



DIPARTIMENTO di ELETTRONICA, INFORMAZIONE e  
BIOINGEGNERIA

 POLITECNICO DI MILANO



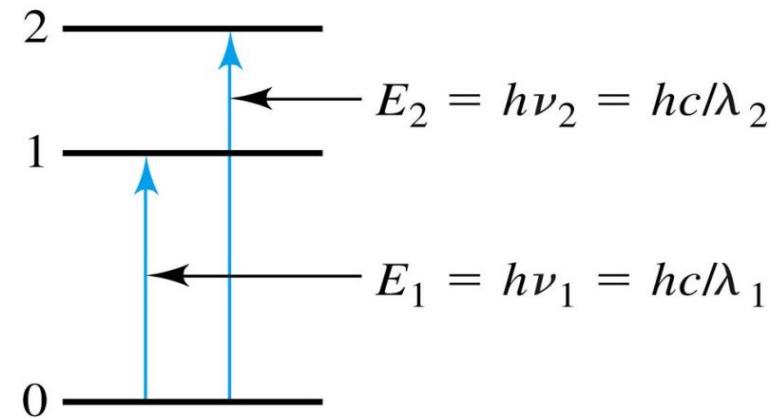
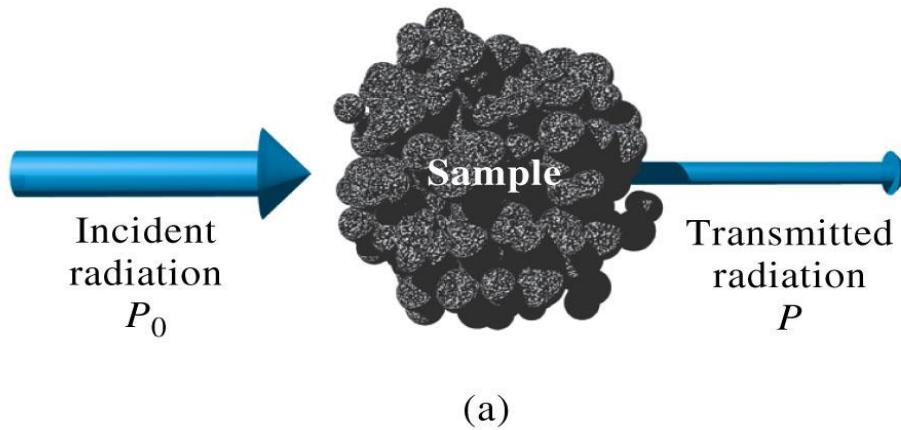
## Lecture 13

### Optical measurements: (Pulse-) Oximetry

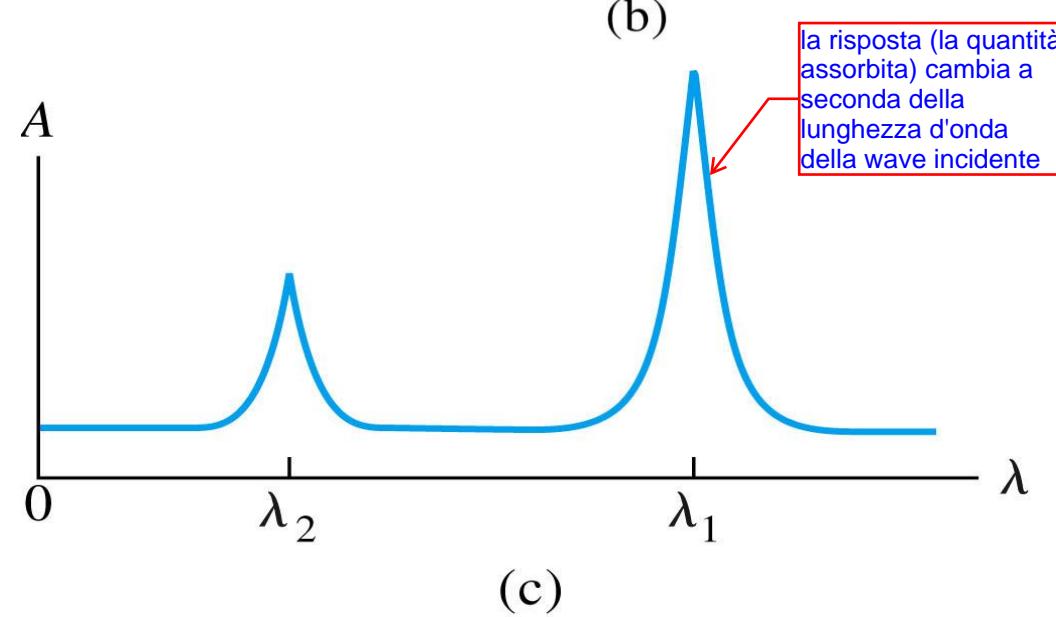
$P_0(\lambda) \rightarrow [ ] \rightarrow P(\lambda)$

# EM waves-matter interaction : ABSORPTION

Radiation passes through a sample, and part of the power is absorbed



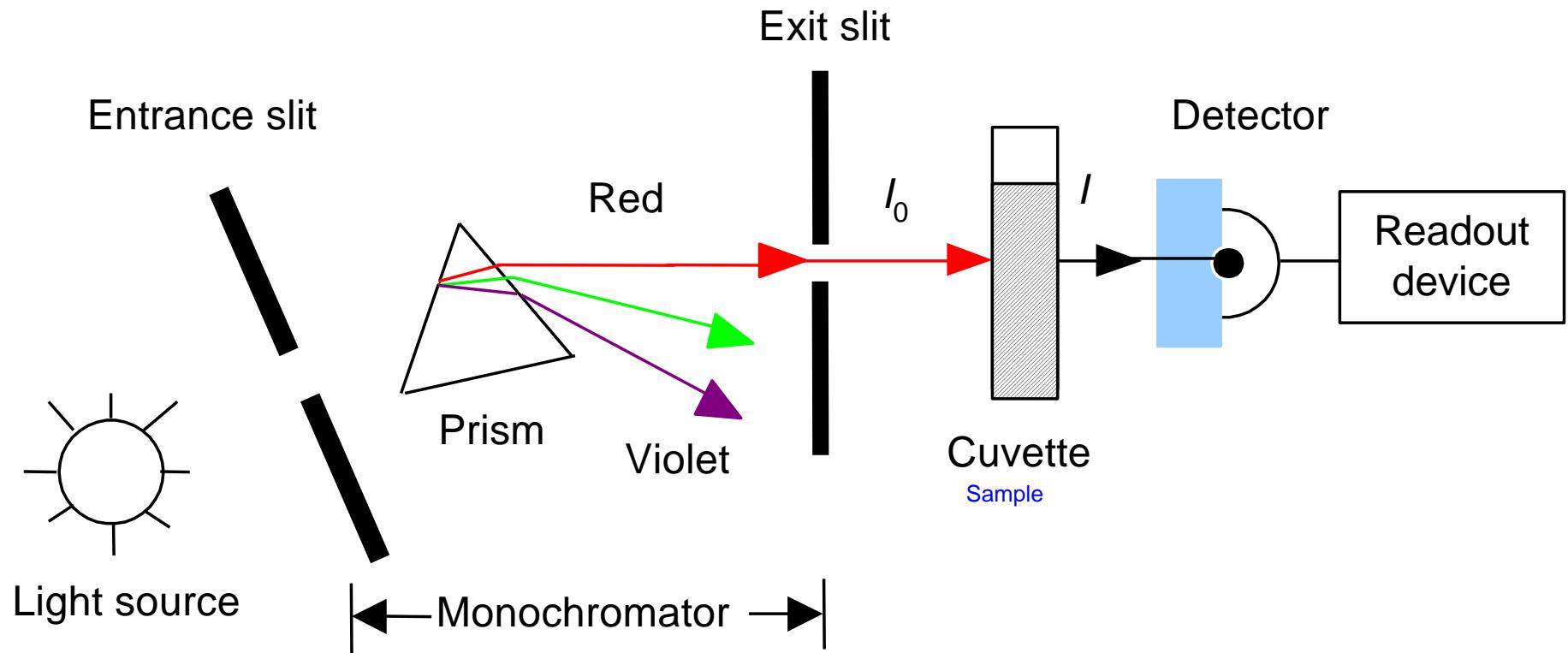
The interaction between the electromagnetic wave and the sample can be very useful to obtain very specific information about the composition of the sample



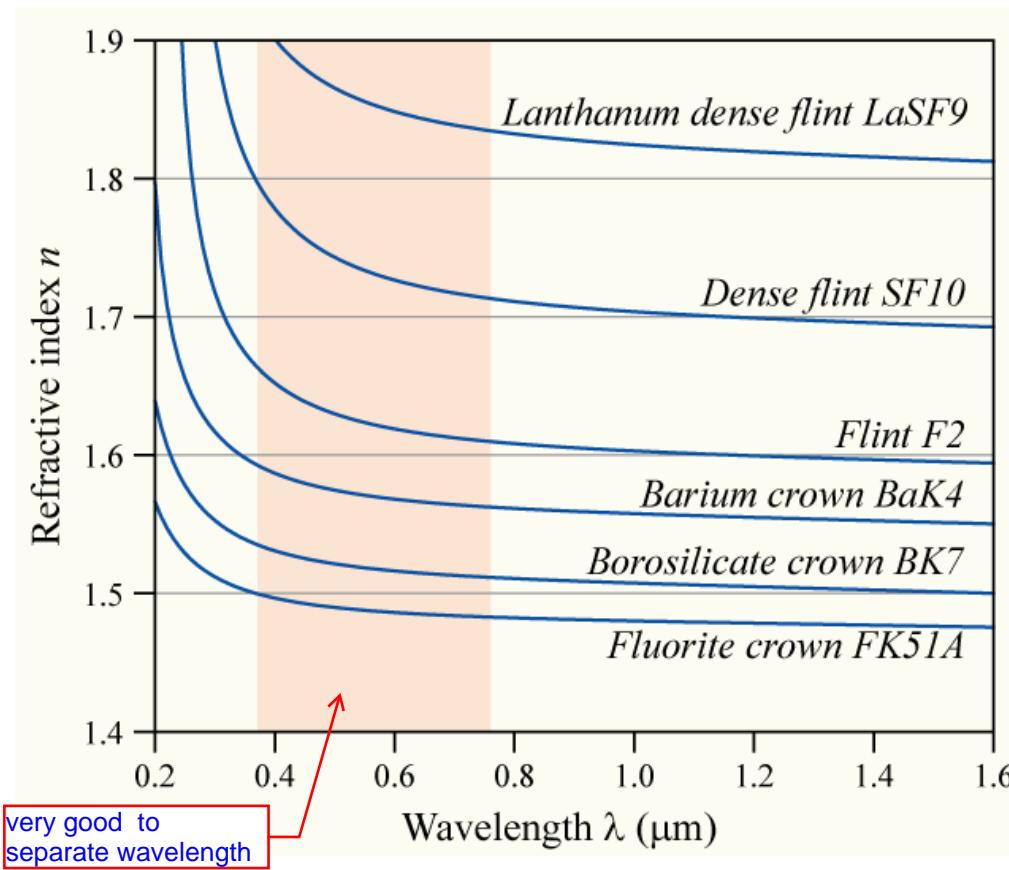
# Absorption Spectrometry

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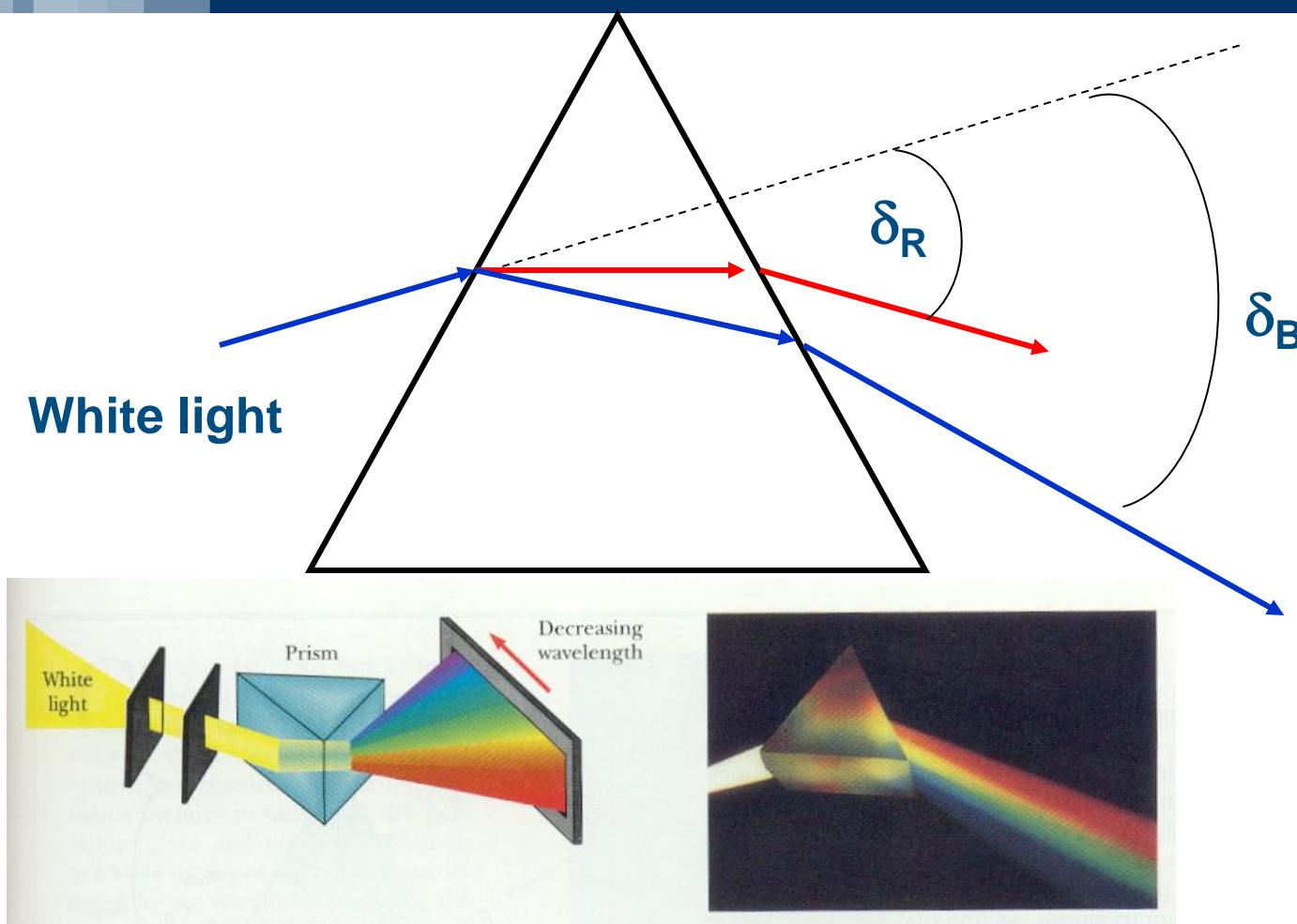
We consider only one wavelength using the monochromator from a wide source, and then we compare the "starting"  $I_0$  and transmitted  $I$  intensity to check the absorption



