REVIEW



Applications of capnography in airway management outside the operating room

Chia-Hsiang Huang^{1,*}, Ko-Hsin Wei²

¹Department of Anesthesiology, Taitung MacKay Memorial Hospital, Taitung, Taiwan

²Department of Anesthesiology, Taitung Hospital of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, Taitung, Taiwan

*Correspondence kashochan.2647@mmh.org.tw (Chia-Hsiang Huang)

Abstract

The capnograph is vital for patient monitoring in the operating room. Its clinical applications for airway management outside the operating room are being increasingly recognized due to its role in the Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care Guidelines. Capnography can be used for the detection of respiratory depression during procedural sedation, verification after emergency endotracheal tube intubation, assessment of the airway and circulation during cardiopulmonary resuscitation, and continuous monitoring during patient transportation and in intensive care settings. This can be especially beneficial for pediatric patients, those who are critically ill, and patients with a difficult airway.

Keywords

Capnography; Capnometer; Airway management; Patient transport; Difficult airway

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO_2) in exhaled breath is an important physiologic indicator of ventilation, pulmonary circulation, and aerobic metabolism [1]. Over the years, numerous publications examining CO2 monitoring for clinical purposes have been produced. A capnograph is a noninvasive monitor that measures the partial pressure of CO₂ and reports its numeric value. It produces a capnogram that displays the continuous graphic waveform of CO₂ partial pressure over time. A normal capnogram (Fig. 1) depicts a square-wave pattern consisting of four phases, revealing the CO₂ concentration over the period of respiration [2]. It starts at the inspiratory phase and continues until the expiratory phase, with the waveform having a rounded rectangular shape. The peak measurement at the end of phase III is the $EtCO_2$ reading. The target $EtCO_2$ value is 35–45 mmHg, with a typical rate of ventilation for a spontaneouslybreathing adult of 12-20 breaths per minute [3]. Trends in EtCO₂ value, rate, and waveform pattern should be stable for healthy adults.

The $EtCO_2$ and the recognizable waveform can provide crucial information on underlying physiologic conditions. However, the value of capnography is underacknowledged, and it is rarely used outside the operating room. From the perspective of anesthesiology, the purpose of this review article is to reaffirm the benefits of capnography in regards to airway management and the enhancement of patient care.

2. Clinical applications of capnography in airway management

Capnography has been a routine method of monitoring anesthesia in the operating room for more than 30 years [1, 4]. The auscultation of breath sounds and normal capnography waveforms from the airway help to quickly confirm endotracheal tube (ETT) placement in patients requiring intubation for general anesthesia. Capnography is becoming the international standard for safe anesthesia practice [5–7]. A portable capnograph or capnometer can also be beneficial for airway management outside the operating room, especially in an emergency context [8, 9]. Common applications for capnography in airway management are as follows.

2.1 Detection of respiratory depression during procedural sedation

Many sedatives or analgesics affect respiratory depression by reducing the respiratory rate or tidal volume. A multicenter observational study reported that adverse events, mostly hypoxia and apnea, occurred in 11% of cases in which patients underwent procedural sedation [10]. Capnography is suggested for patients expected to receive moderate or deep procedural sedation [11, 12]. Capnographic assessment provides the ventilation waveform, respiratory rate, and $EtCO_2$, which are used to predict hyperventilation from inadequate analgesia as well as hypoventilation from oversedation (Table 1) [13]. Capnography helps health care providers titrate medication for patients, especially older adults, provides early warning signs of adverse respiratory events during procedures, and enhances patient care.

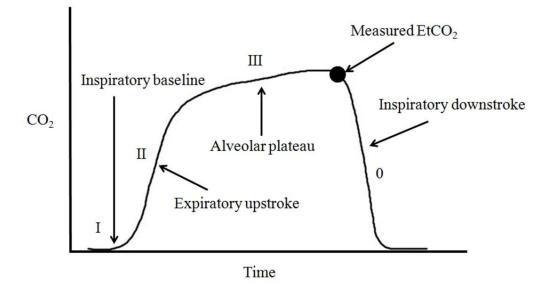


FIGURE 1. Normal capnography waveform. Phase I is the inspiratory baseline, with a low CO_2 level during inspiration. Phase II is the expiratory upstroke. Phase III is the alveolar plateau, reflecting the alveolar expiratory flow, which reaches its peak at the end of tidal expiration (EtCO₂). Phase 0 is the inspiratory downstroke.

