

# How to Increase the Analog-to-Digital Converter Accuracy in an Application

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## 1. Overview

This document explains the [analog-to-digital converter \(ADC\)](#) basics and the key parameters. The document also lists the ADC errors sources and how to increase ADC accuracy from system point of view.

This application note uses the ADC embedded in the Kinetis microcontroller as an example. However the same principles are applied to other ADCs too. The accuracy of analog to digital conversion has an impact on overall system quality and efficiency.

To be able to improve ADC accuracy, understand which factors affect errors. The ADC itself, can't fully ensure the accuracy of results, it depends on the overall system design.

For this reason, carefully prepare before starting your development. Many factors including voltage reference, PCB layout, I/O switching, and analog source impedance and so on can affect the ADC accuracy depending on the application.

## 2. ADC basics

### 2.1. Defining ADC

An analog-to-digital converter, or ADC, is a device or peripheral that converts analog signals into digital signals.

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In the real world, signals mostly exist in analog form. You can use the ADC of the microcontroller to sample such signals, so that the signals can be converted to the digital values. The application software can then process the digital outputs and make decisions depending on the actual requirements.

The limitation imposed by the finite number of digital outputs decides how close the output is to the analog input. In order to get closer between digital result and analog signal, the higher resolution of ADC is needed.

## 2.2. ADC block description

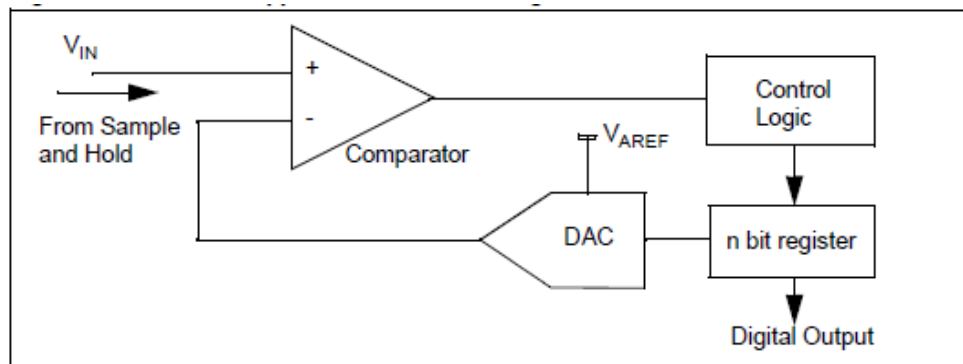
There are several types of popular ADC blocks like SAR (successive approximation Register) ADC, successive ADC, and SD (Sigma-Delta) ADC, and so on.

SAR ADC is used commonly in NXP Kinetis series products, and includes voltage reference, conversion trigger control, SAR controller, calibration block, and conversion result processing. This application note explains NXP SAR ADC.

The A/D conversion of SAR starts by forcing the MSB (Most Significant Bit) high. For example, in an 8-bit ADC it becomes 1000 0000, and the DAC converts it to  $V_{AREF}/2$ . The analog comparator compares the input voltage with  $V_{AREF}/2$ . If the input voltage is greater than the voltage corresponding to the MSB, the bit is left set, otherwise it is reset.

$V_{AREF}$  is the reference voltage used by ADC for conversions. After this comparison is done, the next significant bit is set ( $=V_{AREF}/4$ ) and a comparison is done again with the input voltage. The procedure is followed until all the bit positions are compared. The SAR ADC illustration is depicted as below

