

Hesi Case Study Pediatric Burns

Introduction to Pediatric Burns and the HESI Case Study Approach

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Burn injuries in children represent one of the most challenging clinical scenarios in pediatric nursing. The unique physiological differences between children and adults demand specialized knowledge, rapid decision-making, and a compassionate approach to care. For nursing students preparing for the Health Education Systems, Inc. (HESI) exam, mastering the HESI case study pediatric burns topic is essential. These case studies simulate real-world clinical situations, testing a student's ability to integrate pathophysiology, pharmacology, growth and development.

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concepts, and family-centered care into a cohesive treatment plan.

Pediatric burn injuries are not simply smaller versions of adult burns. Children have thinner skin, a larger body surface area relative to their weight, and immature thermoregulatory systems. They also mount a more pronounced metabolic response to trauma. A 2023 report from the American Burn Association indicates that children under five years old account for nearly 25% of all burn-related emergency department visits. Scalding from hot liquids is the most common mechanism,

followed by flame burns and contact burns. Understanding these nuances is critical when navigating a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, as exam questions often probe the subtle differences in assessment, fluid resuscitation, and pain management that apply specifically to children.

This article explores the key components of managing pediatric burns through the lens of a HESI case study format. We will systematically examine the pathophysiology of burn injury, initial assessment using the ABCDE approach, fluid resuscitation protocols,

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wound care, pain management, nutritional support, and the psychosocial considerations unique to pediatric patients and their families. By the end, you should feel more confident in recognizing the critical thinking patterns required to succeed on this high-stakes examination topic.

Pathophysiology of Burn Injury in Children

When approaching a **HESI case study pediatric burns** question, one must first understand the local and systemic effects of thermal injury. Burns cause

direct cellular damage through protein denaturation and coagulation necrosis. The zone of coagulation is the area of irreversible tissue death at the wound center. Surrounding this is the zone of stasis, where blood flow is reduced but cells remain viable if adequate resuscitation occurs. The outermost zone of hyperemia involves increased blood flow and inflammation.

Successful nursing care aims to preserve the zone of stasis and prevent conversion to full-thickness injury.

Systemic Inflammatory Response

Syndrome

When a burn exceeds 15-20% of total body surface area (TBSA) in children, a systemic response begins. Proinflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-1, interleukin-6, and tumor necrosis factor-alpha are released, leading to increased capillary permeability. This results in massive fluid shifts from the intravascular space into the interstitial compartment. The classic "burn edema" that develops during the first 24 to 48 hours can compromise airway patency, especially if facial burns are present. Hypovolemic shock is the immediate threat, and prompt fluid

resuscitation is the cornerstone of initial management. HESI case studies frequently test your ability to recognize early signs of hypovolemia, such as tachycardia, decreased urine output, and delayed capillary refill, before hypotension becomes evident.

Metabolic and Immunologic Effects

Children with severe burns experience a hypermetabolic state that can persist for months. Their resting energy expenditure may double or triple, making nutritional support a priority. Additionally, burn injury disrupts the skin barrier, increasing the

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risk of infection. Immunosuppression occurs secondary to altered T-cell function and impaired neutrophil activity. Sepsis remains the leading cause of death in children with large burns. When studying a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, pay close attention to subtle indicators of infection such as fever, changes in wound appearance, or unexplained tachycardia, as these are commonly tested.

Initial Assessment and Resuscitation

Pediatric Burn Patient

The primary survey for a burned child follows the same ABCDE framework as any trauma patient, with special attention paid to the airway. Airway compromise can develop rapidly due to edema from inhalation injury or facial burns. Hoarseness, stridor, carbonaceous sputum, and singed nasal hairs are red flags. Early endotracheal intubation is often warranted before edema makes intubation difficult. In a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, you might be

asked to identify which patient requires immediate intubation based on these clinical clues.

Breathing and Ventilation

Circumferential chest burns can restrict chest wall movement and impair ventilation. Escharotomy, a surgical incision through the burnt skin to release pressure, may be necessary. Pulse oximetry readings can be falsely elevated in the presence of carbon monoxide poisoning, so arterial blood gases and carboxyhemoglobin levels are critical. Children with suspected inhalation injury should receive

100% oxygen until carbon monoxide levels normalize. HESI questions often test your ability to differentiate between airway obstruction due to edema and restrictive lung disease from chest wall eschar.

Circulation and Fluid Resuscitation

Fluid resuscitation is guided by the Parkland formula, but in children, maintenance fluids must also be included. The formula for children is 3 mL/kg/%TBSA burn of lactated Ringer's solution, with half given in the first 8 hours and the remainder over the next 16 hours. The time of injury, not the

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time of arrival, determines the resuscitation timeline. Urine output of 1 mL/kg/hour in children (compared to 0.5 mL/kg/hour in adults) is the preferred endpoint. In a **HESI case study pediatric burns** question, common distractors include using adult urine output goals or miscalculating the percentage of TBSA. Accuracy in applying the Lund and Browder chart, which accounts for the changing body proportions as children grow, is essential.

Disability and Exposure

A thorough neurologic examination establishes a baseline. Hypoxia,

hypoglycemia, or head trauma from the injury event can alter mental status. The child should be completely undressed to assess the full extent of burns, but hypothermia must be prevented. Burned children lose their ability to thermoregulate, and a warm environment with infrared lights or warming blankets is necessary. HESI case studies frequently include a question about maintaining normothermia, testing your knowledge of this often-overlooked intervention.

