SCALP LACERATION: A POPULATION BASED ANALYSIS AMONG THE URHOBOS IN DELTA STATE, NIGERIA

Anibor Ese¹, Mabiaku Yvonne Osaretin², Jones-Dibie Brenmound^{1*}, Igoh Richard¹

¹Department of Human Anatomy and Cell Biology, Faculty of Basic Medical Sciences, College of Health Sciences, Delta State University, P.M.B.1, Abraka, Nigeria. ²Department of Surgery, Delta State University Teaching Hospital, Oghara, Nigeria

*Corresponding Author: -

jonesdibiebrenmound@gmail.com

Abstract: -

Following a traumatic event, head damage is the main cause of mortality and morbidity. This inquiry established the preponderance of Scalp Laceration among the Urhobo population in Delta State, Nigeria. The study adopted a cross sectional study scheme. The study sample comprised of male and female individuals who are from the Urhobo ethnic group. This scrutiny was carried out in Abraka, Eku and Warri in Delta State, Nigeria. The sample size for this study is 384 and the cluster sampling technique was used to select the sample for the study. The required data was collected with the aid of a well-structured self-administered questionnaire. The results were analysed by means of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.0. Results were presented in frequency distributions, pie charts and cross-tabulation. Chi-square gaged significant differences at a confidence level of 95% while p < or = 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. The occipital region of the scalp was shown to be the most recurrent site of scalp laceration.

Keywords: Scalp, Laceration, Urhobos, Delta, State, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

Head injury is the prime cause of death and morbidity following a traumatic event (Saxena *et al.*, 2018). Due to advancements in prehospital treatment, resuscitation, and neurologic critical care units, the health system has seen a significant improvement in head injury outcomes in recent years (Lu *et al.*, 2015). The health-care system in the developing world, on the other hand, has not improved considerably. As a result, in certain climates, death from preventable and often trivial causes, such as scalp laceration, is widespread. Scalp laceration can present with a profuse loss of blood due to the scalp's well-vascularized supply, yet this fact is sometimes overlooked (Turnage *et al.*, 2010).

Head injury, particularly scalp laceration, is a key public health concern that causes disability in young people, lays large demands on health systems, and results in deaths. Epidemiological data is needed to perform appropriate preventative measures and arrange for needed services. Statistics derived from routinely collected data, on the other hand, are tough to come by (Jennett *et al.*, 2016). Head injuries with scalp lacerations account for one-quarter to one-third of all accidental deaths and two-thirds of trauma induced deaths, according to research (Brookes *et al.*, 2020).

Injury severity levels used for trauma in general have been shown to be particularly inaccurate when it comes to brain injuries. Despite the fact that non-admitted patients account for a large extent of the hospital's head injury cases, there are no routine statistics for accident and emergency departments (Roberts *et al.*, 2017). Around half of all accident and emergency room visitors have a scalp laceration, and 15% show symptoms of brain injury, despite just 2% having a skull fracture (Teasdale *et al.*, 2014).

Scalp lacerations are common injuries encountered in many head trauma patients who arrive at the hospital. Scalp lacerations are often minor injuries that do not warrant hospitalization or blood transfusion (Hamilton *et al.*, 2015). The implications of an untreated or badly managed scalp laceration resulting in significant blood loss are exceedingly dangerous, with a high fatality rate in hospitals and emergency rooms, especially within 24 hours after the accident. While it's common knowledge that scalp lacerations can cause substantial bleeding, it's less common knowledge that tiny scalp lacerations can cause death (Ritchie *et al.*, 2019).

Though, scalp laceration is common worldwide and is the main etiology of mortality following head trauma, few studies have been conducted and no studies have revealed its prevalence among the Urhobo population in Delta State, Nigeria. This study established the predominance of Scalp Laceration among the Urhobo population in Delta State, Nigeria. This study divulged useful information about the occurrence and complications of scalp laceration which will help the government to proffer possible solutions to reduce its occurrence and complications. In addition, the current study disclosed data beneficial to the medical field; and this data will also serve as a guide for future studies.

Materials and Methods

Ethical clearance was gotten from the Research and Ethics Committee of Human Anatomy Department, Delta State University, Abraka in Nigeria. The study adopted a cross sectional study stratagem. The study sample comprised of male and female individuals who are from the Urhobo ethnic group. This inquiry was carried out in Abraka, Eku and Warri in Delta State, Nigeria.

