequent procedures.  
    T   F

16. Paracetamol 650mg PO is approximately equal in analgesic effect to codeine 32mg PO.  
    T   F

17. The World Health Organization (WHO) pain ladder suggests using single analgesic agents rather than combining classes of drugs (e.g. combining an opioid with a non-steroidal agent).  
    T   F

18. The usual duration of analgesia of Morphine IV is 4 – 5 hours.  
    T   F

19. Research shows that promethazine (Phenergan) is a reliable potentiator of opioid analgesia.  
    T   F

20. Parents should not be present during painful procedures.  
    T   F

21. Adolescents with a history of substance abuse should not be given opioids for pain because they are at high risk for repeated addiction.  
    T   F
22. Beyond a certain dosage of morphine increases in dosage will NOT provide increased pain relief. T F

23. Young infants, less than 6 months of age, cannot tolerate opioids for pain relief. T F

24. The child / adolescent with pain should be encouraged to endure as much pain as possible before resorting to a pain relief measure. T F

25. Children less than 8 years cannot reliably report pain intensity and therefore, the nurse should rely on the parents' assessment of the child's pain intensity. T F

26. Based on one's religious beliefs a child / adolescent may think that pain and suffering is necessary. T F

27. Anxiolytics, sedatives, and barbiturates are appropriate medications for the relief of pain during painful procedures. T F

28. After the initial recommended dose of opioid analgesic, subsequent doses should be adjusted in accordance with the individual patient's response. T F

29. The child / adolescent should be advised to use non-drug techniques alone rather than concurrently with pain medications. T F

30. The most common side effect of morphine is respiratory distress. T F

31. Giving Panadol or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents, along with other narcotics is a logical method of increasing pain relief. T F
Section Three – Demographic Information

32. Age of participant (in years).

☐ 20 – 24  ☐ 25 – 29  ☐ 30 – 34  ☐ 35 – 39

☐ 40 – 44  ☐ 45 – 49  ☐ 50 – 54  ☐ 55 and over

33. How many years have you worked in the pediatric unit?

☐ 0 – 5 years  ☐ 6 – 10 years  ☐ 11 – 15 years

☐ 16 – 20 years  ☐ 21 years and over

34. Total years nursing.

☐ 0 – 5 years  ☐ 6 – 10 years  ☐ 11 – 15 years

☐ 16 – 20 years  ☐ 21 years and over

35. Highest level of nursing education. (tick one)

☐ Hospital certificate / registration  ☐ Diploma

☐ Degree  ☐ Post Graduate Certificate/Diploma

☐ Masters  ☐ PhD
## APPENDIX 4

### BUDGET

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**GRAND TOTAL** 78500
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Dear Dr. Mwangi

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: “A SURVEY OF KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDE AND PRACTICE OF PEDIATRIC PAIN MANAGEMENT AMONG PEDIATRIC NURSES AT THE KENYATTA N. HOSPITAL” (P20/01/2009)

This is to inform you that the Kenyatta National Hospital Ethics and Research Committee has reviewed and approved your above revised research proposal for the period 19th March 2009 – 18th March 2010.

You will be required to request for a renewal of the approval if you intend to continue with the study beyond the deadline given. Clearance for export of biological specimen must also be obtained from KNH-ERC for each batch.

On behalf of the Committee, I wish you fruitful research and look forward to receiving a summary of the research findings upon completion of the study.

This information will form part of database that will be consulted in future when processing related research study so as to minimize chances of study duplication.

Yours sincerely

PROF. A N GUANTAI
AG. SECRETARY, KNH/UON-ERC

cc. The Chairperson, KNH/UON-ERC
The Deputy Director CS, KNH
The Dean, School of Medicine, UON
The Chairman, Dept. of Surgery, UON
Supervisor: Dr. Munithi J.M. Dept. of Surgery, UON