

# Pulse Oximetry

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## 1 Oxygen content

The circulatory system distributes oxygen ( $O_2$ ) throughout the body. The amount of  $O_2$  at any given point is measured by the  $O_2$  content ( $Co_{O_2}$ ), usually given in  $\frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood}}$  (BTP is my acronym for body temperature and pressure). Most transported  $O_2$  is bound to **hemoglobin** (Hb), but there is also free  $O_2$  dissolved directly in the plasma and cytoplasm of suspended cells.

$$Co_{O_2} = a [Hb] S_{O_2} + b P_{O_2}, \quad (1)$$

where  $S_{O_2}$  is the Hb's  $O_2$  saturation and  $P_{O_2}$  is the  $O_2$  partial pressure. Don't worry about the coefficients  $a$  and  $b$  yet, we'll get back to them in a second.

The amount of dissolved  $O_2$  is given by its **partial pressure** ( $P_{O_2}$ ). Partial pressures are generally given in mm of mercury (Hg) at standard temperature and pressure (**STP**). Because the partial pressure changes as blood flows through the body, an additional specifier  $i$  may be added ( $P_{iO_2}$ ) to clarify the measurement location.

$i$	Full symbol	Location descriptor
a	$Pa_{O_2}$	arterial
p	$Pp_{O_2}$	peripheral or pulsatile
t	$Pt_{O_2}$	tissue
v	$Pv_{O_2}$	venous

$O_2$  is carried in the blood primarily through binding to hemoglobin monomers (Hb), with each monomer potentially binding a single  $O_2$ . Oxygen saturation ( $S_{O_2}$ ) is the fraction of hemoglobin monomers (Hb) that have bound an oxygen molecule ( $O_2$ ).

$$S_{O_2} = \frac{[HbO_2]}{[Hb]}. \quad (2)$$

$S_{O_2}$ , as a ratio of concentrations, is unitless. It is often expressed as a percentage.  $[Hb]$  is often given in g/dL. As with partial pressures, an additional specifier  $i$  may be added ( $S_{iO_2}$ ) to clarify the measurement location ( $Sa_{O_2}$ ,  $Sp_{O_2}$ , ...).

Now we can take a second look at our  $O_2$  content formula (Eq. 1). The coefficient  $a$  must convert g/dL to  $\frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood}}$ . Using the molecular weight of Hb and the **volume of a mole of ideal gas at STP**.

$$[Hb] = \chi \frac{g \text{ Hb}}{dL} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ mol Hb}}{17 \text{ kg Hb}} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ mol } O_2}{1 \text{ mol Hb}} \cdot \frac{22.4 \text{ L ideal gas}}{1 \text{ mol ideal gas}} \quad (3)$$

$$= 1.32 \frac{mL O_2}{g \text{ Hb}} \cdot \chi \quad (4)$$

where  $\chi$  is a pure number. Therefore,  $a = 1.32 \frac{mL O_2}{g \text{ Hb}}$ . The powers that be seem to have used a slightly different STP, since the more commonly used value is 5% higher at 1.39.

The coefficient  $b$  must convert mm Hg at STP to  $\frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood}}$ . Empirical experiments (?) give a value of  $b = 0.003 \frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood} \cdot \text{mm Hg at STP}}$ . Now we can write out the familiar form

$$Co_{O_2} = 1.39 \frac{mL O_2}{g \text{ Hb}} [Hb] S_{O_2} + 0.003 \frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood} \cdot \text{mm Hg at STP}} P_{O_2}. \quad (5)$$

Reasonable levels are

$[Hb]$	$14 \frac{g \text{ Hb}}{dL \text{ blood}}$
$S_{O_2}$	98%
$P_{O_2}$	100 mm Hg at STP
$1.39 \frac{mL O_2}{g \text{ Hb}} [Hb] S_{O_2}$	$19.1 \frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood}}$
$0.003 \frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood} \cdot \text{mm Hg at STP}} P_{O_2}$	$0.299 \frac{mL O_2 \text{ at BTP}}{dL \text{ blood}}$

Because the dissolved  $O_2$  has such a tiny contribution (1.5% of the total in my example), it is often measured at BTP rather than STP. Sometimes it is dropped from the calculation entirely. We focus on the more important  $[Hb]S_{O_2}$  in the next section.

