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High Resolution Electronic Measurements in Nano-Bio Science

ANALOG VS DIGITAL LOCK-IN PROCESSING Francesco Zanetto

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# Analog vs digital lock-in processing

- Lock-in amplifiers are commonly divided into analog and digital instruments.
- <u>Both classes of instruments require ADCs and DACs to be implemented, the difference stands in how the demodulation process is carried out.</u>
- Analog LIAs perform the demodulation in the analog domain and digitize the low frequency output of the mixer.
- Digital LIAs digitize the high frequency signal and then demodulate it in the digital domain.



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### Pro & cons of analog and digital lock-in amplifiers

#### **Analog**

#### <u>PROS</u>

- By changing only the front-end amplifier and mixer, any stimulation frequency can be used.
- It does not require fast ADCs and digital signal processing.
- Simple implementation even in integrated circuits.

#### <u>CONS</u>

 Sensitive to 1/f noise of any stage after the demodulation (mixer, further gain stages, ...)

### <u>PROS</u>

• Insensitive to 1/f noise of its building blocks.

Digital

- It can achieve sub-ppm resolution.
- Less components are required.

#### <u>CONS</u>

- Fast ADCs and complex digital signal processing are required.
- Implementation in ICs is not trivial, especially for high stimulation frequencies.

### Analog lock-in structure



- An (optional) high-pass filter can be used to remove the DC component before the demodulation.
- Two acquisition chains are needed after the TIA to perform I/Q demodulation and fully reconstruct the DUT impedance.
- A low-pass filter is used to avoid aliasing effects in the ADC acquisition, further lowpass filtering can be done digitally to reduce the readout bandwidth if needed.

# Requisite for using analog lock-in amplifiers

- The analog lock-in amplifier has the same noise performance as the digital one if the readout bandwidth is sufficiently larger than the 1/f noise corner frequency of the overall circuit.
- This ensures that the 1/f contribution is negligible with respect to the white noise.
- <u>As a rule of thumb, the readout</u> <u>bandwidth should be roughly 10</u> <u>times larger than the 1/f noise corner</u> <u>frequency.</u>



 $\frac{1/f}{f_{BW}} = 1 MHz \quad \rightarrow v_{N,RMS}^2 = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-12} + 10^{-10} [V^2]$   $f_{BW} = 100 \, kHz \quad \rightarrow v_{N,RMS}^2 = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-12} + 10^{-11} [V^2]$   $f_{BW} = 10 \, kHz \quad \rightarrow v_{N,RMS}^2 = 1.15 \cdot 10^{-12} + 10^{-12} [V^2]$ 

### Generation of the lock-in signals

- <u>The stimulation chain can be a source of noise in the measurement.</u> Make sure to choose the right components not to worsen the lock-in performance.
- The stimulation and I/Q demodulation signals are usually generated with a direct digital synthesizer (DDS).



Increasing the number of samples per sinusoid period improves the spectral purity of the stimulation signal and allows to better filter out the spurious harmonics.



### Mixer

- The mixer is critical in setting the lock-in amplifier performance because any nonideality is directly translated into a measurement error.
- <u>It should have output offset and 1/f noise as low as possible</u> and sufficiently high bandwidth and linearity (in the case of sinusoidal multipliers).

#### Passive mixer

 Low 1/f noise, only square wave demodulation



#### Active mixer

• Higher 1/f noise, more complex but sinusoidal demodulation possible.



# Mixer non-idealities

- <u>Measurement errors introduced by the mixer cannot be removed because the</u> signal has already been moved to low frequency.
- Try to make the mixer work always in the same operating conditions (for example, remove DC offset before the demodulation) to avoid signal-dependent errors.

Example: DC offset at mixer input can translate into demodulation error



### Amplification after the mixer

- If further amplification is needed after the mixer, choose an amplifier with very low 1/f noise corner frequency and offset, because they are summed directly to the signal to be measured and can't be removed afterwards.
- Chopper-stabilized amplifiers are a good option, because they are specifically designed for these applications.



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### Analog to digital conversion

- A slow ADC is enough to digitize and acquire the lock-in output, that is already a DC signal.
- <u>Choose the ADC number of bits such that</u> <u>the LSB is much smaller than the RMS noise</u> <u>at the input of the converter.</u>
- This guarantees that the measurement result is not affected by the A/D conversion.
- Oversampling (choosing f<sub>SAMP</sub> >> BW<sub>READOUT</sub>) can be used to make the effect of the ADC quantization noise negligible on the measurement result.



