System on a Chip

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Lecture 4: Filters

- Filters
 - General Theory
 - Continuous Time Filters

Background

- Filters are used to separate signals in the frequency domain, e.g. remove noise, tune to a radio station, etc
- 5 types of filter
 - |T(jω)|**↑** Low pass |T(jω)|**↑** ω - High pass ω |T(jω)|**↑ Band pass** ω |T(jw)|**↑** Band stop/reject _ ω ω |T(jω)|**↑** All pass



Ideal Filter



- Brick-wall filters do not exist in reality
- Real filters can approximate brick-wall filters as close as required by the filter specification

"Real" LP Filter



• Parameters required for filter synthesis: A_{max} , ω_p , A_{min} , ω_s

Filter Types Using Biquads



Biquadratic LP Transfer Function



- Diagrams normalized to $\omega_0 = K = 1$
- Asymptotic fall is -40 dB/dec

Biquad Block Diagram

$$T(s) = \frac{V_{LP}(s)}{V_{IN}(s)} = K \frac{\omega_0^2}{s^2 + (\omega_0 / Q)s + \omega_0^2}$$

(K either pos. or neg.)



Universal Active Filter: realizes LP, HP, and BP

Tow-Thomas Biquad Realization



 $Q = Sqrt(R_1^2C_1/R_2R_4C_2)$ $K = -R_2/R_3$ (R₅ arbitrarily chosen)

V_{LP}: Inverting LP Filter

V_{LP}': Non-inverting LP Filter

N-th Order Filter

$$T(s) = K \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots (s - z_M)}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots (s - p_N)}$$

Number of poles determines order

- zeros are obviously placed in stopband
- for stability: M \leq N; N-M zeros at $\omega = \infty$
- for stability: Re{pi} < 0</pre>
- no general optimisation algorithms known

• Special Case: all zeros at $\omega = \infty$; all pole filter

$$T(s) = K \frac{1}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots (s - p_N)}$$

Example: 5-th Order Filter



$$T(s) = \frac{50s^4 + 1.44 \cdot 10^8 s^2 + 2.3 \cdot 10^{14}}{s^5 + 1500s^4 + 2.17 \cdot 10^6 s^3 + 1.58 \cdot 10^9 s^2 + 8.64 \cdot 10^{11} s + 2.47 \cdot 10^{14}}$$

Example: 5-th Order Filter



Bode Diagrams



Butterworth LP Filter

- Make $T(j\omega)$ so that:

$$\left|T(j\omega)\right|^{2} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_{0}}\right)^{2N}}$$

- N: Filter order
 - All pole filter

 ω_0 : |T(j\omega)| has dropped by 3 dB

Normalized Butterworth Polynomials:

For ω_0 =1: N Denominator of T(s) 1 (s+1) 2 (s²+1.1414s+1) 3 (s+1)(s²+s+1) 4 (s²+0.765s+1)(s²+1.848s+1) 5 (s+1)(s²+0.618s+1)(s²+1.618s+1)

BW-LP Frequency Response



- maximally flat in passband i.e. the first 2N-1 derivatives of |T(jω)| are 0 at ω=0
- |T(jω)| monotonically falling
- not steepest roll-off

BW-LP Design



- Design a filter so that in the passband |T(jω)| has fallen not more than by a_{max} and in the stopband the minimum attenuation is a_{min}
- Find ω_0 and N

BW Pole Locations



- Poles located on a circle around the origin
- $\psi_k = 90^\circ (2k + N 1)/N$ k = 1, 2, ..., 2N
- If N is odd, then there is a pole at ψ = 0, if N is even there are poles at ψ = ±90 °/N
- Poles are separated by ψ = 180 °/N

Chebychev LP Filter

• Make T(j ω) so that:

$$\left|T(j\omega)\right|^{2} = \frac{1}{1 + \varepsilon^{2} C_{N}^{2}(\omega)}$$

