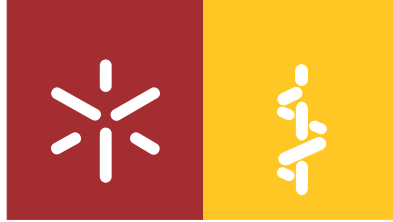




Universidade do Minho
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CO₂-insufflation in neonatal rats:
implications for minimally invasive
neonatal surgery**



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Tese de Doutoramento em Ciências da Saúde

Trabalho efetuado sob a orientação do
Professor Doutor Jorge Correia-Pinto
e do
Professor Doutor José Miguel Pêgo

Statement of integrity

I hereby declare having conducted my thesis with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of falsification of results in the process of the thesis elaboration.

I further declare that I have fully acknowledged the Code of Ethical Conduct of the University of Minho.

University of Minho, December 22nd of 2017.

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“The important thing in science is not so much to obtain new facts as to discover new ways of thinking about them”

Sir William Lawrence Brag



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Studies on thoracic and peritoneal CO₂-insufflation in neonatal rats: implications for minimally invasive neonatal surgery

Abstract

Minimally invasive surgery (MIS) has been increasingly used and the continuous development of technology and instruments allowed the application of this surgical approach, not only in adults, but also in paediatric and neonatal patients to correct several birth defects. Since the beginning of its application in adult patients, several studies on the hemodynamic, metabolic and inflammatory changes during MIS are being extensively performed, with a special focus on the effects of CO₂-insufflation. More recently, concerns about the impact of the CO₂-insufflation over the developing organs and organ systems of neonates have been published, with brain oxygenation and perfusion the most investigated events. In this thesis, we aimed to unravel some of these issues and contribute to the understanding of the impact of the thoracic and peritoneal CO₂-insufflation in this sensitive phase of life, that is the neonatal period.

Surgery leads to specific endocrine, immunologic and metabolic changes but, during MIS, the isolated impact of CO₂-insufflation on these parameters is limited. Studies on animal models arose as a methodical way to evaluate the impact of CO₂-insufflation, by avoiding confounding factors associated with human studies. Nevertheless, most studies are performed in adult animals, with only a few studying these impacts on neonatal models. Additionally, many studies are performed without ventilatory support which is the key player for the maintenance of normal blood gas partial pressures and pH during CO₂-insufflation. In this work we developed an intubation technique that could be applied in neonatal rats, allowing respiratory support during CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and -pneumothorax. The adjustments in ventilatory parameters allowed the development of a neonatal animal model

of CO₂-pneumothorax and CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, which was then used to evaluate acute and long-term impact of CO₂-insufflation over neonatal organ systems.

In our anesthetized, endotracheal intubated, mechanically ventilated neonatal rat model, the impact of the CO₂-insufflation over the immune system was evaluated at different levels. The impact of CO₂-insufflation over immune cell populations was evaluated immediately after CO₂-pneumothorax and 4 weeks after exposure, and no major alterations were detected when compared to control animals, suggesting that CO₂-insufflation do not exert a significant impact on cellular immune system balance. But when evaluating peripheral (serum) and central (cerebrospinal fluid [CSF]) cytokine response, our findings support that the old paradigm of an immunologically privileged CNS may not be sustained perioperatively during MIS surgery, since increased anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 levels in CSF were found in animals submitted either to CO₂-pneumothorax or CO₂-pneumoperitoneum. The impact of this finding in the developing brain is still unclear, and further study is needed.

It is known that a single developmental insult in the neonatal period can initiate a cascade of structural alterations, manifested much later in life or under specific pathological/stress conditions. Since little is known about the functional consequences of the associated hemodynamic, respiratory and inflammatory consequences of CO₂-insufflation event over brain development, neurodevelopmental milestones acquisition and long-term behavioral outcomes were evaluated in our neonatal animal models of CO₂-pneumothorax and CO₂-pneumoperitoneum. Different insufflation pressures and times were evaluated during CO₂-pneumoperitoneum. This work supports that this early-life event does not seem to induce any negative impact on neurodevelopment or induce behavioral alterations in adulthood.

The findings presented in this thesis provide new insights of the central inflammatory response after MIS and suggests possible implications in other brain related perioperative phenomena. The finding presented in thesis contribute to clarify, step-by-step, some of the ambiguities about the impact of CO₂-insufflation over the immature brain of neonates.

Insuflação torácica e abdominal com CO₂ em ratos recém-nascidos: implicações na cirurgia minimamente invasiva

Resumo

A Cirurgia Minimamente Invasiva (MIS) é cada vez mais utilizada em todo o mundo e o contínuo desenvolvimento da tecnologia e instrumentos cirúrgicos têm permitido a sua aplicação, não só em adultos, mas também em crianças e recém-nascidos para corrigir os mais diversos defeitos congênitos. Desde o início da sua aplicação, vários estudos sobre as alterações hemodinâmicas, metabólicas e inflamatórias têm sido publicados, com especial ênfase sobre os efeitos da insuflação com dióxido de carbono (CO₂) nas cavidades corporais. Recentes publicações sobre o impacto da insuflação com CO₂ nos órgãos em desenvolvimento dos recém-nascidos têm sido publicados, em que os fenômenos de oxigenação e perfusão do cérebro têm sido foco de especial atenção. Nesta tese, temos como objetivo esclarecer algumas dessas questões e contribuir para a melhor compreensão sobre o impacto da insuflação torácica e peritoneal com CO₂ nesta fase de especial vulnerabilidade que é o período neonatal.

A cirurgia induz mudanças específicas a nível endócrino, imunológico e metabólico, mas estudos sobre o impacto isolado da insuflação de CO₂ nestes parâmetros são limitados. Os estudos em modelos animais são muito frequentemente usados para avaliar o impacto da insuflação com CO₂ durante procedimentos minimamente invasivos, contudo, a maioria dos estudos são realizados em animais adultos, com apenas alguns deles recorrendo a animais recém-nascidos. Adicionalmente, os estudos com animais recém-nascidos são realizados sem ventilação mecânica, fator essencial para a eliminação do CO₂ absorvido durante a insuflação, e consequente manutenção de valores fisiológicos de pressão parcial de gases e do pH. Nesta tese otimizámos uma técnica de entubação endotraqueal que pudesse ser

aplicada num modelo roedor neonatal e que permitisse a posterior ventilação mecânica durante a insuflação torácica e abdominal com CO₂. Ajustes nos parâmetros ventilatórios permitiram o desenvolvimento de um modelo animal neonatal de CO₂-pneumotórax e CO₂-pneumoperitoneu.

No nosso modelo neonatal ventilado mecanicamente e exposto a insuflação com CO₂, o impacto da insuflação com CO₂ foi avaliado a diferentes níveis. O impacto da insuflação com CO₂ sobre as principais células do sistema imunitário foi avaliado imediatamente após a insuflação torácica com CO₂ e 4 semanas após esta exposição e não foram encontradas alterações significativas quando comparadas com animais controlo. Estes dados sugerem que a insuflação com CO₂ não constitui um fator perturbador no equilíbrio do sistema imunitário. Mas quando foram avaliados os níveis de citocinas periférica (séricas) e central (líquido cefalorraquidiano), os nossos achados sustentam que o antigo paradigma de um sistema nervoso central (SNC) imunologicamente privilegiado pode não ser mantido no período peri-operatório durante a cirurgia minimamente invasiva. Níveis elevados da citocina anti-inflamatória IL-10 foram detetados no líquido cefalorraquidiano de animais submetidos a insuflação torácica e abdominal com CO₂. O impacto deste achado no cérebro em desenvolvimento é, contudo, desconhecido e novos estudos são necessários.

Um único insulto no período de desenvolvimento neonatal pode iniciar uma cascata de alterações estruturais, manifestadas muito mais tarde na vida ou sob condições patológicas ou de stress. As consequências funcionais dos efeitos mecânicos e químicos da insuflação com CO₂ sobre o desenvolvimento cerebral é desconhecido, e por esse motivo este trabalho teve como objetivo avaliar as possíveis alterações no neurodesenvolvimento assim como avaliar o impacto a longo prazo no nosso modelo animal neonatal. Diferentes pressões e tempos de insuflação foram avaliados. Este evento neonatal não parece resultar em qualquer impacto negativo no desenvolvimento neurológico ou induzir alterações comportamentais na idade adulta. O trabalho aqui apresentado destaca a ausência de consequências funcionais a nível comportamental, mas abre novas portas para futura investigação noutros fenómenos peri-operatórios.

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Abbreviations

| | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| BSA | Body surface area | MAP | Mean arterial blood pressure |
| CDH | Congenital diaphragmatic hernia | MAS | Minimal access surgery |
| Cdyn | Dynamic compliance | MIPS | Minimally Invasive Pediatric Surgery |
| CI | Cardiac index | MIS | Minimally Invasive Surgery |
| CNS | Central nervous system | MV | Minute volume |
| CO₂ | Carbon dioxide | MW | Molecular weight |
| CPP | Cerebral perfusion pressure | PaCO₂ | Partial pressure of arterial CO ₂ |
| EA | Esophageal atresia | PIP | Peak airway pressure |
| EtCO₂ | End-tidal CO ₂ | PMN | Polymorphonuclear cells |
| FiO₂ | Fraction of inspired oxygen | rScO₂ | Regional cerebral oxygen saturation |
| HCA | Hypercapnic acidosis | SaO₂ | Arterial oxygen saturation |
| HR | Heart rate | SpO₂ | Peripheral oxygen saturation |
| IAP | Intra-abdominal pressure | SPP | Spinal perfusion pressure |
| ICP | Intracranial pressure | TEF | Tracheoesophageal fistula |
| IFN | Interferon | TNF | Tumor necrosis factor |
| IL | Interleukin | V_ECO₂ | Volume of exhaled CO ₂ |
| ISP | Intraspinal pressure | V_{gas} | Gas volume |
| LPS | Lipopolysaccharide | VO₂ | Oxygen consumption |
| MAC | Metabolic acidosis | V_T | Tidal volume |

CHAPTER 1.

Minimally Invasive Pediatric Surgery

1.1. Brief history of Minimally Invasive Surgery in Pediatrics (MIPS)

Until the mid-19th century, the best surgeon was the fastest one, who thereby caused less pain to his restrained and non-anesthetized patient. However, with the first general inhalational anesthesia in the Massachusetts General Hospital (1846), the field of surgery truly expanded, and increasingly sophisticated techniques were developed. At that time, larger incisions were absolutely necessary for an adequate surgical exposure, however these large operative wounds were responsible for significant peri-operative stress and postoperative pain and morbidity. The idea of performing invasive surgeries without large incisions was timeless appealing (Georgeson *et al.*, 2000). This appeal was responded with progressively less aggressive surgical techniques and has culminated in the modern surgical procedures ranging from small incisions to endoscopic procedures using natural orifices as ports (NOTES) as our group has explored in research environment.

The German, Dr. Philipp Bozzini (1773 – 1809) is considered the father of modern endoscopy being the first to hypothesize that adequate organ exposure could be performed without skin incision, being the pioneer in Minimal Access Surgery (MAS) (Figure 1). Dr. Bozzini developed an apparatus called *Lichtleiter*, which used a wax candle as light source and an urethral cannula to direct light into the internal organs through external orifices (1804) (Bush *et al.*, 1974). Almost 50 years later, the word endoscopy was invented by the French physician Desormeaux (1853), who described an endoscope for cystoscopy using a *gazogene* lamp (fueled by alcohol and turpentine) as external light source, which occasionally resulted in burns to the face of the physician and to the legs of patients (Harrell *et al.*, 2005; Bax, 2008). Internal visualization remained poor and only with the invention of the incandescent lamp by Thomas Edison in 1879, a cystoscope with a built-in light bulb was constructed by the German Maximilian Nitze and the Austrian Josef Leiter (1887). The first

examination of the abdomen using a Nitze cystoscope was performed in a dog in 1901 by the German surgeon George Kelling (Ellis, 2007) who termed this procedure *celioscopy*. Despite those significant hallmarks, the introduction of adequate light into the body and the acquisition of clear and undistorted picture was still far from ideal. It was the British physicist, Hopkins, who invented the now classic rod-shaped lenses, a system that has revolutionized image transmission and dramatically improved the resolution and contrast of endoscope image. A system still much in use today (Hopkins *et al.*, 1953). Until the mid-1970s the surgeon had to look with one eye through the telescope, thus close to the patient, which was unappropriate from the point of view of sterility and surgeon ergonomics (Bax, 2004). When video cameras allowed real-time video transmission onto a TV screen, huge advantages to endoscopic surgery arose: binocular view from a convenient distance; a significantly enlarged image; easy observation of minute changes; observation of the procedure by the entire team; and the ability to obtain permanent records (Berci *et al.*, 1986).

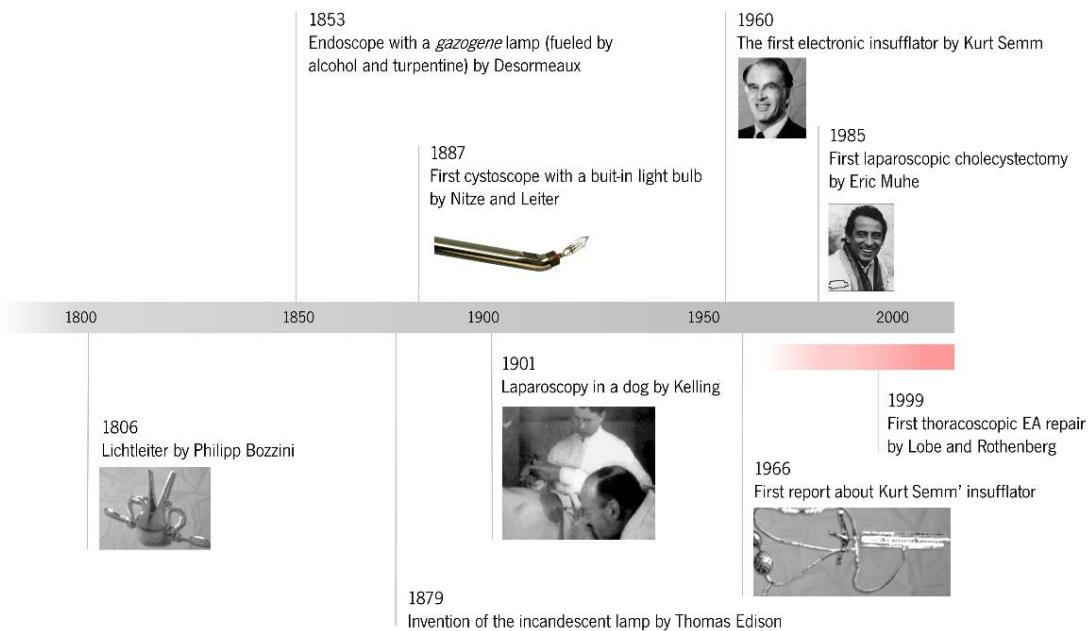


FIGURE 1 MILESTONES IN THE HISTORY OF MIS (GRAY) AND BEGINNING OF MIPS (PINK)

The jump from diagnostic MAS to general surgery began when Eric Muhe, in Germany, performed the first laparoscopic cholecystectomy in 1985 (Mühe, 1992). In 1987, Philippe Mouret and F. Dubois helped popularize the laparoscopic cholecystectomy, and this technique soon became a standard surgical procedure (Georgeson *et al.*, 2000). Since that time, MAS has been applied to numerous other procedures with good results in adult patients, propelling the evolution of MIS.

MIS has been widely performed in adult patients for more than 30 years, however, its use in pediatric and neonatal patients was slowly introduced in the daily practice (Table 1). In 1973, Stephan Gans and George Berci were the pioneers in pediatric laparoscopy but mainly for diagnostic purposes (Gans *et al.*, 1973). A long lag period in MIPS had occurred since its first breakthrough by Drs Gans and Berci, and many epistemological factors have contributed to this delay: (i) many surgeons believed that laparoscopic cases did not really apply to children - the need for cholecystectomy was relatively uncommon in children; (ii) the efficacy of laparoscopy in children was not proven and potential risks and benefits for both patient care and total hospital cost *per* procedure were uncertain; (iii) there was a widely held belief that young children did not experience postoperative pain and surgical stress - as they cannot adequately articulate distress (Schechter, 1989); and (iv) the advantages of smaller incisions were underestimated by pediatric surgeons, already prided on the ability to work with small incisions (Georgeson *et al.*, 2000). In addition to these factors, two technical aspects have also contributed to this delayed development in the pediatric endoscopic surgery: (i) the lack of specialized equipment suitable for pediatric patients, and (ii) the limited number of skilled surgeons performing these procedures. Pediatric surgery is a specialty dedicated to rare conditions and, due to this fact, pediatric endoscopic surgeons were often dependent on the developments of devices used in adult surgery (van der Zee, 2017). The medical industry started running MIS training courses for general surgeons, but very few were prepared towards pediatric surgeons. Thom Lobe, and then Raleigh Thompson were the first to organize pediatric surgery training courses however, surgical training was performed in large animals and with large instruments. Nevertheless, these courses gave

visibility to MIPS, and the industry began to understand its needs. The first set of miniaturized laparoscopic instruments had not been designed for pediatric surgery, but soon they were tested and refined by pediatric surgeons and engineers. In the last decade, companies were encouraged to produce 3 mm instruments, helping the pediatric endoscopic surgical field to evolve (Rothenberg, 2015). Another hallmark in MIPS occurred in 1999 when Drs. Lobe and Rothenberg performed the first thoracoscopic esophageal atresia (EA) repair during a live surgery demonstration at the International Pediatric Endoscopy Group (IPEG) meeting in Berlin (Lobe *et al.*, 1999). Since then, similar achievements were reported by the medical community in peer reviewed literature, documenting its safety and efficacy. In 2001 the first European report of a laparoscopic repair of duodenal atresia was published (Bax *et al.*, 2001), and shortly after, the first case series was released (Steven Rothenberg, 2002). Few years after, the first multi-institutional study of tracheoesophageal fistula (TEF) repair was published by Holcomb (Holcomb *et al.*, 2005). All these publications gave credibility to neonatal and pediatric MIS, and convinced resistant or sceptical surgeons of its advantages (Figure 2). The documentation on the safety of endoscopic procedures and the reports of successful interventions using sophisticated new techniques also propelled pediatric surgeons to develop new and bold thoracoscopic and laparoscopic surgical approaches (Lacher *et al.*, 2014).

TABLE 1 MAIN ACHIEVEMENTS IN HISTORY OF LAPAROSCOPIC AND THORACOSCOPIC SURGERY

| SURGICAL PROCEDURE | FIRST DESCRIBED IN PEDIATRIC PATIENTS |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Pyloromyotomy | (Alain <i>et al.</i> , 1991) |
| Fundoplication | (Dallemagne <i>et al.</i> , 1991) |
| Thoracoscopic repair of EA | (Lobe <i>et al.</i> , 1999) |
| Duodenoduodenostomy | (Bax <i>et al.</i> , 2001) |
| Thoracoscopic repair of EA with TEF | (Steven S Rothenberg, 2002) |

The evolution of MIPS is undoubtedly supported by its benefits to the pediatric patient. Besides better cosmetic outcomes and less wound-related complications (Nwokoma *et al.*, 2009), several studies reported other relevant advantages of MIPS over open surgical

approaches, namely less time to return to full feedings, lower incidence of postoperative emesis, shorter hospital stays (T Fujimoto *et al.*, 1999; Takao Fujimoto *et al.*, 1999; Peter *et al.*, 2006; Adams *et al.*, 2016; Chiarenza *et al.*, 2017), less postoperative requirement for narcotic analgesia (Peter *et al.*, 2006; Gourlay *et al.*, 2009; Bishay *et al.*, 2013a) and shorter duration of additional postoperative ventilation (Gourlay *et al.*, 2009). The possibility of bringing such benefits to all pediatric patients is indeed appealing to any pediatric surgeon.

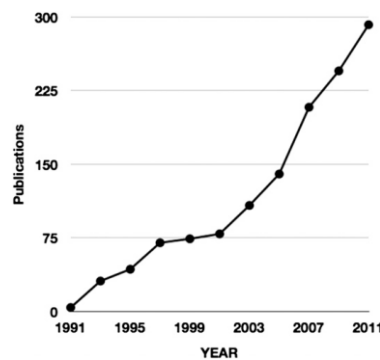


FIGURE 2 NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS IN PUBMED CONTAINING THE TITLE WORD "LAPAROSCOPIC" AND THE KEYWORD "PEDIATRIC" BY YEAR OF PUBLICATION (Blinman *et al.*, 2012).

1.2. Evolution of pneumoperitoneum and pneumothorax in MIS

The first reference to pneumoperitoneum occurred before the 20th century when a German surgeon, George Kelling, realized that hemostasis could be achieved by increasing the intra-abdominal pressure. Kelling hypothesized that pneumoperitoneum might had a therapeutic use, and hoped that it could arrest the gastrointestinal and intraabdominal bleeding in conditions such as ectopic pregnancy, bleeding ulcers and hemorrhagic pancreatitis (Bax, 2008). He introduced the concept of *lufttamponade*, which consisted in introducing high-pressure air insufflation into the abdominal cavity to stop bleeding. Kelling performed his experiments in anesthetized dogs and fortunately observed that "*After an examination, a dog is as cheerful as it was before*". During his experiments Kelling was driven to evaluate the intra-abdominal effects of *lufttamponade*, namely in organ ischemia, and thus *celioscopy* (*Koelioskopie*) was born. It was in 1901 that Kelling described for the first time that intra-

abdominal organs could be observed by a cystoscope introduced in the abdomen through a trocar, after the induction of pneumoperitoneum by injecting air through a sterile cotton filter. Despite his reports on successful animal experiments, he was unable to encourage patients to be submitted to this technique (Harrell *et al.*, 2005).

In late 1910 and early 1911, Hans Jacobaeus, a Swedish internist, used the term "*laparothorakoskopie*" for the first time, and described the filtered air pneumoperitoneum as the first step for performing laparoscopy and thoracoscopy for diagnostic purposes in humans. Jacobaeus made clinical use of this technique in 17 cases of ascites (by drawing off the fluid through the trocar and then pumping air before inserting the cystoscope); in the diagnosis of one case of metastatic nodule in the liver; in stomach carcinoma; and in carcinosis of the intestines. He also used the method in the pleural cavity of human patients (Jacobaeus, 1911). A response by Kelling appeared months later disputing Jacobaeus' claim, stating that he was the first to successfully use "*celioscopy*" in humans between 1901-1910. Since then, some reports were published describing the examination of the abdominal cavity via pneumoperitoneum. In 1911, Bertram Bernheim, an assistant surgeon at John Hopkins University Hospital in the United States, described the "organoscopy" by inserting a 12 mm proctoscope through the abdominal wall, referring that "*By inserting the tube further in then and sweeping it around, always keeping the parietal peritoneum in view, the abdominal cavity can be inspected with surprising freedom*". He was the first to introduce the laparoscopy in the United States (Bernheim, 1911).

At this time pneumoperitoneum was still maintained through syringe injections, until Otto Goetze has described an automatic pneumoperitoneum needle (1918) characterized by its safe introduction in the peritoneal cavity and operated with a foot pump (Harrell *et al.*, 2005). In 1924, Otto Steiner at Grady Hospital in Atlanta, unaware of the experiences performed by other researchers, also used a cystoscope and trocar to perform "abdominoscopy" but applied oxygen instead of air to insufflate the abdomen. Steiner claimed then that "abdominoscopy" was a method of immense diagnostic value, describing it as "*the fulfillment of a dream*" (Steiner, 1924). By the same year, started the debate on the

insufflating gas to be used, as until then, the potential dangers associated with insufflation were apparently not understood. Karl Fervers was one of the first to perform laparoscopy for therapeutic purposes and described the use of oxygen to insufflate the abdomen before performing lysis of adhesions using cold cautery electrosurgery. Fervers described an explosion inside of the peritoneal cavity with multiple audible “detonations” and “flames”, visible through the abdominal wall. Although the patient fully recovered after several days, Fervers thereafter wisely argued against the use of oxygen to induce pneumoperitoneum (Fervers, 1933). Richard Zollikofer, a gynecologist from Switzerland, was one of the first to prefer carbon dioxide (CO₂) to create pneumoperitoneum, due to its fast absorption and noncombustible properties (Zollikofer, 1924).