*Figure 1.*



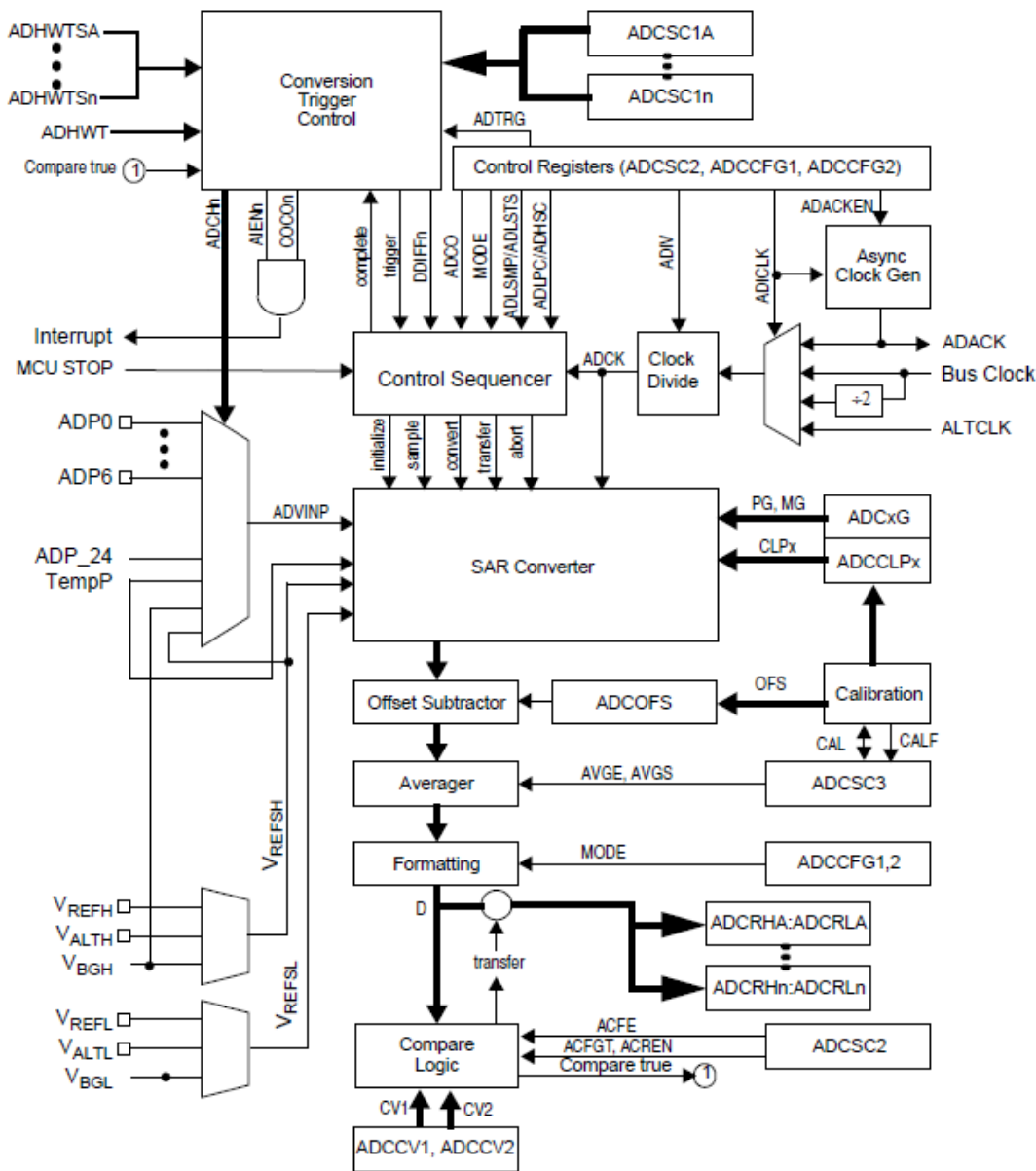
**Figure 1. SAR ADC illustration**

At the end of all the comparisons you get the corresponding digital output for the analog input. The successive approximation steps are shown in [Table 1](#). The digital output obtained from the ADC is D5h when the analog input is 2.75 V.

Table 1. ADC conversion table

Steps	Vin=2.75 V, VREF=3.3 V			
	Digital code	DAC output	Comparator output	Digital output
1	1000 0000	1.65 V	1	1000 0000
2	1100 0000	2.475 V	1	1100 0000
3	1110 0000	2.8875 V	0	1110 0000
4	1101 0000	2.68125 V	1	1101 0000
5	1101 1000	2.784375 V	0	1101 0000
6	1101 0100	2.7328125 V	1	1101 0100
7	1101 0110	2.75859375 V	0	1101 0100
8	1101 0101	2.745703125 V	1	1101 0101
				Final output =D5h

For ADC end user, it is important to note the ADC inputs and multiplex logic, conversion speed and triggering logic, calibration logic, and conversion result processing, as described in [Figure 2](#).



**Figure 2. Kinetis SAR ADC block**

### 2.3. ADC terminology

This section explains reference voltage, resolution, quantization, and sampling frequency.

### 2.3.1. Reference voltage

The ADC requires a reference voltage to which the analog input is compared to produce the digital output. The digital output is the ratio of the analog input with respect to this reference voltage.

Digital value = (Analog input voltage)/ VAREF) \* (2<sup>n</sup>-1)

Where n = number of bits of ADC digital output.

For example, for 12-bit ADC, VIN=1V, VAREF=3.3 V

Digital value = (1 V/3.3 V) \*4095 = 1240d = 4D8h

### 2.3.2. Resolution

The ADC resolution is defined as the smallest incremental voltage that can be recognized and thus causes a change in the digital output. It is expressed as the number of bits output by the ADC. Therefore, an ADC which converts the analog signal to a 12-bit digital value has a resolution of 12 bits.

The smallest incremental voltage that can be recognized is expressed in terms of LSB.

$$1 \text{ LSB} = (\text{VAREF} - \text{VSS})/2^n$$

Where LSB = Least-significant bit

n = Number of digital bits output by the ADC

VAREF = Reference voltage

VSS = Analog ground

An ADC which has 'n' bit digital output provides 2<sup>n</sup> digital values. It includes both 0 and 2<sup>n</sup>-1.

With a 3.3 V reference voltage, the resolution is 3.3/212 = 3.3/4096 = 0.805 (mV).

### 2.3.3. Quantization

The quantization of an analog signal by the ADC can be processed only in the finite number of steps which can be produced by the ADC.

The quantization error is the error introduced by the process of quantization. Ideally, any analog input voltage can be maximum of 1/2 LSB away from its nearest digital code. Therefore, the quantization error is 0.5 LSB for the ADC.

### 2.3.4. Sampling Frequency

The sampling frequency stands out the speed to convert the analog signal to digital result. Therefore, the ADC sampling frequency must be at least twice the analog signal frequency.

Sampling the signal at twice the analog signal frequency will not result in a loss of information.

If sampling frequency is less, then the information will be lost. This is a standard theorem that applies to ADCs in general.

For example, an ADC with a conversion time of 10 μs can be used to sample an analog signal with a time period of 20 μs, i.e., 50 kHz.

### 3. ADC errors

This section lists the ADC errors related to itself and the whole system.

#### 3.1. ADC errors related to itself

The ADC errors related to itself include: offset error, gain error, differential linearity error, integral linearity error, and total unadjusted error.

##### 3.1.1. Offset error

Offset error represented as  $E_O$  is the difference between the actual and ideal first transition voltages as described in [Figure 3](#). This is the same definition as Zero-Scale Error.

Ideally, when the analog input is between 0.5 LSB and 1.5 LSB, the digital output should be ideally still until the first transition occurs at 0.5 LSB. Offset error can easily be calibrated by the application firmware.

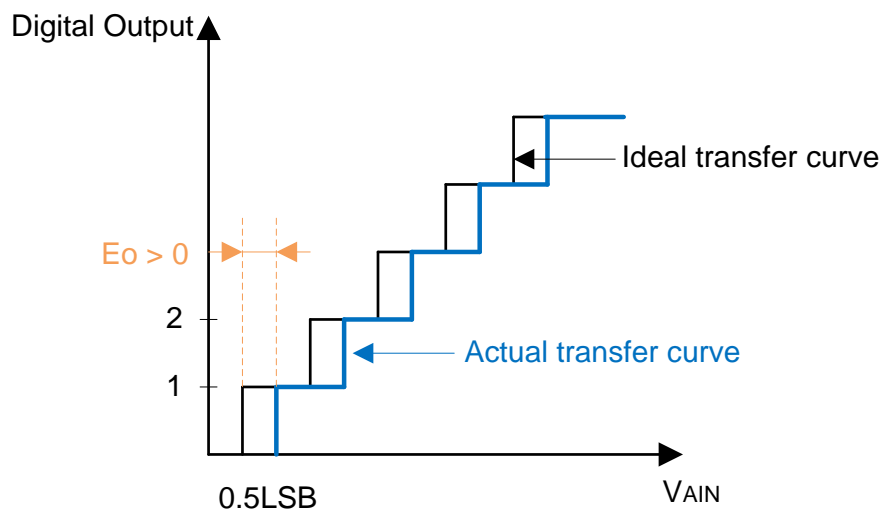


Figure 3. Offset error

##### 3.1.2. Gain error

Gain error represented as  $E_G$  is defined as the deviation between the last actual transition and the last ideal transition described in [Figure 4](#). The last actual transition is the transition from FFEh to FFFh. Ideally, there should be a transition from FFEh to FFFh, when the analog input is equal to  $V_{AREF} - 0.5$  LSB. For  $V_{AREF} = 3.3$  V, the last ideal transition should be at 3.299597 V. If the ADC provides the FFFh reading for  $V_{AIN} < V_{AREF} - 0.5$ LSB, then there is a negative gain error.

