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6.776

High Speed Communication Circuits

Lecture 21

***Overview of Phase-Locked Loops and Integer-N
Frequency Synthesizers***

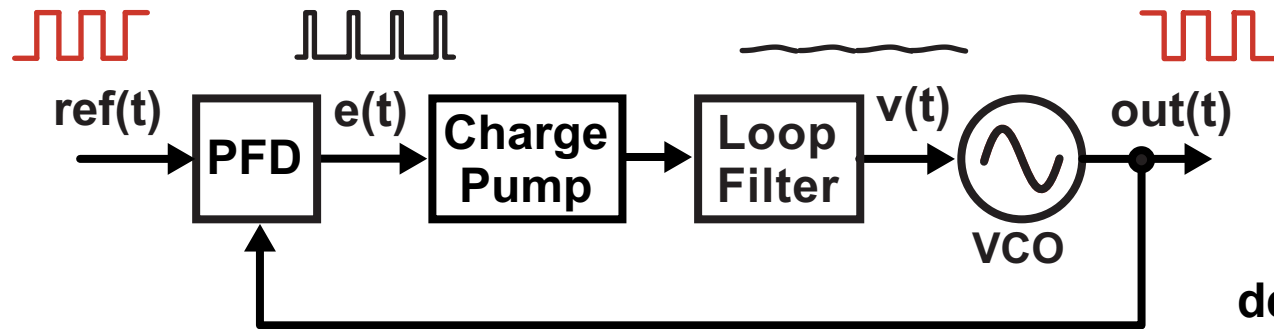
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Massachusetts Institute of Technology

April 28, 2005

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What Is A Phase-Locked Loop?

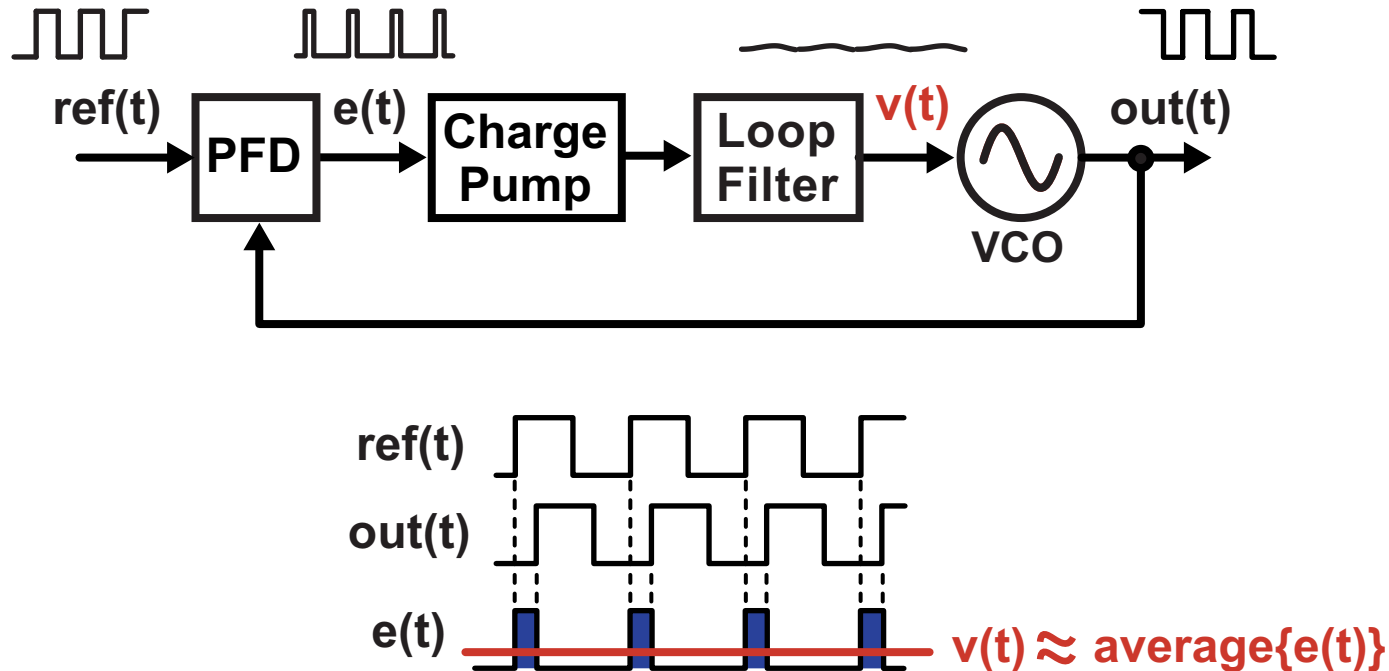


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- VCO → produces variable frequency output
- Reference → provides input frequency/phase
- PFD → compares phase of ref and VCO output
- Charge pump → simplifies loop filter implementation
- Loop filter → smooths PFD signal

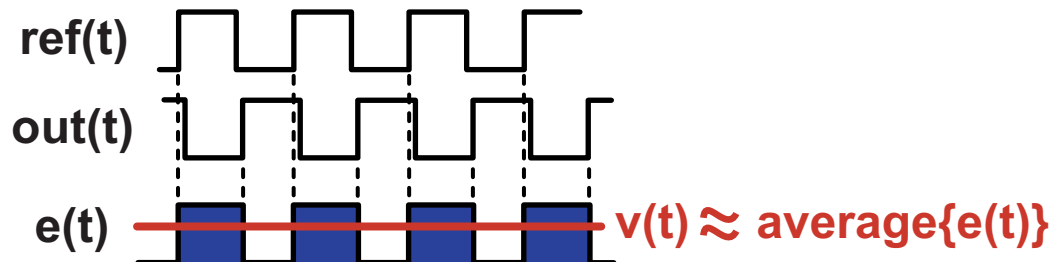
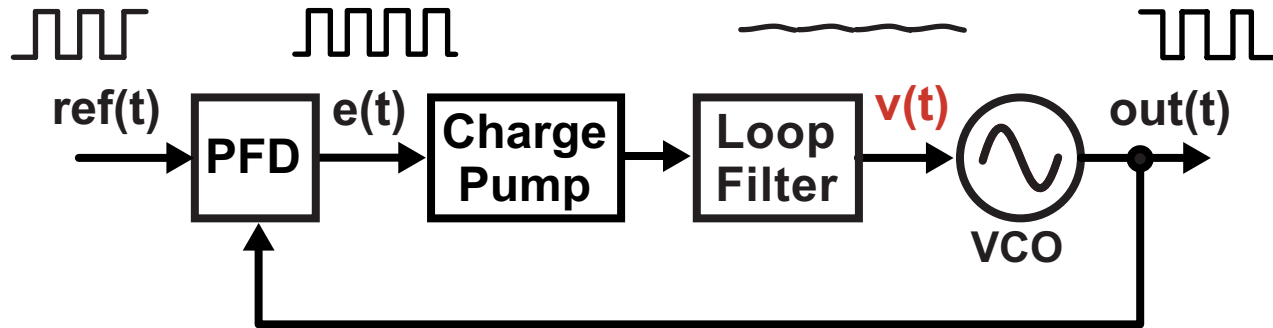
Objective: “Lock” VCO phase to reference phase

Method of Phase Detection



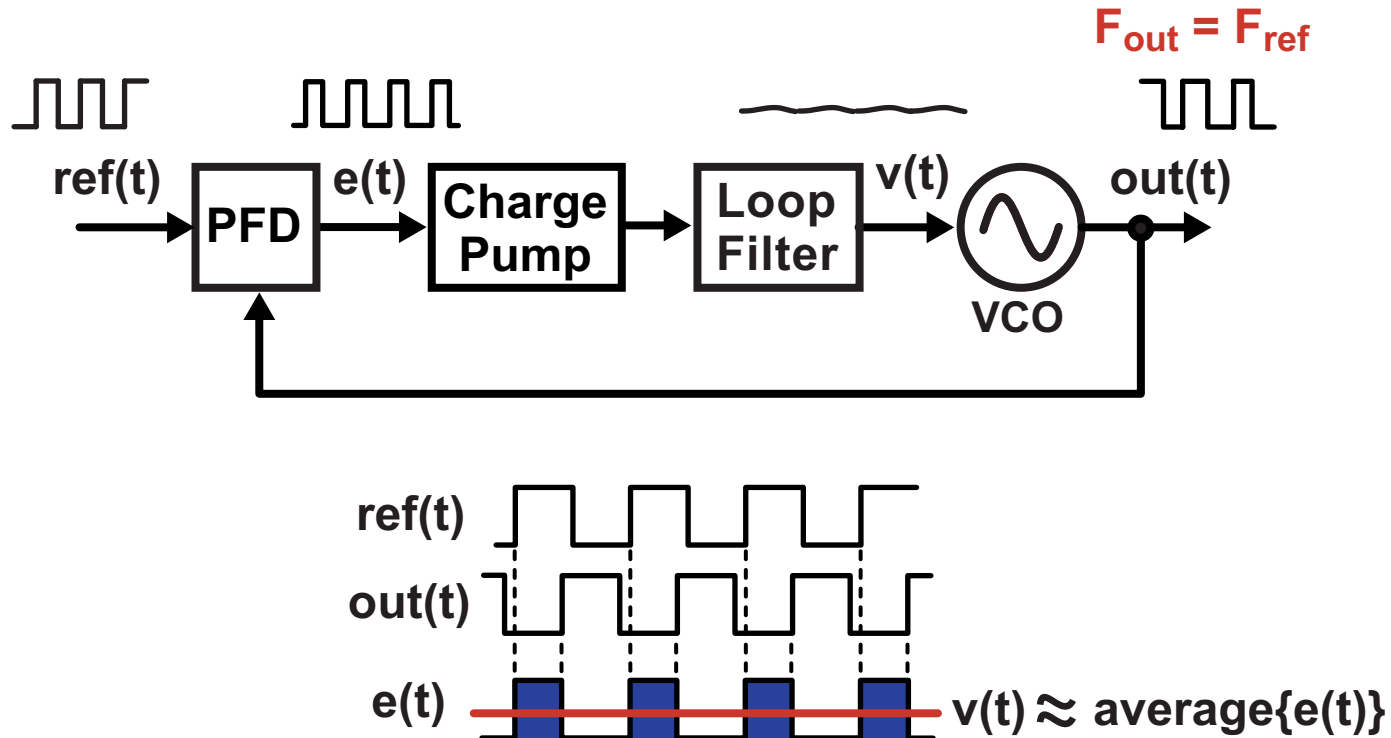
- PFD output consists of pulses whose width is proportional to the phase error
 - Phase is only observable at edges
- Smooth PFD output to produce input voltage to VCO

Impact of Changes in Phase Error



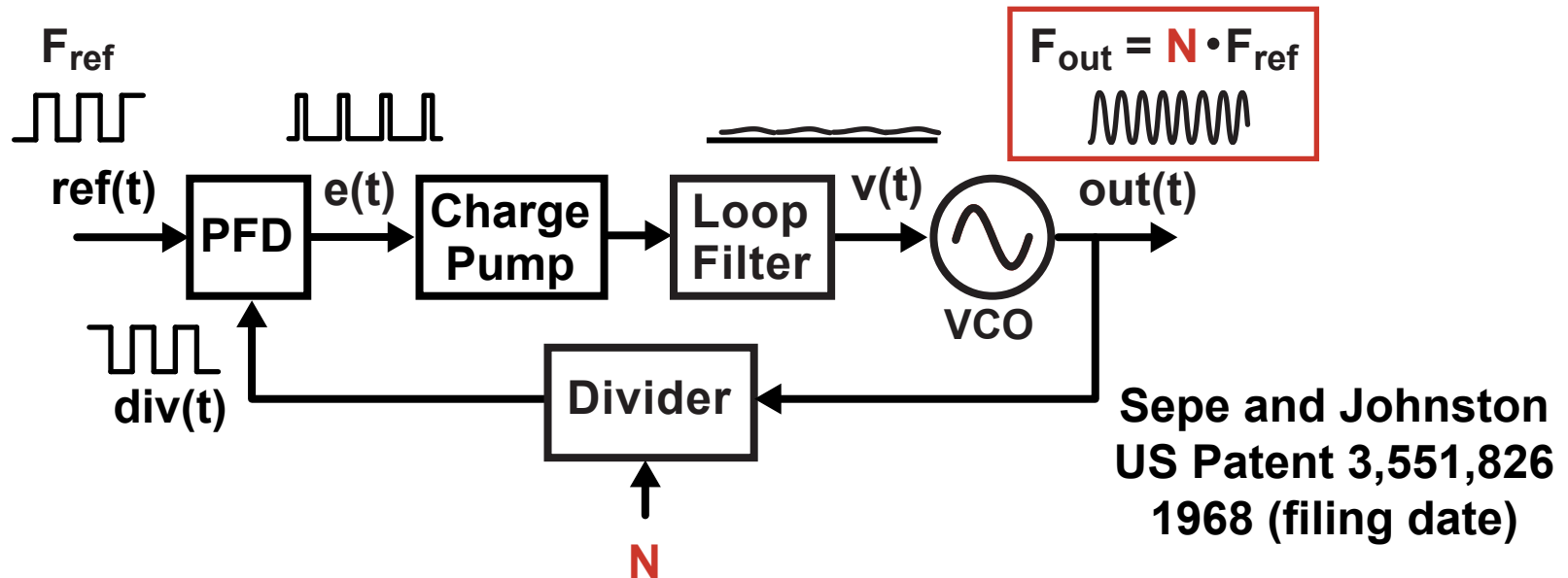
- Pulse width varies according to phase difference
- VCO input voltage changes accordingly
 - Adjusts VCO frequency and phase

Phase Lock Implies Frequency Lock



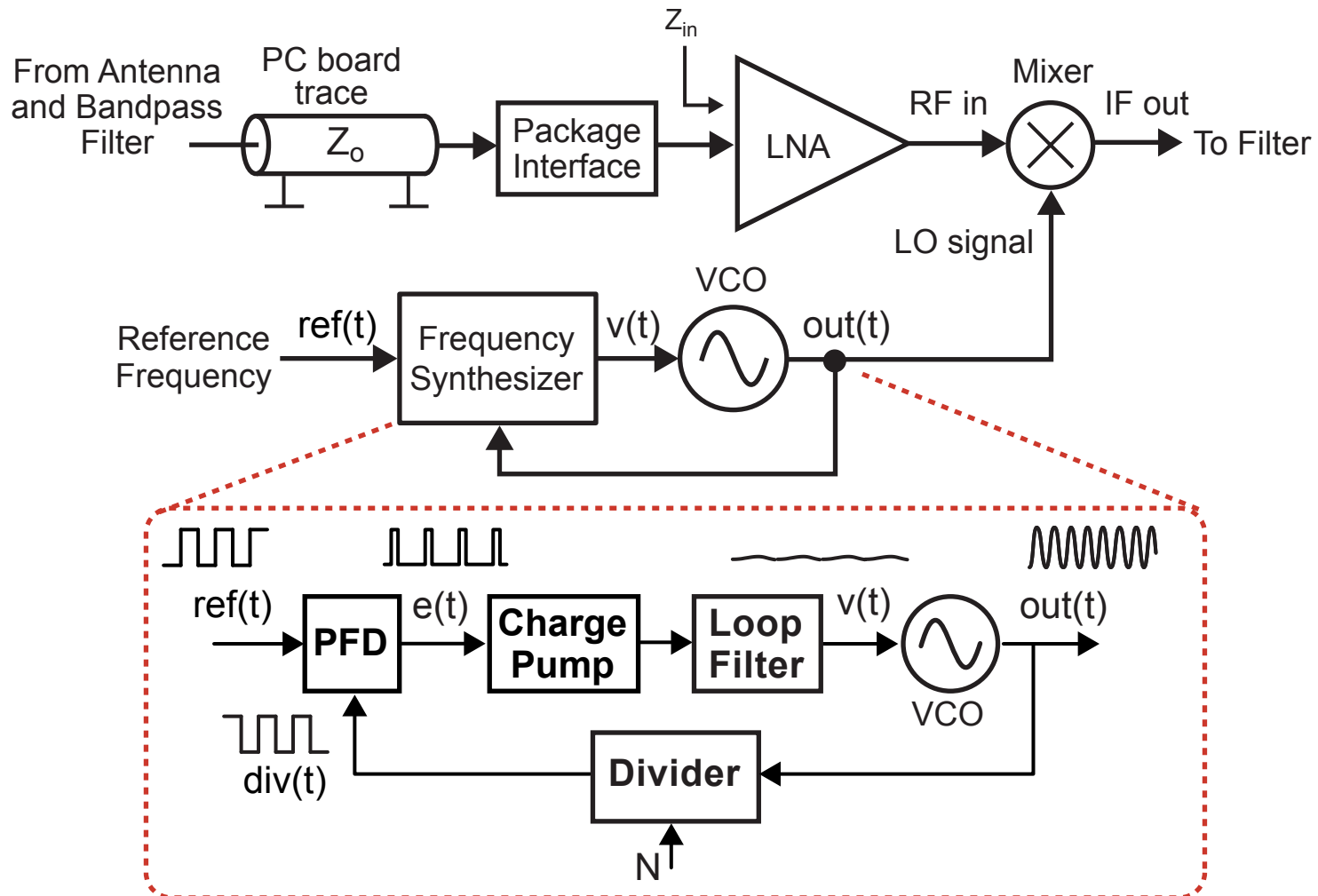
- Any error in frequency leads to a steady accumulation of phase error

Integer-N Frequency Synthesizer



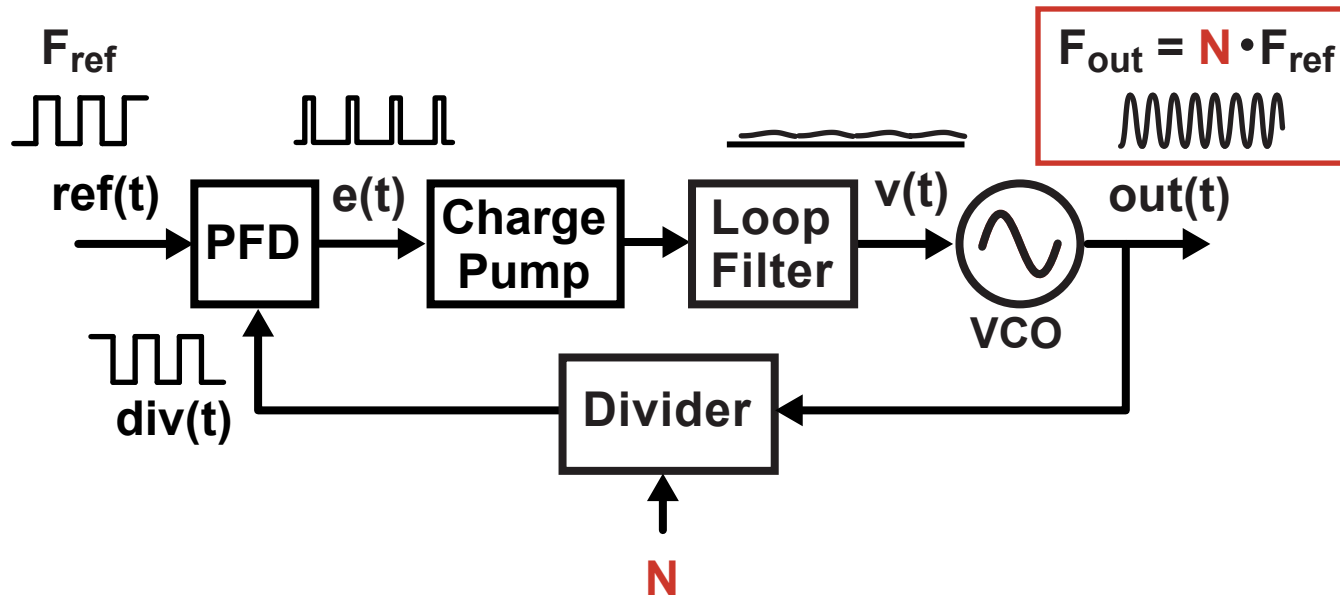
- Leverages frequency divider to create “indirect” frequency multiplication
 - Allows digital adjustment of output frequency in increments of the reference frequency

Integer-N Frequency Synthesizers in Wireless Systems



- Design Issues: settling time, frequency resolution, noise, power

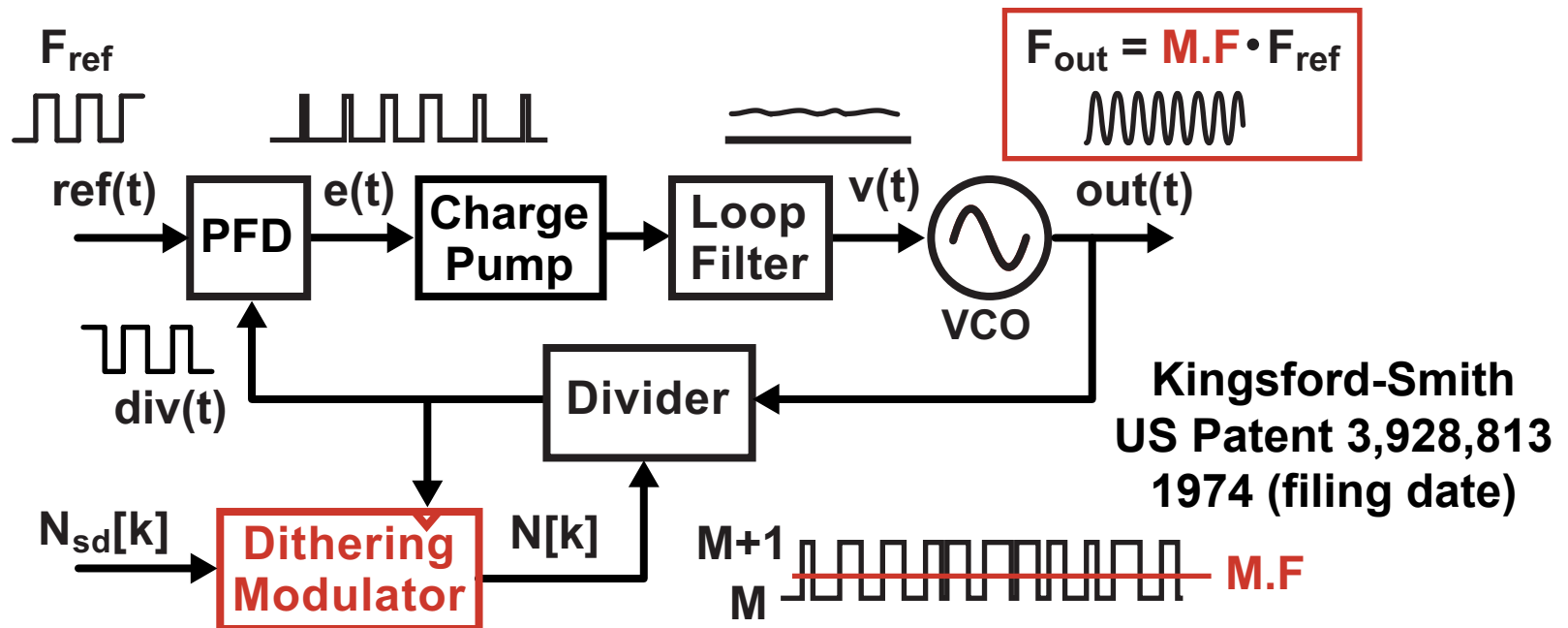
A Key Limitation of Integer-N Synthesizers



