

morbidity in more critical patients than those included in this study, and that CO-Hb concentrations before the surgery may vary further in such patients.

In conclusion, the expression of inflammatory mediators such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , and HO-1 in circulating blood increased during CABG, especially when CPB was used. Treatment with glucocorticoid therapy attenuated these increases. CO-Hb concentrations also increased during CABG, however, CO-Hb concentrations did not change and were less well correlated with inflammatory mediators in patients who showed CO-Hb values \geq 1% before surgery, despite the fact that we chose patients with no obvious signs of inflammation or respiratory disease, and that the inhalation oxygen concentration and hemoglobin concentration were managed in a uniform fashion. CO-Hb measurements might not be useful in the clinical monitoring of surgical stress because of the limited degree of changes, the variation of baseline values, and the necessity for management under fixed conditions.

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ELSEVIER

Original contribution

Effects of atrial natriuretic peptide at a low dose on water and electrolyte metabolism during general anesthesia

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Keywords:

Atrial natriuretic peptide;
Water metabolism;
Electrolyte metabolism

Abstract

Study Objective: To assess the hemodynamic, renal, and endocrine effects of small continuous doses of atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP) in patients anesthetized with sevoflurane for gastrectomy.

Design: Prospective randomized study.

Setting: Operating room and wards of a university hospital.

Patients: 20 ASA physical status I and II patients scheduled for gastrectomy.

Intervention: Atrial natriuretic peptide (0.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$; ANP group, $n = 10$) or saline (control group, $n = 10$) was infused continuously for 2 hours beginning at the start of the operation.

Measurements: Plasma concentrations of ANP, brain natriuretic peptide, cortisol, angiotensin II, and aldosterone; plasma renin activity; serum and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride; and urinary output.

Main Results: The ANP group showed much greater urine volume and sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion than the control group, although the ANP group had a lower arterial blood pressure. The infusion did not affect surgery-induced increases in hormones. No patients experienced excessive hypotension, bradycardia, or other perioperative complications.

Conclusions: Continuous intravenous infusion of ANP at 0.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$ during gastrectomy was associated with greater water and electrolyte excretion unaccompanied by changes in potentially interacting hormones. Low-dose infusion may be particularly safe and useful for controlling water and electrolyte metabolism intraoperatively.

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1. Introduction

Atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP) is a circulating hormone secreted predominantly by the left atrium. Atrial natriuretic peptide affects diverse biologic functions such

as diuresis, natriuresis, and vasodilation [1,2]. Atrial natriuretic peptide also is known to inhibit secretion and actions of several hormones including renin, angiotensin II, aldosterone, arginine vasopressin (AVP), adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), and endothelin [2-5]. Many investigators have suggested that secretion and metabolism of ANP is likely to change radically in patients undergoing surgical interventions [1,6].

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Atrial natriuretic peptide is recognized as an important factor for homeostasis of body fluid volume, and many studies have found ANP infusion to be useful for improving cardiorenal regulation in some abnormal states, such as heart failure, renal failure, hypertension, and hypertensive episodes related to anesthesia [1,2,5,7]. Atrial natriuretic peptide has been reported to have additional clinical benefits. Like nitrates, it has a coronary vasodilator action, attenuates myocardial ischemia, and prevents left ventricular remodeling after myocardial ischemia [5,8-10]. Atrial natriuretic peptide reduces pulmonary arterial blood and pulmonary capillary wedge pressures, improves left ventricular function in heart failure [2,5], prevents ischemia and reperfusion injury in the kidney and liver [11,12], and relaxes bronchial smooth muscle [5,13].

Increases in circulating catecholamines, vasopressin, resin, angiotensin II, ACTH, and cortisol occur in patients under surgical stress, promoting renal and peripheral vasoconstriction and salt and water retention [14,15], which may persist for several days. As well, anesthetic agents generally decrease GFR and urine output [16]. The clinical sequelae is postoperative oliguria and edema, and to maintain perioperative urine output is one of the important role of anesthetic management. Atrial natriuretic peptide may solve this problem, however, few reports have examined ANP from the viewpoint of perioperative water and electrolyte metabolism.

Shirakami et al [17] reported that intraoperative ANP infusion may have undesirable effects on the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system despite its benefits for cardiovascular control. In clinical use, ANP is usually infused at a rate of 0.1 to 0.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$, a dose at which it can affect other hormone systems. In vitro, even smaller

Table 1 Patient characteristic, preoperative medical conditions, duration of surgery, and amount of sevoflurane used

Group	Control	Treatment	(<i>P</i> Value)
No. of patients	10	10	—
Gender (male/female)	5/5	5/5	—
Age (yrs)	61.8 \pm 17.8	57.0 \pm 3.5	0.460
Body weight (kg)	50.4 \pm 9.9	55.7 \pm 3.1	0.242
Complicating preoperative condition (no. of patients)			
Hypertension	2	3	0.628
Diabetes mellitus	0	1	0.343
Obesity	2	2	1
Anemia	0	1	0.343
Duration of surgery (min)	175.9 \pm 34.5	184.9 \pm 13.7	0.607
Total sevoflurane used (MAC \cdot hr)	3.7 \pm 1.3	3.6 \pm 0.9	0.864

Continuous variables are shown as means \pm SD. No significant difference was evident between the two groups.

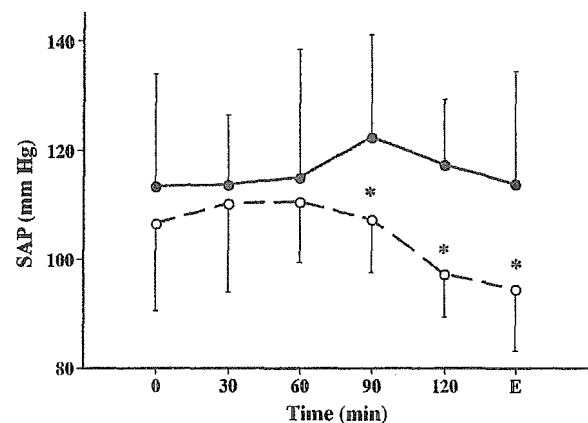


Fig. 1 Changes in systolic blood pressure. ●, control group; ○, treatment group. **P* < 0.05 between groups.

doses of ANP have been found to affect the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system [18]. Taking these reports into consideration, changes in other hormones may have influence on the net of ANP administration on water and electrolyte metabolisms as well as other aspects of homeostasis. We hypothesized that the smaller dose of ANP than that of previous studies is enough to maintain intraoperative urine output as well as electrolytes secretion.

In this study, we examined the effects of continuous low-dose ANP infusion on hormonal, renal, and hemodynamic function as well as water and electrolyte metabolisms in patients undergoing upper abdominal surgery.

2. Materials and methods

Twenty ASA physical status I and II patients without apparent cardiac, pulmonary, or renal disease, who underwent gastrectomy for gastric cancer were included in the study. Approval for this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Nippon Medical School's hospital, and informed consent to participate was obtained from each patient. Patients were assigned to receive either recombinant human α -ANP (Suntory, Osaka, Japan; ANP group, *n* = 10) or saline vehicle (control group, *n* = 10) by randomized placebo-controlled double-blind manner.

Patients were premedicated intramuscularly with hydroxyzine (0.5 mg/kg) 1 hour before anesthesia. Epidural catheters were inserted under local anesthesia for pain control in the postoperative period. General anesthesia was induced with intravenous administration of propofol (2 mg/kg) and vecuronium bromide (0.1 mg/kg), plus inhalation of sevoflurane. Anesthesia was maintained with inhalation of 66% nitrous oxide and sevoflurane and supplementary vecuronium. Inhalation of sevoflurane was controlled to maintain systolic pressure at 80 to 150 mmHg. Immediately after induction of anesthesia, a urinary catheter was inserted and a 22-gauge Teflon catheter was inserted percutaneously into the radial artery to monitor blood

Table 2 Water and electrolyte balance during anesthesia

Group	Control	Treatment	(<i>P</i> value)
Fluid infused during anesthesia (A) (mL)	1987 ± 245	2214 ± 702	0.354
Sodium infused during anesthesia (α) (mEq)	263 ± 31	298 ± 100	0.318
Potassium infused during anesthesia (α') (mEq)	8.1 ± 1.0	9.2 ± 3.2	0.313
Chloride infused during anesthesia (α'') (mEq)	221 ± 26	250 ± 85	0.317
Urine output during anesthesia (B) (mL)	139 ± 89	756 ± 609	0.011
Urinary sodium excretion during anesthesia (β) (mL)	24 ± 15	129 ± 94	0.006
Urinary potassium excretion during anesthesia (β') (mL)	10.5 ± 6.2	20.9 ± 7.5	0.003
Urinary chloride excretion during anesthesia (β'') (mL)	23 ± 11	119 ± 89	0.008
Blood loss during surgery (mL) (C)	346 ± 83	316 ± 64	0.785
Fluid balance [(A)-(B)-(C)] (mL)	1503 ± 299	1142 ± 302	0.013
Sodium balance [(α)-(β)] (mEq)	240 ± 29	169 ± 74	0.016
Potassium balance [(α')-(β')] (mEq)	-2.3 ± 5.7	-11.7 ± 7.8	0.007
Chloride balance [(α'')-(β'')] (mEq)	198 ± 24	131 ± 63	0.009

Values are mean ± SD.

pressure and to provide arterial blood samples for gas analysis. No local anesthetic was administered via the epidural catheter during surgery. Ventilation was controlled to result in an end-tidal carbon dioxide concentration of 30 to 35 mmHg. Ringer's acetate solution was infused at a rate of 10 mL/kg/hr throughout the operation. Blood transfusion was given if necessary.

