

Fundamentals of Critical Care:

Hemodynamic Monitoring & Optimal Antibiotic Use

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Definitions and Principles

- ❑ The measurement and interpretation of biological systems that describe performance of the cardiovascular system
- ❑ Monitoring is NOT therapy
- ❑ Clinicians must know how to interpret the data
- ❑ Very few randomized controlled trials



Oxygen Delivery is the Goal

Oxygen Delivery

$$DO_2 \text{ (mL O}_2\text{/min)} = CO \text{ (L/min)} \times CaO_2 \text{ (mL O}_2\text{/dL)} \times 10$$

$$CO \text{ (L/min)} = HR \text{ (beats/min)} \times SV \text{ (L/beat)}$$

$$CaO_2 \text{ (mL O}_2\text{/dL)} = [1.34 \times (Hb)(g/dL) \times SaO_2] + [.003 \times PaO_2 \text{ mm Hg}]$$

Oxygen Consumption

$$CVO_2 \text{ (mL O}_2\text{/dL)} = [1.34 \times (Hb)(g/dL) \times SVO_2] + [.003 \times PVO_2 \text{ mm Hg}]$$

$$VO_2 \text{ (mL O}_2\text{/min)} = CO \times 3(CaO_2 - CVO_2) \times 10$$

•



Determinants of Cardiac Performance

□ Preload

- Estimated by end-diastolic volume (pressure)
- CVP for RVEDV, PAOP (wedge) for LVEDV

□ Afterload

- $SVR = [MAP - CVP] / CO \times 80$

□ Contractility



Methods of Hemodynamic Monitoring

- Arterial Blood Pressure
 - Non-invasive
 - Direct arterial pressure measurement
- Central Venous Pressure
- The Pulmonary Artery Catheter
- Cardiac Output Measurement
- Tissue Oxygenation



Non-invasive Blood Pressure Monitoring



Non-invasive Blood Pressure Measurement

- Manual or automated devices
- Method of measurement
 - Oscillometric (most common)
 - MAP most accurate, DP least accurate
 - Auscultatory (Korotkoff sounds)
 - MAP is calculated
 - Combination

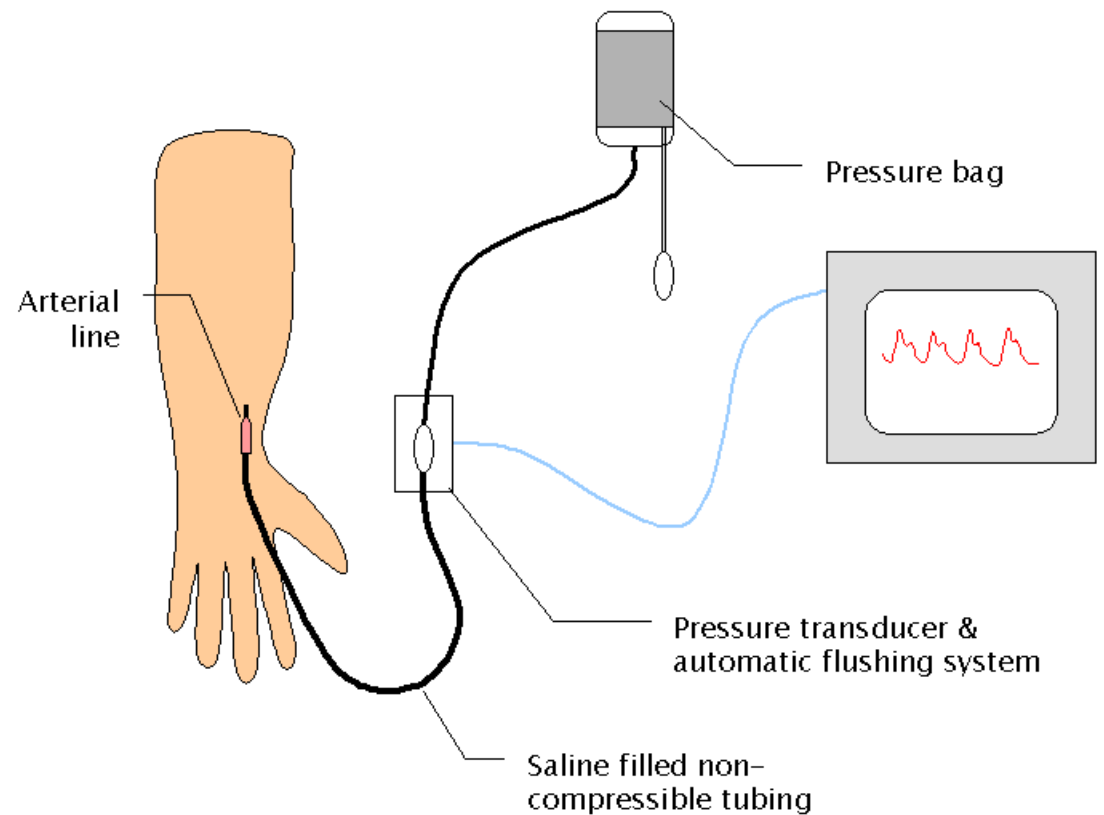


Limitations of Non-invasive Blood Pressure Monitoring

- ❑ Cuff must be placed correctly and must be appropriately sized
- ❑ Auscultatory method is very inaccurate
 - Korotkoff sounds difficult to hear
 - Significant underestimation in low-flow (i.e. shock) states
- ❑ Oscillometric measurements also commonly inaccurate (> 5 mm Hg off directly recorded pressures)



