



ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Best Practice & Research Clinical Anaesthesiology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/bean



2

Modes of mechanical ventilation for the operating room



Lorenzo Ball, M.D., Research Fellow,
Maddalena Dameri, M.D., Research Assistant,
Paolo Pelosi, M.D., F.E.R.S., Professor *

*IRCCS AOU San Martino-IST, Department of Surgical Sciences and Integrated Diagnostics,
University of Genoa, Largo Rosanna Benzi 8, 16131 Genoa, Italy*

Keywords:

general anaesthesia
mechanical ventilation
pressure-controlled ventilation
volume-controlled ventilation
volume guaranteed
non-invasive positive pressure ventilation
induction
preoxygenation

Most patients undergoing surgical procedures need to be mechanically ventilated, because of the impact of several drugs administered at induction and during maintenance of general anaesthesia on respiratory function. Optimization of intraoperative mechanical ventilation can reduce the incidence of post-operative pulmonary complications and improve the patient's outcome. Preoxygenation at induction of general anaesthesia prolongs the time window for safe intubation, reducing the risk of hypoxia and overweighs the potential risk of reabsorption atelectasis. Non-invasive positive pressure ventilation delivered through different interfaces should be considered at the induction of anaesthesia morbidly obese patients. Anaesthesia ventilators are becoming increasingly sophisticated, integrating many functions that were once exclusive to intensive care. Modern anaesthesia machines provide high performances in delivering the desired volumes and pressures accurately and precisely, including assisted ventilation modes. Therefore, the physicians should be familiar with the potential and pitfalls of the most commonly used intraoperative ventilation modes: volume-controlled, pressure-controlled, dual-controlled and assisted ventilation. Although there is no clear evidence to support the advantage of any one of these ventilation modes over the others, protective mechanical ventilation with low tidal volume and low levels of positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) should be considered in patients undergoing surgery. The target tidal volume should be calculated based on the predicted or

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +39 335 5941740.

E-mail addresses: lorenzo.ball@edu.unige.it (L. Ball), maddalena_dameri@hotmail.it (M. Dameri), ppelosi@hotmail.com (P. Pelosi).

ideal body weight rather than on the actual body weight. To optimize ventilation monitoring, anaesthesia machines should include end-inspiratory and end-expiratory pause as well as flow-volume loop curves. The routine administration of high PEEP levels should be avoided, as this may lead to haemodynamic impairment and fluid overload. Higher PEEP might be considered during surgery longer than 3 h, laparoscopy in the Trendelenburg position and in patients with body mass index >35 kg/m². Large randomized trials are warranted to identify subgroups of patients and the type of surgery that can potentially benefit from specific ventilation modes or ventilation settings.

© 2015 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Patients undergoing surgical procedures often require general anaesthesia. Most of the drugs used during induction and maintenance of general anaesthesia have important effects on patient's respiratory function [1], mainly causing a depression in alveolar ventilation, as well as modifications in the activity of respiratory muscles [2] and the distribution of ventilation and perfusion within the lungs [3]. As a result, >230 million patients receiving a surgical intervention need to be mechanically ventilated each year [4]. During the last decades, great insight into mechanical ventilation of the critically ill patient with lung injury modified the way clinicians support the respiratory function. Mechanical ventilation itself can worsen [5] or even initiate [6] lung injury: physicians developed a series of strategies referred to as 'protective ventilation'. More recently, these changes are under extensive investigation for the non-injured lung as well, in an effort to bring the advances made in intensive care to a wider population [7]. Post-operative pulmonary complications (PPCs) are a major determinant of post-operative morbidity, mortality, length of hospital stay and health-care-associated social costs [8,9]. It was suggested that intraoperative protective ventilation, namely low tidal volume and moderate levels of positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP), could improve post-operative pulmonary function [10,11]. More recent evidence shows that low tidal volume plays a major role in reducing PPCs [12,13], at least in non-obese patients undergoing abdominal surgery. Nevertheless, moderate PEEP might be considered during surgery longer than 3 h, laparoscopy in the Trendelenburg position and in patients with body mass index (BMI) > 35 kg/m². Ventilators used in the operating room were developed according to the specific requirements of the surgical scenario. With the evolution of technology, these became intrinsically different from their counterparts used in the intensive care unit (ICU). The classical anaesthesia machine delivers gases to the patient through a closed-circuit system, using a bellows system. In the last years, most of the manufacturers began implementing technologies derived from the ICU ventilators in the anaesthesia machine, introducing modes of ventilation once exclusively available in the ICU. Some manufacturers are also replacing bellows-based designs with turbine- or motor-driven piston systems, especially on flagship machines [14]. The impact of the availability of these high-quality ventilators in the operating theatre and different ventilation modes on patient outcome has to be determined. In the present article, ventilation strategies at the induction of general anaesthesia and during surgery are discussed.

Ventilatory strategies at the induction of general anaesthesia

Preoxygenation

At the induction of general anaesthesia, a high dose of sedatives and analgesics as well as muscle relaxants is often administered, frequently resulting in complete apnoea. During both planned and emergency intubations, there is a non-negligible risk of developing hypoxia [15]. Difficult intubation

may lead to unexpected peripheral oxygen desaturation [15,16]. In addition, clinicians must be aware that certain subgroups of patients may have a reduced tolerance to systemic hypoxia, such as those suffering from cerebrovascular disease, epilepsy and coronary artery disease. In addition, the clinicians should consider that certain subgroups of patients may have a reduced tolerance to systemic hypoxia, such as those suffering from cerebrovascular disease, epilepsy and coronary artery disease. In the supine position, the functional residual capacity (FRC) is reduced, via multiple mechanisms, mainly the dorsal displacement of mediastinal organs and the cephalad shift of the diaphragm, spurred by the abdominal content. Therefore, obese and pregnant patients show a higher reduction in FRC and are more prone to desaturation at the induction of general anaesthesia [17]. In obese patients, respiratory volumes decrease inversely with the increase in BMI: in the morbidly obese, the FRC can be as low as 75% of that of a healthy subject [18,19]. The risk of oxygen desaturation after a standard 3-min pre-oxygenation with 100% oxygen delivered through a face mask is low, unless the patient has an elevated metabolic demand, pulmonary pathology or specific predisposing factors [17]. Standard preoxygenation can be inadequate for specific subgroups of patients. Factors predicting the inadequacy of preoxygenation were essentially those previously described as risk factors for difficult mask ventilation: bearded male (odds ratio (OR) 9.1), beardless male (OR 2.4), American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) score of 4 (OR 9.1), ASA score of 2–3 (OR 2.4), lack of teeth (OR 2.4) and age >55 years (OR 1.8) [20]. Furthermore, it has been reported that 37% of the claims due to death or brain damage linked to difficult intubation concerned obese patients [21]. Several techniques such as the head-up position at 25° [22], the ramped position [23], fibre-optic intubation, or intubation through a laryngeal mask or with a video laryngoscope [24] have been proposed to overcome difficult intubation and increase the pre-intubation arterial oxygen tension, as well as the safety margin for airway control in the obese patient. Preoxygenation with high-flow humidified nasal cannulae has been described [25]; however, in a randomized open-label trial, this device was not superior to a high-flow facial mask in reducing the lowest level of desaturation at induction in hypoxaemic patients [26]. In patients with abdominal sepsis, showing an intrinsically higher oxygen demand, pre-induction incentive spirometry performed within 1 h from induction reduced apnoea time and increased oxygenation in a randomized trial conducted on 66 patients [27]. Researchers have long discussed how preoxygenation with high FiO₂ can induce denitrogenation and therefore reabsorption-related atelectasis after surgery, but a recent randomized trial on a small number of patients showed that this does not influence post-operative FRC [28]. Nevertheless, the benefits of achieving good oxygenation at induction, prolonging the time window for a safe intubation, outweigh this risk [17].

