

Title: Wide-Dynamic-Range and High-Sensitivity Current-to-Voltage Converters

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# Wide-Dynamic-Range and High-Sensitivity Current-to-Voltage Converters

Chunyan Wang

A wide dynamic range and a high sensitivity are often incompatible with each other in analog circuits, such as signal converters or amplifiers. In this paper, we present a method of developing current-to-voltage converters featuring both. It comprises two current-to-voltage conversions. One is to convert the DC component, i.e. the average level of the current input, into a voltage with a nonlinear compression. The other is to apply a “linear” conversion to the signal component of the input current. This conversion is considered to be “linear” as the gain is made to be almost constant if the varying signal is rippling at a given current level, and to increase if the level is changed to be lower. Hence, the gain is adaptive to the input current, i.e. getting stronger if the current signal is weaker and vice versa. This adaptability is implemented by (a) an adaptive bias by means of the voltage converted from the DC component of the input current, and (b) the current-dependent finite drain-source resistances of MOS transistors. A low-pass current filter is used, in the proposed conversion operation, to separate the DC component of the input current from the signal one. We propose, in this paper, a basic structure of the filter and techniques to improve the filtering quality over a wide current range, also an approach to an effective reduction of the effect of the device mismatch as well. A design example of the proposed conversion is presented in this paper. The simulation results have shown its dynamic range of 5-decades and its sensitivity high enough to detect sub-nA current variations.

**Key words:** Analog VLSI, dynamic range and sensitivity, current-to-voltage conversion, adaptive circuits, current filter, current compensation for device mismatch

## I. Introduction

In many analog circuits, the dynamic range and sensitivity seem to conflict with each other. However, the need for both becomes more and more evident for analog processing circuits to get more

applications. Current-to-voltage converters are often used in current-mode circuits and optical sensors. The variation of a current signal can be over a wide range as it is not directly limited by the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$ . If a current-to-voltage converter is involved in a current-mode circuit, the dynamic range of the converter determines that of the circuit. In case of an optical sensor, the photocurrent is usually proportional to the flow of incident photons that can vary over a range of 5 decades or more. It is also often the case that the sensor can not operate over the entire range of the optical signal due to the limited dynamic range of the current-to-voltage converter employed in it.

A converter of linear transconductance may provide a good conversion gain but usually not able to cover a wide range of signal variation. A converter of logarithmic current-to-voltage characteristic [1] [4] may have a wide coverage as the input current is logarithmically compressed, but the same compression results in a low sensitivity to the signal variation. Thus, it is challenging to design a circuit that features a wide dynamic range and a high sensitivity at any given level within the range.

Making the circuit characteristics adaptive to the input current level is an effective approach to the combination of wide dynamic range and high sensitivity. A circuit can be made very sensitive to a weak signal at a given DC level by preset the operating point at this particular level. However, the sensitivity will be significantly lowered if the DC level of the input current is slightly shifted, i.e. the input range for this high sensitivity being very narrow. If the circuit is able to shift its operating point automatically according to the change of the input level, the circuit may still be able to respond very sensitively to the input variation even though it has gone out of its initial range. This shiftable “narrow range of high sensitivity” makes it possible for a circuit with a single input channel to be able to provide a high sensitivity to the signal variation over a wide range. Delbruck’s adaptive sensor may be the first current-to-voltage conversion circuit of this kind. It has a feedback loop for the bias set-up and the feedback factor is made “frequency-dependent” in order to have a low overall gain for the DC component and a higher one for signal variations [2 - 3]. The stability of the loop is secured by an appropriate set of the bias and the device parameters. Another adaptive sensor circuit has been reported in [5]. It makes good

use of a current memory for the automatic tuning of the bias level and the dependency of the MOS drain-source resistance on the current level for the gain adaptive to the input. As the circuit involves an analog switch, making the switching noise low is a critical issue to secure a good operation.

In this paper, a method of developing wide dynamic range and high sensitivity current-to-voltage converters is presented. It is based on the same principle of the shiftable “narrow range of high sensitivity” described above. This method is two-fold. The first is to separate the DC component of the input current from the signal one by a low-pass current filter. The DC current is used, after a compression, to set up the device bias. The second is to convert the input current signal component, not the DC one, into a voltage signal with an adaptive gain. A design example using this method and the simulation results are also presented. The basic scheme of the work in its early stage has been briefly reported in [6]. The present paper aims at providing the readers with a comprehensive grasp of the method and its fundamentals, and that of the practical designs with details.

## II. Description of the proposed method

### 2-1 Principle and the basic scheme

The input current of a current-to-voltage converter can be expressed as  $i_{IN} = I_{IN} + i_{in}$ , the sum of its DC component and signal variation. The response to the input is the output voltage  $v_{OUT} = V_{OUT} + v_{out}$ . It is usually the case that (a)  $i_{in} \ll I_{IN}$  and (b)  $i_{in}$  with a higher  $I_{IN}$  is statistically greater than  $i_{in}$  with a lower  $I_{IN}$ . The components of the input current are to be converted differently so that each of them can be used for different purposes. The “main” conversion is that of the small signal component and a high gain is needed for a high sensitivity. The DC one of the input current is to be converted into a DC voltage for the circuit biasing to be adaptive to the input level, and a compression is evidently needed if the current varies over a wide range, e.g. from 1 nA to 100  $\mu$ A, while the bias voltage should be confined within a window of less than 1 V.

