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New concepts in Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injuries

An Essay

Submitted for partial fulfillment of master degree in
Anesthesia

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مفاهيم جديدة فى إصابات الأطفال المخية

رسالة

توطئة للحصول على درجة الماجستير فى التخدير

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List of Abbreviations

ATLS	:	Advanced traumatic life support
ATP	:	Adenosine triphosphate
BBB	:	Blood brain barrier
CA	:	Calcium
CBC	:	Complete blood count
CBF	:	Cerebral blood flow
CHI	:	Closed head injury
CO ₂	:	Carbon dioxide
CPP	:	Cerebral perfusion pressure
CSF	:	Cerebrospinal fluid
CT	:	Computed tomography
CVP	:	Central venous pressure
CVR	:	Cerebrovascular resistance
DTR	:	Deep tendon reflex
ED	:	Emergency department
GCS	:	Glasgow coma scale
ICP	:	Intra cranial pressure
ICU	:	Intensive care unit
K	:	Potassium
LOS	:	Loss of consciousness
MABP	:	Mean arterial perfusion pressure
MBP	:	Myelin basic protein
NSE	:	Neuron specific enolase

O₂ : Oxygen
PHI : Penetrating head injury
Po₂ : Partial oxygen tension

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

TAI : Traumatic axonal injury
TBI : Traumatic brain injury
TNF : Tumor necrosis factor



Acknowledgement

*First, thanks are all due to **Allah** for Blessing this work until it has reached its end, as a part of his generous help throughout our life.*

*My profound thanks and deep appreciation to **Prof. Dr. Azza Youssef Ibrahim**, Professor of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for her great support and advice, her valuable remarks that gave me the confidence and encouragement to fulfill this work.*

*I am also thankful to **Assistant Prof. Dr. Ahmed Mohamed EL-Sayed EL-Hennawy** Assistant Professor of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for his valuable supervision, co-operation and direction that extended throughout this work.*

*I would like also to express my deep and special thanks to **Dr. Tamer Nabil Ibrahim Abdl EL-Rahman**, Lecturer of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University for his generous help, guidance and patience through all the stages of this work. This work could not have reached its goal without his help.*

*I am deeply grateful to **my mother and father** who directed and encouraged me during the preparation of this work.*



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List of Contents

	Page
Acknowledgement	--
List of Abbreviations	--
List of Tables	--
Introduction and Aim of The Work	1
Pathophysiology of Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injuries	
TBI.....	3
Assessment and monitoring of Pediatric trauma	31
Pediatric TBI Guidelines	45
Summary	67
References	70
Arabic Summary	--

List of Tables

Table	Subject	Page
1	Loss of consciousness model of assessing severity of TBI.	30
2	European Federation of Neurosurgeon scale.	30
3	Herniation Syndromes	32

الملخص بالعربية

الإصابات المخية الكلومية تؤدي إلى الوفاة بين الرضع و الأطفال. الغالبية من المصابين بالإصابات المخية من النوع البسيط و حوالى من (٨) إلى (١٠) ٪ يصنف بالمتوسط والشديد . والذين هم فى مرحلة البسيط يكون لديهم تحسن جيد بشرط أن تكون هناك قابلية لعلاج المضاعفات . معدل الوفاة فى هذه المجموعة حوالى (٠,١) ٪ وتكون مصحوبة بنزيف فى المخ.

الإصابات المخية الكلومية تقسم إلى فئتين بارزتين أولية وثانوية المرحلة الأولية هى نتيجة القوى الميكانيكية الأولية والتي تكون نتيجة إلتهاب أو اضطراب فى الأنسجة العصبية والوعائية. النسيج المحورى يكون أكثر حساسية للمصاب من النسيج الوعائى وعليه فإن الإصابة البؤرية تؤدي إلى إصابة عصبية منتشرة. وبالتالي فإن النتيجة الأولية للإصابة تتضمن تمزق فيزيائى لغشاء الخلية وكذلك البنية التحتية للأغشية المخية . وكذلك اضطراب فى الغشاء الأيوني الداخلى. نتيجة زيادة إنفاذية الغشاء. وقد يؤدي ذلك إلى تضخم الخلايا النجمية والعصبية ونقص انسياب الدم وكذلك تسبب تسلسل سمية الأعصاب بسبب زيادة الكالسيوم داخل الخلية. الاصابات الثانوية تعرف كمتابع للاحداث الفسيولوجية الناجمة عن الاصابة الاولية وهى مثل القصور الوظيفي الدموي (الأسكيميا) والإصابات الناتجة عن رجوع تدفق الدم للمخ وكذلك نقص الأكسجين بمناطق الأصابات الأولية . يجمع الإصابات المخية الكلومية ضغوط ميكانيكية لخلايا المخ بعمليات لعدم اتزان بين تدفق الدم بالمخ وعمليات الجسم وإزالة السموم وتكون الاستئقاء والإلتهابات .

