Metabolic flow regulation in human coronary artery disease

Kal, J.E.

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Chapter 4

Myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio as reference for coronary vasodilatory drug effects in humans

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Abstract

Background. Since myocardial oxygen consumption is the major determinant of coronary blood flow, the true vasodilating properties of coronary vasodilating drugs that may have an effect on oxygen consumption cannot be correctly assessed from blood flow changes alone. Therefore, we evaluated the vasodilator potency of intravenous and intracoronary drugs in relation to normal coronary flow regulation.

Methods. Normal coronary flow regulation was defined in a reference study of twelve awake and anesthetized patients by measuring the change in myocardial oxygen supply induced by pacing (30 beats/min above sinus rhythm) in relation to the change in myocardial oxygen demand. This myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio determined in the reference study was compared with that induced by intravenous and intracoronary drugs (nifedipine, felodipine, urapidil, and sodium nitroprusside) in two pharmacological studies: patients with coronary artery disease undergoing cardiac surgery (45 treated with sodium nitroprusside, 27 with nifedipine, and 27 with urapidil to manage arterial blood pressure), and patients with unstable angina undergoing cardiac catheterisation for diagnostic purposes (ten treated with intracoronary nifedipine and ten with intracoronary felodipine).

Results. When awake, the ratio of pacing induced oxygen supply/demand changes in the 12 reference study patients was 1.50 (95 % confidence interval (CI), 1.41-1.58), similar to the 1.45 (1.35-1.56) measured in the same patients after induction of anesthesia. Anesthesia per se did not increase coronary oxygen supply above the expected increase related to demand changes. Intravenously administered sodium nitroprusside, urapidil, and nifedipine did not change the myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio. The only significant change in the oxygen supply/demand ratio was induced by intracoronary bolus administration of nifedipine and felodipine (10.6 (SE 1.9) ml O₂/min and 13.9 (SE 1.9) ml O₂/min, respectively, above the demand related supply).

Conclusions. The intravenous administration of sodium nitroprusside, urapidil, or nifedipine had limited coronary vasoactive effects. During infusion of these drugs, physiological coronary flow control was still the major determinant of coronary flow. However, intracoronary high dose bolus injection of nifedipine and felodipine resulted in significant true vasodilation. Thus, quantification of coronary vasoactive properties in relation to the physiological reference ratio between myocardial oxygen supply and demand may be a powerful tool to differentiate between true and apparent coronary vasoactive drugs.
1. Introduction

Normal regulation of coronary blood flow is a multifactorial process possibly depending on metabolic, myogenic, neurohumoral and endothelial responses [1-6]. The overall effect of these combined responses leads to continuous matching of myocardial oxygen supply and demand [7-9]. In humans the myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio should be considered when the effects of coronary vasodilatory stimuli are described. Although there is a wide body of literature dealing with the effect of coronary vasodilators on myocardial blood flow and oxygen consumption, the potential involvement of the normal regulation process of coronary flow is rarely taken into account [10,11]. The purpose of the present study was to redress this inadequacy in the assessment of the capacity of drugs to vasodilate the resistance vessels of the coronary circulation.

2. Methods

A physiological reference study gathered data from 12 patients (both awake and anesthetized) with multivessel coronary artery disease (CAD) undergoing coronary artery bypass surgery. These data were compared with those from 45 anesthetized patients treated with sodium nitroprusside, 27 anesthetized patients treated with urapidil, and 27 anesthetized patients treated with nifedipine. These patients had been studied to evaluate the effectiveness of the drugs in the management of arterial blood pressure during cardiac surgery [12-14]. They were also compared with a study of awake patients undergoing cardiac catheterisation for diagnostic purposes: ten treated with intracoronary nifedipine and ten treated with intracoronary felodipine [15].

2.1 Patient characteristics

All patients gave informed consent to participate in one of the studies, that all had institutional approval. For the physiological reference study and for the drug studies under anesthesia, the patients with stable coronary artery disease (CAD) were scheduled for elective coronary artery surgery. Excluded from the study were patients with left ventricular end diastolic pressure higher than 18 mmHg, left ventricular hypertrophy, ejection fraction less than 45%, atrioventricular conduction defects, main stem stenosis or unstable angina. Patients undergoing additional surgical procedures – for example, valve replacement or aneurysmectomy, were also excluded. In the pharmacological study of awake patients after cardiac catheterization for diagnostic purposes, patients were confirmed to meet similar criteria of CAD as the other groups [15].

