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5	2	Short-Term Lidocaine Infusion as a Non-Sedative Option to Maintain Ventilator
6	3	Synchrony during Opioid Taper in a COVID-19 Patient
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34	27	Funding: Financial support was provided by the Department of Anesthesiology and Perioperative
35	28	Medicine, Mayo Clinic
36	29	
37 38	30	Abbreviated Title: Lidocaine analgesia in opioid tolerant patient
39	31	
40	32	Word Count
41	33	Introduction: 261
42	34	Case Description: 726
43	35	Discussion: 469
44	36	Overall Word Count for Body of Text: 1456
45	37	
46	38	Author Contributions
47	39	
48 49	40	Oludare Olatoye, MD: This author helped with writing and editing of case report
49 50	41	Ross Barman, DO: This author helped with writing and editing of case report
51	42	Kathryn Clark MB BCh BAO: This author helped with writing and editing of case report
52	43	is and only in the ben bits. This author herped with writing and earting of ease report
53	-+5	
54	44	Conflicts of Interest: There are no conflicts of interest to report.
55	44	commens of interest. There are no comments of interest to report.
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59 60		© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the American Academy of Pain Medicine. All rights

1 Introduction

During the final months of 2019, a novel pathogen called Severe Acute Respiratory
Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) emerged with an associated disease known as
Coronavirus disease 2019 (Covid-19). Patients infected with Covid-19 manifested varying levels
of severity, and patients afflicted with severe disease often required admission to the Intensive
Care Unit (ICU) with prolonged sedation to facilitate mechanical ventilation.

Patients admitted to the ICU are especially prone to painful stimuli from prolonged immobilization, invasive catheters, procedures, and inflammation from the ongoing critical illness [1, 2]. Intubated and sedated patients may be unable to communicate their discomfort, and a failure to adequately treat their pain can lead to future complications such as cardiomyopathy, anxiety, or post-traumatic stress disorder [1]. Thus, ICU consensus guidelines endorse the analgosedation strategy, in which opioid analgesics are the primary method for maintenance of both analgesia and sedation [3, 4]. Intubated patients undergo spontaneous breathing trials (SBT) to predict their readiness for eventual extubation. During the SBT, ventilator-support is minimized and medications that inhibit the respiratory drive, such as opioids, are briefly withheld. SBT assessment can assist in determining if a patient is ready for ventilator liberation and can dictate when a patient is extubated.

In the following case, we describe a patient with Covid-19 induced respiratory failure who required prolonged intubation and ventilatory support. The extended duration of opioidbased analgosedation led to the development of an opioid tolerance and associated difficulty weaning off the patient's opioid regimen. We describe the use of short-term lidocaine infusion to maintain adequate analgesia and ventilator synchrony during high dose opioid taper.

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1 Case Description

In June of 2020, a 61 year old, opioid-naïve female with no significant past medical history presented to her local Emergency Department in acute hypoxic respiratory distress. She was initially placed on BiPAP (100% FiO2) but was subsequently intubated due to persistent hypoxia. Chest x-ray obtained in the ED revealed diffuse lung opacities suspicious for COVID-19 Pneumonia. She was transferred to a tertiary care ICU for advanced care measures based on her presumed diagnosis, which was later confirmed to be Covid-19. In the coming days, she would endure a prolonged hospitalization aggravated by complications including a type 2 non-ST elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI), renal failure necessitating continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT), and the development of opioid tolerance which eventually led to an iatrogenic opioid withdrawal syndrome.

When the patient was first admitted to the ICU, she was started on a continuous fentanyl infusion for both sedation and analgesia. Her sources of pain included inflammation from critical illness itself, endotracheal intubation, placement of multiple invasive catheters such as arterial and central access lines, urinary catheter placement, three bronchoscopies, and other routine procedures in the ICU. Due to concern for excess fluid intake, the patient was switched from fentanyl to a more concentrated hydromorphone infusion on admission day 5. Early in her hospital course she tolerated pausing opioid infusions to attempt SBTs. However, trials to assess her readiness for ventilator liberation were unsuccessful and so a planned tracheostomy was placed on day 31.

