

# Chapter 77

## Approach to Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS) in the ICU



### 77.1 Introduction

Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) is a severe, life-threatening condition characterized by acute onset of hypoxemia and bilateral pulmonary infiltrates, not fully explained by cardiac failure or fluid overload. It often complicates critical illnesses such as abdominal trauma and requires prompt recognition and management to reduce morbidity and mortality. This algorithm provides a systematic approach to ARDS management in the intensive care unit (ICU), emphasizing personalized strategies based on ARDS phenotypes, evidence-based interventions, and emerging therapies [1, 2] [Ref: Algorithm 77.1].

### 77.2 Diagnosis

#### 77.2.1 *Diagnosis Based on Berlin Definition of ARDS*

ARDS diagnosis is based on the following criteria:

- Acute Onset: Symptoms develop within 7 days of a known clinical insult.
- Bilateral Opacities: Detected on chest imaging (X-ray or CT scan), not fully explained by effusions, lobar/lung collapse, or nodules.
- Respiratory Failure Not Fully Explained by Cardiac Failure or Fluid Overload: Requires objective assessment (e.g., echocardiography) to exclude hydrostatic edema.
- Hypoxemia Severity (based on  $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$  ratio with  $\text{PEEP} \geq 5 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}$ ):
- Mild:  $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$  200–300 mmHg.

- Moderate:  $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ , 100–200 mmHg.
- Severe:  $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 < 100$  mmHg [3, 4]. Updated global definition: In non-intubated patients, ARDS can also be diagnosed when supported by HFNO at  $\geq 30$  L/min or NIV/CPAP with  $\geq 5$  cm H<sub>2</sub>O of end-expiratory pressure. Modified definition for resource-limited settings: ARDS may be diagnosed if  $\text{SpO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \leq 315$  (when  $\text{SpO}_2 \leq 97\%$ ), without requiring a minimum PEEP or oxygen flow rate.

Additionally, phenotyping ARDS into hyperinflammatory and hypoinflammatory types can guide therapeutic approaches, as different phenotypes may respond variably to treatments like corticosteroids or PEEP adjustments.

### **77.2.2 *Lung Ultrasound (LUS) Diagnosis of ARDS: (LUS ARDS Score)***

Combining LUS aeration score and LUS findings specific for ARDS (pleural abnormalities/subpleural consolidation).

LUS aeration score varies from 0 to 3.

Score 0: Presence of A-lines

Score 1: Presence of B-lines less than 50% of the pleura

Score 2: Presence of B-lines more than 50% of the pleura

Score 3: Presence of consolidation

LUS ARDS score is useful for assessing the severity of ARDS at admission for monitoring the response by lung aeration on a daily basis.

## **77.3 Management**

### **77.3.1 *Initial Stabilization with Noninvasive Ventilation (NIV)***

Consider NIV or High-Flow Nasal Cannula (HFNC) in patients with mild to moderate ARDS:

- Goal: Improve oxygenation while avoiding intubation.
- Monitoring: Closely observe for signs of NIV failure, such as worsening hypoxemia or increased work of breathing.
- Risks: Delayed intubation can worsen outcomes; therefore, NIV should be used cautiously, especially in early and severe ARDS.

### ***77.3.2 Tidal Volume Adjustment in Mechanical Ventilation***

Initiate Lung-Protective Ventilation:

- Low Tidal Volume (LTV): Set at 6 mL/kg of predicted body weight.
- Adjustments for High Chest Wall Elastance or Obesity: May require modification of tidal volumes to ensure adequate ventilation without overdistension.
- Plateau Pressure: Keep  $\leq 30$  cm H<sub>2</sub>O to minimize barotrauma.
- Driving Pressure Optimization: Aim to reduce driving pressure (plateau pressure minus PEEP) to lower the risk of ventilator-induced lung injury (VILI) [5].

### ***77.3.3 Positive End-Expiratory Pressure (PEEP) Strategy***

Individualize PEEP Settings:

- Use of Esophageal Manometry: To estimate transpulmonary pressure and tailor PEEP accordingly.
- Avoid Routine Lung Recruitment Maneuvers: Unless guided by expert opinion or in cases of refractory hypoxemia.
- Balance: Adequate PEEP improves alveolar recruitment, but excessive PEEP can cause hemodynamic instability and overdistension [6].

### ***77.3.4 Neuromuscular Blockade***

Consider Early Neuromuscular Blockade in severe ARDS:

- Timing: Early administration (within 48 h) can improve patient-ventilator synchrony.
- Benefits: Reduces VILI by preventing asynchrony and high transpulmonary pressures.
- Duration: Use the minimal effective duration to reduce risks associated with prolonged paralysis [7].