2.2 Instrumentation

For patients undergoing surgery, ECG leads were connected and leads II, III and V5 were continuously monitored (HP Merlin System, Hewlett-Packard, Böblingen, Germany). A wide bore peripheral infusion and a 20-gauge radial artery canula were inserted under local analgesia.
For the awake patients, a triple lumen pulmonary artery catheter (Baxter Health Care Corporation, Irvine, California, USA) and a coronary sinus thermodilution catheter (Wilton-Webster Laboratories, Altadena, California, USA) were introduced via the left subclavian vein as described before [12,13,16]. The absence of right atrial admixture in coronary sinus blood was checked by injection of cold saline in the right atrium, while coronary sinus temperature curves were recorded simultaneously [17,18]. Under fluoroscopy, pacing (via coronary sinus catheter) was practiced during 10-30 seconds to ascertain the stability of the position of the tip of the coronary sinus catheter in relation to the surrounding anatomical structures and fluoroscopic landmarks. In addition, the electrical threshold for pacing was determined. For the measurement of coronary sinus blood flow (CSBF) normal saline at room temperature was used as indicator and infused into the coronary sinus at a rate of 45 ml/min via a Mark IV infusion pump (Medrad Technology for people, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA) [19]. Infusion rates were verified by timed volume collection and flow calculations reflected the indicator infusion rate used.

2.3 Anesthesia technique
Calcium channel blockers and long acting nitrates were given until the evening before surgery. β-adrenoreceptor blocking agents were continued until the morning of surgery. Lorazepam 4-5 mg was given for premedication two hours before surgery.

At the start of induction of anesthesia the patients were pre-oxygenated. Pancuronium bromide (2 mg) was given followed by fentanyl (100 μg/kg) injected over five minutes. When the patient became unresponsive to commands an additional 6 mg dose of pancuronium was given, ventilation was assisted and then controlled manually. After intubation of the trachea the lungs were ventilated with air and oxygen (FIO₂ = 0.5). Ventilation was adjusted to maintain the end-tidal carbon dioxide concentration between 4 % and 4.5 %. In the first 15 minutes following induction of anesthesia 250-500 ml of gelofusine (Vifor Medical SA, Crisier, Switzerland) was infused to maintain a stable hemodynamic situation.

2.4 Physiological reference study
The measurement protocol and data analysis of the reference study are shown in figure 4.1. After adequate instrumentation and a resting period of 20 minutes three measurement series were obtained: at baseline, during pacing, and after discontinuation of pacing. Twenty minutes after induction of anesthesia and endotracheal intubation, the complete protocol was repeated. Each set of measurements consisted of a steady state recording period of coronary sinus blood flow, arterial blood pressure, pulmonary artery pressure, right atrial pressure, and ECG lead II for 20 seconds. These recordings were stored on a computer disk for off-line analysis. Furthermore, pulmonary capillary wedge pressure and single bolus cardiac outputs were obtained. Cardiac output was calculated as the average of at least three measurements and reported as cardiac index (CI) (cardiac output / body surface area in l/min/m²). Blood samples from the radial artery and coronary sinus were drawn to
Protocol:

**Awake**
- sinus rhythm
- pacing
- sinus rhythm
- measurement series 1
- measurement series 2
- measurement series 3

**Anaesthesia**
- sinus rhythm
- pacing
- sinus rhythm
- measurement series 4
- measurement series 5
- measurement series 6

Data analysis and presentation:

**Figure 4.1:** The upper part shows the protocol: Each measurement series includes 20 seconds recording of coronary sinus blood flow, arterial blood pressure, pulmonary artery pressure, right atrial pressure and ECG lead II, followed by measurement of pulmonary capillary wedge pressure, cardiac output and withdrawal of arterial and coronary sinus blood samples.

Data analysis and presentation: The pacing induced changes in MVO$_2$ and oxygen supply were calculated from the difference between values obtained in measurement series 2 and 1 (awake), and 5 and 4 (anaesthesia). Changes induced by cessation of pacing were calculated from the differences between measurement series 3 and 2 (awake), and 6 and 5 (anaesthesia). The results of this analysis are presented in figure 4.3. The effect of anaesthesia was calculated by the changes in myocardial oxygen supply and demand between measurement series 4 and 3 (sinus rhythm), and 5 and 2 (pacing). The results of the latter analysis are presented in figure 4.4.

determine plasma hemoglobin, partial pressure of oxygen (pO$_2$), and oxygen saturation (SatO$_2$).

SatO$_2$ was measured by an OSM-II hemoxymeter (Radiometer, Copenhagen) and pO$_2$ by an ABL-III (Radiometer, Copenhagen). Myocardial metabolic indices were calculated according to standard formulae [16].

$$cO_2 = (Hb \cdot SatO_2 + 0.00136 \cdot pO_2) \cdot 2.24 \quad [ml \ O_2/dl]$$

$$MVO_2 = CSBF \cdot (cO_{2,art} - CO_{2,cs}) / 100 \quad [ml \ O_2/min]$$

Myocardial oxygen supply = CSBF $\cdot cO_{2,art}$ / 100 [ml O$_2$/min]

where $cO_2$ is oxygen content, Hb is plasma hemoglobin, $cO_{2,art}$ is arterial oxygen content, $cO_{2,cs}$ is coronary sinus oxygen content, MVO$_2$ is myocardial oxygen consumption.
2.5 Pharmacological studies
In the pharmacological studies in patients undergoing coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) the protocol consisted of a series of baseline measurements 10 minutes after induction of anesthesia, followed by onset of continuous infusion of the study drug. Infusion rates of each drug were adjusted to maintain systolic blood pressure between 80 % and 120 % of baseline values. Additional measurements were obtained 10 minutes after the onset of infusion of the study drugs (before surgery started) and after sternotomy when the pericardium was opened, representing maximal surgical stress. The changes in oxygen supply and demand were calculated for both measurement periods (start dose and following sternotomy) in relation to baseline values as for the reference study.

