

Effectiveness of Face mask only oxygenation and apnoeic oxygenation in addition to face mask in sustaining PaO₂ during rapid sequence induction - A randomized control trial

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Abstract

Background and Aims: Apnoeic oxygenation, although useful during elective intubations, has not shown consistent beneficial results during emergency intubations in critically ill patients. We aimed to study the effectiveness of adding apnoeic oxygenation to our routine practice of using facemask alone, in emergency laparotomy patients needing rapid sequence induction (RSI), for sustaining partial pressure of oxygen (PaO₂).

Material and Methods: Seventy-two patients undergoing RSI for emergency laparotomy were randomly allocated to either receive pre-oxygenation with 5 L/min of oxygen (O₂) with a facemask (Group-FM) or apnoeic oxygenation with 10 L/min of O₂ through a nasal catheter in addition to pre-oxygenation (Group-NC). Apnoea (90 s) was allowed from the removal of the facemask before the resumption of ventilation. Arterial blood gas analysis was done at the baseline, following pre-oxygenation and after 90 s of apnoea to study the PaO₂ and partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO₂). The circuit O₂ concentrations (fraction of inspired [FiO₂] and end-tidal [EtO₂]) were also noted to ensure a steady state of O₂ uptake was reached.

Results: The circuit O₂ concentrations were 90 ± 4% in group FM and 93 ± 5% in Group-NC. The FiO₂-EtO₂ difference was 4% in both groups. During the 90 s apnoea following pre-oxygenation, there was a fall in the PaO₂ by 38% in Group-FM and 12% in Group-NC (*P* = 0.000). Increase in PaCO₂ was similar in both groups (Group-FM: 44 [range: 32–55] mmHg; Group-NC: 42 [range: 33–54] mmHg, *P* = 0.809).

Conclusion: Apnoeic insufflation of O₂ using a nasopharyngeal catheter along with facemask oxygenation is more effective in sustaining PaO₂ for 90 s during RSI than facemask-only oxygenation in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy.

Keywords: Anesthesia, apnea, general, insufflation, oxygen, rapid sequence induction and intubation

Introduction

Pre-oxygenation prolongs the safe apnoea time by optimizing the oxygen (O₂) stores.^[1] Nevertheless, during rapid sequence induction (RSI), there is a high risk of desaturation as mask ventilation is contraindicated following induction. The problem of desaturation is higher in patients posted for

emergency laparotomy, as the elevated splinted diaphragm decreases the functional residual capacity (FRC), limiting the effectiveness of pre-oxygenation, which is further compounded with an increased O₂ demand caused by the ongoing sepsis.^[2]

The time course of oxyhemoglobin desaturation during apnoea is five times more rapid in critically ill patients when compared to healthy adults (23 s vs. 502 s).^[3] Apnoeic oxygenation (AO)

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has been proved useful for prolonging the safe apnoea time in the American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) physical status 1 and 2 patients undergoing elective surgeries, morbidly obese patients, and pregnant patients, whereas consistent beneficial effects have not been reported during emergency intubations in critically ill patients.^[4-6] AO during RSI in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy has not yet been investigated and the results from the above studies cannot be extrapolated to this group of patients. We hypothesized that AO, as it continues to replenish the O₂ stores by passive diffusion, is likely to be beneficial in enduring the apnoea during RSI when compared to face mask alone. We aimed to study the effectiveness of AO using a nasal catheter during RSI in emergency laparotomy. Our primary objective was to assess the decrement in the partial pressure of oxygen (PaO₂) following 90 s of apnoea. The secondary objective was to assess the attained circuit O₂ concentration and determine whether a steady-state of O₂ uptake was reached.

Material and Methods

This prospective, randomized study (PG Dissertation/02/2019/61) was approved by the institutional human ethics committee and registered with the Clinical Trial Registry of India (CTRI/2019/05/025797). The study was done from June 2019 to September 2020 and followed the principles laid down in the declaration of Helsinki.

