

**Percutaneous Tracheostomy
in Anaesthetic and Intensive Care
Practice**

An Essay

*Submitted for Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree
In Anaesthesia and Intensive Care*

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ABBREVIATIONS

BP	Blood pressure
COPD	Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
CPAP	Continuous positive airway pressure
CT	Computed tomography
ECG	Electrocardiogram
ENT	Ear, nose and throat
ET tube	Endotracheal tube
ETCO_r	End tidal CO _r
FG	French gauge
FiO_r	Fractional inspired oxygen
FRC	Functional residual capacity
GI	Gastrointestinal
H	Hour
HDU	High dependency unit
HME	Heat moisture exchange
ICP	Intracranial pressure
ICU	Intensive care unit
ID	Internal diameter
INR	International normalised ratio
IPPV	Intermittent positive pressure ventilation
kg	Kilogram
LMA	Laryngeal mask airway
min	Minute
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
MRSA	Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus
NG	Nasogastric
PaC_r blood	Partial pressure of carbon dioxide in arterial blood
PaO_r	Partial pressure of oxygen in arterial blood
PEEP	Positive end expiratory pressure
PcT	Percutaneous tracheostomy
s	Second
SaO_r	Arterial oxygen saturation
SLT	Spoken language translation
USS	Ultrasound scan

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INTRODUCTION

The trachea is easily accessible at the bedside. As such it provides ready access for emergency airway cannulation (e.g, in the setting of acute upper-airway obstruction) and for long-term airway access after laryngeal surgery. The procedure can be done surgically or percutaneously, and with either technique the procedure can be performed in the operating room or at the bedside in the intensive care unit (ICU).

A tracheostomy is most commonly performed in patients who have had difficulty in weaning from mechanical ventilation, and less commonly in those who have suffered trauma or some catastrophic insult. Infections and neoplastic processes are less common diseases that require a surgical airway.

No absolute contraindication exists to tracheostomy, a strong relative contraindication to discrete surgical access to the airway is the anticipation that the blockage is laryngeal carcinoma.

In the last 10 years, surgical tracheostomy is replaced by percutaneous dilatation tracheostomy, because the second one is a noninvasive technique that requires less equipments and it consumes less time with less complications.

Anaesthesia for percutaneous tracheostomy is mainly by local anaesthesia to avoid hazards of general anaesthesia and its complications.

HISTORY

The oldest known reference identifying a procedure akin to a tracheostomy is found in a sacred Hindu book from the second millennium before Christ. The first successful tracheostomy was recorded in 1546 by an Italian physician (*Antonio Moussa Brasavola*) for a patient suffering from a laryngeal abscess. In the mid-1800s, this procedure was performed on children with diphtheria. The technique was further refined and became widely accepted by the work of Chevalier Jackson who defined the indications and technique for performing the procedure (*Jackson, 1923*).



Figure 1: Boy with tetanus in Leeds unit, 1950s (*Ablett, 1956*).

HISTORY OF PERCUTANEOUS TRACHEOSTOMY:

There were devices available historically to facilitate rapid percutaneous tracheostomy but without the benefit of guidewires and flexible dilators/introducers. Such devices were inherently unsafe and never achieved widespread usage. The Italian surgeon SanctorioSanctorius (1561-1636), a professor at the University of Padua, was probably the first surgeon to describe percutaneous tracheostomy(*Shelden et al., 1900*).

Sanctorius described the procedure in his book but does not seem to have performed it himself (*Shelden et al., 1900*).

The term percutaneous tracheostomy was first used by Shelden in 1900. To minimize the risk of damaging vital structures, Shelden first introduced a slot-needle into the tracheal lumen. He loaded the cannula onto a cutting trocar, slid it along the slot and then introduced it into the tracheal lumen(*Toye and Weinstein, 1969*).

In 1969, Toye and Weinstein used a Seldinger guidewire to allow the safe introduction of a cannula, providing a vital step towards popularisation of percutaneous techniques (*Toye and Weinstein, 1969*).

Pasquale Ciaglia, a thoracic surgeon at St Elizabeth Hospital, New York, was concerned about tracheal stenosis from surgical tracheostomy. Encouraged by work done by

Brantigan and Grow in 1976 on crico-thyroidotomy, Ciaglia first developed subcricoid fingertip tracheostomy before moving on to full percutaneous tracheostomy, where the only incision needed is to the skin to admit the index finger for palpation of the cartilages (*Brantigan and Grow, 1976*).

He reported the first percutaneous progressive dilatational technique in June 1980 on a series of 26 patients. He used a modified percutaneous nephrostomy set to perform the tracheostomy (*Ciaglia et al, 1980*).

