

Clinical Application of **MECHANICAL VENTILATION**

Fourth Edition



David W. Chang

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David W. Chang



David W. Chang, MD

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Clinical Application of MECHANICAL VENTILATION

Fourth Edition

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Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation, Fourth Edition

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Dedicated with love
to my wife, Bonnie and our children,
Michelle, Jennifer, and Michael
for their support in my professional endeavors
and personal leisure activities

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Preface

Mechanical ventilation has been an integral part of critical care medicine. In its earlier years, ventilators were mainly used in the intensive care units and occasionally in the emergency departments for patient stabilization and intrahospital transport. In recent years, ventilators are used frequently in interhospital and intercontinental transport of critically ill patients. They are also used in mass casualty events, in both hyperbaric and hypobaric environments. Technology has evolved to a point where patients can manage the basic functions of their ventilators at home and even on a commercial aircraft.

Due to the inherited limitations of printed media, it would be impossible to provide adequate coverage on all topics, theories, procedures, and equipment related to mechanical ventilation. As a tradeoff, the primary focus of this mechanical ventilation textbook is to provide a basic but thorough presentation of those relevant topics that are pertinent to everyday clinical practice. Users of information technology and the Internet would agree that “more is not better.” This book attempts to strike a balance between an adequate coverage in theory and a spectrum of needed clinical knowledge. The learners should find this book useful to develop a solid foundation in the theories of mechanical ventilation. With additional clinical experience, the learners should be able to integrate and apply the theories of mechanical ventilation in a clinical setting for better patient care.

In the fourth edition of *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation*, new information and numerous references have been added. In some cases, older references are retained because their unique contribution has not been duplicated or cannot be found elsewhere. These classic references also allow learners and researchers to follow the path of progression in the knowledge and techniques of mechanical ventilation.

Overview of Textbook

In this fourth edition, the key terms are boldfaced within the text and the definitions are placed in the margin for quick reference. Essential information is also highlighted in the margin for quick reference. Learning objectives can be found in the beginning of Chapters 1 through 18.

Chapter 1 of the fourth edition reviews the normal pulmonary mechanics and the abnormal physiologic conditions leading to ventilatory failure. Chapter 2 provides a review of the effects of positive pressure ventilation on the major body

systems and organs. Chapter 3 covers the components, terminology, and classification of mechanical ventilators. Chapter 4 describes up-to-date operating modes of mechanical ventilation. Chapter 5 reviews some special airways that are used to facilitate ventilation and oxygenation. Chapter 6 covers the application, management, and complications of endotracheal and tracheostomy tubes. Chapter 7 presents the clinical application of noninvasive positive pressure ventilation and the associated interfaces. Chapter 8 offers the common procedures for the initiation of mechanical ventilation. The indications, contraindications, initial ventilator settings, and alarm settings relating to mechanical ventilation are also discussed. Chapter 9 outlines the essential methods of patient monitoring to include imaging, fluid balance, blood gases, pulse oximetry, capnography, transcutaneous blood gases, and cerebral perfusion pressure. Chapter 10 covers the basics of invasive, less invasive and noninvasive hemodynamic monitoring. Chapter 11 gives a detailed discussion on ventilator waveform analysis and its applications. Chapter 12 presents the strategies to improve ventilation and oxygenation during mechanical ventilation. It also describes the basic strategies to manage ventilator alarms and abnormal physiologic conditions during mechanical ventilation. Chapter 13 reviews the basic pharmacotherapy for mechanical ventilation. The drugs discussed in this chapter include bronchodilators, neuromuscular blockers, central nervous agents, and other agents to facilitate patient comfort and patient-ventilator synchrony. Chapter 14 includes special procedures associated with mechanical ventilation—chest tube and drainage system, fiberoptic bronchoscopy, and transport of mechanically ventilated patients. Chapter 15 reviews some critical care issues in mechanical ventilation—acute lung injury, acute respiratory distress syndrome, ventilator-associated pneumonia, hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy, and traumatic brain injury. Chapter 16 includes the criteria, procedure, and protocol for weaning from mechanical ventilation. Weaning failure and terminal weaning are also discussed. Chapter 17 covers a wide spectrum of neonatal mechanical ventilation to include high-frequency oscillatory ventilation and extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. In Chapter 18, mechanical ventilation in nontraditional settings is discussed. These settings include the use of a ventilator at home, in a mass casualty situation, in hyperbaric and hypobaric environments, as well as traveling with a mechanical ventilator on commercial aircraft. Chapter 19 has sixteen case studies related to mechanical ventilation.

