

PHYSIOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF THE BODY:

Human body is a complex engineering marvel, which contains various types of the systems.

1* THE CARDIO-VASCULAR SYSTEM: The cardiovascular system is a complex closed hydraulic system, which performs the essential service of transportation of oxygen, carbon dioxide, numerous chemical compounds and blood cells.

structurally its divided into right & left parts

Each part has two chambers, atrium & ventricle.

The heart has 4 valves.

* The tricuspid valve (or) right atrio-ventricular valve

- between right atrium & right ventricle.
- consists of 3 flaps (or) cusps.
- prevents backward flow of blood from right ventricle to right atrium.

* Bicuspid mitral (or) left atrio-ventricular valve

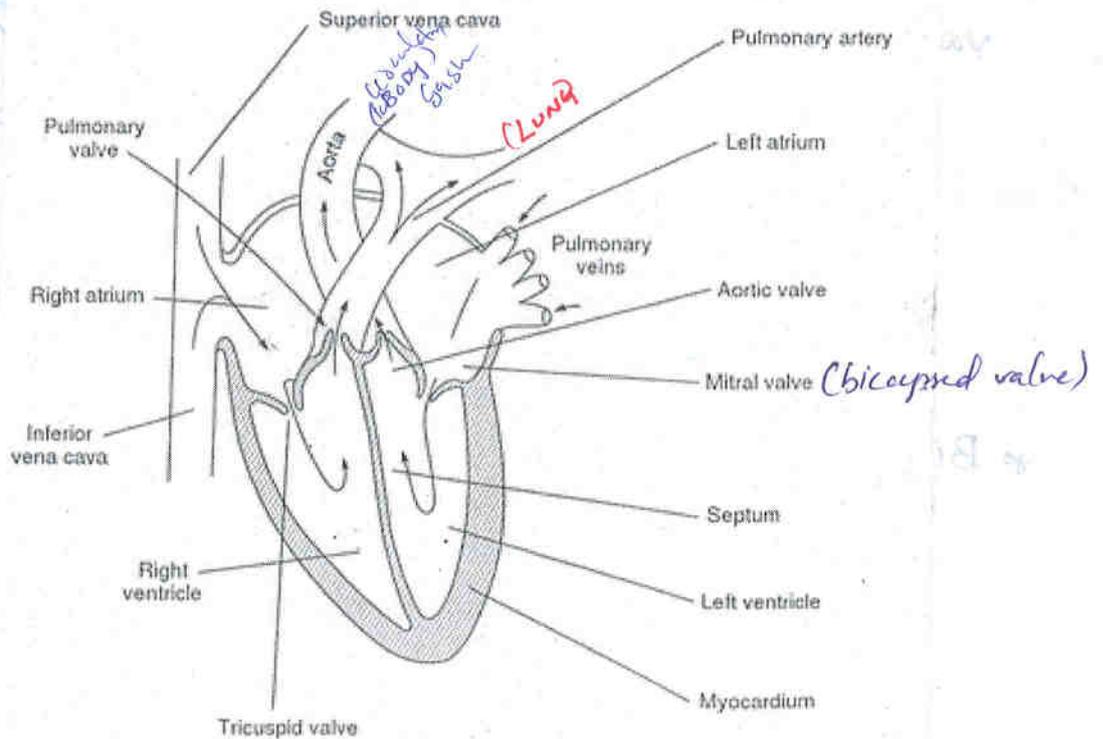
- \times left atrium & left ventricle.
- has two flaps (or) cusps
- prevents backward flow of blood from left ventricle to atrium.

* pulmonary valve:

- at right ventricle.
- consist of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ half moon shaped cusps
- does not allow blood to come back to the right ventricle.

* Aortic valve:

- between (∞) left ventricle & aorta
- construction is like pulmonary valve.
- prevents the return of blood back to the left ventricle.



Structure of the heart

Structure of heart:

* The heart wall consists of 3 layers:

- (i) ✓ ~~The~~ pericardium: -
- (ii) ✓ myocardium
- (iii) ✓ endocardium.

The pericardium:

- outer layer of the heart
- it keeps the outer surface moist & prevent friction as heart beats

The myocardium:

- middle layer
- main muscle of the heart which is made up of short cylindrical fibers. Its automatic in action. Contracting & expanding relaxing rhythmically throughout the life

The endocardium:

- inner layer of the heart
- provides smooth lining for the blood to flow

* Blood vessels:

- hollow tubes

- blood is carried to various parts of the body through the blood vessels.

There are 3 types of blood vessels.

- (i) ✓ Arteries
- (ii) ✓ Veins
- (iii) ✓ capillaries

Arteries:

- Thick walled & carry the oxygenated blood away from the heart.

Veins:

- are thin walled & carry the de-oxygenated blood towards the heart.

Capillaries:

- Smallest & the last level of blood vessels.

- 80000 km of capillaries in human which include all arteries & veins.

- blood cells which make blood flows one at a time.

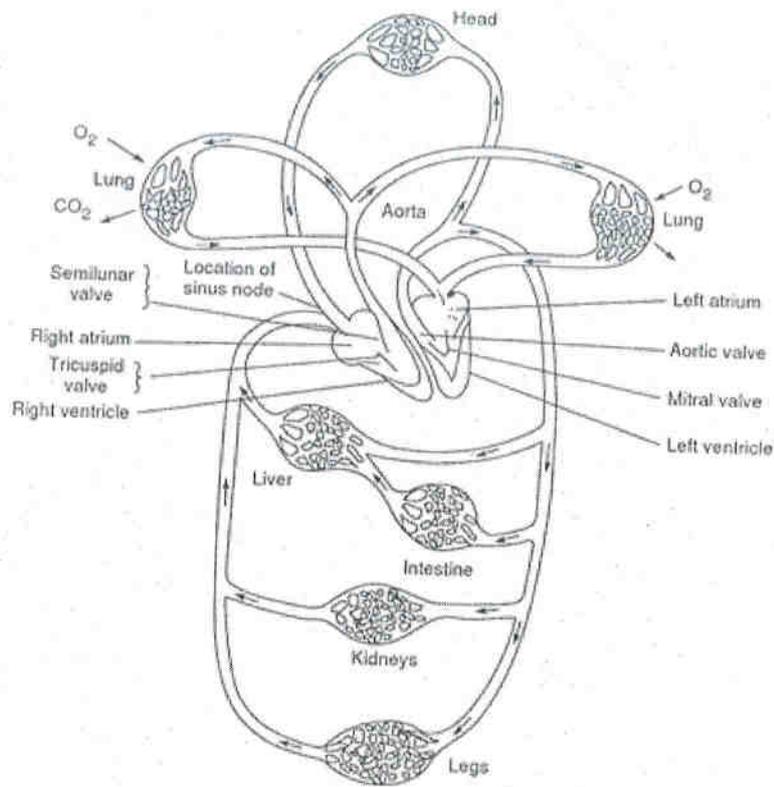
HEART:

which drives blood through the blood vessels of the circulatory system. - consists of 4 chambers

- muscular pump that beats about 72 times / minutes

- sending blood through every part of the body.

- The heart pumps the blood through pulmonary circulation to the lung & through the systemic circulation to the other part of the body.



The Circulatory system

The circulatory system:

The circulatory system: - is the transport system of the body by which food, oxygen, water, and other essentials are transported to the tissue cells and their waste products are transported away.

— This happens the diffusion process. i.e. nourishment ~~the~~ from the blood tissue cell diffuses the the capillary wall ~~of the~~ into the interstitial fluid. Only carbon dioxide & other waste products from interstitial fluid diffuses the the capillary wall into the blood cells.

— ~~part~~ Heart pumps the blood the pulmonary & systemic circulation.

pulmonary circulation: The venous (deoxygenated) blood flows from the right ventricle through the pulmonary artery to the lung - where it is ~~oxygenated~~ oxygenated and gives off CO_2 .

- The arterial (oxygenated) blood then flows through the pulmonary veins to the left atrium.

Systemic circulation: The blood is forced through the blood vessels - which are somewhat elastic

- The blood flows from left atrium to left ventricle and is pumped through the aorta & its branches, the arteries out into the body.

- Through small arteries the blood is distributed to the capillaries in the tissues where it gives up oxygen & other compounds takes up CO_2 & products of combustion.

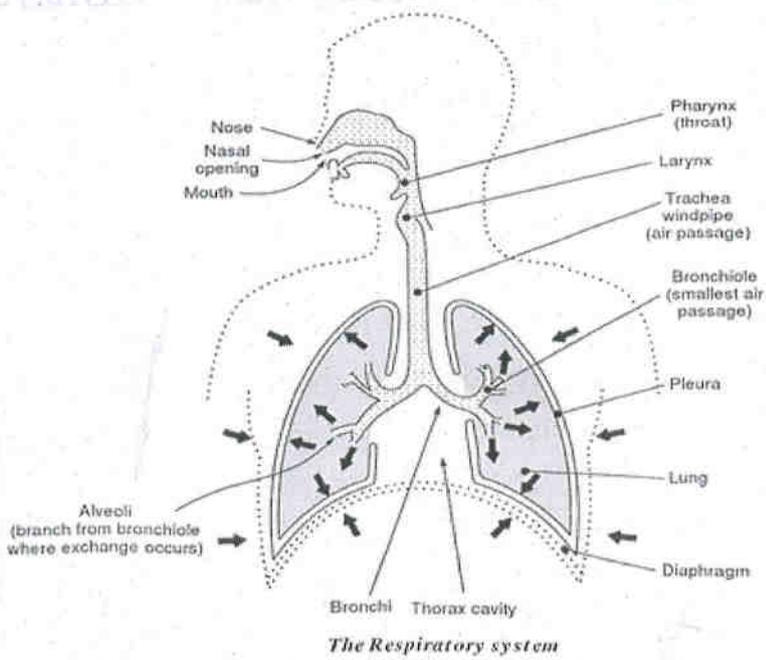
2* THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM: (3rd mod: in detail)

Respiratory system in human body is a pneumatic system in which an air pump (diaphragm) alternatively creates +ve & -ve pressure in a sealed chamber (thoracic)

Nasal cavities :- lungs are connected to the outside environment thru a passage way.

