

# Advanced Monitoring and Procedures for **Small Animal Emergency and Critical Care**

Edited by: **Jamie M. Burkitt Creedon and Harold Davis**



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## Editors

**Jamie M. Burkitt Creedon, DVM, DACVECC**

Chief, Emergency and Critical Care Service  
Red Bank Veterinary Hospital, Cherry Hill  
Cherry Hill, New Jersey

**Harold Davis, BA, RVT, VTS (ECC) (Anesth)**

Manager, Emergency and Critical Care Service  
William R. Pritchard Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
University of California, Davis  
Davis, California

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The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester, West Sussex, PO19 8SQ, UK  
9600 Garsington Road, Oxford, OX4 2DQ, UK

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*To Dr. Janet Aldrich, who taught me that thinking and knowing are different, and that the former is far more important.*

*To Dr. Steve Haskins, who showed me that listening is the teacher's most important skill.*

*To my parents, Robbie and Mike, who taught me that caring is always worth it.*

*And to my husband Mike, who gives selflessly over and over and over again.*

*I love and thank you all.*

*–Jamie M. Burkitt Creedon*

*First and foremost this book is dedicated to my parents, Dr. Harold Davis, Sr., and Barbara Davis, and my sister, Deborah Davis-Gillespie, for their love, support and guidance. To Thomas J. Bulgin, DVM, for giving me my start as a veterinary assistant and Gary L. Reinhardt, DVM, and Steve C. Haskins, DVM, DACVECC, for their mentorship. To each current and past member that I have served with on the board of directors for the Veterinary Emergency and Critical Care Society. To the veterinary technicians and nurses that I have talked to around the world and former veterinary students of U.C. Davis: I have enjoyed sharing my knowledge and experiences with you. Finally, to the co-founding and charter members of the Academy of Veterinary Emergency, and Critical Care Technicians: it was an honor, pleasure, and a joy to work with you in developing the first veterinary technician speciality academy.*

*–Harold Davis*





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# Contributors

**Amanda Adams, LVT, VTS (ECC)**  
Critical Care/Dialysis Technician  
VCA Veterinary Specialty Center of Seattle  
Seattle, Washington

**Janet Aldrich, DVM, DACVECC**  
Formerly Clinical Veterinarian  
Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Lori Baden Atkins, AAS, LVT, VTS (ECC)**  
Small Animal ICU/ER Coordinator  
Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
Texas A&M University  
College Station, Texas

**Devon A. Ayres, RVT, BS**  
Intensive Care Unit Technician  
Veterinary Specialty Hospital  
San Diego, California

**Linda S. Barter, MVSc, BSc (Vet), PhD, DACVA**  
Assistant Professor of Veterinary Anesthesiology  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Linda Barton, DVM, DACVECC**  
Staff Veterinarian  
Department of Critical Care  
VCA Veterinary Specialty Center  
Lynnwood, Washington

**Elana Moss Benasutti, CVT**  
Critical Care Nurse  
Intensive Care Unit  
Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Amanda K. Boag, MA, VetMB, DACVIM, DACVECC, FHEA, MRCVS**  
Clinical Director  
Vets Now  
Scotland, United Kingdom

**Jennifer Boyle, RVT, VTS (ECC)**  
CE Relationships Manager  
Veterinary Information Network  
Davis, CA

**Benjamin M. Brainard, VMD, DACVA, DACVECC**  
Associate Professor, Critical Care  
Department of Small Animal Medicine and Surgery  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Georgia  
Athens, Georgia

**Yekaterina Buriko, DVM, DACVECC**  
Staff Doctor  
Animal Medical Center  
New York, New York

**Jamie M. Burkitt Creedon, DVM, DACVECC**  
Chief, Emergency and Critical Care Service  
Red Bank Veterinary Hospital, Cherry Hill  
Cherry Hill, New Jersey

**Christopher G. Byers, DVM, DACVECC, DACVIM**  
Faculty Internist / Criticalist  
MidWest Veterinary Specialty Hospital  
Omaha, Nebraska

**Mary Tefend Campbell, CVT, VTS (ECC)**  
Nursing Manager  
Carriage Hills Referral Hospital  
Montgomery, Alabama

**Scott Campbell, BVSc (Hons), MACVSc, DACVN**  
Senior Lecturer in Clinical Nutrition  
Clinical Nutrition Support Service  
School of Veterinary Science  
University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

**Vicki L. Campbell, DVM, DACVA, DACVECC**  
Assistant Professor  
Clinical Care Unit  
Department of Clinical Sciences  
Colorado State University  
Fort Collins, Colorado

**Daniel L. Chan, DVM, DACVECC, DACVN, FHEA, MRCVS**

Senior Lecturer in Emergency and Critical Care  
Clinical Nutritionist  
Department of Veterinary Clinical Sciences  
The Royal Veterinary College  
University of London  
Hertfordshire, United Kingdom

**Rosalind S. Chow, VMD, DACVECC**

Criticalist  
Veterinary Medical and Surgical Group  
Ventura, California

**Monica C. Clare, VMD, DACVECC**

Director of the ICU  
Intensive Care Unit  
Veterinary Specialty Hospital  
San Diego, California

**Edward Cooper, VMD, MS, DACVECC**

Assistant Professor, Small Animal Emergency  
and Critical Care  
Department of Veterinary Clinical Sciences  
Ohio State University  
Columbus, Ohio

**Stacey Cooper, RVT, VTS (ECC)**

Veterinary Medical Center  
Ohio State University  
Columbus, Ohio

**Craig Cornell, BA, RVT, VTS (ECC) (Anesthesia)**

Department of Small Animal Anesthesia  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Meredith L. Daly, VMD, DACVECC**