Direct Arterial Blood Pressure Measurement



Indications for Arterial Catheterization

- ❑ Need for continuous blood pressure measurement
 - Hemodynamic instability
 - Vasopressor requirement
- ❑ Respiratory failure
 - Frequent arterial blood gas assessments
- ❑ Most common locations: radial, femoral, axillary, and dorsalis pedis



Complications of Arterial Catheterization

- ❑ Hemorrhage
- ❑ Hematoma
- ❑ Thrombosis
- ❑ Proximal or distal embolization
- ❑ Pseudoaneurysm
- ❑ Infection



Pseudoaneurysm



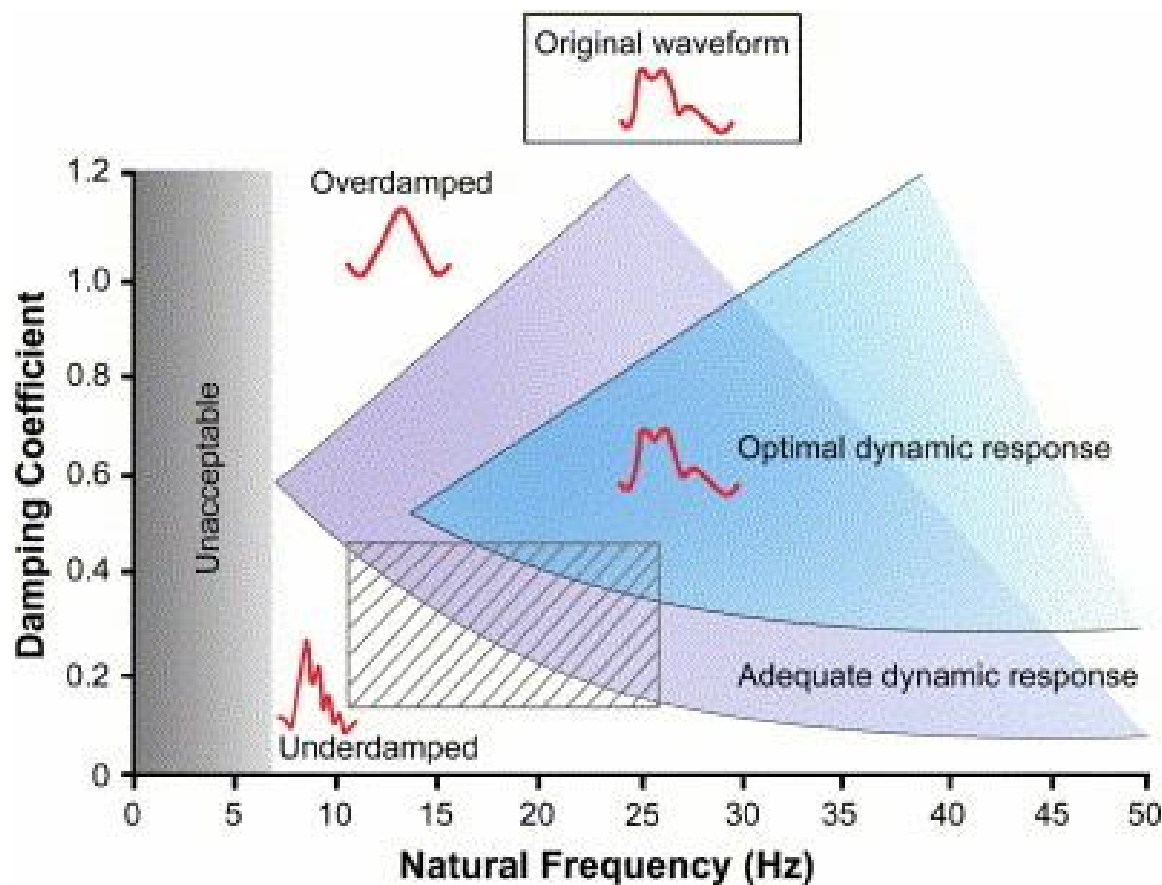
Fig. 1 – Photography of colour Doppler result showing right axillary artery pseudoaneurysm