- carries air into each lungs.
- oxygen is taken into the blood from the incoming air & CO₂ is transferred from the blood to air under the control of pneumatic pump.
- the movement of gas x blood and tiny air spaces (alveolae alveoli) is due to diffusion.
- and achieved by 15-20 breaths/min - each one with 500 ml.
- under normal condition 250 ml of O₂ are taken up & 250 ml of CO₂ given out

The Respiratory system:



3* Nervous System:

The nervous system is the control & communication NW for the body which coordinates the functions of the various organs.

It consists of a central & a peripheral parts.

Central nervous system: is made up of the brain & (encephalon) and the spinal cord.

Peripheral nervous system: comprises all the nerves & gp. of neurons outside the brain the spinal cord.

The brain consists of three parts

- * cerebrum

- * cerebellum

- * brain stem

~~Ceb~~

cerebrum:

- consists of two well demarcated hemi-

- spheres, right & left &

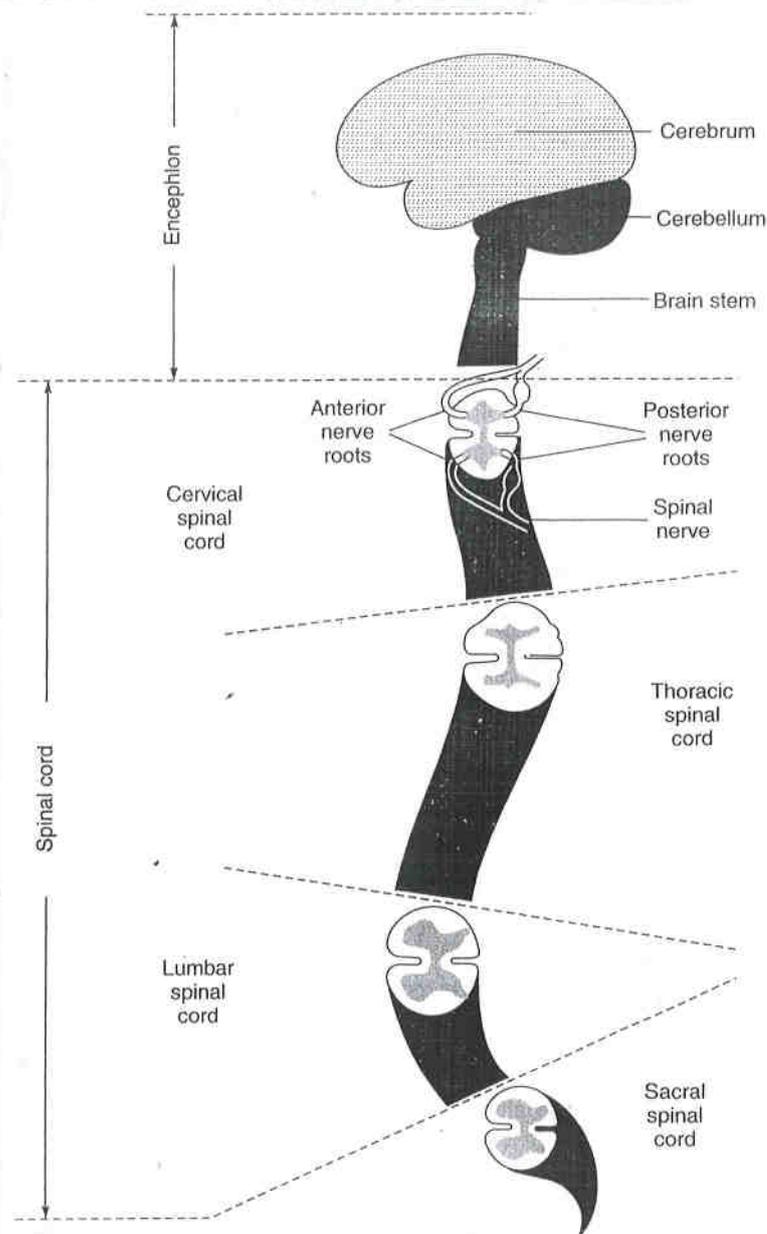
- each hemisphere is sub-divided into

- two lobes frontal lobe & temporal lobe in the left hemisphere & parietal & occipital lobes in the right hemisphere.

- The outer layer of the brain is called cerebral cortex.

- All sensory inputs from various parts of the body reach the cortex.

- it's also the centre of intellectual functions.



> Fig. 1.4 Central nervous system, human brain and spinal cord

Central nervous system, human brain & spinal cord:

- The temporal lobes are also important for the storage process - in the long term memory.

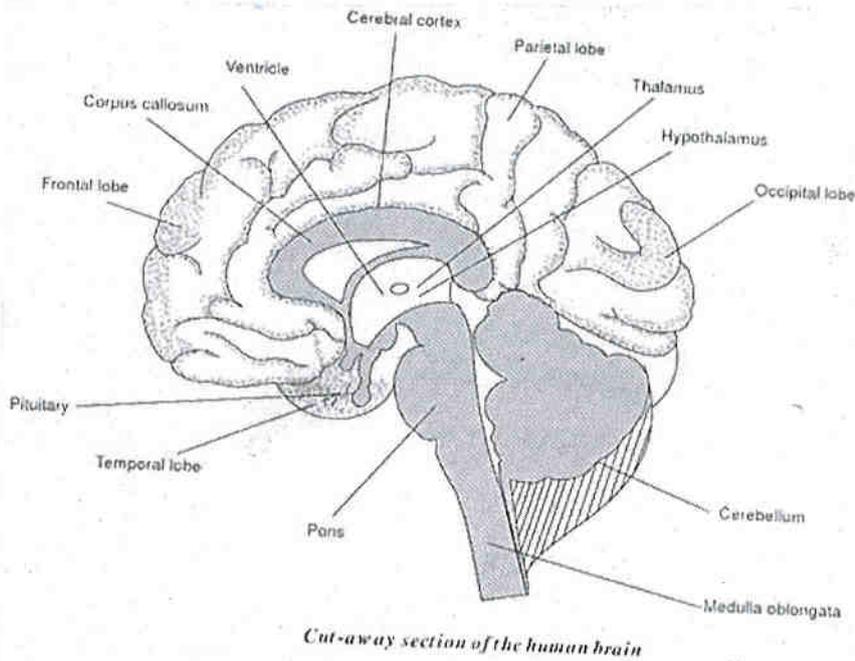
Cerebellum:

- The cerebellum acts as a physiological micro controller micro computer which intercepts various sensory & motor nerves to

to smooth out the muscle motions

- It also consists of two hemispheres which regulate the coordination of muscle movements elicited by cerebrum.

- it also enables a person to maintain his balance



cut away section of the human brain

Brain stem: - connects the spinal cord to the centre of the brain just below the cortex.

- The essential parts of brain stem are

* medulla oblongata

* pons

* mid brain

* diencephalon — thalamus.
hypothalamus

(i) medulla oblongata:

- lowest section of brain stem
- contains centres for regulating the work performed by heart; control blood distribution (vasomotor centre) & respiratory centre - Controls the ventilation of the lungs.

(ii) pons:

- located just above the ~~medulla~~ medulla & protruding somewhat in front of the brain stem.

(iii) mid brain

- lies in the upper part of the brain stem

(iv) diencephalon:

- above and slightly forward of the mid brain

* one part is Thalamus: - act as ^{Relay} ~~relaying~~ station for sensory pathways to the cortical sensory centre of the cerebrum.

* In the lower part of diencephalon is hypothalamus - which is the centre for temperature regulation, metabolism, & fluid regulation

Spinal cord:

- The spinal cord is a downward continuation of the medulla oblongata ⁱⁿ to the

brain to the level of first lumbar vertebra.

- consists of cylinder of nerve tissue (thickness 38-45cm)

- cord consists of white matter on the surface & gray matter inside.

- White matter :- ^{contains} fibers running \times ~~fibers~~ ^{brain} & cord only.

- cord containing motor & sensory fibers & is responsible for reflex action & link \times body & brain

- Gray matter:

- H shaped gray matter

- controls many reflexes - knee reflex, bladder emptying reflexes.

Central nervous system consists of billions of specialized cells, about half is called - neurons.

- are functionally active as signal trans

- fundamental property is to transmit electrical signals

Other half is called - supporting ^{called} cells, which ^{nerve impulses} (stimuli)

- maintain & nourish the neurons.

Central Nervous System } controls the voluntary muscles of the body & is responsible for the movements of the sensations.

Neuron: - Refer mod: 3

- The basic functional unit of central nervous system

- it consists of a nucleated cell body & has several branches.

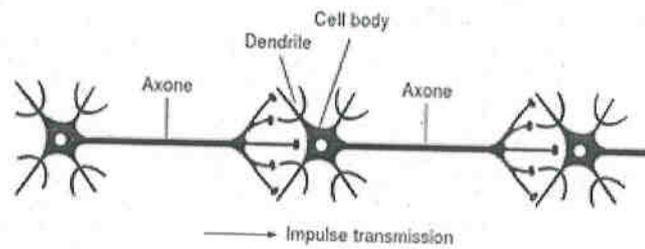
- The branches are called axone & dendrite.

