UNIVERSIDADE SÃO FRANCISCO

Programa de Pós-Graduação Stricto Sensu em Ciências da Saúde

CAMILA VANTINI CAPASSO PALAMIM

IMPACTO DA PRESSÃO POSITIVA EXPIRATÓRIA FINAL NA HEMODINÂMICA, HEMATOSE E *DRIVING PRESSURE* EM PARTICIPANTES SEM DOENÇA PULMONAR: UM ESTUDO DE INTERVENÇÃO

Bragança Paulista 2022

CAMILA VANTINI CAPASSO PALAMIM - RA: 001202010034

IMPACTO DA PRESSÃO POSITIVA EXPIRATÓRIA FINAL NA HEMODINÂMICA, HEMATOSE E *DRIVING PRESSURE* EM PARTICIPANTES SEM DOENÇA PULMONAR PRÉVIA: UM ESTUDO DE INTERVENÇÃO

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação S*tricto Sensu* em Ciências da Saúde da Universidade São Francisco, como requisito parcial para obtenção do Título de Mestre em Ciências da Saúde.

Área de Concentração: Biologia Celular e Molecular

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Fernando Augusto Lima Marson

Bragança Paulista 2022

WF 768	Palamim, Camila Vantini Capasso
P179i	Impacto da Pressão Positiva expiratória final na hemodinâmica, hematose e driving pressure em participantes sem doença pulmonar prévia: um estudo de intervenção / Camila Vantini Capasso Palamim. Bragança Paulista, 2022.
	Dissertação (Mestrado) – Programa de Pós-Graduação <i>Stricto</i> <i>Sensu</i> em Ciências da Saúde da Universidade SãoFrancisco.
	Orientação de: Fernando Augusto Lima Marson.
	1. PEEP. 2. Driving pressure. 3. Ventilação mecânica invasiva. 4. Índice de oxigenação. I. Marson, Fernando Augusto Lima. II. Título.

Sistema de Bibliotecas da Universidade São Francisco – USF Ficha catalográfica elaborada por: Denise Isabel Arten / CRB-8/5823



Educando para a paz

PALAMIM, Camila Vantini Capasso. "Impacto de pressão positiva expiratória final na hemodinâmica, hematosa e driving pressure em participantes sem doença pulmonar prévia: um estudo de intervenção". Dissertação defendida e aprovada no programa de Pós-Graduação *Stricto Sensu* em Ciências da Saúde da Universidade São Francisco em 11 de fevereiro de 2022 pela Banca examinadora constituída pelos professores:

Prof. Dr. Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson Orientador e Presidente Universidade São Francisco

> Profa. Dra. Mayra Caleffi Pereira Universidade São Francisco

Profa. Dra. Raquel de Cássia dos Santos Universidade São Francisco

Prof. Dr. Rodrigo Marques Tonella (por videoconferência) Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais



Dedicatória

À minha família com amor.

Agradecimentos

Meus pais, Wilson e Vera, pelo suporte, pelo incentivo, pela vida;

Minha família, meus amores, minha base, Eliel e Vicente;

Meu orientador, Fernando Marson, minha eterna gratidão por toda dedicação;

A todos os profissionais da saúde intensiva que me incentivam, médicos, enfermeiros, psicólogos, técnicos de enfermagem, nutricionistas e farmacêuticos;

A equipe de fisioterapia do Hospital Universitário São Francisco de Assis na Providência de Deus, profissionais maravilhosos;

Às residentes de fisioterapia da Universidade São Francisco, Camila, Bianca, Thaís, Mariana e Milena;

Aos professores do Programa de Pós-Graduação *Stricto Sensu* da Universidade São Francisco por todo o conhecimento compartilhado;

A professora Tais Mendes de Camargo, sem dúvida minha inspiração na área acadêmica;

Aos meus familiares, Nilva, Evandro, Márcia, Alexandre, Elisângela, Leonardo, Miriam, Lucas, Isadora, Lisandra, Letícia e Lorenzo, amo vocês;

Àqueles amigos que sempre me incentivaram: família Kato, Eva, Gisele, Caio, Luciana, Erick, Tati (minha colega de mestrado).

Aos meus avós (Wilson, Vicente, Anna e Rosa) e meu sogro (José Salvador), in memoriam.

Epígrafe

Scegli um lavoro che ami, e non dovrai lavorare neppure um giorno in vita tua. (Confucio)

RESUMO

A pressão positiva expiratória final (PEEP, do inglês *positive end-expiratory pressure*) é a pressão mantida ao final da expiração e que mantém as unidades alveolares abertas para participarem das trocas gasosas. A PEEP pode reduzir a hipoxemia, porém, a aplicação de níveis elevados pode resultar em riscos hemodinâmicos. Os objetivos foram: realizar (i) uma revisão sistemática da literatura sobre a PEEP e a driving pressure (DP); (ii) traçar o perfil epidemiológico dos pacientes da unidade de terapia intensiva (UTI) sob ventilação mecânica invasiva (VMI) (de 2016 a 2019) para os fatores de risco associados ao óbito; (iii) verificar a resposta da hemodinâmica, da hematose e da DP perante a aplicação de três níveis da PEEP em participantes sem doenças pulmonares prévias, submetidos à VMI. Para a revisão sistemática foi realizado uma busca de artigos publicados nos últimos dez anos na plataforma PubMed e publicados até abril de 2021 com os descritores PEEP e DP com o intuito de verificar a influência da PEEP, em seus diferentes níveis, nos desfechos da alta hospitalar, principalmente associados ao DP. O perfil epidemiológico foi analisado nos prontuários eletrônicos dos pacientes internados na UTI sob VMI de 2016 a 2019 de acordo com os dados demográficos, hipótese diagnóstica, tempo de VMI e de hospitalização e PEEP e pressão arterial de oxigênio (PaO₂) de admissão. Por fim, foi realizado um estudo de intervenção, clínico, não randomizado e controlado, com o intuito de verificar o impacto na hemodinâmica, hematose e DP, utilizando diferentes níveis da PEEP no mesmo participante sob VMI. Os resultados foram: (i) um total de 577 artigos foram obtidos como resultado da busca no PubMed, destes, 33 foram analisados. Observou-se importante influência da DP que, quando se apresentou acima de 15 cmH₂O, foi associada a piora do desfecho clínico; já a PEEP mostrou que, valores individualizados, obtidos pela titulação de acordo com a melhor complacência do sistema pulmonar, otimiza a hematose e incrementa o índice de oxigenação. (ii) um total de 1.443 prontuários foram analisados. Foram significativos em relação ao risco para o óbito: a idade, o sexo masculino, o diagnóstico de sepse, a necessidade de cirurgia eletiva, a presença de acidente vascular encefálico, o tempo de internação, a hipoxemia na admissão e a PEEP >8 cmH₂O na admissão. (iii) foram incluídos 150 pacientes e na avaliação dos marcadores associados a hemodinâmica, hematose e DP não foi observada uma resposta estatisticamente significativa perante a modulação da PEEP entre seus diferentes níveis. Podemos concluir que valores ideais de PEEP são controversos na literatura, porém os estudos apontam que valores titulados de acordo com a mecânica ventilatória possuem maior benefício e menor risco de lesão pulmonar. Deve-se evitar a hipoxemia e valores de PEEP >8 cmH₂O na admissão hospitalar, pois esses são fatores de risco para desfecho desfavorável (óbito). Em pacientes sem doença pulmonar, o incremento da PEEP não impactou na hemodinâmica, na hematose e na DP, podendo, valores menores de PEEP serem utilizados com mais segurança na prática clínica.

Palavras-chave: Respiração com Pressão Positiva. Respiração Artificial. Oxigenação. Intubação. Unidade de Terapia Intensiva.

ABSTRACT

The positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) is the pressure maintained at the end of expiration, it keeps the alveolar units open to participate in the gas exchanges, thus minimizing hypoxemia, however, the application of high levels of it can increase the hemodynamic risks. The objectives were to perform (i) a search for articles on the PubMed platform, using the descriptors PEEP and driving pressure (DP); (ii) it was performed a retrospective and epidemiologic study, analyzing medical records of inpatients who needed invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV) from 2016 to 2019 to identify the risk factors associated with the risk for death; and (iii) it was evaluated the response of gas exchange, hemodynamics and DP under the application of three levels of PEEP in participants without previous pulmonary diseases, submitted to IMV. A search for articles published in the last ten years until April 2021 was performed on the PubMed platform, using the descriptors PEEP and DP, to verify the influence of PEEP, at its different levels, on the outcomes of hospital discharge, mainly for the DP. To describe the epidemiological profile from our University Hospital it was analyzed the medical records of inpatients who needed IMV from 2016 to 2019. The patients' characteristics considered were demographics data, diagnostic hypothesis, and hospitalization data. It was analyzed the PEEP and partial pressure of oxygen (PaO₂) during the IMV. A controlled, clinical and non-randomized study was carried out in order to verify the impact in gas exchange, hemodynamics and DP using different levels of PEEP in the same participant under IMV. The results were: (i) a total of 577 articles were obtained as a result of the search on PubMed, of these, 33 were analyzed. An important influence of DP was observed, which, when it is above 15 cmH_2O , was associated with worsening of the clinical outcome; on the other hand, PEEP showed that individualized values, obtained by titration according to the best compliance of the respiratory system, optimizes gas exchange and increases the oxygenation index. (ii) a total of 1,443 medical records were analyzed. Among the predictors, the following were significant in relation to the risk for death: age, male sex, diagnosis of sepsis, need for elective surgery, presence of a stroke, length of stay, hypoxemia on admission and PEEP >8 cmH₂O on admission. (iii) data from 150 patients were analyzed. In the evaluation of markers associated with gas exchange, hemodynamics, and DP, a statistically significant response was not observed regarding the modulation of PEEP between its different levels. We could conclude that optimal PEEP values are controversial in the literature, but studies indicate that values titrated according to ventilatory mechanics bring greater benefit and lower risk of lung injury. Hypoxemia and PEEP values above 8 cmH₂O on hospital admission should be avoided, as these are risk factors for an unfavorable outcome. In patients without lung disease, the increase in PEEP did not impact the gas exchange, hemodynamics, and DP. In this context, lower PEEP values may be used more safely in clinical practice.

Keywords: Positive-Pressure Respiration. Artificial Respiration. Oxigenation. Intubation. Intensive Care Units.

Lista de símbolos e abreviações

- CO₂ Dióxido de carbono
- DP do inglês Driving pressure
- FiO2 Fração inspirada de oxigênio
- O₂ Oxigênio
- PaO₂ Pressão arterial de oxigênio
- PEEP do inglês Positive end-expiratory pressure
- SaO₂ Saturação arterial de oxigênio
- SpO₂ Saturação periférica de oxigênio
- VM Ventilação mecânica
- VMI Ventilação mecânica invasiva

SUMÁRIO

1. INTRODUÇÃO	11
1.1. Ventilação Mecânica	11
1.2. Pressão positiva expiratória final	11
1.3. Índice de oxigenação	
1.4. Avaliação da hemodinâmica	13
1.5. Driving pressure	14
2. OBJETIVOS	14
2.1. Objetivos gerais	14
2.2. Objetivos específicos	15
3. ARTIGOS	16
CAPÍTULO I: ARTIGO SUBMETIDO	16
CAPÍTULO II: ARTIGO SUBMETIDO	68
CAPÍTULO III: ARTIGO EM ELABORAÇÃO	111
CAPÍTULO IV: ARTIGO SUBMETIDO	129
REFERÊNCIAS	172
ANEXOS	176

1. Introdução

1.1. Ventilação Mecânica

A função essencial da respiração é fornecer oxigênio (O_2) e remover o dióxido de carbono (CO_2) produzido nos tecidos e, desta forma, manter o equilíbrio gasoso do metabolismo humano (1). No entanto, em algumas circunstâncias, o suporte ventilatório é indicado para reduzir a sensação de dispneia, diminuir o trabalho respiratório e melhorar a oxigenação e/ou o *clearance* de CO_2 agindo como efetor para a troca gasosa sendo, desta forma, essencial para a respiração (1,2).

Na prática clínica é um desafio para a equipe que maneja a VM entender a interação entre o que o ventilador mecânico entrega ao parênquima pulmonar e como esse parênquima aceita e recebe tais parâmetros e, essa interação depende, principalmente, de dois fatores: (i) dos valores ofertados pelo operador, tais como volume corrente, pressões (inspiratória e expiratória), fluxo e frequência respiratória; e (ii) das condições do parênquima pulmonar que podem reduzir sua capacidade de troca gasosa, como o aumento de sua heterogeneidade, aumentando as áreas de colapso e de hiperdistensão alveolar (3).

Na insuficiência respiratória aguda, a análise de fatores condicionais da troca gasosa, principalmente, sobre a ventilação mecânica (VM) são cruciais e, possivelmente, poderão contribuir para o melhor desfecho hospitalar, o que inclui o menor tempo de hospitalização e a alta hospitalar, perante a presença da síndrome metabólica e a necessidade de suporte ventilatório.

1.2. Pressão positiva expiratória final

Dentre os parâmetros ventilatórios, a pressão positiva expiratória final (PEEP, do inglês *positive end expiratory pressure*) é a pressão que permanece no alvéolo ao final da expiração e sua aplicação pode incrementar a oxigenação pelo princípio da Lei de Fick; sendo que o aumento da PEEP pode promover o aumento da área de troca gasosa e a redução da espessura da membrana alvéolo capilar, facilitando a difusão dos gases; podendo, dessa forma, aumentar a pressão parcial de oxigênio arterial (PaO₂) e a saturação arterial de oxigênio (SaO₂) (4,5). Na rotina do atendimento, o uso de PEEP viabiliza no melhor recrutamento de alvéolos instáveis e melhora a troca gasosa e a oxigenação tissular e, ao mesmo tempo, a PEEP reduz e redistribui os estresses mecânicos heterogêneos da ventilação corrente (6,7).

Existe uma PEEP fisiológica ocasionada pelo fechamento da epiglote e represamento de ar no sistema respiratório. Essa pressão, de normalmente dois a quatro cmH₂O, impede que ocorram as atelectasias (colapso total ou parcial do pulmão ou do lóbulo pulmonar, decorrente do esvaziamento dos alvéolos) (8).

Pacientes sob VMI apresentam redução da capacidade residual funcional e essa diminuição pode acarretar a atelectasia pulmonar e o *shunt* intrapulmonar (áreas onde a perfusão no pulmão excede a ventilação), o que pode provocar em limitações na difusão do $O_2(9,10)$.

O uso da PEEP faz sentido por duas razões principais: primeiramente, por recrutar alvéolos instáveis, a PEEP melhora a troca gasosa e a oxigenação tissular; e em segundo lugar, a PEEP reduz e redistribui os estresses mecânicos heterogêneos da ventilação corrente (6,11).

A PEEP era utilizada para amenizar o quadro clínico de hipoxemia em pacientes com síndrome da angústia respiratória aguda logo após a primeira descrição desta síndrome (12). No entanto, posteriormente, níveis elevados da PEEP, juntamente, com a aplicação de manobras de recrutamento foram propostos para melhorar a taxa de sobrevida dos pacientes (13). Entretanto, após estudos translacionais e clínicos terem sido publicados, a efetividade destas manobras continua a ser uma temática ainda controversa quanto sua segurança e sua eficácia (13-16).

1.3. Índice de oxigenação

O índice de oxigenação [razão entre a PaO_2 e a FiO_2 (fração inspirada de oxigênio)] é utilizado em pacientes para avaliar a gravidade do distúrbio ventilatório condicional a uma determinada intervenção terapêutica (17).

Na definição de Berlin para síndrome da angústia respiratória aguda, a estratificação de risco se dá baseada na relação PaO₂/FiO₂ para a avaliação e o diagnóstico inicial da síndrome (18).

A PaO₂ é um dos principais marcadores para avaliar o sucesso do processo de troca gasosa podendo ser um dado obtido na gasometria arterial. O valor de normalidade da PaO₂ para indivíduos saudáveis é de 100 mmHg aos 20 anos e de 80 mmHg aos 70 anos; sendo que é descrita a queda média de quatro mmHg a cada década vivida (2,19). A maior parte do oxigênio sanguíneo é transportado em combinação química com a hemoglobina nos eritrócitos, cada molécula de hemoglobina pode carregar até quatro moléculas de oxigênio, assim sendo, a redução da

hemoglobina pode contribuir para a redução da PaO_2 (20) e, neste contexto, ambos marcadores são estritamente associados entre si. Na literatura referida, é descrito que pacientes que respondem com o aumento da PaO_2 com a FiO₂ constante perante o incremento da PEEP tem seu risco de óbito reduzido, sendo o uso da PEEP um indicativo da melhora do desfecho clínico (21,22).

Estudos apontam que a aplicação da PEEP melhora a troca gasosa, no entanto, o incremento efetivo na oxigenação ainda não é bem esclarecido, ou seja, o quanto o nível da PEEP causa de impacto na troca gasosa precisa ainda ser mais bem avaliado com o intuito de se entender o limiar fisiológico associado ao benefício ou malefício do uso da PEEP em numerosas situações clínicas (9,23).

Nesse contexto, na literatura, é claro que valores elevados da PEEP podem acarretar o barotrauma (lesão causada pela variação de pressão no pulmão) ou na instabilidade hemodinâmica, em particular durante a manobra de recrutamento alveolar onde é sabido que ocorre sobrecarga do ventrículo direito. Por outro lado, o reestabelecimento da capacidade residual funcional pelo uso da PEEP resulta na redução dessa sobrecarga e da resistência vascular pulmonar (24-26). Dessa forma, o conhecimento sobre o nível ideal da PEEP e seu desfecho, em cada caso, é crucial. Tal conhecimento é de grande ajuda para manter o nível da PaO₂ dentro do alvo de normalidade estabelecido na literatura como benéfico na manutenção da troca gasosa. Adicionalmente, na atual conjectura para a prática clínica, o aumento no nível da PEEP é realizado visando incrementar a PaO₂, porém isso é feito de forma não padronizada e não se sabe o quanto o aumento de um valor da PEEP incrementa no valor da PaO₂.

1.4. Avaliação da hemodinâmica

Assim como a aplicação da PEEP está associada à melhora na oxigenação (aumento da PaO₂), a aplicação de níveis elevados da mesma pode resultar em riscos hemodinâmicos (12). A presença de elevados valores de pressões intratorácicas implica em menor débito cardíaco e no aumento da resistência vascular pulmonar que podem levar à alteração da função do ventrículo direito (sobrecarga ventricular) (24).

São considerados níveis baixos e/ou fisiológicos da PEEP: de três a sete cmH₂O; níveis moderados: de oito a 12 cmH₂O e, acima de 13 cmH₂O, o nível da PEEP é considerado elevado – fator de risco para a lesão pulmonar (11).

Nesse contexto, na avaliação hemodinâmica, numerosos marcadores podem ser avaliados, dentre eles, destacamos: (i) saturação transcutânea periférica de O₂ da hemoglobina (SpO₂; estimativa da PaO₂ mensurada por um oxímetro); (ii) frequência cardíaca (velocidade do ciclo cardíaco medida pelo número de contrações do coração por minuto); (iii) pressão arterial diastólica ou menor (menor valor verificado durante a aferição de pressão arterial decorrente do repouso do músculo cardíaco para a passagem do sangue); e (iv) pressão arterial sistólica ou máxima (maior valor verificado durante a aferição de pressão arterial decorrente da contração do músculo cardíaco, quando ele bombeia sangue para o corpo).

1.5. Driving pressure

Recentemente, a *driving pressure* foi mencionada como um marcador a ser utilizado para otimizar a VM no intuito de melhorar o desfecho de pacientes com síndrome do desconforto respiratório agudo. A *driving pressure* é obtida subtraindo a PEEP da pressão de pausa inspiratória e pode ser determinada pela razão do volume corrente total pela complacência estática do sistema respiratório. Estudos da síndrome do desconforto respiratório agudo concluem que a *driving pressure* é um bom preditor de desfecho clínico do paciente sob intubação (VMI) (27,28).

A associação entre valores de *driving pressure* e o desfecho clínico foi descrito pela primeira vez em 2002. Deste ano em diante, foi denotado que valores acima de 15 cmH₂O de *driving pressure* estão associados a desfechos desfavoráveis, no entanto, que valores abaixo deste *cut-off* podem ser favoráveis a melhor evolução clínica do paciente sob VMI (7).

2. Objetivos

2.1. Objetivos gerais

Descrever a importância da PEEP na prática diária e de sua influência nos marcadores de hemodinâmica e de hematose, bem como na *driving pressure*.

2.2. Objetivos específicos

(i) realizar uma revisão sistemática da literatura (período de 10 anos) considerando a influência dos diferentes níveis da PEEP no uso da VMI. O ponto focal da revisão foi a avaliação do impacto da PEEP na PaO₂ e na *driving pressure*.

(ii) realizar um estudo epidemiológico dos participantes submetidos à VMI na unidade de terapia intensiva do Hospital Universitário São Francisco de Assis (Bragança Paulista) nos últimos cinco anos de seguimento (2016 a 2019) com a descrição de marcadores demográficos, clínicos e laboratoriais, diagnóstico ou hipótese diagnóstica e antecedentes e avaliar a influência da PEEP e da *driving pressure* de admissão no desfecho clínico.

(iii) avaliar os marcadores hemodinâmicos e de hematose, bem como a *driving presure* de acordo com os diferentes níveis da PEEP (seis ou oito ou10 cmH₂O) em participantes submetidos à VMI.

(iv) discutir as práticas de sedação e analgesia - em particular pelo uso dos opioides utilizadas nos pacientes críticos e as repercussões destas práticas, bem como possíveis dependências que o uso dessas drogas pode causar.

3. Artigos

Capítulo I: Artigo Submetido

Title: Impact of Positive End-Expiratory Pressure (PEEP) and Driving Pressure on the Oxygenation Index and the Outcome of Patients Under Mechanical Ventilation: A Systematic Review

Short title: PEEP and Driving Pressure

Camila Vantini Capasso Palamim^{1,2}; Fernando Augusto Lima Marson^{1,2,*}

¹ Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds, University of São Francisco, Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218, Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brazil

² Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics, University of São Francisco, Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218, Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brazil

* Corresponding author: [FALM] Fernando Augusto Lima Marson, BSc, MSc, PhD.

University of São Francisco; Graduate Program in Health Science; Laboratory of Cellular and Molecular Biology and Bioactive Compounds and Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics. Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218. Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brasil. Phone +55 19 9769 2712. E-mail: <u>fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com</u> and <u>fernando.marson@usf.edu.br</u>

Email and ORCID:

CVCP: cvcpalamim@gmail.com; ORCID: 0000-0001-6825-1154

FALM: <u>fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com</u> and <u>fernando.marson@usf.edu.br</u>; ORCID: 0000-0003-4955-4234

Abstract

Introduction: Mechanical ventilation (MV) is used in severe acute respiratory syndrome to increase the survival rate; however, the inappropriate use of its parameters can lead to lung-induced ventilation injury (LIVI). Thus, it has been studied how to minimize ventilatory injury and how to optimize gas exchange through the use of safe ventilatory parameters. Therefore, this systematic review seeks to elucidate the influence of positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) and driving pressure (DP) on the oxygenation index and on the outcome of patients undergoing invasive MV.

Methods: A search for articles was performed on the PubMed platform, using the descriptors PEEP and DP, published until April 31, 2021. The English language and the study in humans were used as filters.

Results: A total of 577 articles were obtained as a result of the search; of these, 544 were excluded and 33 were analyzed, tabulated and included in the review. Most of the studies included in this review (a total of eighteen) analyzed patients diagnosed with adult respiratory distress syndrome and ten studies included patients undergoing abdominal or thoracic surgery and two studies used computational models for intervention and analysis. An important influence of DP was observed, which, when it is above 15 cmH₂O, is associated with a worse clinical outcome; on the other hand, PEEP showed that individualized values obtained by titration according to the best pulmonary compliance (and consequent lower DP) optimize gas exchange and increases the oxygenation index.

Conclusions: Ventilatory mechanics should be considered in the titration of MV parameters. PEEP should be instituted by the best pulmonary compliance, which, in turn, can increase the oxygenation index. Additionally, DP values above 15 cmH₂O were associated with worsening clinical outcome (higher risk of comorbidities and deaths).

Keywords: Driving Pressure; Mechanical Ventilation; Oxygenation Index; Positive End-Expiratory Pressure.

Introduction

Mechanical ventilation (MV) is able to increase the survival rate of patients with acute respiratory failure; however, it can contribute to the emergence of lung lesions caused by alveolar overdistension or by the cyclic opening and closing of small bronchioles or alveoli (1). For this reason, MV and its parameters have been studied with the aim of optimizing gas exchange, with minimal harmful effects (2). In this context, in order to prevent lung-induced ventilation injury (LIVI), the protective strategy has been advocated, using low tidal volumes, high levels of positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) and with controlled plateau pressure (or pause pressure inspiratory) (1,3).

PEEP is the pressure that remains in the airways at the end of expiration in patients undergoing MV. It is a parameter used to improve oxygenation, in an attempt to recruit and stabilize the alveolar units (4). Using PEEP for this purpose has been described four decades ago. Since then, studies on its use would allow the health care team to use this therapeutic modality, especially in adult respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) (5-7). However, an optimal PEEP value in critically ill patients is still controversial, as values above the necessary can lead to hyperdistention and below values, to alveolar collapse (8). In clinical practice, optimal PEEP values, although controversial, depend on individual ventilatory mechanics and its influence on gas exchange, affecting arterial oxygen pressure (PaO₂) value and, consequently, the oxygenation index.

Recently, driving pressure (DP) was mentioned as a potential marker to optimize MV and improve ARDS outcome (9). DP is obtained by subtracting PEEP from the inspiratory pause pressure and can be determined by the ratio of the plateau pressure minus PEEP (DP = Plateau pressure - PEEP) (10). In this context, we can state that, by reducing tidal volume or increasing PEEP, DP is reduced. In the literature, DP in ARDS is considered a sound predictor of clinical outcome and, therefore, it is possible that DP value can improve and optimize ventilatory strategy safety (2,11-13,14).

Considering DP and PEEP as variable tools that are easily accessible at the bedside, clinical practice should benefit from knowledge based on scientific evidence of their influence on clinical outcome, gas exchange and hemodynamic stability for a safe supply of their individualized values, reducing the need to perform tests, especially invasive ones, which can also generate an increase in the cost of hospitalization (15). Additionally, knowledge about safe ventilatory parameter values

can provide benefit to patients, since the studied markers, PEEP and DP, are closely related to a higher risk of lung injury when inappropriately offered (16).

In this context, the present literature review on these markers is of significant importance in the routine of patients who need invasive MV (IMV). This fact is more evident at this time of pandemic caused by the new coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) and which can lead to severe pneumonia followed by respiratory failure, severe hypoxemia and ventilatory changes with the need for IMV (17). Thus, the aim of this systematic review is to verify the relationship between ventilatory parameters PEEP and DP in respiratory mechanics and their impact on mechanically ventilated patients' oxygenation index, hemodynamics, and clinical outcomes.

Methods

In the systematic review, the PubMed-MEDLINE platform was used to search for articles published in the last ten years up to April 31, 2021. In the search for articles, the following descriptors were used:

Search: (PEEP or positive end-expiratory pressure) and (driving pressure).

Filters: Humans, English.

Descriptors achieved by PubMed using the search done by the researchers: Most Recent(("positive pressure respiration"[MeSH Terms] OR ("positive pressure"[All Fields] AND "respiration"[All Fields]) OR "positive pressure respiration"[All Fields] OR "peep"[All Fields] OR ("positive pressure respiration"[MeSH Terms] OR ("positive pressure"[All Fields] AND "respiration"[All Fields]) OR "positive pressure respiration"[All Fields] OR ("positive"[All Fields] AND "end"[All Fields]) OR "positive pressure respiration"[All Fields] OR ("positive"[All Fields] AND "end"[All Fields] AND "expiratory"[All Fields] AND "pressure"[All Fields]) OR "positive end expiratory pressure"[All Fields])) AND (("automobile driving"[MeSH Terms] OR ("automobile"[All Fields] AND "driving"[All Fields]) OR "automobile driving"[All Fields] OR "driving"[All Fields] OR "drive"[MeSH Terms] OR "drive"[All Fields] OR "drives"[All Fields] OR "drivings"[All Fields]) AND ("pressure"[MeSH Terms] OR "pressure"[All Fields] OR "pressures"[All Fields] OR "pressure s"[All Fields] OR "pressure"[All Fields] OR "pressures"[All Fields] OR "pressure s"[All Fields] OR "pressurisation"[All Fields] OR "pressurised"[All Fields] OR "pressures"[All Fields] OR "pressurisation"[All Fields] OR "pressurised"[All Fields] OR "pressuriser"[All Fields] OR "pressurisation"[All Fields] OR "pressurised"[All Fields] OR "pressuriser"[All Fields] OR "pressurisation"[All Fields] OR "pressurizer"[All Fields] OR "pressurizes"[All Fields] OR "pressurizing"[All Fields]))) AND ((humans[Filter]) AND (english[Filter]))

In the initial search, 577 articles were obtained, excluding case reports, review articles, metaanalyses, and letters to the editor. After the initial exclusion, 100 articles were included and read in full. The PICO strategy was used using the following markers: (Population) adult patients undergoing IMV or *in silico* models and computer simulators for performing MV; (Intervention) PEEP levels and DP values; (Control) parameters adjusted in relation to the intervention group; (Outcomes) association between PEEP level with oxygenation and DP value with clinical outcome as well as oxygenation description [ratio between PaO₂ and inspiratory oxygen fraction (FiO₂)], LIVI, and/or mortality; (Time) articles published until April 31, 2021.

From the analyzed studies, data on the influence of DP and PEEP were described (i) on the oxygenation index, on PaO_2 and on ventilatory mechanics (pulmonary compliance); (ii) on the incidence of complications related to IMV; and (iii) on the clinical outcome.

Results

A total of 577 articles resulted from the search on the PubMed-MEDLINE platform when DP and PEEP markers were used until April 2021. Of these, 544 were excluded based on the review objectives (143 review articles, 16 case report articles, 73 pediatric and neonatology articles, 67 non-invasive MV articles, 97 obstructive sleep apnea articles, 38 letters to the editor, 13 articles on extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), three articles with animals, seven meta-analysis articles, 16 clinical cases, 17 articles on high-frequency MV, 32 articles on ventilatory modalities and 32 articles for other reasons) (**Figure 1**).

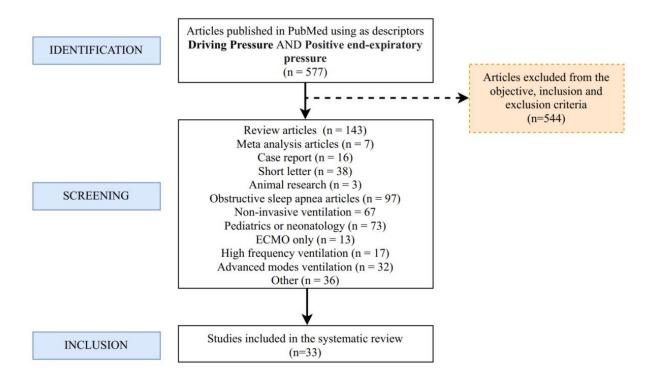


FIGURE 1. Flowchart of study inclusion.

Summing up, **Table 1** describes the name of the main author, year of publication, journal and study design of articles included in this systematic review. **Table 2** shows the description of the objective of the study, methods used, including intervention and inclusion and exclusion criteria of articles included in this systematic review. Finally, **Table 3** shows the summary description of the studies' main findings and their conclusion according to the results.

Study	Year of	Journal	Journal's impact	Study design	
Study	publication	Journa	factor	Study design	
Das et al. (15)	2019	Respiratory Research	3.890	Clinical and prospective	
				Clinical and prospective with non-randomized and	
Grieco et al. (18)	2018	British Journal of Anesthesia	6.880	controlled intervention	
Lanspa et al. (11)	2019	Critical Care	7.442	Retrospective cohort	
Shono et al. (19)	2019	Anesthesiology	5.060	Randomized and controlled intervention clinic	
Sahetya et al. (2)	2019	Critical Care	7.442	Prospective cohort	
Richard et al. (20)	2019	Intensive Care Medicine	17.679	Observational multicenter	
Bellani et al. (21)	2019	Anesthesiology	5.060	Retrospective cohort	
Zampieri et al. (22)	2019	British Journal of Anesthesia	6.880	Post hoc RTC (Randomized Controlled Trial)	
Park et al. (23)	2019	Anesthesiology	5.060	Double-blind randomized controlled	
Rauseo et al. (24)	2018	Anesthesiology	5.060	Clinical, controlled, randomized	
Pereira et al. (25)	2018	Anesthesiology	5.060	Pilot, controlled, randomized	
Chalkias et al. (26)	2018	Heart and Lung	1.840	Observational prospective	
De Jong et al. (27)	2018	Intensive Care Medicine	17.679	Unicentric retrospective	
Gogniat et al. (28)	2018	Journal of Critical Care	2.685	Intervention and experimental	
Schmidt et al. (29)	2017	Chest	7.652	Retrospective cohort	
D'Antini et al. (30)	2018	Minerva Anestesiologica	2.498	Controlled, non-randomized intervention clinic	
Ferrando et al. (17)	2017	Plos One	2.766	Pilot, randomized, controlled clinic	
Villar et al. (31)	2017	Critical care medicine	7.442	Observational retrospective	

TABLE 1. Description of the main author, year of publication, journal and study design of articles included in this systematic review
--

	2016		7.442	Secondary analysis of patient data from two
Guérin et al. (32)	2016	Critical Care	7.442	randomized controlled trials
Chiumello et al. (3)	2016	Critical Care	7.442	Prospective with literature data
Rotman et al. (33)	2016	Anesthesiology	5.060	Prospective cohort
Baedorf Kassis et al.				
(34)	2016	Intensive Care Medicine	17.679	Cohort observational retrospective
				Pilot, multicenter, prospective, randomized,
Kamarek et al. (35)	2016	Critical care medicine	7.442	controlled
				Clinical, prospective, randomized, controlled
Beitler et al. (36)	2016	Critical care medicine	7.442	intervention
				Clinical, prospective, non-randomized, controlled
Cinnella et al. (37)	2015	Anesthesiology	5.060	intervention
		New England Journal of		
Amato et al. (10)	2015	Medicine	16.591	Observational with post hoc analysis
Das et al. (38)	2015	Critical Care	7.442	Experimental using computer simulator
Mauri T et al. (39)	2013	Critical care medicine	7.442	Intervention, prospective, randomized, controlled
				Intervention, prospective, clinical, non-
Gernoth et al. (40)	2009	Critical Care	7.442	randomized, controlled
		Anesthesiology and Intensive		
Szakmany et al. (41)	2004	Care Journal	1.539	Clinical and prospective
Biker et al. (42)	2010	Critical Care	7.442	Clinical, prospective with intervention
Sahetya et al. (44)	2019	Respiratory Care	2.258	Prospective, physiological, pilot
Fernadez-		British Journal of		
Bustamante (43)	2020	Anesthesiology	9.166	Prospective, multicenter, pilot study

TABLE 2. Description of objectives and methods used (including intervention) the inclusion and exclusion criteria of studies included in this systematic review to identify the impact of positive end-expiratory pressure and driving pressure on the oxygenation index and outcome of patients under mechanical ventilation

Study	Objectives	Methods	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria	Intervention
Das et al. (15)	Review the influence of driving pressure (DP) on LIVI in <i>in silico</i> models.	Multi-compartment computational model that simulated the integration of heart and lung disease by analyzing data from 25 adult patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). The model was developed to represent the <i>in vivo</i> cardiorespiratory dynamics, comprising the conductive airways and 100 parallel alveolar compartments, which responded according to stiffness, applied pressures, airway and blood vessel resistance. The study allowed the replicability of the ventilation perfusion relationship. The model included physiological reflex mechanisms such as hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction. The	Data from 25 patients with ARDS were used in a computer simulator of an <i>in-silico</i> model.	Not reported.	Of the 25 patients with ARDS, according to severity, 13 were classified as severe, 7 as moderate and 6 as mild. Patients' body weight was 70 kg and all were considered to be deeply sedated. With a positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) of 10 cmH ₂ O, arterial blood gas data, cardiac index and hemodynamic changes during the alveolar recruitment maneuver were replicated. To assess LIVI, the values of DP, static compliance, dynamic strain and mechanical power during the alveolar recruitment maneuver were calculated. In

					Participa
					oxygen via
			Patients without obesity (body		min before Orotrach
			mass index < 30),		performed
Grieco et al. (18)	Verify whether compliance and DP reflect on aerated lung volume and dynamic strain during general anesthesia in non-obese patients.	Twenty non-obese patients underwent open abdominal surgery and received 3 PEEP levels (2, 7 and 12 cmH ₂ O) with constant tidal volume in a hospital in Italy, between March 2017 and January 2018.	classified in ASA (American Society of Anesthesiologists) 1 and 2, without cardiac and pulmonary comorbidities and who underwent open abdominal	Pregnancy and liver surgery.	total paraly muscles. V used were mL/kg of respirato capnograph KPa, and ir fraction (F could be in periphera (SpO ₂) ab
			surgery with an		(SpO_2) ab

estimated time

above 150 min.

diagnosis of ARDS was performed according to the Berlin criteria.

the simulation process, data was recorded every 10 milliseconds.

ants received 100% ia a reservoir mask 3 anesthetic induction. heal intubation was ed after verifying the ysis of the respiratory entilatory parameters e: tidal volume of 7 of predicted weight, ory rate to maintain hy between 3 and 4.3 nitial inspired oxygen FiO₂) of 40%, which ncreased to maintain al oxygen saturation pove 92%. The three values during surgery PEEP were maintained for 40 min and the first value was applied 40 min after the beginning of the procedure. The following

Measurements were taken for
each PEEP value: static
compliance, lung volume,
arterial blood gas values and
alveolar dead space fraction.Assess the
influence of DP
and tidal
volume in
patients with18 years or older,
under IMV for atNume in
patients with18 years or older,
controlledvolume in
patients with18 years or older,
under IMV for atvolume in
volume in
volume in
volume in
volume in
volume in
patients withNerssure controlled
modes, spontaneous

Lanspa et al. (11)	and tidal volume in patients with respiratory failure without adult respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS).	Patients under invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV) in medical, surgical, cardiac, and trauma Intensive Care Units (ICUs) of 12 hospitals in Utah and Idaho for two years. Two cohorts: ARDS and non- ARDS patients (according to the Berlin definition).	under IMV for at least 24 hours in controlled volume, controlled pressure and controlled volume with regulated pressure modes.	Pressure controlled modes, spontaneous modes, patients on prolonged IMV and with extreme or underreported tidal volume values.	Retrospective cohort study
Shono et al. (19)	Observe the effect of applying PEEP of 15 cmH ₂ O on the distribution of ventilation during robotic	49 patients were randomized and divided into two groups: PEEP of 5 cmH ₂ O (26 patients); PEEP of 15 (23 patients) cmH ₂ O. Patients received the same anesthesia protocol, were ventilated with pressure mode, reaching a tidal volume of 6-8 mL/kg of predicted	Patients aged 18 years or older, and with ASA classification 1 or 2.	Chronic lung disease and heart disease.	The distribution of pulmonary ventilation was measured by an electrical impedance tomograph at various times: (in the supine position for the first moment) 10 min after anesthetic induction, 10 min after recruitment maneuver - before

	laparoscopic	weight. FiO2 was measured to			pneumoperitoneum;
	prostatectomy.	maintain SpO2 above 94% and the			(Trendeleburg position at 25° at
		frequency respiratory was titrated to			the second moment) 20, 60 and
		maintain a concentration of CO ₂ at			120 min, after
		the end of expiration (EtCO ₂)			pneumoperitoneum by an intra-
		between 35 and 45 cmH ₂ O.			abdominal device with 12
		Vasoactive drug was administered			cmH ₂ O; (supine position at the
		in the presence of arterial			third moment) 10 min after
		hypotension. Patients after surgery			deflating the
		were referred to the recovery room			pneumoperitoneum pressure
		and received analgesia. Lung			device and 10 min after
		function was assessed by a physical			extubation.
		therapist and a pain scale (scored			
		from zero to ten) was used.			
	Vorifre sub oth or	Data from 6,179 critically ill			Biostatistical methods were
	Verify whether	patients from 59 US ICUs were		Patients without	used to assess the relationship
plateau valu Sahetya et	higher DP and	used. DP and plateau pressure		MV, without ARDS	between plateau pressures and
	plateau pressure	variables were assessed in 1,132	Patients admitted	classification,	DP in hospital mortality of
	values are associated with	mechanically ventilated patients and	to ICUs, under	without plateau	patients undergoing MV with
al. (2)		associated with in-hospital	MV, aged 18	pressure and/or DP	and without ARDS. For
	a worse	mortality. Analysis was stratified	years and older.	values, or with non-	analysis, 1,132 patients were
	outcome in	according to ARDS status		compatible values	included; of these, 822 withou
	patients without	(classified by the American		for assessed markers.	ARDS and 310 with ARDS,
	ARDS.	European Consensus Conference).			both groups had pneumonia as

		DP, plateau pressure (by an			the cause of mechanical
		inspiratory pause of 0.5 sec) and			ventilation (MV) and most of
		PEEP (set on the mechanical			the individuals were of clinical
		ventilator) were measured.			and non-surgical origin.
		Data collected: anthropometric and		ARDS diagnosis for	After inclusion, patients were
		demographic, admission category,		more than 24 hours,	volume-controlled ventilated
		immunodeficiency, time since		IMV for more than	and had the volume reduced by
		ARDS diagnosis, Simplified Acute	Patients aged 18	48 hours, intracranial	1 in 1 mL until reaching 4
		Physiology Score II (SAPS-II),	years or older,	hypertension,	mL/kg of predicted weight with
		Richmond Agitation Sedation Scale	from 11 ICUs,	chronic obstructive	the goal of the following
		(RASS), vasopressors and	under IMV,	pulmonary disease	targets: plateau pressure less
	Assess if the use	sedatives, ventilatory parameters,	diagnosed with	(CODP), undrained	than 30 cmH ₂ O, PaO ₂ between
		arterial blood gases, Sepsis- related	ARDS according	pneumothorax,	55 and 80 mmHg, pH between
of a tidal Richard et	volume below 6	Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA),	to the Berlin	morbid obesity,	7.20 and 7.55, SpO_2 between 88
al. (20)		echocardiographic data.	definition and the	chemotherapy-	and 95%. The following adjunct
mL/Kg reduc DP.	-	Measurements: Total PEEP,	relationship	induced neutropenia,	therapies for ARDS were
	Dr.	intrinsic PEEP, DP and mechanical	between arterial	recent bone marrow	considered: use of
		power. Follow-up and outcomes:	oxygen pressure	transplant, sickle cell	neuromuscular blocker (NMB)
		follow-up was carried out until day	(PaO ₂) and FiO ₂	anemia, burn of 30	for 48h, use of the prone
		90 after inclusion; endpoints: 1.	(P/F) <150	% or more of body	position for at least 16h with
		difference in DP between day of	mmHg.	surface, Child C	P/F <150 mmHg, considered
		inclusion and day 2, 2. ratio of		liver cirrhosis,	successful when supine with
		patients reaching tidal volume <4.2		pregnancy,	$PEEP < 10 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O} \text{ e FiO}_2 < 60\%$
		mL/kg in the first two days, 3.		extracorporeal	with $P/F > 150$ mmHg, from the

		change in ventilatory parameters,		membrane	third day onwards, weaning
		vasopressors, sedatives in first two		oxygenation	from PEEP was effective as
		vasopressors, sedatives in first two days, 4. echocardiographic changes, pneumothorax and adverse events, 5. day 90 outcome.		oxygenation (ECMO) treatment, prior study inclusion.	from PEEP was effective as long as P/F >150 mmHg in the supine position. After completing these steps, ventilatory parameters were adjusted in volume-controlled ventilation or pressure support ventilation to 6-8 mL/kg of
					predicted weight.
			Patients aged ≥18		
Bellani et al. (21)	Monitor whether DP and respiratory system compliance are associated with increased mortality during spontaneous ventilatory support.	Plateau pressure was measured spontaneously by an inspiratory pause of 2 sec, in the absence of visible chest movement, flow curve at zero line and flat plateau line. Using computed tomography, the total lung volume (aerated area) was calculated.	years, diagnosed with ARDS according to the Berlin classification, submitted to MV for at least 3 consecutive days in spontaneous mode after at least 1 day in controlled care mode.	Pregnancy, bronchopleural fistula and pneumothorax.	The following were analyzed: (i) association between ventilatory parameters of the first 3 days in spontaneous mode and the mortality rate in ICUs; and (ii) association between compliance and the volume calculated by computed tomography in spontaneous mode.