In 1938, the introduction of a spring-loaded blunt stylet type of needle with a side hole, so called Veress needle, contributed to a safe penetration of the abdominal wall. Janos Veress, a thoracic surgeon from Hungary was the responsible for the invention of this instrument (Veress, 1938). Although originally designed to treat pulmonary tuberculosis, it was quickly recognized as an effective device to safely induce pneumoperitoneum and minimize intra-abdominal organ injury (Harrell *et al.*, 2005). Until this time, internists were still creating pneumoperitoneum by pumping in air but soon those manual insufflators were no longer adequate for longer operating times and insufflating flow requirements. In early 1960, the gynecologist Kurt Semm realized that, from a technical standpoint, tubal insufflation was similar to creating pneumoperitoneum, as in both procedures CO₂ was injected in the human body. Semm knew that intra-abdominal pressure had to be controlled continuously, the insufflation flow should be limited, and the volume of insufflated gas had to be registered. Therefore he developed the first automatic carbon dioxide insufflator (Litynski, 1998). Afterwards other insufflators were developed with sophisticated features as pre-warmed CO₂, electronic displays and alarm systems.

6.3. Carbon dioxide (CO₂)-insufflation during MIPS

Carbon dioxide is the gas of choice for cavity insufflation during MIS as it is highly soluble in blood, thereby reducing the risk of gas embolism, is rapidly excreted by respiration when absorbed, and does not support combustion when using electrocautery (Tobias, 2002). Other gases have been considered, like air, oxygen, nitrous oxide, helium and argon, however the CO₂ gathers most of the characteristics considered optimal for an insufflation gas (Table 2).

TABLE 2 CHARACTERISTICS OF GASES CONSIDERED FOR CAVITIES INSUFFLATION IN MIS

| GAS | SOLUBILITY IN BLOOD | RISK OF EMBOLIZATION | METABOLIC CONSEQUENCES WHEN ABSORBED | SUPPORT COMBUSTION |
|----------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Carbon dioxide | High | Low | Major | No |
| Air | Low | High | Minor | Yes |
| Oxygen | Low | High | Minor | Yes |
| Nitrous oxide | High | Low | Minor | Yes |
| Helium | Low | High | Minor | No |
| Argon | Low | High | Minor | No |

The safe application of MIS in pediatric patients requires a thorough understanding of the physiological effects of CO₂-insufflation in this population. Besides the physiological effects induced by tissue trauma associated to every surgical intervention, two main factors associated with the CO₂-insufflation influence physiological responses during MIS: (i) mechanical effect of the increased intra-abdominal or intrathoracic pressure and (ii) chemical effect induced by CO₂ absorption through the visceral and parietal peritoneum and pleura (Figure 3). The most described and studied physiological phenomena associated with MIS is the development of severe hypercapnia and acidosis. Some authors claim that the acidotic profile during MIS results from the mechanical effect of the increased intracavitary pressure over the cardiovascular system, resulting in tissue hypoperfusion, anaerobic metabolism and lactic acidosis (Taura *et al.*, 1998). While others claim that the acidosis is predominantly respiratory due to CO₂ absorption during insufflation (Leighton *et al.*, 1993).

Furthermore, others report acidosis to be 44% metabolic, 21% mixed and 8% respiratory in patients submitted to laparoscopic cholecystectomy (Gándara *et al.*, 1997), suggesting that more than one factor is taking part in the development of acidosis during MIS. This mechanical, chemical and, consequently, metabolic impact of CO₂-insufflation is however manifested in other organ systems as cardiovascular, respiratory and immune systems (discussed in the next sections).

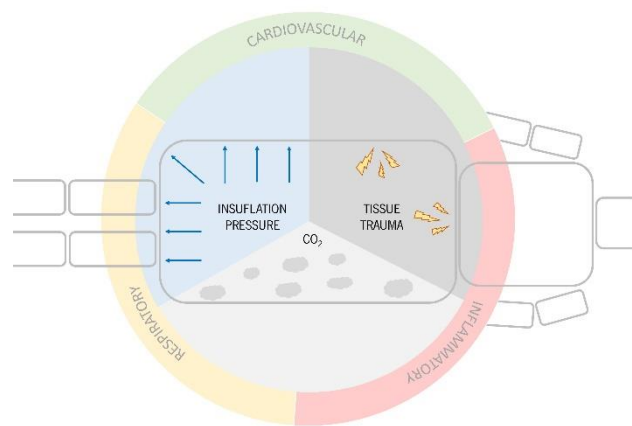


FIGURE 3 MECHANICAL AND CHEMICAL FACTORS INDUCED BY CO₂-INSUFFLATION INFLUENCING PHYSIOLOGICAL RESPONSES DURING MIS

6.3.1. The pediatric patient

The CO₂ absorption is different between adult and pediatric patients (McHoney *et al.*, 2003). These differences may be explained by the Fick's Law of diffusion [$V_{\text{gas}} = D \cdot A \cdot (P_1 - P_2) / d$] that states that the diffusion of a given volume of gas through a membrane (V_{gas}) is inversely proportional to the membrane thickness (d), and proportional to the: (i) surface area of the membrane in contact with the gas (A), (ii) difference in gas partial pressure between the two compartments ($P_1 - P_2$), and (iii) diffusion constant (D). The diffusion constant is proportional to the solubility of the gas (α^{sol}) divided by the square root of its molecular weight (MW) ($D = \alpha^{\text{sol}} / \sqrt{MW}$). Therefore, it is expected that children absorb a higher proportion of CO₂ than adults, as their ratio [surface area : body mass] is increased and their peritoneal and pleural

thickness is lower than in adults (Lasersohn, 2011). These anatomical features may not fully explain the differences between adult and pediatric patients regarding the CO₂-absorption. McHoney *et al.* has studied the CO₂-absorption during laparoscopy in children and concluded that younger, low weight children absorb more CO₂ than older individuals, despite the positive correlation between the total volume of CO₂ insufflated and the patient age. These conclusions were obtained by evaluating the CO₂ elimination through respiration ($V_E\text{CO}_2$). However $V_E\text{CO}_2$ includes both metabolically produced and absorbed CO₂ and, therefore, the observed increase in $V_E\text{CO}_2$ may either correspond to the higher CO₂ absorption and/or higher CO₂ metabolic production in younger children (McHoney *et al.*, 2003). Studies on the metabolic response of pediatric patients during laparoscopic surgery reported a hypermetabolic response characterized by an increase in oxygen consumption ($\dot{V}O_2$) and core temperature when compared to open surgery. Studies reported that oxygen consumption rose faster in the laparoscopic group (0.017 ml/kg/min more than in the open surgery group) and the core temperature rose 0.005 °C faster per minute of operation in the laparoscopic group. A positive correlation between $\dot{V}O_2$ and core temperature was found, and these observations highlight a higher metabolic response of children under laparoscopic surgery when compared to open surgery. Additionally, the same study reported that, in the laparoscopic group, younger and lighter children had a more pronounced rise in $\dot{V}O_2$, suggesting that age is modulating the metabolic response to laparoscopy (McHoney *et al.*, 2006). These studies highlight that the combination of both factors (i) laparoscopic approaches and (ii) young and low weight patients, lead to the requirement of scrupulous anesthetic management, as both factors are associated with increased metabolic response. However, no pediatric studies have evaluated whether this response is independent of the insufflated gas or if it is related with the CO₂.

6.3.2. CO₂-pneumothorax *versus* -pneumoperitoneum

Although it is not known what is the exact amount of the exhaled CO₂ that derives from cavities absorption (through peritoneum or pleura), it is certain that small children eliminate relatively more CO₂ during MIS than adults and for that reason, a more scrupulous anesthetic management is required. Within the pediatric patient, differences regarding the cavity accessed (thoracic and abdominal) also exist and the percentage of exhaled CO₂ originating from CO₂-pneumothorax was evaluated by Bishay *et al.*, who have compared the ¹³CO₂/¹²CO₂ ratio from the medical CO₂ used for insufflation with the baseline breath of pediatric patients before CO₂-insufflation. This study concluded that 29% of exhaled CO₂ derived from the CO₂-pneumothorax rather than being of metabolic origin (Bishay *et al.*, 2011). By using the same isotope-ratio mass spectrometry technique, Pacilli *et al.* determined the absorption of exogenous CO₂ during laparoscopy *versus* open surgery in children, and estimated that 10 to 20% of the eliminated CO₂ is derived from peritoneum absorption (Pacilli *et al.*, 2006).

When comparing peritoneal with thoracic insufflation, studies in children have shown a significant increase on end-tidal CO₂ (EtCO₂) during thoracoscopy when compared to laparoscopy, despite the lower insufflation pressures usually applied in the first approach (Pacilli *et al.*, 2006; McHoney *et al.*, 2008). The differences observed between these two approaches are suggested to be related with the lung collapse during thoracic insufflation, which contributes to an impaired respiratory capacity. The same study observed a negative correlation between patient weight and maximum increase in EtCO₂ in children undergoing thoracoscopic surgery with one-lung ventilation, but this correlation was not observed in children undergoing thoracoscopic surgery with two-lung ventilation. These two findings suggest that thoracoscopic surgery in small age and low-weight patients, combined with single-lung ventilation may be particularly hazardous for the pediatric patients in terms of acid base imbalance (McHoney *et al.*, 2008).

6.3.2.1. Respiratory effects

Laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgery introduce important challenges to anesthetic and ventilatory management due to the (i) elevated intra-cavity pressure and (ii) CO₂-absorption. In laparoscopic surgery, pneumoperitoneum causes a cephalic displacement of the diaphragm, resulting in: reduction of functional residual capacity (FCR), that may ultimately lead to atelectasis; increase in peak airway pressure (PIP); reduction in pulmonary compliance; uneven distribution of ventilation and consequent ventilation perfusion (V/Q) mismatch, which can result in hypoxemia (Truchon, 2004). These mechanical effects were studied by Bannister *et al.* who have found a significant correlation between insufflation pressure, during laparoscopic surgery in infants, and EtCO₂, PIP, tidal volume (V_T) and dynamic compliance (C_{dyn}). No changes were detected at insufflation pressures of 5 mmHg, but became evident at insufflation pressures of 10 mmHg. The same study measured pulmonary changes in infants undergoing laparoscopic procedures with insufflation pressures between 12 and 15 mmHg and observed an 18% increase in PIP, and decreases of 33% in V_T and 48% in C_{dyn}. It was observed a 13 % increase in EtCO₂ and 2 to 11 % decrease in peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO₂), with approximately one-fourth of the patients presenting decreases above 5%. All changes in SpO₂ were corrected by ventilatory adjustments and required increases in PIP, in order to restore V_T, and only few patients required additional changes in respiratory rate (Bannister *et al.*, 2003). Bergesio *et al.* have also detected 26,6% increase in PIP and 38,9% decrease in C_{dyn} after the induction of pneumoperitoneum (Bergesio *et al.*, 1999). Similar findings were obtained by Manner *et al.*, who observed that the same trends were aggravated by the Trendelenburg position adopted during laparoscopic procedures in pediatric patients. The author observed a 17% decrease in lung compliance induced by the Trendelenburg position, which was further decreased by 27% during CO₂-insufflation at an intrabdominal pressure (IAP) of 12 mmHg. Furthermore, a 19% increase in PIP was detected when patients were in Trendelenburg position and aggravated by 32% during CO₂-insufflation (Manner *et al.*, 1998).

This derangement in ventilation due to the mechanical impact of the increased intracavity-pressure requires appropriate monitoring of exhaled CO₂ in order to prevent severe hypercapnia. Increases in minute volume (MV) of 30 to 40% are described as being required to obtain physiological PaCO₂ levels during 8 mmHg pneumoperitoneum (T Fujimoto *et al.*, 1999). Other studies, including thoracoscopic and laparoscopic procedures, have shown increases in MV of 22,6%, mostly associated with increases in tidal volumes rather than in respiratory frequency (Kalfa *et al.*, 2005). These adjustments in MV are essential for counterbalancing the reduced pulmonary compliance and increased respiratory resistance. However, increases in MV might be responsible for excessive increases in PIP which carries increased risk of barotrauma and hemodynamic changes (Kalfa *et al.*, 2005).

During thoracoscopic procedures, the mechanical effects of CO₂-insufflation are applied direct over lungs affecting its compliance due to the presence of the CO₂ in the pleural space. In neonates under minimally invasive surgery, significant changes and alterations in SpO₂ are more pronounced in thoracoscopic procedures when compared to laparoscopy (Bishay *et al.*, 2013a) and the requirement of an initial 100% in the fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO₂) was verified in pediatric patients submitted to thoracoscopic procedures, while in laparoscopy only a 58% FiO₂ was required (Kalfa *et al.*, 2005). These studies highlight that the ventilatory management during MIS must account for the mechanical impact of increased intra-cavity pressure over the respiratory system. CO₂ retention (hypercapnia) and hypoxia can occur if moderate hyperventilation is not adopted.

Studies have evaluated the association between blood gas derangement in neonates and children and possible long-term neurocognitive dysfunctions, most of them performed in preterm, low-weight children requiring mechanical ventilation. Some studies relate hypoxia and hypercapnia/acidosis with damage of the immature brain (Lavrijsen *et al.*, 2005; Hagen *et al.*, 2008; Volpe, 2009; Salmaso *et al.*, 2014) associated with dysfunctions years later (Leviton *et al.*, 2010), while others associate these events to neuroprotective benefits such as increased neurogenesis in the hippocampus, counteracting the adverse effects of brain lesions (Ladilov, 2012; Tregub *et al.*, 2016). A possible balance between injury and

neuroprotection determines the long-term functional consequences of transient hypercapnia and hypoxia in neonatal patients and the susceptibility of the newborn brain to damage may be determined by various factors, including severity and duration of the hypoxia and hypercapnia/acidosis events. However, no studies were yet performed focusing on the long-term impact of blood gas derangements induced by CO₂-insufflation during MIS.

6.3.2.2. Cardiovascular effects

The hemodynamic alterations induced by CO₂-insufflation during laparoscopic and thoracoscopic procedures may result in changes in end-organ perfusion and oxygen delivery. During MIS, both mechanical and chemical factors influence the cardiovascular system, the first one due to the elevation in intracavity pressure, and the second one due to the hypercapnia development after CO₂ absorption.

Animal studies on the isolated mechanical effects of the increased IAP, by applying peritoneal saline instillation in a rabbit model, have shown significant increases in cardiac output [Cardiac output = stroke volume x heart rate (HR)/body surface area (BSA)] when applying IAP under 20 mmHg. This initial increase in cardiac output may be attributed to a blood volume shift from the intra-abdominal to the intrathoracic cavity, caused by a compression of intra-abdominal blood vessels. The continuous increase in IAP above 20 mmHg led to a decrease in cardiac output, possibly as a result of excessive venous compression and, consequent decreased cardiac venous return (Robert Sümpelmann *et al.*, 2006). This initial increase in cardiac output was also verified in another study using CO₂-insufflation pressures of 8 mmHg. However, this increase was only observed in the first 30 minutes of pneumoperitoneum. From 30 to 210 min of CO₂-insufflation, a progressive decrease in Cardiac Index (CI) was observed [CI = CO/BSA], suggesting that prolonged pneumoperitoneum contributes to a decreased CI, even when applying constant and relatively low insufflation pressures (R Sümpelmann *et al.*, 2006).

Studies on the chemical effects of acidosis over the cardiovascular system, were performed in animal models. Hypercapnic acidosis (HCA) was induced by increasing the inspired fraction of CO₂ until reaching a pH of 7.1, with no CO₂-insufflation over body cavities. The HCA led to an increase in mean pulmonary artery pressure and pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR). However, these increases were not limited to the HCA group, being also verified during metabolic acidosis (MAC) induced by intravenous infusion of hydrochloric acid. Both, HCA and MAC, had the same effect on the pulmonary circulation indicating that the main stimulus in pulmonary circulation is the hydrogen ion concentration [H⁺]. Regarding systemic circulation, only HCA resulted in increased mean arterial pressure (MAP) despite the reduction in systemic vascular resistance (SVR). Both types of acidosis lead to a decrease in stroke volume and increased HR suggesting that cardiac function is affected by [H⁺]. These findings were supported by *in vitro* experiments, where contraction force of isolated cardiac tissues (right ventricular trabeculae) was decreased in acidic solution. Despite the observed decrease in stroke volume, the cardiac output was maintained in MAC and even increased in HCA as a result of the increase in HR. The increase in cardiac output observed in HCA group may be due to the stimulation of the central chemoreceptors in the *medulla* that are highly sensitive to variations in blood PaCO₂. Regarding the regional circulation, no alterations on renal perfusion were observed in HCA or MAC groups. However, HCA increased carotid, portal and total liver blood flow, suggesting a specific vasodilatory effect of CO₂ on the hepato-splanchnic circulation, which revealed to be independent of systemic pH changes (Stengl *et al.*, 2013). These animal studies support that cardiovascular alterations during MIS results not only from the acid-base changes after CO₂-absorption but also from the effect of the gas itself.

Human pediatric studies on the hemodynamic effects of CO₂-insufflation are influenced by several confounding factors namely the intravascular volume status, patient positioning, anesthetic technique and underlying cardiovascular status, which may explain inconsistencies between studies. In neonatal patients submitted to laparoscopic surgery, no significant changes in systolic blood pressure was observed when patients are submitted to

a limited insufflation pressure of 8 mmHg (T Fujimoto *et al.*, 1999). A prospective study with patients undergoing laparoscopic fundoplication in 33 children, found no significant changes in HR or blood pressure when insufflation pressures did not exceed 10 mmHg (Mattioli *et al.*, 2003). The same observations were obtained even when including laparoscopic and thoracoscopic procedures, presenting null variations in systolic blood pressure or, when present, were smaller than 5 mmHg. Only ten neonates (20%) included in this study have shown decreases in blood pressure above 10 mmHg, with nine patients requiring vascular expansion with 4% albumin due to systolic blood pressure < 45 mmHg (Kalfa *et al.*, 2005). Other studies have shown significant increases in MAP after pneumoperitoneum in infants (Tytgat *et al.*, 2015) and neonates (Li *et al.*, 2013). Nevertheless, in the first study, the initial MAP was low in comparison to non-anesthetized term infants with the same age (Tytgat *et al.*, 2015) and in the second one, CO₂ insufflation pressure ranged from 8 to 14 mmHg which may be considered a high upper limit (Li *et al.*, 2013). A study on the hemodynamic changes during laparoscopic herniorrhaphy in children between 2 and 6 years old had found significant hemodynamic changes when patients were submitted to an IAP of 12 mmHg. These changes include an increase in MAP and a decrease in HR and CI, returning to baseline levels when IAP was reduced to 6 mmHg. The reduction of 13% in CI, measured by transesophageal echocardiography, was considered by the authors as a non-substantial risk to a healthy child. Nevertheless, lower IAP should be applied whenever possible, especially in children with cardiocirculatory problems (Sakka *et al.*, 2000). These findings were shared by other studies, namely during laparoscopic fundoplication in children under 3 years old with insufflation pressures of 5 mmHg which resulted in increased CI, HR and MAP (De Waal *et al.*, 2003), where a decrease in cardiac output was observed during laparoscopic procedures with insufflation pressures of 12–13 mmHg (Kardos *et al.*, 2001). Findings suggest that there is a threshold in insufflation pressure at which significant changes in cardiac output and CI occur. Moderate increases in IAP influences venous vasculature promoting venous return, most likely by reducing the blood volume sequestered in the splanchnic vasculature. This increase in venous return will consequently increase

right- and left- cardiac filling pressures, with a resultant increase in cardiac output and arterial pressure. Following this transient rise in venous return with the initiation of pneumoperitoneum, a steady state of decreased blood circulation comes after, due to the continued compressive effects. The compressive effects on the arterial vasculature and capillaries lead to an increased afterload, SVR, and arterial pressure, although stroke volume and cardiac output decrease. HR may rise transiently in response to increases in SVR and arterial blood pressure to maintain cardiac output, but most studies have reported no significant long-term changes during laparoscopy. When applying a very-high insufflation pressure, the inferior vena cava is compressed and venous return and preload decreases. Left ventricular function is therefore impaired and cardiac output decreases (Baroncini *et al.*, 2002).

Few studies have evaluated the cardiovascular impact of thoracic CO₂ insufflation in pediatric patients however, the findings are similar to pneumoperitoneum studies. Cardiac output was described as being constant until reaching an intrathoracic insufflation pressure of 2 mmHg, increasing significantly from 4 mmHg until reaching a peak at insufflation pressures of 6 mmHg (Mukhtar *et al.*, 2008).

The derangements of cardiac function during MIS may also be related with patient specificities, as neonates have a relatively fixed cardiac contractility because of their immature myocardial fibers. The relationship between the lengthening of the myocardial fibers during the ventricular filling and the contractility is known as the Frank-Starling Law, and the greater the lengthening of the fibers, the greater the ventricular contraction and hence, increased stroke volume and cardiac output (Blackburn, 2013). The contractility and ventricular compliance are effectively reduced in the neonates, and the myocardium is near the functional limit at baseline levels. Therefore, the efficiency of the cardiac contractions is influenced by underfilling or overfilling during the preload period, and adequate cardiac output is maintained primarily through an increase in HR (Vijayalakshmi *et al.*, 2013). All the described changes in cardiac function have a direct effect on tissue perfusion. To understand the influence of elevated IAP on the quality of tissue perfusion, Tytgat *et al.* have

investigated the alterations in buccal and sublingual microcirculation in neonates undergoing laparoscopic pyloromyotomy, in order to understand the influence of the increased IAP on the quality of tissue perfusion. This study has shown significant changes in microvascular diameter and a reversible vasodilation after cessation of the 8 mmHg pneumoperitoneum, but no changes were observed in perfused vessel density (recruitment or closure of microvasculature). These observations indicate no substantial perfusion changes in buccal and sublingual microcirculation, which is known to maintain a common vascular pathway that provides blood to the brain. This may suggest no cerebral microcirculatory instability (Tytgat *et al.*, 2013).

Blood pressure measurements during anesthesia are often used as an indicator for organ perfusion and, although all organs are at risk when poorly perfused, cerebral perfusion is the most critical for a neurocognitive outcome. Cerebral perfusion pressures vary directly with arterial blood pressures and maintaining blood pressure within the limits of cerebral autoregulation is essential for cerebral protection. However, the limits of cerebral autoregulation in neonates are not precisely known (McCann *et al.*, 2014). There is evidence of direct ischemic cerebral damage following a general anaesthetic in young infants submitted to major neurosurgery or cardiac surgery (Walker *et al.*, 2006), but no long-term studies have valuated the neurodevelopmental impact of circulatory instability during MIS in these fragile patients. During MIPS, the case-by-case identification and correction of risk factors such as intraoperative hypo and hypertention may be more important in terms of improving the long-term neurocognitive outcomes in these patients, rather than establishing general CO₂-insufflation pressure limits.

6.3.2.3. Inflammatory response

It is increasingly evident that the advantages of MIS are not only attributed to the reduced tissue injury secondary to smaller incisions. With the increasing complexity of surgeries performed by minimally invasive approaches, the magnitude of operations begins to

outweigh the magnitude of incisions, and the specific immunological differences between laparoscopic and thoracoscopic *versus* open surgery may result much from the unique properties of the gas used for cavity insufflation. Experimental studies have shown that acute immunological effects can be found locally, in the surfaces of the insufflated cavity, or can be followed by a systemic acute-phase reaction interfering with the function of several cell populations (Neuhaus *et al.*, 2004; Ure *et al.*, 2007). Experimental and clinical data suggest that the intensity of the acute-phase response after surgery is proportional to the extent of tissue damage (Ruzic *et al.*, 2005) and the postoperative levels of proteins and cytokines related to acute-phase response, e.g. tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interferon (IFN)- γ , IL-1, IL-6, and IL-10, C-reactive protein, have been used as criteria to evaluate the magnitude of tissue trauma during surgery and the development of associated complications (Miyake *et al.*, 2002; Mutoh *et al.*, 2004; Fracalanza *et al.*, 2008).

Peritoneum contains approximately 300 cells/mm³, mostly macrophages and some desquamated mesothelial cells and lymphocytes. However, the ability of the peritoneal cavity to generate polymorphonuclear cells (PMN) and macrophages is huge after abdominal injury (Heel *et al.*, 1996). During abdominal surgery, degranulation of cells releases vasoactive substances, complement, opsins and cytokines that regulate macrophage phagocytic function (Neuhaus *et al.*, 2004). A study focused on the pattern of peritoneal cell recruitment after CO₂- *versus* air-pneumoperitoneum have shown that air exposure triggered a higher rate of PMN migration from the intravascular compartment into the peritoneal cavity, associated with a decreased programmed cell death. These two events suggest a higher peritoneal inflammatory status and longer resolution of inflammation process in air-insufflation groups. Interestingly, there was a significantly lower percentage of fluorescent labeled macrophages in the peritoneum after air-insufflation, which may indicate that there is a higher inflammatory stimulation which is causing higher clearance and increased migration of macrophages to draining lymph nodes (Moehrlen *et al.*, 2006). Similar findings were obtained by Ure *et al.* when comparing air with CO₂-insufflation during laparoscopy in

a pig model. Air laparoscopy resulted in increased peritoneal PMN and a decrease in the percentage of peritoneal macrophages (Ure *et al.*, 2002).

