Applied Case Studies in Machine Learning and Deep Learning in Key Areas II

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Contacts

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Who am 1?













Laurea in Physics, Genova 2002

PhD in Electronics (GA Algorithms) University of York, UK 2006

PostDocs: Universidade de Coimbra (PT) 2005

IT'IS Foundation, Zürich 2005

DBSSE BEL ETH Zürich / Basel 2006-2008

Since 2009 in SUPSI as Lecturer and Researcher, leading several research projects in the field of Biomedical Signal Processing, Application of AI in Healthcare





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Content of the Course

- Introduction to Biosignals
- Biosignals Pre-processing
- ECG feature based analysis
- EEG feature based analysis
- EEG deep learning based analysis
- Clinical data challenges
- Final Project



Competences you will acquire

- Execute Basic Signal Processing on BioMedical Signals
- Extract Features from BioMedical Signals
- Work with ML and DL models
- Understand the challenges of working with Clinical Data

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The Team

- 5 PhD Students, 2 Post-Docs, 2 Assistants (ex DSAI Bachelor)
- Our Focus: Brain, Heart and Body



Evaluation

- Minimum 2 Minitest (30%)
- Final Project in Group (last two weeks, supervised)
- Exam: Presentation of the Final Project(70%) (unsupervised :-))

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Let's start!



Today's agenda

- Biomedical Signals Categories
- Action Potential
- Electroneurogram
- Electro-oculogram
- Electroencephalogram (EEG)
- Electrocardiogram (ECG)
- Electromyogram
- HRV via PPG



Classification of Biomedical Signal

Nature:

- Electric (potential or current) / Magnetic / Chemical
- Mechanical / Acoustic / Optical / Thermal
- Biochemical (hormones, neurotransmitters, glucose level, blood oxygen level ...)

System of Origin:

 Nervous / Cardiovascular / Auditory/ Vision / Respiratory / Musculoskeletal / Gastrointestinal...



Biomedical Signal and Math

Deterministic signals are signals which can be determined and described exactly using mathematics or graphics. Periodic signals belong to this group and are expressed by s(t)= s(t+nT) n is integer and T is period. Blood pressure could be characterized as a complex periodic signal.

Stochastic signals can be expressed only in terms of probabilities. Stationary stochastic processes will not change in time. The expectations of such a process is time independent. Most of them are non stationary. Consequently, statistical properties and probabilities must be used to describe stochastic signals.

In practice, biological signals often have both deterministic and stochastic components.

Non-stationary process is a signal whose statistical properties vary with time.

! It may be difficult to process a non-stationary process.



Key Differences

	Deterministic Biomedical Signals	Stochastic Biomedical Signals
Predictability	Follows a fixed, predictable pattern	Contains randomness and variability
Mathematical Model	Can be modeled by exact equations	Best analyzed using statistical properties
Examples	ECG of a healthy person, controlled breathing signals	EEG, HRV, blood pressure fluctuations
Analysis Methods	Time-domain, frequency-domain analysis	Probability, machine learning, statistical methods



Biomedical Signals

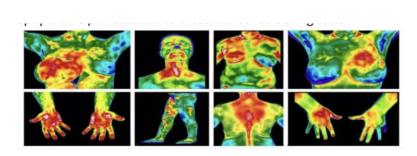
Electrical: EEG, ECG, EMG, EOG

Mechanical: Blood Pressure, Motion (Accelerometer/Video), Lung Volume and

Capacity (Spirometry), Heart Sound (Phocardiogram), Blood Volume Changes (PPG)

Chemical: SpO2 (Capillary Oxigen Saturation)

Thermal: Heat Patterns, Blood Flow



Action Potential

An action potential occurs when the membrane potential of a specific cell location rapidly rises and falls. This depolarization then causes adjacent locations to similarly depolarize. Excitable cells include neurons, muscle cells. pancreas beta cells.

Neuronal action potentials are short (1–2 ms) for fast signaling.

