# Treatment of severe traumatic brain injury in German pediatric intensive care units—a survey of current practice

A. P. Regensburger<sup>1</sup> · V. Konrad<sup>1</sup> · R. Trollmann<sup>1</sup> · I. Y. Eyüpoglu<sup>2</sup> · H. Huebner<sup>3</sup> · J. Zierk<sup>1</sup> · T. M. K. Völkl<sup>4</sup> · F. B. Fahlbusch<sup>1</sup>

#### Abstract

**Purpose** German pediatric guidelines for severe traumatic brain injury (TBI) management expired in 2011. Thus, divergent evidence-based institutional protocols are predominantly being followed. We performed a survey of current Pediatric Intensive Care Unit (PICU) management of isolated severe TBI in Germany to reveal potential varying practices.

**Methods** Seventy German PICUs were invited to join an anonymous online survey from February to May 2017. Twenty-nine participants (41.4%) successfully completed the survey (17 university hospitals and 12 district hospitals). The majority of items were polar (yes/no) or scaled (e.g., never - always). Main topics were imaging, neurosurgery, neuromonitoring, adjuvant therapy, and medication. Severity of TBI was defined via Glasgow Coma Scale.

**Results** The majority of respondents (93.1%) had internal TBI standards, and patients were mainly administered to interdisciplinary trauma units. The use of advanced neuromonitoring techniques, intracranial hypertension management, and drug treatment differed between PICUs. Routine administration of hypertonic saline in TBI-associated cerebral edema was performed by 3.4%, while it was never an option for 31.0% of the participants. Prophylactic anticonvulsive therapy was restrictively performed. If indicated, the main anticonvulsive drugs used were phenobarbital and levetiracetam. Neuroendocrine follow-up was recommended/performed by 58.6% of the PICUs.

**Conclusions** This survey provides an overview of the current PICU practices of isolated severe TBI management in Germany and demonstrates a wide instrumental and therapeutical range, revealing an unmet need for the revised national guideline and further (international) clinical trials for the treatment of severe TBI in pediatrics.

Keywords ICP · Neuromonitoring · Neuroimaging · Adjuvant therapy

Thomas M. K. Völkl and Fabian B. Fahlbusch contributed equally to this work.

A. P. Regensburger adrian.regensburger@uk-erlangen.de

- Department of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Friedrich-Alexander-University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Loschgestr. 15, 91054 Erlangen, Germany
- <sup>2</sup> Department of Neurosurgery, Friedrich-Alexander-University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Erlangen, Germany
- <sup>3</sup> Institute for Women's Healthcare (IFG), Erlangen, Germany; Department of Gynecology and Obstetrics, University Hospital Erlangen, Comprehensive Cancer Center Erlangen-EMN, Friedrich-Alexander-University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Erlangen, Germany
- <sup>4</sup> Department of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Josefinum Augsburg, Augsburg, Germany

# Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) significantly contributes to mortality and long-term morbidity in children and adolescents [1, 2]. Cases of severe TBI are recorded in the trauma register of the German Society of Trauma Surgery (TraumaRegister® DGU). In 2009, DGU data [3] showed that ~290,000 (~ 16%) of ~1,800,000 children, aged 0–19 years, were hospitalized after trauma, of those ~134.000 (47%) because of TBI. While hospitalization rates decreased in the age group of 5– 19 years, an increase of 29% in infants and of 10% in young children (1–4 years) was observed since the beginning of the millennium [3, 4]. In general, TBI was noted in 83.3% (< 1 year), 63.1% (1–4 years), 41.8% (5–14 years), and 33.3% (15–19 years) of all pediatric trauma patients [3]. Fortunately, mortality rates for severe TBI in children are decreasing [5]. However, the overall age-adjusted mortality rate for TBI in Germany remains at 8.3 per 100,000 [6] and up to 20.9% in severe TBI in pediatrics [7]. It has been shown that stringent adherence to pediatric guidelines during the first 72 h after TBI significantly improves the survival rate at the time of discharge and increases the chance of favorable neurological outcome [8]. Unfortunately, the last German pediatric guideline for the acute medical management of severe TBI has expired in 2011 and is currently under revision, at least until 2020 [9]. The guideline was created by an expert panel (societies of pediatric critical care medicine/-surgery/-neurology-/ radiology and societies of adult neurosurgery/-trauma surgery/ -neuroradiology/-anesthesiology/-critical care medicine). In short, the following recommendations for in-hospital treatment were given based on evidence levels II-III [9]: Initial interdisciplinary management should be implemented. Cranial computed tomography (cCT) was suggested as the imaging gold standard, obligatory in cases of coma, prolonged loss of consciousness, focal neurologic deficit, and suspected skull fracture. Further examination with EEG and sonography was recommended, whereas the use of magnet resonance imaging (MRI) was considered optional. Intracranial pressure (ICP) monitoring was perceived as valuable but restricted by the possible side effect of intracerebral hemorrhage [10]. Cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP) was recommended to be above 40 mmHg and below 70 mmHg. In cases of increased ICP osmodiuretics (mannitol), hyperventilation, 30° positioning of upper body, and sedation were recommended. The potential use of hypertonic saline and barbiturates was mentioned, yet remained unrated. A highly restrictive use of adjuvant corticosteroids was suggested [9] based on reports of elevated 14-day mortality [11]. Further, no specific prophylactic anticonvulsive treatment was recommended. Moreover, rehabilitation should be considered in any case [9].