In vitro studies have found that lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimulated macrophages derived from rats exposed to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, presented a reduced TNF α production when compared to macrophages from animals submitted to gasless laparoscopy or laparotomy (Mathew *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, intraperitoneal macrophages harvested from rats 3 days after undergoing laparoscopy with CO₂-insufflation presented the same response, which was not observed in macrophages derived from animals submitted to gasless or helium laparoscopy (Neuhaus *et al.*, 2000). *In vitro* incubation of murine macrophages with CO₂, but not in those incubated with air or helium-rich environment, also present a reduction in TNF α and IL-1 production. A marked inhibition of IL-1 was seen after 15 minutes of CO₂ exposure, while it was needed a minimum of 30 minutes to inhibit TNF α . This depression in cytokine production was reverted after incubation in a controlled atmosphere (West *et al.*, 1996, 1997). These *in vitro* immunomodulatory effects of CO₂ have also been shown in human primary peritoneal macrophages, with IL-1 β and TNF α secretions increasing to normal levels only after a recovery period of 24 hours. Helium exposure had no suppressive effect on cytokine levels (Kopernik *et al.*, 1998).

Abdominal CO₂-insufflation, before experimental induction of acute pancreatitis, resulted in a significant decrease in ascites volume, peritoneal cell number and TNF α levels in serum and peritoneal lavage (Machado *et al.*, 2010). Jacobi *et al.* have also demonstrated decreased TNF α and increased IL-10 levels in plasma of rats undergoing laparoscopy with CO₂-insufflation, as compared with controls or rats undergoing helium laparoscopy (Jacobi *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore Hanly *et al.* observed that exposure to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum was associated with significantly lower serum TNF α levels when compared with helium or anesthesia control groups, and presented significant increased serum IL-10 levels and reduced mortality among animals with LPS-induced sepsis (Hanly *et al.*, 2006).

West *et al.* attributed the impaired function of peritoneal macrophages to the cytosolic acidification caused by CO₂-insufflation. Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments have shown

that a transient exposure to CO₂ leads to a reduction in intracellular and tissue pH, respectively. Additionally, *in vitro* assays have shown that pharmacological intracellular acidification reproduced the same inhibitory effect on macrophage TNF α production. These two findings support that resident peritoneal macrophage acidification induced by peritoneal CO₂-insufflation might contribute to blunting of the local inflammatory response during laparoscopic surgery (West *et al.*, 1997). Similar findings were shared by Rotstein *et al.* who observed that *in vitro* CO₂-exposure causes intracellular acidification of peritoneal macrophages, which in turn suppresses production of TNF α in response to LPS challenge (Rotstein, 2001). In accordance with these *in vitro* observations, *in vivo* acidification of the peritoneum by acidic lavage also leads to an increase in serum IL-10 levels and decrease in TNF α levels in response to LPS challenge. Furthermore, the degree of peritoneal acidification correlated directly with the degree of IL-10 production and inversely with the degree of TNF α production (Hanly *et al.*, 2007).

Other research groups have focused in understanding whether this attenuation of acute phase inflammatory response was a consequence of the systemic acidosis induced by the peritoneal CO₂ absorption or by the local acidosis induced by the presence of CO₂ in the abdominal cavity. Hanly *et al.* concluded that systemic acidosis is not responsible for the reduction in the acute phase inflammatory response, as no differences were observed between normocarbic and hypercarbic CO₂-insufflated groups. Both groups presented attenuation of the acute phase inflammatory response and these findings might suggest that the attenuated inflammatory response after MIS is attributed to the presence of CO₂ in the abdominal cavity and not from changes in systemic pH. Hanly *et al.* have also confirmed that peritoneum is acidotic during abdominal CO₂-insufflation, even when systemic pH is corrected by mechanical ventilation adjustments (Hanly *et al.*, 2005).

To understand if this local acidification, that seems to be independent of the systemic acid-base status, has impact in distant organs Ure *et al.*, by using a pediatric porcine model, compared air- with CO₂- laparoscopy and analyzed the distant pulmonary response. The author observed that macrophage numbers in alveolar lavage were significantly increased

after air- *versus* CO₂-laparoscopy. The same author compared air- with CO₂- laparotomy groups, performed in a pressurized balloon filled with the corresponding gas and the author found no differences between laparotomy groups, which might suggest that laparotomy overruled the effects of CO₂ on distant organ injury (Ure *et al.*, 2002).

Pleural and peritoneal lavages of children and adolescents undergoing non-contaminated laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgical procedures have been evaluated. A significantly higher percentage of macrophages was observed in the pleural compared to the peritoneal lavages, with fewer lymphocytes and a small amount of PMNs. The spontaneous and LPS-triggered cytokine release of pleural *versus* peritoneal macrophages was measured *in vitro* and the pattern of cytokine release was similar in both. This finding suggests that macrophages in the peritoneal and pleural cavity show a similar inflammatory response (Shimotakahara *et al.*, 2007). The same research group examined the effects of CO₂ on human adolescent pleural macrophages, harvested from patients undergoing elective surgery for pectus bar correction. After *in vitro* LPS-stimulation, macrophages from CO₂-exposure and not helium hypoxic animals, presented a significant reduction in TNF α production, as well as a significant increase in the release of IL-10 and IL-1 β within the first 4h after incubation (Shimotakahara *et al.*, 2010). These studies show that both cavities, thoracic and abdominal, respond similarly to CO₂-insufflation, with reduction of TNF α and increase in IL-10 levels.

Several authors have suggested that the modulation of local macrophages by CO₂-insufflation, contribute to reducing the systemic stress response following laparoscopic surgery. (Novitsky *et al.*, 2004). The acute-phase response and cytokines are important components of immunological function and, although cytokine levels do not indicate immune status directly, they are good indicators of the activation of the systemic immune system. Higher serum levels of TNF α and other proinflammatory cytokines have been shown to correlate with mortality among patients with sepsis (Casey *et al.*, 1993; Gogos *et al.*, 2000) and the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 has been shown to be protective in this context (Howard *et al.*, 1993; Rongione *et al.*, 2000). Furthermore, IL-10 has been shown to

downregulate TNF α in surgical models of sepsis (Rongione *et al.*, 1997; Chang *et al.*, 2002). However, studies have not shown how CO₂ stimulates IL-10 production (and/or TNF α inhibition, if through a different mechanism). The fact that IL-10 levels are increased in animals subjected to the biological activity of CO₂ suggests that increased IL-10 may be fundamental to the mechanism of CO₂-insufflation-specific immune protection during MIS (Hanly *et al.*, 2006).

In MIS, systemic immune responses undeniably are still activated. It is apparent, however, that laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgery appears to induce a smaller injury, resulting in proportionally decreased immunologic changes when compared to conventional open surgery (Jacobi *et al.*, 2002). In addition to improved cosmetic and faster functional recovery, a patient undergoing laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgery may benefit from a net immunologic advantage and the CO₂-insufflation is pointed as a key event to explain why laparoscopic surgery is so well tolerated (West *et al.*, 1997).

The understanding the unique pediatric inflammatory response and the exploration of the developmental biology of the innate immune system will improve strategies and anticipate responses to injury and interventions of this specific population. Studies have established a relationship between patients age and cytokine production by circulating cells of the immune system. A proportional relationship between age and monocyte production of IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-12 and IL-2 was observed, whereas IL-10 production showed no age pattern. Studies have also demonstrated that stimulated macrophages from children show a greater anti-inflammatory-to-pro-inflammatory cytokine ratio (IL-10-to-TNF α ratio) than macrophages from adults. It is suggested that this attenuated systemic inflammatory response may confer protection to the pediatric patient, with less collateral and systemic damage, and that the pro-inflammatory-to-anti-inflammatory ratio is more important than the absolute cytokine levels to the restoration of homeostasis after injury (Wood *et al.*, 2010).

Many studies have compared the release of inflammatory cytokines following laparoscopic *versus* open surgery in children and most of the findings are in accordance with adult human studies, showing a faster restored or even preserved immune function (T Fujimoto *et al.*,

1999; Takao Fujimoto *et al.*, 1999; Li *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2009). However, no human pediatric studies were focused on different type of gas insufflation or on the isolated systemic effects of CO₂-insufflation by comparing these patients with the pediatric non-operated population.

CO₂-insufflation during MIS may impact the immune system at different levels. Besides the acute production of inflammatory cytokines, an activation of cellular immune mechanisms occurs in response to surgical injury. The stress response to injury is associated with an early rise in stress hormone levels combined with a decrease in cellular immune response. Regarding the cell-mediated immune function, many studies have compared laparoscopic with open surgical approaches, but few studies have evaluated the isolated peri- and post-operative disturbances induced by CO₂ during MIS. A study from Evrard *et al.* evaluated quantitatively the T-lymphocyte subsets following laparoscopic cholecystectomy in adult patients, in which each patient was his own control. The author evaluated the effects of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum on intraperitoneal lymphocytes, and no difference in lymphocyte viability was found before or after CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and the peritoneal CD4/CD8 ratio was similar before and after pneumoperitoneum. Regarding the circulating lymphocyte subpopulations, a significant reduction in the absolute lymphocyte count (CD3) and in CD4 cells occurred on postoperative day 1 and returned to preoperative values on postoperative day 2, which suggest brief, moderate immunodepression (Evrard *et al.*, 1997). Although the author found a moderate immunosuppression, it is known that laparoscopic surgery is associated with less immunosuppression than open surgery (Novitsky *et al.*, 2004). However, it is important to understand if this relatively low immunosuppression is associated with the gas used for insufflation. An *in vitro* study from Lee *et al.* evaluated the lymphocyte proliferation derived from mice submitted to a full laparotomy, whether performed in a sealed CO₂-chamber or in room air. The author found no differences between groups however, lymphocyte proliferation from these two laparotomy groups was significantly lower than both anesthetized controls and CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups. These finding hypothesize that the suppression of lymphocyte proliferation may be more related with incision length than

with air- or CO₂-exposure. Additionally, no differences were found between anesthetized controls and CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups (Lee et al., 2000).

It is general accepted that MIS is associated with reduced inflammatory response and minimal immunosuppression however (Novitsky et al., 2004), the specific effects of the CO₂ on the immune cell-mediated responses during this surgical approach is not well understood. No pediatric studies have evaluated the effects of different insufflation gases (CO₂, helium) on cell-mediated immunity, being the studies limited to comparing MIS with open approaches.

6.3.2.4. Brain events affected by CO₂-insufflation

Several studies on regional cerebral oxygenation (rScO₂) during laparoscopic and thoracoscopic procedures were performed in neonates and children by using near-infrared spectroscopy (Bishay *et al.*, 2011; Tytgat *et al.*, 2015, 2016; Stolwijk *et al.*, 2017). rScO₂ reflects a mixture of venous, arterial and capillary hemoglobin oxygen saturation in a proportion of 75:20:5 and is used to detect substantial changes in cerebral oxygenation, as an estimator of cerebral perfusion. Although it cannot be used as a robust quantitative method, it can detect changes in cerebral oxygenation within the same patient (Van Bel *et al.*, 2008). Research groups have evaluated the rScO₂ during pediatric laparoscopy and observed no significant changes between pre- and intra-operative levels (Tytgat *et al.*, 2015; Tuna *et al.*, 2016). Interestingly, one study has investigated the balance between oxygen delivery and oxygen consumption by calculating the cerebral fractional tissue oxygen extraction that can be obtained as the ratio $(\text{SaO}_2 - \text{rScO}_2)/\text{SaO}_2$. This study shows a gradual nonsignificant decrease in the cerebral fractional tissue oxygen extraction during CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, becoming statistically significant during the phase prior extubation, which indicates a gradual increased delivery of oxygen to the brain during laparoscopic procedures (Tytgat *et al.*, 2015). This increased oxygen delivery can be caused by (i) intracerebral microvascular dilatation, possibly due to the vasodilatory effect of the elevated

PaCO₂; (ii) increased blood pressure; or (iii) increased FiO₂ especially during anesthesia induction and prior to the extubating event. Interestingly, one study has found a significant reduction in rScO₂ during laparoscopic procedures and no reduction on peripheral oxygenation (SpO₂). This finding suggests that rScO₂ is strongly correlated with the hemodynamic consequences of IAP rather than with the CO₂ absorption. In the same report, the reduction in rScO₂ during laparoscopic inguinal hernia repair was about 3,5% (Pelizzo *et al.*, 2017) and similar findings were reported by Tsy-pin *et al.* where a 3% average reduction in rScO₂ in pediatric gynecological laparoscopic interventions was observed (Tsy-pin *et al.*, 2007).

Regarding thoracoscopic surgery, Bishay *et al.* have described a decrease in rScO₂ from 87% preoperatively to 75% during thoracoscopic repair of congenital diaphragmatic hernia (CDH) and esophageal atresia (EA) in neonates and infants. This decrease remained at least 24 hours postoperatively. The CO₂-insufflation pressure adopted in this study ranged from 5 to 10 mmHg, which may be considered a very high upper limit for CO₂-pneumothorax. Additionally, no information regarding ventilatory management of patients after induction of CO₂-pneumothorax was described (Bishay *et al.*, 2011). Although it was observed a decrease in rScO₂, the values remained within the suggested reference range (55% < rScO₂ < 85%) (Pellicer *et al.*, 2013) intra- and postoperatively. A second study by Tytgat *et al.* in neonates undergoing thoracoscopic EA repair reported that, although observing a significant decrease in rScO₂ levels from 77% at anesthesia induction to 73% at 30 minutes of CO₂-insufflation, these values remained within reference range during and after the surgical procedure, with no suggested hampering of cerebral oxygenation. In this study, CO₂-insufflation pressure was limited to 5 mmHg and anesthetic maneuvers during CO₂ pneumothorax included adjustments in respiratory frequency, inspiratory pressure and FiO₂, in order to obtain stable anesthetic conditions based on rScO₂, SaO₂, end-tidal CO₂ and blood gas analysis (Tytgat *et al.*, 2016). Although these two studies report significant differences in rScO₂ between anesthesia induction and intraoperative periods, the high value of rScO₂ recorded at anesthesia induction may justify the statistically significant differences, possible

due to initial hyper-oxygenation. This factor was considered in Tytgat *et al.* work, and no significant differences were found when comparing intraoperative rScO₂ values with the baseline values in the awake patient in neonatal intensive care unit.

A study from Neunhoeffler *et al.* have found a significant correlation between CO₂-pneumothorax and a transient decrease in rScO₂, while SpO₂ remained normal. This finding, and similarly to Pelizzo findings in pediatric laparoscopic studies, suggests that brain oxygenation might be affected by the hemodynamic disturbances induced by CO₂-insufflation. In the same study, periods of rScO₂ 20% below from baseline were significantly more frequent during thoracoscopy than in abdominal open surgery. Interestingly, the authors concluded that those periods of decreased rScO₂ were completely inapparent when conventional monitoring was applied (HR, blood pressure, arterial oxygen saturation and end-tidal CO₂). The authors analyzed other parameters of cerebral microenvironment, which included cerebral fractional oxygen extraction and cerebral microcirculation and observed that regional cerebral blood flow remained unchanged during episodes of increased intrathoracic pressure but increased significantly throughout the surgery, which authors have associated with the tissue damage stimulation during surgery. Additionally, it was observed an increase in regional cerebral hemoglobin, that authors attributed to the impaired cerebral venous return, which is another factor that may contribute to the reduced rScO₂ (Neunhoeffler *et al.*, 2017). The hemodynamic impact of IAP over the central nervous system (CNS) was evaluated in the pig model by applying an insufflation pressure of 20 mmHg, which resulted in a statistically significant increase in intracranial (ICP) and intraspinal (ISP) pressures, associated with decreases in cerebral perfusion (CPP) and spinal perfusion (SPP) pressures. Decreases of CPP and SPP below 60 mmHg were accompanied by increases in IL-6, TNF α and lactate levels in cerebrospinal fluid suggesting CNS ischemia. Nevertheless, the abdominal desufflation was followed by restoration of ICP and ISP to baseline levels (Marinis *et al.*, 2010). A case series of 16 procedures in five patients submitted to thoracoscopic repair of Long Gap EA found three transient outliers in respect to rScO₂. Findings were related with low hemoglobin levels, decreased MAP or high FiO₂. This study draws attention to

intraoperative values of rScO₂ below and above the safety range of 55 – 85%. The lower rScO₂ (<55%) observed in this study were attributed to low hemoglobin levels or hypotension while the higher levels (>85%) were mostly due to pre-oxygenation, particularly during the induction phase of anesthesia due to an increased supply of oxygen. In all cases, rScO₂ was normalized after the intervention of anesthesiologist and, in the case of low hemoglobin levels, erythrocytes transfusion and vasopressor support were the corrective measures adopted. Nevertheless, and similarly to other studies, the remaining patients included in this prospective study presented rScO₂ values within the safety range during the entire thoracoscopic procedure. This study recognizes the importance of oxygen delivery by hemoglobin and its importance in cerebral oxygenation, especially in patients with “physiological” lower hemoglobin levels (Stolwijk *et al.*, 2017).

The functional consequences of brain hypoxia, hypercapnia and hypoperfusion induced by CO₂-insufflation during MIS are yet unknown. Several animal and human studies have been exploring these events in ischemia-reperfusion and traumatic brain injury studies however, extrapolation to the context of MIS may not be possible. No studies on the long-term effects of CO₂-insufflation during MIS over CNS have been performed in neonates. Being a relatively recent surgical approach in this age range, longitudinal studies are far from being completed, whether comparing open approaches with MIS or MIS patients with non-operated ones. Neurodevelopmental follow-up studies are currently under way, focusing on the effects of hypercapnia and acidosis (Bishay *et al.*, 2013b; Tytgat *et al.*, 2016) but while no neurodevelopmental human studies come out, some Ethic Committee’s reports have been advising against thoracoscopic repair of CDH (Pierro, 2015), at least while no enlightening studies on the neurodevelopmental impact of hypercapnia and acidosis were published. Systematic research on neurodevelopmental outcomes after neonatal surgery for major noncardiac anomalies have concluded that 23% of the patients develop cognitive and motor developmental delays, reporting that low birth weight, higher number of congenital anomalies, duration of hospital admission and repeated surgery are risk factors for the observed psychomotor delays (Stolwijk *et al.*, 2016). Other studies in children with

anatomical congenital abnormalities have shown that CDH and EA patients show impaired growth, lower psychomotor scores (Gischler *et al.*, 2009) and lower developmental scores in the expressive language (Walker *et al.*, 2013), compared with the healthy control children. However, no studies have evaluated whether the surgical approach constitutes a risk factor for the observed developmental delays. Interdisciplinary follow-up of children after surgical correction for congenital abnormalities is still lacking in many centers and future follow-up neurodevelopmental studies accounting for the surgical technique may help to understand if MIPS constitutes a risk factor for the observed neurodevelopmental delays or if it represents a long-term advantage over open approaches.

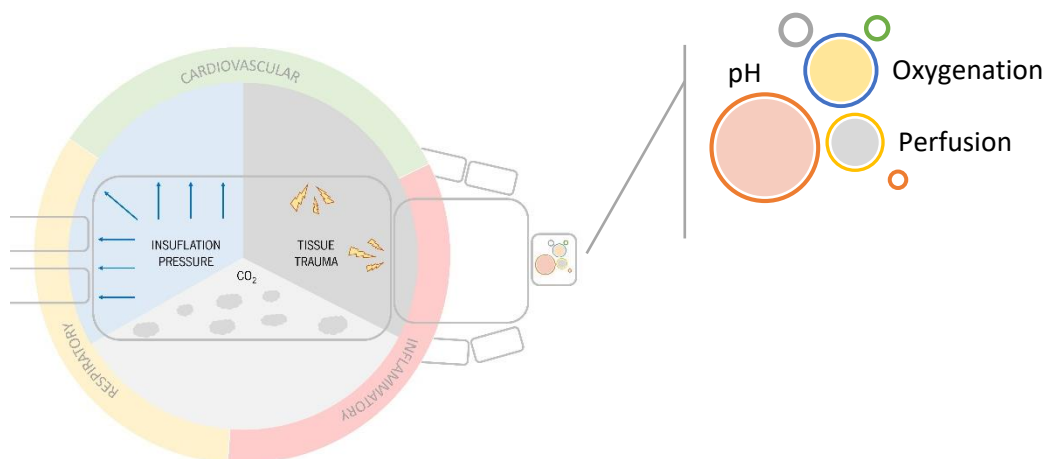


FIGURE 4 BRAIN AFFECTED EVENTS BY THE MECHANICAL AND CHEMICAL IMPACT OF CO₂-INSUFFLATION DURING MIS

CHAPTER 2.

Scope of the thesis

2.1. Motivation and objectives

Surgery is always applied in the perspective of improving patient's condition. Any peri-, intra- or post-operative factor that adversely affect this primary purpose may potentially negate the advantages of surgery. Some of those factors are the intra-operative care, anesthesia and analgesia, and the post-operative complications such as inflammation and infection. Therefore, all those factors are being identified and extensively investigated since many years. The surgical associated factors that most significantly concern health professionals are those that affect the brain since their outcomes can adversely affect patient's quality of life. However, the brain is an amazingly adaptive organ and present strategies to buffer insults, such as its neoplastic ability. Nevertheless, the avoidance of stress conditions that affect the metabolism of the brain is therefore beneficial in improving cognitive outcomes and it includes avoidance of intraoperative hyperglycemia, hyperthermia, hypotension and hypoxemia.

Ethics on medical care also focus on the continual search for the least invasive method of administering a treatment to a patient, "*Primum non nocere*", and MIS has been contributing to this common objective among numerous surgical specialties. Its widespread implementation has contributed to a revolution in surgical practice. Pediatric Surgery was not left behind this quest and laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgical approaches are becoming a standard surgical approach in neonates and infants. The development of impressively small instruments and the advances in pediatric surgical education, namely MIS training courses with artificial and *ex vivo* and *in vivo* animal models, have contributed to the generalization of this surgical approach in children and neonates, even in the most complicated neonatal procedures.

For many years, studies were focused on demonstrating the feasibility of MIS in children and neonates, however, academic studies are shifting from proving feasibility to a more critical evaluation of the outcomes of this surgical approach. After the enthusiasms for minimally invasive surgical techniques associated with small scars, less postoperative pain and economic advantage of an early return to home, there is now the need for ongoing critical and scientific appraisal of its advantages and disadvantages.

Therefore, the aims of this thesis are:

1. To develop two neonatal animal models of CO₂-pneumothorax and CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, endotracheally intubated, with respiratory support and arterial blood gas monitoring
2. To evaluate the impact of neonatal CO₂-pneumoperitoneum on:
 - a. the acute peripheral and central cytokine response
 - b. neurodevelopmental milestones acquisition by evaluating the impact of different insufflation pressures and times
 - c. long-term adult behavior by evaluating the impact of different insufflation pressures and times
3. To evaluate the impact of neonatal CO₂-pneumothorax on:
 - a. the acute peripheral and central cytokine response
 - b. immune cells in the periphery
 - c. the impact on newborn hippocampal cell survival

2.2. Structure of the thesis

The present thesis is organized in eight chapters distributed in three different parts: introduction, results, and discussion and conclusions. Part I includes chapters 1 and 2 and consist on the state of the art and the scope of the thesis, respectively. Part II gathers the major findings of this thesis, in the format of research papers already accepted for publication/published. These research papers are presented from chapter 3 to 5. Part III

gathers the discussion and the main conclusions of this thesis, corresponding to chapters 6 and 7, respectively.

Chapter 1 presents a brief history of pediatric MIS and resumes the major findings from research studies published over the last 15 years on the effects of CO₂-insufflation during minimally invasive procedures (pneumoperitoneum, pneumothorax) over the neonatal and pediatric organ systems. This chapter intends to enhance the insight with respect to pneumothorax and pneumoperitoneum effects over organ systems of children and neonates and, more specifically, aims to (i) find out the most recent concerns of the pediatric community regarding the effects of CO₂-insufflation over the neonatal organ systems; (ii) highlight the most recent findings and technical advances in perioperative care during MIS; (iii) review the contribution of animal models to the study of metabolic, cardiovascular, respiratory and inflammatory responses to CO₂-insufflation.

The motivation, objectives and structure of the present thesis are addressed in Chapter 2 (current chapter).

Chapter 3 reports a novel technique developed for the intubation of the animal model used in the experimental work held during this thesis. This technique was disseminated through the writing of a research paper entitled “Animal facility videoendoscopic intubation station: tips and tricks from mice to rabbits”, published in the peer-reviewed journal *Laboratory Animals*.

Chapter 4 presents the research paper “Neurodevelopment impact of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum in neonates: experimental study in a rat model” published in the *Journal of Surgical Research*.

