

## Determination of Tissue O<sub>2</sub> Tensions by Hollow Visceral Tonometers: Effect of Breathing Enriched O<sub>2</sub> Mixtures

Edward H. Bergofsky

*J Clin Invest.* 1964;43(2):193-200. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI104904>.

Research Article

Find the latest version:

<https://jci.me/104904/pdf>



## Determination of Tissue O<sub>2</sub> Tensions by Hollow Visceral Tonometers: Effect of Breathing Enriched O<sub>2</sub> Mixtures \*

EDWARD H. BERGOFSKY

(From the Departments of Physiology and of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, School of  
Medicine, New York University, New York, N. Y.)

The concentrations of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in tissues (i.e., the extracellular tissue spaces) can be an index to the relationship between the blood flow and metabolism of an organ. Since the optimal performance of an organ is expected to occur between definable limits of the tissue O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> tensions (1, 2), correct values for these gas tensions delineate the most suitable relationship between flow and metabolism during various physiological circumstances.

Numerous methods have been devised to measure respiratory gases in tissues, but each is hampered by artifacts that are likely to alter the gas tensions: polarographic needle electrodes implanted in tissues often rupture capillaries or compress blood vessels (3); subcutaneous gas depots are usually associated with extensive pathological changes in contiguous tissues (4, 5); and even a method equating the gas tensions of lymph to those of interstitial fluid results in variable values (6, 7). With these difficulties, it has, for practical purposes, been assumed that the respiratory gas tensions of the draining venous blood are reasonable estimates of the tissue gas tensions; however, comparisons of values for tissue and venous blood gas tensions in a single organ in order to validate this assumption have not been performed.

The present study investigates the hollow viscus as a convenient *in vivo* tonometer in which to equilibrate liquids until they assume the gas tensions of the surrounding tissues. We found that such organs as the urinary bladder act as very rapid and convenient tissue tonometers and that it is

possible to obtain corresponding samples of venous blood draining the organ to compare tissue and blood gas tensions under various experimental conditions.

### Methods

Twenty adult mongrel dogs were used in these experiments; of these, 15 females were chosen, since it was soon observed that the veins draining the female bladder were especially large and easily isolated. Each animal was anesthetized with pentobarbital (30 mg per kg of body weight), the trachea was intubated, and alveolar ventilation was maintained constant by a Bird mechanical respirator.

Through a mid-line suprapubic incision, the ureters were ligated, and a short polyethylene catheter was inserted through a needle hole in the avascular area at the dome of the bladder. Of the four veins usually draining the bladder, one was isolated at the base of the bladder and cannulated with fine polyethylene tubing; in many instances, the cannula could be inserted without obstructing the blood flow through the vein. Even when the vein was obstructed by the cannula, there was little evidence of congestion in the area drained by the vein; it appeared that the clearly evident vascular anastomoses drained blood from the obstructed vein into the several other bladder veins remaining patent. That the gaseous composition of any one bladder vein was similar to the others and represented the mixed venous blood draining the bladder was indicated by identical values for O<sub>2</sub> tension in blood aspirated by needle from two or three of the bladder veins in each of two dogs. After completion of the cannulations, the bladder was replaced in its normal position in the abdominal cavity, and the skin incision was closed. The femoral artery was cannulated in the usual manner with an indwelling needle. In four animals, it was also possible to catheterize the gall bladder through a similar avascular area in its dome. In these instances, the cystic duct was ligated, but it was not technically possible to obtain adequate samples of blood from the cystic vein.

*Procedure.* In both the urinary bladder and the gall bladder, it was observed that some agent was often present in the urine or bile that produced progressive decreases in the O<sub>2</sub> tension imposed on these materials after their removal from the dog. Accordingly, 0.8%

\* Submitted for publication August 5, 1963; accepted October 8, 1963.

This investigation was supported by a research grant (RD-1315-M) from the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

