

Optimizing respiratory care in coronavirus disease-2019: A comprehensive, protocolized, evidence-based, algorithmic approach

Sagar Sinha, Indrani Sardesai¹, Sagar C. Galwankar², P.W.B. Nanayakkara³,
Dindigal Ramakrishnan Narasimhan, Joydeep Grover⁴, Harry L. Anderson III⁵,
Lorenzo Paladino⁶, David F. Galeski⁷, Salvatore Di Somma⁸, Stanislaw P. Stawicki⁹

Key Words: Coronavirus disease 2019, respiratory care optimization, clinical algorithm, SARS-CoV-2, evidence-based guideline, resource-sparing strategies

INTRODUCTION

Respiratory management of patients with corona virus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is both complex and highly nuanced.^[1] Although most patients with COVID-19 develop mild or no symptoms, a smaller proportion (up to 15%) experience progressive hypoxic respiratory failure requiring escalating levels of oxygen support.^[2] Significant accumulated experience in caring for patients with SARS-CoV-2 pulmonary illness resulted in the recognition of major respiratory failure patterns, the benefits of early proning, and the importance of a step-wise escalation in levels of invasiveness across the entire spectrum from nasal cannula to extracorporeal support.^[2-4] Given substantial heterogeneity among various algorithmic approaches to oxygen therapy and the need for both standardization and optimization of clinical management methodologies, the Joint ACAIM-WACEM COVID-19 Clinical Management Taskforce (CCMT) set out to establish and publish a unified approach to the patient who presents with SARS-CoV-2 lower respiratory tract infection (LRTI). In addition, the CCMT hopes that a protocol-driven strategy will lead to conservation of precious healthcare resources, such as intensive care beds and ventilators, by eliminating unnecessary interventions and various other process inefficiencies.

Clinical rationale

The Joint ACAIM-WACEM CCMT is a multidisciplinary group with participants from multiple countries and significant collective expertise in clinical management of COVID-19. Based on our shared experiences, we set

Access this article online

Website: www.ijcils.org

DOI: 10.4103/IJCILS.IJCILS_69_20

Quick Response Code:



Department of Critical Care and Emergency Medicine, MGM Medical College and Hospital, Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra, India, ¹Department of Accident and Emergency Medicine, Queen Elizabeth Hospital, Gateshead, ⁴Department of Emergency Medicine, Southmead Hospital, Bristol, England, United Kingdom, ²Department of Emergency Medicine, Sarasota Memorial Hospital, Florida State University, Sarasota, Florida, ⁵Department of Surgery, St. Joseph Mercy Ann Arbor, Ann Arbor, Michigan, ⁶Department of Emergency Medicine, SUNY Downstate and Kings County Hospital Medical Center, New York, ⁷Department of Emergency Medicine, Sidney Kimmel Medical College at Thomas Jefferson University, Philadelphia, ⁹Department of Research and Innovation, St. Luke's University Health Network, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, USA, ³Section General and Acute Internal Medicine, Amsterdam UMC, Location VU University Medical Center, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, ⁸Department of Medical-Surgical Sciences and Translational Medicine, University of Rome "Sapienza," Rome, Italy

Address for correspondence:

Dr. Indrani Sardesai,
C/O Accident and Emergency Medicine
Office, Queen Elizabeth Hospital, Queen
Elizabeth Avenue, Gateshead, Tyne
and Wear NE96SX, United Kingdom.
E-mail: isardesai@gmail.com

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

Cite this article as: Sinha S, Sardesai I, Galwankar SC, Nanayakkara PW, Narasimhan DR, Grover J, *et al.* Optimizing respiratory care in coronavirus disease-2019: A comprehensive, protocolized, evidence-based, algorithmic approach. *Int J Crit Illn Inj Sci* 2020;10:XX-XX.

Received: 12.05.2020; Revision: 17.05.2020;
Accepted: 21.05.2020; Published: ***.

out to design and optimize a uniform approach toward patients suffering from SARS-CoV-2 LRTI. The primary goal of the CCMT was to ensure broad applicability of the resultant treatment algorithms across diverse clinical settings, regardless of resource availability [Table 1]. The secondary goal was to produce a comprehensive, evidence-based resource that will provide clinicians with an easy-to-use and powerful set of tools to manage COVID-19 patients with LRTI and respiratory failure. Multiple sources were utilized when compiling this collection of algorithms and tables.^[2,5-20]

The working hypothesis adopted by the CCMT is that in COVID-19, the disease caused by SARS-CoV-2 manifests primarily as an oxygen diffusion problem rather than as alterations involving ventilation-perfusion (V/Q) mismatch, low fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO₂), or hypoventilation.^[1,3,4,11] Consequently, we advocate that initial attempts to address the oxygenation-related impairment should include low-flow nasal cannula (LFNC) and reservoir masks, with progressive escalation to high-flow nasal cannula (HFNC) before implementing awake proning or non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV).^[11,14,15,21,22] If these maneuvers and strategies are ineffective, we advocate that a prompt

transition is made toward invasive mechanical ventilatory support.^[14,22,23] Cumulatively, the above approach serves to optimize and standardize the overall management of COVID-19 patients with LRTI. The rationale for applying different oxygen therapies to different primary pathophysiologic respiratory problems is presented in Table 2.

Patient history and clinical assessment

Infection with COVID-19 should be suspected in patients presenting with “typical” signs and symptoms including fever, cough, and various degrees of hypoxia,^[24] although clinical manifestations can take a number of other forms, particularly in the elderly population.^[2] Patients with elevated risk of severe disease are older, immunocompromised, morbidly obese, male, or have two or more chronic comorbid conditions.^[2,24-26] Additional clinical signs and symptoms associated with severe illness include tachycardia, hyperthermia (≥39°C), encephalopathy, and hemodynamic instability.^[2,27] While a “typical” COVID-19 presentation is seen in the vast majority of cases,^[2] additional specific “red flags” such as the presence of “silent hypoxia” must be kept in mind.^[27-30] Reliable oxygen saturation measurement (SpO₂) is the cornerstone of initial risk stratification and disease severity assessment. Patients with normal (or “baseline,” if preexisting pulmonary disease exists) SpO₂ are stratified as “low risk,” whereas patients with an initial SpO₂ <93% (or similar decline below “baseline” levels) require immediate supplemental oxygen therapy.

