A NONLINEAR DIGITAL MODEL OF THE EMS VCS3 VOLTAGE CONTROLLED FILTER

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ABSTRACT

This article presents a nonlinear discrete-time model of the EMS VCS3 voltage controlled filter. The development of the model is based on the study of the filter circuitry and its behavior in the time domain. From this circuitry a system of nonlinear differential equations has been derived describing the dynamics in regime of large signals. The digital implementation of the filter is based on a numerical version of those equations. The resulting Matlab model has been compared with a structurally identical simulation running under PSpice. Finally, a real-time realization of the VCF has been implemented under the Pure Data processing environment.

1. ANALOG SYSTEM

The Voltage Controlled for Studio with 3 oscillators (VCS3) was an analog modular monophonic synthesizer designed by David Cockerell in 1969 and produced by Peter Zinovieff for the Electronic Music Studio Ltd in London. The voltage controlled filter (VCF) that was embedded in this synthesizer used junction diodes as variable-resistance components to control the cutoff frequency.

The circuit is based on a ladder structure, that is very similar to that implemented in the renowned Moog VCF [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]. The main difference between the two circuits resides in the fact that the latter uses bipolar junction transistors (BJT) instead of diodes to control the cutoff frequency. Notes for a discrete-time implementation of this structure have been drawn by Borin [6].

Figure 1 shows the circuit of the VCF. It is basically a *differential amplifier* loaded with a diode-capacitor network, where the diodes act as current-controlled resistors. Their resistance in fact determines the filter cutoff frequency, and is related to the control current I_0 imposed by the BJT Q4 which acts as a current generator controlled by the voltage V_{CV} . The polarization of the diodes is ensured by Q3, which provides 9V at the top of the ladder: this allows the current to flow in the two branches as indicated in Figure 1.

The VCF features also a feedback circuit whose variable resistance can induce a gain ranging from 0 to about 10. This circuit is based on the OP-AMP U1 whose output is sent to the base of Q2 (thus closing the feedback loop), as well as to the filter output. To realize the feedback, the voltage across C4 (which is the output of the filter in open-loop mode) is sent at the inputs of U1 through a first-order highpass filter (the RC cell constituted by C7 and R7 on one branch, and by C8 and R8 on the other one) to eliminate the DC offset caused by the polarization voltages present in the signal. The same feature is realized by C5 and C6. The three diodes D9, D11 and D13 and, correspondingly, D10, D12 and D14, act Federico Fontana

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as two *pull-up* current-controlled resistors. Indeed they could be substituted with two resistors, but this solution would limit the efficiency of the control current I_0 in varying the cutoff frequency, furthermore it would linearize the whole circuit and consequently change its peculiar sound.

2. DERIVATION OF THE MODEL

First, a linearized version of the circuit has been modeled by disconnecting the feedback: in this *open-loop* version, the diodes were substituted by equivalent *differential resistances* and the two BJTs Q1 and Q2 were substituted by simplified versions of the *Hybrid*- π model (also known as *trans-conductance model*) [7]. The resulting circuit describes the open loop filter in regime of small signals.

Then, the non linearities have been taken into account. Diodes were modeled with an exponential voltage-to-current characteristics that describes their behavior under conditions of direct polarization. BJTs were modeled with the *Ebers-Moll* model [8]. A model for the open-loop VCF has been so achieved, capable of describing the system behavior in regime of large signals.

Last, the variable gain feedback circuit has been included in the non linear model. As it usual for this type of amplifiers, the OP-AMP U1 has been modeled under the assumption of linear behavior.

