8 Bit Current Steering DAC

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I. Abstract

In this paper, we will go through the analysis, design and simulation of an 8-Bit Current Steering DAC operating from three supplies of 5v, 2.5v and 3.5v. The 8-bit binary input ranges from 0 - 5v, and the clock can be as high as 25MHz. The common-mode voltage V_{cm} runs from a 3.5v rail, and the positive input of the Op Amp from a $V_{ref} = 2.5v$ reference. The process used for this purpose is a $0.5\mu m$ AMI C5N CMOS process. The fact that the current steering topology is used instead of the R2R topology made it more challenging to achieve good INL as well as DNL results. Major glitching issues were encountered during the design step because of the coupling effect of the clock as well as the digital inputs to the output through parasitic capacitances, but these issues were overcome through the use of digital latches as well as charge injection switches. An overall swing of 2.06v was achieved along with an SNDR of 30dB and an LSB step of 8.3mv. Worthwhile to note also, is that the DAC cannot drive resistive loads of values less than $100K\Omega$.

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II. Introduction

A. DAC Architectures

DACs are the interface between the analog and digital worlds in electrical engineering. The progress achieved during the last decade in computing and data processing is closely related to these chips. Four major DAC topologies can be distinguished:

- Binary Weighted DACs: These DACs consist of either current sources or resistors for each bit. These elements are connected to a summing point which provides the output.
- **R2R Ladder DACs**: These DACs consist of a structure of resistor values which can be closely matched. This topology is binary weighted and can provide a higher resolution compared to its purely binary weighted counterpart.
- **Delta-Sigma DACs**: These DACs are relatively new and they rely on pulse density and noise shaping techniques which allow for the use of a lower resolution DAC in the forward path (usually 1 bit).
- Segmented DACs: These DACs are a hybrid between the binary weighted and the thermometer decoded topologies. This mix proved to be the fastest and most precise topology, at the expense of die area.

B. Project Objectives

The major objective for this project was to build an 8-bit current steering Digital to Analog Convertor. The table I below provides the project's specifications:

Supplies	Vdd=5v Vcm=3.5v Vref=2.5v
Clock Frequency	Up to 25 MHz
Input Frequency	Up to 10 MHz
Drive	At least 100 $K\Omega$
Topology	Binary Weighted

TABLE	I
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DAC Specifications

III. Design

A. DAC Topology

The initial topology that was chosen for this DAC was a segmented one; which consists of binary weighted current cells as well as thermometer decoded cells. However, if only 1 or 2 bits are segmented, the glitching is not significantly reduced. Also, high resolution segmented DACs are known to occupy less area on the die compared to their non-segmented counterpart, however, since this DAC has an 8-bit resolution only, one should not expect major die area reduction in the layout because the digital circuitry will tend to occupy a considerable space as well. All these considerations concluded with the use of a regular binary weighted DAC instead of a segmented one.

B. Top Level Diagram

Figure 1 below depicts a basic top-level block diagram of the implemented DAC. The first block consists of the digital inputs (8 bits), which control a set of digital gated D latches operating from a 10 MHz clock. The latches' outputs on the other hand control the differential current switches in order to steer the current back and forth between two resistive networks. The last stage of this implementation is the Op Amp which plays the role of an active lowpass filter with a DC gain of -1 and a cutoff frequency of about 2.6 MHz.



Fig. 1. Top Level Block Diagram of the DAC

C. Current Cells

Since the DAC will use a binary weighted architecture, high output impedance current mirrors will be needed to help reduce the currents' sensitivity to the output voltage, and thus reduce current glitches that might occur because of change in the output voltage. Figure 2 below shows the unit current cell used.



Fig. 2. Unit Current Cell

Setting the unit cell's current to $20\mu A$ is a good decision because the largest current will end up being 2.56mA according to Eq. 1, therefore the power requirements of the chip can be kept quite low. Another reason for not designing with a lower current is the fact that one would need to implement either a widlar current source or a peaking source to achieve a supply-insensitive current of less than $20\mu A$, therefore for design simplicity, this was the value of the lowest current in the current array.

$$Iout_m = 2^{(m)} Iin \tag{1}$$

Assuming a 1v drop across the gate-drained tied FETs in figure 2, and using Eq. 2 to solve for the required aspect ratio of these transistors, we get a ratio of about 4. Since the channel length of the transistors is inversely proportional to the early effect parameter λ , we will scale the aspect ratio by a factor of 6. Therefore the dimensions of the unit cell are $W = 24\mu m$ and $L = 6\mu m$.

$$I_d = \frac{k'_n}{2} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_t)^2$$
⁽²⁾

All other current cells are a factor of 2^m greater than the original unit cell, where m is the bit number. The following figure show the whole binary weighted current cell array. The MSB has the following dimensions $W = 3024\mu m$ and $L = 6\mu m$ and runs a 2.56mA current.