## 2 Oxygen saturation

The preceding discussion used  $[Hb]S_{O_2}$  to represent the concentration of  $HbO_2$  complexes (Eqs. 2 and 5). This was useful while we were getting our bearings, but now we will replace that term with a more detailed model. Let us sort the Hb monomers into species

Hb	all hemoglobin monomers
$HbO_2$	monomers complexed with $O_2$
HHb	reduced Hb (not complexed with $O_2$ )
dysHb	dys-hemoglobin (cannot complex with $O_2$ )
MHb	methemoglobin
HbCO	carboxyhemoglobin

These species are related as follows

$$[Hb] = [HbO_2] + [HHb] + [dysHb] \quad (6)$$

$$[dysHb] = [MHb] + [HbCO] + \text{other broken forms} \quad (7)$$

Because modern two-color pulse-oximeters don't measure  $S_{O_2}$  exactly, the related quantity that they *do* measure has been given a name of its own: the *functional* saturation ( $S_{fO_2}$ ).

$$S_{fO_2} = \frac{[HbO_2]}{[HbO_2] + [HHb]} \quad (8)$$

Rephrasing our earlier saturation in Eq. 2, we see

$$S_{O_2} = \frac{[HbO_2]}{[Hb]} = \frac{[HbO_2]}{[HbO_2] + [HHb] + [dysHb]} \quad (9)$$

To avoid confusion with  $S_{fO_2}$ , our original  $S_{O_2}$  is sometimes referred to as the *fractional* saturation.

## 3 The Beer-Lambert law

So far we've been labeling and defining attributes of the blood. The point of this exercise is to understand how a pulse oximeter measures them. People have known for a while that different hemoglobin complexes ( $HbO$ , HHb, MHb, HbCO, ...) have different absorption spectra (Fig. 1), and they have been using this difference since the 1930's to make pulse-oximeters based on two-color transmittance measurements<sup>1</sup>.

By passing different wavelengths of light through perfused tissue, we can measure the relative quantities of the different Hb species. The basis for this analysis comes from the **Beer-Lambert law**

$$I = I_0 e^{-c\epsilon L}, \quad (10)$$

where  $I_0$  is the incident intensity (entering the tissue),  $I$  is the transmitted intensity (leaving the tissue),  $c$  is the tissue density (concentration),  $\epsilon$  is the extinction coefficient (molar absorptivity), and  $L$  is the tissue thickness. Rephrasing the math as English, this means that the intensity drops off exponentially as you pass through the tissue, and more tissue (higher  $c$  or  $L$ ) or more opaque tissue (higher  $\epsilon$ ) mean you'll get less light out the far side. This is a very simple law, and the price of the simplicity is that it brushes all sorts of things under the rug. Still, it will help give us a basic idea of what is going on in a pulse-oximeter.

Rather than treat the tissue as a single substance, let's use the Beer-Lambert law on a mixture of substances with concentrations  $c_1, c_2, \dots$  and extinction coefficients  $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots$

$$I = I_0 e^{-(c_1\epsilon_1 + c_2\epsilon_2 + \dots)L} \quad (11)$$

We also notice that the intensities and extinction coefficients may all depend on the wavelength of light  $\lambda$ , so we should really write

$$I_\lambda = I_{0\lambda} e^{-(c_1\epsilon_{1\lambda} + c_2\epsilon_{2\lambda} + \dots)L} \quad (12)$$

