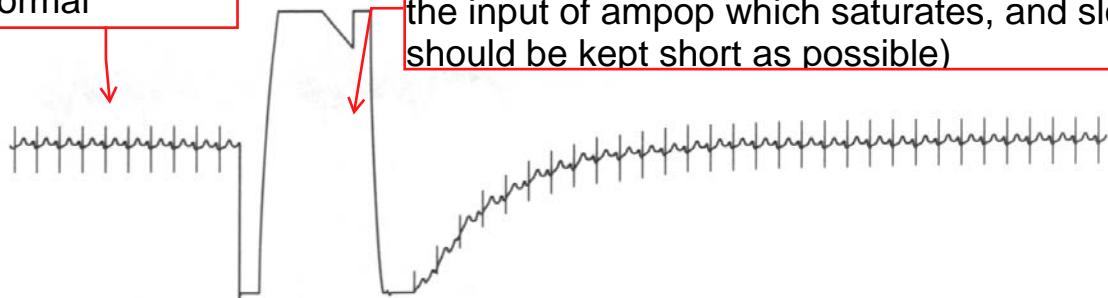


# Frequent problems in ECG instrumentation

normal



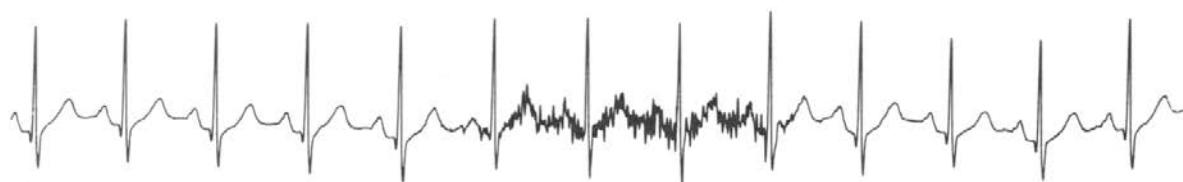
**Figure 6.8** Effect of a voltage transient on an ECG recorded on an electrocardiograph in which the transient causes the amplifier to saturate, and a finite period of time is required for the charge to bleed off enough to bring the ECG back into the amplifier's active region of operation. This is followed by a first-order recovery of the system.

saturation and recovery  
transient of the baseline  
following the application of  
a large signal  
(e.g. defibrillation)

interference, in  
particular by  
power line



(a)



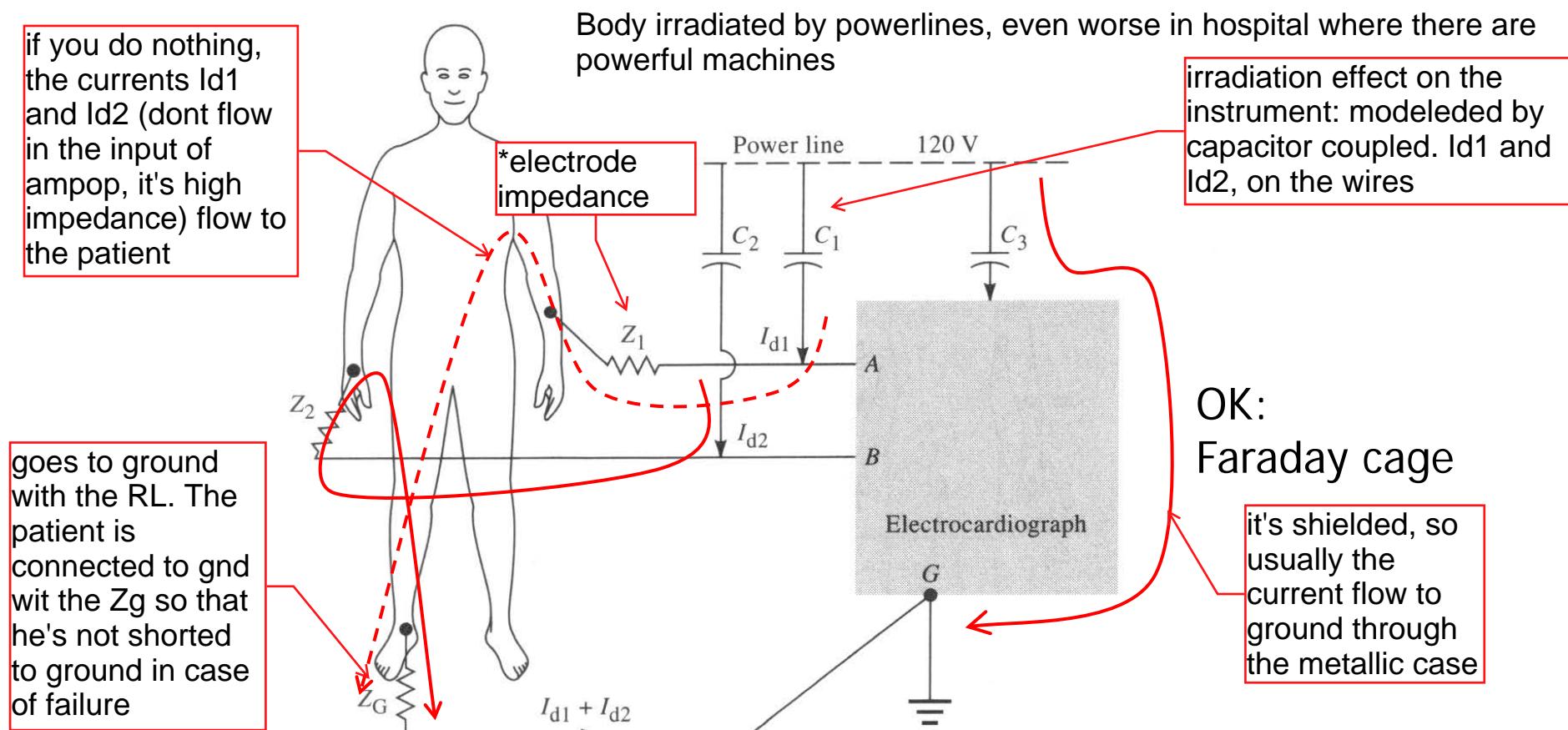
(b)

**Figure 6.9** (a) 60-Hz power-line interference. (b) Electromyographic interference on the ECG. Severe 60-Hz interference is also shown on the bottom tracing in Figure 4.13.

interferences  
produced by the  
50Hz power line or  
by other  
instrumentation

# 1. E.FIELD IRRADIATION ON CABLES/INSTRUMENT

## Coupling of the power line (220V, 50Hz) on the ECG



**Figure 6.10** A mechanism of electric-field pickup of an electrocardiograph resulting from the power line. Coupling capacitance between the hot side of the power line and lead wires causes current to flow through skin-electrode impedances on its way to ground.

