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A 2 GHz Analog-to-Digital Delta-Sigma Modulator for CDMA Receivers with 79 dB Signal-to-Noise Ratio in 1.23 MHz Bandwidth

Elias H. Dagher, Peter A. Stubberud, *Senior Member, IEEE*, Wesley K. Masenten, *Life Member, IEEE*, Matteo Conta, and Thang Victor Dinh

Abstract—This paper presents the design of a second order, single-bit, analog-to-digital, continuous-time Delta-Sigma Modulator (CT- $\Delta\Sigma$) that can be used in wireless CDMA receivers. The CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ samples at 2 GHz, consumes 18 mW at 1.8 V and has a 79 dB signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth. The CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ was fabricated in a 0.18 μm , 1-poly, 6-metal, CMOS technology and has an active area of approximately 0.892 mm^2 . The $\Delta\Sigma$'s critical performance specifications are derived from the CDMA receiver specifications.

Index Terms—Analog-digital conversion, Code division multiple access, Continuous time delta-sigma modulation, CMOS, High-speed integrated circuit

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, a family of receiver architectures, often called digital radio receivers, has gained interest in the wireless communications industry. Such architectures include the zero intermediate frequency (IF) (ZIF) receiver and the complex low IF (CLIF) or Weaver architecture receiver [1]. Unlike superheterodyne architectures that perform channel filtering and automatic gain control (AGC) after the first down conversion and digitize the received signal after a second down conversion, digital radio architectures digitize the received signal after a single down conversion and perform AGC and channel filtering digitally. As a result, digital radio receivers rely mainly on digital circuitry, and can therefore be programmed to operate as multimode receivers. Also, because the density of digital circuitry is far greater than that of RF circuitry, digital radio receivers can be fabricated on a single

integrated circuit (IC).

Because digital radio receivers do not perform analog channel filtering before digitizing the received signal, the analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) in digital radio receivers must have a larger dynamic range and better linearity than ADCs in superheterodyne receivers. Additionally, unlike superheterodyne receivers which use the receiver's analog channel select filters as the ADCs' anti-aliasing filter, digital radios typically provide little or no channel filtering in front of the receiver's ADCs. As a result, the ADCs in digital radio receivers need to provide both their own anti-aliasing filters and sample at higher rates than ADCs in superheterodyne receivers. Because continuous time delta-sigma modulators (CT- $\Delta\Sigma$) can be designed to have large dynamic ranges, sample at very high rates, provide inherent anti-aliasing filtering, and are smaller and consume less power than many other ADC architectures with similar specifications, CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s are a natural choice for a digital radio receiver's ADCs.

Several high-speed CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s that can meet many digital radio specifications have been reported in literature. For example, [2], [3], and [4] report on several CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s that have large dynamic ranges and can sample at rates from 4 GHz to 18 GHz; however, because these modulators were fabricated using heterojunction bipolar transistors (HBTs) on an InP substrate and because these modulators consume 1.5 W to 3.2 W of power, they are not amenable to low power single chip digital radio designs. [5] and [6] report on SiGe CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s that have large dynamic ranges and can sample at rates up to 4 GHz; however, each of these modulators consumes hundreds of mWs of power, and as a result are not amenable to providing low power, single chip implementations of digital radio receivers.

Several CMOS CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s that can meet many digital radio specifications have also been reported in literature. For example, [7] reports on a 48 MHz second order multi-bit CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ that consumes 2.2 mW; however it only achieves 68 dB/1 MHz DR. [8] reports on a fifth order feed-forward CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ that consumes 4.1 mW and achieves a DR of 83 dB/1.228 MHz. However, the feed-forward architecture of [8] requires an anti-aliasing filter in front to supplement its slow signal transfer function roll-off. Both of these CMOS designs add complexity to the $\Delta\Sigma$ by using higher orders, multi-bit feedback, or anti-aliasing filters.

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This paper describes a 2 GHz, CMOS, continuous-time, single-bit, delta-sigma modulator that uses a simple robust second order implementation and consumes 18 mW. Because of the $\Delta\Sigma$'s architecture and high sampling rate, this $\Delta\Sigma$ has a large dynamic range and can provide inherent anti-aliasing filtering over a large bandwidth of frequencies. As a result, it can be used in low cost, single chip, CMOS implementations of both ZIF and CLIF receiver architectures for CDMA, GSM, and AMPS cellular standards.

Although this $\Delta\Sigma$ can be used for CDMA, GSM, and AMPS standards, Section II of this paper only derives the $\Delta\Sigma$'s performance requirements from the CDMA2000 specifications [9]. Section III describes the delta-sigma modulator ($\Delta\Sigma$) architecture. Section IV describes the $\Delta\Sigma$'s circuit design and Section V reports on test results.

II. DELTA-SIGMA PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS

Fig. 1 shows the basic architecture of a CLIF and ZIF digital radio receiver. Similar to a superheterodyne receiver, the radio frequency (RF) signal that is received from the antenna is amplified by a low noise amplifier (LNA) via a duplexer. Because CDMA carrier signals range from 1930 MHz to 1990 MHz, LNAs for CDMA receivers are typically tuned to those frequencies and provide some small amount of RF filtering about those frequencies. In a ZIF architecture, the two parallel mixers directly convert the amplified RF signal to a complex base-band or complex ZIF signal. In a CLIF architecture, the two parallel mixers convert the amplified RF signal to a CLIF signal. The low IF is selected at a frequency such that DC offsets and flicker noise do not affect the receiver's performance. This paper's CLIF is 2.5 MHz. In both the ZIF and CLIF architectures, the outputs of the mixers are digitized using two parallel ADCs, which are assumed to be CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ s in this paper. In both ZIF and CLIF architectures, channel selection and demodulation are then performed digitally. Because the ZIF and CLIF architectures do not perform analog AGC or analog channel filtering before digitizing the received signal, the performance requirements of the $\Delta\Sigma$ s closely reflect the RF front-end receiver's performance requirements which include dynamic range, signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and linearity which is typically specified as spurious free dynamic range (SFDR).

