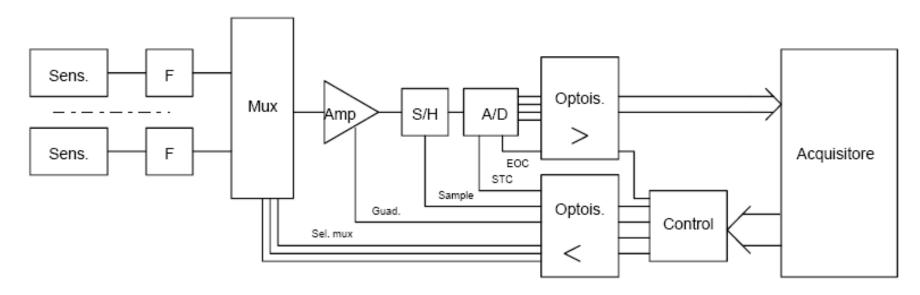
Analog signals = they provide the physical magnitude measurement through an electrical correlated one (usually V o I, but also impedance variation)

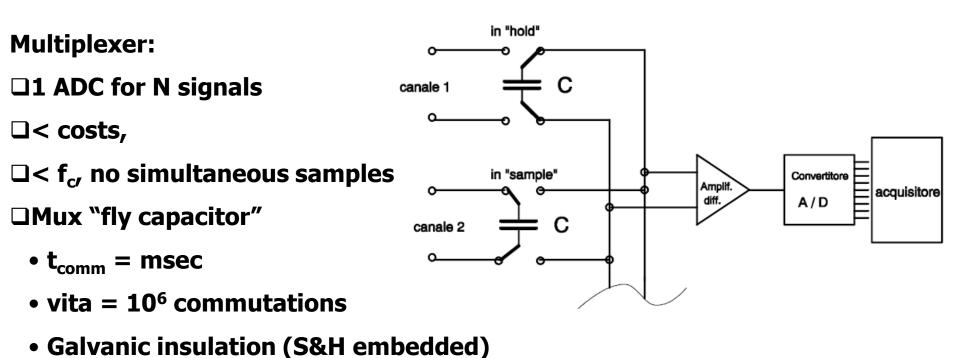


The acquisition unit actuates the following operations:

- device activation times and synchronization
- Anti drift calibration
- Perturbing magnitude estimation (influence on the measurement)
- derived measurement calculation
- acceptable values/diagnostic

Filtering:

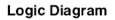
- low pass or band pass filter to eliminate the aliasing due to sampling
- zero mean components filtering is performed by the acquisition unit (μ P)
- datasheet: Z_{in}, Z_{out}, cutoff frequency, frequency transfer function

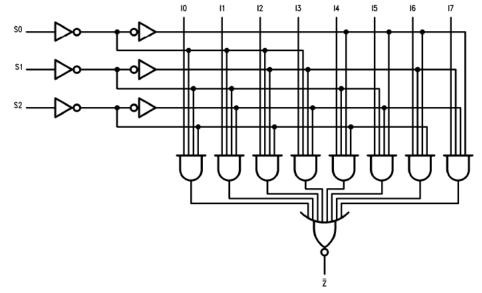


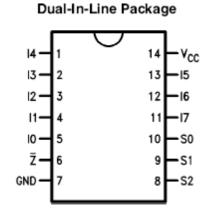
high Z_{in} op. amp. to avoid capacitor discharge during conversion

Semiconductor Multiplexer:

- $t_{comm} = \mu sec$
- life = 10⁹ commutations
- No galvanic insulation
- Small size







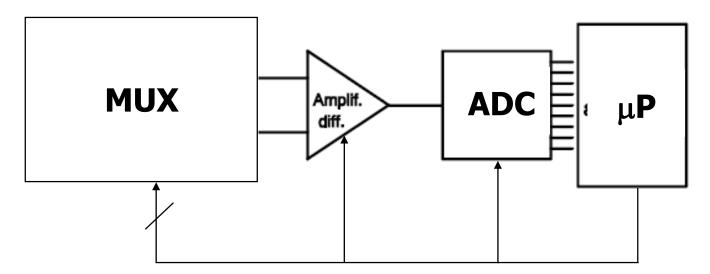
TL/F/10206-1

Order Number 54LS152FMQB See NS Package Number W14B

Pin Names	Description
10–17	Data Inputs
S0–S2	Select Inputs
Z	Inverted Data Outputs

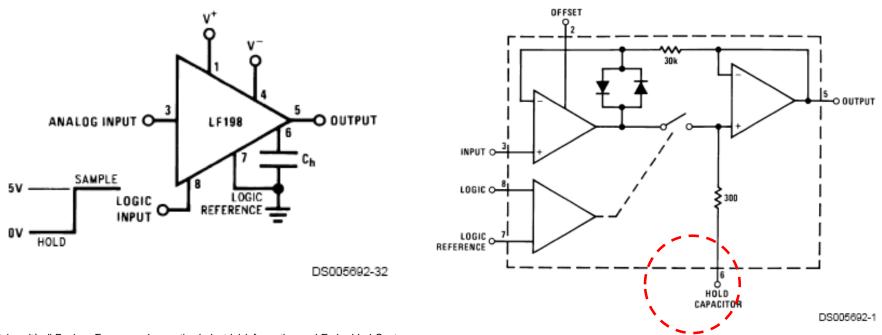
multiplexer characteristics:

- Number of channels
- Commutation speed (msec/µsec)
- R_{on} e R_{off} (open/close circuit resistances)
- S&H command from the μP must have enough duration to sample, consider also conversion time of the ADC and settling time of the operational amplifier



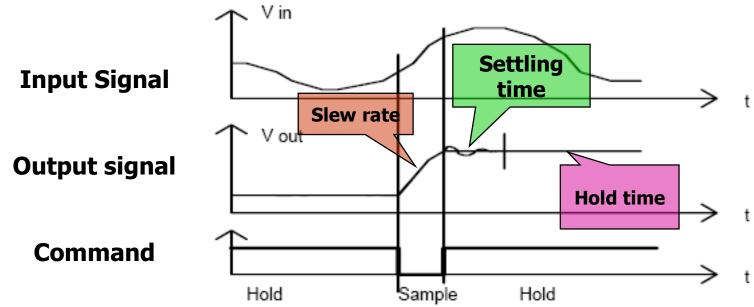
Sample and Hold:

- Single integrated in a component triggered by a μP
- Input circuit to de-couple signal and command
- Output stage with operational amplifier to de-couple successive stages
- It makes the signal stable for the subsequent ADC conversion (not always necessary)



Sample and Hold, characteristics:

- Z_{in}/Z_{out}
- Slew rate
- Settling time
- Hold time



Operational Amplifier:

- The signal from the transducer must be amplified to bring it in the range of the ADC
- De-coupling (Z_{in} e Z_{out})
- Bandwidth and slew rate
- The Op-Amp is not always necessary if present in other components of the acquisition chain
- Programmable (variable) gain by a μ P
- Calibration for offset compensation
- Its settling time influences the synchronization of the μP commands

Analog to Digital Conversion (ADC):

The signal from the transducer can be read by the $\mu \textbf{P}$ in a binary form

- Input: range of V_{in} [0...5V], [-5V...5V], [0...10V], V_{rif}=10V
- Output: 8-10-12-14-16-24 bit values; fixed point with or without sign
- Characteristics: conversion approach, costs, velocity, accuracy
- Quantization error constant in absolute value ⇒ the role of the amplificier is important to exploit the input range of the ADC
- Conversion techniques based on:

•Closed loop comparison: DAC + comparison

•Time evaluation of the charge of a capacitor or of its charge/discharge frequency

•Direct comparison through resistive networks voltage levels

- Calibration for offset compensation
- Influence on synchronization of the μP commands due to conversion time.

