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The Respiratory Drive: An Overlooked Tile of COVID-19 Pathophysiology

Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) caused by coronavirus disease (COVID-19) (CARDS) has similarities and differences compared with ARDS from other etiologies (1). These traits stem from a distinctive pattern of lung injury in which severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) causes alterations in the metabolism of angiotensin (2), vascular inflammation (3), immune thrombosis (4, 5), and neoangiogenesis (6). Of particular interest is the interaction between hypoxemia (which may be profound), the increased respiratory drive (primarily manifesting as increased V_T) (7), and dyspnea, which may even be absent in the early phase of the disease ("happy hypoxemia") (8). Measuring respiratory drive in patients with CARDS holds potential relevance in the selection of initial ventilatory support (9) and in the timing of liberation from mechanical ventilation. Indeed, vigorous breathing efforts can amplify the severity of lung injury, which in turn can influence the duration of mechanical ventilation and impact patient outcome.

The findings of a study reported in this issue of the *Journal* by Esnault and colleagues (pp. 1173–1178) illustrate the following two main things: first, the importance of measuring systematically the respiratory drive in ventilated patients who make spontaneous efforts and second, how high respiratory drive in CARDS portends subsequent worsening of respiratory function during attempts to liberate from mechanical ventilation (10). The study is the first to describe such an association in COVID-19. The authors report the threshold values of the following two measures of respiratory drive taken on the first day of spontaneous breathing: 1) occlusion pressure in the first 100 ms of an occlusion ($P_{0.1}$) and 2) the maximal deflection in airway pressure from positive end-expiratory pressure during an end-expiratory airway occlusion maneuver ($\Delta Pocc$). These simplified bedside measures of drive correlate well with relatively more precise methods for effort estimation (e.g., esophageal pressure and electrical activity of the diaphragm) (11, 12). Despite low Richmond Agitation Sedation Scale scores before measurement, 50% of the patient sample had $P_{0.1}$ >3.5 cm H_2O and 43% had $\Delta Pocc$ <−15 cm H_2O. Patients who experienced a deterioration in respiratory function 24 hours after measurement had higher absolute values of $P_{0.1}$ (6.9 vs. 3 cm H_2O) and more negative $\Delta Pocc$ (−18 vs. −15 cm H_2O). Both $P_{0.1}$ and $\Delta Pocc$ displayed good prognostic performance in predicting respiratory deterioration at 24 hours, using cutoff values of $P_{0.1}$ ≥4 cm H_2O and $\Delta Pocc$ <−10. None of the patients in the cohort experienced respiratory deterioration 24 hours after measurement if both measures were below the cutoff values,

whereas deteriorations were recorded in 62.5% of the patient population if $P_{0.1}$ ≥4 cm H_2O and $\Delta Pocc$ <−15 cm H_2O.

The relationship between high respiratory drive and worsening of respiratory status is complex, and therefore it is difficult to establish the direction of cause and effect. However, apart from reflex stimulation from the injured lungs, COVID-19 may affect angiotensin-mediated sensitivity of the carotid bodies (which express ACE2 receptors) and generate more complex brainstem-level alterations of the control of breathing, regardless of the degree of hypoxia or changes of lung mechanics. These relationships may become even more complicated over time as changing lung mechanics, ventilation needs, and neural sensitivity interact (13). At a relatively low level of pressure support, these patients exhibited a high corrected $\dot{V}_E$ of 12.8 L/min (14)—indicating a larger dead space—but a low rapid shallow breath index of 49 breaths · min^{-1} · L^{-1}. Yet, despite low rapid shallow breathing index, the respiratory drive was high in half of the studied population. This combination seems to differ from other forms of ARDS, in which the respiratory rate predictably increases with effort. Important information, which unfortunately is missing, relates to the respiratory mechanics either just before switching to spontaneous breathing or at the time of respiratory drive estimation. It would have been interesting to understand whether relatively high compliance (and lung volumes) could have explained this apparent paradox. In other words, under conditions of hypoxemia and unusually well-preserved compliance, higher respiratory drive would favor increasing V_T over respiratory rate (7). This possibility could explain the coexistence of the low shallow breath index, high respiratory drive, and high rate of complications in these patients. It can be speculated that the association between higher respiratory drive and respiratory complications may stem from the following two factors: 1) worsening lung edema (from greater pulmonary blood flow and lung injury that follows larger swings in transpulmonary pressure) or 2) an unfavorable relationship between oxygen delivery to $\dot{V}o_2$ in response to greater inspiratory effort. The first hypothetical mechanism is the pathophysiological basis of self-inflicted lung injury (15), which may determine clinical and radiological deteriorations in proportion to respiratory effort (9). The study reports other interesting results. For example, most patients received invasive mechanical ventilation within the first day of ICU admission and experienced low 30-day mortality (4%). Given that ~60% of patients were still in the ICU at day 30, it would be of interest to see longer-term reports on the total duration of ventilation and mortality (e.g., 60 d or 90 d).