## HEMOGLOBIN EXTINCTION CURVES

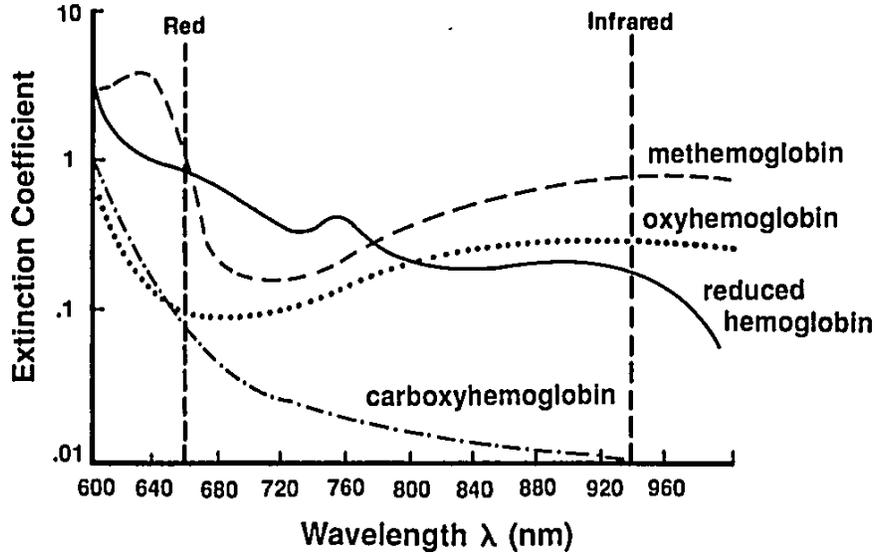


Figure 1: Absorbance spectra for assorted hemoglobin species<sup>1</sup>.

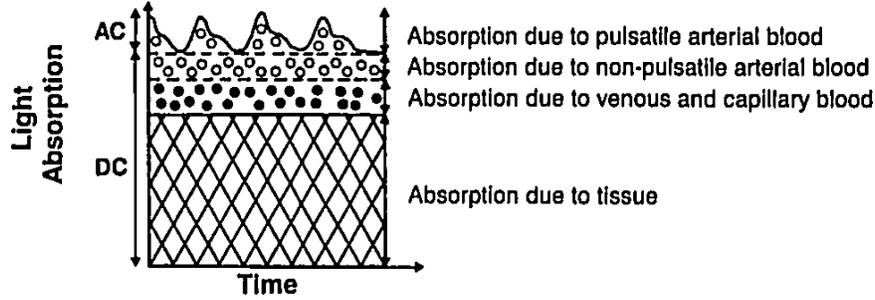


Figure 2: AC and DC transmission components<sup>1</sup>.

Once isolated, a simple spectroscopy experiment can measure the extinction coefficient  $\epsilon_{i\lambda}$  of a given species across a range of  $\lambda$ , and this has been done for all of our common Hb flavors. We need to play with Eq. 12 to find a way to extract the unknown concentrations, which we can then use to calculate the  $S_{O_2}$  (Eqs. 8 and 9) which we can use in turn to calculate  $Co_{O_2}$  (Eq. 5).

Note that by increasing the number of LEDs (adding new  $\lambda$ ) we increase the number of constraints on the unknown  $c_i$ . A traditional pulse-oximeter uses two LEDs, at 660 nm and 940 nm, to measure  $S_{fO_2}$  (related to  $[HbO_2]$  and  $[HHb]$ ). More recent designs called **pulse CO-oximeters** use more wavelengths to allow measurement of quantities related to additional species (approaching the end goal of measuring  $S_{O_2}$ ).

Let us deal with the fact that there is a lot of stuff absorbing light that is not arterial blood (e.g. venous blood, other tissue, bone, etc). The good thing about this stuff is that it's just sitting there or moving through in a smooth fashion. Arterial blood is the only thing that's pulsing (Fig. 2).

During a pulse, the pressure in the finger increases and non-arterial tissue is compressed, changing  $L$  and  $c_i$  from their trough values to peak values  $L'$  and  $c'_i$ . Since the finger is big, the fractional change in width  $dL/L = (L' - L)/L$  is very small. Assuming the change in concentration is even smaller (since most liquids are fairly incompressible), we have

$$\frac{dI_\lambda}{dL} = \frac{d}{dL} \left( I_{0\lambda} e^{-(c_1\epsilon_{1\lambda} + c_2\epsilon_{2\lambda} + \dots)L} \right) = \frac{d}{dL} (I_{0\lambda} e^{-XL}) = -XI_{0\lambda} e^{-XL} = -XI_\lambda \quad (13)$$

