Muscle membrane properties in a pig sepsis model: effect of norepinephrine

Delphine Boërio, PhD¹, Thiago D. Corrêa, MD, PhD², Stephan M. Jakob, MD PhD³, Karin A.

Ackermann, MD¹, Hugh Bostock, PhD⁴, Werner J. Z'Graggen, MD⁵

¹Department of Neurology, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Switzerland.
 ²Department of Intensive Care Medicine, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Switzerland and Intensive Care Unit, Hospital Israelita Albert Einstein, São Paulo, Brazil
 ³Department of Intensive Care Medicine, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Switzerland

⁴Sobell Department of Motor Neuroscience and Movement Disorders, Institute of Neurology, University College London, London, UK

⁵Department of Neurosurgery, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital, University of Bern, Switzerland

Word count: Abstract: 150, Manuscript: 2611

Correspondence: W.J. Z'Graggen, Departments of Neurology and Neurosurgery, University Hospital Bern, Inselspital, 3010 Bern, Switzerland, E-mail: <u>werner.zgraggen@insel.ch</u>

Running title: Muscle properties in sepsis

Acknowledgments: This study was supported by a Grant of the Swiss National Science Foundation (SFN

3200B0-113478/1 and 32003B_127619) held by W.J. Z'Graggen and S.M. Jakob. The study was

conducted at the Experimental Surgery Unit of the Department of Clinical Research, University of Bern,

Bern, Switzerland. The authors would like to thank Olgica Beslac, Daniel Mettler and Daniel Zalokar

from the Experimental Surgery Unit and Michael Lensch from the Department of Intensive Care

Medicine, Inselspital, Bern University Hospital and University of Bern, Switzerland for their skillful

support.

Disclosure of conflicts of interest: H. Bostock receives royalties from UCL for sales of the QTRAC software used in this study. The remaining authors have no conflicts of interest.

We confirm that we have read the Journal's position on issues involved in ethical publication and affirm that this report is consistent with those guidelines.

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as an 'Accepted Article', doi: 10.1002/mus.26013

Muscle membrane properties in a pig sepsis model: effect of norepinephrine

Abstract

Introduction: Sepsis-induced myopathy and critical illness myopathy are common causes of muscle weakness in intensive care patients. This study investigated the effect of different mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) levels on muscle membrane properties following experimental sepsis.

Methods: Sepsis was induced with faecal peritonitis in 12 out of 18 anesthetized and mechanically ventilated pigs. Seven were treated with a high (75-85 mm Hg) and 5 with a low (\geq 60 mm Hg) MAP target for resuscitation. In septic animals, resuscitation was started 12 hours after peritonitis induction, and muscle velocity recovery cycles were recorded 30 hours later. *Results:* Muscles in the sepsis/high MAP group showed an increased relative refractory period and reduced early supernormality, compared to the remaining septic animals and the control group, indicating membrane depolarization and/or sodium channel inactivation. The membrane abnormalities correlated positively with norepinephrine dose.

Discussion: Norepinephrine may contribute to sepsis-induced abnormalities in muscle by impairing microcirculation.

Keywords: critical illness myopathy, experimental sepsis, ICU acquired weakness, electrophysiology, electromyography, norepinephrine

Introduction

Intensive care unit (ICU) acquired weakness is a frequent complication in critically ill patients [1-4]. Typically, patients become symptomatic with generalized muscle weakness and failure to wean from mechanical ventilation. ICU-acquired weakness is often caused by sepsisinduced myopathy, critical illness myopathy (CIM), or a combination of these and other entities [5]. Sepsis, systemic inflammatory response syndrome and multiple organ failure have been identified as important risk factors for ICU-acquired muscle pathologies [1]. Multiple mechanisms have been proposed, such as impaired microcirculation with consecutive bioenergetic failure [1, 5], toxic action of cytokines [1, 3, 5], disturbances of electrolyte gradients [6 - 8] and muscle catabolism [9 - 13]. Furthermore, it has been shown that during sepsis muscle membrane potential changes occur [14 - 17]. Using a pig model, we demonstrated that muscle membrane abnormalities consistent with membrane depolarization and/or sodium channel inactivation occurred within 6 hours of sepsis induced by faecal peritonitis [18]. Similar changes were found in patients diagnosed of probable CIM [6].