Perioperative non-invasive positive pressure ventilation

Non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NPPV) can be delivered through several interfaces, including different types of masks, and combining pressure support ventilation (PSV) and PEEP. Many of the modern commercially available operating room ventilators can deliver NPPV, as shown in Table 1. NPPV increases the FRC by recruiting collapsed respiratory units, therefore increasing the oxygen reserve within the lungs. The role of NPPV at induction of general anaesthesia has been evaluated in several studies, with particular reference to morbidly obese patients. In 2001, Cressey and colleagues tested the effectiveness of 7.5 cm H₂O continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) alone versus conventional preoxygenation through a Mapleson type A circuit, in 20 consecutive morbidly obese women. They concluded that no clinical advantage in terms of reduction of time to desaturation could be achieved with such an approach alone [29]. In morbidly obese patients, low-pressure CPAP combined with low-pressure PSV during preoxygenation resulted in better oxygenation, compared with neutral-pressure breathing, and prevented desaturation episodes [30,31]. Delay et al. compared NPPV with 8 cm H₂O PSV and 6 cm H₂O PEEP to conventional preoxygenation in 28 morbidly obese patients [32], finding a higher end-tidal O₂ concentration in the NPPV group. Futier et al. studied 66 consecutive obese patients in a randomized trial comparing spontaneous breathing with NPPV alone and NPPV plus preoperative recruitment manoeuvre (RM). They showed that NPPV alone and in combination with RM improved both gas exchange and FRC compared with standard preoxygenation [33]. More recently, a study on 44 adults scheduled for laparoscopic bariatric surgery found that even low-pressure NPPV (5 cm H₂O PSV and 5 cm H₂O PEEP) was better than neutral-pressure breathing for preventing oxygen

Table 1

Some of the commercially available mechanical ventilators for the operating room. PC: Pressure Controlled, VC: Volume Controlled, CMV: Continuous Mandatory Ventilation, SIMV: Synchronized Intermittent Mandatory Ventilation, BIPAP: Bilevel Positive Airway Pressure, AF: AutoFlow, CPAP: Continuous Positive Airway Pressure, APRV: Airways Pressure Release Ventilation, PS: Pressure Support, VG: Volume Guaranteed, PRVC: Pressure-Regulated Volume Control. Technical parameters were retrieved from the manufacturers' website in April 2015.

Manufacturer	Model	Ventilator type	Modes of ventilation	Optional modes of ventilation	Tidal volume (mL)	Respiratory rate (breaths/min)	Inspiratory flow (L/m)	Pressure limit (cm H ₂ O)	PEEP (cm H ₂ O)
Dräger Medical	Perseus A500	Turbine	Manual/spontaneous, PC-CMV, PC-BIPAP, VC-CMV, VC-CMV/AF, VC-SIMV/AF	CPAP/PS, PC-BIPAP/PS, VC-SIMV/AF/PS, PC-APRV	20–2000	3–100	0–180	7–80	Off, 2–35
Dräger Medical	Apollo	Piston	Manual/spontaneous, VC-CMV, PC-CMV	PS, VC-CMV/AF	20–1400	3–100	0–150	Up to 70	0–20
GE Healthcare	Aisys CS2	Ascending bellows	VC-CMV	PC-CMV, PCV-VG, VC/PC/VG-SIMV, CPAP/PS	20–1500	4–100	0–120	12–100	Off, 4–30
MEDEC	Saturn Evo	Horizontal bag-in-bottle bellows	VC-CMV, VC-SIMV, PC-CMV, PC-SIMV	PS	10–1600	4–80	Not specified	7–99	0–20
Spacelabs Healthcare	Blease e900	Ascending bellows	VC-CMV, PC-CMV, SIMV	PS	20–1500	2–99	up to 100	10–70	3–20
Maquet	FLOW-i	Volume Reflector	Manual/spontaneous, VC-CMV, PC-CMV	PS, PRVC, SIMV	20–2000	4–100	0–200	0–120	0–50

desaturation episodes at induction [30]. A retrospective study in ICU patients showed that a previous failed attempt of NPPV is associated with a twofold increase in a composite intubation risk complication (desaturation, hypotension and aspiration) [34]. In conclusion, preoxygenation can be considered a safe practice, outweighing the risks of potential post-operative atelectasis. We suggest that a routine preoxygenation at an $\text{FiO}_2 \leq 0.8$ should be used, except in cases of difficult intubation. NPPV should be considered for obese patients.

Intraoperative mechanical ventilation

Modern anaesthesia ventilators are becoming increasingly sophisticated, integrating many functions that were once exclusive to ICU ventilators [35]. Table 1 presents the characteristics of some of the new commercially available anaesthesia machines, including the supported ventilatory modes. The potential indications of different ventilation modes during anaesthesia are illustrated in Table 2. Modern ventilators used in the operating room allow accurate control of the volume and pressure delivered to the patient, through mechanisms of compliance compensation [14,35]. The most widespread ventilator type is still the bellows-in-bottle type, but several manufacturers are switching to alternative designs derived from technologies previously used in ICU ventilators, especially in flagship machines. Alternative designs already available on the market include electronically controlled piston pump ventilators (e.g., Dräger Apollo), turbine ventilators (e.g., Dräger Perseus) and proprietary gas-driven rigid reservoir system ventilators (Maquet Volume Reflector, available on FLOW-I series). Piston ventilators allow a tight control of the delivered volume, allowing a steeper increase in flow than traditional bellows systems, as required by pressure-controlled ventilation modes. Turbine anaesthesia ventilators can optimize closed-circuit ventilation systems, minimizing the use of inhaled agents [36]. Bench studies have shown high volume and pressure delivery accuracy performances, comparable to those of more expensive ICU ventilators [37]. Neuromuscular blockade to allow orotracheal intubation and/or to facilitate surgery is a common practice. However, muscle paralysis may lead to post-operative residual curarization, associated with higher morbidity [38]. Nevertheless, several surgical interventions can be performed without complete curarization: the anaesthesiologist should be able to support the respiratory pump partially, using assisted ventilation in place of controlled ventilation [35,39]. All the modern anaesthesia machines include, at least as an option, assisted ventilation modes (Table 1).