$$\frac{dI_\lambda}{I_\lambda} = -XdL, \quad (14)$$

where  $X = c_1\epsilon_{1\lambda} + c_2\epsilon_{2\lambda} + \dots$  is just a placeholder to reduce clutter.  $dI_\lambda$  is the AC amplitude (height of wiggle top of the

detected light intensity due to pulsatile arterial blood), while  $I_\lambda$  is the DC amplitude (height of the static base of the detected light intensity due to everything else). This is actually a fairly sneaky step, because if we can also use it to drop the DC components. Because we've assumed fixed concentrations (incompressible fluids), and there is no more DC material coming in during a pulse (by definition), we can pull out the effective  $L$  for the DC components does not change. Separating the DC and AC components and running through the derivative again, we have

$$\frac{dI_\lambda}{dL} = \frac{d}{dL} \left( I_{0\lambda} e^{-(c_{DC1\lambda}\epsilon_{DC1\lambda} + c_{DC2\lambda}\epsilon_{DC2\lambda} + \dots)L_{DC} - (c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1\lambda} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2\lambda} + \dots)L} \right) \quad (15)$$

$$= I_{0\lambda} e^{-(c_{DC1\lambda}\epsilon_{DC1\lambda} + c_{DC2\lambda}\epsilon_{DC2\lambda} + \dots)L_{DC}} \frac{d}{dL} \left( e^{-(c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1\lambda} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2\lambda} + \dots)L} \right) \quad (16)$$

$$= I_{0\lambda} Y \frac{d}{dL} (e^{-ZL}) = -Z I_{0\lambda} Y e^{-ZL} = -Z I_\lambda \quad (17)$$

$$\frac{dI_\lambda}{I_\lambda} = -Z dL, \quad (18)$$

where  $Y = e^{-(c_{DC1\lambda}\epsilon_{DC1\lambda} + c_{DC2\lambda}\epsilon_{DC2\lambda} + \dots)L_{DC}}$  and  $Z = c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1\lambda} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2\lambda} + \dots$  are just placeholders to reduce clutter. Note that Eq. 18 looks just like Eq. 14 with the translation  $X \rightarrow Z$ . This means that if we stick to using the AC-DC intensity ratio ( $\frac{dI_\lambda}{I_\lambda}$ ) we can forget about the DC contribution completely<sup>1</sup>.

Taking a ratio of these amplitudes at two different wavelengths, we get optical density ratio

$$R = \frac{\frac{AC_{660}}{DC_{660}}}{\frac{AC_{940}}{DC_{940}}} = \frac{\frac{dI_{660}}{I_{660}}}{\frac{dI_{940}}{I_{940}}} = \frac{-Z_{660}dL}{-Z_{940}dL} = \frac{Z_{660}}{Z_{940}}, \quad (19)$$

because  $dL$  (the amount of finger expansion during a pulse) obviously doesn't depend on the color light you are using ;). Plugging back in for  $Z$ ,

$$R = \frac{c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,660} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,940} + \dots}{c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,940} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,940} + \dots}. \quad (20)$$

Assuming, for now, that there are only two species of Hb, HbO<sub>2</sub> and HHb, we can solve for  $c_{AC1}/c_{AC2}$ .

$$R = \frac{c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,660} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,660}}{c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,940} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,940}} \quad (21)$$

$$R(c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,940} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,940}) = c_{AC1}\epsilon_{AC1,660} + c_{AC2}\epsilon_{AC2,660} \quad (22)$$

$$c_{AC1}(R\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,660}) = c_{AC2}(\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940}) \quad (23)$$

$$\frac{c_{AC1}}{c_{AC2}} = \frac{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940}}{R\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,660}}. \quad (24)$$

So now we know  $[\text{HbO}_2] / [\text{HHb}]$  in terms of the measured quantity  $R$ .

