

## Introduction

In response to shortages during the Covid-19 pandemic, TU Delft is developing the POxIM transmissive pulse oximeter. A pulse oximeter is a medical instrument which doctors use to monitor the heart rate and blood oxygen saturation of patients during critical stages of and revalidation from Covid-19. POxIM is intended to be fully qualified for use leading up to and after intensive care, thereby freeing existing more stringently qualified pulse oximeters to be used in intensive care. The main design goal is supplyability: 1000s of units should be locally manufacturable even during severe lockdowns. Simplicity and supply chain diversity are important secondary goals in service of this main goal.

POxIM consists of a disposable finger probe and a reusable wrist computer, containing nearly all of the circuitry. This is it technically only the schematic of the wrist computer, it shows all of the circuitry and can be regarded as the main electrical schematic of POxIM. It is also intended to give an overview of the operation of POxIM, motivate detailed design decisions, and to document the derivation of electronic component parameters. This schematic does not aim to justify the system-level and electronic high-level design decisions. Instead, those are motivated in the POxIM report and accompanying system engineering notes respectively.

Apart from this introduction, the top-level sheet briefly explains the working principle of POxIM and gives an block diagram of the physical system. Each subsheet explains the implementation enclosed therein.

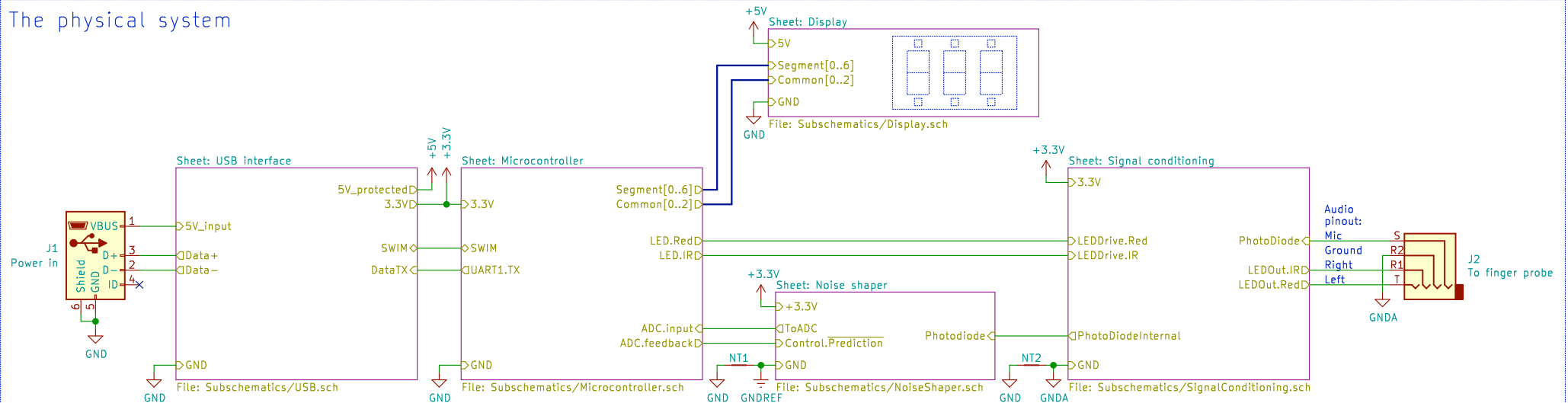
## Bibliography

This design was informed by NXP's AN4327 appnote, TI's SLAA655, SLAA274, and SLAA458 appnotes, and TI's TIDA-00311 reference design.

## Changelog

Rev A.0: Completed first iteration  
Rev A.1: Incorporated small learnings from first full prototype

## The physical system



## Mechanical



## Production



## Power budget

There is 100mA available from a single power unit of USB. It is allocated as follows:

- Microcontroller: 5mA
- Readout circuit amplifier: 1mA
- Readout LEDs:  $2 \cdot 10\text{mA} = 20\text{mA}$
- Display: 74mA
- Digits:  $7 \cdot 10\text{mA} = 70\text{mA}$
- Transistor biasing: 4mA



Pulse/Oximeter measurement unit  
By Arthur Admiraal & Daan de Groot  
**POxIM**

Sheet: /  
File: POxIM-wristcomputer.sch

**Title: POxIM wrist computer**

Size: A4 Date: 2020-07-16  
KiCad E.D.A. kicad (5.1.0-0)

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## How it works

POxIM is based on the transmissive pulse oximetry principle. This means that it determines the patient's heart rate and blood oxygen concentration (SP02) by measuring the portion of red (660nm) and infrared (940nm) light that passes through their finger.

