doi: 10.1016/j.bja.2020.03.033 Advance Access Publication Date: 18 June 2020 Respiration and the Airway

Systemic haemodynamic, renal perfusion and renal oxygenation responses to changes in inspired oxygen fraction during total intravenous or volatile anaesthesia

Naoya Iguchi^{1,2,3}, Junko Kosaka^{1,4}, Yoko Iguchi^{1,2,5}, Roger G. Evans⁶, Rinaldo Bellomo⁷, Clive N. May¹ and Yugeesh R. Lankadeva^{1,*}

¹Preclinical Critical Care Unit, Florey Institute of Neuroscience and Mental Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia, ²Department of Intensive Care, Austin Hospital, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia, ³Department of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, Osaka University, Japan, ⁴Department of Anesthesiology and Resuscitology, Okayama University Hospital, Okayama, Japan, ⁵Department of Anaesthesiology, Saiseikai Senri Hospital, Osaka, Japan, ⁶Cardiovascular Disease Program, Biomedicine Discovery Institute and Department of Physiology, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia and ⁷School of Medicine, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

*Corresponding author. E-mail: yugeesh.lankadeva@florey.edu.au

Abstract

Background: Anaesthesia-induced changes in renal perfusion are dependent on the choice of anaesthetic agent. However, the effects of varying inspired oxygen fraction (FiO₂) on renal perfusion and oxygenation during TIVA (propofol + fentanyl) or volatile anaesthesia (VA; isoflurane) are unknown.

Methods: In 16 Merino ewes, we surgically implanted a renal artery flow probe and laser-Doppler and oxygen-sensing probes in the renal medulla and cortex. We compared the systemic and renal effects of graded alterations in FiO₂ (0.21, 0.40, 0.60, and 1.0) during TIVA or VA and compared the changes with those in the non-anaesthetised state.

Results: Compared with the non-anaesthetised state, TIVA and VA decreased renal blood flow (-50% vs -75%), renal oxygen delivery (-50% vs -80%), and renal cortical (-40% vs -60%) and medullary perfusion (-50% vs -75%). At an FiO₂ of 0.21, both anaesthetic regimens induced similar reductions in cortical (-58 vs -65%) and medullary (-37% vs -38%) oxygenation. At higher concentrations of FiO₂, renal blood flow and renal tissue perfusion were not changed, but intrarenal oxygenation improved similarly under TIVA and VA. In particular, at an FiO₂ of \geq 0.40 and \leq 0.60, cortical and medullary oxygen tension were similar to the non-anaesthetised state.

Conclusions: Irrespective of FiO₂, TIVA decreased renal and intrarenal perfusion less than VA, but at low FiO₂ concentrations both led to equivalent reductions in renal cortical and medullary oxygenation. However, with FiO₂ between 0.40 and 0.60 during TIVA or VA, both cortical and medullary oxygenation was maintained at normal physiological levels.

Keywords: isoflurane; propofol; renal perfusion; renal oxygenation; systemic haemodynamics; TIVA; volatile anaesthesia

Received: 10 February 2020; Accepted: 18 March 2020 © 2020 British Journal of Anaesthesia. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

For Permissions, please email: permissions@elsevier.com

Editor's key points

- The authors investigated the interaction between varying inspired oxygen fraction (FiO₂) with type of anaesthesia on renal perfusion and oxygenation in healthy sheep.
- TIVA and volatile anaesthesia had a similar impact on systemic haemodynamic parameters.
- Renal macro- and micro-haemodynamic parameters were better maintained under TIVA than under volatile anaesthesia.
- There was no cross effect of varying FiO₂ with the type of anaesthetic regime on haemodynamic parameters.
- Levels of renal cortical and medullary tissue oxygen tension were best maintained with FiO_2 between 0.40 and 0.60.

Acute kidney injury (AKI) can occur in 5%–13% of patients undergoing major abdominal surgery.^{1,2} Development of postoperative AKI is associated with an increased short-term risk of in-hospital mortality and carries a long-term risk of chronic kidney disease.^{3,4} Perioperative derangements in renal perfusion and oxygenation are likely to play a critical role in the pathogenesis of postoperative AKI.^{3–5}

We recently reported that volatile anaesthesia (VA) reduces renal blood flow (RBF) and intrarenal perfusion to a greater extent than total intravenous anaesthesia (TIVA).^{6,7} Adequate oxygen delivery to the kidneys is determined not just by arterial partial pressure of oxygen (P_{aO_2}) and total RBF, but also by the distribution of such blood flow to the cortical and medullary circulations.⁸ Yet, whether the different effects of TIVA and VA on global- and regional-kidney oxygenation can be modified by changes in intraoperative inspired oxygen fraction (FiO₂) is unclear. Moreover, the optimal target FiO₂ during abdominal surgery to maintain renal oxygenation within a normal, non-anaesthetised physiological range, despite the detrimental effects of TIVA and VA on renal perfusion, remains unclear.

In this experimental study using healthy adult sheep, we assessed systemic haemodynamics, RBF, renal oxygen delivery (RDO₂) and consumption (RVO₂), and renal cortical and medullary tissue perfusion and oxygen tension (PtO₂) at various concentrations of FiO₂ during TIVA or VA after major abdominal surgery. First, we compared the effects of increasing FiO₂ on renal PtO₂ during TIVA and VA. We hypothesised that increasing FiO₂ would increase PtO₂ to a greater extent with TIVA than with VA, as a result of the greater depression of renal perfusion induced by VA. Second, we determined the concentration of FiO₂, under TIVA or VA, to maintain intrarenal PtO₂ at normal, non-anaesthetised physiological levels. We hypothesised that this would be achieved with a lower concentration of FiO₂ with TIVA than with VA.

