



INFORMATION PAPER

MCMR-DCV
09 December 2014

SUBJECT: Multiple Traumatic Brain Injury / Multiple Concussion

BLUF: Prior history of traumatic brain injury (TBI) may predispose an individual to increased risk of subsequent TBI, which may result from less force, and lengthier recovery from postinjury symptoms. Activities such as contact sports and military service carry particular risk for multiple TBI. In addition to acute postinjury difficulties, cumulative TBI may increase the risk of chronic cognitive and functional impairment. Conservative management of postinjury symptoms as part of a medically monitored, progressive plan for returning to activities is recommended for individuals with a history of TBI. In the military, progressive return to activity guidelines govern the treatment course in cases of multiple TBI, and mandate restrictions to activities that carry risk of subsequent injury. In sports, return-to-play guidelines have been developed to minimize injured athletes' exposure to repeat TBI.

1. Introduction

Approximately 1.7 million brain injuries that result in hospital treatment or death occur in the U.S. every year.¹ Estimates indicate that at least as many additional TBIs are treated in outpatient settings, or not at all.¹⁻³ The term "multiple TBI" is applicable to TBI of any severity sustained by an individual who has a prior history of TBI. However, since the majority of TBI is mild in severity (75%),⁴ most instances of multiple TBI result from mild TBI (mTBI), which is characterized by an acute postinjury confused or disoriented state lasting up to approximately 24 hours and structural brain imaging (conventional MRI or CT scan) yielding normal results.⁵

Accordingly, multiple TBI is most often considered in the context of populations with routine exposure to repetitive mTBI risk – notably, athletes and military service members (SMs). An estimated 82% of TBIs sustained by SMs are mTBI, and most occur in the non-deployed setting.⁶ However, during the past decade of combat operations in Afghanistan and Iraq, members of the U.S. Armed Forces have sustained multiple mTBIs that have resulted from combat and combat support activities, including exposure to explosive blasts, the pathophysiological complexities of which have yet to be fully understood.^{7,8}

By contrast, the body of accumulated research knowledge regarding TBI in sport –at least 90% of which is mTBI⁹ and typically referred to as "concussion"—is much more extensive. Consequently, over the past few decades, misconceptions have given way to better appreciation of the potential deleterious effects of multiple concussion in sport,

both in the short and the long term.¹⁰ This is evidenced by the fact that terms such as “dinged” and “getting one’s bell rung”, once commonly used to refer to mTBI, are now discouraged as connoting a benign occurrence that trivializes the injury.¹¹ Concerns about the potential cumulative effects of concussion have resulted in more conservative management of sports injuries and more restrictive return-to-play guidelines in recent years.¹² Still, contact sports at all age levels are enormously popular in the United States and internationally, and hard-hitting action in sport remains an intrinsic part of the entertainment spectacle as well as the culture of play. According to helmet accelerometer data, a high school football player may experience more than 500 head impacts during a single season; a college player may experience twice as many.¹³⁻¹⁵ The incidence of sport-related mTBI has increased over the past several decades,¹⁶ a trend that most likely reflects improvements in case detection due to more careful management of sports injuries, as well as increased participation in sports and physical recreational activities.⁹

In addition to SMs and athletes, individuals who may be at particular risk of multiple TBI or concussion include those with medical conditions such as seizure disorders,^{17,18} those exposed to violence or who undertake high-risk behaviors, and those who are susceptible to falls, particularly the elderly.^{19,20}

Ascertaining prior history of TBI is often a challenge for both patients and clinicians. Hospital-based research has shown that individuals who have experienced an mTBI are often unaware that they have sustained a brain injury.²¹ Studies in sports have found that athletes may not recognize previous injuries as TBIs,²² and may be reluctant to report injuries to medical personnel.²³ Medical students and residents have demonstrated incomplete knowledge about mTBI diagnosis and management, as well.²⁴ Since medical treatment is often not sought for mTBI, medical documentation of previous TBI may be unavailable, or present an incomplete picture of TBI history. Self-report via structured interview has been suggested as the “gold standard” for ascertaining TBI history,²⁵ and numerous TBI screening instruments have been developed for use in sports settings, in the military, and for a variety of specific populations including mental health, pediatric, and geriatric.²⁶

2. Neurophysiology of Multiple mTBI

The physical forces that cause mTBI initiate a process of neurometabolic changes that alter cerebral physiology, and may result in axonal impairment and cell death.²⁷ Multiple mTBI may inhibit the recovery of cerebellar white matter, which could contribute to patterns of white matter changes that have been associated with the development of long-term cognitive deficits.²⁸ Despite the absence of diagnosed mTBI, white matter injury has been observed in hockey and football players²⁹ and military SMs exposed to a primary blast force but no acute TBI symptoms,³⁰ however, factors such as previous injury and comorbid posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may be confounders.³¹

3. Multiple Concussion in Sport

As many as 3.8 million concussions occur annually in sport and recreation alone.² For this reason, most research to date on repetitive TBI has focused on sports, particularly those with traditionally high rates of TBI, and where person-to-person contact features prominently, such as football, boxing, hockey, soccer, and rugby.^{12,32-36} Younger individuals may be particularly susceptible to sport-related mTBI⁹ and related sequelae,^{37,38} adding to concerns about young athletes returning to play before the acute TBI symptoms have resolved, and being at risk for re-injury.³⁹ The term “second impact syndrome” has been coined to describe a rare but catastrophic reported phenomenon in which a TBI, followed by a subsequent TBI prior to full symptomatic recovery, may initiate cerebral swelling and brain herniation that results in death within hours or minutes.⁴⁰⁻⁴² The term and the existence of a definitive syndrome are regarded as controversial by some, due to lack of clinical evidence.^{43,44} Nonetheless, increased susceptibility to future concussive injuries⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ that may be more severe⁴⁸ and to subsequent injuries resulting from less forceful head impacts⁴⁹ has been observed among athletes with a history of previous mTBI. A period of increased susceptibility to subsequent TBI has been supported in animal studies as well.⁵⁰