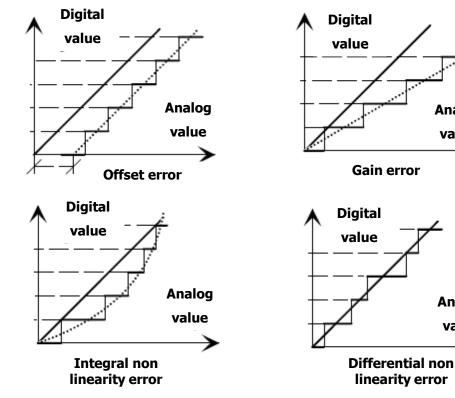
Analog

value

Analog

value

Conversion errors:



Errors due to non ideal ADC

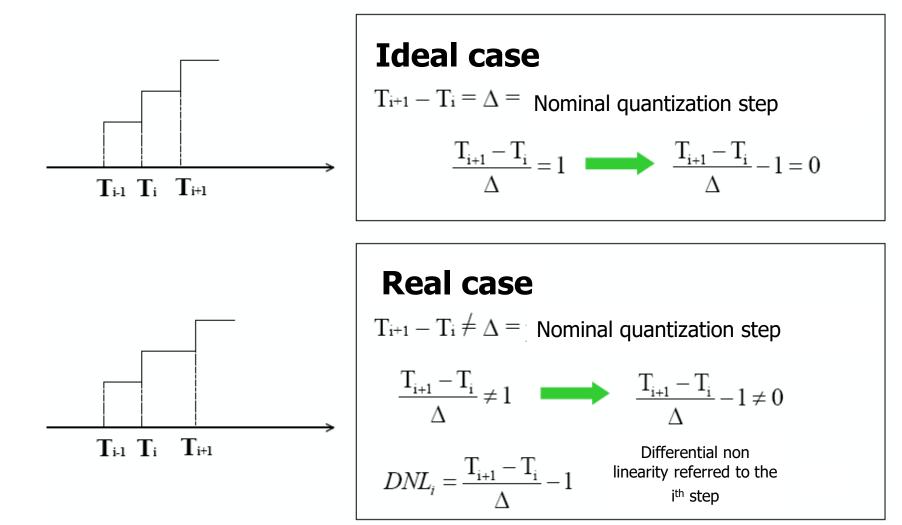
Offset error: the transfer function does not cross the zero point (axes origin)

Gain error: the slope is \neq from 45° (constant step amplitude but \neq 1 LSB)

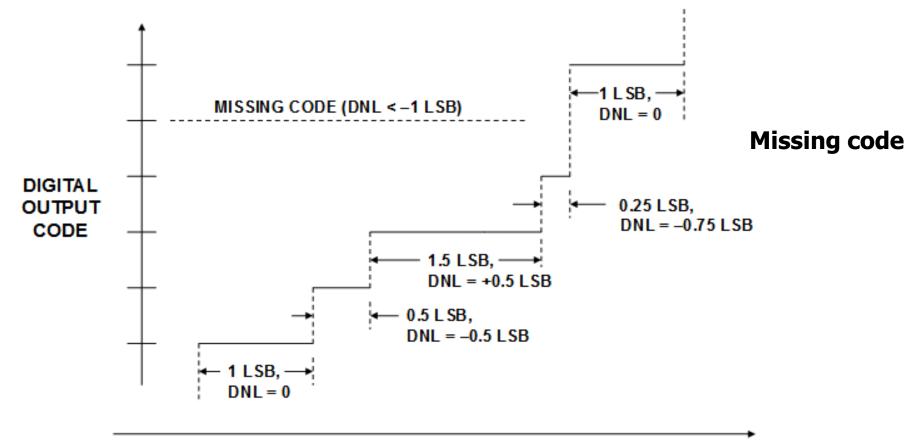
Integral Non Linearity Error: the "overall" curve is not linear

Differential Non Linearity Error: variable step amplitude and $\neq 1$ LSB

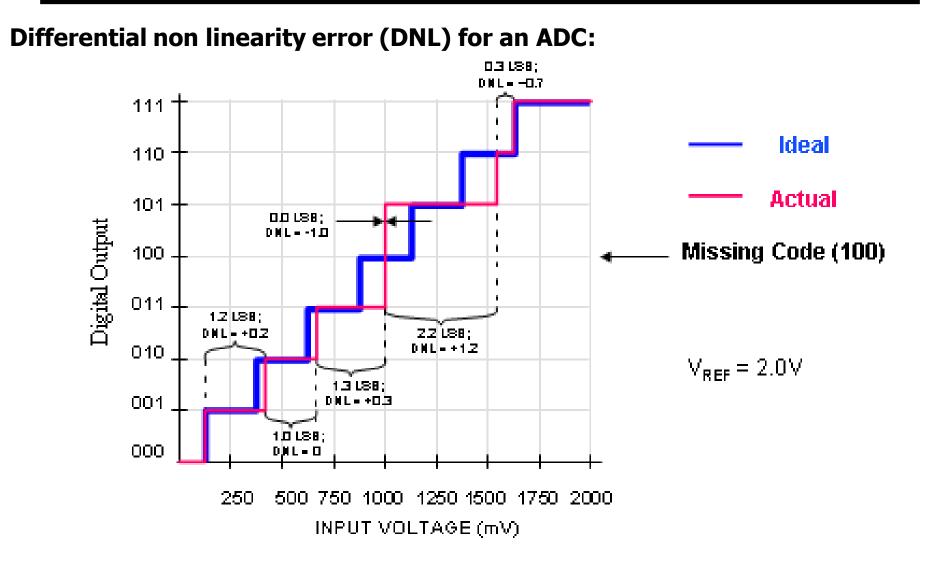
Differential non linearity error (DNL):



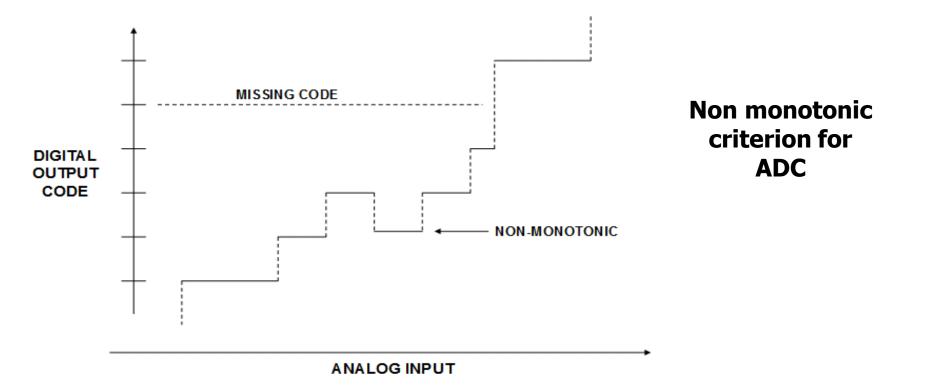
Differential non linearity error (DNL) for an ADC:



