Perioperative Myocardial Failure

Ventricular dysfunction sometimes occurs perioperatively, most often in association with cardiac surgery. This perioperative myocardial failure can often be predicted on the basis of the medical history and selected intraoperative indicators. There are a number of effective drug treatments, and in resistant patients, mechanical assist devices can be life saving.

Characteristics of Patients With Perioperative Heart Failure

Chronic Heart Failure

Several million Americans have been diagnosed with chronic heart failure (CHF), and an additional 400,000 cases are newly diagnosed each year. CHF can be the end result of many conditions. In adult patients, the most common etiologies are ischemic heart disease and hypertension; in children, the most common etiologies are viral infections and congenital heart disease. In cases of CHF intracellular cyclic AMP (cAMP) concentrations decrease as a result of β -adrenergic receptor (β AR) down-regulation and impaired coupling between β ARs and adenylyl cyclase. Impaired coupling results from increased intracellular concentrations of the inhibitors $G_{i\alpha}$ and βAR kinase. Patients with CHF respond well to preload reduction with salt restriction and diuretics, preload and afterload reduction with vasodilators, and digoxin. Mortality is increased when positive inotropes (other than digoxin) are administered chronically, even though symptoms may decrease and quality of life may improve (1). Some patients with severe CHF require infusion of positive inotropes, implantation of ventricular assist devices, or both while awaiting cardiac transplantation.

There have been several notable advances in the treatment of CHF in the past decade. Specifically, improved outcome has been conclusively demonstrated with angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, β -blockers, and spironolactone. Other types of drugs currently in Phase III clinical trials for heart failure include agents that inhibit both neutral endopeptidase (neprilysin) and ACE, such as omapatrilat, novel sympatholytics such as nomorilole, endothelin

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receptor antagonists such as bosentan, and cytokine antagonists such as etanercept. There are other agents in earlier stages of clinical investigation, including vasopressin antagonists, positive inotropes, antiarrhythmics, and growth hormone. Finally, novel implantable pulse generators, defibrillators, and assist devices remain in development. Unfortunately, even with current optimal medical management the mortality and hospitalization rates remain unacceptably high (2).

Low Cardiac Output Syndrome

Patients with low cardiac output syndrome (LCOS), particularly those emerging from CPB, demonstrate a peculiar combination of inadequate oxygen delivery to tissues, hemodilution, mild hypocalcemia and hypomagnesemia, kaliuresis, and tissue thermal gradients (3). The underlying pathophysiology may include myocardial "stunning," which is a hypocontractile myocardium in response to ischemia and reperfusion (4). β AR down-regulation has been reported after CPB (5,6). Patients with LCOS receive positive inotropic drug therapy to increase the contractility of normal, hibernating, and "stunned" myocardium, which will in turn increase cardiac output and maintain diastolic blood pressure at levels capable of maintaining adequate oxygen delivery to the myocardium. The LCOS often includes hypotension, and, unlike CHF, responds poorly to vasodilators alone. Diastolic dysfunction, although present in many patients after CPB, is not the most prominent manifestation of LCOS. Increasing age, female gender, decreased leftventricular ejection fraction (measured before surgery), and increased duration of CPB are all associated with a greater likelihood that inotropic drug support will be administered after coronary surgery. Increased age and reduced left-ventricular ejection fraction are associated with the use of positive inotropic drugs after cardiac valve surgery (7,8). Even patients who do not experience LCOS demonstrate declines in ventricular function after CPB, reaching a nadir some hours after arriving in the intensive care unit. Ventricular function recovers to baseline values over the succeeding 18–24 h (9).

Positive Inotropic Agents

Positive inotropic drugs can be conveniently divided on the basis of their mechanism of action into cAMPindependent and cAMP-dependent agents (Table 1).

cAMP-Independent Agents

Digoxin Digoxin inhibits Na^+ , K^+ -ATPase, increasing intracellular [Na^+], and indirectly, intracellular [Ca^{2+}]. Intracellular calcium ions may bind to troponin-C, increasing cardiac inotropy. In patients with chronic CHF, digoxin increases left-ventricular shortening and ejection fraction (10). Digoxin is not effective for acute management of LCOS.