* Dendrite:- normally conduct impulses towards cell body

* Axone:- conduct away from the body

- over all size of the neuron is mm to meter.

- Nervous system is the principal regulatory system.



Structure of the neuron and the phenomenon of impulse transmission

structure of neuron & phenomenon of impulse transmission.

BIOMEDICAL INSTRUMENTATION SYSTEM:

- The primary purpose of medical instrumentation is to measure (or) determine the presence of some physical quantity that may assist medical personnel to make better diagnosis & treatment.
- Any medical instrument consists of 4 basic components.

* Measurand:

The physical quantity (or) conditions that the instrumentation system measures is called measurand.

- Source for measurand is human body

** Transducer / Sensor:

Transducer:- Converts one form of energy to another.

- 1^o function of the transducer is to provide a usable output in response to the measurand.

Sensor:-

- Also used in medical instrumentation.
- Sensor converts physical measurand to an electrical signal.

*** Signal conditioner:

- converts o/p of transducer to an electrical quantity suitable for the operation of display (OR) recording system.

- may vary in complexity from simple resistor network to complex electronic circuit.

**** Display systems:

- visible representation of the quantity as a displacement on screen (or) chart of recorder.

The processed signal after signal conditioning may be passed on to

Alarm systems: - with upper & lower threshold to indicate when measurand goes beyond limits (protect)

Data storage: - to maintain data for future use. (reference)

Data Tx'n: - using std interface connections information obtained may be transmitted from one location to another.

Calibration: - is necessary at regular intervals.

- usually calibration signal applied to sensor o/p (OR) early in signal conditioning chain as possible.

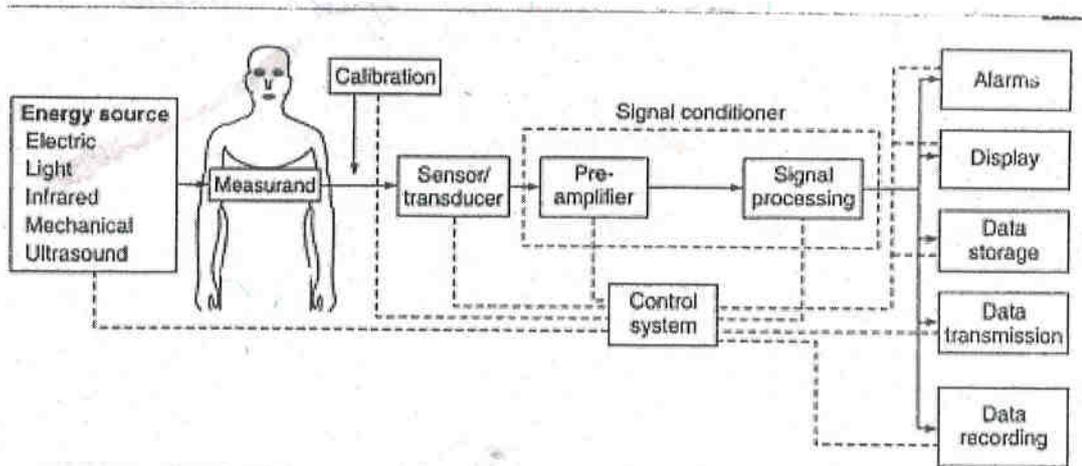
Measurements in medical field can be classified into two types *in vivo* and *in vitro*.

In vivo measurement: - made on (or) with in the living organism itself. ϵ

eg: pressure measurement in heart chamber

In vitro measurement: - performed outside the body

eg: blood glucose level measurement.



General block diagram of a medical instrumentation system:

SOURCE OF BIOELECTRIC POTENTIAL

03/08

Surrounding the cells of the body are body fluids, which are ionic & which provide a conducting medium for electric potential. The principal ions involved with the phenomena of producing cell potentials are Na^+ , K^+ and Cl^- .

The cell is surrounded by a semi permeable membrane, which act as a selective filter to the ions.

BIOELECTRIC POTENTIAL.

Certain systems of the body generates their own monitoring signals while carrying out their function. These signals are called bioelectric potentials.

These are generated due to nerve conduction, brain activity, heart beat, muscle activity.

Hence the ionic voltages produces as a result of electrochemical activity are known as bioelectric potential.

RESTING POTENTIAL:

In the normal state, the membrane of excitable cells readily permits the entry of K^+ & Cl^- ions, but ^{prevent} impedes the flow of Na^+ ions even though there may be very high concentration.

gradient of Na^+ ions across the cell membrane. This results in concentration of Na^+ ions more in the outside of cell membrane than on the inside. Since Na^+ is a +ve ion in its resting state, cell has a -ve charge ~~on~~ along the inner surface & +ve charge on the outer portions & this. The potential measured is called **Resting potential** (This unequal charge distribution is a result of certain electrochemical reactions).

- And the cell is said to be **polarized**. [The cell in the resting state is said to be polarized]
- Resting potential (membrane) is about -90mV.

ACTION POTENTIAL:

2.3.2. Action Potentials

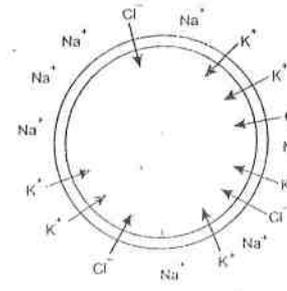
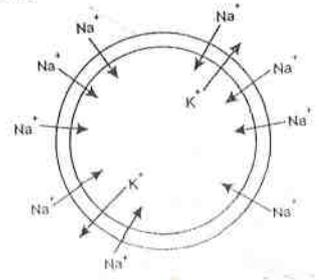


Fig. 2.3. (a) Nerve and muscle cells are encased in a semipermeable membrane. Sodium ions (Na^+) are unable to penetrate

Resting potential (Fig: 1)

Fig 1:- Action potential

(When the cell is excited, (or) stimulated (by the flow of ionic Cl^- (or) by some form externally applied energy), - the membrane change its character and begins to allow some of the sodium ions to enter. At the same time K^+ ions which were in higher concentration inside the cell during the resting state try to leave the cell. - As a result

The cell has a slightly +ve potential inside
— has due to imbalance of K^+ ions. This potential
is called action potential

When the cell is excited (or) stimulated, the
cell membrane begins to allow some of the Na^+
ions to enter. ~~As a~~ ^{As a} result the cell membrane is
momentarily -ve w.r. to interior. This potential is
called - ACTION POTENTIAL. And the cell is said to be
Depolarized.

- Action potential is approximately +20mV

- The process of changing from resting state to
action potential is called DEPOLARIZATION.

- By an active process called sodium pumps, the
sodium ions are quickly transported to outside of the
cell and the cell again becomes polarized and
resumes its resting potential. This process is called
REPOLARIZATION.

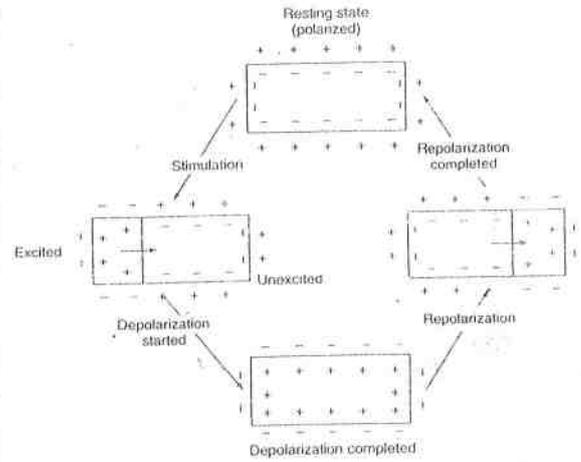
- Action potential is same always for any given cell.
This is known as all-or-nothing law

- Following the generation of an action potential
there is a brief period of time during which
the cell can't respond to any ^{new} stimulus. This period
is called ABSOLUTE REFRACTORY PERIOD

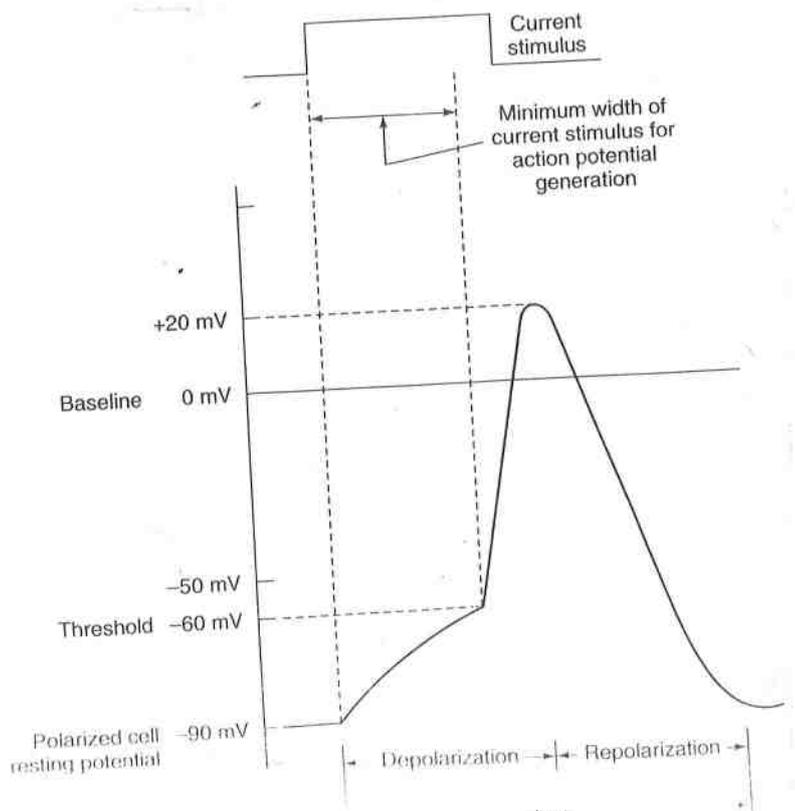
last for 1 msec in nerve cells.