Limitations of Arterial Catheterization

- ❑ Pressure does not accurately reflect flow when vascular impedance is abnormal
- ❑ Systolic pressure amplification
 - Mean pressure is more accurate
- ❑ Recording artifacts
 - Underdamping
 - Overdamping



Waveform Distortion

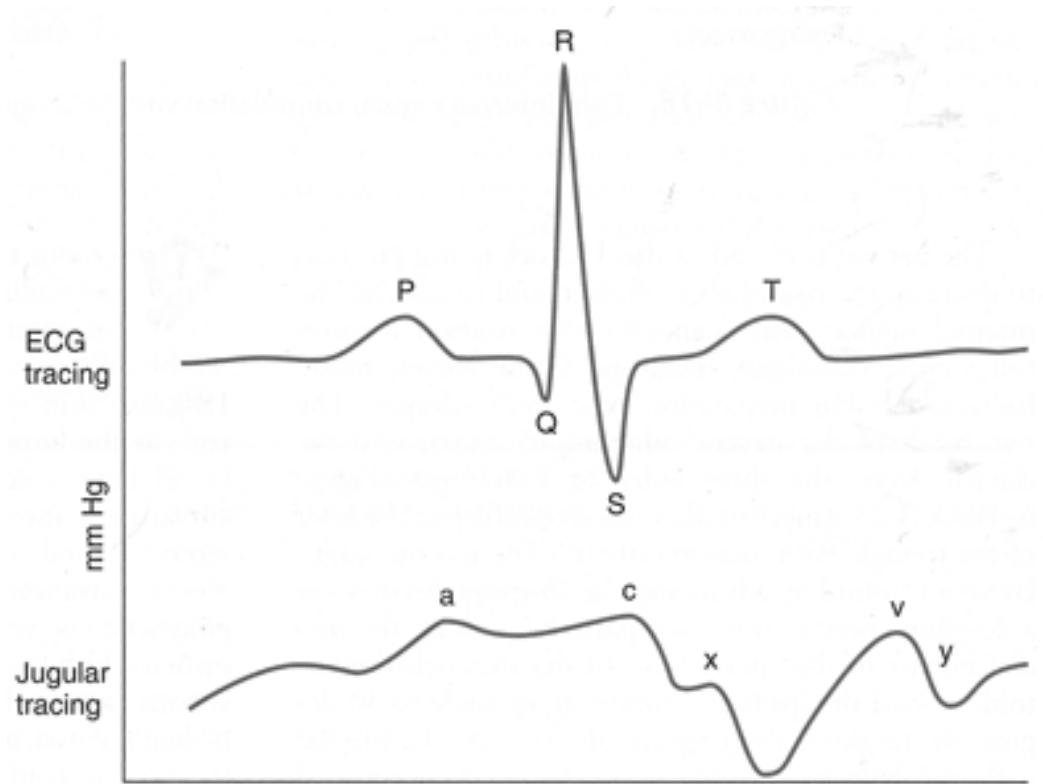


Central Venous Catheterization

- ❑ Central venous pressure
 - Right atrial (superior vena cava) pressure
 - Limited by respiratory variation and PEEP
- ❑ Central venous oxygen saturation
 - $SCVO_2$
 - Correlates with $SMVO_2$ assuming stable cardiac function
 - Goal-directed resuscitation in severe sepsis and septic shock (Rivers, et al)