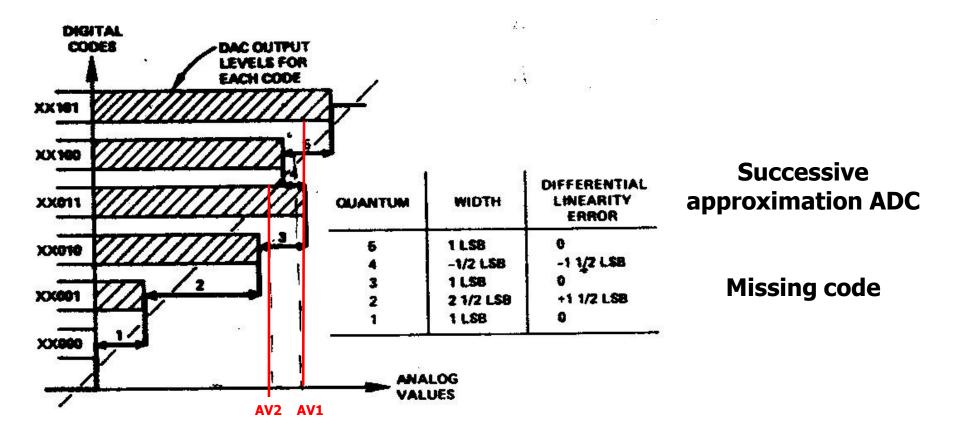
ANALOG INPUT



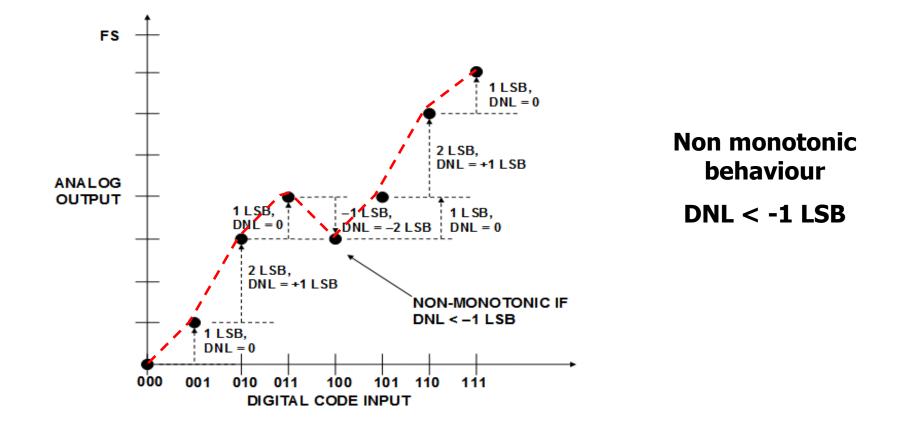
Differential non linearity error (DNL) for an ADC:



Differential non linearity error (DNL) for an ADC:



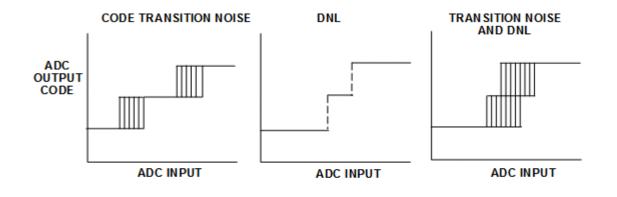
Differential non linearity error (DNL) for an DAC:



Code transition noise + DNL for an ADC:

Code transition noise = error due to the noise in the electronic components of the ADC. This noise affects the real input signal and determines a output value that refers to a range > 1 LSB

The greater is the converter resolution the bigger is this effect



If the CTN is added to DNL, it can affect all the input values of a range

It can also happen that no inputs provide a specific output value although a range of input values that can be converted in that specific value.

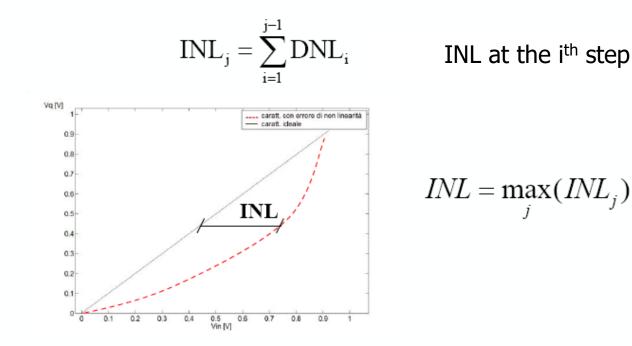
This effect is present from 12 bit on.

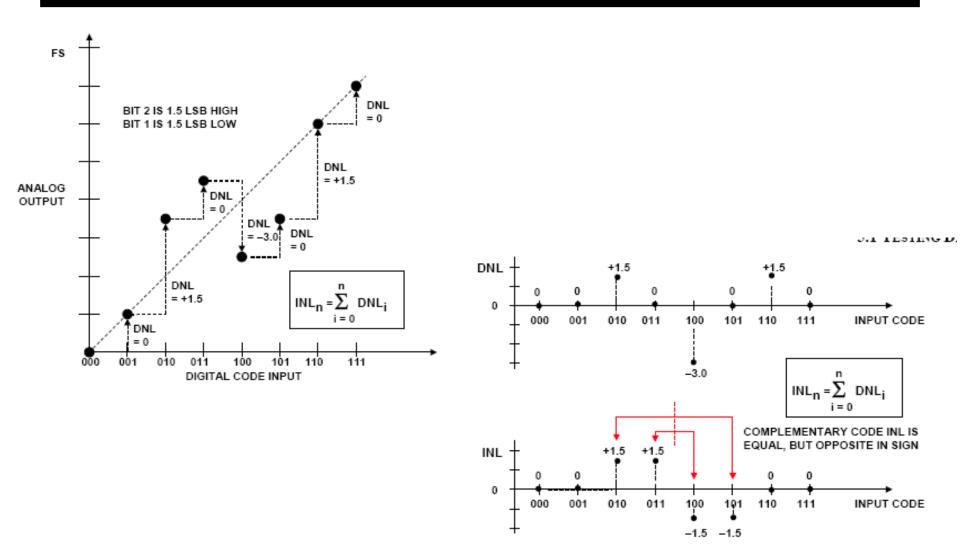
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Integral non linearity error (INL):

DNL is a specific point parameter

The INL describes the maximum deviation of the real curve from ideal one so measuring the overall non linearity in the ADC



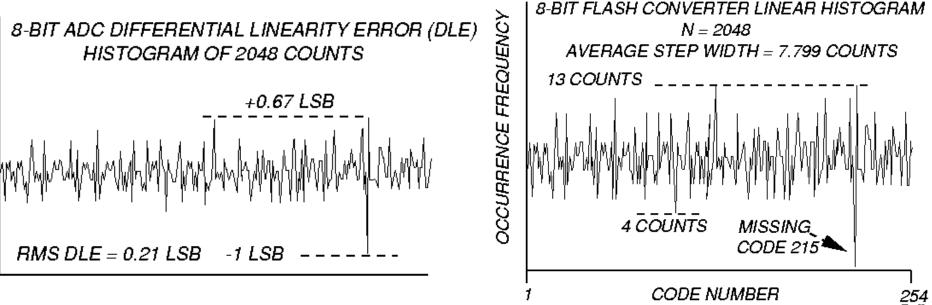


Non linearity error estimation:

A slowly variable signal given in input to the ADC (triangular or sinusoidal wave) with a small step between a value and the next one (i. e. 1 mV on 10V)

All the outputs are read and counted (frequency distribution of the output numbers)

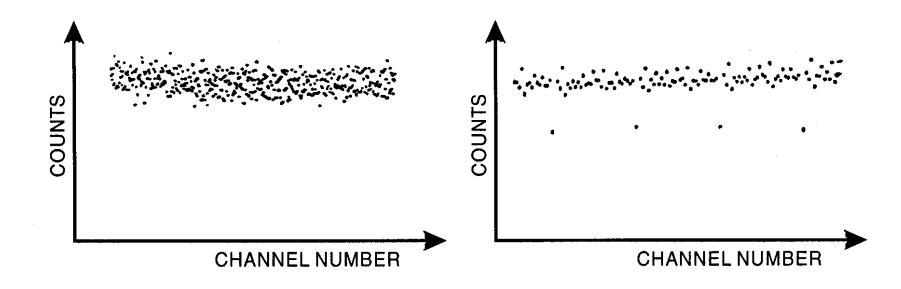
Repeat the test and average: each count realtive to every output should ideally be $V_{max}/(step*2^N)$. The deviation is an average evaluation of DNL



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The count histogram should be ideally flat

