

# Systemic oxygen transport derived by using continuous measured oxygen consumption after the Norwood procedure—an interim review

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Received 29 October 2011; received in revised form 31 January 2012; accepted 13 February 2012

## Abstract

The balance between systemic O<sub>2</sub> consumption (VO<sub>2</sub>) and O<sub>2</sub> delivery (DO<sub>2</sub>) is impaired in children after cardiopulmonary bypass surgery, with decreased DO<sub>2</sub> and increased VO<sub>2</sub>. The major goal, and the major challenge, of postoperative management has been to match DO<sub>2</sub> to VO<sub>2</sub> in order to sustain cellular metabolism, particularly in neonates after the Norwood procedure. While much effort has been put into augmenting cardiac output and DO<sub>2</sub>, VO<sub>2</sub> remains largely ignored. Respiratory mass spectrometry allows the precise and continuous measurement of VO<sub>2</sub>. Measured VO<sub>2</sub>, using the direct Fick principle, allows for the calculation of each element of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport in the complex Norwood circulation. The actual measurements of O<sub>2</sub> transport have allowed us, in the past five years or so, to extensively investigate the Norwood physiology in terms of the VO<sub>2</sub>-DO<sub>2</sub> relationship and the factors affecting it in clinical treatments. Therefore, the first objective of this article is to introduce the technique of respiratory mass spectrometry and its adaption to measure VO<sub>2</sub> across paediatric ventilators with continuous flow. The second objective is to give an interim review of the main findings in our studies on systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport in 17 neonates in the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure. These findings include the profiles of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport, the important contribution of VO<sub>2</sub> to the impaired balance of O<sub>2</sub> transport and the complex effects of some routine clinical treatments on the VO<sub>2</sub>-DO<sub>2</sub> relationship (including catecholamines, PaCO<sub>2</sub>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and hyperglycaemia, as well as patient-specific anatomical variations). The influence of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport on cerebral oxygenation is also introduced. This information may help us to refine postoperative management in neonates after the Norwood procedure. Our initial studies mark the end of the beginning, but much is yet explored. Ultimately, the resultant improved systemic and regional O<sub>2</sub> transport in the early postoperative period may have an important impact on long-term outcomes, thereby improving the quality of life for these vulnerable children.

**Keywords:** Respiratory mass spectrometry • Oxygen transport • The Norwood procedure

## INTRODUCTION

The element of O<sub>2</sub> transport has been increasingly appreciated in the care of children with congenital heart defects after cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB) surgery [1–8]. The fundamental requirement of postoperative management is to match systemic O<sub>2</sub> delivery (DO<sub>2</sub>) with O<sub>2</sub> consumption (VO<sub>2</sub>) in order to sustain cellular metabolism and end-organ function. This is also a major challenge. In most children after CPB, cardiac function and DO<sub>2</sub> are depressed due to myocardial injury by surgery and ischaemia reperfusion [4, 5]. At the same time, VO<sub>2</sub> is increased and highly dynamic [1–4, 9, 10], due to systemic inflammatory response [9, 11], rewarming from hypothermic CPB and fever [1, 9], and pharmacological [2] and ventilatory manipulations [10, 12, 13]. VO<sub>2</sub> constitutes an important component of the imbalance of O<sub>2</sub> transport after CPB and of the effects, beneficial or adverse, of some routine clinical treatments [1–4, 10, 13]. However, in clinical practice, VO<sub>2</sub> remains largely ignored.

The imbalance of O<sub>2</sub> transport is particularly profound in neonates after the Norwood procedure for hypoplastic left heart

syndrome and similar anatomical variants [2–4]. Due to this, the Norwood procedure continues to have a significant morbidity and a mortality rate that ranges from 6 to 25% [14–17]. This is inherent in the single ventricle supplying parallel pulmonary and systemic circulations and is compounded by the variable effects of CPB, ischaemia and reperfusion injury, and systemic inflammatory and metabolic response. In the Norwood circulation, the reserve of DO<sub>2</sub> is marginal. On the other hand, the increase in VO<sub>2</sub> is more substantial in neonates because of the greater systemic inflammatory and metabolic responses [18, 19] and the greater stimulation of VO<sub>2</sub> by inotropes [2, 20].

In this dynamic milieu, with significant alterations in the VO<sub>2</sub>-DO<sub>2</sub> relationship, indirect indicators of haemodynamics such as heart rate, arterial blood pressure and arterial and venous O<sub>2</sub> saturations are most commonly used to guide postoperative management to optimize the balance of O<sub>2</sub> transport. Their adequacy has been questioned [6]. Although central venous O<sub>2</sub> saturation accurately reflects the overall balance of O<sub>2</sub> transport, it does not discriminate between the contributions of DO<sub>2</sub> and VO<sub>2</sub> [3, 21]. In some clinical reports, derived values of systemic and pulmonary blood flows (Q<sub>s</sub> and Q<sub>p</sub>) and DO<sub>2</sub> have been

obtained, but these are based on the false assumption of a fixed  $\text{VO}_2$  of 160 or 180 ml/(min/m<sup>2</sup>) [7, 8, 22, 23].

This situation has changed with the adaptation of the highly sensitive and precise technique of respiratory mass spectrometry to continuously measure  $\text{VO}_2$  across paediatric ventilators with continuous flow. Measured  $\text{VO}_2$ , using the direct Fick principle, allows for the calculation of the actual values for each element of systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport in the Norwood circulation, including  $Q_s$  and  $Q_p$  and systemic and pulmonary resistances (SVR and PVR),  $\text{DO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  extraction ratio ( $\text{ERO}_2$ ). In the past five years or so, we have extensively investigated systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport and factors affecting it in routine clinical treatments after the Norwood procedure [2-4, 6, 10, 24-27].