In addition to a comprehensive COVID-19 laboratory workup,^[2,31] specific factors associated with severe respiratory disease have been identified, including the presence of myalgias, elevated hemoglobin levels, and elevated alanine aminotransferase.^[2] Specific risk assessment tools may be considered including the MuLBSTA^[32] and BCRSS scores.^[2,33] Moreover, laboratory findings of a neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio of >3.3,

Table 1: Comparison between resource-abundant and resource-limited health-care settings

Setting/environment/safety	Resource abundant + patient centered	Resource limited + HCP centered
Phase of pandemic	1, 2	3, 4
Infrastructure	Adequate	Average
Hospital occupancy	Low	High
Surge ICU beds	No	Yes
Regular health-care providers	Yes	No
Dedicated CCM services	Yes	No

The joint ACAIM-WACEM COVID-19 Clinical management Taskforce recognizes that there exist significant regional variations in terms of health-care resources, including considerations related to infrastructure, capacity, clinical skillset, equipment, access/availability, and other resources essential for patient care. ICU: Intensive care unit, HCP: Health-care provider, CCM: Critical care medicine, COVID-19: Coronavirus disease 2019

Table 2: Oxygen therapies and respiratory pathophysiology, including evidence-based support

	Oxygenation	Ventilation	WOB	Solves diffusion	Solves V/Q mismatch	Solves recruitment
LFNC	+	-	-	+	-	-
Reservoir mask	++	-	+/-	++	-	+
HFNC	+++	+/-	+/-	+++	-	-
Awake proning	+	+	-	-	++	+
HFNC + awake proning	+++	++	-	++/(H)	++/(H)	++/(H)
CPAP (no O ₂)	-	+/-	+/-	-	+	+
CPAP (with O ₂)	+	+/-	+/-	+	+	+
NIPPV (no O ₂)	-	++	++	+/-	+	+/-
NIPPV (with O ₂)	+	++	++	+	+	+
IMV	++	++	++	++	++	++
IMV + proning	++	++	++	++	+++	+++
ECLS	+++	+++	+++	NA	NA	NA

H: Based on past evidence, but largely hypothetical in the context of COVID-19 lower respiratory disease. WOB: Work of breathing, LFNC: Low-flow nasal cannula, HFNC: High-flow nasal cannula, V/Q mismatch: Ventilation-perfusion mismatch, CPAP: Continuous positive airway pressure, NIPPV: Noninvasive positive pressure ventilation, IMV: Invasive mechanical ventilation, ECLS: Extracorporeal life support, COVID-19: Coronavirus disease 2019, + / + / + / + + + Denotes the level of available evidence, with “+/-” and “-” denoting insufficient or lack of supporting evidence, respectively