Skeletal muscle action potentials are slightly longer (2-5 ms).

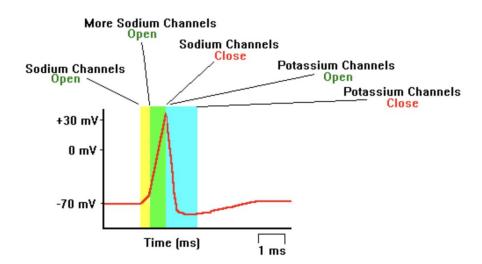
Cardiac muscle action potentials are significantly longer (200–400 ms) to allow proper heart function.

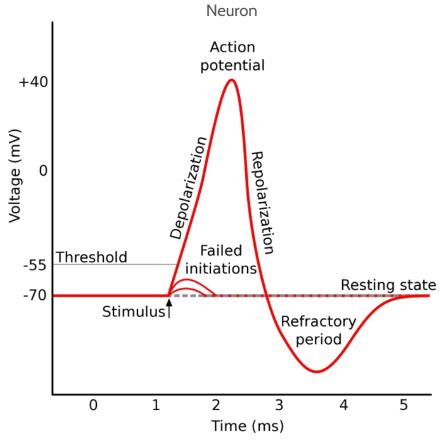
Action Potential Video

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v= W2hHt PXe5o



Action Potential





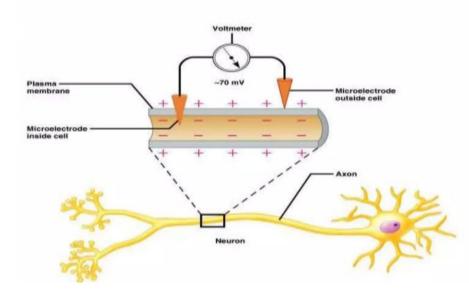


How to measure it?

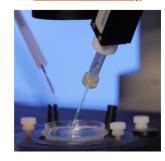
Direct Measurements



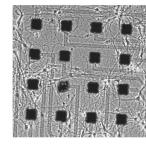
https://www.mxwbio.com/resources/mea/ https://ephys.institutducerveau-icm.org/services/



In vitro Patch clamp

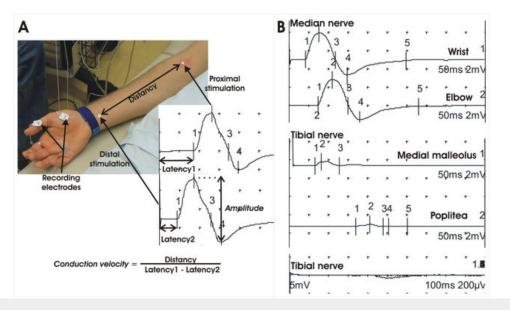


Multielectrode array



Electroneurography ENG

Source:https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274198330_Neurological_Sequelae_of_Sepsis_II_Neuromuscular_Weakness/figures?lo=1



The velocity of action potential conduction in nerve fibers varies depending on factors such as fiber diameter, myelination, and temperature. It typically ranges from 0.5 m/s to 120 m/s. Neural diseases may cause a decrease in conduction velocity.

Figure

Caption

Fig. (1). Electroneurography. A) Principle: The nerve is electrically stimulated and a compound motor action potential (CMAP) is recorded from the muscle. Nerve conduction velocity can be calculated from the latencies and the distance between two stimulation sites, its reduction point to demyelinisation. Amplitudes of CMAPs can be measured and its reduction point to axonal loss. B) Typical findings of CIP are amplitude reductions of CMAPs or missing CMAPs as sign of axonal neuropathy.