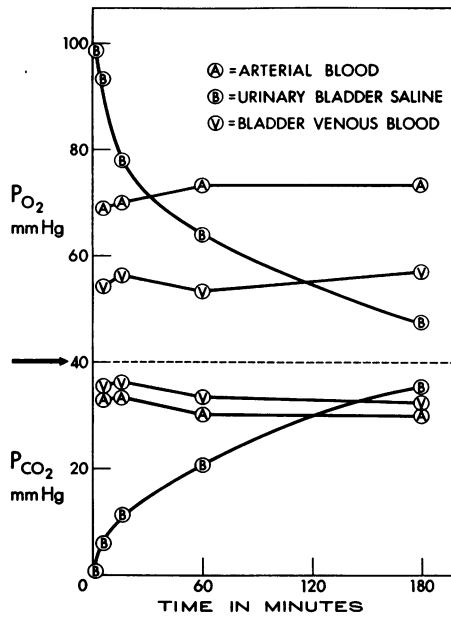


FIG. 1. CHANGES IN O<sub>2</sub> AND CO<sub>2</sub> TENSIONS (P<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>, P<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub>) OF SALINE INSTILLED IN THE URINARY BLADDER AND OF ARTERIAL AND VENOUS BLOOD. Each point represents the average of 11 dogs; 60 ml of saline was instilled in the bladder at time 0 with an average P<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> of 99 mm Hg and an average P<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> of 0.

saline, rather than urine or bile, was used as the equilibrating liquid in both these organs.

In 16 of the 20 animals, only the urinary bladder was prepared. It was emptied of its urine and repeatedly flushed with saline until the contents no longer appeared to contain urine. The empty bladder was then filled with saline on which a known O<sub>2</sub> tension had been imposed by equilibrating with a gas of measured O<sub>2</sub> tension. The O<sub>2</sub> tension imposed on the saline was usually about 100 mm Hg. In 5 of these 16 dogs, 25 ml of saline was instilled; in the remaining 11 dogs, 60 ml of saline. Samples of the bladder saline, of arterial blood, and of bladder venous blood were taken 5, 20, 60, 90, and 180 minutes after the instillation of the saline, or until the gaseous composition of the bladder saline became constant. The effect of changes in the oxygenation of arterial blood was studied by altering the inspired gas mixture from room air to pure O<sub>2</sub>. This procedure was imposed on the 11 animals with 60 ml of saline in the bladder after the gas tensions of the urinary bladder contents had stabilized. Samples of the urinary bladder saline and of arterial and venous blood were again taken periodically until changes in their gaseous composition ceased to occur.

In the four animals in which the gall bladder was also catheterized, a similar procedure was adopted. After flushes of normal saline, the gall bladder was filled with 25 ml of saline simultaneously with the filling of the urinary bladder. Samples of saline from the gall bladder

were then taken along with the blood samples and the saline samples from the urinary bladder.

Several precautions were taken in the experimental procedure involving both the urinary bladder and the gall bladder: 1) the samples of saline were limited to approximately 1 or 1.5 ml; in this manner, the volume of fluid in each of these hollow viscera did not change by more than 5 or 10 ml throughout the experiments; 2) at the conclusion of each experiment, all the remaining urinary and gall bladder fluid was withdrawn in anaerobic fashion, so that periodic *in vitro* measurements of O<sub>2</sub> tension could be performed to determine the O<sub>2</sub> consumption of the bladder fluid itself; 3) samples of arterial and venous blood from the urinary bladder were taken simultaneously while the bladder was full (about 60 ml of saline) and after the bladder was emptied, to determine the effects of distension of a hollow viscus on the vascular resistance to its perfusion.

*Analytic technics and calculations.* All blood and saline samples were drawn in an anaerobic fashion in greased syringes in which the dead space of the system was filled with a sodium heparin solution. Direct measurements of gas tensions were made by an O<sub>2</sub> electrode (8) and a CO<sub>2</sub> electrode (9) in steel and plastic cuvettes that were connected in series by rubber tubing and mounted in a thermostatic water bath. Stopcocks were so arranged that either samples or calibrating solutions could be pushed through the cuvettes in the same manner and at the same rate of flow. The calibrating solutions consisted of normal saline contained in tonometers through which bubbled gases of known O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> tensions that had been previously saturated with water vapor. Both electrodes were calibrated before and after each unknown sample, and readings were made by a Beckman Spinco gas analyzer.<sup>1</sup> The gas tanks with which the calibrating solutions were equilibrated had previously been analyzed for their O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations by the method of Scholander (10). Blood and fluid pH were measured by a glass electrode and the Radiometer potentiometric apparatus.<sup>2</sup> All measurements were made at 37° C.

The O<sub>2</sub> concentrations of blood were calculated from the O<sub>2</sub> saturations and hemoglobin concentrations. The O<sub>2</sub> saturations were obtained from the measured values for pH and O<sub>2</sub> tension by a standard canine oxyhemoglobin dissociation curve (11). The hemoglobin concentrations were estimated from the arterial hematocrits.

