Abstract—Magnetopulethysmogram (MPG) is typically acquired by placing a giant magnetoresistance sensor (GMR)- magnet system in a blood vessel’s (e.g., radial artery) vicinity. This brief analyzed multiple linearizing front ends for the GMR-magnet system. GMR based analog front end’s (AFE) gain requirement is derived through COMSOL and MATLAB based simulation considering the raw signal data. After that, we designed a fully differential difference amplifier (FDDA) in 0.18 μm, 1.8 V process using the SPICE environment for amplification of MPG signals. An automatic calibration method is used for compensating the GMR sensor’s offset and lowering it to a few μV level during constant current excitation. This proposed GMR-magnet system is a stepping stone towards non-invasive arterial pulse waveform (APW) detection using the MPG principle, with or without direct skin contact. The DDA achieves open and closed-loop gain of 102 dB and 32 dB, phase margin of 62°, an IRN of 1.8μV, and a unity-gain frequency of 32kHz, resulting in a closed-loop bandwidth of 800 Hz while dissipating 1.2 μA from a 1.8-V supply.

I. MODELLING OF THE MAGNETIC FIELD

Magnetopulethysmogram (MPG) is realized by exposing a body part (preferably with arterial vessels close to the skin tissues) with a magnetomotive force (MMF) and checking the resultant flux with a sensor [1]-[3]. The MMF produced by the permanent magnet generates a magnetic flux (φ) [4]-[9], that depends on the cumulative reluctance (RF) of the magnetic path (φ = MMF/RF) [1]-[3]. Total reluctance [9] of the equivalent magnetic path consists of: reluctance of (i) permanent magnet (RM), (ii) flux sensor device (RF), (iii) air path (Rs) (iv) skin-tissue (RST) and (v) blood vessels (RB(t)). The reluctance offered by the magnet, skin tissue, and the air is constant with time [9]. The blood vessels’ reluctance varies with the change in blood volume flowing through the blood vessels [4]. Net reluctance (RF) of the equivalent magnetic path of the MPG sensor head follows (1) [9].

\[ R_T = R_M + R_A + R_S + R_{ST} + R_B(t) \]  

The reluctance RF of the equivalent magnetic path in (2) through magnet, sensor, air, and tissue (RF = RM + RA + RS + RST) is fixed [9].

\[ R_F = \frac{l_R}{\mu_B A} \]  

Here, lR is the equivalent path length of the constant reluctance RF, and μB is the equivalent permeability of that path [9]. If Mm is the magnetomotive force (MMF) generated by the magnet, the flux φ picked up by the flux sensor follows (3), according to the condition RF >> RB(t) [9].

\[ \phi = \frac{M_m}{(R_F + R_B(t))} - \frac{M_m}{R_F} \left(1 - \frac{R_B(t)}{R_F}\right), R_B(t) = \frac{I_B(t)}{\mu_B A} \]  

In (3), I_B(t) is the flux path length hold by blood and μB is the permeability of blood. Magnetic field follows (4) [9].

\[ B_{mod} = \frac{\phi}{A} = \frac{M_m}{R_F A} \left(1 - \frac{\mu_B I_B(t)}{\mu_B f}\right) = B_{fixed} (1 - x) \]  

The GMR sensor comprises four GMR elements [1]-[11], arranged in a bridge format. Two GMR elements (R_G) in the network are passive, whereas other two GMR elements (R_B) vary with the input magnetic field (say, B_{mod}), as per (5). Due to the repeated changes in blood volume and RB(t), BF_{fixed} magnetic field changes to B_{mod}.

\[ R_G = R_{OL} (1 - K_s (B_{mod} - B_L)) \]  

By Combining (4) and (5), we get the magnetic field and GMR element resistance variation relationship in (6). Multiple works are carried out based on the above formulation of resistance variation with incident magnetic field [5]-[9] but combining mathematical modeling, COMSOL simulation, and SPICE-based analysis for AFE design is still in its nascent stage [17]-[18]. Optimizing the GMR sensor probe decreases the complexity and power budget of the signal conditioning electronics. Recent literature worked on the optimal distance between the GMR sensor and magnet [4]. At sub-optimal GMR sensor-magnet interaction, the amplification factor will increase [4]. We handpicked available GMR linearization circuits [4]-[7] and thoroughly analyzed their gain requirement, structure complexity, and power consumption.