Postconcussion symptoms include a range of cognitive, somatic/sensory, vestibular, and/or emotional postinjury complaints^{51,52} that resolve within 7 to 10 days following mTBI in the majority of cases.⁵³⁻⁵⁶ However, approximately 10% of concussed athletes may have postconcussion symptoms that persist for more than one to two weeks following the injury.^{57,68} While risk factors such as age⁵³ and sex⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ have been associated with symptom recovery time and risk of subsequent concussion, research in sport-related TBI points to history of previous mTBI as the most important factor influencing outcome.^{45,48,62,63} History of two or more concussions has been associated both with a greater number of symptoms and slower recovery of symptoms,⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷ notably headache^{45,68,69} and fatigue.⁷⁰ Acute neurocognitive effects, such as performance deficits in memory, processing speed, and new learning have been observed in athletes who sustained multiple TBIs in a number of investigations.^{38,61,64,70-74} However, other studies have found no evidence of differences between athletes with a history of previous mTBI and control groups.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸ These apparent discrepancies may be reconciled in part by acknowledging the limitations of cognitive assessment; in the case of negative findings, cumulative effects of repetitive head injuries may have been present, but too small to be detectable by neurocognitive batteries used for management of mTBI. A positive history of mTBI may or may not result in measurable, clinically meaningful cognitive deficits for the individual patient following an mTBI. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the athlete’s physician and coaching staff to make recommendations regarding future exposure to mTBI risk with the individual in mind.

Subconcussive impacts, or head impacts below the threshold to elicit signs of concussion, have been found to result in neurometabolic changes in the brain, even in the absence of positive findings using traditional neuroimaging methods, such as CT and MRI.⁷⁹ However, findings regarding cognitive deficits following subconcussive impacts have also been mixed, with some studies finding evidence of short-term

cognitive impairments in the absence of a diagnosable mTBI,⁸⁰ and others finding no measurable effect.^{81,82}

4. Multiple TBI in the Military – Blast Exposure

Decades of study of mTBI in sports have informed the assessment, diagnosis, treatment, and recovery expectations of repetitive sport-related TBI. However, less is known about the specific effects of repetitive TBI due to non-sport causes. Of particular relevance to military personnel are multiple blast-related injuries, of which the majority are mTBI.⁸³ Explosive blast – usually the result of improvised explosive device (IED) detonation – is the most common agent of battlefield injuries.⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶ The blast wave resulting from an explosion is the main component of primary blast injury, consisting of a front of high pressure that compresses the surrounding air, immediately followed by negative pressure or suction that creates a high-velocity blast wind traveling directly behind the front of the blast wave.^{87,88} Using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), white matter abnormalities have been found in soldiers exposed to primary blast forces, both with and without diagnosed mTBI,³⁰ and in blast-exposed soldiers with no known head impact.⁸⁹ In addition to blast wave effects, head impact is a common consequence of blast injury. Primary blast wave effects are typically accompanied by secondary blast effects caused by articles and debris propelled by the blast force, and tertiary blast effects caused by the body impacting with other objects (e.g., being thrown against a wall, the ground, or a motor vehicle), any of which may result in TBI.^{7,90}

It is unclear how primary blast wave mechanisms may differ from the acceleration-deceleration forces of sports injuries, or whether multiple low-level blast exposures can lead to persisting sequelae.⁹¹⁻⁹³ Problems such as depression and PTSD have been found to be more prevalent in blast-injured SMs than non-blast injured SMs;^{90,94} however, it is unclear whether multiple blasts have a cumulative effect. One study found that postinjury symptoms increased with the number of blast exposures,⁹⁵ while another did not.⁹⁴ Comorbid conditions such as depression and PTSD are important factors influencing symptom experience after blast-related TBI,^{94,96} and complicate determining whether repeated blast exposure causes structural brain damage or functional impairments.^{93,97} Further research is needed to identify the mechanisms of blast injury and to determine the potential cumulative effects of repetitive blast-related TBI on postinjury sequelae and neuropathological changes.

Service members injured during support of Operation Enduring Freedom/Operation Iraqi Freedom are more likely to have sustained multiple TBI than those not injured in battle.⁸⁶ One postdeployment study found that 17% of service members reported an mTBI (blast and non-blast) during their previous deployment, with 59% of these individuals reporting more than one mTBI.⁹⁸ Among deployed military personnel, multiple TBI has been associated with increased postconcussion symptomatology,^{8,95,99} sleep disturbance,¹⁰⁰ headache,⁹⁸ depression and PTSD,^{8,99} and anxiety.⁸ A particularly troubling finding is the potential for increased suicide risk among service members with multiple TBI: a study of deployed soldiers found that 21.7% of those with multiple TBI

reported lifetime suicidal thoughts or behaviors, compared with 6.9% of soldiers with a single TBI, and 0% of soldiers with no history of TBI, after controlling for depression, PTSD, and TBI symptom severity.⁹⁹

While TBI sustained during deployment is a pressing concern, over 80% of TBIs diagnosed in military SMs occur in non-deployed settings.⁶ Active duty and reserve SMs are at greater risk of TBI than their civilian counterparts,¹⁰¹ and many military SMs have sustained mTBI prior to military service.¹⁰² Therefore, multiple TBI in the military must be considered outside of the deployment arena as well. A study of non-combat injured military personnel found that individuals who sustained TBI and had a previous history of one or more additional TBIs reported significantly more symptoms during the first 3 months postinjury compared to individuals who had not previously sustained TBI.¹⁰³ This supports findings in sport TBI literature that recovery from TBI may be complicated or delayed in individuals with a history of prior traumatic brain injury.