Beginning just after initiation of surgery, ANP [0.05 μ g/kg/min intravenously (IV)] was infused in saline at 5 mL/hr for 120 minutes in the ANP group, using an infusion pump. Patients in the control group received an equivalent volume of saline vehicle. Arterial blood (10 mL) was sampled eight times: at 0, 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes after starting the operation; at the end of the surgery; and on postoperative days 1 and 3. Blood samples were collected in ice-chilled tubes containing sodium ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid. Other blood samples were taken to measure blood gases and serum electrolyte concentrations. Urine samples were collected at 0, 60, and 120 minute after starting the operation; at the end of the surgery; and on postoperative days 1 and 3. Heart rate and arterial blood pressure were monitored continuously during anesthesia.

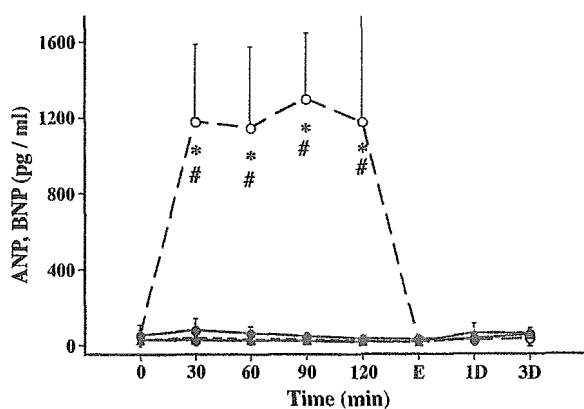


Fig. 2 Changes in the plasma concentrations of atrial (●, ○) and brain (▲, △) natriuretic peptides (ANP and BNP). ● and ▲, control group; ○ and △, treatment group. **P* < 0.05 between groups. #*P* < 0.05 compared to the value at 0 minutes.

Plasma concentrations of α -ANP and human brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) were assessed without extraction, using radioimmunoassays (IR-MA; ShionoRIA ANP and ShionoRIA BNP; Shionogi, Osaka, Japan). Plasma renin activity (PRA) and plasma concentrations of angiotensin II and aldosterone were determined without extraction using radioimmunoassays (PRA and angiotensin II kits, SRL, Tokyo, Japan; and the SPAC-S aldosterone kit, Daiichi Radioisotope Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan). Plasma ADH concentrations were determined by radioimmunoassay after extraction (Yuka AVP RIA, Mitsubishi Kagaku Medical, Tokyo, Japan). Plasma cortisol concentrations were measured by a radioimmunoassay (cortisol kit, TFB, Tokyo, Japan).

Data obtained are expressed as means ± standard deviation. One-way analysis of variance was used to compare control and ANP groups with respect to demographic (age and weight) data, duration of surgery, and sevoflurane dose requirement during anesthetic maintenance. The incidence of preoperative complications was analyzed by Chi-squared tests. Other data were analyzed by two-factor repeated-measures analysis of variance for comparisons of trends over time, followed by Bonferroni's test for comparison of

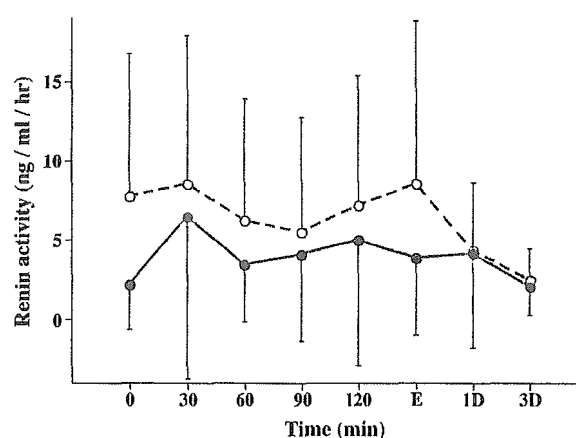


Fig. 3 Changes in rennin activity. ●, control group; ○, treatment group. No significant changes were seen.

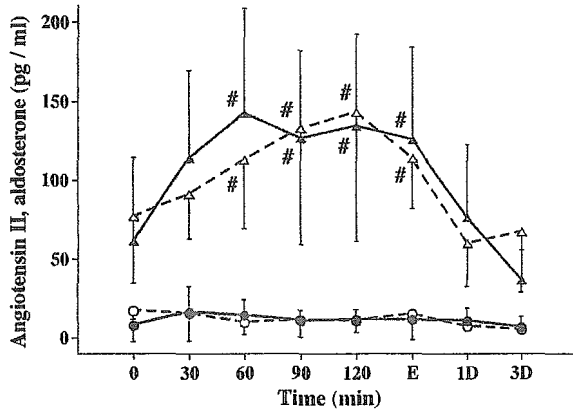


Fig. 4 Changes in the plasma concentrations of angiotensin II (●, ○) and aldosterone (▲, △). ● and ▲, control group; ○ and △, treatment group. # $P < 0.05$ compared to the value at 0 minutes.

time-matched data. Values were considered significantly different when they achieved $P < 0.05$.

3. Results

None of the patients needed blood transfusion or any inotropic drug, and no patient in either group developed any perioperative complication.

No significant differences between groups were noted for age, body weight, complicating preoperative illnesses, duration of surgery, or amount sevoflurane used (Table 1).

The mean arterial systolic blood pressure in the ANP group was lower than that in the control group during the period from 90 minutes after the start of IV infusion to end of the operation (Fig. 1).

The patients of the ANP group excreted more urine and electrolytes, such as sodium, potassium, and chloride, as compared with the patients of the control group (Table 2). Fig. 2 shows changes in ANP and BNP concentrations. Plasma ANP in the ANP group were significantly different

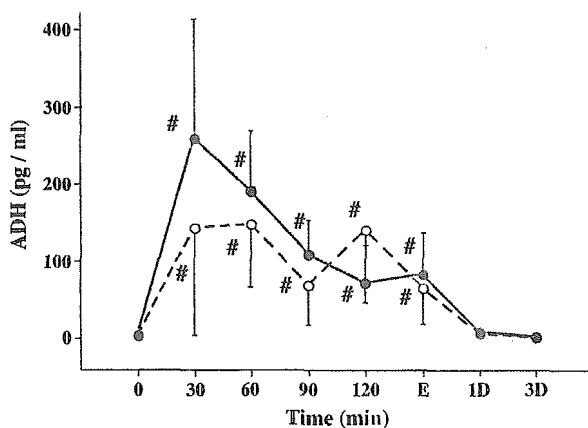


Fig. 5 Changes in the plasma concentration of antidiuretic hormone (ADH). ●, control group; ○, treatment group. # $P < 0.05$ compared to the value at 0 minutes.

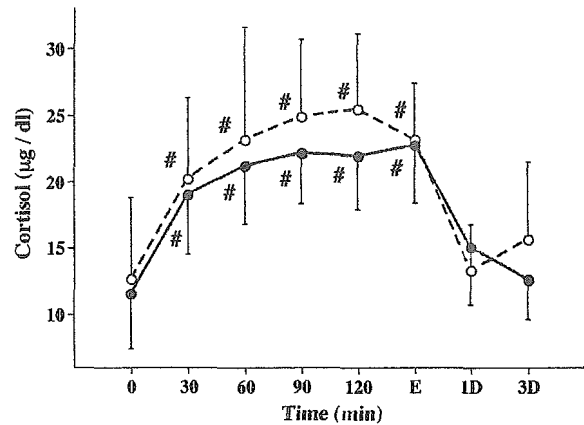


Fig. 6 Changes in the plasma concentration of cortisol. ●, control group; ○, treatment group. # $P < 0.05$ compared to the value at 0 minutes.

from corresponding control group values. The serum BNP concentration did not differ between groups.

Renin activity did not show a significant change in either group during the study period (Fig. 3), nor did the plasma concentration of angiotensin II (Fig. 4). Plasma concentrations of aldosterone were significantly increased from 60 minutes after initiating the infusion to the end of surgery in both groups; however, concentrations did not significantly differ between groups (Fig. 4). Although plasma concentrations of ADH and cortisol were significantly increased from the start of the intravenous infusion to the end of surgery, they did not show significant differences between groups (Figs. 5 and 6).

4. Discussion

Blood pressures in the ANP group were lower than those in the control group from 90 minutes after beginning the infusion to the end of the operation. Atrial natriuretic peptide reduces blood pressure not only by directly relaxing vascular smooth muscle, but also by reducing cardiac output via a decrease in circulating blood volume. Reduced cardiac output may have been the major cause of decreased blood pressure in the ANP group, because no significant differences were evident between groups in the dose of sevoflurane or in intravenous fluid infusion volumes during the operation.

Our study clearly demonstrated that urinary output and electrolyte excretion in the ANP group during gastric surgery were greater than in the control group. Surgical injury activates the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, ADH secretion, ACTH-cortisol system; these are involved in renal vasoconstriction, antidiuresis, and fluid and sodium retention [14,15]. Atrial natriuretic peptide increases salt and water excretion mediated by an increase in the glomerular filtration rate, reduction of tubular sodium reabsorption, and inhibition of the tubular actions of angiotensin II, aldosterone, and ADH [1,2].

Atrial natriuretic peptide infusion at a dose of 0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$ during major surgery reduces blood pressure, causes diuresis and natriuresis, and inhibits the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system. This ANP dose has been reported to require the treatment for excessive bradycardia, hypotension, and hypoxemia in some cases [17]. In normal subjects under no surgical stress, even smaller doses of ANP such as 0.75 $\text{pmol}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$ (i.e., 0.0023 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$) increase renal electrolyte excretion and decrease activity of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system [18]. In our intraoperative study, we used ANP at a dose of 0.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$, which brought about sufficient diuresis and electrolyte excretion without affecting other hormones. Our data suggested that against the background change in the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and other hormones occurring during surgery, little hormone interaction from ANP infused at this low dose could be discerned. Further study is necessary to clarify these issues more fully.

