

## Design of Pipeline Analog to Digital Converter

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The pipeline analog-to-digital converter (ADC) architecture is the most popular topology for video processing, telecommunications, digital imaging etc. designs because its speed is comparable to the parallel or flash architecture, whereas the implementation area and power dissipation are significantly smaller. Both advantages stem from the concurrent operation of the stages, that is, at any time, the first stage operates on the most recent sample while all other stages operate on residues from previous samples. Once the pipeline is primed, converted digital data are always available at every clock cycle. Also, since the stages operate concurrently, the number of stages used to obtain a given resolution is not constrained by the required throughput rate. Therefore, under some constraints (such as the total resolution), the number of stages may be chosen to minimize the required die area.

Like other ADC architectures, the pipeline ADC power consumption increases with required signal bandwidth, thus making it one of the major contributors to power consumption in a wideband digital video receiver subsystem. Pipeline ADC's are used in high Speed(10 MSPS -500 MSPS) data acquisition systems e.g. Low power mobile, cable front end, medical equipment, WiFi, Set Top Box, WLAN etc. SAR ADCs are used for Low speed (1MSPS- 10MSPS) data acquisition systems e.g. Automotive, Battery management, Microcontrollers etc. Sigma-Delta ADCs are used in audio applications. For sensor applications, Industrial control & DC measurements either SAR or Sigma delta ADCs are used depending upon the accuracy & speed. For RF applications (GHz data acquisition), Flash ADC is used. This paper will focus on the design technique & concerns of Pipeline ADC.

Fig. 1 shows a block diagram of a general pipelined ADC with  $k$  stages. Each stage contains a sample-and-hold amplifier (SHA), a low-resolution analog-to-digital sub-converter (ADSC), a low-resolution digital-to-analog converter (DAC), and a subtractor. To begin a conversion, the input is sampled and held. The held input is then converted into a digital code by the first-stage low-resolution flash A/D converter and back into an analog signal by the first-stage low-resolution D/A converter. The difference between the D/A converter output and the held input is the residue that is amplified and sent to the next stage where this process is repeated. At any instant, while the first stage processes the current input sample, the second stage processes the amplified residue of the previous input sample from the first stage. Because sequential stages simultaneously work on residues from successively sampled inputs, the digital outputs from each stage correspond to input samples at different times. Digital latches are needed to synchronize the outputs from different stages.

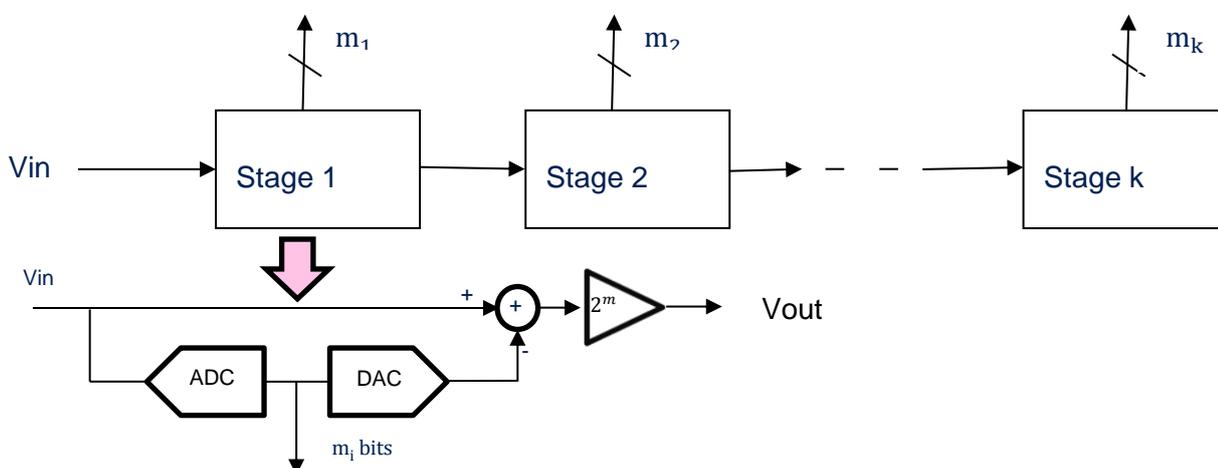


Fig.1: Block diagram of Pipeline ADC

## 2 BIT/STAGE PIPELINE ARCHITECTURE:

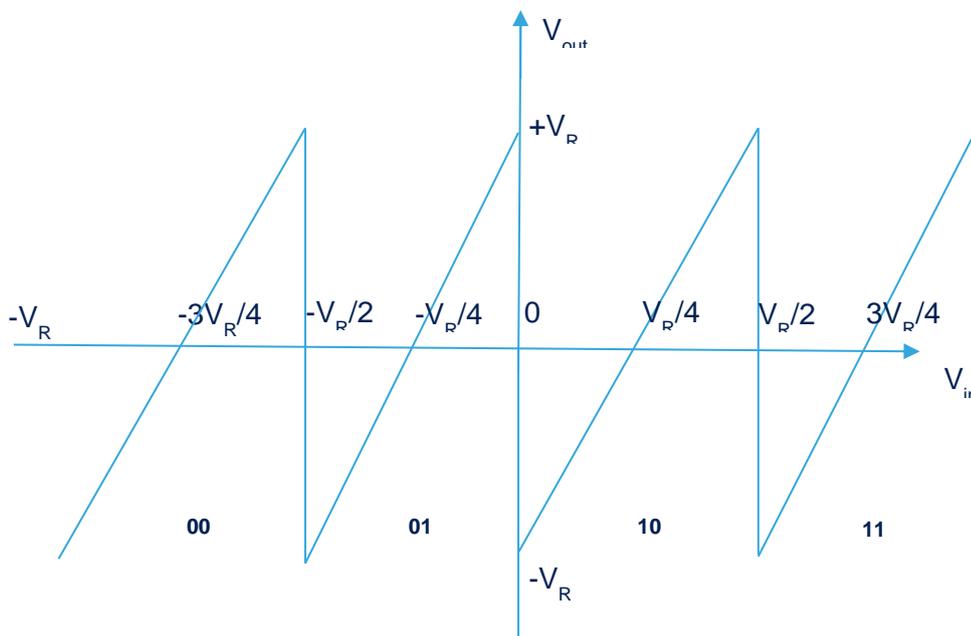
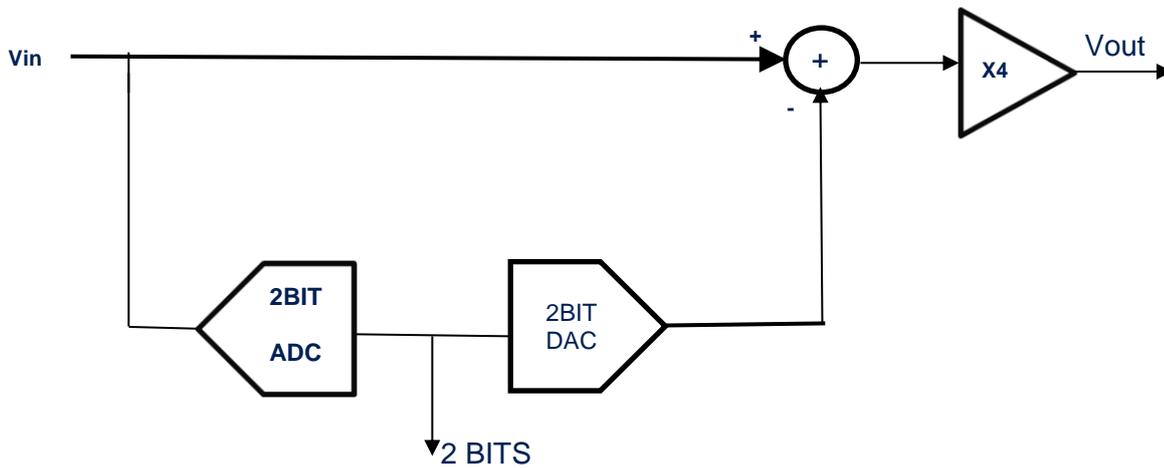


