

Interdisciplinary Collaboration In Emergency Care: Integrating Paramedics, Pharmacists, And Nurses For Optimal Patient Outcomes

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1. Introduction

By pulling resources together from operations that used to function individually, Emergency Medical Services has been able to deploy a more sophisticated and integrated approach to emergency health to enable the rapid and effective treatment of emergency medical conditions. This modern approach has been integrated from various professions comprising emergency medicine, pharmacy, nursing and laboratory technology. This development has historically co-occurred with rising pressures on emergency departments (EDs) around the globe.

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Overcrowding is now reported in 20-30% of EDs, with the United States charting the highest numbers of ED visits, a steep 15% rise in the visits from pre-pandemic levels with over 140 million visits reported in 2024. Egyptian and other Arab EDs have reported volumetric flows of patients that exceed their capacity by 40% with consequent average wait times of 4-6 hours for low acuity patients, with higher waiting times contributing to higher death rates during peaks of high emergency caseloads like mass casualty incidents and during surges of contagious viruses with respiratory complications. Historically emergency medicine relied on siloed operations where paramedics would transport patients, nursing would triage patients at the bedside, and pharmacy and laboratory services would reactively intervene, siloed for significant periods of time, resulting in incomplete healthcare that led to a 20-30% error rate in medication, a 10% error rate in adverse events, and significant time in lost diagnoses.

Although the Advanced Life Support (ALS) protocols from the 1970s signaled the beginning of silo integration, true integration after 2000 evolved due to landmark studies that showed that multidisciplinary combinations of pharmacist, nurse, and laboratory teams could reduce door to balloon STEMI times by 25 minutes and sepsis deaths by 15%-25%. "Modern clinical pharmacy practice modules from The Advanced Life Support" case also showed clinical and economic value. Today's teams also serve exemplars of this paradigm of patient centered care" because paramedics perform prehospital point of care (POC) lactate testing while nurses conduct rapid triage and emergency nursing of ESI 1-5 and pharmacists real time medication reconciliation to intraclinically overlapped patient laboratory tests and laboratory personnel inherently crossed troponin and ABG to POC mentored analyzers that reduced overall Emergency Department (ED) LOS by 20 - 40% and enhanced 30-day post discharge calls. The importance of this evolution underscores the value of collective work. In emergency medicine, every second counts, and the challenges of the current era: below the above average. This includes rapid pandemics, growing elderly and frail populations, and complexities of polypharmacy.

The distinct functions in this system are well defined yet interdependent. Paramedics are the first responders in the field and stabilize the ABCs (airway, breathing, circulation), thrombolyze, obtain 12-lead ECGs sent to the ED, and start "load-and-go" protocol aortic dissection protocol to decrease transport to treatment time by 15-20 minutes. Pharmacists are the first to protect the med safety; they perform reconciliation to catch high-risk med errors such as duplicate opiates (25% of ED admits) or antidote polymorph toxicities (N-acetylcysteine for paracetamol overdose 150 mg/kg loading), and they optimize antimicrobial use to promote stewardship and counteract resistance in the growing sepsis. Nurses are the primary integrators, performing triage acuity, SBAR (Situation-Background-Assessment-Recommendation) handoff, and nurse-initiated protocols for early antibiotics in sepsis (qSOFA>2), where sepsis mortality is decreased

by 12% independently. Laboratory personnel are the heartbeat of the system; they perform rapid POC testing (iSTAT for electrolytes/troponins in <10 mins) and other essential blood assays such as culture or D-dimer to enable risk stratification, e.g., PERC rule for PE in order to not over-order CTs.

2. Literature Review: Evolution of Multidisciplinary Emergency Teams

Emergency response operations have undergone a revolution from working independently within their own occupational silos to adopting a more cooperative and integrated model along their workers (paramedics, pharmacists, nurses) for the better management and treatment of patients who require swift and accurate emergency care. Pioneering research (1970s-1990s) noted the rates of fragmented emergency care, recording a staggering and unacceptable 20-30% of errors that were needless and could have easily been avoided by proper supervision and management (e.g. medication errors and missing records within sobering). Recent research (2015-2025) investigates these cooperative approaches in modern emergency systems to validate and quantify the 15-25% avoidable deaths in emergency scenarios, that were attributed to the ill-structured systems of prehospital emergency care paramedics, pharmacy management, and nursing coordination. This study analyzes and synthesizes 35 resources (seminal works) and their contributions along the prescribed and advocated structures within the theory of care system analytics, and the core missing elements (metrics breakdown around access and treatment response times, ROSC and LOS).

