Prognostic Value of Evoked Responses and Event-Related Brain Potentials in Coma

Jing Tian Wang, G. Bryan Young, John F. Connolly

ABSTRACT: The behaviourally unresponsive patient, unable to exhibit the presence of cognition, constitutes a conundrum for health care specialists. Prognostic uncertainty impedes accurate management decisions and the application of ethical principles. An early, reliable prognosis is highly desirable. In this review investigations studying comatose patients with coma of different etiologies were selected. It is concluded that objective prognostication is enhanced by the use of electrophysiological tests. Persistent abnormalities of brainstem auditory evoked potentials and short-latency somatosensory evoked potentials reliably indicate the likelihood of irreversible neurological deficit or death. Meanwhile, the presence of "cognitive" event-related brain potentials (e.g., P300 and mismatch negativity) reflects the functional integrity of higher level information processing and, therefore, the likelihood of capacity for cognition. An approach that combines clinical and electrophysiological values provides optimal prediction of outcome and level of disability.

RÉSUMÉ: Valeurpronostique des potentiels évoquées chez les patients comateux. Le patient qui ne répond pas aux stimuli et chez qui aucune fonction cognitive n'est évidente constitue une énigme pour les spécialistes. L'incertitude concernant le pronostic gêne la prise de décisions judicieuses quant au traitement et à l'application des principes éthiques. Il est donc souhaitable d'établir un pronostic précoce et fiable. Nous révisons des études de patients dont le coma était d'étiologies variées. Nous concluons que l'utilisation de tests électrophysiologiques favorise l'établissement d'un pronostic objectif. Des anomalies persistantes des potentiels évoqués auditifs du tronc cérébral et des potentiels évoqués somesthésiques de courte latence indiquent de façon fiable la probabilité de déficits neurologiques irréversibles ou de décès. La présence de potentiels évoqués cognitifs (P300 et négativité de discordance) reflète l'intégrité fonctionnelle du traitement de l'information au niveau mental supérieur et donc la probabilité de conservation de la fonction cognitive. Une approche qui combine des données cliniques et électrophysiologiques fournit une prédiction optimale de l'issue et du degré d'invalidité.

Can. J. Neurol. Sci. 2004; 31: 438-450

Coma is a state of unarousable unconsciousness due to dysfunction of the ascending reticular activating system (functionally and structurally represented in the rostral brainstem tegmentum, through the medial thalamus and projected to the cerebral hemispheres). Advanced medical support and lifesaving interventions allow some patients to have a good recovery.² The objective of rapid, accurate prediction of a comatose patient's outcome is motivated by two primary needs. The first is to be able to counsel the patient's family. The second is to provide the health care team with necessary information needed to rationalize life-sustaining therapies and limited resources on those patients most likely to gain benefit, and to minimize intensive treatment for patients who would remain in an irreversible vegetative state or die. The lack of reliable prognosticators may result in predictions that are either ambiguous or unduly optimistic or pessimistic.³⁻⁶

In current practice, prognostic decisions for comatose patients rest principally on clinical observations.^{7,8} The fundamental weakness of clinical algorithms and grading systems is their less than 100% specificity for an outcome no better than (permanent)

vegetative state or death. These categories, i.e., the lack of recovery of the capacity for conscious awareness, represent states that for most individuals and families would not warrant continued high level ICU support. Other levels of survival, with preserved consciousness, are more difficult for management decisions. Conversely, the predictive values of tests for excellent outcomes need to be considered in any prognostic battery.

A number of clinical algorithms have been developed, beginning with the seminal study of Levy et al.⁹ These rely on the premise that severe brainstem dysfunction reflects even

From the Cognitive Electrophysiology Laboratory, New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, USA(JTW); Cognitive/Clinical Neuroscience Unit, Department of Psychology, Life Science Center, Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS, (JTW, JFC); Clinical Neurological Sciences, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, (GBY); Departments of Psychiatry, Medicine (Neurology), & Pediatrics, Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS, (JFC); Canada

RECEIVED MARCH 10, 2004. ACCEPTED INFINALFORM JULY 19, 2004. Reprint requests to: G. Bryan Young, Dept. Clinical Neurological Sciences, London Health Sciences Centre, 339 Windermere Rd., London ON, Canada N6A5A5

greater damage to rostral structures, which are usually more vulnerable to ischemic injury. Certainly coma lasting more than three days carries a greater than 90% risk of poor outcome. Independent existence did not occur with absence of pupillary light reflex at the time of initial evaluation; only one of 93 patients with decorticate or decerebrate responses at 24 hours recovered. Edgren and colleagues¹⁰ found absence of motor response at three days to be the best predictor of poor outcome. Poor outcome is usually defined as a severe disability, vegetative state or death. Unfortunately, the vegetative state or death were not the absolute end points. False prediction of poor recovery occurred in 16 of Longstreth's clinical series.¹¹

Several clinical scoring systems have been developed and utilized in clinical patients. A recent review8 suggests that clinical levels based on Hunt and Hess12 and the World Federeation of Neurological Surgeons' Grading System^{13,14} have strong association with the outcome of patients secondary to stroke. Unfortunately, when these scoring systems are applied to all comatose patients, they have very limited value in distinguishing patients with reversible encephalopathies from those who will die or remain in an irreversible vegetative state. Some cases of coma or "persistent vegetative state" are temporary. In a (permanent) vegetative state, the patient has irregular cyclic arousal although he/she is still not aware of self or the environment, as the patient is in a comatose state. An irreversible vegetative state commonly indicates the severity of the vegetative state, in which the patient hardly achieves good recovery. The Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) is the most widely used formalized clinical assessment, 15-18 especially for scoring the extent of traumatic head injuries. 19 The scoring system using the GCS is based on the separate assessments of verbal, motor, and eye-opening responses of patients which are then summed up for an overall measure. Mullie and colleagues²⁰ correlated GCS at two days for outcome in 216 patients resuscitated from cardiac arrest. The sensitivity was 96%, the specificity 86%, while the positive and negative predictive values were 97% and 77%, respectively. Thus, although the GCS is likely helpful, it is not sufficiently definite to support end-of-life decisions solely on its basis. Using the GCS alone, three of 11 patients with epidural hematomas and GCS scores of 3-5 still had good outcomes.²¹ The combination of the GCS with computed tomography (CT) scan findings considerably improved predictive values. 21 Inherent problems with the GCS include the level of inter-rater reliability in scoring patients: Kappa scores of 0.69-0.71 were found in a study involving neurosurgeons and registrars.²² Furthermore, the consistency of rating is dependent upon experience: experienced nurses are more consistent in GCS rating scales than are junior nurses.²³ In addition, a number of confounders can invalidate rating: hearing can be affected selectively; motor response can be affected by spinal cord injury, verbal response is compromised by the presence of the endotracheal tube, mouth or facial injuries; eyes may be swollen shut, etc. Observer grading disagreements are exacerbated by pseudoscoring, i.e., giving an estimated score for an untestable response in order to avoid exclusions.^{24,25} In the acute stage of coma, the GCS system is too insensitive to be of great utility in predicting death or good recovery in traumatic coma.²⁶ Although to a certain degree it is useful and well-validated in helping to determine the degree and duration of coma over pathological cause and anatomical site, 19 the application of clinical evaluations to prognostication in comatose patients is beset with limits. The scoring system using the GCS is insensitive in separating patients with reversible coma from those without,8 and thereby increasing false pessimism – the error of predicting a bad outcome when a good outcome occurs.²⁷ Clinical evaluations cannot provide significant information at the critical time when meaningful interventions are feasible and potentially effective. For example, irreparable damage has been done when temporal lobe herniation reaches the stage of third cranial nerve compression and pupillary dilatation. The most important and unavoidable limit is that present intensive care measures (e.g., intubation, artificial respiration, pharmacological relaxation, and barbiturates) heavily mask neurological signs that are usually relied upon by clinical observations. In cases of traumatic coma, an accurate behavioural evaluation is often obscured by peripheral injuries, facial injuries, hypoxia, spontaneous fluctuations, and the subjective interpretation of the observer. 17

In addition, the GCS has met with problems for use in children, especially those who are too young to understand commands. Butinar and Gostisa²⁸ argue that the GCS increases a false-negative rate of 25%, predicting survival, in children with a GCS score equal to 3. The Paediatric Coma Scale was developed to address this drawback. Simpson et al²⁹ studied the Paediatric Coma Scale in 66 children under 72 months of age and found a correlation with outcome. However, there were few children in coma in their study and, therefore, this scoring system needs further evaluation.

