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Capnography Reference Handbook



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About This Handbook

This handbook has been prepared by Respiroics as a reference for Health Care Professionals who are interested in capnography. It is divided into the following three sections:

- The clinical need for capnography based on the physiology and patho-physiology of respiration.
- Technical aspects of capnography.
- Examples and clinical interpretations of CO₂ waveforms.

We hope that this reference can enhance the utility of capnography in the clinical setting.

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Physiologic Aspects and the Need for Capnography

Respiration

The Big Picture:

The respiratory process consists of three main events:



Cellular Metabolism of food into energy –
O₂ consumption and CO₂ production.



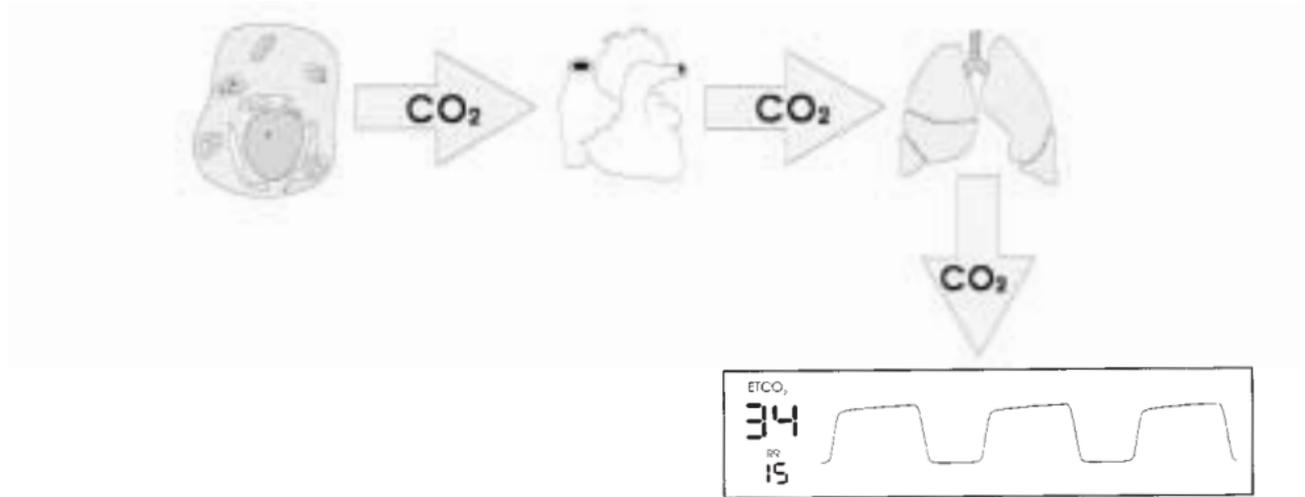
Transport of O₂ and CO₂ between cells and pulmonary
capillaries, and diffusion from/into alveoli.



Ventilation between alveoli and atmosphere.

Capnography Depicts Respiration

Because all three components of respiration (metabolism, transport, and ventilation) are involved in the appearance of CO_2 in exhaled gas, capnography gives an excellent picture of the respiratory process.



Note: Of course, oxygenation is a major part of respiration and therefore must also be monitored in order to complete the picture. This can be accomplished through pulse oximetry, which is not covered in this handbook.

Factors Affecting Capnographic Readings

The factors which can affect capnographic readings can be classified as follows:

Physiologic



Factors which can affect CO₂ production include substrate metabolism, drug therapy, and core temperature.



Factors affecting CO₂ transport include cardiac output and pulmonary perfusion.

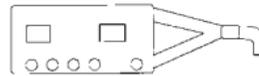


Factors which can affect ventilation include obstructive and restrictive diseases, and breath rate.

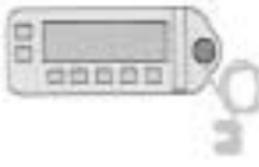


Ventilation-perfusion ratios (described on page 11) can also affect capnographic readings.

Equipment



Ventilator settings and malfunctions, tubing obstructions, disconnections, and leaks can all affect capnographic readings.



Sampling method and site, sample rate (if side-stream), as well as monitor (capnograph) malfunctions can affect capnographic readings.