The sample size for this study is 384 and the cluster sampling technique was used to select the sample for the study. The required data was collected with the aid of a well-structured self-administered questionnaire. The results were analyzed by means of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.0. The descriptive statistics was calculated; findings were presented in frequency distributions, pie chart, bar charts and cross-tabulation. Chi-square gaged significant differences between variables at a confidence level of 95% while p = 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Results



Figure 1: Gender distribution in the studied populace.

Figure 1 represents the gender dispersal of the study folks with male subjects having the highest number (50.4%).



Figure 2: Age distribution in the studied masses.

Figure 2 shows the age scattering of the study populace with 21-25 years age group having the highest number of subjects (31.4%), followed by 16-20 years group (26.5%), 26-30 years group (21.8%), 31-35 years group (16.6%), and 36-40 years group (3.6%).



Figure 3: Causes of scalp laceration

Figure 3 shows that the most repeatedly recorded cause of scalp laceration is road traffic accident (35.8%), followed by assault (32.5%), and fall (31.7%).









Figure 5 represents the source of the knowledge of scalp laceration. Exactly 30.6% subjects responded that they got to know about scalp laceration from Online/Internet, 25.2% from the Hospital, 21.3% from School, 13.2% from the Chemist, and 9.6% from Friend/Family.



Figure 6: Sites of scalp lacerated.

Figure 6 illustrates that the occipital region of the scalp is lacerated in almost half of the cases (45.1%).



Figure 7: Treatment of scalp laceration.

Figure 7 shows that 50% of respondents were treated with surgical staples, 25.6% of respondents were sutured and 24.4% had hair apposition done for them.

Table 1: Knowledge and awareness of scalp laceration

| Knowledge and awareness of scalp laceration | Frequency (%) | | | |
|---|---------------|------------|--|--|
| | Yes | No | | |
| Have you ever heard of scalp laceration? | 145 (37.7) | 240 (62.3) | | |
| Have you experienced scalp laceration? | 82 (21.3) | 303 (78.7) | | |

Table 1 shows the awareness of scalp laceration. Precisely 145 (37.7%) respondents had previously heard about scalp laceration while 240 (62.3%) respondents had not. Also, 82 (21.3%) respondents had experienced scalp laceration while 303 (78.7%) respondents had not at the time of the study.

| Period of scalp laceration | | Frequency (%) |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Month scalp lacerated | December | 19 (23.2) |
| | January | 11 (13.4) |
| | July | 4 (4.9) |
| | March | 19 (23.2) |
| | November | 18 (22.0) |
| | September | 11 (13.4) |
| Year scalp lacerated | 2010 | 17 (20.7) |
| | 2016 | 21 (25.6) |
| | 2019 | 16 (19.5) |
| | 2020 | 28 (34.1) |
| Total | | 82 (100.0) |

Table 2: Distribution of the month and year of scalp laceration

In table 2, results show that December and the year 2020 had the highest cases of scalp laceration with values of 19 (23.2%) and 28 (34.1%) respectively. Others include January 11 (13.4%), March 19 (23.2%), July 4 (4.9%), September 11 (13.4%), and November 18 (22%). Ranging from the least, year 2019 has 16 (19.5%), 2016 has 21 (25.6%) and 2010 was with 17 (20.7%).

Table 3: Complications of scalp laceration

| Complications of scalp laceration | Frequency (%) |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|
| | |
| Bleeding | 18 (22.0) |
| Fracture | 19 (23.2) |
| Itching around lacerated part | 24 (29.3) |
| Pain around lacerated part | 21 (25.6) |
| Total | 82 (100.0) |

Table 3 shows the complications of scalp laceration. It was observed that most respondents developed itching around the lacerated part with a figure of 24 (29.6%). The other complications including bleeding, fracture of the skull, and pain are of about the same frequencies of 18 (22.0%), 19 (23.2%), and 21 (25.6%) respectively.

| Table 4: 0 | Chi-square | test of | association | between | gender a | and ex | perience | of scalp | laceration |
|------------|------------|---------|-------------|---------|----------|--------|----------|----------|------------|
| | | | | | 0 | | 1 | | |

| Experience of scalp laceration | | Male | Female | Chi- square | df | p-value |
|---|-----|------------|------------|----------------|----|---------|
| Have you ever experienced scalp laceration? | Yes | 29 (7.5) | 53 (13.8) | 9.480 | 1 | 0.002 |
| | No | 165 (42.9) | 138 (35.3) | | | |
| Total | | 194 (50.4) | 191 (49.6) | | | |

Table 4 shows the association between gender and the experience of scalp laceration. It shows that there is a statistically significant association between the gender of the respondents and their experience of scalp laceration, (p=0.002).