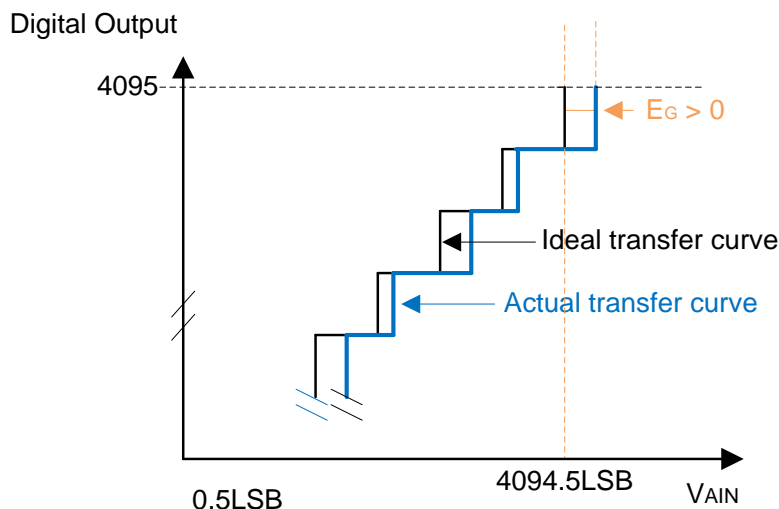


Figure 4. Gain error

### 3.1.3. Differential linearity error

The differential linearity error (DLE) is defined as the maximum deviation between the actual and ideal steps described in [Figure 5](#). Here ‘ideal’ is not used for the ideal transfer curve but for the resolution of the ADC. The DLE is denoted by  $E_D$  and is represented in [Figure 5](#).

$E_D = \text{Actual step width} - 1\text{LSB}$ . Ideally, an analog input voltage change of 1 LSB should cause a change in the digital code. If an analog input voltage greater than 1 LSB is required for a change in digital code, the ADC has a differential linearity error. The DLE therefore corresponds to the maximum additional voltage that is required to change from one digital code to the next. The DLE is also known as the differential non-linearity (DNL) error.

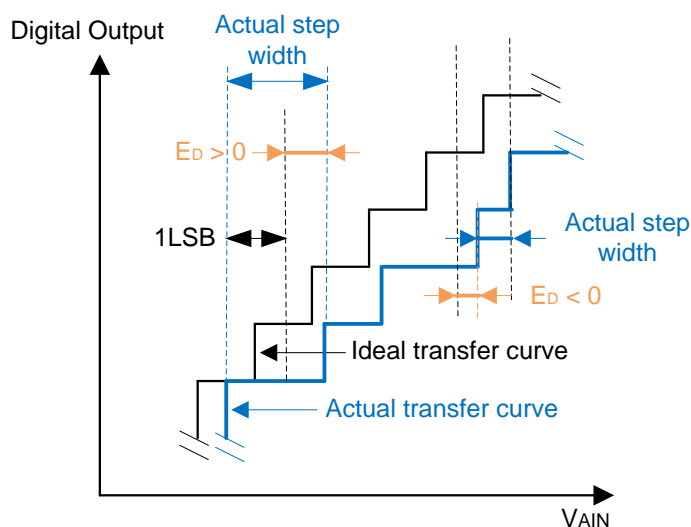


Figure 5. Differential linearity error

### 3.1.4. Integral linearity error

The integral linearity error (ILE) is the maximum deviation between any actual transition and the endpoint correlation line as described in [Figure 6](#). The ILE is denoted by EL and is represented in [Figure 6](#). The endpoint correlation line can be defined as the line on the A/D transfer curve that connects the first actual transition with the last actual transition. EL is the deviation from this line for each transition. The endpoint correlation line thus corresponds to the actual transfer curve and has no relation to the ideal transfer curve. The ILE is also known as the integral non linearity error (INL). The ILE is the integral of the DLE over the whole range.

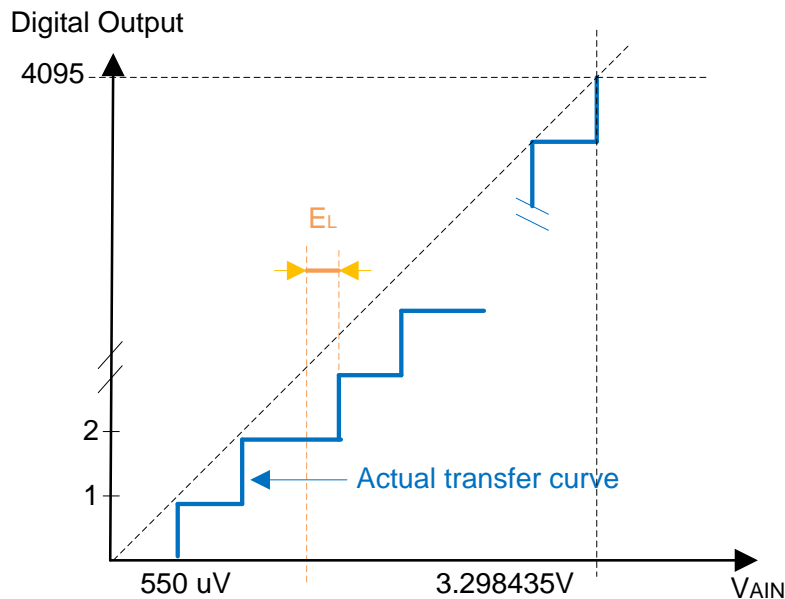


Figure 6. Integral linearity error

### 3.1.5. Total unadjusted error

The total unadjusted error (TUE) is defined as the maximum deviation between the actual and the ideal transfer curves described in [Figure 7](#). It is a parameter that specifies the total errors that may occur, causing maximum deviation between the ideal digital output and the actual digital output. It is the maximum deviation recorded between the ideal expected value and the actual value obtained from the ADC for any input voltage. The TUE is not the sum of EO, EG, EL, ED. The offset error affects the digital result at lower voltages whereas the gain error affects the digital output for higher voltages.



