

The use of hypertonic solutions in prehospital care in Scandinavia

Joel Olsson¹, Christer Svensén²

Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med 2004; **12** ; 78-85

¹ Department of Anesthesiology University of
Texas Medical Branch Galveston, Texas, USA

² Department of Anesthesiology University of
Texas Medical Branch Galveston, Texas, USA

Correspondence

Christer Svensén, M.D., Ph.D.

Department of Anesthesiology

The University of Texas Medical Branch

301 University Blvd., Galveston, TX 77555-0591, USA

E-mail: chsvense@utmb.edu

ABSTRACT:

"Hypertonic solutions has recently been introduced in prehospital care in Scandinavia. Protocols were based on extensive meta-analyses showing that hypertonic saline dextran has safely been given to large numbers of trauma patients. Head trauma patients seem to specially benefit from these solutions."

Mechanisms of hypertonic solutions

In 1999, the Committee on Fluid Resuscitation for Combat Casualties for the United States Army recommended the use of hypertonic solutions for the treatment of combat casualties (1). Although known for a long time, renewed interest in these solutions was not widespread until 1980, when researchers in São Paulo, Brazil reported using 2400 mOsm of hypertonic saline (HS) to successfully treat severe hemorrhagic shock (2-4). Numerous studies over the last two decades have established that HS infusions promote diuresis/natriuresis, augment cardiac output, increase cardiac contractility, and directly vasodilate the peripheral vasculature. Adding a colloid can transiently (depending on the type added) expand plasma volume and can be used safely for resuscitation of hypovolemia (5).

Volume Expansion

One of the most striking features of infusing hypertonic solutions is the rapid onset of plasma volume expansion (6). This is accomplished by mobilization of fluid from the extravascular space into the vascular space. Intracellular recruitment makes endothelial cells deflate (7), thus enhancing microvascular perfusion and restoring the function of the sodium/potassium pump, which improves both intracellular pH and Ca²⁺ levels (8,9). Based on field studies with hypertonic solutions, 250 mL hypertonic saline dextran (HSD) given to a 70-kg patient who suffers a 2 L blood loss will result in a plasma volume expansion of at least 700 mL. To achieve an equivalent plasma volume expansion with lactated Ringer's, nearly 3 L would be necessary (10).

Recent kinetic studies have further shown that the volume effect is about three times higher for HS and six times higher for HSD than for an equivalent amount of 0.9% saline (11-15).

Clinical use

Prehospital Use

The battlefield setting is plagued by long transport times

and difficult logistics. Added to these problems is the fact that medics can carry only a limited amount of fluids. The conditions are quite different, in civilian settings. Typically, transport times are much shorter and logistical preparations allow ambulances and rescue personnel to carry substantial amounts of fluids. While military medical personnel most often have to deal with penetrating trauma, civilian health care professionals encounter both penetrating and blunt trauma. The importance of early intervention has been debated (16-23), but there is now consensus on performing basic life support.

In regard to intravenous infusion therapy, the mainstay of prehospital management of postinjury hypotension has traditionally been to immediately replace the lost intravascular volume with large volumes of crystalloids (24). This concept originates from controlled hemorrhage models in the 1950s and from studies on humans in the 1960s by Shires and colleagues. There was an improvement in outcome by infusing not only blood to replace the blood lost but also by using crystalloids (in amounts two to three times that of the blood lost) to replace the extracellular deficits.

"Aggressive fluid replacement" was initiated for the wounded soldiers in Vietnam. It could be argued that success of this treatment strategy in Vietnam was confounded by improved prehospital transportation (using helicopters) and surgical field care. The concept of aggressive fluid resuscitation drew criticism from researchers who were unable to identify the large extracellular deficits and from intensivists because large amounts of fluids led to pulmonary problems. The concept was eventually transferred to the streets of the United States in the 1970s. With the advent of rapid transportation systems and trauma centers, however, the type, volume, time of initiation, and even the value of prehospital fluid resuscitation has been challenged (20,21,25-28). The reluctance of certain providers to start intravenous fluid therapy in the field has been primarily associated with the lack of sufficient education among rescue

personnel, the risk of rebleeding (25,29,30), and the delay of transportation to definitive care sites (25).