Methods

Animal preparation

The studies on healthy adult Merino ewes (1.5–2.0 year of age) were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of the Florey Institute of Neuroscience and Mental Health under guidelines laid down by the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia. All studies performed fulfilled the Animal Research: Reporting of In Vivo Experiments criteria.⁹

Two aseptic surgical procedures were performed in 16 sheep (body weight: 37.5 [33–44] kg) under general anaesthesia. First, under general anaesthesia, induced with sodium thiopental (15 mg kg⁻¹; Jurox, Rutherford, Australia) and maintained with isoflurane (2.0–2.5%; Isoflo, Zoetis, Rhodes, Australia), a carotid arterial loop was constructed and a 20-mm transit-time probe (Transonic Systems, Ithaca, NY, USA) was implanted on the pulmonary artery.¹⁰Animals were allowed 3–4 weeks to recover. The day before the second surgical procedure, cannulae were inserted into the carotid arterial loop and jugular vein.

Second, sheep were randomly allocated in a 1:1 ratio to receive either isoflurane (Isoflo, Zoetis, Rhodes, Australia) or propofol (AFT Pharmaceuticals Pty. Ltd, Burwood, NSW, Australia) and fentanyl (Hameln Pharmaceuticals, Hemeln, Germany) general anaesthesia. Via a left retroperitoneal approach, a 4-mm transit-time probe (Transonic Systems) was placed on the left renal artery and the renal vein was cannulated.¹⁰ During the same surgical procedure, fibre-optic probes (Oxford Optronix, Abingdon, UK) were inserted into the renal cortex and medulla.^{10,11}

Analog signals of mean arterial pressure (MAP), heart rate (HR), cardiac output (CO), RBF, cortical and medullary perfusion and PtO₂ were continuously recorded at 100 Hz on a computer using a CED micro 1401 interface with Spike 2 software (Cambridge Electronic Design, Cambridge, UK). Blood samples were obtained simultaneously from the carotid arterial and renal venous catheters for blood oximetry (ABL system 625; Radiometer Medical, Copenhagen, Denmark). Total peripheral conductance (TPC), stroke volume (SV), renal vascular conductance (RVC), RDO₂, RVO₂, and renal oxygen extraction ratio were calculated.^{11–13} Pain was assessed by monitoring behavioural changes including lip curling, abnormal body and ear posture, bruxism, and a lack of drinking or eating. To minimise any pain during and after surgery, pre- and postsurgical analgesia was maintained with i.m. injections of flunixin meglumine (1 mg kg⁻¹; Norbrook, Tullamarine, Australia) administered at the start of surgery, and then 4 and 24 h after operation. The morning after surgery all sheep were standing, had eaten all their food and drunk, and displayed no signs of pain.

Regimens for VA and TIVA

Animals were positioned in right lateral recumbence for the entire duration of the surgical procedure and measurement periods with VA and TIVA. In the VA group (n=8), anaesthesia was induced with i.v. sodium thiopental (12.5 mg kg⁻¹) and the animals were intubated before the return of palpebral reflex. Anaesthesia was maintained with isoflurane (2.0%-2.5%) at a concentration that kept MAP at ~70 mm Hg and HR at ~90 beats min^{-1} . In the VA group, narcotic agents were not used for analgesia, so isoflurane was used at a relatively high concentration to achieve effective antinociception.^{14,15} In the TIVA group (n=8), sheep received i.v. propofol 5 mg kg⁻¹ and fentanyl 2.5 μ g kg⁻¹ for induction and the animals were intubated before the return of palpebral reflex. Anaesthesia and analgesia were maintained with continuous infusions of propofol 37.5 mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹ and fentanyl 10 μ g kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, which maintained MAP at ~70 mm Hg and HR at ~90 beats min⁻¹. Neuromuscular block was not used in either treatment group. Depth of anaesthesia appeared similar and satisfactory in all sheep, as judged by muscular relaxation, ability to tolerate the tracheal tube without swallowing, tolerance of mechanical ventilation, immobility, and lack of corneal and withdrawal reflexes. In all animals, surgical procedures under VA or TIVA were completed within 120–150 min at an FiO_2 of 0.60.

Experimental protocol for the variation of FiO2

The protocol had four components, each comprising a series of 20-min periods. FiO_2 was set at 0.21 (room air: 21%), 0.40 (40%), 0.60 (60%), and 1.0 (100%), allocated using a block randomisation design. At each concentration of FiO_2 , a 10-min period was allowed for kidney oxygen concentrations to stabilise, after which a 10-min experimental period began. The total gas flow on the mechanical ventilator was maintained at a constant rate of $1.5 \text{ L} \text{ min}^{-1}$, whilst the ratio of the individual oxygen-to-air gas volumes was altered to achieve the target FiO_2 .

Systemic and renal haemodynamic measurements at postoperative day 3

After 3 days of recovery from the second surgical procedure, systemic and renal variables were monitored over a 60-minute period in non-anaesthetised sheep standing in their home metabolic cage.

