

Pulmonary Hypertension and RV Failure during Prolonged VV ECMO Support



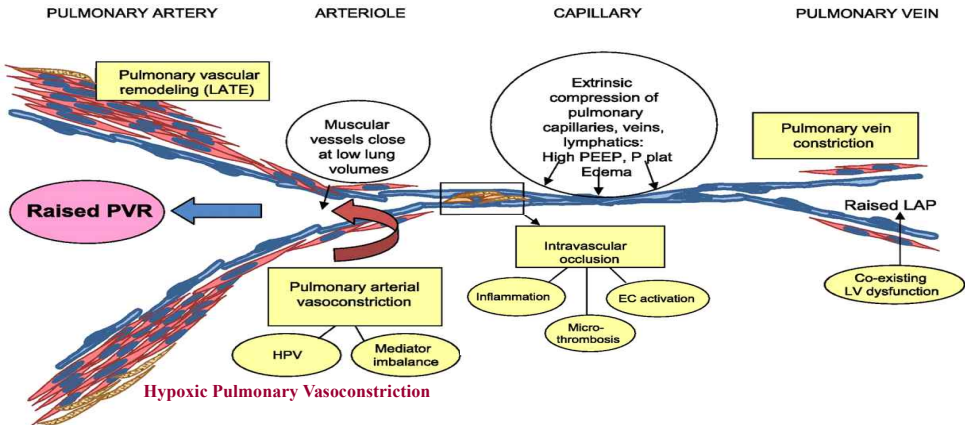
전 경 만

성균관대의대 삼성서울병원 호흡기내과



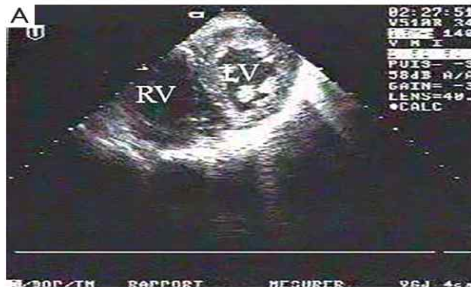
Pathophysiology of Pulmonary HTN in ARDS

Increased Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR)

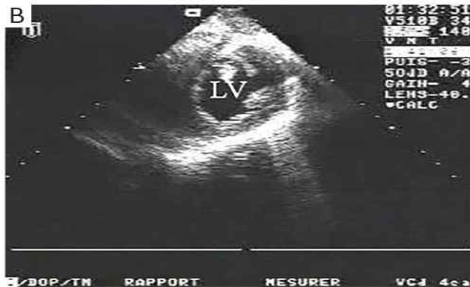


Pathophysiology of RV Dysfunction in ARDS

Hypercapnic Increase in PVR



Pplat 22 cmH₂O
PaCO₂ 71 mmHg
P/F 103 mmHg

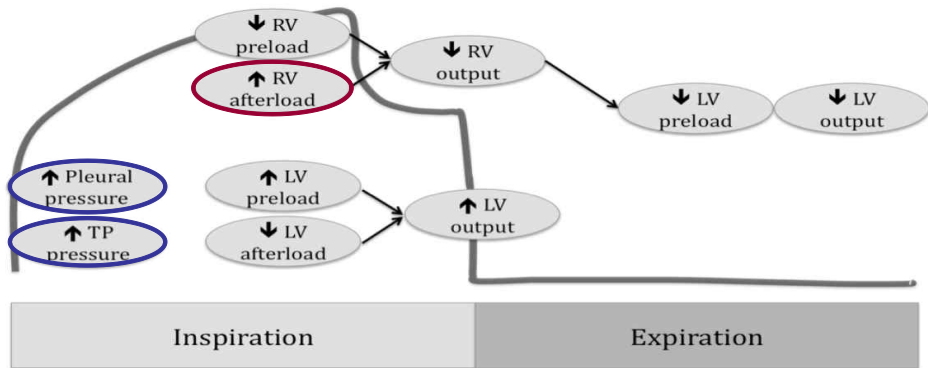


Pplat 23 cmH₂O
PaCO₂ 52 mmHg
P/F 88 mmHg

► Effect of a fast change in PaCO₂ (90 minutes) on the right ventricle in a patient ventilated for severe ARDS.

