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Low-flow Sevoflurane Anesthesia in Laparoscopic Cholecystectomy

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Background: Anesthetists participating in laparoscopic cholecystectomy (LC) with CO₂ pneumoperitoneum has been cautious about adapting low-flow anesthesia (LFA). We investigated the efficacy of LFA compared to high-flow anesthesia (HFA) in LC. **Methods:** Eighty patients undergoing LC were randomly assigned to one of the two groups (n = 40 each). In LFA, 1 L/min (50% O₂ and N₂O) of the total fresh gas flow (FGF) was used, whereas 4 L/min of the total FGF was used for HFA. Inspiratory and expiratory concentrations of O₂, N₂O, CO₂, and sevoflurane were serially measured. Subjects were monitored for heart rate, blood pressure, and any procedural complications.

Results: None of the patients experienced any episodes of hypoxia, hypercapnia, and arrhythmia in both groups. The maximal end-tidal CO_2 was 40.9 ± 3.9 mmHg in LFA and 38.2 ± 3.6 mmHg in HFA, respectively. The minimal O_2 saturation was $98.3 \pm 0.6\%$ in LFA and $98.8 \pm 0.7\%$ in HFA, respectively. The inspiratory CO_2 concentrations in both groups were all less than 1 mmHg throughout the anesthesia.

Conclusions: In conclusion, LFA with sevoflurane using FGF of 1 L/min with setting of 50% O₂ and N₂O for LC could be performed safely without the risk of complications like hypercapnia, hypoxia, or arrhythmia compared to HFA. (Korean J Anesthesiol 2005; 49: S $1\sim5$)

Key Words: fresh gas flow, laparoscopy, sevoflurane.

INTRODUCTION

There has been a revival of interest in low-flow anesthesia (LFA) techniques over the past decade or so, primarily driven by the introduction of newer anesthetic agents with low solubility and relatively higher costs. The advantages of LFA include a reduction in the consumption of anesthetic gases, reduced operating room and environmental pollution, and the conservation of heat and humidity within the respiratory tract of patients. Historically, most anesthesiologists have been trained to use high-flow anesthesia (HFA), and the anesthetic equipment and available anesthetic agents have not been suitable for LFA. HFA techniques, however, have the potential for inducing hypoxia and/or hypercapnia, administration of an over- or underdosage of anesthetic gases, and the accumulation of potentially toxic degradation

Received: June 26, 2005

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Laparoscopic cholecystectomy (LC) with intra-abdominal CO₂ insufflation has a special anesthetic consideration in that it may induce hypercapnia, acidemia, and depressed hemodynamics.⁸⁾ A number of studies have been published evaluating the use of LFA in a wide variety of surgical procedures, including gastrointestinal, gynechological and general surgery.⁹⁻¹¹⁾ Despite many advantages of the LFA as mentioned above, few studies have actually been done using LFA with sevoflurane in LC. One likely explanation is the potential for hypercapnia with LFA resulting from rebreathing exhaled CO₂ coupled with an increase in arterial CO₂ from the intraperitoneal CO₂ insufflation.

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the LFA is safe and compatible with the LC involving abdominal CO₂ insufflation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

After obtaining Institutional Review Board approval and written informed consent from each patient, 80 patients, ASA I or II status, who were to undergo elective LC under general anesthesia were

Table 1. Patient Demographics

	LFA (n = 40)	HFA (n = 40)
Age (yr)	50.0 ± 11.5	48.9 ± 12.3
Sex (m/f)	18/22	20/20
Weight (kg)	64.8 ± 9.5	61.9 ± 10.4
Anesthetic duration (min)	67.0 ± 11.3	$70.4 ~\pm~ 12.3$

Data are mean ± SD except sex (number). LFA: low-flow anesthesia, HFA: high-flow anesthesia.

enrolled. The patients were randomly assigned to one of two groups, LFA or HFA (n = 40 in each group), depending on fresh gas flow (FGF) settings. Patients with cardiopulmonary disease, previous adverse reactions to inhaled agents, intravenous anesthesia, obesity, smoking history, and where the procedure was subsequently changed to open cholecystectomy were excluded from the study. Age, gender, and weight were recorded for all subjects. There was no statistically difference in patient demographics (including age, gender, weight, and anesthetic duration) between the two groups (Table 1).