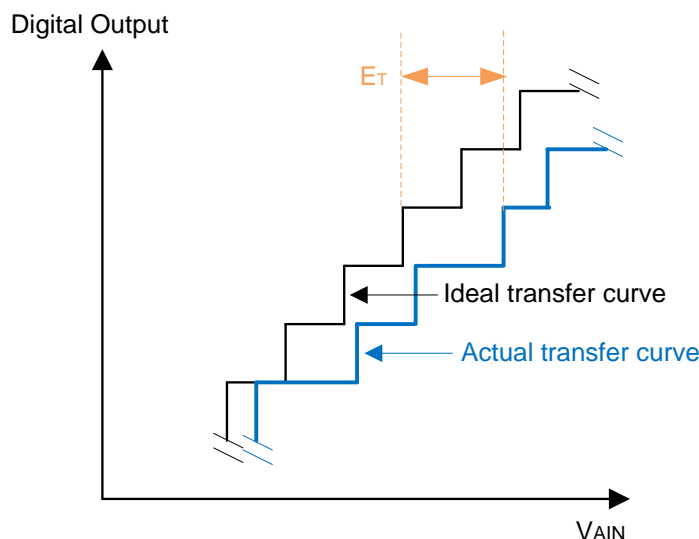


Figure 7. Total unadjusted error

## 3.2. ADC errors related to the whole system

The ADC errors related to the whole system includes: reference-voltage noise, analog-input signal noise, ADC dynamic range, analog-signal source resistance, and temperature influence.

### 3.2.1. Reference-voltage noise

The ADC output is the ratio between the analog-signal voltage and the reference voltage. Any noise on the analog reference causes a change in the converted digital value. For example, with an analog reference of 3.3 V ( $V_{AREF} = V_{DDA}$ ) and a 1 V signal input, the converted result is  $(1/3.3) \times 4095 = 4D9h$ .

With a 40 mV peak-to-peak ripple in the analog reference, the converted value becomes  $(1/3.34) \times 4095 = 4CAh$  (with  $V_{AREF}$  at its peak).

Error =  $4D9 - 4CA = 15$  LSB. The SMPS (switch-mode power supply) normally has internal fast-switching power transistors.

This introduces high-frequency noise in the output. The switching noise is in the range of 15 kHz to 1 MHz

### 3.2.2. Analog-input signal noise

Small but high-frequency signal variation can result in big conversion errors during sampling time. This noise is generated by electrical devices. For example, power lines and the transformers affect the source signal (for example a sensor) by adding an unwanted signal. As a consequence, the conversion results of the ADC are not accurate.

From below [Figure 8](#), you can see the actual analog input signal have some inducted 5mV Vpp noise, which loses 2 LSB for 10-bit resolution ADC.

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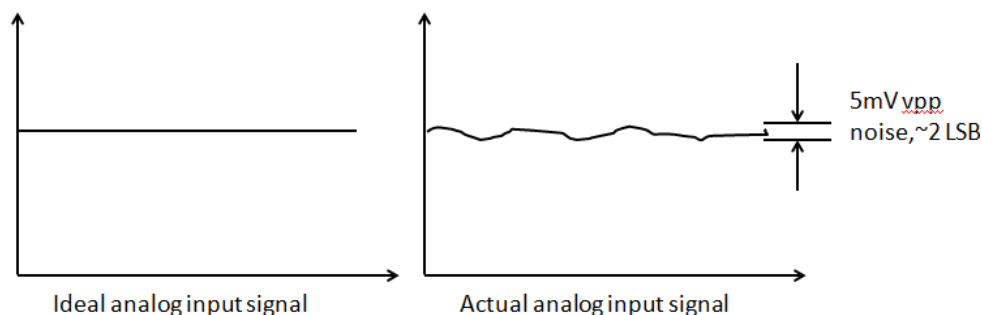


Figure 8. Analog input signal

### 3.2.3. ADC dynamic range

To have the maximum ADC conversion precision, it is preferable that the ADC dynamic range matches the maximum amplitude of the signal. Assume that the signal to be converted varies between 0 V to 2.5 V and that  $V_{REF}$  is equal to 3.3 V. The maximum signal value converted by the ADC is 3102 (2.5 V) as shown in [Figure 9](#). In this case, there are 993 unused transitions ( $4095 - 3102 = 993$ ). This implies a loss in the converted signal accuracy especially if the ADC linearity performance is not ideal.

