

Newborn hypotension, complications, and management strategies

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Abstract:

Objective of this systematic review was to summarize all available high-level evidence to effective treating hypotension methods, to discuss the consequences and define disease to understand it more. We searched electronic databases PubMed, Embase, National Knowledge Infrastructure (NKI), updated to November, 2017. for all the publications on the Newborn hypotension. The search terms were; “hypotension or low blood pressure”, “newborn”, “children”. Hypotension occurs generally in preterm babies on intensive care. The relevance of hypotension lies in the assumed effect of blood pressure variations on cerebral blood flow aside from other organ perfusion. Though large number of the hypotensive newborn are not hypovolemic, a fluid bolus could possibly boost cardiac outcome. Infants that are hypotensive despite volume development require inotropic assistance. Dopamine is much more effective compared to volume expansion in the treatment of hypotension in the preterm infant, although the latter could be useful in enhancing left ventricular output. Successful treatment of hypotension is also more likely with dopamine compared to dobutamine, but this may be related to a fall in left ventricular output. Some hypotensive preterm babies have low plasma cortisol levels. Routine therapy with postnatal corticosteroids could lower the requirement for BP support in preterm infants at risk of developing hypotension. Hydrocortisone has equivalent efficiency to dopamine

when used as first-line treatment in established hypotension. Corticosteroids and epinephrine may work in refractory hypotension.

Introduction:

Hypotension is a problem regularly experienced on the neonatal intensive care unit. It is more common in preterm infants. The prevalence is stated to be approximately 45% in infants with a birth weight < 1500 g [1]. Indeed, in preterm infants, body organ advancement is still in process, and imposes obstacles with liquid homeostasis [2]. Reduced blood pressure (BP) is also frequent in the unwell term infant.

The main objective of dealing with hypotension is to avoid end organ damage. Statistically, low BP is associated with short and long term adverse results. In the extreme preterm, hypotension is related to raised mortality, cerebral lesions [3], intraventricular haemorrhage [4], periventricular leucomalacia and neurodevelopmental morbidity [5].

BP equals flow increased by resistance, hence depends upon the cardiac result and the vascular resistance. In very low birth weight infants (VLBW), the aetiology of hypotension is unclear: Variable left ventricular output (LVO), a huge patent ductus arteriosus (PDA), and myocardial dysfunction may contribute to low BP in this population. Quantity exhaustion is not an usual reason in preterm hypotension [6]. The typical physiological BP of a newborn infant remains unknown. It is thought to differ with postnatal age and gestation. Thus, the meaning of hypotension varies, but it appears like one of the most common one utilized by clinicians is the

following: The mean arterial BP should be maintained at, or greater than the gestational age in weeks; this definition is based upon statistics instead of physiology, and has been recommended by the British Association of Perinatal Medicine. This description has also been used in various randomised control trials [7]. A borderline low BP below the number came to by utilizing the gestational age does not necessarily require therapy, and it is up to the medical professional's discretion to also evaluate end organ perfusion and decide on therapy. Furthermore, low mean arterial BP in ill preterm infants could compromise cerebral autoregulation. Cerebral autoregulation is important due to the fact that it guarantees ideal cerebral blood flow, which is among the major determinants of oxygen delivery to the brain. The minimal BP required to maintain cerebral perfusion is unknown [6].

Objective of this systematic review was to summarize all available high-level evidence to effective treating hypotension methods, to discuss the consequences and define disease to understand it more.

Methodology:

We searched electronic databases PubMed, Embase, China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), updated to November, 2017. for all the publications on the Newborn hypotension. The search terms were; “hypotension or low blood pressure”, “newborn”, “children”. Language restrictions were used to only English language for the search.

Discussion:

- **Definition of hypotension in newborns**

Blood pressure in preterm infants can be measured both invasively, utilizing intra-arterial catheters and non-invasively. Invasive blood pressure measurement is the gold standard [8]. In hypotensive newborns non-invasive measurements have the tendency to overestimate blood pressure [9]. Intrusive pressure monitoring has its problems too. The pressure analysis is impacted by the mechanical properties of the intra-arterial catheter and the transducer system and existence of air bubbles. The above aspects cause excessive damping resulting in low systolic and high diastolic readings [8]. Mean blood pressure is less affected by these and therefore reliable even in the visibility of a damped trace [8]. Normal' blood pressure need to be defined as the pressure, which guarantees adequate organ perfusion [10]. The normal values will certainly depend on gestational age, birthweight and postnatal age. Lots of studies have tried to establish typical blood pressure varies for very low birth weight (VLBW) infants. The majority of the researches have disadvantages of having retrospective information, small number of babies, seldom blood pressure measurements, inclusion of infants on inotropes and those with cerebral injury [8].

