

The Use of Quantitative End-Tidal Capnometry to Avoid Inadvertent Severe Hyperventilation in Patients With Head Injury After Paramedic Rapid Sequence Intubation

Daniel P. Davis, MD, James V. Dunford, MD, Mel Ochs, MD, Kenneth Park, MS4, and David B. Hoyt, MD

Background: This study aimed to determine whether field end-tidal carbon dioxide (ETCO₂) monitoring decreases inadvertent severe hyperventilation after paramedic rapid sequence intubation.

Methods: Data were collected prospectively as part of the San Diego Paramedic Rapid Sequence Intubation Trial, which enrolled adults with severe head injuries (Glasgow Coma Score, 3–8) that could not be intubated without neuromuscular blockade. After preoxygenation, the patients underwent rapid sequence intubation using midazolam and succinylcholine. A maximum of three intubation attempts were allowed before Combitube insertion was mandated. Tube confirmation was accomplished by physical examination, qualitative capnometry, pulse oximetry, and syringe aspiration. Standard ventilation parameters (tidal volume, 800 mL; 12 breaths/minute) were taught. One agency used portable ETCO₂ monitors, with ventilation modified to tar-

get ETCO₂ values of 30 to 35 mm Hg. Trial patients transported by aeromedical crews also underwent ETCO₂ monitoring. The primary outcome measure was the incidence of inadvertent severe hyperventilation, defined as arterial blood gas partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) of less than 25 mm Hg at arrival, for patients with and those without ETCO₂ monitoring. These groups also were compared in terms of age, gender, clinical presentation, Abbreviated Injury Score, Injury Severity Score, arrival arterial blood gas data, and survival.

Results: The study enrolled 426 patients and administered neuromuscular blocking agents to 418 patients. Endotracheal intubation was successful for 355 of these patients (85.2%). Another 58 patients (13.6%) underwent Combitube insertion. For 291 successfully intubated patients, arrival pCO₂ values were documented, with continuous ETCO₂ monitoring performed for 144 of these pa-

tients (49.4%). Patients with ETCO₂ monitoring had a lower incidence of inadvertent severe hyperventilation than those without ETCO₂ monitoring (5.6% vs. 13.4%; odds ratio, 2.64; 95% confidence interval, 1.12–6.20; $p = 0.035$). There were no significant differences in terms of age, gender, clinical presentation, Abbreviated Injury Score, Injury Severity Score, arrival partial pressure of oxygen (pO₂) and pH, or survival. The patients in both groups with severe hyperventilation had a significantly higher mortality rate than the patients without hyperventilation (56 vs. 30%; odds ratio, 2.9; 95% confidence interval, 1.3–6.6; $p = 0.016$), which could not be explained solely on the basis of their injuries.

Conclusions: The use of ETCO₂ monitoring is associated with a decrease in inadvertent severe hyperventilation.

Key Words: Rapid sequence intubation, Paramedic, Traumatic brain injury, Capnometry, Hyperventilation.

J Trauma. 2004;56:808–814.

The ability of hyperventilation to lower intracranial pressure (ICP) via a decrease in cerebral blood volume is well documented. However, hyperventilation may lead to an even greater decrease in cerebral perfusion, resulting in ischemia.^{1–9} Clinical evidence suggests that empiric hyperventilation worsens neurologic outcome, and current treatment guidelines recommend avoidance of hyperventilation except in cases of severe refractory intracranial hypertension or in the case of signs and symptoms that presage impending

herniation.^{10,11} Despite these recommendations, however, multiple studies have documented a high incidence of inadvertent hyperventilation in critically ill patients, especially in the prehospital environment.^{1–3,12–21}

The San Diego Paramedic Rapid Sequence Intubation (RSI) Trial was designed to investigate the impact of paramedic-performed RSI on the outcome for patients with severe head injury. Whereas standardized ventilation parameters were used to target a partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) value of 35 mm Hg, one agency instituted the use of quantitative end-tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂) monitors during the trial period to guide ventilation. This analysis investigates the impact of ETCO₂ monitoring on the incidence of inadvertent hyperventilation after paramedic RSI.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Design

The San Diego Paramedic RSI Trial was a prospective, descriptive trial conducted over 3½ years from November 1998 to April 2002. This trial aimed to investigate the impact of paramedic RSI on outcome for patients with severe trau-

Submitted for publication October 17, 2002.

Accepted for publication February 12, 2003.

Copyright © 2004 by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Inc.