In combination with clinical examination or used alone, CT scans,30,31 intracranial pressure monitoring,32-34 serum and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) chemical markers³⁵⁻³⁹ and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)⁴⁰⁻⁴³ have also been studied as potential prognostic indicators. With the same type of shortcoming as clinical observations, all these measurements, except neuroimaging scans, produce values that overlap considerably between favorable and unfavorable outcomes and are thus, too insensitive to allow early intervention. Biochemical markers in the CSF and serum (neuron specific enolase, S-100 glial protein, lactate dehydrogenase, glutamate oxaloacetate and the brain specific isoenzyme for creatine kinase - CKBB) hold promise, but a meta-analysis by Zandbergen et al³⁹ showed that the confidence intervals (CIs) were too wide to allow for clinical application of these tests. The only one that showed a high prediction for poor outcome (with a pooled likelihood ratio of 33.2 and 95% CI of 4.8-230.2) was based on two retrospective studies in which the treating physicians were not blind to the results. Further studies with larger sample sizes are clearly needed. Although CTdoes not share the above shortcomings and provides an accurate assessment of both site and size of bleeding. of brain structural damage, and of the risk of vasospasm, it is not a reliable indicator of brain dysfunction.8 Magnetic resonance imaging can detect lesions of brain structures close to the midline (e.g., basal ganglia and upper brainstem) which CT scans fail to capture. Studies on comatose patients have shown that extensive lesions detected by MRI (e.g., more than four insults observable with MRI⁴⁰) are associated with an unfavorable outcome. 41,42 These data suggest that MRI in coma secondary to head injury can provide complementary information for prognosis. Although MRI scans show some preliminary promise, the published series

have only a few cases each. 40-43 In our experience, the MRI, including diffusion-weighted and fluid attenuation inversion recovery sequences are not sufficiently sensitive for poor outcome, although they may ultimately be shown to have good specificity. In addition, the cost of MRI as well as the complicated transport of unstable patients has limited the further development of this MRI research. Parallel to the MRI research, proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy has recently been evaluated for prognostication in coma. This test can be performed on conventional MR equipment with advanced software and provides a more direct assessment of brain metabolism than a simple overview of brain structural damage.⁴⁴ It was found that abnormally high brain lactate values reliably indicate a poor prognosis in patients with ischemic damage. 45 Again, the need to transport the patient to the radiology suite and test availability limit its application.⁷

These problems make the accurate prediction of coma outcome complex and difficult, demanding considerable experience, effort and skill – qualities that are not generalizable. Electrophysiological tests as prognostic tools have attracted increasing attention of late due to their correlation with clinical symptomatology, safety, ease of acquisition, and cost effectiveness. They provide an objective, standardized, noninvasive means of directly assessing brain activity. Early research in trauma cases indicated that changes in the brain's electrical activity were correlated strongly with the force of impact⁴⁶ as well as the site and extent of brain damage.⁴⁷ Brain electrical activity provides a sensitive index of the pathophysiological response of the brain to acute traumatic damage and secondary cerebral insults and, therefore, may provide valuable information for patient outcome. 48 This review will focus mainly on neurophysiological investigations of prediction of patients' outcome from comas of different etiologies.

We surveyed electronic MEDLINE and PSYCINFO studies in which databases and collected electrophysiological features of patients with coma of various etiologies were related to outcome. Keywords were: traumatic, head injury, nontraumatic, anoxic (cerebral), ischemia (cerebral), heart arrest, cardiac arrest, postoperative complications, stroke, shock, hypertensive hemorrhage, resuscitation, drowning, or lightning, combined with coma or GCS. Studies included patients with coma of different etiologies, and we distinguished between traumatic and nontraumatic coma. For nontraumatic comas, we focused on hypoxic-ischemic (postcardiac arrest) etiology, as other metabolic conditions have greater reversibility. The emphasis was on adult patients. Other criteria for study selection were: unequivocal description, classification, and timing of recording of electrophysiological features; presentation of outcome data such that the combined outcome of death or (permanent) vegetative state versus other outcome states could be determined, as these states are generally seen as unacceptable outcomes.

ELECTROENCEPHALOGRAPHY (EEG)

From a hypothetical viewpoint, electroencephalography (EEG) should be a suitable test for cortical function and prognosis.⁴⁹ The neurons that are the most sensitive to anoxic-

ischemic insult are those large neocortical cells responsible for generating the scalp EEG signal. The EEG becomes isoelectric during circulatory arrest; this can persist for several hours after restoration of circulation.²⁴ Thus, one should wait for at least several hours before performing the EEG. Delayed neuronal death may be responsible for deterioration in EEG voltage that can occur three to five days later.⁵⁰ Thus, timing and often the need to repeat EEGs are of great importance. Sedative drugs commonly confound the EEG. Midazolam and propofol are the most commonly used; these can suppress the EEG to a burstsuppression pattern that is completely reversible.⁴⁹ Suppression or burst-suppression may occur in severe, reversible septic encephalopathy.⁵¹ Studies of EEG in comatose anoxic-ischemic encephalopathy lack numbers and precision: the threshold for suppression is often not defined, the timing of the EEGs from the time of the arrest is available.⁴⁹ There is certainly a correlation of poor outcome with the following patterns when "lumped" together: suppression, burst-suppression, alpha-theta pattern coma and generalized periodic patterns.⁵² Some patterns, such as suppression of <10µV, a burst-suppression pattern with epileptiform activity within the bursts, are more specific for outcome no better than vegetative state, but the series are small. 25,49,53-54 Clearly EEG has many obstacles (sedation, sepsis) and variability that require larger, more carefully performed studies with either serial or continuous EEG over several days before it can be established as a suitable prognostic tool for comatose survivors of cardiac arrest.

An EEG has very limited prognostic usefulness for other etiologies of coma. It has not been very helpful in traumatic head injury, possibly because the brunt of the damage is acute axonal injury, affecting the subcortical white matter and sparing (relatively) the EEG-generating neocortex.⁴⁹ Many metabolic conditions affect the brain mainly in a metabolic fashion that is mostly/largely potentially reversible.⁴⁹

Of course, favorable EEGs, with reactive, variable and continuous wave forms, are correlated with favorable outcomes.⁵² The EEG can also assist in management of seizures and depth of sedation; thus outcomes may be enhanced, secondary insults prevented and ICU length of stay shortened.⁵⁵

SHORT-LATENCY EVOKED POTENTIALS

Among neurophysiological tests, measurement of short-latency evoked potentials (EPs) is useful in the evaluation of specific sensory pathways traversing the central nervous system. An advantage of EPs over clinical evaluations is that the former are not influenced by intensive care interventions and are relatively resistant to sedative and barbiturate drugs. ⁵⁶⁻⁶¹ Chiappa comments that EPs are very resistant to changes by anything other than structural pathology in the brain stem auditory tracts (for brainstem auditory evoked potentials (BAEP)) and/or somatosensory pathway (for SEP). ⁵⁶ In this paper, two short-latency evoked potentials – BAEP and short latency somatosensory EPs (SSEP) – are reviewed, and the effectiveness of each in the evaluation of coma is discussed.

Motor evoked potentials are not reviewed in this paper in terms of their prognostic value in coma. Motor evoked potential testing provides a noninvasive method of recording electromyographic responses (e.g., the muscle twitch recorded peripherally) evoked by transcranial electrical or magnetoelectric stimulation of the motor cortex through intact skull. Motor evoked potentials were first introduced by Merton and Morton in 1980.⁶² Since then, they have been used in a wide range of neurological disorders for assessment of the functional status of descending motor pathways in awake patients.⁶³⁻⁶⁶ Motor evoked potentials have also been studied in comatose patients to determine their prognostic value.⁶⁷⁻⁶⁹ However, the coma literature shows inconclusive results regarding their prognostic significance.⁷⁰⁻⁷⁴ Further investigations are therefore required.

BRAINSTEM AUDITORY EVOKED POTENTIALS (BAEP)

Brainstem auditory evoked potentials (BAEPs) are nervous system responses to transient click stimulation that occur within 10msec of stimulus onset. Brainstem auditory evoked potentials consist of six to seven positive and negative BAEPpeaks (Figure 1).⁷⁵ Wave I is a negative wave generated in the segment of the eighth nerve close to the cochlea. Wave III may be generated mainly by the ipsilateral cochlear nucleus, with the possible contribution of the superior olivary complex on the ipsilateral side. Wave V is thought to be generated in the upper pons or inferior colliculus.⁵⁶ The generators of wave VI and VII are argued to be located, respectively, within the midbrain (or even in the diencephalon) and thalamocortical regions.⁷⁶⁻⁷⁸

Given that absolute amplitudes of each wave vary significantly across individuals, wave presence or absence is usually used to predict the outcome of comatose patients in some studies. For instance, all comatose patients with no discernible BAEP waves, ⁷⁹ an absence of waves III to V, ⁸⁰ or an absence of waves IV and V⁸¹ died or were left in an irreversible vegetative state. Although there is controversy about the prognostic value of

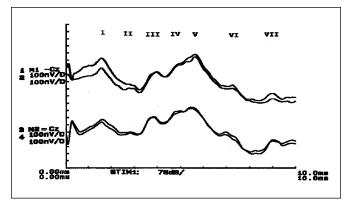


Figure 1: Normal BAEP waveforms elicited by monaurally presented click sounds with contralateral sound masking. The sound stimulation was set at 78 dB normal hearing level (NHL) while the sound masking was at 60 dB NHL. The stimulation frequency was set at 10 Hz. Waveforms were recorded at the mastoids (M1, M2) referred to the vortex (Cz). The upper two superimposed lines were the BAEP waveforms evoked by left ear stimulation and ipsilateral recording while the bottom two lines by right ear stimulation. (Adapted from Hu CJ, Chan KY, Lin TJ, et al. Traumatic brainstem deafness with normal brainstem auditory evoked potentials. Neurology 1997; 48:1448-1451. Reprinted with permission from Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins.)

the absence of BAEP waves for comatose patients, 82-84 most researchers agree that the persistent absence of wave V can be a reliable prognosticator for a poor outcome of coma unless wave I is also absent. 85-88 Note that the absence of wave V without reliable presence of wave I cannot be used as a reliable prognosticator for unfavorable outcome given the possibility that the failure to elicit wave V may be the result of peripheral auditory damage which is normally indicated by the absence of wave I. Wave VI and VII had not figured prominently in clinical practice until wave VI was recently reported as a reliable prognostic measure for comatose patients; it was found that the absence of wave VI was highly specific for an unfavorable coma outcome. 78