Muscle membrane properties can be assessed in vivo by recording multi-fiber muscle velocity recovery cycles (MVRC). Using direct muscle stimulation, a cluster of muscle fibers are excited with paired stimuli separated by an inter-stimulus interval (ISI) that is varied between 2 and 1000 ms. The conduction velocity of the second action potential depends on the ISI [19 - 23]. This allows the measurement of muscle relative refractory period (MRRP) and early supernormality (ESN). Both measures are sensitive to muscle membrane potential and muscle ion channel function. In the early phase of septic myopathy and in probable CIM a prolongation of MRRP and a reduction of ESN were found, indicating that muscle membranes are depolarized and/or that muscle sodium channel inactivation was increased [6, 18].

One possible pathophysiological mechanism for development of ICU-acquired muscle weakness is reduction of microcirculation, causing bioenergetic failure, eventually leading to

ischemic muscle fibre injury. Under physiological conditions, blood flow autoregulation maintains organ perfusion constant in the face of changing perfusion pressure. If autoregulation is impaired either by a drop of systemic perfusion pressure below a critical value or by failure of regulatory mechanisms, organ ischemia can occur. There is an ongoing debate about optimal blood pressure management during sepsis [24]. The Surviving Sepsis Guidelines recommend vasopressors to achieve and maintain a mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) of at least 65 mm Hg in patients not responding to initial fluid resuscitation [25]. Thereby, vasopressors variably affect systemic, regional and organ perfusion [26 - 28].

The aim of the present study was to evaluate the impact of two different MAP target levels on muscle membrane properties in an experimental model of sepsis induced by faecal peritonitis.

Materials and methods

Here we report data from two different studies in which neurophysiological measurements were carried out. Both studies were performed in accordance with the National Institute of Health guidelines for care and use of experimental animals and with the approval of the Animal Care Committee of the Canton of Bern, Switzerland (No. BE 88/09 and BE 70/10). The course of the disease including hemodynamics and mitochondrial function, and aspects of resuscitation have been published previously [29, 30].

Animal Preparation

Animal preparation was described in detail earlier [29,30]. In brief, 18 domestic pigs (mean weight \pm SD: 39.4 \pm 4.1 kg) were fasted overnight for 12 hours and intramuscularly premedicated with ketamine (20 mg/kg) and xylazine (2 mg/kg) before induction of anaesthesia with midazolam (0.5mg/kg) and atropine (0.02 mg/kg) followed by orotracheal intubation.

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Anesthesia was maintained throughout the experiment with continuous intravenous infusions of propofol (4 mg/kg/h) and fentanyl (5 μ g/kg/h during surgery and 2 μ g/kg/h afterwards). If necessary, additional boluses of midazolam (5 mg) and fentanyl (50 μ g) were administered. Neuromuscular blocking agents were not used. Animals were ventilated in a volume-controlled mode with a positive end-expiratory pressure of 5 cm H₂O, a fraction of inspired oxygen of 0.3 and a tidal volume of 8 mL/kg (Servo-i[®], Marquet Critical Care, Solna, Sweden). The respiratory rate was adjusted aiming an arterial CO₂ partial pressure (PaCO₂) of 35 to 45 mmHg. A combination of Ringer's lactate and glucose 50% solutions were infused continuously and adjusted to maintain blood glucose in the range of 3.5 to 5 mmol/L. A period up to six hours was allowed for hemodynamic stabilization. Afterwards, peritonitis was induced in 12 pigs by installation of 2 g/kg of autologous feces dissolved in 200-250 ml (37°C) 5% glucose solution into the abdominal cavity. Six animals served as non-septic controls.

Resuscitation was started 12 hours after untreated sepsis and lasted for 48 hours. Afterwards, the animals were deeply sedated and euthanized with an overdose of potassium chloride. During resuscitation, all animals received intravenous antibiotic treatment with piperacillin-tazobactam (2.25 g) every 8 h and deep venous thrombosis prophylaxis with a continuous infusion of non-fractionated heparin (10'000 IU/24h). In series 1 [29], resuscitation was targeted at MAP \geq 60 mmHg [in both septic (n=5) and control animals (n=6)], and in series 2 [30] (n=7) at 75-85 mmHg (sepsis/high MAP group).

