

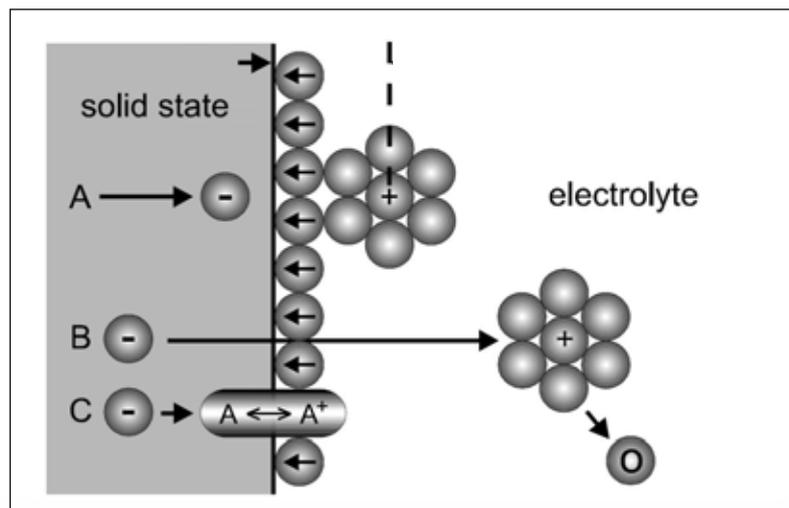
Electrodes

MB - JASS 09

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Metal in electrolyte



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Helmholtz double layer (1)

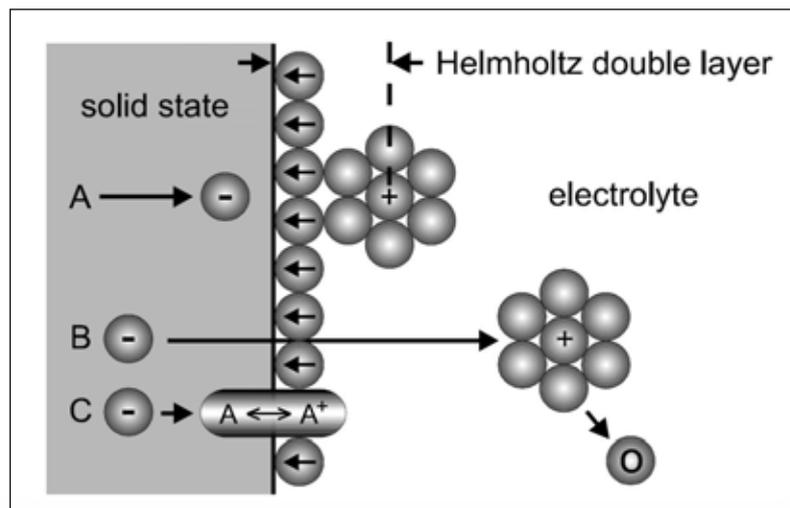
Helmholtz double layer : simplest approximation
→ surface charge is neutralized by opposite signed counterions placed away from the surface

- How is Helmholtz double layer described?
 - electrical double layer of positive and negative charges
 - describes the variation of electric potential near a surface
 - one molecule thick
- Where does the Helmholtz double layer occur?
 - at surfaces of a metal immersed in a dissociating solvent

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Helmholtz double layer (2)



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Helmholtz double layer (3)

The 2 constituents of the double layer

1. inner Helmholtz layer

- potential changes linearly with the distance
- it comprises the adsorbed water molecules

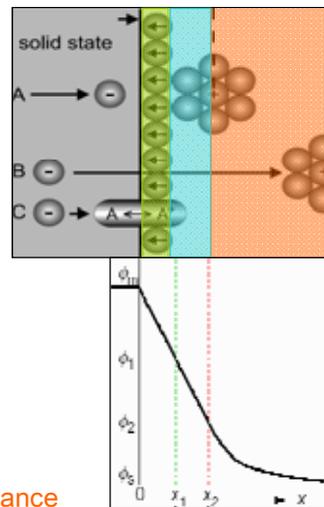
2. outer Helmholtz layer

- potential varies linearly with the distance
- it comprises hydrated (solvated) cations

additional:

3. outer diffuse layer (Gouy-Chapman layer)

- potential varies exponentially with the distance
- contains excess cations or anions distributed in a diffuse layer



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Helmholtz double layer - limitations

Helmholtz does not account for

- diffusion/mixing in solution
- possibility of absorption on to the surface
- interaction between solvent dipole moments & electrode

New model by **Stern** addresses some of these limitations:

- ions are assumed to be able to move in solution

→ electrostatic interaction in competition with Brownian motion

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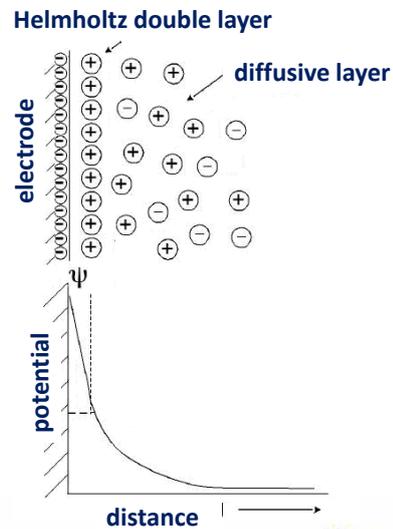
Model of Stern

Combination of

→ Helmholtz-model
= double layer

and

→ Gouy-Chapman-model
= diffusive layer



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How to model the Helmholtz-layer?

