



Understanding the carbon dioxide gaps

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Purpose of review

The current review attempts to demonstrate the value of several forms of carbon dioxide (CO₂) gaps in resuscitation of the critically ill patient as monitor for the adequacy of the circulation, as target for fluid resuscitation and also as predictor for outcome.

Recent findings

Fluid resuscitation is one of the key treatments in many intensive care patients. It remains a challenge in daily practice as both a shortage and an overload in intravascular volume are potentially harmful. Many different approaches have been developed for use as target of fluid resuscitation. CO₂ gaps can be used as surrogate for the adequacy of cardiac output (CO) and as marker for tissue perfusion and are therefore a potential target for resuscitation. CO₂ gaps are easily measured via point-of-care analysers. We shed light on its potential use as nowadays it is not widely used in clinical practice despite its potential. Many studies were conducted on partial CO₂ pressure differences or CO₂ content (cCO₂) differences either alone, or in combination with other markers for outcome or resuscitation adequacy. Furthermore, some studies deal with CO₂ gap to O₂ gap ratios as target for goal-directed fluid therapy or as marker for outcome.

Summary

CO₂ gap is a sensitive marker of tissue hypoperfusion, with added value over traditional markers of tissue hypoxia in situations in which an oxygen diffusion barrier exists such as in tissue oedema and impaired microcirculation. Venous-to-arterial cCO₂ or partial pressure gaps can be used to evaluate whether attempts to increase CO should be made. Considering the potential of the several forms of CO₂ measurements and its ease of use via point-of-care analysers, it is recommendable to implement CO₂ gaps in standard clinical practice.

Keywords

carbon dioxide gradients, cardiac output, central venous oxygen saturation, goal-directed therapy, lactate, septic shock

INTRODUCTION

One of the principles in the critically ill patient is to ensure adequate tissue perfusion of all organ systems. Critically ill patients are at greater risk for organ hypoperfusion than healthy individuals as they have a greater resting energy expenditure and oxygen consumption (VO₂) [1].

A key factor in resuscitation is detecting hypovolemia and treating it consequently. It is essential to guide fluid therapy without creating significant intravascular volume overload. Several approaches to resuscitation have been described to determine outcome in the critically ill. Nevertheless, no consensus is yet made on which approach could be seen as best indicator of the adequacy of the resuscitation. The described approaches include measuring the venous-to-arterial carbon dioxide partial pressure difference (p_{v-a}CO₂) or calculating the venous-to-arterial carbon dioxide content difference. These

approaches are known as carbon dioxide (CO₂) gaps. This review aims to demonstrate the value of CO₂ gap measurements in daily practice as they can be obtained with point-of-care analysers in a considerable proportion of the intensive care population.

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KEY POINTS

- Venous-to-arterial cCO₂ or partial pressure gaps are markers for the adequacy of CO.
- A normal CO₂ gap indicates that CO is high enough to wash out CO₂ from peripheral tissue and therefore could be used for further understanding the clinical state of critically ill patients.
- Either partial CO₂ pressure gap or the CO₂ gap to arterio-venous O₂ content difference ratio could be used to guide resuscitation therapy.
- All needed variables are easily measurable in daily practice via point-of-care blood gas analysers.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CARBON DIOXIDE GAPS

In the following section, we will describe the basics of CO₂ differences in venous and arterial blood (Tables 1 and 2).

Physiological basics

VO₂ is the difference between arterial and mixed venous oxygen content (cO₂) multiplied by the cardiac output (CO). Carbon dioxide production (VCO₂) is the difference between mixed venous and arterial CO₂ content multiplied by the CO. When rearranging the formulas of VO₂ and VCO₂, CO can be defined as VCO₂ divided by p_{v-a}CO₂. Assuming that the VCO₂ is constant and that the changes in CO₂ pressure and content are linearly related, CO would be inversely related to the CO₂ gap. This is basically a modification of the Fick principle [2,3]. The corresponding formulas can also be found in Table 2. These theoretical findings were

Table 1. Abbreviations

VO ₂ : oxygen consumption
VCO ₂ : carbon dioxide production
pCO ₂ : partial carbon dioxide pressure
pCO ₂ gap: difference of partial pressures of CO ₂ in venous and arterial blood gas samples
cCO ₂ : carbon dioxide content
cCO ₂ gap: difference of the CO ₂ contents in venous and arterial blood gas samples
cO ₂ : oxygen content
cO ₂ gap: difference of the O ₂ contents in arterial and venous blood gas samples
CO: cardiac output
CI: cardiac index
DO ₂ : oxygen delivery
SOFA: sequential organ failure assessment