From the Department of Emergency Medicine, University of California, San Diego (D.P.D., J.V.D.), the San Diego County Emergency Medical Services (M.O.), the University of California, San Diego School of Medicine (K.P.), and the Department of Surgery, Division of Trauma, University of California, San Diego (D.B.H.), San Diego, California.

Address for reprints: Daniel Davis, MD, UCSD Emergency Medicine, 200 West Arbor Drive, #8676, San Diego, CA 92103-8676; email: davismd@cox.net.

DOI: 10.1097/01.TA.0000100217.05066.87

matic brain injury. Data collected during the San Diego Paramedic RSI Trial were used for this analysis. Waiver of consent for the San Diego Paramedic RSI Trial was granted by the California State Emergency Medical Services (EMS) Board and by the investigational review board of each participating institution. Approval for this analysis was granted by the Human Subjects Program of the authors' institution.

Setting

There are 813 emergency medical treatment (EMT) paramedics accredited in San Diego County, which covers 4,261 square miles and contains 2.8 million people. In fiscal year 1996–1997, 12 different agencies performed 116,615 emergency transports. All but one agency participated in the trial. After completing home study material and a pretest, paramedics were trained in a 7-hour course, which included a video for teaching Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) scoring, formal lectures on the pharmacology of RSI medications and the mechanics of performing this technique, multiple practice scenarios, and a posttest. The paramedics also received specific instruction as to optimal ventilation parameters, defined as 12 breaths per minute with an estimated tidal volume of 800 mL, and were allowed to practice with a stopwatch and spirometer.

Subjects

The target population for this study included adult major trauma patients with severe traumatic brain injury. The criteria for inclusion in the study required an apparent age of 18 years or older, major trauma victim status according to county protocols, transport time to the trauma center of 10 minutes or more, potential head injury by mechanism or physical examination, a Glasgow Coma Score (GCS) of 8 or less, and intubation impossibility without RSI. Subjects were excluded if intravenous access could not be established.

Therapeutic Intervention

All the subjects who met the inclusion criteria were preoxygenated via a non-rebreather face mask for 60 seconds. Bag valve mask ventilation was performed if pulse oximetry indicated an oxygen saturation (SaO₂) less than 95%. Patients were administered midazolam and succinylcholine using a simplified, weight-based dosing strategy. Midazolam was not given if systolic blood pressure was lower than 120 mm Hg. Paramedics were allowed three attempts at endotracheal intubation. If these

were unsuccessful, Combitube (Kendall Company, Mansfield, MA) insertion was mandated. Tube placement was confirmed using physical examination findings, qualitative capnometry, pulse oximetry, and syringe aspiration. After confirmation of tube position, rocuronium was administered for continued paralysis during transport. Additional midazolam was administered after 30 minutes if systolic blood pressure remained at 120 mm Hg or higher, and morphine sulfate was administered in 2-mg increments for a "stress response," defined as a systolic blood pressure of 140 mm Hg or higher and a heart rate of 100 beats per minute or faster (Table 1).

Most paramedic agencies were given standardized ventilation parameters of 12 breaths per minute with a tidal volume of 800 mL, designed to achieve a pCO₂ value of 35 mm Hg. One agency instituted the use of handheld quantitative ET-CO₂ devices (Tidal Wave; Novamatrix Medical Systems, Wallingford, CT) during the second year of the trial. Paramedics with access to these devices were instructed to target an ET-CO₂ recording of 30 to 35 mm Hg, and to avoid values of 25 mm Hg or lower. Many trial patients were ultimately transported by aeromedical crews, who also had access to ET-CO₂ monitors (Propaq; Welch Allyn, Beaverton, OR) and were given identical ventilation guidelines. In the authors' prehospital system, the decision to transport a patient by helicopter is made by the ground paramedics. Distance from the receiving hospital and estimated transport time are the primary considerations in this decision.

Data Collection

Worksheets used during the RSI procedure provided detailed protocol instructions and served as data collection sheets. In addition, patient information was entered into an electronic database for San Diego County prehospital encounters and a county trauma registry for all major trauma victims. Finally, paramedics paged one of the principal investigators within 1 hour of the RSI procedure to answer additional questions regarding the procedure and to review GCS calculations. Collected data included patient demographics and mechanism of injury, initial clinical presentation including GCS score and vital signs, an Abbreviated Injury Score (AIS) for each body system and an Injury Severity Score (ISS), number of intubation attempts, initial and final SaO₂ values, arterial blood gas (ABG) values at the patient's arrival in the trauma center, and mortality.

