

Biophysiological Measures in Nursing Research

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Edited by

Muayyad Ahmad

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO BIOPHYSIOLOGICAL MEASURES IN NURSING RESEARCH

MUAYYAD M. AHMAD

Why we need this book?

This textbook on biophysiological measures in nursing and health aims to address critical literature gaps by offering essential best practices, protocols, and recommendations that will enhance clinical practice, support nursing and health research and innovation, standardize metrics for accurate patient assessments, and underscore the scientific nature and significance of nursing and healthcare.

This book serves as an indispensable resource for nurses and healthcare providers. It guides the use of biophysiological parameters to refine clinical practices, offering established protocols, best practices, and actionable recommendations that enhance patient care. By standardizing biophysiological metrics, it ensures accurate assessments across healthcare settings. It also supports innovation, encouraging research that integrates advanced biophysiological methods into practice. Moreover, it emphasizes the scientific foundation of nursing, fostering interdisciplinary collaboration. Nurses can leverage its insights to educate and empower patients, encouraging active participation in their health management.

Addressing Literature Gaps on the scarcity of nursing and health biophysiological literature. This textbook is essential not only for nursing healthcare students but researchers in health field. Nurses use biophysiological parameters to improve clinical practice. A specialized book would offer best practices, established protocols, and recommendations to improve patient care and outcomes. A unified resource can support nursing and health research and innovation. New studies using the measures in the book would advance the field and incorporate new biophysiological methods. This book may improve nursing integration with other healthcare areas. Standardizing biophysiological metrics facilitates accurate patient assessments across

healthcare settings. The book helps healthcare organizations create biophysiological measures policies and processes. Emphasizing biophysiological parameters emphasizes nursing and health's scientific nature and its importance in healthcare. Nurses can use the book's expertise to educate patients about their diseases and biophysiological characteristics, empowering them to take an active role in their health care.

The anticipated advantages of this book, particularly in relation to biophysiological measures in nursing and health, are of paramount importance for numerous reasons

1. Addressing a Literature Gap - The critical gap is underscored by the scarcity of specialized literature on biophysiological measures in nursing and health. Comprehensive and focused information that is presently lacking would be provided by a dedicated book.
2. Improving Nursing Education - A resource that provides a comprehensive examination of biophysiological measures can be of great benefit to nursing education. It would be an essential textbook for nursing and healthcare students, providing them with theoretical and practical knowledge that is directly relevant to their field.
3. Enhancing Clinical Practice - Biophysiological measures are frequently implemented by nurses in their clinical practice. A specialized book would offer standardized procedures, best practices, and guidelines, resulting in enhanced patient care and outcomes.
4. Fostering Innovation and Research - The establishment of a consolidated resource can serve as an incentive for additional research and innovation in the field of nursing and health. It would establish a foundation for future research, thereby facilitating the integration of more sophisticated biophysiological techniques into practice and advancing the field.
5. Professional Development - A comprehensive guide to biophysiological measures would be an indispensable reference for practicing nurses, ensuring that they are informed about the most recent technologies and methodologies. This guide would also serve as a valuable resource for continuing education and professional development.
6. Integration of Diverse Fields - The integration of nursing with other healthcare disciplines can be improved through the publication of a book on this subject. Effective interdisciplinary collaboration in patient care necessitates comprehension of biophysiological measures.
7. Standardization and Best Practices - The establishment of standardized methods and best practices for biophysiological measures would guarantee the consistency and precision of patient assessments in various healthcare environments.

8. Development of Policies and Protocols - The book has the potential to be used as a foundation for the development of policies and protocols within healthcare institutions, thereby guaranteeing the appropriate and effective use of biophysiological measures.
9. Promoting Nursing as a Scientific Field - The scientific foundation of the nursing profession is emphasized by emphasizing the role of biophysiological measures, which contributes to the profession's recognition as a science and a critical element of healthcare.
10. Patient Empowerment and Education - Nurses can utilize the information contained in the book to inform patients about their conditions and the biophysiological measures that are being employed, thereby enabling patients to participate actively in their own health care.

These factors collectively underscore the significance of a specialized volume on biophysiological measures in nursing and health, illustrating its potential influence on the quality of healthcare, research, practice, and education.

Uniqueness of this book

"Biophysiological Measures in Nursing Research" is an important resource that endeavours to fill the gap in the literature by offering a thorough analysis of biophysiological measurement methods and their utilization in nursing research. In contrast to existing general health research books, this specialized textbook is exclusively dedicated to nursing, providing tailored insights that are in alignment with the unique challenges and needs of nursing professionals. The book is distinguished by its comprehensive analysis of innovative methodologies, established protocols, and best practices, which are essential for improving patient care and outcomes.

The practical approach to incorporating biophysiological measures into everyday clinical practice is what distinguishes this book. It is not merely a theoretical guide; it offers practical suggestions that nurses can promptly implement. The content is rendered highly relatable and engaging by the incorporation of real-world case studies and examples, which contextualize the application of these measures. Furthermore, the book underscores the importance of standardizing biophysiological parameters to guarantee the accuracy and consistency of patient assessments in a variety of healthcare environments.

In addition, "Biophysiological Measures in Nursing Research" is appealing to interdisciplinary healthcare teams, biomedical engineers, and healthcare technicians, as it offers them a more comprehensive comprehension of the nursing perspective on biophysiological measurements. The

book encourages improved collaboration and integration among various healthcare disciplines by advocating for a unified approach to patient care. This book ultimately provides nurses and other healthcare professionals with the necessary knowledge and resources to improve patient outcomes, promote innovation, and enhance their practice through the effective use of biophysiological measures.

Who could benefit from this book

This publication is an indispensable resource for a broad audience. It is an indispensable textbook for courses on clinical assessment and research methods that are taught to nursing students and educators. The clinical skills and patient care techniques of practicing nurses will be improved by the detailed protocols and best practices. The comprehensive analysis and discussion of the most recent biophysiological measurement technologies and their implications for health research will be greatly appreciated by healthcare researchers and clinical practitioners. Additionally, healthcare administrators and policymakers may employ the book to establish standardized policies and procedures that enhance the overall quality of treatment in healthcare institutions.