In the pharmacological study in awake patients after cardiac catheterization for diagnostic purposes, a baseline measurement was obtained just before intracoronary bolus infusion of the study drug. Additional measurements were obtained 1, 3, 5, 7.5 and 10 minutes after the bolus injection. Changes in oxygen demand and supply were measured one minute after bolus injection, when the change in myocardial oxygen demand was maximal in all cases [15].

2.6 Statistical analysis
Data were analyzed using paired standard t-tests. A value of P < 0.05 was considered significant. Results are reported as mean (SD) unless stated otherwise. The change in coronary oxygen supply was related to the change in coronary oxygen demand by standard regression analysis. In the physiological reference study using the pacing protocol, a change in myocardial oxygen supply cannot occur without change in myocardial oxygen demand, therefore, this regression line was only calculated without intercept (standard formula: ΔO₂ supply = ratio · ΔO₂ demand). For the quantification of the drug induced effects (including the effect of anesthesia) on myocardial supply/demand ratios two regression analyses were performed, one with intercept (ΔO₂ supply = ratio · ΔO₂ demand + intercept) and one without intercept (ΔO₂ supply = ratio · ΔO₂ demand). The estimated ratios (slopes of regression lines) and intercepts are reported with their 95 % confidence intervals (95 % CI) only if the regression analysis resulted in a significant fit.

The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency of each drug was calculated as the mean difference between the expected change in oxygen supply (based on the physiological reference relation and the measured change in oxygen demand) and the actual change in oxygen supply found in each patient. The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency is the mean difference between oxygen supplies found and oxygen supplies expected on the basis of the measured oxygen demand and the reference human oxygen supply/demand ratio (figure 4.2, solid line). Data points below the expected oxygen supply give a negative contribution to the mean coronary microvascular vasodilating potency and data points above the line of expectancy a positive. The physiological reference relation was obtained from the regression line fitted to the pacing induced changes in oxygen supply and demand.
Figure 6.2: Theoretical demonstration of calculation of coronary microvascular vasodilating potency in a virtual data set. ●, supposed measurements; solid line, human physiological oxygen supply/demand ratio (= reference line); dotted lines, individual differences between measured oxygen supply and expected oxygen supply. The mean coronary microvascular vasodilating potency is the mean vertical distance to the reference line according to the dotted lines, where points below the reference line yield negative values and points above the line positive values.

3. Results

3.1 Reference study

Patient characteristics

The 12 patients participating in the reference study were comparable with respect to age, weight, and height (table 4.1). Although six patients had suffered a previous myocardial infarction and three had (treated) hypertension, there was no evidence of either impaired left ventricular function and dilation, or left ventricular hypertrophy. No patient was excluded from the data analysis during the course of the study for any reason.

Hemodynamic and metabolic characteristics

Hemodynamic results obtained in both the awake and anesthetized condition are reported at baseline, after onset of pacing, and after discontinuation of pacing (table 4.2).

Pacing resulted in a small change in mean arterial pressure in the direction of the heart rate change; during anesthesia changes in mean arterial pressure were
Table 4.1: Patient characteristics and clinical data of physiological reference study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (yr)</td>
<td>62 (8)</td>
<td>62 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight (kg)</td>
<td>79 (12)</td>
<td>79 (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior myocardial infarction</td>
<td>6/12</td>
<td>6/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treated hypertension</td>
<td>3/12</td>
<td>3/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent of coronary artery disease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two vessels</td>
<td>3/12</td>
<td>3/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three vessels</td>
<td>9/12</td>
<td>9/12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are expressed as n or mean (SD).

significantly larger compared with the awake state (12 mmHg v 6 mmHg). Similarly, the discontinuation of pacing resulted in a blood pressure decrease of 3 mmHg in the awake state, and a blood pressure decrease of 11 mmHg in the anesthetized state. Compared with the awake situation, mean arterial pressure decreased in all patients significantly after induction of anesthesia.

Pulmonary artery pressure and pulmonary capillary wedge pressure did not change significantly during the study. CI increased significantly as a result of pacing in both awake and anesthetized patients.

