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Matthew W. Hann

**TI Precision Designs: Verified Design**

**Ultra Low Power, 18 bit Precision ECG Data Acquisition System**

**TI Precision Designs**

TI Precision Designs are analog solutions created by TI’s analog experts. Verified Designs offer the theory, component selection, simulation, complete PCB schematic & layout, bill of materials, and measured performance of useful circuits. Circuit modifications that help to meet alternate design goals are also discussed.

**Circuit Description**

Electrocardiography (ECG), the measurement of the electrical activity of the heart, requires a precision analog front end instrumentation gain stage, filtering, and a high resolution analog to digital converter to achieve the highest performance. This design features the methodology for achieving a LEAD I ECG measurement system designed from discrete analog components. Ultra low power is achieved by creating a discrete instrumentation front end using an OPA2333 and then digitizing the signals with the 18 bit ADS8881 SAR ADC.
1 Design Summary

This design takes a block level approach for optimizing the precision components in the analog front end, post gain filter, input drive, reference, and analog to digital conversion conditioning circuitry typically found in a high precision analog data acquisition system for ECG. Also included will be recommendations on other low power, high precision alternative approaches as well as recommended power devices to make it easier to customize based on a unique set of design requirements.

The design requirements for this ECG data acquisition are:

- Total Power Consumption < 1 mW
- Resolution: 18 bits
- Input range: 0 – 3V dc
- Throughput Sampling Rate: 10ksp/s
- Analog/Digital Supply: 3.3V dc
- Input Bandwidth: 200Hz (ECG signals)

The design goals and performance are summarized in Table 1.

Figure 1 depicts the measured output of the ECG signal.

Table 1. Comparison of Design Goals, Simulation, and Measured Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Simulated</th>
<th>Measured</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Consumption (mW)</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Noise (µV RMS)</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input-Referred Noise (µV RMS)</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signal-to-Noise Ratio (dB)</td>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR @ 100Hz</td>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Mode Rejection Ratio (dB)</td>
<td>-90</td>
<td>-80</td>
<td>-108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR @ 60Hz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Measured ECG Output vs. Time
2 Theory of Operation

2.1 Background on ECG Measurements

ECG is a method that converts the ionic polarization / depolarization from the heart muscle activity into a measurable electrical signal that can be detected and used to determine normal vs. problematic heart wave signatures. For this reason, it is imperative that the measurements are accurate and robust. Though the entire field of ECG includes a summation of measurements from many different reference configurations (i.e. chest lead, Wilson central, LEAD I, LEAD II, LEAD III), this design focuses solely on the LEAD I measurement, which is the electrical potential formed between the left arm (LA) and right arm (RA). The ECG signal is differential with respect to a right leg reference lead, typically in the range of 100µVpp – 2mVpp, and includes harmonics up to 200Hz; therefore, the small signal must be filtered, buffered, and amplified so that a clean signal can be digitized by the ADC.

To optimize the ECG front end design, the following 6 blocks need to be considered. Each block is numbered in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

Table 2: Six Design Blocks for Optimization in ECG System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design Block</th>
<th>Function in ECG System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Body Impedance:</td>
<td>Requires electrical model so that the proper analysis of the entire ECG front end can be properly considered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Input filtering</td>
<td>Rejects EMI / RFI and protection resistance (typically ~ 100kΩ to minimize current that can be injected back into the patient)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Pre-Amplifier Gain Stage</td>
<td>Relaxes requirements on ADC by amplifying the input signal, thereby requiring less bits to for an accurate ADC conversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Right Leg Drive (RLD) amplifier</td>
<td>Provides a common mode bias and reduces common mode noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) VREF Driver + Input Driver + ADC</td>
<td>This block is optimized for power, and its noise should dominate the signal chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Post Gain Low Pass Filter:</td>
<td>Ensures that the ADC block is the dominant noise source by filtering it to a minimum of 1/3 of the VREF Driver + Input Driver + ADC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3: Block Level View of ECG Front End Design Steps
2.2 Electrode Impedance and Model

Figure 5: Electrical Model of the Human Body and ECG Electrode Impedance
The ECG data acquisition system is typically comprised of electrodes constructed from Ag-AgCl which make contact with the skin in order to effectively detect the electrical depolarization of the heart. Assuming a LEAD I configuration (i.e. voltage potential between left and right arm with respect to a right leg reference shown in Figure 6) the impedance of the electrode (along with the contact to the skin) can be lumped into a battery in series with a parallel RC combination of 47nF and 52kΩ. The battery model is ideally be 0V; however, over time and with varying external conditions it is possible for the Ag-AgCl voltage to become ±300mV, a factor that must be carefully considered when designing the front end gain stage.

An electrical model of the body impedance is very useful in helping design the analog front end of the ECG signal chain. The primary reason for this that the body itself forms an electric path from the output of the right leg drive amplifier back to the input of the analog front end gain. The loop formed around the right leg drive amplifier (to be discussed in detail in a later section) can be inherently unstable and requires a secondary feedback path to compensate for this inherent instability.

### 2.3 Low Pass Filtering and Input Protection Resistance

![Electrical model of the body impedance](image)

ECG front ends are required to have some level of protection resistance (usually 100kΩ) to minimize the amount of current that can be delivered from the electric circuitry back into the patient in a failure mode. In this design the 100kΩ protection resistance is split into two separate 50kΩ resistors ($R_{S1} + R_{S2}$ and $R_{S3} + R_{S4}$) to allow for the creation of a second order common-mode low pass filter (with cutoff frequency, $f_c$) at the inputs for improved noise rejection. To further improve the rejection, a differential filter with cutoff frequency ($f_d$) is placed across the inputs. The capacitor selected for this filter must be large enough to keep $f_d$ out of the way of the in band ECG signal, $f_{ECG}$, while at the same time filtering out high frequency noise. To accomplish this, it is best to ensure the following:

$$f_d \geq 10 \cdot f_{ECG}$$  (1)

