Psychosocial implications of pediatric surgical hospitalization

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ABSTRACT

The prevalence of childhood surgical illness and injury requiring hospitalization suggests the need for implementation of an applied intervention to decrease levels of anxiety in these patients. When psychological concerns are not addressed in the present moment, potential for long-term negative psychological effects occur. To respond to the psychosocial needs of pediatric surgical patients it is important to understand foundational stages of development. Age is not always directly correlated with developmental stage and attunement to this subtle differentiation is essential. Some medical facilities offer services to pediatric surgical patients that include education about upcoming procedures as well as medical play which offers the opportunity to express emotions correlated with the hospitalization experience. This approach is directive in nature and controls the process of making sense of the medical environment. An alternative is Child Centered Play Therapy (CCPT) which creates an outlet for any emotions the children choose to express. CCPT offers comprehensive mental health care through a developmentally-appropriate, undirected intervention carried out by a mental health therapist and has been shown to reduce perceived and actual psychological trauma, anxiety, and behavioral issues in children preparing for surgery.

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Hospitalization and surgery can be an emotionally threatening and psychologically traumatizing experience, especially for children.1–3 There exist a number of protocols to reduce these effects including education about upcoming procedures, a tour of the hospital and operating room, a review of picture books about the experience, and video introductions. In addition, medical play with surgical instruments and dolls encourages children to express concerns about upcoming procedures,4–12 and one study has investigated the impact of Child Centered Play Therapy (CCPT) on anxiety in pre-surgical pediatric patients in hospital settings, with promising results.13

Hospitalized children often feel loss of freedom, perceived or actual, which increases the need for emotional containment and processing. Containment can be facilitated by therapeutic play in medical settings.2,14 One type of therapeutic play, medical play therapy, reduces behavioral issues by offering directed play activities encouraging expression, control, and autonomy during hospitalization.2 Child Centered Play Therapy (CCPT) improves upon medical play which offers the opportunity to express emotions correlated with the hospitalization experience. This approach is directive in nature and controls the process of making sense of the medical environment. An alternative is Child Centered Play Therapy (CCPT) which creates an outlet for any emotions the children choose to express. CCPT offers comprehensive mental health care through a developmentally-appropriate, undirected intervention carried out by a mental health therapist and has been shown to reduce perceived and actual psychological trauma, anxiety, and behavioral issues in children preparing for surgery.

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Developmental stages

Innate traits, the environment in which one is reared, and experiences gained at specific life stages influence personality and communication style. Erikson suggested eight developmental stages: (1) Infancy: trust vs. mistrust; (2) Early childhood: autonomy vs. shame and doubt; (3) Play age: initiative vs. guilt; (4) School age: industry vs. inferiority; (5) Adolescence: identity vs. role confusion; (6) Young adulthood: intimacy vs. isolation; (7) Adulthood: generativity vs. stagnation; and (8) Old age: ego integrity vs. despair.19 Positive resolution of the crisis at each
developmental stage helps people develop ego qualities necessary for maturity throughout the lifecycle. Negative experiences during a stage can interfere with healthy functioning as the needed virtue is missed or partially imparted. Virtues can be recovered during later stages with proper counseling.21 A review of the first four developmental stages establishes a foundation for understanding the emotional needs of young children. Further, it invites the surgeon to explore the developmental necessity of identifying a valid and reliable method for meeting emotional needs prior to surgical intervention.

Stage one—Infancy: trust vs. mistrust

During the first 18 months the primary psychosocial crisis relates to the development of trust or mistrust. An infant’s ability to trust is dependent upon the level of attachment and connection with the caregiver, which is evaluated by response to expressed need. When infants cry they need to experience the primary caregiver as a present, attentive, problem-solver. This helps the infant master the virtue of hope. Alternatively, if an infant is ignored or if the caregiver is incompetent, inconsistent, or distracted, hope does not become established. During later stages, lack of hope increases anxiety and hampers the ability to self-soothe.

Knowledge of stage one is especially important within a hospital setting because mistrust heightens both separation and stranger anxiety.12 If mistrust was developed during infancy, a child hospitalized during a later developmental stage may suffer from undue emotional distress when entrusted to medical staff for the testing, medical interventions, and the transition from the pre-operative area to the operating room. In a hospitalized setting, children who are not securely attached may question the caregiver’s protection and may also fear harm from medical providers.3,8,12,22

Stage two—Early childhood: autonomy vs. shame and doubt

Learning the power of their own will, toddlers in Erikson’s second psychosocial stage struggle to balance autonomy with shame and doubt. Autonomy is attained when a toddler masters a task alone. Mastery occurs when children make decisions, experience consequences, and self-correct or accept appropriate correction from caregivers. Personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence over their interpersonal environment encourages autonomy. Children may feel threatened by changes in routine or lack of control over environment. Medical treatment removes toddlers’ most important sense of control; the ability to determine what happens to their own bodies. Caregivers must provide every opportunity for choices that allow them to feel autonomous and masterful.