Although promising, clinical trials have not provided definitive data for the efficacy of hypertonic solutions. This has been due, in part, to the limited number of enrolled patients and the diversity of the underlying trauma responsible for the injuries. Wade et al (31) in 1997 conducted an extensive meta-analysis of all randomised prospective clinical trials using hypertonic 7.5% saline solutions to determine whether hypertonic solutions improved survival in patients with hypotension associated with traumatic injury. They separated the analysis into the effects of a 250-mL bolus of HS alone or in combination with HSD. The two hypertonic groups were compared with matched groups receiving a 250-mL bolus of isotonic solution. In all cases, additional isotonic solution was administered to continue the hypertonic solution. After a meticulous search for available studies, the authors found six eligible studies using HS and eight studies using HSD. A total of 615 patients were treated with HSD and 340 patients were treated with HS. All studies were randomised, included a control group, and had, as end points, survival at discharge or after 30 days. In the meta-analysis for studies using HS, there was no difference in outcome. In the HSD group, all studies (32-38) except one showed improvement in survival, but again, these differences reached statistical significance in only one study (36) and in specific subpopulations—patients with head injuries (35) and those with penetrating injuries requiring surgery (39). The mean difference of survival calculated for all studies favoring treatment with HSD over controls was 3.5% ($p = 0.07$, one-tailed). The conclusion was that HSD might be beneficial in improving survival in patients with hypotension associated with traumatic injury. Subsequently, Wade et al (31) performed a meta-analysis using individual data from six of the eight studies containing data with HSD that showed a significantly lower mortality rate for HSD in patients for whom HSD was infused as the first fluid (compared with isotonic therapy). The lesson to be learned from these studies is that the numbers of patients in trauma trials generally have been insufficient to establish statistically significant improvement in survival and that aggregate data from these same trials are encouraging but not fully significant. Meta-analyses can be criticized (40) because there are difficulties associated with comparing the underlying studies. Since meta-analyses are not generally considered sufficient evidence for regulatory approval, HSD has not been approved for use in the United States. Interestingly, no other IV fluid or volume expander has historically been required to improve survival in order to be used in the prehospital setting. Current fluids are used mainly because they have shown volume-expansion properties.

The interest for hypertonic solution resuscitation declined when Bickell et al (25) reported that conventional fluid therapy in an urban setting with short transport times was inferior to delayed prehospital fluid resuscitation in hypotensive and penetrating trauma patients. In other countries, however, the situation has been different. Austria and Brazil were the first countries in which this type of solution was used routinely for resuscitation from severe trauma and shock. In Austria, HS

is mixed with hetastarch (Osmohes—7.2% sodium chloride + 10% hetastarch 200/0.5— now replaced by Hyperhes—7.2% sodium chloride + 6% hydroxyethyl starch 200/0.62). In the past decade, more than 50,000 units have been administered safely. Sweden was the first country to register Rescueflow®, (7.5% sodium chloride + 6% dextran 70) in 1998 (41). Finally, Germany, in 2000, approved HyperHAES, (7.2% sodium chloride + 6% hetastarch 200/0.5). In the majority of these cases, the standard amount of hypertonic solution given was 250 mL.

Head Trauma

Closed-head injury is a common feature of severe blunt trauma. The outcome from closed-head injury is determined primarily by the severity of the injury and the age of the patient. Additional important factors are the presence of hypoxia and hypotension (42), which make the brain vulnerable to secondary injury. Many patients with severe head injury have hypoxemia upon arrival at the hospital, with PaO₂ values < 60 mm Hg or pulse oximeter saturation readings < 90% (43,44). This may be caused by direct injuries to the brain, like smashing the head into the windshield of a car, or by associated injuries to the chest or by major hemorrhage. Studies have highlighted the importance of maintaining cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP) (43), which is defined as the difference between the mean arterial pressure (MAP) and the intracranial pressure (ICP):
 $CPP = MAP - ICP$

Mean arterial pressure can be measured fairly accurately in the field by using noninvasive devices, but it is not possible to measure ICP. However, when the Glasgow Coma Score (GCS) is eight or less, the prehospital rescue team should be able to assume that ICP is elevated unless there is substantial evidence to suspect that the low level of consciousness is related to reasons other than trauma or hypoxemia (45). To reach a perfusion rate higher than the necessary 70 mm Hg, the MAP would need to be maintained in the range of 90 to 105 mm Hg (assuming an ICP of 20 to 25 mm Hg) (46). Traditional fluid therapy for head-trauma patients or multiply injured patients with head trauma has consisted of crystalloids or a combination of crystalloids and colloids (47,48). Early fluid resuscitation with crystalloid solutions after head injury worsens cerebral hemodynamics (49). Despite some conflicting evidence in animal models with regard to improved perfusion pressure but worsened oxygen delivery because of hemodilution caused by using hypertonic solutions (50-54), there is much clinical evidence that HS alone or in combination with colloids is the fluid of choice for head trauma patients (31,34,45,55-60).