The second order filter can be easily understood through a single-ended analysis of the common mode filter at the positive input (i.e. $R_{S1}$, $R_{S2}$, $C_{F1}$, $C_{F2}$). Furthermore, to prevent any capacitive mismatch between $C_{F1}$ and $C_{F2}$ from reflecting itself as an in-band signal error (i.e. within the ECG bandwidth) it is necessary to place $f_d$ at least a decade lower in frequency than $f_c$. The equations for both $f_c$ and $f_d$ are shown in (2) and (3) below:

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{R_{S1}R_{S2}C_{F1}C_{F2}}}$$  (2)
\[ f_D = \frac{1}{2\pi \left( R_{S1} + R_{S2} + R_{S3} + R_{S4} \right) \times C_D} \leq \frac{f_c}{10} \]  

(3)

2.4 Instrumentation Amplifier

The instrumentation amplifier is a critical piece of the analog signal chain and can often have a dramatic impact on the performance of a precision signal chain. For the ECG signal chain, the INA chosen will perform the following primary functions:

1. Buffers the inputs and electrode sensors from the post filtering and A/D block
2. Provides amplification of the low level ECG signal

Table 3 gives a comprehensive list of the factors that need to be considered in determining the choice of the instrumentation amplifier.

Table 3: Selection Considerations for the Instrumentation Amplifier ECG Front End

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Benefit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Input Impedance</td>
<td>Minimizing this reduces input loading on sensor, minimizes input current offsets on input resistors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input Current Noise</td>
<td>Minimizing this reduces the amount of current noise that becomes converted to voltage noise on input resistors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Noise</td>
<td>Minimizing this improves the overall signal to noise ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR vs. Frequency</td>
<td>Maximizing this reduces the amount of input offset changes due to 50/60Hz common noise coupling on the inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistive Gain Matching</td>
<td>Maximizing this improves the total unadjusted system error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Offset Drift</td>
<td>Minimizing this reduces the amount that the total unadjusted error changes at the output of the INA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Supply Operation</td>
<td>Designing a single supply amplifier simplifies the system supply requirements; usually correlates with a lower power architecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Power</td>
<td>Enables use in power-sensitive or battery monitoring applications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input Type</td>
<td>Using Differential Input Structure can improve common mode noise rejection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output Type</td>
<td>Using Differential Output Structure can improve common mode noise rejection at ADC inputs as well as potentially reduce / relax signal conditioning circuitry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: Differential In – Differential Out Instrumentation Amplifier Topology
Figure 7 shows an instrumentation gain block (INA) that will be used to amplify the ECG signal prior to sampling by the ADC. The reasons that this topology is the following:

1. The differential output voltage will improve noise rejection at the inputs of the ADC
2. The inputs are very high impedance which minimizes the loading and interaction of the input bias currents with the passive input impedances
3. CMRR is dependent on the operational amplifiers selected and can be customized
4. Uses 1 less amplifier than a 3 amplifier INA configuration which may be helpful in lowering power

The transfer function for this INA is given by the following:

\[
\frac{V_{\text{outP}} - V_{\text{outN}}}{V_{\text{inP}} - V_{\text{inN}}} = 1 + 2 \cdot \frac{R_F}{R_G}
\]  

(4)

The differential output voltage which will be sampled by the ADC is given by the following:

\[
V_{\text{outP}} - V_{\text{outN}} = \left(1 + 2 \cdot \frac{R_F}{R_G}\right) \cdot (V_{\text{inP}} - V_{\text{inN}})
\]  

(5)

### 2.5 Right Leg Drive Amplifier

Figure 8 shows a block level image of the right leg drive (RLD) amplifier in the ECG analog front end. The purpose of the right leg drive amplifier is twofold:

1. Provide a common mode, DC bias and input bias return path for the INA front end
2. Reduce common mode noise at the inputs of the front end INA

![Right Leg Drive Amplifier Diagram](image-url)
The RLD amplifier is configured as an integrator that adjusts its output voltage to keep its inverting input at the same potential as the voltage applied at the non-inverting input. In doing so, the RLD amplifier ensures that the average value of the inputs (i.e. the common mode voltage) stays fixed. The RLD amplifier is properly biased when its non-inverting input is set to mid scale (V_{REF}/2) and the summing node is connected to a “midpoint” of the two inputs, which in this case is set up by splitting the gain resistor into R_{G1} and R_{G2}. Trans-Z INA topology lends itself to splitting the gain resistor, RG, in half to achieve the common mode midpoint.

Since the RLD amplifier is an integrator, the cutoff for the integrator time constant is determined by R_{R1} and C_{R1}. This RC combination establishes the dominant feedback path around the RLD to ensure stability of the overall loop. Without it, the dominant feedback path is through the INA which in most cases produces a loop that is not stable.

### 2.6 V_{REF} Driver + Input Driver + ADC (Ultra Low Power SAR ADC Block)

![Ultra Low Power SAR ADC Block for ECG](image)

**Figure 9: Ultra Low Power SAR ADC Block for ECG**

The details for the overall design process for the “Ultra Low Power SAR ADC Block” shown in Figure 9 are contained within the document, SLAU514. In subsequent sections there will be a summary of the key concerns, equations, and design tricks that reference this document for designing a SAR ADC data acquisition block for high resolution and ultra low power.
2.6.1 VREF Driver

Figure 10: Ultra Low Power Voltage Reference and Buffer Circuit

2.6.1.1 Noise optimization of the Vref

For the ADC to make a valid conversion, it must have an accurate “frame of reference”. The overall goal is to reduce the noise of the voltage reference circuit so that the overall noise of the Ultra Low Power SAR ADC block is dominated by the inherent noise (e.g., quantization) of the ADC. Moreover, this means choosing the values for RA1 and CA1 (shown in Figure 10) to ensure noise is limited to an acceptable level.