## Results

*Urinary bladder.* The average changes in the respiratory gas tensions of the saline instilled in the bladder and the corresponding gaseous composition of arterial and venous blood are listed in Table I and Figure 1 for eleven dogs. In these animals, the initial volume of saline instilled was

<sup>1</sup> Beckman Instruments, South Pasadena, Calif.

<sup>2</sup> The London Co., Cleveland, Ohio.

TABLE I  
The relation between  $PO_2$  and  $PCO_2$  of arterial blood, bladder venous blood, and saline in the urinary bladder\*

	Arterial				Bladder venous				$CaO_2 - C\bar{v}O_2$	Bladder contents	
	$PO_2$	$PCO_2$	pH	$So_2$	$PO_2$	$PCO_2$	pH	$So_2$		$PO_2$	$PCO_2$
	mm Hg	mm Hg		%	mm Hg	mm Hg		%	ml/100 ml	mm Hg	mm Hg
	5 minutes										
AV.	69	36	7.34	91	54	35	7.33	83	1.59	93	8
SD	9.2	11.7	0.13	5.4	8.8	12.8	0.12	5.0	1.10	11.9	2.7
SE	2.7	3.5	0.03	1.6	2.7	4.1	0.04	1.6	0.34	3.4	0.7
	20 minutes										
AV.	70	34	7.36	91	56	35	7.32	84	1.19	77	11
SD	8.1	5.3	0.15	5.1	6.7	11.9	0.15	5.7	0.76	11.4	6.6
SE	2.5	1.7	0.04	1.6	2.4	4.2	0.05	1.9	0.26	3.2	1.9
	60 minutes										
AV.	73	31	7.32	91	53	32	7.30	82	1.70	64	22
SD	6.6	8.2	0.09	2.6	4.9	8.7	0.08	2.7	0.80	13.9	4.7
SE	2.0	2.4	0.02	0.8	1.5	2.6	0.02	0.8	0.20	4.2	1.4
	180 minutes										
AV.	76	31	7.36	91	57	32	7.31	83	1.58	48	35
SD	8.5	7.7	0.10	2.4	4.9	8.4	0.10	2.4	0.76	8.3	8.2
SE	2.5	2.3	0.03	1.2	1.5	2.5	0.03	0.9	0.23	2.5	2.5
	240 minutes										
AV.	71				56					49	
SD	8.0				5.0					8.5	
SE	2.5				1.6					3.4	

\* Times refer to minutes after instillation of saline in urinary bladder.

$PO_2$  = oxygen tension;  $PCO_2$  = carbon dioxide tension;  $So_2$  = oxygen saturation;  $CaO_2 - C\bar{v}O_2$  = oxygen concentration difference between arterial and venous blood; AV. = average of 11 values; SD = plus or minus 1 standard deviation; SE = plus or minus 1 standard error. As is customary, pH is expressed as the average of the pH values, rather than the average hydrogen ion concentration.

60 ml, and the average  $O_2$  tension imposed on the saline before instillation in the bladder was 99 mm Hg. Within 5 minutes after instillation, the  $O_2$  tension had decreased to 93 mm Hg, and within 3 hours, it had reached an average value of 48 mm Hg (SE,  $\pm 2.5$ ). Samples of bladder saline taken thereafter showed no further changes in gaseous composition. Figure 2 compares the rate of change in the  $O_2$  tension of the saline when different volumes are initially instilled in the urinary bladder. Initial volumes of 25 ml require 1 hour to reach a final average value (48 mm Hg) from which no further changes occur, whereas initial volumes of 60 ml require 3 hours to reach a similar  $O_2$  tension. This figure also demonstrates that when the progressive changes in the  $O_2$  tension of bladder saline are plotted semilogarithmically, a nearly straight line is produced that describes the rate at which  $O_2$  is removed from the saline. Table I also lists the  $O_2$  tensions of arterial blood and venous blood draining the bladder during the experimental procedure. The  $O_2$  tensions of arterial blood were so maintained that the arterial  $O_2$  saturation was usually above 90%.

The average  $O_2$  tension of venous blood remained between 53 and 57 mm Hg, and 3 hours after the start of the experiment was 57 mm Hg (SE,  $\pm 1.5$ ). This value exceeded the average  $O_2$  tension of saline in the bladder taken at a corresponding time by 9 mm Hg.

The changes in  $CO_2$  tension are also shown in Table I. Initially the  $CO_2$  tension of the saline was 0, and during the course of the experiments it rose to values exceeding those of both arterial and venous blood. At 180 minutes, the average  $CO_2$  tension of saline reached 35 mm Hg and thereby exceeded the average  $CO_2$  tension of bladder venous blood by 3 mm Hg. The average pH of both arterial and venous blood remained within a narrow range throughout these studies; arterial blood fluctuated between 7.32 and 7.36, and venous blood between 7.30 and 7.33.