Equally, the measurement of interpeak latencies (IPL) (I-III, III-V, I-V) and amplitude ratios (I/V) has been used as a criterion of abnormality for clinical interpretations. It has been demonstrated that a significantly prolonged wave III-V IPL (central conduction time) in comatose patients from traumatic head injury, 88-89 stroke, 90 and from other different origins (e.g., subarachnoidal or hypertensive hemorrahage⁸) was highly correlated with irreversible dysfunction. Given overdependence on a single, one-time measurement of the BAEP in most studies, Garcia-Larrea et al⁹¹ argue that BAEP results may provide a false sense of optimism. Comatose patients, especially those with traumatic injuries and vascular infarcts, experience a dynamic rather than static process of neurological deterioration. In particular, intracerebral hemorrhagic infarcts have great potential risks for late neurological deterioration. In this regard, Garcia-Larrea et al⁹¹ advocate continuous monitoring of BAEP. They observe that even one transient but significant change of BAEPs can be seen as a sign of a poor prognosis. Thus, the stability of BAEPs recorded repeatedly rather than the results of a single BAEP evaluation is the only finding that should be obtained during monitoring for coma emergence. Continuous BAEP measurement seems a reasonable criterion, particularly for predicting poor outcome. However, given the limited brain areas and functions able to be assessed by BAEP measures, the exclusive use of BAEP in predicting coma outcome may be ill-advised.92 It is evident that the prognostic determinant in coma arising from some etiologies (e.g. anoxia) is mainly cortical function.⁹³ Even in cases that involve major brainstem lesions, the BAEP(particularly waves I-IV) will fail to reflect serious neurological impairment unless the lesions involve the rostrocaudal auditory tracts. In an attempt to obtain prognoses, the combining of BAEP with other measurements (e.g., EPs, clinical evaluations, intracranial pressure measures, and CT/MRI scan) has been recommended. In particular, many studies focus mainly on a decision algorithm for the prediction of outcome in comatose patients based on the combined use of SSEP and BAEP.8,27,88

To summarize, the prognostic value of BAEPs characterized by two features. Firstly, the absence of BAEPs can be seen as a reliable prognosticator for poor outcome when there is no evidence of peripheral auditory damage. On the other hand, the presence of normal BAEPs does not reliably indicate a good outcome. Secondly, although the anatomic specificity of BAEPs limits its general utility for prognosis in coma from different etiologies, the metabolic resistance of BAEPs makes it valuable in examining the integrity of relevant brainstem regions.

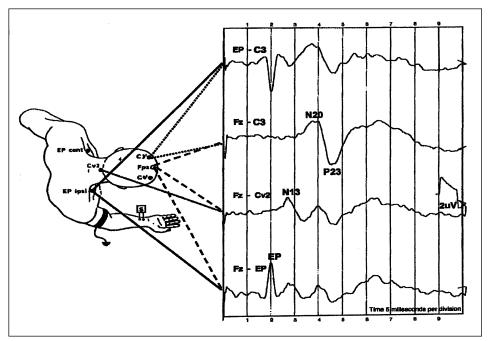


Figure 2: Normal SSEP waveforms in response to the stimulation on the median nerve at the right wrist. The technique used in recording SSEP was illustrated in the left side column. In the right side column, the top line displayed the waveform recorded at the C3 and referred at the ipsilateral Erb's point (EP). The rest three lines depicts the waveforms recorded, respectively, at C3, Cv2 (neck), and EP that were referred to the frontal midline (Fz). (Adapted from Rothstein TL. The role of evoked potentials in anoxic-ischemic coma and severe brain trauma. J Clin Neurophysiol 2000; 17(5): 486-497. ¹⁸ Reprinted with permission from Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins.) Note that the N13 has also been labeled as P/N13 when recorded at the Fz-Cv2 channel.

SHORT-LATENCY SOMATOSENSORY EVOKED POTENTIALS (SSEP)

Somatosensory evoked potentials are recorded in response to transient (usually electrical) stimulation of peripheral sensory nerves. Short latency SEPrefers to the primary response from the somatosensory cortex (S1). As illustrated in Figure 2, the peripheral nerve most often stimulated is the median nerve at the wrist. The traditional recording sites are either C3' or C4'(2cm behind the 10-20 system C3/C4 locations) with Fpz as the reference, along with the Erb's point. ^{18,56,94}

Several studies demonstrated correlations between SSEP and coma outcome. A significant correlation between the central conduction time of SSEP after median nerve stimulation and coma outcome has been widely reported. 73,95,96 The absence of bilateral primary cortical responses (BLCR) of median SSEP was first reported by Goldie et al⁸¹ as an accurate prognosticator of death or survival in a vegetative state. Subsequently, the role of the absent BLCR in predicting poor outcome of coma has been substantiated by a considerable body of literature. It has been reported repeatedly that abolition of BLCR has 100% prognostic specificity for permanent vegetative state or death in patients with hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy.97-102 Studies on cerebrovascular and posttraumatic coma demonstrated a specificity of 87-99% for BLCR in predicting poor outcome. 88,102-104 In view of these findings, the absence of BLCR has been regarded as an excellent prognostic indicator of unfavorable outcome especially for hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy coma.^{7,102,105} Some argue that the persistent absence of BLCR in serial SEP recordings can be taken into account in the decision of terminating patients' medication or even intensive care treatment.¹⁸ In contrast, the presence of the BLCR with normal amplitudes and latencies does not indicate favorable outcome especially for hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy while it has been reported as an indicator for a good recovery in comatose patients secondary to traumatic or vascular brain injury.¹⁰²

There are, however, isolated reports of some patients with bilateral absence of BLCR with favorable outcomes. Pohlmann-Schwarz et al¹⁰³ and Wohlrab et al,¹⁰⁶ respectively, found two and four paediatric comatose patients with BLCR absence who achieved good recovery. Schwarz et al94 reported on four adult comatose patients (three of whom had herniation syndromes, specifically stroke, head injury with subdural hematoma, and encephalitis, while the fourth had carbamazepine toxicity) who showed an absence of the BLCR yet experienced a good outcome. These cases suggest that the absence of BLCR does not always indicate widespread, irreversible loss of neuronal function with structural lesions. This conclusion may be especially true for coma in children and coma secondary to nontraumatic insult (e.g., a lightning strike or near-drowning crisis). By this reasoning, it is possible that the BLCR loss in the three patients with herniation syndromes in the study by Schwarz et al⁹⁴ resulted from a clear but potentially reversible structural

defect that affected the relevant anatomic pathway (e.g., brainstem compression). Subsequently, the absence of BLCR recorded 72 hours after coma onset has been recommended as a reliable variable for predicting poor outcome especially in anoxic-ischemic coma.¹⁰⁷ An alternative explanation for these conflicting findings is that BLCRs were masked by the combined effects of deep sedation and barbiturate therapy. 108-110 It is generally accepted that, although recovery from states characterized by an absence of the BLCR is rare, there are dangers associated with an over reliance on the BLCR finding alone, without regard to the timing of SSEP recordings. It is suggested that a combined approach, with continuous monitoring of brainstem function manifested by BAEP and cortical brain function by multimodal evoked potentials including middle latency auditory evoked potentials (MLAEPs), 102 extended beyond 24 hours, along with routine clinical evaluations. intracranial pressure recordings and neuroimaging scans, is advisable in order to optimize the predictive value of SSEP.

Meanwhile, care should also be exercised when the traditional measure of SSEP is used in clinical practice. The traditional, widely used SSEPis recorded from the scalp over the parietal regions (at C3' or C4') with reference on Fz or Fpz, which mostly reflects the function of the thalamoparietal network. However, it has been demonstrated that traditional SSEP recording may omit another somatosensory pathway connecting from the thalamus to the frontal cortex.¹¹¹ This observation is of particular importance to enhance accurate prognosis. Patients in coma secondary to traumatic injury often have frontolimbic lesions, which are more associated with the thalamofrontal loop than the thalamoparietal loop. 111 Gutling et al¹¹¹ first studied both frontal and parietal SSEPs and found a poor association between the absence of frontal (P20/22) and the loss of parietal (N20) components of SSEPs in 18 out of 40 surviving patients. It is argued that traditional SSEP value cannot represent the functional state of all somatosensory connections between the thalamus and the cerebral cortex. By this logic, the combined use of frontal and parietal components of the SSEP has the potential to improve the accuracy in prognostication of coma outcome. Additionally, this may also be an explanation for the survival of patients with the absence of BLCR.

In conclusion, consensus is growing that short latency EPs, including BAEP and SSEP, have limits but provide substantial information for accurate diagnosis and prognosis of irreversibility early in coma. 112 In particular, combined with clinical evaluations, neuroimaging scans, cerebral perfusion and intracranial pressure assessments, short latency EPs (SLEP) have significant merits in predicting poor prognostic outcome of coma patients. In contrast, normal SLEP responses do not predict equally well a good functional recovery from coma. Short latency EPs reflect the functional integrity of brainstem and thalamocortical connections. However, many patients suffer anoxia-ischemia that destroys much of the cerebral cortex yet spares some or all brainstem function, leading to "normal" BAEPs and SSEPs. Thus the presence/preservation of SLEPs may fail to predict the return of executive cognitive functions and an outcome better than the vegetative state, despite the return of simple wakening (eye opening) and arousability. 18 Clearly we need a reliable test of cerebral function that is more closely related to the potential for awareness and cognition.