- **Consequences**

Blood pressure and cerebral blood flow

Cerebral blood circulation is one of the major factors of oxygen delivery to the mind [14]. The perfusion pressure in the cerebral arteries and vascular resistance figures out cerebral blood flow. In older kids and adults cerebral autoregulation maintains cerebral perfusion over a wide variety of perfusion pressures [11]. There has been conflicting evidence on the capability of hypotensive preterm infants to autoregulate [11] Lou, et al. [12] in a research on 16 neonates demonstrated a

relationship in between cerebral blood flow and blood pressure and concluded that autoregulation may be shed in unwell infants. On the other hand, in a cross-sectional research of 27 preterm infants, Tyszczyk, et al. [13] failed to reveal any kind of such connection. They also examined the referrals made by some authors that a blood pressure over 30mm of Hg need to be preserved to prevent cerebral injury. The authors discovered no difference in cerebral perfusion in between groups with mean arterial blood stress above or listed below 30 mm of Hg. It appears that cerebral autoregulation is impaired to a certain level in ill preterm infants and might depend on mean arterial blood pressure. However the minimum blood pressure required to keep cerebral perfusion is vague and the current therapy thresholds for hypotension suggested by various authors based on 'regular' blood pressure ranges go to ideal approximate. There is additionally evidence emerging that cardiac result as opposed to imply arterial blood stress is a more important factor of analytical oxygen distribution.

Hypotension and cerebral injury

Periventricular hemorrhage: Periventricular hemorrhage is a vital cause of long-lasting morbidity in preterm infants. Many studies have revealed an organization in between reduced systemic blood pressure and intra-ventricular hemorrhage [15], [17]. Miall-Allen, et al. demonstrated a considerable relationship between a mean blood pressure of less than 30 mm of mercury and substantial cerebral lesions in really low birthweight infants [16]. Connection between systemic hypotension and variations of blood pressure with intraventricular hemorrhage has been discovered by various other writers [15], [16]. In comparison to the above studies, Tyszczyk, et al. [13] failed to reveal any type of relationship between reduced blood pressure and cranial ultrasound problems. It is feasible that an analytical organization in between IVH and

hypotension is not necessarily a causal relationship. Hypotension and periventricular hemorrhage may be common difficulties of preterm birth.

Periventricular leukomalacia: Periventricular leukomalacia (PVL) is highly related to neurodevelopmental morbidity and cerebral palsy [18]. The areas of the brain involved in periventricular leukomalacia fall in the watershed zones of the penetrating branches of the cerebral arteries and are prone to disruptions in cerebral blood flow [19]. Problems with potential reduction in cerebral blood circulation like hypocarbia and patent ductus arteriosus with shunting have been connected with PVL [20] Maill Allen, et al. [16] found a greater incidence of extreme irregularities involving cystic PVL in preterm neonates who had a mean blood pressure less than 30 mm Hg. Tsuji, et al. [18] found a roughly 50% occurrence of cranial ultrasound abnormalities including PVL in preterm neo-nates with probable damaged cerebral auto-regulation [18] Both Cunningham, et al. [15] and Watkins cannot show any consistent relationship with systemic hypotension and PVL. It is unusual that a lot of the epidemiological studies have failed to establish a link between hypotension and PVL, given the pathophysiology. The majority of the preterm new-borns have some component of autoregulation and blood pressure is only one of the components of cerebral blood flow. Probably there is a distinct group of unwell preterms in whom analytical autoregulation may suffer in whom reduced blood pressure could contribute to the pathogenesis of PVL [18].

Haemodynamic considerations

BP is the product of cardiac output and systemic vascular resistance. Myocardial contractility and distributing blood volume influence cardiac outcome, whereas systemic vascular resistance is determined by peripheral vascular tone (including resistance of the ductus arteriosus/pulmonary vasculature) and blood viscosity.

A weak, however statistically significant, connection exists in between BP and left ventricular output in preterm infants with a little or closed ductus arteriosus [21]. Left ventricular result is in fact regular or high in three-quarters of hypotensive preterm infants [22]. These children often have low systemic vascular resistance, which is usually related to a subclinical, but haemodynamically significant, left-to-right ductal shunt [21]. Alternatively, hypotension with low left ventricular output is related to boosted systemic vascular resistance, but is a much less common searching for [22].

