Galvanic isolation circuit for measuring systems operating in environments with strong electromagnetic disturbances

Abstract. Measuring systems operating in environments with strong electromagnetic disturbances require proper technical solutions preventing excessive errors and measurement uncertainties. Commonly used solutions include shielding, earthing and galvanic isolation. This work presents a proposal for a new galvanic isolation circuit using a Light-to-Frequency Converter (LFC) working alongside a LED.

Streszczenie. Systemy pomiarowe pracujące w środowisku silnych zakłóceń elektromagnetycznych wymagają stosowania odpowiednich rozwiązań zapobiegających pojawianiu się nadmiernych błędów pomiarowych. Słuszy się w tym celu ekranowanie, uziemianie oraz separację galwaniczną. W pracy przedstawia się propozycję nowego układu izolacji galwanicznej wykorzystującego przetwornik światło-frequencjowy sprzężony z diodą LED. (Układ separacji galwanicznej dla systemów pomiarowych pracujących w środowisku silnych zakłóceń elektromagnetycznych).

Keywords: galvanic isolation circuit, Light-to-Frequency Converter, LFC, electromagnetic disturbances.

Stwierdzono, że układ izolacji galwanicznej pracujący w prostym wzorze z synchroizolatorami jest nieefektywny z punktu widzenia samodzielnego usuwania zakłóceń elektromagnetycznych. Stosowanie w układzie izolacji galwanicznej przetwornika światło-frequencjowego wraz z diodą LED uniemożliwia jednak wystąpienie i przenieść zakłócenia do innych, bardziej efektywnie osób układów pomiarowych.

Introduction

Modern measuring systems often have to work in environments with strong electromagnetic disturbance. The result of this is additional measurement errors, increased risk of damage to devices and risk of equipment damage and danger of electric shock to human personnel [1]. There are a few ways, in which interferences may occur in measuring systems: direct galvanic connection, capacitive coupling, magnetic coupling and electromagnetic radiation. In order to reduce such effects, proper shielding, earthing and galvanic isolation are used [2]. Usage of galvanic isolation breaks the loop of common ground connecting each point of the measuring system with different potentials [3]. Therefore, we have some beneficial effects: currents flowing in the common ground wires, which are the source of interference, are terminated; common mode voltage and the risk of electric shock are reduced [1]. Figure 1 represents a simplified block diagram of a measuring system containing: sensor S, signal conditioning systems SCS, acquisition systems ADC, digital processing DSP and display D. Galvanic isolation GI marked with a dotted line may be introduced in many points of a measuring system: direct galvanic connection, capacitive coupling, magnetic coupling and electromagnetic radiation. In order to reduce such effects, proper shielding, earthing and galvanic isolation are used [2]. Usage of galvanic isolation breaks the loop of common ground connecting each point of the measuring system with different potentials [3]. Therefore, we have some beneficial effects: currents flowing in the common ground wires, which are the source of interference, are terminated; common mode voltage and the risk of electric shock are reduced [1].

Fig.1. Simplified block diagram of a measuring system

Light-to-Frequency Converter

Modern galvanic isolation circuits use magnetic fields [1], electrical fields and light [5, 6] to transmit signals through the isolation barrier [2]. Galvanic isolation for analogue signal (G1 and G2 on fig. 1) requires a linear optocoupler. Commonly used optocouplers contain a LED optically coupled with two photodiodes [5, 6], which enable negative feedback, increasing the system’s linearity. Many independent manufacturers offer such optocouplers [2].

Currently, there are also Light-to-Frequency Converters (LFC) [7], which enable a new type of galvanic isolation circuits. Using frequency as an information-carrying signal in the measuring system is very beneficial [8]. Frequency, in comparison with the voltage, is much more resistant to interference, can be sent over large distances without losing information and can be precisely converted into a digital form using cheap counters [9] or microcontrollers, without using expensive ADC converters [10].

LFC is an integrated circuit containing a photodiode connected to a current-to-frequency converter. A simplified electric diagram of such converter is presented on figure 2. However, real diagram is more complicated [11].

Fig.2. Simplified electric diagram of Light-to-Frequency Converter

Photodiode PD converts the incident irradiance \( E_s \) to current \( I_{PD} \) with the sensitivity of the photodiode \( S_{PD} \). Integrator containing amplifier A and capacitor \( C_{INT} \), comparator K, one-shot trigger OST and reference capacitor \( C_{REF} \) create a current-to-frequency converter. The principle of working of the LFC at steady state \( (E_s=\text{const.}) \) is explained in a time courses of signals given in figure 3 [12].