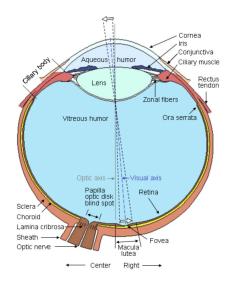
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Electric Signals Originating in the

In the eye there is a steady electric potential field. It can be described as a fixed dipole with positive pole at the cornea and negative pole at the retina. The magnitude of this corneoretinal potential is in the range 0.4-1.0 mV.



How to measure it?



Electro-oculogram

This potential difference and the rotation of the eye are the basis for a signal measured at a pair of periorbital surface electrodes.

The signal is known as the electro-oculogram, (EOG). It is useful in the study of eye movement.

A concentration of negatively charged nerves is in the retina on the back of the eye.

As the eye rotates, the field vector rotates correspondingly.

Left gaze -> negative-trending change in the recorded potential difference

Right gaze -> positive - trending change in the recorded potential difference

The EOG is used to assess the function of the pigment epithelium.



Electro-oculogram

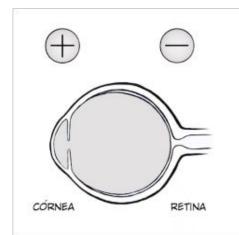
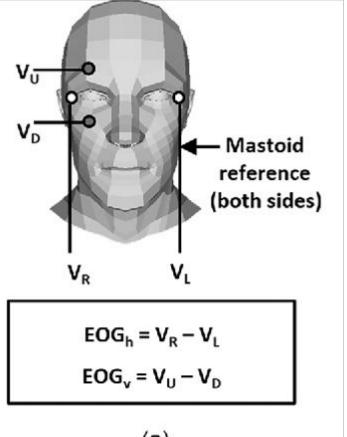


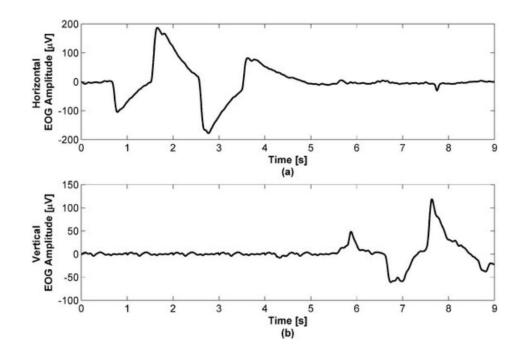
Figure 1. EOGs record eye movements due to the potential difference between the cornea and the retina.



Source: Wikipedia

(a)

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Figure

Caption

Fig. 3. Typical EOG signals for eye movements (a) Horizontal EOG: look left, right then left again (b) Vertical EOG: look up, down and then up again

This figure was uploaded by Natasha Steinhausen

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AI for Healthcare and EOG?



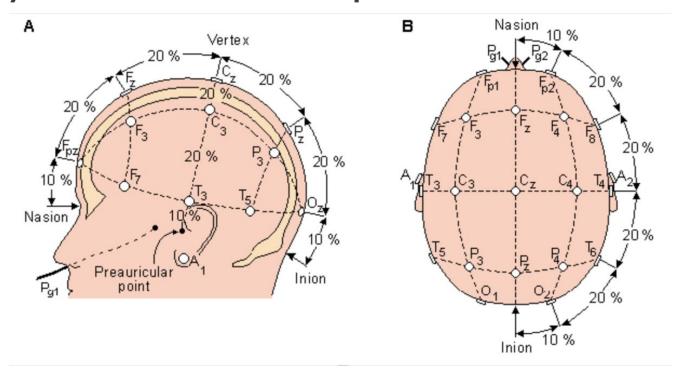
Electric Signals Originating in Brain the EEG

It is a particular type of electroneurogram. It is an electrical recording of the activity of the brain taken from the scalp. An EEG can be used to diagnose seizures, sleep disorders, for monitoring of level of anesthesia during surgery etc.

German physiologist and psychiatrist Hans Berger (1873–1941) recorded the first human EEG in 1924. How to measure it?



