

# Error suppression techniques for energy-efficient high-resolution SAR ADCs

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**Abstract:** The successive approximation register (SAR) is one of the most energy-efficient analog-to-digital converter (ADC) architecture for medium-resolution applications. However, its high energy efficiency quickly diminishes when the target resolution increases. This is because a SAR ADC suffers from several major error source, including the sampling  $kT/C$  noise, the comparator noise, and the DAC mismatch. These errors are increasing hard to address in high-resolution SAR ADCs. This paper reviews recent advances on error suppression techniques for SAR ADCs, including the sampling  $kT/C$  noise reduction, the noise-shaping (NS) SAR, and the mismatch error shaping (MES). These techniques aim to boost the resolution of SAR ADCs while maintaining their superior energy efficiency.

**Key words:** SAR ADC;  $kT/C$  noise cancellation; noise shaping (NS); mismatch error shaping (MES)

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## 1. Introduction

As the interface between the analog world and the digital world, the analog-to-digital converter (ADC) plays a key role in many electronics systems. In recent years, the boom of internet-of-things (IoT) is driving the world into an unprecedented scale of connectivity and ubiquitous sensing. The fast-growing number of sensing nodes pose stringent requirements on energy efficiency of ADCs. Among various existing architectures, the successive approximation register (SAR) is deemed to be a promising candidate for ADC designs. Fig. 1 is the generic block diagram of a SAR ADC. Although most SAR ADCs are differentially implemented, a single-end one is shown here for simplicity. It consists of a capacitor digital-to-analog converter (DAC), a comparator and a SAR logic. Owing to the simple and mostly digital implementation, the SAR ADC is highly scaling friendly, and can achieve high speed and low power in an advanced nanometer CMOS technology.

However, on top of the stringent power efficiency requirement, many emerging applications also have an increasing demand for high ADC resolution. This is because a high resolution ADC provides tolerance to strong interferences, such as the blocker signals in receivers and the motion artifacts in sensors. Nevertheless, in the context of SAR ADC, it is very challenging to achieve the high resolution while maintaining the superior energy efficiency. This is mainly limited by several circuit errors, including the sampling  $kT/C$  noise, comparator noise, and DAC mismatch.

Recently, there is a trend to expand the superior energy efficiency of SAR ADC to the high-resolution domain. Various emerging efforts have been made in the past decade. The key of these efforts is to leverage the technology scaling and to suppress the circuit errors in an efficient way. This paper presents a review on three classes of emerging error suppression techniques, including the  $kT/C$  noise reduction, the noise-shaping (NS) SAR, and the DAC mismatch error shaping (MES), for realizing energy-efficient high-resolution SAR ADCs. This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides an analysis on the major error sources. From Section 3 to Section 5, three error suppression techniques are introduced, respectively. Section 6 concludes this paper.

## 2. Error sources in SAR ADC

There are various error sources that can degrade the accuracy of a SAR ADC. Among them, some errors do not make up the bulk of the total error and can be suppressed with small costs. Several examples are as follows. The quantization error can be halved by adding one more bit, the hardware overhead is small. The DAC noise can be minimized by reducing the switch resistance, and this becomes easier with a more advanced technology. The sampling non-linearity can be mitigated by using bootstrapped switches. However, some other er-

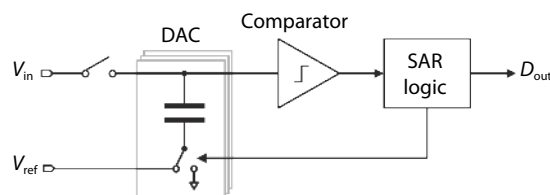


Fig. 1. Generic block diagram of a SAR ADC.

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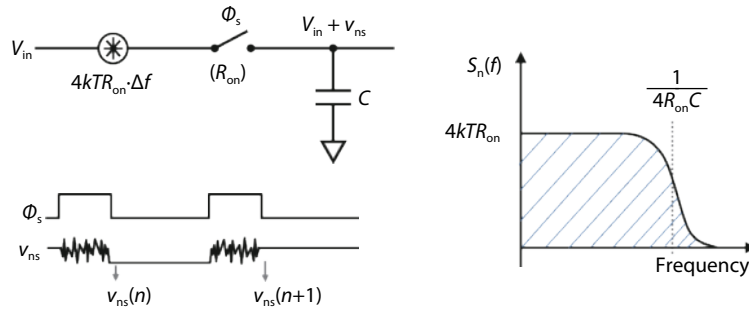


Fig. 2. A sampling circuit with  $kT/C$  noise.

rors are very hard to be addressed and can become the limiting factors in a SAR ADC, such as the sampling  $kT/C$  noise, the comparator noise, and the DAC mismatch. This section reviews these major errors and provides a comprehensive understanding on the energy efficiency and resolution limitations.

### 2.1. Sampling $kT/C$ noise

The  $kT/C$  noise occurs in any ADC with a sample-and-hold (S/H) circuit. It comes from the thermal noise associated with the sampling switch. A sampling circuit with  $kT/C$  noise is shown in Fig. 2. When the sampling switch is on, the input signal is tracked on the sampling capacitor. At the same time, the sampling switch with an equivalent resistance of  $R_{on}$  generates thermal noise at the top plate of the capacitor. Once the sampling switch turns off, both the input signal and the switch noise are frozen on the capacitor. The switch noise corrupts the input signal, degrading the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the sampling circuit.

