

# Chapter 75

## Approach to Acute Exacerbation of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease in the ICU



### 75.1 Introduction

Acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (AECOPD) is a critical and potentially life-threatening event characterized by a sudden worsening of respiratory symptoms beyond normal day-to-day variations. According to the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) 2024 guidelines, AECOPD is defined by acute symptoms such as dyspnea, cough, and sputum production that worsen in <14 days and necessitate a change in regular medication. A key feature emphasized in the updated guidelines is dynamic hyperinflation, resulting from airflow limitation and air trapping, which significantly contributes to increased dyspnea and the work of breathing during exacerbations. Common triggers include respiratory infections (viral or bacterial) and environmental factors like air pollution and exposure to toxic gases [1–3] [Ref: Algorithm 75.1].

Risk stratification is a cornerstone of effective management and prognosis in patients with acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (AECOPD). It helps identify the severity of the disease, determine the likelihood of future exacerbations, and tailor the intensity of interventions required. The process begins with a detailed evaluation of the patient's exacerbation history. This includes analyzing the frequency of past exacerbations—mild, moderate, or severe—and their impact on the patient's overall health. Severe exacerbations requiring hospitalization or intensive care admission carry a higher risk of morbidity and mortality, making this historical information critical for guiding care.

To systematically quantify symptom burden and functional impairment, validated tools such as the Modified Medical Research Council (mMRC) Dyspnea Scale and the COPD Assessment Test (CAT) are widely used. The mMRC Dyspnea Scale focuses on the degree of breathlessness experienced by the patient during daily activities, ranging from mild breathlessness with strenuous exercise (Grade 0) to dyspnea preventing the patient from leaving the house or occurring even at rest

(Grade 4). The CAT, on the other hand, is a broader measure, assessing the impact of COPD on the patient's overall health, including symptoms like cough, sputum production, chest tightness, activity limitations, and sleep disturbances, with scores ranging from minimal ( $\leq 10$ ) to very severe impact ( $\geq 30$ ).

These tools offer a snapshot of the current disease state and help predict the disease's trajectory. For instance, patients with higher mMRC or CAT scores often exhibit more severe symptoms, more significant functional limitations, and a higher risk of exacerbations. Integrating these scores into the stratification process allows clinicians to classify patients into low-risk or high-risk categories, directly influencing management decisions. For example, high-risk patients—those with frequent exacerbations (two or more per year) or a history of hospitalization—may benefit from more aggressive therapies, including inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) or dual bronchodilator therapy with long-acting beta-agonists (LABAs) and long-acting muscarinic antagonists (LAMAs), alongside closer monitoring and early intervention for future exacerbations.

## 75.2 Initial Presentation and Assessment

- Clinical Evaluation: Patients may present with increased dyspnea, cough, sputum volume or purulence, wheezing, chest tightness, and fatigue. Assess for signs of respiratory distress, including tachypnea, use of accessory muscles, and cyanosis.
- Risk Stratification: Utilize the patient's exacerbation history, mMRC Dyspnea Scale, and CAT score to assess the severity of the current exacerbation and the risk of future events.
- Identify Triggers: Determine potential precipitating factors such as infections or environmental exposures.

## 75.3 Diagnostic Workup

- Laboratory Tests:
- Complete Blood Count (CBC): Evaluate for leukocytosis indicating infection or anemia contributing to dyspnea.
- Blood Eosinophil Count: Helps determine the likelihood of response to inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) therapy during exacerbations.
- Arterial Blood Gas (ABG):
  - Assess oxygenation ( $\text{PaO}_2$ ), carbon dioxide retention ( $\text{PaCO}_2$ ), and acid-base status (pH). It is essential for detecting hypercapnic respiratory failure.
- Imaging Studies:
- Chest X-ray: Rule out alternative diagnoses such as pneumonia, pneumothorax, or pulmonary edema.

