

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Cognitive impairment following traumatic brain injury in Uganda: Prevalence and associated factors

Timothy Mwanje Kintu¹, Vanessa Katengeke², Ronald Kamoga¹, Tricia Nguyen³, Josephine Nambi Najjuma¹, David Kitya⁴, Edith K. Wakida^{2,5}, Celestino Obua^{1,2}, Godfrey Zari Rukundo^{6*}

1 Faculty of Medicine, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda, **2** Office of Research Administration, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda, **3** California University of Science and Medicine, Colton, California, United States of America, **4** Department of Neurosurgery, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda, **5** Department of Medical Education, California University of Science and Medicine, Colton, California, United States of America, **6** Department of Psychiatry, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda

* grukundo@must.ac.ug



OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Kintu TM, Katengeke V, Kamoga R, Nguyen T, Najjuma JN, Kitya D, et al. (2023) Cognitive impairment following traumatic brain injury in Uganda: Prevalence and associated factors. *PLOS Glob Public Health* 3(2): e0001459. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0001459>

Editor: Palash Chandra Banik, Bangladesh University of Health Sciences, BANGLADESH

Received: July 5, 2022

Accepted: December 13, 2022

Published: February 6, 2023

Copyright: © 2023 Kintu et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: The data underlying the findings in the paper has been attached as [Supporting Information](#).

Funding: Research reported in this publication was supported by the Fogarty International Center (U.S. Department of State's Office of the U.S. Global AIDS Coordinator and Health Diplomacy (S/GAC) and the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number 3R25TW011210 (Supplement). The project name is: 'Alzheimer's Disease and

Abstract

Background

As the burden of dementia continues to rise in sub-Saharan Africa, it is crucial to develop an evidence base for potentially modifiable risk factors such as Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI). Cognitive impairment may result from TBI and since it is an established prodromal form of dementia, we investigated the burden of cognitive impairment and associated factors in persons with a history of TBI in southwestern Uganda.

Methods

This was a community-based quantitative study with a cross-sectional design among 189 persons with a history of TBI in southwestern Uganda. Data were collected by the research team in March and June 2022 and entered into Kobo Toolbox before being transferred to RStudio version 4.1.0 for cleaning and analysis. Data were analyzed at a 5% level of significance.

Results

Most study participants had some form of cognitive impairment (56.1%), with 43.1% of the participants having mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Cognitive impairment was associated with older age (p -value<0.001); loss of consciousness following the TBI (p -value = 0.019) and a history of tobacco use (p -value = 0.003). As a measure of severity of the TBI, loss of consciousness (aOR = 4.09; CI = 1.57–11.76; p <0.01) and older age (aOR = 1.04; CI = 1.01–1.07; p <0.01) were identified as risk factors for cognitive impairment.

Conclusion

There is a high burden of cognitive impairment among individuals with a history of TBI in southwestern Uganda, and most associated risk factors are potentially modifiable. Long-

Related Dementias Health Professions Training Initiative (ARDHePTI). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

term follow-up of TBI patients would enable early identification of some risks. Patients with TBI could benefit from behavioural modifications such as restriction of alcohol intake and tobacco use to slow down the progression into dementia.

Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a common occurrence all over the world, with the incidence of TBI in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) known to be higher than the global incidence [1]. TBI is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide [2], and is especially common among young adults [3]. It has been identified as one of the most established risk factors for neurologic and psychiatric illnesses including dementia [4]. One of the consequences of TBI is Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) [5], which is a prodromal form of Alzheimer's disease (AD) [6]. Currently, East Africa has the highest number of people living with dementia in SSA (690,000 people) and is projected to have the highest proportionate increase in the number of people living with dementia (72%) between 2015 and 2030 [7]. In a survey conducted in Ugandan rural communities, one in five people aged 60 or older was found to have a probable diagnosis of dementia [8]. Although dementia is predominantly a disease among the elderly aged 65 years or older, there is increasing evidence of early onset dementia in people younger than 65 years [9, 10]. TBI is potentially one of the risk factors for early onset of dementia in young people.

Multiple pathological processes link TBI to neurodegeneration and dementia [11]. These include long-term brain changes and accumulation of pathological biomarkers in people with a history of TBI [12]. However, these findings are not consistent across persons with a history of TBI [13, 14] and some studies have not reported this association between TBI and dementia [15–17]. This controversy has been related to methodological approaches and failure to use standardized criteria to define both TBI and dementia [12, 17]. The other possible limitations of previous facility-based studies include reliance on patients admitted to hospital for ascertainment of dementia, scarce information on TBI severity, absence of comparison to non-TBI controls, and absence of death data [18]. Currently, there is limited evidence of this association and the influence of any other factors that exist in low- and middle-income countries where 60% of people with dementia live [19]. Previously, a study done in Central Uganda following up patients admitted with TBI reported the incidence of neurocognitive impairment to be 28.4% [20], although this study only followed up patients for 6 months and had a high loss to follow-up.

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) can have devastating life-long consequences that significantly reduce quality of life [21]. Recent improvements in critical care and rehabilitation have increased survival beyond the acute period, while the effects of TBI are carried across the life-span as the people develop and grow older [22]. This may potentially increase the incidence of dementia in the aging population. Although some studies have investigated risk factors for dementia in the African population [23–27], there is paucity of information on TBI as a risk factor for dementia in the Ugandan population. The aim of this study was to determine the prevalence and factors associated with cognitive impairment following TBI in southwestern Uganda.

