

1 **AORTOCAVAL FISTULA DELAYS GASTRIC EMPTYING OF LIQUID TEST MEAL IN AWAKE RATS**

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Arteriovenous (AV) anastomoses disrupt cardiovascular and renal homeostasis,
25 eliciting hemodynamic adjustments, resetting the humoral pattern, and inducing cardiac
26 hypertrophy. Because acute circulatory imbalance alters gut motor behavior, we studied the
27 effects of AV fistula placement on the gastric emptying (GE) of a liquid meal in awake rats. After
28 laparotomy, we created an aortocaval fistula (ACF) by aorta and cava wall puncture with a 21-,
29 23-, or 26-gauge needle. The ACF was not created in the control group, which underwent sham
30 surgery. After 12, 24, or 48 h, mean arterial pressure (MAP), heart rate (HR), and central venous
31 pressure (CVP) were continuously recorded, and cardiac output (CO) was estimated by thermal
32 dilution. The rats were then gavage-fed a test meal (i.e., phenol red in glucose solution), and
33 fractional dye retention was determined 10, 20, or 30 min later. The effect of prior bleeding on
34 ACF-induced GE delay, the role of neuroautonomic pathways, and changes in plasma hormone
35 levels (i.e., angiotensin II, arginine vasopressin, atrial natriuretic peptide, corticosterone, and
36 oxytocin) were evaluated. Compared with the sham group, ACF rats exhibited arterial
37 hypotension, higher ($p < 0.05$) HR, CVP, and CO values, and increased ($p < 0.05$) gastric dye
38 retention, a phenomenon prevented by bilateral subdiaphragmatic vagotomy and
39 hexamethonium treatment. Pirenzepine also impaired the occurrence of gastric delay in virtue
40 of ACF. In addition to causing hyperkinetic circulation, ACF placement delayed the GE of liquid
41 in awake rats, an effect that likely involves a parasympathetic pathway.

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43 **Keywords:** Arteriovenous Fistula; Gastrointestinal Motility; Hyperkinetic Circulation; Intestinal
44 Transit; Natriuretic Hormone

45

46 INTRODUCTION

47 Hyperkinetic circulation is a systemic condition that may originate from an
48 arteriovenous (AV) fistula, either as a congenital malformation or acquired after invasive
49 procedures (e.g., percutaneous renal biopsy), surgeries (e.g., nephrectomy), or trauma (e.g.,
50 stab or gunshot wounds) (24,11). Large AV fistulas are considered a simple and reliable model
51 to elicit congestive heart failure (13). Laboratory animals with an aortocaval fistula (ACF)
52 present hemodynamic and neurohumoral changes that resemble those seen in patients with
53 heart failure, including cardiac hypertrophy (22). These animals have high levels of cardiac
54 output and mean circulatory filling pressure, in addition to tachycardia, low resistance to blood
55 flow in circulatory vessels, and decreased mean arterial pressure (MAP) (17).

56 As a consequence of inducing such changes, the placement of an AV fistula activates
57 complex neurohumoral mechanisms that may restore hemodynamic homeostasis. During the
58 decompensated phase, the exacerbated activity of vasoconstrictors and sodium-retaining
59 agents (e.g., the renin-angiotensin system, arginine vasopressin [AVP], oxytocin [OT], the
60 sympathetic nervous system) overwhelm the vasodilatory and natriuretic influence of atrial
61 natriuretic peptide (ANP), bradykinin, and nitric oxide (NO), leading to avid salt retention. For
62 compensation to occur, the effects of natriuretic substances must prevail over the effects of
63 opposing systems, increasing the renal excretion of fluid and electrolytes (39,38).

64 In addition to their vasoactive and diuretic properties, these agents alter the activity of
65 gut smooth muscle and may enhance gastric tonus (16). Moreover, we have shown that blood
66 volume redistribution modifies gastrointestinal motor behavior (40,14). Taken together, our
67 hypothesis is that the opening of an AV fistula impels the circulation to a hyperkinetic status,
68 which affects the gut motor behavior in virtue of hemodynamic adjustments and multiple
69 neurohumoral changes. Thus, this study was designed to verify in awake rats (i) if the
70 hemodynamic changes elicited by an ACF alter the gastric emptying rate and upper

71 gastrointestinal transit of a liquid test meal; (ii) if the autonomic nervous system exerts a role
72 on such phenomenon and (iii) if the establishment of ACF acutely alters the plasma levels of
73 AVP, ANG, OT, ANP, and corticosterone.

74

75 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

76 All of the procedures were performed in accordance with the ethical principles for the
77 care and use of laboratory animals of the Brazilian Society for Laboratory Animal Science after
78 approval by the local ethics committee (protocol no. 46/07). Male Wistar rats (230-280 g) were
79 obtained from colonies raised by the Federal University of Ceará and maintained in a
80 temperature-controlled room on a 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle. They were isolated in Bollman's
81 cages and fasted for 18 h with free access to an oral rehydration solution (ORS; 75 mM Na⁺, 65
82 mM Cl⁻, 20 mM K⁺, 75 mM glucose, and 10 mM citrate) to clear the stomach of food residue
83 while maintaining normovolemia and euglycemia.

84 ***Surgical procedures***

85 After overnight fasting, the rats were anesthetized with tribromoethanol (250 mg.kg⁻¹,
86 i.p.). After laparotomy, they were subjected to ACF placement (ACF group) or a sham procedure
87 with no ACF placement (sham group) as previously reported (13). Briefly, the abdominal aorta
88 and inferior vena cava were exposed and dissected together. Using a vascular clamp, the
89 vessels were occluded together below the renal artery, briefly stopping distal blood flow. A
90 disposable needle was then used to puncture the aorta and advanced until it perforated the
91 opposite wall to reach the vena cava lumen. After removal of the needle, the vascular holes
92 were sealed with cyano-acrylate glue. Prompt observation of the pulsatile flow of oxygenated
93 blood in the vein was considered confirmation of a successful AV shunt. Separate subgroups of
94 ACF rats were formed according to the extent of the AV shunt created by 26-gauge (fine), 23-
95 gauge (intermediate), and 21-gauge (wide) needles, termed the 26G, 23G, and 21G groups,

96 respectively. A similar procedure was performed in sham rats, which did not receive an
97 aortocaval puncture.