Prehospital use of hypertonic saline dextran in Scandinavia (41)

The algorithm for the use of HSD in Scandinavia is shown on the pocket card in Figure 1.

- For head trauma patients with a GCS ≤ 8 or for multiply injured patients in severe shock with or without head trauma:
 - give 250 mL of HSD over the course of 5 to 10 minutes.
- For other types of trauma, if prehospital time (from arrival at scene to admittance to the emergency room) ≥ 30 minutes

and systolic blood pressure ≤ 90 mm Hg:

- give 250 mL of HSD over the course of 5 to 10 minutes.
Do not start IV fluid earlier than 15 minutes after trauma.

- For other types of trauma, if prehospital time ≤ 30 minutes: give no fluids

In all these scenarios, one should continue treatment with the standard fluid regimen (crystalloids or colloids as needed) after the administration of the hypertonic solution. It is not recommended to give Dextran-1 to prevent immune complex formation in the trauma setting. Trauma patients are obviously more protected against anaphylaxis and no such reactions were seen in any of the clinical studies (41). If the patient deteriorates, one should suspect rebleeding, stop infusion of the hypertonic solution, and give a slow crystalloid infusion (1000 mL over the course of 30 minutes) (61). Data for two urban settings are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Case report

10.35: Winter in Laplandia, north of the Arctic Circle. Three young skiers were walking along the railway track toward a tourist station. With weather conditions consisting of deep snow and a freezing temperature of -5°C , the track was surrounded by 5-m-high snow walls and was being cleared by a train. The skiers were aware that the train was approaching,

but the 25-year-old female could not escape. She slid down the embankment, was hit by the rotary snow-plow, and was pulled under the train.

Skiing nearby was an attending anaesthesiologist/neurosurgeon. He was able to perform an initial neck stabilization and extrication with a KED device. The patient was taken on a stretcher to a nearby tourist station. She was awake but agitated, had eye deviation and possible liquorrhea. The GCS score was 10. She was hypothermic and bled profusely from wounds in the gluteus and the scalp. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) was 80 to 90 mm Hg. Heart rate (HR) was 120/minute. Respiratory rate was fairly normal. IV access was established, and an infusion of Ringer's Acetate was started (2 L) + 0.5 L Dextran 70.

11.40: The regional rescue helicopter arrived (Figure 2). At the scene, the patient deteriorated. She no longer reacted to pain stimulus and showed a flexion pattern. GCS 6, Revised Trauma Scale (RTS) 6.

12.00: An infusion of 250 mL Rescue-Flow (HSD) was started. The patient's circulation improved immediately (SBP 130, HR 60), she was intubated with ketamine, fentanyl and succinylcholine, hyperventilated, and an infusion of Propofol was started

12.45: The nearest neurosurgical facility was in Tromsø, Norway and was not reachable due to bad flying conditions to the west. Instead, the helicopter took off toward Umeå University Hospital, 1.5 hours away in a southerly direction.