Physiologic Factors Affecting ETCO₂ Levels



Increase in ETCO₂



- Increased muscular activity (shivering)
- Malignant hyperthermia



- Increased cardiac output (during resuscitation)
- Bicarbonate infusion
- Tourniquet release



- Effective drug therapy for bronchospasm
- Decreased minute ventilation



Decrease in ETCO₂

- Decreased muscular activity (muscle relaxants)
- Hypothermia
- Decreased cardiac output
- Pulmonary embolism
- Bronchospasm
- Increased minute ventilation

Equipment Related Factors Affecting ETCO₂ Levels



Increase in ETCO₂

- Malfunctioning exhalation valve
- Decreased minute ventilations settings

Decrease in ETCO₂

- Circuit leak or partial obstruction
- Increased minute ventilation settings
- Poor sampling technique



Dead Space

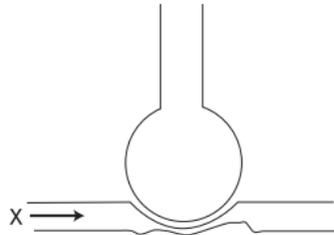
Dead space refers to ventilated areas which do not participate in gas exchange. Total, or physiologic dead space, refers to the sum of the three components of dead space as described below:

TOTAL (PHYSIOLOGIC) DEAD SPACE =



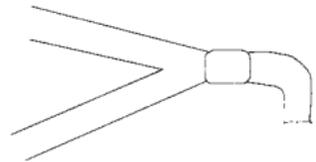
Anatomic dead space refers to the dead space caused by anatomical structures, i.e., the airways leading to the alveoli. These areas are not associated with pulmonary perfusion and therefore do not participate in gas exchange.

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Alveolar dead space refers to ventilated areas which are designed for gas exchange, i.e. alveoli, but do not actually participate. This can be caused by lack of perfusion, e.g., pulmonary embolism, or blockage of gas exchange, e.g. cystic fibrosis.

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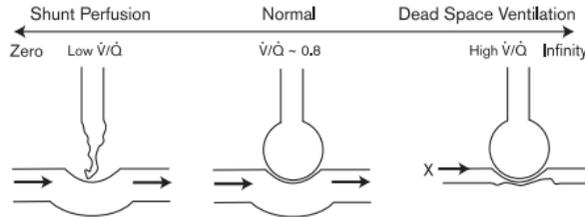
Mechanical dead space refers to external artificial airways which add to the total dead space, as when a patient is being mechanically ventilated. Mechanical dead space is an extension of anatomic dead space.

Ventilation-Perfusion Relationships

The ventilation-perfusion ratio (V/Q) describes the relationship between air flow in the alveoli and blood flow in the pulmonary capillaries. If ventilation is perfectly matched to perfusion, then V/Q is 1. Both ventilation and perfusion are unevenly distributed throughout the normal lung. However, the normal overall V/Q is 0.8.

Shunt perfusion occurs under conditions in which alveoli are perfused but not ventilated, such as:

- Mucus plugging
- ET tube in mainstream bronchus
- Atelectasis



Ventilation-Perfusion Spectrum

Dead space ventilation occurs under conditions in which alveoli are ventilated but not perfused, such as:

- Pulmonary embolism
- Hypovolemia
- Cardiac arrest

Normal Arterial and End-Tidal CO₂ Values

Arterial CO₂ (PaCO₂)

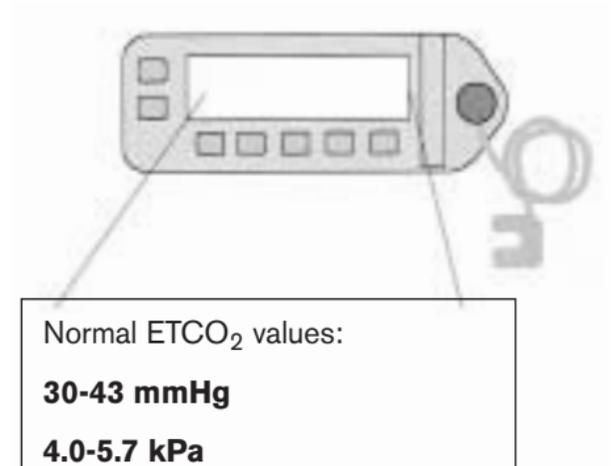
from Arterial Blood Gas sample (ABG)

Normal PaCO₂ values:

35-45 mmHg

End-Tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂)

from Capnograph



Normal ETCO₂ values:

30-43 mmHg

4.0-5.7 kPa

4.0-5.6%

Note: Numbers shown correspond to sea level.

Arterial to End-Tidal CO₂ Gradient

Under normal physiologic conditions, the difference between arterial PCO₂ (from ABG) and alveolar PCO₂ (ETCO₂ from capnograph) is 2-5 mmHg. This difference is termed the PaCO₂ – PETCO₂ gradient or the a-ADCO₂ and can be increased by:

- COPD (causing incomplete alveolar emptying).
- ARDS (causing a ventilation-perfusion mismatch).
- A leak in the sampling system or around the ET tube.