Chapter 5 displays the results regarding the impact of the thoracic CO₂-insufflation in the format of a research paper entitled “Peripheral and central inflammatory response and long-term behavioral assessment after neonatal CO₂-Pneumothorax: study in a rodent model” published in the *Journal of Pediatric Surgery*.

The final part of this thesis comprises the two last chapters. Chapter 6 gives an integrative overview of the results and a general discussion and finally, Chapter 8 displays the main conclusions drawn from this work.

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CHAPTER 3.

Animal model

Animal facility videoendoscopic intubation station: tips and tricks from mice to rabbits

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Animal facility videoendoscopic intubation station: tips and tricks from mice to rabbits

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Abstract

Endotracheal intubation of laboratory animals is a common procedure shared by several research fields for different purposes, such as mechanical ventilation of anaesthetized animals, instillation of cytotoxic nanoparticles, infectious agents or tumour cells for induction of disease models, and even for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. These different research purposes, achieved in different animal models, require technical expertise and equipment that suits every research need from animal facilities. In this short report we propose a videoendoscopic intubation station that could be shared among the most common laboratory animals, namely the mouse, rat, guinea pig and rabbit, from neonates to adult animals. This report aims to contribute to the reduction of animals excluded from experiments due to false paths during direct and blind intubations and to the refinement of procedures by replacing surgical approaches such as tracheotomy.

Keywords

endotracheal intubation, videoendoscopy, reduction, refinement

Anaesthesia of laboratory animals is a generalized procedure in laboratory animal science; however, endotracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation is often impossible to perform due to a lack of specialized equipment and an absence of trained personnel in laboratory animal intubation.

Appropriate ventilation of anaesthetized laboratory animals may be imperative when fundamental physiological processes are being studied and normal blood pH, oxygen saturation (sO₂) and partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO₂) are desirable.¹ Additionally, it allows resuscitation when respiratory arrest occurs, especially when drugs that induce marked respiratory depression are being used.²

Endotracheal intubation also allows the delivery of inhalation anaesthesia, a method preferred in large laboratory animal anaesthesia since it combines the advantages of mechanical ventilation with the benefits of inhalation anaesthesia. Studies on endotracheal intubation with inhalation anaesthesia in mice and rats have also been published, suggesting their feasibility in small laboratory animals.^{3,4}

The endotracheal route is also used for the induction of pulmonary diseases such as specific occupational diseases contracted by exposure to cytotoxic

nanoparticles,⁵ and instillation of tumour cells for lung cancer research,⁶ and is even used as a route of infection in pulmonary infection models such as tuberculosis.⁷ Furthermore, this route has recently been explored for new therapeutic strategies.⁸

Due to the different body sizes of laboratory animals and their specific anatomic features, strategies described for videoendoscopic intubation require specie-specific tips and equipment.^{1,3,4,9,10} By combining and optimizing these specie-specific strategies, we present a videoendoscopic intubation station that can be shared among the most commonly used species housed in an animal facility, by applying the same intubation technique.

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Animals used in this work were included in research projects underway in the institution, with each project being approved by the animal ethics committee of the Institution and by Direção Geral de Alimentação e Veterinária (DGAV), the competent national authority for animal protection. All personnel involved in the procedures were approved as competent for animal experimentation by DGAV.

Two animals of each species were used: *Mus musculus*, *Rattus norvegicus*, *Cavia porcellus* and *Oryctolagus cuniculus*. Animals were anaesthetized intraperitoneally with a combination of ketamine and medetomidine.

All species were intubated with the help of a videoendoscopic system with a 1.9 mm diameter, 10 cm length, 30° endoscope (HOPKINS II Telescope; Karl Storz GmbH, Tuttlingen, Germany) and a Telepack X System (Karl Storz GmbH) comprising a light source and an endoscopic camera (Figure 1).

For the right-handed operator, animals were positioned in right lateral recumbency, the endoscope was handled with the left hand and the endotracheal tube with the right hand via the following steps (Figure 2):

1. The endoscope tip was introduced into the mouth above the tongue with the bevel pointed dorsally, allowing visualization of the palate.
2. The endoscope was advanced until visualization of palatine veins was achieved (Figure 2, column 1). By following the palatine veins, the edge of the soft palate was visualized covering the epiglottis and closing the laryngeal opening.
3. Gentle pressure was applied on the soft palate with the tip of the endoscope and the palate was displaced dorsally allowing the epiglottis to fall, thereby

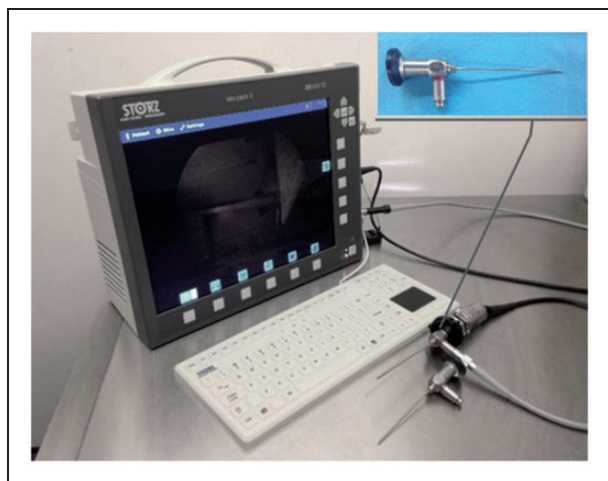


Figure 1. Videoendoscopic intubation station consisting of a 1.9 mm, 10 cm, 30° endoscope and a Telepack X System with a light source and endoscopic camera.

- allowing visualization of the laryngeal opening (Figure 2, column 2). (If the epiglottis is already ventral to the soft palate, this step is no longer needed.)
4. The endoscope was withdrawn slightly and vocal cords were visualized. An endotracheal tube was inserted into the mouth, parallel to the scope (Figure 2, column 3).
5. The endotracheal tube was then aligned with the laryngeal opening and advanced through the vocal cords during inspiration, taking advantage of the opening of the glottis. Spinning movements of the endotracheal tube helped its progression (Figure 2, column 4).

This side-by-side technique uses an endoscope with a very small diameter (1.9 mm) as a laryngoscope to lower the base of the tongue and the epiglottis. The 30° angled tip favours endoscope progression and allows a wide view over the soft palate. The endoscope enters the mouth laterally to the large incisors and the animal's lateral position favours this approach. The camera head can be supported at the operating table while progressing through the mouth, allowing a more stable image. The animal's lateral position has advantages over the dorsal position since the tongue does not fall over the endoscope, nor does it need to be held during endoscope progression and intubation. During intubation, the scope remains in the oral cavity and only the endotracheal tube progresses through the vocal cords. Therefore, this technique can be applied in animals, such as mice and neonatal rats, which require endotracheal tubes with smaller diameters than the scope, as long as their mouth opening allows the progression of the scope (1.9 mm). For these reasons, only one person is required, and no mouth gags are needed for mouth opening or platforms for specific body positions.

Guinea pigs present a unique anatomy with a soft palate continuous with the palatoglossal arches and the base of the tongue.¹¹ Only a small palatal ostium is visualized (Figure 2, column 3) and the soft palate must be displaced in order to visualize the epiglottis and the small laryngeal opening (Figure 2, row C). The choice of endotracheal tubes should be made according to the species, and adjustments must be made according to the size of the animals within the species:

- *Mus musculus* (26 ± 1 g): 24 G intravenous catheter
- *Rattus norvegicus* (360 ± 15 g): 18 G intravenous catheter
- *Cavia porcellus* (380 ± 12 g): 18 G intravenous catheter
- *Oryctolagus cuniculus* (2300 ± 152 g): 2.5 mm internal diameter

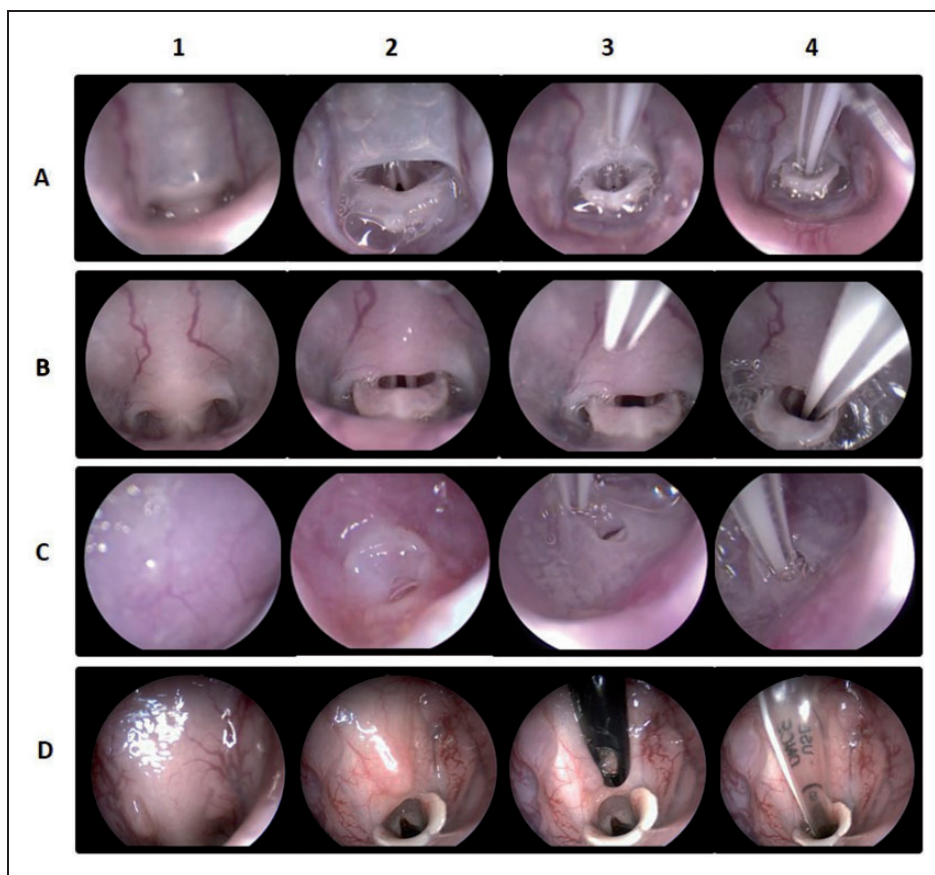


Figure 2. Videoendoscopic intubation of laboratory animals using a 1.9 mm and 30° Hopkins rigid endoscope. View of glottis of the mouse (row A); rat (row B); guinea pig (row C) and rabbit (row D). Visualization of the palatine veins and the soft palate (column 1); visualization of the epiglottis and vocal cords after dorsal displacement of the soft palate (column 2) – except for the guinea pig in which the epiglottis is behind the palatal ostium which makes it difficult to lower and exteriorize; introduction of the endotracheal tube side-by-side with the endoscope (column 3); Introduction of the endotracheal tube through the vocal cords, inside the trachea. (column 4).

Although the initial investment in a videoendoscopic station by the animal facility may be higher than the cost of the equipment used for direct intubation, this cost is not prohibitive and may be justified by the general usage by researchers in a greater variety of animal models, for the most diverse research fields and for procedures requiring endotracheal access.

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CHAPTER 4.

CO₂-pneumoperitoneum

**Neurodevelopment impact of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum in neonates:
experimental study in a rat model**

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Neurodevelopment impact of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum in neonates: experimental study in a rat model



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ABSTRACT

Background: Laparoscopy is becoming more common in neonates. However, concerns remain about the impact of the carbon-dioxide (CO₂)-insufflation over the neonatal brain. We aim to evaluate the peripheral (serum) and central (cerebrospinal fluid [CSF]) cytokine response after neonatal CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and its impact over neurodevelopmental milestones acquisition and long-term behavioral outcomes.

Materials and methods: Rats were subjected to a systematic assessment of neurodevelopmental milestones between postnatal day 1 (PND 1) and PND 21. At PND 10, neonatal rats were anesthetized, mechanically ventilated, and exposed to different pressures and times of abdominal CO₂-insufflation. Immediately after pneumoperitoneum, corticosterone was analyzed in serum. Twenty-four hours after intervention, serum and CSF were collected to assess inflammatory response (interleukin [IL]-10, IL-1 β , tumor necrosis factor [TNF]- α , and interferon [IFN]- γ). In adulthood, animals from each group were submitted to several tests to assess different behavioral domains (locomotion, anxiety, mood, and cognition).

Results: The antiinflammatory cytokine IL-10 was significantly increased in CSF in CO₂-insufflated groups, with no other significant changes in the other biomarkers. Acquisition of neurodevelopmental milestones was maintained in all studied groups. No significant differences were observed in adult behavior in the different CO₂-insufflation conditions.

Conclusions: Neonatal CO₂-pneumoperitoneum does not seem to have any negative impact on neurodevelopment or induce behavioral alterations in adulthood. Minimally invasive surgery results in a central antiinflammatory profile, and further studies on the functional consequences of these phenomena are needed.

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Introduction

Minimally invasive surgery (MIS) has been widely used in adult patients, and the natural translation to infants and neonates

was easily anticipated.^{1,2} The following factors have contributed to the success of its application in neonatal patients: the continuous development of technology and instruments and the increasing number of MIS training courses.³

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As in adults, laparoscopic surgery brings to neonates numerous advantages over the traditional open surgery, such as less time until full feeding, less postoperative emesis and less postoperative pain.^{2,4,5} However, little is known about the impact of the metabolic, hemodynamic, and inflammatory changes induced by the carbon-dioxide (CO₂) pneumoperitoneum over the developing organs of neonates, namely the brain. Recently, several communications focused on the neurodevelopmental impact of general anesthetic and sedation drugs in children aged <3 years have been suggesting a putative mechanism of neurotoxicity during this vulnerable period of life, where the brain is still under development.^{6,7} But concerns have also been extended to the type of surgical approach applied in this population,⁸ with the minimally invasive approaches and the neurodevelopmental impact of peritoneal CO₂-insufflation, focus of numerous recent publications.^{9–12} Since many questions are still without clear answers, any finding on the isolated effects of these surgical-related events will result in critical changes in neonatal medical practice. Therefore, additional preclinical and clinical research on anesthesia, mechanical ventilation, postoperative care, and the surgery itself are needed.⁸

Neonatal-brain injury, induced by a variety of insults, is mediated by cytokine production, inflammatory cell recruitment, and neuroinflammation.⁸ It is known that any surgical event promotes an inflammatory response; however, in non-neurological surgeries, the central inflammatory response and its deleterious impact are described as being different according to the type of surgery, being the cardiac surgery associated with the most concerning outcomes.^{13–16} In addition, the inflammatory response in central nervous system (CNS), as a consequence of peripheral surgery, has been associated with postoperative delirium, cognitive decline, and depression, especially in elderly patients.^{17–19} To our knowledge, the effect of abdominal CO₂-insufflation in the central inflammatory response is completely unknown. In this work, we evaluated the impact of abdominal CO₂-insufflation on peripheral and central inflammatory response and its impact on neurodevelopment milestones acquisition and in the long-term adult behavior.

Methods

This study was performed following the EU Directive 2010/63/EU, approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of the institution where the study was performed (SECVS 093/2013) and by the competent national authority for animal protection Direção Geral de Alimentação e Veterinária (0421/000/000/2015). All personnel involved in the procedures are approved as competent for animal experimentation by the Direção Geral de Alimentação e Veterinária.

Animals

Experimental design is represented in Figure 1. Pregnant Sprague Dawley rats (Charles River, Barcelona, Spain) were maintained in an animal facility with controlled temperature (22°C), humidity, and artificial 12-h light/dark cycle (from 8:00 a.m. to 8:00 p.m.). Irradiated food and sterilized water were available *ad libitum*. Nest material was provided to each dam, and no bedding changes were performed on the last days of pregnancy. The day of delivery was designated as postnatal day (PND) 0 and, on PND 1, each litter was adjusted to eight male pups. Males were chosen because it is suggested that slight differences may not reach statistical significance in studies performed in females due to higher resistance to brain senescence.²⁰

Anesthesia, mechanical ventilation, and CO₂-insufflation

On PND10, the pups were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of a combination of ketamine 40 mg kg⁻¹ (Imalgene, Merial, France) and xylazine 5 mg kg⁻¹ (Rompum, Bayer, Germany) and endotracheally intubated with the help of a videoendoscopic system as described by Miranda *et al.*²¹ Animals were connected to a rodent ventilator (SAR-1000 Small Animal Ventilator, CWE Inc, PA) and ventilator settings were adjusted until achievement of physiological blood pH (7.35–7.45), PaCO₂ (35–45 mmHg) and oxygen saturation (sO₂)

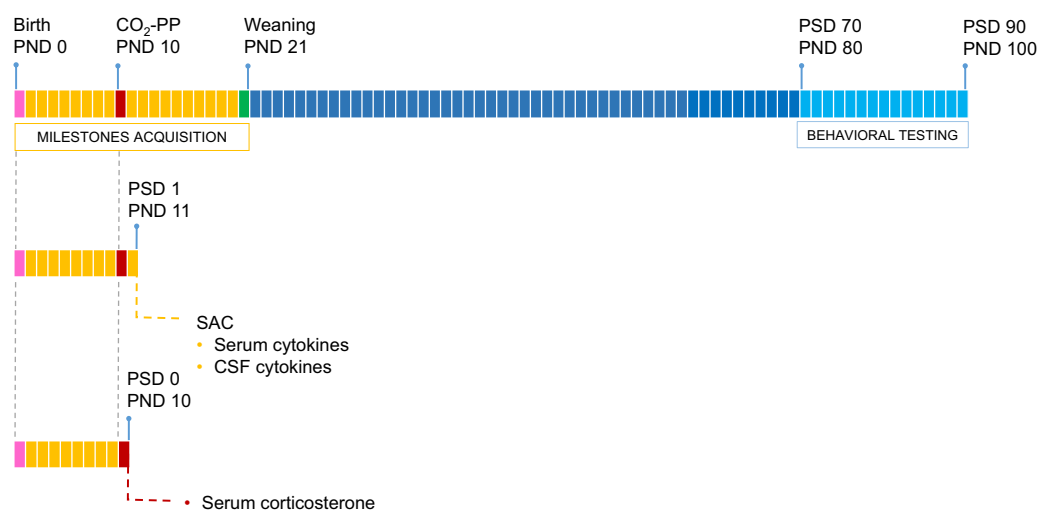


Fig. 1 – Experimental timeline: birth (pink); insufflation day (red); weaning (green). PSD = postsurgical day; PND = postnatal day. (Color version of figure is available online.)

above 95% (i-Stat analyzer, Abbott, Chicago, IL). Body temperature was maintained at 37°C during the procedures with a homeothermic pad (ATC2000, World Precision Instruments, UK).

For the CO₂-insufflation groups, a 20-gauge catheter was inserted in the right lower quadrant of the abdomen and connected to an electronic endoflator (Karl Storz GmbH & Co, Germany) at a flow rate 0.1 L/min. Insufflation pressures of 8 mmHg (PP₈) or 12 mmHg (PP₁₂) were applied, and animals were insufflated for 30 (minor procedure). The same groups were constituted for 60-minute insufflation (major procedure) but were only submitted to corticosterone measurements and long-term behavioral analysis. Since CO₂-insufflation groups required artificial ventilation and the respiration method could contribute to the observed differences, an additional control group (PP₀) was included to assess the influence of mechanical ventilation. SHAM animals were not submitted to anesthesia or CO₂-insufflation. For cytokine analysis, an additional open surgery (OPEN) group was included, in which animals were anesthetized, mechanically ventilated, and submitted to an exploratory laparotomy. Every experimental group included animals from at least two different litters.

Blood and cerebrospinal fluid sampling for multiplex analysis

Blood samples from the carotid artery were collected immediately after CO₂-insufflation for serum corticosterone determinations. Additional blood sampling was performed 24h after the CO₂-insufflation for cytokine measurements (IL-10, IL-1β, TNFα, and IFNγ). Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) sampling for cytokine measurement was performed in the cisterna magna, 24h after the surgical approach. Corticosterone and cytokine levels were determined by multiplex analysis on a Luminex MAGPIX instrument (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) using a Milliplex MAP Rat Stress Hormone Magnetic Bead Panel and a Milliplex MAP Rat Cytokine/Chemokine Magnetic Bead Panel (Merck Millipore, Billerica, MA), respectively.

Neurodevelopment milestones

Neurodevelopmental assessment included analysis of physical growth and maturation and acquisition of neurological reflexes.²² Evaluator was blind to experimental treatment.

Somatic parameters

Animals were weighed daily from PND 2 to PND 21. Day of eye and ear opening were recorded as indicative of physical maturation.

Neurological reflexes

Neurological reflexes were evaluated daily at 9:00 a.m. from PND 2 to PND 21. The following reflexes were evaluated: i) walking: newborns were observed for 1 minute, and mature walking was considered when the animal could move with the body completely supported by the four limbs, without dragging the belly over the surface; ii) air-righting reflex: each newborn was held on its back 30 cm above a soft surface. The animal was released, and the position in which the animal

reached the soft pad was recorded. The reflex was achieved when the neonate landed on the surface with all four paws.

Behavioral tests

At 3 month of age, animals were submitted to behavioral testing for 10 consecutive days, between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m. Behavioral tests were performed in the following order: sucrose preference test, elevated plus maze, open field (OF) test, novel object recognition (NOR), forced swimming test (FST) and Morris water maze (MWM).

Sucrose consumption test

Anhedonia was assessed after two habituation trials. Animals were presented with two preweighed drinking bottles, one with water and the other with 1% (m/v) sucrose. Before testing, rats were food- and water-deprived for 18 h and exposed to the drinking solutions for 1 h. Sucrose preference was calculated according to the formula: sucrose preference = [sucrose intake/(sucrose intake + water intake)] × 100.

Elevated plus maze

Anxiety-like behavior was evaluated in a 5-minute session in a plus maze containing two open arms and two closed arms (MED-NIRPMNR; Med Associates Inc, St Albans, VT), as previously described.²³ Animals were placed in the central junction facing an open arm, and an entry in the arm was defined when all four paws were positioned within one arm. The percentage of time spent in the open arm was used as an index of anxiety-like behavior (time spent in the open arms/total time spent in all arms). The degree of anxiety was indirectly related to the time spent in the open arms.

Open field

This test was performed to assess locomotor and anxious-like behavior. Animals were tested individually for 5 minutes in a transparent acrylic square arena with a white floor (43.2 × 43.2 cm) illuminated by a bright white light. The session started with the animal placed in the center of the arena and, with a 16-beam infrared system and a tracking software, the position of the animal was monitored using the Activity Monitor software (Med Associates Inc, VT), considering two previously defined areas as follows: a central (10.8 × 10.8 cm) and an outer area. The following parameters were recorded: (i) ratio between the distance traveled in the central area/total distance traveled (a measure of anxious-like behavior) and (ii) total distance traveled (a measure of general locomotor activity).

Novel object recognition test

Cognitive function was assessed in the NOR test. Rats were habituated to the testing arena for 10 minutes. On the next day, for 10 minutes, each animal was allowed to explore two identical objects placed in the arena. An hour later, the rats explored the same arena for 5 minutes but this time with one familiar object and one novel object. Recognition memory was expressed by the percentage of time spent exploring the novel object (time of exploration novel object/total time of exploration).

Forced swimming test

The FST was used to evaluate the ability of rats to cope with an inescapable situation (behavioral despair), as a measure of depressive-like behavior. Each animal was placed in a transparent cylinder (27 cm diameter), filled with water (25°C) to a depth of 50 cm, so the rat had no solid support for the rear paws or tail. Assays were conducted 24 h after a 10-minute pretest session, by placing the rats in the cylinders for 5 min. A video camera was used to record test sessions and was later scored by an investigator kept blind to the experimental groups. Latency to immobility (time that each animal takes from the beginning of the test to stop for the first time) and time of immobility (time that the animal stayed floating without evident efforts to escape) were assessed. Depressive-like behavior was defined as an increase in time of immobility and a decrease in latency to immobility.²⁴

Morris water maze

The MWM test was designed to study the animal's capacity to learn the platform location for 4 consecutive days—spatial reference memory [65]. MWM was made in a black, circular tank (170 cm diameter), filled with water (24°C) to a depth of 31 cm in a dimly illuminated room with spatial clues on the walls. A video camera fixed on the ceiling, above the center of the tank, captured the image to a video tracking system (View Point, Champagne au Mont d'Or, France). Four virtual quadrants were then assigned, and a circular platform, 12 cm diameter, 1 cm below the water surface (invisible to the rats) was placed within one of the quadrants. The platform was kept in the same position throughout the test, and the animals were given four trials to find the platform, each trial starting from a different quadrant. The test was performed during 4 days and, in each day, the starting quadrant was different. Trials were automatically completed once the animals reached the platform or 120 s had elapsed, whichever occurred first. If an animal failed to find the platform in 120 s, it was gently guided to it and allowed to remain there for 30 s before starting a new trial. The time to escape to the platform was automatically recorded.