Arterial and coronary sinus oxygen content (\(\text{cO}_2_{\text{art}}\) and \(\text{cO}_2_{\text{cs}}\)), and oxygen supply and demand were calculated at baseline, during pacing (after coronary sinus blood flow had reached a steady state), and after cessation of pacing. In awake and anesthetized patients, \(\text{cO}_2_{\text{cs}}\) did not change in response to heart rate changes, although \(\text{cO}_2_{\text{art}}\) increased 1.1 ml O\(_2\)/ml (p<0.05) and \(\text{cO}_2_{\text{art}}\) increased 1.5 ml O\(_2\)/ml after induction of anesthesia because of ventilation of the patient. MVO\(_2\) increased significantly during pacing and this change was similar in both the awake and anesthetized state.

3.2 Myocardial supply/demand ratios

Reference study

Figure 4.1 shows the pacing induced change in oxygen demand related to the subsequent change in oxygen supply, awake and after induction of anesthesia. For each patient (both awake and anesthetized) two supply/demand relations are shown in each plot, one depicting the effect of pacing versus sinus rhythm, and the second showing the effect of cessation of pacing. The regression lines calculated for both conditions were not significantly different: awake, \(\Delta\text{O}_2\text{supply} = 1.50 \cdot \Delta\text{MVO}_2\) (95 % CI, 1.41-1.58); anesthetized, \(\Delta\text{O}_2\text{supply} = 1.45 \cdot \Delta\text{MVO}_2\) (1.35-1.56) (table 4.3). The coronary microvascular vasodilating potencies calculated for the pacing induced
Table 4.2: Hemodynamic characteristics of physiological reference study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Awake baseline</th>
<th>Pacing</th>
<th>Post Pacing</th>
<th>Anesthesia baseline</th>
<th>Pacing</th>
<th>Post Pacing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heart Rate (HR)</td>
<td>61 (8)</td>
<td>86 (6)*</td>
<td>61 (7)</td>
<td>58 (7)</td>
<td>87 (7)*</td>
<td>59 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Arterial Pressure (MAP)</td>
<td>102 (21)</td>
<td>108 (22)</td>
<td>105 (22)</td>
<td>79 (17)*</td>
<td>91 (16)</td>
<td>80 (16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right Atrial Pressure (RAP)</td>
<td>5 (4)</td>
<td>4 (4)</td>
<td>5 (4)</td>
<td>7 (4)</td>
<td>7 (4)</td>
<td>8 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Pulmonary Artery Pressure (PAP)</td>
<td>23 (4)</td>
<td>26 (5)</td>
<td>24 (4)</td>
<td>20 (6)</td>
<td>22 (5)</td>
<td>20 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulmonary Capillary Wedge Pressure (PCWP)</td>
<td>13 (4)</td>
<td>11 (6)</td>
<td>12 (5)</td>
<td>11 (3)</td>
<td>11 (3)</td>
<td>10 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardiac Index (CI)</td>
<td>2.5 (0.7)</td>
<td>3.2 (0.6)*</td>
<td>2.7 (0.7)</td>
<td>2.4 (0.7)</td>
<td>3.1 (0.8)*</td>
<td>2.6 (0.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arterial Oxygen Content (cO2att)</td>
<td>17.9 (2.2)</td>
<td>17.9 (2.2)</td>
<td>17.9 (2.2)</td>
<td>19.4 (2.2)*</td>
<td>19.2 (2.2)</td>
<td>19.2 (2.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coronary Venous Oxygen Content (cO2cst)</td>
<td>6.5 (1.3)</td>
<td>6.5 (1.3)</td>
<td>6.3 (1.3)</td>
<td>7.4 (1.3)*</td>
<td>7.2 (1.1)</td>
<td>7.2 (1.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myocardial Oxygen Consumption (MVO2)</td>
<td>13 (4)</td>
<td>18 (7)*</td>
<td>13 (5)</td>
<td>12 (5)*</td>
<td>18 (7)*</td>
<td>13 (6.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coronary Sinus Blood Flow (CSBF)</td>
<td>108 (23)</td>
<td>154 (35)*</td>
<td>111 (24)</td>
<td>99 (32)*</td>
<td>143 (46)*</td>
<td>100 (400)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All data are mean (SD); n = 12; HR, heart rate (beats/min); MAP, mean arterial pressure (mmHg); RAP, right atrial pressure (mmHg); PAP, mean pulmonary artery pressure (mmHg); PCWP, pulmonary capillary wedge pressure (mmHg); CI, cardiac index (l/min/m²); cO2att, arterial oxygen content (mlO₂/100ml); cO2cst, coronary venous oxygen content (mlO₂/100ml); MVO2, myocardial oxygen consumption (mlO₂/min); CSBF, coronary sinus blood flow (ml/min).

* *significantly different from baseline; † †significantly different from awake state.

results give an impression of the natural variation that may be expected in data of this kind.

