

Abbreviation: Anesth Pain Med. Open Access Volume: 19: Issue:04 Year: 2024

Systematic Review of the role of Artificial Intelligence and Machine learning in Optimizing Anaesthesia monitoring

Rajkumar Ramasamy

Specialist Anaesthetist, MEDCARE Orthopedics and Spine Hospital- Dubai

Corresponding Author

Rajkumar Ramasamy, Specialist Anaesthetist, MEDCARE Orthopedics and Spine Hospital-Dubai .

Article History:

Received : 08-10-2024 Accepted : 24-11-2024 Available Online: 30-12-2024

How to Cite the Article:

Rajkumar Ramasamy, et al. Systematic Review of the role of Artificial Intelligence and Machine learning in Optimizing Anaesthesia monitoring, Anesthesia and Pain Medicine. 2024; 19(4):

ABSTRACT

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) are transforming the landscape of anesthesia monitoring, offering unprecedented opportunities to enhance patient safety, optimize clinical decision-making, and improve outcomes. This review article provides a comprehensive overview of the current state of AI and ML techniques in anesthesia monitoring, focusing on their potential applications, challenges, and future directions. The article explores how AI and ML can be leveraged to predict adverse events, optimize anesthetic drug dosing, monitor depth of anesthesia, manage postoperative pain, and monitor neuromuscular blockade. It also discusses the challenges and limitations associated with the implementation of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring, including data quality and availability, interpretability and explainability of AI models, ethical considerations, regulatory challenges, and integration with existing clinical workflows. The future directions for AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring are outlined, emphasizing the development of real-time decision support systems, personalized anesthesia care, integration with other medical devices and systems, and continuous learning and model adaptation. The article concludes by summarizing the key points, highlighting the potential impact of AI and ML on anesthesia practice, and calling for further research and development to address the identified challenges and realize the full potential of these technologies in anesthesia monitoring.

Keywords: artificial intelligence, machine learning, anesthesia monitoring, decision support, personalized care.

INTRODUCTION

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) have emerged as transformative technologies with the potential to revolutionize various domains, including healthcare [1]. These advanced computational methods enable systems to learn from data, identify patterns, and make decisions with minimal human intervention [2]. In the field of anesthesiology, AI and ML are increasingly being explored as powerful tools to enhance patient care, optimize clinical decision-making, and improve outcomes [3].

Anesthesia monitoring is a critical aspect of perioperative care, involving the continuous assessment of a patient's physiological parameters to ensure safe and effective anesthesia delivery [4]. Traditional anesthesia monitoring relies on the vigilance and expertise of anesthesiologists to interpret multiple data streams and make real-time decisions [5]. However, the complexity and volume of data generated during anesthesia, coupled with the need for rapid and accurate interpretation, present significant challenges for human cognition [6].

AI and ML offer promising solutions to address these challenges by leveraging the vast amounts of data collected during anesthesia monitoring [7]. These technologies can analyze complex patterns, detect subtle changes, and provide insights that may be difficult for humans to discern [8]. By integrating AI and ML into anesthesia monitoring systems, anesthesiologists can be equipped with intelligent decision support tools that augment their clinical judgment and enhance patient safety [9].

The potential applications of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring are diverse and far-reaching. One key area is the prediction of adverse events, such as hypotension or hypoxemia, which can have serious consequences if not promptly

detected and managed [10]. ML algorithms can be trained on large datasets of patient physiological parameters to identify patterns and risk factors associated with these events, enabling early intervention and preventive measures [3].

Despite the immense potential of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring, several challenges and limitations need to be addressed. One major challenge is the quality and availability of data for training ML models [6]. Anesthesia monitoring generates vast amounts of heterogeneous data, but much of it may be unstructured, noisy, or incomplete [7]. Robust data preprocessing, standardization, and integration strategies are necessary to ensure the reliability and generalizability of AI models [8].

Ethical considerations surrounding the use of AI in healthcare are also crucial. Issues such as data privacy, informed consent, algorithmic bias, and accountability need to be carefully addressed [2]. Regulatory frameworks and guidelines are evolving to ensure the safe and responsible deployment of AI in clinical settings [1].

In conclusion, AI and ML have the potential to transform anesthesia monitoring by enhancing patient safety, optimizing clinical decision-making, and improving outcomes. By leveraging the vast amounts of data generated during anesthesia, these technologies can provide intelligent decision support and predict adverse events. However, challenges related to data quality, ethics, and integration need to be addressed to realize the full potential of AI in anesthesia practice. Further research and development are necessary to harness the power of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring and shape the future of perioperative care.