Central Venous Pressure Waveform

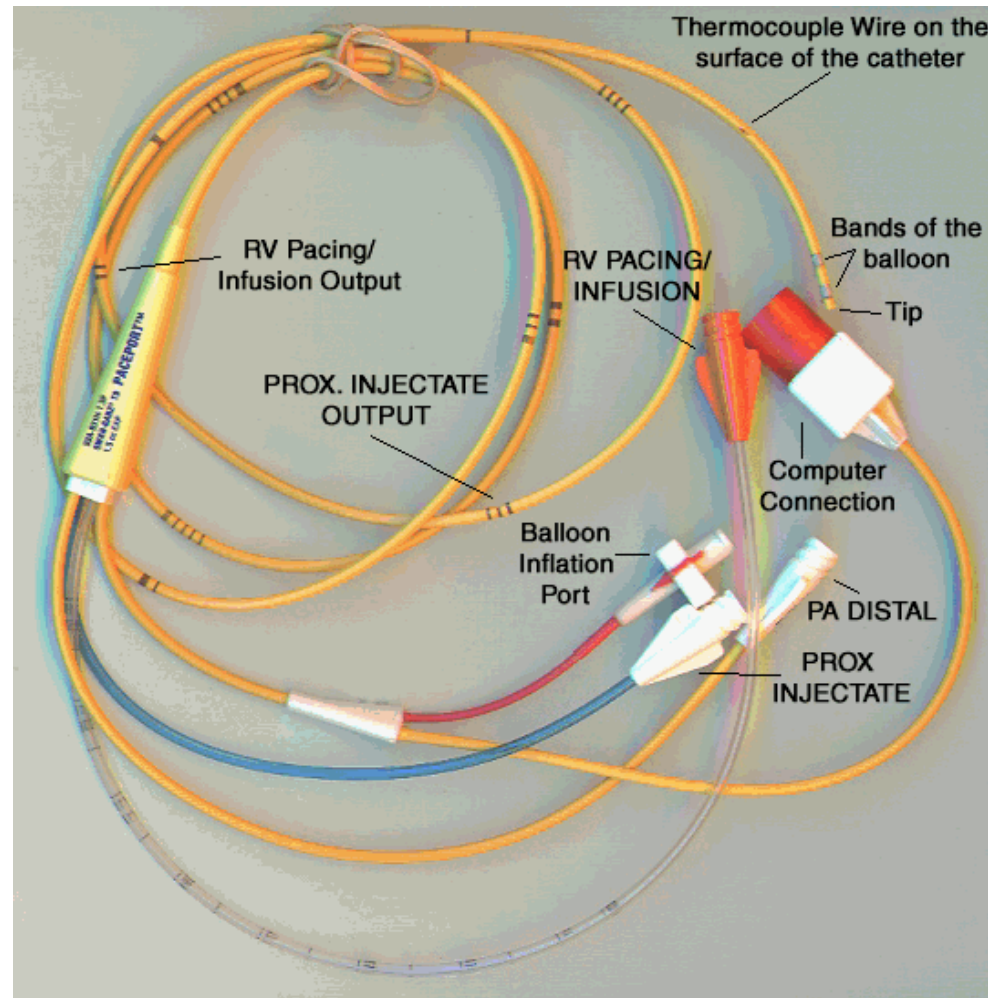


The Pulmonary Artery Catheter

- ❑ HJC Swan and sailboats
- ❑ Widespread use in critically ill patients
- ❑ Remains controversial
 - Lack of prospective, randomized trials
 - PAC data are only as good as the clinicians' interpretation and application
- ❑ Measures CVP, PAP, PAOP, Cardiac Index and SVO_2



Pulmonary Artery Catheter



Indications for Pulmonary Artery Catheterization

- ❑ Identification of the type of shock
 - Cardiogenic (acute MI)
 - Hypovolemic (hemorrhagic)
 - Obstructive (PE, cardiac tamponade)
 - Distributive (septic)
 - Many critically ill patients exhibit elements of more than 1 shock classification
- ❑ Monitoring the effectiveness of therapy



Normal Hemodynamic Values

SVO ₂	60-75%
Stroke volume	50-100 mL
Stroke index	25-45 mL/M ²
Cardiac output	4-8 L/min
Cardiac index	2.5-4.0 L/min/M ²
MAP	60-100 mm Hg
CVP	2-6 mm Hg
PAP systolic	20-30 mm Hg
PAP diastolic	5-15 mm Hg
PAOP (wedge)	8-12 mm Hg
SVR	900-1300 dynes·sec·cm ⁻⁵

