

**ifi**

Bandgap References and Discrete Time Signals  
(chapter 8 + 9)

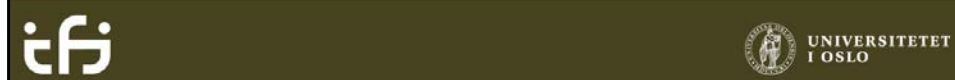
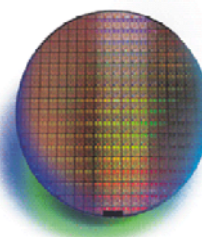
Tuesday 9th of February, 2010

Snorre Aunet, [sa@ifi.uio.no](mailto:sa@ifi.uio.no)  
Nanoelectronics Group, Dept. of Informatics  
Office 3432

UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

Last time – Tuesday 2nd of February, and today, February the 9th:

- 8.1 performance of Sample-and-Hold Circuits
- 8.2 MOS Sample-and-Hold circuits
- 8.3 Examples of CMOS S/H circuits
- 8.5 Bandgap Voltage Reference Basics
- 8.6 Circuits for Bandgap References
- Chapter 9 Discrete-Time Signals
- 9.1 Overview of some signal spectra
- 9.2 Laplace Transforms of Discrete-Time Signals
- 9.3 Z-transform



**ifi**

UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Voltage references (chapter 8.5)

- Purpose:
  - Generate a **constant on-chip voltage** which is independent of temperature, supply voltage, aging etc.
- Different approaches:
  - 1) **Breakdown** voltage of a reverse-biased **zener** diode
    - **Too high voltage** for CMOS
  - 2) Threshold voltage difference between CMOS enhancement and **depletion transistors**
    - Depletion-mode transistors **unavailable** in most CMOS processes
  - 3) **Bandgap references**: Canceling the negative temperature dependence of a forward-biased pn-junction (CTAT) with a positive temperature dependence (PTAT) (proportional-to-absolute-temperature) circuit
    - Most commonly used
    - CTAT: Conversely proportional to temperature
    - PTAT: Proportional to temperature

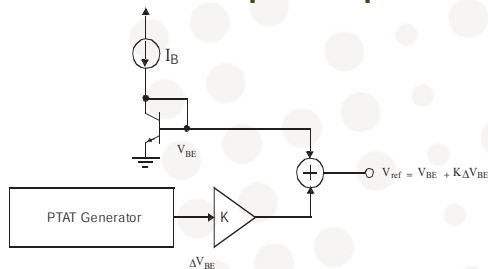


## More about today's Bandgap Reference agenda (including, but not limited to):

- About the fundamental equations giving the relationship between the output voltage of a bandgap reference and temperature.
- How to design a bandgap reference for a "most stable" reference voltage at a particular temperature.
- How to estimate temperature dependence at another temperature that the BG reference was designed for.
- Practical implementations



## Basic principle



- The voltage  $V_{BE}$  is CTAT
- The voltage  $\Delta V_{BE}$  is PTAT
- $\Delta V_{BE}$  is scaled by  $K$  to get the same slope as  $V_{BE}$
- By adding  $V_{BE}$  and  $K \Delta V_{BE}$ , the output  $V_{ref}$  becomes independent of temperature



## Bandgap reference example

### A High Precision Curvature Compensated Bandgap Reference without Resistors

Jianghua Chen\*, Xuewen Ni, Bangxian Mo and Zhanfei Wang  
 Institute of Microelectronics, Peking University, Beijing 100871, P.R. China  
 \* Email: chenjianghua@ime.pku.edu.cn

**A High Precision Curvature Compensated Bandgap Reference with**  
 Jianghua Chen; Xuewen Ni; Bangxian Mo; Zhanfei Wang;  
 Solid-State and Integrated Circuit Technology, 2006, ICSICT'06, 8th Intl  
 23-26 Oct. 2006 Page(s):1748 - 1750  
 Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ICSICT.2006.306414  
 AbstractPlus | Full Text: PDF (124 KB) IEEE CNF  
 Rights and Permissions

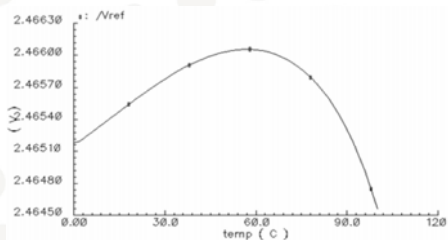


Figure 4 Output reference Vref vs. temperature.

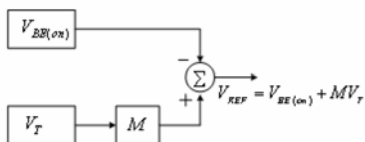


Figure 1 General bandgap reference architecture.