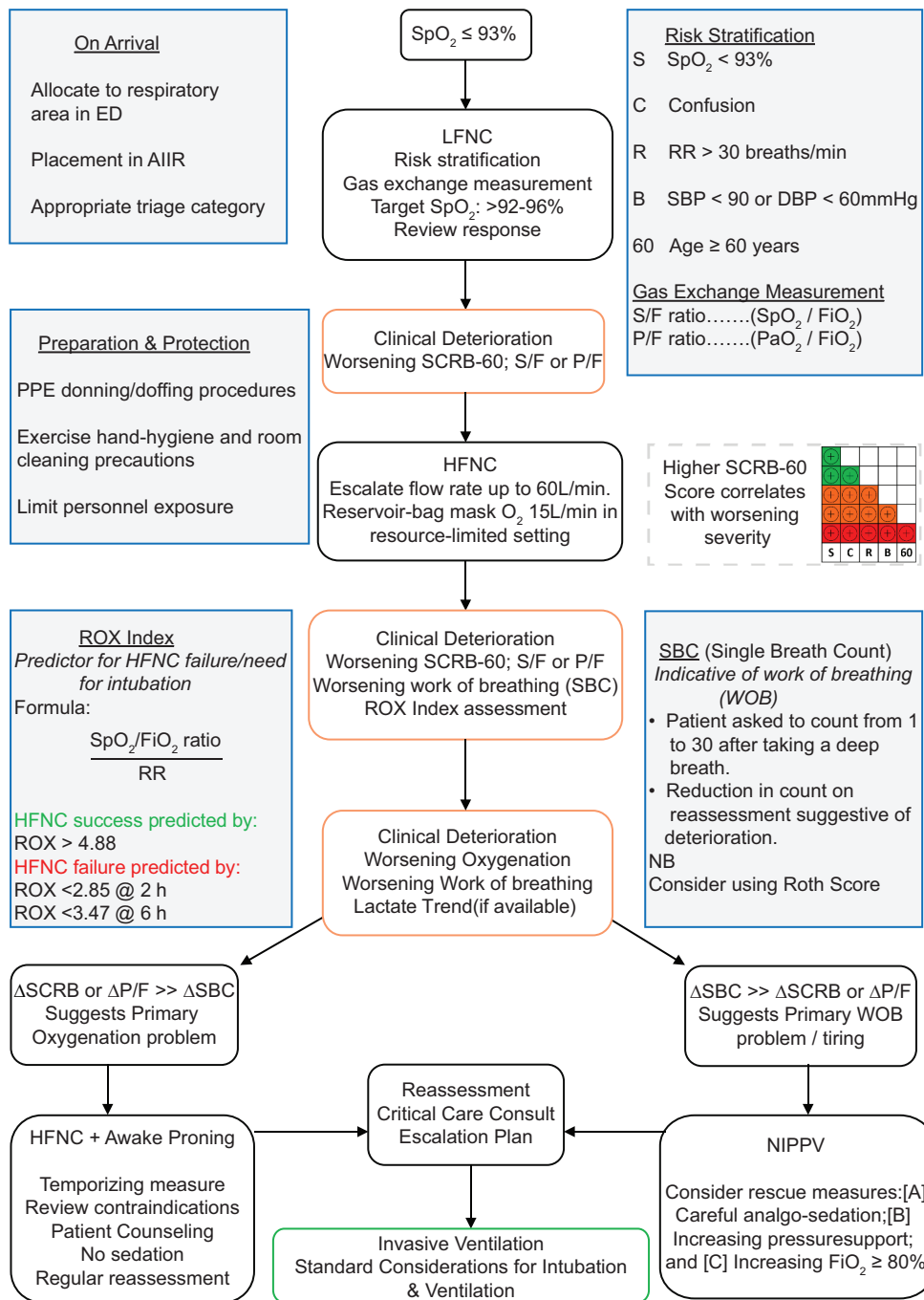


Figure 1: Management algorithm for nonintubated coronavirus disease-2019 patients with progressive respiratory worsening. AIIR: Airborne infection isolation room, LFNC: Low-flow nasal cannula, HFNC: High-flow nasal cannula, S/F: SpO₂/FiO₂, P/F: PaO₂/FiO₂, PPE: Personal protective equipment, SpO₂: Peripheral capillary oxygen saturation, RR: Respiratory rate, SBP: Systolic blood pressure, DBP: Diastolic blood pressure, SBC: Single breath count, Δ: change, NIPPV: Noninvasive positive pressure ventilation, WOB: Work of breathing

thrombocytopenia, markedly elevated D-dimer, and early elevations in highly sensitive troponin, are all linked to severe disease and poorer prognosis.^[2,34-37] Severe COVID-19 may also be associated with elevated risk of thromboembolic events.^[38]

Pertinent diagnostic and clinical monitoring criteria

Radiographic workup is an important part of the overall COVID-19 patient assessment. The initial chest radiograph shows “typical” diagnostic changes

in >67% of patients, and this may increase to >95% in cases of severe disease.^[35] Noncontrast computed tomography (NCCT) of the chest may correlate with both the diagnosis and severity of COVID 19, and has a reported sensitivity of >90% at 2–5 days post-onset of symptoms and 97% sensitivity thereafter.^[2,39,40] If the NCCT findings are suspicious for COVID-19,^[41] low-molecular-weight heparin administration^[42] and hospital admission should be considered. If the NCCT is not suggestive of COVID-19, then contrast-enhanced

Table 3: Patient monitoring criteria grouped by both patient location and resource-based considerations

Location	Resource abundant	Resource limited
TRIAGE	On arrival	On arrival
Emergency department (or high-dependency units)	SpO ₂	SpO ₂
	On arrival + every 2 h	On arrival + every 4-6 h
	Prognosticators	Prognosticators
	PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Ideal	SpO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Acceptable
High-dependency units or intensive care units	SpO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Quick or used in combination	Clinical risk stratification
	Clinical risk stratification	SCRUB-60
	SCRUB-60	SCRUB-60 ED/wards
	SCRUB-60 ED/wards	Prognosticators
	Prognosticators	PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Ideal
	PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Ideal	SpO ₂ /FiO ₂ : Used in combination
High-dependency units or intensive care units	Clinical risk stratification	Clinical risk stratification
	SCRUB-60	SCRUB-60
	SPS-II/APACHE-II	SAPS-II/APACHE-II

APACHE-II: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II, ED: Emergency department, FiO₂: Fraction of inspired oxygen, SCRUB-60: Proposed severity score [Table 4], SAPS-II: Simplified Acute Physiology Score II, SpO₂: Peripheral capillary oxygen saturation

Table 4: The SCR(U)B-60 tool used for risk stratification of community-acquired pneumonia

S: SpO₂ < 93%
 C: Confusion
 R: Respiratory rate > 30 breaths/min
 U: Urea > 7 mmol/L (> 19 mg/dL)
 B: Blood pressure < 90 mmHg (systolic) or < 60 mmHg (diastolic)
 60: Age 60 years, modified to account for higher mortality in COVID for age ≥ 60 years

The tool is a modification of the CURB-65 score.^[43-45] The basic SCRUB score can be supplemented with urea (U) measurement when it becomes available. COVID-19: Coronavirus disease 2019

Table 5: The single breath count tool^[47,48]

Method
 Step 1: Ask patient to take a deep breath
 Step 2: Patient counts from 1 to 30 in a single breath
 Step 3: Record time taken to count 1 to highest number, in seconds
 Step 4: Ask patient to take three further deep breaths
 Step 5: Repeat from steps 1 to 3

One may also consider the Breathlessness Screening Tool (BST) where the patient counts from 1 to 30 in their native language. Times between consecutive breaths < 8 s correlate with the risk of SpO₂ < 95% with sensitivity/specificity of 78%/71%, while times < 5 s increase sensitivity to 91%^[48]

CT of the chest or V/Q scanning may be considered to rule out other causes of hypoxia.