The function of myocardial dysfunction in preterm systemic hypotension is uncertain. Around fifty percent of a team of 'shocked' infants (the majority of which were hypotensive) were discovered to have echocardiographic proof of myocardial dysfunction, defined as a reducing fraction of $\leq 30\%$. Nonetheless, 2 various other researches using comparable technique cannot demonstrate an organization in between myocardial dysfunction and hypotension [21]. It remains feasible that a functionally premature myocardium and/or high systemic vascular resistance could be a vital underlying factor in the minority of preterm babies who are hypotensive with reduced left ventricular output [22].

- **Clinical management**

The decision to institute treatment for neonatal hypotension should be directed by global evaluation of cardiovascular condition and not simply measurement of BP. Cautious clinical evaluation should include an evaluation of heart rate, peripheral perfusion and urine output. Various other factors that limit oxygen delivery, such as hypoxaemia and/or anaemia, should be sought and treated. An elevated plasma lactate concentration is likely to suggest critically poor tissue oxygenation. Echocardiographic evaluation might give useful details regarding cardiac output, contractility, pulmonary haemodynamics and ductal shunting.

Although measurement of CVP is part of cardiovascular surveillance in infants and older children going through intensive care, CVP monitoring is not performed consistently in sick neonates. There is little published information concerning CVP values in steady ventilated neonates, and therefore interpretation of analyses in ill neonates is troublesome. A variety of CVP in between 2 and 6 mmHg has been reported in clinically stable ventilated preterm babies. Low values (<2 mmHg) may indicate hypovolaemia, whereas a high CVP (> 2 mmHg) may suggest hypovolaemia, whereas a high CVP(> 6 mmHg) could be discovered in right ventricular dysfunction with or without lung high blood pressure. The function of CVP monitoring in the management of systemic hypotension doubts, but serial measurements could help to guide volume expansion in babies with presumed hypovolaemia.

Table 1. Drugs used in the treatment of neonatal hypotension

| Drug | Category | Principal mode of action | Haemodynamic effect | Dose |
|-------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Epinephrine | Inotrope/vasopressor | Alpha- and beta-adrenergic agonist | Enhanced myocardial contractility and cardiac output; peripheral vasoconstriction | Intravenous infusion of 0.05–2.5 µg/kg/min |
| Dobutamine | Inotrope | Beta-adrenergic agonist | Enhanced myocardial contractility and cardiac output | Intravenous infusion of 5–20 µg/kg/min |
| Dopamine | Inotrope/vasopressor | Alpha- and beta-adrenergic | Peripheral vasoconstriction; | Intravenous infusion of 2.5– |

| Drug | Category | Principal mode of action | Haemodynamic effect | Dose |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|--|---|
| | | agonist | enhanced myocardial contractility and cardiac output | 20 µg/kg/min |
| Dopexamine | Inotrope | Beta-adrenergic agonist | Enhanced myocardial contractility and cardiac output | Intravenous infusion of 2 µg/kg/min |
| Hydrocortisone | Corticosteroid | Enhanced sensitivity to circulating catecholamines | Uncertain | Intravenous bolus of 2.5 µg/kg 6 hourly |
| Methylene blue | Soluble guanylate cyclase inhibitor | Inhibition of cGMP/nitric oxide pathway | Peripheral vasoconstriction | Intravenous infusion of 1 mg/kg over 1 h |
| Norepinephrine | Vasopressor | Alpha- (and beta-) adrenergic agonist | Peripheral vasoconstriction | Intravenous infusion of 0.1–1.5 µg/kg/min |
| Volume expander (e.g. 0.9% sodium chloride, 4.5% human albumin) | Volume expander | Restoration of intravascular volume, Frank-Starling mechanism | Increased cardiac output | Intravenous infusion of 10–20 ml/kg over 30 m |

| Drug | Category | Principal mode of action | Haemodynamic effect | Dose |
|-----------|----------|--------------------------|---------------------|------|
| solution) | | | | |

Volume expansion

Assessment of flowing blood volume is not feasible in the routine medical setting. Although a low flowing blood quantity is probably an uncommon reason for hypotension in most newborn infants, volume growth is frequently used (often continuously) as a first-line therapy [22]. Arguably, even in the absence of hypovolaemia, volume growth has the potential to increase cardiac output and BP via the Frank-Starling system, and might as a result be an useful therapeutic method [23]. However, it could additionally precipitate liquid overload and cardiac failure in a baby with pre-existing cardiac dysfunction. Volume development, particularly with colloid infusions, is likewise associated with increased morbidity and mortality.

Although volume development could increase left ventricular output, it is less efficient than dopamine at raising BP. In normotensive preterm infants, volume growth with 15 ml/kg 20% human albumin solution increased left ventricular output, with no evidence of a result on BP. In hypotensive babies, several of whom had already obtained quantity development, 20 ml/kg plasma healthy protein fraction was much less efficient than 5-10 µg/ kg/min dopamine at increasing BP [24].

