

Confirmation of Endotracheal Tube Placement: A Miniaturized Infrared Qualitative CO₂ Detector

Study objectives: A miniaturized, infrared, solid-state, end-tidal CO₂ detector was used to confirm emergency endotracheal tube (ETT) placement.

Design: This prospective, clinical study used a miniature, infrared, solid-state end-tidal CO₂ detector to confirm ETT placement in an acute setting.

Setting: The ICU, emergency department, and hospital floor.

Type of participants: There were 88 consecutive adult patients requiring 100 emergency intubations.

Measurements and main results: The indication for airway intervention was considered urgent in 79% and under arrest conditions in 21%. The mean number of intubation attempts was 1.83 (range, one to five) with difficulty of intubation of 6.48 and confirmation of 7.75, on a linear scale from 0 (lowest) to 10 (highest). Determination of ETT position revealed intratracheal intubation in 96% and esophageal intubation in 4%. Placement was confirmed by direct visualization or radiography in all cases. Sensitivity and specificity for ETT localization was 100% (P < .0001).

Conclusion: This hand-held infrared capnometer reliably confirms ETT placement under emergency conditions. [Vukmir RB, Heller MB, Stein KL: Confirmation of endotracheal tube placement: A miniaturized infrared qualitative CO₂ detector. *Ann Emerg Med* July 1991;20:726-729.]

INTRODUCTION

Airway control has been described since 3600 BC, when tracheostomy was used by the Egyptians.¹ Modern interventions include the introduction of endotracheal tubes (ETTs) for anesthesia by MacEwen in 1880,² but the first clinical use of endotracheal intubation for airway control was advanced by Jackson in 1907.³

Endotracheal intubation is associated with an approximate complication rate of 26%.⁴ Perhaps the most catastrophic outcome of this procedure is unrecognized esophageal intubation. Fully 15% of anesthesia-related accidents resulting in brain damage or death are the result of esophageal intubation.⁵ This hazard is illustrated by the statement that "even a conscientious, careful anesthesiologist may be unable to differentiate tracheal from esophageal intubation by commonly employed methods."⁶ Accidental esophageal intubation has been reported in even well-controlled anesthesia settings as well as in the prehospital realm⁷⁻⁹ where ineffective airway management may be the most important factor contributing to out-of-hospital deaths.¹⁰ In a study of paramedic intubations of 799 patients, Stewart et al found a 9.5% complication rate, with 1.8% resulting in esophageal misplacement.¹¹

This study used a standard modality for confirmation of ETT position — detection of end-tidal CO₂ — under rigorous conditions to confirm placement in airway emergencies, including cardiopulmonary arrest settings.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This prospective, nonrandomized study used a miniaturized qualitative capnometer to confirm ETT position by the presence of CO₂ in the ventilatory cycle. Minicap[®] III (Mine Safety Appliances Co, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) is a solid-state, infrared spectrophotometer featuring mainstream

Rade B Vukmir, MD*
Michael B Heller, MD, FACEP†
Keith L Stein, MD, FCCP, FCCM*
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

From the Department of Critical Care Medicine/Anesthesia,* Presbyterian-University Hospital, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and the Division of Emergency Medicine, University of Pittsburgh.†

Received for publication November 8, 1990. Revision received January 18, 1991. Accepted for publication February 7, 1991.

Presented at the Society for Academic Emergency Medicine Annual Meeting in Minneapolis, Minnesota, May 1990.

Address for reprints: Rade B Vukmir, MD, Center for Emergency Medicine, 230 McKee Place, Suite 500, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15213.

FIGURE. *Minicap[®] III.*

sampling with a sensitivity of 0.50, vol% CO₂ (Figure). This instrument costs approximately \$900; is battery operated, portable, and compact; weighs 14.3 oz; measures 5.75 × 2.75 × 1.75 cm; and has a belt clip similar to a pager. Minicap[®] III operates as an apnea monitor with an audible alarm and red warning light indicating loss of respiration after an adjustable interval of ten to 60 seconds. Respiration is sensed and then indicated as a tone and green visual display for each ventilation cycle. The sensor is equipped with a band-pass filter to prevent misinterpretation of anesthetic gas mixtures and is fitted with a disposable plastic mainstream adapter. The device is available for instant use without calibration or warm-up period.

The patient group included those requiring intubation by nasal, oral, or tracheal route for the purpose of airway protection, oxygenation, ventilation, or confirmation of prior ETT placement. All patients requiring emergency intubations by critical care physicians in the ICU, emergency department, and medical-surgical ward were eligible for inclusion; there were no exclusion criteria (ie, patients in cardiopulmonary arrest were eligible). The study was approved by the Biomedical Institutional Review Board of the University of Pittsburgh. The doctrine of implied consent was used for this noninvasive monitoring technique.