As her hospitalization progressed, she required higher opioid doses to remain sedated.
On hospitalization day 41 another sedation holiday and SBT was attempted. However, cessation
of the hydromorphone infusion resulted in the patient experiencing diarrhea, tachycardia,

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hypertension, and worsened ventilator dyssynchrony. These symptoms only resolved after
resuming the opioid infusion. Based on these findings, it was presumed the patient was
exhibiting signs of opioid withdrawal and so a gradual opioid taper was initiated. A
pharmacological cocktail consisting of alpha-2 agonists, antidiarrheals, and a ketamine infusion
(up to 1.5mg/kg/hr) was used in an attempt to manage the physiologic aberrations observed
during opioid weaning, yet the patient continued to grimace and show signs of agitation with
breakthrough hypertension, tachycardia, and ventilator dyssynchrony. The ICU team felt that the
patient's agitation and physiologic changes were nonspecific for either opioid withdrawal or
inadequate analgesia, and likely represented a contribution from both etiologies. Thus, on
admission day 45, the Inpatient Pain Medicine Service were consulted for further pain
management recommendations.

At the time of this consult, the patient was on approximately 1160 OME with a ketamine infusion at 1.5 mg/kg/hr (Figure 1). The pain medicine team considered options such as methadone, a remifentanil infusion, or a lidocaine infusion as a method to control the patient's pain while tapering hydromorphone. Given that the opioid receptors were likely saturated, and that the patient was already receiving an NMDA-antagonist, an alternative mechanism for non-sedative analgesia bypassing both pathways was deemed most appropriate. Hence, the decision was made to initiate a lidocaine infusion. The lidocaine infusion was used for a total of 5 days, with a rate of 1 mg/kg/hr for the first 4 days and 0.5mg/kg/hr for the final day. To avoid local anesthetic systemic toxicity, serum lidocaine levels and ECGs were evaluated. Three serum lidocaine levels were checked, with a Day 1 level of 2.4 mcg/ml, Day 3 level of 1.8 mcg/ml, and Day 4 level of 2.1 mcg/ml which were all within therapeutic range. Routine daily ECGs showed no concerning deviations from baseline during the infusion period. After 5 days (admission days

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1	45-49) of continuous lidocaine infusion while drastically tapering opioids, the patient's
2	hydromorphone infusion was discontinued and she was only maintained on intermittent doses of
3	enteral hydromorphone, without signs of opioid withdrawal. Her daily OME had decreased by
4	roughly 90% from 1160 to 120 OME mg, and so the lidocaine was discontinued after a 5 day
5	infusion. Additionally, given the success of the lidocaine infusion in managing the patient's pain
6	during opioid reduction, the ketamine infusion had been discontinued on day 47. After her
7	opioid dose had been significantly reduced, she successfully tolerated daily spontaneous
8	breathing trials without further evidence of ventilator desynchrony or signs concerning for opioid
9	withdrawal.
10	The notions transformed to an LTAC on begin telday 50 and often further convelopped as $\frac{1}{2}$
10	The patient transferred to an LTAC on hospital day 59 and after further convalescence,
11	she was discharged home without opioid prescriptions and has since returned to her normal state
12	of health.
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16	Figure 1: Opioid use trend in a mechanically ventilated COVI9-19 patient requiring prolonged
10	sedation. X-axis denotes day in the ICU and Y-axis denotes daily opioid requirements in oral
18	morphine equivalents (OME mg). A contracted course is displayed on this graph to emphasize
19 20	the trend around the period of lidocaine infusion initiation (red circle). She had been on numerous sedative agents upon ICU admission including various forms of opioids at high doses.
21	A significant downtrend in OME was noted and maintained upon initiation of lidocaine infusion.
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1 Discussion