The revised North American Guidelines for the Acute Medical Management of Severe Traumatic Brain Injury in Infants, Children, and Adolescents from 2012 [12] were based on expert panels, alike, and a great need for pediatric level I and II recommendations became apparent [13]. Compared to the German guideline, additional level II and III recommendations to be considered were (i) treatment of ICP at a threshold of 20 mmHg; (ii) hypertonic saline for the treatment of elevated ICP; (iii) etomidate, thiopental, and high-dose barbiturates in cases of intracranial hypertension; (iv) avoidance of early hypothermia (32-33 °C for 24 h); and (v) prophylactic treatment with phenytoin to reduce the incidence of early posttraumatic seizures (PTS). In the meantime (since 2011/12), international experience and evidence-based recommendations on, e.g., brain edema management [14], neuromonitoring, and anticonvulsive treatment [15, 16], and early surgical interventions [17, 18] have been reported, presumably having a significant impact on current practice in pediatric TBI management. Especially results from the ADAPT trial (approaches and decisions for acute pediatric TBI), an observational cohort study aiming to develop new level II recommendations, addressing intracranial hypertension management, basic aspects of neurocritical care, nutritional support and glucose management, are promising but currently mainly pending [7, 13].

To investigate current pediatric management practices of severe TBI in Germany, a survey-based investigation was conducted to investigate how treatment protocols have evolved 7 years after the establishment of the last guideline.

# **Materials and methods**

Seventy German Pediatric Intensive Care Units (PICUs) were invited to join an anonymous online survey (eQuestionnaire ®, www.equestionnaire.de) from February to May 2017. PICUs were chosen based on their university status and registry at the association of pediatric directors (Verband Leitender Kinderund Jugendärzte und Kinderchirurgen Deutschland, http:// www.vlkkd.de/de/Delegierte/, accessed 01/2017). PICUassociated trauma centers were of mixed levels (I and II), including free-standing children's hospitals and university medical centers. Twenty-nine participants (17 University hospitals and 12 district hospitals) completed the survey successfully (response rate of 41.4%). The majority of items were polar (yes/no) or scaled (e.g. never - always). The following terms were used to summarize findings: marginally (never-rarely), infrequently (rarely-sometimes), occasionally (sometimes-often), and strongly (often-always). Severity of TBI was defined via Glasgow Coma Scale [19], with mild TBI-GCS 13-15, moderate TBI-GCS 9–12, and severe TBI-GCS < 9.

#### **Statistical analysis**

Percental distribution of given answers was calculated. Missing data was excluded from analysis. Where percentage values are given in this manuscript, this reflects a proportion of those that actively responded to the question and not of the total number of participants in the survey. Data analysis was performed with MS Office Professional Plus 2010 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA, USA) and GraphPad Prism (Vers.7 and newer, GraphPad Software Inc., CA, USA).

#### Results

## General aspects and interdisciplinary treatment

Of the participating clinics, 93.1% reported following of internal TBI standards. Pediatric patients with severe TBI were mainly (93.1%) administered to the interdisciplinary trauma unit or in some cases (20.7%) directly to the adjacent PICU, where interdisciplinary bedside rounds were further performed by 100% (69.0% daily) after the initial care.