5. Chronic TBI/CTE

Studies of former athletes suggest that repetitive concussive impacts to the brain may result in serious long-term neurological consequences. In an investigation of 2,552 retired football players, individuals who reported three or more mTBIs (24% of former players) were five times more likely to have been diagnosed with mild cognitive impairment (MCI), and three times more likely to report significant memory problems compared to their counterparts without a history of mTBI, suggesting that the onset of dementia-related conditions may be exacerbated by repetitive TBI.¹⁰⁴ Retired football players with three or more previous mTBIs were also three times more likely to be diagnosed with depression than those with no history of mTBI, and those reporting one or two previous mTBIs were 1.5 times more likely to have been diagnosed with depression. This analysis controlled for age, years since retirement, length of playing career, assessment of physical health, and various diagnosed comorbidities.¹⁰⁵

Repetitive mTBI is believed to be necessary for the long-term development of a neurodegenerative disease known as chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE). Formerly known as dementia pugilistica when first described in boxers,¹⁰⁶ CTE is marked by progressive decline of memory and cognition, as well as depression, suicidal behavior, poor impulse control, aggressiveness, and Parkinson's-like symptoms¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁹ that has received considerable media attention following the post-mortem diagnoses of former professional athletes. However, empirical research of CTE is lacking, with efforts at understanding hampered by a lack of standardized diagnostic criteria and controlled, prospective longitudinal studies. At present, CTE cannot currently be definitively diagnosed in the living brain; all confirmed cases have resulted from postmortem examination. CTE is characterized pathologically by frontal and temporal lobe atrophy and by abnormal deposits of phosphorylated tau and by transactive response (TAR) DNA-binding protein 43 kDa.¹¹⁰⁻¹¹³ There is debate as to whether CTE represents a unique neurodegenerative disorder, versus a manifestation of diminished cerebral reserve leading to the earlier clinical expression of age-related

neurodegenerative diseases, such as MCI and Alzheimer's disease (AD).¹¹⁴ Large-scale studies with at-risk individuals are needed to establish the incidence and prevalence of CTE, as well as the pathogenesis and progression of the condition.^{115,116} Additional unanswered questions include how many head impacts are sufficient to cause CTE, whether a single head impact could possibly result in CTE, and the potential role of repetitive subconcussive impacts; other considerations include factors such as age, gender, genetics, mental illness, alcohol, and substance abuse in the development of neurodegenerative processes.^{115,117-119}

6. Multiple TBI in the General Population

Outside of the contexts of sports and military exposures, the impact of multiple TBI on health outcomes has not been extensively explored in the general population. The proportion of the U.S. population that has sustained more than one lifetime TBI is unknown; however, a TBI Model Systems National Database study of individuals who received rehabilitation following moderate-to-severe TBI found that 20% of the cohort had sustained at least one prior TBI. In this sample, pre- and post-index injury behavioral outcomes, particularly substance abuse, were highly associated with prior TBI. Anxiety and depression were also significantly associated with prior TBI, and prior TBI before age 6 was associated with an increased likelihood of psychiatric hospitalization and substance abuse.¹²⁰ In another population-based study, epilepsy/seizure disorders were associated with sustaining a subsequent TBI.¹⁷

7. Treatment Considerations

Research indicates that an individual with TBI who has a history of previous TBI will require more conservative postinjury management. Cognitive and physical rest postinjury are especially important for the individual with prior TBI, as is strict avoidance of activities with risk of mTBI.^{11,22} A patient may be more susceptible to adverse effects from subsequent injury occurring within the acute recovery period of a previous TBI.¹²¹ Recovery time from mTBI can take a few days to several months; however, individuals with a history of one or more TBIs are at risk for more protracted recovery, as are those who experience increased numbers of postconcussive symptoms, or increased severity of symptoms following the injury.¹²² Children and adolescents (<18 years old) may be more vulnerable to subsequent injury and may require a longer recovery period prior to resuming full activity.^{22,39,123}

- Sport guidelines: Following sport-related mTBI, a six-stage rehabilitation progression has been recommended, starting at “no activity” (1) and ending with “return to play” (6). Stages are separated by at least 24 hours, and any stage that results in the return of symptoms is halted and the patient is restarted at the previous asymptomatic level 24 hours later. The return-to-play progression should not start until the athlete is asymptomatic and has a normal clinical examination, and cognitive and neuromotor impairments have resolved to

preinjury or normal levels.^{11,22} When an athlete has sustained more than one mTBI, particularly within a short period of time such as a single season, or two or three within one year, more conservative management has been recommended.¹²⁴ Other modifying factors that call for more conservative management include mTBIs resulting from less forceful impacts than previously might have been sufficient to cause injury (e.g., sustaining a subsequent mTBI “more easily”), and with increasing severity of injury.¹¹ Although it has been suggested that retirement be considered in cases where additional mTBIs are being sustained from new injuries involving less force,¹²⁴ there are currently no validated guidelines in sport medicine for retirement from athletic participation.¹²⁵

- Military guidelines: Recognizing the risk of multiple TBI to military personnel in the deployed setting, the Department of Defense (DoD) has established guidelines for medical management and progressive return to duty following TBI in cases of recurrent mTBI, which involve longer rest times and comprehensive clinical evaluation.¹²⁶ Return to duty is delayed for an additional 7 days after symptoms have resolved for SMs who have sustained a second mTBI within a 12-month period, and in cases involving three mTBIs within 12 months, return to duty is delayed until a comprehensive recurrent mTBI evaluation is conducted. Depending on the number of incidents as well as other factors, a longer rest period may be mandated. Recovery care includes symptom and pain management, and participation in sports or other activities with a risk of mTBI are prohibited until the patient has been cleared by an independent medical practitioner. Among deployed military personnel, multiple TBI exposure is one of many deployment-related factors that influence the health outcomes and needs for postinjury management; therefore, a multi-disciplinary treatment approach that integrates physical and psychological care is warranted.⁸
 - Army guidelines for in-garrison management of recurrent mTBI mirror those for the deployed setting, specifying a mandatory 7-day recovery period after symptom resolution, and referral for possible recurrent mTBI evaluation.¹²⁷ The Defense and Veterans Brain Injury Center (DVBIC/DCoE) has developed the “Progressive Return to Activity Following Acute Concussion/Mild Traumatic Brain Injury”, a set of clinical recommendations for mTBI in the deployed and non-deployed setting, which outlines a medically monitored, six-stage progressive return to activity process that is based on clinical assessment and the SM’s symptom report.¹²⁸ The progressive return to activity guidelines mandate additional recovery time for SMs with more than one mTBI within 12 months, and comprehensive recurrent mTBI evaluation may be required.