Statistical analysis

All data are presented as the mean \pm standard error of mean (SEM). Normality and homogeneity of variances were checked with Shapiro–Wilk and Lavene's tests, respectively. Whenever appropriate, data were analyzed by one-way or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test was applied for *post hoc* analysis. Statistical analysis was conducted using statistical software (IBM SPSS Statistics, version 22 for Windows.). Overall, tests were considered significant when $P < 0.05$. As a measure of the magnitude of a difference, the effect size (practical significance) was calculated as follows²⁵: for the one-way ANOVA, the eta-square (η^2) was calculated as the ratio of the between-group's sum of squares (SS_{btw}) and the total SS (SS_{tot} ; $\eta^2 = SS_{btw}/SS_{tot}$); for the two-way ANOVA the partial η^2 (η^2_p) was calculated as the ratio between the SS_{btw} and the sum of the SS_{btw} and the residual SS [SS_{res} ; $\eta^2_p = SS_{btw}/(SS_{btw} + SS_{res})$]. For η^2 and η^2_p , a small effect size was considered for values between at least 0.01 and less than 0.06,

medium between at least 0.06 and less than 0.14, and a large effect size at least 0.14.

Results

Peripheral and central cytokine profile

Twenty-four hours after pneumoperitoneum, serum IL-10 concentrations did not significantly differ between the groups ($F_{(4;40)} = 0.4693$, $P = 0.7579$, $\eta^2 = 0.04956$); however, a tendency in increased concentration is observed in CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups, [Figure 2A1](#). But interestingly, statistically significant differences were found in CSF IL-10 levels ($F_{(4;29)} = 4.783$, $P = 0.0053$, $\eta^2 = 0.4335$). Bonferroni's multiple comparison showed that the animals submitted to very high pneumoperitoneum insufflation pressures (PP₁₂) presented statistically significant higher IL-10 concentrations when compared to SHAM ($P < 0.05$) and OPEN groups ($P < 0.05$), [Figure 2A2](#). Regarding the proinflammatory cytokines analyzed, no main effect was observed in the surgical approach over IL-1 β ($F_{(4;40)} = 1.260$, $P = 0.3037$, $\eta^2 = 0.1228$) and IFN γ ($F_{(4;40)} = 1.534$, $P = 0.2136$, $\eta^2 = 0.1492$) concentrations, respectively [Figure 2B1](#), [C1](#). However, regarding serum TNF α concentrations, it was observed that statistically significant differences exist between the groups ($F_{(4;40)} = 4.776$, $P = 0.0034$, $\eta^2 = 0.3467$). Bonferroni's *post hoc* test showed that the animals submitted to open surgery presented significant higher serum levels of TNF α when compared with animals submitted to pneumoperitoneum [Figure 2D1](#). In respect to proinflammatory cytokines, no significant differences were observed between groups in CSF IL-1 β ($P = 0.9352$), IFN γ ($P = 0.4447$), and TNF α ($P = 0.2631$), [Figure 2B2-D2](#).

Stress response

Statistically significant differences were observed regarding corticosterone concentrations ($F_{(4;40)} = 10.06$, $P < 0.0001$, $\eta^2 = 0.5897$). Bonferroni's multiple comparisons showed that SHAM animal presented statistically significant lower corticosterone levels when compared to all other groups ($P_{SHAM \text{ versus } PPO} < 0.05$), ($P_{SHAM \text{ versus } PP8} < 0.05$), ($P_{SHAM \text{ versus } PP12} < 0.001$), and ($P_{SHAM \text{ versus } OPEN} < 0.001$), [Figure 3A](#). When evaluating the effect of CO₂-insufflation time (30 min and 60 min) and CO₂-insufflation pressure (8 mmHg and 12 mmHg) by 2-way ANOVA, no effect of insufflation pressure, insufflation time or interaction effect was observed over corticosterone production ($F_{(2;30)} = 2.109$, $P = 0.1390$, $\eta^2_p = 0.0309$), ($F_{(1;30)} = 3.855$, $P = 0.0589$, $\eta^2_p = 0.1233$), and ($F_{(2;30)} = 0.4780$, $P = 0.6247$, $\eta^2_p = 0.1139$), respectively [Figure 3B](#).

Developmental milestones acquisition

Regarding body weight, no statistically significant differences were observed between groups from birth until weaning, [Figure 4A](#). In respect to physical maturation, no statistically significant differences were observed between groups because animals in all groups presented eye opening between PND13 and PND15 and ear opening from PND12 to PND14. Furthermore, no differences were observed in the acquisition of

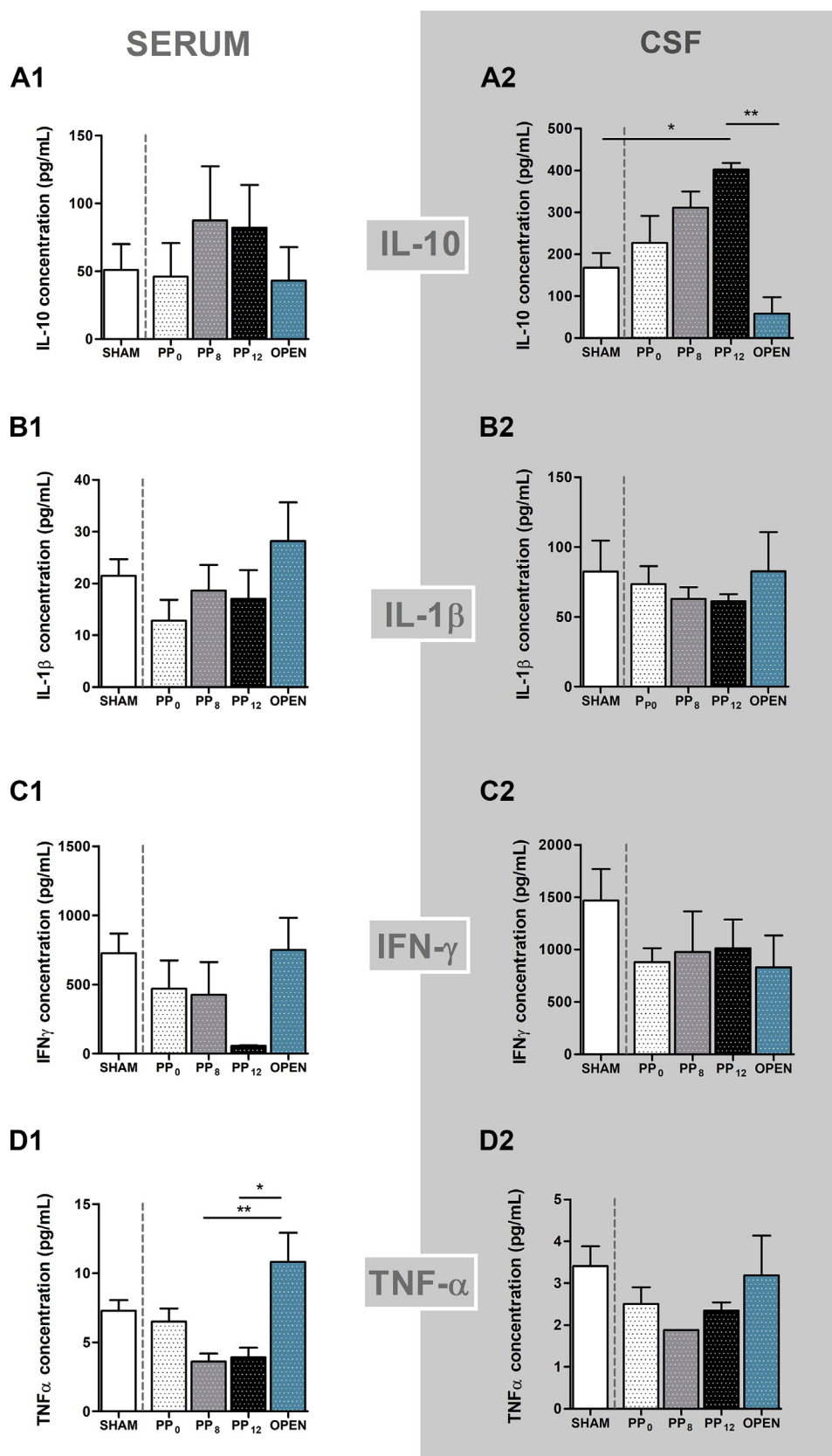


Fig. 2 – IL-10 (A), IL-1 β (B), IFN- γ (C), and TNF- α (D) concentrations 24h after CO₂-insufflation (P30). Serum concentrations (A1, B1, C1, D1) in SHAM (white bars; n = 17), PP₀ (light gray bars; n = 8), PP₈ (dark gray bars; n = 5), PP₁₂ (black bars; n = 5), and OPEN (blue bars n = 6) groups. CSF concentrations (A2, B2, C2, D2) in SHAM (white bars; n = 11), PP₀ (light gray bars; n = 8), PP₈ (dark gray bars; n = 4), PP₁₂ (black bars; n = 4) and OPEN (blue bars n = 4) groups. Data analyzed in a one-way ANOVA. Values represented as mean + SEM. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001. (Color version of figure is available online.)

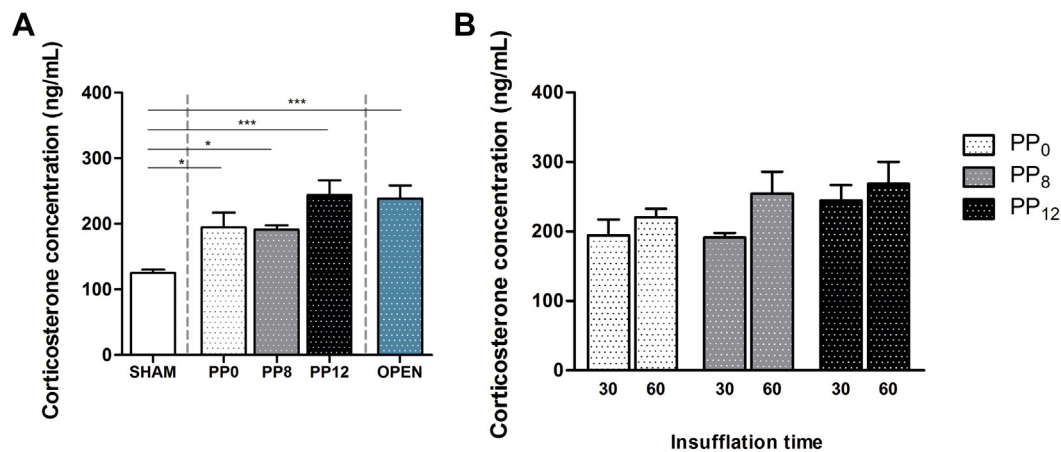


Fig. 3 – (A) Serum corticosterone levels after 30-minute CO₂-insufflation (P30) in SHAM (white bars; n = 8), PP₀ (light gray bars; n = 6), PP₈ (dark gray bars; n = 7), PP₁₂ (black bars; n = 6), and OPEN (blue bars; n = 6) groups. Group means were compared by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post hoc multiple comparison test. (B) Serum corticosterone levels in animals submitted to 30- or 60-minute CO₂-insufflation (P30 versus P60). Differences between PP₀, PP₈, and PP₁₂ groups were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA. Results represented as mean + SEM. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.001. (Color version of figure is available online.)**

air-righting reflex, with animals presenting the innate response between PND14 and PND16. Animals displayed similar neurodevelopmental profile regarding walking ability, acquired between PND11 and PND14, **Figure 4B**.

Long-term behavior

In anxious-like behavior, evaluated using the ratio of time spent in the open arms versus total time of the elevated plus maze test, no effect of CO₂-insufflation pressure, insufflation time, or interaction effect was observed, ($F_{(2,92)} = 2.183$, $P = 0.1185$, $\eta^2_P = 0.045$), ($F_{(1,92)} = 0.534$, $P = 0.467$, $\eta^2_P = 0.006$), and ($F_{(2,92)} = 0.610$, $P = 0.545$, $\eta^2_P = 0.013$), respectively. In addition, all groups were compared with SHAM animals, and no differences were observed ($F_{(6,132)} = 1.215$, $P = 0.3026$,

$\eta^2 = 0.05233$), **Figure 5A**. The ratio of distance walked in the central area versus total distance traveled in the OF test was also assessed as measure of anxious-like behavior, and again no effect of CO₂-insufflation pressure, insufflation time, or interaction effect was observed, ($F_{(2,97)} = 1.603$, $P = 0.207$, $\eta^2_P = 0.032$), ($F_{(1,97)} = 0.167$, $P = 0.684$, $\eta^2_P = 0.002$), and ($F_{(2,97)} = 0.627$, $P = 0.536$, $\eta^2_P = 0.013$), respectively. When comparing all groups with SHAM animals, no statistically significant differences were observed ($F_{(6,139)} = 0.6202$, $P = 0.7138$, $\eta^2_P = 0.026$), **Figure 5B**. The total distance traveled in the OF arena was used as a measure of locomotor activity, and no effect of the CO₂-insufflation pressure ($F_{(2,96)} = 0.4159$, $P = 0.6609$, $\eta^2_P = 0.009$), duration of insufflation ($F_{(2,96)} = 0.043$, $P = 0.835$, $\eta^2_P = 0.000$), or any interaction effect was observed ($F_{(2,96)} = 0.188$, $P = 0.829$, $\eta^2_P = 0.004$). Furthermore, no

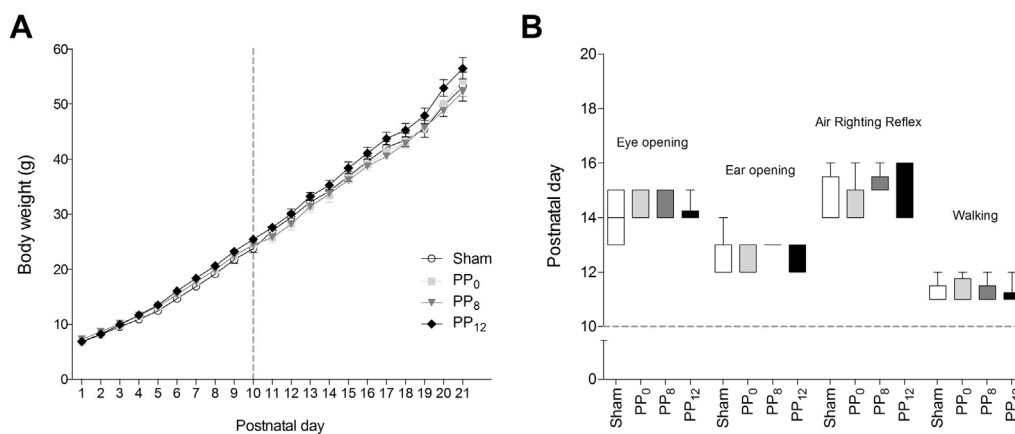


Fig. 4 – Developmental milestones after 30-minute CO₂-insufflation (P30) in SHAM (white symbols); PP₀ (light gray symbols); PP₈ (dark gray symbols); and PP₁₂ (black symbols). Dashed line corresponds to insufflation day. (A) Body weight gain from birth until weaning. (B) Somatic development and neurological reflexes acquisition. Results presented as median PND at which animals showed a mature response: eye opening, ear opening, air-righting reflex, and mature walking.

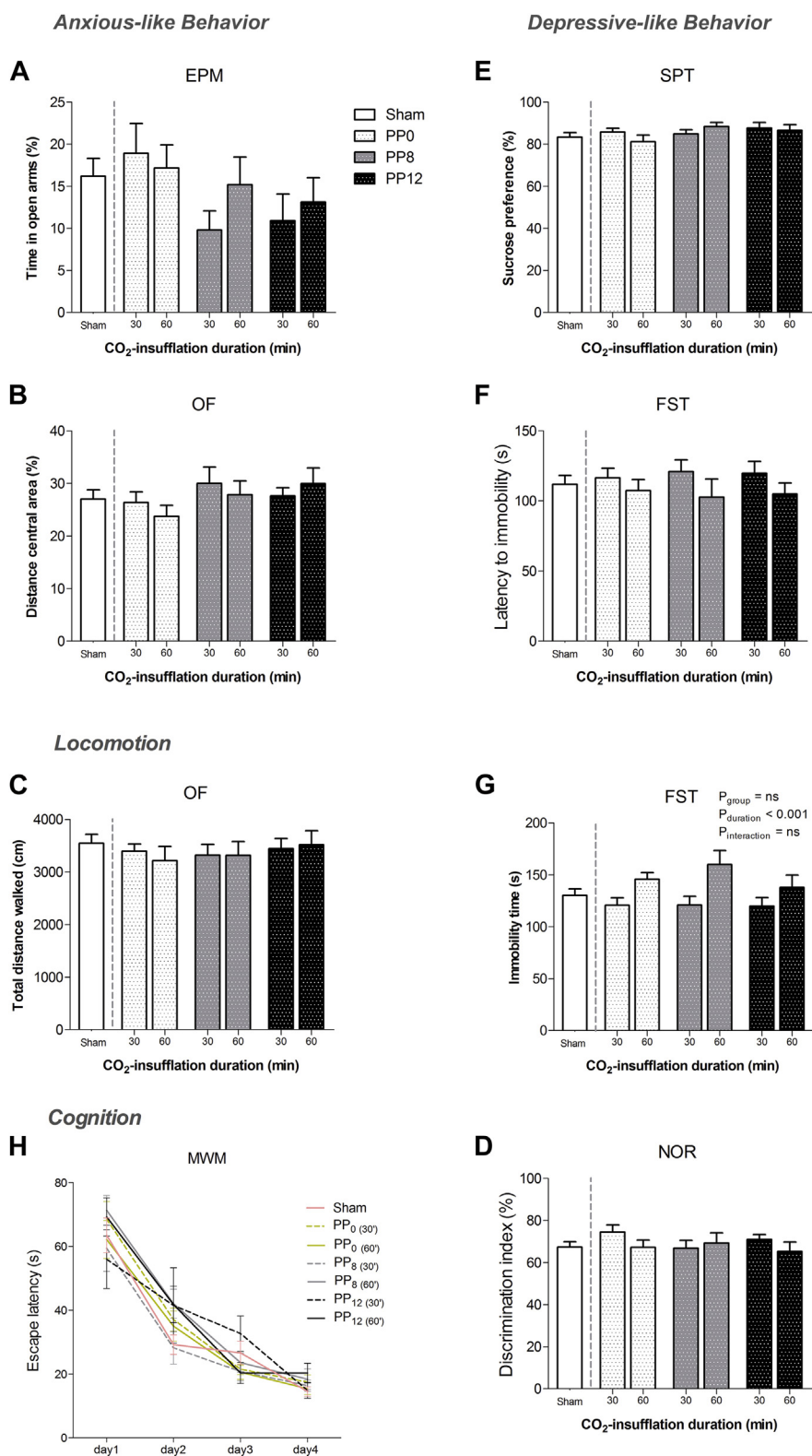


Fig. 5 – Behavioral tests performed in adult animals, 3 months after CO₂-insufflation: SHAM animals (white bars; $n = 43$); PP₀ (light gray bars; $n_{30\text{min}} = 23$; $n_{60\text{min}} = 13$); PP₈ (dark gray bar; $n_{30\text{min}} = 16$; $n_{60\text{min}} = 16$); and PP₁₂ (black bars; $n_{30\text{min}} = 19$; $n_{60\text{min}} = 15$). (A) Time in open arms in elevated plus maze (EPM) test and (B) percentage of distance traveled in the center of the OF arena as measure of anxious-like behavior; (C) Total distance traveled in the OF arena as measure of locomotor activity; (E) Percentage of sucrose consumption in sucrose preference test (SPT) and (F) Latency to immobility and (G) Immobility time in FST as measure of depressive-like behavior; (D) Discrimination index in the NOR test and (H) Escape latency time in MWM test for cognitive assessment. Results represented as mean + SEM from two independent experiments. (Color version of figure is available online.)

differences were observed between groups when compared with SHAM animals ($F_{(6;138)} = 0.3147$, $P = 0.9285$, $\eta^2_p = 0.0135$), **Figure 5C**.

Depressive-like behavior was addressed using the sucrose preference test and FST. No effect of the CO₂-insufflation pressure ($F_{(2;97)} = 1.491$, $P = 0.2302$, $\eta^2_p = 0.03$), insufflation duration ($F_{(1;97)} = 0.1443$, $P = 0.7049$, $\eta^2_p = 0.001$) or any interaction effect ($F_{(2;96)} = 1.443$, $P = 0.2413$, $\eta^2_p = 0.029$) was observed in the sucrose consumption. When comparing to SHAM animals, by one-way ANOVA, no differences were observed between groups ($F_{(6;139)} = 0.9122$, $P = 0.4881$, $\eta^2 = 0.039$), **Figure 5E**. The same profile was observed in the FST, where no effect of CO₂-insufflation pressure ($F_{(2;97)} = 0.0025$, $P = 0.9975$, $\eta^2_p = 0.00$), insufflation duration ($F_{(1;97)} = 3.607$, $P = 0.0605$, $\eta^2_p = 0.036$), or interaction effect ($F_{(2;97)} = 0.131$, $P = 0.878$, $\eta^2_p = 0.003$) was observed over latency to immobility **Figure 5F**. In the same test, no effect of CO₂-insufflation pressure ($F_{(2;97)} = 0.7405$, $P = 0.4795$, $\eta^2_p = 0.015$) or any interaction effect ($F_{(2;97)} = 0.6150$, $P = 0.5428$, $\eta^2_p = 0.013$) was observed, but interestingly an effect of insufflation duration ($F_{(2;97)} = 12.336$, $P = 0.001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.113$) was observed in total immobility time, with the animals submitted to 60-minute procedure, presenting increased immobility time, regardless the application of CO₂-insufflation **Figure 5G**. When comparing all groups with SHAM animals, no statistical significant differences were observed in latency to immobility time ($F_{(6;139)} = 0.6046$, $P = 0.7263$, $\eta^2 = 0.025$) and in total immobility time ($F_{(2;97)} = 2.582$, $P = 0.0211$, $\eta^2 = 0.1003$).

Spatial reference memory was assessed in MWM, and it was observed that no statistical significant differences exist between the groups in test performance ($F_{(6;273)} = 0.8061$, $P = 0.5677$, $\eta^2_p = 0.044$), **Figure 5H**. Cognitive function was also assessed by NOR test, and none of the factors, insufflation pressure ($F_{(2;87)} = 0.3441$, $P = 0.7098$, $\eta^2_p = 0.008$), insufflation duration ($F_{(1;87)} = 1.090$, $P = 0.299$, $\eta^2_p = 0.012$), or any interaction effect ($F_{(2;87)} = 0.754$, $P = 0.473$, $\eta^2_p = 0.017$) influenced the test performance. No differences were observed between groups when compared with SHAM group ($F_{(6;130)} = 0.8358$, $P = 0.5444$, $\eta^2_p = 0.037$), **Figure 5D**.

Discussion

Every surgical event promotes an inflammatory response, but changes in the CNS are less known, especially during non-neurological surgery. The local and systemic inflammatory mediators produced after a surgical trauma have been shown to influence inflammatory process in the brain, leading to the activation of the microglia and concurrent endogenous production of cytokines.²⁶ The aim of the present study was to investigate the acute postoperative changes in peripheral and central inflammatory cytokines after CO₂-pneumoperitoneum in a neonatal rodent model and evaluate the long-term effects of CO₂-insufflation on adult behavior.

In our study, open surgery was the condition that leads to more disturbances in peripheral proinflammatory cytokines, showing significantly increased serum levels of TNF α , whereas in CO₂-insufflation groups this proinflammatory profile was not observed. During MIS, macrophages have been pointed as the primer CO₂-cellular target via inhibition of

proinflammatory cytokine production. *In vitro* experiments have shown an inhibition of proinflammatory cytokine production by lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated peritoneal macrophages obtained from animals previously submitted to capnoperitoneum.²⁷ The same inhibition was obtained in LPS-stimulated macrophages incubated with CO₂, whereas no inhibition was obtained when incubated with helium or air.²⁸ Moreover, *in vivo* studies reported that a CO₂-insufflation pretreatment significantly reduces IL-6 plasma levels after LPS-contaminated laparotomy²⁹ and decrease ascites volume, inflammatory cell number and serum TNF α and IL-6 levels in acute pancreatitis model.³⁰ All these studies were performed in models of sepsis, which in this context leads to an exacerbation of the modifying effects of CO₂-insufflation on the inflammatory response. Although our study was performed in aseptic conditions, because our aim was to evaluate the isolated effect of pneumoperitoneum, we were able to identify significant differences in acutely measured proinflammatory marker TNF α when comparing open surgery with pneumoperitoneum groups, which confirms the significantly different inflammatory profile of the two surgical approaches. Interestingly, the observed changes in the serum TNF α levels in the OPEN group were not found in the CSF, suggesting that this peripheral inflammation did not impact on the CNS homeostasis. However, it is important to highlight that our OPEN group was only submitted to abdominal wall opening, which does not exactly mimic an open surgery, in which organs and organ systems are disturbed.