Animal monitoring, biological data and resuscitation strategies

The following parameters were monitored continuously: hemodynamics, temperature and respiratory parameters (S/5 critical Care Monitor[®], Datex-Ohmeda, GE Healthcare, Helsinki, Finland), continuous thermodilution cardiac output (L/min) and mixed venous oxygen saturation (SvO₂, Vigilance[®], Edwards Lifescience LLC, Irvine, CA, USA). Data were recorded using a

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

data acquisition and signal analysis software (SoleasyTM, National Instruments Corp., Austin, TX, USA) and in an electronic patient data management system (Centricity; GE GE Healthcare, Helsinki, Finland).

Blood samples including arterial blood gas analysis were taken at the end of the stabilization period and immediately after the electrophysiological investigations. Sodium, potassium, glucose, lactate, pH, bicarbonate and base excess were measured. Arterial blood samples were analyzed in a blood gas analyzer (GEM Premier 3000 analyzer, Bedford, MA, USA), for PaO₂, PaCO₂ (adjusted to central body temperature), pH, lactate, bicarbonate, base excess, sodium and potassium.

Hemodynamic protocol

Additional fluid boluses and vasoactive drugs were administered according to a hemodynamic protocol already published [29,30]. Briefly, fluid boluses of 150 mL Ringer's lactate and 6% hydroxyethyl starch (130/0.4) were given, when pigs were hypovolemic and stroke volume increased by more than 10% after the preceding administration. The maximal infused dose of hydroxyethyl starch was limited to 30 mL/kg, afterwards only Ringer's lactate was administered. If mixed SvO₂ was lower than 50%, dobutamine administration was started (5 mg/h) and increased by 5 mg/h every 30 min until SvO₂ became \geq 50 % or the maximal dose of 20 mg/h was reached. If MAP was lower than the targeted resuscitation MAP, norepinephrine administration was started.

Recording of muscle multi-fiber velocity recovery cycles

MVRCs were recorded approximately 48 hours after induction of anesthesia (corresponding to 42 hours after induction of peritonitis in the animals with sepsis) using a recently described protocol [18, 21]. In brief, multi-fiber responses to direct muscle stimulation

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

were recorded on the foreleg from the extensor digitorum muscle. Stimulation currents were delivered through an insulated monopolar needle electrode (TECA, VIASYS Healthcare, Madison, Wisconsin, USA), used as a cathode, while a non-polarizable surface electrode (Red Dot, 3 M Health Care, Borken, Germany) served as anode. The monopolar stimulation needle was inserted perpendicularly into muscle about 15 mm distally to the anode. Stimulus waveforms (rectangular current pulses of 0.05 ms duration) generated by a computer were converted to current with an isolated linear bipolar-current stimulator (DS 5, Digitimer Ltd., Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire, UK). Muscle compound action potentials were recorded within the same muscle by means of a 30G EMG electrode (Medtronic, Skovlunde, Denmark) inserted approximately 20 mm proximal to the stimulating needle. A non-polarizable surface electrode served as a ground electrode and was taped on the shoulder of the animal.

The signal was amplified (gain 1000, bandwidth 1.6 Hz to 10 kHz) and digitized (National Instruments NI DAQCARD-6062E, National Instruments Europe Corp., Debrecen, Hungary) using a sampling rate of 20 kHz. Stimulation and recording were controlled by QTRAC software (written by Hugh Bostock, copyright Institute of Neurology, London, UK).

Multi-fiber MVRCs with single conditioning stimuli, two test stimuli 10 ms apart, and with test stimuli alone were recorded. The ISI between the conditioning stimulus and the test stimulus was varied from 1000 to 1.4 ms in 34 steps in an approximately geometric series.

Data analysis has been described in detail in previous papers [21, 23]. From each MVRC we assessed: (1) Relative refractory period, measured as the interpolated ISI at which the response latency first recovered to its unconditioned value, and (2) Early supernormality, measured as the peak percentage reduction in latency at ISIs shorter than 15ms, (3) Late supernormality, measured as the mean percentage reduction in latency at ISIs between 50 and 150 ms, and (4) Extra late supernormality, measured as the increase in late supernormality due to a second conditioning stimulus.

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using the QTRAC data analysis software (copyright Institute of Neurology, London, United Kingdom), which was also used to generate the figures. Hemodynamic data, laboratory results and MVCR parameters of the control, sepsis and sepsis/high MAP groups were compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test. To test for differences between the two treatment groups (sepsis and sepsis/high MAP) the Mann-Whitney U test was used. Correlations between MVRC measures and treatment and other measurements were tested by Spearman's rho.