Zampieri et al. (22)	Verify the heterogeneity of the effect of the alveolar recruitment maneuver (application of high PEEP values) in patients with ARDS.	Data from 1,010 patients included in the ART study were analyzed (this is a secondary post hoc analysis of the ART study).	The same inclusion criteria as the ART study were used (this is a secondary post hoc analysis of this study). Patients diagnosed with ARDS according to the American European Consensus Conference submitted to IMV within 72 hours.	The same exclusion criteria of the ART (post hoc) study were used: age <18 years, use of rising vasopressors with mean blood pressure less than 65 mmHg, pneumothorax, subcutaneous emphysema or pneumomediastinum , patients in palliative care, previously included or contraindicated for hypercapnia.	From the analysis of the ART study participants, 28-day mortality data were obtained according to the treatment group (ART or ARDSNet). Patients were divided into three groups: (Group 1) cause of ARDS was pneumonia and vasopressor use; (Group 2) variable cause of ARDS and no vasopressor use; (Group 3) use of vasopressors and ARDS not caused by pneumonia. Variables analyzed were: SAPS-III, P/F and DP.
Park et al. (23)	Review the influence of DP on pulmonary complications in the postoperative period of	A total of 292 patients who underwent elective thoracic surgery and who were randomized and divided into two groups (protective ventilation group and DP group) were included.	Patients aged ≥19 years who underwent elective thoracic surgery and single lung ventilation.	Patients with ASA index ≥IV, with contraindication to the use of PEEP (bronchopleural fistula, hypovolemic shock, high	Ventilatory strategies: protective ventilation group - 100% FiO ₂ , tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of predicted weight with inspiratory pause of 30%, PEEP of 5 cmH ₂ O, ratio between inspiration and expiration (I:E)

	thoracic			intracranial pressure,	of 1:2, respiratory rate between
	surgery.			right ventricular	10 and 15 (for arterial pressure
				failure), or patients	of carbon dioxide (PaCO ₂)
				who refused to	between 35-40 mmHg). DP
				participate in the	Group: 100% FiO2, tidal volume
				study. As	of 6 mL/kg of predicted weight,
				discontinuity	respiratory rate of 12 with DP
				criteria: severe	was calculated with PEEP of 2
				intraoperative	to 10 cmH ₂ O after 10 cycles at
				bleeding (>500 mL),	each level, adopting the lowest
				severe hypotension	DP value.
				during the procedure	
				and change of	
				surgical plan.	
-	Verify how the alveolar recruitment strategy followed by decremental PEEP titration can influence pulmonary	The mechanics of the lung and chest		Pulmonary reduction surgeries, pneumectomy,	After sedation and monitoring,
		wall of 13 patients who underwent left lobectomy were assessed. The	Patients aged >18		patients were intubated with a
			years, undergoing		double-lumen cannula and
		considered markers were:	thoracic surgery	severe CODP,	ventilated in one lung with a
Rauseo et		transpulmonary pressure, DP, gas	and selective	pneumatocele,	Fabius respirator with a tidal
al. (24)		exchange and hemodynamic	ventilation with a	decompensated heart	volume of 6/8 mL/kg of weight,
		parameters. Two moments were	minimum	disease and acute or	respiratory rate of 12-14 ipm,
		assessed: MV with zero PEEP and	duration of 60	chronic pleural	inspiratory pause time of 33%
		MV after open lung ventilation	min.	diseases.	and FiO ₂ for SpO ₂ >95%. Then,
		(OLA) strategy – where the alveolar		ciscuscs.	the modality was changed to

	mechanics and	recruitment maneuver is performed			pressure-controlled ventilation,
	gas exchange.	followed by decremental PEEP			with an inspiratory pressure of
		titration.			20 cmH ₂ O above PEEP. PEEP
					was increased to 5, 10, 15 and
					20 cmH ₂ O every 6 breaths;
					then, with pressure controlled at
					15 cmH ₂ O above PEEP,
					titration was performed, starting
					with 15 cmH ₂ O of PEEP and
					reducing every 2 cmH ₂ O every
					2 min and calculating
					compliance static. After PEEP
					titration, another recruitment
					maneuver was performed and,
					at the end of the intervention,
					the modality used was volume-
					controlled ventilation with the
					PEEP value chosen to optimize
					the best compliance.
	Assess the	A total of 40 patients, undergoing	Patients		After alveolar recruitment
Densing	impact of PEEP measured by electrical	sured by with a PEEP of 4 cmH ₂ O. PEEP	undergoing	Not defined by authors.	maneuver, patients were
Pereira et			elective		randomized into two groups of
al. (25)			abdominal		PEEP value (4 cmH ₂ O and
	impedance	impedance tomography and alveolar	surgery between		titrated PEEP by electrical

	tomography	recruitment maneuver. After this	August 2014 and		impedance tomography) within
	versus fixed	intervention, patients were	August 2014 and April 2016.		two types of abdominal surgery
	PEEP of 4	randomized and divided into two	April 2010.		(open or video). After the
	cmH ₂ O in	groups: (group 1, n=10) PEEP of 4			surgical procedure, where PEEP
	patients with	cmH ₂ O; (group 2, n=10) titrated			and FiO_2 values were not
	healthy lung undergoing	PEEP.			modified, patients were extubated and underwent a
	abdominal surgery.				chest computed tomography scan to assess the collapsed and hyperdistended areas.
Chalkias et al. (26)	Examine the feasibility of a modified ARDSnet protocol in patients with sepsis and severe ARDS (according to the Berlin classification) undergoing surgery.	Patients were intubated in the operating room and initial ventilation was titrated with a tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of predicted weight, FiO ₂ of 100%, constant flow, I:E of 1:2 and PEEP of 5 cmH ₂ O. After 10 min of MV, ARDS was diagnosed by P/F, then the tidal volume was increased to 8 mL/kg and the other parameters adjusted according to the ARDS protocol. Optimal PEEP was titrated using 3 levels with hemodynamic stability. During surgery, when	Patients in septic shock and with complications from severe ARDS who required urgent abdominal surgery, aged ≥18 years old, from a hospital located in Greece from November 2013 to May 2017.	Not informed by authors.	The anesthetist team was informed 30 min before surgery about patients' diagnosis. Patients were intubated in the operating room using the rapid sequence sedation protocol and previously pre-oxygenated. In the initial ventilation parameters, the following was adopted: volume-controlled ventilation mode, tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of predicted weight, PEEP of 5 cmH ₂ O, FiO ₂ of 100%, I:E of 1:2, flow and

necessary, an alveolar recruitment maneuver was performed by increasing the pressure (40-45 cmH_2O) for 20 to 30 sec. Patients were monitored during the procedure and exams were carried out using a central venous catheter and an invasive arterial monitoring catheter. Patients were referred to ICUs at the end of surgery with the abdomen closed. The 90-day follow-up was carried out by telephone contact. The assessed outcomes were in follow-up after 90 days and the adverse events in the postoperative period.

constant respiratory rate to keep partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) within blood gas reference values. Predicted weight calculation: (height (cm) - 152.4) x 0.91+50 (men) or +45.5 (women). 10 min after MV onset, severe ARDS was confirmed by P/F. Then, the tidal volume was increased to 8 mL/kg of predicted weight and the other parameters adjusted according to the ARDSNet protocol. Titration of PEEP was performed using two or three PEEP levels for 15 min each level, without changing the other parameters. In order to recruit alveoli during surgery, patients underwent increased airway pressure to 40-45 cmH₂O for 20 sec, whenever necessary. The primary outcome was in-hospital

					survival at 90 days and the
					secondary were the presence of
					ICU intraoperative adverse
					events and length of stay.
					Patients were ventilated
	Examine the		ARDS patients according to the Berlin criteria.	Not defined by authors.	according to a protective
	influence of				strategy defined in the literature.
	obesity on DP,	A retrospective analysis of prospective data of patients admitted to an ICU of a university hospital diagnosed with ARDS from January 2008 to May 2017 was performed.			Data were collected from
	plateau pressure				electronic medical records and
D. Laws of	and respiratory				the following endpoints were
De Jong et	system				studied: mortality in the 90-day
al. (27)	compliance as				follow-up, ICU mortality, time
	well as on				on IMV, need for non-invasive
	mortality after				MV after extubation, occurrence
	90 days of ICU				of pneumothorax and ventilator-
	stay.				associated pneumonia, and need
					for a prone position.
	Describe the	Patients were monitored and placed	Patients diagnosed with ARDS according to the Berlin definition, aged ≥18 years, under	Hemodynamic	First FiO2 was adjusted to 100%
	effect of PEEP	in the supine position, sedated with			in order to decrease hypoxemia,
Consister	on the dead	propofol and remifentanil, with baseline ventilatory parameters for		instability, heart	data were collected after 15 min
Gogniat et al. (28)	space ratio			failure, chest wall	of baseline ventilation. After
	(obtained by the	volume-controlled ventilation with		abnormalities, and	this time, 4 PEEP values (0, 6,
	Bohr equation)	a tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of		CODPs.	10 and 16 cmH ₂ O) were applied
	and its	predicted weight, respiratory rate			for 10 min. The protocol was

	subcomponents	for pH >7.30 without causing	IMV for at least		discontinued when SpO ₂ <90%
	in mechanically	intrinsic PEEP, I:E of 1:2, PEEP of	12 hours.		Data collected: hemodynamic,
	ventilated	$10 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$, FiO ₂ of 50% (or more			respiratory, arterial blood gases
	patients with	when SpO ₂ $<90\%$) and 15% of			and tidal volume in
	ARDS.	inspiratory pause. Fluid therapy and			capnography at the end of each
		vasoactive drugs were used to			PEEP step.
		maintain mean arterial pressure >60			
		mmHg.			
					The independent variables of
Schmidt et al. (29)	Determine the association between DP and the outcome of patients under MV and without a diagnosis of ARDS on day 1 of ventilation.	Retrospective analysis of a cohort of 622 MV patients without a diagnosis of ARDS on the first day of ventilation in 5 ICUs of a US tertiary center. The primary outcome considered was mortality. The dataset was first validated by testing the model on 543 patients diagnosed with ARDS.	Patients aged ≥15 years under IMV for at least 48 hours in volume- controlled ventilation or pressure- controlled ventilation modalities.	Patients with ARDS according to the Berlin classification on day 1 of MV.	the study were: SAPS on admission, age, diagnosis on admission, Elixhauser comorbidity index on admission, highest pCO ₂ value on day 1 of MV and lowest P/F value. Mathematically linked variables were excluded. The outcomes considered were in- hospital mortality and mortality in the 6-month follow-up.
	Observe the	Twenty patients were included		Patients with	After anesthetized and
D'Antini et al. (30)	pulmonary mechanics and oxygenation	during laparoscopic cholecystectomy. Data on pulmonary mechanics and	Patients aged ≥18 years, with ASA I or II criteria.	previous heart and/or lung diseases and/or obesity.	monitored, the patient underwent an alveolar recruitment maneuver (PEEP or

	response after	hemodynamics were collected at the			5, 10, 15 and 20 cmH ₂ O)
	application of	beginning of the procedure, after the			followed by PEEP titration.
	alveolar	alveolar recruitment maneuver and			
	recruitment	PEEP titration, and at the end of the			
	maneuver	procedure.			
	followed by				
	decremental				
	PEEP titration				
	during				
	laparoscopic				
	cholecystectom				
	y and verify its				
	impact on				
	hemodynamic				
	stability.				
	Compare the	Patients undergoing major	Patients		Patients received the same
	effects on DP	abdominal surgery were ventilated			anesthesia and monitoring
	by adding the	with a tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of	undergoing major abdominal	Age under 18 years,	protocol and were ventilated
Ferrando et	alveolar	predicted weight and a PEEP of 5		ASA IV criteria,	with the following parameters:
al. (17)	recruitment	cmH ₂ O. Afterwards, they	surgery (pancreatectomy,	previous respiratory	tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of
al. (17)	maneuver in	underwent an alveolar recruitment		disease or	predicted weight, PEEP of 5
	low tidal	maneuver and were then	duodenectomy,	laparoscopy surgery.	cmH ₂ O, FiO ₂ of 50%, I:E of 1:2
	volume	randomized into two groups: (i)	gastrectomy and		10% inspiratory pause and
	ventilation, with	PEEP of 5 cmH ₂ O and (ii) titrated	liver resection),		respiratory rate to maintain

	or without	PEEP (according to the best	with ASA criteria		EtCO ₂ ~35-45 mmHg. SpO ₂ and
	optimal PEEP	compliance). The effects on DP and	I, II or III.		EtCO ₂ were collected in the
	titration in	pulmonary efficiency were			monitor; equal pressure point,
	patients without	measured by volumetric			plateau pressure, DP,
	previous lung	capnography. The study was carried			compliance and resistance were
	disease under	out at a university hospital in Spain			calculated from ventilatory
	general	from July to October 2014.			parameters; ventilatory
	anesthesia.	Randomization was performed by			efficiency was obtained using
		computer.			the dead space concept (Bohr's
					equation). Arterial blood gases
					were collected before and at the
					end of surgery. Alveolar
					recruitment maneuver: PEEP of
					5, 10, 15 and 20 cmH_2O with
					inspiratory pressure of 15
					cmH ₂ O, for 15 cycles at each
					PEEP level. Titration: PEEP of
					20, 18, 16, 14, 12, 10, 8 and 6
					cmH ₂ O, calculating the best
					compliance at each level.
	Assess whether	Secondary analysis of data collected	Patients whose	II's h for some some	Patients were diagnosed with
Villar et al.	DP is a better	from three previous observational	data were	High frequency	ARDS according to the Berlin
(31)	marker for	studies. Mortality risk was	collected in three	ventilation and use	classification and were
	predicting	quantified based on quantiles of	previous studies.	of ECMO.	ventilated with a protective

	outcome in	tidal volume, PEEP, plateau			strategy (tidal volume 4 to 8
	patients	pressure and DP in the first 24			mL/kg of predicted weight),
	diagnosed with	hours of MV after the diagnosis of			plateau pressure <30 cmH ₂ O,
	ARDS.	ARDS, regardless of age, treatment			respiratory rate for pCO ₂ ~35-
		or specific disease process.			50 mmHg, moderate to high
					PEEP value to maintain PaO ₂
					$>60 \text{ mmHg and } \text{SpO}_2 > 90\%$.
					The study was carried out with
					the derivation model and the
					validation model.
Guérin et al. (32)	Investigate the impact of tidal volume variation on DP and risk factors for compliance and plateau pressure on mortality.	The following variables were included: tidal volume, PEEP, DP, plateau pressure, compliance and respiratory rate, which were measured 24 hours after randomization and compared with survivors and non-survivors on day 90.	Patients diagnosed with ARDS undergoing protective MV (tidal volume of 6 mL/kg of predicted weight).	Not defined by authors.	Not defined by authors.
Chiumello et al. (3)	Assess the impact of DP on pulmonary stress.	A total of 150 patients were included, 21 from a "new" prospective study that assessed the relationship between recruitment and PEEP by computed tomography	Not reported.	Not reported.	With patients sedated and anaesthetized, volume MV (6-8 mL/kg of predicted weight) was performed with FiO ₂ , tidal volume and respiratory rate

and 129 from three other previous studies. Patients were deeply sedated and anaesthetized and were volume ventilated (6-8 mL/kg predicted weight) with FiO₂, tidal volume and respiratory rate constant during the protocol. Before the application of PEEP, patients underwent an alveolar recruitment maneuver and then PEEP of 5 and 15 cmH₂O were used for 20 min each. Measures taken: arterial blood gas, esophageal pressure by esophageal balloon, DP, pulmonary stress and elastance. unchanged during the protocol. Before applying PEEP at values of 5 and 15 cmH₂O (for 20 min each), the patients underwent an alveolar recruitment maneuver (pressure-controlled ventilation mode) and they were divided into two groups: DP <15 cmH₂O and DP ≥15 cmH₂O.

	Assess the		Patients	Patients with more	Patients received the same
	effects on the		diagnosed with	than 48 hours of	anesthesia and monitoring
	inflammatory		ARDS,	ARDS diagnosis,	protocol and were positioned in
Rotman et	response,	Study carried out in a hospital in	undergoing	pneumothorax,	dorsal decubitus with an
al. (33)	aeration and	Rio de Janeiro - Brazil and which	protective MV	pneumomediastinum	elevation of 30° at the head and
al. (33)	lung function of	included a total of 15 participants.	(tidal volume of 6	, bronchopleural	ventilated with the same
	two protective		mL/kg of	fistula, subcutaneous	equipment, according to low
	ventilatory		predicted weight),	emphysema,	PEEP table of the ARDS-
	strategies (low		PEEP of 5	intracranial	network study, with a tidal

	PEEP and		cmH ₂ O and FiO ₂	hypertension,	volume of 6 mL/kg of predicted
	titrated PEEP)		of 100%,	pregnant women,	weight and plateau pressure
	in patients		hemodynamically	body weight >140	below 30 cmH ₂ O for 24 hours.
	diagnosed with		stable and with	kg or with pre-	After this period, arterial blood
	early-stage		lactate <3	existing disease with	gases and respiratory variables
	ARDS.		mmol/L in the	risk of death within	were collected and a chest
			first 6 hours of	6 months.	tomography was performed
			MV.		without disconnecting the
					ventilator. After 24 hours, the
					first 9 patients with P/F <350
					mmHg were ventilated
					according to OLA (alveolar
					recruitment maneuver +
					decremental PEEP titration) and
					the other 6 according to low
					PEEP table of the ARDS-
					network study for another 24
					hours. At the end of this period,
					arterial blood gas, respiratory
					variables and chest tomography
					collections were repeated.
Baedorf	Verify the	A total of 56 patients were analyzed	Patients with		Patients were positioned in
Kassis et	relationship	at a Boston medical center (USA)	acute respiratory	Not reported.	dorsal decubitus with the head
al. (34)	between the	and had a diagnosis of acute	failure or ARDS.		elevated at 30° and underwent

	respiratory	respiratory failure or ARDS			an alveolar recruitment
	system and	according to the American-			maneuver for 30 sec and the
	transpulmonary	European Consensus Conference.			tidal volume was fixed at 6
	DP, pulmonary	Participants were divided into two			mL/kg of predicted weight.
	mechanics and	groups (control and intervention).			Patients in the intervention
	28-day	The following markers were			group had PEEP adjusted to
	mortality.	measured: tidal volume, flow,			achieve an intrathoracic
		inspiratory and expiratory pause			pressure of 0-10 cmH ₂ O and
		pressure, PEEP, intrathoracic			FiO ₂ titrated according to the
		pressure by esophageal balloon.			EPvent study. The control group
		Moreover, DP was calculated by			had PEEP titrated according to
		subtracting the inspiratory pause			the ARDSNet study low PEEP
		pressure from PEEP and			table.
		intrathoracic pressure was the			
		difference between the airway			
		pressure and the esophageal balloon			
		pressure, elastance was obtained by			
		the airway pressure minus the			
		expiratory pause pressure divided			
		by the tidal volume. Measurements			
		were taken at the same time at the			
		5 th min and 24 hours on MV.			
Kamarek et	Compare the	The study was carried out in 20	Patients aged ≥ 18	Age <18 years,	ARDSNet Group (101
al. (35)	ARDSNetwok	ICUs and included patients with	years, diagnosed	weight <35 kg, body	participants): ventilated with a

	low PEEP	ARDS. Patients were ventilated	with ARDS	mass index greater	tidal volume of 6-8 mL/kg of
	protocol with	according to the ARDSNet	according to the	than 50 kg/m ² ,	predicted weight, respiratory
	PEEP titrated by	protocol. Baseline arterial blood	American-	intubation due to	rate for pCO ₂ between 35-60
	OLA in patients	gases were collected with a 100%	European	exacerbation of	mmHg, PEEP and FiO_2
	with ARDS	FiO ₂ and after collection, patients	Consensus and	CODP, asthma or	according to ARDSnet low
	classified as	were randomized to the ARDSNet	admitted to	cystic fibrosis, high	PEEP table, pressure plateau
	moderate or	or OLA groups.	participating	intracranial pressure,	<30 cmH ₂ O. OLA group (99
	severe.		ICUs under MV	patients	participants): tidal volume of 6
			for at least 96	immunosuppressed	mL/kg of predicted weight,
			hours.	by radiotherapy or	respiratory rate for pCO ₂
				chemotherapy,	between 35-60 mmHg, Titrated
				severe heart disease.	PEEP in decrement, FiO ₂ for
					SpO ₂ between 88-95%, plateau
					pressure $<30 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$.
	Determine how				At the beginning of the
	the tidal volume				intervention, patients underwent
	demanded				30 sec of sustained breathing
	during the	Analysis of the ADDS slinised study	Patients	Occurrence of air	with a pressure of 40 cmH ₂ O
Beitler et	recruitment	Analysis of the ARDS clinical study	diagnosed with	leak during alveolar	(alveolar recruitment
al. (36)	maneuver is	with PEEP titrated by esophageal	ARDS	recruitment	maneuver), deeply sedated or
	inversely	pressure.	undergoing MV.	maneuver.	anaesthetized. Airflow, airway
	associated with				pressure and esophageal
	pulmonary				pressure were collected during
	stress and				the procedure. To obtain the

tidal volume in the alveolar					
recruitment maneuver, the flow					
vs. curve was used. time.					
Pulmonary stress was obtained					
by the transpulmonary pressure					
at the end of inspiration and by					
the difference between the end-					
inspiratory and expiratory					
pressures.					

					the difference between the end-
					inspiratory and expiratory
					pressures.
				Hemodynamic	Data on respiratory mechanics,
Cinnella et al. (37)	Test how the application of the OLA strategy improves the distribution of aerated areas and lung mechanics.	Patients were ventilated according to the ARDSNet strategy. In a second moment, the OLA strategy (alveolar recruitment maneuver followed by PEEP titration) was applied. Respiratory mechanics, cardiac indices, electrical impedance tomography and esophageal pressure measurements were performed before and 20 min after the application of the OLA	Patients aged >18 years, diagnosed with moderate early-stage ARDS (according to the Berlin criteria), under continuous use of intravenous sedation and analgesia, with a	instability, pneumothorax, intracranial hypertension, pregnancy, burns that reached more than 30% of the body surface, any condition that contraindicated hypercapnia, lung	hemodynamics, arterial blood gases and electrical impedance tomography were collected from patients ventilated using the ARDSNet strategy. The ventilator was set to pressure mode, with I:E of 1:1, respiratory rate of 10, FiO ₂ of 100%, DP <15 cmH ₂ O and PEEP of 25 (1 min), in 35 (1 min) and 45 (2 min). After this
		strategy.	Ramsay scale	transplantation,	maneuver, volume was adjusted
			between 3 and 4.	alveolar hemorrhage,	with an initial PEEP of 23
				impossibility of	cmH ₂ O and a reduction of every

ARDS.

mortality in patients with

Cinnella al. (3

				using electrical impedance tomography,	3 cmH ₂ O for 5 min each level. Compliance was calculated at each level and PEEP was
				irreversible or malignant diseases,	titrated by the best compliance plus 2 cmH ₂ O. After 20 min of
				patient refusal.	intervention, initial measurements were repeated.
					After intervention, patients wer ventilated with initial adjustments (ADRSNet).
Amato et al. (10)	Verify the influence of DP on the survival rate of patients with ARDS and compare the result with the variables tidal volume and PEEP.	Data from 3,562 patients from 9 previous randomized studies were analyzed. The isolated effects on DP after changes in ventilatory parameters were estimated and DP was analyzed as an independent variable in the survival rate.	Patients previously included in nine randomized clinical trials.	Not reported.	Through a statistical analysis tool known as multilevel mediation analysis, DP was assessed as an independent marker for survival. In the mediation analysis, the isolated effect of change in DP secondary to changes in ventilatory parameters aimed a minimizing the injury accordin to the severity of the lung disease was estimated.

Das et al. (38)	Analyze how 3 different recruitment maneuvers act on the pulmonary physiological response and investigate how different PEEP levels contribute to the effective maintenance of alveolar recruitment.	The model simulates a lung with 100 alveolar compartments, with each compartment responding to parameter changes according to lung elastance and compliance. The three recruitment maneuvers used were previously described in the literature.	The study used a computer simulator.	Not reported.	Three recruitment maneuvers were applied: maximum recruitment strategy, sustained inflation maneuver and prolonged recruitment maneuver.
	Verify the influence of two	Patients with a diagnosis of ARDS admitted to a general and		Patients aged <18 years, pregnant	In each patient, 3 different ventilatory parameters were
Mauri et al. (39)	PEEP levels (low and high) on the distribution of tidal volume in different areas of the lung by	neurosurgical ICU in Italy, who were ventilated in the modality of ventilation with pressure support, participated in the study. Clinical and demographic data were collected (gender, age, body mass index, predicted weight, SAPS-II	Patients diagnosed with ARDS admitted to a general and neurosurgical ICU in Italy.	women, contraindication to the use of electrical impedance tomography, inability to correctly position the bed	randomly applied in the pressure support ventilation mode, with a duration of 20 min for each parameter. FiO ₂ , sensitivity and inspiratory rise time were kept unchanged during the protocol. Parameters:

	electrical	score, SOPA score, ARDS etiology,		electrical impedance	1. Pressure support ventilation +
	impedance	days on MV, lung injury score and		tomography or its	clinically selected PEEP. 2.
	tomography in	in-hospital mortality). Electrical		electrodes in patients	Clinically selected pressure
	patients with	impedance tomography was used		and severe	support ventilation + (previous
	ARDS under	during intervention with patients in		cardiovascular	PEEP + 5 cmH ₂ O). 3.
	MV in pressure	the supine position and 16		instability.	Ventilation with high- and low-
	support	electrodes.			pressure support (according to
	ventilation				p01 measurement - airway
	mode.				occlusion pressure) + clinically
					selected PEEP. Total volume
					distribution data were collected
					from electrical impedance
					tomography.
		Software was incorporated into the		Patients aged <18	For the intervention, patients
	Investigate	mechanical ventilator for		years, with MV over	were stable, sedated (RASS
	hemodynamic and respiratory changes during decremental PEEP titration in patients with ARDS.	measurements. Patients underwent		96 hours, pregnant	scale of -5) without the use of
		alveolar recruitment maneuver		women, aortic or	NMBs, with the following
Gernoth et		followed by decremental PEEP	Patients with	femoral aneurysm,	ventilatory parameters: pressure
al. (40)		titration. Optimal PEEP was defined	ARDS and	cardiac	modality for a tidal volume of 5
		as the best dynamic compliance + 2	undergoing MV.	malformations,	to 8 mL/kg of predicted weight,
		cmH ₂ O. Hemodynamic, respiratory		arrhythmias,	I:E of 1:1, respiratory rate to
		mechanics and gas exchange data		immunosuppression	maintain pH >7.20. PEEP was
		were recorded during intervention.		and end-stage organ	chosen for the best oxygenation
		A transesophageal echocardiogram		failure.	at first. Vasoactive drugs were

_

_

		was performed at the beginning and			used to maintain hemodynamic	
		at the end of the procedure.		stability when necessary.		
					Alveolar recruitment maneuver:	
					PEEP of 20 cmH ₂ O with final	
					inspiratory pressure of 40, 45	
					and 50 cmH ₂ O for 2 min each.	
					Subsequently, a decremental	
					titration was performed from a	
					PEEP of 20 cmH ₂ O, with a	
					reduction of every 2 cmH ₂ O for	
					2 min each PEEP. During	
					titration, dynamic compliance	
					was recorded and optimal PEEP	
					was defined as the best	
					compliance, adding 2 cmH ₂ O to	
					its value. The analyzed data	
					were recorded in 3 moments:	
					with the initial parameters, 2	
					min after the alveolar	
					recruitment maneuver and at the	
					end of titration (with optimal	
					PEEP).	
Szakmany	Assess the	Twenty-three patients diagnosed	Patients with	Age <18 years,	Patients were sedated without	
et al. (41)	relationship	with ARDS under IMV due to	ARDS due to	participant in	NMB, ventilated in pressure-	

	between P/F and	septic shock (with onset within 24	septic shock	previous studies for	controlled mode with PEEP
	extravascular	hours) from January 2001 to	(within 24 hours	less than 30 days,	individually adjusted according
	pulmonary fluid	February 2002 participated in the	of onset). ARDS	morbid obesity,	to PaO ₂ obtained from arterial
	in patients	study.	with $P/F < 300$	pregnant women,	blood gases. If PaO2 <80
	diagnosed with		mmHg.	neuromuscular	mmHg, PEEP was increased
	ARDS due to			disease that	from 2.5 in 2.5 cmH_2O to a
	septic shock.			progressed with	value of 15 cmH ₂ O, with FiO_2
				impairment of	of up to 80%. If PaO_2 was not
				respiratory drive,	satisfactory, PEEP was
				elevated intracranial	increased up to 20 cmH ₂ O and
				pressure, chronic	FiO ₂ up to 100%. Monitoring
				heart disease,	was performed every 8 hours
				CODP, portal	for 72 hours with a
				hypertension,	thermodilution arterial catheter
				immunodeficiency,	(to measure extravascular
				under renal	pulmonary fluid) and by
				replacement therapy,	collecting arterial blood gases.
				insulin dependent	The cut-off point for high PEEP
				diabetes and liver	and low PEEP was $10 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$.
				cirrhosis.	
	Assess the	Electrical impedance tomography	Patients under	Pneumothorax,	Obtain the electrical impedance
Biker et al.	distribution of	images were obtained and P/F	IMV, with or	severe airway	tomography images, 16
(42)	ventilation by	calculated by arterial blood gases of	without	obstruction due to	electrodes were placed between
	bedside	14 patients under IMV in an ICU.	pulmonary	CODP, lung	the fifth and sixth intercostal

	electrical		involvement,	transplantation, chest	space. Participants were
	impedance		admitted to an	deformities, and	assessed by chest X-ray and
	tomography of		ICU.	hemodynamic	subsequently separated into two
	patients under			instability.	groups: without pulmonary
	MV, inside				involvement and with
	ICUs, with or				pulmonary involvement.
	without				Patients were sedated and
	pulmonary				ventilated in the pressure-
	involvement,				controlled mode with constant
	during the				DP (12 cmH ₂ O) in the group
	standardized				without pulmonary involvement
	reduction in				and 16 cmH ₂ O in the group with
	PEEP.				pulmonary involvement). PEEP
					values used were: 15, 10, 5 and
					zero cmH ₂ O and, for each PEEP
					value, a mapping of the
					ventilatory distribution and
					arterial blood gases were
					performed.
	Analyze the	Prospective, randomized and	Patients aged >18	Patients with	All participants were ventilated
Fernandez-	impact of	controlled study that compared 3	years, undergoing	predefined	in volume-controlled ventilation
Bustamante	periodic PEEP	different PEEP application	elective	cardiopulmonary	mode with protective
et al. (43)	adjustments	protocols in the intraoperative	abdominal	diseases or other	parameters: tidal volume of 6-8
	during	period of abdominal surgery, where	surgery, at risk of	serious conditions.	mL/kg of predicted weight,

abdominal	2 groups were intervention (with 2	postoperative	inspiratory pause of 20%, FiO ₂
surgery on	PEEP titration protocols) and the	pulmonary	to maintain saturation >92%.
respiratory	third group was control (with PEEP	complications	An esophageal balloon was
mechanics	kept constant throughout the	(according to risk	positioned to monitor
(compliance,	procedure).	score >26 by	esophageal and transpulmonary
DP, and		ARISCAT	pressures continuously during
transpulmonary		(Assess	the procedure. After
pressure) and to		Respiratory Risk	randomization, patients were
assess the		in Surgical	divided into three groups: (1.
influence of		Patients in	Control) PEEP of 2 cmH ₂ O and
individualizatio		Catalonia) were	absence of intraoperative
n of PEEP on		eligible.	recruitment maneuver; (2)
lung injury			alveolar recruitment maneuver
biomarkers.			(up to PEEP of 20 cmH ₂ O),

followed by decremental PEEP titration (titrated by best compliance); (3) end-expiratory transpulmonary positive pressure group, where PEEP was titrated by adding 1 cmH₂O according to the best PEEP value found by the best esophageal pressure. Lung injury biomarkers were

					surgery, end of surgery and 24
					hours after the surgical
					procedure.
	Demonstrate the				Patients were ventilated in
	feasibility of a				volume-assisted control mode,
	DP estimation		Patients aged ≥18	Patients were excluded due to	in the dorsal position with a 30°
	protocol in				head elevation. The tidal
	which PEEP				volume adopted was 6 mL/kg of
	was adjusted	A prospective pilot study was	years, admitted to	certain criteria:	predicted weight (tidal volume maintained throughout
	according to the	conducted in the ICU of Johns	ICUs and	elevated intracranial pressure, heart failure, barotrauma for less than 10 days, severe refractory hypoxemia, plateau pressure ≥35 cmH ₂ O or refusal to participate.	
	lowest DP; to	Hopkins Hospital in Maryland.	undergoing IMV		intervention). The initial PEEP
Sahetya et	characterize the	Ten individuals were ventilated	with the		was determined according to
al. (44)	difference	with PEEP adjusted according to	following criteria:		low ARDS network FiO2/PEEP
ai. (++)	between PEEP	low ARDSNet study PEEP/FiO ₂	ARDS (Berlin		table. The initial DP was
	titrated by the	table. After this initial adjustment,	criteria),		obtained after 30 min of this
	lowest DP with	they underwent PEEP adjustment	intubation less		adjustment with an inspiratory
	low ARDSNet	according to the lowest DP.	than 7 days, with		pause of at least 0.5 second.
	study		PEEP ≥ 8 .		PEEP was increased by 4
	PEEP/FiO ₂				cmH ₂ O from the initial value, if
	table;				there was an increase in DP,
	demonstrate the				PEEP was then reduced by 4
	time needed to				cmH ₂ O from the initial value.

