

**A new offset cancellation
technique for temperature sensors
&
Design of 8-bit decimation filter
for biomedical applications**

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A Dissertation Submitted to
Indian Institute of Technology Hyderabad
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
The Degree of Master of Technology



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Department of Electrical Engineering

June, 2018

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This thesis entitled "A NEW OFFSET CANCELLATION TECHNIQUE FOR TEMPERATURE SENSORS & DESIGN OF 8-BIT DECIMATION FILTER FOR BIOMEDICAL APPLICATION" by HARSH SHAKRANI (EE16MTECH11022) is approved for the degree of Master of Technology from IIT Hyderabad.

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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my parents for giving me this life. I couldn't have achieved anything without their support and I am indebted to them all life. Next I would thank my guide Dr.Ashudeb Dutta for giving me an opportunity to do project under his guidance, supporting me throughout my M.Tech in getting good subject knowledge, providing many resources to learn. I would like to thank my senior Prakash Kumar lenka who guided me in my project and making me clear with many concepts. I take this opportunity to express my happiness for getting a caring Seniors like Pravanjan Patra, Indranil bhatacharjee, Murli Krishnan,Pankaj Kumar Jha & Narendra Nath Ghosh in IIT. Last but not the least I would like to thank my friends Indranil bhatacharjee and ekta prajapati for allowing me to share many happy and sad moments with them.

I thank IIT Hyderabad for giving me all facilities, Opportunities and resources for completing my Masters and helping for me to grow as Human.

Abstract

In our day to day life there are lot of things which we need to sense and then decide the course of action according to it. Many of these can be physically sensed easily, but the exact value of the sensed cannot be determined by human. There will be a lot of error in judged value and exact value. So instead of human sensing them and judging the exact value there are physical instruments which can provide lot more accurate value of sensed item than human, which are called SENSORS.

There are lot of different sensors for sensing different things and one of prominent one is temperature sensor. Temperature sensor plays an important role in many applications. For example, maintaining a specific temperature is essential for equipment used to fabricate medical drugs, heat liquids or clean other equipment. For application like these, the accuracy of detection can be critical.

The work done in this Thesis shows how to maintain the accuracy of temperature sensor. Temperature sensor used here is a Wheatstone bridge circuit consisting of two resistors and two thermistors. Mismatch between the resistors or thermistors will lead to incorrect detection of value, which is called OFFSET, therefore to maintain the accuracy the mismatch has to be minimized or removed. One of the Technique to minimize the offset and results pertaining to it has been displayed in this Thesis.

Technique described in this Thesis consist of first sensing the difference between resistors value, one being the reference resistor and other the on-chip resistor used in temperature sensing, second amplifying the difference of resistor value using OPAMP, third sending the amplified signal to single ended SAR ADC, which gives digital bits as output. And according to the digital output changing resistor value using resistor switching method. Thus then this resistor will be used in wheat stone bridge temperature sensing.

The work proposed here can increase or decrease on-chip resistor value depending on reference resistor. The wheat stone bridge Resistor can be changed by plus minus 5K ohms with respect to reference resistor.

This is a onetime calibration technique used before start of sensing temperature. After the resistor have been calibrated, these resistors are used in wheat stone bridge along with thermistor to sense temperature and the differential output obtained through wheat stone is

passed on to the dual ended SAR ADC, which gives digital representation of temperature sensed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction:

1.1 Temperature sensing

Temperature sensing is one of the most sensitive properties or parameters for industries like petrochemical, automotive, aerospace and defense, consumer electronics and so on. Temperature sensing in most cases is done to display the temperature of given system or to take control action after detecting temperature. For an example consider a system such as liquid measuring equipment. Temperature in this case, directly affects the volume measured. By taking temperature into account, the system can compensate for changing environment factors, enabling it to operate reliably and consistently. Temperature sensing is also used as a part of preventative reliability. For example, consider an appliance that may not actually perform any high temperature, due to the risk of overheating. Thus as temperature reaches a threshold of overheating, the system has to start taking preventive action such as cooling the system or partially/ totally shutting down the system, as per system requirement.

Thus accuracy of sensing temperature is an important task in all situation, because having even a small error may lead to disastrous situation. Error generated by system may be either because of sensing circuit or circuit which converts the sensed signal from one form(analog) to other (digital) form.

Here in this Thesis, error generated due to the sensing circuit is considered and way to resolve the error is proposed.

1.2 Sensing Element

The accurate measurement of temperature is vital across a broad spectrum of human activities, and also temperature is one of the key parameters which has to be measured precisely and accurately in industry, healthcare, aerospace etc. Thus important part of sensing circuit is sensor itself. Some of the sensors are thermocouple, RTD (Registered temperature detectors) and thermistors, and each one has some pros and cons.

Temperature sensor which is chosen is Thermistor. Thermistor are cheaply available sensors which work over very low temperature range. Though they have non-linear characteristics they are known for their sensitivity. Because of their tolerances, these devices can be replaced by a part of same type and still retain their accuracy. In other word they are interchangeable.

Modeling thermistor: Thermistor was modelled in cadence using Verilog-A model.

The general relation between temperature of a material having negative coefficient and its resistance is given by stein-hart equation.

$$\frac{1}{T} = A + B \ln(R) + C(\ln(R))^3$$

Where

- T is temperature in kelvin
- R is resistance at T temperature
- A, B and C are stein hart coefficient which vary according to type of Thermistor model.

The thermistor used here is governed by auxiliary stein hart equation given by

$$R = R_0 e^{B\left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0}\right)}$$

Where value of R0, B and T0 have been obtained from set of resistance and temperature value

- R0 = 69.2 K-ohm.
- B = 1078.1 deg-kelvin.
- T0 = 297.1304 kelvin.

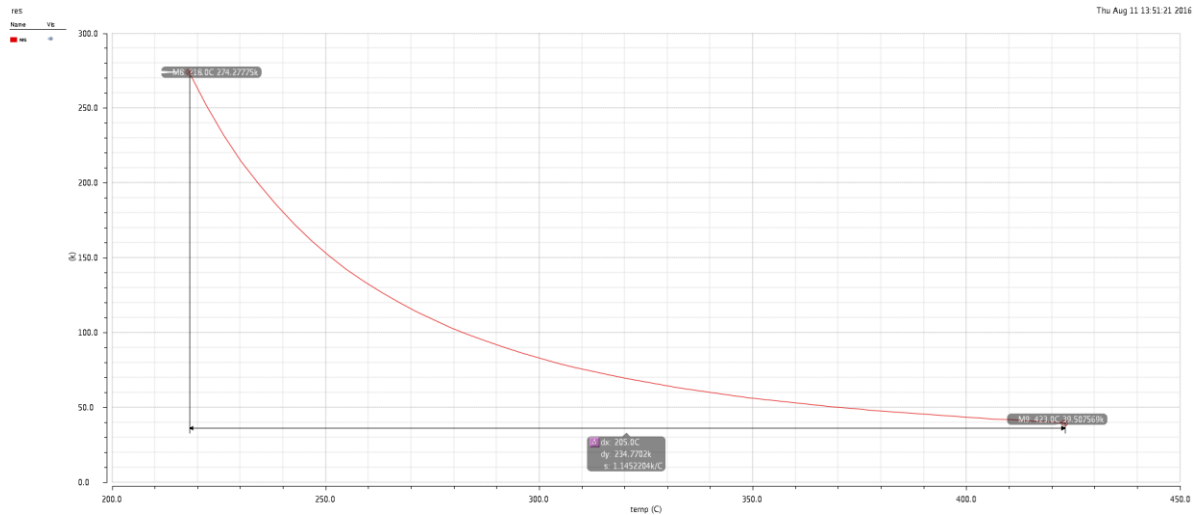


Figure 1.1 : Resistance VS temperature graph.

1.3 Sensing Circuit

Non-linear characteristics between resistance and temperature curve, leads us to that thermistor cannot be the only element in a temperature sensing circuit.

To obtain proper/accurate result with respect to temperature, the graph between resistance and temperature has to be a linear graph, thus there has to be a circuit which contains some other element along with thermistor as one of the elements to sense the temperature.

One of the circuits which can give accurate output is the Wheatstone bridge circuit, it consists of two thermistors and two resistors.

Wheatstone bridge is one of the widely used signal conditioning circuits for the resistance change to voltage change conversion. Wheatstone bridge illustrates the concept of a difference measurement, which can be extremely accurate.

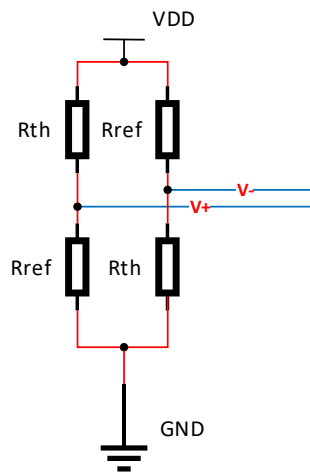


Figure 1.2 : Wheatstone bridge circuit.

The right choice of Wheatstone bridge Reference resistor helps in Linearizing the curve of resistor vs temperature. Figure 1.3 shows the formula used to obtain reference resistor value, figure also shows whole temperature sensing circuit with 20pF capacitor which will be used as load. And Fig 1.4 shows result of linearized curve between resistor and temperature after using Linearized resistor.

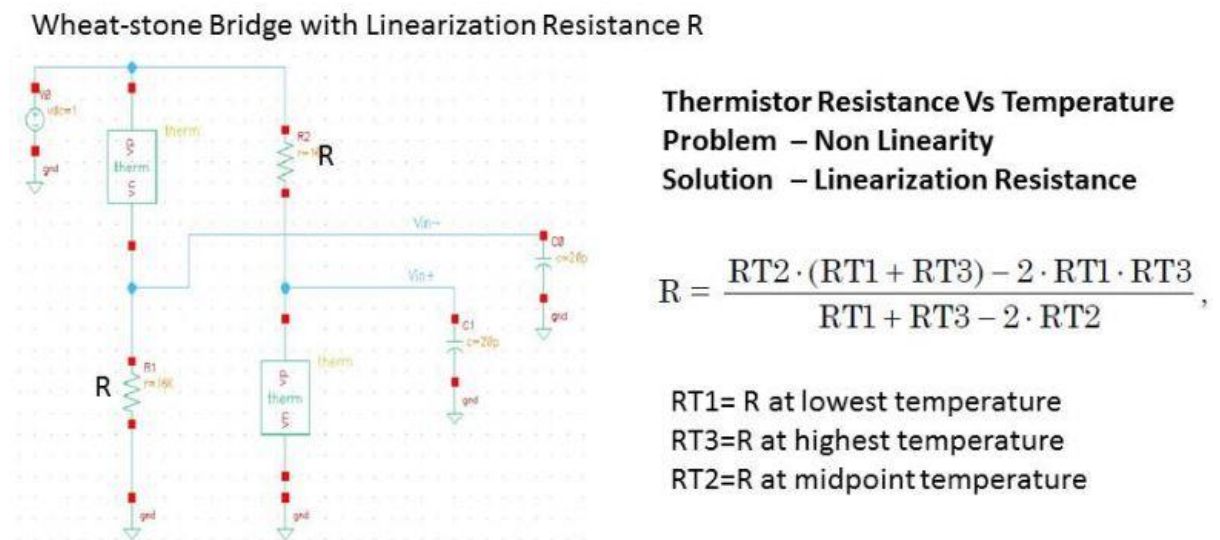


Figure 1.4: Wheatstone bridge with linearized resistor.

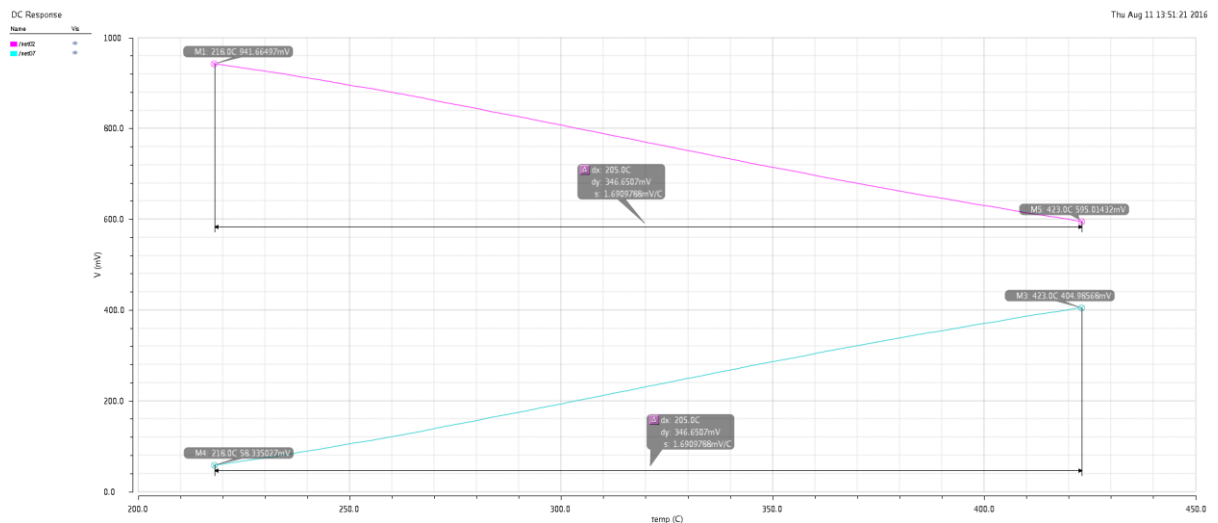


Figure 1.4: Resistance VS temp graph after using linearized resistor value.

1.4 SAR ADC

The differential output obtained from the Wheat stone bridge, which is in the form of analog signal has to be converted to digital form, and this is done using Analog to digital converter (ADC). Depending on specification of input and output signals, type of ADC is chosen. Here successive approximation register (SAR) is used. SAR ADC is used for low to medium speed and medium to high resolution applications.

SAR ADC executes conversion in multiple clock cycles, using the information of previously determined bits. Block diagram of SAR ADC consists of four main blocks: sample and hold circuit, comparator, DAC and SAR logic.

The Sample and hold circuit samples the input continuous Analog signal on the first cycle of the clock and then holds the same value for remaining clock cycles. The comparator compares the sampled and hold value with the reference voltage V_{ref} and displays the value according to it. SAR logic reconfigures itself after every cycle, according to the comparator output .

And according to SAR logic value the capacitor DAC value is reconfigured and then used as one of the input of the comparator.

SAR ADC input signal can be either single ended or fully differential ended. A fully differential ended input signal has several advantage over the single ended SAR ADC.

In fully differential ended SAR ADC the two inputs are 180° out of phase and difference in voltage signal is considered. Due to this the dynamic range of has doubled and thus leading to doubling of V_{LSB} , which indirectly leads to less constraint on design of comparator. While in the single ended SAR ADC signals are referred with respect to ground. Thus leading to less dynamic range because of DC offset and noise through the channel. While in fully differentially ended SAR ADC the noise gets cancelled because of differential ended structure. Another advantage of over single ended input is that it reduces the effect of charge injection caused by parasitic capacitor, hence precision improves.

[Temperature sensor was designed by previous student, the next defines my work and above this line the work was done by other person].

1.5 Offset Cancellation

Offset is an undesirable voltage obtained in many circuitry, its obtained due to mismatch of elements in the circuits. It is generally measured by shorting the input and checking the value at the output. Thus the signal will ride on DC plus offset value. Although these voltage value will be very small but will have a considerable effect in many circuits. And in temperature sensing even a small change in voltage level read or any offset present can have considerable damage caused.

Offset in Wheatstone bridge circuit will be present because of mismatch of elements. Thus mismatch can be present because of resistors mismatch or mismatch present because of thermistor. This thesis presents a way in which, mismatch between resistors can reduced.

Here the difference between the resistor is sensed and then the sensed signal is then passed through the amplifier to get the amplified value. This amplified signal is then digitised using single ended input SAR ADC. And according to the digital bits the resistors value is changed or adjusted.

Figure 1.6 shows architectural level block diagram of temperature sensor circuit along with SAR ADC and Offset cancellation block.

