

Nutrition in Clinical Surgery

SECOND EDITION

Editor

**MERVYN DEITEL, M.D., F.R.C.S.(C),
F.A.C.S., F.I.C.S., F.A.C.G., F.A.C.N.**



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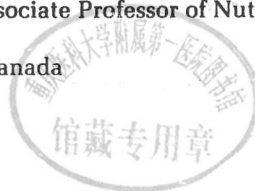
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Accurate indications, adverse reactions, and dosage schedules for drugs are provided in this book, but it is possible that they may change. The reader is urged to review the package information data of the manufacturers of the medications mentioned.

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Foreword

Until the late 1960s and early 1970s, malnutrition was accepted as an inexorable part of disease and trauma. Anorexia, after all, is the first symptom of illness. If that illness was prolonged, the increasing nutritional deficits resulted in a patient less capable of regaining homeostasis. During the last decade, however, the nonvolitional nutritional support techniques described in this book were developed and disseminated to clinicians throughout the world. These clinicians were eager to master such techniques, so that they might break the cycle of disease/malnutrition/worsening disease, which they observed in their critically ill patients. It was learned quickly that, if these patients were placed on nutritional support and the deterioration associated with secondary malnutrition was eliminated from that process, usually the disease itself became more treatable and the patient's survival was enhanced. Also in that decade, we began to ask why what we did worked or did not work, and whether things could be done better. This led to the development of multiple approaches to solve the complex problems of a patient requiring nutritional support. It also led to the birth of a whole industry providing the medical devices, solutions, and delivery systems needed. The fact that this industry grew from nearly nothing in the early 1970s to almost one billion dollars yearly in the early 1980s is testimony to the recognition by the medical community of the value of nutritional support. This intense activity is remarkable, considering that members of the medical community who utilize these techniques are essentially self-taught. There are a few fellowship programs in clinical nutrition and nutritional support, but the vast majority of training is still relegated to on-the-job experience during residency programs and postgraduate courses sponsored by such groups as the American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition and various other medical and surgical socie-

ties. The reason for the acceptance and utilization of nutritional support techniques is obvious. It works; at least as well as any other support technique, and it buys time for the patient and the clinician to diagnose and treat the underlying disease process itself.

The efficacy of nutritional support can be documented through serial nutritional assessments. The indices used in these assessments have been shown to parallel closely morbidity and mortality. In fact, although energy is important, we now realize that protein is the quintessential substrate and that the patient's protein status, particularly the status of the visceral protein compartment, must be maintained or supported. As we learn more, we are constructing formulas to match disease types and stages as well as formulas for types and degrees of stress.

Hyperalimentation, however, does not work unexpected wonders. Where malnutrition or energy deficits impact an outcome, the results of nonvolitional feeding are excellent. Where this is not the case, they are not. In addition to chapters devoted to techniques of enteral and parenteral hyperalimentation, specific chapters detail the uses and expectations of nonvolitional feeding in short-bowel syndrome, intestinal complications of radiation therapy and its applications in severe esophageal disease, inflammatory bowel disease, pancreatitis, etc. However, if the patient is dying of malnutrition plus a disease, and the surgeon eliminates malnutrition as a confounding variable, the patient will go on to die of the disease unless it can be treated effectively.

This book, then, does not direct the surgeon to "hyperaliment" a patient who obviously has an intra-abdominal abscess, beyond the point where good surgical judgment dictates that the patient should be brought back to the operating room and the abscess drained. Likewise, hyperalimentation cannot cure cancer, set a fracture, harvest and replace a skin graft, or

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drain a pseudocyst. It is a tool—a clinical support system not unlike blood replacement, ventilatory or dialysis support, which has specific indications and expectations. Just as all surgeons have learned to order blood and blood products, intubate and use a ventilator, so too they seek a working knowledge of nutritional support. This book provides that.

Nutrition in Clinical Surgery was written by clinicians who, like you the reader, are “in the trenches.” The contributors do not consider themselves to be specialists in nutrition beyond their clinical specialty. The principal charge to the authors was to keep each chapter practical. Therefore, this book does not have to be read from start to finish; each chapter

stands on its own and can be consulted as needed.

The importance of this work is that it is designed to serve the practitioner. It reflects a change not only in the knowledge base regarding contemporary clinical nutrition, but also in the expectations of good medical practice in light of developments over the past decade.

In short, this book is full of “need to know” information written clearly by those who care for patients for those who also care for patients. The editor and authors can be proud of a job well done.

Mitchell V. Kaminski, Jr., M.D., F.A.C.S.
Chicago, Illinois

Preface

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This book has been written to provide the practical aspects of nutrition for the busy clinical surgeon and surgical resident, without having to wade through overwhelming biochemistry and theoretical research. The book, we believe, also has value for the gastroenterologist, internist, clinical pharmacist, dietician, nurse, and anyone involved in a Nutritional Support Service and clinical care.

Each chapter stands on its own, and can be consulted independently as needed. We are indebted to the renowned authors who are acknowledged experts in their fields for their enthusiasm, universal promptness, cooperation, and friendship. Many chapters have required the collaboration of authors working in different hospitals, different cities, different countries, and even different continents. The result has been a melding of concepts and techniques.