- Advanced Imaging: Consider chest CT scans for suspected complications or alternative diagnoses. Incidental lung findings can aid in COPD screening.
- Spirometry (Post-Stabilization):
- Essential for confirming COPD diagnosis and assessing the degree of airflow obstruction once the patient is stable.
- Microbiological Tests:
- Sputum Culture: Particularly in cases with frequent exacerbations or suspected antibiotic resistance.

## 75.4 Confirming AECOPD Diagnosis

- Based on the clinical presentation and diagnostic findings, confirm if the symptoms are consistent with AECOPD.
- Differential Diagnosis: Exclude other potential causes such as heart failure exacerbation, pulmonary embolism, or pneumonia.

## 75.5 Management

### 75.5.1 Oxygen Therapy

- Supplemental Oxygen:
- Administer oxygen to maintain target SpO<sub>2</sub> between 88% and 92% to prevent hypoxemia while minimizing the risk of CO<sub>2</sub> retention due to hypoventilation.
- Monitoring:
- Closely monitor for signs of hypercapnia (e.g., altered mental status) and adjust oxygen therapy accordingly.

### 75.5.2 Assessing Acid-Base Status and Respiratory Failure

- ABG Interpretation:
- A pH < 7.35 with elevated PaCO<sub>2</sub> indicates respiratory acidosis.
- Determine the severity of hypercapnic respiratory failure to guide ventilation strategies.

### **75.5.3 Non-Invasive Ventilation (NIV)**

- Early Initiation:

NIV should be started when at least one of the following applies:

- Respiratory acidosis ( $\text{pH} \leq 7.35$  and  $\text{PaCO}_2 \geq 45 \text{ mmHg}$ )
- Severe dyspnea
- Persistent hypoxemia despite supplemental oxygen therapy
- Benefits:  
NIV improves gas exchange, reduces work of breathing, decreases intubation rates, and has been shown to improve survival.
- Predictors of Success:  
 $\text{pH} > 7.25$ , alert mental status, and hemodynamic stability are associated with better NIV outcomes.
- Once patient improves and tolerates 4 h of unassisted breathing, NIV can be discontinued directly
- Contraindications:  
Include hemodynamic instability, inability to protect the airway, severe agitation, or facial abnormalities preventing mask fitting.
- Management:  
Use a full-face mask for better tolerance.
- Monitor for improvement in respiratory rate, work of breathing, and ABG parameters.

### **75.5.4 Escalation to Invasive Mechanical Ventilation**

- Indications:  
Failure of NIV (worsening acidosis, hypoxemia, or mental status), respiratory or cardiac arrest, or severe hemodynamic instability.
- Ventilation Strategies:  
Mode: Volume-control or pressure-control ventilation.
- Tidal Volume ( $V_t$ ): 6–8 mL/kg of ideal body weight to minimize the risk of volutrauma.
- Respiratory Rate: Set to allow sufficient expiratory time, typically 8–12 breaths per minute.
- Inspiratory to Expiratory Ratio (I: E Ratio): Prolong expiratory time (e.g., 1:3 or longer) to reduce air trapping.
- Positive End-Expiratory Pressure (PEEP):  
Apply external PEEP cautiously (usually 80% of intrinsic PEEP) to reduce the work of breathing and assist in alveolar emptying.
- $\text{FiO}_2$ : Adjust to maintain  $\text{SpO}_2$  at 88–92%.
- Plateau Pressure: Keep  $\leq 30 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}$  to prevent barotrauma.

### ***75.5.5 Managing Auto-PEEP and Dynamic Hyperinflation***

- Auto-PEEP Identification:
- Recognize signs such as difficulty triggering breaths, hyperinflated lungs, and hemodynamic compromise.
- Adjustments to Ventilator Settings:
  - Tidal Volume: Reduce to lower inspiratory volumes.
  - Respiratory Rate: Decrease to extend expiratory time.
  - Expiratory Time: Lengthen to allow complete exhalation and reduce air trapping.
  - Flow Rates: Increase inspiratory flow rates to shorten inspiratory time.
- Heart-Lung Interactions:
- Be aware that dynamic hyperinflation can impair venous return and reduce cardiac output. Monitor hemodynamics closely.