In all cases, tidal volume should be calculated on the predicted body weight and not on the actual patient weight.

Volume-controlled ventilation

Volume-controlled continuous mandatory ventilation (V-CMV or VCV) is a time-cycled, volume-targeted ventilation mode available on all modern ventilators. As shown in Fig. 1 in the left panel, VCV delivers a desired tidal volume (V_T) by means of a constant flow with a square waveform: as a result, as the time integral of flow, the volume increases linearly until V_T is achieved, within an allowed inspiratory time. Concerning airway pressure, during inspiration, a quasilinear increase can be seen, until a peak is reached (P_{peak}). The relationship between V_T and P_{peak} is a result of the complex interaction between the dynamic airway resistance to flow and the respiratory system compliance. In conventional VCV ventilation, the expiratory valve is opened immediately after V_T is delivered, allowing passive expiration through the expiratory limb of the respiratory circuit. Anaesthesia machines can estimate the compliance of the respiratory system (C_{rs}) with the formula $C_{\text{rs}} = V_T / (P_{\text{peak}} - \text{PEEP})$. As C_{rs} is biased by the contribution of airway flow resistance in this case, this measurement is referred to as *dynamic* compliance, which underestimates actual compliance. Modern ventilators allow the operator to set an end-inspiratory pause (Fig. 1, central panel), usually set as a percentage of the inspiration time (15–25%). In this case, after P_{peak} is reached and V_T fully delivered, the ventilator sets the inspiratory flow to zero without opening the expiratory valve, eliminating the contribution to pressure due to the airway resistance to flow: a rapid decrease in airway pressure can be seen, until a stable plateau pressure (P_{plat}) is achieved. Therefore, respiratory system compliance can be calculated as $C_{\text{rs}} = V_T / (P_{\text{plat}} - \text{PEEP})$, providing a more reliable quasi-static estimation of compliance. An advantage of VCV,

Table 2Main ventilation modes used in the operating room (readapted from *Principles and Practice of Mechanical Ventilation, third edition*) [35].

Mode	Type	Details	Use in anaesthesia
V-CMV (volume continuous mandatory ventilation), VCV (volume-controlled ventilation)	Mandatory	Controlled ventilation, targeted on tidal volume, time-cycled	Most common mode of ventilation, provides good control of tidal volume, especially with modern anaesthesia machines that provide compliance compensation.
P-CMV (pressure continuous mandatory ventilation), PCV (pressure-controlled ventilation)	Mandatory	Controlled ventilation, targeted on airway pressure, time-cycled	Common mode of ventilation, provides best control of inspiratory peak pressure, useful for compensating air loss in uncuffed tubes and decrease gastric insufflation in combination with laryngeal masks and other supraglottic devices. Often used in one-lung ventilation.
VCV/V-CMV with VG (pressure guaranteed), AF (autoflow) or PRVC (pressure-regulated, volume-controlled)	Mandatory	Controlled ventilation, targeted on tidal volume, time-cycled, pressure-limited. This mode has different names and proprietary algorithms on different ventilator manufacturers, aimed at delivering the desired volume with the lowest possible inspiratory pressure.	Increasingly available in anaesthesia machines, combines advantages of VCV and PCV, allowing a tight control on tidal volume, with a better compromise towards peak inspiratory pressure.
V or P-ACV (volume or pressure assisted controlled ventilation)	Mandatory/ Assisted	Delivers the desired volume or pressure target both automatically or upon patient's inspiratory effort.	Can be used in patients with residual respiratory drive to assist spontaneous breathing without risking apnoea.
V or P-SIMV (volume- or pressure-synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation)	Mandatory/ Assisted	Delivers the desired mandatory volume or pressure, plus an assisted volume or pressure when an inspiratory effort is detected within a sensing window.	Similar to V/P-ACV, can be used in patients with a residual respiratory drive, or when emerging from general anaesthesia.
PSV (pressure support ventilation)	Assisted	Delivers a target pressure when an inspiratory effort is detected.	In patients with a respiratory drive, in presence of restrictive lung disease, induction of general anaesthesia, neuromuscular disease, weaning from controlled ventilation.
CPAP	Assisted	Increases mean airway pressure in spontaneously breathing patients	At induction, to avoid excessive loss of FRC/EELV, can decrease inspiratory effort in intubated patients, before extubation.

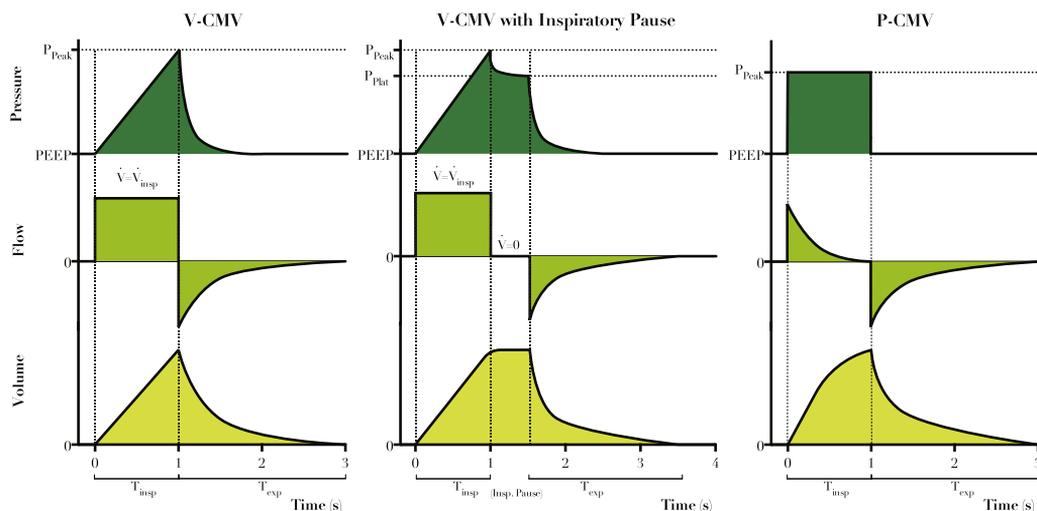


Figure 1. Flow, pressure and volume curves for the three most commonly used controlled ventilation modes in the operating room.

