

Jan Claassen  
Fabio S. Taccone  
Peter Horn  
Martin Holtkamp  
Nino Stocchetti  
Mauro Oddo

## Recommendations on the use of EEG monitoring in critically ill patients: consensus statement from the neurointensive care section of the ESICM

Received: 8 April 2013  
Accepted: 14 April 2013  
Published online: 8 May 2013  
© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg and ESICM 2013

M. Oddo (✉)  
Department of Intensive Care Medicine,  
Faculty of Biology of Medicine, CHUV-  
Lausanne University Hospital, 1011  
Lausanne, Switzerland  
e-mail: mauro.oddo@chuv.ch  
Tel.: +41-79-5561246  
Fax: +41-21-3143045

J. Claassen  
Department of Neurology, Division of  
Critical Care Neurology, Columbia  
University Medical Center, New York, NY,  
USA

F. S. Taccone  
Department of Intensive Care Medicine,  
Erasmus Hospital, Université Libre de  
Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium

P. Horn  
Department of Neurosurgery,  
Horst-Schmidt-Klinik, Wiesbaden,  
Germany

M. Holtkamp  
Department of Neurology, Charité  
University Medicine, Berlin, Germany

N. Stocchetti  
Department of Anesthesia and Critical Care,  
Neuroscience ICU, Fondazione IRCCS Cà  
Granda-Ospedale Policlinico, University of  
Milan, Milan, Italy

**Abstract Objectives:** Recommendations for EEG monitoring in the ICU are lacking. The Neurointensive Care Section of the ESICM assembled a multidisciplinary group to establish consensus recommendations on the use of EEG in the ICU.

**Methods:** A systematic review was performed and 42 studies were included. Data were extracted using the PICO approach, including: (a) population, i.e. ICU patients with at least one of the following: traumatic brain injury, subarachnoid hemorrhage, intracerebral hemorrhage, stroke, coma after cardiac arrest, septic and metabolic encephalopathy, encephalitis, and status epilepticus; (b) intervention, i.e. EEG monitoring of at least 30 min duration; (c) control, i.e. intermittent vs. continuous EEG, as no studies compared patients with a specific clinical condition, with and without EEG monitoring; (d) outcome endpoints, i.e. seizure detection, ischemia

detection, and prognostication. After selection, evidence was classified and recommendations developed using the GRADE system. **Recommendations:** The panel recommends EEG in generalized convulsive status epilepticus and to rule out nonconvulsive seizures in brain-injured patients and in comatose ICU patients without primary brain injury who have unexplained and persistent altered consciousness. We suggest EEG to detect ischemia in comatose patients with subarachnoid hemorrhage and to improve prognostication of coma after cardiac arrest. We recommend continuous over intermittent EEG for refractory status epilepticus and suggest it for patients with status epilepticus and suspected ongoing seizures and for comatose patients with unexplained and persistent altered consciousness. **Conclusions:** EEG monitoring is an important diagnostic tool for specific indications. Further data are necessary to understand its potential for ischemia assessment and coma prognostication.

**Keywords** EEG · Intensive care · Seizures · Cerebral ischemia · Prognosis · Recommendations

## Introduction

Acute brain dysfunction is a leading cause of admission to the ICU, either due to structural diseases, for example traumatic brain injury (TBI), intracranial hemorrhage, cerebral ischemia and encephalitis, or to functional disorders, for example septic encephalopathy. Electroencephalography (EEG) provides information about brain electrical activity, even when brain function is depressed and cannot be explored otherwise, as in comatose patients. EEG is essential to detect electrical seizures and to document their duration and response to therapy. It can disclose alterations associated with the development of delayed cerebral ischemia (DCI) and improve coma prognostication. It is useful to monitor barbiturate coma for refractory intracranial hypertension [1] and is mandatory in several countries for the diagnosis of brain death [2].

Evidence, however, is sparse, and recommendations for EEG monitoring in the ICU are not well defined. The Neurointensive Care (NIC) Section of the ESICM assembled a multidisciplinary panel to establish a consensus statement on the use of EEG monitoring in adult ICU populations. The aim was to provide better guidance for EEG monitoring and to improve implementation of EEG in ICU practice. Two indications were excluded from this review: EEG for brain death diagnosis, since it is regulated by local legislation in many countries, and for barbiturate coma, since it has been reviewed in authoritative guidelines [1].

## Methods

### Authors and study selection

In 2010, the NIC section of the ESICM decided to develop evidence-based consensus recommendation on the indications for EEG monitoring for ICU patients. Authors were proposed during an official NIC section meeting and included neurointensivists (N.S., J.C.), medical/surgical intensivists (F.S.T., M.O.), anesthesiologists (N.S.), neurologists (J.C.), neurosurgeons (P.H.) and epileptologists (M.H.) who would review the existing literature and provide a consensus manuscript. This systematic review was reported following the PRISMA criteria [3].

### Eligibility criteria

Studies were considered eligible based on the PICO approach, which includes:

- (a) Population, i.e. ICU patients with at least one of the following: TBI, subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH), intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH), acute ischemic stroke (AIS), coma after cardiac arrest (CA), sepsis/metabolic encephalopathy, encephalitis, and status epilepticus (SE).
- (b) Intervention, i.e. EEG monitoring of >30 min duration.
- (c) Controls, i.e. intermittent vs. continuous EEG, as no studies compared patient population with a specific clinical condition with and without EEG.
- (d) Outcome endpoints, i.e. seizure detection, ischemia detection, prognostication.

### Search strategy

Using the PubMed database, we conducted a systematic review from 1966 up to August 2012. The search strategy included the terms “EEG” or “electroencephalogram” or “electroencephalography”, used with one of the following: “intensive care” or “critical care” or “ischemia” or “prognosis” or “outcome” or “traumatic brain injury” or “subarachnoid hemorrhage” or “intracerebral hemorrhage” or “stroke” or “cardiac arrest” or “sepsis” or “metabolic encephalopathy” or “encephalitis” or “meningitis” or “status epilepticus”. Additional references for relevant studies were also searched from review articles. We restricted the language of the articles to English. No unpublished data or congress abstracts were considered.

### Study selection

Two authors (M.O. and F.S.T.) independently reviewed citations, abstracts and full-text articles to select eligible studies. We excluded: (a) review articles, (b) case reports, (c) experimental studies, (d) studies in pediatric ICU populations, (e) studies that were not conducted on ICU patients. Data were abstracted (F.S.T.) according to the PICO system. No attempt was made to re-analyze the data; accuracy of data extraction was controlled thereafter (M.O.). No additional process to obtain data from investigators was attempted. Considering the lack of randomized or case-control studies, no meta-analysis of extracted data was performed nor did we assess risk of bias or consistency, or perform subgroup analyses.

### Grading of evidence

The quality of evidence was judged based on the grades of recommendation, assessment, development and evaluation (GRADE) system, which assesses the quality of evidence for each of the selected outcomes from the

available studies, considering the benefit/risk balance and the costs related to the study intervention [4, 5]. This system classifies *quality of evidence* as high (grade A), moderate (grade B), low (grade C), or very low (grade D) [6, 7]. Thereafter, *recommendations* are classified as strong (grade 1) or weak (grade 2). One advantage of the GRADE system is that a strong recommendation can be made despite moderate/low evidence. Accordingly, the authors made strong recommendations when they were confident that the desirable effects of adherence to a recommendation would outweigh the undesirable effects. A strong recommendation reflects the possibility that following the given recommendation about EEG will result in more beneficial effects (detection and therapy of seizures, reduced injury associated with ongoing seizures, improved outcome, less burden on staff and patients, cost savings) than harm to ICU patients (inaccurate predictive value, useless antiepileptic drugs (AED), difficult EEG implementation). A weak recommendation reflects the opinion that the benefit/risk balance could be in favor of this recommendation, but the members of the task force were not confident because of limited evidence. Three authors (M.O., F.S.T., J.C.) proposed initial recommendations and asked for approval from the other participants. In case of disagreement, changes to recommendations were proposed and discussed to obtain a unanimous vote. It is important to recognize that strong recommendations do not necessarily represent standards of care.