RMS Noise from the voltage reference (e_noise) is calculated via the root-sum-square of the RMS flicker noise e_f (1/f noise specified in peak to peak noise between .1Hz – 10Hz) and the broadband noise (e_BB):

\[ e_{\text{noise}} = \sqrt{e_f^2 + e_{\text{BB}}^2} \]  

(6)

Also, there is a direct tradeoff in broadband noise density (e_BB) and quiescent current consumption (I_ref):

\[ e_{\text{BB}} = \frac{\sqrt{\mu A}}{\sqrt{2} \cdot I_{\text{ref}}} \]  

(7)

A good rule of thumb for scaling the noise of the reference buffer is given in equation 8. Note that a first order low pass filter formed by RA1 and CA1 (f_c) must be inserted between the voltage reference and the buffer amplifier to limit e_noise to \( \leq 3x \) the RMS noise of the analog to digital converter (e_ADC).

\[ e_{\text{noise}} \leq \frac{1}{3} \cdot e_{\text{ADC}} \]  

(8)

The RMS noise of the ADC, e_ADC, is derived from the SNR which is specified in the data sheet. Using the following equation, it is possible to relate the RMS noise to the SNR and the full scale input range of the ADC based on the value of the voltage reference (V_ref):

\[ \text{SNR(dB)} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{V_{\text{ref}}/\sqrt{2}}{e_{\text{ADC}}} \right) \]  

(9)

Solving for e_ADC gives the following:

\[ e_{\text{ADC}} = \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \left( 10 \frac{\text{SNR}}{20} \right)} \]  

(10)
Consequently, the selection of the voltage reference is a tradeoff between power consumption and noise. Therefore, if $f_{cr}$ is made small enough it is possible to minimize the contribution of $e_{BB}$ to the overall RMS noise of the Ultra Low Power ADC block (i.e. $e_{ADC}$) to a level where it is not significant with respect to the ADC. Also, from equation 6,

$$e_{BB} = \sqrt{e_{BBd} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot f_{cr}} \quad (11)$$

### 2.6.1.2 Charge Bucket ($C_{ref1}$) Calculation

Referring again to Figure 10, $C_{ref1}$ is referred to as a “charge bucket” because it acts like a reservoir from which the ADC pulls current while the buffer amplifier replenishes the average charge so that the voltage at the ADC reference pin may be well regulated.

The net charge $\Delta Q$ needed to be delivered to the ADC’s voltage reference pin by the external capacitor, $C_{ref1}$, is directly proportional to the amount of current drawn by the ADC reference pin ($I_{REF}$) during one conversion time, $T_{throughput}$:

$$\Delta Q = I_{REF} \cdot T_{throughput} \quad (12)$$

The change in the reference buffer output voltage cannot exceed $\frac{1}{2}$ LSB of the ADC (determined by $n$ number of bits and range of $\pm V_{REF}$), given by the following equation:

$$\Delta V_{ref} \leq \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{2V_{REF}}{2^n} \right) \quad (13)$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{I_{REF} \cdot T_{throughput}}{C_{ref1}} \leq \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{2V_{REF}}{2^n} \right) \quad (14)$$

From this, the charge bucket capacitor, $C_{ref1}$, can be calculated:

$$C_{ref1} \geq 2^n \cdot \left( \frac{I_{REF} \cdot T_{throughput}}{V_{REF}} \right) \quad (15)$$

### 2.6.1.3 Buffer Amplifier + $R_{ref1}$

The buffer amplifier in Figure 10 is required to re-charge $C_{ref1}$ in between conversions to ensure that the voltage provided to the ADC is well-regulated. Here are the tradeoffs to consider when selected a low power operational amplifier to drive the reference pin:

1. **Gain Bandwidth**—this translates directly to the OPA’s ability to recharge $C_{ref1}$ in between conversions

2. **Open Loop Output Impedance**—as an amplifier runs out of bandwidth its ability to keep the output impedance low in a closed loop reduces to the value of the open loop output impedance. This appears as a series resistor with the large value of $C_{ref1}$ thereby forming a time constant that can prevent the buffer output from settling.

3. **Stability**—large capacitive loads can have the effect of causing instability in the buffer amplifier. Even if this instability is a very small, low level oscillation, it can easily show up in the conversion of the ADC and degrade some, if not all of its DC and AC specifications.
(4) $R_{ref1}$—this resistor is crucial for isolating $C_{ref1}$ from the buffer driver to help with stability. Selecting this resistor involves a delicate balance between stability, noise filtering, and current load regulation. Make this resistor too small and the amplifier becomes difficult to stabilize; however, make it too large and this will limit the amount of current the buffer can provide to $C_{ref1}$ thereby limiting its ability to provide charge in between conversions. Therefore, the R-C time constant ($\tau$) formed from $R_{ref1}$ and $C_{ref1}$ must have some restriction to make sure $V_{ref}$ settling is achieved. The assumption is the following:

$$\tau = R_{ref1} \times C_{ref1} \leq \frac{1}{f_{sample}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

### 2.6.1.4 Input Driver

In designing and optimizing the ADC input driver, once again a balance must be struck between power consumption, ADC sampling rate, noise, settling time, and charge bucket filter. In general if the ADC is a SAR and is sampling at a lower conversion rate, a lower power drive amplifier can be used because there will be more time for settling due to the increased acquisition time.

Figure 11 shows a common configuration for voltage follower SAR drivers. Components such as $R_{iso1}$, $R_{iso2}$ help with stability by isolating the amplifier from the capacitive charge bucket (CF), while the dual feedback around the amplifier keeps the closed loop output impedance low thereby minimizing the interaction with the resistance internal to the ADC.