Although this study revealed the usefulness of ANP administration on water and electrolytes managements during surgery, it is necessary to consider the balance between potential benefit of a prophylactic measure and the cost of the intervention because human ANP is more expensive than fluid treatments and standard diuretics. If adequate hydration and normal hemodynamics are maintained, many patients who show intraoperative oliguria do not show postoperative complications. The further study is necessary to solve this issue.

In summary, we demonstrated that ANP infusion at a dose of 0.05 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$, during gastrectomy causes diuresis and electrolyte excretion, with no accompanying changes in other hormones, excessive bradycardia, or hypotension. The results suggest that low-dose ANP administration during surgery is likely to be safe and useful for improving intraoperative water and electrolyte homeostasis.

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tool for brainstem death in patients with brain injury should be done with care.

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DOI: 10.1213/01.ANE.0000141278.95547.D4

Multiple Tracheobronchial Foreign Bodies in an Infant

To the Editor:

Foreign bodies in the upper aerodigestive tract of an infant continue to be a diagnostic and therapeutic challenge (1,2). The initial choking incidents may not be witnessed and delayed symptomatology mimics common respiratory pathology (3). Despite significant advances in endoscopic technology and use of digital subtraction fluoroscopy (DSF) (4), accurate diagnosis is not always easy. A 7-month-old boy with persistent cough underwent diagnostic bronchoscopy. After an inhaled induction of anesthesia, a ventilating bronchoscope with optical forceps (Karl storz-3.5 mm) was introduced after administration of succinylcholine. The pediatric surgeon removed small particles from the right bronchus. However, mask-bag ventilation could not be resumed. Direct laryngoscopy revealed a large whitish substance sitting over the glottis. It was removed with Maggill's forceps, and positive pressure ventilation was instituted. Meanwhile, hemoglobin desaturation occurred, and atropine was administered for bradycardia. The removed particle was identified as a whole-wheat kernel with grains and bristles (Fig. 1). It probably entered by ciliary movement of the bristles. Pediatric bronchoscope provides a narrow view, so a single grain was visualized and extracted. The rest of the kernel was also pulled and obstructed the airway, necessitating subsequent removal to restore spontaneous respiration. Check bronchoscopy ruled out other foreign bodies. Recovery was uneventful. In conclusion, speedy and safe retrieval of tracheobronchial foreign bodies requires a team effort with the anesthesiologist and surgeon working out a technique to prevent life-threatening respiratory sequelae.

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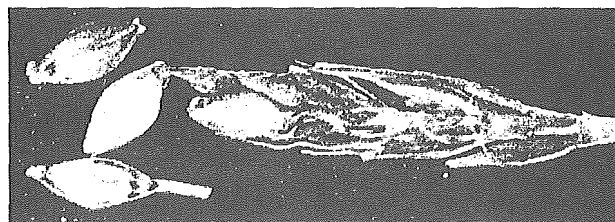


Figure 1. Wheat kernel with grains and bristles: tracheobronchial foreign body in an infant.

Successful Management of Tachycardiac Atrial Fibrillation in a Septic Patient with Landiolol

To the Editor:

In sepsis patients, management of tachycardia accompanied by hypotension is difficult. A 75-year-old man was admitted for urgent laparotomy because of septic peritonitis by superior mesenteric artery obstruction. General anesthesia was induced with propofol 60 mg, fentanyl 0.1 mg, and was maintained with supplementary fentanyl and sevoflurane. Although IV fluid administration and catecholamine infusion were continued from the admission, heart rate (HR) increased to 150 bpm, pulmonary artery pressure (PA) increased to 54 mm Hg, and systolic blood pressure (SBP) decreased to 90 mm Hg after the start of operation. Landiolol was started at the rate of $5 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ for 15 min, and was maintained 2 to $3 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. In 15 min after landiolol infusion, HR and PA decreased and stabilized at around 80 bpm, around 30 mm Hg, respectively (see Fig. 1 on page 295). SBP increased and stabilized at about 120 mm Hg. This case demonstrates that landiolol attenuated the tachycardia-induced low cardiac stroke volume and stabilized the hemodynamics in a patient with sepsis. Landiolol was reported to cause neither excessive hypotension nor cardiac decompression and is thought to be useful for treating tachycardia in sepsis patients (1,2).

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ECG Monitoring Is Essential for Echocardiographic Analysis

To the Editor:

We have read with great interest the case report published by Glas et al. (1), concerning an unusual cause of left ventricular outflow tract obstruction after mitral valve repair diagnosed using transesophageal echocardiography (TEE). Indeed, a such technique would be a precious tool in order to evaluate, in real time, the dynamic working heart in the postsurgical scene.

I was surprised not to see a recorded electrocardiogram (ECG) in the illustrations of the TEE, assuming that Figure 4 in their article was

Unmasking of Brugada Syndrome by an Antiarrhythmic Drug in a Patient with Septic Shock

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Asymptomatic Brugada syndrome patients often display concealed Brugada-type electrocardiogram patterns that result in under-diagnosis of this syndrome. These patients include individuals of both genders and a wide range of ages. They are as likely as non-Brugada patients to have normal longevity or to suffer from a critical illness. Here we report a case of septic shock in

which Brugada-type electrocardiogram patterns were induced by pilsicainide administration for the treatment of atrial fibrillation. This case report suggests that some drugs used in the treatment of septic shock can unmask the Brugada-type electrocardiogram pattern and induce lethal ventricular tachyarrhythmia.

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Brugada syndrome is thought to be a major cause of sudden death and of syncope and idiopathic ventricular tachyarrhythmia in young people with structurally normal hearts (1). However, this syndrome occurs in both genders and all age groups, including infants (2) and the elderly (3), and shows no correlation with the health of the patient. The syndrome is characterized by a right bundle-branch block with ST elevation in leads V1 to V3, as shown by an electrocardiogram (ECG). The Brugada-type ECG can transiently normalize for a period of time leading to an under-diagnosis of the disease (4). Here we report a case of septic shock with undiagnosed asymptomatic Brugada syndrome that was unexpectedly unmasked by an antiarrhythmic drug for atrial fibrillation (AF).

Case Report

An 84-yr-old male patient at the Nippon Medical School, Japan, was suffering from septic shock after aspiration pneumonia. Two months before the incidence of septic shock, a total gastrectomy and partial esophagectomy had been performed to remove the remnants of a previous gastric cancer. A preoperative 12-lead ECG revealed no significant ST-T change (Fig. 1) and an echocardiograph showed no structural abnormalities, with a left ventricular ejection fraction of 65%. The patient had neither a history of syncope nor a

family history of sudden death. Before septic shock, the patient had experienced a loss of appetite for 2 days, accompanied by sudden vomiting.

On the morning after he vomited, the patient was febrile, hypotensive, and hypoxemic, with an oxygen saturation of 86%. He was immediately transferred to the intensive care unit (ICU). The patient was tracheally intubated, and the intratracheal fluid contents were suctioned with bronchoscopy. Despite aggressive IV fluid resuscitation, the patient remained hypotensive. Infusion of dopamine at $10 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and norepinephrine at $0.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ subsequently commenced. After catecholamine administration, his heart rate was 100 to 120 bpm with sinus rhythm. Blood samples taken from the patient and grown in culture revealed *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. Hemoperfusion with polymyxin B-immobilized fibers and continuous hemodiafiltration (CHDF) were performed to treat septic shock with acute renal failure; however, catecholamine administration was still required.

On day 2 in the ICU, the patient developed AF (Fig. 2). We subsequently administered $0.6 \text{ mg}/\text{kg}$ of pilsicainide IV. The AF was converted to sinus rhythm, but the ECG revealed a Brugada-type pattern (Fig. 3). Twelve hours after the administration of pilsicainide, the patient developed ventricular tachycardia (Fig. 4). The serum electrolyte concentrations when the patient showed this ECG pattern and the polymorphic ventricular tachycardia were within normal limits, but the metabolic acidosis was persistent (Table 1). In view of the unmasked characteristic ECG features after administration of pilsicainide IV, the induced ventricular tachyarrhythmia, and the absence of underlying structural heart disease according to echocardiography, the patient was diagnosed with Brugada syndrome. External defibrillation pads were attached to his chest to prevent recurrence of the lethal arrhythmias. The serum creatinine level of the patient was 0.6 to $0.97 \text{ mg}/\text{dL}$ during his time in the ICU. The 12-lead ECG

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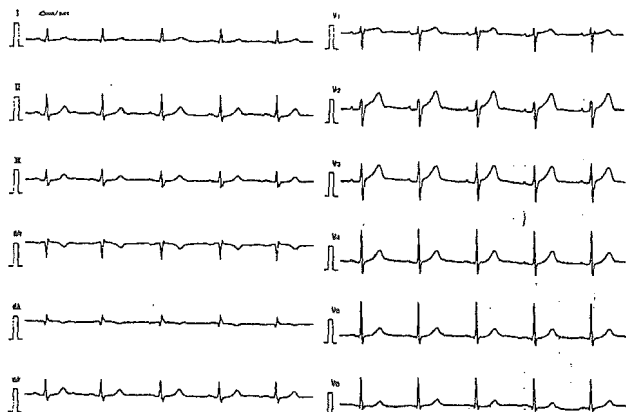


Figure 1. The preoperative electrocardiogram shows sinus rhythm with no significant ST segment elevation.