Bluepearl Veterinary Partners  
New York, New York

**Harold Davis, BA, RVT, VTS (ECC) (Anesthesia)**

Manager, Emergency and Critical Care Service  
William R. Pritchard Veterinary Medical Teaching  
Hospital  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Julie Denton-Schmiedt, CVT, BA**

Large and Small Animal Anesthesia Veterinary  
Technician  
Hull, Georgia

**Jennifer Devey, DVM, DACVECC**

Department Head, Emergency and Critical  
Care Service  
Director of Education  
Lauderdale Veterinary Specialists  
Fort Lauderdale, Florida

**Pamela Dilley, RVT, CCRA**

Veterinary Medical and Surgical Group  
Ventura, California

**Katherine Dobbs, RVT, CVPM, PHR**

interFace Veterinary HR Systems, LLC  
Appleton, Wisconsin

**Jeni Dohner, CVT, VTS (ECC)**

Emergency Service  
Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Julie A. Eveland-Baker RVT, VTS (ECC)**

Shift Supervisor, Small Animal Intensive Care Unit  
Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Mary M. Flanders, RVT, VTS (ECC)**

Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
University of Missouri  
Columbia, Missouri

**Daniel J. Fletcher, PhD, DVM, DACVECC**

Assistant Professor of Emergency and Critical Care  
Department of Clinical Sciences  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
Cornell University  
Ithaca, New York

**Adrian Ford, BS, LVT, VTS (ECC)**

Chief Operations Officer, Hospital Administrator  
Emergency Pet Center Hospitals  
Emergency Pet Clinic INC  
San Antonio, Texas

**Sharon Fornes, RVT, VTS (Anesthesia)**

Program Director  
Veterinary Technology  
Carrington College California  
San Leandro, California

**Robert Goggs, BVSc, DACVECC, MRCVS**  
Wellcome Trust Research Training Fellow  
School of Physiology and Pharmacology  
University of Bristol  
Bristol, United Kingdom

**Sarah Gray, DVM, DACVECC**  
Criticalist  
Veterinary Medical and Surgical Group  
Ventura, California

**Rebecca J. Greer, DVM, MS, DACVECC**  
Staff Criticalist  
Veterinary Specialty Services  
Manchester, Missouri

**Sarah L. Haldane, BVSc, BAnSc, MACVSc, DACVECC**  
Senior Lecturer  
Department of Emergency and Critical Care  
University of Melbourne  
Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

**Natalie Harvey, BApSc (VT)**  
Nutrition Technician  
Clinical Nutrition Support Service  
School of Veterinary Science  
University of Queensland  
Brisbane, Australia

**Steve C. Haskins, DVM, MS, DACVA, DACVECC**  
Professor Emeritus  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Cindy Hauser, MBA, CVT, VTS (ECC)**  
Wheat Ridge Animal Hospital  
Wheat Ridge, Colorado

**Marie K. Holowaychuk, DVM, DACVECC**  
Assistant Professor, Emergency and Critical Care  
Medicine  
Department of Clinical Studies  
Ontario Veterinary College  
University of Guelph  
Guelph, Ontario, Canada

**Kate Hopper, BVSc, PhD, DACVECC**  
Assistant Professor, Small Animal Emergency and  
Critical Care  
Department of Veterinary Surgical and Radiological  
Sciences  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Katherine Jayne Howie, VN, VTS (ECC)**  
Senior Veterinary Nurse  
Vets Now Farnham  
Farnham, United Kingdom

**Karl E. Jandrey, DVM, MAS, DACVECC**  
Assistant Professor of Clinical Small Animal  
Emergency and Critical Care  
Department of Surgical and Radiological Sciences  
William R. Pritchard Veterinary Medical Teaching  
Hospital  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Michael S. Kent, DVM, DACVIM (Oncology),  
DACVR (Radiation Oncology), MAS**  
Assistant Professor  
Department of Surgical and Radiological Sciences  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Lesley G. King, MVB, DACVECC, DACVIM**  
Department of Clinical Studies  
Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Casey J. Kohen, BA**  
Research Assistant, Mellema Lab  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Timothy Koors, DVM**  
Resident  
Veterinary Specialty Services  
Manchester, Missouri

**Mary Anna Labato, DVM, ACVIM**  
Clinical Professor  
Section Head, Small Animal Medicine  
Cummings School of Veterinary Medicine  
Tufts University  
North Grafton, Massachusetts

**Michael S. Lagutchik, DVM, MS, DACVECC**  
Medical Director  
Emergency Pet Center Hospitals  
San Antonio, Texas

**Cathy Langston, DVM, DACVIM**

Staff Veterinarian, Head of Nephrology, Urology,  
and Hemodialysis Unit  
Department of Renal Medicine and Hemodialysis  
Animal Medical Center  
New York, New York

**Carine Laporte, VMD**

School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Jennifer Larsen, DVM, PhD, DACVN**

Assistant Professor of Clinical Nutrition  
Department of Molecular Biosciences  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Stephanie Leone, BS, RVT**

Emergency Service Manager  
Pet Emergency & Specialty Center  
La Mesa, California

**Rosemary Lombardi, CVT, VTS (ECC)**

Director of Nursing  
Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Bridget Lyons, BA, CVT**

ICU Nurse, VHD Candidate  
Intensive Care Unit  
University of Pennsylvania School of  
Veterinary Medicine  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Elisa M. Mazzaferro, MS, DVM, PhD, DACVECC**

Director of Emergency Services  
Wheat Ridge Animal Hospital  
Wheat Ridge, Colorado