Fig.3. Time courses of signals in Light-to-Frequency Converter

Reference capacitor \( C_{REF} \) is periodically charged to the reference voltage \( V_{REF} \) and connected via switch S to the integrator input. The photodiode current \( I_{PD} \) is continuously integrated by integrator, so when the output voltage of the integrator \( V_{INT} \) reaches the comparator threshold voltage \( V_{COMP} \), the one-shot trigger OST is triggered and a fixed time duration \( t_{REF} \) impulse on the converter output is generated. At the same time the capacitor \( C_{REF} \) is switched from the reference voltage \( V_{REF} \) to the summing node of the amplifier A. This way the LFC output signal \( y(t) \) is a sequence of rectangular pulses. After time \( t_{REF} \) capacitor \( C_{REF} \) is switched back to the reference voltage \( V_{REF} \) to charging it for the next cycle. Negative feedback in this...
the circuit causes the average current value \( I_{REF} \) supplied by the capacitor \( C_{REF} \) to the integrator to be equal to the photodiode’s current value \( I_{PD} \). This way the output frequency \( F_O \) is proportional to the incident irradiance \( E_c \) [7]:

\[
F_O = \frac{C_{PD}}{V_{REF} C_{REF}} E_c + F_D = R_c E_c + F_D,
\]

where: \( S_{PD} \) is the photodiode sensitivity given in \( \text{A}/(\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2) \), \( V_{REF} \) is the reference voltage given in \( V \), \( C_{REF} \) is the reference capacitance given in \( F \), \( E_c \) is the incident irradiance given in \( \mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2 \), \( R_c \) is the LFC responsivity given in \( \text{Hz}/(\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2) \), \( F_D \) is the output frequency for dark condition \( (E_c=0) \) given in Hz. Such converters have a dynamic range of even 160 dB, nonlinearity of 0.1% of the measurement range and output frequency up to 1 MHz [7].

**Proposed new galvanic isolation circuit**

Using a LFC together with a LED enables a galvanic separation circuit for analogue signals. An appropriate block diagram is shown on figure 4. It works as follows: the LED converts the current \( I_F \) to radiant flux \( \Phi_c \), which uses the transmission medium TM to fall on the photodiode PD placed in the LFC. The photodiode current \( I_{PD} \) is continuously converted to the output frequency \( F_O \) by the current-to-frequency converter CFC in the same way described previously. The output frequency \( F_O \) is proportional to the current \( I_F \) flowing through the LED :

\[
F_O = \frac{CTR}{V_{REF} C_{REF}} - I_F
\]

where: \( CTR \) – current transfer ratio of the photodiode current \( I_{PD} \) to the LED current \( I_F \):

\[
CTR = \frac{I_{PD}}{I_F}
\]

In order to assess metrological parameters of the proposed solution, a system was built in accordance with figure 4, using TSL235R TAOS Light-to-Frequency Converter [7] and IRL81A LED. Listed responsivity \( R_c \) of the LFC is 580 Hz/\( \mu\text{W/cm}^2 \) for 635 nm light wavelength, but maximum sensitivity occurs for 760 nm light wavelength [7]. In order to obtain nominal output frequency \( F_{REF}=500 \text{kHz} \), a incident irradiance \( E_c \) of 0.7 mW/cm² is required. The IRL81A diode generates a flux \( \Phi_c \) with a radiant intensity of \( I_F=1 \text{ mW}/\text{sr} \) for current \( I_F=20 \text{ mA} \), by maximum radiation for 880 nm light wavelength. In order to obtain proper optical coupling (with medium value of \( CTR \) on fig. 5), both elements have been placed in the free air, 1 cm of each other, and enclosed in a lightproof case with black internal walls. Static processing characteristic of the system has been designated experimentally for three different \( CTR \) values, using a logarithmic scale on figure 5. The circuit operates correctly within about 120 dB, which corresponds to frequency values \( F_O \) of the LFC from 0.5 Hz to 800 kHz. Nonlinearity depends on the \( CTR \), it is better for higher values of the \( CTR \) (line 1 on fig. 5).

\[
\text{Fig. 5. Static characteristic of the galvanic isolation circuit for different values of CTR: 1-high, 2-medium, 3-low}
\]