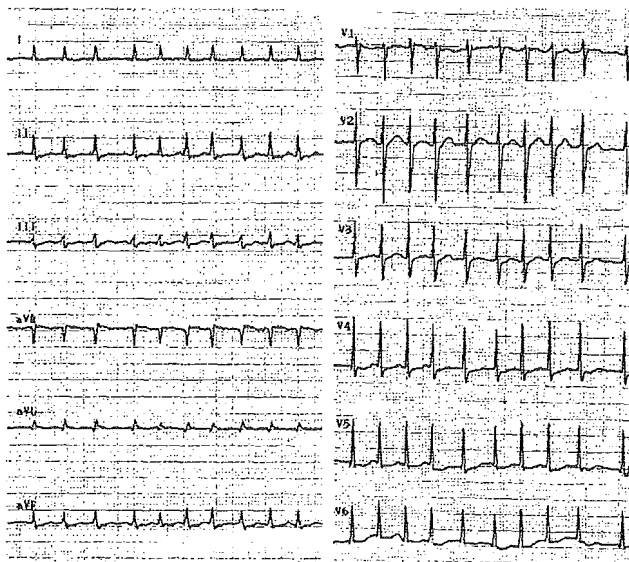


Figure 2. On the second day in the intensive care unit, the patient developed atrial fibrillation.

showed recovery to sinus rhythm after polymorphic ventricular tachycardia, with a Brugada-type pattern (Fig. 5) that persisted 3 days after pilsicainide administration. The creatine kinase isoenzyme MB levels were not increased at 0 and 6 h and the troponin T was not detected (TROPT sensitive™, Roche Diagnostics Inc., Basel, Switzerland) at 0, 12, and 18 h after the recovery to sinus rhythm from AF. Asynergy of the left ventricle was not detected by echocardiography 0 and 12 h after the recovery to sinus rhythm. Unfortunately, the patient died on his fifth day in the ICU as a result of sepsis.

Discussion

A previous study has shown that the incidence of AF increases in critically ill patients who have received significantly more fluids and catecholamines

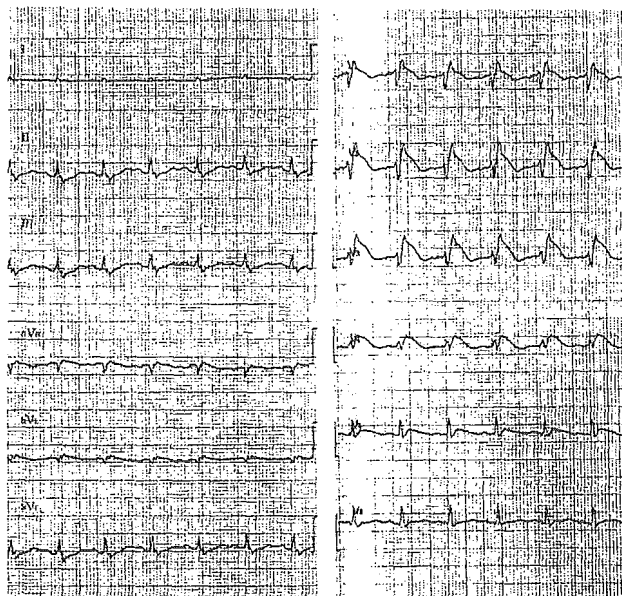


Figure 3. The 12-lead electrocardiogram shows right bundle-branch block and "coved" type ST elevation in leads V1 to V4 (Brugada-type electrocardiogram) after pilsicainide administration.

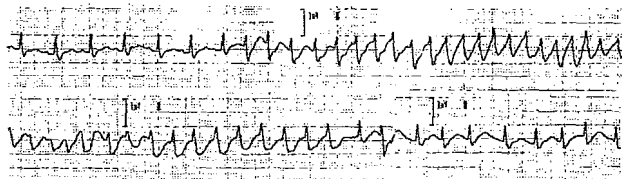


Figure 4. The electrocardiogram 12 h after pilsicainide administration shows polymorphic ventricular tachycardia.

than other patients in an effort to treat septic shock and acute renal failure (5). Therefore, the occurrence of AF in this case was not surprising, as the onset of AF appears to reflect the severity of the critical illness. Moreover, it has been shown that AF occurs in 10% to 39% of all patients with Brugada syndrome (6-8).

Approximately 20%-30% of Brugada patients have mutations in the *SCN5A* gene on chromosome 3 (9). The *SCN5A* gene encodes the α subunit of the human cardiac voltage-gated sodium channel. This disorder can be inherited through autosomal dominant transmission, although there is some degree of genetic heterogeneity. Sodium-channel blockers and an autonomic imbalance have previously been thought to help unmask the Brugada-type ECG. Administration of ajmaline, flecainide, or procainamide accentuates ST segment elevation (1) and assists in the diagnosis of Brugada syndrome (10). Pilsicainide, which is a class IC drug, has been found to induce similar ST segment elevation in

Table 1. Blood Gas Values and Serum Electrolyte Concentrations

	Before ECG	After ECG	After PVT
pH	7.205	7.169	7.26
Pco ₂ (mm Hg)	42.3	40.5	48.6
Po ₂ (mm Hg)	85.5	88.6	85.2
HCO ₃ ⁻ (mmol/L)	17.4	15.4	20.4
BE (mmol/L)	-10.4	-12.8	-5.6
Na ⁺ (mmol/L)	136	137	138
K ⁺ (mmol/L)	4.3	4.3	4.3
Cl ⁻ (mmol/L)	106	107	110
Ca ²⁺ (mmol/L)	1.01	1.01	1.06
Glucose (mg/dL)	76	91	137
Lactate (mg/dL)	151	146	169
Hb (g/dL)	7.8	8	10.1
SaO ₂ (%)	95	95.7	96.5

Before ECG = before the Brugada-type electrocardiogram findings; After ECG = after the Brugada-type electrocardiogram findings; After PVT = immediately after the polymorphic ventricular tachycardia.

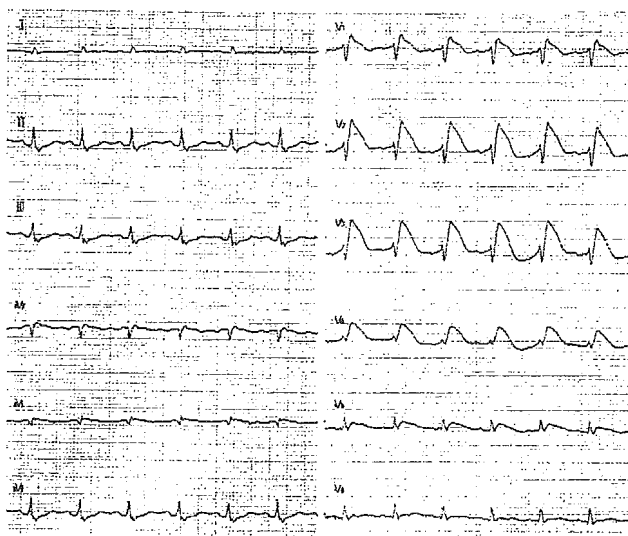


Figure 5. The electrocardiogram after polymorphic ventricular tachycardia shows recovery to sinus rhythm with a Brugada-type pattern.

response to administration of flecainide (11). In patients with severe renal failure, the half-life of elimination for pilsicainide is prolonged to 23.7 hours (12). The elimination and total body clearance of pilsicainide are not always linearly correlated with the creatinine clearance when CHDF is performed. Alpha-adrenergic, but not β -adrenergic, stimulation has been shown to augment the ST segment elevation in Brugada syndrome (13). The Brugada-type ECG might be preserved by continuous IV administration of norepinephrine and/or insufficient clearance of pilsicainide. Although selective stimulation of muscarinic receptors can augment the ST segment, tachycardia alone cannot prevent a

Brugada-type ECG pattern in this situation. The febrile status *per se* might unmask Brugada syndrome (14). The Brugada-like ECG pattern can also be caused by electrolyte disturbance and ketoacidosis (15), but flecainide drug challenge and electrophysiological studies can exclude an underlying Brugada syndrome. If the Brugada-type ECG shows ST elevation during treatment for sepsis and arrhythmias, Brugada syndrome should be considered. If characteristic Brugada-type ECG patterns are observed in the absence of evidence for ischemia or underlying structural heart disease according to echocardiography, the causes of ST-T elevation should be avoided, defibrillation should be available for lethal ventricular tachyarrhythmias, and methods such as dialysis to remove the causative drugs should be considered.

In summary, the drugs used for treating septic shock, such as norepinephrine and antiarrhythmic drugs, might unmask Brugada syndrome. Asymptomatic patients with concealed Brugada-type ECGs might have an increased risk of developing lethal arrhythmia when treated for septic shock, and this might require external defibrillation. We suggest that on recovery from sepsis, the implantation of an internal defibrillator should be considered for these patients.

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FLUID RESUSCITATION WITH HEMOGLOBIN VESICLES IN A RABBIT MODEL OF ACUTE HEMORRHAGIC SHOCK

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ABSTRACT—Several hemoglobin (Hb)-based oxygen carriers are available for use in clinical situations, but their use risks inducing cardiovascular dysfunction as a result of Hb interacting with nitric oxide. Hb vesicles (HbV) are liposome-encapsulated purified human Hb with polyethylene glycol chains at the surface. This study evaluated the effects of HbV on hemodynamics, tissue and systemic oxygenation, and osmotic pressure after fluid resuscitation in an acute hemorrhagic shock model. Hemorrhagic shock was induced in 24 anesthetized mechanically ventilated male rabbits by withdrawing blood to a mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) of 30 to 35 mmHg over 15 min and maintaining this state for 30 min. The animals were resuscitated by replacing the blood with equal volumes of HbV in recombinant human albumin solution (HbV/rHSA), rHSA alone, or Ringer lactated solution (RL), or with three times the withdrawn volume of RL and observed for 2 h. Fluid resuscitation restored MAP, central venous pressure, and cardiac index values, but these fell again within 2 h in rabbits treated with RL. Fluid resuscitation using HbV/rHSA immediately increased MAP and cardiac index but not systemic vascular resistance, maintained a high level of oxygen consumption, and reduced the blood glucose level, which increased after hemorrhage. Fluid resuscitation using HbV/rHSA did not disturb microoxygenation in the brain, kidneys, liver, or muscle; allowed an immediate recovery of tissue oxygenation without decreasing cardiac output or increasing systemic vascular resistance, and increased the oxygen consumption. HbV solution offers the advantages of systemic oxygenation without impairing microcirculation in the treatment of hemorrhagic shock.

