

Global Health Emergency Medicine

Procedural Session: Pediatric Airway Management

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Builds on previous GHEM lectures:

Pediatric Basic Life Support, Muluwork Tefera

Introduction to Airway Management, Eileen Cheung

Please also note:

- The information in this presentation and the video recording is up to date as of the date it was recorded: [insert presentation date]
- It has not been updated to include any subsequent advances in practice, and the information presented in this video does not replace hospital, health centre, or governmental guidelines.



Global Health Emergency Medicine

Disclosure Statement

• I have not received any financial or in-kind support from any commercial organization and have no conflicts of interest to declare.



Global Health Emergency Medicine

Preparation:

• Readings:

- Tintinalli's 9th Edition, Ch28 Non-invasive Airway Management, p173-179
- Tintinalli's 9th Edition, Ch29A, Tracheal Intubation, p179-190
- Tintinalli's 9th Edition, Ch 29B, Mechanical Ventilation, p190-193
- Tintinalli's 9th Edition, Ch30, Surgical Airway, p198-199
- Videos:
 - Peds RSI, University of Florida EM: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Wxal2dIyP</u> <u>VI</u>
 - Peds Needle Cricothyrotomy, Dr. Gore: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Brpz</u> <u>H5G-VHM</u>
 - Alternative set-up for needle cricothyrotomy, EM Capetown:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fNRDWN2Odp Y

Learning Objectives:

- Describe the anatomical and physiological differences in the pediatric airway
- Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate sizing for pediatric airway equipment
- Understand indications and contraindications for rapid sequence intubation
- List appropriate medications for pediatric rapid sequence intubation and their doses
- Describe approach to management of laryngospasm
- Describe steps in performing needle cricothyrotomy

Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

- •Larger tongue: Collapse and obstruct airway --> Use OPA/NPA
- •More anterior airway: Challenging to visualize cords --> Optimize positioning, video laryngoscope if available
- •Large tonsils and adenoids: Prone to bleeding, more challenging NPA insertion
- •Narrow subglottic region: Prone to airway collapse and inflammation

Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

- Adult larynx is cylindrical
- Infant larynx is funnel-shaped



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

- Large floppy epiglottis: More likely to obstruct view of vocal cords
- Traditional approach of using Miller blade, particularly in less than 2yo
- Evidence suggests similar success with Macintosh



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

Infant has larger occiput: Changes approach to positioning

- •<6mo: roll under shoulders
- •6mo-5yo: may not need anything
- >5yo: more likely to need roll under head

Sniffing Position or "Ear to Sternal Notch"



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

- Small cricothyroid membrane: Risk of transecting trachea with standard cricothyrotomy
- Needle cricothyrotomy
- More to come!



Anatomical Differences in Pediatric Airway

Shorter tracheal length

- Caution for right mainstem intubation
- Easy to dislodge tube with neck flexion

Formula for ETT Depth

• ETT size x 3

Physiologic Differences in Pediatric Airway Management

- Lower functional residual capacity (FRC)
 - FRC = volume remaining in lungs after normal exhalation
- Higher metabolic rate
- Results in less time to desaturation



Physiologic Differences in Pediatric Airway Management

- •Abdomen rises as diaphragm descends: stomach distention limits tidal volume
- Insufflation of stomach during BVM can affect ventilation →Use OG/NG tube
- •Chest wall more compliant: exhalation requires work

• Muscles for ventilation tire easily

•Harder an infant tries to breathe, the less efficient the breaths become



Failure to MAINTAIN airway

Failure to PROTECT airway

Failure to OXYGENATE

Failure to VENTILATE

Potential to DETERIORATE

Facilitation of TREATMENT or TRANSPORT

The Ps of RSI

- Plan
- Preparation (Drugs, Equipment, People, Place, PPE)
- Protect c-spine
- Positioning
- Pre-oxygenation
- Pre-treatment
- Paralysis and Induction
- Place tube and prove placement
- Post-intubation management

Pros and Cons of RSI

• Pros:

- Minimize risk of aspiration
- Improve success rate of intubation
- Cons:
 - Sick patient with inflammation/obstruction may be "stenting" airway with muscle tone --> if paralyzed, results in loss of patent airway
 - Metabolic sick patient requires rapid RR for compensation --> be sure to match RR if taking away respiratory drive
 - In difficult airway, RSI can result in "Can't intubate, can't ventilate" scenario





Team Timeout: We are going to take a timeout to discuss the airway plan.