Methods

Study design and setting

This was a community-based cross-sectional study done in southwestern Uganda in May and June 2022. We used the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) tool to screen for cognitive

impairment among persons with a history of TBI. The study was conducted in nine selected communities of southwestern Uganda, purposively chosen due to the documented high prevalence of TBI.

Study population and sample size

The study population included persons 18 years or older with a history of TBI in south-western Uganda. Only persons that had been discharged from hospital were included. Additionally, all participants must have experienced a TBI more than one month prior to the time of data collection. All participants gave written informed consent prior to inclusion in the study. Persons with visual disabilities were excluded from the study because the MoCA required visual ability. Persons who had had less than 10 years of education were screened with MoCA-B. The survey sample size was determined using the method from Hazra and Gogtay [28]. The Response Distribution (RD) was 0.28 based on previous findings that reported a prevalence of 28% of cognitive impairment following TBI in Uganda [20]. The margin of error (ME) used was 0.05, and a z-value of 1.96 was used. The formula for finite population correction was then applied to calculate the corrected sample size, with a population size of 579 based on the records of the TBI trauma register at Mbarara Regional Referral Hospital (MRRH). The calculated sample size was 202 respondents. We were able to recruit 189 participants in this study.

Sampling criteria

The head trauma registers at MRRH were used to identify persons that met the study inclusion criteria. A member of the neurosurgery team that compiled the trauma register contacted the study participants for their availability to participate in the study. Participants that accepted to take part in the study were then followed up in the communities for recruitment. Additionally, district health educators were contacted to liaise with village health teams (VHT) to identify persons in the different communities with a history of head injury, and met the inclusion criteria for the study. Majority of the participants (152) were recruited through the VHTs, whereas only 37 participants could be traced from the hospital registry. This was due to the fact that most of the contacts in the hospital registry, that met the eligibility criteria for this study, either could not be reached or had passed on. Prior to enrolment, participants were interviewed for events surrounding the TBI and their reports were correlated with the report from the VHTs to avoid participant bias. Persons that consented to taking part in the study were invited to the nearest district health centre for screening. Four district health centres were chosen based on proximity to the study participants.

Data collection tools

Questionnaire. Sociodemographic information was collected from the participants (or caretakers) including: gender (male or female), age (in years), level of education (no formal education, primary, secondary, undergraduate levels), history of smoking (yes or no) and history of alcohol use (yes or no). This study defined TBI as any penetrating and non-penetrating blunt and blast injuries to the brain. Information regarding the history of TBI was obtained for example; time since the last TBI (in months), number of TBIs experienced by the person, severity of the TBI (including the experience of any loss of consciousness), presence of any neurologic illness before the first TBI (such as clinically diagnosed dementia, CNS tumours, Parkinson's), care received for the TBI (including length of hospital stay and medications or surgery) and the presence of any comorbidities in the patients (including but not limited to: HIV, hypertension, diabetes and any central nervous system—CNS disorders).

Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA)

The Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) is a standardized screening tool that was used to determine the presence of cognitive impairment in the study participants [29]. The MoCA was designed as a rapid screening instrument for mild cognitive dysfunction, and assesses different cognitive domains: attention and concentration, executive functions, memory, language, visuo-constructional skills, conceptual thinking, calculations, and orientation [30]. The MoCA was chosen because it is more sensitive than other tools in detection of cognitive impairment [31]. Importantly, the MoCA has previously been used and validated in a rural African setting in Tanzania [32] which is similar to our study setting. For participants that had more than 12 years in school of formal education, the MoCA tool was administered because literacy-dependent tasks may affect one's score. Formal education in this study was defined as the structured education system in Uganda running from primary through secondary and tertiary levels. The MoCA was translated to Runyankole, the local dialect in southwestern Uganda and reviewed by a trained psychiatrist who was part of the research team and had a good understanding of Runyankole and Rukiga. In the naming section, the horse, tiger and duck were changed to a cow, lion and hen in order to provide pictures relevant to the local population. The total possible score on the MoCA was 30 points and a score of 26 or above was considered normal; a score of 19–24 was considered mild cognitive impairment; a score of 10 to 18 was considered moderate cognitive impairment and a score of less than 10 was considered severe cognitive impairment [29].

Montreal Cognitive Assessment-Basic (MoCA-B)

The Montreal Cognitive Assessment -Basic (MoCA-B) was also adopted. MoCA-B is similar to the MoCA but was specifically created for screening patients with low education. Specifically, literacy-dependent tasks are eliminated and literacy-independent tasks that measured the same cognitive function are substituted in the MoCA-B. The MoCA-B was also translated to Runyankole to guide the research assistants in screening the participants. The total possible score on the MoCA-B was 30 points and a score of 26 or above was considered normal [33].

Data collection procedures

Following ethics approval and administrative clearances from Mbarara University of Science and Technology Research Ethics Committee (MUST-2021-326) and MRRH Hospital Director respectively, the trauma register at MRRH was accessed to identify target participants. The study was also approved by the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (HS2257ES). Contact details were extracted from the registers by the trauma team that had initially collected the data from the TBI patients. In cases where the target participant details were missing, those of the recorded caretaker were used. District Health Officers (DHOs) were also contacted for further administrative approval to contact persons with a history of TBI in the respective communities. Subsequently, district health coordinators and VHTs were contacted to identify persons in the different communities that had a history of head trauma and met the selection criteria for the study.