All anesthetic procedures were performed by one of the two authors, who was experienced in the application of the LFA. All patients were premedicated with midazolam (7.5 mg orally), the night before the operation, and intramuscular 2-2.5 mg midazolam and 0.2 mg glycopyrrolate, 30 min before entering the operating room (OR).

After arrival in the OR, baseline hemodynamic parameters were recorded after a 5 min stabilization period on the operating table. Before anesthetic induction, all patients breathed 100% O2 for 3 min, FGF 6 L/min, using a face mask connected to a semiclosed breathing circuit (Datex Ohmeda 7,000 ventilator, Datex-Ohmeda, USA). After preoxygenation, 2 mg/kg propofol, 0.6 mg/kg rocuronium bromide, and 1-2µg/kg fentanyl were administered intravenously. Tracheal intubation was followed by mechanical ventilation with a tidal volume of 10 ml/kg at 10 breaths/min. Inspiratory/expiratory ratio was set as 1:2. These respiratory parameters were not modified during the procedures. All procedures were performed using the same circle breathing system and vaporizer (Vapor 2000, Drager, Germany) with sevoflurane under standard operating room conditions. The accuracy of the flowmeters was verified by passing the FGF through a dry gas meter (Parkinson-Cowan, Birmingham, UK).

Lead II of an electrocardiogram on the patient's back and saturation via pulse oximetry (SpO₂) at patient's finger were con-

tinuously monitored. An automated blood pressure cuff was applied to the right arm. To ensure uniform conditions, same patient monitoring equipment was used in all cases. Electrocardiography, oscillatory blood pressure, and pulse oximetry was monitored using Agilent M1205A (Agilent technologies Co., Germany). Peak airway pressure was measured using anesthesia machine (Datex Ohmeda 7,000 ventilator, Datex-Ohmeda, USA). Tidal volume and minute ventilation were measured using 5420 volume monitor (Ohmeda, USA). We also serially measured inspiratory and expiratory fractional concentrations of the O_2 , N_2O , CO_2 , and sevoflurane using a multi-gas monitor (Capnomac Ultima, Datex-Ohmeda, Finland). The accuracy of multi-gas monitor was tested before the study (accuracy for \pm 10%). Fresh soda lime (Sodasorb[®], W.R. Grace & Company, USA) was used during each individual anesthesia procedure.

Variables were measured immediately prior to CO₂ pneumoperitoneum and every 5 minutes thereafter until the end of surgery but were presented 10 (T1), 20 (T2), 30 (T3) minutes after CO₂ pneumoperitoneum and immediately before emergence from anesthesia (T4). Neuromuscular transmission was monitored by train-of-four stimulation (TOF Watch, Organon Teknika, Netherlands).

After tracheal intubation, O₂ and N₂O flow was 2 L/min and 2 L/min, respectively. These parameters were maintained throughout the duration of anesthesia in HFA group. The initial inspiratory sevoflurane concentration was 2.6 vol% in HFA group. In LFA group, initial FGF was 4.5 L/min, 1.5 L/min O₂ and 3.0 L/min N₂O, and an inspiratory sevoflurane concentration was 2.6 vol%. This initial high flow phase lasted 10 min to allow for initial rapid uptake of N₂O and elimination of nitrogen. Thereafter, FGF was reduced to 1 L/min, 500 ml/ min O₂ and 500 ml/min N₂O, and the vaporizer dial of sevoflurane was set at 3.0 vol%. During the CO₂ pneumoperitoneum, the intra-abdominal pressure was maintained between 12 and 15 mmHg by CO₂ insufflator.

In both groups, sevoflurane concentration was adjusted throughout the anesthesia to maintain systemic arterial blood pressure and heart rate (HR) within \pm 30% of baseline values. Light anesthesia was defined as tachycardia (HR > + 30% of baseline values or HR > 110 beats/min) or hypertension (mean arterial pressure [MAP] > + 30% of baseline values or MAP > 100 mmHg). The occurrence of hypoxia and hypercapnia was noted throughout the anesthesia. Hypoxia and hypercapnia were defined as SpO2 less than 90% and end- tidal CO2 (ETCO2) more than 50 mmHg, respectively.

Whenever the inspiratory concentration of O2 was noted to be

low 30%, O_2 flow was increased by 10% of the total FGF, while reducing the N_2O flow by the same amount. At the end of surgery, the vaporizer dial of sevoflurane was turned off and the O_2 flow was increased to 6 L/min along with discontinuation of N_2O administration. Residual neuromuscular block was antagonized at the start of skin closure by the administration of pyridostigmine and glycopyrrolate. Patients were extubated upon awakening.

