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Managing the Agitated Patient in Intensive Care Unit

Essay Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree in Intensive Care Medicine

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List of Abbreviations

ABC: Awakening and Breathing Controlled

trial

ABD : Acute Behaviourial DisturbanceACTH : Adreno-CorticosTropic Hormone

AMSS : Altered Mental Status Score

ARDS : Acute Respiratory Distress SyndromeASE : Attention Screening Examination

ATICE: Adaptation to Intensive Care

Environment instrument

BARS: Behavioural Activity Rating Scale

BIS : Bispectral Index
BPS : Behavior Pain Scale

CAMICU: Confusion Assessment Method for the

Intensive Care Unit

CNS : Central Nervous System

CPOT : Critical care Pain Observation ToolCRF : Corticotropine-Releasing Factor

CT : Computed Tomography

DIS : Daily Interruption of Sedation

DSM: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of

Mental Disorders

ED : Emergency DepartmentEEG : Electroencephalogarm

EMG: Electro-myogram

GABA: Gamma-Amino Butyric Acid

ICDSC: Intensive Care Delirium Screening

Checklist

ICP : Intracranial PressureICU : Intensive Care Unit

IV : Intravenous

MAAS : Motor Activity Assessment Scale

MENDS: Maximinizing Efficacay of targeted

sedation and reducing Neurological

Dysfunction

MRI : Magnetic Resonance Imaging

MSAT : Minnesota Sedation Assessment Tool

NMBAs: Neuro Muscular Blocking Agents

NMDA : N-Methyl-D-AspartateNRS : Numerical Rating Scale

OASS : Overt Agitation Severity Scale

PRIS: Propofol Infusion syndrome

RASS: Richmond Agitation Sedation Scale

SAS : Sedation Agitation Scale

SBT : Spontaneous Breathing Trial

SCCM: Society of Critical Care Medicine

SEDCOM: Safety and Efficacy of

Dexmedetomidine Compaired with

Midazolam

SUPPORT: Study to Understand Prognoses and

Preferences for Outcomes and Risks of

Treatment

TOF: Train Of Four

VICS: Vancouver Interactive and Calmness

Scale

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Introduction

Agitation has been identified as a psychomotor disorder and described as a continuum of varying patient behaviors and responses, including disorientation, restlessness, thrashing around in bed, pulling catheters and tubes and overbreathing the ventilator (*Cohen et al.*, *..*).

Recent studies have reported agitation to be particularly common in intensive care unit (ICU) patients, with its incidence ranging between and (Jabber et al., ۲۰۰۰).

This variation may be partly attributed to differences among studies regarding patient inclusion criteria (i.e. mechanically ventilated or not), to difficulties in the definition and differential diagnosis of agitation and to the use of different scales developed for monitoring agitation (*Fraser & Riker*, $7 \cdot \cdot 1$).

Agitated behavior has been associated with potentially dangerous complications, such as unplanned self-intubation, removal of arterial or venous catheters and increased systemic and myocardial oxygen consumption, as well as adverse patient outcomes, including prolonged mechanical ventilation and ICU stay and increased nosocomial infection rate (*Fraser & Riker*, **••*).

Numerous scales and tools to monitor the degree of agitation in clinical practice are described

in the literature. Most commonly used are Ramsay Sedation Scale, Sedation Agitation Scale (SAS), motor activity assessment scale, Vancouver Interactive and Calmness Scale (VICS), Richmond Agitation-Sedation Scale (RASS), Adaptation to Intensive Care Environment instrument (ATICE) and the Minnesota Sedation Assessment Tool (MSAT). Among all of these, Ramsay and RASS are the most commonly employed (*Patel et al.*, Y., 9).

Treatment of agitation includes non pharmacologic and pharmacologic therapy. Before administration of sedation and analgesia, potentially life-threatening problems that require specific solutions must be investigated. (shyoko et al., Y.).

Both pharmacologic agents and physical restraints have been used for treating agitation. However, considering prevention is superior to treatment, identification and timely treatment of factors predisposing to agitation are important. These factors can generally be divided into patient characteristics (high clinical severity damage), neurological metabolic disorders (acidosis), drugs administered or devices used (nasogastric tube and Foley catheter) and the ICU environment (circadian disruption) (shyoko et al., Y . 1 .).

Aim of the Work

This study is designed to understand the etiology, physiology of agitation in ICU, review objective assessment tools that may used at the bedside, explore available therapeutic modalities, and provide a practical approach for management of sedation, analgesia for agitated patient in ICU.

Agitation physiology, causes and complication

Agitation is a psychomotor disturbance characterized by a marked increase in both motor and psychological activities, often accompanied by a loss of control of action and a disorganization of thought. This problem is driven by frequently occurring situations in the intensive care unit (ICU), such as anxiety and delirium. Therefore, it is fairly common in the ICU setting, particularly in older patients, and it may be caused by numerous factors, linked both to the disease itself (metabolic disorders, medications, sepsis-associated encephalopathy, and others) and to external factors [e.g., noise, discomfort, pain] (Pandharipande et al.,

Agitation per se may be dangerous in the ICU: its occurrence may compromise care, raise metabolic requirements and, finally, increase morbidity and mortality. Length of stay in the ICU as well as in the hospital may also be increased, in turn leading to an increase in costs. In addition, compared to that of similar but non-delirious patients, the post-hospital mortality rate may be higher in patients having presented with agitation and delirium. For all these reasons, these mental disorders should be a source of serious concern and, therefore, vigorously managed through a systematic approach. It is generally accepted that these symptoms represent a marker of acute cerebral insufficiency (Chevrolet et al.,

Significance of agitation and delirium in the ICU

Besides agitation, several mental disturbances may be observed in the ICU, in particular anxiety and delirium. It is not presently known if these mental states express different types of brain dysfunction, or if they represent some sort of spectrum in the severity of the cerebral insult (**Pandharipande** *et al.*,).