Pathophysiology of RV Dysfunction in ARDS

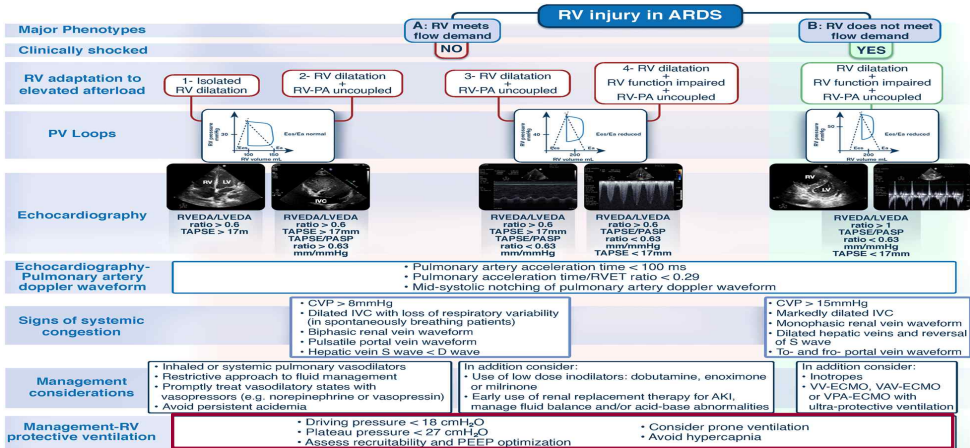
Positive Pressure Ventilation (Driving Pressure)



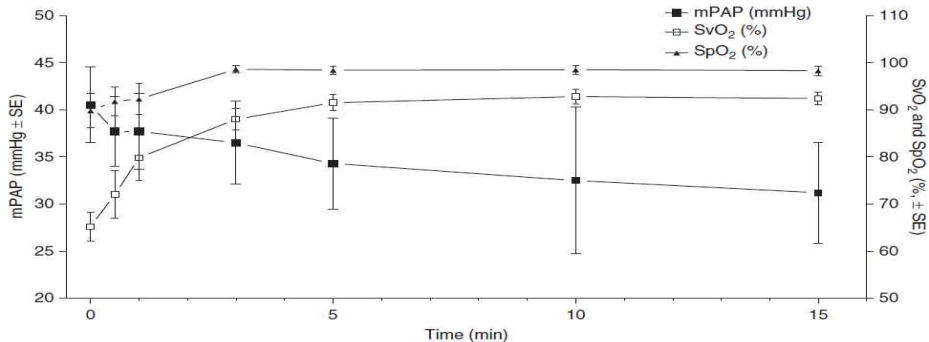
► Positive-pressure MV causes an increase in driving or transpulmonary pressure, which acts as a **back pressure** for pulmonary venous return and may **increase RV afterload**.

RV Protective Ventilation

Protecting the Right Ventricle Network (PRORVnet)



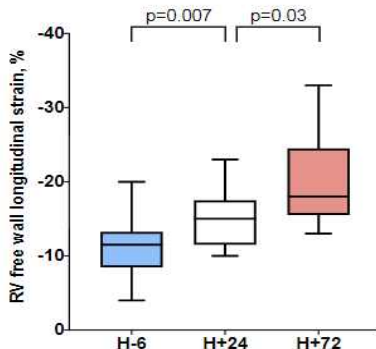
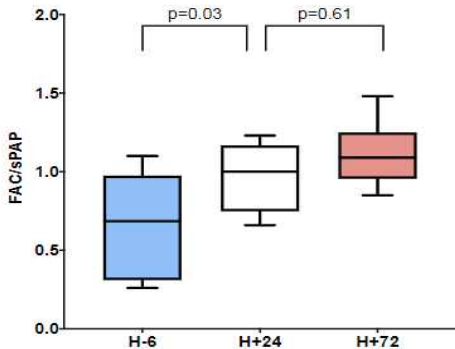
RV Unloading Following VV ECMO



► Initiation of VV ECMO in respiratory failure is associated with **immediate RV unloading** associated with an increase in SvO₂ and a decrease in PaCO₂