~~Electrical activity associated with one contraction~~
~~is a muscle.~~

→ Following the absolute refractory period there occurs a Relative Refractory period during which another action potential can be triggered, but much stronger stimulation is required.
 - it lasts for several milliseconds.



> Fig. 2.2 Electrical activity associated with one contraction in a muscle



cell potential wave form.

PROPAGATION OF ACTION POTENTIAL:

When a cell is excited and generates an action potential, ionic currents begins to flow, this can in turn excite neighbouring cells (or) adjacent areas of the same cells.

In the case of nerve cells with a long fiber the action potential is generated over a very small segment of the fibers length but its propagated in both directions from the original pt. of excitation. As action potential travels down the fiber it can't reexcite the portion of the fiber immediately

~~The rate at which~~
upstream due to refractory period that follows action potential

- The rate at which action potential moves down a fiber (or) is propagated from cell to cells is called **propagation rate**.

- In nerve fibers the propagation rate is also called the **nerve conduction rate (or) conduction velocity**

- This velocity varies widely with type & diameter of the nerve fibers

- usual velocity range in nerves is from ~~20 to 140~~ 20 - 140 meters per second

- propagation in heart muscle is 0.2 to 0.4 m/sec

BIOELECTRIC POTENTIAL - [ECG, EEG, EMG, ERG, EOG
> EGG] -

wave forms ends with suffix - gram.

The instrument name ends with " - graph.

eg: Electro cardio gram \rightarrow wave form (heart)

Electro cardio graph \rightarrow Instrument.

ECG: - ELECTRO CARDIOGRAPH (details are in mod - II)

- The biopotential generated by the muscles of the heart results in ECG.

- (Explain cardiovascular system)

- **SA Node:** Each action potential in the heart originates near the top of the right atrium at a pt called

pacemaker or **Sinoatrial Node (SA Node)** act as pacemaker

- **pacemaker:** - is a gp of specialised cells that spontaneously generates action potentials at a regular rate.

- To initiate **heart beat**, the action potential generated by the pacemaker propagates in all directions along the surface of atria towards the junction of atria & ventricle.

- The wave originates at a pt near the centre of heart called **Atrioventricular node (AV Node)**
- Some spl fibers act as delay line to provide proper timing between the action of atria & ventricles
- Once the electrical excitation has passed the delay line it rapidly spreads to all parts of the both ventricles via the **bundle of His**
- The fibers in the bundle called **purkinje fiber** divided into two branches to initiate action potential in two ventricles.
- The wave front is the ventricle terminal at the tip (R) apex of heart.
- wave upto **depolarization** & **repolarization** occurs ≈ 0.2 to 0.4 second.

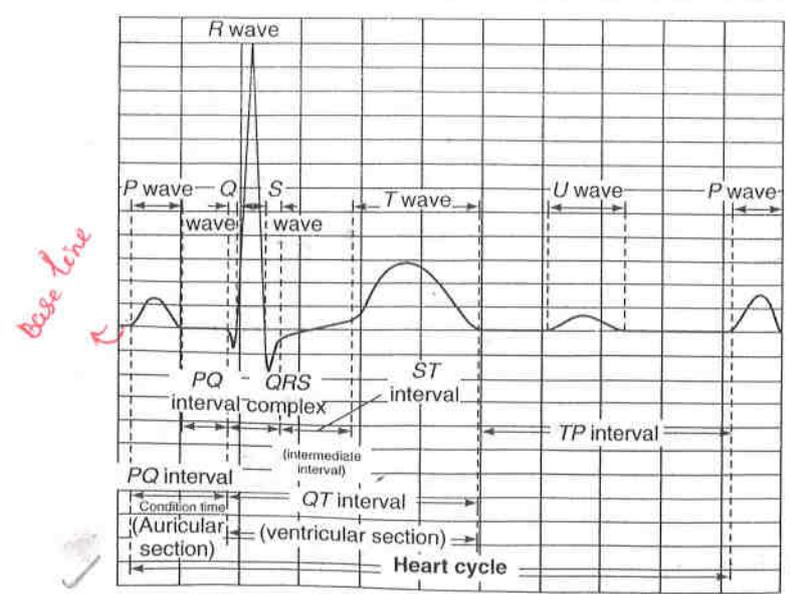


Fig. 2.4 Normal wave pattern of an ECG waveform recorded in the standard lead position

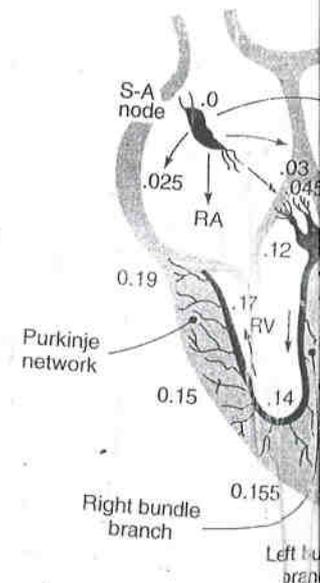


Fig. 2.3 The position of the sino-atrial node responsible for the electrical activity and the path of the impulse. Note: The numbers like 0.13, 0.155 are the time for the impulse to travel from the S-A node to the respective parts.

Electrocardiogram wave form (ECG)

ELECTRO ENCEPHALOGRAPH (EEG)

- Bio electric potential generated by the neuronal activity of the brain is called EEG.
- EEG varies with the location of measuring electrodes at the surface of the scalp.
- Neurons are electrically polarized at rest.
- Interior of the neuron is at a potential of -70mV relative to the exterior.
- When a neuron is excited with a stimulus above the threshold, a nerve impulse is generated which spreads in the cell resulting in the depolarization of the cell, then repolarization occurs.
- EEG signal is picked with electrodes either from the scalp or directly from the ~~ex~~ cortex.
- The ~~peak~~ amplitude of the waves from the scalp is normally 100 μ V & an exposed brain is about 1mV.
- Frequency range is 0.5 to 50 Hz
- EEG frequency range is classified into the following 5 bands for the purpose of analysis.

Delta (δ) - 0.5 - 4 Hz

Theta (θ) - 4 - 8 Hz

Alpha (α) - 8 - 13 Hz

Beta (β) - 13 - 22 Hz

Gamma (γ) - 22 - 30 Hz

Theta (θ) & Delta (δ): - strongest & indication of sleep.

Alpha (α): - drowsy person

- principal component of EEG

- its an indicator of state of ~~the~~ ALERTNESS of the brain

- an indicator of the depth of anaesthesia in the operating room.

- The frequency of the EEG seems to be

affected by the mental activity of a person

- α pattern is ~~produced~~ ^{generated} when a person is relaxed with their eyes closed. - form of synchronization

Beta (β): - Paradoxical sleep, Rapid eye movement (wakefulness)

- when a person is alert (or) begins thinking α disappears and is replaced by desynchronized

pattern.

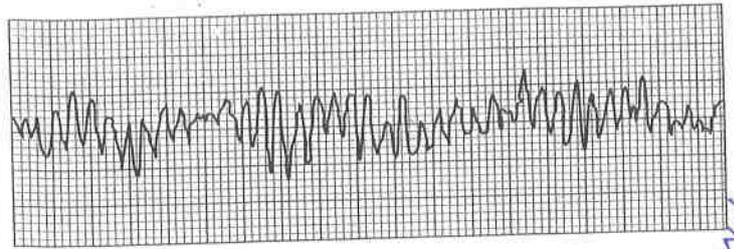
δ - gamma: - results from attention (or) sensory stimulation

- Another form of EEG measurement is evoked response

* This is a measure of the disturbance in the EEG pattern that results from external stimuli

Delta \Rightarrow Deep sleep

Theta \Rightarrow Fall asleep



> Fig. 2.5 Typical EEG signal waveform

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✓ ELECTROMYOGRAM (EMG).

- The bioelectric potential associated with muscle activity ~~results~~ constitute EMG.

- measured at the surface of the body near a muscle (or) directly from the muscle by penetra-

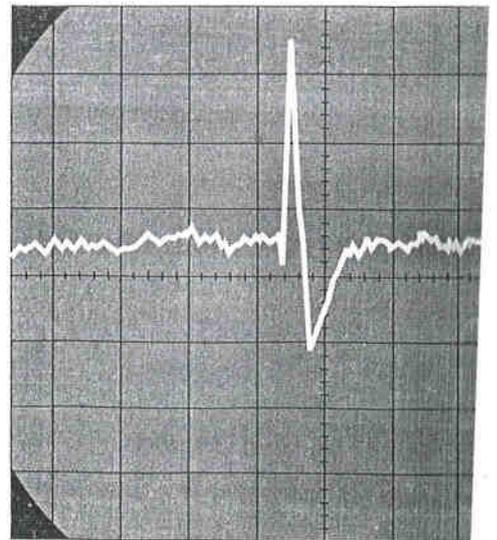
- ting the skin with needle electrodes.

- EMG electrodes picks up potentials from all muscles within the range of electrodes.

