Mechanisms of tissue hypercarbia in sepsis

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1. ABSTRACT

Intramucosal acidosis, that it is to say, an increased intramucosal-arterial PCO2 difference, is a common finding in clinical and experimental sepsis. Nevertheless, the physiologic significance of increases in tissue PCO_2 is controversial, since CO_2 can be generated by both aerobic and anaerobic biochemical processes. PCO₂ can rise after buffering of protons produced in the hydrolysis of high-energy phosphate compounds by bicarbonate, or after the anaerobic production of acids, like lactate. In this case, it could represent tissue dysoxia. Alternatively, an increase in tissue PCO₂ could denote hypoperfusion and diminished removal of the CO₂ produced during the oxidation of pyruvate. In this last situation, aerobic metabolism might be preserved. In the present review, we discuss the physiologic mechanisms that determine tissue and venous hypercarbia during the three classic forms of hypoxia: stagnant, hypoxic and anemic hypoxia. The results of experimental studies suggest that tissue minus arterial and venoarterial PCO₂ gradients primarily reflect alterations in tissue perfusion. These conclusions are further confirmed by a mathematical model of CO₂ transport. In sepsis, however, tissue hypercarbia might develop despite normal or high cardiac output. This phenomenon has been initially interpreted as secondary to alterations in energetic metabolism, the so-called cytopathic hypoxia. Yet, new evidences show that the underlying mechanism to tissue hypercarbia in sepsis might be due to severe microcirculatory derangements. In summary, experimental results support the hypothesis that increases in tissue and venous CO_2 are insensitive markers of tissue dysoxia, and merely reflect vascular hypoperfusion.

2. INTRODUCTION

Almost fifty years ago in Hungary, Boda and Muranyi developed gastric tonometry as a method to approximate arterial PCO₂ in intubated, mechanically ventilated children with polio (1). These investigators advanced a latex balloon into the stomach and filled it with air. After an equilibration time of approximately 2 hours, infrared measurement of CO₂ were performed in more than 400 ventilated patients, together with CO₂ determinations in expired air. These observations made them conclude that "the CO₂ tension of arterial blood could be estimated with reasonable accuracy" from gastric CO₂. Nevertheless, they underscored that "gastric PCO₂ may be misleadingly high in severe shock accompanied by an excessive slowing of the circulation." This landmark observation was overlooked until the 1980s, when Fiddian-Green et al. (2) introduced the notion that the pH of the gut mucosa could be calculated by sampling gastric CO₂. These investigators based their hypothesis on three assumptions: (1) CO₂ diffuses freely in tissue, (2) PCO_2 in the luminal fluid is in equilibrium with the mucosal PCO2, and (3) arterial bicarbonate concentration ([HCO₃]) equals intestinal mucosal bicarbonate. Given these assumptions, the application of the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation allows the calculation of the intramucosal pH (pHi):

 $pHi = 6.1 + \log ([HCO_3]/\alpha.tonometer PCO_2)$

where α represents the solubility of CO₂ in plasma ($\alpha = 0.03$). The assumptions underlying the calculation of pHi, particularly the equivalence between mucosal and arterial blood bicarbonate, held surprisingly well. Intestinal ischemia, in which mucosal bicarbonate may be

significantly lower than arterial bicarbonate, was a notable exception. Under these conditions, the absolute decrease in tonometric pHi underestimates local pHi, although the change in the signal intensity may still serve as a useful clinical warning (3).

Another problem arises in the interpretation of low mucosal pHi in the presence of systemic acidosis. In this situation, low pHi probably does not suggest local tissue hypoxia but reflects instead low arterial pH. Because of these potential drawbacks in the interpretation of pHi, many investigators currently favor the use of the intramucosal-arterial PCO₂ difference (Δ PCO₂) (4).

The development of gastrointestinal tonometry was an important step in the monitoring of tissue dysoxia. It rapidly became a useful tool in basic research. In addition, and for the first time, a regional parameter was used to detect and to treat hypoperfusion.