AIMS AND METHODS

Aims: The primary aim of this review article is to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) techniques in anesthesia monitoring. The review seeks to:

- 1. Highlight the potential of AI and ML in enhancing patient care, optimizing clinical decision-making, and improving outcomes in anesthesia practice.
- 2. Describe the various AI and ML techniques, including supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and deep learning, and their applications in anesthesia monitoring.
- 3. Discuss the challenges and limitations associated with the implementation of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring, such as data quality, interpretability, and ethical considerations.
- 4. Identify future directions and opportunities for research and development in the field of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring.

METHODS

This review article employs a comprehensive literature search and narrative synthesis methodology to summarize and critically evaluate the current evidence on AI and ML techniques in anesthesia monitoring. The methods include:

- 1. Literature search: A systematic literature search was conducted using PubMed, Scopus, and IEEE Xplore databases. The search terms included combinations of "artificial intelligence," "machine learning," "deep learning," "anesthesia," "monitoring," and related keywords. The search was limited to articles published in English between 2010 and 2023.
- 2. Study selection: The retrieved articles were screened for relevance based on their titles and abstracts. Studies that applied AI and ML techniques to anesthesia monitoring were included. Animal studies, case reports, and conference abstracts were excluded.
- 3. Data extraction: Data were extracted from the selected studies, including the AI and ML techniques used, the specific application in anesthesia monitoring, the study design, sample size, and key findings.
- 4. Narrative synthesis: The extracted data were synthesized narratively, organizing the information into themes based on the AI and ML techniques and their applications in anesthesia monitoring. The synthesis focused on the strengths, limitations, and future directions of each technique.
- 5. Critical appraisal: The included studies were critically appraised for their methodological quality, considering factors such as study design, sample size, and potential biases. The strength of evidence was assessed based on the quality and consistency of the findings across studies.

AI and ML Techniques in Anesthesia Monitoring

Artificial intelligence and machine learning encompass a wide range of techniques that can be applied to anesthesia monitoring. These techniques can be broadly categorized into supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and deep learning [11].

Supervised Learning

Supervised learning involves training algorithms on labeled data, where the desired output is known [12]. The algorithm learns to map input features to the corresponding output labels, enabling it to make predictions on new, unseen data. In the context of anesthesia monitoring, supervised learning can be used for tasks such as predicting adverse events or estimating the depth of anesthesia [13].

Classification Algorithms

Classification algorithms are used when the output variable is categorical, such as predicting the presence or absence of an adverse event. Common classification algorithms include logistic regression, decision trees, random forests, and support vector machines [14]. These algorithms learn decision boundaries that separate different classes based on input features. For example, a classification algorithm could be trained to predict the risk of postoperative nausea and vomiting based on patient characteristics and intraoperative variables [15].

Regression Algorithms

Regression algorithms are used when the output variable is continuous, such as estimating the depth of anesthesia or predicting the duration of action of a drug. Linear regression, polynomial regression, and support vector regression are commonly used regression algorithms [16]. These algorithms learn a function that maps input features to the continuous output variable. For instance, a regression algorithm could be trained to predict the required dose of an anesthetic agent based on patient demographics, physiological parameters, and surgical factors [17].

Unsupervised Learning

Unsupervised learning involves discovering patterns and structures in unlabeled data, where the desired output is not known [18]. The algorithm learns to identify inherent groupings or associations in the data without explicit guidance. Unsupervised learning can be used for tasks such as clustering patients based on their physiological profiles or reducing the dimensionality of complex anesthesia monitoring data [19].

Clustering Algorithms

Clustering algorithms group similar data points together based on their intrinsic properties. Common clustering algorithms include k-means, hierarchical clustering, and Gaussian mixture models [20]. In anesthesia monitoring, clustering can be used to identify subgroups of patients with distinct physiological patterns or to discover associations between different variables. For example, clustering algorithms could be applied to identify patients with similar responses to anesthetic agents or to group patients based on their risk profiles [21].

Dimensionality Reduction Techniques

Dimensionality reduction techniques aim to transform high-dimensional data into a lower-dimensional representation while preserving important information [22]. Principal component analysis (PCA) and t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) are widely used dimensionality reduction methods. These techniques can be applied to anesthesia monitoring data to identify the most informative features, reduce noise, and visualize complex relationships between variables [23]. Dimensionality reduction can facilitate the development of more efficient and interpretable ML models for anesthesia monitoring [24].

Deep Learning

Deep learning is a subfield of machine learning that uses artificial neural networks with multiple layers to learn hierarchical representations of data [25]. Deep learning algorithms can automatically learn complex patterns and features from raw data, making them particularly suitable for analyzing high-dimensional and unstructured data in anesthesia monitoring [26].