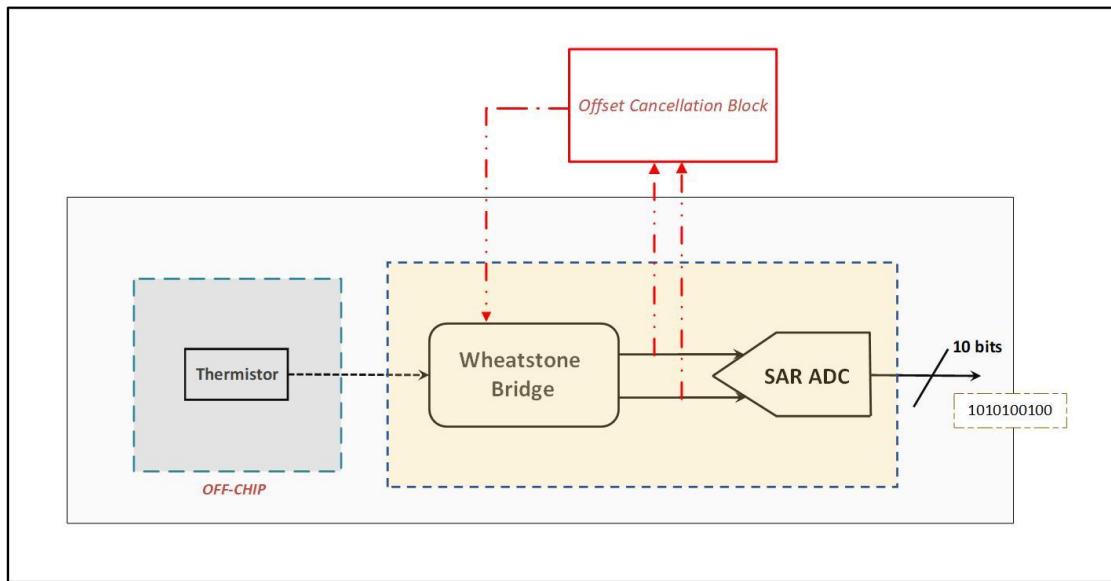


Fig 1.6 : block diagram of temperature ckt along with offset cancellation.

Chapter 2

Offset cancellation Technique

Offset in Wheatstone bridge circuit will be present because of mismatch of elements. Elements present are resistor and thermistor. Thus offset will be present because of resistors mismatch or mismatch present because of thermistor. This thesis presents a way in which, mismatch between resistors can be reduced.

2.1 Offset cancellation block

Figure 2.1 shows block diagram of technique used for cancelling the offset. Here the difference between the resistor is sensed and then the sensed signal (V_+ minus V_-) is then passed through the amplifier with gain of A_v to get the amplified value at the output of amplifier.

$$V_o(\text{amplifier}) = A_v * (V_+ - V_-)$$

The signal is amplified so that it can be easily digitised by SAR ADC with good resolution. This amplified signal is then digitised using single ended input SAR ADC. And according to the digital bits the resistor R_1 value is increased or decreased, so that the final value is equal to R_{ref} resistor.

The changed resistor R_{11} , which is equal to R_{ref} is then used in Wheatstone bridge along with the thermistor for temperature sensing. Then Wheatstone bridge gives differential output, the output obtained will not contain any offset value because of the mismatch of resistors and then this differential output is then passed on to the Fully differential ended SAR ADC. ADC's output is in discretised form which is then used for required purpose.

The SAR ADC used in offset cancellation is a single ended SAR ADC unlike the ADC which uses differential ended in main temperature sensing block.

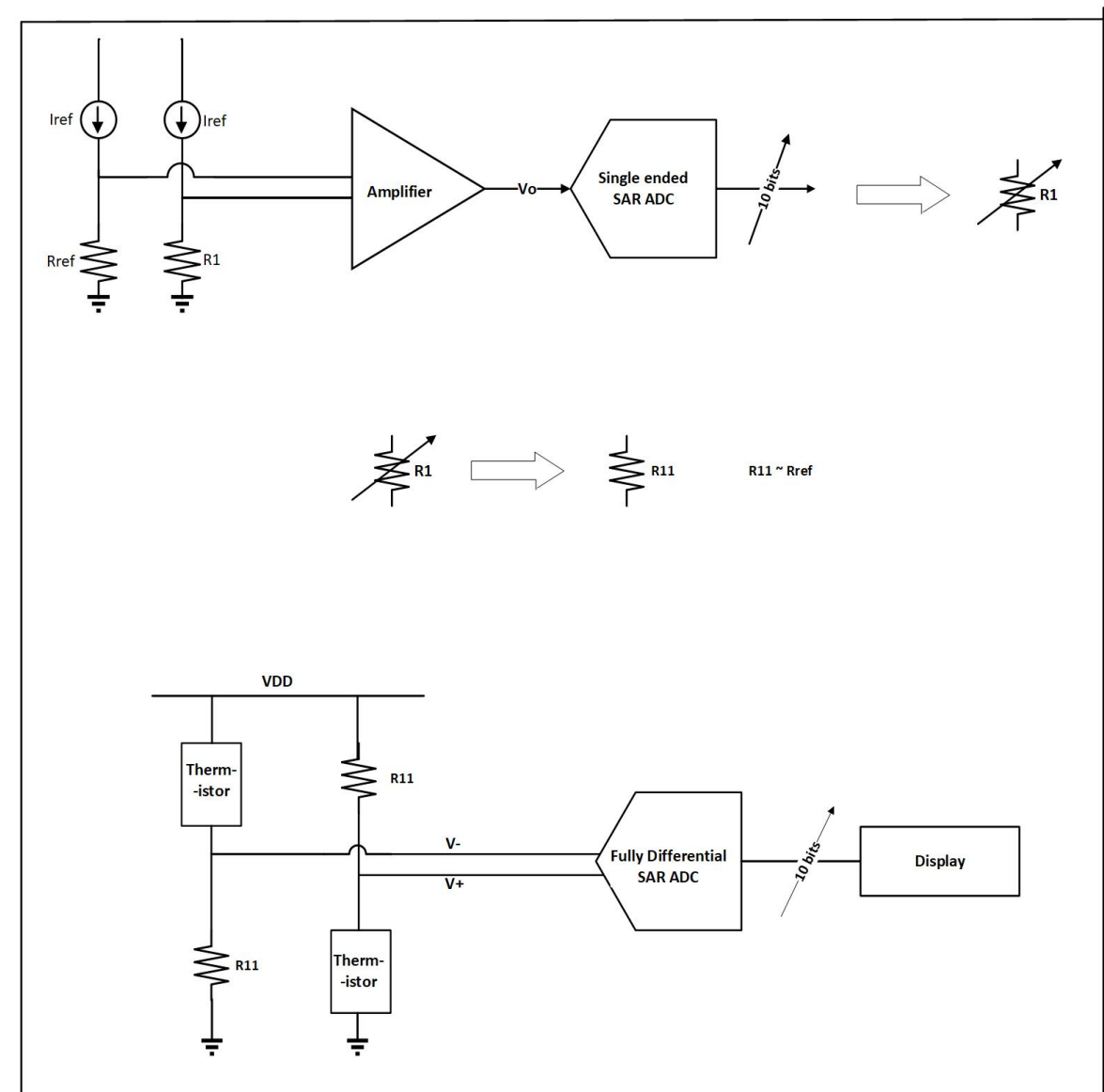


Figure 2.1: Offset cancellation block

2.2 Sensing Resistor mismatch

Resistor is not a physical quantity like current and voltage which can be measured easily. The resistor value has to be converted to these physical quantities which can be measured. Thus two different resistors are given same current sources and voltage across the resistor is measured, therefore difference in their resistor is converted to difference in voltages.

To complete the sensing circuit the difference in voltage produced by the resistor is stored in capacitor.

Figure 2.2 shows sensing of mismatch resistor, it consists of two resistors R_{ref} and $R1$ and same current I_{ref} given to both the resistors and difference in voltage than stored on to the capacitor CC .

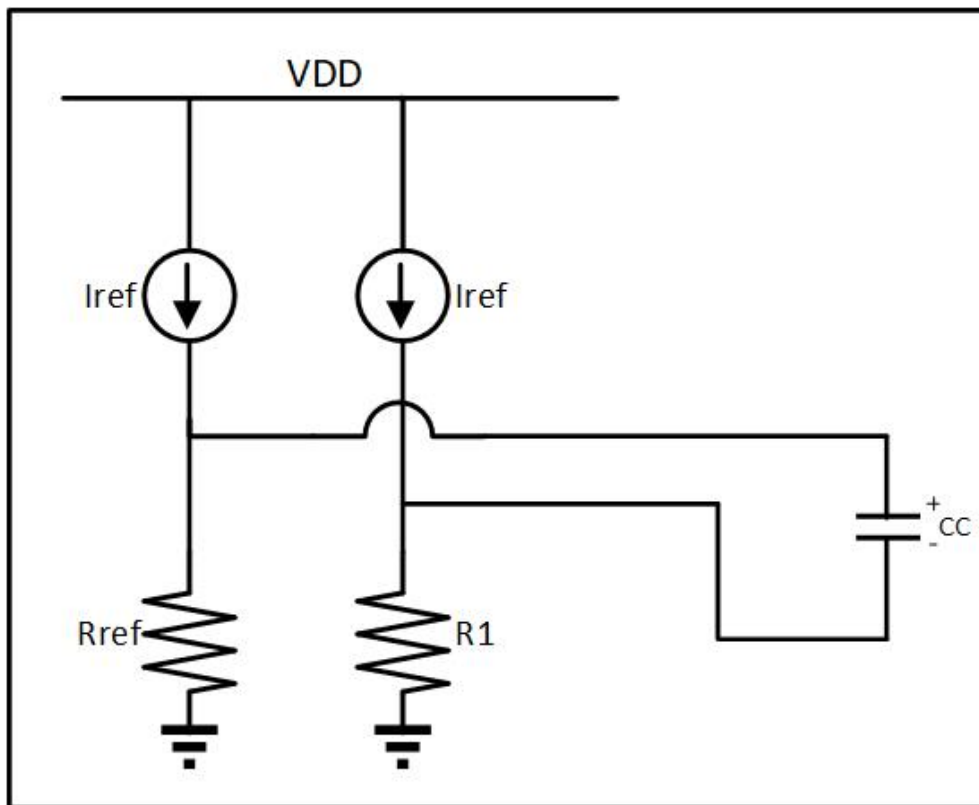


Figure 2.2: Resistor mismatch sensing circuit.

The R_{ref} resistor is an Off-chip reference resistor, of predetermined value. This value is chosen with respect to Thermistor $R0$ value, its value is chosen such that it linearizes the curve between resistor and temperature. The $R1$ resistor is an on- chip resistor, whose value has to adjusted to that of R_{ref} resistor present off-chip, so as to obtain linear curve between resistor and temperature.

I_{ref} current source and supply voltage VDD has to be supply and temperature independent source, so there won't be any error produced by current source and total error produced is only due to resistor mismatch.

2.3 Amplifying the sensed signal.

The sensed signal which is stored in capacitor CC as shown in fig 2.2 has to be amplified, such that the signal can be easily be discretised by SAR ADC and it obtains a good resolution. The amplifier gain has to be decided on the basis of maximum range of resistor difference which can be present between R_{ref} and R1 resistors and it also depends on gain of amplifier, this constraint is decided by the designer. The formula for the maximum value of resistor is shown below.

$$\frac{VDD - VEE}{R1(max) - Rref} = Gain$$
$$\frac{VDD - VEE}{Gain} + Ref = R1(max)$$

Where

- VDD and VEE are rail to rail voltage railing between which amplifier can operate. In this case it is from 1v to 0v respectively.
- R_{ref} is the reference resistor which is an off chip resistor.
- Gain is the amplifier gain (A_v).
- R1 is a variable resistor whose maximum value can go up to $R1_{max}$, this value depends upon the value of amplifier gain (A_v), and its value is chosen such that the output of amplifier just saturates, that is it reaches VDD or VEE.

By using above formula where V_{DD} and V is equal to 1v and 0v, and the current source of 1u A with respect to fig 2.2 if chosen, and gain of amplifier is 100, we can vary upto plus and minus 5K ohms of R1 resistor with respect to R_{ref} resistor.

The amplifier chosen here is an Operational amplifier (Op-amp) whose gain is considered to be very high, and has negative feedback present. Since Op-amp has high

gain and has negative feedback present the gain of amplifier is roughly equal to the inverse of feedback factor ($1/\beta$), where β is feedback factor.

As shown in fig 2.3 the capacitor CC which had stored the difference of resistors R_{ref} and $R1$ in terms of voltage is directly connected to the Op-amp with the gain of A_v , the output obtained won't be equal to $A_v * V_{cc}$, where V_{cc} is the voltage stored in capacitor CC.

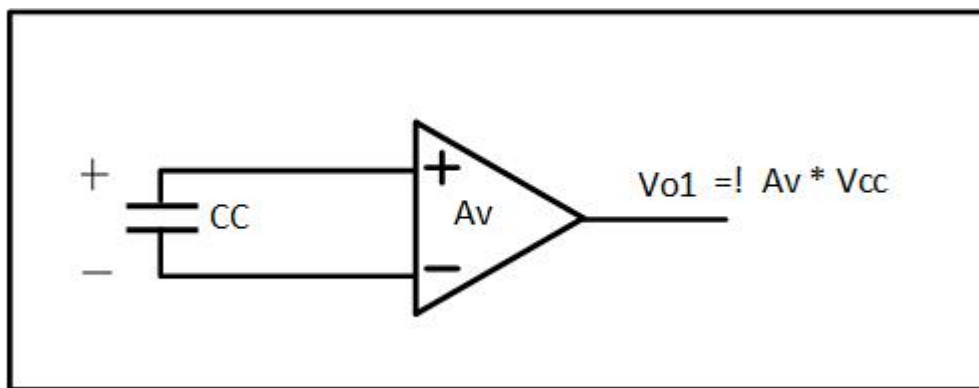


Fig 2.3: Capacitor CC directly connected to op-amp.

The actual value obtained at the output of op-amp will be $V_{o1} = A_v * (V_{cc} + V_{offset})$, as shown in fig 2.4. This V_{offset} is an offset present because of mismatch of circuit in Op-amp.

This offset cannot easily be removed by adding extra circuitry, thus this offset will be present in Op-amp. The extra unwanted voltage present at the output ($A_v * V_{offset}$) will lead to inaccurate value at the output of SAR ADC, thus leading to display of wrong temperature value.

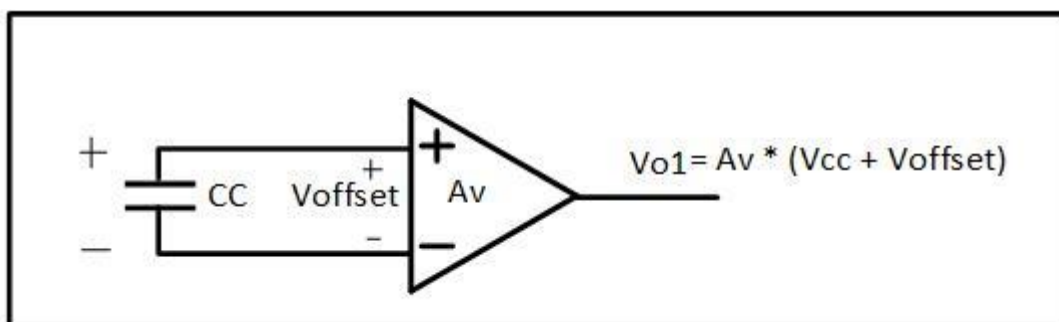


Fig 2.4: CC connected and V-offset taken into consideration.

A mechanism has to be considered which removes this offset present in op-amp. There are few techniques present which can remove the offset present and one the technique which has be used in this thesis is using switching. This technique is considered in detail in next section.

Offset less Op-amp

Offset present in the input of Op-amp gets multiplied the gain of op-amp and produces the in inaccurate value at the output of Op-amp. The Technique which is presented in this thesis is shown in fig 2.5 and fig 2.6.

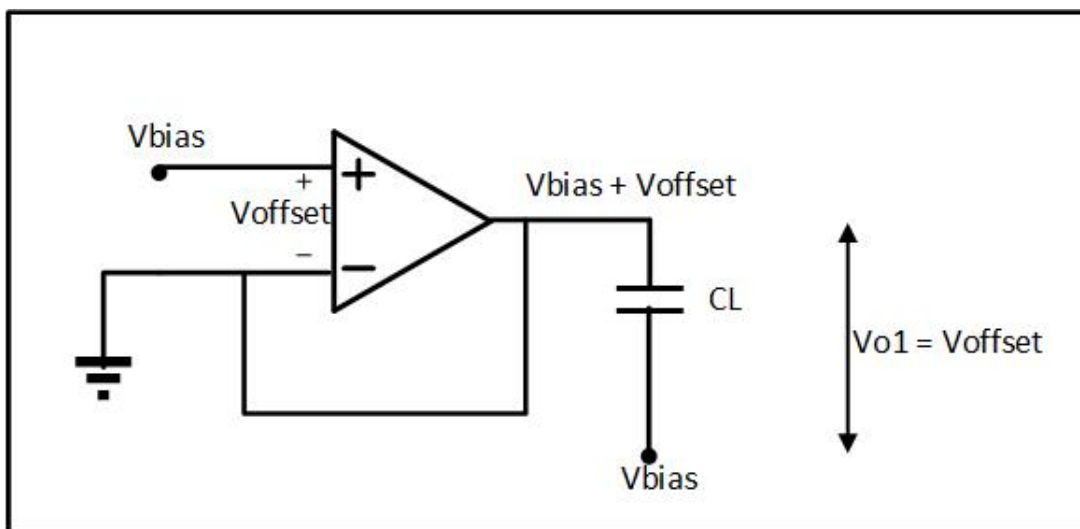


Fig 2.5: step 1 – offset voltage stored on capacitor C_L .