Therefore, the objectives of this article are two fold: first, to introduce the technique of respiratory mass spectrometry and its adaptation to paediatric ventilators to continuously measure  $\text{VO}_2$ ; second, to give an interim review of the main findings from our studies on  $\text{O}_2$  transport to serve as 'food for thought' in further exploration of the Norwood physiology.

## RESPIRATORY MASS SPECTROMETRY

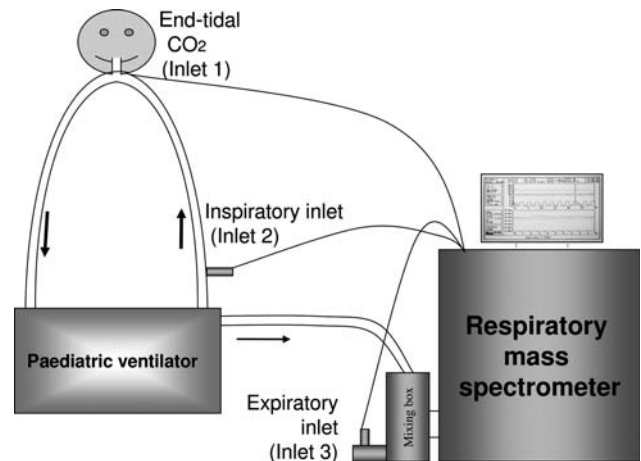
The introduction of mass spectrometry into respiratory physiology in the 1940s was the basis for the development of the state-of-the-art methods for measuring  $\text{VO}_2$  using highly accurate and rapid multiple gas analyses. The reported precision of the earlier methods using the mass spectrometer was as low as 5% in spontaneous breathing at rest or during exercise against a Douglas bag [28]. The precision may increase in paralysed and ventilated patients. We have adapted the method to continuously measure  $\text{VO}_2$  with a variety of paediatric ventilators with continuous flow, using the AMIS 2000 Medical Respiratory Mass Spectrometer System (Innovision A/C, Odense, Denmark), making it a unique and powerful research tool in the paediatric intensive care unit (ICU) [1-4, 6, 9, 10, 13, 24-27, 29-33].

### Principles of mass spectrometry

Mass spectrometers analyse substances in the gas phase by performing a sequence of five operations: (i) accepting and vaporizing a minute controlled quantity of sample; (ii) reducing the sample vapour to a very low pressure; (iii) ionizing a representative part of the vapour; (iv) separating the ionized particles produced, according to their mass-to-charge ratio; and (v) reading the abundance of particles at specific values of the mass-to-charge ratio.

### Set-up of the respiratory mass spectrometer with paediatric ventilators

We have adapted the AMIS 2000 respiratory mass spectrometer in the ICU to various paediatric ventilators with continuous flow, such as the Servo 300 and Servo-i (Siemens AG, Munich, Germany) (Fig. 1). The mixing box is connected to the exit port of the paediatric ventilator to collect the expired gas and is also connected to an 'expiratory' inlet (Inlet 3). The expiratory inlet allows for the sampling of the 'effluent' mixed expirate from the distal end of the mixing box. Inlets 1 and 2 are placed at the mouth piece and in the inspiratory limb, respectively.



**Figure 1:** The set-up of the AMIS 2000 respiratory mass spectrometer sampling inlets, the mixing box and the circuit of the paediatric ventilator in the ICU.

Accurate measurement of  $\text{VO}_2$  relies on the complete collection of expired gas and thus a leak-free circuit. Patients are, therefore, intubated with a cuffed endotracheal tube (Microcuff-Heidelberg-Pediatric; Microcuff GmbH, Weinheim, Germany). Additionally, patients are usually sedated and paralysed in order to obviate the confounding effects of movement, agitation and pain on  $\text{VO}_2$  and to ensure a steady state.

### Calculation of $\text{O}_2$ transport parameters using $\text{VO}_2$ in the Norwood circulation

The Fick principle states that 'The total uptake or release of any substance by an organ is the product of blood flow to the organ and the arteriovenous concentration difference of the substance' [34]. The direct Fick principle using  $\text{VO}_2$  is one of the oldest methods used for measuring  $Q_p$  and  $Q_s$ , but nonetheless remains the gold standard. The equations used for calculating  $\text{O}_2$  transport in the Norwood circulation, i.e. single ventricular circulation, are as follows:

$$Q_s = \frac{\text{VO}_2}{\text{CaO}_2 - \text{CsvcO}_2},$$

$$Q_p = \frac{\text{VO}_2}{\text{CpvO}_2 - \text{CaO}_2},$$

$$\text{CO} = Q_s + Q_p,$$

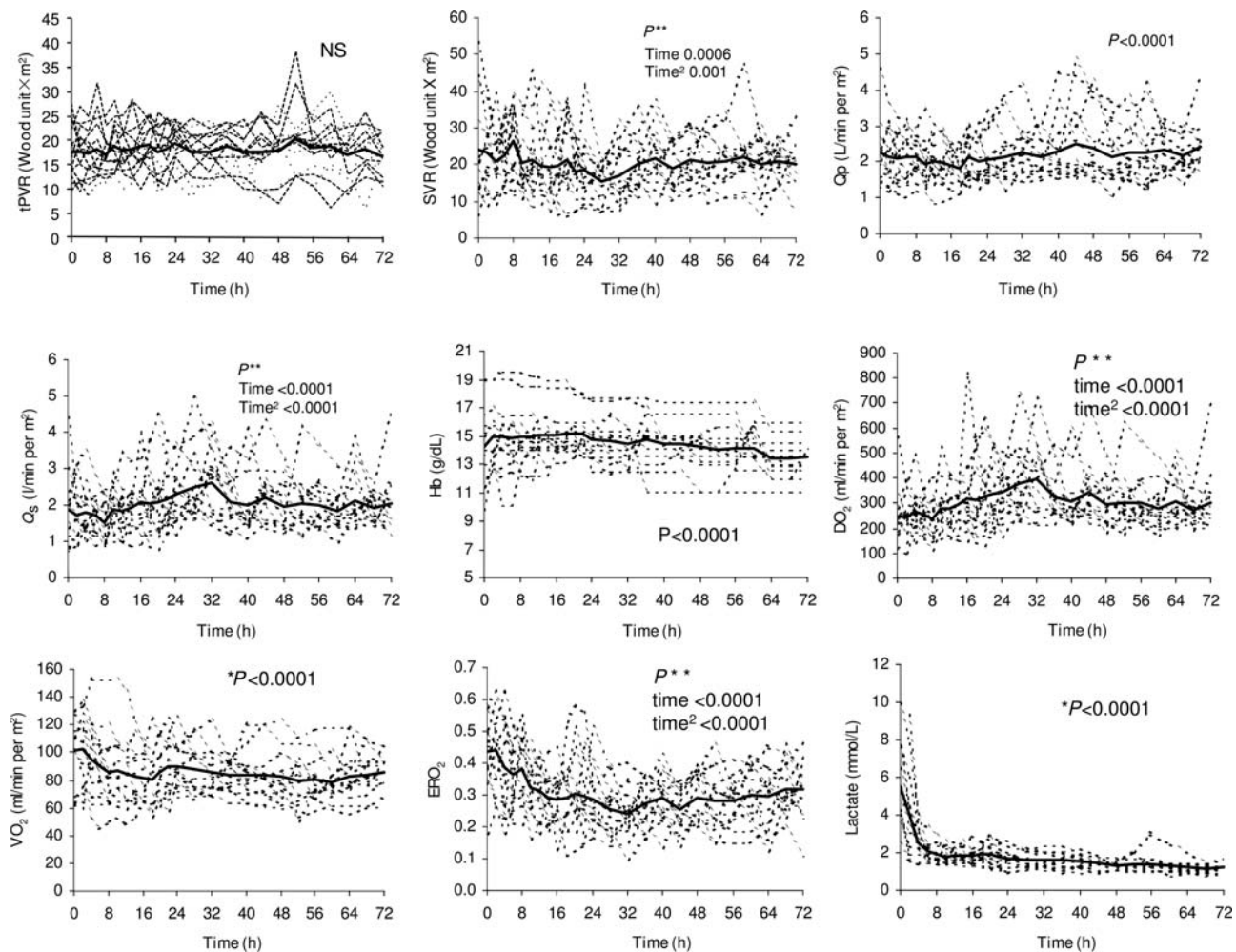
$$\text{SVR} = \frac{\text{MaP} - \text{MsvcP}}{Q_s},$$

$$\text{tPVR} = \frac{\text{MaP} - \text{MpvP}}{Q_p \text{ (including the shunt)}},$$

$$\text{DO}_2 = Q_s \times \text{CaO}_2,$$

$$\text{ERO}_2 = \frac{\text{VO}_2}{\text{DO}_2},$$

where  $\text{CaO}_2$ ,  $\text{CsvcO}_2$  and  $\text{CpvO}_2$  are, respectively, the systemic arterial and superior vena caval  $\text{O}_2$  contents and  $\text{MaP}$ ,  $\text{MsvcP}$  and  $\text{MpvP}$  and pulmonary venous are the mean systemic arterial, superior vena caval and pulmonary venous pressures, respectively.



**Figure 2:** Individual and mean values of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport parameters. Total pulmonary vascular resistance with the BT shunt (tPVR) and SVR, Q<sub>p</sub>, Q<sub>s</sub>, haemoglobin (Hb), DO<sub>2</sub>, VO<sub>2</sub>, ERO<sub>2</sub> and arterial lactate levels during the first 72 h after patient arrival in the ICU.

## SYSTEMIC O<sub>2</sub> TRANSPORT AFTER THE NORWOOD PROCEDURE

The actual measurements of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport parameters have enabled us to examine the alterations in the VO<sub>2</sub>-DO<sub>2</sub> relationship after the Norwood procedure and, more importantly, to explore the factors affecting the relationship, beneficial or adverse, in the routine treatments that are used to optimize O<sub>2</sub> transport. The rest of this paper summarizes the main findings from our studies in 17 neonates during the first 72 h after the classical Norwood procedure with the Blalock-Taussig shunt, between April 2004 and November 2006, at the Hospital for Sick Children in Toronto, Ont., Canada. These findings may also be largely applied to the modified Norwood procedure with a right ventricle to the pulmonary artery shunt.

### Profiles of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport after the Norwood procedure

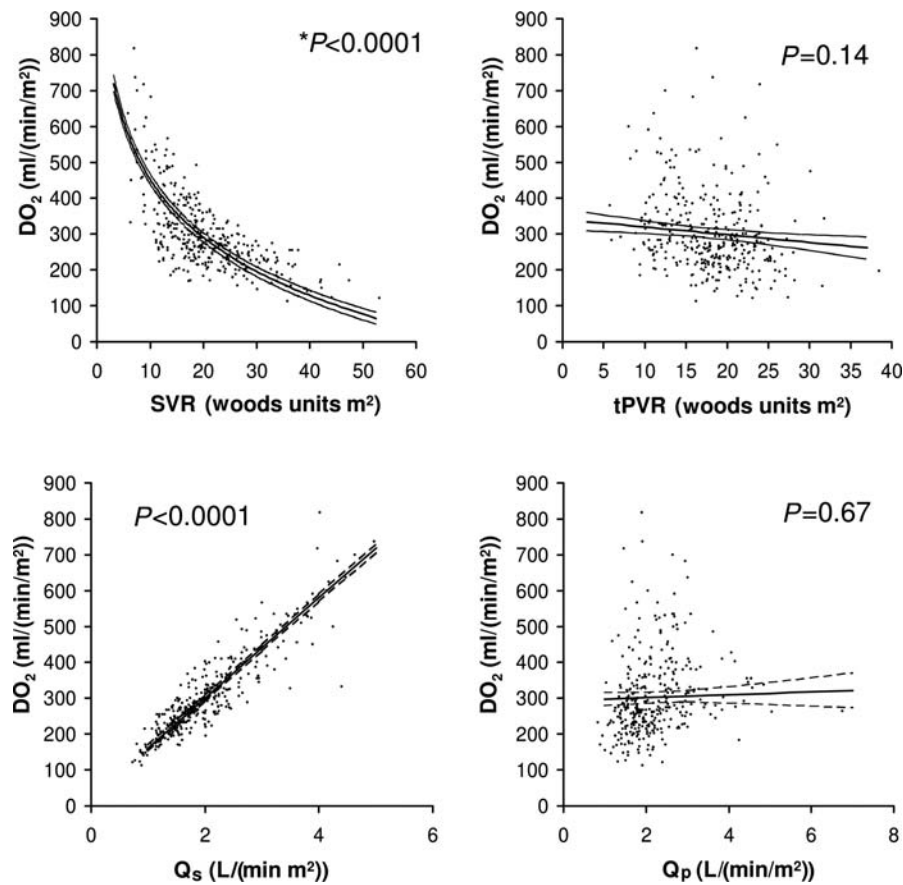
The wide, unstable inter- and intra-individual variations in all the elements of O<sub>2</sub> transport reflect the profound instability of the early postoperative course after the Norwood procedure (Fig. 2) [4]. The variability is particularly greater on the systemic side (including SVR and Q<sub>s</sub>). PVR and Q<sub>p</sub> are less variable due to the mechanical