Results

Characteristics of the three groups (controls, sepsis and sepsis/high MAP) are summarized in Table 1. 42 hours after induction of peritonitis (= 30 hours after initiating the different methods of resuscitation), the sepsis/high MAP group had achieved MAP values of 82 ± 4 mm Hg and the sepsis group MAP values of 71 ± 8 mm Hg (p = 0.03). Norepinephrine was administered to all animals in the sepsis/high MAP group and 2/5 animals in the sepsis group. Apart from difference in MAP and a small (0.4° C) difference in core temperature, none of the other non-electrophysiological measurements differed significantly between sepsis and sepsis/high MAP groups (Table 1).

Muscle velocity recovery cycles

Results of electrophysiological investigations are shown in Figure 1 and Table 2. After the 30 hours of resuscitation, MVRCs of animals of the sepsis/high MAP group were shifted to the right and upwards compared to MVRCs of animals of the sepsis group, indicating membrane depolarization and/or sodium channel inactivation. This shift corresponded to a significant

prolongation of the relative refractory period and a significant reduction in early supernormality compared to the sepsis group (Figure 2A, B; Table 2). The late supernormality and extra late supernormality were not significantly affected by the sepsis.

To investigate the cause of the differences in relative refractory period and early supernormality between the sepsis/high MAP and sepsis groups, these values were correlated separately with the measurements in Table 1, for the whole group of 12 animals with sepsis (Table 3). This shows that despite the significant differences in muscle membrane properties between the sepsis/high MAP and sepsis groups, there was no significant correlation between individual muscle excitability and MAP measurements. The muscle differences between groups cannot therefore be attributed to MAP itself. The strongest correlations between relative refractory period and peak early supernormality were observed with lactate levels and the total amount of norepinephrine injected (Table 3).

Discussion

After 30 hours of resuscitation, muscle excitability testing demonstrated a significant increase of refractoriness paralleled by a significant reduction in supernormality in the sepsis/high MAP compared to the sepsis group. These changes in muscle excitability measurements correlated positively with the cumulative dose of norepinephrine administered during resuscitation.

Muscle excitability testing provides an assessment of muscle fiber properties that does not depend on nerve function or neuromuscular transmission [19 - 21, 23, 31]. This method was previously used to study the early phase of septic myopathy in a porcine model of peritonitis with consecutive sepsis over a period of 27 hours [18]. Muscle membrane dysfunction was found to occur within 6 hours of experimental sepsis. Furthermore, similar muscle membrane

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

dysfunction was shown in patients with probable CIM in the chronic state [6], where it provided evidence that membrane depolarization and/or sodium channel inactivation occurs.

We have found similar changes of the two main parameters of muscle membrane excitability measurements (prolongation of refractory period, reduction of early supernormality) during experimental limb ischemia in healthy volunteers [21] and hypothesized that these findings are related to a dysfunction of the Na^+/K^+ pump with consecutive cell membrane depolarization. Impaired microcirculation has already been postulated to be a factor in the development of myopathy in the critical ill [1, 5]. Theoretically, one would expect that an increase of MAP would result in a better organ perfusion if blood flow autoregulation were impaired, or unaffected organ perfusion if autoregulation were sustained. Vasopressors have been shown to variably affect systemic, regional and organ perfusion [26 - 28]. For example, in patients with septic shock, sublingual microcirculatory alterations did not improve in response to an increase of MAP with norepinephrine [32]. Furthermore, linear trend analysis demonstrated reductions in the capillary and in the perfused capillary densities [32]. We found a positive correlation between the cumulative dose of norepinephrine – but not of achieved blood pressure and muscle membrane alterations, possibly related to a norepinephrine-induced reduction of microcirculation leading to ischemia in the muscle. The strong correlation between muscle membrane changes and lactate, but not pH, support the idea that the membrane changes were related to ischemia, with a resultant switch to anaerobic glycolysis. This hypothesis is also supported by the findings of a recent clinical observational study, which demonstrated that the required amount of catecholamine was a risk factor for the development of impaired direct muscle stimulation [33]. In contrast to our finding of norepinephrine related muscle membrane depolarization, earlier studies have shown in isolated muscles that catecholamines stimulate the Na+/K+ pump and cause cell membrane hyperpolarization [34 - 36]. This difference might be explained by the hypothesis, that in vivo the norepinephrine induced hypoperfusion of the