Identified persons with TBI history were briefed on the study and what it entailed. Those that accepted to take part in the study were then asked to report to the nearest health centre on a selected day for the screening to be done. The study was conducted by qualified research assistants with a background training (undergraduate or diploma) in a healthcare-related field. The four research assistants were trained on use of the study tools prior to data collection. The research assistants received a training based on the training and certification programme on the MoCA website (<https://www.mocatest.org/get-certified/>).

Prior to participating in the study, the research assistants took the potential participants through the consenting process, and all of the participants provided written informed consent.

If the study participant met any of the criteria for determining a lack of capacity [34], like in cases of severe cognitive impairment, consent was received only from the caretakers or next of kin. However, in this study, no caretakers were required to provide consent. The sociodemographic questionnaire and the MoCA were then administered to the participant. The data collection process took approximately 25 minutes. An incentive in terms of transportation reimbursement depending on the distance travelled was provided to all study participants.

Data management and analysis

In the field, data collection was done using printed questionnaires. Questionnaires were then reviewed for completeness at the end of each data collection day by the principal investigator. Completed questionnaires were kept in a locked cabinet and were only accessible to the lead author. In Kobo Toolbox, a data entry screen with checks was created before data being entered. Data was then transferred into the data analysis software, RStudio version 4.1.0. Data cleaning was done prior to the analysis. Continuous variables were analyzed using descriptive statistics that are: frequencies, means, medians and ranges and categorical variables using proportions, the T-test and chi-square analysis. Logistic regression was then done; first, bivariate analysis and then multivariate level adjusting for all variables. For the logistic regression model, some variables were recoded. The MoCA score was adjusted to a binary outcome, with a score greater than 25 being considered normal. Additionally, level of education was also adjusted to a binary outcome with participants that had gone beyond primary school being described as having eight or more years of formal education. Analysis was done at a 5% level of significance and only variables with a *p*-value less than 0.05 in the univariate regression were included in the final model. The primary outcome in this study was the presence of cognitive impairment, depending on the MoCA scores.

Results

Characteristics of study participants

We enrolled 189 persons with a history of TBI in south-western Uganda. It was found that the majority of these persons (56.1%) had some form of cognitive impairment (Table 1). Fig 1 shows a breakdown of cognitive impairment by age. The mean age of the study participants was 43.13 ± 14.86 and majority of the study participants were male (78.7%). There was history of alcohol use among 137 participants (73.3%) and history of tobacco use among 49 participants (25.9%). Participants that had experienced a chronic deficit (such as loss of motor or sensory function or deficit in any of the special senses) following the TBI constituted 40.8% of the total population (Table 1).

Factors associated with cognitive impairment in persons with a history of TBI

Age was identified to have an association with cognitive function; persons with cognitive impairment had a higher mean age as compared to those with normal cognitive function (47.2 vs. 38.0 years; *p*-value < 0.001). Loss of consciousness following the TBI (*p*-value 0.019) and a history of tobacco use were also associated with cognitive impairment among persons with a history of TBI (Table 2).

Predictors of cognitive impairment among persons with a history of TBI

Table 3 shows the results of a bivariate and multivariate logistic regression done to identify predictors of cognitive impairment among persons with a history of TBI. Notably, on multivariate adjustment, age (aOR = 1.04; CI = 1.01–1.07; *p*<0.01) and loss of consciousness

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the study participants.

Characteristic	Description	Total (%)
Age	Mean (sd)	43.13 (14.86)
Gender	Female	40 (21.3)
	Male	148 (78.7)
Cognitive function	Normal	83 (43.9)
	Mild Cognitive impairment	81 (43.1)
	Moderate cognitive impairment	22 (11.7)
	Severe cognitive impairment	2 (1.1)
Level of Education	No formal education	25 (13.2)
	Primary	115 (60.8)
	Secondary (A level)	11 (5.8)
	Secondary (O level)	34 (18.0)
	Undergraduate	4 (2.1)
Number of TBIs	More than one	37 (19.6)
	One	152 (80.4)
Number of years since TBI	Median (IQR)	3.0 (1.0 to 10.0)
History of chronic disease	No	160 (85.1)
	Yes	28 (14.9)
History of alcohol use	No history	50 (26.7)
	History	137 (73.3)
Loss of consciousness following TBI	No	27 (14.4)
	Yes	161 (85.6)
History of tobacco use	No history	140 (74.1)
	History	49 (25.9)
Chronic deficit following TBI	No	109 (59.2)
	Yes	75 (40.8)

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0001459.t001>

following the TBI (aOR = 4.09; CI = 1.57–11.76; $p < 0.01$) still remained significant predictors of having cognitive impairment in this cohort of patients (**Table 3**).

Discussion

The main objective of this study was to determine the prevalence and predictors of cognitive impairment among persons with a history of TBI in southwestern Uganda. The prevalence of cognitive impairment among this sub-population of patients was 56.1%, with age and loss of consciousness following the TBI identified as predictors of cognitive impairment.