3. LINEAR MODEL OF THE FILTER IN OPEN LOOP

The linearized open-loop version of the filter is shown in Figure 2. The output voltage is measured at the edges of C4. The diodes in the two branches have been substituted with their differential resistances, whose value is determined by

$$r_d = \frac{dv_D}{di_D} = \frac{\eta kT}{qI_0} = \frac{\eta V_T}{I_0},\tag{1}$$

where v_D is the voltage on the diode, i_D is the current across it, and η is the *emission coefficient*, a parameter related to the diode model: for the 1N4148 (used in the VCF), $\eta = 1.836$. Furthermore, $q = 1,60206^{-19}$ C is the fundamental electric charge unit, k is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature measured in Kelvin degrees, and V_T is the so-called *thermal voltage*: $V_T = kT/q \approx 0.026$ mV at 25°C. Equation (1) is derived by linearizing the exponential voltage to current characteristics of p-n junction diodes:

$$i = I_{\text{inv}} \left(e^{\frac{v}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right), \tag{2}$$

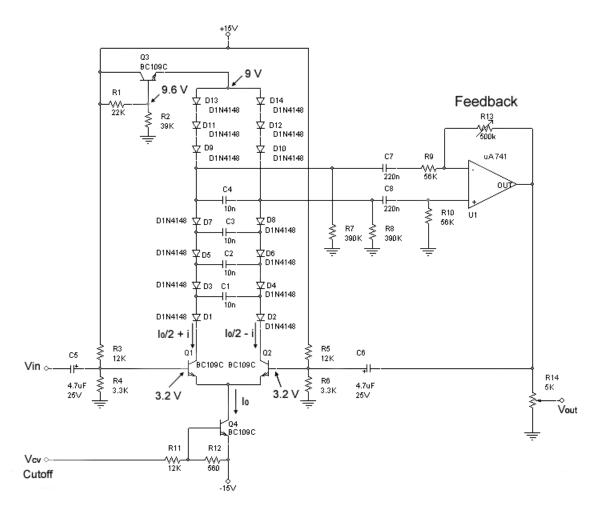


Figure 1: Schematic of the EMS VCS3 VCF circuitry.

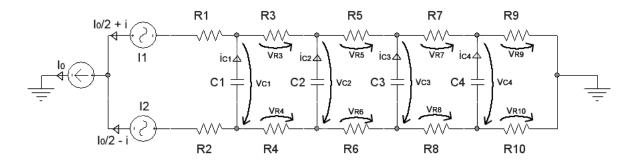


Figure 2: Linear version of the circuit in open loop.

Where I_{inv} is the diode inverse polarization current, which usually amounts to some nA. Finally, R9 and R10 are three times greater than the other resistances since they model the cascade D9-D11-D13 and D10-D12-D14, respectively.

In the linear version of the circuit Q1 and Q2 are substituted with two ideal current generators. The current i is proportional to the voltage of the input signal. This substitution relies on the *Hybrid*- π model, that provides a circuit describing the behavior of a BJT in regime of small signals [7]. Figure 3 depicts the equivalent circuit.

The *Hybrid*- π model is described by the following equation:

$$g_m = \frac{i_c}{v_{be}}\Big|_{v_{ce}=0} = \frac{I_C}{V_T},$$
 (3)

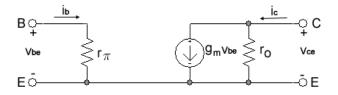


Figure 3: The BJT equivalent circuit provided by the Hybrid- π model.

where g_m is the *trans-conductance* of the BJT measured in Siemens, and I_C is the polarization (or bias) current that in the case of Q1, Q2, and Q3, corresponds to I_0 . It can also be shown that:

$$r_{\pi} = \left. \frac{v_{be}}{i_b} \right|_{v_{ce}=0} = \frac{\beta_0}{g_m} = \frac{V_T}{I_B},$$
 (4)

where r_{π} is the equivalent resistance between base and emitter, I_B is the base current at the bias point, and β_0 is the current gain at low frequencies (also known as h_{FE}):

$$\beta_0 = \frac{I_C}{I_B}.$$
(5)

This gain usually amounts to some hundreds: For the BC109C used in the VCF it is $\beta_0 \approx 500$.