Information was recorded in a questionnaire format by each physician using the device and subsequently compiled by the investigators. Not all critical care physicians used the device on all emergency intubations, but every recorded use of the device was included. The difficulty of intubation and confirmation was estimated by the operator using an 11-point Likert scale graded from 0 (least difficult) to 10 (most difficult). Complications between groups were compared using Fisher's exact test with an α level set at .05 to evaluate differences in ETT position determined by Minicap[®] III and standard confirmation techniques including clinical examination, direct visualization, and radiography.

RESULTS

The study involved 100 cases in 88



patients recorded during a six-month period. One case was excluded when the device correctly determined ETT position but then failed to sense when the detector connection was altered. Normal function returned with adjustment of the cord. Seventy-nine percent of patients enrolled were in the ICU, 11% in the ED, and 10% on the hospital floor. Patients were intubated primarily for respiratory distress in 31% with the intubation thought to be urgent in 79% and emergent, specifically cardiac or traumatic arrest, in 21% (Table 1). The route of intubation was oral in 92%, nasal in 5%, and through an existing tracheostomy in 3%.

The mean number of intubations was 1.83 (range, one to five) with difficulty of intubation estimated at 6.48 (range, 1 to 10) and confirmation at 7.75 (range, 1 to 10). All cases were confirmed with direct visualization, chest radiograph, or both. Other methods of confirmation, including auscultation and pulse oximetry, were common (Table 1).

The ETT position was found to be tracheal in 96% and esophageal in 4% as determined by capnometry using Minicap[®] III (Table 2). These positions were confirmed by standard methods, direct visualization or chest radiograph, in all cases. Thus, the sensitivity and specificity for ETT localization were both 100%

TABLE 1. *Indication and methods of confirmation of intubation*

Indication	% of Patients
Respiratory distress	31
Airway protection	27
ETT position	18
Cardiac arrest	17
Traumatic arrest	4
ETT replacement	3
Confirmation	
Chest auscultation	98
Epigastric auscultation	92
Chest excursion	87
Chest radiograph	82
Direct visualization	79
Pulse oximetry	67
ETT condensation	36
Arterial blood gas	4

(Table 1) with no significant difference in ETT position[†] determined by capnometry compared with standard methods ($P > .05$).

DISCUSSION

ETT position is suggested but not confirmed by a number of techniques. The general guidelines for an ideal method are that 1) the test should work for difficult intubations; 2) positive tests must be unequivocal.

TABLE 2. Comparison of results

ETT Position	Minicap [®] III	
	Tracheal	Esophageal
Tracheal	96 True-positive (100%)	0 False-negative (0%)
Esophageal	0 False-positive (0%)	4 True-negative (100%)

cal; 3) esophageal intubation must always be detected; and 4) clinicians must understand the test.¹²

Techniques for clinical evaluation of ETT position include direct visualization,⁸ ambu-bag compliance,^{8,13} auscultation of breath sounds,^{8,13,14} symmetrical chest excursion,¹³ auscultation of epigastric sounds,^{8,15} vital sign change,⁸ cyanosis or hypoxemia,¹⁶ tracheal cuff palpation,¹⁷⁻¹⁹ tactile digital palpation,²⁰ chest compression,⁸ flexible fiberoptic catheter bronchoscopy,^{21,22} suction esophageal detection device,^{23,24} pulse oximetry,^{15,25-28} lighted stylet,²⁹ cuff seal volume,³⁰ chest radiograph,³¹⁻³³ ultrasound,³⁴ exhaled tidal volume,⁷ tube condensation,⁸ gastric contents,¹⁵ colorimetric end-tidal CO₂ detector,³⁵ and end-tidal CO₂ measurement.¹⁵ Each of these techniques has been suggested to confirm ETT position, although they vary in accuracy, some conclusions can be inferred.