Fig 2: Ideal Transfer Function of a 2-bit Pipelined Stage

The stage gain is 4x to maximize the dynamic range of the subsequent stage, and to allow for reuse of the reference voltages.

An error in the stage ADC threshold (due to an offset) alters the transfer function as shown in Fig. 3

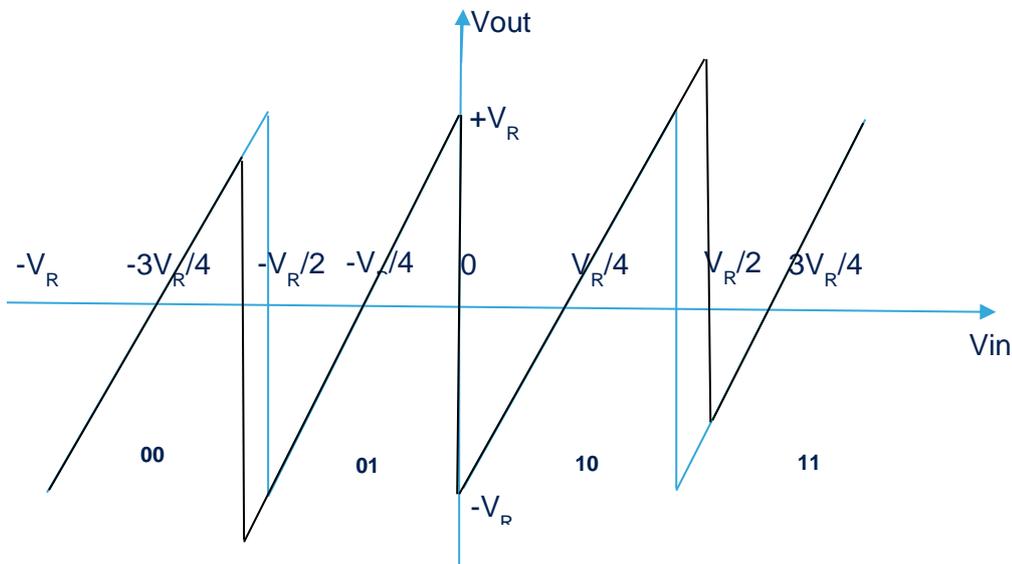
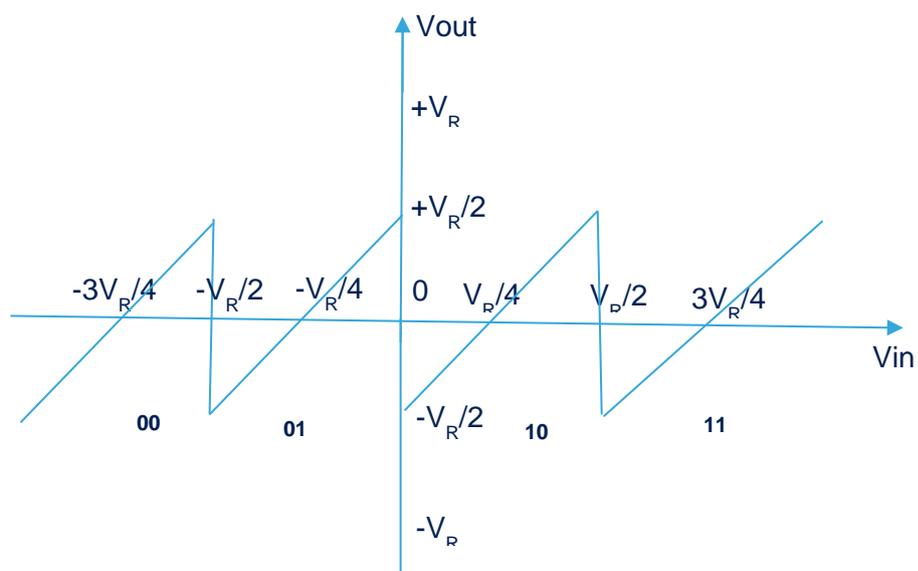


Fig. 3: Transfer function with errors in sub-ADC

Thus threshold errors lead to stage outputs that exceed the full-scale input to the subsequent stage. This will saturate the second stage and cause missing information. To eliminate this problem, one can increase the range of the second stage sub-ADC or equivalently reduce the inter-stage gain of the first stage to tolerate sub-ADC error.

When the inter stage gain is reduced to 2, the transfer function becomes as shown in Fig. 4.



