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## Predicting the determinants of volume responsiveness

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Resuscitation from circulatory shock and stabilization of patients following major surgery are important and common problems faced by practicing acute care physicians. In mechanically ventilated patients without significant arrhythmias a pulse pressure variation (PPV) or stroke volume variation (SVV) greater than 15 % is highly predictive of volume responsiveness, defined as greater than 15 % increase in cardiac output (CO) in response to a fluid bolus of 250–500 ml [1, 2]. Similarly, measures of inferior or superior vena caval diameter change during ventilation and the step increase in arterial pressure or CO during transient end-expiratory hold all are also good predictors [3]. Finally, the dynamic change in CO in response to a passive leg raising maneuver is an excellent predictor under most commonly seen clinical scenarios [4]. Although one can easily predict volume responsiveness at the bedside using these and other functional hemodynamic monitoring approaches, none of these parameters explain why a patient is or is not volume responsive.

Cardiovascular state is characterized by performance parameters that encompass cardiac contractility, circulating blood volume, and vascular tone. These, in turn, as originally described by Guyton [5], can be assessed functionally as the effective circulating blood volume, resistance to venous return, and cardiac performance curve. Effective circulating blood volume, which itself is a function of total blood volume, blood flow distribution, and peripheral vasomotor tone, can be approximated as mean systemic pressure (P<sub>ms</sub>), the upstream pressure driving blood back to the heart from the circulation. That flow, also known as venous return, determines cardiac output, since in steady state conditions the heart must pump all the blood it receives back out and cannot pump any more than it receives. The downstream pressure for venous return is right atrial pressure (P<sub>ra</sub>). Thus, cardiac output is determined by both this pressure gradient and the resistance to venous return. Maas et al. [6] and Persichini et al. [7] examined at the bedside the effects of changes in norepinephrine infusion rates on cardiovascular state. Both groups showed that both P<sub>ms</sub> and P<sub>ra</sub>, their pressure difference (dV<sub>R</sub>), and the slope of the (P<sub>ms</sub> – P<sub>ra</sub>)/CO were altered. Decreasing vasomotor tone not only decreased P<sub>ms</sub> and dV<sub>R</sub> but decreased the resistance to venous return, minimizing the expected decline in venous return that would have otherwise occurred if only P<sub>ms</sub> had decreased. Similarly, increasing vasomotor tone not only increased P<sub>ms</sub> but also increased the resistance to venous return, minimizing any increase in flow expected by such increased dV<sub>R</sub>. Importantly, in the Maas et al. study, the ultimate increase or decrease in CO observed in response to the increase in vasomotor tone was the baseline cardiac performance. Thus non-volume-responsive patients decreased their CO, presumably because the increase in arterial pressure-induced left ventricular afterload was a more important determinant of CO than was the increase in P<sub>ms</sub>. Importantly, in their study, dV<sub>R</sub> did not increase in the non-responders and

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presumably cardiac performance deteriorated in the face of increasing afterload. Thus, the final cardiovascular state created in response to either fluid loading or changes in vasomotor tone is a complex relationship between changes in effective circulating blood volume and cardiac performance.

The classical method for estimating Pms and the resistance to venous return is to measure arterial blood pressure during cardiac arrest. Maas et al. and Persichini et al. used different methods, both based on an estimation of the venous return curve from a beat-to-beat measure of Pra and stroke volume during inspiratory and expiratory holds under positive pressure ventilation [6, 7]. Nevertheless, these later methods are not easy to use in routine practice. If one could assess both effective circulating blood volume and cardiac performance continuously at the bedside then it would be relatively easy to predict a patient's response to specific cardiovascular interventions. Importantly, Parkin and Leaning used a mathematical modeling technique to develop an algorithm for estimating an analogous value of Pms from commonly measured hemodynamic variables without stopping the heart. With this technique, one can accurately and continuously measure Pms, as an analogue construct, referred to as Pmsa [8]. By knowing both Pmsa and Pra, one can define cardiac performance (heart efficiency, Eh) as the ratio dVr/Pms, with a perfect heart having an Eh of 1. Mass et al. [9] reported a poor agreement between Pmsa and Pms but showed that changes in Pmsa could reflect changes in Pms measured by an independent technique. Then Lee et al. [10] subsequently validated, in an animal model, that this dynamic estimate of Pmsa was accurate under conditions of changing intravascular volume and endotoxin-induced changes in vasomotor tone. Finally, using the same algorithm, Cecconi et al. [11] showed that changes in dVr explained the changes in CO seen in postoperative patients in response to fluid bolus challenges.

