

In Vitro Demonstration of an SpO₂-Camera

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Abstract

Feasibility of pulse oximetry is examined using an in-vitro phantom, perfused with human blood by a heart-lung machine. 29 different oxygen saturation levels, measured with our experimental camera and a clinical pulse oximeter, were matched against laboratory blood gas analysis. Discrete transfer functions between measurements & laboratory values were derived for camera ($f_{CAM-LAB}$) & pulse oximeter ($f_{PULSE-LAB}$). 87 additional independent pulse oximeter & camera measurements were subjected to these functions to check reproducibility ($R^2 = 0.99$). To demonstrate imaging capacities, a dual reservoir was applied to image venous and arterial samples from 2 patients. Camera-derived vs laboratory arterial values were: 97.0% vs 99.5% (pat. 1, pH=7.41) & 97.5% vs 99.5% (pat. 2, pH=7.37). Venous results were: 86.5% vs 74.4% (pat. 1, pH=7.39) & 89.1% vs 86.2% (pat. 2, pH=7.34). In vitro pulse oximetry can visualize regions with different blood oxygenation.

1. Introduction

Commonly used clinical pulse oximeters produce a numerical value that is derived from photoplethysmographic (PPG) signals at 2 different wavelengths. The obtained oxygen saturation value is obtained from one particular contact site at the body. This can be interpreted as a contact image consisting of only one pixel. As a next step in oxygen-saturation measurement, we have suggested the development of an SpO₂ camera, involving the simultaneous non contact detection of a 2-dimensional matrix of spatially resolved PPG signals at 3 different wavelengths (660, 810 & 940 nm). The core of this method is to exploit the isobestic behaviour of Hb versus HbO₂ at 810 nm as a reference to correct for image artifacts like shadows, reflections and pigmentation [1]. In previous work we demonstrated that the PPG signals, needed to achieve this goal, indeed can contactless be derived from the human body, but the obtained signal-to-noise conditions were yet insufficient

to calculate meaningful SpO₂ values [2]. An approach with alternately sampled PPG signals at 2 wavelengths by Humphreys *et al.* confirms that tissue-derived PPGs look feasible for calculating SpO₂-images [3].

2. Methods

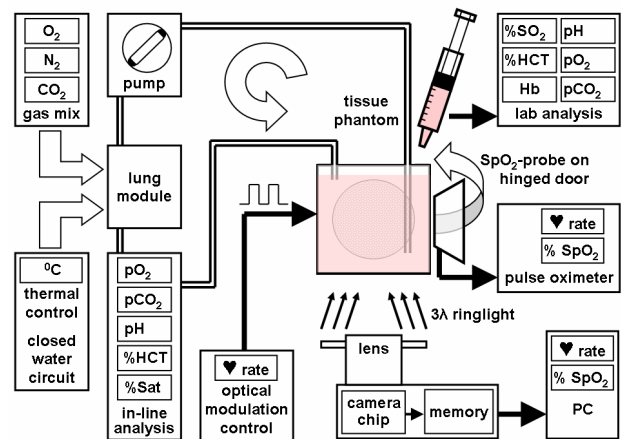


Fig. 1: Setup for triangular comparison of laboratory blood gas analysis, pulse oximetry and camera-derived oximetry on an experimental in-vitro phantom. See figure 3 for the results.

Using a variable O₂/CO₂/N₂ gas mixture a heart-lung machine with in-line monitoring of pH, pO₂ and pCO₂ and derived SpO₂ was used to precondition 3 blood pools, aiming for oxygen saturation setpoints of: 98, 96, 94, 92, 90, 88, 85, 80 and 75%. The CO₂ level was adjusted to keep pH 7.35±0.05. The conditioned blood circulated through an in vitro phantom consisting of 3 assemblies:

1) A 0.5 mm thick translucent layer of DelrinTM (polyoxymethylene with 20% glassfiber filling) which forms a reasonable optical approximation of human skin at wavelengths > 600nm [4]. Adjacent to the DelrinTM layer, a SpectralonTM target (Labsphere, North Sutton, USA) with > 99% reflectance from 400-1500 nm, a carbon black target with < 1% reflectance from 400-1000 nm and a printed gray-scale were attached for image quality control purposes. A pulse oximeter probe (Nellcor

R-15) was mounted on a small hinged door to allow reproducible placement to the Delrin™ front layer.