We also make use of the output resistance due to the *Early effect* [7]:

$$r_O = \left. \frac{v_{ce}}{i_c} \right|_{v_{be}=0}.$$
(6)

The current flowing from base to emitter is proportional to the product between v_{be} (which in the case of Q1 is proportional to the input signal) and the trans-conductance g_m . Thus, a variation of the control current I_0 corresponds to a variation of g_m .

The *Hybrid*- π model has been further simplified: first of all, the current gain β_0 has been assumed as infinite. This approximation has also been adopted by Huovilainen [3] and allows to consider the base current I_B as equal to zero. It has also been imposed that $r_{\pi} \to \infty$ and $r_O \to \infty$.

The previously introduced assumptions further simplify the BJT model in regime of small signals: the transistors can now be seen as ideal current generators. The current value is related to v_{be} through the trans-conductance g_m in the following way:

$$i_c = g_m \cdot v_{be} \big|_{v_{ce}=0} = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be} = \frac{I_0}{2V_T} v_{in}, \tag{7}$$

where v_{in} is the amplitude of the input signal measured at the point visible also in Figure 1. One last relevant aspect about the linearized open-loop version of the circuit is the substitution of Q3 by a voltage generator that is set to 0 V: the anodes of D13 and D14 have been connected to ground. The polarization voltage is in fact negligible since the diodes can be implicitly assumed as directly polarized when only their differential resistance is taken into account.

As previously said, the circuit has been analyzed in the time domain by the derivation of its linear differential equations. The application of the Kirchhoff rule for voltages to the circuit in Figure 2 leads to the following system of equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
v_{R_3} + v_{C_2} - v_{R_4} - v_{C_1} = 0 \\
v_{R_5} + v_{C_3} - v_{R_6} - v_{C_2} = 0 \\
v_{R_7} + v_{C_4} - v_{R_8} - v_{C_3} = 0 \\
v_{R_9} - v_{R_{10}} - v_{C_4} = 0
\end{cases}$$
(8)

Considering that $C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C_4 = C$, and defining the following auxiliary quantity in order to keep the notation readable:

$$\gamma \triangleq \eta \cdot V_T \approx 1.836 \cdot 0.026 \approx 0.048,\tag{9}$$

after some algebraic manipulations the following system can be derived:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\dot{v}_{C_1} = \frac{I_0/2}{2\gamma C} (v_{C_2} - v_{C_1}) + \frac{I_0/2 \cdot v_{in}}{2V_T \cdot C} \\
\dot{v}_{C_2} = \frac{I_0/2}{2\gamma C} (v_{C_1} - 2v_{C_2} + v_{C_3}) \\
\dot{v}_{C_2} = \frac{I_0/2}{2\gamma C} (v_{C_2} - 2v_{C_3} + v_{C_4}) \\
\dot{v}_{C_4} = \frac{I_0/2}{2\gamma C} v_{C_3} - \frac{I_0}{3\gamma C} v_{C_4}
\end{cases}$$
(10)

The system (10) models the linearized open loop version of the VCF.

4. NON LINEAR OPEN-LOOP VERSION

As previously mentioned, it is possible to assume that the diodes in the two branches of the ladder are always directly polarized. Their behavior is therefore described with good approximation by (2), from which the following equation can straightforwardly be derived:

$$v = \eta V_T \ln\left(\frac{i}{I_{\text{inv}}}\right). \tag{11}$$

In the nonlinear VCF model no assumption can be made on the magnitude of the current i from I_0 , since a model for large signal is dealt with. The voltage-to-current characteristics of the diodes therefore must be modeled by equation (2), without further simplifications. The transistors Q1 and Q2 have been modeled with the *Ebers-Moll* model which is able to describe their nonlinear behavior in active mode with good approximation. The Ebers-Moll model describes the NPN BJTs in the form of an equivalent circuit, as shown in Figure 4. The two diodes in the model represent