8. Conclusion

Individuals who sustain TBI and who have a prior history of TBI may experience increased postinjury difficulties in the days and weeks following injury, which may

extend beyond the acute recovery period. Evidence from the sport concussion literature indicates that history of previous mTBI is the most important factor influencing symptomatic outcome. Multiple concussions have been associated both with a greater number of cognitive, somatic/sensory, vestibular, and emotional symptoms, and slower recovery of symptoms. Evidence also suggests that prior history of TBI may increase an individual's susceptibility to future TBI, when less force than previously required may result in TBI. Individuals with previous TBI should be monitored and managed conservatively so as to reduce risk of subsequent TBI and allow recovery of post-TBI symptoms to preinjury levels. Decisions about return to play or to work/military service which may expose the patient to subsequent TBI should be made on an individual basis, with consideration of the patient's TBI history. Further investigation, including prospective study of at-risk populations such as athletes and military SMs, is needed in order to clarify the relationship between multiple TBI and the potential development of chronic neurodegenerative disease.

9. Future Directions

At present, there are insufficient data to indicate that any treatment intervention definitively enhances recovery or diminishes post-TBI sequelae in the long-term from single or multiple TBIs.³⁷ Developing technologies may hold promise for detecting evidence of the cumulative effects of multiple TBI. Advanced brain imaging and electrophysiological techniques such as DTI, functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), and magnetic resonance (MR) spectroscopy may facilitate diagnosing and assessing residual impairment from multiple TBI, as well as the antemortem delineation of diagnostic criteria for chronic neurodegenerative conditions such as CTE.^{115,124,129-131} TBI biomarkers are also under investigation, offering promise of improved characterization of multiple TBI and its sequelae.¹³²⁻¹³⁴

10. References

1. Faul M, Xu L, Wald MM, Coronado VG. Traumatic Brain Injury in the United States: Emergency Department Visits, Hospitalizations and Deaths 2002–2006. Atlanta (GA): Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control; 2010.
2. Centers for Disease Control. Heads up and sports concussion. Atlanta (GA): Centers for Disease Control; 2006.
3. Sosin DM, Sniezek JE, Thurman DJ. Incidence of Mild and Moderate Brain Injury in the United States, 1991. *Brain Inj* 1996; 10: 47–54.
4. National Center for Injury Prevention and Control. Report to Congress on Mild Traumatic Brain Injury in the United States: Steps to Prevent a Serious Public Health Problem. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 2003.
5. Department of Veterans Affairs, Department of Defense. VA/DoD Clinical Practice Guideline for Management of concussion/Mild Traumatic Brain Injury (mTBI), Version 1.0 - 2009. Available at: http://www.healthquality.va.gov/guidelines/Rehab/mtbi/concussion_mtbi_full_1_0.pdf. Accessed September 29, 2014.
6. DVBIC/DoD Worldwide TBI numbers; Defense Medical Surveillance System, available at <http://dvbic.dcoe.mil/about-dvbic-traumatic-brain-injury-tbi>. Accessed 11/17/14.
7. Cernak I, Noble-Haeusslein LJ. Traumatic brain injury: an overview of pathobiology with emphasis on military populations. *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism* 2010; 30: 255–2660.
8. Vanderploeg RD, Belanger HG, Horner RD, et al. (2012). Health outcomes associated with military deployment: mild traumatic brain injury, blast, trauma, and combat associations in the Florida National Guard. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation* 2012; 93(11): 1887-95. doi: 10.1016/j.apmr.2012.05.024.
9. Selassie AW, Wilson DA, Pickelsimer EE, et al. Incidence of sport-related traumatic brain injury and risk factors of severity: a population-based epidemiologic study. *Annals of Epidemiology* 2013; 23(12): 750-6. doi: 10.1016/j.annepidem.2013.07.022
10. Bailes JE, Cantu RC. Head injury in athletes. *Neurosurgery* 2001; 48(1): 26-45.

11. Broglio SP, Cantu RC, Gioia GA, et al. National Athletic Trainers' Association position statement: management of sport concussion. *J Athl Train*. 2014 Mar-Apr; 49(2): 245-265. Doi: 10.4085/1062-6050-49.1.07. Epub 2014 Mar 7.
12. Casson IR, Viano DC, Powell JW, Pellman EJ. Repeat concussions in the national football league. *Sports Health* 2011; 3(1): 11-24.
13. Broglio SP, Eckner JT, Martini D, et al. Cumulative head impact burden in high school football. *J Neurotrauma*. 2011 Oct; 28(10):2069-78. doi: 10.1089/neu.2011.1825.
14. Schnebel B, Gwin JT, Anderson S, Gatlin R. In vivo study of head impacts in football: a comparison of National Collegiate Athletic Association division I versus high school impacts. *Neurosurgery* 2007; 60: 490-496.
15. Crisco JJ, Fiore R, Beckwith JG, et al. Frequency and location of head impact exposures in individual collegiate football players. *J Athl Train*. 2010; 45(6): 549-559.
16. Lincoln AE, Caswell SV, Almquist JL, et al. Trends in concussion incidence in high school sports: a prospective 11-year study. *Am J Sports Med* 2011; 39(5): 958-63.
17. Saunders LL, Selassie AW, Hill EG, et al. A population-based study of repetitive traumatic brain injury among persons with traumatic brain injury. *Brain Injury* 2009 Oct; 23(11): 866–872.
18. Saunders LL, Selassie AW, Hill EG, et al. Pre-existing health conditions and repeat traumatic brain injury. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2009 Nov; 90(11): 1853-9. doi: 10.1016/j.apmr.2009.05.020.
19. Consensus conference. Rehabilitation of persons with traumatic brain injury. NIH Consensus Development Panel on Rehabilitation of Persons With Traumatic Brain Injury. *JAMA* 1999 Sep 8; 282(10): 974-83.
20. Olson-Madden JH, Forster JE, Huggins J, Schneider A. Psychiatric diagnoses, mental health utilization, high-risk behaviors, and self-directed violence among veterans with comorbid history of traumatic brain injury and substance use disorders. *J Head Trauma Rehabil*. 2012 Sep-Oct; 27(5): 370-8. doi: 10.1097/HTR.0b013e318268d496.
21. Delaney JS, Abuzeyad F, Correa JA, Foxford R. Recognition and characteristics of concussions in the emergency department population. *The Journal of Emergency Medicine* 2005; 29(2): 189-97.