\[ R_G = R_{OL} [1 - K_s (B_{fixed} - B_L)] + xK_s B_{fixed}R_{OL} \]  

II. EXCITATION OF THE GMR SENSOR

GMR sensor can be excited either by a constant current source [1],[7],[18], or a fixed voltage source [2],[3]. Current source-based excitation has advantages like better SNR, low power consumption over voltage-based excitation [1]. Scheme 1 follows Fig.1 [4]. V_R and R_C are the precision reference voltage (from band-gap reference) and an off-chip fixed resistor. RC gives the current IC through the GMR sensor as per l_C = V_C/R_C. The current IC gets divided equally into two paths of the bridge in the absence of any offset. In this way, the current drawn by the bridge can be controlled by the designer [4]-[7], which is important for power consumption reduction. The differential output voltage V_{GMR} from the GMR sensor follows (7) [7]. The output voltage of the

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sensor $V_{GMR}$ is amplified using an instrumentation amplifier ($A_I$) having a gain of $K_I$ [7]. The amplified output voltage follows (8). During on-chip implementation, supply voltage $V_{DD}$ is small; subsequently, the maximum voltage across the GMR sensor is bounded to $V_{AB}$ (node A and node B voltage difference). If the maximum output voltage of $A_C$ is $V_{DD}$, then $V_{AB(max)} \approx (V_{DD} - V_R)$. This voltage limits the maximum $I_C$ and its operating range [5]-[7].

$$V_{GMR} = \frac{I_C}{2} (R_O - R_G) = \frac{V_R}{2R_C} (R_O - R_G) \quad (7)$$

![Fig. 1. Constant current based excitation [9]](image1)

In scheme 2, the biasing circuit of the GMR sensor has a V-to-I converter [9] based on Fig.2. It uses a single-stage differential amplifier topology as stage 1 and a common-source PMOS amplifier ($M_1$) with an $R_C$ resistive load [7],[22]. The Miller-compensation ($C_F$ and $R_Z$) provides the negative feedback loop’s stability [7]. The $M_1$ - $M_2$ transistor pair works as a current mirror circuit. This scheme has reduced the non-linearity of the system [7]. Output voltage is modified to (9) w.r. t (8) in new configuration [9].

$$V_O = V_R [1 + A_I \frac{K_{R_1} (B_f - B_L) - xB_f}{2R_C}] \quad (8)$$

![Fig. 2. Modified Constant current based excitation [12]](image2)

$$V_O = V_R \frac{1 + A_I K_{R_1} (B_f - B_L) - xB_f}{2R_C} \quad (9)$$

III. Estimation of the Magnetic Field

The applied magnetic field surrounds the GMR sensor, skin, fabric, and blood vessels [7]-[9]. The distance between GMR and magnet is important to achieve magnetic biasing’s desired effect. We calculated the magnetic field by importing device parameters of sensor and magnet [10] in the MATLAB environment. During the estimation, the permanent magnet is assumed to be a point source. The magnetic field (B) along its axis, at a distance (d) away from the point source, follows (10) [8].

$$B = \frac{\mu_o M}{4\pi d^3} (a_R 2\sin \theta + a_\theta \cos \theta) \quad (10)$$

Where, $\mu_o$ is the permeability of the equivalent magnetic path, d is the distance of the sensor from the centre of the magnet, $a_R$ and $a_\theta$ are standard unit vectors and $M$ is the magnetic moment vector. Applying $\theta = 90^\circ$ in (10), the magnetic field (B) follows (11) [4]-[9] as per Fig.3.

