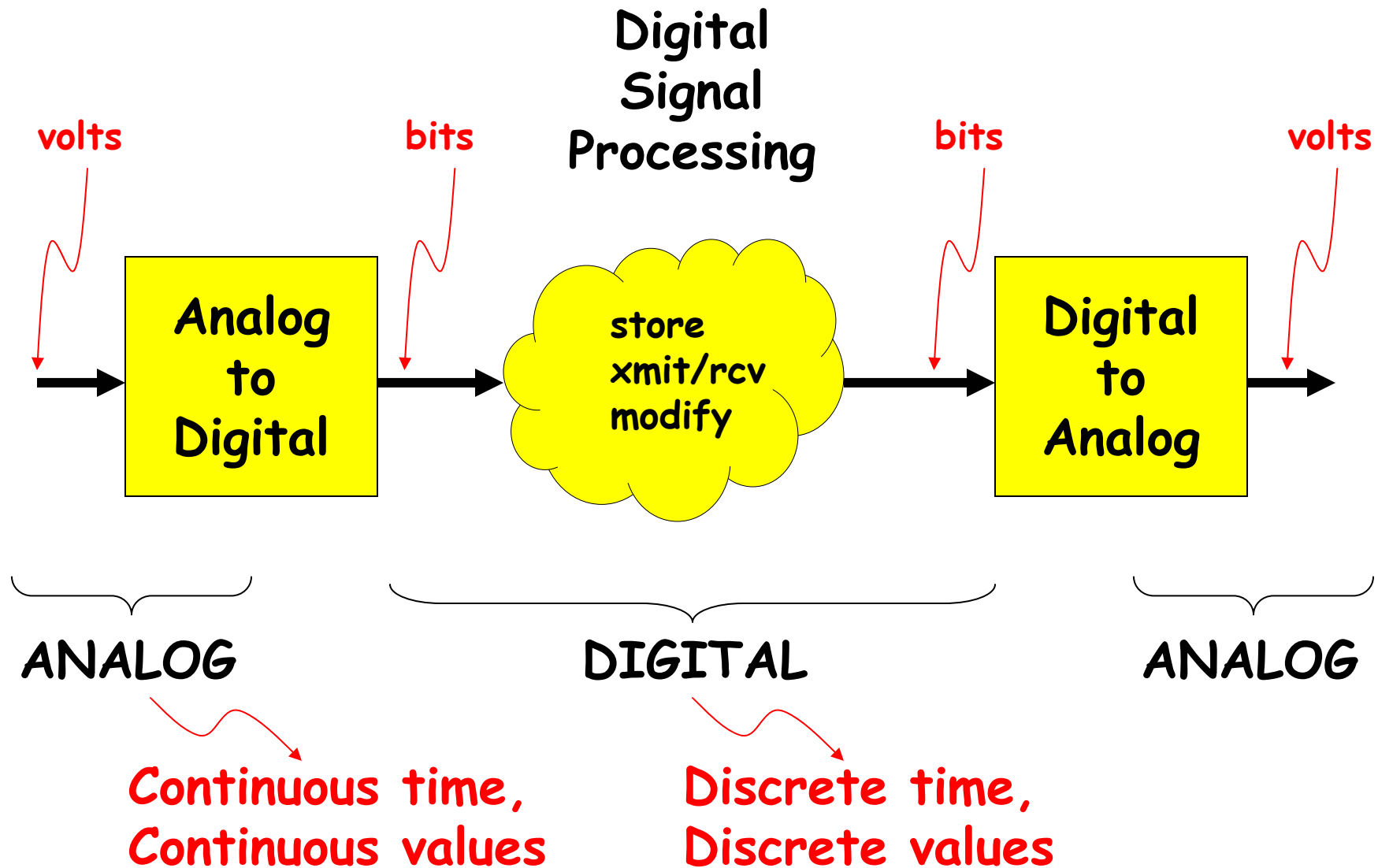


# Analog $\leftrightarrow$ Digital

- Sampling & Discrete Time
- Discrete Values & Noise
- Digital-to-Analog Conversion
- Analog-to-Digital Conversion

# Plan: Mixed Signal Architecture

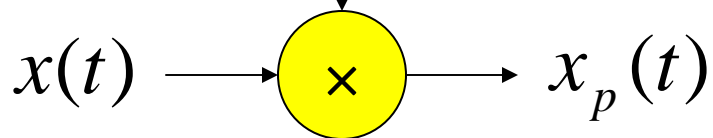


# Discrete Time

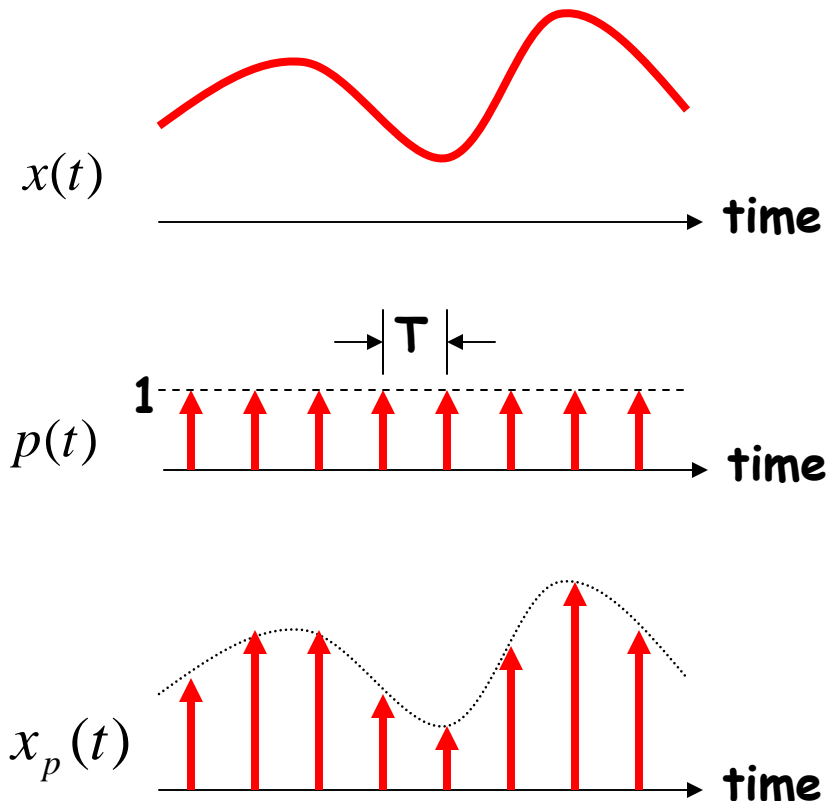
Let's use an **impulse train** to sample a continuous-time function at a regular interval  $T$ :

