



# Key concepts in artificial intelligence for anesthesiologists: a literature review

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## ABSTRACT

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is revolutionizing medical practice across various fields, including anesthesiology. Despite its potential, AI adoption in clinical settings faces challenges related to data robustness, result interpretation by anesthesiologists, and ethical issues around privacy and automated decision-making. This narrative review aims to provide anesthesiologists with an updated overview of AI applications in medical practice, empowering them to become active contributors to this transformation. With the widespread adoption of electronic health records and the availability of large-scale perioperative data, AI applications have rapidly evolved, offering the potential to make anesthetic management more personalized, predictive, and preventive. AI applications in anesthesiology span the perioperative period, from preoperative planning to postoperative care. Recent advances allow AI to assist in interpreting diagnostic tests, predicting complications, real-time monitoring, and supporting clinical decision-making. However, for anesthesiologists to use these tools effectively, they must possess a foundational understanding of AI, including its terminology, algorithms, validation methods, and the ethical and practical limitations of its use. This article seeks to guide readers in acquiring the necessary knowledge to become well-informed anesthesiologists capable of integrating AI into their practice efficiently. By fostering collaboration and understanding between anesthesiologists and AI technologies, we aim to drive meaningful advancements in anesthetic practice and improve patient outcomes.

## KEYWORDS

Anesthesiology; machine learning; medical care; artificial intelligence

## INTRODUCTION

Artificial intelligence (AI) enables machines to mimic human intelligence by learning and adapting actions based on past experiences<sup>(1)</sup>. Through algorithms and pattern recognition, machines can reason, solve problems, recognize objects, infer world states, and make decisions. Currently, the decision-making process in healthcare is notably inefficient, with areas for

significant improvement such as poor communication, isolated decision-making, and limited access to data<sup>(2,3)</sup>. Given this context, there is a growing need for advanced, integrated solutions. While there is both optimism about AI's potential to enhance efficiency and decision-making, there are also concerns regarding data privacy, ethics, and the potential loss of human empathy<sup>(2)</sup>.

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AI has diverse applications in medicine. The adoption of electronic health records and large-scale perioperative data has made real-time analysis possible, providing predictions to support medical decisions<sup>(2,4)</sup>. Anesthesiology is a complex specialty, and AI technologies are under investigation, with the potential to enhance care by making it more personalized, predictive, and preventive<sup>(4,5)</sup>. Additionally, AI could improve the quality of perioperative and intensive care, pain management, as well as drug delivery and discovery<sup>(4)</sup>.

This article aims to guide readers on becoming well-informed anesthesiologists equipped to use AI tools effectively and contribute to developing advanced solutions. We explore AI applications in anesthesiology, from preoperative planning to postoperative care, including exam interpretation, complication prediction, real-time monitoring, and clinical decision-making. Key advances in machine learning, neural networks, and natural language processing are discussed. While AI offers significant benefits, it also presents ethical and practical challenges, which will be addressed alongside future directions for AI in anesthesiology.

## DEFINITION OF ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, MACHINE LEARNING, NEURAL NETWORKS AND DEEP LEARNING

AI refers to the ability of machines or computational systems to perform tasks that typically require human intelligence<sup>(1)</sup>. These systems process information, learn from it, and make decisions based on that learning.

Machine learning (ML) is the primary AI subtype applied in medicine. It uses algorithms and statistical methods to enable machines to learn from data without explicit programming<sup>(4,6)</sup>. ML aims to generalize predictions for specific scenarios by recognizing patterns, extrapolating insights, and developing strategies to assist clinical decision-making.<sup>(6)</sup>

The ML algorithm development process involves four key steps: 1) preprocessing: preparing data to ensure the algorithm can interpret it, 2) exploratory data analysis: identifying trends and patterns, often used to determine if the statistical approach suits the data, 3) model selection and training: crucial for aligning hypotheses with future scenarios, and 4) model execution and performance evaluation: assessing how well the model works.<sup>(6)</sup> ML algorithms are categorized by their learning styles.