Patients coming to the institute for emergency laparotomy formed the study population. Using continuous sampling methods, of the 80 patients enrolled, 72 patients 18 to 60 years of age, ASA 1 to 3, who gave written informed consent were included [Figure 1]. Patients with an anatomically difficult airway, baseline oxygen saturation (SpO₂) <95% on room air, hemoglobin <8 g/dL, hemodynamically unstable (systolic blood pressure <90 mmHg on vasopressor support), and coronary artery disease were excluded. Written informed consent was taken from each patient recruited in the study.

To ensure uniform distribution of patients into either group at any time, block randomization was performed using the “Permuted block” feature of the “Statistics and Sample Size” app, version 1.0 developed by Truc TT, with a pre-defined block size of eight. The randomisation sequence was generated by a resident not involved in the study and handed over to the investigators in sealed opaque sequentially numbered envelopes containing the allocated group: Group-FM, pre-oxygenation with facemask only or Group-NC, AO with 10 L/min through a nasal catheter in addition to pre-oxygenation with facemask. The envelopes were selected in a sequential order to decide the group to be allocated. The patients and the investigator analyzing the arterial blood gas reports were blinded to the allocated group.

In the pre-anesthetic holding room, the intravenous line was checked for patency. The baseline hemodynamic parameters

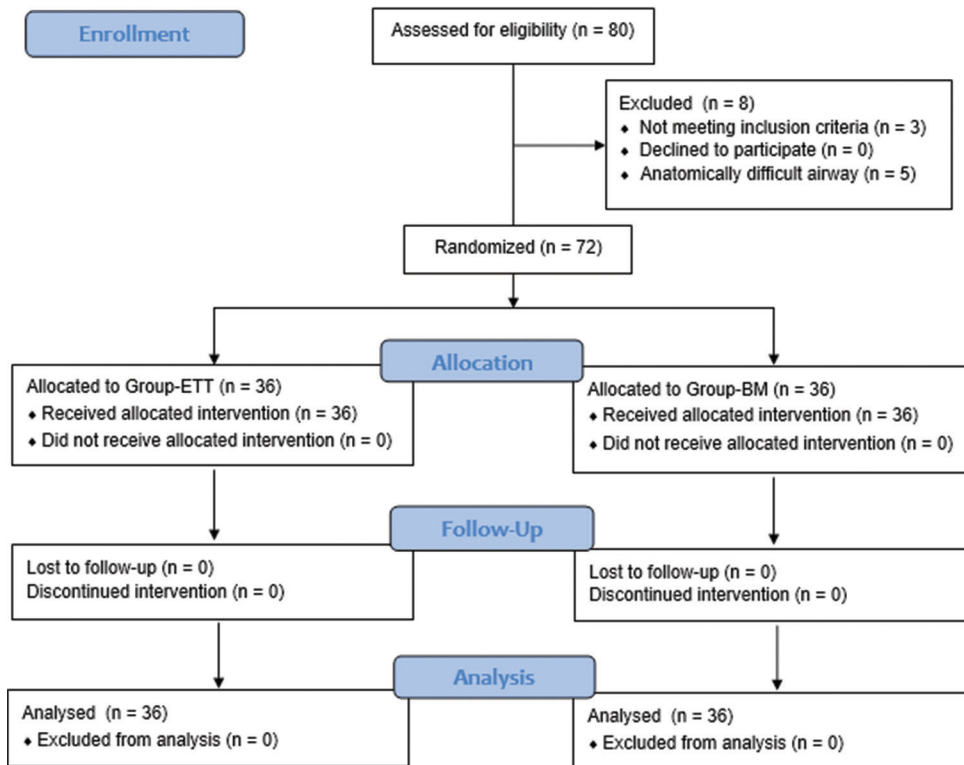


Figure 1: CONSORT flow diagram

and SpO₂ were noted. The radial artery was cannulated in either the right or the left upper limb and an arterial sample was sent for baseline blood gas analysis (ABL™ 5 Radiometer, Copenhagen, arterial blood gas analyzer) in a container filled with ice slush. An anesthesia resident, who was not involved in the study, took the samples and analyzed them within 5 min of collection.