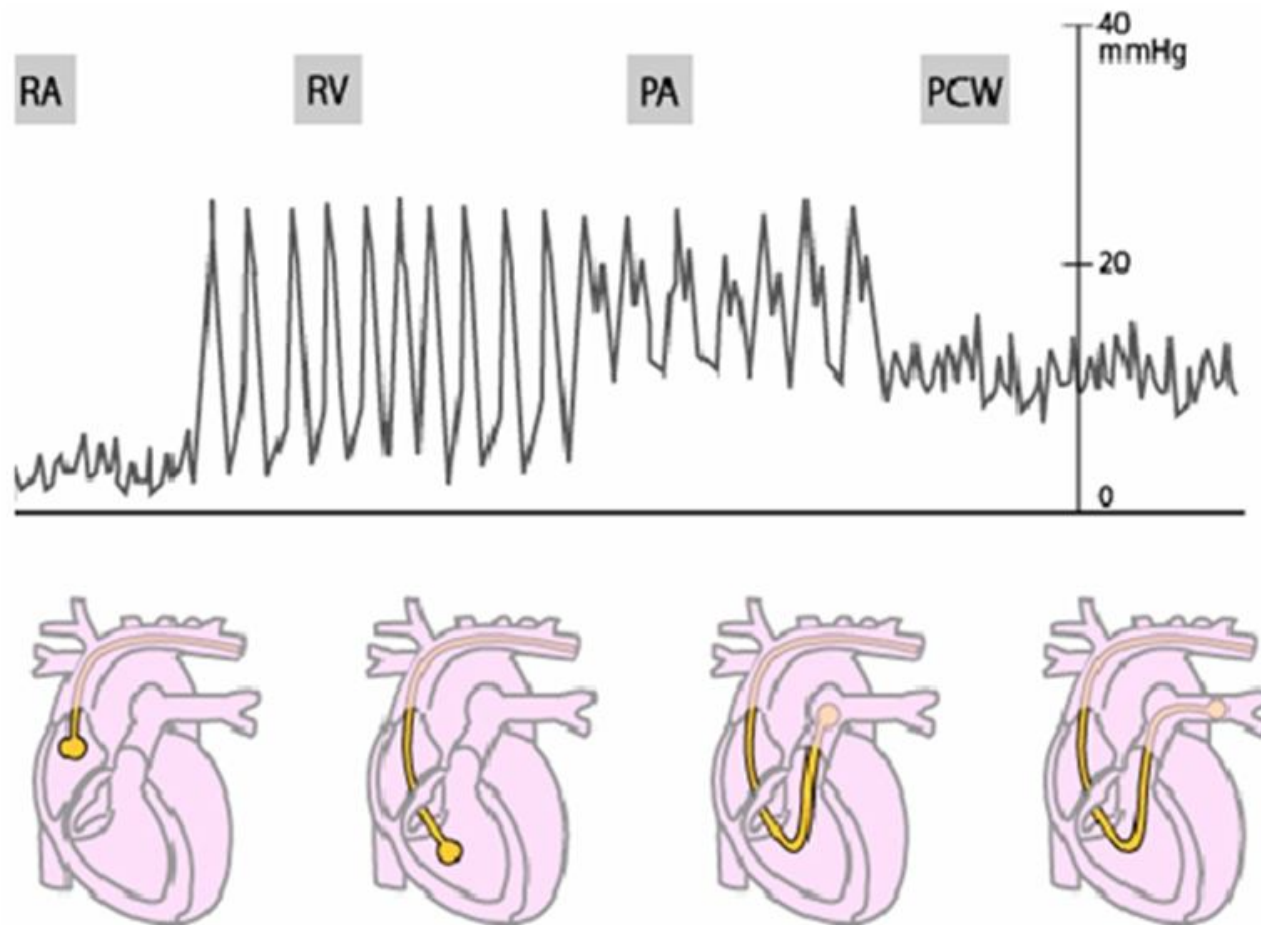


Hemodynamic Profiles in Shock

Class of Shock	CVP	PAOP	CO/CI	SVR
Cardiogenic	↑	↑	↓	↑
Hypovolemic	↓	↓	↓	↑
Hyperdynamic septic	↑↓	↔	↑	↓
Hypodynamic septic	↑↓	↓	↓	↓



Pulmonary Artery Catheter Placement



Complications of Pulmonary Artery Catheterization

- ❑ General central line complications
 - Pneumothorax
 - Arterial injury
 - Infection
 - Embolization
- ❑ Inability to place PAC into PA
- ❑ Arrhythmias (heart block)
- ❑ Pulmonary artery rupture



The Pulmonary Artery Catheter Controversy

- ❑ Accuracy of data affected by many conditions common in critically ill patients
- ❑ Lack of prospective randomized data supporting better outcomes with PAC
- ❑ Limited by the ability of the clinician to accurately interpret PAC data