2.2 Verification after emergent ETT intubation

A misplaced ETT in a location other than the trachea is a fatal condition. EtCO₂ monitoring is the gold standard method for confirmation of ETT placement in the trachea [14–17]. A multicenter study found the colorimetric EtCO₂ device to be highly accurate for confirming ETT position in non-cardiopulmonary arrest patients [18]. Furthermore, intubation guidelines in the intensive care unit instruct the use of capnography to verify tube placement [19]. After intubation, a flat capnographic trace indicates additional airway problems, such as that the breathing circuit is disconnected, the airway is kinked or blocked with secretions, or the patient has bitten and occluded the tube. Guidelines issued for managing airways in patients with emerging infectious diseases, such as coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), suggest capnography for every tracheal intubation [20].

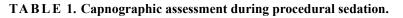
2.3 Assessing the airway and circulation during cardiopulmonary resuscitation

Initial airway management support during cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) usually involves the operation of a bag valve mask (BVM). A systematic review suggested that capnography can facilitate the advanced clinical practice of mask ventilation in CPR [21]. During CPR, the presence of CO₂ waveforms from the ETT verifies its location [22]. EtCO₂ reflects pulmonary blood flow and becomes a real-time indicator in evaluating the effectiveness of cardiac compressions [23]. High quality chest compressions are achieved when EtCO₂ is at 10–20 mmHg. Moreover, an abrupt increase in EtCO₂ (35– 45 mmHg) may indicate the return of spontaneous circulation (Table 2) [23, 24].

2.4 Continuous monitoring during transport of patients who are critically ill

Until recently, the capnograph was not a standard monitor for the intrahospital transport (IHT) of patients who are critically ill [25]. However, it provides at least two advantages during IHT. First, the unplanned extubation of an ETT may occur during IHT, and capnography helps in the early detection of ETT dislodgement. Continuous CO₂ monitoring is the most reliable method of detecting the dislodgement of an ETT or tracheostomy tube during anesthesia [1]. Changes in oximetry readings are often delayed due to oxygen supplementation; therefore, improving the speed of detecting misplaced intubation would be helpful for prehospital patient transport [26, 27]. A prospective clinical study revealed that a combination of pulse oximetry and capnometry enables the detection of potentially life-threatening problems in patients undergoing ventilation during IHT [28]. For pediatric patients who are critically ill, capnography is recommended for confirming the ETT position during transport [29].

Second, capnography can be a noninvasive estimation of cardiac output [30, 31]. A sudden decrease in $EtCO_2$ that retains a square waveform may suggest a sudden decrease in lung perfusion caused by either an obstruction to pulmonary blood flow, such as a thrombus, air, or fat, or a reduced cardiac output. The conditions of patients who are critically ill and require high-dose vasopressor therapy, patients experiencing hypothermia with low local temperature in their limbs, and the agitated state of a patient may affect pulse readings [32, 33]. Capnography provides additional information in such unstable hemodynamic conditions during IHT.