Nursing Professionals

- Nursing Researchers: Those involved in academic or clinical research will find the title highly relevant as it directly addresses the application of biophysiological measures in their work.
- Clinical Nurse Specialists (CNS): Professionals who are experts in specific areas of clinical practice would benefit from understanding how biophysiological measures can enhance patient care.
- Nurse Practitioners (NP): Advanced practice nurses who are involved in patient diagnosis and treatment will find this resource valuable for integrating new measurement techniques into their practice.

Healthcare Managers and Administrators

- Nursing Managers: Those overseeing nursing staff and operations would be interested in how standardized biophysiological measures can improve clinical outcomes and efficiency.
- Hospital Administrators: Professionals responsible for policy and procedural development will appreciate the insights on standardizing biophysiological measures across healthcare settings.

- Quality Assurance Managers: Individuals focused on maintaining high standards of patient care and clinical practice will find the protocols and best practices outlined in the book crucial for their work.

Other Healthcare Practitioners

- Physicians and Medical Researchers: Medical doctors and researchers interested in the latest methodologies for patient assessment and diagnosis might find the nursing-focused biophysiological measures insightful for interdisciplinary collaboration.
- Biomedical Engineers: Engineers developing medical devices and technologies would benefit from understanding the practical applications and requirements of biophysiological measures in nursing.
- Healthcare Technicians: Technicians who handle and maintain medical equipment for biophysiological measurements will find the book useful for gaining deeper insights into the clinical relevance and application of their work.

Educators and Students

- Nursing Educators: Instructors and professors in nursing schools will find this an essential textbook for teaching the next generation of nurses about biophysiological measures.
- Nursing Students: Students pursuing nursing degrees will benefit from a comprehensive resource that covers both theoretical and practical aspects of biophysiological measurements.

The following is a summary for the book chapters

Chapter Two explores the significance of cardiovascular measures in nursing research, with a particular emphasis on the significance of blood pressure and pulse rate as indicators of cardiovascular health. It emphasizes that hypertension can be exacerbated by factors such as obesity, chronic stress, and specific medications, whereas regular physical activity can considerably reduce blood pressure. In the chapter, systolic blood pressure (SBP) is defined as the pressure in the arteries during heartbeats, with normal values ranging from 90-120 mmHg. Diastolic blood pressure (DBP) is defined as the pressure when the heart is at rest, with an optimal range of 60-80 mmHg. Serious cardiovascular hazards may be suggested by elevated readings in either SBP or DBP. In addition, heart rate (HR) is highlighted as a critical vital sign, with a typical resting HR for individuals falling within the range

of 60-100 beats per minute. Athletes may exhibit lower rates because of their enhanced cardiac efficiency. The text also emphasizes the importance of continuous ECG monitoring, such as Holter monitors, in the detection of arrhythmias and other cardiac conditions. In general, the chapter underscores the importance of these cardiovascular parameters in guiding nursing interventions and improving patient outcomes in cardiovascular care.

Chapter Three provides a comprehensive overview of respiratory measurement tools and their critical role in nursing research, focusing on essential metrics such as spirometry, oxygen saturation, respiratory rate, and emerging technologies. These tools are vital for the assessment and management of various respiratory conditions, including chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and asthma, enabling healthcare professionals to make timely, evidence-based interventions that enhance patient outcomes. Key indicators discussed include forced expiratory volume (FEV₁) and the FEV₁/FVC ratio, which are crucial for diagnosing obstructive lung diseases, while tidal volume and minute ventilation are emphasized for their importance in monitoring ventilatory status in critically ill patients. The chapter also highlights the potential of technological innovations, particularly the integration of Internet of Things (IoT) devices and artificial intelligence (AI), which facilitate continuous, real-time monitoring of respiratory health metrics. These advancements not only allow for improved patient self-monitoring and timely interventions but also have the potential to reduce hospital admissions significantly. By incorporating predictive analytics, these technologies can alert patients and providers to potential exacerbations, thereby advancing preventative care in respiratory health and transforming the landscape of respiratory nursing practice.

Chapter four titled emphasizes the critical role of neurological assessments in nursing research. It discusses advanced tools such as electroencephalography (EEG), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), and positron emission tomography (PET) that are pivotal in evaluating brain function and understanding complex neurological and physiological responses. By integrating these neurological measures into nursing practice, the chapter highlights how data-driven insights can enhance patient outcomes, personalize care, and align with the broader healthcare goals of evidence-based and patient-centred practices. The authors argue that the incorporation of precise neurological assessments can significantly contribute to the management of neurological conditions and the advancement of personalized healthcare strategies. This integration not only aids in diagnosing and monitoring patients but also fosters a deeper understanding of the interplay between neurological health and overall well-being, ultimately positioning nursing research as a vital component in improving healthcare delivery and

patient care strategies. The chapter underscores the importance of these measures in enhancing the quality of care and advancing nursing research in the context of neurological health.

Chapter Five explores the critical aspects of metabolic measurements, focusing on Basal Metabolic Rate (BMR) and Resting Metabolic Rate (RMR). BMR represents the energy expended by the body at rest to maintain essential physiological functions, while RMR includes additional energy used for activities like digestion. The chapter emphasizes that both rates are influenced by various factors, including age, gender, body composition, and hormonal levels. For instance, younger individuals typically have higher metabolic rates due to greater muscle mass, while older adults may experience a decline in metabolism linked to muscle loss. The interplay of these factors is crucial for understanding energy balance and its implications for health, particularly in managing metabolic diseases. The chapter also highlights the importance of accurate metabolic assessments in clinical settings, as they can guide healthcare providers in developing personalized treatment plans. Furthermore, it discusses the challenges in integrating advanced technologies, such as artificial intelligence and machine learning, into clinical practice to enhance metabolic health. Overall, the chapter underscores the significance of metabolic measurements in promoting better health outcomes and the need for ongoing research and collaboration among stakeholders in the healthcare system.