Fig. 3. Binary Current Cell Array

D. Differential Switches

The differential switches are designed so that the voltage drop across the switches when they are on is the same for all transistors. Since the current scales up by a factor of 2, the R_{on} resistances will need to be scaled down by the same factor. The resistance of the Unit Cell was determined based on Eq. 3.

$$R_{on} = \frac{1}{K'_n \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TN})}$$
(3)

The transconductance value used is $K'_n = 108\mu A/V^2$ (according to the parameter sheet for this process) and using the minimal estimate of the gate-source voltage (V_{GS}) predicted by Eq. 4, one can set the R_{on} in Eq. 3 to 100 Ω and solve for the aspect ratio of the switch while assuming a minimal channel length of 600nm (to keep the resistance small). By doing so, we get the following dimensions $W = 18\mu m$ and L = 600nm. This aspect ratio will have to be scaled up by a factor of 2 progressively as mentioned earlier.

$$V_{GSmin} = V_{dd} - 2V_{ov} - V_{TN} \tag{4}$$

E. Charge Injection

One of the major glitching sources in this DAC topology is the charge injected to the output when the differential switch inputs change. If this charge is not cancelled out by some means, it will make it to the output and will appear as a large voltage or current glitch. In order to overcome this issue, a charge injection scheme is used by placing a drain-source tied transistor in series with the actual switch. This charge injection transistor needs to be half as big as the differential switch so it can cancel half the charge generated by the change in the voltage. Using the basic Voltage/Charge Eq. 5, one could easily compute how much charge will be injected into the drain of the switch.

$$Q = \frac{C_{ox}WLV}{2} \tag{5}$$

Using the data sheet for this process, the approximate gate-source capacitance per unit area is $C = 900aF/\mu m^2$, substituting this value with a voltage change of 5v, one could get an estimate of the charge dumped into the drain of the unit cell, which is computed to be Q = 25nC. This charge amount will scale progressively by a factor of 2 as the switches are made larger.

F. Latches

Another source of glitching comes from the switching synchronization of the differential switches. If the cross over point is midway between the rails, the cascode current sources will keep switching between the cut-off and the active modes of operation more often. This will cause the output currents to spike at every transition. However, if the cross over point is raised, one switch will go on before the other one goes off enabling the cascode mirrors to remain active at all times. The schematic in Figure 4 depicts the gated-D latch used to obtain the desired cross over point.



Fig. 4. Gated-D latch

Simulation of the latch outputs (Q and \tilde{Q}) produces figure 5. The cross over point is 3.83v as shown below:



Fig. 5. Gated D latch outputs

G. Op Amp

1) Input Stage: The input stage of the Op Amp is a standard differential pair with a cascoded tail source to improve the CMRR. It can be seen from Eq. 6 that the higher the r_{tail} the lower the CM gain, and therefore the higher the CMRR is.

$$CM = \frac{1}{2g_{m(mir)}r_{tail}}\tag{6}$$

The resistive bias circuitry is set to run a $100\mu A$ tail current in the differential pair. Keeping the tail current low is preferred since the gain is inversely proportional to the square root of the current. Eq. 7 is an expression for the open loop gain of this stage.

$$DM \simeq -g_{m(dp)}(r_{o(mir)}//r_{o(dp)}) \tag{7}$$

The figure below shows the differential stage of the Op Amp.



Fig. 6. Differential Pair

Solving for the small signal parameters for this differential pair, we get the values listed in Table II:

Parameter	Expression	Value
$g_{m(dp)}$	$\sqrt{2I_dK'_n\frac{W}{L}}$	1.8mA/V
$g_{m(mir)}$	$\sqrt{2I_d K'_p \frac{W}{L}}$	$824.5 \mu A/V$
$r_{o(mir)}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda_p I_d}$	$250K\Omega$
$r_{o(dp)}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda_n I_d}$	$200K\Omega$



Differential pair small signal parameters

Substituting the values in Table II into Eq. 7 (page 9) gives a differential gain of about -200v/v.