In the operating theater, monitoring (ProCare Monitor B40, GE Healthcare, United States) included electrocardiography, SpO₂, non-invasive blood pressure, and airway gas monitoring (E-miniC module with the carbon dioxide setup adjusted to enable O₂ and nitrous-oxide compensation). Patients were positioned in a sniffing position and prepared for RSI. After thorough nasogastric suctioning, the nasogastric tube (NGT) was removed.

A semi-closed circle system with a limb-O circuit (total volume: 2.75 L) was used in the study. The circuit was primed by activating the emergency flush for 30 s with the patient end closed, and end-tidal O₂ (EtO₂) and the fraction of inspired O₂ (FiO₂) were confirmed to be ≥98% before using it on the patient. The group allocation envelope was then opened to determine the randomization group. In Group FM, patients were pre-oxygenated with a tight-fitting facemask, and an O₂ flow of 5 L/min, for 3 min. In Group-NC, a 14 Fr (4.667 mm outer diameter) nasal catheter was inserted with the tip positioned at the nasopharynx. This catheter was connected to a separate O₂ cylinder with a flowmeter and an additional flow of 10 L/min was initiated during the 3-min pre-oxygenation. The circuit adjustable pressure limiting valve was kept fully open to avoid the buildup of any positive end-expiratory pressure or continuous positive airway pressure during pre-oxygenation in either group.

The FiO₂ and EtO₂ concentrations were noted after the first inspiration. At the end of 3 minutes of pre-oxygenation, FiO₂, EtO₂, and SpO₂ were noted and a second arterial sample was collected. The choice and dose of opioids and induction agents were based on the anesthesiologist's preference. During the application of cricoid pressure, care was taken to ensure that the airway patency was not compromised. Following induction, Inj. suxamethonium hydrochloride 1.5 mg/kg was administered. Airway patency up to the glottis was ensured during induction until intubation using head tilt, chin lift, jaw thrust, and if necessary an oropharyngeal airway. The facemask was removed after 45 s or following the cessation of succinylcholine fasciculation and intubation was attempted.

The removal of the facemask for intubation was taken as the beginning of apnoea. In Group-NC, O₂ insufflation continued during intubation. To ensure correct placement

of the tracheal tube (TT), without initiating ventilation and altering the gas concentrations, all intubations were done by consultants and an esophageal detector device was used. If intubation was done within 90 s, in Group-FM, the TT was left open to the ambient atmosphere until the 90 s apnoea time was over. In Group-NC, the TT was connected to the circuit, with the expiratory limb open to the atmosphere to continue AO through the circuit. This was done to study conditions of 90 s apnoea. SpO₂ and the third arterial blood sample were taken 90 s after the removal of the facemask before the commencement of ventilation or earlier if saturation dropped to less than 90% and the duration was noted. The circuit was then connected and ventilation started. Further anesthetic and ventilatory management were according to the anesthesiologist's preference.

The primary outcome was PaO₂ levels following apnoea. The sample size calculator app by Mr. Truc TT (version 1.0) was used for calculating the sample size. The sample size was calculated based on a previous study by Sahay *et al.*,^[7] who reported a 30% fall in PaO₂ during apnoea. With a power of 80%, an alpha error of 0.05 to detect a 5% fall in PaO₂ in the AO group, the sample size was estimated as 36 patients for each group. Statistical analysis was carried out using the SPSS version 16.0 (IBM SPSS, US) software. Unpaired Student's *t*-test was used for comparing the age, body mass index, baseline vital parameters, ABC values, the time taken for intubation, inspired and expired O₂ in both the groups. Chi-square test for sex, ASA, and MPC grading. Mood's median test was used for the comparison of medians.

Results

Seventy-two patients completed the study [Figure 1]. Five patients with an anatomically difficult airway, two patients with baseline hemoglobin <7 g/dL, and one patient with a saturation of 88% on room air were excluded. The two study groups were comparable for age, weight, sex, and ASA physical status [Table 1]. The baseline respiratory rate, SpO₂, the potential of hydrogen (pH), partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO₂), PaO₂, and bicarbonate (HCO₃) were similar in both groups. We did not encounter unanticipated difficult intubation in any patient. The fasciculations due to suxamethonium subsided within 45 s and all intubations in either group were performed well within 90 s in the first attempt itself.