Reversal of RV Dysfunction with VV ECMO

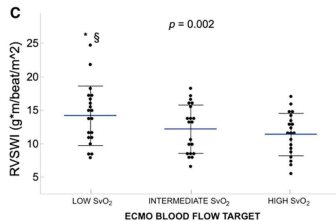
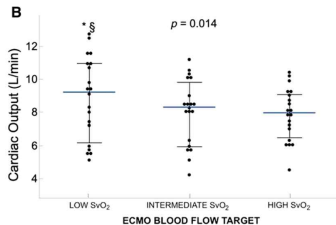
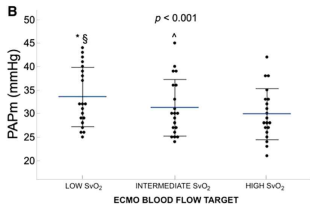
COVID-19 Pneumonia



FAC/sPAP, fractional area change of right ventricle/systolic pulmonary artery pressure

Effect of High ECMO Flow on PAP, CO, RVSWI

Direct RV Unloading



Variables	ECMO Blood Flow Target		
	Low SvO ₂	Intermediate SvO ₂	High SvO ₂
ECMO settings Blood flow rate, L/min	1.51 [1.16–1.94] [†]	2.44 [2.03–2.93] [‡]	3.43 [3.01–3.75]
Blood gases SvO ₂ , %	73.9 ± 2.8 [†]	79.4 ± 2.7 [‡]	86.7 ± 3.5

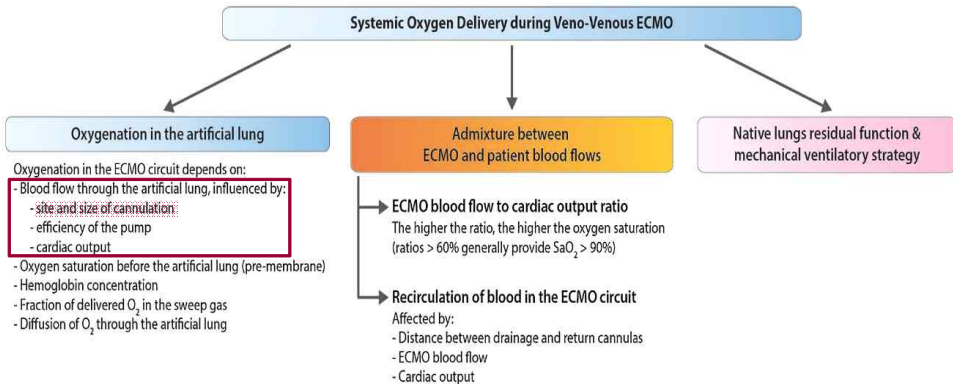
► Increased ECMO blood flow rate resulting in higher SvO₂ decreases pulmonary artery pressure, cardiac output, and right heart workload.

Hypoxemia despite VV ECMO Support

Factors Contributing to Oxygen Delivery

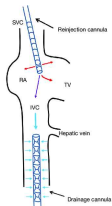
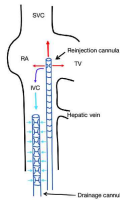


Why systemic oxygen delivery is still inadequate in this patient?