98 Three stainless-steel wires (0.203 mm outer diameter; Teflon-coated; A. M. Systems,
99 Everett, WA, USA) were affixed to the chest muscles and hip muscle of the left paw and then
100 exteriorized at the interscapular region. After connecting them to a bioamplifier (ML132
101 BioAmp) coupled to a data acquisition system (PowerLab/8SP, ADInstruments[®], Australia), an
102 electrocardiographic signal could be derived to continuously record heart activity. The femoral
103 and common carotid arteries and jugular vein were then cannulated with polyethylene-50 (PE-
104 50) thermocouple and PE-90 catheters, respectively. The distal ends of the catheters were
105 subcutaneously exteriorized and fixed at the interscapular region. Continuous monitoring of
106 MAP (in mmHg), central venous pressure (CVP; in cmH₂O), and heart rate (HR; in beats.min⁻¹)
107 was performed by connecting the catheters to pressure transducers coupled to a digital system.
108 Cardiac output (CO; in mL.min⁻¹) was estimated using the thermal dilution method (6). Systemic
109 vascular resistance (SVR) was calculated as $SVR = MAP.CO^{-1}$, and stroke volume (SV) was
110 calculated as $SV = CO.HR^{-1}$. After surgery, the rats were subjected to 12, 24, or 48 h of fasting
111 but with free access to the ORS. Hemodynamic monitoring was performed just before the gut
112 motility tests.

113 ***Gastric emptying assessment***

114 A dye dilution technique, previously adapted by us (34), was used to evaluate the GE of
115 a liquid (1.5 mL) test meal (0.5 mg.mL⁻¹ of phenol red in 5% glucose solution). After 10, 20, or 30
116 min of the meal gavage, the rats, respectively named 10, 20, and 30-min postprandial
117 subgroups, were sacrificed by an intravenous (i.v.) thiopental overdose.

118 After laparotomy, the gut was divided into consecutive segments: stomach and small
119 intestine. Each segment volume was calculated by submerging it in a graduated cylinder with
120 100 mL of 0.1 N NaOH. After homogenization, the proteins in each segment were precipitated

121 with 0.5 mL of 20% trichloroacetic acid. After centrifugation, 3 mL of the supernatant was
122 added to 4 mL of 0.5 N NaOH, and the samples were read by a spectrophotometer at 560 nm to
123 construct dilution curves by plotting the dye concentrations against optic densities. The value of
124 fractional gastric dye recovery was estimated from the following equation:

$$125 \quad \text{Gastric dye retention (\%)} = 1 - \left[\frac{\text{amount of phenol red recovered in stomach}}{\text{total amount of phenol red recovered from all segments}} \right] \times 100$$

126 To exclude the possible influence of gastric acid secretion on the effects of ACF on gut
127 motor behavior, a separate group of rats was subjected to a similar protocol (i.e., laparotomy
128 either followed or not by ACF placement with a 21G needle). After 24 h, the rats received an i.v.
129 injection (0.1 mL.kg⁻¹) of omeprazole (20 mg.kg⁻¹). After basal hemodynamic monitoring, the
130 rats were gavage fed the test meal and sacrificed 20 min later for gastric dye recovery analysis
131 as described above.

132 To verify the influence of blood volume on the effects of ACF on gut motor behavior, we
133 studied a group of rats either previously subjected or not to ACF placement with a 21G needle.
134 After a period of basal hemodynamic monitoring, they underwent acute hypovolemia by
135 bleeding (15 mL.kg⁻¹) via the femoral artery. They were then gavage fed the test meal and
136 sacrificed 20 min later for gastric dye recovery analysis as described above.

137 The role of the autonomic nervous system on the phenomena studied herein was
138 assessed in separate groups of rats that were previously subjected to tribromoethanol
139 anesthesia (250 mg.kg⁻¹, i.p.) and laparotomy, followed or not by bilateral subdiaphragmatic
140 vagotomy (19) or celiac ganglionectomy + splanchnicectomy (12). Two days later, they were
141 anesthetized again and subjected or not (sham) to ACF (21G) placement. Twenty-four hours
142 after the second surgery, the rats were subjected to basal hemodynamic monitoring followed
143 by gavage feeding with the test meal and sacrificed 20 min later for gastric dye recovery
144 analysis.

145 To verify the involvement of nicotinic neural pathways in the effects of ACF on gut
146 motor behavior, a separate group of rats was subjected to laparotomy under anesthesia
147 followed or not by ACF (21G) placement. After 24 h, they were subjected to hemodynamic
148 monitoring and pretreated with the ganglioplegic compound hexamethonium ($10 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, i.v.).
149 They were then gavage fed with the test meal and sacrificed 20 min later for gastric dye
150 recovery analysis as described above. To investigate the role of cholinergic pathways, a
151 separate group of rats was subjected to laparotomy under anesthesia followed or not by ACF
152 (21G). After 24 h, they were subjected to hemodynamic monitoring and pretreatment with
153 pirenzepine ($7 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, i.p), a muscarinic antagonist more selective for M_1 receptors. They were
154 then gavage fed with the test meal and sacrificed 20 min later for gastric dye recovery analysis
155 as described above.

156 ***Small intestine transit assessment***

157 To assess the effect of ACF on small intestine transit, another group of rats underwent
158 a different protocol. After tribromoethanol anesthesia and laparotomy, the wall of the stomach
159 fundus was cut to insert a silicone cannula (0.3 mm outer diameter; Silastic, Dow Corning,
160 Midland, MI, USA) into the gut. The cannula was advanced into the duodenal lumen 1 cm distal
161 to the pylorus. It was fixed to the stomach wall using a purse-string suture, with its free end
162 subcutaneously exteriorized and fixed at the dorsal region. Three days later, the rats were
163 anesthetized again and subjected to laparotomy, followed or not (sham) by ACF (21G)
164 placement. After 24 h, the rats were subjected to basal hemodynamic monitoring followed by
165 gavage feeding with the test meal (1.0 mL) via the duodenal cannula and sacrificed 20 min later.
166 After gut exeresis, the stomach and first 1 cm of the duodenum that contained the tip of the
167 cannula comprised segment 1. The remaining gut was carefully stretched and removed.
168 Obstructive ligatures were performed to obtain five consecutive segments of the small intestine
169 (approximately 20 cm long). Each segment was homogenized, and its dye content was

170 determined spectrophotometrically as described above. Fractional marker retention was
171 calculated for each gut segment as the ratio between the amount obtained in it and the sum of
172 the amounts of all of the segments, including the gastro-duodenal segment. The value obtained
173 for each segment was then multiplied by the respective number of segments and summed to
174 calculate the geometric center of the marker distribution throughout the gut as previously
175 reported (31).