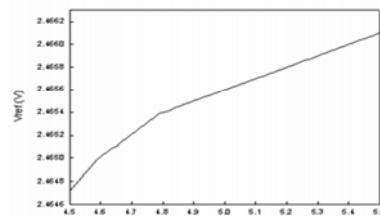


Figure 5 Output reference Vref vs. power supply Vdd.

9. februar 2010



## Theory

- Collector current

$$I_C = I_s e^{V_{BE}/(kT/q)}$$

- Solved with respect to  $V_{BE}$ :

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_0}\right) + V_{BE0} \frac{T}{T_0} + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) + \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_C}{J_{C0}}\right)$$

- The junction current equals the **effective area of the base-emitter junction** times the **junction current density,  $J_c$** :

$$I_C = A_E J_C$$

The difference between two base-emitter junctions biased at different densities (proportional to temperature):

$$\Delta V_{BE} = V_2 - V_1 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right)$$



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Example 8.3

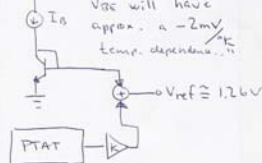
Ex. 8.3 Assume two trans. biased at current-density ratio of 10:1 at 300 °K. What is the difference in their base-emitter voltages and what is its temperature dependence?

likn. 8.12: 
$$\Delta V_{BE} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right)$$
 ← eq. 8.12 p. 354

$$= \frac{1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} (300)}{1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}} \ln(10) = 59.5 \text{ mV}$$

page 354:

"...  $I_C$  constant,  $V_{BE}$  will have approx. a  $-2 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{K}$  temp. dependence."



$$V_{ref} = V_{BE2} + K \Delta V_{BE}$$

Since this voltage is proportional to absolute temperature, after a 1°K temp. increase, the voltage difference will be  $\Delta V_{BE} = 59.5 \text{ mV} \cdot \frac{301}{300} = 59.7 \text{ mV}$

Thus, the voltage dependence is  $59.5 \text{ mV}/300^\circ\text{K}$  or  $0.198 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{K}$ .

Since the temperature dependence of a single  $V_{BE}$  is  $-2 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{K}$ , if it is desired to cancel the temp. dependence of a single  $V_{BE}$  then  $\Delta V_{BE}$  should be amplified by about a factor of 10.



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Theory

- Assuming that:

$$\frac{J_i}{J_{i0}} = \frac{T}{T_0}$$

- $V_{ref}$  can then be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ref} &= V_{BE2} + K \Delta V_{BE} \\ &= V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0.2} - V_{G0}) + (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) + K \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right) \end{aligned}$$

- For a given temperature  $V_{ref}$  may be independent of changes in the temperature if a proper value of  $K$  is assigned
- This (equation 8.16) is the **fundamental equation giving the relationship between the output voltage of a bandgap voltage reference and temperature.**

From  $V_{BE}$  as a function of collector current and temperature to  $V_{out}$  for BG ref. (part 1 of 2)

$$\frac{PP\ 354-355}{V_{BE} = V_{G0} \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_0}\right) + V_{BE0} \frac{T}{T_0} + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) + \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_c}{J_{c0}}\right) \quad (8.10)$$

↑ (using  $\frac{J_c}{J_{c0}} = \frac{T}{T_0}$ )

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} - V_{G0} \frac{T}{T_0} + V_{BE0} \frac{T}{T_0} + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) + \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + \frac{mkT}{q} [\ln T_0 - \ln T] + \frac{kT}{q} [\ln T - \ln T_0]$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T_0 - \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T + \frac{kT}{q} \ln T - \frac{kT}{q} \ln T_0$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T_0 - \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T - \left(\frac{kT}{q} \ln T_0 - \frac{kT}{q} \ln T\right) \quad \left[\ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) = \ln a - \ln b = -\ln b + \ln a = -(\ln b - \ln a)\right]$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T_0 - \frac{mkT}{q} \ln T - \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{T_0}{T}$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + \frac{mkT}{q} \ln \frac{T_0}{T} - \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{T_0}{T}$$

↑

$$V_{BE} = V_{G0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0} - V_{G0}) + (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{T_0}{T} \Rightarrow$$

SIMILAR TO ALL BUT LAST PART OF EQ 8.16.