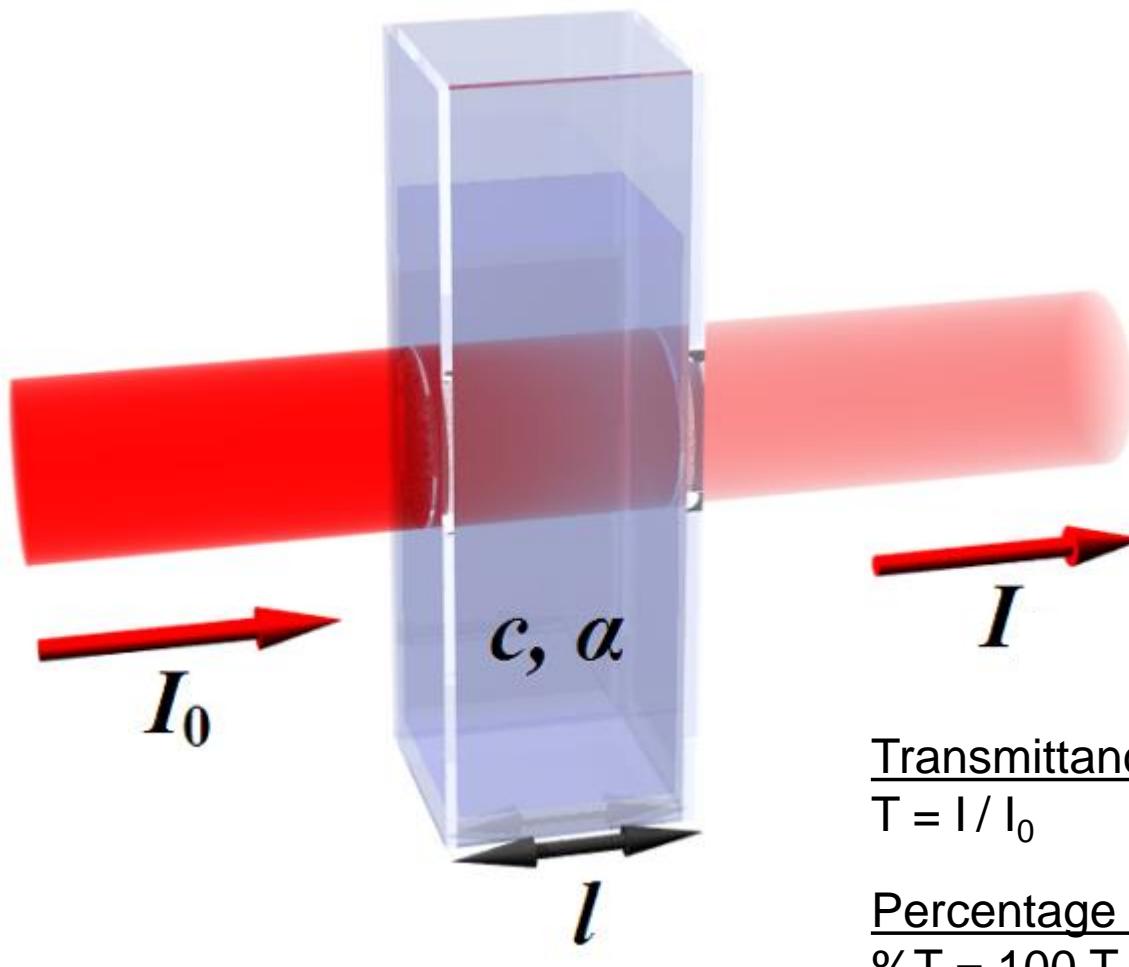
In a dispersive prism, material dispersion (a wavelength-dependent refractive index) causes different colors to refract at different angles, splitting white light into a rainbow.



variation of refractive index vs.  
vacuum wavelength for  
various glasses



**FIGURE 35.17** (a) Dispersion of white light by a prism. Because  $n$  varies with wavelength, the prism disperses the white light into its various spectral components. (b) Different colors are refracted at different angles because the index of refraction of the glass depends on wavelength. Violet light deviates the most; red light deviates the least. (Photograph courtesy of Bausch and Lomb)



Transmittance

$$T = I / I_0$$

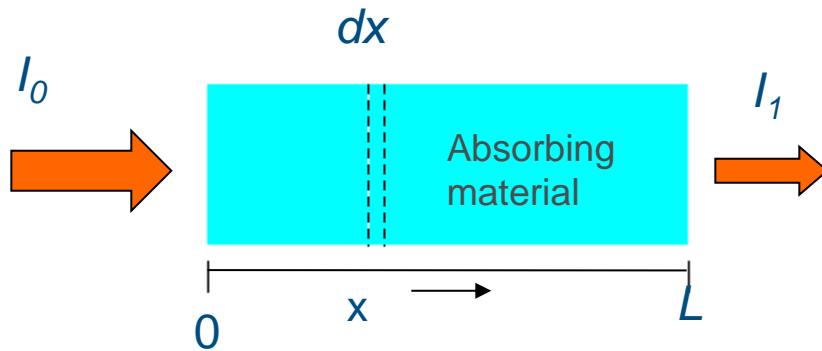
(Very low when the sample is very dark)

Percentage Transmittance

$$\%T = 100 T$$

# Lambert-Beer's law

Equal thicknesses of a given material absorb a constant fraction of light energy



variazione di intensità  
lungo lo spazio ottico  $x$

$$\frac{dI}{dx} = -\alpha I$$

*Integrating by  $x$  from 0 to  $L$*

$$\frac{dI}{I} = -\alpha dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{I} dI = \int -\alpha dx$$

$$\ln(I) - \ln(I_0) = -\alpha L$$

$$\ln(I) = \ln(I_0) - \alpha L$$

$$I = I_0 \cdot e^{-\alpha L}$$

$$I = I_0 \cdot e^{-hCL}$$

$L$ : optical path of the sample (length) [cm]

$\alpha$ : absorption coefficient [ $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ] =  $h \cdot C$

$h$ : molar extinction coefficient [ $\text{L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ]

$C$ : concentration of the substance in the sample [ $\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ]

# Transmittance, absorbance nd optical density

## Transmittance

$$T = I / I_0 = e^{-hLC}$$

## Percentage transmittance

$$\%T = 100 T = 100 \cdot e^{-hLC}$$

## Absorbance

$$A = \ln (I_0 / I) = \ln (1 / T) = hLC$$

## Optical Density

Optical density (OD) is defined as absorbance with L=1 cm

High OD → high A

$$OD = \ln (I_0 / I_t) = hC$$

( $I_0$  = intensity of incident light,  $I_t$  = intensity of transmitted light)

# Transmittance and absorption expressed in base 10 (optical power)

veloce

$$P = P_0 \cdot 10^{-hLC}$$

stessa cosa, invece che intensità la potenza

$P_0$ = incident radiant optical power

$P$ = output power

L: optical path of the sample (length) [cm]

$\alpha$ : absorption coefficient [ $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ]

C: concentration of the substance in the solution [ $\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ]

$$\%T = 100 P/P_0 = (100) \cdot 10^{-hLC}$$

# Transmittance and absorption expressed in base 10 (optical power)

## Transmittance

$$T = P/P_0 = 10^{-hLC}$$

## Percentage Transmittance

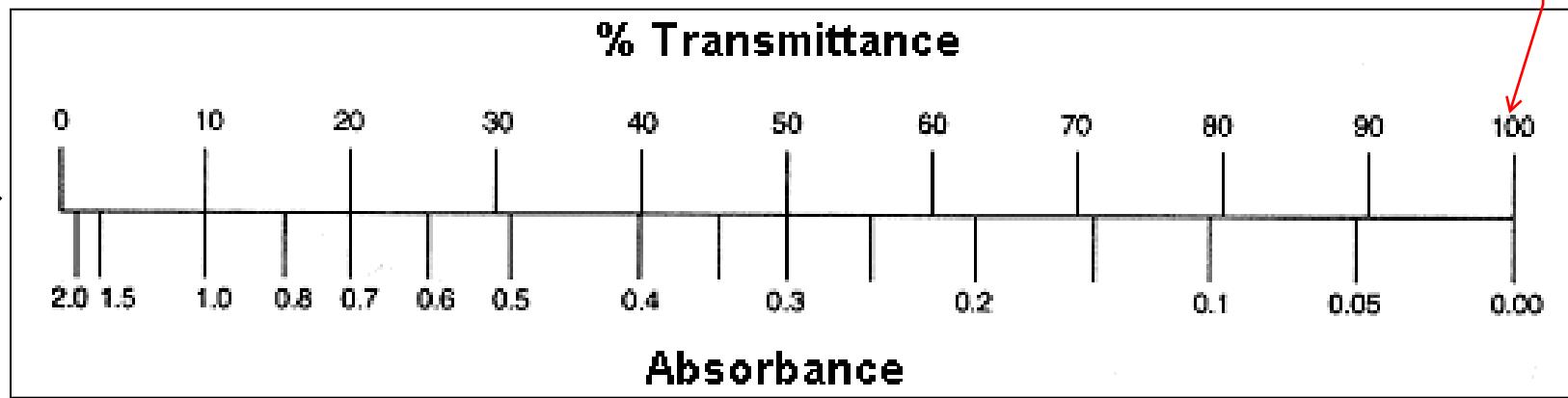
$$\%T = 100 T = 100 P/P_0 = 100 \cdot 10^{-hLC}$$