Plugging in to Eq. 8 to find the functional saturation

$$S_{f_{\text{O}_2}} = \frac{[\text{HbO}_2]}{[\text{HbO}_2] + [\text{HHb}]} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{[\text{HHb}]}{[\text{HbO}_2]}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{c_{AC2}}{c_{AC1}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{R\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,660}}{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940}}}. \quad (25)$$

As a check, we can rephrase this as

$$S_{f_{\text{O}_2}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{R\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,660}}{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940}}} = \frac{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940}}{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - R\epsilon_{AC2,940} + R\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,660}} \quad (26)$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - \epsilon_{AC2,940}R}{\epsilon_{AC2,660} - \epsilon_{AC1,660} + (\epsilon_{AC1,940} - \epsilon_{AC2,940})R} = \frac{-\epsilon_{AC2,660} + \epsilon_{AC2,940}R}{\epsilon_{AC1,660} - \epsilon_{AC2,660} + (\epsilon_{AC2,940} - \epsilon_{AC1,940})R}, \quad (27)$$

which matches Mendelson and Kent<sup>2</sup>, Eq. 8 with the translations  $S_{f_{\text{O}_2}} \rightarrow S_{p_{\text{O}_2}}$ ,  $R \rightarrow R/IR$ ,  $\epsilon_{AC2,660} \rightarrow \epsilon_R(\text{HHb})$ ,  $\epsilon_{AC2,940} \rightarrow \epsilon_I R(\text{HHb})$ ,  $\epsilon_{AC1,660} \rightarrow \epsilon_R(\text{HbO}_2)$ , and  $\epsilon_{AC1,940} \rightarrow \epsilon_I R(\text{HbO}_2)$ .

And that is the first-order explanation of how a pulse-oximeter measures the functional saturation!

<sup>1</sup> If the changing- $L$ -but-static- $L_{DC}$  thing bothers you, you can imagine instead that  $L_{DC}$  grows with  $L$ , but  $c_{DCi\lambda}$  shrinks proportionally (to conserve mass). With this proportionate stretching, there is still no change in absorption for that component so  $\frac{d}{dL} \exp(-c_{DCi\lambda}\epsilon_{DCi\lambda}L) = 0$  and we can still pull the DC terms out of the integral as we did for Eq. 18.