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The book begins with the history and basic principles of surgical nutrition and nutritional status. This is followed by the delivery of liquid diets, since they have been slightly overshadowed by parenteral alimentation, but should be a first consideration if the gut is functioning. Next, the practical principles of each aspect of parenteral nutrition are discussed, leading to various roles in the organization of a Nutritional Support Service. Then, applications and principles related to specific diseases are individually presented. Then follows a discussion of the relation of dietary fiber to surgical disease. The Index at the back of the book is geared to direct the reader to various parts of the book where a facet may be discussed, e.g., specific chapters are devoted

to the important field of home parenteral nutrition, but this topic is also alluded to in other parts of the book where it is relevant. The book has undergone a complete revision, and contains chapters dealing with computers and renal, hepatic, and respiratory failure.

We would like to thank MEDI-EDIT LTD. of Toronto for the efficient and pleasant editorial assistance. We are also indebted for assistance to the Sponsors on the following page, who encouraged this endeavor.

At this time, I would like to thank the following doctors who have helped me at various times in my career—Drs. Leon Ginzburg, William I. Wolff, Max L. Som, Robert A. Mustard, William R. Drucker, G. Tom Shires, J. Alexander McIntyre, Donald R. Wilson, Neil A. Watters, and Bernard Langer. I am grateful to the St. Joseph's Health Centre Research Foundation for encouragement of my projects in earlier years. My wife Frances and sons Kevin and Wayne have been very supportive through this venture.

Clinical nutrition has attained its rightful importance in the past two decades, particularly due to the stimulus given this work by Dr. Stanley J. Dudrick. "Hyperalimentation" has broadened the chances for patients to tolerate disease and undergo operations. Progressive malnutrition can be reversed and survival achieved in situations previously associated with a high mortality. With these goals in mind and in the name of the contributing authors, we offer this book as a contribution to clinical surgery.

Mervyn Deitel, M.D.
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SECTION I

BASIC PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES

CHAPTER ONE

History of Nutrition in Surgery

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An understanding of the role of nutrition in the treatment or prevention of disease before the 18th century was minimal. Treatment was confined to the use of emetics, purgatives and enemas, to herbal remedies, and to various dietary alterations, including starvation. As far back as 1500 B.C., the Egyptians were using clysters (enemas) as part of a ritual of fasting, purging, and rectal feeding for the preservation of health (1). It would have been impossible to contemplate infusing nutrients, fluids, or drugs intravenously before 1616, when William Harvey (2) first described the circulation of blood. However, once the nature of the circulatory system had become established, it was not long before scientists began to investigate the possibilities (Table 1.1).

In 1656, when he was Savilian Professor of Astronomy at Oxford, Sir Christopher Wren (better known as the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral in London) infused ale and wine into the veins of dogs, using a goose quill attached to a pig's bladder (3, 4). These substances were known to be safe to ingest and to have some nutritional value. He also infused opium, which stupefied the dog but did not kill him, and *Crocus mettallorum*, which caused the dog to "vomit up life and all." This was probably the first instance of an intravenously administered medication. This experiment was repeated at Pisa by Carolo Fracassato in 1658, with similar results (4). Wren was also reported to have tried to infuse vinum emeticum into the vein of an inferior servant of a European prince. The patient apparently swooned and the experiment had to be abandoned.

In 1664, Caspar Scotus administered wine and purgatives intravenously to dogs (4, 5). In the following year, Escholtz published a book containing an account of the new method of intravenous (IV) infusion plus details concerning three patients whom he had treated with IV medications (4, 6). M. Hoffman of Altdorf is said by several writers to have been the inventor of infusion, but his experiments seem to

have been contemporaneous with those of Escholtz (4).

In 1670, techniques of IV entry and infusion were described in a book entitled *Clysmatica Nova*, published in Holland. In 1678, William Courten (7) of Montpellier injected numerous substances (olive oil, sugar, vinegar, wine, purgatives, opium, urine, and salt solutions) intravenously into animals and diligently recorded his results. Many others followed, injecting a variety of substances with variable consequences, and the subject was reviewed comprehensively by Fortescue-Brickdale (4) in 1904. Considering how little was known about biochemistry, microbiology, blood types, and immunology, it is not surprising that problems arose and little progress was made for more than a century.

Nasoenteric tube-feeding had been used sporadically since ancient times, but the father of modern-day enteral feeding was John Hunter, the surgeon to King George III. In 1793, in London, he used an eel-skin over a whalebone to feed a patient with "paralysis of the muscles of glutition" (1).

In 1831, a severe cholera epidemic in England proved to be a new stimulus to the development of IV infusion techniques (Fig. 1.1 [8]). Fluid losses from vomiting and diarrhea frequently led to fatal dehydration, and because giving fluid by mouth or rectum was impossible, the use of IV fluids had to be considered in spite of the potential problems. In that year, Thomas Latta (9) of Leith, Scotland, infused saline solutions into cholera patients, with great success. His decision to use saline was based on work describing the blood of cholera victims, which was thick, black, and cold. He therefore diluted their blood with water and salt, and naturally this was successful. He selected a patient who "had apparently reached the last moments of their earthly existence and now nothing could injure her. Indeed so entirely was she reduced that I fear that I shall be unable to get my apparatus ready ere she expire." He injected ounce after ounce