176 ***Plasma hormone analysis***

177 For plasma hormone measurements, a separate group of rats was decapitated 24 h after
178 ACF placement, and blood was collected in chilled tubes that contained heparin (for AVP and
179 OT) or peptidase inhibitors (for ANG II and ANP). Plasma was obtained after centrifugation (20
180 min, 3000 rotations per minute, 4°C) and stored at -20°C until specific extraction and the
181 radioimmunoassay procedures. The specific antibodies for the corticosterone, ANG II, AVP, and
182 OT radioimmunoassays were obtained from Peninsula (ANG II, T4007; AVP, T4561; OT, T4084;
183 San Carlos, CA, USA). The antibody for ANP was generously donated by Dr. Jolanta Gutkowska
184 (Hotel Dieu, University of Montreal, Montreal, Quebec, Canada). Radioimmunoassay sensitivity
185 and intra- and interassay variation coefficients were 0.5 pg.mL⁻¹ and 14.9-27.1% for ANG II, 0.7
186 pg.mL⁻¹ and 4.8-10.0% for ANP, 0.8 pg.mL⁻¹ and 7.7-11.9% for AVP, 0.9 pg.mL⁻¹ and 7.0-12.6%
187 for OT, and 0.4 µg.dL⁻¹ and 5.1-8.4% for corticosterone (18).

188 ***Blood gas analysis***

189 To verify a putative effect of blood pH and gases parameters in the ACF effects on gut
190 motor behavior, subsets of sham and 21G ACF rats were anesthetized with tribromoethanol
191 (2.5 g.kg⁻¹, i.p.). Next, a polyethylene cannula (PE-50, Intramedic Clay Adams, Franklin Lakes, NJ,
192 USA) was inserted into the carotid artery, allowing for the collection of a 3 mL blood sample. A
193 blood gas and electrolyte automatic analyzer (Cobas b 121, Roche) was used for measurement
194 of pH, P_{CO2}, P_{O2}, base excess, O₂ saturation, HCO₃⁻ concentration and hematocrit (36).

195 **Statistical analysis**

196 The hemodynamic data that were recorded throughout the studies were pooled as
197 mean MAP, CVP, and HR values into consecutive 10-min intervals: basal (i.e., the first 40 min of
198 monitoring, which included the pharmacological treatments) and postprandial (i.e., up to 30
199 min, just after gavage of the test meal). Each subgroup consisted of 6-9 rats. All of the data are
200 expressed as mean \pm SEM, with the exception of the gastrointestinal transit index values, which
201 are presented as medians and interquartile ranges. Differences in gastric retention values
202 between groups were assessed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by Tukey's
203 multiple comparison test compared with the control group. Hemodynamic intra-group data
204 differences between the basal period and successive intervals were compared using one-way
205 repeated-measures ANOVA, followed by the Bonferroni test when appropriate. Values of $p <$
206 0.05 were considered statistically significant. For the analysis of plasma hormone levels, we
207 used the unpaired Student's *t*-test.

208

209 **RESULTS**

210 In the present study, the following hemodynamic parameters were monitored: MAP,
211 CVP, HR, CO, SV and SVR. During the basal monitoring period, they varied spontaneously, but
212 no difference ($p > 0.05$, ANOVA) was found between the baseline mean values recorded
213 throughout the 40 min observation interval, either in control or ACF rats.

214 The impact of ACF placement on hemodynamic indices in awake rats is shown in Fig. 1.
215 Compared with the basal mean values of their respective sham group, the 23G and 21G ACF
216 rats had higher CVP, CO, HR, and SV levels ($p < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test) and lower MAP
217 and SVR levels ($p < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test). Compared with the mean values in the
218 respective sham rats, 26G ACF placement did not significantly alter MAP, CVP, or HR levels but
219 increased CO levels ($p < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test; Fig. 1A, B, and D). In other hand, their

220 respective MAP and SVR values, the 21G and 23G ACF rats showed lower ($p < 0.05$) levels in
221 comparison with those of 26G ACF subset. On the other hand, both 21G and 23G ACF rats
222 showed higher ($p < 0.05$) values of CVP and HR in comparison with the respective levels of 26G
223 ACF subset. Thus, we used a 21G needle to further study the mechanisms that underlie ACF-
224 induced GE delay. Fig. 2 shows that 21G ACF placement significantly increased CVP, HR, CO, and
225 SV levels but decreased MAP and SVR levels, which were manifested as soon as 12 h and
226 persisted for at least 48 h.

227 Fig. 3 shows that ACF placement delayed the GE of a liquid test meal in awake rats.
228 Compared with the values in the respective sham rats, no significant difference in fractional
229 gastric dye recovery was observed in the 21G ACF group, but it was enhanced at both 24 h and
230 at 48 h ($P < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test; Fig. 3A). In rats studied 24 h after AV shunt or sham
231 surgery, ACF placement consistently increased fractional gastric dye recovery compared with
232 their respective control values at different postprandial time intervals (i.e., after 10, 20, and 30
233 min of meal gavage; $p < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test; Fig. 3B). Moreover, gastric retention
234 caused by ACF placement depended on the dimensions of the AV shunt. When analyzing all of
235 the data from ACF rats handled with 21G needles and studied 20 min postprandially, a strong (r
236 = 0.96) and significant ($p < 0.001$) positive correlation was found between the degree of the AV
237 shunt and respective fractional gastric dye recovery value (Fig. 04).