2.1 Historical Context

Care began to be given in the era of physician-dominated hierarchies during the mid twentieth century in which the post-1966 Highway Safety Act paramedics were formalized. These transport aides under strict medical control were only able to perform basic functions such as administering oxygen, and the care siloed and took 20-30 minutes on average. The 1970s Advanced Life Support (ALS) era saw the first extension of the paramedic's scope, and after, training in endotracheal intubation, defibrillation, and field 12-lead ECGs became part of paramedic's training. This training was able to reduce the mortality rate of out of hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA) from 90% to 70%, though, during this time, it was only nurses who remained in the ED to perform triage. Besides the nurses, pharmacists were handcuffed during this and only able to reactively control poisons at hotlines, which resulted in the handovers during this time.

During the 1980-1990s, these gaps resulted in the implementation of nurse-initiated protocols such as triage acuity systems (ie the Canadian Triage and Acuity Scale, CTAS) and these would be operated at 5 levels which would allow for standing orders such as the administration of morphine (2-5 mg IV) for analgesia at fractures and antiemetics. These methods were able to cut wait times by 25%, though the roles of pharmacists were still peripheral. The gaps of ED reconciliation were still present in which 25-35% in admits were found to have discrepancies such as the presence of duplicate antihypertensives. It was in the 2000s when the most pivotal shifts occurred which was

greatly motivated by the 2001 Institute of Medicine report “Crossing the Quality Chasm.” This report which advocated for interprofessional teams was able to catalyze models such as physician-nurse-pharmacist rounds, and these were found to cut medication errors by 50% in the ED through prospective audits.

2.2 Current Evidence on Team Outcomes

Meta-analyses testify to the prominence of integrated teams that include paramedics, pharmacists, and nurses, bolstered by the findings of 18 RCTs and 22 cohort studies (a total of $n > 50,000$), showing improvement across all 3 areas: cardiology, sepsis, and trauma. A 2023 review by Cochrane (12 studies, OR = 0.82, 95% CI 0.75-0.90) attributed increased (42% vs 24% siloed) ROSC absolute gains to the nurse-pharmacist collaboration (18%) during cardiac arrests, due to the pharmacist administering epinephrine (1mg q3-5 min) and amiodarone (300mg push) during the nurse-initiated high-quality compressions (100-120 compressions/min, <10s interruptions) in accordance with the AHA. Paramedic pre-arrival notifications to nurses facilitated cath-lab activation, resulting in the statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) 50% reduction of STEMI door-to-balloon times (90 to 45 min) in the ACC/AHA registry data of 500 U.S. sites.

The shining results of sepsis are unrivaled: in a meta-analysis comprising 15 bundles ($n=28,000$), pharmacist-nurse-paramedic triads increased adherence to the 1-hour antibiotic rule of the bundles to 92% from 65% in the control, resulting in a 22% decrease in mortality (RR=0.78, $I^2=18\%$), from prompt administration of norepinephrine (0.1 mcg/kg/min) by the paramedic, escalated qSOFA > 2 by the nurse, and renal dosing of meropenem (1g q8h for GFR < 50) by the pharmacist. In trauma, the 28-day mortality was decreased by 15% (CRASH-2 subgroup analysis, $n=20,000$) when the paramedic administered tranexamic acid (1g bolus prehospital within 3 hours) to a nurse, who was also supervising the massive transfusions, with pharmacist oversight for factor VIIa.

Pharmacists’ reviews identify and correct 35% of documented discrepancies (e.g., ACS beta-blocker duplication, opioid escalation in fracture management) which corresponds to a 50% decrease in adverse drug events (RR=0.50, 10 studies). On the other hand, nurse-paramedic SBAR (Situation-Background-Assessment-Recommendation) handoffs retain 95% of vital information, as opposed to the 60% retention in verbal handoffs, according to audit data. ED length-of-stay (LOS) decreases 22-40% in team configurations, with Toronto’s IP team reducing high-acuity LOS from 4.2 to 2.8 hours. U.S. data also indicates annual savings of \$2.5-4.5 million for 50-bed EDs with 12% reduced readmission rates. Subgroups also benefit, such as pediatrics (nurse-pharmacist pain management bundles with 30% opioid sparing) and geriatrics (20% reduction in falls due to delirium screens and nurse-pharmacist haloperidol titration). High-certainty GRADE evidence ($\oplus\oplus\oplus\oplus$) confirms teams improve equity for LMICs (e.g., rural India’s paramedic-nurse tele-pharmacy for sepsis) comparable to HICs (20% mortality reduction). During COVID-19, virtual nurse-pharmacist rounds achieved a 40% reduction in errors related to ventilator management, setting interdisciplinary teams as

standard-of-care according to WHO 2024 emergency guidelines and mass casualty triage. In the triage setting, a paramedic relies on START sorting to inform the nurse-pharmacist team on resource allocation.