$$B = \frac{\mu_o M}{4\pi d^3} a_\theta \quad (11)$$

As per the datasheet, the sensor-magnet are AA004-02 and D125B, respectively. Magnetic moment of the magnet $\approx 0.05\text{Am}^2$. The magnetic field strength (B) at d = 20mm from the sensor is 0.625 mT [8]. This magnetic field strength is the worst possible magnetic field without any field concentrator. However, it produces the desired effect of magnetic biasing when the sensor operates in its characteristic curve’s linear region [5]-[9]. The linear range of AA004-02 sensor lies within 0.5 – 3.5 mT. Properties of the GMR sensor and magnet combinations are listed in Table I. We co-simulated the available GMR sensor in COMSOL and MATLAB environment [2] with different magnets for limiting distance and typical sensor output calculation with 5 V supply voltage for off-chip implementation. These values are important for calculation of AC/DC signal ratio and amplifier gain [9]. We ignored the magnetic field calculation for literature [8] in Table II because the same category (N35) magnet is used in [1],[13],[22] by modifying the dimension. Based on Table II, the best possible combination for GMR based wearable implementation is AA004-02 GMR sensor and N40 (D125B) magnet. Recent research works [2]-[3],[9] have opened different configurations for signal conditioning like (i) the sensor-magnet distance is 20mm without a magnetic field concentrator [1],[13]; (ii) sensor-magnet distance is 12mm with a field concentrator [2]. A magnetic field concentrator prevents the bulging effect of the flux lines, but it is not helpful for compact wearable realization. In the ‘best possible bio-magnetic field available at 12mm distance’ case, researchers have committed some mistakes. The post-amplification high amplitude bio-signal [2] obtained in their case is due to improper biasing. As per literature [10], the linear operating region of AAH002-02 sensor lies in between -50 - +50 mT [2],[3],[9] but actually...
operating region lies within 0.06-0.3 mT [10]. The sensor is probably not biased at the linear operating region. Table II gives the limiting operating distance between sensor and magnet and corresponding magnetic field. Researchers [2] used a Neodymium magnet of 4 mm diameter and 3 mm thickness (D125B) during emulation in COMSOL environment [2]. As per studies [2],[3], the bio-magnetic field available to the sensor lies within 20-25 µT at an optimum distance of 12 mm with field concentrator. Another study [8] assumed 20 mm operating distance w/o field concentrator, supported by other literatures [1]-[3]. Our analysis is based on the 20 mm operating distance between sensor and magnet.

IV. DDA DESIGN OF THE FRONT END

During AFE design for wearable [11]-[20], high input impedance, low noise, high common mode rejection ratio (CMRR), and ultra low power consumption are the most important performance indicators [14]-[16]. AC-coupled AFE [20] with auxiliary circuits, such as ‘impedance boosting’ and ‘DC-servo loop’, are not good candidate for the ultra-low-power signal interfacing. DC-coupled AFE shows inherent high input impedance but suffers with poor CMRR. DDA with modified DC-coupled AFE [19]-[20] is a suitable candidate featuring the inherent high input impedance, high CMRR, circuit simplicity, and low power consumption. At 20 mm distance between sensor and magnet, the best and worst possible DC magnetic field lies within 2.5mT and .625mT respectively [1]-[9],[15]. The lower threshold of the magnetic field ($B_L$) is .5mT [5]-[7]. Typically amplifier and GMR sensor biasing circuit are supplied from a single supply. As per different literature, the amplification factor lies within 1600 in extreme cases to prevent saturation of GMR signal [1],[13]. Total gain of the AFE is implemented in multiple stages (fixed and programmable gain amplifier). Biomagnetic field varies within 0.1-2µT based on COMSOL simulation in the vicinity of 20 mm distance [2]. During on chip implementation, 0.18 µm, 1.8 V CMOS process is used. The closed-loop configuration of the amplifier has capacitive gain and pseudo resistor (high-pass filter realization, cut-off frequency < 1 Hz) based structure [20]. Typically AA series commercial GMR sensor provides an offset of 4 mV/V [10]. At 1.8 V supply voltage and 5 kΩ reference resistance, system requires 0.72 µA compensation current [19]. During constant voltage excitation, the generated offsets at $V_{in}^+$ and $V_{in}^-$ are symmetrical about common mode voltage. Whereas in constant current based excitation, offset voltage close to $I_B'(\frac{R_1}{R} - \frac{R_2}{R})$ and $I_B(\frac{R_1}{R} + \frac{3R_3}{R})$ exist at $V_{in}^+$ and $V_{in}^-$, respectively. The generated offsets are asymmetrical w.r.t common mode voltage. In GMR sensor, maximum difference between resistance variation ($r_L-r_R$) is found to be 12.4 kΩ [7]. The offset generated at $V_{in}^+$ node is µV level. So, the need of offset compensation is relaxed than voltage based excitation. However, an optional calibration unit based on ‘intended use’ is still kept in the system. In this design, $V_R$ is 1.2 V and $V_{DD}$ = 1.8 V. Considering ($R_0+ R_Q$) = 10 kΩ, the design in Fig.4(a) gives $I_C$(max) = 1.8/10 mA = 180µA [7]. In this design, considering $R_C = 24$ kΩ, $I_C$ is fixed at (1.2/24) mA = 50 µA based on SNR value close to 50 dB [1],[7]. This low current is reducing overall power consumption of the biasing circuit in µW level. An automatic calibration technique is used to nullify the resistive-bridge offset (caused by GMR and magnetic field variations) and reduce it to µV level [19]. System requires 0.2 µA compensation current [19]. MR sensors typically have larger no. of bits based DAC requirement for offset compensation [12]. Above analysis comprehends that constant current excitation reduces offset compensation current nearly 4x times w.r.t constant voltage based excitation. Subsequently, the DAC requirement is reduced by 2 bit (from 7 bit DAC- constant voltage excitation to 5 bit DAC- constant current excitation).