Measurements of blood flow to the bladder were not directly made during these experiments, but were inferred from the arteriovenous differences in  $O_2$  concentration. The average values ranged from 1.10 to 1.92 ml per 100 ml during the course of the experiments, but 5 minutes after the instil-

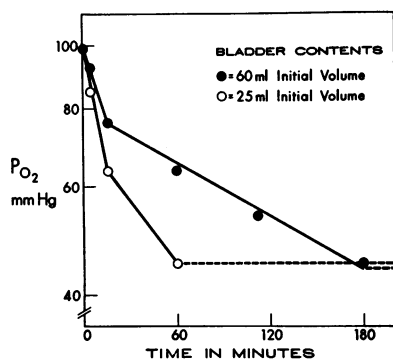


FIG. 2. MANNER IN WHICH THE INITIAL VOLUME OF SALINE INSTILLED IN THE URINARY BLADDER AFFECTS THE RATE AT WHICH THE  $O_2$  TENSION ( $P_{O_2}$ ) OF THE SALINE STABILIZES. The ordinate is scaled logarithmically. The curve describing the course of 60-ml initial volumes represents the average of 11 animals, and the curve for the 25-ml initial volume represents the average of 5 animals. The dashed lines are continuations of each curve after the stable  $O_2$  tensions were achieved.

lation of saline (1.59 ml per 100 ml), they were, on the average, very similar to those at the conclusion of the experiment (1.52 ml per 100 ml).

The effect of changes in the volume of liquid contained in the bladder on the blood flow to the bladder is indicated by arteriovenous differences in  $O_2$  concentrations, which are listed in Table II. The arteriovenous  $O_2$  differences averaged 1.5 ml per 100 ml in the full bladder and 1.4 ml per 100 ml in the empty bladder. In no animal did the arteriovenous differences change by more than 10% (0.2 ml per 100 ml) during the experiment.

The effects of breathing 100%  $O_2$  on the gaseous composition of the saline in the bladder and of the blood perfusing the bladder appear in Table

TABLE II  
The effect of distension of the urinary bladder on the difference in oxygen concentrations between arterial and venous blood\*

Dog no.	State	Arterial $P_{O_2}$	Venous $P_{O_2}$	$C_{aO_2} - C_{vO_2}$
		mm Hg	mm Hg	ml/100 ml
1	Full	68	60	1.3
	Empty	68	58	1.2
6	Full	64	50	2.1
	Empty	74	55	1.9
9†	Full	550	148	1.2
	Empty	550	170	1.1

\* Abbreviations as in Table I.

† The bladder was emptied and filled while this animal was breathing pure  $O_2$ .

III and are illustrated by Figure 3. The control values in this table are the same as those obtained 180 minutes after the instillation of saline; these were previously listed in Table I. Ten minutes after 100%  $O_2$  was substituted for room air, the average arterial  $O_2$  tension rose from 76 to 380 mm Hg. The  $O_2$  tension of venous blood also rose on the average from 57 to 111 mm Hg and did not vary by more than 7 mm Hg during the remainder of the experiments. By contrast, the  $O_2$  tension of the fluid in the bladder rose after 10 and 40 minutes by only 6 or 7 mm Hg; moreover, after 150 minutes it had again fallen to 50 mm Hg, a value which exceeded the control average by only 2 mm Hg.

The arteriovenous difference in  $O_2$  concentration was also used in this portion of the experiment as an indicator of blood flow to the bladder. As listed in Table III, the initial control value averaged 1.58 ml per 100 ml, and the final value taken 150 minutes later was 1.67 ml per 100 ml, a change of only 7%. The maximal change in arteriovenous  $O_2$  difference occurred after 10 minutes of breathing 100%  $O_2$ ; even at this point, however, the decrease was only 24%. During this procedure, the  $CO_2$  tension of both blood and saline in the bladder rose, on the average, by 4 mm Hg, while the average pH fell by 0.04 U.