muscle capillaries with consecutive energy depletion and dysfunction of the muscle Na+/K+ pump overweighs the direct hyperpolarizing effect of norepinephrine on the muscle cell membrane. However, we cannot exclude that muscle membrane depolarization is caused also by other factors e.g. sepsis related inflammatory mediators [1, 3, 5]. Since only the sepsis/high MAP group showed muscle membrane depolarization (and not the sepsis group), we assume that these are of less importance for changes of muscle membrane potential. Furthermore, the strong correlation of muscle membrane excitability parameters with lactate supports the hypothesis that the membrane changes were related to norepinephrine-induced ischemia.

Our study has some limitations. First, it was not possible to blind the investigators to the treatment regime during the resuscitation phase. Since we used well-defined treatment protocols, we think that this did not cause a bias. Second, we cannot provide microcirculation parameters. However, the numerically lower systemic perfusion in the sepsis/high MAP compared to sepsis group (<80%) together with the massively higher doses of norepinephrine used supports the concept of diminished microcirculation in the former group. The present study was conducted in young pigs - the findings might have been different in adult animals or in patients. Nevertheless, while critical illness polyneuropathy/myopathy is much less frequently described in pediatric compared to adult patients [37], typical findings of the disease have been reported repeatedly in animals younger than our pigs [38 - 40]. Finally, our study findings can only be related to septic myopathy but not to CIM, since the period of observation was too short. We could also neither detect MAP-target-dependent skeletal muscle ATP contents, nor mitochondrial respiration abnormalities [30].

Conclusion

These results suggest that administration of norepinephrine to elevate MAP during resuscitation may contribute to sepsis-induced abnormalities in muscle. This may be due to a

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

norepinephrine-induced reduction of microcirculation, increasing the risk of ischemic muscle

damage. Confirmation in humans is needed.

Acc

List of Abbreviations
CIM: critical illness myopathy
ESN: early supernormality
ICU: intensive care unit
ISI: inter-stimulus interval
MAP: mean arterial pressure
PaCO₂: CO₂ partial pressure
PaO₂: O₂ partial pressure
SvO₂: mixed venous oxygen saturation
MVRC: muscle velocity recovery cycle

Accepted

References

- Friedrich O, Reid MB, Van den Berghe G, Vanhorebeek I, Hermans G, Rich MM, Larsson L: The Sick and the Weak: Neuropathies/Myopathies in the Critically III. Physiol Rev 2015, 95: 1025-1109.
- Howard RS, Tan SV, Z'Graggen WJ: Weakness on the intensive care unit. Pract Neurol 2008, 5: 280-295.
- 3. Latroncio N, Bolton CF: Critical illness polyneuropathy and myopathy: a major cause of muscle weakness and paralysis. Lancet Neurol 2011, 10: 931-941.
- Kress JP1, Hall JB: ICU-acquired weakness and recovery from critical illness. N Engl J Med 2014, 370: 1626-1635.
- 5. Callahan LA, Supinski GS: Sepsis-induced myopathy. Crit Care Med 2009, 37: S354-367
- Z'Graggen WJ, Brander L, Tuchscherer D, Scheidegger O, Takala J, Bostock H: Muscle membrane dysfunction in critical illness myopathy assessed by velocity recovery cycles. Clin Neurophysiol 2011, 122: 834-841.
- 7. Rich MM, Pinter MJ: Crucial role of sodium channel fast inactivation in muscle fibre inexcitability in a rat model of critical illness myopathy. J Physiol 2003, 547: 555-566.
- Rossignol B, Gueret G, Pennec JP, Morel J, Giroux-Metges MA, Talarmin H, Arvieux CC:
 Effects of chronic sepsis on the voltage-gated sodium channel in isolated rat muscle fibers.
 Crit Care Med 2007, 35: 351-357.
- 9. Wagenmakers AJ: Muscle function in critically ill patients. Clin Nutr 2001, 20: 451–454.
- McNicol FJ, Hoyland JA, Cooper RG, Carlson GL: Skeletal muscle contractile properties and proinflammatory cytokine gene expression in human endotoxaemia. Br J Surg 2010, 97: 434–442.