**Douglass K. Macintire, DVM, MS, DACVECC**

Professor of Acute Medicine and Critical Care  
Department of Clinical Sciences  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
Auburn University  
Auburn, Alabama

**F. A. (Tony) Mann, DVM, MS, DACVS, DACVECC**

Director of Small Animal Emergency  
and Critical Care Services  
Small Animal Soft Tissue Surgery Service Chief  
Veterinary Medical Teaching Hospital  
University of Missouri  
Columbia, Missouri

**Margo Mehl, DVM, DACVS**

San Francisco Veterinary Specialists  
San Francisco, California

**Megan Patterson Melcher, RVT**

ICU Technician  
VCA Veterinary Referral Associates  
Gaithersburg, Maryland

**Matthew S. Mellema, DVM, PhD, DACVECC**

Assistant Professor, Small Animal Emergency  
and Critical Care  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of California  
Davis, California

**Martin D. Miller**

Operations Manager  
AVETS  
Monroeville, Pennsylvania

**Elizabeth Olmstead, CVT, BS**

Blood Donor Supervisor, ICU Technician  
Department of Small Animal Medicine  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Minnesota  
St. Paul, Minnesota

**Joao Orvalho, DVM, DACVIM (Cardiology)**

Veterinary Medical Center  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of California  
San Diego, California

**Carl A. Osborne, DVM, PhD, DACVIM**

Professor of Veterinary Internal Medicine  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Minnesota  
St. Paul, Minnesota

**Sara M. Ostenkamp**

Veterinary Technician  
ICU Department  
North Carolina State University  
Raleigh, North Carolina

**Romain Pariaut, DVM, DACVIM (Cardiology),  
ECVIM CA (Cardiology)**

Assistant Professor of Cardiology  
Department of Veterinary Clinical Sciences  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
Louisiana State University  
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

**Sally C. Perea, DVM, MS, DACVN**

Senior Nutritionist  
Department of Research and Development  
P&G Pet Care  
Mason, Ohio

**Karen Poeppe, BS, LVT**

Head Technician, Hemodialysis Unit  
Department of Internal Medicine  
Animal Medical Center  
New York, New York

**David J. Polzin, DVM, PhD, DACVIM**

Professor of Veterinary Internal Medicine  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Minnesota  
St. Paul, Minnesota

**Lisa L. Powell, DVM, DACVECC**

Clinical Professor, Emergency and Critical Care  
Small Animal ICU Director  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Minnesota  
St. Paul, Minnesota

**Paul Primas, RVT**

Supervisor, Radiation and Medical Oncology  
William R. Pritchard Veterinary Medical Teaching  
Hospital  
University of California, Davis  
Davis, California

**Jennifer E. Prittie, DVM, DACVIM, DACVECC**

Criticalist  
Department of Emergency and Critical Care  
Animal Medical Center  
New York, New York

**Jane Quandt, DVM, MS, DACVA, DACVECC**

Associate Professor in Anesthesia  
Department of Small Animal Medicine  
College of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Georgia  
Athens, Georgia

**Marc R. Raffe, DVM, MS, DACVA, ACVECC**

Associate Director  
Pfizer Animal Health

**Louisa J. Rahilly, DVM, DACVECC**

Medical Director of Emergency and Critical Care  
Cape Cod Veterinary Specialists  
Buzzards Bay, Massachusetts

**Erica L. Reineke, VMD, DACVECC**

Assistant Professor, Emergency and Critical Care  
Medicine  
Department of Clinical Studies  
Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
School of Veterinary Medicine  
University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Angel Rivera, AHT, VTS (ECC)**

Animal Emergency Center and Specialty Services  
Glendale, Wisconsin

**Joris H. Robben, PhD, DECVIM CA**

Assistant Professor  
Head of the ICU  
Department of Clinical Sciences of Companion  
Animals  
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine  
Utrecht University  
Utrecht, The Netherlands

**Amy Rodriguez, CVT, VTS (Anesthesia)**

Anesthesia Nurse  
Department of Anesthesia  
Colorado State University  
Fort Collins, Colorado

**Elizabeth Rozanski, DVM, DACVECC, DACVIM**

Associate Professor  
Section of Critical Care  
Cummings School of Veterinary Medicine  
Tufts University  
North Grafton, Massachusetts

**Elke Rudloff, DVM, DACVECC**

Director of Education  
Animal Emergency Center and Specialty Services  
Glendale, Wisconsin



**Emily Savino, BA, AAS, CVT, VTS (ECC)**

ICU Nursing Supervisor  
 Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
 School of Veterinary Medicine  
 University of Pennsylvania  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Jessica Schavone, BS, CVT**

Blood Bank Technician Supervisor and Emergency and  
 Critical Care Technician  
 Section of Critical Care  
 Department of Clinical Sciences  
 Cummings School of Veterinary Medicine  
 Tufts University  
 North Grafton, Massachusetts

**Connie M. Schmidt, CVT**

Training/Education Coordinator, Senior Technician  
 Fox Valley Animal Referral  
 Appleton, Wisconsin

**Lila K. Sierra, CVT, VTS (ECC)**

Assistant Nursing Supervisor/Intensive Care Unit  
 Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
 School of Veterinary Medicine  
 University of Pennsylvania  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Deborah Silverstein, DVM, DACVECC**

Assistant Professor of Critical Care  
 Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
 School of Veterinary Medicine  
 University of Pennsylvania  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Carolyn A. Sink, MS, MT(ASCP)**

Supervisor, Diagnostic and Support Services  
 Veterinary Teaching Hospital  
 Virginia Maryland Regional College of Veterinary  
 Medicine  
 Blacksburg, Virginia