The presence of a DNL error typically introduces periodic deviations



How to characterise ADC converters

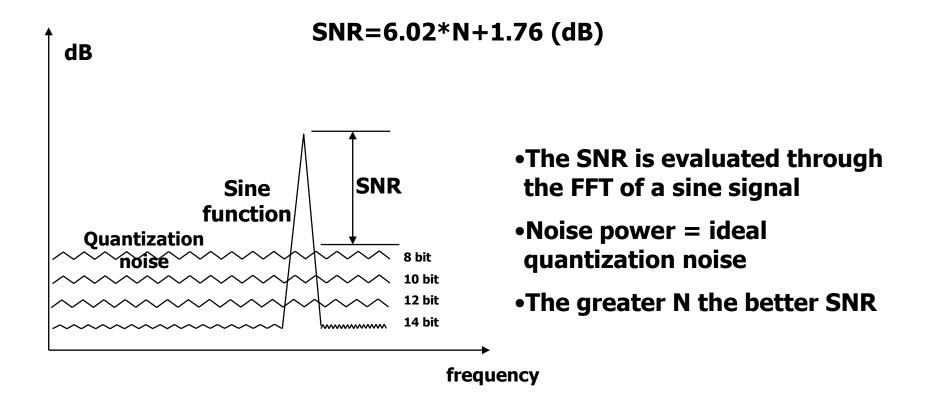
Techniques that allows to estimate precisely and accurately offset, gain DNL and INL errors

Synthetic indexes that provide an overall evaluation of the converter behaviour:

-Signal to Noise ratio (SNR)

-Effective number of bits (ENOB)

Suppose that the quantization error is constant on all the range = $Vref/2^N$ We can demonstrate that (N number of bits):



In the real case the SNR must include those inaccuracies due to non linearities, jitter ... thus it will minor than in the ideal case.

From the previous expression we can say that:

SNR_{real}=6.02*N'+1.76 (dB)

where N is the real number of bit of the used converter (ENOB), from which

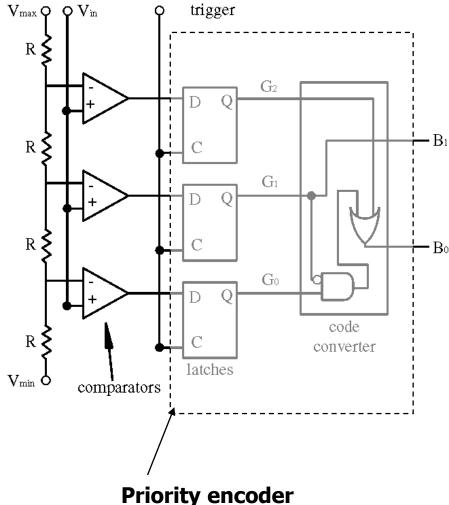
 $N' = ENOB = (SNR_{real} - 1.76)/6.02$

 $SNR_{real} < SNR_{ideal} \Rightarrow ENOB < N$ (ideal bit number)

- Flash converters:
- N bit number
- **Resistive network with 2^N-1 comparators**
- Low accuracy: 4-10 bit
- Many bits would require complex circuits, with bigger encoders where it will be difficult to keep fixed those voltages values presented at the network nodes
- High conversion velocity (10-100 nsec)

$$B_1 = G_1$$

 $\mathbf{B}_0 = \mathbf{G}_2 + \mathbf{G}_0 * \mathbf{not}\mathbf{G}_1$

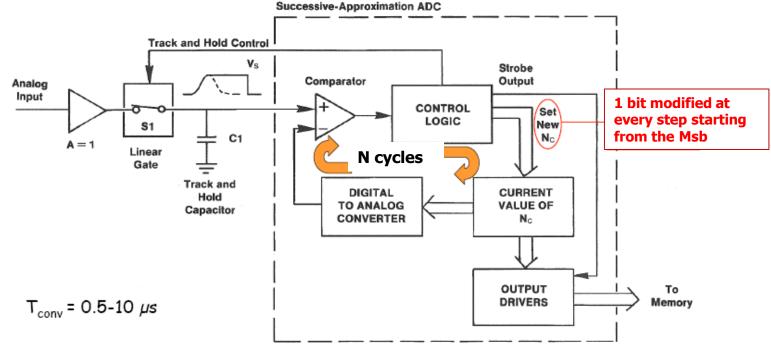


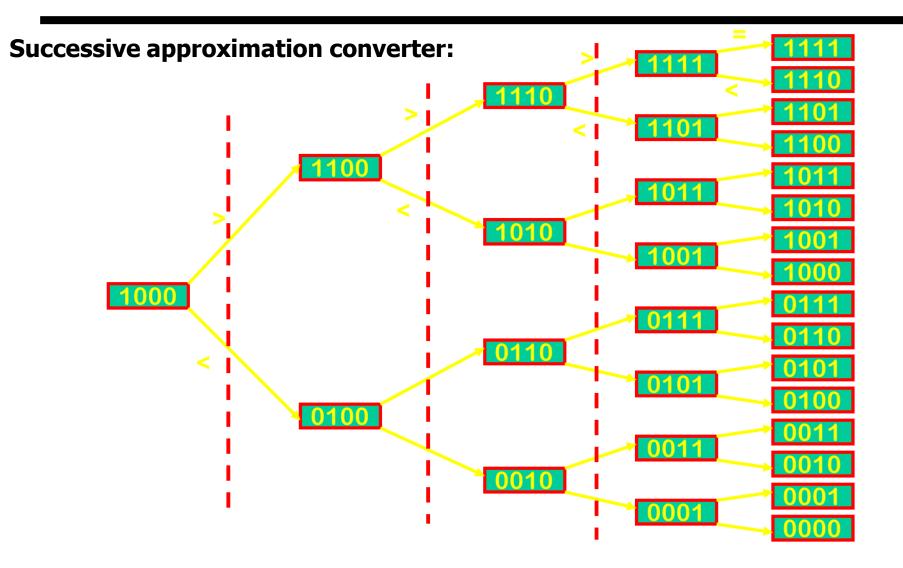
Successive approximation converter:

New value is proposed – DAC conversion – comparison – next value choice

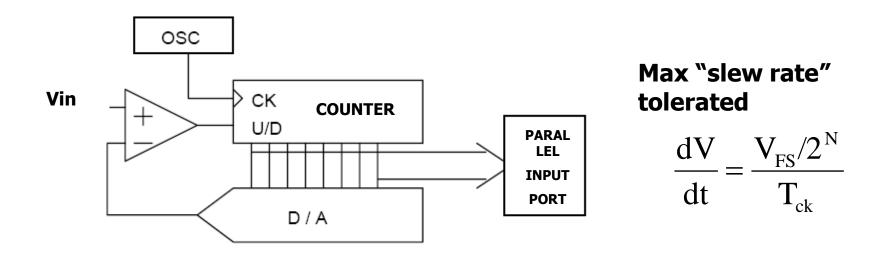
From MSb to LSb. Fast ADC (order of tenths μ s.). Sometimes S&H is needed

Sometimes the output is serial this provides galvanic decoupling and less output pins, but it requires a serial to parallel conversion at the acquisition level.



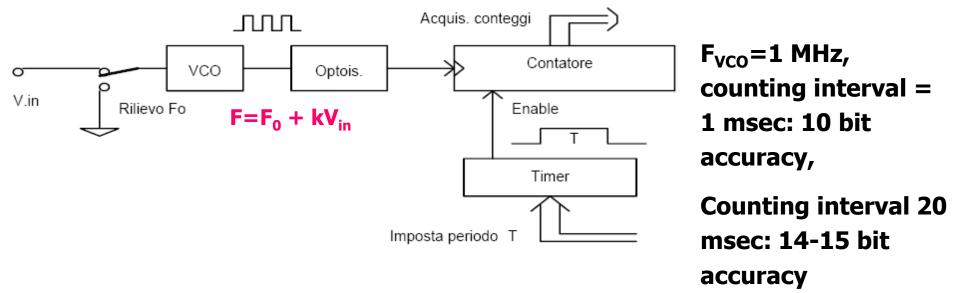


- Tracking converters:
- similar to successive approximation
- •a free running up/down counter provides a value that is compared with V
- •no multiplexer ⇒ the variable input values during commutations are followed (tracked)
- •conversion time: 500 nsec 10 μ sec



