

Original Article

Arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide difference in children undergoing mechanical ventilation of the lungs during general anaesthesia

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Summary

Capnography (ETCO₂) is routinely used as a non-invasive estimate of arterial carbon dioxide (PaCO₂) levels in order to modify ventilatory settings, whereby it is assumed that there is a positive gap between PaCO₂ and ETCO₂ of approximately 0.5 kPa. However, negative values (ETCO₂ > PaCO₂) can be observed. We retrospectively analysed arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide differences in 799 children undergoing general anaesthesia with mechanical ventilation of the lungs in order to elucidate predictors for a negative gap. A total of 2452 blood gas analysis readings with complete vital sign monitoring, anaesthesia gas analysis and spirometry data were analysed. Mean arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide difference was -0.18 kPa (limits of 95% agreement -1.10 to 0.74) and 71.2% of samples demonstrated negative values. The intercept model revealed PaCO₂ to be the strongest predictor for a negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference. A decrease in PaCO₂ by 1 kPa resulted in a decrease in the PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference by 0.23 kPa. This study demonstrates that ETCO₂ monitoring in children whose lungs are mechanically ventilated may paradoxically lead to overestimation of ETCO₂ (ETCO₂ > PaCO₂) with a subsequent risk of unrecognised hypocarbia.

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Introduction

Maintaining normocapnia during mechanical ventilation of the lungs in children undergoing general anaesthesia is highly recommended in order to avoid peri-operative central nervous system injury, particularly in younger patients and if combined with hypotension [1–3]. The gold standard in anaesthesia and intensive care units is intermittent determination of PaCO₂ by arterial blood gas analysis combined with continuous monitoring of end-tidal (ETCO₂) using

capnography. Capnography provides a non-invasive estimate of arterial CO₂ levels and allows clinicians to modify mechanical ventilation settings in order to maintain normocapnia. Normally, a positive gap between arterial CO₂ and ETCO₂ of approximately 0.5 kPa is assumed in a healthy patient and ventilation settings are adjusted accordingly [4]. However, we have observed that the arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide difference in children undergoing anaesthesia with mechanical ventilation of the lungs often resulted

in **negative values (ETCO₂ > PaCO₂)**. We therefore decided to measure arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide differences and to determine predictors for a negative gap in paediatric patients undergoing general anaesthesia with mechanical ventilation of the lungs.

Methods

Following local research ethics committee approval, children up to 18 years of age undergoing general anaesthesia with tracheal intubation, mechanical ventilation of the lungs and insertion of an in-dwelling arterial cannula for blood gas analysis were identified from a patient data management system (PDMS, deioRecorder™, deioWarehouse™ and deioAnalyzer™, Datex-Ohmeda, GE Healthcare, Helsinki, Finland). Patients with congenital cardiac abnormalities, those having surgical procedures that required cardiopulmonary bypass or patients with an uncuffed tracheal tube were not studied.

The retrospective analysis included paediatric patients anaesthetised between July 2009 and March 2015. The same arterial blood sampler syringe PICO 50 (Radiometer Medical ApS, Brønshøj, Denmark) and a single ABL 800 FLEX blood gas analysis machine (Radiometer Medical ApS, Brønshøj, Denmark) and were used for all arterial blood gas analyses. The ABL 800 FLEX blood gas analysis machine was regularly serviced and quality-checked by the hospital laboratory diagnostics department as well as the local distributor. The same anaesthetic machines with built-in ventilator (Datex-Ohmeda GE Healthcare, Helsinki, Finland) with AS5 anaesthesia monitoring, including spirometry and side-stream capnography (GE Healthcare) were used in all patients. Side-stream ETCO₂ was sampled in a volume of $200 \pm 20 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ by means of a sampling line connected to a heat- and moisture-exchanger (HME) filter (Pharma Systems, Knivsta, Sweden) or, when there were small-sized tracheal tubes, it was connected to a dead space adapter (Anandic Medical Systems AG, Feuerthalen, Switzerland).