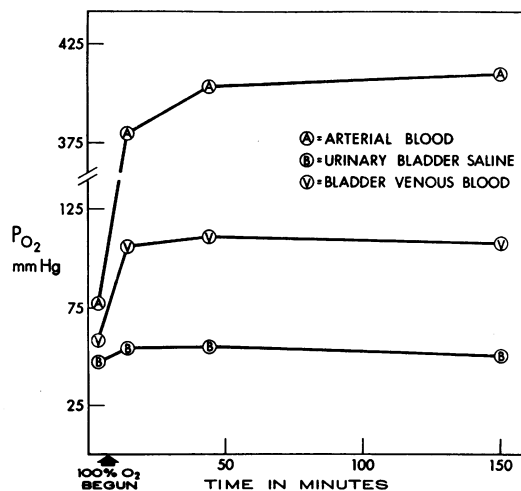


FIG. 3. EFFECT OF BREATHING PURE  $O_2$  ON THE  $O_2$  TENSIONS ( $P_{O_2}$ ) OF ARTERIAL BLOOD, BLADDER VENOUS BLOOD, AND SALINE IN THE URINARY BLADDER. The points represents average values from the same 11 dogs illustrated in Figure 1. The arrow marks the point at which the breathing of 100%  $O_2$  was begun.

TABLE III  
*The effect of breathing pure O<sub>2</sub> on the gaseous composition of bladder tissues and blood in 11 dogs\**

	Arterial			Bladder venous			CaO <sub>2</sub> - C $\bar{v}$ O <sub>2</sub>	Bladder contents	
	Po <sub>2</sub>	Pco <sub>2</sub>	pH	Po <sub>2</sub>	Pco <sub>2</sub>	pH		Po <sub>2</sub>	Pco <sub>2</sub>
	mm Hg	mm Hg		mm Hg	mm Hg			mm Hg	mm Hg
Control									
Av.	76	31	7.36	57	32	7.31	1.58	48	35
SD	8.5	7.7	0.10	4.9	8.4	0.10	0.76	8.3	8.2
SE	2.5	2.3	0.03	1.5	2.5	0.03	0.23	2.4	2.5
Breathing pure O <sub>2</sub> , 10 minutes									
Av.	380	35	7.33	111	36	7.28	2.08	54	33
SD	62.2	10.5	0.05	65.6	11.3	0.05	1.13	15.6	7.9
SE	19.6	3.3	0.02	20.7	3.5	0.02	0.35	5.0	2.5
Breathing pure O <sub>2</sub> , 40 minutes									
Av.	410	36	7.32	118	37	7.28	1.81	55	35
SD	43.2	12.5	0.05	56.4	15.7	0.06	1.16	20.2	9.0
SE	13.6	3.9	0.02	17.8	4.9	0.02	0.37	6.4	2.8
Breathing pure O <sub>2</sub> , 150 minutes									
Av.	417	35	7.33	113	36	7.28	1.67	50	37
SD	29.2	11.6	0.06	56.3	13.0	0.06	1.08	19.7	8.6
SE	8.4	3.5	0.02	17.8	4.1	0.02	0.34	5.9	2.6

\* Abbreviations as in Table I.

Finally, the serial measurements of the O<sub>2</sub> tension of saline removed from the urinary bladder at the end of the experiments and sealed anaerobically in a syringe were made at 30-minute intervals. Since these measurements demonstrated no decline in the O<sub>2</sub> tension of the saline ( $\pm 3$  mm Hg), little or no O<sub>2</sub> consumption or O<sub>2</sub> disappearance could be attributed to constituents which entered the saline during its residence in the bladder.

*Gall bladder.* The relation between the O<sub>2</sub> tension of saline in the urinary bladder and in the gall bladder is shown in Table IV. In each case, the listed values are from samples of saline taken from the urinary bladder and gall bladder at identical times, i.e., 150 minutes after the saline was first instilled in the organs. Moreover, the listed O<sub>2</sub> tensions were not different from values in samples taken at even later times. As indicated, in two animals, the values for the urinary bladder and gall bladder were identical, and, in two other animals, the O<sub>2</sub> tension of the gall bladder was 13 and 25 mm Hg lower than that of the urinary bladder.

#### Discussion

The present study utilized a liquid in a hollow viscus as an equilibrating system to measure the

gas tensions in the tissues (i.e., the extracellular tissue spaces) immediately surrounding the liquid. We found that the liquid took on the O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> tensions which were to be expected in tissues more swiftly than the equilibration time for subcutaneous gas pockets (5) and that the rapidity with which equilibration occurred was inversely proportional to the volume of liquid instilled in the bladder. Thus, large volumes of 60 ml achieved stable gas tensions in 3 hours, whereas a small volume of 25 ml required less than an hour for equilibration. By this technic, we have a convenient system whereby the gas tensions of some tissues can be obtained under a variety of physiological circumstances.