- Minnaard R, Drost MR, Wagenmakers AJ, Van Kranenburg GP, Kuipers H, Hesselink MKC: Skeletal muscle wasting and contractile performance in septic rats. Muscle Nerve 2005, 1: 339–348.
- 12. Friedrich O, Hund E, Weber C, Hacke W, Fink RH: Critical illness myopathy serum fractions affect membrane excitability and intracellular calcium release in mammalian skeletal muscle. J Neurol 2004, 251: 53–65.
- 13. Reid MB, Li YP: Cytokines and oxidative signalling in skeletal muscle. Acta Physiol Scand 2001, 171: 225–232.
- 14. Cunningham Jr JN, Carter NW, Rector Jr FC, Seldin DW: Resting transmembrane potential difference of skeletal muscle in normal subjects and severely ill patients. J Clin Invest 1971, 50: 49-59.
- 15. Illner HP, Shires GT: Membrane defect and energy status of rabbit skeletal muscle cells in sepsis and septic shock. Arch Surg 1981, 116: 1302–1305.
- Gibson WH, Cook JJ, Gatipon G, Moses ME: Effect of endotoxin shock on skeletal muscle cell membrane potential. Surgery 1977, 81: 571–577.
- 17. Karlstad MD, Sayeed MM: Effect of endotoxic shock on skeletal muscle intracellular electrolytes and amino acid transport. Am J Physiol 1987, 252: R674–680.
- Ackermann KA, Bostock H, Brander L, Schröder R, Djafarzadeh S, Tuchscherer D, Jakob SM, Takala J, Z'Graggen WJ: Early changes of muscle membrane properties in porcine faecal peritonitis. Crit Care 2014, 18: 484.
- 19. Troni W, Cantello R, Rainero I: Conduction velocity along human muscle fibers in situ. Neurology 1983, 33: 1453–1459.
- 20. Mihelin M, Trontelj JV, Stalberg E: Muscle fiber recovery functions studied with double pulse stimulation. Muscle Nerve 1991, 14: 1103–1109.

- 21. Z'Graggen WJ, Bostock H: Velocity recovery cycles of human muscle action potentials and their sensitivity to ischemia. Muscle Nerve 2009, 39: 616–626.
- 22. Z'Graggen WJ, Troller R, Ackermann KA, Humm AM, Bostock H: Velocity recovery cycles of human muscle action potentials. Repeatability and variability. Clin Neurophysiol 2011, 122: 2294–2299.
- 23. Bostock H, Tan SV, Boërio D, Z'Graggen WJ: Validity of Multi-Fiber muscle velocity recovery cycles recorded at a single site using submaximal stimuli. Clin Neurophysiol 2012, 123: 2296–2305.
- 24. Takala J. Should we target blood pressure in sepsis? Crit Care Med 2010; 38: S613-619.
- 25. Dellinger RP, Levy MM, Carlet JM, Bion J, Parker MM, Jaeschke R, Reinhart K, Angus DC, Brun-Buisson C, Beale R, Calandra T, Dhainaut JF, Gerlach H, Harvey M, Marini JJ,
 - Marshall J, Ranieri M, Ramsay G, Sevransky J, Thompson BT, Townsend S, Vender JS, Zimmerman JL, Vincent JL: Surviving Sepsis Campaign: international guidelines for management of severe sepsis and septic shock: 2008. Crit Care Med 2008, 36: 296-327.
- 26. Di Giantomasso D, May CN, Bellomo R: Norepinephrine and vital organ blood flow during experimental hyperdynamic sepsis. Intensive Care Med 2003, 29: 1774-1781.
- 27. Di Giantomasso D, Bellomo R, May CN: The haemodynamic and metabolic effects of
 epinephrine in experimental hyperdynamic septic shock. Intensive Care Med 2005, 31: 454-462.
- 28. Boerma EC, Ince C: The role of vasoactive agents in the resuscitation of microvascular
 perfusion and tissue oxygenation in critically ill patients. Intensive Care Med 2010, 36: 2004-2018.
- 29. Corrêa TD, Vuda M, Blaser AR, Takala J, Djafarzadeh S, Dünser MW, Silva E, Lensch M,
 Wilkens L, Jakob SM: Effect of treatment delay on disease severity and need for
 resuscitation in porcine fecal peritonitis. Crit Care Med 2012, 40: 2841-2849.

