



# Cardiac output monitoring: how to choose the optimal method for the individual patient

Bernd Saugel<sup>a</sup> and Jean-Louis Vincent<sup>b</sup>

## Purpose of review

To review the different methods available for the assessment of cardiac output (CO) and describe their specific indications in intensive care and perioperative medicine.

## Recent findings

In critically ill patients, persistent circulatory shock after initial resuscitation is an indication for the assessment of CO to monitor the response to fluids and vasoactive agents. In patients with circulatory shock associated with right ventricular dysfunction, pulmonary artery hypertension, or acute respiratory distress syndrome, invasive CO monitoring using indicator dilution methods is indicated. Calibrated and uncalibrated pulse wave analysis enable absolute or relative CO changes to be monitored in real-time during the assessment of fluid responsiveness. In patients undergoing open-heart and thoracic aortic surgery, transesophageal echocardiography is recommended. In selected cardiac surgery patients, advanced hemodynamic monitoring using thermodilution methods can be considered. In high-risk noncardiac surgical patients, invasive pulse wave analysis or esophageal Doppler should be used for perioperative hemodynamic management.

## Summary

Various invasive, minimally invasive, and noninvasive methods to assess CO are available. A profound understanding of the different CO monitoring methods is key to define indications for CO monitoring in the individual critically ill or surgical patient.

## Keywords

hemodynamic monitoring, pulmonary artery catheter, pulmonary artery thermodilution, pulse wave analysis, transpulmonary thermodilution

## INTRODUCTION

Cardiac output (CO), the product of ventricular stroke volume (SV) and heart rate (HR), is a primary determinant of oxygen delivery [1<sup>\*</sup>]. Thus, the assessment and optimization of CO are recommended in critically ill patients with altered tissue perfusion [2,3] and in high-risk surgical patients [4]. Different methods have been proposed for the assessment of CO, but choosing which method to use in the individual patient is challenging. In this article, we briefly review the different methods available to assess CO and describe their specific indications in intensive care and perioperative medicine.

## METHODS FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF CARDIAC OUTPUT

The calculation of CO using oxygen consumption and arteriovenous oxygen content difference (Fick's principle) and the measurement of CO with flow meters (experimental reference method) cannot be

routinely applied in clinical practice, so alternative methods have been developed. When choosing among these techniques, several factors need to be taken into account, including their invasiveness [invasive, minimally invasive, and noninvasive methods (Fig. 1)], measurement performance (accuracy, precision, trending), ability to provide real-time continuous CO readings, ability to calibrate

<sup>a</sup>Department of Anesthesiology, Center of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany and <sup>b</sup>Department of Intensive Care, Erasme Hospital, Université libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium

Correspondence to Bernd Saugel, Department of Anesthesiology, Center of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Martinistrasse 52, 20246 Hamburg, Germany. Tel: +49 40 7410 18866; e-mail: bernd.saugel@gmx.de, b.saugel@uke.de

**Curr Opin Crit Care** 2018, 24:165–172

DOI:10.1097/MCC.0000000000000492

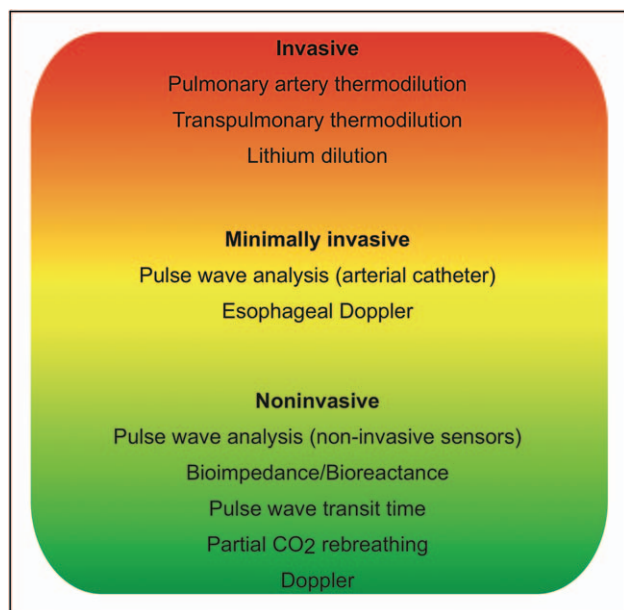
## KEY POINTS

- A profound understanding of the different CO monitoring methods is key to define indications for invasive, minimally invasive, and noninvasive CO monitoring.
- In critically ill patients, persistent circulatory shock after initial resuscitation is an indication for the assessment of CO.
- In patients with circulatory shock associated with right ventricular dysfunction or acute respiratory distress syndrome, invasive CO monitoring using indicator dilution methods is indicated.
- Pulse wave analysis enables absolute or relative CO changes to be monitored in real-time during the assessment of fluid responsiveness.
- In high-risk noncardiac surgical patients, invasive pulse wave analysis or esophageal Doppler should be used for perioperative hemodynamic management.

the CO readings to a reference method, and ability to provide additional hemodynamic variables [5–8].