The prevalence (56.1%) of cognitive impairment in our study is quite high. This study's prevalence of cognitive impairment is slightly higher to that of a meta-analysis conducted by Tsai and colleagues in 2021 that estimated the prevalence of cognitive impairment to range between 20% and 50% [35]. Another study reported that following moderate to severe TBI, approximately 65% of patients report some form of impaired cognitive function [36], but the study measured cognitive function in terms of independence as opposed to memory, language, and communication domains utilized in our research. Additionally, none of these studies reported findings from an African setting. The prevalence is higher than that identified in a previous study done in the same setting that also used the MoCA to screen for dementia in elderly patients [37], possibly due to the fact that screening in the current study was done among individuals that already had an increased risk for cognitive impairment—TBI. Additionally, the MoCA has not been validated in our setting.

Cognitive Impairment by Age

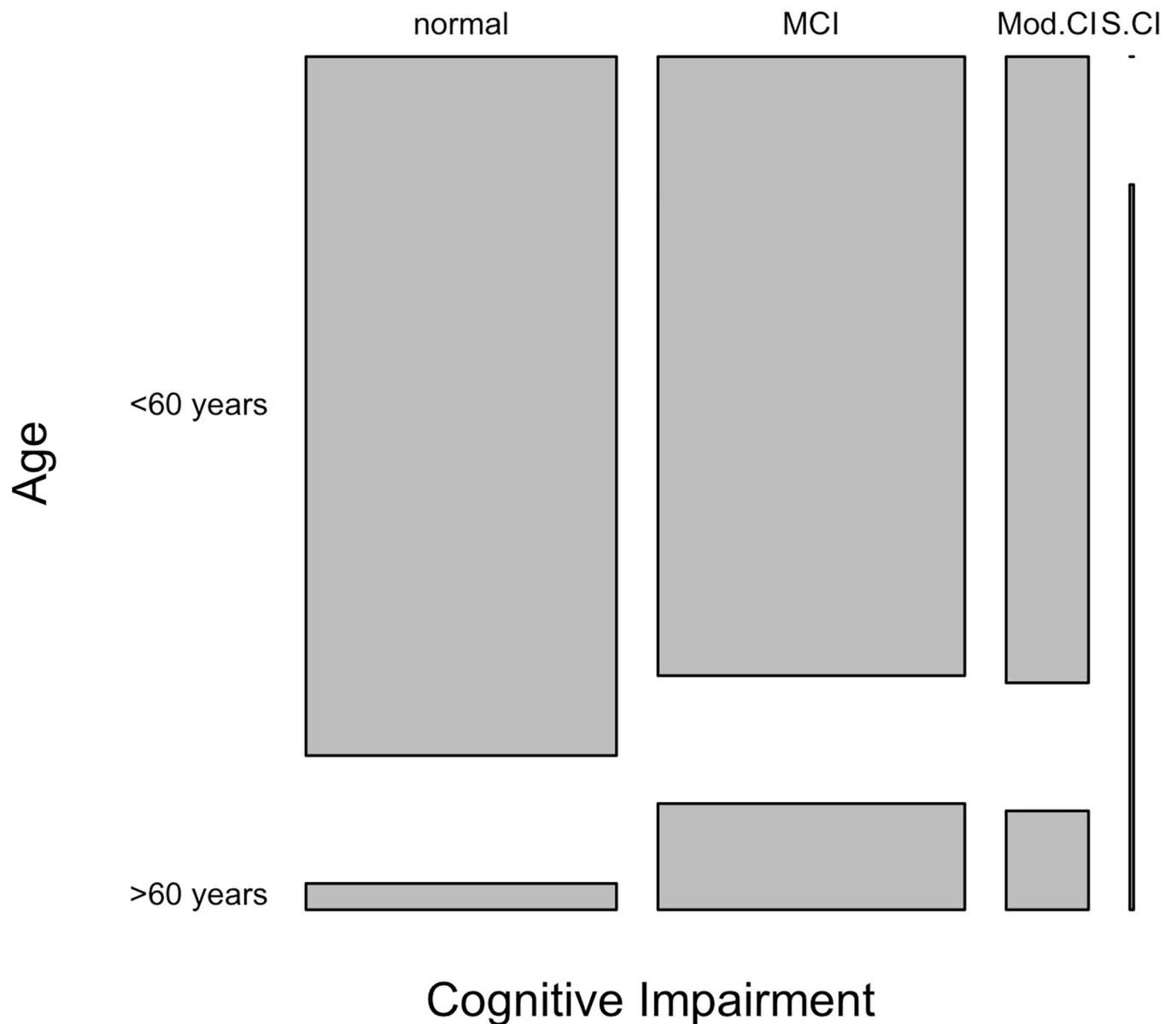


Fig 1. A mosaic plot of cognitive function by age. MCI—mild Cognitive Impairment; Mod. CI—Moderate Cognitive Impairment; S. CI—Severe Cognitive Impairment.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0001459.g001>

Of the study participants, 43% had mild cognitive impairment (MCI), 11.7% had moderate cognitive impairment and 1.1% had severe cognitive impairment. The high number of persons with mild cognitive impairment in this population is worrying given that it may be a prodromal form of Alzheimer’s disease (AD) [6]. Additionally, the likelihood of progression to any form of dementia is suggested to occur at a rate of 3 to 5 times higher in people with impaired cognition as compared to those with normal cognition [38]. This underscores the need to

Table 2. Results from chi-square analysis and T-test showing association between the participants’ characteristics and cognitive impairment.