Clinical testing cannot be relied on, and the only unequivocal signs of correct tube placement are direct visualization, including recheck laryngoscopy, fiberoptic bronchoscopic identification of endotracheal lumen, and detection of physiologic CO₂ concentration of exhaled gas.²⁴ However, each of these gold standards has been associated with some limitation. Direct visualization may be the most reliable technique, although it is not always anatomically possible.³⁶ The ETT can be accidentally dislodged, and 1.9 cm of change in ETT position with normal head flexion or extension has been documented.³⁷ Radiographic assessment has been associated with delayed diagnosis resulting in prolonged esophageal intubation.³¹ Bronchoscopy requires special apparatus and ability and is time consuming. Pulse oximetry may be limited by a delay in the detection of oxyhemoglobin desaturation, especially with preoxygenation, as well as by inability to

sense during a low-flow state.²⁵

CO₂ monitoring "comes closest to being a fail-safe monitor for most problems that cause anoxia and death."³⁸ The earliest experiments in CO₂ measurement were performed by Tyndall (1859) and Luft (1943), who developed the principle of capnometry by which CO₂ is measured by infrared absorption.³⁹ Primitive attempts at crude CO₂ measurement were made in the anesthesia suite by the barium hydroxide agglutination reaction⁴⁰ and the "Einstein CO₂ detector," which was capable of sensing 4 to 6 vol% CO₂.⁴¹

Modern CO₂ measurement is accomplished by two methods. Mass spectroscopy requires a centralized system suited for anesthesia and intensive care settings. Expired gas is sampled and examined for CO₂ as well as other volatile gases. This mode is the current standard. However, this method requires calibration and is costly – about \$60,000 for an average system.⁴² End-tidal CO₂ measurement is based on the absorption of infrared light of 4.3- μ m wavelength by the CO₂ molecule compared with a CO₂-free reference sample.³⁹ Sampling occurs through a sidestream system, which requires gas removal, is prone to contamination, and is used for mass spectroscopy and some capnography. Mainstream detectors place the sensor directly into the airway circuit, offer less contamination, and are featured in capnographs and capnometers. A band filter is featured to screen out other anesthetic gases.

The CO₂ concentration can be displayed in either qualitative, with an arbitrary CO₂ sensitivity, or quantitative fashion. Quantitative display includes capnometry, which yields a numerical display of CO₂ concentration, and capnography, which yields a real-time graphic waveform.³⁹ Ventilation is thus measured as end-tidal CO₂ that approximates PaCO₂ to within 2 to 6 mm Hg in normal

lungs.⁴³ Expired CO₂ is determined by 1) production, dependent on metabolism and varying with temperature and muscle tone; 2) transport, dependent on circulation and varying with pulmonary perfusion; and 3) elimination, dependent on airway and respiratory mechanism integrity.³⁹

The premise that with intact pulmonary circulation CO₂ is present in tracheal but not esophageal gas efflux is thus a reliable method of detecting ETT placement. Presence of CO₂ indicates tracheal intubation, and absence of CO₂ indicates esophageal intubation, circulatory arrest, technical malfunction, circuit disconnection, or intraluminal/extraluminal tube obstruction.^{44,45}

A false-positive result, or an esophageal tube that is determined to be endotracheal, can occur theoretically in the setting of mask ventilation causing gastric insufflation of CO₂-containing expired gas. Trends noted during studies of esophageal intubation reveal that the volume of gastric CO₂ expired is lower, usually less than 0.7 vol% CO₂.^{14,27} The waveform can initially appear normal but dissipates with successive ventilations (three to six),^{44,46} even under the influence of carbonated beverage consumption.^{44,47}

A false-negative result, or an endotracheal tube determined to be esophageal, can occur in a low pulmonary blood flow state, specifically, cardiac arrest. However, a correlation between end-tidal CO₂ and cardiac output has been demonstrated during CPR⁴⁸ with return of circulation.⁴⁹ Thus, end-tidal CO₂ monitoring is feasible during cardiac arrest and has even been suggested as a monitor of CPR efficacy.⁵⁰

Recent clinical trials that have examined portable devices for confirmation of ETT placement should be scrutinized for two significant points – the prevalence of arrest patients studied and the incidence of false-negative findings that would result in misinterpretation of intratracheal position as equivocal or esophageal in a low perfusion state. In a controlled trial of 62 patients, Goldberg et al found a colorimetric device (sensitivity, 0.03 to 5 vol% CO₂) to be accurate in spontaneously breathing patients with one case (1.6%) of equivocal position that resolved with proper ETT cuff inflation.⁵¹

Studies performed by Ornato et al,⁵² Bhende et al,⁵³ and Gerard et al³⁵ that included arrest patients in prehospital and hospital settings have demonstrated false-negative rates of 23.6% (17 of 72), 18.2% (two of 11), and 31.4% (11 of 35), respectively. Thus, under the most rigorous testing conditions, the colorimetric detector, although effective in patients with spontaneous respirations, has limited sensitivity for detecting intratracheal intubations in the arrest population.