2) Gain Stage: The gain stage for this Op Amp is a basic common source amplifier, and its gain is given by Eq.8. Since the gain stage is running a $50\mu A$ current, the transconductance of the PMOS $(g_{m(cs)})$ is the same as $g_{m(mir)}$ of the differential stage, and the output impedance of this stage $(r_{o(cs)})$ is the same as $r_{o(mir)}$. Substituting these values into 8, gives a gain of about -206v/v. Therefore the overall gain of the Op Amp is 93dB.

$$A_{cs} \simeq -g_{m(cs)}(r_{o(cs)}//r_{o(tail)}) \simeq -g_{m(cs)}r_{o(cs)}$$

$$\tag{8}$$

The gain stage is shown below in figure 7:



Fig. 7. Gain Stage

3) Compensation: The purpose of compensation is to increase the time constant of the dominant pole, and push any other poles further in the s-plane. This is achieved by putting a *Miller* capacitor across the inverting gain stage as seen in the above figure. However, after compensation is added to the circuitry, feedforward effects are added as well which influences the zeros in the system. Therefore, in order to push the zero to ∞ , one needs to prevent any feedforward signals to propagate through the capacitor to the output. This idea is implemented with the common base amplifier (M27) seen in figure 7. Any signals in the drain of that FET will not couple to the output through the capacitor, however, feedback signals, which affect the poles, can couple back to the input because the FET is in a common base amplifier configuration. The value of the capacitor was adjusted to provide a phase margin of approximately 60 *deg* as seen in the phase/amplitude *bode* plot in figure 8.



Fig. 8. Gain/Phase Op Amp plot

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4) Op Amp results: The Op Amp characteristics are summarized in Table III below. It is also worthwhile to mention that the Op Amp is used as an active lowpass filter with a cutoff frequency of 2.65MHz.

A_v	92dB	
F_t	40MHz	
Fcutoff	2.6MHz	

TABLE III

Op Amp results

IV. Simulation

A. Overall Schematic

The DAC's overall schematic is shown below in figure 9. Each component was discussed in detail in previous sections.



Fig. 9. Complete DAC schematic

The independant sources on the top of the schematic are V_{cm} , V_{dd} and V_{clk} . The 8 blocks on the left are the latches, whereas the big block on the right is the current cells' array. The output is simulated with a $5M\Omega$ resistor and a 20pF capacitor to represent the oscilloscope's impedance. Two kinds of digital inputs were used; Standard ramping inputs, and sine wave inputs. The results for both simulations will be outlined shortly.

B. Simulation Results

1) Ramp Inputs: Simulating the DAC with a digital ramp produces the output in figure 10. It is to be noted that the clock frequency used for this simulation is $F_{clk} = 10MHz$ and the inputs change at a rate of $F_{in} = 2MHz$.



Fig. 10. Ramp DAC Output

A zoomed-in version of figure 10 is shown below:



Fig. 11. Zoomed-in version of ramping output

Figure 11 above shows that the step of the DAC is about 8.3mv. This step was achieved based on the desired amount of swing. One can use Eq. 9 below to solve for the LSB, and therefore the resistors which convert the DAC's current to a proportional voltage can be adjusted to achieve that LSB (assuming the unit cell current has already been set to $20\mu A$).

$$LSB = \frac{V_{swing}}{2^M} \tag{9}$$

An error graph can be generated by comparing the ramping output of the DAC to an ideal ramp. The integrated-non-linearity (INL), which is a measure of how much the DAC transfer characteristic differs from the ideal characteristic, can be extracted from this graph ($INL \leq 1LSB$). The error signal is shown in figure 12 below:



Fig. 12. Error signal

2) Sine wave inputs: A Matlab script was used to generate samples from a 20KHz sine wave. The sine wave samples were then exported to the Cadence design tools, and a top-level simulation was run. The output is shown in figure 13 below:



Fig. 13. Reconstructed Sine Wave

Running a discrete Fourier transform on the result discussed earlier enables us to find the signal-tonoise-distortion-ratio (SNDR) by substracting the highest distorted tone from the dominant 20KHz tone. The SNDR is evaluated to be approximately 30dB, which is a reasonable value for an 8-bit resolution.