52

collected by analyzing blood samples at 3 times: beginning of stabilize DP after PEEP change.

search for the lowest DP. For each DP measurement, a time of 10 respiratory cycles was awaited. After this intervention, participants were divided into two groups: (i) PEEP titrated by the lowest DP when titrated PEEP was different from the initial one; (ii) Initial PEEP was equal to the one titled by the lowest DP. Participants were followed 48 hours after intervention for adverse events: pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, severe hypoxemia requiring rescue therapy (ECMO), inhaled vasodilator, severe acute hypotension and cardiac arrhythmias.

Thus, PEEP was changed to

Of the articles selected for full reading, 19 were carried out in Europe (3,15,17,18,20,21,24,26,27,30,31,32,37,38,39,40,41,42,43), six in North America (2,11,29,34,36,44), 2 in Asia (18.23), four in South America (10,22,28,33) and two in different regions worldwide (25,35). Two articles from the United Kingdom did not carry out the study in humans, but in an *in-silico* model and with the use of a computerized simulator. The *in-silico* model was used to assess the influence of DP on LIVI and to verify the effective maintenance of three different alveolar recruitment maneuvers (15,38).

Twenty studies were prospective (2,3,15,18,19,24,26,28,30,32,33,36,37,38,39,40,41,42,43), six were retrospective (11, 21,27,29,31,34), two were post-hoc analysis (10,22), one was double blind (23), one was observational multicenter (20) and four were pilot studies (17,25,35,44).

Among the diagnoses of the patients assessed, most studies reported the outcome in individuals with ARDS. 5,860 data totaling analyzed (2,10,11,20,21,22,26,27,28,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,40,41,44), and only one study addressed patients without a diagnosis of ARDS under IMV (29). Concomitantly, three studies used electrical impedance tomography (EIT) to verify the pulmonary volume distribution, with a total of 73 individuals analyzed (19,39,42). Eight studies included individuals undergoing surgery, six of them abdominal surgeries totaling 160 individuals assessed (17,18,25,26,30,43) and two thoracic surgeries, including 305 patients (23,24). A study with 150 participants analyzed only data from the literature (3).

The studies that used a computerized simulator emphasized the easiness in carrying out the measurements of the markers using this technology, and both concluded that high DP values can increase the risk of mortality in patients with ARDS (15,38). A study by Das et al. (2019) used data from 25 patients with ARDS to assess, through *in silico* models, the influence of DP on ventilatory mechanics and demonstrated that the higher the DP value, the worse the ventilatory mechanics and clinical outcome. The authors also highlighted the difficulty in measuring these findings directly in patients, since the importance of ventilation through the use of the protective strategy is well established (15). Concomitantly, in a study by Das et al. (2015), three alveolar recruitment techniques were compared in five "virtual patients" using a computer simulator and it was determined that titrating PEEP after alveolar recruitment maneuver allows recruitment to be effective for a longer period (15,38).

The articles that assessed patients with ARDS concluded that high DP is associated with the worst outcome both in terms of mortality and lung injury (21,31,32,33). Regarding studies involving abdominal surgeries, it was shown that alveolar recruitment maneuvers performed during the intraoperative period optimized oxygenation during surgery but showed no effect on the postoperative follow-up (17,18,25,26,30,43). For example, in 2019, Sahetya et al. assessed the influence of DP in a prospective observational cohort study with a sample of 1,132 individuals under MV, where 822 did not have ARDS (mortality of 27.3%) and 310 had ARDS (mortality of 38.7%). In this study, it was concluded that the probability of mortality increases linearly with the increase in DP, as the difference in DP values between the groups was only two cmH₂O; concomitantly, it was described that DP should be considered an important marker in protective ventilatory strategy assessment in patients under IMV regardless of ARDS (2). However, a study by Lanspa et al. (2019), which included data from 2,641 individuals with and without ARDS, in which 48% had a diagnosis of ARDS, described that DP did not influence the mortality of patients without ARDS, but that increased tidal volume raised mortality (OR of 1.18 for each increment of one mL/kg) in this group. In contrast, it was described that high DP was associated with an increased probability of death in patients diagnosed with ARDS (11).

Studies performed in thoracic surgery included a total of 305 patients; both were performed by an intervention protocol, one of them being randomized double-blind (with a sample number of 292 individuals) (23,24). In a study by Rauseo et al. (2018), the influence of the alveolar recruitment maneuver followed by PEEP titration as a therapeutic strategy was described. It was noted that the protocol improved the oxygenation index and pulmonary compliance without changing hemodynamics, suggesting that the lower the DP, the better the oxygenation index (24). Moreover, a study by Park et al. (2019) compared the protective ventilatory strategy with a PEEP of five cmH₂O and alveolar recruitment with PEEP titrated by the lowest DP and alveolar recruitment and demonstrated that the ventilation guided by the lowest DP courses with the lower incidence (6.9% versus 15%) of pulmonary complications in the postoperative period (23).

A study carried out by Cinnella et al. (2015) included 15 individuals and demonstrated a reduction in DP of approximately two cmH₂O after the alveolar recruitment maneuver can cause an improvement in the distribution of regional ventilation, visualized by means of EIT. Thus, EIT was described as an effective bedside technique to verify air distribution and better pulmonary compliance (37).

A study conducted by Baedorf Kassis et al. (2016) concluded that DP can be a sound bedside prognostic predictor (34). Two studies compared the use of a PEEP table and FiO_2 with titrated PEEP and both concluded that ventilation with titrated PEEP results in improved oxygenation and reduces the incidence of lung injury, favoring a better clinical outcome for patients (3,24).

Discussion

The lung's main function is to carry out gas exchange, which, in turn, is carried out in the terminal respiratory unit, where the alveolar ducts that are covered by alveoli are found (Figure 2A). The interior of the alveoli is occupied by air and its exterior is permeated by blood vessels (Figure 2B), the movement of gases between the alveoli and blood vessels is accomplished through simple diffusion, so air flows on one side through the airways and on the other through the blood vessels (Figure 2C). There are about 500 million alveoli in the human lung, whose total area is approximately 85 square meters. The alveolar capillary membrane is very thin (about 0.3 micrometers thick), allowing a satisfactory gas exchange capacity according to Fick's law of diffusion (which states that the volume of gas per unit of time moving across a tissue sheet is directly proportional to the surface area of the sheet, the diffusivity, and the difference in gas concentration between the two sides, but is inversely proportional to the tissue thickness) (Figure **2D**). In a situation in which the alveolus is exposed to pressure above or below what is necessary, the exchange area is reduced, making gas exchange less favorable (Figure 2E and 2F). However, despite advances in the knowledge acquired inherent to studies on respiratory dynamics during IMV, much still needs to be pointed out about the importance of some markers, which include DP and PEEP and their real role in gas exchange and in patient management.

As described in the literature, microprocessor-based mechanical ventilations, developed in the 1980s, made it possible to carry out important measures regarding respiratory mechanics, which were previously unavailable (45). Since then, researchers have sought answers to important questions related to the influence that some ventilatory parameters exert on patients' clinical outcome, gas exchange and hemodynamic stability; an example of these measures is the plateau pressure, measured after a brief manual inspiratory pause, whose result, when subtracted from PEEP value, is DP, which proved to be a significant marker in mortality risk stratification (10,31,34).

Considered a parameter that directly influences gas exchange and, consequently, the oxygenation index, PEEP, which has as its main objective to stabilize alveolar units and prevent their collapse, has its values still controversial in the literature and has been studied in order to verify its influence on respiratory mechanics and clinical outcome (4). Inadequate PEEP levels can lead to lung injury by two mechanisms: (i) overdistension; and/or (ii) cyclic opening and closing of small airways and alveoli - atelectrauma (4,46). Concomitantly, alveolar overdistension pressure, known as DP, has a direct influence on pulmonary compliance and is influenced by tidal volume, plateau pressure (or inspiratory pause pressure) and PEEP, as shown below (3):

Cstat (pulmonary static compliance) = TV (tidal volume)/DP.

DP = TV / Cstat

DP = Plateau pressure - PEEP, plateau pressure being obtained after a manual inspiratory pause of 1 to 2 seconds (Figure 2G).

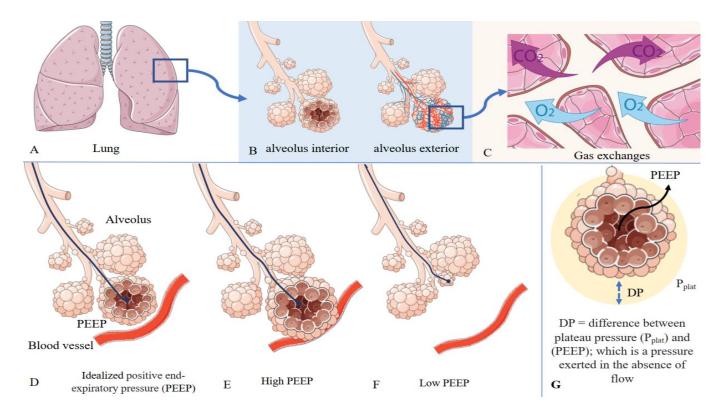


FIGURE 2. Description of the morphological and physiological aspects of the lung associated with gas exchange pattern involved in final expiratory positive pressure (PEEP) and driving pressure (DP). (A) Structure of the lung and its pulmonary lobes. (B) In the diagram, the alveoli and their interior occupied by air are shown on the left; on the right, the alveoli and their exterior permeated by blood vessels are shown. (C) Gas exchange pattern performed by simple diffusion: air flows from one side through the airways and the other through blood vessels. (D) Gas exchange pattern detailing, considering that, for gas exchange to occur satisfactorily, it is necessary that the blood gas barrier promotes favorable conditions, i.e., that its area is large and its thickness small, respecting Fick's law. (E) Unfavorable gas exchange area due to compression by the alveoli to blood vessels (situation of PEEP in excess of necessary). (F) Unfavorable gas exchange area due to increased distance between alveoli and blood vessels (situation of PEEP below necessary). (G) Driving pressure: alveolar overdistension pressure, is the pressure exerted on the alveolar wall in the absence of airflow, mathematically, and the difference between the inspiratory pause pressure (situation in which there is no flow) and PEEP.

Understanding these issues, Guérin et al. (2016) demonstrated that DP is a reliable variable in predicting LIVI, being directly influenced by the variation in tidal volume and PEEP.

Regarding the choice of optimal PEEP level, an important study had the leading role of secondary analyzes that aimed to compare two ventilatory strategies and their clinical outcomes (22). These strategies are known as ART (Alveolar Recruitment for Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Trial) and ARDSNet protocol (which uses a PEEP table versus FiO₂ level - fraction of oxygen inspired). The ART strategy is a maximal alveolar recruitment maneuver followed by PEEP titration, adjusted according to the best pulmonary static compliance and aims to minimize the cyclic opening and closing of small airways and alveoli, thus reducing the incidence of LIVI. Although titrated PEEP has shown improvement in oxygenation and regional ventilatory distribution, it has also been associated with reduced DP in some studies (10,22), without causing visible hemodynamic changes in the bedside cardiac monitor. Concomitantly, a study by Gernoth et al. (2009) demonstrated that this maximum recruitment technique, which uses very high PEEP values (reaching 45 cmH₂O), affects right ventricular function (40). In the literature, the improvement in compliance after maximal alveolar recruitment maneuver is attributed to optimization of the regional ventilation distribution, i.e., having more recruited alveoli, tidal volume is better distributed, requiring less distension pressure, thus reducing the incidence of LIVI (37,47).

Limitations

Most clinical intervention studies have a small sample size. This fact can be attributed to the limitation in the use of ventilatory parameter values (such as PEEP, tidal volume, and consequent peak pressure, plateau pressure and DP) above the recommended, offering risks for individuals. Thus, *in silico*, lung-on-a-chip models and computational simulators can be alternatives to optimize studies on ventilatory parameters. Additionally, by assigning the bookmarks to the PubMed platform, the detailed search showed unspecific results and not consistent with the theme.

Highlights

(i) PEEP and DP can be considered important markers to determine respiratory mechanics and gas exchange, being easily accessible markers in clinical practice;

(ii) DP as a sound predictor of clinical outcome;

(iii) PEEP titration should preferably be individualized and in accordance with respiratory mechanics.

Conclusion

MV, over the years, has helped to reduce the mortality rate by promoting respiratory muscle rest and gas exchange optimization; however, this tool can cause damage to lung structures due to the imposition of positive pressures on the parenchyma, which can cause alveolar collapse and hyperdistention. Inadequate PEEP values and high plateau pressure values are two important factors influencing healthy LIVI. Additionally, the literature describes optimal PEEP values as still controversial, perhaps because studies indicate that the best strategy for choosing it would be titration guided by the best compliance, which indicates that ventilatory mechanics is of fundamental importance in the adjustment of mechanical ventilator parameters. Another strong evidence regarding the importance of knowledge of ventilatory mechanics is the fact that DP shows a significant influence on the clinical outcome of patients under IMV. Thus, it is inferred that the different PEEP values are due to the individuality of ventilatory mechanics in each patient, assuming that it is influenced according to the physiology associated with each disease.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate: None.

Consent for publication: None.

Availability of data and materials: None.

Competing interests: None.

Funding: None.

Authors' contributions: All authors have approved the manuscript and agreed with its submission to the journal. Also, all authors wrote and revised the manuscript.

Acknowledgements: None.

References

1. Gattinoni L, Marini JJ, Collino F, Maiolo G, Rapetti F, Tonetti T, Vasques F, Quintel M; The Future of Mechanical Ventilation: lessons from the present and the past. Crit Care. 2017;21:183. doi: 10.1186/s13054-017-1750-x.

2. Sahetya SK, Mallow C, Sevransky JE, Martin GS, Girard TD, Brower RG, Checkley W. Association between hospital mortality and inspiratory airway pressures in mechanically ventilated patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome: a prospective cohort study. Crit Care. 2019;23:367. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2635-y.

3. Chiumello D, Carlesso E, Brioni M, Cressoni M. Airway Driving Pressure and lung stress in ARDS patients. Crit Care. 2016;20:276. doi: 10.1186/s13054-016-1446-7.

4. Damiani LP, Berwanger O, Paisani D, Laranjeira LN, Suzumura EA, Amato MBP, Carvalho CRR, Cavalcanti AB. Statistical analysis plan for the Alveolar Recruitment for Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Trial (ART). A randomized controlled trial. Rev Bras Ter Intensiva. 2017;29(2):142-153. doi: 10.5935/0103-507X.20170024.

5. Koide M, Uchiyama A, Yamashita T, Yoshida T, Fujino Y. Attaining Low Tidal Volume Ventilation During Patient Triggered Ventilation in Sedated Subjects. Respir Care. 2019;64(8):890-898. doi: 10.4187/respcare.06197.

Ochiai R. Mechanical ventilation of acute respiratory distress syndrome. J Intensive Care.
 2015;3(1):25. doi: 10.1186/s40560-015-0091-6.

7. Di Marco F, Devaquet J, Lyazidi A, Galia F, da Costa NP, Fumagalli R, Brochard L. Positive end-expiratory pressure-induced functional recruitment in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Crit Care Med. 2010;38(1):127-132. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181b4a7e7.

8. Acosta P, Santisbon E, Varon J. The use of Positive end-expiratory Pressure in Mechanical Ventilation. Crit Care Clin. 2007;23(2):251-261. doi: 10.1016/j.ccc.2006.12,012.

9. Hirshberg EL, Majercik S. Targeting Driving Pressure for the Management of ARDS...Isn't It Just Very Low Tidal Volume Ventilation? Ann Am Thorac Soc. 2020;17(5):557-558. doi: 10.1513/AnnalsATS.202002-108ED.

10. Amato MB, Meade MO, Slutsky AS, Brochard L, Costa EL, Schoenfeld DA, Stewart TE, Briel M, Talmor D, Mercat A, Richard JC, Carvalho CR, Brower RG. Driving pressure and survival in the acute respiratory distress syndrome. N Engl J Med. 2015;372(8):747-755. doi: 10.1056/NEJMsa1410639.

11. Lanspa MJ, Peltan ID, Jacobs JR, Sorensen JS, Carpenter L, Ferraro JP, Brown SM, Berry JG, Srivastava R, Grissom CK. Driving pressure is not associated with mortality in mechanically ventilated patients without ARDS. Crit Care. 2019;23:424. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2698-9.

12. Talmor D, Sarge T, Malhotra A, O'Donnell CR, Ritz R, Lisbon A, Novack V, Loring SH. Mechanical Vantilation Guided by Esophageal Pressure in Acute Lung Injury. N Engl J Med. 2008;359(20):2095-2104. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa0708638.

13. Pereira Romano ML, Maia IS, Laranjeira LN, Damiani LP, Paisani DM, Borges MC, Dantas BG, Caser EB, Victorino JA, Filho WO, Amato MBP, Cavalcanti AB. Driving Pressurelimited Strategy for Patients with Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. A Pilot Randomized Clinical Trial. Ann Am Thorac Soc. 2020;17(5):596-604. doi: 10.1513/AnnalsATS.201907-506OC.

14. Ferrando C, Suarez-Sipmann F, Tusman G, León I, Romero E, Gracia E, Mugarra A, Arocas B, Pozo N, Soro M, Belda FJ. Open lung approach versus standard protective strategies: Effects on driving pressure and ventilatory efficiency during anesthesia - A pilot, randomized controlled trial. PLoS One. 2017;12(5):e0177399. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0177399.

15. Das A, Camporota L, Hardman JG, Bates DG. What links ventilator driving pressure with survival in the acute respiratory distress syndrome? A computational study. Respir Res. 2019;20(1):29. doi: 10.1186/s12931-019-0990-5.

16. Huppert LA, Matthay MA, Ware LB. Pathogenesis of Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2019;40(1):31-39. doi: 10.1055/s-0039-1683996.

17. Ferrando C, Suarez-Sipmann F, Mellado-Artigas R, Hernández M, Gea A, Arruti E, Aldecoa C, Martínez-Pallí G, Martínez-González MA, Slutsky AS, Villar J; COVID-19 Spanish ICU Network. Clinical features, ventilatory management, and outcome of ARDS caused by COVID-19 are similar to other causes of ARDS. Intensive Care Med. 2020;46(12):2200-2211. doi: 10.1007/s00134-020-06192-2.

18. Grieco DL, Russo A, Romanò B, Anzellotti GM, Ciocchetti P, Torrini F, Barelli R, Eleuteri D, Perilli V, Dell'Anna AM, Bongiovanni F, Sollazzi L, Antonelli M. Lung volumes, respiratory mechanics and dynamic strain during general anaesthesia. Br J Anaesth. 2018;121(5):1156-1165. doi: 10.1016/j.bja.2018.03.022.

19. Shono A, Katayama N, Fujihara T, Böhm SH, Waldmann AD, Ugata K, Nikai T, Saito Y. Positive End-expiratory Pressure and Distribution of Ventilation in Pneumoperitoneum Combined with Steep Trendelenburg Position. Anesthesiology. 2020;132(3):476-490. doi: 10.1097/ALN.000000000003062.

20. Richard JC, Marque S, Gros A, Muller M, Prat G, Beduneau G, Quenot JP, Dellamonica J, Tapponnier R, Soum E, Bitker L, Richecoeur J; REVA research network. Feasibility and safety of ultra-low tidal volume ventilation without extracorporeal circulation in moderately severe and severe ARDS patients. Intensive Care Med. 2019;45(11):1590-1598. doi: 10.1007/s00134-019-05776-x.

21. Bellani G, Grassi A, Sosio S, Gatti S, Kavanagh BP, Pesenti A, Foti G. Driving Pressure Is Associated with Outcome during Assisted Ventilation in Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. Anesthesiology. 2019;131(3):594-604. doi: 10.1097/ALN.0000000002846.

22. Zampieri FG, Costa EL, Iwashyna TJ, Carvalho CRR, Damiani LP, Taniguchi LU, Amato MBP, Cavalcanti AB; Alveolar Recruitment for Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Trial Investigators. Heterogeneous effects of alveolar recruitment in acute respiratory distress syndrome: a machine learning reanalysis of the Alveolar Recruitment for Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Trial. Br J Anaesth. 2019;123(1):88-95. doi: 10.1016/j.bja.2019.02.026.

23. Park M, Ahn HJ, Kim JA, Yang M, Heo BY, Choi JW, Kim YR, Lee SH, Jeong H, Choi SJ, Song IS. Driving Pressure during Thoracic Surgery: A Randomized Clinical Trial. Anesthesiology. 2019;130(3):385-393. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000002600.

24. Rauseo M, Mirabella L, Grasso S, Cotoia A, Spadaro S, D'Antini D, Valentino F, Tullo L, Loizzi D, Sollitto F, Cinnella G. Peep titration based on the open lung approach during one lung ventilation in thoracic surgery: a physiological study. BMC Anesthesiol. 2018;18(1):156. doi: 10.1186/s12871-018-0624-3.

25. Pereira SM, Tucci MR, Morais CCA, Simões CM, Tonelotto BFF, Pompeo MS, Kay FU, Pelosi P, Vieira JE, Amato MBP. Individual Positive End-expiratory Pressure Settings Optimize Intraoperative Mechanical Ventilation and Reduce Postoperative Atelectasis. Anesthesiology. 2018;129(6):1070-1081. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000002435.

26. Chalkias A, Xanthos T, Papageorgiou E, Anania A, Beloukas A, Pavlopoulos F. Intraoperative initiation of a modified ARDSNet protocol increases survival of septic patients with severe acute respiratory distress syndrome. Heart Lung. 2018;47(6):616-621. doi: 10.1016/j.hrtlng.2018.06.011.

27. De Jong A, Cossic J, Verzilli D, Monet C, Carr J, Conseil M, Monnin M, Cisse M, Belafia F, Molinari N, Chanques G, Jaber S. Impact of the driving pressure on mortality in obese and nonobese ARDS patients: a retrospective study of 362 cases. Intensive Care Med. 2018;44(7):1106-1114. doi: 10.1007/s00134-018-5241-6.

28. Gogniat E, Ducrey M, Dianti J, Madorno M, Roux N, Midley A, Raffo J, Giannasi S, San Roman E, Suarez-Sipmann F, Tusman G. Dead space analysis at different levels of positive endexpiratory pressure in acute respiratory distress syndrome patients. J Crit Care. 2018;45:231-238. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2018.01.005.

29. Schmidt MFS, Amaral ACKB, Fan E, Rubenfeld GD. Driving Pressure and Hospital Mortality in Patients Without ARDS: A Cohort Study. Chest. 2018;153(1):46-54. doi: 10.1016/j.chest.2017.10.004.

30. D'Antini D, Rauseo M, Grasso S, Mirabella L, Camporota L, Cotoia A, Spadaro S, Fersini A, Petta R, Menga R, Sciusco A, Dambrosio M, Cinnella G. Physiological effects of the open lung approach during laparoscopic cholecystectomy: focus on driving pressure. Minerva Anestesiol. 2018;84(2):159-167. doi: 10.23736/S0375-9393.17.12042-0.

31. Villar J, Martín-Rodríguez C, Domínguez-Berrot AM, Fernández L, Ferrando C, Soler JA, Díaz-Lamas AM, González-Higueras E, Nogales L, Ambrós A, Carriedo D, Hernández M, Martínez D, Blanco J, Belda J, Parrilla D, Suárez-Sipmann F, Tarancón C, Mora-Ordoñez JM, Blanch L, Pérez-Méndez L, Fernández RL, Kacmarek RM; Spanish Initiative for Epidemiology, Stratification and Therapies for ARDS (SIESTA) Investigators Network. A Quantile Analysis of Plateau and Driving Pressures: Effects on Mortality in Patients With Acute Respiratory Distress

Syndrome Receiving Lung-Protective Ventilation. Crit Care Med. 2017;45(5):843-850. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000002330.

32. Guérin C, Papazian L, Reignier J, Ayzac L, Loundou A, Forel JM; investigators of the Acurasys and Proseva trials. Effect of driving pressure on mortality in ARDS patients during lung protective mechanical ventilation in two randomized controlled trials. Crit Care. 2016;20(1):384. doi: 10.1186/s13054-016-1556-2.

33. Rotman V, Carvalho AR, Rodrigues RS, Medeiros DM, Pinto EC, Bozza FA, Carvalho CRR. Effects of the open lung concept following ARDSnet ventilation in patients with early ARDS. BMC Anesthesiol. 2016;16(1):40. doi: 10.1186/s12871-016-0206-1.

34. Baedorf Kassis E, Loring SH, Talmor D. Mortality and pulmonary mechanics in relation to respiratory system and transpulmonary driving pressures in ARDS. Intensive Care Med. 2016;42(8):1206-1213. doi: 10.1007/s00134-016-4403-7.

35. Kacmarek RM, Villar J, Sulemanji D, Montiel R, Ferrando C, Blanco J, Koh Y, Soler JA, Martínez D, Hernández M, Tucci M, Borges JB, Lubillo S, Santos A, Araujo JB, Amato MB, Suárez-Sipmann F; Open Lung Approach Network. Open Lung Approach for the acute respiratory distress syndrome: A Pilot, Randomized Controlled Trial. Crit Care Med. 2016;44(1):32-42. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000001383.

36. Beitler JR, Majumdar R, Hubmayr RD, Malhotra A, Thompson BT, Owens RL, Loring SH, Talmor D. Volume Delivered During Recruitment Maneuver Predicts Lung Stress in Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. Crit Care Med. 2016;44(1):91-99. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000001355.

37. Cinnella G, Grasso S, Raimondo P, D'Antini D, Mirabella L, Rauseo M, Dambrosio M. Physiological Effects of the Open Lung Approach in Patients with Early, Mild, Diffuse Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome: An Electrical Impedance Tomography Study. Anesthesiology. 2015;123(5):1113-1121. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000000862.

38. Das A, Cole O, Chikhani M, Wang W, Ali T, Haque M, Bates DG, Hardman JG. Evaluation of lung recruitment maneuvers in acute respiratory distress syndrome using computer simulation. Crit Care. 2015;19(1):8. doi: 10.1186/s13054-014-0723-6.

39. Mauri T, Bellani G, Confalonieri A, Tagliabue P, Turella M, Coppadoro A, Citerio G, Patroniti N, Pesenti A. Topographic distribution of tidal ventilation in acute respiratory distress syndrome: effects of positive end-expiratory pressure and pressure support. Crit Care Med. 2013;41(7):1664-1673. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e318287f6e7.

40. Gernoth C, Wagner G, Pelosi P, Luecke T. Respiratory and haemodynamic changes during decremental open lung positive end-expiratory pressure titration in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Crit Care. 2009;13(2):R59. doi: 10.1186/cc7786.

41. Szakmany T, Heigl P, Molnar Z. Correlation between extravascular lung water and oxygenation in ALI/ARDS patients in septic shock: possible role in the development of atelectasis? Anaesth Intensive Care. 2004;32(2):196-201. doi: 10.1177/0310057X0403200206.

42. Bikker IG, Leonhardt S, Reis Miranda D, Bakker J, Gommers D. Bedside measurement of changes in lung impedance to monitor alveolar ventilation in dependent and non-dependent parts by electrical impedance tomography during a positive end-expiratory pressure trial in mechanically ventilated intensive care unit patients. Crit Care. 2010;14(3):R100. doi: 10.1186/cc9036.

43. Fernandez-Bustamante A, Sprung J, Parker RA, Bartels K, Weingarten TN, Kosour C, Thompson BT, Vidal Melo MF. Individualized PEEP to optimise respiratory mechanics during abdominal surgery: a pilot randomised controlled trial. Br J Anaesth. 2020;125(3):383-392. doi: 10.1016/j.bja.2020.06.030.

44. Sahetya SK, Hager DN, Stephens RS, Needham DM, Brower RG. PEEP Titration to Minimize Driving Pressure in Subjects With ARDS: A Prospective Physiological Study. Respir Care. 2020;65(5):583-589. doi: 10.4187/respcare.07102.

45. Carvalho CRR, Junior CT, Franca SA. Ventilação mecânica: princípios, análise gráfica e modalidades ventilatórias. J Bras Pneumol. 2007;33(S2):S54-S70. doi: 10.1590/S1806-37132007000800002.

47. Fernandez-Bustamante A, Vidal Melo MF. Bedside assessment of lung aeration and stretch. Br J Anaesth. 2018;121(5):1001-1004. doi: 10.1016/j.bja.2018.08.007.

46. DESIGNATION-investigators. Driving Pressure During General Anesthesia for Open Abdominal Surgery (DESIGNATION): study protocol of a randomized clinical trial. Trials. 2020;21(1):198. doi: 10.1186/s13063-020-4075-z.

Capítulo II: Artigo Submetido

Title: Epidemiological Profile and Risk Factors Associated with Death in Patients Receiving Invasive Mechanical Ventilation in an Adult Intensive Care Unit from Brazil: A Retrospective Study

Running title: Intubation and Risk of Death

Camila Vantini Capasso Palamim^{1,2}; Matheus Negri Boschiero^{1,2}; Fernando Augusto Lima Marson^{1,2,*}

¹ Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds, São Francisco University, Bragança Paulista, São Paulo, Brazil

² Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics, São Francisco University, Bragança Paulista, São Paulo, Brazil

* Corresponding author: [FALM] Fernando Augusto Lima Marson, BSc, MSc, PhD.

São Francisco University; Postgraduate Program in Health Science; Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds and Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics. Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218. Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista, São Paulo, Brazil, 12916-900. Phone +55 19 9769 2712. E-mail:

fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com and fernando.marson@usf.edu.br

Conflict of interest: None.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate: None.

Consent for publication: None.

Availability of data and materials: None.

Competing interests: None.

Funding: None.

Authors' contributions: All authors have approved the manuscript and agreed with its submission to the journal. Also, all authors wrote and revised the manuscript.

Acknowledgements: None.

E-mail:

CVCP: cvcpalamim@gmail.com

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6825-1154

MNB: boschiero.matheus@gmail.com

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2866-391X

FALM: fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com and fernando.marson@usf.edu.br

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4955-4234

Abstract

Introduction: Understanding the epidemiological profile and risk factors associated with invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV) is important to better manage the patients and improve health services. Therefore, the objective of this study was to describe the epidemiological profile of adult patients in intensive care (ICU) that required IMV in hospital treatment and evaluate the risks associated with death and the influence of positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) and oxygen arterial pressure (PaO₂) at admission in the clinical outcome.

Methods: A retrospective and epidemiological study was conducted analyzing medical records of inpatients who received IMV from January 2016 to December 2019. The patients' characteristics considered in the analysis were demographic data, diagnostic hypothesis, and hospitalization data. PEEP and PaO₂ during IMV were analyzed. The patients' characteristics were associated with the risk of death using a multivariate binary logistic regression analysis and alpha=0.05.

Results: The total number of medical records analyzed was 1,443 and out of those 570 (39.5%) recorded the patients' death. The binary logistic regression was significant when the patients' risk of death was predicted [$X^{2}_{(9)}$ =288.335; P-value<0.001], with a 73.0% prediction global percentage. Among predictors, the most significant in relation to death risk were: age [elderly \geq 65 years old; OR=2.226 (95%CI=1.728-2.867)]; male sex (OR=0.754; 95%CI=0.593-0.959); sepsis diagnosis (OR=1.961; 95%CI=1.481-2.595); need for elective surgery (OR=0.469; 95%CI=0.362-0.608); presence of cerebrovascular accident (OR=2.304; 95%CI=1.502-3.534); time of hospital care (OR=0.946; 95%CI=0.935-0.956); hypoxemia at admission (OR=1.635; 95%CI=1.024-2.611), and PEEP >8 cmH₂O at admission (OR=2.153; 95%CI=1.426-3.250).

Conclusion: The death rate of the studied ICU was equivalent to that of other similar units. Regarding risk predictors, most of them are modifiable through management optimization and the promotion of better health access. PEEP use must be cautious and personalized, since it was shown to increase death risk when used with values >8 cmH₂O at admission.

Keywords: Epidemiological Profile; Intensive Care Unit; Mechanical Ventilation

1. Introduction

The intensive care unit (ICU) of a hospital provides advanced life support to critical patients presenting different severity levels [1]. It is, therefore, a specialized facility to monitor and stabilize the patients' clinical aspects [2]. In such context, critical patients admitted in an ICU might require the use of invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV) to maintain patent airways, improve oxygenation, and prevent aspiration [3,4]. IMV is a complex resource and the expertise of the team managing it might generate better results. However, around 38% of the patients that require IMV still die [5]. For this reason, knowing the factors that lead to the outcomes of patients under IMV in ICU is vital to better inform the professionals' conduct and advise their families [6]. Understanding the profile of patients under IMV might lead to decisions such as getting access to technologies, training human resources, and reevaluating care processes, which could allow the structural adjustment of the unit according to the demographic and morbidity characteristics of the population assisted [7].

Since the appearance of ICU in the mid-1854, the mortality of patients that required care in such units has decreased [8]. However, some factors can still be considered to present death risk such as male sex, age (elderly), presence of comorbidities (e.g., systemic arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus, smoking and drinking habits, obesity), admission diagnosis (e.g., polytrauma, traumatic brain lesion, sepsis, neurological disorders, cerebrovascular accident, cardiopathy), and ventilatory parameter values at admission, including the Positive End Expiratory Pressure (PEEP) value, which influences the dissolved oxygen partial pressure in arterial blood (PaO₂) [9-14].

Curiously, in the United States, the main causes of ICU admission are respiratory insufficiency, myocardial acute infarction, intracranial hemorrhage or brain infarction, percutaneous cardiovascular procedures, and septicemia or sepsis. In Brazil, however, different data was obtained. An epidemiological study carried out at the Clinical Hospital of Marília reported that the main causes of hospital admission were circulatory system diseases, lesions, poisoning and neoplasias. Similar results were found in a hospital in the state of Santa Catarina and, according to the AMIB (Brazilian Intensive Medicine Association) most admissions in Brazilian ICU have clinical origin, followed by elective surgeries [8,15-18]. Even if epidemiological characteristics in different countries might differ, it remains clear that patients admitted in ICU require greater care, and MV is usually the main medical support in such events [18].

Regarding ventilatory parameters at admission, different strategies can be employed. However, the literature recommends the use of protective parameters (low current volumes along with driving pressure and mechanical power limitation) [3,19,20]. When considering ventilatory parameters, although PEEP is used aiming to improve oxygenation and stabilize alveolar units, its ideal value is still controversial [21,22]. However, some reports suggest that PEEP ideal values might prevent pulmonary lesion due to the cyclic opening and closing of alveoli, and that higher values than those required might cause lesion due to alveolar hyperdistention [23].

The use of 8 cmH₂O initial PEEP as "prophylactic PEEP" has been described in some studies as a preventive and compensatory value of the functional residual capacity resulting from orotracheal intubation. However, when this value is applied to normal lungs, there is no evidence of improvement of the outcome or time of hospital stay [23,24]. Therefore, the best choice of PEEP value must be made according to individual ventilatory mechanics [25]. At the same time, PaO₂ characterizes the degree of hypoxemia and hyperoxemia [26], and both might have some influence in the clinical outcome and time of hospital stay, since hypoxemia reduces oxygen supply to tissues and its cause might have different origins, namely, unbalance in the ventilation/perfusion rate, pulmonary shunt, hypoventilation. Hyperoxemia, in turn, might cause non-cardiogenic pulmonary edema, formation of hyalin membrane, neutrophilic infiltration, type I pneumocyte damage, type II pneumocyte hyperplasia, alveolar hemorrhage, and increase in the alveolar sept thickness [27,28].

Taking all that into consideration, this study aimed to describe the epidemiological profile of adult patients admitted in the ICU and receiving IMV at a University Hospital and evaluate the characteristics of the population investigated as risk factors for death and the influence of PEEP and PaO₂ at admission in the clinical outcome.

2. Methods

A retrospective and epidemiologic study was carried out of electronic medical records described in the Philips Tasy system (Philips Healthcare[®]), Barueri, São Paulo, Brazil, which records the diagnosis, laboratorial data, monitoring of ventilatory support and clinical evolution of inpatients who required IMV. The patients were included from January 2016 to December 2019 and were assisted at the University Hospital São Francisco de Assis na Providência de Deus ICU,

located in Bragança Paulista, São Paulo, Brazil. The ICU has 20 beds for the treatment of critical patients from 15 years old (y.o.) onwards. The time-period was selected to avoid the Coronavirus Disease (COVID)-19 impact on our data, because our University Hospital was a referral center to treat severe cases of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

The patients' characteristics considered in our epidemiological study were: (i) age [years and grouped as adult (18-64 y.o.) or elderly (>65 y.o.)], (ii) sex (male and female), (iii) body mass index (BMI) [Kg/m²; underweight (<18.5 Kg/m²), normal weight (18.5-24.9 Kg/m²), overweight (25-29.9 Kg/m²), obesity grade I (30-34.9 Kg/m²), obesity grade II (35-39.9 Kg/m²) and obesity grade III (>40 Kg/m²)], (iv) diagnostic (traumatic brain injury, polytraumas, sepsis, elective surgery, acute myocardial infarction, stroke, dyslipidemia, subarachnoid hemorrhage, neuromuscular disease, smoking habits, and others); (v) patient origin from clinics or surgery; (vi) previous history of comorbidities (smoking, alcoholism, cardiopathy, pneumopathy, neurologic sequelae, use of drugs, systemic arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, and others); (vii) PEEP values at admission in the ICU and during IMV (absolute value and the categorization using the 8 cmH₂O points as parameter); (viii) PaO₂ values at admission in the ICU and during IMV (absolute value and the categorization using the following distribution: hypoxia (<80 mmHg), normal (between 80 and 100 mmHg), and hyperoxia (>100 mmHg); (ix) length of hospital stay; (x) length of IMV; (xi) presence of acquired pneumonia; (xii) presence of tracheostomy during hospital stay; and (xiii) outcome (discharge and death).

Descriptive analysis was performed using two approaches. (i) categorical markers – N (%): sample size (percentage); (ii) numeric markers – mean (standard deviation) and a 95% confidence interval (95% CI) of the mean or median (interquartile range) and 95% CI to the median, according to the data distribution, parametric or non-parametric, respectively. The normality of the numeric data was evaluated employing the following methods: (i) analysis of descriptive measures for central tendency; (ii) plot method (normal Q-Q plot, trendless Q-Q plot, and boxplot); (iii) statistical tests (normality tests): Kolmorov-Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wilk.

The presence of death (categorical data) was associated with the values of the markers with numerical distribution by using the T-test or the Mann-Whitney test. Concomitantly, the presence of death was associated with markers with categorical distribution by using Fisher's Exact test or Qui-square test; also, the relative risk (RR) and the 95%CI were calculated. Pearson's correlation

coefficient between PaO_2 and PEEP levels was also evaluated to denote the mutual response between them.

The survival curve of patients who received IMV according to PEEP at admission and according to the classification of PaO_2 as normal, hypoxia and hyperoxia at admission was performed. The statistical analysis was performed by the Log-Rank (Mantel-Cose) test. The Hazard ratio was calculated using the PEEP $\leq 8 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$ as the numerator.

The binary logistic regression by the forward stepwise method (likelihood ratio) included the patients' characteristics that presented P-value ≤ 0.05 in the univariate analysis. However, the patients' characteristics which presented association between each other were excluded, since they could present a multicollinearity effect, also, in our model, BMI and the day the pneumonia associated with mechanical ventilation was diagnosed were excluded, due to a high number of missing data. Death was considered as a dependent variable, whereas the other patients' characteristics, were allocated as predictors of risk of death.