The bridge offset calibration circuit, in Fig. 4(a), adapted from [19] generates the compensation current automatically. It has two switches $S_P$ and $S_N$ and two 5-bit current DACs (I-DACs) with binary current units $I_{N0}$-$I_{N4}$ and $I_{L0}$-$I_{L4}$, one comparator, and a SAR control unit. Each current source’s current is developed from a temperature-insensitive current source supplied by a BGR (bandgap voltage reference). Performance of the I-DAC [19] is linked to the size and biasing condition of the transistors in the unit current source[21]. An integral non-linearity (INL) specification of ±0.5 LSB for 5-bit matching accuracy, the standard deviation of the unit current source should not be larger than 2.8% of the unit current [19],[21] to obtain a good yield. The sensor is calibrated in a one-time two-steps manner, and it reduces overall power consumption. The calibration process is triggered with a falling pulse on the ‘start signal’ in Figs.4(b) and (d) [19]. In the first step, $S_N$ is on, and the clocked comparator compares the sensor’s negative output, $V_{in}^-$, with the common-mode level, $V_{CM}$ [19]. The SAR logic generates codes $D_{N0}$-$D_{N4}$ to adjust $V_{in}^-$ through the I-DACs, $I_{N0}$-$I_{N4}$. As per Fig. 4(d), after seven clock cycles, $V_{in}^- = V_{DD} - R×(I_L + I_N)$ approaches $V_{CM}$, and the first step is completed, where $\Delta I_N = \sum_{i=0}^{4} D_{Ni} \times I_{Ni}$. $I_N$ is the current in the $i_{th}$ current branch $I_{Ni} = 2 \times I_{Ni-1}$, and $i = 0 - 4$. In the second step, $S_N$ is off, $S_P$ turns on (optional), then the comparator and SAR logic modify I-DACs[19]. $I_{P0}$-$I_{P4}$ is generated in the same manner where $\Delta I_P = \sum_{i=0}^{4} D_{Pi} \times I_{Pi}$. Finally, both $S_P$ and $S_N$ turn off, and I-DACs hold the compensation currents [19]. $I_L$ and $I_R$ are the currents through the left and right-hand sides of the bridge, respectively. After offset calibration, the calibration block is disabled to save power consumption until triggering of the ‘START’ signal [19]. The comparator in Fig. 4(b) consists of a preamplifier (preamp) followed by a strong-arm (SA) latch. The preamp can amplify the small input signal while the SA latch compares the amplified signal and provides the corresponding logic. The high gain preamp reduces the kickback noise and latch offset [19]. During the calibration, the control signal ‘EN’ goes low to enable the preamp. ‘EN’ stays at a high level to turn off the preamp for reducing power consumption. The SA latch has two phases: the RST phase ($\phi_\text{C}=1$) and the comparison phase ($\phi_\text{C}=0$) [19], where the clock $\phi_\text{C}$ is synchronized with the SAR logic in the bridge-offset calibration circuit [19]. The latch has low power consumption because of no
TABLE I
MAGNETORESISTIVE SENSOR AND MAGNET PROPERTIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Sensor- Magnet Combination</th>
<th>Magnet specification</th>
<th>Surface flux measurement (T)</th>
<th>Residual flux density (KGs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anoop [13]</td>
<td>AA004-02 N35(D063D)</td>
<td>1.27 0.16</td>
<td>0.1637 11.7-12.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumar [4],[5]</td>
<td>AAH002-02 N40(D125B)</td>
<td>0.635 0.3175</td>
<td>0.3279 12.6-12.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sen [5],[6], [7]</td>
<td>AA004-02 No data</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phua [8]</td>
<td>AA004-02 N35(M1 219-4)</td>
<td>0.6 0.2</td>
<td>0.2500 11.7-12.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II
COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LIMITING DISTANCE FOR GMR-MAGNET SYSTEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sensor Name</th>
<th>Linear magnetic Field region(mT)</th>
<th>Limiting condition N35 (D063D)</th>
<th>Limiting condition N40 (D125B)</th>
<th>Sensor output @5V AA004-02-N40 (mV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AA002</td>
<td>0.15-1.05</td>
<td>0.15 64.4</td>
<td>0.15 50.7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA004</td>
<td>0.5-3.5</td>
<td>0.5 43.1</td>
<td>0.5 33.4</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAH002</td>
<td>0.06-0.3</td>
<td>0.06 86.5</td>
<td>0.06 68.6</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4. (a) GMR based APW Monitoring IC, (b) Offset calibration circuit, (c) DDA and (d) timing diagram for calibration, (e) simplified super class AB output stage (adapted from [19])