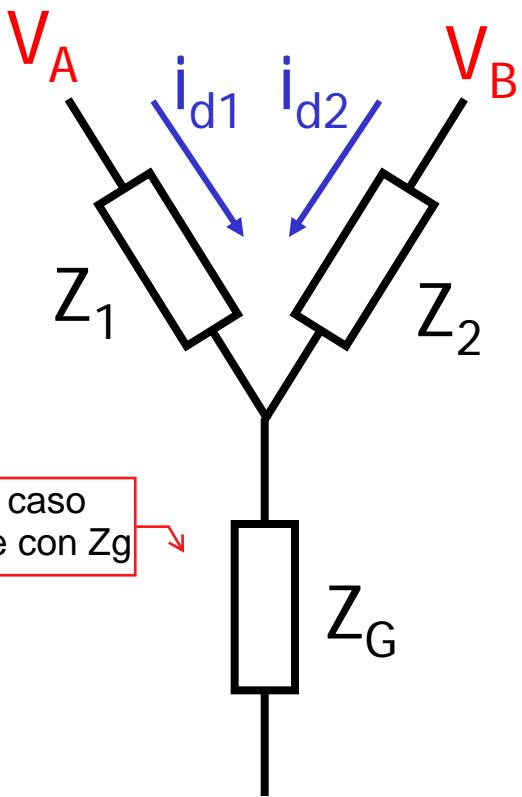
2 effect of irrdation:

1- instrumentation 2- on the patient

E.FIELD => WIRES => CURRENT => VdFake (Z1 != Z2)

$$V_A - V_B = i_{d1}Z_1 - i_{d2}Z_2$$

PIN INA PIN INA



if  $i_{d1} \approx i_{d2}$

$$V_A - V_B = i_{d1}(Z_1 - Z_2)$$

a differential signal appears at the amplifier input

e.g.  $i_{d1} \approx 6\text{nA}$

$$Z_1 - Z_2 \approx 20 \text{ k}\Omega$$

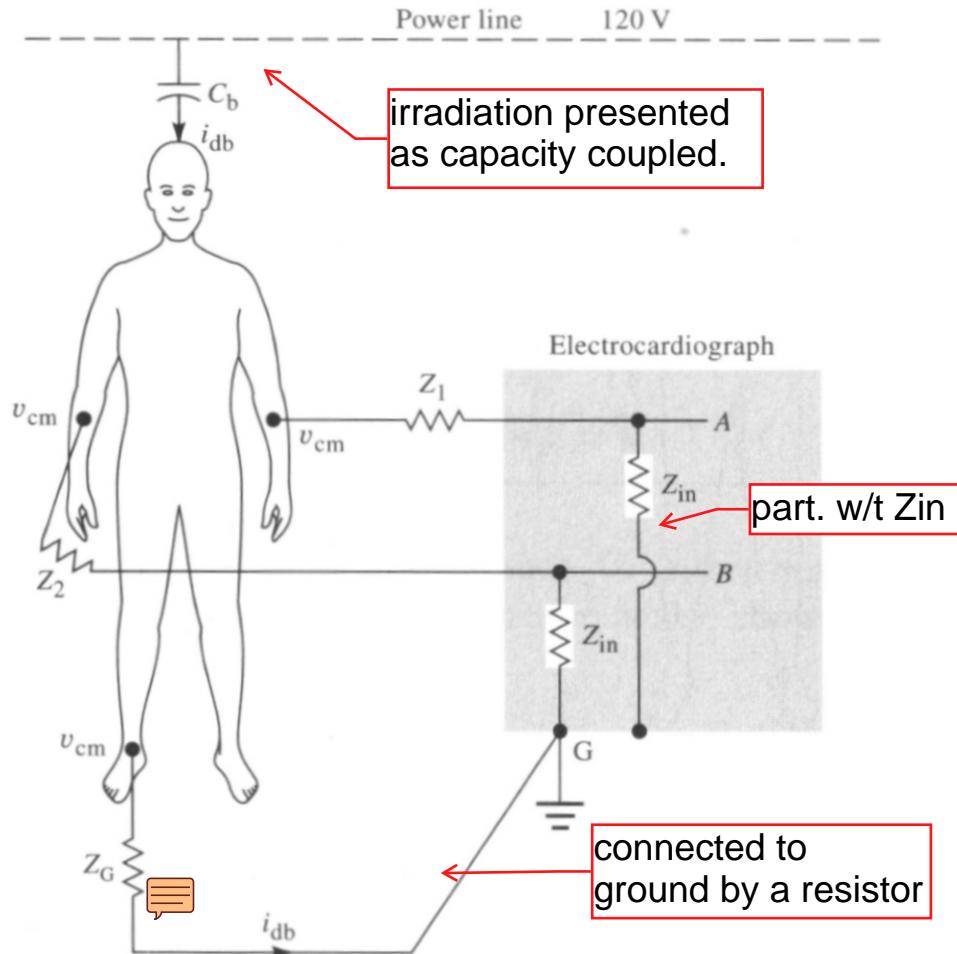
$$\Rightarrow V_A - V_B = 120\mu\text{V}$$

hints:

- shield the inputs
- reduce the electrodes impedance

Modeled. [audio]. Problem: if the impedance would be equal no effect, but since we can't be sure that electrode impedance will be equal, the voltage difference is not 0. number for example. 120uV IS NOT small compared with ecg voltage. So it's important to shield and **reduce el. impedance** (you'll reduce also the relative difference)