### ***77.3.5 Corticosteroid Therapy***

Assess the Use of Corticosteroids:

- Role: Can reduce inflammation and ventilator days in certain ARDS phenotypes.
- Risks: Monitor for secondary infections, hyperglycemia, and other side effects.
- Evidence: Recent studies suggest benefits in early administration but require careful patient selection.

### ***77.3.6 Prone Positioning***

Implement Early Prone Positioning in severe ARDS ( $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 < 150 \text{ mmHg}$ ):

- Duration: At least 16 h per day.
- Mechanisms:
- Improves ventilation-perfusion matching.
- Promotes more homogeneous distribution of stress and strain.
- Enhances alveolar recruitment.
- Monitoring: Watch for potential complications like pressure sores, dislodgement of tubes, or hemodynamic changes [8].

### ***77.3.7 Refractory Hypoxemia and Consideration of ECMO***

Evaluate for Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation (ECMO):

- Criteria:
- Severe hypoxemia ( $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 < 80 \text{ mmHg}$ ) despite optimal mechanical ventilation and adjunctive therapies.
- Hypercapnia with acidosis ( $\text{pH} < 7.20$ ) refractory to conventional management.
- Contraindications: Uncontrolled bleeding, irreversible organ failure, or contraindications to anticoagulation.
- Resource Considerations: ECMO requires specialized equipment and trained personnel; consider transfer to a specialized center if necessary.

### ***77.3.8 Conservative Fluid Management***

Implement Strategies to Reduce Pulmonary Edema:

- Maintain a Negative Fluid Balance:
- Use diuretics if hemodynamically stable.
- Restrict fluid intake while ensuring adequate tissue perfusion.
- Monitor Parameters:
  - Urine output.
  - Hemodynamic status (e.g., via central venous pressure or echocardiography).
  - Lactate levels as a marker of perfusion

### ***77.3.9 Adjunctive Measures and Emerging Therapies***

Investigate Emerging Therapies:

- Mesenchymal Stem Cells: Potential anti-inflammatory effects; currently under clinical trials.

- Extracorporeal CO<sub>2</sub> Removal: May allow ultra-protective ventilation strategies.
- Immunomodulators: Therapies targeting specific inflammatory pathways.
- Note: These therapies are experimental and not recommended for routine use outside of clinical trials.

### **77.3.10 *Lessons from COVID-19 and ARDS Management***

Apply Insights from COVID-19 ARDS:

- Lung-Protective Ventilation: Remains cornerstone therapy.
- High-Flow Nasal Cannula (HFNC): Effective in certain patients to improve oxygenation and reduce the need for intubation.
- Awake Prone Positioning: Can enhance oxygenation in spontaneously breathing patients.
- Adaptation: Tailor interventions based on individual patient response and emerging evidence.