A differential, RC filter is placed across the inputs to filter input noise, minimize aliasing (i.e. frequency harmonics folding back into the pass band), and to serve as a “flywheel” or charge reservoir for the internal sample and hold circuitry from the ADC (formed by $R_{SH}$ and $C_{SH}$).

$$f_{filter} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 2R_{iso}C_F}$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

Assuming the voltage droop on the flywheel capacitor ($C_F$) from sampling during a single ADC conversion is represented by $\Delta V_F$, the corresponding amount of charge $\Delta Q_F$ required to sustain this droop is given by the following:

$$\Delta V_F = \frac{\Delta Q_F}{C_F}$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

Assuming the rule of thumb that the voltage on $C_F$ cannot droop more than 5% of its initial full scale value input value ($V_{fs}$, which is determined by the voltage reference), the following relationship is established:
\[ \Delta V_F = \frac{\Delta Q_F}{C_F} \leq 0.05 V_{fs} \]  
\[ \frac{C_{SH} \cdot V_{REF}}{C_{FLT}} \leq \left( \frac{1}{20} \right) V_{fs} \]  
\[ C_{FLT} \geq 20 \cdot C_{SH} \]

### 2.7 Post Gain (INA) Low Pass Filter

The purpose of the low pass filter that follows the INA gain stage is to reduce the noise of the front end INA circuitry (\( e_{INA} \)) to a level that is statistically insignificant compared to the noise of the ADC circuitry (\( e_{ADC} \)). Since the noise will be Gaussian, the root-sum-squares method can again be employed to calculate the total ECG system noise, \( e_{ECG\_OUT} \).

\[ e_{ECG\_OUT} = \sqrt{e_{INA}^2 + e_{ADC}^2} \]  

Therefore, if \( e_{INA} \) is at least 3x smaller than \( e_{ADC} \), the overall noise of the SAR ADC block may be approximated by \( e_{ECG\_OUT} \).

\[ e_{ADC} \geq 3 \cdot e_{INA} = e_{ECG\_OUT} \]  

Consequently, the desired filtered INA noise value (\( e_{INA\_filtered} \)) can be optimized using the following equation where \( f_{INA\_filtered} \) is the cutoff frequency:

\[ f_{INA\_filtered} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_{LP1}C_{LP}} \]  

\[ e_{INA\_filtered} = e_{INA} \sqrt{\left( f_{INA\_filtered} \right) \pi} \]
Equation 25 is a recursive function which can be solved iteratively, yielding the cutoff frequency needed to achieve an RMS noise target from the front end INA. Alternatively, a much easier way to solve for $f_{\text{INA\_filtered}}$ is through a noise simulation using TINA-TI™ SPICE. See figure….

### 3 Component Selection

The overall goal is to design the lowest power, highest precision ECG data acquisition system out of discrete components. During normal mode of operation, the power consumed in the Vref driver and the input driver will eclipse that of the ADC. Since these blocks will be the dominant source of power, the following steps were taken to achieve the power consumption goals highlighted in Table 1:

1. Start with the Ultra Low Power Data Acquisition block that was designed in SLAU514x. In this design, the ADS8881 was chosen for its excellent resolution (18bits) and power consumption (55µW @ 10ksps). The overall power consumed by this block was measured at 400µW, which leaves another 50µW that can be used on the front end INA.

2. Using Table 3 as a reference for the key concerns for the selection of the INA, the following table lists some candidate devices that were considered in this design:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Power (µA)</th>
<th>Selected? Y/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OPA2333</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Yes—best power to noise, precision offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPA2336</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>No—flicker noise too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INA333</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>No, single-ended output, requires extra OP AMP for reference pin and level shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INA321</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>No, single-ended output, requires extra OP AMP for reference pin and level shift, noise too high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Power Partitioning in ECG System

![Figure 13: Total Current Allocation of ECG Design Blocks](image-url)
3.1 Low Pass Filtering and Input Protection Resistance

Using equations (1-3), and the selected values for RS1, RS2, RS3, and RS4 the input low pass filter formed by the common mode component can be calculated. Since the ECG bandwidth is ~200Hz, according to equation 1 the low pass cutoff frequency should not be any lower than 2kHz to keep the filter out of the way of the in-band ECG signal. Also, equation 3 shows that the differential filter fD formed by RS1, RS2, and CD will have a decade will have a 10x lower cutoff frequency than fc, from which we can assign standard values for CF1, CF2, CF3, CF4 of 100pF, this gives the following:

\[ f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{R_s R_C C_{F1} C_{F2}}} = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{50k\Omega \cdot 50k\Omega \cdot 100pF \cdot 100pF}} = 32kHz \]  

(27)

So now with the common mode filter cutoff frequency set to 32kHz, the differential cutoff frequency (fD) now can be set by the following:

\[ f_D = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{(R_{s1} + R_{s2})C_D}} = \frac{f_c}{10} = 3.2kHz \]  

(28)

Solving for CD yields the following:

\[ C_D = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{(R_{s1} + R_{s2})f_D}} = 2nF \]  

(29)
3.2 Instrumentation Amplifier

To minimize drift, noise as well as power consumption, the OPA333 was chosen as the amplifier from which the INA was constructed. The pros and cons of using this INA topology are listed in Table 5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Benefits of the OPA2333 “Trans-Z” Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Input Impedance</td>
<td>*Advantage: Input Bias current = 200pA and will cause minimal voltage offset errors at inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input Current Noise</td>
<td>*Advantage: Overall Noise Contribution due to input current noise is minimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Noise</td>
<td>*Advantage: Noise density = 50nV/√Hz, 1/f noise = 1.1μVpp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR vs. Frequency</td>
<td>*Advantage: 90dB @ 60Hz for single amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistive Gain Matching</td>
<td>Disadvantage: Requires discrete resistors for Gain Matching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Offset Drift</td>
<td>*Advantage: 0.05μV/°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Supply Operation</td>
<td>*Advantage: Offers 3.3V operation with rail to rail I/O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Power</td>
<td>*Advantage: Quiescent current = 17μA / Amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input Type</td>
<td>*Advantage: Optimized for EMI / RFI Immunity see note SBOZ004A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output Type</td>
<td>*Advantage: Using Differential Output Structure can improve common mode noise rejection at ADC inputs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Right Leg Drive Amplifier

The most effective way to analyze the RLD amplifier stability is through the use of TINA-TI™ SPICE. To do this, determine frequency, \( f_c \), and rate of closure at the intersection of the open loop gain (AOL) and the feedback factor (1/\( \beta \)) on a Bode plot.