limitation of the Blalock-Taussig shunt in the classical Norwood procedure or to the right ventricle to the pulmonary artery shunt in the modified Norwood procedure. Over the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure, Q<sub>p</sub>, Q<sub>s</sub> and DO<sub>2</sub> gradually increase.

VO<sub>2</sub> varies significantly both between and within patients, ranging from 45 to 152 ml/(min/m<sup>2</sup>). Note that these measured values are all below the previously assumed values of 160 or 180 ml/(min/m<sup>2</sup>) [7, 8, 22, 23]. Overall, VO<sub>2</sub> is high immediately after the Norwood procedure [3, 4]. It decreases rapidly in the first 24 h, followed by a slower decrease over the following 48 h, with a total decrease of about 20%. In the first 24 h, CO, Q<sub>s</sub> and DO<sub>2</sub> are the variables that decrease the most. However, during the critical first 24-h period, the balance of VO<sub>2</sub>-DO<sub>2</sub> improves significantly, as indicated by the rapid decrease in ERO<sub>2</sub>. The observed improvement in balance results primarily from a decrease in VO<sub>2</sub>, rather than from any significant improvement in DO<sub>2</sub> as reported previously [7, 23, 35]. This indicates the important contribution of VO<sub>2</sub> to the balance of O<sub>2</sub> transport in the early hours after the Norwood procedure.

### Optimizing systemic O<sub>2</sub> delivery

Correlation analyses of DO<sub>2</sub> with other systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport parameters reveal the important factors that contribute to DO<sub>2</sub>



**Figure 3:** Correlations of systemic  $DO_2$  with SVR,  $Q_s$ , total pulmonary vascular resistance including the BT shunt (tPVR) and  $Q_p$  in patients during the first 72 h after arrival in the ICU.

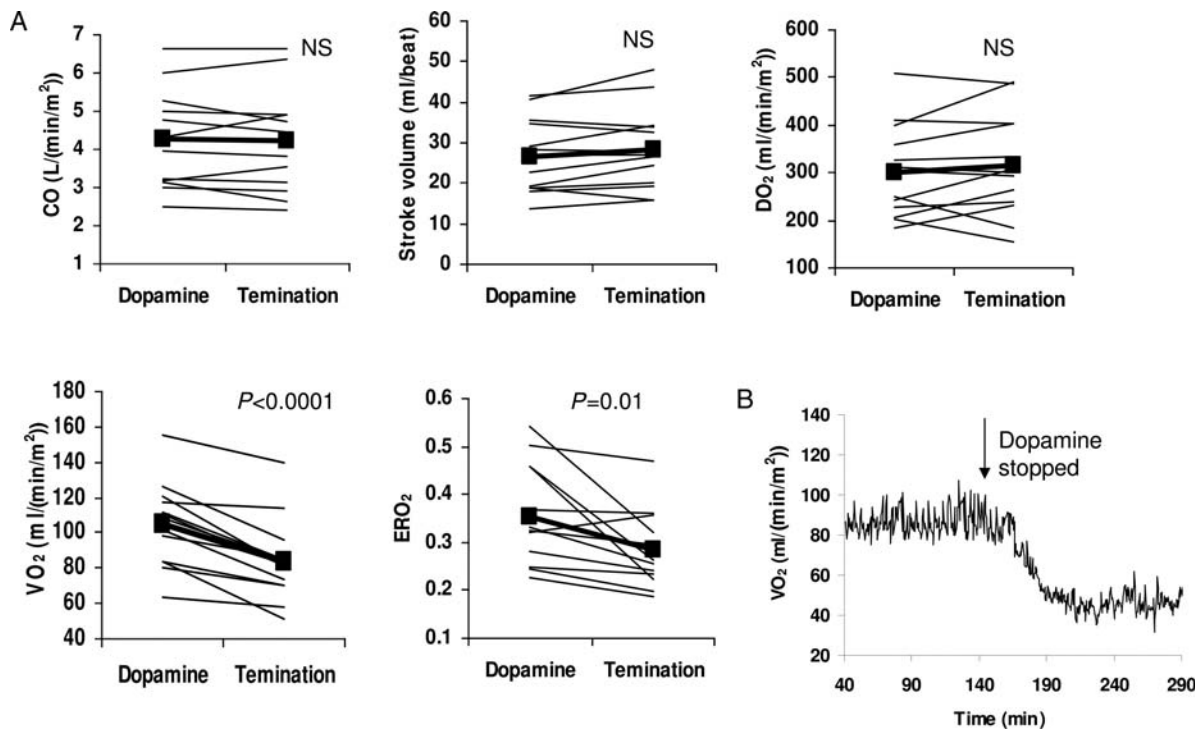
in the Norwood circulation [4]. There is a close positive correlation of  $DO_2$  with  $Q_s$  and a negative correlation with SVR, but not with  $Q_p$  or tPVR (Fig. 3). Furthermore, among the variables of arterial  $O_2$  content,  $DO_2$  is not correlated with  $SaO_2$  and only weakly correlated with  $PaO_2$ . Haemoglobin value has a high positive correlation with  $DO_2$ . Therefore, clinical management strategies aiming to increase  $DO_2$  should target SVR and  $Q_s$  as well as haemoglobin, but not tPVR,  $Q_p$ ,  $SaO_2$  or  $PaO_2$ . The routine use of systemic vasodilators such as phenoxybenzamine and nitroprusside to maintain a relatively low and stable SVR has been shown to improve  $O_2$  transport and postoperative outcomes [8, 36]. In contrast, vasoconstrictors such as vasopressin may have adverse effects on almost all the elements of systemic  $O_2$  transport, including decreases in  $Q_s$ , CO and  $DO_2$  as a result of an increase in SVR, leading to an increase in  $ERO_2$  and lactate [27]. Additionally, more attention should be paid to the maintenance of a relatively high level of haemoglobin throughout the prolonged postoperative course [4].