We may then wonder whether respiratory drive should be routinely assessed either by measuring $P_{0.1}$ and $\Delta Pocc$ or by other methods (e.g., esophageal pressure swings or delta central venous pressures). It is likely that the assessment of the intensity of the inspiratory efforts—particularly in the early phase of the disease—is a first step toward clarifying the degree to which ventilation-induced lung injury plays a role in disease progression. Indeed, injury may

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be due either to the natural evolution of COVID-19—a consequence of the interaction between the viral load and the host response—or to the adverse effects of spontaneous breathing and/or inappropriate mechanical ventilation. The study by Esnault and colleagues is a first step in this direction. If further data confirm their findings, the ventilatory treatment should be modified accordingly to limit disease progression and duration. In this new disease, the "evidence" is not immediately available, but it is built by a number of contributions. The results of this paper suggest that excessive respiratory drive may be relevant in COVID-19. ∎

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with a 95% confidence interval of 9.0–33.8% (Table 2). Fungal cultures of the nondirected BAL yielded positive results in seven (77.8%) patients with IPA and only one (3%) patient without IPA, who, because of lack of clinical deterioration and lack of increased BAL GM levels, was ruled to be colonized with *Aspergillus*. At 30-day follow-up after inclusion cessation, ICU mortality in the IPA group was 22.2% and 15.1% in the non-IPA group ($P = 0.61$). Autopsies were not performed because of a perceived risk of contamination. Mean ICU length of stay was 37 days for patients with IPA versus 19 for those without IPA ($P < 0.05$).

A bronchoscopy with BAL is the preferred diagnostic approach because GM antigen detection and culture have a good sensitivity in influenza-associated IPA. However, given the risk of aerosolization, The American Association for Bronchology and Interventional Pulmonology issued a statement providing a limited role for bronchoscopy in patients with COVID-19, advocating the use of a nonbronchoscopic alveolar lavage (10). The technique we used in this study minimizes the risk for care providers while providing a diagnostic tool for our patients. However, the nondirected BAL technique is not validated for GM detection. As all patients had consolidations in all regions of the lung, the chances that a nondirected BAL may result in sampling of a lung region that was not affected by IPA may be low, although it is unclear to which extent consolidations are caused by the virus or by the fungus. More importantly, we cannot rule out overdiagnosis, as a nondirected sample may not always reflect microbiology of the lower airways. Therefore, instead of 0.5, a cutoff GM index of 1.0 was applied in this study. Nevertheless, sampling error cannot be ruled out. Of note, however, concordance between GM index >1.0 and positive *Aspergillus* cultures was high (77.8%).

Early detection and treatment of IPA improves outcome compared with delayed diagnosis. Therefore, we opted to treat all nine patients who were deemed to have putative IPA with antifungal therapy (with an empirical regimen consisting of amphotericin B and voriconazole). We noted a longer ICU length of stay for patients who developed IPA, although ICU mortality did not differ between groups. However, whether COVID-19–associated IPA contributes to mortality, or whether IPA therapy improves outcome, cannot be dissected from our study.

We conclude that the incidence of putative IPA may be high in patients with COVID-19 and that chronic obstructive pulmonary disease may be a particular risk factor. Implementation of surveillance of mechanically ventilated patients with COVID-19 using the nondirected BAL technique is feasible. As COVID-19–associated IPA appears to resemble influenza-associated IPA in many ways, and ICU length of stay was longer in those with IPA versus those without, it is our opinion that active surveillance and treatment may be beneficial in patients with COVID-19. ∎

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High Respiratory Drive and Excessive Respiratory Efforts Predict Relapse of Respiratory Failure in Critically Ill Patients with COVID-19