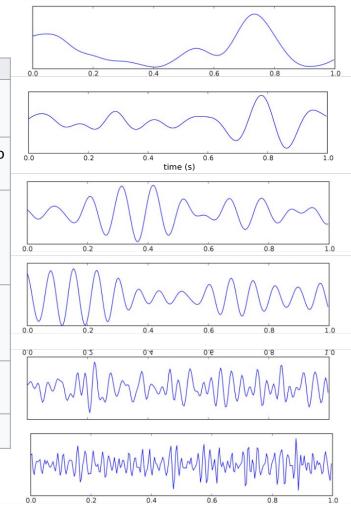
10-20 system - EEG electrodes placement



pre-frontal(Fp), frontal (F), temporal (T), parietal (P), occipital (O), and central (C). A "Z" (zero) refers to an electrode placed on the midline sagittal plane of the skull, (FpZ, Fz, Cz, Oz) and is present mostly for reference/measurement points

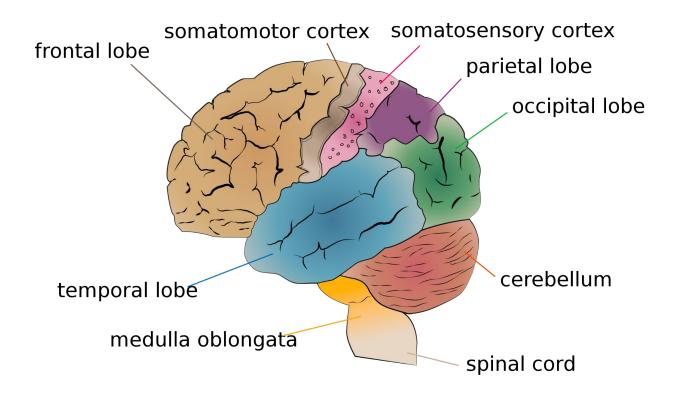
EEG Frequency Bands

Band Frequency (Hz) Location Delta			
Theta 4–7 Found in locations not related to task at hand posterior regions of head, both sides, higher in amplitude on dominant side. Central sites (c3-c4) at rest both sides, symmetrical distribution, most evident frontally; low-amplitude waves Somatosensory cortex	Band	Frequency (Hz)	Location
Theta 4–7 task at hand posterior regions of head, both sides, higher in amplitude on dominant side. Central sites (c3-c4) at rest Beta 13–30 Beta 13–30 Gamma both sides, symmetrical distribution, most evident frontally; low-amplitude waves Somatosensory cortex	<u>Delta</u>	< 4	
Alpha 8–12 sides, higher in amplitude on dominant side. Central sites (c3-c4) at rest both sides, symmetrical distribution, most evident frontally; low-amplitude waves Somatosensory cortex	<u>Theta</u>	4–7	
Beta 13–30 distribution, most evident frontally; low-amplitude waves Somatosensory cortex	<u>Alpha</u>	8–12	sides, higher in amplitude on dominant side. Central sites
	<u>Beta</u>	13–30	distribution, most evident
Mu 8–12 Sensorimotor cortex	<u>Gamma</u>	> 32	Somatosensory cortex
	<u>Mu</u>	8–12	Sensorimotor cortex



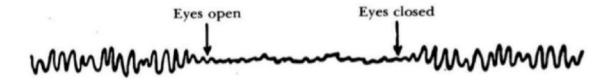
1.0

The Brain





The Alpha Block



- When the awake subject's attention is directed to some specific type of mental activity, the alpha waves are replaced by asynchronous waves of higher frequency but lower amplitudes.
- Above figure demonstrates the effect on the alpha waves of simple opening the
 eyes in bright light and then closing them again.
- The visual sensation causes immediate cessation of the alpha waves; these are replaced by low-voltage, asynchronous waves.

AI for Healthcare and EEG?



Electric Signals Originating in Heart the ECG

Willem Einthoven was a Dutch medical doctor and physiologist. He invented the first practical electrocardiograph (ECG or EKG) in 1895 and received the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1924 for it ("for the discovery of the mechanism of the electrocardiogram").