### Factors affecting $VO_2$ and its balance with $DO_2$

Direct and continuous measurements of  $VO_2$  have allowed us to study the complex effects of clinical treatments on  $VO_2$  itself and its relation with  $DO_2$ . Some routine treatments used in an effort to improve the balance of  $O_2$  transport have in fact complex or even adverse effects.

**Catecholamines.** Catecholamines, such as dopamine, epinephrine and norepinephrine, are commonly used in children after CPB to augment cardiac contractility and  $DO_2$ . Catecholamines also stimulate  $VO_2$  through their effects on myocardial work and metabolic rate [37]. If the increase in  $DO_2$  is greater than the increase in  $VO_2$ , then catecholamines will improve the overall balance of  $O_2$  transport and tissue oxygenation. In neonates, however, catecholamines have additional thermogenic actions through their effects on brown adipose tissue [38], resulting in an exaggerated increase in  $VO_2$  [20]. Furthermore, neonatal hearts are known to have limited reserves to increase cardiac contractility. The reserves become marginal in a Norwood circulation. In these patients, efforts to improve  $DO_2$  by catecholamines are more likely to be associated with predominately adverse effects. As we have reported [2], terminating a moderate dose of dopamine ( $5 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$ ) was associated not with any significant changes in CO or  $DO_2$  (Fig. 4A), but with a significant decrease in heart rate and rate pressure product, an indirect indicator of myocardial  $O_2$  consumption.  $VO_2$  also decreased by  $16 \pm 14 \text{ ml}/\text{min}/\text{m}^2$ , representing a change of  $20 \pm 11\%$ . The termination of dopamine resulted in an overall improvement of the balance of  $O_2$  transport, as indicated by the significant decrease in  $ERO_2$ . In other words, a moderate dose of dopamine induces predominantly an increase in  $VO_2$ , adversely affecting the  $VO_2$ - $DO_2$  relationship. Fig. 4B shows an example of on-line  $VO_2$  monitoring before and after dopamine termination.





**Figure 4:** (A) The individual (thin line) and mean (bold line with closed squares) changes in systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport before and after termination of dopamine following the Norwood procedure. CO: cardiac output; DO<sub>2</sub>: O<sub>2</sub> delivery; ERO<sub>2</sub>: O<sub>2</sub> extraction ratio; VO<sub>2</sub>: O<sub>2</sub> consumption. (B) An example of the on-line measurement of VO<sub>2</sub> showing the rapid decrease in VO<sub>2</sub> after terminating dopamine (7.5 µg/kg/min).

**CO<sub>2</sub>.** CO<sub>2</sub> has been suggested as a factor increasing DO<sub>2</sub> in neonates both before and after the Norwood procedure [39]. Consequently, it is a common practice to maintain a relatively high arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension (PaCO<sub>2</sub>), primarily by hypoventilation. The potent pulmonary vasoconstrictive effect of CO<sub>2</sub> was believed to decrease Q<sub>p</sub>, thereby increasing Q<sub>s</sub>. We studied the effect of stepwise increases in PaCO<sub>2</sub> from 40 to 50 to 60 mmHg and found complex effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on systemic and regional O<sub>2</sub> transport (Fig. 5) [10]. Moderate hypercapnia increases Q<sub>s</sub> as a result of its effect on SVR, rather than via PVR as proposed previously [39]. The increase in Q<sub>s</sub> is primarily a consequence of increased cerebral blood flow that compromises splanchnic circulation, as indicated by the increase in cerebral O<sub>2</sub> saturation and the decrease in splanchnic O<sub>2</sub> saturation measured by near infrared spectroscopy (Somanetics INVOS 5100A, Troy, MI, USA). Moderate hypercapnia also decreases VO<sub>2</sub> and stimulates the release of catecholamines. The decrease in VO<sub>2</sub> improves the balance of O<sub>2</sub> transport, but the increase in catecholamines may be undesirable. Clinically, CO<sub>2</sub> should be used with caution when the aim is to improve DO<sub>2</sub>.