So can we put these concepts together into a single analysis? The study by Gupta et al. [12] in a recent issue of *Intensive Care Medicine* attempts to do just that. Using the Parkin and Leaning Pmsa and Eh calculations, they described the CO changes of 61 cardiac postsurgical patients in response to 107 fluid boluses. They showed that patients with volume responsiveness, defined by an increase in CO of at least 10 %, were characterized by higher Eh than non-responders. The authors confirmed the results of Cecconi et al. [11] by showing that the increase in CO during volume expansion was accompanied by an increase in dVr that could be evidenced by the mathematical modeling algorithm. Note that this is not surprising since, with this algorithm, Pmsa is computed from CO itself. Furthermore, when

traditional measures of cardiac performance, like cardiac power (CPvol), defined as the product of stroke volume and developed pressure divided by Pmsa [13], was also measured, lower CPvol, describing an under-filled heart, predicted volume responsiveness. Nevertheless and again, this result is marred by the fact that CPvol was estimated from CO. Since CO was lower in responders than in non-responders before fluid bolus, the fact that it was also the case for CPvol is not surprising. Thus, the findings of Gupta et al. should be compared with a technique estimating Pms by a method independent of CO measurement. Nevertheless, this new study supports the findings of Mass et al. [6] and is consistent with those of Persichini et al. [7] and Cecconi et al. [11].

So where do we go from here? Is it enough to show that bedside assessments of cardiovascular state can be made, should we incorporate these assessments into routine bedside care, or incorporate such "advanced" analytics only in those difficult to diagnose or manage patients who do not respond as predicted? There really is no right answer. The main interest of assessing venous return in critically ill patients, as illustrated in the study by Gupta et al. [12], is to provide us with a comprehensive understanding of the individual patient's pathophysiology during circulatory failure and its response to treatments. Although knowing that patient responses follow measurable physiological parameters in a predictable fashion may be comforting to the novice clinician and useful to illustrate patient responses during bedside teaching, will it affect patient outcome? If the results of the two recent early goal-directed therapy in sepsis trials are any indication, probably not. Presently, the usefulness of these measures could reside in the province of the difficult to manage patient whose responses behave in an unpredictable fashion or in whom the cardiac and peripheral vascular components of their instability remain unclear but opposite treatments need to be given if the diagnosis is either one or the other. Still, considering the relative ease in continuous bedside measures of Pmsa, Eh, and CPvol, it would be interesting for critical care professionals to be cognizant of the techniques that allow their calculation and how they change in response to disease progression and treatment. The way in which it could modify a patient's evaluation and management is to be defined.

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## Applying mean systemic filling pressure to assess the response to fluid boluses in cardiac post-surgical patients

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**Take home message:** Cardiac power scaled to the mean systemic filling pressure and dynamic assessments of the venous return pressure gradient relative to the change in mean systemic filling pressure provided quantitative assessments of the efficiency of volume expansion to increase cardiac output.

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**Abstract Purpose:** To evaluate an analogue of mean systemic filling pressure ( $P_{msa}$ ) and derived variables to quantitatively assess the effectiveness of volume expansion in increasing cardiac output.

**Methods:** Sixty-one cardiac post-surgical patients were studied and 107 fluid boluses were captured. Cardiac output, mean arterial pressure and right atrial pressure were recorded with  $P_{msa}$  before and after a bolus fluid. An increase in cardiac output greater than 10 % following a fluid bolus defined a patient as a responder. Cardiac power (i.e. the product of arterial pressure and cardiac output) and  $P_{msa}$  to right atrial pressure gradient (i.e. the driving pressure for venous return and hence cardiac output) were evaluated to assess the efficiency of volume expansion to

increase cardiac output. Cardiac power relative to  $P_{msa}$  ( $CP_{vol}$ ), its dynamic changes and the dynamic changes in  $P_{msa}$ –right atrial pressure gradient relative to the  $P_{msa}$  change ( $E_{vol}$ ) were investigated.

**Results:**  $CP_{vol}$  was lower and  $E_{vol}$  was higher in responders vs. non-responders. Furthermore, in patients receiving a second fluid bolus,  $E_{vol}$  correlated with the degree of increase in cardiac output. Multivariate regression analysis identified both  $CP_{vol}$  and  $E_{vol}$  as independent variables associated with volume responsiveness.

**Conclusions:** Using an algorithm to derive a mean systemic filling pressure analogue, cardiac power and dynamic measures of the venous return pressure gradient relative to the mean systemic filling pressure provided an assessment of the efficiency of volume expansion in post-surgical cardiac patients.

**Keywords** Cardiovascular system · Methods · Hemodynamics · Cardiac output · Blood volume

### Introduction

While intravascular fluid loading is common in treating haemodynamic insufficiency, there is a paucity of evidence-based, scalar measures based on cardiovascular

variables and determinants to assess such therapy. The conventional way of assessing volume responsiveness is by the infusion of a fluid bolus or by a passive leg-raising manoeuvre [1]. An increase in cardiac output (CO) by 10–15 % has been used to define patients as responders or

non-responders. The response to volume is, however, more complex and should be described on the basis of efficiency of the administered volume to increase the power of the heart. Thus both mean arterial pressure (MAP) and CO, encompassing vascular tone and contractility, and any potential expense of increased right atrial pressure ( $P_{ra}$ ), should be included.

