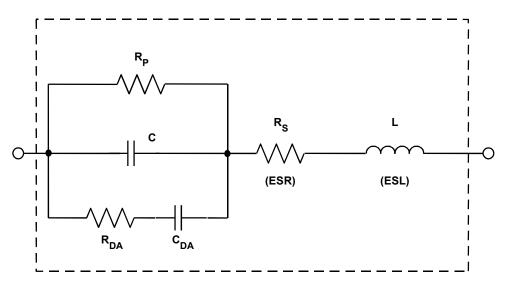
# ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERSION

Consider the case of a 12-bit DAC, where ½ LSB corresponds to 0.012% of full scale, or only 122 ppm. A host of passive component phenomena can accumulate errors far exceeding this! But, buying the most expensive passive components won't necessarily solve your problems either. Often, a *correct* 25-cent capacitor yields a better-performing, more cost-effective design than a premium-grade part. With a few basics, understanding and analyzing passive components may prove rewarding, albeit not easy.

# Capacitors

Most designers are generally familiar with the range of capacitors available. But the mechanisms by which both static and dynamic errors can occur in precision circuit designs using capacitors are sometimes easy to forget, because of the tremendous variety of types available. These include dielectrics of glass, aluminum foil, solid tantalum and tantalum foil, silver mica, ceramic, Teflon, and the film capacitors, including polyester, polycarbonate, polystyrene, and polypropylene types. In addition to the traditional leaded packages, many of these are now also offered in surface mount styles.

Figure 9.1 is a workable model of a non-ideal capacitor. The nominal capacitance, C, is shunted by a resistance  $R_P$ , which represents *insulation resistance* or leakage. A second resistance,  $R_S$ —*equivalent series resistance*, or ESR,—appears in series with the capacitor and represents the resistance of the capacitor leads and plates.



# Figure 9.1: A Non-Ideal Capacitor Equivalent Circuit Includes Parasitic Elements

Note that capacitor phenomena aren't that easy to isolate. The matching of phenomena and models is for convenience in explanation. Inductance, L—the *equivalent series inductance*, or ESL—models the inductance of the leads and plates. Finally, resistance  $R_{DA}$  and capacitance  $C_{DA}$  together form a simplified model of a phenomenon known as *dielectric absorption*, or DA. It can ruin fast and slow circuit dynamic performance. In a real capacitor  $R_{DA}$  and  $C_{DA}$  extend to include multiple parallel sets. These parasitic RC elements can act to degrade timing circuits substantially, and the phenomenon is discussed further below.

## **Dielectric Absorption**

Dielectric absorption, which is also known as "soakage" and sometimes as "dielectric hysteresis"—is perhaps the least understood and potentially most damaging of various capacitor parasitic effects. Upon discharge, most capacitors are reluctant to give up all of their former charge, due to this memory consequence.

Figure 9.2 illustrates this effect. On the left of the diagram, after being charged to the source potential of V volts at time  $t_0$ , the capacitor is shorted by the switch S1 at time  $t_1$ , discharging it. At time  $t_2$ , the capacitor is then open-circuited; a residual voltage slowly builds up across its terminals and reaches a nearly constant value. This error voltage is due to DA, and is shown in the right figure, a time/voltage representation of the charge/discharge/recovery sequence. Note that the recovered voltage error is proportional to both the original charging voltage V, as well as the rated DA for the capacitor in use.

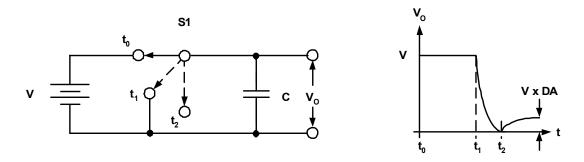


Figure 9.2: A Residual Open-Circuit Voltage After Charge/Discharge Characterizes Capacitor Dielectric Absorption

Standard techniques for specifying or measuring dielectric absorption are few and far between. Measured results are usually expressed as the percentage of the original charging voltage that reappears across the capacitor. Typically, the capacitor is charged for a long period, then shorted for a shorter established time. The capacitor is then allowed to recover for a specified period, and the residual voltage is then measured (see Reference 8 for details). While this explanation describes the basic phenomenon, it is important to note that real-world capacitors vary quite widely in their susceptibility to this error, with their rated DA ranging from well below to above 1%, the exact number being a function of the dielectric material used.

In practice, DA makes itself known in a variety of ways. Perhaps an integrator refuses to reset to zero, a voltage-to-frequency converter exhibits unexpected nonlinearity, or a sample-hold amplifier (SHA) exhibits varying errors. This last manifestation can be particularly damaging in a data-acquisition system, where adjacent channels may be at voltages which differ by nearly full scale, as shown below.

Figure 9.3 illustrates the case of DA error in a simple SHA. On the left, switches S1 and S2 represent an input multiplexer and SHA switch, respectively. The multiplexer output voltage is  $V_X$ , and the sampled voltage held on C is  $V_Y$ , which is buffered by the op amp for presentation to an ADC. As can be noted by the timing diagram on the right, a DA error voltage,  $\epsilon$ , appears in the hold mode, when the capacitor is effectively open circuit.

#### ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERSION

This voltage is proportional to the difference of voltages V1 and V2, which, if at opposite extremes of the dynamic range, exacerbates the error. As a practical matter, the best solution for good performance in terms of DA in a SHA is to use only the best capacitor.

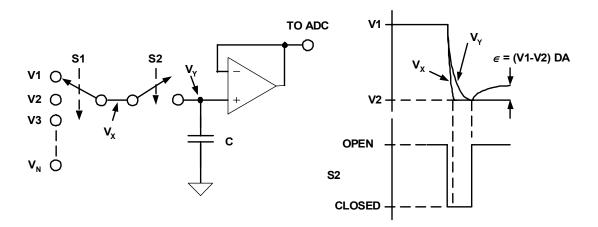


Figure 9.3: Dielectric Absorption Induces Errors in SHA Applications

The DA phenomenon is a characteristic of the dielectric material itself, although inferior manufacturing processes or electrode materials can also affect it. DA is specified as a percentage of the charging voltage. It can range from a low of 0.02% for Teflon, polystyrene, and polypropylene capacitors, up to a high of 10% or more for some electrolytics. For some time frames, the DA of polystyrene can be as low as 0.002%.

Common high-K ceramics and polycarbonate capacitor types display typical DA on the order of 0.2%, it should be noted this corresponds to  $\frac{1}{2}$  LSB at only 8 bits! Silver mica, glass, and tantalum capacitors typically exhibit even larger DA, ranging from 1.0% to 5.0%, with those of polyester devices falling in the vicinity of 0.5%. As a rule, if the capacitor spec sheet doesn't specifically discuss DA *within your time frame and voltage range*, exercise caution! Another type with lower *specified* DA is likely a better choice.

DA can produce long tails in the transient response of fast-settling circuits, such as those found in high-pass active filters or ac amplifiers. In some devices used for such applications, Figure 9.1's  $R_{DA}$ - $C_{DA}$  model of DA can have a time constant of milliseconds. Much longer time constants are also quite usual. In fact, several paralleled  $R_{DA}$ - $C_{DA}$  circuit sections with a wide range of time constants can model some devices. In fast-charge, fast-discharge applications, the behavior of the DA mechanism resembles "analog memory"; the capacitor in effect tries to remember its previous voltage.

In some designs, you can compensate for the effects of DA if it is simple and easily characterized, and you are willing to do custom tweaking. In an integrator, for instance, the output signal can be fed back through a suitable compensation network, tailored to cancel the circuit equivalent of the DA by placing a negative impedance effectively in parallel. Such compensation has been shown to improve SH circuit performance by factors of 10 or more (Reference 6).

# **Capacitor Parasitics and Dissipation Factor**

In Figure 9.1, a capacitor's leakage resistance,  $R_P$ , the effective series resistance,  $R_S$ , and effective series inductance, L, act as parasitic elements, which can degrade an external circuit's performance. The effects of these elements are often lumped together and defined as a dissipation factor, or DF.

A capacitor's leakage is the small current that flows through the dielectric when a voltage is applied. Although modeled as a simple insulation resistance ( $R_P$ ) in parallel with the capacitor, the leakage actually is nonlinear with voltage. Manufacturers often specify leakage as a megohm-microfarad product, which describes the dielectric's self-discharge time constant, in seconds. It ranges from a low of 1 second or less for high-leakage capacitors, such as electrolytic devices, to the 100s of seconds for ceramic capacitors. Glass devices exhibit self-discharge time-constants of 1,000 or more; but the best leakage performance is shown by Teflon and the film devices (polystyrene, polypropylene), with time constants exceeding 1,000,000 megohm-microfarads. For such a device, external leakage paths—created by surface contamination of the device's case or in the associated wiring or physical assembly—can overshadow the internal dielectric-related leakage.

Effective series inductance, ESL (Figure 9.1, again) arises from the inductance of the capacitor leads and plates, which, particularly at the higher frequencies, can turn a capacitor's normally capacitive reactance into an inductive reactance. Its magnitude strongly depends on construction details within the capacitor. Tubular wrapped-foil devices display significantly more lead inductance than molded radial-lead configurations. Multilayer ceramic (MLC) and film-type devices typically exhibit the lowest series inductance, while ordinary tantalum and aluminum electrolytics typically exhibit the highest. Consequently, standard electrolytic types, if used alone, usually prove insufficient for *high-speed* local bypassing applications. Note however that there also are more specialized aluminum and tantalum electrolytics available, which may be suitable for higher speed uses, however, localized bypassing is still recommended. These are the types generally designed for use in switch-mode power supplies, which are covered more completely in a following section.

Manufacturers of capacitors often specify effective series impedance by means of impedance-versus-frequency plots. Not surprisingly, these curves show graphically a predominantly capacitive reactance at low frequencies, with rising impedance at higher frequencies because of the effect of series inductance.