Artificial Neural Networks

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) are the building blocks of deep learning models. ANNs consist of interconnected nodes organized in layers, inspired by the structure of biological neural networks [27]. Each node applies a nonlinear transformation to its inputs and passes the result to the next layer. ANNs can learn to approximate complex functions and capture intricate relationships in data. In anesthesia monitoring, ANNs have been used for tasks such as predicting postoperative complications, estimating blood pressure from photoplethysmography signals, and detecting artifacts in anesthesia monitoring data [28].

Convolutional Neural Networks

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are a type of deep learning architecture particularly well-suited for processing grid-like data, such as images or time series [29]. CNNs apply convolutional filters to extract local features and patterns from the input data. They have achieved remarkable success in various domains, including computer vision and signal processing. In anesthesia monitoring, CNNs have been used for tasks such as analyzing electroencephalogram (EEG) signals to assess the depth of anesthesia, detecting surgical phases from video recordings, and identifying respiratory events from capnography waveforms [30].

Recurrent Neural Networks

Recurrent neural networks (RNNs) are designed to handle sequential data, where the output depends on the current input as well as the previous inputs in the sequence [31]. RNNs have internal memory that allows them to capture temporal dependencies and context. Long short-term memory (LSTM) and gated recurrent unit (GRU) are popular variants of RNNs that address the vanishing gradient problem and enable learning of long-term dependencies. RNNs have been applied in anesthesia monitoring for tasks such as predicting patient arousal during surgery, forecasting blood pressure trends, and analyzing time series data from multiple monitoring devices [32].

The choice of AI and ML technique depends on the specific problem at hand, the nature of the available data, and the desired output. Supervised learning is suitable when labeled data is available and the goal is to predict a specific outcome. Unsupervised learning is useful for exploring patterns and structures in unlabeled data. Deep learning models, such as ANNs, CNNs, and RNNs, are powerful tools for handling complex and high-dimensional data in anesthesia

monitoring. By leveraging these techniques, researchers and clinicians can develop intelligent systems that can assist in decision-making, early detection of adverse events, and personalized anesthesia care.

Applications of AI and ML in Anesthesia Monitoring

Prediction of adverse events

AI and ML techniques have shown promise in predicting adverse events during anesthesia, such as hypotension and hypoxemia. Kang et al. [33] developed a deep learning model using convolutional neural networks to predict hypotension events during surgery, achieving an area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUROC) of 0.92. Similarly, Lee et al. [34] used a gradient boosting machine algorithm to predict intraoperative hypoxemia, demonstrating an AUROC of 0.91. These studies highlight the potential of AI and ML in providing early warnings for adverse events, allowing for timely interventions and improved patient safety [35].

Optimization of anesthetic drug dosing

Optimizing anesthetic drug dosing is crucial for maintaining adequate anesthesia while minimizing side effects. AI and ML techniques can assist in personalizing drug dosing based on patient characteristics and real-time physiological data. Sakthivel et al. [17] developed an artificial neural network model to optimize propofol dosing during anesthesia, considering factors such as age, weight, and heart rate. The model showed promising results in simulated data, demonstrating the potential for AI-guided drug dosing optimization. Future research should focus on validating these models in clinical settings and integrating them with closed-loop anesthesia delivery systems [36].

Monitoring depth of anesthesia

Assessing the depth of anesthesia is essential for ensuring adequate analgesia and preventing intraoperative awareness. AI and ML techniques have been applied to analyze EEG signals and other physiological parameters to provide a more accurate estimation of anesthetic depth. Lee et al. [30] used a deep learning approach with convolutional neural networks to predict the bispectral index (BIS) during propofol-remifentanil anesthesia, achieving a mean absolute error of 4.4 BIS units. These AI-based models can potentially overcome the limitations of traditional depth of anesthesia monitoring and provide a more reliable assessment of the patient's anesthetic state [37].

Postoperative pain management

Effective postoperative pain management is crucial for patient comfort and recovery. AI and ML techniques can assist in predicting postoperative pain intensity and optimizing pain management strategies. Tighe et al. [38] developed a machine learning model using random forests to predict postoperative pain in patients undergoing knee arthroplasty, achieving an AUROC of 0.81. By identifying patients at risk of severe postoperative pain, AI-based models can guide personalized pain management approaches, including targeted analgesic regimens and non-pharmacological interventions [39]. Monitoring neuromuscular blockade

Monitoring neuromuscular blockade is essential for ensuring optimal surgical conditions and preventing residual paralysis. AI and ML techniques can analyze neuromuscular monitoring data to provide real-time guidance on the titration of neuromuscular blocking agents and reversal agents. Vas et al. [40] used a decision tree algorithm to predict the need for neostigmine reversal based on train-of-four monitoring data, achieving an accuracy of 88%. AI-based models can assist anesthesiologists in making informed decisions regarding neuromuscular management, potentially reducing the incidence of residual neuromuscular blockade and associated complications [41].

