THE LANCET **Respiratory Medicine**

Supplementary appendix

This appendix formed part of the original submission and has been peer reviewed. We post it as supplied by the authors.

Supplement to: Levin M, Cunnington AJ, Wilson C, et al. Effects of saline or albumin fluid bolus in resuscitation: evidence from re-analysis of the FEAST trial. *Lancet Respir Med* 2019; published online June 10. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(19)30114-6.

Web appendix: Adverse effects of saline or albumin fluid bolus in resuscitation: Evidence from re-analysis of the FEAST trial

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Detailed methods

Relationship to the FEAST trial and analysis plan

The present study was not planned as a pre-specified analysis of the FEAST trial. The present study represents a hypothesis-based reanalysis of the trial data. The primary hypothesis was that bolus fluids produce measurable changes in cardiovascular function, respiratory function, raised intracranial pressure or neurological function, oxygen carrying capacity, biochemical and acid-base status. The secondary hypothesis was that if these changes are detectable, they can explain the excess mortality associated with bolus fluid in the FEAST trial. To evaluate both of these hypotheses, multiple analyses (detailed below) were performed in order to justify the methodological approaches for detection of the changes in organ system function and to assess whether any effects attributed to bolus were consistent with expected relationships with the volume of bolus-fluids received, known mechanisms of acid-base derangement, and between subgroups of patients.

Assessment of changes in physiology and blood parameters

FEAST collected data on respiratory rate, pulse rate, blood pressure, capillary refill time and level of consciousness sequentially throughout the trial at baseline, $1, 4, 8, 24$ and 48 hours¹. Haemoglobin and lactate concentrations were measured at baseline, 8 and 24 hours. ¹ Plasma chemistry and acid-base balance were measured at baseline and 24 hours.¹

Our first challenge in attempting to establish the mechanisms by which fluid increased mortality in FEAST was to identify a methodology for detecting changes in each organ system in bolus recipients using the data available from the trial.

There are currently no "gold standard" methods to quantify respiratory function, neurological function or cardiovascular function in critically ill children based on clinical features, although multiple international guidelines indicate that respiratory rate, pulse rate, blood pressure, capillary refill time and level of consciousness should be used to guide management. We postulated that combinations of these variables would provide objective and quantitative indicators of respiratory, neurological and cardiac function, in a similar manner to which experienced clinicians subconsciously assimilate them each time they assess a seriously ill patient**.** As blood pressure, heart rate, and respiratory rate vary greatly in children of different age, we adjusted for age by calculating the deviation from the age-related mean values for healthy children. Mean values for heart rate and respiratory rate and blood pressure were derived from published tables.^{2, 3}

We note that the intended purpose of each score was to enable comparison of changes in organ function between the bolus and no bolus arms of the randomised controlled trial, and to compare physiological derangement between different studies. Recognising that there is no absolute measure against which to calibrate each score, the weightings of oxygen saturation, coma score and capillary refill time were chosen to reflect the clinical importance of each component of the score. We acknowledge that different weightings might enable better prediction of outcome in individual studies, however our aim was to develop an objective tool for comparison between arms and studies, and not to develop a new predictor of outcome.

Heart rate and blood pressure deviations from the age-related means were considered to have different implications for cardiovascular and neurological status, since low blood pressure and high heart rate are features of circulatory failure whilst rising blood pressure and falling heart rate are features of raised intracranial pressure. Thus only physiologically adverse deviations contributed to each score, and otherwise the difference was set to zero as explained for each score below.