The commonly applied evaluation of pulse pressure or stroke volume variation during positive pressure ventilation [2] provides information on the volume state as it is influenced by changes in intrathoracic pressure. While simple (i.e. giving the dichotomous result volume responsive vs. non-responsive) and hence in wide use, not all cardiovascular determinants as described above are considered. The validity criteria for cardiorespiratory interactions may furthermore not always be met in the intensive care unit [3]. Additional methods to gain continuous quantitation of the volume state irrespective of heart rhythm and respiratory pattern would be expedient to guide the optimisation of cardiac output.

The mean systemic filling pressure ( $P_{ms}$ ) is the physiologically precise variable to gauge the systemic volume state. The difference between  $P_{ms}$  and right atrial pressure ( $P_{ra}$ ) determines the pressure gradient for the venous return (VR) and hence, together with the resistance to venous return (RVR), the CO, i.e.

$$CO = VR = (P_{ms} - RAP)/RVR \quad (1)$$

An analogue of  $P_{ms}$  ( $P_{msa}$ ) can be derived using a mathematical model based on anthropometric variables (age, height, weight) and direct measures of CO,  $P_{ra}$  and MAP [4]:

$$P_{msa} = a \times P_{ra} + b \times MAP + c \times CO \quad (2)$$

From Eq. (2) it is evident that any increase in the volume state ( $P_{msa}$ ) may be variably partitioned between  $P_{ra}$ , MAP and CO, and assessing volume responsiveness should consequently include all. If the entire rise is in  $P_{ra}$  and none in MAP or CO the patient is not volume responsive. Conversely, if the entire rise is in MAP and CO the patient is maximally volume responsive. The usual response of course is between these limits. The product of MAP and CO is referred to as cardiac power and provides an integrative measure of cardiac hydraulic pumping ability that correlates with clinical outcomes in cardiac patients [5–7].

The aim of this study was to explore the clinical applicability of  $P_{msa}$  together with a set of  $P_{msa}$ -derived measures to quantitatively assess the response to fluid boluses in patients admitted to ICU following cardiac surgery. It was hypothesised first, that the pressure gradient for VR (derived using  $P_{msa}$ ) would correlate with changes in CO; second, that dynamic changes in  $P_{msa}$  could provide a clinically valid adjunct to changes in CO in assessing volume responsiveness; third, that baseline cardiac power scaled to  $P_{msa}$  could indicate its potential

increase by volume expansion. Hence, this study was designed to provide a comprehensive assessment of the response to volume expansion. It was not primarily designed to a priori predict volume responsiveness. This distinction is important, particularly as a quantitative volume assessment may still provide valuable information to guide subsequent therapy in case of no significant response to volume expansion, beyond that of the ‘non-responsive’ result of predictive methods in current use.

## Materials and methods

This study was approved by the South Western Sydney Local Health District Research and Ethics Office (LNR/14/LPOOL/150). Patients admitted to Liverpool ICU following elective cardiac surgery during a 3-month period were consecutively enrolled in the study to minimize selection bias.

### Patients

All patients had radial arterial (measuring MAP), central venous (measuring  $P_{ra}$ ) and pulmonary arterial (measuring CO) catheters inserted as per institutional protocol. Patient and surgical demographics are shown in Table 1. Patients were initially ventilated in volume-controlled mode (PEEP of 5 cmH<sub>2</sub>O, respiratory rate 12–16/min, tidal volume 6–8 mL/kg) and sedated using propofol and fentanyl or morphine. Ventilation was weaned and patients were evaluated for extubation within 6 h of admission. A MAP greater than 70 mmHg and a cardiac index (CI) greater than 2.5 L/min/m<sup>2</sup> were targeted unless the surgeon’s post-operative orders specified other values.

### Measurements and calculations

All pressure transducers were referenced to the mid-axillary line and haemodynamic variables determined with the patient supine, including CO by thermodilution randomly in the respiratory cycle. The mean of triplicate cold bolus injections within a  $\pm 10$  % variation was recorded to ensure that a minimal change by 10 % could be detected [8]. Haemodynamic variables were serially transmitted from the Philips Intellivue MP70 intensive care monitor to the navigator Clinical Decision Support System (CDSS) (supplied as NaviCorder by CPL Innovations Pty Ltd, Sydney, NSW, Australia) to record CO, MAP,  $P_{ra}$  and  $P_{msa}$ . Haemodynamic variables and details of any interventions were entered in real time at the bedside by the same investigator (KG) into a clinical data form and later transferred to a desktop computer for further analysis.