Table 2. Calculations

$c_aO_2 = (1.34 \times S_aO_2 \times Hb) + (0.003 \times p_aO_2)$
$c_vO_2 = (1.34 \times S_vO_2 \times Hb) + (0.003 \times p_vO_2)$
$c_{a-v}O_2 = c_aO_2 - c_vO_2$
$Plasma\ cCO_2 = 2.226 \times S \times plasma\ pCO_2 \times (1 + 10^{pH-pK'})$
$S = 0.0307 + [0.00057 \times (37 - T)] + [0.00002 \times (37 - T)^2]$
$pK' = 6.086 + 0.042 \times (7.4 - pH) + (38 - T) \times [0.00472 + 0.00139 \times (7.4 - pH)]$
$Blood\ cCO_2 = plasma\ cCO_2 \times [1 - 0.0289 \times Hb / (3.352 - 0.456 \times sO_2) \times (8.142 - pH)]$
$p_{v-a}CO_2 = p_vCO_2 - p_aCO_2$
$DO_2 = 10 \times CO \times c_aO_2$
$VO_2 = 10 \times CO \times c_{a-v}O_2$
$VCO_2 = 10 \times CO \times c_{v-a}CO_2$
$O_2ER = (c_aO_2 - c_vO_2) / c_aO_2$

c_{a-v}O₂, arteriovenous oxygen content difference; cCO₂, carbon dioxide content; CO, cardiac output; DO₂, oxygen delivery; Hb, haemoglobin; O₂ER, oxygen extraction rate; pCO₂, partial carbon dioxide pressure; p_{v-a}CO₂, arterial-to-venous carbon dioxide partial pressure difference; S, saturation; VCO₂, carbon dioxide production; VO₂, oxygen consumption.

validated in the clinical setting [4,5]. Under normal conditions, partial carbon dioxide pressure (pCO₂) gap ranges from 2 to 5 mmHg (0.3–0.7 kPa).

As CO₂ is approximately 20 times more soluble in blood plasma than oxygen [6], the diffusion from ischemic tissue into the venous effluent of CO₂ is much higher than that of oxygen in states of (relative) tissue hypoperfusion. Thus, the CO₂ gap can be used as a sensitive marker for occult tissue hypoperfusion [7]. Even in situations in which an oxygen diffusion barrier exists (e.g. occluded blood flow or oedema) which leads to a decreased oxygen extraction ratio and an increased oxygen debt, the problem is ‘unveiled’ due to the higher solubility of CO₂ and therefore an increased p_{v-a}CO₂ [8^{***}]. So, the CO₂ gap can be seen as marker of the adequacy of blood flow to remove CO₂ from the tissues rather than a marker of the adequacy of tissue oxygenation.

Haldane effect

Another particular relevant phenomenon in the context of CO₂ differences is related to the binding of CO₂ to haemoglobin (Hb), also known as the Haldane effect. It describes the binding capacity of CO₂ to Hb in relation to the bound oxygen and its release to the tissues. To appreciate its implications, it is necessary to understand the concept of CO₂ content (cCO₂), that is the sum of chemically bound and the physically dissolved CO₂ amounts in the blood. However, to calculate the cCO₂, the rather sophisticated Douglas formula is needed [9]. Looking at the curvilinear graph (Fig. 1), we

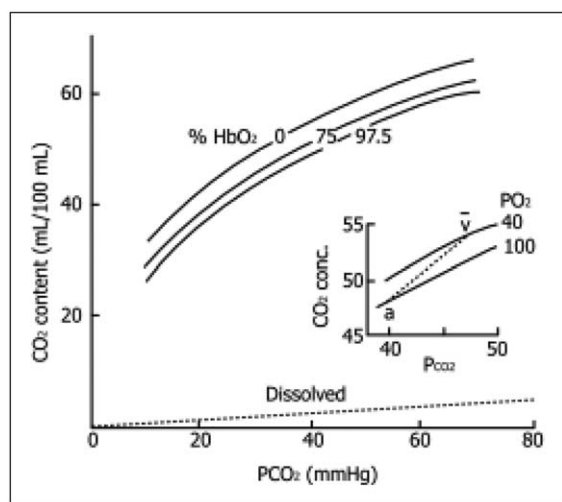


FIGURE 1. Carbon dioxide dissociation curve. Reproduced with permission [10^{***}].

can conclude that in a state of lower oxygen saturation (e.g. in venous blood, especially at high VO_2 or low flow), the CO_2 concentration is much higher than in well saturated blood (i.e. arterial blood) [10^{***}, 11^{***}]. This implies that we should consider using $c_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$ instead of the commonly used $p_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$, particularly during severe hypoxemia or acidosis. Nevertheless, as mentioned above, this would mean elaborate calculations to conceive the clinical state. Therefore, even though it is slightly inferior to the $c_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$, the $p_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$ often is used in daily practice.

In addition, one should keep the effect of hyperoxia in mind which leads to an increase in unbound CO_2 – the $p\text{CO}_2$ – and therefore to an increase in the $p_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$ [12].

CLINICAL RELEVANCE OF CARBON DIOXIDE GAPS

In times of steadily increasing complexity of surgery and intensive care therapy, it is mandatory to develop strategies to adequately manage these situations. Herein we need tools to identify those patients at risk but also to effectively guide therapy. The following section summarizes the recent findings on the ‘classic’ CO_2 gaps as well as its modifications such as the sublingual-to-arterial CO_2 partial pressure difference. All of the studies included in the following can also be found in an overview table (Table 3).

Basic findings in ICU patients

Studies in critically ill patients showed an arithmetic correlation between cardiac index (CI) and the mixed venous-to-arterial CO_2 ($p_{mv-a}\text{CO}_2$) gap as mentioned above [2,3].

Traditionally, when talking about the $p_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$, the $p_{mv-a}\text{CO}_2$ is meant. However, its calculation requires a pulmonary artery catheter (PAC) to collect mixed venous blood samples. As the use of the PAC is decreasing over the last years, the gold standard CO_2 gap cannot be monitored in the majority of the intensive care populations nowadays. When considering the risks, it is not reasonable to insert a PAC only for this reason. Is it therefore an option to use central venous blood instead of mixed venous blood for calculating CO_2 gaps?