A 0.05 alpha was used and no technique was applied to stipulate the missing data values. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 24.0 (IBM Corp. Released 2015. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 23.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp) software and in the MedCalc 15.0 (MedCalc for Windows, version 15.0; MedCalc Software, Ostend, Belgium). Concomitantly, the GraphPad Prism version 8.0 was used for figures.

The research was approved by the Ethics Committee of São Francisco University [CAAE #29718820.9.0000.5514]. The waiver of the Informed Consent Term was obtained, since only the data from the patients' medical records were obtained without the individual description of the patient.

3. Results

3.1. Epidemiological profile of patients receiving IMV

A total of 3,213 medical records were evaluated from patients who were admitted to the ICU. Out of which 1,681 patients were excluded since they did not require IMV, and 68 were also excluded since the clinical data was missing. In the initial analysis, 1,464 patients were included

for having received IMV, however, 21 were later excluded since they were transferred to a different ICU. Thus, a total of 1,442 patients were included in our analysis (**Figure 1**).

Higher frequency of male patients (n=901; 62.4%), adults (n=914; 63.3%), with normal BMI (n=423; 29.3%) or overweight (n=372; 25.8%) was observed (**Table 1**). Among the previous history of comorbidities, the most prevalent were diabetes mellitus (n=325; 22.5%), systemic arterial hypertension (n=653; 45.3%), smoking (n=388; 26.9%), alcoholism (n=221; 15.3%), pneumopathy (n=131; 9.1%), cardiopathy (n=310; 21.5%), and neurologic sequel (n=171; 11.9%) (**Table 1, Supplementary material – Table 1**).

A total of 923 (64%) patients were referred to the ICU by the surgery department and the main reason for the admissions were traumatic brain injury (n=197; 13.7%), polytrauma (n=210; 14.6%), sepsis (n=375; 26%), the need for elective surgery (n=616; 42.7%), and cardiopathy (n=222; 15.4%) (**Table 1, Supplementary material – Table 1**). Pneumonia associated with MV was observed in 410 (28.4%) patients, and the need for tracheostomy in 332 (23%) patients; death of 570 (39.5%) patients was recorded.

3.2. Risk factors associated with death in patients receiving IMV

Several patients' characteristics were associated with enhanced lethality such as older age (RR=1.512 [95%CI=1.334-1.713]), enhanced BMI, grade II and III obesity (RR=1.426 [95%CI=1.029-1.977]) and obesity grade I (RR=1.354 [95%CI=1.085-1.357]), which presented higher risk of death (**Figure 1**). Individuals with previous history of comorbidities of diabetes mellitus (RR=1.262 [95%CI=1.099-1.449]), systemic arterial hypertension (RR=1.271 [95%CI=1.119-1.443]) and kidney disease (RR=1.554 [95%CI=1.251-1.931]) were also at higher risk of death (**Supplementary material – Table 2; Figure 1**). Male sex was associated with decreased risk of death when compared to female (RR=0.776 [95%CI=0.683-0.880]) (**Supplementary material – Table 3; Figure 1**).

In our data, older age and higher BMI were observed in the patients who died, also, these patients were hospitalized for more days and had the diagnosis of pneumonia associated with MV earlier when compared to patients who did not die (**Figure 2**). On the other hand, the lowest risk of death was associated with use of drugs and alcoholism, and this finding might be explained by

the younger age of the patients in this group (data not shown). The presence of pneumonia caused by MV was associated with longer hospital stay (**Figure 3**)

Several diagnoses were associated with enhanced lethality such as those from clinical origin (RR=1.387 [95%CI=1.223-1.573]), sepsis (RR=1.391 [95%CI=1.222-1.583]), stroke (RR=1.480 [95%CI=1.246-1.757]), and kidney disease (RR=1.485 [95%CI=1.094-2.017]) (**Supplementary material – Table 4; Figure 1**). However, patients with traumatic brain injury (RR=0.744 [95%CI=0.596-0.928]) and/or polytrauma (RR=0.665 [95%CI=0.290-0.836]) or those who needed elective surgery (RR=0.677 [95%CI=0.589-0.778]) and those who needed tracheostomy (RR=0.644 [95%CI=0.535-0.776]) presented decreased risk of death (**Supplementary material – Table 4; Figure 1**), nevertheless, patients who suffered traumatic brain injury and/or polytrauma were younger (data not shown).

3.3. Risk of death associated with PEEP and PaO₂

In our data, PEEP >8 cmH₂O at admission was associated with higher risk of death (RR=1.621 [95%CI=1.393-1.887]). Higher risk of death was also observed in patients with hypoxemia at admission (RR=1.365 [95%CI=1.126-1.655]). In contrast, lower risk of death was observed in those with hyperoxia (RR=0.813 [95%CI=0.693-0.954]) at admission (**Supplementary material – Table 4; Figure 1**).

In the analysis of the 20 first days of intubation, the patients who died required longer ventilatory support and presented higher PEEP values throughout the 20 first days, when compared to those who were discharged, except on the 15^{th} day of hospitalization (**Figure 4**). Curiously, the same did not happen with PaO₂, which presented lower values in the patients who died only between the day of intubation until the 5^{th} day of follow up, as well as between the 7^{th} and 10^{th} day of intubation (**Figure 5**). The categorization of the patients according to the PEEP and the outcome for the 20 days of intubation is presented in **Figure 6**. It seems relevant to point out that patients who died had more time on PEEP >8 cmH₂O.

In the Pearson correlation between numeric markers (PEEP at admission, PaO_2 at admission, IMV duration, hospital stay, time until the pneumonia diagnosis, BMI, and age) no significant correlation was observed, except for the correlation between the IMV duration and hospital stay (CC=0.70; P-value<0.001), as well as the time until the pneumonia diagnosis

associated with IMV (CC=0.41; P-value<0.001) and hospital stay (CC=0.35; P-value<0.001) (Supplementary material – Figure 1).

3.4. Survival analysis

In the survival analysis, PEEP >8 cmH₂O at admission was seen to be associated with a survival of 26 days, in contrast, in patients with PEEP \leq 8 cmH₂O the survival was 41 days (P-value<0.001), a Hazard ratio of 1.713 (95%CI=1.340-2.345) was observed. Regarding the PaO₂ classification, values of 40, 27 and 22 were found, respectively for hyperoxia, normal and hypoxemia (P-value<0.001) (**Figure 7**).

3.5. Multivariate binary logistic regression analysis

In our model, the BMI and the day the diagnosis of pneumonia associated with mechanical ventilation was made were excluded, due to a high number of missing data, also, the previous diagnosis of kidney disease, kidney disease at admission, and use of drugs were also excluded.

The multivariate analysis by the binary logistic regression performed by the forward stepwise method (likelihood ratio) was significant to determine whether the patients' characteristics evaluated were likely to predict death $[X^{2}_{(9)}=288.335; P-value <0.001; Nagelkerke R^{2}=0.245]$, with an overall prediction percentage of 73.0% for the best equation. Predictors that were significant to predict the risk of death included older age [elderly \geq 65 y.o.; OR=2.226 (95%CI=1.728-2.867)]; male (OR=0.754; 95%CI=0.593-0.959); sepsis (OR=1.961; 95%CI=1.481-2.595); need for elective surgery (OR=0.469; 95%CI=0.362-0.608); stroke (OR=2.304; 95%CI=1.502-3.534); hospital stay (OR=0.946; 95%CI=0.935-0.956); hypoxemia (OR=1.635; 95%CI=1.024-2.611) and PEEP >8 cmH₂O at admission (OR=2.153; 95%CI=1.426-3.250). In contrast, hyperoxia could not predict the risk of death (**Table 2**)

4. Discussion

This study described the death of 570 patients (39.5%). Higher risk of this outcome was observed in patients that presented older age, sepsis diagnosis, presence of cerebrovascular

accident, hypoxemia at admission, and the use of PEEP >8 cmH₂O at admission. The epidemiological profile of patients admitted in the adult ICU of the university hospital shows mainly adult male patients, with previous history of diabetes mellitus, systematic arterial hypertension, alcoholism and smoking habits. Those patients were usually referred to the ICU by the surgical team, including those undergoing elective surgeries (42.7%). Main causes of admission in the ICU included traumatic brain injury, polytrauma, and sepsis. During the follow-up period, 410 (28.4%) patients presented pneumonia associated with ventilation.

4.1. Epidemiological profile of patients receiving IMV and death risk

This study found a 39.5% death rate and this value is only associated with patients that received IMV. In the literature, a multicenter study that analyzed data from 361 ICU located in the United States, Europe and Latin America and included 5,183 individuals receiving MV reported a 52% death rate in patients that required MV due to respiratory insufficiency [7]. That study presented demographic characteristics very similar to the ones in our study, which showed prevalence of male patients, mean age of 59 years, and the main causes of MV were surgery followed by pneumonia, cardiopathy, sepsis, and trauma. Those authors also reported that the factor that leads to the need for MV might influence the outcome. In Brazil, most patients in ICU are male (50.78%) [16]. This value is similar to the ones found in the United States (51.5%) and the United Kingdom (57.2%) [29,30]. As for the age range, both in Brazil and the United States, adult individuals prevail [16,29].

In this study, the presence of older age, obesity, systemic arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and kidney insufficiency were associated to higher likelihood of death. This data is in accordance with the literature [7,19]. Curiously, these markers seem to be part of the profile of the patients assisted in Brazil, since, according to the Brazilian Intensive Medicine Association, the most frequent comorbidities found in patients admitted in ICU in the country include systemic arterial hypertension (66.40%), diabetes mellitus (32.82%), and kidney insufficiency (11.63%). The prevalence of male patients was also reported (51.30%) by that institution [16]. Such comorbidities might lead to the risk of ICU admission, in which diabetes mellitus, for example, is associated with increased risk of infection in several sites (skin, nervous system, bones, and articulations) [69]. Systemic arterial hypertension, in turn, is the most important morbidity and

mortality risk factor in the world, and is associated with increased risk of cardiovascular diseases [31]. Finally, kidney insufficiency presents a 57% increase in the mortality risk of critical patients due to its consequences, namely, metabolic acidosis, electrolytic unbalance, and uremic toxicity [32].

Obesity is also a predictor of both death and longer hospital stay, since it might have consequences in several organs, mainly lungs and heart. In addition, it requires a differentiated MV management and higher ventilatory weaning expertise [32]. The literature reports a relevant study carried out in the United Kingdom including over 3.6 million individuals, which pointed out higher death incidence in patients with BMI over the band considered healthy [BMI >30 Kg/m² (obesity)]. However, that study identified the influence of age and BMI together and reported that low BMI increases death risk in young individuals, while higher BMI might have a protective effect in older people (which might be associated with higher nutritional reserve) [33]. However, other studies have reported that obesity influences mainly the time of hospital stay rather than death risk [32,34]. Clearly, the obesity role in the outcome of patients admitted in the ICU and mainly in those that require IMV still needs further studies, since a new pandemic of obese individuals has been observed worldwide [35].

It seems relevant to emphasize that comorbidities not always develop individually. Therefore, when considered together, they might increase even more the likelihood of negative outcomes; however, it is also important to highlight that, in some cases, the risk factors are modifiable and might be reduced by public health policies, awareness raising, and better access to health services, with the implementation of actions such as campaigns incentivizing healthy eating habits, regular practice of physical exercises, adherence to disease control measures, and stopping smoking and consuming alcohol. These actions aim at the reduction of the incidence of obesity, systemic arterial hypertension, diabetes mellitus and, consequently, might reduce the occurrence of cardiovascular events [36].

Regarding diagnosis at admission, our study shows that patients in treatment that present diagnosis of sepsis, cerebrovascular accident, and kidney disorders also present higher death risk when compared to individuals with diagnosis of traumatic brain injury, polytrauma, elective surgeries, and those that evolved to tracheostomy. Some findings in our study disagree with those in the literature, since patients with traumatic brain injury and/or polytrauma were younger than

other patients. For example, cerebrovascular accident along with the need for MV presents high mortality rate (56.6%) and tends to predominate among male patients (52.7%) with mean age of 60 years [37,38]. This data is confirmed in our study, which showed that male sex, diagnosis of cerebrovascular accident, and age are more frequent among our patients; however, in our data, male sex was not a death predictor.

When considering death risk markers, sepsis is responsible for ~30-60% deaths in ICU [39]. The highest death risk due to sepsis results from organ failure caused by the host's deregulated response to the infection. Despite all efforts made to prevent infections and treat patients affected by them, sepsis is still one of the most common causes of death worldwide, with varied rates according to the region (South Africa and Asia are the most affected regions), age (older age is more associated with death risk), and sex (male) [40-42]. As for treatment, empirical antimicrobial therapy is still the base treatment, and its start is indicated in the first 6 hours of the diagnosis, and each hour of delay represents a 6% increase in the death risk. The prescription of unsuitable antimicrobial drugs also increases death rates, and bacteria resistance to the antibiotic medication has also been observed. In addition, antibiotic medicine might eliminate the bacteria from the blood plasma, however, it might not be efficient to prevent the pathogen proliferation in the erythrocyte, which might be the cause of inefficiency of some treatments against sepsis [43]. The sepsis profile described is similar to the profile observed in patients that were assisted at the University Hospital where this study was carried out.

Elective surgeries that require ICU admission represent 9.7% of this treatment. Out of those, around 50.4% also present some postoperative complications such as pulmonary embolism and cardiac arrest, with a mortality rate ranging between 2.4 and 9.7% [44]. In this study and in the literature, lower death risk after elective surgery might be associated with the preparation that precedes the procedure.

4.2. Death risk associated with PEEP and PaO₂

This study described the highest death risk of patients receiving ventilation with PEEP >8 cmH₂O and that maintained hypoxemia. On the other hand, patients with hyperoxemia showed lower death risk. Some studies have pointed out that PEEP does not reduce the incidence of pulmonary complications and that for this reason, it should not be considered a protective factor

for a favorable outcome. In addition, in some cases, PEEP might increase oxygenation; however, in other cases, it might lead to static stretching which might result in lesions [21,45]. A study found in the literature carried out the analysis of surgical patients and showed that PEEP use resulted in a 5% death risk reduction due to decreased postoperative pulmonary complications such as atelectasis and hypoxemia. However, those findings were inconclusive due to research limitations (small sample) [47]. Concomitantly, we observed higher survival rate in patients that used PEEP \leq 8 cmH₂O. However, in the literature, the outcome does not seem to be associated with the PEEP cut-off point [24,25]. Gatinoni and co-workers (2015) concluded that there is not a PEEP correct value, and that it must be titrated taking into consideration several factors (oxygenation and hemodynamics, for example) [22].

In extreme cases, hypoxemia might lead to organ failure [48], while hyperoxemia might lead to acute hyperoxic acute lung injury, damaging the epithelium and endothelium due to the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF-a and gamma interferon (IFN-g)), which might start a pulmonary injury process. [27,49]. Although hyperoxemia in the first 24h of hospital admission does not seem to increase death risk in severe trauma patients [50], it is associated with higher death risk in patients with cardiorespiratory arrest [51]. The use of supplementary oxygen in patients with hyperoxemia (PaO₂ over 150 mmHg) was associated with the worst clinical outcome, possibly due to vasoconstriction, reduction in the coronary blood flow and cardiac output, release of free radicals, and microvascular perfusion modulation [49,52].

Despite the general reduction in death risk in patients with PaO₂ over 150 mmHg in the first 24h of ICU admission, high PaO₂ values should not be recommended when the etiology of the tissue oxygenation decrease is not known (e.g., due to hampered transportation), thus, it might not be wise to state that high levels of arterial oxygenation are always beneficial or might cause deleterious side effects [53].

4.4. Multivariate binary logistic regression analysis

This analysis enabled the identification of markers that were death risk predictors, which included female sex, elderly, sepsis, cerebrovascular accident, hypoxemia, and PEEP >8 cmH₂O ventilation. Concomitantly, patients undergoing elective surgery and male sex presented lower chances of death.

In our study, the fact that it was developed at a trauma referral center in the region where it is located could lead to an increase in the death risk in male patients, which would confirm other epidemiological studies on trauma centers in Brazil (located in the states of Parana, Bahia, and Paraiba). However, male sex was associated with the lowest death incidence. A fact that could explain our findings is that these male patients might have had their age as the main protective factor, since they were all younger patients (data not presented).

Among the elderly, traumatic brain injury might increase mortality when associated with a number of comorbidities such as falls, which can even contribute to the cause of trauma [54-56]. A cohort retrospective study that analyzed data from 8,598 patients, reported that most of the ICU admissions were of male patients. However, when comparing hospital stay, the analysis did not show difference between genders, but the hospital discharge rate was higher for female patients [57]. In addition, older patients are more vulnerable and might develop multiple organ failure faster, which might lead to an increased death rate in that population [58].

Sepsis is accountable for 25% of ICU admissions in Brazil and shows high mortality rates, which might reach 65%, while the sepsis mortality mean around the world might reach 40% [59]. For being an organ failure caused by deregulated and unsuitable host's response to infection, sepsis is potentially fatal and its mortality rate is higher in environments of low or medium resources [60].

Elective surgeries usually present low mortality rate (between 1% and 4%) and preoperative care procedures are considered essential to provide a safe surgical treatment. However, the ideal level of such care has not been defined yet and death still occurs, mainly due to postoperative complications, as for example, pulmonary embolism and cardiac arrest [44].

Both hypoxemia and the use of PEEP >8 cmH₂O were factors that increased mortality rates in our analysis. A study developed with rats that analyzed PEEP as a way of preventing postoperative pulmonary complications reported that the use of PEEP >8 cmH₂O prevented such complications [61]. However, that study reported a postoperative analysis only. In addition, regarding PaO₂, health professionals are most concerned with hypoxemia than with the deleterious effects of hyperoxemia. For this reason, PaO₂ at admission is most times over than that recommended. However, the mortality curve related to PaO₂ at admission presents a U shape, that is, the mortality risk increases as much with low PaO₂ as with high, and it seems relevant to highlight that PaO₂ is influenced by both the oxygen supplementary offer and the PEEP [62]. Although PEEP reduces the collapse of alveolar units and the incidence of atelectasis, one of the factors causing hypoxemia [63], the use of high PEEP values might lead to injury induced by static stretching of alveolar units, mainly when the time in MV is considered, since it is usually longer in patients of clinical or trauma origin [21,64]. The PEEP ideal value remains an unanswered question and if underestimated, it might collapse the alveoli hampering gas exchange. On the other hand, if overestimated, it might lead to alveolar hyperdistention, which also hampers gas exchange and the venous return [22,23]. Therefore, PEEP titration must be compared to the drug administration and it must be applied rationally based on the patient's condition.

PEEP increases linearly the mechanical power, which is the energy delivered to the alveolus as a consequence of the ventilatory parameters set [65]. The mechanical power equation might help the clinical team to estimate injuries associated to MV by observing the variables present in its formula (current volume, respiratory rate, and inspiratory time) and, since PEEP increases the mechanical power volume linearly, it also increases the risk of injury associated with ventilation and, consequently, the death risk [66]. Our study showed increased death risk with PEEP >8 cmH₂O, which might be associated with lesions caused by the ventilation, which is in agreement with the literature.

A recent study incorporated PEEP to the PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio with the purpose of evaluating the mortality predisposition of patients receiving MV and was seen to be a good marker. That study also reported that PEEP incorporated to the PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio alters the classification of gas exchange severity in critical patients [67]. The pandemic caused by the new coronavirus raised great interest in PEEP due to the fact that this disease affects lungs severely in some cases leading to a condition similar to that of the acute respiratory discomfort syndrome, requiring better MV performance [68].

5. Limitations

The limitations of our study include a small sample and missing data such as the absence of severity score and some BMI, and pneumonia associated with ventilation. This was an observational study, which might lead to confounding factors. In addition, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the 2020 and 2021 data were not included, since the pandemic modulated and affected ICU admissions, including referred ICU [70-73].

6. Conclusions

Our study reported a 39.5% death rate and the predictors listed were sex (female), age (elderly), sepsis diagnosis at admission, cerebrovascular accident, hypoxemia, and the use of PEEP over 8 cmH₂O. The death rate found was similar to that reported by other centers. Although there are predictor factors that cannot be altered, there are those that can be managed, therefore, reducing their influence in the outcome. Regarding PEEP, it was seen to be a bedside tool that can be titrated to improve the clinical outcome. Preventing the occurrence of hypoxemia through the correct oxygen offer and PEEP can also reduce mortality rates, mainly considering that PEEP can be titrated and personalized to each patient. Specific campaigns and providing the population with access to preventive health services might reduce the incidence of cerebrovascular accidents and infections in addition to controlling the prevalence of other factors, such as diabetes mellitus and systemic arterial hypertension, which were frequent in our analysis.

7. References

1. Carson SS, Bach PB. The epidemiology and costs of chronic critical illness. Crit Care Clin. 2002;18(3):461-476. doi: 10.1016/s0749-0704(02)00015-5.

2. Fassier T, Duclos A, Abbas-Chorfa F, Couray-Targe S, West TE, Argaud L, Colin C. Elderly patients hospitalized in the ICU in France: a population-based study using secondary data from the national hospital discharge database. J Eval Clin Pract. 2016;22(3):378-386. doi: 10.1111/jep.12497.

3. Fichtner F, Moerer O, Laudi S, Weber-Carstens S, Nothacker M, Kaisers U; Investigators and the Guideline Group on Mechanical Ventilation and Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation in Acute Respiratory Insufficiency. Mechanical ventilation and extracorporeal membrane oxygenation in acute respiratory insufficiency. Dtsch Arztebl Int. 2018;115(50):840-847. doi: 10.3238/arztebl.2018.0840.

4. Gutiérrez JMM, Borromeo AR, Dueño AL, Paragas ED Jr, Ellasus RO, Abalos-Fabia RS, Abriam JA, Sonido AE, Hernandez MA, Generale AJA, Sombillo RC, Lacanaria MGC, Centeno MM, Laoingco JRC, Domantay JAA. Clinical epidemiology and outcomes of ventilator-associated pneumonia in critically ill adult patients: protocol for a large-scale systematic review and planned meta-analysis. Syst Rev. 2019;8(1):180. doi: 10.1186/s13643-019-1080-y.

5. Mehta AB, Walkey AJ, Curran-Everett D, Matlock D, Douglas IS. Hospital Mechanical Ventilation Volume and Patient Outcomes: Too Much of a Good Thing? Crit Care Med. 2019;47(3):360-368. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000003590.

6. Albuquerque JM, Silva RFA, Souza RFF. Epidemiological profile and monitoring after discharge of patients hospitalized at an intensive care unit. Cogitare Enferm. 62(3):248-254. doi: 10.5380/ce.v22i3.50609.

7. Esteban A, Anzueto A, Frutos F, Alía I, Brochard L, Stewart TE, Benito S, Epstein SK, Apezteguía C, Nightingale P, Arroliga AC, Tobin MJ; Mechanical Ventilation International Study Group. Characteristics and outcomes in adult patients receiving mechanical ventilation: a 28-day international study. JAMA. 2002;287(3):345-55. doi: 10.1001/jama.287.3.345.

8. El-Fakhouri S, Carrasco HV, Araújo GC, Frini IC. Epidemiological profile of ICU patients at Faculdade de Medicina de Marília. Rev Assoc Med Bras (1992). 2016;62(3):248-254. doi: 10.1590/1806-9282.62.03.248.

9. Grasselli G, Greco M, Zanella A, Albano G, Antonelli M, Bellani G, Bonanomi E, Cabrini L, Carlesso E, Castelli G, Cattaneo S, Cereda D, Colombo S, Coluccello A, Crescini G, Forastieri Molinari A, Foti G, Fumagalli R, Iotti GA, Langer T, Latronico N, Lorini FL, Mojoli F, Natalini G, Pessina CM, Ranieri VM, Rech R, Scudeller L, Rosano A, Storti E, Thompson BT, Tirani M, Villani PG, Pesenti A, Cecconi M; COVID-19 Lombardy ICU Network. Risk Factors Associated With Mortality Among Patients With COVID-19 in Intensive Care Units in Lombardy, Italy. JAMA Intern Med. 2020;180(10):1345-1355. doi: 10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.3539.

10. Lee HW, Ji E, Ahn S, Yang HJ, Yoon SY, Park TY, Lee YJ, Lee J, Lee SM, Choi SH, Cho YJ. A population-based observational study of patients with pulmonary disorders in intensive care unit. Korean J Intern Med. 2020;35(6):1411-1423. doi: 10.3904/kjim.2018.449.

11. Pinheiro KHE, Azêdo FA, Areco KCN, Laranja SMR. Risk factors and mortality in patients with sepsis, septic and non septic acute kidney injury in ICU. J Bras Nefrol. 2019;41(4):462-471. doi: 10.1590/2175-8239-JBN-2018-0240.

12. Kim DY, Lee MH, Lee SY, Yang BR, Kim HA. Survival rates following medical intensive care unit admission from 2003 to 2013: An observational study based on a representative population-based sample cohort of Korean patients. Medicine (Baltimore). 2019;98(37):e17090. doi: 10.1097/MD.000000000017090.

13. Bunogerane GJ, Rickard J. A cross sectional survey of factors influencing mortality in Rwandan surgical patients in the intensive care unit. Surgery. 2019;166(2):193-197. doi: 10.1016/j.surg.2019.04.010.

14. Vincent JL, Rello J, Marshall J, Silva E, Anzueto A, Martin CD, Moreno R, Lipman J, Gomersall C, Sakr Y, Reinhart K; EPIC II Group of Investigators. International study of the prevalence and outcomes of infection in intensive care units. JAMA. 2009;302(21):2323-9. doi: 10.1001/jama.2009.1754.

15. Barrett ML, Smith MW, Elixhauser A, Honigman LS, Pines JM. Utilization of Intensive Care Services, 2011: Statistical Brief #185. 2014 Dec. In: Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project (HCUP) Statistical Briefs [Internet]. Rockville (MD): Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (US); 2006.

16. Registro Nacional de Terapia Intensiva. AMIB. Disponível em http://www.utisbrasileiras.com.br. Acesso em 05/09/2021

17. Rodriguez AH, Bub MBC, Perão OF, Zandonadi G, Rodriguez MJH. Epidemiological characteristics and causes of deaths in hospitalized patients under intensive care. Rev Bras Enferm [Internet]. 2016;69(2):210-214.

18. Society of Critical Care Medicine. https://www.sccm.org/Communications/Critical-Care-Statistics

19. Urner M, Jüni P, Hansen B, Wettstein MS, Ferguson ND, Fan E. Time-varying intensity of mechanical ventilation and mortality in patients with acute respiratory failure: a registry-based, prospective cohort study. Lancet Respir Med. 2020;8(9):905-913. doi: 10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30325-8.

20. Hirshberg EL, Majercik S. Targeting Driving Pressure for the Management of ARDS...Isn't It Just Very Low Tidal Volume Ventilation? Ann Am Thorac Soc. 2020;17(5):557-558. doi: 10.1513/AnnalsATS.202002-108ED.

21. Bugedo G, Retamal J, Bhrun A. Does the use of high PEEP levels prevent ventilatorinduced lung injury? Rev Bras Ter Intensiva. 2017;29(2):231-237. doi: 10.5935/0103-507X.20170032.

22. Gattinoni L, Carlesso E, Cressoni M. Selecting the 'right' positive end-expiratory pressure level. Curr Opin Crit Care. 2015;21(1):50-57. doi: 10.1097/MCC.00000000000166.

23. Dries DJ, Marini JJ. Finding Best PEEP: A Little at a Time. Respir Care. 2020;65(5):722-724. doi: 10.4187/respcare.07799.

24. Algera AG, Pisani L, Bergmans DCJ, den Boer S, de Borgie CAJ, Bosch FH, Bruin K, Cherpanath TG, Determann RM, Dondorp AM, Dongelmans DA, Endeman H, Haringman JJ, Horn J, Juffermans NP, van Meenen DM, van der Meer NJ, Merkus MP, Moeniralam HS, Purmer I, Tuinman PR, Slabbekoorn M, Spronk PE, Vlaar APJ, Gama de Abreu M, Pelosi P, Serpa Neto A, Schultz MJ, Paulus F; RELAx Investigators and the PROVE Network Investigators. RELAx - REstricted versus Liberal positive end-expiratory pressure in patients without ARDS: protocol for a randomized controlled trial. Trials. 2018;19(1):272. doi: 10.1186/s13063-018-2640-5.

25. Shao S, Kang H, Qian Z, Wang Y, Tong Z. Effect of different levels of PEEP on mortality in ICU patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome: systematic review and meta-analysis with trial sequential analysis. J Crit Care. 2021;65:246-258. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2021.06.015.

26. Seckel MA. Oxygen and oxygenation. Crit Care Nurse. 2014;34(5):73-74. doi: 10.4037/ccn2014745.

Soares Pinheiro FGM, Santana Santos E, Barreto ÍDC, Weiss C, Vaez AC, Oliveira JC, Melo MS, Silva FA. Mortality Predictors and Associated Factors in Patients in the Intensive Care Unit: A Cross-Sectional Study. Crit Care Res Pract. 2020;2020:1483827. doi: 10.1155/2020/1483827.

27. Valença SS, Kloss ML, Bezerra FS, Lanzetti M, Silva FL, Porto LC. Effects of hiperoxia on Wistar rats lungs. J Bras Pneumol. 2007;33(6):655-662.

28. Sharma S, Hashmi MF. Partial Pressure Of Oxygen. [Updated 2021 Jul 31]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2021. Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK493219.

29. Wunsch H, Linde-Zwirble WT, Angus DC, Hartman ME, Milbrandt EB, Kahn JM. The epidemiology of mechanical ventilation use in the United States. Crit Care Med. 2010 Oct;38(10):1947-53. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181ef4460. PMID: 20639743.

30. Lone NI, Walsh TS. Prolonged mechanical ventilation in critically ill patients: epidemiology, outcomes and modelling the potential cost consequences of establishing a regional weaning unit. Crit Care. 2011;15(2):R102. doi: 10.1186/cc10117.

31. Oparil S, Acelajado MC, Bakris GL, Berlowitz DR, Cífková R, Dominiczak AF, Grassi G, Jordan J, Poulter NR, Rodgers A, Whelton PK. Hypertension. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2018;4:18014. doi: 10.1038/nrdp.2018.14.

32. Lee SA, Cozzi M, Bush EL, Rabb H. Distant Organ Dysfunction in Acute Kidney Injury: A Review. Am J Kidney Dis. 2018;72(6):846-856. doi: 10.1053/j.ajkd.2018.03.028.

32. Selim BJ, Ramar K, Surani S. Obesity in the intensive care unit: risks and complications. Hosp Pract (1995). 2016;44(3):146-156. doi: 10.1080/21548331.2016.1179558.

33. Bhaskaran K, Dos-Santos-Silva I, Leon DA, Douglas IJ, Smeeth L. Association of BMI with overall and cause-specific mortality: a population-based cohort study of 3.6 million adults in the UK. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2018;6(12):944-953. doi: 10.1016/S2213-8587(18)30288-2.

34. Anzueto A, Frutos-Vivar F, Esteban A, Bensalami N, Marks D, Raymondos K, Apezteguía C, Arabi Y, Hurtado J, González M, Tomicic V, Abroug F, Elizalde J, Cakar N, Pelosi P, Ferguson ND; Ventila group. Influence of body mass index on outcome of the mechanically ventilated patients. Thorax. 2011;66(1):66-73. doi: 10.1136/thx.2010.145086.

35. Anderson MR, Shashaty MGS. Impact of Obesity in Critical Illness. Chest. 2021:S0012-3692(21)03616-3. doi: 10.1016/j.chest.2021.08.001.

36. Gupta R, Wood DA. Primary prevention of ischaemic heart disease: populations, individuals, and health professionals. Lancet. 2019;394(10199):685-696. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(19)31893-8.

37. Popat C, Ruthirago D, Shehabeldin M, Yang S, Nugent K. Outcomes in Patients With Acute Stroke Requiring Mechanical Ventilation: Predictors of Mortality and Successful Extubation. Am J Med Sci. 2018;356(1):3-9. doi: 10.1016/j.amjms.2018.03.013.

38. Guzik A, Bushnell C. Stroke Epidemiology and Risk Factor Management. Continuum (Minneap Minn). 2017;23:15-39. doi: 10.1212/CON.00000000000416.

39. Bauer M, Gerlach H, Vogelmann T, Preissing F, Stiefel J, Adam D. Mortality in sepsis and septic shock in Europe, North America and Australia between 2009 and 2019- results from a systematic review and meta-analysis. Crit Care. 2020;24(1):239. doi: 10.1186/s13054-020-02950-2.

40. Rudd KE, Johnson SC, Agesa KM, Shackelford KA, Tsoi D, Kievlan DR, Colombara DV, Ikuta KS, Kissoon N, Finfer S, Fleischmann-Struzek C, Machado FR, Reinhart KK, Rowan K, Seymour CW, Watson RS, West TE, Marinho F, Hay SI, Lozano R, Lopez AD, Angus DC, Murray CJL, Naghavi M. Global, regional, and national sepsis incidence and mortality, 1990-2017: analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study. Lancet. 2020;395(10219):200-211. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(19)32989-7.

41. Barreto MF, Dellaroza MS, Kerbauy G, Grion CM. Sepsis in a university hospital: a prospective study for the cost analysis of patients' hospitalization. Rev Esc Enferm USP. 2016;50(2):302-308. doi: 10.1590/S0080-623420160000200017.

42. Rhodes A, Evans LE, Alhazzani W, Levy MM, Antonelli M, Ferrer R, Kumar A, Sevransky JE, Sprung CL, Nunnally ME, Rochwerg B, Rubenfeld GD, Angus DC, Annane D, Beale RJ, Bellinghan GJ, Bernard GR, Chiche JD, Coopersmith C, De Backer DP, French CJ, Fujishima S, Gerlach H, Hidalgo JL, Hollenberg SM, Jones AE, Karnad DR, Kleinpell RM, Koh Y, Lisboa TC, Machado FR, Marini JJ, Marshall JC, Mazuski JE, McIntyre LA, McLean AS, Mehta S, Moreno RP, Myburgh J, Navalesi P, Nishida O, Osborn TM, Perner A, Plunkett CM, Ranieri M, Schorr CA, Seckel MA, Seymour CW, Shieh L, Shukri KA, Simpson SQ, Singer M, Thompson BT, Townsend SR, Van der Poll T, Vincent JL, Wiersinga WJ, Zimmerman JL, Dellinger RP. Surviving Sepsis Campaign: International Guidelines for Management of Sepsis and Septic Shock: 2016. Intensive Care Med. 2017;43(3):304-377. doi: 10.1007/s00134-017-4683-6.

43. Minasyan H. Sepsis and septic shock: Pathogenesis and treatment perspectives. J Crit Care. 2017;40:229-242. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2017.04.015.

44. International Surgical Outcomes Study group. Global patient outcomes after elective surgery: prospective cohort study in 27 low-, middle- and high-income countries. Br J Anaesth. 2016;117(5):601-609. doi: 10.1093/bja/aew316.

45. PROVE Network Investigators for the Clinical Trial Network of the European Society of Anaesthesiology, Hemmes SN, Gama de Abreu M, Pelosi P, Schultz MJ. High versus low positive end-expiratory pressure during general anaesthesia for open abdominal surgery (PROVHILO trial): a multicentre randomised controlled trial. Lancet. 2014;384(9942):495-503. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(14)60416-5.

46.

47. Barbosa FT, Castro AA, de Sousa-Rodrigues CF. Positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) during anaesthesia for prevention of mortality and postoperative pulmonary complications. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2014;(6):CD007922. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD007922.pub3.

48. MacIntyre NR. Tissue hypoxia: implications for the respiratory clinician. Respir Care. 2014;59(10):1590-1596. doi: 10.4187/respcare.03357.

49. Damiani E, Donati A, Girardis M. Oxygen in the critically ill: friend or foe? Curr Opin Anaesthesiol. 2018;31(2):129-135. doi: 10.1097/ACO.00000000000559.

50. Russell DW, Janz DR, Emerson WL, May AK, Bernard GR, Zhao Z, Koyama T, Ware LB. Early exposure to hyperoxia and mortality in critically ill patients with severe traumatic injuries. BMC Pulm Med. 2017;17(1):29. doi: 10.1186/s12890-017-0370-1.

51. Ni YN, Wang YM, Liang BM, Liang ZA. The effect of hyperoxia on mortality in critically ill patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Pulm Med. 2019;19(1):53. doi: 10.1186/s12890-019-0810-1.

52. Ferguson ND. Oxygen in the ICU: Too Much of a Good Thing? JAMA. 2016;316(15):1553-1554. doi: 10.1001/jama.2016.13800.

53. Demiselle J, Calzia E, Hartmann C, Messerer DAC, Asfar P, Radermacher P, Datzmann T. Target arterial PO₂ according to the underlying pathology: a mini-review of the available data in mechanically ventilated patients. Ann Intensive Care. 2021;11(1):88. doi: 10.1186/s13613-021-00872-y.

54. Melo JR, Silva RA, Moreira ED Jr. Características dos pacientes com trauma cranioencefálico na cidade do Salvador, Bahia, Brasil [Characteristics of patients with head injury at Salvador City (Bahia--Brazil)]. Arq Neuropsiquiatr. 2004;62(3A):711-714. doi: 10.1590/s0004-282x2004000400027.

55. Esteves LA, Joaquim AF, Tedeschi H. Retrospective analysis of a case series of patients with traumatic injuries to the craniocervical junction. Einstein (Sao Paulo). 2016;14(4):528-533. doi: 10.1590/S1679-45082016AO3396.

56. Carteri RBK, Silva RAD. Traumatic brain injury hospital incidence in Brazil: an analysis of the past 10 years. Rev Bras Ter Intensiva. 2021;33(2):282-289. doi: 10.5935/0103-507X.20210036.

57. Zettersten E, Jäderling G, Bell M, Larsson E. Sex and gender aspects on intensive care. A cohort study. J Crit Care. 2020;55:22-27. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2019.09.023.

58. Ranzani OT, Besen BAMP, Herridge MS. Focus on the frail and elderly: who should have a trial of ICU treatment? Intensive Care Med. 2020;46(5):1030-1032. doi: 10.1007/s00134-020-05963-1.

59. ILAS – Instituto Latino Americano de Sepse. Available from: https://ilas.org.br/.

60. Salomão R, Ferreira BL, Salomão MC, Santos SS, Azevedo LCP, Brunialti MKC. Sepsis: evolving concepts and challenges. Braz J Med Biol Res. 2019;52(4):e8595. doi: 10.1590/1414-431X20198595.

61. Setak-Berenjestanaki M, Bagheri-Nesami M, Gholipour Baradari A, Mousavinasab SN, Ghaffari R, Darbeheshti M. The prophylactic effect of different levels of positive endexpiratory pressure on the incidence rate of atelectasis after cardiac surgery: A Randomized Controlled Trial. Med J Islam Repub Iran. 2018;32:20. doi: 10.14196/mjiri.32.20.

62. de Jonge E, Peelen L, Keijzers PJ, Joore H, de Lange D, van der Voort PH, Bosman RJ, de Waal RA, Wesselink R, de Keizer NF. Association between administered oxygen, arterial partial oxygen pressure and mortality in mechanically ventilated intensive care unit patients. Crit Care. 2008;12(6):R156. doi: 10.1186/cc7150.

63. McKown AC, Semler MW, Rice TW. Best PEEP trials are dependent on tidal volume. Crit Care. 2018;22(1):115. doi: 10.1186/s13054-018-2047-4.