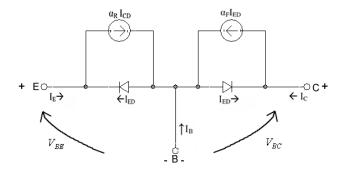


Figure 4: The NPN BJT equivalent circuit provided by the Ebers-Moll model.

the base-to-emitter and base-to-collector junctions. The two current sources quantify minor transports of charge through the base region, and depend on the intensity of the current flowing through each diode. The equations which characterize the model are the following:

$$I_E = I_{ES} \left(e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} - 1 \right) \tag{12}$$

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$$I_C = \alpha_0 I_{ES} \left(e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} - 1 \right), \tag{13}$$

where I_E is current at the emitter, I_C is the current at the collector, α_0 is the short circuit current gain in common base configuration (values ranging between 0.980 and 0.998), I_{ES} is the inverse current of the diode between the base and the emitter, and finally V_{BE} is the voltage between the base and the emitter.

As previously made with the *Hybrid*- π model, the current gain β_0 can be considered to be very high and, thus, approximating infinity. Moreover, by keeping in mind that:

$$\beta_0 = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \alpha_0} \longleftrightarrow \alpha_0 = \frac{\beta_0}{1 + \beta_0}, \tag{14}$$

then α_0 can be approximatively considered equal to 1. Now, since:

$$\alpha_0 = I_C / I_E \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_0 = I_C / I_B \tag{15}$$

it can be deduced that the base current can be considered equal to zero, while the emitter current is equal to that flowing along the collector. Holding these assumptions, the fundamental equation useful to describe the behavior of a BJT with the *Ebers-Moll* model is (12).

In order to apply the model to the open-loop VCF, it is necessary to understand how it deals with the circuit at the base of the VCF itself, i.e. the long-tailed pair differential amplifier based on the BJTs Q1 and Q2. Thus, it is useful to analyze the circuit part shown in Figure 5. By applying (12) to Q1 and Q2 respectively,

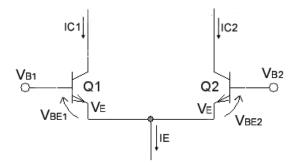


Figure 5: *The Ebers-Moll model in the long-tailed pair differential amplifier.*

the two following equations can be derived:

$$i_{C1} = I_{ES1} \left(e^{\frac{v_{BE1}}{V_T}} - 1 \right) \approx I_{ES1} \left(e^{\frac{v_{BE1}}{V_T}} \right)$$

$$i_{C2} = I_{ES2} \left(e^{\frac{v_{BE2}}{V_T}} - 1 \right) \approx I_{ES2} \left(e^{\frac{v_{BE2}}{V_T}} \right)$$
(16)

Thus:

$$v_{BE1} = V_T \ln\left(\frac{i_{C1}}{I_{ES1}}\right)$$
 and $v_{BE2} = V_T \ln\left(\frac{i_{C2}}{I_{ES2}}\right)$. (17)

Now, it is interesting to study the behavior of a long-tailed pair differential amplifier taking in input the difference of its two incoming voltages. The two following relations have to be cosidered:

$$v_{BE2} - v_{BE1} = V_T \ln\left(\frac{i_{C2} \cdot I_{ES1}}{i_{C1} \cdot I_{ES2}}\right).$$
 (18)

Assuming that the inverse base-to-emitter current in Q1 has the same value of the one in Q2, i.e. $I_{ES1} = I_{ES2}$ (for example, by the adoption of a matched-pair of transistors), it can be obtained that:

$$v_{BE2} - v_{BE1} = V_T \ln\left(\frac{i_{C2}}{i_{C1}}\right).$$
 (19)

Now, since:

$$v_{BE2} - v_{BE1} = (v_{B2} - v_E) - (v_{B1} - v_E),$$

by taking into account that the two emitters are directly connected together, it follows that:

$$v_{BE2} - v_{BE1} = v_{B2} - v_{B1} \tag{20}$$

and, by calculating the exponential for both the members of equation (19), it can be obtained that:

$$e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}} = \frac{i_{C2}}{i_{C1}}.$$
(21)

