1	3D imaging based web application for tracheal tube depth in preterm
2	neonates.
3	
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16	
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34	
35	What's known on this subject
36	Correct depth insertion of a tracheal tube (TT) is challenging in preterm infants. Currently
37	there is no reliable single-predictor model for neonates applicable to the whole range of size
38	or age.
39	

# 40 What this study Adds

41	We used 3D fetal images to measure mid-tracheal length, to help predict ideal tracheal tube
42	insertion depth in preterm infants. Our best model is available as an easy to use internet
43	application, using 4 clinical variables.
44	
45	Contributors statement
46	
47	Raksa Tupprasoot: Dr Tupprasoot helped co-design the study, performed the literature
48	search, carried out the data analysis, and drafted the intial manuscript.
49	Dean Langan: Dr Langan performed the statistical analysis for the study, and critically
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51	J Ciaran Hutchinson: Dr Hutchinson carried out the data analysis and critically reviewed
52	the manuscript
53	Hannah Barrett: Dr Barrett carried out the data analysis and critically reviewed the
54	manuscript.
55	Mike Sury: Dr Sury co-designed the study, performed the literature search, and critically
56	reviewed the manuscript.
57	Owen Arthurs: Dr Arthurs co-designed the study, supervised the data collection, and
58	critically reviewed the manuscript.
59	

60	All authors have participated sufficiently in this submission and take public responsibility for
61	its content. All authors have approved the final version as submitted, and agree to be
62	accountable for all apsects of the work.
63	

## 65 Abbreviations:

66	PM MRI	post mortem magnetic resonance imaging
67	TT	Tracheal tube
68	TD	internal tracheal diameter
69	GA	gestational age
70	FL	foot length
71	CRL	crown-rump length
72	BW	body weight
73	3D	Three dimensional
74	Mid-TL	mid-tracheal length, defined as the distance between the lips and the
75		mid tracheal point
76	uAL	upper airway length, defined as the distance from the lips to the glottis.
77	total	total airway length, defined as the distance from the lips to the carina
78	TL	tracheal length = totAL-uAL
79		
80		
81		
82		

#### 83 Abstract

84 Background: Positioning a tracheal tube (TT) to the correct depth in pre-term infants is
85 challenging. Currently there is no reliable single-predictor model for neonates applicable to

the whole range of size or age.

87 Objective: In this study, we used post mortem magnetic resonance images from preterm88 infants to measure tracheal dimensions and to develop a clinical guide for TT positioning.

Methods: We measured tracheal length and diameter in a cohort of normal neonates and
foetuses who underwent post mortem MRI (cause of death unexplained). The distance
between the lips and the mid tracheal point (mid-tracheal length = mid-TL) and tracheal
diameter (TD) was obtained. We produced univariate prediction models of mid-TL and TD,
using gestational age (GA), foot length (FL), crown-rump length (CRL) and body weight
(BW) as potential predictors, as well as multiple prediction models for mid-TL.

95 **Results:** Tracheal measurements were performed in 117 cases, with mean GA 28.8 w (range 96 14 to 42 w). The best linear relationship was between mid-TL and FL (mid-TL = FL \* 0.914 97 + 1.859;  $R^2$ =0.94) but was improved by multivariate regression models. We developed a 98 prediction tool using only gestation and body weight ( $R^2$  =0.92) which is now available as a 99 web-based application via the internet.

100 Conclusion: Post mortem imaging data provides estimates of TT insertion depth. Our
101 prediction tool based on age and body weight <u>can be used at the bedside and is ready to be</u>
102 tested in clinical practice.

#### 104 Introduction

105 Correct depth insertion of a tracheal tube (TT) is essential to avoid misplacement into the106 bronchus or the pharynx, and this becomes more challenging as infant size decreases. Ideally,

107 the TT tip should be placed at the mid-point between the larynx and the carina, and although

108 its position can be checked by chest X-rays [1], repositioning is frequently necessary [2].