### Invasive methods for the assessment of cardiac output

Invasive methods are based on the principle of indicator dilution and include pulmonary artery



**FIGURE 1.** Methods for the assessment of cardiac output. Methods for the assessment of cardiac output can be classified according to their invasiveness into invasive, minimally invasive, and noninvasive methods.

thermodilution (PATD), transpulmonary thermodilution (TPTD), and lithium dilution.

### Pulmonary artery thermodilution

Intermittent PATD [using a pulmonary artery catheter (PAC) as first described by Swan *et al.* [9] and Ganz *et al.* [10]] enables right ventricular (RV) CO to be determined using a modified Stewart–Hamilton equation after injection of a fluid bolus of known volume and temperature (thermal indicator) into the right atrium via the proximal port of the PAC [11]. The subsequent change in blood temperature is recorded by a thermistor located downstream at the tip of the PAC.

The measurement of CO with intermittent PATD has been validated against experimental gold standard methods in numerous method comparison studies in animals and humans [8], and, although far from perfect, it remains the clinical reference method for the assessment of CO at the bedside [12].

PATD can be limited by physical factors related to the indicator injection (e.g., loss of indicator, variation in injectate temperature or injection rate, change in baseline temperature), patient-specific pathophysiologic factors (e.g., intracardiac shunts, tricuspid regurgitation, low-flow states), variations in CO readings over the respiratory cycle, and mathematical factors related to the CO algorithms [11,13–16]. Moreover, pulmonary artery catheterization is an invasive procedure associated with rare but severe complications.

PATD using electric heating filaments in the proximal part of the PAC to induce changes in blood temperature enables CO to be estimated continuously but with a significant time delay [11].

In addition to CO, the PAC can be used to assess pulmonary artery pressures, cardiac filling pressures, and mixed venous oxygen saturation. Additional variables, including pulmonary vascular resistance and RV work, can be derived.

### Transpulmonary thermodilution

TPTD-based CO assessment requires a central venous catheter for thermal indicator injection into the central venous circulation and a dedicated thermistor-tipped arterial catheter that is usually placed in the abdominal aorta through the femoral artery for the recording of the thermodilution curve. Left ventricular (LV) CO is calculated based on a modified Stewart–Hamilton equation [17,18<sup>••</sup>].

In validation studies, TPTD-derived CO values showed good agreement with PATD-derived values in critically ill and surgical patients [11].

The sources of error and variability in the CO measurements and the technical limitations

regarding indicator loss or recirculation discussed for PATD also apply to TPTD.

In addition to CO, several other hemodynamic variables including extravascular lung water, pulmonary vascular permeability index, and global end-diastolic volume can be assessed using TPTD [17,18<sup>22</sup>].

### **Lithium dilution**

The assessment of CO by lithium dilution uses isotonic lithium chloride injected into the central venous circulation or a peripheral vein as the indicator [11]. The lithium bolus travels through the right heart, the pulmonary circulation, the left heart, and the aorta; the concentration–time curve used to calculate CO is recorded at a peripheral arterial catheter using a flow-through cell with an integrated ion-selective electrode [11].

Lithium dilution-derived CO measurements have been validated against PATD in critically ill and surgical patients [11].

In addition to the limitations all indicator dilution methods have in common, the lithium dilution method cannot be used in patients under lithium therapy and carries the risk of lithium accumulation if many measurements are repeatedly performed over short periods of time [18<sup>22</sup>].

### **Minimally invasive methods for the assessment of cardiac output**

The analysis of the arterial pressure waveform obtained with an arterial catheter (invasive pulse wave analysis) and the esophageal Doppler technique are usually classified as minimally invasive methods.

#### **Invasive pulse wave analysis**

Pulse wave analysis enables SV and thus CO to be continuously estimated from the arterial pressure waveform using mathematical algorithms that analyze characteristics of the waveform assuming that the systolic part is proportional to the SV and inversely related to arterial compliance [19–22, 23<sup>22</sup>]. The characteristics of the arterial pressure waveform are determined by various factors, including the LV SV, contractility of the heart, vascular compliance, aortic impedance, and peripheral vascular resistance. Available pulse wave analysis systems are either calibrated (sometimes called ‘less-invasive’) or uncalibrated (usually called ‘minimally invasive’). Calibrated systems use an external CO value (e.g., CO value obtained with an indicator dilution method) as a reference to calibrate the pulse wave analysis-derived CO [21,23<sup>22</sup>]; uncalibrated systems (perhaps better described as ‘auto-calibrated’) estimate CO solely using characteristics

of the arterial pressure waveform and biometric and demographic data [21,23<sup>22</sup>].

A meta-analysis including data from 24 validation studies comparing invasive pulse wave analysis with thermodilution methods to assess CO in critically ill and surgical patients reported a pooled weighted percentage error of 41% [24]. A systematic review emphasized that the measurement performance of pulse wave analysis depends on the patient population, with better performance in general critically ill, surgical, cardiac, and cardiac surgery patients than in patients with liver disease or septic shock [25].