static biasing. The SR latch stores the output from the SA latch for one clock cycle. The comparator consumes 250 nW. In DDA, the large-size input transistors \( (M_{P1}-M_{P4}) \) [14],[19] are used to improve the noise performance and offset. The parasitic capacitance \( C_{par} \) in the feedback network contributes to better consistency of gain without using extra area [20]. Unit size of transistor’s is much smaller than the MIM capacitor, so higher numbers of symmetrically placed units are allowable for transistors than capacitors within the same area [20]. The capacitor area of \( C_2 \) is reduced since part of capacitance is provided by \( C_{par} \) (parasitic capacitor reusing) at \( C_2 \) [20]. The parasitic capacitance contributes about 1/5 of the gain as per simulation, i.e., the ratio of \( C_{par} \) and \( C_2 \) is around 1/4 in the CMOS process. The reuse of \( C_{par} \) improves CMRR and noise performance. The impedance at DC is targeted at GΩ range in this design, so \( C_{par} \) can’t be too large. The designed FDDA has high DC gain, a high-pass cut-off frequency of \( 1/(2\pi \times R_1 \times C_1) \), and mid-band gain of \( (C_2+C_{par}+C_1)/C_1 \). \( R_1 \) is a back-to-back connected pseudo resistor which is several GΩ [20]. Four switches form the chopper modulators (ch/chm/chp) for input noise reduction in Fig. 4(a). The chopper modulators are driven by non-overlapping clocks \( \phi_m \) and \( \phi_m' \) at 20kHz frequency [19]. The DDA utilizes capacitative feedback composed of \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) to achieve a differential gain of 32 dB. The DDA isolate the compensation currents from the I-DACs due to high input impedance. Fig. 4(c) shows the schematic of the core amplifier \( OPA_1 \) with a folded-cascode dual-input stage \( M_{P1-} \)
$M_{P4}$ and a super class-AB output stage [19]. Miller capacitors $C_C$ is used for frequency compensation whereas resistor $R_L$ is used to avoid the RHP zero. The CMFB circuit senses the output voltage at $V_{out}^-$ and $V_{out}^+$ and sets the common-mode voltage $V_{CMFB}$. Chopper modulators chn(chp) are used to modulate the 1/f noise from $M_{P1} - M_{P8}$ and $M_{N1} - M_{N4}$ and control clocks $\phi_n$ and $\phi_m$ follows Fig. 4(c) [20]. DDA achieves a simulated open-loop gain of 106 dB, phase margin of 62°, an IRN of 1.8µV, and a unity-gain frequency of 32kHz, resulting in a closed-loop bandwidth of 800 Hz while dissipating 1.2 µA from a 1.8-V supply. Super class-AB output stage provides 36-dB gain and an output impedance $R_{out} = 120k\Omega$ which is a few orders of magnitude lower than conventional class-AB output stages [20].

V. CONCLUSION

This work provides a comprehensive analysis of the GMR sensor-based analog front-end design in a low-voltage environment. Combining ‘COMSOL’ SPICE environment reduces the design complexity, improves the design accuracy, and dictates the AFE gain range. The DDA of AFE is implemented in a 180 nm, 1.8 V process. The DDA achieves a closed-loop gain of 32 dB and bandwidth of 800 Hz while dissipating 2.16 µW.

REFERENCES