## Neuroimaging

At admission, an obligatory indication for cranial cerebral computed tomography (cCT) of severe TBI (GCS < 9) was seen by 82.8%, while only by 37.9% and 0.0% in moderate (GCS 9–12) and mild TBI (GCS 13–15), respectively. However, cCT was uniformly performed in children with prolonged loss of consciousness (55.2%) and focal neurologic deficits (65.5%) such as paresthesia, cranial nerve damage, and convulsions (data not shown). Indication for re-cCT was strongly based on patient dynamics (neurological findings, ICP dynamics) or surgical decision-making and never automatically implemented (Fig. 1a).

#### **Decompressive craniectomy and ICP measurement**

Almost all of our respondents (25/29) strongly used invasive ICP measurement in severe TBI management mainly via external ventricular drainage and intraventricular/-parenchymal probes. Invasive ICP measurement was initiated by both neurosurgery and PICU. ICP-/CPP-based decision-making was commonly used by participating PICUs who favored intensification of therapy at ICP > 20 mmHg and the use of age-specific CPP ranges (generally > 40 mmHg), with a certain tolerance regarding acuteness of therapy adjustment. The main indication for decompressive craniectomy was therapy-refractory ICP increase, mostly based on current imaging data (Fig. 1b).

#### Neuromonitoring

With regard to advanced neuromonitoring techniques, a strong use of cerebral (Doppler-) sonography and EEG (conventional multichannel EEG, multichannel aEEG or 2–4 channel cerebral function monitoring, CFM) was reported by 72.4% and 93.1% of participants, respectively (Fig. 2a). EEG was preferably used as a short-term surveillance method, both as multichannel and aEEG setup (data not shown).

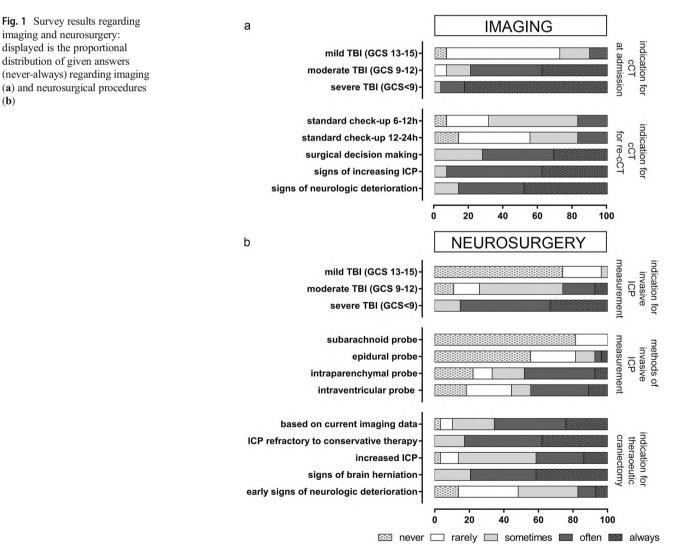
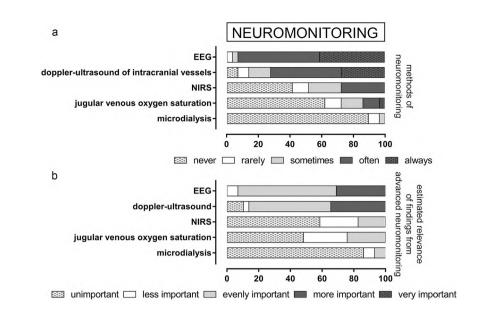


Fig. 2 Survey results regarding neuromonitoring: displayed is the proportional distribution of given answers (never-always) regarding different neuromonitoring methods (**a**) and given answers (unimportant-very important) for the estimated relevance of the methods (**b**)



Commonly (>90%), the relevance of findings retrieved by these methods was rated as most relevant among all techniques used. In general, only the users of the less common neuromonitoring practices (microdialysis and jugular venous oxygen saturation) rated the respective results as clinically relevant. In line with this finding, (Doppler-) ultrasound findings were rated clinically irrelevant by the minority of participants (n = 3) who mostly did not use the technique themselves. There was a dichotomy between the use of noninvasive near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) and its estimated diagnostic value. Among the frequent NIRS users (48.3%), 50.0% rated the results of this method as clinically less important or unimportant (Fig. 2b).