تفاهم شأن تعدد الأبعاد للإصابة يطرح اختيارات أو احتمالات علاجية منظمة مثل علاج ضغوط المخ ، التنفس الصناعى والعلاج المفيد لتحسين امتصاص الأكسجين ولتقليل الضغط للمخ وتدخل العقاقير لتقليل السموم ونزع

السموم وتقليل الضغط الداخلى للمخ ومع ذلك عدم الاستنتاجية لنشأة المرض للفرد يتطلب منه تقييم ورصد وظائف مخ المصاب من أجل تشكيل أو تحديد العلاج طبقا للحالة الخاصة بالمريض.

برغم الأبحاث الكثيرة ، لا تزال المعلومات لأفضل التقنيات لمعالجة الإصابات المخية الكلومية قليلة . انخفاض ضغط الدم ، اختلال تركيز ثاني أكسيد الكربون بالدم وكذلك نسبة الجلوكوز بالدم لا تزال أضرار هامة من الواجب تجنبها ، وتكون مصحوبة بنتائج سيئة. الإدارة المنظمة تؤدي إلى نتائج محسنة في الالتزام بالعلاج المنظم.

الغالبية من الأطباء الملاحظون اعتبروا قواعد أساسية عامة للعلاج المبكر ؛ مثل الحفاظ على ضغط تدفق الدم للمخ بمعدلات كافية. وكذلك نسبة الأكسجين بالمخ ، وتجنب زيادة نسبة ثاني أكسيد الكربون بالدم أو قلتها ، وكذلك زيادة نسبة الجلوكوز بالدم أو قلتها.

تطور تكنولوجيا المراقبة مثل أجهزة مراقبة أنسجة المخ ، وكذلك الفحوصات المرئية في طريقها للتقدم ، وكذلك القدرة على معرفة الأحداث السلبية وعمليات تولد المرض. هذه التطورات تتيح المزيد من التدخلات العلاجية وإيجاد أنظمة علاجية وعلاجات مستهدفة فعالة. ربما تساعد أيضا في تنمية نظريات فعالة لإضافة أنظمة علاج استراتيجي أملا في تحقيق نسب تحسن أفضل للإصابات المخية الكلومية.

Introduction

Pediatric traumatic brain injury (TBI) is the leading cause of death in children over one year of age. Significant disability is frequent, and TBI often adversely impacts functional long-term outcome in children, even when the initial injury is mild (*Vavilala et al., 2009*).

Pediatric TBI is classified into: primary (immediate) and secondary. Immediate or primary brain injury results from the initial disruptive traumatic forces.

Secondary brain injury is due to hypoxemia, hypotension, and electrolyte abnormalities etc. involve an endogenous cascade of cellular and biochemical events in the brain that occurs within minutes and continues for months after the primary brain injury that lead to ongoing or “secondary” traumatic axonal injury (TAI) and neuronal cell damage (delayed brain injury) and ultimately, neuronal cell death (*Kochanek et al., 2008*).

The primary goal in the initial resuscitation and life support protocols management for pediatric patients following acute trauma, is to prevent or ameliorate factors that promote secondary brain injury (*Kissoon et al., 1990*).

Misdiagnosis and delayed recognition of TBI can frequently delay care and worsen outcome especially in TBI,

in which the history is often missing or inaccurate. Many recent biomarkers had been identified and they are primarily used as a prognostic rather than diagnostic tool such as: interleukin (IL)-6, intracellular adhesion molecule, IL-12, neuronal-specific enolase (NSE) (*Rainey et al., 2009*).

Pathophysiology of Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injuries TBI

The adequate management of pediatric traumatic brain injury (TBI) victim requires the clinician to consider and understand the unique pathophysiological changes that take place during trauma. The pathophysiology and location of pediatric injuries in trauma may significantly differ from those that commonly occur in the adult cases. In this chapter pathophysiological considerations during brain injury will be discussed (*Giza et al., 2006*).