The technique used in this thesis consist of two major steps.

First step: is shown in fig 2.5. Here the high gain Op-amp is used in Unity gain negative feedback configuration.

The Bias voltage is applied to the Positive terminal of op-amp, this voltage is used for DC biasing the Op-amp. Because of negative feedback the virtual short concept applies and the negative terminal of op-amp will also be biased at V_{bias} voltage.

One terminal of output capacitor C_L is connected to output of op-amp, while other terminal of op-amp is connected to V_{bias} voltage.

Thus the voltage stored across capacitor CL is V_{offset} .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Voltage across capacitor CL} &= V_{bias} + V_{offset} - V_{bias} \\ &= V_{offset} \end{aligned}$$

Now this capacitor has to be connected to input in such a way that the offset of op-amp gets subtracted. The technique is shown in step 2.

Second step: In this step the voltage produced in the previous step on to the capacitor has to be used in such a way that the offset voltage gets removed. The technique to remove is shown in fig 2.6.

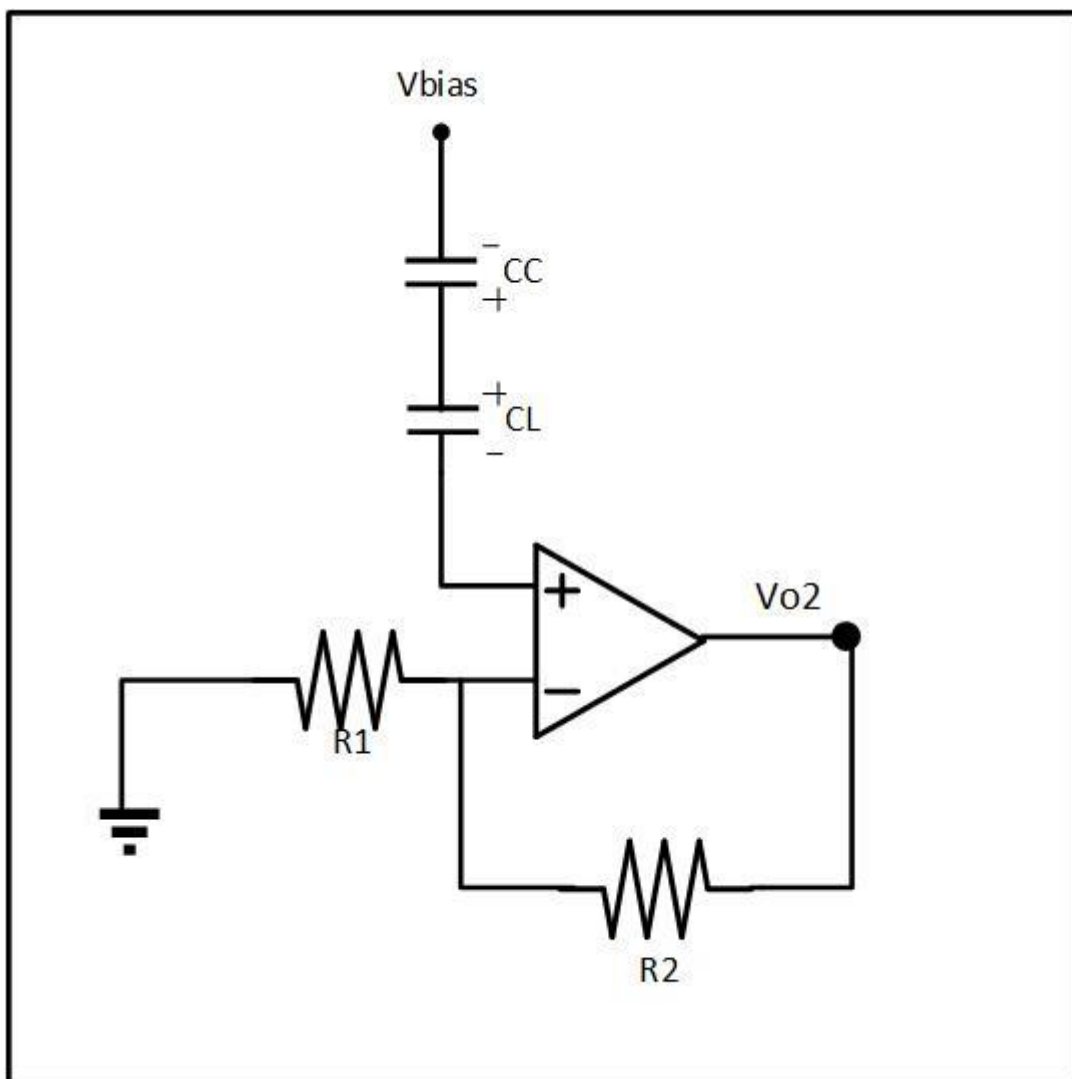


Fig 2.6: step 2 – op-amp connected as Non inverting configuration, with Capacitor CC and CL connected in such a way that offset gets cancelled, and Voltage stored in capacitor CC gets amplified.

In this step op-amp is used in non-inverting configuration with negative feedback. The capacitor CC and CL are connected as shown in fig 2.6. The voltage at the output of op-amp is given as

$$V_{o2} = A_v * V_+$$

$$V_{o2} = (1 + R2/R1) * V_+$$

The op-amp here is a high gain op-amp therefore the gain is inverse of feedback factor. While positive terminal is given as

$$V_+ = V_{bias} + V_{cc} - V_{cl} + V_{offset}$$

$$V_+ = V_{bias} + V_{cc} - V_{offset} + V_{offset}$$

$$V_+ = V_{bias} + V_{cc}$$

Where V_+ consist of both ac and dc signal, although here V_{bias} and V_{cc} are Dc quantities. The output step 2 of op-amp V_{o2} is given as

$$V_{o2} = (1 + R2/R1) * V_{cc} + V_{bias}$$

V_{o2} signal is running on V_{bias} voltage.

Output from step 2 does not consist of V-bias term, and output totally depends on the gain and V_{cc} value, indirectly it depends on difference between resistors value.

If the difference between R_{ref} and R1 resistor is positive, then the output of op-amp is above V_{bias} voltage and if difference is negative then output value is below V_{bias} voltage. The signal gets saturated to VDD or VEE respectively if R1 is above $R1_{max}$ and R1 is below $R1_{min}$.

2.4 Combining Resistor mismatch circuit and op-amp circuit.

The total switching circuit diagram between resistor sensing and op-amp offset cancellation is shown in fig 2.7. The whole system shown in fig 2.7 works on two steps, first step is when switches which are controlled by V1 are ON and second when switches which are controlled by V2 are ON. V1 and V2 are non-overlapping signal with predefined period. Output of this circuitry is the output of op-amp.

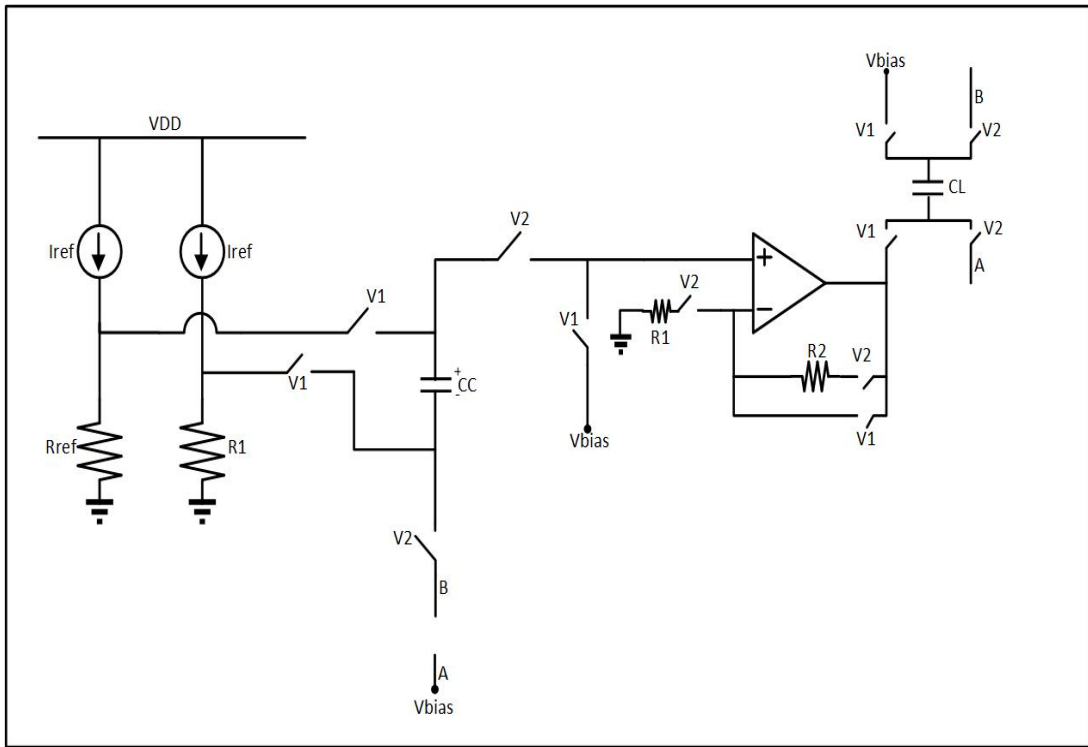


Fig 2.7: Switching circuitry between resistor sensing circuit and Op-amp cancellation technique.

Step 1: V1 signal is high and V2 is low, during this the voltage difference created by resistor mismatch is sensed onto the capacitor CC and op-amp acts like a buffer, similar to one shown in fig 2.5. The output voltage stored across capacitor CL will be equal to V_{offset} . Step 1 is shown in fig 2.8.

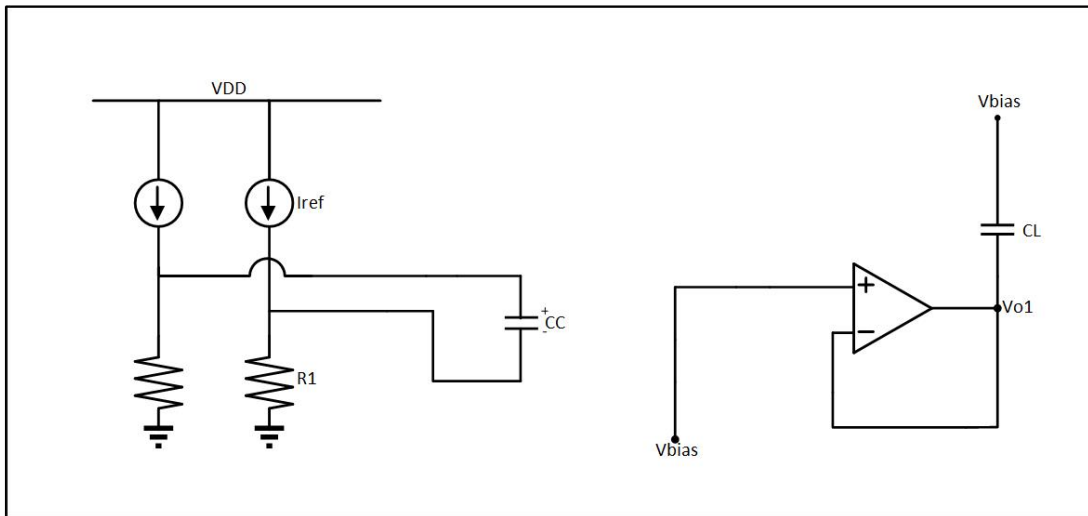


Fig 2.8: switches with V1 is closed and with V2 is opened.

Step 2: In this step V2 voltage is high, thus switches with V2 are closed and V1 is low and switches with V1 are opened. Due to this the resistor mismatch circuitry gets detached and previously voltage stored onto the capacitor CC remains on to it.

Op-amp in this step works in Non inverting configuration with negative feedback present. The offset voltage which got stored onto the capacitor CL in previous step is now switched to the input of non-inverting of op-amp in the fashion shown in fig 2.9. This circuitry is similar to the one shown in fig 2.6. Thus, due to the configuration of circuit the voltage present at the output of Op-amp will only amplify the voltage stored on capacitor CC. The offset of Op-amp is cancelled.

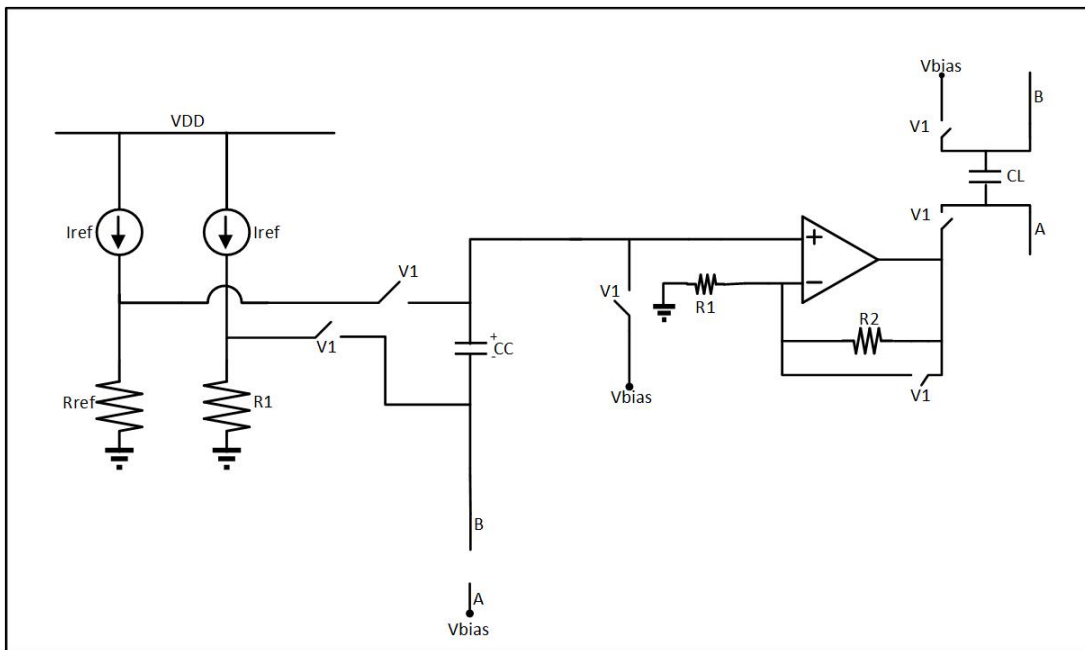


Fig 2.9: Switches with V1 open and V2 closed.

The output voltage is then passed on to the SAR ADC, which discretises the output according to it, and finally output is in digital form(bits).

Chapter 3

SAR

3.1 Analog to digital conversion.

To reconfigure the resistor value, resistors value has to be increased or decreased. Increasing or decreasing the resistor value can be done by adding resistor in series or add them in parallel. Number of resistors to be added in parallel or in series can be controlled by using digital signal. Now depending upon the value of the op-amp output the number of resistors to be added changes, therefore there has to be some conversion mechanism present which will change the Analog to digital signal, so as to decide no of resistor present, thus we use ADC.

There are many type of ADC present and depending upon the configuration of signal and conversion, ADC type is decided. Since here the signal conversion need not be applied at high rate, therefore SAR ADC is best suited for this circuit.

3.2 Successive Approximation ADC Algorithm.

Successive Approximation algorithm takes N cycle to complete the conversion, if ADC is of N bits. In this algorithm the input is first compared with V_{mid} value, where V_{mid} is mid value or avg value of V_{max} and V_{min} (V_{max} and V_{min} are maximum and minimum saturate value an ADC can detect, here in the first case V_{max} is VDD and V_{min} is GND). Then according to that the next V_{max} and V_{min} is decided.

Consider if V_{in} is greater than V_{mid} , than the next V_{max} is VDD and V_{min} is V_{mid} and V_{mid} is Avg of V_{max} and V_{min} . And V_{in} is than compared with new V_{min} and according to it next V_{mid} is decided. This cycle repeats its self N cycles, and every cycle sets each particular bit value according to the comparator output being one or zero.