- Charge Transfer by Ions
 - Diffusion
 - Adsorption
 - Redox reactions
- Charge Transfer by Electrons
 - Surface polarisation
 - Redox reactions

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$



Equivalent electric circuit model

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Fundamental Effectors

- Effectors of charge transfer (electrical current)

- Resistor → linear current reduction

$$I = \frac{U}{R}$$

- Capacitor → storing charge

$$I = C \frac{dU}{dt}$$

- Inductor → inducing current

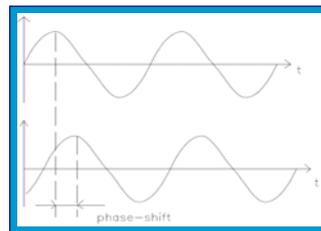
$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{U}{L}$$

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Impedance – complex resistance

$$U(t) = U(0) \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{Effector} \quad I(t) = I(0) \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$



Definition:

$$Z(\omega) = \frac{U(t)}{I(t)} = \frac{U(0) \exp(i\omega t)}{I(0) \exp(i(\omega t + \phi))} = Z(0) \exp(-i\phi)$$

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Fundamental Effectors

Effectors of charge transfer (electrical current)

- Resistor → linear current reduction

$$I = \frac{U}{R}$$

$$Z = R$$

- Capacitor → storing charge

$$I = C \frac{dU}{dt}$$

$$Z = \frac{1}{i\omega C}$$

- Inductor → inducing current

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{U}{L}$$

$$Z = i\omega L$$

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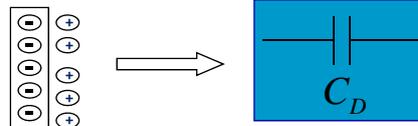
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Equivalent circuit elements

Double layer capacitance

- Charge separation (Å-scale)
- Depends on:

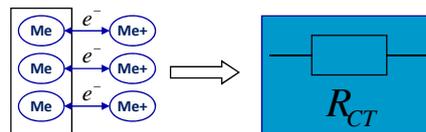
- Temperature
- Ionic concentrations
- Oxide layers
- Electrode roughness etc.



Charge Transfer Resistance

- Redox-reaction on surface

$$R_{CT} \propto \frac{RT}{F I_{CT}}$$



F: faraday constant; R: gas constant; T: temperature; I_{CT} : exchange current density

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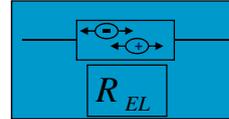
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Equivalent circuit elements

Electrolyte Resistance

- Depends on:
 - Ionic concentration, ion types
 - Temperature
 - Geometry of Current-Transport-Area
- Conductivity κ :
 - Fitted by computer-models

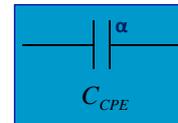
$$R_{EL} = \frac{l}{\kappa \cdot A}$$



Constant phase element

- HDL is not an ideal capacitor
- Current/Potential phase-shift
- Empirical parameter α

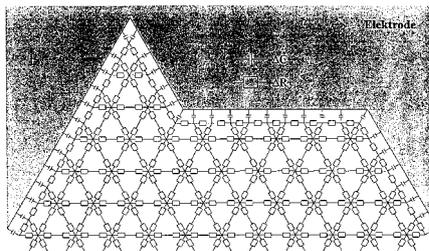
$$Z = \frac{1}{(i\omega)^\alpha C}$$



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Impedance of rough electrodes



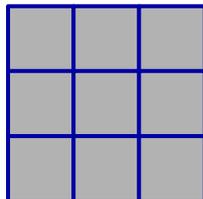
$$Y(\omega) = \frac{1}{Z(\omega)} = \sum_j \frac{i\omega C_j}{1 + i\omega R_j C_j}$$

$$Y(r \cdot l, \omega) = r^2 Y(l, \omega)$$

$$C_j(r \cdot l) = r^{D_H} C_j(l)$$

$$R_j(r \cdot l) = r^{-1} R_j(l)$$

Hausdorff-Dimension $D_H = \frac{\log N(R)}{\log \frac{1}{R}}$



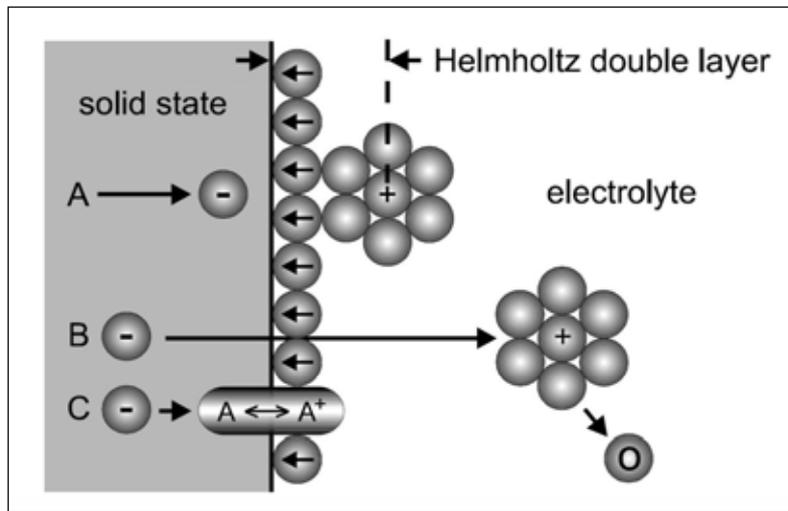
$$Y(\omega) = 1/Z(\omega) = Y_0(i\omega)^\alpha$$

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{D_H - 1}$$

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Helmholtz double layer

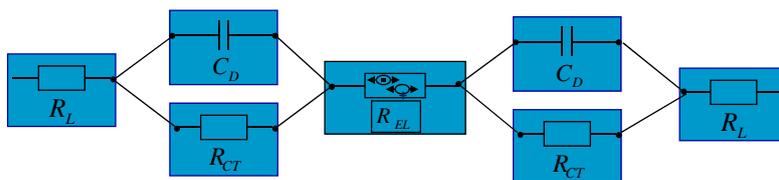


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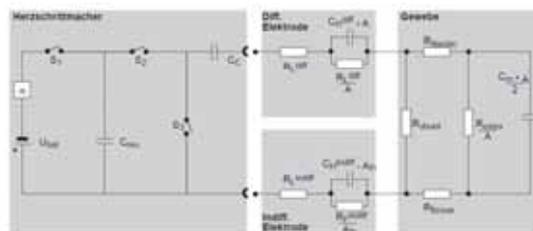
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Circuit Model