Calcium Salts. Contractility of isolated cardiac or skeletal muscle improves with increasing extracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$, particularly when $[Ca^{2+}]$ rises above the normal range. Calcium for muscle contraction derives mostly from the sarcoplasmic reticulum, not from extracellular sources. The IV administration of calcium consistently increases systemic vascular resistance (11,12). Calcium interacts with vasoactive drugs. In patients recovering from coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG), calcium inhibited responses to epinephrine and dobutamine, but not to inamrinone (amrinone) (13,14). Calcium inhibition of β AR agonists likely results from direct inhibition of adenylyl cyclase (15,16). Bolus dosing of calcium has no consistent effect on cardiac output in patients emerging from CPB (11,12).

Thyroid Hormone. Hypothyroidism can cause profound cardiovascular depression. The IV administration of liothyronine (T₃) rapidly restores heart rate, stroke volume index, cardiac index, and peripheral vascular resistance to normal values (17). Patients recovering from CPB usually exhibit low circulating T₃ concentrations and inappropriately low thyrotropin concentrations (18). The routine administration of T₃ to cardiac surgery patients increases contractile function but may not produce an inotrope-sparing effect. How thyroid hormone may increase myocardial contractility remains unclear: T₃ increases myocardial contractile function as potently as isoproterenol, even with overwhelming β AR blockade (19), without increasing cAMP.

Calcium-Sensitizing Drugs. Levosimendan and pimobendan stabilize the calcium-bound conformation of troponin C, and their effects are highly dependent on the intracellular calcium (20). They increase systolic inotropy without impairing diastolic relaxation. Levosimendan also opens K_{atp} channels in cardiac myocytes and vascular smooth muscle. In experimental animals, levosimendan-induced activation of K_{atp} channels reduces myocardial infarct size (21). Levosimendan may be equally effective in the presence and absence of β AR blockers.

cAMP-Independent Cardiac glycosides (digoxin) Calcium salts Thyroid hormone (liothyronine, T ₃) Calcium sensitizers Levosimendan Pimobendan	
cAMP-Dependent	
β -adrenergic agonists	
Epinephrine	
Norepinephrine	
Dobutamine	
Isoproterenol	
Dopaminergic agonists	
Dopamine	
Dopexamine	
Phosphodiesterase inhibitors	
Inamrinone	
Milrinone	
Enoximone	
Olprinone	

cAMP-Dependent Agents

 $\beta AR Agonists$. Catecholamines bind to βAR and activate a membrane-bound guanine nucleotide binding protein. This activates adenyl cyclase, generating cAMP. Increased cAMP increases calcium influx and increases calcium sensitivity of calcium-regulatory proteins. βAR agonists decrease the sensitivity of the contractile myofilaments to calcium, promoting relaxation. This effect is opposite to that of phosphodiesterase (PDE) inhibitors and αAR agonists (22).

Epinephrine binds and activates β_1 , β_2 , and α ARs dose-dependently. Norepinephrine binds α_1 , α_2 , and β_1 receptors much more readily than β_2 receptors. Compared with norepinephrine, epinephrine produces a significantly greater cardiac output for a comparable increase in mean arterial pressure. Epinephrine is often used as a first-line positive inotrope after CPB (11). The administration of epinephrine into the left (rather than right) atrium offers higher concentrations of epinephrine for action on the heart and peripheral vasculature and reduces the likelihood of pulmonary hypertension. Norepinephrine has also been used as a relatively selective β_1 AR agonist, particularly when combined with phentolamine to counteract its potent α_1 AR and α_2 AR agonist activity, and as a powerful vasoconstrictor to counteract the "vasoplegic syndrome" that sometimes occurs after CPB (23).