TABLE IV  
*The relation between the Po<sub>2</sub> of saline in the urinary bladder and gall bladder\**

Dog no.	Arterial blood	Urinary bladder contents	Gall bladder contents
	mm Hg	mm Hg	mm Hg
17	81	49	49
18	87	57	45
19	76	47	47
20	80	51	44
Mean	81	51	43

\* Abbreviations as in Table I.

*Relation between gas tension of tissue and blood.*

This system, utilizing the urinary bladder in particular, has also made it possible to compare the gaseous composition of tissues with those of the corresponding venous blood draining the tissues. In this respect, this method has an advantage over other technics of measuring tissue gas tensions such as those involving lymph or the subcutaneous gas pocket. In the present study, a comparison of these two values indicates that the  $O_2$  tension of venous blood exceeds that of the tissues, on the average, by 9 mm Hg. This tendency of tissue  $O_2$  tension to fall lower than the value of draining venous blood has been observed previously (6, 7). On the other hand, the  $O_2$  tensions attributable to bladder tissues are not so low as those recorded from thoracic duct lymph (6). The reason for this difference is unclear; however, the present method measures only the values in two hollow viscera, whereas thoracic duct lymph measures the  $O_2$  tensions of hollow viscera, liver, and muscle together.

This small  $O_2$  pressure gradient between tissues and draining venous blood in the present study may have several possible explanations: 1) The first explanation is based on the principle that the average  $O_2$  tension of a unit of tissue does, indeed, fall lower than that of the blood in the venous end of the capillary serving this unit of tissue. The principle rests on calculations performed by Krogh (12) using measured values for the rate of diffusion of  $O_2$  through excised tissues and using a model that features a capillary surrounded by a cylinder of tissue; in this model, the gradient between the venous blood  $O_2$  tension and the average tissue  $O_2$  tension is due to the preponderant contribution to the whole made by  $O_2$  tensions of tissues farthest from the capillary; these distant tissues have the lowest  $O_2$  tensions and yet comprise the largest bulk of the cylinder of tissue. 2) The second explanation is based on the idea that the rate of diffusion of  $O_2$  through tissues is greater than Krogh thought (13, 14) and that the average tissue  $O_2$  tension is the same as that of blood at the venous end of the capillary; this explanation implies that some arterial blood is shunted through vessels across which gas exchange is limited. The mixture of capillary venous blood in gaseous equilibrium with tissues and arterial blood little modified by its passage

through tissues would be expected to produce  $O_2$  tensions in the mixed venous blood draining the organ which are higher than the average tissue  $O_2$  tensions. 3) The third possibility implies that the liquid in the bladder equilibrates mainly with epithelial cells of the mucosal surface whose  $O_2$  tension may be lower than that of smooth muscle, whereas the blood in the veins reflects gas tensions from the entire thickness of the bladder wall. This possibility cannot be entirely excluded, even though the bladder in many experiments was so distended as to be transparent and even though its thickness did not appear to exceed 1 mm.

*Regulation of tissue oxygen tension.* In the present study the breathing of an enriched  $O_2$  mixture resulted in the expected rise in the  $O_2$  tension of arterial blood without markedly or consistently affecting the  $O_2$  tension of the saline in the bladder. These observations are in contrast to other studies of tissue  $O_2$  tensions during the breathing of enriched  $O_2$  mixtures: in procedures involving measurements in skin and subcutaneous tissues by implanted electrodes or subcutaneous gas pockets (15-19), increases in tissue  $O_2$  tension of 10 to 50 mm Hg have been recorded. Although the accuracy of such procedures may be hampered by difficulties in calibrating electrodes or the pathological changes in the subcutaneous pocket, these different observations during  $O_2$  breathing may possibly be attributed to the different types of tissues being studied. Even the increases in tissue  $O_2$  tensions observed in some of these studies are relatively small, however, when compared with the large increases in  $O_2$  tension that are assumed to have occurred in the arterial blood.

The tendency to stabilize the tissue  $O_2$  tension during changes in the inspired  $O_2$  concentration has been previously noted for the brain; in this case, stabilization of the tissue  $O_2$  tension appears to be accomplished by decreasing the total blood flow to the brain (20). In the present study, however, the breathing of pure  $O_2$  did not affect the difference in the  $O_2$  concentration between arterial blood and the venous blood draining the urinary bladder. Accordingly, it is not possible to attribute the constant tissue  $O_2$  tension during the breathing of pure  $O_2$  to decreases in the total blood flow to the bladder.