Regarding the serum levels of the antiinflammatory cytokine IL-10, although the differences were not statistically significant between groups, the pneumoperitoneum groups presented a tendency in increased concentrations of this antiinflammatory cytokine. This tendency is in good accordance with the literature because an increase in IL-10 levels was observed in the LPS-sepsis models submitted to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, having contributed to increased survival rates and suggesting a “rescuing” capability of the capnoperitoneum.³¹ The upstream mechanisms of this antiinflammatory profile are yet to be identified, but interestingly, the same study described increased peripheral IL-10 production in animals submitted to acidification of the peritoneal cavity, whether induced by CO₂-pneumoperitoneum or by peritoneal acidic buffered lavage.³² Interestingly, in our CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups, it was observed an increase in CSF IL-10 levels, with significantly increased levels in the group exposed to high CO₂-insufflation pressures (PP₁₂). Since peripheral IL-10 does not seem to cross the intact blood–brain barrier,³³ it is possible that circulating IL-10 acts directly in the brain through regions devoided of the blood–brain barrier, such as the circumventricular organs and the choroid plexus.³⁴ Furthermore, it is also suggested that peripherally produced cytokines can elicit CNS inflammation by binding to receptors associated with peripheral afferent nerves, such as part of the vagus nerve, which relay signals to the brain that set off cytokine synthesis.^{35–38} However, in our work, we observed a much greater increase in CSF IL-10 levels than in serum, and similar phenomena were observed in human patients submitted to nonneurological surgery, suggesting that an inflammatory reaction in CNS could be elicited independently of the systemic one.^{13,39} Although this study does not

include a follow-up on the peripheral and central inflammatory response, human studies have shown that after surgery, and without continuous stimuli, peripheral cytokine levels return to baseline levels.^{40,41} For this reason, this study aimed to evaluate the acute central inflammatory response in the first 24h, which is the postoperative period where the most disturbing inflammatory peripheral changes occur. Future follow-up studies will help to clarify whether this central antiinflammatory profile lasts over time, even without continuous external stimuli (the CO₂-insufflation).

Since corticosterone is also an antiinflammatory molecule produced upon a stress response, we also have evaluated its production in our model. We observed that anesthesia and mechanical ventilation itself result in increased corticosterone levels when comparing to SHAM, which is not aggravated by CO₂-insufflation. Another important aspect is that OPEN group presented corticosterone levels similarly high. Moreover, in CO₂-insufflation groups, the surgical stress does not seem to be aggravated by duplicating the insufflation time from 30 minutes to 60 minutes. In our study, since corticosterone levels in pneumoperitoneum groups did not exceed the values from OPEN group, we considered that the stress response elicited by CO₂-insufflation is, therefore, lower or equivalent (when applying very high insufflation pressures) to the stress response elicited by open surgical approaches. Therefore, if this early-life event has contributed to a long-lasting disruption in the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis function and to increased basal levels of corticosterone in the adult progeny, this would occur regardless the CO₂-insufflation.

The interplay between corticosterone during the first days of life and several parameters of the immune system has been shown to impact adult behavior.⁴² In fact, studies have demonstrated that chronic stress during early postnatal life has two important neurodevelopmental outcomes: accelerate some somatic milestones, while delaying the acquisition of neurological reflexes.⁴³ In our study, CO₂-pneumoperitoneum had no impact on physical growth and maturation, as well as over sensorimotor development. It is important to recall that, although corticosterone levels significantly increased when compared to SHAM animals, this was secondary to an acute and single stressful event in neonatal life which, in our study, seems to result in no significant outcome over neurodevelopment. Moreover, the CO₂-insufflation during the postnatal period did not induce any long-term alterations in the following several behavioral domains analyzed: locomotion, anxiety, depression, and cognition. One aspect that needs further study is the observed trend to the depressive-like behavior of groups submitted to 60-minute intervention, including PP₀ group. This finding suggests that the duration of neonatal anesthesia and mechanical ventilation might contribute to long-term outcomes in adult behavior, rather than capnoperitoneum itself. This finding might suggest that whenever MIS approaches contribute to the reduction of the length of surgical procedures, this might be beneficial to avoid any long-term behavioral outcomes.

The absence of peripheral and central proinflammatory response, combined with an antiinflammatory profile, in animals submitted to CO₂-insufflation, could have

contributed to the absence of alterations both on the development milestones and adult behavior. Recent studies have found that synaptic function and neurodevelopment are regulated through the interaction of the IL-10 released from the microglia with the IL-10 receptors expressed on the hippocampal neurons in the early neurodevelopmental stage. Moreover, IL-10 was shown to increase the number of dendritic spines and excitatory and inhibitory synapses, even without external stimuli.⁴⁴ The role of IL-10 was also demonstrated in other works, where activated regulatory T-cells promoted neuronal stem cell proliferation via IL-10, suggesting a new therapeutic approach for ischemic stroke.⁴⁵

In summary, MIS results in a peripheral and central antiinflammatory profile, and further studies on the quantification of IL-10 in different brain regions after pneumoperitoneum may help to clarify whether this antiinflammatory cytokine has a protective role in the neonatal brain after the surgically related harms. The findings of this work may also be a forerunner for the study of the incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction after MIS versus open surgery, especially in elderly patients. Postsurgical neuroinflammation has been associated with impaired cognitive functioning,^{17,46,47} which together with the age-related alterations in immune regulation may account for the increased incidence of these surgical-related behavioral changes in the elderly.^{48,49} Moreover, inhibition of central proinflammatory cytokine signaling was shown to attenuate postoperative memory impairment in rodents.^{26,50-52} Therefore, if MIS approaches lead to less inflammation and even contribute to an antiinflammatory profile, the incidence of postoperative cognitive dysfunction may be different between patients submitted to MIS versus open surgery. The replacement of open surgery by MIS may later result in less surgery-induced changes in cognition and mood in elderly patients. Further preclinical and clinical studies may help to clarify this issue.

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Authors' contribution: A.M. conducted animal experiments, data analysis and interpretation, and manuscript writing. J.C.P. and J.M.P. designed experiments and contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

Disclosure

The authors report no proprietary or commercial interest in any product mentioned or concept discussed in this article.

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CHAPTER 5.

CO₂-pneumothorax

Peripheral and central inflammatory response and long-term behavioral assessment after neonatal CO₂-Pneumothorax: study in a rodent model

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Inflammatory response and long-term behavioral assessment after neonatal CO₂-pneumothorax: study in a rodent model

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ABSTRACT

Background: Carbon-dioxide (CO₂)-pneumothorax during minimally invasive surgery induces well-known metabolic changes. However, little is known about its impact on the central nervous system. The aim of this work is to evaluate the acute impact of CO₂-pneumothorax over central cytokine response and its long-term effect on animal behavior.

Methods: This is an experimental study where neonatal Sprague–Dawley rats are submitted to CO₂-pneumothorax. Peripheral and central cytokine response was evaluated 24 h after insufflation, and peripheral immune cell phenotyping was evaluated 24 h and 4 weeks post-insufflation. Progenitor cell survival was evaluated in the hippocampal dentate gyrus, and the behavioral analysis was performed in adulthood to test cognition, anxious-like, and depressive-like behavior.

Results: Significantly increased IL-10 levels were observed in the cerebrospinal-fluid (CSF) of animals submitted to CO₂-pneumothorax, while no differences were found in serum. Regarding pro-inflammatory cytokines, no differences were observed in the periphery or centrally. CO₂-pneumothorax event did not alter the survival of newborn cells in the hippocampal dentate gyrus, and no impact on long-term behavior was observed.

Conclusions: Neonatal animals submitted to CO₂-pneumothorax present acutely increased CSF IL-10 levels. The CO₂-pneumothorax seems to result in no significant outcome over neurodevelopment as no functional behavioral alterations were observed in adulthood.

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The thoracoscopic repair of congenital malformations in neonatal patients has been increasingly performed in the last decade. Esophageal atresia (EA) is one of the conditions that have been taking advantage of this minimally invasive approach since its first performance by Rothenberg and Lobe in 1999 [1]. In recent years, numerous reports on the successful outcomes of this minimally invasive approach have been published [2], however pertinent concerns about the safety of the CO₂-pneumothorax have been drawing the attention of health professionals. The effects on brain oxygenation and perfusion are the most investigated events [3–6]. It has become of utmost importance the investment in research studies to unravel the acute and long-term effects of CO₂-insufflation in neonatal patients [7]. Being a relatively recent surgical approach, the long-term human studies are far from being

completed, and the use of altricial neonatal animal models may in the meanwhile contribute to clarify some of those concerning issues, as well as allow to explore the acute changes at the brain level during CO₂-pneumothorax.

Every surgical event promotes a stress response, that when excessive can lead to systemic inflammatory response and prolonged catabolism of body stores [8]. Considering that the function of the immune cells can be inferred by parameters such as cytokine milieu, and knowing the correlation between cytokine production in neonates and long-term morbidity [9], it is important to understand the interplay between several parameters of the immune system after CO₂-pneumothorax event, and their relationship with long-term behavior. To unravel those issues, we made use of a neonatal rodent model where the peripheral and central cytokine response after CO₂-pneumothorax was evaluated. The functional consequences of this early-life event were assessed by evaluating progenitor cell survival in the hippocampal dentate gyrus (DG), an important neurogenic area highly involved in cognition, and by long-term behavioral assessment of cognition, anxious-like and depressive-like behavior when adults.

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1. Materials and methods

This study was approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of the Institution where the study was performed (SECVS 093/2013) and by the competent national authority for animal protection Direção Geral de Alimentação e Veterinária (DGAV) (0421/000/000/2015). All the animal procedures were done in accordance with the EU Directive 2010/63/EU and all personnel involved in animal procedures are approved as competent for animal experimentation by DGAV.

1.1. Animals

Sprague Dawley rats (Charles River, Saint-Germain-sur-l'Arbresle, France) were maintained in an animal facility with controlled temperature ($21 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$), humidity (50–60%) and artificial 12-h light/dark cycle (from 8:00 a.m. to 8:00 p.m.). Irradiated food (4RF25–GLP, Mucedola, Settimo Milanese, Italy) and sterilized water were available *ad libitum*. Pregnant females were submitted to daily handling sessions during pregnancy and nest material was provided to each animal cage. No bedding changes were performed on the last days of pregnancy and the day of birth was designated as postnatal day (PND) 0. On PND 1 each litter was adjusted to 8 pups to normalize weight and animals were randomly assigned to the following experimental groups: SHAM, no pneumothorax (PT₀) and pneumothorax of 2 mmHg (PT₂). The experimental timeline is represented in Fig. 1.

1.2. Anesthesia, mechanical ventilation, and CO₂-insufflation

On PND 10, pups were anesthetized with ketamine 40 mg kg^{-1} (Imalgene, Merial, France) and xylazine 5 mg kg^{-1} (Rompum, Bayer, Germany), intraperitoneally. Endotracheal intubation was performed with the help of a videoendoscopic system as described by Miranda et al. [10] and animals were connected to a rodent ventilator (CW-SAR 1000, Small Animal Ventilator, CWE-Inc., USA). A 22-gauge catheter was inserted in the left hemithorax and connected to an electronic endoflator (Karl Storz GmbH & Co, Germany) for 30 min, at an insufflation pressure of 0 mmHg (PT₀) or 2 mmHg (PT₂). In both groups, ventilator settings were adjusted until achievement of physiological blood pH (7.35–7.45), PaCO₂ (35–45 mmHg) and oxygen saturation above 95%, evaluated in arterial blood from the carotid artery. After the insufflation period, animals were allowed to recover from anesthesia and were returned to the dam when breathing and capable of spontaneous movement. Body temperature was controlled with the help of a homoeothermic pad (ATC2000, World Precision Instruments, UK) during anesthesia. Animals from SHAM group were maternally separated and maintained in a warming chamber for the same period as experimental animals. No anesthesia or any additional procedure was performed to SHAM animals.

1.3. Blood sampling for corticosterone and arterial blood gas analysis

Blood sampling from the carotid artery was performed immediately before the end of the CO₂-insufflation time. Serum corticosterone measurements were determined by multiplex analysis on a Luminex MAGPIX instrument (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) using a Milliplex MAP Rat Stress Hormone Magnetic Bead Panel. Blood gas analysis was performed using an i-Stat blood analyzer (CG4+ cartridge; i-Stat analyzer; Abbott, Chicago, IL, USA).

1.4. Blood and CSF sampling for cytokine measurements

Cytokine measurements (IL-10, IL-1 β , TNF α , and IFN γ) were performed in blood and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), 24 h after the surgical approach. Blood and CSF were collected from the carotid artery and cisterna magna, respectively, and cytokine levels were determined by multiplex analysis on a Luminex MAGPIX instrument (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) using a Milliplex MAP Rat Cytokine/Chemokine Magnetic Bead Panel (Merck Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).

1.5. Immune cells phenotyping

The impact of thoracic CO₂-insufflation over immune cell populations was evaluated. Immune cell phenotyping was performed on PND 11 (PSD 1) and PND 38 (PSD 28). For that, under anesthesia, blood was collected in heparinized tubes directly from the aorta. After erythrocytes lysis with ACK lysing buffer, cells from each individual rat were incubated with specific antibodies, according to Table 1. Fifty thousand events were acquired on a BD LSR II flow cytometer using the FACS Diva software. Cell enumeration was performed by using counting beads (AccuCheck counting beads, Invitrogen, USA). Analysis of the cell populations was performed using Flow Jo software (TreeStar, Ashland, OR, USA).

1.6. Immunostaining procedures

The effect of thoracic CO₂-insufflation on the hippocampal cells undergoing division prior to the insufflation event was investigated. Animals received a single intraperitoneal injection of BrdU (300 mg/kg) at PND 9 and were submitted to CO₂-insufflation on PND10. Twenty-eight days after BrdU injection, animals were deeply anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (100 mg/kg i.p.) and transcardially perfused with cold 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer. Brains were collected and processed for immunohistochemistry to evaluate cell survival. Briefly, brain sections, 20 μm thick, were cut in a frozen section cryostat (Leica Instruments, Germany) and every 8th section throughout the hippocampus was processed for BrdU immunohistochemistry (1:50; Dako, Glostrup, Denmark). Cell survival was estimated in the

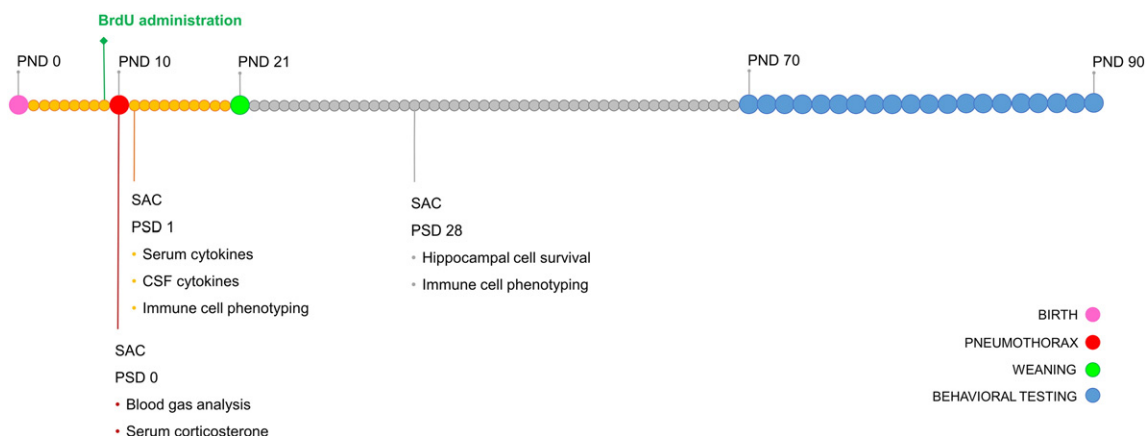


Fig. 1. Experimental timeline: Postnatal day (PND); post-surgical day (PSD); 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU).

Table 1
Antibodies combination for leucocyte identification.

| Antibody | Fluorochrome | Clone | Supplier |
|----------------|--------------|-------|---------------|
| PANEL 1 | | | |
| CD3 | Biot | G4.18 | ebioscience |
| CD45 | FITC | OX-1 | BioLegend |
| CD45RA | APCCy7 | OX-33 | BD Pharmingen |
| CD4 | Pecy7 | W3/25 | BioLegend |
| CD8 | Pe | G28 | Biolegend |
| Streptavidine | BV 421 | | Biolegend |
| PANEL 2 | | | |
| CD161 | Alexa 647 | 10/78 | Biolegend |
| CD11b/c | PercpCy5.5 | Ox-42 | BioLegend |
| CD45 | FITC | OX-1 | BioLegend |
| CD4 | Pecy7 | W3/25 | BioLegend |
| CD3 | Biot | G4.18 | ebioscience |
| Streptavidine | BV 421 | | Biolegend |

subgranular zone (SGZ) and granular cell layer (GCL) of the dentate gyrus by estimating cell density of BrdU positive cells. Briefly, using an Olympus BX51 optical microscope and Newcast software (Visiopharm, Hoersholm, Denmark), every immune-stained cell following inside the contour of the SGZ and GCL was counted, and cell density was estimated as the ratio between the total number of immunostained cells and the area of the SGZ and GCL. Quantification was performed by one researcher blind to the experimental conditions.

1.7. Behavioral testing

Animals were submitted to behavioral testing in adulthood. Behavioral tests were performed on consecutive days, between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m., in the following order: sucrose preference test (SPT), elevated plus maze (EPM), open field test (OFT), novel object recognition (NOR), forced swimming test (FST) and Morris water maze (MWM). During behavioral testing, the researcher was blind to the experimental groups. All tests sessions requiring video recordings were scored by an investigator blind to the experimental groups.

Sucrose consumption test

Anhedonia was assessed by the sucrose consumption test as described by Bessa JM et al. [11]. Briefly, animals were habituated to the sucrose solution during 1 week, in which animals were presented with two pre-weighed drinking bottles, one with water and other with 1% (m/v) sucrose for 1 h. Before each recording, rats were food and water-deprived for 20 h. Percentage of sucrose preference was calculated according to the formula: % sucrose preference = [sucrose intake / (sucrose intake + water intake)] X 100 [12].

Elevated-plus maze

Anxious-like behavior was assessed through the EPM test, in a 5 min session as previously described [13]. The percentage of time spent in the open arms was used as an index of anxious-like behavior (time spent in the open arms/total time spent in all arms). The degree of anxiety was indirectly related to the time spent in the open arms.

Open Field

This test was performed to assess locomotor and exploratory activity [14] and as an additional measure of anxious-like behavior [15]. Animals were tested individually for 5 min in a transparent acrylic square arena (43.2 × 43.2 cm) illuminated by a bright white light. With the help of a 16-beam infrared system and a tracking software, the position of the animal was monitored (Activity Monitor software, MedAssociates, VT, USA) considering two previously defined areas: a central and an outer area. The following parameters were recorded: (i) % time spent in the centre of the arena (measure of anxious-like behavior), (ii) total distance traveled (measure of general locomotor activity) and (iii) number of rearings (measure of exploratory activity).

Novel object recognition test (NOR)

Cognitive function was assessed in the NOR test. Rats were habituated to the testing arena for 10 min. On the next day, each animal was allowed to explore two identical objects placed in the arena for 10 min. One hour later, rats explored the same arena for 5 min, this time with one familiar object and one novel object. Recognition memory was expressed by the percentage of time spent exploring the novel object: (time of exploration novel object/total time of exploration) [16].

Forced swimming test

The FST was used as a measure of depressive-like behavior [17]. Each animal was placed in a transparent cylinder with 40 cm of diameter, filled with water (24 °C) to a depth of 50 cm. Assays were conducted 24 h after a pre-test session, by placing the rats in the cylinders for 5 min. Immobility time (time floating without evident efforts to escape) and latency to immobility (time from the beginning of the test until stop swimming for the first time) were assessed. Depressive-like behavior was defined as an increase in time of immobility and a decrease in latency to immobility.

Morris Water Maze

The MWM test was performed for four consecutive days in a black, circular (170 cm diameter) tank, filled with water (24 °C) to a depth of 31 cm. A video camera fixed on the ceiling captured the image to a video tracking system (Viewpoint, Champagne au Mont d'Or, France). Four virtual quadrants [north (N), east (E), south (S) and west (W)] were then assigned to the computer and a circular platform was placed within one of the quadrants, 1 cm below water surface (invisible to the rats) and kept in the same position throughout the days. Animals were given four trials each day to find the platform, each starting from a different quadrant [18,19]. Trials were automatically ended once the animals reached the platform or 120 s had elapsed. If an animal failed to find the platform, it was guided to it and allowed to remain there for 30 s before starting a new trial. Time to escape to the platform and distance swum during that period were automatically recorded.

1.8. Statistical analysis

Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze learning tasks in MWM. The remaining data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA, and when necessary, *post-hoc* Bonferroni's multiple comparisons was conducted. Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS statistics 20.0 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA). In all cases, statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$. All data are presented as the mean \pm S.E.M. The effect size (practical significance) was calculated as follows: for the one-way ANOVA the eta squared (η^2_p) was calculated as the ratio of the between groups sum of squares (SS_{btw}) and the total SS (SS_{tot} ; $\eta^2 = SS_{btw}/SS_{tot}$); for the two-way ANOVA the partial η^2 (η^2_p) was calculated as the ratio of the SS_{btw} and the sum of the SS_{btw} and the residual SS [SS_{res} ; $\eta^2_p = SS_{btw}/(SS_{btw} + SS_{res})$]. For η^2 and η^2_p , a small effect size was considered for values between at least 0.01 and less than 0.06, medium between at least 0.06 and less than 0.14, and a large effect size at least 0.14 [20].

2. Results

2.1. Serum corticosterone analysis

The analysis of corticosterone production, revealed statistically significant differences between the 3 groups studied ($F_{2,19} = 12.79$; $p < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.6007$). A significant increase in corticosterone levels was observed when comparing SHAM animals with PT_0 ($p < 0.05$) and PT_2 ($p < 0.001$), suggesting that even intubation/mechanical ventilation induce surgical stress, Fig. 2-A.

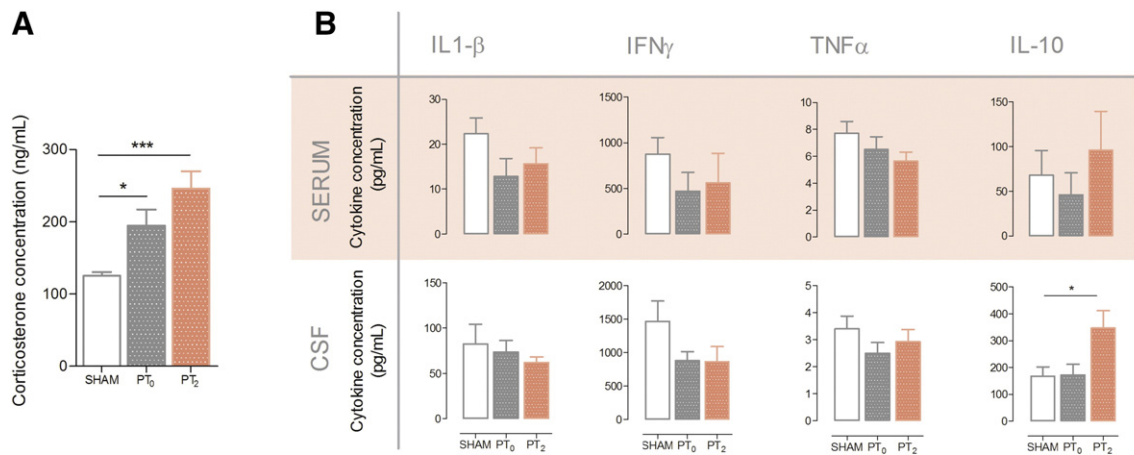


Fig. 2. Serum corticosterone (A) immediately after thoracic CO₂-insufflation in SHAM (white bars; n = 8), PT₀ (gray bars; n = 6) and PT₂ (pink bars; n = 6) groups. Peripheral and central IL-1β, IFN-γ, TNF-α and IL-10 (B) concentrations after thoracic CO₂-insufflation in SHAM (n = 11), PT₀ (n = 8) and PT₂ (n = 7) groups. Serum and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) cytokine concentrations measured 24 h after CO₂-insufflation. Data analyzed using 1-way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni's *post-hoc* multiple comparison test. Values represented as mean + SEM. * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

2.2. Peripheral and central cytokine analysis

24 h after CO₂-insufflation, no significant changes were observed in the peripheral production of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1β ($F_{2,25} = 1.881$; $p = 0.1752$; $\eta^2 = 0.1405$), IFNγ ($F_{2,25} = 0.9719$; $p = 0.3934$; $\eta^2 = 0.07793$), TNFα ($F_{2,25} = 1.421$; $p = 0.2619$; $\eta^2 = 0.1100$). Regarding the anti-inflammatory cytokine, IL-10, no statistically significant differences were also observed ($F_{2,25} = 0.5442$; $p = 0.5876$; $\eta^2 = 0.04518$).