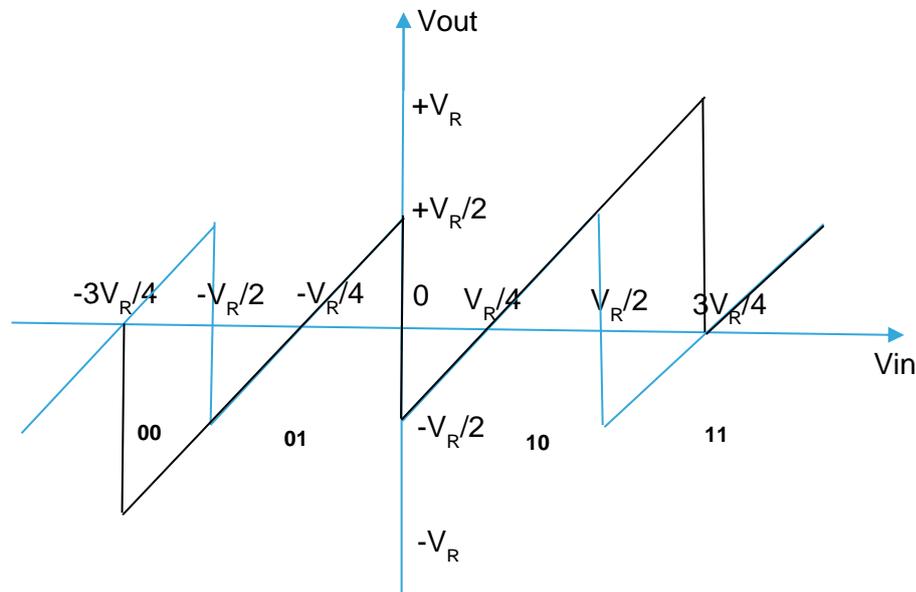


Fig.4: Transfer Function with Inter stage Gain of 2 and sub-ADC Error

This allows the sub-ADC error to be as large as  $V_R/4$  and the output is still in the input range of the following stage. However, when a sub-ADC error is present without digital correction, the error will appear in the final digital output. Now, assume the first stage is ideal, with a full scale input to the first stage, the output is only between  $-V_R/2$  &  $V_R/2$ , leaving an extra bit on top and bottom of the per-stage resolution. Digital correction simply utilizes the extra bit to correct the over ranging section from the previous stage.

For example, when one of the sub-ADC thresholds has an offset, the output of the first stage will exceed  $V_R/2$ . The second stage, sensing the over ranging, will increase the output by one LSB. This bit will cause the first stage output to increase by one LSB during the digital correction cycle. In the same way, when the output of the first stage drops below  $-V_R/2$ , the second stage will sense the over ranging and subtract one LSB during digital correction cycle. With this method, the sub-ADC error, as large as  $V_R/4$ , in the stage can be corrected by the following stage with digital correction( adding or subtracting a bit from the digital output depending on whether the error was an over or under range error).

Subtraction can be eliminated by adding 1/2-leastsignificant-bit (LSB) offsets in both the ADC and DAC. The ADSC offset uniformly shifts the location of the decision levels to the right by 1/2 LSB, and the DAC offset shifts the x axis of the plot up by 1/2 LSB. If the DAC and SHA are ideal and the inter stage gain is 2, the amplified residue (Fig. 5) remains within the conversion range of the next stage when the ADSC nonlinearity is between  $\pm 1/2$  LSB. Under these conditions, errors caused by the ADSC nonlinearity can be corrected, and the correction requires either no change or addition. This is true because the offset introduced into the ADSC shifts the decision levels to the right by 1/2 **LSB**, and if nonlinearity can shift them back to the left by no more than this amount, the digital output is always less than or equal to its ideal value.

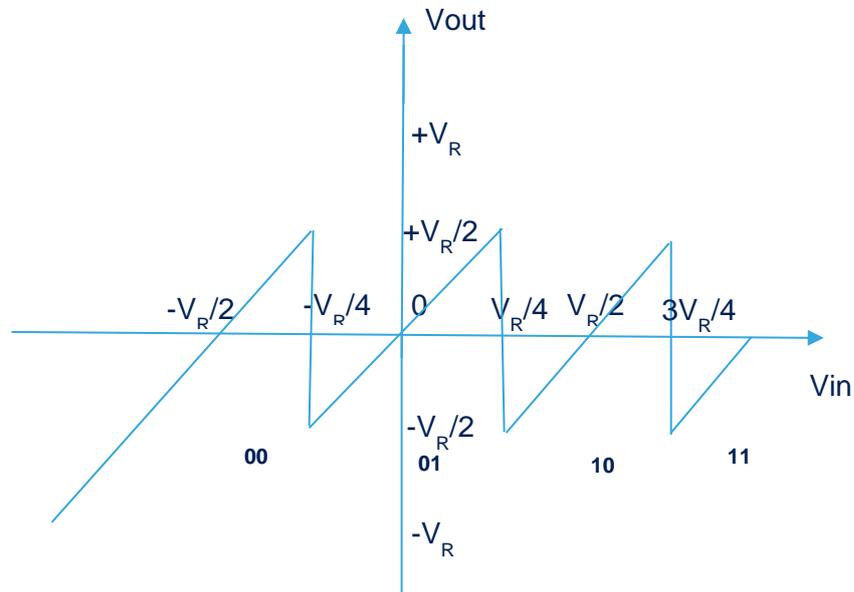


Fig.5:  $V_{ref}/4$  offset to eliminate digital subtraction

For error correction, each stage is required to only determine if an over/under range error has occurred, thus the comparator at  $3/4V_R$  can be eliminated, yielding the final transfer function shown in Fig. 6

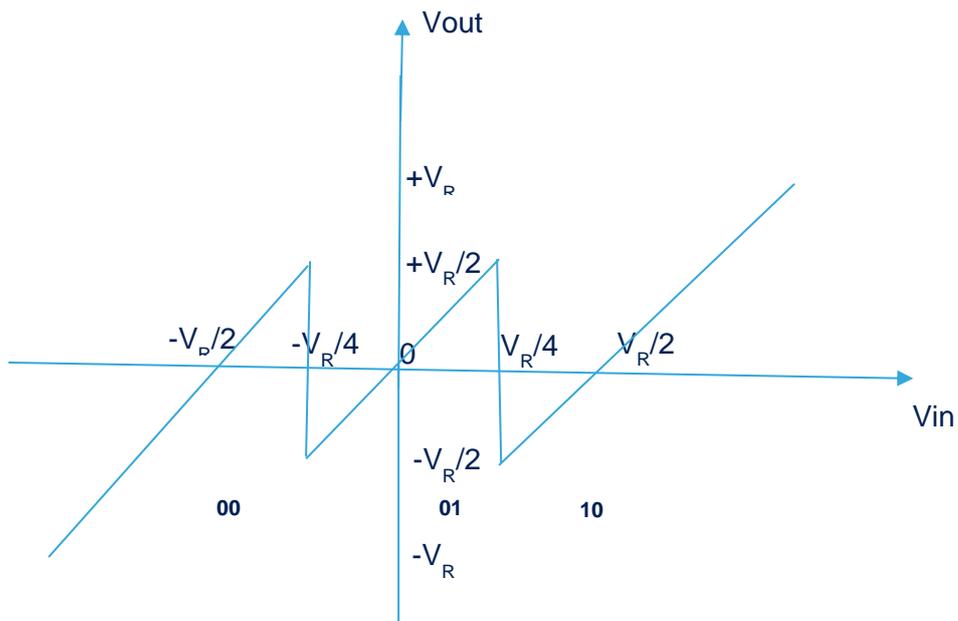


Fig. 6: 1.5bit/stage transfer function

With three unique digital outputs, the final transfer function is referred to as a **1.5 bit/stage architecture**.