## Results

A total of 42 studies were selected (Fig. 1). All were retrospective or prospective observational single-center studies. No controlled trial—either nonrandomized or randomized—was identified (Table 1). Strong recommendations for EEG use, when given in the absence of high-quality evidence, are justified by the potential harm of unrecognized seizures and the low risk of the procedure; however, costs may be considerable and have to be weighed against the benefit. A summary of GRADE recommendations for the indications for EEG monitoring in the ICU is given in Table 2.

### Patient populations

#### *EEG in patients with generalized convulsive SE*

**Seizure detection** Generalized convulsive SE (GCSE) is a clinical diagnosis that does not require EEG. However, nonconvulsive seizures (NCSz) and nonconvulsive SE (NCSE) are frequent (48 % and 14 %, respectively) after GCSE [8] and differentiating ongoing seizure activity from postictal or medication-induced encephalopathy can be challenging. As clinical symptoms are often missing, EEG is necessary to diagnose ongoing NCSz [9, 10]. EEG, especially continuous EEG (cEEG), is urgently required in patients not waking up after cessation of clinical seizures to rule out NCSz [8, 11]. Guidelines for

**Fig. 1** Flow-chart representing the methodology for the systematic review, according to the PRISMA criteria

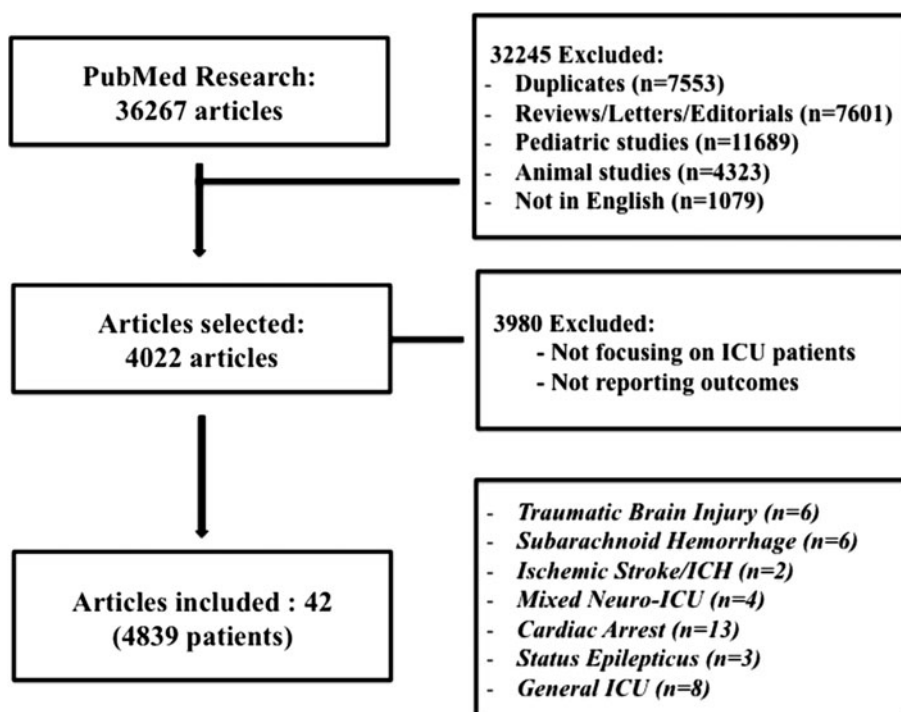




Table 1 continued

Population	Reference	Study N	Intervention	Risk factors	Seizures	Ischemia	Prognostication
SAH and ICH	Bosco [43]	P 68	cEEG	-	-	-	Increase in delta power was associated with a 24 % increase in mortality
Post-CA coma							
NT patients	Bassetti [66]	P 60	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns (non-reactive background, burst-suppression, flat EEG) 100 % predictive of poor outcome
	Chen [70]	P 34	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns were found in 20/22 non-survivors—unreactive EEG was found in 23/26 non-survivors
	Rothstein [76]	P 40	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns 80 % predictive of poor outcome
	Synek [80]	P 63	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns 98 % predictive of mortality
	Yamashita [82]	P 79	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns 100 % predictive of mortality
NT + TH patients	Fugate [89]	P 192	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns 100 % predictive of poor outcome
TH patients	Kawai [90]	R 26	cEEG	-	38.5 %	-	Continuous EEG pattern predictive of good outcome
	Rittenberger [61]	R 101	cEEG	-	12 %	-	NCSE 100 % predictive of poor outcome
	Legriel [60]	P 51	cEEG	-	10 %	-	SE 100 % predictive of mortality
	Rossetti [91]	P 111	EEG	-	-	-	“Malignant” EEG patterns 100 % predictive of poor outcome
	Rossetti [92]	P 34	cEEG	-	-	-	Non-reactive cEEG background during TH 100 % predictive of mortality; all survivors had cEEG background reactivity
	Rundgren [63]	P 34	cEEG	-	-	-	Pts with good outcome had a continuous EEG pattern; pts with “malignant” EEG patterns died
	Rundgren [93]	P 111	cEEG	-	-	-	Pts with good outcome had a continuous EEG pattern; burst-suppression pattern 100 % predictive of mortality
Status epilepticus							
GCSE	DeLorenzo [8]	P 164	cEEG	-	48 % (NCSz), 14 % (NCSE)	-	
>65 years patients with NCSE	Litt [109]	P 25	EEG	-	-	-	NCSE was associated with poor outcome
NCSz	Young [11]	R 49	cEEG	-	-	-	NCSE was associated with poor outcome
General ICU							
Mixed ICU	Towne [29]	R 236*	cEEG	HIE, stroke	8 %	-	-
GCS <9	Varelas [111]	R 129	EEG	Age, HIE	20 %	-	-
Mixed ICU	Young [108]	P 55	cEEG	Primary brain injury has higher incidence of NCSz	9 %	-	-
GCS <9							
Medical ICU	Oddo [105]	R 201	cEEG	-	10 %	-	Sepsis was an independent predictor of NCSz; NCSz were an independent predictor of poor outcome

Table 1 continued

Population	Reference	Study	N	Intervention	Risk factors	Seizures	Ischemia	Prognostication
Medical ICU	Firosh Khan [102]	P	286	EEG	-	10 % (NCSz), 4 % (NCSE)	-	NCSz/NCSE were not associated with outcome
Mixed ICU	Scozzafava [101]	P	169	EEG	-	2 %	-	EEG abnormalities were not associated with poor outcome
GCS <9	Young [103]	R	NR	EEG	-	-	-	Burst-suppression pattern and non-reactive EEG background predicted poor outcome
GCS <9	Young [104]	R	62	EEG	-	0 %	-	Burst-suppression pattern and non-reactive EEG background predicted poor outcome

ADR alpha/delta ratio, CA cardiac arrest, cEEG continuous EEG, CNS central nervous system, DCI delayed cerebral ischemia, GCS Glasgow coma score, GCSE generalized convulsive status epilepticus, HIE hypoxic-ischemic encephalopathy, ICH intracerebral hemorrhage, NCSE non-convulsive status epilepticus, NCSz non-convulsive seizures, NPV negative predictive value, NR not reported, NT normothermic, P prospective, PPV positive predictive value, R retrospective, SAH subarachnoid hemorrhage, SE status epilepticus, TBI traumatic brain injury, TH therapeutic hypothermia

<sup>a</sup> Adults and children

the management of SE in the ICU have recently been published [6].