- Basic Model



- Advanced Pacemaker Model



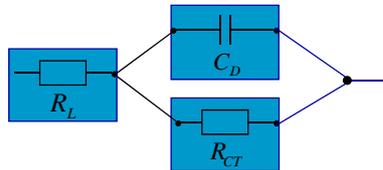
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Impedance of Electrochemical-Cells

▪ Randles-Cell

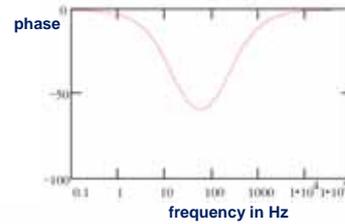
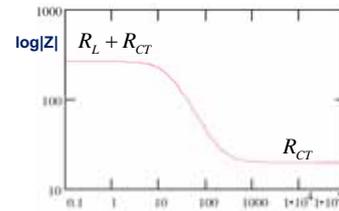
- Schematic



- Overall Impedance

$$Z = R_L + \frac{R_{CT} \cdot \frac{1}{i\omega C_D}}{R_{CT} + \frac{1}{i\omega C_D}}$$

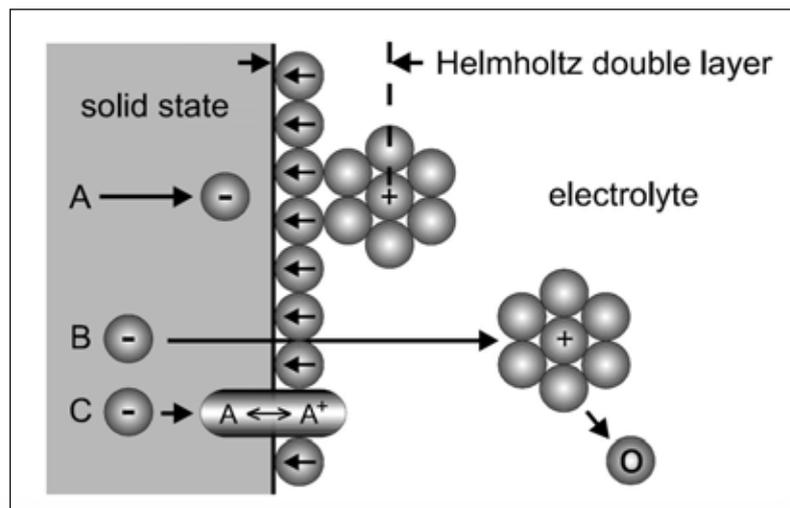
- $\omega \rightarrow 0$: infinite charge-time
- $\omega \rightarrow \infty$: short circuit



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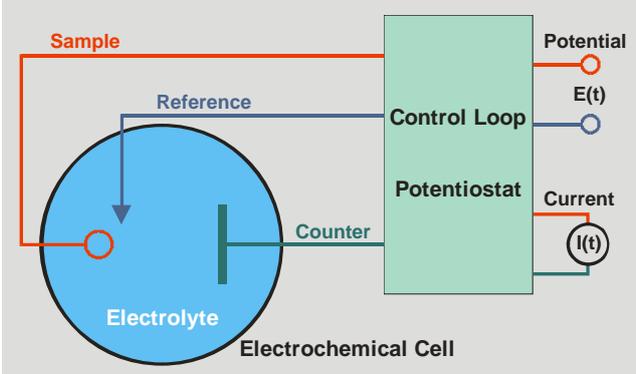
Electrochemical Impedance



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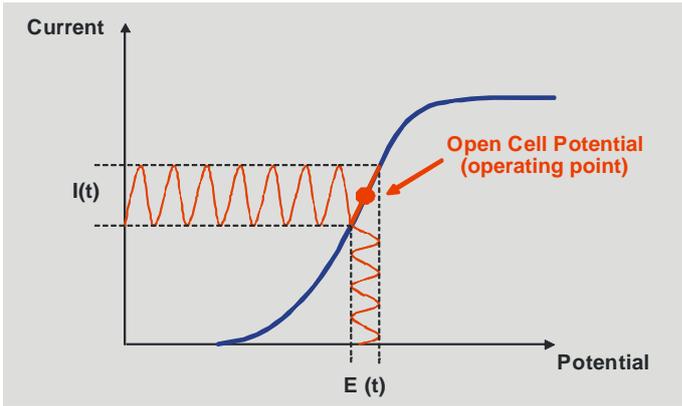
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Experimental setup



- Three electrode setup
- System in equilibrium
- Current between sample & counter electrode
- Potential reference electrode

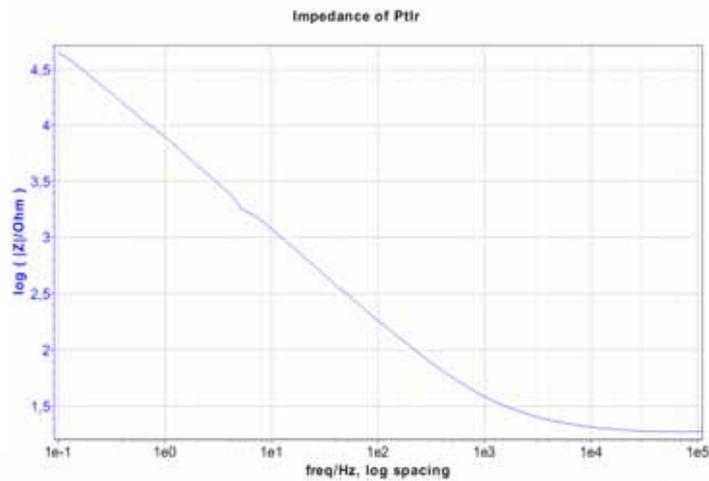
Experimental setup



Small disturbance away from the open cell potential (point of equilibrium)
-> Linear system response

Impedance Measurement(1)