Figure 4.4 shows the anesthesia-induced changes in myocardial oxygen demand in relation to the pacing induced regression line in the awake condition (solid line, identical to solid line in figure 4.3, left panel). Compared with the awake situation MVO₂ was significantly reduced by anesthesia (table 4.2); however, this was associated with a matching decrease in coronary oxygen supply (r = 0.96). The calculated regression line is characterized as ΔO₂_supply = 1.41ΔO₂_demand (95% CI, 1.29-1.52). There was no significant intercept and the regression lines calculated at baseline heart rate and during pacing were not significantly different (table 4.3). The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency of anesthesia was not significantly different from zero.

Pharmacological studies

The changes in myocardial oxygen demand and supply measured during infusion of urapidil, sodium nitroprusside, and nifedipine are presented in figure 4.5 for individual patients during anesthesia. In all panels, the dashed lines represent the physiological supply/demand ratio obtained by pacing during anesthesia in the physiological reference study (figure 4.3, right panel).

Left panels of figure 4.5 show the effect of a start dose of the different study drugs compared with baseline values. Mean oxygen supply in the control condition
Figure 4.3: Physiological metabolic flow regulation; the effect of pacing (▲) at 30 beats/min above sinus rhythm, and cessation of pacing (▼) on myocardial oxygen supply and demand in patients with coronary artery disease. Left panel: awake; right panel, after induction of anesthesia by fentanyl and pancuronium bromide. The lines represent the results of regression analysis to the data presented here and were used as reference in figures 4.4 - 4.7. Details are shown in table 4.3.

was 21 (6) ml O₂/min. There was a small but significant mean difference in oxygen supply for sodium nitroprusside in relation to the oxygen supply based on the dashed line in figure 4.5 of 0.55 (SE 0.21) ml O₂/min. For both urapidil and nifedipine the coronary microvascular vasodilating potency was not significantly different from zero under these conditions.

The results of regression analysis of these data are presented without (table 4.3) and with (table 4.4) intercept. Sodium nitroprusside, urapidil, or intravenous nifedipine did not change the ratio between myocardial oxygen supply and demand significantly, compared with the physiological ratio obtained by pacing during anesthesia (table 4.3). There was no significant increase in coronary oxygen supply, without change in myocardial oxygen demand, for any of the drugs studied at start dose; therefore, no significant intercept was found (table 4.4).

Right panels of figure 4.5 show the effect of urapidil, sodium nitroprusside, and nifedipine on myocardial oxygen supply and demand at higher infusion rates after sternotomy and opening of the pericardium. Infusion rates were adjusted to keep mean arterial pressure between 120 % and 80% of baseline values. The mean (SD) coronary microvascular vasodilating potency was calculated and was significant for sodium nitroprusside (1.78 (2.75) ml O₂/min) and nifedipine (2.45 (5.12) ml O₂/min) but not for urapidil.

Table 4.4 shows that regression analysis of the effect of sodium nitroprusside and nifedipine reveals a small but significant intercept, indicating an increase in coronary oxygen supply independent of myocardial oxygen demand. However, for nifedipine only, the oxygen supply/demand ratio was significantly decreased, using regression
Figure 4.4: Effect of anesthesia on myocardial oxygen supply and demand in patients with coronary artery disease. Left panel, at sinus rhythm; right panel, during pacing at 30 beats/min above baseline. The lines presented in these figures are the regression lines of the physiological reference data obtained awake and presented in figure 4.3 (left panel). Results of regression analysis of the data and the calculated coronary microvascular vasodilating potency relative to the line shown are presented in table 4.3.

Analysis with intercept estimation. All effects of nifedipine (significant coronary microvascular vasodilating potency, significant intercept with the oxygen supply axis, and decreased supply/demand ratio) resulted from an increase in myocardial oxygen supply larger than expected from the physiological supply/demand ratio (dashed line) in only six of 27 patients.

Figure 4.6 shows the changes in coronary oxygen supply induced by intracoronary bolus injection of felodipine or nifedipine in awake patients after cardiac catheterization for diagnostic purposes in relation to the concomitantly induced changes in myocardial oxygen demand. The solid lines represent the physiological supply/demand ratio obtained by pacing in the awake patients in the physiological reference study and were used as reference for the calculation of the coronary microvascular vasodilating potency of these drugs under these conditions. Regression analysis of the changes in oxygen supply to the induced changes in oxygen demand did not yield a significant correlation with or without intercept for either intracoronary felodipine or intracoronary nifedipine.