- Action potential of a given muscle has a fixed magnitude regardless of the intensity of the stimulus.

- Amplitude of EMG waveform is the instantaneous sum of all the action potentials generated at any given time.

- In a relaxed muscle there is no action potential



> Fig. 2.6 Waveshape of a typical

Emg wave form.

ELECTRORETINOGRAM (ERG)

- Bio-electrical potential obtained from retina of the eye (front & back of human eye).
- usually response to the visual stimulus

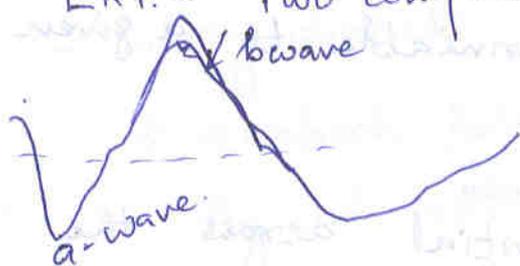
ELECTROOCULOGRAM (EOG)

- A measure of the variations in the corneal retinal potential as affected by the position & movement of the eye.

ELECTROGASTROGRAM (EGG)

- Associated with the peristaltic movements of the gastrointestinal tract.
- electric signals from stomach & intestines.

ERG! - Two components measured are a & b waves.



a-wave - is the first large ^{-ve} component followed by the b-wave which is corneal positive and usually larger in amplitude.

* when light falls on photo receptors outer portion of photo receptors becomes +ve and inner part become -ve.

* a-wave - reflects the potential of photo receptors in outer retina.

* b-wave - Reflects the functions of the inner layers of the retina.

ELECTRODE THEORY :- ~~NERNST~~

NERNST RELATION:

The interface of metallic ions in solution with their associated metals results in an electrical potential is called **Electrode potential**.

- This potential is the result of a diffusion rate difference of ions into & out of the metal.

- Another source of an electrode potential is the unequal exchange of ions across the membrane, which is semi permeable to a given ion.

- An equation relating the ^{electrode} potential across the membrane & the two concentrations of ions called the **Nernst equation**.

$$E = - \frac{RT}{nF} \ln \frac{C_1 F_1}{C_2 F_2}$$

at 25°C (room temp)
 $\frac{RT}{F}$ treated as const
25.693 mV

where
 $E \Rightarrow$ cell potential
 $R \Rightarrow$ gas constant 8.315×10^7 ergs/mole/°K
 $T \Rightarrow$ absolute temp: (degree kelvin)
 $n \Rightarrow$ value of the ions (no: of e^-)

$F \Rightarrow$ Faraday constant (96,500 Coulombs)
 $C_1, C_2 \Rightarrow$ two concentrations of ions on the two sides of membrane.

$f_1, f_2 \Rightarrow$ respective activity constant coeffnt: of the ion on the two sides of the membrane.

$f_1 \& f_2 \Rightarrow$ depend on charges of all ions in the solution.
& distance \propto ions.

^{product}
 $C_1 f_1 \Rightarrow$ activity of ions responsible for electrode potential.

Nernst Equation:

Electrode potential across the membrane is proportional to the log of the ratio of the activity of the subject ions on the two sides of the membrane.)

- In very dilute solution activity coeffnt $f \approx 1$ (unity)
& electrode potential is the function of the log of the ratio of the two concentrations.

BIO POTENTIAL ELECTRODES:

A wide variety of electrodes can be used to measure bio electric events, but basically there are 3 basic types.

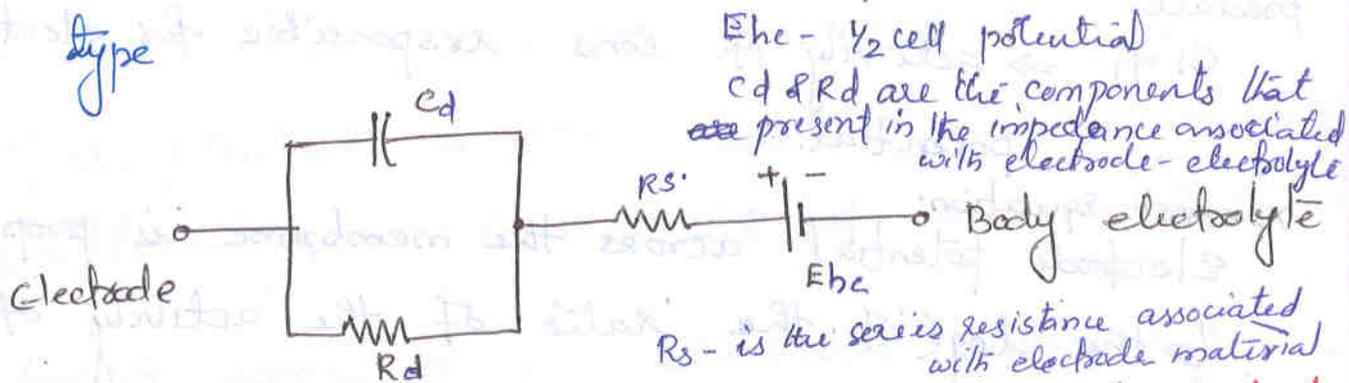
1* **Micro electrodes:** - used to measure biopotential near (or) with in a ~~single~~ single cell.

2* **skin surface electrodes:** used to measure ECG, EEG, EMG from the surface of the skin.

3* **Needle electrodes:** used to penetrate the skin to record ~~EEG~~ EEG from brain & EMG from spl: gp of muscles.

- All three types of biopotential electrodes have metal-electrolyte interface.

- The equivalent ckt of biopotential electrode in contact with body consists of a voltage in series with a resistance-capacitance network of the type



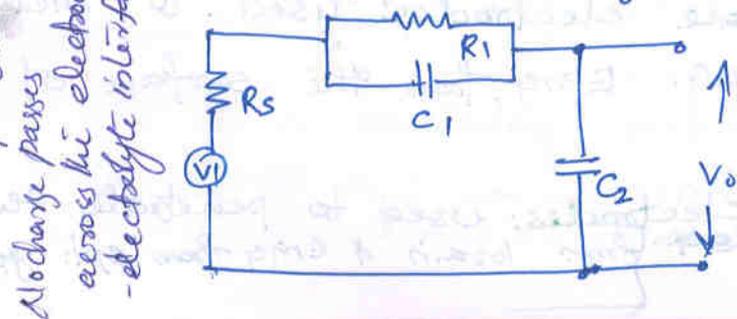
Equivalent ckt of bioelectric potential electrode interface.

- bioelectric potential is measured by the diff. of the instantaneous potential of the two electrodes.

it required two electrodes.

The dc voltage due to the difference in electrode potential is called electrode offset voltage

- Resistor R_1 & capacitor C_1 are the results of the effects at the electrode cell interface and are frequency dependant. These value fall off at the rate of $\frac{1}{(\omega R)^2}$ and are generally lower than R_s & C_2



* Equivalent ckt for bio-potential with two electrodes. (Ratky KTU Notes)
 * Polarized and non polarized Electrodes (Anand KTU Notes)
 * No charge passes across the electrode-electrolyte interface

* **Micro electrodes:** - To measure potential across the cell membrane

Refer
KTG
Notes

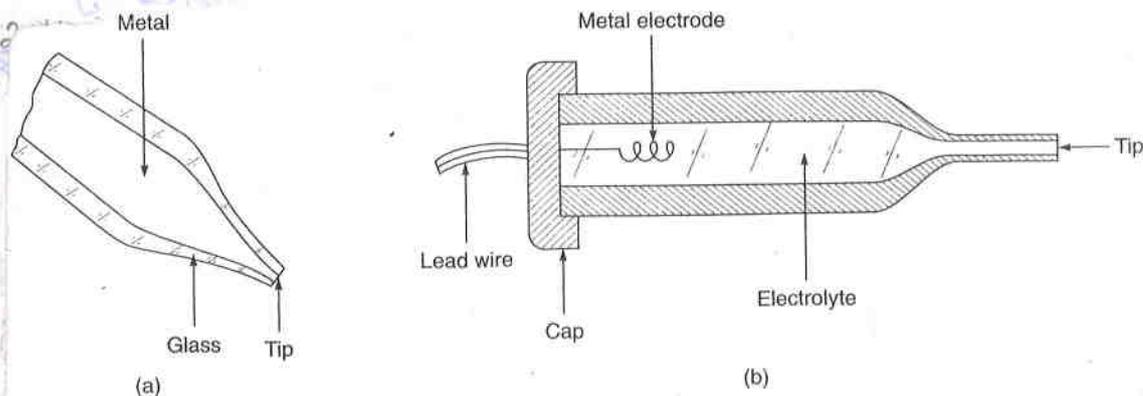
- electrodes with tips sufficiently small to penetrate single cell in order to obtain the reading from within the cell. It has very high impedance ($M\Omega$)
- Small surface area
- Two types

- * **metal** - Tip must be tungsten (OR) stainless steel
- ** **micro pipette** - it is glass micropipette with size of 1 micron, it is filled with electrolyte

Surface

Metal microelectrodes:

- are formed by electrolytically etching the tip of ~~the~~ a fine tungsten (OR) stainless steel wire to the desired size.
- The wire is coated with an insulating material (almost till tip).
- metal-ion interface takes place where the metal tip contacts the electrolytes either inside (OR) outside the cell.