Dobutamine binds β_1 and β_2 receptors, producing dose-dependent increases in heart rate and cardiac output, and dose-dependent reductions in filling pressures (24). β AR-mediated reduction of venous capacitance, which increases the effective circulating blood volume, also contributes to the increased cardiac output. Conventional wisdom, on the basis of studies in patients with CHF and β AR down-regulation, often recommends dobutamine as a "unique" drug that can increase cardiac output without increasing heart rate. This notion is false. Dobutamine increases heart rate more than epinephrine after CABG (24,25). Dobutamine has been used to increase oxygen delivery to tissues in patients with critical illness in the hope that this measure will improve outcome (26–28).

Isoproterenol is a potent, selective β AR agonist. Isoproterenol's current applications include treatment of bradycardia (especially after orthotopic cardiac transplantation), pulmonary hypertension and right-ventricular failure, and heart failure after pediatric cardiac surgery.

Dopaminergic Agonists. Dopamine activates dopamine (DA₁ and DA₂) receptors, β ARs and α ARs dosedependently. Dopexamine lacks any direct α AR agonist activity but expresses $\beta_2 AR$ and DA_1 receptor agonist activity. Dopexamine also inhibits presynaptic reuptake of norepinephrine. Activation of DA₁ receptors produces vasodilation in renal, mesenteric, coronary, and cerebral arteries. Activation of DA₂ receptors inhibits release of norepinephrine and prolactin. Dopamine A₂ receptor agonists may also produce nausea and vomiting. Traditional teaching is that dopamine activates DA₂ receptors in the dosage range from 0.2 to 0.4 μ g \cdot kg⁻¹ \cdot min⁻¹; slightly higher doses (0.5–3.0 μ g · kg⁻¹ · min⁻¹) recruit DA₁ receptors. Still higher doses (5–10 μ g · kg⁻¹ · min⁻¹) activate β ARs and α ARs and have been widely used for inotropic support after heart surgery. Low doses of dopamine may increase renal blood flow and modulate corticomedullary distribution of renal blood flow (29) more than they increase cardiac output (30). The relationship between dopamine doses and concentrations is highly variable (31). Dopamine is often infused during periods of renal stress, such as during aortic surgery, sepsis, resuscitation, CPB, and during norepinephrine infusion (30). However, the efficacy of dopamine in this setting is unknown. Dopamine increases splanchnic oxygen consumption in cardiac surgery patients, but decreases splanchnic oxygen consumption in patients with sepsis (32). Dopexamine and dopamine produce a more pronounced increase in jejunal mucosal perfusion than dobutamine (33). After CPB, dopexamine and dobutamine were equally effective at increasing cardiac index; however, tachycardia was more common with dopexamine (24).

Phosphodiesterase Inhibitors. PDE inhibitors block the metabolism of cAMP to 5'-AMP, increasing intracellular cAMP concentrations. They also increase the calcium sensitivity of contractile proteins, increase calcium influx, and antagonize adenosine.

Inamrinone proved more effective than dobutamine with fewer complications during separation from CPB (34). Inamrinone was as effective as epinephrine, but the two drugs combined proved superior to either drug alone (35,36). After CABG, inamrinone increased stroke volume and cardiac index and decreased systemic and pulmonary vascular resistances dose dependently. Inamrinone increased intrapulmonary shunt and decreased Pao₂ (37).

Milrinone has inotropic and vasodilator properties similar to those of inamrinone, but is 15–20 times more potent (38,39). A 50 μ g/kg milrinone loading dose is preferable to either 25 or 75 μ g/kg in patients emerging from CPB (40). A loading dose of 50 μ g/kg plus 0.5 μ g · kg⁻¹ · min⁻¹ infusion maintains effective plasma concentrations >100 ng/mL. In some cases, a simple 50 μ g/kg milrinone dose will suffice to facilitate separation from CPB (41). In a randomized comparison of inamrinone with milrinone in adult surgical patients, both drugs significantly increased cardiac index and decreased systemic and pulmonary vascular resistances (42).