238 Gastric retention caused by ACF placement appeared to be unrelated to a putative
239 effect of hyperdynamic circulation on gastric acid secretion. Omeprazole pretreatment did not
240 alter the increase in gastric dye recovery values ($p < 0.05$, ANOVA and Tukey's test) elicited by
241 ACF placement ($33.5 \pm 2.5\%$ vs. $51.4 \pm 4.5\%$ in sham and ACF rats, respectively). In contrast,
242 acute bleeding prevented the GE delay in ACF rats (Fig. 05).

243 Fig. 6B shows that bilateral subdiaphragmatic vagotomy prevented gastric retention in
244 ACF rats. Compared with the gastric recovery values in respective sham rats, ACF placement

245 enhanced ($p < 0.05$) gastric retention in rats previously subjected to coeliac ganglionectomy +
246 splanchnicectomy ($32.8 \pm 6.7\%$ vs. $54.0 \pm 4.0\%$, respectively; Fig. 6A). Hexamethonium and
247 pirenzepine treatment increased gastric recovery values ($p < 0.05$) compared with vehicle-
248 treated sham rats ($53.5 \pm 4.6\%$ and $52.1 \pm 3.4\%$ vs. $37.1 \pm 2.5\%$, respectively) but prevented the
249 ACF-induced GE delay of the liquid test meal ($53.5 \pm 4.6\%$ vs. $48.7 \pm 2.9\%$ and $52.1 \pm 3.4\%$ vs.
250 $48.0 \pm 3.5\%$ respectively; Fig. 6C and 6D).

251 The plasma levels of ANP, ANG II, and corticosterone are shown in Fig. 6. In comparison
252 with their respective values of sham group, the establishment of an AV shunt by creating an
253 ACF significantly decreased the plasma levels of ANG II ($46.8 \pm 12.2 \text{ pg.mL}^{-1}$ vs. 114.4 ± 15.1
254 pg.mL^{-1} ; $p < 0.01$, unpaired Student's t-test), while it significantly increased corticosterone (19.2
255 $\pm 2.3 \text{ }\mu\text{g.dL}^{-1}$ vs. $8.7 \pm 1.9 \text{ }\mu\text{g.dL}^{-1}$; $p < 0.05$, unpaired Student's t-test) and ANP levels (72.9 ± 5.0
256 pg.mL^{-1} vs. $44.2 \pm 5.9 \text{ pg.mL}^{-1}$). On the other hand, ACF establishment did not affect plasma
257 values of OT ($2.6 \pm 0.5 \text{ pg.mL}^{-1}$ vs. $3.4 \pm 0.3 \text{ pg.mL}^{-1}$) or AVP ($1.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ pg.mL}^{-1}$ vs. 1.4 ± 0.1
258 pg.mL^{-1}).

259 In contrast, ACF placement did not alter the small intestine transit of the liquid test
260 meal. No significant changes in marker progression in the gut were found between the 21G ACF
261 and sham rats studied 20 min postprandially, reflected by the median values of the meal's
262 geometric center ($3.3 [2.7-3.4]$ vs. $3.4 [0.3-4.0]$, respectively). No significant changes were
263 observed in the blood pH and gas analysis between sham and 21G ACF rats [Supplementary
264 material].

265

266 **DISCUSSION**

267 The present study showed that ACF placement delayed the GE of a liquid test meal in
268 awake rats. The phenomenon occurred during the decompensated phase of blood volume

269 redistribution, unbalancing cardiovascular function, inducing arterial hypotension and
270 tachycardia, and increasing CVP and CO levels.

271 The vascular puncture technique that is used to create an ACF elicits hyperkinetic status
272 that clearly depends on the extent of the AV shunt. The ACF placement with a 26G needle did
273 not change MAP, CVP, or HR levels. In contrast, these indices changed when the vessels were
274 punctured with wider bevels. Under such conditions, the hemodynamic changes were reliable
275 and noticeable 24 h after surgery. However, some of the effects faded after 48 h, especially the
276 increase in SV, because of the influence of homeostatic factors. Thus, we used a 21G needle
277 and allowed a 24-h interval for the full expression of the hyperkinetic state.

278 Although the difference in gastric retention between the sham and ACF rats studied 12 h
279 after surgery was not statistically significant, ACF placement delayed GE at 24 h, a phenomenon
280 that persisted for at least 48 h. The gastric dye recovery values in the sham group studied at 12
281 h were significantly elevated, likely because anesthesia and laparotomy caused gastroparesis
282 (4,5). Such an hypothesis seems plausible because gastric dye recovery decreased at 24 h and
283 plateaued thereafter. According to Coimbra *et al.* (1996) (8), the paralytic ileus is a short-lived
284 phenomenon in rats because their gut motor behavior pattern returns to normal with 12 to 24
285 h.

286 The gut motility assessment was performed using a dye dilution technique, a simple and
287 reliable method (27). Nonetheless, the phenol red dye used as a marker is a pH-dependent
288 reagent, which may have biased the present analysis if one considers that AV placement
289 eventually increases gastric acid secretion, thus inhibiting GE via duodenal chemical stimulation
290 (9). However, we may exclude the possibility of such bias because both vehicle- and
291 omeprazole-pretreated ACF rats had similar gastric dye recovery values.

292 The present work provides data that further strengthen the idea of a functional
293 connection between cardiovascular and gastrointestinal systems in the context of blood

294 volume homeostasis. Such a concept was first advanced by Sjövall et al. (1983) (33), in which
295 passive postural maneuvers were found to alter gut permeability in healthy volunteers.
296 Orthostasis maximized intestinal salt and water absorption, whereas tilting favored secretion.
297 Consistent with such observations, we found that acute hypervolemia, caused by saline or
298 blood transfusion increased gastric tonus in dogs and rats; a response preventable by bleeding
299 (7,32). Moreover, mechanical stretch of the right atrium by a balloon catheter increased, in a
300 volume dependent way, the gastric retention in awake rats, phenomenon also preventable by
301 bleeding (25). In the present study, a clearly positive relationship was found between CO values
302 and the amount of dye recovered from the stomach in ACF rats, and bleeding hindered the
303 ACF-induced GE delay.