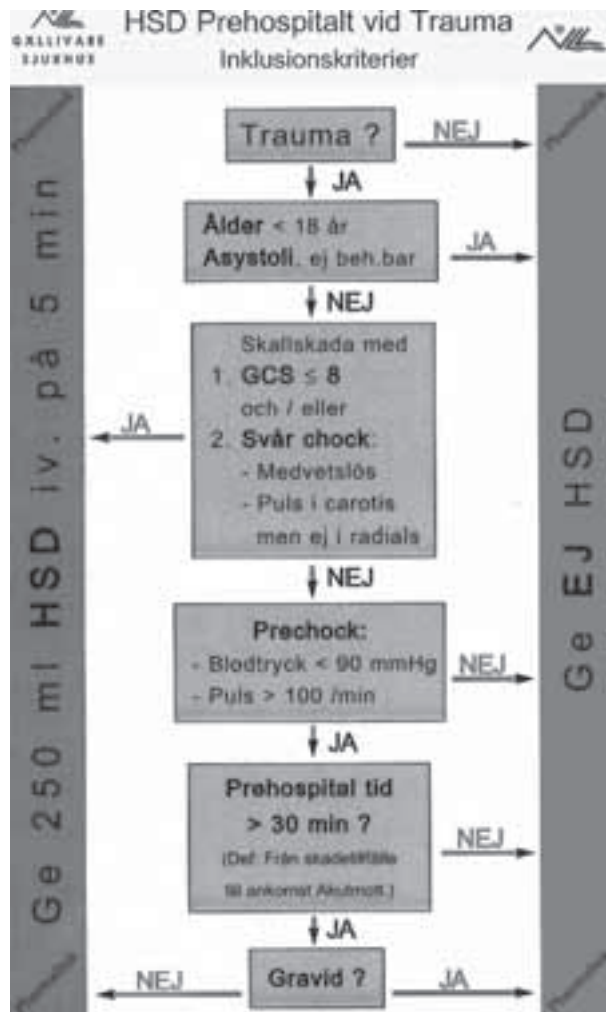


Fig. 1. Pocket card with algorithm for the administration of hypertonic saline dextran (Rescueflow®).

Tab. 1. Results of administering RescueFlow as the initial fluid at the scene of the accident in some trauma patients in the Stockholm area October 2000-July 2001.

Patient (gender-age)	Type of injury	SBP before	SBP after	GCS before	GCS after
Male-51	Knife wound/thorax	50	120	13	15
Male-51	MVA	0	150	3	4
Male-80	MVA	0	120	3	3
Male-73	Blunt	80	90	15	15
Female-65	MVA	50	80	8	13
Male-82	MVA	50	100	9	13
Male-45	Fall	N/A	160	14	14
Male-55	MVA	0	90	3	3

SBP = systolic blood pressure; GCS = Glasgow Coma Score; MVA = motor vehicle accident. Data provided by Mona Resby, Stockholm, Sweden.

Tab. 2. Prehospital Trauma Treatment at the Ambulance Service in Gothenburg, Sweden

	Patients (n)	Mean SBP (mmHg)
Pretreatment RescueFlow*	25	84 (60-100)
5 min after RescueFlow	24	103 (60-150)
10 min after RescueFlow	22	117 (70-170)
20 min after RescueFlow	9	118 (70-140)
Arrival at Hospital	30	127 (70-180)

Results of administering RescueFlow as the initial fluid at the scene of the accident in some trauma patients in the Gothenburg area June 2000-July 2001. Of the 30 patients studied, types of injuries involved were as follows: motor vehicle accidents = 20; injuries caused by falls = 5; knife wounds = 4; and crush wounds = 1. The observed side effects noted were that 3 patients suffered from local pain at the site of the infusion.

*5 patients excluded because of immeasurable systolic blood pressure (SBP). Data provided by Lisbeth Waagstein, Gothenburg, Sweden.



Fig. 2. Regional Rescue Helicopter in northern Lapland, Sweden. A Sokorsky S-76 staffed by two pilots, anesthesiologist and intensive care nurse. The helicopter can transport an intubated patient with full monitoring.

The patient's circulation during the entire 1.5-hour transport was stable with BP 130-140/65-90 mm Hg and HR 45-60/min. During one occasion, the patient displayed increased BP combined with bradycardia. On suspicion of threatening cerebral herniation, mannitol and furosemide were given.

14:20: The patient arrived at Umeå Hospital. She was pale, hypothermic (35°C) with BP 150/90 and HR 56/min. The attending emergency helicopter doctor later verified the patient's stable condition during transport despite the use of opioids, propofol infusion and positive pressure ventilation. No vasopressors were given.

At the hospital: The CT scan showed a right skull-base fracture, parietal bone fractures, bilateral frontal brain contusions, minor epidural and subdural hematomas, and advanced generalized brain edema. A stable arch fracture on C6, compression fractures TH4-5 and fractures on transverse processes L1-2 were also noted.