 $C_N(\omega) = \cos(N\cos^{-1}(\omega)) \quad \text{for } \omega < 1$ $C_N(\omega) = \cosh(N\cosh^{-1}(\omega)) \quad \text{for } \omega > 1$

- N: Filter order
- All pole filter
- Normalized for $\omega_0 = 1$
- ε: design parameter;
 determines ripple

Chebychev Polynomials; Denominator of T(s):

- **Ν** ε=0.3493; (0.5 dB ripple)
- 1 (s+2.863)
- 2 (s^2 +1.425s+1.516)
- 3 (s+0.626)(s²+0.626s+1.142)
- 4 (s²+0.351s+1.064)(s²+0.845s+0.356)
- 5 (s+0.362)(s²+0.224s+1.036)(s²+0.586s+0.477)

 $\epsilon = 0.5089$; (1 dB ripple) (s+1.965) (s²+1.098s+1.103) (s+0.494)(s²+0.494s+0.994) (s²+0.297s+0.987)(s²+0.674s+0.279) (s+0.289)(s²+0.179s+0.988)(s²+0.468s+0.429)

CC-LP Frequency Response Bode Diagrams

- Properties:
- Ripples in Bandpass between
- $\omega = 0$ and $\omega = 1/(1+e^2)^{0.5}$
- $|H(j1)| = 1/(1+\epsilon^2)^{0.5}$ for all N
- |H(0)| = 1 for N odd

=
$$1/(1+\epsilon^2)^{0.5}$$
 for N even

- steeper roll-off than Butterworth
- Implementation: see Butterworth example



Frequency (rad/sec)





- Poles located on an ellipse around the origin; narrow ellipse means poles closer to imag. axis ⇒ larger ripples. Wider ellipse ⇒ small ripples; approaches Butterworth filter
- $\sigma_k = -\sinh(1/N\sinh^{-1}(1/\epsilon))\sin((2k-1)\pi/2N)$
- $\omega_k = -\cosh(1/N \sinh^{-1}(1/\epsilon)) \cos((2k-1)\pi/2N)$

Motivation

Switched Capacitor Filters

- Pro: Accurate transfer-functions
- Pro: High linearity, good noise performance
- Con: Limited in speed
 - Clock rate must be greater than twice the signal frequency
- Con: Requires anti-aliasing filters

Continuous-time filters

- Con: Moderate transfer-function accuracy (requires tuning circuitry)
- Con: Moderate linearity
- Pro: High-speed
- Pro: Good noise performance
- Required building blocks:
 - Integrators, summers and gain stages
 - Allow to realise any rational function, hence any integrated continuoustime filter
 - Any rational transfer function with real-valued coefficients may be factored into first- and second-order terms

First Order Filter



block diagram of a first-order continuous-time filter

- first-order continuous-time filter requires one integrator, one summer, and up to three gain elements
- In general: One integrator is required for each pole in an analog filter

Second Order Filter



block diagram of a second-order continuous-time filter

- Two integrators are required to realise the two poles
- For stability: ω_0/Q must be positive
 - One integrator must have feedback around it, hence the integrator is "lossy"
 - A large feedback coefficient ω_0/Q results in a very lossy integrator, hence the Q is low
 - Q<1/2: both poles are real; Q>1/2: poles are complex-conjugate pairs

G_m-C Integrators





- Use a **transconductor** (or OPA) to build an integrator: $i_o = G_m v_i$
- Output current is linearly related to input voltage
- Output impedance is ideally infinite
- OTA (operational transconductance amplifier) has a high G_m value but is not usually linear

Multiple Input G_m-C Integrators



$$V_o = \frac{1}{sC_1} (G_{m1}V_1 - G_{m2}V_2 + G_{m3}V_3)$$

Example

 What Gm is needed for an integrator having a unity gain frequency of ω_{ti}= 20 MHz when C=2 pF?