The separation of the DC component  $I_{IN}$  from the signal component  $i_{in}$  can be done by means of a low-pass current filter. This filter is used to extract  $I_{IN}$  and a current copier is used to produce a copy of  $i_{IN}$ . Then, as illustrated in Fig. 1,  $i_{in} = i_{IN} - I_{IN}$  can be obtained at the node  $v_{OUT}$  and converted to the voltage signal  $v_{out}$  by using the output resistance at the node. The components of the output voltage should be produced in such way that

$$V_{OUT} = F_{CM}(I_{IN}) \quad v_{out} = r_m(I_{IN}) i_{in} \quad (\text{EQ 1})$$

where  $F_{CM}(I_{IN})$  is a compression function of  $I_{IN}$  and  $r_m(I_{IN})$  is a resistive coefficient, both being dependent on  $I_{IN}$ . The compression function  $F_{CM}(I_{IN})$  needs to be nonlinear, e.g. logarithmic, so that a larger  $I_{IN}$  is compressed with a strong compression rate, which results in  $V_{OUT}$  that is able to vary with  $I_{IN}$  without going beyond the boundaries of the voltage range. Both  $I_{IN}$  and  $V_{OUT}$  are then used to bias the devices connected to the output terminal where  $i_{in}$  is converted into  $v_{out}$ . Thus, the biasing point is made input-current-dependent, i.e. shiftable according to the input current level. Also, this shiftable biasing can also make  $r_m(I_{IN})$  adaptive to the input current, if  $r_{o1}$  and  $r_{o2}$  are determined by the current.

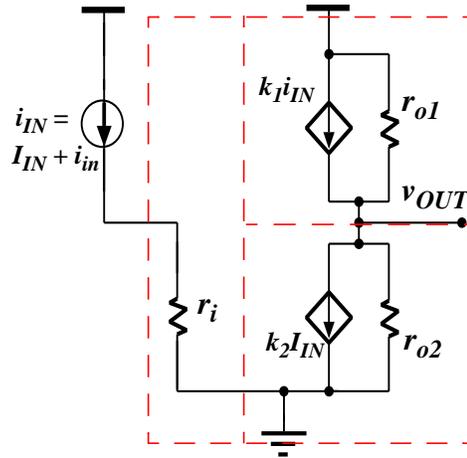


Fig. 1 Diagram illustrating the principle of the proposed method for the design of wide dynamic range current-to-voltage converters. Such a converter consists of three parts. The left part is the input stage, the upper-right one is a current copier, and the lower-right one a low-pass current filter that extracts  $I_{IN}$  from  $i_{IN}$ . If  $k_1 = k_2 = k$ , the voltage variation  $v_{out}$  will be determined by

$k \frac{r_{o1} \cdot r_{o2}}{r_{o1} + r_{o2}} (i_{IN} - I_{IN}) = r_m i_{in}$ . The conversion can be made linear if the resistances  $r_{o1}$  and  $r_{o2}$  are voltage-independent.

A low-pass filter can be built based on a current mirror, as shown in Fig. 2 [6], in which the time constant  $\tau = C/g_{m1}$ , with  $g_{m1}$  being the transconductance of  $N_1$ , is greater than  $1/f_{min}$ , where  $f_{min}$  is the lowest frequency component of the signal  $i_{in}$ . This circuit can also provide a logarithmic compression of  $I_{IN}$  at the node  $V_{gn}$ , if the current of  $N_1$  is weak enough to drive the device in the weak inversion region. If the transistors are matched, the drain voltage of  $N_2$ , the NMOS in the right side, should be equal to  $V_{gn}$ .

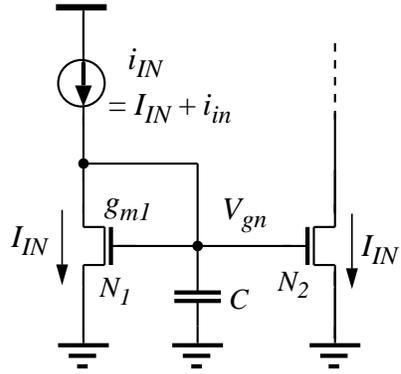


Fig. 2 Current-mirror-based low-pass current filter. If the time constant  $\tau = C/g_{m1}$  is large enough, the common gate voltage  $V_{gn}$  will be able to respond only to slow-changing component  $I_{IN}$ , and thus only  $I_{IN}$  is mirrored to the right side of the circuit.

Using the current-mirror-based low-pass current filter, we propose a basic circuit structure, as shown in Fig. 3 [6], for a wide dynamic range and high sensitivity current-to-voltage conversion. In this circuit, two copies of the input current  $i_{IN}$  are made by means of the PMOS transistors  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . From the first copy  $i_{P1}$ , the DC component  $I_{N1}$  is obtained in the NMOS  $N_1$ , and then  $I_{IN}'$  is generated in  $N_2$ . The second copy  $i_{IN}'$  is combined with  $I_{IN}'$  at the node  $v_{OUT}$  to extract the small current signal  $i_{in}$ . The output voltage signal  $v_{out}$  is converted from  $i_{in}$ , by means of  $r_{dsP2}$  combined with  $r_{dsN2}$ , the finite drain-source resistance of  $P_2$  and that of  $N_2$  [5]. The gain for the signal variation,  $r_m(I_{IN}) = v_{out}/i_{in}$ , is

evaluated by  $\frac{r_{dsP2} \cdot r_{dsN2}}{r_{dsP2} + r_{dsN2}}$ . Please note that  $r_{dsP2}$  and  $r_{dsN2}$  are almost constant if  $P_2$  and  $N_2$  are in the

saturation mode and their gate voltages are fixed, which makes a “linear” conversion from  $i_{in}$  to  $v_{out}$ .

However, if the current level  $I_{IN}'$  changes, the voltages will be modified, making the resistances change. A lower  $I_{IN}'$  results in higher  $r_{dsP2}$  and  $r_{dsN2}$ , which makes a strong  $r_m(I_{IN})$  to a weaker input current. Thus, the conversion gain is adaptive to the signal.