- **Key constraint: Divider value, N , must be integer**
 - High frequency resolution requires low F_{ref}
 - High PLL bandwidth requires high F_{ref}

Tradeoff: Frequency resolution vs PLL bandwidth

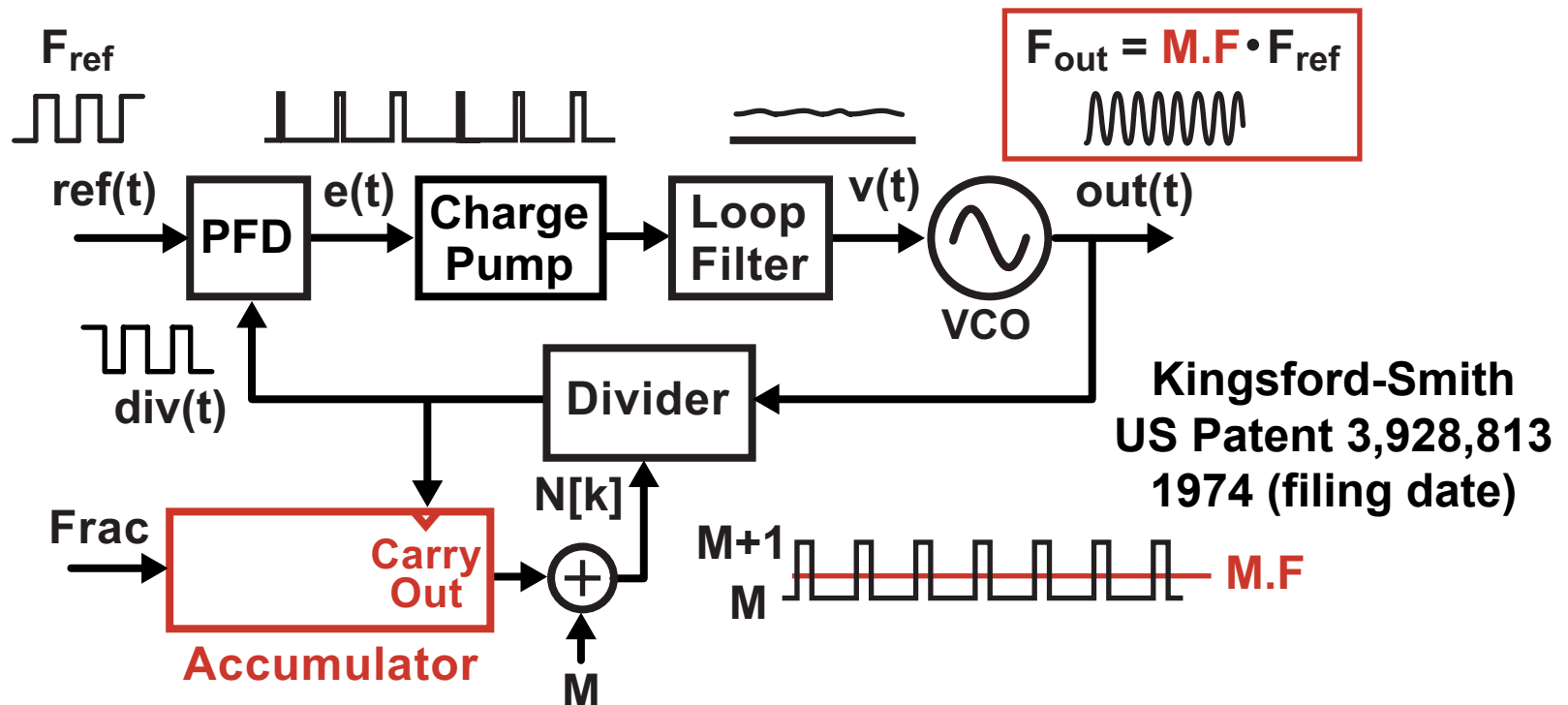
Fractional-N Frequency Synthesis



- Divide value is dithered between integer values
- Fractional divide values can be realized!

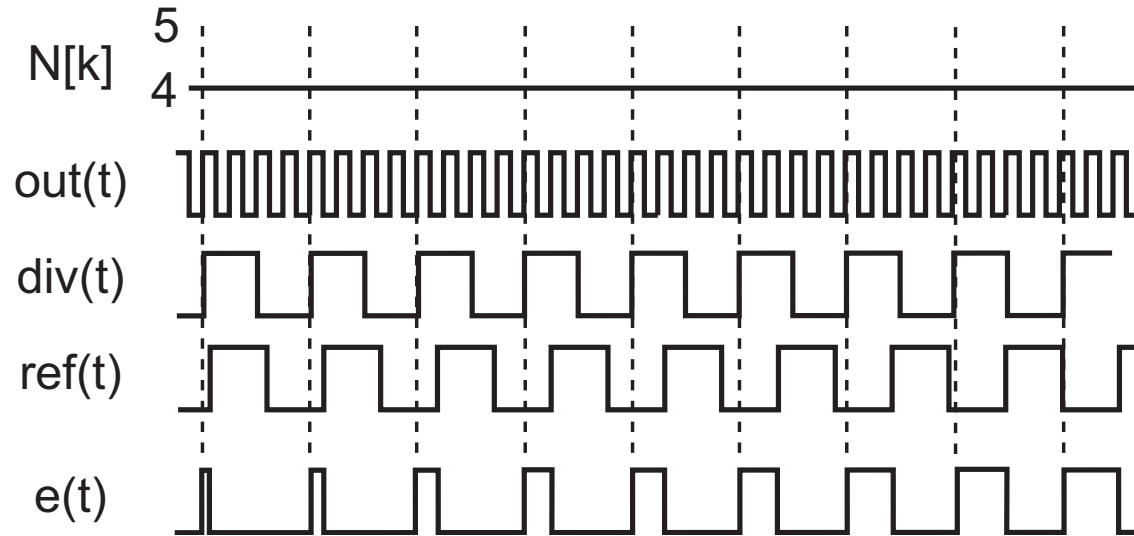
Very high frequency resolution

Classical Fractional-N Synthesizer Architecture



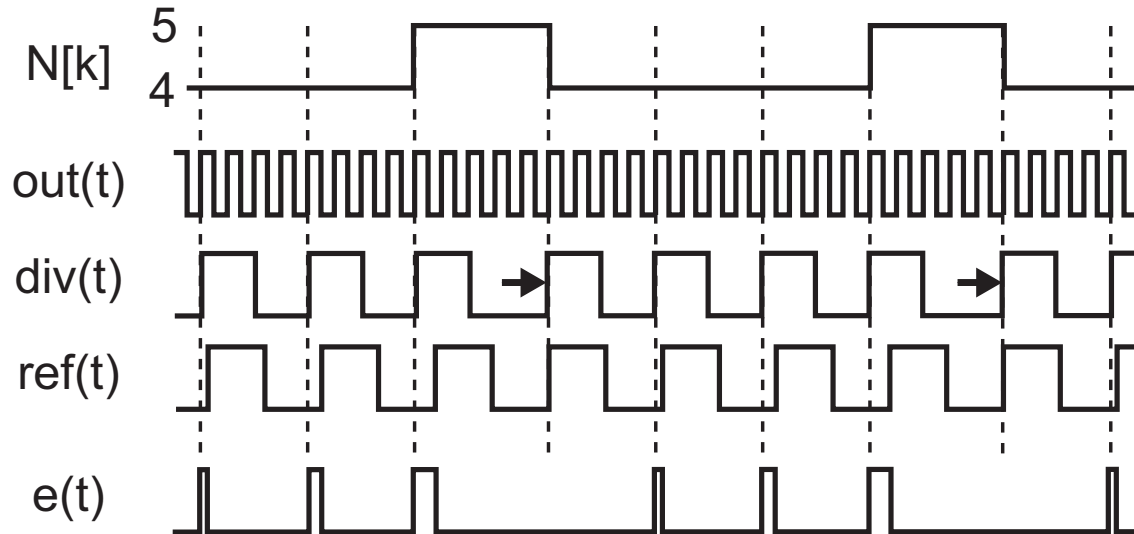
- Use an accumulator to perform dithering operation
 - Fractional input value fed into accumulator
 - Carry out bit of accumulator fed into divider

Integer-N Synthesizer Signals with $F_{out} = 4.25F_{ref}$



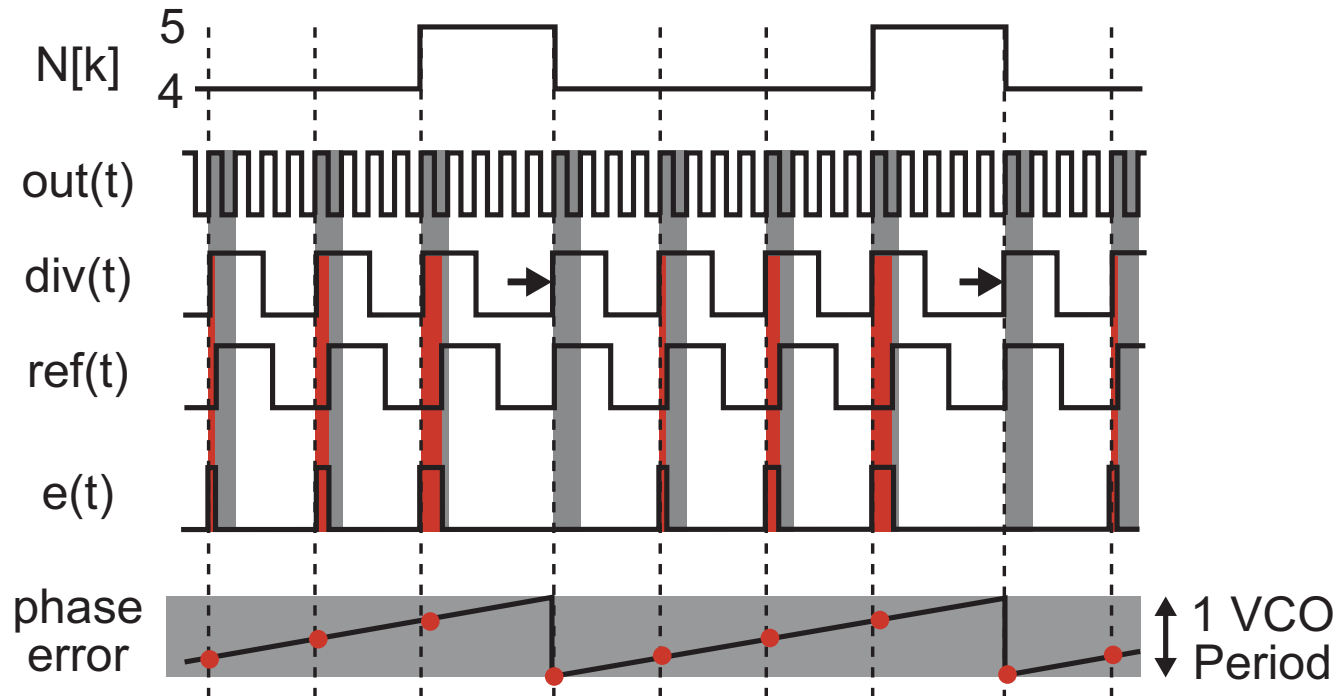
- **Constant divide value of $N = 4$ leads to frequency error**
 - **Error pulse widths increase as phase error accumulates**

Fractional-N Synthesizer Signals with $F_{out} = 4.25F_{ref}$



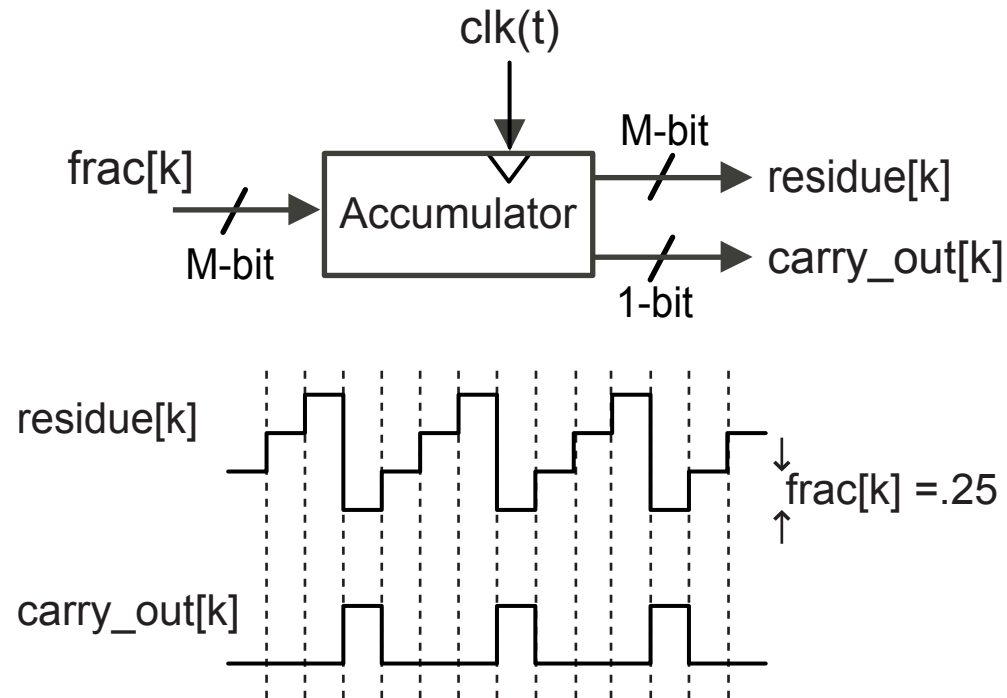
- **Dithering allows average divide value of $N = 4.25$**
 - **Reset phase error by periodically “swallowing” a VCO cycle**
 - **Achieved by dividing by 5 every 4 reference cycles**

Key Observations for Classical Fractional-N Dithering



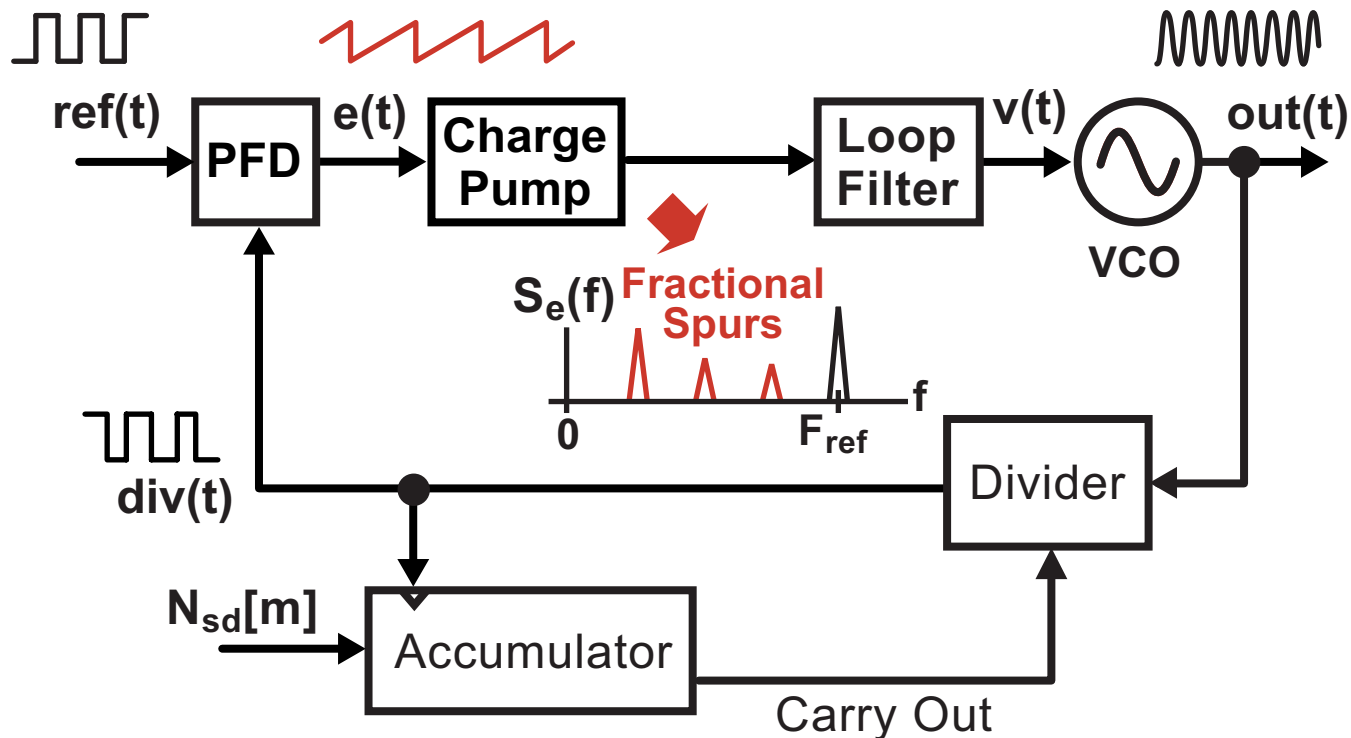
- The instantaneous phase error always remains less than one VCO cycle
- We can directly relate the phase error to the residue of the accumulator that is providing the dithering

Accumulator Operation



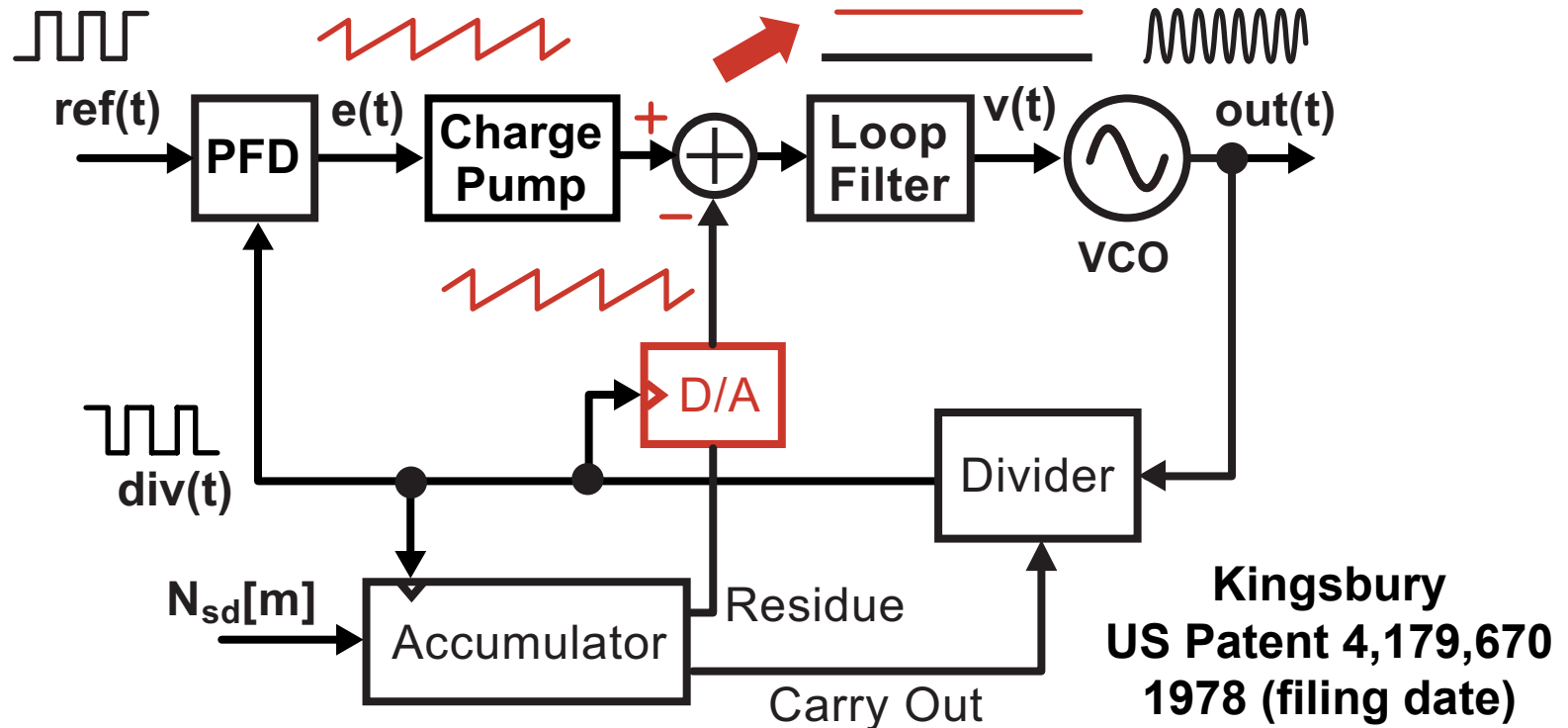
- Carry out bit is asserted when accumulator residue reaches or surpasses its full scale value
- Accumulator residue corresponds to instantaneous phase error
 - Increments by the fractional value input into the accumulator