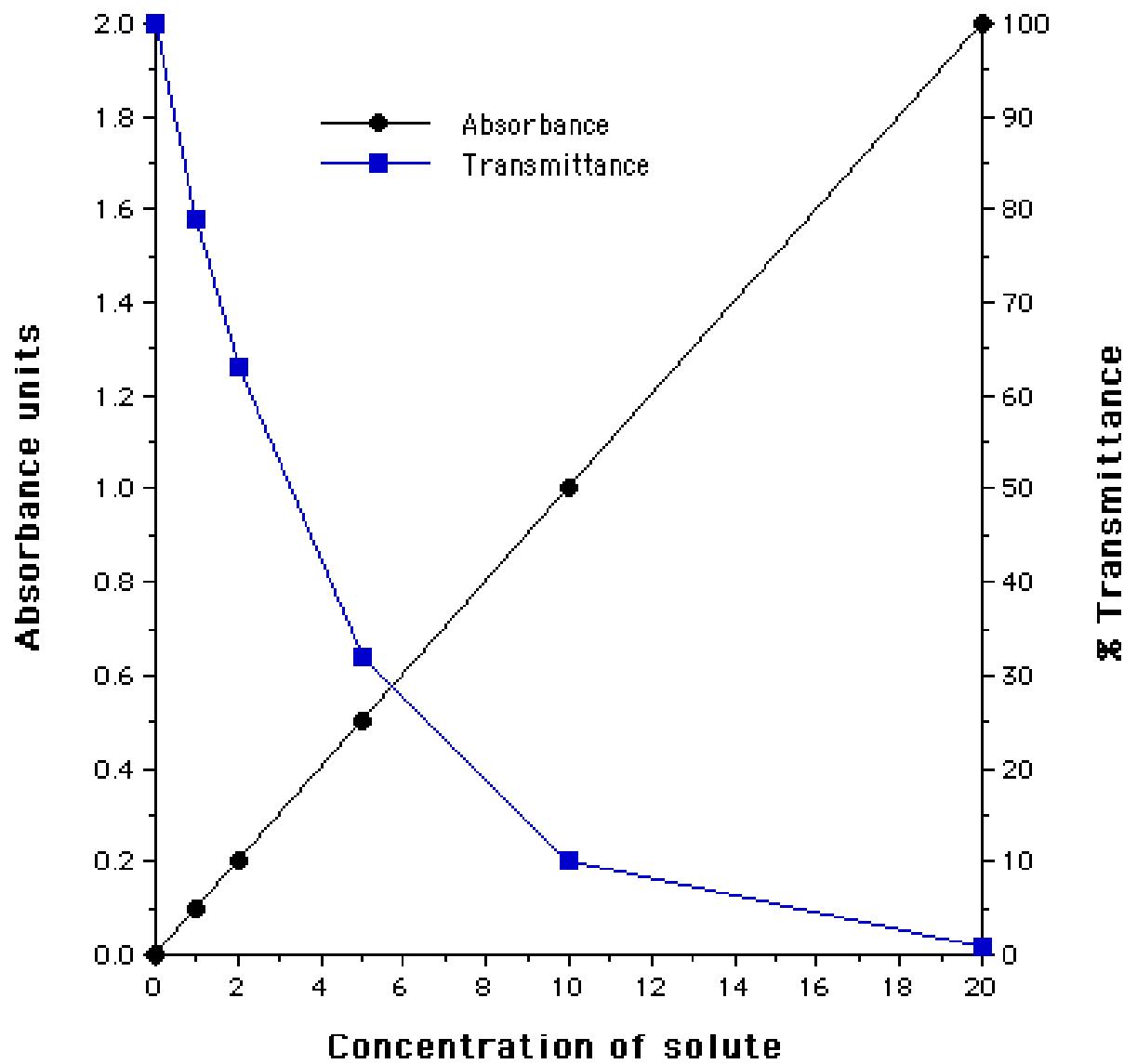
## Absorbance

$$A = \log (P_0 / P) = \log (1 / T) = hLC$$

$$A = \log (100 / \%T) = 2 - \log \%T$$

fully transparent



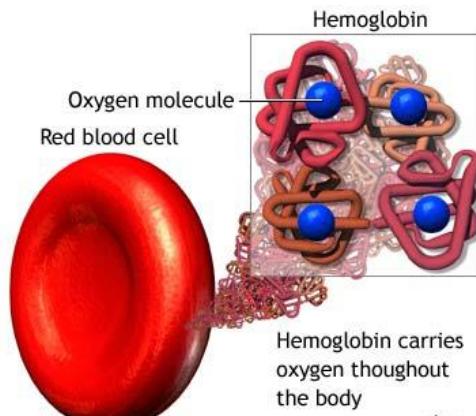


veloce

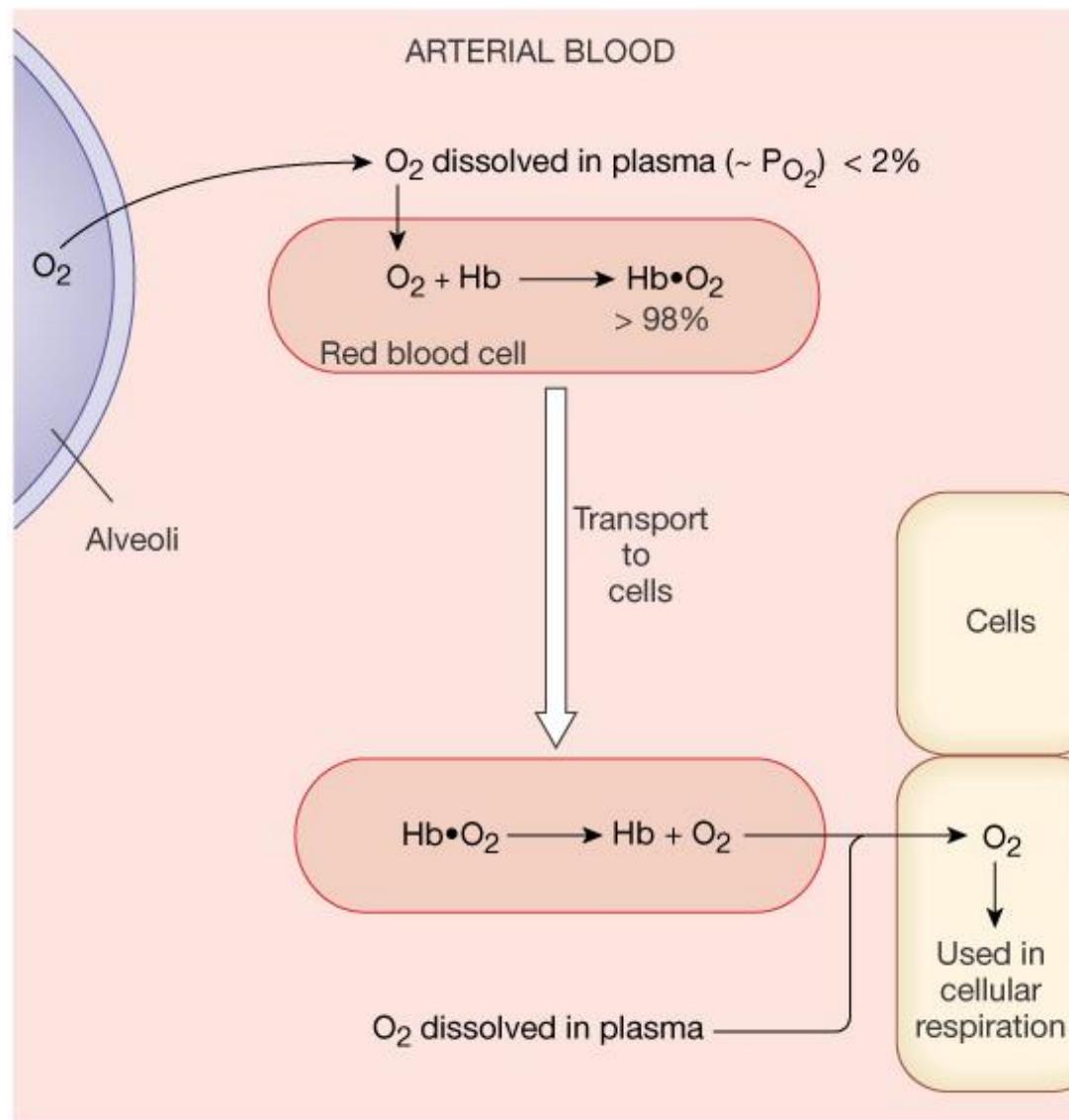
# Gas Transport in the Blood: Oxygen

veloce

- 98% Bound to hemoglobin (Hb)
- 2% Dissolved in plasma
  - Proportional to partial pressure of O<sub>2</sub>
  - 0.003 ml O<sub>2</sub>/100 ml blood



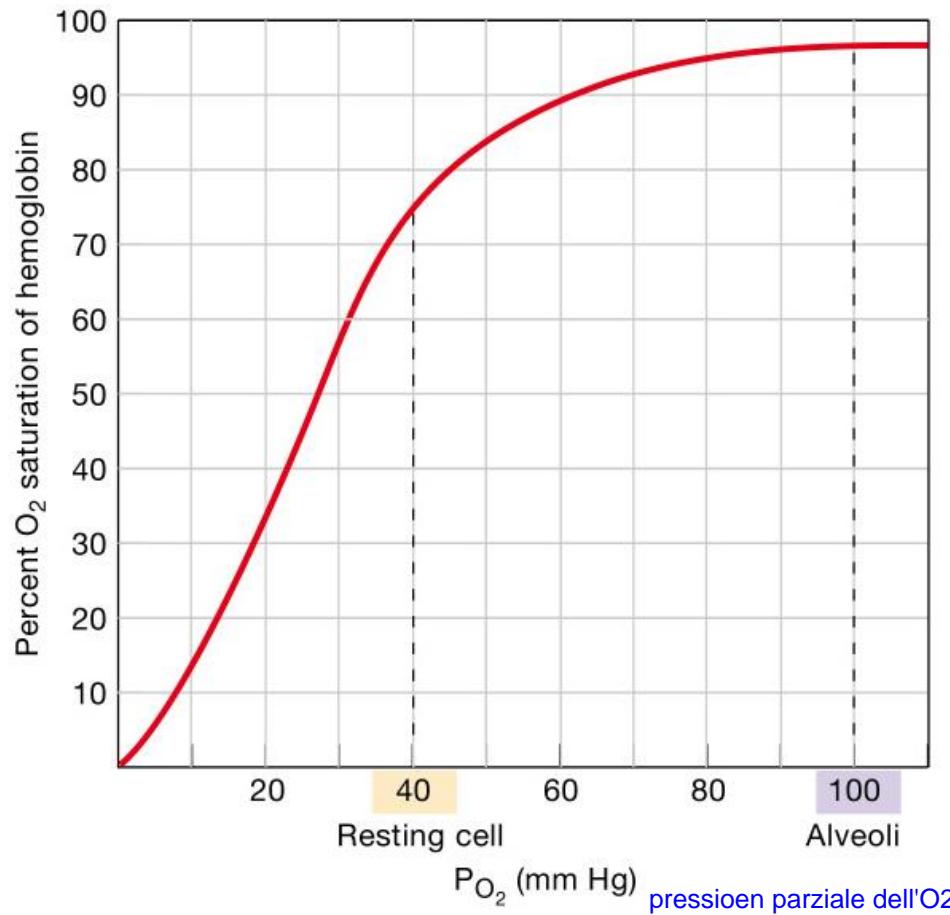
4 binding sites per Hb molecule



# Oxygen Saturation and disassociation Curve

$$SO_2(\%) = \frac{HbO_2}{Hb + HbO_2} * 100$$

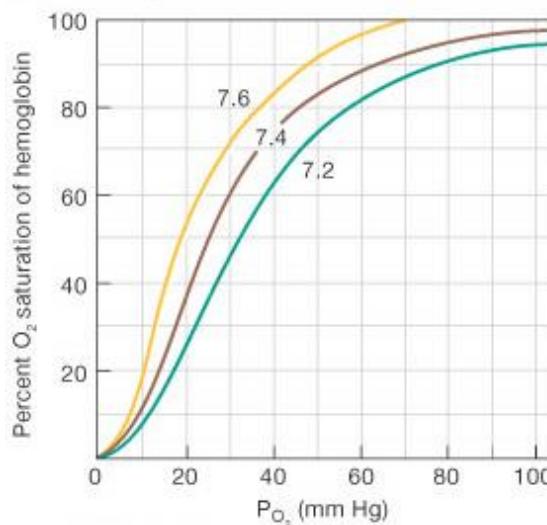
oxigenated  
hemoglobin



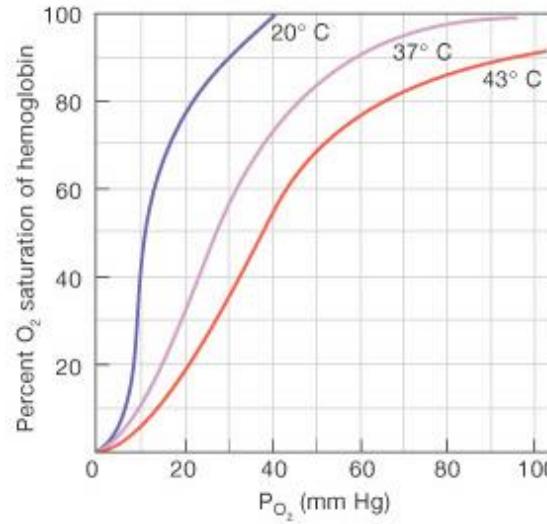
(In arterial blood  $SaO_2 \sim 98\%$   
In venous blood,  $SvO_2 \sim 75\%$ )

# Factors that Modify Hb Transport of Oxygen

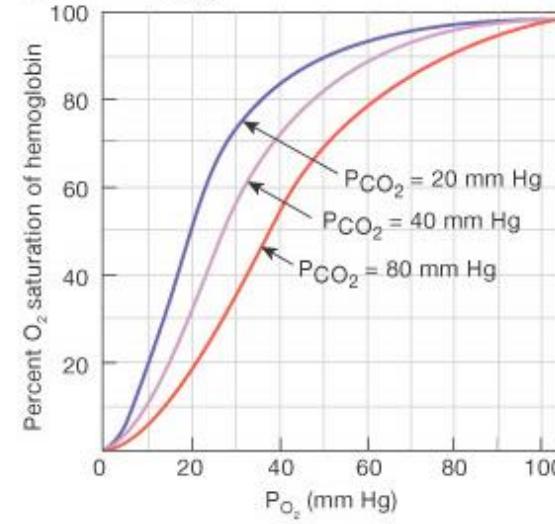
(a) Effect of pH



(b) Effect of temperature



(c) Effect of PCO<sub>2</sub>



# Typical Arterial Blood Oxygen Content

$\text{PaO}_2=100 \text{ mm Hg}$ ;  $\text{SaO}_2=97\%$ ;  $[\text{Hb}]=15 \text{ mg/dL}$

$$1.34 \text{ mL O}_2 / \text{g Hb} = \text{O}_2 \text{ capacity} = \text{Hb}_s$$

## Dissolved $\text{O}_2$

$$\text{Cd,O}_2 = \text{aO}_2 \cdot \text{PO}_2 = 0.0031 \cdot 100 = \mathbf{0.31 \text{ mL/dL}}$$

## Bound $\text{O}_2$

$$\text{Cb,O}_2 = \text{SaO}_2 \cdot [\text{Hb}] \cdot \text{Hb}_s = 0.97 \cdot 15 \cdot 1.36 = \mathbf{19.79 \text{ mL/dL}}$$

## Total $\text{O}_2$ content

$$\text{Cd,O}_2 + \text{Cb,O}_2 = 0.31 + 19.79 = \mathbf{20.1 \text{ mL/dL}}$$

## Oxygen Delivery

$$\text{DO}_2 = \text{CO} \times \text{Hb} \times 1.34 \times \text{SaO}_2$$

## Oxygen Consumption

$$\text{V}'\text{O}_2 = \text{CO} \times \text{Hb} \times 1.34 \times (\text{SaO}_2 - \text{SvO}_2)$$

CO: Cardiac Output

Hb: Haemoglobin

SaO<sub>2</sub>: Arterial Oxygen Saturation

SvO<sub>2</sub>: Mixed Venous Oxygen Saturation

DO<sub>2</sub>: Delivery

VO<sub>2</sub>: Consumption

Monitoring of blood gases is fundamental in intensive care and during surgical interventions.

$pO_2$ ,  $pCO_2$  e pH provide information on respiratory/metabolic equilibrium, on the adequacy of blood oxygenation and  $CO_2$  removal.

⇒ This information is needed to intervene by varying the setting of mechanical ventilation, the composition of ventilatory gases or the pharmacological treatment of the patient.

Possibilities for blood gas monitoring:

- 1) Blood sampling and analysis through a blood gas analyzer (“one-shot” measurement);
- 2) Continuous monitoring
  - *in vivo (intravascular)*
    - invasive
    - noninvasive
  - *ex vivo (extravascular)*

# Specifications for blood gas sensors

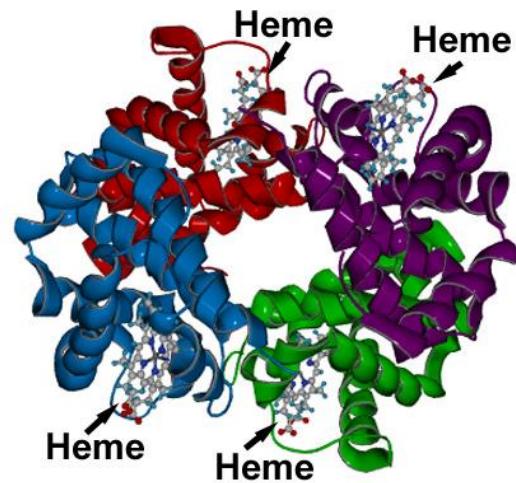
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fast

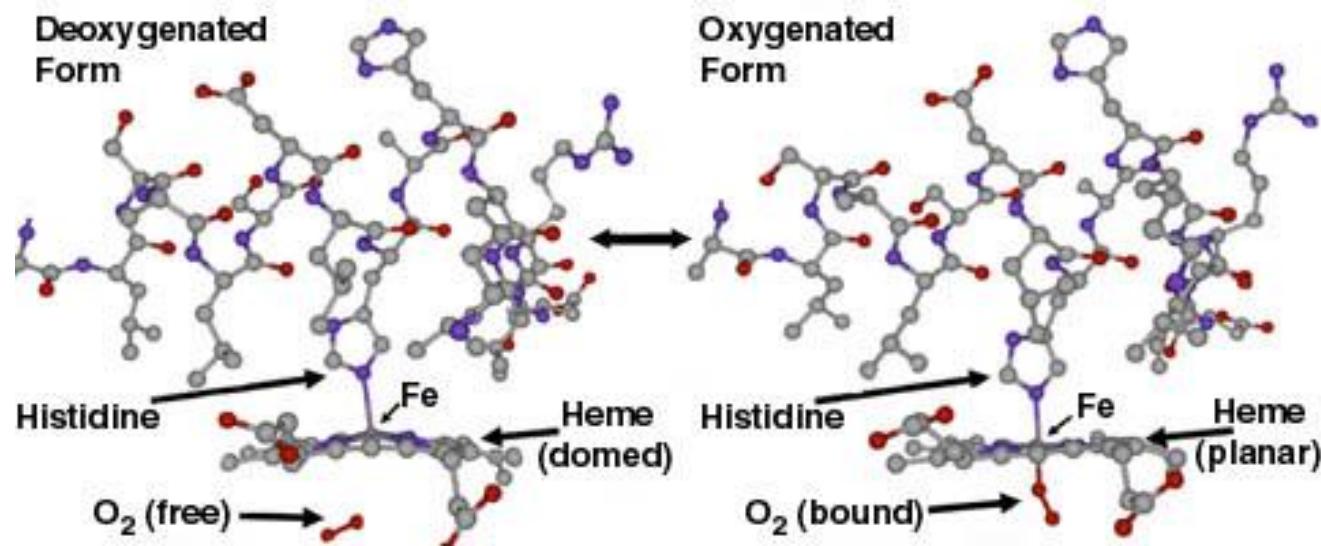
	pO <sub>2</sub>	pH	pCO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Measurement Range</b>	4-80 kPa (30-600 mmHg)	6.8-7.8 <small>fornito O<sub>2</sub> puro al paziente</small>	2.7-13.3 kPa (20-100 mmHg)
<b>Resolution</b>	0.133 kPa (4-20) (1 mmHg) 0.667 kPa (20-40) (5 mmHg) 1.333 kPa (40-80) (10 mmHg)	0.01	0.133 kPa (1 mmHg)
<b>Temperature Range</b>	20-40°C	20-40°C	20-40°C
<b>Stability (/72 hours)</b>	<1.066 kPa	<0.03	<0.8 kPa
<b>Response Time</b>	<3 min	<3 min	<3 min
<b>Insensitivity for</b>	Anesthetic gases, pH, pCO <sub>2</sub>	Anesthetic gases, pO <sub>2</sub> , pCO <sub>2</sub>	Anesthetic gases, pH, pO <sub>2</sub>