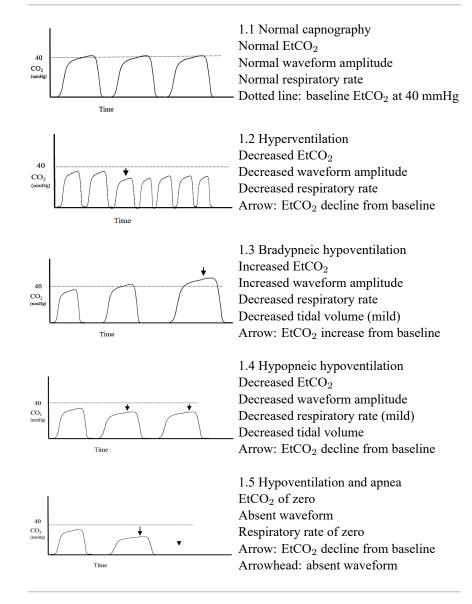
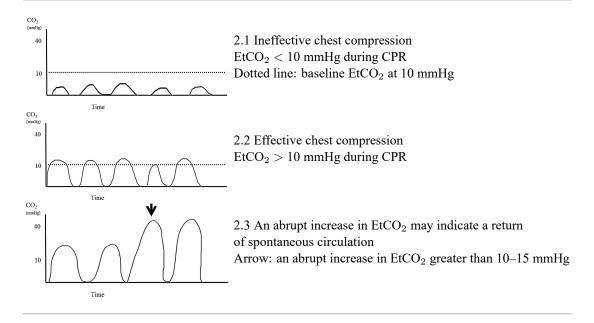
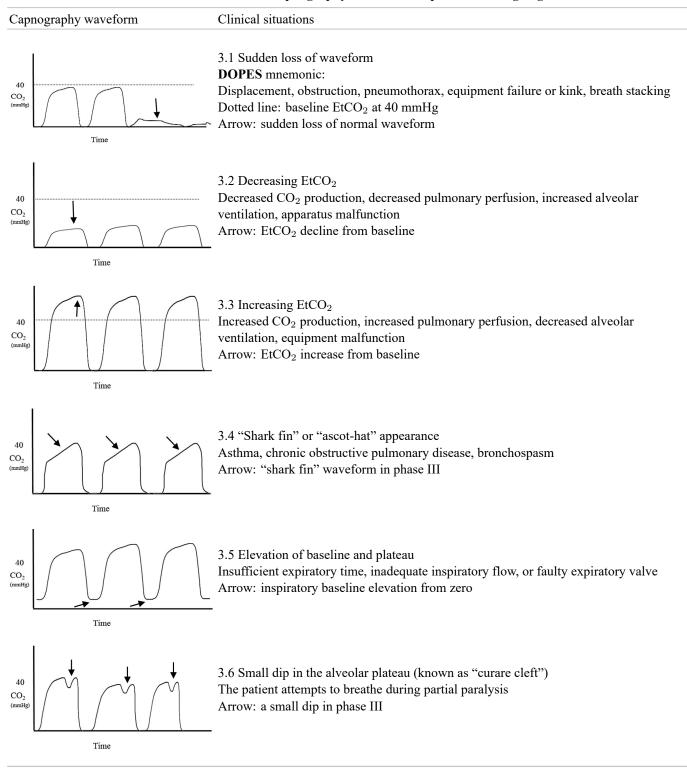


TABLE 2. Capnographic assessment during cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR).



Signa Vitae

TABLE 3. Common abnormal capnography waveforms of patients undergoing intubation.



2.5 Capnography in the intensive care unit

A prospective study by the Royal College of Anaesthetists and the Difficult Airway Society recommended continuous capnography monitoring in all patients with an artificial airway [30]. Failure of artificial airways has contributed to more than 70% of intensive care unit (ICU)-related deaths involving the airway.

2.6 Capnography and pediatric patients

As in adults, capnography offers benefits in the treatment of pediatric patients. Studies have reported high incidences of esophageal intubation in the pediatric emergency department and neonatal and pediatric ICU [34–36]. A review article revealed that capnography is a useful for the perioperative monitoring of a child's physiology and safety [37]. Continuous capnographic monitoring is also suggested in pediatric ICUs [38].