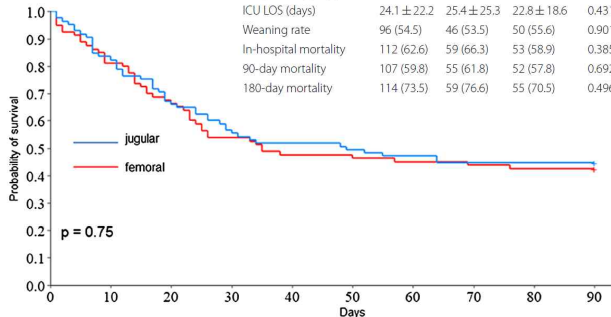


Comparison of Classic Cannulations

Vf-Vf vs. Vf-Vj



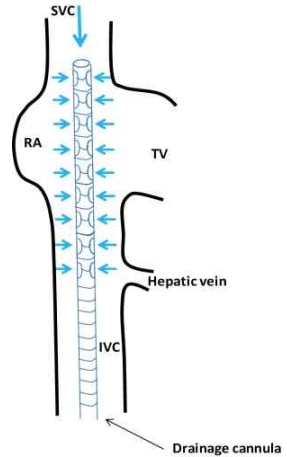
	Total (n = 180)	Jugular (n = 90)	Femoral (n = 90)	P
Tracheostomy	78 (43.6)	39 (43.3)	39 (43.8)	1.0
ECMO duration (days)	16 ± 18.2	17.6 ± 21.2	14.5 ± 14.6	0.248
Interval MV-ECMO (days)	4.3 ± 7.5	4.4 ± 8.8	4.3 ± 6.1	0.879
Hospital stay (days)	56.1 ± 65.1	57.9 ± 60.9	54.3 ± 69.4	0.714
ICU LOS (days)	24.1 ± 22.2	25.4 ± 25.3	22.8 ± 18.6	0.431
Weaning rate	96 (54.5)	46 (53.5)	50 (55.6)	0.901
In-hospital mortality	112 (62.6)	59 (66.3)	53 (58.9)	0.385
90-day mortality	107 (59.8)	55 (61.8)	52 (57.8)	0.692
180-day mortality	114 (73.5)	59 (76.6)	55 (70.5)	0.496



More Cephalad Position of Drainage Cannula

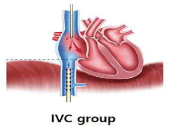
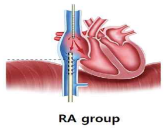


ECMO	Type	VV				
	Equipment	PLS				
	ECMO flow(L/min)	7	6.7	7	7.1	6.8
	RPM(ECMO)	4550				
	FIO ₂ (%)	100				
Sweep gas flow(L/min)	4					
Oxygen Therapy						
Oxygen T...	Device	Room Air				
pO ₂ (mmHg)						102.7



Effect of Enhanced Venous Drainage

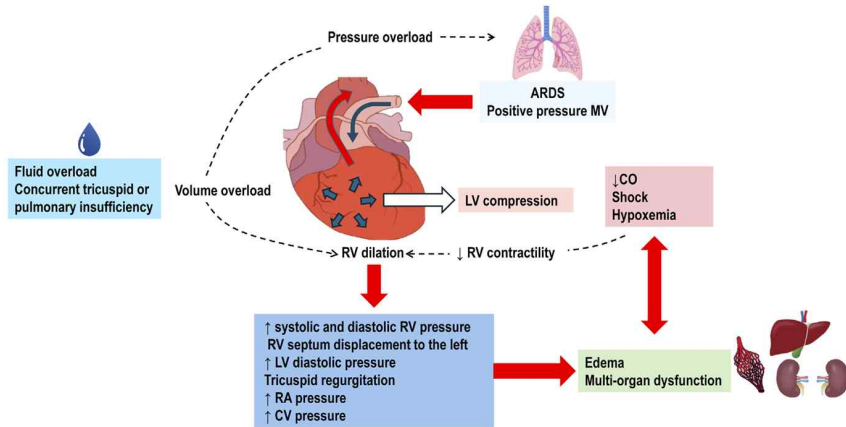


	 IVC group	 RA group	P value
ECMO flow	3.7 ± 1.0	4.0 ± 0.9	0.07
Negative fluid balance	31.4%	57.4%	0.01
Mean body weight loss	0.1 ± 3.1 kg	1.1 ± 2.5 kg	0.05
Awake ECMO	22.9%	42.6%	0.04

► Patients with more cephalad cannula placement were more tolerant of volume removal and more likely to achieve net negative volume status, and were more frequently able to wean to minimal sedation, allowing for a larger proportion of awake ECMO.

Iatrogenic Drivers of RV Dysfunction on Prolonged ECMO

Volume Overload



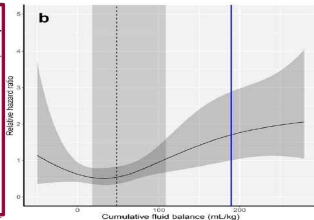
Cumulative Fluid Balance during ECMO

Multicenter Cohort, Korea



Table 5 Cox regression analyses for 90-day mortality with cumulative fluid balance, cumulative input, and output

