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Cardiac Output and Stroke Volume Estimation Using a Hybrid of Three Windkessel Models

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Abstract—Cardiac output (CO) and stroke volume (SV) are the key hemodynamic parameters to be monitored and assessed in ambulatory and critically ill patients. The purpose of this study was to introduce and validate a new algorithm to continuously estimate, within a proportionality constant, CO and SV by means of mathematical analysis of peripheral arterial blood pressure (ABP) waveforms. The algorithm combines three variants of the Windkessel model. Input parameters to the algorithm are the end-diastolic pressure, mean arterial pressures, inter-beat interval, and the time interval from end-diastolic to peak systolic pressure. The SV estimates from the three variants of the Windkessel model were weighted and integrated to provide beat-to-beat SV estimation. In order to validate the new algorithm, the estimated CO and SV were compared to those obtained through surgically implanted Transonic™ aortic flow probes placed around the aortic roots of six Yorkshire swine. Overall, estimation errors in CO and SV derived from radial ABP were 10.1% and 14.5% respectively, and 12.7% and 16.5% from femoral ABP. The new algorithm demonstrated statistically significant improvement in SV estimation compared with previous methods.

I. INTRODUCTION

Stroke volume (SV) and cardiac output (CO) are the key hemodynamic parameters to be monitored and assessed in ambulatory and critically ill patients. Currently, hemodynamic monitoring of patients in critical care settings depends heavily on the monitoring of arterial blood pressure (ABP). However, ABP is a late indicator of hemodynamic abnormality because physiologic feedback systems maintain ABP until the patient develops hemodynamic collapse and death [1]. CO and SV monitoring enables earlier prediction of hemodynamic collapse, but CO and SV are more difficult to measure and monitor.

Since thermodilution [2], the gold standard of CO measurement, requires pulmonary artery catheterization which is associated with cardiovascular risks [3, 4] and has limited accuracy [5], pulse contour methods (PCMs) have been extensively studied [6-12] as a means of estimating CO from analysis of the continuous ABP signal. A conventional PCM approach to minimally invasive CO estimation is based on the two-parameter Windkessel model that involves aortic compliance (Ca) and total peripheral resistance (TPR) (Figure 1). When the diastolic decay in blood pressure is governed by the Windkessel time constant (τ), CO and SV can be estimated from the measurement of mean arterial pressure (MAP), Ca, τ, and pulse pressure (PP). However, these methods are not applicable to peripheral ABP waveforms because peripheral ABP waveforms tend to distort as they propagate through the elastic tapered arterial network and, in particular, ABP waveforms in the peripheral arteries generally do not display exponential decay during the diastolic phase. Thus it is difficult to obtain the Windkessel time constant (τ) [10]. For these reasons, the PCM has not achieved sufficient accuracy or reliability to be adopted clinically [13].

In order to further minimize error and enable continuous estimation of CO and beat-to-beat SV, we have developed a novel CO and SV estimation algorithm based on end-diastolic blood pressure (end-DBP) values, beat-MAP (MAP, - MAP of a single beat), inter-beat interval (Ti), and the time interval from end-DBP to peak SBP (TDBP) in the peripheral ABP waveform. These variables are selected for estimation of CO and SV because they are known to be relatively insensitive to the distortion of the ABP waveform in the arterial tree [14]. The purpose of this study was to validate the algorithm we developed in in-vivo animal studies, and compare it with the other methods.

II. METHODS

A. Algorithm

Figure 2 illustrates measured ABP and the theoretical
Windkessel model ABP. Although $C_a$ declines with age [15], $C_a$ is nearly constant on the time scale of months over a wide pressure range [16, 17], thus $C_a$ was assumed to be constant throughout this relative short experimental period. For each cardiac cycle, the two end-DBP values ($P_i^D$, $P_{i+1}^D$) were obtained.