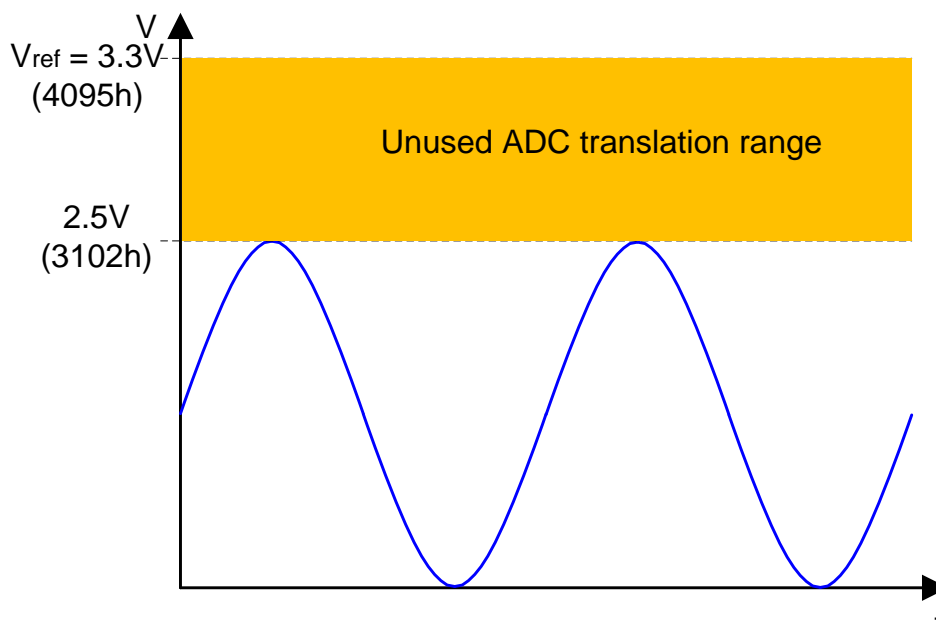


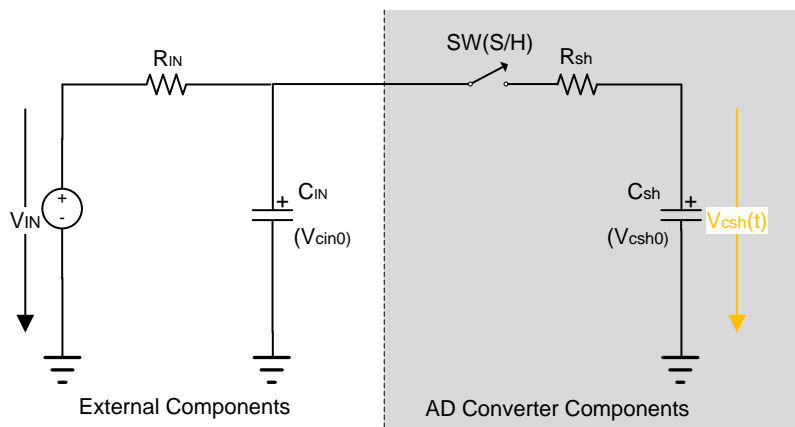
Figure 9. ADC dynamic range

### 3.2.4. Analog-signal source resistance

The impedance of the analog-signal source or series resistance ( $R_{IN}$ ) between the source and the pin causes a voltage drop across it because of the current flowing into the pin.

The charging of the internal sampling capacitor  $C_{sh}$  is controlled by switches with resistance  $R_{sh}$ . With the addition of source resistance (with  $R_{IN}$ ), the time required to fully charge the hold capacitor increases.

*Figure 10* shows the analog signal source resistance effect. The effective charging of  $C_{ADC} = C_{IN} + C_{sh}$  is governed by  $R_{IN} + R_{sh}$ , so the charging time constant becomes  $\tau_c = (R_{IN} + R_{sh}) \times C_{ADC}$ . The required settling time to be safe to sample the input is  $\tau_c \times \text{multiplier}$ , where the multiplier is 11, 8.3, 6.93 respectively for ADC resolution of 16-bit, 12-bit, and 10-bit. If the sampling time is less than the settling time required, the digital value converted by the ADC is less than the actual value. Therefore, ensure that the analog signal source resistance be within the ADC specification.



**Figure 10. Analog signal source resistance**

### 3.2.5. Temperature influence

The temperature has a major influence on ADC accuracy. Mainly it leads to two major errors: offset error drift and gain error drift. Sometimes, those errors can be compensated in the microcontroller firmware with efforts.

The ADC reference voltage changes with the temperature change, irrespective of the MCU internal or external voltage reference used.

### 3.2.6. I/O pin crosstalk

Switching the I/Os may introduce some noise in the analog input of the ADC due to capacitive coupling between I/Os. Crosstalk may be introduced by PCB tracks that run close to each other or that cross each other. Internally switching digital signals and I/Os introduces high-frequency noise.

Switching high-sink I/Os may induce some voltage dips in the power supply caused by current surges. A digital track that crosses an analog input track on the PCB may affect the analog signal (see *Figure 11*).

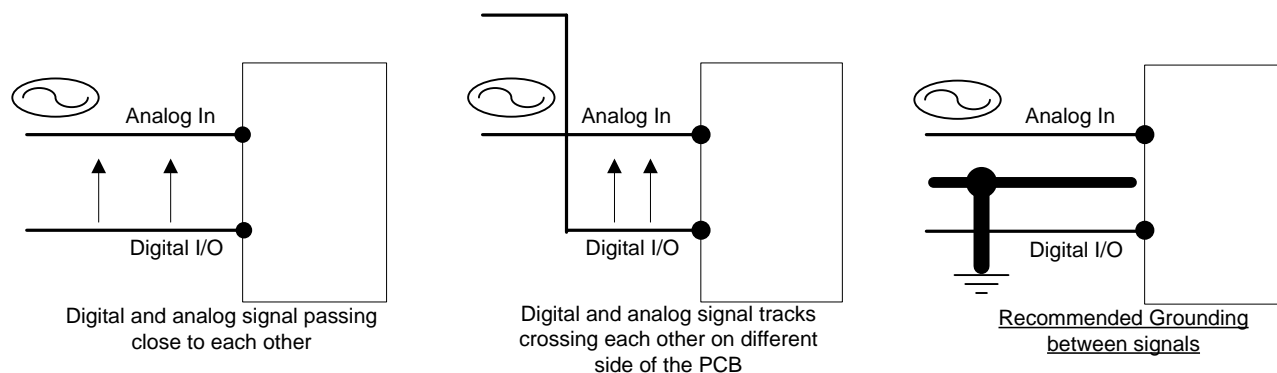


Figure 11. I/O pin crosstalk

### 3.2.7. EMI-induced noise

Electromagnetic emissions from the nearby circuits may introduce high-frequency noise in an analog signal because the PCB tracks may act like an antenna (see [Figure 12](#)) and impacts the analog signal input line.