Thus, as suggested in [4]:

$$i_E = i_{C1} + i_{C2} = i_{C1} + i_{C1}e^{\frac{v_{B2} - v_{B1}}{V_T}},$$
(22)

which leads to:

$$i_{C1} = rac{i_E}{1 + e^{rac{v_{B2} - v_{B1}}{V_T}}}.$$

This formula can be rewritten as:

$$i_{C1} = \frac{2i_E}{2\left(1+e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}\right)}$$
$$= \frac{i_E}{2}\left(\frac{1+1+e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}-e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}}{1+e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}}\right)$$
$$= \frac{i_E}{2}\left(1+\frac{1-e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}}{1+e^{\frac{v_{B2}-v_{B1}}{V_T}}}\right).$$

Now, since:

$$\tanh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}} = \frac{e^{2x} - 1}{e^{2x} + 1}$$

by making the necessary substitutions, it can be derived that:

$$i_{C1} = \frac{i_E}{2} \left[1 - \tanh\left(\frac{v_{B2} - v_{B1}}{2V_T}\right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{i_E}{2} \left[1 + \tanh\left(\frac{v_{B1} - v_{B2}}{2V_T}\right) \right]$$
(23)

and

$$i_{C2} = i_E - i_{C1} = i_E - \frac{i_E}{2} \left[1 + \tanh\left(\frac{v_{B1} - v_{B2}}{2V_T}\right) \right]$$

= $\frac{i_E}{2} \left[1 - \tanh\left(\frac{v_{B1} - v_{B2}}{2V_T}\right) \right].$ (24)

The last two equations have been exploited in order to obtain the system of nonlinear differential equations constituting the model of the VCF in regime of large signals: the nonlinear open loop filter is shown in Figure 6. Since the three diodes D9, D11

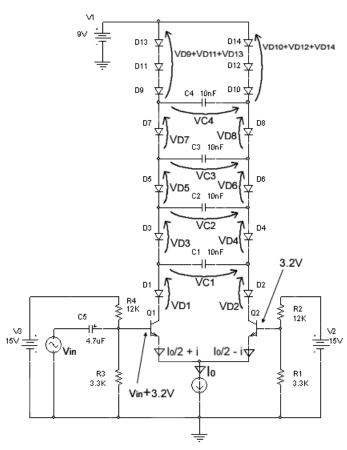


Figure 6: The nonlinear open loop version of the VCF.

and D13 are in series, they are traversed by the same current, furthermore the voltage pull-down is the same for each of them. So:

$$V_{D_9} + V_{D_{11}} + V_{D_{13}} = 3V_{D_9}.$$

D10, D12 and D14 undertake the same effect:

$$V_{D_{10}} + V_{D_{12}} + V_{D_{14}} = 3V_{D_{10}}.$$

The application of the Kirchhoff law for voltages on the circuit in Figure 6 leads to the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} v_{D_3} + v_{C_2} - v_{D_4} - v_{C_1} = 0 \\ v_{D_5} + v_{C_3} - v_{D_6} - v_{C_2} = 0 \\ v_{D_7} + v_{C_4} - v_{D_8} - v_{C_3} = 0 \\ 3v_{D_9} - 3v_{D_{10}} - v_{C_4} = 0 \end{cases},$$
(25)

which, with the application of logarithms, and considering that $C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C_4 = C$, after some algebraic manipulations

can be rewritten as:

$$\dot{v}_{C_{1}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{1}} - v_{C_{2}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{1}} - v_{C_{2}}}{\gamma}}} + \frac{i}{C}$$

$$\dot{v}_{C_{2}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{1}} - v_{C_{2}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{1}} - v_{C_{2}}}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{2}} - v_{C_{3}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{2}} - v_{C_{3}}}{\gamma}}} \right)$$