ANATOMY OF THE TRACHEA

The lower respiratory tract starts at the vocal cords. Inferior to the vocal cords, the rigid cricoid cartilage encases a 1.5–2.5-cm region known as the subglottic space. Access to this space is possible via the crico-thyroid ligament, a membrane that runs from the thyroid cartilage inferiorly to the cricoid cartilage. Inferior to the cricoid cartilage is the trachea, a cylindrical tube that extends inferiorly and slightly posteriorly. The trachea is made up of 18–22 C-shaped rings consisting of rigid cartilage anteriorly and laterally, and a membranous posterior portion (*Epstein, 2009*).

In the average adult, the distance from the cricoid to the carina is approximately 11 cm in length, with a range of 10–13 cm. On average, the trachea is 2.5 cm in width and 1.8 cm from posterior membrane to the anterior cartilaginous aspect. The trachea is wider in men than in women (*Rood, 1989*).

In examining the landmarks of the neck, it is evident that the trachea is protected by strap muscles (sternohyoid, sternothyroid and sternocleidomastoid) and bony structures (manubrium sterni and body of sternum) (**Fig. 2**) (*Heffner and Sahn, 1987*).

Furthermore, the trachea is positioned posterior to a number of blood vessels and the thyroid isthmus. Branches of

the bronchial, inferior thyroid, innominate, and subclavian arteries provide the blood supply to the trachea (*Streitz and Shapshay, 1991*).

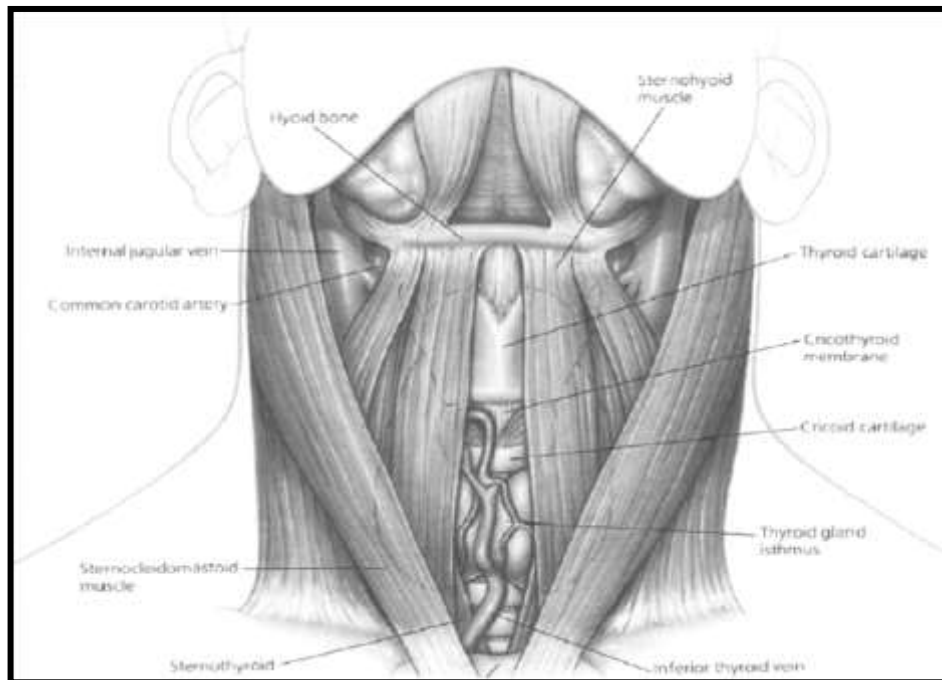


Figure 2:Major landmarks in the neck(*Moore, 2010*).

Knowledge of neck and tracheal anatomy is essential for understanding the various approaches to establishing a tracheostomy. As an example, surgical tracheostomy tubes are typically placed in the region of the 2nd to 4th tracheal rings and may entail removal of tracheal cartilage or the creation of a cartilaginous flap. Percutaneous tracheostomy tubes are typically placed between the 1st and 2nd or between the 2nd and 3rd tracheal cartilages (**Fig. 3**)(*Silvestri and Colice, 1993*).