Specific clinical monitoring criteria, as directly relevant to the current manuscript, can be stratified according to patient/assessment location as well as the overall resource availability [Table 3]. Within this larger paradigm, several assessment tools need to be introduced, including the SCRUB-60 tool [Table 4]^[43-45] and the SBC tool [Table 5].^[46-48] Finally, the risk of pneumothorax may be elevated in patients on prolonged positive pressure ventilation, necessitating tube thoracostomy placement when indicated.^[49]

Determination of response to therapy and therapeutic escalation points

As one moves along the respiratory management algorithm, the need arises for standardized clinical checkpoints performed with a regular frequency [Table 6]. Finally, predetermined therapeutic escalation points will be important to ensure standardized application of the algorithm across different disease acuity levels [Table 7].^[20]

Mechanical ventilation, proning, and extracorporeal mechanical support

Given that at least two distinct phenotypes of respiratory failure exist in COVID-19, prompt recognition of the type (L vs. H) of physiology applicable to each particular patient, followed by appropriate mechanical ventilation strategy, will be critical [Table 8].^[51,52] In addition, early and aggressive proning strategy, beginning while the patient is still on nasal cannula oxygen therapy (i.e., a strategy aimed at preventing tracheal intubation) and continuing along the entire spectrum of respiratory failure severity, is now considered critical to achieving favorable clinical outcomes.^[2,53] Finally, important considerations and limitations to prone positioning therapy are provided in Table 9. In terms of extracorporeal mechanical support, providers should follow established guidelines and appropriate patient suitability criteria to optimize clinical outcomes.^[2]

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summative algorithms for initial management of nonintubated COVID-19 patients [Figure 1]; basic mechanical ventilation approaches [Figure 2]; and advanced mechanical ventilation strategies for more severely ill patients [Figure 3] are presented at this time.^[56-58] In addition, one should be ready to recognize when appropriate escalation of care transitions may be required, keeping in mind that there must be a balance between indiscriminately following a “protocol” and patient-centric consideration for individual circumstances. With that in mind, standardizing documentation ensures that all teams involved in caring for the patient remain updated and aware of previous discussions, decisions, and potential changes [Figure 4]. It is important to recognize that our understanding of SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19 continues to evolve, and that current management strategies may change in response to increased medical and scientific knowledge of the disease process.

Special note

A full discussion regarding the complex issue of monitoring and maintaining adequate oxygenation in the outpatient/home setting is beyond the scope of this

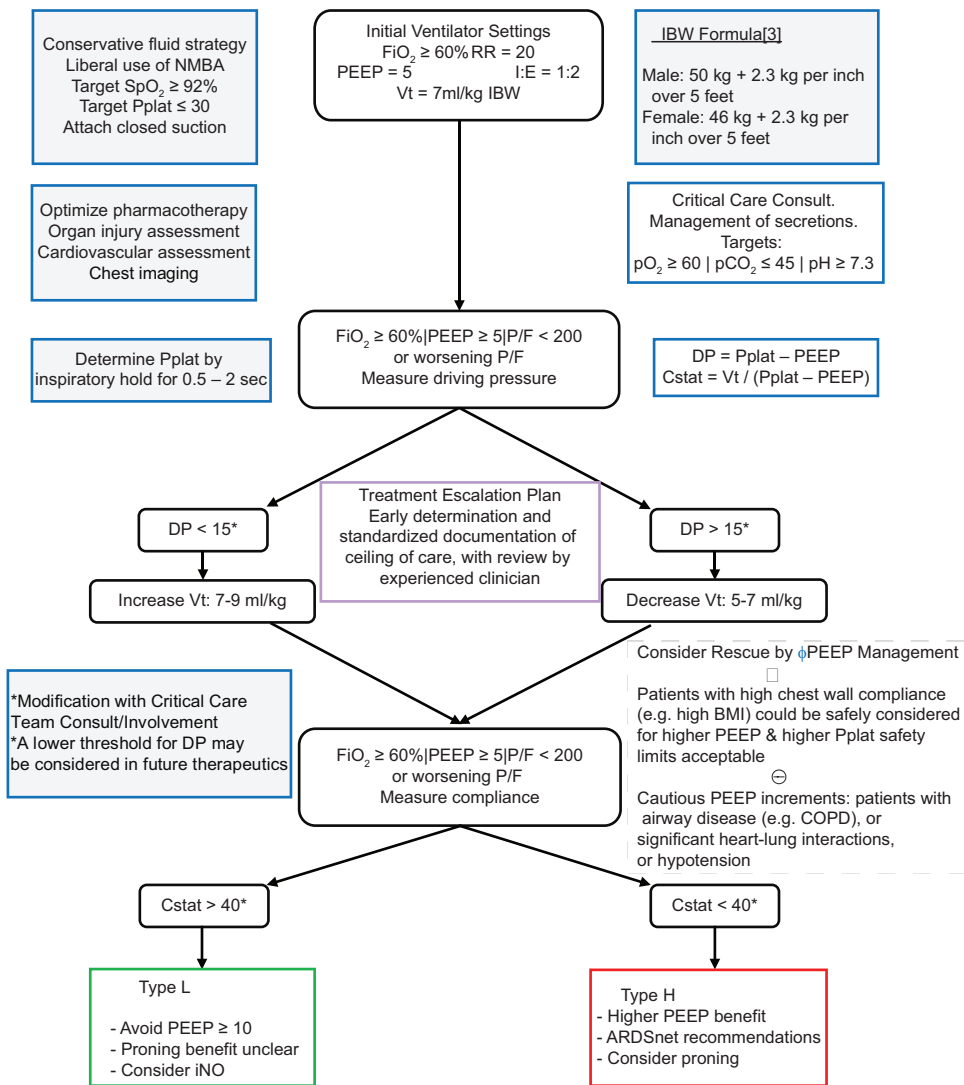


Figure 2: Management algorithm for coronavirus disease 2019 patients with respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation. IBW: Ideal body weight, FiO₂: Fraction of inspired oxygen, PEEP: Positive end expiratory pressure, P/F: PaO₂/FaO₂, RR: Respiratory rate, Vt: Tidal volume, SpO₂: Peripheral capillary oxygen saturation, DP: Driving pressure, Cstat: Static compliance, iNO: inhaled nitrous oxide, Pplat: Plateau pressure, ABG: Arterial blood gas, See references^[56,57] for ARDSnet original sources