**Plasma-ionized calcium and magnesium.** The realization of Ca<sup>2+</sup> injury and Mg<sup>2+</sup> protection on myocardial function has indicated the use of a cardioplegic solution with low Ca<sup>2+</sup> and high Mg<sup>2+</sup> during CPB [40]. However, postoperative management strategies have not been clearly defined. While supplemental Ca<sup>2+</sup> is commonly used in current practice, little attention is paid to the supplementation of Mg<sup>2+</sup>. From our data [41], we found that Mg<sup>2+</sup> shows significant positive correlations with CO and DO<sub>2</sub> and negative correlations with heart rate, VO<sub>2</sub>, ERO<sub>2</sub> and lactate after the Norwood procedure. We further examined the effects of Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> on myocardial energetics, using cardiac power output and rate pressure product. Cardiac power output represents cardiac power, whereas rate pressure is an indirect

measure of myocardial O<sub>2</sub> consumption [22, 23]. At any given unit of rate pressure product, Mg<sup>2+</sup> has a significant and positive correlation with cardiac power output. Ca<sup>2+</sup> shows the opposite trend, although without achieving statistical significance. As such, our data indicate the beneficial effects of Mg<sup>2+</sup> on myocardial energetics and systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport, whereas Ca<sup>2+</sup> may be potentially harmful. Therefore, maintaining a relatively high level of Mg<sup>2+</sup> and low level of Ca<sup>2+</sup> may promote the efficiency of myocardial work and improve the balance of systemic and myocardial O<sub>2</sub> transport.

**Hyperglycaemia.** Hyperglycaemia has been identified as a risk factor for adverse outcomes in critically ill patients, including patients who have undergone CPB. Tight glucose control with insulin therapy has been shown to improve outcomes [42, 43], but is not a common practice followed for children after CPB. In our patients, blood glucose ranged from 2.8 to 24.6 mmol/l in the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure, with 60% of the measures being >6 mmol/l [33]. Correlation analysis of our data demonstrates a negative association between hyperglycaemia and systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport, with elevated glucose levels being closely and negatively correlated with CO and DO<sub>2</sub> and positively correlated with SVR and ERO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 6). Our study was not designed to identify the cause-and-effect relationship. Randomized clinical trials of glucose control with insulin therapy are warranted to provide information regarding appropriate glucose management strategies in order to improve O<sub>2</sub> transport and clinical outcomes in neonates after the Norwood procedure and other cardiac surgeries.

**Other factors.** The Norwood procedure has a large dispersion of case complexity due to a wide spectrum of cardiac and non-cardiac lesions that certainly influence postoperative cardiac function and O<sub>2</sub> transport. The comprehensive Aristotle score,

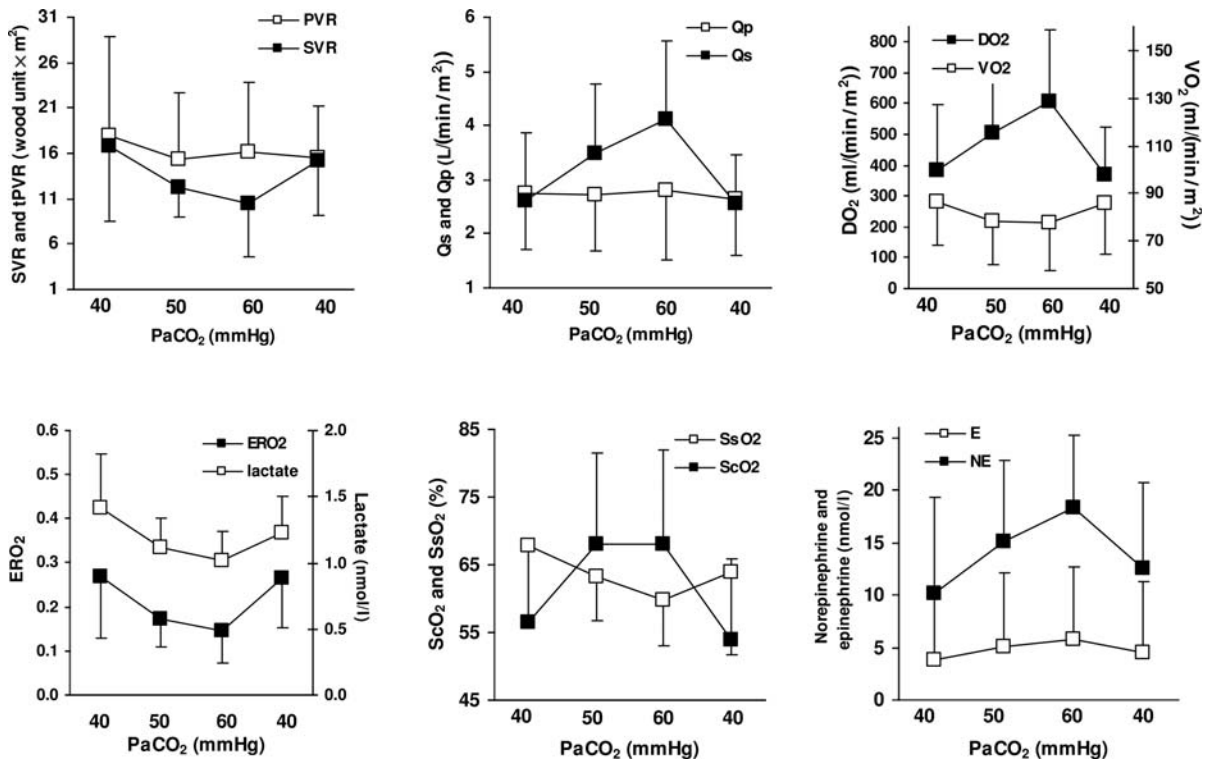


Figure 5: The changes (mean ± SD) in systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport including SVR, total pulmonary vascular resistance (tPVR), Q<sub>p</sub>, Q<sub>s</sub>, VO<sub>2</sub>, DO<sub>2</sub>, ERO<sub>2</sub>, lactate saturation, ScO<sub>2</sub>, SsO<sub>2</sub> and plasma epinephrine and norepinephrine concentration during the stepwise increases in PaCO<sub>2</sub> from 40 to 50 to 60 mmHg, and after termination of the additional inspired CO<sub>2</sub> at PaCO<sub>2</sub> 40 mmHg.