The noise spectrum of the sampling switch at on state is white, its power spectrum density (PSD) is  $4kTR_{on}$ . The switch resistance and the sampling capacitor form a RC low-pass filter, limiting the noise bandwidth. By integrating the noise in the frequency domain, we can calculate the total sampling noise is

$$\overline{v_{ns}^2} = \int_0^\infty \frac{4kTR}{1 + (2\pi fR_{on}C)^2} df = \frac{kT}{C}. \quad (1)$$

It shows that the sampling noise is independent of the switch resistance and is solely determined by the capacitor. To reduce the sampling noise, the only way is to increase the capacitor  $C$  but it is at the cost of increased power, area, and design efforts for not only the SAR ADC core, but also its input driver and reference buffer.

### 2.2. Comparator noise

The comparator converts the analog input into digital output, and is a key building block in SAR ADCs. Its power, noise, and speed largely determine the SAR ADC's performance. A comparator consists of a preamp that enlarges the input signal, followed by a latch to resolve the final decision.

The conventional comparator design adopts an active preamp which consumes static power. To save the power, dynamic comparators are developed. The Strong-ARM latch<sup>[1]</sup> is a classic dynamic comparator structure and is widely used over the years. As shown in Fig. 3, in a Strong-ARM latch, the input pair and the tail transistor form the preamp, and the cross-coupled inverters serve as the regenerative latch. The input-referred noise power of the comparator can be expressed as:

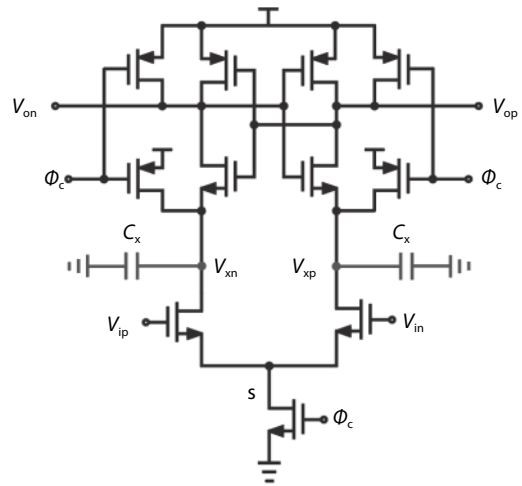


Fig. 3. Strong-ARM latch<sup>[1]</sup>.

pressed as:

$$\overline{v_{n,comp}^2} = \overline{v_{n,preamp}^2} + \frac{\overline{v_{n,latch}^2}}{A^2}, \quad (2)$$

where  $v_{n,preamp}$  and  $v_{n,latch}$  represent the noise contributions of the preamp and the latch, respectively, and  $A$  is the preamp gain. As analyzed in Ref. [2], the preamp noise can be expressed as

$$\overline{v_{n,preamp}^2} = \frac{4kTy}{g_m/I_D} \cdot \frac{1}{C_x(V_{thp} + V_{thn})}, \quad (3)$$

where  $C_x$  is the loading capacitor of the preamp,  $V_{thp}$  and  $V_{thn}$  are the threshold voltages of PMOS and NMOS transistors, respectively. The noise from the latch can be expressed as

$$\overline{v_{n,latch}^2} = \frac{2kT(1 + \gamma)}{C_o}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the device-dependent fitting parameter, and its theoretical value is  $2/3$  for long-channel devices.  $C_o$  is the loading capacitor of the latch, it is not shown in Fig. 3.

To realize a low-noise comparator, one can apply the brute-force analog scaling, which is to increase the preamp gain,  $g_m/I_D$  and loading capacitors at the cost of increased power and transistor size. Generally, it requires 4 times of power for every 6 dB noise reduction, which is a steep power-noise trade-off. Moreover, the increased transistor size introduces large comparator input capacitance. It can cause signal attenuation at the comparator input, leading to in-

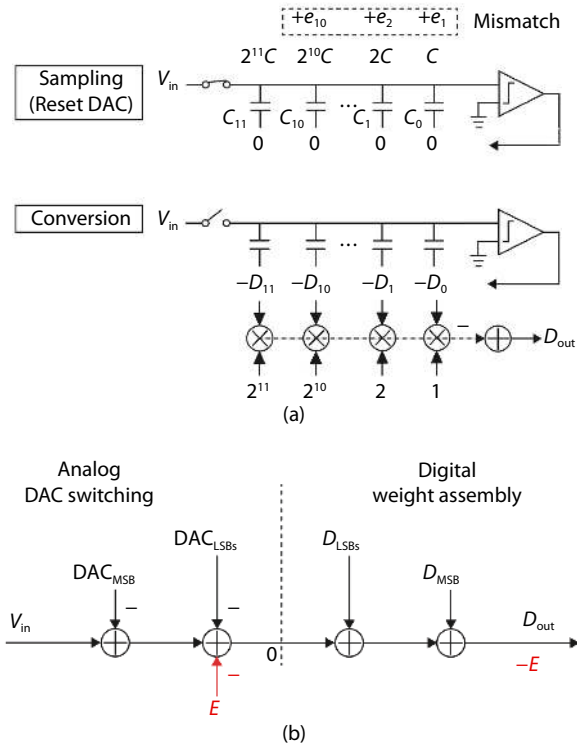


Fig. 4. A SAR ADC with DAC mismatch: (a) operation scheme, (b) behavioral operation model.

creased ADC input referred noise.