Inotropes and vasopressors

Inotropes and vasopressors have been used in the treatment of systemic hypotension for many years. There are, however, couple of randomized regulated tests reviewing the efficiency of these agents, and none demonstrating any kind of important tool- to long-term advantages.

Category of these representatives as inotropes or vasopressors offers to divide them by principal setting of action, although some medicines such as dopamine and epinephrine may show a mix of impacts according to the dosage used. Developing distinctions in growth could influence the expression and distribution of adrenergic and dopaminergic receptors, and hence the observed cardiovascular impacts of these representatives [25].

Dopamine

Dopamine (3,4-dihydroxyphenylethylamine) is one of the most generally used medicinal agent in the treatment of newborn hypotension. It is an endogenous catecholamine precursor of norepinephrine with sympathomimetic properties. It exerts intricate cardiovascular impacts either straight with stimulation of dopaminergic, adrenergic and serotonin receptors, or indirectly by stimulating adrenergic receptors via its conversion to norepinephrine in sympathetic nerve endings [25]. The cardiovascular activities of dopamine rely on the overall equilibrium of dopamine, alpha- and beta-receptor agonist activity, and are stated to be dose-related. At low doses, dopaminergic effects predominate, whereas beta and afterwards alpha impacts are apparent at progressively higher dosages. Dopamine raises BP via an increase in systemic vascular resistance (peripheral vasoconstriction) and/or a boost in cardiac output (increased cardiac contractility or heart rate).

Dobutamine

Dobutamine is a synthetic analogue of isoprenaline with some chemical similarities to dopamine. Nevertheless, unlike dopamine, its action is not dependent on the release of endogenous norepinephrine stores, nor does it have any type of dopaminergic task. It boosts both alpha- and beta-adrenergic receptors, however is relatively beta-1 cardioselective with lower affinity for

peripheral alpha-1 and beta-2 receptors [26]. In grownups, it raises cardiac contractility, stroke volume and cardiac result with little effect on BP. Its propensity to lower systemic vascular resistance might restrict its use in conditions with pathological vasodilation such as sepsis. It might be a reliable representative in neonatal hypotension accompanied by myocardial disorder and low cardiac outcome.

Plasma dobutamine degrees correlate reasonably well with infusion rates however not with cardiac result or BP reaction. Plasma clearance rates are independent of gestation and birthweight. A positive impact on left ventricular efficiency at dosages of 5-- 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$, and increases in systemic blood flow at doses of 10-- 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}/\text{min}$, have been shown.

Epinephrine and norepinephrine

Epinephrine is an endogenous catecholamine with direct alpha- and beta-adrenergic actions, which is released from the adrenal medulla in feedback to stress. At reduced dosages, beta-1 and beta-2 effects are predominant, resulting in enhanced myocardial contractility and outer vasodilatation. At greater doses, extra excitement of alpha receptors triggers peripheral vasoconstriction and boosted systemic vascular resistance.

Norepinephrine is a catecholamine neurotransmitter released from peripheral adrenergic nerve endings. It is occasionally used in adult and paediatric crucial care, where profound outer vasodilatation and hypotension occur together, for example, in septic shock. It is hardly ever used in neonatal method. A single study, published only in abstract form, reported clinical experience with norepinephrine infusion in 29 neonates [27]. The general survival in this group of sick babies was roughly 50%, although isolated digestive tract perforation (perhaps arising from mesenteric

infarction) was identified in 4 survivors. Other prospective negative impacts are similar to those of epinephrine defined above.

Corticosteroids

Relative or outright adrenocortical insufficiency is ending up being progressively identified as a factor for hypotension in the preterm infant. Sick preterm infants have reduced cord blood cortisol concentrations and a limited ability to increase cortisol manufacturing in response to demanding issues. Cortisol concentrations are vice versa related to gestational age, and are specifically low in hypotensive children obtaining inotropic support [28].

Conclusion:

Hypotension occurs generally in preterm babies on intensive care. The relevance of hypotension lies in the assumed effect of blood pressure variations on cerebral blood flow aside from other organ perfusion. Though large number of the hypotensive newborn are not hypovolemic, a fluid bolus could possibly boost cardiac outcome. Infants that are hypotensive despite volume development require inotropic assistance. Dopamine is much more effective compared to volume expansion in the treatment of hypotension in the preterm infant, although the latter could be useful in enhancing left ventricular output. Successful treatment of hypotension is also more likely with dopamine compared to dobutamine, but this may be related to a fall in left ventricular output.

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