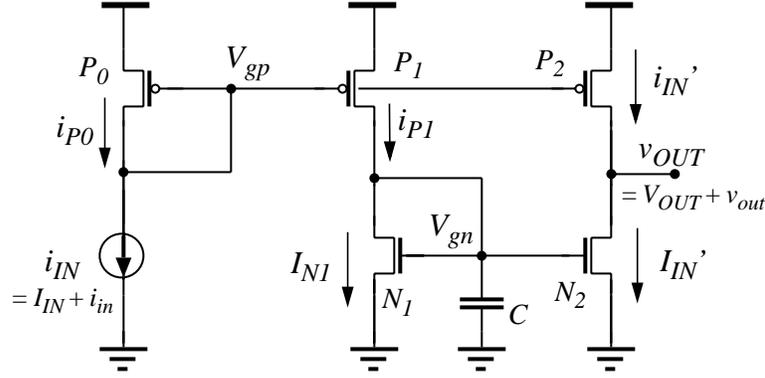


Fig. 3 Basic structure of the proposed current-to-voltage converter. The current filter shown in Fig. 2 is incorporated to make  $I_{IN}'$ , a copy of the DC component of the input current  $i_{IN}$ . The output

voltage  $v_{OUT}$  is modulated by  $v_{out} = r_m(I_{IN}) i_{in}$ , where  $r_m(I_{IN}) \approx \frac{r_{dsP2} \cdot r_{dsN2}}{r_{dsP2} + r_{dsN2}}$ . Its DC component  $V_{OUT}$  is expected to be approximately at the same level as  $V_{gn}$ .

Consisting of only five transistors, the circuit shown in Fig. 3 can be expected to perform a low-pass current filtering, a logarithmic compression of the DC component and a current-to-voltage conversion with a variable gain. In the next sub-section, an analysis of its performance is presented and the design of a complete circuit for a wide dynamic range and high sensitivity conversion proposed.

## 2-2 Design example and analysis

The basic scheme shown in Fig. 3 illustrates how the proposed method can be applied in CMOS circuit design. For a given dynamic range, one needs to take the following issues into consideration.

- The condition for the low-pass filtering,  $\tau = C/g_{m1} > 1/f_{min}$ . It should be noted that  $g_{m1}$  is determined by the size of the transistor  $N_1$  and the current flowing in it. If the current gets very strong,  $1/g_{m1}$  may become too small for the condition to be satisfied, making the upper limit of the current range.

- The minimum current in each of the transistors. It determines the lower end of the current range.
- The voltage limit for  $V_{gp}$  and  $V_{gn}$ . All the transistors in Fig. 3 need to operate in the saturation region, which may not be the case if  $(V_{DD} - V_{gp})$  or  $V_{gn}$  gets too large.
- The speed concern of the circuit. The time constant  $\tau$  needs to be large for a good low-pass filtering. However, if  $\tau$  is too large, the circuit may not be able to adjust its biasing point quickly to respond to a fast change of the input DC level, in particular, when the current is at the lower end of its range.

The most critical issue is to make  $\tau = C/g_{mI} > 1/f_{min}$  in the current filter, as it concerns the quality of the separation of the DC current from the signal current. One can look into the two elements,  $C$  and  $g_{mI}$ , and their dependencies on the input current. The capacitance  $C$  could be voltage dependent, but as  $V_{gs}$ , the voltage across  $C$ , is not going to change in a large scale when the current changes,  $C$  is relatively stable and not sensitive to the current variation. The transconductance  $g_{mI}$ , however, depends very much on  $I_{NI}$  that is, in its turn, dependent on  $i_{IN}$ . The dependency of  $I_{NI}$  on  $i_{IN}$  needs to be reduced in order that  $g_{mI}$  will be made less  $i_{IN}$ -dependent. As  $I_{NI}$  is the DC component of  $i_{P1}$ , if  $i_{P1}$  is made to vary in a smaller scale than  $i_{IN}$ , the variation of  $I_{NI}$  will be down-scaled, making  $g_{mI}$  less sensitive to  $i_{IN}$ . Let us define the scaling factor  $k = i_{P1}/i_{IN}$ , i.e.  $k = I_{NI}/I_{IN}$  if the low-pass filter functions correctly, and make  $k < 1$  in a linear or nonlinear manner described as follows.

1. A linear down-scaling can be done by setting the size ratios of PMOS transistors  $P_1$  and  $P_0$  as  $(W/L)_{P1} = k (W/L)_{P0}$  to make  $i_{P1} = k i_{IN}$ . The dependency of  $g_{mI}$  on  $i_{IN}$  is then down-scaled by a factor of  $k$ . A smaller value of  $k$  makes a stronger down-scaling and more extension of the upper end of the input current range. However, one should also take the lower end of the current range into consideration while selecting the value of  $k$ . If the minimum input current is, for instance, 0.1 nA and  $k = 0.1$ , the currents in the transistors  $P_1, P_2, N_1$  and  $N_2$  will be in the level of tens of pico-Amperes that may be too low to drive the MOS device properly and result in a poor signal-to-noise ratio. Also, the operation speed would suffer in this case.

2. A desirable down-scaling is nonlinear with  $k$  variable according to the level of the input current  $i_{IN}$ . As  $g_{m1}$  increases with the current, the concern of the filtering condition  $\tau = C/g_{m1} > 1/f_{min}$  arises when the input current  $i_{IN}$  is in the upper part of its current range. If  $i_{IN}$  is in the lower part of the range, the critical issue is to make the circuit sensitive enough to respond to the weak signal current  $i_{in}$ , instead of  $\tau > 1/f_{min}$ . Therefore, one would wish the down-scaling factor to be dependent on  $I_{IN}$  and it should be effective only when  $i_{IN}$  is above a certain level.

A nonlinear down-scaling can be implemented by adding a current bypass branch controlled by the level of the input current. In the example shown in Fig. 4, the branch is in parallel with the PMOS transistor  $P_0$  to make  $i_{P0} = i_{IN} - i_{BP}$ ,  $i_{BP}$  denoting the bypass current. If  $i_{BP} \neq 0$ , only a portion of  $i_{IN}$  will be mirrored to produce  $I_{N1}$  in the NMOS transistor  $N_1$ . Thus, if the DC component of  $i_{IN}$  increases, the change of  $I_{N1}$  is down-scaled. The bypass current  $i_{BP}$  is controlled by  $V_{gn}$  in context of a negative feedback loop with the closed-loop gain smaller than unity. The down-scaling may not be effective if the loop is open, i.e. the NMOS transistor  $N_3$  is not conducting and  $i_{BP} = 0$  when  $i_{IN}$  is weak.