# Deoxygenated/ oxygenated hemoglobin

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molecular model of hemoglobin



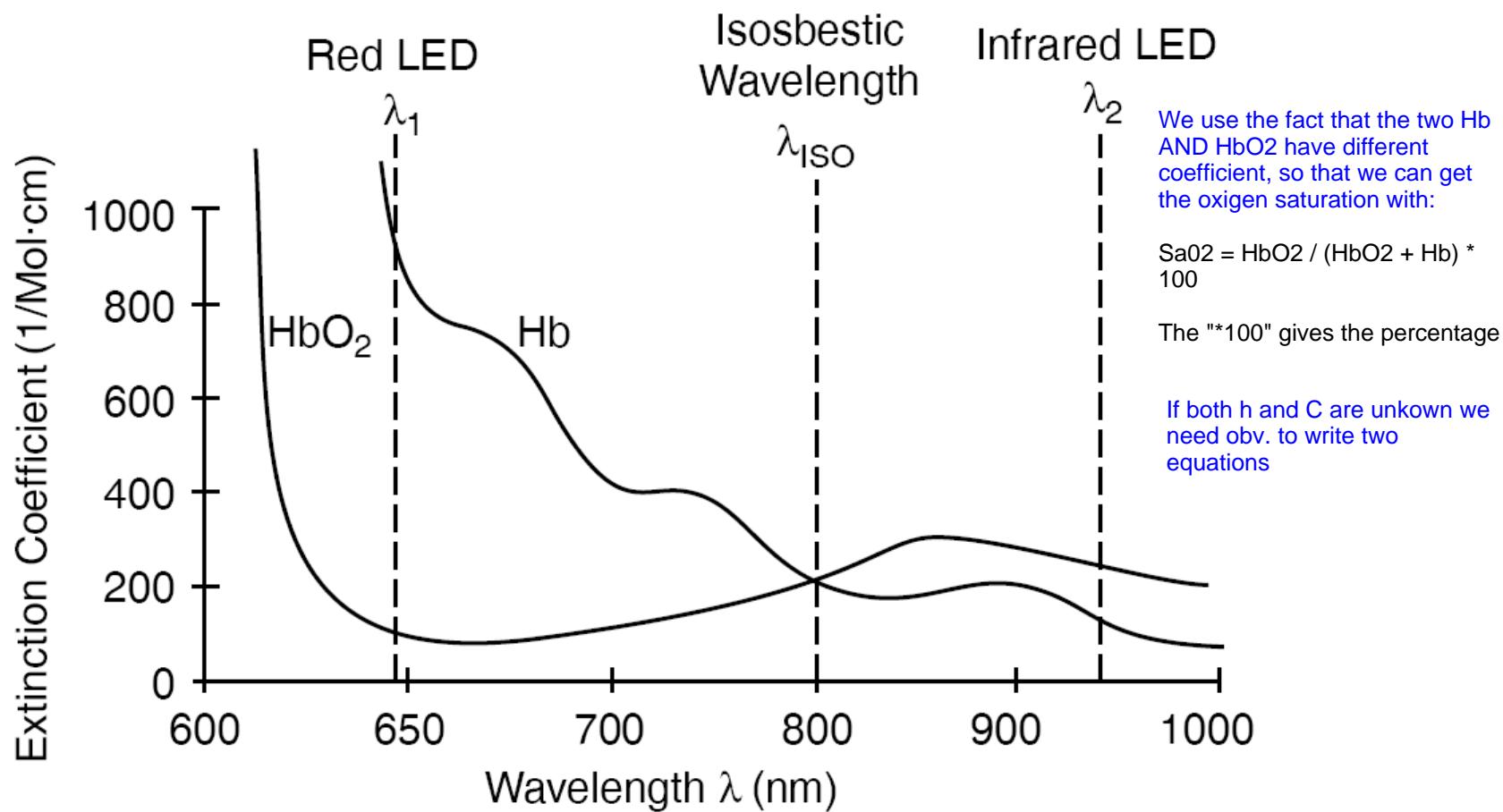
L'heme è un coso che è presente nell... emoglobina (è l'emo)

The heme group and a portion of the hemoglobin protein that is directly attached to the heme.

When hemoglobin is deoxygenated (left), the heme group adopts a domed configuration. When hemoglobin is oxygenated (right), the heme group adopts a planar configuration. As shown in the figure, **the conformational change in the heme group causes the protein to change its conformation and its optical properties as well.**

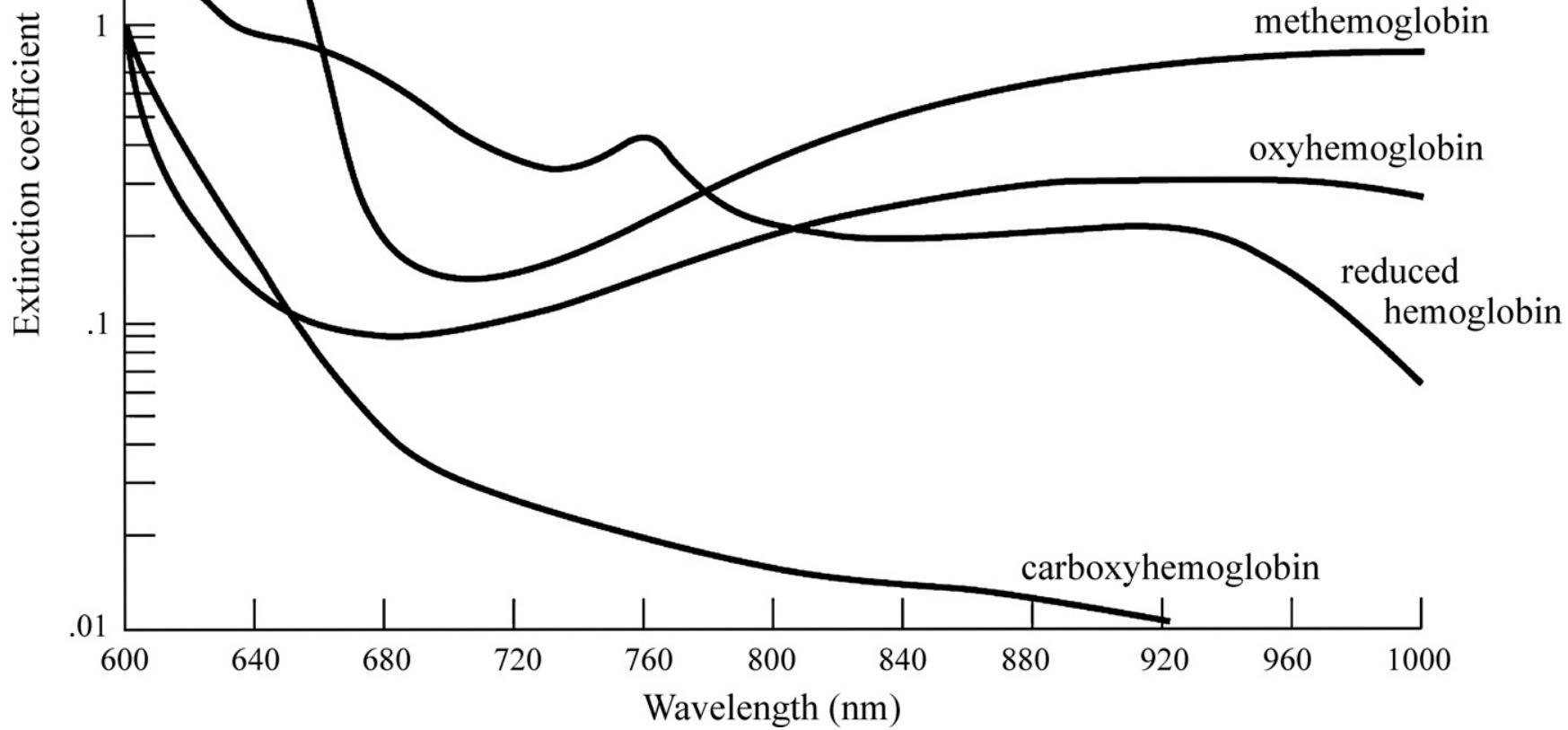
# Optical Oximetry (measurement of blood oxygen saturation)

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**Figure 10.** Light absorption spectra of oxygenated and deoxygenated hemoglobin.

Absorptivities (extinction coefficients) in liter/(mmol·cm) of the four most common hemoglobin species at the wavelengths of interest in pulse-oximetry



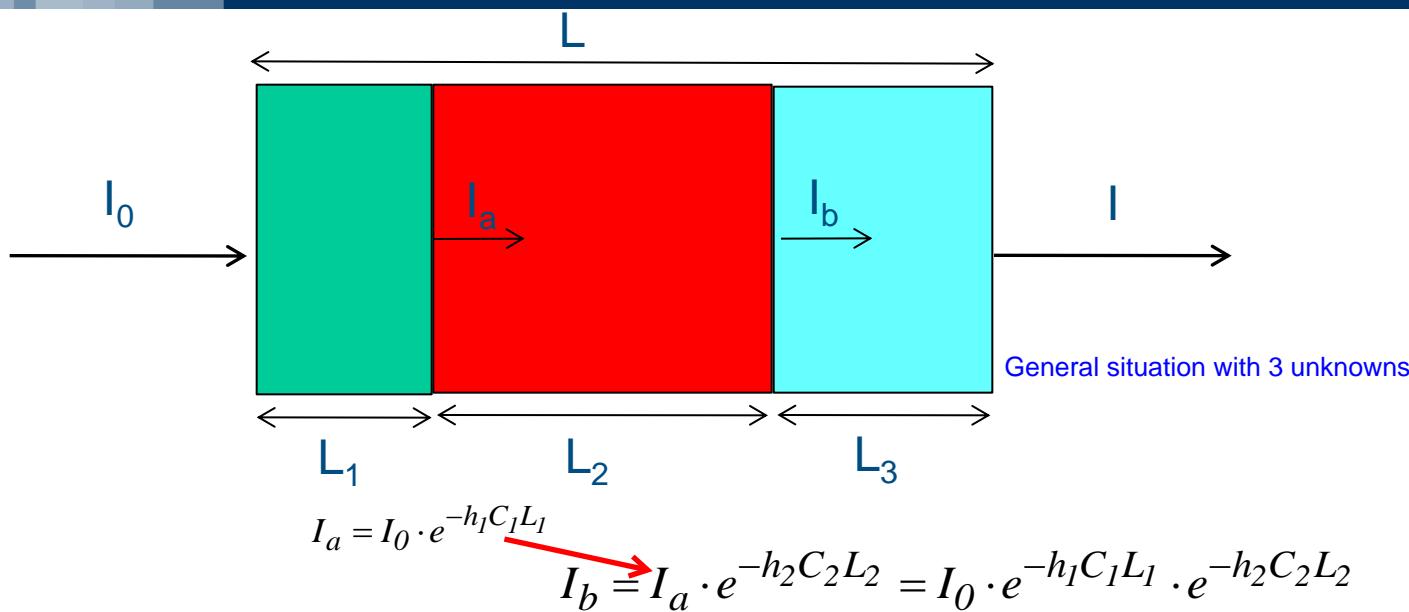
Devices for optical oximetry measure oxygen saturation in the blood or in tissues by evaluating the difference of absorption spectra of organic compounds that carry oxygen, like hemoglobin (Hb).

In this case the “dye” (indicator) is inside the solution under exam (blood).

The measurement principle of optical oximeters is based on the different absorption spectra of Hb and HbO<sub>2</sub> (this is also the reason why venous and arterial blood have different colors).

At least two wavelengths are utilized, one red (around 660 nm) and the other infrared (between 805 and 1000 nm).