Recall that to ensure stability for a two pole system, the following must be true:

\[
\text{Stable} = \text{AOL}_c - \left( \frac{1}{\beta} \right) \leq -20 \, \text{dB/dec} \tag{30}
\]

To test for stability, the outer loop of RLD Drive amplifier (1/\( \beta \)) is analyzed versus the AOL curve using the simulation circuit in Figure 15. The results show that the AOL intersects the 1/\( \beta \) curve at -40dB/dec at \( f_c = 50kHz \). Therefore, the RLD amplifier needs a compensation feedback path to flatten out the upward slope of the 1/\( \beta \) curve.
The dotted line in Figure 16 shows the response that would be achieved with a series $R_{R1}$ and $C_{R1}$ (see Figure 17) placed in the feedback of the RLD amplifier. As shown, to make this system stable it is necessary to ensure the added compensation path dominates the feedback network so that it can intersect the AOL curve (blue) at -20dB/dec or less. It is also important to make sure that $f_c$ is greater than at least a half a decade away from the AOL curve. The reason for this is to allow for process variation which could quickly erode the frequency margin that is needed to flatten the curve in time for the intersection. Therefore, the corner frequency ($f_{RLD}$) for the compensation path is selected to be 8kHz. Choosing a standard value of 10kΩ and 2nF gives the following:

$$f_{RLD} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_{R1}C_{RR1}} = 8kHz$$  (31)
The simulation of the compensated circuit is shown in Figure 17 below:

![RLD Simulation Circuit with Compensation for Stability](image)

**Figure 17:** RLD Simulation Circuit with Compensation for Stability

Finally, Figure 18 confirms that RR1 and CR1 affect the $1/\beta$ curve to produce a $<-20$dB/dec rate of closure and a stable feedback loop.

![Plot of AOL vs. 1/Beta Showing Stability](image)

**Figure 18:** Plot of AOL vs. 1/Beta Showing Stability

New Composite $1/\beta$ (Feedback) with Integrator

Open Loop Gain of RLD Amplifier

ROC $\leq -20$dB / decade
3.4 $V_{REF}$ Driver + Input Driver + ADC (Ultra Low Power SAR ADC Block)

![Input Driver Configuration Diagram](image)

Figure 19: Input Driver Configuration

Table 6 gives a summary taken from SLAU514, in which the process for designing a picking the components for the input driver is given in more detail:

**Table 6: Key Component Selection Tips for Input Driver**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{in}$ Range</td>
<td>Establish the $V_{in}$ range from REF3330 = 3V. Give 100mV of input head room to ensure that the voltage of the OPA2333 input driver never saturates. Therefore, 3V -100mV = 2.9V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flywheel Capacitor ($C_F$)</td>
<td>Use the value of the sample-and-hold capacitor from the ADS8881, $C_{SH} = 59$ pF, and Equation 17: $C_F = 20 \times C_{SH} = 20 \times 59$ pF $\geq 1.2$ nF.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_F$ Value</td>
<td>Choose the closest standard value for best noise rejection: $C_F = 4.7$ nF. Another value that could improve noise rejection would be 10 nF, but for COG capacitor price could become an issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_F$ Type <em>Important</em></td>
<td>Choose a COG which is much higher quality than an X7R. The X7R yields spurious harmonics in the FFT because its value of C changes with applied voltage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter Resistor (Riso1, Riso2)</td>
<td>Choose 1kΩ for output impedance matching, 10kΩ degrades THD due to limited load regulation to re-charge CDAC, 100Ω causes spurs due to stability issues $R_{iso1} = R_{iso2} = 1k\Omega$.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{iso}$ Value</td>
<td>Choose $R_{in} = R_{iso} = 10k\Omega$, and $C_{F1} = C_{F2} = 10$ nF to keep $R_{iso1}$, $R_{iso2}$, from interacting with $R_{in}$ (see Figure 11: SAR ADC Input Driver) and causing attenuation in the sampled input signal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 $V_{REF}$ Driver

Figure 20: Reference Driver Configuration

Table 7 gives a summary taken from SLAU514, in which the process for designing a picking the components for the reference driver is given in more detail:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Reference Selection</td>
<td>From Table 5, Page 20 of SLAU514, choose REF3330 (3.0V version of REF3325) family due to ultra low power ($I_V = 5\mu A$) and RMS flicker noise (Noise PP / 6.6 = 10.6$\mu V$ RMS), lower than RMS noise floor of ADS8881 (35$\mu V$RMS). Also, 3V means larger input range and improved SNR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Filter ($R_A$, and $C_A$)</td>
<td>Ensure that the noise contribution is 1/3 of the ADC RMS noise. <strong>Choosing</strong> $R_A$ = $10k\Omega$ and $C_A$ = $1\mu F$ set $I_V = 16Hz$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charge Bucket Capacitor ($C_{ref}$)</td>
<td>Referring to Equation 13, assuming a sampling rate of 10ksps from the ADS8881, $C_{ref} = 22 \mu F$. The average input current into the ADC reference pin can be obtained from the ADS8881 simulation model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Driver Selection</td>
<td>Choose OPA313, an operational amplifier that is low power but has enough bandwidth (1MHz) to re-charge $C_{ref}$ and has enough capacitive load drive (stable up to 1nF) translates to less series isolation resistance ($R_{ref}$).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Driver Isolation Resistor ($R_{ref}$)</td>
<td>Using Equation 14, we use $f_{sample} = 10ksp$, $C_{ref} = 22 \mu F$ to calculate $R_{ref} \geq 4\Omega$. Choose closest standard value of 4.7$\Omega$.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6 Post Gain (INA) Low Pass Filter

The primary purpose of having this simple, first order low pass filter following the INA gain stage is to reduce the noise to a level that is statistically insignificant compared to the ADC driver, input driver, and reference driver circuitry. To accomplish this it is again necessary to appeal to equations 21-25. A summary is given below in
Table 8.