$\delta(x)$  is a narrow impulse at  $x=0$ ,  
where  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\delta(t-a)dt = f(a)$

$$p(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT)$$

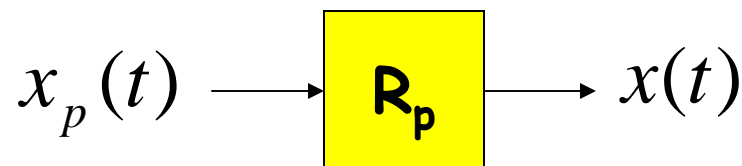


Time Domain



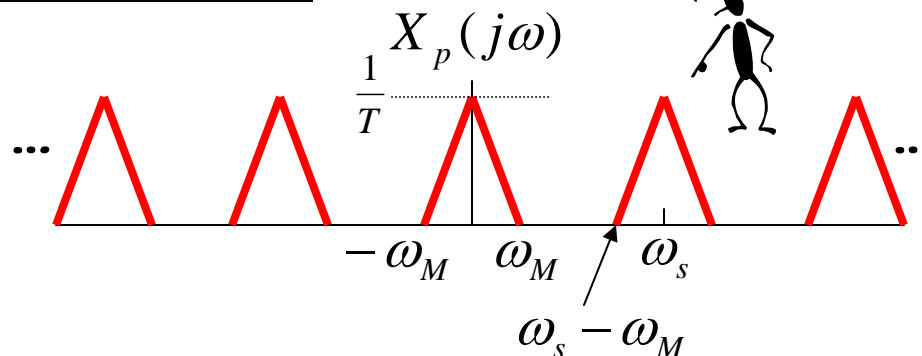
# Reconstruction

Is it possible to reconstruct the original waveform using only the discrete time samples?

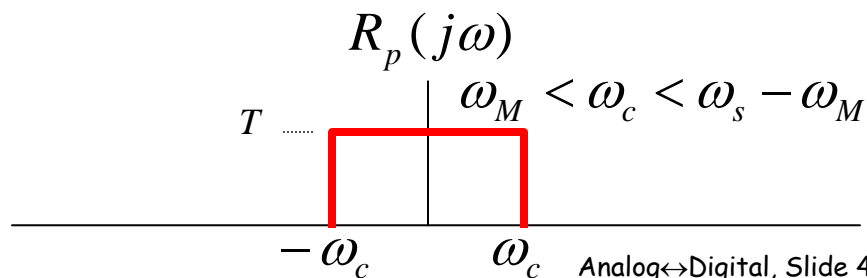
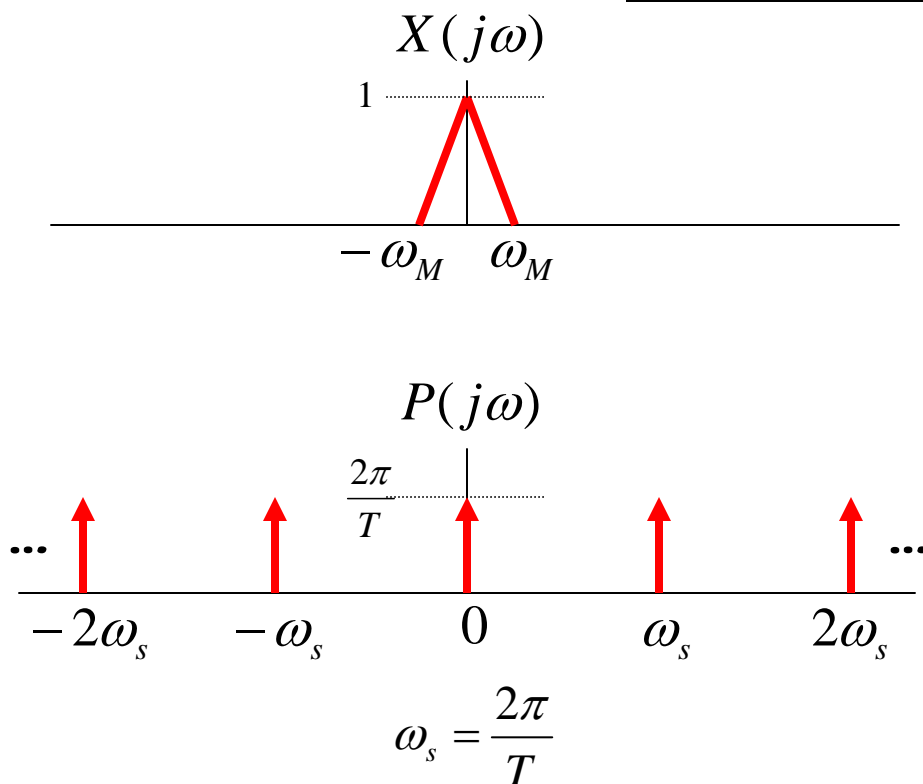


## Frequency Domain

*Looks like modulation by  $\omega_s$  and its harmonics*



So, if  $\omega_m < \omega_s - \omega_m$ , we can recover the original waveform with a low-pass filter!



# Sampling Theorem

Let  $x(t)$  be a band-limited signal with  $X(j\omega)=0$  for  $|\omega| > \omega_M$ . Then  $x(t)$  is uniquely determined by its samples  $x(nT)$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , if

$$\omega_s > 2\omega_M$$

*$2\omega_M$  is called the "Nyquist rate" and  $\omega_s/2$  the "Nyquist frequency"*



where

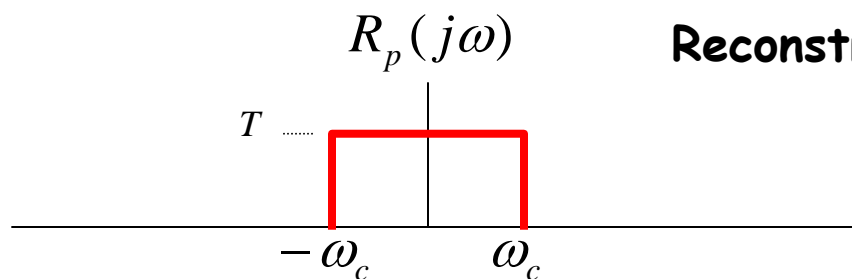
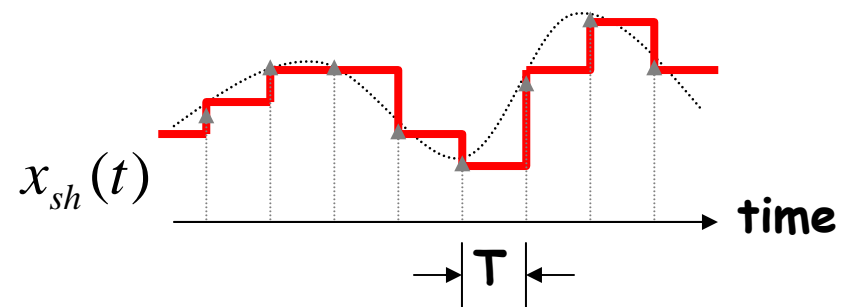
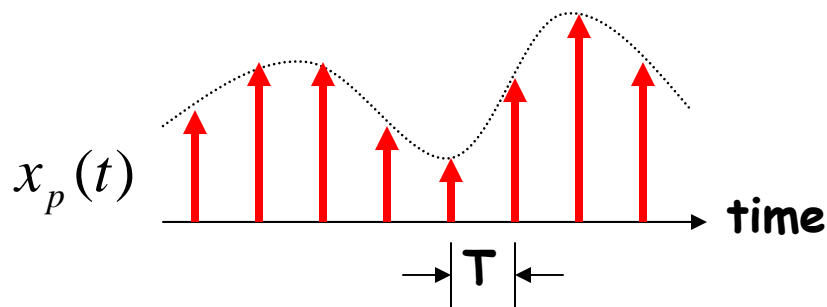
$$\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

Given these samples, we can reconstruct  $x(t)$  by generating a periodic impulse train in which successive impulses have amplitudes that are successive sample values, then passing the train through an ideal LPF with gain  $T$  and a cutoff frequency greater than  $\omega_M$  and less than  $\omega_s - \omega_M$ .