Table 6: Summary of key correlates with patient response to specific levels of oxygenation strategy/support

Modality	Continue HFNC Improves oxygenation and provides some added PEEP effect	Attempt awake proning for	Assisted ventilation for
Response to oxygen	Good response	Poor response	Inadequate response or increased WOB
Probable primary pathophysiology	Diffusion abnormality	V/Q mismatch	Collapsed alveoli or shunt or fragile
Caveats	Aerosolization risk	Ensure no contraindications to proning	Ensure no contraindications to NIPPV (always factor device considerations of max. FiO ₂)
	Patient tolerability		

NIPPV: Noninvasive positive pressure ventilation, HFNC: High-flow nasal cannula, PEEP: Positive end expiratory pressure, WOB: Work of breathing

document; however, a dedicated Joint ACAIM-WACEM COVID-19 Clinical Management Taskforce guideline is forthcoming with recommendations specific to the

implementation of home-based oxygenation strategy in patients with isolated hypoxia and clinically mild disease.

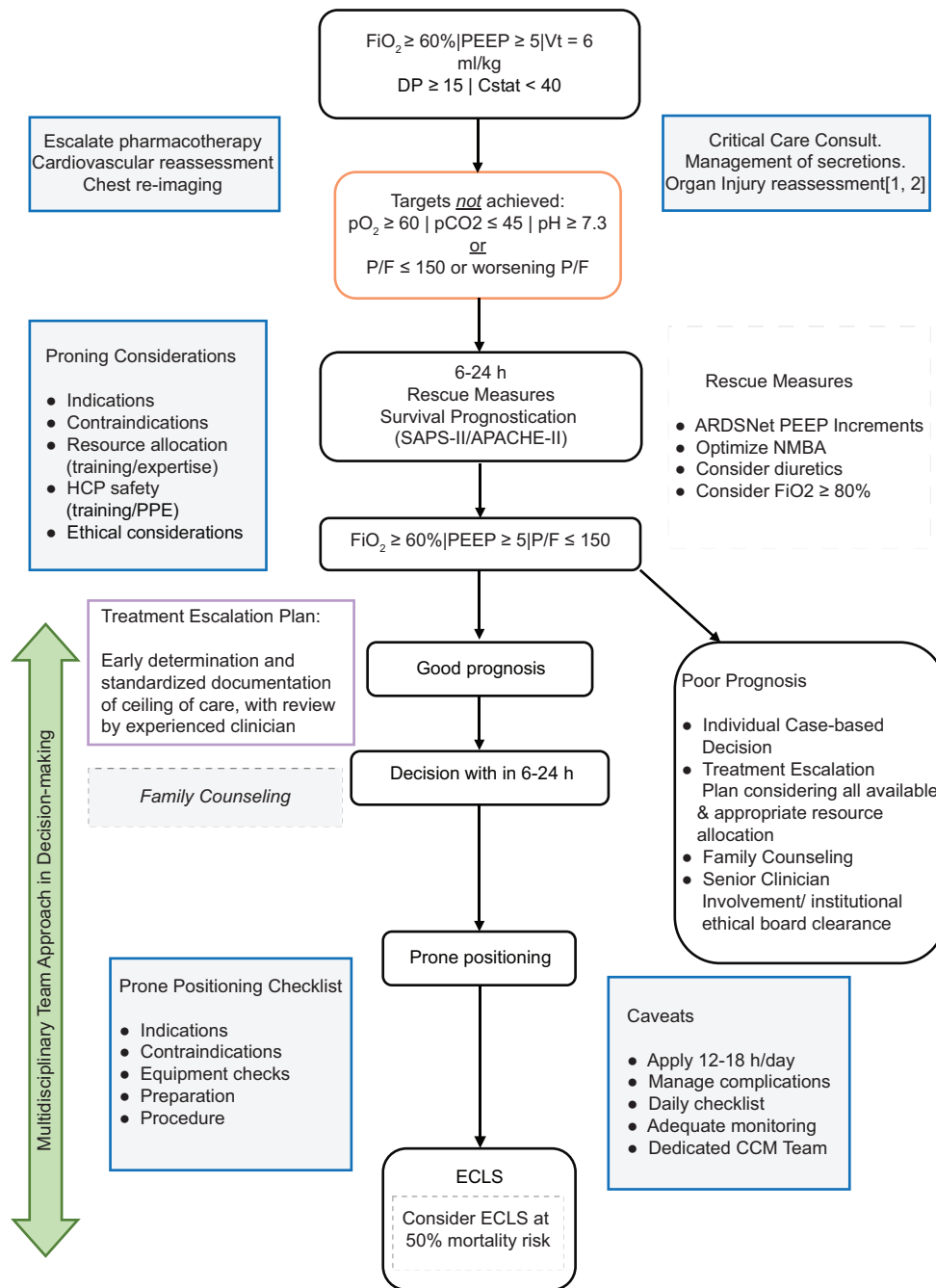


Figure 3: Management algorithm for patients with severe coronavirus disease 2019 respiratory failure. NMBA: Neuromuscular blocking agents, ECLS: Extracorporeal life support, CCM: Critical care medicine, FiO_2 : Fraction of inspired oxygen, PEEP: Positive end expiratory pressure, Vt: Tidal volume, DP: Driving pressure, Cstat: Static compliance, HCP: Health-care provider, PPE: Personal protective equipment, P/F: PaO_2/FiO_2 , SAPS-II: Simplified Acute Physiology score-II, APACHE-II: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation

Table 7: Summary of important escalation points that will provide a clinically applicable framework for objective therapeutic approach transitions