The absorption coefficient of Hb and HbO<sub>2</sub> is the same at 805 nm, and this wavelength, called “isobestic”, is used as a reference.



$$I = I_b \cdot e^{-h_3 C_3 L_3} = I_0 \cdot e^{-h_1 C_1 L_1} \cdot e^{-h_2 C_2 L_2} \cdot e^{-h_3 C_3 L_3}$$

$$I = I_0 \cdot e^{-(h_1 C_1 L_1 + h_2 C_2 L_2 + h_3 C_3 L_3)}$$

total absorbance

$$A_t = \ln \frac{I_0}{I} = \ln \left[ e^{(h_1 C_1 L_1 + h_2 C_2 L_2 + h_3 C_3 L_3)} \right]$$

C1L1 are not known!

total absorbance: sum of each assorbance

$$= h_1 C_1 L_1 + h_2 C_2 L_2 + h_3 C_3 L_3 = A_1 + A_2 + A_3$$

By defining absorbance as  $A = \ln(I_0 / I_t) = hLC$   
( $I_0$  = intensity of incident light,  $I_t$  = intensity of transmitted light) and applying Beer's law to the sample we have:

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \ln(I_0 / I_t) \quad \text{We can consider the case where L is the same for the three paths, we have a linear contribution overall done by the three} \\ &= L[h(Hb) \cdot C(Hb) + h(HbO_2) \cdot C(HbO_2)] \end{aligned}$$

C = concentration

h = extinction coefficient (absorbance)

L = optical path

⇒ **Linear contribution of the different components to the overall absorption**

so that we have 2 equations with 2 unknowns

By measuring absorbance A at two different wavelengths ( $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ ), the concentrations of hemoglobin and oxyhemoglobin ( $C(Hb)$  and  $C(HbO_2)$ , respectively) can be determined as unknowns of a two-equation linear system, in which extinction coefficients at the different wavelengths ( $h(\lambda_1, HbO_2)$ ,  $h(\lambda_2, HbO_2)$ ,  $h(\lambda_1, Hb)$ ,  $h(\lambda_2, Hb)$ ) are known.

value of the ext.  
coefficient for  
 $\lambda_1$  for  $HbO_2$



unknown 1

$$C(Hb) = \frac{[h(\lambda_{2,Hb}) \cdot A(\lambda_1) - h(\lambda_{1,Hb}) \cdot A(\lambda_2)]}{L} \cdot [h(\lambda_{1,HbO_2}) \cdot h(\lambda_{2,Hb}) - h(\lambda_{2,HbO_2}) \cdot h(\lambda_{1,Hb})]$$

unknown 2

$$C(HbO_2) = \frac{[h(\lambda_{2,HbO_2}) \cdot A(\lambda_1) - h(\lambda_{1,HbO_2}) \cdot A(\lambda_2)]}{L} \cdot [h(\lambda_{1,Hb}) \cdot h(\lambda_{2,HbO_2}) - h(\lambda_{2,Hb}) \cdot h(\lambda_{1,HbO_2})]$$

Oxygen saturation is obtained (without knowing L) as:

$$SO_2 = \frac{C(HbO_2)}{C(Hb) + C(HbO_2)} \quad (\text{because L gets simplified})$$

We measure the back reflected light (backscattering), sampled at 2 different wavelengths

In **reflection oximetry**, the back-reflected light from the sample (“backscattering”) is sampled at two different wavelengths ( $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ ) and oxygen saturation is estimated from the following empirical equation:

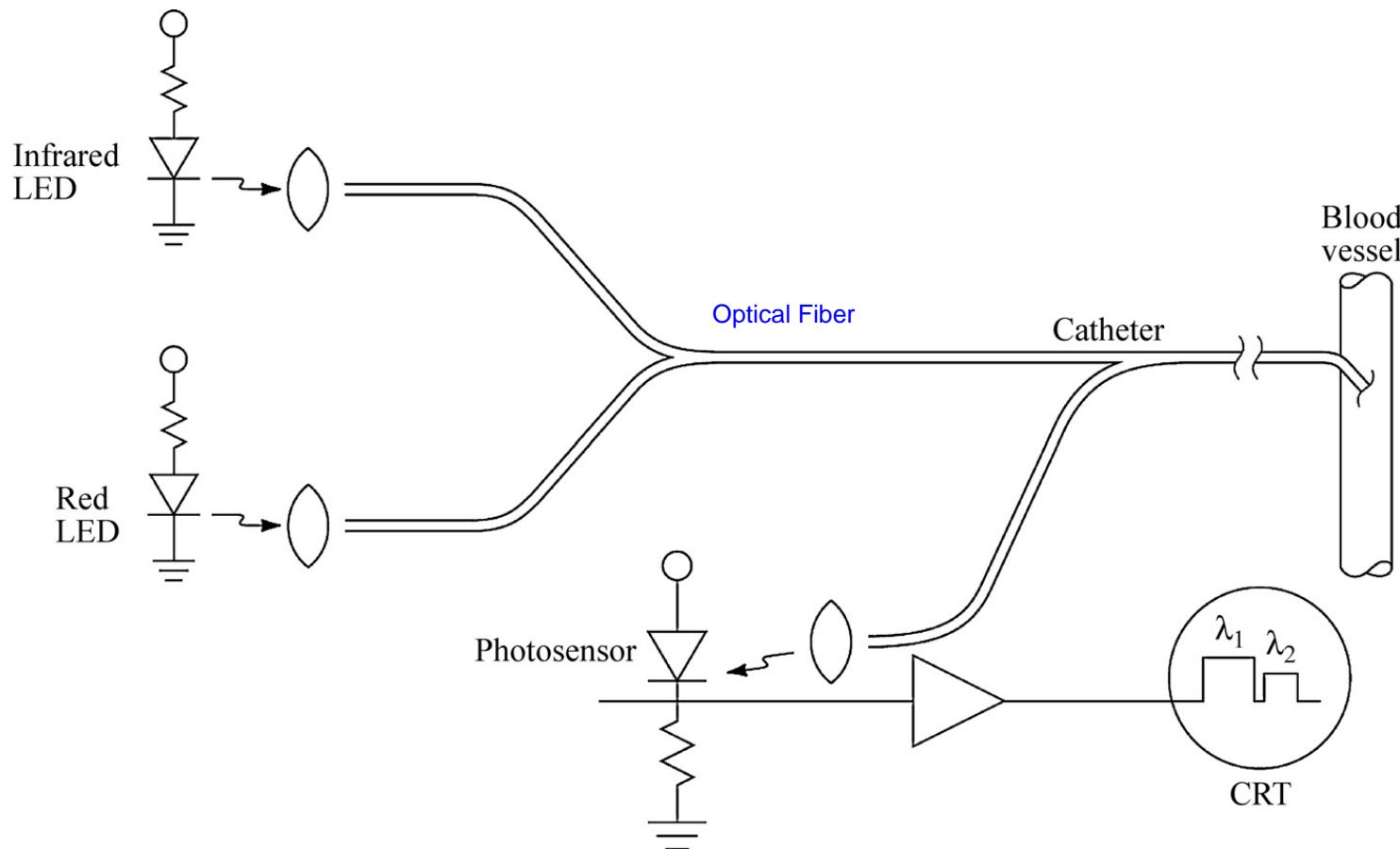
$$SO_2 = A - B \cdot \frac{R(\lambda_1)}{R(\lambda_2)}$$

Ofc. the reflected portion of reflected light depends on the absorbed! The amount that the sensor sense it's lower than in the trans. oximetry

where  $R = \ln(I_0 / I_r)$

reflectance ( $I_0$  = intensity of incident light,  $I_r$  = intensity of reflected light)  
A and B = constants that depend on the hematocrit (amount of red blood cells in blood volume). In order to compensate this dependency, sometime a third wavelength is used.

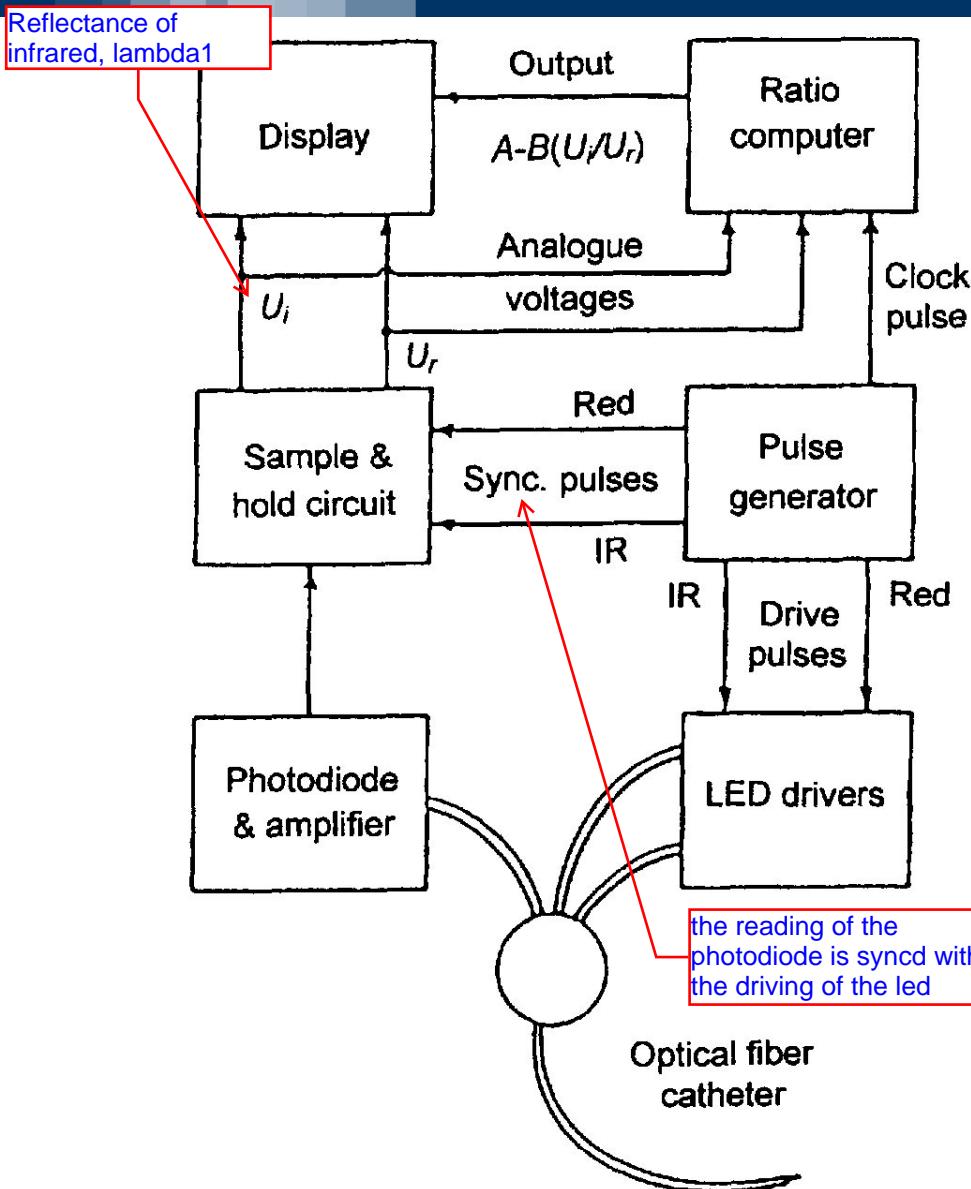
In **transmission oximetry** the light that passes through the sample is instead analyzed .



The oximeter catheter system measures oxygen saturation in vivo, using red and infrared light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and a photosensor. The red and infrared LEDs are alternately pulsed in order to use a single photosensor.

# Reflection oximetry (invasive)

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It implements the empirical equation :

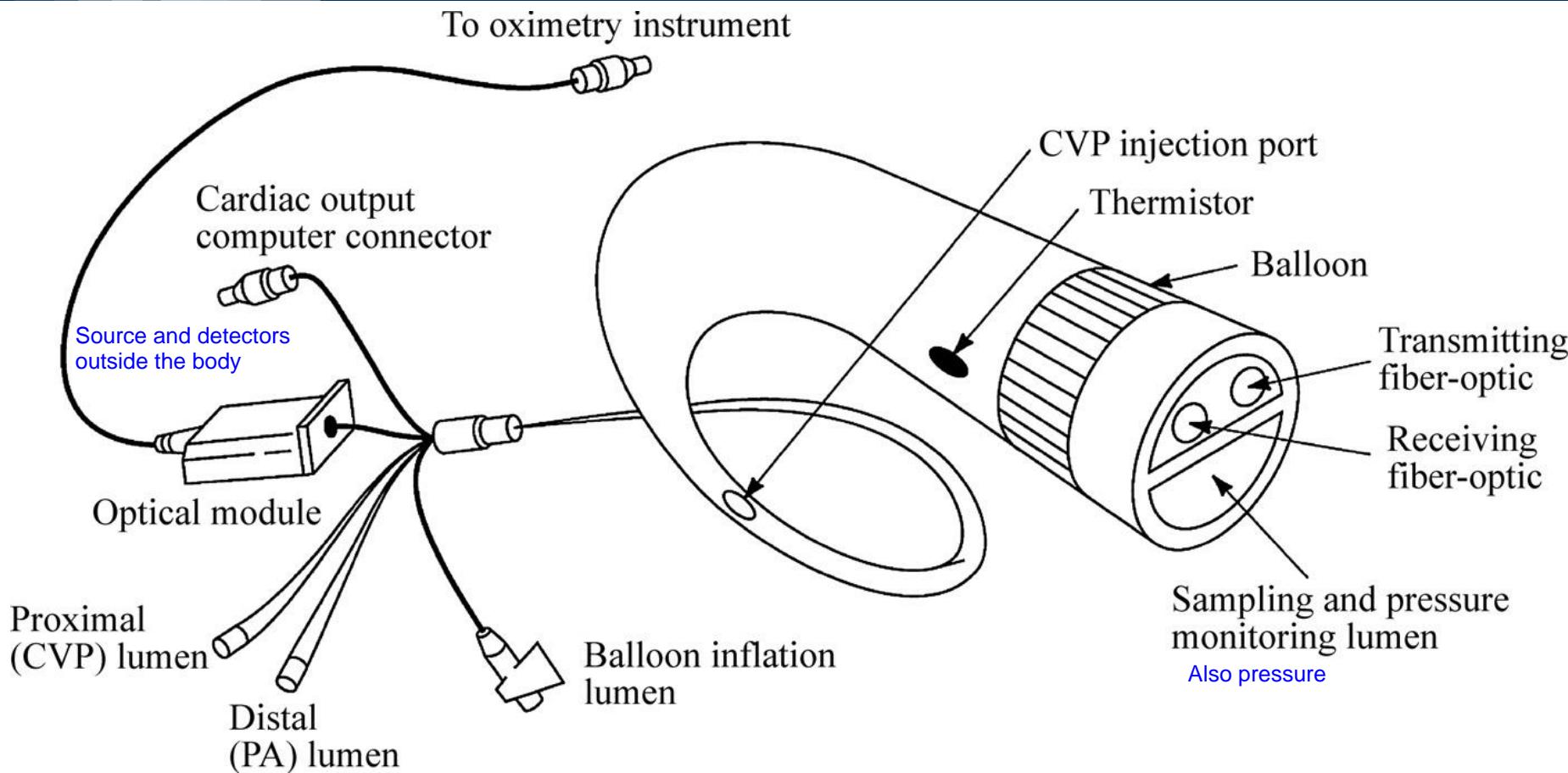
$$SO_2 = A - B \cdot \frac{R(\lambda_1)}{R(\lambda_2)} = A - B \cdot \frac{U_i}{U_r}$$

(clock frequency = 200 Hz  
accuracy  $\approx 1\%$ )

We know how much IR generated light, we measure the light arriving, we calculate the ratio, then we are able to calculate  $U_i$ . In the following pulse we do the same for the red light. Because we have PREVIOUSLY calibrated the system (A and B constant) we can calculate the saturation. The calculation is done by the Ratio computer (just a uP, you can do with an arduino).

Clock freq. 200Hz: it means that the switching on/Off is required no more than 5ms (LOL?)

