The Association Among Gastric Mucosal pH, Endotoxemia, and Low Systemic Vascular Resistance After Cardiopulmonary Bypass

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Objective: Previously, it was found that a number of patients suffer a "low systemic vascular resistance syndrome" after cardiopulmonary bypass, and this was hypothesized to be secondary to endotoxemia, resulting from intestinal ischemia during bypass.

Design: Prospective cohort.

Setting: University teaching hospital.

Participants: Thirty-two patients undergoing cardiac sur-

Interventions: A number of variables relating to adequacy of tissue perfusion were measured at seven time periods perioperatively: cardiac output, systemic vascular resistance, oxygen delivery and consumption, oxygen extraction ratio, gastric mucosal pH, serum lactate, and endotoxin levels.

Measurements and Main Results: Investigators could not find any association between systemic vascular resistance and mucosal pH or endotoxin levels after bypass. There were significant changes in oxygen flux and extraction ratio (p <0.001) as well as serum lactate (p < 0.001). There was no significant change in endotoxin levels or mucosal pH. The

THE LOW SYSTEMIC vascular resistance (SVR) syndrome after cardiac surgery and cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB) remains a poorly understood phenomenon, despite its common occurrence.^{1,2} Septic shock and the low SVR syndrome share many features: high cardiac output, low SVR, peripheral shunting of blood flow, and tissue acidosis. It has also been demonstrated that the hemodynamic features of septic shock are caused by release of endotoxins.3-5 This has also been shown to occur during cardiac surgery, after release of the aortic cross-clamp.6-10

It has been suggested that post-CPB endotoxemia is caused by intestinal ischemia during aortic cross-clamping, with leakage of endotoxin through the bowel wall.^{6,7,9-14} Intestinal ischemia continues to occur to a lesser degree for at least 8 hours after cardiac surgery and therefore parallels the pattern of the low SVR syndrome. It was the study's hypothesis that the low SVR syndrome is secondary to endotoxemia, resulting from intestinal ischemia during CPB.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients scheduled for elective cardiac surgery were enrolled in this open study after Institutional Ethics Committee approval and written, informed consent. Patients were excluded if they had any evidence of sepsis (temp >37°C, WBC [white blood cell count] > 12,000/mL), had a history of esophageal varices or inflammatory bowel disease, or were taking corticosteroid medication.

All patients received a standardized general anesthetic. They were premedicated with oral temazepam, 10 to 20 mg, IM papaveratum, 10 to 20 mg, and hyoscine, 0.2 to 0.4 mg; induced with IV diazepam, 5 to 10 mg, fentanyl, 500 to systemic vascular resistance at 6 hours postbypass could be predicted from the vascular resistance reading at 1 hour postbypass by a regression equation. A significant correlation between systemic vascular resistance and mixed venous oxygen was found at 4 and 6 hours postbypass (p < 0.01) as well as with oxygen extraction (ρ < 0.01). There was a negative correlation between mucosal pH and serum lactate, particularly at 6 hours postbypass (p < 0.01). There was no correlation between mucosal pH and endotoxin levels, oxygen flux, or cardiac output.

Conclusions: The investigators therefore could not find any evidence that intestinal ischemia during bypass, as measured by gastric mucosal pH, predisposes to endotoxemia, or low systemic vascular resistance after cardiac surgery.

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1,500 µg, and pancuronium, 8 to 12 mg; and, anesthesia was maintained with increments of enflurane (0.2% to 1.5%) and fentanyl, 500 to 1,500 µg. Perfusion during CPB was also standardized, using a hollow-fiber capillary membrane oxygenator (Capiox E; Terumo, Tokyo, Japan) and arterial line filter (32 micron), with moderate hypothermia (27 to 32°C), and alpha-stat pH management; nonpulsatile flow rates were initially set at 2.4 L/min/m² at 37°C and 1.8 L/min/m² at 25°C, maintaining a mean perfusion pressure of 50 to 70 mmHg. Mixed venous oximetry (SvO₂) monitoring was also used, and flows adjusted to maintain SvO₂ above 70%.