Setting equation 8.17 = 0, and  $T = T_0$  getting eq. 8.18, giving the needs for zero temperature dependence at the reference temp.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Set } \frac{\partial V_{ref}}{\partial T} &= 0 \quad \wedge \quad T = T_0 \quad \boxed{\ln 1 = 0} \\
 0 &= \frac{1}{T_0} (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + K \frac{k}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) + (n-1) \frac{k}{q} \left[ \ln \left( \frac{T_0}{T_0} \right) - 1 \right] \\
 0 &= \frac{1}{T_0} (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + K \frac{k}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) + (n-1) \frac{k}{q} (-1) \\
 0 &= (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) + (n-1) \frac{k T_0}{q} (-1) \\
 V_{BE0-2} + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) &= V_{BE0} - (n-1) \frac{k T_0}{q} (-1) \\
 V_{BE0-2} + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) &= V_{BE0} + (n-1) \frac{k T_0}{q} \quad (8.18)
 \end{aligned}$$

Setting  $T=T_0$  in eq. 8.16 gives the left side of eq. 8.18

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{8.16 : } V_{ref} &= V_{BE2} + K \Delta V_{BE} \\
 &= V_{BE0} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + (n-1) \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{T_0}{T_0} \right) + K \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) \\
 \text{Letting } T &= T_0 : \\
 V_{ref} &= V_{BE0} + \frac{T_0}{T_0} (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + (n-1) \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{T_0}{T_0} \right) + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) \\
 &= V_{BE0} + (V_{BE0-2} - V_{BE0}) + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) \\
 &= V_{BE0-2} + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $T=T_0$ , the left side of eq. 8.18 equals the result above.

$$\text{8.18 ; } \quad \underline{V_{BE0-2} + K \frac{k T_0}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_2}{J_1} \right) = V_{BE0} + (n-1) \frac{k T_0}{q}}$$

For zero temperature dependence at  $T=T_0$ . At **300 K** (8.18, 8.19, 8.20):

$$V_{\text{beo-2}} + K \frac{kT_0}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right) = V_{\text{beo}} + (m-1) \frac{kT_0}{q} \quad (8.18) \quad \begin{matrix} [^{\circ}\text{C}] = [\text{K}] - 273.15 \\ 300[\text{K}] - 273.15[\text{K}] \\ \approx 27^{\circ}\text{C} \end{matrix}$$

The left side of eq 8.18 is the output voltage  $V_{\text{ref}}$  at  $T=T_0$  (as we have shown).

For zero temperature dependence at  $T=T_0$ , we need

$$V_{\text{ref-0}} = V_{\text{beo}} + (m-1) \frac{kT_0}{q} \quad (8.19)$$

For the special case of  $T_0 = 300\text{ K}$  and  $m = 2.3$  (8.19) implies that, for zero temperature dependence

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\text{ref-0}} = V_{\text{beo}} &= 1.206\text{ V} + (2.3-1) \cdot \frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23} (300)}{1.602 \times 10^{-19}} \\ &= 1.206\text{ V} + 1.3 \times 25.8\text{ mV} \\ &= \underline{1.24\text{ V}} \end{aligned}$$

Note that this value is independent of the current densities chosen.



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

Required value for  $K$  at 300K (eq. 8.21):

From eq (8.20) we got  $V_{\text{ref-0}} = 1.24\text{ V}$  for zero temp. dependence at 300K. This value is independent of the current densities chosen.

$K$  from equation 8.18:

$$K = \frac{V_{\text{beo}} + (m-1) \frac{kT_0}{q} - V_{\text{beo-2}}}{\frac{kT_0}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right)} = \frac{1.24\text{ V} - V_{\text{beo-2}}}{25.8\text{ mV} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right)}$$

The output of a bandgap reference is given by the bandgap voltage,  $V_{\text{beo}}$ , plus a small correction to account for 2nd-order effects.



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

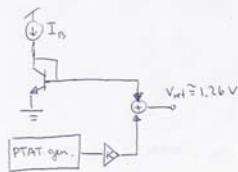


Output voltage for temperatures different from the reference; get (8.22) and then differentiate ...

The fundamental equation giving the relationship between the output voltage of a bandgap reference and temperature is equation 8.16, page 355:

$$V_{ref} = V_{BE2} + K \Delta V_{BE}$$

$$= V_{60} + \frac{T}{T_0} (V_{BE0-2} - V_{60}) + (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) + K \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_2}{J_1}\right)$$



The output voltage of the reference for temperatures different from the reference is found after backsubstituting (8.18) and (8.19) into (8.16) and some manipulation:

$$V_{ref} = V_{60} + (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \right] \quad (8.22)$$

(8.22) differentiated with respect to T, getting (8.23):