### Supervised learning

Algorithms learn from labeled examples. Input data (e.g., demographics, vital signs) are paired with labels (e.g., diabetic or not). The model maps inputs

to labels to generalize for new examples, requiring separate training (70% of data) and testing (30% of data) datasets<sup>(7,8)</sup>. Supervised learning remains the most widely used ML method in medicine due to its predictive capabilities<sup>(7,8)</sup>. For example, Kendale et al.<sup>(7)</sup> conducted a supervised learning study using electronic health record data to identify patients who experienced postinduction hypotension (mean arterial pressure below 55 mmHg).

### Unsupervised learning

Algorithms analyze unlabeled data to group similar examples. Clustering is a common task that reveals data structures and aids exploratory analysis<sup>(9)</sup>. For example, Bisgin et al. conducted an unsupervised learning study to mine data from Food and Drug Administration drug labels, identifying key topics such as adverse events and therapeutic applications<sup>(9)</sup>.

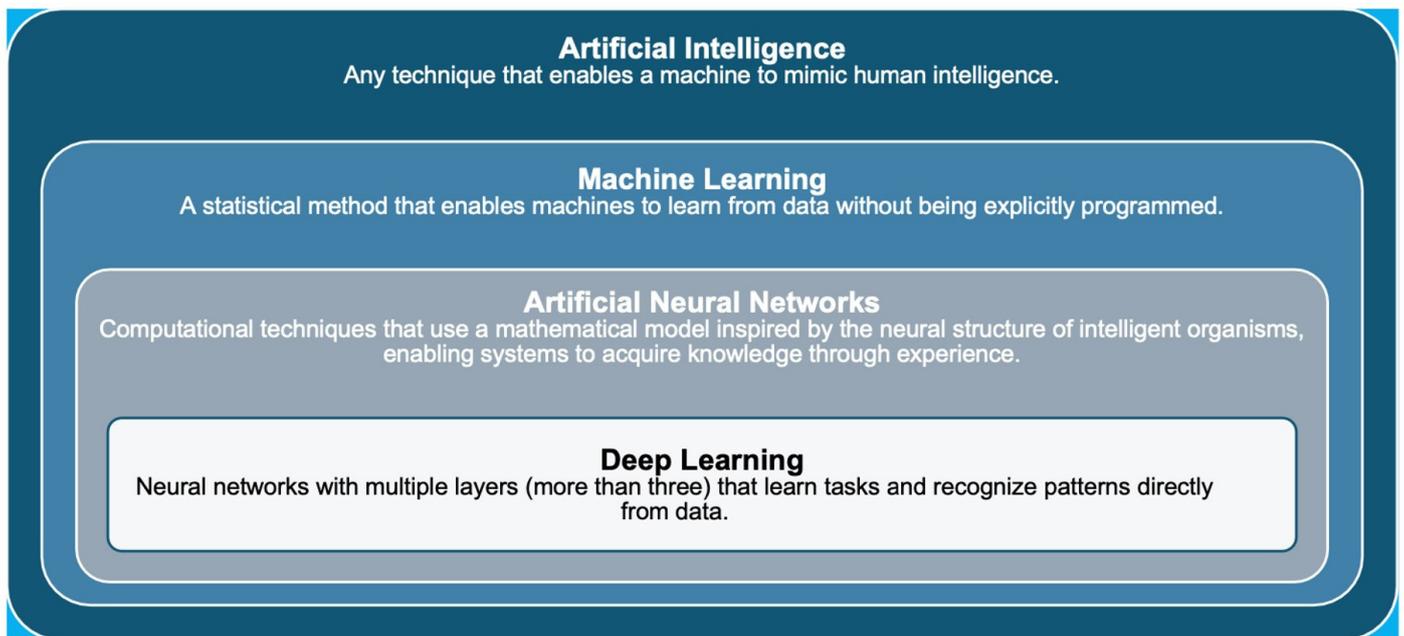
### Reinforcement learning

The model interacts with an environment, learning through trial and error, much like clinicians adjusting therapies based on observed outcomes. This approach is used in decision-making tasks<sup>(10)</sup>. For example, Padmanabhan et al.<sup>(10)</sup> conduct a reinforcement learning study in a simulated model to develop an anesthesia controller that adjusted propofol infusion rates based on feedback from a patient's bispectral index and mean arterial pressure.