Before induction of anesthesia, a peripheral intravenous catheter, radial arterial catheter, and pulmonary artery catheter were inserted using local anesthetic. After induction, a gastric tonometry catheter (TON20024816; Tonometrics, Worcester, MA) was inserted, with its position confirmed by auscultation; this was later verified by x-ray on return to the intensive care unit (ICU). The tonometer balloon was then filled with 2.5 mL of saline after elimination of air bubbles.

Patients were managed according to standard protocols, with initial ventilator management consisting of an inspired oxygen concentration of 70%, tidal volume of 10 mL/kg, and a respiratory rate of 10 to 12 breaths per minute.

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Patients were weaned from mechanical ventilation as soon as they responded to verbal stimuli, rewarming was complete, hemodynamic stability had been established, and blood loss was satisfactory (less than 100 mL/hr).

Hemodynamic measurements were taken at the following time intervals:

Time period 1: pre-induction

Time period 2: 30 minutes postinduction

Time period 3: 15 minutes after commencing CPB

Time period 4: 15 minutes post-CPB Time period 5: 1 hour post-CPB Time period 6: 4 hours post-CPB Time period 7: 6 hours post-CPB

Hemodynamic measurements consisted of central venous pressure, pulmonary artery wedge pressure, mean arterial blood pressure, cardiac output (CO), and systemic vascular resistance (SVR). Blood temperature was recorded from the thermistor of the pulmonary artery catheter, except during CPB where nasopharyngeal temperature was used. Cardiac output was measured using the thermodilution technique. All readings were performed at end-expiration, in triplicate, with each reading accepted if within 10% of each other. The average reading was then used. SVR was calculated from the Hewlett Packard Component Monitoring System.

At the previously mentioned time periods, blood samples were also collected for mixed venous oxygen saturation (measured by co-oximeter), arterial blood gases, lactate levels, and hemoglobin concentration. At time periods 3 to 6, 5 mL of blood were also collected for endotoxin levels. Other data collected included aortic cross-clamp time, use of epinephrine, dopamine, and nitroglycerin (NTG), and urine output during the operative procedure and for the 6-hour time period after cross-clamp release.

Oxygen delivery (DO₂) and consumption (VO₂) were calculated from standard formulae, using a value of 1.34 mL/g for hemoglobin-bound oxygen, and 0.003 mL/100 mL/mmHg for dissolved oxygen. Oxygen extraction ratio (ER) was then calculated as the ratio of VO₂/DO₂.

A chromogenic limulus amebocyte lysate assay (Whittaker Bioproducts, MA) was used to measure endotoxin. A meticulous aseptic collection technique was used, with employment of a trained microbiologist for the endotoxin assay. Five-mL blood samples were collected into pyrogenfree tubes, then stored at -70° C until the end of the trial period, for batch testing. After dilution in pyrogen-free water and heat inactivation at 70° C for 10 minutes, calibration curves of absorbence versus concentration were constructed. Results are expressed as endotoxin units (EU) per mL (where 1000 EU/mL is approximately 100 ng/mL). The endotoxin levels were corrected for hemodilution, using the baseline/post-CPB hematocrit ratio.

After sufficient time for equilibration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) between the saline and the gastric lumen, anaerobic samples of the tonometer saline and arterial blood were taken and analyzed with standard pH and blood-gas measurements. Gastric mucosal pH (pHi) was calculated by a modification of the Henderson-Hasselbach equation (Tono-

metrics, Worcester, MA):

pHi = $6.1 + [arterial HCO_3/F \times tonometer saline PCO_2]$ where F = time-dependent factor for equilibrated samples.