Developing a composite measure for cardiovascular function

Measurement of cardiac function is routinely undertaken using echocardiography or thermodilution catheter in an intensive care setting. However these methods were not available in FEAST. Furthermore, shock is defined as a life-threatening, generalized form of acute circulatory failure associated with inadequate oxygen utilization by the cells; a state in which the circulation is unable to deliver sufficient oxygen to meet the demands of the tissues resulting in cellular dysfunction.⁴ Therefore it is not solely defined by or dependent on cardiac output. Remarkably neither adult nor paediatric guidelines for clinical recognition of shock have an objective quantification of the severity of shock (see table below). In some guidance more severe cases are recognized by being refractory to fluid volume expansion⁵ thus defining severity by the very intervention shown to be associated with increased mortality in FEAST. Clinical recognition of shock is based not only on markers of cardiac output (such as heart rate and blood pressure) but on evidence of impaired perfusion of tissues and organs, such as change in mentation,

oliguria or rising blood lactate.^{4, 5} Furthermore FEAST included a large proportion of patients with presumed cerebral malaria and meningitis^{1, 6} so changes in mentation may not only be caused by impaired cardiovascular function or perfusion but by the underlying disease process. Furthermore, changes in urine output were not recorded as this is difficult without indwelling catheters. Lactate, which is the most commonly used marker of tissue under perfusion in most shock algorithms, was also found to be unreliable in the African setting because we found it was closely correlated with the level of haemoglobin and thus more a reflection of anaemia than cardiovascular perfusion.

Guideline	Criteria for chincar recognition of shock (modified from Frousion et al.) Clinical criteria Age group			
Advanced Paediatric Life Support $(APLS)^8$	Compensated: normal blood pressure (BP), but capillary refill time (CRT) >2 s, mottled peripheries, peripheral cyanosis Decompensated: as above but with hypotension, decreased mental status			
American Academy of Critical Care Medicine - Paediatric Advanced Life Support (ACCM-PALS) ⁹	Septic shock: Suspected infection (hypo- or hyperthermia) and clinical signs of inadequate perfusion including any of: decreased or altered mental status; $CRT > 2$ s (cold shock) or flash CRT (warm shock), diminished (cold shock) or bounding (warm shock) peripheral pulses, mottled cool extremities (cold shock), or decreased urine output $(\leq 1 \text{ ml/kg/hr})$			
World Health Organization (WHO) ¹⁰	Shock: cold hands, capillary refill time longer than 3 s, high heart rate with weak pulse, and low or unmeasurable blood pressure			
Fluid Expansion As A Supportive Therapy (FEAST) study ¹	History of fever and temperature \geq 37.5 °C or <36.0 °C and impaired consciousness (prostration or coma) and/or respiratory distress Stratum A (impaired perfusion) Plus ≥ 1 of: CRT ≥ 2 s; lower limb temperature gradient; weak pulse; tachycardia (defined) Stratum B (decompensated shock): Systolic BP \leq 50 mmHg if \leq 12 months old; \leq 60 mmHg if $1-5$ years old; <70 mmHg if > 5 years old	Paediatric		
International pediatric sepsis consensus conference definition ¹¹	Sepsis: SIRS (2 of 4 of: core temp > 38.5 or < 36 °C; tachycardia or bradycardia if <1yr; tachypnea; elevated or depressed leukocyte count) in the presence of or as a result of suspected or proven infection Septic shock: Sepsis and cardiovascular organ dysfunction			
Sepsis 3^{12}	Sepsis: life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection. Organ dysfunction defined as an increase in the SOFA score of 2 points or more Septic shock: Sepsis and both persistent hypotension requiring vasopressors and lactate \geq 2 mmol/L despite adequate volume resuscitation	Adult		
Sepsis 2^{13}	Sepsis: suspected or documented infection with change to some of the following: General variables; inflammatory variables; haemodynamic variables; organ dysfunction variables; tissue perfusion variables. Severe sepsis: sepsis complicated by organ dysfunction Septic shock: persistent arterial hypotension unexplained by other cause	Adult		

Criteria for clinical recognition of shock (modified from Houston et al.⁷)

These clinical indicators of cardiovascular system dysfunction are rarely synthesised into quantitative measures which would allow comparison of organ function between individuals or sequentially over time. The widely used shock-index was devised based on the logical but arbitrary belief that heart rate divided by systolic blood pressure should provide a better indicator of cardiovascular status than either alone,¹⁴ but was not empirically derived based on data. For application to children it has required modifications to account for age-related variation in normal values,¹⁵ and it does not include any measure of perfusion.