64. Mathew PJ, Jehan F, Kulvatunyou N, Khan M, O'Keeffe T, Tang A, Gries L, Hamidi M, Zakaria ER, Joseph B. The burden of excess length of stay in trauma patients. Am J Surg. 2018;216(5):881-885. doi: 10.1016/j.amjsurg.2018.07.044.

65. Silva PL, Ball L, Rocco PRM, Pelosi P. Power to mechanical power to minimize ventilator-induced lung injury? Intensive Care Med Exp. 2019 Jul 25;7(Suppl 1):38. doi: 10.1186/s40635-019-0243-4.

66. Gattinoni L, Tonetti T, Cressoni M, Cadringher P, Herrmann P, Moerer O, Protti A, Gotti M, Chiurazzi C, Carlesso E, Chiumello D, Quintel M. Ventilator-related causes of lung injury: the mechanical power. Intensive Care Med. 2016;42(10):1567-1575. doi: 10.1007/s00134-016-4505-2.

67. Palanidurai S, Phua J, Chan YH, Mukhopadhyay A. P/FP ratio: incorporation of PEEP into the PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio for prognostication and classification of acute respiratory distress syndrome. Ann Intensive Care. 2021 Aug 9;11(1):124. doi: 10.1186/s13613-021-00908-3.El-Fakhouri S, Carrasco HV, Araújo GC, Frini IC. Epidemiological profile of ICU patients at Faculdade de Medicina de Marília. Rev Assoc Med Bras (1992). 2016;62(3):248-254. doi: 10.1590/1806-9282.62.03.248.

68. Mittermaier M, Pickerodt P, Kurth F, de Jarcy LB, Uhrig A, Garcia C, Machleidt F, Pergantis P, Weber S, Li Y, Breitbart A, Bremer F, Knape P, Dewey M, Doellinger F, Weber-Carstens S, Slutsky AS, Kuebler WM, Suttorp N, Müller-Redetzky H. Evaluation of PEEP and prone positioning in early COVID-19 ARDS. EClinicalMedicine. 2020;28:100579. doi: 10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100579.

69. Kim EJ, Ha KH, Kim DJ, Choi YH. Diabetes and the Risk of Infection: A National Cohort Study. Diabetes Metab J. 2019;43(6):804-814. doi: 10.4093/dmj.2019.0071.

70. COVIDSurg Collaborative; GlobalSurg Collaborative. SARS-CoV-2 infection and venous thromboembolism after surgery: an international prospective cohort study. Anaesthesia. 2021. doi: 10.1111/anae.15563. Epub ahead of print.

71. COVIDSurg Collaborative; GlobalSurg Collaborative. Effects of pre-operative isolation on postoperative pulmonary complications after elective surgery: an international prospective cohort study. Anaesthesia. 2021. doi: 10.1111/anae.15560. Epub ahead of print.

72. COVIDSurg Collaborative; GlobalSurg Collaborative. Timing of surgery following SARS-CoV-2 infection: an international prospective cohort study. Anaesthesia. 2021;76(6):748-758. doi: 10.1111/anae.15458.

73. COVIDSurg Collaborative, GlobalSurg Collaborative. SARS-CoV-2 vaccination modelling for safe surgery to save lives: data from an international prospective cohort study. Br J Surg. 2021;108(9):1056-1063. doi: 10.1093/bjs/znab101.

Patients' characteristics		Patients – N/1,443 (%)
Age (years)		56.71 <u>+</u> 17.55; 59 (46-79)
Age group		
	Adult (18 to 64 y.o.)	914 (63.3)
	Elderly (>65 y.o.)	529 (36.7)
Sex		
	Female	542 (37.6)
	Male	901 (62.4)
		25.92 <u>+</u> 5.36; 25.60 (22.6-28.8)
Body Mass Index (Kg/m ²)		
	Underweight	55 (3.8)
	Normal weight	423 (29.3)
	Overweight	372 (25.8)
	Obesity grade I	139 (9.6)
	Obesity grade II	27 (1.9)
	Obesity grade III	19 (1.3)
	Not informed	408 (28,3)
Origin		
	Surgery	923 (64.0)
	Clinic	520 (36.0)
Previous history of comorbidities		
	Diabetes mellitus	325 (22.5)
	Hypertension	653 (45.3)
	Smoking	388 (26.9)
	Alcoholism	221 (15.3)
	Other drugs	49 (3.4)
	Dyslipidemia	108 (7.5)
	Pneumopathy	131 (9.1)
	Cardiopathy	310 (21.5)
	Neoplasia	70 (4.9)
	Thyroidopathy	70 (4.9)

TABLE 1. Characteristics of the patients in the intensive care unit during the study period (2016-2019)

Kidney disorder	60 (4.2)
Hepatopathy	18 (1.2)
Neurological sequel	171 (11.9)
Immunodepression	25 (1.7)
Gastrointestinal disorder	16 (1.1)
Other personal background	45 (3.1)
Diagnostic	
Traumatic brain injury	197 (13.7)
Polytrauma	210 (14.6)
Sepsis	375 (26.0)
Elective surgery	616 (42.7)
Acute myocardial infarction	89 (6.2)
Stroke	121 (8.4)
Subarachnoid hemorrhage	104 (7.2)
Neoplasia	23 (1.6)
Neurologic and Psychiatry disorders	69 (4.8)
Cardiopathy	222 (15.4)
Nephropathy	31 (2.1)
Other	49 (3.4)
Days of hypoxia	2.57 <u>+</u> 2.09; 2 (1-3)
Normal days	2.74 <u>+</u> 2.0; 2 (1-4)
Days of hyperoxia	5.23 <u>+</u> 4.32; 4 (2-8)
Pneumonia associated with invasive mechanical	
ventilation	410 (28.4)
Day of hospitalization on which pneumonia was	
diagnosed	
Tracheostomy	332 (23.0)
Deaths	570 (39.5)

TABLE 2. Multivariate binary logistic regression analysis to predict death of adult and old patients admitted in an intensive care treatment unit.

Predictors	В	E.P. W	Wald	df	Sia	E-m(D)	95%CI		
	D		E.F. Walu	ui	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower limit	Upper limit	
Age (elderly)	0.800	0.129	38.329	1	< 0.001	2.226	1.728	2.867	
Sex (Male)	-0.283	0.123	5.307	1	0.021	0.754	0.593	0.959	
Sepsis (Positive)	0.673	0.143	22.136	1	< 0.001	1.961	1.481	2.595	
Elective surgery (Presence)	-0.757	0.132	32.774	1	< 0.001	0.469	0.362	0.608	
Cerebrovascular accident (Positive)	0.834	0.218	14.615	1	< 0.001	2.304	1.502	3.534	
Hospital stay (days)	-0.056	0.006	99.131	1	< 0.001	0.946	0.935	0.956	
PaO ₂ (normal)			14.712	2	0.001				
PaO ₂ (Hyperoxemia)	-0.273	0.157	3.016	1	0.082	0.761	0.560	1.036	
PaO ₂ (Hypoxemia)	0.492	0.239	4.245	1	0.039	1.635	1.024	2.611	
PEEP (>8 cmH ₂ O)	0.767	0.210	13.320	1	< 0.001	2.153	1.426	3.250	
Constant	0.525	0.200	6.853	1	0.009	1.690			

Variables not inserted in the equation using the forward stepwise method: patient's origin (surgery or clinic); traumatic brain injury; polytrauma; cerebrovascular accident; presence of pneumonia; need for tracheostomy; diabetes mellitus, systemic arterial hypertension, and alcoholism. B, regression coefficient estimated for the predictor; EP, regression coefficient standard error; df, degrees of freedom; Exp(B), predictor odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; PEEP, positive end-expiratory pressure; PaO₂, oxygen arterial pressure.

List of figures

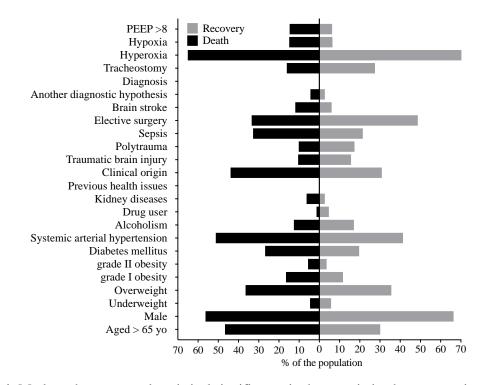


FIGURE 1. Markers that presented statistical significance in the association between patients that died and those that were discharged from hospital. This figure shows the percentage of individuals that presented a marker according to the outcome, as well as the relative risk, whose reference was the percentage of individuals in the group that were discharged from the hospital against the group of patients that died. RR, relative risk; 95%CI, 95% confidence interval. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Fisher Exact test or the Chi-square test and 0.05 alpha.

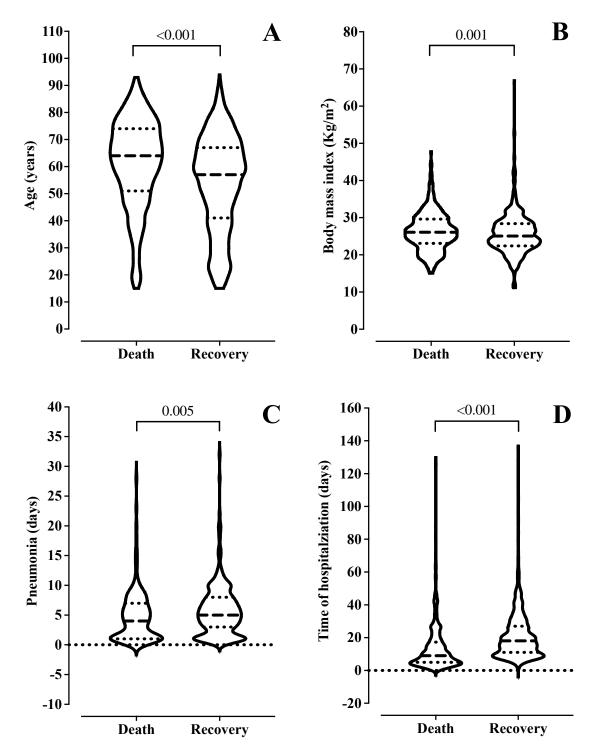


FIGURE 2. Association between clinical outcome and age (**Figure A**), body mass index (**Figure B**), pneumonia associated with mechanical ventilation (**Figure C**), and hospital stay (**Figure D**). The statistical analysis was carried out using the Mann-Whitney Test and a 0.05 alpha.

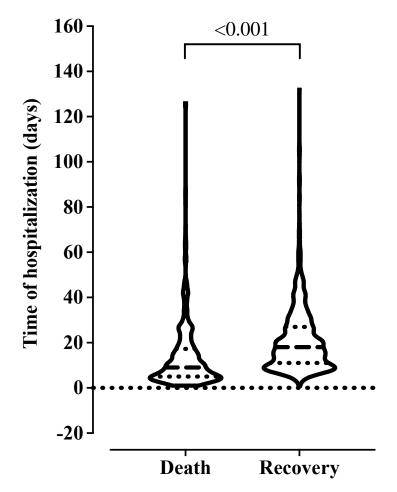


FIGURE 3. Association between the risk of developing pneumonia associated with mechanical ventilation according to the mechanical ventilation time. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Mann-Whitney test and a 0.05 alpha.

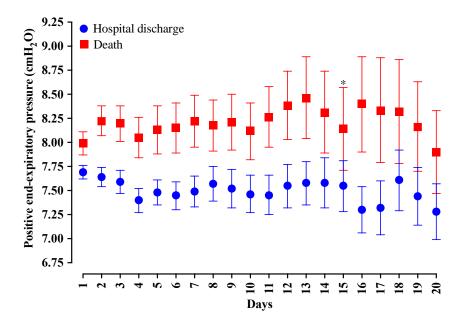


FIGURE 4. Distribution of the positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) values according to the days of mechanical ventilation. In blue, individuals that were discharged. In red, individuals that died. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Mann-Whitney test and a 0.05 alpha. *, P-value>0.05.

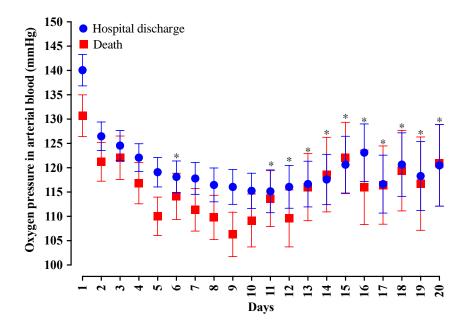


FIGURE 5. Distribution of the oxygen arterial pressure (PaO₂) values according to the days of mechanical ventilation. In blue, individuals that were discharged. In red, individuals that died. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Mann-Whitney test and a 0.05 alpha. *, P-value>0.05.

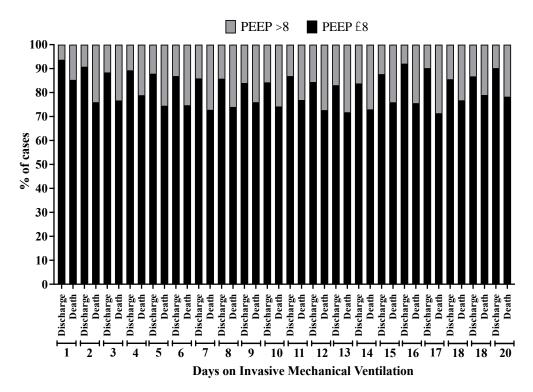


FIGURE 6. Percentage of patients according to the clinical outcome distributed by the positive endexpiratory pressure (PEEP) value ($\leq 8 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$ or >8 cmH₂O) and according to the time of invasive mechanical ventilation (days 1 to 20).

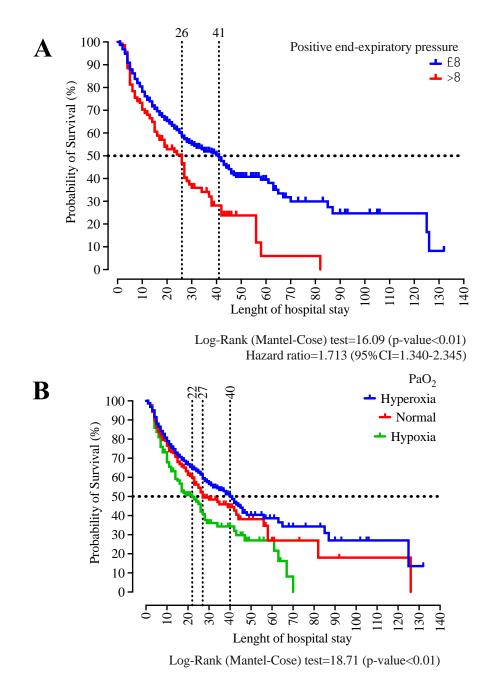


FIGURE 7. Survival curve of patients that were intubated at the university hospital according to the positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) and according to the oxygen arterial pressure (PaO₂) classification as normal, hypoxemia and hyperoxemia. The statistical analysis was carried out using the Log-Rank (Mantel-Cose) test. The Hazard ratio was calculated using the PEEP $\leq 8 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$ as the numerator parameter and a 0.05 alpha.

Characteristics	Patient - N
Miscarriage	1
Amputation	2
Anemia	5
Sickle cell anemia	1
Obstructive sleep apnea	3
Sleep apnea	1
Arthrosis	5
Arthrosis and anemia	1
Transient ischemic attack	1
Hearing deficiency	1
Malnutrition	3
Malnutrition and anemia	1
Sacral scab	1
Fibromyalgia	1
Glaucoma	3
Ectopic pregnancy	1
Leprosy	1
Hernia	1
Hysterectomy	1
Prostatectomy	1
Puerperal	1
Down syndrome	1
Deafness	1
Tracheostomy	1
Traumatic brain injury	1
Thrombocytosis	1
Pulmonary thromboembolism	1
Deep vein thrombosis	3

Supplementary Material – Table 1. Previous history of comorbidities of the patients in the intensive care unit during the study period (2016-2019).

Supplementary Material – Table 2	• Diagnosis of the patients in the

intensive care unit during the study period

Diagnosis	Patient - N
Abscess	1
Miscarriage	1
Drowning	1
Asthma	1
Colostomy	1
Diabetes Insipidus	1
Multiple organ disfunction	1
Diverticulitis	1
Neuromuscular disease	3
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	2
Chest drainage	3
Pulmonary emphysema	1
Wegner's granulomatosis	1
High digestive bleeding	1
Lower gastrointestinal bleeding	1
HIV	1
Urinary infection	3
Intoxication	1
Cardiorespiratory arrest	2
Pneumocystosis	1
Pneumothorax	1
Lowered level of consciousness	1
Motor sequelae	2
Systemic inflammatory response syndrome	1
SARS and Multiple organ disfunction	1
Pulmonary thromboembolism	3
thrombophilia	1
Not informed	11

TABLE 3. Association between demographic markers and personal background of patients admitted in the intensive care unit as death risk factor.

Patient's	Groups	Deaths - N	Discharges -	Total - N	n-value	RR	95%CI
characteristics	Groups	(%)	N (%)	10tai - 11	p-value	KK	93 /0CI
Age group	Adult	304 (53.3)	610 (69.9)	914	0.001	Reference	-
	Elderly	266 (46.7)	263 (30.1)	529		1.512	1.334-1.713
Gender	Female	249 (43.7)	293 (33.6)	542	0.001	Reference	-
	Male	321 (56.3)	580 (66.4)	901		0.776	0.683-0.880
Body mass index	Underweight	18 (4.6)	37 (5.8)	55	0.046	0.955	0.639-1.426
	Normal weight	145 (36.8)	278 (43.4)	423		Reference	-
	Overweight	144 (36.5)	228 (35.6)	372		1.129	0.940-1.357
	Obesity grade I	65 (16.5)	74 (11.5)	139		1.354	1.085-1.690
	Obesity grade II and III	22 (5.6)	24 (3.7)	46		1.426	1.02-1.977
Personal background							
Diabetes mellitus	Absent	417 (73.2)	701 (80.3)	1.118	0.002	Reference	-
	Present	153 (26.8)	172 (19.7)	325		1.262	1.099-1.449
Hypertension	Absent	278 (48.8)	512 (58.6)	790	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	292 (51.2)	361 (41.4)	653		1.271	1.119-1.443
Smoking	Absent	426 (74.7)	629 (72.1)	1,055	0.275	Reference	-
	Present	144 (25.3)	244 (27.9)	388		0.919	0.792-1.067
Alcoholism*	Absent	498 (87.4)	724 (82.9)	1,222	0.025	Reference	-
	Present	72 (12,6)	149 (17,1)	221		0.799	0.654-0.978
Other drugs*	Absent	562 (98.6)	832 (95.3)	1,394	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	8 (1,4)	41 (4.7)	49		0.405	0.214-0.766

Dyslipidemia	Absent	529 (92.8)	806 (92.3)	1,335	0.760	Reference	-
	Present	41 (7.2)	67 (7.7)	108		0.958	0.746-1.230
Pneumopathy	Absent	508 (89.1)	804 (92.1)	1,312	0.061	Reference	-
	Present	62 (10.9)	69 (7.9)	131		1.222	1.008-1.483
Cardiopathy	Absent	434 (76.1)	699 (80.1)	1,133	0.077	Reference	-
	Present	136 (23,9)	174 (19.9)	310		1.145	0.990-1.325
Neoplasia	Absent	537 (94.2)	836 (95.8)	1,373	0.210	Reference	-
	Present	33 (5.8)	37 (4.2)	70		1.205	0.933-1.558
Thyreopathy	Absent	535 (93.9)	838 (96,0)	1,373	0.079	Reference	-
	Present	35 (6.1)	35 (4,0)	70		1.283	1.006-1.637
Kidney disease	Absent	534 (93.7)	849 (97.3)	1,383	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	36 (6,3)	24 (2.7)	60		1.554	1.251-1.931
Hepatopathy	Absent	561 (98.4)	864 (99.0)	1,425	0.467	Reference	-
	Present	9 (1.6)	9 (1.0)	18		1.270	0.797-2.025
Neurologic Sequel	Absent	511 (89.6)	761 (87.2)	1,272	0.158	Reference	-
	Present	59 (10.4)	112 (12.8)	171		0.859	0.691-1.067
Immunosupression	Absent	557 (97.7)	861 (98.6)	1,418	0.219	Reference	-
	Present	13 (2.3)	12 (1.4)	25		1.324	0.903-1.940
Gastrointestinal	Absent	565 (99.1)	862 (98.7)	1,427	0.612	Reference	-
disorder	Present	5 (0.9)	11 (1.3)	16		0.789	0.381-1.697
Other	Absent	553 (97.0)	845 (96.8)	1,398	0.878	Reference	-
	Present	17 (3.0)	28 (3.2)	45		0.955	0.653-1.397

Patient's age was associated with the presence of drug use [p-value<0.001; (Yes) 35.12±11.42, 34 (26.5 to 40); (No) 57.47±17.24; 60 (47 to 70)] and alcoholism [p-value=0.013; (Yes) 55.43±13.37, 57 (47 to 64); (No) 56.95±18.20; 60 (45 to 70)], and individuals who presented drug use and alcoholism were younger. N, number of individuals; RR, relative risk; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

Patient's characteristics	Group	Death – N (%)	Discharge – N (%)	Total – N	p-value	RR	95%CI
Origin	Surgery	320 (56.1)	603 (69.1)	923	0.001	Reference	-
	Clinic	250 (43.9)	270 (30.9)	520		1.387	1.223-1.573
Diagnosis							
Traumatic brain injury	Absent	510 (89.5)	736 (84.3)	1,246	0.006	Reference	-
	Present	60 (10.5)	137 (15.7)	197		0.744	0.596-0.928
Polytrauma	Absent	512 (89.8)	721 (82.6)	1,233	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	58 (10.2)	152 (717.4)	210		0.665	0.290-0.836
Sepsis	Absent	383 (67.2)	685 (78.5)	1,068	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	187 (32.8)	188 (21.5)	375		1.391	1.222-1.583
Elective Surgery	Absent	379 (66.5)	448 (51.3)	827	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	191 (33.5)	425 (48.7)	616		0.677	0.589-0.778
Acute Myocardial Infarction	Absent	527 (92.5)	827 (94.7)	1,354	0.093	Reference	-
	Present	43 (7.5)	46 (5.3)	89		1.241	0.991-1.555
Stroke	Absent	502 (88.1)	820 (93.9)	1,322	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	68 (11.9)	53 (6.1)	121		1.480	1.246-1.757
Subarachnoid hemorrhage	Absent	520 (91.2)	819 (93.8)	1,339	0.076	Reference	-
	Present	50 (8.8)	54 (6.2)	104		1.238	1.003-1.528
Neoplasia	Absent	562 (98.6)	858 (98.3)	1,420	0.675	Reference	-
	Present	8 (1.4)	15 (1.7)	23		0.879	0.500-1.544
	Absent	550 (96.5)	824 (94.4)	1,374	0.077	Reference	-
Neurologic and psychiatric disease	Present	20 (3.5)	49 (5.6)	69		0.724	0.498-1.053

TABLE 3. Association between patient's origin, diagnosis indicating intubation, presence of pneumonia associated with invasive mechanical ventilation, need for tracheostomy and intubation markers of patients admitted in the intensive care unit as death risk factor.

Cardiopathy	Absent	471 (82.6)	750 (85.9)	1,221	0.101	Reference	-
	Present	99 (17.4)	123 (14.1)	222		1.156	0.982-1.730
Kidney disorder	Absent	552 (96.8)	860 (98.5)	1,412	0.040	Reference	-
	Present	18 (3.2)	13 (1.5)	31		1.485	1.094-2.017
Other	Absent	545 (95.6)	849 (97.3)	1,394	0.103	Reference	-
	Present	25 (4.4)	24 (2.7)	49		1.305	0.984-1.730
Pneumonia associated with	Absent	412 (72.3)	621 (71.1)	1,033	0.676	Reference	-
invasive mechanical ventilation	Present	158 (27.7)	252 (28.9)	410		0.966	0.837-1.115
Tracheostomy	Absent	478 (83.9)	633 (72.5)	1,111	0.001	Reference	-
	Present	92 (16.1)	240 (27.53)	332		0.644	0.535-0.776
	Hypoxia	85 (14.9)	57 (6.5)	142	< 0.001	1.365	1.126-1.655
	Normal	114 (20)	146 (16.7)	260		Reference	-
Oxygen blood pressure (PaO ₂)	Hyperoxia	371 (65.1)	670 (76.7)	1,041		0.813	0.693-0.954
Positive end-expiratory pressure	≤ 8	486 (85.3)	818 (93.7)	1,304	< 0.001	Reference	-
	>8	84 (14.7)	55 (6.3)	139		1.621	1.393-1.887

The patients' age was associated with the presence of traumatic brain injury [p-value<0.001; (Yes) 40.87±17.06, 38 (25 to 36); (No) 59.22±16.28; 61 (50 to 71)] and polytrauma [p-value<0.01; (Yes) 38.73±16.62, 34 (24.75 to 51); (No) 59.78±15.78; 61 (51 to 71)], and individuals who presented drug use and alcoholism were younger. N, number of individuals; RR, relative risk; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

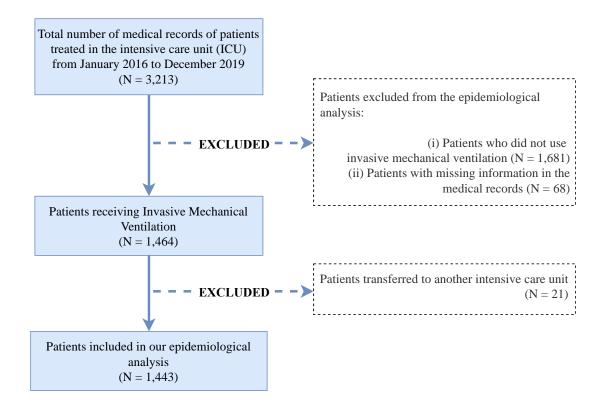


FIGURE 1. Flowchart of medical record analysis and inclusion of intubated patients in the intensive care unit of a university hospital in São Paulo State, Brazil.

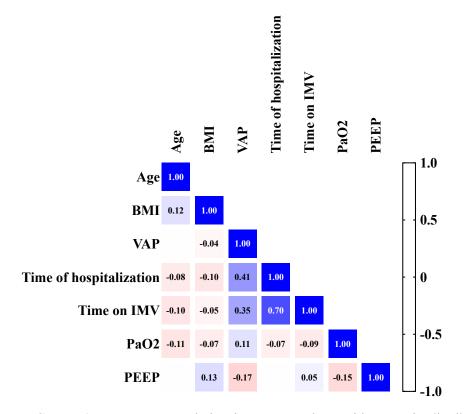


FIGURE 2. Pearson's correlation between markers with numeric distribution [positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) at admission, oxygen arterial pressure (PaO₂) at admission, time receiving invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV), hospitalization (hospital stay) time, time up to the diagnosis of ventilation-associated pneumonia (VAP), body mass index (BMI), and age] included in the study. 0.05 alpha.

Capítulo III: Artigo submetido

Article type: Short Communication

Title: Impact of Positive End-expiratory Pressure on Hemodynamics, Gas exchange and Driving Pressure of Patients under Invasive Mechanical Ventilation Without Previous Lung Disease: An Intervention Study

Short title: PEEP and Intubation

Camila Vantini Capasso Palamim^{1,2}; Camila Domingues Pereira³; Fernando Augusto Lima Marson^{1,2,*}

¹ Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds, University of São Francisco, Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218, Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brazil

² Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics, University of São Francisco, Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218, Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brazil

³Multiprofessional Internship Program in Adult Intensive Healthcare, University of São Francisco, Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218, Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brazil

* Corresponding author: [FALM] Fernando Augusto Lima Marson, BSc, MSc, PhD.

University of São Francisco; Postgraduate Program in Health Science; Laboratory of Cellular and Molecular Biology and Bioactive Compounds and Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics. Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218. Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista CEP: 12916-900, São Paulo, Brasil. Phone +55 19 9769 2712. E-mail: fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com and fernando.marson@usf.edu.br

E-mail:

CVCP: cvcpalamim@gmail.com

CDP: camiladomingues97@hotmail.com

FALM: fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com and fernando.marson@usf.edu.br

ORCID:

CVCP: 0000-0001-6825-1154

CDP: 0000-0002-8656-6982

FALM: 0000-0003-4955-4234

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate: The study was approved by the ethics committee from the institution (CAAE: 29718820.9.0000.5514; Technical Opinion: #3.939.784).

Consent for publication: None.

Availability of data and materials: None.

Competing interests: None.

Funding: None.

Authors' contributions: All authors approved the manuscript and agreed with its submission to the journal. Also, all authors wrote and revised the manuscript.

Acknowledgements: None.

Abstract

Introduction: Positive End-expiratory Pressure (PEEP) is used to optimize gas exchange and improve oxygenation. However, in patients that do not present lung diseases the real impact of this factor on their hemodynamics, gas exchange, and driving pressure is still unknown. Thus, this study aimed to evaluate the impact of three different levels of PEEP on these markers in individuals without previous lung disease.

Methods: A prospective and interventional study was carried out in patients without previous lung disease under mechanical ventilation. The ventilation provided to the patients presented a current volume of 6-8 mL/Kg predicted body weight, and a fixed oxygen inspired fraction for the oxygen arterial saturation (SaO₂) with a >90% target. The patients were subjected to three PEEP levels (6, 8, and 10 cmH₂O) for 30 min each. The items evaluated were: arterial oxygen partial pressure (PaO₂), carbon dioxide arterial pressure (PaCO₂), a SaO₂, oxygenation index, systolic, diastolic, and mean arterial pressure, driving pressure, and static complacency. The statistical analysis was carried out using the generalized linear model, with a 0.05 alpha.

Results: The data of 150 patients was analyzed, and out of those, 80 (53.3%) died. Highest prevalence was seen in male patients, 97 (64.7%) after surgery 98 (65.3%), and the most frequent cause of hospitalization was polytrauma, (37; 24.7%). When evaluating the markers associated with hemodynamics, gas exchange, and driving pressure, no statistically significant response was observed regarding the PEEP modulation between its different levels. However, in absolute terms, increase PEEP correlated with systolic arterial pressure reduction in both groups (from 129 to 125 mmHg in the hospital discharge group, and from 129 to 127 mmHg in the death group) (P-value=0.675), the diastolic arterial pressure was not altered in any of the groups (keeping a 63 mmHg mean value), while the mean arterial pressure decreased from 85 to 83 mmHg in the hospital discharge group presented a reduction (from 120 to 115 mmHg), while the death group showed a slight increase (from 122 to 124 mmHg) (P-value=0.359). Increased PEEP did not impact PaCO₂ or SaO₂ in any of the groups. Likewise, driving pressure was not altered with the PEEP increase and, consequently, the static complacency remained unchanged.

Conclusion: Increased PEEP in individuals without previous lung disease and under mechanical ventilation was not associated with alterations in the hemodynamics, gas exchange or driving pressure.

Keywords: positive end-expiratory pressure; hemodynamics; gas exchange; driving pressure; oxygenation index; mechanical ventilation.

Introduction

One of the challenges in the clinical practice for the mechanical ventilation (MV) management team is to understand the interaction between what is delivered by the mechanical ventilator to the lung parenchyma and how the parenchyma accepts and receives such parameters, and such interactions depend mainly on two factors: (i) values offered by the operator such as current volume, pressures (inspiratory and expiratory), and respiratory flow and frequency; (ii) lung parenchyma conditions that might reduce its gas exchange capacity such as increase in its heterogeneity, increasing collapse and alveolar hyperdistention areas (1). The use of protective parameters such as current volume limitation (6 mL/Kg predicted body weight) and plateau pressure (up to 30 cmH₂O) in MV help to reduce the risk of lesions resulting from intubation (2). However, the literature still lacks a coherent interpretation of how these parameters must be set in the ventilator so that greater functional gain is achieved by the patients with lower number of injuries.

Among the ventilatory parameters, positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) is the pressure that remains in the alveolus at the end of the expiration and its application might increase oxygenation according to the Fick Law principle. Since an increase in the PEEP might promote increase in the gas exchange area and reduction in the capillary alveolus membrane thickness, it might facilitate gas diffusion, and, therefore, increase the arterial oxygen partial pressure (PaO₂), and the oxygen arterial saturation (SaO₂) (3,4). In routine care, the PEEP use enables a better recruitment of unstable alveoli and improves gas exchange and tissular oxygenation, and at the same time, reduces and redistributes heterogeneous mechanical stresses of the current ventilation (5,6).

However, PEEP might optimize or worsen the performance of lung functions, and this dichotomy results in the search of a reliable marker for the choice of an ideal PEEP value. In such context, the respiratory system complacency has been considered a good marker to be used during hospital treatment (7). Complacency is the parameter that evaluates the respiratory system elasticity through the understanding of the lung tissue expansion capacity and, during MV, the static complacency measured by the application of an inspiratory pause is estimated from the ratio between the alveolar current volume and the driving pressure (plateau pressure – PEEP) [Cst=VC/DP] (8). Therefore, in the presence of PEEP that minimizes the driving pressure, the

complacency optimization is possible. However, when values above the necessary ones are applied, PEEP might have negative effects such as reduction in the cardiac debt and right ventricle performance, resulting in worsened gas exchange effectiveness, which might provoke a PaO_2 decrease (9). Currently, driving pressure, which can be modulated by the PEEP, has been reported as a mortality risk marker, and although a consensus has not been reached, the suggestion is to keep the driving pressure value up to 15 cmH₂O in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome (10,11).

Due to the PEEP importance in the clinical practice, this study aims to evaluate the impact of three different levels of this marker on the hemodynamics, gas exchange, and driving pressure of individuals without previous lung disease admitted for treatment in a university hospital.

Methods

The study evaluated a population of participants admitted to the adult intensive care unit of the São Francisco de Assis na Providência de Deus University Hospital, in Bragança Paulista, state of São Paulo, Brazil that were subjected to invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV). Only patients that did not present previous lung disease were included (after analysis by a multiprofessional team). They could be male or female, clinical or surgical, and had to be over 18 years old. The data collected included: sex, age, diagnosis, hospitalization time, and time in the invasive mechanical ventilation, personal background, height (in cm), body mass index (BMI, Kg/m²), clinical outcome (hospital discharge or death), and type of ventilatory support.

This intervention, clinical, non-randomized or controlled study was carried out aiming to evaluate the impact of different PEEP levels (6, 8, and 10 cmH₂O) in the same patient under IMV on PaO₂, carbon dioxide arterial pressure (PaCO₂), SaO₂, oxygenation index (PaO₂/FiO₂), systolic, diastolic and mean arterial pressure, driving pressure, and Cst. The evaluation of PaO₂, PaCO₂, and SaO₂ was carried out using arterial blood gas test collected through peripheral arterial access performed by the nurse in the health unit after request by the medical doctor. The study included patients without previous lung disease history and for this reason, the PEEP levels employed did not exceed 10 cmH₂O.

The study excluded patients that presented hemodynamic instability, pneumothorax, or undrained pleural effusion, and the absence of peripheral arterial access. If any hemodynamic instability was noticed during collection, it was interrupted.

The values of different markers were collected at the three different PEEP levels in the first twenty-four hours of admission to the ICU, after the participant had remained for 30 minutes in each level and with a fixed FiO₂ (titrated for SpO₂ >90% and unchanged during collection), current volume of 6-8 mL/Kg predicted body weight (with estimated height supplied by the sector nutritionist), plateau pressure below 30 cmH₂O, and respiratory frequency for pH above 7.20.

The statistical analysis was aided by the software IBM SPSS Statistics for Macintosh, Version 27.0. The descriptive analysis presents data by mean and standard deviation or by relative and absolute frequency. The inference analysis was carried out employing the generalized linear model containing the different PEEP levels as factors among the patients, and the markers PaO₂, PaCO₂, SaO₂, oxygenation index, systolic, diastolic, and mean arterial pressure, driving pressure, and Cst as dependent data. In the model, the outcome (death or hospital discharge) was conditioned as an analysis factor among individuals. The covariables included were: patients' sex, age, and BMI. A 0.05 alpha was considered as significant in all analyses carried out.

Results

A hundred and fifty patients were included in the study and out of those, 97 (64.7%) were men, and (65.3%) from surgical origin. The main causes of hospitalization were polytrauma (37; 24.7%), traumatic brain injury (30; 20%), sepsis (23; 15,3%), and need for elective surgery (41; 27,3%). Among the patients, 47 (31,1%) developed pneumonia associated with ventilation, and 59 (39.3%) evolved into the need for tracheostomy (**Table 1**).

The most frequent personal background was systemic arterial hypertension (52; 34.7%), followed by diabetes mellitus (32; 21.3%), smoking and cardiopathy (27; 18% each), and drinking habits (25; 16.7%). The most used type of ventilation was the control volume assist ventilation (138; 92%). Eighty patients (53.3%) died (**Table 1**).

Markers	Data	N (%) 53 (35.3%)	
Sex	Female		
	Male	97 (64.7%)	
Cause of hospitalization			
	Traumatic brain injuty	30 (20%)	
	Polytrauma	37 (24.7%)	
	Sepsis	23 (15.3%)	
	Elective surgery	41 (27.3%)	
	Acute myocardial infarction	2 (1.3%)	
	Cerebrovascular accident	15 (10%)	
	Subarachnoid hemorrhage	14 (9.3%)	
	Diabetes types 1 and 2	3 (2.0%)	
	Obesity	6 (4.0%)	
	Neurological and psychiatric disorder	17 (11.3%)	
	Cardiopathy	16 (10.7%)	
	Motor Sequelae	1 (0.7%)	
Patients' origin	Surgical	98 (65.3%)	
	Clinical	52 (34.7%)	
Pneumonia associated with the	Present	47 (31.1%)	
ventilator			
	Absent	103 (68.7%)	
Need for tracheostomy	Yes	59 (39.3%)	
	No	91 (60.7%)	
Outcome	Hospital discharge	70 (46.7%)	
	Death	80 (53.3%)	
Comorbidities			
	Diabetes mellitus	32 (21.3%)	
	Systemic arterial hypertension	52 (34.7%)	
	Smoking	27 (18.0%)	
	Drinking	25 (16.7%)	
	Drug addiction	13 (8.7%)	
	Dyslipidemia	9 (6.0%)	

	Pneumopathy	2 (1.3%)		
	Cardiopathy	27 (18.0%)		
	Neurological sequelae	5 (3.3%)		
	Others	43 (35.3%)		
Types of ventilation	Pressure control ventilation	12 (8.0%)		
	Volume control ventilation	138 (92.0%)		

The association between PEEP and the markers evaluated in the study, namely, PaO₂, PaCO₂, SaO₂, oxygenation index, systolic, diastolic and mean arterial pressure, driving pressure, and Cst according to the clinical outcome (hospital discharge and death) is presented (**Table 2**). When evaluating the markers associated with hemodynamics, gas exchange, and driving pressure, no statistically significant response was observed in relation to the PEEP modulation at its different levels.

TABLE 2. GLM analysis to determine the interaction factor between PEEP levels and death of patients intubated at the University	
Hospital that were included in the study.	