The linear and nonlinear scaling methods can be applied in the same circuit. In the circuit shown in Fig. 4, the open-loop gain  $A$  is the linear scaling factor and the feedback gain  $\frac{1}{1 + fA}$  the nonlinear down-scaling one. A linear up-scaling, i.e.  $A > 1$ , can help to extend the lower end of the input current range, as it provides a current amplification when  $i_{IN}$  is very weak while the feedback loop is open. If the loop is closed because  $i_{IN}$  gets stronger, the overall gain of  $\frac{A}{1 + fA}$  can be made to be smaller than unity for a nonlinear down-scaling in order to extend the upper end of the current range.

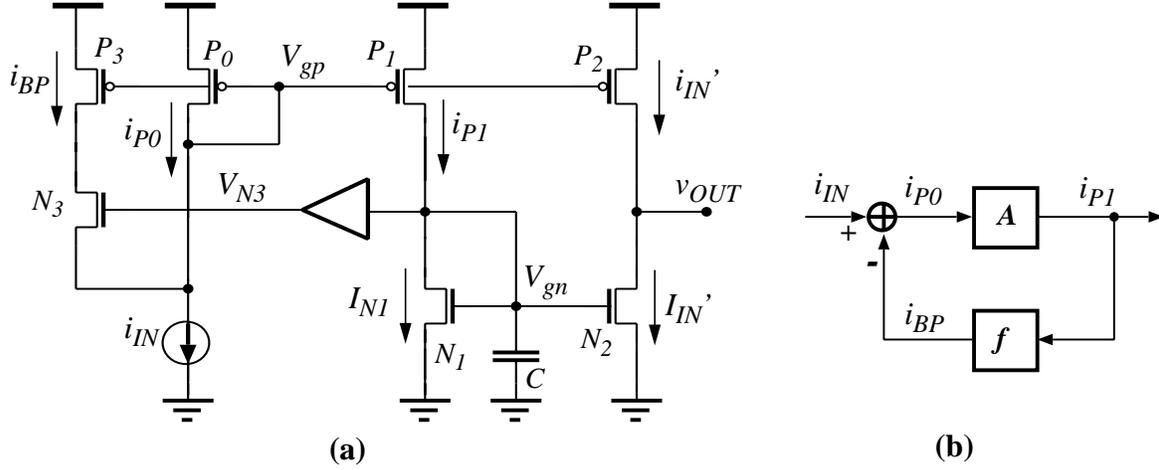


Fig. 4 Current-to-voltage converter with an input current bypass branch added to make  $i_{P0} = i_{IN} - i_{BP}$  in order to scale  $I_{N1}$  down in case that  $i_{IN}$  is high. The current  $i_{P0}$  is mirrored to determine  $i_{P1}$ ,  $I_{N1}$  and  $V_{gn}$ . The same  $V_{gn}$  is then used, via a voltage shifter shown as a triangle symbol, to control  $i_{BP}$ . This is a negative feedback loop and its block diagram is shown in (b). The close-loop gain  $\frac{i_{P1}}{i_{IN}} = \frac{A}{1 + fA} < 1$ , where  $A = i_{P1}/i_{P0}$  is related to the ratio of  $(W/L)_{P1}$  to  $(W/L)_{P0}$ , and  $f$  is determined by the transconductances of  $N_1$ ,  $N_3$ , and  $P_3$ , and the input  $i_{IN}$  as well. The loop may not be effective, i.e.  $i_{BP} = 0$  and  $i_{P0} = i_{IN}$ , if  $i_{IN}$  is too weak to make  $V_{gn}$  high enough to turn  $N_3$  on.

Besides the dynamic range, the operation speed is another important issue. One wishes that the circuit should be able to adjust its biasing point quickly if the level of the input current changes. However, if the input current is very weak, this adjustment may be very slow, in particular when the capacitance at the common gate of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  is large to have the time constant large enough for a decent low-pass filtering. One of the solutions to this kind of problem is to add a charging current when  $I_{IN}'$  is lower than the average of  $i_{IN}'$ . It can be implemented by means of a transistor, such as the NMOS transistor  $N_4$  shown in Fig. 5. This transistor provides a “transient current” to accelerate the charging process at  $V_{gn}$ . When  $V_{gn}$  becomes high enough to make  $I_{IN}'$  equal to the average level of  $i_{P1}$ ,  $V_{OUT}$  will be lowered to a level similar to that of  $V_{gn}$  and  $N_4$  will be turned off.

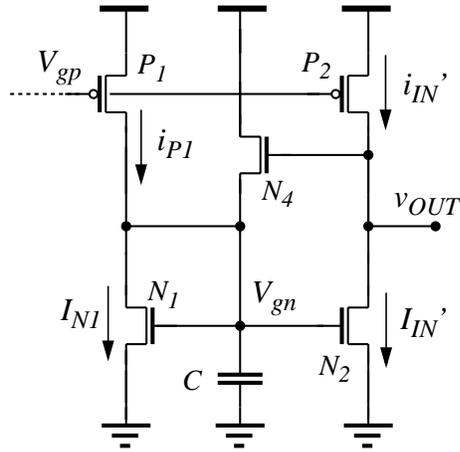


Fig. 5 Additional charging current by the NMOS transistor  $N_4$  to accelerate the rise of  $V_{gn}$ . This current is effective when  $V_{OUT}$  reaches a level high enough to turn  $N_4$  on. Such a high level  $V_{OUT}$  occurs when  $I_{IN}'$  is smaller than the DC component of  $i_{IN}'$ .

The diagram shown in Fig. 6 is a current-to-voltage conversion circuit designed with the proposed method. It has a negative feedback loop for the nonlinear down-scaling. The difference between this loop and that in Fig. 4 is that its feedback signal  $i_{BP}$  is able to vary more widely, by means of a master-slave structure, to match a wider range of the input  $i_{IN}$ . Also, the circuit involves the additional charging current path, the same as that in Fig. 5, to accelerate the charging process at the node  $V_{gn}$  in case of weak  $i_{PI}$ , to improve the operation speed and to maintain  $V_{OUT}$  at approximately the same level as  $V_{gn}$ . This design shows that the proposed method can be easily implemented in a CMOS circuit with the measures for the signal range and processing speed incorporated. Its performance evaluation by electrical simulation is presented in the next section.