Chapter Six focuses on the significance of musculoskeletal measures in nursing research, emphasizing their crucial role in assessing, diagnosing, and understanding the impact of various health conditions and interventions on the musculoskeletal system. The chapter outlines the complexities of musculoskeletal function and the challenges faced by nurse researchers, including time and financial constraints when selecting appropriate assessment techniques. It highlights the necessity of compliance from patients during assessments, as certain measures may require specific postures or conditions to yield valid results. The chapter also discusses the application of electromyography (EMG) in diagnosing neuromuscular disorders and monitoring muscle function, illustrating its relevance in both clinical and research settings. By employing these measures, nurses can enhance patient care, improve treatment outcomes, and contribute to the overall well-being of individuals, particularly the elderly and those with chronic conditions. The authors advocate for a comprehensive understanding of musculoskeletal health to facilitate early detection of disorders and the implementation of effective interventions, ultimately aiming to optimize patient safety and quality of care in nursing practice.

Chapter Seven focuses on gastrointestinal measures, emphasizing the significance of biophysiological measures in nursing practice and research. Biophysiological measures encompass various physiological variables and parameters essential for understanding complex processes like gastric motility, which involves the mechanical breakdown of food and its mixing with digestive secretions. The chapter highlights that gastric motility is not adequately assessed through simple measurements alone; instead, a comprehensive approach is necessary to capture the intricate motor functions of the gastrointestinal tract. This complexity is crucial for effectively diagnosing and treating gastrointestinal diseases. The American Society for Gastrointestinal Endoscopy (ASGE) underscores the need for detailed observations, whether through visual methods or closely timed measurements. The chapter also discusses advancements in technology, such as ingestible electronic devices that monitor gastrointestinal conditions in real-time, providing significant benefits for patients with disorders like gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). Overall, the chapter illustrates the evolving landscape of gastrointestinal assessment, highlighting the importance of integrating advanced measurement techniques and comprehensive evaluations to enhance patient care and outcomes in gastrointestinal health.

Chapter Eight focuses on endocrine measures, particularly the assessment of thyroid function and hormone levels, emphasizing the endocrine system's vital role in regulating physiological processes through hormone release and suppression. It outlines the various endocrine glands, including the pituitary, thyroid, and adrenal glands, and their functions in metabolism, growth, and reproduction. The chapter discusses the importance of accurate testing and diagnosis for effective treatment of thyroid disorders, highlighting the instruments and methods used in these assessments. Additionally, it explores the integration of advanced techniques such as artificial intelligence (AI) applications and molecular diagnostics, which enhance the accuracy and efficiency of thyroid evaluations. The chapter also addresses the ethical considerations in endocrinology research, underscoring the necessity of maintaining ethical standards while pursuing advancements in the field. By utilizing a range of biophysiological tools, healthcare professionals can gain critical insights into thyroid function, enabling informed treatment decisions. Overall, this chapter serves as a comprehensive resource for understanding the complexities of endocrine health and the significance of precise measurement in managing thyroid-related conditions.

Chapter Nine of the document focuses on biophysiological measures related to the immune system and their significance in nursing practice. It emphasizes the complexity of the human immune system, which comprises

various organs, tissues, and cells that work together to protect the body from pathogens and maintain homeostasis. The chapter outlines the two main components of the immune system: innate immunity, which provides immediate but nonspecific defenses through barriers and immune cells, and adaptive immunity, which offers a slower, specific response mediated by lymphocytes. The importance of measuring immune function is highlighted, particularly in the context of patient-centred care, where innovations in point-of-care testing and artificial intelligence are set to transform nursing practices. By employing both invasive and non-invasive techniques, nurses can effectively monitor immune responses, predict patient outcomes, and tailor interventions to individual needs. This chapter underscores the critical role of immune system assessments in enhancing patient care, particularly for those with compromised immune systems, thereby advancing the field of nursing science and improving overall health outcomes.

Chapter Ten explores the integration of wearable technologies, virtual reality, and artificial intelligence in continuous health monitoring, emphasizing their potential to enhance patient care and nursing practice. The chapter highlights how wearable devices can provide real-time biophysiological measurements, enabling healthcare professionals to monitor patients' health more effectively and make timely interventions. This technology not only improves patient outcomes but also facilitates better self-care practices and knowledge among patients, particularly in managing chronic conditions like hypertension. The authors present a study demonstrating the effectiveness of a mobile application designed to educate users about hypertension management, which resulted in significant improvements in self-care and blood pressure control among participants. However, the chapter also addresses the challenges associated with traditional health monitoring methods, such as limited data collection and the necessity for frequent in-person visits. Additionally, it discusses critical issues like data privacy, interoperability, and user engagement, which are essential for the successful implementation of these technologies in healthcare settings. Overall, the chapter serves as a comprehensive overview of how emerging technologies are transforming healthcare delivery and the importance of adapting nursing practices to leverage these advancements effectively.

Authors' Biography

Dr. Muayyad Ahmad, a Professor in the Clinical Nursing Department at the University of Jordan, has made significant strides in nursing research, showcasing extensive expertise and commitment to the field. He earned his PhD from Case Western Reserve University in 2000, after completing an MSc

and BSc at the University of Jordan in 1992 and 1986, respectively. Dr. Ahmad's research interests include the quality of nursing care, psychometric evaluation of health instruments, psychosocial support for cancer patients, and the innovative applications of Artificial Intelligence and Big Data in healthcare research. With over 150 publications in esteemed international journals, he ranks among the top 2% of global scientists, as recognized by Stanford University's reports from 2020 to 2024. His outstanding contributions have also earned him the accolade of top-ranking researcher in Nursing in the Arab world by the AD Scientific Index. Dr. Ahmad's remarkable achievements have been celebrated with several prestigious awards, such as the Ali Mango Award for Best Researcher in Medicine and Nursing in 2018, the Distinguished Scientist Award from the Venus International Foundation in 2015, and recognition as the best health researcher at the University of Jordan the same year. Beyond his research, Dr. Ahmad is a dedicated mentor, having guided numerous PhD and MSc students, many of whom have achieved international publication and recognition. His leadership is evident through his administrative roles, including serving as Dean of the School of Nursing and Head of the Clinical Nursing Department, where he spearheaded curriculum advancements, encouraged research initiatives, and launched Jordan's first PhD program in Nursing.