We concluded there was no optimal or accepted method for quantifying differences in shock or cardiovascular function between the bolus and no bolus arms of FEAST, and that we needed to develop novel methods that could be used to identify the effect of bolus on shock /cardiovascular function (as well as for each of the other organ systems, described below) using the available data.

We reasoned that an overall assessment of cardiovascular function could be made by combining heart rate and blood pressure with capillary refill time, which is a well-established marker of perfusion, as all three variables were recorded sequentially in FEAST. Heart rate rises while blood pressure falls as shock evolves, so heart rate and blood pressure can be combined as markers of cardiac function by converting them to the same direction of effect. As all vital signs are age related we also adjusted blood pressure and heart rate to detect a rise in heart rate above the mean normal for age and a fall in blood pressure below the mean normal for age. As capillary refill time is typically in the range of 0 to 5 seconds, while heart rate and blood pressure extend over much larger numerical ranges, we weighted capillary refill time so that it could make an approximately equal contribution to an overall score for cardiovascular function.

The conventional method for assigning weightings in predictive scores is to derive the weightings from the associations between the data and the outcome of interest, and then test the assigned weightings on an independent and external data set. However, as we were aiming to characterise the changes in organ system function induced by bolus fluids, rather than aiming to identify the best predictor of outcome (death in the case of FEAST), there was no gold standard outcome against which to evaluate the weightings of each variable. The clinical definitions of shock listed above include a range of variables, but provide no method for quantifying the severity of derangement. We concluded that empiric assignment of weighting for capillary refill time to enable a contribution equivalent to that of blood pressure and pulse rate was appropriate. Further evidence on the utility of the score could be gained by comparison of the composite score between cohorts, and evaluation of the weightings can be achieved in modelling the effect of each variable in survival models (see below). The composite score we used was:

Composite cardiovascular score

Cardiovascular score = (heart rate - mean heart rate for age) + (mean blood pressure for age – blood pressure) + 25(capillary refill time)

If the heart rate was less than the mean heart rate for age, the term (heart rate - mean heart rate for age) was set to zero, so that only increased heart rates contributed to the score. If the blood pressure was greater than the mean blood pressure for age, the term (mean blood pressure for age - blood pressure) was set to zero, so that only decreased blood pressure contributed to the score.

Developing a composite measure for respiratory function

Assessment of respiratory function is often achieved by assessment of the adequacy of oxygenation (comparing the ratio of inspired oxygen to arterial oxygen in ventilated patients) and of carbon dioxide excretion. However, accurate evaluation of respiratory function is more difficult in patients who are not mechanically ventilated as widely differing oxygen concentrations are delivered when using face mask or nasal cannula. Clinical assessment of respiratory function in settings other than intensive care units is generally undertaken by observing the rate of breathing, respiratory effort and the depth of breathing and by pulse oximetry. Depth of breathing and respiratory effort are highly subjective and difficult to quantify but respiratory rate and pulse oximetry are reliably measured and were recorded sequentially during the first 48 hours of the FEAST trial. We reasoned that an overall assessment of respiratory function could be made by combining in a composite score, respiratory rate (which rises as respiratory function is compromised) with oxygen saturation (which declines) by converting them to the same direction of effect**.** As oxygen saturation declines over a more limited range than the changes in respiratory rate and as there may be more clinical significance to a declining oxygen saturation, we weighted contribution of declining oxygen saturation in a combined score.

Composite respiratory score

Respiratory score = (respiratory rate - mean respiratory rate for age) + $5(100 - 0x)$ aturation)

If the respiratory rate was less than the mean respiratory rate for age, the term (respiratory rate - mean respiratory rate for age) was set to zero, so that only increased respiratory rates contributed to the score.