# **Adjuvant ICP therapy**

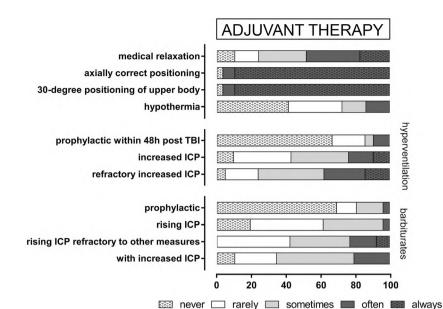
For adjuvant therapy, the majority of respondents strongly (96.6%) used 30-degree positioning of upper body and axially correct positioning. Both techniques were never used by 3.4%. Adjuvant muscle relaxants were infrequently (41.4%) to strongly (48.3%) required. Use of prophylactic hyperventilation was neglected (85.7%), with normocapnia (pCO<sub>2</sub> 35-45 mmHg) as the therapeutic goal. Short intermittent hyperventilation was exceptionally used in case of acute ICP increase or therapy-refractory elevation of ICP. The pursued pCO<sub>2</sub> target range was mainly between 35 and 45 mmHg (data not shown). None of the respondents routinely monitored cerebral oxygenation during hyperventilation. Use of hypothermia following severe TBI was never performed by 41.4% of PICUs. The majority (31.0%) of the remaining respondents (n = 17) rarely performed hypothermia at variable target temperatures: 17.6% aimed at 32-33 °C, 41.2% at 33-34 °C, and 41.2% at 35–36 °C (Fig. 3).

# Management of medication

Results on management of medication indicated that continuous perfusion of muscle relaxants was used more frequently than bolus therapy. The majority favored continuous midazolam treatment for sedation. We observed variable preferences regarding the use and application of clonidine, thiopental, and propofol. All participants reported the use of mannitol to some extend in the therapy of severe pediatric TBI at varying regimens. Routine administration of hypertonic saline was performed by 3.4% while never an option in 31.0% of the participants. Consequently, saline dosage (55.0% applied NaCl 3%, 25.0% NaCl 5.85%, 15.0% NaCl 7-10%, and 5.0% NaCl 20%, respectively) and administration varied largely. Serum osmolarity was recognized as relevant for saline treatment by all participants. However, less than 50% of PICUs reported occasional to routine consideration of this information for their clinical decision-making. Dexamethasone administration was strongly reported in cerebral edema (33.3%) and increasing ICP (33.3%) but not routinely in the treatment regimen of severe TBI (Fig. 4).

## Anticonvulsive therapy

Prophylactic anticonvulsive therapy (Fig. 2b) was performed "never to infrequently". Antiepileptic drugs were strongly used in patients with suspected seizures associated with pathologic EEG findings (96.6%), clinically diagnosed seizure activity (72.4%), and, to a lesser extent in cases with pathologic EEG without clinical signs of seizure activity (48.2%). Anticonvulsive drugs of choice were phenobarbital (62.1% occasional use, 10.3% always) and levetiracetam (75.9% occasional use, 13.8% always), with lower relevance of phenytoin, diazepam, and clonazepam (Fig. 4). Fig. 3 Survey results regarding adjuvant therapy: displayed is the proportional distribution of given answers (never-always) regarding adjuvant therapy



## Aftercare

All participating PICUs were involved in the organization of early rehabilitation and neuropediatric aftercare. Neuroendocrine follow-up was recommended/performed by 58.6% of the PICUs (data not shown).

#### Discussion

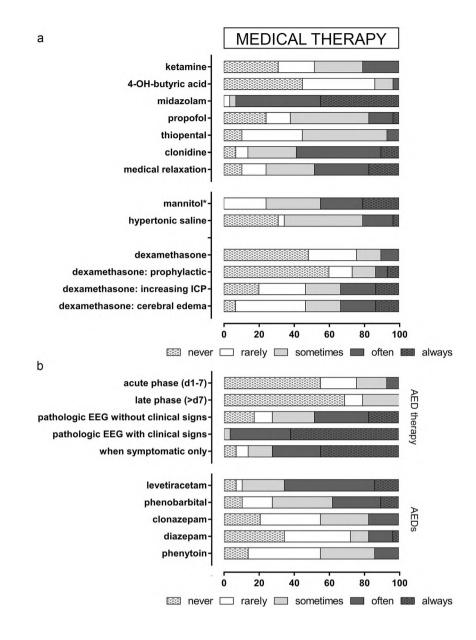
Our survey showed that most of the German PICUs have implemented a local protocol for the treatment of severe TBI (93.1%), conceivably to compensate for the expired German national guideline. However, these individual protocols only partly followed evidence-based regimens and varied largely among each other. Noteworthy, the adherence to evidencebased treatment protocols showed a relation to discharge survival and favorable neurological outcome [8].