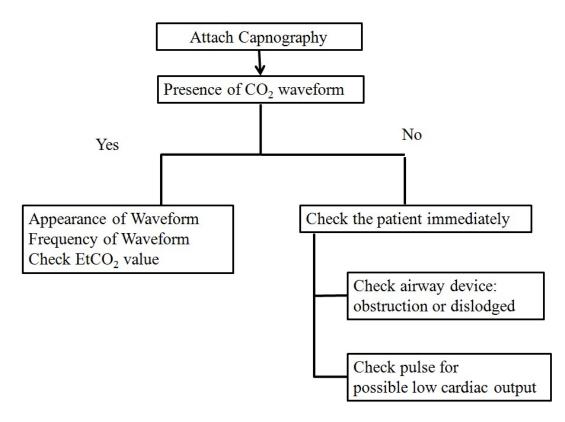


FIGURE 2. Algorithm for analyzing a capnography waveform.

3. Difficult airway and capnography

Difficult airway is a challenge for physicians; an observational study reported that 4% of patients who received advanced airway management in an emergency department experienced difficult intubation [39]. In the guidelines for difficult airway management, capnography can be used to confirm airway device ventilation, such as the placement of an ETT or a cricothyroidotomy, tracheostomy, or supraglottic airway device [40]. Studies have reported that capnography confirms ETT placement in 88%-100% of cases of difficult airway [41-43]. Capnography can also evaluate the effectiveness of mask ventilation [44, 45]. Thus, it may help first-line medical staff identify patients at high risk of difficult mask ventilation so that they can consult a specialist immediately. Capnography improves the safety of percutaneous tracheostomy by confirming the placement [46]. After the surgical airway is established, abnormal EtCO₂ values during transportation can indicate which circuit is disconnected or obstructed or if a tube is displaced [47, 48]. The early detection of airway dislodgment is vital, especially in patients with a difficult airway.

4. Discussion

Although much of the literature has recommended the clinical applications of capnography [22, 49–51], a scoping review revealed a link between capnography usage and a reduction in serious airway complications in the operating room, ICU, and emergency department and during resuscitation [52]. The 2020 American Heart Association Guidelines for CPR and Emergency Cardiovascular Care emphasize the use of capnography for intubated patients during CPR, and continuous wave-

form capnography, along with clinical assessment, remains the most reliable method of confirming and monitoring correct ETT placement [53]. Similar directives can be found in the Pediatric Advanced Life Support Guidelines. Exhaled CO₂ detectors should be assembled before intubation is attempted. At present, a miniature in-line waveform capnography device connected to a BVM could serve as an ideal, economical, portable EtCO₂ monitor. Such a device can benefit prehospital resuscitation, difficult airway management in emergency settings, and continuous monitoring during IHT. In addition to the incorporation of the CO₂ device into medical routines, education of first-line medical and nursing staff is crucial for ensuring the accurate interpretation of capnography values and waveforms. We suggest using an algorithm to analyze waveform capnography (Fig. 2). We summarize common abnormal capnography waveforms of patients undergoing intubation in Table 3 [2, 3, 54].

5. Conclusions

A capnograph or capnometer is a noninvasive airway monitor suitable for multiple clinical purposes outside the operating room. It provides a rapid and convenient method of confirming endotracheal tube placement immediately after intubation and tracheostomy. CO_2 monitoring during in-hospital transport for critically ill patients with artificial airways aids the early recognition of inadvertent tube dislodgement or hemodynamic change. It has been suggested for use as a routine monitor, especially for patients with difficult airways, as well as pediatric patients. It monitors airway and hemodynamic conditions in various steps of the health care process, such as airway management, resuscitation, transportation, procedural sedation, operation, and intensive care.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

CHH reviewed the articles, wrote and drafted the manuscript. KHW drafted and revised the manuscript.

ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

Not applicable.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We express our gratitude to all those who helped us during the writing of this manuscript.