which makes it the first choice of many anaesthesiologists during general anaesthesia, is the guarantee of minute ventilation. This ensures adequate gas exchange, especially CO_2 elimination, regardless of changes in compliance due to patient positioning, variation in depth of neuromuscular blockade, surgical procedure or other factors. Nevertheless, during VCV, airway pressure is not controlled, but it is a direct consequence of the interaction between airway resistance and respiratory system compliance: delivering a desired V_T when a sudden decrease in C_{rs} occurs results in high airway pressures. The clinician sets a clinically acceptable pressure range for the specific patient; the anaesthesia machine generates an alarm when this range is exceeded, to alert the operator to modify ventilation settings. As an additional safety measure, ventilators have a pressure limit (P_{lim} or P_{max}) that, once reached, stops inspiratory flow. Newer ventilators implement compliance compensation systems that guarantee the accuracy of the delivered V_T also for small volumes and at low lung compliance, more efficiently than ventilators that only rely on inspiratory flow sensors [40]. When monitoring patients undergoing VCV, an increase in P_{peak} can be due to a reduction in C_{rs} or an increase in airway resistance to flow. In order to discriminate between the two conditions, setting an end-expiratory pause is strongly advised (Fig. 1).

Pressure-controlled ventilation

Pressure-controlled continuous mandatory ventilation (P-CMV or PCV) is a widely available, time-cycled form of pressure-targeted ventilation. In this ventilation mode, the clinician sets a desired inspiratory pressure level; the machine initiates inspiration delivering a high flow until the desired level is reached. The pressure increase rate can be set in most ventilators. As shown in Fig. 1 (right panel), after a short initial phase of high flow, the alveolar pressure starts to equilibrate with the pressure inside the inspiratory limb of the respiratory circuit. Therefore, the gas flow needed to maintain the desired inspiratory pressure decreases throughout the inspiration, resulting in a characteristic decelerating pattern in the flow–time waveform, whereas the pressure–time curve is ideally a square waveform. As the flow is not constant, the ascending limb of the volume–time curve is not linear; rather, it increases at a slower rate in the late inspiration phase. Symmetrically to what happens in VCV, in PCV, the pressure is set and V_T is the result of the interaction between inspiratory pressure, airway resistance and respiratory system compliance. While tight control of inspiratory peak pressure is easily achieved in PCV, minute ventilation is not guaranteed. The perioperative period is potentially characterized by steep changes of C_{rs} : this is observed in, for instance, the rapid modifications in

diaphragm distension or relaxation caused by induction or resolution of the pneumoperitoneum during laparoscopic abdominal surgery. When these modifications occur during PCV, the variations in V_T are sufficient to cause hypoventilation or delivery of inappropriately high, and thus potentially harmful [5], tidal volumes. For this reason, the clinician must set an acceptable V_T alarm range for the patient and closely monitor the changes in C_{rs} and the resulting variations in V_T , adjusting the inspiratory pressure in order to achieve acceptable volumes. PCV can be beneficial when supraglottic airways or uncuffed tubes are used, for its ability to reduce gas leaks and gastric insufflation [41]. As shown in Table 3, several small-sampled randomized controlled trials investigated the impact of PCV on respiratory mechanics, haemodynamics and gas exchange, in comparison with VCV. These studies focused on specific populations: obese patients undergoing bariatric surgery [42]; laparoscopic bariatric surgery [43,44]; women undergoing laparoscopic gynaecologic surgery [45,46]; and children [47], obese adults [48] and non-obese adults [49,50] undergoing laparoscopic cholecystectomy. The results are contradictory; no strong evidence for PCV or VCV in obese patients exists presently [51]. In PCV, both reduction in compliance and increase in flow resistance always result in a reduction in tidal volume, making it more difficult to discriminate the cause leading to V_T reduction.

Dual-controlled ventilation

Recently, the advances in technology made new ventilation modes available in some new anaesthesia machines, with the aim of combining the advantages of both PCV and VCV, the so-called dual-controlled ventilation modes. These ventilation modes are referred to with different proprietary names, depending on the vendor (see Table 1): volume mode with autoflow (Dräger), pressure-controlled ventilation with volume guaranteed (PCV-VG, General Electric) and pressure-regulated volume control (PRVC, Maquet). These ventilation modes are structurally very similar, aimed at delivering the desired V_T at the lowest possible inspiratory pressure. To achieve this goal, the ventilator uses a decelerating inspiratory flow pattern, similar to that of PCV (Fig. 1, right panel); calculates C_{rs} at each breath cycle; and readapts the inspiratory pressure to obtain the V_T set by the clinician. All the algorithms deliver a first volume-controlled breath at a constant inspiratory flow to make an initial estimation of C_{rs} and the pressure needed to reach the volume target. These ventilation modes have only recently been made widely available in anaesthesia machines, and very few studies have investigated their potential advantages, especially in one-lung ventilation, which mandates a tight control on both pressure and volume [52]. Even if the actual impact of dual-controlled ventilation on clinical outcomes is still to be determined, there is an undoubted clinical advantage to using a PCV mode that does not need frequent manual adjustments of inspiratory pressure during the course of surgery.

Assisted ventilation and other ventilation modes

Many patients undergoing minor surgical procedures can be maintained in spontaneous breathing or be assisted at different degrees by the clinician. General anaesthesia itself does not necessarily imply controlled mechanical ventilation [35,39]. New ventilators offer several assisted or assisted–controlled ventilation modes (see Table 1). Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV) is a hybrid ventilation mode that can be either pressure or volume controlled; further, this mode can play a role in the operating room as it can guarantee minute ventilation, and thus gas exchange, while allowing the patient to trigger assisted breaths. With SIMV, when the respiratory rate falls below a set value, the anaesthesia machine delivers mandatory breaths, providing a safety measure for patients whose ability to trigger spontaneous breaths could deteriorate during the surgical procedure. This method can be considered in patients with a residual ventilatory drive. The machine attempts to synchronize the respiratory efforts of the patient with the time-cycled mandatory breaths, and the clinician must set a trigger window, as a percentage of the expiratory time, during which the flow trigger senses for inspiratory effort. In addition to the role always described for preoxygenation, PSV is now available in many commercially available anaesthesia machines. It can be used, for instance, in patients undergoing minor surgery, or in patients deeply sedated after loco-regional anaesthesia or while emerging from general anaesthesia. Ventilators designed for the operating room often offer PSV with safety backup ventilation, to provide the patient with mandatory ventilation in the case of suppression of the

Table 3

Studies comparing VCV and PCV during general anaesthesia. Outcomes are reported as PCV versus VCV with VCV as control group. PaCO₂ arterial carbon dioxide pressure, PaO₂ arterial oxygen pressure, PAO₂ alveolar oxygen pressure, BMI body mass index, N/A not assessed.