**TABLE 1.**

$W_m$ : minimum gate width			
$L_m$ : minimum gate length			
$P_0$	$W_m/L_m$		
$P_1$	$W_m/10L_m$	$N_1$	$W_m/1.2L_m$
$P_2$	$W_m/10L_m$	$N_2$	$W_m/1.2L_m$
$P_3$	$4.5W_m/L_m$	$N_3$	$3W_m/1.2L_m$
$P_4$	$9W_m/L_m$	$N_4$	$W_m/L_m$
$P_5$	$W_m/2.8L_m$	$P_6$	$W_m/L_m$

The simulation waveforms of the circuit shown in Fig. 6 are illustrated in Fig. 7. They demonstrate that the circuit is able to respond to the variation of the input current over the entire range. The DC level of the input signal  $i_{IN}$  changes over the range of 5-decades, and the DC level of the output voltage  $v_{OUT}$  is “confined” within a small voltage window of less than 350 mV, which permits the MOS transistors to operate within the region of the current-source mode where the drain-source resistance is high. The output voltage signal  $v_{out}$  is measured under different conditions of  $i_{IN}$ , and the results are shown in Fig. 8. It illustrates the shiftable “narrow range of high sensitivity” characteristics described in Section I. Using these results, the conversion gain, defined as the ratio of the amplitude of  $v_{out}$  to that of  $i_{in}$ , are presented in Table 2. It has been observed that, at a given level of  $I_{IN}$ ,  $i_{in}$  is converted into  $v_{out}$  with an almost constant gain. However, this gain depends on  $I_{IN}$  in a nonlinear manner, because of the nonlinear characteristics of MOS transconductance and the nonlinear down-scaling. This dependency make the gain adapt to the input current, i.e. a higher gain for a lower level current. It has been measured that, at  $I_{IN} = 4$  nA, the conversion gain is about 80 mV/nA, which makes the circuit to be able to produce a detectable voltage signal when  $i_{in}$  is in a sub-nA range. This gain is reduced about 47000 times, when  $I_{IN}$  is about  $10^5$  times stronger to reach 411  $\mu$ A, in order that the transistors still operate in the saturation region. It should be noted that, at this  $I_{IN}$  level, the conversion gain is still much higher than that a logarithmic converter can provide, as the logarithmic compression is not applied to  $i_{in}$ . Hence, a wide dynamic range and high sensitivity conversion have been made compatible with each other in this circuit.