All data were recorded on a data sheet, then stored on a computer file (SPSS V4.0 Data Entry). Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the changes in SVR, DO₂, VO₂, serum lactate, endotoxin levels, and pHi. Univariate Pearson's correlation coefficients were first calculated to describe the association between SVR and the following variables: preceding SVR reading, CO, SvO₂, DO₂, VO₂, serum lactate, endotoxin levels, pHi, aortic cross-clamp time, and urine volume. Multiple stepwise linear regression analysis was then used to predict SVR at 6 hours post-CPB from significant correlates, after adjusting for hemoglobin concentration and temperature. All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS/PC+V4.0 software. To account for multiple comparisons, a p value of less than 0.01 was considered significant.

RESULTS

A total of 32 patients were studied, 31 had undergone CABG, and 1 patient had a combined CABG and valve replacement. All were treated with an NTG infusion, and 4 required an epinephrine infusion after CPB. There were no operative deaths. Their demographic details and perioperative characteristics are presented in Table 1. The average time to extubation was 10 hours after ICU admission.

Their hemodynamic changes are shown in Fig 1 and Table 2. The sequential changes in serum lactate, endotoxin levels, and pHi are shown in Fig 2. There was a significant increase in the serum lactate over time (p < 0.001), but no significant changes in endotoxin levels and pHi (p = 0.63 and p = 0.39, respectively). Although there was no change in the mean endotoxin level, there was an increase in the variability, with a range of 204 to 2529 EU/mL at 6 hours post-CPB. The changes in DO₂ and VO₂ are shown in Fig 3. The oxygen ER mean (SD) for the corresponding time periods were 0.21(0.05), 0.22(0.06), 0.22(0.06), 0.26(0.08), 0.29(0.06), 0.36(0.09), and 0.38(0.09). There were signifi-

Table 1. Demographic Details and Perioperative Characteristics

	Mean (SD) or Proportion	Range
Age (years)	62 8 (9 0)	44-79
Male/female	24/8	
Preop hemoglobin (mg/dL)	13.8 (1.7)	9 9-16 3
Preop mean BP (mmHg)	88 (15)	53-108
Aortic cross-clamp time (mins)	61 4 (21)	32-128
Epinephrine used post-CPB	4/32	
Dopamine used post-CPB	1/32	
NTG used post-CPB	32/32	
NTG dose after CPB (µg/min)	40 (25)	10-100
Epinephrine dose after CPB (μg/min)	0 53 (1 7)	0-8 0
Temp during CPB (°C)	31 3 (1 2)	28 5-33 9
Urine volume after CPB (mL)	690 (590)	200-2700
Urine volume, 6 h after CPB (mL)	1140 (590)	300-2790

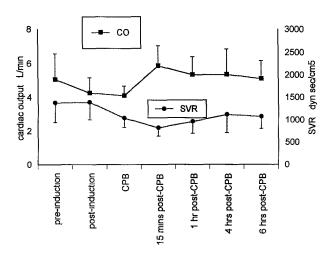


Fig 1. Perioperative changes in cardiac output and systemic vascular resistance. Mean and 1 SD

cant changes in DO_2 , VO_2 , and ER over the perioperative period (all p < 0.001).

There was a significant association between each SVR reading after CPB and its preceding measurement: 15 minutes post-CPB: 1 hour post-CPB, r = 0.76 (p < 0.001); 1 hour post-CPB, 4 hours post-CPB, r = 0.65 (p < 0.001); 6 hours post-CPB, 4 hours post-CPB, r = 0.81 (p < 0.001). Using regression analysis, the SVR measurement at 6 hours post-CPB could be predicted from that measured at 1 hour post-CPB (ie, approximately at the time of ICU admission) by the following regression equation:

SVR(6 h post-CPB) =
$$430 + 0.67$$

× SVR(1 h post-CPB), $r^2 = 0.42$, $p < 0.001$.