While indication for initial cCT in severe TBI was undisputed, routine cCT in mild to moderate TBI was not routinely performed, even with former guideline indications, like skull fracture. In cases of optional indications, like strong headache, cCT was occasionally avoided, most likely for radiation hygiene. This could be of special interest, as the risk of leukemia seems highest for head CTs in children below the age of 5 [20], which also represents the age at which TBI makes up for ~50% of all pediatric traumas [3].

Almost all PICUs used invasive ICP measurement in severe TBI management, but also occasionally in mild TBI. A case-related view would have been interesting for a further evaluation of these indications in mild and moderate TBI. Although, no ICP threshold was recommended by the German guidelines, all participants favored a threshold of 20 mmHg. The target CCP ranged from 40 to over 60 mmHg, with a trend to a range of 50–60 mmHg, which is in line with the former German guidelines [9], but exceeds the recommendation of the US guidelines (40–50 mmHg, [12]).

Our study further showed that the relevance of the individual advanced neuromonitoring methods is rated highest by their users. Doppler ultrasound and EEG were the most trusted and most frequently used methods. The application of NIRS in severe pediatric TBI seems indicated as reduced PbtO2 is associated with poor outcome [21, 22]. Interestingly, we found that although NIRS monitoring was frequently applied to pediatric head trauma patients, the clinical relevance of NIRS was somewhat disregarded by a large percentage of its users. This might be due to (i) the limited number of publications regarding the use of PbtO2 in children with TBI, (ii) the spatial limitation of PbtO<sub>2</sub> in the assessment of global brain oxygenation [23], (iii) the complex relationship between ICP and PbtO<sub>2</sub> [24], and (iv) the paucity of studies on significant effects on outcome parameters. Thus, further studies are needed for clarification.

In addition, a lack of standardized anticonvulsive treatment guidelines (in Germany and the USA) leads to substantial variations in anticonvulsants and continuous EEG monitoring implementation in severe TBI, as recently shown in the *Approaches and Decisions in Acute Pediatric TBI trial* [15]. In our survey, the participating PICUs did not perform routine early anticonvulsive prophylaxis of PTS. Formerly, phenytoin was recommended as medication of choice [9, 12], which was ubiquitously reported to be rarely used by German PICUs of our survey in the management of severe TBI. It is worth mentioning that levetiracetam might serve as a reasonable alternative. Preference of levetiracetam over phenytoin was also Fig. 4 Survey results regarding medical therapy: AED = antiepileptic drugs, \* repeated bolus scheme; Displayed is the proportional distribution of given answers (never-always) regarding general medical therapy (**a**) and anticonvulsive treatment in detail (**b**)



observed by others in children [15] and in adults [16], alike. The underlying factors were recently discussed by Kurz et al. [15] and encompass the availability of intravenous application, little side effects, and minimal medication interactions. Moreover, children suffering from severe TBI may have markedly altered protein binding capacity and phenytoin metabolism [25]. However, supporting evidence regarding the efficacy of levetiracetam as a PTS agent is limited [26], with only a limited number of pediatric studies [27]. In addition, the effect of levetiracetam on TBI long-term outcome remains elusive so far, although results from rodent models and small human studies seem promising [28, 29].