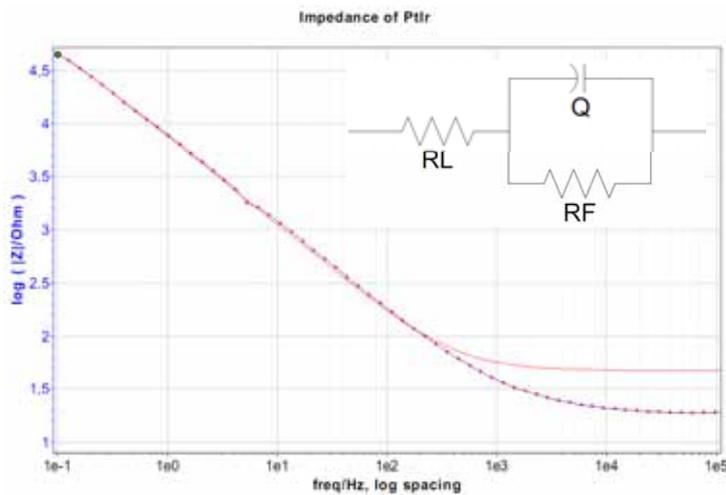
Electrode ring made of platinum-iridium



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Impedance Measurement(2)



$$Z_{\varrho} = \frac{1}{(i\omega)^{\alpha} C}$$

Fit:

$$R_L = 47 \text{ Ohm}$$

$$R_F = 0.1 \text{ MOhm}$$

$$C_q = 27e-6 \text{ F}$$

$$a = 0.85$$

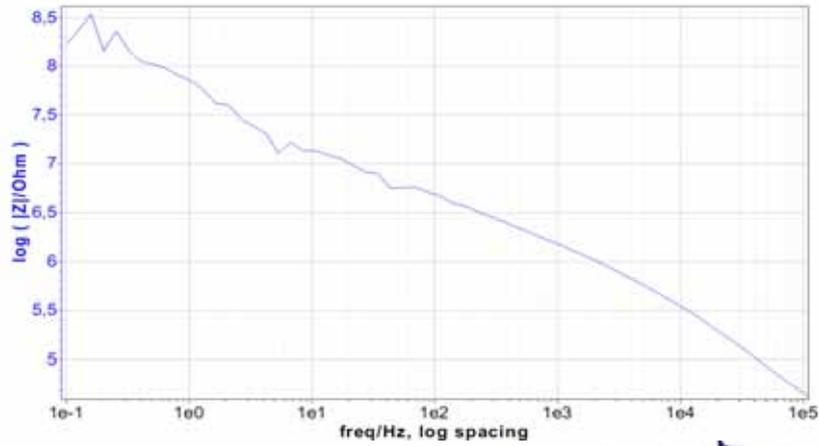
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Impedance Measurement (3)

Electrode tip made of Titanium

Impedance of Titanium

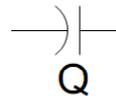
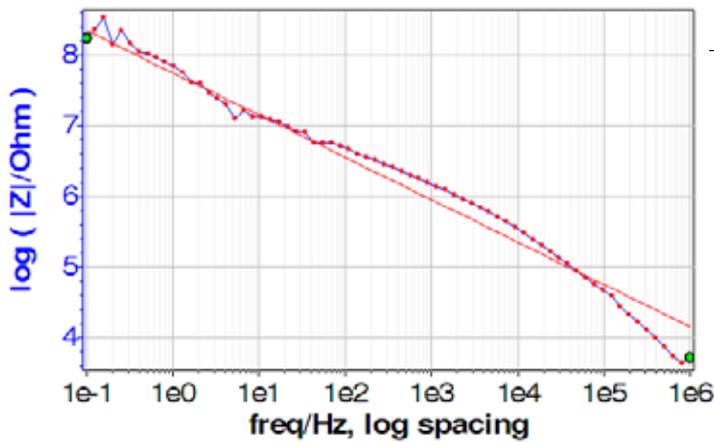


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Impedance Measurement(4)

Impedance of Titanium



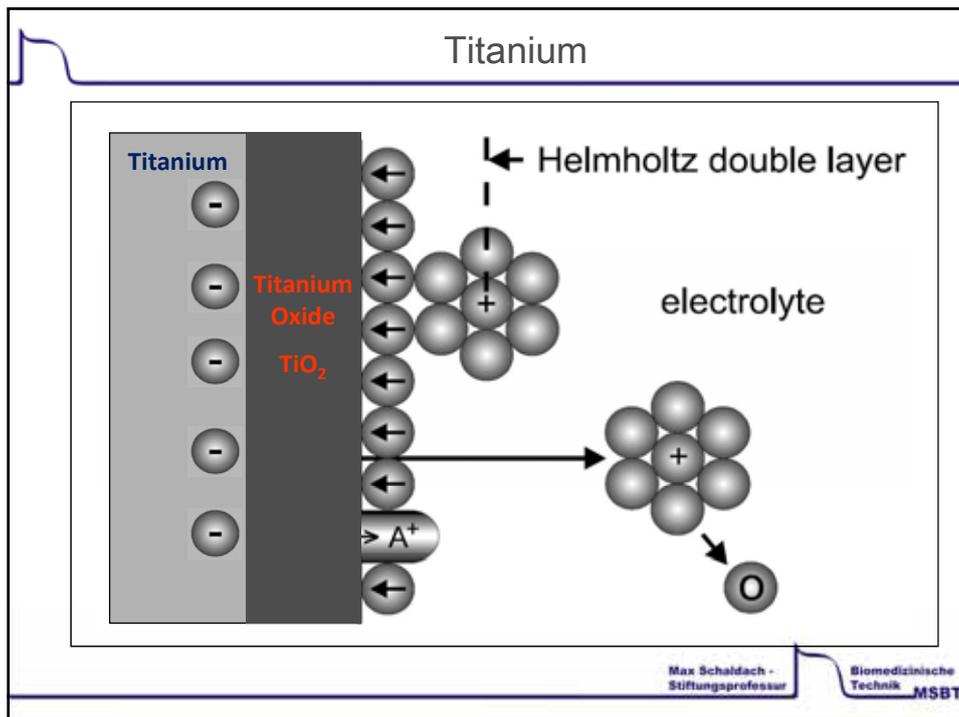
Fit:

$$C_q = 5.9e-9 \text{ F}$$

$$a = 0.6$$

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Challenges in cardiac pacing (1)

Two main tasks of cardiac pacemakers:

- Sensing the intra-cardiac ECG, i.e. detecting heartbeats, fibrillation, arrhythmia
- Electric stimulation of heart muscles when necessary without interference to sensing

The illustration shows a human torso with the heart and major blood vessels. A pacemaker device is implanted in the chest, with leads inserted into the heart chambers. The leads are connected to the pacemaker, which is shown as a small, rectangular device.