109

110 Methods used to investigate the correct or ideal TT depth have involved either imaging with 111 conventional chest radiographs or post mortem (PM) autopsy [3-6] and several formulae or 112 rules have been published to help accurate predict safe insertion depth. Studies have shown 113 that airway length and tube insertion depth have linear relationships with body weight [7], 114 gestation[8], foot length [9], and body size such as crown-rump [10] or crown-heel lengths 115 [4, 10]. The European Resuscitation Council has recommended that the TT depth estimation 116 should be based on gestation [11] although in practice, the difference between body weight 117 and gestation may not be appreciable [12]. However, most of the published studies have 118 involved too few very (<32-28 w) or extremely preterm (<28w) infants and relationships 119 change or become non-linear when infants less than 1 kg are included [8, 13, 14]. Currently 120 there is no reliable single-predictor model for neonates applicable to the whole range of size 121 or age.

122

Modern three dimensional (3D) cross-sectional imaging can be used to measure airway and
tracheal dimensions and should be more accurate than simple 2D chest radiography. 3D
imaging of airway structures is only rarely indicated in live preterm infants, but recently PM
magnetic resonace imaging (PMMRI) is being used routinely to investigate the cause of death

127	[15]. Our institutional autopsy imaging database provides 3D data on the airway dimensions
128	in a wide range of fetuses and neonates and could prove useful to develop a mathematical
129	model for the bedside. Furthermore our database includes fetuses younger than 22w gestation
130	who although being too preterm to survive, may be of future interest.
131	
132	The aim of this study was to use 3D detailed anatomy derived from fetal PMMRI to measure
133	airway parameters, and to develop a bedside mathematical tool to predict optimal TT
134	insertion depth.
135	
136	Methods
137	Recruitment and criteria
138	We evaluated PMMRI of all fetuses (miscarriages and stillbirths) aged less than 44 weeks
138 139	We evaluated PMMRI of all fetuses (miscarriages and stillbirths) aged less than 44 weeks gestation referred to our institution from February 2012 to September 2015. Ethical approval
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138 139 140 141   142   143 144 145	We evaluated PMMRI of all fetuses (miscarriages and stillbirths) aged less than 44 weeks gestation referred to our institution from February 2012 to September 2015. Ethical approval was obtained for analysis of PMMRI and written informed consent was obtained from parents. Bodies were stored in a mortuary at 4°C until PMMRI. <u>Cases were excluded if the</u> airway was abnormal on either PMMRI or subsequent autopsy, or where image quality was inadequate to permit measurements. Demographic data acquired from the clinical notes included gestational age (GA; weeks), body weight (BW; kg), foot length (FL; cm), and crown-rump length (CRL; cm).
138 139 140 141   142   143 144 145 146	We evaluated PMMRI of all fetuses (miscarriages and stillbirths) aged less than 44 weeks gestation referred to our institution from February 2012 to September 2015. Ethical approval was obtained for analysis of PMMRI and written informed consent was obtained from parents. Bodies were stored in a mortuary at 4°C until PMMRI. <u>Cases were excluded if the</u> airway was abnormal on either PMMRI or subsequent autopsy. or where image quality was inadequate to permit measurements. Demographic data acquired from the clinical notes included gestational age (GA; weeks), body weight (BW; kg), foot length (FL; cm), and crown-rump length (CRL; cm).

#### 149 Magnetic Resonance Imaging

150 Imaging was performed on a 1.5 T scanner (Avanto, Siemens Medical Solutions, Erlangen,

- 151 Germany) with a conventional phased array head coil. Conventional 3D T<sub>1</sub>-weighted and T<sub>2</sub>-
- 152 weighted sequences were examined by a pediatric radiologist for clinical purposes [16]. T<sub>2</sub>
- 153 weighted isotropic sequences of the head and chest were used to create 3D multi-planar
- 154 (sagittal, coronal and axial) datasets.

155

#### **156** Tracheal measurements

157 Reformatted images (Figure 1), using a Centricity Web DX Viewer (Centricity WebPACS
158 system, 2006; GE Healthcare, Chalfont St Giles, UK) were used to measure and calculate the
159 following:

- 160 1. upper airway length (uAL) = distance from lips to glottis. The position of the glottis
- 161 was defined that part of the airway at the level of C5/C6 intervertebral disc space
- because this has a close relationship with the cricoid cartilage;
- 163 2. total airway length (totAL) = distance from the lips to carina;
- 164 3. tracheal length (TL) = totAL-uAL;
- 165 4. the mid-tracheal length (mid-TL) = the distance between the lips and the mid-tracheal 166 point, and calculated as uAL+  $\frac{1}{2}$ TL; this is equivalent to a tracheal tube depth
- 167 5. internal luminal tracheal diameter (TD) measured at the mid-tracheal point.