Treatment of high ICP mainly followed the expired German guideline using mannitol, sedation, 30° positioning of upper body, restricted hyperventilation, and very restricted hypothermia (see *Cool kids trial*, [30]). Recent pediatric studies [8, 31] indicate that high-dose barbiturates could be beneficial in the absence of hypotension for refractory high ICP treatment. This option was only infrequently used by our respondents, maybe, because of restricted recommendation by the former German guideline. Inexplicably, dexamethasone remains a treatment option for several participants in contrast to present recommendations [9, 11, 12]. The use of decompressive craniectomy is controversially discussed [32, 33] but commonly performed by our participants. To further lower high ICP, mannitol was used more readily, when compared to hypertonic saline. The preference of mannitol over hypertonic saline might be related to the longer experience with the drug [23] and recommendation in the former German national guideline. Furthermore, while the blood-brain barrier is nearly impermeable to both mannitol and sodium,

each medication has its unique advantages [23]. There is no data to support the superiority of one over the other in severe pediatric TBI. Similarly, a recent meta-analysis of the literature showed that there is heterogeneity with regard to which agent is most efficacious in adults [14]. Nonetheless, hypertonic saline has recently been gaining favor for hyperosmolar therapy in pediatric TBI with signs and symptoms of herniation [23] and is already recommended (level II) in the American guideline [12].

All PICUs initiated neurological rehabilitation, a field that has evolved rapidly over the last two decades [34]. Two thirds of the respondents considered (neuro-)endocrine follow-up. Neuroendocrine derangements following TBI, i.e., posttraumatic hypopituitarism, have received increasing recognition in recent years due to their potential contribution to adverse TBI outcome [35]. Alterations of the hypothalamopituitary axis have been documented in the acute phase of TBI (mostly transient, gonadotropins > vasopressin > growth hormone > corticotrophin) and post-acute phase (mostly permanent, 25% of TBI survivors, [35]). Thus, acute identification of these TBI-associated dysregulations by PICU physicians and initiation of follow-up could help to minimize longterm adverse consequences of untreated hypopituitarism.

Our study is limited by the low response rate (41.4%), although not uncommon in web-based surveys [36] and German ICU surveys [37]. The transferability of the statements is further limited by the potential differences between survey-reported practices and actual management. It has to be noted that the focus of our study was on isolated severe TBI, while in reality, this entity is strongly associated with other injuries, i.e., part of polytrauma management. However, the present data gives an overview of current (2017) practices in pediatric intensive care management of severe traumatic brain injury in Germany and reveals an unmet need for the revised national guideline for treatment of severe TBI in pediatrics. Further national and international clinical trials (e.g., ADAPT trial) are needed to facilitate the revision of the existing guidelines, especially regarding the medical treatment of cerebral edema (i.e., mannitol versus hypertonic saline), implementation of advanced neuromonitoring techniques, and the role and choice of medical prophylaxis for PTS.

Acknowledgements We thank all participants who committed their time and effort. We thank Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Wolfgang Rascher for supporting this study. Data acquisition was performed by Valerie Konrad in fulfillment of the requirements for obtaining the degree "Dr. med." at the Friedrich-Alexander-University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Dept. of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Germany.

Financial support Departmental funds only.

## **Compliance with ethical standards**

Conflict of interest We declare no competing interests.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