2) An electrically controllable spectrally neutral LCD-shutter device (Anteryon, Eindhoven, the Netherlands), capable of switching between clear transparent and white diffuse optical state, served as an optical modulator to simulate arterial PPG. The LCD-shutter was fixed at the backside of the translucent Delrin™ layer. LCD-shutter on/off was controlled by a 50% duty-cycle 0-5V block wave from a 33250A digital waveform generator (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California USA).

3) A small blood reservoir, consisting of a CLS3055 polystyrene cell culture flask (Corning, Schiphol-Rijk, the Netherlands) positioned at the backside of the LCD-shutter. Via two luer lock connectors this flask was fitted to the artificial blood circulation.

The above described translucent Delrin layer, LCD-shutter and blood reservoir as well as the camera and pulse oximeter probe at the hinged door, were placed together in a light tight enclosure with a side access light tight hatch door. For each setpoint, a monochrome CMOS-camera (Fillfactory, Belgium) with apochromatic lens (at 22cm distance from the phantom) and 3λ-LED-ringlight (100LEDs λ⁻¹) sequentially recorded 3λ-movie-sets of the phantom at 60, 80, 100 and 120 beats min⁻¹, followed by reflectance mode pulse oximetry (Nellcor N200). Each acquisition at 120 beats min⁻¹ was followed by laboratory blood gas analysis (Radiometer ABL725), which formed the gold standard. All in-line analysis instruments were only used to verify whether setpoints had reached a stable value.

Pulse oximeter values for oxygen saturation were directly read from the display. As for the camera, each 3λ-set of ROI-pixel-time-traces was processed to calculate the blood oxygen saturation related ratio-of-ratios value. First of all, for each wavelength and all ROI-pixel-time-traces (S_λ) the difference between the mean high plateau and mean low plateau value of the block wave (AC component) was determined by $AC_\lambda = S_{\lambda,high} - S_{\lambda,low}$ resulting in distinct AC “peak-to-valley” values for $\lambda = 660, 810$ and 940 nm.

The DC component DC_λ was defined as the mean value of S_λ over all 160 recorded frames.

These values were used to calculate the so-called ratio-of-ratios R for 660 nm and 940 nm:

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

We applied the ratio-of-ratios method to likewise find:

$$R_{660/810} = \frac{\frac{AC_{660}}{DC_{660}}}{\frac{AC_{810}}{DC_{810}}} \quad \text{and} \quad R_{940/810} = \frac{\frac{AC_{940}}{DC_{940}}}{\frac{AC_{810}}{DC_{810}}}$$

The values obtained at all setpoints for the ratio-of-ratios $R_{660/940}$, $R_{660/810}$ and $R_{810/940}$ respectively, were compared to the pulse oximeter SaO₂ readings and to the lab-derived SO₂ values.

By subjecting all individual ROIs for which a valid heart rate was determined to $f_{CAM-LAB}$ and assigning a false color scale to the results, oxigrams obtained at several oxygenation settings could be superimposed upon the oxygen independent 810 nm greyscale image.

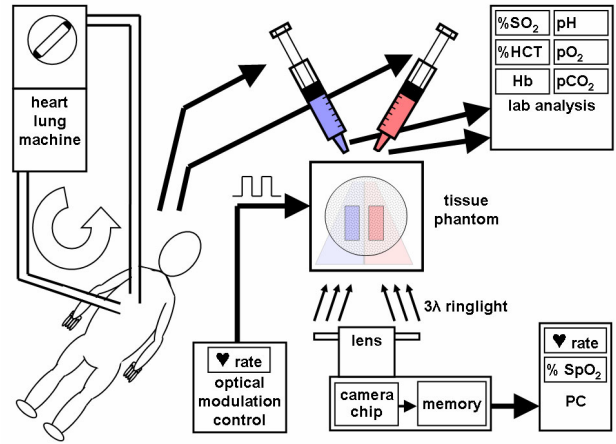


Fig. 2: Additional experiment with dual chamber phantom using venous & arterial blood samples from patients, to demonstrate SpO₂-imaging. For the resulting SpO₂-image see figure 4.

An additional experimental setup to demonstrate the cameras’ imaging capacities is shown in figure 2. The phantom was equipped with a dual-chambered blood reservoir and modified so that two discrete PPG regions resulted. Venous and arterial blood samples (30 ml each) were collected from stable patients (n=2) during extracorporeal perfusion. 25 ml of each sample was injected in the venous, resp. arterial blood reservoir and 5 ml was immediately analyzed in the laboratory.