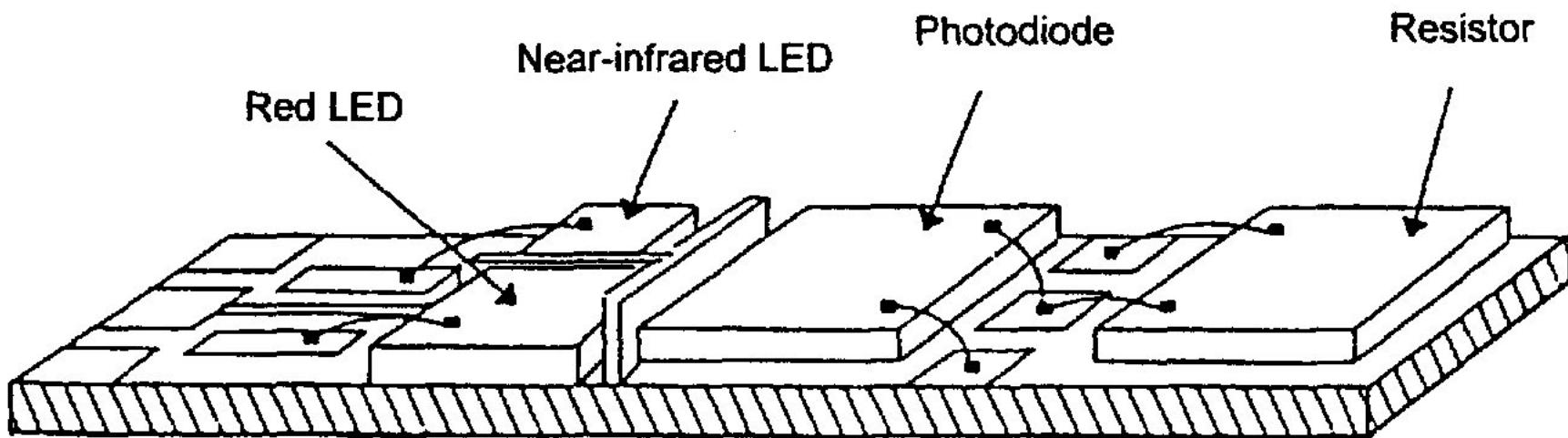
# Abbott Opticath Oximetry System



The catheter used with the Abbott Opticath Oximetry System transmits light to the blood through a transmitting optical fiber and returns the reflected light through a receiving optical fiber. The catheter is optically connected to the oximetry processor through the optical module.

One of the problems in fiber optic oximeters is that damage to optical fibers results in severe measurement error. In order to overcome this problem catheter tip type oximeters using **hybrid type miniature sensors** have also been developed.

IT'S FALSE!!!!

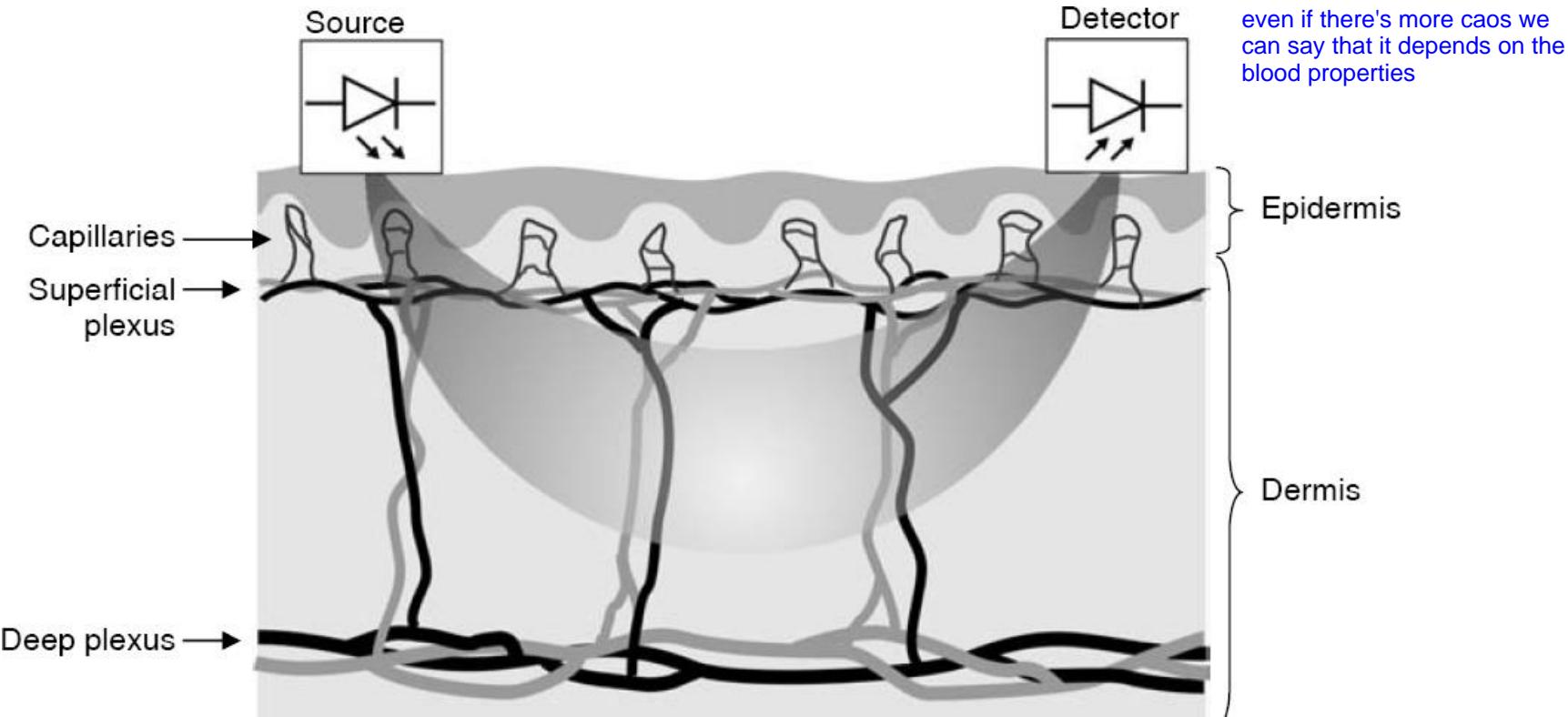


They also tried to bring the sensors/source at the end of the cateter (obv. using also wires etc.) in a MEMS, but it was abandoned. So instead of optical fibers wires are used.

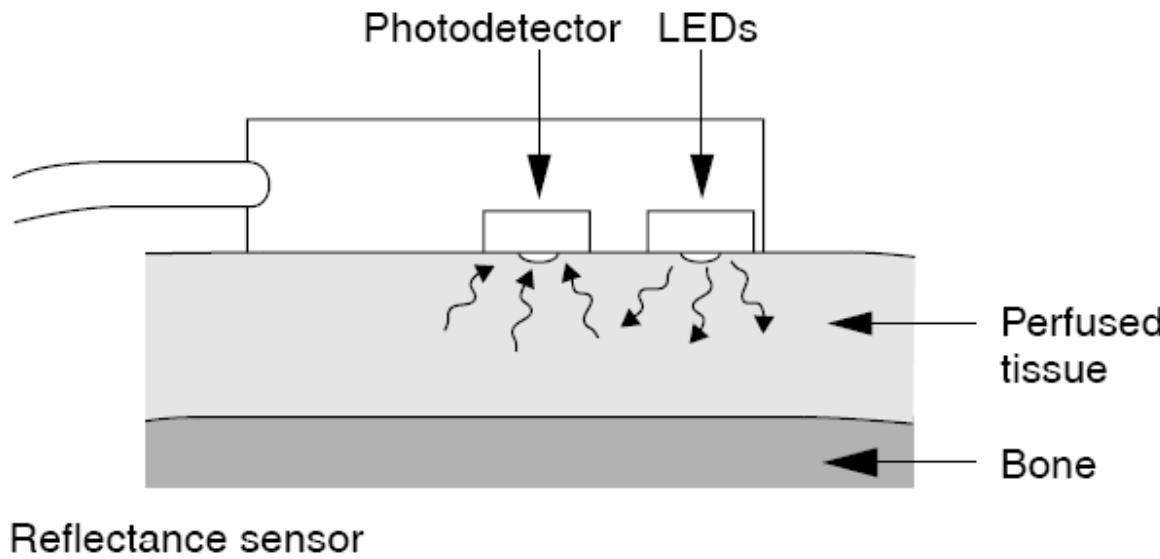
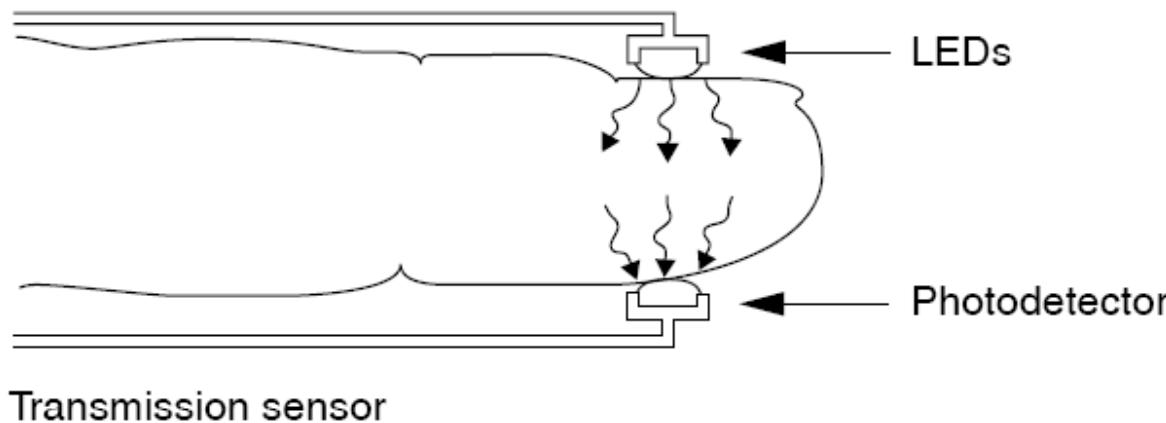
Problem of invasive oximetry: risks related to catheterization ⇒ development of noninvasive methods

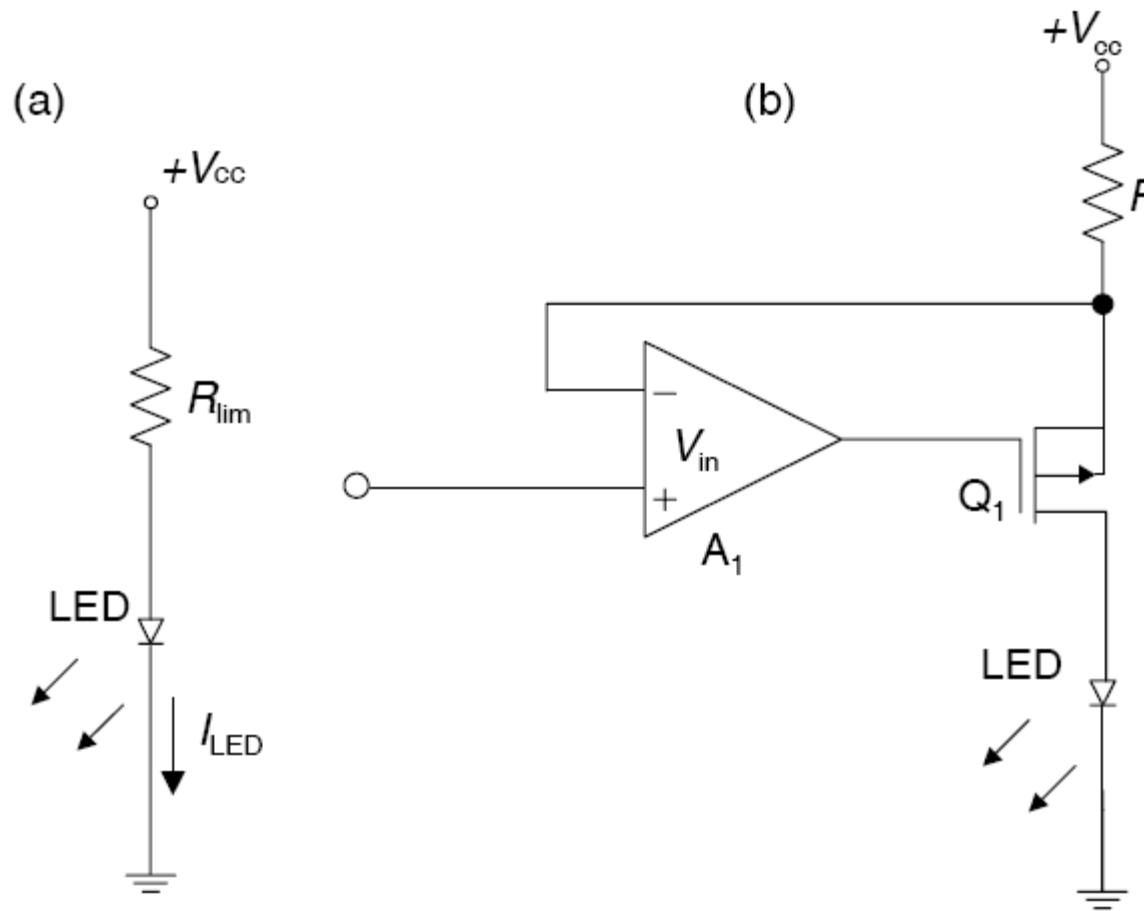
Noninvasive oximetry = tissue oximetry

(tissue = complex medium in which are distributed in an inhomogeneous way both arterial and venous vessels).