This is enabled by two effects. First, the optical properties of hemoglobin change when it bonds with oxygen, so that blood with a high oxygen saturation has a different absorption ratio between red and infrared light than blood with low oxygen saturation. Second, the pressure variations caused by heartbeats cause blood vessels to expand and contract, thus changing the amount of absorption at both of these wavelengths.

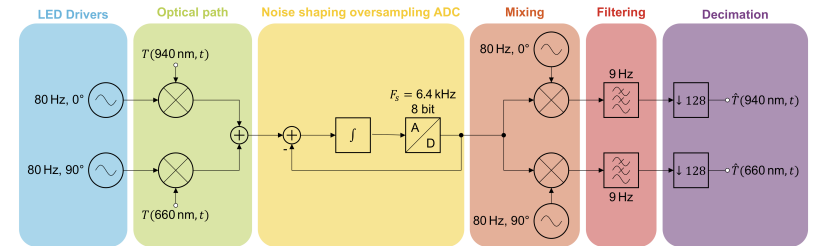
A transmissive pulse oximeter has three main tasks:

- Estimating the transmissivity of 660nm and 940nm light through a finger.
- Using this data to estimate the pulse rate and SP02 of the patient.
- Presenting this data to the patient and/or caretaker.

The latter two are relatively easy from a hardware standpoint. POxIM uses a microcontroller to calculate the heart rate and SP02 from the transmissivity data using industry standard formulas and a custom low-weight peak extraction algorithm. This microcontroller also drives the display.

Estimating the transmissivity is significantly more difficult. The information is carried not only in the average DC component of the intensity, but also in the changing AC component of the signal, which has an amplitude of only 0.1% of the DC signal. Hence, measuring the signal requires a large dynamic range.

This dynamic range is achieved through oversampling combined with noise shaping, so that the design can be adapted to most microcontrollers. Oversampling spreads the ADC noise over a larger bandwidth frequencies, and noise shaping uses feedback to form a filter which suppresses this noise in the bandwidth of interest, at the expense of higher noise beyond the bandwidth of interest. Digital filters are then used to filter away the noise beyond the bandwidth of interest.



There is only a single optical channel to avoid the cost of optical filters and multiple channels. This introduces a problem, since the channel must be shared between the two wavelengths. Since the noise shaping circuitry is not compatible with sharing the channel in time, the channel is shared in the frequency domain. This is achieved by Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM): the wavelengths are both modulated at 80Hz, but with unique and orthogonal phases. They are recovered by quadrature demodulation in software. This is the same principle used in software defined radio.

Finally, different skin types require a system dynamic range beyond the dynamic range required to measure the transmissivity. This is achieved by varying the amplitude of the modulating signal to achieve brightness control.

## Working principle

This is an integrating differential pulse-code modulation quantiser inspired by a delta-sigma ADC and based directly on the lecture 'Sigma-Delta Modulation' of the TU Delft EE2S31 course on Signal Processing. See also: <https://cas.tudelft.nl/Education/courses/ee2s31/>

Together with the firmware, the goal of this circuit is to redistribute the ADC noise (both quantisation and otherwise) away from the low frequencies of interest, and towards higher frequencies. This enables a digital low-pass filter to nearly eliminate ADC noise, so that a much better effective resolution can be achieved (from 10 bits to 20 bits).

## Dimensioning

As a rule of thumb, noise shaping of order  $p$  and filtering to  $1/(2^n)$  of the nyquist bandwidth gives:

$$\Delta SQNR = n \cdot (3 + 6p) \text{ dB}$$

Whereas additional bits of effective resolution give:

$$\Delta SQNR = 8 \cdot 6.02 \text{ dB}$$

Assuming a common 10-bit ADC with a conservative 8 bits of effective resolution, using the first order noise-shaping implemented here and equating for 10 additional bits gives:

$$12 \cdot 6.02 \text{ dB} < n \cdot (3 + 6 \cdot 1) \text{ dB}$$

$$n = 10 \cdot 6.02 / 9 \approx 6.69$$

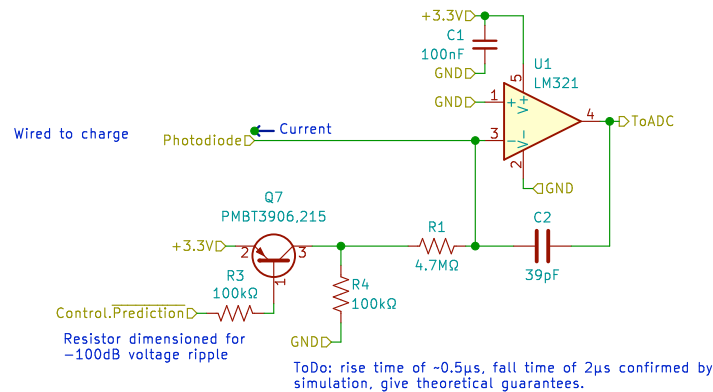
Since sample numbers which are a power of two are easier to work with, we round to  $n=7$ . Then the sample rate must be at least  $2^7 = 128$  times higher than the nyquist frequency. The bandwidth of interest is 10Hz, so the nyquist frequency is 20Hz, and the sample frequency must thus be at least 2.56kHz. However, this is only the sample frequency per channel. Since there are two channels, the system sample rate will be twice as high, or 5.12kHz. We sacrifice a little processing power for a nice 16MHz clock division at 6.4kHz.

From measurements, the minimum full scale input current is  $1\mu\text{A}$ . The integration capacitor must be charged up to the full scale ADC voltage with a full scale input current within one period time. Then:  
 $Q = C \cdot V \Rightarrow C = I \cdot T / V = I / (V \cdot f) = 1\mu\text{A} / (5\text{V} \cdot 6.4\text{kHz}) = 32\text{pF}$   
Allowing 10% margin, the capacitance value should be higher than  $C' = C / (1-n) = 32\text{pF} / (1-10\%) = 35.5\text{pF}$   
39pF was selected as the closest E12 value.

There are several nonidealities which may mess up measurement:

- Capacitor leakage
- Controller noise (voltage & current)
- Resistor noise (voltage & current)
- Stability
- Bandwidth limitations
- Aliasing

Some simple models were formed to investigate the effects. ToDo: add them to this sheet.



Trades bandwidth to increase resolution  
By Arthur Admiraal & Daan de Groot

**POXiM**

Sheet: /Noise shaper/

File: NoiseShaper.sch

**Title: Noise shaping**

Size: A4 Date: 2020-07-16

KiCad E.D.A. kicad (5.1.0-0)

**Rev: A.0**

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# POXiM

## Operation

The LEDs are multiplexed in digits. There are three numeric digits, 0 to 2, and a single auxiliary digit. Setting a single common pin high selects the digits with the corresponding number. Setting all the common pins low selects the auxiliary digit. See also the segment map and truth table.

## Why buffering?

I/O pins directly drive the segments. Transistors are used as buffers to sink and source the common currents. It would be even simpler to directly use I/O pins, but we found that the maximum average current of  $I = I_{o,max} / N_{led} = 20mA / (4 \cdot 7) = 0.71mA$  per LED does not give enough brightness for good readability. Buffering the common currents raises the maximum average current to  $I = I_{o,max} / N_{digit} = 20mA / 4 = 5mA$ , which is more than the maximum available current through the 100mA fuse.

## Power budget

There is 74mA available current for the display. Of this,  $7 \cdot 10mA$  is allocated to the LEDs, and 4mA to driving the buffer transistors.

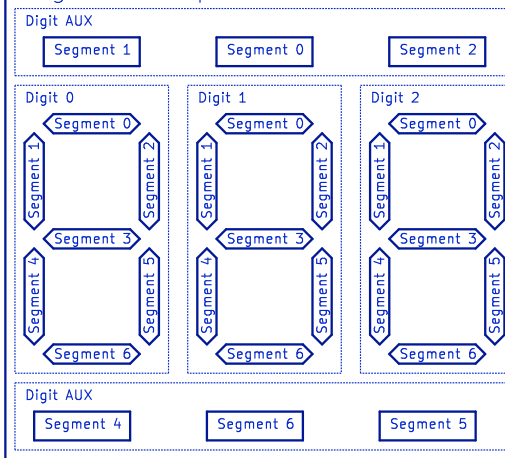
## Why bipolar buffers?