From an experimental point of view, tonometry adequately tracks intramucosal acidosis (3), that it to say, the increase in ΔPCO_2 . Likewise, the increase in ΔPCO_2 is better than other systemic and intestinal variables to show tissue hypoperfusion, both in normal volunteers (5) and experimental models (6). Intramucosal acidosis is a sensitive predictor of gastric (7) and colonic mucosal ischemia (8). Furthermore, gastric tonometry is an insightful predictor of outcome. This usefulness has been shown in postoperative (9) critically ill (10), septic (11) and shock patients (12). Gastric tonometry might be also used to assess the effect of vasoactive drugs (13, 14). Finally, pHi has been evaluated as a guide of resuscitation. Gutierrez et al. demonstrated in a randomized controlled trial that pHi-guided therapy could decrease mortality in critically ill patients (15).

Despite of having been the only clinically available approach to tissue perfusion during many years, and of the scientific evidence supporting its usefulness, gastrointestinal tonometry is not commonly used. Different reasons might explain this issue. Saline tonometry has a poor reproducibility (16), which has been improved by the use of air tonometry (17). Sublingual capnometry remains an attractive approach (18), but this technique has not been adequately validated yet.

Another source of uncertainty lies in the true significance of ΔPCO_2 elevation. In the last few years, new evidence allowed a better understanding of the mechanisms underlying intramucosal acidosis. In this review, we will discuss the pathophysiology of tissue and venous CO_2 accumulation in shock states, particularly in septic shock.

3. MECHANISMS OF INCREASE OF VENOUS AND TISSUE PCO₂

Increased mucosal intestinal PCO₂ is used to detect tissue dysoxia, a condition in which O₂ delivery (DO₂) can no longer sustain O₂ uptake (VO₂) (19). Twenty years ago, Grum *et al.* (20) evaluated the adequacy of gut oxygenation by the tonometric measurement of pHi, during

oxygen transport reductions secondary to ischemia, hypoxemia, or a combination of both. pHi only decreased after critical reductions of DO₂. Consequently, changes of VO₂ and pHi were closely correlated (Figure 1). The authors concluded that pHi appears to be a sensitive indicator of tissue oxygenation, because it mirrors tissue VO₂ consumption. Nevertheless, critical DO₂ was only reached in ischemic experiments. In pure hypoxemic experiments, neither pHi nor VO₂ fell.

 PCO_2 can increase in the intestinal lumen by two mechanisms (21): first, by bicarbonate buffering of the protons generated during the breakdown of high-energy phosphates and strong acids, in which case increased PCO_2 would represent tissue dysoxia. Alternatively, in an aerobic state, PCO_2 might increase after hypoperfusion and decreased washout. In this case, oxygen metabolism would be preserved.

Trying to solve this controversy, Schlichtig and Bowles (21) presented evidence supporting intramucosal PCO₂ as a marker of dysoxia in extreme hypoperfusion, when VO_2 falls. In a dog model of cardiac tamponade, they demonstrated that below critical DO2 mucosal PCO2 could rise because of anaerobic production of CO₂ This conclusion was drawn using the Dill nomogram, which can theoretically detect anaerobic CO2 production from the comparison of the measured (%HbO2v) vs. calculated (%HbO2vDILL) venous oxyhemoglobin, within a given value of venous PCO2. As venous PCO2 is considered representative of tissue PCO2, they made the calculation with its intestinal equivalent, intramucosal PCO2. Similar values of measured (%HbO2v) vs. calculated (%HbO2vDILL) venous oxyhemoglobin would represent aerobic CO2 generation. If %HbO2vDILL is lower than measured %HbO2v, anaerobic production of CO2 might be assumed. Using this approach, we identified an anaerobic source of gut intramucosal CO2 during a hemorrhage of moderate degree (6). Our %HbO2vDILL values obtained from gastric, jejunal and ileal mucosal PCO2 became remarkably negative during ischemia, indicating an anaerobic process in course (Figure 2). Notwithstanding the original contribution of Schlichtig and Bowles (21) to the analysis of these topics, the use of low flow to produce critical oxygen delivery and decrease oxygen uptake might act as a potential confounder, given the impossibility of dissociating tissue dysoxia from hypoperfusion (22).