**Table 1** Patient demographics, surgical procedures and use of vasopressors/inotropes

Demographics	Mean $\pm$ SD
Age, years	63 $\pm$ 11
Weight, kg	86 $\pm$ 19
Height, cm	170 $\pm$ 8.8
Women, <i>n</i> (%)	15 (25 %)
Body surface area, m <sup>2</sup>	1.97 $\pm$ 0.22
Surgery	<i>n</i> (%)
CABG alone	40 (66)
CABG + valve replacement	8 (13)
Valve replacement	8 (13)
Bentall's procedure	5 (8)
DDD pacing	7 (11)
Vasopressors/inotropes	<i>n</i> (%)
Noradrenaline	27 (44)
Dobutamine	6 (10)
Milrinone	10 (16)
Sodium nitroprusside	9 (15)
Glyceryl trinitrate	6 (10)

CABG coronary artery bypass graft

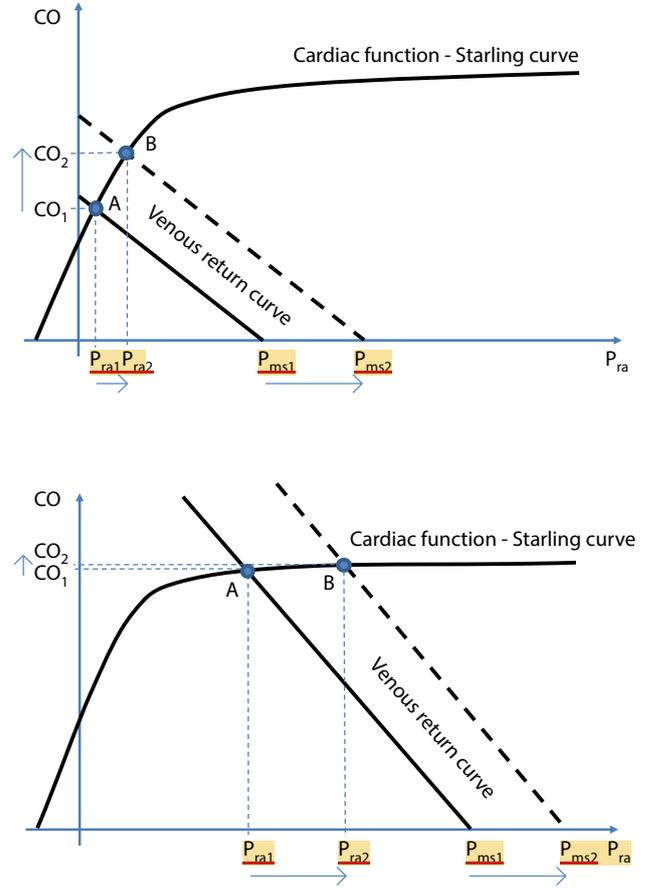
The operating CO is determined by the point at which the venous return and cardiac function curves intersect (Fig. 1). When the heart is functioning on the steep portion of the cardiac output curve, volume expansion will increase  $P_{ms}$  more than  $P_{ra}$  [ $\Delta P_{ms} (P_{ms2} - P_{ms1}) > \Delta P_{ra} (P_{ra2} - P_{ra1})$ ], generating a greater driving pressure for VR and hence CO (see Eq. 1). This is in contrast to the result when the heart is functioning on the flat part of the cardiac output curve, where  $\Delta P_{ms}$  is approximately the same as  $\Delta P_{ra}$ , thus with no or minimal change in CO. These changes are based on the assumption that RVR remains almost constant, which is reasonable when the volume load is small [9].

The ratio of change in driving pressure for VR to the change in  $P_{msa}$  represents a measure of the heart's ability to respond to a volume bolus or alternatively the efficiency of the volume to accomplish an increase in MAP and/or CO under prevailing conditions. Thus, volume efficiency is described by

$$E_{vol} = \Delta(P_{msa} - P_{ra}) / \Delta P_{msa} \quad (3)$$

The non-dimensional variable  $E_{vol}$  provides a quantitative assessment of the response to volume expansion that changes depending on what portion of the cardiac function curve intersects with the venous return curve. The individual's vascular compliance and the size of the volume bolus are incorporated in  $P_{msa}$ .  $E_{vol}$  is a dynamic measure based on consecutive calculations of heart efficiency,  $E_h$ :

$$E_h = (P_{msa} - P_{ra}) / P_{msa} \quad (4)$$



**Fig. 1** The operating cardiac output is determined by the point at which the venous return and cardiac output curves intersect. The heart is volume responsive when  $P_{ms}$  increases more than  $P_{ra}$  (fluid bolus moves patient from point A to B, upper panel) in contrast to the non-responsive state when the change in  $P_{ms}$  approximately equals the change in  $P_{ra}$  (fluid bolus moves patient from point A to B, lower panel)