Figure 3.1 shows an example of a 5-bit quantization of input 6.2 using binary successive approximation search. The solid black lines represent the mid decision level of the current search range and the solid red line indicates the location of the input level. In the beginning of the process, the search range is from 0 to 31.

$$LSB = \frac{\text{Full scale range } dy}{\text{no of quantization level}} = \frac{32}{32} = 1$$

During the first comparison, V_{in} (equal to 6.2) is compared with the mid-full-scale level of the initial search range. Since 6.2 is less than 16, the ADC outputs a '0' and the search range becomes the lower half of the previous search range. The search process continues for a total of five clock cycles to produce the final binary output equal to 00110. The last search reduces the range of uncertainty to one LSB, resulting in quantization error within $\pm 0.5LSB$.

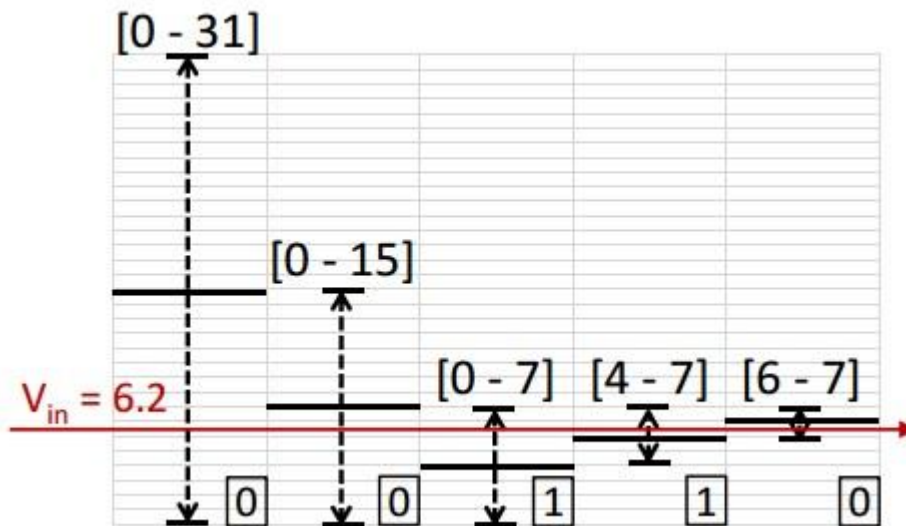


Figure 3.1: An Example of binary search using successive approximation algorithm.

3.3 SAR BLOCK

Multiple clock cycles are needed to executes SAR conversion, and each bit is evaluated using previously determined bits. The block diagram of SAR logic is shown in fig 3.2. It consists of four main block blocks, Sample and hold circuitry, Comparator, SAR logic block and Capacitor DAC.

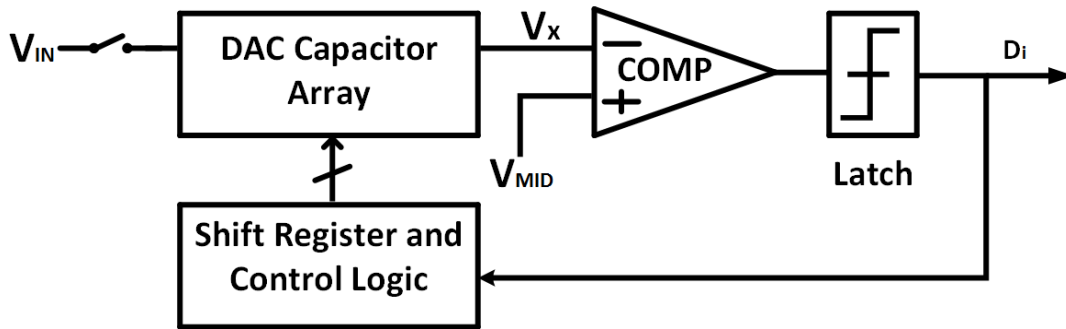


Fig 3.1: SAR ADC structure.

The sample and hold circuitry samples the input value in first clock cycle and holds the same value for remaining cycle of conversion.

Comparator compares V_{hold} and V_{dac} value every clock cycle and gives the necessary output according to it. The comparator output is then given to SAR control logic and SAR logic reconfigures the particular bit at particular clock cycle, thus giving perfect output at the end of conversion.

DAC of SAR ADC can be implemented in many ways (R-2R, capacitor, sterling or hybrid R – C method). For fast conversion of signal in SAR ADC using MOS technology, using R-2R technique is not the perfect method to do conversion. The reason is that the proper sheet resistance value is not available in single technology and this approach requires proper ratio of ON resistance value in MOS switches over a wide range.

The best way of implementing DAC for this process is by using capacitor array scheme. It merges both the sample and hold mechanism along with conversion process. The subtraction of input voltage with Capacitor DAC voltage is done by capacitor in charge domain.

Compared to conventional R-2R method, Capacitor arrays are easily fabricated and produces less mismatch error than that of conventional R-2R method. And also capacitor array saves power by using charge distribution method.

3.4 Working of capacitor DAC

The conventional single ended SAR ADC consists of N-bit binary weighted capacitor DAC, ranging from 2^0 to 2^{N-1} (Where N is Number of bits in ADC). It also consists of a Comparator and SAR control logic. Figure 3.3 shows single ended SAR ADC along with Binary weighted capacitor DAC.

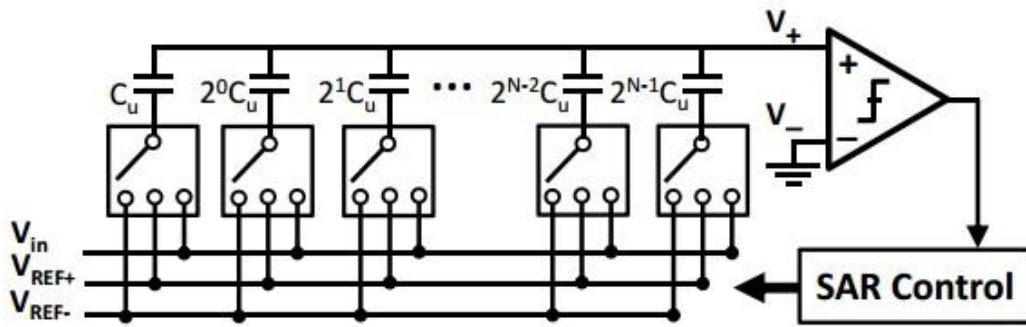


Fig 3.4: Single ended SAR ADC.

As shown in fig 3.4 the bottom plate of capacitor can be connected to either V_{in} , V_{ref+} or V_{ref-} . The total capacitance sums up to C_{tot} , where C_{tot} is given as

During Sample and hold phase, as shown in fig 3.5, that is during first clock cycle the capacitor array samples the input by connecting the bottom plate of all binary weighted capacitor to V_{in} and top plate connected to ground. The total charge stored across capacitor is given by

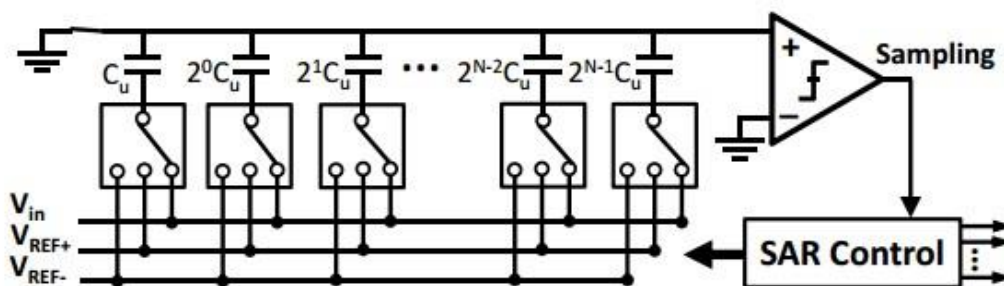


Fig 3.5: Sampling phase in SAR ADC.

After sampling the input, we enter into conversion phase. In the first cycle, the most significant bit of binary weighted capacitor is connected to the V_{ref+} and all others capacitor are connected to the V_{ref-} as shown in fig 3.6.

Here for simplicity the $V_{ref+} = V_{REF}$ and $V_{ref-} = 0$. And top plate of capacitor (V_-) is connected to the comparator, which is given by

$$V_- = -V_{in} + \frac{2^{N-1}C_u}{C_{Tot}} V_{REF} = -V_{in} + \frac{V_{REF}}{2}$$

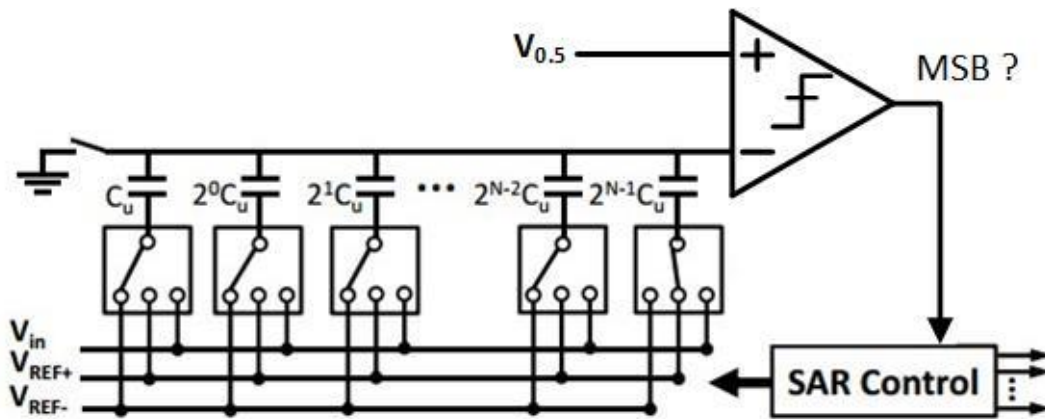


Fig 3.6: First cycle of conversion. $2^{N-1}C_u$ connected to V_{REF} .

The first term in above equation is due to sampling of input during sample mode and this value remains hold up in capacitor for remaining cycle of conversion. While the second term in the above equation is due to MSB capacitor.

Now the above value obtained from capacitor DAC is compared with 0.5V, the reason is that 0.5V is the mid value of V_{REF+} and V_{REF-} . Thus DAC value above 0.5v, will lead to comparator giving value equal to 0 and DAC value below 0.5v will lead to comparator giving value of 1.

Considering comparator output to be equal to d , Now during first cycle of conversion (when MSB capacitor $2^{N-1}C_u$ is connected to V_{REF}) if comparator output $d_{N-1} = 1$, then $2^{N-1}C_u$ capacitor remains connected to V_{REF} else if comparator output $d_{N-1} = 0$, then $2^{N-1}C_u$ capacitor is connected to GND . In both the above cases, that is after the

first conversion cycle, $2^{N-2}C_u$ is connected to V_{REF} . Both the cases are shown in fig 3.7 and 3.8 respectively.

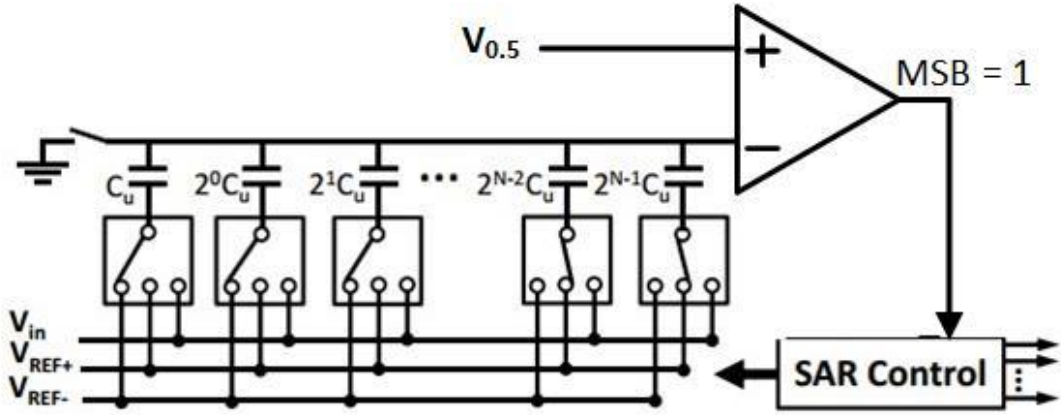


Fig 3.7: If comparator output $d_{N-1} = 1$.

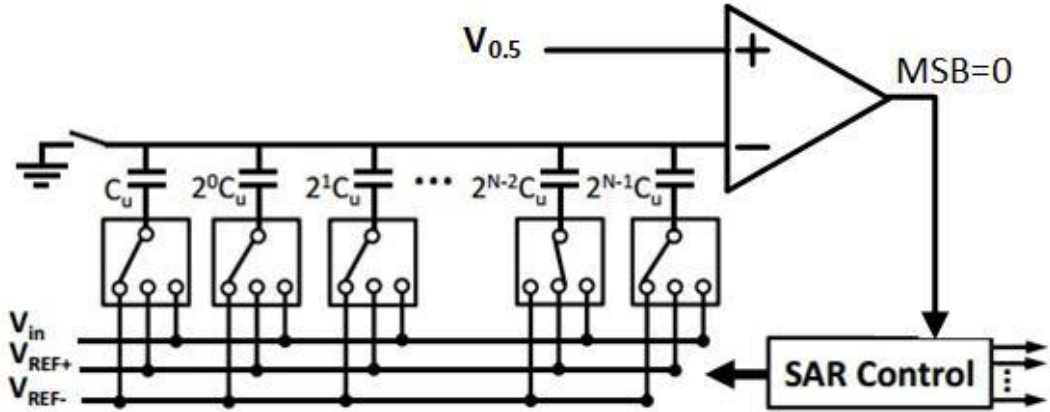


Fig 3.8: If comparator output $d_{N-1} = 0$.

The voltage generated by the capacitor DAC in above mentioned cases, is given as follows.

If $d_{N-1} = 1$, V_- is given as

$$V_- = -V_{in} + \frac{(2^{N-1} + 2^{N-2})C_u}{C_{Tot}} V_{REF} = -V_{in} + \frac{3V_{REF}}{4}.$$

If $d_{N-1} = 0$, V_- is given as

$$V_- = -V_{in} + \frac{(2^{N-2})C_u}{C_{Tot}} V_{REF} = -V_{in} + \frac{V_{REF}}{4}.$$

Now depending on the above two condition, V_- is compared with respect to $V_{0.5}$ v and the next digital output bit, d_{N-2} is decided. This process keeps on continuing and every digital bit d_N is generated through comparator. And final V_- value is generated is given as

$$V_- = -V_{in} + \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} 2d_i (2^i)C_u}{C_{Tot}} V_{REF} - \frac{C_u}{C_{Tot}} V_{REF}.$$

The voltage generated at the end of conversion is the quantization error generated.

There are parasitic capacitance also generated from layout of Top and bottom plate capacitor. The parasitic capacitances on the bottom plate are driven by low impedance reference supplies, V_{REF+} and V_{REF-} -- Typically, these do not affect the conversion process as long as the reference voltages are completely settled. The parasitic capacitance on the top plate, on the other hand, attenuates the amplitude of sampled input. The attenuation factor can be calculated as

$$\beta = \frac{C_{Tot}}{C_{Tot} + C_p}$$

Where C_p is the total parasitic capacitance on the top plate. This attenuation reduces the effective signal power, but does not change the polarity of the comparison result, which is the only relevant information for determining the correct output bits. The bottom-plate sampling essentially enables this feature. In the sampling phase, the top plate is pre-charged to ground before the node becomes floating and remains floating until the end of the conversion phase. During the conversion, the voltage on the top plate moves but returns to a voltage that is near zero at the end of the process. As a result, the total charge on C_p is the same at the beginning and at the end of the process and therefore, from the perspective of charge, capacitor C_p does not cause any charge error. Therefore, it does not affect the overall accuracy of the conversion process.

Chapter 4

Reconfiguring resistors

4.1 Method of reconfiguring the resistor

The output of SAR ADC consists of 10 digital bits. These 10 bits are digital output representation of amplified Analog voltage difference between the two resistors. Now according to these 10 digital bits, the resistor value has to be reconfigured. Therefore a mechanism has to be decided which can reconfigure the resistor value easily and efficiently, through these 10 digital bits.

One way of reconfiguring the resistor is by adding resistor in series or parallel. But the value of resistor to be added to reconfigure the main resistor is determined by the voltage difference produced by mismatch of resistors (reference and temperature sensor resistor), thus every time a different value of resistor has to be added according to mismatch. And thus selecting these many resistors with less difference between the two succeeding resistor is an impossible task.

To have less difficulty and to make work easy, we can have set of predetermined resistors of different value. These resistor value will follow some proportionality constant. And depending on the resistors mismatch value, we will select resistors from the set of predetermined resistors. The selected resistors will then be added to the main resistor so that the resistor reconfiguration can take place.

The number of resistors to be selected and which value of resistor has to be selected is decided by Digital bit, which are obtained from SAR ADC output. Each bit from digital

bit produced is assigned a unique resistor value and depending on the value of bit the corresponding resistor will be selected or will not be selected.