$$\dot{v}_{C_{3}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{2}} - v_{C_{3}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{2}} - v_{C_{3}}}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{3}} - v_{C_{4}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{3}} - v_{C_{4}}}{\gamma}}} \right)$$

$$\dot{v}_{C_{4}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{3}} - v_{C_{4}}}{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{3}} - v_{C_{4}}}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1 - e^{\frac{v_{C_{3}}}{3\gamma}}}{1 + e^{\frac{v_{C_{4}}}{3\gamma}}} \right)$$

$$(26)$$

where the quantity γ is the same as that defined in section 3, and the current *i* is due to the application of the input voltage v_{in} at the base of Q1. In order to obtain a set of equations which relates v_{in} with the output v_{C_4} , the substitution of (23) is necessary:

$$i = \frac{I_0}{2} \left[1 + \tanh\left(\frac{v_{in} + 3.2V - 3.2V}{2V_T}\right) \right]$$
$$= \frac{I_0}{2} \left[1 + \tanh\left(\frac{v_{in}}{2V_T}\right) \right].$$

Hence:

$$\dot{v}_{C_{1}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{1}}-vC_{2}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{1}}-vC_{2}}} + \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(1 + \tanh\left[\frac{v_{in}}{2V_{T}}\right]\right)$$
$$\dot{v}_{C_{2}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{1}}-vC_{2}}}{\gamma} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{2}}-vC_{3}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{2}}-vC_{3}}}\right)$$
$$\dot{v}_{C_{3}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{2}}-vC_{3}}}{\gamma} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}\right)$$
$$\dot{v}_{C_{4}} = \frac{I_{0}}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}{\gamma} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}}{1+e^{\frac{v}{C_{3}}-vC_{4}}}\right)$$

The nonlinear system (27) describes the behavior of the VCF when in open loop.

5. CLOSING THE LOOP

As previously said, the VCF features also a variable gain feedback circuit based on the OP-AMP U1, which has been modeled assuming linearity. In particular, this part of the circuit can be described by applying the superposition principle to the circuit in Figure 7, thus obtaining the following input-output relationship:

$$v_{out} = v_{C_{4+}} \frac{R_9 + R_{13}}{R_9} - v_{C_{4-}} \frac{R_{13}}{R_9}.$$
 (28)

Now, considering what happens to the currents and voltages involved in the long-tailed pair differential amplifier, and applying these considerations to the branches of the ladder based on Q1 and Q2, it can be figured out that:

$$v_{C_{4+}} = -v_{C_{4-}}.$$

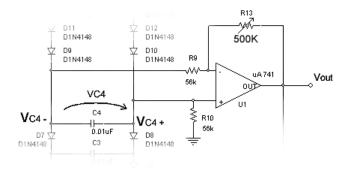


Figure 7: The differential amplifier used in the VCF as variable gain feedback circuit.

Hence:

$$v_{C_4} = v_{C_{4+}} - v_{C_{4-}} = 2v_{C_{4+}}.$$

Thus, (28) can be rewritten as:

$$v_{out} = v_{C_{4+}} \frac{R_9 + R_{13}}{R_9} + v_{C_{4+}} \frac{R_{13}}{R_9}$$

= $v_{C_{4+}} + 2v_{C_{4+}} \frac{R_{13}}{R_9}$ (29)
= $\frac{v_{C_4}}{2} + v_{C_4} \frac{R_{13}}{R_9}.$