## 1.5 BIT/STAGE PIPELINE ARCHITECTURE:

1.5 bit/stage architecture requires only two comparators in the ADSC of each stage, and the comparator offset up to  $\pm V_R/4$  can be tolerated without degradation of the overall linearity or SNR. This is illustrated with residue plots in Fig. 7. Input and output ranges of each stage are both  $\pm V_R$ . Fig. 7 shows ideal case with zero comparator offsets and also the shifted residue plot due to the comparator offset  $\Delta V$ . With the use of digital correction algorithm in 1.5 b/stage pipeline architecture, the overflow of present stage output from the input range of the following stage can be prevented even with the presence of a large comparator offset up to  $\pm V_R/4$ , so that this offset error amplified down the pipeline can be detected for correction.

This large error correction range can also eliminate the dedicated input SH circuit. Instead, the input signal can be sampled simultaneously by the switched capacitor amplifier and by the dynamic comparators of the flash A/D section in the first stage. This is made possible by the fact that digital correction allows comparator errors up to  $\pm V_R/4$  without degradation of linearity or SNR.

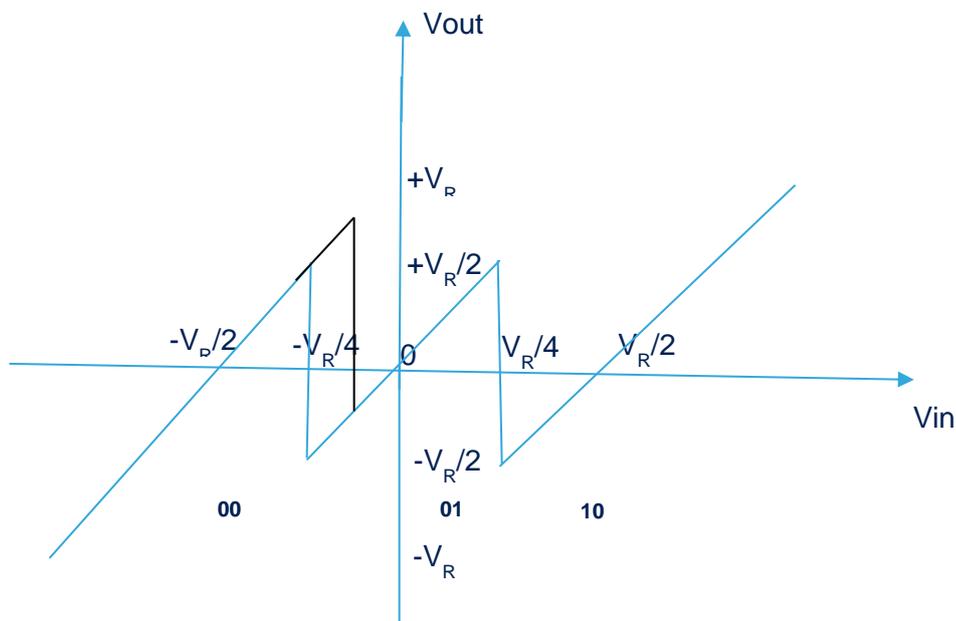
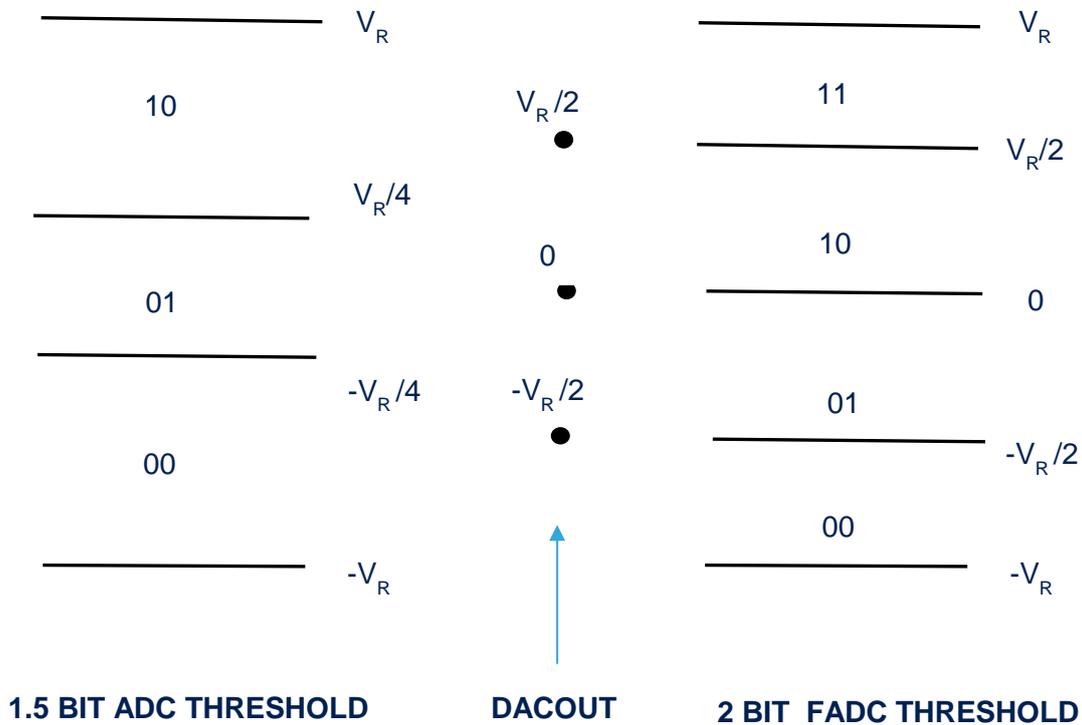


Fig.7 Residue curve with & without comparator offset  $\Delta V$

Let us discuss the operation of pipeline ADC considering a 3 bit ADC. A 3 bit ADC consists of one 1.5 bit ADC & one 2 bit FADC. The input range is  $\pm V_R$ . The 1.5 bit ADC (First stage ADC) have 2 decision levels ( $-V_R/4$  &  $V_R/4$ ) and 3 possible output codes, **00**, **01**, and **10**. The DACOUT is  $-V_R/2$ ,  $0$ ,  $V_R/2$  for DAC I/P **00**, **01** & **10** respectively. The Second Stage ADC (2 bit FADC) have 3 decision levels ( $-V_R/2$ ,  $0$  &  $V_R/2$ ) & 4 possible output codes **00**, **01**, **10** & **11**.