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) are a key subset of ML algorithms. An ANN consists of interconnected nodes organized in layers that transmit information, mimicking biological neurons at synapses<sup>(11)</sup>. The input layer receives data, and the output layer provides predictions. Adding intermediate layers allows the network to extract more complex information. When an ANN contains more than three layers, it is termed deep learning (DL). DL algorithms, whether supervised or unsupervised, excel in tasks like image recognition. These algorithms use multiple nonlinear processing layers to extract and transform data features<sup>(11)</sup>. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between artificial intelligence, machine learning, neural networks, and deep learning.

## AI IN ANESTHESIOLOGY

Key AI applications in anesthesiology include logistics planning, risk stratification, predicting complications and adverse events, monitoring anesthetic depth, pain management, peripheral blocks, and anesthesia automation. Additionally, this article discusses natural language processing, ethical considerations, and future trends in AI for anesthesiology.



**Figure 1.** Relationship between Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, Artificial Neural Networks, and Deep Learning concepts.

### Logistical optimization in surgery

The trends in perioperative practices of surgical patients have evolved over the past decade, influencing how logistical optimization in surgery is performed<sup>(12,13)</sup>. A retrospective study of over 45,000 surgeries demonstrated that ML algorithms outperformed linear regression in predicting surgery duration<sup>(14)</sup>. Zhao et al.<sup>(15)</sup> tested six ML algorithms using 28 variables and observed superior predictive accuracy compared to traditional statistical models. Bayesian hierarchical modeling enabled operating room usage predictions without prior estimates, while artificial neural networks predicted surgery duration using real-time data inputs<sup>(16)</sup>.

ML algorithms also outperformed regression techniques in forecasting the duration of outpatient surgeries starting at varying times and predicting anesthesia recovery discharge times<sup>(17)</sup>. Using electronic health records, ML algorithms effectively identified candidates for outpatient hip and knee arthroplasty<sup>(18)</sup>. Additionally, ML shows promise in detecting risk factors for avoidable surgical errors, such as wrong-site surgery and retained foreign objects, further optimizing surgical logistics<sup>(19)</sup>.

Despite these benefits, however, data variability among institutions can significantly limit model generalizability, presenting a challenge for applying predictive tools uniformly across healthcare settings. Additionally, professional resistance to adopting automated systems for surgical planning further hinders the integration of advanced technologies into clinical practice. These challenges highlight the need for standardized data collection protocols and focused efforts to foster trust in and acceptance of automated solutions.

### Preoperative assessment, risk stratification, and perioperative complication prediction

Risk stratification and the prediction of perioperative complications are critical for improving outcomes<sup>(20,21)</sup>. A key component of preanesthetic evaluation is identifying patients at risk for difficult airway management<sup>(22,23)</sup>. DL algorithms have been used to predict intubation difficulty through facial image analysis and lateral cervical radiographs<sup>(22,23)</sup>. Another AI application evaluates traditional airway difficulty predictors using electronic health record data<sup>(24)</sup>. For instance, a retrospective study found that cervical circumference and thyromental distance were poor standalone predictors of difficult airways in patients with limited physical exams<sup>(24)</sup>. Risk stratification, central to anesthesiology, supports clinical optimization, anesthetic planning, resource allocation, and shared decision-making. Traditional scores like the ASA physical status classification have been widely used. AI has automated ASA classification using electronic health record data, and it can analyze complex interactions among surgery type, individual risk factors, and perioperative data to identify unknown risks<sup>(25,26)</sup>.