✓ > Fig. 2.25 (a) Microelectrodes—metal microelectrodes
(b) Microelectrodes—micropipette or micro capillaries electrode

(a) M-metal micro electrodes

(b) micropipette - OR capillary

** Micropipette

- is a type of microelectrode in a glass micro pipette with tip drawn out to the desired size.
- micropipette is filled with an electrolyte compatible with the cellular fluids
- it has got dual interface.
 - one interface consists of a metal wire in contact with electrolyte solution inside the pipet.
 - other is the interface \times the electrolyte inside the pipet and the fluids inside (or) outside cells.

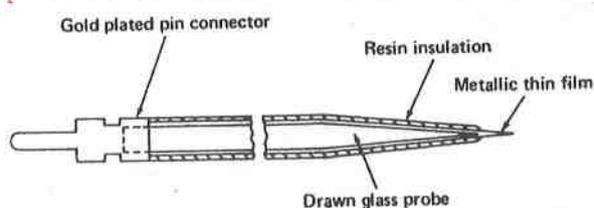


Figure 4.3. Commercial microelectrode with metal film on glass. (Courtesy of Transidyne General Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI.)

A commercial type of microelectrode is shown in Figure 4.3. In this electrode a thin film of precious metal is bonded to the outside of a drawn glass microelectrode. The manufacturer claims such advantages as lower impedance than the micropipet electrode, infinite shelf life, repeatable and reproducible performance, and easy cleaning and maintenance. The metal-electrolyte interface is between the metal film and the electrolyte of the cell.

Molarity $M \rightarrow$ is the concentration of solution expressed as the no. of moles of solute per liter of solution

Below Fig Shows

- Glass pipet is filled with a 3M solution of KCl & large end is capped with Ag-AgCl plug. The small end need not be capped.

- Reference electrode is filled with 3M KCl but is much larger than micro electrode. (compatible with cellular fluids)
- A platinum plug contains fluid on interface end, while Ag-AgCl plug caps at other end.

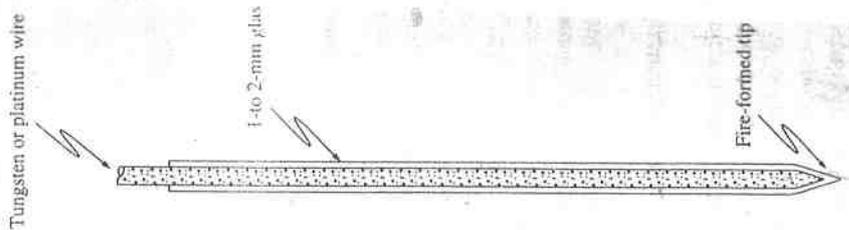
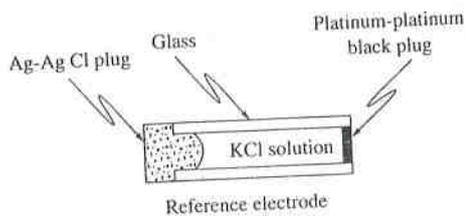
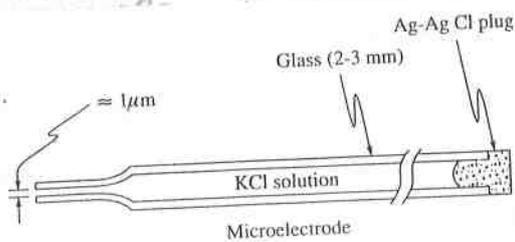


Figure 6-21
Fluid-filled microelectrode.

Figure 6-20
Glass-metal microelectrode.

glass-metal microelectrode:

Fluid Filled micro electrode:

** SKIN SURFACE ELECTRODES:

- are placed in contact with the skin of the subject
- surface electrodes vary ^{diameter} from 0.3 to 0.5 cm (1 cm range)
- Human skin impedance is higher than electrode impedance (0.5 k Ω to 20 k Ω \rightarrow skinny sweaty skin to dry skin)
- Surface electrode impedance are high impedance voltage source.

medical surface electrodes:

* Strap on variety :-

- oldest form of ECG electrodes.

- These are 1-2 square inches brass plates that are held in place by rubber straps.

- A conductive gel (or) paste is used to reduce the impedance \propto electrode & skin

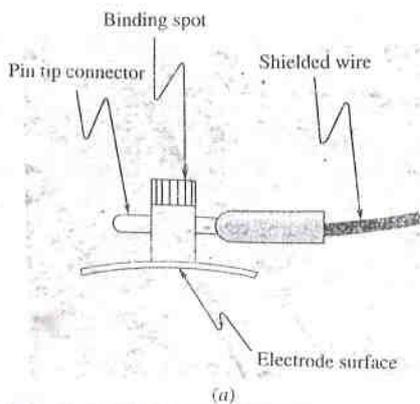
** Suction cup electrode :-

Refer
KJ Somaiya's

- A related form of ECG electrode is the suction cup electrode.

- This is used as a chest electrode in short-term ECG recording

- For long term recording (at ICU, coronary unit) we use paste on column electrodes.



strap-on electrode

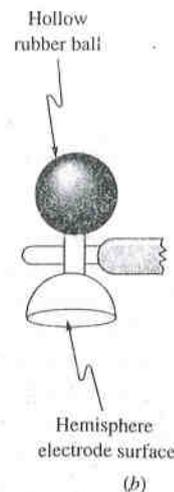


Figure 6-15
Typical ECG electrodes. (a) Strap-on electrode.
(b) Suction-cup electrode.

suction cup electrode

*** Column electrode:

- It consists of a silver-silver chloride metal contact button at the top of the hollow column
- it is filled with conductive gel (or) paste
- This assembly is placed or is held in place by an adhesive-coated foam rubber stick.
- The use of gel filled column reduces movement artifact.
- its preferred for monitoring hospitalized patients.
- often used in monitoring situations is the 3 electrode pad
- ~~size~~ These pads have surface area of 20-30 sq. in & containing 3 ECG electrodes. in a single packages.
- [2 differential single pick up electrodes & reference electrodes]
- its a temporary disposable unit.

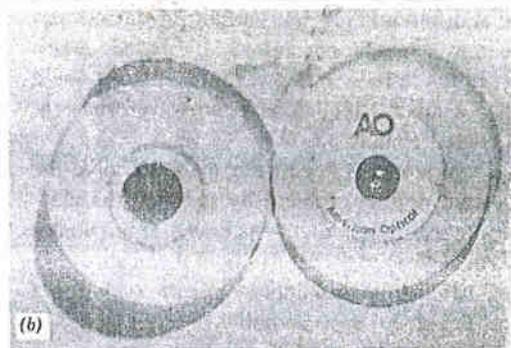
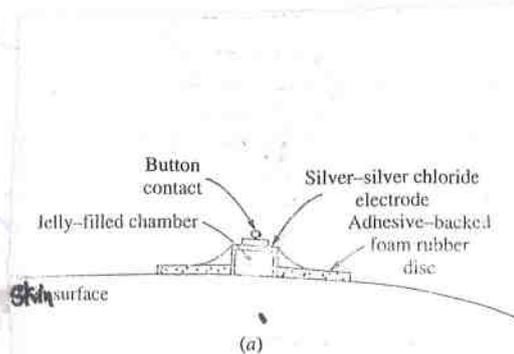


Figure 6-16

Column electrodes. (a) Cut-away side view. (b) A popular type of foam-backed column electrode.

column electrodes.

Problems with surface electrodes:

- problem with column electrodes is that the adhesive will not stick for long on sweaty (or) clammy skin surface.
- another problem is movement artifact which is generated by patient movements
- electrode slippage -

Results in ~~electrode~~ electrode impedance & offset voltage. This outward effect produces an artifact in recorded signal & this will be interpreted as a bio electric event in its own right

- This artifact problem can be overcome by securing electrodes more lightly to the patient's skin

- Another solution is use of rough surface electrode that dig in below the scaly outer layer of skin

*** Needle Electrodes:

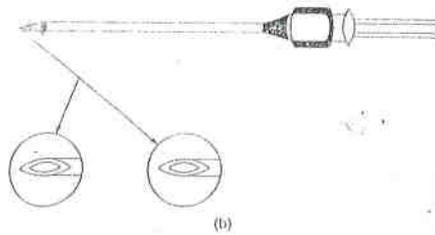
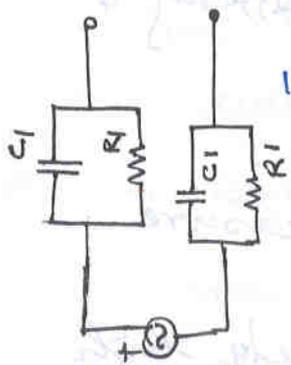
- it is inserted into the ~~skin~~ ^{immediately} tissue } below the skin by puncturing the skin at large oblique angle.
- used only for exceptionally poor skin, esp. anesthetized patients and in ventilatory situations
- the problem with this electrode is infection.

- so it should be sterilized or disposable

*** Indwelling electrodes:

- These electrodes are inserted into the body
- They are tiny exposed metallic contact at the end of a long insulated catheter
- Low ampl. high frequency features become visible only when this electrode is used
- Used to measure the intracardiac ECG waveform
- ECG electrode: may be a needle electrode.
- 1 cm diameter concave disc made either of gold (or) silver.
- disc is held in place by a thick paste that is highly conductive. (or) by a headband in certain monitoring appls.

Equivalent circuit of needle type ECG electrode pair



> Fig. 2.22 (a) Needle type EMG electrode
(b) Hypodermic needle type EMG electrode

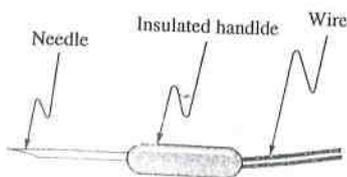


Figure 6-17

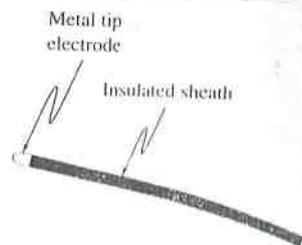


Figure 6-18

Needle electrode:

Indwelling electrodes.

