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Difficult intubation predictors in obstructive sleep apnea patient

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Abstract

OSA refers to a chronic condition of sleeping disorders affecting breathing due to the presence of upper airway obstruction, and episodic attacks of apnea or hypopnea during sleep. In anesthesia of OSA cases, the essential worry of the vast majority of anesthetists is to assess the airway due to the elevated risk of DTI (Difficult tracheal intubation) in comparison with the normal individuals. According to American society of anesthesiology, DTI refers to trials to intubate the patient for > 2 times or trials lasting >10 min by qualified anesthesiologist. The clinical tests for prediction of DTI aren't efficient in OSA patients. However, the measurement of NC (neck circumference), MP (Mallampati) scoring and TM (thyromental) distance are helpful as a part of preoperative airway assessment; yet can't be applied in emergency or critical care as the patient is usually not cooperative to follow instructions. There are two intubation techniques: Primary which include direct, indirect and awake fibrotic intubation (AFOD). Secondary intubation techniques. SAD has a pivotal function during managing cases having difficult airways. Potential uses of ultrasound are to predict difficult intubation, diagnose OSA, confirm endotracheal tube placement, predict efficient extubation, in addition to US-guided superior laryngeal nerve block.

Keywords: Obstructive sleep apnea, intubation predictors

Introduction

Obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA) is the most fatal type of breathing sleep disorders, manifested by repeated attacks of obstruction of the upper airway partially or completely leading to insufficient alveolar gas exchange with consequently desaturation^[1, 2].

The different abnormalities of the airways that manifest as OSA are big sized tongue, collapsible airways and crowded Oropharyngeal components, etc.^[3]. Indeed, US is considered a highly sensitive and distinct modality for predicting troublesome intubation in OSA cases presented for elective operation vis measurement of TBT, distances between lingual arteries (DLA), HMD in addition to the condylar mobility^[4].

Causes of difficult airway^[5]:

- Congenital syndromes like^[6, 7]: Pierre-Robin, Treacher-Collins, Goldenhar, down, Kippel-Feil syndromes.
- Acquired: infection, arthritis, benign or malignant tumours, trauma, obesity, acromegaly goiter disease as well as acute burn^[8].

A global assessment should include the following: Inter-incisor distance, teeth, palate, temporo-mandibular joint movement, measuring the sub mental space, observing the neck of the patient, existences of hoarse voice / stridor or history of tracheostomy, systemic or congenital diseases, presence of infections of airway and presence of some physiological conditions like pregnancy and obesity^[9].

Specific tests for assessment: [Mallampatti's test^[10] and thyromental (T-M) distance (Patil's test)].

Scores for airway assessment

- Wilson score system
- LEMON airway assessment method
- Cormack –lethane scoring system.
- El-Ganzouri score

OSA severity classification

Mild type of OSA means that the apnea hypopnea index (AHI) reaches 5–15 episodes/ hrs. Moderate type means that the AHI reaches 15–30 episodes/hrs, whereas severe type means that the AHI reaches > 30 episodes /hrs [11].

Risk factors of OSA [12].

Obesity, older age, sex, nasal abnormalities, chronic nasal congestion, narrowed airway, DM Type 2, dyslipidemia, hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, smoking, alcohol consumption, asthma, COPD and family history of sleep apnea [13].

Diagnosis of OSA

- **Symptoms of OSA:** Snoring, repeated breaks in breathing, excess somnolence during the day, morning headache, restlessness and depression or irritability [14, 15].
- **Signs of OSA:** loud snoring, observing periodic stoppage of breathing during sleep, sudden awakening associated with gasping or choking, waking up with dryness of mouth or sore throat, morning headaches, excessive daytime sleepiness, poor concentration during the daytime, altered mood, increased ABP and accentuated P2 heart sounds (pulmonary hypertension) [12].
- **Screening tools:** [STOP-BANG questionnaire, Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS) and Berlin Questionnaire], polysomnography (PSG)] [16, 17].
- **Complications of OSA:** Daytime fatigue and sleepiness, hypertension, DM, cardiovascular problem, depression and anxiety, difficult airway postoperative complication [intensive care unit (ICU) admission, confusion, pneumonia, bleeding and prolonged hospitalization and sleep-deprived partners [15, 18, 19].