Statistical analysis

Variables are reported as median (25th-75th percentile [interquartile range]). All analyses were performed using GraphPad PRISM 6.0 software (San Diego, CA, USA). Statistical analysis was performed on absolute values calculated as 10minute averages during the second half of the 20-minute measurement period, when FiO_2 was randomly set to 0.21, 0.40, 0.60, and 1.0 during VA or TIVA. Variables in nonanaesthetised animals on postoperative Day 3 were calculated as 60-minute averages. Data generated during changes in FiO₂ were analysed using repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with factors group (PGroup: VA or TIVA), treatment (P_{FiO2}) and their interaction (P_{GroupxFiO2}). The Wilcoxon signed rank test was used for within-group comparisons of the variables during anaesthesia with the levels in non-anaesthetised sheep. The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to assess differences in postoperative Day 3 variables between the VA and TIVA groups. Two-sided P≤0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Arterial blood gases and lactate

Graded increases in FiO₂ resulted in increases in the arterial partial pressure of oxygen (P_aO_2) that were similar during VA and TIVA ($P_{Group} \ge 0.05$; Fig. 1). When breathing room air (FiO₂ 0.21) the P_aO_2 was significantly lower during TIVA and VA (~57 mm Hg) than in the non-anaesthetised state (~95 and ~94 mm Hg, respectively) (Tables 1 and 2). At all other concentrations of FiO₂ (0.4–1.0), P_aO_2 was significantly greater than in non-anaesthetised animals (Fig. 1). Graded increases in FiO₂ did not significantly influence arterial partial pressure of carbon dioxide (P_aCO_2), haemoglobin, or lactate concentrations (Tables 1 and 2). However, compared with the non-anaesthetised state, at all concentrations of FiO₂, during both TIVA and VA, P_aCO_2 and lactate concentrations were elevated, but haemoglobin was not (Tables 1 and 2).

Systemic haemodynamics

MAP, HR, CO, SV, and TPC were similar during TIVA and VA across all concentrations of FiO_2 (Fig. 1). There was a modest but significant increase in MAP when increasing FiO_2 from 0.21 to 0.60 during VA and TIVA, but no significant changes in CO, HR, SV, and TPC (Fig. 1).

Compared with the non-anaesthetised state, at all concentrations of FiO_2 , during TIVA and VA, MAP (~18%), CO (~30%), and SV (~35%) were significantly reduced (all P \leq 0.05), but HR and TPC were unchanged (Tables 1 and 2).

Renal blood flow and renal oxygen handling

Compared with the non-anaesthetised state, there were large reductions in RBF and RVC during TIVA and VA at all FiO₂ concentrations (Tables 1 and 2). RBF (~58 vs ~130 ml min⁻¹) and RVC (~0.8 vs ~1.6 ml min⁻¹ mm Hg⁻¹) declined more with VA than with TIVA, respectively (both P_{Group} <0.01; Fig. 2). Similarly, RDO₂ was significantly less during VA than TIVA (~7 vs ~17 ml O₂ min⁻¹; P_{Group} =0.01). With both anaesthetic regimens RDO₂ was significantly reduced compared with the non-anaesthetised state (Tables 1 and 2). However, renal oxygen extraction ratio was higher during VA than with TIVA (P_{Group} =0.001) (Tables 1 and 2).

Alterations in FiO₂ did not significantly change RBF or RVC during TIVA or VA (Fig. 2). However, increases in FiO₂ up to 0.60 caused progressive increases in RDO₂, although the levels were still significantly below those the non-anaesthetised state (Tables 1 and 2). In contrast, with both TIVA and VA there were similar reductions in RVO₂ and renal oxygen extraction ratio as FiO₂ was increased from 0.21–1.0 (both $P_{FiO2}<0.001$) (Fig. 3).

Intrarenal perfusion and oxygenation

Renal cortical and medullary perfusion were maintained at higher levels during TIVA than VA, irrespective of the concentration of FiO₂ (both $P_{Group}=0.001$; Fig. 2). Compared with the non-anaesthetised state, renal cortical (~956 vs ~475 blood perfusion units) and medullary perfusion (~454 vs ~221 blood perfusion units) were lower at all concentrations of FiO₂ during TIVA and VA (Tables 1 and 2). In contrast, cortical and medullary PtO₂ were similar with TIVA and VA and were only lower than the non-anaesthetised state at an FiO₂ of 0.21 (Tables 1 and 2).

Increasing FiO₂, during TIVA or VA, did not significantly change cortical or medullary perfusion, but progressively increased cortical and medullary PtO₂ (Fig. 2). At an FiO₂ of 0.40 and 0.60, cortical and medullary PtO₂ were not significantly different from the non-anaesthetised state. However, when FiO₂ was set at 1.0, there was a greater elevation in renal cortical PtO₂ with TIVA than with VA (P_{GroupxFiO2}=0.002; Fig. 2), an effect not observed in the medulla (Tables 1 and 2).

Systemic and renal haemodynamics in nonanaesthetised sheep on postoperative day 3

All animals in the TIVA and VA groups recovered without any respiratory complications from surgical procedures. In nonanaesthetised sheep breathing room air (0.21), at 3 days after anaesthesia systemic haemodynamics, arterial blood gases and lactate concentrations in the TIVA and VA groups were similar (Tables 1 and 2). Despite the greater decreases in RBF

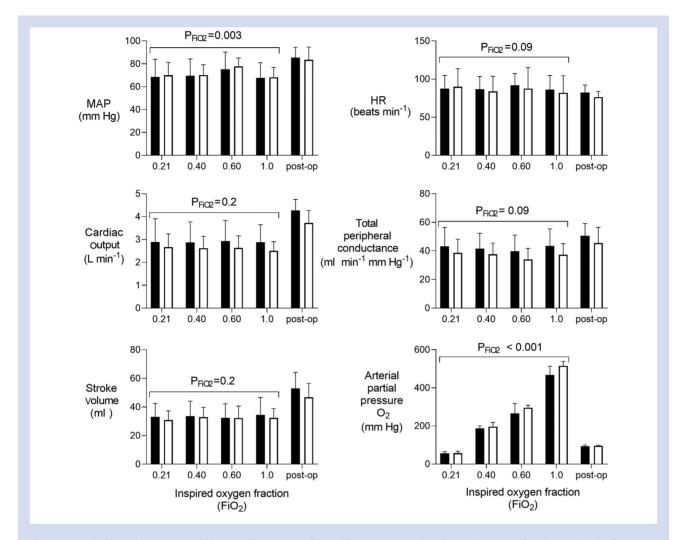


Fig 1. Systemic haemodynamics and the partial pressure of arterial oxygen at various inspired oxygen fractions under isoflurane or propofol/fentanyl anaesthesia, and the levels in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative (post-op) Day 3. Data are expressed as median (interquartile range). P-values represent the outcomes of a two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), testing whether responses to changes in inspired oxygen fraction were significantly different during isoflurane (filled bars; n=8) or propofol (open bars; n=8) anaesthesia.