KEYWORDS—Encapsulated hemoglobin, hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers, nitric oxide, osmotic pressure, oxygen consumption, tissue oxygenation, vasoconstriction

ABBREVIATIONS—BE, base excess; CI, cardiac index; CVP, central venous pressure; Hb, hemoglobin; HBOC, hemoglobin-based oxygen carrier; HbV, hemoglobin vesicles; MAP, mean arterial blood pressure; NO, nitric oxide; P_{O_2} , oxygen partial pressure; RBC, red blood cell; rHSA, recombinant human albumin solution; RL, Ringer lactated solution; SVR, systemic vascular resistance

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INTRODUCTION

When a patient suffers hemorrhagic shock, fluid resuscitation using extracellular fluid replacement or a plasma substitute is necessary to restore hemodynamics and the transfusion of red blood cells (RBCs). Alternatively, an erythrocyte substitute can be used to restore the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood. The use of artificial oxygen carriers can avoid the need for clinical tests such as blood typing and cross-matching required before transfusion and can avoid some side effects of transfusion (such as transfusion reaction, immunomodulatory reactions including graft-vs.-host disease, and bacterial, viral, and prion infections). In addition, artificial oxygen carriers have longer shelf lives than normal cells and are convenient if an emergency transfusion of RBCs is needed in a patient having massive hemorrhage caused by trauma or surgery.

Fluorocarbon is used as an oxygen carrier because of its gas-dissolving capacity, but ventilation with supplemental oxygen is essential to obtain an adequate level of tissue oxygenation (1). Several hemoglobin (Hb)-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs), including polyhemoglobin (poly-Hb) (2–4), conjugated Hb (5), and liposome-encapsulated Hb (6), are currently being tested in preclinical or clinical trials to evaluate their potential as RBC substitutes in blood loss, and some modified Hbs are

now available for use in the clinic. The side effects of native (7, 8) and some modified Hbs (9) include renal dysfunction and pulmonary hypertension. In animal experiments and clinical trials, HBOCs have caused vasoconstriction, mainly due to nitric oxide (NO) scavenging and, to a lesser extent, reactive vasoconstriction resulting from precapillary oxygen off-loading. The vasopressor response has been attributed to NO scavenged by modified Hbs, which might penetrate the vascular lining (1). Hb vesicles (HbV) have been developed as oxygen carriers and consist of liposome-encapsulated, highly purified Hb. They have a particle size of approximately 250 nm, an Hb concentration of $10 \text{ g} \cdot \text{dL}^{-1}$, and an oxygen affinity, P_{50} , restricted to 32 mmHg (6). The diameter of HbV is larger than those of cross-linked poly-Hb, conjugated Hb, cross-linked Hb, or recombinant Hb, but is small relative to the diameter of microvessels (6, 10).

The effectiveness of tissue oxygenation depends on the level of microcirculation achieved by the oxygen carrier. It is therefore important to establish the efficacy of HBOC in restoring tissue oxygenation and the osmotic pressure of the blood as well as hemodynamics. The aim of the current study was to simultaneously evaluate the initial effects of HbV on hemodynamics, multiple organ oxygenation, and osmotic pressure after fluid resuscitation in a rabbit model of acute hemorrhagic shock.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experiments at Nippon Medical School, Tokyo, Japan. A total of 26 male New Zealand white

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rabbits, aged 12 to 14 weeks and weighing 2.26 ± 0.25 kg (mean \pm SD), were anesthetized and mechanically ventilated during the study. Two animals died within 2 h of fluid resuscitation using Ringer lactate solution (RL) and were excluded from the analysis. One received an infusion of the same volume of RL, whereas the other received three times the volume of RL. The results are reported for the remaining 24 animals.

Anesthesia and surgical preparation

Anesthesia was induced by a bolus injection of ketamine (Ketalar, Sankyo Yell Yakuhin Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan; $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ body weight) intramuscularly, followed by continuous intravenous injection of sodium thiamylal (Isozole, Mitsubishi Pharma Co., Osaka, Japan; $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) via the left ear vein. No muscle relaxants were used. Tracheotomies were performed on the animals, which were mechanically ventilated with oxygen in air (fraction of inspired oxygen = 0.40) in a volume-controlled mode to maintain normocapnia and an arterial pH of around 7.4. The core body temperature was maintained at 38°C using heating blankets. RL was infused perioperatively at $10 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ to maintain normovolemia, as measured by central venous pressure (CVP).

A central venous catheter was inserted from the right internal jugular vein into the right atrium, and both femoral arteries were catheterized to allow measurements of the mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) and the withdrawal of blood to induce hemorrhagic shock. A pulse dye-densitometry probe (DDG-3300, Nihon Kohden Co., Tokyo, Japan) was attached to the base of the tail to measure cardiac output, using indocyanine green infused intravenously. Through a burr hole and a midline laparotomy, four microelectrode sensors (PO2-150M, Eikou Kagaku Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) were inserted into the left cerebral cortex, the right lobe of the liver, and the renal cortex, to measure tissue oxygenation simultaneously. A tissue oxygen microelectrode sensor was also inserted into the muscle of one hind leg. After surgical preparation, the RL infusion was stopped, and baseline measurements were made. Blood gases were analyzed using an ABL 700 (Radiometer A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark), crystalloid osmotic pressure was measured using a vapor pressure osmometer (5520 Vapro, Wescor Inc., Logan, Utah), and colloid osmotic pressure was measured using a 4420 Colloid (Wescor Inc.).

Hemorrhagic shock and fluid resuscitation

Hemorrhagic shock was induced by withdrawing blood to give a MAP of 30 to 35 mmHg and then maintaining this state for 30 min. Animals were resuscitated by infusing the same volume of either HbV (Advanced Research Institute for Science and Engineering, Waseda University) suspended in 5% recombinant human serum albumin (HbV/rHSA), rHSA alone, or RL, or by infusing three times the volume of RL ($3 \times \text{RL}$). Animals were observed over 2 h. Systemic vascular resistance (SVR) was calculated using standard equations based on pressures and flows. Oxygen consumption was calculated using oxygen equilibrium curves measured using rabbit Hb and HbV (Fig. 1).

Formulas for calculated values

SVR and oxygen consumption values were calculated from the measured values. The formulas used were as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SVR} &= 80 (\text{MAP} - \text{CVP})/\text{CO} \\ \dot{V}_{\text{O}_2} &= \text{CI} \times 10 (\text{CaO}_2 - \text{CvO}_2) \\ \text{CO}_2 &= 1.34 (\text{nHbcon} \times \text{nSO}_2 + \text{HbVcon} \times \text{HbVSO}_2) + 0.003 \text{PO}_2 \\ \text{SVR} &= \text{systemic vascular resistance (dyne} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}) \\ \text{MAP} &= \text{mean arterial pressure (mmHg)} \\ \text{CVP} &= \text{central venous pressure (mmHg)} \\ \text{CO} &= \text{cardiac output (L} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}) \\ \text{CI} &= \text{cardiac index (L} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}) \\ \dot{V}_{\text{O}_2} &= \text{oxygen consumption index (mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}) \\ \text{CaO}_2 &= \text{arterial blood oxygen content (mL oxygen per 100 mL blood)} \\ \text{CvO}_2 &= \text{venous blood oxygen content (mL oxygen per 100 mL blood)} \\ \text{nHbcon} &= \text{native (rabbit) Hb concentration (g} \cdot \text{dL}^{-1}) \\ \text{nSO}_2 &= \text{native (rabbit) Hb oxygen saturation (\%)} \\ \text{HbVcon} &= \text{HbV concentration (g} \cdot \text{dL}^{-1}) \\ \text{HbVSO}_2 &= \text{HbV Hb oxygen saturation (\%)} \\ \text{PO}_2 &= \text{oxygen partial pressure (mmHg)} \end{aligned}$$

Statistical analyses

All data are expressed as mean \pm SD. The tissue oxygen partial pressure (PO_2) and blood osmotic pressure values are expressed as percentages of both the absolute levels and the changes relative to baseline. All statistical analyses were performed using Statview version 5.0 for Macintosh software (Abacus Concepts Inc., Berkeley, Calif). Differences between groups were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney *U* test, and differences within groups were analyzed using the Wilcoxon signed rank test, with *P* values less than 0.05 taken as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Baseline measurements of hemodynamic variables were similar for all groups (Table 1). The volumes of blood withdrawn to induce hemorrhagic shock were 22.5 ± 3.7 , 24.7 ± 4.7 , 18.5 ± 4.8 , and $21.4 \pm 7.4 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ for the HbV/rHSA, rHSA, RL, or $3 \times \text{RL}$ groups, respectively; there were no significant differences between these values. Inducing hemorrhagic shock by withdrawing blood reduced CVP and the cardiac index (CI) significantly and tended to increase the SVR. Fluid resuscitation increased MAP, CVP, and CI in all groups, but these values declined again within 2 h in the RL and $3 \times \text{RL}$ groups. Importantly, fluid resuscitation using HbV/rHSA immediately increased MAP and CI without increasing SVR.