Management of OSA**Conservative treatments include**

1. Patient education, weight reduction, positional therapy, smoking cessation, avoidance of alcohol, sleeping tablets and sedatives.
2. Non-surgical treatment
 - **Positive airway pressure (PAP) treatment:** it represents the primary modality of management in OSA. Multiple equipment for delivering PAP have been developed, the commonest is continuous PAP (CPAP) which can maintain a continuous level PAP in spontaneously breathing patients [20, 21].

- **Mouthpiece (oral device):** Although PAP is usually efficient in the management of OSA, oral appliances can be used instead of it in some cases with mild or moderate OSA. In addition, it can be used for cases with severe OSA who cannot use CPAP [22].
- **Pharmacological treatment:** Weight-loss, nasal decongestants, serotonergic medications, noradrenergic medications, potassium channel blockers, carbonic anhydrase inhibitor and potassium-sparing diuretic.

Surgical treatment: The goal of surgery is to ameliorate the QOL, decrease the risk of cardiovascular & cerebrovascular or other medical events as well as increase longevity. Upper airway surgery is efficient in cases who have OSA because of a marked obstruction of the upper airway caused by a problem that can be corrected via surgery, although PAP remains first-line therapy in many patients with anatomic abnormalities of the upper airway [23].

Airway management in OSA

In anesthesia of OSA patients, the essential worry of the vast majority of anesthetists is to assess the airway due to the elevated risk of DTI (Difficult tracheal intubation) in comparison with normal individuals [24]. DTI is determined according to the American society of anaesthesiology as > 2 trials at intubation or trials lasting >10 min by qualified anesthesiologist [25].

Predictors of difficult airway endotracheal intubation (by direct intubation) [26]

- Prior difficult intubation.
- Interincisor (Intergingival in edentulous patients) distance < 4 cm / 3 fingers.
- HMDe (HM distance in cases of extension) < 5.3 cm, HMDn (in neutral position) ≤ 5.5 cm, and HMD Ratio ≤ 1.2 [27] (Figure 1).
- Thyromental distance is less than 6 cm [28] (Figure 1).
- Sternomental distance is less than 12 cm (Figure 1).
- Head and neck extension is less than 30° from neutral (Figure 1).
- MP Oropharyngeal classification class III & IV [29].
- Insufficient protrusion of the mandible (the patient is unable to place lower incisors anterior to upper incisors) or Upper Lip Bite Test Class III (the patient is unable to touch his upper lip by the lower teeth) [30].
- NC (Neck circumference) > 50 cm [31].
- Cervical fat pad or 'hump' [32].
- Lack of sub-mental compliance (hard and noncompliant).
- Obstructive Sleep Apnea due to the presence of bulky neck soft tissue in addition to the collapsible airway.
- Higher LEMON scores [33].