For nifedipine nine of 10 patients, and for felodipine all 10 patients showed an increase in oxygen supply compared with the expected physiological values (solid line). The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency was 13.9 (SE 1.9) ml O$_2$/min for felodipine and 10.6 (SE 1.9) ml O$_2$/min for nifedipine. Both coronary microvascular vasodilating potencies were significantly different from zero and indicate substantial changes in oxygen supply. (Mean (SD) baseline oxygen supply was 22.7 (4.3) ml O$_2$/min for intracoronary nifedipine and 21.7 (6.3) ml O$_2$/min for
Figure 4.5: Effects of potentially vasoactive drugs (A, urapidil; B, sodium nitroprusside; and C, nifedipine) administered intravenously, on myocardial oxygen supply and demand in anesthetized patients with coronary artery disease. Left panels, 10 minutes after start of drug infusion before surgery was started; right panels, after sternotomy, while drugs are infused at a dose sufficient to keep blood pressure between 80% and 120% of preinfusion values. Dashed lines in each panel represent the regression line of the physiological reference data shown in figure 4.3 (right panel) obtained during anesthesia and are not fitted to the data shown in this figure. These lines were used as reference to calculate the coronary microvascular vasodilating potency of each drug. Results of the regression analysis of the data shown in this figure are presented in tables 4.3 and 4.4.
Figure 4.6: Effect of intracoronary bolus infusion of felodipine and nifedipine on myocardial oxygen supply and demand in awake patients with coronary artery disease one minute after bolus administration. Left panel, effect of felodipine bolus injection of 0.1 mg; right panel, effect of nifedipine bolus injection of 0.2 mg. The solid lines represent the regression line to the physiological reference data obtained in awake patients shown in figure 4.3, left panel. These lines were used to calculate the coronary microvascular vasodilating potency of these drugs under these conditions (table 4.3).

4. Discussion

By establishing the linear relation between myocardial oxygen supply and demand by pacing the effect of putative vasodilating drugs can be divided between those in which this relation is unaffected (urapidil and sodium nitroprusside) and those which increase the oxygen supply more than expected (intracoronary felodipine and nifedipine). We interpreted the latter effect as a true opening of the resistance vessels of the coronary circulation. The former drugs may dilate the proximal epicardial vessels or the coronary veins, but not the resistance vessels that determine coronary blood flow and thus oxygen supply. Any effect of these drugs on oxygen supply results from the concomitant effect on metabolic rate – that is, myocardial oxygen consumption or oxygen demand.

The aim of the present study was to quantify the physiological response of the coronary flow regulation process to pacing induced changes in myocardial oxygen demand. These data were used to describe the effect of vasoactive compounds on the coronary circulation in relation to this physiological regulation process, as these drugs may have separate effects on MVO$_2$. As the effects of these coronary
Table 4.3: Regression analysis: \( \Delta O_2 \) supply = ratio \( \cdot \) \( \Delta O_2 \) demand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>intervention</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>ratio</th>
<th>95 % CI</th>
<th>( r^2 )</th>
<th>Coronary vasodilating potency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pacing, awake</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.41-1.58</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.05 (1.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pacing, anesthetized</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.35-1.56</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>-0.25 (1.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anesthesia, sinus rhythm</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.29-1.52</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.35 (1.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anesthesia, pacing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.22-1.48</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.69 (1.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.14-1.44</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.55 (1.47)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP, sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.26-1.74</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.78 (2.75)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urapidil, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.38-1.75</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.38 (1.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urapidil, sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>1.30-1.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.85 (2.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nifedipine, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1.08-1.65</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.35 (2.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nifedipine sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.24-1.73</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.45 (5.12)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nifedipine awake (ic)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>10.57 (5.87)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>felodipine awake (ic)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>13.85 (5.96)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coronary microvascular vasodilating potency (ml O₂/ min) is calculated as explained in figure 4.2, presented as mean (SD). All ratio's presented were significantly different from zero.

95 % CI = 95 % confidence interval; \( r^2 \), regression coefficient; \( n \), number of observations used to estimate the regression lines presented in tables 4.3 and 4.4; SNP, sodium nitroprusside; iv, intravenous; ic, intracoronary; ns, no significant fit.

*, significantly different from zero.

Vasoactive drugs were previously studied in awake and anesthetized patients, we had to determine the possible effect of anesthesia on the oxygen supply/demand ratio.

The results indicate that the ratio between pacing induced changes in myocardial oxygen supply and demand was 1.50 (0.1) in awake patients with CAD and 1.45 (0.1) after induction of anesthesia by fentanyl/pancuronium bromide; therefore, this type of anesthesia does not seem to affect the physiological coronary metabolic regulation at steady state.