New to This Edition

The fourth edition of *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation* has two new chapters. Chapter 15 covers five critical care issues in mechanical ventilation that are commonly encountered by critical care providers. They are acute lung injury, acute respiratory distress syndrome, ventilator-associated pneumonia, hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy, and traumatic brain injury. A recruitment maneuver to determine optimal PEEP is also included in Chapter 15. In Chapter 18, mechanical ventilation in nontraditional settings is discussed. These settings include the use of a ventilator at home, in a mass casualty situation, in hyperbaric and hypobaric

environments, and on commercial aircraft. This new edition also provides much updated information. For example, modes of ventilation are updated in Chapter 4 to reflect current practice. Special visualization devices for intubation are added in Chapter 6. Less invasive and noninvasive hemodynamic monitoring techniques are added in Chapter 10. Weaning in progress and weaning protocols are updated in Chapter 16. In Chapter 19, a new case study covers the medical and ethical aspects of terminal weaning. The Appendices are updated to provide more useful reference information for the use and management of mechanical ventilation.

Ancillary Package

The complete supplement package for *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation, fourth edition* was developed to achieve two goals:

1. To assist students in the learning and applying the information presented in the test.
2. To assist instructors in planning and implementing their courses in the most efficient manner and provide exceptional resources to enhance their students' experience.

Instructor Companion Website

ISBN 13: 978-1-111-53968-9

Spend less time planning and more time teaching with Delmar Cengage Learning's Instructor Resources to Accompany *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation, fourth edition*. The Instructor Companion Website can be accessed by going to www.cengage.com/login to create a unique user log-in. The password-protected Instructor Resources include the following:

Instructor's Manual

An electronic instructor's manual provides instructors with invaluable tools for preparing for class lectures and examinations. The instructor's manual consists of three sections. The first section is a collection of potential test bank questions for each chapter, followed the second section that houses the answers for quick and easy assessment. The third section of the instructor's manual provides the answers to the workbook questions and exercises.

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An electronic testbank makes and generates tests and quizzes in an instant. With a variety of question types, including short answer, multiple choice, true or false, and matching exercises, creating challenging exams will be no barrier in your classroom. This testbank includes a rich bank of questions that test students on retention and application of what they've learned in the course. Answers are provided for all questions so instructors can focus on teaching, not grading.

Student Workbook

ISBN 13: 978-1-111-53967-2

The Student Workbook to accompany the fourth edition of *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation* is a powerful learning aid for students and will enhance their comprehension and ability to apply what they have learned. Each workbook chapter follows the core textbook and supplies students with a variety of challenging exercises and quizzes to complete. This Workbook is a great asset to students and instructors alike to support active participation and engage the learning process.

Features of the Fourth Edition

The fourth edition includes many tried and true features that will enhance the learning experience and make this textbook a valuable asset in your education.

The addition of **Learning Objectives** listed at the beginning of each chapter outlines expected outcomes and is a great assessment tool after you've read the chapter. Another new feature is **Additional Resources**, which lists several assets in various media types that you can use to further your understanding of the chapter topics. Other features that offer guided study are a **Key Terms** list for each chapter and corresponding margin definitions for quick and easy reference. **Margin Notes** can be found throughout the chapters and succinctly present critical information for each chapter. Chapter **tables** and **figures** are improved with a brand new design and a second color to add prominence and draw attention to the information contained therein. Rounding out the important features of the fourth edition are the **Self-Assessment Questions** found at the end of each chapter that challenge you to apply the knowledge you've acquired throughout the chapter. **Answers** to the questions are included in each chapter for quick assessment to identify areas of weakness, and where further study is needed.

