

Arterial Hyperoxia: Possible Risk and Outcome in Critically Ill Patients

Essay

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List of Abbreviations

ACC : The American College of Cardiology

ACS : Acute coronary syndrome

AHA : American Heart Association

ALI : Acute lung injury

ATA : Atmospheres absolute

ATP : Adenosine triphosphate

CaO₂ : Oxygen content of blood

CAT : Catalase

CBF : Coronary blood flow

CBV : Coronary diastolic blood velocity

CF : Cystic fibrosis

CHF : Congestive heart failure

CNS : Central nervous system

COPD : Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

CPAP : Continuous positive airway pressure

CVR : Coronary vascular resistance

DAMPs : Damage-associated molecular pattern molecules

DO₂ : Oxygen delivery to the tissue

FiO₂ : Fractional concentration of inspired oxygen

GSH : Glutathione peroxidase

HALI : Hyperoxic acute lung injury

Hb : Hemoglobin

HFNC : High-flow nasal cannula

ICU : Intensive care unit

IPPV : Intermittent positive pressure ventilation

LV : Left ventricle

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

LVEDP: Left ventricular end diastolic pressure

NIV : Non-invasive ventilation

NO : Nitric oxide

NSTEMI: Non ST segment myocardial infarction

PACO₂ : Alveolar levels of carbon dioxide

PaCO₂ : Arterial carbon dioxide tension

PAO₂ : Alveolar levels of oxygen

PaO₂ : Partial pressure of oxygen in the blood

PIO₂ : Inspired PO₂

PMNs : Polymorphonuclear neutrophils

PO₂ : Partial pressure of O₂

PtCO₂ : Transcutaneous carbon dioxide tension

RCT : Randomised controlled trial

RER : Respiratory exchange ratio

ROS : Reactive oxygen species

ROSC : Return of spontaneous circulation

SaO₂ : Oxygen saturation level measured directly from

an arterial blood sample

SOD : Superoxide dismutase

SpO₂ : Oxygen saturation level measured from pulse

oximeter

STEMI : ST segment myocardial infarction

SVR : Systemic vascular resistance

TTOT : Trans-tracheal oxygen therapy

UA : Unstable angina

V/Q ratio: Ventilation perfusion ratio

 V_T : Tidal volume

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Introduction

Oxygen is a vital element in human survival and plays a major role in a diverse range of biological and physiological processes. In medical practice, it is among the most universally used agents for the treatment of critical illness and part of the routine treatment in acute shock and emergency medicine (Schultz et al., 2015).

While avoiding hypoxemia has long been a goal of critical care practitioners, oxygen therapy during mechanical ventilation, anesthesia, and resuscitation usually exceeds physiological level and less attention has been paid to the potential for excessive oxygenation (Gershengorn et al., 2014).

Hyperoxia is a state of excess supply of O_2 in tissues Organs. Oxygen toxicity occurs when the partial and pressure of alveolar O₂ (PAO₂) exceeds that which is breathed under normal conditions. With continuous exposure to supra physiologic concentrations of O2, a state of hyperoxia develops (Ciencewicki et al., 2008).

Exposure time, atmospheric pressure, and fraction of inspired O₂ (FiO₂) determine the cumulative O₂ dose leading to toxicity. Oxygen is toxic to the lungs when high FiO₂ (>0.60) is administered over extended exposure time (≥ 24) hours) at normal barometric pressure (1 atmospheres absolute (ATA)). This type of exposure is referred to as low pressure O₂ poisoning, pulmonary toxicity, or the Lorraine Smith effect (Ciencewicki et al., 2008).

In regard to oxygen toxicity, it is frequently assumed that it is not oxygen itself that exerts toxic effects but merely the reactive oxygen species (ROS) that are generated as an undesirable by-product of adenosine triphosphate synthesis during aerobic cellular metabolism. when the production of ROS exceeds the limit of counteraction by antioxidant responses, ROS concentrations reach high levels and a cellular state of oxidative stress manifests (Cornet et al., *2013*).

Oxygen supplementation is a well-accepted therapy for hypoxaemic patients, because it increases the delivery of oxygen to cells and is thus believed to reverse the effects of hypoxia. Oxygen supplementation is a standard component of treatment in patients with acute heart disease. Hypoxaemic patients benefit from oxygen insufflation, because hypoxia can induce general and brain ischaemia. However, most patients who present with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) are not hypoxaemic (Bateman and Leach, 1998).

Yet the use of supplemental oxygen is widespread in cardiac patients, inadvertent hyperoxia commonly occurs because of concerns to ensure sufficient oxygenation and because hyperoxia is not perceived to be detrimental. In years, there has been mounting demonstrating the potential adverse effects of hyperoxia on the cardiovascular system (Lawrence and Raman, 2010).

Also, it has been long appreciated that hyperoxia has adverse consequences in patients with chronic obstructive lung disease or acute respiratory failure, as gas exchange may be worsened by de-nitrogenation atelectasis and increased intrapulmonary shunting (Kilgannon et al., 2011).

In the post-resuscitation phase, there is evidence that patients surviving initial resuscitation may be managed more safely with 30% oxygen than with 100% oxygen. Clinically, hyperoxia is associated with poor neurological outcome following resuscitation (Kilgannon et al., 2011).