Enoximone and olprinone are other PDE inhibitors that have been tested in surgical patients. Enoximone has been widely used in Europe. Olprinone is undergoing development in Japan (43). Both agents' hemodynamic effects resemble those of inamrinone and milrinone. When infused at doses similarly effective at increasing cardiac index, olprinone produced greater increases in hepatosplanchnic blood flow than inamrinone or milrinone (44). Olprinone has vascular capacitance effects opposite to those of dobutamine with capacitance decreasing after dobutamine and increasing after olprinone (45).

Timing and Dosing

There are wide differences of opinion regarding whether positive inotropic drugs should be administered in anticipation of their need (e.g., before separation from CPB) or only after their need has been established (e.g., to increase cardiac output after an unsuccessful attempt to wean from CPB without drug support). Early drug intervention could prevent or ameliorate post-CPB leftventricular dysfunction and tissue hypoxia from reductions in oxygen transport. In a study of patients with poor left ventricular function, we found that preemptive administration of inamrinone reduced the subsequent need for "rescue" drug support. We also found that inamrinone was as effective as epinephrine in supporting the circulation after CPB (35). Similarly, Kikura and Shigehito (46) found that compared with patients receiving placebo, patients receiving preemptive infusions of either inamrinone or milrinone required significantly less dopamine, and demonstrated lower postoperative concentrations of lactate, LDH, CK, C-reactive protein, and glucose, indicating less stimulation of glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. A controlled clinical trial is currently underway to determine whether prophylactic milrinone improves outcomes after cardiac surgery in children (47).

Positive inotropic drugs are often titrated to the "just sufficient" dose to maintain cardiac output. Polonen et al. (48) used dobutamine infusions as necessary to maintain venous oxygen saturation >70% and arterial blood lactate $\leq 2 \text{ mmol/L}$ after heart surgery, and noted a shorter hospital length of stay and reduced mortality in the treatment group.

Drug Synergism/Antagonism

Clinicians often combine two (or more) drugs, hoping to maximize their positive attributes and limit their adverse effects. Two drugs may interact in an additive, synergistic, or antagonistic fashion. We found antagonism between calcium and β AR agonists and between dobutamine and epinephrine (13–16,49). We and others have found combination of PDE inhibitors and β AR agonists to be more effective than either agent alone (35,36).

Complications of Positive Inotropes

Catecholamines may produce local tissue ischemia from subcutaneous infiltration, increase oxygen consumption, enhance lipolysis and gluconeogenesis, alter electrolyte concentrations, activate coagulation, override microvascular control mechanisms, alter distribution of cardiac output, increase myocardial work, and promote cardiac arrhythmias. The PDE inhibitors and β -agonists increase pulmonary shunt after CABG surgery (37). Catecholamine support is associated with critical illness polyneuropathy after heart surgery (50).

Mechanical Assist Devices

Patients with coronary artery disease and LCOS may benefit from intraaortic balloon counter pulsation, which has the advantage of increasing diastolic coronary blood flow without increasing myocardial oxygen consumption. Unfortunately, the 30-day mortality of patients undergoing balloon implantation for LCOS is 34% (51). Patients with severe persisting ventricular dysfunction or cardiomyopathy may require right- or left-ventricular assist devices, or both. Use of these devices is appropriate only for patients who can be expected to have recovery of ventricular function or who are potential candidates for orthotopic heart transplantation.

Summary

Perioperative heart failure, in the forms of acute exacerbation of CHF and LCOS, continues to occur, despite improvements in medical management, myocardial preservation, and surgical techniques. This may be the result of patients now undergoing heart surgery as a routine despite extremes of age and debilitating comorbidities. Fortunately, effective drug treatments are available, and most patients will make a full recovery despite an episode of perioperative heart failure.

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