| I ADIE J. CHI-SUUALE LESL ULASSOCIALIUN DELWEEN APE ANU EXDELIENCE ULSCAD IACELALIUN |
|--|
|--|

| Experience of scalp laceration | | 16-20 years | 21-25 years | 26-30 years | 31-35 years | 36-40 years | Chi- square | Df | p- value |
|---|-----|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|
| Have you ever experienced scalp laceration? | Yes | 32 (8.3) | 20 (5.2) | 17 (4.4) | 11 (2.9) | 2 (0.5) | 8.930 | 4 | 0.063 |
| | No | 70 (18.2) | 101 (26.2) | 67 (17.4) | 53 (13.8) | 14 (1.7) | | | |
| Total | | 102 (26.5) | 121 (31.4) | 84 (21.8) | 64 (16.6) | 14 (3.6) | | | |

Table 5 reveals that there is no significant link between the age of the respondents and their experience of scalp laceration, (p = 0.063).

Table 6: Chi-square test of association between gender and site of scalp lacerated

| Site of scalp lacerated | Female | Male | Chi-square | Df | p-value |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|------------|----|---------|
| Frontal part | 9 (11.0) | 12 (14.6) | 3.068 | 4 | 0.547 |
| Occipital part | 12 (14.6) | 25 (30.5) | | | |
| Parietal part | 1 (1.2) | 7 (8.5) | | | |
| Spheniod part | 2 (2.4) | 2 (2.4) | | | |
| Temporal part | 5 (6.1) | 7 (8.5) | | | |
| Total | 29 (35.4) | 53 (64.6)` | _ | | |

In table 6, results show association between the gender of the respondents and sites of laceration and it was noted that there is no significant association between gender and site of the scalp lacerated, (p=0.547).

|--|

| Site of scalp lacerated | 16-20 years | 21-25 years | 26-30 years | 31-35 years | 36-40 years | Chi- square | df | p-value |
|----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----|---------|
| Frontal part | 11 (13.4) | 5 (6.1) | 5 (6.1) | - | - | 21.862 | 16 | 0.148 |
| Occipital part | 12 (14.6) | 9 (11.0) | 6 (7.3) | 8 (9.8) | 2 (2.4) | | | |
| Parietal part | 5 (6.1) | - | 3 (3.7) | - | - | | | |
| Spheniod part | 1 (1.2) | 3 (3.7) | - | - | - | | | |
| Temporal part | 3 (3.7) | 3 (3.7) | 3 (3.7) | 3 (3.7) | - | | | |
| Total | 32 (39.0) | 20 (24.4) | 17 (20.7) | 11 (13.4) | 2 (2.4) | | | |

Table 7 shows the association between the age of the respondents and the site of scalp laceration. Results show that there is no significant relationship between age and the scalp site lacerated, (p=0.148).

| Causes of laceration | scalp Male Frequency | Female (percentage) | Chi-square | df | p-value |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------|----|---------|
| Assaults | 13 (15.9) | 12 (14.6) | 2.691 | 2 | 0.260 |
| Fall | 14 (17.1) | 7 (8.5) | | | |
| Traffic accident | 26 (31.7) | 10 (12.2) | | | |
| Total | 29 (35.4) | 53 (64.6) | | | |

Table 8: Chi-square test of association between gender and causes of scaln laceration

Results in table 8 reveal the association between gender and causes of scalp laceration. There is no significant association between gender and causes of scalp laceration.

| Causes of scalp | 16-20 | 21-25 | 26-30 | 31-35 | 36-40 | Chi- | Df | р- |
|------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|--------|----|-------|
| laceration | years | years | years | years | years | square | | value |
| Assaults | 9 (11.0) | 5 (6.1) | 4 (4.9) | 6 (7.3) | 1 (1.2) | 5.799 | 8 | 0.670 |
| Fall | 7 (8.5) | 6 (7.3) | 5 (6.1) | 3 (3.7) | - | | | |
| Traffic accident | 16 (19.5) | 9 (11.0) | 8 (9.8) | 2 (2.4) | 1 (1.2) | | | |
| T-4-1 | 22 (20.0) | 20(24.4) | 17 (20.7) | 11 (12 4) | 2 (2 4) | | | |

Table 9 shows the association between age and the causes of scalp laceration. It shows that there is no significant relationship between age and the causes of scalp laceration.