Vallet *et al.* (23) explored this issue by measuring venous PCO_2 in isolated dog hindlimb preparations subjected to comparable decreases in DO_2 , produced by two mechanisms. In one group, blood flow was progressively decreased (ischemic hypoxia), whereas in the other, arterial PO_2 was lowered at constant perfusion flow (hypoxic hypoxia). Both experienced similar declines in DO_2 and VO_2 , implying similar degrees of tissue dysoxia (24). The venoarterial PCO_2 difference, however, remained constant in the hypoxic hypoxia group, and increased more than twofold in the ischemic hypoxia group. Vallet *et al.* concluded that it was flow, not tissue dysoxia, the major



Figure 1. Panel A. Intestinal intramucosal pH as a function of O2 delivery. Panel B. Intestinal intramucosal pH as a function of intestinal O2 consumption (Reproduced from reference 16 with permission). Reductions of intramucosal pH are only present with critical reductions of O2 delivery.



Figure 2. Measured venous oxygen saturation (%HbO_{2v}) (\Box) and venous oxygen saturation calculated from gut tissue PCO₂ (%HbO_{2v}^{DILL}) (•) as a function of superior mesenterio artery blood flow. Since %HbO_{2v}^{DILL} is lower than measured %HbO_{2v}, anaerobic production of CO₂ might be assumed (Reproduced from reference 4 with permission).

determinant of venoarterial PCO2 difference (23) (Figure 3).

Nevière *et al.* assessed a similar hypothesis in pigs, comparing the effects of reduced inspired oxygen fraction (FiO₂) and decreased blood flow measured with laser-Doppler (25). In ischemic hypoxia, ΔPCO_2 rose to 60 mm Hg. In hypoxic hypoxia, in which mucosal blood flow was maintained constant, ΔPCO_2 increase to 30 mmHg only with the lowest FiO₂ (0.06). The authors concluded that intramucosal PCO₂ elevation denoted local CO₂ generation. Some flow heterogeneity, however could have been present in their experiments not assessed by laser-Doppler, a method that only tracks global microvascular changes. In addition, in the two preceding steps of FiO₂ reductions, VO₂/DO₂ dependency had been reached, and ΔPCO_2 remained unchanged.

We further explored this issue in another model of hypoxic hypoxia (26). In these experiments, venous and tissue PCO₂ increased during ischemic hypoxia, but not during hypoxic hypoxia. Therefore, ΔPCO_2 was unable to show the presence of tissue dysoxia during hypoxic hypoxia, in which blood flow is preserved (Figure 4). To confirm that blood flow is the main determinant of ΔPCO_2 , we studied these relationships in another model of tissue dysoxia without hypoperfusion, anemic hypoxia (27) (Figure 4). We compared the effects of progressive bleeding with those of isovolemic exchange of blood with dextran. Our goals were to evaluate the behavior of CO₂ gradients as a function of systemic and intestinal blood flow, and also its other determinants, like CO₂ production and CO2Hb dissociation curve. Tissue-arterial and venoarterial PCO₂ failed to reflect the dependence of VO₂ on DO2. Nevertheless, these gradients increased few mmHg (Figures 4 and 5). Conversely, venoarterial CO_2 content differences decreased. This apparent paradox might be explained by changes in the CO₂Hb dissociation curve (Figure 6). The other determinant of PCO₂ differences, the CO2 production remained unchanged, both at systemic and intestinal level. The systemic and intestinal respiratory quotient, however, increased because of VO2 reductions (Figure 7).

In summary, our results (26, 27), together with those of Vallet et al. (23) support that increases in tissuearterial and venoarterial PCO2 gradients reflect only microcirculatory stagnation, and not tissue dysoxia. Tissue and venous PCO2 are insensitive markers of dysoxia and merely might reflect hypoperfusion. These experimental findings were confirmed by a mathematical model (28). Gutierrez developed a two-compartment mass transport model of tissue CO₂ exchange during hypoxic hypoxia conditions, to examine the relative contributions of blood flow and cellular dysoxia to the increases in tissue and venous PCO2. The model assumes perfectly mixed homogeneous conditions, steady-state equilibrium, and CO₂ production occurring exclusively at the tissues. The results of the model applications support that changes in tissue and venous blood CO₂ concentrations during dysoxia reflect primarily alterations in vascular perfusion, and not shortage of energy supply.



Figure 3. Panel A. Hindlimb O_2 uptake as a function of limb O_2 delivery (DO₂) for ischemic hypoxia (IH) and hypoxic hypoxia (HH). There was no statistically significant difference at any DO₂. Critical DO₂ (DO₂crit) was not different in IH and HH. Panel B. Hindlimb venoarterial PCO₂ difference as a function of limb DO₂ for IH and HH. Despite similar degrees of tissue dysoxia, venoarterial PCO₂ difference remained constant in the HH group and increased more than twofold in the IH group. (Reproduced from reference 19 with permission).