Then, the theoretical Windkessel ABP waveform was generated using the following equations:

$$P(t) = P_i^D \exp\left(-\frac{(t-t_i^D)}{\tau_i}\right) \quad \text{for } t_i^D < t < t_i^S$$

$$P(t) = \left( P_i^D \exp\left(-\frac{T_i^S}{\tau_i}\right) + \frac{SV(i)}{C_a} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{(t-t_i^S)}{\tau_i}\right)$$

for $t_i^S < t < t_{i+1}^D$ \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $t_i^D$ and $t_i^S$ are time stamps of the end of diastole (onset of systole) and the peak systolic point of the $i_{th}$ ABP waveform, respectively. $P_i^D$ is end-DBP immediately preceding the $i_{th}$ beat of measured ABP. $T_i^S$ and $T_i$ are the periods from the end-DBP to the peak systolic point and inter-beat interval of the $i_{th}$ ABP waveform, respectively. $SV(i)$ is the SV of the $i_{th}$ beat. Each impulse of ABP waveform is aligned to each systolic peak point of measured ABP. The Windkessel time constant ($\tau$) was adjusted so that for each beat the MAP of the measured ABP equaled the MAP of the Windkessel ABP.

Taking the average of ABP over the $i_{th}$ beat using the above equations (1 and 2), the MAP can be expressed by $T_i$, $P_i^D$, $P_{i+1}^D$, $SV(i)$, $\tau_i$, and $C_a$ as follows.

$$MAP_i = \frac{1}{T_i} \int_{t_i^D}^{t_{i+1}^D} P_i(t) dt = \frac{\tau_i}{T_i} \left( P_i^D + \frac{SV(i)}{C_a} - P_{i+1}^D \right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (3)

As shown in Figure 2, the $i_{th}$-beat PP of the ideal Windkessel ABP from (2) can be calculated by subtracting the two ABP values at $T_i^S$:

$$\frac{SV(i)}{C_a} = P_{i+1}^D \exp\left(\frac{T_i^S - T_i}{\tau_i}\right) - P_i^D \exp\left(-\frac{T_i^S}{\tau_i}\right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (4)

Substituting (4) into (3),

$$MAP_i = \frac{\tau_i}{T_i} (P_i^D (\exp\left(\frac{T_i^S - T_i}{\tau_i}\right) - 1) + P_{i+1}^D (1 - \exp\left(-\frac{T_i^S}{\tau_i}\right))) \quad (5)$$

Equation (5) can be numerically solved for $\tau$. In actual implementation, the median value of $\tau$ calculated using (5) over a 20-second moving window is used to exclude outliers, and regarded as the $\tau$ of the beat in the middle of the window. Continuous SV was calculated by shifting the 20-second moving window beat-by-beat. An interval of 20 seconds was empirically found by the authors to provide the smallest estimation errors over a wide range of physiological conditions.

However, in fact it is not known when the impulse corresponding to peak aortic blood flow occurs. Since the blood flow peak occurs before peak SBP time, we introduced two Windkessel models to cover the extremes of possible impulse times:

Model 1) Impulse at the SBP peak (shown in Fig. 2)

$$SV_{prop1}(i) = SV(i) \frac{MAP_i}{C_a} = f\left(MAP_i, P_i^D, P_{i+1}^D, T_i, T_i^S\right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (6a)

Model 2) Impulse at the beginning of the ABP waveform

$$SV_{prop2}(i) = SV_{prop1} \frac{T_i^p}{T_i^p + MAP} = f\left(MAP_i, P_i^D, P_{i+1}^D, T_i\right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (6b)

Here $SV_{prop1}$ and $SV_{prop2}$ are proportional to $SV$ with a proportionality constant of $1/C_a$.

A third steady state model is introduced that assumes that $P_i^D = P_{i+1}^D$:

Model 3) Steady state assumption

$$SV_{prop3}(i) = SV_{prop2} \frac{P_i^D}{P_{i+1}^D} = f\left(MAP_i, P_i^D, T_i\right)$$ \hspace{1cm} (6c)

Of the five measured parameters, there are three dimensionless variables ($T_i^S$, $T_i$, $P_i^D$/MAP, and $P_{i+1}^D$/MAP) that characterize the ABP waveform. Thus combining the three models for estimating $SV_{prop}$ should span the space covered by the three dimensionless parameters. One hybrid model for estimating $SV$ is given by:

$$SV_i = C_a SV_{prop1}(i) \frac{SV_{prop1}(i)^{a_1}}{SV_{prop1}(i)^{a_2}} \frac{SV_{prop3}(i)^{a_3}}{SV_{prop1}(i)^{a_4}}$$ \hspace{1cm} (7)