### ***75.5.6 Pharmacological Management***

- Bronchodilators:
- Short-Acting Beta-Agonists (SABA): Administer nebulized albuterol for rapid bronchodilation.
- Short-Acting Anticholinergics: Ipratropium bromide may be added for additional bronchodilatory effect.
- Systemic Corticosteroids:
- Administer prednisone 40 mg daily for 5 days to reduce airway inflammation.
- Long-Term Use: Long-term oral corticosteroids are discouraged due to significant side effects unless necessary.
- Inhaled Corticosteroids (ICS):
- Consider adding ICS in patients with elevated blood eosinophil counts or frequent exacerbations despite optimal bronchodilator therapy.
- Be cautious of potential side effects like pneumonia risk.
- Combination Therapy:
- Long-acting beta-agonist (LABA)/Long-Acting Muscarinic Antagonist (LAMA): Preferred maintenance therapy for reducing exacerbations and improving lung function.
- Adjust maintenance medications accordingly during hospitalization and ensure continuity post-discharge.
- Antibiotics:
- Indicated if there is increased sputum purulence, volume, or signs of bacterial infection. Duration of antibiotic therapy is 5–7 days.
- Choose antibiotics based on local resistance patterns and patient history.

### ***75.5.7 Supportive Care and Monitoring***

- Fluid Management:
- Avoid fluid overload; monitor for signs of right heart failure.
- Nutrition:
- Assess nutritional status; provide interventions for malnourished patients to improve outcomes.
- Thromboembolism Prophylaxis
- Monitoring:
- Regularly reassess respiratory status, ABGs, and hemodynamics.
- Monitor for complications such as infections, thromboembolic events, or arrhythmias.

### ***75.5.8 Prevention Strategies***

- Vaccinations:
- Ensure vaccination against influenza, pneumococcal infections, and respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) as appropriate.
- Smoking Cessation:
- Provide counseling and support for smoking cessation, as it is the most effective intervention for slowing disease progression.
- Environmental Modifications:
- Advise on reducing exposure to pollutants and occupational irritants.

### ***75.5.9 Pulmonary Rehabilitation***

- Post-Exacerbation:
- Early initiation of pulmonary rehabilitation programs post-discharge can reduce readmissions, improve exercise capacity, and enhance quality of life.
- Components:
- Includes exercise training, education, nutritional advice, and psychosocial support.

### ***75.5.10 Monitoring and Discharge Planning***

- Discharge Criteria:
- Clinical stability with improved symptoms, stable ABGs, and the ability to use inhaled medications.
- Follow-Up Recommendations:
  - Arrange follow-up appointments within 4 weeks post-discharge.
  - Assess adherence to therapy, inhaler technique, and symptom control.
- Medication Adjustments:
  - Optimize long-term maintenance therapy, including LABA/LAMA combinations.
  - Reassess the need for ICS and adjust accordingly.
- Telehealth Services:
  - Utilize telehealth for remote monitoring, education, and support to enhance adherence and early detection of exacerbations.
- Education:
  - Provide comprehensive education on disease management, recognizing early signs of exacerbation, and when to seek medical attention.