There was no significant correlation between SVR measurements and serum lactate, pHi, or endotoxin levels. A moderate negative correlation was found between the SVR and SvO₂ at 4 hours post-CPB (r=-0.43, p<0.01) and at 6 hours post-CPB (r=-0.52, p<0.01). There was also correlation between SVR and the oxygen ER at the same time points (r=0.43, p<0.01; r=0.52, p<0.01, respectively). There was no significant correlation between these factors and earlier SVR measurements. There was a consistent trend for a negative correlation between serum lactate

and pHi measurements, but this was only significant at the pHi reading at 6 hours post-CPB (r = -0.51, p < 0.01). There was no correlation between pHi and endotoxin levels, VO₂, DO₂, oxygen ER, or cardiac output; nor was there a correlation between aortic cross-clamp time and endotoxin levels or SVR post-CPB.

DISCUSSION

The authors studied a group of elective cardiac surgical patients with intensive monitoring of hemodynamics, VO₂ and DO₂, pHi, serum lactate, and endotoxin levels. The study did not find any relationship between the SVR and endotoxin levels, although it was possible to derive a regression equation that predicted the SVR at 6 hours, from the SVR reading at 1 hour after CPB (at a time when the patient is preparing to leave the operating room). This may be useful in detecting those patients with low SVR at an earlier time and may promote earlier intervention with vasoconstrictor or inotrope therapy. It may also be useful in the future, when the underlying cause, or causes, of the low SVR syndrome are elucidated. It was hypothesized that intestinal ischemia and leakage of endotoxin through the bowel wall may be the underlying mechanism causing the low SVR syndrome. Although the study did not demonstrate this, it also did not demonstrate significant intestinal ischemia, as measured by pHi. It is possible that a larger study may detect more patients with frank intestinal ischemia and may detect more episodes of endotoxemia, which may lead to low SVR. It is also possible that some patients had episodes of regional ischemia, not detected by SvO₂ because of systemic dilution.

However, there was a relationship between SVR and SvO₂, which suggests that low SVR is an indicator of poor peripheral perfusion. It must be remembered that association does not imply causation, and, therefore, low SVR may follow some other end point of peripheral ischemia. This is supported by increased oxygen extraction and serum lactate, which are conventional indicators of inadequate tissue oxygen delivery. The significant changes in VO₂ and oxygen ER that were found, particularly after CPB, suggest that DO₂ should be maintained, by maximizing cardiac output, oxygen saturation, and hemoglobin concentration. The hemodiluted state after CPB may limit DO₂; therefore, it is

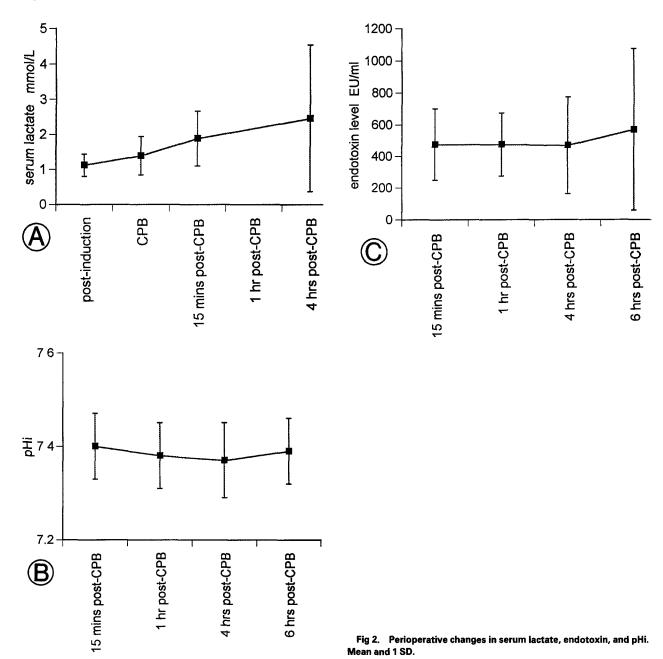
Table 2. Hemodynamic Changes Perioperatively