The most likely mechanism to explain the pres-

ent observations involves the shunting of arterial blood away from capillaries where gas exchange can occur to vessels where gas exchange is limited. The partition of urinary bladder flow between the gas exchanging capillaries and the vessels where gas exchange is limited may be estimated by a mixing formula analogous to that used for pulmonary blood flow (21). As in the lung, the mixing formulas applied to the systemic circulation will mathematically render blood flow to poorly exchanging vessels as though it were a smaller blood flow to nongas-exchanging vessels. In this formula, the amount of  $O_2$  appearing in the venous blood of the bladder ( $\dot{Q}v_{O_2}$ ) is equal to the amount of  $O_2$  appearing in the blood at the venous end of the capillary ( $\dot{Q}c_{O_2}$ ) plus the amount of  $O_2$  in shunted blood ( $Qs_{O_2}$ ):

$$\dot{Q}v_{O_2} = \dot{Q}c_{O_2} + Qs_{O_2},$$

or

$$Cv_{O_2} \times Qt = Ca_{O_2} \times Qs + Cc_{O_2} \times (Qt - Qs),$$

where  $Cv_{O_2}$ ,  $Ca_{O_2}$ , and  $Cc_{O_2}$  are the concentrations of  $O_2$  in venous, arterial, and end-capillary blood, respectively, and  $Qt$  and  $Qs$  are total and shunted blood flow, respectively.

In the present circumstance, the  $O_2$  tensions of end-capillary blood, the bladder tissues, and the saline in the bladder are considered equal. When this relationship is applied to the average data obtained during the breathing of pure  $O_2$ , it is estimated that under this circumstance 76% of the blood flow to the bladder does not enter gas exchanging capillaries. By contrast, application of this relationship to the data obtained during ambient air breathing indicates that only 10% of blood flow to the bladder is shunted away from gas exchanging capillaries.

The anatomic basis in the urinary bladder for the shunting of blood away from the capillary bed into vessels that exchange substances poorly is uncertain. In fact, microscopic studies of the capillaries and other small vessels of the urinary bladder are not available in large systematic texts of anatomy (22) or even in specialized studies (23). On the other hand, a special anatomic shunt need not be required to fulfill the role of the physiologic shunts observed in the present study. A functional type of shunt is possible, in which the diversion of blood flow occurs from

capillaries of small caliber to vessels of larger caliber. Such functional shunts have been described in the omentum (24, 25), where the transparent structure makes possible microscopic *in vivo* study which is not readily feasible in the wall of the urinary bladder.

The mechanism whereby abnormally high  $O_2$  tensions regulated the partition of blood flow through the capillary bed of the bladder is also uncertain. The data of the present study do not suggest whether this mechanism is neurogenic and reflex in nature or whether it is a direct effect of  $O_2$  on the smooth muscle of the small blood vessel. Regardless of mechanism, the present data indicate that at least in one organ, the urinary bladder, the tissue  $O_2$  tension is prevented from rising during the breathing of high  $O_2$  mixtures by selective diversions of blood from the capillary bed. These data also imply that during the process the exchange of other substances between tissues and capillaries may be impaired. Unfortunately, the large capacity of the saline in the bladder in the present method did not allow the accumulation of tissue  $CO_2$  to be measured accurately as an indicator of impaired exchange across the capillary bed during these decreases in capillary blood flow.

Finally, the site from which changes in  $O_2$  tension may act to effect changes in the distribution of blood flow is as uncertain as the over-all distribution of the various  $O_2$  tensions within a tissue; the present method, like others, measures the integral of what may be many values for tissue  $O_2$  tension in a single organ.

### Summary

1) The  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  tensions of tissues were estimated by sampling liquids that were instilled in hollow viscera and allowed to remain until they reached gaseous equilibrium with the surrounding tissue. This method proved to be a convenient *in vivo* system with which to study the gas tensions of tissues under various circumstances.

2) It was demonstrated that, under normal conditions, the  $O_2$  tension of the tissues of the urinary bladder is lower than that of its venous blood and that, during the breathing of enriched  $O_2$  mixtures, the difference in  $O_2$  tension between tissues and venous blood becomes even greater.



These differences are attributed to the diversion of blood flow from capillaries to vessels where gas exchange is limited.

3) The inordinate diversion of blood from the capillary bed of the bladder during the breathing of an enriched O<sub>2</sub> mixture tended to prevent increases in the O<sub>2</sub> tension of the tissues. Implicit in this mechanism which curtails capillary blood flow, however, is the likelihood of impairing the exchange of other substances between blood and tissues.