As in the past three editions, the goal of the fourth edition of *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation* is to provide the students a textbook they will enjoy reading and using at school and at home. It is also my goal to make this textbook a quick reference source for respiratory care practitioners and other critical care providers.

—David W. Chang

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I would also like to recognize my colleagues who reviewed the contents of this edition for completeness and accuracy. Their help is very much appreciated throughout the development of this manuscript. They provided corrections, suggestions, and useful comments. The fourth edition of *Clinical Application of Mechanical Ventilation* should continue to be a useful textbook for students and a helpful reference source for critical care providers. The reviewers are:

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Chapter 1

Principles of Mechanical Ventilation

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Key Terms

airway resistance
alveolar deadspace
alveolar volume

anatomic deadspace
deadspace ventilation
diffusion defect

| | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| hypoventilation | physiologic deadspace |
| hypoxic hypoxia | plateau pressure |
| intrapulmonary shunting | refractory hypoxemia |
| lung compliance | ventilatory failure |
| oxygenation failure | V/Q mismatch |
| peak inspiratory pressure | |

Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter and completing the review questions, the learner should be able to:

- Use required variables and calculate airway resistance, compliance, and deadspace ventilation.
- Describe the relationship among the three variables in airway resistance, compliance, and deadspace ventilation.
- Describe the clinical application of static and dynamic compliance.
- Explain the changes in airway resistance, lung compliance, and deadspace ventilation that contribute to the increased work of breathing and ventilatory failure.
- Describe the process of four clinical conditions that lead to ventilatory failure.
- Identify the presence of hypoxemia and signs of hypoxia.
- Describe three primary clinical conditions that lead to mechanical ventilation.

INTRODUCTION

Mechanical ventilation is a useful modality for patients who are unable to sustain the level of ventilation necessary to maintain the gas exchange functions (oxygenation and carbon dioxide elimination). Indications for mechanical ventilation vary greatly among patients. Mechanical ventilation may be indicated in conditions due to physiologic changes (e.g., deterioration of lung parenchyma), disease states (e.g., respiratory distress syndrome), medical/surgical procedures (e.g., postanesthesia recovery), and many other causes (e.g., head trauma, drug overdose) leading to ventilatory failure or oxygenation failure.

Use of mechanical ventilation also varies greatly from short term to long term and from acute care in the hospital to extended care at home. One of the most frequent uses of mechanical ventilation is for the management of postoperative patients recovering from anesthesia and medications. Other indications for mechanical ventilation in adults include apnea and impending respiratory arrest,

acute exacerbation of COPD, acute severe asthma, neuromuscular disease, acute hypoxemic respiratory failure, heart failure and cardiogenic shock, acute brain injury, and flail chest (Pierson, 2002).

Regardless of the diagnosis or disease state, patients who require mechanical ventilation generally have developed ventilatory failure, oxygenation failure, or both. Specifically, when a patient fails to ventilate or oxygenate adequately, the problem may be caused by one of six major pathophysiological factors: (1) increased airway resistance, (2) changes in lung compliance, (3) hypoventilation, (4) V/Q mismatch, (5) intrapulmonary shunting, or (6) diffusion defect.

AIRWAY RESISTANCE

airway resistance: The degree of airflow obstruction in the airways.

Airway resistance is defined as airflow obstruction in the airways. In mechanical ventilation, the degree of airway resistance is primarily affected by the length, size, and patency of the airway, endotracheal tube, and ventilator circuit.