In 2019, Bihorac et al. introduced “MySurgeryRisk”, an ML-based calculator using data from over 50,000 patients to predict eight severe postoperative complications and mortality with an area under the ROC curve (AUC) > 0.8<sup>(27)</sup>. By 2022, it performed well in real-time predictions for a validation cohort of 19,132 patients, delivering complication forecasts directly to surgeons’ mobile devices<sup>(28)</sup>. Another 2022 study involving over 445,000 patients developed an ML-based tool that outperformed the Revised Cardiac Risk Index

in predicting major adverse cardiac events after hip and knee arthroplasty<sup>(29)</sup>. DL algorithms combining pre- and intraoperative data demonstrated high accuracy in predicting sepsis, cardiovascular complications, acute kidney injury, deep vein thrombosis, and mortality.<sup>(30,31)</sup>

Cardiac surgery is a complex field characterized by the emergence of new technologies and research advancements<sup>(31,32)</sup>. The ML algorithm extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost) excelled in forecasting 30-day mortality and severe postoperative complications using perioperative data<sup>(33)</sup>. ML models also outperformed the APFEL score in predicting postoperative nausea and vomiting<sup>(35)</sup>. Delirium risk prediction using preoperative electronic health record data showed excellent calibration, enabling real-time stratification and improved perioperative management<sup>(36)</sup>. Finally, ML algorithms integrating patient-specific and surgical variables provided personalized preoperative estimates for red blood cell transfusion risks, enhancing perioperative care planning<sup>(37)</sup>.

### Prediction of intraoperative complications

Avoiding hypotension and hypoxemia are critical components in preventing complications<sup>(38-40)</sup>. ML algorithms and ANNs have demonstrated reliable performance in predicting intraoperative hypoxemia in real-time, identifying high-risk groups during sedation, and determining clinical predictors for hypoxemia<sup>(41,42)</sup>. The prediction of intraoperative arterial hypotension has also been extensively studied<sup>(43,44)</sup>. Using arterial waveform characteristics, an ML algorithm accurately predicted intraoperative hypotensive events up to 15 minutes in advance, leading to the development of the Hypotension Prediction Index<sup>(43)</sup>. The index assigns a score between 0 and 100, with a threshold of 85 indicating imminent hypotension and triggering treatment<sup>(43)</sup>.

In a retrospective analysis of 14,000 patients, a deep learning model achieved high accuracy in predicting hypotension 5 minutes before its occurrence by analyzing invasive blood pressure waveforms, electroencephalograms, and electrocardiograms<sup>(43)</sup>. Promising results were also observed in a randomized trial involving 60 patients, where an ML-derived early warning system for intraoperative hypotension reduced the mean duration of hypotension compared to standard care<sup>(44)</sup>. While these findings underscore the potential of AI in predicting intraoperative hypotension and hypoxemia, further studies are necessary to validate its routine clinical use.

Regarding intraoperative complication prediction, note the calculator developed by the American College of Surgeons<sup>(45)</sup>. This publicly available tool assesses short-term postoperative risk and long-term benefits for adults eligible for primary bariatric procedures<sup>(45)</sup>. It predicts 30-day risk, 1-year BMI projections, and 1-year

comorbidity remission. The public Calculator is available online at <https://riskcalculator.facs.org/RiskCalculator/>.

### Monitoring anesthesia depth

To address the limitations of consciousness monitors in extreme ages, external interferences, and certain anesthetics, AI-based approaches have been proposed. Mirsadeghi et al. used a ML algorithm for dimensionality reduction based on linear and nonlinear electroencephalogram (EEG) features, achieving better accuracy than the bispectral index (BIS) (88.4% vs. 84.2%) in discriminating consciousness levels<sup>(46)</sup>. Artificial neural networks utilizing multiple EEG features also demonstrated a high correlation with BIS in assessing anesthesia depth<sup>(47)</sup>.

Another study extracted various EEG features to identify the optimal subset for a neurofuzzy classification algorithm, achieving 92% accuracy in anesthesia depth classification<sup>(48)</sup>. Similarly, convolutional neural networks showed an accuracy of 83.2% in evaluating anesthesia depth<sup>(49)</sup>. Ramaswamy et al.<sup>(50)</sup> developed and tested four ML algorithms capable of real-time sedation prediction by combining drug dosage, sex, and age group data. The study highlighted the inadequacy of traditional spectrogram features for precise sedation level prediction.

A recent DL algorithm based on EEG signals achieved 97% accuracy in predicting four anesthesia states by incorporating spectral, temporal, and fractal EEG features<sup>(51)</sup>. Furthermore, ML techniques show promise in integrating infusion pump design with neural activity, as spectral EEG features can reliably predict unconsciousness and monitor GABAergic anesthesia<sup>(52)</sup>.