Young children without a sense of autonomy are likely to display stubborn tendencies and may act out in order to assert themselves.23 If autonomy and independence are not achieved during stage two, children may suffer from shame and doubt. This commonly results from parents over-controlling, over-indulging, or shaming children. The successful completion of this stage results in children who are able to make choices independently of parents, but within clear boundaries. Mastery of autonomy influences later development and is the key to understanding the needs of these children in medical environments.

Toddlers receiving medical care are bewildered by the rapid changes in environment and routine. They have little to no control over medical protocols for their specific diagnosis.24–30 Toddlers undergoing treatment do not choose the nurse or doctor overseeing their care, pick attire for surgery, decide who touches them, schedule convenient visits, decide when to eat, choose intravenous fluid, assess medication side effects, or opt to leave if they are uncomfortable. Hospitalization for children can feel confusing, isolating, and lonely.

Additionally, toddlers are sensitive to punishment. It is possible they may feel that hospitalization is a punishment for wrongdoing and fear mutilation or bodily injury that they naturally correlate with their negative thoughts or actions.12,21 Interventions that allow emotional soothing may help clarify that the medical procedure is intended to be beneficial rather than punitive.21 Care providers who attend to this developmental imperative assist the toddler to develop stronger feelings of autonomy and independence.

Stage three—Play age: initiative vs. guilt

Preschoolers explore with curiosity and imagination. Captivated by goals and questions, children aged 3–5 are busy choosing and creating activity and adventure. They also desire power and control over their environment. The amount of initiative required to achieve goals provides a sense of purpose.

Erikson’s third stage of development is characterized by the child’s ability to set and complete goals. A preschooler’s increased cognitive development, including locomotion and language skills, naturally put them at risk of exerting too much power. When parents or caregivers react harshly or even respond appropriately, children struggling to manage difficult experiences feel guilt. Preschoolers given age-appropriate responsibility to take ownership of their actions, experience a reduced level of anxiety.1,2,3,14,32

Stage four—School age: industry vs. inferiority

School-age children are active learners with well-developed language skills and clear time conceptions. Their social worlds expand to include peers and adult role models other than family members. They become industrious as they repeatedly master tasks in and out of the classroom and competence develops with successful repetition and task completion. Lack of success leads to inadequacy and ego fragility and when this occurs, children are likely to give up or regress to an earlier stage of development with a shaken sense of identity and increased susceptibility to anxiety.21

Not surprisingly school-aged children find hospitalization very distressful as a result of changes from daily routines, attempts to control unknown and unfamiliar situations, imagining possible outcomes, and relating to strangers.33 Hospitalized school-aged children also internalize provider behavior, comments, and reactions, magnifying feelings of anxiety.33–35

Developmental considerations

It is important to recognize that chronological age does not always match developmental stage. Interventions designed to reduce pre-surgical anxiety in pediatric patients must cater to the needs of each child based on developmental stage rather than age. For example, if an 8-year-old child has experienced an attachment disruption during infancy and resolution has never occurred, the child may present as clingy in the hospitalized setting. In this instance, the best way to meet the developmental needs of the child would be to attune as though the child were in the infancy stage.

Anxiety and the pediatric surgical patient

Child development experts reported short term, visually salient, somewhat painful procedures produce high levels of emotional discomfort in juvenile patients.36,37 Included among these stressors are venipuncture, pre-surgical injection, parting from the
encounter some form of relatively severe trauma. Trauma in and out of the child’s life, approximately 15–20% will undergo some form of relatively severe trauma. As discussed elsewhere in this issue, the psychobiological effects of anxiety are pervasive with pre-operative anxiety shown to stimulate the “sympathetic, parasympathetic and endocrine systems leading to an increase in heart rate, blood pressure and cardiac excitability resulting in cardiac arrhythmias.” Additionally, anxiety has been shown to increase plasma adrenaline levels by 40% and cause electrolyte imbalance.

Not surprisingly, the injured child is also nearly universally anxious. Depending on the age of the child, even common events can mimic the effects of trauma although the rates and severity of exposure can vary. The physiologic effects associated with pediatric trauma include increased levels of catecholamines which can contribute to feelings of anxiety as well as increased levels of endogenous opioids that cause emotional blunting and memory impairment.

Unmet needs, sense of danger, loss of control, and lack of competence heighten anxiety and these are often experienced by an injured child. Throughout a child’s life, approximately 15–20% will encounter some form of relatively severe trauma. Trauma in and of itself predisposes children to various forms of psychopathology, including anxiety, major depression, and behavior problems. These include children who exhibit high degrees of psychopathology before traumatic exposure and the previous degree of exposure and frequency to traumatic situations. Additionally, social factors emerge as one of the strongest predictors of risk among traumatized children. Many children who have been exposed to acute trauma have shown relatively strong outcomes if their social environment has not been severely impaired and if they possess high levels of social support. Additional risk factors include children with limited intellectual ability, sex (female), age (younger), family life (instability), and intense exposure to frightening events. Children with these symptoms may recover at a slower pace and may need professional intervention.