Since the first reported cases in December 2019 in Wuhan, China, coronavirus disease (COVID-19) outbreak has rapidly spread

around the world (1). This infection often requires ICU admissions and invasive mechanical ventilation (2). To prevent diaphragmatic atrophy and to enhance weaning, the early use of ventilatory modes allowing spontaneous breathing is usually recommended as soon as possible but should be balanced with potential harmful effects. Indeed, a high respiratory drive is sometimes observed in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), and thus, spontaneous breathing could lead to uncontrolled transpulmonary pressures and possibly to patient self-inflicted lung injuries (P-SILI) (3, 4). Strong efforts could also simply reflect the nonresolution of the underlying disease and thus invite to delay the weaning process of mechanical ventilation. Lacking specific respiratory monitoring, surrogate measures of respiratory drive should be assessed. Airway occlusion pressure ($P_{0.1}$) is a simple, noninvasive measurement method for estimating respiratory drive during mechanical ventilation (3, 5). It is automatically available in almost all ventilators. $P_{0.1}$ is the negative airway pressure generated during the first 100 ms of an occluded inspiration. Because of the very short duration and zero flow, it is independent from respiratory muscle weakness as well as respiratory system compliance and resistance. However, it provides little information about the magnitude of dynamic lung stress (5, 6). It has been proposed to target a range between 1.5 and 3.5 cm H_2O of $P_{0.1}$ (3). The airway pressure deflection generated by the patient's respiratory effort during an end-expiratory airway occlusion (ΔPocc) is a recently validated noninvasive technique for detecting excessive respiratory effort and dynamic lung stress during assisted mechanical ventilation (6). Bertoni and colleagues showed that measurements of ΔPocc allow a reliable and bedside estimation of respiratory muscle pressure (Pmus) by using a conversion factor (predicted Pmus = $-0.75 \times \Delta$Pocc) (6). Besides, in a recent editorial, Gattinoni and colleagues suggested that $P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc should be determined in patients with COVID-19 to assess excessive inspiratory efforts (7). The validity of $P_{0.1}$ or ΔPocc measurements in intubated and mechanically ventilated patients with COVID-19 has not been evaluated.

We hypothesized that mechanically ventilated patients with COVID-19 with ARDS often present high respiratory drive and excessive inspiratory efforts (as suggested by elevated $P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc measurements) and that this could rapidly lead to a relapse of respiratory failure during the weaning process of mechanical ventilation.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the threshold values of $P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc predicting the occurrence of relapse in the following 24-hour period after measurements in intubated and mechanically ventilated patients with COVID-19 pneumonia.

Methods

We conducted a retrospective, bicenter study at the Sainte Anne Military Hospital and the Marseille University North Hospital. This study enrolled critically ill patients with mild to severe ARDS due to COVID-19 (positive result of a real-time RT-PCR assay in nasal or pulmonary samples), intubated and mechanically ventilated, in supine position, and with spontaneous breathing (pressure support ventilation [PSV] or airway pressure release ventilation [APRV]).

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Sainte Anne Military Hospital (no. 0011873-2020-05), which waived the requirement for informed consent from patients and their relatives, given the retrospective and observational nature of the study.

$P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc measurements were performed by the clinician in charge in each patient on the first day on APRV mode or PSV mode. $P_{0.1}$ was measured at least three times (1 min between each measurement), and the mean $P_{0.1}$ was notified. ΔPocc was defined as the maximal deflection in airway pressure from positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) during an end-expiratory airway occlusion (6). Measurements were repeated at least three times, and the highest value was recorded.

Automated measurements were performed with four commercialized ventilators: Evita XL (Dräger), Evita Infinity V500 (Dräger), Avea (CareFusion), and Carescape R860 (GE Healthcare). The accuracy and precision of values of $P_{0.1}$ displayed by these ventilators have been validated (8, 9). The same ventilator was used for a given patient.

The main endpoint of the study was a relapse of respiratory failure during the weaning process of invasive mechanical ventilation in the 24-hour period following measurements defined by the presence of at least one of the following criteria: decrease of Pa_{O_2}/FI_{O_2} ratio $\geqslant$20%, or severe hypoxemia (oxygen saturation as measured by pulse oximetry [Sp_{O_2}] <88% under FI_{O_2} $\geqslant$60% for >15 min), new onset of respiratory acidosis (pH <7.35), or increase of Pa_{CO_2} $\geqslant$10 mm Hg in patients with preceding respiratory acidosis. Ventilator settings were optimized in case of respiratory worsening as follows: 2 cm H_2O stepwise increase of pressure support (PS) until 14 cm H_2O when respiratory rate was >35/min or V_T was <6 ml/kg of predicted body weight (PBW), decrease of PS until 0 cm H_2O or increase of sedation (without loss of spontaneous breathing) in case of V_T >8 ml/kg of PBW, and 2 cm H_2O stepwise increase of PEEP until 16 cm H_2O when Sp_{O_2}/FI_{O_2} was <150 (10). If temporary deoxygenations were observed (e.g., following an accidental ventilator disconnection, airway suctioning, transport to computed tomographic scan) and were not followed by any medical intervention (i.e., change of ventilator settings, increase in sedations), they were not considered a relapse of respiratory failure.