Factors Affecting Airway Resistance

Airway resistance causes obstruction of airflow in the airways. It is increased when the patency or diameter of the airways is reduced. Obstruction of airflow may be caused by: (1) changes inside the airway (e.g., retained secretions), (2) changes in the wall of the airway (e.g., neoplasm of the bronchial muscle structure), or (3) changes outside the airway (e.g., tumors surrounding and compressing the airway) (West, 2007). When one of these conditions occurs, the radius of the airway decreases and airway resistance increases. According to the simplified form of Poiseuille's Law, the driving pressure (ΔP) to maintain the same airflow (\dot{V}) must increase by a factor of 16-fold when the radius (r) of the airway is reduced by only half of its original size.

$$\text{Simplified form of Poiseuille's Law: } \Delta P = \frac{\dot{V}}{r^4}$$

✓ Based on Poiseuille's Law, the work of breathing increases by a factor of 16-fold when the radius (r) of the airway is reduced by half its original size.

✓ Airway resistance varies directly with the length and inversely with the diameter of the airway or ET tube.

One of the most common causes of increased airway resistance is chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). This type of lung disease includes emphysema, chronic bronchitis, chronic asthma, and bronchiectasis. Mechanical conditions that may increase airway resistance include postintubation obstruction and foreign body aspiration. Infectious processes include laryngotracheobronchitis (croup), epiglottitis, and bronchiolitis. Table 1-1 lists three categories of clinical conditions that increase airway resistance.

Normal airway resistance in healthy adults is between 0.5 and 2.5 cm H₂O/L/sec (Wilkins, 2009). It is higher in intubated patients due to the smaller diameter of the endotracheal (ET) tube. Airway resistance varies directly with the length and inversely with the diameter of the airway or ET tube. In the clinical setting, the ET tube may be shortened for ease of airway management, reduction of mechanical deadspace, and reduction of airway resistance. However, the major contributor to increased airway resistance is the internal diameter of the ET tube. Therefore, during intubation, the largest appropriate size ET tube must be used so that the airway resistance contributed by the ET tube may be minimized. Once the ET tube is in place,

TABLE 1-1 Clinical Conditions That Increase Airway Resistance

| Type | Clinical Conditions |
|------------------------|--|
| COPD | Emphysema Chronic bronchitis Asthma Bronchiectasis |
| Mechanical obstruction | Postintubation obstruction Foreign body aspiration Endotracheal tube Condensation in ventilator circuit |
| Infection | Laryngotracheobronchitis (croup) Epiglottitis Bronchiolitis |

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its patency must be maintained, as secretions inside the ET tube greatly increase airway resistance.

Besides the ET tube, the ventilator circuit may also impose mechanical resistance to airflow and contribute to total airway resistance. This is particularly important when there is a significant amount of water in the ventilator circuit due to condensation. Chapter 4 describes the use of pressure support ventilation (PSV) to compensate for the effects of airflow resistance and to augment spontaneous tidal volume during mechanical ventilation.

Airway Resistance and the Work of Breathing (ΔP)

Airway resistance is calculated by $\frac{\text{Pressure Change}}{\text{Flow}}$

$$R_{aw} = \frac{\Delta P}{\dot{V}}$$

R_{aw} = airway resistance

ΔP = pressure change (Peak Inspiratory Pressure – Plateau Pressure)

\dot{V} = Flow

✓ ↑ Airway resistance = ↑
Work of breathing.

The pressure change (ΔP) in the equation reflects the work of breathing imposed on the patient. Since airway resistance is directly related to pressure change (the work of breathing), an increase in airway resistance means the patient must exert more energy for ventilation. In a clinical setting, relief of airflow obstruction is an effective way to reduce the work of breathing (Blanch et al., 2005; Myers, 2006).

If pressure change (work of breathing) in the equation above is held constant, an increase in airway resistance will cause a decrease in flow and subsequently a decrease

hypoventilation: Inadequacy of ventilation to remove CO_2 . The arterial PCO_2 is elevated in conditions of hypoventilation.

ventilatory failure: Failure of the respiratory system to remove CO_2 from the body resulting in an abnormally high PaCO_2 .

oxygenation failure: Failure of the heart and lungs to provide adequate oxygen for metabolic needs.

