

Magdy Younes

Why does airway pressure rise sometimes near the end of inflation during pressure support?

Received: 8 October 2007
 Accepted: 15 October 2007
 Published online: 10 November 2007
 © Springer-Verlag 2007

This editorial refers to the article available at:
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00134-007-0879-5>.

M. Younes (✉)
 University of Manitoba, Department of Medicine,
 R3R 0G2 Winnipeg, Canada
 e-mail: mkyounes@shaw.ca
 Tel.: +1-204-297-0978

Sir: Patient-ventilator non-synchrony is common [1–6] and may increase morbidity [4]. Some possible reasons for its adverse effects include increased need for sedation, sleep disruption, respiratory muscle injury and errors in assessing weanability (see [7] for review).

Extension of the ventilator's inflation phase much beyond the end of inspiratory effort (delayed cycling-off) is a very common form of non-synchrony, particularly with pressure support (PSV) [2, 3, 5, 6; see 8–10 for mechanisms]. With delayed cycling-off, the lungs are being forcibly inflated when the patient wants them to deflate. When this occurs in alert individuals, it results in considerable discomfort. Often, expiratory muscles are activated in an effort to force cycling-off [11–13].

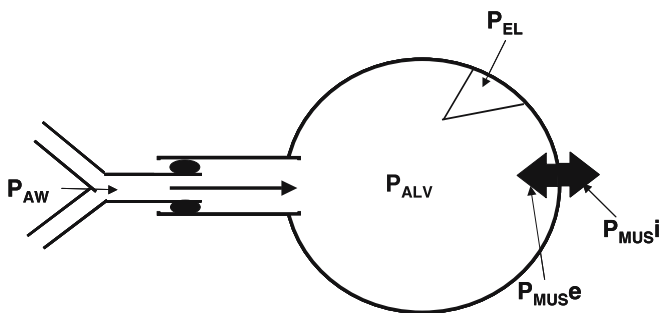
Airway pressure (P_{AW}) frequently overshoots the set PSV level before the ventilator cycles off [13]. Given the reported expiratory muscle activation in association with delayed cycling-off [11, 12], some researchers interpret the P_{AW} overshoot as indicative of expiratory recruitment in response to delayed cycling-off (i.e. patient is fighting the ventilator). Whereas expiratory muscle activation may result in pressure overshoot, an overshoot need not reflect expiratory muscle activation or even excessive delayed cycling-off. This is important to recognize, since

concluding that the patient is fighting the ventilator, or that cycling-off delay is excessive when it is not, may lead to unnecessary sedation or to increasing the cycling-off flow threshold when this is not indicated. The latter situation may result in the equally undesirable premature termination of the inflation cycle.

To understand the mechanism of P_{AW} overshoot it is necessary to review how the ventilator controls P_{AW} . When gas is flowing into the patient, P_{AW} (i.e. upstream pressure) is higher than downstream pressure (alveolar pressure; P_{ALV}) by an amount corresponding to flow rate and respiratory resistance (R_{RS} ; Fig. 1):

$$P_{AW} = P_{ALV} + \text{Flow} \times R_{RS} \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

Thus, if P_{ALV} increases, P_{AW} must increase unless the ventilator decreases flow appropriately. Flow output of ventilators changes in response to an error signal, which



$$\text{FLOW} = (P_{AW} - P_{ALV}) / R_{RS}$$

$$P_{ALV} = P_{EL} - P_{MUS}^i + P_{MUS}^e$$

Fig. 1 Dynamic relation between airway pressure (P_{AW}), alveolar pressure (P_{ALV}) and flow, and determinants of P_{ALV} . P_{EL} elastic recoil pressure of the respiratory system, P_{MUS}^i and P_{MUS}^e are pressures generated by inspiratory and expiratory muscles, respectively

in PSV is a function of the difference between current pressure and target pressure. A gain factor (error gain) determines how much flow changes per unit change in error signal. A high error gain achieves the desired control with less deviation from target, but it also promotes oscillation in flow and P_{AW} . Complex handling of the error signal has evolved to optimize performance. The error signal to which the valves respond is made up of different components, one related to current error magnitude (proportional component), one to the integral of error over a specified previous interval (integral component) and one to the rate of change in error (derivative component), each with its own gain (the PID system). Such systems can maintain pressure close to target if current error changes slowly. But for rapid reduction in flow, as would be needed if P_{ALV} were rising rapidly, deviation from target pressure (current error) must be large. Increasing the gain of the proportional component would attenuate the pressure overshoot, but this promotes oscillatory behaviour. The error gains in effect in a given ventilator represent the manufacturer's compromise between fidelity of response and stability.