#### Recommendations for patients with convulsive SE

1. We recommend urgent EEG in patients with SE that do not return to functional baseline within 60 min after administration of seizure medication (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).

#### EEG in patients with refractory SE

SE resistant to initial therapy, also known as refractory SE (RSE), is almost exclusively nonconvulsive and requires initiation of intravenous AED [12–14]. CEEG is required to guide therapy for RSE, aiming to stop ongoing electrographic seizures. One study showed that although RSE initially responded to intravenous therapy, many patients subsequently developed NCSz, detectable only with cEEG [15]. There is controversy as to the minimum duration of monitoring [16–19] (see section “[Technological issues](#)”). Video-cEEG monitoring helps with the interpretation of complex electrographic abnormalities, but its efficacy over standard EEG has not been demonstrated yet [20].

#### Recommendations for patients with refractory SE

1. We recommend urgent (within 60 min) EEG in patients with RSE (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).

#### EEG in patients with TBI

**Seizure detection** Patients suffering from TBI are at risk of NCSz [21, 22]. Risk factors for NCSz are depressed skull fracture, penetrating injury and large cortical contusion/hematomas [22]. Observational studies in patients with TBI monitored by EEG have shown a variable prevalence of NCSz. Vespa et al. ( $n = 90$  patients, duration of cEEG 7 days) found a 22 % prevalence of seizures, of which 52 % were NCSz, despite AED prophylaxis [19]. Ronne-Engstrom and Winkler studied 70 patients (duration of cEEG 58 h, no AED prophylaxis) and found a 33 % prevalence of seizures (starting on average 74 h after TBI), the majority of which were NCSz [23]. The frequency of NCSz depends on the amount of sedatives used. Two recent studies, in which patients were given high sedative doses with intrinsic antiseizure activity, showed no [24] or a very low (3 %) [25] rate of NCSz. NCSz are associated with intracranial pressure elevations [26], increased cerebral metabolic distress [26] and long-term hippocampal atrophy [27].

**Table 2** GRADE recommendations for the indications for EEG in the ICU

GRADE recommendations			Patient description		Objective
Direction	Strength	Level of evidence	Underlying etiology	Scenario	
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Generalized convulsive status epilepticus	No return to functional baseline after initial antiepileptic therapy	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Refractory status epilepticus	Concern for ongoing seizure activity	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Traumatic brain injury	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Subarachnoid hemorrhage	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Intracerebral hemorrhage	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Cardiac arrest	Persistent coma	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (C)	Encephalitis	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Strong (1)	Low quality (B)	Comatose patients without primary brain injury	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Weak (2)	Low quality (C)	Severe traumatic brain injury	Concern for ongoing seizure activity in high-risk patients (large cortical hemorrhagic contusion/hematoma)	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Weak (2)	Very low quality (D)	Acute ischemic stroke	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Detect nonconvulsive seizures
Pro	Weak (2)	Low quality (C)	Subarachnoid hemorrhage	Patients in whom clinical examination is unreliable	Detect ischemia
Pro	Weak (2)	Low quality (C)	Cardiac arrest	Persistent coma	Prognostication
Pro	Weak (2)	Low quality (C)	All comatose ICU patients	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Prognostication
Pro	Weak (2)	Very low quality (D)	Encephalitis	Unexplained alteration in consciousness <sup>a</sup>	Prognostication

<sup>a</sup> Unexplained alteration in consciousness: reduced consciousness state that is not attributable to metabolic disorders (sodium, calcium, glucose, ammonium, urea), organ dysfunction (hypotension, hypoxemia, sepsis, hyperthermia) or structural brain lesions on imaging (cerebral CT scan) tests

Despite variable results and lack of multicenter studies, there is a strong rationale for EEG monitoring after TBI. This is reinforced by the fact that primary AED prophylaxis is frequently unreliable in preventing or suppressing NCSz [28].

**Ischemia detection** No study has shown a role for EEG in detecting ischemia after TBI.

**Prognostication** Towne et al. [29] and Vespa et al. [19] were unable to demonstrate a difference in mortality between TBI patients with or without EEG seizures. EEG reactivity to auditory or nociceptive stimuli predicted good outcome after TBI, whereas absent EEG reactivity resulted in a poor outcome [30, 31] with a higher predictive value than GCS and somatosensory evoked potentials. In another study, EEG performed daily during the first week after admission reliably predicted outcome in 40/50 patients; however, prognosis could not be assessed in patients with alpha pattern coma or in those receiving barbiturate therapy [32]. Reduced percentage of

alpha variability also predicted outcome in TBI patients with GCS  $\leq 8$  (positive predictive value 86 %) [33].

#### Recommendations for patients with TBI

1. We recommend EEG in all TBI patients with unexplained and persistent altered consciousness (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).
2. We suggest EEG to rule out NCSz in patients with TBI and GCS  $\leq 8$ , particularly in those with large cortical contusion/hematoma, depressed skull fracture or penetrating injury (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

#### EEG in patients with SAH

**Seizure detection** Acute seizures have been reported in between 3 % and 26 % of patients with comatose SAH [34–36]. Of those undergoing cEEG in the ICU, 3–19 %

have NCSz and 13 % have NCSE, which cannot be diagnosed without EEG. Risk factors for seizures include older age, poor clinical grade, large intraparenchymal hemorrhage, large amount of cisternal blood, DCI, and anterior circulation aneurysm. Seizures may be less likely in patients that have undergone coil embolization of the aneurysm [34].

**Ischemia detection** In SAH patients, changes in EEG trends on cEEG (performed on days 2–10) correlate with DCI [37–41]. A number of quantitative EEG (qEEG) parameters may be useful, including changes in total power, alpha/delta ratio (ADR), composite alpha index, and relative alpha variability. There is controversy over which parameter is best, but all fundamentally relate to fast to slow frequencies. QEEG can detect EEG changes associated with DCI 24–48 h prior to other diagnostic tools [39, 41]. Reported sensitivity is variable but can be as high as 90 % [37, 38], with 75 % specificity [37], and 100 % negative predictive value and 76 % positive predictive value [41].

**Prognostication** Epileptiform discharges or NCSE and absent EEG background reactivity was associated with poor prognosis after SAH [42]. Despite this association, there are no unequivocal human data indicating that NCSz are causally linked to poor functional outcome or that treatment improves outcome [34, 35, 42]. Progressive deterioration on the basis of EEG (increased delta pattern) was associated with an increased risk of dying by almost 24 % compared to patients whose condition did not worsen according to EEG [43].

#### *Recommendations for patients with SAH*

1. We recommend EEG to rule out NCSz in all SAH patients with unexplained and persistent altered consciousness (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).
2. We suggest EEG to detect DCI in comatose SAH patients, in whom neurological examination is unreliable (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

#### *EEG in patients with ICH*

**Seizure detection** Seizures are seen in 3–17 % of ICH patients, occurring at 1 day (50–70 %) up to 3 days from ICH. Most seizures diagnosed in the ICU are non-convulsive (NCSz 53–76 %, NCSE 39 %) and can only be diagnosed by EEG [44–46]. Risk factors include cortical bleeding and arteriovenous malformations [44, 46].

**Ischemia detection** No study has provided data on ischemia detection in ICH patients.

**Prognostication** Seizures are associated with an increase in ICH volume and worsening midline shift [44, 46]. NCSz worsen neurological status, but an independent association with outcome has not been demonstrated [44, 46].

#### *Recommendations for patients with ICH*

1. We recommend EEG to rule out NCSz in all ICH patients with unexplained and persistent altered consciousness (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).