A. Sensitivity (Dynamic Range and SNR)

The dynamic range of a system is defined as the ratio of the system's maximum input signal power to the system's minimum detectable input signal power or receiver sensitivity over a specified bandwidth [9]. The required dynamic range for a receiver can then be specified as the ratio of the largest in-band or out-of-band signal power to the minimum receiver sensitivity. A CDMA receiver's sensitivity requirement is set by the single tone desensitization test in [9]. In this test, the maximum input signal power at the antenna is -30 dBm over a bandwidth of 1.23 MHz. The duplexer can have 3 to 5 dB of loss. Assuming a 3 dB power loss through the duplexer, the LNA's maximum input signal power, P_{LNA_in} , is -33 dBm over

1.23 MHz. For the purposes of this paper, the receiver's minimum sensitivity is determined as the receiver's minimum input signal noise power, which is the thermal noise power, $P_{Thermal}$, over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth, at -113.1 dBm times the receiver's noise figure (NF). Assuming a NF of 5 dB, the receiver's dynamic range specification, DR_{Rx} , over 1.23 MHz can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} DR_{Rx} &= \frac{P_{LNA_in}}{P_{Thermal}NF} \\ &= P_{LNA_in}(dBm) - P_{Thermal}(dBm) + NF(dB) \\ &= -33dBm - (-113.1dBm) + 5dB \\ &= 75.1dB. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Because no filtering or gain control exists between the output of the LNA/mixer chain and the $\Delta\Sigma$ s, each $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity can be determined by allocating a NF, $NF_{\Delta\Sigma}$, to each $\Delta\Sigma$ and then calculating the resulting required maximum noise floor level. To determine a NF for each $\Delta\Sigma$, assume that the LNA/mixer chain is budgeted 4 dB (2.5) of the 5 dB (3.16) noise figure. The receiver's NF is the sum of the LNA/mixer chain's NF and the $\Delta\Sigma$'s NF. Thus, the $\Delta\Sigma$ s can contribute only -1.8 dB (0.66) of noise figure to the receiver. This noise figure for the $\Delta\Sigma$ s must also include any in channel spurious elements introduced by the $\Delta\Sigma$. Because the in-phase (I) and quadrature (Q) information signals combine coherently and the I and Q noise signals combine as the sum of the squares, the combined I and Q channels inherently provide a 3 dB SNR gain, denoted as A_{CC} . Thus, each $\Delta\Sigma$'s dynamic range specification, $DR_{\Delta\Sigma}$, can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} DR_{\Delta\Sigma} &= \frac{P_{LNA_in}}{P_{Thermal}NF_{\Delta\Sigma}A_{CC}} \\ &= P_{LNA_in}(dBm) - P_{Thermal}(dBm) \\ &\quad + NF_{\Delta\Sigma}(dB) + A_{CC}(dB) \\ &= -33dBm - (-113.1dBm) - 1.8dB + 3dB \\ &= 78.8dB. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The DR specification in (2) implies that each $\Delta\Sigma$ approximately requires a 79 dB SNR over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth or 12.8 effective number of bits (ENOB).

B. Linearity

In $\Delta\Sigma$ ADCs, linearity is typically specified as SFDR. SFDR can be defined as the signal-to-noise ratio when the powers of the third-order intermodulation products equal the noise power [10].

One CDMA receiver requirement that specifies the receiver's linearity states that the receiver's frame error rate (FER) may not exceed 1% when two -43 dBm (-40 dBm at the LNA's input due to a -3 dB duplexer loss) out-of-band tones that generate a third order intermodulation product (IMP3) in the band of interest are applied to receiver's input [9]. To derive the receiver's SFDR specification, the resulting in-band IMP3 components must be less than the noise floor for minimum sensitivity. Because the $\Delta\Sigma$'s SNR is 79 dB for a

maximum receiver input of -33 dBm, the IMP3 difference for this test is 69 dB, which is run with tones at -43 dBm. The input intercept point (IIP3) is then -8.5 dBm with respect to the input of the receiver.

The single tone desensitization test, however, puts a more severe constraint on the required linearity. When considering the single tone desensitization test for linearity, the most stressful condition exists when the losses in the duplexer are 3 dB. However, for this condition, an effective 8.5 dB increase above $P_{Thermal}$ can be allocated to $\Delta\Sigma$ intermodulation products. For the IMP3s to be 8.5 dB above $P_{Thermal}$ means that IMP3s can reach as high as -95 dBm for two input tones at -33 dBm. The equivalent third harmonic of a single tone at -33 dBm is at -104.5 dBm. The resultant IIP3 is then -2 dBm with respect to the receiver input. It should be noted that a possible loss of 5 dB in the duplexer established the need for the 5 dB NF for the sensitivity calculations above, but with an IIP3 of -2 dBm the sensitivity requirement is still met.

III. DELTA-SIGMA ARCHITECTURE

Because of the $\Delta\Sigma$'s high sampling rate, the $\Delta\Sigma$ requires an architecture that is simple to stabilize and can tolerate significant loop delay. The $\Delta\Sigma$ also requires an architecture that exhibits graceful degradation of SNR and remains stable in the presence of high power interference signals. Because low order $\Delta\Sigma$ s can meet these requirements, the $\Delta\Sigma$ architecture shown in Fig. 2 was chosen. A fully differential signal path was used to reduce the effects of common mode noise and to reduce even order harmonics.

As shown in Fig. 2, the $\Delta\Sigma$ receives an input current from one of the mixers. The maximum input current signal is 160 μ A. The inductor, L , is a 66 μ H discrete off-chip inductor that functions as both a choke for the mixer and as a resonator in the $\Delta\Sigma$. Capacitors, C_3 and C_4 , are large AC coupling capacitors. For CLIF receivers, the capacitor, C_1 , is chosen so that the LC_1 resonator is tuned to the receiver's low IF. Because this system's low IF is 2.5 MHz, C_1 is a 60 pF capacitor that consists of on-chip and off-comp capacitors. For ZIF receivers, the inductor, L , is omitted and the capacitor, C_1 , is modified. This effectively shifts the 2.5 MHz noise transfer function (NTF) zero to DC. The resistor, R_1 , models the output resistance of the mixer and DAC₁. The transconductance amplifier (TA), which has a transconductance of g_m , and the capacitor, C_2 , create the $\Delta\Sigma$'s integrator (or the modulator's second integrator for ZIF architectures). The capacitor, C_2 , is a 7 pF on-chip capacitor, and the resistor, R_2 , models the output resistance of the transconductance amplifier and DAC₂. The quantizer is a single bit clocked comparator that controls the two feedback current steering DACs.

As shown in Fig. 2, this architecture uses a small amount of active circuitry. As a result, the performance of the $\Delta\Sigma$ relies mainly on the comparator's performance instead of traditional design aspects such as high-order loop stability and integrator device noise.