### 2.3. DAC mismatch

DAC mismatch causes inconsistency between the analog weights of DAC cells and their digital weights. Fig. 4(a) shows the operation of a SAR ADC with a 12-bit DAC,  $C_{11}$ – $C_0$ . In the sampling phase, the input signal is sampled on the DAC top plate and all the digital codes reset. In the conversion phase, the DAC cells are switched sequentially based on a binary search algorithm and their analog weights are subtracted from the DAC to bring the voltage at DAC top plate down to 0. At the same time, the digital output is established from 0 by assembling all the digital weights. In an ideal case, the DAC cells values,  $2^{11}C$ – $2^0C$ , perfectly match their digital weights,  $2^{11}$ – $2^0$ , and therefore the digital output represents the input signal accurately.

In a practical design, each DAC cell deviates from its ideal value due to process variations. Without affecting the linearity, the most significant bit (MSB) cell  $C_{11}$  can be used as a reference to define the mismatch error of other DAC cells, as expressed in the following

$$C_i = \begin{cases} 2^{11}C, & i = 11, \\ 2^iC + e_i, & i = 0, 1, \dots, 10, \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where  $e_i$  is the mismatch error of  $C_i$ .

Based on the definition above, the SAR ADC operation in Fig. 4(a) can be modeled behaviorally as depicted in Fig. 4(b). Firstly, the MSB cell is switched and its analog weight,  $DAC_{MSB}$ , is subtracted from the input. Then, the LSB cells are switched sequentially and the sum of their analog weights,  $DAC_{LSBs}$ , is subtracted from the input. Along with the subtraction of  $DAC_{LSBs}$ , the mismatch errors of the LSB cells,  $e_{10}$ – $e_0$ , are also weighted and subtracted from the input. After digit-

al weight assembly, the digital output is obtained as

$$D_{out} = V_{in} + E. \quad (6)$$

The DAC mismatch error,  $E$ , is a combination of  $e_{10}$ – $e_0$  and their corresponding LSB codes, and can be expressed as

$$E = \sum_0^{10} D_i e_i. \quad (7)$$

As shown in Eq. (7), the DAC mismatch error is modulated by the digital output codes. Thereby, it is correlated with the input signal, and can cause non-linear distortions. The DAC mismatch issue is often the linearity bottleneck for high resolution ADCs.

## 3. Sampling $kT/C$ noise reduction

The sampling  $kT/C$  noise has long been considered as a fundamental SNR limit for any ADC with a front-end S/H circuit. To satisfy the SNR requirement, the  $kT/C$  noise is typically suppressed by increasing the input capacitor size. The large input capacitors make it very costly to design the ADC input driver and reference buffer. Their power, area, and design complexity are typically much higher than the SAR ADC itself. To ease the ADC driver requirement while enabling high resolution, recently several emerging techniques are proposed to break the fundamental  $kT/C$  noise limit. In this session, three sampling  $kT/C$  noise reduction techniques that address the  $kT/C$  noise issue from different perspectives will be introduced.

### 3.1. Continuous-time SAR

In Ref. [3], Shen *et al.* demonstrated a 13-bit two-step SAR ADC with only 120 fF total input capacitance, as shown in Fig. 5. The key idea of this work is that it uses a continuous-time (CT) SAR as the first stage of the ADC. Since the sampling operation is removed in the CT SAR, the associated sampling  $kT/C$  noise is eliminated. Therefore, small input capacitors can be used but without incurring  $kT/C$  noise, greatly reducing the design cost for the ADC input driver. Because the input varies with time, a CT SAR produces a tracking error, which makes it hard for a standalone CT SAR to go beyond the 10-bit resolution. To increase the overall ADC resolution, a two-step (or pipelined) architecture can be adopted. The CT SAR only needs to resolve a few bits (e.g., 6-bit), and its residue voltage is amplified by an inter-stage gain and then quantized by a second-stage discrete-time (DT) SAR. The DT SAR introduces a  $kT/C$  noise, but it is attenuated by the inter-stage gain when referred to the input.

However, the CT SAR approach suffers from several limitations. First, it cannot convert a DC signal since its input is AC coupled, limiting its application space. Second, the input signal frequency is limited to only 1 MHz to prevent large tracking errors from the CT SAR. Last, the CT SAR operation has to be very fast. Each CT SAR cycle is only 500 ps. Even though the input capacitor size is reduced, ensuring settling within such a short time can still be a challenge for the ADC input driver and reference buffer.

### 3.2. $kT/C$ noise cancellation

Unlike Ref. [3] that eliminates the  $kT/C$  noise by remov-

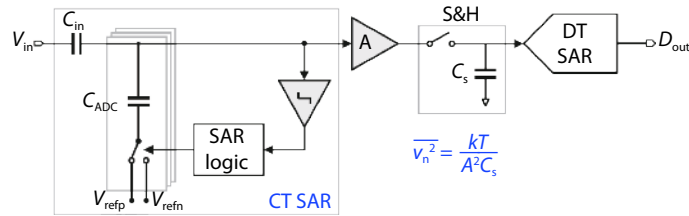


Fig. 5. Two-step SAR ADC with a continuous-time first stage<sup>[3]</sup>.