Role of therapeutic play

Coping in children and adults universally includes three facets, none of which are one-dimensional: (a) active versus passive; (b) internal versus external; and (c) emotionally focused versus problem-focused coping. LaMontagne, Hepworth, Johnson, and Cohen found that avoidant coping was used more during the acute phase of hospitalization and active coping was used more often in the recovery phase. When children preparing for surgery focused attention on upcoming stressors, coping and recovery was negatively affected. However children who are primarily avoidant recover more slowly than those who can focus on specific aspects of hospitalization.

Because children’s cognitive and emotional development influences their capacity to define the parameters of an event, (e.g., duration and intensity), their anxieties worsen because they are often inaccurate in their assessment of the event. Inviting children to express their experiences and feelings through play fashions an emotional distance that provides a safety barrier to protect them from feeling overwhelmed. Emotional distance allows the child to assimilate and create meanings to strong feelings. Through play, children learn that the world can be safe, consistent and predictable and they develop a greater capacity to cope when both positive and negative feelings are acceptable. Play teaches children to learn self-direction and autonomy, which results in the development of an enhanced sense of self.

The Child Life program was founded in 1922 on the belief that positive emotional states aid in healing and reduce pediatric anxiety. Child Life utilizes medical play to address the entire hospitalization and surgical experience. Play therapy reduces behavioral issues by giving the child a place of freedom, control, and autonomy during hospitalization thereby supporting children emotionally in their time of chaos, fear, and pain. As children progressively learn to see themselves as individuals capable of making choices, not simply being subject to choices made on their behalf, their disruptive behavioral expressions dissipate.

In certain situations the child’s responses to stress cannot be considered autonomous because they may assume parental emotions. For example, parents tend to underestimate children’s symptoms of trauma. This denial may be characteristic of parental avoidance of the discomfort from traumatic experience for themselves and their children resulting in the child expressing denial as well. Thus, Child Life Specialists must often focus on parents and spend time answering questions raised by the family. This competition for care can make it difficult for children to accurately and thoroughly express their worries.

Play therapy is a specialized form of child therapy that focuses solely on the child patient. Play therapists have a minimum of a master’s degree in a mental health field with required training in child and family therapy. Until licensed, the play therapist is under supervision from a seasoned clinician. Registered Play Therapists (RPT) complete two years and 2000 direct contact hours of supervised clinical experience, including 500 h of supervised play therapy experience. In addition, play therapists are required to complete 150 h of play therapy-specific training.

CCPT is a unique form of child therapy focusing on the child rather than the problem and the present rather than the past. Feelings are capitalized over thoughts or acts and understanding matters more than explanation. Using CCPT the play therapist-child relationship becomes one of acceptance rather than correction. In addition, the child’s direction is more important than the therapist’s instruction with the child’s wisdom more valued more than the therapist’s knowledge.

True play is pleasurable, intrinsically satisfying, and complete. It is voluntary, free from evaluation and judgment, and encourages the use of imagination. Healthy play increases interest and involvement, encourages the development of self, and is person-focused, not object-focused. It allows a child to gain insight and reduces anxiety through expression of fears. Often, children’s play will reveal what they have experienced, their reactions, what they need in life, and self-concept.

In CCPT, children are viewed as capable of positive self-direction. Landreth presented 10 basic tenets in applying CCPT to children: (a) Children are not miniature adults; (b) Children are people; (c) Children are unique and worthy of respect; (d) Children are resilient; (e) Children have an inherent tendency toward growth and maturity; (f) Children are capable of positive self-direction; (g) Children’s natural language is play; (h) Children have a right to remain silent; (i) Children will take the therapeutic experience to where they need to be; and (j) Children’s growth cannot be sped up. These principles remain fundamental especially in hospitalized settings.
Several intensive and short-term play therapy interventions for anxious children have been shown to produce successful outcomes. In these studies the most important factor in the therapeutic relationship was the play therapist’s ability to create an environment of freedom welcoming all expression of emotions. While Ray has noted that optimal time for therapeutic play sessions are from 30 min to 45 min we have found that a 15 min CCPT intervention reduced self-reported anxiety in a pediatric, pre-surgical cohort. This supports Landreth’s conclusion that relationship and experience are more important than the content and length of the sessions and indicates that short therapeutic interactions with children can bring healing from emotional distress.

Conclusion

Research emphasizes the importance of psychologically preparing children for surgical procedures and hospitalization. Numerous studies have demonstrated the efficacy of play therapy to reduce anxiety and improve outcomes within the hospital setting. Medical play invites the hospitalized child to play out fears and emotions pertaining to the hospitalization experiences, specific diagnoses, and treatment concerns. Therapeutic CCPT in a medical setting differs greatly from that of medical play in that the child is given wide parameters in object and expression. This more effectively prepares the child psychologically for surgery and assists in their recovery.

Pediatric surgeons have an important role in the development of procedure specific guidelines that will allow the play therapist to effectively address their patients’ anxieties. The surgeon is uniquely able to educate the therapist regarding the procedure and recovery and should communicate any insights they may have regarding a particular patient’s psychological state. Since CCPT has been demonstrated to have a positive effect on their patients, pediatric surgeons can also be important advocates when allocation of hospital resources may affect play-therapy program funding.

References
