- COMMENTARY —

Endotracheal Suctioning Is Basic Intensive Care or Is it?

Commentary on article by Copnell et al. on page 405

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A lthough the need for intensive care has often been defined by the need for ventilation, and there are literally thousands of publications on techniques, principles, complications, and challenges of ventilation, there is a surprising lack of evidence for best practice regarding a fundamental technique in ventilation: suctioning of the airway. Since tracheostomy or endotracheal intubation was first undertaken, potential obstruction of the endotracheal tube by mucus has been a consistent and life-threatening problem. That has been particularly true for infants and children, especially those with increased respiratory secretions. The obvious (not always so easy) solution is adequate humidification and suctioning. Thus, endotracheal suctioning is probably the most common procedure in pediatric and neonatal intensive care practice.

The ideal suctioning technique would be pain- and discomfort-free, safe (with no adverse events such as loss of lung volume, desaturation, cardiovascular changes, CNS changes, damage to the respiratory system at any level, introduction of infection, *etc.*), and effective (removing all excessive secretions, keeping the endotracheal tube clear and unobstructed).

The reality is that suctioning has been associated with a plethora of adverse events and unpleasant side effects. In preterm infants, it has been associated with changes in cerebral oxygenation (1,2) and pressures (3) and hemodynamics (2-4); in infants, with atelectasis (5), transient bacteremia (6), hypoxia, and cardiovascular changes (7,8); and in children with hypoxia (8) and upper lobe atelectasis (9). For obvious reasons, we do not have the patient's perspective on endotracheal suctioning in infancy. However, in adult studies endotracheal suctioning is clearly remembered as unpleasant and in a recent study, pain on

endotracheal suctioning was rated as moderate to severe by more than half the patients (10).

Although detailed recommendations for suctioning technique are available in most pediatric intensive care textbooks, the underlying evidence for the recommendations is often limited and is based on adult data. Although preoxygenation has been widely recommended as a means of decreasing complications after endotracheal suctioning, recent reviews concluded that there was not adequate evidence to fully support the practice in preterm infants (11,12). Similarly there was inadequate evidence to support the practice of nondisconnection of the ventilator during suctioning (13). Recently, a reviewer was unable to find any evidence to address the question of whether endotracheal suctioning in neonates should be limited to keeping the suction catheter within the endotracheal tube or whether it should be extended into the trachea beyond (14). An adult study showed that minimally invasive suctioning (limited to endotracheal tube) was associated with fewer adverse events, no deleterious effects (15), and less subsequent recall of endotracheal suctioning (16). Within the published pediatric literature, there is a wide range of techniques reported (Table 1).

In 1991, Singh *et al.* (17) were among the first to examine detailed techniques in pediatric suctioning (Table 1). Since then a number of studies have focused on the process of endotracheal suctioning. Initial studies considered the theoretical aspects of flow within the endotracheal tube during suctioning (18) and moved on to data obtained with a simple model. Those data were expanded with some studies considering lung mechanics after endotracheal suctioning (19,20). Some elegant theoretical (20,21) and practical studies followed, which highlighted the complexity of flows within suction catheters and endotracheal tubes during endotracheal suction.

The effects of endotracheal suctioning probably depend on many issues including underlying lung pathology, patient sedation and use of paralysis, the details of the suctioning technique, particular ventilatory techniques such as pressure control or volume control modes (22), the use of

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Table 1. Some recent publications on endotracheal suctioning in infants and children

Patient group	Suction pressure	Catheter sizes	Suction technique	Outcome	Reference
17 ventilated infants (age 6.5 + 5 mo)	80,100, and 120 mm Hg	Ratio of outer diameter of suction catheter to inner diameter of endotracheal tube of 0.4, 0.7, and 0.9	Not fully reported	Significant changes in HR, bp, saturation and ICP with all systems. Ratio of 0.7 seemed most effective	17
200 neonates of varying size studied within the first 10 d of life	Not recorded	Not recorded	Instilling 0.5 mL normal saline into the ETT; passing a sterile suction catheter to the end of the ETT (and applying continuous suction as the catheter was withdrawn over 10–15 s. 2 passes of the technique	Infants took longer to return to baseline after open suctioning	24
14 patients aged 6 d to 13 y	100 mm Hg for open and 120 mm Hg for closed suction	8F for endotracheal tube sizes 3.5–4.0 mm and 10F for endotracheal tube sizes 4.5–6.0 mm	Up to 3 passes of 10 s each	Consistently higher losses of volume with open suctioning technique	26
15 extreme low-birthweight infants (range 470–975 g) at mean age of 139 d	Suction pressure was maintained at 100 mm Hg	Not reported	Instillation of 0.2 mL 0.9% saline, followed by 2 passages of the suction catheter to 0.5 cm beyond the tip of the endotracheal tube. After insertion catheter, suction was applied for 1 s before withdrawal	Closed system associated with fewer and less severe episodes of desaturation than open system	25
54 children (median age, 3.3 mo) ventilated with size 4 or less ETT	-360 mm Hg	Variable depending on ETT size	1 pass (open technique) with catheter in ETT for about 10 seconds, but shorter duration suction	Significant drop in dynamic compliance after suctioning	36
30 infants (10 (median weight 3.38 kg and age 3 d) on HFOV and 20 (median weight 1.93 kg and age 18.5 d) on conventional ventilation	6 s at –19 kPa	6F regardless of ETT size	2 passes of 6 s each at 1-min interval	No difference of open vs closed on conventional ventilation, but tend to increased drop in lung volume with open on HFOV	27

HR, heart rate; ICP, intracranial pressure; ETT, endotracheal tube; HFOV, high frequency oscillatory ventilation.