Assuming Input =  $-0.2V_R$ , The 1.5 bit ADC will provide o/p code **01**, The residue is  $2(VIN-DACOUT)$  which is equal to  $-0.4V_R$ , for this the FADC will provide o/p code **01**.

The final o/p =  $2(01) + 01$  = one bit left shift of the 1st stage O/P + 2<sup>nd</sup> stage O/P = **010** + **01** = **0101**



Consider a situation in which  $-V_R/4$  threshold is shifted to  $-V_R/4 + V_R/8$  due to offset of the comparator, Now for i/p of  $-0.2V_R$ , the 1.5 bit ADC will provide o/p code 00, The residue is  $2(-0.2V_R + 0.5V_R) = 0.6V_R$ , for this the FADC will provide O/P code 11.

The Final O/P =  $2(00) + 11 = 11$  i.e. the correct output, irrespective of the comparator offset as long as offset is less than  $1/2$  LSB of the stage resolution.

The implementation of each pipeline stage is shown in Fig. 8. Although a single-ended configuration is shown for simplicity, the actual implementation was fully differential. A common, switched-capacitor implementation was chosen, which operates on a two-phase clock.

During the first phase, the input signal is applied to the input of the sub-ADC, which has thresholds at  $V_R/4$  and  $-V_R/4$ . The input signal ranges from  $-V_R$  to  $V_R$  (differential). Simultaneously,  $V_i$  is applied to sampling capacitors  $C_s$  and  $C_f$ . At the end of the first clock phase,  $V_i$  is sampled across  $C_s$  and  $C_f$ , and the output of the sub-ADC is latched. During the second clock phase,  $C_f$  closes a negative feedback loop around the op-amp, while the top plate of  $C_s$  is switched to the digital-to-analog converter (DAC) output. This configuration generates the stage residue at  $V_o$ . For 1.5 bit per stage,  $C_s = C_f$

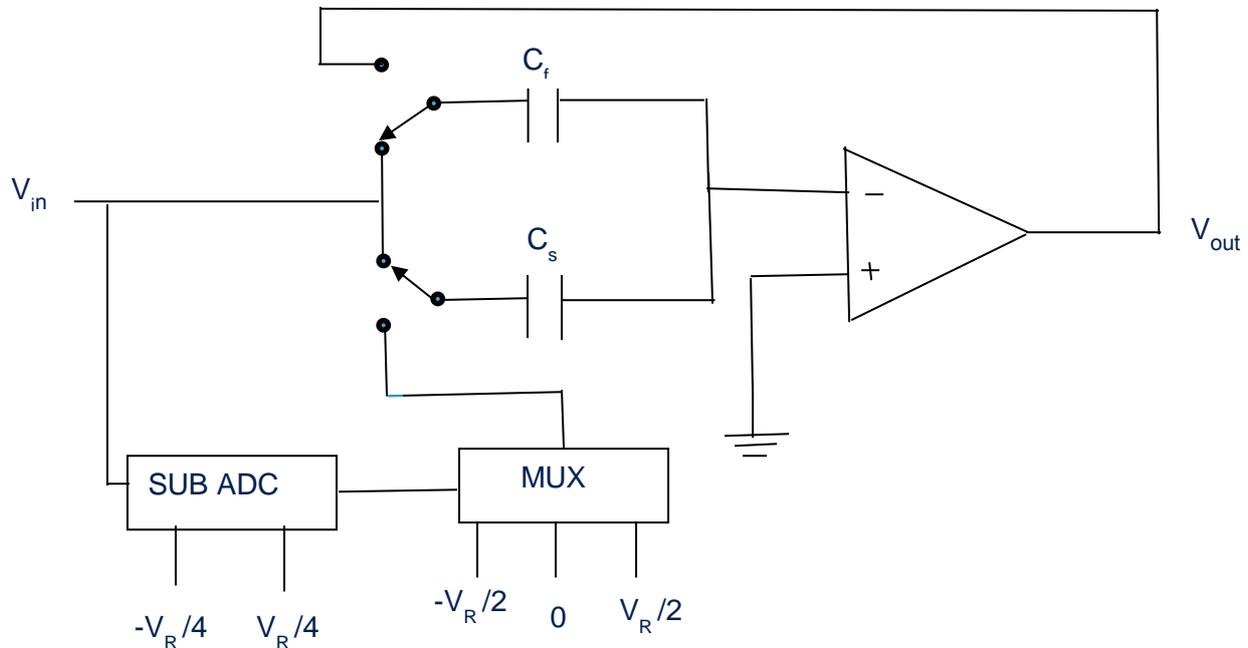


Fig. 8. Switched capacitor implementation of each pipeline stage

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_o &= 2V_{in} - V_R & \text{for } V_{in} > V_R/4 \\
 &= 2V_{in} & \text{for } -V_R/4 \leq V_{in} \leq V_R/4 \\
 &= 2V_{in} + V_R & \text{for } V_{in} < -V_R/4
 \end{aligned}$$

The D/A function is performed by two equal capacitors. When the input signal is applied, each stage samples and quantizes the signal to its per stage resolution of 1.5b (i.e.. 2 decision levels and 3 possible output codes, **00**, **01**, and **10** excluding **11**), subtracts the quantized analog voltage from the signal by connecting the bottom plate of capacitor  $C_s$  to **VDAC** ( $\pm V_R$  or **0**), and passes the residue to the next stage with amplification for finer conversion.

Approximate mathematical relations for the n-bit overall resolution, m.5 -bit inter-stage resolution pipeline ADC component are given by

Number of stages (1.5bit) = n-1

$$\begin{aligned}
 N_{\text{amplifier}} &= \frac{(n-2)}{m} \\
 N_{\text{comparator}} &= \frac{n(2^{m+1}-2)}{m}
 \end{aligned}$$

The above equation provides an approximation of the total number of MDAC amplifiers required for the  $n$ -bit  $m.5$  bit-per-stage ADC & total number of comparators required for all sub-ADCs. For a 10-bit 1.5-bit/stage ADC, eight amplifiers & 19 comparators are required.

A block diagram of a typical 10 bit pipeline  $A/D$  converter is shown in Fig. 9. It consists of a cascade of 9 identical stages in which each stage performs a coarse quantization, a  $D/A$  function on the quantization result, subtraction, and amplification of the remainder.