Age, weight, sex, ASA physical status, cardiac abnormalities and cardiovascular diseases (such as pulmonary artery hypertension), as well as pulmonary diseases and respiratory infections, were recorded. The type of surgery and intra-operative prone or head-up position were also recorded from information provided

on the anaesthetic charts. Blood gas analysis and oximetry data with time-related vital sign monitoring, anaesthesia gas analysis and spirometry data (at 1 min intervals) were retrieved from the anaesthesia archive. Arterial CO₂ values provided by the blood gas analysis machine were corrected for temperature (pH_{stat}).

All data were recorded using Microsoft Excel 2010 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA, USA). Classical and modified Bland–Altman bias plots were used to compare PaCO₂ and ETCO₂. A random intercept model was run with the dependent variable PaCO₂–ETCO₂ difference and the fixed factors of sex, age, ASA physical status (1–2 vs. 3–5), type of surgery (with or without impact on perfusion/ventilation mismatch [5]), cardiovascular disease ('no' or 'yes'), respiratory disease ('no' or 'yes'), respiratory infection ('no' or 'yes'), PaCO₂, PaO₂, HCO₃[–], SaO₂, arterial haemoglobin concentration (Hb), positive end-expiratory pressure, peak inspiratory pressure, respiratory rate, end-tidal nitrous oxide concentration, end-tidal oxygen concentration, end-tidal sevoflurane concentration, inspiratory CO₂ concentration and ΔPaCO_2 ($\text{pH}_{\text{stat}} - \alpha_{\text{stat}}$). Apart from ΔPaCO_2 ($\text{pH}_{\text{stat}} - \alpha_{\text{stat}}$), which already has a meaningful zero, all continuous predictors were centred at their mean. A reduced model was compared with the full model using a likelihood ratio test, which indicated that the reduced model was not worse than the full model. Interactions were tested but did not seem to improve the model. Regression analysis was performed using SPSS Version 20 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA) software. A *p* value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

A total of 2409 patients with an indwelling arterial line were identified from 42,659 patient records. Of these, 1423 (59.1%) patients were not studied because of congenital cardiac abnormalities (296), the use of cardiopulmonary bypass (938) or tracheal intubation with an uncuffed tube (189). Of the remaining 986 patients, a total of 3164 arterial blood samples were taken. Of these, 712 were incomplete data sets and excluded. In total, 2452 blood gas analysis samples with complete vital sign monitoring, anaesthesia gas analysis and spirometry data sets from 799 patients were analysed