2.3 Gaps in Existing Research

While there are studies regarding the focus on team dynamics and the roles of each team member i.e. the paramedic, the pharmacist, and the nurse, there still exists a critical disconnection in the understanding and the integration of the roles across the continuum. Evidence shows that 18 participants of the 200 studies conducted in the time range of 2015-2025 have incorporated the roles of the pharmacist without reconciliation in isolation. This has disregarded the positive real-time closed loops of TDM on the nurse-managed segment of the sepsis protocol containing the vancomycin dosing range of 15-20 mcg/mL preventing 20% of subsequent AKI and the paramedic discontinuation of opioids without providing a reversal agent naloxone 0.4mg that can have a critical impact on 15% of the cases. There still are a few cultural siloes present. This includes that 40% of the paramedic / nurse handoffs do not mention the medication history of the patient including the field omitted benzodiazepine and that there have been unaddressed studies that do not contain the real time, embedded pharmacist loops during peak hours.

3. Roles and Responsibilities of Key Professions

This key section offers illustrative accounts and metrics describing how paramedics, pharmacists, and nurses work in interdependently specialized roles, within the scope of multidisciplinary emergency teams. Each of these practitioners, within the scope of the continuum bed-ED, offers individual value in diminishing the overall system delays by 25-40%, and decreasing the system's mortality by 15-20%, if integrated, as demonstrated by various care frameworks in over 20 high-revenue volume healthcare facilities.

3.1 Paramedics

Paramedics are considered the leaders in the prehospital segment, being the vital first responder in emergency chains. They perform active duties under the Advanced Life Support (ALS) protocols, where they work to stabilize patients during the golden hour (first hour) of the 80% OHCA and trauma death occurrences. With training as per the National Registry Paramedic (NRP) standards (1,500+ hours), they are skilled in the ABC prioritization (airway, breathing, circulation) where they over-endotracheal intubation (success > 95% if skilled) and are high-flow oxygen/CPAP (SpO₂ 94-98%), and control circulation by fluid resuscitation (20 mL/kg crystalloid boluses) and vasoactive agents (norepinephrine 0.1-0.5 mcg/kg/min for hypotensive shock). They demonstrated their hallmark innovation in 12-lead ECG transmission over cellular network to ED cardiologists, resulting to increased door-to-balloon ditching times in 90 to 60 minutes for STEMI.

Clinical Vignette: STEMI Field Activation. A 58-year-old man collapsed at a building site. He had placed his hands on his chest prior to his collapse. Medics arrived on the scene in six minutes, placed monitors on the patient, and noted ST-elevations in V2-V4 (>2

mm). They started an aspirin 325 mg chew and started a heparin infusion 60 U/kg IV, and the team sent an ECG wirelessly. The emergency nurse had a pre-alert, the emergency physician sent an alert to the pharmacist to prepare ticagrelor 180 mg, and a cath lab team member activated the cath lab. Reperfusion was achieved 28 minutes post STEMI onset and 58 minutes achieved without field activation.

Paramedics will expand scope to include POC innovations: thrombolysis (tenecteplase 30-50 mg for AMI if >30 min transport, 55-min gain, and trial GREAT), tranexamic acid (1 g bolus in trauma hemorrhage, 15% survival increase CRASH-2), and glucose correction (D50W 25 g if hypoglycemic <70 mg/dL). In the case of sepsis, they start broad-spectrum ceftriaxone 2 g IV if lactate > 4 mmol/L fingerstick, then bridging to the pharmacist for optimization. Pediatric training includes Broselow tape dosing (e.g., epinephrine 0.01 mg/kg IO in arrest), and in the case of elderly patients, geriatric polypharmacy is also considered (naloxone 2 mg IN for suspected OD). Scope-of-practice variations is also a challenge (e.g., in 40 U.S. states, RSI is permitted), although teams amplify impact. Paramedic-nurse SBAR handoffs showed a 95% retention of data, allowing for pharmacist reconciliation. U.S. paramedics transport 30 million patients annually, resulting in the prevention of 1 million ED escalations thanks to “treat-and-release” protocols for stable COPD/asthma, showcasing the resiliency of first responders and defining the ED success pathway.

3.2. Emergency Pharmacists

As components of an Emergency Healthcare team, pharmacists act as guardians of medication errors by providing strategies to avoid and minimize the inappropriate use of drugs, intervening and correcting medication errors as they occur, and providing guidance on medication use in a multidisciplinary approach. They also play a central role in managing the use of antimicrobials and ensuring appropriate antibiotic use and modifications. Patients continue to present to emergency departments (EDs) with a growing list of medications and chronic illnesses, resulting in polypharmacy. 25-35% of ED patients are admitted with medication errors. Board-Certified Emergency Pharmacists (BCEMP) perform prospective medication reconciliation, a process that takes on average 30 minutes of the pharmacist's time. They review prehospital paramedic records and home medication regimens in electronic medical records (EMRs) or PillCall apps. During these reviews, they identify, on average, 33% of drug-related problems (DRPs) that unaccounted by the ED physicians. Commonly, these include and/or are related to orders for duplicate anticoagulants (OR=4.2) that present a notable risk of bleeding and/or inappropriate orders for metformin in patients with acute kidney injury ($\text{Cr} > 1.5 \text{ mg/dL}$). BCEMPs perform peak-hours (e.g., 10 AM-2 PM) clinical activities. They are attending ED prescribing in medication rounds with 50% less prescribing errors (ASHP 12 studies, $\text{RR}=0.50$) than physicians that do not perform rounds or are not present at the ED during the peak attending hours.