## 2. irradiation into the patient



**Figure 6.11** Current flows from the power line through the body impedance, thus creating a common-mode voltage everywhere.  $Z_{in}$  is not only resistive but, as a result of RF bypass capacitors at input, has a reactive component as well.

$$V_{cm} = i_{db} Z_G$$

$$V_A - V_B = V_{cm} \times$$

$$\left( \frac{Z_{in}}{Z_{in} + Z_1} - \frac{Z_{in}}{Z_{in} + Z_2} \right)$$

$Z_1, Z_2 \approx Z_{in}$

voltage diff due to cm:

$$V_A - V_B = V_{cm} \times$$

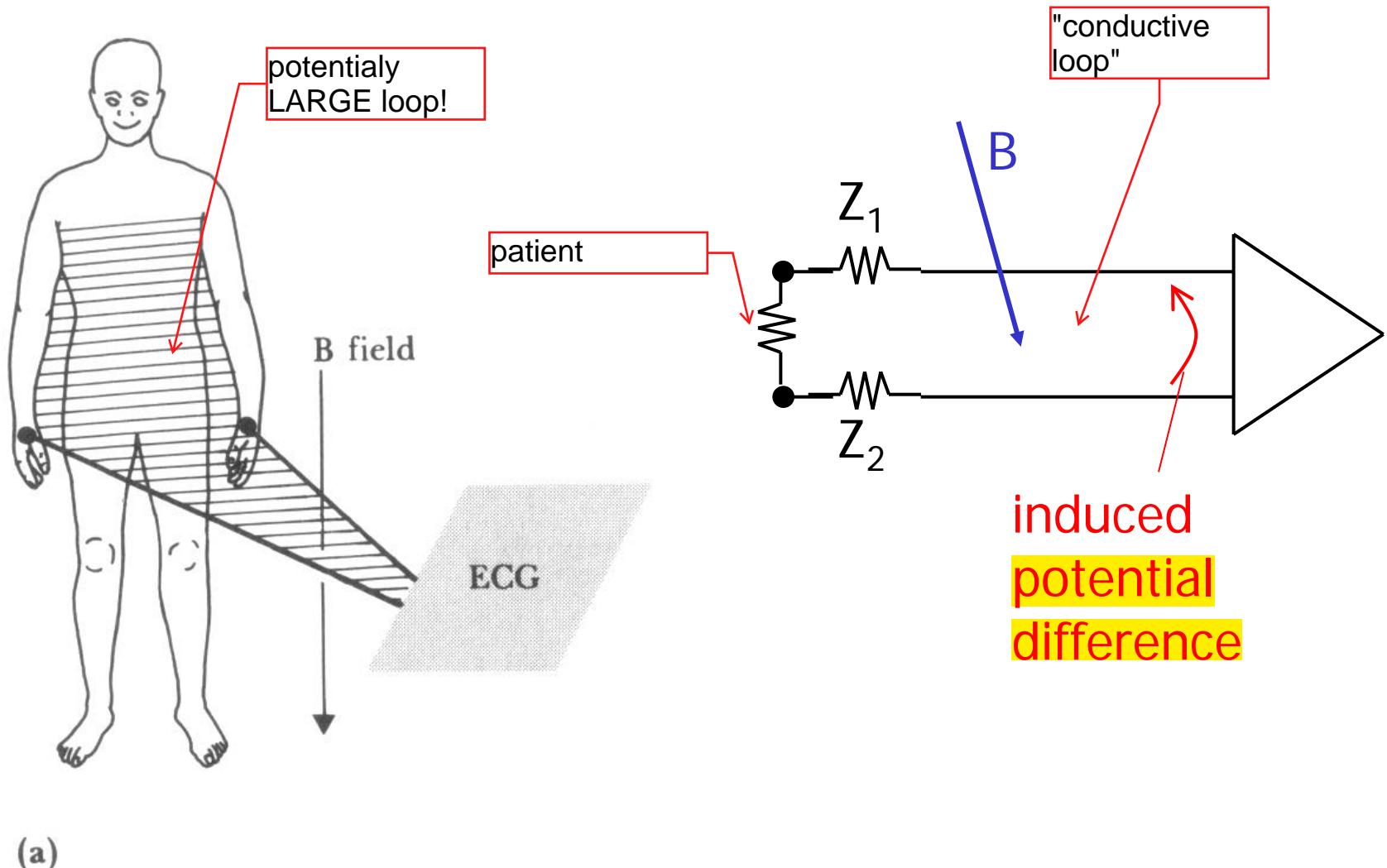
$$\times \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_{in}}$$