The  $E_h$  equation clarifies that increasing heart efficiency as a global measure is dependent on an unchanged  $P_{ra}$  following volume expansion while CO and/or MAP changes. Finally, cardiac power was calculated as described previously [5] and scaled to the volume state:

$$CP_{vol} = ([MAP \times CO] / 451) / P_{msa} \quad (5)$$

Its dynamic relation to the volume state was investigated as a measure of power efficiency,  $E_{power}$ , describing how the heart converts added power ( $\Delta P_{msa}$ ) to increased MAP  $\times$  CO [ $\Delta(MAP \times CO)$ ]:

$$E_{power} = \Delta([MAP \times CO] / 451) / \Delta P_{msa} \quad (6)$$

#### Protocol

This was an observational study and all interventions were at the discretion of the treating intensivist, who remained blinded to the Navigator CDSS. The Navigator

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CDSS data were captured immediately before any intervention and repeated 10 min following the end of a fluid bolus (250 mL) to ensure steady state and to allow time for stress relaxation of the vasculature to minimize changes in RVR. Measurements were performed irrespective of spontaneous breathing efforts and respiratory rate, irregular atrial/ventricular rhythms, paced rhythms, or amounts of vasopressor/inotropic support to ensure that the proposed measures to assess volume expansion were investigated under pragmatic conditions.

An increase in CO by more than 10 % was used to define the response to volume as a binary outcome (responsive vs. non-responsive), consistent with previous studies [2].

### Statistical analysis

Normally distributed data (D'Agostino and Pearson omnibus normality test) were described by mean and standard deviation and differences analysed by Student's *t* test. Non-normally distributed data were described by median and interquartile range and differences analysed by the Mann-Whitney test. A multiple regression analysis (enter if  $p < 0.1$ ) was used to identify haemodynamic variables (before volume expansion and dynamic changes after) independently associated with volume and were subsequently evaluated in a logistic regression model. Independent variables were further explored using receiver operating characteristics (ROC) to determine their overall association (area under the curve, AUC), sensitivity, specificity and threshold criterion with volume responsiveness. Finally, linear regression analysis was used to determine the correlation between any assessment of volume expansion and the change in cardiac output as a continuous outcome. A  $p$  value less than 0.05 was used to denote statistical significance.

All analyses were performed using MedCalc version 12.3 (MedCalc Software, Ostend, Belgium).

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## Results

Sixty-one patients were studied and 107 episodes of fluid resuscitation were captured (in about half of patients using 0.9 % NaCl, and otherwise using 4 % albumin, packed red blood cells, return of pump blood, fresh frozen plasma, or pooled platelets). Overall, a fluid bolus had a volume of  $264 \pm 16$  mL and was administered over  $14 \pm 4$  min. There were 12 instances when the treating intensivist prescribed a bolus larger than 250 mL of fluid ( $843 \pm 168$  mL) for immediate resuscitation. These episodes were still included in continuous analyses, but excluded from binary analyses of volume responsiveness.

Twenty-five patients had a second fluid bolus following the first one.

Haemodynamic variables split by responders vs. non-responders to volume expansion are summarized in Table 2. Overall, responders had lower ( $P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}}$ ), CO,  $CP_{\text{vol}}$  before a bolus and initially higher systemic vascular resistance (SVR) compared to non-responders.  $P_{\text{msa}}$  increased in both responders and non-responders capturing all fluid boluses, whereas this change did not reach statistical significance in the subset of patients with a second fluid bolus. Both ( $P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}}$ ) and  $CP_{\text{vol}}$  increased in responders while  $E_{\text{h}}$  remained unchanged. The ( $P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}}$ ) gradient correlated with CO at baseline ( $r^2 = 0.57$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and the change in ( $P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}}$ ) correlated with the change in CO ( $r^2 = 0.71$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

The  $E_{\text{vol}}$  was higher in responders vs. non-responders [ $0.32$  ( $0.15$ – $1.0$ ) vs.  $0.07$  ( $0.1$ – $0.28$ ), difference  $0.24$  ( $0.11$ – $0.44$ ),  $p < 0.001$ ]. Similarly,  $E_{\text{power}}$  was higher in responders [ $0.33$  ( $0.26$ – $0.40$ )] vs. non-responders [ $0.02$  ( $0.01$ – $0.05$ )], difference  $0.31$  ( $0.24$ – $0.38$ ),  $p < 0.001$ .