This is an anticipated *non-challenging/difficult /physiologically challenging* airway



My plan A is to: ex. Direct laryngoscope with Mac 2, size 5 styletted cuffed ETT

My plan B is to: ex. Video laryngoscope with Mac 2, size 4.5 styletted non-cuffed ETT

My plan C is to: ex. Switch providers, smaller ETT tube, bougie

We will additionally have an appropriately sized LMA



Decision on double set up: neck prepped and landmarked for possible surgical incision

The Plan: Airway Script

Things to Consider in Plan: Difficult Airway Adjuncts

• BVM •Bougie Position •Operator change •LMA Video guided •Surgical "double set-up"

Preparation (People, Place, PPE, SOAP-ME)

SOAP ME



Equipment: Blade Size

- Premie/Newborn Miller 0
- 1mo-2yo Miller 1
- 3-6yo Miller 2, Mac 1
- 6-12yo Miller 2, Mac 2-3
- >12yo Mac 3

*Please note recommended sizes vary by resource. These are common sizes based on age.

Equipment: ETT Size

- Broselow tape
- Age/4 + 4, for uncuffed
- Age/4 + 3.5, for cuffed
- Use patient's pinky finger as an estimate
- Newborn size 3 or 3.5

Equipment: LMA Size

- LMA packaging marked with appropriate weight
- Size 1: up to 5kg
- Size 1.5: 5-10kg
- Size 2: 10-20kg
- Size 2.5: 20-30kg
- Size 3: 30-50kg

COVID-19/Airborne Intubation precautions

- Intubation is considered an Aerosol Generating Medical Procedure (AGMP)
- Team should wear appropriate PPE including N95 if available



Protect C-Spine

Be careful not to hyperextend/hyperflex neck in infant, can lead to obstruction

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Positioning



Pre-oxygenate

Time to Desaturation

- Healthy adult with 3 minutes pre-oxygenation will desaturate to <90% after 6 minutes
- Healthy child will desaturate after 3 minutes
- Sick child may desaturate within 1 minute



Apneic Oxygenation

- High flow nasal cannula during RSI
- Fills hypopharynx
- Diffuses to alveoli
- When using non-rebreather, mask fills with expired gases diluting the oxygen concentration
- Increases duration of oxygenation
- Increases time to desaturation

Pre-treatment

Pre-Treatment

- Lidocaine and Fentanyl may be considered in pre-treatment for suspected head injuries/elevated ICP
- Note that in order to be effective, they must be given several minutes prior to the intubation
- Lidocaine 1.5mg/kg, limited data on use in increased ICP in peds
- Fentanyl 1-3 mcg/kg
- Midazolam is a helpful adjunct in a highly agitated patient to assist with anxiolysis and amnesia, especially as it can be given IM to help facilitate getting IV access
- It is not used routinely pre-intubation
- •Midazolam 0.05-0.1mg/kg

Laryngoscopy = Valsalva

- HR may drop due to vagal stimulation, particularly in less than 2yo
- Evidence now suggests NOT giving Atropine prophylactically routinely
- Atropine 0.02mg/kg, minimum dose 0.1mg and maximum dose 0.5mg

Other possible effects of laryngoscopy:

In older children, may cause increased HR Increase BP Increase Intracranial Pressure Increase Intraocular Pressure

Paralysis and Induction

Succinylcholine

- DEPOLARIZING
- Short acting
- Onset within 45 seconds
- Very low risk for bradycardia, no longer recommendation for routine Atropine
- Succinylcholine 1-2mg/kg
- Neonates use 2mg/kg

Contraindications to Succinylcholine

• Hyperkalemia

- Burns, over 24 hours old
- Crush injuries, over 24 hours old
- Renal failure
- Spinal cord injury, over 72 hours
- Rhabdomyolysis
- Neuromuscular disease ex MD
- Severe bedridden, over 24 hours
- Malignant hyperthermia, be sure to ask about family history