PEEP (23), and potentially whether recruitment maneuvers are used after the procedure.

A number of studies have focused on the issue of whether "open" or "closed" systems make a significant difference (24-26). Hoellering *et al.* (27) have recently reported on their studies on endotracheal suctioning in 20 infants [mean gestational age 34.5 wk (24-40 wk), chronological age 18.5 d (3-61 d), and weight 1.93 kg (0.57-5.68 kg) kg] on conventional ventilation. There was no difference in the drop in lung volume (as measured by respiratory impedance tomography) after open or closed suctioning. By contrast, there was a trend toward a drop in lung volume after open suctioning for a group of 10 infants [mean gestational age 40 wk (23-42 wk), chronological age 3 d (1-38 d), and weight 3.28 kg (0.83-3.70 kg)], who were on highfrequency ventilation.

In this edition of the journal, Copnell *et al.* (28) have presented data on "the effect of suction method (open, closed in-line and closed with a side-port adaptor), catheter size and suction pressure on lung volume changes during endotracheal suction" during both conventional and highfrequency oscillatory ventilation. They provided a very carefully standardized model of animals with lung injury analogous to surfactant deficiency (newborn piglets after multiple saline lavage), standardized the ventilatory approach to these animals in line with current recommendations for the ventilation of infants (children and adults) with ARDS, standardized the lung volume of the subjects at all test points, and applied a standardized suction technique with a single pass of the suction catheter to the end of the ETT and 6 s of applied suction (at different pressures). In this study, closed systems did seem to be advantageous with regard to maintenance of lung volume, but only in certain circumstances, and even then not at a clinically significant level.

How do these findings relate to current practice in intensive care? First, the specific condition that has been modeled is analogous to hyaline membrane disease and ARDS in older infants and children. In pediatric practice, ARDS is a relatively uncommon reason for ventilation, and much more work will be needed to optimize suctioning in patients with more common conditions such as bronchiolitis and viral or bacterial bronchopneumonia. In a population of patients with variable pathology Choong *et al.* (26) demonstrated an increased loss of lung volume in patients with "noncompliant lungs" (compliance <0.8 mL cm H_2O^{-1} kg⁻¹ and fraction of inspired oxygen requirements ≥ 0.4).

The issue of preoxygenation and preparation for suctioning needs to be addressed (11,12). In this particular study, animals were maintained on fraction of inspired oxygen of 1.0 throughout, and the animals were paralyzed and sedated (unlike current practice in most neonatal and pediatric intensive care units).

In both this article (28) and previous studies from the same group (21,29), it was notable that, when using the two smaller catheters (6 and 7FG) at the highest pressure, volume loss was less than or similar to that generated by an 8-FG catheter at the lowest pressure. Thus, recommendations for suctioning need to address both catheter size and suctioning pressure. Furthermore, there was a wide variation in changes in lung function measurements with suctioning—a feature of much the pediatric work related to suctioning and chest physiotherapy techniques (30,31)—despite the standardization of the model.

This article has not addressed the issue of whether there may be regional changes in lung volume (with or without overall changes in lung volume). Lindgren *et al.* (32) in an animal model of acute lung injury (saline lavage) demonstrated that the lung volume loss was predominantly in dorsal regions of the lung (and not from the overall lung), with almost complete deaeration of these areas during open suctioning. They applied suctioning for 10 s with vacuum level -20 kPa (~ -150 mm Hg, -200 cm H₂O) and a 14-F catheter.

The article was not directed at the question of what pattern or method of suctioning is most effective at removing secretions (as pointed out by the authors in the Discussion). In a study of 18 adult patients with acute lung injury (33), it was noticeable that open suctioning removed significantly more secretions than closed suctioning (despite worse desaturation associated with open suctioning). Similarly, more secretions were removed with a suction pressure of $-400 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}$ than with $-200 \text{ cm H}_2\text{O}$ (32). In previous animal studies (20,23), open suction techniques removed more secretions than closed systems.

Clearly, there is much work to be done to understand the influence of different suctioning systems, different methods and techniques of suctioning, the underlying respiratory pathophysiology of the child, the best possible ways of timing the need for suctioning, and the best techniques for removal of troublesome secretions.

As we learn more about appropriate suctioning techniques, it is probably as important that we address ways of implementing this research at the clinical level. Recently, Kelleher and Andrews (34) studied the practice of open endotracheal suction in two adult intensive care units and found substantial variation in practice and poor adherence to best practice suctioning recommendations. They reported significant discrepancies in practices regarding respiratory assessment techniques, hyperoxygenation and infection control practices, patient reassurance, and the level of negative pressure used to clear secretions. Encouragingly, Day *et al.* (35) demonstrated improvement in both knowledge and practice in a group of nurses who were provided with focused teaching on endotracheal suction techniques.

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