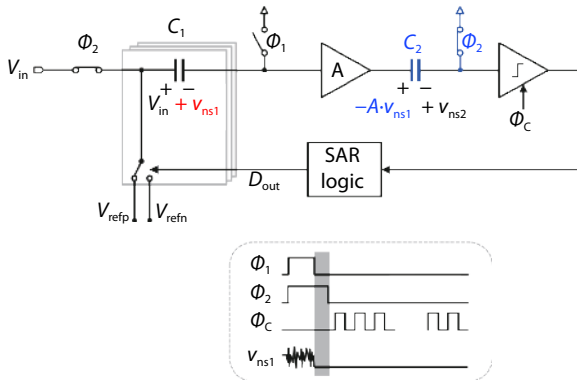


Fig. 6. SAR ADC with  $kT/C$  noise cancellation<sup>[4]</sup>.

ing the sampling operation in the front-end stage, another work by Liu *et al.*<sup>[4]</sup> addressed the  $kT/C$  noise in a different perspective. This work allows the generation of  $kT/C$  noise, but manages to remove it through a cancellation technique. This cancellation technique is based on the classic output series offset cancellation that has been used in amplifiers<sup>[5]</sup> and comparators<sup>[6]</sup>. It also shares similarity with the correlated double sampling (CDS) technique used in image sensors for mitigating the reset noise<sup>[7-9]</sup>. In Ref. [10], it is extended to implement a sampling circuit that is able to sample a time-varying signal while cancelling the sampling noise.

The SAR ADC with  $kT/C$  noise cancellation technique<sup>[4]</sup> is illustrated in Fig. 6. Comparing to the conventional SAR ADCs with a bottom-plate sampling and a comparator preamp, the only additional circuits are a capacitor  $C_2$  and a switch controlled by  $\Phi_2$ . At the falling edge of  $\Phi_1$ , the input signal  $V_{in}$  is sampled on capacitor  $C_1$ , together with the  $kT/C_1$  noise  $v_{ns1}$ . After  $\Phi_1$  falls,  $v_{ns1}$  becomes a constant voltage that is frozen on  $C_1$ , exhibiting like an offset at the preamp input during the entire SAR conversion phase. As  $\Phi_2$  falls later than  $\Phi_1$ , the “offset”  $v_{ns1}$  will be amplified through the preamp during the time interval between the falling edges of  $\Phi_1$  and  $\Phi_2$ , and stored across  $C_2$ . Since  $C_2$  works in the output series offset cancellation configuration, the  $kT/C_1$  noise  $v_{ns1}$  is canceled at the comparator input. When  $\Phi_2$  falls, the  $kT/C_2$  noise  $v_{ns2}$  is introduced on  $C_2$ . But, since  $v_{ns2}$  is after the preamp, it is attenuated by the preamp gain. With the significant reduction of  $kT/C$  noise, both the capacitors  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  can be made small, leading to significant power and area savings while maintaining the required SNR.

Compared with the prior  $kT/C$  noise reduction work<sup>[3]</sup>, this work<sup>[4]</sup> obviates the issues of using CT-SAR. It supports DC input and expands the signal bandwidth by 20 times. It also obviates the need of fast settling for the ADC input driver and reference buffer. The cost of the  $kT/C$  noise cancellation is that it requires a wide-bandwidth preamp to capture the  $kT/C_1$  noise during the small time interval between fall-

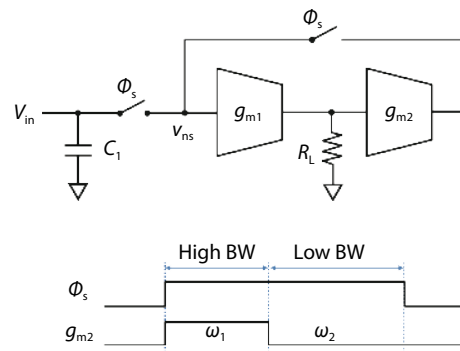


Fig. 7.  $kT/C$  noise reduction by decoupling Noise PSD and bandwidth<sup>[11]</sup>.

ing edges of  $\Phi_1$  and  $\Phi_2$ . Nevertheless, the additional preamp power is worthwhile when considering the significantly reduced cost on the input driver and reference buffer enabled by using small input capacitors.

### 3.3. Decoupling noise PSD and bandwidth

In Ref. [11], Li *et al.* explored another angle to tackle the  $kT/C$  noise issue. As discussed in Section 2.1,  $kT/C$  noise is a fundamental error source since its PSD and bandwidth are tightly coupled. To break the  $kT/C$  noise limit, this work proposed to decouple the noise PSD and bandwidth. This is realized by a two-stage amplifier-based sampling circuit, as shown in Fig. 7.

Assuming  $g_{m1}R_L \ll 1$ , the input referred noise PSD is dominated by the amplifier in the first stage, it can be expressed as

$$\text{PSD} \approx \frac{4kT\gamma}{g_{m1}}, \quad (8)$$

where  $g_{m1}$  is the transconductance of first-stage amplifier. By placing the dominant pole at the output of the second-stage amplifier, the noise bandwidth can be expressed as

$$\text{NBW} \approx \frac{g_{m1}g_{m2}R_L}{4C}, \quad (9)$$

where  $g_{m2}$  is the transconductance of second-stage amplifier, and  $R_L$  is the output resistance of the first-stage amplifier. From Eqs. (8) and (9), the resulted total sampling noise power can be obtained as

$$\overline{v_{ns}^2} \approx \frac{kT\gamma}{C} g_{m2}R_L. \quad (10)$$

It shows that the one can break the  $kT/C$  noise limit by setting  $g_{m2}R_L < 1$ .