In the multivariate regression analysis the pre-bolus  $E_{\text{h}}$ , the pre-bolus ( $P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}}$ ), the pre-bolus  $CP_{\text{vol}}$ , the  $\Delta(P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}})$ , the  $\Delta P_{\text{msa}}$ , the  $E_{\text{vol}}$  and the  $E_{\text{power}}$  were all identified as independent variables associated with volume responsiveness. A logistic regression incorporating all  $P_{\text{msa}}$ -derived assessments of responses to volume expansion for all episodes ( $n = 107$ ) correctly identified 74 % of responders with an AUC of 0.81 ( $0.73$ – $0.88$ ). As single variables,  $\Delta(P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}})$  and  $E_{\text{power}}$  were equally, with an AUC of 0.90 ( $0.83$ – $0.95$ ) and 0.90 ( $0.84$ – $0.96$ ) respectively, associated with volume responsiveness followed by  $E_{\text{vol}}$  [AUC 0.86 ( $0.77$ – $0.92$ )] and pre-bolus  $CP_{\text{vol}}$  [AUC 0.74 ( $0.68$ – $0.81$ )]. These AUCs were all greater than for CO alone [ $0.65$  ( $0.54$ – $0.75$ )],  $p = 0.01$ . Table 3 summarizes the performance of the independent variables at baseline, excluding variables dependent on dynamic changes, to assess volume responsiveness for the first ( $n = 61$ ) and second ( $n = 25$ ) fluid boluses.

$E_{\text{vol}}$  correlated with the increase in CO assessing all episodes ( $r^2 = 0.72$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In the 25 patients with a second fluid bolus, the  $E_{\text{vol}}$  for the first bolus correlated with the increase in CO for the second bolus ( $r^2 = 0.35$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) whereas  $\Delta(P_{\text{msa}} - P_{\text{ra}})$  and  $\Delta P_{\text{msa}}$  for the first bolus did not correlate with the increase in CO for the second bolus ( $r^2 = 0.13$ ,  $p = 0.07$  and  $r^2 = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.33$ , respectively).

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## Discussion

This study demonstrated that the  $P_{\text{msa}}$  generated by the Navigator CDSS when used together with  $P_{\text{ra}}$  to describe the venous return pressure gradient correlated well with changes in CO as expected by cardiovascular dictum. The response to volume expansion could be quantitatively

**Table 2** Haemodynamic variables in responders and non-responders to a fluid bolus for all episodes captured (top,  $n = 107$ ) and in the subset of patients receiving a second fluid bolus (bottom,  $n = 25$ )

All boluses	Responders ( $n = 34$ )				Non-responders ( $n = 73$ )			
	Pre-bolus	Post-bolus	$\Delta$ (95 % CI)	$p$	Pre-bolus	Post-bolus	$\Delta$ (95 % CI)	$p$
MAP (mmHg)	74 ± 11	76 ± 7.9	1.6 (-3.0 to 6.1)	0.49	73 ± 8.5	75 ± 8.2	2.7 (-0.02 to 5.4)	0.05
$P_{ra}$ (mmHg)	11 ± 4	13 ± 5	1.6 (-0.58 to 3.7)	0.15	11 ± 4	12 ± 4	1.5 (0.19 to 2.8)	0.03
$P_{msa}$ (mmHg)	17 ± 3.7	19 ± 4.3	2.2 (1.5 to 2.9)	0.02	17 ± 3.6	19 ± 4.1	1.4 (0.9 to 1.9)	0.03
$P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ (mmHg)	5.7 ± 0.82*	6.6 ± 0.99	0.86 (0.42 to 1.3)	<0.001	6.6 ± 1.1	6.5 ± 1.1	-0.098 (-0.45 to 0.26)	0.59
CO (L/min)	4.4 ± 0.85*	5.7 ± 1.1	1.2 (0.74 to 1.7)	<0.001	5.6 ± 1.6	5.4 ± 1.5	-0.19 (-0.69 to 0.30)	0.44
$CP_{vol}$ (W/mmHg)	0.042 ± 0.01*	0.048 ± 0.01	0.006 (0.001 to 0.013)	0.04	0.053 ± 0.02	0.049 ± 0.02	0.004 (-0.009 to 0.002)	0.17
$E_h$	0.36 ± 0.13	0.36 ± 0.13	0.0023 (-0.059 to 0.064)	0.94	0.39 ± 0.11	0.36 ± 0.10	-0.034 (-0.069 to 0.001)	0.06
SVR (dyn s/cm <sup>5</sup> )	1,171 ± 288*	920 ± 200	-251 (-371 to -132)	<0.001	945 ± 257	993 ± 267	49 (-37 to 134)	0.26
RVR (dyn s/cm <sup>5</sup> )	105 ± 18	95 ± 16	-10 (-18 to -1.8)	0.02	98 ± 18	100 ± 19	1.9 (-4.1 to 8.0)	0.53
Second bolus								
	Responders ( $n = 10$ )				Non-responders ( $n = 15$ )			
	Pre-bolus	Post-bolus	$\Delta$ (95 % CI)	$p$	Pre-bolus	Post-bolus	$\Delta$ (95 % CI)	$p$
MAP (mmHg)	71 ± 8	73 ± 7	2 (-5.4 to 9.5)	0.58	76 ± 12	79 ± 10	3 (-4.8 to 10)	0.47
$P_{ra}$ (mmHg)	12 ± 4	14 ± 6	2.1 (-2.8 to 7.1)	0.39	11 ± 3	12 ± 4	1.6 (-0.9 to 4.3)	0.20
$P_{msa}$ (mmHg)	18 ± 4.3	19 ± 5.5	1.9 (-2.7 to 6.6)	0.39	17 ± 3.1	19 ± 4.3	2.0 (-0.6 to 4.5)	0.12
$P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ (mmHg)	5.5 ± 1.0*	6.6 ± 1.0	1.1 (0.12 to 2.0)	0.03	6.6 ± 1.1	6.9 ± 1.1	0.30 (-0.45 to 1.1)	0.42
CO (L/min)	4.4 ± 0.9*	5.4 ± 0.4	0.9 (0.1 to 2.0)	0.03	5.9 ± 1.5	5.6 ± 1.7	-0.3 (-1.4 to 0.8)	0.55
$CP_{vol}$ (W/mmHg)	0.033 ± 0.01*	0.044 ± 0.02	0.011 (0.001 to 0.021)	0.04	0.053 ± 0.01	0.054 ± 0.02	0.001 (-0.01 to 0.01)	0.98
$E_h$	0.35 ± 0.13	0.32 ± 0.14	0.032 (-0.09 to 0.16)	0.60	0.39 ± 0.09	0.37 ± 0.10	-0.02 (-0.08 to 0.05)	0.61
SVR (dyn s/cm <sup>5</sup> )	1,124 ± 229	1,093 ± 271	31 (-204 to 267)	0.78	1,034 ± 362	963 ± 278	-71 (-289 to 148)	0.52
RVR (dyn s/cm <sup>5</sup> )	103 ± 18	104 ± 17	1.2 (-14 to 17)	0.87	101 ± 20	98 ± 18	-2.8 (-16 to 10)	0.66