**Sean D. Smarick, VMD, DACVECC**

Hospital Director  
 Emergency and Critical Care Specialist  
 AVETS  
 Monroeville, Pennsylvania

**Lisa Smart, BVSc (Hons), DACVECC**

Senior Lecturer in Veterinary Emergency and Critical  
 Care  
 Department of Veterinary Clinical Sciences  
 School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences  
 Murdoch University  
 Murdoch, WA, Australia

**Michelle Storay, CVN DipECC**

Animal Emergency Centre Nursing Director  
 Mount Waverley, Australia

**Rebecca S. Syring, DVM, DACVECC**

Staff Criticalist  
 Veterinary Specialty and Emergency Center  
 Levittown, Pennsylvania

**Chiara Valtolina, DVM, DACVECC**

Department of Clinical Sciences of Companion  
 Animals  
 Faculty of Veterinary Medicine  
 Utrecht University  
 Utrecht, The Netherlands

**Lori S. Waddell, DVM, DACVECC**

Adjunct Assistant Professor, Critical Care  
 Department of Clinical Studies  
 School of Veterinary Medicine  
 University of Pennsylvania  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Nicole M. Weinstein, DVM, DACVP**

Assistant Professor, Clinical Pathology  
 Department of Biomedical Sciences and Pathobiology  
 Virginia Maryland Regional College of Veterinary  
 Medicine  
 Blacksburg, Virginia

**Diane M. Welsh, CVT**

Cummings School of Veterinary Medicine  
 Tufts University  
 North Grafton, Massachusetts

**Janelle R. Wierenga, DVM, DACVECC**

Seattle, Washington

**Jill A. Williamson, DVM, DACVECC**

Animal Internal Medicine and Specialty Services  
 San Francisco, California

**Monika L. Wright, CVT**

Intensive Care Unit Staff  
 Matthew J. Ryan Veterinary Hospital  
 School of Veterinary Medicine  
 University of Pennsylvania  
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

**Brian C. Young, VMD, DACVIM, DACVECC**

Staff Criticalist  
 Department of Emergency and Critical Care  
 Animal Specialty Group  
 Los Angeles, California

# Preface

The disciplines of small animal emergency medicine and critical care have grown significantly in the past decade. There are many references available that describe the diagnosis and medical treatment of problems encountered in small animal emergency and critical care practice. However, none is dedicated specifically to the daily hands-on practice of the specialties: for instance, the placement and maintenance of arterial catheters and the interpretation of direct pressure waveforms they provide, or the nursing care required to maintain a patient on long-term mechanical ventilation (what do all those buttons on the ventilator do, anyway?). We believe the veterinary community would benefit from a single reference written by informed, experienced people to improve and expand the standard of care, and we hope this textbook serves that purpose. The experienced veterinarian and veterinary technician contributors to *Advanced Procedures and Monitoring for Small Animal Emergency and Critical Care* have provided herein a well-referenced textbook that we believe contains useful information on the “non-medicine” aspects of ECC practice, from practice design to technical procedures and nursing care to interpretation of monitoring results.

There is no small animal specialty in which cooperation between all healthcare team members is more important than in emergency and critical care. Thus, some chapters are authored by a veterinarian, others by a veterinary technician, and some by pairs. The interdependence of all members of the ECC healthcare team requires that veterinary technicians understand why clinicians ask them to do what they do, and that veterinarians understand proper ECC nursing care and technical procedures. The book’s contributors come from around the world, from both university and private practice. We aimed to provide the best-referenced, highest-quality textbook that we could. Contributors congenially

answered our frequent “Do you have a reference for this?” inquiries and high-quality image requests, so that the reader could have confidence in the recommendations contained herein and see illustrations of how to perform procedures or interpret results. When high-quality references or guidelines were unavailable, these qualified authors made recommendations based on their experience; in such cases, such personal recommendation is noted in the text for transparency.

The textbook is organized roughly by organ system or general topic, but there is considerable overlap in some areas. For instance, some authors of device insertion chapters included a maintenance section, and maintenance of that device may also be covered in another chapter specifically on insertion site maintenance or artificial airway maintenance, and so on. **Standardized protocols** are included for procedures for which they were deemed useful and appropriate. These protocols are based on best-available evidence and guidelines, and where such citations were unavailable or inappropriate, they are based on author experience. We hope these protocols will help raise and equalize the standard of care across our profession, and serve as the backbone for a protocol book to use in your emergency or critical care practice.

We welcome corrections and ideas for future versions of this textbook. Should further editions follow, we are committed to their currency and relevancy, and thus will continue to push for best-practice, evidence- and guideline-based recommendations. Lastly, we would like to thank each contributor; we believe they did an amazing job stepping up to the challenges that this unique textbook posed.

Jamie M. Burkitt Creedon  
Harold Davis

# **Advanced Monitoring and Procedures for Small Animal Emergency and Critical Care**



# SECTION I

## Introduction



# 1

## Triage

Harold Davis

The concept of triage finds its origin in the French military. The word comes from the French verb *trier*, meaning to sort. In human medicine the goals of triage have varied over the years depending upon the situation. After World War II triage came to mean the process of identifying those soldiers most likely to return to battle after medical care. Following the Korean and Vietnam conflicts the goals of triage came to mean the greatest good for the greatest number of wounded.<sup>1</sup> In times of disaster, the goals of triage are similar to the military. Daily human emergency room triage began in the 1960s and has evolved into a method to separate efficiently those patients stable enough to wait for treatment from those who require immediate medical attention. In veterinary medicine we have adopted the goals of our counterparts in the human emergency room. Thus, we prioritize cases by medical urgency when presented with multiple emergencies at the same time.