In general, pulse wave analysis-derived CO readings must be interpreted with caution in patients with cardiac arrhythmias and in those with marked alterations or rapid changes in vascular tone (such as those with distributive shock). Pulse wave analysis also depends on a perfect arterial pressure signal, which can be disturbed by technical problems related to the arterial catheter, the tubing system, or the pressure transducer.

Pulse wave analysis allows not only the estimation of SV and CO but also the assessment of dynamic preload responsiveness variables, including pulse pressure and SV variation.

#### **Esophageal Doppler**

The esophageal Doppler method can be used to estimate SV (and thus CO) from the blood flow velocity waveform in the descending aorta recorded using a Doppler transducer placed at the tip of a flexible probe [26–28]. SV is estimated from the stroke distance [i.e., the area under the aortic flow velocity waveform (velocity time integral)] and the cross-sectional area of the aorta, which is either measured or estimated from nomograms [26–28].

Estimates of CO using esophageal Doppler ultrasonography have been validated against those using PATD in critically ill and surgical patients [29] and a pooled weighted percentage error of 42% has been reported [24].

Although considered as a minimally invasive method, esophageal Doppler ultrasonography requires the probe to be inserted in the esophagus and is thus limited to patients under sedation or general anesthesia. In addition, Doppler measurements can be disturbed by movement and are operator-dependent. Moreover, the estimation of SV relies on a number of assumptions including a fixed distribution of blood flow between the upper and lower parts of the body [26–28].

Esophageal Doppler provides additional hemodynamic variables including corrected flow time and SV variation.

## Noninvasive methods for the assessment of cardiac output

During recent years, various technologies for noninvasive CO estimation have been proposed and evaluated. These include bioimpedance/bioreactance, pulse wave transit time, partial carbon dioxide rebreathing, Doppler methods, and noninvasive pulse wave analysis [6–8,30].

Noninvasive pulse wave analysis uses a noninvasive sensor placed on the finger (finger cuff methods, vascular unloading technology, volume clamp method) [31–33] or over the radial artery (automated radial artery applanation tonometry) [34,35]. The arterial pressure waveform obtained from the sensors is recorded and analyzed continuously to derive CO. A recent meta-analysis reported that the pooled mean percentage error of noninvasive pulse wave analysis-derived CO compared with thermodilution-derived CO was 45% [36].

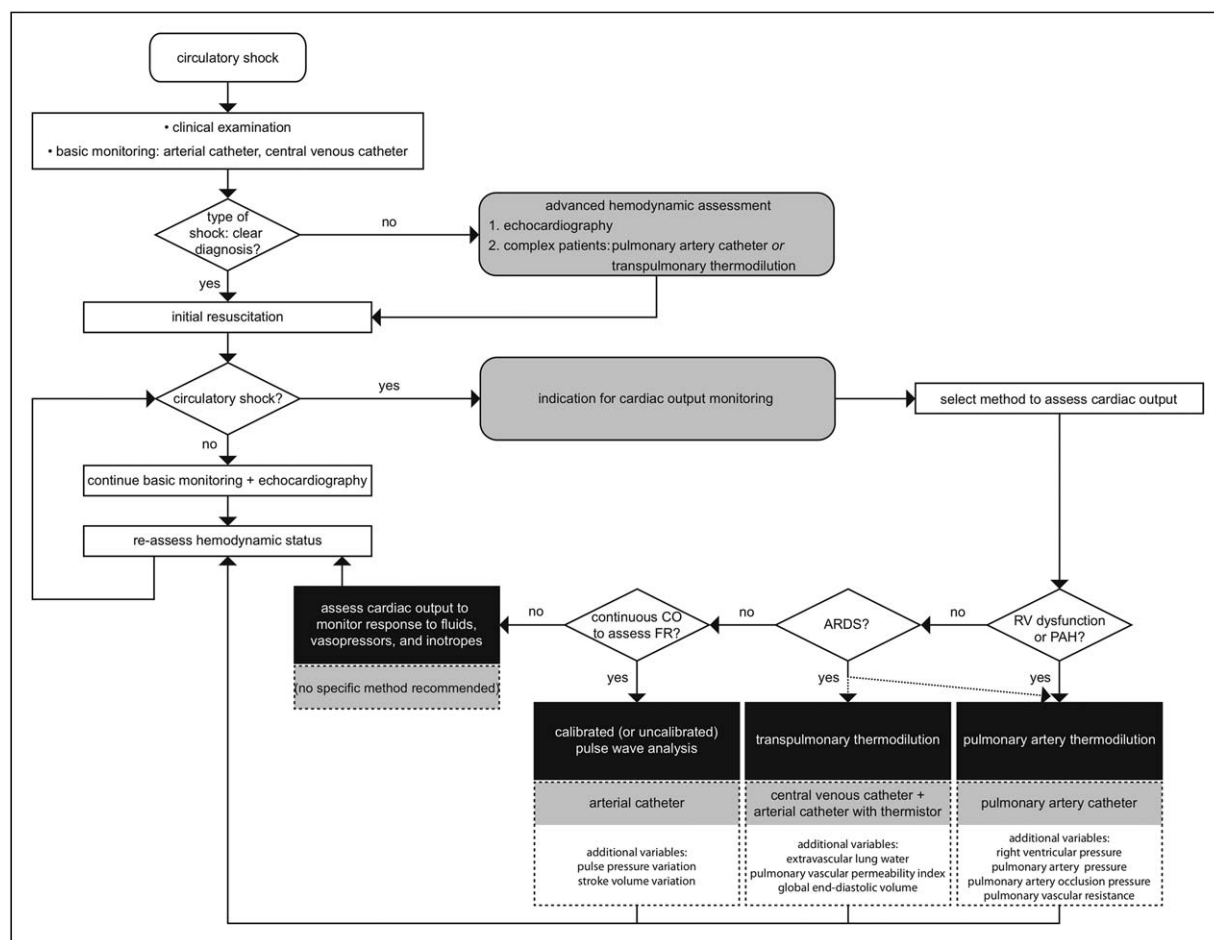
It is beyond the scope of our article to discuss the principles, advantages, and limitations of all the