#### *EEG in patients with AIS*

**Seizure detection** One single-center study in which cEEG was performed in 177 patients with AIS showed a 7 % incidence of seizures (more than 70 % NCSz) in the acute (<24 h) phase [45]. Seizures are less frequent than in ICH, SAH or TBI patients.

**Ischemia detection** A decrease in cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP) may be associated with a concomitant reduction in faster EEG activity on qEEG [47], while rapid improvements in background EEG activity have been observed upon CPP/CBF increase following mannitol therapy [48] or hemodilution [49].

**Prognostication** Following hemicraniectomy for space-occupying middle cerebral artery infarction, the presence of faster EEG activity was associated with good recovery in patients monitored with cEEG [50]. Three studies have demonstrated that the disappearance or further slowing of delta activity in the acute phase (within 24 h) of AIS predicted a malignant course (cerebral edema) [51–53].

Preliminary studies showed a correlation between the neurological score in the acute stage of AIS and the degree of EEG abnormality [54], although this correlation was shown to be low by others [55]. CEEG improves outcome prognostication in AIS [56–59]: in particular, the ADR and the so-called EEG brain symmetry index are significantly correlated with outcome at 6 months [56–59].

#### *Recommendations for patients with AIS*

1. We suggest EEG to rule out NCSz in all AIS patients with unexplained and/or persistently altered consciousness (weak recommendation, very low quality of evidence—grade 2D).
2. We do not recommend EEG to detect cerebral ischemia and target CPP in AIS patients (weak recommendation against, very low quality of evidence—grade 2D).



3. We do not recommend EEG to detect herniation in AIS patients (weak recommendation against, very low quality of evidence—grade 2D).
2. We suggest EEG to assist with prognostication of coma after CA, particularly in patients treated with TH (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

#### *EEG in patients with coma after CA*

**Seizure detection** Seizures occur in 10–30 % of patients with coma after CA [60–63]. EEG is required to detect seizures as most seizures after CA are nonconvulsive and to differentiate myoclonic SE from peripheral or subcortical myoclonus. When therapeutic hypothermia (TH) is applied, seizures can occur during TH and after rewarming [60, 61, 63]. “Early” seizures, occurring during TH under sedation, are an ominous sign [60–63]. “Late” seizures, occurring after TH and off sedation, carry a poor prognosis but may respond to therapy in certain cases [64]: EEG is indicated to titrate therapy [61, 64].

**Ischemia detection** No study has provided data on ischemia detection in comatose CA patients or used EEG to target blood pressure management.

**Prognostication** Previous to TH, a number of studies showed that adding EEG—performed at 72 h from CA—to standard neurological examination improved outcome prognostication after CA [65–84]. EEG findings associated with a poor prognosis included spontaneous burst suppression or generalized periodic discharges. Synek analyzed EEG background activity (continuous vs. discontinuous pattern) and EEG background reactivity to auditory and painful stimulation, subsequently dichotomized as “reactive” vs. “non-reactive” [30, 80, 85]: the presence of a continuous and reactive EEG background (i.e. a change in EEG frequency and amplitude following stimulation) was associated with good prognosis. At this time TH is considered the standard of care after CA. Hypothermia and sedation used during cooling alter motor response and decrease the prognostic accuracy of neurological examination. Several studies performed in patients treated with TH demonstrated that EEG improves prognostic prediction of coma after CA [63, 86–95]. The presence of discontinuous and burst-suppression patterns, and of nonreactive EEG background, were strongly correlated (false-positive rates for poor prognosis <10 %) with a poor prognosis, whilst a continuous reactive background was associated with good recovery. Importantly, in some studies, coma prognostication could be achieved during TH [63, 92, 93].

#### *Recommendations for comatose patients after CA*

1. We recommend EEG during TH and within 24 h after rewarming to rule out NCSz in all comatose patients after CA (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).

#### *EEG in patients with infectious and non-infectious encephalitis*

**Seizure detection** Central nervous system (CNS) infections, mainly acute meningitis/encephalitis, are a risk factor for seizures, ranging from 6–12 % in some studies [96], and seizures are associated with higher mortality rates [97]. In a small retrospective study, Carrera et al., found seizures in one-third of 42 patients with primary CNS infections, and the majority of these were NCSz [98]. In the large cohort of patients undergoing cEEG monitoring reported by the Columbia University group, CNS infections and metabolic encephalopathy accounted for 13 % of all patients and there was 23 % and 12 % frequency of NCSE and NCSz, respectively. Comatose patients needed more than 24 h of cEEG monitoring to detect NCSz [17]. In another large cohort of neurocritical care patients ( $n = 393$ ) with admission GCS  $\leq 12$  and at least one EEG (cEEG,  $n = 34$ ), the prevalence of NCSz was 13 % and was highest among those with CNS infection, together with anoxic encephalopathy [99]. NCSz are very frequent in noninfectious encephalitis (up to 78 % of cases) and are mostly nonconvulsive [100].

**Ischemia detection** No study has provided data on ischemia detection in patients with encephalitis.

**Prognostication** No study has analyzed the prognostic accuracy of EEG in patients with encephalitis but particular patterns such as “delta brush” may be associated with a more prolonged illness [100].

#### *Recommendations for patients with infectious and non-infectious encephalitis*

1. We recommend EEG in patients with encephalitis that are comatose or have unexplained neurological deficits to rule out NCSz (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).
2. We suggest EEG in patients with encephalitis to assist with prognosis (weak recommendation, very low quality of evidence—grade 2D).

#### *EEG in comatose ICU patients without acute primary brain injury*

**Seizure detection** In a retrospective cohort of 238 general ICU comatose patients in whom EEG was performed, Towne et al. found a prevalence of NCSz of 8 % [29].

Postanoxic encephalopathy (42 %) was the most common etiology, followed by AIS (22 %), CNS infection, TBI, metabolic encephalopathy, alcohol or AED withdrawal (5 %), and brain tumor (all 5 %). Using standard 20-min EEG, Scozzafava found NCSz only in 2 of 169 patients with GCS <8 [101]. In 286 patients, of whom 22 % had encephalitis and 24 % metabolic encephalopathy, Firosh Khan et al. found that 4 % had NCSE and 10 % NCSz [102]. Patients with primary brain injury had a higher incidence of NCSz than those with metabolic encephalopathy (32 % vs. 4 %) [103]. Only two studies specifically focused on patients admitted to the ICU without a primary acute brain condition, in whom cEEG was performed because of altered consciousness. Young et al. found no NCSz among 62 patients with sepsis [104]. In a retrospective cohort of 201 medical ICU patients monitored with cEEG, Oddo et al. found a 10 % frequency of seizures, of which 69 % were purely NCSz [105]. Sepsis was the most common etiology and was the only independent risk factor for seizures. These findings confirm those of previous studies showing that septic encephalopathy and metabolic dysfunction (mainly renal and hepatic failure) are risk factors for NCSz [11, 106, 107].

**Ischemia detection** No study has provided data on ischemia detection in medical/surgical ICU populations.

**Prognostication** Patients with NCSz had the highest mortality rate in a large neuro-ICU population, although this finding was not significant after adjustment for confounding factors [99]. The same results were found in another study [101]. Firosh Khan et al. [102] found 42 % and 21 % of patients with NCSE and NCSz, respectively, had a poor outcome, but did not analyze the prognostic value of these findings. Young et al. [108] found that EEG suppression and lack of EEG reactivity were associated with a worse outcome in ICU patients; however, these data were only applicable to comatose CA patients. In a study of septic patients, the same group found that EEG abnormalities, but not NCSz, were associated with mortality (0 % in patients with normal EEG, 19 % in patients with theta rhythm, 36 % in patients with delta rhythm, 50 % in patients with triphasic waves and 67 % in patients with suppression) [104]. NCSz was associated with a poor outcome in septic patients [105] and in critically ill elderly (>65 years of age) patients [109].