The method of weaning was similar in the two ICUs. Briefly, all patients were initially ventilated in volume-controlled mode. When the Pa_{O_2}/FI_{O_2} ratio was greater than 150 mm Hg during at least 6 hours without neuromuscular blockers, and/or use of prone positioning or inhaled nitric oxide in the last 12 hours, volume-controlled mode was switched to APRV mode (minimal time$_{high}$:time$_{low}$ was 1 s:1.5–2 s, Phigh was set to achieve a V_T of 6–8 ml/kg of PBW with a maximal driving pressure of 15 cm H_2O, Plow was the corresponding PEEP during volume-controlled mode). When spontaneous minute ventilation was above 50% in APRV mode, ventilator settings were switched to PSV. The PS was then decreased every 4 hours if V_T remained $\geqslant$6 ml/kg of PBW and respiratory rate remained <35/min. PEEP was gently (2 cm H_2O stepwise) decreased every 8–12 hours if Pa_{O_2}/FI_{O_2} ratio remained $\geqslant$200 mm Hg. Extubation was considered when PS was $\leqslant$4 cm H_2O with V_T >6 ml/kg of PBW and respiratory rate <35/min, PEEP was $\leqslant$6 cm H_2O, and FI_{O_2} was $\leqslant$40% with Pa_{O_2}/FI_{O_2} ratio $\geqslant$200 mm Hg. A spontaneous breathing trial using a T-tube was not systematically performed before extubation.

Statistical analysis was performed using R software, version 3.5.1 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing). Nonparametric

variables were compared using a Mann-Whitney test. Abilities of $P_{0.1}$ or ΔPocc to predict a relapse of respiratory failure were represented by a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis. Areas under the curves (AUCs) were presented with their 95% confidence interval (95% CI). The diagnostic cutoff was determined by the highest Youden index value. Because some patients underwent several $P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc measurements, we analyzed only the first values of $P_{0.1}$ and ΔPocc measurements.

Results

Twenty-eight patients with COVID-19 admitted in the two ICUs from March 10 through April 14, 2020, were included. Population characteristics are displayed in Table 1.

A total of 28 paired measurements of $P_{0.1}$ (3 measures, mean value of the 3) and ΔPocc (highest value of 3 measures) were performed (4 on APRV mode and 24 on PSV mode). Time from the onset of invasive mechanical ventilation to first measurements was 8.5 (interquartile range [IQR], 4–12) days. Before measurements, median Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale was −4 (IQR, −4 to −4). Ventilator settings before measurements were as follows: PS at 6 (IQR, 4–11) cm H_2O, PEEP at 12 (IQR, 10–14) cm H_2O, and V_T of 6.6 (IQR, 6.3–7.3) ml/kg of PBW. Median rapid shallow breathing index was 49 (IQR, 40–62) breaths/min/L. Median minute ventilation was 11.1 (IQR, 8.9–12.6) L/min. Results of last blood gas analysis before measurements were as follows: Pa_{O_2} 83 (IQR, 77–97) mm Hg, Pa_{CO_2} 46.2 (IQR, 39.7–49.3) mm Hg, pH 7.43 (IQR, 7.42–7.46), and $Pa_{O_2}/F_{I_{O_2}}$ ratio 203 (IQR, 187–238) mm Hg.

Mean $P_{0.1}$ value was 4.4 ± 3.0 cm H_2O. Notably, 14 measurements (50%) were >3.5 cm H_2O, and 7 (25%) were ≥6.0 cm H_2O. Twelve ΔPocc measurements (43%) were <−15 cm H_2O.

Of the 28 measurements, 9 (32%) were followed by a relapse of respiratory failure. As illustrated in the Figure 1, median $P_{0.1}$ were significantly higher in those cases (6.9 [IQR, 4.3 to 9.6] cm H_2O vs. 3 [IQR, 1.6 to 4] cm H_2O), and median ΔPocc were lower (−18 [IQR, −26 to −15] cm H_2O vs. −15 [IQR, −18 to −7] cm H_2O).