3. Results

The setup of figure 1 produced camera-derived results having monotone and reproducible relations with pulse oximetry and laboratory values (see upper half fig. 3).

Pulse oximeter readings decreased about a factor 4 steeper than laboratory values when lowering the saturation setpoint (see lower half fig. 3).

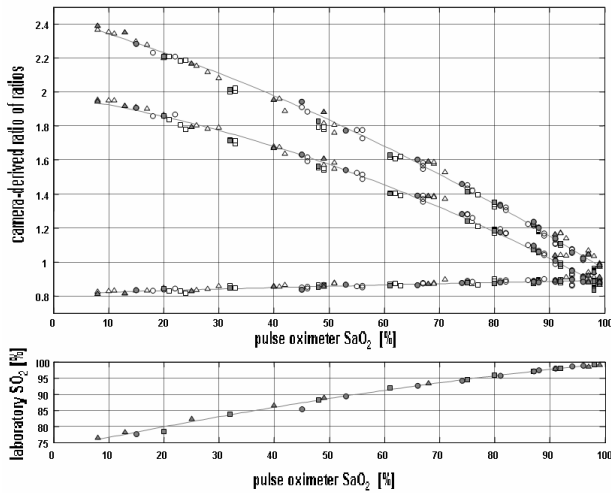


Fig. 3: The top graph shows the relation between camera derived data and pulse oximetry. The vertical axis represents the dimensionless values of $\overline{R_{660/940}}$ (top trace), $\overline{R_{660/810}}$ (middle trace) and $\overline{R_{810/940}}$ (bottom trace). The horizontal axis represents pulse oximeter SaO_2 readings. Third-order least-squares spline approximation is fitted through 29 observations of $\overline{R_{660/940}}$, $\overline{R_{660/810}}$ & $\overline{R_{810/940}}$ having corresponding lab values. The lower graph shows phantom transfer function $f_{\text{PULSE-LAB}}$. Here also pulse oximeter SaO_2 readings form the horizontal axis, but the vertical axis represents the “gold standard” lab-derived SO_2 -value. The 3 different blood pools are indicated using circular, triangular and square markers, whereas filled-up markers indicate points for which also a lab value exists.

The $R_{660/940}$ pixel matrix filmed with the figure 2 setup was subjected to $f_{\text{CAM-LAB}}$ and a false color scale value (red = high saturation; blue = low saturation) was assigned to each ROI-pixel with sufficient PPG amplitude. The resulting images (proposed term “pulse oxigrams”) clearly revealed distinct arterial and venous phantom regions (see figure 4).

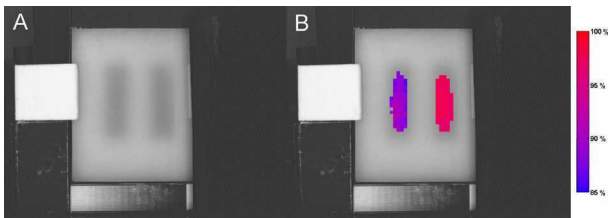


Fig. 4: NIR 810nm reference (A) and pulse oxigram (B) of a dual chamber phantom filled with human blood (L venous; R arterial). The naked eye could hardly see through the diffuser.

Camera-derived arterial saturations vs lab results were: 97.0% vs 99.5% (pat1, pH=7.41) & 97.5% vs 99.5% (pat2, pH=7.37). Venous results were: 86.5% vs 74.4% (pat1, pH=7.39) & 89.1% vs 86.2% (pat2, pH=7.34).

4. Discussion and conclusions

The processing algorithm was applied to the whole image, discriminating PPGs well against the background.

Within the arterial phantom region, deviations in oxygen saturation (camera-derived minus laboratory value) were relatively small (-2.5% & -2.0%), and the camera slightly underestimated saturation. Within the venous phantom region, however, the camera overestimated saturation (+12.1% & +2.9%).

The reason for the relatively large deviation between the camera-derived and laboratory results for the venous region of patient 1 may be that here venous saturation was beyond the range for which transfer function $f_{\text{CAM-LAB}}$ had been derived. However, results are also likely to be influenced by geometrical differences in the dual chamber phantom compared to the single chamber phantom as used to derive $f_{\text{CAM-LAB}}$.

Pulse oxigraphy using the ratio-of-ratios method can visualize differences in geometrical distribution of blood oxygen levels in-vitro, but needs further improvements.

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