Table 1 Rapid Sequence Intubation Medication Protocols Used During the Trial^a

	Small	Average	Large
	80–140 lbs (35–63 kg)	141–225 lbs (63–100 kg)	>225 lbs (>100 kg)
Midazolam	2 mg	2.5 mg	3.0 mg
Succinylcholine	4 ml (80 mg)	6 ml (120 mg)	8 ml (160 mg)
Rocuronium	4 ml (40 mg)	6 ml (60 mg)	8 ml (80 mg)
Morphine	2 mg every 10 min for stress response (SBP > 140 mm Hg; HR > 100 bpm)		

SBP, systolic blood pressure; HR, heart rate; bpm, beats per minute.

^a This simplified dosing strategy allowed for a constant volume of paralytic medication for patients in a given weight stratification.

Data Analysis

The primary outcome measure for this analysis was the incidence of severe inadvertent hyperventilation after paramedic RSI with the use of quantitative ETCO₂ monitoring, as compared with the use of standardized ventilation parameters. Hyperventilation was defined as an arrival pCO₂ value lower than 25 mm Hg. Patients transported by aeromedical crews were excluded from this analysis. Also excluded were patients unable to be intubated and those undergoing Combitube insertion. The number of patients in each group with pCO₂ values falling into the category of 5-mm Hg increments was displayed graphically. Comparisons between the two groups also were performed with regard to demographics, mechanism of injury, AIS for each body system, ISS, vital signs, field oxygen saturation (SaO₂) values, number of intubation attempts, ABG values, and serum ethanol. The overall mortality and incidence of death on the first hospital day also were recorded. To explore the potential impact of hyperventilation on outcome, secondary analysis involving all the patients compared the patients who had inadvertent severe hyperventilation (arrival pCO₂, <25 mm Hg) with those who

had no severe hyperventilation in terms of all the aforementioned parameters. Flow diagrams for the primary and secondary outcome measures are displayed in Figure 1.

Statistical Analysis

Odds ratios (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) were used to compare patients who had quantitative ETCO₂ monitoring with those subjected to standardized ventilation parameters in terms of the incidence of severe hyperventilation, as defined earlier. Student's *t*-testing, χ^2 , and rank-sum testing were used when appropriate to compare the two groups with regard to the other aforementioned variables. Significance was assumed for *p* values less than 0.05. Statistical calculations were performed using Analyze-It (Analyze-It Software, Leeds, UK).

RESULTS

During the study period, 426 patients were identified as meeting the inclusion criteria defined earlier. Two of these patients were intubated before paramedic contact, but received midazolam and rocuronium for paralysis during transport. Three patients did not receive succinylcholine, and an-