Hemorrhagic shock increased the blood lactate level and decreased the arterial base excess (BE). Resuscitation with HbV/rHSA caused a greater decline in blood lactate levels and a greater increase in the arterial BE than resuscitation with RL (Table 2). The drop in the percentage mixed venous blood oxygen saturation recovered after resuscitation using rHSA, but not using RL. Oxygen consumption in the HbV/rHSA group was significantly higher than in the HAS group after fluid resuscitation. In addition, BE was higher, and blood lactate level was lower in the HbV/rHSA group compared with the HSA group, although these differences were not significant.

Colloid osmotic pressure dropped in response to hemorrhagic shock, but recovered after fluid resuscitation with rHSA solution, whereas it dropped further after resuscitation with RL solution (Table 3). Crystalloid osmotic pressure consistently increased after hemorrhagic shock, even after fluid resuscitation, in all groups. The rise in blood glucose level induced by hemorrhagic shock was only reduced by resuscitation with HbV/rHSA. Therefore, the glucose level

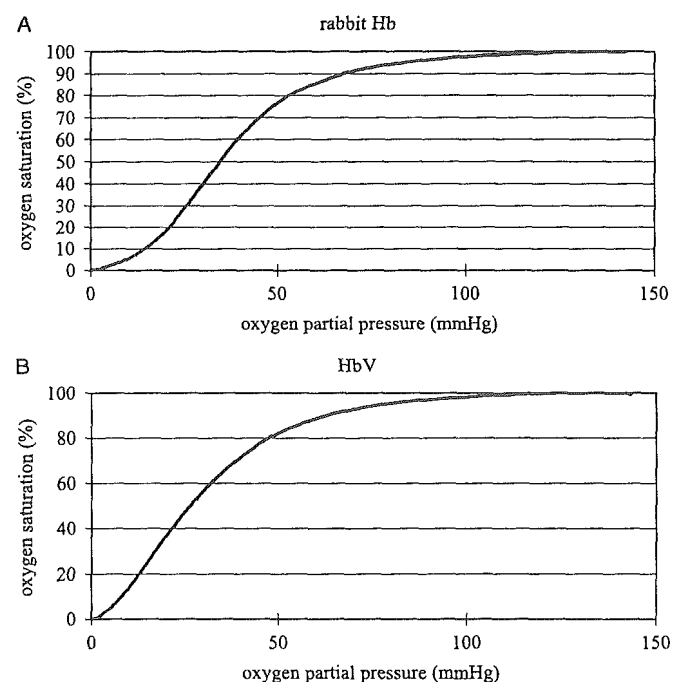


FIG. 1. The oxygen equilibrium curves for (a) rabbit Hb and (b) HbV.

TABLE 1. Hemodynamic variables in New Zealand white rabbits after inducing hemorrhagic shock by withdrawing blood (T1) and stabilization for 30 min (T2)

	Baseline	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
MAP (mmHg)							
HbV/rHSA	85 ± 10	33 ± 1*	43 ± 3*	88 ± 10 [†]	90 ± 16 [†]	90 ± 17 [†]	90 ± 7 [†]
rHSA	89 ± 11	32 ± 3*	36 ± 2*	68 ± 14	76 ± 9 [†]	77 ± 9 [†]	80 ± 9 [†]
RL	78 ± 10	34 ± 1*	41 ± 9*	69 ± 9	56 ± 13*	51 ± 10*	54 ± 20*
3 × RL	80 ± 17	31 ± 3*	38 ± 7*	67 ± 12	62 ± 17	48 ± 20*	46 ± 16*
CVP (mmHg)							
HbV/rHSA	4.5 ± 1.2	3.0 ± 0.9*	2.8 ± 1.5*	5.8 ± 1.5	5.8 ± 1.5	4.2 ± 1.2	4.7 ± 1.2
rHSA	5.2 ± 1.7	3.2 ± 1.2*	3.0 ± 1.3*	5.0 ± 1.7	4.8 ± 1.5	4.7 ± 0.5	4.2 ± 0.8
RL	6.2 ± 1.3	2.7 ± 0.8*	2.8 ± 0.4*	4.7 ± 1.4	4.0 ± 1.7*	3.8 ± 0.8*	3.5 ± 1.0*
3 × RL	4.3 ± 1.0	2.8 ± 1.0*	2.8 ± 1.2*	5.5 ± 0.8	4.8 ± 1.2	3.7 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 1.0*
CI (L · min ⁻¹ · m ⁻²)							
HbV/rHSA	2.9 ± 0.7		1.2 ± 0.4*		2.9 ± 0.2 [†]	3.2 ± 0.8 [†]	2.8 ± 0.4 [†]
rHSA	2.7 ± 0.8		1.0 ± 0.2*		2.7 ± 0.7	2.3 ± 0.5 [†]	2.4 ± 0.6 [†]
RL	2.6 ± 0.9		1.1 ± 0.4*		1.8 ± 0.4	1.3 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.3*
3 × RL	2.9 ± 0.5		1.1 ± 0.2*		2.6 ± 0.9	1.9 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.4*
SVR (dyne · s · cm ⁻⁵)							
HbV/rHSA	1,579 ± 738		1,839 ± 420		1,516 ± 294	1,498 ± 440	1,604 ± 268
rHSA	1,834 ± 494		1,956 ± 394		1,600 ± 569	1,820 ± 549	1,912 ± 655
RL	1,559 ± 564		2,012 ± 695		1,578 ± 509	1,993 ± 587	2,445 ± 1,096
3 × RL	1,575 ± 465		1,868 ± 370		1,374 ± 334	1,420 ± 717	1,848 ± 618

Animals were resuscitated using the same volume of HbV/rHSA, rHSA, or RL, or using 3 × RL, over 15 min (T3). The hemodynamic variables were measured again after 15 min (T4), 1 h (T5), and 2 h (T6). All values are presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).

*Significant difference from baseline ($P < 0.05$).

[†]Significant difference from the RL group ($P < 0.05$).

might not be the main factor influencing the crystalloid osmotic pressure.

Tissue oxygen tensions measured by microelectrode sensors in the brain, kidney, liver, and muscle all dropped simultaneously as a result of hemorrhagic shock (Fig. 2) and recovered after fluid resuscitation. In particular, oxygenation in the brain, kidney, and liver recovered immediately after

resuscitation using HbV/rHSA. Fluid resuscitation using rHSA and HbV/rHSA maintained this restored level of tissue oxygenation for more than 2 h, whereas the tissue oxygenation in the RL and 3 × RL groups fell again within the 2-h study period. Over the 2-h resuscitation period, rHSA and HbV/rHSA showed superior performance to RL and 3 × RL for restoring oxygenation in the brain and kidney.

TABLE 2. Oxygenation and respiratory variables in New Zealand white rabbits after inducing hemorrhagic shock by withdrawing blood and stabilization for 30 min (T2)

	Baseline	T2	T4	T5	T6
BE (mmol · L ⁻¹)					
HbV/rHSA	0.4 ± 1.5	-7.8 ± 2.9*	-3.3 ± 2.3	0.2 ± 2.6 [†]	0.9 ± 2.5 [†]
rHSA	0.3 ± 3.8	-8.4 ± 3.7*	-6.7 ± 4.3*	-0.9 ± 3.5	-0.7 ± 2.8
RL	0.9 ± 3.8	-7.7 ± 2.8*	-6.2 ± 3.3*	-4.2 ± 4.2*	-5.7 ± 5.2*
3 × RL	-0.9 ± 2.2	-8.4 ± 3.7*	-9.1 ± 6.3*	-8.9 ± 9.3*	-10.2 ± 9.1*
Blood lactate (mg · dL ⁻¹)					
HbV/rHSA	29.2 ± 16.3	89.3 ± 28.8*	51.0 ± 17.3 [†]	26.0 ± 11.5 [†]	25.7 ± 11.7 [†]
rHSA	25.2 ± 8.8	93.2 ± 44.4*	67.7 ± 39.6*	45.5 ± 25.5	41.2 ± 27.9
RL	33.0 ± 14.1	91.0 ± 16.6*	79.7 ± 16.2*	72.2 ± 24.6*	81.5 ± 37.3*
3 × RL	40.9 ± 27.3	103.8 ± 43.1*	111.0 ± 37.2*	94.8 ± 35.8*	107.3 ± 37.8*
Mixed venous blood oxygen saturation (%)					
HbV/rHSA	68 ± 9	39 ± 8*	62 ± 13	74 ± 11 [†]	66 ± 8 [†]
rHSA	67 ± 18	49 ± 10*	58 ± 11	64 ± 5 [†]	63 ± 4 [†]
RL	71 ± 14	50 ± 14*	51 ± 19	43 ± 12*	39 ± 11*
3 × RL	68 ± 9	38 ± 14*	61 ± 23	45 ± 17*	58 ± 25
Oxygen consumption (mL · min ⁻¹ · m ⁻²)					
HbV/rHSA	146 ± 64	83 ± 29*	154 ± 45 [†]	122 ± 21 [†]	148 ± 31 [†]
rHSA	124 ± 46	55 ± 19*	103 ± 32	77 ± 9	84 ± 16
RL	113 ± 22	72 ± 36*	97 ± 16	84 ± 6*	79 ± 10*
3 × RL	130 ± 55	82 ± 21*	82 ± 23*	106 ± 30	57 ± 27*

Animals were resuscitated using the same volume of HbV/rHSA, rHSA, or RL, or using 3 × RL over 15 min. Observations were made 15 min (T4), 1 h (T5), and 2 h (T6) after the fluid resuscitation. All values are presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).