A CT- $\Delta\Sigma$'s DR, ENOB, or SNR can be limited by

quantization noise, aliasing, noise caused by quantizer metastability, excess loop delay, device noise, and clock phase noise. In this design, the quantization noise power is designed to be 10 dB below the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum required sensitivity. Additionally, the noise sources caused by excess loop delay, quantizer metastability, and clock phase noise are also designed to be 10 dB below the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity. The device noise power of the DACs and the TA are designed to be at the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity. As a result, the device noise will limit the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity. Additionally the device noise will act as a dither signal for the quantizer. This dither prevents the $\Delta\Sigma$ from entering into limit cycles when the modulator's input signal is small [11].

A. Quantization Noise and Aliasing

A CT- $\Delta\Sigma$'s quantization noise and in-band aliasing are affected by the $\Delta\Sigma$'s sampling frequency. To achieve the $\Delta\Sigma$'s signal to quantization noise ratio (SQNR) specification of 89 dB, which is 10 dB more than the $\Delta\Sigma$'s SNR specification of 79 dB, the $\Delta\Sigma$ s in a ZIF architecture require a minimum over sampling ratio (OSR) of about 192 for a second order $\Delta\Sigma$ [11]. This implies that each $\Delta\Sigma$ requires a minimum sampling frequency of $1.23 \text{ MHz} * 192 = 236 \text{ MHz}$.

For a CLIF architecture, the in-band CDMA signal has a 1.23 MHz bandwidth about the 2.5 MHz low IF. Because of the low IF, the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ is a lowpass $\Delta\Sigma$ that is being used in a bandpass fashion. To establish a lower bound on the required OSR, the sampling rate versus SNR plots in [11] can be used if the $\Delta\Sigma$ is considered a lowpass $\Delta\Sigma$. Because the low IF is 2.5 MHz, the $\Delta\Sigma$ s must provide a SQNR of $89 \text{ dB} - 10 \log_{10} (2 * 3.115 \text{ MHz} / 1.23 \text{ MHz}) = 82 \text{ dB}$ from DC to 3.115 MHz [11]. If the $\Delta\Sigma$ s are considered low-pass (LP) $\Delta\Sigma$ s with an optimized NTF zero at 2.5 MHz, the minimum OSR is about 112 [11]. An OSR of 112 implies a minimum sampling frequency of 697 MHz. The effective OSR for the 1.23 MHz bandwidth centered at 2.5 MHz is $697 \text{ MHz} / (2 * 1.23 \text{ MHz}) = 283$.

To achieve a SQNR of 89 dB, each $\Delta\Sigma$'s inherent anti-aliasing filter, which is characterized by the signal transfer function (STF), must attenuate any full-scale out-of-band signals that can alias into the frequency band of interest by at least 89 dB. To determine the $\Delta\Sigma$'s STF, consider the $\Delta\Sigma$'s simplified linear time invariant model shown in Fig. 3. In this block diagram, the input resonator, excluding the bypass capacitors, is modeled by the transfer function, $G_1(s)$, where

$$G_1(s) = \frac{\frac{g_m s}{C_1}}{s^2 + \frac{1}{R_1 C_1} s + \frac{1}{LC_1}}, \quad (3)$$

and the integrator is modeled by the transfer function, $G_2(s)$, where

$$G_2(s) = \frac{\frac{1}{C_2}}{s + \frac{1}{R_2 C_2}}. \quad (4)$$

The feedback from each of the DACs is modeled as an ideal sample and hold operation which has the transfer function, $D(s)$, where

$$D(s) = \frac{1 - e^{-sT}}{s} \quad (5)$$

and T is the $\Delta\Sigma$'s sampling period [12]. The quantizer and its sampling operation can be modeled by the transfer function, $Q(s)$, where

$$Q(s) = Ke^{-sT_q}, \quad (6)$$

K is a constant, and T_q is the sampling delay [12]. In practice, K is time varying gain that depends on the input and output of the quantizer at the sampling instant. To determine a single effective time invariant value for K , the $\Delta\Sigma$ is simulated and K is set equal to the ratio of quantizer's RMS output voltages to the quantizer's RMS input voltages. The value of K must be re-evaluated after every design change for the model to be valid.

Using these models, the $\Delta\Sigma$'s STF can be written as

$$STF(s) = \frac{G_1(s)G_2(s)Q(s)}{1 + Q(s)D(s)[a_1G_1(s)G_2(s) + a_2G_2(s)]} \quad (7)$$

and the $\Delta\Sigma$'s NTF can be written as

$$NTF(s) = \frac{1}{1 + Q(s)D(s)[a_1G_1(s)G_2(s) + a_2G_2(s)]} \quad (8)$$

where a_1 and a_2 represent the feedback DAC currents. Fig. 4 shows plots of the STF and NTF where $K=16$, $T_q = 1.35$ ns, $T = .5$ ns, $R_1 = 11$ K Ω , $L_1 = 66$ μ H, $C_1 = 60$ pF, $R_2 = 16$ K Ω , $C_2 = 7$ pF, $g_m = 3.4$ mA/V, $a_1 = 240$ μ A, $a_2 = 80$ μ A, and $C_3 = C_4 = 0.1$ μ F. The STF plot shows that the STF has a -40 dB/decade slope, and the NTF plot shows that the NTF has approximately a 40 dB/decade slope between 2.5 MHz and 100 MHz. Both of these slopes indicate that the $\Delta\Sigma$ is predominantly second order. The STF plot also shows that the $\Delta\Sigma$ requires a sampling frequency of approximately 2 GHz to achieve a SQNR of 89 dB.

Because the minimum sampling frequency must satisfy both the quantization noise and aliasing requirements and because the quantization noise requirements requires a minimum sampling rate of 697 MHz while the aliasing requirement require a higher 2 GHz sampling rate, each $\Delta\Sigma$ requires a sampling frequency of approximately 2 GHz to achieve a SQNR of 89 dB. This sampling frequency could be reduced by using a higher order $\Delta\Sigma$ that would increase the roll-off of the STF. However, this approach is less desirable in terms of $\Delta\Sigma$ stability, device noise, and power consumption.

B. Excess Loop Delay

Excess loop delay is defined as the latency between the time of the clock edge at which the quantizer quantizes and the time at which the DACs generate their outputs. The quantizer's inherent latency, which includes the latency through the comparator's latches, the DAC drivers, and the DACs, contribute to the excess loop delay in a CT- $\Delta\Sigma$. The inherent delay, T_q , of a quantizer, which has two latches, ranges from 0 to T where T is the $\Delta\Sigma$'s clock period. For a busy quantizer, the average delay is $0.5T$. Each additional latch beyond the

two latches that compose a basic latched comparator adds an additional $0.5T$ of average excess loop delay. Accounting for delays inherent in the DAC drivers and the DACs with $0.5T$ of delay, the average total excess loop delay for a 3-latch comparator is $1.5T$. For a similar $\Delta\Sigma$ with a 5-latch comparator, the average total excess loop delay is $2.5T$.