Developing a composite measure for raised intracranial pressure and neurological status

How to detect raised intracranial pressure (ICP) is the most difficult challenge in evaluating the possible mechanisms for increased death in bolus recipients. The only reliable method for detecting raised intracranial pressure is by directly inserted intracranial pressure transducer, and there is no established method to detect or monitor raised ICP outside an intensive care setting¹⁶. Detection of raised ICP using MRI or CT scan is notoriously unreliable unless the changes are extremely severe. In practice, suspicion of raised intracranial pressure is raised clinically in patients who have declining levels of consciousness and who also show evidence of brainstem compression of centers controlling respiration, blood pressure and heart rate. Patients who show paradoxical bradycardia, rising blood pressure and declining consciousness or abnormal respiratory patterns (components of Cushing's triad17-19) are considered to have features of raised intracranial pressure and generally managed in intensive care units with intracranial monitoring and brain imaging. We postulated that the same clinical variables used by clinicians to detect raised intracranial pressure clinically could be combined in a single score combining rising blood pressure, falling heart rate and declining consciousness. As with the cardiovascular score, we converted the rising blood pressure and falling heart rate to the same direction of effect, and normalized rising blood pressure and falling heart rate using age-related means. As coma was measured by the AVPU (awake (A), response to voice (V), response to pain (P), unresponsive (U)) scale over a much smaller range than blood pressure and heart rate we weighted its contribution in order to capture its contribution to the overall score.

FEAST utilised two different coma scores,¹ at baseline the Blantyre Coma Score²⁰ was recorded which summates three measures of responsiveness: motor (able to localize=2, withdraws from pain=1; unresponsive=0), eye movement (follows=1; unresponsive=0), and voice (appropriate response=2, inappropriate or groaning=1, unresponsive=0), giving a total score from 0 to 5 which decreases with severity. At later time points the AVPU scale was used. In order to contribute to neurological score the AVPU categories were given numerical values $A=0$, $V=1$, $P=2$, $U=3$. In order to enable comparison of baseline with later time points we converted baseline Blantyre Coma Score to AVPU as follows:

We weighted the contribution of AVPU to reflect its expected importance as an indicator of impaired neurological function.

Composite neurological score

Neurological score = (blood pressure - mean blood pressure for age) + (mean heart rate for age – heart rate) + 25 (AVPU score).

If the blood pressure was lower than the mean blood pressure for age, the term (blood pressure - mean blood pressure for age) was set to zero, so that only increased blood pressure contributed to the score. If the heart rate was greater than the mean heart rate for age, the term (mean heart rate for age - heart rate) was set to zero, so that only decreased heart rates contributed to the score.

Clustering algorithm

Individuals were clustered using their physiological scores and haemoglobin and lactate measures at baseline. Treatment and outcome were not included in the clustering. Clustering was implemented using a Bayesian multivariate normal mixture of Dirichlet process (MDP) model as implemented in the R package PreMiuM.^{21,22} In our implementation each cluster in the mixture is a multivariate normal distribution representing the distribution of the measures within the cluster. An advantage of a MDP model is that the number of clusters is unknown and inferred from the data and inference is made by sampling from the posterior distribution using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). PreMiuM calculates an optimum single clustering and assignment of individuals to the clusters from the posterior samples it simulates; firstly it calculates a similarity matrix between all pairs of individuals based on the posterior mean of the number of times each pair is assigned to the same cluster. Individuals are then robustly assigned to clusters in a way consistent with the similarity matrix for all possible number of clusters. The optimal number of clusters is determined by the partition which maximises the average silhouette width. We used the single optimal clusters and assignments in all subsequent analyses. The optimal number of clusters determined by the algorithm is driven by the prior distribution assigned to the within cluster covariance; the more prior weight assigned to larger variances the fewer the clusters as more variation is allowed within each cluster. The default settings of the program resulted in eight clusters, increasing the prior within cluster variance by a factor of ten relative to the default values resulted in three clusters which we deemed to be more interpretable and therefore used in subsequent analyses.

Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the matrix of respiratory, neurological and cardiovascular scores at one hour and baseline base excess, bicarbonate, chloride and haemoglobin in the no bolus group; in the bolus group, to account for changes in the blood parameters which were not measured at one hour, values were adjusted by the observed mean shifts at 24 hours in biochemical variables (base excess -1.41, bicarbonate -0.96, chloride +1.65) and at 8 hours for haemoglobin (-0.32). This represents a conservative estimate of the change in these variables in the bolus group at one hour. Data was standardized such that all covariates had mean zero and standard deviation of one before PCA. Only samples with complete measures for all seven covariates were used, n=1901. The principal component loadings are weights representing the contribution of each of the seven covariates to each principal component. The loadings V are calculated as follows:

 $V = X^T U D^{-1/2}$

where V are the PC loadings, X is the data matrix, U is the matrix of PCs and D is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.