✓ An increased bowing of the P-V loop suggests an overall increase in airflow resistance.

✓ Excessive inspiratory flow \rightarrow bowing of inspiratory limb. (A_1 to A_2)

in minute ventilation. This is because airway resistance and flow in the equation are *inversely* related. In a clinical setting, **hypoventilation** may result if the patient is unable to overcome the airway resistance by increasing the work of breathing.

As a result of chronic air trapping, patients with chronic airway obstruction may develop highly compliant lung parenchyma. These patients use a breathing pattern that is deeper but slower. On the other hand, patients with restrictive lung disease (low compliance) breathe more shallowly but faster, since airflow resistance is not the primary disturbance in these patients.

Effects on Ventilation and Oxygenation

The work of breathing imposed on a patient is increased when airway resistance is high. This creates a detrimental effect on the patient's ventilatory and oxygenation status. If an abnormally high airway resistance is sustained over a long time, fatigue of the respiratory muscles may occur, leading to ventilatory and oxygenation failure (Rochester, 1993). **Ventilatory failure** occurs when the patient's minute ventilation cannot keep up with CO_2 production. **Oxygenation failure** usually follows when the cardiopulmonary system cannot provide adequate oxygen needed for metabolism.

Airflow Resistance

The airflow resistance of a patient-ventilator system may be monitored using the pressure-volume (P-V) loop display on a ventilator waveform display (Waugh et al., 2007). An increased bowing of the P-V loop suggests an overall increase in airflow resistance (Figure 1-1). The increase in airflow resistance may be caused by excessive inspiratory flow or increased expiratory flow resistance.

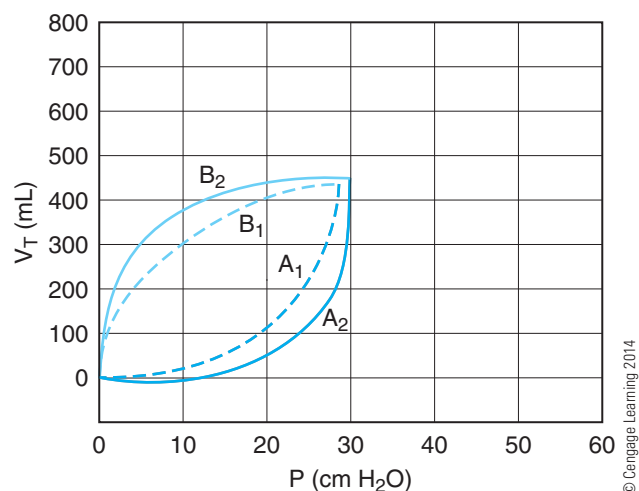


FIGURE 1-1 Increased bowing (from dotted to solid lines) of the pressure–volume loop suggests an increase in airflow resistance. Bowing of inspiratory limb (from A_1 to A_2) may be caused by excessive inspiratory flow. Bowing of the expiratory limb (from B_1 to B_2) may be caused by an increase in expiratory flow resistance such as bronchospasm.

✓ Increased expiratory flow resistance → bowing of expiratory limb. (B₁ to B₂)

When the inspiratory flow exceeds a patient's tidal volume and inspiratory time requirement, bowing of the inspiratory limb may result (line A₂). In situations where the expiratory airflow resistance is increased (e.g., bronchospasm), bowing of the expiratory limb (line B₂) may occur.

LUNG COMPLIANCE

lung compliance: The degree of lung expansion per unit pressure change.

refractory hypoxemia: A persistent low level of oxygen in blood that is not responsive to medium to high concentration of inspired oxygen. It is usually caused by intrapulmonary shunting.

plateau pressure: The pressure needed to maintain lung inflation in the absence of airflow.

peak inspiratory pressure: The pressure used to deliver the tidal volume by overcoming nonelastic (airways) and elastic (lung parenchyma) resistance.