Triage occurs both by telephone and in the hospital. A client often calls the hospital seeking advice for the care of his or her pet; the receptionist or veterinary technician must ascertain useful information about the pet in a short period of time. In addition the receptionist or technician should have the knowledge required to provide the appropriate advice. The information obtained during the telephone conversation will also be useful in preparing for patient arrival. On initial presentation to the hospital the veterinary technician is usually first to receive the patient and therefore to perform basic triage. This person must determine whether the patient needs immediate care and, in the case of simultaneous patient arrivals, prioritize treatment based on medical need.

### Telephone triage

In theory, telephone triage requires clinic staff to determine the urgency of a pet's problem and to provide advice based on that determination. However, because the client may not possess the training to give an accurate account of the pet's problem(s), it is generally safest to recommend the client take the pet to a veterinarian for evaluation. Particularly, any patient experiencing breathing difficulty, seizures, inability or unwillingness to rise, or traumatic injury should be seen by a veterinarian without question.

At the beginning of the telephone conversation staff should establish the animal's signalment (breed, sex, age, and weight) if possible. Questions asked of the owner should be basic and straightforward. They should address the patient's level of consciousness, whether or not the patient is breathing, experiencing seizures, or has obviously broken or exposed bones (see Table 1.1). Based on the owner's responses, advice can be given on first aid, assuming that the problem can be clearly defined and is simple. See Table 1.2 for a list of problems requiring attention by the veterinary health care team without delay.

Information gathered during the phone conversation can aid the veterinary technician in preparation for the arrival of the patient at the hospital. Simply knowing the animal's breed or approximate weight can enable the technician to pre-select appropriate sizes for vascular catheters, fluid bags, and endotracheal tubes.

Owners should be instructed on safe transport for the animal. Animals that have suffered trauma are often in pain, and owners should be instructed on how to

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**Figure 1.1** (a) Placing a dog in a box for transport. (b) Using a blanket as a stretcher. The animal is placed on a blanket and the edges of the blanket used to lift the patient.

**Table 1.1** Questions useful in telephone triage, and suggested responses

1. Is the animal breathing and conscious?
  - a. If neither, institute mouth-to-snout; if yes to either of these, do not.
2. Is the animal actively experiencing a seizure?
  - a. If yes, remove from danger of falling or any sharp objects. Take to veterinarian immediately after seizure ends, or if it lasts longer than 1–2 minutes, bring during seizure. Watch out for the mouth; don't get bit.
3. For people who live a distance from medical assistance or cannot/will not come in: Has the animal ingested something that you know or suspect is poisonous in the last 2 hours?
  - a. In some situations, at-home emesis may be recommended.
4. Is there active bleeding, an obvious fracture, or exposed bone?
  - a. Recommend clean towel over the site, pressure if spurting blood. Warn clients to be VERY CAREFUL not to get bitten.

approach the pet and place a makeshift muzzle using a neck tie, belt, or strips of cloth. If the animal is nonambulatory, owners may be told to place the animal in a box or carrier, or to use a blanket or towel as a stretcher (see Fig. 1.1). The use of a blanket stretcher makes it easier to get an animal in and out of a car.

When the caller is not a regular client of the facility, the staff member should obtain the client's phone number in case of disconnection and make the caller aware of the address, location, or easiest directions to the clinic. The client should be informed of the clinic's payment policy.

**Table 1.2** Problems requiring immediate attention by the veterinary health care team

Respiratory distress	Bleeding from body orifices
Pale mucous membranes	Weakness
Neurological abnormalities	Rapid abdominal distension
Protracted vomiting	Inability to urinate
Severe coughing	Ingestion of toxins

### Hospital triage

Three major body systems are assessed during the initial triage: respiratory, cardiovascular, and neurological. Triage begins when approaching the patient. Visually assess breathing effort and pattern; presence of blood or other foreign material on or around the patient; and the patient's posture and level of consciousness (LOC). Note if there are airway sounds audible without a stethoscope. Note whether or not the animal responds as you approach. If the animal is conscious, ask the owner about the patient's temperament and take the appropriate precautions regarding physical restraint or muzzling. The veterinary technician cannot rely on the client's statement that an animal "never bites," but if he or she is told that the patient is aggressive, the patient should definitely be muzzled. Physical restraint and muzzling should be performed with extreme caution in patients with respiratory distress, as such steps can cause acute decompensation and respiratory arrest. If time permits, a brief history should be obtained.

### The ABCDEs

A reasonable and systematic approach to triage is the use of the ABCDEs of emergency care, which are: (A) airway,



(B) breathing, (C) circulation, (D) dysfunction of the central nervous system, and (E) examination (see Fig. 1.2). Patients with respiratory distress or arrest, signs of hypovolemic shock or cardiac arrest, altered LOC, or ongoing seizure activity should be immediately taken to the treatment area for rapid medical attention. Conditions that affect other body systems are generally not life-threatening in and of themselves, but their effects on the three major body systems may be life-threatening. For example, a fractured femur bleeding into a limb can

lead to life-threatening hypovolemia. The following is a list of problems that also require immediate medical attention:

- Exposure to toxins (ingested or topical)
- Excessive bleeding
- Open fractures
- Snake bite
- Burns
- Prolapsed organs
- Wound dehiscence
- Dystocia
- Trauma