Time Period	Pre- Induction	30 min Postinduction	During CPB	15 M ın Post-CPB	1 h Post-CPB	4 h Post-CPB	6 h Post-CPB
CO (L/min)	5 07 (1.53)	4.26 (0 92)	4 10 (0 57)	5 87 (1.2)	5.35 (1 1)	5.36 (1 5)	5 11 (1.1)
	3 31-9 21	2.67-6 33	3 00-5.50	2.94-8 80	2.91-7 40	2 98-9.45	3.47-7.43
	1382 (431)	1391 (383)	1041 (210)	823 (181)	963 (263)	1120 (406)	1076 (267)
	602-2350	821-2401	603-1581	574-1387	598-1621	668-2093	656-1890
	88 (15)	77 (10)	55 (9 7)	66 (8.0)	69 (7.0)	78 (9.6)	75 (7.4)
	53-108	57-98	40-90	48-82	55-83	57-98	64-95
PCWP (mmHg)	10 (4)	9 3 (4)		11 (4)	10 (3)	9.5 (3)	10 (3)
	3-21	4-23		4-20	3-16	6-15	6-19

Abbreviations: CO, cardiac output; SVR, systemic vascular resistance; MAP, mean arterial pressure; PCWP, pulmonary capillary wedge pressure; CPB, cardiopulmonary bypass

Mean (SD) and Range

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particularly important that cardiac output is maintained during this period. Correction of dilutional anemia with a concentrated red cell transfusion will not only increase DO₂ but will also increase plasma viscosity and SVR. This may be one of the explanations for the association between low SVR and SvO₂. The substantial increase in VO₂ that occurs after CPB may add support to continuing mechanical ventilation until oxygen ER returns to baseline, as this has been shown to reduce VO₂. Interestingly, this elevated ER may persist longer than 24 hours. In

The decrease in SVR that occurred during CPB, with gradual resolution after CPB, is probably caused by hemodilution and may not indicate any significant change in vascular tone. Although the increase in cardiac output

may reflect increased myocardial performance after surgical correction of coronary artery disease, it is more likely a reflection of the increased metabolic demands illustrated by the changes in VO₂ and ER. This may be related to a subclinical oxygen debt built up during CPB, particularly within the gastrointestinal tract.^{12-14,18} It is also a time of restoration of body temperature, return to spontaneous ventilation, pain, and the neurohumoral response to major surgery.^{19,20} Other vasoactive substances (complement C3a and C5a, granulocyte elastase, interleukins 6 and 8) have been described after CPB, which may also promote excessive vasodilation and appear to be related to aortic crossclamp time.^{10,21,22} It is likely that endothelial infiltration by these substances can produce a state of resistant vasodila-

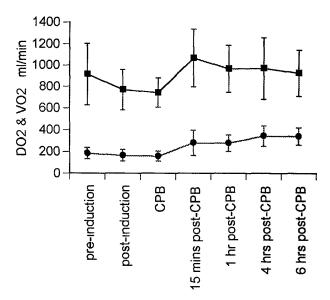


Fig 3. Perioperative changes in DO₂ and VO₂. Mean and 1 SD.

tion and may also participate in myocardial reperfusion injury, although the role of endotoxin in their production after CPB remains obscure. 10,21,22

Does DO₂ determine VO₂? The existence of pathologic oxygen supply dependence is controversial, 23 although there is some evidence of its existence in dogs receiving endo toxin.²⁴ This is supported by Ohri et al who found that VO₂ and ER increased markedly during the rewarming phase of CPB.²⁵ This suggests that endotoxemia may impair peripheral oxygen extraction, although oxygen ER in excess of 0.5 can be maintained before oxygen supply dependence is demonstrated.²⁴ Nelson et al have argued that oxygen supply dependence follows derangement of normal endothelial control of blood flow and that endotoxins are known to damage endothelium.²⁴ Subsequent uncontrolled release of substances such as nitric oxide and acetylcholine from the endothelium may generate the low SVR occasionally observed after CPB. Other authors have raised doubts as to the validity of calculated VO₂ and DO₂.²³ When compared with measured VO₂, derived from inspired and expired gas concentrations, Manthous et al could not find any relationship between VO₂ and cardiac output in patients with septic shock.²³ However, the present patient population differs from critically ill patients with adult respiratory distress syndrome and would not be expected to have such a discrepancy between measured and calculated VO₂. A recent report by Routsi et al found a strong relationship between VO₂ and DO₂, 16 but they did not account for the statistical property of mathematical coupling, 26 where both are calculated using the common terms of cardiac output and hemoglobin concentration ensuring a good correlation, irrespective of their true relationship. However, they also found a relationship between serum lactate and SvO₂, although they measured PvO₂.²⁴