Electro-cardiogram (ECG)

Pulmonary and Systemic Circulation

Blood is gathered from all parts of the body into the **right atrium**, from whence it is then transferred to the **right ventricle**. The right ventricle contracts to force blood out to the **lungs** where carbon dioxide is removed from it and fresh oxygen is absorbed. From the lungs the reoxygenated blood travels back to the heart and into the **left atrium**. This loop is called the pulmonary circulation. Blood is then transferred to the **left ventricle**, which contracts with strength to force the blood out under pressure to all limbs and organs in the body. Once oxygen and nutrients have been distributed via the blood to nourish all of the cells around the body and waste products have been collected and delivered for excretion, the blood returns to the right atrium again.

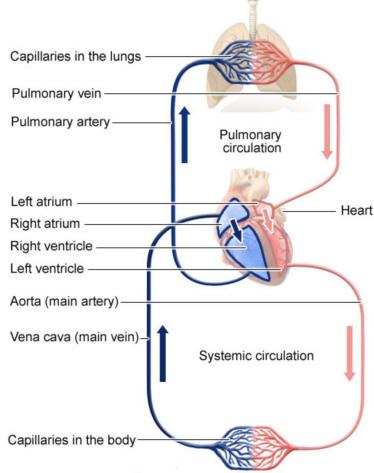


Videos

Pulmonary and Systemic Circulation

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NDk 8fmll9V8&t=5s (2min)

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jBt5j ZSWhMI&t=3s (2min)





QRS Complex R ST Segment PR Segment Р PR Interval QT Interval

P QRS T

P waves represent atrial depolarisation.

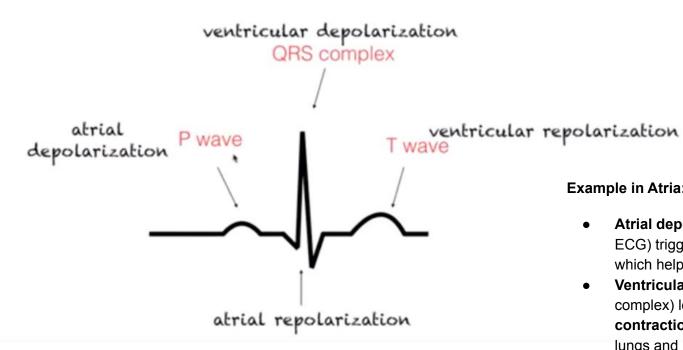
The PR interval represents the time taken for electrical activity to move between the atria and the ventricles. The QRS complex represents depolarisation of the ventricles.

The ST segment starts at the end of the S wave and ends at the beginning of the T wave. It is the time between depolarisation and repolarisation of the ventricles (i.e. ventricular contraction).

The **T** wave represents ventricular repolarisation. It appears as a small wave after the QRS complex. The **RR** interval begins at the peak of one **R** wave and ends at the peak of the next **R** wave.

It represents the time between two QRS complexes. The QT interval begins at the start of the QRS complex and finishes at the end of the T wave. It represents the time taken for the ventricles to depolarise and then repolarise.

Amplitude 1-5 mV



Example in Atria:

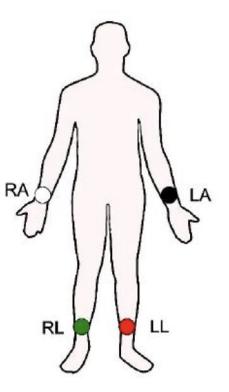
- **Atrial depolarization** (P wave on ECG) triggers atrial contraction, which helps fill the ventricles.
- Ventricular depolarization (QRS complex) leads to ventricular contraction, pumping blood to the lungs and body.