An issue with this technique is that it decreases the tracking bandwidth ( $g_{m1}g_{m2}R_L/2\pi C$ ) by using a small  $g_{m2}R_L$ . To ad-



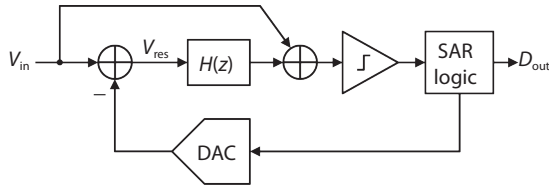


Fig. 8. Generic block diagram of a NS-SAR ADC.

dress this issue, a switching bandwidth technique is applied in the second-stage amplifier to maintain a high average tracking BW while achieving sampling noise bandwidth reduction. The input signal tracking is mostly done during the high bandwidth phase in which  $g_{m2}R_L$  is set to be 1. The sampling noise is reduced during the low bandwidth phase in which  $g_{m2}R_L$  is set to be less than 1.

#### 4. Noise-shaping (NS) SAR

The comparator noise is a major limiting factor that prevents the SAR ADCs from achieving a high resolution. Traditionally, the delta-sigma ( $\Delta\Sigma$ ) architecture is commonly employed to realize high-resolution ADCs, since it can effectively suppress the comparator noise by noise shaping. However, the  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADCs require high-performance operational transconductance amplifiers (OTAs), which are power-hungry and scaling unfriendly. To combine the benefits of both SAR and  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADCs while obviating their drawbacks, several recent works proposed the concept of NS SAR ADCs<sup>[12–26]</sup>. A NS-SAR ADC is conceptually illustrated in Fig. 8. It embeds a noise shaping filter  $H(z)$  inside the SAR loop to filter the previous conversion residues. Comparing to the conventional  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADC, the NS-SAR ADC does not require an explicit feedback DAC since the DAC in SAR performs both the quantization and feedback. In addition, it has low requirements on the performance of noise-shaping filters. The simple, low-order and even lossy filters can be employed since the SAR quantizer already provides relatively high raw resolution. In this way, the NS-SAR ADC can inherit the energy efficiency of SAR ADC by retaining the compact structure, while simultaneously enabling the high resolution of  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADC by bringing in the noise-shaping capability.

The noise suppression capability of a NS-SAR ADC is determined by its noise transfer function (NTF). Assuming the first-order noise-shaping implementation, the NTF can be expressed as

$$\text{NTF}(z) = \frac{1}{1 + H(z)} = 1 - pz^{-1}, \quad (11)$$

where  $p$  is the zero of the NTF and is also the pole of the noise-shaping filter,  $0 < p < 1$ . The value of  $p$  reflects the effectiveness of noise shaping. With a larger  $p$ , the zero of NTF will be placed closer to the unit circle, and thus enabling a sharp noise-shaping effect.

To realize a NS-SAR ADC with high efficiency, the key is the design of the noise-shaping filter, which is expected to provide strong noise suppression, and at the same time, to be low power, scaling friendly and robust. Categorized by the implementation of noise-shaping filters, generally there are three types of NS-SAR ADCs, i.e., the close-loop amplifier-based one, the open-loop amplifier-based one and the passive one. In the following, the three categories of NS-SAR

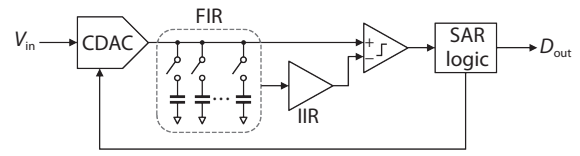


Fig. 9. NS-SAR ADC with close-loop amplifier-based noise-shaping filter<sup>[12]</sup>.

ADCs will be covered with insightful discussions on their benefits and limitations.

##### 4.1. Close-loop amplifier-based NS-SAR

The first NS-SAR ADC design<sup>[12]</sup>, proposed by Fredenburg, adopted the close-loop amplifier-based noise-shaping filter, as depicted in Fig. 9. It consists of a finite-impulse-response (FIR) filter and a switched-capacitor integrator. To reduce the circuit complexity and power consumption, this work intentionally implemented a low NTF zero of 0.64, allowing the use of a single-stage low-gain amplifier in the integrator. The FIR filter is used to compensate the noise-shaping degradation due to the low NTF zero. With this arrangement, the resulted NTF achieves a steep shaping curve at the high-frequency range, and the obtained resolution gain is equivalent with an ideal third-order NTF at the low OSR of 4. Yet, the mild NTF zero makes this design less effective for high-resolution high-OSR designs since the NTF flattens out at low frequencies.

To improve the resolution of NS-SAR ADCs, Shu *et al.*<sup>[13]</sup> used a high-gain amplifier to realize the NTF zero close to 1, and thereby, improving the shaping effect at low frequencies. It also used the FIR filter to further enhance the shaping capability. Nevertheless, the active amplifier is power-hungry, overshadowing the energy efficiency and the fully dynamic nature of SAR ADCs. Apart from the single-amplifier first-order noise-shaping approaches in Refs. [12, 13], the work of Ref. [14] proposed a third-order NS-SAR ADC using three amplifiers, achieving the aggressive shaping capability. To save the power of amplifiers, it adopts the resistive-load amplifiers which are only powered up during the short integration phase and turned off most of the time. However, this method would not work well in high-speed applications where the start-up of amplifiers would become challenging. In addition, the active amplifier-based approaches above<sup>[12–14]</sup> suffer from the poor scaling compatibility, the performance (gain and bandwidth) of active amplifiers can deteriorate with the decrease of supply voltage and transistor's intrinsic gain.