Rocuronium

- NON-DEPOLARIZING
- Slower onset
- Higher dose has quicker onset
- Rocuronium 0.6-1.2mg/kg
- Reversal agent: Sugammadex 4-16mg/kg
- Very expensive
- Try to optimize with BVM

Ketamine

Pros:

- Hemodynamically stable (except in extreme shock situations)
- Analgesia
- Maintain airway reflex
- Bronchodilator

Cons:

- Increased HR/BP
- Evidence has disproven concern for increased ICP and intraocular pressure

Ketamine 0.5-2mg/kg

Midazolam

Pros:

- Can be given intranasal
- Anti-convulsant

Cons:

- Hypotension
- Apnea
- No analgesia effect

Midazolam 0.05-0.1mg/kg IV

Not typically used at pediatric centres, but if it's what you have, you can make it work!

Pros:

• Quick onset, quick offset

Cons:

- Hypotension
- Peds prone to propofol infusion syndrome
- Apnea
- No analgesia

Propofol 0.5-2mg/kg

Propofol



Pros:

- Hemodynamically stable
- Decreased cerebral blood flow and O2 demand (improves ICP)

Cons:

• Emesis

• Adrenal suppression, PALS recommends avoiding in sepsis, consider dose of Hydrocortisone if using

Etomidate 0.2-0.3mg/kg

Place tube and prove placement

Careful securing of tube as shorter tracheal length can result in easy accidental extubation with head movement





Post-Intubation Management

Medication	Bolus Dosing	Drip	Comments
Lorazepam	0.1 mg/kg		Long acting sedative/amnesic Often used in combination with analgesic
Midazolam	0.1 mg/kg	0.1 mg/kg/h	Short-acting sedative/amnestic Often used in combination with analgesic
Fentanyl	1 to 2 mcg/kg	1 mcg/kg/h	Short-acting analgesia Preserves hemodynamic stability
Morphine	0.1 to 0.2 mg/kg	0.1 mg/kg/hr	Longer-acting analgesic May cause histamine release
Ketamine		0.1 mg/kg/h	Bolus dosing not recommended for prolonged ongoing sedation May be helpful in status asthmaticus
Propofol		50 to 100 mcg/kg/min	No analgesic properties Prolonged infusion in children can lead to profound acidosis and rhabdomyolysis

Laryngospasm

- Transient spasm of vocal cords
- Results in sustained closure of cords with partial or complete loss of airway
- On exam:
 - Stridor or absent breath sounds
 - Desaturation
 - Increased work of breathing
 - Difficulty bagging





Risk Factors for Laryngospasm

- Insufficient depth of anesthesia
- Induction
- Emergence
- Airway irritation
- Volatile anesthetics
- Mucous/blood
- Manipulation ex. Suctioning
- Airway device ex. LMA
- Asthma
- Young children
- Recent URTI
- Obesity with OSA
- GERD
- Anatomical anomaly or airway surgery

Needle Cricothyrotomy

Indications

- Failed intubation and inability to bag-mask ventilate
- Airway obstruction above level of cricothyroid membrane
- Age less than 10-12yo

Contraindications

 Laryngeal transection or fracture

Complications

- Subcutaneous emphysema
- Bleeding
- Malposition
- Infection
- Posterior tracheal wall perforation
- Pneumothorax
- Barotrauma

Equipment



Steps

- Emergency consent
- Prepare equipment
- Sterile prep
- Landmark
- Insert 14G angiocath with 5cc syringe partially filled with saline at 15-45 degrees angled caudad
- Advance needle until able to aspirate air
- Advance angiocath and remove needle
- Connect angiocath to 2.5 ETT adapter or 3cc syringe with 7.0 ETT adapter
- Place oral or nasal airway to maintain patency, avoid breath stacking



Source: Goodman DM, Green TP, Unti SM, Powell EC: Current Procedures: Pediatrics: www.accesspediatrics.com Copyright © The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. All rights reserved.

References

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