With both healthy and diseased lungs, ETCO₂ can be used to detect trends in PaCO₂, alert the clinician to changes in a patient's condition, and reduce the required number of ABGs.



With **healthy lungs** and normal airway conditions, end-tidal CO₂ provides a reasonable estimate of arterial CO₂ (within 2-5 mmHg).



With **diseased/injured lungs**, there is an increased arterial to end-tidal CO₂ gradient due to ventilation-perfusion mismatch. Related changes in the patient's condition will be reflected in a widening or narrowing of the gradient, conveying the V/Q imbalance and therefore the pathophysiological state of the lungs.

Display of CO₂ Data

CO₂ data can be displayed in a variety of formats, such as numerics, waveforms, bar graphs, etc. The next few pages briefly describe:

Capnography vs. Capnometry

- Definitions
- Capnography is more than ET_{CO₂}

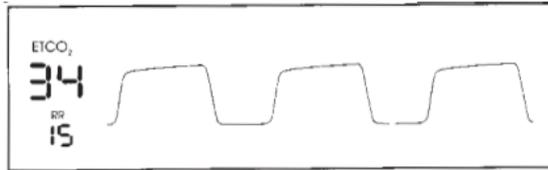
Display Formats for End-Tidal CO₂

- Quantitative vs. Qualitative
- ET_{CO₂} Trend Graph and Histogram

Capnography vs. Capnometry

Definitions

Often times little or no distinction is made between the terms capnography and capnometry. Below is a brief explanation:



Capnography refers to the comprehensive measurement and display of CO₂ including end-tidal, inspired, and the capnogram (real-time CO₂ waveform). A capnograph is a device which measures CO₂ and displays a waveform.



Capnometry refers to the measurement and display of CO₂ in numeric form only. A capnometer is a device which performs such a function, displaying end-tidal and sometimes inspired CO₂.

Capnography is More than ETCO₂

As previously noted, capnography is comprised of CO₂ measurement **and** display of the capnogram. The capnograph enhances the clinical application of ETCO₂ monitoring.

Value of the Capnogram

The capnogram is an extremely valuable clinical tool which can be used in a plethora of applications, including but by no means limited to:

- Validation of reported end-tidal CO₂ values
- Assessment of patient airway integrity
- Assessment of ventilator, breathing circuit, and gas sampling integrity
- Verification of proper endotracheal tube placement

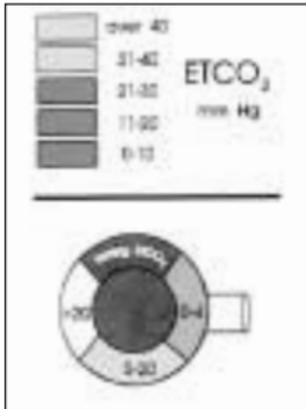
Viewing a numerical value for ETCO₂ without its associated capnogram is like viewing the heart rate value from an electrocardiogram without the waveform. End-Tidal CO₂ monitors that offer both a measurement of ETCO₂ **and** a waveform enhance the clinical application of ETCO₂ monitoring. The waveform validates the ETCO₂ numerical value.

Quantitative vs. Qualitative ETCO₂

The format for reported end-tidal CO₂ can be classified as quantitative (an actual numeric value) or qualitative (low, medium, high):



Quantitative ETCO₂ values are currently associated with electronic devices and usually can be displayed in units of mmHg, %, or kPa. Although not absolutely necessary for some applications, i.e., verification of proper ET tube placement, quantitative ETCO₂ is needed in order to take advantage of most of the major benefits of CO₂ measurements.



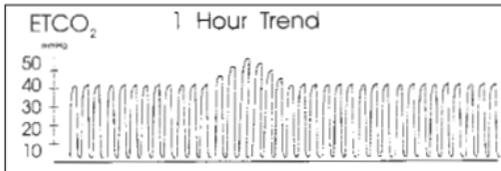
Qualitative CO₂ measurements are associated with a range of ETCO₂ rather than the actual number. Electronic devices usually present this as a bar graph, while colorimetric devices are presented in a percentage range grouped by color. If the ranges are numeric as is usually the case, e.g., <5, 5-10, >20 mmHg, it is said to be semiquantitative. These devices are termed CO₂ detectors, and their applications are typically limited to ET tube verification.

ETCO₂ Trend Graph and Histogram

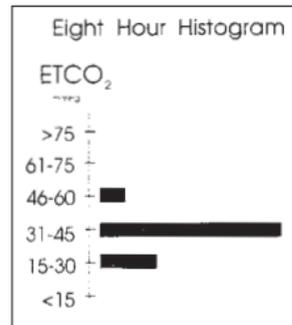
The trend graph and histogram of ETCO₂ are convenient ways to clearly review patient data which has been stored in memory. They are especially useful for:

- Reviewing effectiveness of interventions, e.g., drug therapy or changes in ventilator settings
- Noting significant events from periods when the patient was not continuously supervised
- Keeping records of patient data for future reference

An **ETCO₂ trend graph** is shown for a one-hour time period. Note the transient rise in ETCO₂, indicating possible administration of a bicarbonate bolus or release of a tourniquet.