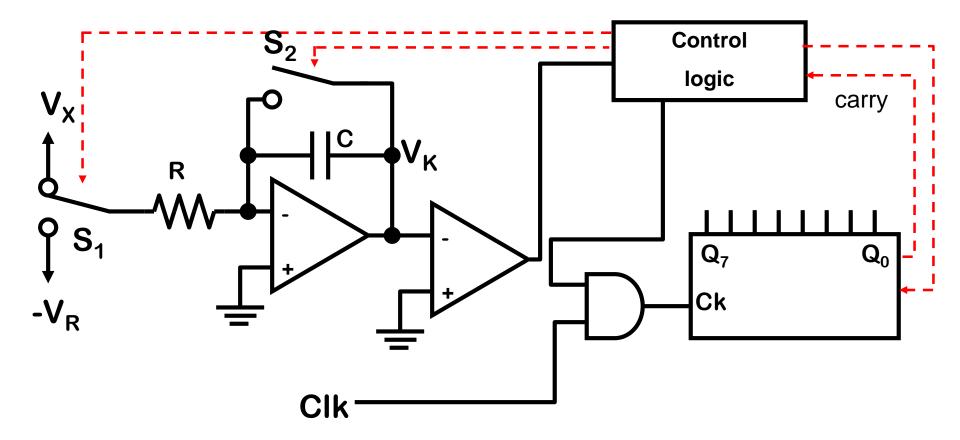
Voltage frequency converter:

- •A Voltage Controlled Oscillator is used at a known frequency (MHz) who outputs pulses at a frequency proportional to the input voltage
- Pulses are counted within a established time interval
- •The measurement is an "average" \Rightarrow white noise is rejected
- •no S&H. Tradeoff between conversion velocity and accuracy



Dual slope converters (Wilkinson):

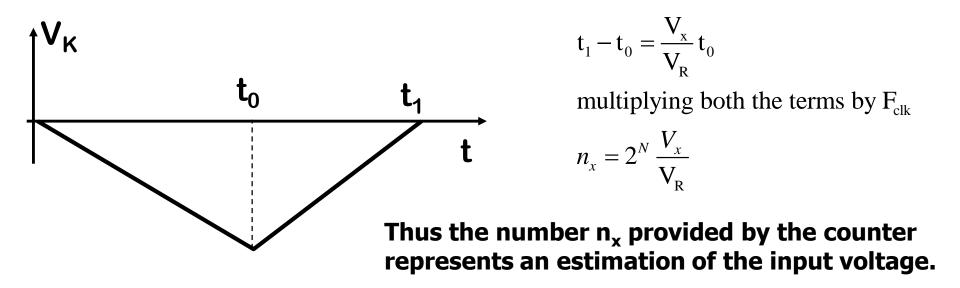
The time for capacitor charging/discharging is measured through a counter



Dual slope converters:

At the beginning S_2 is closed, counter = 0. Then S_2 is opened and S_1 switched on V_x . The capacitor charge diminishes until the overflow of the counter in t_0 ; the counter sends a carry signal to the control logic. $V(t_0)=-V_xt_0/RC$

Now S_1 is switched on $-V_R$ and the capacitor charges with velocity V_R/RC crossing zero in t_1 when the comparator sends another logic signal to the control logic. This allows us to say that:



Dual slope converters: considerations

- High resolution (16+ bit) and accuracy: the estimation is independent on electronic components that can change during their life so making the measurement less reliable
- no DNL
- Slow conversion: t_{conv} = 100-500 msec
- V_R, R, C e Fclk must be stable
- A display with 5/6 digits
- White noise and disturbs filtered by the capacitor
- The measurement is an "average"

Time considerations:

The velocity of the chain components determines the times of activation of the control signals by the μ processor

•If multiplexing is used, $T_c = \Sigma T_{channel_sampling}$

•If fly capacitor mux+ successive approximation ADC is used relay commutation times in the mux dominate (msec)

•If S&H is used, each mux channel can be switched during the ADC conversion

•If fast mux and ADC are used, the operational amplifier settling time dominates.

•Be careful to out of range input voltages that can saturate the amplifier. The exit from the saturation can be slow (100 μ sec)

•If dual slope ADC is used \Rightarrow low f_c

Sigma Delta converters ($\Sigma\Delta$):

- At the beginning used for audio transmission of the voice signals
- Then use was extended to high precision applications (24 bit)
- The idea was born in the first years of development of PCM (Pulse Code Modulation) but their use begins only with '70s
- Basic concepts: *delta modulation, noise shaping, oversampling and decimation*
- Web reference in depth studies:

Devices Analog to Digital Converters Tutorial MT-022

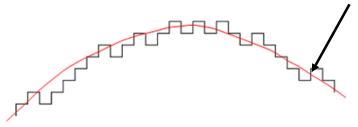
ADC Architectures IV Sigma-Delta ADC Advanced Concepts and Applications.mht

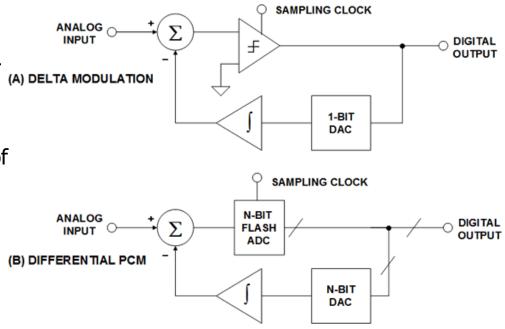
Delta Modulation and differential PCM:

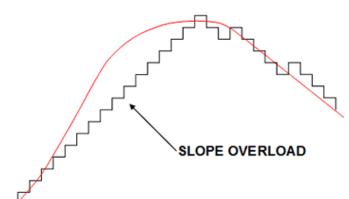
Delta Modulation:

A signal is converted in a sequence of zero's or one's by a comparator, converted in analog signal by a DAC and then integrated.

The analog signal is transmitted as sequence of 1 if a positive increment in the analog input occurred since the last time, 0 otherwise.







Differential Modulation:

Same idea but converters with more bits. We consider the first approach for sake of simplicity.

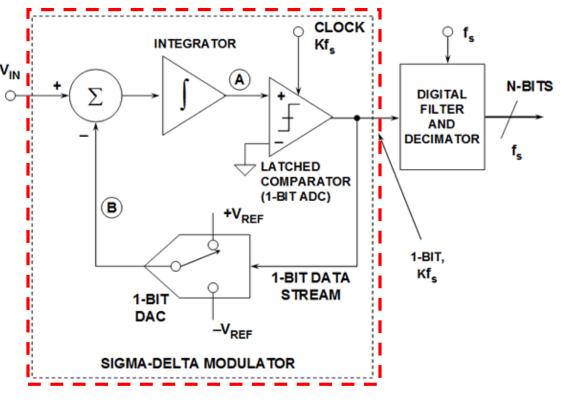
Sigma Delta modulation stage

If V_{IN} is continuous or stable (S&H) the integrator provides a triangular wave (A) that is compared with 0V through a comparator. Its output will be a train of v_{IN} "1s" e "0s" depending if the signal is ≥ 0 oor <0.

This bit stream is basically a digital signal that drives the error between $V_{\rm IN}$ and the B input at the Σ block.

The average of this error (integral) reproduces the value of V_{IN} : to this purpose the result of the comparison drives a 1 bit DAC (basically a switch between two voltage levels +/- (B)).

I. e. the DAC output is compared with the input one and the error is averaged by the integrator that regulates the pulse emission.