Subsequently it was shown that vasoactivity of drugs was judged differently compared with normal physiological regulation of coronary blood flow. Intravenous administration of sodium nitroprusside, urapidil, and nifedipine showed rather similar behavior, compared with the regression line obtained during pacing (figure 4.5). In the majority of patients studied, the induced changes in myocardial oxygen supply were related to changes in myocardial oxygen demand. Only a small additional increase in coronary oxygen supply could be attributed to the administration of nifedipine and sodium nitroprusside, but not urapidil. In contrast, intracoronary administration of nifedipine or felodipine showed marked vasodilation in spite of the decrease in MVO₂. This was probably caused by the very high local concentration of nifedipine and felodipine in the coronary vascular wall and the
### Table 4.4:
Regression analysis: $\Delta O_2$ supply = ratio · $\Delta O_2$ demand + intercept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intervention</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>95% CI of ratio</th>
<th>Intercept</th>
<th>95% CI of intercept</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anesthesia, sinus rhythm</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.34-1.73</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>-0.16-1.44</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anesthesia, pacing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.17-1.54</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-1.17-1.31</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.18-1.49</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-0.01-0.89</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP, sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.19-1.60</td>
<td>1.83*</td>
<td>1.01-2.65</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urapidil, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.33-1.74</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.45-0.96</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urapidil, sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.20-1.49</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>-0.03-2.46</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nifedipine, start dose (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.07-1.76</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>-0.85-1.41</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nifedipine, sternotomy (iv)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.01†</td>
<td>0.70-1.32</td>
<td>5.73*</td>
<td>2.75-8.7</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All ratios presented were significantly different from zero. All intercepts were on the myocardial oxygen supply axis in ml O$_2$/min. 95% CI, 95% confidence interval; $r^2$, regression coefficient; SNP, sodium nitroprusside.

*,” significantly different from zero; †, significantly different from regression without intercept; ‡, significantly different from the reference regression obtained under similar conditions.

The myocardium. In addition, the intracoronary route of bolus administration is not associated with baroreflex mediated sympathetic activation, as is the case with intravenous administration of vasodilators.

#### 4.1 Physiology of coronary flow regulation
Coronary flow is determined by myocardial oxygen consumption and coronary perfusion pressure [9,20]. These parameters may vary continuously over time; therefore, coronary vascular resistance is adjusted in a continuous dynamic process. This process is mediated by several mechanisms including myogenic, metabolic, neurohumoral, and endothelial responses. The relative influence of each separate response on the overall regulation process is unknown [20,21].

It is well documented that myocardial oxygen supply and demand are tightly coupled so that each change in demand is matched by a corresponding change in supply [7-9]. This phenomenon is the result of physiological coronary flow regulation and, in the case of drug administration, this should not be referred to as drug induced vasodilation or vasoconstriction. We propose to reserve the term 'true vasodilation' for increases in coronary blood flow above the physiological regulation level. This implies that the physiological coronary flow regulation should be known and used as a reference when potential vasodilating agents are studied.

In humans, this physiological regulation process has not been studied extensively. In 1972, Kitamura et al. measured coronary blood flow and MVO$_2$ in awake humans (young, male volunteers) during rest and several levels of exercise [22]. The myocardial supply/demand ratio was estimated to be approximately 1.4. In 1978, Mohrman and Feigl used myocardial supply/demand ratios to characterize the effect...
of α-adrenoreceptor blockade on coronary flow regulation in dogs [8]. They found a baseline ratio of 0.85 and vasodilation caused by α-adrenoreceptor blockade increased this ratio to 1.23. In 1987, Vergroesen et al. reported a myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio of 1.4 (SE 0.2) in dogs and 1.5 (SE 0.2) in goats with and without a separate coronary perfusion system [9]. The discrepancy between the results reported by Mohrman and Feigl, and Vergroesen et al’s study is possibly because of differences in the stimulus used to increase MVO₂. However the data of Vergroesen et al. and Kitamura et al. are in good agreement with the present findings in patients with CAD (figure 4.3 and 4.4, table 4.3).

4.2 Use of ΔO₂supply/ΔO₂demand ratio to evaluate vasodilating properties of drugs

A large number of peripheral and coronary arterial vasodilators are currently available for the management of hypertension and ischemic heart disease. As in most studies describing coronary pharmacodynamic effects only mean changes in coronary blood flow and MVO₂ are reported (as was done previously with the present data), the relative vasodilating potency of these different agents is not well defined. A number of parameters that can be used to differentiate between the effects of coronary vasodilators are shown in table 4.3. These include: the ratio of myocardial oxygen supply and demand at different infusion rates; the intercept with the Y-axis (supply axis); and intrinsic coronary microvascular vasodilating potency, defined as the mean difference between the measured increase in oxygen supply and the expected increase in oxygen supply calculated from the reference supply/demand ratio.

Figure 4.7 shows the theoretical effects of putative coronary vasodilators on myocardial oxygen supply in relation to the physiological reference supply/demand ratio as measured in the present study. Six different types of drugs are shown that would have been deemed coronary vasodilators according to current clinical practice, but with this new method more differentiation is made.