# Digital signal processing

- A digital processor is used to control the ADC operations, acquire the conversion result and provide it to the user.
- Usually a standard microcontroller (Arduino, STM32, ...) is enough to perform this tasks since all the operations are performed at low speed (tens of kHz).
- A digital low-pass filter (such as a moving average filter) can be implemented on the microcontroller to further reduce the readout bandwidth and increase the measurement accuracy if needed.





crystals.

#### Healthy RBC Infected RBC Ni micropillar

gravity

- This property can be used to develop a system-on-chip for malaria detection.
- Healthy cells sediment on the bottom of the chip while infected ones are captured with a magnet.
- The infected cells are detected by using impedance sensing electrodes.



Example of application: detection of malaria infections



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  - The malaria parasite infects red blood cells (RBC) and makes them magnetic by producing hemozoin crystals.
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The malaria parasite infects red

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M. Giacometti et al., IEEE TBIOCAS, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 1325-1336 (2022)



Infected RBC

Healthy RBC



Ni micropillar

## Example of application: detection of malaria infections

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Example of application: detection of malaria infections





Differential electrodes to limit the effect of temperature fluctuations of the liquid.



- The measurement accuracy is limited by the conductivity fluctuations of the liquid.
- A low-cost analog lock-in amplifier can be used to perform the impedance measurement at 1 MHz.

### Example of application: detection of malaria infections



- Custom biochip with 91 differential electrodes in parallel for large sensing area.
- Successful detection down to 40 infected cells per µL of buffer solution.
- By optimizing the biochip layout, single cell detection can also be achieved at the price of a smaller sensing area.





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### Digital lock-in structure



- The front-end circuit is the same as in an analog LIA, but a fast ADC is now required to correctly sample the high-frequency input signal.
- A single acquisition chain is needed, the I/Q processing is performed only in the digital domain  $\rightarrow$  advantage in terms of area with respect to analog LIA.
- The 1/f noise and offset of the acquisition chain do not affect the measurement because the down-conversion is performed in the digital domain.

### Digital signal processing (DSP)

- A digital processor is needed to demodulate and filter the ADC readout.
- Especially when the lock-in is operated at high frequencies (tens of MHz), a microcontroller is not enough to perform real-time digital processing  $\rightarrow$  <u>FPGA-based</u> <u>digital LIAs are the most common approach.</u>
- The DSP chain operates at the same frequency as the ADC sampling  $\rightarrow$  for practical limitations of most FPGAs, it's hard to work at sampling rates above 100 MHz.



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# Suppression of the demodulation harmonics

The low-pass filter after the digital mixer has two main functions:

- Define the lock-in readout bandwidth.
- Suppress the harmonics generated by the demodulation process below the RMS noise level of the acquisition chain.



- Depending on the stimulation frequency and required readout bandwidth, the LPF can have challenging specifications in terms of out-of-band attenuation.
- A HPF before the mixer slightly the relaxes the LPF specs by removing the DC offset before it gets upconverted to f<sub>AC</sub> by the mixer.

#### Example:

 $V_{IN} = 2V_{pp}$ ,  $V_{noise,RMS} = 10 \,\mu V \rightarrow required LPF attenuation: >>50000$ 

 $f_{AC}$  = 100 kHz, BW = 1 kHz  $\rightarrow$  a first-order LPF provides an attenuation of only 200

- <u>Complex high-order filters, requiring multiple digital adders and multipliers, are</u> <u>usually needed to completely suppress the high-order harmonics.</u>
- In real implementations, this is not always possible because of the limited hardware resources of standard FPGAs.

Is there a better way to remove the harmonics by taking advantage of the fact that we know their frequency a priori?

### Cascaded integrator-comb filter

- A cascaded integrator-comb filter is an efficient hardware implementation of the moving average filter.
- It is characterized by notches in its transfer function, that can be set by the user by properly designing the filter structure.
- <u>The notches can be conveniently</u> <u>positioned to completely suppress the</u> <u>demodulation harmonics without requiring</u> <u>many hardware resources.</u>
- A first-order standard LPF can then be used just to define the readout bandwidth.

$$f_{NOTCH} = f_S/N*D$$



Example of application: detection of multiple DNA targets

- Lab-on-chip with functionalized electrodes for simultaneous detection of multiple DNA targets.
- Differential measurement for rejection of all common mode signals by using non-functionalized electrodes.