Example output of the integrator (similar to the voltage frequency ADC)

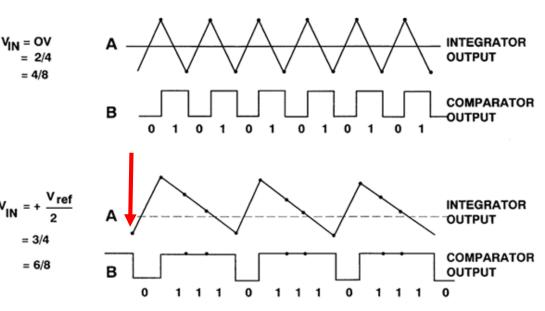
1) V_{IN}=0

The integrator provides a triangular wave v centered on a constant value while the comparator produces a pulse train alternatively equal to "1" and "0": if the filter samples at a frequency 4 times the signal one, the output of the comparator is 2/4 (2 out of 4 samples are high).

The bigger is the sample number considered (Kf_s) the better is the accuracy (i. e. with 8 samples, the output is $4/8 \Rightarrow$ 3 bit).

2)
$$V_{IN} = V_{REF}/2$$

In this case the signal is mostly positive and the output is 3/4 if 4 samples are considered or 6/8 if 8 are used.



Example if V_{REF} =2 V and V_{IN} =1V (at the beginning A/B=0)

$$\Sigma = 1, -1, -1, 3, -1, -1, -1, 3$$

$$A = 1, 0, -1, 2, 1, 0, -1, 2,$$

$$Cmp = 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1,$$

$$B = 2, 2, -2, 2, 2, -2, 2$$

Oversampling

A) The q quantization error in a ADC is $V_{\rm REF}/2^{\rm N}$.

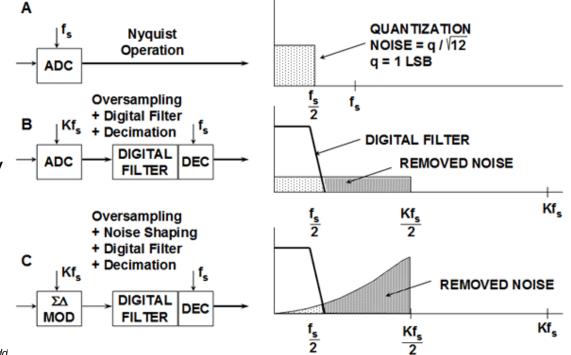
The RMS of the quantization error in a sampled and converted signal is instead $q/(12^{1/2})$, uniformly distributed within 0 e f_s.

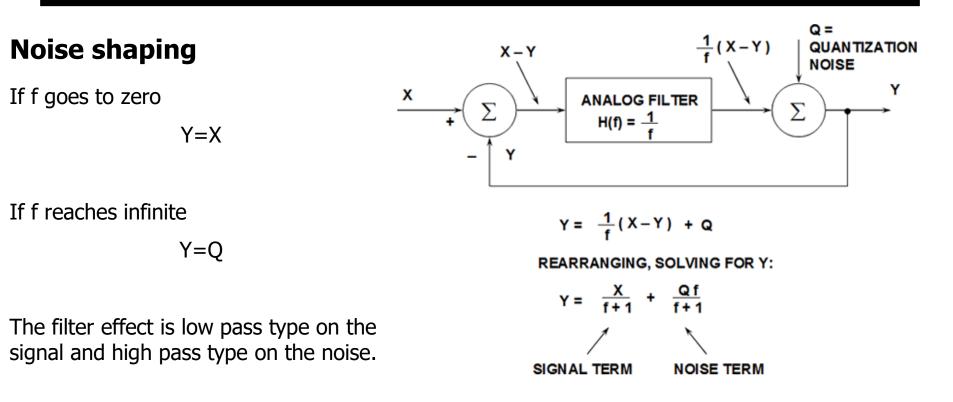
C) This happens in a normal ADC.

In a $\Sigma\Delta$ converter, however, the presence of an internal component of low pass type causes a reshaping of the noise (*noise shaping*) that will be mostly concentrated at high frequencies. This aspect further improves the SNR since the big part of the noise will be pushed at those frequencies that will be after cut off. B) If we sample at a higher frequency (Kf_s) the quantization error remains similar but will be distributed on a wider frequencies range (0... Kf_s)

Now if we apply a low pass filtering, the filter removes the noise improving the ENOB.

K is the *oversampling* factor.



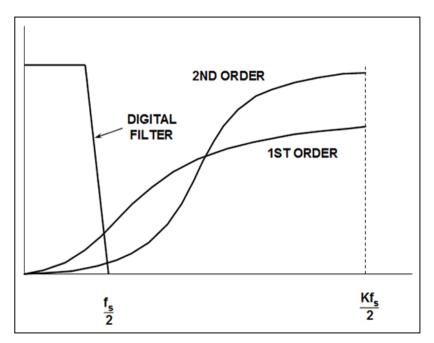


Decimation

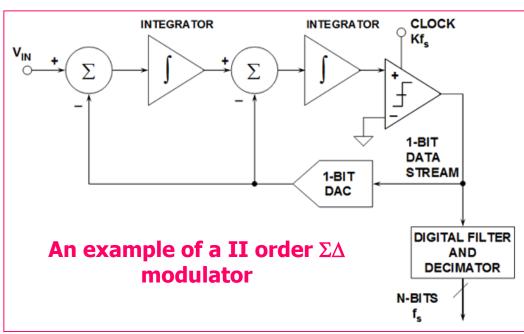
Since the bandwidth is reduced due to the filtering, the output is allowed to be at a minor frequency than the original one (Kf_s) but must still respect the Shannon theorem ($2f_s$). This can be obtained by giving in output only the Mth term while discarding the others.

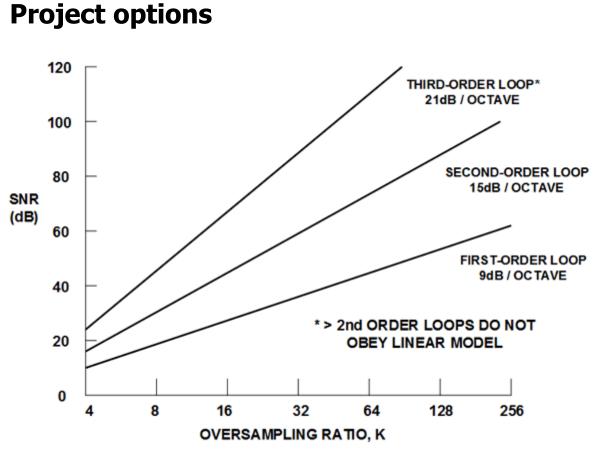
This process is called "decimation" by an M factor.

Higher order $\Sigma\Delta$ modulators



If we increase the number of integration and compare stages we obtain higher order $\Sigma\Delta$ modulators and generally speaking a better Noise Shaping and a better ENOB, if the oversampling is kept fixed





A suitable oversampling can be chosen to obtain a certain SNR, given a specific modulator.

If K=64, a II order $\Sigma \Delta$ converter provides a SNR=80 db that corresponds to a ENOB equal to 13.

3 levels characterize the activity of the μ processor charged with the acquisition task:

- *Acquisition level*: managing interfaces and commands/control of the acquisition chain components
- *Measurement level*: pre-elaboration of the acquired values (the raw value acquired is transformed in a measurement)
- *Elaboration level*: the acquired values are elaborated (statistics, FFT, ...)