available technologies for noninvasive CO estimation [6–8]. For all noninvasive technologies, validation studies using bolus thermodilution as the reference method have given conflicting results [7,24,31,36]. Although most noninvasive systems have been shown to provide accurate and precise CO estimations compared with reference methods under clinical study conditions, they all have technology-specific and device-specific problems when used in routine clinical practice [7].

## INDICATIONS FOR DIFFERENT METHODS OF CARDIAC OUTPUT ASSESSMENT IN CRITICALLY ILL PATIENTS WITH ACUTE CIRCULATORY SHOCK

Indications for the different methods of CO assessment in critically ill patients with circulatory shock are shown in Fig. 2.

In these patients, clinical examination and the placement of an arterial catheter and a central



**FIGURE 2.** Indications for different methods of cardiac output assessment in critically ill patients with acute circulatory shock. ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; CO, cardiac output; FR, fluid responsiveness; PAH, pulmonary arterial hypertension; RV dysfunction, right ventricular dysfunction.



venous catheter are recommended as the first step in the diagnostic workup and initial resuscitation [3,30<sup>■</sup>]. If the type of circulatory shock [37] cannot be clearly recognized clinically, advanced hemodynamic assessment can be helpful [3]. In this context, echocardiography should be the first-line approach for the assessment of cardiac function, whereas invasive hemodynamic monitoring technologies such as the PAC or TPTD should be restricted to complex patients [3]. The hemodynamic status should be reassessed after initial resuscitation using clinical examination, basic monitoring, and echocardiography.

In patients with persistent or reoccurring circulatory shock after initial resuscitation, *CO* needs to be assessed and optimized. The choice of the *CO* monitoring method in the individual patient depends on medical, institutional, and organizational factors [2,38] and can be facilitated by using the following three key questions:

- (1) Is the patient's circulatory shock associated with severe RV dysfunction or pulmonary artery hypertension?  
If yes, invasive *CO* assessment using PATD is indicated. In addition to *CO* assessment, other PAC-derived hemodynamic variables, including right atrial and ventricular pressure, pulmonary artery pressure, pulmonary artery occlusion pressure, and mixed venous oxygen saturation, can help to guide hemodynamic therapy.
- (2) Is circulatory shock associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS)?  
If yes, invasive *CO* assessment using PATD or TPTD is indicated. TPTD additionally provides extravascular lung water and pulmonary vascular permeability. Extravascular lung water reflects the amount of water in the lungs outside the pulmonary vasculature, increases in ARDS, and is a predictor of outcome [39,40,41<sup>■</sup>,42–44]. The pulmonary vascular permeability index enables differentiation of the pathophysiologic reasons for the increased extravascular lung water [45,46].
- (3) Does the *CO* need to be monitored continuously for the assessment of fluid responsiveness?  
The assessment of fluid status and fluid responsiveness is recommended in patients with circulatory shock [3,47]. During a fluid challenge [48] or passive leg raising test [49], continuous real-time monitoring of SV and *CO* is required to assess the short-term changes in *CO* in response to the increase in cardiac preload. In patients with circulatory shock, calibrated and uncalibrated pulse wave analysis can be used to assess absolute and relative *CO* changes for the assessment of fluid responsiveness.

Even if not associated with severe RV dysfunction, pulmonary artery hypertension, or ARDS, circulatory shock not responding to initial therapy requires the assessment of *CO* to monitor the response to therapeutic interventions including the administration of fluids and vasoactive agents [3]. It has been recommended that less invasive devices are used only when they have been validated in the context of patients with shock [3]. Completely noninvasive methods are currently not recommended for the estimation of *CO* in patients with circulatory shock [30<sup>■</sup>].