**Figure 21:** Post Gain Filter Component Selection Diagram

**Figure 22:** Filtered RMS Noise Plots from INA

- Actual $e_{INA}$ RMS Noise Output = $4\mu$V RMS
- Target $V_{out,filtered}$ RMS Noise Output = $8\mu$V RMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency (Hz)</th>
<th>Total noise (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.25u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.50u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1k</td>
<td>18.75u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10k</td>
<td>25.00u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100k</td>
<td>31.25u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1M</td>
<td>37.50u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50k</td>
<td>43.75u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>50.00u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8: Component Selection Table for Post Gain Low Pass Filter

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determine Filtered RMS value of INA front end (e_{INA,filtered})</td>
<td>Use equation 21 (root-sum-square of INA noise and ADC driver noise); using equation 22 solve for e_{INA,filtered} = e_{ADC}/3 = 25\mu VRMS / 3 = 8\mu VRMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine R_{LP1}, R_{LP2}, and C_{LP} using TINA SPICE parametric sweep</td>
<td>Choose R_{LP1} = R_{LP2} = 10k\Omega and solve for C_{LP} using TINA SPICE to yield e_{INA,filtered} ≤ 8\mu VRMS (see Figure 22), C_{LP} = 50nF yields e_{INA,filtered} = 4\mu VRMS for margin on the design</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 Simulations

4.1 Setting up the ECG Transient Simulation

To create an ECG voltage source first select an AC voltage source and choose the signal type to be “piecewise linear.”

Figure 23: Step 1: Creating the ECG Voltage Source
Next, create the desired ECG signal in a spreadsheet and copy and paste into the source by clicking on the 3 dots on the piecewise linear source. Use the following as a starting point:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time(s)</th>
<th>Voltage(mV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.00015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.00004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.000055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.00007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0000075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.00007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.000055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.00004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.000025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.000015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.000015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.00003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.190</td>
<td>0.000045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.00075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.000015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>0.00005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>0.00008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.457</td>
<td>0.000095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>0.000095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.00008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>0.00006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.547</td>
<td>0.000015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.565</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.0000075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.000015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.635</td>
<td>0.000075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 24:** Step 2: Creating the ECG Voltage Source
Finally, here is a transient check on the ECG signals:

![Transient ECG Simulation Circuit](image)

**Figure 25: Transient ECG Simulation Circuit**

**Figure 26: ECG Outputs, Pre and Post Gain**
4.2 Simulating Common Mode Rejection Ratio (Front End Only) vs. Frequency

Figure 27: CMRR vs. Frequency Simulation Circuit

Figure 28: CMRR plots, with and without Right Leg Drive

With RLD
CMRR = -80dB @ 60Hz

Without RLD
CMRR = -38dB @ 60Hz
Table 9: Table Summary of Simulation Results and Comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simulated Parameter</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power Consumption (mW)</td>
<td>Use Current Probe in series with VDD, use ADC specified power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Mode Rejection Ratio (dB) (CMRR @ 60Hz)</td>
<td>With perfect resistors, CMRR = -80dB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 PCB Design / Layout

There are five key points that need to be considered in the PCB layout of this ECG system:

1. Traces from the buffered, voltage reference (OPA313, U10) must be minimized to minimize trace inductance that can cause instability.
2. Locate the Input Drive Circuitry (OPA2333, U2) as close as possible to the inputs to minimize loop area, thereby making a better layout for EMI/RFI rejection.
3. Minimize the loop area on the input RC filters (keep close together) and as close as possible to the input INA (OPA2333, U1) to minimize EMI/RFI susceptibility.
4. Ensure that traces coming from ECG signal source (i.e. body) are symmetric and do not have any sharp turns.
5. If possible leave the ground plane open underneath the summing node on the INA (OPA2333, U1). Added capacitance on this node can cause instability.

Figure 29: PCB Layout
6 Verification & Measured Performance

Measuring ECG system performance requires a very accurate signal source, clock generator, and synchronous measurement for coherent sampling. All measured data was taken using the setup depicted in Figure 30.

6.1 DC Histogram Test for RMS Noise

DC RMS noise was tested by shorting the inputs together with the right leg drive amplifier connected. The mean output code (MOC) represents the DC offset and the standard deviation gives the code spread of the noise. These quantities can then be converted into VRMS by multiplying by the LSB of the ADC (22µV). The DC histogram is shown in Figure 31 and the table summary of measured values is shown in Table 10.

Figure 30: Precision Measurement Setup for ECG Low Power System

Figure 31: DC Histogram Test Circuit with Mid Scale Bias (1.5V)
Figure 32: Measurement Data Showing DC Histogram with RLD Bias = 1.5V (mid scale)

The ADC LSB for the ADS8881 (18 bit) is calculated as follows:

$$\text{ADC}_{\text{LSB}} = \frac{2 \cdot V_{\text{REF}}}{2^n - 1} = \frac{6V}{2^{18} - 1} = 22.8 \mu \text{V} \quad (32)$$

Conversion of mean output code (MOC) into VRMS:

$$V_{\text{Offset}} = \text{MOC} \cdot \text{ADC}_{\text{LSB}} \quad (33)$$

Conversion of standard deviation into VRMS:

$$e_{\text{RMS}} = \sigma \cdot \text{ADC}_{\text{LSB}} \quad (34)$$

Conversion of $V_{\text{offset}}$ to Input-Referred Offset ($V_{\text{OS Input}}$):

$$V_{\text{OS Input}} = \frac{V_{\text{Offset}}}{\text{Gain}} \quad (35)$$

See Table 10 for a summary of verified results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Measured</th>
<th>Simulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Output Code (MOC)</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output Offset Voltage</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>4.55mV</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMS Noise (DC)</td>
<td>μV RMS</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input-Referred Noise (DC)</td>
<td>μV RMS</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>9.68</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2 SNR Test at 100Hz

Using equation 8, the measured SNR can be used to calculate the RMS noise at 100Hz:

\[
\text{SNR(dB)} = 20\log_{10}\left(\frac{3V}{\sqrt{2}}e_{\text{ADC}}\right) 
\]

Using equation 9, the RMS noise of the ADC at 100Hz can be calculated:

\[
e_{\text{ADC}} = \frac{3V}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \left(10^{\frac{\text{SNR}}{20}}\right)} = 52\mu V
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Measured</th>
<th>Simulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMS Noise (100Hz)</td>
<td>(\mu V) RMS</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input-Referred Noise (100Hz)</td>
<td>(\mu V) RMS</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR @ 100Hz)</td>
<td>dB</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 CMRR Test (60Hz) with RLD Connected

CMRR is measured by connecting a 1Vpp, 60Hz common mode input signal with the differential inputs shorted together (Figure 33) and sampling the ADS8881 at 10ksps. The test circuit for CMRR is shown in Figure 33—note that the input source is inserted in line with the RLD amplifier.