To address the above limitations, Tang *et al.*<sup>[15]</sup> proposed a novel close-loop amplifier-based NS-SAR ADC by employing the dynamic amplifiers, as shown in Fig. 10. This approach combines the merits of the dynamic circuits and the closed-loop operation. Because it uses a dynamic amplifier instead of an active amplifier, it eliminates the static current and also has lower noise. Moreover, since it operates in closed-loop, its transfer function is set by capacitor ratios, and thus, is highly accurate. It is insensitive to PVT variations, free from gain calibration, immune to clock jitter, and can realize aggressive NTF.

##### 4.2. Open-loop amplifier-based NS-SAR

To improve the power-efficiency of NS-SAR ADCs, some researchers proposed to use open-loop amplifiers to realize the

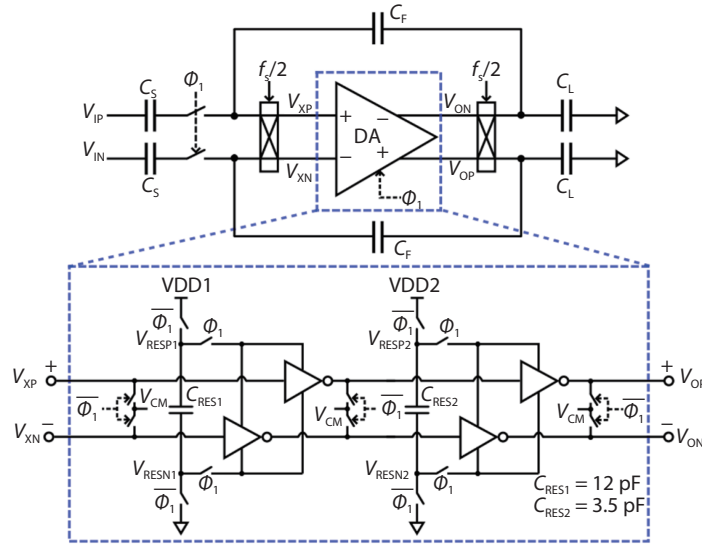


Fig. 10. Closed-Loop Dynamic Amplifier-based noise-shaping filter<sup>[15]</sup>.

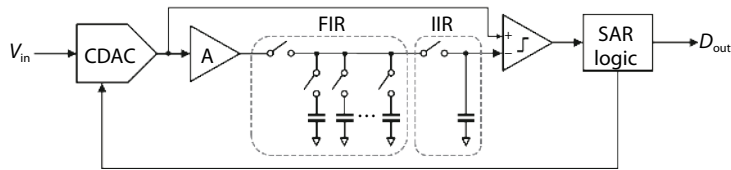


Fig. 11. Open-loop dynamic amplifier-based NS-SAR<sup>[16]</sup>.

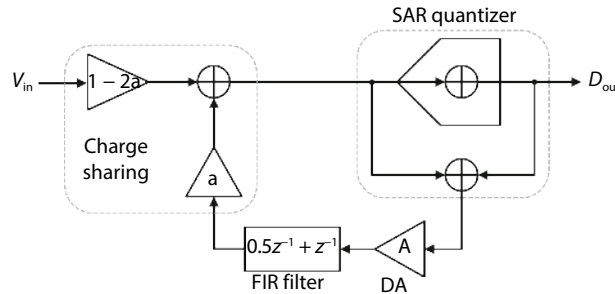


Fig. 12. NS-SAR ADC with EF structure and open-loop dynamic amplifier<sup>[17]</sup>.

noise-shaping filters<sup>[16–19]</sup>. Comparing to close-loop amplifiers that require complete settling, the open-loop ones operate in incomplete settling mode to save the power consumption. In addition, it also reduces the noise bandwidth of the amplifier, limiting its noise contribution.

Fig. 11 shows the open-loop amplifier-based NS-SAR in Ref. [16], presented by Liu and Huang. Instead of using the classic active amplifier, this work uses a dynamic amplifier, further improving the power efficiency. A FIR-IIR loop filter is implemented to provide a sharp NTF. Both the FIR and IIR filters are realized by fully switched-capacitor methods. The dynamic amplifier is placed at the front-end of the loop filter, providing the gain to compensate for the signal attenuation during the passive charge sharing. It also effectively suppresses the noise from the back-end stages, allowing small capacitors to be used in the FIR and IIR filters for better area and speed.