### **INDICATIONS FOR DIFFERENT METHODS OF CARDIAC OUTPUT ASSESSMENT DURING PERIOPERATIVE HEMODYNAMIC MANAGEMENT**

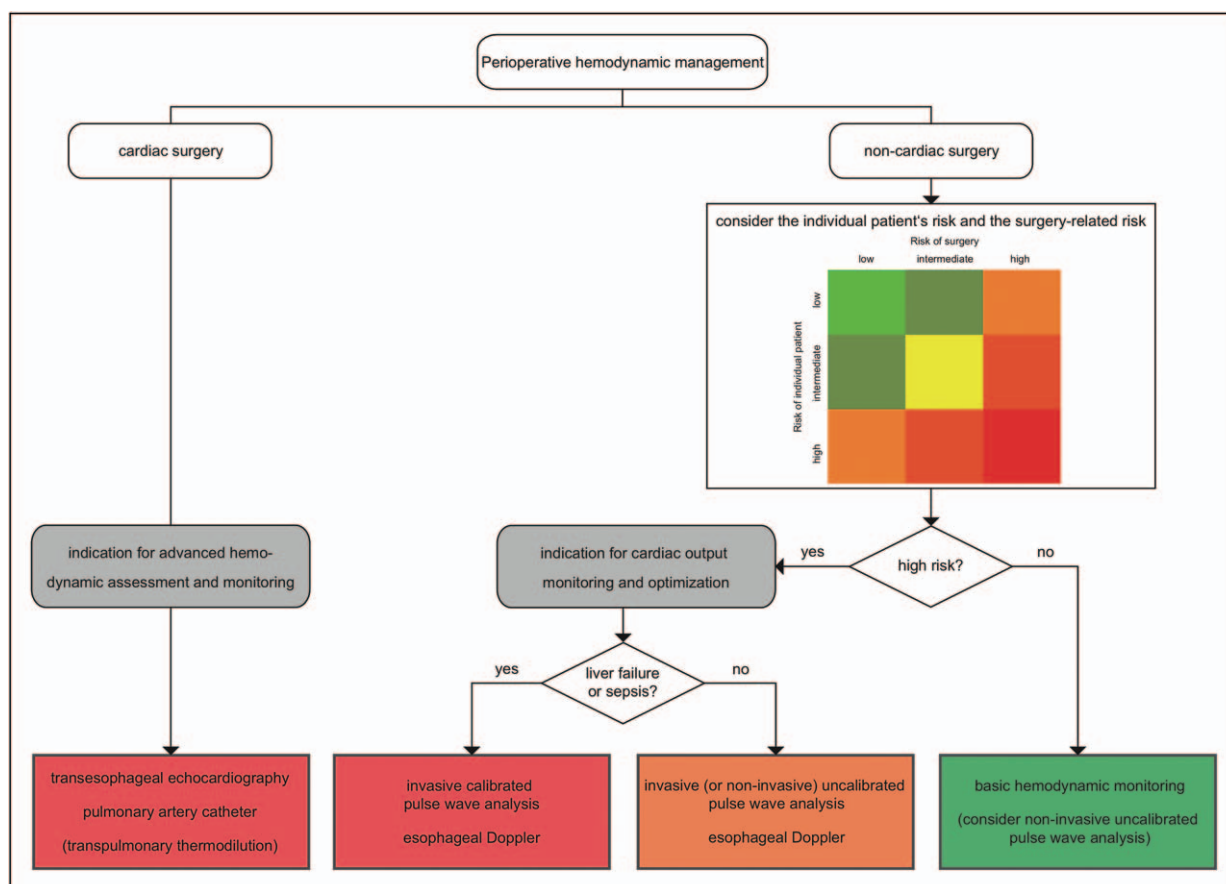
Indications for the different methods of *CO* assessment during the perioperative hemodynamic management of surgical patients are shown in Fig. 3.

In noncardiac surgery patients, indications for *CO* monitoring depend on the presence of various patient-related and surgery-related risk factors for perioperative complications. The routine use of PATD or TPTD to assess *CO* is not recommended [50]. In addition, transesophageal echocardiography is only recommended in patients with acute sustained severe hemodynamic instability in the perioperative period [50].

Low-risk noncardiac surgical patients can be monitored using basic hemodynamic monitoring (i.e., HR and rhythm, noninvasive arterial pressure, and peripheral oxygen saturation).

In high-risk noncardiac patients, monitoring of *CO* is indicated [4] as (goal-directed) hemodynamic management using fluids and inotropes to optimize *CO* (and oxygen delivery) has been shown to improve outcome [51–55]. In high-risk noncardiac surgical patients without marked alterations in vascular tone, invasive uncalibrated pulse wave analysis or esophageal Doppler can be used to guide *CO* optimization [23<sup>■</sup>,55]. Whether noninvasive uncalibrated pulse wave analysis can also be used for the assessment of *CO* in this category of patients is a subject of current research [56]. In high-risk noncardiac surgical patients with marked alterations in vascular tone (e.g., patients with liver failure or sepsis), *CO* can be assessed using invasive calibrated pulse wave analysis or esophageal Doppler [23<sup>■</sup>,55].