Models	Variables	Non-cardiovascular disease	
		HR (95% CI)	P value
Model 1	CFB*	1.46 (1.17–1.83)	< 0.001
Model 2	CFB*	1.55 (1.16–2.09)	0.003
Model 3	Cumulative input ^{*,†}	5.53 (2.60–11.75)	< 0.001
	Cumulative total output ^{*,†}	0.25 (0.14–0.45)	< 0.001
Model 4	Cumulative input ^{*,†}	1.92 (1.08–3.42)	0.027
	Cumulative urine output ^{*,†}	0.84 (0.75–0.93)	0.001



CFB Cumulative fluid balance

Model 1: Additionally adjusted for age, sex, Charlson comorbidity index, Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II score, and propensity score

Model 2: Model 1 + daily fluid balance before ECMO^{*,‡}

Model 3: Model 2 + cumulative input + cumulative total output without CFB

Model 4: Model 2 + cumulative input + cumulative urine output without CFB

*Data were log-transformed

†During 3 days from extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) commencement

‡Daily fluid balance during intensive care unit admission before ECMO commencement

Propensity score was obtained by logistic regression analysis with covariables body mass index, ECMO pump time, ECMO blood flow rate, albumin, total carbon dioxide, acute kidney injury stage

The 27 (3.7%) patients who were lost to follow-up were treated as censored

RV Protective Strategy for Prolonged VV ECMO

Enhanced and Stable VV ECMO Flow



More enhanced and stable VV ECMO flow

Maintain adequate oxygenation

Conservative fluid management

Appropriate positioning of drainage cannula to maximize venous drain

Adjustment of VV ECMO flow based on the oxygenation

Reduced unnecessary volume replacement to increase ECMO flow
Enhanced negative fluid balance to reduce the risk of RV dilatation

Suggested Medical Management



Suggestion	Rationale	Limitations
Negative fluid balance	Reduces RV preload, septal shift, venous congestion	Risk of hypovolemia and underfilling
Inhaled pulmonary vasodilators (iNO)	Decrease PVR without systemic hypotension	~30% responder rate
Inotropic support: dobutamine, milrinone, or epinephrine for RV contractility	Maintains coupling and forward flow	Arrhythmia; tachycardia worsens RV filling
Vasopressor support: norepinephrine or vasopressin to maintain MAP	Preserves RV coronary perfusion	Excessive vasoconstriction raises PVR
Anticoagulation	Prevents circuit and pulmonary thrombosis	Bleeding risk

RV Injury and Mortality of ARDS on VV ECMO

Systematic Review

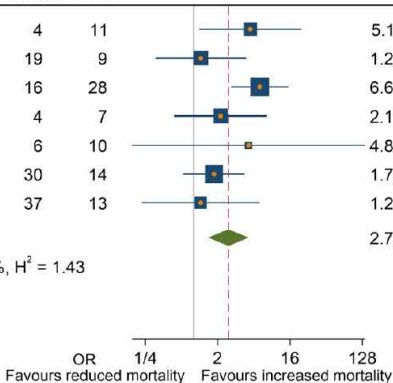


Study	No RVI		RVI		Odds ratio with 95% CI	Weight (%)
	Survived	Died	Survived	Died		
Lazzeri 2021	13	7	4	11	5.11 [1.18, 22.16]	11.87
Lazzeri 2020	13	5	19	9	1.23 [0.34, 4.52]	14.18
Lazzeri 2018	61	16	16	28	6.67 [2.92, 15.22]	24.82
Ortiz 2020	31	25	4	7	2.17 [0.57, 8.26]	13.64
Maharaj 2022	1	0	6	10	4.85 [0.17, 137.68]	2.82
Vogel 2021	50	13	30	14	1.79 [0.74, 4.33]	23.20
Pettenuzzo 2020	7	2	37	13	1.23 [0.23, 6.69]	9.47
Overall					2.72 [1.52, 4.85]	