#### *Recommendations for comatose ICU patients without acute primary brain injury*

1. We suggest EEG in comatose ICU patients without an acute primary brain condition and with unexplained impairment of mental status or unexplained neurological deficits to rule out NCSz, particularly in those

with severe sepsis or renal/hepatic failure (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

#### *Technological issues*

##### *Duration of monitoring: continuous vs. intermittent EEG monitoring*

**Seizure detection** Continuous EEG allows the detection of NCSz [11, 18, 103, 110] but there is controversy as to the minimum duration of cEEG. In a single-center retrospective study, about 50 % of NCSz were detected within the first 60 min of EEG, but in comatose neuro-ICU patients at least 24 h and up to 48 h of monitoring may be required [17]. Continuous EEG is essential to titrate AED in RSE and to identify recurrent NCSz [15]. Intermittent (<30 min duration) EEG may be insufficiently sensitive to detect NCSz [101], but no studies have compared continuous to intermittent EEG. Standard EEG can provide useful information in selected clinical situations, such as epilepsy-related situations, CA and brain death examination [102, 111]. In a recent study, independent predictors of epileptiform activity included a history of convulsive seizure(s), increasing age, deeper coma, and female gender [99]. In this study, the “number needed to monitor” was seven, i.e. at least seven neuro-ICU patients should undergo intermittent EEG to diagnose one with seizures.

**Ischemia detection** Continuous EEG using qEEG analysis has been used to detect cerebral ischemia in comatose SAH patients and in subjects with AIS. In SAH patients at risk of DCI, monitoring is performed for several days, during maximum DCI risk [37, 39, 41], and on average for 7 days [39]. QEEG is similarly performed for several days after AIS, one study reporting an average of 83 h of monitoring [47].

**Prognostication** After CA and TH, EEG—intermittent or continuous—improves coma prognostication [63, 86–95, 112]. Whether cEEG has higher prognostic accuracy than intermittent EEG has not been evaluated. Early prognostication of AIS [56–59], ICH [44, 46] and SAH [42] has exclusively been assessed with cEEG.

#### *Recommendations for continuous EEG over intermittent EEG monitoring*

1. We recommend cEEG for seizure detection in patients with RSE (strong recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 1C).
2. We suggest cEEG for seizure detection in patients with SE that do not return to functional baseline within 60 min after administration of seizure medication

(weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

3. We suggest cEEG for seizure detection in comatose ICU patients (TBI, SAH, ICH, coma after CA, encephalitis, and septic and metabolic encephalopathy) with unexplained and persistent altered consciousness (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).
4. We suggest cEEG for ischemia detection in comatose SAH patients in whom neurological examination is unreliable (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).
5. We suggest cEEG to assist with prognostication of coma after CA (weak recommendation, low quality of evidence—grade 2C).

#### Montage: standard vs. simplified

**Seizure detection** The placement of 21 electrodes is the standard method for EEG monitoring. Compared to standard EEG, the sensitivities of simplified EEG for seizure detection were 93 % in one study using seven electrodes [113], 68 % in another study using four electrodes [114], and 40 % with single-channel EEG [115].

**Ischemia detection** All studies that examined the value of EEG for ischemia detection used a standard montage [37, 39, 41, 47].

**Prognostication** After CA and TH, EEG—intermittent or continuous—improves coma prognostication. The majority of the studies used a standard EEG montage [86, 88–92, 94, 95, 112], but others showed similar predictive values using simplified montages [63, 87, 93]. Prognostication of AIS [56–59], ICH [44, 46] and SAH [42] has exclusively been assessed with a standard montage.

#### Recommendations for standard vs. simplified EEG montage in ICU patients

1. We recommend a standard EEG montage (21 electrodes) for the detection of NCSz in ICU patients (weak recommendation, poor quality of evidence—grade 2C).

**Acknowledgments** This report has been endorsed by the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine. Mauro Oddo is Deputy Chair of the Neurointensive Care section of the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine.

**Conflicts of interest** None.

## References

1. Bratton SL, Chestnut RM, Ghajar J, McConnell Hammond FF, Harris OA, Hartl R, Manley GT, Nemecek A, Newell DW, Rosenthal G, Schouten J, Shutter L, Timmons SD, Ullman JS, Videtta W, Wilberger JE, Wright DW (2007) Guidelines for the management of severe traumatic brain injury. XI. Anesthetics, analgesics, and sedatives. *J Neurotrauma* 24(Suppl 1):S71–S76
2. Zamperetti N, Bellomo R, Defanti CA, Latronico N (2004) Irreversible apnoeic coma 35 years later. Towards a more rigorous definition of brain death? *Intensive Care Med* 30:1715–1722
3. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, Mulrow C, Gotzsche PC, Ioannidis JP, Clarke M, Devereaux PJ, Kleijnen J, Moher D (2009) The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate healthcare interventions: explanation and elaboration. *BMJ* 339:b2700
4. Atkins D, Best D, Briss PA, Eccles M, Falck-Ytter Y, Flottorp S, Guyatt GH, Harbour RT, Haugh MC, Henry D, Hill S, Jaeschke R, Leng G, Liberati A, Magrini N, Mason J, Middleton P, Mrukowicz J, O'Connell D, Oxman AD, Phillips B, Schunemann HJ, Edejer TT, Varonen H, Vist GE, Williams JW Jr, Zaza S (2004) Grading quality of evidence and strength of recommendations. *BMJ* 328:1490
5. Schunemann HJ, Oxman AD, Brozek J, Glasziou P, Jaeschke R, Vist GE, Williams JW Jr, Kunz R, Craig J, Montori VM, Bossuyt P, Guyatt GH, Group GW (2008) Grading quality of evidence and strength of recommendations for diagnostic tests and strategies. *BMJ* 336:1106–1110
6. Brophy GM, Bell R, Claassen J, Alldredge B, Bleck TP, Glauser T, Laroche SM, Riviello JJ Jr, Shutter L, Sperling MR, Treiman DM, Vespa PM (2012) Guidelines for the evaluation and management of status epilepticus. *Neurocrit Care* 17:3–23
7. Reinhart K, Perner A, Sprung CL, Jaeschke R, Schortgen F, Johan Groeneveld AB, Beale R, Hartog CS (2012) Consensus statement of the ESICM task force on colloid volume therapy in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 38:368–383
8. DeLorenzo RJ, Waterhouse EJ, Towne AR, Boggs JG, Ko D, DeLorenzo GA, Brown A, Garnett L (1998) Persistent nonconvulsive status epilepticus after the control of convulsive status epilepticus. *Epilepsia* 39:833–840
9. Drislane FW (2000) Presentation, evaluation, and treatment of nonconvulsive status epilepticus. *Epilepsy Behav* 1:301–314
10. Privitera M, Hoffman M, Moore JL, Jester D (1994) EEG detection of nontonic-clonic status epilepticus in patients with altered consciousness. *Epilepsy Res* 18:155–166
11. Young B, Jordan K, Doig G (1996) An assessment of nonconvulsive seizures in the intensive care unit using continuous EEG monitoring: an investigation of variables associated with mortality. *Neurology* 47:83–89