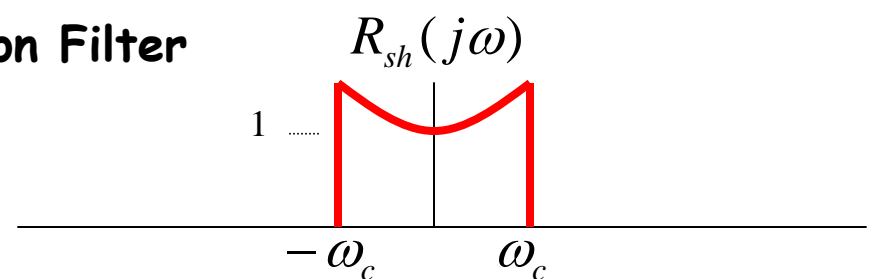
# Zero-Order Sample & Hold

Impulses are hard to engineer, so a zero-order sample & hold is often used to produce the discrete time waveform.

## Sample Method



## Reconstruction Filter



$$\omega_M < \omega_c < \omega_s - \omega_M$$

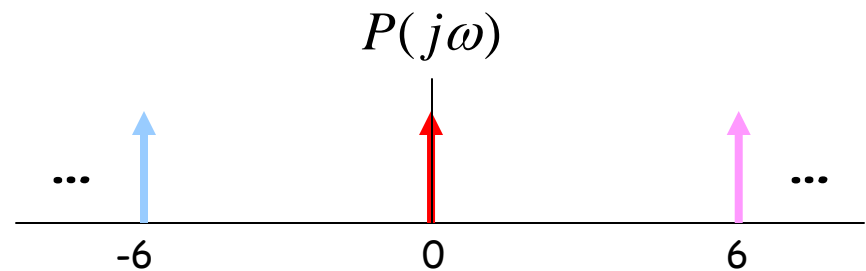
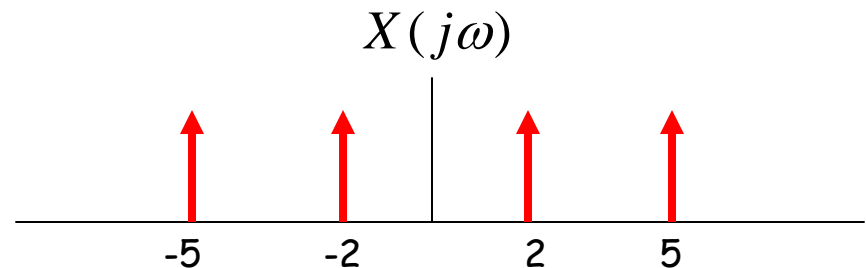
$$\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

See Chapter 7 in *Signals and Systems* by Oppenheim & Willsky (6.003)

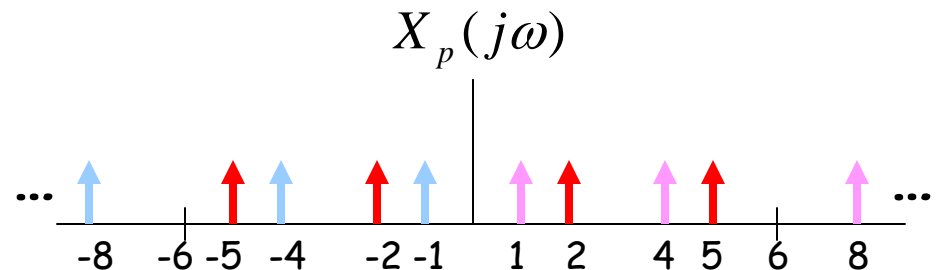
# Undersampling → Aliasing

If  $\omega_s \leq 2\omega_M$  there's an overlap of frequencies between one image and its neighbors and we discover that those overlaps introduce additional frequency content in the sampled signal, a phenomenon called **aliasing**.

$$\omega_M = 5, \omega_s = 6$$

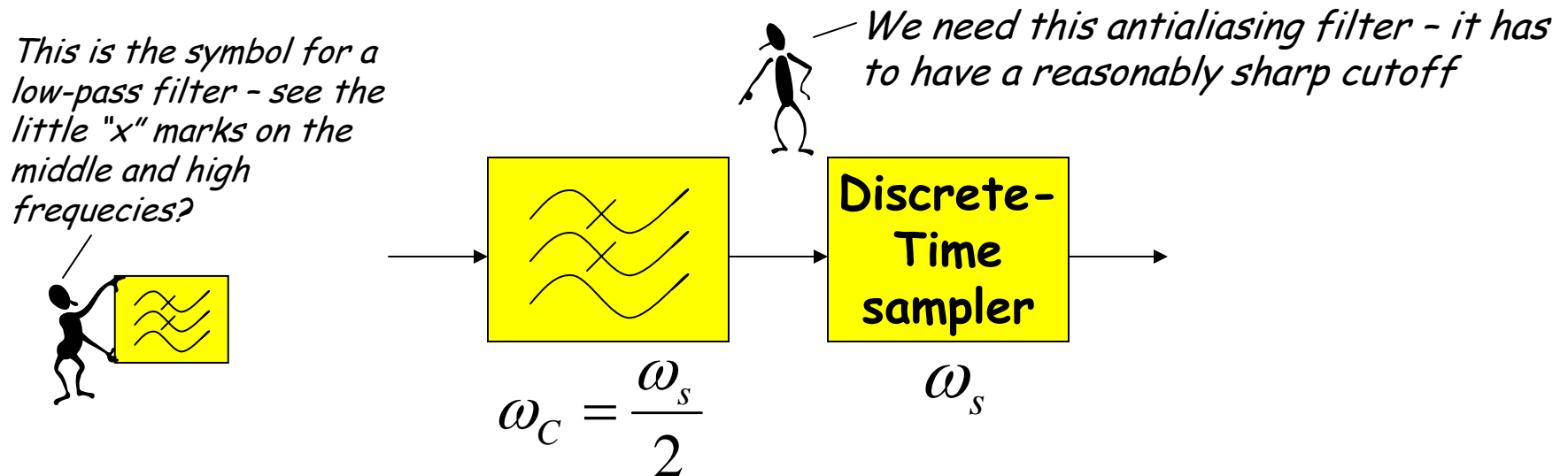


*There are now tones at 1  
(= 6 - 5) and 4 (= 6 - 2) in  
addition to the original  
tones at 2 and 5.*



# Antialias Filters

If we wish to create samples at some fixed frequency  $\omega_s$ , then to avoid aliasing we need to use a low-pass filter on the original waveform to remove any frequency content  $\geq \omega_s/2$ .