A study in 83 unselected intensive care patients showed that the $p_{v-a}\text{CO}_2$ and CI (measured by thermodilution via a PAC and transformed to natural logarithmic values) correlated negatively linearly for both mixed venous ($R^2 = 0.903$, $P < 0.0001$) and central venous ($R^2 = 0.892$, $P < 0.0001$) to arterial $p\text{CO}_2$ gap [13]. In accordance with that, mixed and central venous $p\text{CO}_2$ gaps were closely correlated [$r_s = 0.54$, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.43–0.63, $P < 0.01$] in septic patients, and therefore, for the daily clinical routine, both can be used interchangeably to calculate the CO_2 gap [14]. As most ICU patients are equipped with a central venous catheter rather than a PAC, measuring $p_{cv-a}\text{CO}_2$ seems the best compromise.

Use of carbon dioxide gaps and outcome in patients with septic shock

The relation of CO_2 gaps and outcome was studied in several trials in critically ill patients; CO_2 gaps were used either as single variable or in combination with or in the context of other clinical variables. Septic shock represents a major group of the ICU patient population, so that many of the studies were conducted in those patients.

When prospectively and observationally classifying septic patients in four groups based on a predefined $p_{cv-a}\text{CO}_2$ (higher or lower than 6 mmHg) before the start of resuscitation and after 6 h, it was found that patients who were in the persistently high CO_2 gap group (>6 mmHg before start and after 6 h) had a significantly higher 28-day mortality and also a significantly higher Sequential Organ Failure Assessment score at day 3 [15]. A post-hoc analysis of earlier data of 53 patients with severe sepsis or septic shock demonstrated an increased in-hospital mortality in persistently high $p_{cv-a}\text{CO}_2$ of 0.8 kPa (about 6 mmHg; odds ratio 5.3, 95% CI 0.9–30.7, $P = 0.08$) at 24 h after the start of treatment [14].

In a retrospective analysis in 172 septic shock patients, it was found that the combination of central venous oxygen saturation ($S_{cv}\text{O}_2$), which classically is used as a variable for estimating the adequacy of resuscitation, along with the $p_{cv-a}\text{CO}_2$ (lower or higher than 6 mmHg) showed a better predictive