Differentiating 8.22:  $\log_a\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \log_a u - \log_a v$   $y = uv$   $y' = u'v + uv'$   $y = \ln x$   $y' = \frac{1}{x}$

$$\frac{\partial V_{ref}}{\partial T} = (V_{60})' + \underbrace{\left[ (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \right]'}_u \underbrace{\left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \right]'}_v + \underbrace{(m-1) \frac{kT}{q}}_u \underbrace{\left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \right]'}_{v'}$$

$$= (m-1) \frac{k}{q} \left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \right] + (m-1) \frac{kT}{q} \cdot \left( -\frac{1}{T} \right)$$

$$= \text{---} \parallel \text{---} + (-m+1) \frac{k}{q}$$

$$= \text{---} \parallel \text{---} \div (m-1) \frac{k}{q}$$

$$= (m-1) \frac{k}{q} \left[ 1 + \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) - 1 \right] = (m-1) \frac{k}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \quad (8.23)$$

Equations 8.22 and 8.23 may be used to estimate the temperature dependence at temperatures different from the reference temperature

## Example 8.4

Ex. 8.4 Estimate the temperature dependence at 0°C  
p. 757 for a bandgap reference that was designed  
to have zero temperature dependence at 20°C.  
Present the result as ppm/°K.

Using eq. 8.23 : 
$$\frac{\partial V_{ref}}{\partial T} = (n-1) \frac{k}{q} \ln\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right)$$

°K corresponds to -273°C.  $T_0 = 293\text{°K}$ ,  $T = 273\text{°K}$

$$\frac{\partial V_{ref}}{\partial T} = (2.3-1) \frac{1.38 \cdot 10^{-23}}{1.6 \cdot 10^{-19}} \ln\left(\frac{293}{273}\right) \left[\frac{\mu\text{V}}{\text{°K}}\right] = \underline{8 \mu\text{V}/\text{°K}}$$

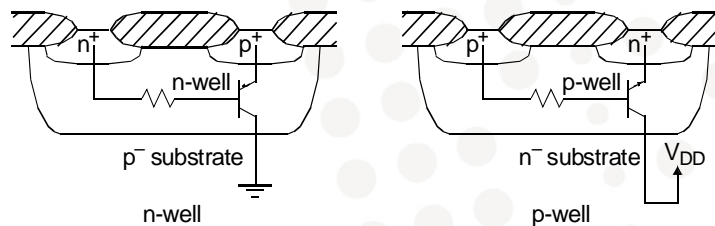
For a reference voltage of 1.24 V, a dependency of  
8  $\mu\text{V}/\text{°K}$  results in  $\frac{8 \mu\text{V}/\text{°K}}{1.24 \text{ V}} = 6.5 \cdot 10^{-6}$  parts/°K

$$= \underline{6.5 \text{ ppm}/\text{°K}}$$

"ppm": parts per million

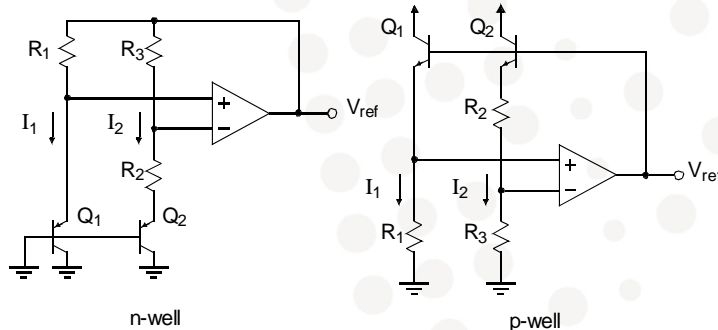
NB! Ideally: 0 ppm/°K, typically  $4 \cdot 10 \times$  the  
value here.

## CMOS Bandgap References



- Vertical CMOS well transistors in an n-well and p-well process (pnp in -well, npn in p-well)

## CMOS BGR Circuits



- CMOS bandgap references implemented with well transistors



## Design equations, BG ref.

DESIGN EQUATIONS

The voltage drop due to  $I_1$ :

$$V_{ref} = V_{EB1} + V_{R1} \quad (8.35)$$

Since  $V_{R1} = V_{R3}$ , assuming an ideal op-AMP:

$$V_{R2} = V_{EB1} - V_{EB2} = \Delta V_{EB} \quad (8.26)$$

$I_2$  runs through both  $R_2$  and  $R_3$ , so that

$$(8.37) \quad V_{R3} = \frac{R_3}{R_2} V_{R2} = \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Delta V_{EB} \quad (V_{R2} = \Delta V_{EB})$$

Substituting (8.37) into (8.35):

$$V_{ref} = V_{EB1} + V_{R1} = V_{EB1} + V_{R3} = V_{EB1} + \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Delta V_{EB} \quad (8.38)$$