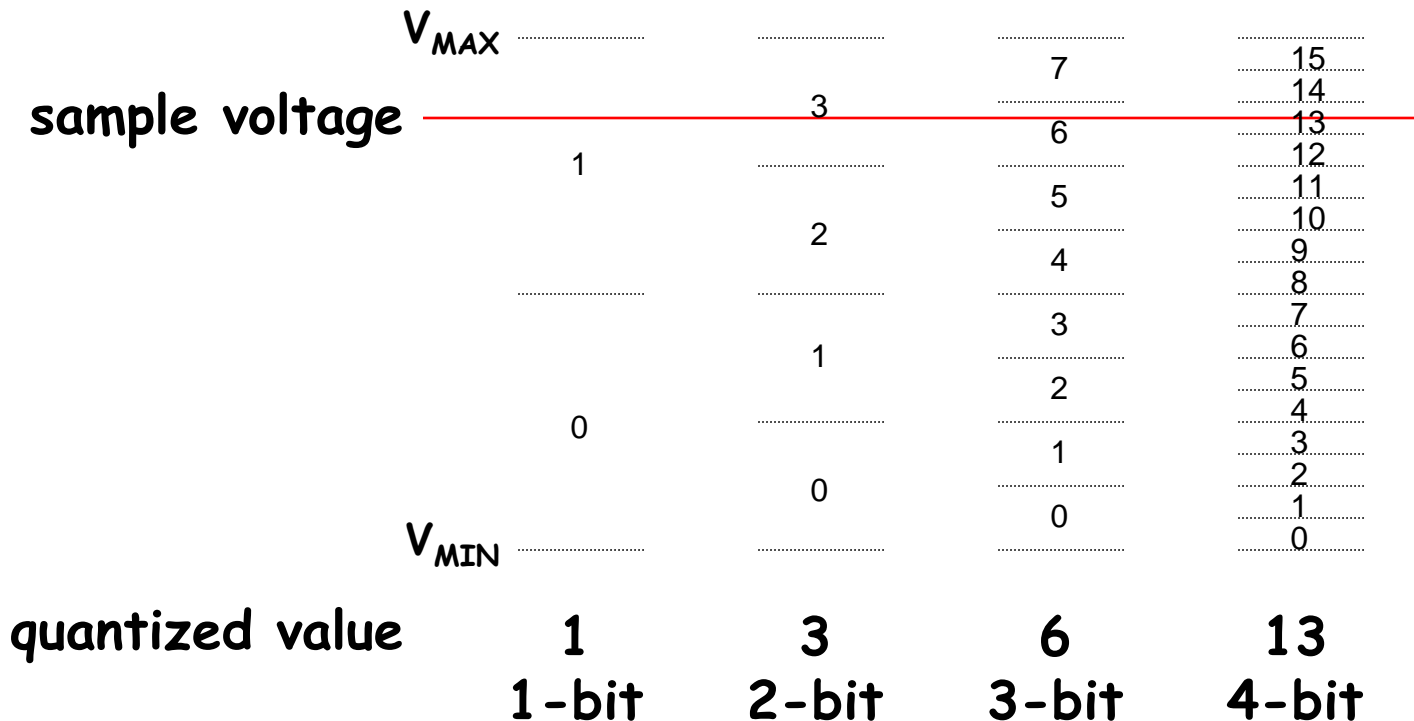
The frequency response of human ears essentially drops to zero above 20kHz. So the "Red Book" standard for CD Audio chose a 44.1kHz sampling rate, yielding a Nyquist frequency of 22.05kHz. The 2kHz of elbow room is needed because practical antialiasing filters have finite slope...



# Discrete Values

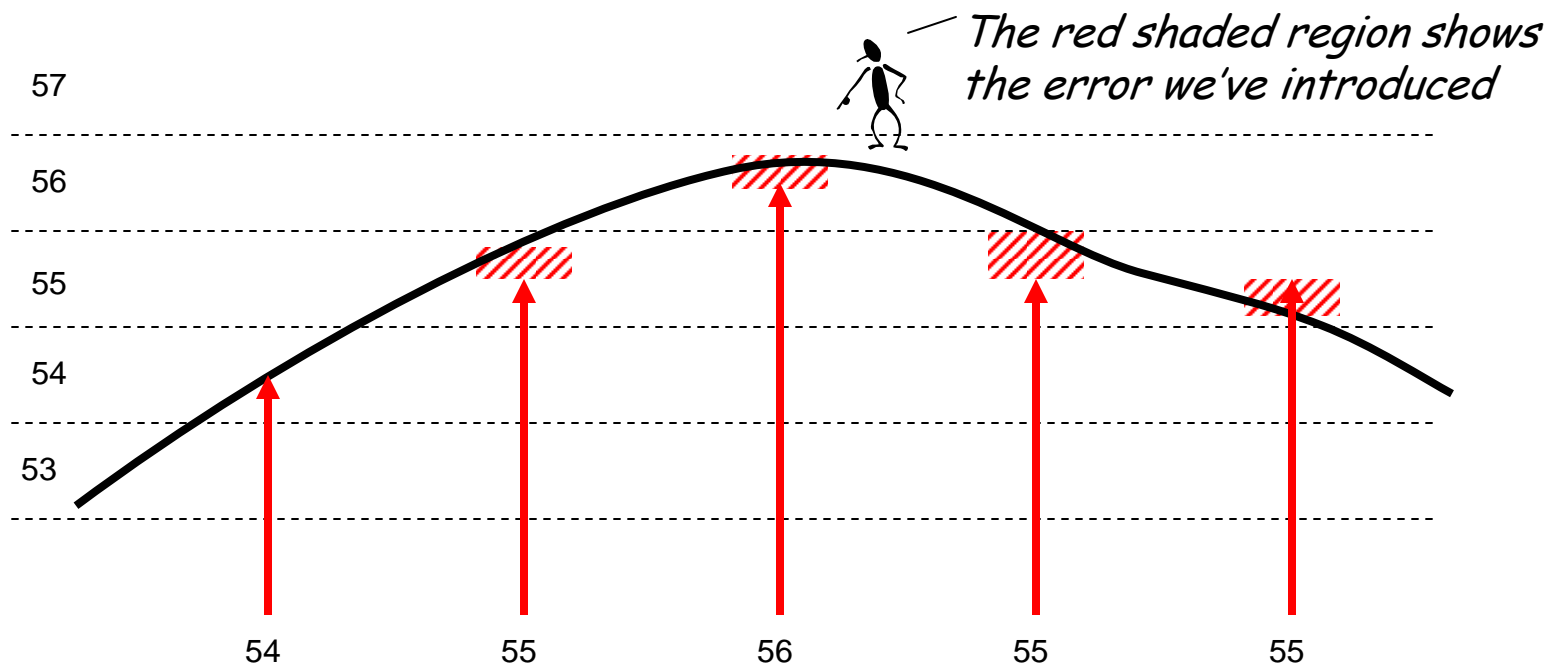
If we use  $N$  bits to encode the magnitude of one of the discrete-time samples, we can capture  $2^N$  possible values.