## Transient Response

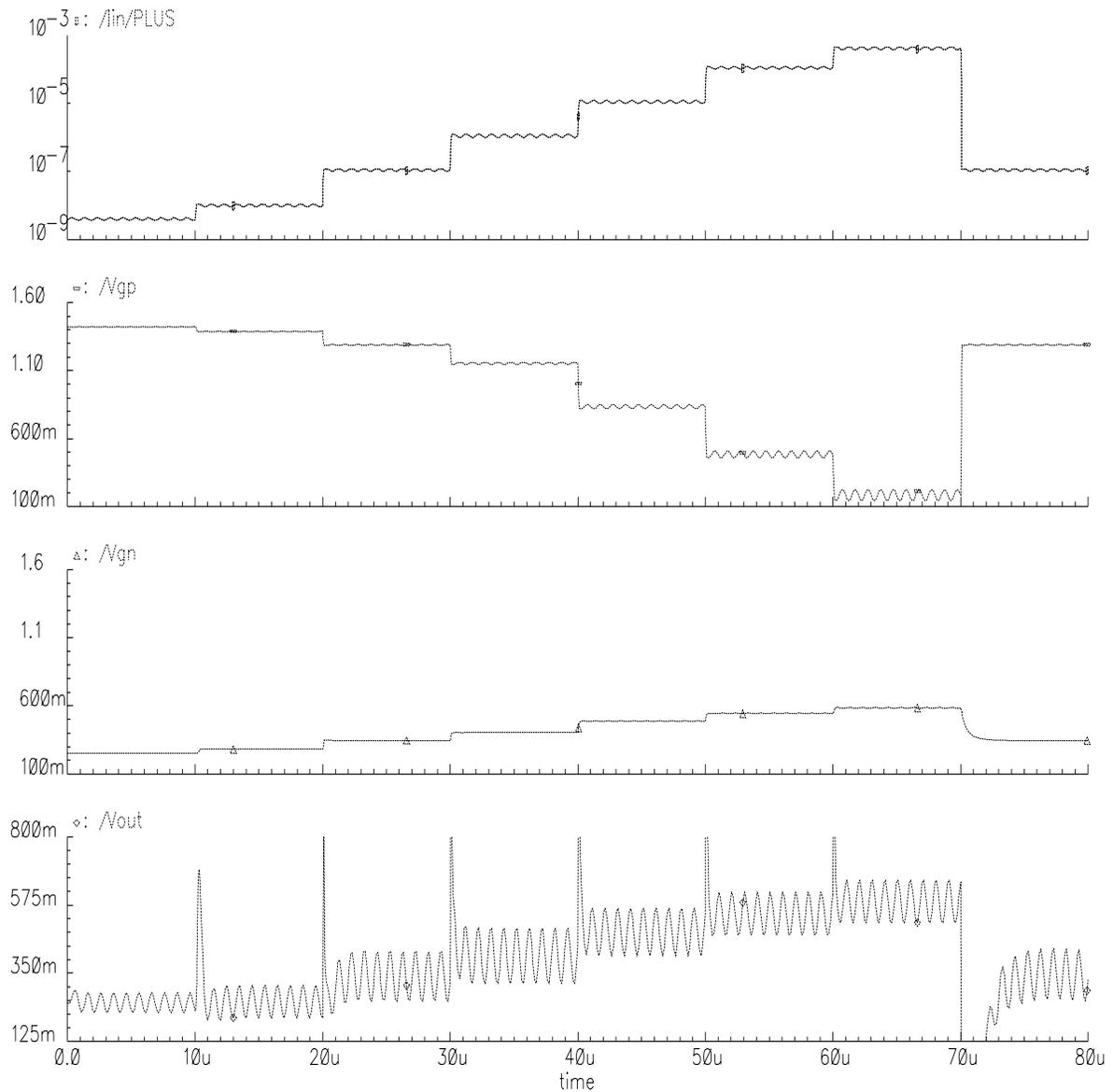


Fig. 7 Simulation waveforms of the circuit shown in Fig. 6. The waveforms are obtained when the frequency of the sinusoidal  $i_{in}$  is 1 MHz and the ratio of the amplitude of  $i_{in}$  to  $I_{IN}$  is 10%. The first waveform, i.e. that on the top, is the input current  $i_{IN}$ , displayed in a logarithmic scale. The second and third waveforms illustrate that  $V_{gp}$  responds to the current ripple of the input but  $V_{gn}$  follows only the change of the average current level, filtering out the signal variation. The DC component  $V_{OUT}$  of the output voltage  $v_{OUT}$  is ranged from 250 mV to 590 mV, corresponding to the range of  $I_{IN}$  from 4 nA to 411 μA. The voltage signal  $v_{out}$  varies in the same way as the the input current signal  $i_{in}$ , over the entire range of 5 decades.

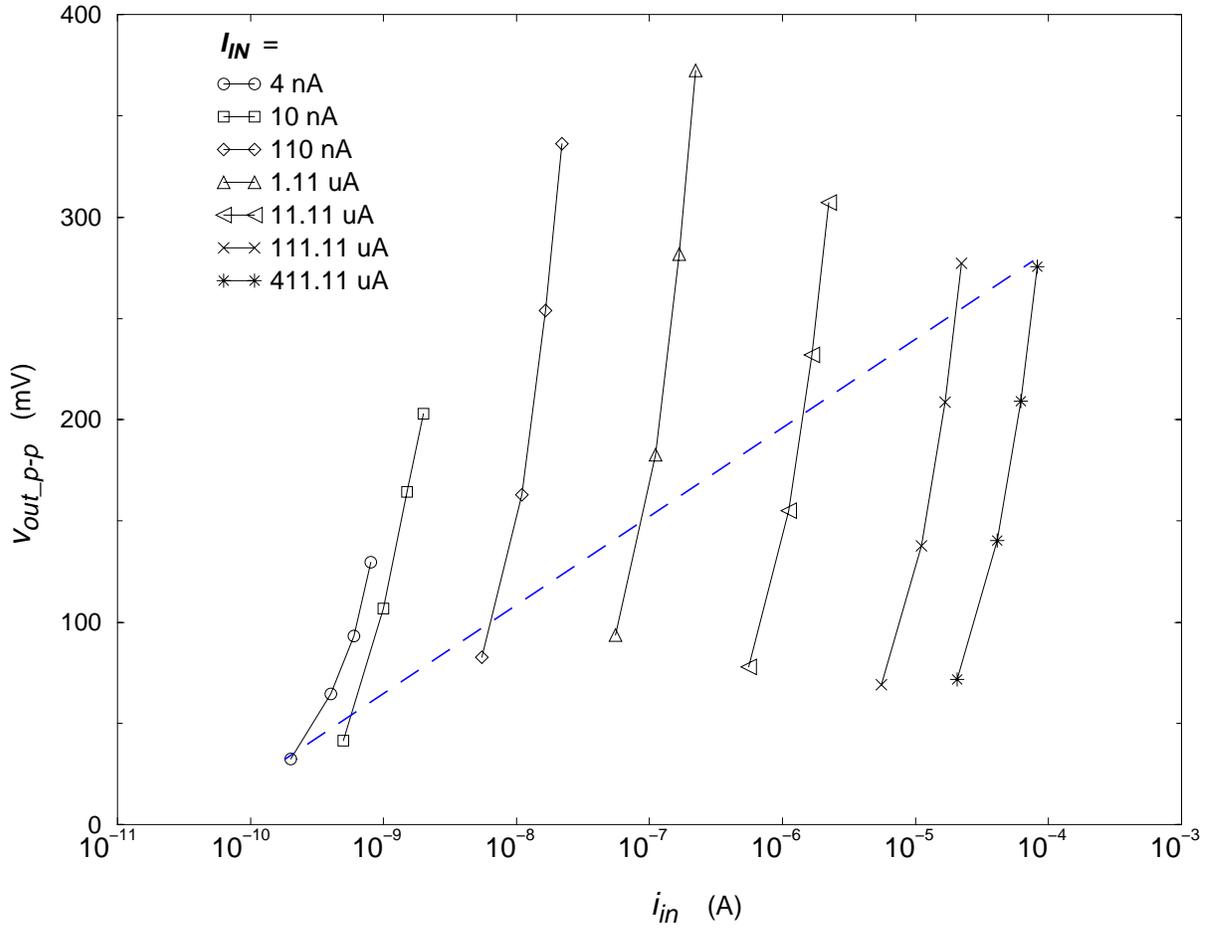


Fig. 8 Characteristics of the peak-peak amplitude of the output voltage variation  $v_{out}$  versus the amplitude of the sinusoidal current signal  $i_{in}$  rippling over the DC component  $I_{IN}$ . Please note that the x-axis is logarithmically scaled. Each curve is obtained with a given  $I_{IN}$  and four different  $i_{in}$ , i.e. the modulation depth  $h = 5\%$ ,  $10\%$ ,  $15\%$  and  $20\%$ . If  $I_{IN}$  is set at a higher level, the characteristic curve will be shifted rightwards and its slope will be reduced. The ratio of the amplitude of  $v_{out}$  to that of  $i_{in}$  for each set of  $(I_{IN}, h)$  is calculated and presented in Table 2. The dashed line indicates a characteristic curve that a logarithmic current-to-voltage converter could have.