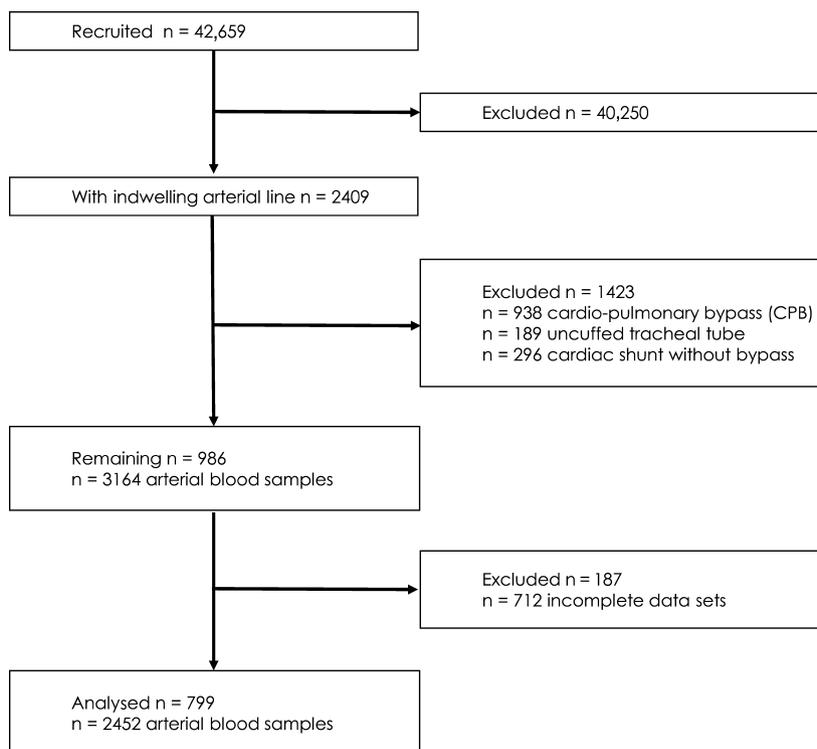


Figure 1 CONSORT flow diagram showing data from patients included in the study.

Table 1 Baseline characteristics and peri-operative data for the 799 patients included in the study. Values are number (proportion) or median (IQR [range]).

Sex; male	421 (53%)
Age; years	6.8 (1.8–12.2 [0.0–18.1])
Body weight; kg	19.9 (11.5–35.1 [2.7–93.0])
ASA physical status	
1	79 (9.9%)
2	310 (38.8%)
3	383 (47.9%)
4	26 (3.3%)
5	1 (0.1%)
Type of surgery	
No impact on ventilation	501 (62.7%)
Impact on ventilation	298 (37.3%)
Pulmonary arterial hypertension	18 (2.3%)
Respiratory disease	
Lung disease (obstructive, restrictive, others)	127 (15.9%)
Respiratory infection	67 (8.4%)

Surgery with an impact on ventilation: thoracotomy, laparotomy, laparoscopy, thoracoscopy, scoliosis surgery, neurosurgery, prone position.

(Fig. 1). Baseline patient characteristics and intra-operative data are shown in Table 1. Blood gas analysis and oximetry data, vital sign monitoring,

anaesthesia gas analysis and spirometry data are summarised in Table 2.

Overall mean (SD) arterial to end-tidal carbon dioxide difference was -0.18 (0.46) for pH_{stat} assessment of PaCO₂ (limits of 95% agreement -1.10 to 0.74) and -0.26 (0.44) for α_{stat} (temperature corrected) PaCO₂ measurement (limits of 95% agreement -1.14 to 0.62) (Fig. 2) with 71.2% of samples (82.4% of patients) demonstrating negative differences (pH_{stat} measurements). Arterial CO₂ values, bias and precision, as well as 95% limits of agreement for the comparison of PaCO₂ with ETCO₂ for different subgroups are shown in Table 3.

The intercept model revealed an expected mean PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference of -0.24 kPa when all predictors are zero, that is, for the average patient in this sample of ASA physical status I–II, no respiratory tract infection, $F_iCO_2 < 0.01$ kPa and $\Delta PaCO_2$ ($pH_{stat} - \alpha_{stat}$) equal to zero. A decrease in PaCO₂ was the strongest predictor for a negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference. A decrease in PaCO₂ by 1 kPa resulted in a decrease in the PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference by 0.23 kPa. Conversely, an increase in $\Delta PaCO_2$ ($pH_{stat} - \alpha_{stat}$)

Table 2 Blood gas, oximetry, vital sign, anaesthesia gas analysis and patient near spirometry parameters recorded from 2452 electronic anaesthesia patient data sets. Values are median (IQR [range]).