168 All measurements were made to the nearest mm by a single observer (RS). Twenty datasets

169 were selected at random and measurements were repeated by a second observer, (OJA), to

170 assess inter-observer variability.

### 172 Statistical analysis

173 Univariate linear regression models were fitted for both outcome variables (mid-TL and TD) 174 using 4 predictors (GA, BW, FL and CRL). Two multivariate regression models were fitted 175 for mid-TL using (1) the two most readily available predictors (GA and BW and (2) all four 176 predictors. These prediction models were developed into a web application to for clinical 177 practice. For each regression model, subjects were identified in whom the model would have 178 predicted a mid-TL that would have resulted in a TT inserted either too short or too long (i.e. 179 the TT tip would be above the glottis or below the carina). Bland-Altman limits of agreement 180 were calculated to describe inter-observer variability of mid-TL and, using a regression 181 approach [17], to account for a relationship between variability and the mid-TL itself. All 182 analyses were carried out in R (version 3.3.0).

183

- 185 **Results**
- 186 Tracheal measurements were performed in 117 fetuses (mean GA 28.8 w, range 14 to 42 w;
- 187 17 fetuses were below 22 w, Table 1). The smallest infant weighed only 50g, and had a CRL
- 188 of 10cm. Mid-TL ranged between 2.8 and 10.8cm (Table 1).

190	All predictor variables had a strong linear relationship with mid-TL. FL had the highest
191	adjusted $R^2$ of 0.94 (Table 2) and produced the fewest predictions of tracheal tube tip
192	positioning below the carina 3 (2.6%) or above the glottis 2 (1.7%; Table 2 & Figure 2). BW
193	had the lowest adjusted $R^2$ of 0.86 but our results suggested that this may be because of a
194	non-linear relationship, particularly at low birth weights (log transformation R <sup>2</sup> 0.91; Figure
195	2). The multivariate regression model using all four predictors had only a marginally better fit
196	than the multivariate model with only GA and BW (adjusted $R^2 0.94$ and 0.92 respectively;
197	Table 3).
198	
199	Formulae for these models were made accessible through a web-based application
200	( <u>https://chpredict.shinyapps.io/shinyapp/</u> ; Figure 3).
201	
202	TD was only measurable in 58 (50%) of fetuses. Univariate prediction models for TD all had

- adjusted  $R^2 = 0.51$  to 0.53 and multivariate regression modelling was not undertaken.
- 204 Variability (agreement between observers) of mid-TL increased as mid-TL increased: 95%
- 205 limits of agreement were  $\pm 0.25$  cm and  $\pm 0.75$  cm for mid-TL 4cm and 10cm respectively.

207 Discussion

We used fetal PMMRI 3D images to measure mid-tracheal length, in order to produce a
mathematical model to help predict the ideal tracheal tube insertion depth in preterm infants.
Our best model to predict mid-TL uses 4 clinical variables, but a model using only GA and
BW was almost as good. Tracheal diameter was not easily or accurately measured due to
small size.

213

214 Other investigators have used PM fetuses and neonates to measure ideal TT insertion depth. 215 Embleton and colleagues (2001) dissected 39 specimens ranging from 24 to 43 weeks postmenstrual age and showed that FL was a much better predictor of TT depth ( $R^2 = 0.79$ ) 216 compared to BW ( $R^2 = 0.67$ ) and age ( $R^2 = 0.58$ ) [9]. Neonatal body dimensions however, 217 218 such as foot length and crown rump length, are neither routinely measured at birth nor readily 219 achievable in an emergency intubation setting. A prediction model combining body 220 dimensions with BW and GA may be more slightly more accurate but is less practical in a 221 clinical situation than a model using GA and BW alone.