- 30. Corrêa TD, Vuda M, Takala J, Djafarzadeh S, Silva E, Jakob SM: Increasing mean arterial blood pressure in sepsis: effects on fluid balance, vasopressor load and renal function. Crit Care 2013, 30: R21.
- 31. Allen DC, Arunachalam R, Mills KR: Critical illness myopathy: further evidence from muscle-fiber excitability studies of an acquired channelopathy. Muscle Nerve 2008, 37: 14-22.
- 32. Dubin A, Pozo MO, Casabella CA, Pálizas Jr F, Murias G, Moseinco MC, Kanoore Edul VS, Pálizas F, Estenssoro E, Ince C: Increasing arterial blood pressure with norepinephrine does not improve microcirculatory blood flow: a prospective study. Crit Care 2009; 13: R92.
- 33. Weber-Carstens S, Deja M, Koch S, Spranger J, Bubser F, Wernecke KD, Spies CD, Spuler S, Keh D: Risk factors in critical illness myopathy during the early course of critical illness: a prospective observational study. Crit Care, 2010, 14: R119.
- 34. Clausen T, Flatman JA: The effect of catecholamines on Na-K transport and membrane potential in rat soleus muscle. J Physiol 1977, 270: 383-414.
- 35. Clausen T, Flatman JA: Beta 2-adrenoceptors mediate the stimulating effect of adrenaline on active electrogenic Na-K-transport in rat soleus muscle. Br J Pharmacol 1980, 68: 749-755.
- 36. Hansen AK, Clausen T, Nielsen OB: Effects of lactic acid and catecholamines on
 contractility in fast-twitch muscles exposed to hyperkalemia. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol
 2005, 289: C104-112.
- 37. Williams S1, Horrocks IA, Ouvrier RA, Gillis J, Ryan MM: Critical illness polyneuropathy and myopathy in pediatric intensive care: A review. Pediatr Crit Care Med 2007; 8: 18-22.
- 38. Aare S, Ochala J, Norman HS, Radell P, Eriksson LI, Goransson H, Chen YW, Hoffman EP, Larsson L: Mechanisms underlying the sparing of masticatory versus limb muscle function in an experimental critical illness model. Physiol Genomics 2011; 43: 1334-1350.

39. Ochala J1, Renaud G, Llano Diez M, Banduseela VC, Aare S, Ahlbeck K, Radell PJ, Eriksson LI, Larsson L: Diaphragm muscle weakness in an experimental porcine intensive care unit model. PLoS One 2011; 6: e20558.

40. Aare S1, Radell P, Eriksson LI, Chen YW, Hoffman EP, Larsson L: Role of sepsis in the development of limb muscle weakness in a porcine intensive care unit model. Physiol Genomics 2012; 44: 865-77.

Acce

Figure Legends

Acce

Fig. 1. Recordings of muscle velocity recovery cycles in pig extensor digitorum. Mean MVRCs for the 7 animals of the sepsis/high MAP group (filled black circles) and the 5 animals of the sepsis group (open black circles) compared with 6 non-septic control animals (open grey circles). *Upper traces*: percentage changes in latency following single conditioning stimulus. *Lower traces*: extra latency changes caused by a second conditioning stimulus, 10 ms earlier.

Fig. 2. Differences between experimental groups 48 hours after induction of anesthesia A: muscle relative refractory period, B: peak early supernormality. Box and whiskers show median, inter-quartile range and range; asterisks indicate significant differences by Mann-Whitney U-test, * = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01

Variables / Study groups	Control (n=6)	Sepsis (n=5)	Sepsis/high MAP (n=7)	Kruskal-Wallis Test (P value)	Sepsis/high MAP v. Sepsis (P value)
Core temperature (°C)	39.7 ± 0.7	40.7 ± 0.3	40.3 ± 0.3	0.041	0.048
Hemodynamics					
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg)	77.8 ± 19.2	71.0 ± 7.8	81.9 ± 4.3	0.066	0.030
Heart rate (bpm)	85.7 ± 11.0	137.4 ± 26.0	164.6 ± 36.0	0.003	0.34
Cardiac output (l/min)	5.1 ± 0.9	7.3 ± 1.9	5.8 ± 2.7	0.51	0.20
Stroke volume (mL)	58.0 ± 14.1	55.9 ± 11.4	36.4 ± 15.6	0.22	0.11
Laboratory					
Sodium (mmol/l)	139.2 ± 2.9	136.0 ± 2.9	133.3 ± 2.4	0.017	0.20
Potassium (mmol/l)	3.8 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.5	4.9 ± 1.3	0.056	0.20
Arterial lactate (mmol/l)	0.40 ± 0.11	0.86 ± 0.19	1.29 ± 0.57	0.004	0.11
рН	7.51 ± 0.03	7.44 ± 0.05	7.48 ± 0.09	0.019	0.34
Bicarbonate (mmol/l)	30.8 ± 2.5	29.4 ± 1.5	29.2 ± 4.3	0.40	0.76
Base excess (mmol/l)	7.0 ± 2.9	5.8 ± 1.6	5.7 ± 5.0	0.41	0.76
Mean fluid balance (mL/kg/h) ⁺	1.5 ± 0.9	2.8 ± 0.9	3.3 ± 1.3	0.025	0.53
Norepinephrine (mcg)	0 ± 0	984 ± 1968	35,483 ± 36,927	0.005	0.0051