### Pain management

AI offers promising applications in pain management, from automatically identifying and stratifying pain intensity via facial expression analysis to selecting patients for specialized preoperative pain management and developing nociception indices and opioid dosage predictions<sup>(53,54)</sup>. AI can optimize variables such as drug selection, dosing, adverse reaction risk, and identifying patients at risk of prolonged opioid use or substance use disorders, making it a key area for research and development<sup>(8)</sup>.

A significant advantage of AI in pain management lies in its ability to integrate numerous variables into algorithms and analyze complex datasets<sup>(55)</sup>. While this technology is advancing in research, clinical implementation remains limited<sup>(8,55,56)</sup>. In 2015, machine learning algorithms effectively predicted postoperative pain on the first day after surgery, with the best model incorporating 796 variables and achieving an AUC of 0.704<sup>(55)</sup>.

In 2018, a support vector machine was developed to analyze genetic profiles and predict opioid requirements in cancer patients. Although the model did not achieve

sufficient accuracy for clinical use, it highlights the growing interest and advancements in applying AI to pain management<sup>(56)</sup>.

### AI in ultrasound and regional blocks

AI-powered ultrasound devices can enhance the accuracy of image acquisition and interpretation during ultrasound-guided regional anesthesia<sup>(57,58)</sup>. In 2013, the first robotic anesthesia system for ultrasound-guided peripheral nerve blocks in humans, *Magellan*, was introduced. Operated remotely, it achieved a 100% success rate<sup>(58)</sup>.

Recently, the food and drug administration (FDA) approved the clinical use of an AI-driven ultrasound device, *ScanNav Anatomy Peripheral Nerve Block*, which overlays color-coded anatomical structures on real-time images<sup>(58)</sup>. This tool helps identify key anatomical landmarks before needle insertion for regional anesthesia and it is particularly helpful for less experienced practitioners<sup>(57,58)</sup>.

AI-enabled ultrasound systems offer potential benefits, including reduced risks of adverse events and block failures, shorter block procedure times, evaluation of gastric content to reduce the risk of pulmonary aspiration, and assistance in neuroaxial blocks through automatic estimation of epidural space depth, needle insertion point, and angulation<sup>(57-61)</sup>. Additionally, these systems serve as valuable teaching tools in regional anesthesia. While promising, further clinical studies are needed to validate their efficacy in routine practice.

### Automation in anesthesia

Robotic intubation systems have been developed to operate autonomously or via joystick-controlled remote operation<sup>(62)</sup>. In 2012, the first robot-assisted orotracheal intubation in humans achieved a 91% success rate in under one minute<sup>(62)</sup>.

In 2013, Hemmerling et al. demonstrated that a closed-loop anesthesia system, *McSleepy*, outperformed manual anesthesia management in maintaining target BIS levels and analgesia scores<sup>(63)</sup>. *McSleepy* monitors hypnosis depth via EEG, pain through Analgoscore™, and muscle relaxation using Phonomyography™, integrating these variables into an automated system for drug delivery while adapting its performance to biological feedback and system errors<sup>(64)</sup>.

Automated closed-loop systems have shown superiority over manual approaches in controlling anesthesia depth, cardiac output, and protective ventilation, with improved neurocognitive recovery in patients over 60<sup>(65)</sup>. These systems can also manage total intravenous anesthesia<sup>(66)</sup>, fluid infusion<sup>(67)</sup>, and vasoactive drug titration<sup>(68)</sup>, reducing propofol usage and keeping patients in therapeutic

ranges for longer durations<sup>(65,66)</sup>. Fluid management at the bedside is a complex task<sup>(69-71)</sup>. Systems enabling automation have the potential to deliver more balanced fluid administration compared to standard care<sup>(67)</sup>.

Mechanical ventilation is a complex field characterized by the emergence of new technologies and research advancements<sup>(71,72)</sup>. In mechanical ventilation, reinforcement learning has been used to create AI algorithms like *AIVent*, optimizing positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP), oxygen concentration, and tidal volume. Retrospective studies suggest AI-assisted ventilation decisions may outperform manual adjustments<sup>(73)</sup>. AI-assisted anesthesia models are also emerging, with algorithms supporting clinicians in determining optimal anesthetic dosages during maintenance phases of open anesthesia systems<sup>(74)</sup>.