2	In the case described here, the patient is unable to communicate the subjective experience
3	of opioid withdrawal because she was intubated and mechanically ventilated. While the
4	literature suggests that the development of iatrogenic opioid withdrawal in ICU patients can be
5	anywhere from 16-30% [5-7], it can be difficult to discern a withdrawal syndrome from the
6	natural increase in sympathetic outflow that comes with decreased sedation. Despite the inability
7	to have our patient endorse the subjective symptoms of opioid withdrawal, she did still fulfill the
8	DSM-V criteria for opioid withdrawal by having agitation, diarrhea, and a fever shortly after
9	opioid dose reduction [5]. Our diagnosis of iatrogenic opioid withdrawal was further
10	strengthened by the temporal relationship between a reduction in opioids shortly followed by the
11	patient manifesting the aforementioned symptoms. Finally, it was telling that our ICU
12	colleagues, who routinely wean patients from opioid based sedation, strongly felt that this was a
13	true opioid withdrawal presentation.
14	Our pain medicine service agreed with the ICU team that the patient was experiencing
15	opioid withdrawal; however, we were also concerned about the potential for opioid-induced

al; nowever, w p γP Υ hyperalgesia. Patients who receive prolonged opioid infusions can develop a paradoxical increased perception of pain to a stimulus termed opioid-induced hyperalgesia [8]. Our patient was especially at risk for opioid-induced hyperalgesia due to her prolonged opioid infusion, along with other risk factors including an active infection, heightened stress-response, and chronic inflammation [2, 8]. Additionally, opioid withdrawal hyperalgesia could have also contributed to inadequate analgesia during the initial phase of the opioid taper.

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When the pain medicine team was consulted, the patient was being weaned from hydromorphone while receiving dexmedetomidine to treat the physiologic symptoms of opioid withdrawal and ketamine as a replacement analgesic. Despite high dose (1.5 mg/kg/hr) ketamine infusion, our patient remained unable to tolerate opioid weaning and the ICU team expressed concerns about inadequate analgesia. Thus, we recommended initiating lidocaine infusion as an alternate analgesic modality. Methadone, which has been used successfully as an analgesic bridge during high dose opioid taper was considered, but was avoided due to the patient's tenuous cardiac status and methdone's sedative properties.

The decision to utilize a lidocaine infusion to achieve analgesia while weaning opioids was based on previous evidence where it has been shown to be effective as an adjunctive analgesic in ICU patients [9]. The duration and dose of lidocaine used in this case was based on derivative evidence for acute post-operative and refractory cancer-related pain [10]. Further, evidence suggests that patients with chronic opioid use have superior pain control with lidocaine instead of ketamine [10]. Serum lidocaine levels were monitored to maintain therapeutic levels and minimize the risk of local anesthetic systemic toxicity. Finally, while this case demonstrated lidocaine's efficacy as a substitute analgesic during opioid taper; lidocaine is not without risk and further research is warranted.

3 4	1	Questions
5		
6 7	2	1. A potential complication of intravenous lidocaine use is local anesthetic systemic toxicity
8 9	3	(LAST), it can be treated with which of the following medications?
10 11 12	4	a. Amiodarone
13 14	5	b. Intralipid
15 16	6	c. Methylene blue
17 18 19	7	d. Dantrolene
20 21	8	e. Calcium gluconate
22		
23	9	Answer: B Intralipid, specifically 20% Intralipid, is used as the treatment for LAST. A 1.5
24 25	10	mL/kg bolus is given initially, which is followed by an infusion at 0.25 ml/kg/min for 30-60
26	11	minutes.
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28	12	
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31	13	2. Signs and symptoms of opioid withdrawal may be difficult to observe in a patient who is
32		
33	14	intubated and mechanically ventilated, which of the following is not an expected
34		
35	15	manifestation of opioid withdrawal?
36 37		
38	16	a. Mydriasis
39		
40	17	b. Diarrhea
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42	18	c. Hypertension
43	10	
44	19	d. Tachycardia
45	15	d. Taenyeardia
46 47	20	e. Miosis
47 48	20	C. 10110515
49		
50	21	Answer: E Miosis. Miosis, or pupillary constriction, is a well-established sign of opioid overdose
51	22	or intoxication. The other listed signs including mydriasis (pupillary dilation), hypertension,
52	23	tachycardia and diarrhea are typically associated with acute opioid withdrawal.
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3 4	1	Disclosures		
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7	2	None		
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