An **ETCO₂ histogram** is shown for an eight hour time period. This format shows a statistical distribution of ETCO₂ values recorded during the time period.



Technical Aspects of Capnography

CO₂ Measurement Techniques

Various configurations and measurement techniques are currently available in devices which measure CO₂, some of which are briefly described below:

Infrared (IR) absorption

- Principle
- Solid State vs. Chopper Wheel
- Mainstream vs. Sidestream Sampling

Colorimetric Detectors

- Principle

Other techniques not included in this discussion are mass spectrometry, Raman scattering, and gas chromatography.

Infrared (IR) Absorption

The infrared absorption technique for monitoring CO₂ has endured and evolved in the clinical setting for over two decades, and remains the most popular and versatile technique today.

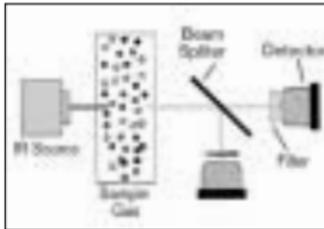
Principle

The principle is based on the fact that CO₂ molecules absorb infrared light energy of specific wavelengths, with the amount of energy absorbed being directly related to the CO₂ concentration. When an IR light beam is passed through a gas sample containing CO₂, the electronic signal from a photodetector (which measures the remaining light energy), can be obtained. This signal is then compared to the energy of the IR source, and calibrated to accurately reflect CO₂ concentration in the sample. To calibrate, the photodetector's response to a known concentration of CO₂ is stored in the monitor's memory.

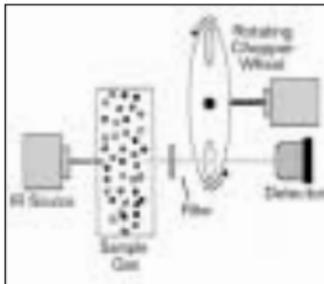
Infrared (IR) Absorption (cont.)

Solid State vs. Chopper Wheel

Since the intensity of the IR light source must be known for a CO₂ measurement to be made, some method must be employed to obtain a signal which makes that correlation. This can be done with or without moving parts:



Solid state CO₂ sensors use a beam splitter to simultaneously measure the IR light at two wavelengths: one which is absorbed by CO₂ (data) and one which is not (reference). Also, the IR light source is electronically pulsed (rather than interrupting the IR beam with a chopper wheel) in order to eliminate effects of changes in electronic components. The major advantage of solid state electronics is durability.



CO₂ sensors which are not solid state employ a spinning disk known as a chopper wheel, which can periodically switch among the following to be measured by the photodetector:

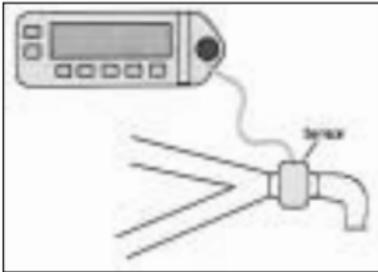
- The gas sample to be measured (data)
- The sample plus a sealed gas cell with a known CO₂ concentration (reference)
- No light at all

Due to the moving parts, this type of arrangement tends to be fragile.

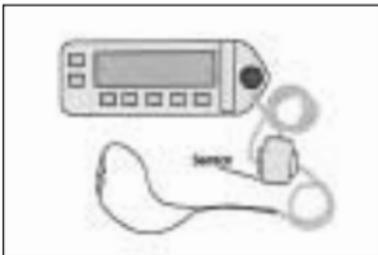
Infrared (IR) Absorption (cont.)

Mainstream vs. Sidestream Sampling

Mainstream and sidestream sampling refer to the two basic configurations of CO₂ monitors, regarding the position of the actual measurement device (often referred to as “the IR bench”) relative to the source of the gas being sampled:



Mainstream CO₂ sensors are placed at the airway of an intubated patient, allowing the inspired and expired gas to pass directly across the IR light path. State-of-the-art technology allows this configuration to be durable, small, and lightweight, and virtually hassle-free. The major advantages of mainstream sensors are fast response time and elimination of water traps.