MIDDLE LATENCYAUDITORY EVOKED POTENTIALS

Middle latency auditory evoked potentials refer to auditory system responses, to transient click or tone stimulation, which occur between 10 and 70 ms after stimulus onset. The principal sources of the Na-Pa complex of MLAEPs are believed to lie in the primary auditory cortex. 113 Only a few published studies investigated the prognostic value of MLAEPs in coma. 114,115 The absence of MLAEPs and SSEPs was reported to have a prognostic specificity of 100% for nonawakening in postanoxic coma. 116 It is argued that the abolition of MLAEPs and SSEPs can be used as criteria to stop intensive care interventions. 112 In addition, the combined results of MLAEPs and BAEP116 also seem to provide valuable information for poor prognosis of coma. By contrast, sustained MLAEPs alone are not predictive of survival. 102,114,115 Also, MLAEPs are susceptible to central nervous system medications, biological variables, body temperature, and blood pressure. 116,117 This may be the reason that there are relatively few studies of MLAEPs in intensive care patients especially concerning outcome prediction.

EVENT-RELATED BRAIN POTENTIALS

Coma, vegetative and minimally responsive states represent prognostically difficult conditions, especially for the reliable prediction of a good outcome. Event-related brain potentials (ERPs) provide a method to objectively evaluate higher level cognitive function (e.g., memory and language) in such patients. Event-related brain potentials are long-latency responses (70-500ms post-stimulus) that are generated by subcortical-cortical and cortical-cortical circuits. They rely on a more complicated and extensive network of whole brain connections than do short latency EPs.² As a consequence, ERPs provide a very promising tool to examine cerebral functional integrity.

P300

Most contemporary clinical studies of ERPs focus on the auditory P300 component. The P300 is a positive ERP component peaking about 300ms after the onset of an improbable target or 'oddball' stimulus that is presented unexpectedly in a sequence of "standard" auditory stimuli (See Figure 3). While the specific cognitive processes involved in the genesis of the P300 remain diverse, it is generally agreed that it is associated with attention, expectancy, decision making, memory and closure of a cognitive epoch.¹¹⁸ P300 has been widely reported to reflect changes of cognitive impairment in dementia and in confusional states. 119-122 The traditional paradigm to elicit the P300 has involved the active involvement of the participant who must attend to the rare stimulus and make a motor response to it (e.g., a button press). However, an increasing number of studies have demonstrated that it can also be recorded in a state of passive attention, making it possible to investigate this component in comatose patients. 123

Reuter and Linke¹²³ first studied the passive tone 'oddball' paradigm in comatose patients who had incurred closed head injuries. In their study, four patients who exhibited discernible P300 activity emerged from coma and were found to function independently six months after the injury. Later studies replicated and extended the above findings in comatose patients

of different etiologies. 124-127 A common finding is that the presence of a P300 has a significant correlation with favorable outcome of coma. For instance, five out of six nontraumatic comatose patients who showed a P300 awoke in one study. 126 Also, the presence of a P300 is reliably associated with higher GCS scores for nontraumatic coma. 125,126 Somatosensory EPs and EEG are superior to the P300 in predicting nonawakening. In turn, the P300 and SEP are more effective than EEG in predicting awakening. In addition, the P300 was more specific (83.3%; five of six patients with a P300 awoke) than SEP(80%; eight of ten patients with moderate SEP abnormalities regained consciousness) in terms of predicting awakening but its sensitivity was lower (55.5% for P300 and 88.9% for SEP). 125 The sensitivity of the P300 presence for awakening refers to the percentage of later awakening patients who had a P300 response. The specificity of the P300 presence for awakening refers to the percentage of patients who showed the P300 that later awoke. Although larger numbers of patients need to be investigated for further confirmation, the presence of a P300 in the aforementioned studies indicates the existence of at least rudimentary processing of stimuli occurring in those patients that may be related to an element of functional integrity of the central nervous system.

However, the absence of P300 does not preclude a good prognosis. Some nontraumatic comatose patients who failed to show P300 activity, emerged later from coma. 78 Also, the finding that not all fully alert, cooperative individuals (83%) exhibit a discernible P300 with the oddball paradigm⁷⁹ indicates that this approach is clearly inadequate to meet the needs of clinical evaluation of coma patients. In order to improve the likelihood of evoking the P300 in coma, some researchers have used a salient stimulus (the patient's name)^{128,129} or a conditioned stimulus (e.g., emotional content particular to the patient¹³⁰ or speech sounds like "mommy" as rare stimuli vs tone as standard stimuli as illustrated in Figure 3¹³¹). The use of such stimuli increased the percentage of patients who exhibited P300 activity during coma and subsequently emerged. This demonstrates the presence of certain complex cognitive functions in those patients during coma, a result of some clinical significance for assessment and possibly for prognosis.

P300 recordings to "salient" stimuli may extend the battery of neurophysiological tests currently available for examining the functional integrity of the CNS system and, possibly, the capacity for cognition in comatose patients. In addition, P300 latency was found to be abnormal after traumatic head injury both in the acute¹²⁴ and subacute stages.^{132,133} The persistent

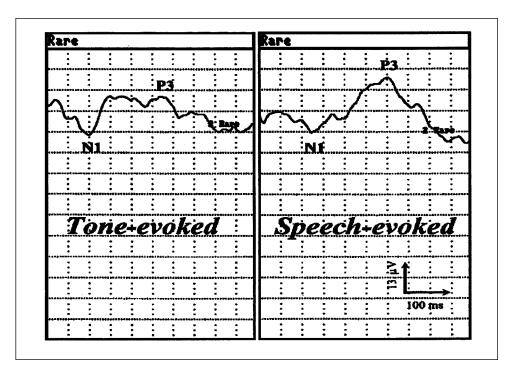


Figure 3: Normal P300 responses to rare tone (left column) and speech sound (right column) in a passive oddball paradigm. In the left column, P300 waveforms were evoked by a 500-Hz tone that was randomly presented with a probability of 20%. The frequent stimulus was a 1000-Hz tone. Both tones were set at 70 dB sound pressure level (SPL). In the right column, the waveform was elicited by the word "mommy" intermixed with a 1000-Hz frequent tone. The word "mommy" was spoken by a female speaker. The ratio of tonal and speech stimuli was 4:1. The stimuli were presented at a level of 70 dB level. Waveforms were recorded at Cz and referred to linked mastoids. As seen, the amplitude of the P300 is sensitive to the stimulus type: the rare speech sound seemed to produce a larger P300 than the rare tone sound (adapted from Lew HL, Price R, Slimp J, Massagli T, Robinson L. Comparision of speech v tone-evoked P300 response: implications for predicting outcomes in brain injury. Am J Phys Med Rehab 1999; 78(4): 367-374. 131 Reprinted with permission from Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins.).

occurrence of abnormal P300 latency does not predict cognitive impairment accurately. Olbrich et al¹³⁴ found that delayed P300 latency on the initial testing was correlated with clinical evaluation scores, but on the later retesting, the P300 latency remained delayed while the clinical scores had moved to the normal range and the patients had emerged from coma.

MISMATCH NEGATIVITY (MMN)

There can be no assumption of the capacity for vigilance in patients with impaired consciousness. The P300 component is dependent on some level of vigilance in an individual. For this reason, clinical research has sought earlier ERP activity that does not demand patient awareness or vigilance yet is dependent upon the functional integrity of higher level perceptual systems. The mismatch negativity (MMN) is the earliest and most robust ERPcomponent that reflects detection of a "deviant" stimulus in homogeneous series of repetitive "standard" sounds. 135 It is a negative-going component peaking at 100-250 ms from the onset of a deviant stimulus. The MMN was first elicited by a discriminable acoustic change in a sequence of "standard" stimuli. 136 Subsequent studies have further demonstrated that the MMN is responsive to any infrequent perceptible physical change in an auditory stimulus. To illustrate, the MMN can be reliably evoked by tonal changes in frequency, duration, or intensity.¹³⁷ An example of the MMN in response to a tonal frequency change is depicted in Figure 4. A variety of evidence suggests that the principal neural generators of MMN lie in and around primary auditory cortex as well as associated frontal regions. ¹³⁸⁻¹⁴⁰ Another feature of this response that is particularly relevant in the present context is that the MMN can be evoked in the absence of voluntarily directed attention, which has led to its being described as pre-attentive in nature. As it can be reliably elicited without any requirement of voluntary attention on the part of the subject or patient, the MMN has been seen as a promising tool in attempts to determine perceptual capabilities of the comatose patient. ¹⁴¹

Reuter and Linke¹²³ first recorded the MMN in a patient who later emerged from coma. Subsequent studies have demonstrated that the occurrence of the MMN indicates a positive prognosis for emergence from coma. For instance, using a serial recording of MMN, Kane et al¹⁴² found that four head injured patients who exhibited MMN all emerged from coma within 48 hours after detection of the MMN. Their follow-up study¹⁴³ reinforced this finding by demonstrating specificity (100%) and sensitivity (89.7%) of the presence of the MMN in predicting awakening from coma. With a single, one-time measure of MMN, a high specificity (90.9%), in spite of a low sensitivity (31.6%), for the presence of MMN was reported in predicting emergence from coma.¹¹⁴ The different results for the sensitivity of MMN as a prognostic of awakening among the aforementioned studies may have been due to the cause of coma: posttraumatic comatose