Acquisition

- •Fixed point data (without sign or complement 2) typically 16/32 bits coded
- •When the ADC feature less bits than those used by the μP , a problem due to the sign propagation arises
- •Sign propagation vs. alignment

Sign propagation:

- Those bits that must be added reproduce the value of the MSb of the ADC
- The values provided by the ADC will be concentrated at the extremes of the range

• <u>Alignment:</u>

- The MSb of the ADC becomes the MSb of the data bus
- Equal intervals separate the ADC output values

<u>A suitable re-scaling</u> will be necessary by the acquisition microprocessor sw

Example: 2 bits ADC, with 4 bits data bus

	propagation	alignment	direct (with loss of the sign)
00	0000	0000	0000
01	0001	0100	0001
10	1110	1000	0010
11	1111	1100	0011

Temporization

Continuous cycle to establish the sampling frequency (*wait*)

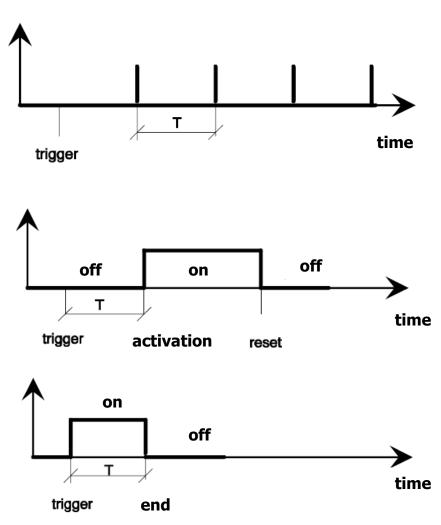
Time base = Real Time Clock if enough for the desired f_c (tenths msec, ok if slow components, ko if fast components)

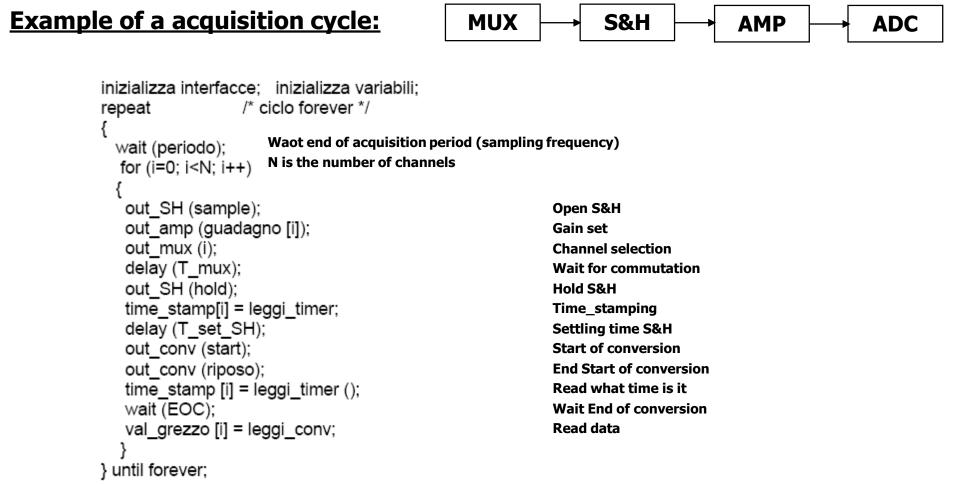
With delay to wait the settling of the signals used to trigger the chain components (delay)

Order of 10-100 $\mu\text{sec},$ no RTC instead SW cycles or HW timers

• Time stamping (read_timer)

Time corresponding to a sampling or another function. Use a free-running timer with suitable duration (10 μ sec)



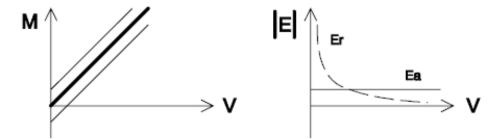


Same sampling frequency for every channel

An adjustable (programmable) gain in Op Amp

CONSTANT ABSOLUTE ERROR (Ea)

The error range of the measurements is constant when the measured variable V changes. This can be typically be caused by disturbs independent on the value of V, by an offset in the measurement instrumentation or by a fixed point binary representation of the numbers.



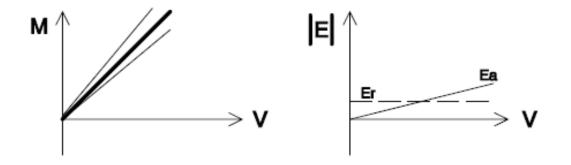
The two graphs show the behavior of the absolute error \ge a and the relative error Er compared to the measured variable V (M is the value of the measurement).

$$E_a = M-V$$
 $E_r = (M-V)/V \sim E_a/M$

An adjustable (programmable) gain in Op Amp

CONSTANT RELATIVE Er ERROR

Typically due to gain errors in the instrumentation or a floating point numbers representation.

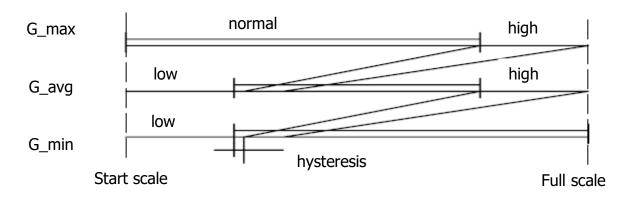


The two graphs show the behavior of the absolute error Ea and the relative error Er compared to the measured variable V (M is the value of the measurement).

An adjustable (programmable) gain in Op Amp

- •If a small quantization absolute error is required when the magnitude to be measured is small ($E_r \sim \text{constant}$) a logarithmic amplifier can be employed.
- •As an alternative a programmable gain amplifier can be used so as to adapt the amplification to the range of values to which the input signal belongs.
- •The amplification allows to provide the ADC with an input value that is in high part of its scale so as to reduce the influence of the quantization error.
- •It is useful when the input signal features wide variations and the cost of the variable gain amplifier is acceptable.
- •Another requirement is a slow signal compared to sampling frequency
- Autorange

An adjustable (programmable) gain in Op Amp



Different thresholds for different gains

Every time a new value is acquired (measured):

```
if measurement < low_threshold
```

```
new_gain = higher gain compared to old_gain
```

else if measurement > high_threshold

```
new_gain = lower gain compared to old_gain
```

```
else new_gain = old_gain
```

- •Values are subdivided in as many intervals as the possible gains are.
- •Each range is divided in 3 categories: "normal", "high", "low".
- •An interval and the corresponding gain is considered as "normal" if the quantization error is the range of the required one.
- Hysteresis area to avoid continuous commutations.

```
•The sw must register the
set gain and adopt the
corresponding conversion
curve (measurement).
49
```

Measurement level

- The measurement is produced
- The datum given by the sensor is converted in measurement units (components gain, transfer function, ...)
- Single floating point precision sometimes also double
- Required pre-processing:
 - Linearization
 - ADC conversion (16/32/64 bits)
 - Calibration
 - Derived measurement calculation
 - Digital filtering

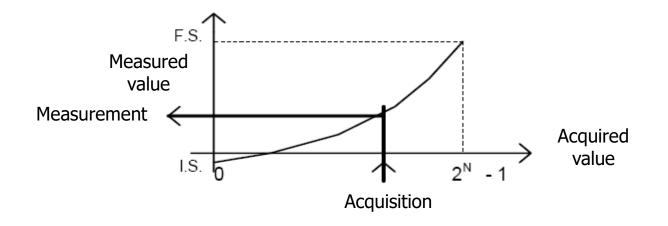
Linearization and conversion

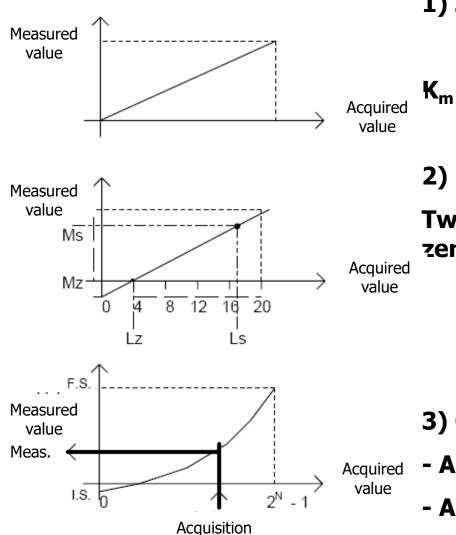
The relationship between the acquired value (A) from the transducer and the measured one (M) (*characteristic curve*) can be represented by a line crossing or not zero but also by a generic curve

This characteristic is the product of all the characteristic of the chain components.

 $0 < L < 2^{N-1}$ (if unipolar ADC) $-2^{N-1} < L < 2^{N-1}-1$ (if bipolar ADC)

M is included within a *starting* scale and a *full* scale value.