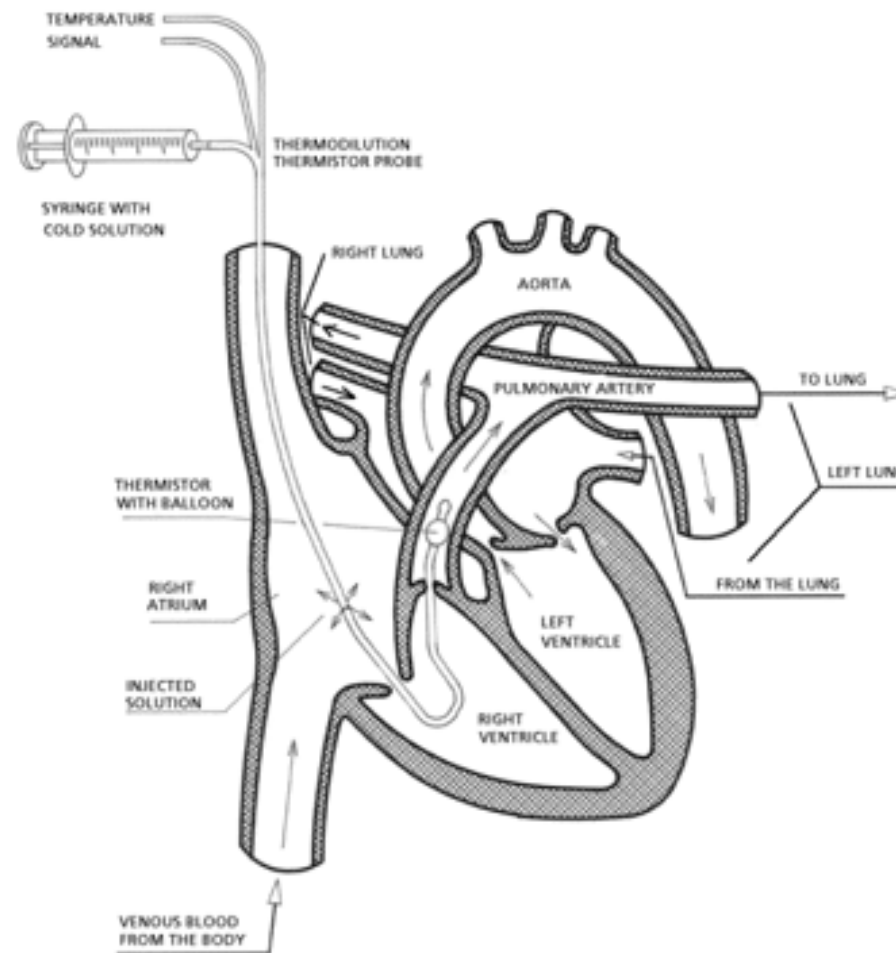


Cardiac Output Measurement

- Multiple techniques
 - Thermodilution – most common
 - Transpulmonary
 - Pulse contour analysis
 - Esophageal Doppler
- Newer pulmonary artery catheters offer continuous cardiac output measurement



Thermodilution Method of Cardiac Output Measurement



Tissue Oxygenation

- ❑ Despite advances, our ability to monitor the microcirculation and tissue perfusion is limited
- ❑ Laboratory tests for metabolic acidosis are global and insensitive
- ❑ Newer technology on the horizon
 - Gastric tonometry
 - Sublingual capnometry



Conclusions

- ❑ Multiple different methods of hemodynamic monitoring
- ❑ Keys to success
 - 1) Know when to use which method
 - 2) Technical skills for device placement
 - 3) Know how to interpret the data
- ❑ Remember the limitations of the technology



Segue.....

Q: Why is hemodynamic monitoring really important?

A: To ensure that the antibiotics get to the tissues.....



Optimal Antibiotic Use

- ❑ Antimicrobial prophylaxis for surgery
- ❑ Empiric antimicrobial therapy
- ❑ Challenges of therapeutic antibiotics
 - Correct antibiotic(s)
 - Correct dosing
 - Length of therapy
- ❑ Ventilator-associated pneumonia
- ❑ Antimicrobial resistance
 - Strategies against resistance
- ❑ Bad bugs



Antimicrobial Prophylaxis for Surgery: NSIPP

- ❑ Bratzler DW, Houck PM, et al. *American Journal of Surgery*. 2005 Apr; 189(4): 395-404
- ❑ First dose of antibiotics within 60 minutes of surgical incision
- ❑ Prophylactic antibiotics should be discontinued within 24 hours of surgery
- ❑ Specific antibiotic should be chosen based on activity against bacteria likely to be encountered and having smallest possible impact on normal flora



Principles of Empiric Antimicrobial Therapy

- Vigilance and high index of suspicion
 - Local and systemic signs
 - Laboratory and radiographic findings
- **Prompt initiation of therapy**
- Appropriate choice of empiric coverage
 - Suspected site of infection
 - Most likely microbial etiologies
 - Likelihood of antimicrobial resistance – institution specific
 - Patient-specific toxicity and allergic concerns
- Modification of empiric coverage after 48-72 hours



The Risks of Inadequate Empiric Antimicrobial Treatment

- Prospective cohort study of 2000 ICU patients
 - Hospital mortality rate greater (52% vs. 12%) in patients who received inadequate antimicrobial treatment
 - Most important independent determinant of hospital mortality by logistic regression
- 655 patients infected
 - 169 (25.8%) received inadequate antimicrobial treatment
 - Risk factors: prior antibiotic use, presence of bloodstream infection, higher APACHE II scores, decreasing age
 - Infection-related mortality rate 42% vs. 17.7%

Kollef MH, et al. *Chest*. 1999; 155; 462-474



The Risks of Inadequate Empiric Antimicrobial Treatment: Bloodstream Infections

- ❑ Prospective cohort study of 492 patients with documented bloodstream infections
- ❑ 147 (29.9%) received inadequate antimicrobial therapy
- ❑ Hospital mortality rate 61.9% vs 28.4%
- ❑ Risk factors for inadequate antimicrobials:
 - Candida bloodstream infection
 - Prior antibiotic use during same hospitalization
 - Decreasing serum albumin
 - Increasing central catheter duration



Modification of Empiric Coverage

- ❑ Based on clinical condition and culture results
- ❑ 48-72 hours after empiric antimicrobials initiated
- ❑ Interpret all results with caution
 - Negative cultures drawn after antibiotics initiated
 - Cultures with high incidence of false positives (tracheal aspirates)
 - Contaminants