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Challenges in cardiac pacing (2)

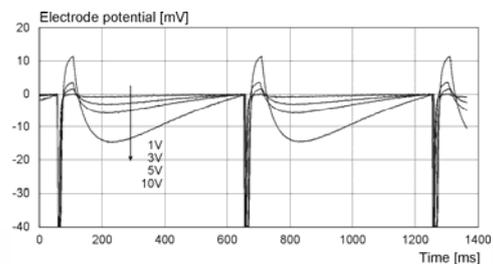
- Requirements for accurate ECG measurements
 - Frequency independent damping of ECG signals
→ low distortion in ECG waveforms
 - Low damping of ECG signals
→ good signal transmission
 - Small electrodes lead to better electrical contact to myocardium

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Challenges in cardiac pacing (3)

- Requirements for efficient pacing
 - Low damping
→ reduces power dissipation
→ longer battery lifetime
 - Low polarization artifact voltage $U = Q_{st} / (A C_p)$
→ gives the possibility to pace and sense via the same electrode



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Challenges in cardiac pacing (4)

Conflicts in the previous requirements

- Low damping
 - Frequency independent damping
 - Low polarization artifact voltage
 - Small electrodes
- Low impedance required → Sets limits to the capacitance of the Helmholtz double layer
- High Helmholtz capacity required

Solution: Increase the specific Helmholtz capacity between electrode surface & electrolyte

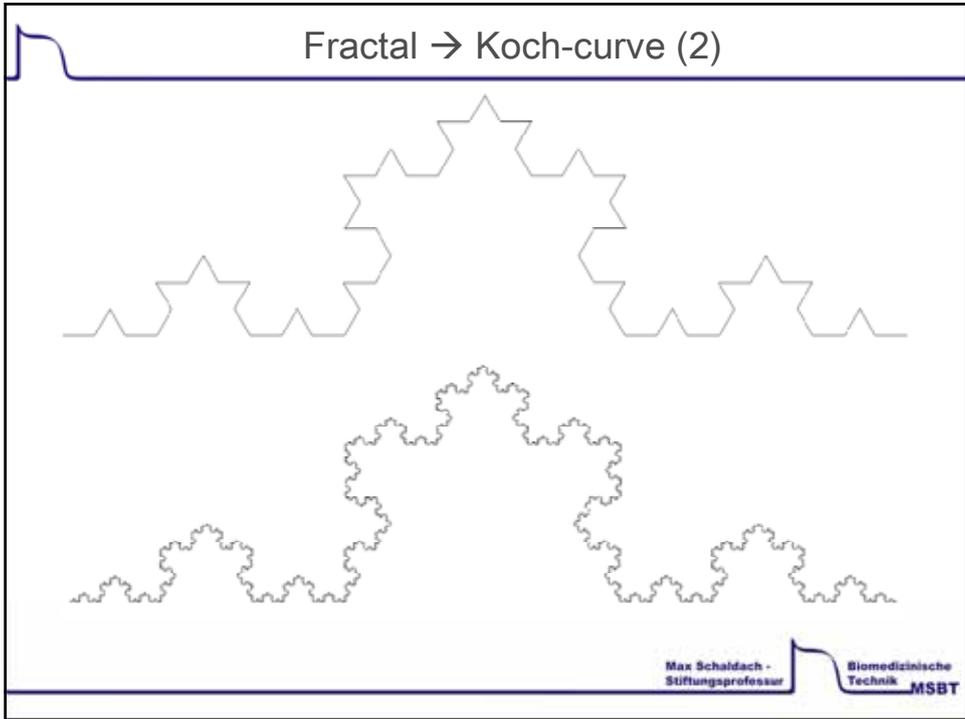
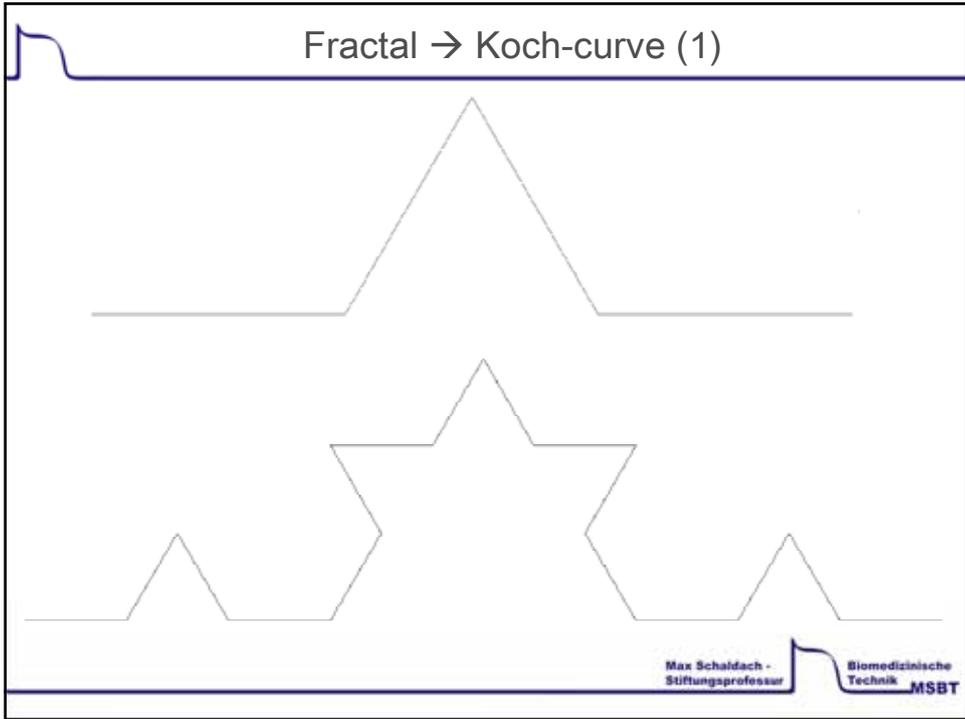
Fractal coating (1)