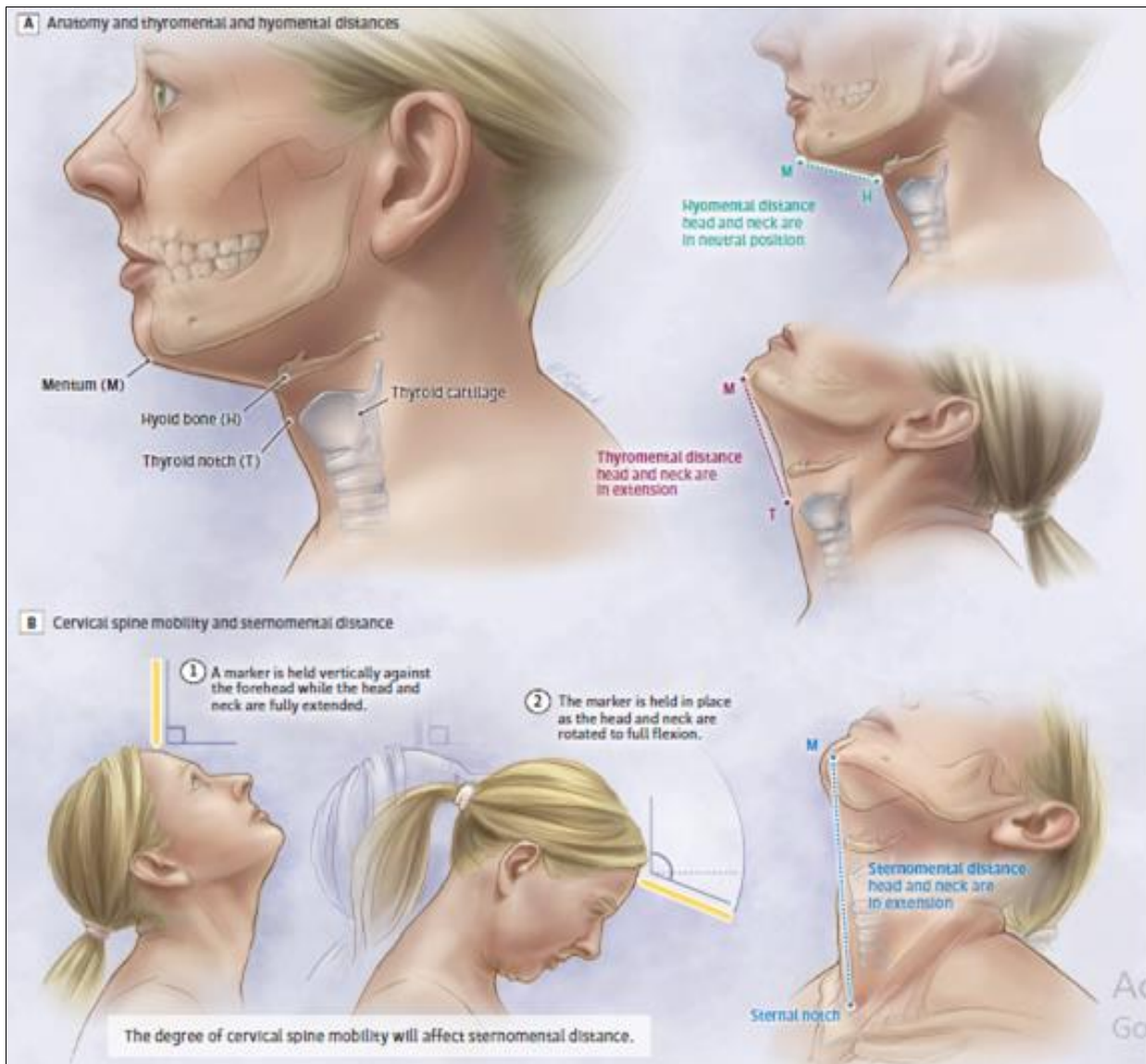


Fig 1: Measurement for TM, sternomental, and HM distance. [30]

The clinical tests utilized to predict DTI aren't useful in OSA patients. However, measuring NC (neck circumference), MP (Mallampati) scoring and TM (thyromental) distance are helpful as a part of preoperative airway assessment, yet can't be applied in emergency or critical care as the patient is usually not cooperative to follow instructions [24]. The rationale for using US (ultrasound) for assessing tissues surrounding the larynx depends upon observing the process of intubation by introducing the blade in the mouth directly and displacing the tongue, epiglottis and hyoid bone into the subglottal space [34].

Primary intubation techniques

- **Direct intubation:** various approaches can be used instead of the direct intubation as primary intubation method such as the indirect intubation, the usage of semi-rigid scopes as well as the fiberoptic intubation [24, 35].
- **Indirect intubation:** multiple studies have demonstrated the usage of indirect intubation for facilitating tracheal intubation in cases with OSA. The Airtraq laryngoscope was designed to help visualizing the glottis along with the passage of endotracheal tube

(ETT) across the vocal cords without requiring positioning of the oral, pharyngeal and laryngeal axes [36]. Videointubation enhances the CL (Cormack – lehane) grade of view in comparison with the direct intubation in the majority of OSA cases [37].

- **Awake fiberoptic intubation (AFOI):** Some physicians prefer such approach when there's marked decrease of inter-incisor distance. AFOI specifically has a place in OSA cases where there's previous experience of difficult mask ventilation and/or DTI [38], or where this was expected from the indirect laryngoscope. Secondary intubation approaches that utilize ventilation via a LMA or supraglottic equipment, have made AFOI less commonly used in OSA cases [24].