Heterogeneity: $\tau^2 = 0.17$, $I^2 = 29.83\%$, $H^2 = 1.43$

Test of $\theta = \theta_j$: $Q(6) = 8.55$, $p = 0.20$

Test of $\theta = 0$: $z = 3.38$, $p = 0.00$



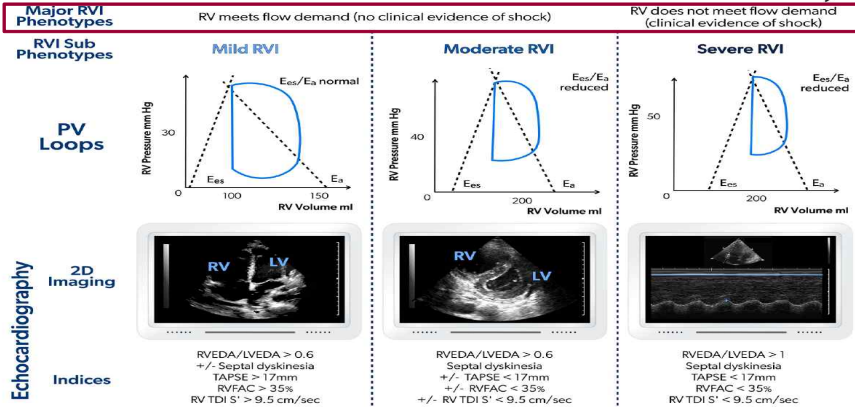
Random-effects DerSimonian-Laird model

Consensus Definition of RV Injury during VV ECMO

Protecting the Right Ventricle Network (PRORVnet), 2024



Severity of Right Ventricular Injury during VV ECMO



RV Injury Sub Phenotypes

Dynamic Spectrum (Dilatation ▶ Dysfunction ▶ Failure)



Mild RV injury

Isolated RV dilatation without systemic venous congestion

- ↑ RV size, RV/LV area ratio
- Early afterload mismatch, may progress

Moderate RV injury

RV dilatation and abnormal markers of RV function (RV dysfunction) while the RV flow output remains sufficient for tissue needs

- Reduced TAPSE/FAC/TDI S' strain
- Hemodynamically significant, treatable stage

Severe RV injury

RV fails (RV failure) to maintain sufficient flow output and resultant systemic venous congestion with shock

- Low output, venous congestion, organ injury
- Associated with prolonged ECMO, ↑ mortality

Diagnosis and Monitoring of RV Injury during VV ECMO

Syndrome-based Multimodal Assessment



Clinical / laboratory

- ↑ vasopressor, tachycardia, oliguria, lactate rise, edema or congestion, low flow tolerance

Echocardiography

- RV size, RV/LV ratio, septal shift, TR, TAPSE, FAC, TDI S', RV strain

Invasive hemodynamics (selected)

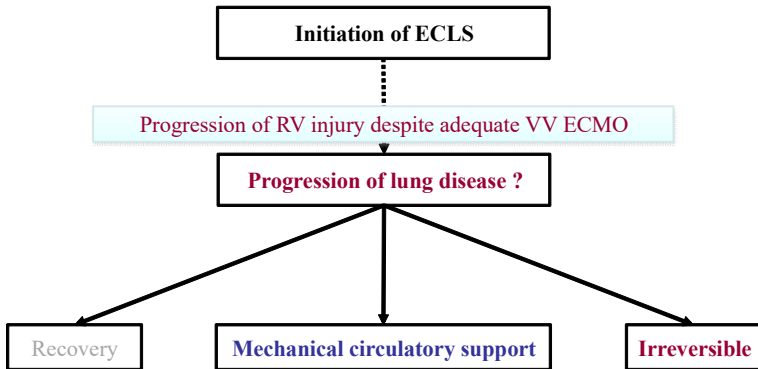
- mPAP, PAOP, CI, SvO₂ in severe PH, shock, transplant candidates

Organ function

- Renal and hepatic function, bilirubin, lactate trends

▶ **Serial, multimodal assessment is essential;** trends outweigh single measurements

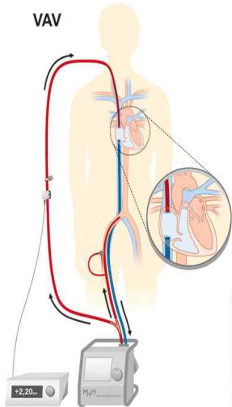
RV dysfunction during Prolonged VV ECMO



RV Unloading or Bypass for RV Failure



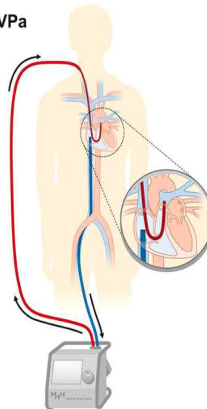
VAV



VAV cannulation

RaP may decrease
PaPmean may decrease
LVEDP may decrease or increase
SBP increases
Vasopressor dose decreases
Inotrope dose decreases