If $d_{N-2} = 1$ that is the most significant bit is 1, then R_{N-2} will be selected and added to main resistor. Similarly for different bit of d the corresponding resistor is selected and added depending on the value of the bit.

4.2 Set of resistors

The value of resistors in set of predetermined resistors will follow Geometric Progression (G.P). The reason is that summation of Geometric Progression will lead to maximum difference $(R_{MAX} - R_{REF})$ the two resistors can detect. The value of maximum difference as discussed before depends on the I_{REF} current, which was used for conversion of resistor to voltage and the Gain of the amplifier.

$$\frac{(V_{DD}-V_{EE})/2}{(R_{MAX}-R_{REF})} = Gain. \quad (4.1)$$

$$\frac{(V_{DD}-V_{EE})/2}{Gain} + R_{REF} = R_{MAX} \quad (4.2)$$

Thus the sum of all resistors used in set of predetermined resistors has to be roughly equal to maximum difference $(R_{MAX} - R_{REF})$ between the resistor, which can be detected.

Thus the resistors have to be $\frac{(R_{MAX}-R_{REF})}{2^j}$, where j varies from 1 to $N-1$. Here N is no of digital bits produced by ADC.

In the case of this work, the $(R_{MAX} - R_{REF}) = 5K$, this value is decided with the help of equation (4.1) and (4.2). Thus the resistors present in predetermined set will be 2.5K, 1.25K, 0.625K.....and so on.

While the maximum value of resistor has been found out, similarly minimum value of resistor has to be found out, which can be detected.

$$\frac{(V_{DD}-V_{EE})/2}{(R_{REF}-R_{MIN})} = Gain.$$

$$R_{REF} - \frac{(V_{DD}-V_{EE})/2}{Gain} = R_{MIN}.$$

Thus if resistor R is less than R_{REF} , resistor has to be increased. And if resistor R is more than R_{REF} then the resistor has to be decreased. So in both the cases the resistor has to be brought to R_{REF} . Where R_{REF} is reference off-chip resistor.

4.3 Adding resistors.

Here in this thesis the temperature sensor resistor can be increased and also can be decreased, this increase or decrease depends on value of R with respect to the R_{REF} . Thus there has to be mechanism which can decide whether the value of R is lesser than or greater than R_{REF} , and according to it the increase or decrease of R can take place. The MSB bit of ADC decides whether R is greater than or lesser than R_{REF} .

Now consider the input of op-amp is biased properly with V_{bias} voltage and also considering that V_{offset} voltage to be zero, then the DC output voltage of op-amp will be constant at particular value. In this case it will be equal to V_{bias} voltage.

Thus if the resistor R is less than the reference resistor R_{REF} , and if the capacitor CC which stores the difference of resistor value is connected as shown in fig 2.6 and 2.7, then the positive terminal of op-amp will be above V_{bias} . An op-amp which is considered here is an noninverting op-amp, gain will be positive and thus the output value of op-amp in this case will be above V_{bias} . Also consider if the voltage R is more than R_{REF} and capacitor connection is as discussed above, then the op-amp output will be less than V_{bias} .

And as discussed in SAR ADC chapter MSB bit is high if op-amp output voltage is above V_{bias} and MSB is low if output voltage is less than V_{bias} voltage. Thus leading to conclusion that the resistor has to be added if MSB is 1 and resistor has to be decreased if MSB is 0.

Controlling resistors

The MSB bit helps in deciding whether the resistor has to be increased or it has to be decreased. But how can these resistors be added? These resistors are added by using switching mechanism, and switches are controlled by digital bits produced from ADC output.

Neglecting the MSB bit, all other N-1 bits helps in adding resistor so that the temperature sensor resistor can be increased or it can be decreased. Each N-1 bits of ADC have been assigned a unique resistor value from $\frac{(R_{MAX}-R_{REF})}{2^j}$ set of resistor value. Where j varies from 1 to N-1. Here N-2 bit of ADC (next most significant bit after MSB) controls the highest value of resistor $\frac{(R_{MAX}-R_{REF})}{2^1}$, similarly LSB bit controls $\frac{(R_{MAX}-R_{REF})}{2^{N-1}}$ resistor value.

In this case maximum variation of resistor ($R_{MAX} - R_{REF}$) or ($R_{REF} - R_{MIN}$) = 5K, and 10 bits are obtained from the ADC. Neglecting the MSB, since it is used for deciding whether to increase or decrease the resistor value all other bits (d_8 to d_0) are used for selecting the resistor. Table 4.1 shows which bit controls which resistor.

Table 4.1: Bits controlling the resistor.

Bit position	Resistor value	Resistor name
d_8	2.5K	R_8
d_7	1.25K	R_7
d_6	0.0625K	R_6
d_5	0.03125K	R_5
d_4	0.015625K	R_4
d_3	0.0078125K	R_3
d_2	0.00390625K	R_2
d_1	0.001953125K	R_1
d_0	0.0009765625K	R_0

4.4 Reconfiguring

Previous section showed how to decide whether R is greater than or less than R_{REF} . And it also showed which bit will control which resistor. Now this section will show how do we practically implement of increasing or decreasing the resistor value using digital bits of ADC and by using set of predefined resistors.

Increasing the resistor

This takes place when temperature sensor resistor R , is less than ideal off-chip reference resistor R_{REF} . The difference in resistance value is amplified and then given to ADC to generate digital bits, which shows the error between the resistance value. And according to this digital bits the resistors are added to R .

Since the resistor R has to be increased, therefore we can add resistors in series to this resistor R . Figure 4.1 shows the diagram or way in which the resistors can be added in series so that after reconfiguring the resistor, R approaches R_{REF} .

In this each bit of digital signal have an complementary bit also, like d_8 and its complementary d_{8bar} . These complementaries bits help in reconfigure the resistor. Consider if d_8 bit is high (1) and d_{8bar} is low (0), then R_8 is connected to resistor R . In similar way depending upon there bit value the resistor will be connected to the resistor R or they won't be connected to any of the resistor.

Consider that $R = 14.875$ K, $R_{REF} = 18$ K, $I_{ref} = 1\mu A$ and Gain = 100. then output of op-amp will be $(18 - 14.875) K * 1\mu A * 100 = 0.3125v$ above 0.5v that is total voltage displayed will be 0.8125v. This voltage when given to SAR ADC, the output will be in digital bit format as 11010 00000 that is from $d_9 \dots \dots d_0$, d_9 , d_8 and d_6 are high value (1) and others are low value (0). Since $d_9 = 1$ the resistor R is less then R_{REF} and to reconfigure it the resistors from the set of predetermined resistor have to be added in series. Therefore resistors R_8 and R_6 will be selected and then added in series to the resistor R . And all the other switches will be closed thus the total resistor after reconfiguring is $(14.875 + R_8 + R_6) = (14.875 + 2.5 + 0.625) K = 18K$.

Thus giving us the perfect output after reconfiguring.

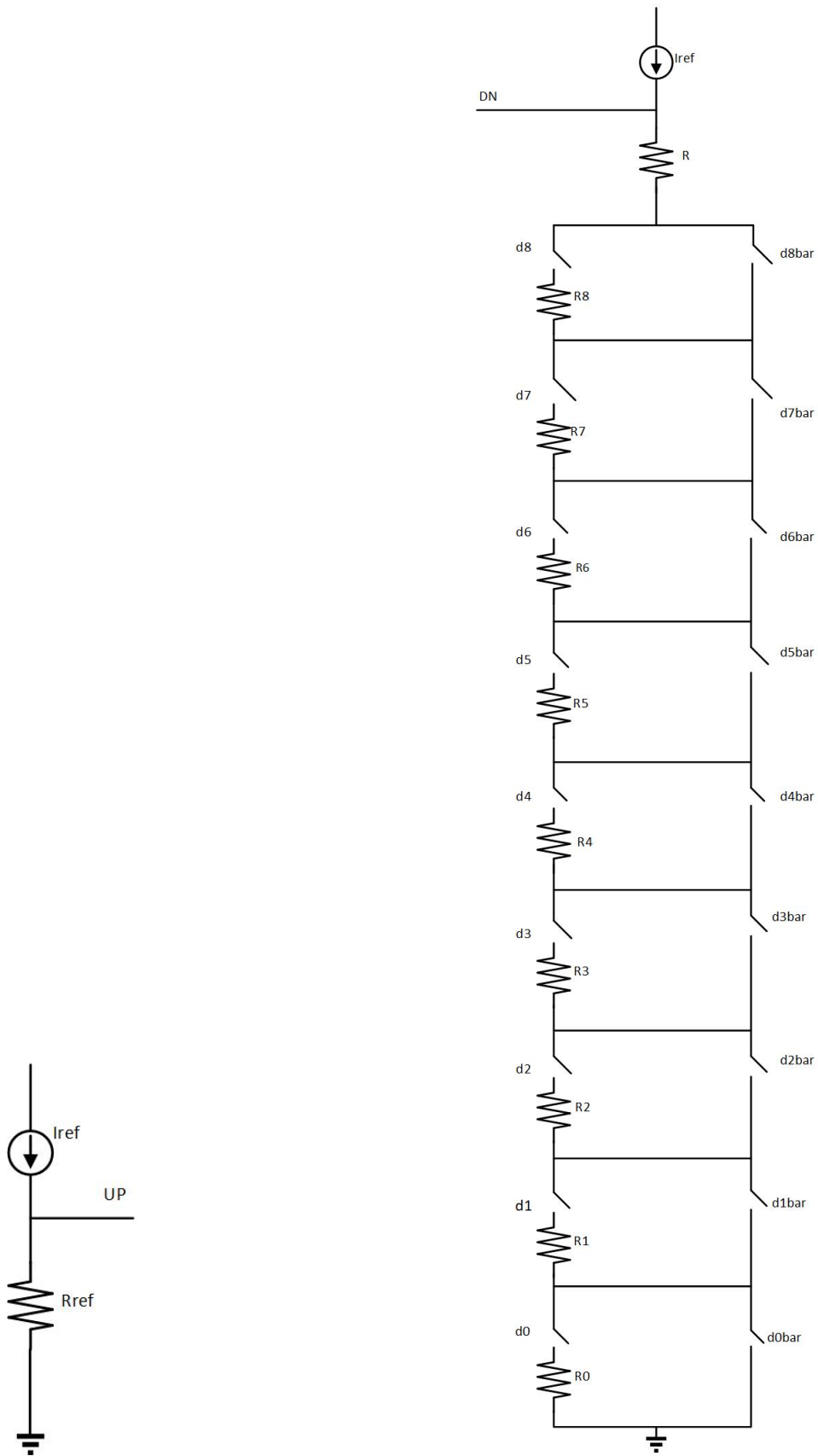


Fig: 4.1 Reconfiguring the resistor, if R less then R_{REF} .

Decreasing the resistor.

This decrease in resistor happens when temperature sensor resistor R is more than reference off-chip resistor R_{REF} . The output of the op-amp will be less than V_{bias} , which in this case is 0.5v voltage. Thus the MSB of ADC output d_9 will be low (0). Suggesting that the temperature sensor resistor has to be decreased and brought it back to the reference resistor value.

How do we bring it to R_{REF} value? One simple way of doing is by adding resistors in parallel to that of resistor R . And controlling these resistors with the help of digital bits. But these resistors which has to be added in parallel must be of very large value and cannot be controlled by simple way. There has to be some algorithm in adding these resistors in parallel way. Thus using some complex algorithm would need extra mechanism and extra circuitry then that used when adding resistor in series. Thus a system is needed which uses the similar mechanism as that of adding resistor in series, along with little bit of extra hardware.

Since R is greater than R_{REF} in this case, one way of doing this is by increasing the resistor R always to one particular value in all the cases and then adding a set value of resistor R_{set} in parallel to increased value of R , so that overall resistance value is equal to R_{REF} . Figure 4.2 displays the mechanism of decreasing the resistor value.

Consider $R = 20.1875K$, $R_{REF} = 18K$, $I_{ref} = 1\mu A$ and Gain = 100. then output of op-amp will be $(18 - 20.1875) K * 1\mu A * 100 = 0.21875v$ below 0.5v that is total voltage displayed will be 0.28125v.

The digital representation of this value is given as 01001 00000 from d_9 d_0 . There fore d_8 and d_5 bit are high and resistor selected from these are R_8 and R_5 which are of the value of 2.5K and 0.3125K.

Now adding these resistors in series to that of temperature sensor resistor $R = 20.1875K$ we get

$$(R + R_8 + R_5) = (20.1875 + 2.5 + 0.3125) K = 23K.$$

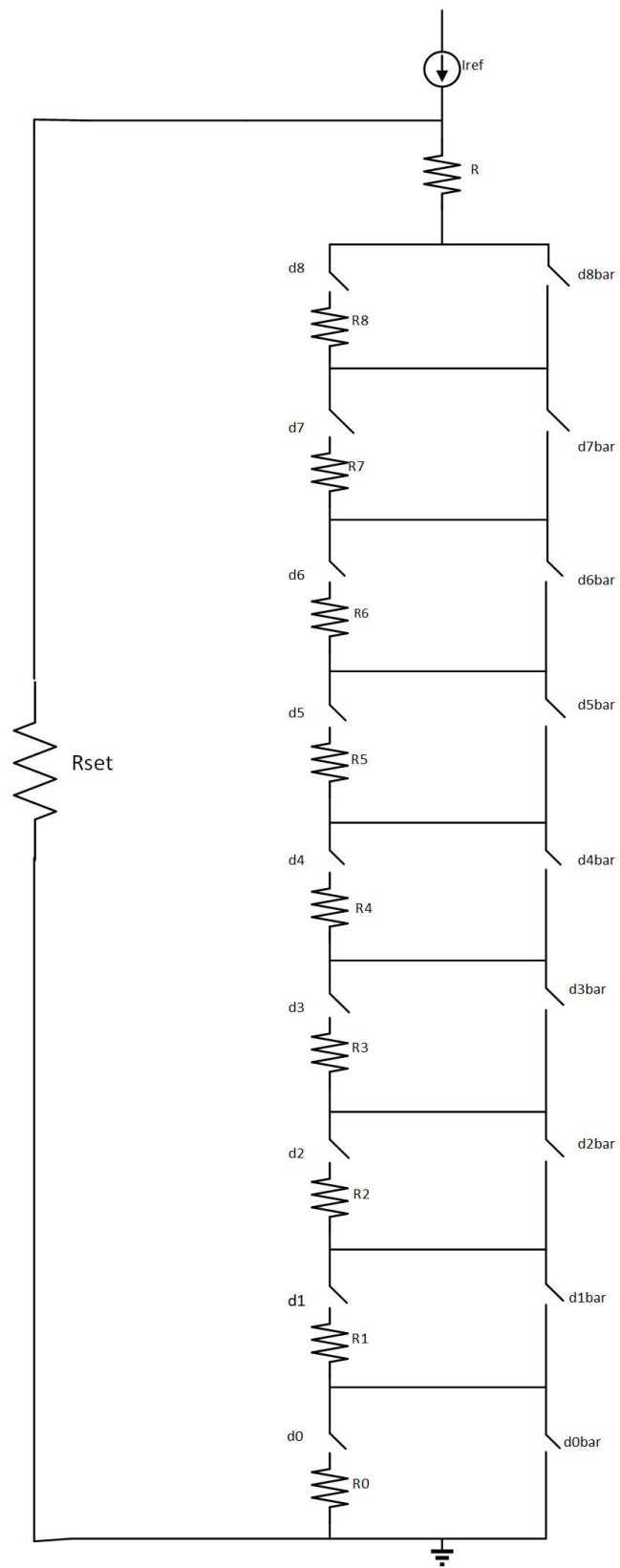


Fig 4.2: Decreasing the resistor after reconfiguring.

Considering any other value of resistor R , and then passing the difference of voltage to op-amp for amplification and then passing op-amp output value to the SAR ADC, and then controlling the resistor circuitry using the digital bits, the overall resistance of circuit will reach a set value, which in this case is 23K.

Now adding a resistor R_{set} in parallel to that of 23K we need to get 18K, solving the mathematics we get $R_{set} = 82.8K$.

4.5 Both increasing and decreasing the resistance.

Both increasing or decreasing the resistor R , has to follow the step of adding resistor in series. Thus common mechanism for both the circuit can be done on single circuit. Therefore both the circuit can be merged, but for decreasing the resistor a parallel resistor has to be added, which can be controlled by switch. During decreasing the resistor the MSB bit d_9 is low (0), while its complementary bit d_{9bar} is high (1). Thus d_{9bar} can be used for controlling the switch so that R_{set} will be present or not. Figure 4.3 shows both the mechanism together in one circuit by reusing the same circuit which was used for increasing the resistance value.