22. McCrory P, Meeuwisse WH, Aubry A, et al. Consensus statement on concussion in sport: The 4th international conference on concussion in sport, Zurich, November 2012. *Journal of Athletic Training* 2013; 48(4) :554–575. doi: 10.4085/1062-6050-48.4.05.
23. McCrea M, Hammeke T, Olsen G, Leo P, Guskiewicz K. Unreported concussion in high school football players: implications for prevention. *Clin J Sport Med.* 2004; 14(1): 13-17.
24. Boggild M, Tator CH. Concussion knowledge among medical students and neurology/neurosurgery residents. *The Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences* 2013; 39(3): 361-8.
25. Corrigan JD, Bogner JA. Initial reliability and validity of the OSU TBI Identification Method. *J Head Trauma Rehabil.* 2007; 22(6): 318-329.
26. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). Traumatic Brain Injury Screening: An Introduction. Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA); August 2006.
27. Giza CC, Hovda DA. The neurometabolic cascade of concussion. *J Athl Train.* 2001 Sep; 36(3): 228-235.
28. Bazarian JJ, Zhu T, Zhong J, et al. Persistent, long-term cerebral white matter changes after sports-related repetitive head impacts. *PLoS One* 2014 Apr 16; 9(4): e94734. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0094734.
29. McAllister TW, Ford JC, Flashman LA, et al. Effect of head impacts on diffusivity measures in a cohort of collegiate contact sport athletes. *Neurology* 2014; 82(1): 63-9. doi: 10.1212/01.wnl.0000438220.16190.42
30. Taber KH, Hurley RA, Haswell CC, et al. White Matter Compromise in Veterans Exposed to Primary Blast Forces. *J Head Trauma Rehabil.* 2014 Mar 4. [Epub ahead of print]
31. Morey RA, Haswell CC, Selgrade ES, et al. Effects of chronic mild traumatic brain injury on white matter integrity in Iraq and Afghanistan war veterans. *Hum Brain Mapp.* 2013 November; 34(11): . doi:10.1002/hbm.22117.
32. Delaney JS, Al-Kashmiri A, Correa JA. Mechanisms of injury for concussions in university football, ice hockey, and soccer. *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine* 2014, 24(3): 233-7. doi: 10.1097/JSM.0000000000000017

33. Levy, M. L., Kasasbeh, A. S., Baird, L. C., Amene, C., Skeen, J., & Marshall, L. (2012). Concussions in soccer: a current understanding. *World Neurosurgery*, 78(5): 535-44. doi: 10.1016/j.wneu.2011.10.032
34. Neselius S, Brisby H, Theodorsson A, et al. CSF-biomarkers in Olympic boxing: diagnosis and effects of repetitive head trauma. *PLoS One* 2012, 7(4): e33606. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0033606
35. McCrory P, Zazryn T, Cameron P. The evidence for chronic traumatic encephalopathy in boxing. *Sports Medicine* 2007, 37(6): 467-76.
36. Partridge B. Dazed and confused: sports medicine, conflicts of interest, and concussion management. *Journal of Bioethical Inquiry* 2014; 11(1): 65-74. doi: 10.1007/s11673-013-9491-2.
37. Giza CC, Kutcher JS, Ashwal S, et al. Summary of evidence-based guideline update: evaluation and management of concussion in sports: report of the Guideline Development Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology* 2013; 80(24): 2250-7. doi: 10.1212/WNL.0b013e31828d57dd.
38. Wall SE, Williams WH, Cartwright-Hatton S, et al. Neuropsychological dysfunction following repeat concussions in jockeys. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery, and Psychiatry* 2006, 77(4): 518-20.
39. Buzzini SR, Guskiewicz KM. Sport-related concussion in the young athlete. *Current Opinion in Pediatrics* 2006; 18(4): 376-82.
40. Mori T, Katayama Y, Kawamata T. Acute hemispheric swelling associated with thin subdural hematomas: pathophysiology of repetitive head injury in sports. *Acta Neurochirurgica* 2006; Supplement, 96: 40-3.
41. Bey T, Ostick B. Second impact syndrome. *The Western Journal of Emergency Medicine* 2009; 10(1): 6-10.
42. Durand Jr P, Adamson GJ. On-the-field management of athletic head injuries. *The Journal of the American Academy of Othopaedic Surgeons* 2004; 12(3): 191-5.
43. McCrory P, Davis G, Makdissi M. Second impact syndrome or cerebral swelling after sporting head injury. *Current Sports Medicine Reports* 2012; 11(1): 21-3. doi: 10.1249/JSR.0b013e3182423bfd.
44. McCrea HJ, Perrine K, Niogi S, Härtl R. Concussion in sports. *Sports Health* 2013; 5(2): 160-4. doi: 10.1177/1941738112462203.

45. Guskiewicz KM, McCrea M, Marshall SW, et al. Cumulative effects associated with recurrent concussion in collegiate football players: the NCAA Concussion Study. *JAMA* 2003; 290(19): 2549-55.
46. Cantu RC. Recurrent athletic head injury: risks and when to retire. *Clinics in Sports Medicine* 2003; 22(3): 593-603.
47. Zemper ED. Two-year prospective study of relative risk of a second cerebral concussion. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil.* 2003; 82(9): 653–9.
48. Collins MW, Lovell MR, Iverson GL, et al. Cumulative effects of concussion in high school athletes. *Neurosurgery* 2002; 51(5): 1175–9.
49. Johnson BD, Neuberger T, Gay M, Hallett M, Slobounov S. Effects of subconcussive head trauma on the default mode network of the brain. *Journal of Neurotrauma* 2014 Jul 10 [Epub ahead of print].
50. Prins ML, Alexander D, Giza CC, Hovda DA. Repeated mild traumatic brain injury: mechanisms of cerebral vulnerability. *J Neurotrauma* 2013 Jan 1; 30(1): 30-8.
51. Cicerone KD, Kalmar K. Persistent postconcussion syndrome: The structure of subjective complaints after mild traumatic brain injury. *J Head Trauma Rehabil.* 1995; 10(3): 1-17.
52. Vanderploeg RD, Silva MA, Soble JR, et al. The structure of postconcussion symptoms on the Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory: A comparison of alternative models. *J Head Trauma Rehabil.* Epub ahead of print, Nov. 20, 2013. doi: 10.1097/HTR.0000000000000009
53. Field M, Collins MW, Lovell MR, Maroon J. Does age play a role in recovery from sports-related concussion? A comparison of high school and collegiate athletes. *J Pediatr.* 2003; 142(5): 546–53.
54. McCrea M, Guskiewicz KM, Marshall SW, et al. Acute effects and recovery time following concussion in collegiate football players: the NCAA concussion study. *JAMA* 2003; 290(19): 2556-2563.
55. Makdissi, M. Is the simple versus complex classification of concussion a valid and useful differentiation? *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 2009; 43(Suppl 1), i23-27. doi: 10.1136/bjsm.2009.058206
56. Pellman EJ, Lovell MR, Viano DC, Casson IR, Tucker AM. Concussion in professional football: neuropsychological testing--part 6. *Neurosurgery* 2004; 55(6): 1290-303.