Comparing theoretical effects of potential coronary vasodilators (figure 4.7) with the data presented in figures 4.5 and 4.6, we see that the relation between changes in oxygen supply and demand calculated on the basis of the physiological reference study in anesthetized patients (dashed lines in figure 4.5) predicted the expected changes in coronary oxygen supply to a very large extent for urapidil and nifedipine at low starting dose (type 6 vasodilation, figure 4.7). Only a few patients treated with high dose intravenous nifedipine had significant vasodilation; therefore, nifedipine is a type 4 vasodilator as shown from the regression line fit with intercept estimation presented in table 4.4. Sodium nitroprusside appeared to induce a small but consistent upwards shift of the oxygen supply demand ratio, apparent in the small but significant coronary microvascular vasodilating potency (type 3 vasodilator). The fact that the coronary microvascular vasodilating potency for sodium nitroprusside was significantly different from zero shows that this new method of quantification is highly sensitive. Clinical significance of such a small but consistent improvement has yet to be shown. However, the majority of patients treated with sodium nitroprusside showed very little change in either oxygen supply or oxygen demand.
Figure 4.7: Illustration of the potential of this new analysis. Theoretical vasodilator effects (●) are presented in relation to physiological flow regulation (dotted line in each panel). All panels show an average increase in myocardial oxygen supply as result of drug infusion; however, with the present analysis not all drugs will be deemed coronary microvascular vasodilating drugs. Type 1: classic coronary vasodilator affects only coronary oxygen supply and not myocardial oxygen demand. The mean change in oxygen supply will be equal to the mean vasodilating potency of this type of drug. Type 2: coronary vasodilator underestimated by its change in oxygen supply alone. The induced reduction in oxygen demand enhances the vasodilating potency of this type of drug. Type 3: coronary vasodilator characterized by a consistent moderate increase in coronary oxygen supply above the expected physiological supply. Coronary microvascular vasodilating potency and intercept of regression line are equally effective in quantifying its action. The ratio of oxygen supply and demand is unchanged. (the legend to this figure is continued on the next page)
Figure 4.7 continued: Type 4: this coronary vasodilator does not yield the same result in each patient. The intercept of the regression line indicates vasodilating possibilities at zero change in oxygen demand, but the ratio decreases compared with the physiological line. The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency will reflect the average change in myocardial oxygen supply at the actual changes in myocardial oxygen demand. Type 5: this type of vasodilator shows an increased oxygen supply relative to the physiologically expected supply if myocardial oxygen demand is increased. At a decreased oxygen demand a larger decrease in supply is expected as well. The intercept of the regression line would be equal to zero, but the ratio will increase. The coronary microvascular vasodilating potency may be significantly greater than zero depending on the change in MVO$_2$. Type 6: this type of drug is not a true vasodilator. The increase in myocardial oxygen supply can be fully explained by the physiological coronary flow regulation. The range of oxygen supply and demand changes shown here is only larger than induced by pacing in the reference study.

Measurement of the vasodilating properties of these drugs by the percentage increases in oxygen supply alone would have overestimated the vasodilating properties of urapidil in both awake and anesthetized patients, and nifedipine at high dose intravenous infusion.

Figure 4.6 shows the strength of this analysis. The increase in oxygen supply induced by intracoronary administration of nifedipine and felodipine relative to the reference curve is much larger than the change in oxygen supply per se (type 2 vasodilation, figure 4.7). The reduction in MVO$_2$ following intracoronary bolus injection of high doses felodipine or nifedipine probably results from the potent negative inotropic properties of these agents, separate from the relaxing effect on the coronary smooth muscle cells. Using physiological oxygen supply/demand ratios as a reference, intracoronary administration of nifedipine clearly has more local effects on the coronary resistance vessels than intravenous administration of the same agent (figure 4.5 and 4.6).

4.3 Contribution of collateral flow to oxygen supply/demand ratio
In the prospectively studied group of patients the contribution of potential collaterals (including those that cannot be seen by coronary angiography) to coronary sinus blood flow was unknown. However, theoretically there is no reason to assume a different oxygen extraction ratio (and thus supply/demand ratio) in myocardium perfused via collaterals unless these collateral vessels induce significant arteriovenous shunting. As coronary venous oxygen tension remained constant during all interventions in the present study, there is no indication of significant intracoronary shunting.

5. Conclusions
Physiological regulation of coronary blood flow in awake and anesthetized patients with CAD can be characterized by similar myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratios.
MYOCARDIAL OXYGEN SUPPLY AND DEMAND

The myocardial oxygen supply/demand ratio and coronary microvascular vasodilating potency are potential tools for comparing coronary vasodilating drugs in clinical practice.

Intravenous administration of sodium nitroprusside, urapidil, and nifedipine in sufficient doses to control arterial blood pressure during surgical stress has limited coronary vasoactive effects in the majority of patients with CAD. The physiological coronary flow control system is still the major determinant of coronary flow in these patients.

Intracoronary high dose bolus injection of nifedipine and felodipine results in significant true vasodilation.

6. References

11. Harrison D.G., Kurz M.A., Quillen J.E., Sellke F.W., Mugge A. Normal and pathophysiologic considerations of endothelial regulation of vascular tone and their relevance to nitrate therapy. *Am J Cardiol* 1992;70:11B-7B