large

differential signal created by the common mode through unbalance impedances

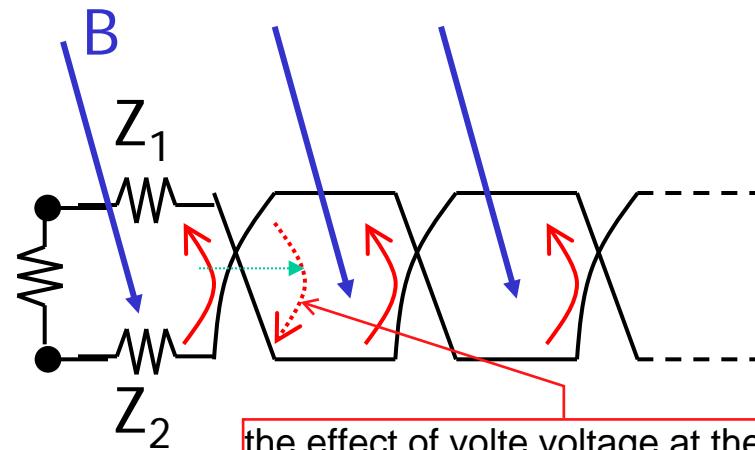
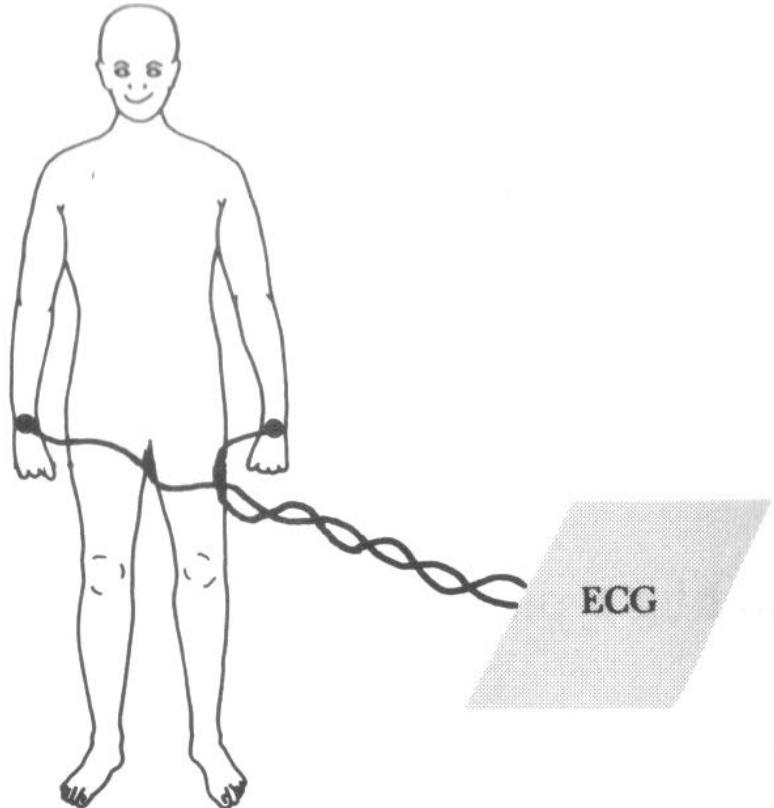
If we do nothing the current flows through  $Z_g$  and creates a ddp. This voltage is common all over the body (CM) and can be few volts. This will be at the input of the amp. You don't have directly this, but its partition with  $Z_1/Z_{in}$  and  $Z_2/Z_{in}$ . With  $Z_{in}$  as large as possible they might be negligible (the partition). If not we have that formula.

# Magnetic coupling



We also have magnetic field, not only electro-field. A loop is created, which is "conductive", if the magnetic field is variable and is coupled, we have an induced potential difference.

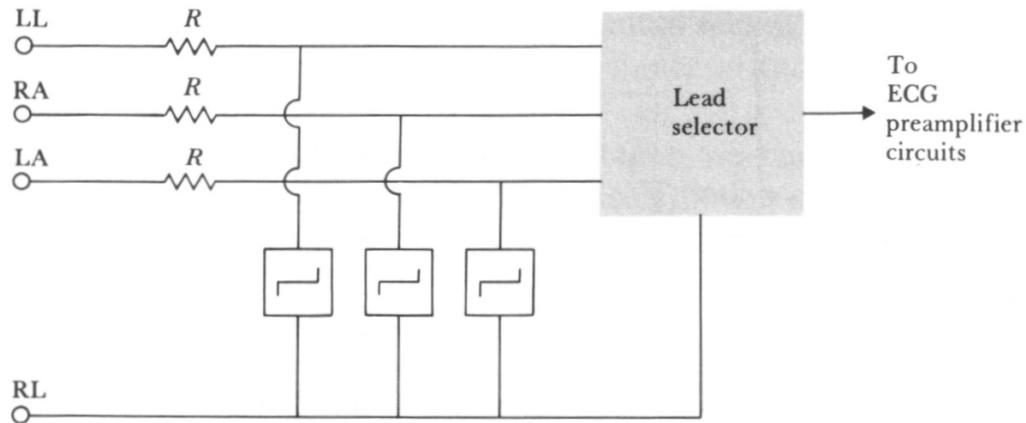
## Usual way: TWISTING PAIRS



With twisted pair cables:

- 1) whorls are smaller
- 2) potential differences created in the different whorls tend to compensate each other

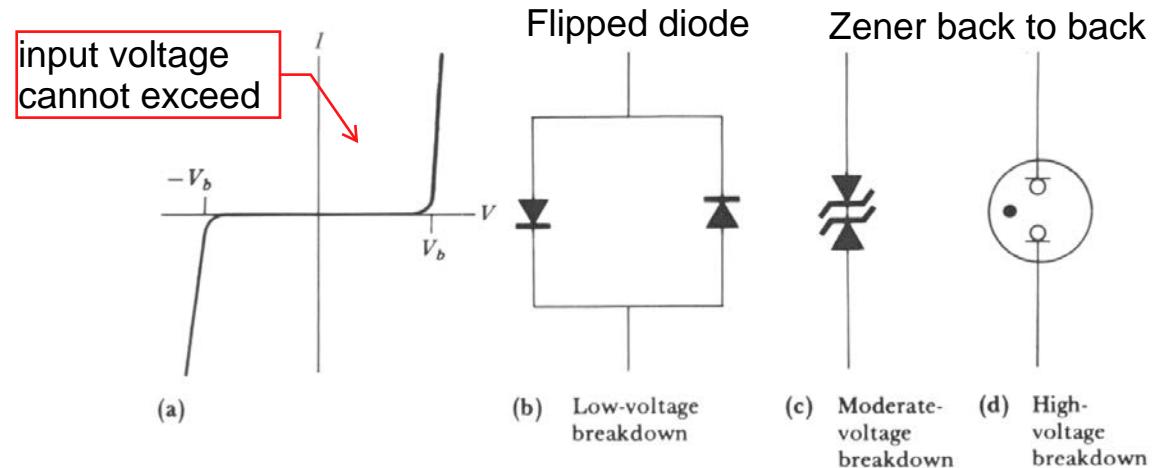
We create many small circles that helps. Every two circles we compensate the potential difference created.



**Figure 6.13** A voltage-protection scheme at the input of an electrocardiograph to protect the machine from high-voltage transients. Circuit elements connected across limb leads on left-hand side are voltage-limiting devices.