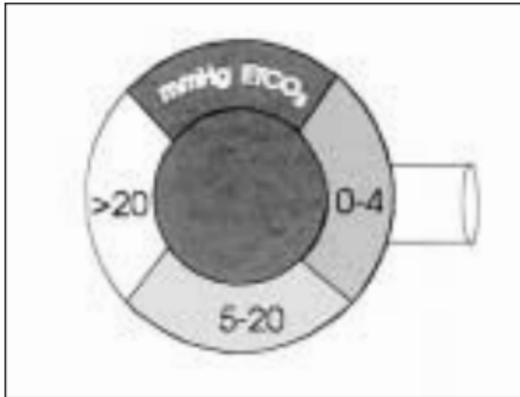


Sidestream CO₂ sensors are located away from the airway, requiring a gas sample to be continuously aspirated from the breathing circuit and transported to the sensor by means of a pump. This type of system is needed for non-intubated patients.

Colorimetric CO₂ Detectors

Principle

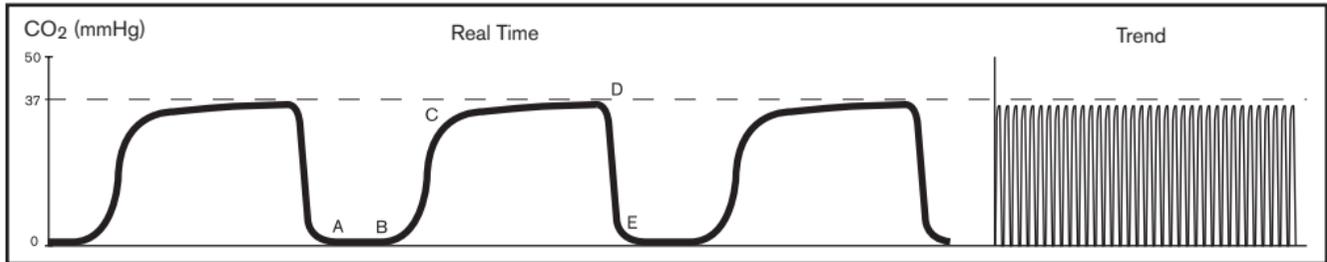
Colorimetric CO₂ detectors rely on a modified form of litmus paper, which changes color relative to the hydrogen ion concentration (pH) present.



Colorimetric CO₂ detectors actually measure the pH of the carbonic acid that is formed as a product of the reaction between carbon dioxide and water (present as vapor in exhaled breath). Exhaled and inhaled gas is allowed to pass across the surface of the paper and the clinician can then match the color to the color ranges printed on the device. It is usually recommended to wait six breaths before making a determination.

Capnogram Examples and Interpretations

Normal Capnogram



The “normal” capnogram is a waveform which represents the varying CO₂ level throughout the breath cycle.

Waveform Characteristics:

A-B Baseline

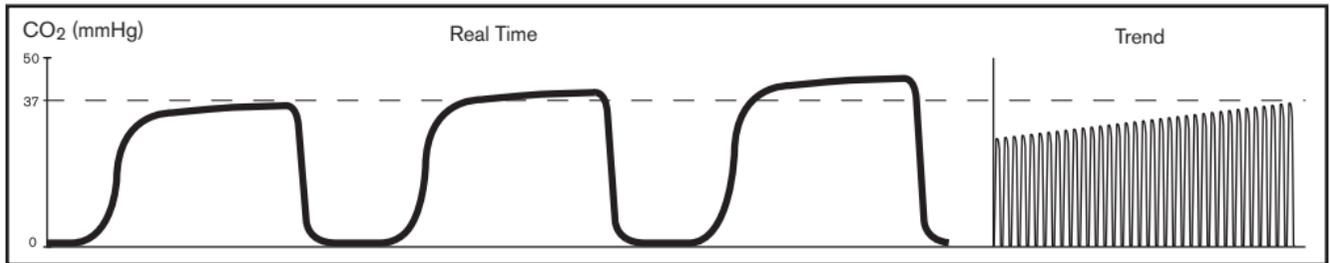
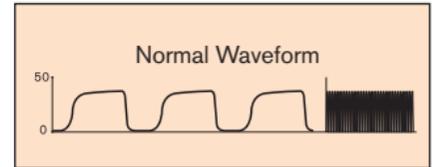
B-C Expiratory Upstroke