There are many other possibilities to buffering the common currents. MOSFETs would be significantly less power hungry than bipolar transistors. The reason we specified bipolar transistors, is that a circuit topology optimised for bipolar transistors (with base resistors) is compatible with MOSFETs, but a MOSFET-optimised topology (without base resistors) would not be compatible with bipolar transistors, thus restricting the pool of suitable parts.

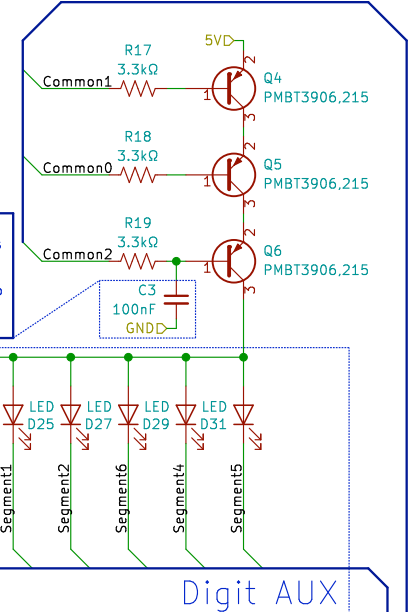
## Valid states

Common	1	2	Selected digit
0	1	0	Digit 0
0	1	0	Digit 1
0	0	1	Digit 2
0	0	0	Digit AUX

## Segment map

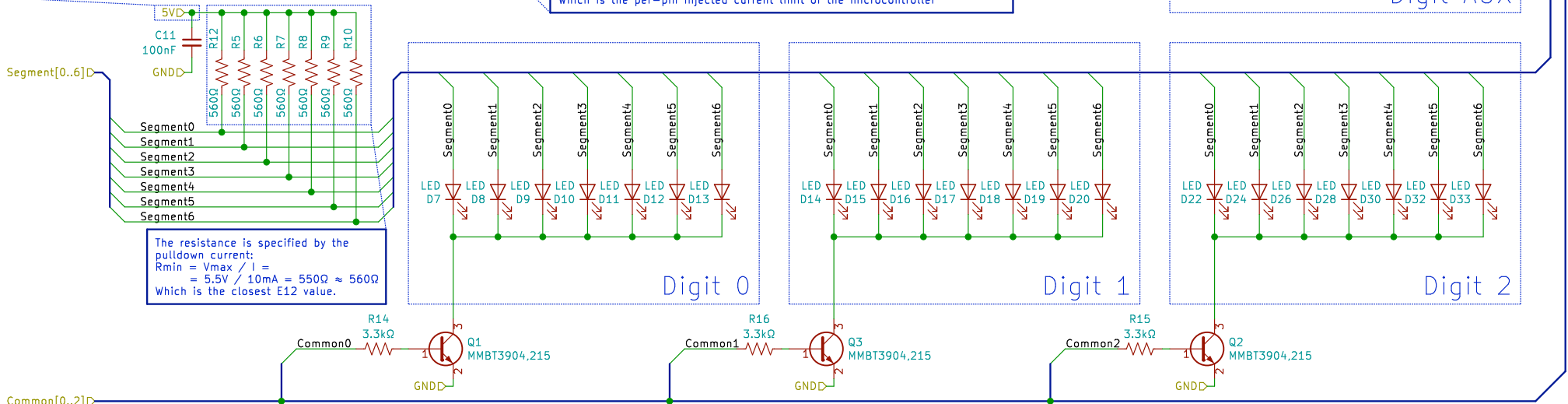


There is no steady state in which all LEDs are disconnected. This gives a delay in which they are so there is no flicker on polarity change.



Pullups are used to decrease the current ripple through the power supply of the microcontroller. Segment 5 and 6 are open-drain only, so pullups are used. Play close attention to the supply path. It is a potential source of EMI issues, since high-frequency currents flow through here. This costs a factor 2 in brightness, but saves buffering.

The microcontroller relies on the forward voltage of the LEDs to prevent the voltage rising above its supply. In case of a single point failure, the resistor will limit the current from exceeding:  
 $I_{max} = (V_{max} - V_s) / R = (5.5V - 3.3V) / 560\Omega = 3.9mA$   
Which is the per-pin injected current limit of the microcontroller



The resistance is specified by the pulldown current:  
 $R_{min} = V_{max} / I = 5.5V / 10mA = 550\Omega \approx 560\Omega$   
Which is the closest E12 value.