The Issue of Spurious Tones



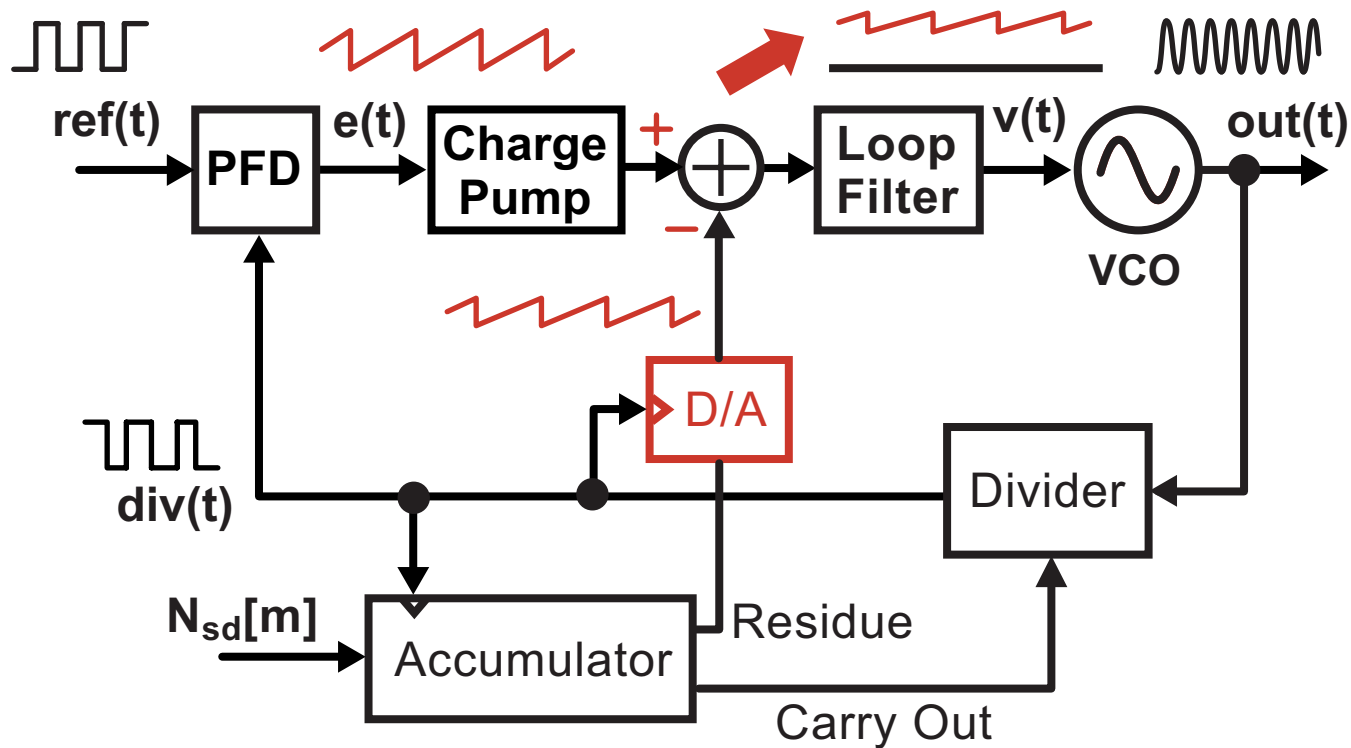
- **PFD error waveform is periodic**
 - Creates spurious tones in synthesizer output at lower frequencies than the reference
 - Ruins noise performance of the synthesizer

The Phase Interpolation Technique



- Leverage the fact that the phase error due to fractional technique is predicted by the instantaneous residue of the accumulator
 - Cancel out phase error based on accumulator residue

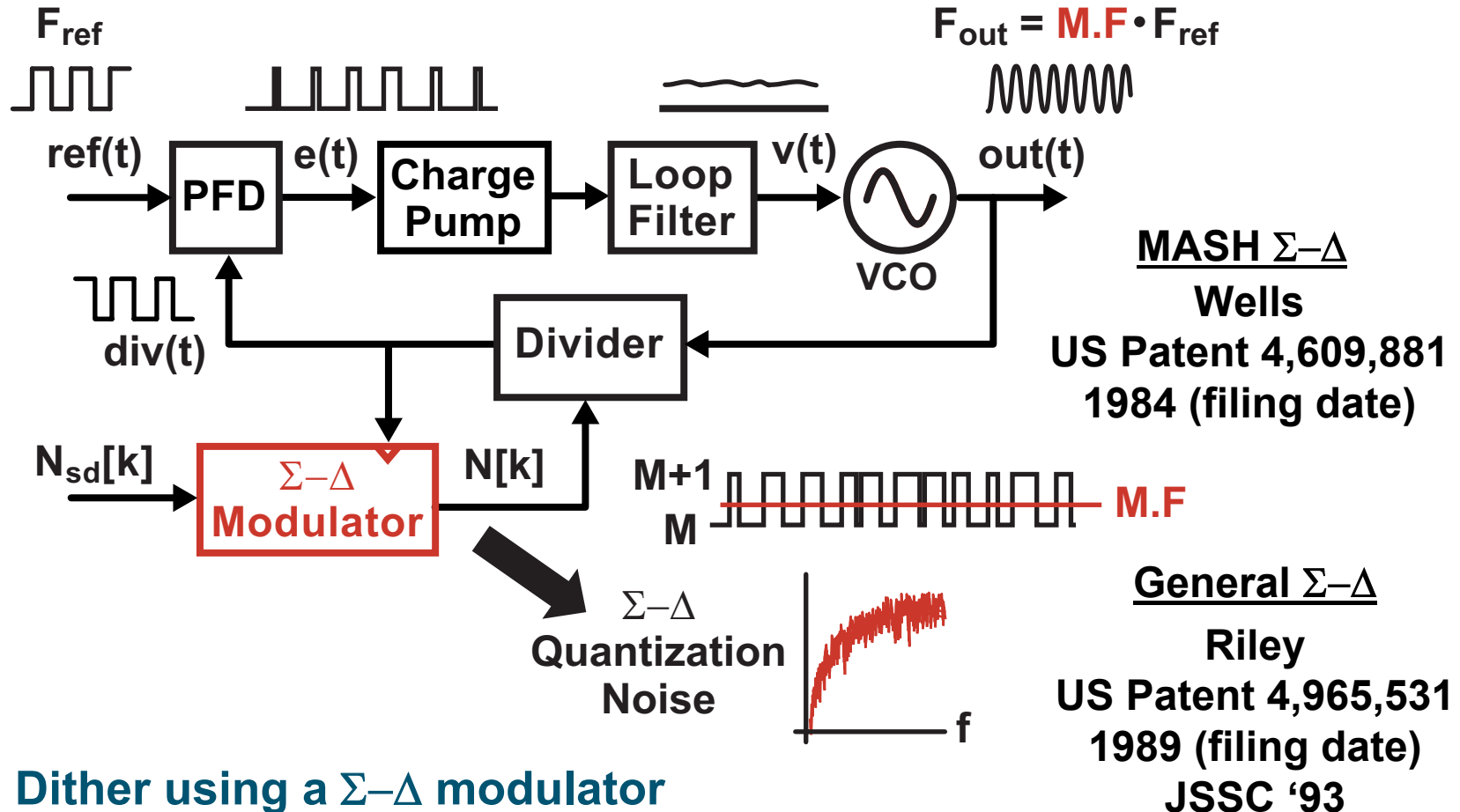
The Problem With Phase Interpolation



- Gain matching between PFD error and scaled D/A output must be extremely precise
 - Any mismatch will lead to spurious tones at PLL output

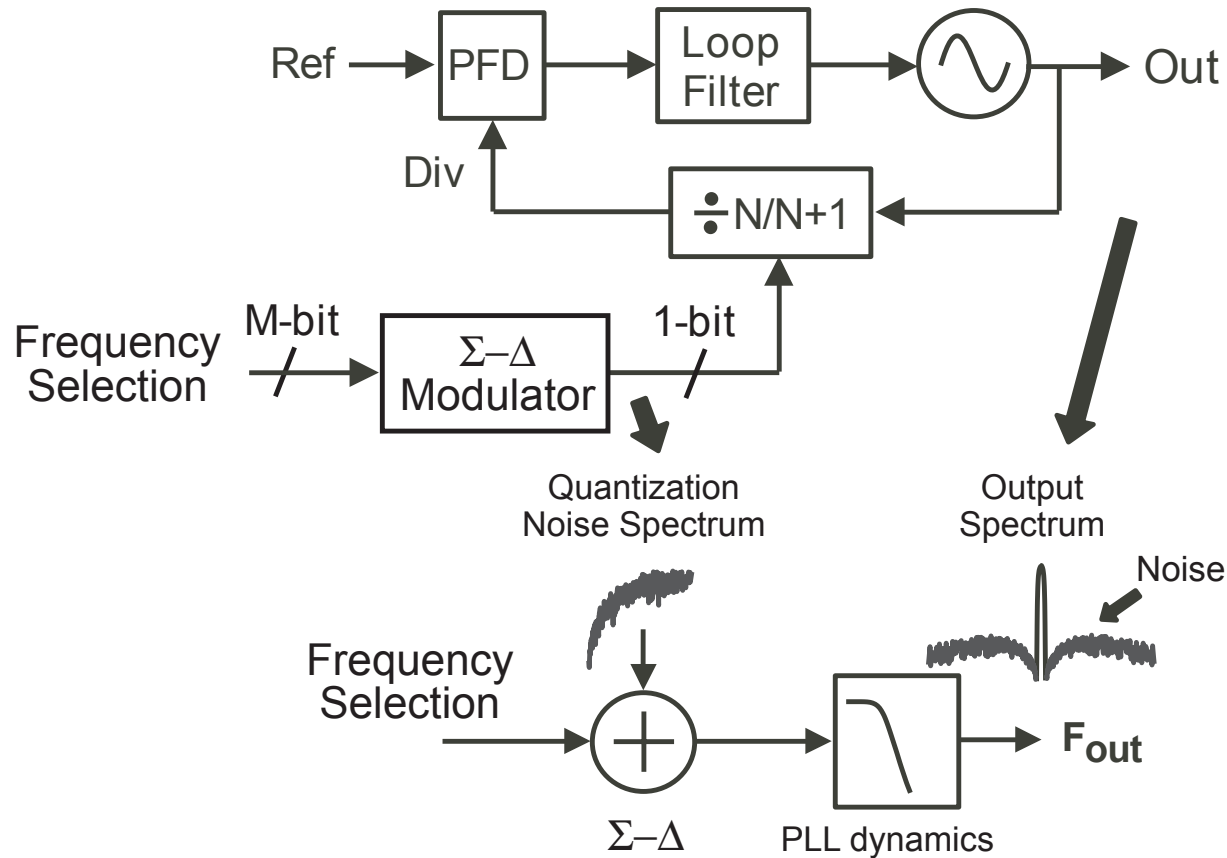
Matching issue prevented this technique from catching on

$\Sigma\text{-}\Delta$ Fractional-N Frequency Synthesis



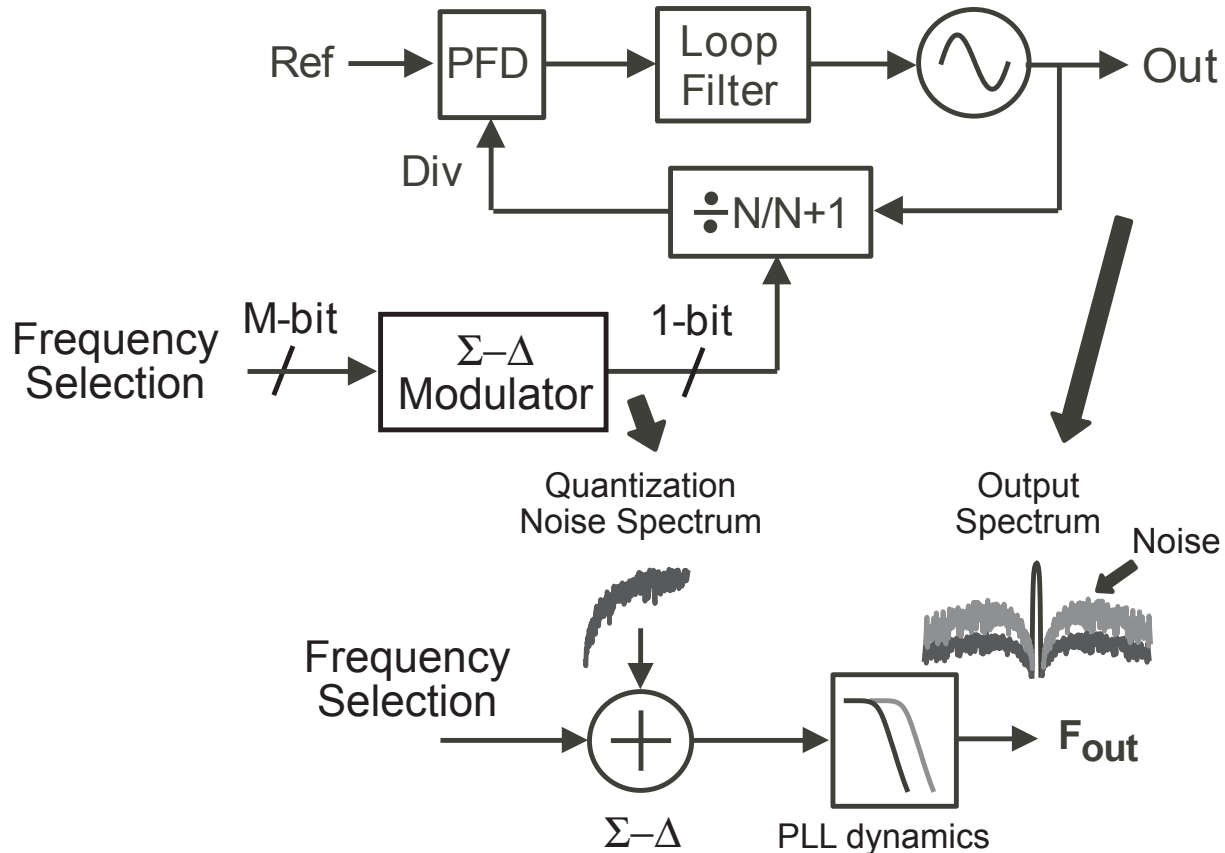
- **Dither using a $\Sigma\text{-}\Delta$ modulator**
 - Quantization noise is shaped to high frequencies
 - Spur content of the quantization noise can be reduced to negligible levels

Impact of $\Sigma\text{-}\Delta$ Quantization Noise on Synth. Output



- **Lowpass action of PLL dynamics suppresses the shaped $\Sigma\text{-}\Delta$ quantization noise**

Impact of Increasing the PLL Bandwidth



- Higher PLL bandwidth leads to less quantization noise suppression

Tradeoff: Noise performance vs PLL bandwidth

Outline of PLL Lectures

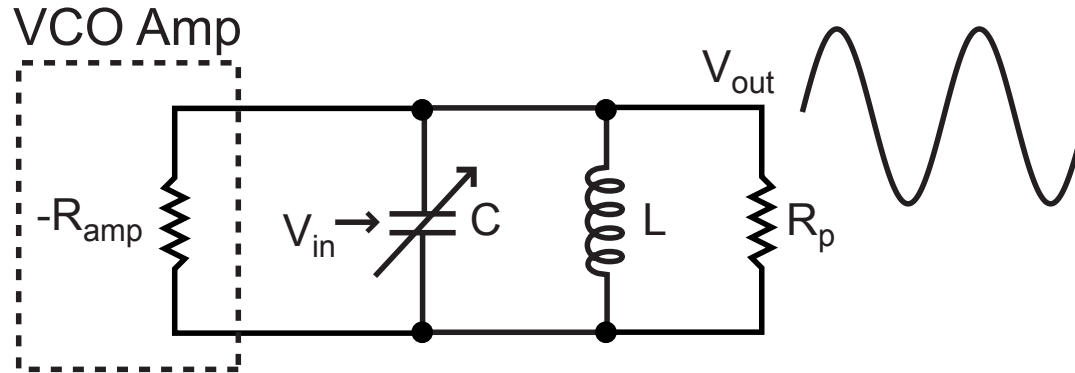
- **Integer-N Synthesizers**
 - Basic blocks, modeling, and design
 - Frequency detection, PLL Type
- **Noise in Integer-N and Fractional-N Synthesizers**
 - Noise analysis of integer-N structure
 - Sigma-Delta modulators applied to fractional-N structures
 - Noise analysis of fractional-N structure
- **Design of Fractional-N Frequency Synthesizers and Bandwidth Extension Techniques**
 - PLL Design Assistant Software
 - Quantization noise reduction for improved bandwidth and noise

PLL Building Blocks

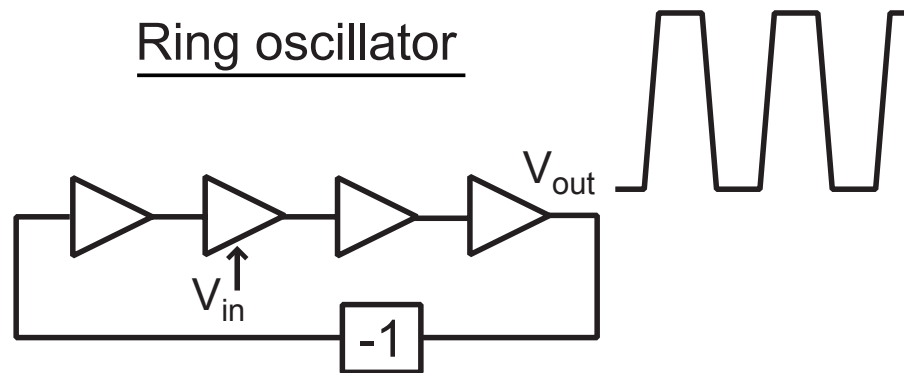
Voltage-Controlled Oscillators

Popular VCO Structures

LC oscillator

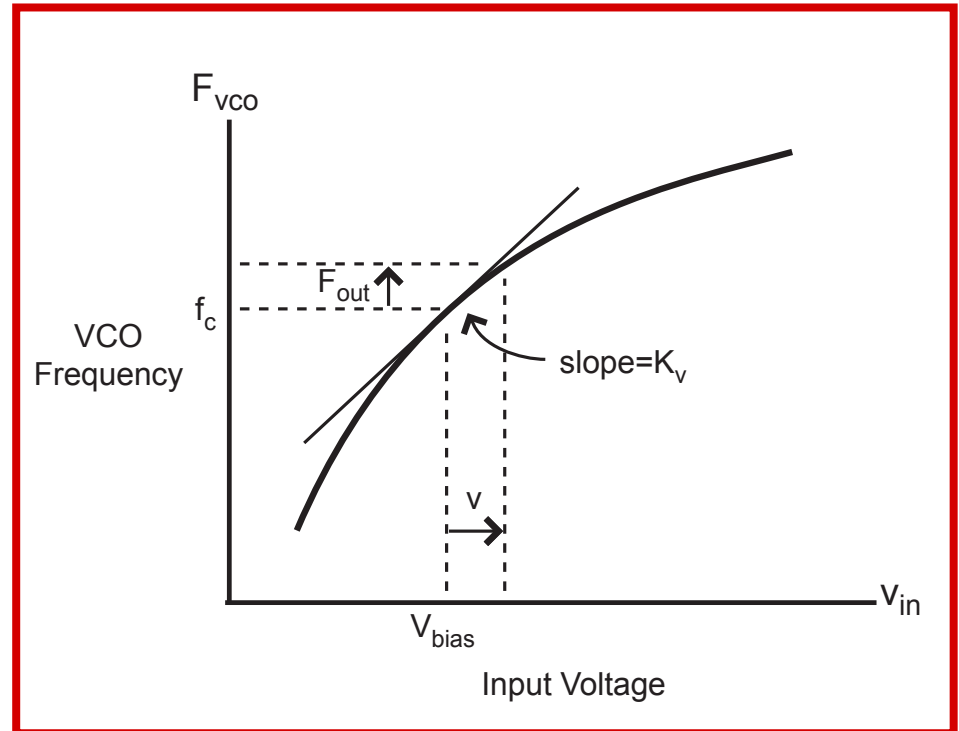
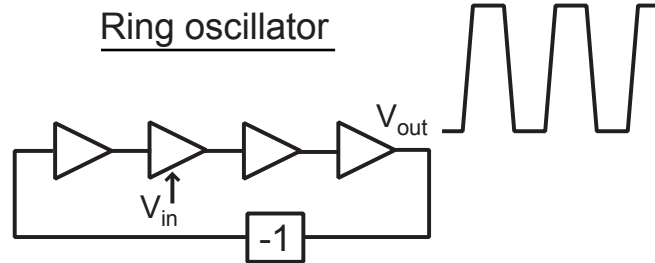
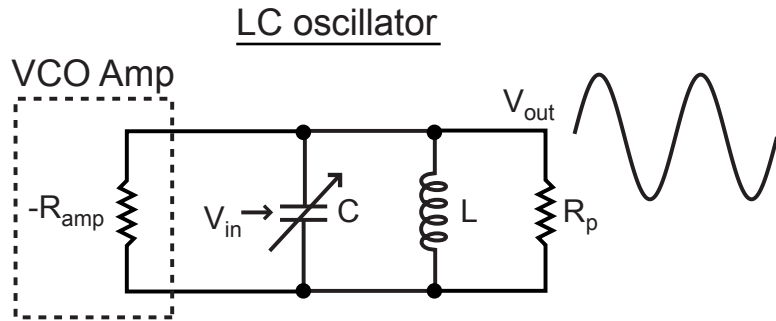


Ring oscillator



- **LC Oscillator: low phase noise, large area**
- **Ring Oscillator: easy to integrate, higher phase noise**

Model for Voltage to Frequency Mapping of VCO



$$F_{out}(t) = K_v v(t)$$

Model for Voltage to Phase Mapping of VCO

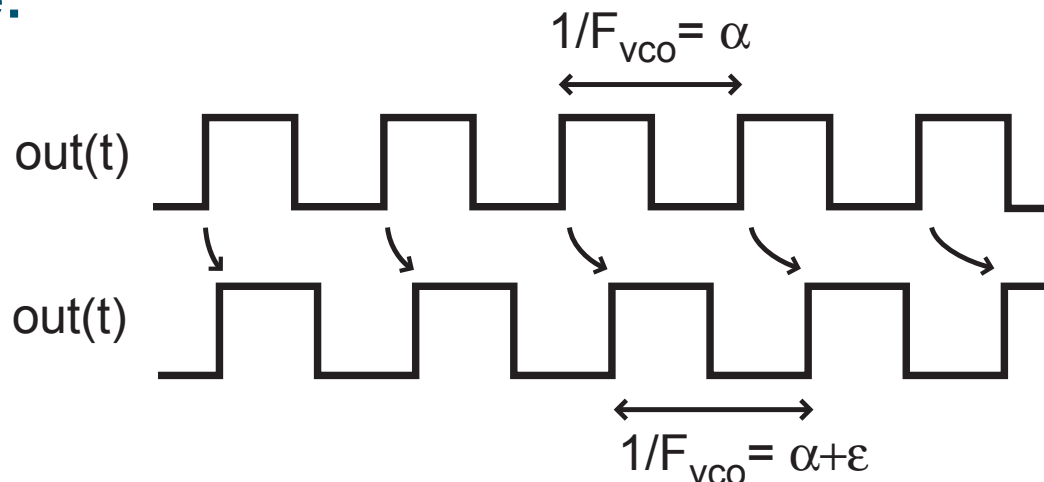
- Time-domain frequency relationship (from previous slide)

$$F_{out}(t) = K_v v(t)$$

- Time-domain phase relationship

$$\Phi_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi F_{out}(\tau) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi K_v v(\tau) d\tau$$