C-D Expiratory Plateau

D End-Tidal Concentration

D-E Inspiration

Increasing ETCO₂ Level

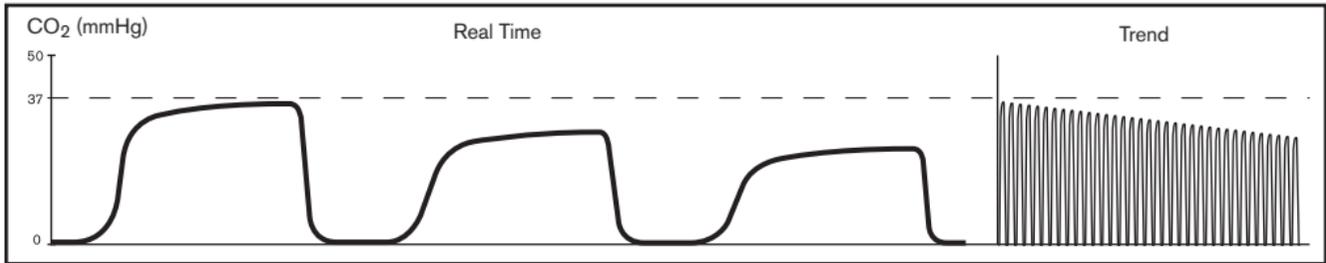
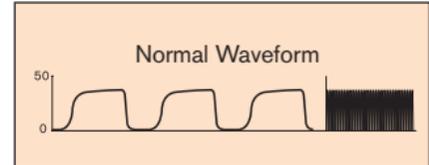


An increase in the level of ETCO₂ from previous levels.

Possible Causes:

- Decrease in respiratory rate (hypoventilation)
- Decrease in tidal volume (hypoventilation)
- Increase in metabolic rate
- Rapid rise in body temperature (malignant hyperthermia)

Decreasing ETCO₂ Level

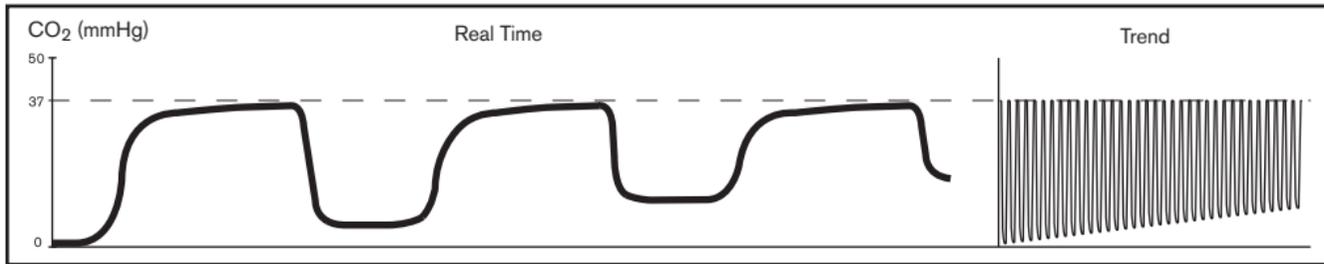
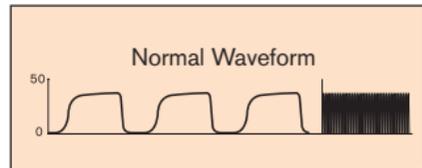


An decrease in the level of ETCO₂ from previous levels.

Possible Causes:

- Increase in respiratory rate (hyperventilation)
- Increase in tidal volume (hyperventilation)
- Decrease in metabolic rate
- Fall in body temperature

Rebreathing

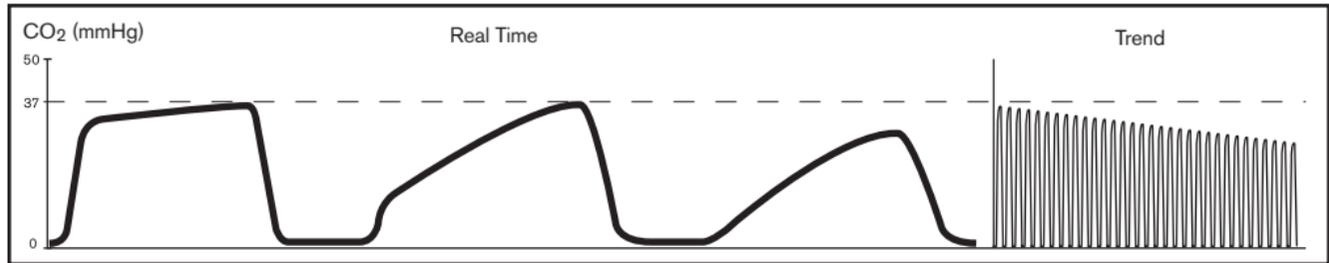
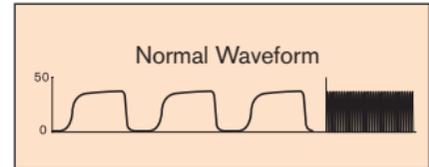


Elevation of the baseline indicates rebreathing (may also show a corresponding increase in ETCO₂).