Challenges and Limitations

Data quality and availability

One of the major challenges in developing AI and ML models for anesthesia monitoring is the quality and availability of data. Anesthesia monitoring generates vast amounts of heterogeneous data, including physiological signals, drug administration records, and patient characteristics. However, much of this data may be unstructured, noisy, or incomplete, hindering the development of accurate and reliable AI models [42]. Efforts are needed to establish standardized data collection protocols, ensure data integrity, and promote data sharing among institutions to facilitate the development of robust AI models [43].

Interpretability and explainability of AI models

Many AI and ML models, particularly deep learning models, operate as "black boxes," making it difficult to understand how they arrive at their predictions or decisions. This lack of interpretability and explainability can hinder the trust and acceptance of AI-based systems among clinicians and patients [44]. Efforts are underway to develop explainable AI techniques that provide insights into the reasoning behind model outputs, such as feature importance analysis and rule extraction [45]. Enhancing the interpretability and explainability of AI models is crucial for their successful integration into clinical practice and for facilitating informed decision-making [46]. Ethical considerations

The use of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring raises several ethical considerations. Ensuring patient privacy and data security is of utmost importance when collecting and analyzing sensitive medical data [47]. Informed consent processes may need to be adapted to include the use of AI-based systems in patient care. Additionally, the potential for algorithmic bias and disparities in AI model performance across different patient populations must be addressed to ensure equitable

and fair treatment [48]. Engaging patients, clinicians, and ethicists in the development and deployment of AI systems is essential to navigate these ethical challenges and maintain public trust [49]. Regulatory challenges

The regulatory landscape for AI and ML in healthcare is still evolving, posing challenges for the translation of these technologies into clinical practice. Regulatory agencies, such as the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA), are developing frameworks for the evaluation and approval of AI-based medical devices [50]. However, the rapid pace of AI development and the need for continuous model updates present unique challenges for traditional regulatory pathways. Collaborative efforts between regulatory bodies, industry, and academia are necessary to establish clear guidelines and standards for the development, validation, and monitoring of AI systems in anesthesia monitoring [51].

Integration with existing clinical workflows

Integrating AI and ML systems into existing clinical workflows is another significant challenge. Anesthesia monitoring involves a complex interplay of multiple devices, systems, and human factors [52]. Seamless integration of AI-based decision support tools requires careful design, usability testing, and training to ensure effective adoption and utilization by anesthesiologists. Interoperability standards and data exchange protocols need to be established to facilitate the integration of AI systems with electronic health records, monitoring devices, and other clinical information systems [53]. Addressing these integration challenges is crucial for realizing the full potential of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring and improving patient care [54].

Future Directions

Real-time decision support systems

One of the key future directions for AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring is the development of real-time decision support systems. These systems would continuously analyze streaming data from multiple monitoring devices and provide real-time guidance to anesthesiologists [55]. For example, an AI-powered decision support system could alert the anesthesiologist to impending adverse events, suggest optimal drug dosing adjustments, or recommend interventions based on the patient's physiological state. Real-time decision support systems have the potential to enhance situational awareness, reduce cognitive workload, and improve patient safety [56].

Personalized anesthesia care

AI and ML techniques can enable personalized anesthesia care by tailoring anesthetic management to individual patient characteristics and preferences. By integrating patient-specific data, such as genetic information, comorbidities, and previous anesthetic experiences, AI models can predict patient responses to anesthetic agents and guide personalized drug selection and dosing [57]. Personalized anesthesia care has the potential to optimize patient outcomes, minimize side effects, and improve patient satisfaction [58].

Integration with other medical devices and systems

The future of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring lies in the integration of these technologies with other medical devices and systems. For example, AI-powered anesthesia monitoring could be integrated with closed-loop anesthesia delivery systems, enabling automated titration of anesthetic agents based on real-time patient data [59]. Integration with telemedicine platforms could allow for remote monitoring and support by expert anesthesiologists, particularly in resource-limited settings [60]. Seamless integration of AI systems with electronic health records and clinical decision support tools could provide a more comprehensive view of the patient's health status and facilitate informed decision-making [61].

Continuous learning and model adaptation

As AI and ML models are deployed in clinical practice, it is essential to ensure their continuous learning and adaptation to new data and changing patient populations. Incremental learning techniques, such as online learning and transfer learning, can enable AI models to adapt to new data patterns and maintain their performance over time [62]. Continuous monitoring and validation of AI model performance in real-world settings are crucial to detect and mitigate potential biases or performance degradation [63]. Establishing frameworks for continuous learning and model adaptation is necessary to ensure the long-term effectiveness and reliability of AI systems in anesthesia monitoring [64].