Characteristic	Description	Cognitive function		p-value
		Normal	Cognitive Impairment	
Total N = 189 (%)		83 (43.9)	106 (56.1)	
Age	Mean (SD)	38.0 (12.3)	47.2 (15.5)	<0.01
Gender	female	16 (19.3)	24 (22.9)	0.68
	male	67 (80.7)	81 (77.1)	
Level of education	8 years or more of formal education	23 (27.7)	26 (24.5)	0.743
	Less than 8 years of education	60 (72.3)	80 (75.5)	
Number of TBIs	more than one	18 (21.7)	19 (17.9)	0.62
	one	65 (78.3)	87 (82.1)	
Number of years since TBI	Mean (SD)	8.4 (11.2)	8.0 (11.8)	0.82
History of chronic disease	no	67 (80.7)	93 (88.6)	0.20
	yes	16 (19.3)	12 (11.4)	
History of alcohol use	no history	21 (25.6)	29 (27.6)	0.89
	history	61 (74.4)	76 (72.4)	
Loss of consciousness following TBI	no	18 (21.7)	9 (8.6)	0.02
	yes	65 (78.3)	96 (91.4)	
History of tobacco use	no history	71 (85.5)	69 (65.1)	<0.01
	history	12 (14.5)	37 (34.9)	
Chronic deficit following TBI	no	54 (67.5)	55 (52.9)	0.06
	yes	26 (32.5)	49 (47.1)	

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0001459.t002>

identify persons with MCI in this population and address modifiable risk factors that may hasten the progression to AD.

As a determinant of severity of TBI in this study, a self-report of loss of consciousness following the injury was assessed. Previously, loss of consciousness has been linked to severity of

Table 3. Predictors of cognitive impairment among persons with a history of TBI.

Characteristic	Description	crude Odds Ratio (cOR)	p-value	adjusted Odds Ratio (aOR)	p-value
Age	Mean (SD)	1.05 (1.03–1.08)	<0.01	1.04 (1.01–1.07)	<0.01
Gender	Female	-		-	-
	Male	0.81 (0.39–1.63)	0.55	-	-
Level of education	8 or more years of formal education	-		-	-
	Less than 8 years	1.18 (0.61–2.27)	0.62	-	-
Number of TBIs	One	-		-	-
	More than one	0.79 (0.38–1.63)	0.52	-	-
Number of years since TBI	Mean (SD)	1.00 (0.97–1.02)	0.82	-	-
History of chronic disease	No	-		-	-
	Yes	0.49 (0.21–1.12)	0.1	-	-
History of alcohol use	No	-		-	-
	Yes	0.90 (0.46–1.73)	0.76	-	-
Loss of consciousness following TBI	No	-		-	-
	Yes	2.95 (1.28–7.27)	0.01	4.09 (1.57–11.76)	<0.01
History of tobacco use	No	-		-	-
	Yes	3.17 (1.57–6.82)	<0.01	2.01 (0.89–4.75)	0.1
Chronic deficit following TBI	No	-		-	-
	Yes	1.85 (1.02–3.42)	0.047	1.54 (0.79–3.01)	0.21

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0001459.t003>

head injury [39, 40]. Our findings indicated that head injury leading to loss of consciousness had a four-fold risk of cognitive impairment. A previous study reported that individuals who experienced loss of consciousness following the TBI were at approximately 50% increased risk of dementia [41] while another reported a four-fold risk for dementia in head injury with loss of consciousness as compared to a two-fold risk for head injury without loss of consciousness [42]. Due to the fact that none of these studies reflected data from an African population, the present findings are important in guiding treatment interventions in patients in sub-Saharan Africa. Closer monitoring and long-term follow-up programs to give timely support, in respect to dementia development and progression, for TBI patients with history of loss of consciousness is necessary. Level of consciousness is an important indicator of TBI severity [43] especially in low-resource settings such as Uganda where it may not be possible to do diagnostic tests and detailed patient assessments. However, in this study, loss of consciousness was based on a self-report by study participants introducing a high likelihood of recall bias among the study participants. Additionally, a previous study in the US reported that use of level of consciousness as a proxy for TBI severity may be inaccurate due to use of sedatives [44]; that a participant in this study may have erroneously recalled as losing consciousness.

Previously, a dose response relationship has been described; with a mild single TBI showing a weaker association with dementia diagnosis than severe and more TBIs [45]. This has been attributed to the index TBI conferring vulnerability to cognitive outcomes in subsequent TBIs [46]. However, in this study only severity of the TBI was found to be a significant predictor of cognitive impairment and not the number of TBIs. This could be due to the low proportion of people (19.6%) that experienced multiple TBIs in this study. However, a study done in Sweden suggested that people that experience multiple TBIs may have had other risk factors for dementia such as low cognitive function and use of intoxicants prior to the TBI [47].

Age has been the most commonly identified risk factor for dementia [48] and among our study participants, age was an independent predictor for cognitive impairment. Current improvements in critical care and rehabilitation translate into improved survival of many TBI patients; carrying the effects of their injury across their lifespan as they develop and grow old [22]. This signifies the need for development of closer follow-up for TBI patients beyond acute care to enable timely identification and management of cognitive impairment, giving more attention to those with advanced age.