Table 3. Overview of the described studies

Population (number of patients)	Study type	Measurements	Cardiac output method	Commentary	Reference
Ventilated patients, n = 83	Prospective	Correlation CI and $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$: $R^2 = 0.903$; $P < 0.0001$ Correlation CI and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$: $R^2 = 0.892$; $P < 0.0001$	PAC	$\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ interchangeable as surrogate for CI	[13]
Septic patients, n = 53	Retrospective	Correlation $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$: $R_s = 0.54$; $P < 0.01$ OR mortality and $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa): 1.6; $P = 0.53$	PAC	$\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ are interchangeable as surrogate for CI No difference in mortality were seen	[14]
Septic patients, n = 85	Prospective	28 days mortality and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ [at 0 and 6h, $< / \geq 6$ mmHg]: log-rank Mantel-Cox: 19.21; $P < 0.001$ Correlation $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ and CO: $R^2 = 0.025$; $P < 0.01$ 3 days SOFA score and persistently $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2 \geq 6$ at 6h: $P < 0.001$	PAC	Patient who $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ had not normalized after 6h of resuscitation had a greater mortality risk	[15]
Septic shock, n = 172	Retrospective	28 days mortality in $S_{cv}O_2$ ($< / \geq 70\%$) at 6h: 50.0 vs. 29.5%; $P = 0.009$ 28 days mortality in $S_{cv}O_2 < 70\%$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 6$ mmHg): 16.1 vs. 56.1%; $P < 0.001$	PICCO	A combination of $S_{cv}O_2$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ better predictor for 28 days mortality than $S_{cv}O_2$ alone	[16]
Septic shock, n = 80	Prospective	Correlation lactate and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ at 0h: $R = 0.13$; $P = 0.25$ Correlation lactate and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ at 6h: $R = 0.42$; $P < 0.0001$ Lactate and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa) at 6h: 2.0 (1.2–3.5) vs. 3.6 (2.1–8.4) mmol/l; $P = 0.002$ O_2ER and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa) at 6h: 24% (21–28) vs. 31% (26–41); $P < 0.0001$ CI and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa) at 6h: 4.2 (3.2–5.0) vs. 3.2 (2.5–4.2) l/min/m ² ; $P = 0.004$ DO_2 and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa) at 6h: 527 (427–702) vs. 470 (308–561) ml/min/m ² ; $P = 0.02$ $S_{cv}O_2$ and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 0.8$ kPa) at 6h: 73% (70–76) vs. 63% (51–71); $P < 0.0001$	PICCO	$S_{cv}O_2$ in combination with $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ good predictor for decreasing lactate $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ useful tool for adequacy of tissue perfusion	[4]
Septic shock, n = 64	Prospective	$\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ ($< / \geq 6$ mmHg) in survivors/nonsurvivors: 4.4 ± 2.3 vs. 5.9 ± 3.4 mmHg; $P < 0.005$ CI in survivors/nonsurvivors: 3.8 ± 2.0 vs. 2.9 ± 1.3 l/min/m ² ; $P < 0.01$ Lactate in survivors/nonsurvivors: 4.5 ± 2.8 vs. 7.7 ± 5.3 mmol/l; $P < 0.001$	PAC	Modest relationship of $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ and survival	[17]
Septic, n = 46 vs. nonseptic ventilated patients, n = 15	Prospective	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ septic/control: 14.8 ± 12.6 vs. 6 ± 2.7 ; $P < 0.0001$ $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$: 25 ± 16.3 vs. 9 ± 3.8 mmHg; $P < 0.0001$ 28 days survivors/nonsurvivors and decreased $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ at 36h: 14.8 ± 12.6 vs. 9.8 ± 5.2 mmHg; $P < 0.01$ Posthoc cutoff $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ for mortality: 9 mmHg; AUROC 0.94 [0.65–0.98]	PAC and/or Doppler TEE	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ surrogate for microperfusion $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ indicator of adverse outcome	[18]
Ventilated patients, n = 95	Prospective	$\Delta p_{gm}CO_2$ in 28 days survivors/nonsurvivors at 0h: 14 ± 11 vs. 19 ± 14 mmHg; NS $\Delta p_{gm}CO_2$ in 28 days survivors/nonsurvivors at 24h: 15 ± 9 vs. 27 ± 14 mmHg; $P < 0.01$ Lactate in 28 days survivors/nonsurvivors at 0h: 2 ± 1.5 vs. 4.8 ± 4 mmol/l; $P < 0.01$ Lactate in 28 days survivors/nonsurvivors at 24h: 1.1 ± 0.6 vs. 3.9 ± 3 mmol/l; $P < 0.01$	Not measured	$\Delta p_{gm}CO_2$ good indicator for survival	[19]
Ventilated, septic shock, n = 18	Prospective, open label	Correlation $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ and $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$: $R^2 = 0.61$; $P < 0.05$ $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ at 0h and after 90-min dobutamine: 40 ± 15 vs. 17 ± 8 mmHg; $P < 0.01$	PAC	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ surrogate for microperfusion	[20]
Ventilated patients, n = 54	Prospective	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ in survivors/nonsurvivors: 19 ± 12.8 vs. 35.3 ± 18.3 mmHg; $P < 0.0004$ $p_{cv}CO_2$: 53.2 ± 13.7 vs. 67.9 ± 21.0 mmHg; $P < 0.004$ $S_{mv}O_2$ in survivors/nonsurvivors: $73 \pm 10\%$ vs. $69 \pm 12\%$; $P = 0.17$ Lactate in survivors/nonsurvivors: 3.4 ± 2.8 vs. 5.0 ± 5.1 mmol/l; $P = 0.21$ Cut-off $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$: 25 mmHg; AUROC 0.75	PAC	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ and $p_{cv}CO_2$ better predictors for outcome than traditional markers	[21]
Sitting craniotomy, n = 51	Prospective	Correlation CI and $\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$: $R^2 = 0.830$; $P < 0.001$ Correlation CI and $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$: $R^2 = 0.760$; $P < 0.001$ Correlation CI and $S_{mv}O_2$: $R^2 = 0.324$; $P < 0.001$ Correlation CI and $S_{cv}O_2$: $R^2 = 0.289$; $P < 0.001$	PAC	$\Delta p_{mv}CO_2$ valid surrogate for CI	[22]
High risk surgery patients, n = 115	Retrospective	$\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ in complications/no complications: 8.7 ± 2.8 vs. 5.1 ± 2.6 mmHg; $P < 0.001$ Lactate in complications/no complications: 1.54 (1.1–3.2) vs. 1.06 (0.8–1.8) mmol/l; $P = 0.006$ $S_{cv}O_2$ in complications/no complications: $76.3 \pm 6.3\%$ vs. $78 \pm 5.2\%$; $P = 0.17$ Posthoc cut-off $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ for complications/no complications: 5.8 mmHg; AUROC 0.86 (0.77–0.95)	Not measured	Increased $\Delta p_{cv}CO_2$ good indicator for postoperative complications	[23]

Table 3 (Continued)