I. Basic principles of cerebral blood flow and brain metabolism:

1- Cerebral hemodynamics :

(a) Anatomical and physiological considerations :

Cerebral blood flow is regulated by a number of factors, as arterial blood pressure, ICP, venous outflow, blood viscosity and PaCO_2 and PaO_2 . Each carotid artery contributes 40 % of the total cerebral perfusion, remaining 20 % coming from two vertebral arteries, which fuse to form basilar artery. The major fraction of venous blood draining from brain is collected in transverse sinuses which, together with the inferior petrosal sinuses, form the internal jugular veins. The

distribution of capillaries is functionally organized throughout. The central nervous system. The capillary density is an anatomical indicator of oxidative metabolism. Brain areas with high basal levels of glucose metabolism contain a high density of capillaries (*Zauner and Paul, 1997*).

(b) Cerebral perfusion pressure and cerebrovascular resistance:

The net driving force for the cerebral circulation is defined as the cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP), which is the mean arterial blood pressure (MABP) minus the cerebral venous pressure. If the pressure within the thin-walled cortical veins is equal to or less than the external (CSF) pressure, the veins may collapse. Under most circumstances, however, the pressure in these veins is slightly above extravascular, (that is intracranial pressure), in order to permit continuous flow. Because of the close relationship between cerebral venous pressure and ICP, CPP is generally defined as the difference between mean arterial pressure and ICP. In a normal brain, changes in CPP between 50 and 130 mmHg produce only minimal changes in CBF. A constant flow in this range of CPP is maintained by an increase or decrease in vascular resistance. Normal value of CPP (80 mmHg) is maintained by an increase or decrease in vascular resistance. Outside this range, cerebral vasodilatation or vasoconstriction cannot maintain a normal cerebral blood flow (CBF). Since $CPP = MABP - ICP$ and the

flow in general equals pressure / resistance ; so $CBF = CPP / CVR$ where CVR is cerebrovascular resistance (**Zauner and Paul, 1997**).

Since vascular resistance is inversely proportional to the fourth power of vessel diameter, change in cerebral vessel diameter will produce marked change in resistance (**Zauner and Paul, 1997**).

(c) Effects of hematocrit on CBF:

Blood viscosity is determined by factors, as erythrocyte size and concentration, shear rate, temperature, pH, plasma protein level and plasma lipid concentration. Clinical studies show an inverse relationship between CBF and hematocrit. (**Giller et al., 1993**).

2-Regulation of Cerebral blood flow:.

(a) Arterial gas tension and cerebral vasoreactivity:

Hypercapnia relaxes cerebrovascular smooth muscles, whereas hypocapnia produces vasoconstriction. An arterial $PaCO_2$ of 20–25 mmHg may reduce the CBF by 40–50%, and conversely an increase in PCO_2 over 50 mmHg increases CBF by more than 50%. Also, an increase in PaO_2 may lead to cerebral vasoconstriction and free radical formation. Changes in CBF are due to alterations in CO_2 occur almost immediately in healthy brain, but the response may be altered after head

injury. Carbon dioxide induces changes in the hydrogen ion concentration (modulating extracellular pH). Experimental studies have shown that HCO₃ solutions decrease CBF whereas low HCO₃ solutions increase CBF (*Giller et al., 1993*).

Certain pharmacological agents and therapeutic techniques influence cerebrovascular reactivity via changes in gas tension. The carbonic anhydrase inhibitor acetazolamide decreases extracellular brain pH at a constant arterial PCO₂, and increases normocapnic CBF. However this effect lasts only for a short time. Barbiturates depress cerebrovascular reactivity but the mechanisms involved are not well understood. Barbiturates lower both cerebral metabolism and CBF and may reduce CO₂ reactivity. In clinical studies, diminished CO₂ reactivity is associated with a worse prognosis. If vasoreactivity is preserved, patients with high ICP may respond to barbiturate therapy with further reduction in energy consumption and reduced CBF and volume. In these patients with preserved reactivity, prolonged hyperventilation may diminish brain oxygen delivery (*Giller et al., 1993*).

(b) Autoregulation and Cerebral blood flow:

The normal CBF remains constant despite changes in the systemic blood pressure and CPP. This is called autoregulation. The limits of autoregulation are not fixed and