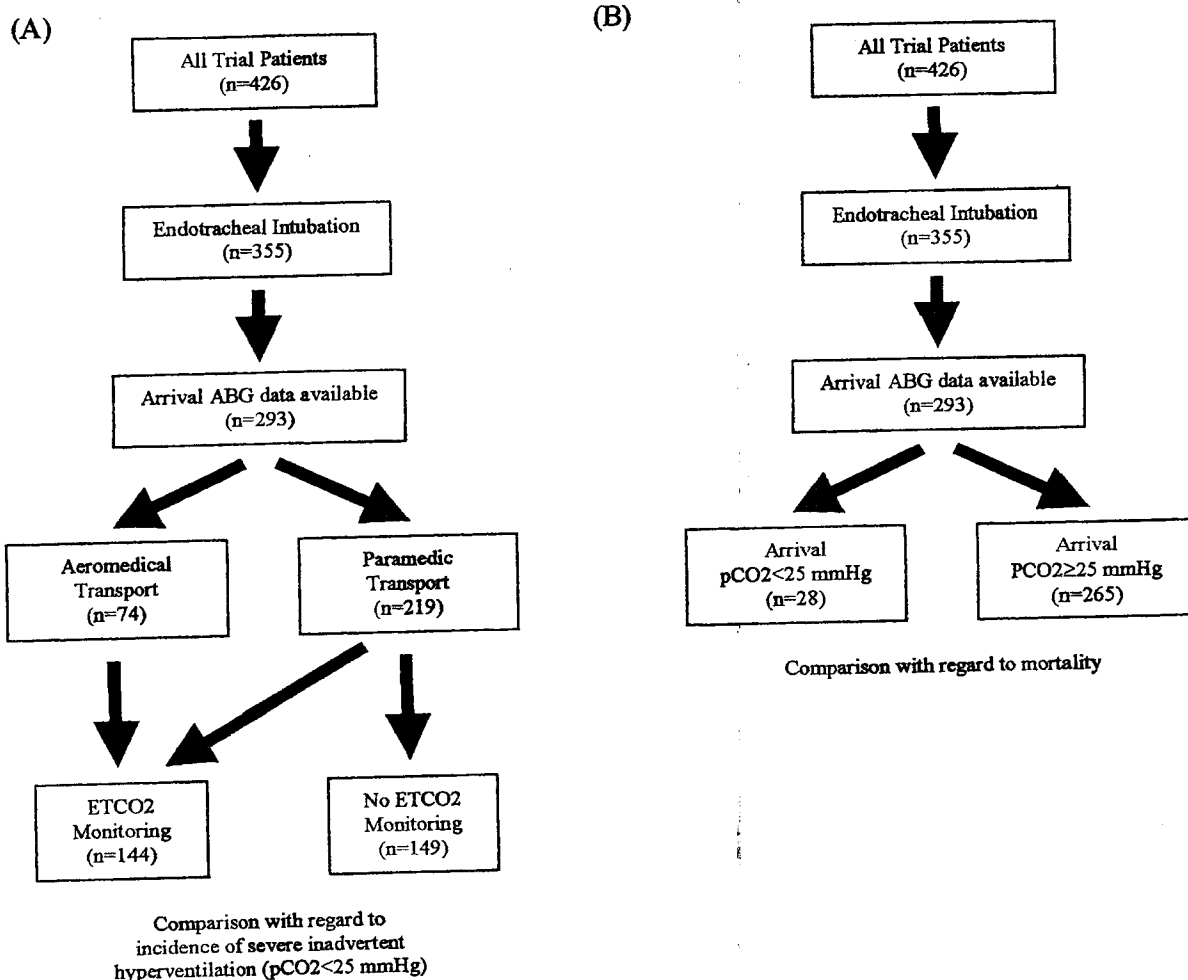


Fig. 1. Study design flow diagram for primary (A) and secondary (B) outcome measures.

other patient received one tenth of the protocol dose. None of these patients achieved appropriate relaxation for intubation. Of 420 patients, 355 (84.5%) were successfully intubated. Among the remaining 65 patients, 58 (89.2%) underwent successful Combitube insertion. As a result, 7 of the 420 patients (1.7%) arrived at the trauma resuscitation suite with an unsecured airway. There were no unrecognized esophageal intubations. Arrival pCO₂ values were available for 293 (82.5%) of the 355 successfully intubated patients. Of these patients, 144 (49.1%) had ETCO₂ monitoring during transport (70 patients with paramedics and 74 patients with aeromedical crews), and 149 (50.9%) were transported by paramedics without ETCO₂ monitoring.

Severe hyperventilation (arrival pCO₂, <25 mm Hg) was observed in 8 (5.6%) of 144 patients who had ETCO₂ monitoring, as compared with 20 (13.4%) of 149 patients who had no ETCO₂ monitoring (OR, 2.64; 95% CI, 1.12–6.20; *p* = 0.035). In the group of patients with ETCO₂ monitoring, severe hyperventilation was observed in 5 (7.1%) of 70 patients transported by paramedics and 3 (4.1%) of 74 patients transported by aeromedical crews. The mortality rates were similar between the two groups, including the incidence of death on the first hospital day. There were no significant differences between the groups in terms of demographics, mechanism of injury, clinical presentation, pre- and postintubation pulse oximetry values, arrival pO₂ or pH, and intubation success rates (Table 2). A histogram displaying the number of patients in each group with pCO₂ values falling into each interval group is displayed in Figure 2.

Secondary analysis showed higher mortality rates for patients with inadvertent severe hyperventilation (arrival pCO₂, <25 mm Hg) than for those without this condition (OR, 2.9; 95% CI, 1.3–6.6; *p* = 0.016). Patients with and those without inadvertent severe hyperventilation were similar in terms of demographic data, AIS, ISS, and vital signs (Table 3). The values for GCS and chest AIS both were lower in the group with severe hyperventilation, but these differences did not appear to be clinically significant. The notable exception was the incidence of gunshot wounds in the group with severe hyperventilation. However, this would have accounted for only three patients and does not completely explain the mortality difference. There was an expected decrease in pCO₂ and a corresponding increase in pH as well as a pO₂ increase for the severely hyperventilated patients.