Aim of the Essay

The aim of this essay is to provide a comprehensive overview of the effects of hyperoxia on the clinical outcome of critically ill patients.

Chapter 1 Oxygen therapy

Oxygen therapy is the administration of oxygen as a medical intervention, which can be for a variety of purposes in both chronic and acute patient care. Oxygen is essential for cell metabolism, and in turn, tissue oxygenation is essential for all normal physiological functions (*Roston*, 2014).

Oxygen is probably the commonest drug to be used in the care of patients who present with medical emergencies. Currently, ambulance teams and emergency department teams are likely to give oxygen to virtually all breathless patients and to a large number of patients with other conditions such as ischaemic heart disease, sepsis or trauma (*Davison et al.*, 2008).

O₂ in blood exists in 2 forms:

1- In physical solution (0.3cc/100cc.blood)

Although it is very small in amount, it is very important in determining the direction and rate of diffusion of O_2 from the blood.

2- In chemical combination with haemoglobin:

Normally blood contains 15 gms of Hb/100cc. Each 1 gm Hb carries 1.34 cc O_2 . So arterial blood when fully saturated with O_2 contains 20 cc O_2 (*Davison et al.*, 2008).

As there is a fixed amount of haemoglobin circulating in the blood, the amount of oxygen carried in the blood is

often expressed in terms of how saturated with oxygen the circulating haemoglobin is. This is what is meant by "oxygen saturation level". If this is measured directly from an arterial blood sample, it is called the SaO₂. If the measurement is calculated from a pulse oximeter it is called the SpO₂. The normal SaO2 in healthy adults at sea level is maintained within a narrow range of about 95–98%. Alternatively, one can measure the oxygen tension of the blood (PaO₂), known as the "partial pressure of oxygen" in the blood. This measurement can be expressed in kilopascals (kPa) (normal range 12.0-14.6 kPa) or in millimetres of mercury (normal range 90-110 mm Hg for young adults) (Crapo et al., 1999).

Hypoxia: definition and types:

Definition:

Hypoxaemia refers to low oxygen tension or partial pressure of oxygen (PaO₂) in the blood. Most authors who have studied this area have defined hypoxaemia as PaO₂<60 mm Hg (8 kPa) or SaO₂ 90% (Considine, 2005). There is no known risk of hypoxic tissue injury above this level and many guidelines on critical care set 90% as the minimum below which SaO₂ should not be allowed to fall (Jubran and Torban, 1990).

Types:

1- Hypoxaemic hypoxia:

Hypoxaemic hypoxia (sometimes also referred to as hypoxic hypoxia) is present when the oxygen content in the

blood is low due to reduced partial pressure of oxygen. This occurs naturally at altitude and in many diseases such as emphysema which impair the efficiency of gas exchange in the lungs (*Slutsky*, 1994).

2-Anaemic hypoxia:

Anaemic hypoxia results from a reduced level of haemoglobin available for oxygen transport. Although the patient may not be hypoxaemic (with a normal PaO₂ and oxygen saturation measured by oximetry (SpO₂), the reduced oxygen content of the blood may lead to tissue hypoxia. Carbon monoxide poisoning may also produce a form of anaemic hypoxia by impairing the ability of haemoglobin to bind oxygen, thereby reducing oxygen-carrying capacity (*Slutsky*, 1994).

3- Stagnant hypoxia:

Stagnant hypoxia is a low level of oxygen in the tissues due to inadequate blood flow (either globally or regionally). This condition may occur in the extremities if a person is exposed to cold temperatures for prolonged periods of time and it is the cause of gangrene in tissue that is deprived of blood in severe peripheral vascular disease. Stagnant hypoxia may occur in low cardiac output states (*Slutsky*, 1994).

4- Histotoxic hypoxia:

Histotoxic hypoxia is an inability of the tissues to use oxygen due to interruption of normal cellular metabolism. The best known example of this occurs during cyanide

poisoning which impairs cytochrome function. It is increasingly thought that mitochondrial dysfunction may lead to decreased oxygen utilization in sepsis despite adequate oxygen delivery. This has also been termed "cytopathic dysoxia" (*Brealey and Singer*, 2003).

Pathophysiology of hypoxaemia:

Hypoxaemic hypoxia in blood as regards the alveolar capillary unit in the lung may be induced by alveolar hypoxia or incomplete gas exchange. The alveolar gas equation calculates the oxygen level in the alveolus using the following formula:

$$PAO_2 = PIO_2 - PACO_2/RER$$

Where PAO₂ and PACO₂ represent alveolar levels of oxygen and carbon dioxide, RER is the respiratory exchange ratio or the ratio of carbon dioxide production to oxygen consumption and inspired PO₂ (PIO₂). Considering this equation, alveolar hypoxia can be induced by decreased PIO₂ or increased PACO₂.

If an alveolar capillary unit is relatively underventilated for its degree of perfusion (low V/Q ratio), PACO₂ will rise due to inadequate clearance and thus PAO₂ will fall. In diseases that cause global hypoventilation such as respiratory muscle weakness, effectively all areas of lung have low V/Q ratios and this explains the hypercapnia and hypoxaemia associated with these conditions.

An extreme form of low V/Q pathophysiology occurs in intrapulmonary and extrapulmonary shunt where no gas