![CMRR Test Circuit with RLD Connected](image)

**Figure 33: CMRR Test Circuit with RLD Connected**

The histogram in Figure 34 shows the measured code spread using the test circuit in Figure 33. The “Std Dev” quantity \(\sigma_{\text{RMS}}\) is used to calculate the change in input-referred offset voltage (VOS) used to calculate CMRR.
The change in offset voltage, divided by the gain produces the input referred (RMS) offset voltage:

$$\Delta V_{OS} = \frac{\sigma_{RMS}}{\text{Gain}} = \frac{(240.55) \times 22.8\mu V}{4} = 1.37mV$$  \hspace{1cm} (38)

The peak-to-peak input signal must be converted into VRMS:

$$\Delta V_{CM}(\text{RMS}) = \frac{V_{in_{pp}}}{2\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1V_{pp}}{2\sqrt{2}} = .3535V$$  \hspace{1cm} (39)

Now CMRR can be calculated:

$$\text{CMRR}_{60\text{Hz}}(\text{dB}) = -20\log_{10} \left( \frac{\Delta V_{CM}}{\Delta V_{OS}} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (40)

$$\text{CMRR}_{60\text{Hz}}(\text{dB}) = -48.2dB$$  \hspace{1cm} (41)
6.4 CMRR Test (60Hz) with NO RLD Connected

For qualitative purposes, CMRR was also tested with the RLD disconnected as shown in Figure 35:

The resulting histogram shows an even larger standard deviation which indicates a further degradation in CMRR (see Figure 36).

![CMRR Test Circuit with no RLD](image)

**Figure 35: CMRR Test Circuit with no RLD**

Data Captured with sampling rate = 10ksps

![Code Spread of CMRR Test (1Vpp @ 60Hz) No RLD](image)

**Figure 36: Code Spread of CMRR Test (1Vpp @ 60Hz) No RLD**

\[ CMRR_{60Hz} (\text{dB}) = -37.62\text{dB} \]
6.5 Improvement in the CMRR Test

In this design all calculations have not taken into consideration the tolerance of the discrete resistors used in the front end gain of the differential output INA. In reality, the discrete tolerance can add a significant amount of error due to variations in common mode, and this can be seen through the following analysis:

![Simplified Diagram of Front End INA Showing Resistor Matching](image)

Figure 37: Simplified Diagram of Front End INA Showing Resistor Matching

Based on Figure 37, the transfer function one of the single-ended amplifiers is the following:

\[
V_{outP} = (\Delta V_{cm} - V_{REF/2}) \cdot \frac{R_{F1}}{R_{G1}} + \Delta V_{cm}
\]

(43)

\[
V_{outN} = (\Delta V_{cm} - V_{REF/2}) \cdot \frac{R_{F2}}{R_{G2}} + \Delta V_{cm}
\]

(44)

If \( R_{F1} = R_{F2} \) and \( R_{G1} = R_{G2} \), then all of the CMRR error will be a result of the inherent CMRR of the 2 amplifiers. The easiest way to analyze the effect of the mismatch error is through a Monte Carlo analysis in TINA-TI™ SPICE. Figure xx shows the test circuit used to perform the CMRR simulation; each resistor is initially set with a tolerance of 1%, a population size of 1000, and will have a Gaussian distribution.

![CMRR Resistor Mismatch Simulation Circuit](image)

Figure 38: CMRR Resistor Mismatch Simulation Circuit
It is clear from Figure 39 that even 1% mismatch in these resistors can dramatically degrade the CMRR, which in this case has a mean of -29.9dB! This mismatch is responsible for the majority of the loss in CMRR; therefore, if resistors with improved tolerance are used this will make a significant impact on the CMRR of the entire ECG signal chain.

Figure 39: Monte Carlo Analysis of 1% Resistor Tolerance for $R_{F1}$, $R_{F2}$, $R_{G1}$, $R_{G2}$

One simple modification that can make a huge impact on CMRR is to decrease the tolerance $R_{F1}$, $R_{F2}$, $R_{G1}$, and $R_{G2}$ from 1% to .01%. The new CMRR distribution can be seen in Figure 40 if .01% tolerances are used. With this improvement in resistor tolerance, achieving the goal of -70dB CMRR is much more realistic. Table 12 summarizes the CMRR with different gain setting resistor tolerances.