- Intuition of integral relationship between frequency and phase:

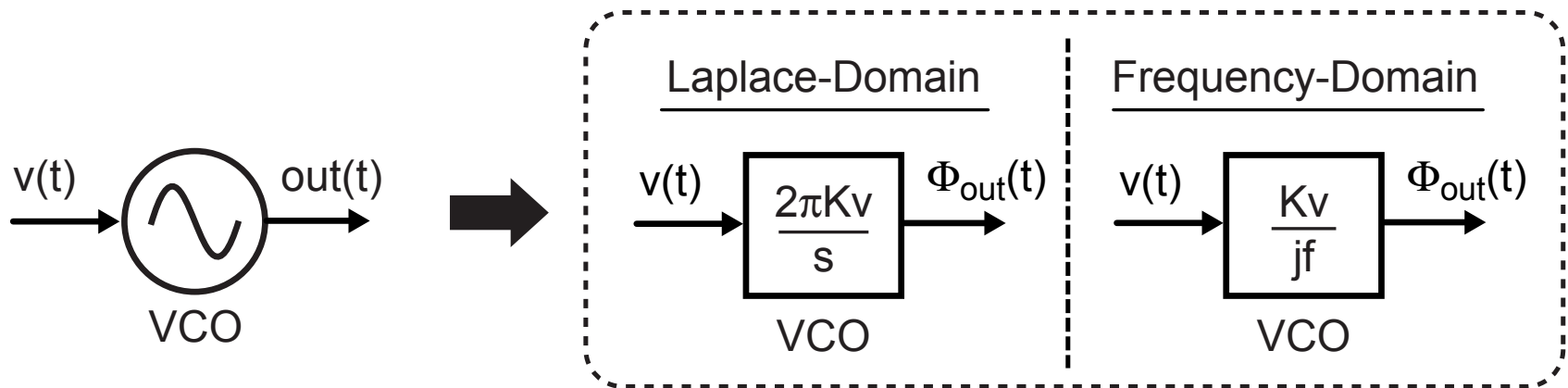


Frequency-Domain Model for VCO

- Time-domain relationship (from previous slide)

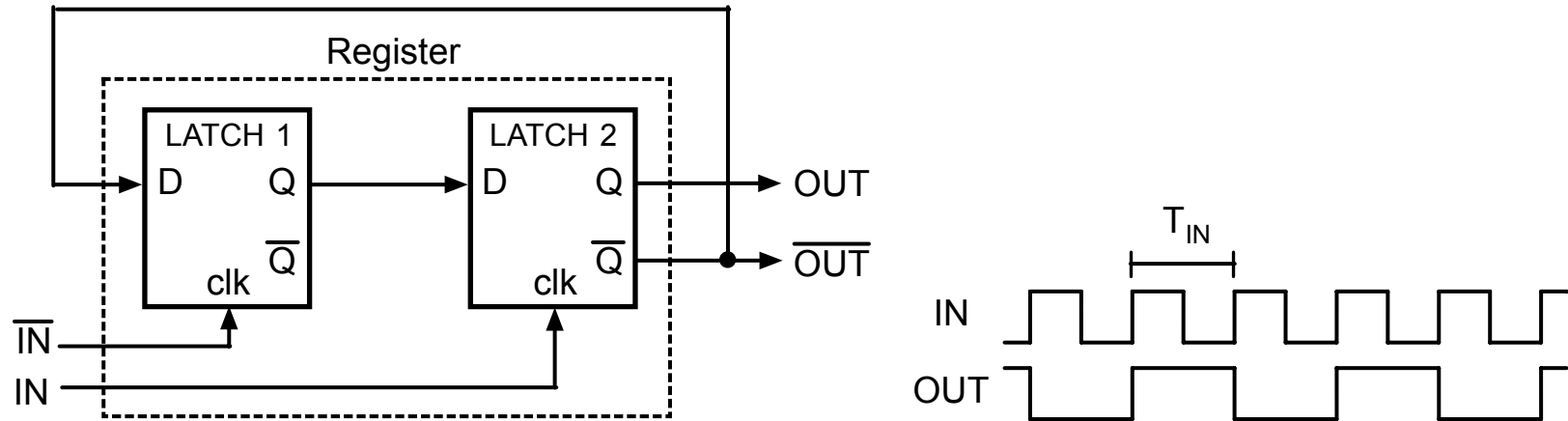
$$\Phi_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi K_v v(\tau) d\tau$$

- Corresponding frequency-domain model



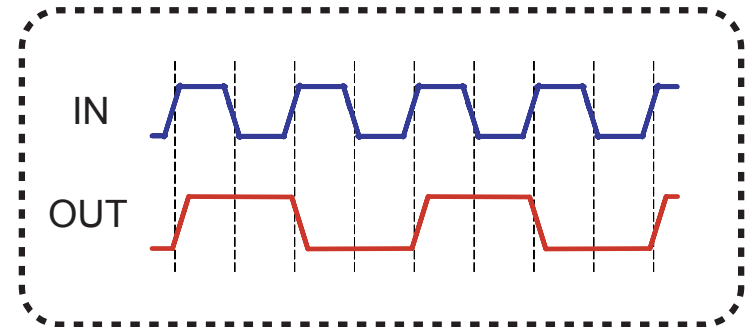
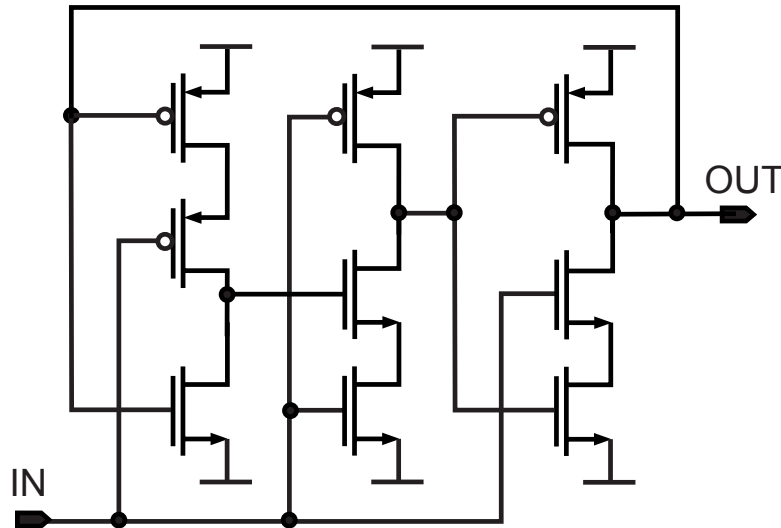
Frequency Dividers

Divide-by-2 Circuit (Johnson Counter)



- Achieves frequency division by clocking two latches (i.e., a register) in negative feedback
- Latches may be implemented in various ways according to speed/power requirements

Divide-by-2 Using a TSPC register



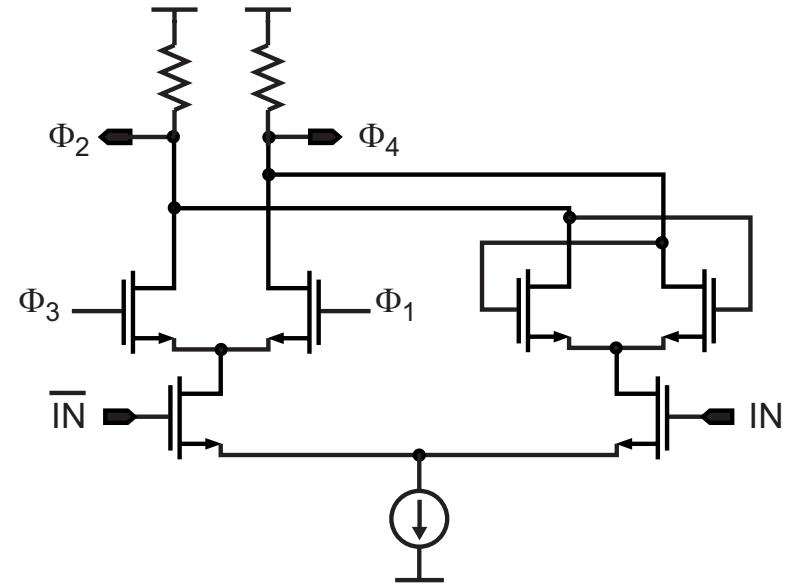
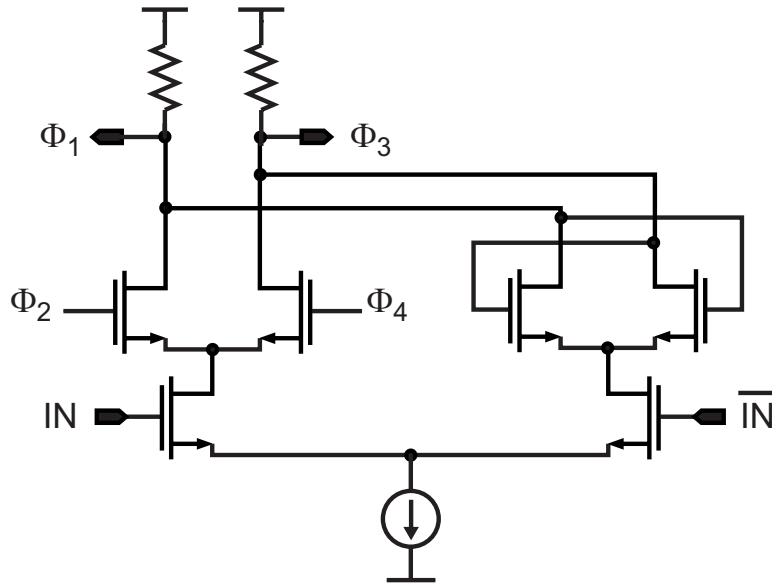
■ Advantages

- Reasonably fast, compact size
- No static power dissipation, differential clock not required

■ Disadvantages

- Slowed down by stacked PMOS, signals goes through three gates per cycle
- Requires full swing input clock signal

Divide-by-2 Using SCL (also called CML) Latches



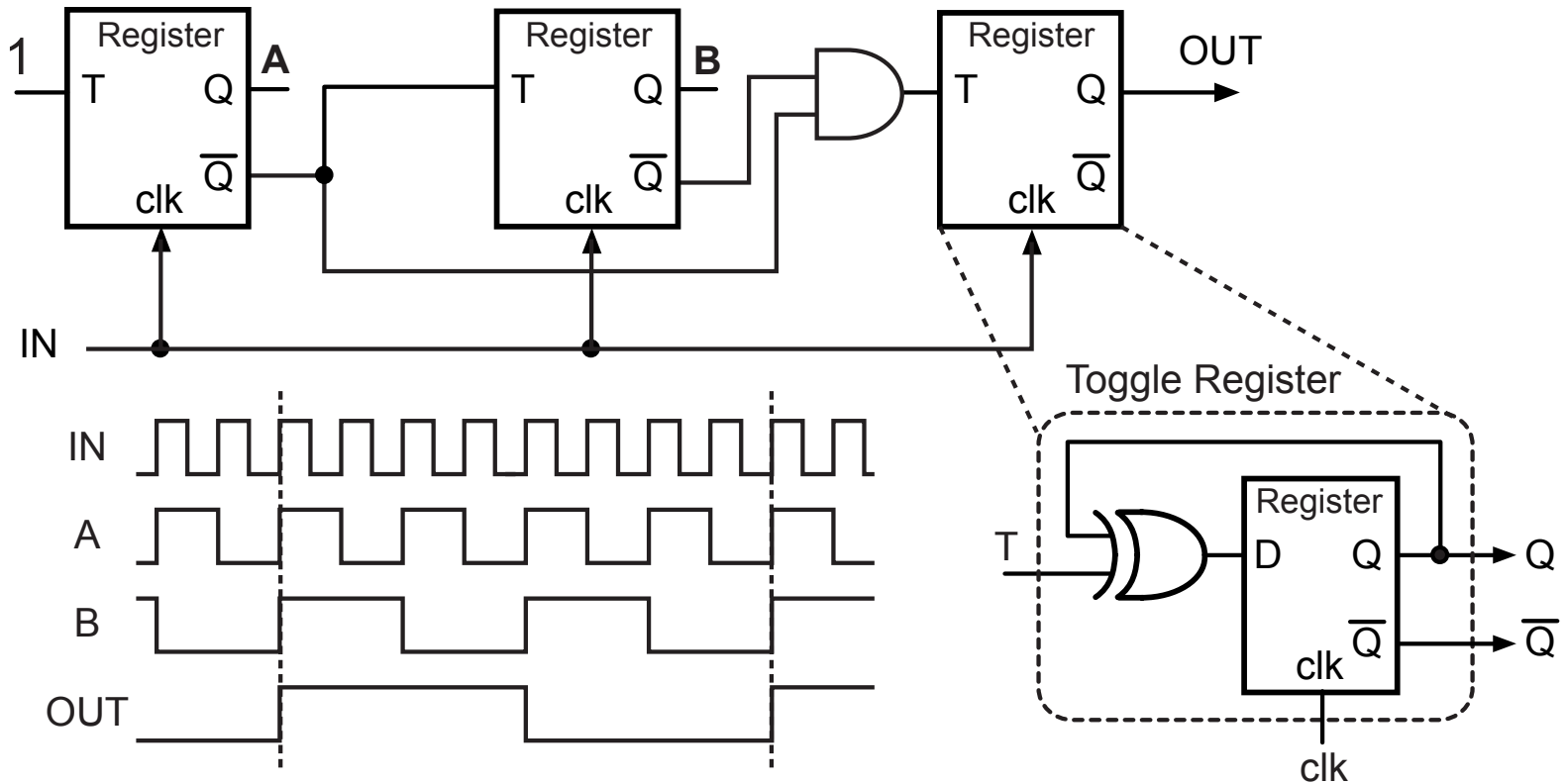
■ Advantage

- Very fast due to small swing and absence of PMOS devices
 - Additional speedup can be obtained by using inductors

■ Disadvantages

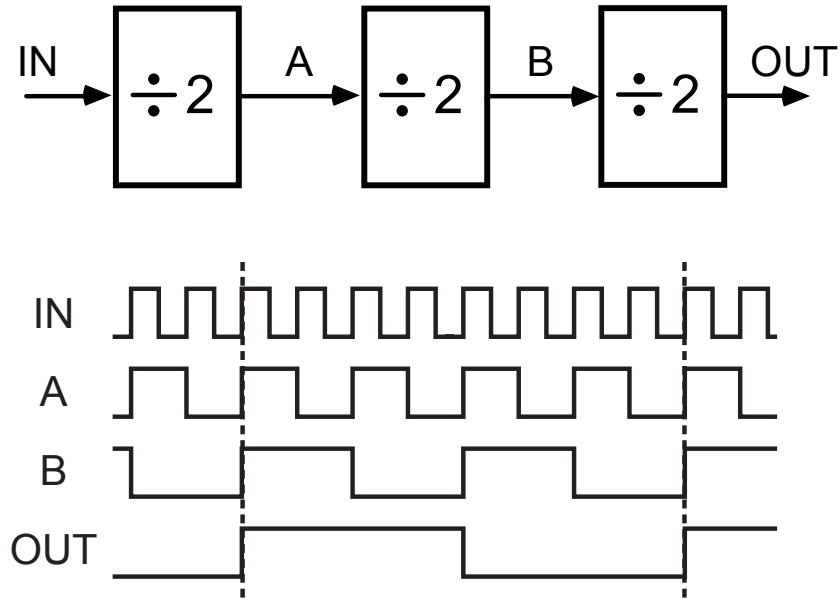
- High power, large area relative to TSPC
- Differential signals required
- Biasing sources required

Creating Higher Divide Values (Synchronous Approach)



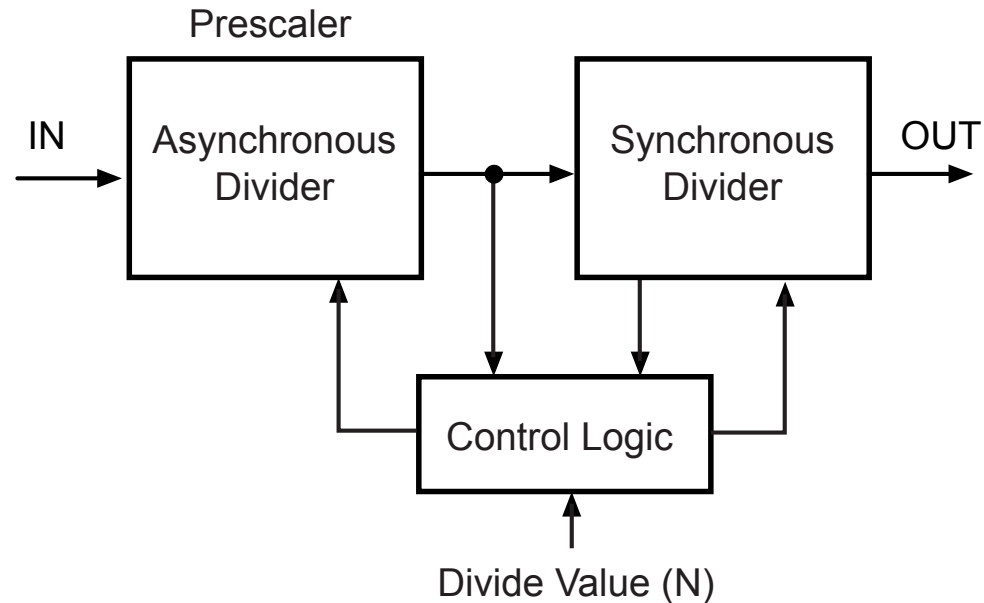
- **Cascades toggle registers and logic to perform division**
 - Advantage: low jitter
 - Problems: high power (all registers run at high frequency), high loading on clock (IN signal drives *all* registers)

Creating Higher Divide Values (Asynchronous Approach)



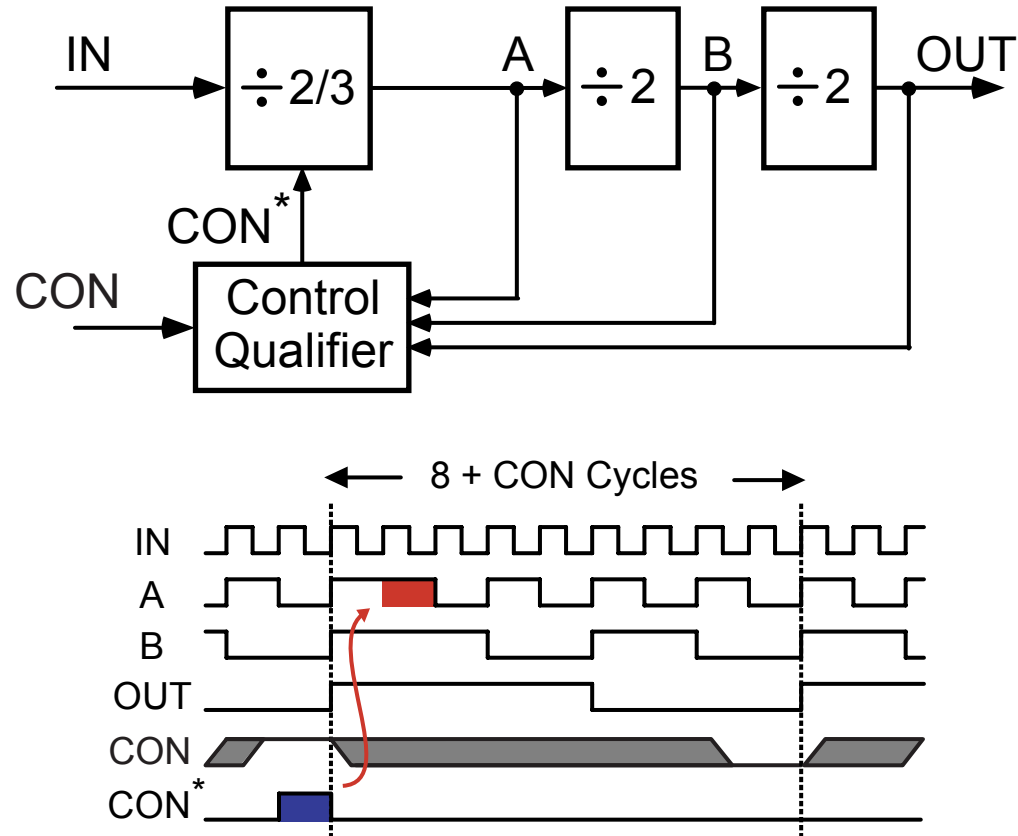
- Higher division achieved by simply cascading divide-by-2 stages
- Advantages over synchronous approach
 - Lower power: each stage runs at a lower frequency, allowing power to be correspondingly reduced
 - Less loading of input: IN signal only drives first stage
- Disadvantage: jitter is larger

Variable Frequency Division



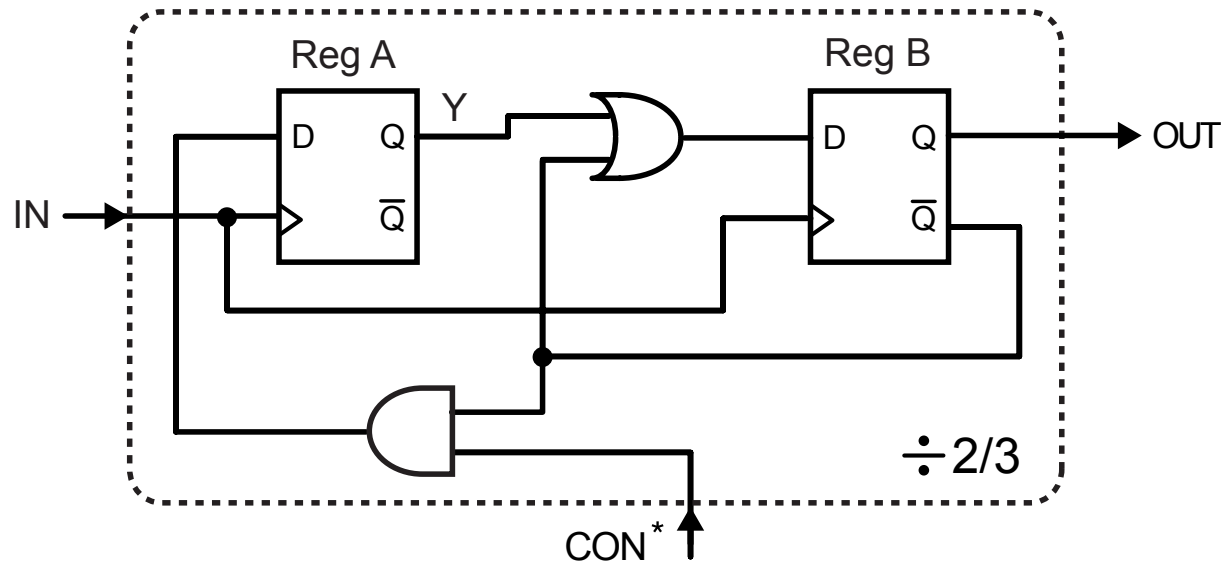
- **Classical design partitions variable divider into two sections**
 - **Asynchronous section (called a prescaler) is fast**
 - Often supports a limited range of divide values
 - **Synchronous section has no jitter accumulation and a wide range of divide values**
 - **Control logic coordinates sections to produce a wide range of divide values**