The NS-SAR ADCs discussed so far are all based on the cascaded-integrator-feed-forward (CIFF) structure. A limitation of the CIFF structure is that the NTF zero location directly asso-

ciates with the filter quality, leading to a steep trade-off between noise-shaping effect and power efficiency. To overcome the limitation of CIFF structure, researchers proposed the error feedback (EF) structure<sup>[17–19]</sup>. The first EF implementation of NS-SAR is presented by Li *et al.*<sup>[17]</sup>. Its signal flow diagram is depicted in Fig. 12. This work realizes the second-order noise shaping with a variable EF scheme, where the EF path is implemented by a tunable gain followed by a two-tap fixed-coefficient FIR. This work also realizes the optimized NTF zeros. In addition, it reuses the comparator as a dynamic amplifier. The FIR and feedback summation is realized through fully passive switched-capacitor network and charge sharing. Similar to Ref. [16], the use of residue pre-amplification highly relaxes the noise from switched-capacitor FIR, thus reducing its area overhead. Later, in Refs. [18, 19], Jie *et al.* proposed two implementations of the fourth-order NS-SAR ADCs based on the EF structure. This work of Ref. [18] utilizes the inherent delay between the four time-interleaved channels to realize the fourth-order noise shaping, while the work of Ref. [19] cascades two second-order noise-shaping



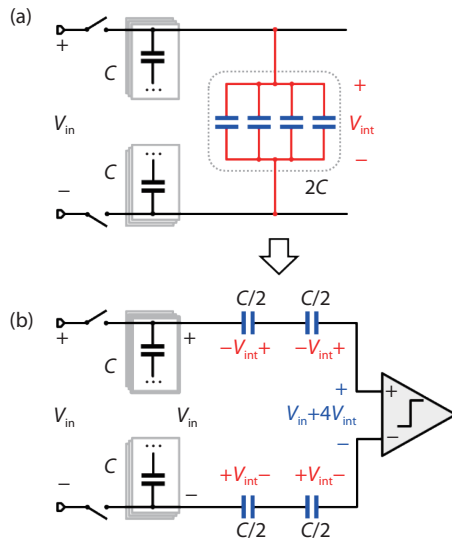


Fig. 14. (Color online) Operation of the NS SAR ADC in Ref. [26]: (a) integration phase, (b) conversion phase.

a simple 1-input-pair comparator can be used, greatly reducing the comparator noise. This work also eliminates the residue sampling, the total  $kT/C$  noise is reduced by 5.5 times compared with Ref. [25]. In addition, its sharper NTF brings a 4.4 dB SQNR benefit over Ref. [25].

## 5. DAC mismatch error shaping (MES)

DAC mismatch is the linearity bottleneck for high resolution ADCs. A classic solution for DAC mismatch is to use calibration. However, the foreground calibration is vulnerable to long-term error drift, such as aging and temperature drift. Background calibration can track the component variations, but the price is the high hardware cost and long convergence time. The commonly used mismatch solution for high-resolution  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADCs is the dynamic element matching (DEM). However, the circuit complexity of DEM grows exponentially with the number of bits, and thus, it is unsuitable for medium-to-high resolution SAR ADCs. Recently, researchers developed a new class of MES scheme that has low complexity and suits well for SAR ADCs. The details of the MES techniques are introduced as follows.

### 5.1. First-order EF MES

The MES technique is firstly presented by Shu *et al.* in Ref. [13]. Unlike DEM that relies on element scrambling, this MES technique of Ref. [13] works by explicitly feeding back the mismatch errors from the previous conversion cycle and subtracting them out in the present conversion cycle. Based on its operation principle, it is named as error-feedback (EF) MES in Ref. [27] to differentiate it from the classic DEM based MES techniques.

As shown in Fig. 15, the EF MES can be realized simply by maintaining the previous LSB capacitor connections,  $-D_{L1:0}(n-1)$ , during the sampling phase and resetting them in a separate reset phase. In this way, the mismatch error from the previous cycle,  $E(n-1)$ , is fed back to the input since the mismatch error information is conveyed in the LSB part. During the SAR conversion phase, the mismatch error in the present cycle,  $-E(n)$ , is introduced and cancels with  $E(n-1)$ , realizing the first-order shaping effect. The only hardware overhead for the first-order EF MES is a digital circuit to compute

the final digital output,  $D_{out}(n) = D_M(n) + D_L(n) - D_L(n-1)$ . The circuit complexity grows only linearly with the DAC resolution and thus is substantially lower than DEMs.

Despite the clear advantages, the first-order EF MES of Ref. [13] has some limitations. First, it only has the first-order shaping capability and suffers from idle tones. It cannot be directly generalized to higher-order and more advanced shaping forms. Second, the feedback of LSB DAC values eats up the input signal range, causing 6 dB dynamic range loss. To alleviate this issue, the work of Ref. [13] separates the DAC into a thermometer MSB segment and a binary-weighted LSB segment, and separately applies DEM and EF MES to each of them. This, however, brings back the issue of DEM, which is the increased circuit complexity. Even so, it only minimizes but not eliminates the dynamic range loss.

### 5.2. High-order EF MES

In Refs. [26, 28], the EF MES is generalized to second-order to realize more aggressive shaping. Fig. 16 depicts the second-order EF MES in Ref. [26]. The first-order EF MES only needs to feed back the previous mismatch error  $E(n-1)$ , and thus, can be realized simply by delaying reset of LSB DAC. However, the second-order EF MES requires feeding back  $2E(n-1) - E(n-2)$ . To realize it, two identical LSB DACs are used, each of them alternatively produces  $2E(n-1)$  and  $E(n-2)$  via proper DAC control during the sampling and reset phases. Similar with the first-order EF MES, feeding back previous LSB results causes ADC dynamic range loss. To address this issue, this work proposes to use digital prediction to feed the opposite signals via the MSB DAC to cancel out the injected LSB signals. As a result, it does not have any signal range loss, and its MSB DAC can be simplified to only 2 capacitors. The MSB mismatch error is addressed by a two-element data weighted averaging (DWA), which is realized by simply swapping the usage of the two capacitors.