FUNDING

This research received no external funding.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

- ^[1] Bhavani-Shankar K, Moseley H, Kumar AY, Delph Y. Capnometry and anaesthesia. Canadian Journal of Anaesthesia. 1992; 39: 617–632.
- [2] Long B. Interpreting waveform capnography: pearls and pitfalls. 2016. Available at: http://www.emdocs.net/interpreting-waveformcapnography-pearls-and-pitfalls (Accessed: 30 May 2016).
- [3] Gravenstein JS, Jaffe MB, Gravenstein N, Paulus DA. Capnography. 2nd ed. New York: Cambridge University Press. 2011; 461–465.
- ^[4] Smalhout B, Kalenda Z. An atlas of capnography. 2nd edn. Utrecht: Kerckebosch-Zeist. 1981.
- [5] Eichhorn JH, Cooper JB, Cullen DJ, Maier WR, Philip JH, Seeman RG. Standards for patient monitoring during anesthesia at Harvard Medical School. Journal of the American Medical Association. 1986; 256: 1017– 1020.
- [6] Jooste R, Roberts F, Mndolo S, Mabedi D, Chikumbanje S, Whitaker DK, et al. Global Capnography Project (GCAP): implementation of capnography in Malawi-an international anaesthesia quality improvement project. Anaesthesia. 2019; 74: 158–166.
- [7] Gelb AW, Morriss WW, Johnson W, Merry AF. World Health Organization-World Federation of Societies of Anaesthesiologists (WHO-WFSA) international standards for a safe practice of anesthesia. Canadian Journal of Anesthesia. 2018; 65: 698–708.
- [8] Long B, Koyfman A, Vivirito MA. Capnography in the emergency department: a review of uses, waveforms, and limitations. The Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2017; 53: 829–842.
- [9] Ward KR, Yealy DM. End-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring in emergency medicine, part 2: clinical applications. Academic Emergency Medicine. 1998; 5: 637–646.
- [10] Smits GJ, Kuypers MI, Mignot LA, Reijners EP, Oskam E, Van Doorn K, et al. Procedural sedation in the emergency department by Dutch emergency physicians: a prospective multicentre observational study of 1711 adults. Emergency Medicine Journal. 2017; 34: 237–242.
- [11] Krauss B, Hess DR. Capnography for procedural sedation and analgesia in the emergency department. Annals of Emergency Medicine. 2007; 50: 172–181.
- [12] Dobson G, Chong MA, Chow L, Flexman A, Hurdle H, Kurrek M, et al. Procedural sedation: a position paper of the Canadian Anesthesiologists' Society. Canadian Journal of Anaesthesia. 2018; 65: 1372–1384.