Modality	Ceiling of therapy	ROX at (Hs)	$SpO_2/FiO_2/RR$	Failure	Success
HFNC ^[19,20,48,49]	ROX index < 3.85	2		< 2.85	> 4.88
		6		< 3.47	> 4.88
		12		< 3.85	> 4.88
LFNC	S/F ratio				
NIPPV	P/F ratio				
Prone	SCRB-60				
	SBC				

ROX index: Ratio of pulse oximetry/fraction of inspired oxygen to respiratory rate.^[20] HFNC: High-flow nasal cannula, LFNC: Low-flow nasal cannula, NIPPV: Noninvasive positive pressure ventilation, S/F ratio: SpO_2/FiO_2 , P/F ratio: PaO_2/FiO_2 , SBC: Single breath count

Table 8: Summary of mechanical ventilation and proning strategies utilized in coronavirus disease-19

Ventilator strategy ^[13,15,50,52,54]		Proning strategy ^[50,51,53]	
Measure driving pressure			
Driving pressure	< 15 cmH ₂ O	> 15 cmH ₂ O	Indications P/F < 50 Driving pressure > 15 cmH ₂ O Compliance < 40 ml/cmH ₂ O
Tidal volume	8 ml/kg	6 ml/kg	Avoid if Limited resources (PPE) Proning expertise not available
If inadequate response, consider rescue measures: NMBA, diuretic, FiO₂ ≥ 80%		Prerequisites Escalate PEEP Optimize NMBA	
Compliance	> 40 ml/cmH ₂ O	< 40 ml/cmH ₂ O	Settings Tidal volume 6 ml/kg FiO ₂ ≥ 60%, PEEP ≥ 5
Actions	Continue same ventilatory strategy. Proning benefit unclear	Low tidal volume High PEEP Prone positioning	Timing Within 6 h for patients with good prognosis Within 24 h for patients with poor prognosis
Phenotype	Type L	Type H	

PPE: Personal protective equipment, NMBA: Neuromuscular blocking agents, PEEP: Positive end expiratory pressure, P/F: PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio

Table 9: Important considerations and limitations related to proning therapy

Contraindications to prone positioning ^[21-23,53-55]		Ceiling of therapy for (awake) prone positioning (repeated assessments every 30 min-2 h)
Absolute	Relative	
Unstable spine	Facial injuries	Inability to tolerate procedure Increased work of breathing (SBC, accessory muscle use) Tachypnea Hemodynamic instability Deterioration in SCRB-60 or SBC
Raised ICP	Morbid obesity	
Thoracic or abdominal injuries	Pregnancy	

SBC: Single breath count [Table 5], SCRB-60: Clinical risk stratification score [Table 4]

Financial support and sponsorship

Nil.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- Dondorp AM, Hayat M, Aryal D, Beane A, Schultz MJ. Respiratory support in novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) patients, with a focus on resource-limited settings. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* 2020;tpmd200283.
- Stawicki SP, Jeanmonod R, Miller AC, Paladino L, Gaieski DF, Yaffee AQ, et al. The 2019–2020 Novel Coronavirus (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2) Pandemic: A Joint American College of Academic International Medicine-World Academic Council of Emergency Medicine Multidisciplinary COVID-19 Working Group Consensus Paper. *J Global Infect Dis* 2020;(2):47-93.
- Gattinoni L, Coppola S, Cressoni M, Busana M, Rossi S, Chiumello D, et al. Covid-19 does not lead to a “typical” acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Am J Resp Critical Care Med* 2020;201:1299-300. PMC7233352.
- Sun Q, Qiu H, Huang M, Yang Y. Lower mortality of COVID-19 by early recognition and intervention: Experience from Jiangsu Province. *Ann Intensive Care* 2020;10:33.
- Brower RG, Lanken PN, MacIntyre N, Matthay MA, Morris A, Ancukiewicz M, et al., National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute ARDS Clinical Trials Network. Higher versus lower positive end-expiratory pressures in patients with the acute respiratory distress syndrome. *New England J Med* 2004;351:327-36.
- Chorin E, Padeigimas A, Havakuk O, Birati EY, Shacham Y, Milman A, et al. Assessment of Respiratory Distress by the Roth Score. *Clin Cardiol* 2016;39:636-9.
- Devabhakthuni S, Armahizer MJ, Dasta JF, Kane-Gill SL. Analgosedation: A paradigm shift in intensive care unit sedation practice. *Ann Pharmacother* 2012;46:530-40.

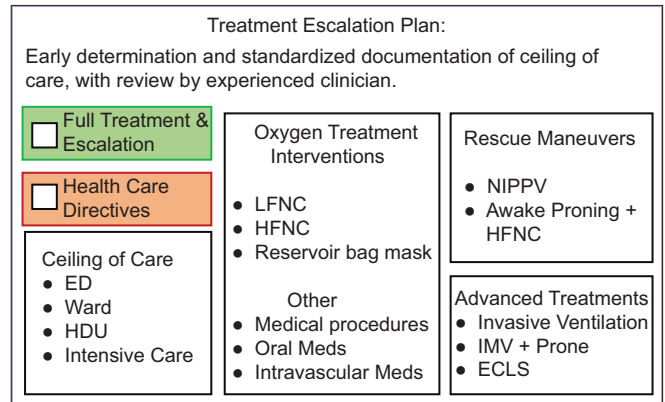


Figure 4: Treatment escalation plan checklist. ED: Emergency department, HDU: High-dependency unit, CCM: Critical care medicine, IMV: Invasive mechanical ventilation, ECLS: Extracorporeal life support, LFNC: Low-flow nasal cannula, HFNC: High-flow nasal cannula, NIPPV: Noninvasive positive pressure ventilation