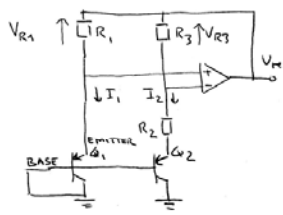
In integrated realizations the bipolar transistors are often taken the same size, and different current densities are realized by taking  $R_3 > R_1$ , causing  $I_1 > I_2$ . In this case

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_1} \quad (8.39)$$

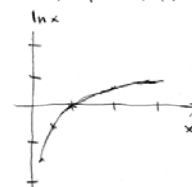
Recalling from 8.12 that  $\Delta V_{EB} = V_{EB1} - V_{EB2} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{I_1}{I_2} \quad (8.40)$

$$(8.39) \text{ into } (8.38): V_{ref} = V_{EB1} + \frac{R_3}{R_2} \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{R_3}{R_1} \right) \quad K = \frac{R_3}{R_2} \quad (8.42)$$

FIG. 8.27



$$\ln x = \frac{x}{1.6} - 0.9 \ln \frac{1}{x} + 0.1 \ln \frac{1}{x}$$



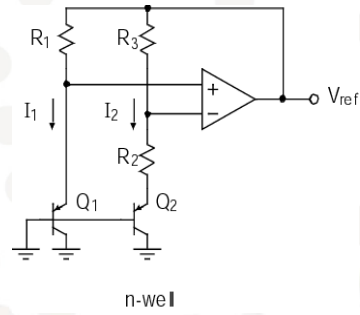
## Design Equations

$$V_{\text{ref}} = V_{\text{EB1}} + V_{\text{R1}}$$

$$V_{\text{R2}} = V_{\text{EB1}} - V_{\text{EB2}} = \Delta V_{\text{EB}}$$

$$V_{\text{R3}} = \frac{R_3}{R_2} V_{\text{R2}} = \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Delta V_{\text{EB}}$$

$$V_{\text{ref}} = V_{\text{EB1}} + \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Delta V_{\text{EB}}$$



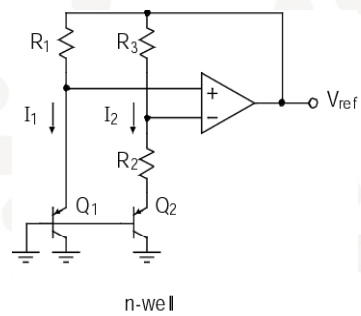
## Design Equations

$$\frac{J_1}{J_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_1}$$

$$\Delta V_{\text{EB}} = V_{\text{EB1}} - V_{\text{EB2}} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{J_1}{J_2}\right)$$

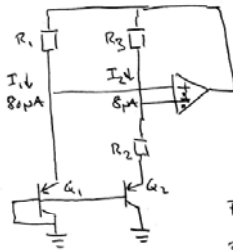
$$V_{\text{ref}} = V_{\text{EB1}} + \frac{R_3 kT}{R_2 q} \ln\left(\frac{R_3}{R_1}\right)$$

$$K = \frac{R_3}{R_2}$$



## EXAMPLE 8.5

Find the resistances of a bandgap reference based on fig. 8.27 a), where  $I_1 = 80 \mu\text{A}$ ,  $I_2 = 8 \mu\text{A}$ , and  $V_{EB1-0} = 0.65\text{V}$  at  $T = 300^\circ\text{K}$



Assuming that the sizes of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are the same

$$\Delta V_{EB} = \frac{kT_0}{q} \ln \frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{kT_0}{q} \cdot 2.30259 = 59.4 \text{ mV}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{V_{R2}}{I_2} = 7.44 \text{ k}\Omega = \frac{59.4 \text{ mV}}{8 \mu\text{A}}$$

From (8.20) we know that  $V_{ref-0} = 1.24 \text{ V}$  at  $T_0 = 300^\circ\text{K}$

From (8.35) we get  $V_{R1} = V_{ref-0} - V_{EB1-0} = 1.24\text{V} - 0.65\text{V}$

$$\underline{V_{R1} = 0.59 \text{ V}} \quad \underline{R_1 = \frac{0.59 \text{ V}}{80 \mu\text{A}} = 7.38 \text{ k}\Omega}, \quad \underline{R_3 = \frac{0.59 \text{ V}}{8 \mu\text{A}} = 73.8 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

ifi

UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Example 8.5 (2)

$V_{R2} = \Delta V_{EB} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln(10)$ , since the sizes of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are assumed to be the same. (equations 8.36 and 8.40)

$$\therefore V_{R2} = \frac{1.38 \cdot 10^{-23}}{1.62 \cdot 10^{-19}} (300) \cdot \ln(10) = 59.5 \text{ mV} \quad (V_{R2} = \Delta V_{EB})$$

$$U = RI \Rightarrow R = \frac{59.5 \text{ mV}}{8 \mu\text{A}} = 7.44 \text{ k}\Omega \quad \underline{R_2 = 7.44 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