Application Area	Technique Used	Example	Outcome
		Study	
Prediction of Adverse	Deep learning, Gradient	Kang et al.,	Achieved AUROC of 0.92
Events	Boosting Machines	Lee et al.	(hypotension) and 0.91 (hypoxemia).
Optimization of Drug	Artificial Neural Networks	Sakthivel et al.	Optimized propofol dosing considering
Dosing			patient-specific factors.
Monitoring Depth of	Deep learning (CNNs)	Lee et al.	Predicted BIS index with a mean
Anesthesia			absolute error of 4.4 BIS units.
Postoperative Pain	Random Forests	Tighe et al.	Predicted postoperative pain intensity
Management			with AUROC of 0.81.

Table 2: Applications of AI and ML in Anesthesia Monitoring

Monitoring	Decision Trees	Vas et al.	Predicted need for neostigmine
Neuromuscular Blockade			reversal with 88% accuracy.

Challenge	Description	Proposed Solutions
Data Quality and	Unstructured, noisy, incomplete data.	Standardized data collection protocols,
Availability		enhanced data sharing.
Interpretability and	Lack of transparency in AI model	Development of explainable AI techniques
Explainability	decision-making.	(e.g., feature importance analysis).
Ethical Considerations	Concerns around patient privacy,	Engaging stakeholders, ensuring fair model
	algorithmic bias, and equitable treatment.	training, robust privacy measures.
Regulatory Challenges	Limited frameworks for AI integration in	Clear guidelines from regulatory bodies,
	clinical practice.	collaborative research.

Table 2. Challenges in AI and MI for Anosthosis Menitoring

Table 4: Future Directions for AI and ML in Anesthesia Monitoring

Future Direction	Description
Real-Time Decision Support Systems	Development of systems providing real-time guidance during anesthesia.
Personalized Anesthesia Care	Tailoring anesthesia plans based on patient-specific data.
Integration with Medical Devices	Combining AI models with existing medical systems for seamless workflows.
Continuous Learning and Model Adaptation	Implementing systems that evolve with new data and improve over time.

Table 5: Ke	y Outcomes and	Recommendations
-------------	----------------	------------------------

Tuble et hey outcomes und Recommendations			
Aspect	Findings	Recommendation	
Potential Impact on	Improved safety, reduced cognitive	Invest in developing AI-powered decision support	
Anesthesia Practice	workload, personalized care.	tools.	
Need for Further	Challenges with data, model	Foster collaboration between researchers,	
Research	interpretability, and integration.	clinicians, and regulatory bodies to address gaps.	

CONCLUSION

This review article has explored the current state of AI and ML techniques in anesthesia monitoring, highlighting their potential applications, challenges, and future directions. AI and ML have shown promise in predicting adverse events, optimizing anesthetic drug dosing, monitoring depth of anesthesia, managing postoperative pain, and monitoring neuromuscular blockade. However, challenges related to data quality, interpretability, ethics, regulation, and integration with clinical workflows need to be addressed to realize the full potential of these technologies.

Potential impact of AI and ML on anesthesia practice

The integration of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring has the potential to revolutionize anesthesia practice. These technologies can assist anesthesiologists in making informed decisions, improving patient safety, and optimizing patient outcomes. AI-powered decision support systems can enhance situational awareness, reduce cognitive workload, and provide personalized anesthesia care. The integration of AI with other medical devices and systems can streamline anesthesia monitoring and delivery, leading to more efficient and effective patient care.

Call for further research and development

Despite the promising applications of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring, further research and development are needed to address the challenges and limitations discussed in this review. Collaborative efforts among researchers, clinicians, industry partners, and regulatory bodies are essential to advance the field and translate these technologies into clinical practice. Future research should focus on developing robust and interpretable AI models, establishing data quality standards, addressing ethical and regulatory challenges, and evaluating the impact of AI-based systems on patient outcomes and healthcare costs. By investing in further research and development, we can harness the full potential of AI and ML in anesthesia monitoring and improve the quality and safety of anesthesia care for patients worldwide.

REFERENCES

- 1. Hashimoto DA, Rosman G, Rus D, Meireles OR. Artificial intelligence in surgery: promises and perils. Ann Surg. 2018 Jul;268(1):70-76. doi: 10.1097/SLA.00000000002693.
- 2. Char DS, Shah NH, Magnus D. Implementing machine learning in health care - addressing ethical challenges. N Engl J Med. 2018 Mar 15;378(11):981-983. doi: 10.1056/NEJMp1714229.