$$G_m = 2\pi \times 20MHz \times 2pF$$

= 0.251 mA/V

• Or equivalently: $G_m = 1/3.98 k\Omega$

This is related to the unity gain frequency by:

$$2\pi \times 20MHz = \frac{1}{3.98k\Omega \times 2pF}$$

Fully Differential Integrators



- Use a single capacitor between differential outputs
- Requires some sort of common-mode feedback to set output common-mode voltage
- Needs some extra caps for compensating common mode feedback loop

Fully Differential Integrators



- Use two grounded capacitors
- Still requires common-mode feedback but compensation caps for common-mode feedback can be the same grounded capacitors

Fully Differential Integrators



- Integrated capacitors have top and bottom plate parasitic capacitances
- To maintain symmetry, usually 2 parallel caps used as shown above
- Note that parasitic capacitance affects time-constant and cause non-linearity



- Use an extra Opamp to improve linearity and noise performance
- Also known as a "Miller Integrator"
- The gain of extra Opamp reduces the effect of parasitic capacitances
- Cross coupling of output wires to maintain positive integration coefficient

G_m-C Opamp Integrator

Advantages

- Effect of parasitic caps reduced by opamp gain more accurate time-constant and better linearity
- Less sensitive to noise since transconductor output is low impedance (due to opamp feedback)
- cell drives virtual Gnd output-impedance of G_m cell can be lower and smaller voltage swing needed

Disadvantages

- Lower operating speed because it now relies on feedback
- Larger power dissipation
- Larger silicon area

First Order Filter



General first-order transfer-function:

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{k_1 s + k_0}{s + \omega_0}$$

- Built with a single integrator and two feed-ins branches
- ω_0 sets the pole frequency

First Order Filter



 Can show that the transfer function is given by (using a current equation at the output node):

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{sC_X + G_{m1}}{s(C_A + C_X) + G_{m2}} = \frac{s\left(\frac{C_X}{C_A + C_X}\right) + \left(\frac{G_{m1}}{C_A + C_X}\right)}{s + \left(\frac{G_{m2}}{C_A + C_X}\right)}$$

Equating with the block diagram transfer function:

Fully-Differential First-Order Filter



Same equations as single-ended case but cap sizes doubled

Can realize k₁<0 by cross-coupling wires at C_x

Example

Find fully-diff values when dc gain = 0.5, a pole at 20 MHz and a zero at 40MHz. Assume C_A=2pF

$$H(s) = \frac{0.25(s + 2\pi \times 40MHz)}{(s + 2\pi \times 20MHz)} = \frac{0.25s + 2\pi \times 10MHz}{s + 2\pi \times 20MHz}$$

 $K_1=0.25, k_0=2\pi \times 10^7, \omega_0=4\pi \times 10^7$

So:

$$C_X = 2pF \times \frac{0.25}{1 - 0.25} = 0.667pF$$
$$G_{m1} = 2\pi \times 10^7 \times 2.667pF = 0.168 \ mA/V$$
$$G_{m2} = 4\pi \times 10^7 \times 2.667pF = 0.335 \ mA/V$$

Second Order Filter



Block diagram: see lecture on switched capacitor circuits
 Modified to have positive integrators

Differential Second Order Filter (Biquad)



$$C_X = C_B \left(\frac{k_2}{1 - k_2}\right)$$
 where $(0 \le k_2 < 1)$

 $G_{m1} = \omega_o C_A$ $G_{m2} = \omega_o (C_B + C_X)$ $G_{m3} = \frac{\omega_o (C_B + C_X)}{Q}$ $G_{m4} = (k_o C_A) / \omega_o$ $G_{m5} = k_1 (C_B + C_X)$

Differential Second Order Filter (Biquad)

Transfer function:

$$H(s) \equiv \frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{s^2 \left(\frac{C_X}{C_X + C_B}\right) + s \left(\frac{G_{m5}}{C_X + C_B}\right) + \left(\frac{G_{m2}G_{m4}}{C_A(C_X + C_B)}\right)}{s^2 + s \left(\frac{G_{m3}}{C_X + C_b}\right) + \left(\frac{G_{m1}G_{m2}}{C_A(C_X + C_B)}\right)}$$