Attempts were made to decrease her ICP according to the "Lund-model" – sedation, thiobarbital, metoprolol, clonidine and mild hyperventilation. As the patient's condition did not improve, she was given mannitol and taken to the OR for bilateral hemicraniectomies, hemostasis, and ventriculostomy. ICP was 40-50 mm Hg and CPP 40 mm Hg. The relatives were informed of a probable poor outcome.

Day 2: Unchanged.

Day 4: ICP 40 mm Hg. The hyperventilation treatment was discontinued. The CT scan showed an unchanged generalized edema. A minor laceration of the spleen was also seen on the CT scan, but the decision was made not to intervene.

Day 7: ICP was unchanged. The CT image of the brain was slightly better.

Day 14: A tracheostomy was performed to enhance emergence from sedation and weaning from ventilatory support.

Day 17: The patient awoke and was able to communicate fully. Her mental status and peripheral neurological status normalized.

Day 21: The patient was transported to the University Hospital in her home town—completely lucid and mentally adequate.

Some months later, plastic surgery with synthetic replacement of her large skull bones defects was performed and she was finally able to resume her education to become a teacher. Comment: This was a severe case with a very happy ending. Although the hypertonic solution was not given as the initial solution, it seems probable that it contributed to the stable transport and possibly also to the favorable outcome.

Adverse effects

Dose and Rate of Administration

The reasons for using a standard dose of 4 mL·kg⁻¹ or 250 mL of HS, HSD, or HHS seem to be based more on practicality rather than on any true physiological concept. Although it may be reasonable, even in the prehospital area, to titrate the solution toward an endpoint (62), there is still support among some clinicians for using a standard dose for reasons of simplicity. The rate of infusion should be rapid to establish the desired effects.

The greatest concern regarding rate of infusion has been derived from the hypothesis that fluid resuscitation of prehospital trauma can exacerbate uncontrolled internal hemorrhage (29,30,61,63-66). A controlled bleeding (< 1 L) is normally adequately treated by internal redistribution of fluids and thus does not require IV fluid support. A controlled bleeding > 1 L implies a situation where fluids need to be given, but if prerequisites for IV insertion are difficult and transport time is short, it is probably better to go immediately to the hospital. In the scenario where major penetrating injury to the heart or large vessels has created an uncontrolled bleeding that has not stopped, immediate transport to the proper surgical center is mandatory. Nothing else will save the patient.

Uncontrolled bleeding that has stopped is seen in some penetrating trauma cases but also occurs in cases involving

blunt trauma (67). In cases like this, an increased risk of rebleeding should be considered. Since hypertonic solutions tend to increase blood pressure more than isotonic solutions, rebleeding could be a potential risk. Consequently, decreasing the rate of infusion and reducing the infused volume to patients with presumptive “uncontrolled bleeding” is recommended (62). However, this recommendation is disputed since the clinical data do not show that the administration of hypertonic solutions increases mortality in the clinical setting. It appears that internal bleeding in patients with traumatic injuries is different from that presented in animal models. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to slow the dose from the recommended 2 to 5 minutes to 5 to 10 minutes.

Furthermore, timing of the infusion must be considered. In an urban setting with short transport times, it is most likely always best to immediately transfer the patient to the emergency room. In a longer transport scenario, it is unlikely that any IV infusion will be started earlier than 15 minutes after trauma, when the risk of rebleeding is less likely. Perhaps what can be seen from the voluminous amount of work performed on hypertonic solutions is that they seem to be very safe to give. In 35 clinical trials, over 1,400 patients received 7.5% saline (HS) with 6% dextran 70 (HSD) or hetastarch (HSS) without any complications (68-70).