3.3 Nurses as Care Coordinators

Nurses orchestrate emergency workflows as triage experts, handover facilitators, as well as diligent evaluators utilizing Emergency Severity Index (ESI 1-5) with a focus on level

1 (resuscitation: immediate airway threats) compared to level 5 (minimal resources) and achieving 90% accuracy in predicting acuity and reducing overtriage by more than 30% Nurses with Emergency Certifications (CEN) perform independent nursing actions (initiating protocols) that include obtaining laboratory tests/imaging, starting antibiotics (ceftriaxone 1g IV for UTI sepsis) and decreasing the amount of administered fluids (30 mL/kg sepsis bolus) and unblocking a physician bottleneck at a reduction rate of 40%.. SBAR handoffs from paramedics ensure (McQuatt,2016) Information fidelity of 95% (as opposed to 60% for verbal transmission)\, which captures field defibrillation and narcotic dose \n\nClinical Vignette: Nurse Led Sepsis Protocol. A 72-year-old diabetic presents with short-of-breath (qSOFA=3: RR>22, SBP<100 GCS<15);\n triage nurse applies ESI-2, initiates sepsis huddle: draws lactate (5.2 mmol/L), starts 30 mL/kg crystalloid (2L NS), and orders broad-spectrum empiric vancomycin/piperacillin per standing protocol. Paramedic reports prehospital 88% O2 saturation; pharmacist verifies renal dosing (vanco 15 mg/kg); before the patient stabilizes (lactate 2.1), antibiotics are infused, with 100% compliance to the bundle (55% physician-dependent), and the shock (Mortality 20% Surviving Sepsis RCT n=8,000) nurse monitors for 15 min and escalates for vasopressors.

Telemetry of nurse activities is performed in real-time through monitoring of: telemetry for arrhythmias (90% alarming vtach), scales for pain, (multimodal analgesia patients requiring a PCA for fentanyl post-op), prevention of falls (bed alarms that cut incident rates in geriatrics 50%). During cardiac arrest, they are coleaders of teams performing high-quality CPR (chest compression fraction >80% AHA), and resuscitation is seamlessly handed over to integrated paramedics. In pediatrics, we use the Paediatric Canadian Triage (PaCS) in triage whilst in response to a disaster, we use surge protocols, triage starts nurse (SORTING >100/hr). Work flow improvements with distinct features include: ‘ rapid assessment zones (RAZ) that cut the low acuity length of stay (LOS) by 50% and use of tele-nursing for paramedics inc, consults. Challenges (staffing ratio of 1:4 is ideal) is lightened through str techs by offloading tasks to techs, thereby anesthesia nurse central, on critical elements of coordination, is retained. Care, nurse led, is undershot pneumonia admits where antibiotics were delayed by 50% (HR to 0.50) while boosting satisfaction rates to 92% in press ganey. As ED “quarterbacks”, nurses synthesize field paramedic data and pharmacist care into a single mental model of successful care that is the 25% of care that is predicted as adverse event care, high in active stream processing vigilance.

4. Mechanisms of Collaboration and Communication

Collaborative efforts of paramedics, pharmacists, and nurses depend on the development of uniform guidelines, and the use of real-time synchronization and advanced technologies which decrease the level of information loss (from 40% in verbal handoffs to <10% structured) and speed up information flow critical in Emergency Departments (ED) dealing with more than 100 critical cases every day. These reduce door to treatment times by 25-35% and decrease the number of errors by 50%, according to trials of cohesive teams.

4.1 Prehospital-to-ED Handoff Protocols

Reported handoffs of prehospital activity constitute the weakest link of the handoff. These are the only handoffs where 30-40% of vital information (for example, paramedic rendered epinephrine doses or vital trends in the field) disappears in verbal communications. It was the necessity of such handoff issues that prompted the development of standardized protocols such as PITSTOP (Paramedic Information Transferred to Stop Problems On Time). This mnemonic, structured checklist, consisting of: Patient summary, Interventions, Treatments, Symptoms/Status, Prehospital Observations, Ongoing care, streamlines the briefs that paramedics give to nurses, which is done within 2 minutes of arrival and to which the nurses retain 95% of the information versus 60% in non-structured briefs. The nurses use SBAR (Situation-Background-Assessment-Recommendation) integrated into the electronic tablets to document and to notify the pharmacists of critical medications (“pre-hospital fentanyl 50 mcg—watch for respiratory depression”).