## Components for the over-voltage protection

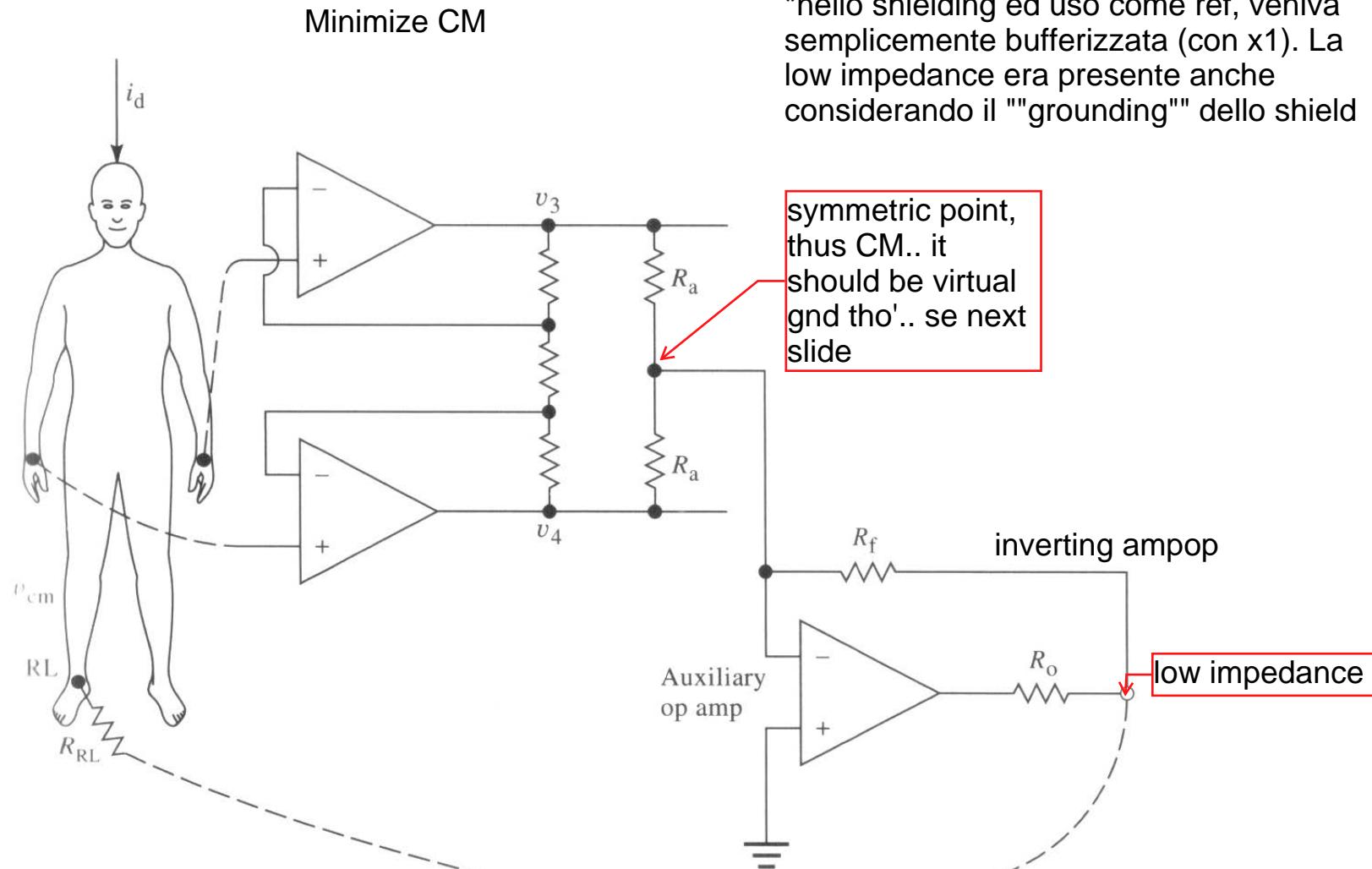
(of the  
instrument)



**Figure 6.14** **Voltage-limiting devices** (a) Current-voltage characteristics of a voltage-limiting device. (b) Parallel silicon-diode voltage-limiting circuit. (c) Back-to-back silicon Zener-diode voltage-limiting circuit. (d) Gas-discharge tube (neon light) voltage-limiting circuit element.

If the patient experiences defibrillation, if you do nothing it destroys the ampoup. We need protection devices. It's just a protection of differential voltage at the input of ampoup.

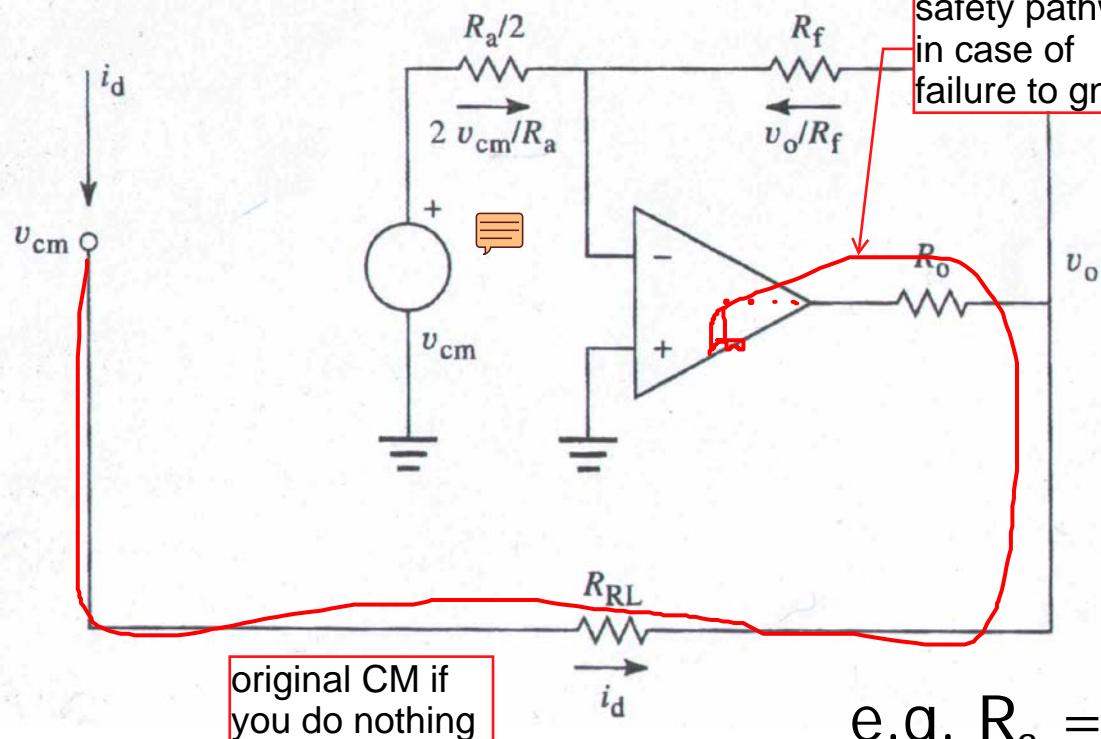
# Right-leg driver circuit to reduce the common-mode voltage