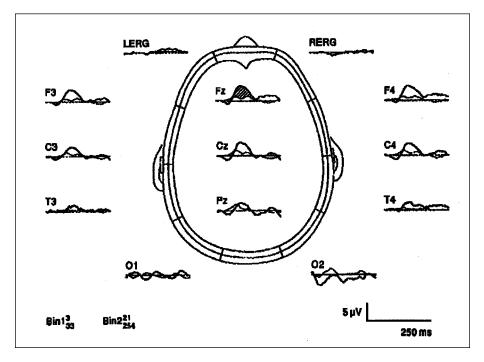


Figure 4: Normal MMN recorded in a passive oddball paradigm. Waveforms picked up at 11 scalp recording sites and referred at earlobes. The deviant auditory tone was set at 1600 Hz and presented randomly with a probability of 10% while the standard tone was at 800 Hz. Both stimuli were presented binaurally via earphones by stimulation intensity of 110 dB sound pressure level. The deviant tone evoked a negative, upward waveform (bold line) with respect to the waveform elicited by the standard tone (thin line). The MMN was shaded at the Fz electrode (adapted from Kane NM, Curry SH, Rowlands CA, et al. Event-related potentials – neurophysiological tools for predicting emergence and early outcome from traumatic coma. Intensive Care Med 1996; 22: 39-46. Reprinted with permission from Springer Verlag®).

patients were selected in Kane et al ^{142,143} studies while comatose patients of various etiologies including head injury, temporary cardiac arrest, complications of neurosurgery and encephalitis were chosen in Fischer et al ¹¹⁴ studies. However, given limited available data, the prognostic value of MMN as a function of comatose etiologies remains to be determined. Another possible reason for the different results for the MMN sensitivity may have been differences in experimental design centering on the number and frequency of ERP recordings (e.g., a single recording session versus a series of closely spaced tests). Morlet et al ¹¹⁵ conducted one case study with continuous recording of the MMN. This "dynamic" monitoring of the MMN was found to have greater prognostic significance with improvements in the sensitivity of MMN as a prognostic of coma emergence.

Only a few studies have compared the MMN with BAEP, MLAEP, and auditory N100 (a negative ERPcomponent peaking about 100 ms after stimulus onset) in terms of predicting the outcome of comatose patients. 92,114,115 Based on Fischer et al's 114 and Morlet et al's 115 study, BAEP is superior to the MMN, MLAEP, and the N100 in predicting unfavorable outcome. In turn, the combined results of both MMN and N100 presence are more effective than a normal BAEP in predicting return to consciousness. In Fischer et al's¹¹⁴ study, for instance, the presence of both MMN and N100 was more specific (90.9%; 30 of 33 patients with a MMN regained consciousness) than a normal BAEP (77.5%; 62 of 80 patients), a normal Pa component of MLAEP (83.3%; 15 of 18 patients), or the presence of N100 only (83.3%; 70 of 84 patients) in predicting return to consciousness. The presence of both MMN and N100 is argued as a reliable predictor of awakening. 92,114,115

Although few clinical studies have evaluated the comparative worth of MMN and P300 in coma prognostication, there is a developing view that the MMN may be a better measure than the P300 in predicting coma emergence. This view of the MMN's superiority is based primarily on its lower susceptibility to aging effects and the fact that it reflects functions that are earlier and more 'hard-wired' in the neural sequence of auditory processing – functions that eventually initiate the P300 response. It is clear that the P300 is generated by a network including limbic, multiple cortical and subcortical regions 144-147 that is more complex than the MMN which arises mainly from the temporal auditory cortex. 138,148 In point of fact, two studies on head-injured patients have demonstrated that the occurrence and latency of the MMN was more sensitive than comparable P300 measures, to the effects of brain damage and the progress of recovery. 149,150

However, there is evidence that both of these ERP components have drawbacks in predicting coma outcome. It has been suggested that the absence of either does not reliably indicate a poor outcome and cannot be used as a basis for withdrawing medical treatment. It has been suggested that the combined use of both ERP and short latency EP measures may facilitate the interpretation of each and, in turn, improve the power of electrophysiological measures in predicting coma outcome. It is proposed that this combination of measures can provide a general view of the functional integrity of a patient's brain from the primary sensory input to cognitive processing. In fact, the combination of these measures has been investigated to enhance the sensitivity of these ERP components in predicting poor outcome in coma. ^{114,115,125,149}

Another common limitation of the clinical utility of the MMN and the P300 is the vulnerability of both components to pharmacological agents. For example, dopamine agonists, antagonists and barbiturate drugs significantly influence the latency of P300. ¹⁵¹⁻¹⁵³ The MMN amplitude in normal subjects becomes smaller or even absent as a function of the dosage of alcohol, sedative and barbiturate drugs as measured in serum. ^{115,117,154-156} This effect is sufficiently well-established that in the studies cited above, the MMN and the P300 were recorded in comatose patients only when the administration of sedative and barbiturate drugs was discontinued or remained at a very low dosage. As a consequence, the ERP findings should be carefully interpreted in relation to clinical evaluations and ongoing therapeutics.

THE N400 AND OTHERS

Further refinement on the electrophysiological evaluation of cortical function has been provided by Connolly and colleagues, 157,158 enabling evaluation of otherwise untestable patient populations. A neurotrauma patient, unable to respond behaviourally and presumed to be cognitively incapacitated, was demonstrated to possess semantic comprehension of speech using the N400 (a negative ERP component peaking at ~400 ms post-stimulus onset) that involved a sentence comprehension protocol. This led to his successful rehabilitation and ultimate discharge from hospital. 159 In a second investigation, a group of left hemisphere stroke patients with varying degrees of language impairment were evaluated using an assessment measure (the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test - Revised) administered traditionally and within an ERP protocol. 160 The ERP findings correlated (r = 0.86) with the results obtained with the traditional administration of the test demonstrating, at an unprecedented level, the ability of cognitive ERP to measure cognitive abilities in a fashion virtually identical to traditional methods. This work taken together also demonstrates the ability to measure cognitive function in patient populations who are otherwise impossible or extremely difficult to assess.

CONCLUSIONS

There is a need for reliable indicators for the early favorable and unfavorable prognoses of comatose patients. Clinical evaluation (e.g., GCS), chemical markers and intracranial pressure monitoring are not of adequate reliability for use in coma outcome prediction. Continuous recording of EPs (e.g., BAEP, SSEP, and MLAEP) and EEG together with clinical observations may provide reliable and objective early prognostic determination of unfavorable outcome of nontraumatic coma. For postanoxic coma, in particular, the persistent abolition of BLCR and MLAEP combined with sustained abnormal EEG patterns (e.g., "lumped" EEG findings including suppression, burst-suppression, alphatheta pattern coma and generalized periodic patterns) in the continuous 72 hours of monitoring after coma can be seen as a reliable index in terminating intensive care intervention. This cannot be generalized to all age groups, however; further studies on very young children are needed. For posttraumatic coma, EEG has limited value in predicting poor outcomes. Magnetic resonance imaging scans contribute to the prognostic evaluation of patients with structural brain lesions. When considered with clinical and imaging findings, continuous monitoring of EPs may provide reliable objective early prognostic determination of unfavorable outcome in trauma patients.

Conversely, ERP may help predict favorable outcome from unresponsive states. The presence of P300 and MMN components in continuous recording sessions reflects the functional integrity of higher level information processing and, possibly, the capacity for cognition. These two ERPcomponents can be seen as potentially reliable predictors of not just emergence from coma but the quality of life, i.e., awareness and cognition, upon emergence. However, the full prognostic value of ERP in coma remains to be determined.

Given the variety and complexity of EEG patterns, inter- and intra-rater reliability is limited. A uniform classification system that is less ambiguous is suggested. ¹⁶¹ Few studies have determined the inter- and intra-rater reliability in measuring EP and ERP. Because of their direct and objective nature, measures of BAEP, SSEP, MLAEP, P300, and MMN are believed to be reliably reproducible across raters. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the skill of the electrophysiologist plays a critical role in reliable EPand ERPmeasurements in terms of inter- and intra-rater reproducibility. When accurate electrode positions become uncertain, for example, in patients post-head injury or after neurosurgery, technical mishap would decrease inter-rater reproducibility in assessing EP and ERP.

This work combined with the other techniques discussed in this article makes it a realistic proposal that it will be feasible in the not-too-distant future to evaluate coma patients and offer, not only a prognosis of the likelihood of their emergence from coma, but also the functional capacities with which they will emerge. That being the case, therapeutic intervention with coma patients while they are still comatose may not be entirely unreasonable.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by grants from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (JFC & GBY) and a Killam Fellowship (JTW). The authors gratefully acknowledge the very helpful comments of three anonymous reviewers.