DISCUSSION

The technology for ETCO₂ monitoring has been available for many years in the intensive care unit and operating room. There has been reasonable correlation between ETCO₂ values and arterial pCO₂, especially for younger patients without pulmonary disease and in the absence of vigorous exercise.^{22–28} Only recently has this technology been applied in the prehospital arena. Few attempts have been made to measure its accuracy or therapeutic value.^{12,14,15} Thomas et al.¹² recently reported ETCO₂ values of 25 mm Hg or lower

Table 2 Demographic, Clinical, Intubation, and Arterial Blood Gas Data for Paramedic Rapid Sequence Intubation Patients Transported With and Without End-Tidal Carbon Dioxide (ETCO₂) Monitoring

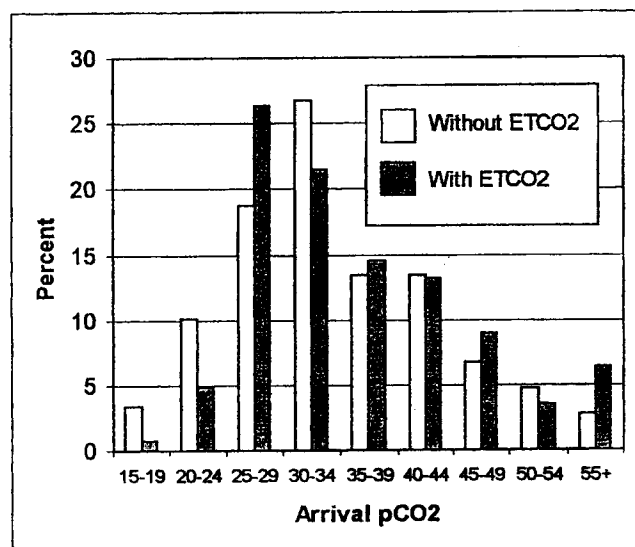
Outcome Measure	Without ETCO ₂ Monitoring (n = 149)	With ETCO ₂ Monitoring (n = 144)	<i>p</i> Value
Demographics			
Age (years)	38.0	38.1	0.587
GCS score	4.9	4.9	0.692
Gender (% male)	81	78	0.760
Mechanism of injury			
Assault/struck by object	13	10	0.769
Bicycle accident	6	5	0.232
Fall	25	23	0.939
Found down	4	3	0.805
Gunshot wound	6	7	0.790
Motor vehicle accident	38	45	0.852
Pedestrian struck	9	10	0.142
Abbreviated Injury Scores			
Head/Neck	3.8	3.7	0.658
Face	0.5	0.6	0.397
Chest	1.1	1.3	0.326
Abdomen	0.8	0.7	0.308
Extremities	1.0	1.1	0.644
Skin	0.8	0.9	0.238
Injury Severity Score	25.7	26.8	0.537
Prehospital course			
Initial SBP (mm Hg)	122	125	0.784
Intubation attempts (n)	1.5	1.5	0.502
Preintubation SaO ₂ (%)	91.7	91.0	0.404
Postintubation SaO ₂ (%)	97.4	97.0	1.000
Transport time (min)	15.8	13.4	0.014*
Hospital data			
Arrival SBP (mm Hg)	137	142	0.737
Arrival HR (beats/min)	102	105	0.319
pH	7.36	7.35	0.489
pO ₂ (mm Hg)	331	311	0.317
pCO ₂ (mm Hg)	34.4	36.8	0.295
Base excess	-4.8	-4.2	0.289
Serum ethanol (mg/dL)	120	104	0.334
Overall mortality (%)	33	30	0.666
Death on hospital day 1 (%)	14	17	0.654

GCS, Glasgow Coma Score; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SaO₂, oxygen saturation; HR, heart rate; pO₂, partial pressure of oxygen; pCO₂, partial pressure of carbon dioxide.

* Significance is indicated for *p* < 0.05.

in one third of patients with severe head injuries transported by aeromedical crews. More than two thirds of these patients had at least one ETCO₂ value of 30 mm Hg or lower. Similar observations have been made for out-of-hospital patients, especially those with manual ventilation.^{14,15} This report documents the efficacy of quantitative ETCO₂ monitoring in avoiding inadvertent severe hyperventilation in patients undergoing paramedic RSI.

Cerebral hemodynamics appear to play an important role for the patient with severe head injury. Intracranial hypertension can result in decreased cerebral perfusion pressure and global ischemia, whereas posttraumatic cerebral vasomotor



RSI = rapid sequence intubation

ETCO₂ = end-tidal CO₂

Fig. 2. Frequency of various arrival partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) intervals for paramedic rapid sequence intubation patients with and those without end-tidal carbon dioxide CO₂ (ETCO₂) monitoring during transport.