One measurement was followed by a successful extubation with a value of $P_{0.1}$ at 3.0 cm H_2O.

ROC curve showed that $P_{0.1}$ had a satisfactory accuracy to predict a relapse with an AUC of 0.84 (95% CI, 0.67–1.00), $P = 0.004$ (Figure 1). The maximum value of the Youden index was obtained for a $P_{0.1}$ ≥4 cm H_2O. The prognostic performance of this threshold showed a sensitivity of 89% (95% CI, 52–100), a specificity of 74% (95% CI, 49–91), a positive predictive value of 62% (95% CI, 32–86), a negative predictive value of 93% (95% CI, 68–100), a positive likelihood ratio (LR) of 3.38 (95% CI, 1.54–7.42), a negative LR of 0.15 (95% CI, 0.02–0.98), and a diagnostic accuracy of 79% (95% CI, 59–92).

ROC curve demonstrated that ΔPocc had an acceptable accuracy to predict a relapse with an AUC of 0.73 (95% CI, 0.55–0.92), $P = 0.05$ (Figure 1). The maximum value of the Youden index was obtained for a ΔPocc < −10 cm H_2O. The prognostic performance of this threshold showed a sensitivity of 100% (95% CI, 66–100), a specificity of 42% (95% CI, 20–67), a positive predictive value of 45% (95% CI, 23–68), a negative predictive value of 100% (95% CI, 63–100), a positive LR of 1.73 (95% CI, 1.18–2.53), a negative LR of 0.00 (95% CI, 0.00–0.00), and a diagnostic accuracy of 61% (95% CI, 41–78).

Table 1. Baseline Characteristics, Treatments, and Main Outcomes of Included Patients

Demographic data	
Age, yr	66 (57–73)
Sex, M	22 (78.6)
Comorbidities	
Any	25 (89)
≥3	11 (39)
Arterial hypertension	20 (71)
Diabetes	5 (18)
BMI >25 kg/m^2	9 (32)
Obstructive sleep apnea	7 (25)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	4 (14)
Coronary heart disease	3 (11)
Chronic kidney disease	2 (7)
Malignancy	3 (11)
Time from onset of symptoms to	
ICU admission, d	8 (5–11)
Invasive mechanical ventilation, d	9 (5–11)
SAPS II score at admission	59 (39–65)
SOFA score at admission	7 (4–9)
Minimal $Pa_{O_2}/F_{I_{O_2}}$ ratio, mm Hg	110 (98–128)
Mild ARDS	1 (4)
Moderate ARDS	19 (68)
Severe ARDS	8 (29)
Treatments for ARDS	
Continuous infusion of neuromuscular blockers	24 (86)
Prone position	19 (68)
Inhaled nitric oxide	6 (21)
Almitrine infusion	2 (7)
Extracorporeal membrane oxygenation	1 (4)
Outcomes	
VFD at Day 30	0 (0–5)
Weaning before Day 30	11 (39)
Tracheostomy	17 (61)
Renal replacement therapy	2 (7)
Discharge from ICU before Day 30	11 (39)
30-d mortality	1 (4)

Definition of abbreviations: ARDS = acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI = body mass index; SAPS II = Simplified Acute Physiology Score; SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; VFD = ventilator-free days.
$n = 28$. Data are expressed as n (%) or median (interquartile range).

Prognostic performances of the other thresholds are presented in Table 2.

Finally, AUC for $P_{0.1}$ was not significantly different than AUC for ΔPocc (DeLong's test, $P = 0.32$).

We then split measurements into four categories: low ΔPocc (≥−15 cm H_2O)/low $P_{0.1}$ (<4 cm H_2O), high ΔPocc (<−15 cm H_2O)/low $P_{0.1}$, low ΔPocc/high $P_{0.1}$ (≥4 cm H_2O), and high ΔPocc/high $P_{0.1}$. Proportions of relapse of respiratory failure were, respectively, 0/11 (0%), 1/4 (25%), 3/5 (60%), and 5/8 (62.5%) ($P = 0.015$).