Remember from 8.20 that for  $300^\circ\text{K}$  and  $m = 2.3$ , (8.19) implies that  $V_{ref-0} = V_{e0} + (m-1) \frac{kT_0}{q} = 1.24 \text{ V}$  ( $V_{e0} = 1206 \text{ mV}$ )

Then we can get  $K$  from (8.21):

$$K = \frac{V_{e0} + (m-1) \frac{kT_0}{q} - V_{EB1-0}}{\frac{kT_0}{q} \ln\left(\frac{I_1}{I_2}\right)} = \frac{1.24 \text{ V} - 0.65 \text{ V}}{0.0258 \ln(10)} = 9.93$$

$$8.42 \text{ say that } K = \frac{R_3}{R_2} \Rightarrow \underline{R_3 = K \cdot R_2 = 73.9 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

$$8.39: \frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_1} \left( = \frac{I_1}{I_2} \right) \Rightarrow \frac{R_3}{R_1} = \frac{8 \mu\text{A}}{80 \mu\text{A}} \Rightarrow R_1 = \frac{R_3}{10} = \underline{7.39 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

ifi

UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO



9. februar 2010 27

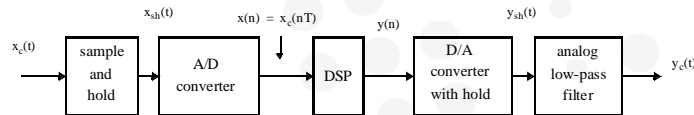
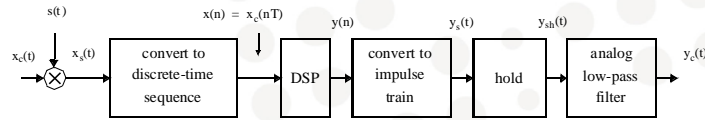
**ifi**  UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

## Chapetr 9; Discrete-time signals

- Discrete-time signal processing is heavily used in the design and analysis of **oversampling A/D and D/A converters** as well as **switched capacitor filtering** ;"SC-circuits".
- Switched Capacitor filters are classified as analog, since they use continuous time analog values.

**ifi**  UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

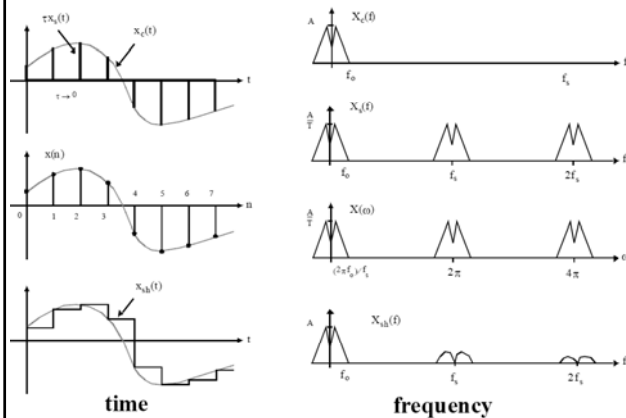
Overview of signal spectra – conceptual and physical realizations



- An **anti-aliasing** filter (not shown) is assumed to band limit the continuous time signal,  $x_c(t)$ .
- **DSP** ("discrete-time signal processing") may be accomplished using fully digital processing or discrete-time analog circuits (ex.: SC-circ.).



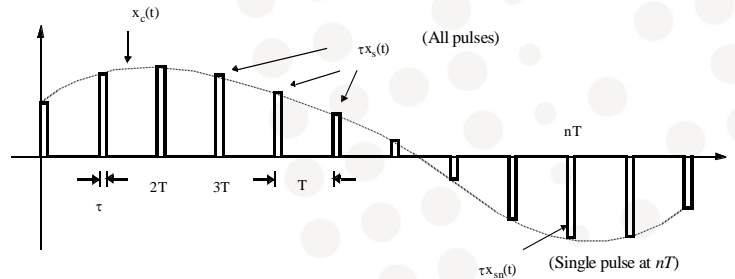
Signals in time, and frequency spectra



- $S(t)$ : periodic impulse train with period  $T$  ( $T=1/f_s$ )
- $x_s(t)$  has the same frequency spectrum as  $x_c(t)$ , but the baseband spectrum repeats every  $f_s$  (assuming no aliasing)
- $x(n)$  has the same frequency spectrum as  $x_c(t)$ , but the sampling frequency is normalized to 1
- The frequency spectrum of  $x_{sh}(t)$  is equal to that of  $x_s(t)$  multiplied by the  $\sin(x)/x$  response of the S/H.