Fig. 14. DFT of the output

V. Layout

Layout was a straightforward procedure. However, some issues were encountered during the layout of several blocks, but most of the errors were promptly detected and fixed. Parasitic extraction of the charge injection switches was not completed because LVS does not recognize drain-source tied transistors as regular FETs, therefore the only fix for this issue was to ignore these switches during the LVS check.

A. Current cells array

Figure 15 shows the layout of the current cells array.



Fig. 15. The current cells array layout

B. Differential switches

Figure 16 shows the layout of the unit cell differential switch.



Fig. 16. The unit cell differential switch layout

C. Latch

Figure 17 shows the layout of the latch. Note that all latches have been kept the same size to reduce layout time.



Fig. 17. The latch layout

D. Op Amp

Figure 18 shows the layout of the Op Amp. The component to the right is the 12pF compensation capacitor.



Fig. 18. The Op Amp layout

E. Complete chip layout

The figure in page 18 shows the complete layout of the DAC with the bond-pad ring as well as a 12pF decoupling capacitor. A complete pinout of the chip will be provided in section VI. Both DRC and LVS checks were run on the top-level analog-extracted config view of the chip. 0 errors were reported by the DRC check, whereas an error count of 78 was reported by LVS due to the fact that charge injection switches were ignored during extraction. This, however, was not a major issue since LVS had still produced a "net-lists match" message which enabled us to proceed with the simulations. The simulation results were good, except for minor glitches that are caused by the abscence of the charge injection capacitances as mentioned earlier.



Fig. 19. The overall layout of the chip

VI. Testing and Improvements

A. Power Dissipation

The portion of the chip which consumes the most power is the current cells array because of its binary nature. Table IV is a listing of the major areas where most of the static power is consumed in the actual chip.

CurrentArray	17.85mW	
OpAmp	1.25mW	

TABLE IV

B. Testing

Out of the 40 pins available, only 14 pins are being used. Table V below shows the pinout for the chip (the binary inputs are labeled from B0 to B7). All other pins in the chip are padded as No-Connects (NC).

Pin #	Function	Pin #	Function
12	B7	23	B1
13	B6	26	B0
14	В5	27	CLK
15	B4	29	VREF
16	В3	32	VCM
18	B2	35	VOUT
21	VDD	40	GND

TABLE V

DAC Pinout

Static Power Results

A simple procedure can be outlined in order to test the DAC, and it goes as follows:

- Connect all necessary rails using Table V as a reference.
- Connect the binary inputs to a binary ramp with a frequency of 2 MHz, and a range of 0-5v.
- Connect the output to the scope and remember not to place a load less than 100 $K\Omega$. A lowpass filter can also be applied at the output to smooth the signal.
- Observe the power consumption from the supplies and make sure it does not go above 20mW from all supplies combined. If it does, it is indicative of a short connection.

VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPROVEMENTS

A. Conclusion

Using the AMI $0.5\mu m$ process, an 8-bit current steering DAC was appropriately built. Both schematic and parasitic simulation results proved appropriate operation of the DAC, with a minor pseudo-glitching issue in the parasitic results caused by the LVS check not extracting the charge injection capacitances appropriately. This design can be used in any applications requiring a moderate speed and an 8-bit resolution.

B. Improvements

Many improvements could be implemented for this design to increase the speed and the swing as well as to reduce the glitch-power:

- High Swing Current Scheme: A high swing mirror could be used to improve the output swing by getting rid of the threshold term (V_T) in the minimal achievable voltage.
- Matching Layout Techniques: Matching techniques could also be used to improve glitch-power rejection.
- **Transimpedance Amplifier:** A transimpedance amplifier could be used to sum the currents from the current array instead of using resistors. This would reduce temperature dependencies and provide more accurate results.
- **Temperature Independant Biasing:** More elaborate biasing circuitry could be incorporated into this design to minimize both temperature and power supply dependencies.
- **Higher Resolution:** Higher resolution using a segmented topology could be implemented for high speed/resolution applications.

VIII. BIOGRAPHY

Taoufiq Bellamine was born in Rabat, Morocco. He graduated from My. Taib Alalaoui high school in Sale, Morocco. He is currently a fifth-year student at the University of Maine, studying towards two degrees in Electrical and Computer Engineering and will be graduating in May 2007. He speaks fluent French, Arabic and English, as well as his parents' native dialect (Berber). He has received numerous honors and scholarships while at the University of Maine, and had also acquired industry experience at Allegro Microsystems during Summer 06. His interests are circuit design (Analog and Digital) as well as programming.