Prior to the study, a power analysis was performed to determine population size based on the 3% incidence of hypercapnia during CO_2 pneumoperitoneum as reported by Qureshi EA. ¹²⁾ We presumed that a \pm 10% incidence of hypercapnia in LFA group would be as effective and safe as the HFA group. This required recruitment of 36 patients in each group, as noted above.

Data was presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Data analysis was performed using the SPSS statistical Package program version 11.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). Statistical analysis for demographics, maximal ETCO₂, and minimal SpO₂ was done by using independent sample t-test. We used GLM (General Linear Model) repeated measures procedures to analyze the changes in hemodynamics and concentrations of O₂, N₂O, CO₂ and sevo-flurane between two groups. Statistical significance was set at five percent level.

RESULTS

Maximal ETCO₂ was 40.9 \pm 3.9 mmHg in LFA group and 38.2 \pm 3.6 mmHg in HFA group. The minimal SpO₂ was 98.3 \pm 0.6% (range 97-100%) in LFA group and 98.8 \pm 0.7% (range 98-100%) in HFA group (P = 0.005). In both groups, the inspiratory O₂ concentration never dropped below 30% on the multi-gas monitor. None of the patients experienced episodes of hypoxia, hypercapnia, and arrhythmia requiring treatment in either group.

The changes in concentration of gases are presented in Table 2. The inspiratory O_2 concentrations were significantly lower in LFA group than in HFA group at T1 and T2 (P = 0.004). There were no statistical differences in inspiratory O_2 concentrations at T3 and T4 between two groups. The inspiratory N_2O concentrations in LFA group were significantly higher in LFA group than in HFA group at T1, T2, and T3 (P = 0.007, 0.003 and 0.001, respectively).

The inspiratory CO_2 concentration in LFA group was significantly higher than in HFA group at T1 (P = 0.032). However, the inspiratory CO_2 concentrations in both groups were all less than 1 mmHg throughout the duration of anesthesia. The ETCO₂ in LFA group were significantly higher in LFA group than in HFA group at T1, T3, and T4 (P = 0.016, 0.000 and 0.000). The highest

Table 2. Changes in Inspiratory and Expiratory Gases during CO₂ Pneumoperitoneum

				T3	T4
Ins-O ₂ (%)	LFA	42.0 ± 11.0*	46.8 ± 4.6*	47.7 ± 2.6	47.8 ± 2.4
	HFA	49.5 ± 7.9	50.2 ± 4.1	49.4 ± 4.3	49.3 ± 5.6
Exp-O ₂ (%)	LFA	40.3 ± 11.4*	43.1 ± 5.3*	43.6 ± 2.9*	43.7 ± 2.1
	HFA	47.5 ± 7.4	47.1 ± 2.4	46.6 ± 1.8	46.3 ± 1.8
	LFA	53.4 ± 10.4*	49.1 ± 4.4*	48.4 ± 2.6*	48.0 ± 2.5
	HFA	47.3 ± 5.7	46.4 ± 1.0	46.5 ± 1.1	47.1 ± 1.6
Exp-N ₂ O (%)	LFA	51.0 ± 10.6*	48.0 ± 4.9*	47.2 ± 2.7*	47.2 ± 1.9*
	HFA	44.9 ± 6.0	45.1 ± 1.1	45.3 ± 1.1	45.6 ± 1.1
6/	LFA	0.5 ± 0.5 *	0.2 ± 0.4	0.4 ± 0.5	0.4 ± 0.5
	HFA	$0.2 ~\pm~ 0.4$	$0.1 ~\pm~ 0.4$	$0.2 ~\pm~ 0.4$	0.3 ± 0.5
1 - \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	LFA	32.6 ± 3.9*	$35.6 ~\pm~ 4.8$	$40.0 ~\pm~ 4.1 ^{\star}$	41.1 ± 3.5*
	HFA	$29.4 ~\pm~ 6.0$	$33.7 ~\pm~ 4.2$	36.1 ± 3.3	$36.8 ~\pm~ 3.0$
Ins-Sevo (vol%)	LFA	$2.0~\pm~0.4*$	$2.0~\pm~0.4*$	$2.1 \pm 0.3*$	2.2 ± 0.2
	HFA	$2.3~\pm~0.3$	$2.4~\pm~0.5$	$2.3~\pm~0.3$	2.4 ± 0.3
Exp-Sevo (vol%)	LFA	$1.7 \pm 0.3*$	$1.7 ~\pm~ 0.3*$	$1.9 \pm 0.3*$	$1.8 \pm 0.2*$
	HFA	$1.9 ~\pm~ 0.4$	$2.1 ~\pm~ 0.4$	$2.0~\pm~0.3$	2.0 ± 0.3