Anesthesia information management systems and cognitive anesthesia robots assist in clinical decision-making by analyzing variables to provide alerts, reminders, and treatment suggestions. These systems can detect preoperative lab abnormalities, prevent communication errors, recommend antibiotic regimens intraoperatively, and remind clinicians of redosing intervals<sup>(75)</sup>. In postoperative care, cognitive robots delivering individualized feedback improved adherence to antiemetic prophylaxis protocols by 5.5%<sup>(76)</sup>. Additionally, clinical decision support system tools help reduce volatile anesthetic consumption, promoting sustainable practices<sup>(77)</sup>. In mechanical ventilation, AI aids in identifying phenotypes of respiratory pathologies, enabling personalized ventilation strategies<sup>(78)</sup>.

Automation in anesthesia faces regulatory hurdles related to safety and liability. Robust clinical trials are needed to demonstrate benefits in reducing mortality, morbidity, and costs. Key advantages include reduced anesthesiologist workload and improved maintenance of therapeutic targets<sup>(65-68)</sup>.

### Natural language processing in anesthesia

AI-based natural language processing (NLP) models, such as “ChatGPT” (Generative Pre-trained Transformer, e.g., ChatGPT-4), can interpret questions, analyze images, and generate human-like responses<sup>(79)</sup>. Developed by OpenAI in 2022 (San Francisco, CA, USA), these tools are already being used to assist in drafting scientific articles in anesthesiology.

Potential applications in surgical patients include preoperative planning, intraoperative decision support, and postoperative care optimization<sup>(79)</sup>. By integrating patient data – such as comorbidities, lab results, imaging, and surgical type – NLP tools could help design personalized anesthetic plans<sup>(80)</sup>. Intraoperatively, ChatGPT might assist in

monitoring physiological parameters and flagging abnormalities<sup>(79)</sup>. Postoperatively, it could enhance communication between patients and healthcare teams, support rehabilitation, manage pain, and provide health education<sup>(79)</sup>.

However, these tools face ethical challenges, including data security, lack of research regulation, risks of data fabrication, misinformation, and “hallucinations” – errors where the model generates false or irrelevant information. Despite these limitations, the collaboration potential between AI systems and anesthesiology is significant. Proactively exploring its implications now will

help establish appropriate regulatory frameworks<sup>(80)</sup>. Table 1 outlines key AI applications in anesthesiology.

Hallucinations in NLP models pose a significant risk in clinical environments, where inaccurate or fabricated information can lead to severe consequences for patient care. These errors are particularly concerning when interpreting complex medical terminology, as NLP models may misrepresent or misunderstand technical language, generating misleading outputs. Additionally, ambiguity in clinical records, caused by inconsistent documentation, shorthand, or varying terminologies, further complicates the accuracy of automated systems. Addressing these

