# The Cerebral Effects of Carbon Dioxide during Digital Subtraction Angiography in the Aortic Arch and Its Branches in Rabbits

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*PURPOSE*: We studied the neurotoxicity of carbon dioxide as a contrast agent in the central nervous system by performing  $CO_2$  digital subtraction angiography (DSA) in the aortic arch and its branches in experimental animals.

*METHODS*: Twenty-five rabbits underwent intraarterial  $CO_2$  DSA while under general anesthesia, during which 50 angiograms were obtained after administration of 3 mL/kg  $CO_2$ . MR imaging was performed before and after the angiographic procedure. The animals were killed 12 hours later and their brains examined macroscopically and microscopically.

*RESULTS*: Three animals died of a cause irrelevant to  $CO_2$ . No animal had clinical symptoms of hemiplegia or stroke. Neither MR imaging nor macroscopic and microscopic examination of the brain revealed any ischemic infarct hemorrhage, thrombosis, or foci of necrosis.

CONCLUSION: The absence of neurologic symptoms, the lack of pathologic findings at MR imaging, and the negative pathologic findings in the brain encourage further research on  $CO_2$  neurotoxicity of the central nervous system and support its application in the imaging of intracranial vessels.

The use of carbon dioxide as a contrast medium allows the same characterization of radiologic images as do iodinated contrast agents but avoid the possibility of an allergic reaction or renal failure, the frequency of which reaches as high as 20% (1–4). Most experimental and clinical studies have shown that intravenous and intraarterial administration of CO<sub>2</sub> is safe (3-12), except for neurotoxic reactions in the central nervous system (CNS) of mice, caused by damage to the endothelial cell membrane resulting in multifocal ischemic infarcts and neurologic deficits (13). On the other hand, another study with  $CO_2$ administration in the thoracic aorta and the carotid arteries in dogs did not produce any neurologic deficits or electroencephalographic or gross pathologic changes (14).

The present study investigated toxicity in the CNS in rabbits after administration of  $CO_2$  in conjunction with digital subtraction angiography (DSA) in the

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## **Methods**

Twenty rabbits with a mean weight of 2.7 kg were used for this experimental study. An additional five rabbits were used as comparative controls.

The animals were premedicated with 0.5 mg/kg midazolam (Dormicum, Roche, Switzerland) and 0.04 mg/kg fentanyl (Janssen Pharmaceutica, Belgium) intramuscularly. After a marginal ear vein was cannulated, they were anesthetized by intravenous administration of 30 to 40 mg/kg thiopental sodium (Pentothal, Abbott, Italy) as an initial dose, and anesthesia was maintained with supplemental administration of 10% of the above thiopental dose every hour. Cricothyroidotomy was performed, through which an endotracheal uncuffed tube (3-mm internal diameter) was placed into the trachea. Ventilation was controlled manually after the animals were paralyzed with 0.2 mg/kg pancuronium bromide (Pavulon, Organon Teknika, Belgium), followed by additional doses as required. We used a Mapleson C (Mia United Kingdom) rebreathing system in which both fresh gas flow (oxygen in nitrogen; fractional in-spired  $O_2$ , 0.4 and ventilation 2L/min) were 50% greater than resting minute volume in order to achieve normocapnic conditions (Paco<sub>2</sub> 35 to 45 mm Hg;  $pH_a$ , 7.35 to 7.45) (15). A polyethylene catheter (20-gauge) was inserted into an artery for arterial blood gas sampling and hemodynamic measurements. A pulse oximeter with an ear probe was used for arterial oxygen saturation (SaO<sub>2</sub>) and pulse rate monitoring. Ringer's lactate solution was infused at a rate of 4 to 10 mL/kg per hour throughout the experiment.