Lung compliance is volume change (lung expansion) per unit pressure change (work of breathing), and it is calculated by $C = \Delta V / \Delta P$, where C = compliance, ΔV = volume change, and ΔP = pressure change. Most ventilators can measure and show the static and dynamic compliance values on the data or graphic display. A method to measure and calculate static and dynamic compliance is outlined in Table 1-2.

Compliance Measurement

Abnormally low or high lung compliance impairs the patient's ability to maintain efficient gas exchange. Low compliance typically makes lung expansion difficult. High compliance induces incomplete exhalation, air trapping, and reduced CO₂ elimination. These abnormalities are often contributing factors to the need for mechanical ventilation.

Low Compliance. Low compliance (high elastance) means that the volume change is small per unit pressure change. Under this condition, the lungs are *stiff* or *noncompliant*. The work of breathing is increased when the compliance is low. In many clinical situations (e.g., acute respiratory distress syndrome or ARDS), low lung compliance is associated with **refractory hypoxemia**.

TABLE 1-2 Method to Measure Static and Dynamic Compliance

- (1) Obtain corrected expired tidal volume.
- (2) Obtain **plateau pressure** by applying inspiratory hold or occluding the exhalation port at end-inspiration.
- (3) Obtain **peak inspiratory pressure**.
- (4) Obtain positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) level, if any.

$$\text{Static Compliance} = \frac{\text{Corrected Tidal Volume}}{(\text{Plateau Pressure} - \text{PEEP})}$$

$$\text{Dynamic Compliance} = \frac{\text{Corrected Tidal Volume}}{(\text{Peak Inspiratory Pressure} - \text{PEEP})}$$

TABLE 1-3 Clinical Conditions That Decrease the Compliance

| Type of Compliance | Clinical Conditions |
|--------------------|---|
| Static compliance | ARDS Atelectasis Tension pneumothorax Obesity Retained secretions |
| Dynamic compliance | Bronchospasm Kinking of ET tube Airway obstruction |

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✓ ↓ Lung compliance =
↑ Work of breathing.

Low compliance measurements are usually related to conditions that reduce the patient's functional residual capacity. Patients with noncompliant lungs often have a restrictive lung defect, low lung volumes, and low minute ventilation. This condition may be compensated for by an increased frequency. Table 1-3 shows some examples that lead to a decreased compliance measurement.

✓ In extreme high compliance situations, exhalation is often incomplete due to reduced elastic recoil of the lungs.

High Compliance. High compliance means that the volume change is large per unit pressure change. In extreme high compliance situations, exhalation is often incomplete due to lack of elastic recoil by the lungs. Emphysema is an example of high compliance where the gas exchange process is impaired. This condition is due to chronic air trapping, destruction of lung tissues, and enlargement of terminal and respiratory bronchioles.

High compliance measurements are usually related to conditions that increase the patient's functional residual capacity and total lung capacity. Patients with extremely compliant lungs often develop airflow obstruction, incomplete exhalation, air trapping, and poor gas exchange.

Static and Dynamic Compliance

✓ Static compliance reflects the elastic properties (elastic resistance) of the lung and chest wall.

Assessment of compliance can be divided into static compliance and dynamic compliance measurements. The relationship and clinical significance of these measurements are discussed in the following sections.

✓ Dynamic compliance reflects the airway resistance (nonelastic resistance) and the elastic properties of the lung and chest wall (elastic resistance).

Static Compliance. Static compliance is calculated by dividing the volume by the pressure (i.e., plateau pressure) measured when the flow is momentarily stopped. When airflow is absent, airway resistance becomes a non-factor. Static compliance reflects the elastic resistance of the lung and chest wall.