What determines P_{ALV} during the ventilator's inspiratory phase? In the passive state, and ignoring the usually small chest-wall resistance [14], P_{ALV} is essentially the passive recoil pressure of the lung/chest-wall complex (P_{EL} ; Fig. 1), which is a function of lung volume and respiratory elastance. When spontaneous efforts are present (e.g. during PSV), P_{ALV} is additionally determined by inspiratory muscle pressure (P_{MUSi}), which reduces P_{ALV} below P_{EL} , and by expiratory muscle pressure (P_{MUSE}), which increases P_{ALV} above P_{EL} (Fig. 1):

$$P_{ALV} = P_{EL} - P_{MUSi} + P_{MUSE} . \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

Neural inspiration continues for a while following active triggering. During this time P_{MUSi} continues to rise, tending to reduce P_{ALV} , but lung volume, and hence P_{EL} , also rises tending to increase P_{ALV} . Since active expiration, if it happens at all, begins during neural expiration, the time course of P_{ALV} during this phase is determined by the balance between rate of increase in P_{MUSi} and rate of increase in P_{EL} . With low respiratory drive and high PSV level, the increase in P_{EL} dominates quickly, and P_{ALV} begins rising soon after triggering, whereas with high drive and relatively low assist P_{ALV} may continue to fall for a while after triggering. In either case, because rates of increase in P_{MUSi} and in P_{EL} are relatively slow, and the two forces tend to cancel each other, the net rate of change in P_{ALV} during the phase of neural inspiration is relatively slow and can be easily handled by the ventilator's slow control system; thus, flow increases or decreases appropriately with P_{ALV} , and P_{AW} is maintained close to target.

At the end of neural inspiration P_{MUSi} falls. During the phase of declining P_{MUSi} the earlier antagonistic relation between P_{MUSi} and P_{EL} becomes complimentary in that

both are now operating to increase P_{ALV} . P_{ALV} will increase at a faster rate, determined primarily by the rate of decline in P_{MUSi} . Control of this rate of decline is quite complex [15, 16]. In general, however, the rate of decline in P_{MUSi} is greater when inspiratory muscle activation is higher [17–19].

For a given rate of increase in P_{ALV} at end-inspiration the rate at which the ventilator must reduce flow to keep P_{AW} constant is inversely related to resistance (Eq. (1)). Accordingly, all else being the same, less error (i.e. less overshoot) will develop if resistance is high.

Activation of expiratory muscles at any point in the respiratory cycle will also result in an increase in P_{ALV} (Eq. (2)), necessitating a reduction in flow to maintain P_{AW} close to target. As with loss of P_{MUSi} at end-inspiration, whether or not an error (i.e. overshoot) develops, its magnitude will depend on how fast expiratory muscle pressure (P_{MUSE}) is increasing, and on R_{RS} .

It is clear from the above that a pressure overshoot will develop when there is a fast decline in P_{MUSi} or a fast increase in P_{MUSE} , particularly when resistance is low. Until recently, it was not known whether the occurrence of an overshoot during PSV is due to normal relaxation of inspiratory muscles or to expiratory muscle activation. In this issue, Prinianakis et al. [20] report on the mechanism of overshoot in 15 patients who displayed an overshoot. In all patients onset of the overshoot coincided with onset of decline in P_{MUSi} . Expiratory activation was observed in only half the patients and, when it occurred, began well beyond the onset of the overshoot. This does not mean that expiratory activity is never responsible for the overshoot; instead, their data indicate that, in practice, when an overshoot is present during PSV it is much more likely the result of the normal relaxation of inspiratory muscles than activation of expiratory muscles. As expected, the rate of increase in P_{AW} during the overshoot correlated with the rate of decline in P_{MUSi} . An even better correlation was observed between the rate of increase in P_{AW} and the rate of decline in flow, likely because the required rate of decrease in flow incorporates both the rate of increase in P_{ALV} and R_{RS} , and not the change in P_{ALV} alone (Eq. (1)).

What to do if there is an overshoot? The data of Prinianakis et al. [20] clearly teach that it is not prudent to presume that expiratory muscles are active simply because an overshoot is present. Furthermore, even if expiratory muscles are contributing to the overshoot, this need not reflect fighting or even a reflex response to continued lung inflation; expiratory muscles are routinely activated at increased levels of respiratory drive (e.g. during exercise [21] and with CO_2 and hypoxic stimulation [22]), even in the absence of any feedback from the lungs [22]. To conclude that there is fighting, there must be other indications of fighting, for example, agitation or if the overshoot is inconsistent and erratic-looking, as may be expected of behavioural responses; however, can one at least conclude that there is excessive delayed

cycling-off and raise the cycling-off flow threshold? Here, again, the answer is no, unless there is other evidence of excessive cycling-off delay. During normal breathing without a ventilator expiratory flow does not begin until sometime after P_{MUS} starts declining [15, 18, 23; see 5 for recent discussion]. Accordingly, a reasonable cycling-off delay is neither abnormal nor undesirable and does not warrant intervention. As indicated above, an excessive overshoot will tend to occur primarily when respiratory drive is high and resistance is low. Under these conditions, excessive cycling-off delay is extremely unlikely [3, 8, 10]. In this respect it is relevant to note that the patients of Prinianakis et al. [20] were receiving a relatively low level of PSV (≈ 8 cmH₂O) and had a relatively high inspiratory drive ($\Delta P_{DI}/\Delta t = 19.2$ cmH₂O/s). As may be expected under these conditions, the overshoot phase was brief (estimated to be 0.18 s, on average, based on an

