

Editorial

 Open Access CrossMark

Recovery from pediatric acquired brain injury: a guarded prognosis

Editorial

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is the leading cause of death or disability in children in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention).¹ The incidence of long-term disability after severe TBI is high, with over 60% of children requiring educational or community based supportive services 12 months post-injury. There is increasing evidence that the young child's brain may be particularly vulnerable to early trauma owing to both physiological and developmental factors.^{2,3} Research on pediatric brain injury suggests a more complex prognostic conceptualization process than occurs with adults. Specifically, while mild brain injuries are not usually associated with long-term neuropsychological deficits,² severe TBI's can result in a more complex recovery process than with adults and may affect subsequent cognitive development.⁴ Research suggests that later developing brain structures and functions (such as executive functions) may be particularly vulnerable for anomalous development and the impairments may not be obvious until the years following the brain injury.^{5,6} This potential outcome can complicate understanding the long-term implications of pediatric brain injury.

Injury to the immature brain in children may have a negative impact on cognitive skills that are either emerging or yet to reach maturity. The full development of later developing cognitive skills after an early life brain injury may be disrupted by various dynamic and persisting physiological processes.^{2,3,5,6} Greater injury severity has been identified as a reliable predictor of longer term impairment in physical, cognitive and educational domains. Various other variables including a combination of social disadvantage and severe injury have also been found to be detrimental to recovery.⁷ Other factors implicated in predicting outcome include younger age, or developmental level, at time of injury.^{8,9} More research is greatly needed regarding long-term prognostic factors.

Systemic and cerebral hemodynamic factors such as hypotension, hypoxia, hyperglycemia, and fever are associated with poor outcome in pediatric TBI. Similarly, cerebral autoregulation of cerebral blood flow is often impaired after TBI and may adversely affect outcome, especially if systemic hemodynamics are altered. Furthermore, carbon dioxide vasoreactivity may be altered after pediatric TBI and lead to either cerebral ischemia or hyperemia.¹⁰ Some of the relevant research shows greater early post injury autoregulation in children under age 4 compared to older children and this was associated with worse 12 month outcomes. Developmental changes in excitatory neurotransmission may render the young brain more susceptible to excitotoxic injury¹² and altered development. Enlarged ventricles and brain atrophy have been reported after pediatric TBI.^{13,14} Other findings include decreased growth of the corpus callosum in the years following severe pediatric TBI¹⁴ and other areas of brain volume loss.

Conclusions

In the context of moderate to severe TBI, there is evidence that subsequent cognitive development can be disrupted. Factors that

Volume 4 Issue 6 - 2016

Robert Perna

Clinical neuropsychologist, TIRR Memorial Hermann, USA

Correspondence: Robert Perna, RN, Ph.D. Clinical neuropsychologist, TIRR Memorial Hermann, Texas Medical Center Houston, 2450 Holcombe Blvd #1, Houston, TX 77021, USA, Tel 706-750-2572, Email dr.perna@juno.com

Received: June 16, 2016 | **Published:** June 24, 2016

may contribute to this situation include potential changes in cerebral hemodynamics, autoregulation, excitatory neurotransmission, and potential volumetric brain changes. Given the complexities of an accurate long-term prognosis in the context of pediatric TBI, it may be important for clinicians to recommend appropriate comprehensive follow up examination to monitor recovery and subsequent cognitive development.

Acknowledgments

None.

Conflicts of Interest

None.

References

1. Gertosio C, Meazza C, Pagani S, et al. Breast feeding: gamut of benefits. *Minerva Pediatr.* 2015;68(3):201–212.
2. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommendation for breast-feeding.
3. American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology, authors. Special Report from ACOG. Breastfeeding: maternal and infant aspects. *ACOG Clinical Review.* 2003;12(Suppl):1S–16S.
4. Gartner LM, Morton J, Lawrence RA, et al. Breastfeeding and the use of human milk. *Pediatrics.* 2005;115(2):496–506.
5. American Academy of Family Physicians, authors. *Breastfeeding, family physicians supporting (Position Paper).*
6. Peterson JA, Patton S, Hamosh M. Glycoproteins of the human milk fat globule in the protection of the breast-fed infant against infections. *Biol Neonate.* 1998;74(2):143–162.
7. Hamosh M. Protective function of proteins and lipids in human milk. *Biol Neonate.* 1998;74(2):163–176.
8. Bachrach VR, Schwarz E, Bachrach LR. Breastfeeding and the risk of hospitalization for respiratory disease in infancy: a meta-analysis. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 2003;157(3):237–243.