304 A sympathetic influence on the present results appears to be unlikely because
305 disruption of sympathetic input to the gut by splanchnicectomy + celiac ganglionectomy did not
306 prevent gastric retention caused by ACF placement. In rats previously subjected to bilateral
307 subdiaphragmatic vagotomy, gastric dye recovery values in the sham and ACF subgroups were
308 similar. Thus, parasympathetic innervation appears to be involved in ACF-induced GE delay.
309 Such involvement seems to depend on cholinergic pathways since pretreatment with
310 pirenzepine, an antagonist of M₁ muscarinic receptors, was able to prevent the decrease in
311 gastric emptying induced by ACF. Further neuroautonomic involvement was investigated by
312 blocking nicotinic receptors with hexamethonium. Pretreatment with the ganglion-blocking
313 quaternary ammonium compound in sham rats increased gastric retention compared with the
314 vehicle-untreated sham group. Further supporting our present findings, a previous study
315 showed that hexamethonium delayed GE (15). Notably, however, ACF placement failed to
316 further promote gastric retention in hexamethonium-treated rats. Thus, neuronal
317 parasympathetic synapses appear to be involved in ACF-induced GE delay.

318 The role of vagus nerves in the present phenomenon may involve two mechanisms: (i)
319 inhibition of the parasympathetic excitatory input to the stomach that sustains gastric motor
320 tonus or (ii) an increase in the descending inhibitory drive to the stomach via a vago-vagal reflex
321 that increases gastric compliance (“receptive relaxation”) (3).

322 Although further studies are necessary to identify the actual physiological mechanisms
323 responsible for the present GE delay caused by ACF placement, the present study generated
324 other important data, especially with regard to the ability of ACF placement to alter the plasma
325 levels of circulating hormones, with the exception of oxytocin and AVP. Confirming previous
326 reports both in animals (1) and humans (20) under hyperkinetic conditions, the ACF rats in the
327 present study exhibited higher plasma ANP levels. This likely has a cardiac origin as a part of
328 compensatory vasodilator responses elicited by the creation of such a large AV fistula. In fact,
329 the ACF group exhibited an increase in CVP concomitant with a decrease in SVR. Nevertheless,
330 ANP may also influence gut motor behavior through a direct action because of its inhibitory
331 effects on smooth muscle contractility (21). Moreover, the stomach and colon also appear to
332 contain the highest amount of ANP messenger RNA (41).

333 Conversely, other compensatory responses involve vasoconstrictor pathways, including
334 activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and AVP release. The AV fistula opening
335 appears to increase ANG II and AVP blood levels because of sustained arterial hypotension via
336 baroreceptor activation in the arterial circulation (2). However, in the present ACF rats, blood
337 levels of AVP remained unaltered, whereas blood levels of ANG II decreased. These results
338 clearly conflict with previous findings obtained from animals that were studied at least 1 week
339 after opening the AV fistula (30). This apparent discrepancy may be understood if one considers
340 that the present data were obtained acutely (i.e., only 24 h after ACF placement) during a stage
341 prior to full activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system. Nevertheless, the low ANG

342 II level observed in the present study is consistent with ACF-induced GE delay. In fact, ANG II is
343 considered to have predominantly stimulatory actions on small intestine motility (35).

344 Another important finding was the increase in the blood levels of corticosterone in ACF
345 rats studied at 24 h, which may be putatively involved in ACF-induced GE delay since
346 laparotomy increases the secretion of corticosterone, thus stressful conditions may delay GE in
347 laboratory animals (29). However, it should be taken into account the specific temporal
348 patterns of gastric retention observed in the present study (i.e., a gradual decrease 12 h after
349 surgery in sham rats while a steady elevation in the ACF group even 48 h later). Moreover,
350 corticosterone, even when administered systemically, does not change GE rate in mice and
351 dogs (28,23). Thus, corticosterone seems not to be directly responsible for the ACF-induced GE
352 delay.

353 Considering the complex process that modulates the gastroduodenal flow of liquid
354 meals in awake mammals (26), the ACF-induced GE delay observed in the present study may
355 have resulted from increased gastric relaxation, decreased antral contractility, or enhanced
356 pyloric or duodenal resistance (10). Because an isotonic liquid was used as the test meal, such
357 an effect is unlikely to be mediated through the enhanced intestinal inhibition of GE (i.e., via
358 the "duodenal brake"). Moreover, no difference was found in the marker progression of
359 intestinal transit in sham and ACF rats. Thus, we consider that ACF placement increased gastric
360 dye recovery by inhibiting the tonus of the proximal stomach.

361 As a fact, ACF establishment delays the GE of a liquid test meal in awake rats and,
362 therefore, its respective inflow to the small intestine, which, in turn, postpones the absorption
363 of fluids and electrolytes by the enteric epithelium. Thus, it is conceivable to cogitate that the
364 hyperkinetic circulation elicited by ACF placement alters the gut motor and permeability
365 behavior, lessening the blood volume overload, at least acutely. Moreover, the present GE

366 delay may be associated with the gut dysmotility complains (i.e., bloating and dyspepsia)
367 reported by patients with heart failure syndrome due to AV fistula (37).

368 In conclusion, the placement of a large AV infrarenal shunt (i.e., ACF) induced a
369 hyperkinetic circulation and elicited the GE delay of a liquid test meal in awake rats,
370 phenomena that depended on an intact and functional parasympathetic nerve drive to the gut.
371

372 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

373 This work was part of an M.Sc. dissertation on Pharmacology presented by Dr. Silva to
374 the Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, Federal University of Ceará. The authors
375 would like to thank Mr. Willy Okoba for revising the manuscript and Mr. Haroldo Pinheiro for
376 his helpful technical assistance.

377 **GRANTS & DISCLOSURES**

378 CAPES, CNPq, FAPESP, and FUNCAP supported this study. No conflicts of interest,
379 financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

380 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

381 MTBS, RCP Jr, FHL, TAM, TNFG, and FGVO performed the experiments. MTBS and RCP Jr
382 discussed the results and wrote the paper. PJCM and AAS designed the experiments, discussed
383 the results, and revised the paper.