Table 1: Measurements from the sepsis and sepsis/high MAP pigs, at 42 hours after induction of peritonitis, compared with control animals after same period of anesthesia

Values are given as mean \pm SD. ⁺Mean fluid balance = (Ringer's lactate basal infusion + glucose 50% basal infusion + Ringer's lactate bolus + hydroxyethyl starch bolus) – (urine output + gastric tube output). Last column gives *P* values comparing sepsis and sepsis/high MAP groups (Mann-Whitney U test). MAP = mean arterial pressure.

Acce

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Variables / Study groups	Control (n=6)	Sepsis (n=5)	Sepsis/high MAP (n=7)	Kruskal-Wallis Test (P value)	Sepsis/high MAP v. Sepsis (P value)
Relative refractory period (ms)	1.94 ± 0.38	2.35 ± 0.27	5.54 ± 2.28	0.005	0.0025
Peak early supernormality (%)	9.9 ± 2.5	6.5 ± 2.2	3.1 ± 2.1	0.006	0.030
Late supernormality (%)	1.6 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 1.1	1.3 ± 0.8	0.73	0.76
Extra late supernormality (%)	2.0 ± 0.8	1.5 ± 1.1	1.7 ± 1.0	0.46	0.79

Table 2: Muscle excitability measurements from the sepsis and sepsis/high MAP pigs, at 42 hours after induction of peritonitis, compared with control animals after same period of anesthesia

Values are given as mean \pm SD. Last column gives *P* values comparing sepsis and sepsis/high MAP groups (Mann-Whitney U test). MAP = mean arterial pressure.

Acce

Table 3: Correlations between muscle velocity recovery cycle parameters and other measurements for the pooled septic animals (n=12)

For each m correlation

Parameters	Relative perio	refractory d (ms)	Peak early supernormality (%)	
	Rho	Р	Rho	Р
Core temperature (°C)	-0.559	0.057	0.371	0.23
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg)	0.371	0.23	-0.150	0.64
Sodium (mmol/l)	-0.547	0.063	0.579	0.047
Potassium (mmol/l)	0.605	0.036	-0.451	0.14
Lactate (mmol/l)	0.762	0.0040	-0.790	0.0023
рН	-0.124	0.70	0.253	0.43
Bicarbonate (mmol/l)	-0.357	0.25	0.462	0.13
Base excess (mmol/l)	-0.327	0.30	0.414	0.18
Mean fluid balance (mL/kg/h)	0.524	0.078	-0.720	0.0081
Norepinephrine (mcg)	0.888	0.00014	-0.671	0.016

For each muscle velocity recovery cycle measurement, first column is Spearman's rank correlation coefficient Rho, and second column is *P* value for Rho.

Accept



Figure 1: Recordings of muscle velocity recovery cycles in pig extensor digitorum. Mean MVRCs for the 7 animals of the sepsis/high MAP group (filled black circles) and the 5 animals of the sepsis group (open black circles) compared with 6 non-septic control animals (open grey circles). Upper traces: percentage changes in latency following single conditioning stimulus. Lower traces: extra latency changes caused by a second conditioning stimulus, 10 ms earlier.

254x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 2: Differences between experimental groups 48 hours after induction of anesthesia A: muscle relative refractory period, B: peak early supernormality. Box and whiskers show median, inter-quartile range and range; asterisks indicate significant differences by Mann-Whitney U-test, * = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01

254x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Accel

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.