Population (number of patients)	Study type	Measurements	Cardiac output method	Commentary	Reference
Cardiac surgery, n = 393	Prospective	Δp_{vCO_2} in complications/no complications at 0 h: 10 [8.3–12] vs. 9.5 [7.9–11.3] mmHg; P = 0.066 Δp_{vCO_2} in complications/no complications at 6 h: 8.5 [7–10] vs. 8.2 [6.3–9.8] mmHg; P = 0.250 S_{vO_2} in complications/no complications at 0 h: 66 ± 10% vs. 67 ± 9%; P = 0.163 S_{vO_2} in complications/no complications at 6 h: 66 ± 10% vs. 70 ± 8%; P = 0.003 Lactate in complications/no complications at 0 h: 1.5 [0.5–3] vs. 1.3 [1–1.6] mmol/l; P < 0.0001 Lactate in complications/no complications at 6 h: 1.9 [1.4–2.6] vs. 1.6 [1–2.2] mmol/l; P < 0.0001	PAC and/or Doppler TEE	After cardiac surgery Δp_{vCO_2} cannot be used as predictor for adverse outcome	[24]
Postoperative after major abdominal surgery, n = 70	Retrospective	Δp_{vCO_2} in complications/no complications at 0 h: P = 0.22, data not stated Mean Δp_{vCO_2} during admission in complications/no complications: 7.8 ± 2 vs. 5.6 ± 2 mmHg; P < 10 ⁻⁶ Lactate in complications/no complications at 0 h: 1.4 ± 0.6 vs. 1.3 ± 0.5 mmol/l; P = 0.48 CI at the end of surgery in complications/no complications: 3.2 ± 0.7 vs. 3.1 ± 0.6 l/min/m ² ; P = 0.79 Posthoc cut-off S_{vO_2} for complications/no complications: 70.6%; AUROC 0.736 [0.61–0.86] Posthoc cut-off Δp_{vCO_2} for complications/no complications: 6 mmHg; AUROC 0.758 [0.74–0.83]	Doppler TEE	Δp_{vCO_2} can serve as complementary target to identify inadequacy of fluid therapy	[25]
Septic shock with normal S_{vO_2} after early resuscitation, n = 50	Prospective	Correlation CI and Δp_{vCO_2} at 0, 6 and 12 h; $r_0 = 0.57$, $r_6 = 0.58$, $r_{12} = 0.58$; all P < 0.00001 lactate and Δp_{vCO_2} (< / ≥ 6 mmHg) at 0 h: 4.3 ± 1.6 vs. 2.7 ± 0.8 mmol/l; P < 0.0001	PICCO	An increased Δp_{vCO_2} in the presence of normal S_{vO_2} indicates inadequate resuscitation	[26]
Critically ill, n = 89	Retrospective	$\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ and lactate (< / ≥ 2 mmol/l): 1.1 ± 0.6 vs. 2.0 ± 0.9 mmHg/ml; P < 0.0001 Correlation $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ and lactate: r = 0.57; P < 0.0001 Posthoc cut-off $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ for hyperlactaemia: 1.4 mmHg/ml; AUROC 0.85 [0.79–0.91] 1 month survival and $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ (< / ≥ 1.4 mmHg/ml): 38 ± 10% vs. 20 ± 8%; P < 0.01	PAC	$\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ seems a reliable marker for global anaerobic metabolism	[30]
Septic shock, n = 35	Prospective	Posthoc cut-off $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ for lactate improvement (decrease of ≥ 10%): 1.4 mmHg/ml; AUROC 0.82 OR adequate lactate clearance and $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ (≥ 1.4 mmHg/ml): 0.1; P < 0.001	Not measured	An increased $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ decreases the OR for adequate resuscitation in the presence of normal MAP and S_{vO_2}	[31]
Postoperative after cardiac surgery, n = 72	Retrospective	Posthoc cut-off $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ to predict response to DO ₂ challenge: 1.6 mmHg/ml; AUROC 0.77 ± 0.10; P = 0.032	PICCO	$\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ appears to be a reliable marker for global anaerobic metabolism $\Delta p_{vCO_2}/c_{a-v}O_2$ can predict response to DO ₂ challenge	[32]

ΔpCO_2 , if not otherwise indicated partial CO₂ pressure gradient of a venous measurement indicated by the subscripted characters and respective arterial values; AUROC, area under the receiver operating curve; c, cutaneous; CI, cardiac index; cv, central venous; DO₂, oxygen delivery; gm, gastric mucosal; MAP, mean arterial pressure; mv, mixed venous; O₂ER, oxygen extraction rate; OR, odds ratio; PAC, pulmonary artery catheter; PICCO, pulse contour cardiac output; S_{vO_2} , central venous oxygen saturation; sl, sublingual; SO₂, oxygen saturation; SOFA, Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; TEE, transoesophageal echography.

value for 28-day mortality (16.1 vs. 56.1%, $P=0.001$) than $S_{cv}O_2$ (lower or higher than 70%) alone (50.0 vs. 29.5%, $P=0.009$) [16].

In addition, a moderate correlation of the CO_2 gap with lactate levels, which are commonly related to adverse outcome, was found after 6 h of treatment ($r=0.42$, $P<0.0001$) but not at the start of the treatment ($r=0.13$, $P=0.25$) in 80 patients with septic shock [4]. In patients with septic shock, a significantly higher $p_{mv-a}CO_2$ was found in nonsurvivors than in survivors (5.9 ± 3.4 vs. 4.4 ± 2.3 mmHg; $P<0.05$). However, its prognostic value was found to be only modest [17].

Other forms of carbon dioxide gradients in the ICU

In addition to the commonly used $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ or the $p_{mv-a}CO_2$, many forms of CO_2 partial pressure differences (ear lobe, gastric mucosa and sublingual to arterial) have been studied with a spectrum of different objectives.

Cutaneous-to-arterial pCO_2 gap measured by an ear lobe device was found to be significantly higher at baseline in septic shock patients compared with stable ventilated patients in the ICU (14.8 ± 12.6 vs. 6 ± 2.7 mmHg, $P<0.0001$). In addition, using a post-hoc analysis a cut-off level of 9 mmHg was identified to distinguish the septic shock group from the nonseptic (control) group. Herein a high sensitivity and a high specificity were found [86 and 93%, respectively, area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve of 0.94, 95% CI 0.85–0.98].