## Warning! This sheet contains bugs.

This sheet contains major design oversights related to driving the auxiliary segments:  
- Because the microcontroller runs from 3.3V, but the PNP transistors from 5V, they cannot shut off. Current is injected into the microcontroller pins.  
- Because the outputs are open drain with pullup resistors, the auxiliary LEDs are driven without current limiting resistors, which will damage the microcontroller and the LEDs.  
- The microcontroller relies on the LEDs for clamping the voltage on its pins to below the supply. However, the auxiliary digit doesn't provide this functionality, so that too much current is injected into the pins.

TU Delft

3 7-segment digits and indicator LEDs  
By Arthur Admiraal & Daan de Groot  
**POXiM**

Sheet: /Display/  
File: Display.sch

**Title: Discrete LED display**

Size: A4 Date: 2020-07-16  
KiCad E.D.A. kicad (5.1.0-0)

Rev: A.1  
Id: 3/6

**POXiM**





All pins are designed to survive three scenarios:

- Hotplugging of the 4 pole 3.5mm jack
- Short-circuits to ground
- Application of line audio

When the 3.5mm jack is hotplugged, the worst that could happen is that outputs short together or to ground. Hence, to satisfy this requirement, the inputs need to handle short-circuits to voltages between 0V and 5V. This also satisfies the short-circuit to ground requirement.

The voltage level of common 3.5mm headphone jacks is <2V in amplitude (see also <https://electronics.stackexchange.com/questions/28404/what-is-the-voltage-range-of-a-standard-headphone-jack-from-a-phone>). Thus, all pins need to handle shorts to voltages  $\in [-2V; 2V]$ .

Hence, all three requirements are satisfied if all pins can handle short-circuits to voltages between  $\in [-2V; 5V]$ .

This is a constant current source based on an emitter follower buffering a constant voltage over a constant resistance. When the LED is off, the current is diverted to the open collector I/O of the microcontroller. Hence, a continuous current is drawn, so that low current ripple is achieved.

The current is set by the voltage over the constant resistance. This voltage should be lower than  $V_s - V_{fLED,max} - V_{sat} = 3.3V - 2.2V - 0.3V = 0.8V$ . For 10mA output current, this gives  $R < V / I = 0.8V / 10mA = 80\Omega$ . We select 68 $\Omega$  for some margin. Now for a PNP transistor, the output current is given by:

$$I_o = (V_s - V_b - 0.81) / R$$

Using a voltage divider,  $V_b = \alpha \cdot V_s$ . Then:

$$I_o = (V_s - \alpha \cdot V_s - 0.81) / R = ((1 - \alpha) \cdot V_s - 0.81) / R$$

Solving for  $\alpha$ :

$$((1 - \alpha) \cdot 3.3V - 0.81) / 68\Omega < 10mA$$

$$\alpha > 1 - (10mA \cdot 68\Omega + 0.81) / 3.3V = 0.59$$

Which is achieved with a 2.2k $\Omega$  and 3.3k $\Omega$  resistor, giving:

$$\alpha = 3.3k\Omega / (2.2k\Omega + 3.3k\Omega) = 0.6$$

Then:

$$I_o = ((1 - 0.77) \cdot [4.3V; 5.5V] - 0.81) / 47\Omega = [3.8mA; 9.6mA]$$

Which is acceptable. The maximum total current of  $I_{t,max} = I_{o,max} + I_{b,max} = I_{o,max} + V_{s,max} / R = 9.6mA + 5.5V / (820\Omega + 3.3k\Omega) = 10.9mA$  is slightly out of the budget. However, the actual current will be decreased due to the current flowing through the voltage divider into the bias pin. Hence in reality, it will be in budget.