So we'll divide up the range of possible sample values into  $2^N$  intervals and choose the index of the enclosing interval as the encoding for the sample value.

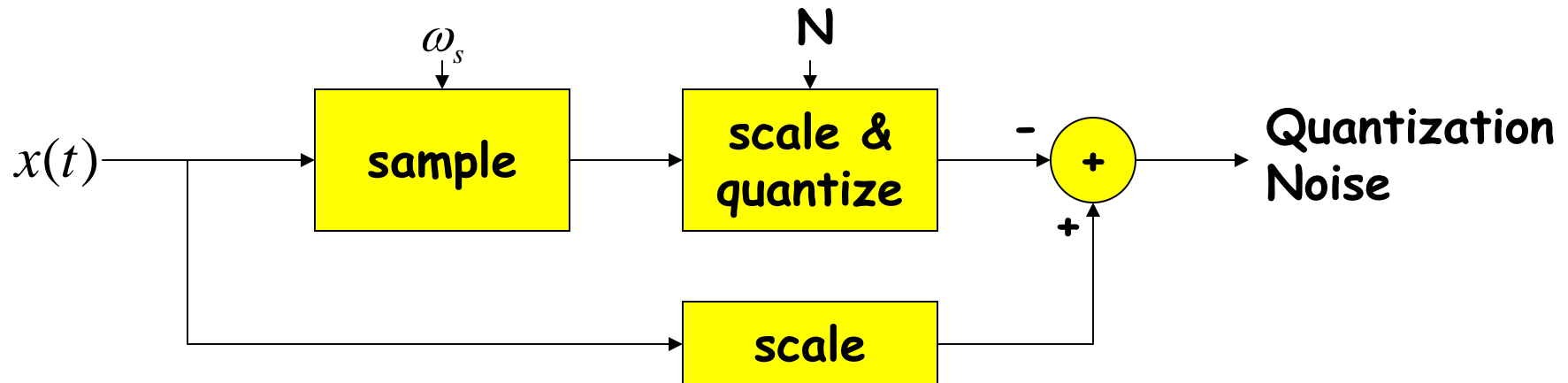


# Quantization Error

Note that when we quantize the scaled sample values we may be off by up to  $\pm\frac{1}{2}$  step from the true sampled values.

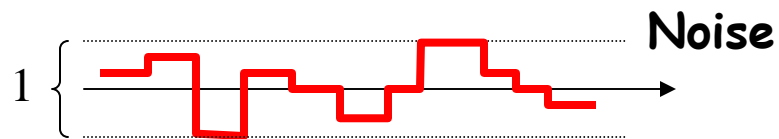


# Quantization Noise



## Time Domain

$2^N$  ..... Max signal



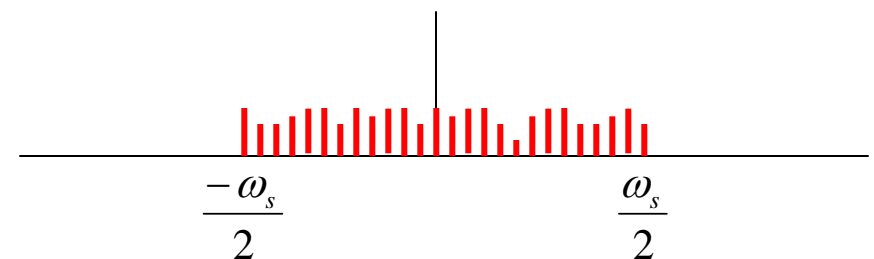
$$SNR = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{A_{\text{signal}}}{A_{\text{noise}}} \right) = 20 \log_{10} (2^N)$$

$$= N \cdot 6.02 \text{ dB}$$

+ 1.761 dB if  $x(t)$  is a sine wave

## Freq. Domain

$NOISE(j\omega)$

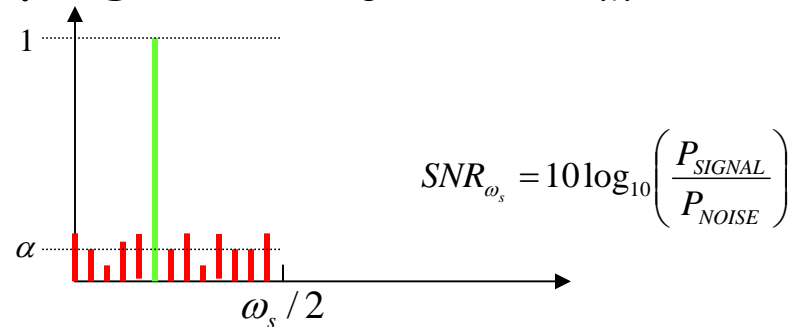


In most cases it's "white noise" with a uniform frequency distribution

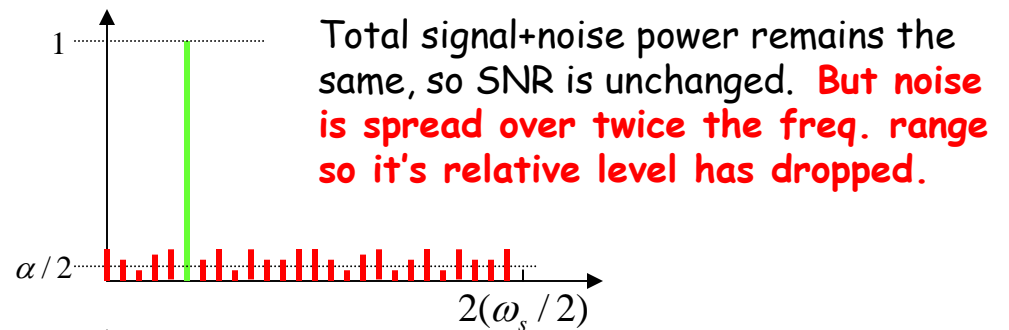
# Oversampling

To avoid aliasing we know that  $\omega_s$  must be at least  $2\omega_M$ . Is there any advantage to oversampling, i.e.,  $\omega_s = K \cdot 2\omega_M$ ?

