

LECTURE 12: THE SHOCK

THE SHOCK

- Shock is an imbalance between oxygen delivery (DO₂) and oxygen demand can result from a reduction in oxygen delivery, maldistribution of blood flow, impaired oxygen utilization or an increase in tissue oxygen requirements
- Left unchecked, shock will result in a fall in oxygen consumption (VO₂), anaerobic metabolism, tissue acidosis and cellular dysfunction leading to multiple organ dysfunction and ultimately death.

Classification of shock

1. Hypovolemic shock

- This is probably the most common and most readily corrected cause of shock in surgical practice, and results from a reduction in intravascular volume secondary to the loss of blood (e.g., trauma, gastrointestinal hemorrhage), plasma (e.g., burns) or water and electrolytes (e.g., vomiting, diarrhea, diabetic ketoacidosis)
- Causes of hypovolemic shock
 1. Gastrointestinal hemorrhage
 - Esophageal bleeding
 - Gastric and duodenal ulceration and bleeding
 - Cancer
 - Trauma
 2. Obstetric hemorrhage
 3. Pulmonary hemorrhage
 - Pulmonary embolus
 - Cancer
 - lung lesions, e.g., tuberculosis
 - Vasculitis
 4. Major blood loss during surgery.

2. Septic shock

- Septic shock results from circulatory and cellular abnormalities occur as part of a dysregulation in host response to infection.
- These changes impair tissue oxygen delivery.
- Significant mortality rate (>40%).
- The 1992 consensus definitions of sepsis (systemic inflammatory response syndrome [SIRS], sepsis, severe sepsis and septic shock) lack sensitivity and specificity.

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- New definitions of (Sepsis-3) used a quick sepsis-related organ failure assessment (qSOFA) score to assess the presence of three symptoms:
 1. Altered mental status.
 2. Low blood pressure (<100 mmHg).
 3. Tachypnea (respiratory rate >22 breaths per minute).
 - If a patient with infection has two or more of these criteria (qSOFA positive) they should be assumed to have sepsis.
 - If qSOFA positive status should investigate for organ dysfunction and give therapy, including critical care referral, as appropriate.
 - Sepsis usually arises from a localized infection, with
 1. Gram negative bacteria (38%).
 2. Gram positive bacteria (52%).
 - The most common sites of infection leading to sepsis are
 1. The lungs (50–70%).
 2. Abdomen (20–25%).
 3. Urinary tract (7–10%).
 4. Skin.
 - Cardiac output typically increases in septic shock to compensate for peripheral vasodilatation.
 - Compounding disturbances in oxygen delivery, mitochondrial dysfunction may block the normal bioenergetic pathways within the cell, impairing oxygen utilization.
 - Septic shock: severe sepsis where circulatory and cellular changes:
 1. Persistent hypotension requiring vasopressors to maintain mean arterial blood pressure > 65 mmHg.
 2. Serum lactate >2 mmol/L despite adequate fluid resuscitation.
3. Cardiogenic shock
- This occurs when the heart is unable to maintain a cardiac output sufficient to meet the metabolic requirements of the body.
 - This ‘pump failure’ can be caused by myocardial infarction, arrhythmias, valve dysfunction, cardiac tamponade, massive pulmonary embolism and tension pneumothorax.

4. Anaphylactic shock

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- This is a severe systemic hypersensitivity reaction following exposure to an agent (allergen) triggering the release of vasoactive mediators (histamine, kinins and prostaglandins) from basophils and mast cells.
- Anaphylaxis may be immunologically mediated (allergic anaphylaxis) or non-immunologically mediated (non-allergic anaphylaxis).
- The clinical features of allergic and non-allergic anaphylaxis may be identical, with shock a frequent manifestation of both.
- Anaphylactic shock results from vasodilatation, intravascular volume redistribution, capillary leak and a reduction in cardiac output.
- Common causes of anaphylaxis include
 1. Drugs (e.g., neuromuscular-blocking drugs, β -lactam antibiotics).
 2. Colloid solutions (e.g., gelatin containing solutions, dextrans).
 3. Radiological contrast media.
 4. Foodstuffs (peanuts, tree nuts, shellfish, dairy products).
- 5. Neurogenic shock
 - This is caused by a loss of sympathetic tone of vascular smooth muscle.
 - This typically occurs following injury to the thoracic or cervical spinal cord and results in profound vasodilatation, a fall in systemic vascular resistance (SVR) and hypotension.
 - A temporary drug-induced form can also occur in 'high' spinal anesthesia.

Clinical effects of shock

1. Nervous system
 - a. Restlessness, confusion, coma.
 - b. Encephalopathy and/or delirium.
2. Renal
 - a. Renal hypoperfusion>> activation of the renin–angiotensin system.
 - b. Oliguria (<0.5 mL/kg/h urine)>>> anuria
 - c. Acute renal failure and metabolic acidosis
3. Respiratory
 - a. Tachypnea and hypoxia

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- b. Pulmonary edema (in cardiogenic shock)>>>hypoxia
- c. Acute respiratory distress syndrome>>>hypoxia
- 4. Cardiovascular
 - a. ↓Diastolic pressure >>> ↓ coronary blood flow
 - b. myocardial ischemia and infarction.
 - c. Acidosis, electrolyte disturbances and arrhythmia.
- 5. Gastrointestinal
 - a. Splanchnic hypoperfusion >> breakdown of gut–mucosal barrier.
 - b. Stress ulceration.
 - c. Translocation of bacteria.
 - d. Acute ischemic hepatitis.

Management

- 1. General principles:
 - a. The management of shock is based upon the following principles:
 - i. Identification and treatment of the underlying cause
 - ii. Resuscitation and the maintenance of adequate tissue oxygen delivery.
- 2. As clinical emergencies, treatment and diagnosis should occur simultaneously with immediate assessment and management following an Airway, Breathing, Circulation (ABC) approach.
- 3. Airway and breathing
 - a. Hypoxemia must be prevented and rapidly corrected by maintaining a clear airway (e.g., head tilt, chin lift) and administering high-flow oxygen (e.g., 10–15 L/min).
 - b. The adequacy of this therapy can be estimated continuously using pulse oximetry (SpO₂), arterial blood gas analysis.
 - c. Ventilator support: severe hypoxaemia, cardiovascular instability, depressed conscious level or exhaustion, intubation.
- 4. Circulation:
 - a. Initial resuscitation should be targeted at arresting hemorrhage and providing fluid (crystalloid or colloid) to restore intravascular volume and optimize cardiac preload.

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- b. It is common practice to use blood, particularly if there is active bleeding.
- c. As resuscitation continues, more invasive monitoring (central venous catheter; arterial line) allows the acid–base status, arterial and central venous pressure (CVP) to be used to further assess the response to fluid.
- d. If blood pressure remains low then inotropes and/or vasopressors may be required.