and intrarenal perfusion with VA than with TIVA, renal haemodynamics and oxygenation in these groups were not significantly different (Tables 1 and 2).

Discussion

After abdominal surgery under TIVA or VA in healthy adult sheep, we examined the effects of changes in FiO₂ on systemic and global renal haemodynamics and intrarenal perfusion and oxygenation. We found that during TIVA or VA there were similar reductions in MAP, CO, and SV, but that global RBF, RVC, RDO₂, and cortical and medullary perfusion were maintained at higher levels with TIVA than VA. Graded increases in FiO₂, from 0.21 to 1.0, did not alter systemic or renal haemodynamics during TIVA or VA, but increased cortical and medullary PtO₂ similarly with both regimens. Finally, we found that with both anaesthetic regimens, when FiO_2 was maintained between 0.40 and 0.60, the levels of cortical and medullary PtO_2 were similar to those in the non-anaesthetised state.

Relationship to previous studies

Previous studies of experimental abdominal surgery⁶ and cardiopulmonary bypass⁷ have demonstrated that RBF, RVC, RDO₂, and intrarenal perfusion decrease with VA, but significantly less with TIVA. Our current findings confirm these observations. These different renal responses appear to be partly attributable to an increase in renal sympathetic vasomotor drive with VA, an effect absent with TIVA.⁶ However, despite their clinical relevance, renal and intrarenal perfusion and oxygenation responses to changes in intraoperative FiO₂ during TIVA or VA have not been reported previously.

Table 1 Systemic and renal haemodynamics at different inspired oxygen fractions (FiO₂) during volatile anaesthesia (VA), compared with the levels in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative Day 3 (n=8). Variables are expressed as between-animal median (interquartile range). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, and ***P<0.001 indicates significant differences between variables at postoperative Day 3 compared with variables in response to changes in FiO₂ (0.21, 0.40, 0.60, and 1.0) during volatile anaesthesia. P-values were derived from a Wilcoxon signed rank test. A Boneferroni correction (k=4) was applied to all P-values.

Variable	VA 0.21 FiO ₂	VA 0.40 FiO ₂	VA 0.60 FiO ₂	VA 1.0 FiO ₂	Postoperative 0.21 FiO ₂
MAP (mm Hg)	69 (58–83)**	70 (56–78)**	75 (65–86)*	68 (62–74)**	86 (78–92)
HR (beats min ⁻¹)	87 (69–99)	86 (75–99)	92 (85–101)	86 (68–103)	82 (76–88)
Cardiac output (L min ⁻¹)	2.0 (2.2-3.4)***	2.9 (2.3-3.3)***	2.9 (2.4-3.3)***	2.9 (2.4-3.4)***	4.3 (3.8–4.5)
Total peripheral conductance (ml min ⁻¹ mm Hg ⁻¹)	43 (36–53)	42 (38–49)	40 (32–49)	43 (35–52)	49 (41–56)
Stroke volume (ml)	33 (27–40)***	34 (26–39)***	32 (26–38)***	35 (27–39)	53 (48–56)
Renal blood flow (ml min $^{-1}$)	57 (33–74)***	58 (34–77)***	57 (35–75)***	60 (37–79)***	232 (202–275)
Renal vascular conductance (ml min ⁻¹ mm Hg ⁻¹)	0.8 (0.6-1.1)**	0.8 (0.6-1.0)**	0.8 (0.6–0.9)**	0.9 (0.7-1.1)**	2.8 (2.2–3.7)
Renal oxygen delivery (ml $O_2 min^{-1}$)	6 (4–7)***	8 (6–9)***	7 (6–10)***	8 (6–10)***	34 (31–36)
Renal oxygen consumption (ml $O_2 min^{-1}$)	2.3 (1.8–2.9)	1.5 (1.0–1.8)*	1.6 (1.1–1.9)*	1.5 (1.1–1.4)*	3.0 (2.7-3.6)
Renal oxygen extraction ratio (%)	30 (26–34)**	19 (18–21)*	19 (18–20)*	16 (14–18)	10 (8–11)
Cortical tissue perfusion (blood perfusion units)	469 (395 —592)***	487 (385 —658)***	502 (423 —571)***	440 (318 -521)***	1250 (1101–1260)
Cortical tissue oxygen tension (mm Hg)	18 (15–24)***	28 (18–36)	38 (31–42)	51 (39–62)	44 (39–47)
Medullary tissue perfusion (blood perfusion units)	221 (195 -235)***	231 (206 -261)***	240 (177 —287)***	214 (203 -222)***	997 (857—1084)
Medullary tissue oxygen tension (mm Hg)	26 (20-34)**	47 (35–55)	57 (35–64)	61 (39–73)	43 (39–45)
Arterial partial pressure of oxygen (mm Hg)	57 (53–62)***	187 (181 	265 (262 	467 (459 497)***	94 (89–97)
Arterial partial pressure of carbon dioxide (mm Hg)	44 (39–51)**	45 (38–52)**	45 (39–54)**	46 (38–55)**	32 (32–33)
Arterial haemoglobin concentration (g dl ⁻¹) Arterial lactate concentration (mmol L ⁻¹)	9.2 (8.5–9.8) 0.7 (0.6–0.9)*	9.2 (8.6–9.8) 0.7 (0.6–0.8)*	9.1 (8.3–9.5) 0.7 (0.6–0.8)*	9.3 (8.6–9.8) 0.7 (0.6–0.9)*	9.6 (9.2–9.8) 0.4 (0.3–0.5)