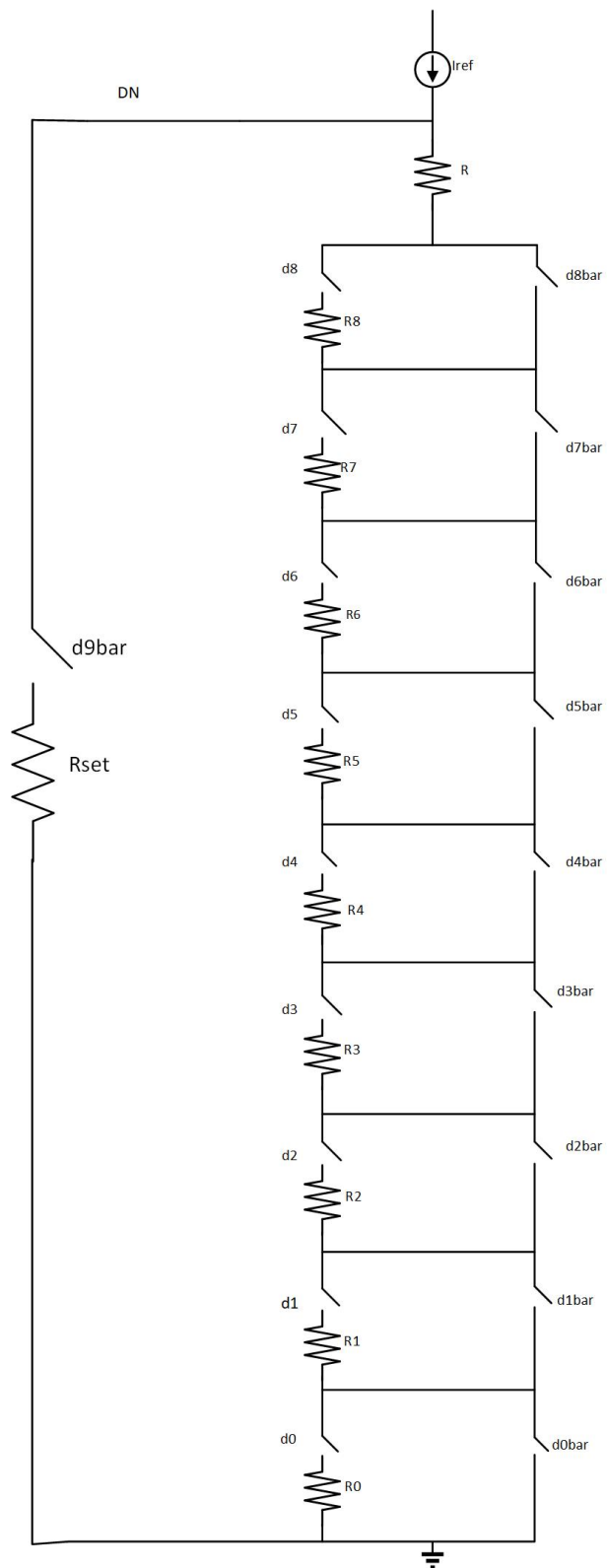


Fig 4.3: Both increasing and decreasing resistor in one circuit.

Chapter 5

Decimator.

5.1 Need of decimator

Decimator is the circuit which decimates (Down samples) the signal. Consider a signal which has N samples and we need (N/M) samples, where M is decimation factor, Then every M^{th} bit is selected from the N samples. Figure 5.1 shown below is an example of Decimation. If we Down sample (\downarrow) the signal by M then there may be loss of signal value, the signal after down sampling will be different than that of signal before down sampling. Thus the Decimator is usually used in circuit were first the signal is over sampled by Over sampling ratio (OSR) and then the over sampled signal is passed through Decimator, which down samples / removes some samples. One good place where Decimator is used is in Sigma delta ADC.

5.2 Sigma Delta ADC.

Sigma delta ADC consists of Sigma delta modulator and decimator. Modulator output is of One Bit which has N samples at the rate of F_s while the decimator down samples (\downarrow) the signal to frequency of signal which is needed (F_s/M). Here Over sampling is done by Sigma delta modulator, while decimation is done by decimator.

5.2.1 Advantages of Sigma Delta ADC

The reason why over samples of the signal is done, because the total Noise content decreases by factor of OSR, thus increasing the Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR) and thus increasing the Effective Number of Bits (EOB). Figure 5.2 shows decrease in total noise level.

Other Advantages of using Sigma delta modulator is that the Low frequency noise in the circuit gets transferred to high frequencies, Noise shaping is done here. Figure 5.3 shows Sigma delta modulator output.

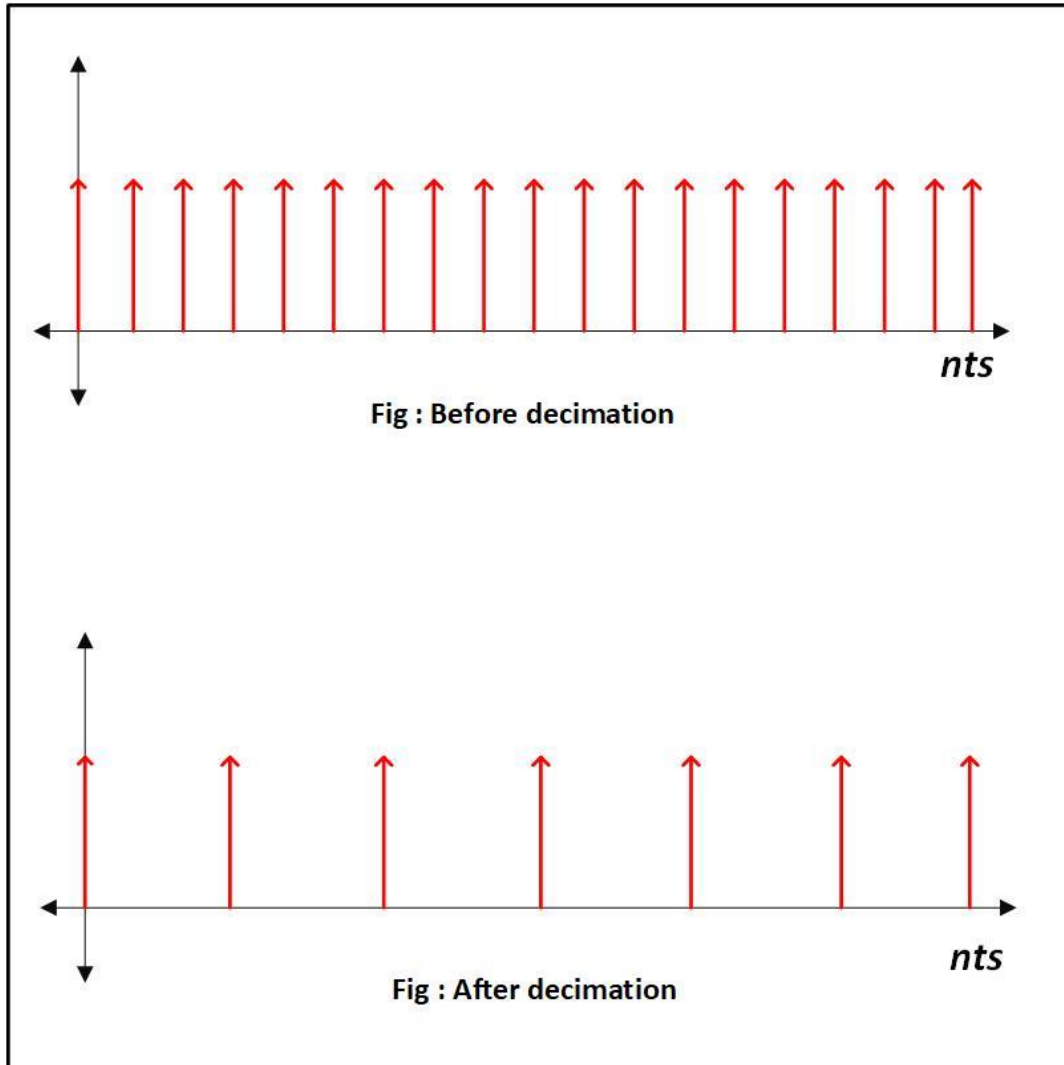


Fig 5.1: Decimation by Factor 3.

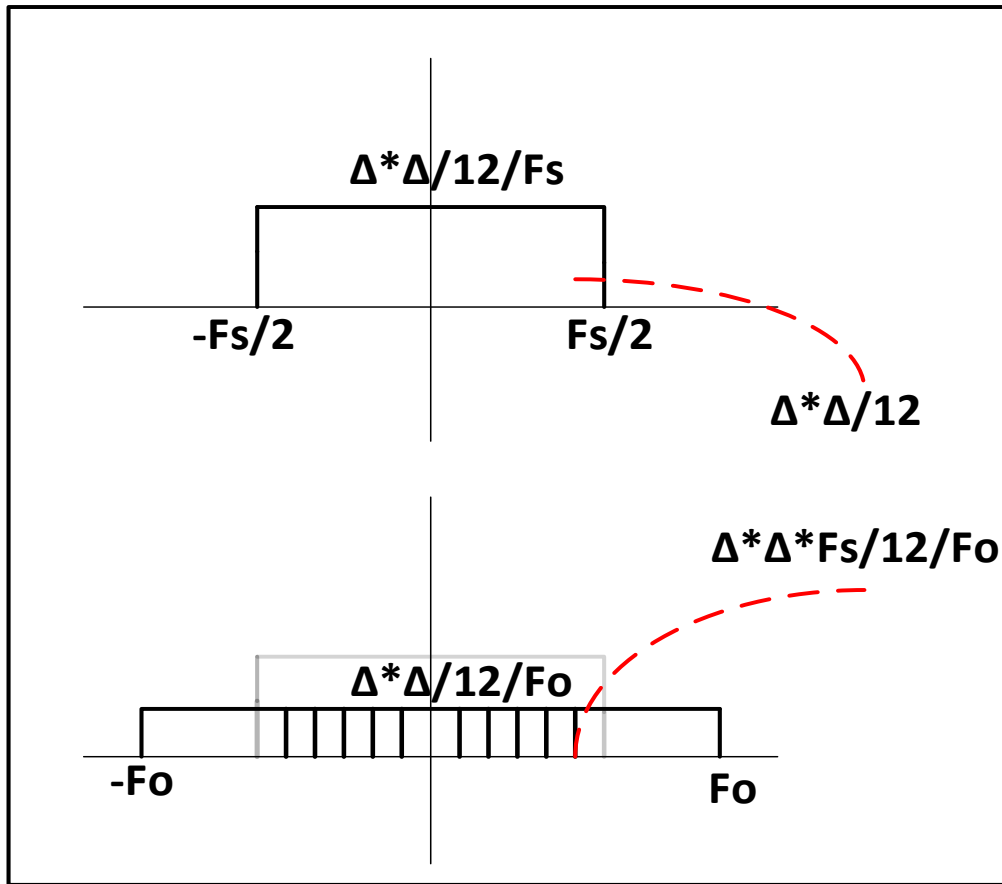


Fig 5.2: Decrease of noise after over sampling.

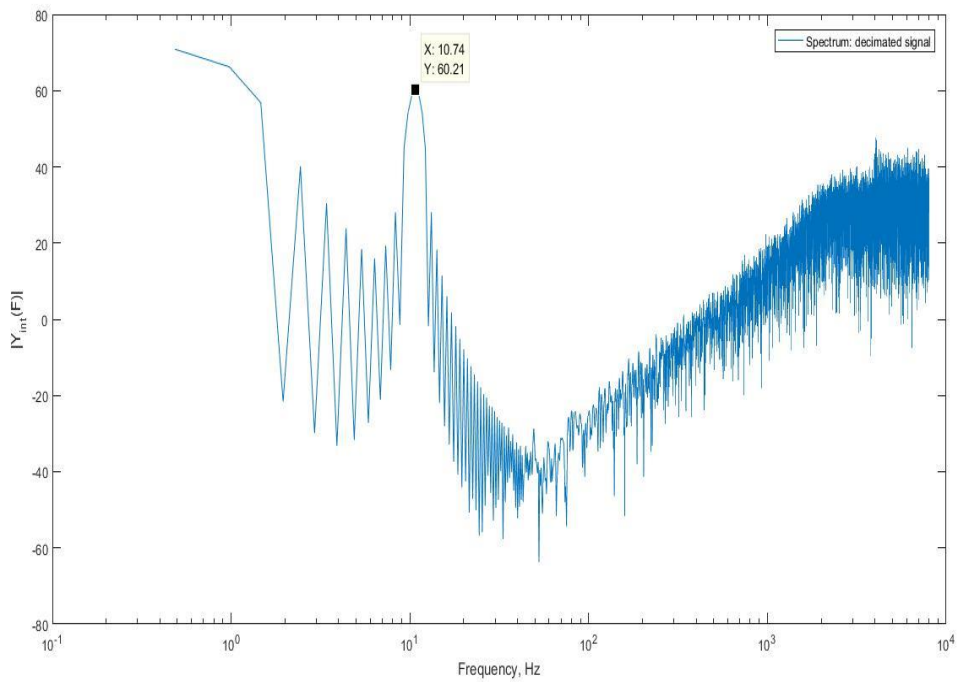


Fig 5.3: Sigma delta modulator Output from matlab.

5.3 Sigma delta ADC instead of SAR ADC in Offset cancellation block.

Sigma delta has advantage over SAR ADC in terms of Low Noise figure due to over sampling. Other advantage is that the Low Frequency Noise gets shifted to high frequency value because of Sigma delta modulator.

Every sensor has noise which is broadband in nature, ranging over all the frequency. Now this noise has to be removed to obtain a high resolution at the output. By using SAR ADC in offset cancellation block we would be needing an antialiasing Filter to remove these noise. Which would consume more power. While Sigma Delta modulator works like it has an in built Filter, which shifts the low frequency noise to high frequency value. Thus decreasing the noise value and increasing the SNR, which increases the resolutions of the ADC.

Thus to obtain high resolution output we can use sigma delta modulator instead of SAR ADC, thus by using sigma delta modulator we guarantee the use of DECIMATOR block.

The further thesis contains design procedure of decimator block with Following design constraints: Decimation factor ($\downarrow M$) of 16 & Low power. Input signal is on 11th bin with frequency of 10.74Hz, sampling frequency of sample and hold circuit is 16KHz. By using decimator, which decimates by 16 the output frequency would be of 1KHz.

5.4 Decimation theory.

Down sampling of signal as shown in fig 5.1 reduces the number of samples by rejecting samples at particular rate of time. Figure 5.1 shows the signal in time domain, while fig 5.4 shows the signal in frequency domain. Fourier transform of discrete signal will repeat after every π radians, thus shown in fig 5.2 the signal repeats after $(\pi) F_s/2$ Hz. During decimation the signal frequency has decreased, thus π has decreased from $F_s/2$ Hz to $F_s/(2*M)$ Hz. M being decimation factor.

Therefore, if M is high enough then $f_m > F_s/(2*M)$, leading to aliasing. Figure 5.5 shows the aliasing of signal in frequency domain. Aliasing reduces the signal content value, leading to loss of signal and it also increases noise content to the signal. Thus, to avoid aliasing decimation factor has to be set in such a way that $f_m < F_s/(2*M)$ Hz.

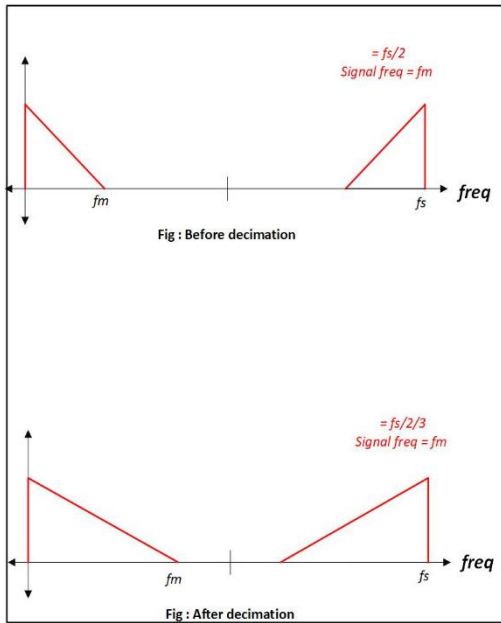


Fig 5.4 Decimation in frequency domain.

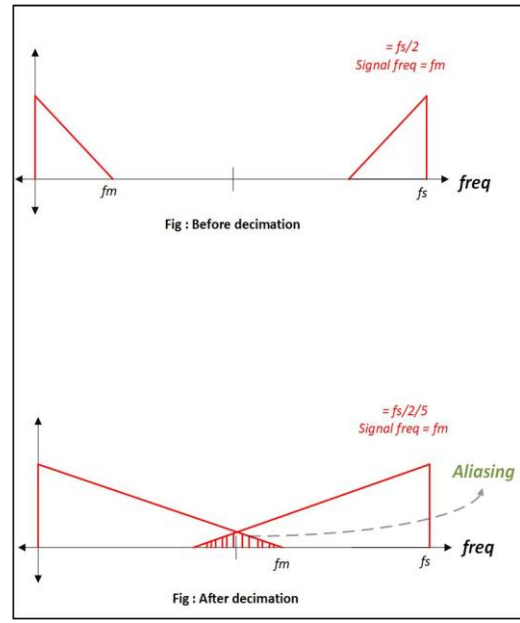


Fig 5.5 Increase in decimation factor, leading to aliasing.