222

Previous studies in live infants have developed formulae based on age and weight. The 7-8-9
rule used BW to estimate TT insertion depth defined as the distance from the lips to the level
of the first or second thoracic vertebra on a chest radiograph [7]. The derived formula was
length = 1.17 x BW + 5.58, which approximates to 6 + each kg body weight: this produces a
TT depth of 7 cm for 1 kg, 8 cm for 2 kg and 9 cm for 3 kg infants. The data in this study
from infants <1kg however were sparse, and Peterson and colleagues reported that the</p>
formula gave TT depths that were too long in preterm infants <750g [13]. An internet tool</p>

(currently available at http://www.nicutools.org/) uses the formula TT depth (cm) = 1.1 x BW
+ 6.1, but only for infants >1 kg: for smaller infants the TT depth is 5.5 cm if <500g, 6 cm if</li>
550 to 700g and 6.5 cm if 700 to 999 g. Kempley and colleagues reported that TT depth was
not linearly related to BW and that estimates based on GA reduced the need for TT
repositioning [8]. We found also that GA was not linearly related to mid-TL especially in our
smallest fetuses.

236

Nevertheless, a clinical study randomising neonates to receive a TT depth based on either GA
or BW suggested that there was no appreciable difference [12] and that neither predictor was
reliable at achieving satisfactory positioning: BW (the 7-8-9 rule) was successful in only 25
of 49 (51%) infants and GA was successful in 16 of 41 (39%) [18].

241

242 In light of these findings, our data and model may help to better predict the TT depth. Firstly, 243 our data is based on 3D anatomy of tracheal and airway measurements from MR imaging, 244 rather than two dimensional radiographic imaging using vertebral body heights as reference 245 levels for the trachea. Secondly, we provide new high quality data in the <22 week group 246 which increases the confidence in the mathematical model to predict mid-TL for potentially 247 viable infants of 23 to 25 week GA. Thirdly, our data supports the clinical findings of others 248 that any single predictor of TT depth is not as reliable as a combination of predictors. 249 Fourthly, by incorporating all our data, we have made available a web-based application, 250 which may be useful at the bedside. Whether using the data in this study improves ETT 251 placement accuracy remains to be determined in the appropriate clinical setting.

253 The main limitation of our study is that we did not measure the effect of the position of the 254 head and neck. Neck extension is known to lengthen the trachea [19 - 21] and imaging in a 255 defined neutral position would provide the most reliable predictions. There are physiological 256 changes which occur after death which may mean that our measurements will be different to 257 those in live infants. The trachea may be shorter at PM because the diaphragm applies less 258 traction [22] and therefore our formula may under-estimate mid-TL and TT insertion depth 259 for live infants. Collapse of the upper airway in a dead infant may account for a small degree 260 of measurement error and was most evident when we attempted to measure TD. Nevertheless 261 inter-observer variation was small and our measurements were repeatable. Our TT insertion 262 depths were also made to the nearest mm but clinicians may not be able to achieve accuracy 263 of insertion depth more than to the nearest 0.5cm; we recommend rounding up or down 264 appropriately. We look forward to testing our formula in clinical practice and potentially 265 improving it with additional PM imaging and clinical data.

266

#### 267 Conclusion

PM imaging data provides reproducible anatomical measures of tracheal length in order to
predict ideal tracheal tube insertion depth. We have provided an easy to use internet
application which may be used at the bedside to improve TT tube placement. This tool
remains to be validated in clinical practice.

272

273

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333	

336	Table legends
337	
338	Table 1.
339	Summary of demographic details.
340	midTL = $uAL + \frac{1}{2}$ (totAL- $uAL$ )
341	
342	Table 2.
343	Univariate linear models of mid-TL
344	
345	Table 3.
346	Multivariate linear models of mid-TL
347	
348	
349	

350	Figure legends

#### 352 Figure 1: Airway measurements

- 353 Example of multi-planar reconstruction (MPR) of PMMR sequence and tracheal
- 354 measurements from mouth to carina (left and centre, top & bottom row), mouth to epiglottis
- **355** (right, top and bottom row)

356

## 357 Figure 2. Relationship between mid-TL and GA

- 358 Scatter plots of mid-TL against the four predictor variables; GA (top-left), FL (top-right),
- 359 CRL (bottom-left) and PMW (bottom-right). Regression lines (from table 2) are plotted in
- 360 red. Vertical lines represent absolute tracheal length (TL) in each case, and those in red
- 361 represent where predicted mid-TL falls outside this range.

- 363 Figure 3. Screenshot of web-based application
- 364 Formulae for both multiple prediction models of airway to mid tracheal length are currently
- accessible through a web-based application situated at
- 366 <u>https://chpredict.shinyapps.io/shinyapp/</u>