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We applied near-infrared spectroscopy (Criticon Cerebral RedOx Monitor Model 2020) to determine cerebral oxygenation and hemodynamics in the animals throughout the experiment. Near-infrared spectroscopy provides continuous real-time quantified values for the concentration of oxyhemoglobin (HbO<sub>2</sub>), deoxyhemoglobin (HHb), and total hemoglobin (tHb) in the tissue. The signal for cytochrome oxidase is not fully quantified, but shows quantified changes in the concentration of the above chromophore (16, 17). Regional oxygen saturation  $(rSO_2)$  is the percentage of HbO<sub>2</sub> in relation to the total hemoglobin (rSO<sub>2</sub> =  $HbO_2$ \* 100/HbO<sub>2</sub> + HHb) and is automatically calculated by the above monitor. It should be noted that the cerebral tissue under spectroscopy contains not only arterial but also venous blood, thus rSO<sub>2</sub> is a mixed arteriovenous measurement and the value will be lower than that obtained by using a pulse oximeter (SaO<sub>2</sub>), which estimates only the saturation of the pulsatile (arterial) component of blood flow. Changes in the cerebral blood volume (CBV), which reflect changes in the perfusion state of the brain (18–21), were easily inferred from changes in the tHb concentration.

Before and immediately after each  $CO_2$  injection into the aorta, or selectively into the internal carotid artery, blood samples were drawn from the catheterized artery to check pH, PaO<sub>2</sub>, and PaCO<sub>2</sub>, and the animal's blood pressure was monitored invasively.

Following completion of the above procedure, the femoral artery was sectioned and paracentesis of the radial artery was performed with an arrow-type 22-gauge catheter. A hydrophilic 25-inch, 64-mm guidewire (Meadox) was then propelled as far as the aortic arch under fluoroscopic guidance followed by introduction of a pediatric 3F head catheter into the aortic arch or, selectively, into the common carotid or vertebral artery. Periodic administration of 1 to 2 mL of heparinized serum was used to avoid clotting the catheter; also 1 mL of blood was taken to check blood gases. The catheter was subsequently filled with heparinized serum and connected to the system delivering the  $CO_2$ .

Five control animals were initially used to establish and compare normal parameters of magnetic resonance (MR) imaging and angiography of the aortic arch and its branches performed with typical, iodinated contrast material.

Before infusion, the syringe was coupled to a continuous  $CO_2$  flow and the plunger was placed beneath the  $CO_2$  flow. The plunger was then joined to a catheter system, which, after each connection with the continuous CO<sub>2</sub> flow, was immersed into heparinized serum and drawn as far as the syringe. The continuous flow of CO<sub>2</sub> and the closed circuit of cathetersyringe full of serum prevented the introduction of air bubbles. Each injection included 3 mL/kg of pure CO<sub>2</sub> injected via a disposable inflation device (Wizard II, USCI), which guaranteed exact control of quantity and approximate control of pressure applied. With the animal in an apneic state, angiograms were obtained at a rate of three per second during a period of 4 seconds. The CO<sub>2</sub> was administered with intervals of at least 3 minutes between each dose, while the animal's head was slightly elevated to 45° to avoid the pooling of bubbles into the arterial system. Angiograms were reviewed by two radiologists, who rated diagnostic accuracy and image quality subjectively on a scale of 1 to 4 as compared with the control animals (1 = excellent, 2 = very good, 3 = good, 4 = bad). MR imaging before and 8 hours after the experiment included axial T<sub>1</sub>-weighted spin-echo images (450/25/4 [repetition time/echo time/excitations]), coronal T2-weighted images (2000/100/2), and proton density-weighted images (200/25/2) with 5-mmthick sections, a 25-cm field of view, and a  $192 \times 192$  matrix.

The animals were killed 12 hours later, and the brains of all 25 rabbits were removed, fixed in 10% buffered formalin for 48 hours, and serially cut into 0.5-cm-thick coronal sections. Twenty-four tissue blocks were sampled from each brain, 20 from the cerebrum, three from the cerebellum, and one from the medulla. The  $1 \times 1 \times 0.5$ -cm tissue blocks were embedded in paraffin, cut at 4  $\mu$ m, and stained with hematoxylin-eosin.

#### Results

A total of 50 angiographic procedures were carried out, and an average of 29.15 mL of  $CO_2$  was given to each experimental animal (Table 1). Thirty-two images of the aortic arch, 14 of the carotid arteries, and four of the vertebral arteries were taken selectively.