overshoot amplitude of 2.6 cmH₂O and a rate of increase in P_{AW} of 14.7 cmH₂O/s). This is well within the normal physiological delay between end of neural inspiration and onset of expiratory flow; thus, advancing cycling-off is indicated only if the delay (i.e. duration of the overshoot) is excessive (e.g. $> 10\%$ of respiratory cycle duration, or as indicated indirectly by the presence of ineffective efforts) and, if this is done, care must be taken not to eliminate the overshoot completely as this may result in premature termination of the ventilator cycle. Since the overshoot occurs primarily when respiratory drive is high, the presence of an important overshoot should invite an assessment of whether the current level of support is adequate.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by Canadian Institutes of Health Research.

References

- Leung P, Jubran A, Tobin MJ (1997) Comparison of assisted ventilator modes on triggering, patient effort, and dyspnea. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 155:1940–1948
- Tobin MJ, Jubran A, Laghi F (2001) Patient-ventilator interaction. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 163:1059–1063
- Giannouli E, Webster K, Roberts D, Younes M (1999) Response of ventilator-dependent patients to different levels of pressure support and proportional assist. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 159:1716–1725
- Thille AW, Rodriguez P, Cabello B, Lellouche F, Brochard L (2006) Patient-ventilator asynchrony during assisted mechanical ventilation. *Intensive Care Med* 32:1515–1522
- Younes M, Brochard L, Grasso S, Kun J, Mancebo J, Ranieri M, Richard JC, Younes H (2007) A method for monitoring and improving patient-ventilator interaction. *Intensive Care Med* 33:1337–1346
- Kondili E, Xirouchaki N, Georgopoulos D (2007) Modulation and treatment of patient-ventilator dyssynchrony. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 13:84–89
- Younes M (2006) Proportional assist ventilation. In: Tobin MJ (ed) *Principles and practice of mechanical ventilation*. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 335–364
- Younes M (1993) Patient-ventilator interaction with pressure-assisted modalities of ventilatory support. *Semin Resp Med* 14:299–322
- Younes M (1995) Interactions between patients and ventilators. In: Roussos C (ed) *The thorax*, vol 85. Lung biology in health and disease. Dekker, New York, pp 2367–2420
- Yamada Y, Du HL (2000) Analysis of the mechanisms of expiratory asynchrony in pressure support ventilation: a mathematical approach. *J Appl Physiol* 88:2143–2150
- Parthasarathy S, Jubran A, Tobin MJ (1998) Cycling of inspiratory and expiratory muscle groups with the ventilator in airflow limitation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 158:1471–1478
- Jubran A, Van de Graaff WB, Tobin MJ (1995) Variability of patient-ventilator interaction with pressure support ventilation in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 152:129–136
- Brochard L, Lellouche F (2006) Pressure support. In: Tobin MJ (ed) *Principles and practice of mechanical ventilation*. McGraw-Hill, New York, pp 221–250
- Xirouchaki N, Kondili E, Mitrouska I, Siafakas N, Georgopoulos D (1999) Response of respiratory motor output to varying pressure in mechanically ventilated patients. *Eur Respir J* 14:508–516
- Younes M, Remmers J (1981) Control of tidal volume and respiratory frequency. In: Hornbein T (ed) *Control of breathing*, vol 17. Lung biology in health and disease. Dekker, New York, pp 617–667
- von Euler C (1986) Brain stem mechanisms for generation and control of breathing pattern. In: Cherniack NS, Widdicombe JG (eds) *The respiratory system*, vol 2. Handbook of physiology. American Physiological Society, Bethesda, Maryland, pp 1–68
- Agostoni E, D'Angelo E, Piolini M (1978) Breathing pattern in men during inspiratory elastic loads. *Respir Physiol* 34:279–293
- Agostoni E, Citterio G, D'Angelo E (1979) Decay rate of inspiratory muscle pressure during expiration in man. *Respir Physiol* 36:269–285
- Agostoni E, Citterio G (1979) Relative decay rate of inspiratory muscle pressure and breath timing in man. *Respir Physiol* 38:335–346
- Prinianakis G, Platakis M, Kondili E, Klimathianaki M, Vaporidi K, Georgopoulos D (2007) Effects of relaxation of inspiratory muscles on ventilator pressure during pressure support. *Intensive Care Med* DOI 10.1007/s00134-007-0879-5
- Aliverti A, Cala SJ, Duranti R, Ferrigno G, Kenyon CM, Pedotti A, Scano G, Sliwinski P, Macklem PT, Yan S (1997) Human respiratory muscle actions and control during exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 83:1256–1269
- Iscoe S (1998) Control of abdominal muscles. *Prog Neurobiol* 56:433–506
- Mead J, Agostoni E (1964) Dynamics of breathing. In: Fenn WO, Rahn H (eds) *Handbook of physiology: respiration*. American Physiological Society, Washington DC, pp 411–427