Changes pre- and post-bolus are listed with the 95 % confidence intervals [ $\Delta$ (95 % CI)] and the corresponding  $p$  values  
 $MAP$  mean arterial pressure,  $P_{ra}$  right atrial pressure,  $P_{msa}$  analogue mean systemic filling pressure,  $CO$  cardiac output,  $CP_{vol}$  cardiac power relative to the volume state as measured by  $P_{msa}$ ,  $E_h$  heart efficiency,  $SVR$  systemic vascular resistance,  $RVR$  resistance to venous return

\*  $p < 0.05$  between responders and non-responders before administration of a fluid bolus

**Table 3** Receiver operating characteristics of variables associated with an increase in cardiac output following a fluid bolus including the area under the curve (AUC),  $p$  value, and cut-off value to define responders vs. non-responders

	AUC (95 % CI)	$p$ value	Criterion	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
1st bolus $n = 61$					
Pre $CP_{vol}$	0.83 (0.75–0.91)	<0.001	<0.047	97.1	57.5
Pre ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ )	0.72 (0.63–0.82)	<0.001	<6.2	79.4	56.2
Pre $E_h$	0.60 (0.51–0.70)	0.08	N/A	N/A	N/A
2nd bolus $n = 25$					
Pre $CP_{vol}$	0.97 (0.94–1.02)	<0.001	<0.040	90.0	94.7
Pre ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ )	0.76 (0.56–0.96)	0.03	<6.0	60.0	86.7
Pre $E_h$	0.68 (0.45–0.92)	0.12	N/A	N/A	N/A

N/A not applicable

assessed on the basis of cardiac power relative to the  $P_{msa}$  at baseline as well as by its dynamic changes following a volume bolus. The dynamic changes in venous return pressure gradient ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ ) for a given change in  $P_{msa}$  provided a quantitative measure of the efficiency of a volume bolus to increase CO.

The assessment of systemic filling pressure is central to this study but can only be directly measured at no-flow conditions with arterial and venous pressures at equilibrium and is hence only an estimative pressure in humans [9]. The  $P_{msa}$  provided by the Navigator CDSS circumvents this limitation using a mathematical model of circulatory cessation. The  $P_{msa}$  has previously been reported to accurately guide volume replacement during dialysis [10], and to correlate with changes in the intravascular volume state [11, 12] also using alternative methods to assess mean systemic filling pressure [13]. It has furthermore been demonstrated to accurately reflect the volume state during acute endotoxaemia [14]. A key finding of this study is the applicability of  $P_{msa}$  and the related assessment of the venous return gradient to explain changes in CO that were well aligned with the physiological principles described by Guyton [15, 16]. This corroborates the Navigator CDSS algorithm to derive  $P_{msa}$  that can be obtained in all patients with concurrent monitoring of MAP,  $P_{ra}$  and CO without further manipulation.