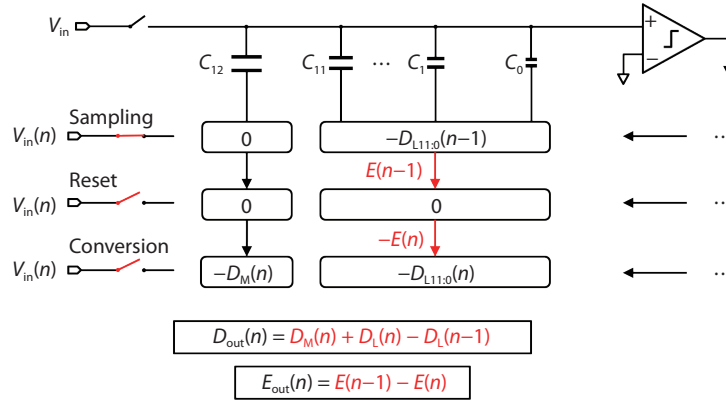
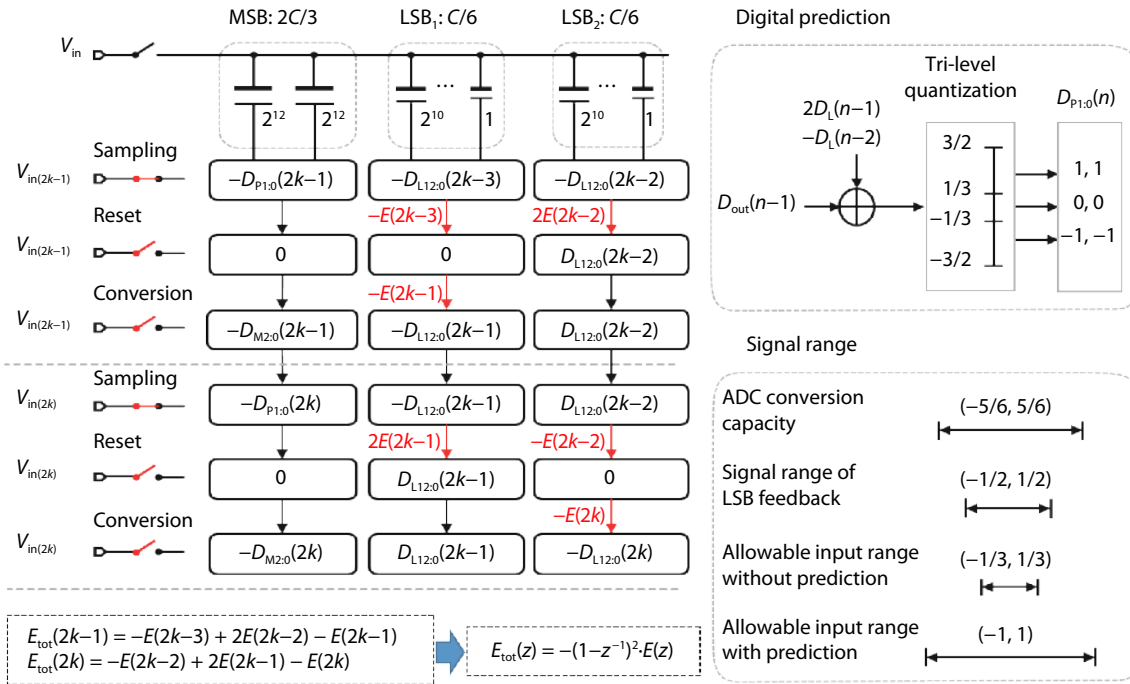
Comparing to the original first-order EF MES work<sup>[13]</sup>, the second-order EF MES of Ref. [26] can provide much strong shaping capability. Owing to the randomness added by the ping-pong feedback of two LSB DACs, it also eliminates the signal dependence and is free from idle tones. Moreover, it addresses the dynamic range loss issue by the digital prediction. The price of these benefits is two-fold. First, it requires an additional LSB DAC and more complex digital circuits than the first-order EF MES. Yet, its hardware cost is still much lower than DEM and this issue can be alleviated with technology scaling. Second, the additional LSB DAC causes signal attenuation at the DAC top plate, which is equivalent to increase the input referred noise.

The more detailed analysis on EF MES can be found in Ref. [27], where the advanced high-order EF MES and digital prediction are presented, enabling it to be applied to various types of low-pass, band-pass, and high-pass systems.

## 6. Conclusion

Over the past two decades, the SAR has benefited tremendously from technology scaling and becomes one of the most popular ADC architectures for medium-resolution applications. However, limited by several circuit errors, it is very hard for SAR ADCs to achieve high resolution. This paper reviewed several emerging error suppression techniques that can effectively reduce the major errors in SAR ADCs. The  $kT/C$




 Fig. 15. (Color online) A SAR ADC with first-order EF MES<sup>[13]</sup>.

 Fig. 16. (Color online) Second-order EF MES with digital prediction<sup>[26]</sup>.

noise reduction techniques are firstly introduced to ADCs, and suit well for SAR. The NS-SAR and MES are upgraded techniques with much lower cost than the traditional noise-shaping and DEM that have been used in  $\Delta\Sigma$  ADCs. These techniques significantly boost the resolution of SAR ADCs while maintaining the features of high energy efficiency and scaling friendliness. With the continual technical innovations, one can expect that the SAR will be an attractive alternative of  $\Delta\Sigma$  for realizing high-resolution ADCs.

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