CHAPTER TWO

CARDIOVASCULAR MEASURES IN NURSING RESEARCH

FADI ZABEN & REEM ABU QBITAH

Overview of Cardiovascular Measures

Cardiovascular measures are critical parameters used to assess the functioning and health of the cardiovascular system. These are important in that they give details on the activity, blood circulation, and health of the heart. The most prevalent cardiovascular assessment indices in the context of the nursing literature include blood pressure, pulse rate, and electrocardiography (ECG).

Blood Pressure

Blood pressure (BP) is the force exerted by circulating blood on the walls of blood vessels (AHA 2022b, 470-473). It is measured in millimeters of mercury (mmHg) and recorded as two values: There are two types of blood pressure, namely Systolic Blood Pressure (SBP) and Diastolic Blood Pressure (DBP). SBP relates to the pressures attained during the heartbeats, while DBP relates to pressures at other times or in-between the beats. Blood pressure (BP) is one of the most common and basic measurements taken in a clinical setting. In hypertension, heart failure and other cardiovascular diseases, measurement of BP is crucial for diagnosis and management (AHA 2022b). BP measurements play a critical role in identifying and managing diverse cardiovascular diseases. Hypertension is a prevalent and dangerous condition associated with cardiovascular disease, stroke, and kidney disease. Some of these complications can be prevented or their onset delayed if hypertension is detected and treated in the early stages (AHA 2022b).

Age is among the risk factors that may affect blood pressure because as people age, arteries become rigid, and peripheral resistance is asserted. The sex factor is also present with male individuals being at a greater probability

of developing high blood pressure before the age of 55 years while for female the occurrence is more probable after menopause. Several factors including high salt consumption and alcohol and saturated fatty acid consumption increases the blood pressure (AHA 2022b). Evaluations have as well indicated that involvement in regular physical activity enables reduction of blood pressure because the heart and blood vessels are healthy; however, overweight and obesity contribute to hypertension. Stress, for example persistent, can lead to hypertension, and the occurrence of the condition is influenced by heredity, if there are such preceding conditions in the family. In addition, drugs can cause high blood pressure for instance, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, decongestants, and some forms of antidepressants (Vasan et al. 2002, 1003-1010; Benjamin et al. 2019, e174-e182; CDC 2024)

Systolic Blood Pressure (SBP)

Systolic blood pressure describes the quantity of pressure in the arteries at the time of contraction of ventricles of the heart (AHA 2022b) This phase called systole happens when the left ventricle ejects blood into the aorta and subsequently into the systemic circulation. SBP is the higher figure of the two values obtained when checking a client's blood pressure (Magder 2018, 257). According to the research done on the norms of SBP, a healthy adult is supposed to have an SBP value of 90-120mmHg. SBP greater than 140 mmHg poses a considerable threat to cardiovascular ailments comprising of coronary artery disease, stroke and heart failure (Magder 2018, 257).

Diastolic Blood Pressure (DBP)

Diastolic blood pressure is the minimum pressure in the arteries when the heart is at rest between beats (AHA 2022b) This phase known as diastole is or time that the chambers of the heart fills with blood in preparation for the next contraction. The DBP is the second (lower) number represented when a person's blood pressure is taken. Normal or standard DBP for a normal, non-hypertensive adult should measure between 60 to 80 millimeters of mercury. High DBP, especially higher than 90 mmHg, also poses the individual to high risk of cardiovascular complications although, the importance of a high DBP is usually considered in relation to SBP (Magder 2018, 257).

Pulse Rate

Heart Rate (HR) is the number of pulses of the heart per minute and is one of the most significant indicators of an individual's cardiovascular status (Avram et al. 2019, 58). It relates to the functions of the pump as imposed by the heart, to meet the body's circulation and demands for oxygen. This remains one of the most important signs in family medicine that may suggest numerous diseases, evaluate the physical fitness, and choose further management strategies (Avram et al. 2019, 58). Taking a healthy human subjects rest rate as the baseline, the normal resting heart rate varies between 60 – 100 bpm. However, a regular sportsman may have a resting rate as low as 40 to 60 bpm because of efficiency of his or her cardiac muscles. The normal resting heart rate of children typically is higher than that of adults, newborns are believed to be between 120 and 160 bpm for instance (Avram et al. 2019, 58).

There are numerous considerations that can affect the rate of heartbeat (Kaplan et al. 2023, 1-2; Reimers, Knapp, and Reimers 2018, 2-19; Millar 2023); these include exercises and movements, as the rate rises during exercises to pump more blood with higher amounts of oxygen to the muscles depending on the intensity and time of exercises. People with higher cardiovascular fitness have lower resting heart rate and have superior working of the heart and normal aerobic exercise in athletes brings about bradycardia – a rate of heartbeat that is lower than the normal rate. Stress and directly related anxiety may cause an increased rate of heartbeat owing to the sympathetic nervous system, and the threat cues, stress hormones such as adrenaline. There are a myriad of drugs that cause changes in the heart rate; for instance, beta-blocker that are known to slow down the heart rate because they block the adrenaline impact while stimulants will tend to speed up the heart rate. The physiological disease also affects the heart rate; hyperthyroidism contributes to tachycardia, while hypothyroidism is connected with bradycardia. Age associated changes which lead to changes in the hearts electrical conduction system and reduced sensitivity to sympathetic stimulation normally causes the heart rate to go down. Further, some actions create even temporary effect on heart rate, for instance, changing position from lying down to standing position may cause the increase in heart rate. Other effects of hydration status on the body include heart rate where in case of dehydration, the body increases the rate of heart beats in order to compensate for little blood volume in the body.