Therapeutic Antimicrobials: Choosing the Right Drug(s)

- ❑ Gram-positive infections
 - β -lactam antibiotics (penicillins, cephalosporins, carbapenems)
 - Fluoroquinolones
 - Vancomycin
 - Linezolid, Daptomycin
- ❑ Gram-negative infections
 - β -lactam antibiotics
 - Fluoroquinolones
 - Aminoglycosides



Therapeutic Antimicrobials: Choosing the Right Drug(s)

□ Anaerobic infections

- Penicillins
- Carbapenems
- Second-generation cephalosporins
- Metronidazole

□ Fungal infections

- Amphotericin
- Triazoles
- Echinocandins



Therapeutic Antimicrobials:

Bactericidal vs. Bacteriostatic

□ Bactericidal

- Penicillins*
- Cephalosporins
- Carbapenems
- Monobactams
- Vancomycin*
- Quinolones
- Aminoglycosides
- Quinupristin-dalfopristin
- Metronidazole

□ Bacteriostatic

- Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole
- Clindamycin
- Linezolid
- Macrolides
- Chloramphenicol
- Tetracyclines



Therapeutic Antimicrobials:

Correct Dosing

- ❑ Important variables in critically ill patients:
 - Target organism
 - Site of infection
 - MIC
 - Host defenses
 - Volume of distribution
 - Hepatic and/or renal impairment
- ❑ Concentration-dependent vs. Time-dependent killing



Therapeutic Antimicrobials:

Duration of Therapy

- ❑ Very controversial
- ❑ Factors to consider:
 - Severity of infection
 - Presence of prosthetic material, abscess, necrotic tissue
 - Rapidity of clinical and microbiological response
 - Status of host defenses
- ❑ Balancing adequacy of therapy with prevention of resistance



Ventilator Associated Pneumonia

- ❑ Most frequent nosocomial infection in ICU
 - 80% of hospital-acquired pneumonia
 - 21-fold increased risk with artificial airway
 - Cumulative risk is 1% per day of mechanical ventilation
 - > \$40,000 cost per patient (1999)
- ❑ Risk factors
 - Burns
 - Trauma
 - Male gender
 - Central nervous system disease
 - Aspiration



Diagnosis of Ventilator Associated Pneumonia

- ❑ Johanson criteria
 - Chest X-ray
 - ❑ Sensitive but not specific
 - Leukocytosis/leukopenia
 - Purulent secretions
- ❑ Clinical Pulmonary Infection Score
 - Adds fever, oxygenation, and culture results
 - Sensitivity and specificity are highly variable
- ❑ Bacteriologic data
 - Different methods of quantitative cultures seem equivalent



Strategies to Prevent Ventilator Associated Pneumonia

- ❑ Patient-oriented
 - Gown and glove use
 - Avoiding gastric distention
 - Head-of-bed elevation
 - Minimizing stress-ulcer prophylaxis
- ❑ Microorganism-oriented
 - **HAND WASHING**
 - Clorhexidine oral rinse
 - Selective gut decontamination
- ❑ Device-oriented
 - Subglottic drainage
 - Humidification