VPa

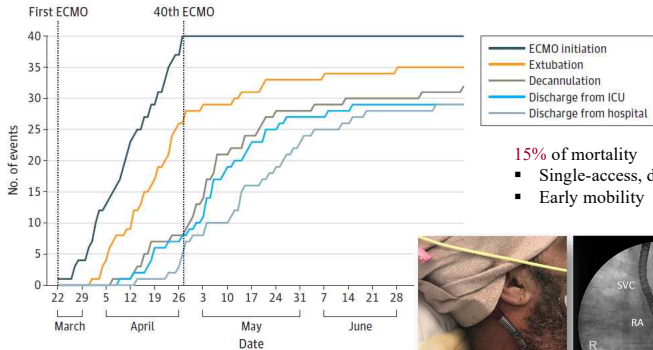


VPa cannulation

RaP decreases
PaPmean increases
LVEDP may increase
SBP may increase
Vasopressor dose may decrease
Inotrope dose may decrease

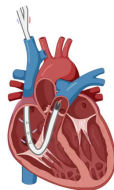
V-PA ECMO for COVID-19 ARDS

Illinois, US (n = 40)

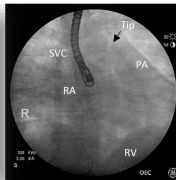


15% of mortality

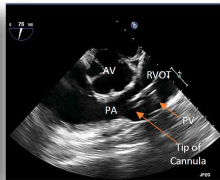
- Single-access, dual-stage cannula to PA
- Early mobility



Cannula Insertion



Fluoroscopy



Trans-Esophageal Echocardiography

Veno-Pulmonary Cannulation



- Benefit

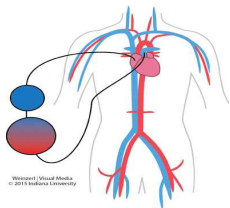
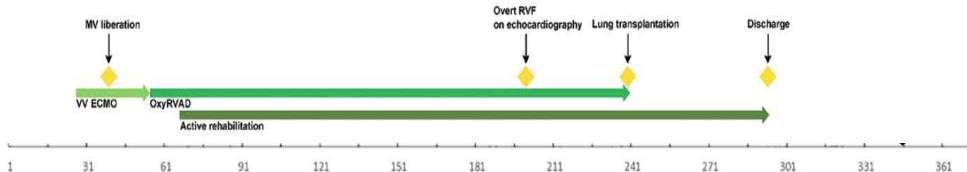
- Eliminating recirculation
- Mechanical support to RV
- Facilitate rehabilitation in awake patients

- Pitfalls

- Insertion with echocardiography or fluoroscopy
- Risk of pulmonary edema in patients with LV failure
- Risk of pulmonary hemorrhage

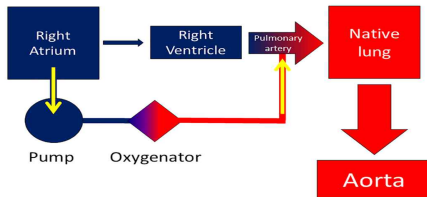
Prolonged VPA ECMO (OxyRVAD)

SMC Experience (213 days)



ASAIO J 2016;62:e37

Hospital day



ASAIO J 2021;67:e127

RV Injury during Prolonged VV ECMO

Summary



- RV injury during VV ECMO is common and should be considered as **dynamic spectrum (dilatation ▶ dysfunction ▶ failure)**
 - Mechanisms are multifactorial; management must be physiology-based & integrated
 - Serial multimodal assessment and trends are crucial for early recognition and staging
- RV protective strategies
 - Efforts to provide adequate support with VV ECMO
 - More enhanced and stable VV ECMO flow by adequate cannulation
 - Efforts to avoid complications
 - Restrictive fluid management
 - Adequate medical management
 - Preventive measure to reduce additional lung injury: awakening, tracheostomy with subglottic drainage
- In refractory RV failure, timely escalation to VVA or oxygenated RVAD (veno-pulmonary ECMO) may be life-saving, particularly transplant candidates