57. Willer B, Leddy JJ. Management of concussion and postconcussion syndrome. *Curr Treat Options Neurol.* 2006; 8(5): 415–26.
58. McCrea M, Guskiewicz K, Randolph C, et al. Incidence, clinical course, and predictors of prolonged recovery time following sport-related concussion in high school and college athletes. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc.* 2013 Jan; 19(1): 22-33.
59. Covassin T, Swanik CB, Sachs M, et al. Sex differences in baseline neuropsychological function and concussion symptoms of collegiate athletes. *Br J Sports Med.* 2006; 40(11): 923–7.
60. Broshek DK, Kaushik T, Freeman JR, et al. Sex differences in outcome following sports-related concussion. *J Neurosurg.* 2005 May; 102(5): 856-63.
61. Covassin T, Elbin R, Kontos A, Larson E. Investigating baseline neurocognitive performance between male and female athletes with a history of multiple concussion. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery, and Psychiatry* 2010; 81(6): 597-601. doi: 10.1136/jnnp.2009.193797.
62. Covassin T, Stearne D, Elbin R. Concussion history and postconcussion neurocognitive performance and symptoms in collegiate athletes. *J Athl Train.* 2008; 43(2): 119–24.
63. Gaetz M, Goodman D, Weinberg H. Electrophysiological evidence for the cumulative effects of concussion. *Brain Inj.* 2000; 14(12): 1077–88.
64. Iverson GL, Gaetz M, Lovell MR, Collins MW. Cumulative effects of concussion in amateur athletes. *Brain Injury* 2004; 18(5); 433-43.
65. Johnson B, Gay M, Zhang K, et al. The use of magnetic resonance spectroscopy in the subacute evaluation of athletes recovering from single and multiple mild traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Neurotrauma* 2012; 29(13): 2297-304. doi: 10.1089/neu.2011.2294.
66. Schatz P, Moser RS, Covassin T, Karpf R. Early indicators of enduring symptoms in high school athletes with multiple previous concussions. *Neurosurgery* 2011; 68(6): 1562–7.
67. Register-Mihalik JK, Mihalik JP, Guskiewicz KM. Association between previous concussion history and symptom endorsement during preseason baseline testing in high school and collegiate athletes. *Sports health.* 2009; 1(1): 61–5.
68. Mihalik JP, Stump JE, Collins MW, et al. Posttraumatic migraine characteristics in athletes following sports-related concussion. *J Neurosurg.* 2005; 102(5): 850–5.

69. Sallis RE, Jones K. Prevalence of headaches in football players. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* 2000; 32(11): 1820-4.
70. Covassin T, Moran R, Wilhelm K. Concussion symptoms and neurocognitive performance of high school and college athletes who incur multiple concussions. *The American Journal of Sports Medicine* 2013; 41(12): 2885-9. doi: 10.1177/0363546513499230.
71. Iverson GL, Echemendia RJ, Lamarre AK, Brooks BL, Gaetz MB. Possible lingering effects of multiple past concussions. *Rehabil Res Pract.* 2012; 2012: 316575. doi: 10.1155/2012/316575. Epub 2012 Feb 26.
72. Collins MW, Grindel SH, Lovell MR, et al. Relationship between concussion and neuropsychological performance in college football players. *JAMA* 1999; 282(10): 964–70.
73. Ravdin LD, Barr WB, Jordan B, Lathan WE, Relkin NR. Assessment of cognitive recovery following sports related head trauma in boxers. *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine* 2003; 13(1): 21-7.
74. Pedersen HA, Ferraro FR, Himle M, Schultz C, Poolman M. Neuropsychological factors related to college ice hockey concussions. *American Journal of Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias* 2014; 29(3): 201-4. doi: 10.1177/1533317513517036.
75. Terry DP, Faraco CC, Smith D, et al. Lack of long-term fMRI differences after multiple sports-related concussions. *Brain Injury* 2012; 26(13-14): 1684-96. doi: 10.3109/02699052.2012.722259.
76. Porter MD. A 9-year controlled prospective neuropsychologic assessment of amateur boxing. *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine* 2003; 13(6): 339-52.
77. Guskiewicz KM. No evidence of impaired neurocognitive performance in collegiate soccer players. *AmJ Sports Med.* 2002; 30(4): 630.
78. Iverson GL, Brooks BL, Lovell MR, Collins MW. No cumulative effects for one or two previous concussions. *Br J Sports Med.* 2006; 40(1): 72–5.
79. Chamard E, Théoret H, Skopelja EN, et al. A prospective study of physician-observed concussion during a varsity university hockey season: metabolic changes in ice hockey players. Part 4 of 4. *Neurosurgical Focus* 2012; 33(6), E4: 1-7. doi: 10.3171/2012.10.FOCUS12305