- Note that there is a restriction on the high-frequency gain coefficient k₂ as in the first-order case
- Note that G_{m3} sets the damping of this biquad
- G_{m1} and G_{m2} form two integrators with unity-gain frequencies of ω_0/s

Example

- Find values for a bandpass filter with a centre frequency of 20 MHz, a Q value of 5, and a centre frequency gain of 1
- Assume $C_A = C_B = 2 pF$

$$H(s) \equiv \frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \frac{Gs\frac{\omega_o}{Q}}{s^2 + s\frac{\omega_o}{Q} + \omega_o^2}$$

where G =1 Is the gain at the center frequency

Example

• Since $\omega_0 = 2\pi \times 20$ MHz and Q = 5, we find:

$$k_1 = G \frac{\omega_o}{Q} = 2.513 \times 10^7 \text{ rad/s}$$

- Since k_0 and k_2 are zero, we have $C_x = C_{mA} = 0$
- The transconductance values are:

$$G_{m1} = |\omega_o C_A = 0.2513 \text{ mA/V}$$

$$G_{m2} = \omega_o (C_B + C_X) = 0.2513 \text{ mA/V}$$

$$G_{m3} = G_{m5} = k_1 C_B = 50.27 \mu \text{A/V}$$

CMOS Tranconductors

- A large variety of methods
- Best approach depends on application
- Two main classifications: triode or active transistor based

Triode vs. Active

- Triode based tends to have better linearity
- Active tend to have faster speed for the same operating current

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Triode Tranconductors

Recall n-channel triode equation

$$I_D = \mu_n C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L} \right) \left((V_{GS} - V_{tn}) V_{DS} - \frac{V_{DS}^2}{2} \right)$$

Conditions to remain in triode

$$V_{DS} < V_{eff}$$
 where $V_{eff} = V_{GS} - V_{tn}$

- or equivalently: $V_{GS} > V_{DS} + V_{tn}$
- Above models are only reasonably accurate
 - Higher order terms are not modelled
- Not nearly as accurate as exponential model in BJTs
- Use fully-differential architectures to reduce even order distortion terms — also improves common mode noise rejection
 - The third order term dominates

- Use a small v_{DS} voltage so v²_{DS} term goes to zero
 - Drain current is approximately linear with applied v_{DS}. Transistor in triode becomes a linear resistor

$$r_{DS} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial i_D}{\partial v_{DS}}\right)^{-1} \bigg|_{v_{DS}} = 0$$

• Resulting in:
$$r_{DS} = \left(\mu_n C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) (V_{GS} - V_{tn})\right)^{-1}$$

 Can use a triode transistor where a resistor would normally be used — resistance value is tunable



- Q9 is in the triode region
 - transconductor has a variable transconductance value that can be adjusted by changing the value of V_{gs9}
- Moderate linearity



- Alternative approach with lower complexity and p-channel inputs
 - transconductor has a variable transconductance value that can be adjusted by changing the value of V_{gs9}



- Circuit can be easily made with multiple scaled output currents
- Multiple outputs allow filters to be realized using fewer transconductors

Biquads Using Multiple Outputs



- Can make use of multiple outputs to build a biquad filter
 - scale extra outputs to desired ratio
- Reduces the number of transconductors
 - saves power and die area
- Above circuit makes use of Miller integrators

Varying-Bias Triode Transconductor



$$G_m = \frac{4k_1k_3\sqrt{I_1}}{(k_1 + 4k_3)\sqrt{k_1}}$$

[Krummenacher, 1988]