Study	Number	Patients	Laparoscopic	Surgery	Airway	P_{peak}	Compliance	Haemodynamics	Gas exchange
De Baerdemaeker 2008 [43]	24	Morbidly obese	Yes	Gastric banding	Tracheal tube	=	=	=	↑PaCO ₂
Hans 2008 [42]	40	Morbidly obese	No	Gastric bypass	Tracheal tube	↓	=	=	=
Cadi 2008 [44]	36	BMI > 35 kg/m ²	Yes	Gastric banding	Tracheal tube	=	=	=	↑PaO ₂ ↓PCO ₂
Oğurlu 2010 [45]	60	Women, ASA I and II	Yes	Gynaecologic surgery	Tracheal tube	↓	↑	=	N/A
Jeon 2011 [46]	60	Women	Yes	Gynaecologic surgery	Laryngeal mask	↓	=	=	↓PaCO ₂
Tyagi 2011 [49]	42	BMI < 30 kg/m ²	Yes	Cholecystectomy	Tracheal tube	↓	↑	=	=
Kim 2011 [47]	34	Children	Yes	Appendectomy	Tracheal tube	↓	↑	=	N/A
Gupta 2012 [48]	102	ASA I and II, Obese (BMI 30–40 kg/m ²)	Yes	Cholecystectomy	Tracheal tube	↓	N/A	=	↑PaO ₂
Aydin 2014 [50]	70	ASA I and II	Yes	Cholecystectomy	Tracheal tube	=	=	=	↓PAO ₂ -PaO ₂

respiratory drive, as observed after deepening of sedation or an opioid bolus. In a recent study on 36 patients scheduled for knee arthroscopic surgery under general anaesthesia with a laryngeal mask, PSV reduced emergence time, propofol consumption and air leaks compared with VCV [53]. The use of CPAP during recovery from general anaesthesia has also been proposed in a pilot study to reduce the incidence of post-operative atelectasis [54]. Newer high-level ventilators also offer increasingly sophisticated ventilation modes, derived from ICU ventilators (Table 2). These modes can be used in surgeries of critically ill patients requiring protective ventilation, especially in the case of injured lungs.

Monitoring ventilation in the anaesthetized patient

An adequate monitoring of ventilation is mandatory [55]. An ideal anaesthesia machine should be able to set end-inspiratory and end-expiratory pause, in order to measure P_{plat} and intrinsic PEEP ($PEEP_i$). Especially in cases where an end-expiratory pause cannot be set, useful information can be obtained by interpreting the flow-volume loop. As illustrated in Fig. 2, the flow-volume loop, also available on older ventilators, can help the clinician distinguish flow limitations due to airway collapse, which might benefit from higher PEEP levels, from conditions of airway thickening, where higher PEEP might be counterproductive.

The role of tidal volume, PEEP and RMs

The last years were characterized by an increasing tendency to translate advances in the mechanical ventilation of the injured lung in the ICU to the operating room. The role of protective ventilation in the operating room is still to be conclusively determined. As illustrated in Table 4, most of the randomized controlled trials did not investigate single aspects of the ventilation settings, but rather intervention bundles: in most of the cases, lower tidal volume as millilitres per predicted body weight, higher PEEP and RMs were used in the intervention group, compared with conventional ventilation. These studies were focused mainly on laparoscopic surgery only [56–60] and laparoscopic or open major abdominal surgery [10,11,13,61]. The results are conflicting: in several small studies, a strategy combining lower tidal volume, higher PEEP and RMs improved intraoperative gas exchange [56–60] and respiratory mechanics [10,57,59,61]; however, only some studies showed improved post-operative outcomes

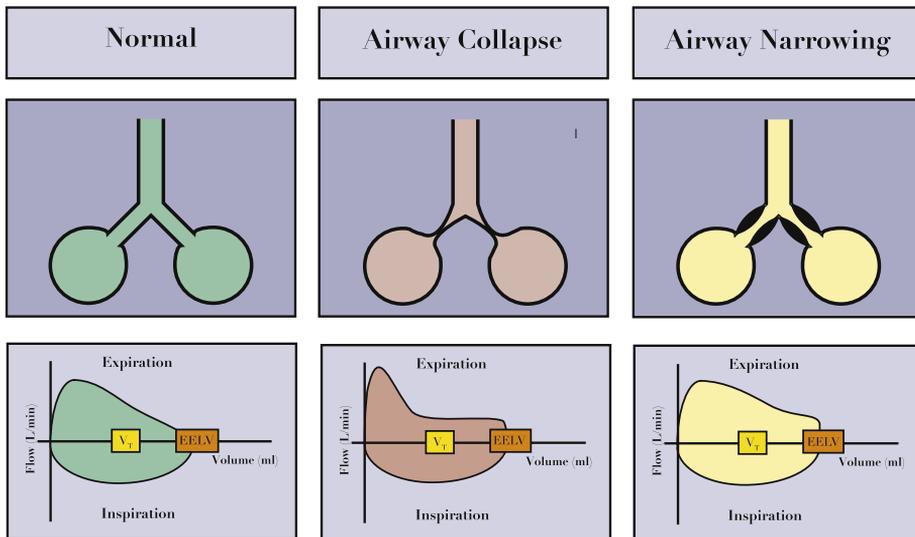


Figure 2. Flow-volume loop of a healthy subject (left), with flow resistance due to airway collapse (centre) and airway narrowing (right). Readapted from Ball et al. [55].

Table 4

Recent RCTs investigating the effect of PEEP, recruitment manoeuvres and tidal volume on clinical outcomes. R: recruitment manoeuvres, PPC post-operative pulmonary complications, PBW predicted body weight, N/A not assessed, PFT pulmonary functional tests, CXR chest X-ray.