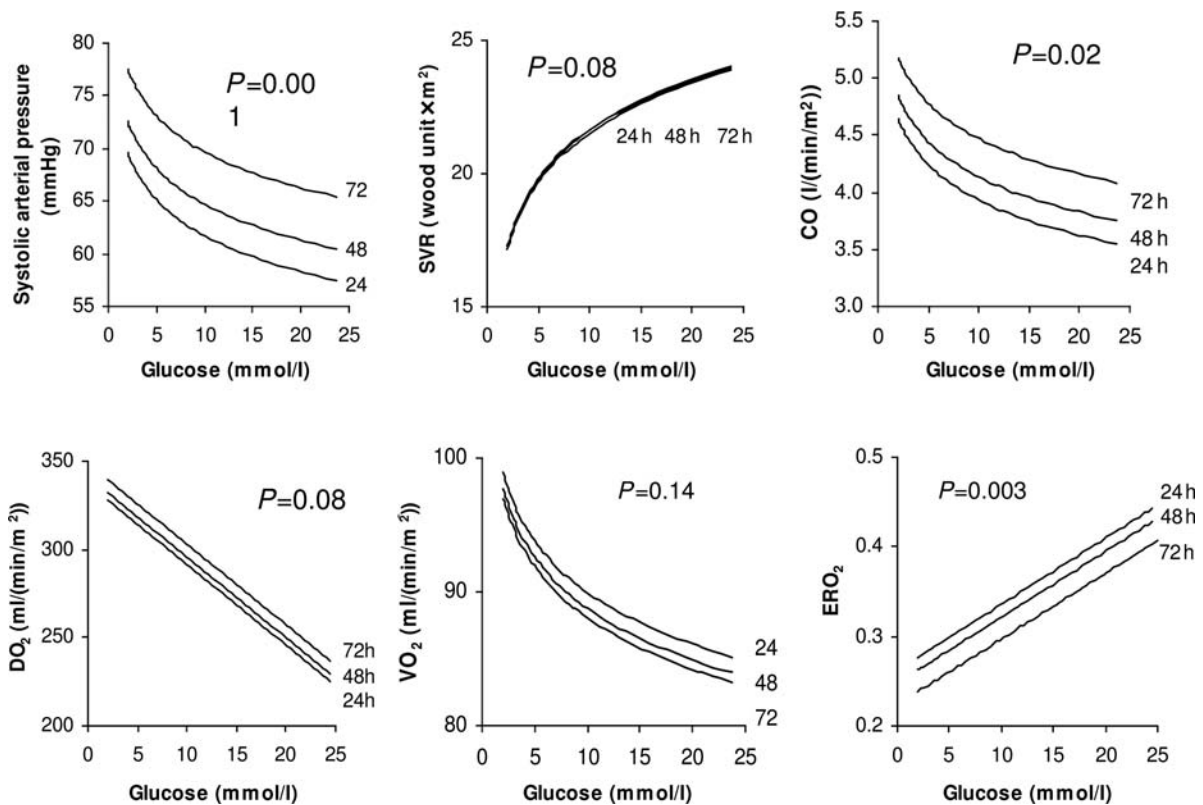


Figure 6: Representative regression lines for the predictive model of the correlations at 24, 48 and 72 h between blood glucose and the main variables of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport, including systolic arterial pressure, SVR, cardiac output (CO), DO<sub>2</sub>, VO<sub>2</sub> and ERO<sub>2</sub> after the Norwood procedure.

as an individualized measure of the complexity, summarizes the specific patient characteristics including the procedure-dependent factors (i.e. anatomical variations and associated procedures) and procedure-independent factors (i.e. clinical status of the patient) [44]. We have used the comprehensive Aristotle score with these specific factors and analysed the correlation with postoperative O<sub>2</sub> transport [25]. Not surprisingly, the comprehensive Aristotle score significantly correlates with CO following the Norwood procedure (Fig. 7). More importantly, our data analysis identified the specific risk factors contributing

to a low postoperative CO level after the Norwood procedure, including preoperative myocardial dysfunction, mechanical ventilation to treat cardiorespiratory failure, atrioventricular valve regurgitation and aortic atresia. Therefore, a preoperative estimation of the comprehensive Aristotle score, particularly in association with these specific risk factors, may help to anticipate a high postoperative morbidity with low cardiac output syndrome and promote special prevention strategies.

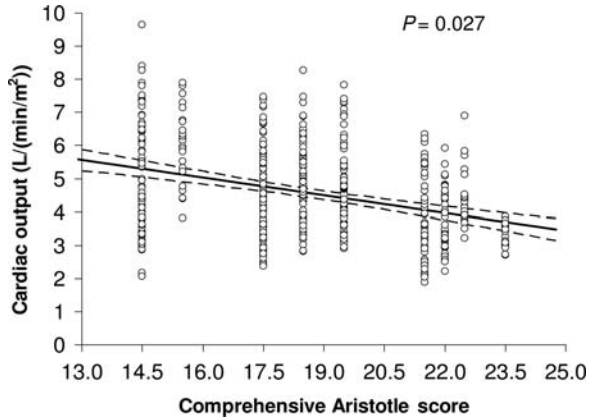


Figure 7: The correlation of the repeatedly measured total cardiac output and the comprehensive Aristotle score in neonates during the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure.

**Influence of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport on cerebral oxygenation.** Ischaemic brain injury is a serious and frequent morbidity following the Norwood procedure in both the early postoperative period and the long-term follow-up [45]. Studies on neurological outcomes have largely focused on specific intraoperative risk factors such as pH imbalance and/or deep hypothermic circulatory arrest [46]. Preoperative reduction of cerebral blood flow and ischaemic injury are reported to be most severe in neonates with hypoplastic left heart syndrome [47]. The profound imbalance of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport may place the cerebral oxygenation at further risk. We used near infrared spectroscopy to measure cerebral O<sub>2</sub> saturation after the Norwood procedure and found a significant reduction in the first 72 h that was particularly noticeable in the first 12 h (Fig. 8) [26]. Correlation analysis of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport and cerebral O<sub>2</sub> saturation demonstrates that cerebral O<sub>2</sub> saturation is significantly influenced by all the parameters of systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport. As such, interventions to modify systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport may provide further opportunities to reduce the risk of cerebral ischaemia and improve neurodevelopmental outcomes.