During the injection of  $CO_2$ , no significant changes in arterial blood gases or SaO2 were observed under any volume and pressure conditions we used, whereas the mean arterial pressure increased about 15 to 25 mm Hg soon after the injection and decreased to the preinjection level 1 to 2 minutes later. The pulse rate, indirectly detected from the pulse oximeter, showed a remarkable decrease during and immediately after the  $CO_2$  injection. Soon after that, a rise in pulse rate to a higher than preinjection level was observed. Paralysis of the animals prevented us from observing any change in respiratory rate that might have been caused by  $CO_2$  injection. However, in a few animals, which during the initial setup of the experiment had not been paralyzed, the intracarotid CO<sub>2</sub> injection led at first to slow and deep breaths and later to irregular respiration with random deep and shallow breaths. The near-infrared spectroscopy monitor showed a reduction in tHb at the time of injection, and a simultaneous reduction in  $rSO_2$ . On the other hand, the immediate postinjection phase was characterized by a marked increase in tHb even beyond the preinjection levels, while rSO<sub>2</sub> remained low. Unfortunately, our cytochrome oxidase measurements were insufficient and not of good quality because of a high interference index in the cytochrome oxidase trace. During the period following anesthesia, no signs of hemiplegia or stroke were observed.

DSA afforded good visibility of the aortic arch and its tributaries (Fig 1). Both large and medium-sized arteries were also judged satisfactorily as compared with conventional angiography (Fig 2). At an atmospheric pressure of 1 to 1.5 atm, at which  $CO_2$  was administered, imaging of the arterial system enabled concomitant visualization of the aortic arch and its branches as well as the inferior aorta (Fig 3). Imaging of the carotid and vertebral arteries was selectively determined (Fig 4). By consensus, the two interpreters rated all images as either grade 2 (very good) or grade 3 (good).

Three of the experimental animals died (numbers 2, 4, and 15), but these deaths seem to be unrelated to  $CO_2$  administration.

Comparative preoperative and postoperative control MR imaging showed an absence of ischemic infarct or hemorrhage during a mean period of 10 hours after CO<sub>2</sub> DSA; brain edema only in animals 2 and 4; and, in two other animals (numbers 9 and 10), three to five round black spots approximately 2 mm in diameter, in symmetric sites of both hemispheres. These spots were present with homogeneous imaging of the brain matter, which we consider typical for imaging vessels or cerebrospinal fluid in the subarachnoid space.

# Animals and angiographic techniques

Animal	Weight, kg	Angiographic Vessel	Quantity of Carbon Dioxide, mL	Pressure, atm	Observations
1	4.2	Aortic arch	15	1	Aortic arch and its branches
-			10		
			10		
2*	4.3	Aortic arch	15	1	Continuous administration without free inverval;
			12	12	somnolence, spasm, death.
		Aortic arch and intracranial vessels	15		
			16		MR: cerebral edema
3	3.1	Aortic arch	20	1.5	Aortic arch, L carotid artery, and intracranial vessels
		L carotid artery	5		
4*	2.8	Aortic arch	15	1.5	Loss of blood, administration of fluids, cerebral
			15		edema (established through MR and histology)
		L vertebral artery	8		
~	0.7		8	1	
5	2.7	Aortic arch	16	1	Aortic arch, R carotid artery, and intracranial vessels
		R carotid artery	10		
			8		
6	2.4	Aortic arch	15	1.5	Aortic arch and its branches
			12		
7	2.0	L constid outsure	12	1	Coloring imposing of L constid output and
/	3.0	L carotid artery	9	1	branches of aortic arch
		Aortic arch	9		
			10		
8	3.1	Aortic arch	10	1	Aortic arch and its branches
0	2.5	Mantal antana	10	1	Louistakus lautama and Louistakuma MD.
9	3.3		12	1	black spots
10	•	L carotid artery	10		
10	3.0	L carotid artery	8		Angiography: L carotid artery and aortic arch with its branches. MR: black spots
		Aortic arch	10		
			10		
11	2.6	Aortic arch	8	1	Aortic arch and its branches
12	2.8	Aortic arch,	8		Aortic arch and its branches, selectively R
		K carolid artery	9	1	carolid and L vertebrai aftery
13	2.5	A ortic arch	9	1	Aartic arch and P carotid artery
15	2.5	Aortic arch	8	15	Aonte aren and K carotid areny
		R carotid artery	8	1.5	
14	2.5	R carotid artery	8	0.5	Selective imaging of R carotid artery
			8		
15*	2.3	Aortic arch	8 10	1	Respiratory disturbances
16	2.3	Aortic arch	8	1	Aortic arch and its branches
17	2.5	Aortic arch	8	1	Aortic arch and selective R carotid artery
		R carotid artery	8		
18	2.3	Aortic arch	8	1	Aortic arch and its branches
19	2.6	Aortic arch	8	1	Aortic arch and selective L carotid artery
		L carotid artery	8		-
20	3.0	Aortic arch	9	1	Aortic arch with its branches and selective R
			9		carotid artery
		R carotid artery	10		