Parameter	
pH	7.37 (7.33–7.40 [7.03–7.60])
PaCO ₂ (pH _{stat}); kPa	4.96 (4.63–5.38 [3.10–12.90])
PaCO ₂ (alpha _{stat}); kPa	4.87 (4.55–5.30 [2.89–12.44])
Δ PaCO ₂ (pH _{stat} –alpha _{stat}); kPa	0.04 (0.04–0.11 [–0.31–0.27])
PaO ₂ ; kPa	27.00 (22.30–32.40 [6.96–99.30])
HCO ₃ [–] ; mmol.l ^{–1}	21.9 (20.4–23.4 [12.8–38.3])
Base excess; mmol.l ^{–1}	–3.0 (–4.8 to 1.4 [–14.9 to 15.2])
Arterial oxygen saturation; %	100.0 (99.6–100.0 [85.5–100.0])
Arterial haemoglobin concentration; g.dl ^{–1}	9.4 (8.3–10.7 [4.3–16.7])
SpO ₂ ; %	99.7 (99.0–100.0 [88.8–100.0])
Body temperature; °C	36.7 (36.2–37.3 [35.0–39.4])
Positive end-expiratory pressure; cmH ₂ O	5.5 (5.2–6.1 [0.0–14.6])
Peak inspiratory pressure; cmH ₂ O	19.5 (17.5–22.1 [9.4–34.7])
Plateau pressure; cmH ₂ O	18.4 (16.3–20.8 [8.3–34.1])
Expiratory minute volume; l.min ^{–1}	2.67 (2.00–3.59 [0.40–9.06])
Respiratory rate; min ^{–1}	17 (13–22 [8–38])
Expiratory tidal volume; ml	158 (103–261 [13–660])
Inspiratory tidal volume; ml	169 (111–281 [16–672])
Δ Expiratory and inspiratory volume; ml	10 (6–18 [–163–120])
Expiratory tidal volume.kg ^{–1} ; ml.kg ^{–1}	8.31 (7.36–9.30 [4.00–14.20])
Inspiratory tidal volume.kg ^{–1} ; ml.kg ^{–1}	8.9 (7.9–10.0 [4.2–15.0])
Δ Expiratory and inspiratory volume.kg ^{–1} ; ml.kg ^{–1}	0.56 (0.37–0.78 [–3.20 to 4.30])
Compliance; ml.cm ^{–1} .H ₂ O ^{–2}	13.24 (7.67–22.19 [0.90–69.90])
End-tidal CO ₂ concentration; kPa	5.16 (4.85–5.54 [2.20–10.80])
Inspiratory CO ₂ concentration; kPa	0 (0.0–0.1 [0.0–0.7])
End-tidal N ₂ O concentration; %	0.04 (0.04–38.65 [0.00–80.60])
End-tidal O ₂ concentration; %	39.64 (32.79–47.77 [17.40–95.80])
End-tidal sevoflurane concentration; %	1.55 (0.50–1.96 [0.00–3.70])

by 1 kPa resulted in a decrease in the PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference of –0.23 kPa (Table 4).

The PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference was 0.05 kPa lower in patients of ASA physical status 1–2 compared with ASA physical status 3–5, and 0.08 kPa lower in patients without a respiratory tract infection compared with those who had a respiratory tract infection. It was 0.07 kPa lower in patients with an F_ICO₂ ≥ 0.01 kPa compared with those with an F_ICO₂ < 0.01 kPa. Finally, the PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference became lower with decreasing ETO₂, HCO₃[–], reduced inspiratory peak pressure and decreased respiratory rate (Table 4).

Discussion

End-tidal CO₂ monitoring during anaesthesia is mandatory and values obtained are used to adjust mechanical ventilator settings in patients whose lungs are ventilated. When making this adjustment, a PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference of 0.5–0.7 kPa is assumed in

healthy patients, potentially increasing in patients with lung pathology or a higher dead space/tidal volume ratio. This study clearly demonstrates that negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences occur in paediatric patients. The most powerful predictor for a negative difference is a lower PaCO₂ value. To a lesser extent, an increasing Δ PaCO₂ (pH_{stat}–alpha_{stat}) also resulted in lower, or more negative, PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences, but this is to be expected because the solubility of CO₂ in plasma is reduced at lower body temperatures.