Dual Modulus Prescalers



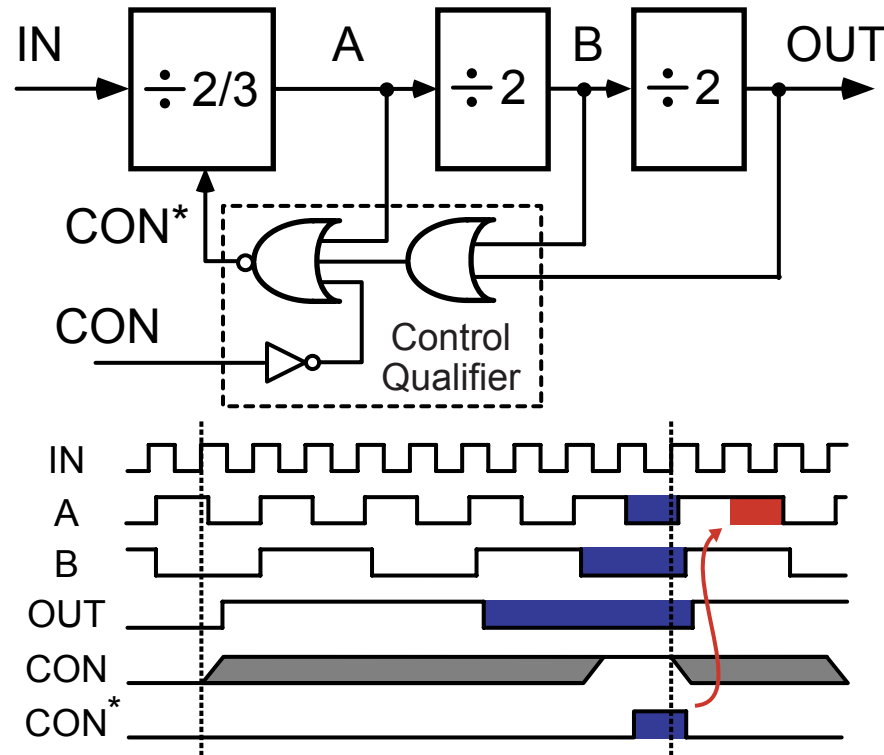
- **Dual modulus design supports two divide values**
 - In this case, divide-by-8 or 9 according to **CON** signal
- **One cycle resolution achieved with front-end “2/3” divider**

Divide-by-2/3 Design (Classical Approach)



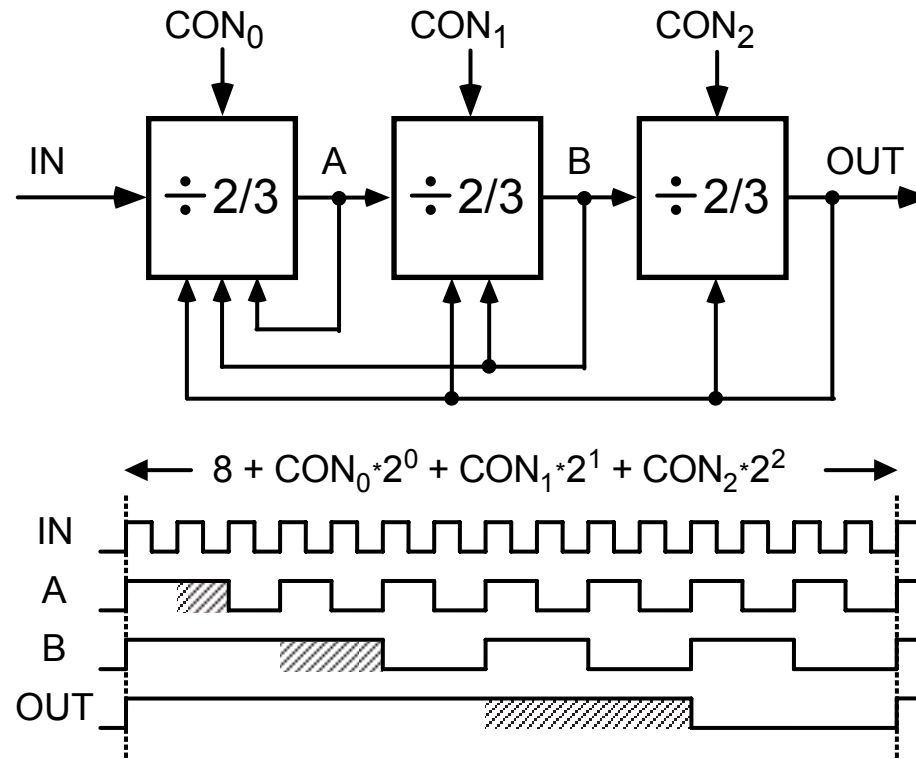
- **Normal mode of operation:** $CON^* = 0 \Rightarrow Y = 0$
 - Register B acts as divide-by-2 circuit
- **Divide-by-3 operation:** $CON^* = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$
 - Reg B remains high for an extra cycle
 - Causes Y to be set back to 0 \Rightarrow Reg B toggles again
 - CON^* must be set back to 0 before Reg B toggles to prevent extra pulses from being swallowed

Control Qualifier Design (Classical Approach)



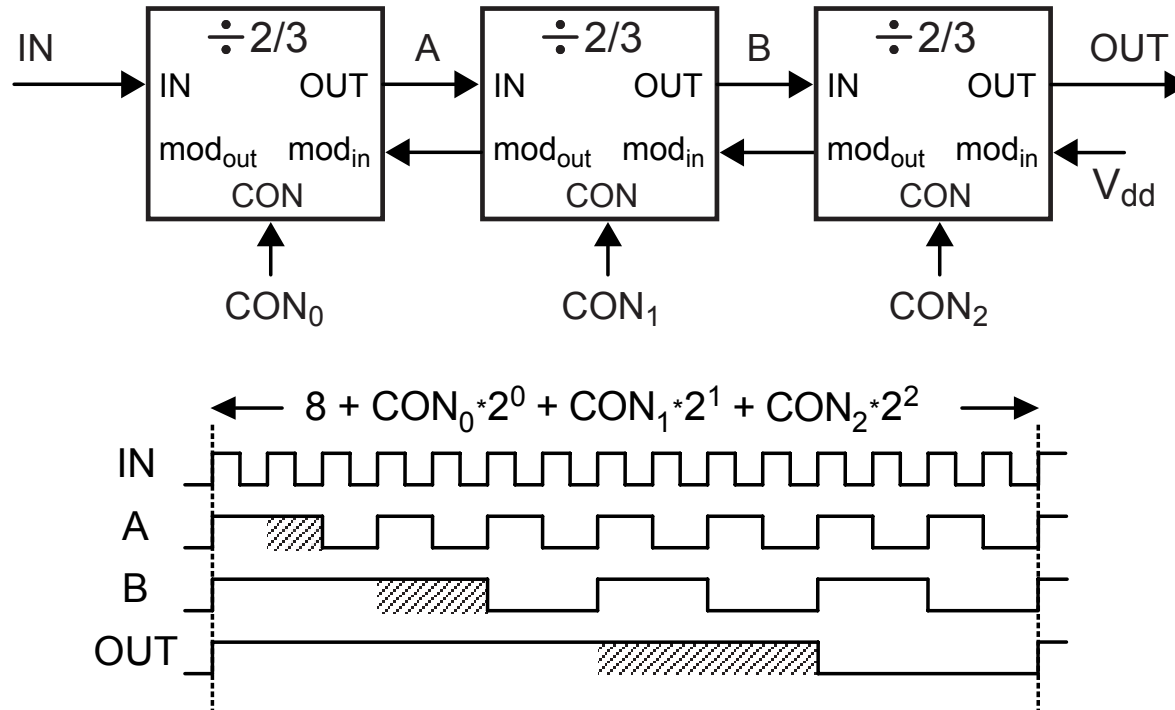
- **Must align CON signal to first “2/3” divider stage**
 - CON signal is based on logic clocked by divider output
 - There will be skew between “2/3” divider timing and CON
- **Classical approach cleverly utilizes outputs from each section to “gate” the CON signal to “2/3” divider**

Multi-Modulus Prescalers



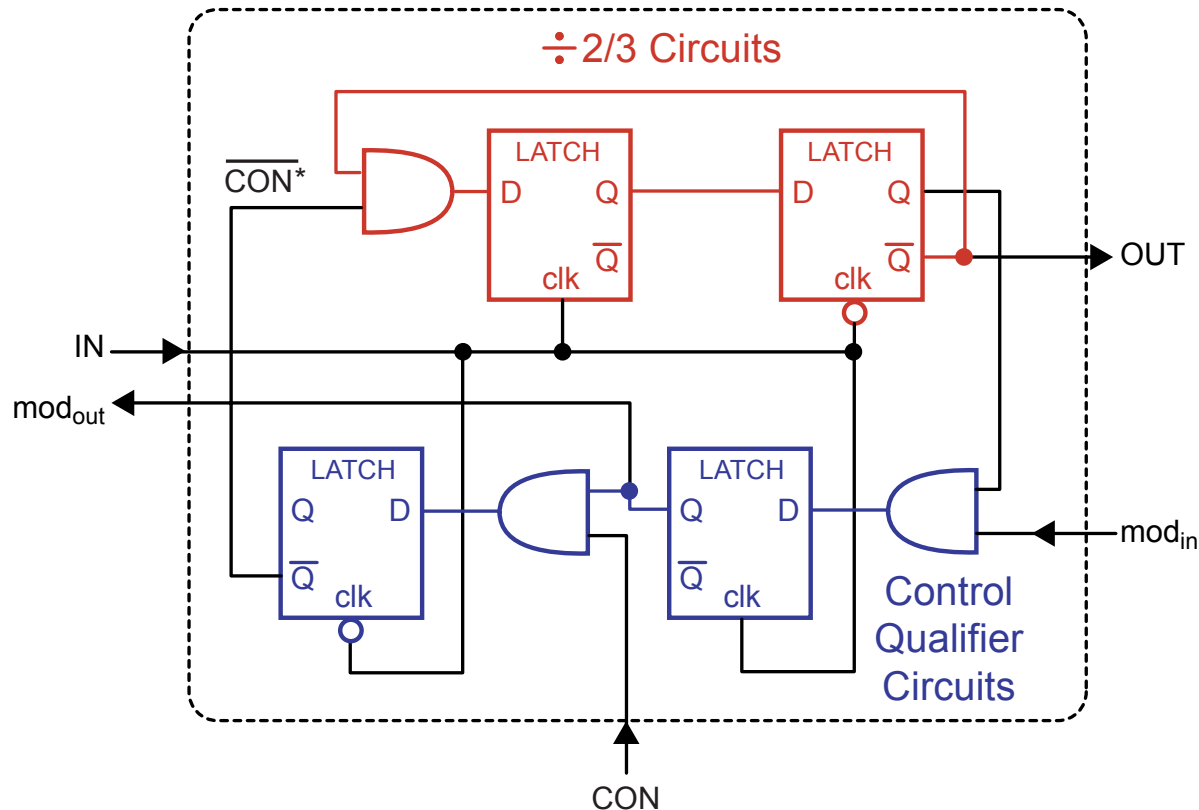
- **Cascaded 2/3 sections achieves a range of 2^n to $2^{n+1}-1$**
 - Above example is 8/ ... /15 divider
- **Asynchronous design allows high speed and low power operation to be achieved**
 - Only negative is jitter accumulation

A More Modular Design



- Perform control qualification by synchronizing within each stage before passing to previous one
 - Compare to previous slide in which all outputs required for qualification of first 2/3 stage
- See Vaucher et. al., “A Family of Low-Power Truly Modular Programmable Dividers ...”, JSSC, July 2000

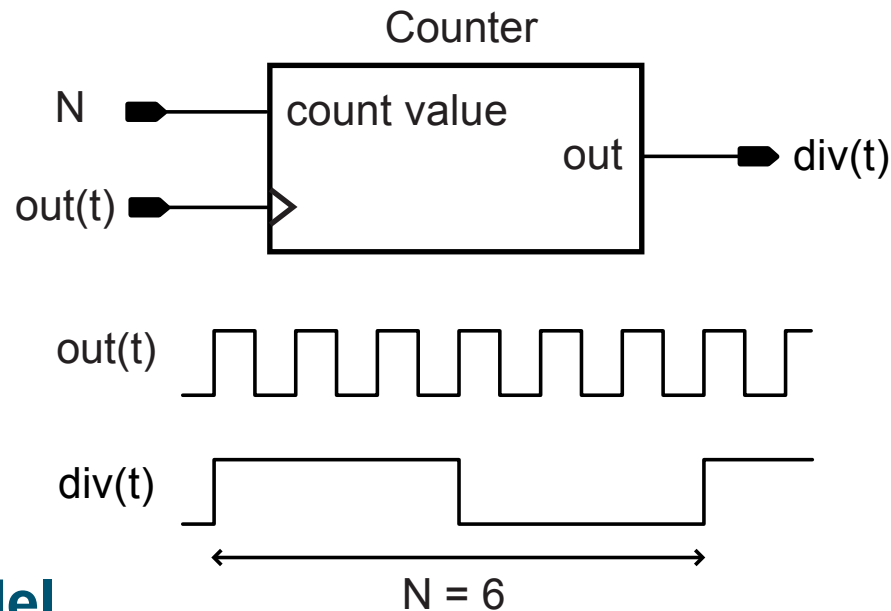
Implementation of 2/3 Sections in Modular Approach



- Approach has similar complexity to classical design
 - Consists of two registers with accompanying logic gates
- Cleverly utilizes “gating” register to pass synchronized control qualifying signal to the previous stage

Divider Modeling

■ Conceptual implementation



■ Time-domain model

- Frequency:

$$F_{div}(t) = \frac{1}{N} F_{out}(t).$$

- Phase:

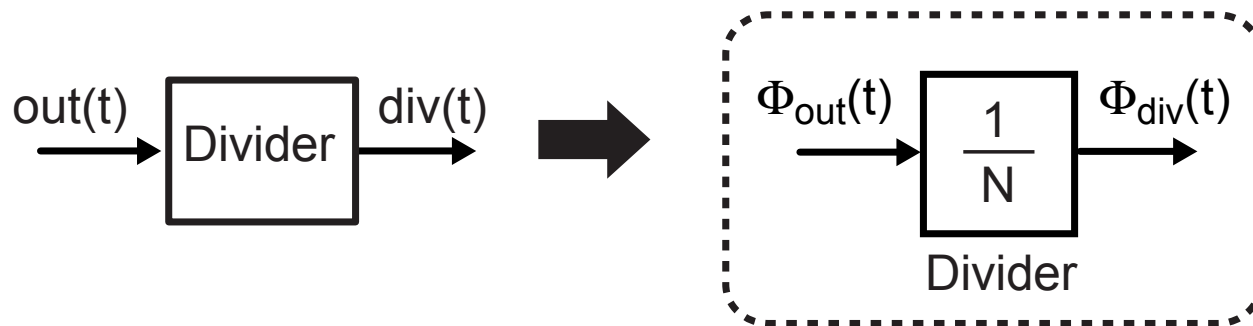
$$\Phi_{div}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi \frac{1}{N} F_{out}(\tau) d\tau = \frac{1}{N} \Phi_{out}(t)$$

Frequency-Domain Model of Divider

- Time-domain relationship between VCO phase and divider output phase (from previous slide)

$$\Phi_{div}(t) = \frac{1}{N} \Phi_{out}(t)$$

- Corresponding frequency-domain model (same as Laplace-domain)

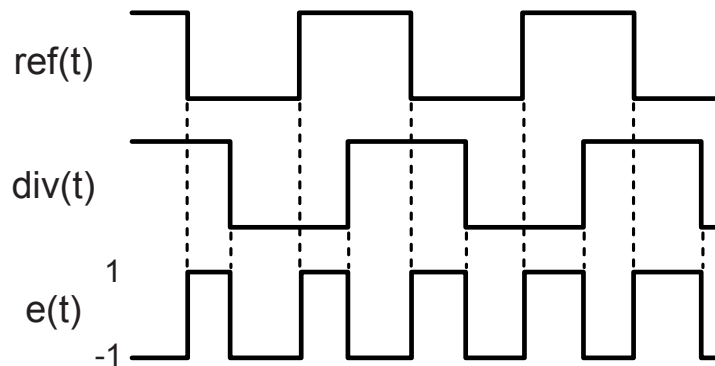
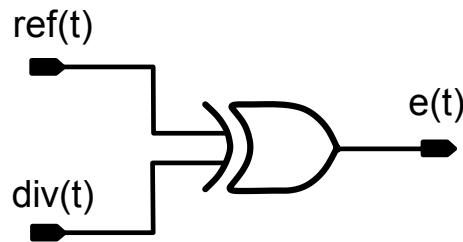


Phase Detection

Phase Detector (PD)

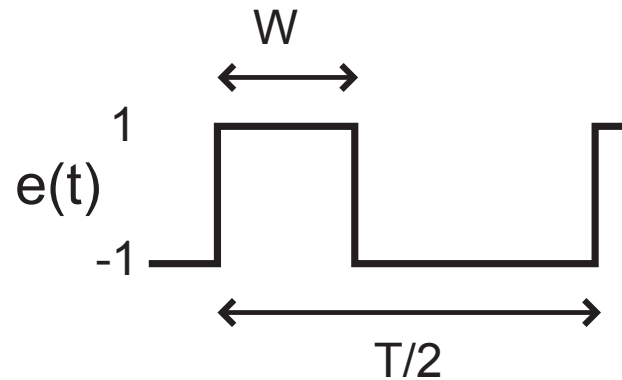
- XOR structure

- Average value of error pulses corresponds to phase error
- Loop filter extracts the average value and feeds to VCO



Modeling of XOR Phase Detector

- Average value of pulses is extracted by loop filter
 - Look at detector output over one cycle:

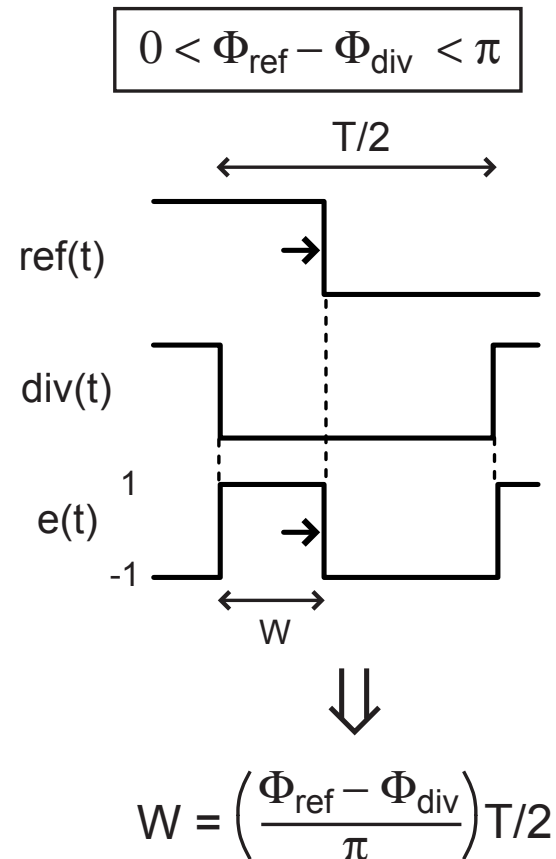
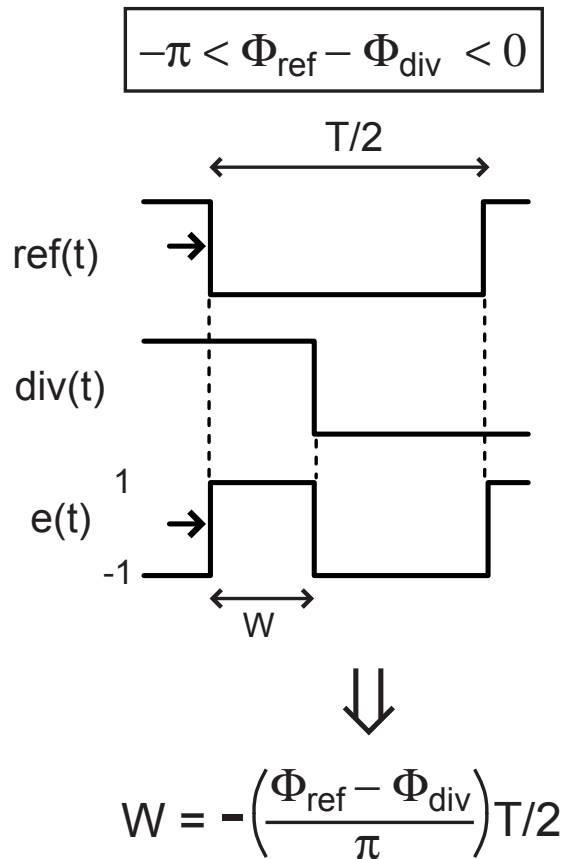


- Equation:

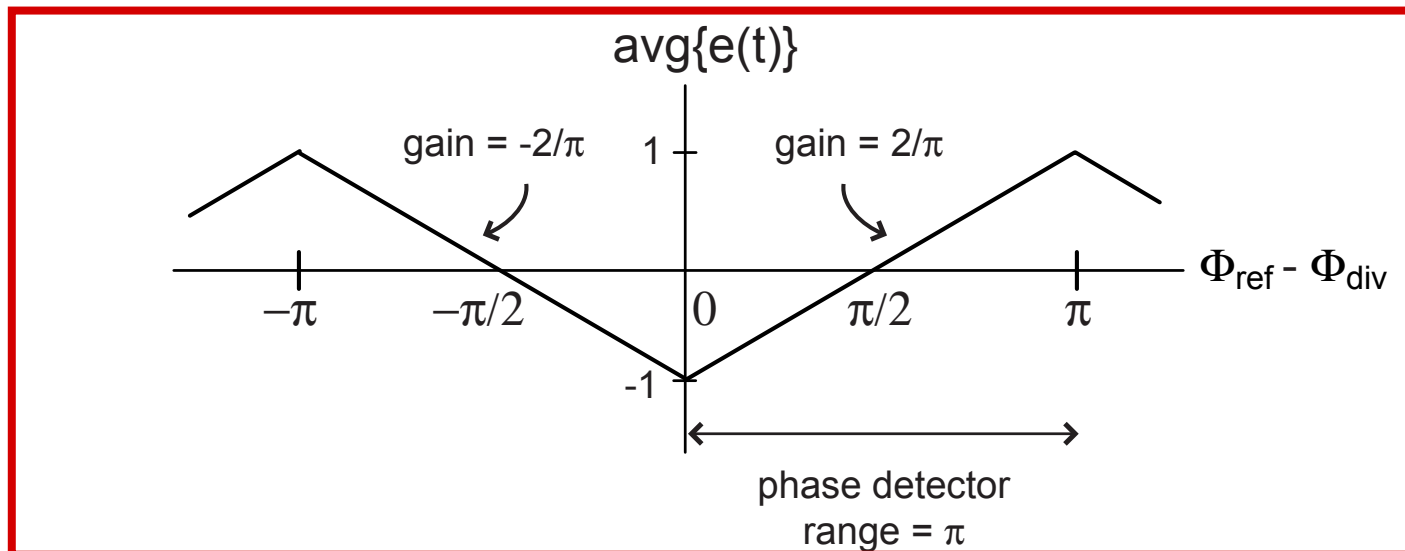
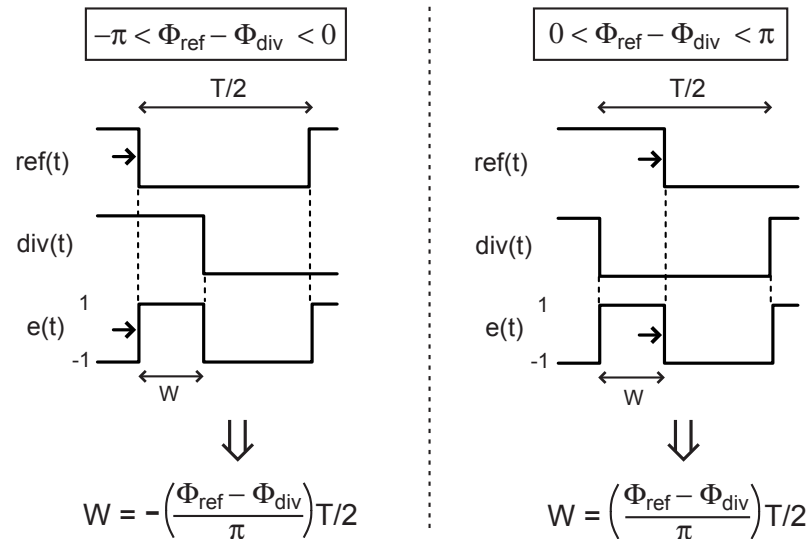
$$\text{avg}\{e(t)\} = -1 + 2\frac{W}{T/2}$$

Relate Pulse Width to Phase Error

- Two cases:

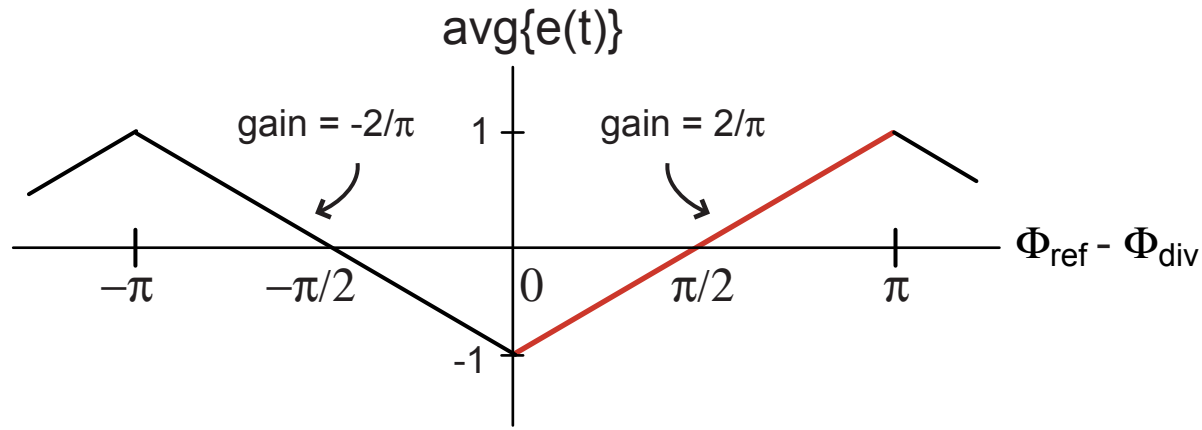


Overall XOR Phase Detector Characteristic

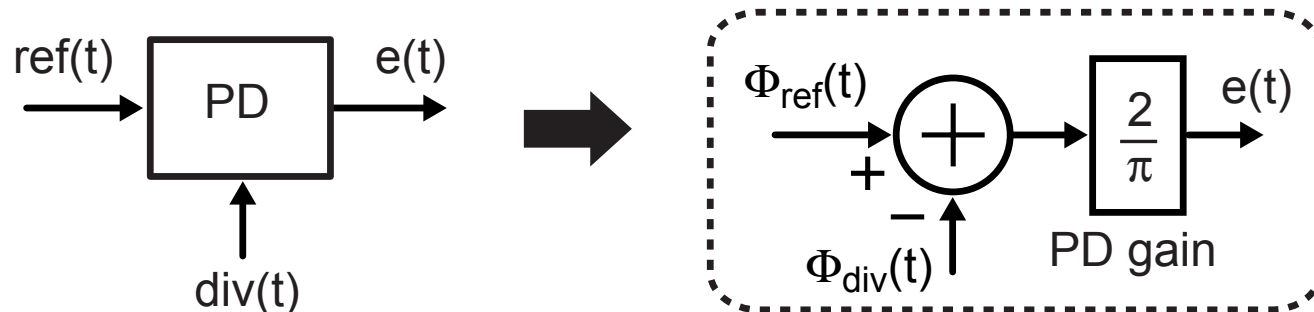


Frequency-Domain Model of XOR Phase Detector

- Assume phase difference confined within 0 to π radians
 - Phase detector characteristic looks like a constant gain element



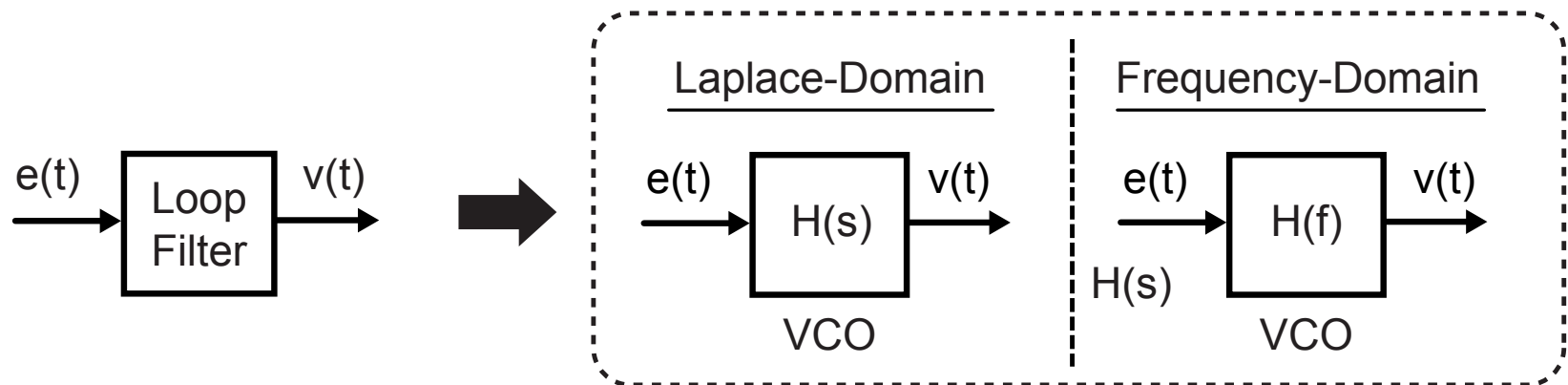
- Corresponding frequency-domain model



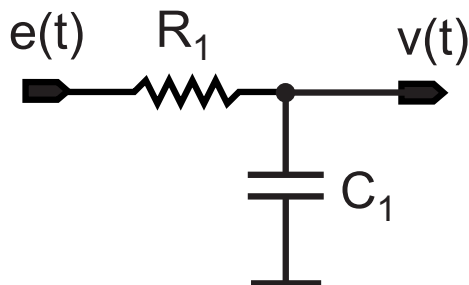
Loop Filter

Loop Filter

- Consists of a lowpass filter to extract average of phase detector error pulses
- Frequency-domain model



- First order example



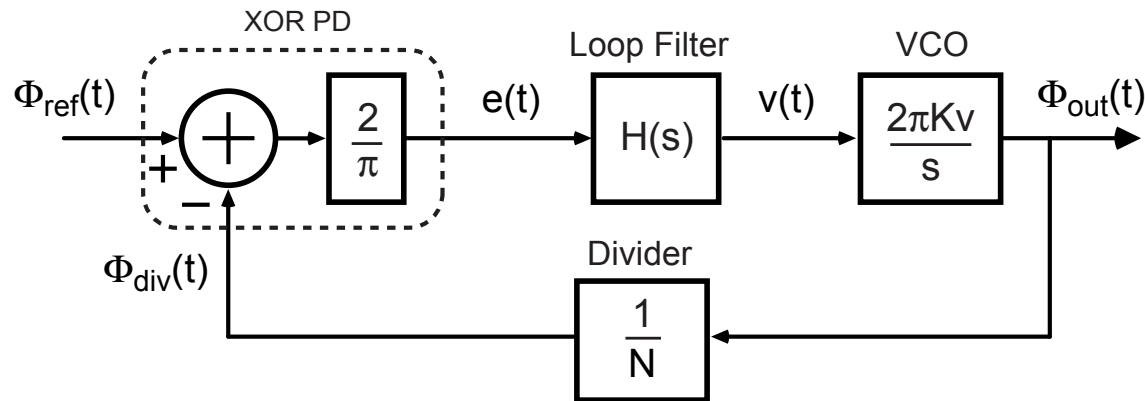
$$\Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{1}{1 + sR_1C_1}$$

Integer-N Frequency Synthesizers

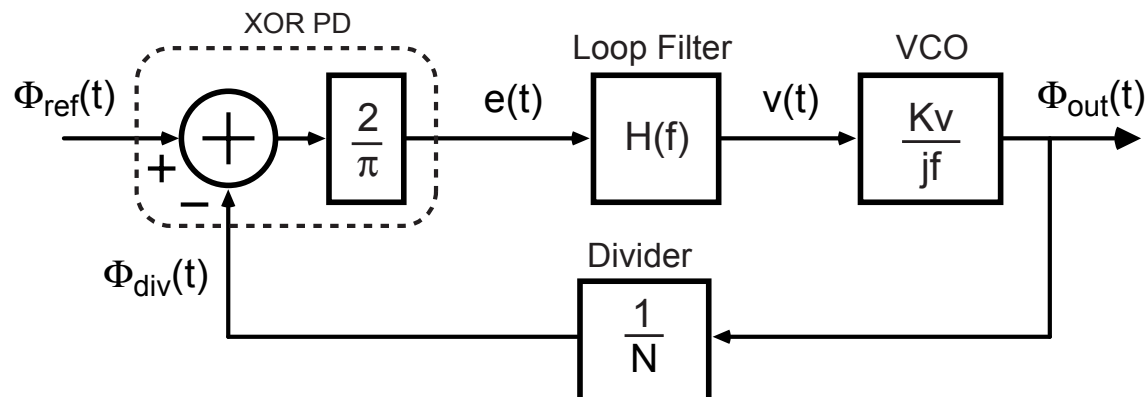
Overall Linearized PLL Frequency-Domain Model

- Combine models of individual components

Laplace-Domain Model

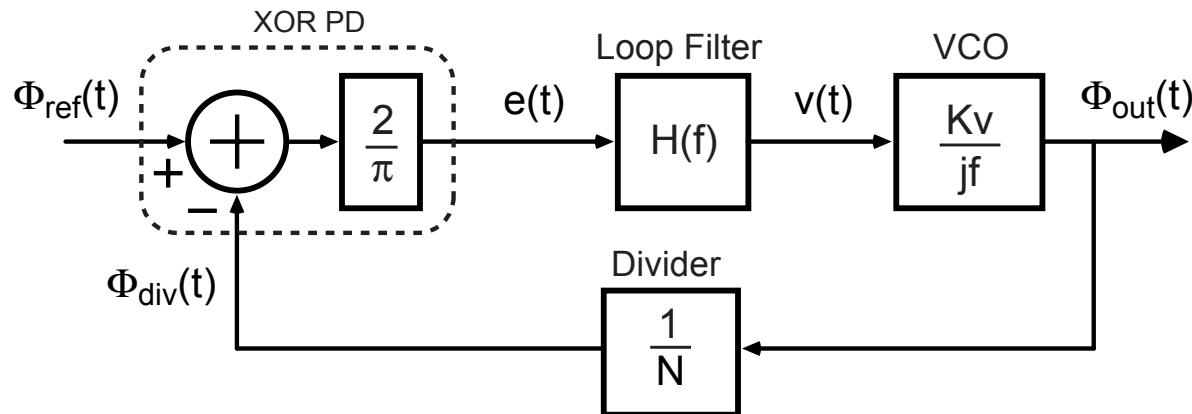


Frequency-Domain Model



Open Loop versus Closed Loop Response

- Frequency-domain model



- Define $A(f)$ as open loop response

$$A(f) = \frac{2}{\pi} H(f) \left(\frac{K_v}{jf} \right) \frac{1}{N}$$

- Define $G(f)$ as a parameterizing function (related to closed loop response)

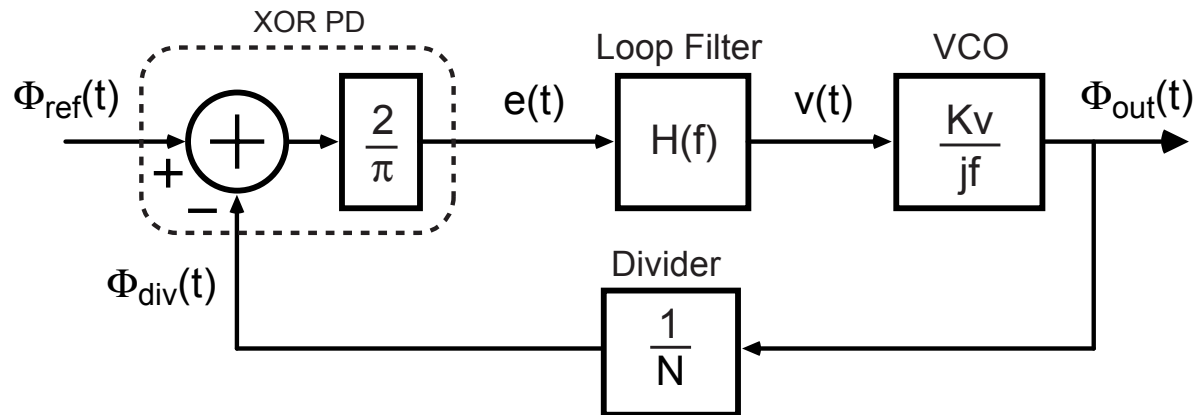
$$G(f) = \frac{A(f)}{1 + A(f)}$$

Classical PLL Transfer Function Design Approach

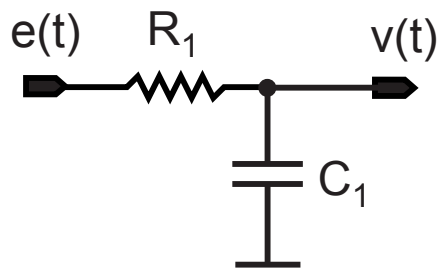
1. Choose an appropriate topology for $H(f)$
 - Usually chosen from a small set of possibilities
2. Choose pole/zero values for $H(f)$ as appropriate for the required filtering of the phase detector output
 - Constraint: set pole/zero locations higher than desired PLL bandwidth to allow stable dynamics to be possible
3. Adjust the open-loop gain to achieve the required bandwidth while maintaining stability
 - Plot gain and phase bode plots of $A(f)$
 - Use phase (or gain) margin criterion to infer stability

Example: First Order Loop Filter

Overall PLL block diagram

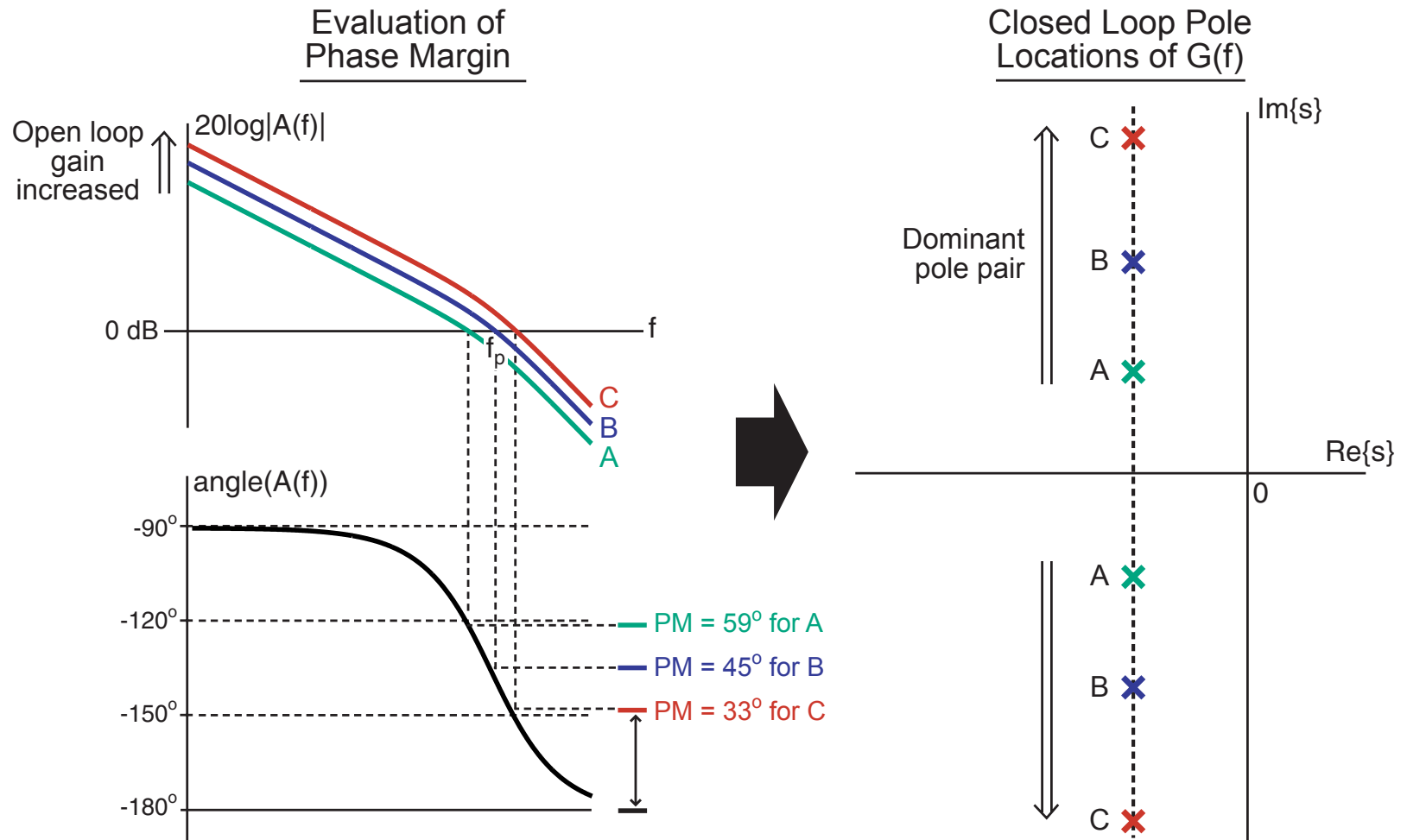


Loop filter



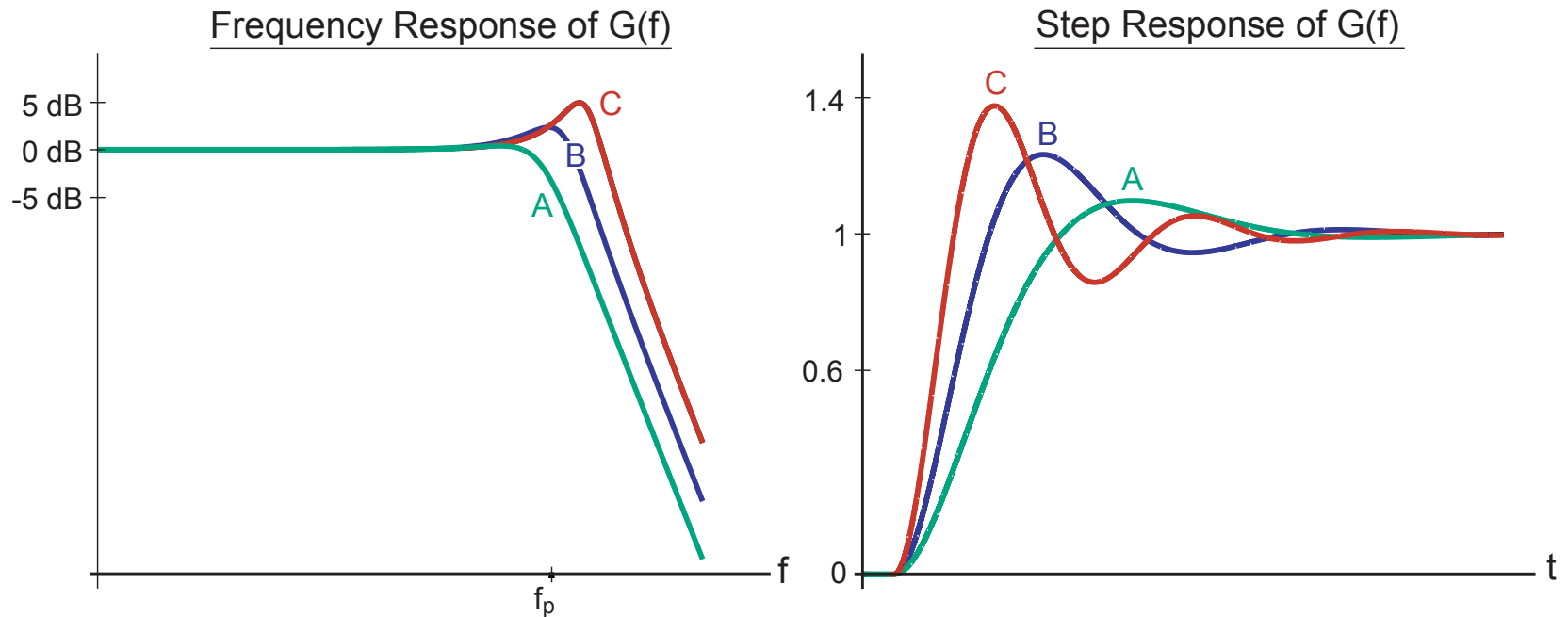
$$\Rightarrow H(f) = \frac{1}{1 + jf/f_p}$$