REFERENCES

- Young GB, Ropper AH, Bolton C. Coma and impaired consciousness: a clinical perspective. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1998.
- Kane NM, Butler SR, Simpson T. Coma outcome prediction using event-related potentials: P3 and mismatch negativity. Audio Neurootol 2000; 5:186-191.
- Barlow P, Teasdale G. Predictions of outcome and the management of severe head injuries: the attitudes of neurosurgeons. Neurosurgery 1986; 19: 989-991.
- Dawes RM, Faust D, Meehl RE. Clinical versus actuarial judgement. Science 1989; 243: 1668-1674.
- Kaufmann MA, Buchmann B, Scheidegger D, Gratzl O, Radu EW. Severe head injury: should expected outcome influence resuscitation and first-day decisions? Resuscitation 1992; 23:199-206.
- Murray LS, Teasdale GM, Murray GD, et al. Does prediction of outcome alter patient management? Lancet 1993; 341: 1487-1491.
- Chiappa KH, Hill RA. Evaluation and prognostication in coma. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1998; 106: 149-155.
- 8. Facco E, Behr AU, Munari M, et al. Auditory and somatosensory evoked potentials in coma following spontaneous cerebral hemorrhage: early prognosis and outcome. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1998; 107: 332-338.

- Levy DE, Coronna JJ, Singer BH, et al. Predicting outcome from hypoxic-ischemic coma. JAMA1985; 253: 1420-1426.
- Edgren E, Hedstrand U, Kelsey S, Sutton-Tyrell K, Safar P. Assessment of neurological prognosis in comatose survivors of cardiac arrest. BRCTI Study Group. Lancet 1994; 343: 1055-1059.
- Longstreth WT, Diehr P, Inui TS. Prediction of awakening after out-of-hospital cardiac arrest. N Eng J Med 1983; 308: 1378-1382
- Hunt WE, Hess RM. Surgical risk as related to time of intervention in the repair of intracranial aneurysms. J Neurosurg 1968;28:14-20.
- Drake CG, Hunt WE, Sano K, et al. Report of World Federation of Neurological Surgeons committee universal subarachnoid haemorrhage grading scale. J Neurosurg 1988; 68:985-986.
- Gerber CJ, Lang DA, Neil-Dwyer G, et al. A simple scoring system for accurate prediction of outcome within four days of a subarachnoid hemorrhage. Acta Neurochir 1993; 122:11-22.
- Barnes MP. Outcome of head injury. Curr Opin Neurol Neurosurg 1991; 4: 12-16.
- Bates D. Coma and brain death. Curr Opin Neurol Neurosurg 1991; 4: 17-20.
- Goldberg G, Karazim E. Application of evoked potentials to the prediction of discharge status in minimally responsive patients: a pilot study. J Head Trauma Rehab 1998; 13(1): 51-68.
- Rothstein TL. The role of evoked potentials in anoxic-ischemic coma and severe brain trauma. J Clin Neurophysiol 2000; 17(5): 486-497.
- Alster J, Pratt H, Feinsod M. Density spectral array, evoked potentials, and temperature rhythms in the evaluation and prognosis of the comatose patient. Brain Inj 1993; 7(3): 191-208.
- Mullie A, Verstringe P, Buylaert W, et al. Predictive value of Glasgow coma score for awakening after out-of-hospital cardiac arrest. Cerebral Resuscitation Study Group for the Belgian Society of Intensive Care. Lancet 1988; 23: 137-140.
- Ono JI, Yamaaura A, Kubota M, Okimura Y, Isobe K. Outcome prediction in severe head injury: analyses of clinical prognostic factors. J Clin Neurosci 2001; 8: 120-123.
- Lindsay K, Teasdale G, Knill-Jones R. Observer variability in assessing the clinical features of subarachnoid hemorrhage. J Neurosurg 1983; 58: 57-62.
- Rowley G, Fielding K. Reliability and accuracy of the Glasgow Coma Scale with experienced and inexperienced users. Lancet 1991; 337: 537-538.
- Jorgenson EO, Holm S. The natural course of neurological recovery following cardiopulmonary resuscitation. Resuscitation 1998; 36: 111-122.
- Synek VM. Prognostically useful coma patterns in diffuse anoxic and traumatic encephalopathies in adults. J Clin Neurophysiol 1988; 5: 161-174.
- 26. Jennett B, Teasdale G, Braakman R, et al. Prognosis of patients with severe head injury. Neurosurgery 1979; 4:283-288.
- Goodwin SR, Friedman WA, Bellefleur M. Is it time to use evoked potentials to predict outcome in comatose children and adults. Crit Care Med 1991; 19(4):518-524.
- Butinar D, Gostisa A. Brainstem auditory evoked potentials and somatosensory evoked potentials in prediction of post-traumatic coma in children. Pflugers Arch 1996; 431(Suppl): R289-R290.
- Simpson DA, Cockington DA, Hanieh A, et al. Head injuries in infants and young children: the value of the paediatric coma scale. Childs Nerv Syst 1991; 7: 183-190.
- Marshall LF, Toole BM, Bowers SA. The national traumatic coma data bank, part 2. Patients who talk and deteriorate: implications of treatment. J Neurosurg 1983; 59: 285.
- Vapalahti M, Luukkonen M, Puranen M, et al. Early clinical signs and prognosis in children with brain injuries. Ann Clin Res 1986; 18 (Suppl 47): 37.
- Esparza J, M-Portillo J, Sarabia M, et al. Outcome in children with severe head injuries. Childs Nerv Syst 1985; 1: 109.
- Marshall LF, Smith RW, Shapiro HM. The outcome with aggressive treatment in severe head injuries, part 2: accurate and chronic barbiturate administration in the management of head injury. J Neurosurg 1979; 50: 26.

- Miller JD, Becker DP, Ward JD, et al. Significance of intracranial hypertension in severe head injury. J Neurosurg 1977; 47: 503.
- Edgren E, Terent A, Hedstrand U, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid markers in relation to outcome in patients with global cerebral ischemia. Crit Care Med 1983; 11:4.
- Enevoldsen EM, Cold G, Jensen FT, et al. Dynamic changes in regional CBF, intraventricular pressure, CSF pH and lactate levels during the acute phase of head injury. J Neurosurg 1977; 47: 503.
- Hamill RW, Woolf PD, McDonald JV, et al. Catecholamines predict outcome in traumatic brain injury. Ann Neurol 1987; 21:438
- Noseworthy TW, Anderson BJ, Noseworthy AF, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid myelin basic protein as a prognostic marker in patients with head injury. Crit Care Med 1985; 13: 743.
- Zandbergen EGJ, de Haan RJ, Hijdra A. Systematic review of prediction of poor outcome in anoxic-ischemic coma with biochemical markers of brain damage. Intensive Care Med 2001; 27:1661-1667.
- Wijdicks EFM, Campeau NGM, Miller GM. MR imaging in comatose survivors of cardiac resuscitation. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 2001; 22: 1561-1565
- Wedekind C, Fischbach R, Pakos P, Terhaag D, Klug N. Comparative use of magnetic resonance imaging and electrophysiologic investigation for the prognosis of head injury. J Trauma 1999; 47(1):44-49.
- Firsching R, Woischneck S, Reissberg S, Dohring W, Peters B. Classification of severe head injury based on magnetic resonance imaging. Acta Neurochir (Wien) 2001; 143:263-271.
- Arbelaez A, Castillo M, Muktierji SK. Diffusion-weighted MR imaging of global ischemic cerebral anoxia. AJNR Am J Neuroradiol 1999; 20: 999-1007.
- Friedman SD, Brooks WM, Jung RE, et al. Quantitative proton MRS predicts outcome after traumatic brain injury. Neurology 1999; 52(7): 1384-1391.
- 45. Garnett MR, Blamire AM, Rajagopalan B, Styles P, Cadoux-Hudson TA. Evidence for cellular damage in normal-appearing white matter correlates with injury severity in patients following traumatic brain injury: a magnetic resonance spectroscopy study. Brain 2000; 123: 1403-1409.
- Dow RS, Ulett, G, Raaf J Electroencephalographic studies immediately following head injury. Am J Psychiatry 1944; 101: 174-183
- Dawson RE, Webster JE, Gurdjian ES. Serial electroencephalography in acute head injuries. J Neurosurg 1951; 8: 613-630.
- Kane NM, Moss TH, Curry SH, et al. Quantitative electroencephalographic evaluation of non-fatal and fatal traumatic coma. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1998; 106: 244-250.
- Young GB. The EEG in coma. J Clin Neurophysiol 2000; 17: 473-485.
- Kinoro T. Delayed neuronal death in the gerbil hippocampus following ischemia. Brain Res 1982; 239: 57-69.
- Young GB, Bolton CF, Austin TW, Archibald Y, Wells GA. The electroencephalogram in sepsis-associated encephalopathy. J Clin Neurophysiology 1992; 9: 145-152.
- 52. Young B, Doig G, Ragazzoni A. Anoxic-ischemic encephalopathy: clinical and electrophysiological associations with outcome. Neurocritical Care, in press.
- Prior PF. The EEG in Cerebral Anoxia. Amsterdam: Excerpta Medica, 1973; 244-254.
- Binnie CD, Prior PF. Electroencephalography. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1994; 57: 1308-1318.
- Vespa PM, Nuwer MR, Nenov V, et al. Increased incidence and impact of nonconvulsive and convulsive seizures after traumatic brain injury as detected by continuous EEG monitoring. J Neurosurg 1999; 91: 1-19.
- Chiappa KH. Evoked potentials in clinical medicine, 3rd ed. Lippincoff-Raven, New York. 1997.
- Hume AL, Cant BR, Shaw NA. Central somatosensory conduction time in comatose patients. Ann Neurol 1979; 5:379-384.
- 58. Litscher G, Schwartz G, Kleinert R. Brainstem auditory evoked