Note that (7) is a hybrid model of $SV_{prop1}$, $SV_{prop2}$ and $SV_{prop3}$, geometrically weighted using the exponents $a_1$ and $a_2$. For example, if $a_1=0$ and $a_2=1$, then $SV=C_a SV_2$ and (6b) is adopted. The coefficients allow non-discrete switching between the three models. By taking natural logarithm of (7), the equation becomes linear

$$y(i, j) = D(j) + y_{i,j} + a_1 X_1(i, j) + a_2 X_2(i, j)$$ \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $i$ is beat number, $j$ is subject number, $y=\ln(SV)$, $D(j)=\ln(C_a)$, $y_{i,j}=\ln(SV_{prop1})$, $X_1=\ln(SV_{prop2}/SV_{prop1})$, and $X_2=\ln(SV_{prop3}/SV_{prop1})$. Linear regression and least mean square error analysis yield aortic compliances $C_a(j)$, $a_1$, and $a_2$. It is possible to generalize the hybrid model by introducing terms involving $X_1$ and $X_2$ raised to higher powers:
\[ y(i, j) = D(j) + y_{\text{t}}(i, j) + \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{q=0}^{M} a_{mq} \left( X_1(i, j)^{M-q} \right) \left( X_2(i, j)^{q} \right) \]  
\[ SV = \exp(y) \]

where \( M \) is the model order, \( \binom{N}{Q} \) is the binomial coefficient, while \( a_{mq} \) are the parameters to be found by the linear regression analysis. Once the parameters are obtained, SV is calculated as

\[ SV = \exp(y) \]  

CO is calculated by averaging SV over the six-minute window overlapping every three minutes.

The overall trend of the measured and estimated CO and SV showed strong agreement (radial results shown in Fig. 4). The correlation coefficients (R) between measured CO (SV) and estimated CO (SV) from femoral ABP was 0.945 (0.914). For CO (SV) derived from radial ABP the correlation coefficients was 0.970 (0.909).

**B. Experimental Protocol**

To validate the algorithm, previously reported [10] data from six Yorkshire swine (30–34 kg) recorded under a protocol approved by the MIT Committee on Animal Care were processed and analyzed offline. Aortic blood flow was recorded using an ultrasonic flow probe. Radial and femoral ABP were measured using micromanometer-tipped catheter and an external fluid-filled pressure transducer (TSD104A, Biopac Systems, Santa Barbara, CA). The data were recorded using an A/D conversion system (MP150WSW, Biopac Systems) at a sampling rate of 250 Hz.

**C. Data analysis**

The results of the CO and SV estimation were evaluated in terms of the error defined as the logarithm of the ratio of the estimated to measured values. Specifically, root normalized mean square log error (RNMSLE) was used:

\[ \text{RNMSLE} = 100 \left( \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \ln(\text{Est}_n) - \ln(\text{Meas}_n) \right)^2}{N - N_f} \right) \]  

where \( N \) is the number of data points, \( N_f \) the number of free parameters, \( \text{Est} \) and \( \text{Meas} \) are the estimated and measured values of CO and SV. Utilizing the F-test, as in pair-wise comparison of variance, RNMSLE of the new method was compared with the following methods: ARMA technique (CO estimates only) [10], Liljestrand method (Lilje) [8, 18], traditional PP method (PP1), Herd’s PP method (PP2) [7]. The CO and SV estimates by the new method were also compared with constant values (Const) in which the calculated CO and SV are set to constant values (means of the measured CO and SV). The comparison results with \( P < 0.05 \) were regarded as statistically significant.

**III. RESULTS**

Using the MDL criterion [19, 20], the order was set to 8 for analysis of femoral ABP, and the order was set to 9 for analysis of radial ABP. The new method yielded smaller RNMSLE (\( P < 0.05 \)) than the other methods for both the CO and SV estimations (Fig. 3). Over a wide physiological range achieved by administering phentolamine (vasoconstrictor), nitroglycerin (vasodilator), dobutamine (beta agonist), and esmolol (beta blocker), the new method achieved errors of 12.7% in CO and 16.5% in SV derived from femoral ABP, and 10.1% in CO and 14.5% in SV derived from radial ABP.
REFERENCES


Fig. 4. Agreement of the measured and estimated cardiac output (CO) and stroke volume (SV) from radial arterial blood pressure in six Yorkshire swine.