Regarding central inflammatory response, and similarly to what was observed in the periphery, no significant differences were observed in the pro-inflammatory CSF cytokine concentrations IL-1β ($F_{2,24} = 0.321$; $p = 0.7286$; $\eta^2 = 0.02837$), IFNγ ($F_{2,24} = 0.880$; $p = 0.1764$; $\eta^2 = 0.1459$), TNFα ($F_{2,24} = 0.986$; $p = 0.3889$; $\eta^2 = 0.08227$). However, regarding anti-inflammatory cytokines, the IL-10 concentration in CSF was significantly increased in PT₂ group when compared to both SHAM and PT₀ ($F_{2,24} = 4.619$; $p = 0.0211$; $\eta^2 = 0.2957$), Fig. 2-B.

2.3. Immune cell phenotyping

Given the high sensitivity of the immune system to alterations in cytokine milieu, we analyzed the impact of CO₂-pneumothorax in the cell number of main leucocyte populations. No significant differences were observed in total leucocyte cell number at 24 h ($F_{2,21} = 0.7043$; $p = 0.5069$; $\eta^2 = 0.0690$) and at 4 weeks ($F_{2,10} = 0.1840$; $p = 0.8354$; $\eta^2 = 0.0440$) after insufflation, Fig. 3-B(i). When analyzing each leucocyte sub-population, no statistically significant differences were observed in the number of B-cells ($F_{2,21} = 0.3340$; $p = 0.7202$; $\eta^2 = 0.0340$), CD4 ($F_{2,21} = 0.8901$; $p = 0.4271$; $\eta^2 = 0.0857$) and CD8 T-cells ($F_{2,21} = 0.6378$; $p = 0.5394$; $\eta^2 = 0.0629$) at 24 h post-insufflation. The same profile was observed 4 weeks post-insufflation: B-cells ($F_{2,10} = 0.1595$; $p = 0.8552$; $\eta^2 = 0.0383$), CD4 ($F_{2,10} = 1.251$; $p = 0.3367$; $\eta^2 = 0.2382$) and CD8 T-cells ($F_{2,10} = 1.427$; $p = 0.2952$; $\eta^2 = 0.2629$), Fig. 3-B(ii). It was also observed that CD4/CD8 ($F_{(24h) 2,21} = 1.041$; $p = 0.3724$; $\eta^2 = 0.0988$), ($F_{(4w) 2,10} = 0.1749$; $p = 0.8427$; $\eta^2 = 0.0419$) and T/B-cell ($F_{(24h) 2,21} = 0.0318$; $p = 0.9688$; $\eta^2 = 0.0033$), ($F_{(4w) 2,10} = 4.528$; $p = 0.0484$; $\eta^2 = 0.5319$) ratios are well preserved in animal exposed to CO₂-insufflation in both time points, Fig. 3-B(iii). Regarding innate immune system, no differences were observed between groups regarding Monocytes ($F_{2,21} = 1.812$; $p = 0.1904$; $\eta^2 = 0.1602$), Granulocytes ($F_{2,21} = 1.641$; $p = 0.2201$; $\eta^2 = 0.1473$) and NK-cell number ($F_{2,21} = 0.2264$; $p = 0.7995$; $\eta^2 = 0.0233$) 24 h after insufflation. Four weeks later, no disturbances in innate immune system were observed: Monocytes ($F_{2,10} =$

1.117; $p = 0.3792$; $\eta^2 = 0.2420$), Granulocytes ($F_{2,10} = 0.4452$; $p = 0.6577$; $\eta^2 = 0.1128$) and NK-cells ($F_{2,10} = 0.1294$; $p = 0.8807$; $\eta^2 = 0.0357$), Fig. 3B-iv.

2.4. Cell survival

In order to determine the influence of CO₂-pneumothorax on the survival of newborn cells in the hippocampal dentate gyrus, BrdU was administered according to a temporal design, Fig. 1. Briefly, BrdU was injected 24 h before the thoracic CO₂-insufflation, and BrdU positive cells were detected 4 weeks after the injection, Fig. 4A. BrdU-positive cells in SHAM animals revealed to be non-significantly different than animals exposed to mechanical ventilation (PT₀) or thoracic CO₂-insufflation (PT₂) ($F_{2,12} = 0.07603$; $p = 0.9273$; $\eta^2 = 0.0150$), Fig. 4B.

2.5. Behavioral testing

No effect of CO₂-pneumothorax exposure was observed in any of the behavioral tests in which the animals were submitted in adulthood, Fig. 5. In anxious-like behavior, evaluated by EPM test, no differences were observed between groups ($F_{2,30} = 0.6725$; $p = 0.5185$; $\eta^2 = 0.0458$). In OF test, also used as measure of anxious-like behavior by quantifying the distance traveled in the central area of the arena, no significant differences were also observed between groups ($F_{2,31} = 0.4220$; $p = 0.6597$; $\eta^2 = 0.0283$). In the same test, and by evaluating the total distance traveled in the open field arena, we observed that the locomotor behavior was also not altered ($F_{2,31} = 0.2289$; $p = 0.7968$; $\eta^2 = 0.0155$) as well as the exploratory behavior evaluated by the number of rearings ($F_{2,31} = 0.5600$; $p = 0.5773$; $\eta^2 = 0.0372$). Regarding depressive-like behavior, evaluated by the SPT and by the latency to immobility and the total immobility time in FST, no significant differences were observed between groups: SPT ($F_{2,31} = 0.4138$; $p = 0.6650$; $\eta^2 = 0.0278$), FST_{latency} ($F_{2,31} = 0.2939$; $p = 0.7475$; $\eta^2 = 0.0199$) and FST_{immobility} ($F_{2,30} = 2.352$; $p = 0.1137$; $\eta^2 = 0.1438$), respectively. In the cognitive assessment, again, no significant impact of CO₂-pneumothorax exposure was detected in the spatial reference memory in MWM ($F_{2,29} = 1.348$; $p = 0.2757$; $\eta^2_p = 0.0545$) and in NOR ($F_{2,31} = 1.198$; $p = 0.3164$; $\eta^2 = 0.0763$) tests.

3. Discussion

Rodents at postnatal day 7–10 are traditionally used as animal models of developmental brain injury as they are considered equivalent to a term human infant based on the measurement of brain growth

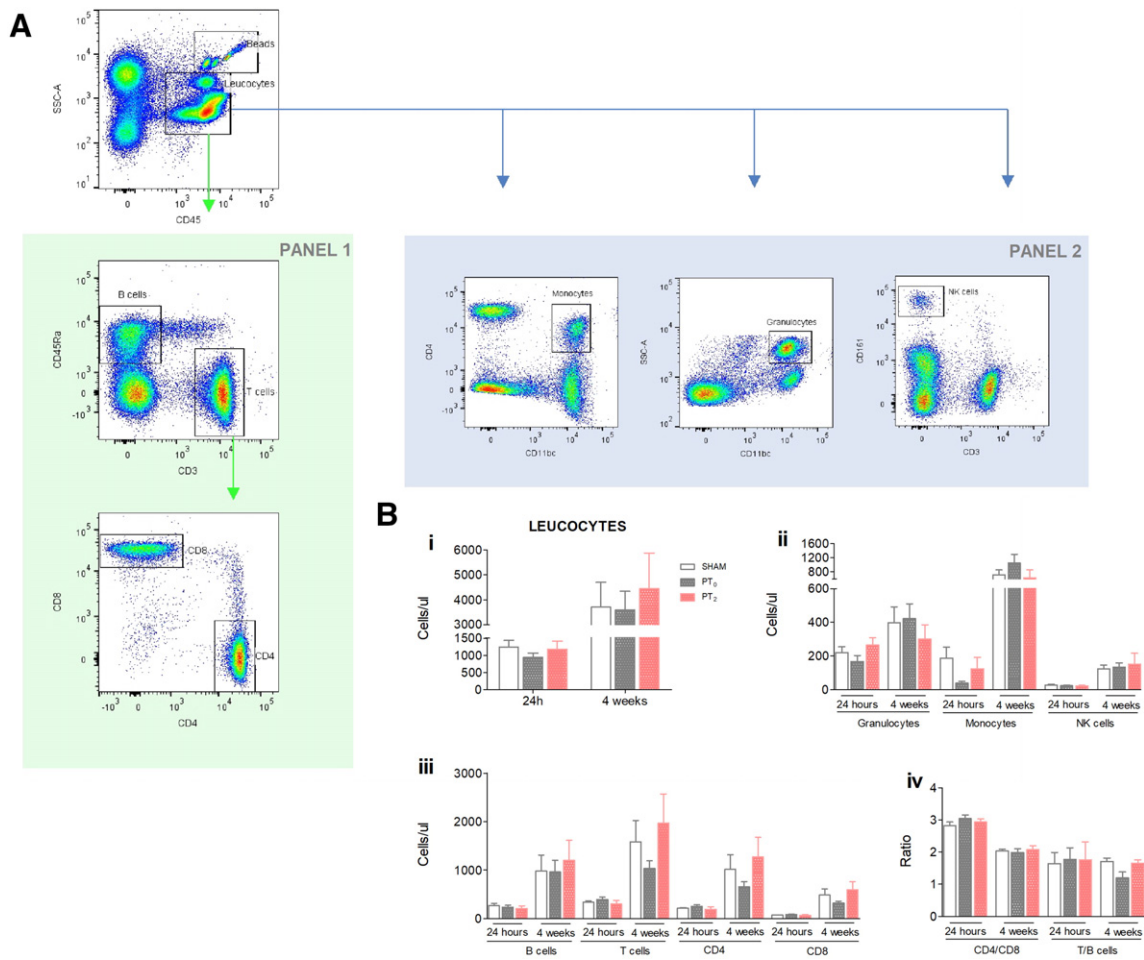


Fig. 3. Blood was processed for flow cytometry and labeled with specific antibodies for general leukocyte identification. Singlets were selected by plotting FCS-H to FSC-A, and leucocyte subset discrimination was obtained by applying the gating strategy represented in (A). Groups were compared by one-way ANOVA (B): adaptive immune system (B-ii); CD4/CD8 and T/B cells ratios (B-iii); and innate cells (B-iv) of the immune system were analyzed 24 h [SHAM (n = 8), PT₀ (n = 7) and PT₂ (n = 7)] and 4 weeks [SHAM (n = 4), PT₀ (n = 4) and PT₂ (n = 3)] after CO₂-insufflation. Each bar represents the mean + SEM.

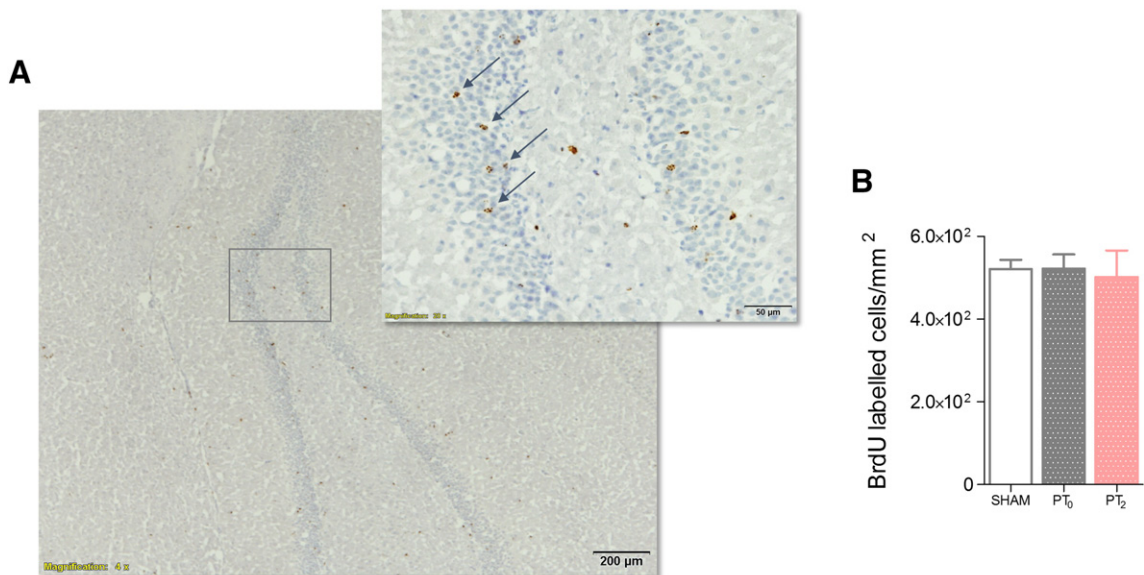


Fig. 4. Coronal sections were taken at the level of the dorsal hippocampus, and BrdU-labeled cells (gray arrows as some examples) were identified in the subgranular zone (SGZ) and granular cell layer (GCL) of the dentate gyrus with optical microscopy (A). The total number of BrdU + cells per mm² was determined 28 days after BrdU administration to examine cell survival (B). SHAM (n = 4), PT₀ (n = 4) and PT₂ (n = 4). Results represented as mean + SEM.

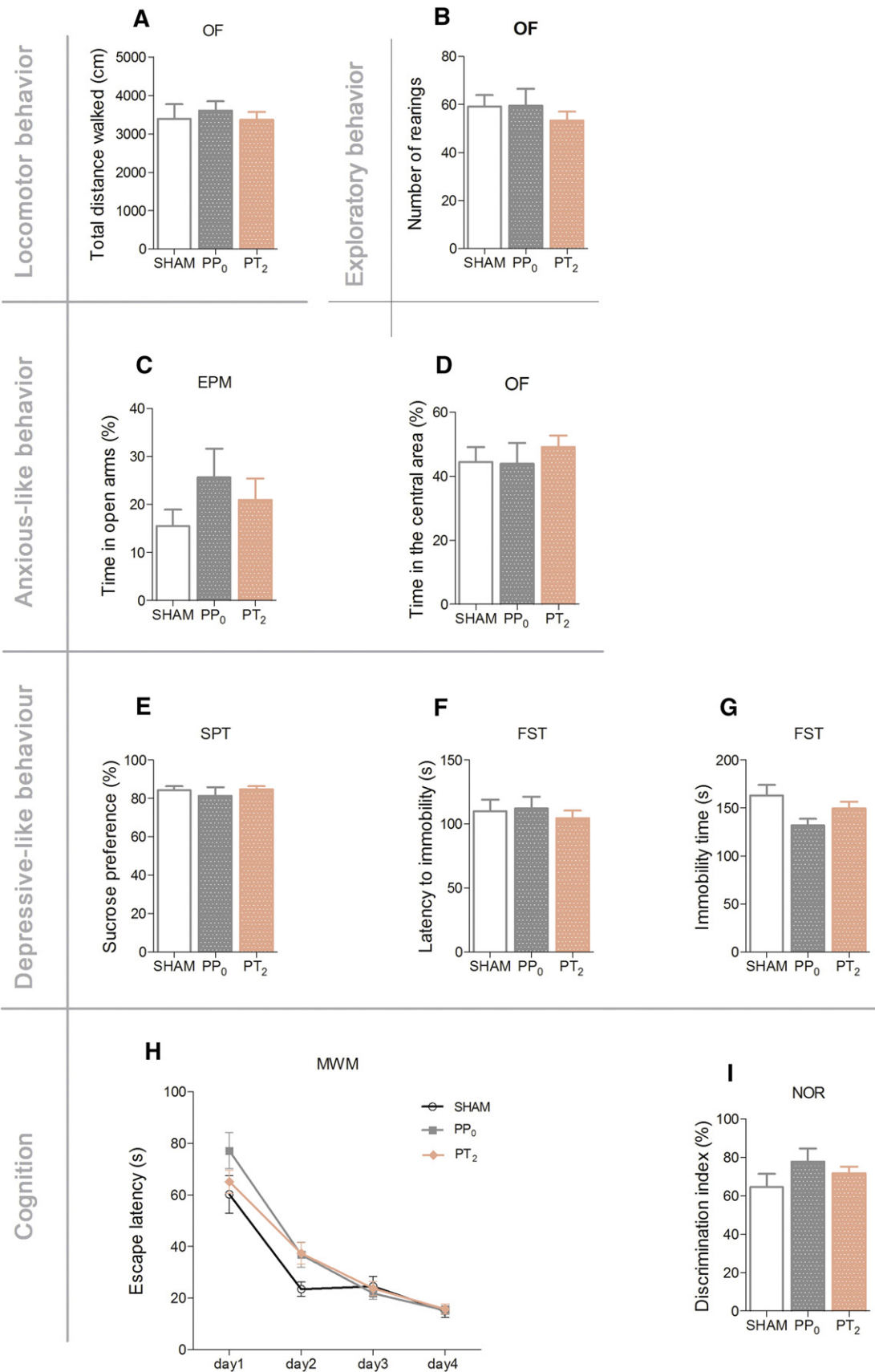


Fig. 5. Adult behavior of rats submitted to CO₂ pneumothorax in neonatal period of life: SHAM animals (white bars); PT₀ (gray bars); PT₂ (pink bars). **Locomotor activity:** (A) Total distance traveled in the open field (OF) arena; **Exploratory behavior:** (B) Number of rearings in the OF arena; **Anxious-like behavior:** (C) Time in open arms in elevated plus maze (EPM) test and (D) percentage of distance traveled in the centre of the OF arena; **Depressive-like behavior:** (E) Percentage of sucrose consumption in SPT and (F) latency to immobility and (G) immobility time in forced swimming test (FST); **Cognitive assessment:** (I) Discrimination index in novel object recognition test (NOR) and (H) escape latency time in Morris water maze (MWM) test. SHAM (n = 7), PP₀ (n = 8) and PT₂ (n = 17). Results represented as mean + SEM.

spurt [21]. More recently, studies comparing time course of postnatal brain development across species considered that, while the time scale is considerably different, the sequence of key events is largely consistent between humans and rodents [22]. The rodent brain development proceeds on a timeline of days versus weeks to months in humans [23]. Therefore, the insufflation period of 30 min applied in our study, although less than the average surgical time for EA repair in humans, will cover relatively larger sequence of brain maturation events when compared to humans. Regarding the insufflation pressure applied in this study, the pressure of 2 mmHg was chosen based on rodent and human CO₂-pneumoperitoneum correlation studies that highlight that the application of human standard working pressures in the rat model will correspond to abnormally high insufflation pressures [24], which may lead to peritoneal capillaries occlusion and microcirculatory failure [25], not simulating routine working pressures employed in humans.

Several studies focused on the early neurodevelopment and long-term psychological outcome of EA surgical repair have been published since many years, associating this high-risk group with psychomotor delay and lower scores in expressive language subscale [26–28] which are associated with either general anesthesia, associated malformations or the surgical approach. However, and since the beginning of the application of minimally invasive surgery in neonatal patients worldwide, no similar longitudinal studies were performed. Recent reports have suggested a potentially deleterious impact of CO₂-insufflation during thoroscopic approaches over neonatal brain owing to perioperative reduction of brain oxygenation [3–5], however no longitudinal studies were performed confirming whether this minimally invasive approach aggravates the developmental alterations previously described, or if those alterations are a consequence of the postoperative morbidity associated with the open-surgical approaches, namely the thoracotomy.

Every surgical insult triggers a stress response, and the presumed role of this response is to prevent secondary damage and increase the availability of substrates required by organs and healing tissues, contributing to animal survival. However, and contrary to the presumption of survival promotion, earlier studies in pediatric patients demonstrated that the attenuation of surgical stress response was associated with improved outcomes and reduced complications. Therefore, efforts are made to minimize the stress response with minimally invasive techniques [29,30]. The increased corticosterone levels observed in our anesthetized and mechanically ventilated control animals suggest that even the anesthetic perioperative management contributes to some degree of surgical stress but, interestingly, the pneumothorax event did not significantly impact corticosterone production when compared to anesthetized control animals, which may indicate no additional significant surgical stress induced by CO₂-pneumothorax. These findings are in good accordance with the literature since video-assisted thoracic surgery is associated with less tissue injury and consequently reduced acute-phase response and early postoperative stress [31,32]. Nevertheless, most studies do not isolate the surgical approach *per se*, associating the surgical approach (thoracotomy vs. thoracoscopy) with the surgical procedure and associated organ trauma, which can overlap the stress effect of CO₂-insufflation.

The surgical stress response reflects a combination of endocrinological, immunological and metabolic changes. Depending on the extent of surgical trauma and neuroendocrine stress response, the systemic glucocorticoid release is many times accompanied by alterations in cytokine production, which modulate the activity of both innate and adaptive immune system. In addition, a surgical insult also triggers a local response, including cytokine production linked to tissue trauma [30]. In our study, we observed that CO₂-pneumothorax did not induce any disturbances in the peripheral pro and anti-inflammatory cytokines when compared to sham or anesthetized control animals. Additionally, no impact on cellular immune system balance was found, since there was no impact on the main leucocyte populations in the blood. Although most human studies compare open thoracotomy with thoroscopic approaches, studies demonstrate that thoroscopic

approaches result in significantly lower levels of inflammatory factors [33,34] and better preserves postoperative immune function [35]. After every surgical event, there is a delicate balance between the production of pro and anti-inflammatory cytokines since an exaggerated pro-inflammatory response may lead to hemodynamic decompensation and multi-organ failure while a compensatory anti-inflammatory response can cause immunosuppression. In this work, we observed that animals submitted to thoracic CO₂-insufflation present a very well preserved immune function, equivalent to SHAM and anesthetized mechanically ventilated animals.

Interestingly, and regarding CSF cytokine concentrations, the observed increase in CSF IL-10 levels of animals submitted to CO₂-pneumothorax suggests a central anti-inflammatory profile not exactly anticipated by the observed serum levels. This finding might suggest that a cytokine response in CNS could be elicited independently of the systemic one, a phenomenon already described in human patients submitted to non-neurological surgery [36,37]. The upstream mechanisms of this central anti-inflammatory profile need further investigation to clarify whether these findings are related with the gas itself or with the mechanical effects of the thoracic insufflation on blood pressure and circulation. The increased intrathoracic pressure caused by the capnothorax may directly affect the venous drainage from the head and neck owing to venous compression. This phenomenon may consequently lead to increased intracranial pressure (ICP) and significant changes in cerebral perfusion and oxygenation. In the literature, there are contradictory findings relating CSF IL-10 levels and variations in ICP and brain oxygenation/perfusion. Studies focused on the interplay between CSF concentrations of anti-inflammatory mediators in patients with severe traumatic brain injury (TBI) have found that CSF IL-10 levels were significantly increased in patients with high ICP [38,39]. Interestingly, a correlation between IL-10 levels and ICP was emphasized by another study, where an experimental increase in ICP was able to induce a systemic release of IL-10 [40] however, the CSF IL-10 levels were not evaluated. On the other hand, additional studies could not find a correlation between IL-10 and ICP [41]. A study focused on the evolution of cytokine patterns in patients with TBI has explored the relationship between CSF cytokines, ICP, and brain tissue oxygenation. The study concluded that there is no clear association between the temporal pattern of CSF IL-10 levels and ICP, brain tissue oxygenation and the presence of swelling in the computed tomography scan. These findings might suggest that IL-10 does not play a role in the pathogenesis of ICP and brain tissue oxygenation and that IL-10 has an independent evolution than these two clinical variables [42]. Studies in patients with TBI may not be ideal to evaluate the impact of ICP on CSF cytokine levels since these patients usually have severe intracranial injuries, many times associated with additional extracranial injuries, which makes difficult the extrapolation to our study. Since brain oxygenation and perfusion was not monitored in our work, future clinical studies addressing CSF cytokine concentrations after MIS must be correlated with these intraoperative parameters.

A single developmental insult can initiate a cascade of alterations that may not be detected structurally or functionally until much later in life. Thus, these effects may be manifested at a time much removed from the critical developmental window. However, we observed that the CO₂-insufflation had no impact on the survival of the newborn hippocampal cells. Additionally, no functional impact was observed in the long-term behavior in any of the behavioral domains analyzed. However, it is important to recall that animals were submitted to a single insufflation event. Repeated and prolonged insufflations may have different long-term outcomes, and further studies must evaluate those experimental conditions.