In patients undergoing open-heart and thoracic aortic surgery, transesophageal echocardiography is indicated [57,58]. Transesophageal echocardiography may also be considered in coronary artery bypass graft surgery [57,58]. In selected cardiac surgery patients, advanced hemodynamic assessment



**FIGURE 3.** Indications for different methods of cardiac output assessment during the perioperative hemodynamic management of surgical patients.

and monitoring using a PAC (or TPTD) may be considered.

## CONCLUSION

It is important to understand the measurement principles and indications for the different invasive, minimally invasive, and noninvasive methods available to assess CO, so that the optimal CO monitoring method can be chosen for the individual critically ill or surgical patient.

In critically ill patients, persistent or reoccurring circulatory shock after initial resuscitation is an indication for the assessment of CO to monitor the response to fluids and vasoactive agents. In patients with circulatory shock and RV dysfunction or pulmonary artery hypertension, PATD is indicated. If the circulatory shock is associated with ARDS, CO should be assessed using PATD or TPTD. To monitor CO continuously during the assessment of fluid responsiveness, calibrated (or uncalibrated) pulse wave analysis can be used to assess absolute or relative changes in CO.

In noncardiac surgery patients, indications for the different methods of CO monitoring during perioperative hemodynamic management depend on patient-related and surgery-related risk factors. In high-risk noncardiac surgical patients, invasive pulse wave analysis or esophageal Doppler should be used to optimize CO and guide hemodynamic therapy. In patients undergoing open-heart and thoracic aortic surgery, transesophageal echocardiography is recommended. In selected cardiac surgery patients, advanced hemodynamic assessment and monitoring with a PAC (or TPTD) can be considered.

## Acknowledgements

None.

## Financial support and sponsorship

None.

## Conflicts of interest

BS collaborates with Pulsion Medical Systems SE (Feldkirchen, Germany) as a member of the medical

advisory board and received honoraria for giving lectures and refunds of travel expenses from Pulsion Medical Systems SE. BS received institutional research grants, unrestricted research grants, and refunds of travel expenses from Tensys Medical Inc. (San Diego, CA, USA). BS received honoraria for giving lectures and refunds of travel expenses from CNSystems Medizintechnik AG (Graz, Austria). BS received research support from Edwards Lifesciences (Irvine, CA, USA). For JLV no conflict of interest was declared.

## REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READING

Papers of particular interest, published within the annual period of review, have been highlighted as:

- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

1. Saugel B, Vincent JL, Wagner JY. Personalized hemodynamic management. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2017; 23:334–341.
- This is an article describing the concept of personalized hemodynamic management in intensive care and perioperative medicine.
2. Vincent JL, Rhodes A, Perel A, *et al.* Clinical review: update on hemodynamic monitoring – a consensus of 16. *Crit Care* 2011; 15:229.
3. Cecconi M, De Backer D, Antonelli M, *et al.* Consensus on circulatory shock and hemodynamic monitoring. Task force of the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine. *Intensive Care Med* 2014; 40:1795–1815.
4. Vincent JL, Pelosi P, Pearse R, *et al.* Perioperative cardiovascular monitoring of high-risk patients: a consensus of 12. *Crit Care* 2015; 19:224.
5. Alhashemi JA, Cecconi M, Hofer CK. Cardiac output monitoring: an integrative perspective. *Crit Care* 2011; 15:214.
6. Marik PE. Noninvasive cardiac output monitors: a state-of-the-art review. *J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth* 2013; 27:121–134.
7. Saugel B, Cecconi M, Wagner JY, Reuter DA. Noninvasive continuous cardiac output monitoring in perioperative and intensive care medicine. *Br J Anaesth* 2015; 114:562–575.
8. Thiele RH, Bartels K, Gan TJ. Cardiac output monitoring: a contemporary assessment and review. *Crit Care Med* 2015; 43:177–185.
9. Swan HJ, Ganz W, Forrester J, *et al.* Catheterization of the heart in man with use of a flow-directed balloon-tipped catheter. *N Engl J Med* 1970; 283:447–451.
10. Ganz W, Donoso R, Marcus HS, *et al.* A new technique for measurement of cardiac output by thermodilution in man. *Am J Cardiol* 1971; 27:392–396.
11. Reuter DA, Huang C, Edrich T, *et al.* Cardiac output monitoring using indicator-dilution techniques: basics, limits, and perspectives. *Anesth Analg* 2010; 110:799–811.
12. Rajaram SS, Desai NK, Kalra A, *et al.* Pulmonary artery catheters for adult patients in intensive care. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013; 2:CD003408.
13. Nishikawa T, Dohi S. Errors in the measurement of cardiac output by thermodilution. *Can J Anaesth* 1993; 40:142–153.
14. Cigarroa RG, Lange RA, Williams RH, *et al.* Underestimation of cardiac output by thermodilution in patients with tricuspid regurgitation. *Am J Med* 1989; 86:417–420.
15. Bazara MG, Petre J, Novoa R. Errors in thermodilution cardiac output measurements caused by rapid pulmonary artery temperature decreases after cardiopulmonary bypass. *Anesthesiology* 1992; 77:31–37.
16. Latson TW, Whitten CW, O'Flaherty D. Ventilation, thermal noise, and errors in cardiac output measurements after cardiopulmonary bypass. *Anesthesiology* 1993; 79:1233–1243.
17. Sakka SG, Reuter DA, Perel A. The transpulmonary thermomodulation technique. *J Clin Monit Comput* 2012; 26:347–353.
18. Monnet X, Teboul JL. Transpulmonary thermomodulation: advantages and limits. ■ *Crit Care* 2017; 21:147.
- The review article describes the measurement principle of transpulmonary thermomodulation (for the assessment of cardiac output, volumetric cardiac preload variables, and extravascular lung water). It explains advantages and limitations of the technology and of the derived hemodynamic variables.
19. Hadian M, Kim HK, Severyn DA, Pinsky MR. Cross-comparison of cardiac output trending accuracy of LiDCO, PiCCO, FloTrac and pulmonary artery catheters. *Crit Care* 2010; 14:R212.
20. Thiele RH, Durieux ME. Arterial waveform analysis for the anesthesiologist: past, present, and future concepts. *Anesth Analg* 2011; 113:766–776.
21. Esper SA, Pinsky MR. Arterial waveform analysis. *Best Pract Res Clin Anaesthesiol* 2014; 28:363–380.
22. Sangkum L, Liu GL, Yu L, *et al.* Minimally invasive or noninvasive cardiac output measurement: an update. *J Anesth* 2016; 30:461–480.
23. Jozwiak M, Monnet X, Teboul JL. Pressure waveform analysis. *Anesth Analg* ■ 2017; doi: 10.1213/ANE.0000000000002527. [Epub ahead of print]
- The article describes the measurement principle of pulse wave analysis and gives clear recommendations regarding in which patients calibrated and uncalibrated pulse wave analysis should be used to guide hemodynamic management.
24. Peyton PJ, Chong SW. Minimally invasive measurement of cardiac output during surgery and critical care: a meta-analysis of accuracy and precision. *Anesthesiology* 2010; 113:1220–1235.
25. Slagt C, Malagon I, Groeneveld AB. Systematic review of uncalibrated arterial pressure waveform analysis to determine cardiac output and stroke volume variation. *Br J Anaesth* 2014; 112:626–637.
26. Cholley BP, Singer M. Esophageal Doppler: noninvasive cardiac output monitor. *Echocardiography* 2003; 20:763–769.
27. Singer M. Esophageal Doppler. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2009; 15:244–248.
28. Schober P, Loer SA, Schwarte LA. Transesophageal Doppler devices: a technical review. *J Clin Monit Comput* 2009; 23:391–401.
29. Dark PM, Singer M. The validity of trans-esophageal Doppler ultrasonography as a measure of cardiac output in critically ill adults. *Intensive Care Med* 2004; 30:2060–2066.
30. Teboul JL, Saugel B, Cecconi M, *et al.* Less invasive hemodynamic monitoring ■ in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 2016; 42:1350–1359.
- The consensus article by members of the Cardiovascular Dynamics Section of the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine discusses the advantages and limitations of less and minimally invasive hemodynamic monitoring techniques in critically ill patients with hemodynamic instability.
31. Ameloot K, Palmers PJ, Malbrain ML. The accuracy of noninvasive cardiac output and pressure measurements with finger cuff: a concise review. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2015; 21:232–239.
32. Wagner JY, Grond J, Fortin J, *et al.* Continuous noninvasive cardiac output determination using the CNAP system: evaluation of a cardiac output algorithm for the analysis of volume clamp method-derived pulse contour. *J Clin Monit Comput* 2016; 30:487–493.
33. Wagner JY, Korner A, Schulte-Uentrop L, *et al.* A comparison of volume clamp method-based continuous noninvasive cardiac output (CNCO) measurement versus intermittent pulmonary artery thermodilution in postoperative cardiothoracic surgery patients. *J Clin Monit Comput* 2017; doi: 10.1007/s10877-017-0027-x. [Epub ahead of print]
34. Saugel B, Meidert AS, Langwieser N, *et al.* An autocalibrating algorithm for noninvasive cardiac output determination based on the analysis of an arterial pressure waveform recorded with radial artery applanation tonometry: a proof of concept pilot analysis. *J Clin Monit Comput* 2014; 28:357–362.
35. Wagner JY, Sarwari H, Schon G, *et al.* Radial artery applanation tonometry for continuous noninvasive cardiac output measurement: a comparison with intermittent pulmonary artery thermodilution in patients after cardiothoracic surgery. *Crit Care Med* 2015; 43:1423–1428.
36. Joosten A, Desebbe O, Suehiro K, *et al.* Accuracy and precision of non- ■ invasive cardiac output monitoring devices in perioperative medicine: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Anaesth* 2017; 118:298–310.
- The meta-analysis summarizes the evidence from method comparison studies evaluating innovative noninvasive cardiac output monitoring technologies in comparison with thermodilution methods.
37. Vincent JL, De Backer D. Circulatory shock. *N Engl J Med* 2014; 370:583.
38. Saugel B, Wagner JY, Scheeren TW. Cardiac output monitoring: less invasiveness, less accuracy? *J Clin Monit Comput* 2016; 30:753–755.
39. Jozwiak M, Teboul JL, Monnet X. Extravascular lung water in critical care: recent advances and clinical applications. *Ann Intensive Care* 2015; 5:38.
40. Kushimoto S, Taira Y, Kitazawa Y, *et al.* The clinical usefulness of extravascular lung water and pulmonary vascular permeability index to diagnose and characterize pulmonary edema: a prospective multicenter study on the quantitative differential diagnostic definition for acute lung injury/acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Crit Care* 2012; 16:R232.
41. Wang H, Cui N, Su L, *et al.* Prognostic value of extravascular lung water and its potential role in guiding fluid therapy in septic shock after initial resuscitation. *J Crit Care* 2016; 33:106–113.
- The retrospective study shows that higher values of extravascular lung water after initial resuscitation are associated with a more positive fluid balance and increased mortality in septic shock patients.
42. Tagami T, Nakamura T, Kushimoto S, *et al.* Early-phase changes of extravascular lung water index as a prognostic indicator in acute respiratory distress syndrome patients. *Ann Intensive Care* 2014; 4:27.
43. Kushimoto S, Endo T, Yamanouchi S, *et al.* Relationship between extravascular lung water and severity categories of acute respiratory distress syndrome by the Berlin definition. *Crit Care* 2013; 17:R132.
44. Jozwiak M, Silva S, Persichini R, *et al.* Extravascular lung water is an independent prognostic factor in patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Crit Care Med* 2013; 41:472–480.
45. Monnet X, Anguel N, Osman D, *et al.* Assessing pulmonary permeability by transpulmonary thermomodulation allows differentiation of hydrostatic pulmonary edema from ALI/ARDS. *Intensive Care Med* 2007; 33:448–453.
46. Morisawa K, Fujitani S, Taira Y, *et al.* Difference in pulmonary permeability between indirect and direct acute respiratory distress syndrome assessed by the transpulmonary thermomodulation technique: a prospective, observational, multiinstitutional study. *J Intensive Care* 2014; 2:24.