Our findings are in agreement with those of other studies reporting negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences, namely that a decrease in PaCO₂ is a strong predictor for a decrease in the PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference [6, 7]. Negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences have been reported to occur in up to 34% of patients in paediatric intensive care as well as anaesthetised patients [6–8]. They occur most frequently in children between 4 and 8 years of age [7], with decreasing PaCO₂ values [6, 7]

and with a dead space/tidal volume ratio of less than 0.4 [8]. There is no correlation between these negative differences and the child's primary disease and it has been suggested that this phenomenon is more methodological and technical rather than related to underlying pathology [6]. This is in agreement with our results, which showed that healthier patients (ASA physical status 1 or 2, no respiratory infection, surgery not influencing ventilation, lower etO₂ and reduced ventilation settings) had more negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences. Negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences are not only observed in paediatric patients but were also reported in adult patients many years ago [9–11].

It has been hypothesised that low tidal volumes and high respiratory rates may lead to inadequate ventilation of dependent, well perfused alveoli. This leads to accumulation of CO₂ in the lower airway and exhaled CO₂ in the terminal part of phase-3 capnography may exceed mean PaCO₂, resulting in a negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference [6]. This may be aggravated by the fact that arterial CO₂ values vary cyclically between end-inspiration and end-expiration. The mixed blood from the heart and syringe, respectively, represents a spatial and temporal mean of PaCO₂ and may therefore be exceeded by ETCO₂ [10, 11]. An alternative explanation is that the highly elevated mixed venous return in patients with higher metabolic

rates may lead to negative differences and that this may be typical for paediatric patients, septic patients and pregnant women [6, 9].

The overall mean PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference (bias) reported in the study by Goonasekera et al. [6] was +0.66 kPa (95%CI+0.57 to +0.76), but up to 20% of samples demonstrated a negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference. However, our results revealed a bias of -0.18 kPa (-1.08 to +0.72 kPa) and 71.2% of samples revealed a negative difference. The negative differences were even present after excluding patients with potential V/Q mismatch due to surgery, patient positioning, lung disease or respiratory tract infections. Even samples where the PaCO₂ was normal (4.5 to 6.0 kPa), the mean PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference (bias) was still -0.16 kPa (-0.92 to +0.60).

The reason for the relatively high rate of samples with a negative difference and with more negative bias in our study is explained by an incorrect setting in all anaesthesia gas analysis and capnography modules in our department to measure ETCO₂ as partial pressure (kPa). All gas analysis modules were set to measure gas samples at 'dry gas' conditions instead of 'wet gas' conditions. 'Wet gas' means gas analysis under body temperature pressure saturation (BTPS) conditions and allows measurement of ETCO₂ as partial pressure (kPa or mmHg) and volume per cent (vol%). 'Dry gas' corresponds