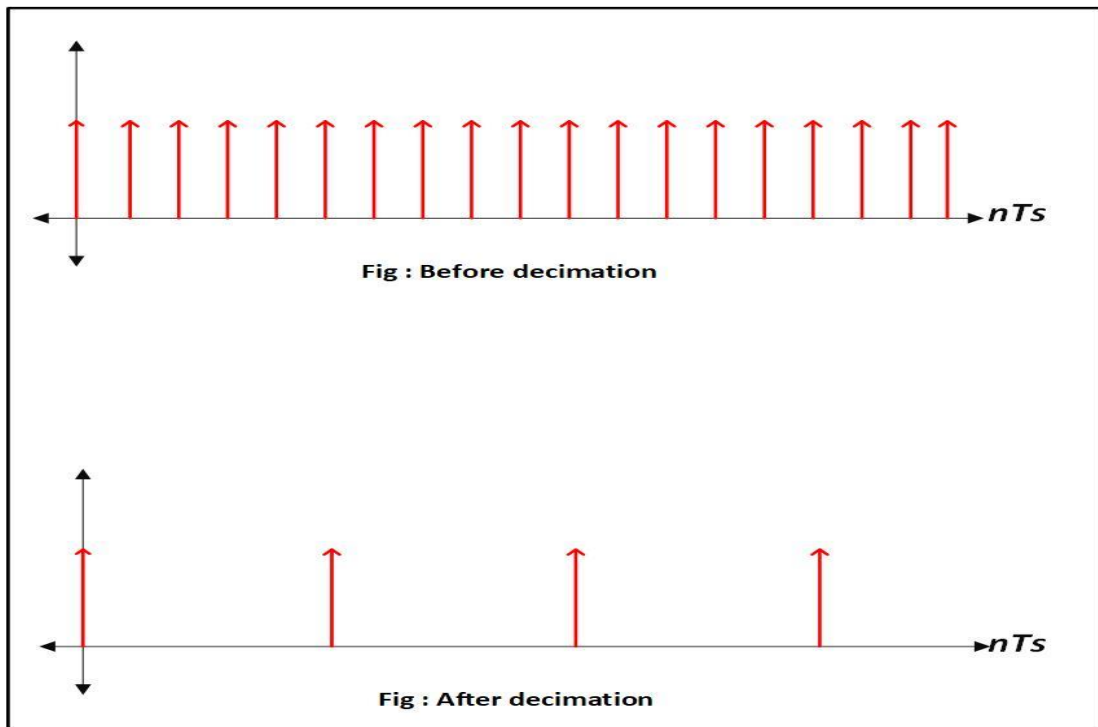


Fig 5.6: Increase in decimation factor in time domain.

5.4.1 Need of Filter in Decimator.

Decimating signal above a particular value would lead to aliasing of signal. Thus, to avoid aliasing of signal we need to take care that the decimation factor is not high enough.

Just taking care of decimation factor, while designing decimator will lead increase of noise level at the output. As shown in fig 5.3 the low frequency noise is shifted to high frequency value and if decimation takes place for that graph than $F_s/2$ decreases and noise gets folded towards inside, thus increasing the noise level.

Thus, there is need of removing the high frequency noise (up to the level of decimation factor). That is if decimation is done by factor of M , then noise level at $F_s/2/M$ Hz should get attenuated to such a value that SNR which is needed is maintained. After attenuating the high frequency signal then the decimation by M has to be done so that high frequency noise does not get folded back.

Figure 5.7 shows the general block diagram of decimator block, as said above there is Filter first and then there is circuit which decimates the signal by M .

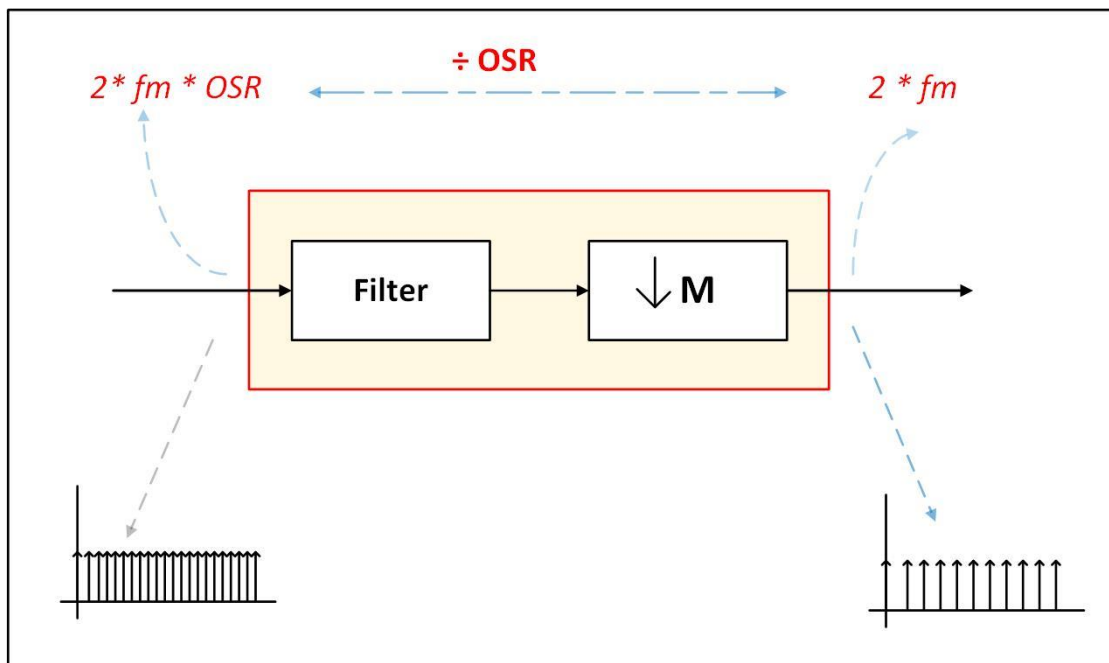


Fig 5.7: Decimator block diagram.

The figure clearly shows the blocks and signal at the output of block in time domain. While the frequency at which it operates is also shown in diagram. The input of block from the output of sigma delta modulator, which contains samples at the high rate. This sampling rate is then decimated by using filter and decimation.

5.5 Filter Architecture.

Digital filters are designed by using Z-transformation functions. The coefficients of Z-transfer functions are Co-efficient of Filter.

$$h = h[0] + h[1]Z^{-1} + h[2]Z^{-2} + \dots + h[N - 2]Z^{N-2} + h[N - 1]Z^{N-1}$$

Where $h[0]$, $h[1]$... $h[N-1]$ are the coefficients of Filter and N is the order of filter designed.

The way these, equation can be implemented to design filters is shown in figures below. (Figures 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11 are copied from Multirate filtering for Digital Signal Processing by Lijiljana).

These are architectural level diagram.

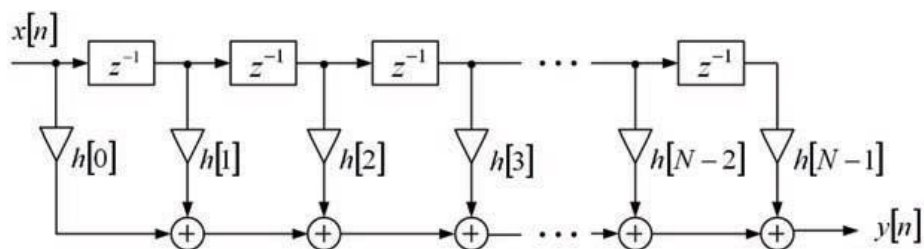


Fig 5.9: Direct implementation of FIR system.

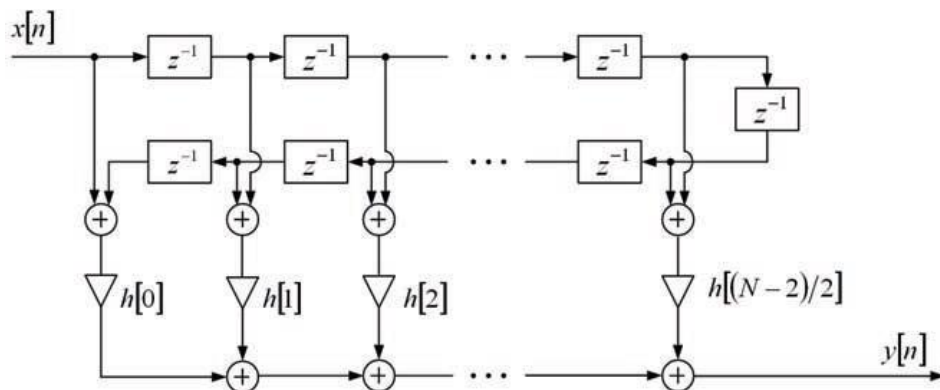


Fig 5.10: Direct implementation of FIR filter with reduced no of co-efficient.

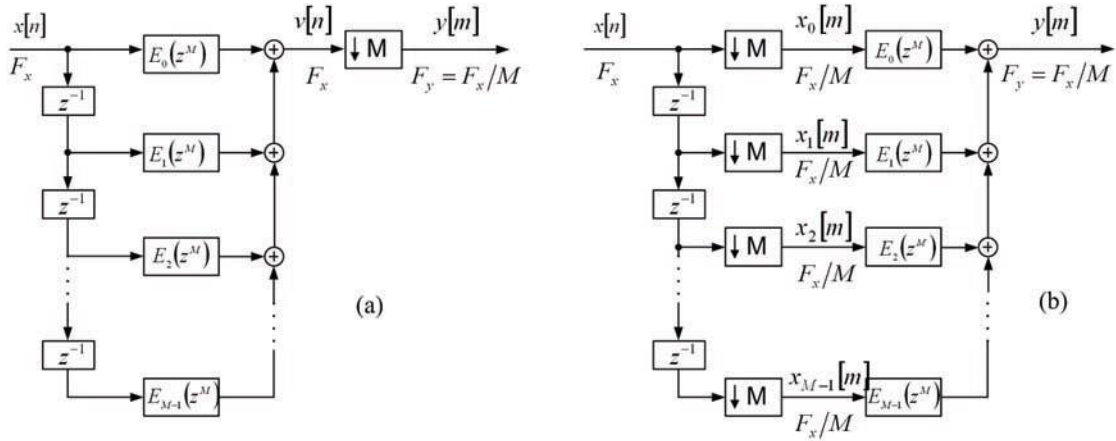


Fig 5.11: poly-phase implementation of FIR filter.

The difference between Fig 5.9 and 5.10 is the reduced no. of Multipliers, since FIR filter consists of repeatable co-efficient. If there are N no. of co-efficient then N/2 are unique and other N/2 are repeatable co-efficient. Thus, the advantage of it is taken and N/2 co-efficient are not used and the other are connected as shown in fig 5.10.

The architecture shown in fig 5.10 has no of multipliers and no. of addition less, but the no. of delay elements is still the same. Delay elements (Z^{-1}) in hardware (circuit level) can be implemented by using Multiplexers. These Multiplexers are made from basic gates, thus decreasing these elements will decrease the area and also the power consumption.

Figure 5.11 consists of less no. of delay elements along with less no. of multipliers and less no. of adders. The architecture is implemented as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(z) = & (x[0] + x[3]z^{-3} + x[6]z^{-6} + x[9]z^{-9} + x[12]z^{-12}) \\
 & + (x[1]z^{-1} + x[4]z^{-4} + x[7]z^{-7} + x[10]z^{-10} + x[13]z^{-13}) \\
 & + (x[2]z^{-2} + x[5]z^{-5} + x[8]z^{-8} + x[11]z^{-11} + x[14]z^{-14})
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig 5.12: Filter co-efficient.

$$\begin{aligned}
 X(z) = & (x[0] + x[3]z^{-3} + x[6]z^{-6} + x[9]z^{-9} + x[12]z^{-12}) \\
 & + z^{-1}(x[1] + x[4]z^{-3} + x[7]z^{-6} + x[10]z^{-9} + x[13]z^{-12}) \\
 & + z^{-2}(x[2] + x[5]z^{-3} + x[8]z^{-6} + x[11]z^{-9} + x[14]z^{-12}).
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig 5.13: Filter co-efficient representation.

Figure 5.13 shows three stage poly-phase algorithm, in this every 3rd element is considered in one group and in such a way there are 3 groups formed. Now common delay elements are taken common and thus all the three stage will have same delay pattern as shown in figure 5.13. Now this algorithm is implemented as shown in fig 5.11. and every sub block of $E(Z^M)$ is implemented as shown in fig 5.9.

Since each sub block have similar pattern of delay elements therefore they all can be implemented by using the delay pattern only ones, that is common delay elements for all the sub blocks. Thus, poly-phase architecture consists less no. of delay elements along with less no. of adders and multipliers.

5.6 Filter Design

As said above the design of filter has to be such that the noise level at $F_s/2/M$ Hz has to decrease to a level, so as to maintain desired SNR at that output. SNR decides the no of bits the decimator has produced.

$$SNR (dB) = 6.02 * N + 1.76.$$

Here in this thesis work decimator is designed for 8 bits. Therefore, SNR has to be roughly of 50dB. This means that the noise level has to be 50dB below signal magnitude level. Sigma delta modulator used here has signal level of 60dB and noise of maximum level is of 45dB (Fig 5.3: shows the sigma delta modulator output with signal magnitude of 60dB).

Noise floor which has peak of 45dB has to be brought down to 10dB, so that SNR of 50dB is obtained. Therefore, in this thesis, filter is designed in a such a way that it has gain of -60dB at the cut-off frequency. And cut-off frequency here is $F_s/2/M$ Hz.

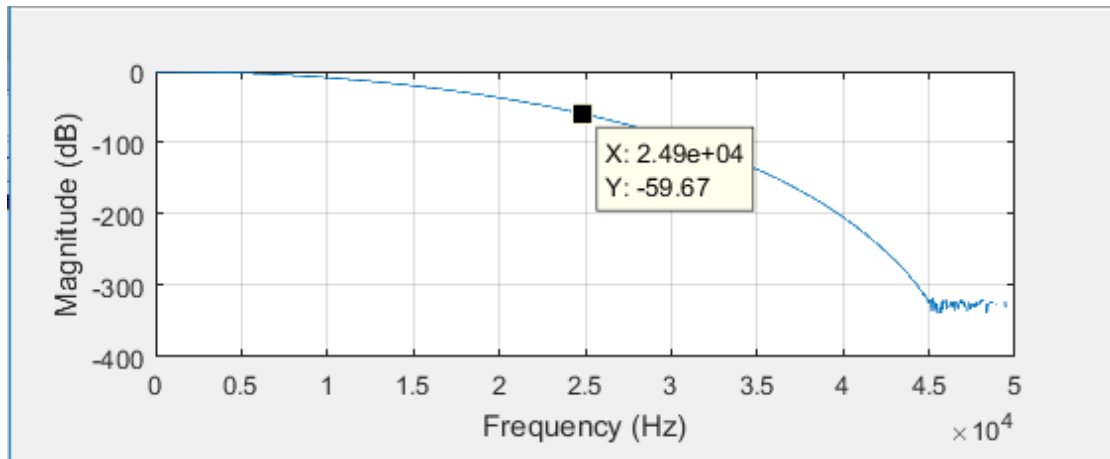


Fig 5.14: $M=2$, $F_s/2 = 50\text{KHz}$.

Figure 5.14 is an example of how to select filter according to the decimation factor and sampling frequency. This filter is chosen, because for decimation by 2 the filter gain is -60dB at the frequency of $F_s/2/M$ Hz.

5.6.1 Selection of filter

In this work the output frequency need is of 1KHz, while the sigma delta output is of 16KHz. Therefore, the signal frequency has to be brought down by factor of 16. The work present here contains 8-bit decimator of factor by 16.

Sharper the filter response more will be the no. of coefficients present. Thus using a single filter for above mentioned configuration will lead to more no. of coefficients, which indirectly will lead to more no. of adders and more no. of multipliers. For using single filter, which passes up-to 1KHz frequency and removes signal present from 1KHz to 16KHz frequency, the filter needs to have sharp transition as shown in fig 5.15. The figure shown here cuts off at 0.5KHz frequency ($F_s/2/16$) and graph is up-to 8KHz ($F_s/2$).