- [13] Veazie S, Vela K, Mackey M. Evidence brief: capnography for moderate sedation in non-anesthesia settings. Washington: Department of Veterans Affairs. 2020.
- [14] Vaghadia H, Jenkins LC, Ford RW. Comparison of end-tidal carbon dioxide, oxygen saturation and clinical signs for the detection of oesophageal intubation. Canadian Journal of Anaesthesia. 1989; 36: 560– 564.
- [15] Grmec S. Comparison of three different methods to confirm tracheal tube placement in emergency intubation. Intensive Care Medicine. 2002; 28: 701–704.
- [16] Silvestri S, Ralls GA, Krauss B, Thundiyil J, Rothrock SG, Senn A, *et al.* The effectiveness of out-of-hospital use of continuous end-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring on the rate of unrecognized misplaced intubation within a regional emergency medical services system. Annals of Emergency Medicine. 2005; 45: 497–503.
- ^[17] Pokorná M, Nečas E, Kratochvíl J, Skřipský R, Andrlík M, Franěk O. A sudden increase in partial pressure end-tidal carbon dioxide (P(ET)CO(2)) at the moment of return of spontaneous circulation. The Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2010; 38: 614–621.
- [18] Ornato JP, Shipley JB, Racht EM, Slovis CM, Wrenn KD, Pepe PE, et al. Multicenter study of a portable, hand-size, colorimetric end-tidal carbon dioxide detection device. Annals of Emergency Medicine. 1992; 21: 518– 523.
- [19] Jaber S, Jung B, Corne P, Eledjam JJ, Lefrant JY. Making intubation in ICU safer with intubation guidelines: a before-after multicenter study. Anesthesiology. 2007; 107: A942.
- [20] Cook TM, El-Boghdadly K, McGuire B, McNarry AF, Patel A, Higgs A. Consensus guidelines for managing the airway in patients with COVID-19: guidelines from the Difficult Airway Society, the Association of Anaesthetists the Intensive Care Society, the Faculty of Intensive Care Medicine and the Royal College of Anaesthetists. Anaesthesia. 2020; 75: 785–799.
- [21] Cereceda-Sánchez FJ, Molina-Mula J. Systematic review of capnography with mask ventilation during cardiopulmonary resuscitation maneuvers. Journal of Clinical Medicine. 2019; 8: 358.
- [22] Urman R, Kodali B. Capnography during cardiopulmonary resuscitation: current evidence and future directions. Journal of Emergencies, Trauma, and Shock. 2014; 7: 332.
- ^[23] Morisaki H, Takino Y, Kobayashi H, Ando Y, Ichikizaki K. End-tidal carbon dioxide concentration during cardiopulmonary resuscitation in patients with pre-hospital cardiac arrest. Masui. 1991; 40: 1048–1051.
- [24] Garnett AR, Ornato JP, Gonzalez ER, Johnson EB. End-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring during cardiopulmonary resuscitation. Journal of the American Medical Association. 1987; 257: 512–515.
- [25] Fanara B, Manzon C, Barbot O, Desmettre T, Capellier G. Recommendations for the intra-hospital transport of critically ill patients. Critical Care. 2010; 14: R87.
- [26] Silvestri S, Ralls GA, Krauss B, Thundiyil J, Rothrock SG, Senn A, et al. The effectiveness of out-of-hospital use of continuous end-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring on the rate of unrecognized misplaced intubation within a regional emergency medical services system. Annals of Emergency Medicine. 2005; 45: 497–503.
- [27] Langhan ML, Ching K, Northrup V, Alletag M, Kadia P, Santucci K, et al. A randomized controlled trial of capnography in the correction of simulated endotracheal tube dislodgement. Academic Emergency Medicine. 2011; 18: 590–596.
- ^[28] Rückoldt H, Marx G, Leuwer M, Panning B, Piepenbrock S. Pulse oximetry and capnography in intensive care transportation: combined use reduces transportation risks. Anasthesiologie, Intensivmedizin, Notfallmedizin, Schmerztherapie. 1998; 33: 32–36. (In German)
- [29] Bhende MS, Thompson AE, Orr RA. Utility of end-tidal carbon dioxide detector during stabilization and transport of critically ill children. Pediatrics. 1992; 6: 1042–1044.
- [30] Kerslake I, Kelly F. Uses of capnography in the critical care unit. British Journal of Anaesthesia Education. 2017; 17: 178–183.
- [31] Young A, Marik PE, Sibole S, Grooms D, Levitov A. Changes in endtidal carbon dioxide and volumetric carbon dioxide as predictors of volume responsiveness in hemodynamically unstable patients. Journal of Cardiothoracic and Vascular Anesthesia. 2013; 27: 681–684.