- Linearizes MOSFET differential stage
 - Transistors primarily in triode region

Varying-Bias Triode Transconductor

- gates of Q₃ and Q₄ connected to the differential input (and not to bias voltage)
- Q₃ and Q₄ undergo varying bias conditions to improve linearity
- It can be shown that

$$G_m = \frac{4k_1k_3\sqrt{I_1}}{(k_1 + 4k_3)\sqrt{k_1}}$$

• With
$$k_i = \frac{\mu_n C_{ox}}{2} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_i$$

- Note, G_m is proportional to square-root of as opposed to linear relation for a BJT transconductor
- Transconductance can be tuned by changing bias current I_i

Drain-Source Fixed-Bias Transconductor

$$i_D = \mu_n C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L} \right) \left((V_{GS} - V_{tn}) V_{DS} - \frac{V_{DS}^2}{2} \right)$$

- If v_{DS} is kept constant, then i_D varies linearly with v_{GS}
 - Model is too simple, neglecting second order effects such as velocity saturation, mobility degradation
- Possible implementation using fully differential architecture



Drain-Source Fixed-Bias Transconductor

- Can realize around 50 dB linearity (not much better since model is not that accurate)
- Requires a fully-differential structure to cancel even-order terms
- V_C sets v_{DS} voltage
- Requires a non-zero common-mode voltage on input
- Note that the transconductance is proportional to v_{DS}
 - For v_{DS} small the bias current I_1 is also approximately proportional to v_{DS}

Alternative: MOSTFET-C Filters

- Gm-C filters are most commonly used but MOSFET-C have advantages in BiCMOS for low power applications
- MOSFET-C filters similar to active-RC filters but resistors replaced with MOS transistors in triode
- Generally slower than Gm-C filters since opamps capable of driving resistive loads required
- Rely on Miller integrators
- Two main types 2 transistors or 4 transistors

Alternative: MOSTFET-C Filters

- Gm-C filters are most commonly used but MOSFET-C have advantages in BiCMOS for low power applications
- MOSFET-C filters similar to active-RC filters but resistors replaced with MOS transistors in triode
 - Knowledge and architecture of active RC filters can be transferred
- Generally slower than Gm-C filters since Opamps capable of driving resistive loads required
- Rely on Miller integrators
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Two Transistor Integrators



Banu 1983

Two Transistor Integrators

For resistor integrator can be shown

$$v_{\text{diff}} = \frac{1}{sR_1C_I}(v_{p1} - v_{n1}) + \frac{1}{sR_2C_I}(v_{p2} - v_{n2})$$

- If negative integration is required — cross-couple wires

 For MOSFET-C integrator, assuming transistors are biased in triode region, the small-signal resistance is given by:

$$r_{DS} = \left(\mu_n C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) (v_{GS} - V_{tn})\right)^{-1}$$

Therefore, the differential output of the MOSFET-C integrator is:

$$v_{\text{diff}} = \frac{1}{sr_{DS1}C_I}(v_{p1} - v_{n1}) + \frac{1}{sr_{DS2}C_I}(v_{p2} - v_{n2})$$

With: $r_{DSi} = \left(\mu_n C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_i (V_C - V_x - V_{tn})\right)^{-1}$

General MOSFET-C Biquad Filter



Equivalent active RC half circuit





Tuning Circuitry

- Tuning can often be the MOST difficult part of a continuous-time integrated filter design
- Tuning required for continuous-time integrated filters to account for capacitance and transconductance variations — 30 percent timeconstant variations
- Must account for process, temperature, aging, etc.
- While absolute tolerances are high, ratio of two like components can be matched to under 1 percent
- Note that SC filters do not need tuning as their transfer-function accuracy set by ratio of capacitors and a clock-frequency

Indirect Tuning

transconductance-C filter



- Most common method build an extra transconductor and tune it
- Same control signal is sent to filter's transconductors which are scaled versions of tuned extra
- Indirect since actual filter's output is not measured

Constant Transconductance



 Can tune Gm to off-chip resistance and rely on capacitor absolute tolerance to be around 10 percent