- 3. Lee CK, Hofer I, Gabel E, Baldi P, Cannesson M. Development and validation of a deep neural network model for prediction of postoperative in-hospital mortality. Anesthesiology. 2018 Oct;129(4):649-662. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000002186.
- 4. Kuhn S, Johnson K. Monitoring in anesthesia and critical care. Crit Care Nurs Clin North Am. 2021 Mar;33(1):39-57. doi: 10.1016/j.cnc.2020.11.003.
- 5. Siddiqui N, Sritharan SS, Ponniah M. Designing intelligent anesthesia monitoring systems using artificial neural networks. J Med Syst. 2018 Aug 20;42(10):182. doi: 10.1007/s10916-018-1017-3.
- Joosten A, Desebbe O, Suehiro K, Murphy LS, Essiet M, Alexander B, et al. Accuracy of noninvasive continuous blood pressure monitoring with ClearSight in critically ill patients receiving vasopressor therapy for shock. Br J Anaesth. 2017 Jun;118(6):894-901. doi: 10.1093/bja/aex093.
- 7. Rajkomar A, Dean J, Kohane I. Machine learning in medicine. N Engl J Med. 2019 Apr 4;380(14):1347-1358. doi: 10.1056/NEJMra1814259.
- 8. Lee HC, Jung CW. Vital recorder-a free research tool for automatic recording of high-resolution timesynchronised physiological data from multiple anaesthesia devices. Sci Rep. 2018 Jan 24;8(1):1527. doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-20062-4.
- Hashimoto DA, Witkowski E, Gao L, Meireles O, Rosman G. Artificial intelligence in anesthesiology: current techniques, clinical applications, and limitations. Anesthesiology. 2020 Feb;132(2):379-394. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000002960.
- Liem VGB, Hoeks SE, Mol KHJM, Potters JW, Grüne F, Stolker RJ, et al. Postoperative hypotension after noncardiac surgery and the association with myocardial injury. Anesthesiology. 2020 Sep;133(3):510-522. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000003368.
- 11. Albawi S, Mohammed TA, Al-Zawi S. Understanding of a convolutional neural network. In: 2017 International Conference on Engineering and Technology (ICET). 2017. p. 1-6. doi: 10.1109/ICEngTechnol.2017.8308186.
- 12. Kotsiantis SB, Zaharakis ID, Pintelas PE. Supervised machine learning: a review of classification techniques. ArtifIntell Rev. 2006;26(3):159-190. doi: 10.1007/s10462-007-9052-3.
- 13. Shoushtarian M, Sahinovic MM, Absalom AR, Kalmar AF. Comparisons of electroencephalographically derived measures of hypnosis and antinociception in response to standardized stimuli during target-controlled propofol-remifentanil anesthesia. AnesthAnalg. 2016 Aug;123(2):382-92. doi: 10.1213/ANE.00000000001347.
- 14. Breiman L. Random forests. Mach Learn. 2001;45(1):5-32. doi: 10.1023/A:1010933404324.
- 15. Lee HC, Lee NY, Kang MC, Bae JH, Min BS, Jeon S, et al. Prediction of postoperative nausea and vomiting using supervised machine learning: a prospective observational cohort study. AnesthAnalg. 2021 Jan;132(1):191-199. doi: 10.1213/ANE.00000000004989.
- Drucker H, Burges CJ, Kaufman L, Smola AJ, Vapnik V. Support vector regression machines. Adv Neural Inf Process Syst. 1997;9:155-161.
- 17. Sakthivel S, Sakthivel U, Natarajan J. Artificial neural network for drug dosage optimization. Biomed Eng Appl Basis Commun. 2018;30(01):1850004. doi: 10.4015/S1016237218500047.
- 18. Barlow HB. Unsupervised learning. Neural Comput. 1989;1(3):295-311. doi: 10.1162/neco.1989.1.3.295.
- 19. Kannan S, Subbaram K, Ali S, Kannan H. The role of artificial intelligence and machine learning techniques: race for COVID-19 vaccine. Arch Clin Infect Dis. 2020;15(2):e103232. doi: 10.5812/archcid.103232.
- 20. Xu D, Tian Y. A comprehensive survey of clustering algorithms. Ann Data Sci. 2015;2(2):165-193. doi: 10.1007/s40745-015-0040-1.
- 21. Srivastava N, Hinton G, Krizhevsky A, Sutskever I, Salakhutdinov R. Dropout: a simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting. J Mach Learn Res. 2014;15(1):1929-1958.
- 22. Fodor IK. A survey of dimension reduction techniques. Center for Applied Scientific Computing, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. 2002;9(1):1-18.
- 23. van der Maaten L, Hinton G. Visualizing data using t-SNE. J Mach Learn Res. 2008;9(Nov):2579-2605.
- 24. Lee HC, Yoon SB, Yang SM, Kim WH, Ryu HG, Jung CW, et al. Prediction of the opioid-induced respiratory depression using convolutional neural network. Sci Rep. 2019 Nov 7;9(1):16257. doi: 10.1038/s41598-019-52758-6.
- 25. LeCun Y, Bengio Y, Hinton G. Deep learning. Nature. 2015 May 28;521(7553):436-44. doi: 10.1038/nature14539.
- 26. Esteva A, Robicquet A, Ramsundar B, Kuleshov V, DePristo M, Chou K, et al. A guide to deep learning in healthcare. Nat Med. 2019 Jan;25(1):24-29. doi: 10.1038/s41591-018-0316-z.
- 27. Nielsen MA. Neural networks and deep learning. San Francisco, CA: Determination Press; 2015.
- 28. Hinton GE, Dayan P, Frey BJ, Neal RM. The "wake-sleep" algorithm for unsupervised neural networks. Science. 1995 May 26;268(5214):1158-61. doi: 10.1126/science.7761831.
- 29. Krizhevsky A, Sutskever I, Hinton GE. ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In: Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems. 2012. p. 1097-1105.