*Significant difference from baseline ($P < 0.05$).

[†]Significant difference from the RL group ($P < 0.05$).

TABLE 3. Osmotic pressures and blood glucose levels in New Zealand white rabbits after inducing hemorrhagic shock by withdrawing blood and stabilization for 30 min (T2)

	Baseline	T2	T4	T5	T6
Colloid osmotic pressure (mmHg)					
HbV/rHSA	14.0 ± 0.9	11.9 ± 1.1*	13.5 ± 1.0 [†]	14.0 ± 1.1 [†]	14.0 ± 0.9 [†]
rHSA	13.6 ± 1.5	10.2 ± 0.9*	11.9 ± 1.9 [†]	12.4 ± 1.3 [†]	12.9 ± 1.3 [†]
RL	13.5 ± 1.9	11.0 ± 1.2*	9.8 ± 1.5*	9.9 ± 1.1*	10.1 ± 1.2*
3 × RL	13.6 ± 1.2	10.9 ± 1.9*	8.1 ± 1.5* [†]	8.7 ± 1.9*	9.1 ± 1.8*
Crystalloid osmotic pressure (mmol · kg ⁻¹)					
HbV/rHSA	288 ± 5	299 ± 4*	300 ± 7*	297 ± 5*	299 ± 4*
rHSA	291 ± 9	299 ± 11*	301 ± 11*	299 ± 5*	298 ± 4*
RL	287 ± 9	299 ± 11*	297 ± 10*	299 ± 10*	301 ± 10*
3 × RL	292 ± 7	302 ± 11*	297 ± 7*	298 ± 9	303 ± 9*
Blood glucose level (mg · dL ⁻¹)					
HbV/rHSA	216 ± 58	416 ± 135*	382 ± 134*	308 ± 151	238 ± 129 [†]
rHSA	212 ± 37	447 ± 61*	404 ± 77*	363 ± 122*	312 ± 156
RL	196 ± 49	400 ± 110*	358 ± 78*	390 ± 93*	393 ± 99*
3 × RL	196 ± 36	393 ± 120*	294 ± 85*	352 ± 118*	372 ± 80*

Animals were resuscitated using the same volume of HbV/rHSA, rHSA, or RL, or using 3 × RL over 15 min. Further measurements were made after 15 min (T4), 1 h (T5), and 2 h (T6). All values are presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).

*Significant difference from baseline ($P < 0.05$).

[†]Significant difference from the RL group ($P < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

The delivery of oxygen is the primary function of HBOCs. When they are administered to hemorrhagic patients, their purpose is to restore oxygen utilization at the microcirculatory level and to normalize cell and organ function. However, some HBOCs were withdrawn from clinical development because their undesirable side effects led to increased morbidity and mortality. The main reason for their failure in basic and clinical studies was their interaction with NO, which resulted in vasoconstriction and subsequent pathophysiological events, ultimately leading to multiple organ failure (1).

The vasoactivity of HBOCs is attributed to their ability to scavenge NO (11–13), to facilitate the diffusion of oxygen and thus its autoregulation (14), and to exert a direct pharmacological effect on smooth muscle mediated by the formation of oxygen-free radicals as the molecules extravasate and by the release of heme in the interstitium (15). However, it has been reported that, although even a small volume was effective as a resuscitation fluid in response to hemorrhagic shock, the HBOC tested did not improve mortality levels and caused acidosis (16). A variety of chemical modifications of the Hb molecule has been developed in attempts to reduce the toxicity of HBOCs (17). Some HBOCs that blunt vasoactivity can be used in a clinical situation. Pyridoxalated glutaraldehyde cross-linked polymerized human Hb is at an advanced stage of phase III clinical trials (18), whereas glutaraldehyde cross-linked bovine poly-Hb has been approved for routine clinical applications in South Africa (19). However, the segmental hydraulic vascular resistance across the microcirculation was consistently above the control levels for cross-linked Hb and polymerized bovine Hb (20). Furthermore, poly-Hb lacks some of the functions of RBCs required for certain clinical conditions (21).

Our results showed that fluid resuscitation using HbV did not impair the microcirculation and microoxygenation and improved oxygen consumption and CI compared with fluid

resuscitation using rHSA alone. These findings suggest that using HbV initially might be advantageous in patients having massive hemorrhages, although they cast doubt on the coagulation influence that has been suggested previously (22). Encapsulated Hb, which is one of the next generation of HBOCs, includes some RBC enzymes (23) and is permeable to glucose and other small hydrophilic molecules. In the future, encapsulated recombinant Hb, which was prepared by Hoffman et al. (24) and developed to prevent vasoactivation (25), might be used in a clinical setting. HbV have a lower colloidal osmotic pressure that can be controlled, to some extent, by the solvent used. If a large volume of HbV solution is administered to resuscitate hemorrhagic shock patients, HbV should be suspended in an adequately colloidal solution, such as 5% albumin solution, to simultaneously provide plasma expansion and oxygen-carrying capacity.

Another potential problem for HbV is their metabolism in the reticuloendothelial system and the transient increase in transaminases (26). By contrast, polyethylene glycol is biodegraded in the body into water and carbon dioxide. HbV have the potential to replace most of the RBCs and are effective for the treatment of massive hemorrhages in rats (27, 28), maintaining both microcirculation and microoxygenation. These preliminary results warrant future studies of the safety of HbV for organ functions, including the liver.

Our study period was shorter than those used in previous investigations, as a longer observation period was expected to increase mortality in the RL and 3 × RL groups. Recently, it has been suggested that some HBOC may offer anti-immunoinflammatory effects, reducing the risk of postinjury multiple organ failure (29). An investigation of the effects of HBOCs on long-term mortality after hemorrhagic shock would be of interest in developing a less invasive procedure for the treatment of organ failure.

In summary, fluid resuscitation using HbV solution increased oxygen consumption without impairing microoxygenation or CI in anesthetized rabbits with controlled

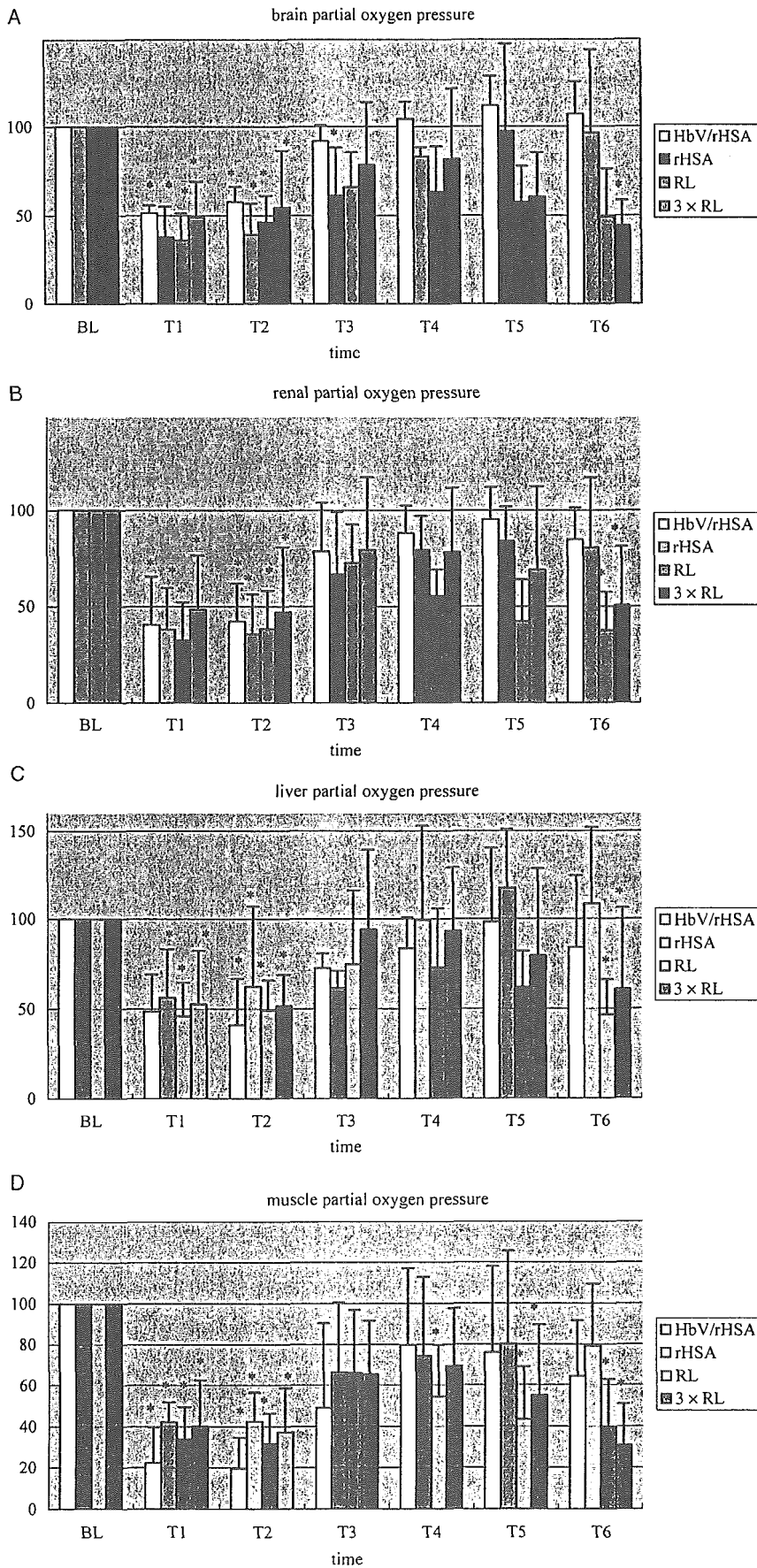


FIG. 2 Tissue PO₂ values in (a) brain, (b) kidney, (c) liver, and (d) muscle were measured simultaneously using microelectrode sensors at baseline (BL), after inducing hemorrhagic shock by withdrawing blood (T1) and after stabilization for 30 min (T2). Animals were resuscitated using the same volume of HbV/rHSA, rHSA, or RL, or using 3 × RL over 15 min (T3). Further measurements were taken 15 min (T4), 1 h (T5), and 2 h (T6) after fluid resuscitation. *Significant difference from BL ($P < 0.05$). †Significant difference from the RL group ($P < 0.05$). All values are presented as mean ± SD.

hemorrhagic shock. The use of HSA solution for hemorrhagic shock was shown to improve colloid osmotic pressure and preserve the improvement in hemodynamics for at least 2 h without death. Furthermore, BE was increased, and blood lactate level was decreased by the immediate use of HbV solution. The prognosis of uncontrolled hemorrhagic shock patients after fluid resuscitation with high volumes of HbV solution but no supplementation with coagulation factors remains an open question. Future studies must take this into account when selecting subjects and clinical situations.