1) Zero crossing line

 $\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{m}}$ is the inverse of the overall chain gain

2) Non zero crossing line

Two points are necessary to define the line: zero and span points (span = 3/4 full scale)

$$M = M_z + (L - L_z)(M_s - M_z) / (L_s - L_z)$$

3) Generic curve

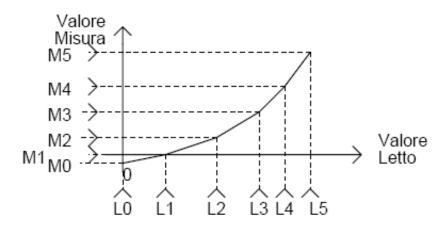
- ed An array of points to be interpolated
 - Analytic representation M=AL²+BL+C

Calibration of the characteristic curve

Those parameters that describe the M-L curve may be not completely known or changing during the time due to thermal effects or usage.

Calibration = physical setting of the chain components so as each one works in nominal conditions (offset, gains, ...). The final curve is the product of the nominal component characteristics.

Software calibration = "real" parameters acquisition, after the transient phases, by giving the system input known values of the measured magnitude (M_i) so as to determine the deviation from the previous curve. It must be done at the beginning and periodically.



Automatic or semi-automatic calibration (values provided by the PC or by the operator)

Finally parameters estimation through "best fitting" if the curve is generic, or through an array (M_i, L_i) if the curve is a fline.

Derived measurements

Secondary magnitudes calculated from those acquired through a transducer (i. e. volumetric or mass flow rate, absolute temperature through a thermocouple, ...).

If these values are obtained though a subtraction pay attention to the *quantization* errors.

If these values are obtained though an integration pay attention to *systematic* errors.

If measurements are obtained through derivation pay attention to *random* errors or *jitters* on sampling period since their can make the calculation to diverge.

If fast variable magnitudes are acquired \Rightarrow high sampling frequency.

Numeric filtering

The acquired values are replaced with more probable values obtained by deleting errors (considered as random) on the basis of:

- •Physical model of the phenomenon
- •Characteristic curve of the overall acquisition chain
- Model of the noise
- Model of the user behavior
- •Used sampling frequency and necessary frequency

The numeric filtering allows:

- •Good and stable filtering even with low cutoff frequencies
- •Easy calibration of the characteristic parameters
- •Better resolution of the used ADC

General expression of an ARMA filter

 $I(k) = k^{th}$ input sample to the filter (present sample) U(k) = value of the filter output at the kth instant

 $U(k) = -a_1^*U(k-1) - \dots - a_n^*U(k-n) + b_0^*I(k) + \dots + b_m^*I(k-m)$

If $a_i=0$ **Moving Average** filter with finite answer to an input pulse If a_i not 0 **Auto-Regressive** filter with infinite answer to an input pulse

Causal filters: the k^{th} output is function of the (k-i) previous values. It is a direct (on line) filtering with a "delay effect"

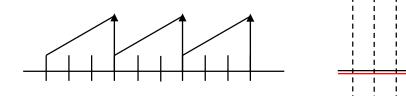
Not causal filters: the kth output is function both of previous and of the successive values. It is a typical offline filtering (i. e. spatial image filtering)

Moving average filters:

They differ from the "usual" *fixed average* ones that evaluate the average of the input signal on periods multiple of the sampling period and replace the last N samples with a sole value equal to their average

They are equivalent to an ARMA filter with $a_i=0$ and $b_i=1/m$

However each sample is replaced with the average of the last *m* samples



Fixed average filtering



The answer to a square wave input is 0 after a time = mT (T sampling period).

Delay effect = T(1+m/2)

A memory is required to store the last m samples (circular buffer if m is high)

Example of moving average filter with m=8

```
/* N° of samples for the average calculation
#define NC 8
                      Current value of the moving average
float VAL;
                     Circular buffer
float CAMP [NC];
                      Current index of the buffer
int
void media trascinata (float campione); Function to be called at every acquisition to upgrade VAL
int cnt; float somma;
     if (I >= NC) I = 0; For sake of robustness
     if (1 != 0)
         VAL = VAL + (campione - CAMP [I]) / NC;
         CAMP [I] = campione;
      else
             When I==0 restart to VAL evaluation
         CAMP [I] = campione;
         somma = 0.;
         for (cnt = 0; cnt < NC; cnt++)
             somma += CAMP[cnt];
         VAL = somma / NC;
I = (I >= NC-1) ? 0 : I++; Increment of the index and jump or exit
```

Exponential filtering:

It's an ARMA filter with a_1 =-CF e b_0 =(1-CF) and 0<CF<1

If CF low \Rightarrow the output is mainly due to the input effect

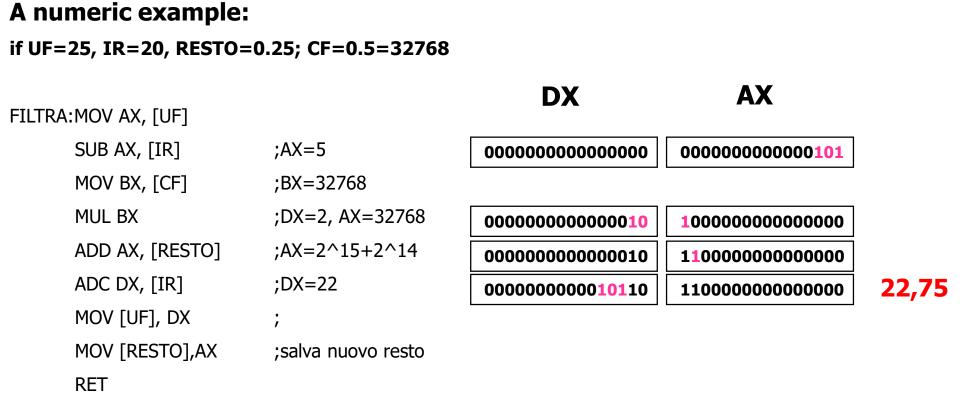
If CF high \Rightarrow the output is mainly due to its proper "history"

Time constant of the filter (a measure of its velocity) = T/(1-CF)

U(k) = I(k) + CF*[U(k-1)-I(k)]

Example of an Intel assembly code implementing an exponential filter:

First order filtering working on fixed point data to speedup calculation UF is the new filtered value (filter output) upgraded at every call IR is the raw sample (filter input) CF is the filter coefficient < 1, expressed as a fraction of 2^{16} ; for *example 0.5 ⇒ a CF = 32768 = 8000H* RESTO stores the fraction part of the result (remainder); this value must be recovered when the function is next time invoked FILTRA: MOV AX, [UF] AX, [IR] SUB $CF = CF^{*}2^{16}$ AX = U(k-1) - I(k)MOV BX, [CF] The result is in DX,AX registers MUL BХ CF fixed point Consider the previous remainder AX, [RESTO] ADD CF*(U-I) in DX & AX Add the input with carry ADC DX, [IR] Upgrade the filtered value [UF],DX MOV Save the new remainder MOV [RESTO],AX RET



The expected result from the formula is $U(k)=I(k)+CF^*[U(k-1)-I(k)] = 20+0,5[25,25-20]=22,625$ Good approximation

Out of range values:

- **Pulse disturbances** (by inductors-like loads as motors, magnetic switches ...) or random errors can occasionally give samples **very far** from the correct values.
- A good policy is to avoid the negative effect of samples that clearly are wrong due to random and macroscopic disturbs by replacing them with "reasonable" values.
- Often "reasonable" values means to take a value equal to the previous one (zero order maintaining) or preserving the derivate (first order maintaining)
- Other **finer approaches** exist to discard out of range values like as the difference compared to the previous value, or to the expected value, ... and also in the choice of the value for replacing.
- This technique is often used **before** and **together** with filtering, averaging, ...

Elaboration level (microprocessor/PC):

- Managing regulation loops (control algorithms)
- Measurement display
- Printing, storing, time stamping
- •Verifying threshold overtaking and alarms activation
- •Data communication to other computers