## Laplace Transform of Discrete-Time Signals (1/3)



- The signal must be defined for all time
- For  $t=nT$ :
 
$$x_s(nT) = \frac{x_c(nT)}{\tau}$$
- $\tau$  is chosen such that the area under  $x_s(nT)$  equals the value of  $x_c(nT)$
- As  $\tau$  approaches 0, the height of  $x_s(nT)$  goes to  $\infty$



## Laplace Transform of Discrete-Time Signals (2/3)

- A single pulse at  $t=nT$  may be defined as:

•  $g(t)$  is the step function: 
$$g(t) \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & (t \geq 0) \\ 0 & (t < 0) \end{cases}$$

- $x_s(t)$  may then be rewritten as a linear combination of a series of pulses,  $x_{sn}(t)$ , where  $x_{sn}(t)$  is zero everywhere except for a single pulse at  $nT$ :

$$x_{sn}(t) = \frac{x_c(nT)}{\tau} [g(t-nT) - g(t-nT-\tau)]$$

$x_s(t)$  is now defined for all time:

$$x_s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_{sn}(t)$$





## Laplace Transform of Discrete-Time Signals (3/3)

- The Laplace transform for  $x_{sn}(t)$  is:

$$X_{sn}(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-s\tau}}{s} \right) x_c(nT) e^{-snT}$$

- Since there is a linear relationship between  $x_s(t)$  and  $x_{sn}(t)$ , the Laplace transform of  $x_s(t)$  is:

$$X_s(s) = \frac{1}{\tau} \left( \frac{1 - e^{-s\tau}}{s} \right) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_c(nT) e^{-snT}$$

- When  $\tau$  approaches 0, the term before the sum equals 1 (eq. 9.7):

$$X_s(s) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_c(nT) e^{-snT} \quad z \equiv e^{sT}$$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_c(nT) z^{-n}$$



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Spectra of Discrete-Time Signals (1/2)

- The frequency spectrum of  $x_s(t)$  may be found by replacing  $s$  by  $j\omega$  in the Laplace transform (eq. 9.7).
- Another more intuitive approach is to use the property that **multiplication in the time domain equals convolution in the frequency domain**. Using this and  $\tau \rightarrow 0$ ,  $X_s(t)$  can be rewritten

$$x_s(t) = x_c(t)s(t)$$

- Define a pulse-train:

- The sampled signal is now:  $s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT)$

- The Fourier-transform of  $s(t)$  is:  $S(j\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\omega - k\frac{2\pi}{T})$



UNIVERSITETET  
I OSLO

## Spectra of Discrete-Time Signals <sup>(2/2)</sup>

- Writing (9.8) in the frequency domain:

$$X_s(j\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} X_c(j\omega) \otimes S(j\omega)$$

- The frequency spectrum of  $x_s(t)$  is then (eq. 9.12):

$$X_s(j\omega) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X_c(j\omega - \frac{jk2\pi}{T})$$

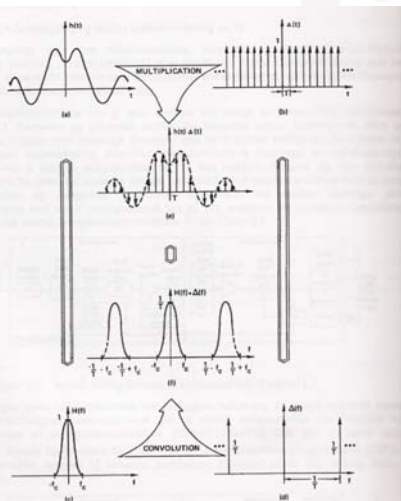
which is periodic with period  $f_s$  ( 9.13:).

No aliasing occurs if  $f < f_s/2$

$$X_s(f) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X_c(j2\pi f - jk2\pi f_s)$$



### Multiplication in the time domain equals convolution in the frequency domain



Figur 2.7: Sammenhengen mellom sampling i tids- og frekvensdomenet. Produktet av  $h(t)$ , figur 2.7 a), og  $\Delta(t)$ , i figur b), er lik den samplede kurveformen i figur c). Fouriertransformene av  $h(t)$  og  $\Delta(t)$  er gitt i henholdsvis figur 2.7 c) og d). Frekvenskonvolusjonssteoret er illustrert ved at Fouriertransformen av  $h(t) * \Delta(t)$  er lik  $h(f) * \Delta(f)$  [Brig74].