- Dwyer R, Hedlund J, Henriques-Normark B, Kalin M. Improvement of CRB-65 as a prognostic tool in adult patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *BMJ Open Respir Res* 2014;1:e000038.
- Firstenberg MS. Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation: Advances in Therapy. London, England: IntechOpen; 2016.
- Festic E, Bansal V, Kor DJ, Gajic O, US Critical Illness and Injury Trials Group: Lung Injury Prevention Study Investigators (USCIITG-LIPS). SpO₂/FiO₂ ratio on hospital admission is an indicator of early acute respiratory distress syndrome development among patients at risk. *J Intensive Care Med* 2015;30:209-16.
- Gattinoni L, Chiumello D, Caironi P, Busana M, Romitti F, Brazzi L, et al. COVID-19 pneumonia: Different respiratory treatments for different phenotypes? *Intensive Care Med* 2020:1.
- Kądziółka I, Świstek R, Borowska K, Tyszecki P, Serednicki W. Validation of APACHE II and SAPS II scales at the intensive care unit along with assessment of SOFA scale at the admission as an isolated risk of death predictor. *Anaesthesiol Intensive Ther* 2019;51:107-11.
- Kolditz M, Ewig S, Schütte H, Suttrop N, Welte T, Rohde G, et al. Assessment of oxygenation and comorbidities improves outcome prediction in patients with community-acquired pneumonia with a low CRB-65 score. *J Int Med* 2015;278:193-202.
- Koulouras V, Papathanakos G, Papathanasiou A, Nakos G. Efficacy of prone position in acute respiratory distress syndrome patients: A pathophysiology-based review. *World J Crit Care Med* 2016;5:121-36.
- Marini JJ, Gattinoni L. Management of COVID-19 respiratory distress. *JAMA* 2020. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32329799>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
- Marini JJ, Hotchkiss JR, Broccard AF. Bench-to-bedside review: Microvascular and airspace linkage in ventilator-induced lung injury. *Critical Care* 2003;7:435.
- Messerole E, Peine P, Wittkopp S, Marini JJ, Albert RK. The pragmatics