Possible Causes:

- Faulty expiratory valve
- Inadequate inspiratory flow
- Malfunction of a CO₂ absorber system
- Partial rebreathing circuits
- Insufficient expiratory time

Obstruction in Breathing Circuit or Airway

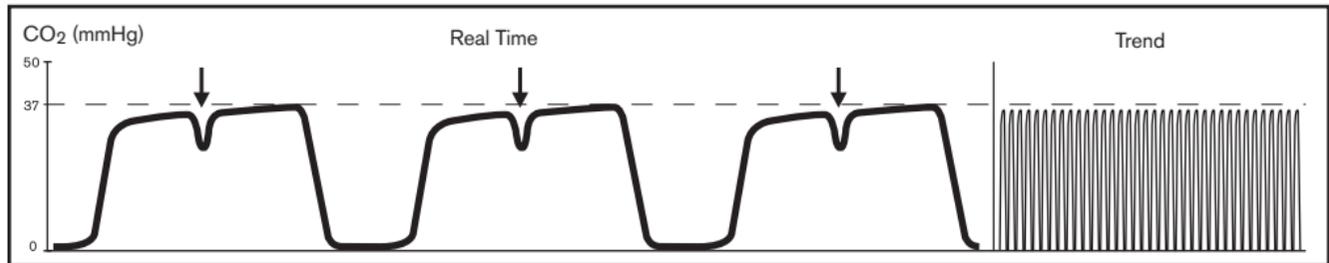
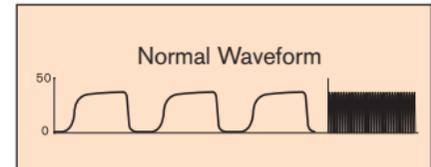


Obstructed expiratory gas flow is noted as a change in the slope of the ascending limb of the capnogram (the expiratory plateau may be absent).

Possible Causes:

- Obstruction in the expiratory limb of the breathing circuit
- Presence of a foreign body in the upper airway
- Partially kinked or occluded artificial airway
- Bronchospasm

Muscle Relaxants (curare cleft)

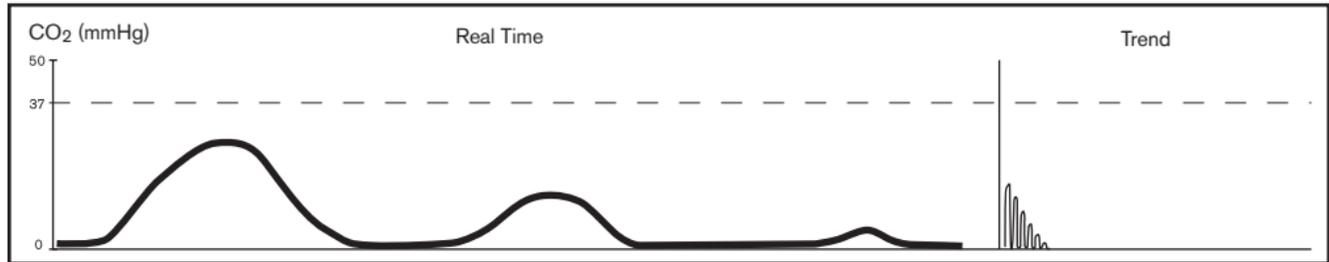
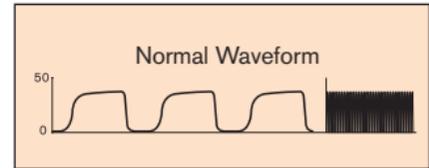


Clefts are seen in the plateau portion of the capnogram. They appear when the action of the muscle relaxant begins to subside and spontaneous ventilation returns.

Characteristics:

- Depth of the cleft is inversely proportional to the degree of drug activity
- Position is fairly constant on the same patient but not necessarily present with every breath

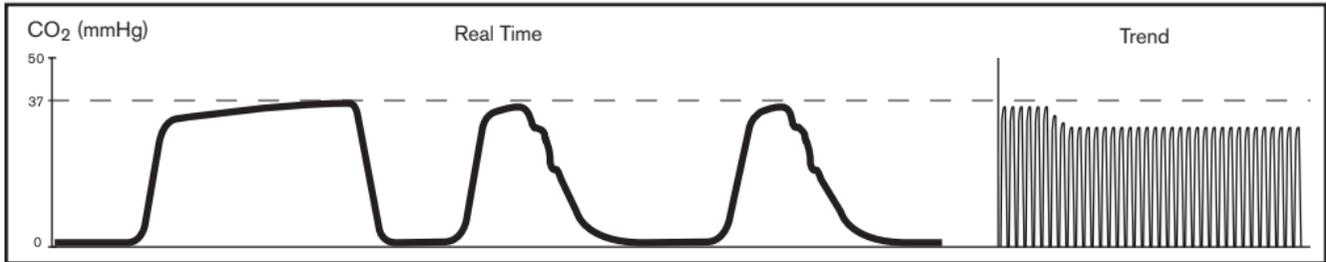
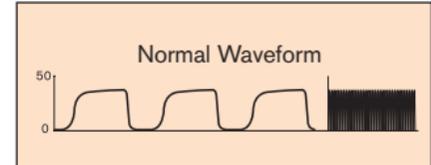
Endotracheal Tube in the Esophagus