 $\ast$  These animals died, but the deaths seemed unrelated to  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  administration.





Fig 1. Angiogram of aortic arch and its branches after intraarterial infusion of  $\rm CO_2$  via placement of catheter tip in the ascending aorta.

Fig 2. Comparative selective images of right vertebral artery with 8 mL  $CO_2$  (*A*) and with 3 mL of typical contrast material (Imagopaque) (*B*) after insertion of the tip of the catheter into the orifice of the right common carotid artery.



Fig 3. Angiogram of the aortic arch and its main branches together with the lower thoracic aorta after insertion of the tip of the catheter into the ascending aorta.

Fig 4. Selective image of the right common carotid artery after administration of 3 mL CO<sub>2</sub>.

## Discussion

Carbon dioxide was used as a radiologic contrast medium in humans 40 years ago, but it is difficult to administer and the subtle difference in density between the contrast medium in the blood vessels and the surrounding soft tissues requires the use of DSA (22, 23).

In 1982, Hawkins (24) used  $CO_2$  DSA to visualize the splanchnic arteries and arteries in the lower extremities in 20 patients. One year later, Miller et

Gross examination of the 25 brains showed only slight congestion of the meninges. There was no evidence of any other changes. The vessels were unremarkable, the ventricles contained clear fluid, and there were no foci of necrosis in the brain substance. Microscopic examination showed moderate extracellular edema in the two rabbits (numbers 2 and 4) that died. There was no evidence of thrombosis, hemmorrhage, or ischemic necrosis in any of the other rabbits. The brains of the control animals were unremarkable. al (9) used the same procedure to visualize the abdominal aorta and more distal arteries in nine patients without complications.

Although  $CO_2$  may be characterized as a contrast agent of choice, especially in patients with renal insufficiency or a history of allergy, it has not managed to displace iodinated contrast agents, despite its low cost. The reason pertains to the lack of a reliable. safe, and easy method of administration, as well as to certain undesirable characteristics of CO<sub>2</sub> (invisibility, susceptibility to air contamination, pooling of gas bubbles) and the possibility of neurotoxicity. The administration of  $CO_2$  in the carotid arteries of mice has produced immediate dramatic neurologic deficits, disruption of the blood-brain barrier and of the endothelial cell membranes, and multifocal ischemic infarctions caused by the hypoxic effect of gas emboli, so that CO<sub>2</sub> might not be tolerated by the CNS of every mammal (13). Other investigators, on the basis of indirect measurements of the cerebral flow and brain electrical activity as end-points, have suggested that ischemia caused by small gas emboli is reversible (22, 23).

These ambiguous findings are probably due to technical weaknesses and to inconsistencies in the experimental models, including the mode of  $CO_2$  administration (pressure, quantity, infusion time); the anatomic significance of the vessels in which the gas bubbles were trapped; and the kind and hemodynamic condition of the experimental animals used, which influence the time of lodging of the gas bubbles within the vessel (23). These data could explain the contradictory results obtained among different experimental specimens.

The dramatic and spiked effect of intracarotid  $CO_2$ injection on pulse rate might well be related to a sharp increase in intracranial pressure and is a common clinical sign (similar to the respiratory disturbances in the nonparalyzed animals) in acute intracranial hemorrhage. The near-infrared spectroscopy monitor showed a reduction in rSO<sub>2</sub> at the time of injection, which, in combination with a negative change in CBV, indicated an acute diminution in cerebral blood flow (CBF) caused by the sudden increase in intracranial pressure (25), and resulted in extended HbO<sub>2</sub> desaturation (18).