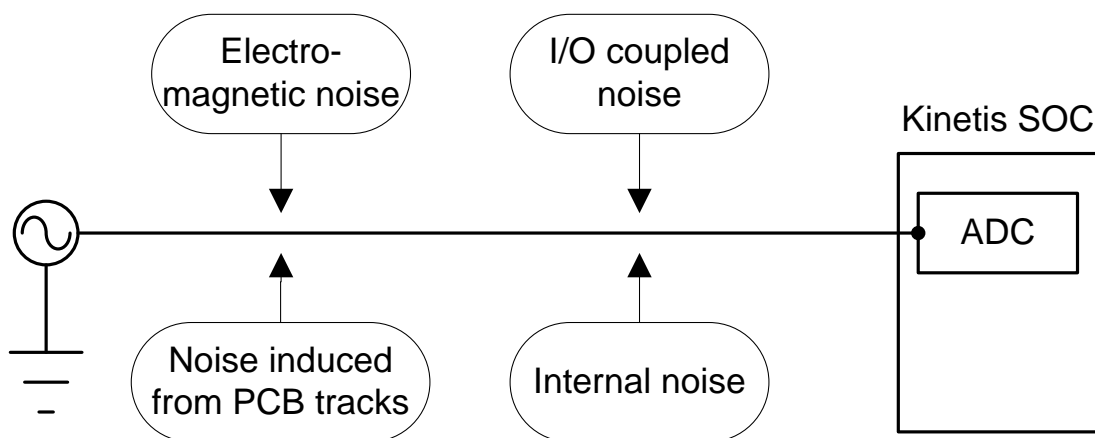


Figure 12. EMI-induced noise

## 4. How to increase the ADC accuracy

To increase the ADC accuracy, you need to reduce the effects of the ADC-related errors and minimize the ADC errors related to the external environment.

### 4.1. Reduce the effects of the ADC-related errors

The TUE is not the sum of all the errors EO, EG, EL, ED. It is the maximum deviation that can occur between the ideal and actual digital values. It can result from one or more errors occurring simultaneously.

As the ILE is the integral of the DLE, it can be considered as the indicator of the maximum error. Do not add the DLE and ILE together to calculate the maximum error that may occur at any digital step.

The maximum error values specified in the datasheet are the worst error values measured in laboratory test environment over the given voltage and temperature range.

The ILE and DLE are dependent on the ADC design. It is difficult to calibrate them. They can be calibrated by the measured ADC curve stored in the microcontroller memory but this needs calibration of each individual device in final application.

Offset and gain errors can be compensated using the Kinetis ADC self-calibration feature or by microcontroller firmware.

## 4.2. Minimize the ADC errors related to the external environment

To minimize the ADC errors related to the external environment, take care of the reference voltage and power supply, eliminate the analog-input signal noise, match the ADC dynamic range to the maximum signal amplitude, and match analog-source resistance. Additionally, minimize the I/O pin crosstalk, check temperature effect compensation, reduce EMI-induced noise, make recommended PCB layout changes, and use software methods to improve precision.

### 4.2.1. Reference voltage and Power supply

The power supply should have a good line, load regulation, and temperature drift since the ADC uses VAREF or VDDA as the analog reference. Also, the digital value is the ratio of the analog input signal to this voltage reference.

Thus, it is essential for VAREF to remain stable at different loads. Whenever, the load is increased by switching on a part of the circuit, the increase in current should not cause the voltage to decrease.

If the voltage remains stable over a wide current range, the power supply has good load regulation. For example, for the SPX3819 voltage regulator, the line regulation is 0.04 % typical when  $V_{IN}$  varies from  $V_{OUT} + 1\text{ V}$  to 16 V, and the load regulation is 0.05 % when the load varies from 0.1 mA to 500 mA. The lower the line regulation value, the better the regulation.

Similarly, the lower the load regulation value, the better the regulation and the stability of the voltage output. It is also possible to use a reference voltage for VAREF, for instance the AD780, which is a high precision voltage reference of 2.5 V.

Temperature drift is another important factor to consider voltage reference, especially in some application, the ADC accuracy is specified within full temp range.

### 4.2.2. Analog-input signal noise elimination

Eliminate the analog-input signal noise by using the averaging method or by adding an external filter.

#### 4.2.2.1. Averaging method

Averaging is a simple technique where you sample an analog input several times and take the average of the results by software. This technique is helpful to eliminate the effect of noise on the analog input in case of an analog voltage that does not change frequently.

The average is made on several readings that correspond to the same analog-input voltage. Ensure that the analog input remains at the same voltage during the time period until the conversions are done. Otherwise, you add up digital values corresponding to different analog inputs and can introduce errors.

#### 4.2.2.2. Adding an external filter

Adding an external RC filter eliminates the high frequency noise. An expensive filter is not needed to deal with a signal that has frequency components above the frequency range of interest. In this case, a relatively low cost low pass filter with a cutoff frequency  $f_C$  just above the frequency range of interest will be sufficient to limit the noise. A sampling rate consistent with the highest frequency of interest will suffice, typically 2 to 5 times  $f_C$ .

#### 4.2.3. Matching the ADC dynamic range to the maximum signal amplitude

This method improves accuracy by a proper selection of the reference voltage or by using a preamplifier stage to obtain the maximum possible resolution using the full ADC output range.

The reference voltage is selected in the expected range of the signal to be measured. If the measured signal has an offset, then the reference voltage should also have a similar offset. If the measured signal has defined maximum amplitude, then the reference voltage should also have a similar maximum value.

By matching this reference voltage to the measurement signal range, we obtain the maximum possible resolution using the full ADC output range.

In Kinetis device, the ADC reference voltage is connected to the external VREFH and VREFL pins that should be tied to ground. This makes it possible to match the reference voltage and the measured signal range. For example, if the measured signal varies between 0 V and 2.5 V, it is recommended to choose VREFH = 2.5 V, possibly using a reference voltage like AD780.

#### 4.2.4. Analog source resistance match

The impedance of the analog signal source or series resistance ( $R_{AIN}$ ), between the source and pin causes a voltage drop across it because of the current flowing into the pin. The charging of the internal sampling capacitor  $C_{ADC}$  is controlled by switches with resistance  $R_{ADC}$ . With the addition of source resistance (with  $R_{ADC}$ ), the time required to fully charge the hold capacitor increases.

*Figure 13* shows the analog signal source resistance effect. The effective charging of  $C_{ADC}$  is governed by  $R_{ADC} + R_{AIN}$ , so the charging time constant becomes  $t_c = (R_{ADC} + R_{AIN}) \times C_{ADC}$ . The required settling time to be safe to sample the input is  $t_c \times \text{multiplier}$ , where the multiplier is 11, 8.3, 6.93 respectively for the ADC resolution of 16-bit, 12-bit, and 10-bit. If the sampling time is less than the settling time required, the digital value converted by the ADC is less than the actual value. The software configures

the sampling time to be longer than the settle time. For more information on settling time, see the [AN4373](#). Always ensure that the analog signal source resistance be within the ADC specification.