Definition: Fractal

- **rough or fragmented geometric shape that can be split into parts, each of which is (at least approximately) a reduced-size copy of the whole**
- A mathematical fractal is based on equations that undergo iteration based on recursion

Fractal → characteristic features:

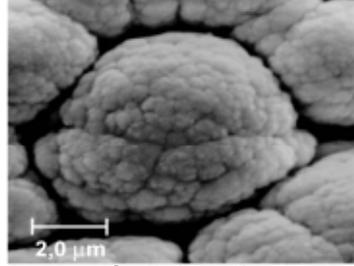
- fine structure at arbitrarily small scales
- too irregular to be easily described in traditional geometric language
- self-similar
- recursive



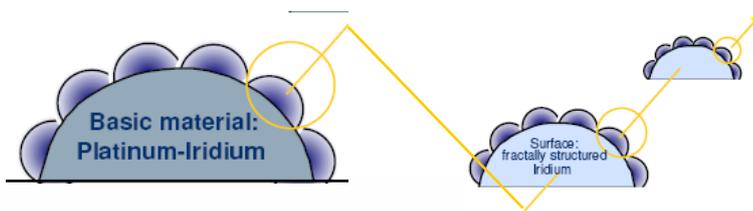
Fractal coating (2)



fractal surface in nature (romanesco)



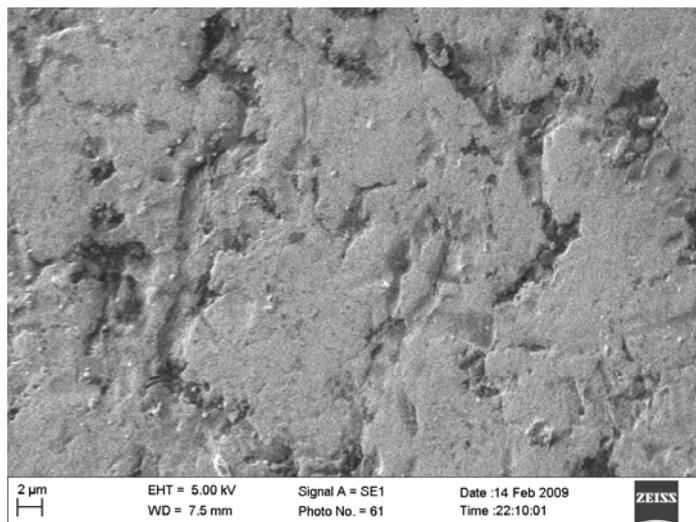
fractal coating



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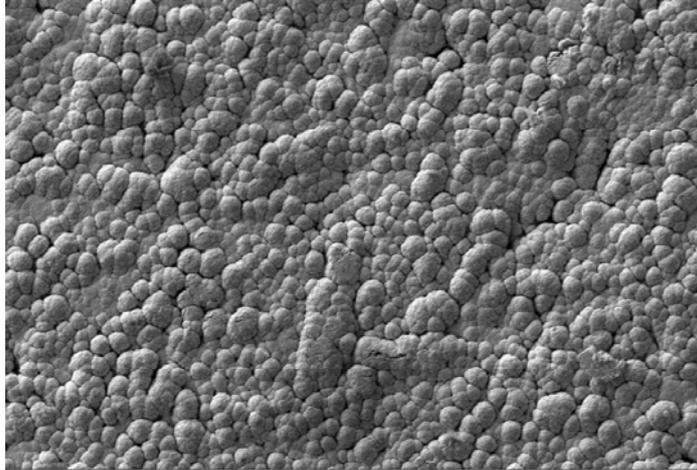
SEM of Pt-Ir (1)



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SEM of Ir-fractal (1)



2 μ m

EHT = 5.00 kV
WD = 7.0 mm

Signal A = SE1
Photo No. = 57

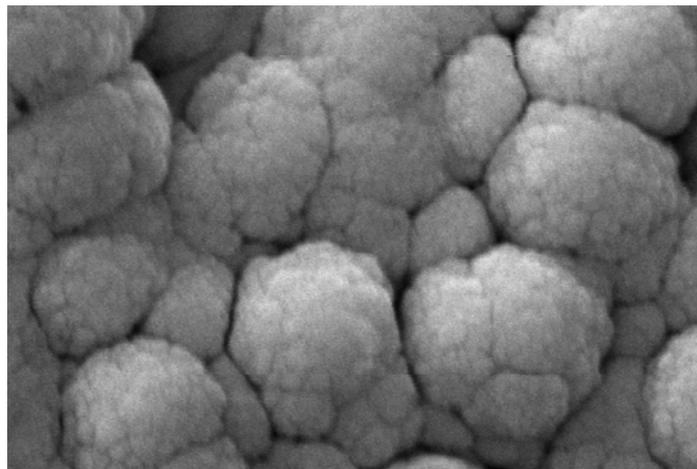
Date :14 Feb 2009
Time :21:48:19

ZEISS

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SEM of Ir-fractal (2)



200 nm

EHT = 30.00 kV
WD = 6.0 mm

Signal A = SE1
Photo No. = 64

Date :14 Feb 2009
Time :22:27:29

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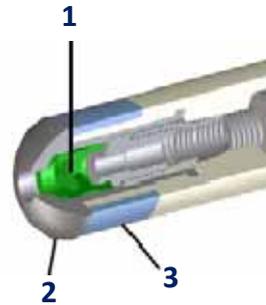
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Modern Pacemaker Electrode

Fractal coated electrode:

- 1 → sealing
- 2 → **fractal coating**
- 3 → steroid



Advantages:

- 1000 time enlargement of the electrical active surface compared to the normal geometric size
- Reduction of depolarization effects
- Increasing long time stability

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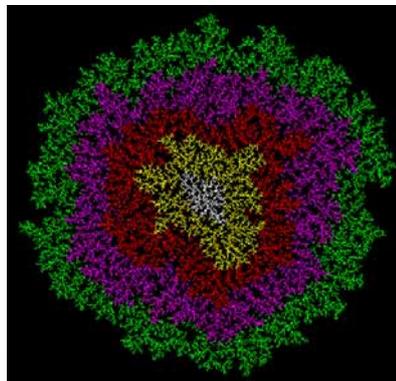
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Diffusion limited aggregation

Random Walks (Brownian motion etc.)