- potential monitoring. Variations of stimulus artifact in brain death. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1995; 96: 413-419.
- Rumpl E, Prugger M, Battista HJ, et al. Short latency somatosensory evoked potentials and brainstem auditory evoked potentials in coma due to CNS depressant drug poisoning: preliminary observations. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1988; 70: 482-489.
- Rumpl E, Prugger M, Gerstenbrand F, et al. Central somatosensory conduction time and acoustic brainstem transmission time in post-traumatic coma. J Clin Neurophysiol 1988; 5: 237-260.
- 61. Starr A, Achor LJ. Auditory brainstem responses in neurological disease. Arch Neurol 1975; 32: 761-768.
- Merton PA, Morton HB. Stimulation of the cerebral cortex in the intact subject. Nature 1980; 285: 227.
- Abbruzzese G, Marchese R, Trompetto C. Sensory and motor evoked potentials in multiple system atrophy: a comparative study with Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 1997; 12: 315-321.
- Barker AT, Freeston IL, Jalinous R, et al. Magnetic stimulation of the human brain and peripheral nervous system: an introduction and the results of an initial clinical evaluation. Neurosurgery 1987; 20: 100-109.
- Millers KR, Murray NMF. Corticospinal tract conduction time in multiple sclerosis. Ann Neurol 1985; 18: 601-605.
- 66. Salerno A, Carlander B, Camu W, et al. Motor evoked potentials (MEPs): evaluation of the different types of responses in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and primary lateral sclerosis. Electromyogr Clin Neurophysiol 1996; 36: 361-368.
- Firsching R, Wilhelms S, Hilgers RD. Pyramidal tract lesions in comatose patients. Acta Neurochir (Wien) 1991; 112: 106-109.
- Kaneko M. Prognostic evaluation of patients with severe head injury by motor evoked potentials induced by transcranial magnetic stimulation-combined analysis with brainstem auditory evoked potentials. No To Shinkei 1995; 47: 491-496.
- Rohde V, Zentner J. Prognostic value of motor evoked potentials in traumatic and nontraumatic coma. Adv Neurosurg 1991; 19: 194-200.
- Taniguchi M, Schramm J. Motor evoked potentials facilitated by an additional peripheral nerve stimulation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1991; 43: 202-211.
- Facco E, Baratto F, Munari M, et al. Sensorimotor central conduction time in comatose patients. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1991; 80: 469-476.
- Zentner J, Rhode V. The prognostic value of somatosensory and motor evoked potentials in comatose patients. Neurosurgery 1992; 31: 429-434.
- Ying Z, Schmid UD, Schmid J, Hess CW. Motor and somatosensory evoked potentials in coma: analysis and relation to clinical status and outcome. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1992; 55: 470-474.
- Rohde V, Irle S, Hassler WE. Prediction of the post-comatose motor function by motor evoked potentials obtained in the acute phase of traumatic and non-traumatic coma. Acta Neurochir (Wien) 1999; 141: 841-848.
- Hu CJ, Chan KY, Lin TJ, et al. Traumatic brainstem deafness with normal brainstem auditory evoked potentials. Neurology 1997; 48:1448-1451.
- Harslem R, Riffel B, Trost E, et al. Evaluation of peak VI and VII
 of brainstem auditory evoked potentials (BAEPs) in severe head
 injury. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1987; 66: 64.
- Scherg M, Von Cramon D. A new interpretation of the generators of BAEP waves I-V. Results of a spatio-temporal dipole model. EEG Clin Neurophysiol 1985; 62: 277-289.
- Balogh A, Wedekind C, Klug N. Does wave VI of BAEP pertain to the prognosis of coma? Neurophysiol Clin 2001; 31: 406-411.
- Seales DM, Rossiter VS, Weinstein ME. Brainstem auditory evoked responses in patients comatose as a result of blunt head trauma. J Trauma 1979; 19: 347-352.
- Tsubokawa T, Nishimoto H, Yamamoto T, et al. Assessment of brainstem damage by the auditory brainstem responses in acute severe head injury. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1980;43: 1005-1011.
- 81. Goldie WD, Chiappa KH, Young RR, et al. Brainstem auditory and

- short-latency somatosensory evoked responses in brain death. Neurology 1981; 31: 248-256.
- Greenberg RP, Newlon PG, Hyatt MS, et al. Prognostic implications of early multimodality evoked potentials in severe head injury. A prospective study. J Neurosurg 1981; 55: 227-236.
- Lindsay KW, Carlin J, Kennedy I, et al. Evoked potentials in severe head injury—analysis and relation to outcome. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1981; 44: 796-802.
- Soustiel JF, Hafner H, Guilburd JN, et al. A physiological coma scale: grading of coma by combined use of brainstem trigeminal and auditory evoked potentials and the Glasgow Coma Scale. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1993; 87(5): 277-283.
- Anderson DC, Bundle S, Rockswold GL. Multimodality evoked potentials in closed head trauma. Arch Neurol 1984; 41: 369-374.
- Cant BR, Hume AL, Judson JA, et al. The assessment of severe head injury by short latency somatosensory and brainstem auditory evoked potentials. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1986; 65: 188-195.
- Karnaze DS, Weiner JM, Marshall LF. Auditory evoked potentials in coma after closed head injury: a clinical-neurophysiologic coma scale for predicting outcome. Neurology 1985; 35: 1122-1126.
- Lindsay KW, Pasaoglu A, Hirst D, et al. Somatosensory and auditory brainstem conduction after head injury: a comparison with clinical features in prediction of outcome. Neurosurgery 1990; 26(2): 278-285.
- Facco E, Martini A, Zuccarello M, et al. Is the auditory brainstem response (ABR) effective in the assessment of post-traumatic coma? Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1985; 62:332-337.
- Haupt WF, Hojer C, Pawlik G. Prognostic value of evoked potentials and clinical grading in primary subarachnoid haemorrhage. Acta Neurochir (Wien), 1995; 137: 146-150.
- Garcia-Larrea L, Artru F, Bertrand O, et al. The combined monitoring of brainstem auditory evoked potentials and intracranial pressure in coma. A study of 57 patients. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1992; 55: 792-798.
- Fischer C, Morlet D, Giard MH. Mismatch nagativity and N100 in comatose patients. Audiol Neurootol 2000; 5: 192-197.
- Facco E, Giron GP. Multimodality evoked potentials in coma and brain death. Minerva Anestesiol 1994; 60: 595-599.
- Schwarz S, Schwab S, Aschoff A, et al. Favorable recovery from bilateral loss of somatosensory evoked potentials. Crit Care Med 1999; 27 (1): 182-187.
- Rumpl E, Prugger M, Gerstenbrand F, et al. Central somatosensory conduction time and short latency somatosensory evoked potentials in post-traumatic coma. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1983; 56: 583-596.
- Walser H, Mattle H, Keller HM, et al. Early cortical median nerve somatosensory evoked potentials. Prognostic value in anoxic coma. Arch Neurol 1985; 42: 32-38.
- Brunko E, Zegers De Beyl D. Prognostic value of early cortical somatosensory evoked potentials after resuscitation from cardiac arrest. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1987; 66(1): 15-24.
- Rothstein TL, Thomas EM, Sumi SM. Predicting outcome in hypoxic-ischemic coma. A prospective clinical and electrophysiologic study. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1991; 79(2): 101-107.
- Berek K, Lechleitner P, Luef G, et al. Early determination of neurological outcome after prehospital cardiopulmonary resuscitation. Stroke 1995; 26: 543-549.
- Sherman AL, Tirschwell DL, Micklesen PJ, Longstreth WT Jr, Robinson LR. Somatosensory potentials, CSF creatine kinase BB activity, and awakening after cardiac arrest. Neurology 2000; 54: 889-894.
- 101. Madl C, Kramer L, Domanovits H, et al. Improved outcome prediction in unconscious cardiac arrest survivors with sensory evoked potentials compared with clinical assessment. Crit Care Med 2000; 28: 721-726.
- Logi F, Fischer C, Murri L, Mauguiere F. The prognostic value of evoked responses from primary somatosensory and auditory cortex in comatose patients. Clin Neurophysiol 2003; 114: 1615-1627.
- 103. Pohlmann-Eden B, Dingethal K, Bender HJ, et al. How reliable is