Furthermore, it was demonstrated that in 28-day survivors of the septic shock patients, the cutaneous-to-arterial pCO_2 gap decreased over the time until the end of the observations at 36 h (14.8 ± 12.6 to 9.8 ± 5.2 mmHg, $P<0.01$) [18].

Also, when comparing gastric mucosal-to-arterial pCO_2 gap obtained via tonometry in ventilated patients on the ICU at admission, no significant difference was found in the 28-day survivors and nonsurvivors. However, when comparing the pCO_2 gap after 24 h of admission, it was found to have stabilized in survivors, whereas it had further increased in nonsurvivors. Of note, patients who had an increased gastric CO_2 of more than 20 mmHg after 24 h showed a mortality of more than 60% [19].

Further, it was demonstrated that sublingual and gastric mucosal pCO_2 correlated well ($r^2=0.61$, $P<0.05$) in mechanically ventilated ICU patients [20]. In the same study, dobutamine decreased the sublingual-to-arterial pCO_2 gap, which was interpreted as improvement of the sublingual microcirculation. Another study on the sublingual CO_2 partial pressure ($p_{sl}CO_2$) in an unselected ICU group demonstrated

that both the $p_{sl}CO_2$ and the $p_{sl-a}CO_2$ had a better predictive value for hospital mortality than classic variables such as lactate or mixed venous saturation at baseline (3.4 ± 2.8 vs. 5.0 ± 5.3 mmol/l, $P=0.21$ and 73 ± 10 vs. $69 \pm 12\%$, $P=0.17$, respectively) [21]. Although all these results derive from research settings, they could be seen as first step to use a CO_2 gap to guide resuscitation therapy in daily practice.

Use of carbon dioxide gaps in patients undergoing surgery

Comparable studies to those on the ICU were conducted in patients undergoing anaesthesia. In 51 patients who were scheduled for craniotomy in the sitting position, the relations of the $p_{mv-a}CO_2$, $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ and CI were inversely proportional in those who were worked up effectively beforehand and who were ranging at normal CI levels during surgery ($R^2=0.830$ and 0.760 , respectively, both $P<0.001$) [22].

In 115 patients who were undergoing high-risk (noncardiac) surgery, it was found that in those 78 who developed postoperative complications a significantly higher $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ was found at the time of ICU admission (8.7 ± 2.8 vs. 5.1 ± 2.6 mmHg, $P=0.001$). Of those patients with complications, 54 developed organ failure. Herein *post hoc* an ideal cut-off value of the $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ of 5.8 mmHg for increased risk of postoperative complications was identified (area under the ROC 0.86, 95% CI 0.77–0.95) [23].

Such findings however could not be repeated for the postoperative period in 393 patients after cardiac surgery. A $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ higher or lower than 6 mmHg at admission on the ICU and 6 h later were not predictive for the development of major complications. Furthermore, no difference in mortality was found [24].

Use of carbon dioxide gap in goal-directed fluid therapy

In the context of the findings mentioned above, it is only logical that CO_2 gap was used as target for fluid resuscitation.

In a prospective, observational study of 80 septic shock patients a high baseline pCO_2 gap was associated with a lower CI (2.9 vs. 3.9 l/min/m²) and a lower $S_{cv}O_2$ (61 vs. 73%). Patients who reached a normal $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ of less than 0.8 kPa (about 6 mmHg) after 6 h of resuscitation had decreased lactate levels (median [interquartile range]: 2.0 [1.2, 3.5] vs. 3.6 [2.1, 8.4] mmol/l, $P=0.002$) and a decreased O_2 extraction rate (24% [21, 28] vs. 31% [26,41], $P<0.0001$) in comparison with patients with a higher $p_{cv-a}CO_2$. At the same time CI , oxygen delivery (DO_2) and $S_{cv}O_2$ had increased in the patients with a normalized $p_{cv-a}CO_2$. So, for monitoring of

fluid resuscitation the $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ could be a useful tool to assess the adequacy of tissue perfusion [4].

In a retrospective analysis of complication rates after major abdominal surgery in 70 patients treated with a goal-directed fluid therapy algorithm, the value of $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ was demonstrated particularly in patients with a normal intraoperative $S_{cv}O_2$ of at least 71%; a high $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ could predict the development of postoperative complications (area under the ROC 0.785, 95% CI 0.74–0.83) with a discriminating cut-off $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ value of 5 mmHg. It was concluded that $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ can serve as complementary target to $S_{cv}O_2$ to identify inadequacy of fluid therapy [25].

In 50 septic shock patients with a normal or normalized $S_{cv}O_2$ after early resuscitation at the emergency department, it was also demonstrated that those with a persistently high $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ of more than 6 mmHg remained inadequately resuscitated as indicated by CI (2.7 ± 0.8 vs. 4.3 ± 1.6 l/min/m², $P < 0.0001$). Furthermore, $p_{cv-a}CO_2$ and CI were inversely correlated over time in these patients [26].