CM is a problem, if I do nothing it's  $i_d \cdot R_{RL}$ . We create a negative loop. Instead of putting  $R_{RL}$  to ground, it's driven by an ampop. It **amplifies** and inverts the CM.  $R_{RL}$  is STILL put at low impedance, it's connected to the output of an ampop, which thanks for the loop effect it's l-impedance.

equivalent thevenin [audio], \*con thevenin viene, con sov. effetti no(!?)

explanation of passages



$$\frac{2v_{cm}}{R_a} + \frac{v_o}{R_f} = 0$$

$$v_o = -\frac{2R_f}{R_a} v_{cm}$$

$$v_{cm} - v_o = id * R_l$$

$$v_{cm} = R_{RL} i_d + v_o$$

original CM  
\*la id è fissa!!

$$v_{cm} = \frac{R_{RL} i_d}{1 + 2R_f/R_a}$$

improvement factor  
= To loop gain!

e.g.  $R_a = 25\text{k}\Omega$ ,  $R_{RL} = 100\text{k}\Omega$

$$\frac{100\text{k}\Omega}{1 + \frac{2 \times 5\text{M}\Omega}{25\text{k}\Omega}} = 249\Omega$$

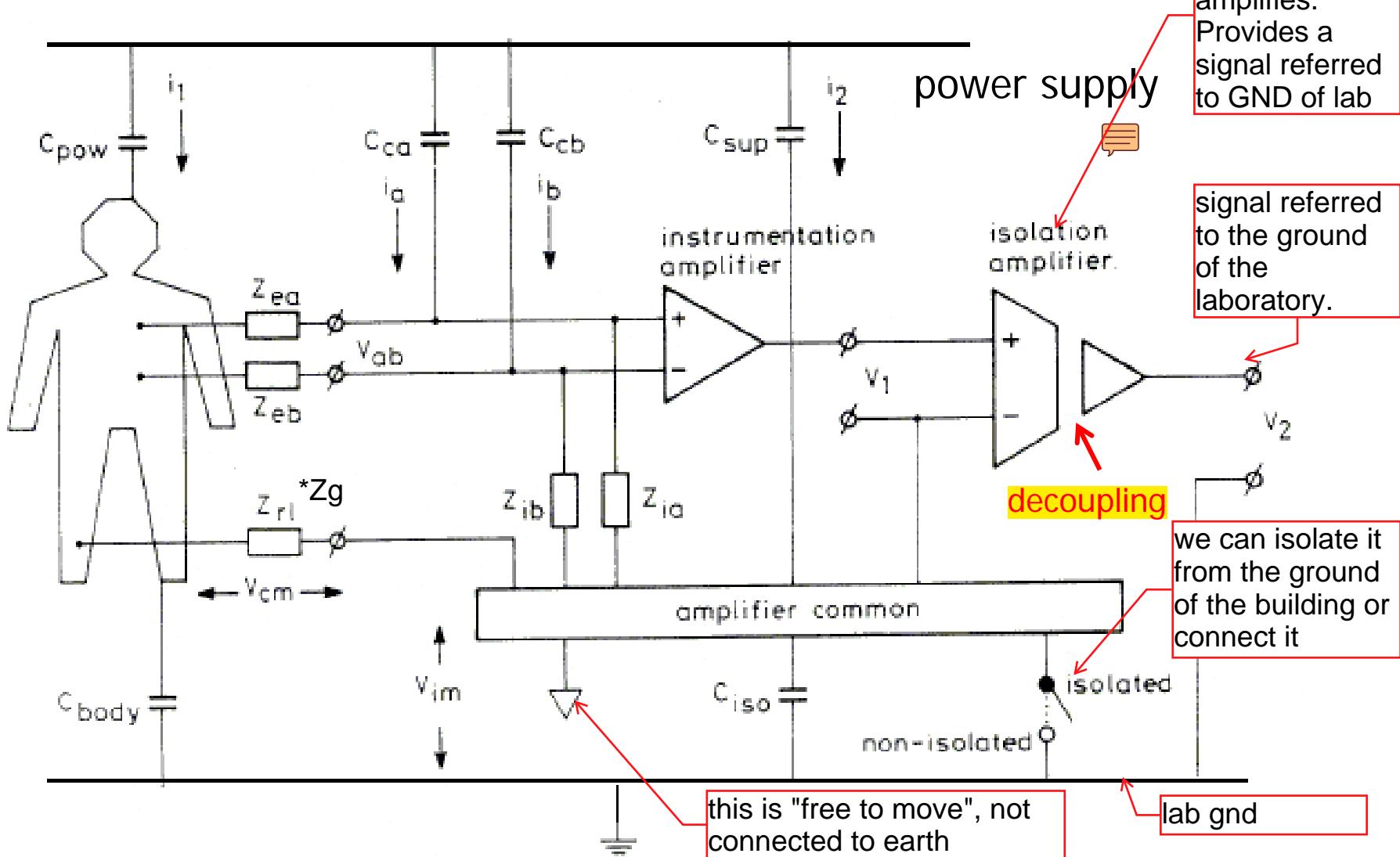
$$v_{cm} = 249\Omega \times 0.2\mu\text{A} = 50\mu\text{V}$$

(ref.  $100\text{k}\Omega \times 0.2\mu\text{A} = 20\text{mV}$ )

eg, impedance of 100k is transformed to 249ohm. Transformation of impedance Rrl. Resistor Rout: it's not playing any role, it's output R of amp, doesn't change the formula because vo is made "0" impedance, even if we have R0. We put it tho' for SAFETY reasons, it guarantees a resistive path towards ground. If the loop is open, not working, for eg in DEFIBRILLATION: indeed if it's SATURATED not in linear region, IT'S NOT WORKING

2. amplifier common: LOCAL GROUND not connected to laboratory gnd. We leave this common electrode to float freely, and even with a CM. CM becomes reference ground for all the instrumentation.