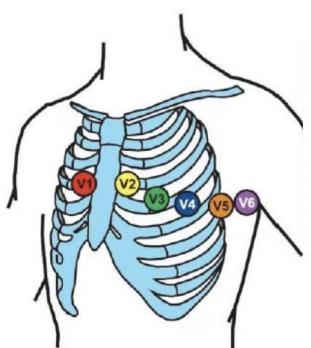
So, depolarization = electrical trigger, contraction = mechanical response.

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How to measure it?

ECG Electrodes Positioning





RA - right forearm or wrist

LA - left forearm or wrist

LL - left lower leg, proximal to ankle

RL - right lower leg, proximal to ankle

V1 – 4-th intercostal space, right sternal edge

V2 – 4-th intercostal space, left sternal edge

V3 - midway between V2 and V4

V4 – 5-th intercostal space, mid-clavicular line

V5 - anterior axillary line in straight line with V4

V6 - mid-axillary line in straight line with V4 and V5

SUPSI

12 ECG Leads

An **ECG lead** is a **graphical representation** of the **heart's electrical activity** which is calculated by analysing data from **several ECG electrodes**.

Chest leads

V1: septal view of the heart V2: septal view of the heart

V3: anterior view of the heart

V4: anterior view of the heart

V5: lateral view of the heart

V6: lateral view of the heart

Other leads

Lead I: lateral view (calculated by analysing activity between the RA and LA electrodes)

Lead II: inferior view (calculated by analysing activity between the RA and LL electrodes)

Lead III: inferior view (calculated by analysing activity between the LA and LL electrodes)

aVR: lateral view (calculated by analysing activity between LA+LL -> RA)

aVL: lateral view (calculated by analysing activity between RA+LL -> LA)

aVF: inferior view (calculated by analysing activity between RA+LA -> LL)



Question?

Why are there 12 leads but only 10 electrodes?



ECG Paper

ECG paper commonly moves at 25 mm/second; thus, each small box (1 mm) is equivalent to 0.04 seconds (40 milliseconds), and each large box (5 mm) is equivalent to 0.2 seconds (200 milliseconds). At the beginning of an ECG, make note of the standardization square, normally 10 mm high by 5 mm wide. This will alert you to the correct paper speed and standard amplification of P, QRS, and T-wave complexes.

Normal ECG values for waves and intervals are as follows:

RR interval: 0.6-1.2 seconds

P wave: 80 milliseconds

PR interval: 120-200 milliseconds PR segment: 50-120 milliseconds QRS complex: 80-100 milliseconds

ST segment: 80-120 milliseconds

T wave: 160 milliseconds

QT interval: 420 milliseconds or less if heart rate is 60 beats per minute (bpm



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AI for Healthcare and ECG?



Electric Signals in the Muscles

The muscles response to the electrical signal of the brain

How to measure it?

EMG Measurements



https://biologydictionary.net/motor-neuron/



https://www.healthline.com/health/electromyography#results

Electromyography (EMG) & Nerve conduction studies (NCS) Mayfield https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4kklvP1jNLA&t=455s

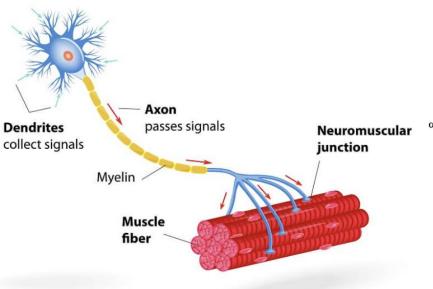
EMG - Electromyography

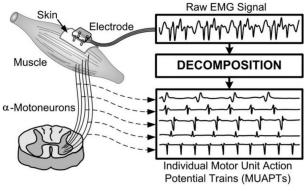
It measures muscle response or electrical activity in response to a nerve's stimulation of the muscle. It is a diagnostic procedure to assess the health of muscles and the nerve cells that control them (motor neurons).

In Computer Science, EMG is also used as middleware in gesture recognition towards allowing the input of physical action to a computer as a form of human-computer interaction.