Values are mean \pm SD. LFA: low-flow anesthesia, HFA: high-flow anesthesia, Ins: inspiration, Exp: expiration, Sevo: sevoflurane. T1, T2, and T3: 10, 20, and 30 minutes after carbon dioxide pneumoperitoneum, T4: immediately before emergence of anesthesia. *: P < 0.05 compared to HFA.

 $ETCO_2$ level was observed at T4 in both groups. The inspiratory and expiratory sevoflurane concentrations were lower in LFA group than in HFA group throughout the duration of anesthesia (P < 0.05).

DISCUSSION

The LFA was first introduced by Foldes et al.¹³⁾ in 1952. Since then, the technique has been variously defined by different authors.^{1,14)} The purpose of this study was to examine the efficacy of LFA with sevoflurane in LC with CO₂ pneumoperitoneum.

Traditionally, anesthetists participating in LC have been quite cautious about adapting LFA due to the potential for inducing hypoxia, hypercapnia, and accumulation of toxic degradation products such as compound A by sevoflurane due to the exhaled CO₂ rebreathing and administration of small amount of oxygen less than 500 ml/min.⁴⁻⁷⁾ However, it has several benefits, including the reduced consumption of anesthetic gases, reduced environmental pollution, and conservation of heat and humidity within the respiratory tract.¹⁻³⁾

In the present study, a semiclosed-circuit with a soda lime absorbent was used as the CO₂ absorbent. All our patients were operated as the first case of the day. Therefore, the fresh soda lime absorbent was used during each anesthesia. The inspiratory CO₂ concentrations in LFA and HFA groups were less than 1 mmHg throughout the anesthesia and there in no case did the ETCO₂ increase more than 50 mmHg in LFA group. The duration of anesthesia was short in all our patients (mean 67.0 min in LFA and 70.4 min in HFA). These findings suggest that the clinically significant CO₂ rebreathing is not developed in patients undergoing LC with a brief period of anesthesia with intraperitoneal CO₂ insufflation if fresh soda lime is used in the circuit.

One another important barrier to LFA acceptance is the possibility of hypoxia resulting from inspiration of low O_2 concentrations during rebreathing. This may be one of the major disadvantages associated with the use of LFA. In our present study, the minimal SpO₂ in LFA group was 98.3 \pm 0.6% and this result was similar to that of HFA group (98.8 \pm 0.7%), although it was noted to be statistically significant. No patients experienced hypoxia defined as decrease in SpO₂ less than 90% in the LFA group.

Sajedi et al.¹⁵⁾ reported that the LFA could be used with relative safety in anesthetic m anagement of patients during LC. However, they used halothane as an inhalation agent. Sevoflurane has a number of properties that allow for the full realisation of the

benefits of LFA. The lower solubility of sevoflurane compared to halothane results in more rapid alveolar equilibration and tissue elimination, and this property is particularly well suited for use during LFA. However, the potentially toxic degradation products may be accumulated during the LFA with sevoflurane. The flow rate is one of the most important factors in determining the rate at which Compound A is produced. Although we did not directly check the Compound A concentrations in our present study, none of our patients revealed any postoperative renal dysfunction clinically significant or postoperative blood urea nitrogen concentrations that would suggest potentially toxic Compound A production.

We presumed the hypercapnia as ETCO₂ without direct checking the arterial CO_2 tension (PaCO₂). The diversity has been shown between PaCO₂ and ETCO₂ during LC.¹⁷⁾ However, Bhavani-Shankar et al.¹⁸⁾ demonstrated that the difference between PaCO₂ and ETCO₂ was only 2.6 \pm 1.2 mmHg during CO₂ pneumoperitoneum in 8 pregnant women undergoing LC. They concluded that capnography is adequate to measure CO_2 status and to guide ventilation during laparoscopic surgery. This was our justification not to directly measure PaCO₂ in our patients.

In conclusion, LFA with sevoflurane using FGF of 1 L/min with setting of 50% O_2 and N_2O for LC is safe without any significant likelihood of risks such as hypercapnia, hypoxia, and arrhythmia.

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