### **77.3.11 *Long-Term Outcomes and Post-ARDS Care***

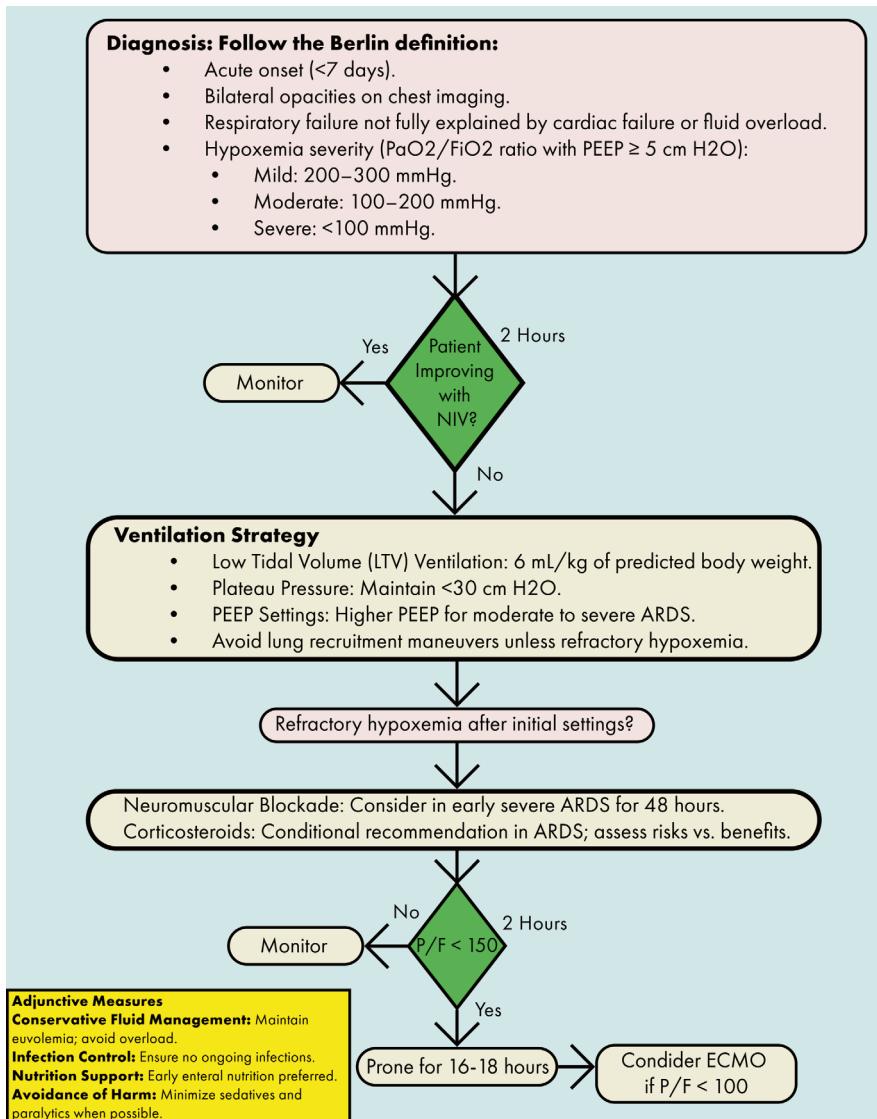
Recognize Post-ARDS Syndrome:

- Pulmonary Fibrosis: Can result in long-term respiratory dysfunction.
- Cognitive Dysfunction: Monitor for delirium and long-term cognitive deficits.
- Quality of Life Issues: Address physical weakness, psychological impact, and social reintegration.
- Follow-Up Care: Implement multidisciplinary rehabilitation programs to support recovery.

## **77.4 Conclusion**

Management of ARDS in the ICU requires a comprehensive and individualized approach. By incorporating ARDS phenotyping, optimizing ventilatory strategies, and utilizing adjunctive therapies judiciously, clinicians can improve patient outcomes. Emerging therapies offer hope but require further research. Lessons learned from the COVID-19 pandemic have enriched our understanding and management of ARDS. Attention to long-term outcomes is crucial for supporting patients beyond the ICU.

**Algorithm 77.1: Approach to acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in the ICU**



## Bibliography

1. Grasselli G, Calfee CS, Camporota L, Poole D, Amato MBP, Antonelli M, et al. ESICM guidelines on acute respiratory distress syndrome: definition, phenotyping and respiratory support strategies. *Intensive Care Med.* 2023;49(7):727–59.
2. Qadir N, Sahetya S, Munshi L, Summers C, Abrams D, Beitzler J, et al. An update on management of adult patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome: an official American Thoracic Society clinical practice guideline. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2024;209(1):24–36.
3. Cho YJ, Moon JY, Shin ES, Kim JH, Jung H, Park SY, et al. Clinical practice guideline of acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Tuberc Respir Dis (Seoul)*. 2016;79(4):214–33.
4. Fan E, Del Sorbo L, Goligher EC, Hodgson CL, Munshi L, Walkey AJ, et al. An official American Thoracic Society/European Society of Intensive Care Medicine/Society of Critical Care Medicine clinical practice guideline: mechanical ventilation in adult patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2017;195(9):1253–63.
5. Fujishima S. Guideline-based management of acute respiratory failure and acute respiratory distress syndrome. *J Intensive Care*. 2023;11(1):10.
6. Tasaka S, Ohshima S, Takeuchi M, Yasuda H, Ichikado K, Tsushima K, et al. ARDS clinical practice guideline 2021. *J Intensive Care*. 2022;10(1):32.
7. Quigley N, Gagnon S, Fortin M. Aetiology, diagnosis and treatment of moderate-to-severe haemoptysis in a North American academic centre. *ERJ Open Res*. 2020;6(4):00204-2020.
8. Griffiths MJD, McAuley DF, Perkins GD, Barrett N, Blackwood B, Boyle A, et al. Guidelines on the management of acute respiratory distress syndrome. *BMJ Open Respir Res*. 2019;6(1):e000420.