Typical MUAP duration is between 5 and 15 ms. Amplitude Microvolts. It depends primarily on the number of muscle fibers within the motor unit and the dispersion of their depolarizations over time.

Motor Neuron





Figure

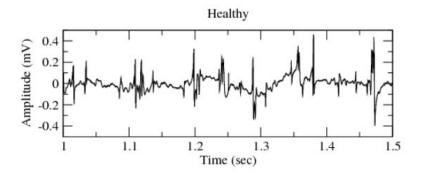
Caption

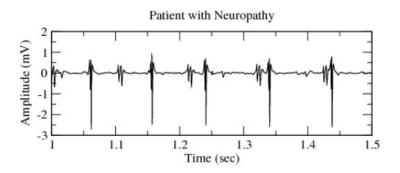
FIG. 1. Pictorial outline of the decomposition of the surface EMG signal into its constituent motor unit action potentials. (Adapted from De Luca et al. 1982a.)

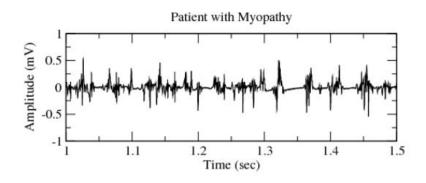
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EMG Signals







Swaroop, R., et al. "Classification of myopathy and neuropathy EMG signals using neural network." 2017 International Conference on Circuit, Power and Computing Technologies (ICCPCT). IEEE, 2017.

Al for Healthcare & EMG



Body Composition Impedance/Resist ance

Our body response to the flow of an electrical current

How to measure it?

Bioimpedance

Bioelectrical impedance analysis (BIA) is a method for estimating body composition, in particular body fat and muscle mass, where a weak electric current flows through the body and the voltage is measured in order to calculate impedance (resistance and reactance) of the body. Most body water is stored in muscle, more muscle leads to lower impedance. Since the advent of the first commercially available devices in the mid-1980s the method has become popular owing to its ease of use and portability of the equipment. It is familiar in the consumer market as a simple instrument for estimating body fat and total body water (TBW),





Al for Healthcare & Bioimpedance

https://www.youtube.com/w

atch?v=jMVq0lk-IQQ



Heart Rate Variability

Is the physiological phenomenon of variation in the time interval between heartbeats. It is measured by the variation in the beat-to-beat interval.

Low HRV

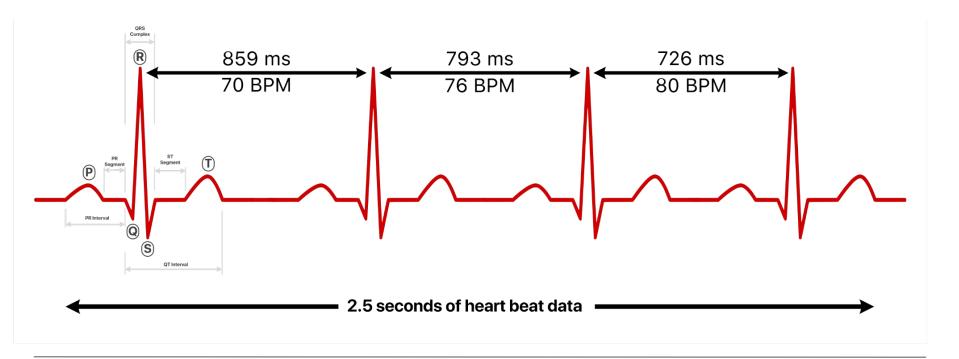
"Fight or Flight"
Easily exhausted
Low Adaptability
Decreased Cognition

High HRV

"Rest & Digest"
Improved Performance
High Adaptability



Heart Rate Variability





HRV can be a measure of our autonomic nervous system and the balance between our parasympathetic and sympathetic branches. The **parasympathetic branch** is our "Rest & Digest" and correlates with a **high HRV**. The **sympathetic branch** is our "Fight or Flight" and correlates with a **low HRV**.