Figure 4. Panel A. Ileal intramucosal-arterial PCO2 difference (Δ PCO2) as a function of intestinal O2 transport in hypoxic and ischemic hypoxia (Reproduced from reference 21 with permission). Panel B. Δ PCO2 as a function of intestinal O2 transport in anemic and ischemic hypoxia (Reproduced from reference 22 with permission). In hypoxic and anemic hypoxia, Δ PCO2 fails to reflect tissue dysoxia.

4. INTRAMUCOSAL ACIDOSIS IN SEPSIS

Beyond the previous discussion, intramucosal acidosis is common in conditions with normal or increased cardiac output, like clinical and experimental sepsis. In resuscitated endotoxemic pigs, Van der Meer *et al.* found that intramucosal acidosis developed, despite preserved mucosal oxygenation and blood flow (29) (Figure 8). The underlying mechanism was attributed to metabolic disturbances, and led to the concept of "cytopathic

hypoxia" (30). Nevertheless, an important shortcoming of that study was the use of laser-Doppler flowmetry to measure tissue perfusion.

On the other hand, Vallet *et al.* studied dogs challenged with endotoxin, and then resuscitated them to normalize oxygen transport (31). Intestinal VO₂ and mucosal PO₂ and pH, however, remained low. The authors ascribed this to blood flow redistribution from mucosa toward muscular layer. Nevertheless, Revelly *et al.*,



Figure 5. Panel A. Mixed venous-arterial PCO₂ difference as a function of systemic O₂ transport (DO₂) in ischemic and anemic hypoxia. Panel B. Mixed venous-arterial CO₂ content difference as a function of systemic DO₂ in ischemic and anemic hypoxia. Panel C. Mesenteric venous-arterial PCO₂ difference as a function of intestinal DO₂ in ischemic and anemic hypoxia. Panel D. Mesenteric venous-arterial CO₂ content difference as a function of intestinal DO₂ in ischemic and anemic hypoxia. Panel D. Mesenteric venous-arterial CO₂ content difference as a function of intestinal DO₂ in ischemic and anemic hypoxia. (Reproduced from reference 22 with permission). Differences were higher in ischemic than in anemic hypoxia. Venoarterial PCO₂ differences slightly increased while venoarterial CO₂ content differences decreased in anemic hypoxia, implying changes in CO₂Hb dissociation curve.

described an inverse redistribution, with increased mucosal and decreased muscularis blood flow, using dved microspheres in endotoxemic pigs (32).Paradoxically, pHi was inversely correlated with mucosal flow, though positively correlated with muscularis perfusion. The authors concluded that intramucosal acidosis was not explained by mucosal hypoperfusion (32). Siegemund et al. showed, in a similar model, reductions in mucosal and serosal microvascular PO2, and a \triangle PCO2 increase (33). Fluid resuscitation normalized mucosal PO2 but serosal PO2 and \triangle PCO2 remained altered.

Conversely, Tugtekin et al., in a porcine model of 24-hour endotoxin infusion, showed an association between intramucosal acidosis and severe hypoperfusion in ileal villi (34). In this study, about half of the evaluated villi were heterogeneously or unperfused, despite normal portal blood flow. Creuter et al. described, in septic patients, a correlation between sublingual ΔPCO_2 and microcirculatory blood flow (35). Accordingly, results from our laboratory show that endotoxic shock in sheep was associated with sublingual and intestinal microcirculatory alterations and intramucosal acidosis (36). Fluid resuscitation could normalize sublingual and intestinal



Figure 6. Panel A. CO_2 content as a function of PCO_2 in basal and anemic hypoxia conditions. Panel B. CO_2 content as a function of PCO_2 in basal and ischemic hypoxia conditions. In both anemia and ischemic hypoxia there were shifts in CO_2Hb dissociation curve that might contribute to subtle increases in tissue-arterial and venoarterial PCO_2 differences (22).