Study	Number	Patients	Control group		Intervention group		Intraoperative outcomes	Post-operative outcomes
			PEEP	V _T mL/kg PBW	PEEP	V _T mL/kg PBW		
Meininger 2005 [56]	20	Laparoscopic surgery	0	/	5	/	Improved oxygenation	N/A
Whalen 2006 [57]	20	Laparoscopic bariatric surgery	4	8	12 + R	8	Improved oxygenation, compliance	No effect
Talab 2009 [58]	66	Laparoscopic bariatric surgery	0	8–10	5 and 10	8–10	Improved oxygenation only with PEEP 10	Improved oxygenation, reduced atelectasis, PPC, LOS
Reinus 2009 [61]	30	Bariatric surgery	0 + R	10	10 + R	10	Improved compliance	No effect
Kim 2010 [59]	30	Laparoscopic cholecystectomy	0	8	5	8	Improved oxygenation, compliance	Improved oxygenation, reduced atelectasis
Futier 2013 [11]	400	Abdominal surgery	0	10–12	6–8 + R	6–8	Reduced peak pressure, improved compliance	Reduced major complications within 7 days from surgery
Severgnini 2013 [10]	56	Abdominal surgery	0	9	10 + R	7	Reduced plateau pressure	Improved PFT, CXR
Hemmes 2014 [13]	900	Abdominal surgery	2	/	12 + R	/	Increased incidence of hypotension	No effect on PPC incidence
Baki 2014 [60]	60	Laparoscopic surgery	0	10	5	6	Improved gas exchange	N/A

[10,58,59], whereas others did not find differences [57,61] or did not investigate the patients post-operatively [56,60]. A large retrospective analysis on 29,343 patients found that the use of lower intraoperative tidal volume increased from 2008 to 2011, and that the use of a low T_V (6–8 mL/kg PBW) and minimal PEEP seem to be associated with a higher risk of 30-day mortality [62]. The retrospective design of this study limits the interpretation of these results. In a large RCT on 400 patients undergoing abdominal surgery, Futier et al. found that a ventilatory strategy including low V_T , routine use of PEEP and RMs improved the composite outcome of pulmonary and extra-pulmonary post-operative complications [11]. In another large RCT conducted by the PROVE Network Investigators for the Clinical Trial Network of the European Society of Anaesthesiology on 900 surgical patients, the role of low PEEP alone versus high PEEP plus RMs alone was investigated, maintaining the same V_T in the two arms, concluding that the latter strategy increased intraoperative hypotension and use of vasoactive drugs, without any modification of the incidence of PPCs [13].

RM techniques

RMs can be performed in several ways, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Most clinicians perform recruitment with the ‘bag-squeezing’ technique: the ventilator is switched in the manual mode, the adjustable pressure limiting (APL) valve set to 30 or 40 cm H₂O and the patient kept at a constant pressure manually and then switched back to mechanical ventilation (Fig. 3a). This method has potential limitations. First, it is difficult to maintain the patient at a constant pressure with a manual bag; even more importantly, when the ventilator is switched back from manual to mechanical ventilation, a loss of pressure occurs in the respiratory circuit, potentially leading to lung de-recruitment. Moreover, many ventilators require several cycles before reaching the desired new PEEP level. This could be avoided using CPAP instead of manual bag squeezing (Fig. 3b); unfortunately, most of the anaesthesia machines do not have CPAP or is only available as an option (Table 1). Relying on ventilatory settings and avoiding switching to manual ventilation can give more reproducible and effective results. One strategy involves increasing the PEEP during VCV without modifying V_T , in steps of 5 cm H₂O, until a plateau pressure of 30 or 40 cm H₂O is achieved. Subsequently, PEEP can be decreased in steps of 2 cm H₂O in a decremental PEEP trial or cycling manoeuvre [63] (Fig. 3c). If the clinician wants to set PEEP at the level providing the optimal C_{rs} , a second RM must be performed after the stepwise decrease. A potential

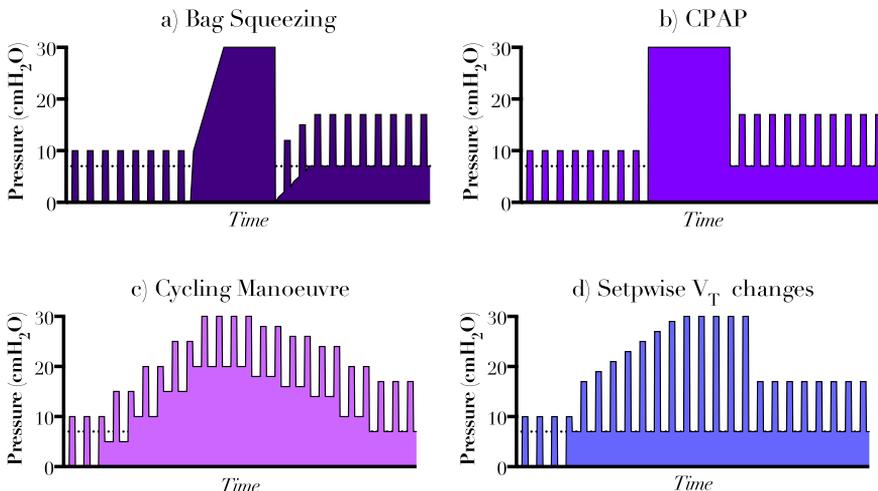


Figure 3. Pressure–time curves for three techniques of performing recruitment manoeuvres. Left panel: manual recruitment with bag squeezing or CPAP (dotted line), central panel: cycling manoeuvre with decremental PEEP trial, right panel: stepwise tidal volume adjustment.

limitation of this technique is that some new anaesthesia machine (Table 1) limits the maximum PEEP to 20 cm H₂O, which makes it difficult for some patients to reach the desired plateau pressure.

Recently, a manoeuvre based on changes in tidal volume was used in a randomized trial [13] (Fig. 3d). In this technique, PEEP is increased to the desired level, with V_T being increased until a plateau pressure of 30 or 40 cm H₂O, held for few respiratory cycles and then set again to the desired volume. Some new anaesthesia machines implement automated cycling RMs. The clinician should be aware that, in morbidly obese patients, the conventional recruitment pressure of 30–40 cm H₂O might be inadequate for fully recruiting the lung: pressures up to 60 cm H₂O might be required [61].

Summary

Mechanical ventilation for patients undergoing general anaesthesia is an increasingly complex yet safe procedure. Many improvements have been introduced in the last decades due to advances in both technology and knowledge. The impact of the intraoperative ventilation setting on clinical outcome has been recently proven. Given the high number of surgical interventions performed across the world currently, even small improvements in post-operative complications due to better ventilatory strategies may affect a high number of patients, reduce health-care costs and contribute to a better clinical outcome.

Practice points

- Mechanical ventilation during general anaesthesia is a safe practice, but ventilatory settings alone have an impact on the clinical outcome
- Tidal volume should be set according to the predicted or ideal body weight
- Preoxygenation is a safe practice, and NPPV preoxygenation can be considered in obese patients
- The clinician should be familiar with the potential and pitfalls of the most commonly used intraoperative ventilation modes
- The routine administration of high PEEP levels should be avoided
- Intraoperative recruitment manoeuvres should be considered in selected patients, and more standardized techniques should substitute the classical bag squeezing

Research agenda

- Large RCTs defining the impact on clinical outcome of emerging ventilations modes are warranted
- Future studies should identify subgroups of patients who might benefit from routine PEEP administration and recruitment manoeuvres

Conflict of interest

None.