- [32] Schramm WM, Bartunek A, Gilly H. Effect of local limb temperature on pulse oximetry and the plethysmographic pulse wave. International Journal of Clinical Monitoring and Computing. 1997; 14: 17–22.
- [33] Nesseler N, Frénel J, Launey Y, Morcet J, Mallédant Y, Seguin P. Pulse oximetry and high-dose vasopressors: a comparison between forehead reflectance and finger transmission sensors. Intensive Care Medicine. 2012; 38: 1718–1722.
- [34] Roberts WA, Maniscalco WM, Cohen AR, Litman RS, Chibber A. The use of capnography for recognition of oesophageal intubation in the neonatal intensive care unit. Pediatric Pulmonology. 1995; 19: 262–268.
- [35] Bhende MS, Thompson AE. Evaluation of an end-tidal CO2 detector during paediatric cardiopulmonary resuscitation. Pediatrics. 1995; 95: 395–399.
- [36] Foy KE, Mew E, Cook TM, Bower J, Knight P, Dean S, et al. Paediatric intensive care and neonatal intensive care airway management in the United Kingdom: the PIC-NIC survey. Anaesthesia. 2018; 73: 1337– 1344.
- [37] Eipe N, Doherty DR. A review of pediatric capnography. Journal of Clinical Monitoring and Computing. 2010; 24: 261–268.
- [38] Riley CM. Continuous capnography in pediatric intensive care. Critical Care Nursing Clinics of North America. 2017; 29: 251–258.
- [39] Wong E, Ng Y. The difficult airway in the emergency department. International Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2008; 1: 107–111.
- [40] Frerk C, Mitchell VS, McNarry AF, Mendonca C, Bhagrath R, Patel A, et al. Difficult Airway Society 2015 guidelines for management of unanticipated difficult intubation in adults. British Journal of Anaesthesia. 2015; 115: 827–848.
- [41] Dohi S, Inomata S, Tanaka M, Ishizawa Y, Matsumiya N. End-tidal carbon dioxide monitoring during awake blind nasotracheal intubation. Journal of Clinical Anesthesia. 1990; 2: 415–419.
- [42] Spencer RF, Rathmell JP, Viscomi CM. A new method for difficult endotracheal intubation: the use of a jet stylet introducer and capnography. Anesthesia and Analgesia. 1995; 81: 1079–1083.
- [43] Williamson JA, Webb RK, Szekely S, Gillies ER, Dreosti AV. The australian incident monitoring study. Difficult intubation: an analysis of 2000 incident reports. Anaesthesia and Intensive Care. 1993; 21: 602– 607.
- [44] Miller RD. Miller's anesthesia. 8th edn. New York: Churchill Livingstone

Inc. 2015.

- [45] Lim KS, Nielsen JR. Objective description of mask ventilation. British Journal of Anaesthesia. 2016; 117: 828–829.
- [46] Wilkinson KA, Martin IC. Tracheostomy care: on the right trach? National Confidential Enquiry into Patient Outcome and Death. 2014.
- [47] Lai MF, Wu ZF, Lin CY, Huang YS. Absence of capnography from tracheostomy: an indicator of tracheostomy tube dislodgement. Journal of Medical Sciences. 2019; 39: 102–104.
- [48] Cummins RO, Hazinski MF. New guidelines on tracheal tube confirmation and prevention of dislodgement. Circulation. 2000; 102: 380–384.
- [49] Saunders R, Struys MMRF, Pollock RF, Mestek M, Lightdale JR. Patient safety during procedural sedation using capnography monitoring: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ Open. 2017; 7: e013402.
- [50] Parker W, Estrich CG, Abt E, Carrasco-Labra A, Waugh JB, Conway A, et al. Benefits and harms of capnography during procedures involving moderate sedation: a rapid review and meta-analysis. Journal of the American Dental Association. 2018; 149: 38–50.
- [51] Cook TM, Woodall N, Frerk C. A national survey of the impact of NAP4 on airway management practice in United Kingdom hospitals: closing the safety gap in anaesthesia, intensive care and the emergency department. British Journal of Anaesthesia. 2016; 117: 182–190.
- [52] Wollner E, Nourian MM, Booth W, Conover S, Law T, Lilaonitkul M, et al. Impact of capnography on patient safety in high- and low-income settings: a scoping review. British Journal of Anaesthesia. 2020; 125: 88–103.
- [53] Merchant RM, Topjian AA, Panchal AR, Cheng A, Aziz K, Berg KM, et al. Part 1: executive summary: 2020 American Heart Association guidelines for cardiopulmonary resuscitation and emergency cardiovascular care. Circulation. 2020; 142: S337–S357.
- [54] Nikolova-Todorova Z. Clinical applications of capnography. Signa Vitae. 2008; 3: 44–45.

How to cite this article: Chia-Hsiang Huang, Ko-Hsin Wei. Applications of capnography in airway management outside the operating room. Signa Vitae. 2021;17(4):18-24. doi:10.22514/sv.2021.061.