Excess loop delay affects the $\Delta\Sigma$'s stability, and as a result, reduces the $\Delta\Sigma$'s SNR [13]. By reducing the out-of-band gain in the NTF and adjusting the feedback coefficients, the effects of excess loop delay can be reduced [13]; however they cannot be eliminated. In this design both the out-of-band gain in the NTF and feedback coefficients were adjusted to minimize the effects of excess loop delay.

Simulations show that this paper's CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ loop is stable with $2.5T$ excess loop delay where $T = 500$ ns. Although such a high number of clock cycles might suggest loop instability, the high sampling frequency (small period), low IF frequency of the modulator (large signal period), and low order NTF prove to be important factors in keeping the loop stable. Intuitively, the delay is imperceptible to the input because the input signal period is significantly larger than the average excess loop delay. This observation suggests that higher sampling rates help to improve the $\Delta\Sigma$'s stability.

C. Comparator Metastability

Comparator metastability occurs when very small voltages appear at the input of the comparator at the clock sampling instances. In such cases, the comparator might be incapable of latching to one of its stable states before the data is latched by the $\Delta\Sigma$'s output register. In these situations, the signal sent to the decimation filter is different from the signal fed back to the DACs. Such a situation can significantly reduce the DR of a $\Delta\Sigma$. Also, when metastability occurs the comparator has a random excess loop delay or signal dependent timing jitter, which randomizes the switching times of the DACs. The random DAC switching times appear as a noise signal at the input of the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$.

The effects of comparator metastability can be analyzed by modeling any metastability delay as a noise signal that is added to the outputs of the two DACs. To determine the variance of this noise signal, the comparator with metastability is modeled as $Ke^{-s(T_q + \Delta t(n))}$, where K is the comparator's variable gain, T_q is the comparator's average delay, and $\Delta t(n)$ represents the variable delay caused by metastability. The variable metastability delay, $\Delta t(n)$, is assumed to be an independent zero mean random signal for a busy comparator input signal. Because the error introduced by comparator metastability is only present when the comparator transitions between stable states, the metastability error current, $i_e(n)$, which is present at the output of each DAC during the n th clock cycle is

$$i_e(n) = [y(n) - y(n-1)] \frac{\Delta t(n)}{T} I_{DAC} \quad (9)$$

where T is the $\Delta\Sigma$'s sampling period, $y(n)$ is the $\Delta\Sigma$'s output at time nT , and I_{DAC} is the DAC's output current

[9][13][14][15]. The variance, $\sigma_{i_e}^2$, of this error current $i_e(n)$ is

$$\sigma_{i_e}^2 \approx \sigma_{\Delta y}^2 \frac{\sigma_{\Delta t}^2}{T^2} I_{DAC}^2 \quad (10)$$

where $\sigma_{\Delta y}^2$ is the variance of $[y(n)-y(n-1)]$ and $\sigma_{\Delta t}^2$ the variance of the $\Delta t(n)$.

Because DAC₁'s output is added to the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input, the metastability noise at the output of DAC₁ is shaped by the $\Delta\Sigma$'s STF. DAC₂'s output is added to the comparator's input, and thus, the metastability noise at the output of DAC₂ is shaped by a transfer function that resembles the $\Delta\Sigma$'s NTF about IF. Therefore, the metastability noise at the output of DAC₂ does not significantly affect the $\Delta\Sigma$ because it is still suppressed by the zeros that result from the resonator. Assuming that the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input is a full-scale sinusoidal signal with power $\sigma_S^2 = I_{IN}^2/2$, then the $\Delta\Sigma$'s signal to metastability noise ratio (SMNR) over the frequency band of interest can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} SMNR &= 10 * \log_{10} \left(\frac{\sigma_S^2}{\sigma_{i_e}^2 / OSR} \right) \\ &= 10 * \log_{10} \left(\frac{OSR \frac{I_{IN}^2}{2}}{\sigma_{\Delta y}^2 \frac{\sigma_{\Delta t}^2}{T^2} I_{DAC}^2} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Solving (11) for $\sigma_{\Delta t}^2$,

$$\sigma_{\Delta t}^2 = \frac{OSR \frac{I_{IN}^2}{2}}{\sigma_{\Delta y}^2 \frac{1}{T^2} I_{DAC}^2 10^{\frac{SMNR}{10}}}. \quad (12)$$

Typically, $\sigma_{\Delta y}^2$ is estimated empirically by simulating a $\Delta\Sigma$ with an ideal comparator that has no metastability. As discussed earlier in this section, the $\Delta\Sigma$'s SMNR specification is 89 dB, which is 10 dB less than the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity of 79 dB. For a $\Delta\Sigma$ with an SMNR \geq 89 dB, OSR = 800, $I_{IN} = 160 \mu\text{A}$, $I_{DAC1} = 240 \mu\text{A}$, and $\sigma_{\Delta y}^2 = 0.6$, $\sigma_{\Delta t}^2$ must be less than $(305 \text{ fs})^2$.

D. Clock Phase Noise

An on-chip voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) generates the $\Delta\Sigma$'s clock. A clock signal generated by a VCO has phase noise that effectively causes the latency of the $\Delta\Sigma$'s comparator to vary. As a result, clock phase noise can reduce the $\Delta\Sigma$'s SNR.

The $\Delta\Sigma$'s comparator can be modeled as a mixer, which mixes the comparator's input signal with the VCO's clock signal [1]. A VCO's performance is typically specified by a relative noise amount, α , at some offset from the VCO's

center frequency f_c . As a result, the clock phase noise that is located at the frequency $f_c + \Delta f$ and has a relative amplitude α , mixes with the comparator input signal components at frequency f_{sig} . The resulting in-band clock phase noise components appear at the frequency, f_{np} where $f_{np} = f_{sig} + \Delta f$ and has a relative amplitude of

$$S_{\delta} = 0.5 \left(\frac{f_{sig}}{f_c} \right)^2 \alpha^2. \quad (13)$$

To achieve a SNR of 89 dB, S_{δ} is set to -89 dB. For this $\Delta\Sigma$, a low IF of 2.5 MHz was used which implies that $f_{sig} = 2.5 \text{ MHz}$. Therefore, if $f_c = 2 \text{ GHz}$, then α must be -27.9 dBc for a phase noise offset of 1.23 MHz/2. This value of α is an integrated phase noise over the 1.23 MHz bandwidth. (13) shows that the large OSR used in this design significantly relaxes the VCO's phase noise specification and precludes it as a major noise source in the $\Delta\Sigma$.