- of prone positioning. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2002;165:1359-63.
18. Peterson CM, Thomas DM, Blackburn GL, Heymsfield SB. Universal equation for estimating ideal body weight and body weight at any BMI. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2016;103:1197-203.
 19. Roca O, Caralt B, Messika J, Samper M, Sztrymf B, Hernández G, *et al.* An index combining respiratory rate and oxygenation to predict outcome of nasal high-flow therapy. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2019;199:1368-76.
 20. Roca O, Messika J, Caralt B, García-de-Acilu M, Sztrymf B, Ricard JD, *et al.* Predicting success of high-flow nasal cannula in pneumonia patients with hypoxemic respiratory failure: The utility of the ROX index. *J Crit Care* 2016;35:200-5.
 21. Aoyama H, Yamada Y, Fan E. The future of driving pressure: a primary goal for mechanical ventilation? *J Intensive Care* 2018;6:64.
 22. Mauri T, Spinelli E, Scotti E, Colussi G, Basile MC, Crotti S, *et al.* Potential for lung recruitment and ventilation-perfusion mismatch in patients with the acute respiratory distress syndrome from coronavirus disease 2019. *Crit Care Med* 2020. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32317591/>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 23. Oliveira VM, Weschenfelder ME, Deponti G, Condessa R, Loss SH, Bairros PM, *et al.* Good practices for prone positioning at the bedside: Construction of a care protocol. *Rev Assoc Med Bras (1992)* 2016;62:287-93.
 24. Verity R, Okell LC, Dorigatti I, Winskill P, Whittaker C, Imai N, *et al.* Estimates of the severity of coronavirus disease 2019: A model-based analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2020. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32240634>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 25. Tolentino JC, Stoltzfus JC, Harris R, Foltz D, Deringer P, Sakran JV, *et al.* Comorbidity-polypharmacy score predicts readmissions and in-hospital mortality: A six-hospital health network experience. *J Basic Clin Pharmacy* 2017;8:98-103.
 26. Stawicki SP, Kalra S, Jones C, Justiniano CF, Papadimos TJ, Galwankar SC, *et al.* Comorbidity polypharmacy score and its clinical utility: A pragmatic practitioner's perspective. *J Emerg Trauma Shock* 2015;8:224.
 27. Galwankar SC, Paladino L, Gaiheski DF, Nanayakkara KDPWB, Di Somma S, Grover J, *et al.* Management algorithm for subclinical hypoxemia in COVID-19 patients: Intercepting the 'silent killer'. *J Emerg Trauma Shock* 2020;13:8-11.
 28. Uyeki TM, Bundesmann M, Alhazzani W. Clinical management of critically ill adults with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). 2020. Available from: https://stacks.cdc.gov/view/cdc/86712/cdc_86712_DS1.pdf. [Last accessed on 2020 May 21].
 29. Levitan R. The Infection that's Silently Killing Coronavirus Patients; 20 April, 2020. Available from: <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/04/20/opinion/coronavirus-testing-pneumonia.html>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 21].
 30. Liu Y, Yan LM, Wan L, Xiang TX, Le A, Liu JM, *et al.* Viral dynamics in mild and severe cases of COVID-19. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2020; Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32199493>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 31. Cascella M, Rajnik M, Cuomo A, Dulebohn SC, Di Napoli R. Features, evaluation and treatment coronavirus (COVID-19) StatPearls 2020. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32150360/>. PMID: 32150360. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 32. Guo L, Wei D, Zhang X, Wu Y, Li Q, Zhou M, *et al.* Clinical features predicting mortality risk in patients with viral pneumonia: The MuLBSTA Score. *Front Microbiol* 2019;10:2752.
 33. Duca A, Piva S, Foca E, Latronico N, Rizzi M. Brescia-COVID Respiratory Severity Scale (BCRSS)/Algorithm; 8 April, 2020. Available from: <https://www.mdcalc.com/brescia-covid-respiratory-severity-scale-bcrss-algorithm>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 21].
 34. Yang AP, Liu JP, Tao WQ, Li HM. A the diagnostic and predictive role of NLR, d-NLR and PLR in COVID-19 patients. *Int Immunopharmacol* 2020;84:106504.
 35. Lippi G, Lavie CJ, Sanchis-Gomar F. Cardiac troponin I in patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): Evidence from a meta-analysis. *Prog Cardiovasc Dis* 2020. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32169400>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 36. Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, Fan G, Liu Y, Liu Z, *et al.* Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: A retrospective cohort study. *Lancet* 2020;395:1054-62.
 37. Giannis D, Ziogas IA, Gianni P. Coagulation disorders in coronavirus infected patients: COVID-19, SARS-CoV-1, MERS-CoV and lessons from the past. *J Clin Virol* 2020;127:104362.
 38. Bikdeli B, Madhavan MV, Jimenez D, Chuich T, Dreyfus I, Driggin E, *et al.* COVID-19 and Thrombotic or Thromboembolic Disease: Implications for Prevention, Antithrombotic Therapy, and Follow-up. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2020. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32311448/>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 21].
 39. Rodrigues JCL, Hare SS, Edey A, Devaraj A, Jacob J, Johnstone A, *et al.* An update on COVID-19 for the radiologist-A British Society of Thoracic Imaging Statement. *Clin Radiol* 2020;75:323-5.
 40. Wong HYF, Lam HYS, Fong AH, Leung ST, Chin TW, Lo CSY, *et al.* Frequency and Distribution of Chest Radiographic Findings in COVID-19 Positive Patients. *Radiology* 2019:201160.
 41. Ai T, Yang Z, Hou H, Zhan C, Chen C, Lv W, *et al.* Correlation of chest CT and RT-PCR Testing in Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) in China: A Report of 1014 Cases. *Radiology* 2020:200642.
 42. Tang N, Bai H, Chen X, Gong J, Li D, Sun Z. Anticoagulant treatment is associated with decreased mortality in severe coronavirus disease 2019 patients with coagulopathy. *J Thromb Haemostasis* 2020;18:1094-9.
 43. Shindo Y, Sato S, Maruyama E, Ohashi T, Ogawa M, Imaizumi K, *et al.* Comparison of severity scoring systems A-DROP and CURB-65 for community-acquired pneumonia. *Respirology* 2008;13:731-5.
 44. Parsonage M, Nathwani D, Davey P, Barlow G. Evaluation of the performance of CURB-65 with increasing age. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2009;15:858-64.
 45. Mulrennan S, Tempone SS, Ling IT, Williams SH, Gan GC, Murray RJ, *et al.* Pandemic influenza (H1N1) 2009 pneumonia: CURB-65 score for predicting severity and nasopharyngeal sampling for diagnosis are unreliable. *PLoS One* 2010;5:e12849.
 46. Kalita J, Kumar M, Misra UK. Serial single breath count is a reliable tool for monitoring respiratory functions in Guillain-Barré Syndrome. *J Clin Neurosci* 2020;72:50-6.
 47. Kumari A, Malik S, Narkeesh K, Samuel AJ. Single breath count: A simple pulmonary function test using a mobile app. *Indian J Thoracic Cardiovascular Surg* 2017;33:369-370.
 48. Greenhalgh T, Kotze K, van Der Westhuizen HM. Are There any Evidence-Based Ways of Assessing Dyspnoea (breathlessness) by Telephone or Video; 6 May, 2020. Available from: <https://www.cebm.net/covid-19/are-there-any-evidence-based-ways-of-assessing-dyspnoea-breathlessness-by-telephone-or-video/>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 21].
 49. Sun R, Liu H, Wang X. Mediastinal emphysema, giant bulla, and pneumothorax developed during the course of COVID-19 pneumonia. *Korean J Radiol* 2020;21:541.]
 50. Kądziołka I, Świstek R, Borowska K, Tyszecki P, Serednicki W. Validation of APACHE II and SAPS II scales at the intensive care unit along with assessment of SOFA scale at the admission as an isolated risk of death predictor. *Anaesthesiol Intensive Ther* 2019;51:107-11.
 51. Gattinoni L, Chiumello D, Caironi P, Busana M, Romitti F, Brazzi L, *et al.* COVID-19 pneumonia: Different respiratory treatment for different phenotypes? *Intensive Care Med* 2020. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/32291463/>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 24].
 52. Marini JJ, Gattinoni L. Management of COVID-19 Respiratory Distress. *JAMA Insights* 2020;2020:doi:10.1001/jama.2020.6825.
 53. Gattinoni L, Taccone P, Carlesso E, Marini JJ. Prone position in acute respiratory distress syndrome. Rationale, indications, and limits. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2013;188:1286-93.
 54. Marini JJ, Hotchkiss JR, Broccard AF. Bench-to-bedside review: Microvascular and airspace linkage in ventilator-induced lung injury. *Crit Care* 2003;7:435-44.
 55. Amato MB, Meade MO, Slutsky AS, Brochard L, Costa EL, Schoenfeld DA, *et al.* Driving pressure and survival in the acute respiratory distress syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 2015;372:747-55.
 56. ARDSNet. Mechanical Ventilation Protocol Summary; 2008. Available from: <http://www.ardsnet.org>. [Last accessed on 2020 May 09].
 57. Brower RG, Lanken PN, MacIntyre N, Matthay MA, Morris A, Ancukiewicz M, *et al.* Higher versus lower positive end-expiratory pressures in patients with the acute respiratory distress syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 2004;351:327-36.
 58. Vincent JL, Abraham E, Kochanek P, Moore FA, Fink MP. *Textbook of Critical Care*. 7th ed. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Elsevier. 2016.