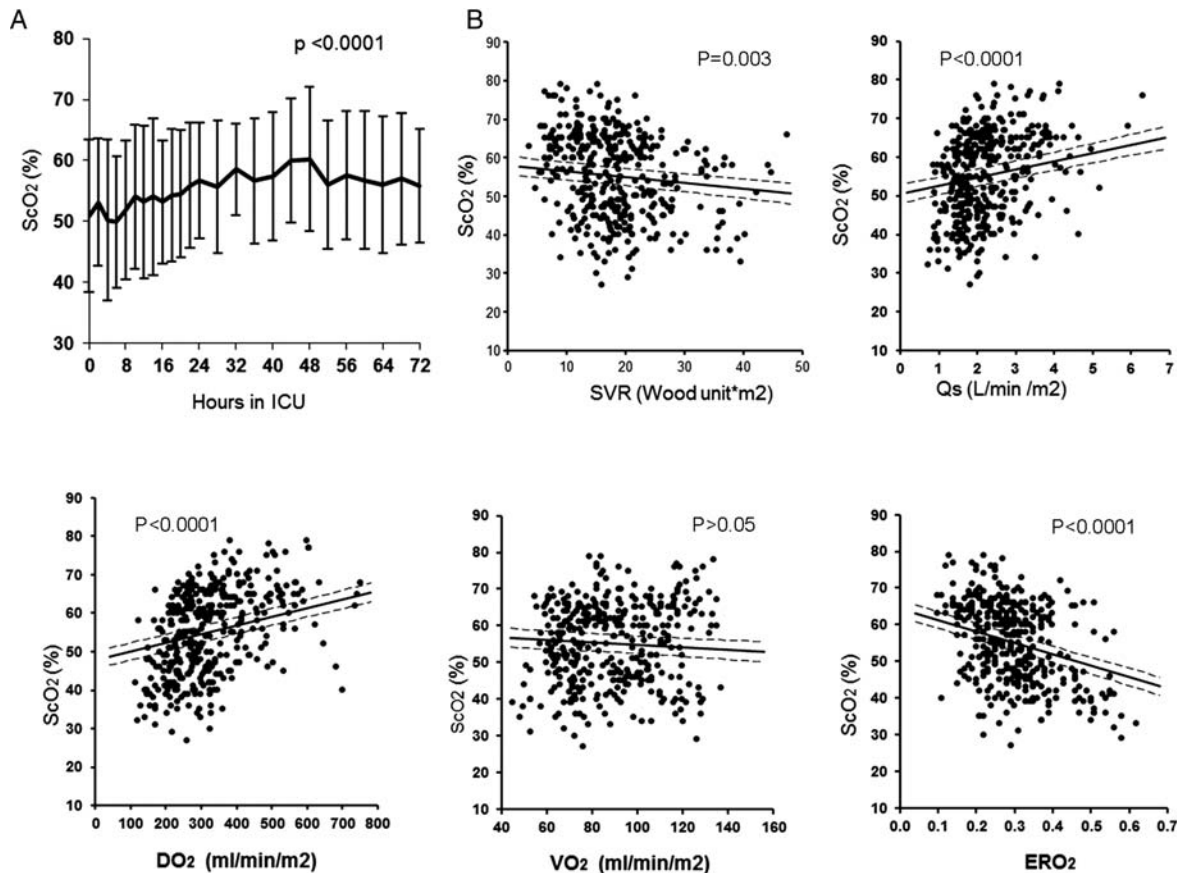


Figure 8: (A) Changes (mean ± SD) of ScO<sub>2</sub> during the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure. (B) Correlations between ScO<sub>2</sub> and systemic O<sub>2</sub> transport parameters of SVR, Q<sub>s</sub>, systemic VO<sub>2</sub>, DO<sub>2</sub> and ERO<sub>2</sub> during the first 72 h after the Norwood procedure.



## CONCLUSION

Respiratory mass spectrometry is the state-of-the-art method for allowing the precise and continuous measurement of  $\text{VO}_2$ . Measured  $\text{VO}_2$  and the direct Fick principle allow for calculation of the actual values of each element of systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport in the Norwood circulation, which allows analysis of the complex physiology after the Norwood procedure. The important findings to date are summarized in this review. Based on these findings, a number of refined postoperative management strategies may be considered to optimize systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport. The lowering of  $\text{VO}_2$  with careful use of inotropes and the maintenance of a high haemoglobin level and a low SVR with vasodilators appear to be rational approaches. Additionally, the maintenance of a moderate  $\text{PaCO}_2$  level, normal blood glucose, relatively low plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and high  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  may promote the balance of systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport. The improvement in systemic  $\text{O}_2$  transport may have beneficial effects on cerebral oxygenation. Finally, a preoperative estimation of the comprehensive Aristotle score with specific patient risk factors may help to anticipate a high postoperative morbidity with low cardiac output syndrome and promote special strategies to prevent it. Ultimately, the resultant improved systemic and regional  $\text{O}_2$  transport in the early postoperative period may have important impacts on long-term outcomes, thereby improving the quality of life for these vulnerable children. Our initial studies mark the end of the beginning. Much is yet to be explored.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My grateful appreciation goes to the clinicians at the Hospital for Sick Children in Toronto, Canada, for their help with conducting the study, including the surgical team for placing the intravenous lines, the anaesthesia team for inserting cuffed endotracheal tubes, the nurses for drawing blood samples during the study period and the respiratory therapists for the blood gas measurements.

## FUNDING

Heart Stroke Foundation of Canada; Canadian Institute of Health Research.

**Conflict of interest:** none declared.

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