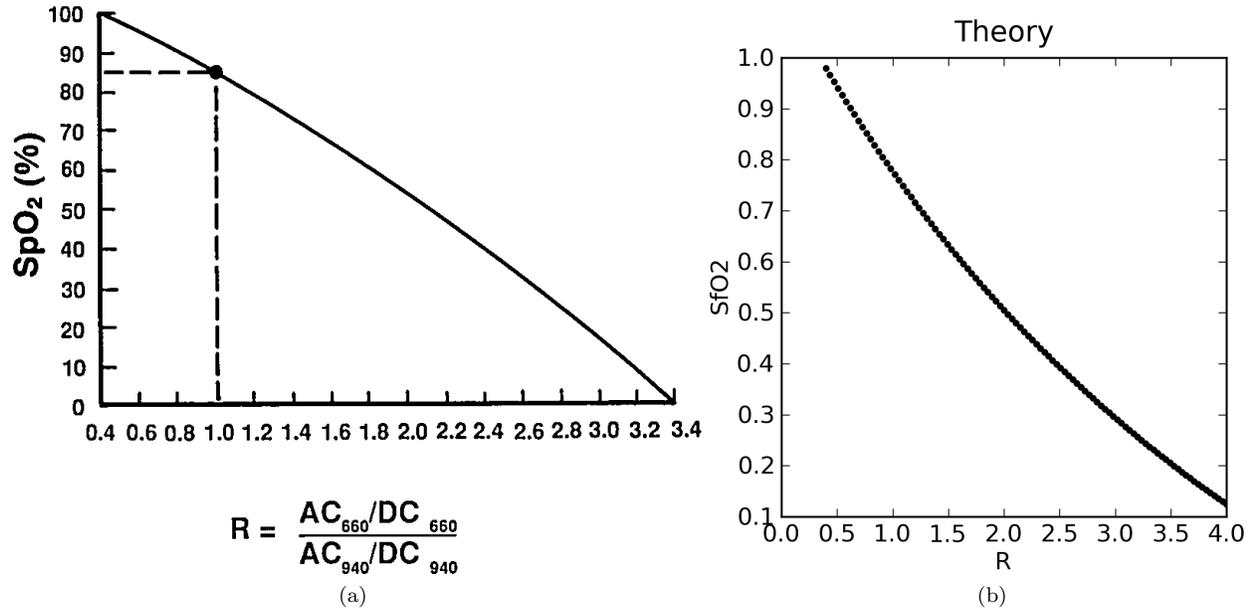


Figure 3: Comparison of (a) an experimental calibration curve<sup>1</sup> with (b) a theoretical calibration curve calculated using Eq. 25. This is why it's a good idea to use an empirical calibration curve ;).

Reading extinction coefficients off Fig. 1, I get

$$\epsilon_{HbO_2,660} = \epsilon_{AC1,660} = 0.10 \quad (28)$$

$$\epsilon_{HHb,660} = \epsilon_{AC2,660} = 0.83 \quad (29)$$

$$\epsilon_{HbO_2,940} = \epsilon_{AC1,940} = 0.29 \quad (30)$$

$$\epsilon_{HHb,940} = \epsilon_{AC2,940} = 0.17 \quad (31)$$

which are comfortably close to those given by Mendelson and Kent<sup>2</sup> in their Table 1. The corresponding  $S_{fO_2}(R)$  plot can be seen in Fig. 3b.

## Nomenclature

- $c_i$  Concentration of species  $i$
- $L$  Length of tissue through which light must pass
- $R$  Optical density ratio
- $c_{ACi}$  Concentration of the  $i$ th AC species at wavelength  $\lambda$
- $c_{DCi\lambda}$  Concentration of the  $i$ th DC species at wavelength  $\lambda$
- $CoO_2$  Oxygen content of blood
- dysHb Dys-hemoglobin (cannot complex with  $O_2$ )
- $\epsilon_{ACi\lambda}$  Extinction coefficient of the  $i$ th AC species at wavelength  $\lambda$
- $\epsilon_{DCi\lambda}$  Extinction coefficient of the  $i$ th DC species at wavelength  $\lambda$
- $\epsilon_{i\lambda}$  Extinction coefficient of species  $i$  at wavelength  $\lambda$
- Hb Hemoglobin monomer
- HbCO Carboxyhemoglobin

HbO <sub>2</sub>	Hb monomers complexed with O <sub>2</sub>
Hg	Mercury
HHb	Reduced Hb (not complexed with O <sub>2</sub> )
$I_{\lambda}$	Intensity of transmitted light at wavelength $\lambda$
$I_{0\lambda}$	Intensity of incident light at wavelength $\lambda$
$L_{DC}$	DC finger width
MHb	Methemoglobin
O <sub>2</sub>	Molecular oxygen
$P_{iO_2}$	O <sub>2</sub> partial pressure at location $i$
$P_{O_2}$	O <sub>2</sub> partial pressure
$S_{iO_2}$	O <sub>2</sub> saturation at location $i$
$S_{O_2}$	Fractional O <sub>2</sub> saturation
$S_{fO_2}$	Functional O <sub>2</sub> saturation
BTP	Body temperature and pressure
LED	Light emitting diode
STP	Standard temperature and pressure

## References

- [1] Kevin K. Tremper and Steven J. Barker. Pulse oximetry. *Anesthesiology*, 70(1):98–108, January 1989. ISSN 0003-3022. URL [http://journals.lww.com/anesthesiology/Citation/1989/01000/Pulse\\_Oximetry.19.aspx](http://journals.lww.com/anesthesiology/Citation/1989/01000/Pulse_Oximetry.19.aspx).
- [2] Yitzhak Mendelson and Joel C. Kent. Variations in optical absorption spectra of adult and fetal hemoglobins and its effect on pulse oximetry. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering*, 36(8):844–848, August 1989. ISSN 0018-9294. URL [http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/xpl/freeabs\\_all.jsp?arnumber=30810](http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/xpl/freeabs_all.jsp?arnumber=30810).