Evaluation of the effect of bolus-induced changes in blood parameters on survival

Evaluation of changes in plasma chemistry and acid-base balance due to bolus

Acid-base balance and plasma chemistry were only measured on admission (before bolus fluids were administered) and again 24 hours later. We therefore had no data on the actual values for plasma chemistry and acid-base status in the early hours of the trial when most of the deaths were occurring. Furthermore by 24 hours, when the second measurement of plasma biochemistry was undertaken, the majority of deaths in the study had already occurred. Therefore we used two approaches to estimate the likely biochemical and acid-base status immediately after bolus-administration. First we used the difference in these parameters between surviving bolus and no bolus recipients at 24 hours to calculate a conservative estimate of the change in these parameters immediately after bolus administration. Second we used a literature-based estimate of the likely magnitude of change due to albumin or saline bolus.

Supporting the first approach, as shown in webextra Figure 10, baseline levels of bicarbonate, chloride and base excess were highly correlated with the levels at 24 hours in surviving patients. However, as shown in webextra Figure 11, patients with more severe derangement of base excess, bicarbonate and chloride at baseline had a greater change between 0 and 24 hours than those with less derangement. We concluded that the linear interpolation of the earlier time points from the 24 hour data was likely to significantly under estimate the change at the earlier time point. Examination of the 24 hour blood sample results (Table 1 in the main manuscript) showed clear evidence of worse hyperchloraemic acidosis in bolus recipients, who had significantly lower plasma bicarbonate and increased base excess and chloride as compared to the no bolus controls. As increased base excess was a strong predictor of death and those patients who went on to die had lower base excess and bicarbonate at baseline than survivors, the 24 hour values available were likely to significantly underestimate the extent of bolusinduced acidosis due to the higher death rate in bolus recipients by 24 hours.

In order to estimate the bolus-induced changes at early time points we first used linear interpolation to estimate the one hour value for base excess, chloride and bicarbonate based on the levels observed at baseline and 24 hours in the bolus and no bolus arms and a linear change in the levels from 1 to 24 hours:

Imputation of base excess (be) at 1 hour

 $be(1hr) = be(baseline) + slope + I(bolus) \times (be(24hrs, bolus arm) - be(24hrs, no bolus arm))$ where: slope = $($ be(24hrs, no bolus arm) - be(baseline, no bolus arm) $)/24$ $I(bolus) = 1$ for bolus sample and 0 otherwise

Chloride and bicarbonate were imputed similarly. Haemoglobin was imputed using the values at 8 hours rather than 24 hours, in subjects who had not received blood transfusion.

Because the first approach is likely to underestimate the effects of albumin and saline on biochemical and acidbase status we also sought evidence from published studies to establish what changes should be expected at one hour after bolus. There is an extensive literature dating from the 1990s reporting hyperchloraemic acidosis occurring in recipients of normal saline or other high chloride containing solutions or comparing these solutions with buffered salt solutions (web extra Table 8). These studies include administration of crystalloids to healthy volunteers; administration of crystalloid solutions to patients undergoing a range of surgical conditions including both adults and children and ranging from gynaecological procedures, general surgical procedures, renal surgery and cardiac surgery; and studies in experimental animals. These studies establish that administration of normal saline and other high chloride containing fluids is invariably followed by hypochloraemic acidosis with a rise in chloride, decline in plasma bicarbonate and decrease in base excess occurring concurrently with the infusion and maximal immediately after the infusion. While the extensive literature has used a range of different infusion rates and volumes, those studies which have had comparable fluid volumes and rates to the 20-40 ml/kg infused during FEAST have shown decrease in base excess of approximately 5 mmol/l, a decline in bicarbonate of approximately 5 mmol/l and an increase in chloride of approximately 10 mmol/l in recipients of high chloride containing fluids. We therefore concluded there is strong evidence from the literature and our own data that the changes we have detected in bolus recipients at the 24 hour time points are a minimum estimate of a predictable change induced by saline and albumin at earlier time points.