80. Killam C, Cautin RL, Santucci AC. Assessing the enduring residual neuropsychological effects of head trauma in college athletes who participate in contact sports. *Archives of Clinical Neuropsychology* 2005; 20(5): 599-611.
81. Gysland SM, Mihalik JP, Register-Mihalik JK, et al. The relationship between subconcussive impacts and concussion history on clinical measures of neurologic function in collegiate football players. *Annals of Biomedical Engineering* 2012; 40(1): 14-22. doi: 10.1007/s10439-011-0421-3.
82. Miller JR, Adamson GJ, Pink MM, Sweet JC. Comparison of preseason, midseason, and postseason neurocognitive scores in uninjured collegiate football players. *The American Journal of Sports Medicine* 2007; 35(8): 1284-8.
83. Eskridge SL, Macera CA, Galarneau MR, et al. Injuries from combat explosions in Iraq: injury type, location, and severity. *Injury*. 2012 Oct; 43(10): 1678-82. doi: 10.1016/j.injury.2012.05.027. Epub 2012 Jul 4.
84. Elder GA, Cristian A. Blast-related mild traumatic brain injury: mechanisms of injury and impact on clinical care. *Mt Sinai J Med*. 2009 Apr; 76(2): 111-8. doi: 10.1002/msj.20098.
85. Warden D. Military TBI during the Iraq and Afghanistan wars. *J Head Trauma Rehabil*. 2006 Sep-Oct; 21(5): 398-402.
86. Galarneau MR, Woodruff SI, Dye JL, Mohrle CR, Wade AL. Traumatic brain injury during Operation Iraqi Freedom: findings from the United States Navy-Marine Corps Combat Trauma Registry. *J Neurosurg*. 2008 May; 208(5): 950-957.
87. Owen-Smith MS. Explosive blast injury. *Med Bull US Army Eur* 1981; 38(7/8): 36-43.
88. Rossle R. Pathology of blast effects. In: *German Aviation Medicine (World War II)*, Vol. 2. Washington, DC: Department of the Air Force 1950: 1260-73.
89. MacDonald C, Johnson A, Cooper D, et al. Cerebellar white matter abnormalities following primary blast injury in US military personnel. *PLoS One* 2013; 8(2):e55823. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0055823. Epub 2013 Feb 7.
90. MacDonald CL, Johnson AM, Nelson EC, et al. *Journal of Neurotrauma*. May 15, 2014, 31(10): 889-898. doi:10.1089/neu.2013.3173.
91. Rosenfeld JV, Ford NL. Bomb blast, mild traumatic brain injury and psychiatric morbidity: a review. *Injury*. 2010 May; 41(5): 437-43. doi: 10.1016/j.injury.2009.11.018. Epub 2010 Feb 26.

92. Levin HS, Robertson CS. Mild traumatic brain injury in translation. *Journal of Neurotrauma* 2013; 30(8): 610-7. doi: 10.1089/neu.2012.2394.
93. Elder GA, Cristian A. Blast-related mild traumatic brain injury: mechanisms of injury and impact on clinical care. *Mt Sinai J Med.* 2009 Apr; 76(2): 111-8. doi: 10.1002/msj.20098.
94. Lippa SM, Pastorek NJ, Bengtson JF, Thornton GM. Postconcussive symptoms after blast and nonblast-related mild traumatic brain injuries in Afghanistan and Iraq war veterans. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc.* 2010 Sep;16(5):856-66. doi: 10.1017/S1355617710000743. Epub 2010 Aug 4.
95. Reid MW, Miller KJ, Lange R, Cooper D, Tate DF, Bailie J, Brickell TA, French LM, Asmussen S, Kennedy J. A Multisite Study of the Relationships between Blast Exposures and Symptom Reporting in a Post-Deployment Active Duty Military Population with Mild Traumatic Brain Injury. *J Neurotrauma.* 2014 Jul 18. [Epub ahead of print]
96. Brenner LA, Ivins BJ, Schwab K, et al. Traumatic brain injury, posttraumatic stress disorder, and postconcussive symptom reporting among troops returning from Iraq. *J Head Trauma Rehabil.* 2010 Sep-Oct; 25(5): 307-12. doi: 10.1097/HTR.0b013e3181cada03.
97. Peskind ER, Petrie EC, Cross DJ, et al. Cerebrocerebellar hypometabolism associated with repetitive blast exposure mild traumatic brain injury in 12 Iraq war Veterans with persistent post-concussive symptoms. *NeuroImage* 2011; 54(Suppl 1): S76-82. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.04.008.
98. Wilk JE, Herrell RK, Wynn GH, Riviere LA, Hoge CW. Mild traumatic brain injury (concussion), posttraumatic stress disorder, and depression in U.S. soldiers involved in combat deployments: association with postdeployment symptoms. *Psychosomatic Medicine* 2012; 74(3): 249-57. doi: 10.1097/PSY.0b013e318244c604.
99. Bryan CJ, Clemans TA. Repetitive traumatic brain injury, psychological symptoms, and suicide risk in a clinical sample of deployed military personnel. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2013; 70(7): 686-91. doi: 10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2013.1093.
100. Bryan CJ. Repetitive traumatic brain injury (or concussion) increases severity of sleep disturbance among deployed military personnel. *Sleep* 2013; 36(6): 941-6. doi: 10.5665/sleep.2730.
101. TBI and the Military/dvbic.dcoe.mil, available at: <http://dvbic.dcoe.mil/tbi-military>. Accessed 11/17/14.

102. Ivins BJ, Schwab KA, Warden D, et al. Traumatic brain injury in U.S. Army paratroopers: Prevalence and character. *J Trauma* 2003 Oct; 55(4): 617-21.
103. Miller KJ, Ivins BJ, Schwab KA. Self-reported mild TBI and postconcussive symptoms in a peacetime active duty military population: effect of multiple TBI history versus single mild TBI. *Journal Head Trauma Rehabil.* 2013; 28(1): 31-8. doi: 10.1097/HTR.0b013e318255ceae
104. Guskiewicz KM, Marshall SW, Bailes J, et al. Association between recurrent concussion and late-life cognitive impairment in retired professional football players. *Neurosurgery* 2005; 57(4): 719-26.
105. Guskiewicz KM, Marshall SW, Bailes J, et al. Recurrent concussion and risk of depression in retired professional football players. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2007 Jun; 39(6): 903-9.
106. Martland HS: Punch drunk. *JAMA*1928; 91(15):1103–7.
107. Stern RA, Riley DO, Daneshvar DH, et al. Long-term consequences of repetitive brain trauma: chronic traumatic encephalopathy. *PM&R* 2011; 3(10 Suppl 2): S460-7. doi: 10.1016/j.pmrj.2011.08.008.
108. Gavett BE, Cantu RC, Shenton M, et al. Clinical appraisal of chronic traumatic encephalopathy: current perspectives and future directions. *Current Opinion in Neurology* 2011; 24(6): 525-31. doi: 10.1097/WCO.0b013e32834cd477.
109. Omalu B, Bailes J, Hamilton RL, et al. Emerging histomorphologic phenotypes of chronic traumatic encephalopathy in American athletes. *Neurosurgery* 2011; 69(1): 173-83. doi: 10.1227/NEU.0b013e318212bc7b.
110. Stein TD, Alvarez VE, McKee AC. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: a spectrum of neuropathological changes following repetitive brain trauma in athletes and military personnel. *Alzheimer's Research & Therapy* 2014; 6(1): 4.
111. Mez J, Stern RA, McKee AC. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: where are we and where are we going? *Current Neurology and Neuroscience Reports* 2013; 13(12): 407. doi: 10.1007/s11910-013-0407-7.
112. Tartaglia MC, Hazrati LN, Davis KD, et al. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy and other neurodegenerative proteinopathies. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2014; 8: 30. doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2014.00030.
113. McKee AC, Daneshvar DH, Alvarez VE, Stein TD. The neuropathology of sport. *Acta Neuropathologica* 2014; 127(1): 29-51. doi: 10.1007/s00401-013-1230-6.