Based on all these findings, flow diagrams for a structured approach of management of shock have been developed. They put CO_2 gap in a central position, especially when $S_{cv}O_2$ is within the normal range due to alteration of oxygen extraction capacities (e.g.

in case of sepsis) and thus, where interpretation of $S_{cv}O_2$ is uncertain. One of these flow diagrams is presented in Fig. 2 [8^{***}]. Other flow diagrams emphasize on the combination of lactate, $S_{cv}O_2$ and $p_{v-a}CO_2$ to help identify macrocirculatory and microcirculatory alterations (Fig. 3) [27^{**}]. Indeed, some authors have suggested that an increased $p_{v-a}CO_2$ could reflect microcirculation alterations not detected by other systemic haemodynamic variables [28^{***}]. It could be postulated that in poorly perfused areas, accumulation of CO_2 lead to increased venous pCO_2 due to the high diffusion of CO_2 through the tissues. Obviously, the hypothesis that increased $p_{v-a}CO_2$ reflects microcirculatory alterations rather than inadequate systemic blood flow remains to be confirmed but is not in contradiction with the general belief that in cases of increased CO_2 gap, therapeutic elevation of CO should be first considered with the goal of improving tissue oxygenation [29].

Use of the ratio of carbon dioxide gap to arteriovenous oxygen content difference in goal-directed fluid therapy

The use of the ratio of CO_2 gaps ($p_{v-a}CO_2$ or $c_{v-a}CO_2$) and the arteriovenous oxygen content difference

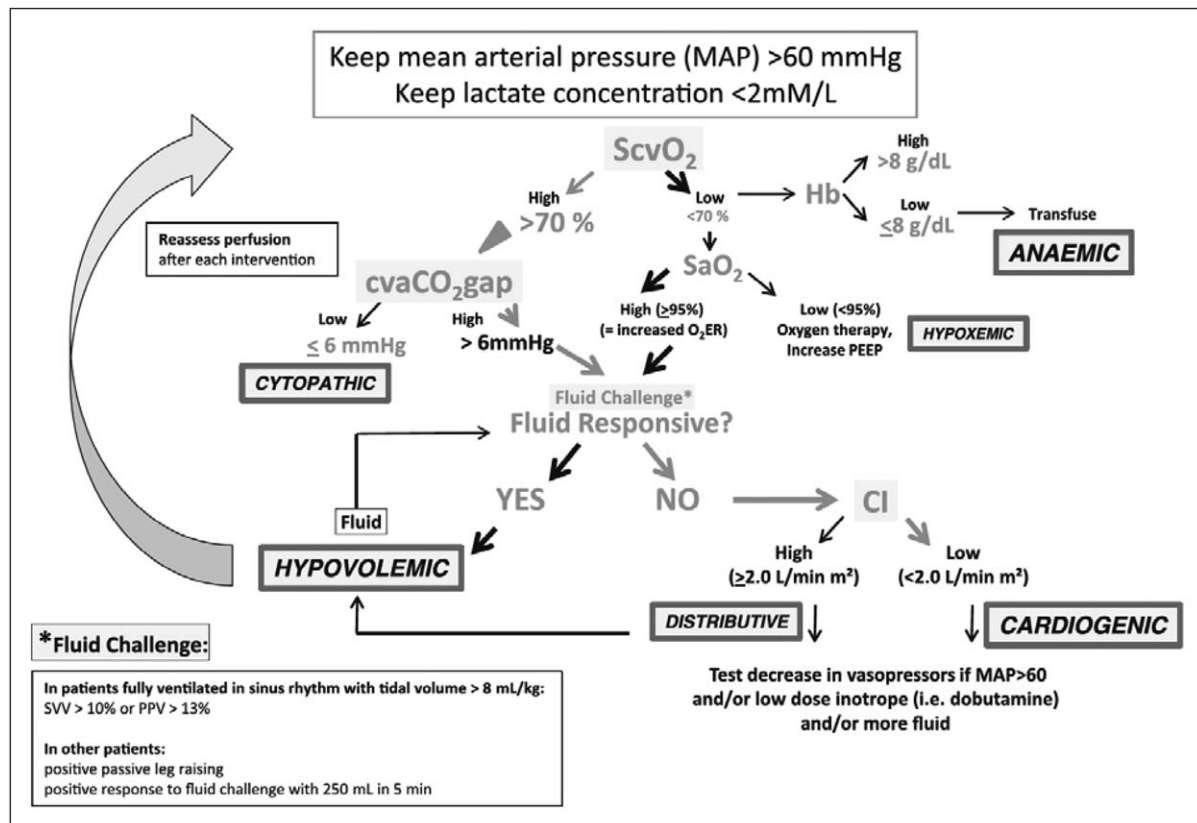


FIGURE 2. Flow-chart for analysing variables in tissue hypoxia according to Vallet *et al.* [8^{***}]. CI, cardiac index; $c_{v-a}CO_2$ gap, difference of partial pressures of CO_2 in venous and arterial blood; Hb, hemoglobin; PPV, pulse pressure variation; SaO_2 , arterial oxygen saturation; $ScvO_2$, central venous oxygen saturation; SVV, stroke volume variation.