IV. CIRCUIT IMPLEMENTATIONS

The $\Delta\Sigma$ is comprised of four basic circuit blocks, a transconductance amplifier (TA), two DACs, and a comparator. In this section, the designs of the TA and the two DACs are primarily described within the context of meeting the $\Delta\Sigma$'s noise and linearity requirements described in the previous section. The comparator design is primarily described in the context of meeting its metastability requirement and the $\Delta\Sigma$'s excess loop delay requirement.

A. Transconductance Amplifier

Fig. 5 shows the TA's schematic [10]. The TA's design specifications of interest are linearity, output noise, and bandwidth. The TA's linearity requirement can be derived from the $\Delta\Sigma$'s linearity specification by dividing the $\Delta\Sigma$'s linearity specification discussed above by the TA's forward current gain, $g_m * Z_{resonator}$, where g_m is the TA's transconductance and the $Z_{resonator}$ is the resonator's impedance at the IF. For this design, $g_m * Z_{resonator}$ is approximately 30 dB, which implies that the TA requires an IMP3 suppression of approximately 39 dB for a two-tone test where the each of the two tones has an input that is 3 dB below full-scale.

The TA's noise requirement can be derived from the $\Delta\Sigma$'s noise specification by dividing the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input referred noise specification by the TA's forward current gain, $g_m * Z_{resonator}$. Therefore, the TA's output noise can be 30 dB higher than the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input referred noise.

To insure that the TA's dominant pole does not interfere with the quantization noise shaping around IF, the TA's bandwidth should extend past the $\Delta\Sigma$'s band of interest by a couple of orders of magnitude past IF. For this design, a TA bandwidth of at least 100 MHz allows the $\Delta\Sigma$ to maintain its noise shaping characteristics around the receiver's low IF.

B. Feedback DACs

The schematic of DAC₁ is shown in Fig. 6. The DAC's common mode feedback (CMFB) circuit maintains the common mode of the DAC's output, as well as, the $\Delta\Sigma$'s

input common mode. DAC_2 has the same architecture as DAC_1 except that DAC_2 's current is less than that of DAC_1 , and DAC_2 's common mode feedback (CMFB) is shared with the TA's CMFB. Both DACs use a fully differential structure to reduce their even order harmonics and improve their power supply rejection. Both DACs are switched using current mode logic (CML). The CML structure provides symmetry for the rise and fall time of the DACs' outputs over design corners. This symmetry prevents folding of out-of-band noise back in-band due to asymmetry in the rise and fall times of the DACs' outputs [16].

As discussed in the previous section, the device noise power of the DACs is designed to be at the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity. Each DAC contains two noise sources that can generate noise power at the $\Delta\Sigma$'s minimum sensitivity. The first source is the two PFET current sources that are controlled by the CMFB circuit. Both of these PFET devices inject flicker noise and thermal noise directly into the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input. Sizing these PFETs appropriately can control the flicker and thermal noise generated in these PFETs. The second source of noise results from the NFET current source's thermal noise mixing with the feedback bit stream of the $\Delta\Sigma$. Because $\Delta\Sigma$'s output bit stream controls the DAC switches, the DAC's output spectrum is the NTF filtered by the sample and hold operation. In this particular design, the resulting spectrum has a spectral peak at 100 MHz. Therefore, the NFET current source's thermal noise at 100MHz + IF is mixed to the frequency band of interest. The NFET thermal noise at 100 MHz + IF can be controlled by sizing these NFETs appropriately.

C. Comparator

Fig. 7 shows a block diagram of the comparator, which consists of a wideband amplifier and five (or three) clocked latches. The wideband amplifier is a simple cascaded differential pair based structure designed to overcome offsets in the first latch. The comparator's design specifications of interest are its latency and metastability.

To minimize the comparator's latency, the amplifier was designed with a 500 MHz bandwidth and with as few latches as necessary. To meet the metastability specification in (12) at a 2 GHz clock rate, the comparator uses conventional CML latches as shown in Fig. 8. Typically, a basic comparator consists of two latches; however, using additional latches on a comparator synchronizes the last latch's output transitions with the sampling clock times. These additional latches can reduce a comparator's metastability, or signal dependent timing jitter. For the typical process parameters, a 3-latch comparator is adequate to meet the metastability specification; however, to meet the metastability specification over all process corners, a 5-latch comparator is necessary. To further minimize metastability and allow the comparator latches to work at 2 GHz, significant effort was placed in the layout and sizing of the resistors in the latches. The parasitic capacitances of the resistors dominated the bandwidth of the comparator. An eye diagram was used to verify that the comparator met the metastability metric.

V. MEASURED RESULTS

Two versions of the $\Delta\Sigma$ were fabricated. The first version has a 5-latch comparator and the second version used a 3-latch comparator. Each version was fabricated in a 0.18 μm , n-well, single-poly, six-metal CMOS technology as a standalone module designed for wafer probing and as part of a CLIF receiver.

Fig. 9 shows a diagram of the test setup for the probe-able version. As shown in Fig. 9, the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input signal generator is followed by a low pass filter, which suppresses the signal generator's harmonics. The transformer provides impedance matching between the signal generator and the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input. Capacitors, C_3 and C_4 , are large DC bypass capacitors. The capacitor, C_{1b} , is the off-chip portion of C_1 . Resistors, R_{1a} and R_{1b} , model the mixer's output impedance and convert the transformer's secondary-side voltage to the $\Delta\Sigma$'s input current. To minimize the parasitic impedances between the $\Delta\Sigma$'s discrete and integrated circuits, the discrete components which include, the inductor, L_1 , the resistors, R_{1a} and R_{1b} , and the capacitors, C_{1b} , C_3 , and C_4 , are mounted on the tips of the input probes. Another signal generator provides the $\Delta\Sigma$'s clock signal. The $\Delta\Sigma$'s single bit output is buffered by a chain of CML buffers and sent off chip.

Often, the DR or SNR of single bit $\Delta\Sigma$ can be measured by sending the $\Delta\Sigma$'s output bit stream into a spectrum analyzer; however, such measurements can be limited by the bit stream's noise and any bit stream rising and falling edge asymmetry caused by the buffers [16][2]. Instead, the $\Delta\Sigma$'s output bit stream is sampled by a high-speed digital oscilloscope (HSDO) at a rate of 10 GHz. In general, because the HSDO's sampling frequency is asynchronous with the $\Delta\Sigma$'s sampling frequency, the sampled bit stream's timing must be reconstructed. This can be accomplished by generating an eye diagram from the HSDO's samples. The resulting single bit signal was then filtered and decimated.