**Table 1.** Key applications and studies on AI in anesthesiology

Use in Anesthesia	Application	Limitation	Consideration	References
Surgical logistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Predicting surgery duration and anesthesia recovery time</li> <li>- Selecting appropriate patients for outpatient surgery</li> <li>- Identifying risk factors for avoidable surgical errors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- More studies needed to operationalize results</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ML approaches: optimize surgery scheduling, professional allocation, reduce costs, and improve safety</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bartek et al.<sup>(14)</sup></li> <li>Zhao et al.<sup>(15)</sup></li> <li>Ganàn-Cardenas et al.<sup>(16)</sup></li> <li>Jia et al.<sup>(18)</sup></li> </ul>
Preoperative evaluation, risk stratification, and prediction of postoperative complications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Predicting difficult airway management</li> <li>- Automatic detection of ASA score</li> <li>- MySurgeryRisk automatic risk calculator</li> <li>- Predicting nausea, vomiting, and delirium</li> <li>- Predicting transfusion risks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Accuracy of ASA classification may be superior in patients with multiple comorbidities</li> <li>- Risk calculators require further validation in clinical practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- AI models for airway difficulty prediction using facial images show high sensitivity and specificity</li> <li>- Cardiac comorbidity risk calculators outperformed the traditional revised cardiac risk index</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tavolara et al.<sup>(22)</sup></li> <li>Cho et al.<sup>(23)</sup></li> <li>Zhou et al.<sup>(24)</sup></li> <li>Bihorac et al.<sup>(27)</sup></li> <li>Ren et al.<sup>(28)</sup></li> <li>Shickel et al.<sup>(30)</sup></li> <li>Zhang et al.<sup>(33)</sup></li> </ul>
Intraoperative complications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Real-time hypoxemia prediction</li> <li>- Identifying high-risk hypoxemia groups during sedation</li> <li>- Predicting hypotension onset 15 minutes in advance with early warning systems</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Prediction tools need validation with larger participant numbers and varied clinical settings for routine use</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- AI can help predict 30% of hypoxemia events and identify possible causes</li> <li>- Early identification of patients at risk for hypotension</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Lundberg et al.<sup>(41)</sup></li> <li>Geng et al.<sup>(42)</sup></li> <li>Jo et al.<sup>(43)</sup></li> </ul>
Anesthesia depth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ML algorithms tested on EEG features outperformed or were equivalent to BIS in discriminating consciousness levels</li> <li>- Integration of anesthesia depth monitoring with drug infusion systems is crucial for anesthesia automation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No suitable model for daily anesthesiology practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ML techniques show potential for integrating infusion pumps with patient neural activity</li> <li>- Development of this technology could be a milestone in anesthesiology</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Gu et al.<sup>(47)</sup></li> <li>Shalbfaf et al.<sup>(48)</sup></li> <li>Madanu et al.<sup>(49)</sup></li> <li>Dutt et al.<sup>(51)</sup></li> </ul>

**Table 1.** Continued...

Use in Anesthesia	Application	Limitation	Consideration	References
Pain management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Automatic identification and stratification of pain intensity via facial expression analysis</li> <li>- Identifying patients who may benefit from preoperative assessment</li> <li>- Prediction of adverse effects and postoperative pain</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No clinically available tools or models for daily anesthesiology practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Pain is complex and multifactorial</li> <li>- AI has vast potential due to its ability to integrate multiple variables for complex data analysis</li> <li>- Precise selection of drugs and ideal doses</li> </ul>	De Sario et al. <sup>(53)</sup> Olesen et al. <sup>(56)</sup>
Ultrasound and regional blocks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- AI and ultrasound: increased effectiveness in image acquisition and interpretation</li> <li>- Fully robotic regional block</li> <li>- Neuroaxial blocks: epidural space depth and needle insertion angle calculations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- More studies are needed to validate benefits and safety in clinical practice</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ScanNav Anatomy Peripheral Nerve Block: First FDA-approved ultrasound with AI</li> <li>- Reduced risk of adverse events, block failure, and improved procedure speed</li> </ul>	Hemmerling et al. <sup>(57)</sup> Larkin et al. <sup>(58)</sup> In Chan et al. <sup>(61)</sup>
Anesthesia automation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Robotic orotracheal intubation</li> <li>- Fluid and vasopressor infusion</li> <li>- Closed-loop anesthesia systems (Mc Sleepy)</li> <li>- Anesthesia automation and closed-loop systems are crucial for the future of anesthesiology</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ethical and regulatory issues regarding safety and responsibility</li> <li>- No tools available that account for individual patient peculiarities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cognitive robots: preoperative altered exam alarms, antibiotic administration assistance, adherence to antiemetic protocols, rational anesthetic use, ventilation strategy phenotypes, AI-assisted ventilation adjustment</li> </ul>	Hemmerling et al. <sup>(63)</sup> Joosten et al. <sup>(65)</sup> Pasin et al. <sup>(66)</sup> Joosten et al. <sup>(67)</sup> Sng et al. <sup>(68)</sup> Ren et al. <sup>(74)</sup> Freundlich et al. <sup>(75)</sup>

challenges requires robust validation mechanisms, improved model transparency, and the integration of domain-specific medical knowledge to enhance reliability and minimize risks in clinical decision-making.