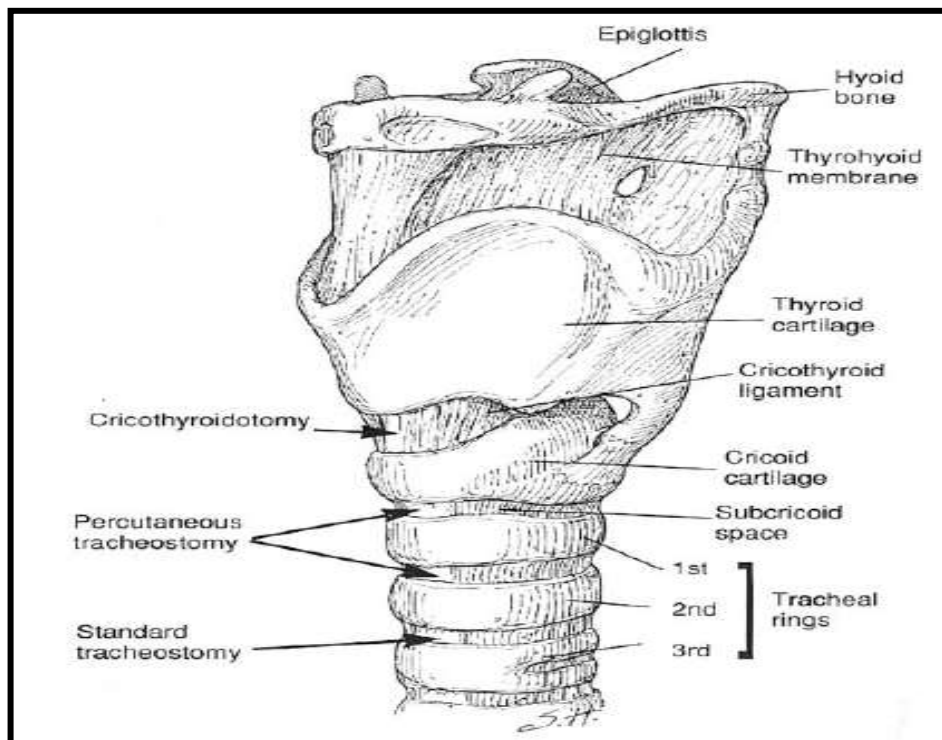


Figure ۳:Anterior oblique view of larynx and trachea. The preferred anatomic locations for placing standard tracheostomy, percutaneous tracheostomy, and cricothyroidotomy are indicated (**Epstein, ۲۰۰۵**).

There is a difference between tracheal position in youth and old people, so tracheal position is extended in youth in normal standing and flexed in old people in normal standing.

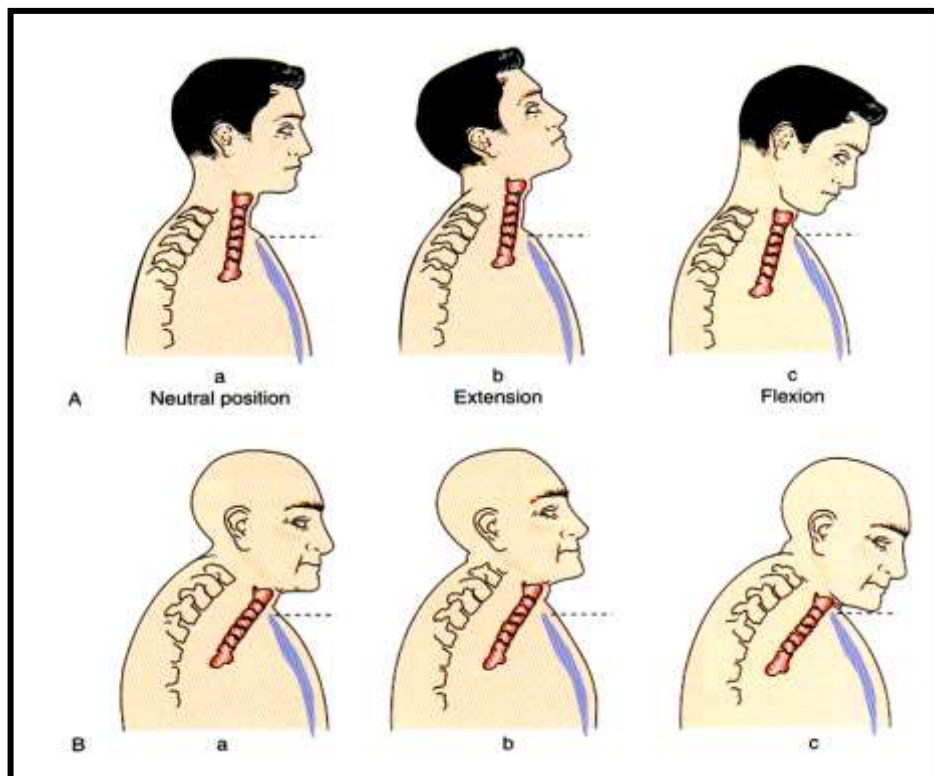


Figure 4: Tracheal position in youth and old age with cervical extension and flexion. The trachea is much more vertical on lateral projection in youth (A) than in old age (B). A, (a) In youth, approximately one-third of the trachea is in the neck above the sternum (*dashed line*) in neutral position, (b) With cervical extension, one-half or more rises into the neck, (c) Most of the trachea devolves into the thorax on full flexion. B, In the aged, the level of the larynx (a) changes little with attempted cervical (b) extension and (c) flexion. Surgical implications are obvious. (*Mathisen and Muniappan, 2011*)