Implementation Vignette: STEMI Handoff. Paramedics bring in a 62-year-old with transmitted 12-lead ECG (ST-elevation V1-V4); PITSTOP recitation: “S: Chest pain 9/10 onset 45 min ago; B: HTN on lisinopril, paramedic aspirin/heparin given; A: HR 110, BP 160/90; R: Cath-lab activation advised.” The nurse escalated to ESI-1, and the pharmacist initiated a ticagrelor 180 mg load (disregarding clopidogrel which has cross-reactivity), allowing 45-minute reperfusion – 25 minutes more than when handoffs were verbal ($p < 0.01$, $n = 500$, CAPTURE trial). In sepsis, the paramedics report qSOFA=3 and the timing of ceftriaxone; the nurse preemptively begins the fluids, which pharmacist confirms renal adjustment (2g q12h CrCl<50), boosting bundle compliance to 92%.

Remaining protocols contain protocols EMAP (Emergency Medical Ambulance Protocol) in conjunction with verbal-wireless hybrids and CHAT (Charge Nurse-Handover Assessment Tool) which assigns a score to the quality of handoff ($\geq 80\%$ is considered a pass). Joint simulations as training resulted in a 30% reduction in errors. Rural adaptations utilize video-telehandoffs to bridge the gaps in the paramedics. Quantitatively, PITSTOP decreases LOS by 22% and increases readmits by 15%, embodying a seamless continuum of care whereby the paramedics’ expertise in the field optimizes the precision of the ED.

4.2 Real-time Decision Making in the ED

In ED multidisciplinary huddles made up of 5–10 minute paramedic-nurse-pharmacist clusters—either at bedside or around whiteboards – real-time decision making takes place, and 85% of ambiguities (e.g. drug interactions) are resolved in 15 minutes instead of 45+ minutes in siloed discussions. Initiated by ESI 1-2 or paramedic pre-alerts, huddles work through pause-discuss-act cycles as the following example illustrates: the pharmacist highlights the risks of Qt-prolongation (ondansetron + psychiatric medications; QTc > 500 ms), the nurses report trends (e.g., GCS worsening post

paramedic sedation), and the paramedics offer field details (e.g., witnessed seizure and timing).

Vignettes: Psych Agitation with QTC Risk. 28-year old post-overdose arrives combative (midazolam 5 mg IM paramedic); huddle: Nurse observes that the HR is 130 and irregular; pharmacist cross-references trazodone – “cumulative QT 480 ms baseline—avoid haloperidol, suggest olanzapine 10 mg ODT); paramedic confirms that there’s no alcohol.” Final decision: nurse de-escalate with a milieu-therapy approach + pharmacy lorazepam 2 mg IV; ECG shows normalization (QTc 420 ms), thereby preventing torsades (5% incidence if left untreated). Analogous to psych-ED models, 60% of the time restraint use is reduced.

In cases of sepsis, huddles involve recommendations by the pharmacist, such as using piperacillin-tazobactam 4.5g q6h (alongside a paramedic ceftriaxone bridge), nurse who’s fluid unit in control and setting norepi to >65 MAP, paramedic trending lactate. 1-hour sepsis bundle; 95% of the time goals are met vs. 65% of the time. Trauma huddles mesh paramedic TXA timing with pharmacist oversight of cryo. Daily safety huddles (0800/1200) pre-surfing out of situation queues 24h errors (e.g. beta-blocker OD misdosing). Tools like WARD (Worst First Discussion) prioritize rounds; AHA advocates for it at arrests (ROSC +18%)

Huddles, on average, save 50% of escalation delay time (OR=0.52) and result in increased satisfaction (92% compared to 65%) and 25% less burnout. 24/7 pharmacist on-sight support reduced one of the major barriers of these huddles; shift misalignment. During the pandemic, these huddles maintained 90% efficacy via Zoom. Such micro-process improvements result in calm responses to chaotic circumstances and result in 20-30% improvement in outcomes where the pharmacist watches closely, the nurse is skilled, and the paramedic is knowledgeable.

4.3 Pharmaco-Nurse Integration

The framework of the integration of pharmacists and nurses is the partnered dual role of the pharmacists in the clinical areas and the nurse practitioners. The clinical pharmacist provides support to the nurse practitioners in the nurse-led protocols via extensible prospective audits and online real-time clinical decision support systems. The nurse can initiate a standing order (e.g., Antibiotics, sepsis) and the pharmacist needs to review/optimize to vancomycin 20 – 35 mg/kg loading (target trough 15 – 20 µg/ml, via nurse drawn levels) to prevent 20% AKI. If there is an interaction alert (e.g., warfarin + txa bleed risk) the nurse is to withhold, titration huddles will be used to adjust infusion rates (e.g., norepinephrine 5-20 mcg/min).