References

1. Committee on Fluid Resuscitation for Combat Casualties DoHSP. Fluid Resuscitation, State of the Science for Treating Combat Casualties and Civilian Injuries. Washington DC: *National Academy Press*, 1999, p 1.
2. Velasco IT, Pontieri V, Rocha e Silva M, Jr., Lopes OU. Hyperosmotic NaCl and severe hemorrhagic shock. *Am J Physiol* 1980; **239**: H664-H673.
3. de Felipe J, Jr., Timoner J, Velasco IT, et al. Treatment of refractory hypovolaemic shock by 7.5% sodium chloride injections. *Lancet* 1980; **2**: 1002-1004.
4. Southorn PA, Powis G. Free radicals in medicine. I. Chemical nature and biologic reactions. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1988; **63**: 381-389.
5. Kramer GC, Perron PR, Lindsey DC, et al. Small-volume resuscitation with hypertonic saline dextran solution. *Surgery* 1986; **100**: 239-247.
6. Wolf MB. Plasma volume dynamics after hypertonic fluid infusions in nephrectomized dogs. *Am J Physiol* 1971; **221**: 1392-1395.
7. Neely WA, Youmans JR. Anoxia of canine brain without damage. *JAMA* 1963; **183**: 1085-1087.
8. Kreimeier U. Pathophysiology of fluid imbalance. *Crit Care* 2000; **4** Suppl 2: S3-S7.
9. Kramer GC, et al. Hyperosmotic-hyperoncotic solutions. *Baillière's Clin Anaesthesiol* 1997; **11**: 143-161.
10. Vassar MJ, Holcroft JW. Use of hypertonic-hyperoncotic fluids for resuscitation of trauma patients. *J Intensiv Care Med* 1992; **7**: 189-198.
11. Svensen C, Hahn RG. Volume kinetics of Ringer solution, dextran 70, and hypertonic saline in male volunteers. *Anesthesiology* 1997; **87**: 204-212.
12. Drobin D, Hahn RG. Kinetics of isotonic and hypertonic plasma volume expanders. *Anesthesiology* 2002; **96**: 1371-1380.
13. Offringa M. Excess mortality after human albumin administration in critically ill patients. *BMJ* 1998; **317**: 223-224.
14. Stroop JR. Studies of interference in serial verbal reactions. *J Exp Psychol* 1935; **18**: 643-662.
15. Gardiner M, Smith M-L, Kågström E, et al. Influence of blood glucose concentration on brain lactate accumulation during severe hypoxia and subsequent recovery of brain energy metabolism. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1982; **2**: 429-438.
16. Bellamy RF. The causes of death in conventional land warfare: implications for combat casualty care research. *Mil Med* 1984; **149**: 55-62.
17. Smith JP, Bodai BI, Hill AS, Frey CF. Prehospital stabilization of critically injured patients: a failed concept. *J Trauma* 1985; **25**: 65-70.
18. Lewis FR, Jr. Prehospital intravenous fluid therapy: physiologic computer modelling. *J Trauma* 1986; **26**: 804-811.
19. Border JR, Lewis FR, Aprahamian C, et al. Panel: prehospital trauma care--stabilize or scoop and run. *J Trauma* 1983; **23**: 708-711.
20. Kaweski SM, Sise MJ, Virgilio RW. The effect of prehospital fluids on survival in trauma patients. *J Trauma* 1990; **30**: 1215-1218.
21. Chudnofsky CR, Dronen SC, Syverud SA, et al. Early versus late fluid resuscitation: lack of effect in porcine hemorrhagic shock. *Ann Emerg Med* 1989; **18**: 122-126.
22. Pepe PE, Eckstein M. Reappraising the prehospital care of the patient with major trauma. *Emerg Med Clin North Am* 1998; **16**: 1-15.
23. Liberman M, Mulder D, Sampalis J. Advanced or basic life support for trauma: meta-analysis and critical review of the literature. *J Trauma* 2000; **49**: 584-599.
24. Trauma, A.C.o.S.C.o. Advanced Trauma Life Support Program for Physicians, Instructor Course Manual. Chicago: American College of Surgeons, 1997.
25. Bickell WH, Wall MJ, Jr., Pepe PE, et al. Immediate versus delayed fluid resuscitation for hypotensive patients with penetrating torso injuries. *N Engl J Med* 1994; **331**: 1105-1109.
26. Dalton AM. Prehospital intravenous fluid replacement in trauma: an outmoded concept? *J R Soc Med* 1995; **88**: 213P-216P.
27. Mohr JP. Neurological complications of cardiac valvular disease and cardiac surgery including systemic hypotension. 1979: 143-171.
28. Sachdev NS, Carter CC, Swank RL, Blachly PH. Relationship between post-cardiotomy delirium, clinical neurological changes, and EEG abnormalities. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 1967; **54**: 557-563.
29. Bickell WH, Bruttig SP, Millnamow GA, et al. Use of hypertonic saline/Dextran versus lactated Ringer's solution as a resuscitation fluid after uncontrolled aortic hemorrhage in anesthetized swine. *Ann Emerg Med* 1992; **21**: 1077-1085.
30. Brierley JB. Neuropathological findings in patients dying after open-heart surgery. *Thorax* 1963; **18**: 291-304.
31. Wade CE, Kramer GC, Grady JJ, et al. Efficacy of hypertonic 7.5% saline and 6% dextran-70 in treating trauma: a meta-analysis of controlled clinical studies. *Surgery* 1997; **122**: 609-612.
32. Younes RN, Aun F, Accioly CQ, et al. Hypertonic solutions in the treatment of hypovolemic shock: a prospective, randomized study in patients admitted to the emergency room. *Surgery* 1992; **111**: 380-385.
33. Maningas PA, Mattox KL, Pepe PE, et al. Hypertonic saline-dextran solutions for the prehospital management of traumatic hypotension. *American J of Surg* 1989; **157**: 528-534.
34. Vassar MJ, Perry CA, Gannaway WL, Holcroft JW. 7.5% sodium chloride/dextran for resuscitation of trauma patients undergoing helicopter transport. *Archives of Surgery* 1991; **126**: 1065-1072.
35. Vassar MJ, Perry CA, Holcroft JW. Prehospital resuscitation of hypotensive trauma patients with 7.5% NaCl versus 7.5% NaCl with added dextran: a controlled trial. *J Trauma* 1993; **34**: 622-633.
36. Younes RN, Aun F, Ching CT, et al. Prognostic factors to predict