Marker	Outcome	PEEP 6	PEEP 8	PEEP 10	F	P-value
Systolic arterial pressure	Hospital discharge	129.24±24.85	127.77±23.93	125.40±20.53	0.336	0.675
	Death	129.25±28.27	130.09±29.60	127.33±29.18		
Diastolic arterial pressure	Hospital discharge	64.13±12.70	64.73±12.02	63.94±11.13	1.036	0.355
	Death	63.19±11.81	66.29±14.96	63.81±12.23		
Mean arterial pressure	Hospital discharge	85.49±13.82	84.69±12.97	83.51±11.48	0.710	0.484
	Death	85.30±15.18	86.88±16.97	84.89±16.78		
SaO ₂	Hospital discharge	97.84±2.29	97.84±2.06	97.87±1.86	0.062	0.935
	Death	97.74±2.30	97.63±2.51	97.70±2.50		
PaO ₂	Hospital discharge	120.40±32.30	116.61±28.59	115.76±29.70	0.990	0.359
	Death	122.26±40.80	121.03±39.00	124.60±43.94		
PaCO ₂	Hospital discharge	41.43±6.72	41.69±6.11	42.86±6.01	0.883	0.411
	Death	41.79±7.04	42.04±7.35	42.26±6.84		
Oxygenation index	Hospital discharge	386.97±143.60	374.49±125.39	370.20±124.94	0.529	0.555
	Death	361.08±137.48	356.52±129.71	360.95±132.09		
Driving pressure	Hospital discharge	9.81±2.80	9.69±3.06	9.86±3.06	0.501	0.595
	Death	10.41±3.50	10.06±3.16	10.11±3.58		
Static complacency	Hospital discharge	47.51±16.53	48.64±18.00	49.25±21.71	0.209	0.781
	Death	46.18±18.83	47.99±21.99	49.39±25.09		

PaO₂, O₂ arterial pressure; PaCo₂, carbon dioxide arterial pressure; SaO₂, O₂ arterial saturation.

Factors among individuals, and different PEEP levels, and dependent data such as ventilatory markers (PaO₂, PaCO₂, SpO₂, oxygenation index, systolic, diastolic, and mean arterial pressure, driving pressure, static complacency, and oxygenation index).

In this model, the outcome (death or hospital discharge) was conditioned as a factor of analysis between the individuals. Data such as sex, age, and the patients' BMI was included as covariables. A 0.05 alpha was considered as significant in all analysis carried out.

As for the hemodynamic markers in the population that evolved into hospital discharge, in absolute terms, the systolic arterial pressure decreased according to the increased PEEP and ranged from 129 mmHg at the 6 cmH₂O PEEP to 125 mmHg at the 10 cmH₂O PEEP (P-value=0.675). The diastolic arterial pressure, in turn, kept the average 64 mmHg at the three PEEP levels (P-value=0.355). However, the mean arterial pressure decreased 1 (um) mmHg at each PEEP level, ranging between 85 and 83 mmHg (P-value=0.484). The patients that died also showed a decrease in the systolic arterial pressure from 129 mmHg at the 6 cmH₂O PEEP to 127 mmHg at the 10 cmH₂O PEEP (P-value=0.675), while the diastolic arterial pressure kept an average of 63 mmHg (P-value=0.355), and the mean arterial pressure decreased from 85 mmHg at the 6 cmH₂O PEEP to 84 mmHg at the 10 cmH₂O PEEP (P-value=0.484).

When analyzing the arterial blood gas test markers, PaO₂ showed decreased values when the PEEP was increased in the population that evolved into hospital discharge (from 120 mmHg at the 6 mmHg PEEP to 115 mmHg at the 10 mmHg PEEP), while in the group that evolved into death, an increase was observed in the PaO₂ from 122 mmHg at the 6 cmH₂O mmHg to 124 mmHg at the 10 cmH₂O mmHg. However, no statistical significance was observed in any of the cases (P-value=0.359). As for the PaCO₂, the same value was kept at the PEEP three levels in both groups (death and hospital discharge) (41 mmHg; P-value=0.411), while SaO₂ presented a 97% value at the PEEP three levels (P-value=0.935).

Regarding the oxygenation index, it was seen to decrease as PEEP increased (from 386 at the 6 cmH₂O PEEP to 370 at the 10 cmH₂O PEEP, in the hospital discharge group, and 361 at the 6 cmH₂O PEEP to 360 at the 10 cmH₂O PEEP in the death group; P-value=0.555). Driving pressure was not altered at any of the PEEP three levels, remaining at 9 cmH₂O in the hospital discharge population, and at 10 cmH₂O in the death population (P-value=0.595) and, since the current volume was kept during the intervention, the Cst also remained unchanged at the three PEEP levels, with a 48 mL/cmH₂O mean value, observed in both groups (hospital discharge and death) (P-value=0.781).

Discussion

The data of 150 participants was analyzed and showed the prevalence of male patients, referred to the ICU after surgery, and whose hospitalization cause was polytrauma. This data

confirms the profile of the collections center, that is a referral hospital for trauma in its region. As for the PEEP, its use is recommended to avoid the effects of orotracheal intubations, which might result in loss of lung volume and functional residual capacity. (12). In such context, the use of 8 cmH₂O PEEP as preventive care in the clinical practice is common. However, this value is still challenged by some authors that have reported the use of a lower PEEP level ($5 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$) in patients that require orotracheal intubation for causes not related with pneumopathies, which is suggested to be safe and preventive regarding ventilation induced lesions (12,13,14). Curiously, among the markers evaluated in the study, none was responsive to the PEEP value changes, and the outcome resulting from the application of different PEEP levels was the same for the hemodynamics, gas exchange and driving pressure markers.

Despite the absence of statistical significance, when analyzing PEEP impact on the hemodynamics, we could observe a decrease, in absolute terms, in the systolic and mean arterial pressure. The pressures generated by the application of positive pressures, both inspiratory and expiratory during IVM have direct results in the right and left ventricular functions, and might present hemodynamic consequences such as arterial pressure decrease and cardiac rate alterations (15). Lung exposure to the positive pressure imposed by the mechanical ventilation use generates lung volume changes, which provoke significant alterations in the resistance and pulmonary vascular capacitance. Sharp volume variations might provoke heart compression in the mediastinum, and consequently, relevant hemodynamic alterations associated with the patients' worsened clinical outcome (16). Reduction in the arterial pressure is observed in the clinical practice upon sharp PEEP variations. In our study, the PEEP levels applied during the intervention were low and close one to another. This might be one of the reasons why it was not possible to observe statistical difference in the arterial pressure alteration.

When PaO_2 was analyzed, the study showed a lower value of this marker at the lowest PEEP level used during the intervention. However, no statistical significance was observed, which is not in accordance with the clinical practice, where it is common to increase the PEEP value with the purpose of raising the PaO_2 and, consequently, improving the oxygenation index. Such practice (PEEP increase to reach higher PaO_2 values) is mostly used in patients with a diagnosis of acute respiratory distress syndrome that have proved evidence (17,18,19). For this reason, following the same reasoning, critical patient care teams tend to keep this intervention. Thus, the literature provides better support for the interpretation of the PEEP association with PAO₂ in the presence of acute respiratory distress syndrome (11,20,21). However, little information is found in the literature in relation to studies with patients that do not present pneumopathies. Among these studies, one concluded that the PEEP titrated by the lowest driving pressure provoked fewer lesions to the lungs of patients without pneumopathies. However, it did not show any association with mortality resulting from intubation (22). This study objective was to evaluate PEEP impact on hemodynamics, gas exchange and driving pressure of individuals without previous lung disease, and thus the use of PEEP levels above those chosen for the intervention were not necessary. In this context, and considering our findings, we can instruct the clinical staff to use lower PEEP during ventilatory management without impacting negatively the markers evaluated.

This study did not find significant alteration in the driving pressure value at different PEEP levels, which can be a possible cause for not increasing oxygenation, since the driving pressure has been considered a reliable bedside variable to predict ventilation induced lesion, mortality, and oxygenation. However, its impact on the oxygenation only occurs when the PEEP increase reduces it value and, consequently, reduces the dead space, optimizing the gas exchange. In addition, by increasing the PEEP we can evaluate the potential alveolar recruitment by the driving pressure alteration, that is, if the driving pressure increases with the PEEP increase, we are dealing with a lung with low recruitment potential, which indicates that this patient will probably not benefit from the increased PEEP (23,24,25,26,27). In this context, our intervention showed that for the same driving pressure value at the three different PEEP levels, we should opt for the lowest PEEP aiming to protect the alveoli from possible lesions, minimizing the stress due to the alveolus cyclic opening and closing.

The main limitations of our study were: small sample size, close PEEP values used in the intervention, which might not have influenced the sample, since it included patients without previous lung disease and without hypoxemia, a condition in which the PEEP could have influenced. For further studies, we suggest this type of intervention mainly in groups presenting hypoxemia. Also, our study presented a cohort of patients with heterogeneous characteristics that, despite representing the routine care provided to patients in the University Hospital, makes it difficult to understand specific processes regarding the respiratory physiology and PEEP response.

Conclusion

In individuals without pneumopathies that required IMV, increased PEEP was not associated with alterations in hemodynamics, gas exchange, and driving pressure. Therefore, these values can be safely used in the bedside care. Our results also suggest the use of lower PEEP levels, aiming to optimize a protective ventilation in patients subjected to IMV.

References

1. Gattinoni L, Tonetti T, Cressoni M, Cadringher P, Herrmann P, Moerer O, Protti A, Gotti M, Chiurazzi C, Carlesso E, Chiumello D, Quintel M. Ventilator-related causes of lung injury: the mechanical power. Intensive Care Med. 2016;42(10):1567-1575. doi: 10.1007/s00134-016-4505-2.

2. Brochard L, Slutsky A, Pesenti A. Mechanical Ventilation to Minimize Progression of Lung Injury in Acute Respiratory Failure. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2017;195(4):438-442. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201605-1081CP.

3. Gattinoni L, Carlesso E, Cressoni M. Selecting the 'right' positive end-expiratory pressure level. Curr Opin Crit Care. 2015;21(1):50-57. doi: 10.1097/MCC.00000000000166.

4. Alviar CL, Miller PE, McAreavey D, Katz JN, Lee B, Moriyama B, Soble J, van Diepen S, Solomon MA, Morrow DA; ACC Critical Care Cardiology Working Group. Positive Pressure Ventilation in the Cardiac Intensive Care Unit. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2018;72(13):1532-1553. doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2018.06.074.

5. Marini JJ. Should we embrace "open lung" approach? Crit Care Med. 2016;44(1):237-238. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000001489.

6. Bugedo G, Retamal J, Bruhn A. Does the use of high PEEP levels prevent ventilatorinduced lung injury? Rev Bras Ter Intensiva. 2017;29(2):231-237. doi: 10.5935/0103-507X.20170032.

7. Dries DJ, Marini JJ. Finding Best PEEP: A Little at a Time. Respir Care. 2020;65(5):722-724. doi: 10.4187/respcare.07799.

8. Maung, AA, Kaplan LJ. Waveform analysis during mechanical ventilation. Current Problems in Surgery. 2013; 50(10):438-446. doi:10.1067/j.cpsurg.2013.08.007.

9. Pinsky MR. My paper 20 years later: Effect of positive end-expiratory pressure on right ventricular function in humans. Intensive Care Med. 2014;40(7):935-941. doi: 10.1007/s00134-014-3294-8.

10. Baldomero AK, Skarda PK, Marini JJ. Driving Pressure: Defining the Range. Respir Care. 2019;64(8):883-889. doi: 10.4187/respcare.06599.

11. Amato MB, Meade MO, Slutsky AS, Brochard L, Costa EL, Schoenfeld DA, Stewart TE, Briel M, Talmor D, Mercat A, Richard JC, Carvalho CR, Brower RG. Driving pressure and survival in the acute respiratory distress syndrome. N Engl J Med. 2015;372(8):747-755. doi: 10.1056/NEJMsa1410639.

12. Marini JJ and Dries DJ. Critical Care Medicine: The Essencial and more. 5th ed. Market St.: Philadelphia; Wolters Kluwer ;2018.

13. Lesur O, Remillard MA, St-Pierre C, Falardeau S. Prophylactic positive end-expiratory pressure and postintubation hemodynamics: an interventional, randomized study. Can Respir J. 2010;17(3):e45-50. doi: 10.1155/2010/269581.

14. Futier E, Constantin JM, Petit A, Jung B, Kwiatkowski F, Duclos M, Jaber S, Bazin JE. Positive end-expiratory pressure improves end-expiratory lung volume but not oxygenation after induction of anaesthesia. Eur J Anaesthesiol. 2010;27(6):508-513. doi: 10.1097/EJA.0b013e3283398806.

15. Mahmood SS, Pinsky MR. Heart-lung interactions during mechanical ventilation: the basics. Ann Transl Med. 2018 Sep;6(18):349. doi: 10.21037/atm.2018.04.29.

16. Pinsky MR. The hemodynamic consequences of mechanical ventilation: an evolving story. Intensive Care Med. 1997;23(5):493-503. doi: 10.1007/s001340050364.

17.Carvalho AR, Jandre FC, Pino AV, Bozza FA, Salluh JI, Rodrigues R, Soares JH, Giannella-Neto A. Effects of descending positive end-expiratory pressure on lung mechanics and aeration in healthy anaesthetized piglets. Crit Care. 2006;10(4):R122. doi: 10.1186/cc5030

18. Terragni PP, Rosboch G, Tealdi A, Corno E, Menaldo E, Davini O, Gandini G, Herrmann P, Mascia L, Quintel M, Slutsky AS, Gattinoni L, Ranieri VM. Tidal hyperinflation during low tidal volume ventilation in acute respiratory distress syndrome. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2007;175(2):160-6. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200607-915OC.

19. Writing Group for the Alveolar Recruitment for Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome Trial (ART) Investigators, Cavalcanti AB, Suzumura ÉA, Laranjeira LN, Paisani DM, Damiani LP, Guimarães HP, Romano ER, Regenga MM, Taniguchi LNT, Teixeira C, Pinheiro de Oliveira R, Machado FR, Diaz-Quijano FA, Filho MSA, Maia IS, Caser EB, Filho WO, Borges MC, Martins PA, Matsui M, Ospina-Tascón GA, Giancursi TS, Giraldo-Ramirez ND, Vieira SRR, Assef MDGPL, Hasan MS, Szczeklik W, Rios F, Amato MBP, Berwanger O, Ribeiro de Carvalho CR. Effect of Lung Recruitment and Titrated Positive End-Expiratory Pressure (PEEP) vs Low PEEP on Mortality in Patients With Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome: A Randomized Clinical Trial. JAMA. 2017;318(14):1335-1345. doi: 10.1001/jama.2017.14171.

20. Rotman V, Carvalho AR, Rodrigues RS, Medeiros DM, Pinto EC, Bozza FA, Carvalho CRR. Effects of the open lung concept following ARDSnet ventilation in patients with early ARDS. BMC Anesthesiol. 2016;16(1):40. doi: 10.1186/s12871-016-0206-1.

21. Kacmarek RM, Villar J, Sulemanji D, Montiel R, Ferrando C, Blanco J, Koh Y, Soler JA, Martínez D, Hernández M, Tucci M, Borges JB, Lubillo S, Santos A, Araujo JB, Amato MB, Suárez-Sipmann F; Open Lung Approach Network. Open Lung Approach for the Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome: A Pilot, Randomized Controlled Trial. Crit Care Med. 2016;44(1):32-42. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000001383.

22. Schmidt MFS, Amaral ACKB, Fan E, Rubenfeld GD. Driving Pressure and Hospital Mortality in Patients Without ARDS: A Cohort Study. Chest. 2018;153(1):46-54. doi: 10.1016/j.chest.2017.10.004.

23. Villar J, Martín-Rodríguez C, Domínguez-Berrot AM, Fernández L, Ferrando C, Soler JA, Díaz-Lamas AM, González-Higueras E, Nogales L, Ambrós A, Carriedo D, Hernández M, Martínez D, Blanco J, Belda J, Parrilla D, Suárez-Sipmann F, Tarancón C, Mora-Ordoñez JM, Blanch L, Pérez-Méndez L, Fernández RL, Kacmarek RM; Spanish Initiative for Epidemiology, Stratification and Therapies for ARDS (SIESTA) Investigators Network. A Quantile Analysis of Plateau and Driving Pressures: Effects on Mortality in Patients With Acute Respiratory Distress

Syndrome Receiving Lung-Protective Ventilation. Crit Care Med. 2017;45(5):843-850. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000002330.

24. Chiumello D, Carlesso E, Brioni M, Cressoni M. Airway driving pressure and lung stress in ARDS patients. Crit Care. 2016;20:276. doi: 10.1186/s13054-016-1446-7.

25. Gogniat E, Ducrey M, Dianti J, Madorno M, Roux N, Midley A, Raffo J, Giannasi S, San Roman E, Suarez-Sipmann F, Tusman G. Dead space analysis at different levels of positive end-expiratory pressure in acute respiratory distress syndrome patients. J Crit Care. 2018;45:231-238. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrc.2018.01.005.

26. Sahetya SK, Mallow C, Sevransky JE, Martin GS, Girard TD, Brower RG, Checkley W; Society of Critical Care Medicine Discovery Network Critical Illness Outcomes Study Investigators. Association between hospital mortality and inspiratory airway pressures in mechanically ventilated patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome: a prospective cohort study. Crit Care. 2019;23(1):367. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2635-y.

27. Hess DR. Approaches to conventional mechanical ventilation of the patient with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Respir Care. 2011 Oct;56(10):1555-72. doi: 10.4187/respcare.01387. Erratum in: Respir Care. 2011;56(11):1868.

Capítulo IV: Artigo Submetido

Title: Opioids in COVID-19: two sides of a coin

Running title: Opioids in COVID-19 in Brazil

Camila Vantini Capasso Palamim^{1,2,a}; Matheus Negri Boschiero^{1,a}; Aléthea Guimarães Faria^{1,2}; Felipe Eduardo Valencise^{1,2,a}; Fernando Augusto Lima Marson^{1,2,*}

^a The authors contributed equally to this study

¹ Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds, São Francisco University, Bragança Paulista, SP, Brazil.

² Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics, São Francisco University, Bragança Paulista, SP, Brazil.

* Corresponding author: [FALM] Fernando Augusto Lima Marson, BSc, MSc, PhD.

São Francisco University; Postgraduate Program in Health Science; Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Tumor Biology and Bioactive Compounds and Laboratory of Human and Medical Genetics. Avenida São Francisco de Assis, 218. Jardim São José, Bragança Paulista, São Paulo, Brasil, 12916-900. Phone +55 19 9769 2712. E-mail:

 $fern and olima mars on @hot mail.com \ and \ fern and o.mars on @usf.edu.br$

E-mail:

CVCP: cvcpalamim@gmail.com

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6825-1154

MNB: boschiero.matheus@gmail.com

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3629-0316

AGF: dilifaria@gmail.com

FEV: felipe.valencise@gmail.com

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4271-5261

FALM: fernandolimamarson@hotmail.com and fernando.marson@usf.edu.br

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4955-4234

Declarations

Funding: Students MNB and FEV were financially supported [Process: 2021/05810-7] and [Process: 2021/08437-5], respectively, by the Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (Research Support Foundation of the São Paulo state).

Conflicts of interest/competing interests: Not required.

Ethics approval: Not required.

Consent to participate: Not required.

Consent for publication: The authors approved the manuscript and agreed with its submission.

Availability of data and material: Not required.

Code availability: Not required.

Authors' contributions: All authors approved the manuscript and agreed with its submission to the journal. Also, all authors wrote and revised the manuscript.

Acknowledgement: MNB would like to acknowledge his family, especially Christiane Negri, João Negri, Lucila Negri, and Claudinei Boschiero for always supporting him and listening to him when he talks about science.

Abstract

Introduction: The treatment of most severe COVID-19 patients included the large-scale use of sedatives and analgesics – possibly in higher doses than usual – which was reported in the literature. The use of drugs that decrease mortality is necessary and opioids are important agents in procedures such as orotracheal intubation. However, these drugs seem to have been overestimated in the COVID-19 pandemic. We performed a review of the PubMed-Medline database to evaluate the use of opioids during this period. The following descriptors were used to enhance the search for papers: "Opioids", "COVID-19", "COVID-19 pandemic", "SARS-CoV-2", "Opioid use disorder", "Opioid dependence" and the names of the drugs used. We also evaluated the distribution of COVID-19 patients in Brazil and the applicability of opioids in our country during the pandemic.

Results: Several positive points were found in the use of opioids in the COVID-19 pandemic, for instance, they can be used for analgesia in orotracheal intubation, for chronic pain management, and as coadjutant in the management of acute intensification of pain. However, high doses of opioids might exacerbate the respiratory depression found in COVID-19 patients, their chronic use can trigger opioid tolerance and the higher doses used during the pandemic might result in greater adverse effects. Unfortunately, the pandemic also affected individuals with opioid use disorder, not only those individuals are at higher risk of mortality, hospitalization and need for ventilatory support, but measures taken to decrease the SARS-CoV-2 spread such as social isolation, might negatively affect the treatment for opioid use disorder. In Brazil, only morphine, remifentanil and fentanyl are available in the basic health care system for the treatment of COVID-19 patients. Out of the 5,273,598 opioid units used in this period all over the country, morphine, fentanyl, and remifentanil, accounted for, respectively, 559,270 (10.6%), 4,624,328 (87.6%), and 90,000 (1.8%) units. Many Brazilian regions with high number of confirmed cases of COVID-19 had few units of opioids available, as the Southeast region, with a 0.23 units of opioids per confirmed COVID-19 case, and the South region, with 0.05 units. In the COVID-19 pandemic scenario, positive points related to opioids were mainly the occurrence of analgesia, to facilitate intubation and their use as coadjutants in the management of acute intensification of pain, whereas the negative points were indiscriminate use, the presence of human immunosuppressor response and increased adverse effects due to higher doses of the drug.

Conclusions: The importance of rational and individualized use of analgesic hypnotics and sedative anesthetics should be considered at all times, especially in situations of high demand such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords: COVID-19; Opioids; Pandemic; SARS-CoV-2; Treatment; Analgesics; Fentanyl; Remifentanil; Sufentanil; Alfentanil; Opioid use disorder; Opioid dependence; Morphine; Hydromorphone; Methadone

1. Introduction

The infection caused by the SARS-CoV-2 might affect different systems such as the gastrointestinal, central nervous, renal, cardiovascular and respiratory (Zhang et al., 2020). The most common symptoms include fever, cough, fatigue, and sputum production (Guan et al., 2020). At the same time, pneumonia associated with the COVID-19 might complicate due to the development of severe acute respiratory syndrome, and these patients might require admission in the intensive care unit (ICU), and be subjected to invasive mechanical ventilation (IMV) (Ammar et al., 2021).

In ICU patients under IMV, pain is one of the main reasons for restlessness, and moderate to deep levels of analgesia and sedation might be required as well as the use of neuromuscular blockade (NMB), to reduce the risk of cough, prevent asynchronous breath, and reduce the respiratory drive, which are harmful to the patient, and optimize ventilation, promoting suitable pain relief, and also preventing the activation of the sympathetic nervous system (Pandharipande et al., 2014; Allen et al., 2021; Ammar et al., 2021; Chaves-Cardona et al., 2021). Historically, the opioids are the most used class of drugs to perform sedation and analgesia in patients who need IMV. However, these drugs might be used carefully, since one of their most common side effects is the presence of respiratory depression, which can intensify the respiratory symptoms from COVID-19 such as shortness of breath (Roan et al., 2018; Ammar et al., 2021).

Even though the use of opioids might be necessary to help the ventilation of critically ill patients, prolonged use of sedatives in patients with respiratory insufficiency presents several adverse effects such as increase in hospital mortality, longer hospital treatment time, longer periods of IMV use and an dose dependent enhanced risk for delirium (Xing et al., 2015; Page, 2021). Additionally, the conditions described might indicate the patients' worst prognosis and contribute to an increase in care costs, and interfere in their quality of life and survival rate after hospital discharge (Kotfis et al., 2020; Pun et al., 2021). It seems relevant to highlight that opioid have been widely used in critical COVID-19 patients under IMV. The literature suggests that patient subjected to IMV due to the COVID-19, often received higher doses of sedatives and analgesics when compared to patients with other clinical condition (Kapp et al., 2020; Page, 2021; Pun et al., 2021).

Another fact regarding this period is that the pandemic affected the individuals who already presented opioid use disorders in several different manners. For instance, recent studies observed that these individuals are at higher risk of COVID-19 infection, death, hospitalization, and need for ventilation (Baillargeon et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Unfortunately, the impact of the COVID-19 was not limited to the worst outcomes of the disease. These individuals with opioid use disorder might be more susceptible to loss of income, isolation, lack of rewarding activities, fear and anxiety, which ultimately can enhance the risk of substance abuse (Columb et al., 2020; Khatri and Perrone, 2020; Mota, 2020; Henderson et al., 2021). One might also speculate that the pandemic provided less access to safe places to use opioids, leading to a high rate of overdose related calls to the paramedics (Galarneau et al., 2021). Thus, it is extremely important to revise the impact of opioid use during the COVID-19 in several aspects to improve the scientific evidence for other pandemics as well as to be prepared for the pos-pandemic period.

The objective of this narrative review was to discuss sedation and analgesia practices – particularly the use of opioids – in critical patients and the repercussion of these practices. It also aimed to carry out a review on the impact of the pandemic on individuals with opioid use disorder.

In this review, the PubMed-Medline database was surveyed regarding studies related to opioids and the COVID-19 published in the period from 2019 to 2021. The following descriptors were used to enhance the search for papers: "Opioids", "Opioid use disorder", "Opioid dependence", "COVID-19", "COVID-19 pandemic", "SARS-CoV-2", "SARS-CoV-2 infection", ["Morphine", "Oxycodone" "Fentanyl", Hydrocodone", opioids "Methadone", and "Remifentanil", "Sufentanil", and "Alfentanil"]. Brazilian databases were also surveyed such as that made available by the Brazilian Health Ministry (https://covid.saude.gov.br/), to evaluate the Brazilian characteristics related to the COVID-19, including the number of confirmed cases, the number of deaths due to the COVID-19, incidence of the disease per 100,000 inhabitants, and mortality due to this disease per 100,000 inhabitants. Additionally, the study analyzed the distribution and number of opioids used all over the country according to the newsletter published by the Health Ministry. We also estimated the total opioid use per confirmed COVID-19 cases, which was a ratio between total opioids and confirmed cases of COVID-19; and total opioids per death due to the COVID-19, which was a ratio between total opioids and deaths due to the COVID-19. In such scenario, we included a narrative review demonstrating the pros and cons of opioid use during the COVID-19 pandemic.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Physiological effects of opioids in COVID-19 and the physiology of dependence

Opioids might inhibit the release of neurotransmitters such as the Glutamate and the P substance released by the dorsal root ganglion at the level of the spinal and cerebral marrow through the activation of G proteins that inhibit the adenylate cyclase and regulate ionic canals through their bond to opioid receptors. In that context, three opioid receptors were established: mu, delta and kappa, which are metabotropic receptors that bond to the G protein, with different biomolecular structure, but with interrelated functions (Henriksen and Willoch, 2008; Bruijnzeel, 2009; Stein and Lang, 2009; Friedman and Nabong, 2020). These receptors can be found in high concentrations in supraspinal regions, such as the limbic area and regions related to neurohormonal secretion, as the hypothalamus, and most of these receptors are pre synaptic (Friedman and Nabong, 2020).

Agonist opioids of the delta and mu receptors present an analgesic action, while the agonist opioids of the delta receptor seem to present lesser side effects after long periods of use. Interestingly, the mu receptor is the main receptor for opioid agonists used in pain management (Friedman and Nabong, 2020). The kappa receptor, in turn, might induce dopamine release and cooperate with the development of hallucination and dysphoria behaviors, also, high concentrations of kappa receptors can be found in the spinal cord, and are thought to play a central role in the development of hyperalgesia. One can speculate that this might limit the development of drugs that interact with this receptor (Chavkin, 2011; Friedman and Nabong, 2020). Opioids show a high distribution volume and high liposolubility. Consequently, a short infusion bolus, for example, might have significant effects on plasma concentrations (Henriksen and Willoch, 2008; Bruijnzeel, 2009; Stein and Lang, 2009) (**Figure 1**). Moreover, some of these medicines present very short plasma half-lives such as the remifentanil and the alfentanil (Henriksen and Willoch, 2008; Bruijnzeel, 2009; Ammar et al., 2021).

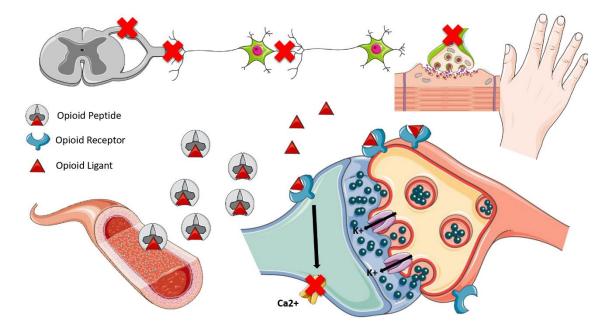


FIGURE 1. Pharmacodynamics of opioids. Opioids inhibit the release of Glutamate and Substance P by the dorsal ganglion neuron in the spinal cord and brain through the activation of G proteins, which inhibit adenylate cyclase and regulate ion channels by binding to opioid receptors. Once the opioid binds to the receptor, potassium influx and calcium channel blockage in the synaptic cleft occurs. Three opioid receptors: mu, delta and kappa, which are metabotropic receptors and bind to G protein, are responsible for the analgesic effect. Delta and mu receptor agonist opioids have mainly analgesic action, and delta receptor agonist opioids seem to present fewer side effects after a long period of use. The Kappa receptor can induce dopamine release and contribute to the development of hallucination and dysphoria behaviors. Opioids have a high volume of distribution due to their high liposolubility. Therefore, a short infusion bolus, for example, may have significant effects on plasma concentrations (Henriksen and Willoch, 2008; Bruijnzeel, 2009; Stein and Lang, 2009).

Interestingly, the brainstream has a great concentration of Mu opioid receptors in areas involved with the control of breathing and the respiratory frequency, in which, if activated they may interfere of the process of breathing (Boom et al., 2012). Although the mechanism involved with respiratory depression is complex, opioids might increase hypercapnia and reduce tidal and minute volume, leading to slow and irregular breathing, which in severe cases can progress to fatal apnea (Leino et al., 1999; Boom et al., 2012). Furthermore, a great number of opioid receptors can be also found in the pre-Bötzinger complex, which is an important area related to the inspiration and has been recently described in humans. The activation of opioid receptors in this particular

area might play a role in respiratory depression (Pattinson, 2008; Montandon et al., 2011; Schwarzacher et al., 2011; Boom et al., 2012) (**Figure 2**).

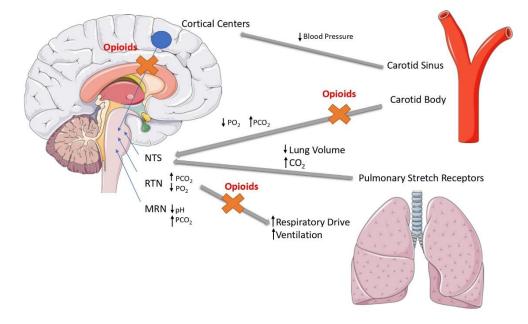


FIGURE 2. Opioid-induced respiratory depression mechanisms. Opioid-induced analgesia and respiratory depression arise from stimulation of μ -opioid receptors (MORs). MORs are expressed in neurons involved in the control of breathing, primarily located in the brainstem, particularly in the Nucleus Tractus Solitarius (NTS), Retrotrapezoid Nucleus (RTN) and Median Raphe Nuclei (MRN) (Boom et al., 2012)

Unfortunately, opioids can also cause dependence due to their interaction with Mu receptors in the brain, resulting in activation of the reward mesolimbic system, which is also activated in several other daily activities such as sex and eating. The activation of the mesolimbic system, in turn, is responsible for the activation of the tegmental ventral area, located in the mesencephalon, which acts by releasing dopamine in the accumbens nucleus, which provides a feeling of pleasure (Kosten and George, 2002). Another factor that might result in dependence is the opioid action on the locus coeruleus. Normally, the locus coeruleus produces noradrenalin, an excitatory neurotransmitter that regulates several functions such as the respiratory frequency and blood pressure. However, opioids can act on the Mu receptors in this region, which reduces the noradrenalin secretion, leading to metabolic alteration that include reduced respiratory frequency and arterial pressure. As a consequence of the chronic ingestion of opioids, the locus coeruleus increases its noradrenalin secretion in an attempt to manage the opioid effect. Therefore, when a reduction in the concentration of opioids in the nervous system occurs and greater noradrenalin concentration is observed, several symptoms of the withdrawal syndrome such as anxiety and the presence of muscle cramps might appear (Kosten and George, 2002).

Regarding the physiological effects of opioids, we observed several positive points, as the mechanisms involved in analgesia, and those involved in the IMV. However, some negative points were also observed such as chest wall rigidity, which can increase the respiratory depression, and the mechanism related to opioid dependence.

Additionally, even if opioids belong to the same class of drugs, they present distinct pharmacodynamic, pharmacokinetic mechanisms and molecular structure (**Table 1**).

2.2. Opioids used in patients' sedation

Pulmonary impairment is one of the main pathophysiological mechanisms of the COVID-19. Patients with this disease might present pain and suffering, not only due to the illness, but also as a result of invasive procedures such as the IMV, required by around 69% of the COVID-19 patients admitted in ICU (Devlin et al., 2018; Ammar et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2021). Analgesia, mainly using opioids, in this type of patients becomes usual, in order to provide them with comfort and also enable the accomplishment of further procedures such as orotracheal intubation (Allen et al., 2021). In the literature, opioids such as fentanyl, morphine, and hydromorphone are the main drugs used to treat ICU patients (Ammar et al., 2021). Our review summarizes the characteristics of the main opioids used in the treatment of COVID-19 patients (**Table 1**).

Fentanyl outstands as the most used opioid in the analgesia of conventional diseases. However, it is necessary to be cautious when using it through intravenous administration, since one of its main adverse effects is chest wall rigidity increase leading to respiratory depression (Roan et al., 2018; Ammar et al., 2021), which is recurrent in COVID-19 patients. Another drug that can be used to alleviate the discomfort caused by dyspnea is morphine (Ammar et al., 2021). Hydromorphone, in turn, can be used to substitute morphine or fentanyl, whenever the health service does not have the other medications, however, this opioid presents higher dosage error rate, when compared to other opioids, for this reason, health professionals must use it with caution to prevent overdoses of this medication (Ammar et al., 2021). Other options of opioid analgesics for the treatment of COVID-19 patients include remifentanil, sufentanil, and alfentanil, which are drugs used in the hospital practice. However, they show some limitations that reduce their use in large scale situations. Remifentanil is associated to higher risk of hypotension, when compared to fentanyl, and has a shorter half-life, which might reduce the duration of its analgesic effect. Sufentanil and alfentanil are less frequently used in ICU also due to their short half-life. In addition, sufentanil might accumulate progressively when used in continuous and prolonged infusions. As for alfentanil, there are few reports of its use in continuous infusion by intensive care teams (Egan et al., 1993; Joshi et al., 2002; Ammar et al., 2021). However, these drugs are still considered options when the most commonly used drugs (morphine, hydromorphone, and fentanyl) are not available in the health service.

The advantages observed include the fact that many opioids such as fentanyl, hydromorphone, morphine, sufentanil, remifentanil, alfentanil can be used in order to help in the IMV, and they are important to manage COVID-19 patients. However, since fentanyl is the most used opioid, the health care personnel might not have experience with the others, which might lead to dosage error. Also, sufentanil, remifentanil, alfentanil show more limitations when compared to fentanyl, since they have a shorter half-life.

2.3. Opioids in Brazil: availability, and dependence

When managing COVID-19 patients, few drugs presented proved efficacy to modulate the outcome mainly regarding more severely affected individuals that required intensive care treatment and IMV. Among these drugs, dexamethasone and remdesivir reduced mortality risk and hospital care time, respectively (Beigel et al., 2020; RECOVERY Collaborative Group et al., 2021). However, other drugs such as opioids gained relevance in the COVID-19 pandemic for providing patients with greater comfort during treatment. Another fact to be taken into consideration is that since the start of the pandemic, Brazil has supported the acquisition of several drugs without scientific evidence for the COVID-19 treatment such as hydroxychloroquine, chloroquine and oseltamivir (Boschiero et al., 2021; MS-SUS COVID-19 Medications) spending around BRL 90 million to purchase such drugs (MS-SUS COVID-19 Medications). Curiously, the amount spent could have been used in the acquisition of other medicines, including opioids, which were missing in many healthcare centers in several parts of the country at certain times during the pandemic. As

a result of the magnitude of the COVID-19 pandemic in Brazil, with approximately 22 million confirmed cases and over 600 thousand deaths (WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard) a variety of medicines, mainly opioids, were used to manage patients in ICU and under IMV.

In Brazil, around 80% of the population is assisted by the National Unified Health System (SUS, the Brazilian public health system), while the remaining population use private health care. Curiously, SUS is responsible for only 45% of the total expenditure with health in the country, while the private system accounts for 55%, this fact disagrees with the volume of assistance provided in each health sector (public and private) (SUS - 20 years, 2021). Unfortunately, according to the Relação Nacional de Medicamentos Essenciais - Rename (Essential Medication National List), when it comes to opioids, only morphine and fentanyl are available for routine use at the SUS, and the small variety of drugs available can be explained, at least partly, by the low investment in this service (Rename, 2020). Therefore, the fact that the SUS that assists most of the population does not have enough resources to assist suitably those that requires this service is a matter of concern, mainly in a public health emergency situation such as that provoked by the COVID-19 pandemic.

As a consequence of the high use of opioids during the COVID-19 pandemic and public resource bad management, mainly by the federal government, there were reports of lack of opioids, as well as shortage of other medicines and inputs needed to perform intubation in Brazilian patients (Boschiero et al., 2021; Folha de São Paulo, 2021); and there were several reports of collapse in the health service. For example, according to the Associação Nacional de Hospitais Privados – ANAHP (Private Hospital National Association), on 18th March 2021, the institutions that are members of that association reported having a stock of fentanyl that would last only 20 days (ANAHP, 2021). Also, according to a survey carried out up to 13th April 2021 by the Federação das Santas Casas e Hospitais Beneficentes do Estado de São Paulo – Fehosp (Federation of Santa Casas and other charitable hospitals of São Paulo), around 160 hospitals had stocks of anesthetics and other medication needed for intubation that would only last from 3 to 5 days, with certain municipalities such as Guarujá and Rio Preto reporting even lower stocks that would probably end in 2 or 3 days (Fehosp – News). Such supply crisis affected and might still affect the combat to the pandemic in Brazil, preventing the treatment of patients that require intubation and potentially increasing dosage errors by the medical team, for not being acquainted with the use of the

alternative medication available (Adams et al., 2020) or even, impairing the analgesia of those patients, preventing measures to alleviate their respiratory distress.

Unfortunately, the medication supply crisis in Brazil goes beyond opioids, several means of communication informed and are still informing that hospitals have low stocks of the "intubation kit", that is, medication and necessary supplements to carry out orotracheal intubation (CNM, 2021; Folha de São Paulo, 2021). This fact might have contributed, at least partly, to the high mortality rate of patients in ICU throughout the country. In fact, the mortality rate among Brazilian patients with the COVID-19 disease in ICUs (~55%), was higher than those of many other countries such as China (37.7%), Italy (25.6%), Spain (29.2%), United States of America (23.6%), Denmark (41.2%), Germany (24.3%), and the United Kingdom (8.0%) (Quah et al., 2020; Ranzani et al., 2021). The figures in Brazil were distributed differently among the states and regions of the country, with the highest death index, 79%, being observed in the Northern region of the country.