The circuit O₂ concentration was 90 ± 4% in Group-FM and 93 ± 5% in Group-NC. The FiO₂-EtO₂ difference was 4% in both groups [Table 2]. The PaO₂ attained following pre-oxygenation was similar (*P* = 0.57) in both

groups [Figure 2a]. During the 90 s apnoea following pre-oxygenation, there was a fall in the PaO₂ by 38% in Group-FM and 12% in Group-NC (*P* = 0.000) [Figure 2b]. The increase in PaCO₂ levels following 90 s of apnoea was similar (*P* = 0.809) in both groups [Figure 3].

Discussion

Currently, there are no data on the usefulness of AO during RSI in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy. Our

study shows that in this group of people with reduced pulmonary reserves, the fall in PaO₂ levels following apnoea is higher without O₂ supplementation. The technique of nasopharyngeal insufflation of O₂ for AO does not need any specialized equipment such as that required for high-flow nasal oxygen and hence can be easily put into practice. Sustaining PaO₂ with such a simple technique is encouraging particularly in the present post-coronavirus (COVID) situation when we may increasingly encounter COVID-recovered patients with compromised pulmonary reserves.

PaO₂, as opposed to SpO₂, indicates the O₂ reserves available and was preferred in our study. Our methodology ensured that the arterial blood collection procedure and pre-oxygenation technique were standardized and the adequacy of pre-oxygenation was confirmed to accurately reflect what we wanted to determine.^[8,9]

The NGT was removed after thorough suctioning in both the groups before pre-oxygenation but the presence of the nasopharyngeal catheter in Group-NC interfered with the mask seal. To compensate for the mask leak, O₂ insufflation in this group was initiated during pre-oxygenation itself. It is difficult to attain a FiO₂ of 1.0 during pre-oxygenation unless non-rebreathing circuits are used. We could achieve a FiO₂ ≥ 0.95 in 15 out of 32 patients in Group-NC but could attain only 0.90 in Group-FM. In a group of healthy adult volunteers, Nimmagadda *et al.*^[10] were also able to achieve FiO₂ of only 0.95 with a fresh gas flow (FGF) of 5 L/min using a circle system. Further, the inability to achieve a FiO₂ of 0.95 in all patients in Group-NC can be attributed to the face mask leak caused by the presence of the nasal catheter.^[11] Despite higher FiO₂ in Group-NC, the PaO₂ attained at the end of 3-min pre-oxygenation was similar in both the groups.

Denitrogenation during pre-oxygenation is exponential and an EtO₂ of approximately 90% indicates adequate

Table 1: Demographic data and baseline parameters

	Group-FM (n=36)	Group-NC (n=36)	P
Age (y)	40±14	42±13	0.53
BMI	24±5	22±4	0.07
Sex (Male:female)	20: 16	22: 14	0.68
ASA (1:2:3)	14: 17: 5	16: 15: 5	0.82
MPC (1:2)	20: 16	18: 18	0.40
Baseline respiratory rate (Breaths/min)	22±8	25±7	0.09
Baseline ABG			
pH	7.43±0.41	7.40±0.43	0.76
PaO ₂	90 (69 to 117)	87 (50 to 112)	0.185
PaCO ₂	32 (25 to 41)	29 (20 to 39)	0.15
HCO ₃	19.4±2.8	19.5±3.5	0.89
Time from induction to removal of FM (s)	63±6	63±8	1.0
Time from induction to intubation (s)	74±7	74±10	1.0

Values are mean±SD, median [range] or number of patients. MPC, Mallampati class; ASA, American Society of Anesthesiologists

Table 2: FiO₂ and EtO₂ values following pre-oxygenation in the two groups

Parameter	Group FM (n=36)	Group NC (n=36)
FiO ₂ %	90±4	93±5
EtO ₂ %	86±5	89±5
FiO ₂ – EtO ₂	4	4