→ space/time discrete processes

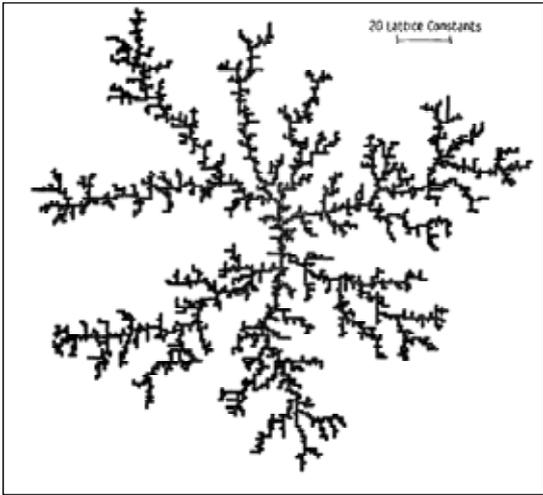
→ continuous formulation



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DLA – random aggregation of particles

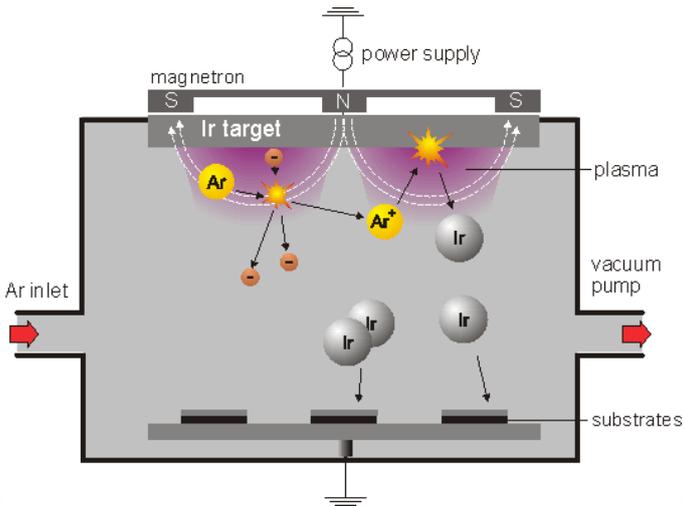


Physical Review Letters; Vol. 47, Nr.19; 1981

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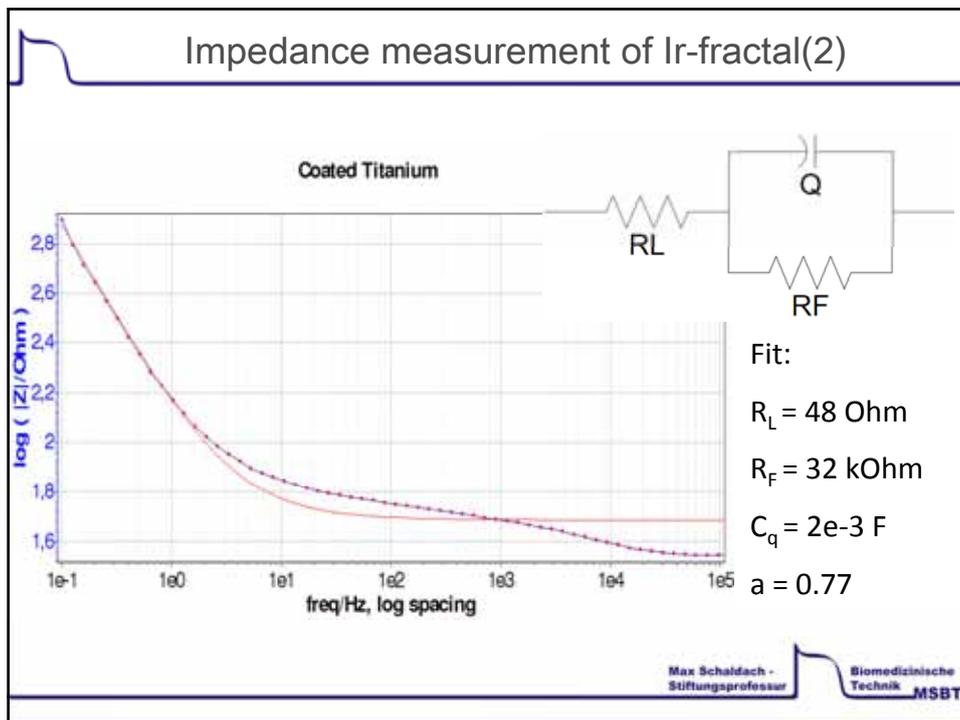
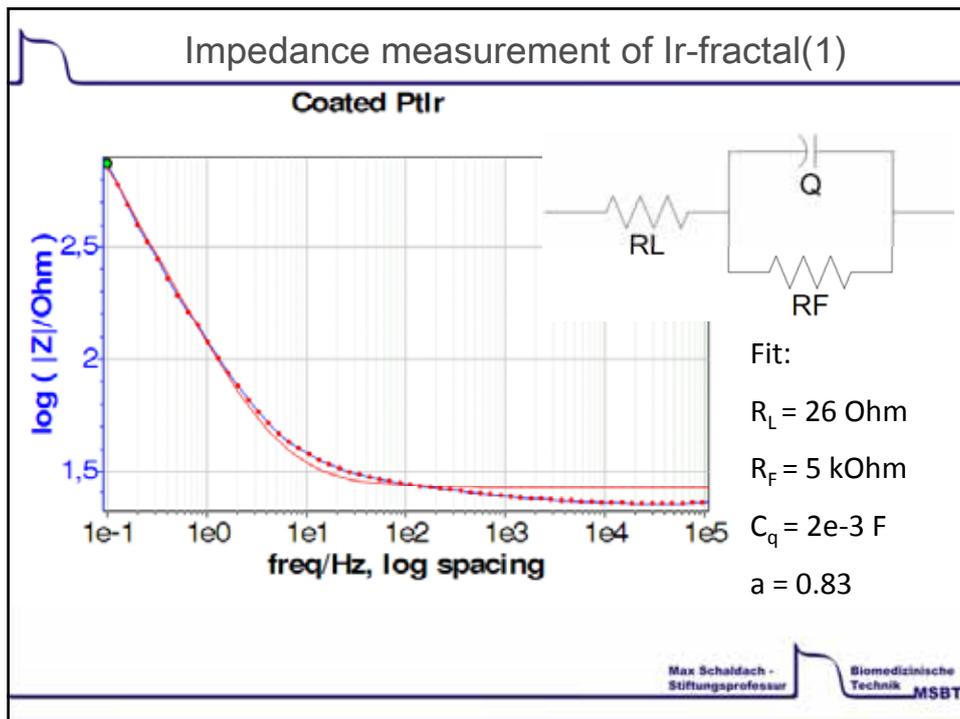
Diffusion limited aggregation – PVD