114. Randolph C, Karantzoulis S, Guskiewicz K. Prevalence and characterization of mild cognitive impairment in retired national football league players. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society* 2013; 19(8): 973-80. doi: 10.1017/S1355617713000805.
115. Levin B, Bhardwaj A. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: a critical appraisal. *Neurocritical Care* 2014; 20(2): 334-44. doi: 10.1007/s12028-013-9931-1.
116. Wortzel HS, Brenner LA, Arciniegas DB. Traumatic brain injury and chronic traumatic encephalopathy: a forensic neuropsychiatric perspective. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law* 2013; 31(6):721-38. doi: 10.1002/bsl.2079.
117. Tator CH. Chronic traumatic encephalopathy: how serious a sports problem is it?. *British Journal of Sports Medicine* 2014; 48(2): 81-3. doi: 10.1136/bjsports-2013-093040.
118. McCrory P, Meeuwisse WH, Kutcher JS, Jordan BD, Gardner A. What is the evidence for chronic concussion-related changes in retired athletes: behavioural, pathological and clinical outcomes? *British Journal of Sports Medicine* 2013; 47(5): 327-30. doi: 10.1136/bjsports-2013-092248.
119. DeKosky ST, Blennow K, Ikonomic MD, Gandy S. Acute and chronic traumatic encephalopathies: pathogenesis and biomarkers. *Nature Reviews Neurology* 2013; 9(4): 192-200. doi: 10.1038/nrneurol.2013.36.
120. Corrigan JD, Bogner J, Mellick D, et al. Prior History of Traumatic Brain Injury Among Persons in the Traumatic Brain Injury Model Systems National Database. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation* 2013; 94:1940-50.
121. Moser RS, Iverson GL, Echemendia RJ, et al. Neuropsychological evaluation in the diagnosis and management of sports-related concussion. *Archives of Clinical Neuropsychology* 2007; 22(8): 909-16.
122. Shim J, Smith DH, Van Lunen BL. On-Field Signs and Symptoms Associated With Recovery Duration Following Concussion in High School and Collegiate Athletes: A Critically Appraised Topic. *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation* 2014 Feb 28. [Epub ahead of print]
123. Akhavan A, Flores C, Green S, et al. Clinical inquiries. How should we follow athletes after a concussion? *The Journal of Family Practice* 2005; 54(10): 902-4.
124. Elbin RJ, Covassin T, Henry L, et al. Sport-related concussion: "how many is too many?". *Translational Stroke Research* 2013; 4(4): 425-31. doi: 10.1007/s12975-012-0237-y.

125. Gardner A. The Complex Clinical Issues Involved in an Athlete's Decision to Retire from Collision Sport Due to Multiple Concussions: A Case Study of a Professional Athlete. *Frontiers in Neurology* 2013; 4: 141. doi: 10.3389/fneur.2013.00141.
126. DoD Instruction 6490.11, "DoD Policy Guidance for Management of Mild Traumatic Brain Injury/Concussion in the Deployed Setting," September 18, 2012.
127. HQDA EXORD 165-13: Department of the Army Guidance for Management of Concussion/Mild Traumatic Brain Injury in the Garrison Setting. U.S. Army Office of the Surgeon General, version 1.0, 2013
128. Progressive Return to Activity Following Acute Concussion/Mild Traumatic Brain Injury: Guidance for the Primary Care Manager in Deployed and Non-deployed Settings. Defense and Veterans Brain Injury Center (DVBIC), Defense Centers of Excellence for Psychological Health and Traumatic Brain Injury (DCoE), January 2014.
129. Dambinova SA, Shikuev AV, Weissman JD, Mullins JD. AMPAR peptide values in blood of nonathletes and club sport athletes with concussions. *Military Medicine* 2013; 178(3): 285-90. doi: 10.7205/MILMED-D-12-00368.
130. Dashnaw ML, Petraglia AL, Bailes JE. An overview of the basic science of concussion and subconcussion: where we are and where we are going. *Neurosurgical Focus* 2012; 33(6): E5 1-9. doi: 10.3171/2012.10.FOCUS12284.
131. Gosselin N, Saluja RS, Chen JK, et al. (2010). Brain functions after sports-related concussion: insights from event-related potentials and functional MRI. *The Physician and Sports Medicine* 2010; 38(3): 27-37. doi: 10.3810/psm.2010.10.1805.
132. Jeter CB, Hergenroeder GW, Hylm MJ, et al. Biomarkers for the diagnosis and prognosis of mild traumatic brain injury/concussion. *Journal of Neurotrauma* 2013; 30(8): 657-70. doi: 10.1089/neu.2012.2439.
133. Schmid KE, Tortella FC. The diagnosis of traumatic brain injury on the battlefield. *Frontiers in Neurology* 2012; 3: 90. doi: 10.3389/fneur.2012.00090.
134. Pasinetti GM, Fivecoat H, Ho L. Personalized medicine in traumatic brain injury. *The Psychiatric Clinics of North America* 2010; 33(4): 905-13. doi: 10.1016/j.psc.2010.09.003.