Table 2 Systemic and renal haemodynamics at different inspired oxygen fractions (FiO₂) during total intravenous anaesthesia (TIVA), compared with the levels in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative Day 3 (n=8). Variables are expressed as between-animal median (interquartile range). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, and ***P<0.001 indicates significant differences between variables at postoperative Day 3 compared with variables in response to changes in FiO₂ (0.21, 0.40, 0.60, and 1.0) during TIVA. P-values were derived from a Wilcoxon signed rank test. A Boneferroni correction (k=4) was applied to all P-values.

Variable	TIVA 0.21 FiO ₂	TIVA 0.40 FiO ₂	TIVA 0.60 FiO ₂	TIVA 1.0 FiO ₂	Postoperative 0.21 FiO ₂
MAP (mm Hg)	70 (61–73)	70 (66–74)	78 (73–80)	68 (65–71)*	84 (78–87)
HR (beats min^{-1})	90 (76–96)	84 (72–90)	88 (69–102)	82 (72–86)	76 (70–82)
Cardiac output (L min ⁻¹)	2.7 (2.4–2.8)**	2.6 (2.4–2.7)**	2.6 (2.4–2.7)**		3.7 (3.3-4.0)
Total peripheral conductance (ml min ⁻¹ mm Hg ⁻¹)	36 (32–40)	35 (32–40)	32 (27–37)	34 (28–39)	43 (39–46)
Stroke volume (ml)	31 (27-34)**	33 (30–36)**	32 (27-38)**	32 (31–36)**	47 (42–52)
Renal blood flow (ml min ^{-1})	124 (79 —158)***	130 (93 —165)***	141 (108 	122 (91 	270 (235–305)
Renal vascular conductance (ml min ⁻¹ mm Hg ⁻¹)			1.7 (1.4–1.8)***		3.3 (2.9–3.6)
Renal oxygen delivery (ml $O_2 min^{-1}$)	13 (9–18)***	17 (10–22)**	20 (15–24)**	17 (13–23)**	36 (32–40)
Renal oxygen consumption (ml $O_2 \min^{-1}$)	2.6 (1.7-3.1)	2.2 (1.2-2.7)	1.9 (1.5–2.1)**	1.5 (1.1-1.7)***	3.7 (3.4-4.2)
Renal oxygen extraction ratio (%)	19 (16–21)*		10 (9–10)		12 (9–14)
Cortical tissue perfusion (blood perfusion units)	950 (811 —1199)**	940 (757 —1065)**	1021 (808 	—1134)**	1550 (1349–1762)
Cortical tissue oxygen tension (mm Hg)	10 (2–14)*	23 (10–33)	34 (17-48)	88 (50–124)*	41 (31–57)
Medullary tissue perfusion (blood perfusion units)	481 (337–539)	442 (341–482)*	452 (337–481)*	441 (325–529)*	941 (486–1184)
Medullary tissue oxygen tension (mm Hg)	25 (21–36)**	40 (31–46)	41 (31–52)	63 (33–69)	46 (39–49)
Arterial partial pressure of oxygen (mm Hg)	57 (50–63)***	197 (179 —211)***	296 (282 	515 (505 	96 (95–98)
Arterial partial pressure of carbon dioxide (mm Hg)	37 (34–38)**	37 (34–39)**	37 (34–38)**	37 (34–3)**	32 (31–34)
Arterial haemoglobin concentration (g dl ⁻¹)	9.6 (8.6–10.4)	9.8 (8.8–10.8)	9.7 (8.6–10.4)	9.6 (8.6–10.4)	9.9 (9.1–10.9)
Arterial lactate concentration (mmol L^{-1})	1.2 (0.9–1.4)***	1.1 (0.8–1.5)***	1.3 (0.9–1.5)***	1.3 (0.8–1.6)***	0.5 (0.4–0.5)

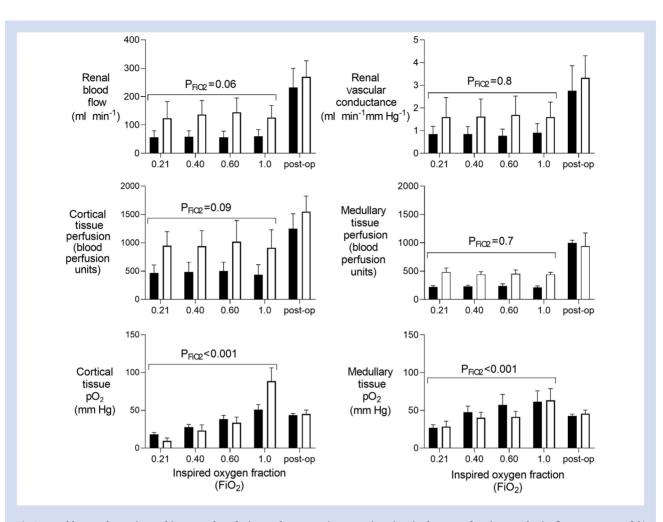


Fig 2. Renal haemodynamics and intrarenal perfusion and oxygenation at various inspired oxygen fractions under isoflurane or propofol/ fentanyl anaesthesia, and the levels in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative (post-op) Day 3. Data are expressed as median (interquartile range). P-values represent the outcomes of a two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), testing whether responses to changes in inspired oxygen fraction were significantly different during isoflurane (filled bars; n=8) or propofol (open bars; n=8) anaesthesia.