Measurement of pHi has also been promoted as a monitor of tissue perfusion in critically ill patients, including those after cardiac surgery. 9,14,18,25,27 Nevertheless, other

authors argue that conventional blood-gas analysis provides similar information. ²⁸ The present results are in agreement with previous studies, but this study did not find dramatic changes after CPB. Gaer et al found that pulsatile flow preserved pHi during CPB, when compared with nonpulsatile flow, but this may reflect the lower temperature used during CPB (28°C) or inferior CPB technique, although their small numbers (n = 10) make interpretation difficult. ¹⁴ Anderson et al found that pHi was low immediately after CPB but also could not find a relationship between pHi and endotoxin levels. ⁹

The authors are unsure of the usefulness of measuring pHi in cardiac surgical patients, and at this time, considering the cost implications, would not recommend gastric tonometry for routine monitoring. Although some patients had low cardiac output and mixed venous oxygen desaturation, no relationship between these conventional indicators of poor peripheral perfusion and pHi was found. However, there was a moderate relationship between pHi and serum lactate at 6 hours after CPB, which may indicate poor perfusion. This is known as a type I lactic acidosis; however, there is also a type II lactic acidosis that is not related to poor peripheral perfusion. Raper et al have described elevated serum lactate with adequate peripheral perfusion after cardiac surgery.²⁹ They argue that lactate may be released from leg muscles and that catecholamines may promote its peripheral release. Manthous et al state that the increased serum lactate concentrations may also be a reflection of pyruvate accumulation²³; this may be secondary to reduced hepatic clearance during or after CPB. However, other authors have found increased intestinal production of lactate during CPB, which may reflect transient intestinal ischemia.30 It is arguable that conventional measures of tissue perfusion, such as cardiac output, SvO₂, and DO2 may lack specificity, such that regional (eg, intestinal) ischemia may coexist.

Endotoxemia has been found after CPB.6-10 Other authors dispute these findings, arguing that the methods used have not been validated. 8,22 Inaba et al compared two different endotoxin assay techniques after cardiac surgery and found a wide discrepancy between them.²² This study used a chromogenic limulus lysate assay, a widely used method in cardiac surgery, but the authors are unsure of how specific currently available endotoxin assays are. Although the endotoxin levels were high in some patients after CPB, they were not related to hemodynamic changes or pHi. Thus, the importance of high endotoxin levels remains to be determined. Nilsson et al suggested that contamination from CPB circuitry, gloves, and heparin may be extraneous sources of endotoxin.8 Taggart et al also found a small increase in endotoxin levels after CPB, but these did not correlate with complement levels or white blood cell count. 10 They also could not find a relationship between endotoxin levels and duration of CPB. Blanot et al studied patients during liver transplantation, who have also been found to suffer a "post-perfusion syndrome"31 similar to the low SVR syndrome described after CPB. As with this 200 MYLES ET AL

study, they could not find an association with endotoxin levels.

The metabolic and hemodynamic changes that occur after cardiac surgery require close attention to a variety of calculated and measured variables. There have been some recent innovations in this area, but this study could not find any added value in their use. The authors could not find an association between low SVR and intestinal ischemia (as measured by pHi) or endotoxemia. It is concluded that oxygen delivery, through optimizing oxygenation and cardiac output, remains important during and after cardiac

surgery. Other parameters may have a role to play in perioperative monitoring for cardiac surgery but should not replace current established endpoints of therapy.

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