References

- [1] Lalley PM. Opioidergic and dopaminergic modulation of respiration. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol* 2008;164:160–7.
- [2] Hedenstierna G, Edmark L. The effects of anesthesia and muscle paralysis on the respiratory system. *Intensive Care Med* 2005;31:1327–35.
- [3] Hedenstierna G, Rothen HU. Respiratory function during anesthesia: effects on gas exchange. *Compr Physiol* 2012;2:69–96.
- [4] Weiser TG, Regenbogen SE, Thompson KD, et al. An estimation of the global volume of surgery: a modelling strategy based on available data. *Lancet* 2008;372:139–44.

- [5] Slutsky AS, Ranieri VM. Ventilator-induced lung injury. *N Engl J Med* 2013;369:2126–36.
- *[6] Serpa Neto A, Cardoso SO, Manetta JA, et al. Association between use of lung-protective ventilation with lower tidal volumes and clinical outcomes among patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome: a meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2012;308:1651–9.
- [7] Serpa Neto A, Simonis FD, Schultz MJ. How to ventilate patients without acute respiratory distress syndrome? *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2015;21:65–73.
- *[8] Serpa Neto A, Hemmes SN, Barbas CS, et al. Incidence of mortality and morbidity related to postoperative lung injury in patients who have undergone abdominal or thoracic surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Respir Med* 2014;2:1007–15.
- *[9] Mazo V, Sabate S, Canet J, et al. Prospective external validation of a predictive score for postoperative pulmonary complications. *Anesthesiology* 2014;121:219–31.
- [10] Severgnini P, Selmo G, Lanza C, et al. Protective mechanical ventilation during general anesthesia for open abdominal surgery improves postoperative pulmonary function. *Anesthesiology* 2013;118:1307–21.
- *[11] Futier E, Constantin JM, Paugam-Burtz C, et al. A trial of intraoperative low-tidal-volume ventilation in abdominal surgery. *N Engl J Med* 2013;369:428–37.
- *[12] Serpa Neto A, Hemmes SN, Barbas CS, et al. Protective versus conventional ventilation for surgery: a systematic review and individual patient data meta-analysis. *Anesthesiology* 2015 [Epub ahead of print].
- *[13] Hemmes SN, Gama de Abreu M, Pelosi P, et al. High versus low positive end-expiratory pressure during general anaesthesia for open abdominal surgery (PROVHILO trial): a multicentre randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2014;384:495–503.
- [14] Jaber S, Tassaux D, Sebbane M, et al. Performance characteristics of five new anesthesia ventilators and four intensive care ventilators in pressure-support mode: a comparative bench study. *Anesthesiology* 2006;105:944–52.
- [15] Cook TM, MacDougall-Davis SR. Complications and failure of airway management. *Br J Anaesth* 2012;109(Suppl. 1):i68–85.
- [16] Apfelbaum JL, Hagberg CA, Caplan RA, et al. Practice guidelines for management of the difficult airway: an updated report by the American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on Management of the Difficult Airway. *Anesthesiology* 2013;118:251–70.
- [17] De Jong A, Futier E, Millot A, et al. How to preoxygenate in operative room: healthy subjects and situations “at risk”. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim* 2014;33:457–61.
- [18] Jones RL, Nzekwu MM. The effects of body mass index on lung volumes. *Chest* 2006;130:827–33.
- [19] Pelosi P, Gregoretto C. Perioperative management of obese patients. *Best Pract Res Clin Anaesthesiol* 2010;24:211–25.
- *[20] Baillard C, Depret F, Levy V, et al. Incidence and prediction of inadequate preoxygenation before induction of anaesthesia. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim* 2014;33:e55–8.
- [21] Peterson GN, Domino KB, Caplan RA, et al. Management of the difficult airway: a closed claims analysis. *Anesthesiology* 2005;103:33–9.
- [22] Dixon BJ, Dixon JB, Carden JR, et al. Preoxygenation is more effective in the 25 degrees head-up position than in the supine position in severely obese patients: a randomized controlled study. *Anesthesiology* 2005;102:1110–5. discussion 5A.
- [23] Collins JS, Lemmens HJ, Brodsky JB, et al. Laryngoscopy and morbid obesity: a comparison of the “sniff” and “ramped” positions. *Obes Surg* 2004;14:1171–5.
- [24] Langeron O, Birenbaum A, Le Sache F, et al. Airway management in obese patient. *Minerva Anesthesiol* 2014;80:382–92.
- [25] Patel A, Nouraei SA. Transnasal humidified rapid-insufflation ventilatory exchange (THRIVE): a physiological method of increasing apnoea time in patients with difficult airways. *Anaesthesia* 2015;70:323–9.
- [26] Vourc’h M, Asfar P, Volteau C, et al. High-flow nasal cannula oxygen during endotracheal intubation in hypoxemic patients: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Intensive Care Med* 2015 Sep;41(9):1538–48.
- [27] Tripathi M, Subedi A, Raimajhi A, et al. Preinduction incentive spirometry versus deep breathing to improve apnea tolerance during induction of anesthesia in patients of abdominal sepsis: a randomized trial. *J Postgrad Med* 2013;59:275–80.
- [28] Kanaya A, Satoh D, Kurosawa S. Higher fraction of inspired oxygen in anesthesia induction does not affect functional residual capacity reduction after intubation: a comparative study of higher and lower oxygen concentration. *J Anesth* 2013;27:385–9.
- [29] Cressey DM, Berthoud MC, Reilly CS. Effectiveness of continuous positive airway pressure to enhance pre-oxygenation in morbidly obese women. *Anaesthesia* 2001;56:680–4.
- [30] Harbut P, Gozdzik W, Stjernfalt E, et al. Continuous positive airway pressure/pressure support pre-oxygenation of morbidly obese patients. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2014;58:675–80.
- [31] Gander S, Frascarolo P, Suter M, et al. Positive end-expiratory pressure during induction of general anesthesia increases duration of nonhypoxic apnea in morbidly obese patients. *Anesth Analg* 2005;100:580–4.
- [32] Delay JM, Sebbane M, Jung B, et al. The effectiveness of noninvasive positive pressure ventilation to enhance preoxygenation in morbidly obese patients: a randomized controlled study. *Anesth Analg* 2008;107:1707–13.
- [33] Futier E, Constantin JM, Pelosi P, et al. Noninvasive ventilation and alveolar recruitment maneuver improve respiratory function during and after intubation of morbidly obese patients: a randomized controlled study. *Anesthesiology* 2011;114:1354–63.
- [34] Mosier JM, Sakles JC, Whitmore SP, et al. Failed noninvasive positive-pressure ventilation is associated with an increased risk of intubation-related complications. *Ann Intensive Care* 2015;5:4.
- [35] Tobin M. Principles and practice of mechanical ventilation. 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill; 2012.
- [36] Struys MM, Kalmar AF, De Baerdemaeker LE, et al. Time course of inhaled anaesthetic drug delivery using a new multifunctional closed-circuit anaesthesia ventilator. In vitro comparison with a classical anaesthesia machine. *Br J Anaesth* 2005;94:306–17.
- [37] Thille AW, Lyazidi A, Richard JC, et al. A bench study of intensive-care-unit ventilators: new versus old and turbine-based versus compressed gas-based ventilators. *Intensive Care Med* 2009;35:1368–76.