Resting Heart Rate

The resting heart rate is defined as the rate per minute at which the heart beats when the body is at relative rest. It will depend with age, fitness and other aspects of an individual's life. A lower rate of resting heart now common can again imply better cardio vascular fitness and heart functions training (AHA 2022a). For instance, while athletes' resting heart rates are lower than that of the average pale population due to heart training.

Maximum Heart Rate

Maximum heart rate (MHR) is defined as the individuals' heart rate during the maximum exercise capacity hence is the highest amount of effort that one can produce in the exercise regime training (AHA 2022a). It is commonly calculated as 220 minus the person's age, though everyone is somewhat different. Awareness of maximum heart rate is important in creating suitable exercise prescriptions because it defines training prescription and certifies exercise templates and cardiovascular reactions to distinct actions (Tanaka, Monahan, and Seals 2001, 153-6).

Electrocardiography

An electrocardiogram (ECG or EKG) is an electrical recording of the heart for a certain span of time training (Becker 2006, 53 – 64). It gives information on rhythm and electrical conduction of the heart; if there are any irregularities in the electrical conduction of the heart the test will reveal it and their nature, where they are and how they look like (Becker 2006, 53 – 64). ECG is a minimally invasive test, which is utilized in both the clinic and research. It is used in diagnosing numerous cardiac ailments such as arrhythmia, myocardial infarction, and electrolyte abnormalities (Becker 2006, 53 – 64). The ECG waveform consists of several key components: consists of the P wave, QRS complex, T wave, and in some cases the U wave (Nurmaini et al. 2023, 1-2). These components are different phases of the cardiac electrical activity that is associated with the heart (Nurmaini et al. 2023, 1-2).

Electrocardiogram (ECG) is an important technique commonly used in diagnostic medicine with many uses. It is crucial for the diagnosis and description of different arrhythmias like the atrial fibrillation, the atrial flutter, ventricular tachycardia among others (Houghton 2020, 97-196). Thus, ST segment elevation, new Q waves, and T wave inversion are essential for the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction. Further, ECG can demonstrate

variations caused by electrolyte disorders, like high K⁺ or low K⁺ levels that can substantially affect the heart's working. ECG is also used for continuous cardiac monitoring in intensive care units and other monitoring in cases of suspected arrhythmias during surgery, and ambulatory with Holter monitors (Houghton 2020, 97-196).

P Wave

The P wave depicts the event related to the atrial contraction; it refers to the atrial depolarization. This is the first upward sloping complex of the ECG waveform and generally takes about 80 ms. The P wave is very valuable in assessing atrial size and function as well as confirming the normality of the signal. Pulmonary hypertension can be accompanied by abnormalities in the P wave, for instance, bifid P wave or vast amplitude suggesting atrial enlargement or atrial arrhythmias (Houghton 2020, 97-196).

QRS Complex

The QRS complex relates to electrical events that correspond to the contraction of the ventricle, also called ventricular depolarization. It is composed of three distinct waves: It is sectioned from the Q wave, the R wave, and the S wave (Meek and Morris 2002, 470-473).

- **Q Wave:** P wave is the first positive going deflection followed by the Q wave which is the first negative going deflection of ventricular depolarization. Pathological Q waves are characteristic for prior myocardial infarction.
- **R Wave:** The R wave is larger than the Q wave, in the same complex and is considered as the first positive wave that occurs after the Q wave, which represents the major part of the ventricular depolarization.
- **S Wave:** The S wave is the first negative deflection after the R wave, which characterizes that all ventricular depolarization is complete.

The length and shape of the QRS complex are essential when evaluating the condition of the ventricles and possible conduction disorders. For instance, width of QRS complex may show bundle branch block or ventricular hypertrophy (Pullan et al. 2010, 11-43).

T Wave

The T wave represents the movement associated with ventricular repolarization. It follows the QRS complex and typically has a smooth, asymmetrical shape. Finally, the T wave gives information on the way the ventricles repolarize or regain their resting state, that is, at rest potential. T wave changes is anode or outlet can point to a few distinctive cardiac and systemic illnesses (Meek and Morris 2002, 470-473).

- **Tall T Waves:** These can suggest hyperkalemia (high potassium levels) (Regolisti et al. 2020, 1-10).
- **Flattened or Inverted T Waves:** These can indicate myocardial ischemia or infarction, electrolyte imbalances, or other cardiac conditions (Lin, Teo, and Poh 2013, 606-610).

Evaluating T wave contour and laterality is critical in the diagnosis and management of all conditions affecting cardiac repolarization (Meek & Morris, 2002).

Other ECG Components

- **PR Interval:** The PR interval is period from the beginning of P wave to the beginning of the QRS complex. It is the time it takes for an electrical impulse to pass from the atria to the ventricles. High PR intervals can suggest that a person is in the first degree of heart block (de Luna et al. 2021, 25-400).
- **ST Segment:** The ST segment is that straight, horizontal line on the ECG tracing that lies between the S and the T waves. It represents the interval within which the ventricles get depolarized. Any changes in the ST segment like ST segment elevation or depression means that the patient may have myocardial ischemia or infarction (de Luna et al. 2021, 25-400) .
- **U Wave:** The U wave is another small wave that comes preceding to the T wave or can barely be seen. It is believed to depict the repolarization of the Purkinje fibers. U waves particularly with large amplitude are often suggestive of hypokalemia or other forms of electrolyte imbalance (de Luna et al. 2021, 25-400).

Techniques and Instruments Used in Cardiovascular Measurement

Blood Pressure Measurement

Accurate BP measurement is crucial in clinical settings, where it's often recorded alongside heart rate, oxygen saturation, respiratory rate, and temperature. BP can be monitored directly (invasively) or indirectly (non-invasively). Direct methods, like arterial catheterization, are accurate but invasive, while non-invasive methods, such as sphygmomanometers and digital oscillometric devices, are common but vary in accuracy. New non-invasive techniques, like tonometry and pulse transit time, offer alternatives but still require periodic calibration. Automated BP devices are widely used, yet accuracy concerns persist due to a lack of a universal calibration standard.

