

Racial, Ethnic, and Gender Differences in Acute Pain Management in the Emergency Department

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Learning Objectives

At the conclusion of this session, participants should be able to:

- Define implicit bias and identify how it affects acute pain treatment in the emergency department
- 2. Articulate how racial/ethnic minorities and women experience different acute pain treatment in the emergency department



Introduction

- 1.7 million visits to emergency departments
- 42% of visits were for acute pain

- Most common chief complaints
 - Abdominal pain (8.8%)
 - Chest pain (4.7%)

Background

Clinicians may be unaware of biases

- Emergency medicine clinicians may be more susceptible
 - Fast-paced, chaotic environment with multiple interruptions
 - Patients unknown to the clinicians
 - High patient load with varying complaints possibly life-threatening
- Clinicians rely on cognitive heuristics ("gut-instinct")

The research aimed to review the acute pain treatment of racial/ethnic minorities and women to determine if treatment differences exists

Level 1 Trauma Center in northern Virginia

Research Methods

- Retrospective chart review of adult emergency department visits
- Chief complaint of abdominal pain
- Exclusion criteria
 - Patients < 18 years old</p>
 - CODE STEMI (ST-elevated myocardial infarction), CODE stroke, trauma team activations
 - Pregnant patients, patients treated for chronic pain, patients with psychiatric/substance abuse diagnoses
 - Pain score of zero
 - Missing data for pain score, gender, and both race/ethnicity

Research Methods (continued)

- Race White, Black, Asian, or Other
- Ethnicity Hispanic/Latino or Non-Hispanic/Latino
- Gender male or female
- Pain score 1 to 10
- Pain medications nonopioid and opioid
- Exempt human research study by the Inova Health System Institutional Review Board (IRB) #U20-04-4010 and the A.T. Still University-Arizona IRB #2020-123.





Descriptive Data								
	Total	Racial/Ethnic Groups				Gender		
		White	Black	Hispanic/ Latino	Asian	Other	Men	Women
Arrival Method								
Personal Vehicle	88.3%	29.2%	10.7%	32.0%	8.7%	7.7%	33.3%	55.0%
Ambulance	11.5%	6.3%	1.6%	1.4%	1.4%	0.8%	4.6%	6.9%
Acuity Level								
2	12%	5.6%	1.4%	2.7%	1.5%	0.8%	5.5%	6.5%
3	87.4%	29.8%	10.9%	30.7%	8.4%	7.6%	32.2%	55.2%
Discharge Home	68.3%	21.6%	9.0%	24.9%	6.4%	6.4%	24.0%	44.3%
Hospital Admission*	31.1%	13.7%	3.3%	8.5%	3.6%	2.0%	13.8%	17.3%
*Includes patients admitted to the operating room, admitted for observation/inpatient admission, and transferred to another facility								

Top Ten Diagnoses

		Gender		Pain T	reatment
Diagnosis	Total	Women	Men	Received Pain	Received Opioid
(% of total patients)	IOLAI			Medication ^h	Medication
Abdominal Pain ^a (34.8%)	6051	3990 ^g	2061	3356	2182
Colitis ^b (6.9%)	1201	659 ^g	542	737	536 ⁱ
NVD (4.8%)	839	535	304	353	191 ⁱ
Appendicitis (4.6%)	805	349 ^g	456	547	445 ⁱ
Kidney Stones (3.9%)	678	271 ^g	407	590	294 ⁱ
Cholelithiasis (3.5%)	613	435 ^g	178	436	349 ⁱ
UTI ^e (3.2%)	559	460	99	292	127 ⁱ
Bowel Obstruction ^f (3.2%)	562	293	269	434	413 ⁱ
Ovarian Cyst (2.7%)	475	474 ^g	1	353	162 ⁱ
Cholecystitis (2.3%)	398	263	135	306	256 ⁱ

 a – includes intestinal colic, inguinal pain, groin pain, abdominal discomfort/distention/bloating/cramping

b – includes ulcerative colitis, Crohn disease, diverticulitis, enteritis

c – nausea, vomiting, and/or diarrhea

d – includes biliary colic, choledocholithiasis, biliary obstruction, common bile duct dilatation

f – includes partial bowel obstruction

Chi-square test of independence results:

g – Significant difference between genders (p < 0.001)

h – Significant difference between received and did not receive pain medication (p < 0.001)

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i – Significant difference between nonopioid and opioid treatment (p < 0.001)

Abbreviation: NVD – nausea, vomiting, diarrhea; UTI - urinary tract infection

e – includes dysuria

Racial Group P	ain Treatment
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	Means with 95% Confidence Interval					
	Arrival to Medication (minutes)	Number of Medications Given	Length of Stay (minutes)			
White	92.69 (90.03-95.35)	1.01 (0.98-1.03)*	335.29 (331.15-339.43)			
Black	97.27 (92.74-101.80)	0.93 (0.88-0.97)*	320.20 (313.33-327.07)*			
Hispanic/Latino	100.22 (97.55-102.88)**	0.90 (0.88-0.93)*	313.17 (309.42-316.92)*			
Asian	99.08 (93.43-104.74)	0.84(0.79-0.88)*	334.59 (326.47-342.70)			
Other	92.50 (87.19-97.81)	0.88 (0.83-0.93)*	305.42 (297.93-312.91)*			

*Significant difference between White versus minority racial groups (p<0.05)

** Significant difference between Hispanic/Latino versus White patients (p<0.05)



Medications Given by Gender							
	Medication Given		Received Opioid		p-value*		
					0.001		
Women	6464	61.9%	4113	61.7%			
Men	3972	56.9%	2623	69.6%			
*Chi-square test of significance p < 0.05							



Treatment Differences

- White patients received more pain medications and received opioids more often
- Hispanic/Latino patients waited 6.35 minutes longer for pain medications
- Women patients waited 9 minutes longer for pain medications
- Women less likely to receive an opioid medication
- Unexpected results
 - Women received more pain medications during the emergency department visit
 - White patients had a longer length of stay than racial/ethnic minority patients
 - Hispanic/Latino patients received more pain prescriptions at discharge

Limitations

- Racial and gender concordance not evaluated
- Pain treatment restricted to nonopioid and opioid pain medications
- No documentation of pain medications taken prior to arrival or given by emergency medical technicians during transport

Why do treatment differences exists?

- Opioid Epidemic
- Communication Barriers
- Pregnancy tests



Racial/Ethnic Biases

- Biases persists because of systemic and structural racism
- Black patients
 - Legacy of discrimination set conditions for racial bias
- Hispanic/Latino patients
 - Equating the population with undocumented immigrants regardless of immigration status

Asian patients

 History of exclusionary immigration laws, forced migration, and internment

Gender Biases

- Female gender norms
 - Emotional
 - Hysterical
 - Complaining
 - Malingering
 - More likely to have psychological causes than somatic causes
- Male gender norms
 - Stoic
 - Tolerating pain
 - Avoid seeking health care



Strategies



Take Home Points

 Unconscious biases may affect acute pain treatment of patients

 Unconscious biases rooted in historical discrimination and persistent systemic biases of minority patients and women

It is imperative to be aware of biases, and work to overcome the automatic associations

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