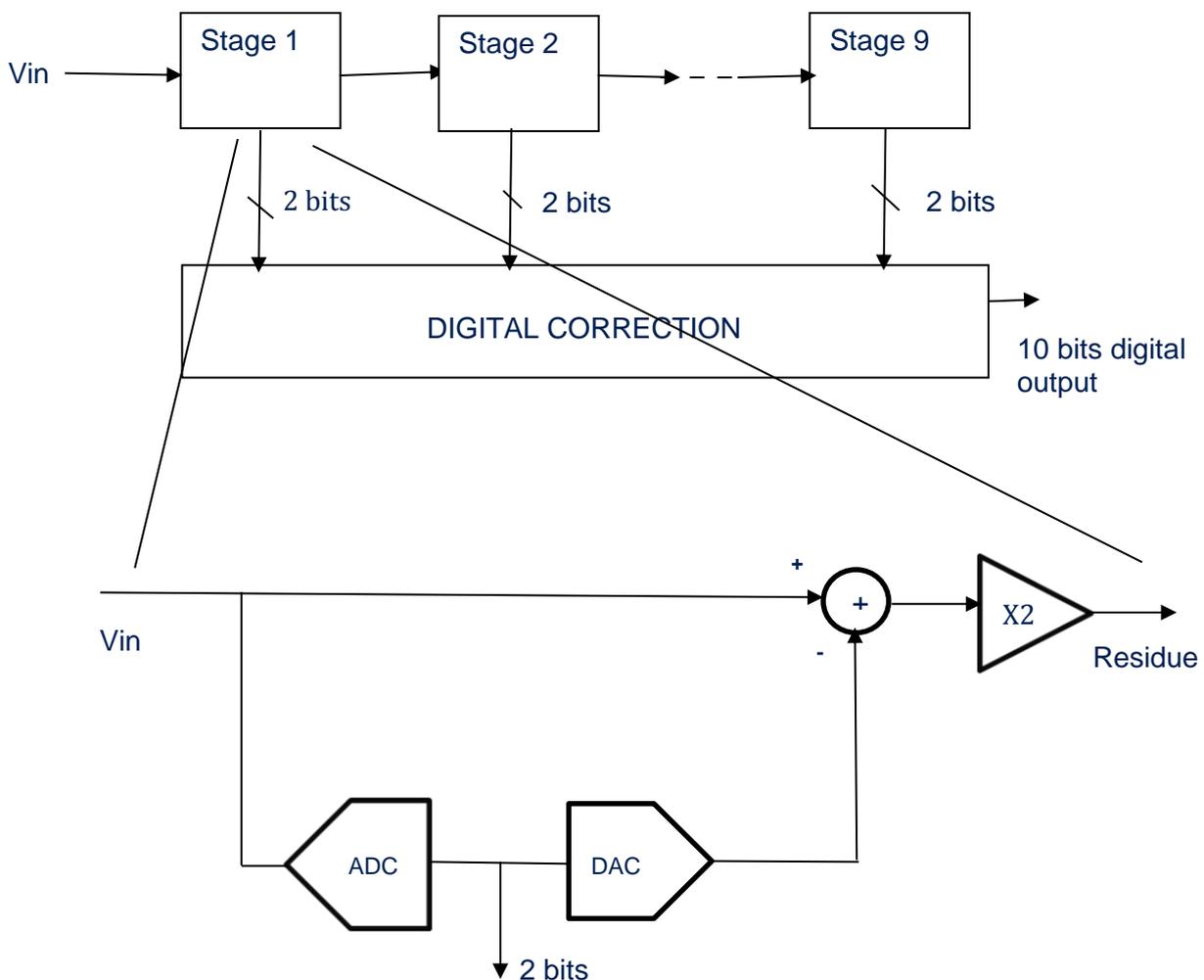


Fig. 9: Block diagram of 10 bit pipeline ADC

Each stage resolves two bits with a sub-ADC, subtracts this value from its input, and amplifies the resulting residue by a gain of two. The resulting 18 bits are combined with digital correction to yield ten bits at the output of the ADC.

The resolution of 1.5 b/stage is chosen in this pipeline implementation mainly for the following two reasons. The first reason is to maximize the bandwidth of the SH/Gain SC circuit which limits the overall conversion rate. In order to perform fast inter stage signal processing, the output of operational amplifier in the SC circuit has to settle in half the clock period to the given accuracy of each stage prior to the next stage sampling instance. Since the bandwidth of the SC inter stage amplifier depends on its inter stage gain, choosing the per-stage resolution which allows the low closed-loop gain configuration for fast settling is essential. With the resolution of 1.5 b/stage, the closed-loop gain of only 2 allows configuration for low load capacitance (composed of only two sampling capacitors of the next stage and input capacitance of two comparators in the flash A/D section) and large feedback factor (of about 1/3), and as a result a large inter stage amplifier bandwidth can be achieved compared to that of larger per-stage resolution (2-3 b/stage).

Also, the resolution of 1.5 b/stage allows large correction range for comparator offsets in the flash **A/D** section. Only two comparators are required in the flash **A/D** section of each stage, and the comparator offset up to  $\pm V_R/4$  can be tolerated without degradation of the overall linearity or SNR. 1.5 bit/stage facilitates the use of dynamic comparators with large input offset. However, it is not necessarily the optimal choice for power consumption primarily because of the higher amplifier count and higher proportion of amplifier consumption in comparison to the other blocks (eight amplifiers for a 10-bit 1.5-bit/stage ADC), and the fact that amplifier power consumption in switched capacitor circuits actually increases at reduced supply voltages. As the supply voltage is scaled down, the voltage available to represent the signal is reduced; therefore, dynamic range becomes an important issue. To maintain the same dynamic range on a lower supply voltage, the thermal noise in the circuit must also be proportionately reduced. There exists, however, a tradeoff between noise and power consumption. Because of this strong tradeoff, it will be shown that under certain conditions, the power consumption will actually increase as the supply voltage is decreased.