dysfunction may result in regional hypoperfusion.^{6-9,11} In addition, systemic hypotension from hemorrhage also decreases cerebral perfusion pressure and may exacerbate existing intracranial pathology. Cerebral autoregulatory mechanisms allow for therapeutic manipulation of cerebral blood volume and ICP through hyperventilation. Unfortunately, the decrease in cerebral blood volume and ICP with hyperventilation may come at the expense of cerebral perfusion, leading to concern for ischemia.^{7,9,10} Multiple animal and human trials have demonstrated compromised oxygen delivery to cerebral tissue, with a decrease in pCO₂, and a multicenter, randomized, controlled trial has documented an increase in mortality with empiric use of hyperventilation for patients with severe head injury.^{1-9,11,13-21} In addition, the authors' initial outcomes analysis documented an increase in mortality among hyperventilated patients.²⁹

Another mechanism whereby hyperventilation may lead to worse outcomes for patients with head injury involves the effects of positive pressure ventilation on cardiac output. The decrease in intrathoracic pressure generated during inspiration for spontaneously breathing patients augments venous return, whereas positive pressure ventilation for the intubated patient obstructs venous return and can lead to a drop in cardiac output.^{1,3,30,31} This effect is pronounced in the hypovolemic patient and may be especially detrimental for the patient with head injury, who is more susceptible to hemodynamic instability. Because hyperventilation involves a relative increase in inspiratory time, it has the potential to compromise cardiac output and further exacerbate posttrau-

Table 3 Demographic, Clinical, Intubation, and Arterial Blood Gas Data for Patients With Inadvertent Severe Hyperventilation (pCO₂ < 25 mm Hg) and those without

Outcome Measure	Arrival pCO ₂ < 25 mm Hg (n = 28)	Arrival pCO ₂ ≥ 25 mm Hg (n = 265)	p Value
Demographics			
Age (years)	38.4	38.0	0.926
GCS score	4.2	5.0	0.026 ^a
Gender (% male)	75	80	0.706
Mechanism of injury			
Assault/struck by object	11	10	0.810
Bicycle accident	0	6	0.368
Fall	25	24	0.895
Found down	4	3	0.618
Gunshot wound	18	5	0.021 ^a
Motor vehicle accident	32	42	0.427
Pedestrian struck	11	9	0.905
Abbreviated Injury Scores			
Head/neck	4.1	3.7	0.059
Face	0.4	0.5	0.633
Chest	0.4	1.3	0.038 ^a
Abdomen	0.4	0.7	0.425
Extremities	0.7	1.0	0.395
Skin	0.9	0.9	0.817
Injury Severity Score	24.6	26.4	0.744
Prehospital course			
Initial SBP (mm Hg)	118	124	0.239
Intubation attempts (n)	1.4	1.5	0.688
Preintubation SaO ₂ (%)	93.0	91.2	0.858
Postintubation SaO ₂ (%)	98.6	97.1	0.263
Transport time (min)	15.2	14.9	0.744
Hospital data			
Arrival SBP (mm Hg)	137	140	0.885
Arrival HR (beats/min)	109	103	0.287
pH	7.45	7.35	<0.0001 ^a
pO ₂ (mm Hg)	390	314	0.024 ^a
pCO ₂ (mm Hg)	21.4	37.1	<0.0001 ^a
Base excess	-5.6	-4.3	0.157
Serum ethanol (mg/dL)	97	115	0.680
Overall mortality (%)	56	30	0.016 ^a
Death on hospital day 1 (%)	30	17	0.172

pCO₂, partial pressure of carbon dioxide; GCS, Glasgow Coma Score; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SaO₂, oxygen saturation; HR, heart rate; pO₂, partial pressure of oxygen.

^a Significance is indicated for $p < 0.05$.

matic cerebral ischemia. Current treatment guidelines recommend against the use of empiric hyperventilation for patients with severe traumatic brain injury.¹⁰ Despite these recommendations, inadvertent hyperventilation appears to be relatively common in and out of the hospital environment, especially when manual ventilation is used.^{12,14,15} Although it may be postulated that inadvertent hyperventilation would occur with greater frequency among more critically injured patients because of operator excitability, this study could not detect significant differences between the groups in terms of vital signs, GCS scores, AIS, ISS, overall mortality, or the incidence of death on the first hospital day.^{1,12}

This study found that with the use of ETCO₂ monitoring, the incidence of severe inadvertent hyperventilation decreased from 13.4% to 5.6%. This suggests the efficacy of these devices in guiding prehospital ventilation, although ETCO₂ monitoring did not completely prevent the occurrence of severe hyperventilation. This may reflect the difficulty of performing multiple tasks in the back of a moving ambulance or the consequence of delays in obtaining an ABG, as discussed earlier. Secondary analysis showed an increase in mortality among patients with inadvertent severe hyperventilation that could not be explained on the basis of clinical parameters alone. It is unclear whether this represents an adverse effect of hyperventilation or an undetected difference in injury severity. Although the current analysis was not intended to explore the impact of hyperventilation on outcome, this mortality difference clearly warrants further investigation. Despite the association between hyperventilation and outcome, there was not a significant difference between the monitored and unmonitored groups in terms of overall mortality. This likely reflects the low overall incidence of severe hyperventilation in both groups. From these data, it can be estimated that inadvertent hyperventilation was prevented in 11 patients, and that slightly more than half of these (~6 patients) would have died. This study would have needed more than 10 ten times as many patients for these mortality differences to approach statistical significance.