However, in this study, Mimicap III had no false-negative results in arrest patients (21 of 100) with low-flow states up to a maximum of 65 minutes. Respiratory variation did vary with CPR efficacy in several cases. This minimal sensitivity for CO₂ detection was not complicated by false-positive results in the four cases of esophageal intubation. An acknowledged difficulty with all such studies performed in actual patient care settings is the small number of esophageal intubations available for comparison. Finally, we have noted a problem with infrared detection of CO₂ in cold weather (less than 0 C), and the device is not currently recommended in the field environment under such conditions.⁵⁴

CONCLUSION

Portable qualitative capnometry using the Mimicap[®] III is a sensitive and specific method of confirming endotracheal tube placement in an emergency in-hospital setting.

REFERENCES

1. Kastendieck JG: Airway management, in Rosen P, Baker FG, Barken RN, et al (eds): *Airway Management in Emergency Medicine*, ed 2. St Louis, CV Mosby, 1988, p 41-68.
2. MacEwen W: Clinical observations on the introduction of tracheal tubes by mouth instead of performing tracheostomy or laryngotomy. *Br Med J* 1980;2:105-120.
3. Jackson C: *Tracheo-bronchoscopy, Esophagoscopy, and Gastroscopy*. St Louis, St Louis Laryngoscope Co, 1907.
4. Craig J, Wilson ME: A survey of anesthetic misadventures. *Anaesthesia* 1981;36:933-936.
5. Utting JE, Gray TC, Shelley FC: Human misadventure in anesthesia. *Canad Anaesth Soc J* 1979;26:472-478.
6. Solazzi RW, Ward RJ: The spectrum of medical liability cases. *Int Anesthesiol Clin* 1984;22:43.
7. Stirt JA: Endotracheal tube misplacement. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 1982;10:274-276.
8. Pollard BJ, Junius F: Accidental intubation of the esophagus. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 1980;8:183-186.
9. Abarbanell NR: Esophageal placement of an endotracheal tube by paramedics. *Am J Emerg Med* 1988;6:178-179.
10. Frey C, Heulke DE, Gikas PW: Resuscitation and survival in motor vehicle accidents. *J Trauma* 1969;9:292-310.
11. Stewart RD, Paris PM, Winter PM: Field endotracheal intubation by paramedic personnel. *Chest* 1984;85:341-345.
12. Charters P, Wilkinson K: Confirmation of tracheal tube placement (letter). *Anaesthesia* 1988;43:72.
13. Howells TH, Riehmüller RJ: Signs of endotracheal intubation. *Anaesthesia* 1980;35:984-986.
14. Linko K, Paloheim M, Tammisto T: Capnography for detection of accidental esophageal intubation. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 1983;27:199-202.
15. Birmingham PK, Cheney FW, Ward RJ: Esophageal intubation: A review of detection techniques. *Anesth Analg* 1986;65:886-891.
16. Comroe J, Botelo H: Unreliability of cyanosis in the recognition of arterial anoxemia. *Am J Med Sci* 1947;214:1.
17. Triner L: A simple maneuver to verify proper position of an endotracheal tube. *Anesthesiology* 1982;57:548-549.
18. Horton WA, Ralston S: Cuff palpation does not differentiate esophageal from tracheal placement of tracheal tubes. *Anaesthesia* 1988;43[suppl]:803-804.
19. Ehrenwerth J, Nagle S, Hirsch N, et al: Is cuff palpation a useful tool for detecting endotracheal tube position? *Anesthesiology* 1986;65:A137.
20. Charters P, Wilkinson K: Tactile orotracheal tube placement test. *Anesthesia* 1987;42:801-807.
21. Suarez M, Chediak K, Ershotzky P, et al: Evaluation of a flexible fiberoptic catheter in confirming endotracheal tube placement in the intensive care unit. *Respir Care* 1987;32:81-84.
22. Vioneswaran R, Whitfield JM: The use of a new ultrathin fiberoptic bronchoscope to determine ET tube position in the sick newborn infant. *Chest* 1981;80:174-177.
23. Wee MYK: Esophageal detection device. *Anaesthesia* 1988;43:27-29.
24. O'Leary JJ, Pollard BJ, Ryan MJ: A method of detecting esophageal intubation or confirming tracheal intubation. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 1988;16:299-301.