- outcome following the administration of hypertonic/hyperoncotic solution in hypovolemic patients. *Shock* 1997; **7**: 79-83.
37. Vassar MJ, Fischer RP, O'Brien PE, et al. A multicenter trial for resuscitation of injured patients with 7.5% sodium chloride: The effect of added dextran 70. *Arch Surg* 1993; **128**: 1003-1013.
 38. Vassar MJ, Perry CA, Holcroft JW. Analysis of potential risks associated with 7.5% sodium chloride resuscitation of traumatic shock. *Arch Surg* 1990; **125**: 1309-1315.
 39. Mattox KL, Maningas PA, Pepe PE, Jones R, Burch JM, Feliciano DV. Hypertonic saline/dextran 70 in prehospital management of post traumatic hypotension - preliminary observations. 2nd International Symposium on Hypertonic Saline Resuscitation. 1987.
 40. LeLorier J, Gregoire G, Benhaddad A, et al. Discrepancies between meta-analyses and subsequent large randomized, controlled trials. *N Engl J Med* 1997; **337**: 536-542.
 41. Olsson J, Svensen C. The use of hypertonic-saline dextran in the prehospital setting. *Trauma Care* 2001; **85**.
 42. Chesnut RM, Marshall LF, Klauber MR, et al. The role of secondary brain injury in determining outcome from severe head injury. *J Trauma* 1993; **34**: 216-222.
 43. Chesnut RM. Secondary brain insults after head injury: clinical perspectives. *New Horiz* 1995; **3**: 366-375.
 44. Fearnside MR, Cook RJ, McDougall P, McNeil RJ. The Westmead Head Injury Project outcome in severe head injury. A comparative analysis of pre-hospital, clinical and CT variables. *Br J Neurosurg* 1993; **7**: 267-279.
 45. Wade CE, Grady JJ, Kramer GC, et al. Individual patient cohort analysis of the efficacy of hypertonic saline/dextran in patients with traumatic brain injury and hypotension. *J Trauma* 1997; **42**: S61-S65.
 46. Bouma GJ, Muizelaar JP, Bandoh K, Marmarou A. Blood pressure and intracranial pressure-volume dynamics in severe head injury: relationship with cerebral blood flow. *J Neurosurg* 1992; **77**: 15-19.
 47. Hamilton SM, Breakey P. Fluid resuscitation of the trauma patient: how much is enough? *Can J Surg* 1996; **39**: 11-16.
 48. Shackford SR, Bourguignon PR, Wald SL, et al. Hypertonic saline resuscitation of patients with head injury: a prospective, randomized clinical trial. *J Trauma* 1998; **44**: 50-58.
 49. Bourguignon PR, Shackford SR, Shiffer C, et al. Delayed fluid resuscitation of head injury and uncontrolled hemorrhagic shock. *Arch Surg* 1998; **133**: 390-398.
 50. Prough DS, Johnson JC, Stump DA, et al. Effects of hypertonic saline versus lactated Ringer's solution on cerebral oxygen transport during resuscitation from hemorrhagic shock. *J Neurosurg* 1986; **64**: 627-632.
 51. Schmoker JD, Zhuang J, Shackford SR. Hypertonic fluid resuscitation improves cerebral oxygen delivery and reduces intracranial pressure after hemorrhagic shock. *J Trauma* 1991; **31**: 1607-1613.
 52. Prough DS, Whitley JM, Taylor CL, et al. Rebound intracranial hypertension in dogs after resuscitation with hypertonic solutions from hemorrhagic shock accompanied by an intracranial mass lesion. *J Neurosurg Anesthesiol* 1999; **11**: 102-111.