**Circuit operation in dynamic conditions**

In dynamic conditions, the LED current value \( I_F \) is changing, therefore output frequency \( F_O \) is also changing. In order to determine instantaneous values of input current \( I_F \), it is necessary to measure instantaneous frequencies \( F_O \). It requires usage of a system, which enables measuring all subsequent time intervals between subsequent output impulses of the converter [13]. In order to assess the operation of the system in dynamic conditions, a National Instruments NI 6602 measuring card connected to a PC has been used. Appropriate block diagram is shown in figure 6.

\[
\text{Fig. 6. Block diagram of the measurement system}
\]

Two counters are used, the first of them works as frequency divisor \( D \), the second one \( C \) is set in buffered period measurement mode [14] and counts reference frequency pulse \( F_{REF} \) from a generator \( G \). The LFC output signal is fed to the divisor \( D \). The output of the divisor is connected to the latch input \( GATE \) of the buffer register \( R \), so at each rising edge of the pulse the current value \( k_i \) of the counter \( C \) is written to the register \( R \) and is sent via PCI bus to PC. A procedure of appropriate signal processing is shown in figure 7.

\[
\text{Fig. 7. Linear interpolation of the frequency signal from LFC}
\]

Inter-pulse time values are given as \( T_i=t_i-t_{i-1} \), where \( t_i=k_i F_{REF} \). Successive values of the LED current \( I_{F_i} \) can be determined as follow:
The values of the current $I_{t, i}$ are not instantaneous values, but they are average values for times $T_i$, which are obtained at moments $t_i$ distributed nonuniformly in time. Assuming a linear change of the current $I_t$ during time $T_i$, its average value $I_{t, i}$ is equal to the instantaneous value $I_{t}(t)$ at moment $t_i$, lying in the middle of the time interval $T_i$ [12]:

$$I_{t, i} = I_{t}(t) = I_{t}(t_i) = I_{t, i-1} + \frac{T_i}{2}.$$

Figure 8 shows results for harmonic input current with a constant value of 0.5 mA and an amplitude of 0.3 mA, changing with the frequency of 200 Hz. The graph also shows that for lower current values, the signal samples are spread less frequently, and for higher values – more frequently, therefore sampling is nonuniform, which makes it difficult to cooperate with voltage signals in the measuring system [10] and prevents the implementation of algorithms for the time and frequency analyses of signals [15].

**Fig.8. Sample measuring results in dynamic conditions with nonuniform sampling of frequency signal**

In practice, it is more convenient to process the instantaneous values of signals sampled uniformly in time, which requires to perform a resampling by interpolating the current values $I_{t}(t)$ at intervals $T_i$ between the measured values $I_{t, i}$ and by collecting new values $I_{t, i}$ at regular time intervals $T_{k=\text{const}}$ [16]. Successive points $I_{t, i}$, $I_{t, i+1}$ (5), shown in figure 7 (black dots), determine successive sections of the polynome interpolating current $I_{t}(t)$ at time intervals from $t_i = T_{i-1} + T_i/2$ to $t_{i+1} = T_{i+1} + T_i/2$, the polynome allowing for a uniform resampling by collecting current values $I_{t, i}$ (white dots) at moments $t_{k}$ equally spaced in time by a uniform sampling period $T_k$:

$$I_{t, k} = I_{t}(t) = I_{t}(t_k) = I_{t, i} + \frac{t_{k+1} - t_{k}}{t_{i+1} - t_{i}} I_{t, i+1} - I_{t, i},$$

where:

- $T_k = kT_k$, $t_k \in (t_i, t_{i+1})$.

**Fig.9. Samples of LED current $I_{t, k}$ after uniform resampling**

Example results for the uniform resampling (6) obtained from presented algorithm are shown in figure 9. Nonuniform sampling signal (fig. 8) was uniformly resampled with a period $T_k = 200 \mu s$. As can be seen, all samples are equally spaced in time by a uniform sampling period $200 \mu s$.

**Summary**

A new concept of a galvanic isolation system using a Light-to-Frequency Converter working alongside a LED is presented. Besides introducing the isolation barrier, using a frequency-measuring signal additionally increases resistance to strong electromagnetic interference. Results from a prepared system confirm proper linearity of static characteristic. After using an appropriate measuring system and an additional data processing algorithm, the circuit may also operate in dynamic conditions. In this case the instantaneous frequency may be determined easily as the inverse of the time between subsequent impulses and should be assigned to the moment in time present midway in this time. Therefore, received results are placed irregularly in time. In order to obtain signal samples placed regularly in time, an approximation of the converter’s output signal may be used, and new samples at regular time intervals may be specified.

**REFERENCES**