| Fable <u>1</u> | <u>0: Chi-square test of asso</u> Causes of scalp laceration | <u>ciation between o</u> Drivers | <u>eccupation and cause</u> Self Employed | <u>es of scalp lacera</u> Chi-square | <u>tion</u> df | p-value |
|----------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|-------------------|---------|
| _ | Assaults | 13 (15.9) | 12 (14.6) | 2.691 | 2 | 0.0460 |
| | Fall | 14 (17.1) | 7 (8.5) | | | |
| | Traffic accident | 26 (31.7) | 10 (12.2) | | | |
| _ | Total | 29 (35.4) | 53 (64.6) | | | |

Table 10 shows the association between occupation and the causes of scalp laceration. There is a significant relationship between occupation and the causes of scalp laceration.

Discussion

Scalp lacerations are common injuries found in the skulls of injured patients. In the vast majority of cases, the injuries are mild and do not warrant hospitalization or blood transfusion. Treatments include suturing using appropriate suture materials, surgical staples, or more complex scalp clips. If overlooked or managed poorly, scalp lacerations can result in severe blood loss. As a result, patients' clinical status may deteriorate, especially during inter-hospital transfers (Okamoto et al., 2011).

The outcomes of this enquiry demonstrated no link between respondents' age and the causes of scalp laceration. This is similar to a study published by Hoyt et al., (2018), who found that the causes of scalp laceration were unrelated to age.

One probable explanation is that the frequent causes of scalp laceration affect people of all ages. The current study found a link vis-à-vis gender and the frequency of scalp laceration, similar to a study conducted in Iraq by Smith (2019). The male gender was more susceptible than the female gender in this indexed study. It's possible

that this is owed to the fact that males are more naturally engaged in and exposed to harmful activities that could result in scalp laceration. Jacob (2018) conducted a study that confirmed that the male gender is more prone to injuries owing to the nature of their work.

In this study, it was discovered that there was a substantial link between respondents' occupations and the causes of scalp laceration, with drivers having the largest number of scalp laceration instances due to road traffic accidents. This is because drivers spend the majority of their time on highways, thus they are more vulnerable to road traffic accidents that might result in scalp laceration. This conclusion was backed up by a study that revealed that road transport drivers suffer from scalp lacerations on a regular basis, usually due to traffic accidents (Jacob, 2018).

The occipital portion of the scalp was shown to be the **frequent** site of scalp laceration in this investigation. This could be owed to the lack of a defensive mechanism in the posterior half of the body, in contrast to the anterior part, where the hands can readily support and shield the head from harm or minimize the effect of a force on the head. This is in contrast to a study conducted in India, which found that the most prevalent site of scalp laceration was the frontal part of the scalp (Morris and Okonkwo, 2018).

Surgical staples were found to be the most commonly used treatment for scalp lacerations in this study. The reason for this could be that the majority of scalp lacerations in the study sample were mild and non-fatal. This contradicts the findings of a study that found fatal and life-threatening scalp injuries (Graham *et al.*, 2019). This current finding could be owed to transporters'/drivers' devotion to the government's policy on safety measures in the country's road transportation sector.

Conclusion

The occipital region of the scalp was shown to be the most **recurrent** site of scalp laceration. Surgical staples were found to be the most commonly used treatment for scalp lacerations.