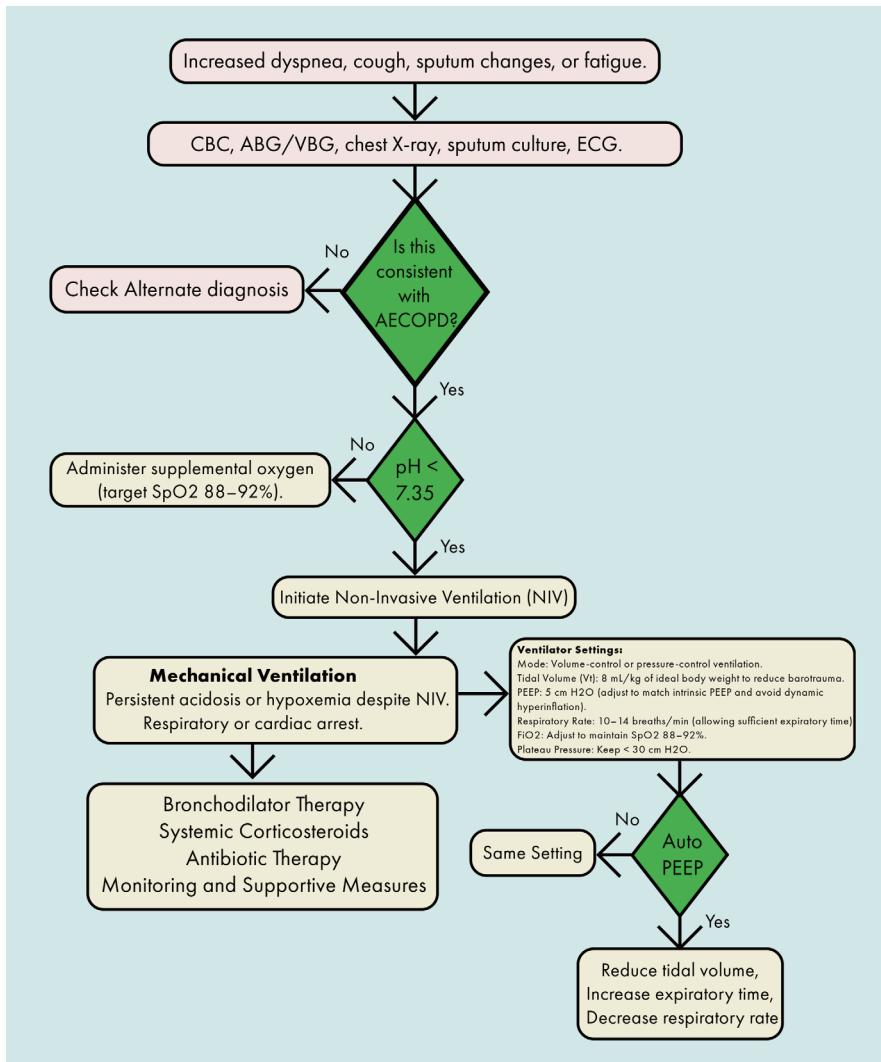
## **75.6 Conclusion**

The management of acute exacerbation of COPD in the ICU requires a multifaceted approach that includes prompt recognition, thorough assessment, and the implementation of evidence-based interventions. Early initiation of noninvasive ventilation can significantly improve outcomes in hypercapnic respiratory failure. Individualized mechanical ventilation strategies are essential for patients requiring intubation, with careful adjustments to prevent dynamic hyperinflation and minimize the impact on cardiac function.

Pharmacological management should be updated to reflect current guidelines, emphasizing the use of combination bronchodilator therapy and cautious use of corticosteroids. Preventive measures, including vaccinations and smoking cessation, are crucial for reducing the frequency of exacerbations and improving long-term outcomes. Incorporating nutritional support and pulmonary rehabilitation can enhance recovery and quality of life.

Effective discharge planning, including patient education and follow-up care, is vital to prevent readmissions and ensure sustained management of COPD. Emerging tools like telehealth can augment traditional care models, providing additional support to patients in managing their condition.

**Algorithm 75.1: Approach to acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (AECOPD) in the ICU**



## Bibliography

- Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD). Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management, and Prevention of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. 2024 Report. GOLD; 2023.
- Demoule A, Brochard L, Dres M, Heunks L, Jubran A, Laghi F, et al. How to ventilate obstructive and asthmatic patients. *Intensive Care Med*. 2020;46(12):2436–49.
- Nici L, Mammen MJ, Charbek E, Alexander PE, Au DH, Boyd CM, et al. Pharmacologic Management of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. An official American Thoracic Society clinical practice guideline. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2020;201(9):e56–69.