## Insulated amplifier



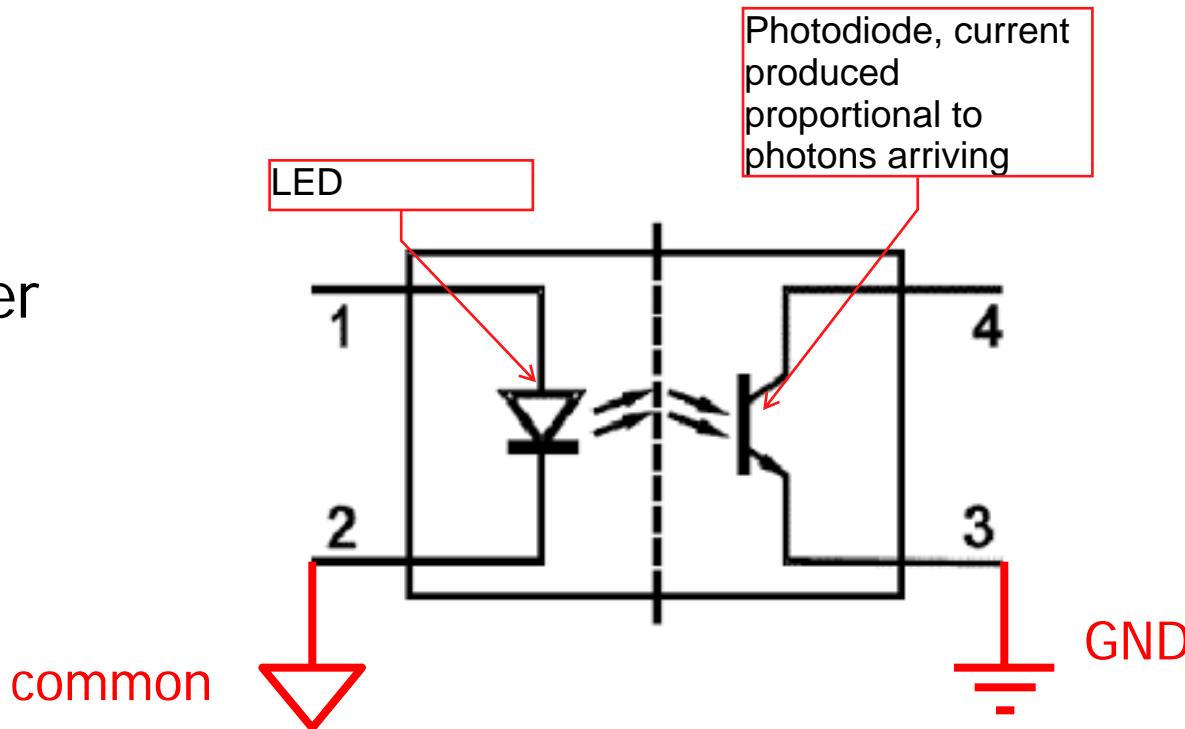
1. We have seen that if we have a very large CM, and we bias the ampopp with  $+V_{cc}$ , and the CM  $> V_{cc}$  theoretically it should reject the CM, but it's not gonna work if the input  $> V_{cc}$ . eg cm 20V, alimentazione +15V. So we decided to refer the power supply to CM: we sample the CM and we connect the power supply to this floating CM. This concept already seen can be extended to all the input stages of the instrument: we create AMPLIFIER COMMON