One of the most significant limitations of this analysis involves the potential delays in obtaining ABG data at the patient's arrival in the trauma resuscitation suite. The standard of care in the authors' community requires an ABG to be drawn immediately for major trauma patients, especially when they arrive intubated. However, the exact time of arterial puncture relative to patient arrival and the ventilation parameters at that time were not available for analysis. Thus, it is possible that these pCO₂ values reflect ventilation parameters initiated by trauma center personnel rather than paramedics. In addition, there is no documentation as to whether ETCO₂ monitoring was available to guide ventilation in the resuscitation suite. Nevertheless, the significant decrease in the percentage of patients who had pCO₂ values less than 25 mm Hg with the use of ETCO₂ monitors suggests the efficacy of these devices in guiding prehospital ventilation.

No attempt was made to correlate the actual ETCO₂ reading with the ABG pCO₂ value at the patient's arrival. Although paramedics were asked to record arrival ETCO₂ values, these often were obtained while the patient was still inside the ambulance rather than at the time of delivery to the trauma suite, and thus were thought to be unreliable. These data also would likely suffer from reporting bias because of the specific ventilation protocols given to the paramedics. Finally, the patients undergoing Combitube intubation were excluded for the purposes of this analysis. The authors have previously documented the need for increased ventilation with the Combitube. They are of the opinion that it would be

unfair to compare patients ventilated using standardized parameters designed for endotracheally intubated patients with patients undergoing ETCO₂-guided ventilation.³² It is possible that ETCO₂ monitoring would be even more useful for Combitube-intubated patients because of its larger volume of dead space and the potential for air leakage around the two balloons.

CONCLUSIONS

The use of ETCO₂ monitoring to guide ventilation for patients with severe head injury undergoing paramedic RSI appears to prevent excessive hyperventilation. This was reflected by a decrease in the percentage of patients with arrival pCO₂ values of 25 mm Hg or lower, although the mean pCO₂ values were not significantly different between the patients undergoing ETCO₂ monitor-guided ventilation and those for whom standardized ventilation parameters were used. Future studies should investigate the impact of hyperventilation and ETCO₂ monitoring on the outcome for patients with traumatic brain injury.

REFERENCES

1. Manley GT, Hemphill JC, Morabito D, et al. Cerebral oxygenation during hemorrhagic shock: perils of hyperventilation and the therapeutic potential of hypoventilation. *J Trauma*. 2000;48:1025-1033.
2. Manley GT, Pitts LH, Morabito D. Brain tissue oxygenation during hemorrhagic shock, resuscitation, and alterations in ventilation. *J Trauma*. 1999;46:261-267.
3. Kety SS, Schmidt CF. The effects of active and passive hyperventilation on cerebral blood flow, cerebral oxygen consumption, cardiac output, and blood pressure in normal young men. *J Clin Invest*. 1946;25:107-119.
4. Grubb RL Jr, Raichle ME, Eichling JO, Ter-Pogossian MM. The effects of changes in PaCO₂ on cerebral blood volume, blood flow, and vascular mean transit time. *Stroke*. 1974;5:630-639.
5. Heffner JE, Sahn SA. Controlled hyperventilation in patients with intracranial hypertension: application and management. *Arch Intern Med*. 1983;143:765-769.
6. Skippen P, Seear M, Poskitt K, et al. Effect of hyperventilation on regional cerebral blood flow in head-injured children [see comments]. *Crit Care Med*. 1997;25:1402-1409.
7. Fortune JB, Feustel PJ, deLuna C, Graca L, Hasselbarth J, Kupinski AM. Cerebral blood flow and blood volume in response to O₂ and CO₂ changes in normal humans. *J Trauma*. 1995;39:463-471.
8. Weckesser M, Posse S, Olthoff U, Kemna L, Dager S, Muller-Gartner HW. Functional imaging of the visual cortex with bold-contrast MRI: hyperventilation decreases signal response. *Magn Reson Med*. 1999;41:213-216.
9. Ruta TS, JCD, Cole DJ. The effect of acute hypocapnia on local cerebral blood flow during middle cerebral artery occlusion in isoflurane anesthetized rats. *Anesthesiology*. 1993;78:134-140.
10. Bullock R, Chesnut RM, Clifton GL. Hyperventilation. *J Neurotrauma*. 2000;17:513-520.
11. Muizelaar JP, Marmarou A, Ward JD, et al. Adverse effects of prolonged hyperventilation in patients with severe head injury: a randomized clinical trial. *J Neurosurg*. 1991;75:731-739.
12. Thomas SH, Orf J, Wedel SK, Conn AK. Hyperventilation in traumatic brain injury patients: inconsistency between consensus guidelines. *J Trauma*. 2002;42:47-52.