Fig. 10 shows the plot of the $\Delta\Sigma$'s measured SNR over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth versus input power for the $\Delta\Sigma$ that has a 5-latch comparator. This figure shows that the $\Delta\Sigma$ has a DR of 76.4 dB. Fig. 11 shows the spectral density of a full-scale input signal after decimation. The SNR shown in Fig. 11 is limited by the signal generator's close-in phase noise. The generator's phase noise could not be suppressed further because highly linear, narrow band filters at 2.5 MHz were not available at the time of testing. Fig. 12 shows the corresponding eye diagram of the single bit output. This diagram shows that the comparator's metastability, $\sigma_{\Delta t}$, is approximately 6 ps; however, because the HSDO has a sampling uncertainty of 6 ps, the comparator's metastability could not be measured any more accurately using the HSDO. Using (12) and the 76.4 dB SNR, it can be shown that the comparator's metastability is less than 1.3 ps rms. Fig. 13 shows a power spectral density of a two-tone test to measure IMP3 suppression or SFDR. The measured IMP3 delta of 69 dB translates to an IIP3 of -1.5 dBm with respect to the receiver input. This performance meets the earlier derived specification. Since this requirement includes an allocation to

the duplexer and LNA/mixer this should be sufficient for the CDMA receiver.

At sampling rates between 1 GHz and a 2 GHz, the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ performed similarly to the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$; however, the two $\Delta\Sigma$ s performed differently at sampling rates below 1 GHz and above 2 GHz. Fig. 14 plots the SNR of the two $\Delta\Sigma$ s as a function of sampling rate. For this plot, the $\Delta\Sigma$ s' inputs are -10 dBFS, and thus, the SNR for a full-scale sinusoidal input would be 10 dB higher than what is shown.

As shown in Fig. 14, the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ exhibits better performance at sampling frequencies less than 1 GHz than the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$. This result is due to the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$'s smaller comparator latency. For example, at a 600 MHz sampling frequency, the excess loop delay for the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ is 1.1% of the input signal's period, and the excess loop delay for the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ is 0.6% of the input signal period. In contrast, at a 2 GHz sampling frequency, the excess loop delay for a 5-latch and 3-latch design is 0.4% and 0.2% of the input signal period, respectively. For sampling frequencies between 1 GHz and 2 GHz, the SNRs for the 3 and 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ s are nearly equal because the $\Delta\Sigma$'s performance is being limited by the DAC's device-noise.

As shown in Fig. 14, the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ exhibited better performance at sampling frequencies above 2 GHz than the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ because the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ exhibits less metastability than the 3-latch $\Delta\Sigma$. The additional 2 latches in the 5-latch $\Delta\Sigma$ allows the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ to maintain consistency in its feedback waveform at sampling frequencies above 2 GHz. This allows the 5-latch comparator to meet the metastability requirement with significant margin.

The performance of the $\Delta\Sigma$ fabricated as part of a CLIF receiver was also measured. However, because the $\Delta\Sigma$ was embedded in the receiver, it was not tested in the same manner as the $\Delta\Sigma$ in the standalone probe-able module. The SNR of the receiver's $\Delta\Sigma$ was measured at 79 dB/1.23 MHz which is 2.6 dB better than the SNR of the standalone module's $\Delta\Sigma$. This improvement is attributed to the receiver's improved operating environment, which includes better grounding, supply by-passing, and improved integration with the discrete components.

The $\Delta\Sigma$ consumes 10 mA at 1.8 V or 18 mW. Each $\Delta\Sigma$ occupies an area of approximately 615 μm x 1450 μm or 0.892 mm². Fig. 15 shows a micrograph of the 5-latch CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ integrated in a CLIF receiver. 9% of the $\Delta\Sigma$'s layout area consists of the TA, the two DACs, and the comparator. The integrated portion of capacitor C₁, identified as C_{1a} in Fig. 15, and C₂ consume another 11% of the area. Supply bypass capacitors, voltage regulators, and routing used the remaining 80% of the layout area.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ fabricated in a standard CMOS technology. The successful performance of the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ in both probe-able and integrated receiver form has demonstrated that a high speed CMOS CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ modulator

can be constructed with low power consumption, high dynamic range, and high linearity using basic circuit blocks and a second order design.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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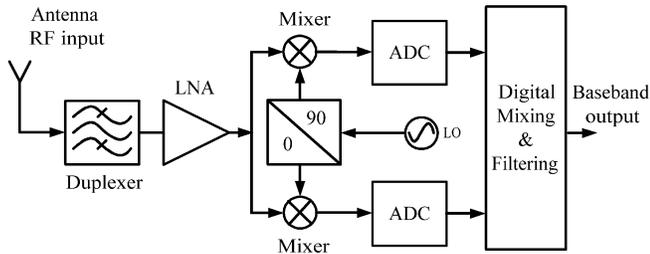


Fig. 1. Block diagram of a ZIF or CLIF architecture.

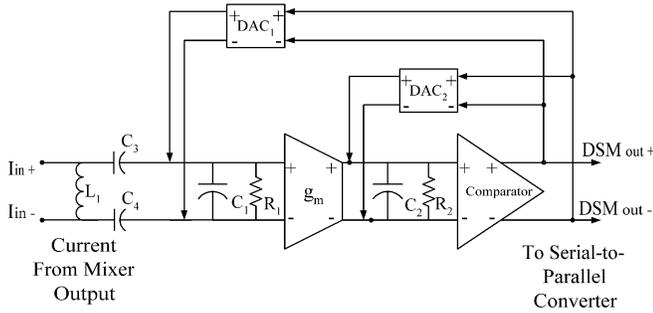


Fig. 2. Simple schematic of this paper's CT-ΔΣM.

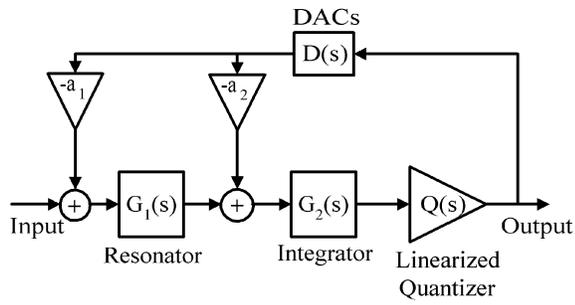


Fig. 3. Linearized model of the second order CT-ΔΣM.