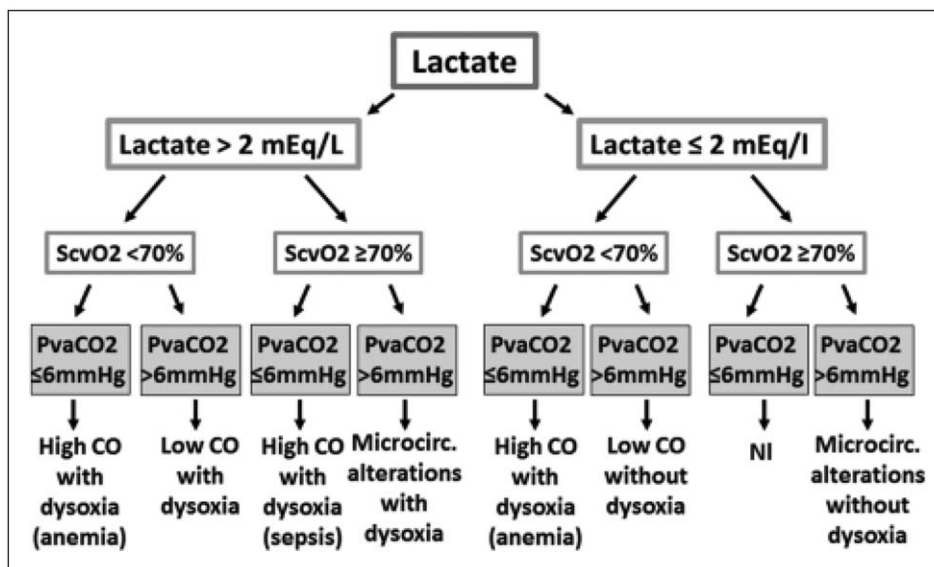


FIGURE 3. Integration of lactate, central venous oxygen saturation (ScvO₂) and arterial-to-venous carbon dioxide partial pressure difference (PvaCO₂) to identify alterations of the (micro)circulation according to De Backer. CO, cardiac output; NI, normal. Reproduced with permission [27[•]].

($c_{a-v}O_2$) is a further step toward successful goal-directed fluid resuscitation. In tissue hypoxia aerobic VCO_2 is markedly decreased, whereas there is only a slight increase in anaerobic VCO_2 . Simultaneously there is a significantly decreased VO_2 , which exceeds the net decrease in VCO_2 . As VCO_2 is the product of the cCO_2 and CO and VO_2 is the product of the cO_2 and CO , CO can be eliminated from the formula. This relation can also be expressed as the $p_{v-a}CO_2$ over the $c_{a-v}O_2$ ratio [28^{••},30^{••}].

When post-hoc studying the $p_{mv-a}CO_2$ to $c_{a-v}O_2$ ratio in 89 critically ill patients, it was found that a ratio of 1.4 mmHg/ml was the optimal cut-off point to predict hyperlactatemia (higher or lower than 2 mmol/l) (area under ROC 0.85, 95% CI 0.79–0.91) [31]. At baseline, the $p_{mv-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ ratio was significantly higher in the high lactate group (2.0 ± 0.9 vs. 1.1 ± 0.6 mmol/l), and there was a significant correlation between those two variables ($r=0.57$) [31]. The same $p_{cv-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ cut-off level of 1.4 mmHg/ml was found *post hoc* in 35 septic shock patients to predict an improved lactate clearance (decrease of $\geq 10\%$) after 24 h of resuscitation (area under the ROC 0.82, 95% CI 0.73–0.92) [32]. Also in this study, a significant correlation between lactate levels and $p_{cv-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ was found ($r=0.73$) [32]. Thus, both studies found that either central or mixed venous $p_{v-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ was a reliable marker for anaerobic metabolism. Furthermore, in patients who were admitted to an ICU after cardiac surgery, $p_{cv-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ was discriminating for more than 10% increase in VO_2 as respond to fluid therapy with a post-hoc cut-off value of 1.6 mmHg/ml. It could therefore serve as marker for global anaerobic

metabolism and as predictor for the response to a DO_2 challenge. Accordingly, it was successfully used as target in fluid resuscitation therapy (area under ROC 0.77 ± 0.10 , $P=0.032$) [33].

CONCLUSION

In our review, we give an outline over the use of several CO_2 gaps for the haemodynamic assessment and the guidance of haemodynamic therapy in critically ill patients. All the components for the used formulas are in a gaining proportion measurable with point-of-care analysers. Those are increasingly available at bedside in the ICU.

Due to the Fick principle, it seems feasible to use the $p_{v-a}CO_2$ as a marker of the adequacy of CO to the global metabolic conditions [2,3]. Those theoretical findings have also been validated for critically ill patients [4] and for patients who are undergoing surgery [5,22].

Because of the higher solubility of CO_2 than that of O_2 in blood, the CO_2 effluent of hypoxic tissue is accordingly higher than that of O_2 in states of low flow. The $p_{v-a}CO_2$ can thus be used as a marker of tissue hypoperfusion rather than a tool to detect tissue hypoxia [6,7,8^{••}]. In theory, mixed venous blood samples obtained through a PAC are necessary for the gradient calculations. However, clinical studies [13,14] have shown that it is reasonable to use central venous blood samples in most patients not equipped with a PAC.

The CO_2 gaps are suggested to be used to guide resuscitation of shock states, especially when alteration of oxygen extraction prevents perfect

interpretation of $S_{cv}O_2$ [4,25,26]. Studies in critically ill patients further demonstrated that the $p_{cv-a}CO_2/c_{a-v}O_2$ ratio was closely correlated to lactate levels and lactate clearance, which are both classical markers of tissue hypoxia and often used as targets in goal-directed therapy algorithms [31,32].

Because of the ease of use and the range of possibilities of CO_2 gaps, it is recommendable to implement the use of CO_2 gaps and maybe also its ratio to $c_{a-cv}O_2$ in daily ICU practice.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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