The concept of energy and power encompassed in cardiac power was already discussed in Starling's Linacre Lecture on the law of the heart [17]. In the present study, the cardiac power was assessed relative to the volume state ( $CP_{vol}$ ) before volume expansion to evaluate this derived variable's ability to assess volume responsiveness. The AUCs for  $CP_{vol}$  both for the first and second fluid bolus demonstrated high sensitivity albeit lower specificity to assess volume responsiveness. Furthermore, in terms of dynamic changes, the power efficiency ( $E_{power}$ ) was closely associated with volume responsiveness while heart efficiency ( $E_h$ ) was unchanged. The usefulness of  $P_{msa}$  has been debated [18, 19] since it is dependent on the measurement of CO that ultimately is the variable of interest when giving fluid to improve tissue perfusion. This study

demonstrated that cardiac power scaled to the volume state, including its dynamic measure, was superior to assess the efficiency of volume expansion compared to CO alone. This is not surprising considering that the cardiac power scaled to the volume state in addition incorporates vascular tone and contractility. The  $CP_{vol}$  variable can be obtained regardless of mode of breathing and heart rhythms. The deleterious effects of volume overloading [20] as well as the importance of early optimization of the intravascular volume [21] are well established, particularly in septic patients, but also post-operatively for cardiac surgical patients [22]. Fluid management might be rationalized by combining the haemodynamic information used to derive  $P_{msa}$  by the Navigator CDSS.

The venous return pressure gradient ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ ) correlated with CO and identified responders to a fluid bolus in a previous study [12]. This study, based on a larger cohort of patients, demonstrated an even better correlation ( $r^2 = 0.71$  vs. 0.58) with a similar threshold value for ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ ) to identify fluid responsiveness (6.0–6.2 vs. 6.1 mmHg) [12]. The original study by Guyton demonstrated a reduced RVR following an increase in intravascular volume [23] that was not observed in a previous evaluation of  $P_{msa}$  and volume expansion [12], while it was demonstrated in this study, albeit with a minimal (less than 10 %) decrease compared to baseline. The slightly larger volumes of fluid and delayed measurements of haemodynamic changes in this study might explain the differences in results since vessel distention and hence reduced RVR are not instantaneous following acute volume expansion.

The quantitative assessment of volume expansion in this study,  $E_{vol}$ , derived from the intersection of the venous return curve with the heart performance curve, was significantly higher in responders compared to non-responders. It was an independent variable associated with fluid responsiveness in the multiple regression analysis and demonstrated an AUC greater than 0.8 for the receiver operating characteristic. Static filling pressures, such as  $P_{msa}$ ,  $P_{ra}$  or ( $P_{msa} - P_{ra}$ ), are unlikely to reflect volume responsiveness [24] since they do not take into account the slope of the cardiac function curve where the

venous return curve intersects. This limitation is avoided by assessing dynamic changes in  $(P_{msa} - P_{ra})$  as incorporated into the  $E_{vol}$  calculation. The results of this study support this approach to quantitatively assess interactions between venous return and cardiac function. The significant correlation between the  $E_{vol}$  established from the response to the first fluid bolus and the change in CO following a second bolus demonstrates the utility of those scalar, continuous and dimensionless measures to assess the response to volume expansion. Notably, the change in  $(P_{msa} - P_{ra})$ , while useful for identifying fluid responders, did not correlate with the change in CO for the subsequent bolus. The risk of an overzealous expansion of the intravascular compartment can thus tentatively be reduced using  $CP_{vol}$  and  $E_{vol}$  since both the presence and magnitude of the response to volume expansion can be assessed.

The strengths of this study include its pragmatic design which is conducive to a high external validity of results. It also has important limitations. It was observational without prescriptive fluid therapy and investigated a single patient cohort of post-cardiac surgery patients with a limited number of repeat fluid boluses compared to the total given. No comparisons were made to other methods

to gauge volume responsiveness, such as pulse pressure/stroke volume variation. The validity of the results should be further tested in other categories of patients, not least septic patients, using a prospective design to guide and assess the efficacy  $CP_{vol}$ , and  $E_{vol}$  in fluid optimization. The use of continuous CO measurements (together with MAP and  $P_{ra}$ ) could allow for ongoing determination of  $CP_{vol}$  and  $E_{vol}$  based on spontaneous haemodynamic variability in critically ill patients. The efficiency measures presented in this study could have particular value when incorporated into real-time bedside systems such as monitors and decision support systems.

In conclusion, using an algorithm to derive a mean systemic filling pressure analogue, the cardiac power and dynamic assessments of the venous return pressure gradient relative to the mean systemic filling pressure provided a quantitative assessment of the haemodynamic response to volume expansion in post-surgical cardiac patients.

**Conflicts of interest** Geoffrey Parkin and Mark Leaning are directors of CPL Innovations, a software company in the area of cardiovascular decision support systems. The other authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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