Blood Pressure Measurement Techniques

Invasive Blood Pressure Measurement Techniques

The optimal blood pressure monitoring method must be chosen because it directly affects clinical judgment (Saugel et al. 2020, 1-2). Invasive arterial blood pressure (ABP) monitors have been the de facto standard since Stephen Hills originally described invasive blood pressure measurement in a horse since they are the only way to measure blood pressure directly (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7). Continuous invasive arterial catheter blood pressure monitoring is the clinical standard method for blood pressure monitoring in critically sick and surgically vulnerable patients (Saugel et al. 2020, 1-2; Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6; Noh et al. 2024, 1-7), the fact that this measurement is a normative standard—that is, the reference technique used when testing new devices (Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6). Even though non-invasive continuous blood pressure monitoring techniques have advanced significantly in recent years (Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6) invasive blood pressure (IBP) is still the gold standard for arterial blood pressure assessment in 10–20% of patients at risk (Lam et al. 2021, 1-2). Therefore, arterial catheterization will not be replaced by new noninvasive continuous blood pressure monitors for critically ill patients in the operating room or intensive care unit (Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6). According to studies, intraoperative arterial catheter blood pressure monitoring lowers blood pressure by twice as much as oscillometric measures (Naylor et al. 2020, 1-2). It aids in the prompt diagnosis and management of hypotension (Naylor et al. 2020, 1-2). It has expedited the process of diagnosing hypertension and hypotension (Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6; Lam et al. 2021, 1-3).

Monitoring arterial blood pressure is an intrusive process that needs to be done by qualified professionals (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7). In order to properly measure blood pressure using an artery catheter and to recognize and fix common mistakes, there are five crucial steps to follow: Instructions for (1) selecting the site of catheter insertion, (2) selecting the kind of artery catheter, (3) positioning the arterial catheter, (4) zeroing and leveling the transducer, and (5) assessing the blood pressure waveform quality. (Saugel et al. 2020, 1-5). To measure the blood pressure waveform, a sphygmomanometer is positioned in fluid contact with the blood in a major artery, it is possible to follow other significant factors, such as cardiac output, by analyzing the waveform (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). For catheterization, the radial or dorsalis pedis artery is the ideal option because the collateral blood flow from the posterior tibial or ulnar arteries lowers the risk of ischemic problems (Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6). Furthermore, because vascular compliance and wave reflection amplify the pulse pressure, the arterial blood pressure measured at the radial artery may differ from the aortic pressure or the arterial blood pressure measured in other arteries, such as the aorta or brachial artery (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7).

There are many potential issues with measuring intra-arterial blood pressure include 1. Thrombus of vascular insufficiency (a problem that is more common in newborns than in adults; the artery may become clogged following catheter implantation) 2. Unintentional intra-arterial injection of medicines or air bubbles meant for intravenous delivery. 3. Unintentional rupture of the arterial line tube, which results in a sudden loss of blood. 4. The failure to insert the catheter into the artery (this can be extremely difficult or even impossible at times) 5. A bloodstream infection's unappreciated cause A *Staphylococcus aureus* infection is possible if arterial lines are left in place for several days (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7; Gore, Liu, and Bohringer 2024, 1-6).

Non Invasive Blood Pressure Measurement Techniques

Auscultatory Method

The Russian surgeon Nikolai Sergeyevich Korotkov first described auscultatory blood pressure measuring in 1905 using an inflated sphygmomanometer and a stethoscope (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7). Mercury blood pressure monitors have become the most accepted and widely used and are considered the “gold standard” (John et al. 2021, 806-808; Kim et al. 2024, 532-534). non-invasive blood pressure monitoring to precisely measure the systolic and diastolic blood pressure is employed to detect, diagnose, and treat hypertension (Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442). This method has long been used

to block blood flow by encircling the patient's upper extremity with an inflated cuff (Baranger et al. 2023, 1-3). When the cuff is deflated, the initial Korotkov sound indicates systolic pressure, and the sound's disappearance shows diastolic pressure. This approach has been shown to be prone to errors. These include mistakes made by observers as a result of inattention, hearing loss, mistaking visual cues for aural ones. Failure to correctly interpret Korotkoff sounds is the most significant problem, particularly when it comes to diastolic blood pressure. Inaccurate measurements can also result from observer bias and end-digit preference, and device issues are also frequent (Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442). Hence, highly qualified employees are needed (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207; Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442).

Mercury sphygmomanometers have gradually been superseded by hybrid (semi-mercury) and aneroid sphygmomanometers to diagnose hypertension, additionally, because digital sphygmomanometers are non-toxic, reasonably priced, and do not require the listening skills required to collect blood pressure readings, they are widely used. However, there are problems with the accuracy and reliability of systolic and diastolic blood pressure readings obtained with digital or electronic sphygmomanometers (Osonuga et al. 2021, 782).

Aneroid Sphygmomanometer

A common non-invasive technique involves placing a human observer's stethoscope over the brachial artery and inflating an upper arm cuff to the proper capacity to block blood flow and measure blood pressure using a mechanical system that consists of levers and metallic bellows; the result is shown on a circular scale (Lacković 2018, 81-91). As the cuff gradually deflates, the observer listens for Korotkoff noises while using an external pressure gauge to track the cuff's pressure. The commencement of turbulent flow and, consequently, systolic blood pressure (SP) are indicated by the first sound (Korotkoff phase I), while the renewal of laminar flow and, consequently, diastolic blood pressure (DP) are indicated by the final silent sound (Korotkoff phase 2). By adding a microphone to the cuff, listening can also be automated (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). These devices are a favored option in clinical settings since they are portable, inexpensive, and need no energy source and mercury-free, which complies with environmental safety regulations (Osonuga et al. 2021, 782; Kim et al. 2024, 532-534). They need regular calibration intervals, commonly every 6 to 12 months (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7), recalibration, and appropriate maintenance are necessary to guarantee accurate blood pressure readings (R. Kumar et al. 2021, 1-6; Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-

207). Additionally, the WHO currently no longer recommends this equipment due to the need for regular recalibration and observer training and re-training (Kim et al. 2024, 532-534).