Anxiety is a diffuse sensation of fear, which is not related to a real and actual external danger. This sensation is expected to occur in the ICU due to the numerous stressful situations occurring in this setting (pain, noise, and loss of body control, among others). If a certain degree of anxiety seems to be 'normal' in the ICU environment, some authors have described a 'pathological' anxiety when this sensation appears to be disproportionately high considering its cause, and when it is associated with other severe signs, such as severe dysautonomia, loss of self-control, and cannot be appropriately treated due to a complete lack of patient cooperation (Chevrolet et al.,

Delirium is defined as an acute change in mental status, or a fluctuation of mood, associated with impaired attention, disorganized thinking, confusion and an altered level of consciousness. It is often referred to as a state of acute confusion (Meagher *et al.*,).

Most cases of delirium have an acute onset, particularly in the ICU. Typically, this cognitive alteration varies throughout the day, and achieves peak intensity during the night. This symptom is usually reversible within a period of days or weeks, whereas some patients can progress to permanent brain failure. Illusions and hallucinations may also occur. Florid delirium with intense agitation in a combative patient (active delirium) is easy to detect, but delirium can also be present in a calm and quiet patient (hypoactive delirium), the succession of both types being possible (Meagher *et al.*,

Despite the fact that delirium is frequent in the ICU (occurring in to of patients), it seems that critical care physicians' performance in detecting it remains poor; around two-thirds of these patients are not identified. Fortunately, simple tools that can be used by non-psychiatrists at the bedside have been developed to detect delirium in the ICU (**Pandharipande** *et al.*,).

Many difficult but interesting questions regarding agitation and delirium in the ICU remain unanswered. First, it is not known precisely if the prevention or the timely detection and treatment of this condition can favorably influence a patient's outcome. Second, the exact relationships between agitation and delirium, on the one hand, and mortality and cerebral dysfunction, on the other, are poorly understood (**Riker** *et al.*,).

In particular, it would be of great interest to understand if the brain is just a passive victim, one of many organs to dysfunction in critical illness, expressing its injury through agitation and delirium, or if it is an active player, participating and contributing to the extra cerebral organ dysfunction. The indication and

type of treatment for agitation and delirium are clearly related to the answers to these questions (**Sharshar** et al.,).

The exact mechanisms causing the mental problems described above in ICU patients have not been fully characterized, except when a metabolic cause is obvious, such as hypoglycemia, or hypoxemia. Nevertheless, these disturbances are believed to have an organic basis. The generalized electroencephalographic abnormalities observed during this condition represent an argument in favor of such a diffuse neurological dysfunction (Milbrandt et al.,).

Several hypotheses are actively discussed today. First, the role of abnormalities at the level of the central neurotransmission process is debated; these abnormalities are characterized by an excess in dopaminergic activity consecutive with adepletion in cholinergic stores (**Chevrolet** *et al.*,).

Importantly, many drugs prescribed in the ICU have an anti cholinergic activity and some of them have been clearly associated with delirium, such as anti arrhythmic medications, antibiotics (penicillin, rifampin), and so on. These drugs should be avoided in delirious patients when possible. Interestingly, an 'inflammatory reflex' has recently been observed, leading to a real cooperation between the central nervous system and the inflammatory pathways (Czura et al.,).

More precisely, an anti-inflammatory action exerted by vagus nerve endings located at the vicinity of macrophages in inflammatory foci, through nicotinic receptors at the surface of these cells, has been demonstrated. These observations could provide some explanation as to the origin of delirium caused by a neuronal dysfunction, as well as a substrate for the causal role of the brain in immune modulation (**Sharshar** *et al.*,).

Other central neurotransmitters have been thought to play a role in delirium, such as dopamine, serotonin, or gamma-amino butyric acid (GABA). This probably represents the substrate for the delirium occasionally associated with benzodiazepines or propofol (so-called 'paradoxical reactions'). Note also that benzodiazepines and opioids have been clearly shown to be independent factors for the occurrence of delirium (Pandharipande,).

Inflammatory mediators (that cross the blood brain barrier and alter blood flow and vascular permeability) and alterations in brain metabolism are other factors that may play a role in the development of delirium. Better understanding of the physiological consequences of and biological mechanisms that fuel agitated behaviors may lead to novel therapeutic approaches in the future and ultimately improve the delivery of care in the ICU (Shyoko et al.,).

The second group of hypotheses to explain the mental dysfunction observed in the ICU relates to the presence of potential organic cerebral lesions not detectable by currently available technology (computed tomography (CT) scan, magnetic resonance imaging, and so on (Orlikowski et al.,