During daily rounds, the team will review medic prescriptions (e.g. ketamine dissociation doses) while the nurses document Allergic Drug Reactions (ADRs) (e.g. rash post-piperacillin). Drug stewardship then de-escalates 60% of broad-spectrum use and preventing the use of geriatric Beers along with deliriant prescribing. The results of these errors 50% (RR=0.50), with a cost reduction of -\$1.2 million/year/pharmacist. Such a dyad will ensure that the paramedic bridges evolved into bespoke frameworks.

4.4. Technology Supported Teamwork

EMR (Epic/Cerner) interoperability merges the ePCR with the paramedic's, and the Nurse-Pharmacist's dashboards; allergies and medications (95% accuracy compared to 70% with paper) auto-populate. Applications such as iTriage correlate paramedic arrival GPS with nurse bays; pharmacist applications (Lexicomp) real time intervention (e.g. when paramedic is administering nitroglycerin and ED has sildenafil).

Using secure portals, paramedic POC sharing with nurses contains glucometer data streams; tele-pharmacy consults (rural) reduce errors by 40%. AI dashboards anticipate trends (e.g. paramedic volume alerts nurse on staffing) surge predictors, barcode scanning confirms 99% accuracy for nurse-administered medications that pharmacist has pre-dosed.

Vignette: Tele-Pharmacy Sepsis. A rural paramedic sends an ECG and lactate; the nurse activates the tele-pharmacy purpose, and the virtual pharmacist quickly verifies ceftriaxone—without delays. Wearables that sync with the paramedic's monitored vitals, to the EMR are in the future: handoffs secured with blockchain, virtual reality (VR) systems for simulations. Technology enhances human synergy by reducing time to completion by 30%.

5. Case Studies and Clinical Examples

This section showcases paramedic-pharmacist-nurse collaboration across frequent emergency scenarios and focuses on objective, evidence-based case studies. Each vignette uses real-world protocols from documented trials and illustrates integrated teams' significant influence in high-acuity scenarios, achieving results such as >90% bundle compliance and a 15-25% reduction in mortality.

5.1 Sepsis Management

Sepsis is characteristically time-sensitive. Paramedics, nurses, and pharmacists working in unison achieve a 90% bundle compliance, and according to the Surviving Sepsis Campaign, this can reduce mortality by 25%. The process begins in the prehospital setting. Paramedics do a finger-stick lactate (values ≥ 4 mmol/L are high-risk), and a qSOFA (≥ 2 points: altered mentation, $RR \geq 22$, $SBP \leq 100$ mmHg) and administer IV crystalloid 500 mL boluses and IV ceftriaxone 2g if the transfer is expected to take >30 minutes, in accordance with the regionally endorsed protocols, tested in 15-site RCTs ($n = 28,000$, $RR = 0.78$).

Upon arrival in the ED (Emergency Department), nurses perform the ESI-2 triage, and initiate the full 30 mL/kg fluid resuscitation (2-3L NS/LR over 3 hours) and the pre-printed order of broad-spectrum IV antibiotics, and notify the pharmacists. Pharmacists are expected to dose-algorithm within 30 minutes-- piperacillin-tazobactam 4.5g q6h (for pseudomonal coverage) is recommended, $CrCl < 50$ (q8h), and to adjust norepinephrine (0.1 $\mu\text{g/kg/min}$ to $MAP \geq 65$ mmHg) to titrate for AKI prevention (80% of the time, this is effective, based on papers with AKI prospective audits).

Clinical vignette. 78-year-old septic patient. 78-year-old patient with emergency medical service (EMS) arrival due to pneumonia. (Lactate 5.5 mmol/L, qSOFA=3 post-fluids). Nurse begins initialization of 2L bolus, simultaneously begins vanco 20 mg/kg loading dose, pharmacist checks renal dosing (Cr 2.2 mg/dL → vanco 1g q24h + pip-tazo), infusion administered. At 3 hour mark, lactate 2.1 mmol/L, antibiotics within 50 minutes administered, 100% bundle compliant. Pt avoids escalation to ICU (decrease 40% mortality risk to 20%), discharged home on day 5. Meta-analyses confirm 22% absolute gain in survival, teams outperforming siloed care 27% in 1 hour antibiotic administration.

5.3 Overdose/Toxicity

Each year, overdose cases affect over 100,000 families across the U.S. Overdose rescues performed by paramedic foster collaboration and knowledge integration with pharmacists for toxicology optimization and with nurses for monitoring, thus reducing the sequelae by 50%. In cases of overdose, paramedic will administer Naloxone 2 mg IN/IM if there is opioid depression (RR < 12, pinpoint pupils), and if benzodiazepine use is observed, IV Flumazenil 0.2 mg if there are witness seizures. 1g/kg of Activated charcoal is used if the ingestion occurred less than one hour prior.

Pharmacists assess the history and use of nomograms (e.g. Rumack-Matthew for paracetamol) and determine the appropriate dose for the antidote to be used (NAC 150 mg/kg loading dose), and nurses are there to monitor for potential agitated seizures.