Dynamic Compliance. Dynamic compliance is calculated by dividing the volume by the pressure (i.e., peak inspiratory pressure) measured when airflow is present. Since airflow is present, airway resistance becomes a factor in the measurement of dynamic compliance. Dynamic compliance therefore reflects the condition of airway

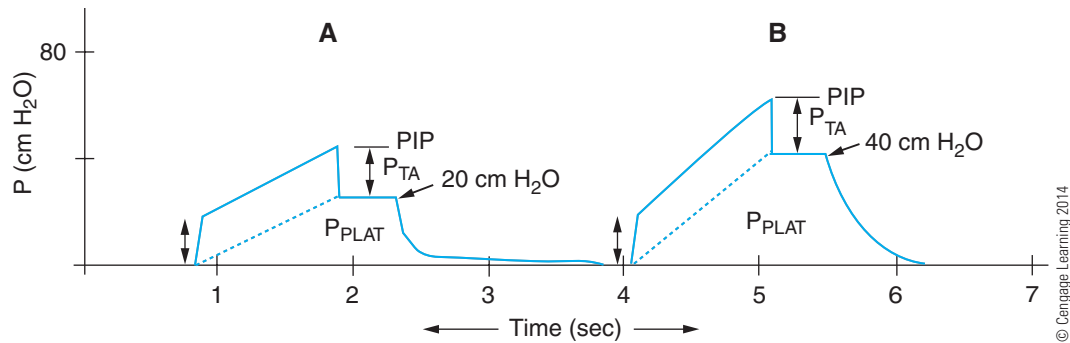


FIGURE 1-2 In conditions where the lung compliance is decreased (e.g., atelectasis), the plateau pressure (P_{PLAT}) and peak inspiratory pressure (PIP) are both increased (from A to B).

resistance (nonelastic resistance) as well as the elastic properties of the lung and chest wall (elastic resistance).

✓ Conditions causing changes in plateau pressure and static compliance invoke similar changes in peak inspiratory pressure and dynamic compliance.

✓ When the airflow resistance is increased (e.g., bronchospasm), the peak inspiratory pressure is increased while the plateau pressure stays unchanged.

Plateau and Peak Inspiratory Pressure. In general, conditions causing changes in plateau pressure and static compliance invoke similar changes in peak inspiratory pressure and dynamic compliance. For example, atelectasis causes an increase of plateau and peak inspiratory pressures (Figure 1-2, A to B). Since the plateau and peak inspiratory pressures are increased, the calculated static and dynamic compliance measurements are decreased. When atelectasis is resolved, the plateau and peak inspiratory pressures return to normal (Figure 1-2, B to A).

In conditions where the airflow resistance is increased (e.g., bronchospasm), the peak inspiratory pressure is increased while the plateau pressure stays unchanged (Figure 1-3, A to B). Since the peak inspiratory pressure is increased, the dynamic compliance is decreased. The static compliance stays the same because there is no change in the plateau pressure. When bronchospasm is resolved, the peak inspiratory pressure and dynamic compliance measurements return to their previous states. (Figure 1-3, B to A).

Pressure-Volume Loop. Since compliance is determined by $\Delta V/\Delta P$, the P-V loop is essentially a “compliance loop,” and it provides useful information on the characteristics of a patient’s compliance. Figure 1-4 shows a P-V loop during a mandatory