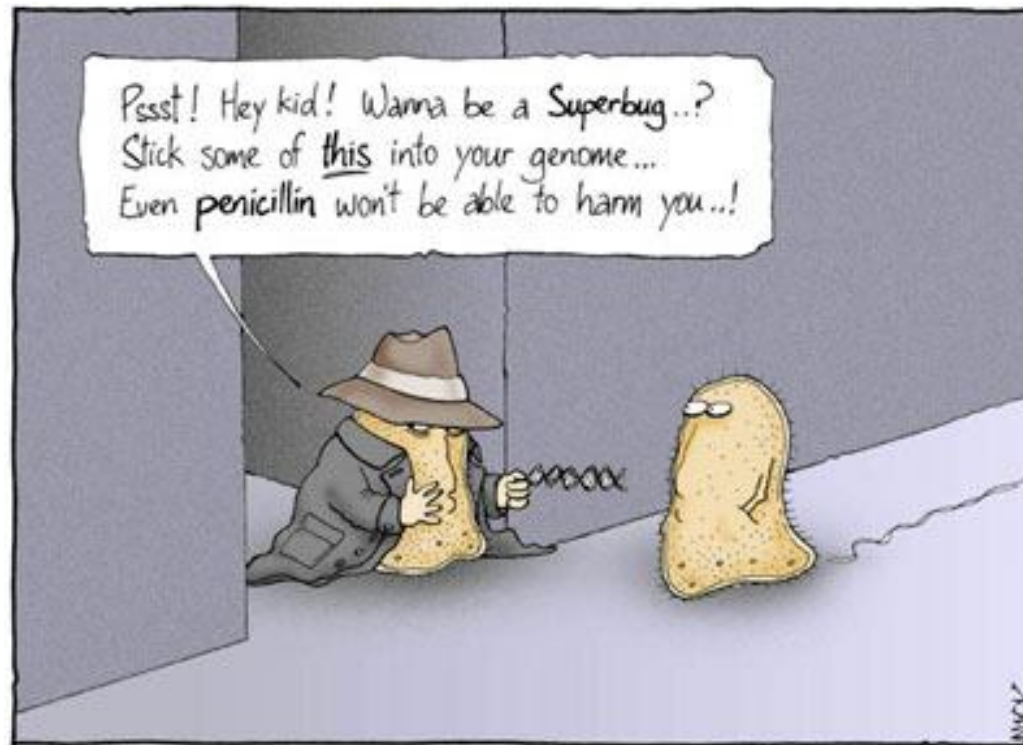


Management of Ventilator Associated Pneumonia

- ❑ Prompt initiation of adequate empiric therapy is the most important concept
- ❑ Considerations:
 - Prior antibiotic exposure
 - Comorbidities
 - Length of hospitalization
 - Local microbial epidemiology and susceptibilities
- ❑ Key questions:
 - Is the patient at risk of MRSA?
 - Is *A. baumannii* a problem at the institution?
 - Is the patient at risk of *P. aeruginosa*?



Antimicrobial Resistance



It was on a short-cut through the hospital kitchens that Albert was first approached by a member of the Antibiotic Resistance.



Antimicrobial Resistance: CDC Programs

- ❑ National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance (NNIS) System
- ❑ Project ICARE (Intensive Care Antimicrobial Resistance Epidemiology)
- ❑ Higher rates of resistance in the ICU correlate with more antibiotic use:
 - *Enterobacter* - 3rd-generation cephalosporins
 - Enterococci - vancomycin
 - *P. aeruginosa* - antipseudomonal penicillins and 3rd-generation cephalosporins
- ❑ Higher rates of resistance in the ICU that do not correlate with more antibiotic use:
 - MRSA and MR-CNS



Strategies to Minimize Antimicrobial Resistance: Individual Patient

- ❑ Use antimicrobials with highest potency
- ❑ Appropriate dose and dosing intervals
- ❑ Avoid known inducers of chromosomal resistance
- ❑ Chose agents with good penetration to site of infection
- ❑ Avoid antagonistic antimicrobial combinations
- ❑ Appropriate treatment duration
- ❑ Achieve therapeutic drainage and/or device removal



Strategies to Minimize Antimicrobial Resistance: ICU-based

- ❑ **HAND-WASHING**
- ❑ Appropriate glove and gown use
- ❑ Surveillance monitoring for resistant strains
 - MRSA
 - VRE
 - ESBL
- ❑ Appropriate patient isolation policies
- ❑ Antimicrobial cycling
- ❑ Computer-assisted antimicrobial prescription



Antimicrobial Resistance



Reasons for Antimicrobial Failure

- ❑ Undrained infected material
- ❑ Underlying host defenses
- ❑ Infected prosthetic material
- ❑ Poor tissue penetration
- ❑ Superinfection with (new) pathogen
- ❑ Evolved resistance
- ❑ Inadequate dosing
- ❑ Antagonistic antimicrobial combination



Bad Bugs

- ❑ Vancomycin-resistant Enterococci
- ❑ Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*
- ❑ *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
- ❑ ESBL strains
 - *Enterobacter*
 - *Klebsiella*
 - *Serratia*
- ❑ *Acinetobacter baumannii*



Vancomycin-resistant Enterococci

- ❑ Predominantly *E. faecium*
- ❑ Usually resistant to ampicillin
- ❑ Can be contaminant but bloodstream infections and purulent closed-space collections in symptomatic patients must be treated
- ❑ Linezolid
- ❑ Quinupristin/dalfopristin
- ❑ Daptomycin



Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*

- ❑ Vancomycin remains useful, but be aware of limitations
 - Slow bactericidal activity
 - Poor lung and CNS penetration
 - Poor activity in biofilms
- ❑ Emergence of vancomycin-resistance
- ❑ Linezolid
- ❑ Quinupristin/dalfopristin
- ❑ Daptomycin



Pseudomonas aeruginosa

- ❑ Virulent: infection-associated mortality as high as 70% despite therapy
- ❑ Intrinsic and acquired resistance:
 - Chromosomal-mediated β -lactamase
 - Aminoglycoside modifying enzymes
 - Mutations of outer membrane porin channels
- ❑ Piperacillin-tazobactam
- ❑ Meropenem
- ❑ Aminoglycosides
- ❑ Colistin



ESBL strains

- ❑ Plasmid-mediated production of β -lactamases
- ❑ Resistance to aztreonam, piperacillin, and later generation cephalosporins
- ❑ ESBL strains commonly coexpress aminoglycoside and/or quinolone resistance
- ❑ Carbapenems are the most proven antimicrobial