In order to provide a more realistic estimate based on the factors discussed above, we also estimated the 1 hour values for base excess, bicarbonate and chloride based on the reported changes after saline infusion in the many studies reported and summarised in web extra Table 8. We used the changes reported in those studies most similar to FEAST in the volume and timing of infusion.

Thus the estimates used in our analysis to impute the change in parameters from baseline to1 hour were as follows:

*The change in haemoglobin was derived only from data, and not from literature values, because measurements were available at 8 hours.

Cox proportional hazards regression modelling

To explore whether the changes induced by bolus at one hour could explain the adverse effect of bolus we built Cox proportional hazards survival models with the outcome as time of death. The baseline model contained only bolus as a covariate, covariates were added iteratively, and at each iteration the covariate with the smallest pvalue for association with time of death in the multivariate survival model was added, until all covariates were added. In addition to a model using baseline variables, four sets of explanatory covariates representing the one hour time point were considered.

Covariate set 1

The first set of covariates contained the three scores at 1 hour and imputed levels for base excess, chloride, bicarbonate and haemoglobin based on the levels observed at baseline and 24 hours in the bolus and no bolus arms and a linear change in the levels from 1 to 24 hours.

Covariate set 2

In this set of covariates we used the scores and haemoglobin estimate as in covariate set 1 and imputed levels for base excess, chloride and bicarbonate in the bolus arm based on estimates of the effects of bolus on these blood parameters derived from published articles.

Estimates in the no bolus arm were the same as those used in covariate set 1.

Covariate set 3

The third set of covariates contained the individual components of the score and the imputed blood levels used in covariate set 1. The individual components of the score were respiratory rate above the norm for age, systolic blood pressure above and below the norm for age and heart rate above and below the norm for age.

Covariate set 4

Individual components of the score as used in covariate set 3 and the literature based estimates of the effects of bolus on the blood markers as used in covariate set 2.

The above models were refit including bolus as an additional explanatory covariate to calculate the hazard ratio for bolus under each model.

Web extra Figures

Web extra Figure 1. Physiological scores associated with aetiology and severity of illness across cohorts and sequential changes over time in FEAST

Respiratory (A), neurological (B) and cardiovascular (C) scores in FEAST and 4 other cohorts (Men, UK Meningococcal cohort; ML, Malawian cerebral malaria cohort; SA, South African sepsis cohort; SMH, St Mary's Hospital emergency department cohort). D-F show sequential changes in the FEAST cohort in respiratory (D), neurological score (E) and cardiovascular (F) scores at time points from admission baseline to 48 hours. Survivors are shown in red, cases dying in the next time period are shown in blue. Boxes show median and IQR; whiskers extend up to 1·5-times IQR. P for two-sided Mann-Witney test, unadjusted for multiple comparisons.

Web extra Figure 2. Change in physiological scores from baseline to 4 hours.

The proportion of individuals in FEAST with different magnitudes of change in physiological scores from baseline to four hours, compared between those randomized to no bolus (red bars) or bolus (blue bars). Negative values indicate decrease from the baseline, and positive values indicate increase from baseline. Values above bars show relative risk (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between bolus and no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 3. Distribution of physiological scores and blood parameters at first observation after randomization in FEAST.

Comparison of the proportion of individuals in FEAST with indicated values of physiological scores and blood measurements at the next observation after initiation of fluid bolus (blue) or no fluid bolus (red). A-C show physiological scores at 1 hour. D-F show biochemical measures at 24 hours. G and H show haemoglobin concentration at 8 hours in non-transfused (G) and transfused (H) subjects. Values above bars show relative risk (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between bolus and no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 4. Distribution of physiological scores at 4 hours in FEAST. Comparison of physiological scores at 4 hours after initiation of fluid bolus (blue) or no fluid bolus (red). Values above bars show relative risk (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between bolus and no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 5. Distribution of physiological scores and blood parameters associated with volume of fluid bolus administered in FEAST.