- [38] Butterly A, Bittner EA, George E, et al. Postoperative residual curarization from intermediate-acting neuromuscular blocking agents delays recovery room discharge. *Br J Anaesth* 2010;105:304–9.
- [39] Magnusson L. Role of spontaneous and assisted ventilation during general anaesthesia. *Best Pract Res Clin Anaesthesiol* 2010;24:243–52.
- [40] Bachiller PR, McDonough JM, Feldman JM. Do new anesthesia ventilators deliver small tidal volumes accurately during volume-controlled ventilation? *Anesth Analg* 2008;106:1392–400. table of contents.
- [41] Bordes M, Semjen F, Degryse C, et al. Pressure-controlled ventilation is superior to volume-controlled ventilation with a laryngeal mask airway in children. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2007;51:82–5.
- [42] Hans GA, Pregaldien AA, Kaba A, et al. Pressure-controlled ventilation does not improve gas exchange in morbidly obese patients undergoing abdominal surgery. *Obes Surg* 2008;18:71–6.
- [43] De Baerdemaeker LE, Van der Hertten C, Gillardin JM, et al. Comparison of volume-controlled and pressure-controlled ventilation during laparoscopic gastric banding in morbidly obese patients. *Obes Surg* 2008;18:680–5.
- [44] Cadi P, Guenoun T, Journois D, et al. Pressure-controlled ventilation improves oxygenation during laparoscopic obesity surgery compared with volume-controlled ventilation. *Br J Anaesth* 2008;100:709–16.
- [45] Ogurlu M, Kucuk M, Bilgin I, et al. Pressure-controlled vs volume-controlled ventilation during laparoscopic gynecologic surgery. *J Minim Invasive Gynecol* 2010;17:295–300.
- [46] Jeon WJ, Cho SY, Bang MR, et al. Comparison of volume-controlled and pressure-controlled ventilation using a laryngeal mask airway during gynecological laparoscopy. *Korean J Anesthesiol* 2011;60:167–72.
- [47] Kim JY, Shin CS, Lee KC, et al. Effect of pressure-versus volume-controlled ventilation on the ventilatory and hemodynamic parameters during laparoscopic appendectomy in children: a prospective, randomized study. *J Laparoendosc Adv Surg Tech A* 2011;21:655–8.
- [48] Gupta SD, Kundu SB, Ghose T, et al. A comparison between volume-controlled ventilation and pressure-controlled ventilation in providing better oxygenation in obese patients undergoing laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Indian J Anaesth* 2012;56:276–82.
- [49] Tyagi A, Kumar R, Sethi AK, et al. A comparison of pressure-controlled and volume-controlled ventilation for laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Anaesthesia* 2011;66:503–8.
- [50] Aydin V, Kabukcu HK, Sahin N, et al. Comparison of pressure and volume-controlled ventilation in laparoscopic cholecystectomy operations. *Clin Respir J* 2014 [Epub ahead of print].
- [51] Aldenkortt M, Lysakowski C, Elia N, et al. Ventilation strategies in obese patients undergoing surgery: a quantitative systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Anaesth* 2012;109:493–502.
- *[52] Song SY, Jung JY, Cho MS, et al. Volume-controlled versus pressure-controlled ventilation-volume guaranteed mode during one-lung ventilation. *Korean J Anesthesiol* 2014;67:258–63.
- *[53] Capdevila X, Jung B, Bernard N, et al. Effects of pressure support ventilation mode on emergence time and intra-operative ventilatory function: a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2014;9. e115139.
- [54] Edmark L, Auner U, Hallen J, et al. A ventilation strategy during general anaesthesia to reduce postoperative atelectasis. *Ups J Med Sci* 2014;119:242–50.
- *[55] Ball L, Sutherasan Y, Pelosi P. Monitoring respiration: what the clinician needs to know. *Best Pract Res Clin Anaesthesiol* 2013;27:209–23.
- [56] Meininger D, Byhahn C, Mierdl S, et al. Positive end-expiratory pressure improves arterial oxygenation during prolonged pneumoperitoneum. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2005;49:778–83.
- [57] Whalen FX, Gajic O, Thompson GB, et al. The effects of the alveolar recruitment maneuver and positive end-expiratory pressure on arterial oxygenation during laparoscopic bariatric surgery. *Anesth Analg* 2006;102:298–305.
- [58] Talab HF, Zabani IA, Abdelrahman HS, et al. Intraoperative ventilatory strategies for prevention of pulmonary atelectasis in obese patients undergoing laparoscopic bariatric surgery. *Anesth Analg* 2009;109:1511–6.
- [59] Kim JY, Shin CS, Kim HS, et al. Positive end-expiratory pressure in pressure-controlled ventilation improves ventilatory and oxygenation parameters during laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Surg Endosc* 2010;24:1099–103.
- [60] Baki ED, Kokulu S, Bal A, et al. Evaluation of low tidal volume with positive end-expiratory pressure application effects on arterial blood gases during laparoscopic surgery. *J Chin Med Assoc* 2014;77:374–8.
- [61] Reinius H, Jonsson L, Gustafsson S, et al. Prevention of atelectasis in morbidly obese patients during general anesthesia and paralysis: a computerized tomography study. *Anesthesiology* 2009;111:979–87.
- [62] Levin MA, McCormick PJ, Lin HM, et al. Low intraoperative tidal volume ventilation with minimal PEEP is associated with increased mortality. *Br J Anaesth* 2014;113:97–108.
- [63] Tusman G, Bohm SH, Suarez-Sipmann F, et al. Lung recruitment and positive end-expiratory pressure have different effects on CO₂ elimination in healthy and sick lungs. *Anesth Analg* 2010;111:968–77.