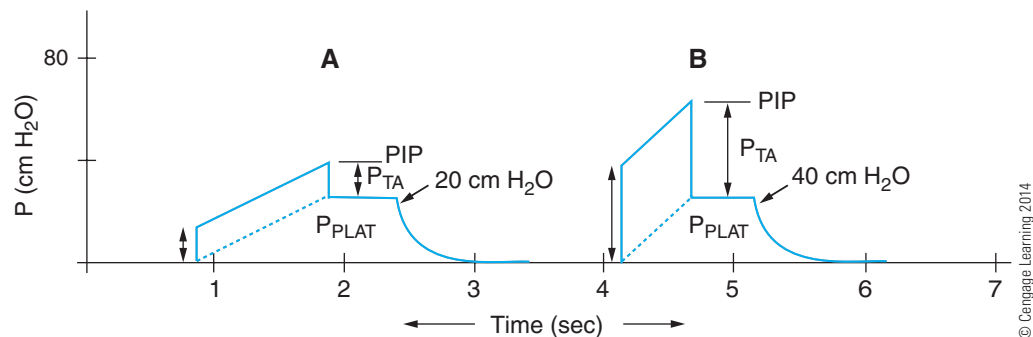


FIGURE 1-3 In conditions where the airflow resistance is increased (e.g., bronchospasm), the peak inspiratory pressure (PIP) is increased while the plateau pressure (P_{PLAT}) stays unchanged (from A to B).

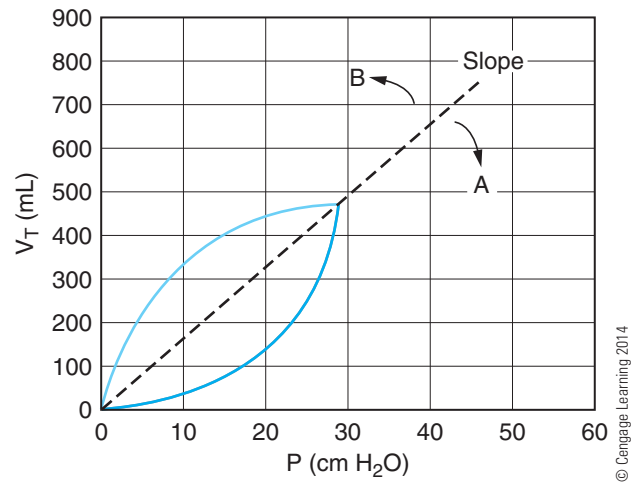


FIGURE 1-4 Shifting of the P-V slope toward the pressure axis (A) indicates a decrease in compliance. Shifting of the P-V slope toward the volume axis (B) indicates an increase in compliance.

✓ A shift of the slope toward the pressure axis indicates a decrease in compliance.

✓ A shift of the slope toward the volume axis indicates an increase in compliance.

breath. A slope is drawn from the beginning point dividing the inspiratory limb and the expiratory limb. A shift of the slope toward the pressure axis indicates a decrease in compliance. A shift of the slope toward the volume axis indicates an increase in compliance (Waugh et al., 2007).

In another P-V loop (Figure 1-5), a shift of the slope and the entire P-V loop toward the pressure axis shows an increase in pressure ($\uparrow \Delta P$) required to deliver the same volume (ΔV). This condition shows a decrease in compliance ($\downarrow C$) (Waugh et al., 2007).

Compliance measurements should be made so that a trend can be established. Interpretation is of little value with a single compliance measurement. It is also essential not to compare static compliance with dynamic compliance measurements as this can cause erroneous and meaningless interpretations.

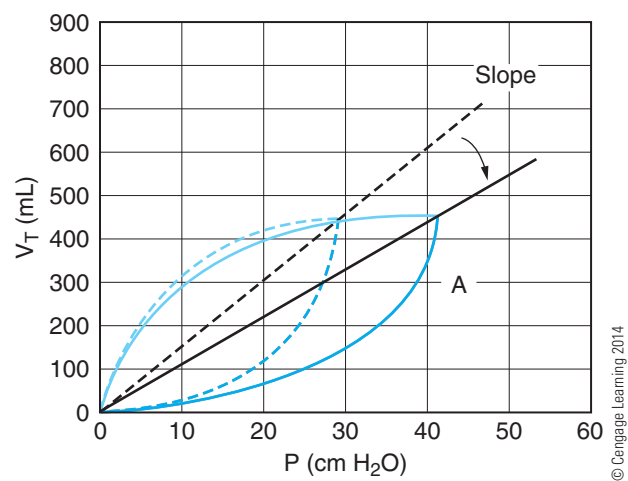


FIGURE 1-5 Shifting of the P-V slope and loop toward the pressure axis shows a higher pressure is required to deliver the same volume (decrease in compliance).