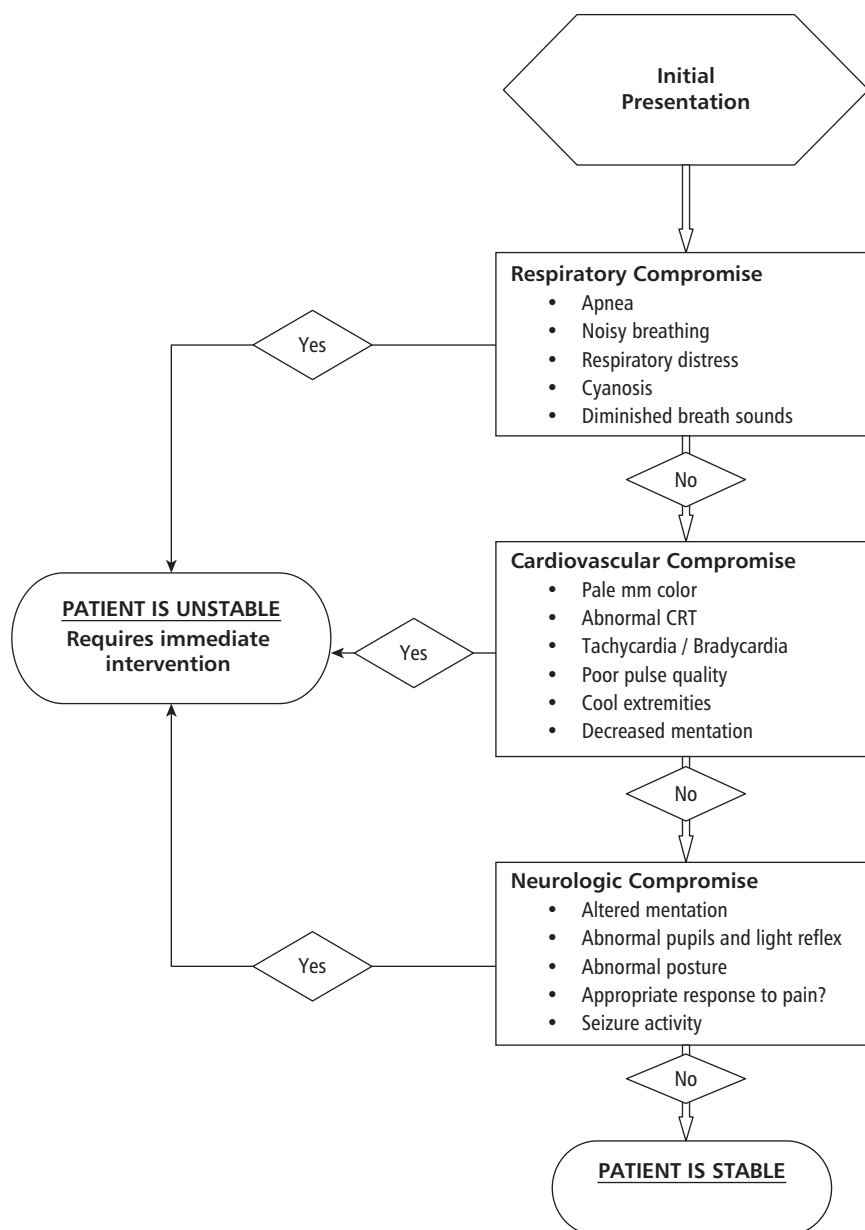


Figure 1.2 Triage Algorithm.

## Airway and breathing

Expedient respiratory system assessment and rapid correction of abnormalities is critical. First, patency of airway and breathing effort should be assessed. This is done by visualization, auscultation, and palpation. When looking at the animal, an experienced individual can determine if the animal has increased breathing rate or effort. Some animals with respiratory distress may assume a posture with the head and neck extended and the elbows abducted (held away from the body). Additional concerning signs include absent chest wall motion, exaggerated breathing effort, flaring of the nares, open mouth breathing and paradoxical breathing. When sustained high breathing effort leads to respiratory fatigue, paradoxical breathing can occur, which is characterized by opposing movements of the chest and abdominal walls during inspiration and expiration. Cyanosis, a blue or purplish tint to the mucous membranes, usually indicates hypoxemia and warrants immediate medical intervention. The chest wall may be palpated to assess chest wall integrity. Crepitus about the body may indicate subcutaneous emphysema, which can be caused by tracheal tears or chest wall defects.

Some assessment questions the triage technician should consider:

- Is the patient having difficulty breathing?
- Are breath sounds auscultable?
- Are facial injuries interfering with the airway?
- Has a bite wound disrupted the larynx or trachea?
- Is subcutaneous emphysema present?
- What color are the mucous membranes?
- Does respiratory distress get worse with patient position change?
- Is there evidence of thoracic penetration or a flail chest?

## Circulation

Many of the signs suggestive of decreased cardiac output are a result of a compensatory sympathetic reflex, which helps maintain arterial blood pressure. Clinical signs suggestive of decreased cardiac output include: tachycardia, pale or gray mucous membranes, prolonged capillary refill time, poor pulse quality, cool extremities, and decreased mentation. Decreased cardiac output may be due to hypovolemia as a result of blood or other fluid loss (internally or externally; active or historical), trauma, or cardiac disease.

Circulation is assessed by visualization, palpation, and auscultation. The focus of the cardiovascular assessment is the six perfusion parameters (see Table 1.3).