Hybrid Sphygmomanometer

Devices that incorporate components of both electronic and auscultatory systems are known as hybrid sphygmomanometers (Penumerthy, Min, and Subramaniyam 2021, 245-250; Kim et al. 2024, 532-534; Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442). These electronically generated (mercury-like) sphygmomanometers use an analog electronic column rather than a mercury column; the liquid crystal display column or LED display glides smoothly and resembles an aneroid display or a mercury column.(Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442; Penumerthy, Min, and Subramaniyam 2021, 245-250). Using a stethoscope to listen to Korotkoff sounds, blood pressure is measured in order to minimize the tip-digit preference errors frequently observed in mercury and aneroid devices (Penumerthy, Min, and Subramaniyam 2021, 245-250; Kim et al. 2024, 532-534). Automated components in hybrid devices frequently increase measurement precision and lower operator error. However, as this includes an audio component, precise calibration and sensible use of the auditory component are still essential to preserving its accuracy,as this is an audible method and therefore prone to observer errors (R. Kumar et al. 2021, 1-6; Kim et al. 2024, 532-534; Siddique et al. 2021, 440-442).

Oscillometric Technique

Oscillometry is a non-invasive technique that is currently widely employed in clinical settings (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). Currently, this automated, non-invasive method is the most used in clinical practice. This method was initially shown by Marie in 1876 (R. Kumar et al. 2021, 1-6; Noh et al. 2024, 1-7), and the first blood pressure monitor that was manufactured commercially was released in 1976 (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7).The innovation of a novel miniature pressure transducer and the introduction of the first microprocessor enabled the gadget. Since blood pressure monitors (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7) were introduced, oscillometry techniques have been used to measure blood pressure both inside and outside of the clinic and to track blood pressure while on the go without the need for trained staff (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7). Additionally, a cuff that can compress the limb and wrap around it (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7) . A cuff that is placed around the upper arm, wrist, or ankle is used to measure the cuff pressure while gradually releasing air. The occluding cuff, which is wrapped over the upper arm and inflated to supra systolic pressure to fully obstruct the

brachial artery. (S. Kumar, Yadav, and Kumar 2022, 1-2). It is recommended to use a cuff rather than the wrist or finger types. Since the latter has not been clinically verified, the oscillometric approach is used (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207; Song 2024, 288-289).

The pressure gauge is in the monitor rather than the cuff, precise sensor placement is less crucial than listening (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). While recording cuff pressure, a cuff that is wrapped around the upper arm (or wrist or ankle) is gradually deflated between supra-systolic and sub-diastolic cuff pressures. Minor oscillations that represent pulsatile arterial blood volume are also recorded (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). The deflation curve is used to extract these superimposed oscillations, which are then converted into an oscillatory wave envelope (OMWE). To estimate blood pressure from OMWE, a number of techniques are employed, including neural network (NN), maximum amplitude algorithm (MAA), and maximum regression (MS). The mean blood pressure, or MBP, is the pressure that corresponds to the envelope's greatest elevation, as determined by the MAA algorithm (S. Kumar, Yadav, and Kumar 2022, 1-2; Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207). A predetermined ratio of the MBP point amplitude determines SBP and DBP; these predetermined ratios are empirically derived and are referred to as the characteristic ratio (S. Kumar, Yadav, and Kumar 2022, 1-2). It is important to note that modern blood pressure monitors primarily use the maximum oscillation to determine the mean blood pressure; however, the precise method used to calculate the systolic and diastolic blood pressure is proprietary to the manufacturers and is kept secret (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7; S. Kumar, Yadav, and Kumar 2022, 1-2). There are numerous factors that impact the oscillatory component's accuracy, including: size of the cuff, oscillatory waveform extraction, oscillatory waveform envelope synthesis, cuff fit, which influences mean arterial blood pressure, cuff deflation rate, and blood pressure algorithms all depend on higher pressures to produce the maximum pulses that a tight cuff can produce. Numerous algorithms exist for estimating blood pressure, with varying performance characteristics and several patented for each unique automated arterial blood pressure monitor (Sharman et al. 2023, 93-97).

Cuff less Photo plethysmography (PPG):

Conventional cuffs that measure blood pressure using photoplethysmography (PPG) and pulse transit time (PTT) can be used for cuff less blood pressure monitoring with PPG sensors photoplethysmography (Khalid et al. 2020, 58146-58148). Since PPG devices use variations in the time it takes for pulse waves to travel between two sites and variations in the amount of

light absorbed by the skin, blood pressure estimation using PPG depends on detecting changes in blood volume (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207; Noh et al. 2024, 1-7). Blood pressure can be monitored outside of a clinic, according to studies, although accuracy varies, particularly before and after calibration. Even with the potential advantages of cuffless blood pressure monitoring, there are still obstacles to obtaining precise and trustworthy readings (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207; El-Hajj and Kyriacou 2021, 1-3). These are vasoconstriction, temperature, humidity, sensor placement, environmental factors, and variations in skin color, which can cause measurement errors or racial bias. Technological developments aim to enhance calibration processes and measuring techniques such as pulse arrival time (PAT), variable transit time (VTT), and pulse wave velocity (PWV) to solve the difficulties brought on by both individual and environmental factors (Mukkamala, Stergiou, and Avolio 2022, 203-207; El-Hajj and Kyriacou 2021, 1-3; Le et al. 2020, 1-3).