12. Claassen J, Hirsch LJ, Emerson RG, Mayer SA (2002) Treatment of refractory status epilepticus with pentobarbital, propofol, or midazolam: a systematic review. *Epilepsia* 43:146–153
13. Rossetti AO, Logroscino G, Bromfield EB (2005) Refractory status epilepticus: effect of treatment aggressiveness on prognosis. *Arch Neurol* 62:1698–1702
14. Rossetti AO, Milligan TA, Vulliemoz S, Michaelides C, Bertschi M, Lee JW (2011) A randomized trial for the treatment of refractory status epilepticus. *Neurocrit Care* 14:4–10
15. Claassen J, Hirsch LJ, Emerson RG, Bates JE, Thompson TB, Mayer SA (2001) Continuous EEG monitoring and midazolam infusion for refractory nonconvulsive status epilepticus. *Neurology* 57:1036–1042
16. Abend NS, Dlugos DJ, Hahn CD, Hirsch LJ, Herman ST (2010) Use of EEG monitoring and management of non-convulsive seizures in critically ill patients: a survey of neurologists. *Neurocrit Care* 12:382–389
17. Claassen J, Mayer SA, Kowalski RG, Emerson RG, Hirsch LJ (2004) Detection of electrographic seizures with continuous EEG monitoring in critically ill patients. *Neurology* 62:1743–1748
18. Pandian JD, Cascino GD, So EL, Manno E, Fulgham JR (2004) Digital video-electroencephalographic monitoring in the neurological-neurosurgical intensive care unit: clinical features and outcome. *Arch Neurol* 61:1090–1094
19. Vespa PM, Nuwer MR, Nenov V, Ronne-Engstrom E, Hovda DA, Bergsneider M, Kelly DF, Martin NA, Becker DP (1999) Increased incidence and impact of nonconvulsive and convulsive seizures after traumatic brain injury as detected by continuous electroencephalographic monitoring. *J Neurosurg* 91:750–760
20. Krishnamurthy KB, Drislane FW (1999) Depth of EEG suppression and outcome in barbiturate anesthetic treatment for refractory status epilepticus. *Epilepsia* 40:759–762
21. Friedman D, Claassen J, Hirsch LJ (2009) Continuous electroencephalogram monitoring in the intensive care unit. *Anesth Analg* 109:506–523
22. Mirski MA, Varelas PN (2008) Seizures and status epilepticus in the critically ill. *Crit Care Clin* 24:115–147 (ix)
23. Ronne-Engstrom E, Winkler T (2006) Continuous EEG monitoring in patients with traumatic brain injury reveals a high incidence of epileptiform activity. *Acta Neurol Scand* 114:47–53
24. Olivecrona M, Zetterlund B, Rodling-Wahlstrom M, Naredi S, Koskinen LO (2009) Absence of electroencephalographic seizure activity in patients treated for head injury with an intracranial pressure-targeted therapy. *J Neurosurg* 110:300–305
25. Amantini A, Fossi S, Grippo A, Innocenti P, Amadori A, Bucciardini L, Cossu C, Nardini C, Scarpelli S, Roma V, Pinto F (2009) Continuous EEG-SEP monitoring in severe brain injury. *Neurophysiol Clin* 39:85–93
26. Vespa PM, Miller C, McArthur D, Eliseo M, Etchepare M, Hirt D, Glenn TC, Martin N, Hovda D (2007) Nonconvulsive electrographic seizures after traumatic brain injury result in a delayed, prolonged increase in intracranial pressure and metabolic crisis. *Crit Care Med* 35:2830–2836
27. Vespa PM, McArthur DL, Xu Y, Eliseo M, Etchepare M, Dinov I, Alger J, Glenn TP, Hovda D (2010) Nonconvulsive seizures after traumatic brain injury are associated with hippocampal atrophy. *Neurology* 75:792–798
28. Temkin NR (2009) Preventing and treating posttraumatic seizures: the human experience. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl 2):10–13
29. Towne AR, Waterhouse EJ, Boggs JG, Garnett LK, Brown AJ, Smith JR Jr, DeLorenzo RJ (2000) Prevalence of nonconvulsive status epilepticus in comatose patients. *Neurology* 54:340–345
30. Synek VM (1990) Revised EEG coma scale in diffuse acute head injuries in adults. *Clin Exp Neurol* 27:99–111
31. Gutling E, Gonser A, Imhof HG, Landis T (1995) EEG reactivity in the prognosis of severe head injury. *Neurology* 45:915–918
32. Steudel WI, Kruger J (1979) Using the spectral analysis of the EEG for prognosis of severe brain injuries in the first post-traumatic week. *Acta Neurochir Suppl (Wien)* 28:40–42
33. Vespa PM, Boscardin WJ, Hovda DA, McArthur DL, Nuwer MR, Martin NA, Nenov V, Glenn TC, Bergsneider M, Kelly DF, Becker DP (2002) Early and persistent impaired percent alpha variability on continuous electroencephalography monitoring as predictive of poor outcome after traumatic brain injury. *J Neurosurg* 97:84–92
34. Claassen J, Peery S, Kreiter KT, Hirsch LJ, Du EY, Connolly ES, Mayer SA (2003) Predictors and clinical impact of epilepsy after subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Neurology* 60:208–214
35. Dennis LJ, Claassen J, Hirsch LJ, Emerson RG, Connolly ES, Mayer SA (2002) Nonconvulsive status epilepticus after subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Neurosurgery* 51:1136–1143 (discussion 1144)
36. Little AS, Kerrigan JF, McDougall CG, Zabramski JM, Albuquerque FC, Nakaji P, Spetzler RF (2007) Nonconvulsive status epilepticus in patients suffering spontaneous subarachnoid hemorrhage. *J Neurosurg* 106:805–811
37. Claassen J, Hirsch LJ, Kreiter KT, Du EY, Connolly ES, Emerson RG, Mayer SA (2004) Quantitative delayed continuous EEG for detecting delayed cerebral ischemia in patients with poor-grade subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Clin Neurophysiol* 115:2699–2710
38. Labar DR, Fisch BJ, Pedley TA, Fink ME, Solomon RA (1991) Quantitative EEG monitoring for patients with subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 78:325–332
39. Rathakrishnan R, Gotman J, Dubeau F, Angle M (2011) Using continuous electroencephalography in the management of delayed cerebral ischemia following subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Neurocrit Care* 14:152–161
40. Rivierez M, Landau-Ferey J, Grob R, Grosskopf D, Philippon J (1991) Value of electroencephalogram in prediction and diagnosis of vasospasm after intracranial aneurysm rupture. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 110:17–23
41. Vespa PM, Nuwer MR, Juhasz C, Alexander M, Nenov V, Martin N, Becker DP (1997) Early detection of vasospasm after acute subarachnoid hemorrhage using continuous EEG ICU monitoring. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 103:607–615
42. Claassen J, Hirsch LJ, Frontera JA, Fernandez A, Schmidt M, Kapinos G, Wittman J, Connolly ES, Emerson RG, Mayer SA (2006) Prognostic significance of continuous EEG monitoring in patients with poor-grade subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Neurocrit Care* 4:103–112
43. Bosco E, Marton E, Feletti A, Scarpa B, Longatti P, Zanatta P, Giorgi E, Sorbara C (2011) Dynamic monitors of brain function: a new target in neurointensive care unit. *Crit Care* 15:R170