Figure 40: Monte Carlo Analysis for .01% Resistor Tolerance for $R_{F1}$, $R_{F2}$, $R_{G1}$, $R_{G2}$

With the replacement of the 1% resistors with resistors with “perfect” matching, the circuit in Figure 33 was used with a 1Vpp, 60Hz signal to test for CMRR. Because the noise reduction was so drastic, to extract the SNR it was necessary to use the FFT (showing a –SNR indicated that the actual power in the common mode input signal was smaller than the noise floor) to back calculate the CMRR.
Using the standard deviation from Figure 41, equation 34, and the LSB = 22.8µV established by equation 32, the RMS noise floor can be calculated:

\[ e_{\text{RMS}} = \sigma \cdot \text{ADC}_{\text{LSB}} = 1.35 \cdot 22.8\mu V = 30.9\mu V_{\text{RMS}} \]  \hspace{1cm} \text{(45)}

Using the number for \( e_{\text{RMS}} \) from equation 45, the actual RMS noise power can be extracted using the SNR from Figure 41 by substituting into equation 36:

\[ e_{\text{RMS}} = \sigma \cdot \text{ADC}_{\text{LSB}} = 1.35 \cdot 22.8\mu V = 30.9\mu V_{\text{RMS}} \]  \hspace{1cm} \text{(46)}

Using this value for RMS noise, the following equation is used to extract the signal magnitude in RMS:

\[ \text{SNR(dB)} = 20\log_{10}\left(\frac{\Delta V_{\text{OS}_{60Hz}}}{e_{\text{RMS}}}\right) \]  \hspace{1cm} \text{(47)}

Rearranging equation 47 and referring to the input (i.e. dividing by gain = 4):

\[ \Delta V_{\text{OS}_{60Hz}} = \frac{e_{\text{RMS}} \cdot 10^{\text{SNR(dB)/20}}}{\text{Gain}} = 1.28\mu V_{\text{RMS}} \]  \hspace{1cm} \text{(48)}
Using the results from equation 46 and 48, the CMRR can now be calculated:

\[
\text{CMRR(dB)} = 20\log_{10}\left(\frac{\Delta V_{\text{OS}}}{V_{\text{in}}}ight) = -108\text{dB}
\]  

(49)

Table 12: Table of CMRR Measurement Results with Different Gain Resistor Tolerances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Measured</th>
<th>Simulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMRR (60Hz), Perfect Matching</td>
<td>dB</td>
<td>-90</td>
<td>-108</td>
<td>-80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR (60Hz), .01% Matching</td>
<td>dB</td>
<td>-70</td>
<td>-67</td>
<td>-69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR (60Hz), 1% Matching</td>
<td>dB</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-48.2</td>
<td>-35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7 Modifications:

7.1 Monolithic INA Option

One circuit modification that could make life easier would be to choose a discrete monolithic INA for the front end such as the INA333. Such a device is manufactured with precision trimmed resistors internally, so the only external components needed are \(R_{G1}\) and \(R_{G2}\). The compromise to using this INA is that it converts differential input signals to single-ended, meaning that the output could be more easily subject to external noise coupling which could be more easily rejected in a differential configuration. Lastly, the INA333 requires a reference buffer to offset the single-ended output to mid scale.

Figure 42: Modified ECG Front End with INA333
### 7.2 Integrated, Multi-Channel ECG Data Acquisition System (DAS) Option

The discrete approach offers the ability to customize power, sampling, and filtering based on a fixed set of system requirements. One alternative that can greatly simplify the design process of an ECG data acquisition system is to use the ADS1292. The ADS129x family of devices offers an integrated front end PGA, RL drive amplifier, internal test functions, lead off detection, and a 24-bit data converter. Table 13 lists configuration options in the ADS129x family:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Resolution (Bits)</th>
<th>Sample Rate (max)(SPS)</th>
<th># Input Channels</th>
<th>Power (Typ) (mW)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADS1291</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1292</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1294</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32kSPS</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1293</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25.6kSPS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1296</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32kSPS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1296R</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32kSPS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1298</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32kSPS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
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<td>ADS1298R</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32kSPS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1299</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15kSPS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1191</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1192</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1194</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1196</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADS1198</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8kSPS</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For low power precision systems such as ECG, power is always a prime consideration. Listed below are some options that could be used in a low power, single supply data acquisition system.

### Table 14: Low Power LDO Options for ECG System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Iq (µA)</th>
<th>Ion (mA)</th>
<th>Vout (V)</th>
<th>Package(s)</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TPS797xx</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.8-5.5</td>
<td>5SC70</td>
<td>Power Good Output, Low Dropout (105mV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP5900</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.2-5.5</td>
<td>4DSBGA, 6WSON</td>
<td>Low noise (6.5uVRMS), Low Dropout (80mV), 2% accuracy over line/load</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPS780/2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.2-5.5</td>
<td>5SOT-23, 6SON</td>
<td>3% accuracy over line/load/temp, 2x2mm package, dual-level output voltage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP5907</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>2.2-5.5</td>
<td>4DSBGA, 4X2SON, 5SOT-23</td>
<td>1x1mm package, Low Noise (&lt;10uVRMS), Low Dropout (120mV), 2% accuracy over line/load</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPS727xx</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>2.0-5.5</td>
<td>6SON, 4DSBGA</td>
<td>2% accuracy over line/load/temp, Low Dropout (163mV), Excellent Load Transient Performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8 About the Author

Matthew Hann is currently the Product Line Manager for the Precision SAR ADC team within Texas Instruments' Precision Analog Business Unit. Matt started his career at Burr Brown in 1998 and spent 8 years as an analog test engineer focusing on precision op amp, instrumentation amp, current shunt monitor, and power amplifier test solutions. Following that, Matt spent 5 years as an analog applications engineer focusing on front end instrumentation, power amplifier drivers, temperature sensing, 4-20mA transmitters, thermal control loops, and medical instrumentation applications.
9 Acknowledgements & References


Ordonez, Rafael for his extensive help with measurements.
Appendix A.

A.1 Electrical Schematics
### A.2 Bill of Materials

<table>
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<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>REF</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>VALUE or FUNCTION</th>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>8571549B</td>
<td>ASSEMBLY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>TBD by TI</td>
<td>8571549B</td>
<td>SCHEMATIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TBD by TI</td>
<td>8571549B</td>
<td>FABRICATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>TBD by TI</td>
<td>8571549B</td>
<td>ARTWORK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Emerson Network</td>
<td>142-0701-201</td>
<td>Connector, TH, SMA</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Samtec, Inc.</td>
<td>6571549B</td>
<td>Connector, Header, 10-Pos (10x2), 230 mil above</td>
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<td>RES, 1.00 ohm, 1%, 0.1W, 0603</td>
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**Notes:**
- **Asterisk(*)** next to part manufacturer's name denotes possible long lead time item.
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