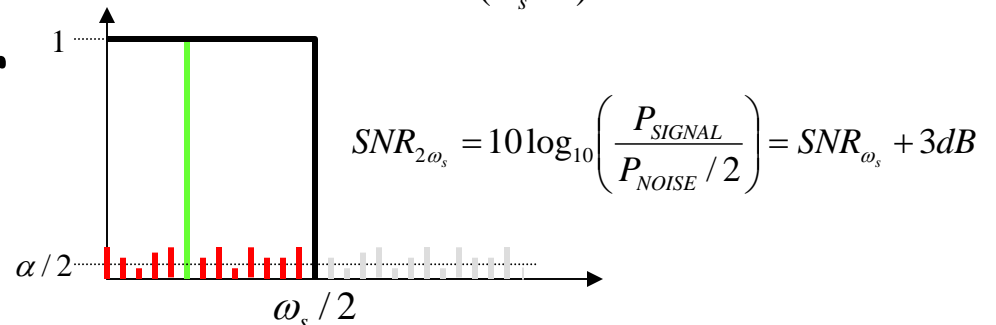
Suppose we look at the frequency spectrum of quantized samples of a sine wave: (sample freq. =  $\omega_s$ )



Let's double the sample frequency to  $2\omega_s$ .



Now let's use a low pass filter to eliminate half the noise! Note that we're not affecting the signal at all...



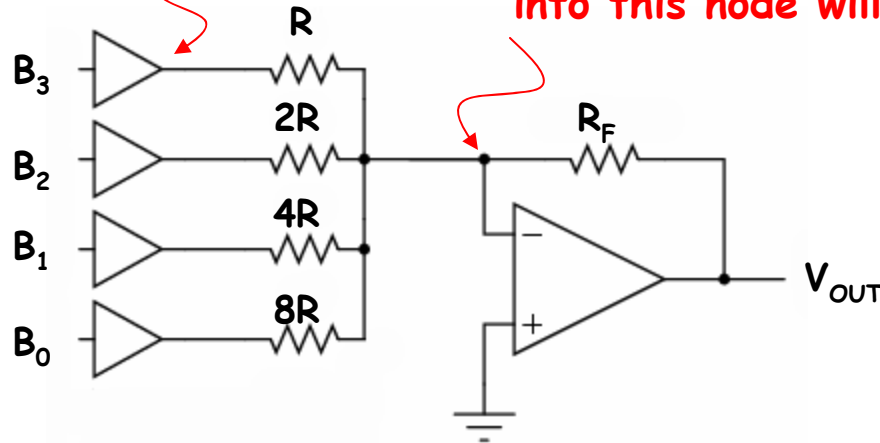
**Oversampling+LPF reduces noise by 3dB/octave**

# DAC: digital to analog converter

How can we convert a N-bit binary number to a voltage?

$V_i = 0$  volts if  $B_i = 0$   
 $V_i = V$  volts if  $B_i = 1$

OPAMP will vary  $V_{OUT}$  to maintain this node at 0V, i.e., the sum of the currents flowing into this node will be zero.



*OKAY, this'll work, but the voltages produced by the drivers and various  $R$ 's must be carefully matched in order to get equal steps.*

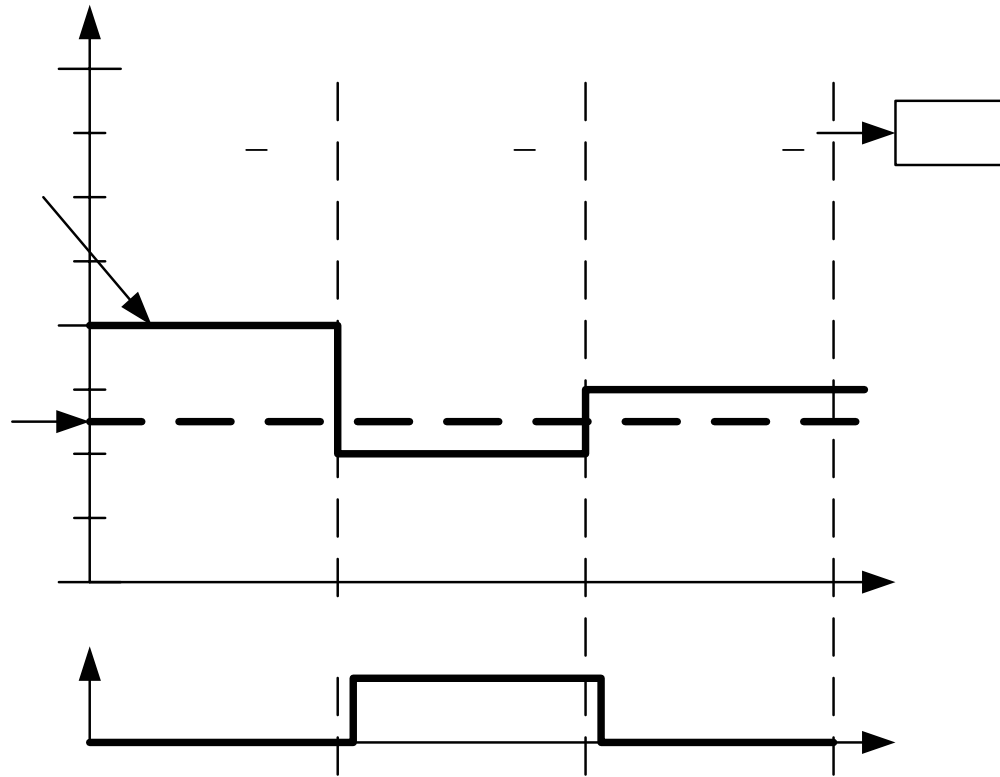
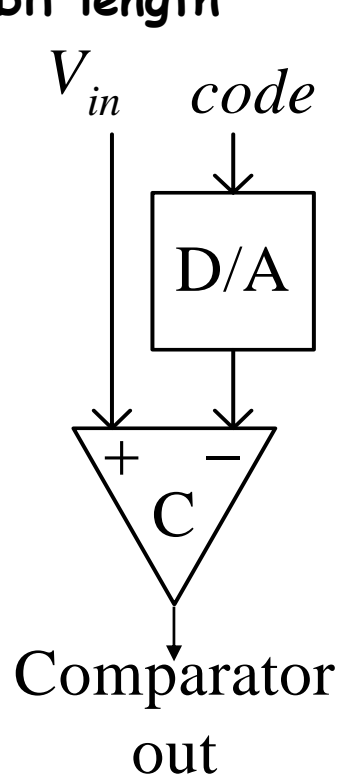


$$\frac{V_{OUT}}{R_F} + \frac{B_3 V}{R} + \frac{B_2 V}{2R} + \frac{B_1 V}{4R} + \frac{B_0 V}{8R} = 0$$

$$V_{OUT} = -\frac{R_F}{R} V \left( B_3 + \frac{B_2}{2} + \frac{B_1}{4} + \frac{B_0}{8} \right)$$