The power in the circuit is the static bias current times the voltage supply

$$P \propto I V_{dd}$$

If the OTA can be modeled as a single transistor, then the bias current is proportional to the transconductance times the gate overdrive

$$I \propto g_m (V_{gs} - V_t)$$

The closed-loop bandwidth of the circuit must be high enough to achieve the desired settling accuracy at the given sampling rate

$$\frac{g_m}{C} \propto f_s$$

The dynamic range (DR) is proportional to the signal swing squared over the sampled  $KT/C$  thermal noise.  $\alpha$  represents what fraction of the available voltage supply is being utilized

$$DR \propto \frac{(\alpha V_{dd})^2}{KT/C}$$

From these assumptions, it follows that for a given dynamic range and sampling rate, the power will be inversely proportional to the supply voltage. Furthermore, the power is inversely proportional to the square of fractional signal swing. To minimize power consumption, it is important to use circuits that maximize the available signal swing  $\alpha$

$$P \propto kT \cdot DR \cdot f_s \cdot \frac{(V_{gs} - V_t)}{\alpha^2 V_{dd}}$$

Also  $P \propto kT \cdot \frac{(SN_{thR})}{\alpha V_{dd}}$

For a given  $SN_{thR}$ , OTA power consumption is *inversely proportional* to supply voltage using the same CMOS technology. For a fixed  $SN_{thR}$ , power consumption increases for both larger geometry CMOS processes (due to lower MOS transistor transconductance parameter and higher device parasitics requiring more supply current) and smaller geometry CMOS technologies (due to lower operating supply voltages necessitating larger sampling capacitors in order to still meet desired  $SN_{thR}$  in spite of compromised input voltage swing)

The sampling ( $C_s$ ) and feedback capacitor ( $C_f$ ) sizes are determined by  $kT/C$  noise constraints. The input referred noise is given by:

$$V^2_{in,rms} = KT \cdot \frac{C_s + C_f + C_{opamp}}{(C_s + C_f)^2}$$

Where  $C_{opamp}$  is the input capacitance of the Op-Amp. The total noise will be four time (twice due to sampling & residue calculation, further twice due to differential architecture) of the above defined.

Higher inter-stage resolutions seems to reduce the power consumption for low-voltage ADCs, since the MDAC amplifier count is reduced, but With the resolution of 2.5 b/stage, the closed-loop gain of 4 requires higher load capacitance (composed of four sampling capacitors of the next stage and input capacitance of six comparators in the flash A/D section) and smaller feedback factor (of about 1/4), and as a result amplifier bandwidth is reduced to half as compared to 1.5bit/stage. In order to have same order of BW, OPAMP current will be increased by more than double. The unity gain frequency ( $f_u$ ) of opamp is related to  $f_s$ , feedback factor ( $\beta$ ) & N bit settling and It is described as follows:

$$f_u = \frac{(N \ln 2) f_s}{\beta \pi}$$

Where  $N \ln 2$  is the Number of time constants for N bit settling.

For 3.5-bit/stage resolution, comparators will need to be preceded by continuous time preamplifiers to reduce the effect of clock feed-through and switch charge injection on the signal and reference voltages. These preamplifiers are designed for low gain (<10) and comparable SR with the inter-stage amplifiers. For 3.5-bit/stage resolutions, auto-zeroing comparators are required to meet the higher accuracy requirements consuming more power.

One approach to reduce power dissipation is to **REDUCE THE CAPACITOR SIZES** as the stage number increases, since  $kT/C$  noise requirements become relaxed down the pipeline stages.

**Another** possible low-power approach is to reduce the number of amplifiers in a pipelined converter by **SHARING OF AMPLIFIER** across stages using double sampling. Since, there is no requirement to sample the amplifier offset when the input is sampled, as amplifier offset no longer cause linearity errors in the A/D converter. Instead, they simply cause an input-referred offset voltage. As a result, the amplifier is idle during sampling phase. Taking advantage of this, we can time-share the amplifier with the adjacent stage in the pipeline.

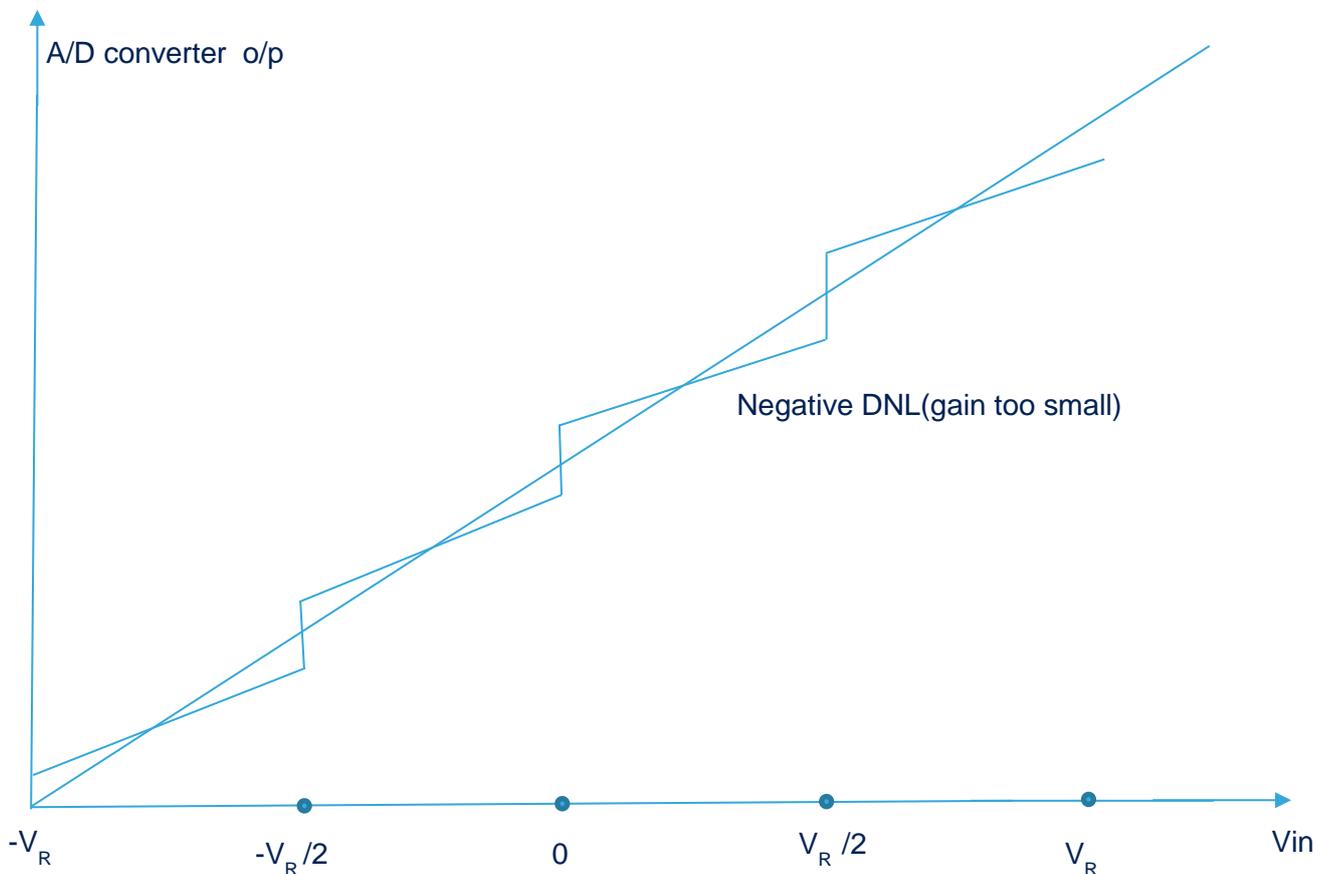
## Nonlinearities in Pipelined Analog to Digital Converters

Sub-ADC nonlinearities and op-amp offset can be compensated by digital error correction techniques and offset cancellation techniques, respectively. However, nonlinearity in the D/A sub converter and gain error in the inter-stage amplifier remain as the main contributors to the converter's overall nonlinearity.