Tonometry Technique:

A pressure transducer is used to measure the blood pressure waveform from the major superficial arteries, providing a continuous, non-invasive technique for taking blood pressure (Meidert and Saugel 2021, 273-281). A wrist-worn gadget records the pulse waveform of the radial arteries. The device uses a modified applanation tonometry blood pressure measurement to calibrate to brachial blood pressure. The sensor system is comprised of a wrist strap that secures the sensor unit, a monitor on the dorsal side of the wrist, and a sensor unit attached to the ventral side of the radial artery. Through the use of its algorithm, the internal pressure sensor converts the pulse waveform from the piston into blood pressure readings (Noh et al. 2024, 1-7; Le et al. 2020, 1-3)

It is regarded as a useful tool in critical care units and during surgical procedures due to its real-time blood pressure measurement capabilities (Le et al. 2020, 1-3). Apart from offering the advantage of constant observation without the trouble of cuff inflation or deflation (Meidert and Saugel 2021, 273-281; Jiang et al. 2020, 1-2), Additionally, it facilitates quick therapeutic interventions and offers thorough information on the patient's hemodynamic status (Meidert and Saugel 2021, 273-281). The gadget produces 24-hour ambulatory blood pressure monitoring results and is designed for medical usage. However, because blood pressure readings can be impacted by factors like patient position or movement, they must be precisely calibrated for each patient. This necessitates the development of blood pressure meas-

urement techniques to lower user-dependent variability and improve measurement accuracy (El-Hajj and Kyriacou 2021, 1-2; Meidert and Saugel 2021, 273-281; Mukkamala, Hahn, and Chandrasekhar 2022, 359-400).

Volume clamp method / Penaz Method (Finger Cuff Approach)

It is a continuous, non-invasive, automatic technique by measuring an opposing force that keeps the body from being disturbed physically (Panula et al. 2022, 424-428; R. Kumar et al. 2021, 1-6). To ascertain the pulses in the finger arteries, this technique uses a photoplethysmograph (PPG) (R. Kumar, Dubey, and Yadav 2022, 1-2). To keep the artery diameter constant, a cuff with a photoplethysmograph (PPG) sensor is wrapped around the finger. The manometer records the cuff pressure, and the photoplethysmograph sensor monitors the variations in blood volume in the digital arteries. Along with the PPG, the finger cuff's fast inflation and deflation are controlled to produce the pulse blood pressure waveform. By maintaining the PPG waveform throughout the cardiac cycle, the blood pressure waveform may be monitored. It is important to note that although it indirectly monitors blood pressure and is effective at monitoring changes in blood pressure, it is not dependable enough for precise absolute measurements (R. Kumar, Dubey, and Yadav 2022, 1-2; Panula et al. 2022, 424-428).

Ultrasound Technique

A standard clinical technique for measuring blood flow involves transmitting and detecting arteries beneath the cuff using ultrasonic waves. In real time, it is the only technique capable of providing rapid changes in cardiovascular parameters, such as peak blood flow and mean absolute velocity (Wang et al. 2021, 1-2). Furthermore, velocity change measurement is more sensitive than flow measurement for detecting tiny vessel lumen depressions. Compared to other techniques, ultrasound has a greater penetration capability and, at a reasonable intensity, does not injure the human body. For these reasons, it is more appropriate for young patients and patients with weak pulses than other techniques or when standard methods for monitoring blood pressure don't work (Wang et al. 2021, 1-2; Rastegar, Gholam Hosseini, and Lowe 2020, 11-28). The Doppler Effect is the foundation of the method, although implanted Doppler sensors have been demonstrated to be capable of continuous monitoring, their use is constrained by wired communication needs (Wang et al. 2021, 1-2).

Holter monitors

The Holter monitor's fundamental basis is galvanometer theory; the first device to monitor an ECG was the string galvanometer, which Einthoven first described in 1893. The purpose is to do electrocardiograms on patients as they go about their daily activities (Abdullah et al. 2021, 1036-1038). The most widely used method for detecting arrhythmias in ambulatory individuals of all ages since its inception in the late 1940s is 24-hour Holter monitoring (Galli, Ambrosini, and Lombardi 2016, 136-137). The most widely used non-invasive method for detecting paroxysmal arrhythmias is still Holter monitoring (Mahdy, Ezzat, and Tan 2018, 80). They are reliable techniques for recognizing and monitoring arrhythmias (Mahdy, Ezzat, and Tan 2018, 80). These devices continually record the ECG and usually feature three electrodes. Newer Holter monitors provide continuous ECG recording for up to two weeks, and they can be either short-term (24–48 hours) or long-term (1–2 weeks) devices (Galli, Ambrosini, and Lombardi 2016, 136-137).

Continuous Holter monitoring has two primary advantages: It is possible to measure the actual load of an arrhythmia, as well as the identification of rhythm abnormalities outside the parameters imposed by an algorithm or memory (Galli, Ambrosini, and Lombardi 2016, 136-137). Although a two- to three-lead method can be used to monitor cardiac rhythm and rate, a twelve-lead Holter ECG is usually advised to assess the underlying cause of arrhythmias or pre-arrhythmias or premature beats (Abdullah et al. 2021, 1036-1038). It is important to remember that the indications and intended purposes of Holter monitoring are the primary determinants of whether to employ 12-lead or two- to three-lead Holter ECG monitoring equipment (Abdullah et al. 2021, 1036-1038).

Despite their advantages, ambulatory Holter monitors have a variety of disadvantages, including a comparatively brief monitoring period, a reporting delay brought on by trouble sending real-time data to the attending cardiology unit, the inability to detect remotely, and the requirement for close patient-provider collaboration (Galli, Ambrosini, and Lombardi 2016, 136-137; Mahdy, Ezzat, and Tan 2018, 80). Furthermore, 24-hour Holter monitoring as having the causal arrhythmia does not identify a sizable percentage of individuals with symptoms. In a symptomatic episode, 25% of patients are unable to turn on their gadgets (Murali et al. 2020, 1-2), also ECG monitoring typically necessitates a lengthy hospital stay for the patient because the traditional Holter ECG monitor is large, costly, and often out of step with current technology. It is also frequently difficult to carry around because it has numerous electrodes attached to the chest (Mahdy, Ezzat, and Tan 2018, 80).