Waveform Evaluation:

A normal capnogram is the best available evidence that the ET tube is correctly positioned and that proper ventilation is occurring. When the ET tube is placed in the esophagus, either no CO₂ is sensed or only small transient waveforms are present.

Inadequate Seal Around Endotracheal Tube

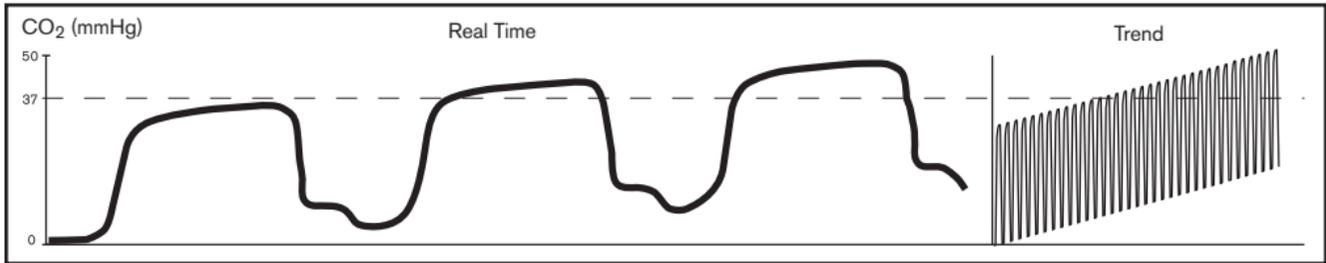
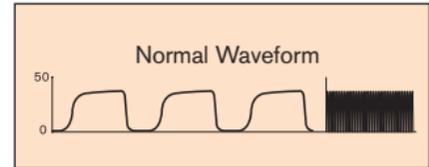


The downward slope of the plateau blends in with the descending limb.

Possible Causes:

- A leaky or deflated endotracheal or tracheostomy cuff
- An artificial airway that is too small for the patient

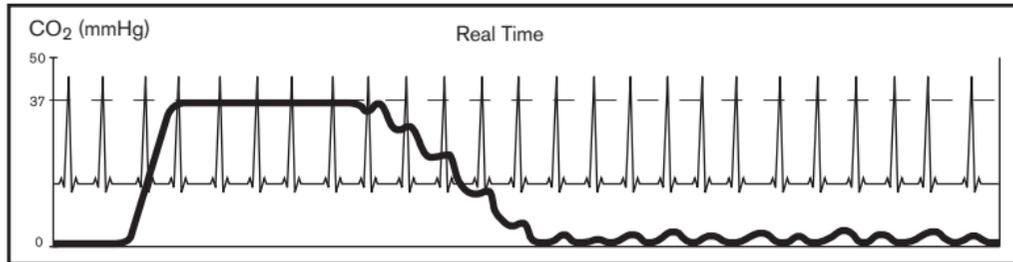
Faulty Ventilator Exhalation Valve



Waveform Evaluation:

- Baseline elevated
- Abnormal descending limb of capnogram
- Allows patient to rebreathe exhaled gas

Cardiogenic Oscillations



Cardiogenic oscillations appear during the final phase of the alveolar plateau and during the descending limb. They are caused by the heart beating against the lungs.

Characteristics:

- Rhythmic and synchronized to heart rate
- May be observed in pediatric patients who are mechanically ventilated at low respiratory rates with prolonged expiratory times

Glossary of Terms

Capnography

Measurement and graphic as well as numeric display of carbon dioxide.

Capnometry

Measurement and numeric display of carbon dioxide.

Dead Space

Area of the lungs and airways (including artificial) that do not participate in gas exchange.

End-Tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂)

Peak concentration of carbon dioxide occurring at the end of expiration.

Pulmonary Perfusion

Blood flow through the lungs (pulmonary capillaries).

Shunt Perfusion

Areas of the lung that are perfused with blood but not ventilated.

Substrate Metabolism

Oxidation of carbohydrate, lipid, and protein for energy.

Ventilation-Perfusion Ratio (V/Q)

Ratio of ventilation (air flow) to perfusion (blood flow).



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