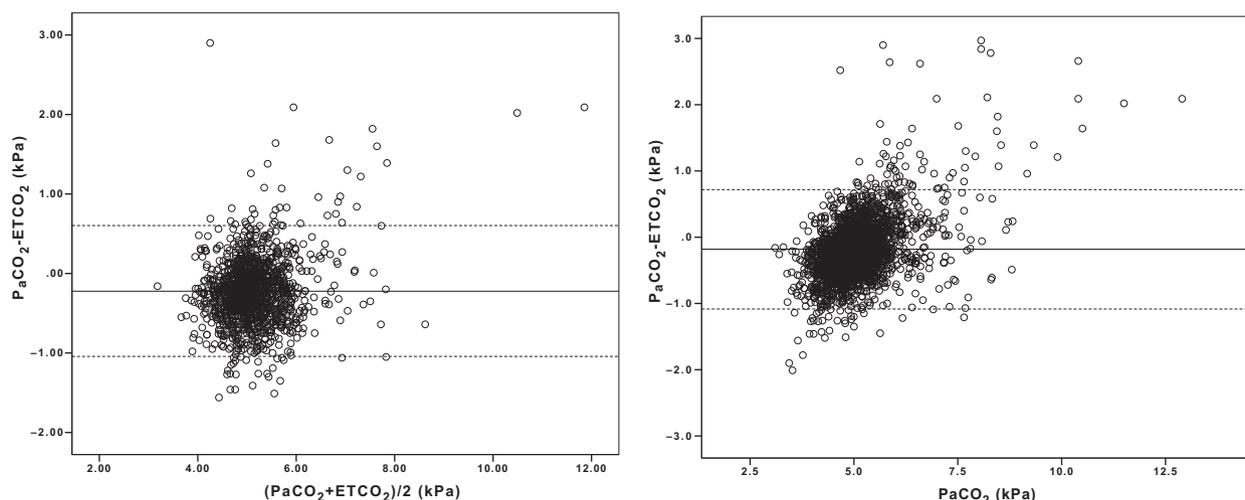


Figure 2 Classical (left) and modified (right) Bland Altman bias diagrams for the comparison of arterial (PaCO₂) (pHstat) and end-tidal (ETCO₂) carbon dioxide values (n = 799/2452 data sets).

Table 3 Bias (mean difference), precision (2 × SD of mean difference) and 95% limits of agreement for the comparison of arterial to end-tidal CO₂ difference for different subgroups.

Group	Number of samples (patients)	PaCO ₂ (kPa) Median (IQR [range])	Bias; precision (kPa) pH _{stat} (% negative gaps) [% patients with negative gaps]	95% limits of agreement pH _{stat}	Bias; precision (kPa) Alpha _{stat} (% negative gaps) [% patients with negative gaps]	95% limits of agreement Alpha _{stat}
Total	2452 (799)	4.96 (4.63–5.38 [3.10–12.90])	–0.18; 0.92 (71.2%) [82.5%]	–1.10 to 0.74	–0.26; 0.88 (71.5%) [83.4%]	–1.14 to 0.62
No surgical/positional impact	1480 (505)	4.95 (4.62–5.32 [3.1–12.9])	–0.21; 0.88 (73.9%) [84.6%]	–1.09 to 0.67	–0.31; 0.84 (75.6%) [84.4%]	–1.15 to 0.53
No cardiovascular disease	2422 (781)	4.96 (4.63–5.37 [3.1–12.9])	–0.18; 0.92 (71.5%) [83.7%]	–1.1 to 0.74	–0.26; 0.86 (72.1%) [85.0%]	–1.12 to 0.60
No surgical/positional impact	1317 (446)	4.94 (4.62–5.31 [3.1–12.9])	–0.22; 0.84 (75.4%) [85.4%]	–1.06 to 0.62	–0.33; 0.80 (77.5%) [85.9%]	–1.13 to 0.47
No cardiovascular/respiratory disease/respiratory tract infection	1832 (669)	5.0 (4.8–5.3 [4.5–6.0])	–0.16; 0.76/ (70.1%)/ [80.0%]	–0.92 to 0.60	–0.26; 0.72 (73.4%) [83.4%]	–0.98 to 0.46
Patients with normal PaCO ₂ (4.5–6.0 kPa) (pH _{stat})						

to gas analysis at ambient temperature pressure dry (ATPD) conditions and can only be used for measurement of ET_{CO₂} as volume per cent, and not as partial pressure. This means that ET_{CO₂} sampled in wet conditions and analysed as ‘dry gas’ results in falsely high ET_{CO₂} partial pressure values, exceeding the PaCO₂ values. According to our local GE equipment distributor, all anaesthesia gas and capnography modules are usually delivered worldwide in the ‘dry gas’ mode as the default setting. Neither a group of GE experts from Helsinki, Finland visiting our department to explore the problem, nor our local GE equipment distributor, were aware of this problem and the latter failed to identify it for a number of years. Therefore, it is not surprising that clinicians are unaware of this, nor that the anaesthesia gas and/or capnography modules are set to ‘wet gas’ mode when delivered by local distributors. Other manufacturers such as Draeger (Lubeck, Germany) only provide a ‘wet gas’ mode or, if the anaesthetic machine has both options, the equipment is delivered in ‘wet gas’ mode as the default setting. This allows the measurement of ET_{CO₂} as both volume percent and partial pressure independently of the ‘gas setting’.