### References

1. Krogh, A. The supply of oxygen to the tissues and the regulation of the capillary circulation. *J. Physiol. (Lond.)* 1919, **52**, 457.
2. Hill, D. K. Oxygen tension and the respiration of resting frog's muscle. *J. Physiol. (Lond.)* 1948, **107**, 479.
3. Montgomery, H. Oxygen tension of tissue *in vivo*. *Circulation* 1957, **15**, 646.
4. Wright, A. W. The local effect of the injection of gases into the subcutaneous tissues. *Amer. J. Path.* 1930, **6**, 87.
5. Tobin, C. E., H. D. Van Liew, and H. Rahn. Reaction of the subcutaneous tissue of rats to injected air. *Proc. Soc. exp. Biol. (N. Y.)* 1962, **109**, 122.
6. Bergofsky, E. H., J. H. Jacobson II, and A. P. Fishman. The use of lymph for the measurement of gas tensions in interstitial fluid and tissues. *J. clin. Invest.* 1962, **41**, 1971.
7. Carlsten, A., and B. Soderholm. Carbon dioxide tensions and pH of lymph and arterial blood in anesthetized dogs. *Acta physiol. scand.* 1960, **48**, 29.
8. Clark, L. C., Jr., R. Wolf, D. Granger, and Z. Taylor. Continuous recording of blood oxygen tensions by polarography. *J. appl. Physiol.* 1953, **6**, 189.
9. Severinghaus, J. W., and A. F. Bradley. Electrodes for blood pO<sub>2</sub> and pCO<sub>2</sub> determination. *J. appl. Physiol.* 1958, **13**, 515.
10. Scholander, P. F. Analyzer for accurate estimation of respiratory gases in one-half cubic centimeter samples. *J. biol. Chem.* 1947, **167**, 235.
11. Dill, D. B., H. A. Edwards, M. Florkin, and R. W. Campbell. Properties of dog blood. *J. biol. Chem.* 1932, **95**, 143.
12. Krogh, A. The number and distribution of capillaries in muscles with calculations of the oxygen pressure head necessary for supplying the tissue. *J. Physiol. (Lond.)* 1919, **52**, 409.
13. Krogh, A. *The Anatomy and Physiology of Capillaries*. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1930.
14. Longmuir, I. S., and A. Rourke. The measurement of the diffusion of oxygen through respiring tissues. *Biochem. J.* 1960, **76**, 225.
15. Taylor, H. J. The effect of breathing oxygen at atmospheric pressure on tissue oxygen and carbon dioxide tensions. *J. Physiol. (Lond.)* 1949, **108**, 264.
16. Lambertson, C. J., M. W. Stroud III, J. H. Ewing, and J. Mack. Oxygen toxicity. Effects of oxygen breathing at increased ambient pressure upon P<sub>co2</sub> of subcutaneous gas depots in men, dogs, rabbits and cats. *J. appl. Physiol.* 1953, **6**, 358.
17. Campbell, J. A. Further observations on oxygen acclimatization. *J. Physiol. (Lond.)* 1927, **63**, 325.
18. Pennys, R. Oxygen tension of tissues by the polarographic method. IV. Skin oxygen tension vs. arterial oxygen saturation; relationship to oxyhemoglobin dissociation curve. *J. clin. Invest.* 1952, **31**, 204.
19. Kay, R. H., and R. V. Coxon. Simultaneous recording of inspired oxygen concentration and peripheral tissue oxygenation. *Nature (Lond.)* 1956, **177**, 45.
20. Kety, S. S., and C. F. Schmidt. The effects of altered arterial tensions of carbon dioxide and oxygen on cerebral blood flow and cerebral oxygen consumption of normal young men. *J. clin. Invest.* 1948, **27**, 484.
21. Riley, R. L., and A. Cournand. Analysis of factors affecting the concentrations of oxygen and carbon dioxide in gas and blood of lungs. I. Theory. *J. appl. Physiol.* 1951, **4**, 77.
22. Von Mollendorff, W. *Handbuch des Mikroskopischen Anatomie des Menschen. Die Harnblase*. Berlin, Julius Springer, 1930, vol. 7.
23. Lendorf, A. Beitrage zur Histologie der Harnblasenschleimhaut. *Anat. Hefte.* 1901, **17**, 55.
24. Chambers, R., and B. W. Zweifach. Typography and function of the mesenteric capillary circulation. *Amer. J. Anat.* 1944, **75**, 173.
25. Zweifach, B. W., R. E. Lee, C. Hyman, and R. Chambers. Omental circulation in morphinized dogs subjected to graded hemorrhage. *Ann. Surg.* 1944, **120**, 232.