Interestingly, up to October 20, 2021, Brazil used a total of 5,273,598 opioids in its five regions, with only three different types of opioids available in the SUS, and out of those morphine, fentanyl and remifentanil, accounted for, respectively, 559,270 (10.6%), 4,624,328 (87.6%) and, 90,000 (1.8%) units of opioids used. In our analysis, we also observed that many Brazilian regions with high number of confirmed cases of COVID-19 had few units of opioids available, as the Southeast region, with a 0.23 units of opioids per confirmed COVID-19 case, and the South region, with 0.05 units. Furthermore, taking into account the number of deaths due to COVID-19 and total opioids, these 2 Brazilian regions also presented the lowest index in the country, in which the Southeast had 6.90 opioids units per death due to COVID-19, and the South region accounted for 2.30 (**Table 2**). These two regions were the most affected by the COVID-19, presenting the highest numbers of cases and deaths, thus their opioid supply should have been increased in order to better manage the COVID-19 cases.

A Brazilian study on hospital analgesic consumption trends carried out from 2011 to 2015 showed that although a noticeable reduction in the public expenditure with analgesia occurred, the costs are still high, so that in the last year analyzed, the total cost of analgesics was 326.515, and out of this total, 84.545 were spent with analgesic opioids, which represents approximately 26% of the total cost (Monje et al., 2019).

It seems relevant to observe that Brazil has a lower prevalence of opioid use when compared to the United States of America or the rest of the world. One report from 2004 surveyed more than 15,000 individuals in the 1st and 2nd grade of high schools and the prevalence of opioid use, at least once in lifetime, was 0.7% (ranging from 0.2% in Rio de Janeiro to 1.4% in Salvador) (Baltieri et al., 2004). Another report interviewed 8,589 Brazilians citizens aged between 12 and 65 years old, and the prevalence of opioid use was only 1.4% (Galduróz and Cebrid, 2003). Finally, the latest report on opioid use in Brazil observed an increased prevalence when compared to previous years, nearly 2.9% of the individuals surveyed stated that they had used opioids at least once in their lives (Krawczyk et al., 2020).

Regarding positive points, the federal government could distribute opioids to all Brazilian states, even with a logistic issue related to great distances and difficult access to some cities in the North. Also, Brazil seems to have a lower prevalence of opioid use disorder. On the negative side, we observed that the federal government distributed a low number of opioids to the Brazilian states, which might have predisposed some regions to shortage of opioids. Also, Brazil did not distribute the opioids taking the COVID-19 cases and deaths into account, which might have had an impact in the outcome of the public health policy of the states.

2.4. A growing issue: the dependence of opioid worldwide

Although the management of sedation in critical patients in IMV is difficult, it is required during the therapeutical intervention. In high doses or for long periods, its use might result in undesirable effects such as the occurrence of delirium or acute cerebral disfunction, which are considered serious problems for the medical team and the patients' families. European and American guidelines recommend that, in mechanically ventilated patients, sedation is dosed so that the patient can be awaken easily and at the same time has a competent analgesia, since this might reduce delirium incidence (Page, 2021; Pun et al., 2021). However, chronic and indiscriminate use of opioids might cause dependence as reported in the literature (Kosten and George, 2002). Nevertheless, their use in the COVID-19 pandemic is justifiable for the reasons listed above. Delirium incidence is highly prevalent and prolonged in COVID-19 patients and the use of benzodiazepines along with the absence of the family were modifiable risk factors identified in a multicenter study (Pun et al., 2021).

Patients with opioid dependence might be one of the most affected groups in the pandemic, since they are considered a risk population that is marginalized and require more personalized and constant care (Alexander et al., 2020). Several factors can be associated to the greater impact of the pandemic on this group, for example, a study in the South Africa reported that long periods of lockdown might increase the risk of overdose, since a reduction in the addicted individual's tolerance occurs. In addition, those individuals might use other substances that are also nervous system depressants such as alcohol and benzodiazepines (Stowe et al., 2020; Thylstrup et al., 2020). Another relevant factor affecting this group is the shortage of methadone and buprenorphine, medicines used to treat opioid use disorder, since the delivery of this medication in the pandemic context might be harmed, which might have led to treatment discontinuation and a return to the use of illegal opioids (Magura and Rosenblum, 2001; Elliott et al., 2017; Sordo et al., 2017; Degenhardt et al., 2019; Gisev et al., 2019).

The United States of America and Europe perhaps are the regions that were most affected by opioid use disorders worldwide, and the COVID-19 might have played an important role in this health issue, as described below.

2.4.1. United States of America

The United States of America (US) faces a growing epidemic of opioid use, in fact, since 2007 statistical data has shown increased death rates related to opioid consumption, with the death of nearly 91 American individuals every day and over 100 million individuals treated in emergency rooms for opioid use (Rudd, 2016; Dayer et al., 2019; Understanding the Epidemic | CDC's Response to the Opioid Overdose Epidemic | CDC, 2021; CDC WONDER). Also, from 1999 to 2018, the US estimated about 450,000 deaths related to opioid use disorder (Wilson et al., 2020; Seyler et al., 2021). This particular country has a greater variety of opioids than Brazil; therefore, fentanyl and morphine, heroin, oxycodone (OxyContin), methadone, and hydrocodone (Vicodin) are widely used and responsible for the opioid use disorder (Opioid Basics | CDC's Response to the Opioid Overdose Epidemic | CDC, 2021).

Since 2018, deaths related to drug overdose, including opioid overdose, seem stable, with nearly 70,000 reported deaths per month, however in the early 2020, the number of reported deaths began to rise, reaching nearly 96,000 deaths per month in 2021, in part due to the difficulties the

pandemic brought to all American citizens (Products - Vital Statistics Rapid Release - Provisional Drug Overdose Data, 2021). In the literature, a recent report observed that during the COVID-19 pandemic, fewer drug tests were performed, and unfortunately, the percentage of individuals using opioids (fentanyl, heroin and other opioids) increased significantly when compared to the period prior to the pandemic. For instance, about 4.3 % of the individuals tested positive for fentanyl before the pandemic, whereas during the pandemic, this number reached 5.8% of individuals (Niles et al., 2021).

Perhaps, many factors related to the COVID-19 pandemic led to this increased opioid overdose death rate. For instance, there are many barriers related to regulations of essential drugs to treat the opioid use disorder such as methadone and buprenorphine. Also, one way to decrease the SARS-CoV-2 spread was isolation; however, physical and social contact are of utmost importance in the treatment of this disorder (Green et al., 2020). Even before the World Health Organization declared the COVID-19 as a pandemic, several healthcare personnel advocated for the removal of barriers related to the treatment of substance disorder (Samet et al., 2018; Davis and Carr, 2019; Fiscella et al., 2019; Green et al., 2020; Summary of H.R. 2482 (116th): Mainstreaming Addiction Treatment Act of 2019). Unfortunately, a recent study observed that more than 10% of the methadone clinics in the United States of America and Canada were not accepting new patients due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Joudrey et al., 2021). Several tools can be used to attenuate the impact of the pandemic, as the use of telehealth, the greater flexibility to take the drugs to treat this disorder, and home and online group meetings (Green et al., 2020; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine; Health and Medicine Division; Board on Population Health and Public Health Practice; Committee on the Examination of the Integration of Opioid and Infectious Disease Prevention Efforts in Select Programs, 2020; Mehtani et al., 2021). In fact, telehealth was particularly effective when used as a complement of in-person treatment of selected patients (Cales et al., 2021).

The United States of America faces a growing problem related to drug abuse and the COVID-19 might have hampered the access to opioid use disorder treatment. Also, individuals with opioid use disorder are at increased risk of COVID-19. However, some tolls were implemented in order to attenuate the impact of the pandemic in this particular group, as the use of telehealth to help in the opioid use disorder treatment.

2.4.1 Europe

Although the literature for opioid dependence in Europe is scarce, the findings reported are similar to those found in the United States of America. For example, in 2019, 1.0 million individuals were high-risk opioid users, and 76% of drug fatal overdoses were due to opioids. Also, 26% of the requests for drug treatment were for opioid users (Statistical Bulletin 2021 — prevalence of drug use | www.emcdda.europa.eu). Even though it is clear that Europe also faces a growing problem of opioid use disorder, many factors found in the United States of America such as over prescription and use of opioids to manage pain, availability and the cheap cost of opioids, and the lack of accessibility to treatment, are not found in Europe (Volkow et al., 2019; Torrens and Fonseca, 2021). This might have contributed to the fact that dependence levels are not the same in Europe. Although heroin consumption appears to be declining in Europe, maybe due to aging of the population, new synthetic opioids seem to be emerging, as fentanyl and analogues, which constitutes a problem in the COVID-19, since they could be adulterated, falsified, or substituted, thus enhancing their toxic effects (Torrens and Fonseca, 2021).

Few studies evaluated the impact of the COVID-19 in the pattern of drug use in Europe, one Italian study with only 30 subjects observed the levels of heroin use appeared to have decreased during the lockdown period, and right after the end of the lockdown they went back to pre-lockdown levels, this might be explained by the fact that the lockdown provided fewer social interactions in which these individuals were able to use drugs (Gili et al., 2021; EMCDDA Trendspotter briefing: impact of COVID-19 on patterns of drug use and drug-related harms in Europe | www.emcdda.europa.eu). Another study in Finland observed increased use of buprenorphine, amphetamine and 11-nor-9-carboxy- Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol in 2020, after a short drop in May 2020. Unfortunately, this study did not evaluate opioid use (Mariottini et al., 2021). European individuals with opioid use disorder were more affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, and perhaps, similar measures as those taken in the United States of America could be implemented to attenuate their burden.

Europe also faces a growing opioid addiction problem, and the COVID-19 might have made the access to opioid use disorder treatment more difficult. In that continent, individuals with opioid use disorder are also at increased risk of COVID-19. However, some tools were implemented in order to attenuate the impact of the pandemic in this particular group such as the use of telehealth to help in the opioid use disorder treatment.

2.5 Use of opioids in COVID-19 patients and their adverse effects

COVID-19 patients with pulmonary impairment also presented other symptoms such as dyspnea, which is a frequent clinical manifestation with repercussions at the physical and psychological levels causing suffering to the patient. Dyspnea mechanisms include: (i) increase in the afferent signals of chemoreceptors and mechanoreceptors of the upper airways, lung, chest wall, and muscles of breathing; (ii) increase in the respiratory effort sensation, and (iii) dissociation between the ventilatory needs and the ventilation capacity (Burki and Lee, 2010)

One of the opioids main mechanisms of action in intubation is the reduction in the metabolic rate and ventilatory needs, decrease in the bulbar reflex to hypercapnia and hypoxia, respiratory center neurotransmission alteration, respiratory sensitization suppression, reduction in the respiratory drive, vasodilation, and anxiety reduction effects (Helms et al., 2020; Kapp et al., 2020; Pun et al., 2021). However, in COVID-19 patients, the strategies to prevent cough and dyspnea with the use of opioids might, many times, postpone the orotracheal intubation procedure and generate severe pulmonary consequences. In addition, the continuous use of opioids was associated with greater risk of patients in intensive care developing delirium, probably due to the fact that higher doses are prescribed, of both sedatives and analgesics, to COVID-19 patients, when compared to patients that did not have this disease (Helms et al., 2020; Kapp et al., 2020; Pun et al., 2021).

A quite trendy term these days is analgosedation, which consists in reaching sedation through the use of opioids before considering sedation through non-analgesic medication (Devlin et al., 2018; Adams et al., 2020). Throughout the pandemic, the use of analgesia and analgosedation was advisable in usual care (Riker et al., 2009; Adams et al., 2020). In the H1N1 virus pandemic, the use of fentanyl was higher in patients with pneumonia caused by the H1N1 virus or with acute respiratory distress syndrome associated with bacterial pneumonia (Olafson et al., 2012), showing that in the context of respiratory virus pandemics such as the current one, opioids are even more demanded. As exemplified, opioids play a relevant role in orotracheal intubation due to several factors. More specifically, fentanyl acts reducing the sympathetic nervous system, mainly reducing arterial pressure and causing respiratory depression (Allen et al., 2021).

However, opioids also present side effects such as diarrhea, hyperalgesia, dysphoria, tolerance and dependence processes, their prolonged use might be associated to immunological system suppression, and high doses of opioids might lead to respiratory depression, exacerbating the poor respiratory condition of those patients (Boom et al., 2012; Franchi et al., 2019; Cismaru et al., 2021). Patients with high doses of opioids might experience hypercapnia and hypoxia, due to the previously mentioned mechanisms, thus contributing to more severe respiratory symptoms (LeGrand et al., 2003; Ataei et al., 2020; Velavan and Meyer, 2020). Chronic use of opioids might lead to the induction of immune cell apoptosis, thymus and splint hypotrophy, and suppression of the proliferation of lymphocytes B and T, in addition to the leukocyte activity (Nabati et al., 2013; Ataei et al., 2020). Unfortunately, the lack of clinical studies on patients infected by the SARS-CoV-2 prevents a thorough evaluation of the possible side effects of the use of opioids during the pandemic (Drożdżal et al., 2020), and an analysis of the impact of the use of these drugs might only be possible after further observational studies are carried out.

Regarding the positive points of opioids in this topic, we could observe that opioids can be used in IMV in order to decrease patients' pain and the anxiety in respiratory depression. They can also prevent asynchronous breath and reduce the respiratory drive, which is harmful to the patient, and optimize ventilation. However, some negative points were also observed, since the use of opioids might be also associated with increased chest wall rigidity, which can increase the respiratory depression of these patients. Some adverse effects of their use such as diarrhea, hyperalgesia, dysphoria, tolerance and dependence processes were also found, and their prolonged used might be associated with immune system impairment.

3. Perspectives

There are several opioids that are important in the COVID-19 management, consequently, the demand for this medication increased exponentially during the pandemic. However, several doubts still remain to be clarified only when further studies are developed, as for example, whether the use of short action opioids can result in greater benefit for COVID-19 patients. Unfortunately, in Brazil, only remifetanil is available and in small amounts, which hampers its implementation,

even if it has shown more efficacy in intubation. Additionally, Brazil is going against the pandemic combat, a fact that was observed in different news sources that showed shortage of the 'intubation kit' in several hospitals of the country. Even with the efforts of the Health Ministry to buy and distribute this medication and supplements, they were still scarce. On top of that, the investment in drugs without proved efficacy and the dissemination of information related to the 'COVID kit', which was proved inefficient against the virus, created costs that could have been better used in the purchase of greater quantities of opioids. It is still uncertain whether the purchase of opioids could or not have had some relevant impact on the number of COVID-19 patients' deaths. However, if stocks were not so low, those patients could have been assisted with greater comfort.

It is also necessary to evaluate the possible side effects of the use of high doses of opioids in COVID-19 patients. As previously exemplified, opioid continuous use was appointed as an independent risk factor to delirium COVID-19 patients in the ICU. Their indiscriminate use and in high doses in patients in need of mechanical ventilation might result in several side effects that still require further observational studies. For this reason, their use must always be based on the most solid scientific evidence. In addition, high doses of sedation and analgesia in COVID-19 patients are probably related to age and, initially, the affection of a single target organ – lung – which makes sedoanalgesia more difficult. Therefore, it is necessary to manage the combination of several agents (for example, propofol, ketamine, hydromorphone, dexmedetomidine, midazolam, fentanyl, morphine, and remifentanil), increasing the potential risk of side effects such as the increased QT effect, hypertriglyceridemia, hypotension, and delirium, requiring the surveillance of a multiprofessional team.

Finally, we must address one of the most important issues is the patients' addiction to opioid use. Individuals with disorders caused by the use of substances, mainly opioid-related disorders, are at greater risk in the COVID-19 pandemic due to a possible immunological suppression. Opioid users represent a population at high risk of developing critical diseases, either due to complications of underlying conditions that led them to use opioids, or complications caused by the opioids. In addition to overdosing, the use of opioids has been associated to a series of complications that might affect adversely the prognosis of critically ill patients, including myocardial infarction, cerebrovascular accident, and infection. It has become evident that the pandemic had greater impact on marginalized individuals such as drug addicts, mainly those addicted to opioids, since the search for medication and psychological support to treat the addiction was affected by the social isolation measures. Further studies must make a clear distinction whether opioid dependence increased during the pandemic as a result of their more frequent use in hospitals that could lead to addiction, or whether the tools used to fight addiction were affected by the social isolation and restrictive measures, which would lead addicted individuals to a relapse, since both hypotheses are possible.

An informative summary regarding the pros and cons of the opioid use is presented in Figure

3.

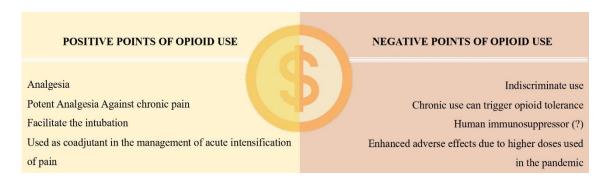


FIGURE 3. Main risks and benefits associated with the use of opioids.

4. Limitations

The study was carried out based on information made available by the government after a survey on the PubMed-Medline database, which might blur the understanding of the real scenery of opioid use in Brazil, since no hospital was directly evaluated. Governmental data bases as the one used in this study might not be updated or even have lost data, which might hamper the analysis carried out in this study. Despite its importance, the literature for opioids use is still scarce and it is difficult to achieve the highest degree of scientific evidence up to this date regarding all-pros and cons of opioid use during the COVID-19 pandemic. Also, there is discrepancy related to the availability of each drug in different countries, which makes the interpretation of our findings in a broad scenery more difficult.

5. Conclusions

In the COVID-19 pandemic scenario, the positive points related to opioids were mainly the occurrence of analgesia, to facilitate the intubation and their use as coadjutant drugs in the management of acute intensification of pain, whereas the negative points included indiscriminate use, the presence of human immunosuppressor response and the enhanced adverse effects due to

higher doses of the drug. Also, the importance of rational and individualized use of analgesic hypnotic and sedative anesthetic medication must be considered at all times, mainly in situations of high demand such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Even though necessary, the opioids might be used carefully, since one of their adverse effects is respiratory depression, which can worsen the respiratory symptoms in COVID-19 patients. Finally, the pandemic might have affected not only critically ill patients who needed intubation, but also those with opioid use disorder, who faced a major problem posed by the pandemic isolation measures, thus decreasing their adherence to the drug disorder treatment.

6. References

Adams, C. D., Altshuler, J., Barlow, B. L., Dixit, D., Droege, C. A., Effendi, M. K., et al. (2020). Analgesia and Sedation Strategies in Mechanically Ventilated Adults with COVID-19. *Pharmacotherapy* 40, 1180–1191. doi:10.1002/phar.2471.

Alexander, G. C., Stoller, K. B., Haffajee, R. L., and Saloner, B. (2020). An Epidemic in the Midst of a Pandemic: Opioid Use Disorder and COVID-19. *Ann Intern Med*, M20-1141. doi:10.7326/M20-1141.

Allen, P., Desai, N. M., and Lawrence, V. N. (2021). "Tracheal Intubation Medications," in *StatPearls* (Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing). Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK507812/ [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Ammar, M. A., Sacha, G. L., Welch, S. C., Bass, S. N., Kane-Gill, S. L., Duggal, A., et al. (2021). Sedation, Analgesia, and Paralysis in COVID-19 Patients in the Setting of Drug Shortages. *J Intensive Care Med* 36, 157–174. doi:10.1177/0885066620951426.

ANAHP (Private Hospital National Association). Anahp presents to Anvisa research that indicates low stocks of drugs to treat Covid-19 Available at: https://www.anahp.com.br/noticias/noticias-anahp/anahp-apresenta-a-anvisa-pesquisa-que-indica-baixa-dos-estoques-de-medicamentos-para-tratar-covid-19/ [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Analgesia and Sedation in COVID-19 Available at: https://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:cZAYnMHislQJ:https://www.amib.org.

br/fileadmin/user_upload/amib/2020/julho/07/Analgesia_e_sedacao_AMIB_070720_VV_VJS.pd f+&cd=1&hl=pt-BR&ct=clnk&gl=br [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Ataei, M., Shirazi, F. M., Lamarine, R. J., Nakhaee, S., and Mehrpour, O. (2020). A doubleedged sword of using opioids and COVID-19: a toxicological view. *Substance Abuse Treatment*, *Prevention, and Policy* 15, 91. doi:10.1186/s13011-020-00333-y.

Baillargeon, J., Polychronopoulou, E., Kuo, Y.-F., and Raji, M. A. (2021). The Impact of Substance Use Disorder on COVID-19 Outcomes. *PS* 72, 578–581. doi:10.1176/appi.ps.202000534.

Baltieri, D. A., Strain, E. C., Dias, J. C., Scivoletto, S., Malbergier, A., Nicastri, S., et al. (2004). Brazilian guideline for the treatment of patients with opioids dependence syndrome. *Braz. J. Psychiatry* 26, 259–269. doi:10.1590/S1516-44462004000400011.

Beigel, J. H., Tomashek, K. M., Dodd, L. E., Mehta, A. K., Zingman, B. S., Kalil, A. C., et al. (2020). Remdesivir for the Treatment of Covid-19 - Final Report. *N Engl J Med* 383, 1813–1826. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2007764.

Boom, M., Niesters, M., Sarton, E., Aarts, L., Smith, T. W., and Dahan, A. (2012). Nonanalgesic effects of opioids: opioid-induced respiratory depression. *Curr Pharm Des* 18, 5994– 6004. doi:10.2174/138161212803582469.

Boschiero, M. N., Palamim, C. V. C., Ortega, M. M., Mauch, R. M., and Marson, F. A. L. (2021). One Year of Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) in Brazil: A Political and Social Overview. *Ann Glob Health* 87, 44. doi:10.5334/aogh.3182.

Bruijnzeel, A. W. (2009). kappa-Opioid receptor signaling and brain reward function. *Brain Res Rev* 62, 127–146. doi:10.1016/j.brainresrev.2009.09.008.

Burki, N. K., and Lee, L.-Y. (2010). Mechanisms of Dyspnea. *Chest* 138, 1196–1201. doi:10.1378/chest.10-0534.

Cales, R. H., Cales, S. C., Shreffler, J., and Huecker, M. R. (2021). The COVID-19 pandemic and opioid use disorder: Expanding treatment with buprenorphine, and combining safety precautions with telehealth. *J Subst Abuse Treat*, 108543. doi:10.1016/j.jsat.2021.108543.

CDC WONDER Available at: https://wonder.cdc.gov/ [Accessed October 24, 2021].

Chang, R., Elhusseiny, K. M., Yeh, Y.-C., and Sun, W.-Z. (2021). COVID-19 ICU and mechanical ventilation patient characteristics and outcomes-A systematic review and metaanalysis. *PLoS One* 16, e0246318. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0246318.

Chaves-Cardona, H., Hernandez-Torres, V., Kiley, S., and Renew, J. (2021). Neuromuscular blockade management in patients with COVID-19. *Korean J Anesthesiol* 74, 285–292. doi:10.4097/kja.21106.

Chavkin, C. (2011). The Therapeutic Potential of κ-Opioids for Treatment of Pain and Addiction. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 36, 369–370. doi:10.1038/npp.2010.137.

Chiu, T. H., Yeh, M. H., Tsai, S. K., and Mok, M. S. (1993). Electrophysiological actions of alfentanil: intracellular studies in the rat locus coeruleus neurones. *Br J Pharmacol* 110, 903–909. doi:10.1111/j.1476-5381.1993.tb13898.x.

Cismaru, C. A., Cismaru, G. L., Nabavi, S. F., Ghanei, M., Burz, C. C., Nabavi, S. M., et al. (2021). Multiple potential targets of opioids in the treatment of acute respiratory distress syndrome from COVID-19. *J Cell Mol Med* 25, 591–595. doi:10.1111/jcmm.15927.

Columb, D., Hussain, R., and O'Gara, C. (2020). Addiction psychiatry and COVID-19: impact on patients and service provision. *Ir J Psychol Med* 37, 164–168. doi:10.1017/ipm.2020.47.

Coronavírus Brasil Available at: https://covid.saude.gov.br/ [Accessed August 13, 2021].

CNM (2021). *Agência Brasil*. Available at: https://agenciabrasil.ebc.com.br/saude/noticia/2021-04/quase-mil-cidades-temem-falta-deremedios-do-kit-intubacao-diz-cnm [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Davis, C. S., and Carr, D. H. (2019). Legal and policy changes urgently needed to increase access to opioid agonist therapy in the United States. *Int J Drug Policy* 73, 42–48. doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2019.07.006.

Dayer, L. E., Painter, J. T., McCain, K., King, J., Cullen, J., and Foster, H. R. (2019). A recent history of opioid use in the US: Three decades of change. *Substance Use & Misuse* 54, 331–339. doi:10.1080/10826084.2018.1517175.

Degenhardt, L., Grebely, J., Stone, J., Hickman, M., Vickerman, P., Marshall, B. D. L., et al. (2019). Global patterns of opioid use and dependence: harms to populations, interventions, and future action. *Lancet* 394, 1560–1579. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(19)32229-9.

Devlin, J. W., Skrobik, Y., Gélinas, C., Needham, D. M., Slooter, A. J. C., Pandharipande, P. P., et al. (2018). Clinical Practice Guidelines for the Prevention and Management of Pain, Agitation/Sedation, Delirium, Immobility, and Sleep Disruption in Adult Patients in the ICU. *Crit Care Med* 46, e825–e873. doi:10.1097/CCM.00000000003299.

Drożdżal, S., Rosik, J., Lechowicz, K., Machaj, F., Szostak, B., Majewski, P., et al. (2020). COVID-19: Pain Management in Patients with SARS-CoV-2 Infection-Molecular Mechanisms, Challenges, and Perspectives. *Brain Sci* 10, E465. doi:10.3390/brainsci10070465.

Egan, T. D., Lemmens, H. J., Fiset, P., Hermann, D. J., Muir, K. T., Stanski, D. R., et al. (1993). The pharmacokinetics of the new short-acting opioid remifentanil (GI87084B) in healthy adult male volunteers. *Anesthesiology* 79, 881–892. doi:10.1097/00000542-199311000-00004.

Elliott, L., Benoit, E., Matusow, H., and Rosenblum, A. (2017). Disaster preparedness among opioid treatment programs: Policy recommendations from state opioid treatment authorities. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction* 23, 152–159. doi:10.1016/j.ijdrr.2017.05.001.

EMCDDA Trendspotter briefing: impact of COVID-19 on patterns of drug use and drugrelated harms in Europe | www.emcdda.europa.eu Available at: https://www.emcdda.europa.eu/publications/ad-hoc-publication/impact-covid-19-patterns-druguse-and-harms_en [Accessed October 31, 2021].

Fantoni, D. T., Ambrosio, A. M., Futema, F., Migliati, E. R., and Tamura, E. Y. (1999). Utilização de alfentanil, sufentanil e fentanil em cães anestesiados com halotano. *Cienc. Rural* 29, 681–688. doi:10.1590/S0103-84781999000400019.

Fehosp (Federation of Santa Casas and other charitable hospitals of São Paulo) - News Available at: http://www.fehosp.com.br/noticias/detalhes/4434 [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Fiscella, K., Wakeman, S. E., and Beletsky, L. (2019). Buprenorphine Deregulation and Mainstreaming Treatment for Opioid Use Disorder: X the X Waiver. *JAMA Psychiatry* 76, 229–230. doi:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2018.3685.

Franchi, S., Moschetti, G., Amodeo, G., and Sacerdote, P. (2019). Do All Opioid Drugs Share the Same Immunomodulatory Properties? A Review From Animal and Human Studies. *Front Immunol* 10, 2914. doi:10.3389/fimmu.2019.02914.

Friedman, A., and Nabong, L. (2020). Opioids: Pharmacology, Physiology, and Clinical Implications in Pain Medicine. *Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am* 31, 289–303. doi:10.1016/j.pmr.2020.01.007.

FolhadeSãoPaulo.Availableat:https://www1.folha.uol.com.br/equilibrioesaude/2021/05/quatro-medicamentos-de-kit-intubacao-estao-em-falta-no-rio.shtml [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Galarneau, L. R., Hilburt, J., O'Neill, Z. R., Buxton, J. A., Scheuermeyer, F. X., Dong, K., et al. (2021). Experiences of people with opioid use disorder during the COVID-19 pandemic: A qualitative study. *PLoS One* 16, e0255396. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0255396.

Galduróz, J. C. F. N., and Cebrid, U. F. do E. de S. P.-U. E. P. de M.-E. C. B. de I. sobre D. P.- (2003). I Levantamento Domiciliar sobre o Uso de Drogas Psicotrópicas no Brasil: estudo envolvendo as 107 maiores cidades do país. Available at: http://www.cebrid.epm.br/levantamento_brasil/parte_1.pdf [Accessed October 23, 2021].

Gili, A., Bacci, M., Aroni, K., Nicoletti, A., Gambelunghe, A., Mercurio, I., et al. (2021). Changes in Drug Use Patterns during the COVID-19 Pandemic in Italy: Monitoring a Vulnerable Group by Hair Analysis. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 18, 1967. doi:10.3390/ijerph18041967.

Gisev, N., Bharat, C., Larney, S., Dobbins, T., Weatherburn, D., Hickman, M., et al. (2019). The effect of entry and retention in opioid agonist treatment on contact with the criminal justice system among opioid-dependent people: a retrospective cohort study. *Lancet Public Health* 4, e334–e342. doi:10.1016/S2468-2667(19)30060-X.

Gozzani, J. L. (1994). Opióides e Antagonistas. Rev. bras. anestesiol, 65-73.

Green, T. C., Bratberg, J., and Finnell, D. S. (2020). Opioid use disorder and the COVID 19 pandemic: A call to sustain regulatory easements and further expand access to treatment. *Subst Abus* 41, 147–149. doi:10.1080/08897077.2020.1752351.

Guan, W.-J., Ni, Z.-Y., Hu, Y., Liang, W.-H., Ou, C.-Q., He, J.-X., et al. (2020). Clinical Characteristics of Coronavirus Disease 2019 in China. *N Engl J Med* 382, 1708–1720. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2002032.

Hannam, J. A., Borrat, X., Trocóniz, I. F., Valencia, J. F., Jensen, E. W., Pedroso, A., et al. (2016). Modeling Respiratory Depression Induced by Remifertanil and Propofol during Sedation and Analgesia Using a Continuous Noninvasive Measurement of pCO2. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 356, 563–573. doi:10.1124/jpet.115.226977.

Helms, J., Kremer, S., Merdji, H., Schenck, M., Severac, F., Clere-Jehl, R., et al. (2020). Delirium and encephalopathy in severe COVID-19: a cohort analysis of ICU patients. *Crit Care* 24, 491. doi:10.1186/s13054-020-03200-1.

Henderson, R., McInnes, A., Mackey, L., Bruised Head, M., Crowshoe, L., Hann, J., et al. (2021). Opioid use disorder treatment disruptions during the early COVID-19 pandemic and other emergent disasters: a scoping review addressing dual public health emergencies. *BMC Public Health* 21, 1471. doi:10.1186/s12889-021-11495-0.

Henriksen, G., and Willoch, F. (2008). Imaging of opioid receptors in the central nervous system. *Brain* 131, 1171–1196. doi:10.1093/brain/awm255.

Jeleazcov, C., Ihmsen, H., Saari, T. I., Rohde, D., Mell, J., Fröhlich, K., et al. (2016). Patientcontrolled Analgesia with Target-controlled Infusion of Hydromorphone in Postoperative Pain Therapy. *Anesthesiology* 124, 56–68. doi:10.1097/ALN.00000000000937.

Joshi, G. P., Warner, D. S., Twersky, R. S., and Fleisher, L. A. (2002). A comparison of the remifentanil and fentanyl adverse effect profile in a multicenter phase IV study. *J Clin Anesth* 14, 494–499. doi:10.1016/s0952-8180(02)00404-x.

Joudrey, P. J., Adams, Z. M., Bach, P., Van Buren, S., Chaiton, J. A., Ehrenfeld, L., et al. (2021). Methadone Access for Opioid Use Disorder During the COVID-19 Pandemic Within the United States and Canada. *JAMA Netw Open* 4, e2118223. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.18223.

Kapp, C. M., Zaeh, S., Niedermeyer, S., Punjabi, N. M., Siddharthan, T., and Damarla, M. (2020). The Use of Analgesia and Sedation in Mechanically Ventilated Patients With COVID-19

Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. *Anesth Analg* 131, e198–e200. doi:10.1213/ANE.00000000005131.

Khatri, U. G., and Perrone, J. (2020). Opioid Use Disorder and COVID-19: Crashing of the Crises. *J Addict Med* 14, e6–e7. doi:10.1097/ADM.00000000000684.

Kosten, T. R., and George, T. P. (2002). The Neurobiology of Opioid Dependence: Implications for Treatment. *Sci Pract Perspect* 1, 13–20.

Kotfis, K., Williams Roberson, S., Wilson, J. E., Dabrowski, W., Pun, B. T., and Ely, E. W. (2020). COVID-19: ICU delirium management during SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. *Crit Care* 24, 176. doi:10.1186/s13054-020-02882-x.

Krawczyk, N., Silva, P. L. do N., De Boni, R. B., Mota, J., Vascncellos, M., Bertoni, N., et al. (2020). Non-medical use of opioid analgesics in contemporary Brazil: Findings from the 2015 Brazilian National Household Survey on Substance Use. *Global Public Health* 15, 299–306. doi:10.1080/17441692.2019.1629610.

Lambert, D. G., Atcheson, R., Hirst, R. A., and Rowbotham, D. J. (1993). Effects of morphine and its metabolites on opiate receptor binding, cAMP formation and [3H]noradrenaline release from SH-SY5Y cells. *Biochem Pharmacol* 46, 1145–1150. doi:10.1016/0006-2952(93)90462-6.

LeGrand, S. B., Khawam, E. A., Walsh, D., and Rivera, N. I. (2003). Opioids, respiratory function, and dyspnea. *Am J Hosp Palliat Care* 20, 57–61. doi:10.1177/104990910302000113.

Leino, K., Mildh, L., Lertola, K., Seppälä, T., and Kirvelä, O. (1999). Time course of changes in breathing pattern in morphine- and oxycodone-induced respiratory depression. *Anaesthesia* 54, 835–840. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2044.1999.00946.x.

Li, S., Cohen-Karni, D., Kovaliov, M., Tomycz, N., Cheng, B., Whiting, D., et al. (2017). Synthesis and biological evaluation of fentanyl acrylic derivatives. *RSC Adv.* 7, 20015–20019. doi:10.1039/C7RA01346A.

Localiza SUS Available at: https://localizasus.saude.gov.br/ [Accessed May 15, 2021].

Lötsch, J. (2005). Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic modeling of opioids. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 29, S90-103. doi:10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2005.01.012.

Magura, S., and Rosenblum, A. (2001). Leaving methadone treatment: lessons learned, lessons forgotten, lessons ignored. *Mt Sinai J Med* 68, 62–74.

Mahler, D. L., and Forrest, W. H. (1975). Relative Analgesic Potencies of Morphine and Hydromorphone in Postoperative Pain. *Anesthesiology* 42, 602–607. doi:10.1097/00000542-197505000-00021.

Mariottini, C., Ojanperä, I., and Kriikku, P. (2021). Increase in drugs-of-abuse findings in post-mortem toxicology due to COVID-19 restrictions—First observations in Finland. *Drug Testing and Analysis* 13, 867–870. doi:10.1002/dta.2982.

Martin, D. C., Introna, R. P., and Aronstam, R. S. (1991). Fentanyl and sufentanil inhibit agonist binding to 5-HT1A receptors in membranes from the rat brain. *Neuropharmacology* 30, 323–327. doi:10.1016/0028-3908(91)90056-h.

Mehtani, N. J., Ristau, J. T., Snyder, H., Surlyn, C., Eveland, J., Smith-Bernardin, S., et al. (2021). COVID-19: A catalyst for change in telehealth service delivery for opioid use disorder management. *Substance Abuse* 42, 205–212. doi:10.1080/08897077.2021.1890676.

Monje, B., Giménez-Manzorro, Á., Ortega-Navarro, C., Herranz-Alonso, A., and Sanjurjo-Sáez, M. (2019). Trends in hospital consumption of analgesics after the implementation of a pain performance improvement plan. *Rev. Bras. Anestesiol.* 69, 259–265. doi:10.1016/j.bjane.2018.12.007.

Montandon, G., Qin, W., Liu, H., Ren, J., Greer, J. J., and Horner, R. L. (2011). PreBotzinger complex neurokinin-1 receptor-expressing neurons mediate opioid-induced respiratory depression. *J Neurosci* 31, 1292–1301. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4611-10.2011.

Mota, P. (2020). Avoiding a new epidemic during a pandemic: The importance of assessing the risk of substance use disorders in the COVID-19 era. *Psychiatry Res* 290, 113142. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113142.

MS-SUS COVID-19 Medications Available at: https://qsprod.saude.gov.br/extensions/DEMAS_C19Insumos_MEDICAMENTOS/DEMAS_C1 9Insumos_MEDICAMENTOS.html [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Nabati, S., Asadikaram, G., Arababadi, M. K., Shahabinejad, G., Rezaeian, M., Mahmoodi, M., et al. (2013). The plasma levels of the cytokines in opium-addicts and the effects of opium on

the cytokines secretion by their lymphocytes. *Immunol Lett* 152, 42–46. doi:10.1016/j.imlet.2013.04.003.

National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine; Health and Medicine Division; Board on Population Health and Public Health Practice; Committee on the Examination of the Integration of Opioid and Infectious Disease Prevention Efforts in Select Programs (2020). *Opportunities to Improve Opioid Use Disorder and Infectious Disease Services: Integrating Responses to a Dual Epidemic*. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US) Available at: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK555809/ [Accessed October 24, 2021].

Niles, J. K., Gudin, J., Radcliff, J., and Kaufman, H. W. (2021). The Opioid Epidemic Within the COVID-19 Pandemic: Drug Testing in 2020. *Popul Health Manag* 24, S-43-S-51. doi:10.1089/pop.2020.0230.

Olafson, K., Ramsey, C. D., Ariano, R. E., Stasiuk, A., Siddiqui, F., Wong, D., et al. (2012). Sedation and analgesia usage in severe pandemic H1N1 (2009) infection: a comparison to respiratory failure secondary to other infectious pneumonias. *Ann Pharmacother* 46, 9–20. doi:10.1345/aph.1Q446.

Opioid Basics | CDC's Response to the Opioid Overdose Epidemic | CDC (2021). Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/opioids/basics/index.html [Accessed October 24, 2021].

Page, V. (2021). Sedation in mechanically ventilated patients with COVID-19. *Lancet Respir Med* 9, 218–219. doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30570-1.

Palladone capsules 1.3 mg - Summary of Product Characteristics (SmPC) - (emc) Available at: https://www.medicines.org.uk/emc/product/7686/smpc#gref [Accessed October 31, 2021].

Pandharipande, P. P., Patel, M. B., and Barr, J. (2014). Management of pain, agitation, and delirium in critically ill patients. *Pol Arch Med Wewn* 124, 114–123. doi:10.20452/pamw.2136.