The proportion of individuals in FEAST with indicated values of physiological scores and blood measurements at the next observation after completion of bolus fluids in all groups, in those who received high volume bolus (≥30ml/kg, green bars), low volume bolus (<30ml/kg, blue bars), or no bolus (red bars). A-C show physiological scores at 4 hours after bolus initiation. D-F show biochemical measures 24 hours after bolus initiation. G-H show haemoglobin concentration 8 hours after bolus initiation in non-transfused (G) and transfused (H) subjects. Values above bars show relative risks (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between low volume or high volume bolus groups vs no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 6. Changes from baseline to next observation for physiological scores and blood measures according to volume of fluid bolus received in FEAST.

Comparison of the proportion of individuals in FEAST with different magnitudes of change in physiological scores and blood measurements according to whether they received high volume bolus (≥30ml/kg, green bars), low volume bolus (<30ml/kg, blue bars) or no bolus (red bars). A-C show changes in physiological scores between 0 and 4 hours. D-F show changes in biochemical measures from baseline to 24 hours. G and H show change in haemoglobin from baseline to 8 hours in non-transfused (G) and transfused (H) subjects. The change from baseline is shown for each segment of the distribution. Negative values indicate decrease from the baseline, and positive values indicate increase from baseline. Values above bars show relative risks (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between low volume or high volume bolus groups vs. no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 7. Hyperchloraemic acidosis in FEAST.

A shows distribution of pH at baseline in FEAST subjects according to whether they were randomized to no fluid bolus (red bars) or fluid bolus (blue bars). B shows survival in FEAST by baseline pH (black line, pH ≥7·35; red line pH <7·35; dotted lines 95% CI; Cox proportional hazards model with random effects for site; n=2082, 195 total events, p<0·0001). C shows proportion of individuals with indicated values of pH at 24 hours for no fluid bolus (red bars) or fluid bolus groups (blue bars). D shows correlation between chloride

concentration at 24 hours and pH at 24 hours shown by whether subjects were randomized to no fluid bolus (red dots and regression line, Pearson r=-0·28 (95% CI -0·38 to -0·17), $p<0.0001$) or fluid bolus (blue dots and regression line, Pearson r=-0·41 (95%CI -0·47 to -0·33), p<0.0001); p=0.05 for comparison of correlation coefficients using the z-test. E shows baseline respiratory rate and F the respiratory rate above mean for age. G-H show the proportion of individuals with different magnitudes of change from baseline to one hour in oxygen saturation (G) and respiratory rate (H) according to whether they were randomized to no fluid bolus (red bars) or fluid bolus (blue bars). Values above bars show relative risks (95% CI) for comparison of proportions between bolus vs no bolus groups.

Web extra Figure 8. Biochemical measurements in clusters within FEAST.

Comparison of the distributions of baseline biochemical measurements by cluster within FEAST. Boxes show median and IQR; whiskers extend up to 1·5-times IQR.

Web extra Figure 9. Principle component plot using physiological scores and blood parameters. Principal component (PC) analysis using the respiratory, neurological and cardiovascular scores at 1 hour after bolus, and conservative (data-derived) estimates of haemoglobin and biochemical values at 1 hour based on their values at 8 and 24 hours respectively (light red, no bolus, survivors; large dark red, no bolus, fatal cases; light blue, bolus, survivors; large dark blue, bolus, fatal cases). The principal component loadings (arrows) indicate the contributions of increasing values of each variable. Analysis is based on 1898 subjects with complete data for physiological scores at 1 hour and baseline biochemical parameters.

Web extra Figure 10. Imputation of blood parameters based on relationships between baseline and 24 hour values.

Relationships between baseline values and those at next measurement for base excess, chloride and bicarbonate (all 24 hours) and haemoglobin (8 hours) (first column of panels). Distribution of blood parameter values in subjects who died and those who survived at baseline, imputed from data at 1 hour, and at next measurement (second column of panels; NB (red), no bolus; B (blue), bolus; boxes show median and IQR; whiskers extend up to 1·5-times IQR). Illustration of imputation of values in bolus group based on difference in values between baseline and next measurement in no bolus group, and difference between bolus and no bolus groups at the second measurement timepoint (third column of panels).