4. Conclusion

An anti-inflammatory response takes place in the cerebral compartment after MIS. This peculiar distribution of IL-10 needs further

investigation and interpretation of its significance in the postoperative period. Most importantly, the CO₂-insufflation seems to result in no significant outcome over neurodevelopment. This absence of structural and functional alterations might contribute to clarify, step-by-step, some of the ambiguities about the impact of CO₂-insufflation over the immature brain of the neonates.

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CHAPTER 6.

General discussion

With this thesis we aimed to contribute to unravel the impact of CO₂-insufflation over the central nervous system of neonates by using a neonatal rodent model. As a first step, we performed a systematic bibliographic review on the respiratory, cardiovascular and inflammatory response during the CO₂-insufflation and in what way this response may affect the brain related events (Chapter 1). From the abovementioned review it is evident that minimally invasive surgical procedures in neonates and small infants are technically feasible and an increasing number of conditions can benefit from this surgical approach (Lacher *et al.*, 2014). However, recent reports have raised questions about the safety of this surgical approach, especially on the impact of CO₂-insufflation on immature organs and organ systems (Bishay *et al.*, 2011; Tytgat *et al.*, 2015, 2016; Stolwijk *et al.*, 2017; Zani *et al.*, 2017) with no studies evaluating the long-term consequences of this specific early-life event (Bishay *et al.*, 2013; Tytgat *et al.*, 2013). We first describe the development of an endotracheal intubation technique that can be applied in neonatal rats in a safe and reliable way (Chapter 3). The development of this technique allowed the development of an adequate neonatal *in vivo* model to study how CO₂-insufflation influence immunological and neurodevelopmental parameters, which are addressed in Chapter 4 and 5. These topics address the influence of different insufflation-pressures and insufflation-times, as well as different body cavities, thoracic and peritoneal.

6.1. Neonatal rodent endotracheal intubation

Human studies on the impact of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and -pneumothorax are frequently performed under diverse confounding factors like the anaesthetic protocol, ventilatory management, cavity accessed, insufflation pressure, duration of surgery, age of patients, intravascular volume status, degree of Trendelenburg position, and even the influence of

pathological conditions or anatomical defects being corrected (Veekash *et al.*, 2010). All these factors can lead to misleading conclusions and for that reason, studies on animal models represent a great advantage for the evaluation of the acute and long-term impact of CO₂-insufflation, with pig, rabbit, guinea-pig, rat and mouse being the most used animal models (Hazebroek *et al.*, 2002; Molinas *et al.*, 2004; Fuh *et al.*, 2005; Sümpelmann *et al.*, 2006; Bourdel *et al.*, 2007; Stolwijk *et al.*, 2015; Liu *et al.*, 2016). However, most studies on the CO₂-insufflation effects are performed in adult animals, with only a few using neonatal models (Fuh *et al.*, 2005; Stolwijk *et al.*, 2015). Neonates have specific anatomical and physiological characteristics such as an increased peritoneal surface area to mass ratio, low peritoneal and pleural thickness and narrow distance between vessels and serous surface (Kalfa *et al.*, 2005; Lasersohn, 2011). All these factors contribute to higher CO₂-absorption in neonatal patients, which is less obtained when using adult animal models. Another important factor is the ventilatory support in anesthetized animals, which was shown to be essential for the maintenance of physiological blood gas partial pressures and pH, being even more important during CO₂-insufflation, as mechanical ventilation is a key player in the elimination of the absorbed CO₂ and in the maintenance of physiological acid-base status. In anesthetized, spontaneously breathing animals, acidosis, hypercapnia and mild hypoxia inevitably install, and the induction of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum or -pneumothorax in non-ventilated animals exacerbates these events, resulting in severe hypercapnia, acidosis, hypoxia and even death (Hazebroek *et al.*, 2002; Heijnen *et al.*, 2002; Mynbaev *et al.*, 2002; Molinas *et al.*, 2004). The purpose of experimental studies is to extrapolate experimental findings to daily clinical practice and studies may be negatively biased due to adverse cardiorespiratory consequences of CO₂-insufflation in spontaneously breathing animals. In anesthetized laboratory animals, the mechanical ventilation is many times neglected due to technical difficulties associated with false path during blind intubations or with the difficult direct intubations due to the small animal size and limited mouth opening. In this work, there was the need to endotracheal intubate neonatal rats, so they could be properly mechanically ventilated and therefore result in adequate animal models for further

evaluation of the impact of CO₂-insufflation. Only videoendoscopic systems would allow the safe and reliable intubation of neonatal animals with such a narrow mouth opening. The first videoendoscopic intubation technique was described by Worthley *et al.* (Worthley *et al.*, 2000) which used a 10 mm fibre-optic, 0° scope to intubate rabbits. Vergary *et al.* (Vergary *et al.*, 2003) used a 1.7 mm, 0° arthroscope to intubate mice, by applying a guide-wire in the trachea before inserting the endotracheal tube (cannula). To intubate rats, Fuentes *et al.* (Fuentes *et al.*, 2004) used a 3 mm, 30° endoscope, while Clary *et al.* (Clary *et al.*, 2004) chose a 2 mm, 0° endoscope. These two rodent studies used a technique in which the endotracheal tube progresses side-by-side with the endoscope. The supine positioned animals presented their head and neck extended, and a stylet was used to direct the cannula. The described techniques present some difficulties since many tasks must be simultaneously accomplished and are hardly obtained by a single operator: the stable position of the animal, simultaneous camera holding and non-traumatic tongue retraction, and coordinated movements of cannula progression and stylet retraction. All these procedures seem complex to perform in such a limited space as the oral cavity of the neonatal rat. More recently, studies have described over-the-endoscope techniques, which consists in covering the endoscope with the cannula, which progresses once the endoscope is aligned with the laryngeal opening (Konno *et al.*, 2014a; Konno *et al.*, 2014b). However, this technique can only be applied to animals requiring endotracheal tubes with internal diameters greater than the outer diameter of the scopes. In our study, the intubation of PND 10 rats required the optimization of the videoendoscopic intubation techniques already described in the literature, in order to limit the accessory instruments and reduce the number of persons required to successfully perform the technique. Due to the very small internal diameter of the cannula (0,6 mm), over-the-endoscope techniques could not be applied and only the side-by-side techniques could be adopted.

In chapter 3 of this thesis we describe a new videoendoscopic intubation method that can be used to endotracheal intubate neonatal rats. While optimizing our technique, three characteristics were considered as advantageous for the choice of the endoscope: (i) the

smallest outer diameter available, so it can easily progress above the tongue without excessive mouth opening nor oral cavity injury; (ii) 30° endoscope, allowing a wide view of the oral cavity while progressing; and (iii) shorter length possible, so the operator could coordinate camera movements without resulting in huge image changes. The endoscope that joined these three characteristics was a 1.9 mm, 10 cm length, 30° endoscope. Being a 30° endoscope can gently progress above the tongue similarly to a laryngoscope, and its tip can lower the epiglottis, which was hardly obtained with a 0° endoscope. This movement will make the epiglottis to fall and allow the visualization of the laryngeal opening. Regarding the animal position during intubation, our technique allowed the achievement of the following aims: (i) non-traumatic tongue retraction or no retraction at all; (ii) no need for camera head holding and (iii) stable image during cannula progression. The position that combined all these aims was the right lateral recumbency (for the right-handed operator) as the tongue falls by itself to the right side of the animal and no tongue retraction is needed, and the camera head can be hold in the table allowing a stable image. With this technique we could successfully endotracheal intubate PND10 rats, which were further mechanically ventilated. Since this technique was reliable for the intubation of such a small animal model, we hypothesized that other laboratory animal species could benefit from this endotracheal intubation technique for the most varied research purposes (anesthesia delivery, induction of toxic or infectious pulmonary diseases, instillation of tumour cells and even for therapeutic strategies). This technique was then successfully applied to mice, adult rats, guinea pigs and rabbits. We believe that the described technique could be of great value for the refinement of procedures during laboratory animal anesthesia and contribute to the development of better animal models.

6.2. CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and -pneumothorax

The endotracheal intubation of PND 10 rats allowed the proper mechanical ventilation of our neonatal animal model. Arterial blood gas concentrations, pH and oxygen saturation was evaluated and adjusted to physiological ranges by applying respiratory frequency and tidal

volume adjustments in all CO₂-pneumoperitoneum conditions under study, which included different insufflation-pressures and insufflation-times. The insufflation pressures applied in our work were based on rodent and human CO₂-pneumoperitoneum correlation studies highlighting that the application of human standard working pressures in the rat model will correspond to abnormally high insufflation pressures in the rat. Avital *et al.* observed that insufflation pressures > 8 mmHg result in declined CO₂ diffusion through the rat peritoneum due to pressure occlusion of peritoneal capillaries, not simulating routine working pressures employed in humans (Avital *et al.*, 2009). Blobner *et al.* have also demonstrated in the porcine model that peritoneal CO₂-absorption rate is directly correlated with the intrabdominal pressure, but only up to a maximum insufflation pressure of 16 mmHg. The author found that intrabdominal pressures above 16 mmHg in the porcine model caused a reduction of CO₂-absorption rate due to pressure occlusion of peritoneal capillaries (Blobner *et al.*, 1999) and similar findings were obtained in human patients submitted to CO₂-insufflation pressures between 14 to 20 mmHg (Blobner *et al.*, 1993). The insufflation pressures chosen in our study were therefore lower than the standard human insufflation pressures. In our CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups, the applied insufflation pressures of 8 mmHg and 12 mmHg were chosen as equivalent to high and very high-insufflation pressures in humans, respectively.

During surgery, the body mounts a reaction to achieve a new state of homeostasis which is reflected by neuroendocrine, immunologic and metabolic changes. One of the manifestations of the surgical stress response is an increased corticosterone production, and the interplay between corticosterone levels and several parameters of the immune system during the first days of life has been shown to impact adult behavior (Roque *et al.*, 2014). In fact, studies have demonstrated that chronic stress during early postnatal life has two important neurodevelopmental outcomes: accelerate some somatic milestones, while delaying the acquisition of neurological reflexes (Mesquita *et al.*, 2007). In [chapter 4](#) of this thesis, the acute impact of CO₂-pneumoperitoneum on corticosterone production and on the peripheral and central cytokine response was evaluated. We observed that although

corticosterone levels were significantly increased in all groups when compared to SHAM animals, this was secondary to an acute and single stressful event in neonatal life, which seemed to induce no changes in neurodevelopmental milestones acquisition. Moreover, in CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups, the surgical stress does not seem to be aggravated by duplicating the insufflation time from 30 minutes to 60 minutes.

Regarding the peripheral inflammatory changes, open surgery led to significant disturbances in serum TNF α levels when compared to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups. Since no differences were observed between those experimental groups and the controls, this finding may result from the combination of increased TNF α levels in the open surgery group and a possible reduction in TNF α levels in animals submitted to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum. *In vitro* studies have supported our findings, as LPS-stimulated macrophages derived from rats exposed to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum presented a reduced macrophage TNF α production when compared to macrophages derived from animals submitted to gasless or helium laparoscopy and laparotomy (Mathew *et al.*, 1999; Neuhaus *et al.*, 2000). Additionally, *in vivo* studies have reported that a CO₂-insufflation pre-treatment significantly reduces serum TNF α levels in acute pancreatitis model (Machado *et al.*, 2010) and Jacobi *et al.* have demonstrated decreased TNF α plasma levels in rats undergoing laparoscopy with CO₂-insufflation, as compared to controls or helium laparoscopy (Jacobi *et al.*, 1998). Although most studies were performed with sepsis models, leading to an exacerbation of the inflammatory modifying effects of CO₂-insufflation, similar findings were obtained in our work performed in aseptic conditions. Regarding the serum levels of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10, although the differences were not statistically significant between groups, the CO₂-pneumoperitoneum groups presented a tendency in increased concentrations of this anti-inflammatory cytokine. This tendency is in good accordance with Hanly *et al.* and Jacobi *et al.* works that have shown increased serum IL-10 levels in LPS-sepsis and non-sepsis animal models submitted to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum when compared to helium or anesthesia control groups (Jacobi *et al.*, 1998; Hanly *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly, this anti-inflammatory profile was reflected in the CSF of animals submitted to CO₂-

pneumoperitoneum, with significantly increased levels in the group exposed to higher insufflation pressures.

No experimental or clinical studies have evaluated the central inflammatory response after MIS, and the upstream mechanisms of the central cytokine profile found in our study need further investigation to clarify whether this finding is a consequence specific of the gas or if it results from the mechanical effects of the increased intracavity pressure on brain homeostasis, regardless the type of gas used. Based on current literature, there is no clear evidence whether a relation between CSF IL-10 levels and variations in ICP or brain oxygenation/perfusion exists. As most studies correlating central cytokine response and intracranial pressure are performed in traumatic brain injured (TBI) patients (Hayakata *et al.*, 2004; Shiozaki *et al.*, 2005; Kirchhoff *et al.*, 2008; Perez-Barcena *et al.*, 2011), the extrapolation to the context of MIS may not be ideal since TBI patients usually have severe intracranial damages, many times associated with additional extracranial injuries. Additionally, the time of hospital admission and CFS collection after the TBI may result in contradictory findings. For those reasons, further studies specifically addressing CSF cytokine concentrations after MIS must be correlated with intraoperative parameters, as brain oxygenation, perfusion and intracranial pressure. Unlike other cytokines (Pan *et al.*, 1999), IL-10 does not seem to cross the intact blood brain barrier (BBB) (Kastin *et al.*, 2003). The observed increase in CSF IL-10 levels in animals exposed to CO₂-insufflation can result from (i) peripheral circulating IL-10 acting directly in the brain through regions devoided of the blood brain barrier, such as the choroid plexus and the circumventricular organs and (Raison *et al.*, 2006); (ii) peripherally produced cytokines that elicit CNS inflammation by binding to receptors associated with peripheral afferent nerves, such as part of the *vagus* nerve, which relay signals to the brain that set off cytokine synthesis (Maier *et al.*, 1998; Goehler *et al.*, 2000; Gidron *et al.*, 2007; Quan *et al.*, 2007); (iii) activation of microglia by a given external stimuli, which result in the production of several pro-inflammatory mediators, favouring the BBB permeabilization and, ultimately, driving to the infiltration of peripheral cells into the CNS (including macrophages and T cells). IL-10,

similarly to other immune mediators present within the CNS in the context of disease, can be produced by brain-infiltrating immune cells. Macrophages arrival to the CNS will contribute, together with microglia, to the cytokine production or indirectly through the modulation of the tissue microenvironment. Similarly, infiltrating T cells may alter the cytokine *milieu* and thus reprogram microglia responses (González *et al.*, 2014). Although this BBB permeabilization phenomenon is described as occurring in the context of disease, little is known about the possible disruption of BBB during MIS, and whether the mechanical and chemical effects of CO₂-insufflation contributes to changes in BBB integrity and therefore explain the macromolecular circulation of cytokines and cells from those two compartments. Studies on the CNS inflammatory reactions elicited by peripheral surgery have been published, and CSF cytokine levels have been evaluated in patients submitted to peripheral surgery (not involving the CNS or areas of the body innervated by the *vagus* nerve or other afferent cranial nerves) as in knee arthroplasty and hip surgery. Results indicate a lack of correlation between peripheral and central cytokine levels, suggesting that they are separately regulated in response to surgical trauma. These findings support another involved mechanism than the increased BBB permeability and the migration of phagocytic cells into the CNS. However, a subgroup of patients presented increased baseline CSF/serum albumin ratios preoperatively, suggesting that some individuals can present different BBB permeability and be particularly prone to exaggerated inflammatory responses following peripheral surgery (Bromander *et al.*, 2012). In our work, no investigation on BBB permeability changes during CO₂-insufflation was done but further evaluation of BBB integrity should be performed and correlated with IL-10 CSF and serum levels. We observed a much greater increase in CSF IL-10 levels than in serum, and similar phenomena with other cytokines was observed in human patients submitted to non-neurological surgery, suggesting that an inflammatory reaction in CNS could be elicited independently of the systemic one (Bromander *et al.*, 2012; Hirsch *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, it cannot be excluded that the cytokine turnover in the CNS is slower than in the periphery, which might explain the

differences in cytokine levels between those two compartments 24 h after the CO₂-insufflation.

The finding from this thesis suggest that a prolonged central anti-inflammatory environment seems to remain in individuals submitted to MIS. This finding may have implications in other well studied phenomena as the postoperative cognitive decline (POCD). Cognitive impairment, including the conditions of postoperative delirium and POCD, is frequently observed after major surgery (Deiner *et al.*, 2009) and, although risk factors such as advanced age and neurodegenerative processes have been identified, its pathophysiology is still unclear (Moller *et al.*, 1998). It has been demonstrated that surgery causes a persistent and possibly irreversible decrement in memory and learning in a murine model of Alzheimer disease, primarily through a transient activation of neuroinflammation (Tang *et al.*, 2013). Increased expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines in a rodent's hippocampus following surgery was associated with cognitive decline (Rosczyk *et al.*, 2008; Cibelli *et al.*, 2010) and preclinical studies suggest that inflammation is a possible pathogenic mechanism for POCD (Cibelli *et al.*, 2010; Terrando *et al.*, 2010, 2011). The central anti-inflammatory profile observed in our experimental groups submitted to CO₂-insufflation may be a forerunner for the study of the incidence of POCD after MIS *versus* open surgery.

An additional assessment of the functional consequences on adult behavior was performed in our rat model submitted in the neonatal period to different CO₂ insufflation-pressures and insufflation-times. No differences were observed between groups regarding neurodevelopmental milestones acquisition nor in body weight. No insufflation-pressure, insufflation-time or interaction effect was detected in the long-term behavioral evaluation in any of the behavioral domains analysed. Only one study have evaluated the long-term behavioral impact of neonatal CO₂-insufflation in the guinea-pig model and no behavioral deficits were detected in adulthood (Fuh *et al.*, 2005). However, being a precocial animal model (born with a high degree of neuromuscular coordination and neurobehavioral competence, being highly mobile, capable of thermoregulation and independent feeding at birth) the guinea pig is much less likely to be affected by neonatal brain insults compared

with the less mature neonatal rat model. When brain vulnerability is being under study, the different timing of the brain growth spurt of different species must be taken into consideration. The timing of brain development is different in relation to birth in different species and, being the guinea-pigs prenatal brain developers, this factor must be taken in to account when extrapolating results from one species to another (Dobbing *et al.*, 1979). Interestingly, a study performed in pregnant guinea-pigs exposed to CO₂-pneumoperitoneum have shown post-natal hyperactivity in the offspring, traduced in increased locomotor activity when compared to controls (De La Fuente *et al.*, 2003). Our animal model choice was based on the above mentioned factors, as rodents at postnatal day 7–10 are considered equivalent to a term human infant (Dobbing *et al.*, 1979) and studies comparing time course of postnatal brain development across species considered that, while the time scale is considerably different, the sequence of key events is largely consistent between humans and rodents (Semple *et al.*, 2013) being considered a good *in vivo* model for developmental brain injury studies.

Studies in children have shown that, despite the lower insufflation pressures usually applied in thoracoscopic approaches when comparing to laparoscopic ones, the derangement in respiratory function is more pronounced during thoracoscopy (Pacilli *et al.*, 2006; McHoney *et al.*, 2008). Additionally, studies suggest that brain oxygenation might be affected by the hemodynamic disturbances induced by CO₂-insufflation, and authors associated those periods of transient decrease in rScO₂ as being significantly more frequent during thoracoscopy than in abdominal open surgery (Neunhoeffler *et al.*, 2017), suggesting potentially deleterious impact of these events over the developing brain (Bishay *et al.*, 2011; Stolwijk *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, and after exploring the influence of the insufflation-pressure and insufflation-time during CO₂-pneumoperitoneum, we decided to evaluate if the same observations were shared between thoracic and peritoneal CO₂-insufflation regarding the possible functional consequences on adult behavior. Additionally, the peripheral and central cytokine response that accompanied the corticosterone production was analysed in order to

understand if similar phenomena of a central anti-inflammatory profile occurs regardless the cavity being insufflated.

In our work, and similarly with the findings obtained in the pneumoperitoneum study, no functional alterations were detected in any of the behavioral domains analysed, and no impact on the survival of hippocampal newborn cells was observed. Corticosterone levels were increased in anesthetized and mechanically ventilated animals, suggesting that these intraoperative factors contribute to some degree of surgical stress. Additionally, the CO₂-pneumothorax did not result in significant disturbances in the peripheral pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines evaluated in this work but interestingly, the increased CSF concentration of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 was observed, showing that the same phenomena is occurring during CO₂-pneumoperitoneum and -pneumothorax.

Studies on the impact of MIS are mainly focused in highlighting the benefits of MIS over traditional open surgical approaches with respect to postoperative morbidity. However no studies evaluated the immune system of a given patient before and after CO₂-insufflation in MIS, or evaluated how the innate and adaptive immune system is modulated by the CO₂-insufflation. Studies are mainly focused in comparing thoracotomy with thoracoscopic approaches, most of them concluding that MIS results in better preservation of postoperative immune function (Ng *et al.*, 2009; Jones *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, the immune system was evaluated in our pneumothorax model and we observed that CO₂-insufflation has no impact on cellular immune system balance 24h and 4 weeks after the insufflation, as no differences in the main leucocyte population was detected in the blood. This finding suggests a balance between pro- and anti-inflammatory response during CO₂-insufflation and a well preserved immune function, equivalent to non insufflated animals.

The potential lasting neurotoxic effects of agents used to induce general anesthesia and sedation could not be left behind in neonatal surgical studies. Anaesthetic agents administered to young children have been focus of concern for many years (Andropoulos *et al.*, 2017) and the Food and Drug Administration and the American Academy of Paediatrics' recently stated that surgical procedures performed under anesthesia should be avoided in

children younger than 3 years old (Rappaport *et al.*, 2015). Since laparoscopic and thoracoscopic procedures in neonates are considered life-saving surgeries, it is assumed that the risk-benefit is highly analysed, and the cumulative effect of anaesthesia is unavoidable in these young patients. *In vitro* and *In vivo* studies have demonstrated that both N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) antagonists and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) agonists induce functional effects over brain development (Sanders *et al.*, 2013). However, human studies have found that a single exposure to general anesthesia was not associated with poorer neurodevelopmental outcomes (Davidson *et al.*, 2016; Sun *et al.*, 2016) and that the extent of injury induced by anaesthetic agents is related to the pediatric patient's age and with the cumulative anaesthetic dose (Jevtovic-Todorovic *et al.*, 2013). In our neurodevelopmental study, the choice of anaesthetic agent was based on current knowledge on neurotoxic effects but more importantly, regardless the anaesthetic agent chosen, the need to differentiate between the adverse effects of CO₂-insufflation and those associated with the use of anaesthetic agents demanded the inclusion of a SHAM and an anesthetized control group. In this way, we believe that our study was able to evaluate the isolated effects of CO₂-insufflation, rather than evaluating the cumulative effects of anesthesia and CO₂-insufflation.

While no enlightening human studies on the neurodevelopmental impact of MIS are published, our findings give evidence that the neonatal exposure to CO₂-insufflation, either peritoneal or thoracic, do not result in functional long-term deficits. Further studies exploring the functional consequences of the central anti-inflammatory environment developed after the CO₂-exposure will help to understand if the well-known benefits of MIS over traditional open surgical approaches also result from this central anti-inflammatory response.

CHAPTER 7.

Main conclusions

In this thesis we demonstrated a new safe and reliable endotracheal intubation method that can be used from neonatal rats to rabbit models, allowing the adequate mechanical ventilation of many animal surgical models or for the adequate tracheal access for substance delivery.

This is the first study demonstrating a pronounced anti-inflammatory reaction centrally (as reflected in CSF) after MIS. The traditional paradigm of an immunologically privileged CNS is being overturned as experimental and clinical studies have been showing accumulating evidence that the CNS isolation from inflammatory reactions (immune privilege) may not be sustained perioperatively. The functional consequences of our findings in neonatal and pediatric patients submitted to MIS need further preclinical and clinical studies, and the implications of these findings in other surgical associated conditions must be explored. This work demonstrates that CO₂-insufflation does not disturb the peripheral inflammatory cytokine response nor modulates the immune cell function, and that derangements in the immune function after MIS may result from intraoperative factors other than the CO₂-insufflation.

Minimally invasive surgical procedures in neonates and infants are usually limited to those preserving life of children with congenital anomalies. However, survival alone is no longer sufficient for the successful surgical treatment of congenital abnormalities. Morbidity, risk of impaired growth, and developmental delays are factors under scrupulous monitoring by multidisciplinary follow-up teams, but human longitudinal studies are still lacking. In this thesis we demonstrate the absence of functional consequences in adult behavior after the neonatal exposure to CO₂-insufflation, which make us believe that it is safe to continue performing laparoscopic and thoracoscopic surgery in neonatal and pediatric patients. This thesis contributes to the transverse understanding of the impact of MIS in neonates and small infants.

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