**Accountability for model-related patient harm**

The world is experiencing significant transformations with the advancement of AI. However, several important issues must be thoroughly discussed before implementing this technology in real patient care. Healthcare organizations and developers must assume responsibility for any adverse outcomes caused by biased models. Implementing ethical frameworks and legal safeguards ensures accountability, while regular audits and updates help maintain model reliability and fairness. Another critical issue is privacy and informed consent regarding the use of data to train AI models. These topics remain unclear and require further clarification.

Key questions include: What policies are necessary to prevent model-related patient harm? What measures are needed to address privacy issues and ensure proper informed consent when using data for AI model training?

**FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR AI IN ANESTHESIOLOGY**

AI is poised to transform nearly every sector of healthcare, including anesthesiology, where it is expected to drive advancements in big data, robotics, the internet of things, and more. Throughout the surgical patient journey – from surgical indication and preoperative evaluation to the management of long-term complications – numerous opportunities exist to leverage these technologies. Operating rooms and intensive care units are particularly well-suited for the integration of big data analysis and ML due to the vast amounts of patient information processed

and stored electronically. These tools have the potential to enhance personalized care, clinical decision-making, administrative management, and scientific research.

The convergence of technologies and interoperability among devices will facilitate integrated data analysis, proving especially useful in caring for critically ill patients or those undergoing major surgeries. These scenarios often demand simultaneous processing of extensive data sets, exceeding human cognitive capacity for attention, memory, analysis, and evidence-based decision-making. Interoperable systems will also support data modeling, automation studies, and advancements in anesthetic practices.

As automation becomes a more significant part of anesthetic procedures, the field will see an increase in research on automation and its implications for anesthesiologists in increasingly high-tech operating rooms. The mantra that “data is power” underscores the need for anesthesiologists to gain at least basic knowledge of data science, including programming skills – comparable to learning a new language. If medical school curricula fail to incorporate such training, residency programs must address this gap, posing challenges for educational institutions.

Enhanced surgical risk assessment, personalized anesthesia, rapid identification of complications, and critical evaluation of outcomes will require basic data science skills for formulating relevant questions and critically analyzing AI-generated results. Similarly, data science can revolutionize education and training through digitalized textbooks, AI-powered simulation, and virtual tutors. Facial emotion analysis could help assess students’ stress adaptation, attention during surgery, and overall performance evaluation.

In scientific research, AI can streamline literature reviews, enable large-scale observational studies, and facilitate the integration of global datasets through ML analysis. For randomized trials, AI could aid in site selection, patient recruitment, interim and final analyses, and comparisons with preliminary findings. These capabilities could lead to ongoing updates of meta-analyses, ensuring their relevance.

Several studies demonstrate strong predictive outcomes but lack critical analysis of the models’ reliance on retrospective data, which may not yield similar results in prospective settings. Additionally, models trained on data from specific hospitals or populations are inherently at risk of overfitting, limiting their applicability to other institutions. To mitigate model biases and enhance real-world applicability, researchers should use data from diverse institutions across various countries.

Advancing AI in anesthesiology requires strong multidisciplinary collaboration among anesthesiologists,

data scientists, and engineers to develop reliable, clinically relevant models. Establishing standardized policies for validating AI systems before clinical implementation is essential to ensure accuracy, safety, and regulatory compliance. Additionally, clear frameworks for liability must be defined to address responsibility in cases of diagnostic errors or complications resulting from AI-generated recommendations. Privacy concerns also remain critical, with the need of strict data protection measures and transparent informed consent protocols for using patient data in AI model training. Addressing these challenges will be key to safely integrating AI into anesthetic practice while maintaining ethical and legal integrity.

AI-driven data science in anesthesiology is likely to spur the development of “smart” products, including apps, equipment, and interoperable or remotely operated devices. These innovations aim to improve patient safety and process efficiency while maintaining the critical role of a highly trained anesthesiologist.

The future of anesthesiology will undoubtedly be increasingly digital, with AI enhancing every aspect of practice. However, even in this high-tech landscape, these advancements must be harnessed to provide more humanistic patient care.

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