# References

- Zaloshnja E, Miller T, Langlois JA, Selassie AW (2008) Prevalence of long-term disability from traumatic brain injury in the civilian population of the United States, 2005. J Head Trauma Rehabil 23: 394–400
- Coronado VG, Xu L, Basavaraju SV, McGuire LC, Wald MM, Faul MD et al (2011) Surveillance for traumatic brain injury-related deaths—United States, 1997-2007. MMWR Surveill Summ 60:1–32
- Kipfmueller F, Wyen H, Borgman MA, Spinella PC, Wirth S, Maegele M (2013) Epidemiology, risk stratification and outcome of severe pediatric trauma. Klin Padiatr 225:34–40
- Elsässer G (2011) Unfälle, Gewalt, Selbstverletzung bei Kindem und Jugendlichen. Ergebnisse der amtlichen Statistik zum Verletzungsgeschehen 2009. Statistisches Bundesamt, Wiesbaden (https://www.destatis.de/)
- Steudel WI, Cortbus F, Schwerdtfeger K (2005) Epidemiology and prevention of fatal head injuries in Germany—trends and the impact of the reunification. Acta Neurochir 147:231–242 discussion 242
- Majdan M, Plancikova D, Brazinova A, Rusnak M, Nieboer D, Feigin V, Maas A (2016) Epidemiology of traumatic brain injuries in Europe: a cross-sectional analysis. Lancet Public Health 1:e76–e83
- Sarnaik A, Ferguson NM, O'Meara AMI, Agrawal S, Deep A, Buttram S et al (2018) Age and mortality in pediatric severe traumatic brain injury: results from an international study. Neurocrit Care 28:302–313
- Vavilala MS, Kernic MA, Wang J, Kannan N, Mink RB, Wainwright MS, Groner JI, Bell MJ, Giza CC, Zatzick DF, Ellenbogen RG, Boyle LN, Mitchell PH, Rivara FP, Pediatric Guideline Adherence and Outcomes Study (2014) Acute care clinical indicators associated with discharge outcomes in children with severe traumatic brain injury. Crit Care Med 42:2258–2266
- AWMF Guideline (13.02.2011) Register-ID: 024/018 Schädel-Hirn-Trauma im Kindesalter (https://www.awmf.org)
- Blaha M, Lazar D, Winn RH, Ghatan S (2003) Hemorrhagic complications of intracranial pressure monitors in children. Pediatr Neurosurg 39:27–31
- Roberts I, Yates D, Sandercock P, Farrell B, Wasserberg J, Lomas G, Cottingham R, Svoboda P, Brayley N, Mazairac G, Laloë V, Muñoz-Sánchez A, Arango M, Hartzenberg B, Khamis H, Yutthakasemsunt S, Komolafe E, Olldashi F, Yadav Y, Murillo-Cabezas F, Shakur H, Edwards P, CRASH trial collaborators (2004) Effect of intravenous corticosteroids on death within 14 days in 10008 adults with clinically significant head injury (MRC CRASH trial): randomised placebo-controlled trial. Lancet 364: 1321–1328
- 12. Kochanek PM, Carney N, Adelson PD, Ashwal S, Bell MJ, Bratton S et al (2012) Guidelines for the acute medical management of severe traumatic brain injury in infants, children, and adolescents—second edition. Pediatric Crit Care Med : a journal of the Society of Critical Care Medicine and the World Federation of Pediatric Intensive and Critical Care Societies 13(Suppl 1):S1–S82
- Bell MJ, Adelson PD, Wisniewski SR, Investigators of the AS (2017) Challenges and opportunities for pediatric severe TBIreview of the evidence and exploring a way forward. Child's Nerv Syst: ChNS : official journal of the International Society for Pediatric Neurosurgery 33:1663–1667
- Boone MD, Oren-Grinberg A, Robinson TM, Chen CC, Kasper EM (2015) Mannitol or hypertonic saline in the setting of traumatic brain injury: what have we learned? Surg Neurol Int 6:177

- 15. Kurz JE, Poloyac SM, Abend NS, Fabio A, Bell MJ, Wainwright MS, Investigators for the Approaches and Decisions in Acute Pediatric TBI Trial (2016) Variation in anticonvulsant selection and electroencephalographic monitoring following severe traumatic brain injury in children-understanding resource availability in sites participating in a comparative effectiveness study. Pediatric Crit Care Med : a journal of the Society of Critical Care Medicine and the World Federation of Pediatric Intensive and Critical Care Societies 17:649–657
- Kruer RM, Harris LH, Goodwin H, Kornbluth J, Thomas KP, Slater LA et al (2013) Changing trends in the use of seizure prophylaxis after traumatic brain injury: a shift from phenytoin to levetiracetam. J Crit Care 28(883):e889–e813
- Vella MA, Crandall ML, Patel MB (2017) Acute management of traumatic brain injury. Surg Clin North Am 97:1015–1030
- Bor-Seng-Shu E, Figueiredo EG, Amorim RL, Teixeira MJ, Valbuza JS, de Oliveira MM et al (2012) Decompressive craniectomy: a meta-analysis of influences on intracranial pressure and cerebral perfusion pressure in the treatment of traumatic brain injury. J Neurosurg 117:589–596
- Teasdale G, Jennett B (1974) Assessment of coma and impaired consciousness a practical scale. Lancet 2:81–84
- Miglioretti DL, Johnson E, Williams A, Greenlee RT, Weinmann S, Solberg LI, Feigelson HS, Roblin D, Flynn MJ, Vanneman N, Smith-Bindman R (2013) The use of computed tomography in pediatrics and the associated radiation exposure and estimated cancer risk. JAMA Pediatr 167:700–707
- Narotam PK, Burjonrappa SC, Raynor SC, Rao M, Taylon C (2006) Cerebral oxygenation in major pediatric trauma: its relevance to trauma severity and outcome. J Pediatr Surg 41:505–513
- 22. Schrieff-Elson LE, Thomas KG, Rohlwink UK, Figaji AA (2015) Low brain oxygenation and differences in neuropsychological outcomes following severe pediatric TBI. Child's Nerv Syst : ChNS : official journal of the International Society for Pediatric Neurosurgery 31:2257–2268
- Huh JW, Raghupathi R (2009) New concepts in treatment of pediatric traumatic brain injury. Anesthesiol Clin 27:213–240
- Stiefel MF, Udoetuk JD, Storm PB, Sutton LN, Kim H, Dominguez TE, Helfaer MA, Huh JW (2006) Brain tissue oxygen monitoring in pediatric patients with severe traumatic brain injury. J Neurosurg 105:281–286
- Stowe CD, Lee KR, Storgion SA, Phelps SJ (2000) Altered phenytoin pharmacokinetics in children with severe, acute traumatic brain injury. J Clin Pharmacol 40:1452–1461
- Torbic H, Forni AA, Anger KE, Degrado JR, Greenwood BC (2013) Use of antiepileptics for seizure prophylaxis after traumatic brain injury. Am J Health Syst Pharm 70:759–766