INSTRUMENTATION FOR CLINICAL LABORATORY:

BIOPOTENTIAL AMPLIFIERS:

→ Amplifiers used to process biopotentials

are called biopotential amplifiers: bio electric amplifiers.

- It is used to rise the power level & also to provide the isolation. → Some are ac coupled and some are dc coupled

✓ ~~dc~~ coupled are used where the r/p signals are clearly dc (or) vary slowly.

✓ ac coupling amplifiers are used above 0.5 Hz.

→ Low gain amplifiers are those with gain factors between $\times 1$ & $\times 10$.

→ unity gain amplifiers are used for buffering & isolation.

→ Low gain amplifiers are used to measure action potentials and other relatively high amplitude bioelectric events

→ Medium gain amplifiers are those provide gain factors $\times \times 10$ & $\times 1000$

- and are used for recording of ECG waveforms and muscle potentials etc.

essential features: - amplification, rise power levels, isolate the load from source.
- measured signal should not be distorted. No electrical hazards.
Basic requirements: - voltage amplifiers, high impedance, minimum loading effect, minimum loading effect, Recording display, high gain.

- High gain amplrs have gain factors over $\times 1000$ & are used for EEG measurements (sensitive measurements)
- Two important parameters in bioelectric amplrs (esply in high gain & medium gain) are

Noise & DRIFT:

- ✓ DRIFT: - is the change in op signal caused by changes in operating temp.
- ✓ Noise: - Thermal noise generated in resistances & semiconductor devices.

* INSTRUMENTATION AMPLIFIER:-

- is a precision differential voltage gain device
- is having high gain & high i/p impedance
- It basically consist of three op-amps and 7 resistors.
- Basically connecting buffered amplr to a basic differential amplr makes an instrumentation amplr.
- A_1, A_2, A_3 are 3 op-amps, A_1 & A_2 are connected in non inverting follower configuration & A_3 is connected in differential amplr configuration.

- A_3 with 4 resistors \Rightarrow differential amplr:

- gain of A_3 is 1 (unity gain). $R_4 = R_5 = R_6 = R_7$.

- R_{var} (R_7) \Rightarrow varied to balance out any (common mode) C_{m} voltage.

- R_g (R_7) \Rightarrow to set the gain. using $v_0/v_1 - v_2 = 1 + a$.
 $a = R_g/R$

Refer to notes

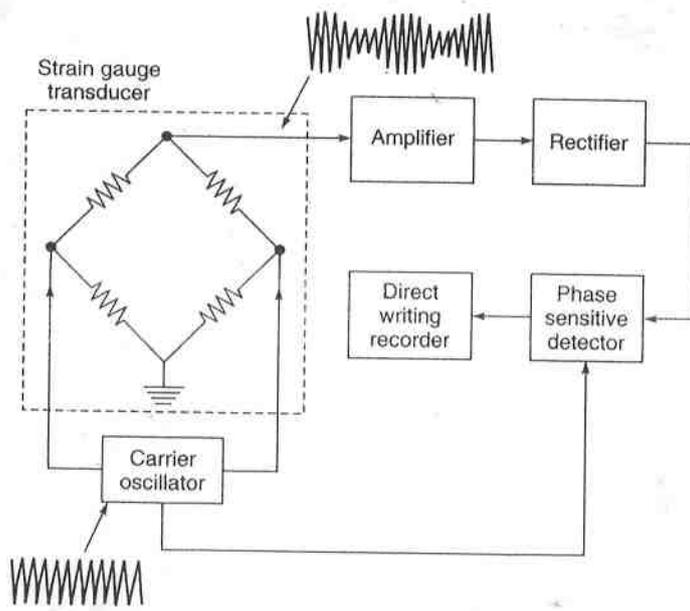
- Advantages:

- * extremely high i/p impedance
- * Low bias & offset current
- * Very high CMRR
- * High slew rate
- * Low power consumption.

eg: of instrumentation
amplr: in IC form are
ICL 7605, LH0036.

- * Ability to obtain high gain with low resistor value.

** Carrier amplifier:



> Fig. 4.6 Block diagram of carrier amplifier

Refer to T/O
Note

Carrier type amplr is generally used to obtain zero frequency response of dc amplr. & stability of capacitance coupled amplr

- it consists of an oscillator & capacitance coupled amplr.

- oscr: is used to energize the transducers with an alternating carrier voltage
- (Transducer which required ac excitation are have impedance which is not purely resistive) The information signal from the body electrodes reaches the transducer, where it is ampl: modulate with carrier signal from the carrier oscr
- Transducer shall change the amplitude of the carrier voltage in relation to the ~~ph~~ change in physiological variable being measured.
- o/p of the transducer would be an amplitude modulated signal (Am signal)
- modulated Am signal is fed to a 1st stage capacitance coupled amplr
- The first stage produces amplification of Am signal.
- 2nd stage produces is so constructed that it's responds to ^{the signal frequency components of carrier signal} carrier signal frequency only.
- further amplified in 3rd stage.
- (it can be amplified in following stages.)
- converted to Dc.
- After amplification, the signal is demodulated in phase sensitive demodulated ckt.

- This will help to extract amplified signal voltage after the ~~filter~~ ^{Rectifier} ~~ckt~~.
- demodulator o/p (produces a voltage) is applied to the driver stage of the writing system.
- carrier amplifiers are used in resistance strain gauge transducer
- when used with pressure gauges, calibration control is provided on the carrier amplifier.
- used to measure blood pressure from gap calibrated graphic recorder

* Lock in amplifiers

TYPE OF CARRIER AMPLIFIER

- ✓ is a useful variation of the carrier amplifier
- used for the measurement of low level signals buried in noise.

- it reduces wide band noise & increases SNR.

- ✓ Carrier amplifier: is a general purpose instrument amplifier & Lock in amplifier to measure signals in a noisy background.

- ✓ ~~the~~ Lock in amplifier works ~~by~~ on reference.

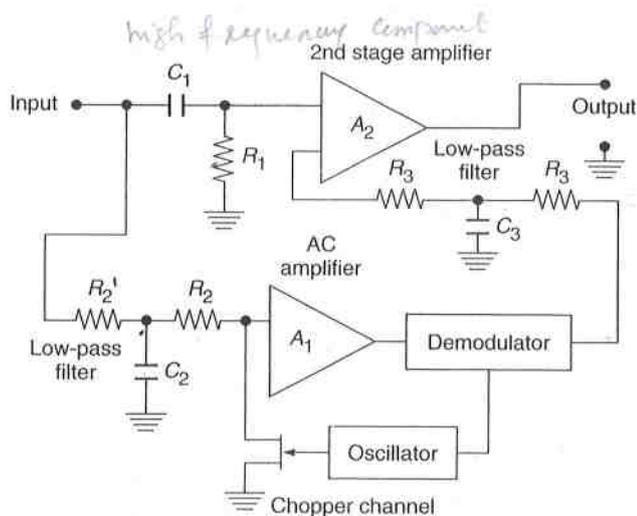
frequency

- ✓ Signal is modulated by the reference frequency in such a way that all desired data @

a single frequency (ei reference frequency) where as noise being broad banded is at all frequencies

- ✓ This permits the signal to be recovered from its noisy background.

*** CHOPPER AMPLIFIER:



> Fig. 4.7 Simplified block diagram of a single ended chopper-stabilized operational amplifier

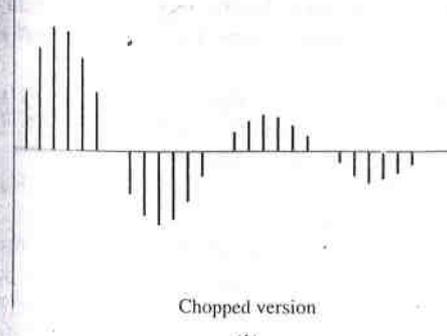
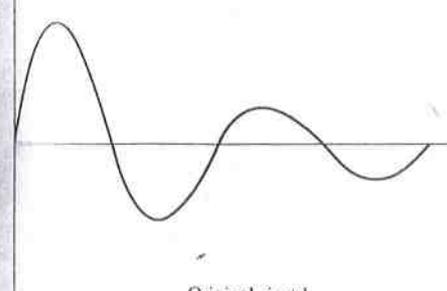
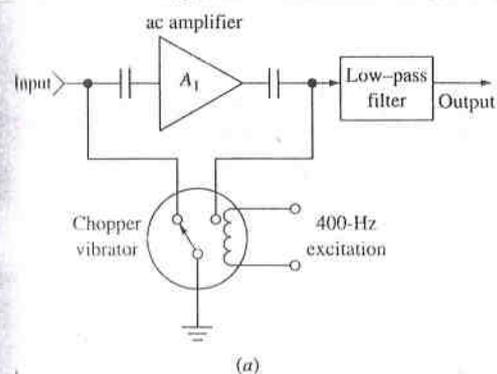


Figure 7-62 Chopper amplifier. (a) Simplified circuit. (b) Comparison of original and chopped waveforms.

→ 1. Two problems arise when one tries to record low level bio potentials - noise & drift.

→ 2. These problems are made worse by high gain amplifiers.

→ 3. This problem can be solved by converting dc to ac signal that will pass through the amplifier.