Web extra Figure 11. Relationship between baseline values and change at 24 hours for biochemical parameters.

Relationships between values at baseline and change from baseline to 24 hours for blood base excess, bicarbonate and chloride. Blue, bolus recipients; red no bolus.

Web extra Tables

Web extra Table 1. Numbers (%) of surviving subjects at each time point in FEAST Stratum A with available data for each variable.

*Outcomes were defined as death in FEAST and the Meningococcal cohorts, death or neurological disability in the Malawian cohort, admission to intensive care in the South African cohort and admission to hospital or intensive care in the SMH emergency department cohorts. n, number of subjects with complete data available to calculate each score at baseline.

Web extra Table 3. Changes in physiological scores and blood parameters associated with albumin bolus or saline bolus in FEAST.

Effect size is the mean change in the variable attributable to bolus. Positive effect size indicates increase in parameter, negative effect size indicates decrease, as compared with no bolus control.

Group	$\mathbf n$	OR	95% CI	p		
Respiratory score						
FEAST	3037	1.09	1.07, 1.11	< 0.0001		
Cluster 1	1967	1.00	0.90, 1.11	0.98		
Cluster 2	717	1.07	1,1.14	0.040		
Cluster 3	353	1.03	1,1.06	0.020		
Neurology score						
FEAST	3096	1.26	1.21, 1.31	< 0.0001		
Cluster 1	1955	1.41	1.26, 1.57	< 0.0001		
Cluster 2	772	1.30	1.2, 1.41	< 0.0001		
Cluster 3	369	1.06	1.01, 1.12	0.020		
Cardiovascular score						
FEAST	3110	1.09	1.05, 1.14	< 0.0001		
Cluster 1	1963	0.97	0.88, 1.08	0.60		
Cluster 2	777	1.05	0.98, 1.12	0.16		
Cluster 3	370	1.03	0.96,1.11	0.43		
Haemoglobin (g/dL)						
FEAST	3082	0.88	0.85, 0.91	< 0.0001		
Cluster 1	1929	1.00	0.91,1.1	0.97		
Cluster 2	780	$1-11$	1.01, 1.22	0.030		
Cluster 3	373	0.91	0.85, 0.98	0.008		
Lactate (mmol/L)						
FEAST	3009	$1 - 23$	1.2, 1.26	< 0.0001		
Cluster 1	1888	1.30	1.08, 1.57	0.0060		
Cluster 2	768	$1 - 15$	1.08, 1.22	< 0.0001		
Cluster 3	353	$1 - 15$	1.09, 1.22	< 0.0001		

Web extra Table 4. Association between changes in variables and risk of death in clusters within FEAST.

OR, odds ratio for death for each ten-unit increase in the physiological scores and each unit increase in haemoglobin and lactate in FEAST overall and in clusters

Web extra Table 5. Changes in physiological scores and blood parameters associated with fluid bolus in FEAST Cluster 1.

*Effect size is the mean change in the variable attributable to bolus. Positive effect size indicates increase in parameter, negative effect size indicates decrease, as compared with no bolus control.

Web extra Table 6. Changes in physiological scores and blood parameters associated with fluid bolus in FEAST Cluster 2.

*Effect size is the mean change in the variable attributable to bolus. Positive effect size indicates increase in parameter, negative effect size indicates decrease, as compared with no bolus control.

Web extra Table 7. Changes in physiological scores and blood parameters associated with fluid bolus in FEAST Cluster 3.

*Effect size is the mean change in the variable attributable to bolus. Positive effect size indicates increase in parameter, negative effect size indicates decrease, as compared with no bolus control.

RCT, Randomised controlled trial; RL, Ringer's lactate; op, operative. Blank cells indicate that the parameter was not assessed.

Cox-proportional hazards regression coefficients and p-values for association with time of death in a multivariate model with all listed covariates included. Coefficients and p-values for all covariates in sets1 and 2, except bolus, are identical. Similarly for covariate sets 3 and 4.

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