Effective series resistance, ESR (resistor  $R_S$  of Figure 9.1), is made up of the resistance of the leads and plates. As noted, many manufacturers lump the effects of ESR, ESL, and leakage into a single parameter called *dissipation factor*, or DF. Dissipation factor measures the basic inefficiency of the capacitor. Manufacturers define it as the ratio of the energy lost to energy stored per cycle by the capacitor. The ratio of ESR to total capacitive reactance—at a specified frequency—approximates the dissipation factor, which turns out to be equivalent to the reciprocal of the figure of merit, Q. Stated as an approximation,  $Q \approx 1/DF$  (with DF in numeric terms). For example, a DF of 0.1% is equivalent to a fraction of 0.001; thus the inverse in terms of Q would be 1000.

# ANALOG-DIGITAL CONVERSION

Dissipation factor often varies as a function of both temperature and frequency. Capacitors with mica and glass dielectrics generally have DF values from 0.03% to 1.0%. For ceramic devices, DF ranges from a low of 0.1 % to as high as 2.5% at room temperature. And electrolytics usually exceed even this level. The film capacitors are the best as a group, with DFs of less than 0.1 %. Stable-dielectric ceramics, notably the NP0 (also called COG) types, have DF specs comparable to films (more below).

## **Tolerance, Temperature, and Other Effects**

In general, precision capacitors are expensive and—even then—not necessarily easy to buy. In fact, choice of capacitance is limited both by the range of available values, and also by tolerances. In terms of size, the better performing capacitors in the film families tend to be limited in practical terms to 10 µF or less (for dual reasons of size and expense). In terms of low value tolerance,  $\pm 1\%$  is possible for NP0 ceramic and some film devices, but with possibly unacceptable delivery times. Many film capacitors can be made available with tolerances of less than  $\pm 1\%$ , but on a special order basis only. Most capacitors are sensitive to temperature variations. DF, DA, and capacitance value are all functions of temperature. For some capacitors, these parameters vary approximately linearly with temperature, in others they vary quite nonlinearly. Although it is usually not important for SHA applications, an excessively large temperature *coefficient* (TC, measured in ppm/°C) can prove harmful to the performance of precision integrators, voltage-to-frequency converters, and oscillators. NP0 ceramic capacitors, with TCs as low as 30 ppm/°C, are the best for stability, with polystyrene and polypropylene next best, with TCs in the 100-200 ppm/°C range. On the other hand, when capacitance stability is important, one should stay away from types with TCs of more than a few hundred ppm/°C, or in fact any TC which is nonlinear.

A capacitor's maximum working temperature should also be considered, in light of the expected environment. Polystyrene capacitors, for instance, melt near 85°C, compared to Teflon's ability to survive temperatures up to 200°C.

Sensitivity of capacitance and DA to applied voltage, expressed as *voltage coefficient*, can also hurt capacitor performance within a circuit application. Although capacitor manufacturers don't always clearly specify voltage coefficients, the user should always consider the possible effects of such factors. For instance, when maximum voltages are applied, some high-K ceramic devices can experience a decrease in capacitance of 50% or more. This is an inherent distortion producer, making such types unsuitable for signal path filtering, for example, and better suited for supply bypassing. Interestingly, NP0 ceramics, the stable dielectric subset from the wide range of available ceramics, do offer good performance with respect to voltage coefficient.

Similarly, the capacitance and dissipation factor of many types vary significantly with frequency, mainly as a result of a variation in dielectric constant. In this regard, the better dielectrics are polystyrene, polypropylene, and Teflon.

#### Assemble Critical Components Last

The designer's worries don't end with the design process. Some common printed circuit assembly techniques can prove ruinous to even the best designs. For instance, some commonly used cleaning solvents can infiltrate certain electrolytic capacitors—those with rubber end caps are particularly susceptible. Even worse, some of the film capacitors, polystyrene in particular, actually melt when contacted by some solvents. Rough handling of the leads can damage still other capacitors, creating random or even intermittent circuit problems. Etched-foil types are particularly delicate in this regard. To avoid these difficulties it may be advisable to mount especially critical components as the last step in the board assembly process—if possible.

Table 9.1 summarizes selection criteria for various capacitor types, arranged roughly in order of decreasing DA performance. In a selection process, the general information of this table should be supplemented by consultation of current vendor's catalog information (see References at end of section).

Designers should also consider the natural failure mechanisms of capacitors. Metallized film devices, for instance, often self-heal. They initially fail due to conductive bridges that develop through small perforations in the dielectric film. But, the resulting fault currents can generate sufficient heat to destroy the bridge, thus returning the capacitor to normal operation (at a slightly lower capacitance). Of course, applications in high-impedance circuits may not develop sufficient current to clear the bridge, so the designer must be wary here.

Tantalum capacitors also exhibit a degree of self-healing, but—unlike film capacitors the phenomenon depends on the temperature at the fault location rising slowly. Therefore, tantalum capacitors self-heal best in high impedance circuits which limit the surge in current through the capacitor's defect. Use caution therefore, when specifying tantalums for high-current applications.

Electrolytic capacitor life often depends on the rate at which capacitor fluids seep through end caps. Epoxy end seals perform better than rubber seals, but an epoxy sealed capacitor can explode under severe reverse-voltage or overvoltage conditions. Finally, *all* polarized capacitors must be protected from exposure to voltages outside their specifications.