Values are Mean±SD

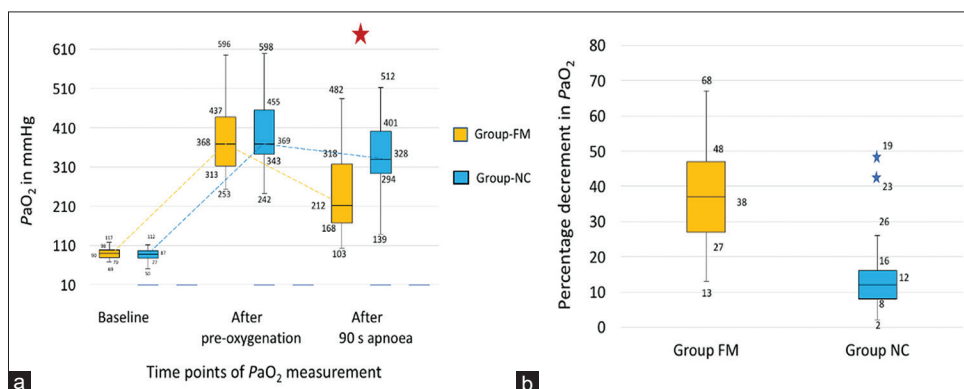


Figure 2: Box and whisker plots. Box shows the median and 25–75 dispersion and the whiskers the range. (a) PaO₂ at different time points in the two groups. ★ Indicates significant difference between the two study groups. (*P* = 0.00). (b) Percentage decrease in post-apnoea PaO₂ from post oxygenation values in two groups. ★ Denotes extreme values with case number

pre-oxygenation. Although this is often reported to be achieved in 3 min using FGF of 5 L/min with a circle system, we could not achieve that consistently.^[12] Machlin *et al.*^[13] were able to achieve an EtO₂ of 89% only with a fresh gas flow of 8 L/min. Investigators who have used EtO₂ of 90% as an end-point of adequate pre-oxygenation also mention that this took >5 min in some patients.^[4,14] An inadequate face mask seal and low tidal volumes may be confounding factors while interpreting EtO₂.^[15] In our study, satisfactory expansion and contraction of the reservoir bag and a capnograph accompanying each exhalation were monitored to ensure that the end-tidal gas values represented alveolar gas concentrations. Further, the EtO₂-FiO₂ difference following pre-oxygenation was only 4%, indicating that a steady-state was achieved in both groups.

Regarding the technique for AO, nasopharyngeal insufflation has shown better efficacy than nasal insufflation.^[4,5,7,14,16,17] Hence, we preferred to use nasopharyngeal insufflation in our study. With regard to the patient factors, AO has not been consistently beneficial in critically ill patients.^[6,18,19] This is probably because critical care unit and emergency department intubations involve a heterogeneous group of people with varying indications for intubation, in an anarchic situation where the need for imminent intubation often precludes pre-oxygenation. In those with low baseline saturations and in whom pre-oxygenation can be employed, it might only help to push the SpO₂ higher up on the steep portion of the oxygen dissociation curve (ODC), ultimately resulting in an accelerated fall during airway manipulation. White *et al.*^[20] in their meta-analysis have also concluded that the technique has not helped patients in respiratory failure. In our study cohort, the baseline PaO₂ with the corresponding SpO₂ values, when plotted on the ODC, lay on the plateau portion and not on the critical steep portion of the curve. This provided an opportunity for enhancing the PaO₂ reserves (PaO₂ of 368 and 369, respectively, in Group-F and Group-NC) with pre-oxygenation rather than merely increasing the SpO₂, showing that AO is advantageous in patients with

decreased pulmonary reserves rather than in those with no reserves [Figure 4].