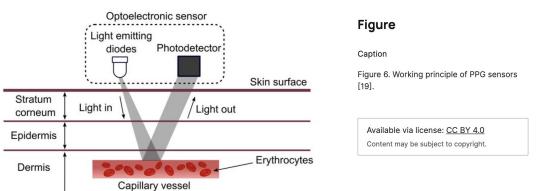
Heart Rate Variability is an indicator of the state of our health & fitness, recovery, and readiness. This makes it a valuable tool to monitor when exercising. A high HRV indicates a day to attempt that PR. A low HRV should lead to an active recovery day. Research correlates HRV to disease risk and progression.

How to measure it?



Photoplethysmography (PPG)





The photoplethysmographic wave describes changes in the attenuation of light energy in its pathway when transmitted or reflected in tissues and bloodstream

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TABLE 52.1 Biomedical Signals

Classification	Acquisition	Frequency Range	Dynamic Range	Comments
Bioelectric				
Action potential	Microelectrodes	100 Hz–2 kHz	$10~\mu\text{V}{-}100~\text{mV}$	Invasive measurement of cell membrane potential
Electroneurogram (ENG)	Needle electrode	100 Hz-1 kHz	5 μV-10 mV	Potential of a nerve bundle
Electroretinogram (ERG)	Microelectrode	0.2-200 Hz	$0.5~\mu V - 1~mV$	Evoked flash potential
Electro-oculogram (EOG) Electroencephalogram (EEG)	Surface electrodes	dc–100 Hz	10 μV–5 mV	Steady-corneal-retinal potential
Surface	Surface electrodes	0.5–100 Hz	2–100 μV	Multichannel (6–32) scalp potential
Delta range		0.5–4 Hz		Young children, deep sleep and pathologies
Theta range		4–8 Hz		Temporal and central areas during alert states
Alpha range		8-13 Hz		Awake, relaxed, closed eyes
Beta range		13-22 Hz		1000 100 1000 1000 1000 100 100 100 100
Sleep spindles		6-15 Hz	$50-100 \mu V$	Bursts of about 0.2 to 0.6 s
K-complexes		12–14 Hz	100–200 μV	Bursts during moderate and deep sleep
Evoked potentials (EP)	Surface electrodes		$0.120~\mu\text{V}$	Response of brain potential to stimulus
Visual (VEP)		1–300 Hz	$120~\mu\text{V}$	Occipital lobe recordings, 200-ms duration
Somatosensory (SEP)		2 Hz-3 kHz		Sensory cortex
Auditory (AEP)		100 Hz-3 kHz	$0.5-10~\mu V$	Vertex recordings
Electrocorticogram	Needle electrodes	100 Hz–5 kHz		Recordings from exposed surface of brain
Electromyography (EMG)				
Single-fiber (SFEMG)	Needle electrode	500 Hz–10 kHz	1–10 μV	Action potentials from single muscle fiber
Motor unit action potential (MUAP)	Needle electrode	5 Hz–10 kHz	$100~\mu V$ – $2~mV$	
Surface EMG (SEMG)	Surface electrodes			
Skeletal muscle		2-500 Hz	$50 \mu V - 5 mV$	
Smooth muscle		0.01-1 Hz		
Electrocardiogram (ECG)	Surface electrodes	0.05-100 Hz	1-10 mV	
High-Frequency ECG	Surface electrodes	100 Hz–1 kHz	100 μV–2 mV	Notchs and slus waveforms superimposed on the ECG.

Summary

Rangayyan, Rangaraj M. *Biomedical signal analysis*. John Wiley & Sons, 2015.



Questions to me?

Question for you:

Why this lecture is important to us as data scientist?

Your woodlap poll will be displayed here



Install the **Chrome** or **Firefox extension**



Make sure you are in **presentation mode**



How to participate?