To our knowledge, this is among the first studies to document long-term cognitive impairment and risk factors among persons who have experienced TBI in sub-Saharan Africa. This presents an opportunity for future studies to build evidence base on modifiable risk factors for AD in people that experience TBI. However, one major limitation of this study is that it was based on patient self-report of TBI and the surrounding events such as loss of consciousness and thereby introducing recall bias and participant bias. Additionally, the TBI questionnaire was delivered prior to the MoCA, which could have introduced possible observer bias. Nonetheless, we correlated the self-report of TBI with that of community health workers to ensure accuracy of the history of TBI. The cohort of patients with a history of TBI may not have been large enough for our results to be generalizable. We suggest the use of larger trauma databases of persons with a history of TBI to confirm some of the associations identified in this study.

Given that this was a cross-sectional study, we could not establish a causal relationship between TBI and cognitive impairment. Therefore, we recommend cohort studies to follow up patients with TBI and establish the risk of development of cognitive impairment and subsequently, dementia. Although the MoCA has previously been used in southwestern Uganda [37], no formal tool validation has been done. However, the translated version of the MoCA was reviewed by a team of health professionals led by a consultant psychiatrist who had a good

understanding of the Runyankore-Rukiga language. The lack of formal tool validation could have affected the results in this study. There is need for formal tool validation in this study setting. Finally, we did not establish a control group to determine the prevalence of cognitive impairment in the general population in Uganda. Subsequent cross-sectional studies should consider using non-TBI persons as controls, as this has been reported to reduce the effect of confounders that are likely to exist across both groups and may increase TBI-prone individuals' risk for dementia [49], for instance, history of chronic diseases or history of alcohol use in this case.

Conclusion and recommendations

There is a high burden of cognitive impairment among adults with a history of TBI in Uganda, confirming that TBI seems to have a role to play in the development of Cognitive Impairment even in our setting. There is a need to establish clinical management protocols that implement long-term follow-up of patients that experience TBI to enable early diagnosis, rehabilitation, and clinical management to slow progression to dementia. This study identified modifiable risk factors such as smoking as predictors of cognitive impairment. Behavioral modification programs among TBI patients should be provided, for instance, restriction of tobacco use; dietary and lifestyle interventions. Interestingly, alcohol use was found to be protective against the development of cognitive impairment. Longitudinal studies in the Ugandan population are needed to further explore the association between alcohol use and dementia.

Supporting information

S1 Checklist. STROBE guidelines for reporting observational studies. These are the guidelines that were followed in writing this manuscript.
(DOC)

S1 Data. Document containing de-identified raw data on the study participants.
(PDF)

Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the Research Assistants who fully participated in the collection of the data. They also thank Dr. Moses Ocan and Prof. Elialilia Okello for their guidance towards the development of an earlier draft of this paper. The authors also acknowledge the various study participants for their contribution towards the data collected in this study.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Timothy Mwanje Kintu, Vanessa Katengeke, Tricia Nguyen, Edith K. Wakida, Celestino Obua, Godfrey Zari Rukundo.

Formal analysis: Timothy Mwanje Kintu.

Funding acquisition: Edith K. Wakida, Celestino Obua.

Investigation: Timothy Mwanje Kintu, Vanessa Katengeke, Ronald Kamoga.

Methodology: Timothy Mwanje Kintu, Ronald Kamoga, Tricia Nguyen, Josephine Nambi Najjuma, Godfrey Zari Rukundo.

Project administration: Godfrey Zari Rukundo.

Resources: Vanessa Katengeke, Ronald Kamoga, Tricia Nguyen, Josephine Nambi Najjuma, David Kitya, Edith K. Wakida.

Supervision: David Kitya, Celestino Obua, Godfrey Zari Rukundo.

Writing – original draft: Timothy Mwanje Kintu.

Writing – review & editing: Timothy Mwanje Kintu, Vanessa Katengeke, Ronald Kamoga, Tricia Nguyen, Josephine Nambi Najjuma, David Kitya, Edith K. Wakida, Celestino Obua, Godfrey Zari Rukundo.