Discussion

In this cohort of patients with COVID-19, we found that $P_{0.1}$ was frequently above 3.5 cm H_2O, suggesting high neural respiratory drive (3, 11). Even if ranges of $P_{0.1}$ up to 6.0 cm H_2O have been reported in patients with ARDS, a quarter of our measurements were above this value (5). $P_{0.1}$ is an easy and reliable tool to measure the respiratory drive, available worldwide. Recently, Telias and colleagues demonstrated that $P_{0.1}$ directly
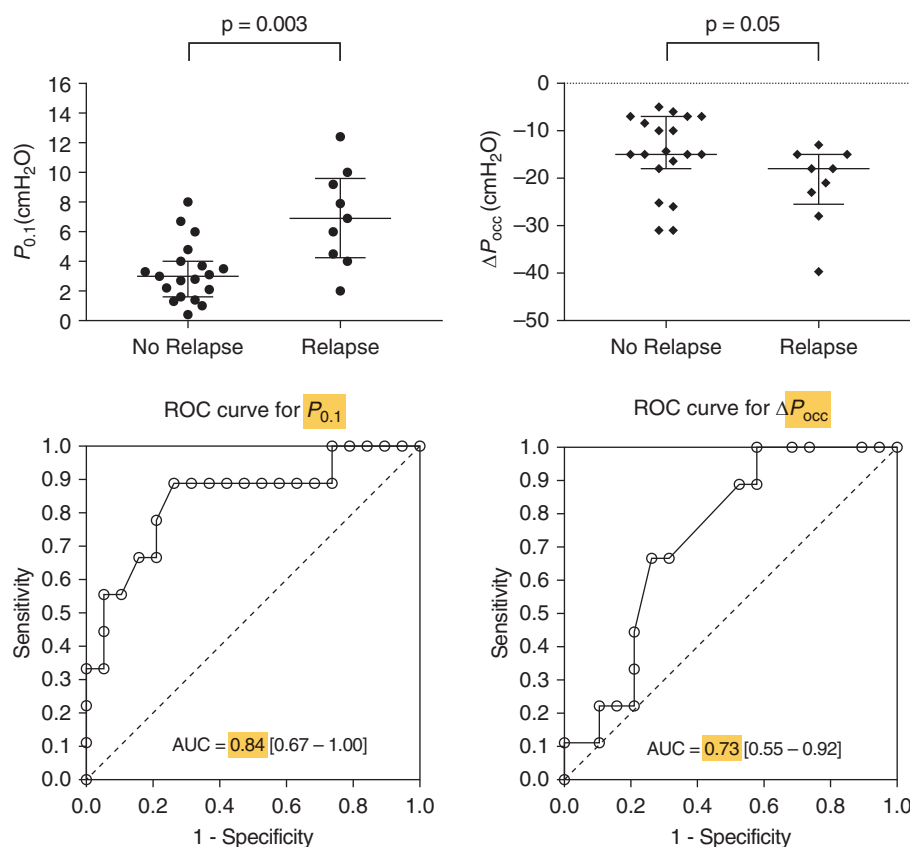
Figure 1. Abilities of airway occlusion pressure ($P_{0.1}$) and end-expiratory airway occlusion ($\Delta Pocc$) to predict relapse of respiratory failure during the weaning process of invasive mechanical ventilation. (Top) Scatter dot plots describing $P_{0.1}$ (left) and $\Delta Pocc$ (right) values (median with interquartile range) followed or not by a relapse. (Bottom) ROC curves of $P_{0.1}$ (left) and $\Delta Pocc$ (right) for prediction of relapse of respiratory failure. AUC = area under the curve; ROC = receiver operating characteristic.

displayed by the ventilator correlates with invasive measures of respiratory drive (electrical activity of the diaphragm and muscular pressure measured with esophageal pressure). They also showed that $P_{0.1}$ was well correlated with pressure–time product per minute, a surrogate of inspiratory effort (9).

We found that $P_{0.1}$ had a reliable accuracy to predict relapse of respiratory failure in the first 24 hours after measurement of $P_{0.1}$ and $\Delta Pocc$ in our population. A $P_{0.1} \geqslant 4.0$ cm H_2O had an excellent specificity and negative predictive value. Relapse might be a consequence of P-SILI and myotrauma, or also due to the nonresolution of the COVID-19 pneumonia. High drive and excessive respiratory efforts could possibly lead to P-SILI through different mechanisms such as an excessive global and regional lung stress, a pulmonary edema, or patient–ventilator asynchronies (3). The diaphragm is also sensitive to an excessive respiratory load, ensuing load-induced diaphragm injury (myotrauma).

$\Delta Pocc$ measurements were also frequently less than -15 cm H_2O, which can correspond, after application of conversion factor, to Pmus greater than 10 cm H_2O, indicating excessive respiratory efforts (6). Indeed, Bertoni and colleagues propose to target a range of Pmus between 5 and 10 cm H_2O during spontaneous breathing (3). Even if $\Delta Pocc$ was less discriminating than $P_{0.1}$, its regular measurement is also interesting to predict a relapse of respiratory failure during mechanical ventilation weaning. Moreover, we found that high $\Delta Pocc$ and high $P_{0.1}$ association is at higher risk of relapse of respiratory failure.