Our findings imply that in paediatric patients whose lungs are being ventilated, ET_{CO₂} monitoring can be considerably misleading even in, or particularly in, healthy patients undergoing surgery. The fact that an ET_{CO₂} value of 4.5 kPa could easily correspond to a PaCO₂ value of 3.6 kPa (95%CI) or, in extreme cases, even 2.5 kPa is worrying. Unfortunately, negative PaCO₂-ET_{CO₂} differences are more common at lower PaCO₂ values, further exacerbating the risk of hypocapnoea. Based on the information provided by our local distributor, GE capnography monitoring appears to have been delivered in the ‘dry gas’ mode and remained so for more than 20 years, potentially resulting in falsely high ET_{CO₂} partial pressure readings and consequently leading to hypoventilation of patients’ lungs.

Other reasons for the higher number of samples with a negative PaCO₂-ET_{CO₂} difference could be measurement inaccuracy of both the blood gas and anaesthetic gas analysers, contamination or leaks in the measurement systems. However, none of these

Table 4 Estimates of fixed effects for the reduced random intercept model with PaCO₂-ETCO₂ difference as the dependent variable.

Parameter	Estimate	Standard error	t	95%CI	p value
Intercept	-0.241	0.016	-14.736	-0.273 to -0.209	0.000
ASA 3-5 vs. ASA 1-2	0.048	0.019	2.463	0.010 to 0.086	0.014
RTI vs. no RTI	0.080	0.035	2.174	0.007 to 0.145	0.000
FICO ₂ ≥ 0.01 vs. < 0.01	-0.070	0.018	-3.947	-0.105 to -0.035	0.000
ETO ₂	0.004	0.001	5.641	0.002 to 0.005	0.000
PaCO ₂	0.233	0.011	20.656	0.211 to 0.256	0.000
HCO ₃ ⁻	0.016	0.004	4.674	0.010 to 0.024	0.000
Δ PaCO ₂ (pH _{stat} -alpha _{stat})	-0.234	0.011	-21.307	-0.255 to -0.213	0.000
Peak inspiratory pressure	0.022	0.003	6.378	0.015 to 0.028	0.000
PaO ₂ log	-0.099	0.030	-3.337	-0.157 to -0.041	0.001
Respiratory rate	-0.008	0.002	3.926	0.004 to 0.012	0.000

RTI, respiratory tract infection.

could explain the considerably high rate and degree of negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences.

As a consequence of our findings, we propose that arterial or capillary blood gas analysis should be performed after tracheal intubation and establishment of steady state lung ventilation before adapting ventilator settings [12, 13]. Once the individual difference has been determined, it **should remain constant** and allow for safely maintaining normocapnoea, provided no changes in the dead space/tidal volume ratio occurs as this was not tested in the present study [6]. Transcutaneous monitoring to estimate PaCO₂ may be an alternative option, however, this has its own practical, physiological and technical limitations and may be most advantageous only in the smallest patients [14]. Industrial partners will hopefully investigate the phenomenon of negative PaCO₂-ETCO₂ differences through large prospective studies that include wide respiratory parameters.

In conclusion, ETCO₂ monitoring in paediatric patients whose lungs are ventilated may paradoxically lead to overestimation of ETCO₂ (ETCO₂ > PaCO₂) with the risk of hypocarbia and related deleterious effects on cerebral circulation. We encourage prospective studies, initiated by industrial partners, to elucidate predictors so as to improve their equipment. Until then, **arterial or capillary blood gas testing** should be **performed, even during routine** paediatric anaesthesia, in order to avoid iatrogenic hypocapnoea and associated peri-operative central nervous system injury to children.

Acknowledgements

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