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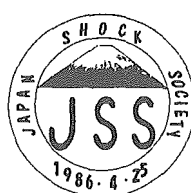
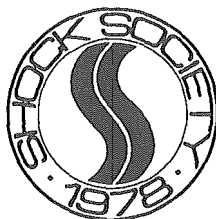
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Plasma Matrix Metalloproteinase-8 Concentrations are Associated With the Presence and Severity of Coronary Artery Disease

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Background Interstitial collagen, especially type I, is a major component of atherosclerotic plaques and the matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) 1, 8 and 13 can initiate collagen breakdown. MMP-8 degrades type I collagen preferentially and more potently than MMP-1 or MMP-13. Although MMP-8 was thought to be produced only by neutrophils, it was recently reported to also be produced by endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells and macrophages in plaques.

Methods and Results Plasma MMP-8 concentrations were measured in 250 patients undergoing coronary angiography for coronary artery disease (CAD: >50% stenosis), which was found in 181 patients, of whom 69 had 1-vessel, 66 had 2-vessel, and 46 had 3-vessel disease. Compared with 69 patients without CAD, the 181 with CAD had higher MMP-8 concentrations (3.5 vs 3.0 ng/ml, $p < 0.001$). There was a stepwise increase in MMP-8 concentration depending on the number of stenotic vessels: 3.2 in 1-vessel, 3.6 in 2-vessel, and 4.3 ng/ml in 3-vessel disease ($p < 0.001$). Multivariate analysis showed that MMP-8 concentration was independently associated with CAD. The odds ratio for CAD was 1.22 (95% confidence interval = 1.07–1.39) for a 1 ng/ml increase in MMP-8 concentration.

Conclusions Plasma MMP-8 concentration is associated with the presence and severity of CAD. (*Circ J* 2005; 69: 1035–1040)

Key Words: Atherosclerosis; Coronary artery disease; Metalloproteinase

Interstitial collagen, especially type I, is a major component of atherosclerotic plaques^{1–3} and although collagen synthesis is generally upregulated in atherosclerotic plaques³ it is the balance between collagen synthesis and breakdown that is important for plaque growth, plaque vulnerability, and vascular remodeling^{4–6}. The matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) 1, 8 and 13 initiate the collagen breakdown⁷ and MMP-8 in particular degrades type I collagen preferentially and more potently than MMP-1 or MMP-13^{8,9}. However, MMP-8, known as neutrophil collagenase, was previously thought to be produced only by neutrophils, which are not commonly present in plaques, but recently, it has been found that endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, and macrophages in atherosclerotic plaques express and produce MMP-8¹⁰. Therefore, the present study aimed to elucidate whether or not plasma MMP-8 concentrations are associated with the presence and severity of coronary artery disease (CAD).

Methods

Study Patients

We measured the plasma MMP-8 concentration in 250 consecutive patients (mean age 65 ± 8 years, range 40–80) who underwent elective coronary angiography for suspected CAD at the National Defense Medical College Hospital. Patients with myocardial infarction within the past 6 months, those with unstable angina at rest within the past 48 h, or those with a history of percutaneous coronary intervention or coronary artery bypass surgery were excluded, as were those with heart failure, cardiomyopathy or valvular heart disease.

Hypertension was defined as blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg or on relevant medication (122 (49%) patients); hyperlipidemia was defined as total cholesterol > 240 mg/dl or relevant medication (65 (26%) patients taking statins); diabetes mellitus was defined as fasting plasma glucose ≥ 126 mg/dl or on insulin or hypoglycemic drugs.

Our study was approved by the institutional Ethics Committee. After giving written informed consent, each patient had a fasting blood sample taken on the morning of the day that angiography was performed.

Plasma MMP-8 Measurement

Blood samples were collected in EDTA-containing tubes and the plasma was stored at -80°C . Plasma MMP-8 concentrations were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using a commercially available kit (MMP-8 Human Biotrak ELISA System, Amersham

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Table 1 Clinical Characteristics of Patients With and Without Coronary Artery Disease (CAD)

	CAD (n=181)	CAD (-) (n=69)	p value
Age (years)	66±8	63±9	<0.001
Male	145 (80%)	43 (62%)	<0.01
Hypertension	124 (69%)	40 (58%)	NS*
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	138±19	132±15	<0.02
Hyperlipidemia	79 (44%)	23 (33%)	NS
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	204±33	206±29	NS
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	123±24	127±29	NS
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	49±15	58±15	<0.001
Low HDL-cholesterol (<40 mg/dl)	61 (34%)	10 (14%)	<0.005
Diabetes mellitus	64 (35%)	13 (19%)	<0.025
Smoking (≥5 cigarettes/day)	116 (64%)	37 (54%)	NS
Plasma hsCRP (mg/L)	0.70	0.56	<0.05
Plasma MMP-8 (ng/ml)	3.5	3.0	<0.001

LDL, low density lipoprotein; HDL, high density lipoprotein; hsCRP, high-specificity C-reactive protein; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase.

Data are as the mean value ±SD or the number (%) of patients. Plasma hsCRP and MMP-8 concentration are the median value.

Table 2 Comparison Between Patients With Coronary Artery Disease (CAD) and Age- and Gender-Matched Controls

	CAD (n=181)	CAD (-) (n=50)	p value
Age (years)	66±8	66±8	NS
Male	145 (80%)	40 (80%)	NS
Hypertension	124 (69%)	31 (62%)	NS
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	138±19	134±14	NS
Hyperlipidemia	79 (44%)	16 (32%)	NS
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	204±33	203±29	NS
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	121±26	127±29	NS
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	49±15	57±15	<0.001
Low HDL-cholesterol (<40 mg/dl)	61 (34%)	7 (14%)	<0.025
Diabetes mellitus	64 (35%)	10 (20%)	NS
Smoking (≥5 cigarettes/day)	116 (64%)	34 (68%)	NS
hsCRP (mg/L)	0.70	0.60	NS
MMP-8 (ng/ml)	3.5	3.1	<0.01

LDL, low density lipoprotein; HDL, high density lipoprotein; hsCRP, high-specificity C-reactive protein; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase.

Data are the mean value ±SD or the number (%) of patients. Plasma hsCRP and MMP-8 concentrations are the median value.

Biosciences, UK), which has been developed from the method of Matsuki et al¹¹ and which measures the total concentration of both the precursor and active forms of MMP-8 in the plasma. It is a highly specific assay that does not cross-react with MMP-1, -2, -3, -9, -13 or MT1-MMP. All samples were measured in duplicate, and results were averaged. The range of values detected by this assay was 2.5–40 ng/ml and the intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation values were 2.5% and 4.8%, respectively. Plasma concentrations of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) were also measured by BNII nephelometer (Dade Behring, Japan) and serum lipid concentrations were measured by standard laboratory methods.

Coronary Angiography

Coronary angiography used the Judkins technique and a cineangiogram system (Toshiba, Japan). All coronary angiograms were evaluated by one of the researchers (Y. M.) who was unaware of the MMP-8 data. CAD was defined as at least 1 coronary artery with >50% luminal diameter stenosis. The severity of CAD was defined as the numbers of both vessels and segments with >50% stenosis, as well as the severity score of stenosis. The degree of each segment was scored from 0 to 4 points (0, =25%; 1, 26–50%; 2, 51–75%; 3, 76–90%; 4, >90% stenosis), and the severity score of stenosis was defined as the sum of the

scores of all segments. Coronary artery segments were defined according to the CASS classification. Moreover, according to Ambrose's classification of lesion morphology,¹² coronary artery lesions were classified as simple if they had concentric or eccentric smooth borders, and complex if they had sharp overhanging edges, irregular borders or intraluminal lucency.

Statistical Analysis

Any differences between 2 groups were evaluated by unpaired t-test for parametric variables, by Mann-Whitney U test for nonparametric variables, and by chi-square test for categorical variables. Differences among 3 or more groups were evaluated by ANOVA with Scheffe's test for parametric variables, by Kruskal-Wallis test for nonparametric variables, and by chi-square test for categorical variables. Correlations between plasma MMP-8 levels and the severity of CAD or other factors were evaluated by Spearman's rank correlation test. A forward stepwise multiple logistic regression analysis was used to elucidate the association between MMP-8 concentration and CAD. A p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Results are presented as the mean value ±SD. Because the distributions of the measured MMP-8 and hsCRP concentrations were highly skewed, the results are presented as the median value.