The term R_{13}/R_9 represents the *gain* of the feedback circuit. Now, since R13 varies from 0 Ω to 500 k Ω and R9 = 56 k Ω , the gain varies from 0 to about 10. Considering (23), then relation (29) can be directly substituted in the system (27) obtaining:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{v}_{C_1} = \frac{I_0}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_1-vC_2}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_1-vC_2}{\gamma}}} + \tanh\left[\frac{\frac{v_{in}-\frac{vC_4}{2}-vC_4\frac{R_{13}}{R_9}}{2V_T}\right] + 1 \right) \\ \dot{v}_{C_2} = \frac{I_0}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_1-vC_2}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_1-vC_2}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_2-vC_3}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_2-vC_3}{\gamma}}} \right) \\ \dot{v}_{C_3} = \frac{I_0}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_2-vC_3}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_2-vC_3}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_3-vC_4}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_3-vC_4}{\gamma}}} \right) \\ \dot{v}_{C_4} = \frac{I_0}{2C} \left(\frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_3-vC_4}{\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_3-vC_4}{\gamma}}} + \frac{1-e^{\frac{vC_3}{3\gamma}}}{1+e^{\frac{vC_3}{\gamma}}} \right) \end{cases}$$
(30)

The system (30) describes the VCF in regime of large signals.

6. SIMULATIONS

Matlab simulations using fourth-order Runge-Kutta have been employed to integrate (30) in the discrete domain. Fixed-point iteration has been used to solve the instantaneous nonlinearity.

Figures 8-10 show simulation results coming out when linearly sweeping sinusoids from 20 Hz to 8 kHz at different input dynamics, along 4 s simulation time and using a sampling frequency $F_s = 88.2$ kHz. In every figure the upper plot shows the waveform of the output signal, whereas the lower spectrogram depicts the evolution of the magnitude spectrum in the corresponding simulation.

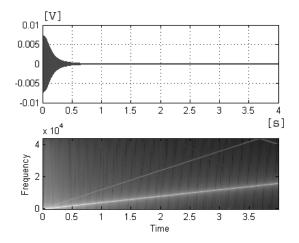


Figure 8: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 10 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 30 \ \mu$ A, without feedback.

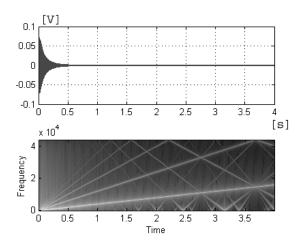


Figure 9: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 30 \ \mu$ A, without feedback.

The upper plots in every figure show the frequency dependence of the lowpass characteristics, furthermore by comparing the spectrograms computed for different dynamics it becomes evident that larger amplitudes lead to higher harmonic distortion. Figures 11-15 investigate the effects of feedback, using similar parameterizations of the circuit.

The closed-loop nonlinear VCF was also analyzed using offline PSpice software simulation as a reference. As shown in Table 1, the results were very similar for almost all the inputs used in the tests except for differences mainly due to the fact that the proposed model does not account for the dc-cut capacitors C5, C6, C7, and C8 (see section 1). These high-pass blocks in fact, while completely blocking components below 20 Hz, obviously filter the signal also above that frequency. Such effects should have minor perceptual impact, however high-pass filtering blocks will be introduced in a further version of the model.

Finally the model has been implemented on a 2.0 GHz Core 2

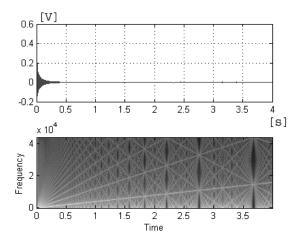


Figure 10: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 1 V amplitude peak. $I_0 = 30 \ \mu$ A, without feedback.

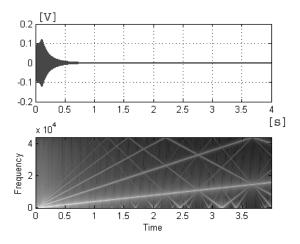


Figure 11: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 30 \ \mu A$, feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 2$.