47. Monnet X, Marik PE, Teboul JL. Prediction of fluid responsiveness: an update. *Ann Intensive Care* 2016; 6:111.
48. Cecconi M, Parsons AK, Rhodes A. What is a fluid challenge? *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2011; 17:290–295.
49. Monnet X, Teboul JL. Passive leg raising: five rules, not a drop of fluid! *Crit Care* 2015; 19:18.
50. Kristensen SD, Knuuti J, Saraste A, *et al.* 2014 ESC/ESA Guidelines on noncardiac surgery: cardiovascular assessment and management: The Joint Task Force on noncardiac surgery: cardiovascular assessment and management of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Society of Anaesthesiology (ESA). *Eur Heart J* 2014; 35:2383–2431.
51. Cecconi M, Corredor C, Arulkumaran N, *et al.* Clinical review: goal-directed therapy-what is the evidence in surgical patients? The effect on different risk groups. *Crit Care* 2013; 17:209.
52. Pearse RM, Harrison DA, MacDonald N, *et al.* Effect of a perioperative, cardiac output-guided hemodynamic therapy algorithm on outcomes following major gastrointestinal surgery: a randomized clinical trial and systematic review. *JAMA* 2014; 311:2181–2190.
53. Gurgel ST, do Nascimento P Jr. Maintaining tissue perfusion in high-risk surgical patients: a systematic review of randomized clinical trials. *Anesth Analg* 2011; 112:1384–1391.
54. Hamilton MA, Cecconi M, Rhodes A. A systematic review and meta-analysis on the use of preemptive hemodynamic intervention to improve postoperative outcomes in moderate and high-risk surgical patients. *Anesth Analg* 2011; 112:1392–1402.
55. Singer M. Oesophageal Doppler monitoring: should it be routine for high-risk surgical patients? *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol* 2011; 24: 171–176.
56. Nicklas JY, Saugel B. Non-invasive hemodynamic monitoring for hemodynamic management in perioperative medicine. *Front Med (Lausanne)* 2017; 4:209.
57. American Society of Anesthesiologists and Society of Cardiovascular Anesthesiologists Task Force on Transesophageal Echocardiography. Practice guidelines for perioperative transesophageal echocardiography. An updated report by the American Society of Anesthesiologists and the Society of Cardiovascular Anesthesiologists Task Force on Transesophageal Echocardiography. *Anesthesiology* 2010; 112:1084–1096.
58. Hahn RT, Abraham T, Adams MS, *et al.* Guidelines for performing a comprehensive transesophageal echocardiographic examination: recommendations from the American Society of Echocardiography and the Society of Cardiovascular Anesthesiologists. *Anesth Analg* 2014; 118: 21–68.