- the predictive value of SEP (somatosensory evoked potentials) patterns in severe brain damage with special regard to the bilateral loss of cortical responses? Intensive Care Med 1997; 23: 301-318.
- 104. Sleigh JW, Havill JH, Frith R, et al. Somatosensory evoked potentials in severe traumatic brain injury: a blinded study. J Neurosurg 1999; 91: 577-580.
- Zandbergen EG, de Haan RJ, Stoutenbeek CP, Koelman JH, Hijdra
 A. Systematic review of early prediction of poor outcome in anoxic-ischemic coma. Lancet 1998; 352: 1808-1812.
- 106. Wohlrab G, Boltshauser E, Schmitt B. Neurological outcome in comatose children with bilateral loss of cortical somatosensory evoked potentials. Neuropediatrics 2001; 32: 271-274.
- Zandbergen EG, de Haan RJ, Koelman JH, Hijdra A. Prediction of poor outcome in anoxic-ischemic coma. J Clin Neurophysiol 2000;17(5): 498-501.
- McPherson RW, Sell B, Traystman RJ. Effects of thiopental, fentanyl, and etomidate on upper extremity somatosensory evoked potentials in humans. Anesthesiology 1986; 65: 584-589.
- Newlon PG, Greenberg RP, Enas GG, et al. Effects of therapeutic coma on multimodality evoked potentials recorded from severely head-injured patients. Neurosurgery 1983; 12: 613-619.
- Sutton LN, Frewen T, Marsch R, et al. The effects of deep barbiturate coma on multimodality evoked potentials. J Neurosurg 1982; 57: 178-185.
- Gutling E, Gonser A, Regard M, et al. Dissociation of frontal and parietal components of somatosensory evoked potentials in severe head injury. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1993; 88: 369-376.
- 112. Chatrian GE, Bergamasco B, Bricolo A, et al. IFCN recommended standards for electrophysiologic monitoring in comatose and other unresponsive states: report of an IFCN committee. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1996; 99: 103-122.
- Yvert B, Crouzeix A, Bertrand O, Seither-Preisler S, Pantev C. Multiple supratemporal sources of magnetic and electric auditory evoked middle latency components in humans. Cerebral Cortex 2001; 11: 411-423.
- 114. Fischer C, Morlet D, Bouchet P, et al. Mismatch negativity and late auditory evoked potentials in comatose patients. Clin Neurophysiol 1999; 110: 1601-1610.
- Morlet D, Bouchet P, Fischer C. Mismatch negativity and N100 monitoring: potential clinical value and methodological advances. Audiol Neurootol 2000; 5: 198-206.
- Litscher G. Middle latency auditory evoked potentials in intensive care patients and normal controls. Int J Neurosci 1995; 83: 253-267.
- Morlet D, Bertrand O, Salord F, et al. Dynamics of MLAEP changes in midazolam-induced sedation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1997; 104: 437-446.
- Polich J, Kok A. Cognitive and biological determinants of P300: an integrative review. Biol Psychol 1995; 41(2): 103-146.
- Goodin DS, Starr A, Chippendale T, et al. Sequential changes in the P3 component of the auditory evoked potential in confusional states and dementing illnesses. Neurology 1983; 33: 1215-1218.
- Pfefferbaum A, Wenegrat BG, Ford JM, et al. Clinical application of the P3 component of event-related potentials, II: dementia, depression and schizophrenia. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1984; 59: 104-124.
- Polich J, Ehlers CL, Otis S, et al. P300 latency reflects the degree of cognitive decline in dementing illness. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1986; 63: 138-144.
- 122. Pratap-Chand R, Sinniah M, Salem FA. Cognitive evoked potential (P300) a metric for cerebral concussion. Acta Neurol Scand 1988; 78: 185-189.
- 123. Reuter BM, Linke DB. P300 and coma. In: Maurer K, Ed. Topographic brain mapping of EEG and evoked potentials. Berlin; New York: Springer-Verlag, 1989.
- Yingling CD, Hosobuchi Y, Harrington M. P300 as a predictor of recovery from coma. Lancet 1990; 336: 873.
- 125. De Giorgio CM, Rabinowicz AL, Gott PS. Predictive value of P300 event-related potentials compared with EEG and somatosensory evoked potentials in nontraumatic coma. Acta Neurol Scand 1993; 87: 423-427.

- Gott PS, Rabinowicz AL, DeGiorgio CM. P300 auditory eventrelated potentials in nontraumatic coma. Arch Neurol 1991; 48: 1267-1270
- O'Mahony D, Rowan M, Walsh JB, et al. P300 as a predictor of recovery from coma. Lancet 1990; 336: 1265-1266.
- Prevec TS, Saltuari L, Masala C. Mental functions in apallic patients after traumatic cerebral lesions. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1993; 87: S130.
- Mazzini L, Zaccala M, Gareri F, et al. Long-latency auditoryevoked potentials in severe traumatic brain injury. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2001; 82:57-65.
- 130. Signorino M, D'Acunto S, Angeleri F, et al. Eliciting P300 in comatose patients. Lancet 1995; 345: 255-256.
- Lew HL, Price R, Slimp J, Massagli T, Robinson L. Comparision of speech v tone-evoked P300 response: implications for predicting outcomes in brain injury. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 1999; 78(4): 367-374.
- 132. Curry SH, Woods DL, Low MD. Applications of cognitive ERPs in neurosurgical and neurological patients. In: McCallum WC, Zappoli R, Denoth F (Eds). Cerebral psychophysiology: studies in event-related potentials. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol (Suppl) 1986; 38: 469-484.
- Rappaport M, McCandless KL, Pond W, et al. Passive P300 response in traumatic brain injury patients. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci 1991; 3: 180-185.
- 134. Olbrich HM, Nau HE, Lodemann E, et al. Evoked potential assessment of mental function during recovery from severe head injury. Surg Neurol 1986; 26: 112-118.
- Mecklinger A, Opitz B, Friederici AD. Semantic aspects of novelty detection in humans. Neurosci Lett 1997; 235: 65-68.
- Näätänen R, Gaillard AWK, Mantysalo S. Early selective-attention effect reinterpreted. Acta Psychol 1978; 42: 313-329.
- Schröger, E. On the detection of auditory deviations: a preattentive activation model. Psychophysiology 1997; 34: 245-257.
- Kropotov JD, Alho K, Näätänen R, et al. Human auditory-cortex mechanisms of pre-attentive sound discrimination. Neurosci Lett 2000; 280: 87-90.
- Opitz B, Mecklinger A, Von Cramon DY, Kruggel F. Combining electrophysiological and hemodynamic measures of the auditory oddball. Psychophysiology 1999; 36: 142-147.
- Deouell LY, Bentin S, Giard MH. Mismatch negativity in dichotic listening: evidence for interhemispheric differences and multiple generators. Psychophysiology 1998; 35: 355-365.
- Näätänen R. Mismatch negativity (MMN): perspectives for application. Int J Psychophysiol 2000; 37: 3-10.
- 142. Kane NM, Curry SH, Butler SR, et al. Electrophysiological indicator of awakening from coma. Lancet 1993; 341: 688.
- 143. Kane NM, Curry SH, Rowlands CA, et al. Event-related potentials – neurophysiological tools for predicting emergence and early outcome from traumatic coma. Intensive Care Med 1996; 22:39-46.
- 144. Alho K, Winkler I, Escera C, et al. Processing of novel sounds and frequency changes in the human auditory cortex: magnetoencephalographic recordings. Psychophysiology 1998; 35: 211-224

- 145. Knight RT. Contribution of human hippocampal region to novelty detection. Nature 1996; 383: 256-259.
- 146. Mecklinger A, Maess B, Opitz B, et al. A MEG analysis of the P300 in visual discrimination task. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1998; 108: 45-56.
- Baudena P, Halgren E, Heit G, Clarke JM. Intracerebral potentials to rare target and distractor auditory and visual stimuli: 3. Frontal cortex. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1995; 94: 251-264.
- 148. Näätänen R. Attention and Brain Function. Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, 1992
- Clark CR, O'Hanlon AP, Wright MJ, et al. Event-related potential measurement of deficits in information processing following moderate to severe closed head injury. Brain Inj 1992; 6: 509-520
- 150. Rugg MD, Cowan CP, Nagy ME, et al. Event-related potentials from closed head injury patients in an auditory "oddball" task: evidence of dysfunction in stimulus categorisation. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1988; 51: 691-698.
- Fowler B, Mitchell I. Biological determinants of p300: the effects of barbiturate on latency and amplitude. Biol Psychol 1997; 46: 113-124.
- 152. Nishimura N, Ogura C, Ohta I. Effects of the dopamine-related drug bromocriptine on event-related potentials and its relation to the law of initial value. Psychiatr Clin Neurosci 1995; 49: 79-86.
- 153. Takeshita S, Ogura C. Effect of the dopamine D2 antagonist sulpiride on event-related potentials and its relation to the law of initial value. Int J Psychophysiol 1994; 16: 99-106.
- Born J, Fehm-Wolfdorf G, Lutzenberger W, et al. Vasopressin and electrophysiological signs of attention in man. Peptides 1986; 7: 189-193.
- 155. Born J, Bruninger W, Fehm-Wolfdorf G, et al. Dose-dependent influences on electrophysiological signs of attention in humans after neuropeptide ACTH 4-10. Exp Brain Res 1987; 67: 85-92.
- 156. Jaaskelainen IP, Lehtokoski A, Alho K, et al. Low dose of ethanol suppresses mismatch negativity of auditory event-related potentials. Alcohol Clin Exp Res 1995; 19: 607-610.
- 157. Connolly JF, D'Arcy RCN, Newman RL, Kemps R. The application of cognitive event-related brain potentials (ERPs) in language-impaired individuals: review and case studies. Int J Psychophysiol 2000; 38: 55-70.
- Connolly JF, D'Arcy RCN. Innovations in neuropsychological assessment using event-related brain potentials. Int J Psychophysiol 2000; 37: 31-47.
- Connolly JF, Mate-Kole CC, Joyce BM. Global aphasia: an innovative assessment approach. Arch Phys Med Rehab 1999; 80: 1309-1315.
- 160. D'Arcy RCN, Marchand Y, Eskes G, et al. Evoked potential assessment of language function following stroke. Clin Neurophysiol 2003; 114: 662 – 672.
- Young GB, McLachlan RS, Kreeft JH, Demelo JD. An electroencephalographic classification for coma. Can J Neurol Sci 1997; 24: 320-325.