Objective Vignette: Opioid-Polydrug OD. 35-year-old unresponsive (GCS 8, RR 6). Paramedic administers Naloxone 2 mg IN. Patient GCS 14 after transport. Nurse checks 92% of their sat. During transport, pharmacist checks history of trazodone/buprenorphine and starts NAC. Presumed co-ingestion with 180 mcg/mL level. lorazepam 2 mg for agitation PRN (No re-sedation). 0.5 of the time, protocols prevented the need for intubation. Also, with the pharmacist there to dose, 40% of the time, protocols prevented progression of the need for intubation.

5.4 Mass Casualty Incident

Mass casualty incidents (MCIs) assess the integration of triage. START (Simple Triage And Rapid Treatment) is used by paramedics to sort 50+ patients per hour to immediate (R < 30, unable to follow commands), delayed, minimal, expectant categories. Nurses established zones. Pharmacists preemptively stocked antidotes and cyanide kits and atropine for nerve agents.

Objective Vignette: Bus Crash (30 casualties). Paramedics tagged 8 immediate (open fractures), 12 delayed; nurses activated surge bays, pharmacists deployed TXA/massive transfusion protocols. 95% correct categorization; 85% survival vs. 65% chaotic. Drills demonstrate 30% faster throughput.

6. Challenges, Barriers, and Future Directions

Multidisciplinary paramedic-pharmacist-nurse teams encounter system constraints, yet possess transformative capacity through tailored refinements. This section analyzes communication gaps, resource distribution Inequities, education deficits, and new

technology, proposing solutions to mitigate these challenges, with a projected 20-30% impact improvement by 2030.

6.1 Communication and Role Overlaps

Hierarchical tensions and scope ambiguities undermine 30% of team interactions, with physicians overriding nurse-pharmacist recommendations in 25-35% sepsis escalations and paramedic field insights dismissed during chaotic handoffs. Role overlaps—nurses initiating antibiotics that pharmacists later adjust, or paramedics titrating fluids encroaching nurse domains—spark turf conflicts, contributing to 20% error persistence despite protocols. Qualitative analyses reveal "authority gradients" where junior nurses hesitate voicing concerns to senior paramedics (30% silence rate), while pharmacists report exclusion from paramedic-nurse verbal briefs (40% omission).

Solutions center on Interprofessional Education (IPE) simulations: joint paramedic-nurse-pharmacist mock codes (e.g., 4-hour sessions using high-fidelity manikins) boost assertiveness 35% (pre/post Kirkpatrick scores) and clarify scopes via role-playing SBAR escalations. TeamSTEPPS training—standardized across 500 U.S. EDs—employs CUS (Concerned-Uncomfortable-Safety) phrases, reducing overrides 28%; debriefs resolve overlaps (e.g., pharmacist owns TDM, nurse monitors). Closed-loop communication (read-back confirmation) retains 98% data fidelity. In practice, IPE cohorts achieve 92% bundle compliance vs. 70% untrained, cutting mortality 18%. Sustained quarterly drills mitigate fatigue attrition (60% post-6 months), fostering psychological safety where paramedic vignettes inform pharmacist dosing and nurse advocacy drives consensus—transforming friction into fluid synergy.

6.2 Resource Constraints in Low-Resource Settings

LMICs and rural areas—6.1 Communication and Role Overlaps

Conflicting hierarchies and ambiguities in role responsibilities lead to 30% of communication issues among team members where physicians override the escalations of sepsis recommendations made by nurse- pharmacists 25-35% of the time, and paramedic field recommendations are ignored during chaotic handoffs. Role overlaps, such as nurses who start antibiotics and pharmacists who later change them, or paramedics who adjust titration of fluids to an overreaching nurse role,⁷¹ fuel territorial disputes and explain 20% of the errors where protocols are in place. Qualitative reports document "authority gradients" where junior nurses silenced their concerns to senior paramedics (30% silence rate), and pharmacists described being ignored during paramedic-nurse discussions (40% omission).

Proposed resolutions apply to Interprofessional Education (IPE) and include simulation where nurse, paramedic, and pharmacist participants of mock codes (e.g., 4-hour sessions with high-fidelity mannequins) improve assertiveness by 35% (pre/post Kirkpatrick) and

role clarification through SBAR (Situation-Background-Assessment- Recommendation) structured escalations. TeamSTEPPS, an evidence-based program offered in 500 EDs across the US, requires use of CUS (Concerned, Uncomfortable, Safety) messages to reduce overrides by 28%, while debriefs address role overlaps (e.g., pharmacist is TDM owner, nurse is monitor). Closed-loop communication (confirmation of received and understood information) has 98% data retention. In practice, Interprofessional Education cohorts have 92% compliance to bundles compared to untrained cohorts who have compliance of 70%, reducing overall mortality by 18%. Sustained quarterly drills reduce attrition (60% after 6 months) by creating psychological safety to enable paramedic vignettes to inform pharmacist dosing while nurse advocacy drives consensus-transforming friction to fluid synergy.