Thus instead of using only one filter which has sharp transition, leading to large no. of co-efficient leading to large no. of adders and large no. of multipliers, we can have more than one filter used here.

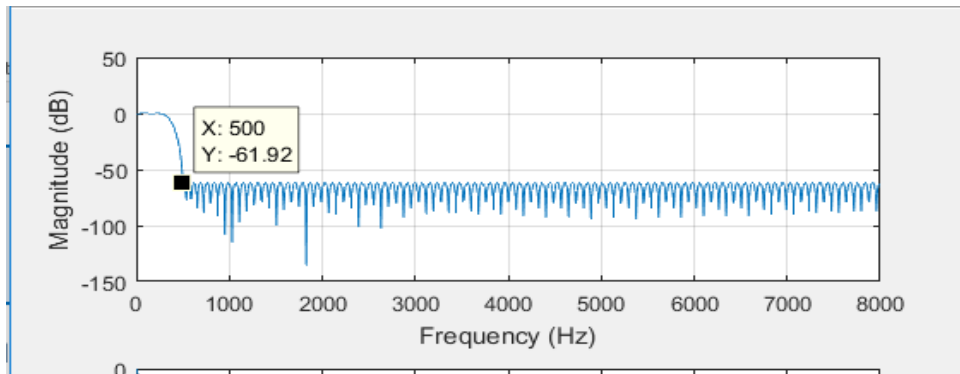


Fig 5.15: Single filter, cut-off 0.5KHz and $F_s = 16\text{KHz}$.

Now in place of single filter with sharp cut-off frequency, we design more no. of filters with less sharpness in cut-off frequency, we get less no of co-efficient.

Sinc filter is one of the filter which doesn't have transition as sharp as shown in fig 5.15. An example of sinc filter is shown in fig 5.14. Sinc filter will have less no. of co-efficient compare to filter shown in fig 5.15.

But using only single sinc filter such that -60Db point is reached at 0.5KHz will decrease the no. of co-efficient but not much to a greater extend.

Thus using multiple filters with cut-off present at the intermediate value and using sinc filter will decrease the no. of co-efficient. Now intermediate filter used here can also have a decimation factor as shown in fig 5.7. While whole block of it can be shown in fig 5.16. that is after each filter there can be decimation.

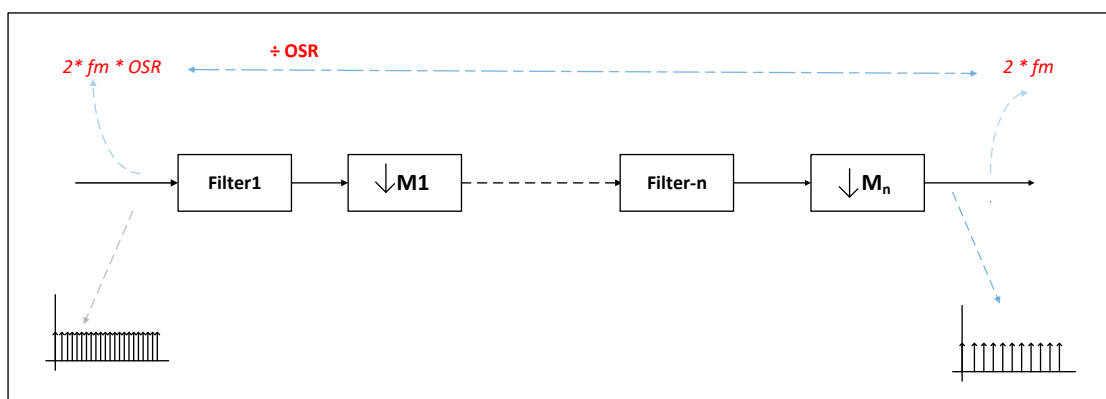


Fig 5.16: Block Diagram of decimator used in this work.

Now deciding the no. of filters and with respect to each filter the decimation factor is the task here. While some filters may not have corresponding decimation factor to it. It is used only for filtering out the high frequency unwanted signal.

There is no proper formula for deciding the no. of filters needed depending on the decimation factor. It's a trial and error method used here. Thus the result obtained from this method is shown in Table 5.1

Filter	Coefficients	Decimation factor
FIR (8K – 0.5K)	200	16
Sinc (8K – 4K) + FIR (4K – 0.5)	22+100	2 * 8
Sinc (8K – 4K) + Sinc (4K – 2K) + FIR (2K – 0.5K)	22 + 22 + 52	2 * 2 * 4
Sinc (8K – 5.3) + Sinc (5.3K – 3.5K) + Sinc (3.5 - 2.1K) + FIR (2K – 0.5K)	12+12+12+52	1 * 2 * 2 * 4

Table 5.1: Result of various filter used for decimation factor of 16.

* **Sinc (8K – 4K) == Sinc (fs / 2 - (-60dB pt)).**

As can be seen from table 5.1 the best result in terms of no. of co-efficient is from the result four, where three sinc filters are used along with one basic Fir filter. Each sinc filter has 12 co-efficient used here while FIR filter has 52 co-efficient thus total no. of co-efficient used in this case 88.

This number is very much less result which is shown in top of table where only one FIR filter is used.

The first filter used here does not have corresponding decimation factor to it, its only used for filtering out the high frequencies unwanted signals.

5.7 Design in Simulink and in Verilog.

The above mentioned process was done in Matlab, while for hardware application that is to check frequency response curve of the above mentioned can only be obtained after passing the signal to hardware blocks of matlab.

Simulink helps in implementing these hardware blocks in matlab. These blocks doesn't generate any physical blocks, but to check the result from matlab this tool is used. In Simulink poly-phase architecture is implemented for all the filters.

With the help of Simulink and matlab the length of the co-efficient is decided.

The exact value of these co-efficient are then used in Verilog design, with the help of these value results will be obtained.

Chapter 6

Results and conclusion.

6.1 Offset cancellation block result.

Case 1: If $R_{ref} > R$, $I_{ref} = 1\mu A$, then the result obtained is shown in fig 6.1. The 0.25mV extra is obtained because of resistance offered by switch.

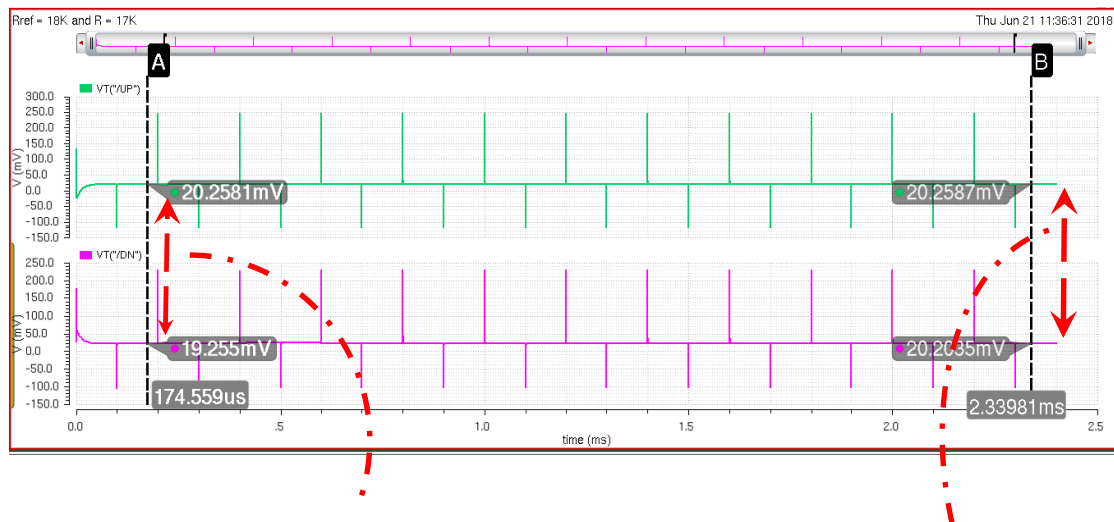


Fig 6.1 Difference initially is of 1mV [$(18K-17k) * 1\mu A$] which has been decreased considerably at the end of reconfiguration

Case 2: If $R_{ref} < R$, $I_{ref} = 1\mu A$, then the result obtained is shown in fig 6.2. The 0.25mV extra is obtained because of resistance offered by switch.

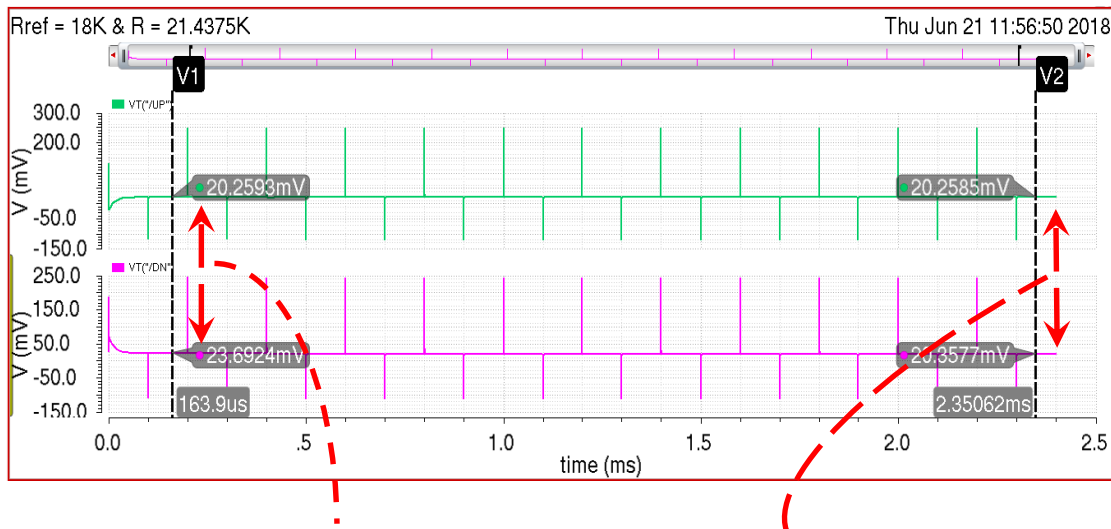


Fig: 6.2

Difference initially is of 3.43mV [$(21.43K-18k) * 1\mu A$] which has been decreased considerably at the end of reconfiguration

Conclusion of Offset cancellation Block: The extra voltage present (0.25mV) has to be removed.

The sigma delta ADC has to be used instead of SAR ADC for high resolution of signal.

6.2 Decimator Result

The decimator was designed in both matlab and in Verilog code domain, actually the co-efficient of filters are obtained through matlab and then used in Simulink and verilog code.

The filter response for each filter is shown below. Here result of Simulink and matlab is compared in picturised form.

6.2.1 First Sinc Filter Output.

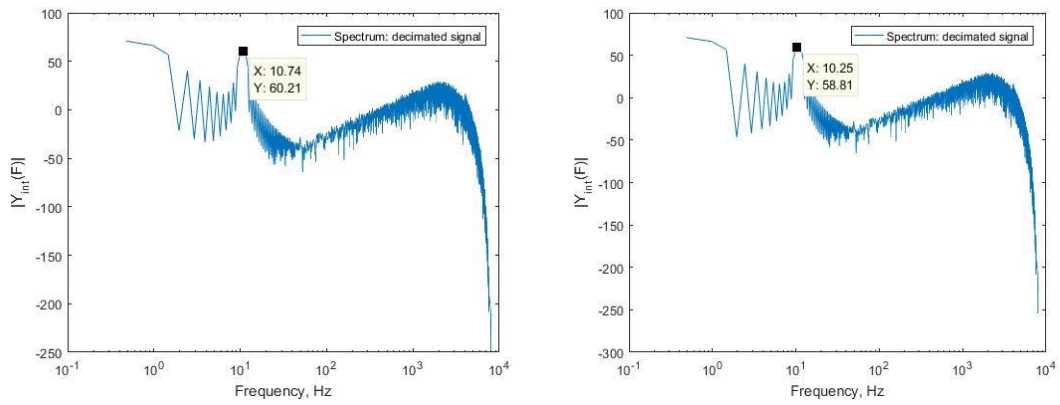


Fig 6.3: Left side matlab output , right side Verilog output of 1st sinc filter.

6.2.2 Second Sinc Filter output.

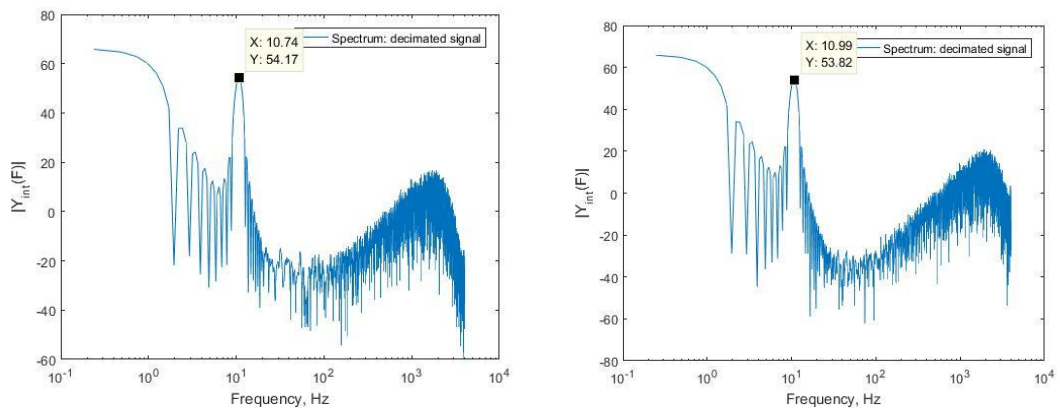


Fig 6.4: Left side matlab, right side Verilog output of 2nd sinc filter.

6.2.3 Third Sinc filter output

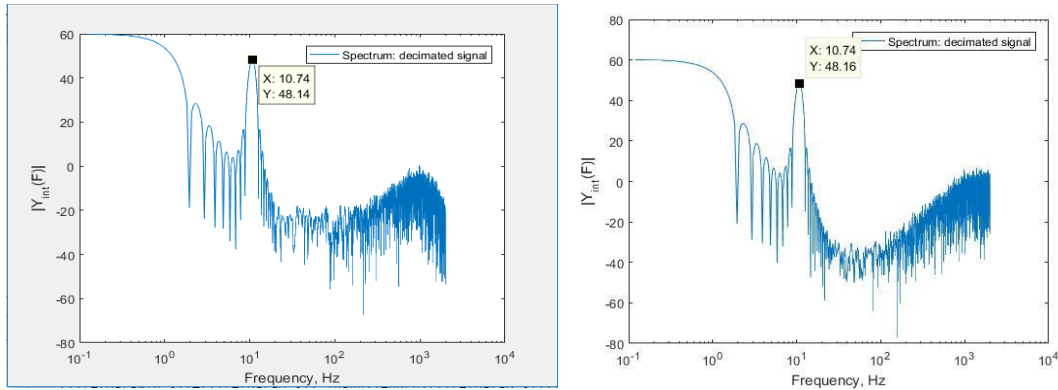


Fig 6.5: Left side matlab, right side Verilog output of 3rd sinc filter.

6.2.4 FIR filter output

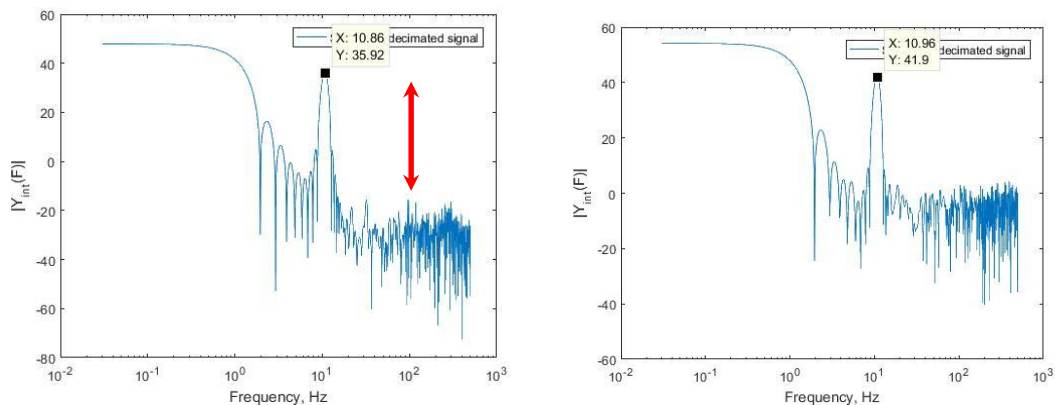


Fig 6.6: Left side matlab, right side Verilog output of FIR filter

The red arrow shown above represents the SNR of the signal, and it is around 50dB, which represents 8-Bits of digital output of Sigma delta ADC.

Comparing the output with that of Verilog the only difference is of noise floor level base. SNR in both the cases are same but the noise floor in Verilog code is less than that of present in matlab code one.

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