In accord with previous findings,^{16,17} mild arterial hypoxaemia induced by an FiO₂ of 0.21 during anaesthesia did not induce a hyperaemic response in the renal cortex or medulla. In contrast, progressive increases in hindlimb blood flow and local biceps femoris perfusion have been found in response to graded hypoxemia.¹⁶ This lack of a renal hyperaemic response to arterial hypoxaemia selectively within the kidneys may increase their susceptibility to tissue hypoxia, a major risk factor for AKI secondary to major surgical procedures.^{3–5} Increments in intraoperative FiO₂ did not alter intrarenal perfusion, but elicited similar increases in cortical and medullary PtO₂ with TIVA or VA (apart from a difference in cortical PtO₂ at an FiO₂ of 1.0), despite renal perfusion being consistently held at a higher level with TIVA.

Renal PtO_2 is determined by oxygen supply and local renal tissue metabolic demand,¹⁸ but the factors determining its level under anaesthesia are unclear. We found that anaesthesia decreased renal perfusion and RDO_2 , which was accompanied by decreased RVO₂, likely because of reduced

demand for oxygen to drive tubular sodium reabsorption.^{19,20} Under both TIVA and VA, mild systemic hypoxemia induced by a low FiO₂ increased renal oxygen extraction, but despite this, renal PtO₂ remained below the level in the nonanaesthetised state. Furthermore, we show that with either anaesthetic regimen intrarenal PtO₂ is determined largely by arterial P_aO₂, which is dependent on FiO₂, and not by systemic or renal haemodynamics. Similarly, in anaesthetised rabbits, arterial P_aO₂, not RBF, appeared to be the main influence on intrarenal PtO₂ during changes in FiO₂.^{16,21} These observations support the notion that, under anaesthesia, arterial P_aO₂ is a major determinant of cortical and medullary PtO₂ during changes in FiO₂ and this effect is largely independent of changes in systemic haemodynamics, RBF, intrarenal perfusion, or the type of anaesthetic agent.

The optimal target FiO_2 for the kidneys during surgical procedures remains unresolved and controversial.^{22,23} A recent clinical trial in 5074 patients undergoing colorectal surgery, with FiO₂ concentrations of either 0.30 or 0.80, found

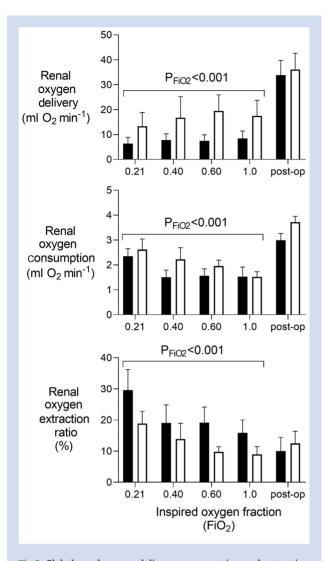


Fig 3. Global renal oxygen delivery, consumption and extraction ratio at various inspired oxygen fractions under isoflurane or propofol/fentanyl anaesthesia, and the levels in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative (post-op) Day 3. Data are expressed as median (interquartile range). P-values represent the outcomes of a two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), testing whether responses to changes in inspired oxygen fraction were significantly different during isoflurane (filled bars; n=8) or propofol (open bars; n=8) anaesthesia.

no significant difference in the ~7% incidence of postoperative AKI.²⁴ Our study indicates that intrarenal PtO₂ can be maintained within the normal physiological range if FiO₂ is held \geq 0.40 and \leq 0.60 with both TIVA and VA, even in the presence of renal hypoperfusion. However, the maintenance of adequate intraoperative renal PtO₂ may not preclude the possibility of unresolved renal hypoperfusion increasing the risk of postoperative AKI.^{3,5}

Our findings are also relevant to our understanding of renal medullary physiology. Previous studies providing evidence that the renal medulla functions on the brink of hypoxia (10–15 mm Hg) were conducted under anaesthesia.^{25–28} We

demonstrate that anaesthesia can profoundly reduce RBF, RDO₂, and intrarenal perfusion.^{6,7,29} In accord, reductions in RBF of ~50%, as estimated by para-aminohippurate clearance, have been reported in humans anaesthetised with isoflurane.^{30,31} Thus, this concept that the renal medulla functions on the edge of hypoxia may be misleading and likely represents an effect of anaesthesia. In agreement, observations in healthy non-anaesthetised sheep demonstrate that renal medullary and cortical PtO₂ are similar and range between 30 and 45 mm Hg.^{6,7,29,32} Nevertheless, the renal medulla remains more susceptible to hypoxia if RBF is compromised,¹¹ in pathological situations such as sepsis,^{33,34} and during cardiopulmonary bypass performed with either VA or TIVA.^{7,29}

Study implications

Our findings imply that alterations in regional-kidney oxygenation to variations in FiO₂ occur independently of changes in systemic haemodynamics, renal perfusion, or anaesthetic regimen. They also confirm the established finding that ventilation with room air under anaesthesia reduces P_aO₂, attributable to ventilation/perfusion mismatch.³⁵ Finally, they imply that regional-kidney PtO₂ can be maintained at the normal physiological levels seen in the nonanaesthetised state, if FiO₂ is held \geq 0.40 and \leq 0.60 with TIVA and VA.