384

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- 492

Figures

493

494 Fig. 1. Effects of aortocaval fistula (ACF) and its respective sham surgery (control, □) on basal
495 hemodynamic values in awake rats. The fistula was created by vascular puncture with a 26-
496 gauge (26G, ■), 23-gauge (23G, ◻), or 21-gauge (21G, ■) needle. Twenty-four hours after
497 surgery, the animals were subjected to continuous hemodynamic monitoring for 40 min. (a)
498 Mean arterial pressure (MAP, in mmHg). (b) Mean central venous pressure (CVP, in cmH₂O). (c)
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504 Fig. 2. Comparison of basal hemodynamic values between rats previously subjected to
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513

514 Fig. 3. Effects of aortocaval fistula (ACF) on fractional gastric retention of a liquid meal in awake
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524 Fig. 4. Correlation between cardiac output values ($\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and respective fractional gastric
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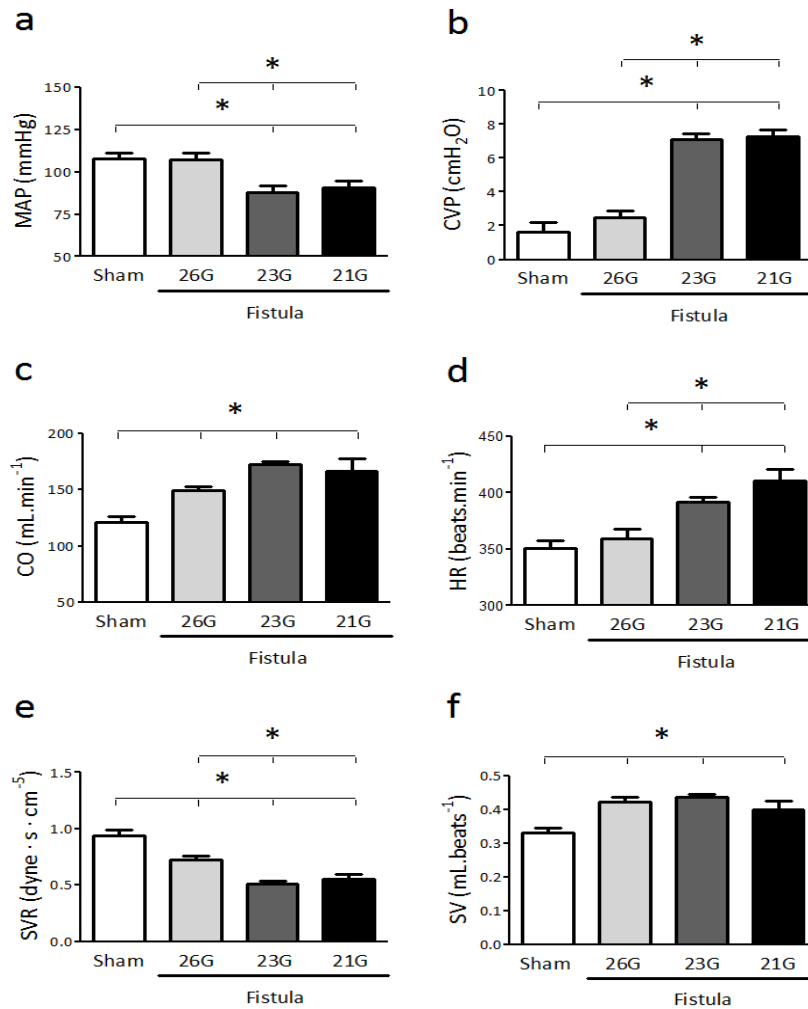
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533 Fig. 5. Effect of bleeding on aortocaval fistula (ACF)-induced gastric emptying delay of liquid in
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542 Fig. 6. Effects of neuroautonomic extrinsic denervation on aortocaval fistula (ACF)-induced
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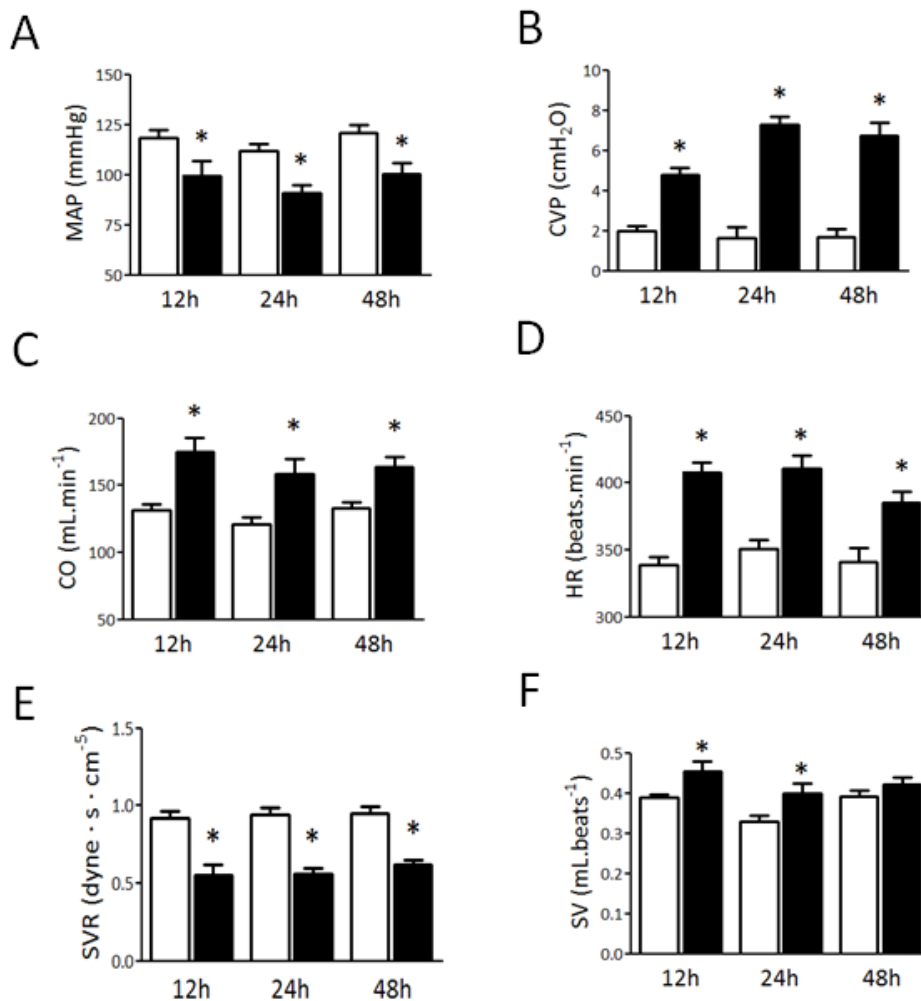
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559 Fig. 7. Comparison between plasma levels of (A) atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), (B) angiotensin
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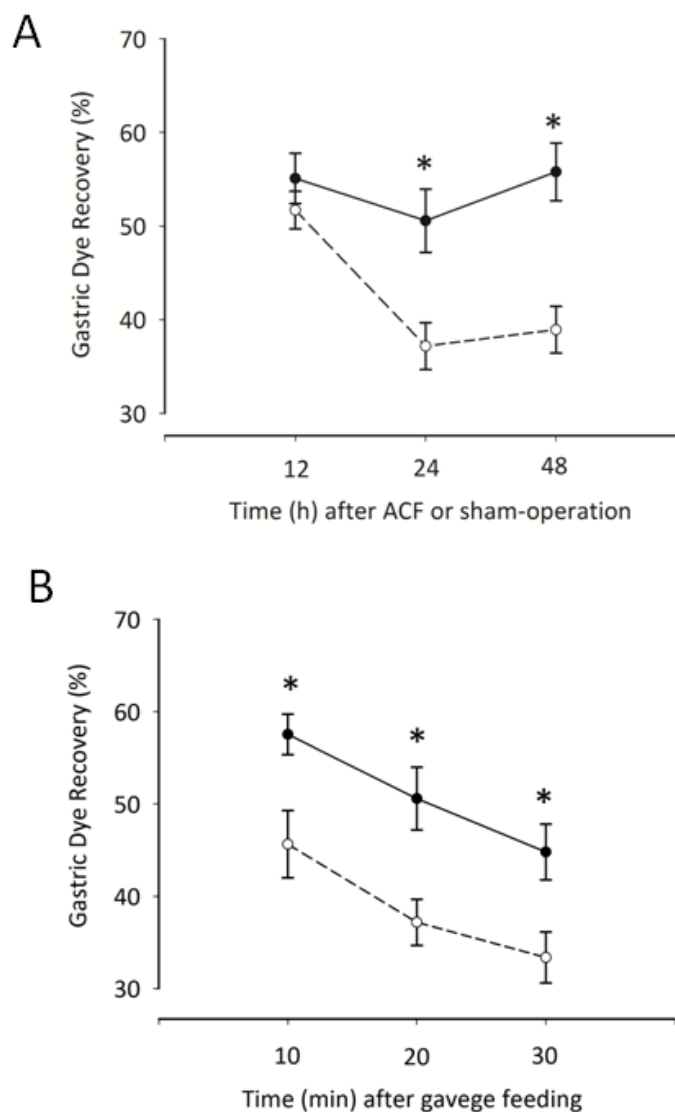
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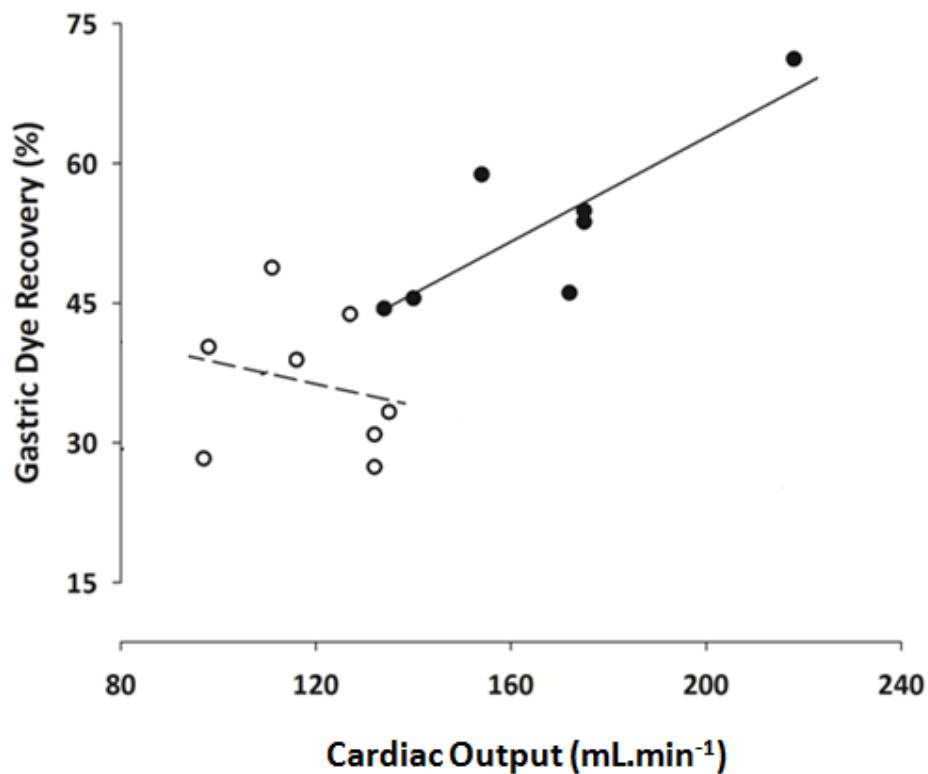
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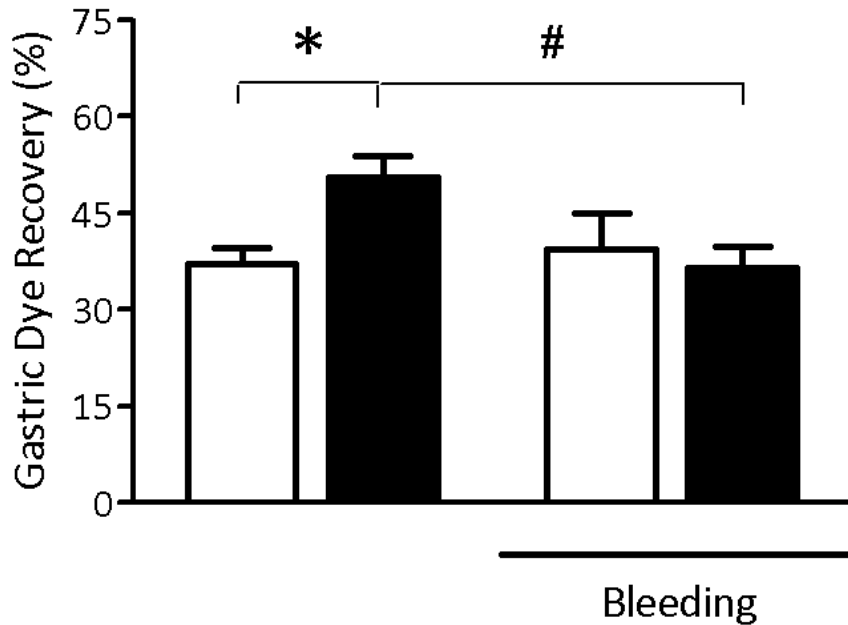