**Table 1.3** The six perfusion parameters

- 
- Mucous membrane color
  - Capillary refill time
  - Heart rate
  - Pulse quality
  - Extremity temperature
  - Mentation
- 



**Figure 1.3** Assessing a patient's mucous membrane color.

### Mucous membrane color

After assuring it is safe to do so, evaluate the mucous membranes by examining the color of the gums (see Fig. 1.3). As an alternative in the fractious animal or patients with pigmented gums examine the conjunctiva, penis, or the vulva. The normal color of pink is a result of oxygenated hemoglobin in red blood cells in the capillary bed. Mucous membrane color may vary with circulatory related problems. Mucous membrane color may be pale or white due to blood loss anemia or vasoconstriction. Brick red or injected mucous membranes are a result of vasodilation and can be seen with hyperthermia or sepsis. Cyanotic or blue mucous membranes are an indicator of severe hypoxemia. The absence of cyanosis does not rule out hypoxemia. Icteric or yellow mucous membranes are due to the breakdown of red cells (hemolysis) or liver disease. Methemoglobinemia results in brown or chocolate-colored mucous membranes.

### Capillary refill time (CRT)

Evaluation of CRT is done by applying digital pressure to the surface of the mucous membranes and forcing the blood from the capillary bed and observing the return

of color. Normal CRT is 1–2 seconds. A shortened CRT (<1/2 second) is suggestive of vasodilation. A prolonged capillary refill time (>2 seconds) is also a result of peripheral vasoconstriction and causes decreased peripheral perfusion.

### Heart rate

Heart rate is a nonspecific parameter. It is usually measured by auscultation of the heart, palpation of the apex beat, or palpation of an artery. Increase in heart rate (tachycardia) may be caused by hypovolemia (the tachycardia is a compensatory mechanism), hypoxemia, hypotension, drugs, fever, excitement, exercise, and pain. Tachycardia is generally defined as a heart rate >160 beats per minutes (bpm) in the dog or 200bpm in the cat. Decrease in heart rate (bradycardia) may be caused by increased vagal tone, severe electrolyte disturbances and hypothermia, drugs, or disturbances of the cardiac conduction system. Bradycardia is generally defined as a heart rate <60bpm in the dog and 140bpm in the cat. Auscultation of the heart also provides information about rhythm and murmurs. Auscultation of the heart and palpation of an artery should occur simultaneously, so that pulse deficits (the difference between heart and pulse rate; they should be the same) can be determined. Pulse deficits are suggestive of arrhythmias.

### Pulse quality

Palpation of the artery provides information about the animal's heart rate and rhythm. The femoral or dorsal pedal arteries are the commonly palpated arteries. In addition, pulse quality is an indicator of stroke volume, the amount of blood pumped out of the heart with each beat. Palpating a peripheral pulse is feeling the difference between the systolic and diastolic pressures and duration of the waveform. Ideally, the pulse should be full, regular, and strong, indicating a normal stroke volume. A thready pulse is defined as a narrow waveform and a weak pulse refers to a small amplitude pulse difference, both of which are indicative of a decreased stroke volume. Bounding pulses have a large pulse pressure difference and wide waveforms usually associated with increased stroke volume and vasodilation.

### Extremity temperature

The paws, limbs, or ears should normally feel warm to the touch. Cool extremities are a result of vasoconstriction.

### Mentation

As previously mentioned, evaluation of mentation starts from afar. Observe the attitude of the patient without

stimulation. If the patient has an altered mental state, it is assessed for its response to touch, sound, and painful stimuli. An inappropriate mental state can be a result of inadequate perfusion or a primary brain problem.

Some assessment questions the triage technician should consider:

- Is the patient's mentation normal?
- Is there evidence of hemorrhage?
- Is there swelling associated with an extremity or evidence of a fracture?
- Are the mucous membranes pale?
- Is the capillary refill time prolonged?
- Are the pulses weak and rapid?
- Is the heart rate abnormal?
- Are the extremities cold?

### Dysfunction or disability of the neurological system

Dysfunction or disability refers to the neurological status of the patient. This may be assessed through visualization and palpation. A cursory neurologic exam is performed focusing on the patient's LOC, pupillary light reflex, posture, and response to pain (superficial and deep). Depressed mentation may be a result of poor oxygen delivery or trauma to the brain. Seizure activity may be due to intra- or extracranial causes.

A patient that is recumbent, has an abnormal posture, or is not seen to ambulate or make voluntary movements should be assumed to have spinal trauma and stabilized on a backboard (see Fig. 1.4) until proven otherwise.



**Figure 1.4** A patient with suspected head and spinal trauma restrained on a backboard. The cranial end of the board is elevated slightly because of suspected increased intracranial pressure.

Some assessment questions the triage technician should consider:

- Is the animal bright, alert, and responsive or obtunded (depressed but rousable), stuporous (roused only with painful stimulation), or comatose?
- Are the pupils dilated, constricted, of equal size, and responsive to light?
- What is the posture of the animal?
- Are there any abnormal breathing patterns?
- Does the animal respond to painful stimuli?
- Is there obvious seizure activity?

### Examination

Finally, a rapid whole-body examination is performed. The goal is to determine and address any additional problems.

Some assessment questions the triage technician should consider:

- Are there lacerations, wounds, or punctures?
- Is there bruising and is it getting worse?

- Are there any fractures?
- Is the abdomen painful or distended?
- Is there evidence of debilitation or other signs of disease?

### Summary

In some emergencies, minutes count. The triage performed by the veterinary technician should be rapid and efficient. The goal is rapid recognition of and intervention for life-threatening conditions such as hypoxemia and inadequate perfusion. A systematic approach to patient assessment is essential for the best possible patient outcome.

### Reference

1. Bracken JE. Triage. In: Newberry L, ed. *Sheehy's Emergency Nursing Principles and Practice*. St. Louis: Mosby 1998;105–111.