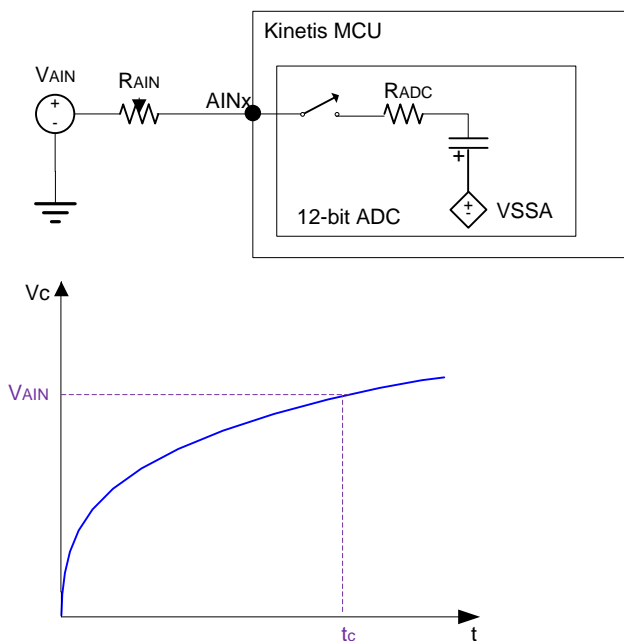


Figure 13. Analog source resistance match

#### 4.2.5. Minimizing I/O pin crosstalk

The noise produced by crosstalk can be reduced by shielding the analog signal by placing ground tracks across it. [Figure 14](#) shows the recommended grounding between signals.

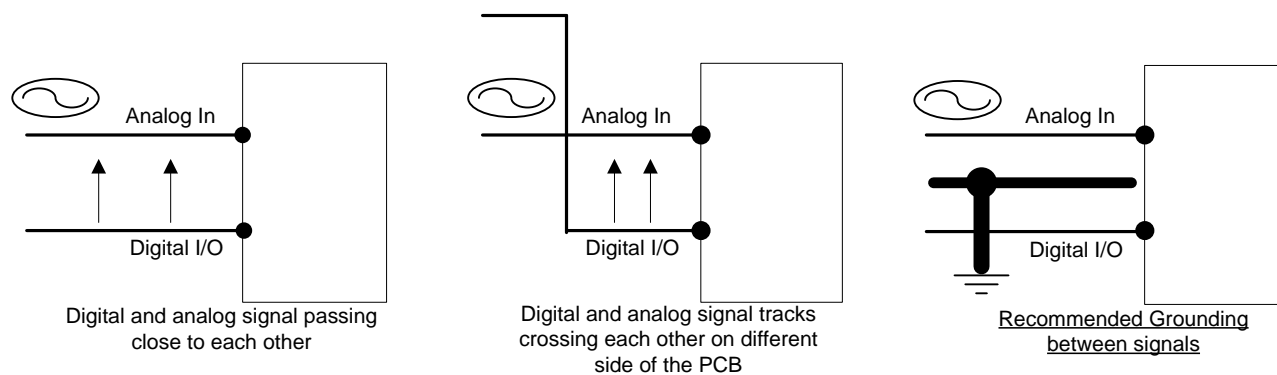


Figure 14. I/O pin crosstalk

#### 4.2.6. Temperature effect compensation

One method is to fully characterize the offset, gain drift, and provide a lookup table in memory to correct the measurements according to temperature change. This calibration involves additional cost and takes time.

So in some cases such as metering, it is very important to provide low temperature drift voltage reference, if temperature drift coefficient is too high, to full temp error will be higher accordingly.

#### 4.2.7. EMI-induced noise reduction

Reduce EMI-noise by using proper shielding and layout techniques. The possible sources of emission must be physically separated from the receptors. They can be separated electrically by proper grounding and shielding.

Shielding technique placing ground tracks alongside sensitive analog signals provides shielding on the PCB. The other side of the two-layer PCB should also have a ground plane. This prevents interference and I/O crosstalk affecting the signal. See Figure 15. Signals coming from distant locations (like sensors, etc.) should be connected to the PCB using shielded cable.

The shield should not be used to carry the ground reference from the sensor or analog source to the microcontroller. A separate wire should be used as ground and the shield should be grounded at only one place near the receiver such as the analog ground of the microcontroller.

Grounding the shield at both ends (source and receiver) might lead to the creation of ground loops, with the result of current flowing through the shield. In this case, the shield acts like an antenna and the purpose of the shielding is lost.

The shielding concept also applies to grounding the chassis of the application if it is metallic. And it also helps remove EMI and EMC interference. In this case the mains earth ground is used to shield the chassis. Similarly DC ground can be used for shielding in case of the earth ground not being available.