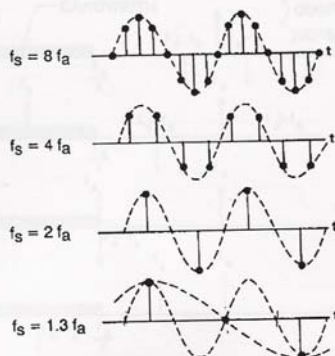
- Figure from E. O. Brigham: "The Fast Fourier Transform", Prentice Hall Inc., 1974., in S. Aunet: "BiCMOS sample-and-hold for satellitt-kommunikasjon", Cand. Scient. Thesis, University of Oslo, 1993.

- Wikipedia; Convolution:
- In [mathematics](#) and, in particular, [functional analysis](#), **convolution** is a mathematical [operation](#) on two [functions](#)  $f$  and  $g$ , producing a third function that is typically viewed as a modified version of one of the original functions. Convolution is similar to [cross-correlation](#).
- Computing the inverse of the convolution operation is known as [deconvolution](#).
- In [mathematics](#), the **Fourier transform** (often abbreviated **FT**) is an operation that [transforms](#) one [complex-valued function](#) of a [real variable](#) into another. In such applications as [signal processing](#), the domain of the original function is typically [time](#) and is accordingly called the [time domain](#). That of the new function is [frequency](#), and so the Fourier transform is often called the [frequency domain representation](#) of the original function. It describes which frequencies are present in the original function.



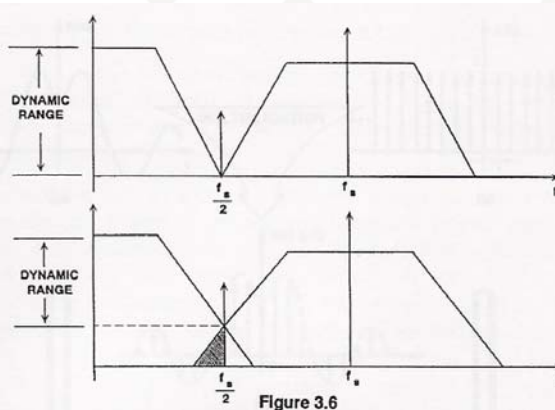
## Sampling at different frequencies

## 2.2 Signaler i tids- og frekvensdomenet, for ulike samplingsfrekvenser



Figur 2.4: Sampling ved ulike frekvenser, sett i tidsdomenet.  $f_s$  er samplingsfrekvensen, også kalt samplingsraten, mens  $f_a$  er frekvensen for det analoge signalet som samples. [Kest91].

## Aliasing and potential degrading of signal / noise



Figur 2.6: Aliasing og dynamisk område [Kest91] I det øverste tilfellet samples det slik at det dynamiske området beholdes. I det andre tilfellet overlapper frekvensspekterne slik at dynamisk område, eller signal/støy -forhold, reduseres.

## Z-Transform

- Discrete-time systems are most often analyzed using the z-transform which is equivalent to the Laplace-transform with the following substitution:

- Then the z-transform is defined as :

$$z \equiv e^{sT}$$

$$X(z) \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_c(nT)z^{-n}$$



## Z-Transform

- Two important properties of the z-transform:
  - 1) If  $x(n) \leftrightarrow X(z)$ , then  $x(n-k) \leftrightarrow z^{-k}X(z)$
  - 2) Convolution in the time-domain is equal to multiplication in the freq. domain ( If  $y(n)=h(n) \otimes x(n)$ , then  $Y(z) = H(z)X(z)$ . Similarly, multiplication in the time-domain equals convolution in the frequency domain
  - $X(z)$  is only related to the sampled sequence of numbers, while  $X_s(s)$  is the Laplace transform of  $x_s(t)$  when  $\tau \rightarrow 0$
  - The frequency response of  $X_s(f)$  is related to  $X(\omega)$  the following way:

$$X_s(f) = X\left(\frac{2\pi f}{f_s}\right)$$

- Thus, the following scaling has been applied:

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi f}{f_s}$$



## Z-Transform

- Important observation:
  - Discrete-time signals have  $\omega$  in units of radians/sample
  - The original continuous-time signal have frequency units of cycles/second (Hertz) or radians / second. ( $2\pi$  Radians  $\sim$  360 degrees)
- Example:
  - A continuous-time sinusoidal signal of 1kHz when sampled at 4 kHz will change by  $\pi/2$  radians between each sample. In such case the discrete time signal is defined to have a frequency of  $\pi/2$  radians per sample

## Next time, Tuesday 16th of February

- Chapter 9; 9.4 – 9.6
- Chapter 10; Switched Capacitor Circuits