Secondary intubation techniques

Supraglottic airway devices (SAD) have a crucial role in managing cases having difficult airway. In contrast to other alternative methods to standard tracheal intubation, such as videointubation or intubation stylets, they permit ventilation even in cases having difficult face mask ventilation and synchronous usage as a conduit for TI. Insertion doesn't cause trauma, their usage is considered familiar from elective anesthesia, and in comparison with TI, can be

learned easily for users with little experience in dealing with the airway [39, 40].

Postoperative airway complications

there are many Severe life-threatening complications including severe hypoxemia (decreased SpO₂ levels \leq 80 percent during attempts), excessive CVS collapse (systolic ABP 65 mmHg recorded \geq one time or 90 mmHg for 30 minutes in spite of administration of 500–1000 ml of crystalloids/or colloids solution loading and/or necessitating administration of vasoactive support, cardiac arrest, and mortality [39, 41]. Mild to moderate drawbacks include oesophageal intubation, supraventricular & ventricular arrhythmia, or all (without a pulseless rhythm) necessitating treatment, dental injuries, aspiration, or dangerous irritability [41].

Management using CPAP or BiPAP (bilevel PAP) as a prophylactic measure reduces postoperative airway obstruction, pulmonary dysfunction and might reduce the rate of respiratory infections [42]. Intubation and extubation have to be carried out very cautiously in obese cases suffering OSA since they're more sensitive to opioid-induced respiratory depression, they should be monitored continuously either visually or electronically [43]. Pulmonary function might improve via the use of good analgesics; yet opioid analgesia should be administered with cautious in such patients.

Ultrasonographic parameters that predict difficult intubation

Essential uses of US are to predict difficult intubation, diagnose OSA, confirm placing of the endotracheal tube, predict efficient extubation, and US-guided superior laryngeal nerve block [44]. Various studies have proved the distinction of US-guided methods compared to the landmark approach in determination of structures. US guidance promotes the approach safety and operator confidence in addition to decreasing the time needed to perform such approaches [45].

The linear high-frequency transducer is quite appropriate in imaging superficial airway's structure (within 2–3 cm from the skin) and the curved low-frequency transducer, is highly efficient in imaging sagittal and parasagittal view of various components in the submandibular as well as supraglottic areas, particularly due to the wider field of view [46].

Cartilaginous components (thyroid & cricoid cartilages) are homogeneous with hypochoicity. Muscle and connective tissue are shown as hypochoic striated heterogeneously arranged appearance. Fat and glandular components are shown as homogeneous areas with mildly to strongly hyperechoic compared to the nearby soft tissues, according to their fat content in the glands [47]. Figure 2-3.

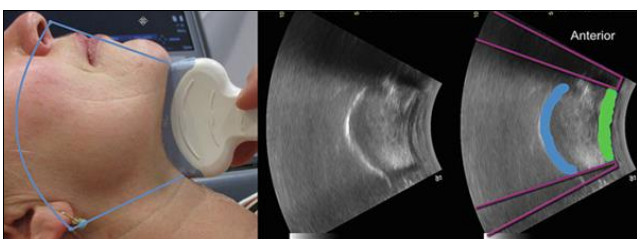


Fig 2: Sagittal scanning plane of mouth and tongue

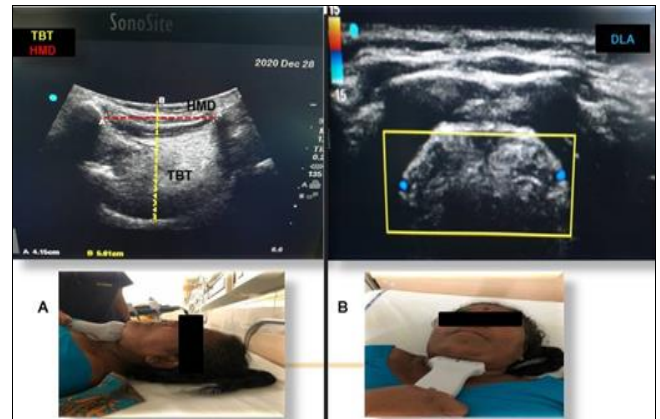


Fig 3: US distances, types of scan probes and positions: TBT (Tongue base thickness); HMD (Hyo-mental distance); DLA (Distance between lingual arteries). A- Curvilinear probe, mid-sagittal plane; B- Linear probe, transverse plane [48]

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