**TABLE 2. Conversion Gain of the Circuit Shown in Fig. 6**

$I_{IN}$	Conv. Gain (mV/nA)		$I_{IN}$	Conv. Gain (mV/ $\mu$ A)	
4 nA	$h = 0.05$	81.25	11.11 $\mu$ A	$h = 0.05$	70.27
	$h = 0.10$	80.88		$h = 0.10$	69.85
	$h = 0.15$	77.58		$h = 0.15$	69.64
	$h = 0.20$	81.00		$h = 0.20$	69.12
10 nA	$h = 0.05$	41.69	111.1 $\mu$ A	$h = 0.05$	6.229
	$h = 0.10$	53.40		$h = 0.10$	6.20
	$h = 0.15$	54.80		$h = 0.15$	6.085
	$h = 0.20$	50.75		$h = 0.20$	6.238
110 nA	$h = 0.05$	8.27	411.1 $\mu$ A	$h = 0.05$	1.744
	$h = 0.10$	7.409		$h = 0.10$	1.707
	$h = 0.15$	7.694		$h = 0.15$	1.696
	$h = 0.20$	7.64		$h = 0.20$	1.676
1.11 $\mu$ A	$h = 0.05$	.844	The conversion gain is the ratio of the amplitude of $v_{out}$ to that of $i_{in}$ . The modulation depth $h$ is the ratio of the amplitude of $i_{in}$ to $I_{IN}$ .		
	$h = 0.10$	.822			
	$h = 0.15$	.846			
	$h = 0.20$	.843			

The above simulation results are obtained without considering the effect of device mismatch. The circuit illustrated in Fig. 6 involves two pairs of MOS transistors, namely  $(P_1, P_2)$  and  $(N_1, N_2)$ , in its low-pass current filtering block. If  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  match, or mismatch, each other in the same way as  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , the DC component of the current in  $P_2$  and the current in  $N_2$  will be equal to cancel each other, resulting in  $V_{OUT} = V_{gn}$ . Otherwise, the difference of the two currents will be  $i_{in}' + \Delta I_{IN}'$ , instead of  $i_{in}'$ , with  $\Delta I_{IN}'$  resulting from the device mismatch. This  $\Delta I_{IN}'$  is then converted into a DC component  $\Delta V_{OUT} = r_m(I_{IN}) \Delta I_{IN}'$ , making  $V_{OUT} = V_{gn} + \Delta V_{OUT}$  instead of  $V_{gn}$ , which we call the DC mismatch. The deviation of  $V_{OUT}$  from  $V_{gn}$  could make  $P_2$  or  $N_2$  out of the normal operation in the saturation region, in case of a strong  $v_{out}$ , and thus causes a signal distortion. This DC mismatch, however, can be corrected by injecting a DC current into, or removing it from, the drain of  $N_1$  to compensate  $I_{N1}$  in such a way that  $I_{IN}'$ , the mirrored copy of  $I_{N1}$ , is equal to the DC component of the current in  $P_2$ . Evidently, when the correction is done, i.e.  $V_{OUT}$  being brought back to the level of  $V_{gn}$ , the compensated  $I_{N1}$  needs to be maintained. The transistor  $N_4$  shown in Fig. 5 is not able to provide a DC current for the

compensation while  $V_{OUT} \approx V_{gn}$ . One can use the voltage difference ( $V_{OUT} - V_{gn}$ ) to generate a current compensating for the mismatch. Fig. 9 illustrates the low-pass current filter with such a compensation current provided by the two transistors  $N_5$  and  $N_7$  combined. Replacing the low-pass current filter in the current-to-voltage converter shown in Fig. 6 by that illustrated in Fig. 9, we make the converter have the DC mismatch compensation and it has then been simulated with Hspice. The simulation waveforms, illustrated in Fig. 10, demonstrated that this circuit is able to make the DC level of the output voltage uniformed at the level approximately equal to  $V_{gn}$  despite the device mismatch. The current compensation is, therefore, an effective solution to the problem of the DC mismatch.

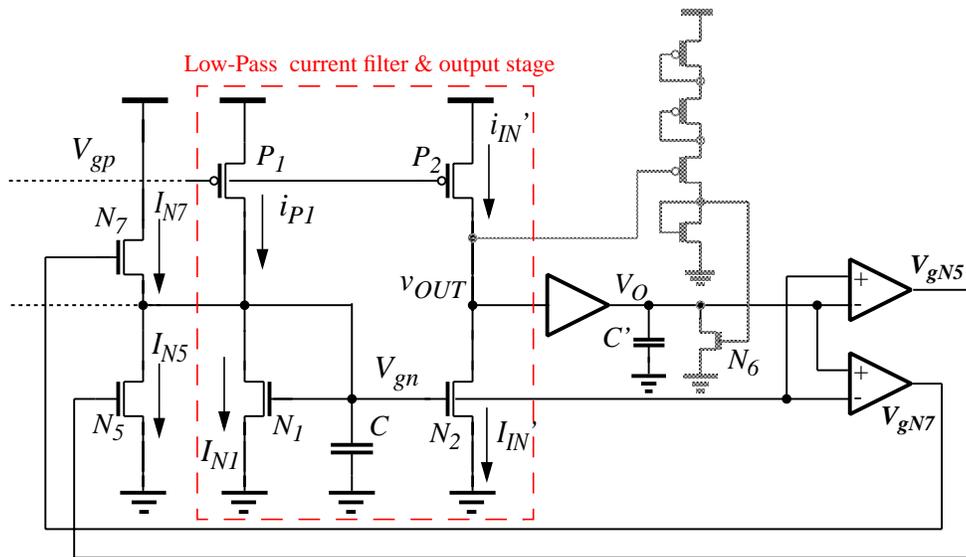


Fig. 9 Low-pass current filter with a DC current compensation for device mismatch. The average level of  $v_{OUT}$ , denoted as  $V_O$ , is compared with  $V_{gn}$  to produce two voltages  $V_{gN7}$  and  $V_{gN5}$  that are used to control the currents of  $N_7$  and  $N_5$ , respectively. The current difference ( $I_{N7} - I_{N5}$ ) compensates for the device mismatch to make  $I_{IN}'$  equal to the DC component of  $i_{IN}'$ . In this case, the transistor  $N_4$  shown in Fig. 6 is removed as  $N_7$  can provide the gate capacitance  $C$  with an additional current. The devices drawn in dashed lines are used to have a fast pull-down of  $V_O$ , when  $I_{IN}' \gg i_{IN}'$  due to sudden change of the input level  $I_{IN}$ , by the “normally-off” NMOS transistor  $N_6$  in order to reduce  $I_{IN}'$  quickly. The voltage follower used in this circuit consists of 2 transistors, namely  $P_5$  and  $P_6$  shown in Fig. 6. Each of the voltage comparators is a single-stage differential amplifier consisting of five transistors.