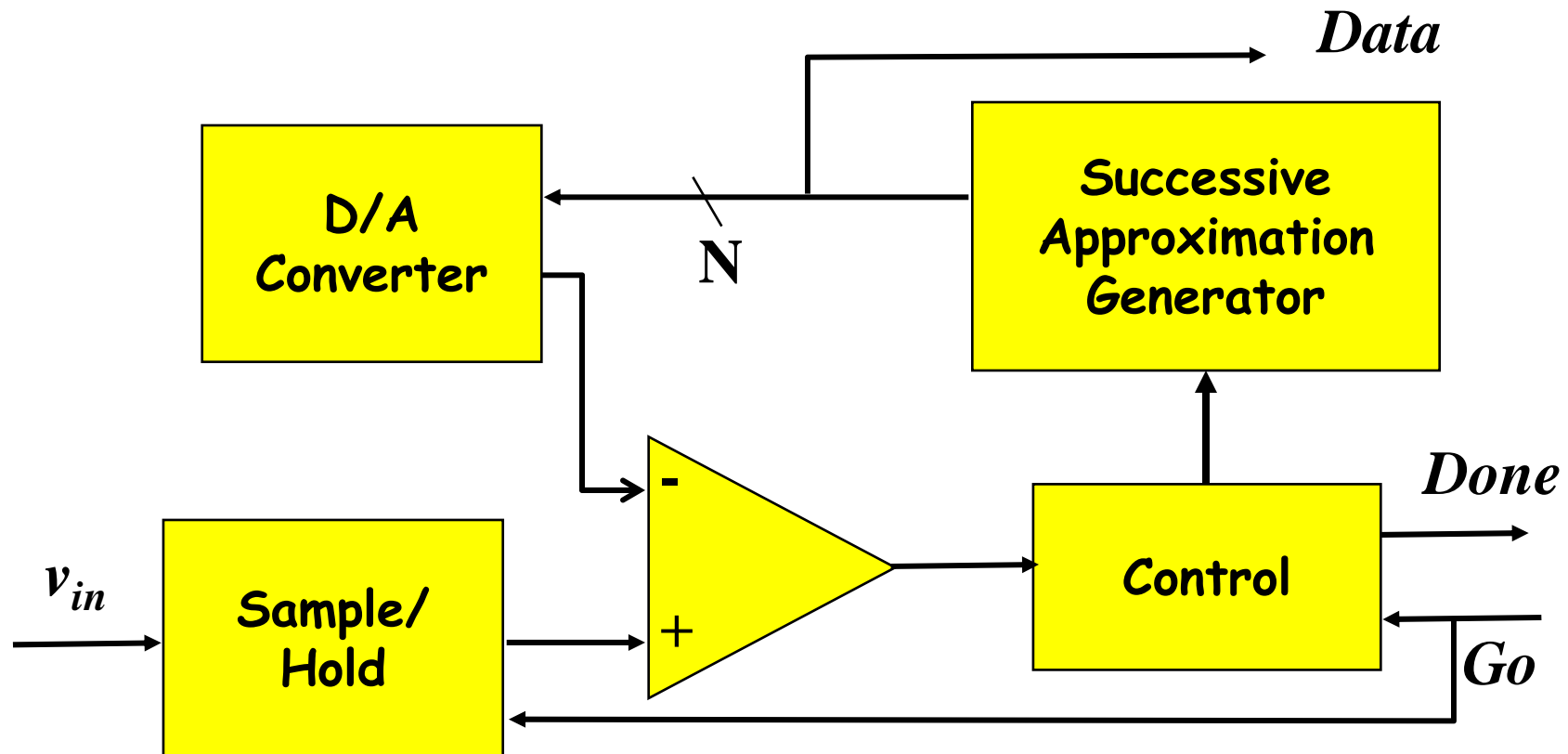
# Successive-Approximation A/D

- D/A converters are typically compact and easier to design. Why not A/D convert using a D/A converter and a comparator?
- DAC generates analog voltage which is compared to the input voltage
- If DAC voltage > input voltage then set that bit; otherwise, reset that bit
- This type of ADC takes a fixed amount of time proportional to the bit length



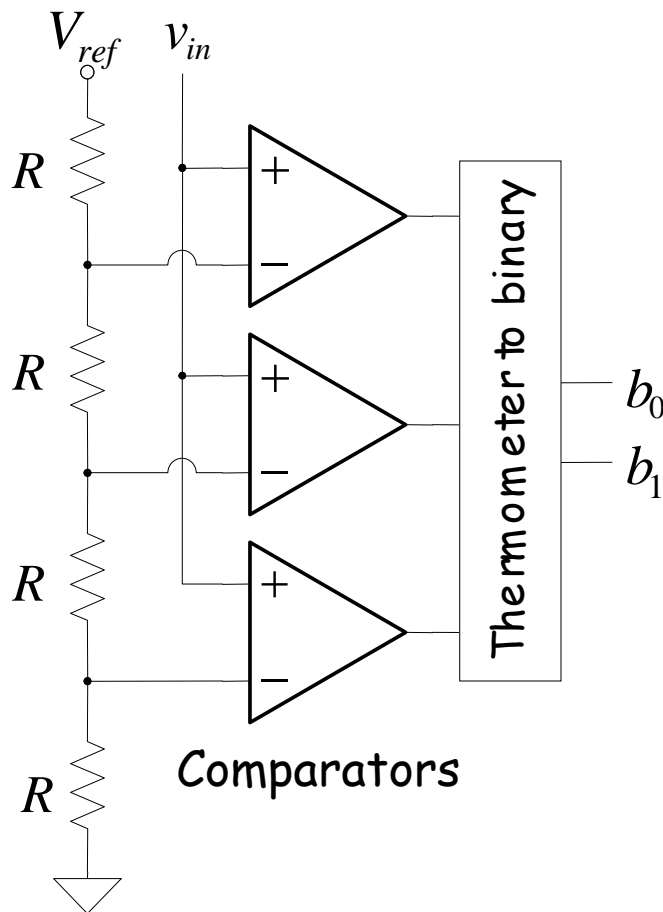
Example: 3-bit A/D conversion,  $2 \text{ LSB} < V_{in} < 3 \text{ LSB}$