44. Claassen J, Jette N, Chum F, Green R, Schmidt M, Choi H, Jirsch J, Frontera JA, Connolly ES, Emerson RG, Mayer SA, Hirsch LJ (2007) Electrographic seizures and periodic discharges after intracerebral hemorrhage. *Neurology* 69:1356–1365
45. Mecarelli O, Pro S, Randi F, Dispenza S, Correnti A, Pulitano P, Vanacore N, Vicenzini E, Toni D (2011) EEG patterns and epileptic seizures in acute phase stroke. *Cerebrovasc Dis* 31:191–198
46. Vespa PM, O'Phelan K, Shah M, Mirabelli J, Starkman S, Kidwell C, Saver J, Nuwer MR, Frazee JG, McArthur DA, Martin NA (2003) Acute seizures after intracerebral hemorrhage: a factor in progressive midline shift and outcome. *Neurology* 60:1441–1446
47. Diedler J, Sykora M, Bast T, Poli S, Veltkamp R, Mellado P, Steiner T, Rupp A (2009) Quantitative EEG correlates of low cerebral perfusion in severe stroke. *Neurocrit Care* 11:210–216
48. Huang Z, Dong W, Yan Y, Xiao Q, Man Y (2002) Effects of intravenous mannitol on EEG recordings in stroke patients. *Clin Neurophysiol* 113:446–453
49. Wood JH, Polyzoidis KS, Epstein CM, Gibby GL, Tindall GT (1984) Quantitative EEG alterations after isovolemic-hemodilutional augmentation of cerebral perfusion in stroke patients. *Neurology* 34:764–768
50. Diedler J, Sykora M, Juttler E, Veltkamp R, Steiner T, Rupp A (2010) EEG power spectrum to predict prognosis after hemispherectomy for space-occupying middle cerebral artery infarction. *Cerebrovasc Dis* 29:162–169
51. Burghaus L, Hilker R, Dohmen C, Bosche B, Winhuisen L, Galldiks N, Szelies B, Heiss WD (2007) Early electroencephalography in acute ischemic stroke: prediction of a malignant course? *Clin Neurol Neurosurg* 109:45–49
52. Burghaus L, Liu WC, Dohmen C, Haupt WF, Fink GR, Eggers C (2012) Prognostic value of electroencephalography and evoked potentials in the early course of malignant middle cerebral artery infarction. *Neurol Sci* [Epub ahead of print]
53. Fernandez-Bouzas A, Harmony T, Fernandez T, Silva-Pereyra J, Valdes P, Bosch J, Aubert E, Casian G, Otero Ojeda G, Ricardo J, Hernandez-Ballesteros A, Santiago E (2000) Sources of abnormal EEG activity in brain infarctions. *Clin Electroencephalogr* 31:165–169
54. Cillessen JP, van Huffelen AC, Kappelle LJ, Algra A, van Gijn J (1994) Electroencephalography improves the prediction of functional outcome in the acute stage of cerebral ischemia. *Stroke* 25:1968–1972
55. Hossmann KA, Heiss WD, Bewermeyer H, Mies G (1980) EEG frequency analysis in the course of acute ischemic stroke. *Neurosurg Rev* 3:31–36
56. Sheorajpanday RV, Nagels G, Weeren AJ, De Deyn PP (2011) Quantitative EEG in ischemic stroke: correlation with infarct volume and functional status in posterior circulation and lacunar syndromes. *Clin Neurophysiol* 122:884–890
57. Sheorajpanday RV, Nagels G, Weeren AJ, De Surgeloose D, De Deyn PP (2010) Additional value of quantitative EEG in acute anterior circulation syndrome of presumed ischemic origin. *Clin Neurophysiol* 121:1719–1725
58. Sheorajpanday RV, Nagels G, Weeren AJ, van Putten MJ, De Deyn PP (2011) Quantitative EEG in ischemic stroke: correlation with functional status after 6 months. *Clin Neurophysiol* 122:874–883
59. van Putten MJ, Tavy DL (2004) Continuous quantitative EEG monitoring in hemispheric stroke patients using the brain symmetry index. *Stroke* 35:2489–2492
60. Legriel S, Bruneel F, Sediri H, Hilly J, Abbosh N, Lagarrigue MH, Troche G, Guezennec P, Pico F, Bedos JP (2009) Early EEG monitoring for detecting postanoxic status epilepticus during therapeutic hypothermia: a pilot study. *Neurocrit Care* 11(3):338–344
61. Rittenberger JC, Popescu A, Brenner RP, Guyette FX, Callaway CW (2012) Frequency and timing of nonconvulsive status epilepticus in comatose post-cardiac arrest subjects treated with hypothermia. *Neurocrit Care* 16:114–122
62. Rossetti AO, Logroscino G, Liaudet L, Ruffieux C, Ribordy V, Schaller MD, Despland PA, Oddo M (2007) Status epilepticus: an independent outcome predictor after cerebral anoxia. *Neurology* 69:255–260
63. Rundgren M, Rosen I, Friberg H (2006) Amplitude-integrated EEG (aEEG) predicts outcome after cardiac arrest and induced hypothermia. *Intensive Care Med* 32:836–842
64. Rossetti AO, Oddo M, Liaudet L, Kaplan PW (2009) Predictors of awakening from postanoxic status epilepticus after therapeutic hypothermia. *Neurology* 72:744–749
65. Alving J, Moller M, Sindrup E, Nielsen BL (1979) 'Alpha pattern coma' following cerebral anoxia. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 47:95–101
66. Bassetti C, Bomio F, Mathis J, Hess CW (1996) Early prognosis in coma after cardiac arrest: a prospective clinical, electrophysiological, and biochemical study of 60 patients. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 61:610–615
67. Berek K, Lechleitner P, Luef G, Felber S, Saltuari L, Schinnerl A, Traweger C, Dienstl F, Aichner F (1995) Early determination of neurological outcome after prehospital cardiopulmonary resuscitation. *Stroke* 26:543–549
68. Berkhoff M, Donati F, Bassetti C (2000) Postanoxic alpha (theta) coma: a reappraisal of its prognostic significance. *Clin Neurophysiol* 111:297–304
69. Binnie CD, Prior PF, Lloyd DS, Scott DF, Margerison JH (1970) Electroencephalographic prediction of fatal anoxic brain damage after resuscitation from cardiac arrest. *Br Med J* 4:265–268
70. Chen R, Bolton CF, Young B (1996) Prediction of outcome in patients with anoxic coma: a clinical and electrophysiologic study. *Crit Care Med* 24:672–678
71. Chokroverty S (1975) "Alpha-like" rhythms in electroencephalograms in coma after cardiac arrest. *Neurology* 25:655–663
72. Hockaday JM, Potts F, Epstein E, Bonazzi A, Schwab RS (1965) Electroencephalographic changes in acute cerebral anoxia from cardiac or respiratory arrest. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 18:575–586
73. Lemmi H, Hubbert CH, Faris AA (1973) The electroencephalogram after resuscitation of cardiocirculatory arrest. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 36:997–1002
74. Moller M, Holm B, Sindrup E, Nielsen BL (1978) Electroencephalographic prediction of anoxic brain damage after resuscitation from cardiac arrest in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Acta Med Scand* 203:31–37
75. Morillo LE, Tulloch JW, Gummit RJ, Snyder BD (1983) Compressed spectral array patterns following cardiopulmonary arrest. A preliminary report. *Arch Neurol* 40:287–289
76. Rothstein TL, Thomas EM, Sumi SM (1991) Predicting outcome in hypoxic-ischemic coma. A prospective clinical and electrophysiologic study. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 79:101–107