To explain the effects of non-idealities on the pipelined A/D converter, we use a 2-b pipelined stage as an example and assume the following stages have infinite resolution. Fig.10 shows the input-output relationship and overall A/D conversion characteristic for an ideal 2-b pipelined stage.

The transition position is determined by the A/D sub-converter decision points, while the magnitude of the transition at each code boundary is determined by the D/A sub-converter and the gain of the inter-stage amplifier. The A/D sub-converter decision points are 0 and  $\pm V_R/2$  and the corresponding D/A sub-converter output levels are  $\pm V_R/4$  and  $\pm 3V_R/4$  respectively. The stage gain is 4.

Gain error in the inter-stage amplifier causes the output to be either larger or smaller than the conversion range of the following stage depending on whether the gain is larger or smaller, respectively, than the ideal gain. This results in positive DNL (**non-monotonicity**) in the case of positive gain error and negative DNL (**missing codes**) in the case of negative gain error. Fig. 10 shows the effect of the gain error on the pipelined input-output relationship and overall A/D conversion characteristic.



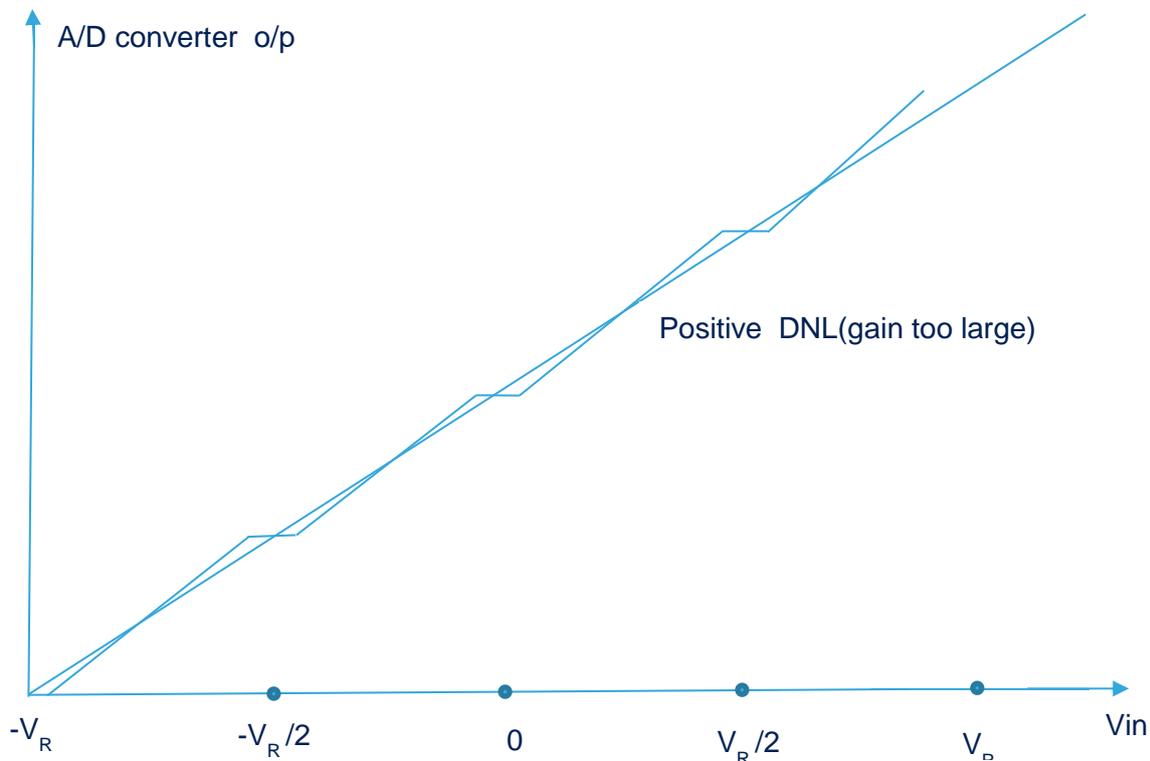


Fig. 10: Effects of inter-stage gain error.

For  $N$  bit linearity, the minimum required dc gain ( $A$ ) of the OPAMP should be greater than  $(2)^{N-1}$ . The opamp has to be stable with enough GM/PM at  $20 \log(1/\beta)$  not at 0dB. The available BW of the OPAMP is also at  $20 \log(1/\beta)$  gain frequency.

### Advantages & Limitations of the Pipeline ADC:

The main advantages of pipelined ADC's are that they can provide high throughput rates and occupy small die areas. Both advantages stem from the concurrent operation of the stages; that is, at any time, the first stage operates on the most recent sample while all other stages operate on residues from previous samples. The associated latency is not a limitation in many applications. The main limitation of the pipelined ADC is the power consumption. The main contributor of the power consumption is the opamp. The BW requirement increases with the increase in Speed ( $f_s$ ) & decrease in feedback factor ( $\beta$ ). In 1.5 bit per stage design for  $N$  bit ADC, feedback factor is  $1/2$ , and the number of amplifiers is  $N-2$ . If we choose 2.5 bit per stage architecture for  $N$  bit ADC, the number of amplifiers is less i.e.  $(N-2)/2$  but the feedback factor is now  $1/4$  so the BW requirement is doubled so current consumption is doubled. Also the number of comparators is increased. As a result no power advantage in increasing number of bits per stage.

Amplifier sharing between stages is one of the techniques to reduce the power consumption. Design of High gain  $(2)^{N-1}$  & High BW opamp with minimum power consumption is the most critical part of the pipelined ADC. When the resolution increases, the cap sizes increases due to thermal noise limitation, as a result cap load to opamp increases which results in more power required for OPAMP to achieve the performance.

### Conclusion:

The paper described about the Design of pipeline ADC starting from basic 2 bit per stage architecture with its limitations, reason for choosing 1.5 bit per stage, offset correction, concerns related to increase in number of bits per stage, noise calculations, OPAMP gain & BW requirements, techniques to reduce power consumption & its Nonlinearities.