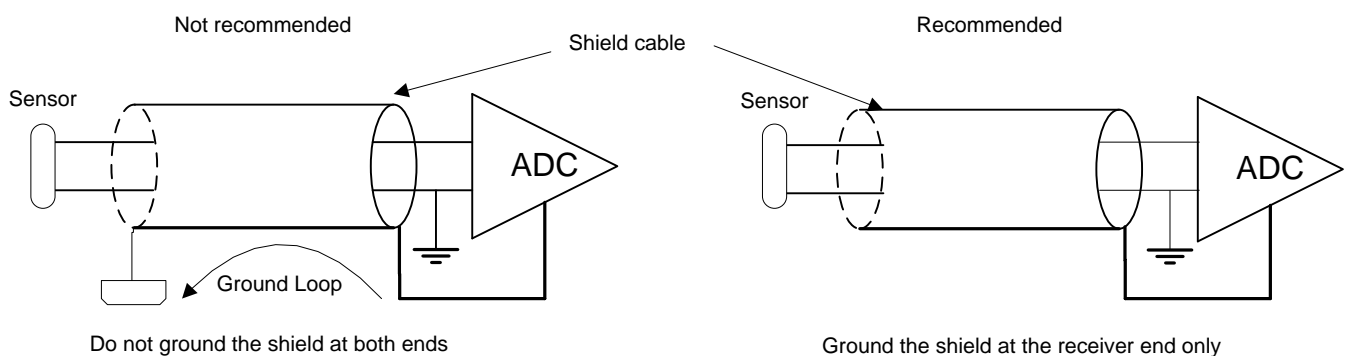


Figure 15. EMI-induced noise



## 4.2.8. PCB layout recommendations

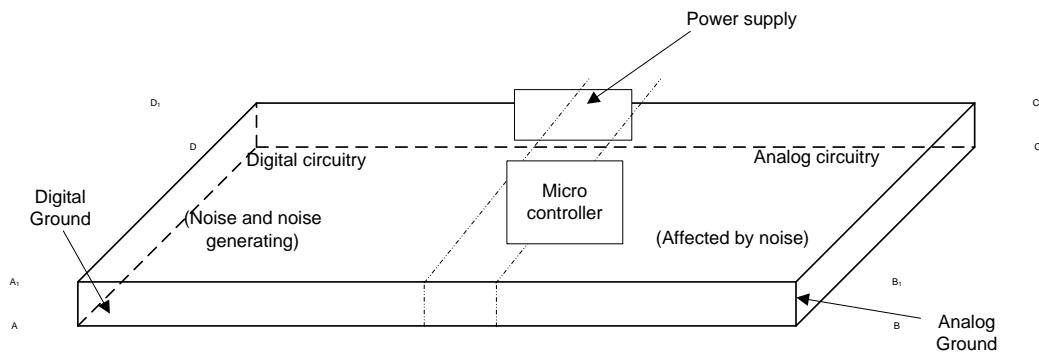
The PCB layout recommendations include separating the analog and digital layouts, separating the power supplies for the analog and digital circuits, and component placement and routing.

### 4.2.8.1. Separating the analog and digital layouts

It is recommended to separate the analog and digital circuitry on the PCB (see [Figure 16](#)). This also avoids tracks crossing each other. The tracks carrying digital signals may introduce high-frequency noise in analog signals because of coupling.

The digital signals produce high-frequency noise because of fast switching. Coupling of a capacitive nature is formed due to the metal connections (tracks) separated by the dielectric provided by the PCB base (glass, ceramic or plastic).

It is recommended to use different planes for analog and digital grounds. If there is a lot of analog circuitry then an analog ground plane is recommended. The analog ground must be placed below the analog circuitry.



**Figure 16. Separate layout**

### 4.2.8.2. Separating the power supplies for the analog and digital circuits

It is desirable to have separate analog and digital power supplies in cases where there is a lot of analog and digital circuits external to the microcontroller (see [Figure 17](#)).

If you use a switching-type power supply for the digital circuitry, you should use a separate linear supply for the analog circuit. Also, if you expect a lot of noise on the DC power supply due to I/O switching etc., it is preferable to use a separate supply for the analog circuit.

Also it is recommended to use star typology to supply power for analog and digital circuits to avoid interference between each other.

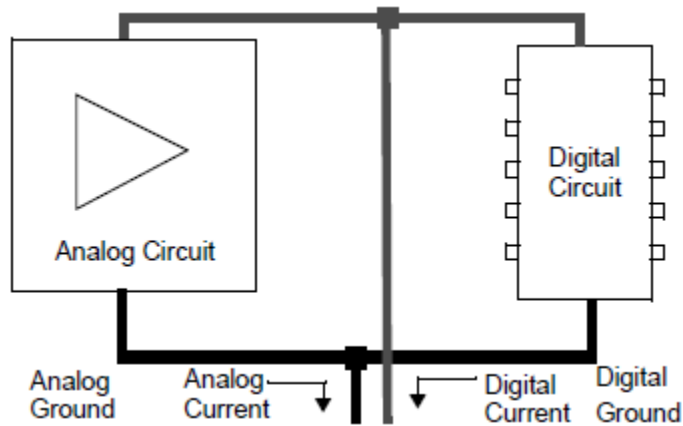


Figure 17. Separate power supply

#### 4.2.8.3. Component placement and routing

Place the components and route the signal traces on the PCB so as to shield analog inputs. Components like resistors and capacitors must be connected with very short leads. You can use surface-mounted device (SMD) resistors and capacitors. You can place SMD capacitors close to the microcontroller for decoupling purposes.

Use wide tracks for power; otherwise the series resistance of the tracks would cause a voltage drop. Indeed, narrow power tracks have a non-negligible finite resistance, so that high load currents through them would cause a voltage drop across them.

Quartz crystals must be surrounded by ground/guard ring. The other side of the two-layer PCB below the crystal should preferably be covered by the ground plane or even cut off. Most crystals have a metallic body that should be grounded. You should also place the crystal close to the microcontroller.

#### 4.2.9. Software methods to improve precision

The precision of sampling depends on both software and hardware modules. It is not possible to get an ideal precision with only one of them.

##### 4.2.9.1. Averaging samples

This averaging decreases speed but can give improved accuracy.

SAR-ADC provides register settings to do hardware averaging.

The hardware averaging and software averaging are similar. Hardware averaging is faster, but it does not provide more precision than software averaging.

Digital filtering (50/60 Hz suppression from DC value) – set proper sampling frequency (the trigger from timer is useful in this case) – perform software post-processing on sampled data (for example, comb filter - for 50 Hz noise and its harmonics suppression).

#### 4.2.9.2. Increase over-sampling-rate

Increase OSR (over-sampling-rate) can improve the precision.

The OSR can be adjusted in register settings.

#### 4.2.9.3. Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) for AC measurements

This is to show harmonic parts in measured signal, which become slower, due to the use of more computation power.

#### 4.2.9.4. Calibration of ADC

The offset, the gain, and the bit weight calibration decreases the internal ADC errors. However, the internal ADC structure must be known.

#### 4.2.9.5. Minimizing internal noise generated by CPU

Design firmware to use minimum disturbance from microcontroller during ADC conversion - digital silence. Use of ADC internal asynchronous clock as ADC clock will greatly reduce the digital noise coupled to the ADC. If possible, let ADC convert samples in low power mode.

## 5. References

Following references are available on [www.nxp.com](http://www.nxp.com):

1. *MPC57xx SAR ADC Implementation and Use* (Document: [AN4881](#))
2. *Filter-Based Algorithm for Metering Applications* (Document: [AN4265](#))
3. *FFT-Based Algorithm for Metering Applications* (Document: [AN4255](#))
4. *Using the FFT on the Sigma-Delta ADCs* (Document: [AN4847](#))
5. *Cookbook for SAR ADC Measurements* (Document: [AN4373](#))

## 6. Revision history

[Table 2](#) is the revision history table.

**Table 2. Revision history**

Revision number	Date	Substantive changes
0	01/2016	Initial release

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