REFERENCES

- [1] Adams J.H., Doyle D.H., Ford I.A. (2019). Diffuse axonal injury in head injury: definition, diagnosis and grading. Histopathology, 1(5): 49-55.
- [2] Adeleye A.O., Ogun M.I. (2017). Clinical Epidemiology of head injury from road-traffic trauma in a developing country in the current era, Frontal Neurology, 8(9): 695.
- [3] Brookes M.J., MacMillan A.R., Cully S.C. (2020). Head injuries in accident and emergency departments. How different are children from adults? Journal of Epidemiology in Community Health, 4(4): 147-151.
- [4] Coskey J.W., Rosnaugh R.P., Fine G. (2016). Lipedematous scalp. Archaelogic Dermatology, 8(4):619-622.
- [5] Graham D.I., Ford C.I., Adams J.H. (2019) Fatal head injury in children. Journal of Clinical Pathology, 4(2): 18-22.
- [6] Hamilton J.R., Sunter J.P., Cooper P.N. (2015). Fatal hemorrhage from simple lacerations of the scalp, Forensic Science Medical Pathology. 4(9): 267-272.
- [7] Hoyt D.B., Bulger E.M., Knudson M.M. (2018). Death in the operating room: an analysis of a multi-center experience, Journal of Trauma, 3(7): 426-432.
- [8] Jacob I.K. (2018). Pattern of referrals of head injury to the University College Hospital Ibadan. Annals of Ibadan Postgraduate of Medicine, 1(5): 34-40.
- [9] Jennett B. (2016). Epidemiology of head injury. Journal of Neurology and Neurosurgery Psychiatry, 8(6): 362-369.
- [10] Jennett W.B., Murray F.A., MacMillan R.F. (2017). Head injuries in Scottish hospitals. Scottish head injury management study. Lancet, 2(13): 696.
- [11] Kelly J.P., Rosenberg J.H. (2016). Diagnosis and management of concussion in sports. Neurology; 4(8): 575-580.
- [12] Kirolles S., Haikal F.A., Saadeh F.A. (2012). Fascial layers of the scalp: a study of 48 cadaveric dissections. Surgical Radiologic Anatomy; 1(4): 331-333.
- [13] Knize D.M. (2018). Reassessment of the coronal incision and subgaleal dissection for foreheadplasty. Plastic Reconstructive Surgery; 1(2): 478-489.
- [14] Kraus J.F., Black M.A., Hessol Y.N. (2014). The incidence of acute brain injury and serious impairment in a defined population. American Journal of Epidemiology, 1(19): 186-201.
- [15] Lloyd D.A., Carty R.H., Patterson M.O. (2017) Predictive role of skull radiography for intracranial injury in children with blunt head injury. Lancet, 34(9): 821-824.
- [16] Lu, J.H., Marmarou F.A., Choi R.S., Maas K.A., Murray M.G., Steyerberg E.W. (2015). Mortality from traumatic brain injury, Acta Neurochirurgica Supplement, 2(6): 281-285.
- [17] Malomo T.A., Oyemolade T.A., Adeleye A.O. (2018) Determinants of timing of presentation of neurotrauma patients to a neurosurgical center in a developing country, Journal of Neuroscience of the Rural Practice, 9(12): 545-550.
- [18] McDermott F., Love J., Brazenor G. (2016). The effectiveness of bicycle helmets in a study of 1710 casualties. Journal of Trauma, 3(4): 834-845.
- [19] Montgomery R.L. (2019). Head and Neck Anatomy with Clinical Correlations. Journal of Medicine. 8(9): 123-130.
- [20] Morris H.J., Okonkwo D.O. (2018) Inter-hospital transfer for neurosurgical management of mild head injury in a developing country: a needless use of scarce resources? Indian Journal Neurotraumalogy, 8(9): 1–6.
- [21] O'Brien C.J., Uren R.F., Thompson J.F. (2019). Prediction of potential metastatic sites in cutaneous head and neck melanoma using lymphoscintigraphy. American Journal of Surgery, 1(7): 461–466.
- [22] Okamoto K., Ito J., Tokiguchi S. Abraham P. (2011). MRI in essential primary cutis verticis gyrata. Neuroradiology, 4(3): 841–844.
- [23] Orrison W.W., Moore K.R. (2010) Neuroimaging and head trauma. Neuroimaging and Head Trauma, 7(9): 885–915.
- [24] Ritchie A.J., Rocke L.G. (2019). Staples versus sutures in the closure of scalp wounds: a prospective double blind, randomized trial, Injury, 2(9): 217–218.
- [25] Roberts I., Di-Guiseppi C. (2017). Children in cars. British Medical Journal 3(14): 392.
- [26] Saxena, M.K., Saddichha S.P., Pandey O.V., Rahman A.I. (2018), Prehospital determinants of outcome in traumatic brain injury: experiences from first comprehensive integrated pre-hospital care providers in India: GVK—EMRI experience, Indian Journal of Neurotrauma 7(12): 129–133.
- [27] Seery G.E. (2012). Surgical anatomy of the scalp. Dermatology of Surgery; 2(8): 581–587.
- [28] Sharples P.M., Storey J.A., Aynsley-Green P.O. (2018). Causes of fatal childhood accidents involving head injury in northern region 1979–86. British Medical Journal, 3(1): 1193–1197.
- [29] Teasdale G., Jennett B. (2014) Assessment of coma and impaired causes: a practical scale. Lancet, 2(5): 81–84.
- [30] Turnage B.K., Maull K.I. (2010). Scalp laceration: an obvious "occult" cause of shock, Southern Medical Journal, 93 (3): 265–266.
- [31] Yager J.V., Johnston B.J., Seishia S.S. (2018). Coma scales in pediatric practice. American Journal of Disease Children, 14(4): 1088–1091.