Wound Care



Once the child is hemodynamically stable, wound care becomes the central focus. Superficial burns (first-degree) require only moisturizers and pain relief. Partial-thickness burns (second-degree) are managed with topical antimicrobials and appropriate dressings. Silver sulfadiazine is commonly used, but it cannot be applied to the face or in patients with sulfa allergies. Mafenide acetate penetrates eschar well but causes metabolic acidosis when applied to large surfaces. For

full-thickness burns (third-degree), surgical excision and grafting are usually required.

Dressing Techniques and Infection Prevention

Wound care in children is often painful and anxiety-provoking. Premedicating with analgesics is standard. Biological dressings such as Biobrane or Integra can reduce pain and promote healing. Cultured epithelial autografts are used for massive burns when donor sites are limited. Nursing care includes careful assessment for signs of wound infection—green exudate, peri-wound cellulitis, or a change

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in odor. In a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, you might be asked to prioritize which wound requires immediate surgical debridement versus continued conservative management.

Pain Management in Pediatric Burns

Burn pain is among the most severe forms of pain, and children often suffer in ways that are difficult to articulate. Pain has two components: background pain at rest and procedural pain during dressing

changes or physical therapy. A multimodal approach combining opioids (morphine, fentanyl), nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and nonpharmacologic interventions such as distraction, guided imagery, or virtual reality yields the best results.

Pharmacologic Considerations

Fentanyl is often preferred for procedures due to its rapid onset and short duration. Patient-controlled analgesia can be used in older children, while continuous infusion or nurse-administered analgesia is reserved for younger patients. Respecting the child's

developmental stage is crucial. A toddler may respond to a pacifier and swaddling, while a school-age child might benefit from counting or singing. HESI case studies frequently include pain management questions that require you to select the most appropriate analgesic based on the child's age, burn severity, and the type of procedure being performed.

Nutritional Support and Metabolic Management

The hypermetabolic state following major burns creates a

catabolic crisis. Muscle wasting, impaired immune function, and delayed wound healing are direct consequences of inadequate nutrition. Enteral nutrition should begin within 24 to 48 hours of injury, preferably through a nasogastric or nasojejunal tube. Caloric needs are calculated using the Schofield equation or the burn-specific Curreri formula, which in children is often 25 to 30 kcal/kg plus 40 kcal per percentage of TBSA burned.

Protein requirements are high—3 to 4 g/kg/day—to support wound healing. Supplemental vitamins and minerals, particularly zinc,

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vitamin C, and vitamin A, are also essential. In a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, you may be asked to calculate the daily caloric requirement for a burned child or to identify the earliest sign of malnutrition, such as poor wound granulation or weight loss despite aggressive feeding.

Psychosocial and Family-Centered Care

A burn injury is traumatic for the entire family. Parents often experience guilt, especially when the

injury resulted from a preventable household accident. Siblings may feel neglected as attention shifts to the burned child. Children themselves may face body image disturbances, post-traumatic stress disorder, and difficulty reintegrating into school and social activities.

Developmental Considerations

Infants and toddlers may exhibit separation anxiety and regression in milestones like toilet training or speech. School-age children fear disfigurement and rejection by peers. Adolescents struggle with identity and independence, and visible scars can

severely impact their self-concept. HESI case studies often include a question about the most appropriate nursing intervention for a burned child at a specific developmental stage. For instance, offering a toddler a favorite toy or allowing an adolescent to participate in dressing changes can foster a sense of control.

Preparing for Discharge and Long-Term Follow-Up

Discharge planning begins on admission. The family must be educated about wound care, scar management with pressure garments, and the importance of physical and

occupational therapy. Signs of infection, contracture formation, and hypertrophic scarring must be reviewed. Referrals to burn support groups, child life specialists, and mental health professionals should be offered proactively. In a **HESI case study pediatric burns** scenario, you might be asked to identify the most important discharge instruction for a family, and the correct answer often involves preventing contractures through range-of-motion exercises.

Common Pitfalls in

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Questions

Students frequently struggle with accurate TBSA estimation. The "rule of nines" for adults assigns 9% to the head and each arm, 18% to the anterior and posterior trunk, and 18% to each leg. However, children have a proportionally larger head (18% in infants) and smaller legs. Always use the Lund and Browder chart. Another common error is failing to include maintenance fluids in the resuscitation calculation.

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Misidentifying the endpoint of resuscitation—such as using blood pressure instead of urine output—is also a frequent mistake. Finally, pain management in children is often undertested due to fear of respiratory depression, but HESI case studies emphasize that adequate analgesia is both safe and necessary.

Conclusion

The **HESI case study pediatric burns** topic challenges nursing students to integrate complex physiologic knowledge with compassionate, developmentally

appropriate care. From the moment of injury through the long journey of rehabilitation, each phase demands precise assessment, evidence-based interventions, and a deep understanding of the child and family experience. Mastering fluid resuscitation calculations, recognizing the indicators of inhalation injury, selecting appropriate analgesics for specific developmental stages, and anticipating the psychosocial fallout of scarring are all critical

skills. By approaching these case studies methodically—anchoring your thinking in pathophysiology while never losing sight of the human experience—you can build the clinical judgment needed not just to pass the HESI exam, but to provide excellent care to some of the most vulnerable patients in the acute care setting. As you prepare, remember that every burn is unique, every child is different, and every family deserves a nurse who is both knowledgeable and kind.