References

1. Adegboyega G, Zolo Y, Sebopelo LA, Dalle DU, Dada OE, Mbangtang CB, et al. The Burden of Traumatic Brain Injury in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Scoping Review. *World Neurosurg* 2021; 156:e192–205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2021.09.021> PMID: 34520864
2. Johnson WD, Griswold DP. Traumatic brain injury: a global challenge. *Lancet Neurol* 2017; 16:949–50. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422\(17\)30362-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422(17)30362-9) PMID: 29122521
3. Mayo Clinic. Traumatic brain injury 2021. <https://www.mayoclinic.org/diseases-conditions/traumatic-brain-injury/symptoms-causes/syc-20378557> (accessed August 16, 2022).
4. Shively S, Scher AI, Perl DP, Diaz-Arrastia R. Dementia Resulting From Traumatic Brain Injury. *Arch Neurol* 2012; 69:1245–51. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archneurol.2011.3747>.
5. LoBue C, Woon FL, Rossetti HC, Hynan LS, Hart J, Cullum CM. Traumatic Brain Injury History and Progression from Mild Cognitive Impairment to Alzheimer Disease. *Neuropsychology* 2018; 32:401–9. <https://doi.org/10.1037/neu0000431> PMID: 29809031
6. Chandra A, Dervenoulas G, Politis M, for the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative. Magnetic resonance imaging in Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment. *J Neurol* 2019; 266:1293–302. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-018-9016-3>.
7. Prince M, Wimo A, Guerchet M, Ali G-C, Wu Y-T, Prina M. World Alzheimer Report 2015: The Global Impact of Dementia. 2015.
8. Mubangizi V, Maling S, Obua C, Tsai AC. Prevalence and correlates of Alzheimer ' s disease and related dementias in rural study. *BMC Geriatr* 2020; 20:1–7.
9. Harvey RJ. The prevalence and causes of dementia in people under the age of 65 years. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2003; 74:1206–9. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jnnp.74.9.1206> PMID: 12933919
10. Masellis M, Sherborn K, Neto PR, Sadovnick DA, Hsiung G-YR, Black SE, et al. Early-onset dementias: diagnostic and etiological considerations. *Alzheimers Res Ther* 2013; 5:S7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/alzrt197> PMID: 24565469
11. Brett BL, Gardner RC, Godbout J, Dams-O'Connor K, Keene CD: Traumatic Brain Injury and Risk of Neurodegenerative Disorder. *Biological psychiatry* 2022, 91(5):498–507 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2021.05.025> PMID: 34364650
12. Lobue C, Munro C, Schaffert J, Didehbani N, Hart J, Batjer H, et al. Traumatic Brain Injury and Risk of Long-Term Brain Changes, Accumulation of Pathological Markers, and Developing Dementia: A Review. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2019; 70:629–54. <https://doi.org/10.3233/JAD-190028> PMID: 31282414
13. Abner EL, Nelson PT, Schmitt FA, Browning SR, Fardo DW, Wan L, et al. Self-reported head injury and risk of late-life impairment and AD pathology in an AD Center cohort. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* 2014; 37:294–306. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000355478> PMID: 24401791
14. Kawai N, Kawanishi M, Kudomi N, Maeda Y, Yamamoto Y, Nishiyama Y, et al. Detection of brain amyloid β deposition in patients with neuropsychological impairment after traumatic brain injury: PET evaluation using Pittsburgh Compound-B. *Brain Inj* 2013; 27:1026–31. <https://doi.org/10.3109/02699052.2013.794963>.
15. Dams-O'Connor K, Gibbons LE, Bowen JD, McCurry SM, Larson EB, Crane PK. Risk for late-life re-injury, dementia and death among individuals with traumatic brain injury: A population-based study. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2013; 84:177–82. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jnnp-2012-303938> PMID: 23172868
16. Crane PK, Gibbons LE, Dams-O'Connor K, Trittschuh E, Leverenz CD, Keene CD, et al. Association between Traumatic Brain Injury and Late Life Neurodegenerative Conditions and Neuropathological Findings. *JAMA Neurol* 2016; 73:1062–9. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2016.1948.Association>.

17. Julien J, Joubert S, Ferland MC, Frenette LC, Boudreau-Duhaime MM, Malo-Véronneau L, et al. Association of traumatic brain injury and Alzheimer disease onset: A systematic review. *Ann Phys Rehabil Med* 2017; 60:347–56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rehab.2017.03.009> PMID: 28506441
18. Fann JR, Ribe AR, Pedersen HS, Fenger-Grøn M, Christensen J, Benros ME, et al. Long-term risk of dementia among people with traumatic brain injury in Denmark: a population-based observational cohort study. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2018; 5:424–31. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(18\)30065-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(18)30065-8) PMID: 29653873
19. Wimo A, Guerchet M, Ali G-C, Wu Y-T, Prina AM, Winblad B, et al. The worldwide costs of dementia 2015 and comparisons with 2010. *Alzheimers Dement* 2017; 13:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2016.07.150> PMID: 27583652
20. Bangirana P, Giordani B, Kobusingye O, Murungyi L, Mock C, John CC, et al. Patterns of traumatic brain injury and six-month neuropsychological outcomes in Uganda. *BMC Neurol* 2019; 19:18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12883-019-1246-1> PMID: 30717695
21. Rauen K, Reichelt L, Probst P, Schäpers B, Müller F, Jahn K, et al. Quality of life up to 10 years after traumatic brain injury: a cross-sectional analysis. *Health Qual Life Outcomes* 2020; 18:166. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12955-020-01391-3> PMID: 32498679
22. Hicks AJ, James AC, Spitz G, Ponsford JL. Traumatic Brain Injury as a Risk Factor for Dementia and Alzheimer Disease: Critical Review of Study Methodologies. *J Neurotrauma* 2019; 36:3191–219. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2018.6346> PMID: 31111768
23. Kalaria RN, Maestre GE, Arizaga R, Friedland RP, Galasko D, Hall K, et al. Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia in developing countries: prevalence, management, and risk factors. *Lancet Neurol* 2008; 7:812–26. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422\(08\)70169-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422(08)70169-8) PMID: 18667359
24. George-Carey R, Adeloje D, Chan KY, Paul A, Kolčić I, Campbell H, et al. An estimate of the prevalence of dementia in Africa: A systematic analysis. *J Glob Health* 2012; 2:1–13. <https://doi.org/10.7189/jogh.02.020401> PMID: 23289076
25. Ojagbemi A, Okekunle AP, Babatunde O. Dominant and Modifiable Risk Factors for Dementia in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Front Neurol* 2021; 12:1–11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2021.627761> PMID: 33841302
26. Olayinka OO, Mbuyi NN. Epidemiology of Dementia among the Elderly in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Int J Alzheimers Dis* 2014;2014. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/195750> PMID: 25177512
27. Ochayi B, Thacher TD. Risk factors for dementia in central Nigeria. *Aging Ment Health* 2006; 10:616–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13607860600736182> PMID: 17050090
28. Hazra A, Gogtay N. Biostatistics series module 5: Determining sample size. *Indian J Dermatol* 2016; 61:496. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5154.190119> PMID: 27688437
29. Nasreddine ZS, Philips NA, Bédirian V, Charbonneau S, Whitehead V, Collin I, et al. The Montreal Cognitive Assessment, MoCA: A Brief Screening Tool For Mild Cognitive Impairment. *Am Geriatr Soc* 2005. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-5415.2005.53221.x>
30. Julayanont P, Nasreddine ZS. Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA): Concept and Clinical Review. In: Larner AJ, editor. *Cogn. Screen. Instrum.*, Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2017, p. 139–95. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-44775-9_7
31. Siqueira GSA, Hagemann PDMS, Coelho DDS, Santos FH Dos, Bertolucci PHF, Heyn PC. Can MoCA and MMSE Be Interchangeable Cognitive Screening Tools? A Systematic Review. *Gerontologist* 2019; 59:E743–63. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geront/gny126> PMID: 30517634
32. Vissoci JRN, de Oliveira LP, Gafaar T, Haglund MM, Mvungi M, Mmbaga BT, et al. Cross-cultural adaptation and psychometric properties of the MMSE and MoCA questionnaires in Tanzanian Swahili for a traumatic brain injury population. *BMC Neurol* 2019; 19:1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12883-019-1283-9>
33. Julayanont P, Tangwongchai S, Hemrungronj S, Tunvirachaisakul C, Phanthumchinda K, Hongsawat J, et al. The Montreal Cognitive Assessment—Basic: A Screening Tool for Mild Cognitive Impairment in Illiterate and Low-Educated Elderly Adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2015; 63:2550–4. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jgs.13820> PMID: 26648041
34. S AP T G. MacArthur competence assessment tool for clinical research (MacCAT-CR) 2001.
35. Tsai Y-C, Liu C-J, Huang H-C, Lin J-H, Chen P-Y, Su Y-K, et al. A Meta-analysis of Dynamic Prevalence of Cognitive Deficits in the Acute, Subacute, and Chronic Phases After Traumatic Brain Injury. *J Neurosci Nurs* 2021; 53:63–8. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JNN.0000000000000570> PMID: 33538456
36. Whiteneck GG, Gerhart KA, Cusick CP. Identifying Environmental Factors That Influence the Outcomes of People With Traumatic Brain Injury: *J Head Trauma Rehabil* 2004; 19:191–204. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001199-200405000-00001> PMID: 15247842