Closed Loop Poles Versus Open Loop Gain



- Higher open loop gain leads to an increase in Q of closed loop poles

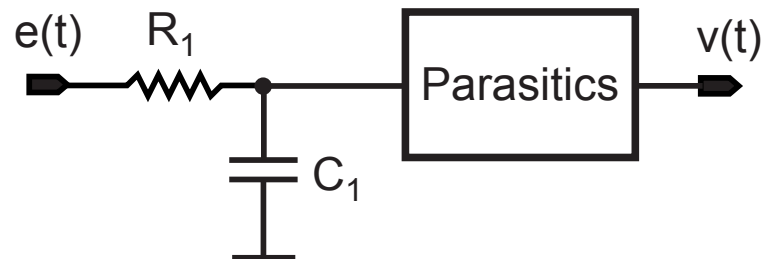
Corresponding Closed Loop Response



- Increase in open loop gain leads to
 - Peaking in closed loop frequency response
 - Ringing in closed loop step response

The Impact of Parasitic Poles

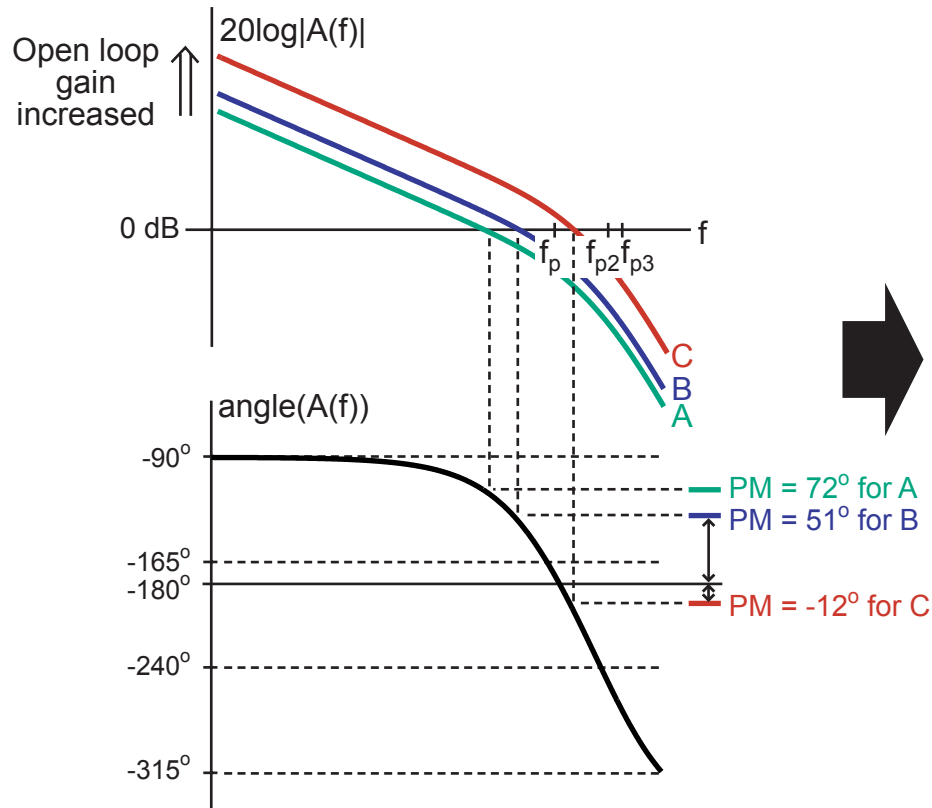
- Loop filter and VCO may have additional parasitic poles and zeros due to their circuit implementation
- We can model such parasitics by including them in the loop filter transfer function
- Example: add two parasitic poles to first order filter



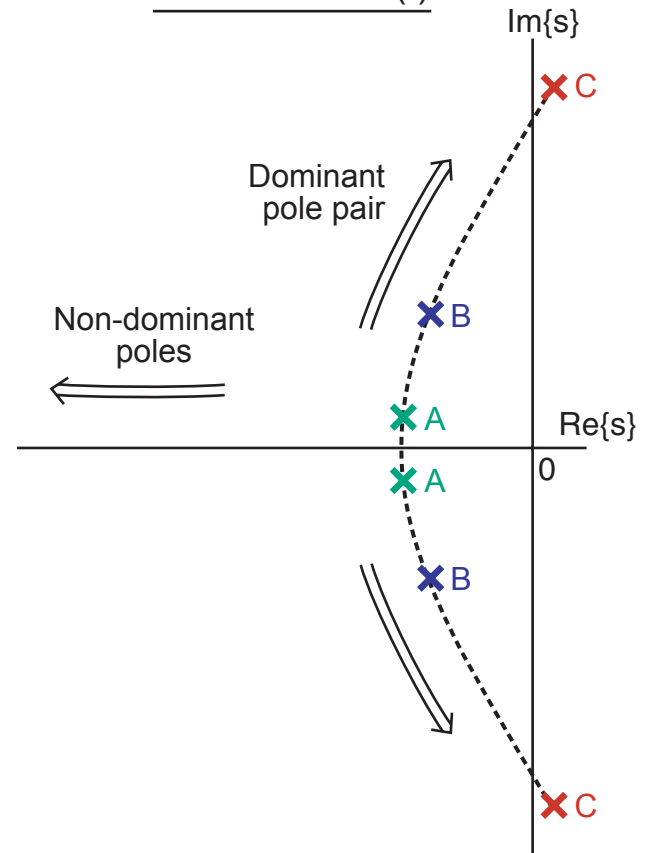
$$\Rightarrow H(f) = \left(\frac{1}{1 + jf/f_1} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 + jf/f_2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 + jf/f_3} \right)$$

Closed Loop Poles Versus Open Loop Gain

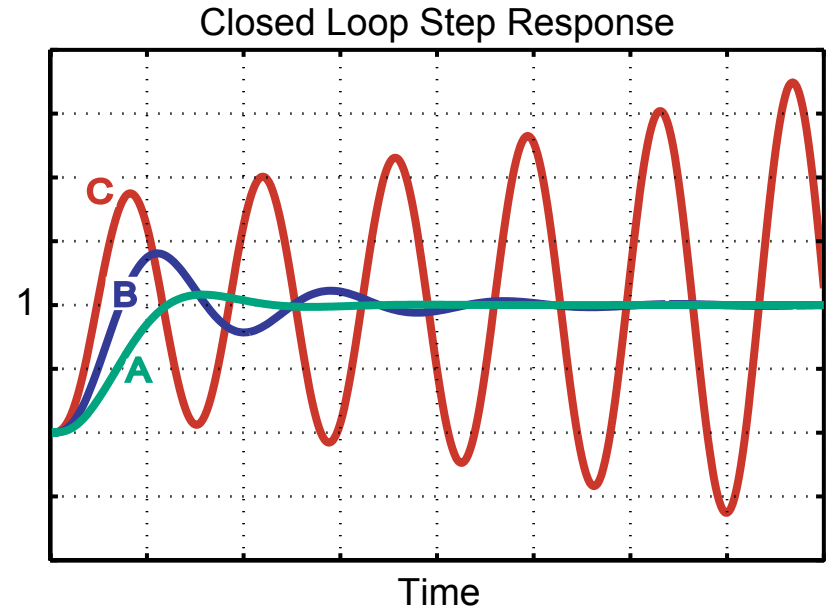
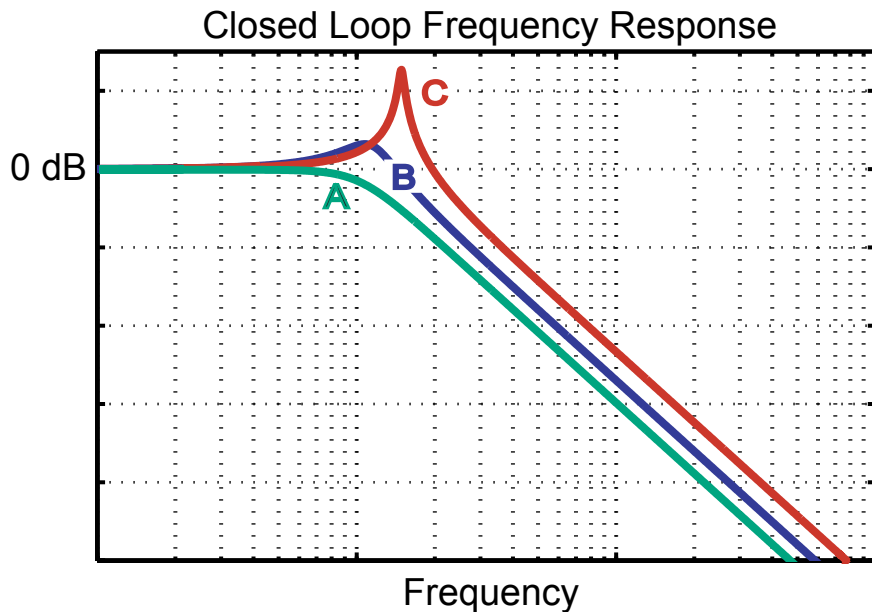
Evaluation of Phase Margin



Closed Loop Pole Locations of $G(f)$

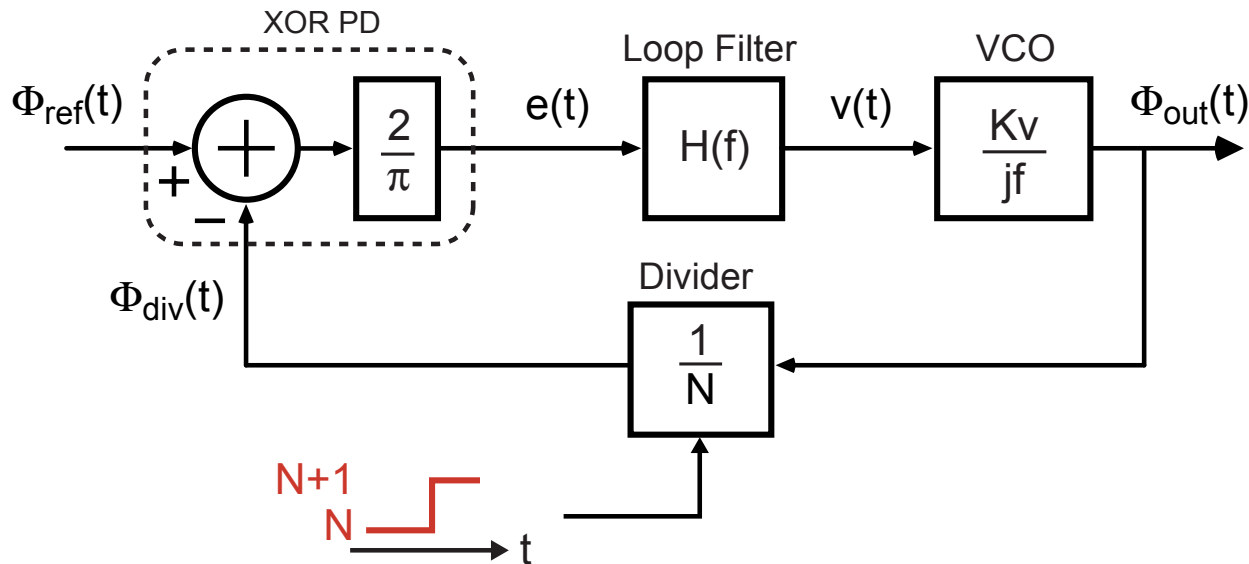


Corresponding Closed Loop Response



- **Increase in open loop gain now eventually leads to instability**
 - Large peaking in closed loop frequency response
 - Increasing amplitude in closed loop step response

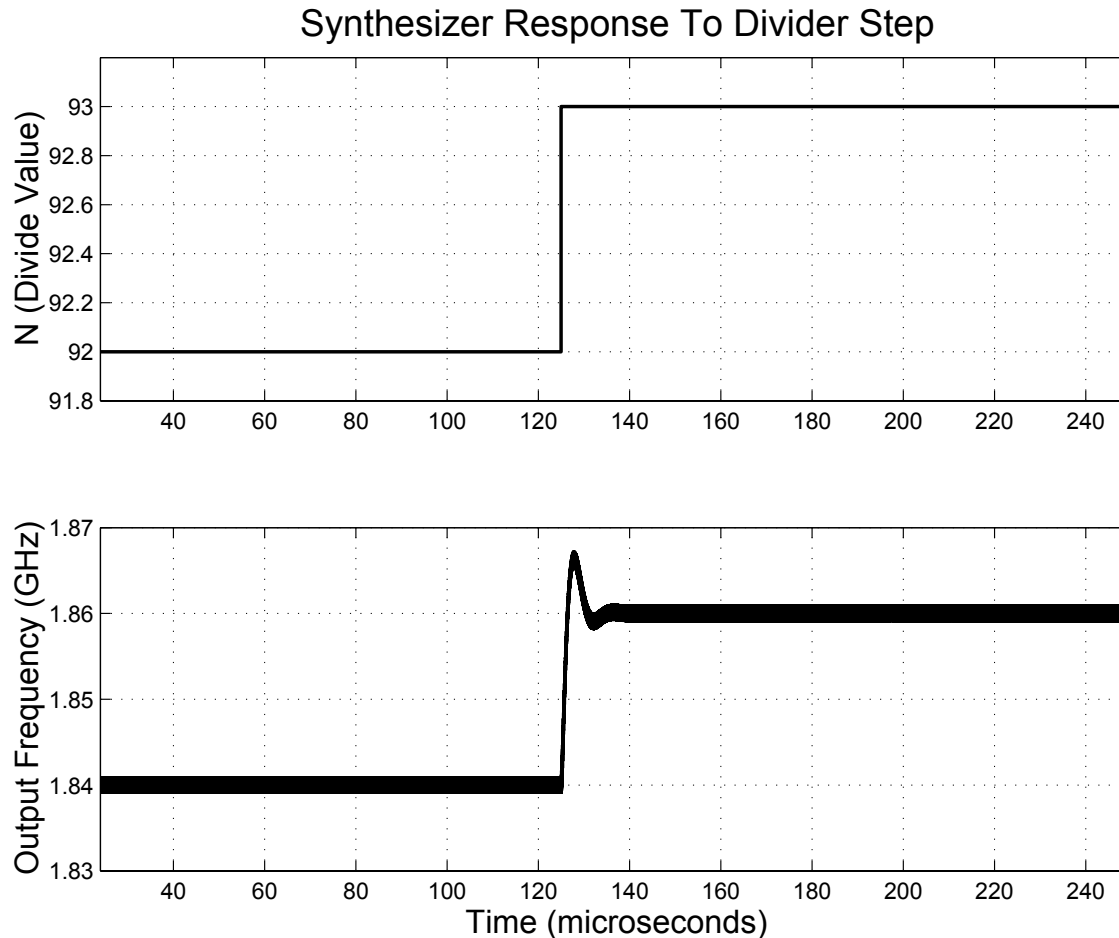
Response of PLL to Divide Value Changes



- Change in output frequency achieved by changing the divide value
- Classical approach provides no direct model of impact of divide value variations
 - Treat divide value variation as a perturbation to a linear system
 - PLL responds according to its closed loop response

Response of an Actual PLL to Divide Value Change

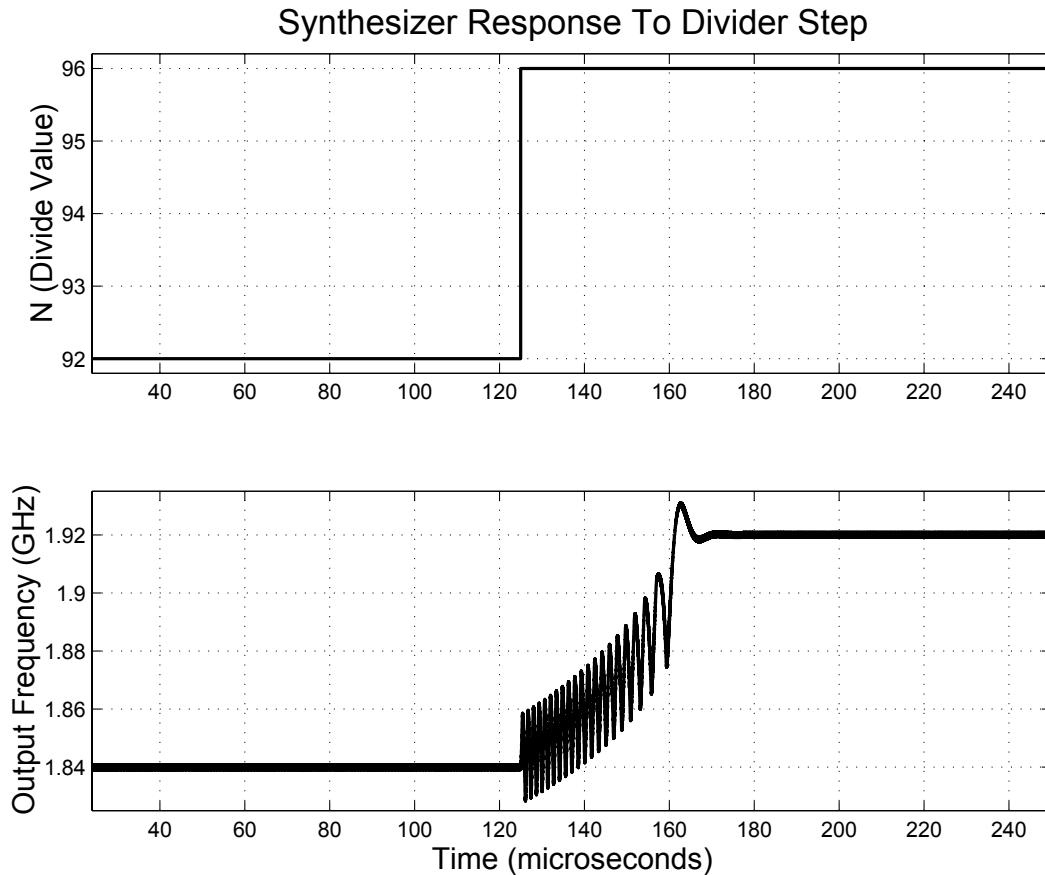
- Example: Change divide value by one



■ PLL responds according to closed loop response!

What Happens with Large Divide Value Variations?

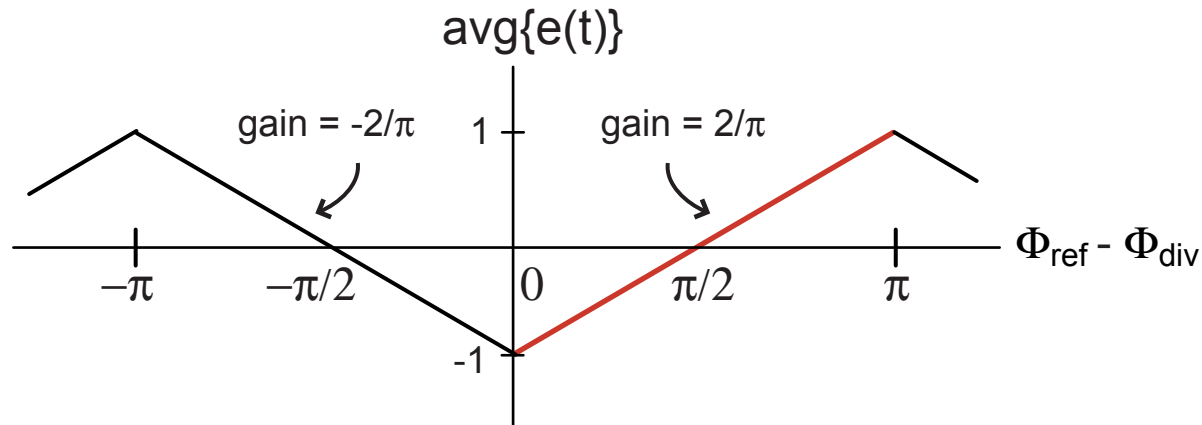
- PLL temporarily loses frequency lock (cycle slipping occurs)



— Why does this happen?