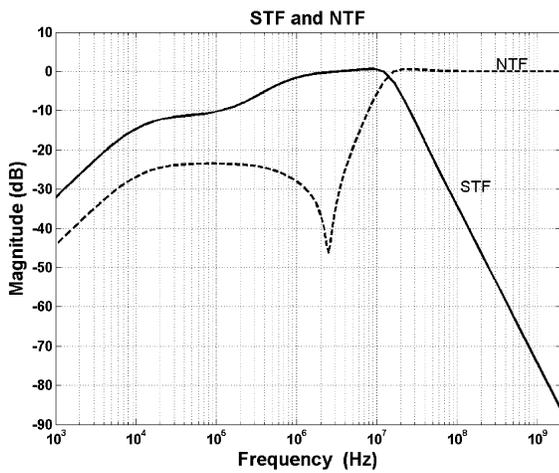


Fig. 4. Plot of STF and NTF from linearized model of the second order CT-ΔΣM.

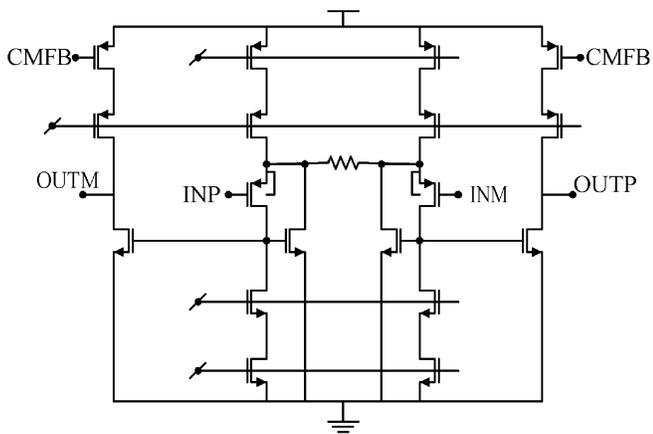


Fig. 5. Schematic of TA.

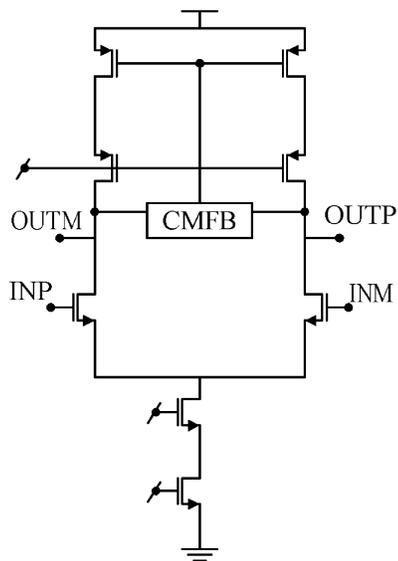


Fig. 6. Schematic of DAC₁.

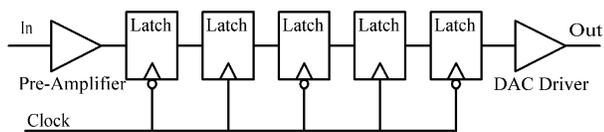


Fig. 7. Block diagram of comparator.

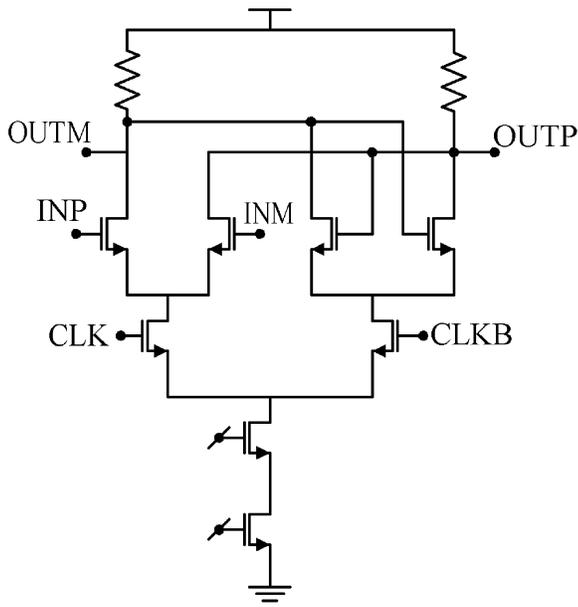


Fig. 8. Schematic of comparator latch

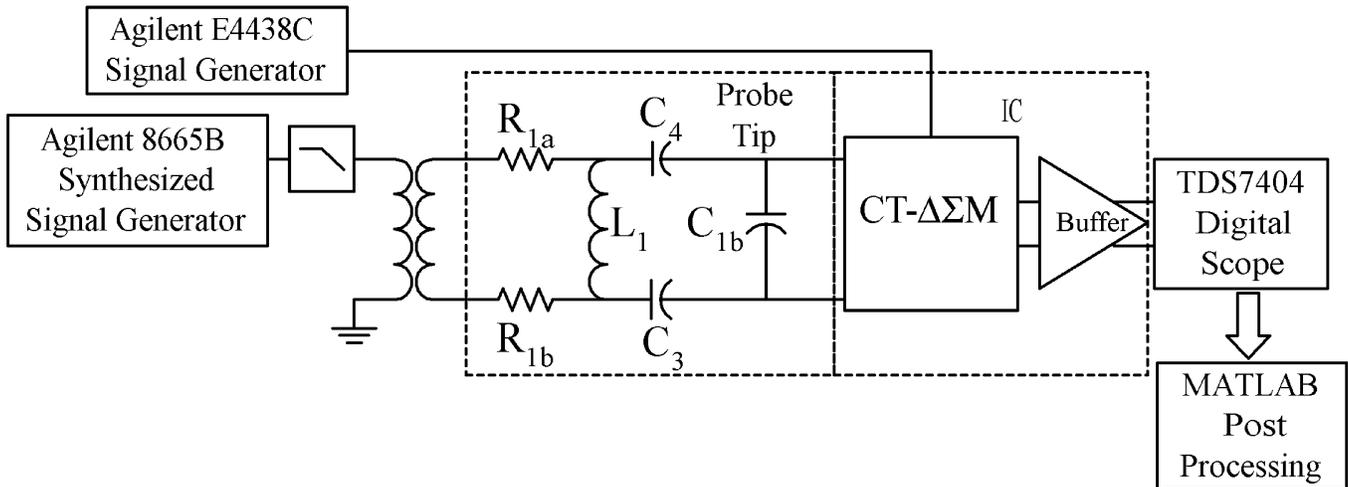


Fig. 9. Block diagram of test setup used to characterize the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ M performance. C_{1b} is the portion of C_1 off-chip.