Pattinson, K. T. S. (2008). Opioids and the control of respiration. *British Journal of Anaesthesia* 100, 747–758. doi:10.1093/bja/aen094.

Products - Vital Statistics Rapid Release - Provisional Drug Overdose Data (2021). Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nvss/vsrr/drug-overdose-data.htm [Accessed October 31, 2021].

Pun, B. T., Badenes, R., Heras La Calle, G., Orun, O. M., Chen, W., Raman, R., et al. (2021). Prevalence and risk factors for delirium in critically ill patients with COVID-19 (COVID-D): a multicentre cohort study. *Lancet Respir Med* 9, 239–250. doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30552-X.

Quah, P., Li, A., and Phua, J. (2020). Mortality rates of patients with COVID-19 in the intensive care unit: a systematic review of the emerging literature. *Crit Care* 24, 285. doi:10.1186/s13054-020-03006-1.

Ranzani, O. T., Bastos, L. S. L., Gelli, J. G. M., Marchesi, J. F., Baião, F., Hamacher, S., et al. (2021). Characterisation of the first 250,000 hospital admissions for COVID-19 in Brazil: a retrospective analysis of nationwide data. *Lancet Respir Med* 9, 407–418. doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30560-9.

RECOVERY Collaborative Group, Horby, P., Lim, W. S., Emberson, J. R., Mafham, M., Bell, J. L., et al. (2021). Dexamethasone in Hospitalized Patients with Covid-19. *N Engl J Med* 384, 693–704. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2021436.

Rename (Essential Medication National List) — Português (Brasil) Available at: https://www.gov.br/saude/pt-br/assuntos/assistencia-farmaceutica-no-sus/rename [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Riker, R. R., Shehabi, Y., Bokesch, P. M., Ceraso, D., Wisemandle, W., Koura, F., et al. (2009). Dexmedetomidine vs midazolam for sedation of critically ill patients: a randomized trial. *JAMA* 301, 489–499. doi:10.1001/jama.2009.56.

Roan, J. P., Bajaj, N., Davis, F. A., and Kandinata, N. (2018). Opioids and Chest Wall Rigidity During Mechanical Ventilation. *Ann Intern Med* 168, 678. doi:10.7326/L17-0612.

Rudd, R. A. (2016). Increases in Drug and Opioid-Involved Overdose Deaths — United States, 2010–2015. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 65. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm655051e1.

Samet, J. H., Botticelli, M., and Bharel, M. (2018). Methadone in Primary Care - One Small Step for Congress, One Giant Leap for Addiction Treatment. *N Engl J Med* 379, 7–8. doi:10.1056/NEJMp1803982.

Schwarzacher, S. W., Rüb, U., and Deller, T. (2011). Neuroanatomical characteristics of the human pre-Bötzinger complex and its involvement in neurodegenerative brainstem diseases. *Brain* 134, 24–35. doi:10.1093/brain/awq327.

Seyler, T., Giraudon, I., Noor, A., Mounteney, J., and Griffiths, P. (2021). Is Europe facing an opioid epidemic: What does European monitoring data tell us? *European Journal of Pain* 25, 1072–1080. doi:10.1002/ejp.1728.

Sordo, L., Barrio, G., Bravo, M. J., Indave, B. I., Degenhardt, L., Wiessing, L., et al. (2017). Mortality risk during and after opioid substitution treatment: systematic review and meta-analysis of cohort studies. *BMJ* 357, j1550. doi:10.1136/bmj.j1550.

Statistical Bulletin 2021 — prevalence of drug use | www.emcdda.europa.eu Available at: https://www.emcdda.europa.eu/data/stats2021/gps_en [Accessed October 31, 2021].

Stein, C., and Lang, L. J. (2009). Peripheral mechanisms of opioid analgesia. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 9, 3–8. doi:10.1016/j.coph.2008.12.009.

Stowe, M.-J., Scheibe, A., Shelly, S., and Marks, M. (2020). COVID-19 restrictions and increased risk of overdose for street-based people with opioid dependence in South Africa. *S Afr Med J* 110, 12939. doi:10.7196/SAMJ.2020.v110i6.14832.

Summary of H.R. 2482 (116th): Mainstreaming Addiction Treatment Act of 2019 *GovTrack.us*. Available at: https://www.govtrack.us/congress/bills/116/hr2482/summary [Accessed October 24, 2021].

SUS Available at: http://www.cremese.org.br/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=20986:suscompleta-20-anos-mas-nao-implanta-seus-principios-fundamentais&catid=3 [Accessed August 13, 2021].

Thylstrup, B., Seid, A. K., Tjagvad, C., and Hesse, M. (2020). Incidence and predictors of drug overdoses among a cohort of >10,000 patients treated for substance use disorder. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 206, 107714. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.107714.

Torrens, M., and Fonseca, F. (2021). Opioid use and misuse in Europe: COVID-19 new challenges? *European Neuropsychopharmacology*. doi:10.1016/j.euroneuro.2021.09.002.

Understanding the Epidemic | CDC's Response to the Opioid Overdose Epidemic | CDC (2021). Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/opioids/basics/epidemic.html [Accessed October 24, 2021].

Velavan, T. P., and Meyer, C. G. (2020). The COVID-19 epidemic. *Trop Med Int Health* 25, 278–280. doi:10.1111/tmi.13383.

Vieweg, W. V. R., Lipps, W. F. C., and Fernandez, A. (2005). Opioids and Methadone Equivalents for Clinicians. *Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry* 7, 86–88.

Villiger, J. W., Ray, L. J., and Taylor, K. M. (1983). Characteristics of [3H]fentanyl binding to the opiate receptor. *Neuropharmacology* 22, 447–452. doi:10.1016/0028-3908(83)90162-4.

Volkow, N. D., Icaza, M. E. M.-M., Poznyak, V., Saxena, S., Gerra, G., and Network, the U.-W. I. S. (2019). Addressing the opioid crisis globally. *World Psychiatry* 18, 231–232. doi:10.1002/wps.20633.

Wang, Q. Q., Kaelber, D. C., Xu, R., and Volkow, N. D. (2021). COVID-19 risk and outcomes in patients with substance use disorders: analyses from electronic health records in the United States. *Mol Psychiatry* 26, 30–39. doi:10.1038/s41380-020-00880-7.

WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard Available at: https://covid19.who.int [Accessed August 9, 2021].

Wilson, N., Kariisa, M., Seth, P., Smith, H., and Davis, N. L. (2020). Drug and Opioid-Involved Overdose Deaths - United States, 2017-2018. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 69, 290– 297. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm6911a4.

Xing, X.-Z., Gao, Y., Wang, H.-J., Qu, S.-N., Huang, C.-L., Zhang, H., et al. (2015). Effect of sedation on short-term and long-term outcomes of critically ill patients with acute respiratory insufficiency. *World J Emerg Med* 6, 147–152. doi:10.5847/wjem.j.1920-8642.2015.02.011.

Yu, V. C., and Sadée, W. (1988). Efficacy and tolerance of narcotic analgesics at the mu opioid receptor in differentiated human neuroblastoma cells. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 245, 350–355.

Zhang, Y., Geng, X., Tan, Y., Li, Q., Xu, C., Xu, J., et al. (2020). New understanding of the damage of SARS-CoV-2 infection outside the respiratory system. *Biomed Pharmacother* 127, 110195. doi:10.1016/j.biopha.2020.110195.

Medication	Mechanism	Pharmacokinetics	IC50	EC50	Potency*	Adverse	Place in	Patients care considerations	Available
Medication	of action	rnarmacokinetics	1050		Fotency.	events	therapy	Patients care considerations	at SUS
								(i) Prolonged and unpredictable	
Fentanyl								clearance can be extended	
								beyond infusion	
		(i) Ongoti immodiate						discontinuation	
	Mu-opioid receptor agonist	(i) Onset: immediate(ii) Duration 3-60 min				Chest wall		(ii) Risk of hypotension lower	
			<20 mM	1.58 ± 0.04 nM	80-100x	rigidity with		than morphine	Yes
		(iii) T1/2 >100 min (iv) Elimination t1/2: 2- 4 h	<20 nM			rapid infusion		(iii) Accumulation in hepatic	res
								dysfunction	
								(iv) Fentanyl patch is an	
								alternative, but consider	
								absorption (delayed onset and	
								offset) and effect issues	
								(i) Metabolite can accumulate	
								in kidney dysfunction	
	Mu-opioid	(i) Onset: 5-10 min				Hypotensio		(ii) Accumulation of	
Momhina	•	(ii) Duration: 3-5 h	193 nM	50-100	1		First-line	morphine-6-glucorinide and	Yes
Morphine	receptor agonist	(iii) Elimination T1/2:	195 IIIVI	nM	1x		and therapy ycardia	morphine-3-glucorinide can	168
						brauycarua		cause neurotoxicity	
								(iii) Enteral morphine is an	
								alternative during shortage	

TABLE 1. Characteristics of the main opioids used in patients affected by the coronavirus disease (COVID-19). Adapted from Ammar et al. 2020

Hydromorp hone	Mu-opioid receptor agonist	 (i) Onset: 15-30 min (ii) Duration: 3-4 h (iii) Metabolized into hydromorphone-3- glucorinide (iv) Elimination T1/2: 2- 3 h 	>50 μM	>0.41 nM	0.9 to 1.2 mg is equivalent to 10mg morphine	Hypotensio n	First-line therapy	 (i) 5-7 times more potent than morphine (ii) Accumulation of hydromorphone-3-glucoronide in kidney dysfunction can cause neurotoxicity 	No
Remifentani 1	Mu-opioid receptor agonist	 (i) Onset: 1-3 min (ii) Duration: 3-10 min (iii) Offset: 5-10 min (iv) Terminal T1/2: 10-20 min (v) Metabolized by blood and esterase 	0.19 nM	30 nM	100-200x	Hypotensio n and chest wall rigidity	Alternative therapy	 (i) Monitor for opiate withdrawal symptoms for 24h after discontinuation (ii) No accumulation in hepatic/renal failure (iii) Can cause serotonin syndrome with concomitant use with serotonergic agents 	Yes
Sufentanil	Mu-opioid receptor agonist	 (i) Onset: 1-3 (IV) and 30 min (sublingual) (ii) Duration: 2 h (IV) and 3 h (sublingual) (iii) T1/2: >100 min (IV) and 3 h (sublingual) 	5.5 nM	1.8 ± 0.8 nM	500-1000x	Bradyarrhyt hmia and hypotension	Alternative therapy	 (i) Can cause serotonin syndrome with concomitant use with serotonergic agents (ii) 5-10 times more potent than fentanyl 	No

								(i) 5 times more potent than	
	Mu-opioid	(i) Onset: 5 min		1 749		Hypotensio	Alternative	fentanyl	
Alfentanil	receptor	(ii) Duration: 30-60 min	2.5 nM	1,248 ±	8-20x			(ii) Can cause serotonin	No
	agonist	(iii) T1/2: 1.5-2 h		391 nM		n	therapy	syndrome with concomitant use	
								with serotonergic agents	
								(i) Long half-life	
								(ii) Prolonged effect with	
	Mu-opioid	(i) Onset: 0.5-1h (PO)					Opioid	hepatic and renal dysfunction	
	receptor	and 10-20 min (IV)				OT -	conservation	(iii) Elimination half-life does	
N (- (1 1	agonist and	(ii) Duration: 12-48 h	NI	NU	150	QTc	and	not match short duration of	N.
Methadone	NMDA	(iii) T1/2: 8-59 h	NI	NI	150x	prolongatio	adjuvant	analgesic effect	No
	receptor	(iv) Reaching steady				n	therapy	(iv) Caution with	
	agonist	state in 3-5 days						administration of other drug	
								which can enhance QTc	
								prolongation	

IV, intravenous; PO, per oral; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor; QTc, Corrected QT Interval; IC50, half the maximum inhibitory concentration; EC50, concentration of a drug that gives half-maximal response; NI, not informed.

*Potency is compared to morphine

Adapted from (Ammar et al., 2021)

References: (Mahler and Forrest, 1975; Villiger et al., 1983; Yu and Sadée, 1988; Martin et al., 1991; Chiu et al., 1993; Lambert et al., 1993; Gozzani, 1994, 1994; Fantoni et al., 1999; Lötsch, 2005; Vieweg et al., 2005; Hannam et al., 2016, 2; Jeleazcov et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Palladone capsules 1.3 mg - Summary of Product Characteristics (SmPC) - (emc)).

		Type of opioid - N (%)*						
Brazilian Regions and states	Fentanyl	Morphine	Remifentanil	Total				
Southeast	1,878,032	87,880	16,985	1,982,897				
Espírito santo	24,016	840	40	24,896				
Minas Gerais	186,260	11,520	3,815	201,595				
Rio de Janeiro	582,956	21,070	NI	604,026				
São Paulo	1,084,800	54,450	13,130	1,152,380				
Northeast	1,358,149	230,970	39,515	1,628,634				
Alagoas	189,200	5,020	NI	194,220				
Bahia	279,125	21,420	17,305	317,850				
Ceará	312,740	134,500	2,250	449,490				
Maranhão	132,950	8,000	45	140,995				
Paraíba	99,824	27,370	2,000	129,194				
Pernambuco	22,585	7,210	NI	29,795				
Piauí	70,800	10,560	NI	81,360				
Rio Grande do Norte	160,260	12,200	5,415	177,875				
Sergipe	90,665	4,690	12,500	107,855				
Midwest	458,637	95,740	2,125	556,502				
Federal District	81,534	28,770	NI	110,304				
Goiás	100,734	1,070	880	102,684				
Mato Grosso do Sul	168,105	58,990	1,245	228,340				
Mato Grosso	108,264	6,910	NI	115,174				

TABLE 2. Epidemiological characteristics of COVID-19 cases, death, and distribution of opioids in the Brazilian states and Federal District.

North	794,861	84,550	7,485	886,896
Acre	93,355	32,300	NI	125,655
Amazonas	67,557	46,410	5,415	119,382
Amapá	117,410	NI	NI	117,410
Pará	173,971	NI	280	174,251
Rondônia	144,089	2,020	1,500	147,609
Roraima	138,089	1,350	290	139,729
Tocantins	60,390	2,470	NI	62,860
South	134,649	60,130	23,890	218,669
Paraná	58,024	14,310	20,560	92,894
Rio Grande do Sul	44,885	45,820	NI	90,705
Santa Catarina	31,740	NI	3,330	35,070

* Data last updated on $\overline{20/10/2021}$; ** Data last updated on 21/10/2021

NI, not informed

This data was collected up to 21 October 2021 from the Brazilian Ministry of Health website (Coronavírus Brasil; Localiza SUS). NI, not informed.

(Contiue) Table 2. Epidemiological characteristics of COVID-19 cases, death, and distribution of opioids in the Brazilian states and Federal District.

Brazilian Regions and states	COVID-19 confirmed cases ^{**}	Number of deaths due to COVID-19 ^{**}	Incidence per 100,000 inhabitants ^{**}	Mortality per 100.000 inhabitants ^{**}	Total opioids per confirmed COVID- 19 cases ^{**}	Total opioids per deaths due to COVID-19 ^{**}
Southeast	8,475,071	287,071	9,590	324	0.23	6.90
Espírito santo	600,914	12,796	14,953	318	0.04	1.94
Minas Gerais	2,172,199	55,281	10,261	261	0.09	3.64
Rio de Janeiro	1,308,908	67,697	7,581	392	0.46	8.92
São Paulo	4,393,050	151,297	9,566	329	0.26	7.61
Northeast	4,826,500	117,631	8,457	206	0.34	13.84
Alagoas	239,499	6,268	7,176	187	0.81	30.98
Bahia	1,241,122	26,992	8,345	181	0.26	11.77
Ceará	942,351	24,393	10,319	267	0.48	18.42
Maranhão	359,227	10,219	5,077	144	0.39	13.79
Paraíba	444,184	9,380	11,054	233	0.29	13.77
Pernambuco	627,188	19,914	6,562,	208	0.05	1.49
Piauí	323,274	7,073	9,876	216	0.25	11.50
Rio Grande do Norte	371,278	7,368	10,587	210	0.48	24.14

Sergipe	278,377	6,024	12,110	262	0.39	17.90
Midwest	2,318,879	58,012	14,229	356	0.24	9.59
Federal District	512,089	10,745	16,983	356	0.22	10.26
Goiás	890,310	23,987	12,685	342	0.12	4.28
Mato Grosso do Sul	375,571	9,626	13,515	346	0.61	23.72
Mato Grosso	540,909	13,654	15,523	392	0.21	8.43
North	1,857,010	46,729	10,075	253	0.48	18.97
Acre	88,019	1,842	9,980	208	1.43	68.21
Amazonas	427,304	13,761	10,309	332	0.28	8.67
Amapá	123,342	1,989	14,584	235	0.95	59.02
Pará	595,995	16,713	6,928	194	0.29	10.42
Rondônia	268,187	6,559	15,090	369	0.55	22.50
Roraima	127,010	2,019	20,967	333	1.10	69.20
Tocantins	227,153	3,846	14,442	244	0.28	16.34
South	4,203,028	94,785	14,021	316	0.05	2.30
Paraná	1,539,756	40,002	13,466	350	0.06	2.32
Rio Grande do Sul	1,454,824	35,252	12,787	310	0.06	2.57
Santa Catarina	1,208,448	19,531	16,866	350	0.03	1.79

* Data last updated on 20/10/2021; ** Data last updated on 21/10/2021

NI, not informed

This data was collected up to 21 October 2021 from the Brazilian Ministry of Health website (Coronavírus Brasil; Localiza SUS). NI, not informed.

4. Conclusão

A literatura descreve valores da PEEP ideal como ainda controversos, talvez isso se deva ao fato de os estudos apontarem que a melhor estratégia para a escolha dela seria a titulação guiada pela melhor complacência, o que indica que a mecânica ventilatória é de fundamental importância nos ajustes dos parâmetros do ventilador mecânico. Outra forte evidência acerca da importância do conhecimento da mecânica ventilatória é o fato da *driving pressure* mostrar influência significativa no desfecho clínico no paciente sob VMI. Assim, infere-se que os diferentes valores da PEEP se devem ao fato da individualidade da mecânica ventilatória em cada paciente, assumindo ainda, que ela sofre influência de acordo com a fisiologia associada a cada doença.

Nosso estudo epidemiológico apontou taxa de mortalidade de 39,5% e dentre os preditores foram considerados o sexo (feminino), a idade (idosos), o diagnóstico admissional de sepse e o acidente vascular cerebral, a hipoxemia e o emprego da PEEP acima de 8 cmH₂O. Apesar de haver fatores preditores que não podem ser alterados, há aqueles que o manejo pode mudar reduzindo sua influência no desfecho; por sua vez, a PEEP mostrou ser uma ferramenta beira leito que pode ser titulada a fim de melhorar o desfecho clínico. Evitar a ocorrência de hipoxemia pela correta oferta de oxigênio e PEEP também pode reduzir a taxa de mortalidade; sendo que a PEEP deve ser titulada e personalizada ao paciente. Campanhas e acesso à serviço preventivo de saúde à população pode reduzir a incidência de acidente vascular cerebral e infecções, além de controlar a prevalência de outros fatores, tais como diabetes mellitus e a hipertensão arterial sistêmica, que foram frequentes em nossa casuística.

Em indivíduos sob VMI sem pneumopatias o incremento na PEEP não foi associado a alterações na hemodinâmica, na hematose e na driving pressure; podendo, estes valores, serem utilizados com segurança á beira leito. Ainda nesses termos podemos sugerir o uso de níveis de PEEP mais baixos, no intuito de otimizar uma ventilação protetora nos pacientes sob VMI.

A importância do uso racional e individualizado de medicamentos hipnóticos analgésicos e anestésicos sedativos deve ser considerada em todos os momentos, principalmente em situações de elevada demanda como a pandemia da COVID-19. Nesse contexto, é evidente que a presença de

uma equipe multidisciplinar treinada e experiente, educação continuada frequente e boa administração, principalmente, no setor público de saúde são fatores que contribuem no manejo destas drogas. Diante de uma doença nova (COVID-19) e que cursa com longos períodos de internação e VMI, a titulação criteriosa e individualizada de opioides se mostra ainda mais evidente, principalmente, devido a dois fatores, escassez da droga e decorrente dos efeitos que seu uso prolongado pode acarretar o paciente.

5. Referência

1. Barbas CSV, Ísola AM, Farias AMC, Cavalcanti AB, Gama AMC, Duarte ACM, Vianna A, Serpa Neto A, Bravim BA, Pinheiro BV, Mazza BF, Carvalho CRR, Toufen Júnior C, David CMN, Taniguchi C, Mazza DDS, Dragosavac D, Toledo DP, Costa EL, Caser EB, Silva E, Amorim FF, Saddy F, Galas FRBG, Silva GS, Matos GFJ, Emmerich JC, Valiatti JLS, Teles JMM, Victorino JA, Ferreira JC, Prodomo LPV, Hajjar LA, Martins LC, Malbouisson LMS, Vargas MAO, Reis MAS, Amato MBP, Holanda MA, Park M, Jacomelli M, Tavares M, Damasceno MCP, Assunção MSC, Damasceno MPCD, Youssef NCM, Teixeira PJZ, Caruso P, Duarte PAD, Messeder O, Eid RC, Rodrigues RG, Jesus RF, Kairalla RA, Justino S, Nemer SN, Romero SB, Amado VM. Brazilian recommendations of mechanical ventilation 2013. Part I. Rev Bras TerIntensiva 2014;26(2):89-121.

2. West JB. Fisiologia respiratória: Princípios básicos. Artmed. 9a edição, 2013.

3. Gattinoni L, Tonetti T, Cressoni M, Cadringher P, Herrmann P, Moerer O, Protti A, Gotti M, Chiurazzi C, Carlesso E, Chiumello D, Quintel M. Ventilator-related causes of lung injury: the mechanical power. Intensive Care Med. 2016;42(10):1567-1575. doi: 10.1007/s00134-016-4505-2.

4. Gattinoni L, Carlesso E, Cressoni M. Selecting the 'right' positive end-expiratory pressure level. Curr Opin Crit Care. 2015;21(1):50-57. doi: 10.1097/MCC.00000000000166.

5. Alviar CL, Miller PE, McAreavey D, Katz JN, Lee B, Moriyama B, Soble J, van Diepen S, Solomon MA, Morrow DA; ACC Critical Care Cardiology Working Group. Positive Pressure Ventilation in the Cardiac Intensive Care Unit. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2018;72(13):1532-1553. doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2018.06.074.

6. Marini JJ. Should we embrace "open lung" approach? Crit Care Med. 2016;44(1):237-238. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000001489.

7. Bugedo G, Retamal J, Bhrun A. Driving Pressure: a marker of severity, a safety limit, or a goal for mechanical ventilation? Critical Care. 2017;21:199. doi: 10.1186/s13054-017-1779-x.

8. Fórum de Diretrizes de Ventilação Mecânica 1. Diretrizes Brasileiras de Ventilação Mecânica 2013. São Paulo: AMIB; 2013.

9. Borges DL, Nina VJ, Costa Mde A, Baldez TE, Santos NP, Lima IM, Figuerêdo ED, Lula JL. Effects of different PEEP levels on respiratory mechanics and oxygenation after coronary artery bypass grafting. Rev Bras Cir Cardiovasc. 2013;28(3):380-385. doi: 10.5935/1678-9741.20130058.

10. Sen O, Doventas YE. Effects of different levels of end-expiratory pressure on hemodynamic, respiratory mechanics and systemic stress response during laparoscopic cholecystectomy. Rev BrasAnestesiol. 2017;67(1):28-34. doi: 10.1016/j.bjane.2015.08.015.

11. Bugedo G, Retamal J, Bruhn A. Does the use of high PEEP levels prevent ventilatorinduced lung injury? Rev Bras Ter Intensiva. 2016;29(2):231-237. doi: 10.5935/0103-507X.20170032.

12. Pensier J, de Jong A, Hajjej Z, Molinari N, Carr J, Belafia F, Chanques G, Futier E, Azoulay E, Jaber S. Effect of lung recruitment maneuver on oxygenation, physiological parameters and mortality in acute respiratory distress syndrome patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Intensive Care Med. 2019;45(12):1691-1702. doi: 10.1007/s00134-019-05821-9.

13. WritingGroup for the Alveolar Recruitment for AcuteRespiratoryDistressSyndromeTrial (ART) Investigators, Cavalcanti AB, Suzumura ÉA, Laranjeira LN, Paisani DM, Damiani LP, Guimarães HP, Romano ER, Regenga MM, Taniguchi LNT, Teixeira C, Pinheiro de Oliveira R, Machado FR, Diaz-Quijano FA, Filho MSA, Maia IS, Caser EB, Filho WO, Borges MC, Martins PA, Matsui M, Ospina-Tascón GA, Giancursi TS, Giraldo-Ramirez ND, Vieira SRR, Assef MDGPL, Hasan MS, Szczeklik W, Rios F, Amato MBP, Berwanger O, Ribeiro de Carvalho CR. Effect of lung recruitment and titrated positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) vs Low PEEP on mortality in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome: a randomized clinical Trial. JAMA. 2017;318(14):1335-1345. doi: 10.1001/jama.2017.14171.

14. Walkey AJ, Del Sorbo L, Hodgson CL, Adhikari NKJ, Wunsch H, Meade MO, Uleryk E, Hess D, Talmor DS, Thompson BT, Brower RG, Fan E. Higher PEEP versus Lower PEEP

strategies for patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. A systematic review and metaanalysis. Ann Am Thorac Soc. 2017;14(4):S297-S303. doi: 10.1513/AnnalsATS.201704-3380T.

15. Sahetya SK, Goligher EC, Brower RG. Fifty years of research in ARDS. Setting positive end-expiratory pressure in acute respiratory distress syndrome. Am J RespirCritCare Med. 2017;195(11):1429-1438. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201610-2035CI.

16. Marini JJ. Should we titrated end-expiratory pressure based on an end-expiratory transpulmonary pressure?. Ann Transl Med. 2018;6(19):391. doi:10.21037/atm.2018.08.22

17. Barros DRC, Almeida CCB, Almeida Junior AAA, Grande RA, Ribeiro MAGO, Ribeiro JD. Association between oxygenation and ventilation index with the time on mechanical ventilation in pediatric intensive care patients. Rev PaulPediatr. 2011;29(3):348-351. doi: 10.1590/S0103-05822011000300007

18. Pisani L, Roozeman JP, Simonis FD, Giangregorio A, HoevenSM, Schouten LR, Horn J, Neto AS, Festic E, Dondorp AM, Grasso S, Bos LD, Schultz MJ. Risk stratification using SpO2/FiO2 and PEEP at initial ARDS diagnosis and after 24 h in patients with moderate or severe ARDS. Ann IntensiveCare 2017;7:108. doi: 10.1186/s13613-017-0327-9.

19. Viegas CAA. Gasometria arterial. J Pneum.2002;28(3):S233-238.

20. Ramos RP. Como a anemia pode influenciar negativamente as trocas gasosa? J Bras Pneumol. 2017;43(1):1-2. doi: 10.1590/S1806-37562017000100001.

21. Baumgardner JE, Markstaller K, Pfeiffer B, Doebrich M, Otto CM. Effects of respiratory rate, plateau pressure, and positive end-expiratory pressure on PaO2 oscillations after saline lavage. Am J RespirCrit Care Med. 2002;166(12 Pt 1):1556-1562.

22. Rezoagli E, Bellani G. How I set up positive end-expiratory pressure: evidence- and physiology-based! Crit Care 2019;23(1):412. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2695-z.

23. Girgis K, Hamed H, Khater Y, Kacmarek RM.A decremental PEEP trial identifies the PEEP level that maintains oxygenation after lung recruitment. Respir Care 2006;51(10):1132-1139.

24. Gernoth C, Wagner G, Pelosi P, Luecke T. Respiratory and haemodynamic changes during decremental open lung positive end-expiratory pressure titration in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. Crit Care 2009;13(2):R59. doi: 10.1186/cc7786.

25. Kim N, Lee SH, Choi KW, Lee H, Oh YJ. Effects of positive end-expiratory pressure on pulmonary oxygenation and biventricular function during one-lung ventilation: a randomized crossover study. J Clin Med. 2019;8(5). pii: E740. doi: 10.3390/jcm8050740.

26. Gonçalves-Ferri WA, Jauregui A, Martins-Celini FP, Sansano I, Fabro AT, Sacramento EMF, Aragon DC, Ochoa JM. Analysis of different levels of positive end-expiratory pressure during lung retrieval for transplantation: an experimental study. Braz J Med Biol Res. 2019;52(7):e8585. doi: 10.1590/1414-431X20198585.

27. Lanspa M J, Peltan I D, Jacobs J R, Sorensen J S, Carpenter L, Ferraro J P, Brown S M, Berry J G, Srivastava R, Grissom C K. Driving pressure is not associated with mortality in mechanically ventilated patients without ARDS. Critical Care. 2019;23(1):424. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2698-9.

28. Sahetya S K, Mallow C, Sevransky J E, Martin G S, Girard T D, Brower R G, Checkley W. Association between hospital mortality and inspiratory airway pressures in mechanically ventilated patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome: a prospective cohort study. 2019;23:367. doi: 10.1186/s13054-019-2635-y.

Anexos: Aprovação do CAAE



UNIVERSIDADE SÃO FRANCISCO-SP



PARECER CONSUBSTANCIADO DO CEP

DADOS DO PROJETO DE PESQUISA

Título da Pesquisa: Impacto da pressão positiva expiratória final no índice de oxigenação em participantes sem doença pulmonar prévia: um estudo de intervenção, clínico, não randomizado e controlado

Pesquisador: Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson Área Temática: Versão: 2 CAAE: 29718820.9.0000.5514 Instituição Proponente: Universidade São Francisco-SP Patrocinador Principal: Financiamento Próprio

DADOS DO PARECER

Número do Parecer: 3.988.122

Apresentação do Projeto:

Impacto da pressão positiva expiratória final no índice de oxigenação em participantes sem doença pulmonar prévia: um estudo de intervenção, clínico, não randomizado e controlado. Grande Área 4. Ciências da Saúde. Estudo Clínico. Condições de saúde ou problemas: Trauma. Ventilação mecânica invasiva. Descritores Gerais para as Condições de Saúde Código CID Descrição CID CID1-10: Classificação Internacional de Doenças - J44 - Outras doenças pulmonares obstrutivas crônicas. Descritores da Intervenção - Índice de oxigenação positive end-expiratory pressure. Será realizado um estudo de intervenção, clínico, não randomizado, controlado, com o intuito de quantificar, em porcentagem, o incremento na PaO2 utilizando diferentes níveis de positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) no mesmo participante sob VMI. A PaO2 será avaliada pela gasometria arterial (que, se na presença de acesso arterial periférico, a mesma será coletada por ele), que é realizada na rotina de atendimento dos pacientes submetidos à ventilação mecânica invasiva (VMI). Número Total de participantes: 150. Contemplará um grupo de pesquisa: Pacientes sob ventilação mecânica invasiva - Avaliação da PaO2 de acordo com o implemento do PEEP.

Objetivo da Pesquisa:

Objetivo Primário: Avaliar a resposta da PaO2 e do índice de oxigenação perante a aplicação de diferentes níveis (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) de PEEP em participantes submetidos à VMI. Objetivo

 Endereço:
 Av. São Francisco de Assis, 218, sala 35, prédio central

 Bairro:
 Cidade Universitária
 CEP: 12.916-900

 UF:
 SP
 Município:
 BRAGANCA PAULISTA

 Telefone:
 (11)2454-8302
 E-mail:
 comiteetica@usf.edu.br

Página 01 de 04



UNIVERSIDADE SÃO FRANCISCO-SP



Continuação do Parecer: 3.988.122

Avaliação dos Riscos e Benefícios:

Riscos: No estudo não haverá riscos adicionais ao participante em relação a prática da rotina. Além disso, o PEEP a ser avaliado como intervenção será realizado dentro da variabilidade padrão aceita internacionalmente e praticada na rotina hospitalar. Benefícios: O impacto do estudo será promover o conhecimento quanto ao incremento da PaO2 e, consequentemente, do índice de oxigenação, de maneira mais específica do que é conhecido atualmente, visando otimizar o manejo da ventilação mecânica invasiva (VMI) que é um recurso indispensável na unidade de terapia intensiva. Adicionalmente, será avaliada a hemodinâmica dos pacientes submetidos à VMI fornecendo numerosos marcadores a serem comparados entre os diferentes valores do PEEP.

Comentários e Considerações sobre a Pesquisa:

Trata-se da versão 2, o TCLE foi ajustado conforme necessidades apontadas pela relatoria deste CEP.

Considerações sobre os Termos de apresentação obrigatória:

Foram todos apresentados e estão de acordo.

Recomendações:

Não se aplica neste caso.

Conclusões ou Pendências e Lista de Inadequações:

Aprovado, não foram encontrados óbices éticos.

Considerações Finais a critério do CEP:

APÓS DISCUSSÃO EM REUNIÃO DO DIA 23/04/2020, O COLEGIADO DELIBEROU PELA APROVAÇÃO DO PROJETO DE PESQUISAS. APÓS A CONCLUSÃO DO PROJETO É OBRIGATÓRIO O ENVIO DO RELATÓRIO FINAL PARA ENCERRAMENTO DO PROJETO.

Tipo Documento	Arquivo	Postagem	Autor	Situação
Informações Básicas	PB_INFORMAÇÕES_BÁSICAS_DO_P	30/03/2020		Aceito
do Projeto	ROJETO_1515459.pdf	16:02:19		
Outros	CartaRespostaCamila.pdf	30/03/2020	Fernando Augusto de	Aceito
		15:43:32	Lima Marson	
Parecer Anterior	PB_PARECER_CONSUBSTANCIADO_	30/03/2020	Fernando Augusto de	Aceito
	CEP_3939784.pdf	15:42:19	Lima Marson	
Projeto Detalhado /	ProjetoMestradoCamilaVersao2.pdf	30/03/2020	Fernando Augusto de	Aceito
Brochura		15:41:57	Lima Marson	

Este parecer foi elaborado baseado nos documentos abaixo relacionados:

 Endereço:
 Av. São Francisco de Assis, 218, sala 35, prédio central

 Bairro:
 Cidade Universitária
 CEP: 12.916-900

 UF: SP
 Município:
 BRAGANCA PAULISTA

 Telefone:
 (11)2454-8302
 E-mail:
 comiteetica@usf.edu.br



UNIVERSIDADE SÃO FRANCISCO-SP



Continuação do Parecer: 3.988.122

Secundário: (i) avaliar o valor da PaO2 nos diferentes níveis de PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (ii) avaliar a repercussão hemodinâmica [SpO2, frequência cardíaca (batimentos por minuto), pressão arterial diastólica (mmHg), pressão arterial sistólica (mmHg) e pressão arterial média (mmHg)] associada aos diferentes níveis de PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (iii) quantificar, em porcentagem, o incremento da PaO2 nos diferentes níveis de PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (iv) avaliar a influência dos níveis de PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) na relação PaO2/FiO2 (denominado de índice de oxigenação) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (v) avaliar a influência da PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) na pressão arterial de CO2 (PaCO2) (mmHg) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (vi) avaliar a influência da PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) na SpO2, frequência cardíaca, pressão arterial diastólica, pressão arterial sistólica e pressão arterial média antes e após cada nível de PEEP; (vii) avaliar o número de eventos fora do padrão de normalidade denominados de hipoxemia e hiperóxia, pela presença de PaO2, respectivamente, abaixo e acima do valor de referência decorrente dos diferentes níveis de PEEP (seis ou oito ou 10 cmH2O) em participantes submetidos à VMI; (viii) realizar um estudo epidemiológico dos participantes submetidos à VMI na unidade de terapia intensiva do hospital universitário São Francisco de Assis nos últimos cinco anos de seguimento (2016 a 2020) com a descrição dos seguintes marcadores demográficos, clínicos e laboratoriais: sexo (masculino ou feminino), idade (anos), índice de massa corpórea (IMC, Kg/m2), PaO2 (mmHg), diagnóstico ou hipótese diagnóstica (p. ex. traumatismo crânio encefálico, politraumas, sepse, cirurgias eletivas, infarto agudo do miocárdio, acidente vascular encefálico, hemorragia subaracnóide, patologias neuromusculares, antecedentes pessoais de tabagismo, dislipidemia, diabetes tipos 1 e 2, obesidade, alergias, doenças neurológicas e psiquiátricas, cardiopatias, demência, sequelas motoras) e antecedentes pessoais (diabetes mellitus, hipertensão arterial sistêmica, tabagismo, etilismo, uso de drogas, dislipidemia, cardiopatia e pneumopatia). Os marcadores serão coletados pela análise dos prontuários eletrônicos, após aprovação do comitê de ética em pesquisa da Universidade São Francisco. A coleta de dados irá ser realizado no sistema Philips Tasy (Philips Healthcare®, Barueri, São Paulo, Brasil) de gestão hospitalar, no qual constam diagnósticos, avaliações, evoluções, monitorizações e exames complementares de todos os pacientes internados nestes períodos. Os dados dos marcadores poderão ser complementados, se necessário, pela pesquisa em prontuários físicos da instituição, sejam manuscritos ou impressos; (ix) realizar uma revisão sistemática da literatura considerando a influência dos diferentes níveis de PEEP no uso VMI (considerando os seguintes descritores: PEEP, adulto, SARS, PaO2 e índice de oxigenação) e associar os achados com os diferentes desfechos do paciente após a VMI.

Endereço: Av. São Francisco de Assis, 218, sala 35, prédio central									
Bairro: C	idade Universitária	CEP:	12.916-900						
UF: SP	Município:	BRAGANCA PAULISTA							
Telefone:	(11)2454-8302		E-mail:	comiteetica@usf.edu.br					

Página 02 de 04



UNIVERSIDADE SÃO FRANCISCO-SP



Continuação do Parecer: 3.988.122

Investigador	ProjetoMestradoCamilaVersao2.pdf	30/03/2020 15:41:57	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
Projeto Detalhado / Brochura Investigador	ProjetoMestradoCamilaVersao1.pdf	30/03/2020 15:41:47	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
TCLE / Termos de Assentimento / Justificativa de Ausência	TermoConsentimentoVersao1.pdf	30/03/2020 15:41:28	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
TCLE / Termos de Assentimento / Justificativa de Ausência	TermoConsentimentoVersao2.pdf	30/03/2020 15:39:42	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
Cronograma	CronogramaCamila.pdf	04/03/2020 14:40:22	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
Declaração de Instituição e Infraestrutura	ConcordanciaInstitucionalCamila.PDF	04/03/2020 14:39:13	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito
Folha de Rosto	CapaCamila.pdf	04/03/2020 14:38:09	Fernando Augusto de Lima Marson	Aceito

Situação do Parecer: Aprovado

Necessita Apreciação da CONEP: Não

BRAGANCA PAULISTA, 24 de Abril de 2020

Assinado por: CARLOS EDUARDO PULZ ARAUJO (Coordenador(a))

 Endereço:
 Av. São Francisco de Assis, 218, sala 35, prédio central

 Bairro:
 Cidade Universitária
 CEP: 12.916-900

 UF:
 SP
 Município:
 BRAGANCA PAULISTA

 Telefone:
 (11)2454-8302
 E-mail:
 comiteetica@usf.edu.br