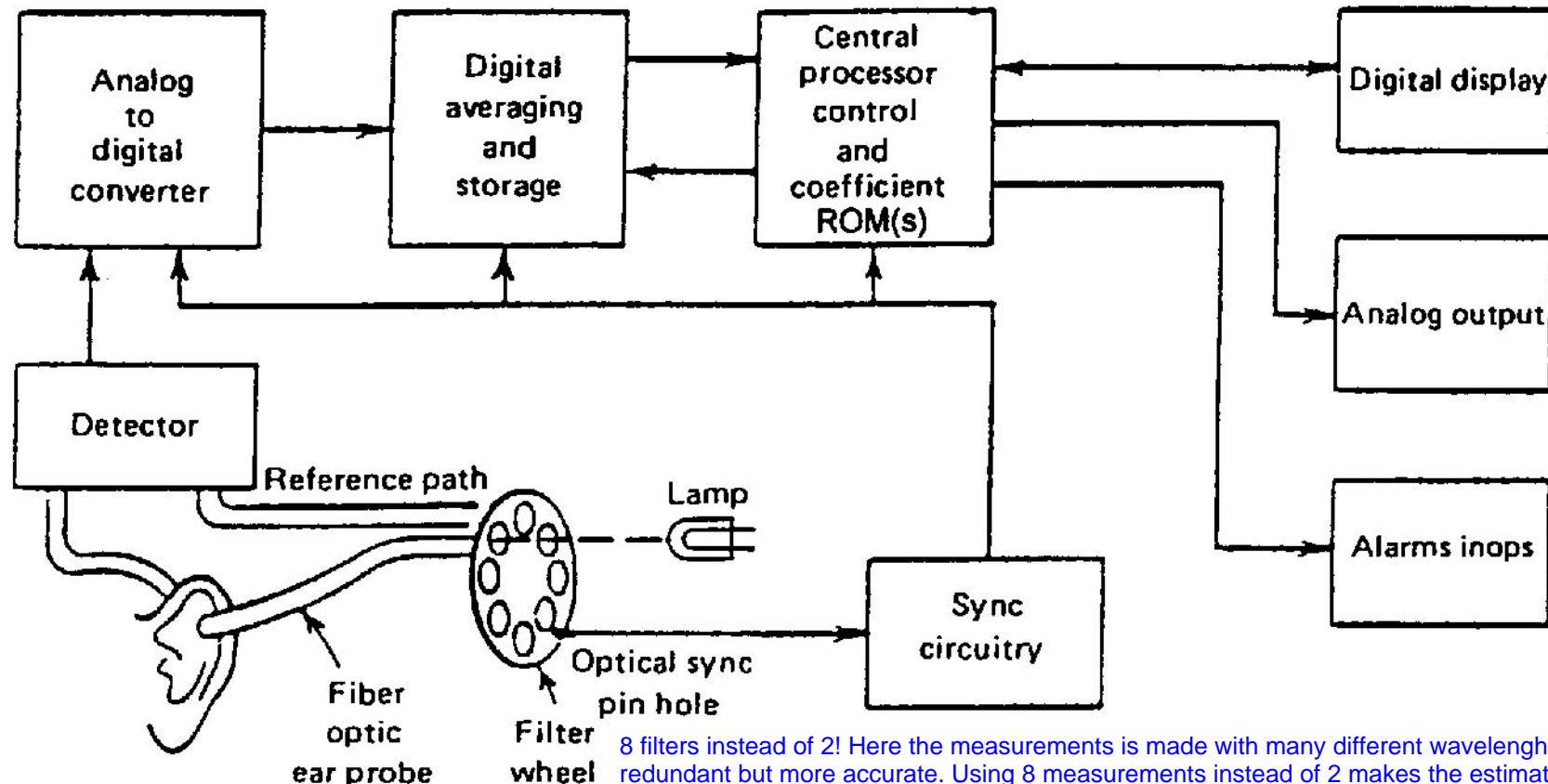


# Reflection / transmission noninvasive oximetry





**Figure 6.** LED drive circuits. (a) Simple current limiting resistor.  
 (b) Voltage controlled current source.



8 filters instead of 2! Here the measurements is made with many different wavelenghts, it's more redundant but more accurate. Using 8 measurements instead of 2 makes the estimation more accurate. In each equation we must put the extinction coeff. of the different wavelength. But the idea actually is to implement a statistical approach, in which... next slide

**FIGURE 6.26.** Simplified diagram of a typical ear oximeter. (Hewlett Packard product, reprinted after Mendelson, 1991, p. 268, courtesy of Marcel Dekker Inc., New York.)

Lamp = high-intensity and wide-spectral range tungsten light source

to increase the light flow with increasing temperature

Filter: it determines 8 different wavelengths

Ear Warming at about 41°C, to augment blood flow and “arterialize” the blood

Signal processing: based on the following equation

$$SO_2 = \frac{a_0 + \sum_i a_i \cdot d(\lambda_i)}{b_0 + \sum_i b_i \cdot d(\lambda_i)}$$

constant

Linear combination of different absorbances/reflectances for the different w.l.

$a_i, b_i$ , estimated previously by calibration, but done with linear REGRESSION!

(which is a general form of the equation seen before)

⇒ Linear regression to estimate a and b parameters.

Accuracy ≈ 2.5%

It is based on the measurement of the variation of transmitted light through the skin due to arterial pulse.

The signal varies due to the variation of the blood quantity in the tissues.

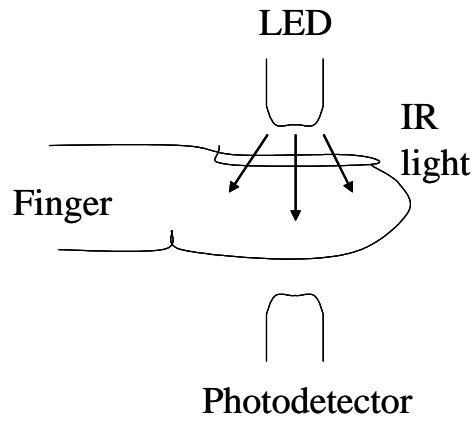
The optical signal is sampled at two different wavelength (e.g., 660 nm and 805 or 940 nm).

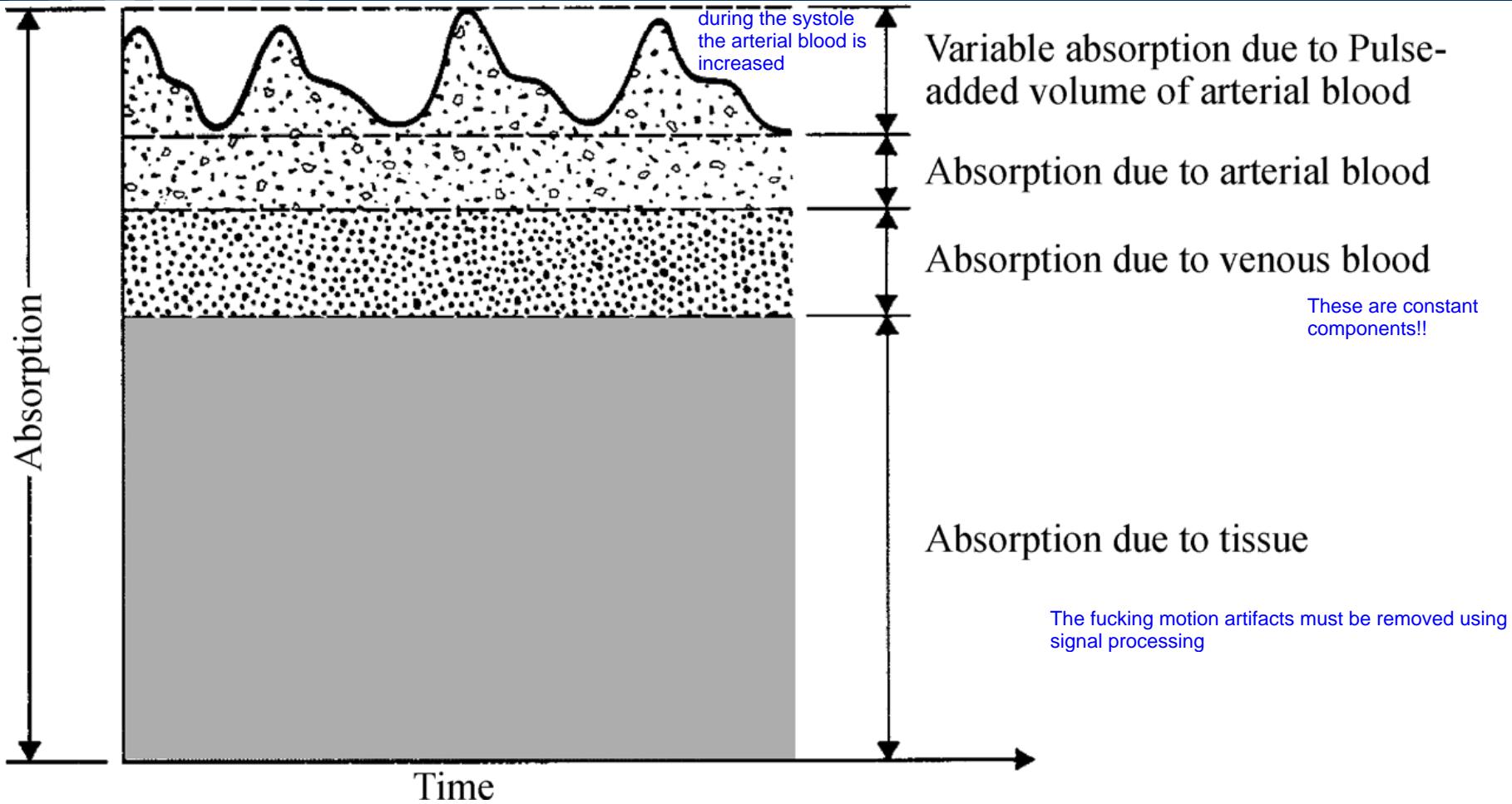
Signal processing: still based on the equation

$$SO_2 = SpO_2 = \frac{a_0 + \sum_i a_i \cdot d(\lambda_i)}{b_0 + \sum_i b_i \cdot d(\lambda_i)}$$

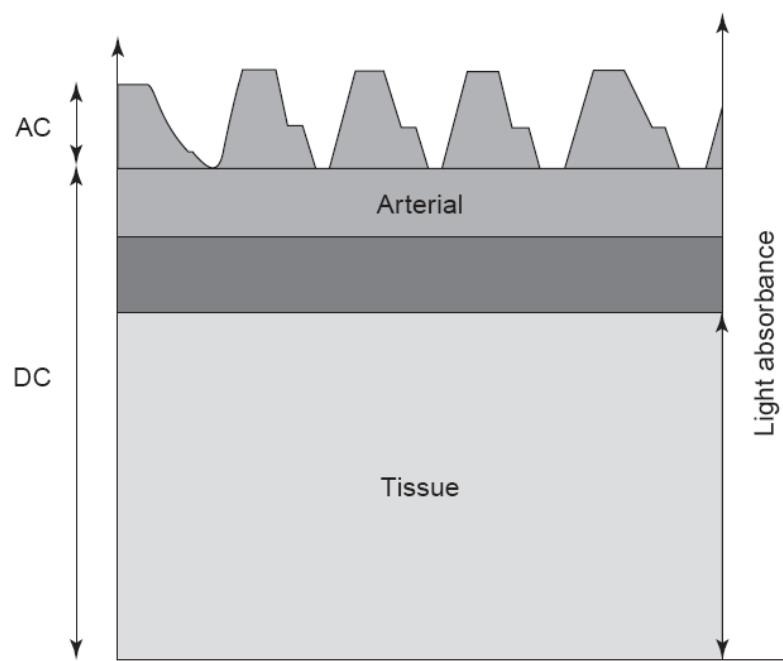
L'ideal è letteralmente la stessa però abbiamo realizzato che possiamo valutare anche l'andamento della quantità del sangue

+ linear regression to estimate a and b parameters.

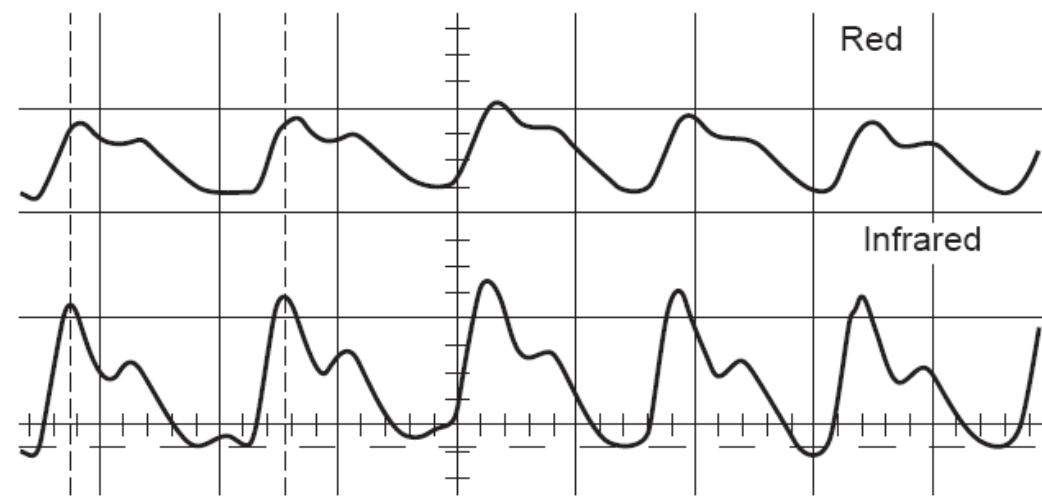




The pulse oximeter analyzes the light absorption at two wavelengths of only the pulse-added volume of oxygenated arterial blood