This study has several limitations including its retrospective design and the limited number of patients included. A comparative measure of respiratory drive and inspiratory efforts such as electrical activity of the diaphragm or muscular pressure measured with esophageal catheter might have helped to confirm our results.

In conclusion, in this COVID-19 pandemic context, with limited time and material resources, serial measurements of $P_{0.1}$ and $\Delta Pocc$ could be a valuable bedside clinical tool to predict relapse of respiratory failure in the next 24 hours and therefore to potentially delay the weaning process of mechanical ventilation, especially when $P_{0.1}$ is $\geqslant 4$ cm H_2O and $\Delta Pocc$ is <-15 cm H_2O. ∎

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Table 2. Prognostic Performance of Different Threshold of $P_{0.1}$ and $\Delta Pocc$ to Predict Relapse of Respiratory Failure during the Weaning Process of Invasive Mechanical Ventilation

Thresholds (cm H_2O)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV (%)	NPV (%)	LR+	LR−	Diagnostic Accuracy (%)	Youden Index
$P_{0.1}$								
≥3	89 (52–100)	47 (24–71)	44 (22–69)	90 (55–100)	1.69 (1.04–2.74)	0.23 (0.03–1.58)	61 (41–78)	0.36
≥4	89 (52–100)	74 (49–91)	62 (32–86)	93 (68–100)	3.38 (1.54–7.42)	0.15 (0.02–0.98)	79 (59–92)	0.63
≥5	67 (30–93)	84 (60–97)	67 (30–93)	84 (60–97)	4.22 (1.36–13.16)	0.40 (0.15–1.02)	79 (59–92)	0.51
≥6	67 (30–93)	84 (60–97)	67 (30–93)	84 (60–97)	4.22 (1.36–13.16)	0.40 (0.15–1.02)	79 (59–92)	0.51
≥7	44 (14–79)	95 (74–100)	80 (28–99)	78 (56–93)	8.44 (1.10–65.12)	0.59 (0.32–1.06)	79 (59–92)	0.39
$\Delta Pocc$								
<−10	100 (66–100)	42 (20–67)	45 (23–68)	100 (63–100)	1.73 (1.18–2.53)	0.00 (0.00–0.00)	61 (41–78)	0.42
<−15	67 (30–93)	68 (43–87)	50 (21–79)	81 (54–96)	2.11 (0.94–4.73)	0.49 (0.18–1.29)	68 (48–84)	0.35
<−20	44 (14–79)	79 (54–94)	50 (16–84)	75 (51–91)	2.11 (0.68–6.58)	0.70 (0.38–1.32)	68 (48–84)	0.23
<−25	22 (03–60)	79 (54–94)	33 (04–78)	68 (45–86)	1.06 (0.24–4.73)	0.99 (0.65–1.50)	61 (41–78)	0.01
<−30	11 (00–48)	89 (67–99)	33 (01–91)	68 (46–85)	1.06 (0.11–10.17)	0.99 (0.75–1.31)	64 (44–81)	0.00

Definition of abbreviations: $\Delta Pocc$ = airway pressure deflection generated by respiratory effort during an end-expiratory airway occlusion; LR+ = positive likelihood ratio; LR− = negative likelihood ratio; NPV = negative predictive value; $P_{0.1}$ = airway occlusion pressure; PPV = positive predictive value. Data in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals.

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Injury to the Endothelial Glycocalyx in Critically Ill Patients with COVID-19

To the Editor:

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) causes the so-called coronavirus disease (COVID-19), which is characterized by a broad spectrum of clinical presentations ranging from asymptomatic patients to critically ill individuals with a high case fatality rate (1). The critical care community has increasingly recognized that cardiovascular and thrombotic complications are relatively common in COVID-19 (2). Indeed, direct involvement of the vascular endothelium was recently reported in a series of patients suffering from severe COVID-19 (3). The endothelial glycocalyx (eGC), which covers the luminal surface of endothelial cells, contributes to the maintenance of vascular homeostasis, whereas disruption of the eGC is observed early in critically ill patients and is associated with inferior outcomes (4, 5).