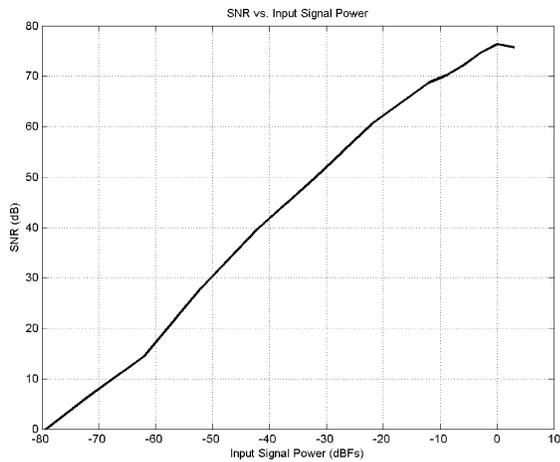


Fig. 10. SNR over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth versus input amplitude

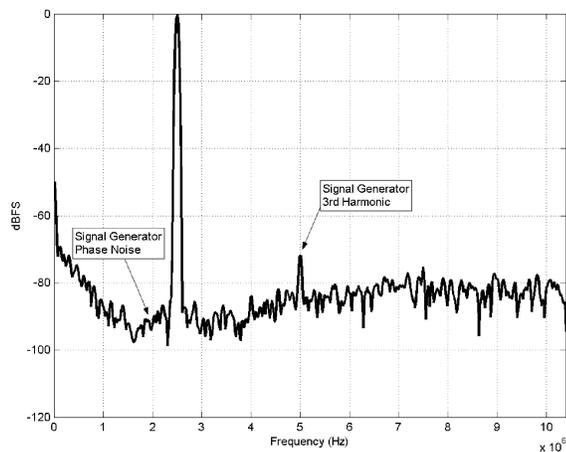


Fig. 11. Measured power spectral density of probed CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ M showing 76.4 dB/1.23 MHz DR. The plot is generated by averaging three 1 K FFTs from the decimation filter output. The resulting bandwidth resolution is 20 KHz.

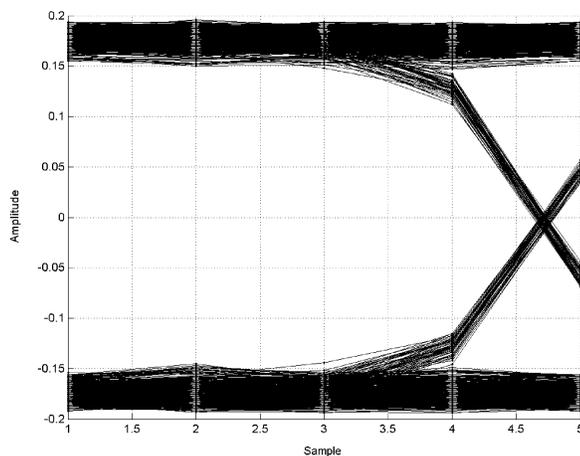


Fig. 12. Eye diagram of CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ M bit stream. Samples are 100 ps apart.

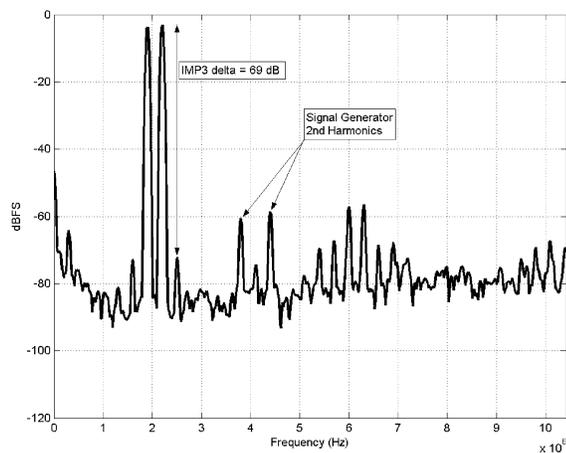


Fig. 13. Measured power spectral density of a two-tone test showing the IMP3 delta of 69 dB with the 2 tones run at -3 dBFS. The plot is generated by averaging three 1 K FFTs from the decimation filter output. The resulting bandwidth resolution is 20 KHz.

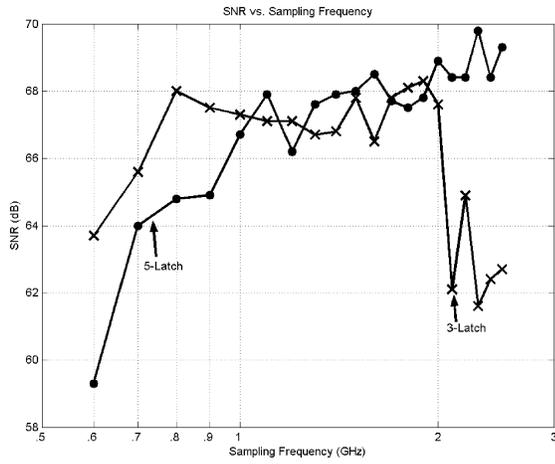


Fig. 14. SNR over a 1.23 MHz bandwidth versus sampling frequency for the 5-latch and 3-latch comparator implementations of the CT- $\Delta\Sigma$. The input signal power is at -10 dBFS to avoid possible SNR compression that could result from early overloading due to decreased sampling frequency.

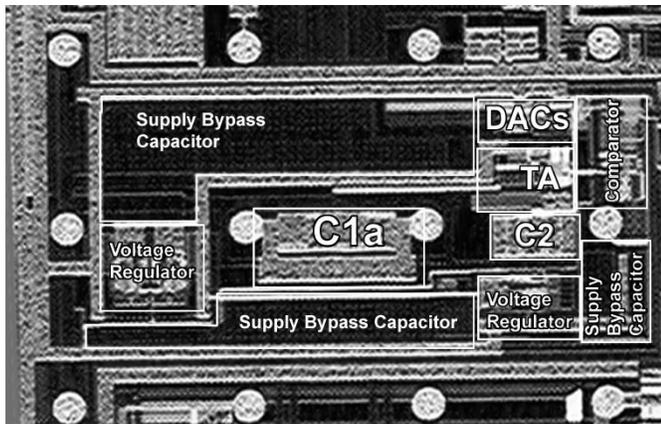


Fig. 15. Micrograph of CT- $\Delta\Sigma$ M integrated in CLIF receiver. C_{1a} is the portion of C_1 integrated on-chip.