Varying flows of O₂ from 5 L/min to 10 L/min have been used by different investigators for AO; however, the optimal flow of O₂ to be used has not yet been investigated. All India Difficult Airway 2016 guidelines for the management of unanticipated difficult intubation in adults recommend the use of 10 to 15 L/min of O₂ insufflation into the pharynx routinely during all intubations.^[21]

As the ventilation is paused, the CO₂ entering the alveoli immediately drops from 200 mL/min to 20 mL/min with a consequent increase in PaCO₂.^[22] In our study, we observed a similar increase in PaCO₂ in both groups. In most of our patients, the baseline pH was in the normal range (7.4 ± 0.4 in Group-FM and 7.4 ± 0.4 in Group-NC) despite HCO₃ values of 19.4 ± 2.8 in Group-FM and 19.5 ± 3.5 in Group-NC, indicating a certain extent of respiratory compensation (baseline PaCO₂: Group-FM: 32 [range: 25–41] mmHg; Group-NC: 29 [range: 20–39] mmHg), which was taken away once apnoea was induced, thereby resulting in a rapid increase in PaCO₂. Although most of the prior studies also point out that AO does not affect ventilation or CO₂ removal, Jain *et al.* and Lee contrarily report a significant decrease in the rise of CO₂ with AO.^[22-24] Recently, Booth *et al.*^[25] have demonstrated that with the high-flow nasal O₂ technique for AO, the average increase in PaCO₂ was 1.8 mmHg/min.

Our study had a few limitations. The study could not be blinded as it involved the insertion of a nasopharyngeal catheter and the O₂ insufflation in the test group produced a buzz that could not be mimicked in the control group. As our study was done on ASA 1 to 3 patients requiring RSI

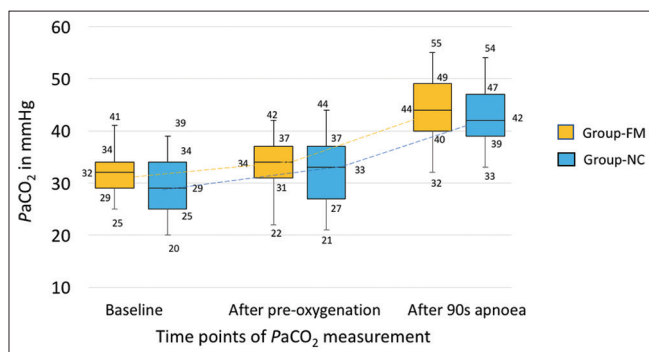


Figure 3: Box and whiskers plot showing the PaCO₂ at various time points in the two groups. Box shows the median and 25–75 dispersion and the whiskers the range. There was no significant difference between the two groups

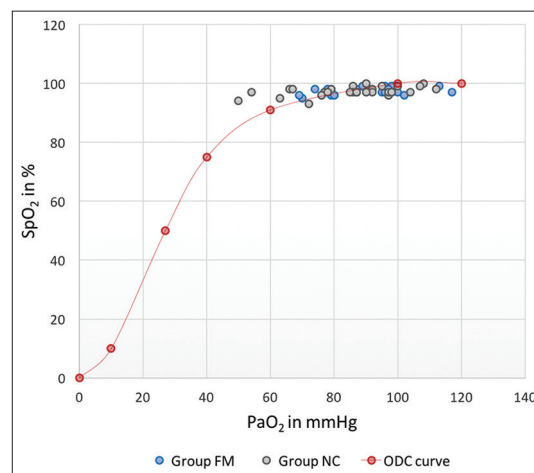


Figure 4: Baseline SpO₂ and PaO₂ values of individual patients in either group plotted on the ODC curve

for emergency laparotomy, we preferred to resume ventilation following 90 s of apnoea, and hence PaO₂ levels were measured to determine the effectiveness of the technique. We did not assess the efficiency of the technique by noting the duration taken for the saturation to drop to 92%.

Conclusion

Apnoeic insufflation of O₂ using a nasopharyngeal catheter along with facemask oxygenation is more effective in sustaining PaO₂ for 90 s during RSI than facemask-only oxygenation in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy despite a steady-state of O₂ uptake attained with either technique at the end of pre-oxygenation.

Key messages

- Apnoeic oxygenation is advantageous in sustaining PaO₂ during RSI in patients undergoing emergency laparotomy.
- Nasopharyngeal O₂ insufflation, a very simple technique for apnoeic oxygenation, is beneficial, particularly when anesthetizing patients with borderline pulmonary reserves.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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