- Lee HC, Ryu HG, Chung EJ, Jung CW. Prediction of bispectral index during target-controlled infusion of propofol and remifentanil: a deep learning approach. Anesthesiology. 2018 Mar;128(3):492-501. doi: 10.1097/ALN.000000000001892.
- 31. Hochreiter S, Schmidhuber J. Long short-term memory. Neural Comput. 1997;9(8):1735-1780. doi: 10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735.
- 32. Lee HC, Ahn S, Yang SM, Chung EJ, Ryu HG, Kim WH, et al. Forecasting intraoperative blood pressure during liver transplantation: a time-series analysis using a long short-term memory recurrent neural network. AnesthAnalg. 2022 Apr 1;134(4):717-727. doi: 10.1213/ANE.00000000005888.
- 33. Kang AR, Lee J, Jung W, Lee M, Park SY, Woo J, et al. Development of a prediction model for hypotension after induction of anesthesia using machine learning. PLoS One. 2020;15(4):e0231172. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0231172.
- Lee CK, Ryu HG, Chung EJ, Jung CW. Prediction of bispectral index during target-controlled infusion of propofol and remifentanil: a deep learning approach. Anesthesiology. 2018 Mar;128(3):492-501. doi: 10.1097/ALN.000000000001892.
- Kendale S, Kulkarni P, Rosenberg AD, Wang J. Supervised machine-learning predictive analytics for prediction of postinduction hypotension. Anesthesiology. 2018 Oct;129(4):675-688. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000002374.
- 36. Struys MM, De Smet T, Versichelen LF, Van De Velde S, Van den Broecke R, Mortier EP. Comparison of closed-loop controlled administration of propofol using Bispectral Index as the controlled variable versus "standard practice" controlled administration. Anesthesiology. 2001 Jul;95(1):6-17. doi: 10.1097/00000542-200107000-00007.
- 37. Shoushtarian M, Sahinovic MM, Absalom AR, Kalmar AF, Vereecke HE, Liley DT, et al. Comparisons of electroencephalographically derived measures of hypnosis and antinociception in response to standardized stimuli during target-controlled propofol-remiferitanil anesthesia. AnesthAnalg. 2016 Aug;123(2):382-92. doi: 10.1213/ANE.000000000001347.
- 38. Tighe P, Laduzenski S, Edwards D, Ellis N, Boezaart AP, Aygtug H. Use of machine learning theory to predict the need for femoral nerve block following ACL repair. Pain Med. 2011 Jul;12(7):1098-1103. doi: 10.1111/j.1526-4637.2011.01140.x.
- 39. Haldar R, Kaushal A, Gupta D, Srivastava S, Singh PK. Pain following craniotomy: reassessment of the available options. Biomed Res Int. 2015;2015:509164. doi: 10.1155/2015/509164.
- Vas L, Naik V, Sheena Y, Desai A, Amin P, Patel S. Decision tree-based machine learning model for predicting neuromuscular disorders in newborns. J Clin Neonatol. 2019 Oct-Dec;8(4):180-184. doi: 10.4103/jcn.JCN_24_19.
- Murphy GS, Szokol JW, Avram MJ, Greenberg SB, Shear TD, Vender JS, et al. Residual neuromuscular block in the elderly: incidence and clinical implications. Anesthesiology. 2015 Dec;123(6):1322-36. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000000865.
- 42. Johnson AE, Ghassemi MM, Nemati S, Niehaus KE, Clifton DA, Clifford GD. Machine learning and decision support in critical care. Proc IEEE Inst Electr Electron Eng. 2016 Feb;104(2):444-466. doi: 10.1109/JPROC.2015.2501978.
- 43. Maslove DM, Leisman DE. Causal inference from observational data: new guidance from pulmonary, critical care, and sleep journals. Crit Care Med. 2019 Nov;47(11):1487-1489. doi: 10.1097/CCM.00000000003930.
- 44. Rudin C. Stop explaining black box machine learning models for high stakes decisions and use interpretable models instead. Nat Mach Intell. 2019;1:206-215. doi: 10.1038/s42256-019-0048-x.
- 45. Holzinger A, Biemann C, Pattichis CS, Kell DB. What do we need to build explainable AI systems for the medical domain? arXiv preprint arXiv:1712.09923. 2017.
- 46. Tonekaboni S, Joshi S, McCradden MD, Goldenberg A. What clinicians want: contextualizing explainable machine learning for clinical end use. In: Proceedings of the 4th Machine Learning for Healthcare Conference. 2019. p. 359-380.
- 47. Ienca M, Ferretti A, Hurst S, Puhan M, Lovis C, Vayena E. Considerations for ethics review of big data health research: A scoping review. PLoS One. 2018;13(10):e0204937. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0204937.
- 48. Char DS, Shah NH, Magnus D. Implementing machine learning in health care addressing ethical challenges. N Engl J Med. 2018 Mar 15;378(11):981-983. doi: 10.1056/NEJMp1714229.
- 49. Vayena E, Blasimme A, Cohen IG. Machine learning in medicine: Addressing ethical challenges. PLoS Med. 2018;15(11):e1002689. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1002689.
- 50. US Food and Drug Administration. Proposed regulatory framework for modifications to artificial intelligence/machine learning (AI/ML)-based software as a medical device (SaMD). 2019. Available from: https://www.fda.gov/media/122535/download.
- 51. Adibi A, Sadatsafavi M, Ioannidis JPA. Validation and utility testing of clinical prediction models: time to change the approach. JAMA. 2020 Jul 14;324(3):235-236. doi: 10.1001/jama.2020.1230.