Here, we investigated in translational human and cellular studies whether injury to the eGC can be found in critically ill patients with COVID-19 early after admission to the ICU. We collected plasma and serum from 19 adult individuals within 24 hours after invasive ventilation for acute respiratory distress syndrome and from 10 healthy human donors after written informed consent of patients or their legal representative. The first patient was admitted on March 19, 2020, and the observation period was until May 17, 2020. The median (interquartile range) observation duration was 47 (40–54) days.

Baseline patient characteristics at study inclusion as well as a description of the further clinical course are summarized in Table 1. Organ failure was not restricted to the lungs, and multiorgan dysfunction was common both at inclusion and during the further clinical course. Surprisingly, global markers of endothelial injury such as Angpt-1 (angiopoietin-1) (control: 29 [26.2–30.9] ng/ml vs. COVID-19: 27.8 [23.4–36.2] ng/ml; $P = 0.79$) and Angpt-2

(control: 0.655 [0.336–1.113] ng/ml vs. COVID-19: 0.434 [0.035–1.338] ng/ml; $P = 0.6$) were unchanged in patients with COVID-19. In contrast, marked increases in the soluble form of the sTie2 (Tie2 receptor) (Figure 1A) and in syndecan-1 (Figure 1B)—indicating pathological shedding of transmembrane proteins involved in glycocalyx structure and processing—were observed. The key eGC sheddase Hpa-1 (heparanase-1) and its enzymatic activity were both not significantly increased (data not shown). To the contrary, the Hpa-1 counterpart, the protective Hpa-2 (heparanase-2), was pertinently reduced in all patients with COVID-19 (Figure 1C). Driven by this acquired Hpa-2 deficiency, the Hpa-1:Hpa-2 ratio was higher in patients with COVID-19 ($P = 0.012$; data not shown). Together, this indicates that critically ill patients with COVID-19 suffer from an acquired Hpa-2 deficiency that can contribute to the degradation of the eGC, maybe even before classical endothelial activation and injury. Next, eGC structure was analyzed in humans, employing sublingual sidestream darkfield (SDF) imaging. We quantified the size of the individual patients' eGC using an indirect surrogate termed the perfused boundary region and found a decrease of perfused boundary region, indicating reduced eGC thickness in patients with COVID-19. To demonstrate that the deficiency of Hpa-2 is mechanistically involved in the degradation of the eGC, we used a microfluidic chamber with cultured endothelial cells (ECs) under flow that synthesize an intact and stable eGC under *in vitro* conditions. After stimulation with COVID-19 or control serum, the eGC was visualized by confocal microscopy followed by computerized three-dimensional reconstruction. Its thickness was then quantified by analyzing the heparan sulfate (HS)-positive area. We found that stimulation with COVID-19 was sufficient to severely damage the eGC (Figure 1E). The HS-positive area was reduced by 34% (control: 6.1 ± 0.9% vs. COVID-19: 4 ± 0.4% $P < 0.001$). Consistent with our observation in patients, we found that the transcription of Hpa-2 in COVID-19–stimulated ECs was significantly reduced after 6 hours (0.63 ± 0.02 relative expression to control; $P = 0.003$). Of note, transgenic overexpression of Hpa-2 in a lentivirus-transduced EC line was sufficient to reverse this phenotype, as the HS area in COVID-19 serum–treated lenti-control cells was 1.9 ± 0.6% but was 4.2 ± 1.2% in lenti-Hpa-2–overexpressing cells ($P < 0.001$). In other words, if ECs overexpress Hpa-2, the serum of patients with COVID-19 cannot degrade the eGC anymore.

This exploratory study has obvious limitations, most importantly, its small sample size and hypothesis-generating nature. Injury to the eGC is not a finding specific for COVID-19 but can be found in a wide range of critically ill patients (5). Because only a small selection of molecules that may participate in endothelial injury have been investigated in this study, we cannot exclude that further mediators may play a critical role in endothelial and eGC injury in patients with COVID-19. In addition, because of concerns of viral transmission, SDF imaging values could not be obtained from the same control patients from whom blood analysis was performed but were obtained from a separate historic in-center control cohort. Both control cohorts were not matched to the individual patients in terms of age, but the control group that blood was collected from was matched in terms of male predominance.

In summary, we found injury of the eGC and speculate that this might represent a potentially critical hallmark of later widespread endothelial injury in severe COVID-19. Reduced eGC thickness was visualized *in vivo* by employing sublingual SDF imaging in patients. At the same time, increased syndecan-1 and sTie-2 concentrations in the blood of these patients indicated shedding of important