13. Braman SS, Dunn SM, Amieo CA. Complications of intrahospital transport in critically ill patients. *Ann Intern Med.* 1987;107:469-473.
14. Gervais HW, Eberle B, Konietzke D, Hennes HJ, Dick W. Comparison of blood gases of ventilated patients during transport. *Crit Care Med.* 1987;15:761-763.
15. Hurst JM, Davis K, Branson R, Johannigman JA. Comparison of blood gases during transport using two methods of ventilatory support. *J Trauma.* 1989;29:1637-1640.
16. Tobias JD, Lynch A, Garrett J. Alterations of end-tidal carbon dioxide during the intrahospital transport of children. *Pediatr Emerg Care.* 1996;12:249-251.
17. Graham DI, Adams JH. Ischaemic brain damage in fatal head injuries. *Lancet.* 1971;1:265-266.
18. Kontos HA, Wei EP, Navari RM, Levasseur JE, Rosenblum WI, Patterson JL. Responses of cerebral arteries to acute hypotension and hypertension. *Am J Physiol.* 1978;234:371-373.
19. Tuor UI, Farrar JK. Pial vessel caliber and cerebral blood flow during hemorrhage and hypercapnia in the rabbit. *Am J Physiol.* 1984;244:40-51.
20. Kety SS, Schmidt CF. The effect of altered arterial tensions of carbon dioxide and oxygen on cerebral blood flow and cerebral oxygen consumption of normal young men. *J Clin Invest.* 1948; 27:484-492.
21. Wei EP, Kontos HA, Patterson JL. Dependence of pial arteriolar response to hypercapnia on vessel size. *Am J Physiol.* 1980;238:697-702.
22. Fletcher R, Boris-Moller F. Can we improve the estimate of arterial pCO₂ from end-tidal pCO₂? *Eur J Anaesthesiol.* 2000; 17:306-310.
23. Fletcher R, Jonson B. Dead space and the single-breath test for carbon dioxide during anaesthesia and artificial ventilation. *Br J Anaesth.* 1984;56:109-119.
24. Benallal H, Denis C, Prieur F, Busso T. Modeling of end-tidal and arterial pCO₂ gradient: comparison with experimental data. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2002;34:622-629.
25. Williams JS, Babb TG. Differences between estimates and measured PaCO₂ during rest and exercise in older subjects. *J Appl Physiol.* 1997;83:312-316.
26. Prause G, Hetz H, Lauda P, Pojer H, Smolle-Juettner F, Smolle J. A comparison of the end-tidal CO₂ documented by capnometry and the arterial pCO₂ in emergency patients. *Resuscitation.* 1997;35:145-148.
27. Bhende M. Capnography in the pediatric emergency department. *Pediatr Emerg Care.* 1999;15:64-68.
28. Santos LJ, Varon J, Pic-Aluas L. Practical uses of end-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring in the emergency department. *J Emerg Med.* 1994;12:633-644.
29. Davis DP, Hoyt DB, Ochs M, et al. The effect of paramedic rapid sequence intubation on outcome in severely head-injured patients. *J Trauma.* 2003;54:444-453.
30. Reller MD, Donovan EF, Kotagal UR. Influence of airway pressure waveform on cardiac output during positive pressure ventilation of healthy newborn dogs. *Pediatr Resuscitation.* 1985;19:337-341.
31. Pepe PE, Raedler C, Lurie KG, Wigginton JG. Emergency ventilatory management in severe hemorrhagic states: elemental or detrimental? In: Brasel K, ed. American Association for the Surgery of Trauma Orlando, FL: University of Vermont; 2002:80.
32. Valentine C, Davis D, Ochs M, Hoyt D, Bailey D, Vilke G. The use of the Combitube as a salvage airway device for paramedic rapid-sequence intubation. *Prehosp Emerg Care.* 2002;6:144.