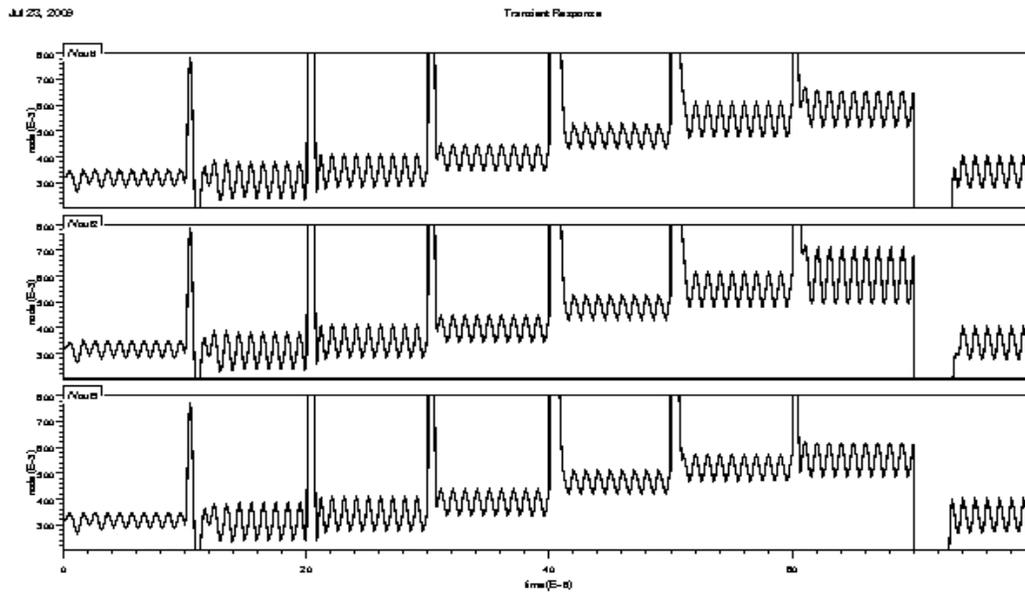


Fig. 10 Simulation waveforms of the three current-to-voltage converters of which the structures are identical and involve the same current compensation shown in Fig. 9, but device mismatch is different. The input signal is identical to that producing the waveforms shown in Fig. 7. The first waveform  $v_{OUT1}$  is the output voltage of the converter without device mismatch. The second one,  $v_{OUT2}$ , is produced by the circuit in which  $g_{mN1}$ , the transconductance of  $N_1$ , is 36% smaller than  $g_{mN2}$ , and  $v_{OUT3}$  by the one with  $g_{mN1}$  being 36% larger than  $g_{mN2}$ . The three waveforms have the almost identical DC level  $V_{OUT}$  by means of the compensation.

It should be noted that the low-pass current filter involves the capacitance  $C$  made of a large drain-source grounded NMOS transistor in order to operate at an input current level of  $411 \mu\text{A}$ . Such a large device makes the circuit too bulky to be placed in a pixel of an image sensor. However, in a CMOS image sensor, the current delivered by a tiny photodiode could hardly reach any micro-Ampere level and the input range is shifted toward a much lower end. If the proposed current-to-voltage converter is used in such a sensor, the capacitance can be made much smaller. Another issue to be noticed is the nonlinear nature of the conversion. This conversion is globally nonlinear and locally “linear”. The compression of the DC component, by means of the device nonlinearity, permits the wide input range. The “linear” high gain conversion, is based on the linearity of MOSFET drain-source resistances in the

saturation mode when the DC component of the input current is fixed. However, like all the other cases of using nonlinear devices for “linear” operations, this linearity is limited. Moreover, the drain-source resistances of the transistors of the same design but placed in different places can not be exactly identical. If the circuit is used in a CMOS image sensor, the converters in different locations will have non-uniform outputs while the input is uniform. A compensation for this mismatch requires more research efforts.

#### **IV. Conclusion**

The work presented in this paper aims at solving the problem caused by the conflict of dynamic range and sensitivity in current-to-voltage conversion circuits. The proposed solution is to employ a low-pass current filter to separate the DC component from the signal one of the input current, to use the DC one, after a compression, for an input-dependent biasing, and to convert the signal one with an adaptive gain. This solution can be easily implemented in a CMOS circuit. A current mirror consisting of a transistor pair can be used as such a filter if its time constant is made to satisfy the low-pass filtering condition. This time constant is current-dependent. But the dependency can be reduced by applying the current down-scaling proposed in this paper. The compression function is based on nonlinear current-dependent characteristics of MOS transconductance. The voltage resulting from this compression is biasing the MOS transistors that determine the conversion gain applied to the signal component, which makes the gain adaptive to the input current. A design example of the proposed current-to-voltage conversion has been provided and its performance evaluated by the simulation with CMOS 0.18  $\mu\text{m}$  models. The results have shown that the circuit is able to operate with an input current varying over a range of 5 decades. It is sensitive enough to respond to a current signal of a fraction of a nano-Ampere. A conversion gain is almost constant if the DC level of the input stays the same, and decrements if the level increments, which allows the circuit to detect the signal current when it is in the higher end of the 5-decade range without saturation.

Besides the dynamic range and sensitivity, the converters designed with the proposed method feature low power dissipation. The biasing currents are the DC component of the input current and its copies, if the current in the voltage shifter in Fig. 6 can be ignored. It should also be mentioned that, unlike many current-mode circuits, these converters do not need clock and switches, and the conversion is performed on a continuous time basis. Thus the problems such as switching noise and preparation phases do not arise. Moreover, sparing from clocks makes the circuits to spare from many clock-related problems and facilitate their applications. Furthermore, to reduce the effect of device mismatch, a DC current compensation method has been presented in this paper and its effectiveness verified by the simulation results.

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