Figure 7. Panel A. Systemic CO_2 production (VCO₂) in anemic and ischemic hypoxia. Panel B. Systemic respiratory quotient (RQ) in anemic and ischemic hypoxia. Panel C. Intestinal VCO₂ in anemic and ischemic hypoxia. Panel D. Intestinal respiratory RQ in anemic and ischemic hypoxia. Both systemic and intestinal VCO₂ remained unchanged. Since VO₂ decreased as a result of oxygen supply dependence, both systemic and intestinal RQ increased (22).

serosal microcirculation, yet reduced number of perfused intestinal villi and increased ΔPCO_2 persisted. Intramucosal acidosis was related to persistent decrease of microvascular flow index and reduced number of perfused intestinal villi (36) (Figure 9).

There are other studies further supporting the hypothesis that, in endotoxemia, changes in perfusion and not tissue dysoxia determine ΔPCO_2 . We randomized endotoxemic sheep to saline solution resuscitation to

maintain blood flow at baseline values or to increase it 50%. Increased perfusion prevented intramucosal acidosis, though metabolic acidosis due to increased anion gap continued (37) (Figure 10). Similarly, in endotoxemic sheep, the administration of levosimendan, an inotropic and vasodilator drug, precluded increases in ΔPCO_2 but hyperlactatemia was exacerbated (38) or unaffected (39). The findings of these studies suggest that intramucosal acidosis is mainly related to local hypoperfusion and that



Figure 8. Effects of lipopolysaccharide on mucosal perfusion (Qmuc; panel A), mucosal PO₂ (PmO₂; panel B), and mucosalblood hydrogen ion concentration gap (mucosal-blood $[H^+]$ gap; panel C). Lipopolysaccharide was administered to pigs in the lipopolysaccharide group (open circles) but not to pigs in the control group (solid squares) (Reproduced from reference 24 with permission).



Figure 9. Effects of endotoxin on the percentage of perfused ileal villi and intramucosal-arterial PCO₂ difference (Δ PCO₂) (36). Endotoxic shock decreased the perfused intestinal villi and fluid resuscitation was unable to restore villi perfusion (Panel A). (Δ PCO₂ was correlated with perfused intestinal villi (Panel B) but not with superior mesenteric artery blood flow (Panel C).



Figure 10. Effects of supranormal elevation of blood flow in a normodynamic model of endotoxemia. Panel A. Increased blood flow precluded the increase in intramucosal-arterial PCO_2 difference, suggesting that intramucosal acidosis is mainly related to local hypoperfusion. Panel B. Despite an increased blood flow, anion-gap metabolic acidosis worsened, which suggests an effect on cellular metabolism (Reproduced from reference 37 with permission).



Figure 11. Determinants of intramucosal-arterial PCO₂ difference (ΔPCO_2). Venoarterial and tissue-arterial PCO₂ gradients are the result of interactions in aerobic and anaerobic CO₂ production (VCO₂), CO₂ dissociation curve, and blood flow to tissues. During VO₂/DO₂ dependency, opposite changes in aerobic and anaerobic CO₂ productions occur. CO₂ aerobic production decreases as a consequence of the fall in aerobic metabolism, but at the same time, CO₂ anaerobic production starts because of bicarbonate buffering of protons derived of fixed acids. Total CO₂ production, however, never increases. Consequently, venous and tissue hypercarbia can only arise in low flow states, in which CO₂ removal is reduced.

metabolic disorders depends on a cellular mechanism which is unresponsive to changes in blood flow.

In conclusion, venoarterial and tissue-arterial PCO_2 gradients are the result of interactions in aerobic and

anaerobic CO_2 production, CO_2 dissociation curve, and blood flow to tissues (Figure 11). During VO_2/DO_2 dependency, opposite changes in aerobic and anaerobic CO_2 productions occur. CO_2 aerobic production decreases as a consequence of failing aerobic metabolism, but, at the same time, CO_2 anaerobic production starts due to bicarbonate buffering of protons derived of fixed acids. Total CO_2 production might not increase, as in our experiments. But as VO_2 falls, there is an increase in the respiratory quotient (27). The relative increment of CO_2 production with respect to VO_2 can only cause venous and tissue hypercarbia in low flow states, in which CO_2 removal is reduced.

Notwithstanding the fact that ΔPCO_2 is not a marker of dysoxia but of regional perfusion, it remains a very useful clinical and experimental monitoring tool, particularly in clinical situations in which cardiac output is generally increased, like sepsis.

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