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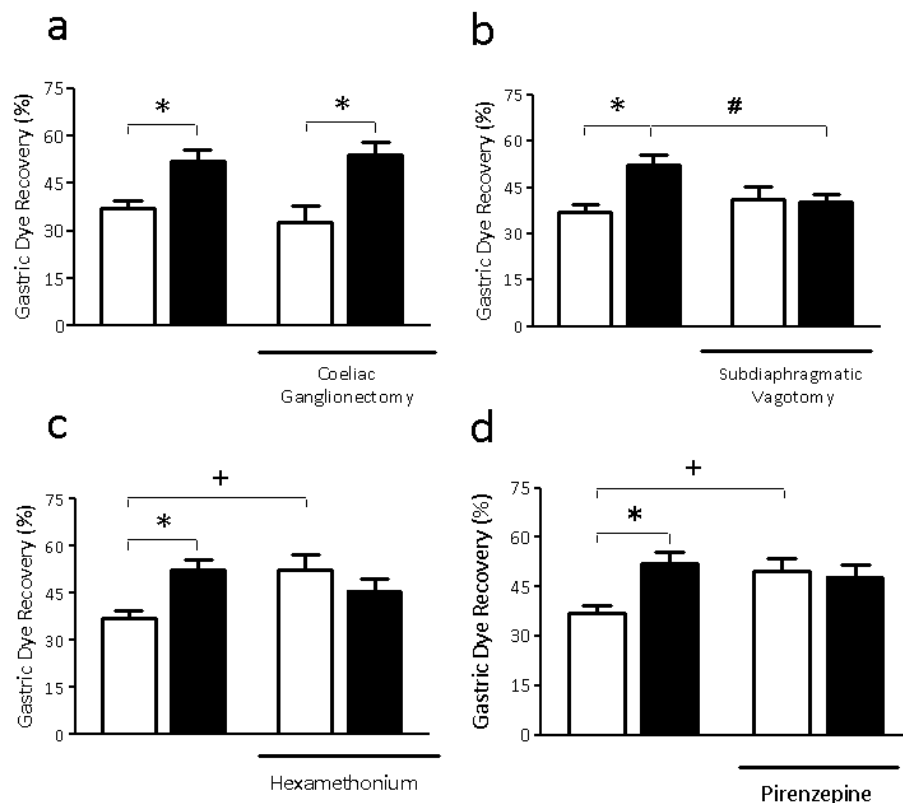
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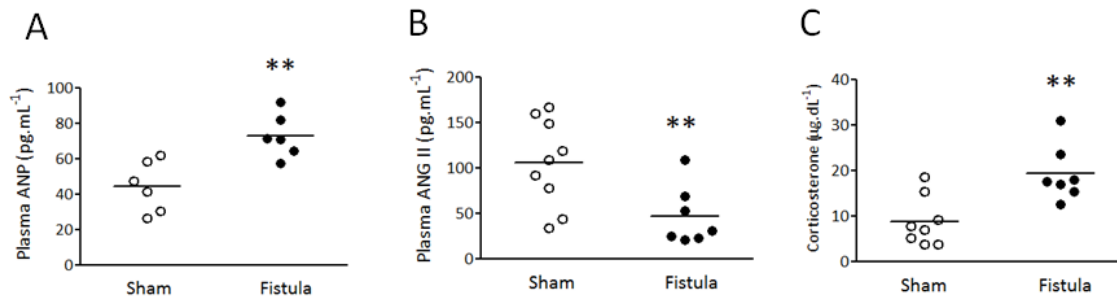


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 67 Student's *t*-test).

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71

72 **Fig. 7.** Comparison between plasma levels of (A) atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), (B) angiotensin
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1 "AORTOCAVAL FISTULA DELAYS GASTRIC EMPTYING OF LIQUID TEST MEAL IN AWAKE RATS"

2 Supplementary Material H-00827-2012

3

4 Table 01. Arterial gasometrical analysis obtained from awake rats previously submitted to sham
5 surgery or aortocaval fistula (ACF) placement. Values are expressed as mean±SEM.

	Sham (n=8)	ACF (n=8)
pH	7.39±0.02	7.38±0.01 [@]
Base Excess (mmol.L ⁻¹)	1.22±0.57	2.00±0.71 [@]
[HCO ₃ ⁻] (mmol.L ⁻¹)	25.43±0.55	26.23±0.65 [@]
PCO ₂ (mmHg)	45.45±2.71	48.03±3.12 [@]
PO ₂ (mmHg)	62.61±4.95	61.31±4.86 [@]
SatO ₂ (%)	77.10±3.62	78.66±2.81 [@]
Hct (%)	37.93±0.55	40.28±1.08 [@]

6

@, $P > 0.05$ after unpaired Student's "t" test.