- Bansal S, Blalock D, Kebede T, Dean NP, Carpenter JL (2014) Levetiracetam versus (fos)phenytoin for seizure prophylaxis in pediatric patients with intracranial hemorrhage. J Neurosurg Pediatr 13:209–215
- Zou H, Brayer SW, Hurwitz M, Niyonkuru C, Fowler LE, Wagner AK (2013) Neuroprotective, neuroplastic, and neurobehavioral effects of daily treatment with levetiracetam in experimental traumatic brain injury. Neurorehabil Neural Repair 27:878–888
- Szaflarski JP, Sangha KS, Lindsell CJ, Shutter LA (2010) Prospective, randomized, single-blinded comparative trial of intravenous levetiracetam versus phenytoin for seizure prophylaxis. Neurocrit Care 12:165–172
- 30. Adelson PD, Wisniewski SR, Beca J, Brown SD, Bell M, Muizelaar JP, Okada P, Beers SR, Balasubramani GK, Hirtz D, Paediatric Traumatic Brain Injury Consortium (2013) Comparison of hypothermia and normothermia after severe traumatic brain injury in children (cool kids): a phase 3, randomised controlled trial. The Lancet Neurology 12:546–553
- 31. Mellion SA, Bennett KS, Ellsworth GL, Moore K, Riva-Cambrin J, Metzger RR, Bratton SL (2013) High-dose barbiturates for refractory intracranial hypertension in children with severe traumatic brain injury. Pediatric Crit Care Med : a journal of the Society of Critical Care Medicine and the World Federation of Pediatric Intensive and Critical Care Societies 14:239–247
- 32. Weintraub D, Williams BJ, Jane J Jr (2012) Decompressive craniectomy in pediatric traumatic brain injury: a review of the literature. NeuroRehabilitation 30:219–223
- Rutigliano D, Egnor MR, Priebe CJ, McCormack JE, Strong N, Scriven RJ et al (2006) Decompressive craniectomy in pediatric patients with traumatic brain injury with intractable elevated intracranial pressure. J Pediatr Surg 41:83–87 discussion 83-87
- 34. Ylvisaker M, Adelson PD, Braga LW, Burnett SM, Glang A, Feeney T, Moore W, Rumney P, Todis B (2005) Rehabilitation and ongoing support after pediatric TBI: twenty years of progress. J Head Trauma Rehabil 20:95–109
- Behan LA, Phillips J, Thompson CJ, Agha A (2008) Neuroendocrine disorders after traumatic brain injury. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 79:753–759
- Reinisch JF, Yu DC, Li WY (2016) Getting a valid survey response from 662 plastic surgeons in the 21st century. Ann Plast Surg 76:3–5
- Bakhru RN, McWilliams DJ, Wiebe DJ, Spuhler VJ, Schweickert WD (2016) Intensive care unit structure variation and implications for early mobilization practices. An international survey. Ann Am Thorac Soc 13:1527–1537