Strengths and limitations

We performed a comprehensive assessment of the impact of changing FiO_2 during TIVA or VA on systemic haemodynamics, and renal and intrarenal perfusion and PtO_2 in a healthy large animal. We maintained a similar depth of anaesthesia with both anaesthetic protocols, as judged by similar effects on systemic haemodynamics, responses to reflexes, and on arterial blood gases. The length of the abdominal surgical procedure lasting 120–150 minutes is relevant to abdominal surgery in humans. Finally, we compared the systemic and renal variables measured under general anaesthesia with those in the non-anaesthetised state on postoperative Day 3.

We acknowledge some limitations to our study. We used isoflurane for VA, which is now not commonly used in human surgical procedures. However, there is no evidence that more commonly used VA agents such as sevoflurane are more renoprotective than isoflurane.³⁶ Because of the short (20 minute) periods of observation, we did not measure glomerular filtration rate, a major determinant of RVO₂, however, we monitored the impact of changing FiO₂ on whole-kidney oxygen supply and demand by measuring RDO2, RVO2, and oxygen extraction ratio. The effects of isoflurane were examined in the absence of fentanyl, which enabled analysis of the effects of isoflurane alone without the confounding effects of fentanyl. However, the lack of fentanyl resulted in higher isoflurane requirements to maintain adequate anaesthesia and analgesia, which may have contributed to the reduction in CO, as has been reported in anaesthetised dogs.^{37,38} Finally, the dose of propofol required in sheep was relatively high as a result of inherent species differences in metabolism and excretion of this drug.³⁹ At high doses, propofol reduces HR,⁴⁰ which in combination with a reduced SV would lower CO.

Conclusions

In healthy adult sheep, global and regional kidney perfusion decrease significantly during anaesthesia, but such decreases are less with TIVA than VA and are largely independent of FiO₂. The inability of the kidneys to mount a hyperaemic response to mild systemic hypoxaemia may increase the susceptibility to renal injury during major surgical procedures. However, renal PtO₂ can be maintained at levels similar to the non-anaesthetised state if FiO₂ is held \geq 0.40 and \leq 0.60 with both TIVA and VA.

Authors' contributions

Study conception: NI, CNM, YRL Study design: NI, JK, YI, CNM, YRL Hypothesis delineation: NI, CNM, YRL Data acquisition: NI, JK, YI, YL Data analysis: YRL, NI Data interpretation: YRL, CNM, RB, RGE Writing of manuscript: YRL, CNM, RB Revision before submission: all authors

Declarations of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Funding

This study was supported by a grant from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (NHMRC, 1050672) and by funding from the Victorian Government Operational Infrastructure Support Grant. YRL was supported by a Future-Leader Fellowship from the National Heart Foundation of Australia (NHF, 101853) and an Early Career Medical Research Grant from the Jack Brockhoff Foundation (JBF 4178).

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Tony Dorman and Tom Vale for their excellent technical assistance.

References

- O'Connor ME, Kirwan CJ, Pearse RM, Prowle JR. Incidence and associations of acute kidney injury after major abdominal surgery. Intensive Care Med 2016; 42: 521–30
- Myles PS, Bellomo R, Corcoran T, et al. Restrictive versus liberal fluid therapy for major abdominal surgery. N Engl J Med 2018; 14: 2263–74
- Kellum JA, Prowle JR. Paradigms of acute kidney injury in the intensive care setting. Nat Rev Nephrol 2018; 14: 217–30
- 4. Ronco C, Bellomo R, Kellum JA. Acute kidney injury. *Lancet* 2019; **394**: 1949–64
- Evans RG, Lankadeva YR, Cochrane AD, et al. Renal haemodynamics and oxygenation during and after cardiac surgery and cardiopulmonary bypass. Acta Physiol 2018; 222, e12995
- Iguchi N, Kosaka J, Booth LC, et al. Renal perfusion, oxygenation, and sympathetic nerve activity during volatile or intravenous general anaesthesia in sheep. Br J Anaesth 2019; 122: 342–9
- 7. Evans RG, Iguchi N, Cochrane AD, et al. Renal hemodynamics and oxygenataion during experimental

cardiopulmonary bypass in sheep under total intravenous anesthesia. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2020; **318**: R206–13