A PMOS can also be used, there:

$$I_o = (V_s - V_b - V_{th}) / R = ((1 - \alpha) \cdot V_s - V_{th}) / R$$

$$\alpha > 1 - (10mA \cdot 47\Omega + V_{th}) / 5.5V$$

Giving:

$$I_o < [7.8mA; 10mA] - [4.6mS; 0mS] \cdot V_{th}$$

So, for operation down to the lowest expected input, let

$$I_{o,min} = I_{o,max} / 4 = 2.5mA, \text{ so that:}$$

$$V_{th,max} = 7.8mA - 2.5mA / 4.6mS = 1.1V$$

## Why the constant current drive?

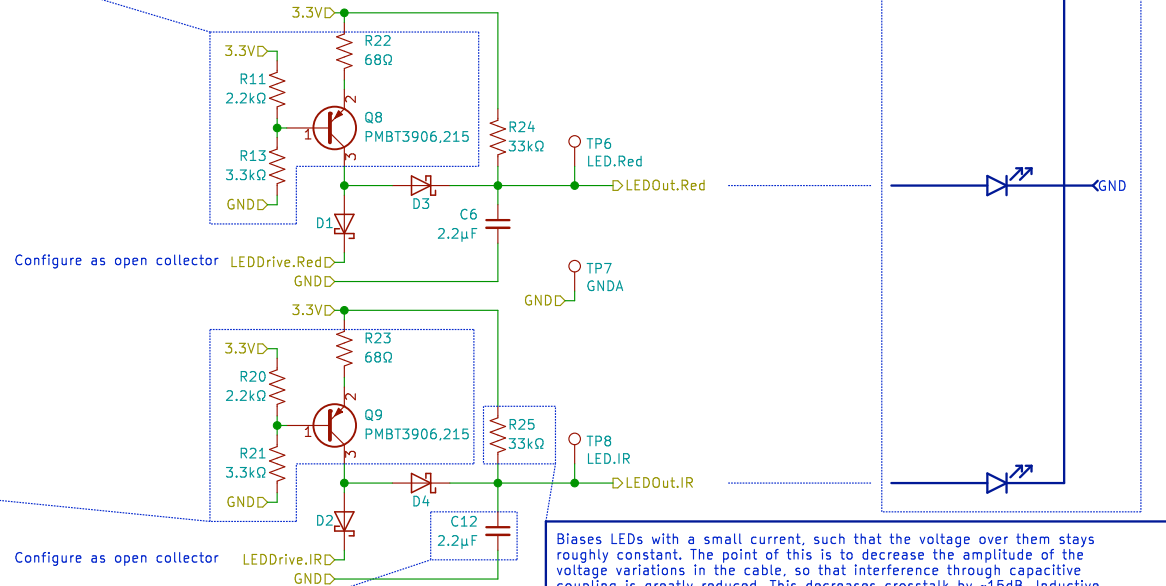
At first the LEDs were driven through a simple resistance. However, the current ripple of the LEDs caused a supply voltage ripple. This ripple mixed with the LED drive signal to cause channel bleeding. To eliminate the ripple, the LED drive current is only diverted away from the LEDs, not halted, so that a continuous current is achieved.

Limits input current compared on overvoltages and undervoltages. Increases input impedance, but an insignificant amount compared to the source impedance formed by the photodiode.

PhotoDiodeInternal

Over- and undervoltage protection. This topology prevents leakage, since opamp will keep voltage over the diodes to 0V during regular operation.

Connect to noise shaper ground, will leak in ~30nA of LED return current ground noise otherwise.



Filter LED PWM harmonics above:  
 $f = 1 / (2\pi \cdot R \cdot C) =$   
 $= 1 / (2\pi \cdot 2.5\Omega \cdot 2.2\mu F) = 29kHz$   
Prevents sourcing significant power at frequencies where the cable is a good antenna. Resistance is small-signal resistance of LED.

Biases LEDs with a small current, such that the voltage over them stays roughly constant. The point of this is to decrease the amplitude of the voltage variations in the cable, so that interference through capacitive coupling is greatly reduced. This decreases crosstalk by ~15dB. Inductive coupling can't be avoided, since the current must be varied to create brightness variations in the LED.

The biasing doesn't work if the LED drive pins force no voltage over de LED when it isn't driven. Hence, they must be configured as open collector.

The bias current is  $I = (V_s - V_f) / R = (5V - 1.85V) / 33k\Omega = 0.1mA$ . This is comparable to the minimum brightness setting of  $I_{min} = I_{fs} / N = 20mA / 166 = 0.12mA$ , so it won't hamper brightness scaling.



Performs filtering, prevents ESD damage  
By Arthur Admiraal & Daan de Groot

POXiM

Sheet: /Signal conditioning/  
File: SignalConditioning.sch

**Title: Audio jack signal conditioning**

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# POXiM