# Successive-Approximation A/D



Serial conversion takes a time equal to  $N(t_{D/A} + t_{comp})$

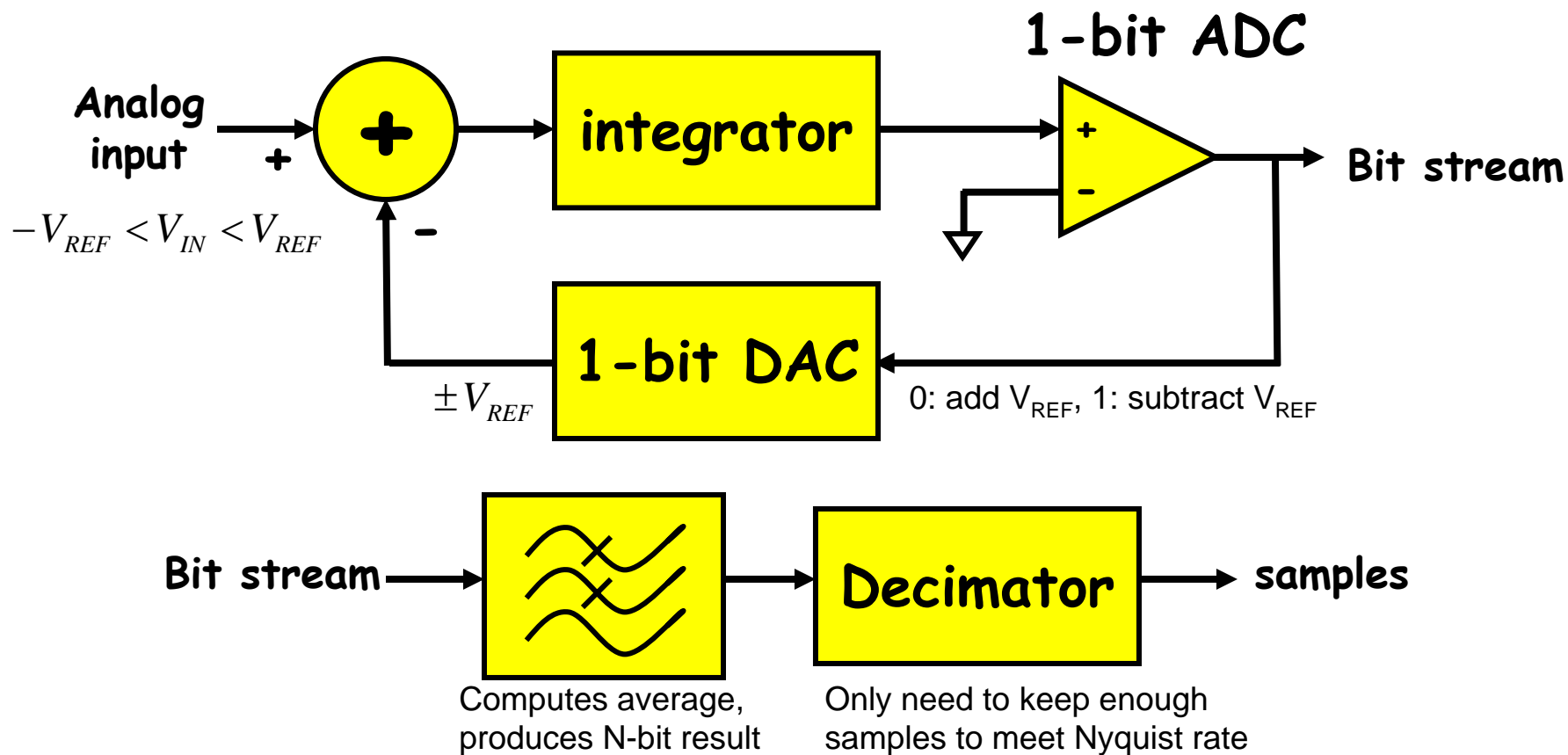
# Flash A/D Converter



- Brute-force A/D conversion
- Simultaneously compare the analog value with every possible reference value
- Fastest method of A/D conversion
- Size scales exponentially with precision (requires  $2^N$  comparators)



# Sigma Delta ADC



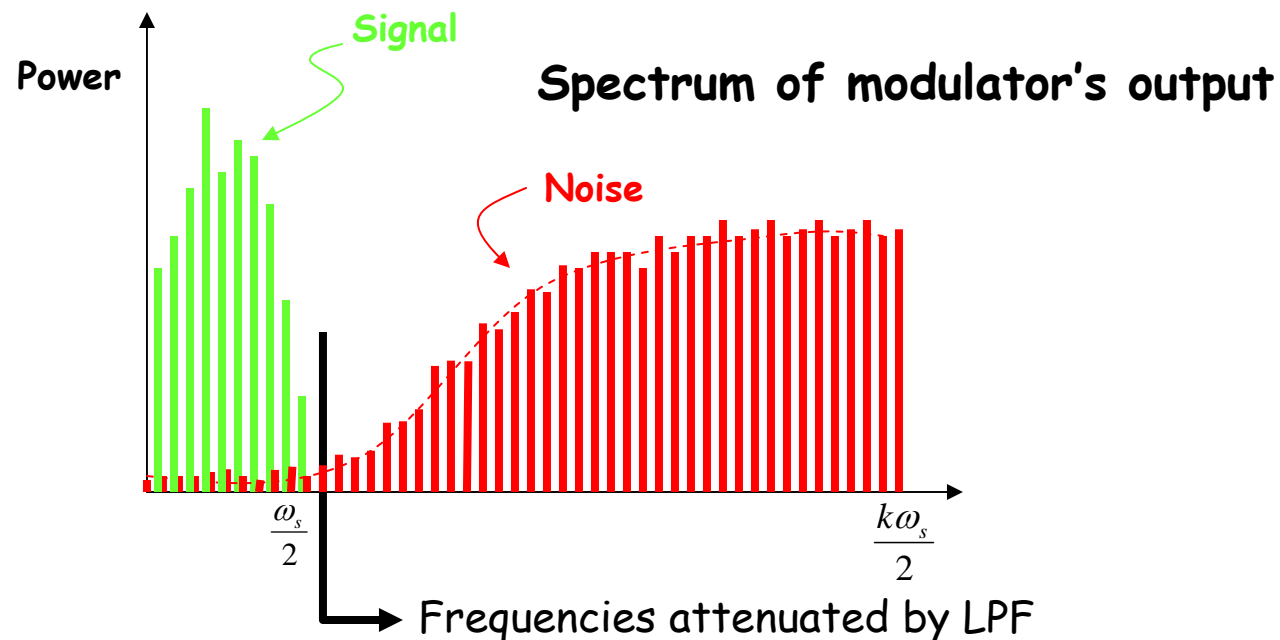
**Average of bit stream ( $1=V_{REF}$ ,  $0=-V_{REF}$ ) gives voltage**

With  $V_{REF}=1V$ :  $V_{IN}=0.5$ : 1110...,  $V_{IN}=-0.25$ : 00100101...,  $V_{IN}=0.6$ : 11110

[http://www.analog.com/Analog\\_Root/static/techSupport/designTools/interactiveTools/sdtutorial/sdtutorial.html](http://www.analog.com/Analog_Root/static/techSupport/designTools/interactiveTools/sdtutorial/sdtutorial.html)

# So, what's the big deal?

- Can be run at high sampling rates, oversampling by, say, 8 or 9 octaves for audio applications; low power implementations
- Feedback path through the integrator changes how the noise is spread across the sampling spectrum.



- Pushing noise power to higher frequencies means more noise is eliminated by LPF:  $N^{\text{th}}$  order  $\Sigma\Delta$  SNR =  $(3+N*6)\text{dB/octave}$

# Summary

- If we sample a band-limited signal  $x(t)$  to produce discrete-time samples  $x(nT)$ , then if  $\omega_s > 2\omega_M$ , then we can reconstruct the original waveform by passing the impulse samples through a LPF.
- Undersampling ( $\omega_s \leq 2\omega_M$ ) will result in aliasing. Usually an antialiasing filter is used before sampling to avoid this problem.
- Quantizing the sampled values into  $2^N$  discrete levels introduces quantization noise ( $\text{SNR} \sim 6\text{dB} \cdot N$ )
- Oversampling reduces noise by 3dB/octave
- DAC architectures: summing node
- ADC architectures: successive approx., flash, sigma delta (combines oversampling + noise shaping)