- **8.** Evans RG, Eppel GA, Anderson WP, Denton KM. Mechanisms underlying the differential control of blood flow in the renal medulla and cortex. *J* Hypertens 2004; **22**: 1439–51
- Percie du Sert N, Hurst V, Ahluwalia A, et al. The ARRIVE guidelines 2019: updated guidelines for reporting animal research. bioRxiv 703181 2019. https://doi.org/10.1101/ 703181
- 10. Lankadeva YR, Kosaka J, Evans RG, May CN. An ovine model for studying the pathophysiology of septic acute kidney injury. In: Tharakan B, editor. Traumatic and ischemic injury: methods and protocols. New York, NY: Springer New York; 2018. p. 207–18
- 11. Calzavacca P, Evans RG, Bailey M, Lankadeva YR, Bellomo R, May CN. Long-term measurement of renal cortical and medullary tissue oxygenation and perfusion in unanesthetized sheep. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2015; 308: R832–9
- 12. Lankadeva YR, Kosaka J, Evans RG, Bellomo R, May CN. Urinary oxygenation as a surrogate marker of medullary oxygenation during angiotensin II therapy in septic acute kidney injury. Crit Care Med 2018; 46: e41–8
- 13. Lankadeva YR, Kosaka J, Evans RG, Bailey M, Bellomo R, May CN. Intra-renal and urinary oxygenation during norepinephrine resuscitation in ovine septic acute kidney injury. Kidney Int 2016; 90: 100–8
- 14. Kingery W, Agashe G, Guo T, et al. Isoflurane and nociception: spinal alpha2A adrenoceptors mediate antinociception while supraspinal αlpha1 adrenoceptors mediate pronociception. Anesthesiology 2002; 96: 367–74
- Sanders RD, Patel N, Hossain M, Ma D, Maze M. Isoflurane exerts antinociceptive and hypnotic properties at all ages in Fischer rats. Br J Anaesth 2005; 95: 393–9
- 16. Evans RG, Goddard D, Eppel GA, O'Connor PM. Factors that render the kidney susceptible to tissue hypoxia in hypoxemia. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2011; 300: R931–40
- 17. Johannes T, Mik E, Ince C. Dual-wavelength phosphorimetry for determination of cortical and subcortical microvascular oxygenation in rat kidney. J App Physiol 2006; 100: 1301–10
- Evans RG, Gardiner BS, Smith DW, O'Connor PM. Intrarenal oxygenation: unique challenges and the biophysical basis of homeostasis. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol 2008; 295: F1259–70
- Evans RG, Eppel GA, Michaels S, et al. Multiple mechanisms act to maintain kidney oxygenation during renal ischemia in anesthetized rabbits. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol 2010; 298: F1235–43
- 20. Warner L, Gomez SI, Bolterman R, et al. Regional decreases in renal oxygenation during graded acute renal arterial stenosis: a case for renal ischemia. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2009; 296: R67–71
- Cheng H-LM. Effect of hyperoxia and hypercapnia on tissue oxygen and perfusion response in the normal liver and kidney. PLos One 2012; 7, e40485
- 22. Ball L, Lumb AB, Pelosi P. Intraoperative fraction of inspired oxygen: bringing back the focus on patient outcome. Br J Anaesth 2017; 119: 16–8
- de Jonge S, Egger M, Latif A, et al. Effectiveness of 80% vs 30–35% fraction of inspired oxygen in patients

undergoing surgery: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis. Br J Anaesth 2019; **122**: 325–34

- 24. Ruetzler K, Cohen B, Leung S, et al. Supplemental intraoperative oxygen does not promote acute kidney injury or cardiovascular complications after noncardiac surgery: subanalysis of an alternating intervention trial. Anesth Analg 2019; 130: 933–40
- 25. Baumgärtl H, Leichtweiss HP, Lübbers DW, Weiss C, Huland H. The oxygen supply of the dog kidney: measurements of intrarenal pO2. Microvasc Res 1972; 4: 247–57
- 26. Brezis M, Rosen S. Hypoxia of the renal medulla its implications for disease. N Engl J Med 1995; 332: 647–55
- 27. Carreau A, El Hafny-Rahbi B, Matejuk A, Grillon C, Kieda C. Why is the partial oxygen pressure of human tissues a crucial parameter? Small molecules and hypoxia. J Cell Mol Med 2011; 15: 1239–53
- Landes RR, Leonhardt KO, Duruman N. A clinical study of the oxygen tension of the urine and renal structures. J Urol 1964; 92: 171–8
- 29. Lankadeva YR, Cochrane AD, Marino B, et al. Strategies that improve renal medullary oxygenation during experimental cardiopulmonary bypass may mitigate postoperative acute kidney injury. *Kidney Int* 2019; 95: 1338–46
- 30. Groves N, Leach K, Rosen M. Effects of halothane, enflurane and isoflurane anaesthesia on renal plasma flow. Br J Anaesth 1990; 65: 796–800
- **31.** Mazze R, Cousins M, Barr G. Renal effects and metabolism of isoflurane in man. *Anesthesiology* 1974; **40**: 536–42
- **32.** Lankadeva YR, Evans RG, Kosaka J, et al. Alterations in regional kidney oxygenation during expansion of extracellular fluid volume in conscious healthy sheep.

Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 2018; **315**: R1242–50

- 33. Calzavacca P, Evans RG, Bailey M, Bellomo R, May CN. Cortical and medullary tissue perfusion and oxygenation in experimental septic acute kidney injury. Crit Care Med 2015; 43: e431–9
- 34. Lankadeva YR, Ma S, Iguchi N, et al. Dexmedetomidine reduces norepinephrine requirements and preserves renal oxygenation and function in ovine septic acute kidney injury. Kidney Int 2019; 96: 1150–61
- 35. Dunn J-O, Mythen M, Grocott M. Physiology of oxygen transport. BJA Educ 2016; 16: 341-8
- 36. Tan SI, Brewster DJ, Horrigan D, Sarode V. Pharmacological and non-surgical renal protective strategies for cardiac surgery patients undergoing cardiopulmonary bypass: a systematic review. ANZ J Surg 2019; 89: 296–302
- Picker O, Scheeren T, Arndt J. Inhalation anaesthetics increase heart rate by decreasing cardiac vagal activity in dogs. Br J Anaesth 2001; 87: 748–54
- 38. Merin RG, Bernard JM, Doursout MF, Cohen M, Chelly JE. Comparison of the effects of isoflurane and desflurane on cardiovascular dynamics and regional blood flow in the chronically instrumented dog. Anesthesiology 1991; 74: 568–74
- **39.** Simons P, Cockshott I, Douglas E, Gordon E, Knott S, Ruane R. Species differences in blood profiles, metabolism and excretion of 14C-propofol after intravenous dosing to rat, dog and rabbit. *Xenobiotica* 1991; **21**: 1243–56
- 40. Whitwam JG, Galletly DC, Ma D, Chakrabarti MK. The effects of propofol on heart rate, arterial pressure and Aδ and C somatosympathetic reflexes in anaesthetized dogs. Eur J Anaesth 2000; 17: 57–63

Handling editor: Christa Boer