**Figure 7.** Light absorption by arterial blood, venous blood, bone, and tissue (7).

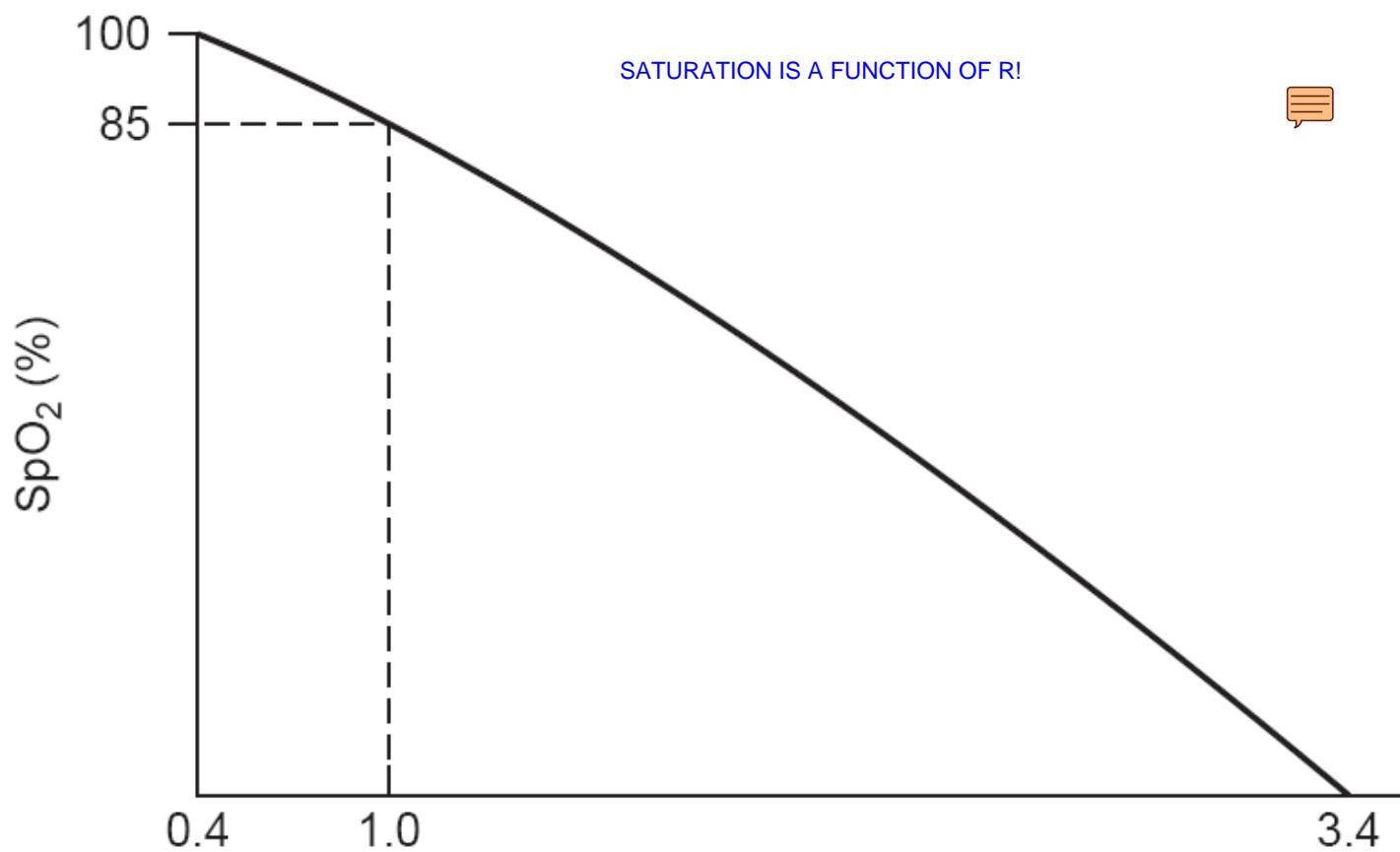


**Figure 8.** Transmitted red and infrared AC.

Letteralmente.. componente AC e DC dei due segnali :)

$$R = \frac{AC_R/DC_R}{AC_{IR}/DC_{IR}}$$



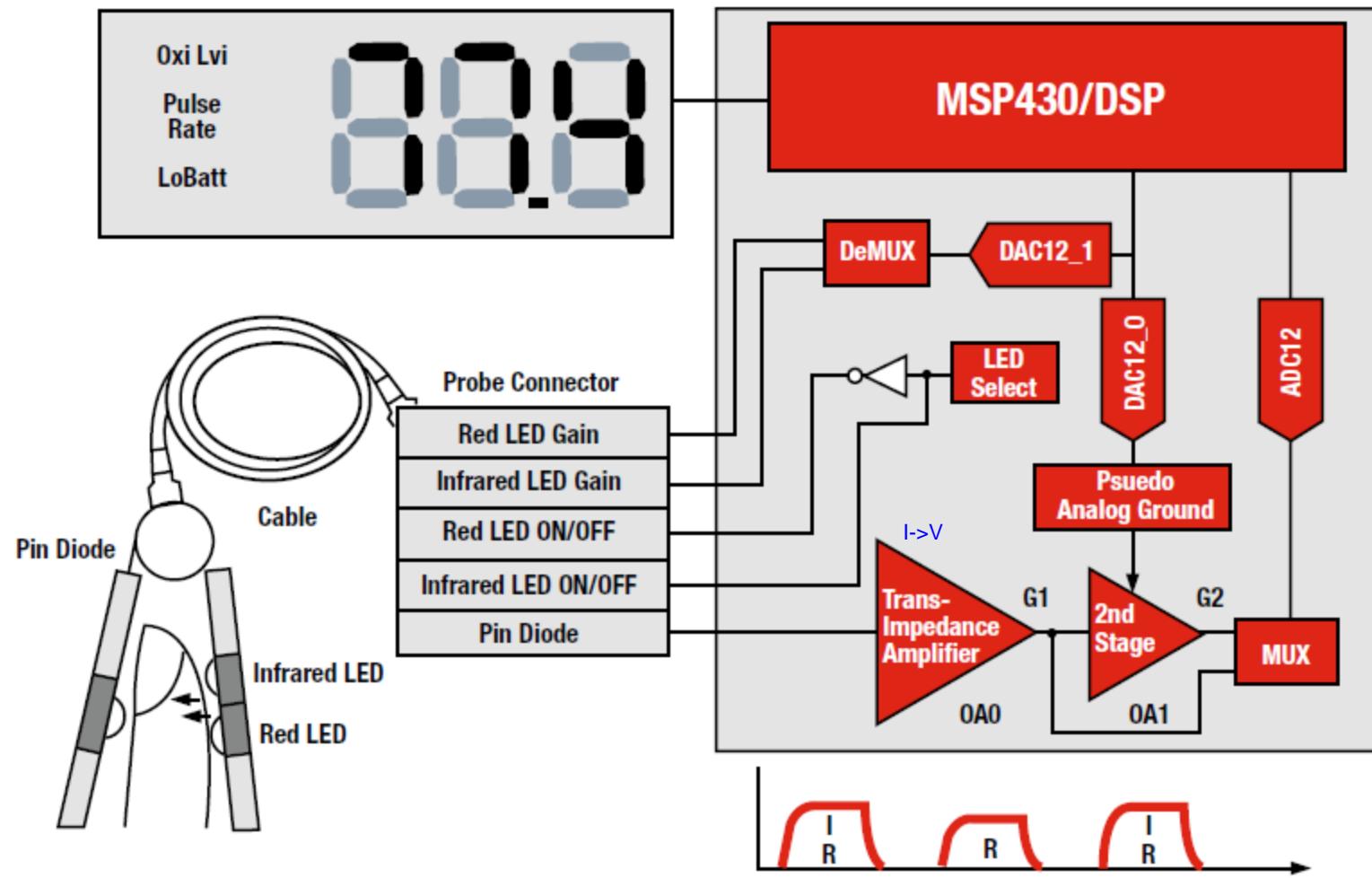


$$R = \frac{AC_{660}/DC_{660}}{AC_{940}/DC_{940}}$$

**Figure 9.** Typical pulse oximeter calibration curve (7).

# Pulse Oximeter (example of electronics)

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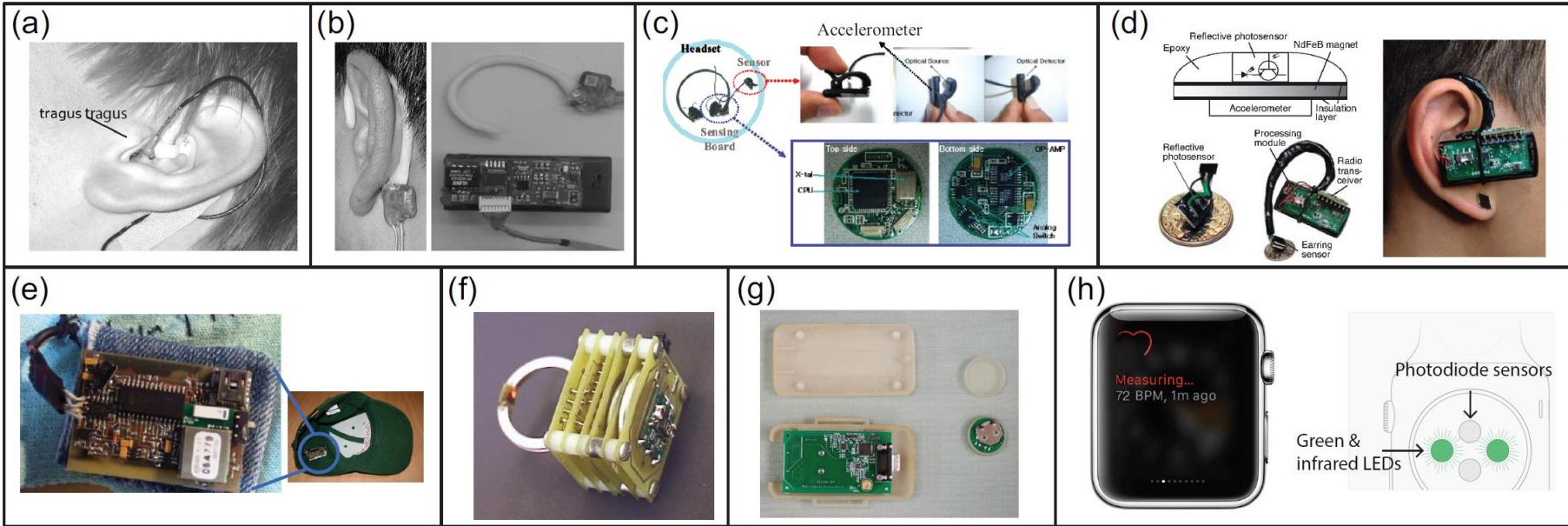


Fig. 3. Several representative types of wearable PPG sensors: (a) micro-optic reflective sensor with individually tailored otoplastic housing [24]; (b) ear-hook design of reflective sensor [25]; (c) an ear clip transmissive sensor with accelerometer [26]; (d) wireless magnetic earring sensor with accelerometer [27]; (e) a golf-hat with integrated wireless reflective sensor [28]; (f) a wireless transmissive ring sensor with accelerometer [29], [30]; (g) a wireless attachable reflective sensor with receiver module [31]; and (h) Apple Watch [32].

Yu SUN, Nitish Thakor. Photoplethysmography revisited: from contact to noncontact, from point to imaging. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering, in press

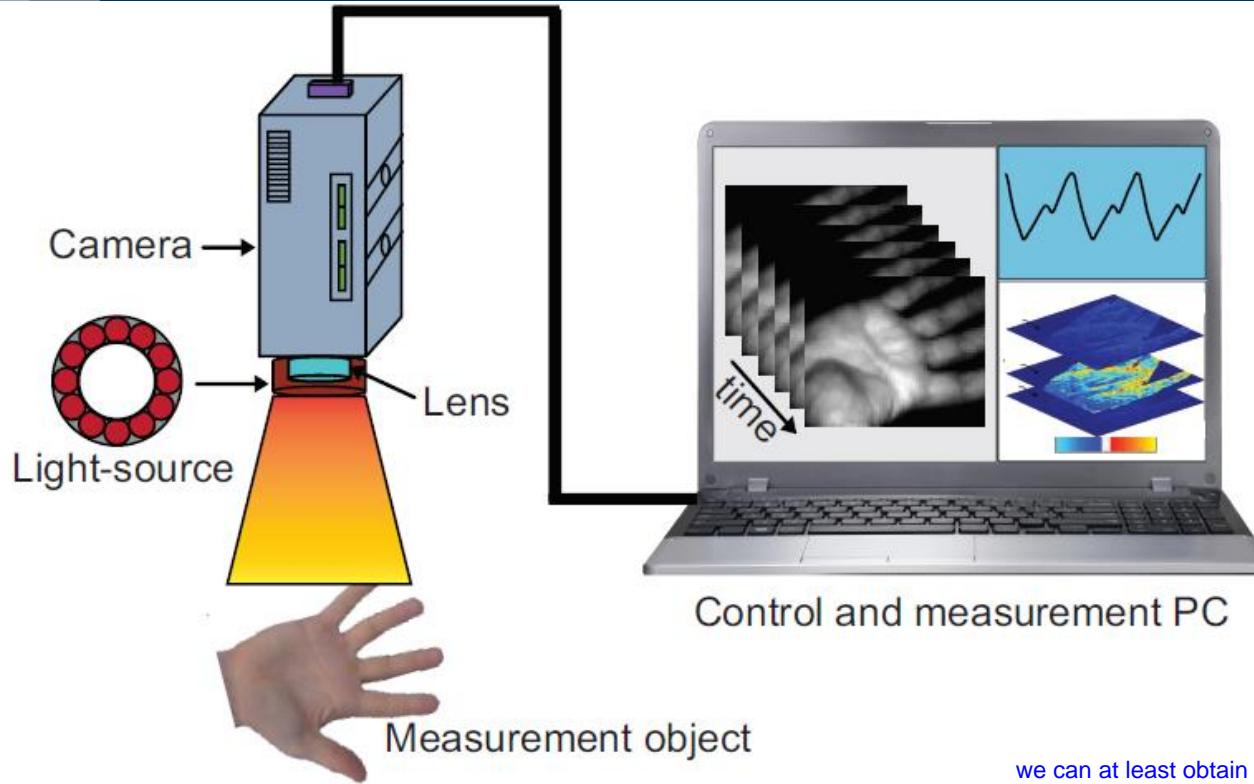


Fig. 4. A schematic setup of an IPPG system which includes a light source and a camera. Physiological information (e.g., heart rate and perfusion) could be then extracted from the obtained images.

we can at least obtain HR (not saturation tho') by just monitoring with a camera

Yu SUN, Nitish Thakor. Photoplethysmography revisited: from contact to noncontact, from point to imaging. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering, in press



When light hits tissue two main phenomena happen:

- **Specular reflection**

Light is reflected by the skin surface

Same polarization of incident light

- **Diffuse reflection**

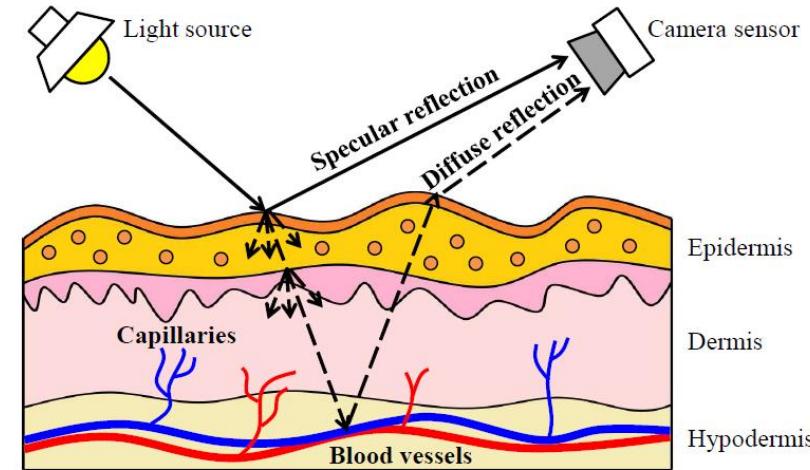
Interaction with the tissue

Change of polarization (random)

$$I(t) = I_0(t) * (S(t) + D(t))$$

Diffusive reflection is the only one that carries the PPG signal:

Reduce specular reflection by means of polarizing filters



## System of polarizing filters on source of light and camera objective

- **P1 and P2 parallels:**  
Reduce the diffusive reflection
- **P1 and p2 orthogonals:**  
Reduce the specular reflection

$$I(t) = I_0(t) * (S(t) + D(t))$$

I can filterout the specular reflelton