Progress in Biomedical Research; M. SCHALDACH; 1997

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Increasing Helmholtz capacity

Methods to increase the specific Helmholtz capacity of the electrode electrolyte boundary layer (i.e. the capacity per geometric surface):

Fractal electrode surface

Increasing effective electrode surface without increasing the geometric dimensions

Electro-active surface

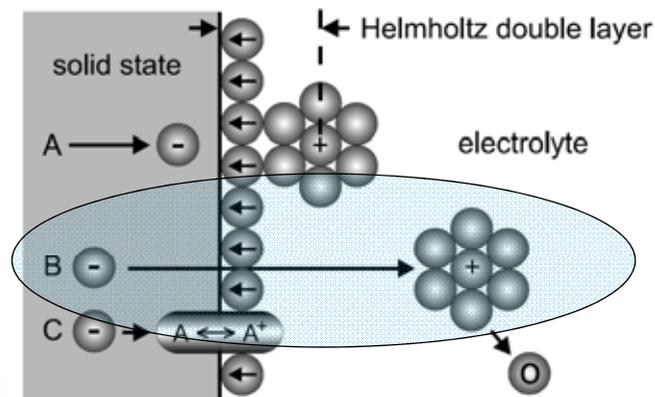
Electrochemical enhancement of specific capacity

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Electro-active surfaces

- Revision: Faraday resistance R_F
 - Charge transport via irreversible chemical reactions

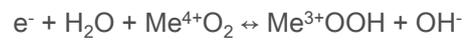


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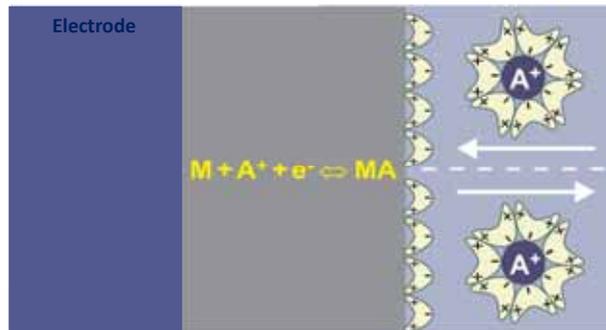
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Electro-active surfaces

- Reversible redox reaction



- Acts as charge/energy storage
→ Impedance characteristics like a capacitor

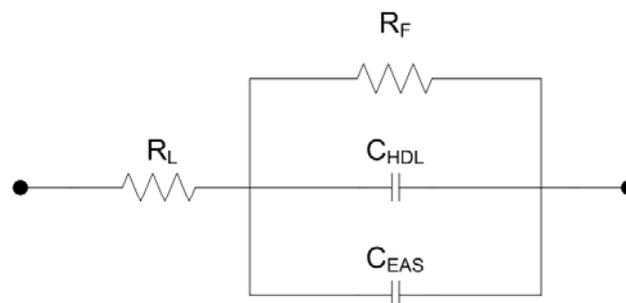


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Electro-active surfaces

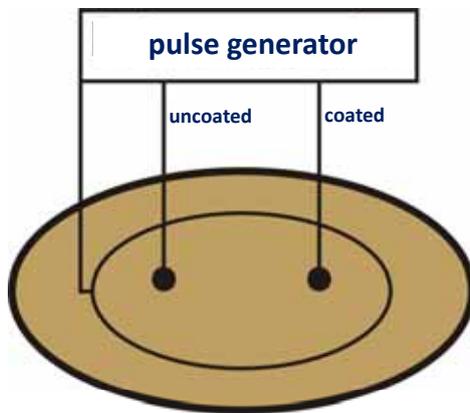
- Reversible reactions act as energy/charge storage
 - Requirements:
 - Reactants/products need to remain at the boundary layer
 - non-toxic substances, e.g. iridium oxide



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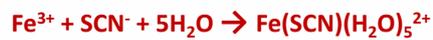
Stimulating Experiment



Petri dish with
- 100 mM Fe(II)SO₄
- 100 mM KSCN (potassium thiocyanate)

Anodic pulses via
coated/uncoated electrodes
- 10V, 1ms, 100bpm

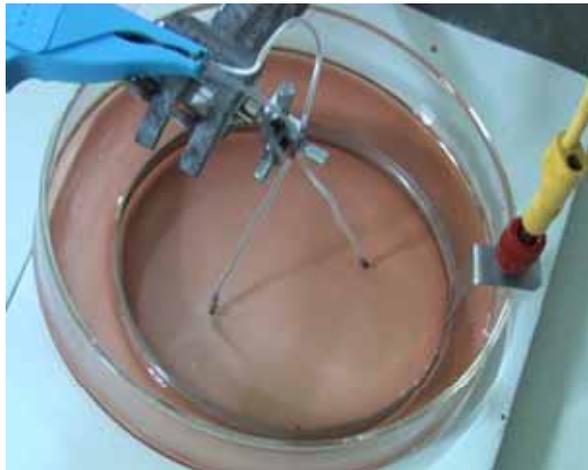
Fe³⁺ and thiocyanate (N≡C-S⁻)
form a deeply red complex



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Stimulating Experiment



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