On the other hand, the immediate postinjection phase was characterized by a marked increase in CBV, even beyond the preinjection levels, while rSO<sub>2</sub> remained low, a situation similar to the postischemic hyperemia observed even after an experimentally induced 30-second cessation of CBF (26, 27). This postocclusive overabundant CBF relative to metabolic needs is caused by a number of vasoactive metabolites generated during ischemia and by the early reperfusion period (28, 29). The direct local vasodilatation effect of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> and the slowing of the pulse rate caused by high intracranial pressure may also play a role in reversing the expected hemodynamic consequences described above (30, 31). In other experiments, in which systemic hypercapnia was induced either by breathing  $CO_2$  (29) or by hypoventilating the subject (19), the  $CO_2$ -induced positive changes in CBF and CBV were associated with a decrease in the amount of HHb and a higher mean hemoglobin saturation (high rSO<sub>2</sub>), which characterize a luxury-perfusion state. The reduced rSO<sub>2</sub> in the postinjection hyperemic phase in our experiment clearly indicates that there are different hemodynamics of a slower cerebral circulation (low CBF) arising from the acute increase in intracranial pressure lasting for some minutes after the intracarotid CO<sub>2</sub> injection, despite a simultaneous relative increase in mean arterial pressure. On the other hand, in cases of systemic hypercapnia, the less acute rise in intracranial pressure resulted in a faster circulation (high CBF) and a higher rSO<sub>2</sub>.

Three experimental animals died: one (animal 2) had sustained a barotrauma, probably because of the excessive gas inflow during the manually controlled ventilation; the other one (animal 4) died of oligemic shock caused by extensive blood loss during the arterial catheterization procedure. The fluid administration, in combination with the low plasma colloid osmotic pressure and the subsequent brain damage due to protracted arterial hypotension (32, 33), might have resulted in global brain edema in this animal. In both animals, MR imaging showed edema that was confirmed by microscopic examination. The third death (animal 15), which occurred after a characteristic reaction (superficial breathing, slow pulse rate) observed immediately after infusion of CO<sub>2</sub>, was probably due to a convergence of  $CO_2$  at the coronary vessels or to a neurogenic syncope or strong parasympathicotonia caused by pressure from pneumonogastric nuclei.

In contrast to earlier studies of air embolization (31, 34) or intracarotid CO<sub>2</sub> injection (13), we found no clinically apparent neurologic deficits in any of the surviving animals. However, clinically evident neurologic dysfunction is not a prerequisite for the occurrence of the pathologic entity of multifocal microscopic infarcts (13, 35, 36).

According to Klatzo's classical work in the 1960s, brain edema may be classified into two major types, vasogenic and cytotoxic (37, 38). The original definition of vasogenic edema has remained essentially unchallenged, while cytotoxic edema has been reclassified into ischemic, osmotic, and interstitial edema (39). However, because both types of edema are frequently present, it is often impossible to classify a particular case as being one or the other (38, 40). The pathophysiology of cerebral edema in our animals was probably related to a mechanical or ischemic injury of the blood-brain barrier. Part of the pathologic changes in the structure of the blood-brain barrier were due to the action of numerous vasoactive metabolites generated in the ischemic period (during intracarotid  $CO_2$  injection) and in the early reperfusion period (41-43). These postischemic excessive dilatory mechanisms in combination with the experimentally demonstrated marked increase in brain tissue osmolarity during the circulatory arrest period (29, 44) easily led to the production of a vasogenic and simultaneously cytotoxic edema. The passage of the  $CO_2$  bubble itself seems to be responsible for the endothelial membrane disruption; however, the precise mechanisms of membrane injury due to  $CO_2$ embolization are not yet clearly understood (13). Physical deprivation of the liquid-phase contact or the shearing stress on the membrane as the gas-liquid meniscus passes, have also been implicated (13, 45).

Our experimental findings in rabbits, which included an absence of pathologic changes in anatomy or abnormal findings on MR images, as well as the good-quality images we obtained of the aortic arch and its branches, encourage further research on  $CO_2$ neurotoxicity in the CNS and support its application in the imaging of intracranial vessels.

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