Duo MacBook laptop mounting MacOS X v. 10.4, equipped with the Pure Data real time simulation environment, in the form of a C external. Figure 16 shows a snapshot of the resulting Pure Data patch realizing the VCF. In such an environment the constraint of real time has been checked depending on the number of fixed-point iterations needed by the system to converge to a solution satisfying an accepted threshold of accuracy. This number in fact must be low enough, in order to prevent the formation of artifacts that become audible when the computational burden overcomes the performance of the computer. A non systematic campaign of tests has been conducted using different kinds of input signals, such as sawtooth and square waves, noise, different kinds of audio samples, etc. By setting a threshold of accuracy on v_{C_4} equal to 10 mV, the number of iterations needed to stay below that threshold was never larger than 2. This means that the nonlinear implicit system is in general well-conditioned for fixed-point iteration, and that more accurate solutions can be easily achieved by scaling down

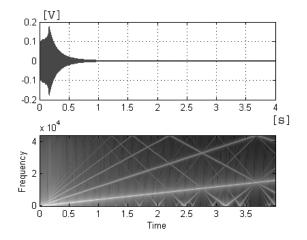


Figure 12: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 30 \ \mu A$, feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 5$.

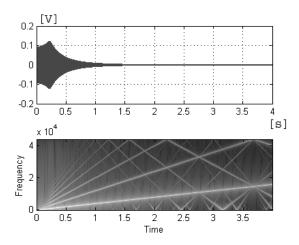


Figure 13: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 60 \ \mu A$, feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 2$.

the threshold with the performance of the computer at hand.

7. CONCLUSIONS

This work has presented a digital model of the EMS VCS3 voltage controlled filter: its circuitry has been modeled in the discrete time using Fourth-order Runge-Kutta, and fixed-point iteration has been successfully implemented to solve the resulting nonlinear implicit numerical system. In this way many structural features that give to this device its particular sound could be simulated with good precision, such as its most evident non linear characteristics. Concerning the numerical aspects, traditional and robust numerical recipes have been chosen since they provide accurate enough solutions in this particular case when the discrete components (which are also the most relevant sources of non linearity) are supposed to work always in the active region (i.e., in conditions of direct polarization). On the other hand, more expressive, but also computationally de-

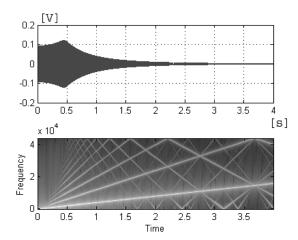


Figure 14: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 120 \ \mu$ A, feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 2$.

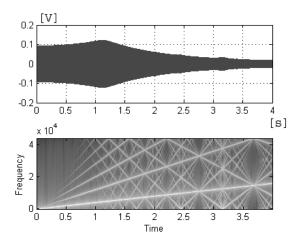


Figure 15: 20 Hz to 8 kHz linear sinusoidal sweep with 100 mV amplitude peak. $I_0 = 300 \ \mu$ A, feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 2$.

manding models could be used instead in order to obtain a higher grade of fidelity accounting also for other activity regions of the semiconductors.

In addition to that, both the integration and the iteration problem could be recast by keeping into account alternative methods, especially designed for the solution of nonlinear implicit numerical systems arising in presence of delay-free feedback chains [9]. The use of such methods is left to a future implementation of the system.

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Frequency (Hz)	Matlab (V RMS)	PSpice (V RMS)
40	0.60	0.63
80	0.63	0.67
160	0.63	0.67
320	0.65	0.69
640	0.60	0.63
1280	0.23	0.23
2560	0.08	0.08

Table 1: Comparison between RMS values measured at the output of the VCF, respectively simulated using Matlab and PSpice. The input signals were sine waves having different frequencies as shown in the first column, with 1 V peak amplitude, $I_0 = 48 \,\mu A$, and feedback gain $R_{13}/R_9 = 2$.

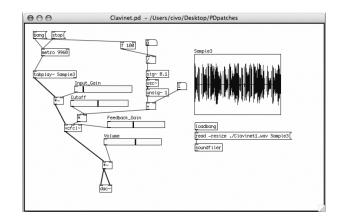


Figure 16: Pure Data patch of the nonlinear VCF.

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