 53. Murkin JM, Farrar JK, Cleland A, MacDonald JL, Mayer R. The influence of perfusion flow rates on cerebral blood flow and oxygen consumption during hypothermic cardiopulmonary bypass. *Anesthesiology* 1987; **67**: A9.
 54. Brusino, F. G., Reves, J. G., Prough, D. S., Stump, D. A., and Croughwell, N. D. The effect of age on cerebral blood flow autoregulation during hypothermic cardiopulmonary bypass. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 1988; **67**: 10.
 55. Cooper D. Hypertonic saline resuscitation for head injured patients. *Crit Care Resus* 1999; **1**: 157-161.
 56. Khanna S, Davis D, Peterson B, et al. Use of hypertonic saline in the treatment of severe refractory posttraumatic intracranial hypertension in pediatric traumatic brain injury. *Crit Care Med* 2000; **28**: 1144-1151.
 57. Sotaniemi KA, Mononen H, Hokkanen TE. Long-term cerebral outcome after open-heart surgery: a five-year neuropsychological follow-up study. *Stroke* 1986; **17**: 410-416.
 58. Folks DG, Freeman AMI, Sokol RS, et al. Cognitive dysfunction after coronary artery bypass surgery: a case-controlled study. *South Med J* 1988; **81**: 202-206.
 59. Stump DA, Cooke N, Yonovitz A, Perez FI, Meyer JS. Selective regional cerebral blood flow responses to auditory stimuli: white noise vs. human voice. *Excerpta Medica* 1979; **9**: 19-24.
 60. Perez FI, Stump, DA, Wray RE, Gay JRA, Bannon MR, Meyer JS. Automated behavioral assessment system: precise measurements of memory performance in cerebrovascular disease. *Stroke* 1977; **8**: 140.
 61. Riddez L, Hahn RG, Brismar B, et al. Central and regional hemodynamics during acute hypovolemia and volume substitution in volunteers. *Crit Care Med* 1997; **25**: 635-640.
 62. Riddez L, Drobin D, Sjostrand F, et al. Lower dose of hypertonic saline dextran reduces the risk of lethal rebleeding in uncontrolled hemorrhage. *Shock* 2002; **17**: 377-382.
 63. Bickell WH, Bruttig SP, Millnamow GA, et al. The detrimental effects of intravenous crystalloid after aortotomy in swine. *Surgery* 1991; **110**: 529-536.
 64. Kowalenko T, Stern S, Dronen S, Wang X. Improved outcome with hypotensive resuscitation of uncontrolled hemorrhagic shock in a swine model. *J Trauma* 1992; **33**: 349-353.
 65. Rahn H, Reeves RB, Howell BJ. Hydrogen ion regulation, temperature, and evolution: the 1975 J. Burns Amberson lecture. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1975; **112**: 165-172.
 66. Reeves RB. Role of body temperature in determining the acid-base state in vertebrates. *Fed Proc* 1969; **28**: 1204-1208.
 67. Leuchleuthner A, et al. Prehospital detection of uncontrolled hemorrhage in blunt trauma. *Eur J Emerg Med* 1994; **1**: 13-18.
 68. Kramer GC, Poli de Figueiredo LF. Hypertonic 7.5% saline: evaluations of efficacy and safety from human trials. Third International Shock Congress. Hamamatsu, Japan: Elsevier Science, Amsterdam, 1996.
 69. Schmietta W, et al. Safety of hypertonic hyperoncotic solutions-survey from Austria. *Wien Klin Wochenschr* 2002; **114**: 89-95.
 70. Golden CJ. Identification of brain disorders by the Stroop color and word test. *J Clin Psychol* 1976; **32**: 654-658.