25. McShane AJ, Martin JL: Preoxygenation and pulse oximetry delay detection of esophageal intubation. *J Natl Med Assoc* 1987;79:987-992.
26. Yelderman M, New W: Evaluation of pulse oximetry. *Anesthesiology* 1983;59:349-352.
27. Guggenberger H, Lenz G, Federle R: Early detection of inadvertent esophageal intubation: Pulse oximetry vs capnography. *Acta Anesth Scand* 1989;33:112-115.
28. Anderson JW, Clark PJ, Kafer EN: Use of capnography and transthecal oxygen monitoring during outpatient general anesthesia for oral surgery. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1987;45:3-10.
29. Stewart RD, Larosee A, Stoy WA: Use of a lighted stylet to confirm correct endotracheal tube placement. *Chest* 1987;86:900-904.
30. Jarvis D, Russell DJ: Cuff seal volumes and esophageal intubation. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 1988;16:378.
31. Batra AK, Cohn MA: Uneventful prolonged misdiagnosis of esophageal intubation. *Crit Care Med* 1983;11:763-764.
32. Goodman LR, Puttman EC: Radiologic evaluation of patients receiving assisted ventilation. *JAMA* 1981;245:858-860.
33. Bissinger U, Lenz G, Kuhn W: Unrecognized endobronchial intubation of emergency patients. *Ann Emerg Med* 1989;18:853-855.
34. Rapheal DT, Conrad FU: Ultrasound confirmation of endotracheal tube placement. *J Clin Ultrasound* 1987;15:459-462.
35. Gerard J, MacLeod BA, Heller MB, et al: Verification of endotracheal intubation using a disposable end tidal CO₂ detector (abstract). *Prehosp Dis Med* 1989;4:74.
36. Murrin KR: Intubation: Procedures and causes of difficult intubation, in Latta IP, Rosen M (eds): *Difficulties in Tracheal Intubation*. Eastborne, Australia, Balliere Tindall/WB Saunders, 1985, p 75-89.
37. Conrardy PA, Goodman LR, Lange F, et al: Alteration of endotracheal tube position: Flexion and extension of the head. *Crit Care Med* 1976;4:8-12.
38. ECRI Technical Assessment Committee: Deaths during general anesthesia. *Tech Anesth* 1985;5:1-10.
39. Kalenda Z: Capnography during anesthesia and intensive care. *Acta Anaesth Belgica* 1978;29:3.
40. Smith RH, Volpito PP: Simple methods of determining CO₂ content of alveolar air. *Anesthesiology* 1959;20:702-703.
41. Berman JA, Fuirgiure JJ, Marx GF: The Einstein CO₂ detector. *Anesthesiology* 1984;60:613-614.
42. Swerdlow DB: Capnometry and capnography: The anesthesia disaster early warning system. *Semin Anesth* 1986;3:194-205.
43. Burton GW: The value of CO₂ monitoring during anesthesia. *Anaesthesia* 1966;21:173-183.
44. Garnett AR, Gervin CA, Gervin AS: Capnograph waveforms in esophageal intubation - Effect of carbonated beverages. *Ann Emerg Med* 1989;18:387-390.
45. Murray IP, Modell JH: Early detection of endotracheal tube accidents by monitoring CO₂ concentration in respiratory gas. *Anesthesiology* 1983;59:344-346.
46. Ping STS: Esophageal intubation (letter). *Anesth Analg* 1987;66:483.
47. Zbinden S, Schupfer G: Detection of esophageal intubation: The cola complication. *Anesth Analg* 1987;66:483.
48. Gazmuli RJ, Von Planta M, Weil MH, et al: Arterial Pco₂ as an indicator of systemic perfusion during CPR. *Crit Care Med* 1989;17:237-239.
49. Falk JL, Rackow EC, Weil MH: End tidal CO₂ concentration during CPR. *N Engl J Med* 1988;318:607-611.
50. Garnett AN, Ornato IP, Gonzalez ER, et al: End tidal CO₂ monitoring during cardiopulmonary resuscitation. *JAMA* 1987;257:572-575.
51. Goldberg JS, Rawle PR, Zehnder JL, et al: Colorimetric end tidal carbon dioxide monitoring for tracheal intubation. *Anesth Analg* 1990;70:191-194.
52. Ornato IP, Zapley JB, Raft EM, et al: Multicenter study of end tidal carbon dioxide in the prehospital setting (abstract). *Ann Emerg Med* 1990;19:452.
53. Bhende MS, Thomson AE, Cook DR: Validity of a disposable end-tidal CO₂ detector in verifying endotracheal tube position in infants and children (abstract). *Ann Emerg Med* 1990;19:483.
54. *Mimicap III CO₂ Detector Operation Manual*. Pittsburgh, Mine Safety Appliances Co, 1990, p 10-11.

Reprinted from July 1991 *Annals of Emergency Medicine*©