# 2

## The small animal emergency room

Martin D. Miller and Sean D. Smarick

Emergency medicine can be defined as “the diagnosis and treatment of unforeseen illness or injury.”<sup>1</sup> The practice of emergency medicine takes place in primary care clinics during regular business hours or when veterinarians are on call, in dedicated “after-hours” free-standing emergency clinics, and in multispecialty referral hospitals. No clinical veterinary practice is immune to the realms of emergency medicine, as vaccines can cause anaphylactic reactions, anesthesia-related cardiopulmonary arrests can occur, and without warning clients may present a pet with a traumatic injury or critical illness.

The Veterinary Emergency and Critical Care Society ([www.veccs.org](http://www.veccs.org)), whose mission includes “To promote the advancement of knowledge and high standards of practice in veterinary emergency medicine and critical patient care,” provides guidelines for emergency practice.<sup>2</sup> In looking to these standards along with applicable state board regulations, a practice should define for its patients, clients, the public, and for itself expectations for its *emergency* practice.

The practice of emergency medicine differs from primary care and other specialty practices by the urgency and breadth of the patients’ conditions. Depending on the degree a practice wishes to diagnose and treat unforeseen illnesses and injuries, varying degrees of adaptations in the physical plant, equipment, inventory, staffing, and hospital systems are needed.

### Physical plant

The facility requirements for an emergency practice at the most basic level do not differ significantly from a modern primary care practice. The differences between

a dedicated emergency practice and that of primary care or specialty practice can be found in the layout and organization of space and equipment. The space needed ranges from a minimum of 2000–3000 square feet for a free-standing off-hours emergency clinic compared with 5000–10,000 square feet for a 24-hour emergency and critical care center either as a stand-alone facility or part of a multispecialty hospital (see Tables 2.1 and 2.2).

### Hospital design and flow

When creating a floor plan concept for an emergency facility, a great deal of thought should be given to the specific aspects of the emergency practice. Good “flow” is essential to good design. Flow represents the natural movements of patients, clients, doctors, and staff in the daily activity of the practice;<sup>3</sup> arranging for such movement is almost like choreographing a dance. Thought should be given to dynamic situations such as how best to move clients from the lobby to examination rooms to discharge, and how most efficiently to move a large dog from x-ray to a surgical preparation area and then into a surgical suite.

In larger facilities the idea of a hub and spoke concept<sup>4</sup> can be applied to the flow of a practice. The hub can be a centralized space such as the treatment area. The spokes from the hub may be clinical areas such as the in-house laboratory, radiology, surgery, patient wards, isolation ward, and pharmacy. In even larger facilities, multiple hub and spoke areas may exist, such as one for the intensive care unit (ICU) and one for the emergency service. Industry-specific publications such as *Veterinary Economics* commonly address veterinary and emergency facility design.

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**Table 2.1** Area approximation for a small dedicated emergency clinic

Space	Dimensions	Area (Sq Ft)
Lobby	15' × 20'	300
Client bathroom	8' × 8'	64
Reception area	10' × 10'	100
Triage area	8' × 10'	80
Exam room 1	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 2	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 3	10' × 11'	110
Treatment room	30' × 20'	600
Isolation ward	10' × 10'	100
Surgical suite	15' × 10'	150
Radiology	10' × 8'	80
Staff bathroom	10' × 9'	90
Staff break area	12' × 10'	120
Administrative office	12' × 10'	120
Utility/laundry room/storage	14' × 8'	112
<b>Total</b>		<b>~2200 sq.ft.</b>

**Lobby**

Accessible to the (emergency) entrance of the facility, the client waiting area must be large enough to accommodate a simultaneous influx of many clients and their pets. While benches or more utilitarian styles of seating may work well in a primary care practice where wait times are short, the client presenting a pet for an emergency may spend hours in the emergency practice lobby. Comfortable, well-padded chairs, a beverage service in the form of a water cooler or vending machine, and a restroom that is easily accessible to the client should be considered (see Fig. 2.1).

**Reception area**

This is the area where clients are initially received and usually discharged. Ideally, some degree of privacy should exist for the discharge area where financial or sensitive communication is taking place.

**Security**

Emergency practices have more security concerns than day practices because they are open during non-business hours and may be perceived to be rich in cash and narcotics. To provide a safe environment for staff and clients, enhanced security measures should be considered.

An alarm system can be installed in the facility that can notify a monitoring service or the police if the alarm is triggered. In continuous operations, “panic” buttons can be placed, whereas door, window, motion, and other

**Table 2.2** Area approximation for a 24-hour emergency practice

Space	Dimensions	Area (Sq Ft)
Lobby	35' × 25'	875
Client bathroom	8' × 8'	64
Reception area	15' × 10'	150
Check out area	10' × 12'	120
Check out lobby	12' × 15'	180
Triage area	8' × 10'	80
Exam room 1	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 2	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 3	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 4	10' × 11'	110
Exam room 5	10' × 11'	110
Consultation room	12' × 12'	144
Treatment room	30' × 40'	1200
Wards	15' × 25'	375
Isolation ward	12' × 12'	144
Laboratory	15' × 20'	300
Surgical suite	15' × 10'	150
Surgical preparation area	20' × 12'	240
Radiology	12' × 11'	121
Staff break area	12' × 10'	120
Staff bathroom	10' × 10'	100
Administrative office 1	10' × 10'	100
Administrative office 2	10' × 10'	100
Administrative office 3	10' × 10'	100
Conference room	25' × 15'	375
Doctors' office/library	15' × 20'	300
Server room	8' × 8'	64
Utility/laundry room	14' × 12'	168
Storage room	10' × 12'	120
<b>Total</b>		<b>~6250</b>



**Figure 2.1** Lobby. Since clients may spend hours in an emergency practice lobby, it should be furnished with comfortable, well-padded chairs, beverage service, and an easily accessible restroom.