# Examples of decoupling solutions

## 1) AC coupling



## 2) Optocoupler

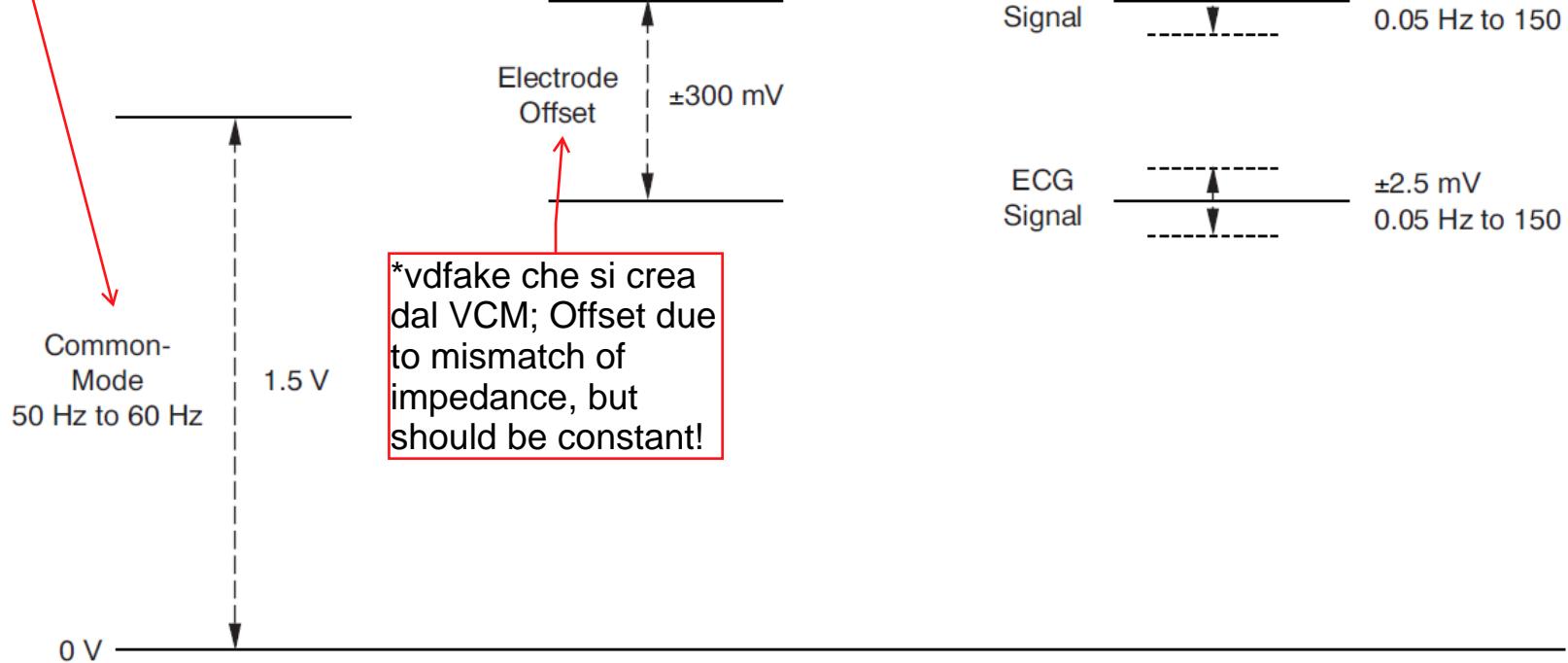


Popular solution to decoupling.

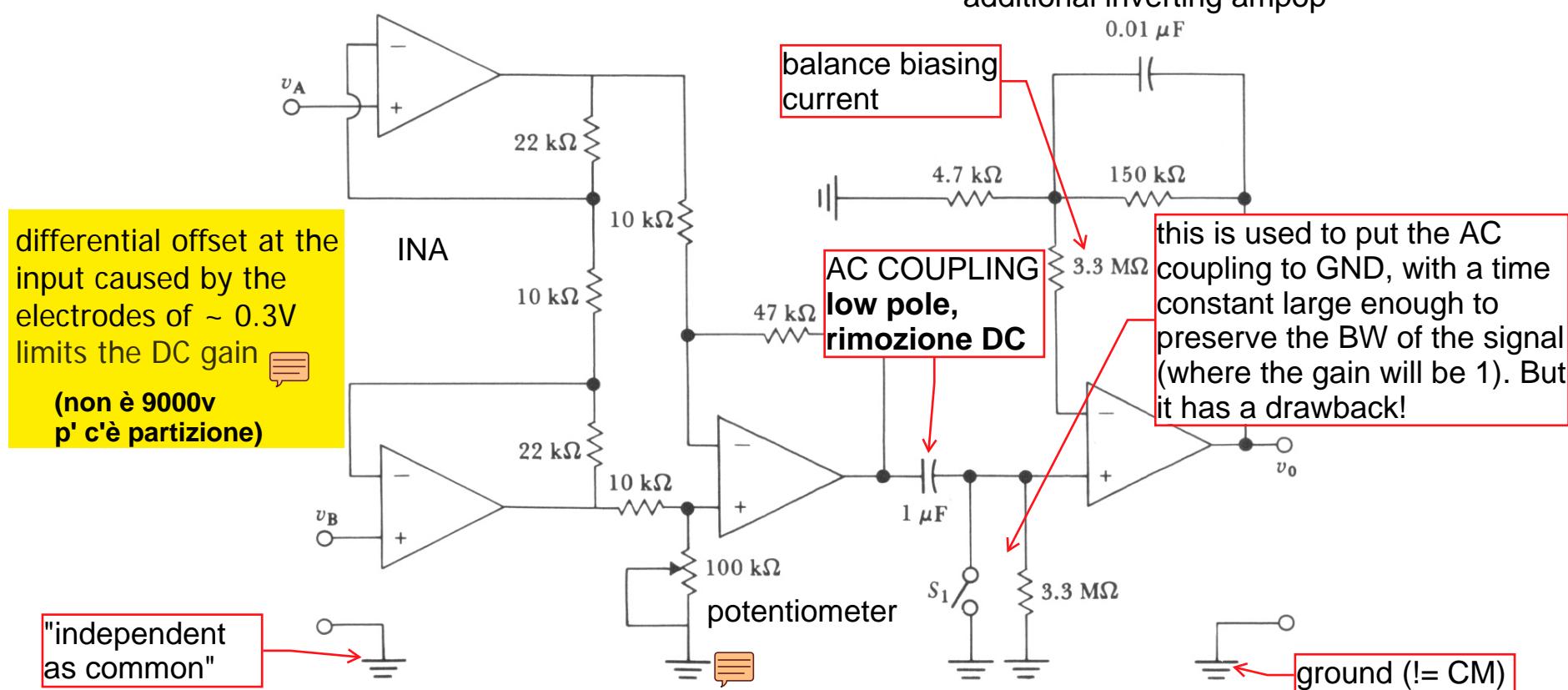
- 1) CAPACITOR, DC it transfer the signal but breaks the DC signal
- 2) OPTOCOUPLER: creates the bridge between the two reference with optical light, because it's insensitive to grounding reference.

## ECG signal characteristics

CM, we rely on CMRR



# Example of ECG amplifier



**Figure 6.18** This ECG amplifier has a gain of 25 in the dc-coupled stages. The high-pass filter feeds a noninverting-amplifier stage that has a gain of 32. The total gain is  $25 \times 32 = 800$ . When  $\mu\text{A } 776$  op amps were used, the circuit was found to have a CMRR of 86 dB at 100 Hz and a noise level of 40 mV peak to peak at the output. The frequency response was 0.04–150 Hz for  $\pm 3$  dB and was flat over 4–40 Hz.

The gain is not distributed only on the first INA, because we have electrode offset quite high! the ina is sensitive to these! \*è differenziale. we would saturate the amplifier :(. The output of INA would be saturated, we **split the gain in two stages**, INA=> 25, second stage=>32. Overall desired 800, but now the first stage doesn't saturate. (yes, 25\*0.3 is already a lot, but then again **the DC voltage is removed by the AC coupling**)