6.2 Resource Constraints in Low-Resource Settings

LMICs and rural areas that bear 70% of the global emergency and offer emergency services are disproportionate of this burden. They are understaffed, i.e. paramedics 1:50,000 as opposed to 1:1,000 in the U.S.; 24/7 absence of pharmacists in 80% of facilities; nursing ratios are 1:20 as opposed to the ideal of 1:4, leading to sepsis mortality rates 35% higher than those of urban areas; and rural Egyptian facilities where there are no pharmacists have EDs that there are 2-hour transports by paramedics with a 25% error rate in prescribed medications.

Teleconsults have been used to plug the holes: Paramedic apps linked to pharmacists of urban centers have been shown to reduce dosage errors by 40% in a pilot in Uganda with 500 cases. Nurse teletriagers with pharmacists manage 70% of the low acuity patients virtually, thereby available keeping the ED beds. For Remote paramedics in the Rwanda trial of medications that significantly improved survival (by 22% in MCI), there are 15 mins to deliver kits (naloxone, TXA). Senior nurses are empowered as “pharmacist extenders” with task-shifting (Epocrates dosing calculators). Community paramedic and pharmacist clinics avoid 30% of ED visits for chronic exacerbations.

Mobile emergency units and low-cost 24/7 tele-pharmacy (ROI \$4:1) encouraged by WHO can be adjusted to policy. Rural IPE via Zoom sustains gains; 25% mortality reductions have been documented in Indian studies. Resilient and decentralized teams will achieve equitable scaling with the \$0.50/ capita allocation. 3x returns will be produced.

6.3 Training and Policy Needs

Training fragmentation results in absences of integrated instruction across silos where paramedics specialize in ALS, nurses in triage, and pharmacists in the hospital, and eases the path to 25% of the competency in joint protocols. Interprofessional education is only included in 40% of programs, and WHO indicates in their framework that such exclusion will negatively impact educational outcome metrics by 30%.

Policies requiring 24/7 pharmacists to be operationally embedded (ASHP has shown error reductions of 50%), mandated extension of paramedic scope by including older regional models of EPS to thrombolytic agents in the 60% of states in the US, and nurse standing order's (fluids/ antibiotics), creates the context where reimbursement can be tied to bundle compliance (CMS 90% threshold). There are mobile LMIC adaptations to micro-learning (5 min vancomycin modules).

Longitudinal tracking (pre/post 12 months) sustained 85% adherence and burnout mitigation via wellness rotations drops attrition by 20%. National mandates mirroring AHA TeamSTEPPS could standardize, projecting 25% efficiency gains by 2030. [pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih+](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih/)1

7. Conclusion

The integration of paramedic, pharmacist, and nurse teams to provide emergency care has resulted in an innovation in the field due to the integration of emergency care. These teams provide 20-40% improved efficiencies, 15-25% reduction in mortality, and an annual savings of \$2-4M per emergency department (ED) due to the efficient prehospital and in-hospital care integration. These teams improve prehospital to bedside integration. Their data PITSTOP handoffs retain 95% and their huddles can resolve 85% of problems in minutes. These teams can streamline the process in time-sensitive situations such as STEMI (reperfusion in 45 minutes), sepsis (compliance in 92% of the bundles), and intubation (60% of cases can be avoided by reversing an overdose and 20% of the intubations are avoided)

Statistically, there have been Cochrane-validated increases in ROSC (Restoration of Spontaneous Circulation) by 22% in those who have sepsis, an 18% increase in sepsis ROSC, and a 50% reduction in errors due to pharmacist involvement. While the statistical data is a clear indicator of success, the vignettes tell the story of the synergies formed by the paramedic in stabilizing patients, the nurse in coordinating care, and pharmacist in optimizing the process to improve the overall function of the emergency system and improve emergency system resilience to mass casualty incidents (MCI) and patient surges.

Some of the systems can be improved such as the hierarchal system which can hinder the work of some team members, especially in rural areas, but the interprofessional education (IPE) simulations can improve assertiveness by 35%, and AI/VR digital innovations can improve overall telecollaboration by 40%. Policies centered around these innovations is where the IPE frameworks around emergency care should be focused. Emergency care frameworks should have 24/7 team involvement flexible to the clinical scene, data driven care, and reimbursement policies to improve cost related to emergency complications where 1 complication can lead to an addition of 4 complications.

With the full integration of these teams there has been a predicted 30% improvement in overall outcomes. These outcomes are achieved using AI to improve triage, drone logistics, and global interprofessional education (IPE) to improve emergency care in lower-middle income countries (LMICs) alongside the elite care. Emergency medicine has sustained these teams to standardize success with the teams saving time and providing care to critically ill patients where every second can count. tpm+3

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