9. Chien PF, Howie PW. Breast milk and the risk of opportunistic infection in infancy in industrialized and non-industrialized settings. *Adv Nutr Res.* 2001;10:69–104.
10. Gdalevich M, Mimouni D, Mimouni M. Breast-feeding and the risk of bronchial asthma in childhood: a systematic review with meta-analysis of prospective studies. *J Pediatr.* 2001;139(2):261–266.
11. Kostraba JN, Cruickshanks KJ, Lawler-Heavner J, et al. Early exposure to cow's milk and solid foods in infancy, genetic predisposition, and risk of IDDM. *Diabetes.* 1993;42(2):288–295.
12. Kwan ML, Buffler PA, Abrams B, et al. Breast-feeding and the risk of childhood leukemia: a meta-analysis. *Public Health Rep.* 2004;119:521–535.
13. Ip S, Chung M, Raman G, et al. Breastfeeding and maternal and infant health outcomes in developed countries. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep).* 2007;153:1–186.
14. American Academy of Pediatrics Task Force on Sudden Infant Death Syndrome, authors. The changing concept of sudden infant death syndrome: diagnostic coding shifts, controversies regarding the sleeping environment, and new variables to consider in reducing risk. *Pediatrics.* 2009;116(5):1245–1255.
15. Horta BL, Bahl R, Martinés JC, et al. Evidence on the long-term effects of breastfeeding: systematic review and meta-analyses. *Geneva: World Health Organization.* 2007;1–57.
16. Kramer MS, Aboud F, Mironova E, et al. Breast-feeding and child cognitive development: new evidence from a large randomized trial. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2008;65(5):578–584.
17. Stuebe AM, Willet WC, Xue F, et al. Lactation and incidence of premenopausal breast cancer: a longitudinal study. *Arch Intern Med.* 2009;169(15):1364–1371.
18. Damforth KN, Tworoger SS, Hecht JL, et al. Breastfeeding and risk of ovarian cancer in two prospective cohorts. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2007;18(5):517–523.
19. Stuebe AM, Rich-Edwards JW. The reset hypothesis: lactation and maternal metabolism. *Am J Perinatol.* 2007;26(1):81–88.
20. Lawson K, Offer C, Watson J, et al. The economic benefits of increasing kangaroo skin-to-skin care and breastfeeding in neonatal units: analysis of a pragmatic intervention in clinical practice. *Int Breastfeed J.* 2007;10:11.
21. Sachdev HPS, Shah D. The WHO Reproductive Health Library. Geneva: World Health Organization. *Kangaroo mother care to reduce morbidity and mortality in low-birth-weight infants.* 2001.
22. Conde-Agudelo A, Diaz-Rosello JL, Belizan JM. Kangaroo mother care to reduce morbidity and mortality in low birthweight infants. *Cochrane Data Syst Rev.* 2011;3:CD002771.
23. Penn S. Overcoming the barriers to using kangaroo care in neonatal settings. *Nurs Child Young People.* 2015;27(5):22–27.
24. Johnston C, Campbell-Yeo M, Fernandes A, et al. Skin-to-skin care for procedural pain in neonates. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2014;1:CD008435.
25. Darzi A. *High quality care for all: NHS next stage review final report.* London: The Stationery Office. 2008.
26. Feldman R, Weller A, Sirota L, et al. Testing a family intervention hypothesis: the contribution of mother-infant skin-to-skin contact (kangaroo care) to family interaction, proximity, and touch. *J Fam Psychol.* 2003;17(1):94–107.
27. Charpak N, Ruiz-Pelaez JG, de Figueroa CZ, et al. A randomized, controlled trial of kangaroo mother care: results of follow-up at 1 year of corrected age. *Pediatrics.* 2001;108(5):1072–1079.