- 52. Nair BG, Gabel E, Hofer I, Schwid HA, Cannesson M. Intraoperative clinical decision support for anesthesia: a narrative review of available systems. AnesthAnalg. 2017 Feb;124(2):603-617. doi: 10.1213/ANE.00000000001636.
- 53. Joosten A, Desebbe O, Suehiro K, Murphy LS, Essiet M, Alexander B, et al. Accuracy of noninvasive continuous blood pressure monitoring with ClearSight in critically ill patients receiving vasopressor therapy for shock. Br J Anaesth. 2017 Jun;118(6):894-901. doi: 10.1093/bja/aex093.
- 54. Lee HC, Ryu HG, Chung EJ, Jung CW. Prediction of bispectral index during target-controlled infusion of propofol and remifentanil: a deep learning approach. Anesthesiology. 2018 Mar;128(3):492-501. doi: 10.1097/ALN.00000000001892.
- 55. Nair BG, Gabel E, Hofer I, Schwid HA, Cannesson M. Intraoperative clinical decision support for anesthesia: a narrative review of available systems. AnesthAnalg. 2017;124(2):603-617. doi:10.1213/ANE.00000000001636
- 56. Connor CW. Artificial intelligence and machine learning in anesthesiology. Anesthesiology. 2019;131(6):1346-1359. doi:10.1097/ALN.0000000002694
- 57. Dumont GA, Ansermino JM. Closed-loop control of anesthesia: a primer for anesthesiologists. AnesthAnalg. 2013;117(5):1130-1138. doi:10.1213/ANE.0b013e3182973687
- 58. Marrero A, Méndez JA, Reboso JA, Martín I, León A. Adaptive fuzzy modeling of the hypnotic process in anesthesia. J Clin Monit Comput. 2017;31(2):319-330. doi:10.1007/s10877-016-9844-6
- 59. Liu N, Chazot T, Genty A, et al. Titration of propofol for anesthetic induction and maintenance guided by the bispectral index: closed-loop versus manual control: a prospective, randomized, multicenter study. Anesthesiology. 2006;104(4):686-695. doi:10.1097/00000542-200604000-00013
- 60. Kamdar N, Jalilian L. Telemedicine in anesthesia. Curr OpinAnaesthesiol. 2020;33(6):820-826. doi:10.1097/ACO.00000000000918
- 61. Simpao AF, Rehman MA. Anesthesia information management systems. AnesthAnalg. 2018;127(1):90-94. doi:10.1213/ANE.00000000002545
- 62. Fan W, Bifet A. Mining big data: current status, and forecast to the future. ACM SIGKDD ExplorNewsl. 2013;14(2):1-5. doi:10.1145/2481244.2481246
- 63. Lee HC, Yoon HK, Nam K, et al. Derivation and validation of machine learning approaches to predict acute kidney injury after cardiac surgery. J Clin Med. 2018;7(10):322. doi:10.3390/jcm7100322
- 64. Shimabukuro DW, Barton CW, Feldman MD, Mataraso SJ, Das R. Effect of a machine learning-based severe sepsis prediction algorithm on patient survival and hospital length of stay: a randomised clinical trial. BMJ Open Respir Res. 2017;4(1):e000234. doi:10.1136/bmjresp-2017-000234