- chopper amplifier: uses a chopping device which converts slowly varying dc to ac form with amplitude proportional to the input direct current & with phase dependent on the polarity of the original signal.

- The alternating voltage is amplified by a conventional ac amplifier whose output is rectified back to get an amplified direct current.

→ 4. A chopper amplifier is an excellent device for signals of narrow bandwidth & reduces the drift problems.

→ 5. Most of chopper amplifiers use 400 Hz excitation signal.

→ 6. The chopper is a single pole double throw switch that grounds the amplifier input & output terminals on alternate swings of switch.

7. Figure 4.7 shows simplified blocks diagram of single-ended chopper stabilized amplifier.

- Its available in single ended and differential i/p Config.

8. This amplifier achieves low offset voltage and bias current by chopping low frequency components of i/p signal.

~~and then demodulating the o/p of the ac amplifier,~~

10. - and then amplifying chopped signal in an ac amplifier (A_1)

11. - and then demodulating the o/p of the ac amplifier.

12. The low frequency components in i/p signal are derived by passing it thr' a LPF.

$R_1, C_1, \& R_2$ constitute this LPF

- Chopping signal is generated by the oscillator.

- Filtered o/p is then amplified in the 2nd

13. stage of the dc amplifier (A_2).

- High frequency signals, are coupled directly to the 2nd stage of the amplifier.

14. - This will reduce the dc offset & drift of 2nd stage amplifier.

- The ac amplifier reduces the introduced no offset.
- The amplifier modules contain the chopper amplifier ch., ~~and~~ including switches & switch-driving oscilr unit built on the module, only the dc power is supplied externally.
- Total ckt noise ~~should~~ ^{can} be reduced by designing the feed back ^{nlw} and external wiring.
- if total BW of the amplifier is not required then feed back capacitor can be used to limit the overall bandwidth.
- sets shielding of feed back components is desirable in chopper amplifiers.
- Typical voltage drift is $0.14 \text{ V}/^\circ\text{C}$ & ct' drift is $0.5 \text{ pA}/^\circ\text{C}$.
- **Advantages** :-
 - * insensitive to component change due to aging, temp change, power supply
 - * provides gain stability. & # small offset voltage
 - * Low noise operation.
 - * gain is in the order of $\times 1000$ & over.
- used with thermocouples
- Used in medical field in amplification of small dc signals of a few microvolts.
- used in EEG amplifier and universal bioelectric amplifier.
- gain

*** ISOLATION AMPLIFIER: [iso-amp]

- It is used to ~~prevent~~ prevent accidental internal cardiac shock & also to prevent electrical shock hazards to patients.

- It provides $10^{12} \Omega$ of insulation \times patient connectors and ac power mains line cord.

- Basic design is shown in figure. (7-41)

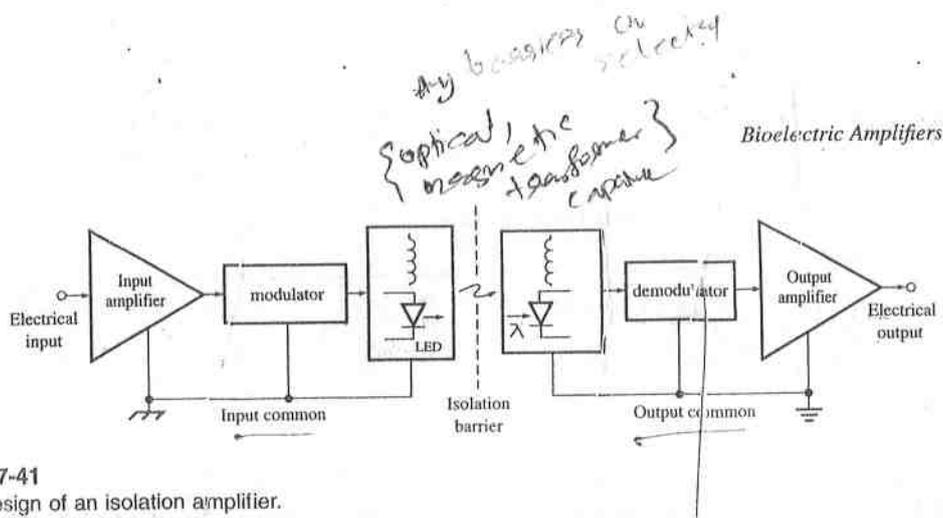


Figure 7-41 Basic design of an isolation amplifier.

- 3 types
- * Transformer isolation
- * optical
- * Capacitive isolation

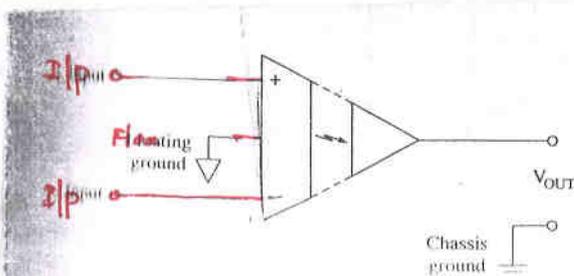


Figure 7-2 Symbol of iso-amp

- usually composed of
 - * an i/p amplifier
 - * some type of modulator
 - * isolation barrier
 - * a demodulator
 - * and an o/p amplifier.

- modulation schemes include amplitude, flyback loading, voltage to frequency, duty cycle, pulse width, and others.

- Barriers can be optical, magnetic transformers capacitive (or) even heat transfer

- Iso-amplifier is really an energy converter. electrical energy on modulator side is converted to some non electrically conductive energy in the barrier and then converted back to electrical energy on demodulator side.

- it operates on the principle of attenuation

- high barrier impedance acts in series with i/p & o/p.

- most of the noise is dropped across the barrier & very little add to the i/p.

- IMRR is isolation mode rejection ratio in V/V.

$$\text{IMRR} = \log^{-1} (\text{IMR}_{\text{dB}} / 20)$$

* it is the measure of how well the iso amp attenuates (or) rejects the IMV (isolation mode voltage)

- Isolation amplr serves 3 purposes.

* They amplify signal while passing ~~the~~ low leakage ct^l to prevent shock

* They with-stand high voltage to protect people; ckt & equipments

* They break ground loops to permit incompatible ckt to be interfaced together.

- used in ~~the~~ ECG recording

* OPTO ISO LATOR: (opto coupler)

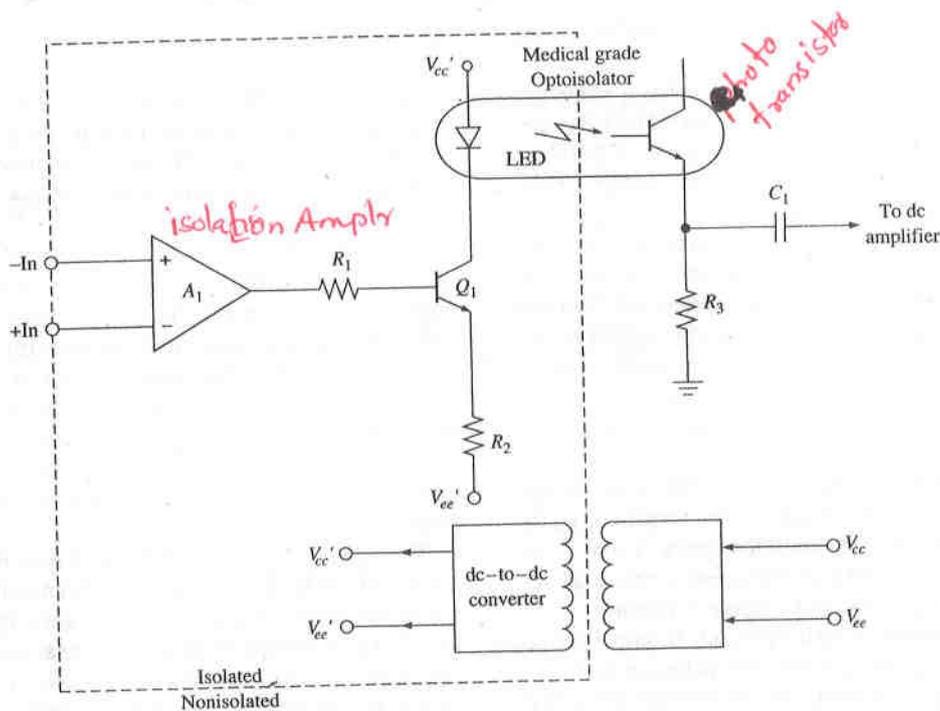


Figure 7-48
Optically coupled isolation amplifier.

- opto couplers are used to provide isolation

- It consist of an LED & a phototransistor sandwiched together

- LED in opto couplers is driven by the o/p of isolation amplt A₁
- The transistor Q₁ serves as a series switch to vary the light o/p of LED.
- which is proportional to analog signal from A₁
- Q₁ passes sufficient collector c't to bias LED.
- o/p of photo transistor is ac-coupled to the remaining amplt. on non isolated side of c't
- so that offset condition created by LED bias is eliminated.

Possible questions:

1. What is the need of microelectrodes.
2. What are resting & action potential? Give their chara & how they are propagated.
3. Explain the functional organization of nervous system.
4. Draw EEG wave forms with intervals & amplt.
5. Explain human circulatory system.
6. How isolation amplt. are used in biomedical equipments? Give its types: Explain carrier amplt. in detail.
7. Explain surface electrodes.
8. Explain chopper stabilized amplt. & Instrumentation amplt.
9. Explain EEG frequency band?
10. Biopotential electrodes?
11. With a neat diagram explain cardio-vascular system.
12. Explain EMG & ERG?