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2<u>00 μ</u>m

**Reference** sens

Example of application: detection of multiple DNA targets



(Dimensions: 18 cm x 22 cm)

#### Custom digital lock-in platform:

- <u>Compactness and portability</u>
   → Point Of Care configuration
- <u>8 independent channels for multisensing</u>

   → Simultaneous detection of multiple
   biological targets in a single experiment
- Impedance readout resolution of 100 ppm →Digital counting of targets
- <u>Stabilization of the chip temperature with</u> <u>m°C accuracy</u>
  - $\rightarrow$  Stable temperature during the experiment

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Example of application: detection of multiple DNA targets



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# ADC requirements for high-speed (> 1 MHz) digital LIAs

- To meet the resolution and speed requirements of certain applications, ADCs with 12 to 16 bits and up to ~100 MSps are usually required.
- This generates a great amount of data that need to be transmitted to the digital processor (e.g: 80 Msps, 14 bit → 1.12 Gbit/s).
- In order not to require clocks in the GHz range, high-speed ADCs usually have a parallel digital interface at the output.

Digital LIAs with many channels in parallel are hard to be implemented because a huge number of digital lines are needed.



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### Hybrid lock-in solutions

- The design of multichannel high-speed lock-in acquisition systems is challenging because a good compromise between performance, complexity and area occupation needs to be found.
- Digital LIAs offer excellent performance and low area occupation for the front-end circuit, but they require fast ADCs with a good number of bits.
- This introduces a complexity overhead, because a lot of high-speed digital connections need to be managed.
- In addition, digital LIAs cannot be easily operated above ~100 MHz

Is there a way to keep the advantages of digital LIAs while using slow ADCs as in analog implementations?

### Heterodyne lock-in detection

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- An analog mixer moves the signal from high frequency to an intermediate frequency.
- <u>The intermediate frequency should be chosen above the 1/f noise corner of the acquisition circuit in order not to degrade the lock-in performance.</u>
- A single slow ADC can be used to digitize the signal at intermediate frequency, without requiring complex handling of high-speed digital signals.
- A second I/Q demodulation is performed digitally to complete the lock-in acquisition.



### Frequency behaviour



- The effect of 1/f noise and offset of all stages is canceled!
- Synchronization of the lock-in processing is needed to ensure consistency!!!

### Some math



### Lock-in synchronization: DDS

# To ensure consistency of the lock-in processing among different experiments:

- Use the same clock to drive all the DDSs.
- Compute the frequency word of the intermediate DDS as difference between the other two, to avoid rounding approximations:

$$FW_{STIM} = f_{STIM} \cdot \frac{2^{N_{BIT},DDS}}{f_{CLOCK}} \qquad FW_{MID} = f_{MID} \cdot \frac{2^{N_{BIT},DDS}}{f_{CLOCK}}$$

 $FW_{STIM-MID} = FW_{STIM} - FW_{MID}$ 

• <u>Always start/stop/update all the DDS simultaneously</u> to keep same initial conditions.



### Lock-in synchronization: ADC

- The synchronization of the ADC conversion is also critical to obtain consistent results among different experiments.
- <u>Sampling the input waveforms in different points results in different demodulation</u> results, because demodulation is a non-linear process.
- The error decreases if the number of samples per period increases, but it can't be completely solved unless proper synchronization is ensured → <u>restart the ADC</u> <u>conversion whenever any parameter of the DDSs are updated to always sample the</u> <u>input waveform in the same points.</u>



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# Experimental demonstration of the heterodyne lock-in

• The effect of the acquisition chain offset is removed with the heterodyne technique.

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Measured voltage [µV] -230 -234 -238 Analog lock-in

RMS noise ~ 2 uV

Time [s]

• The readout noise is reduced because the 1/f component is avoided.

- White noise =  $200 \text{nV} / \sqrt{\text{Hz}}$
- 1/f noise corner frequency of the acquisition chain = 10 Hz
- Lock-in bandwidth = 10 Hz
- Intermediate frequency = 5 kHz





- Choose the best lock-in architecture depending on the requirements of the application.
- Beware of 1/f noise after analog demodulation to obtain the best performance.
- Carefully design the signal processing chain of digital LIAs.
- Consider hybrid lock-in solutions in those situations where the standard approaches struggle.