77. Sandroni C, Barelli A, Piazza O, Proietti R, Mastroia D, Boninsegna R (1995) What is the best test to predict outcome after prolonged cardiac arrest? *Eur J Emerg Med* 2:33–37
78. Scollo-Lavizzari G, Bassetti C (1987) Prognostic value of EEG in post-anoxic coma after cardiac arrest. *Eur Neurol* 26:161–170
79. Sorensen K, Thomassen A, Wernberg M (1978) Prognostic significance of alpha frequency EEG rhythm in coma after cardiac arrest. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 41:840–842
80. Synek VM (1989) Validity of a revised EEG coma scale for predicting survival in anoxic encephalopathy. *Clin Exp Neurol* 26:119–127
81. Synek VM, Shaw NA (1989) Epileptiform discharges in presence of continuous background activity in anoxic coma. *Clin Electroencephalogr* 20:141–146
82. Yamashita S, Morinaga T, Ohgo S, Sakamoto T, Kaku N, Sugimoto S, Matsukura S (1995) Prognostic value of electroencephalogram (EEG) in anoxic encephalopathy after cardiopulmonary resuscitation: relationship among anoxic period, EEG grading and outcome. *Intern Med* 34:71–76
83. Young GB, Doig G, Ragazzoni A (2005) Anoxic-ischemic encephalopathy: clinical and electrophysiological associations with outcome. *Neurocrit Care* 2:159–164
84. Zandbergen EG, Hijdra A, Koelman JH, Hart AA, Vos PE, Verbeek MM, de Haan RJ (2006) Prediction of poor outcome within the first 3 days of postanoxic coma. *Neurology* 66:62–68
85. Synek VM (1990) Value of a revised EEG coma scale for prognosis after cerebral anoxia and diffuse head injury. *Clin Electroencephalogr* 21:25–30
86. Cloostermans MC, van Meulen FB, Eertman CJ, Hom HW, van Putten MJ (2012) Continuous electroencephalography monitoring for early prediction of neurological outcome in postanoxic patients after cardiac arrest: a prospective cohort study. *Crit Care Med* 40:2867–2875
87. Cronberg T, Rundgren M, Westhall E, Englund E, Siemund R, Rosen I, Widner H, Friberg H (2011) Neuron-specific enolase correlates with other prognostic markers after cardiac arrest. *Neurology* 77:623–630
88. Daubin C, Guillotin D, Etard O, Gaillard C, du Cheyron D, Ramakers M, Bouchet B, Parienti JJ, Charbonneau P (2008) A clinical and EEG scoring system that predicts early cortical response (N20) to somatosensory evoked potentials and outcome after cardiac arrest. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord* 8:35
89. Fugate JE, Wijdicks EF, Mandrekar J, Claassen DO, Manno EM, White RD, Bell MR, Rabinstein AA (2010) Predictors of neurologic outcome in hypothermia after cardiac arrest. *Ann Neurol* 68:907–914
90. Kawai M, Thapalia U, Verma A (2011) Outcome from therapeutic hypothermia and EEG. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 28:483–488
91. Rossetti AO, Oddo M, Logroscino G, Kaplan PW (2010) Prognostication after cardiac arrest and hypothermia: a prospective study. *Ann Neurol* 67:301–307
92. Rossetti AO, Urbano LA, Delodder F, Kaplan PW, Oddo M (2010) Prognostic value of continuous EEG monitoring during therapeutic hypothermia after cardiac arrest. *Crit Care* 14:R173
93. Rundgren M, Westhall E, Cronberg T, Rosen I, Friberg H (2010) Continuous amplitude-integrated electroencephalogram predicts outcome in hypothermia-treated cardiac arrest patients. *Crit Care Med* 38:1838–1844
94. Tiainen M, Poutiainen E, Kovala T, Takkunen O, Happola O, Roine RO (2007) Cognitive and neurophysiological outcome of cardiac arrest survivors treated with therapeutic hypothermia. *Stroke* 38:2303–2308
95. Wennervirta JE, Ermes MJ, Tiainen SM, Salmi TK, Hynninen MS, Sarkela MO, Hynninen MJ, Stenman UH, Viertio-Oja HE, Saastamoinen KP, Pettila VY, Vakkuri AP (2009) Hypothermia-treated cardiac arrest patients with good neurological outcome differ early in quantitative variables of EEG suppression and epileptiform activity. *Crit Care Med* 37:2427–2435
96. Flores-Cordero JM, Amaya-Villar R, Rincon-Ferrari MD, Leal-Noval SR, Garnacho-Montero J, Llanos-Rodriguez AC, Murillo-Cabezas F (2003) Acute community-acquired bacterial meningitis in adults admitted to the intensive care unit: clinical manifestations, management and prognostic factors. *Intensive Care Med* 29:1967–1973
97. Zoons E, Weisfelt M, de Gans J, Spanjaard L, Koelman JH, Reitsma JB, van de Beek D (2008) Seizures in adults with bacterial meningitis. *Neurology* 70:2109–2115
98. Carrera E, Claassen J, Oddo M, Emerson RG, Mayer SA, Hirsch LJ (2008) Continuous electroencephalographic monitoring in critically ill patients with central nervous system infections. *Arch Neurol* 65:1612–1618
99. Kramer AH, Jette N, Pillay N, Federico P, Zygun DA (2012) Epileptiform activity in neurocritical care patients. *Can J Neurol Sci* 39:328–337
100. Schmitt SE, Pargeon K, Frechette ES, Hirsch LJ, Dalmau J, Friedman D (2012) Extreme delta brush: a unique EEG pattern in adults with anti-NMDA receptor encephalitis. *Neurology* 79:1094–1100
101. Scozzafava J, Hussain MS, Brindley PG, Jacka MJ, Gross DW (2010) The role of the standard 20 min EEG recording in the comatose patient. *J Clin Neurosci* 17:64–68
102. Firosh Khan S, Ashalatha R, Thomas SV, Sarma PS (2005) Emergent EEG is helpful in neurology critical care practice. *Clin Neurophysiol* 116:2454–2459
103. Young GB, Doig GS (2005) Continuous EEG monitoring in comatose intensive care patients: epileptiform activity in etiologically distinct groups. *Neurocrit Care* 2:5–10
104. Young GB, Bolton CF, Archibald YM, Austin TW, Wells GA (1992) The electroencephalogram in sepsis-associated encephalopathy. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 9:145–152
105. Oddo M, Carrera E, Claassen J, Mayer SA, Hirsch LJ (2009) Continuous electroencephalography in the medical intensive care unit. *Crit Care Med* 37:2051–2056
106. Bergen DC, Ristanovic R, Gorelick PB, Kathpalia S (1994) Seizures and renal failures. *Int J Artif Organs* 17:247–251
107. Delanty N, Vaughan CJ, French JA (1998) Medical causes of seizures. *Lancet* 352:383–390
108. Young GB, Kreeft JH, McLachlan RS, Demelo J (1999) EEG and clinical associations with mortality in comatose patients in a general intensive care unit. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 16:354–360
109. Litt B, Wityk RJ, Hertz SH, Mullen PD, Weiss H, Ryan DD, Henry TR (1998) Nonconvulsive status epilepticus in the critically ill elderly. *Epilepsia* 39:1194–1202

- 
110. Sutter R, Fuhr P, Grize L, Marsch S, Ruegg S (2011) Continuous video-EEG monitoring increases detection rate of nonconvulsive status epilepticus in the ICU. *Epilepsia* 52:453–457
  111. Varelas PN, Hacin-Bey L, Hether T, Terranova B, Spanaki MV (2004) Emergent electroencephalogram in the intensive care unit: indications and diagnostic yield. *Clin EEG Neurosci* 35:173–180
  112. Rossetti AO, Carrera E, Oddo M (2012) Early EEG correlates of neuronal injury after brain anoxia. *Neurology* 78:796–802
  113. Karakis I, Montouris GD, Otis JA, Douglass LM, Jonas R, Velez-Ruiz N, Wilford K, Espinosa PS (2010) A quick and reliable EEG montage for the detection of seizures in the critical care setting. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 27:100–105
  114. Young GB, Sharpe MD, Savard M, Al Thenayan E, Norton L, Davies-Schinkel C (2009) Seizure detection with a commercially available bedside EEG monitor and the subhairline montage. *Neurocrit Care* 11:411–416
  115. Nitzschke R, Muller J, Engelhardt R, Schmidt GN (2011) Single-channel amplitude integrated EEG recording for the identification of epileptic seizures by nonexpert physicians in the adult acute care setting. *J Clin Monit Comput* 25:329–337