37. Orikiriza P. Challenges of diagnosing dementia among elderly patients in a rural Referral Hospital, South-Western Uganda. *J Health Med Res* 2020; 2:2.
38. Campbell NL, Unverzagt F, LaMantia MA, Khan BA, Boustani MA. Risk Factors for the Progression of Mild Cognitive Impairment to Dementia. *Clin Geriatr Med* 2013; 29:873–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cger.2013.07.009> PMID: 24094301
39. Iverson G. Does Brief Loss of Consciousness Affect Cognitive Functioning After Mild Head Injury? *Arch Clin Neuropsychol* 2000; 15:643–8. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0887-6177\(99\)00048-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0887-6177(99)00048-7). PMID: 14590200
40. Kelly JP. Loss of Consciousness: Pathophysiology and Implications in Grading and Safe Return to Play. *J Athl Train* 2001; 36:249–52. PMID: 12937492
41. Fleminger S. Head injury as a risk factor for Alzheimer's disease: the evidence 10 years on; a partial replication. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2003; 74:857–62. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jnnp.74.7.857> PMID: 12810767
42. Guo Z, Cupples LA, Kurz A, Auerbach SH, Volicer L, Chui H, et al. Head injury and the risk of AD in the MIRAGE study. *Neurology* 2000; 54:1316–23. <https://doi.org/10.1212/wnl.54.6.1316> PMID: 10746604
43. Tenovuo O, Diaz-Arrastia R, Goldstein LE, Sharp DJ, van der Naalt J, Zasler ND. Assessing the Severity of Traumatic Brain Injury—Time for a Change? *J Clin Med* 2021; 10:148. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm10010148> PMID: 33406786
44. Stocchetti N, Pagan F, Calappi E, Canavesi K, Beretta L, Citerio G, et al. Inaccurate Early Assessment of Neurological Severity in Head Injury. *J Neurotrauma* 2004; 21:1131–40. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2004.21.1131> PMID: 15453984
45. Nordström A, Nordström P. Traumatic brain injury and the risk of dementia diagnosis: A nationwide cohort study. *PLOS Med* 2018; 15:e1002496. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002496> PMID: 29381704
46. Belanger HG, Vanderploeg RD. The neuropsychological impact of sports-related concussion: A meta-analysis. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc* 2005; 11:345–57. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1355617705050411> PMID: 16209414
47. Nordstrom A, Edin BB, Lindstrom S, Nordstrom P. Cognitive function and other risk factors for mild traumatic brain injury in young men: nationwide cohort study. *BMJ* 2013; 346:f723–f723. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.f723> PMID: 23482939
48. Alzheimer's Society. Risk factors for Dementia n.d.
49. Gardner RC, Burke JF, Nettiksimmons J, Kaup A, Barnes DE, Yaffe K. Dementia risk after brain versus non-brain trauma: the role of age and severity. *JAMA Neurol* 2014; 71:1490–7. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2014.2668>.