M.H. Perrott

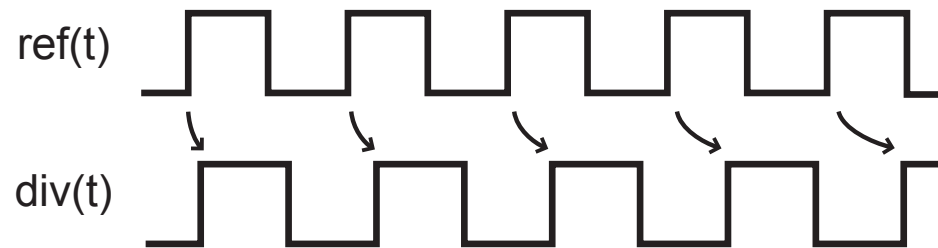
Recall Phase Detector Characteristic



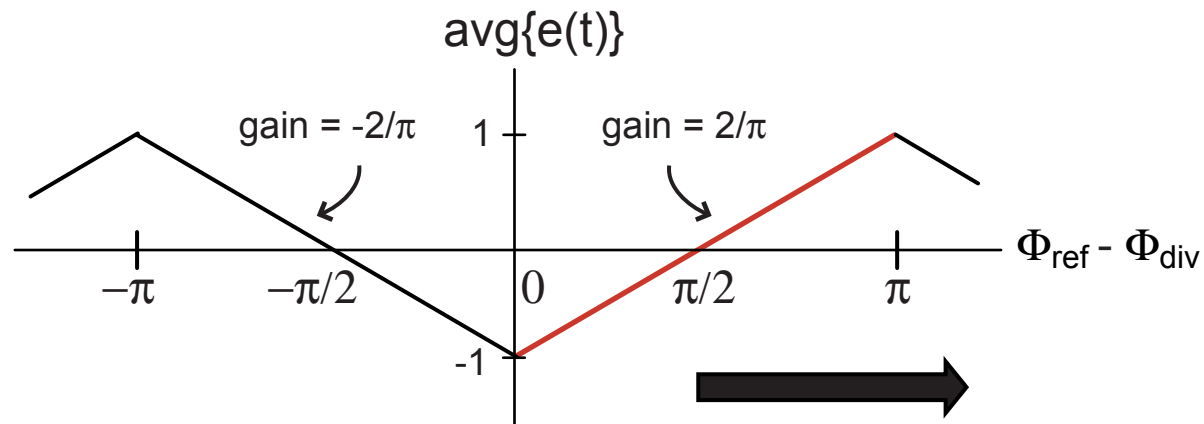
- To simplify modeling, we assumed that we always operated in a confined phase range (0 to π)
 - Led to a simple PD model
- Large perturbations knock us out of that confined phase range
 - PD behavior varies depending on the phase range it happens to be in

Cycle Slipping

- Consider the case where there is a frequency offset between divider output and reference
 - We know that phase difference will accumulate

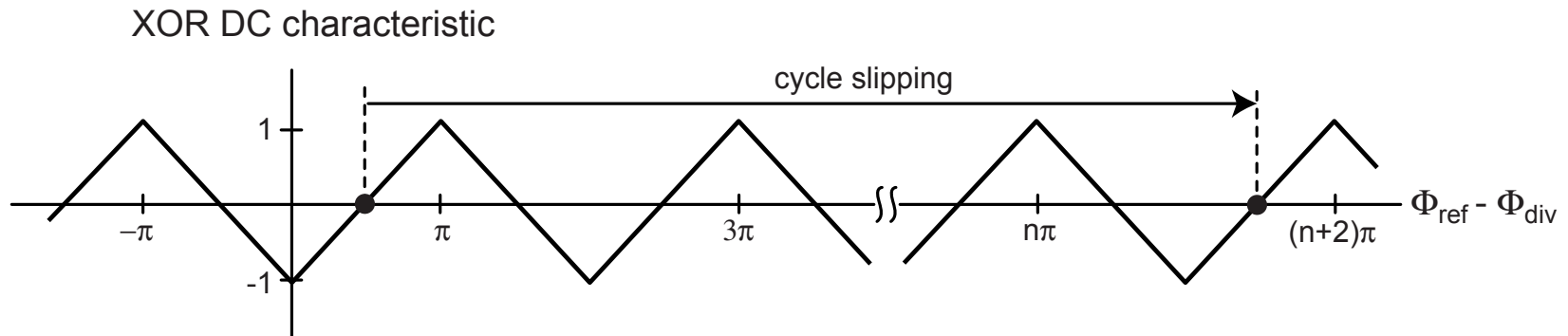


- Resulting ramp in phase causes PD characteristic to be swept across its different regions (cycle slipping)



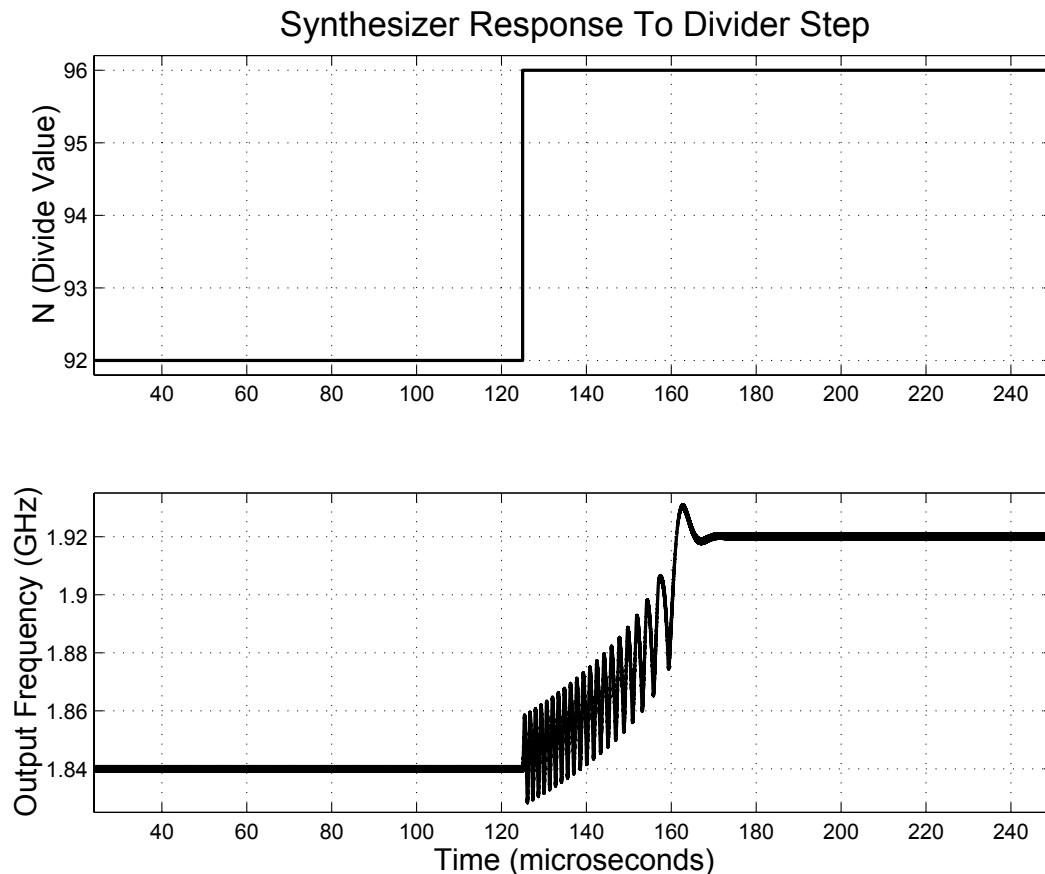
Impact of Cycle Slipping

- Loop filter averages out phase detector output
- Severe cycle slipping causes phase detector to alternate between regions very quickly
 - Average value of XOR characteristic can be close to zero
 - PLL frequency oscillates according to cycle slipping
 - In severe cases, PLL will not re-lock
 - PLL has finite frequency lock-in range!



Back to PLL Response Shown Previously

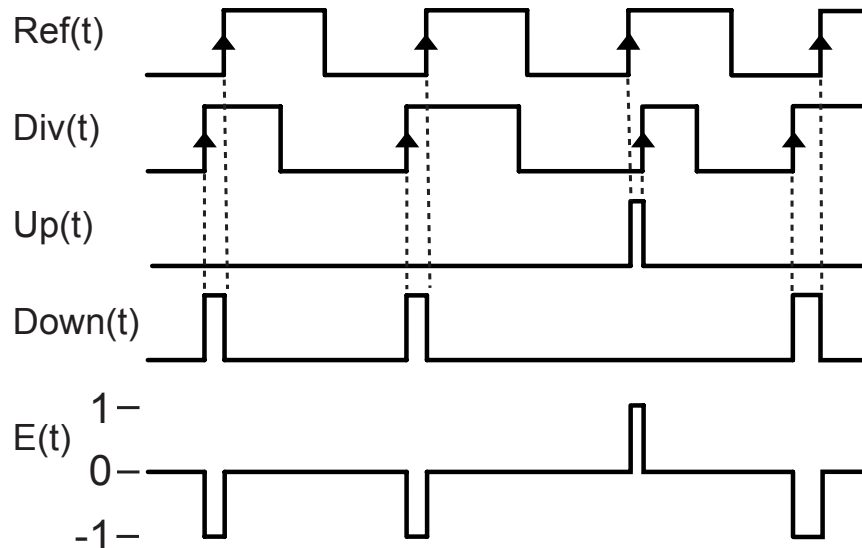
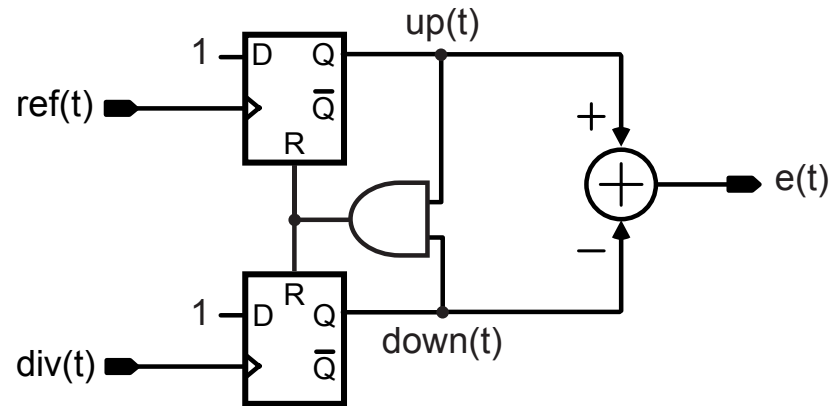
- PLL output frequency indeed oscillates
 - Eventually locks when frequency difference is small enough



- How do we extend the frequency lock-in range?

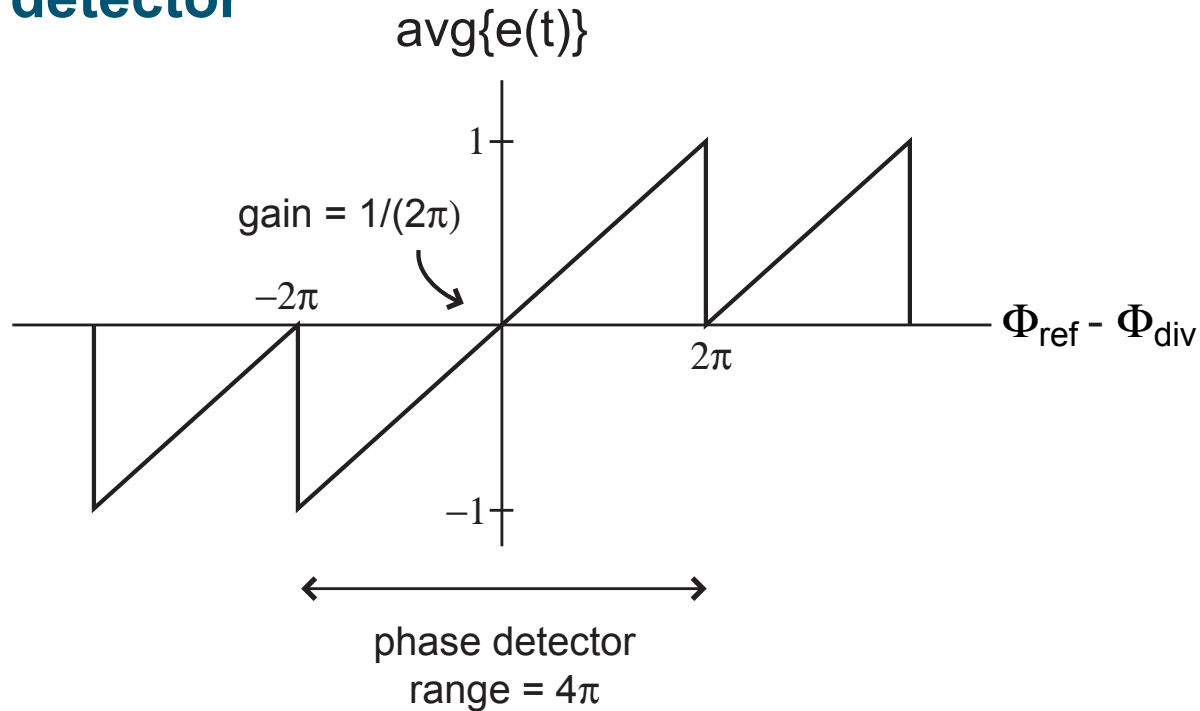
Phase Frequency Detectors (PFD)

■ Example: Tristate PFD



Tristate PFD Characteristic

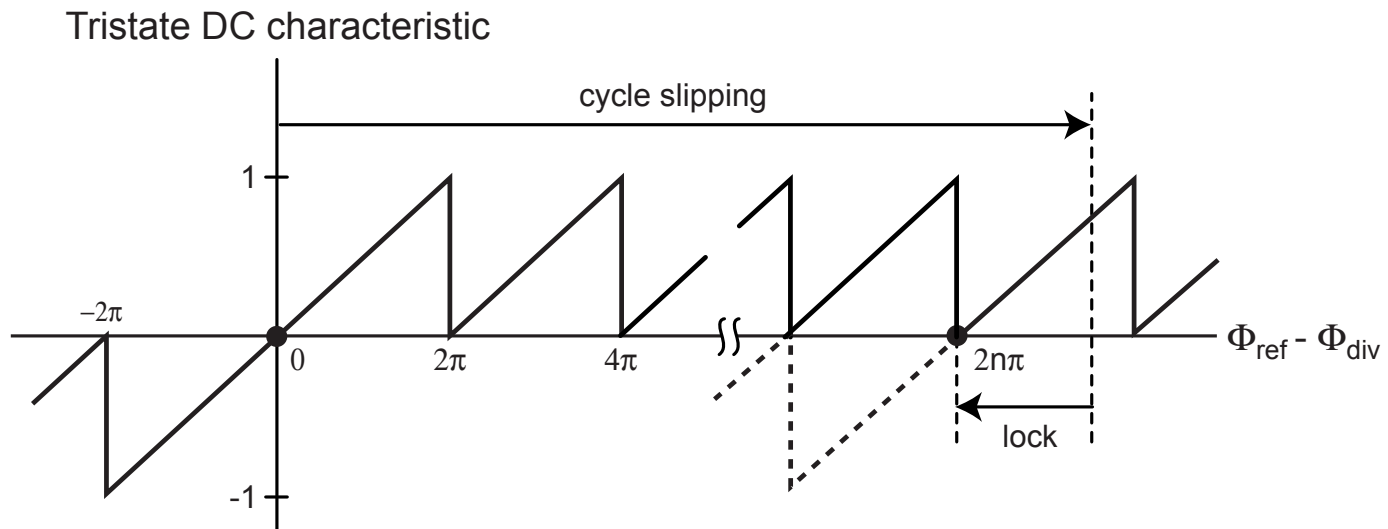
- Calculate using similar approach as used for XOR phase detector



- Note that phase error characteristic is asymmetric about zero phase
 - Key attribute for enabling frequency detection

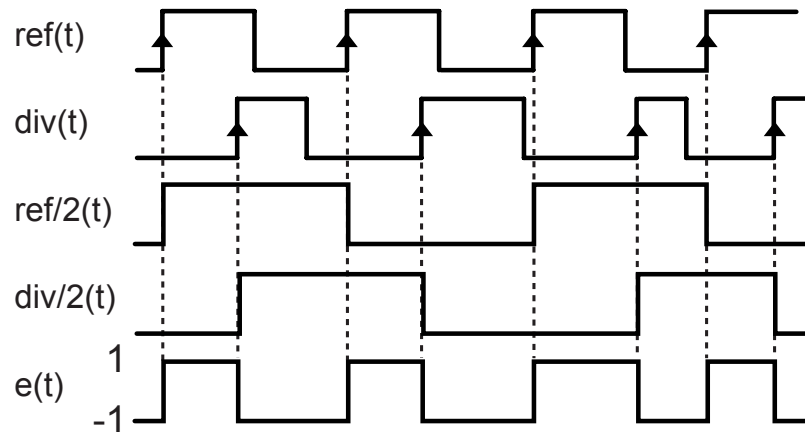
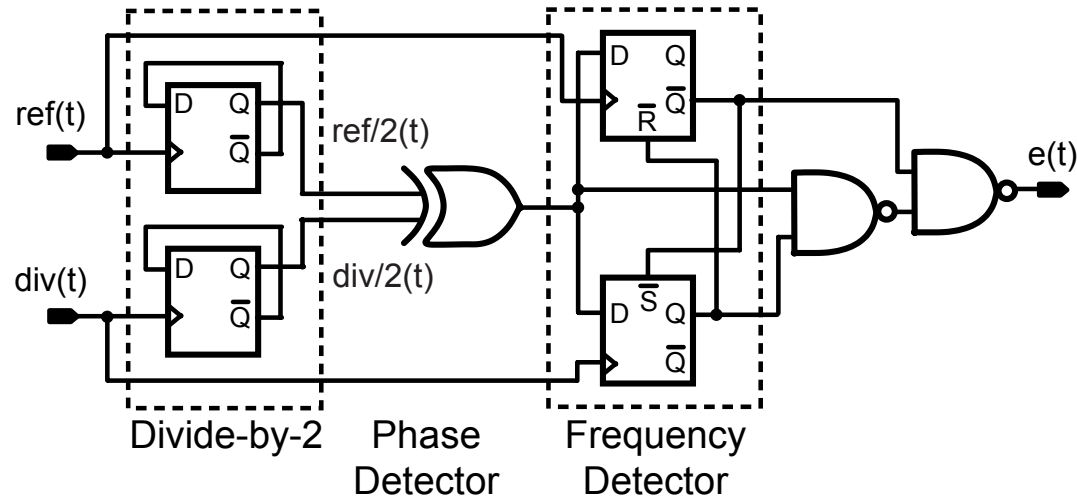
PFD Enables PLL to Always Regain Frequency Lock

- **Asymmetric phase error characteristic allows positive frequency differences to be distinguished from negative frequency differences**
 - Average value is now positive or negative according to sign of frequency offset
 - PLL will always relock



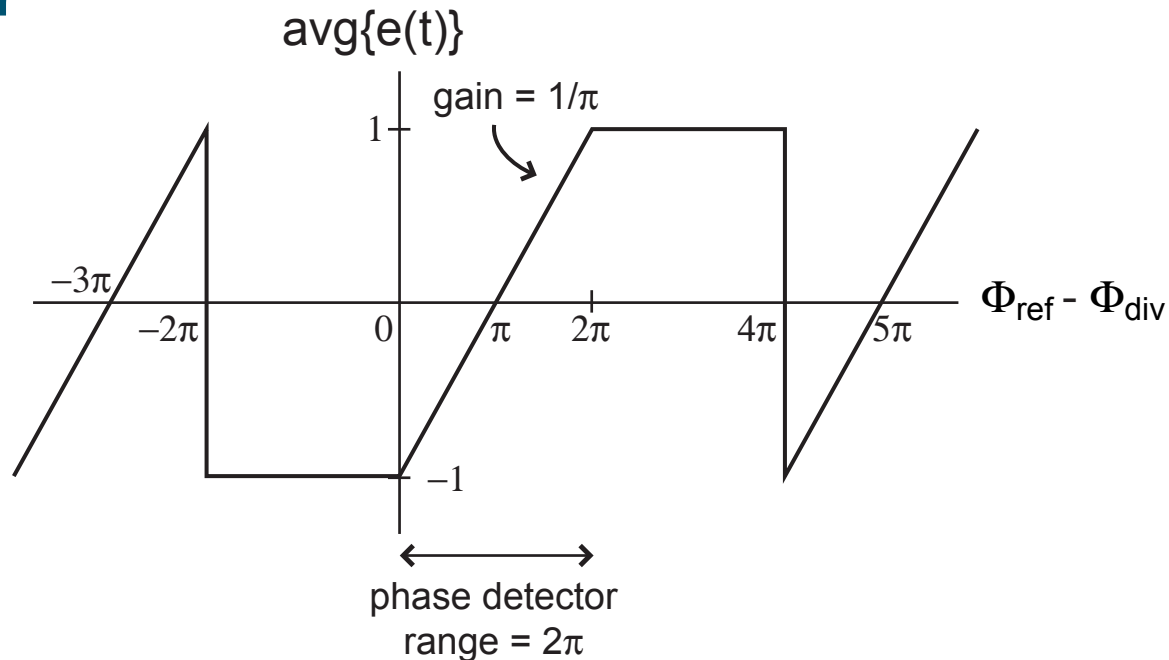
Another PFD Structure

■ XOR-based PFD



XOR-based PFD Characteristic

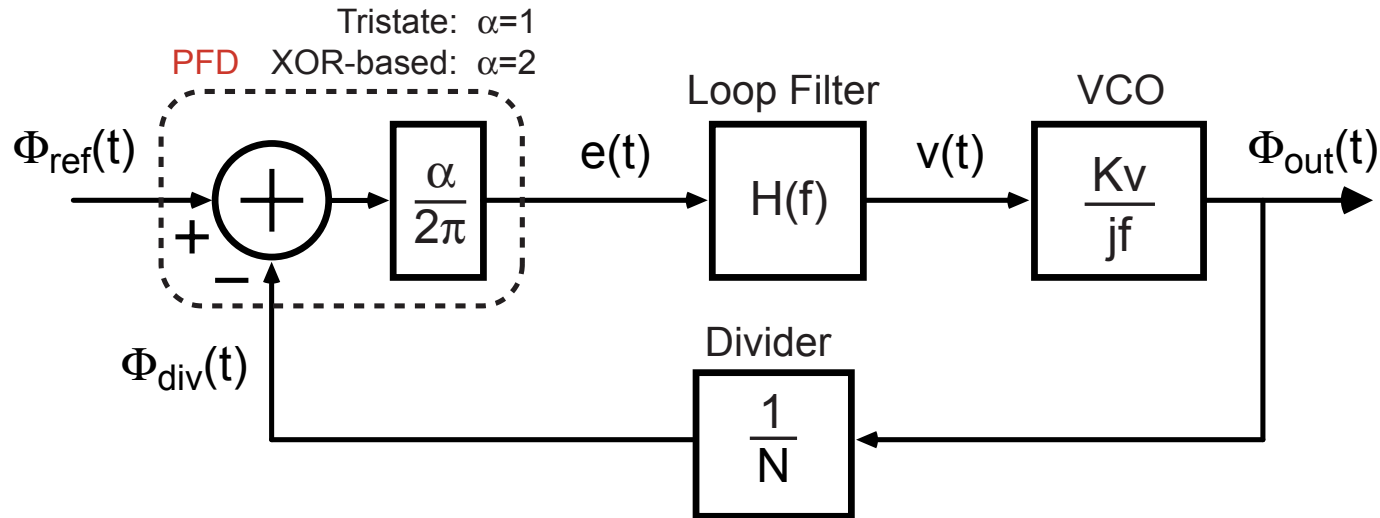
- Calculate using similar approach as used for XOR phase detector



- Phase error characteristic asymmetric about zero phase
 - Average value of phase error is positive or negative during cycle slipping depending on sign of frequency error

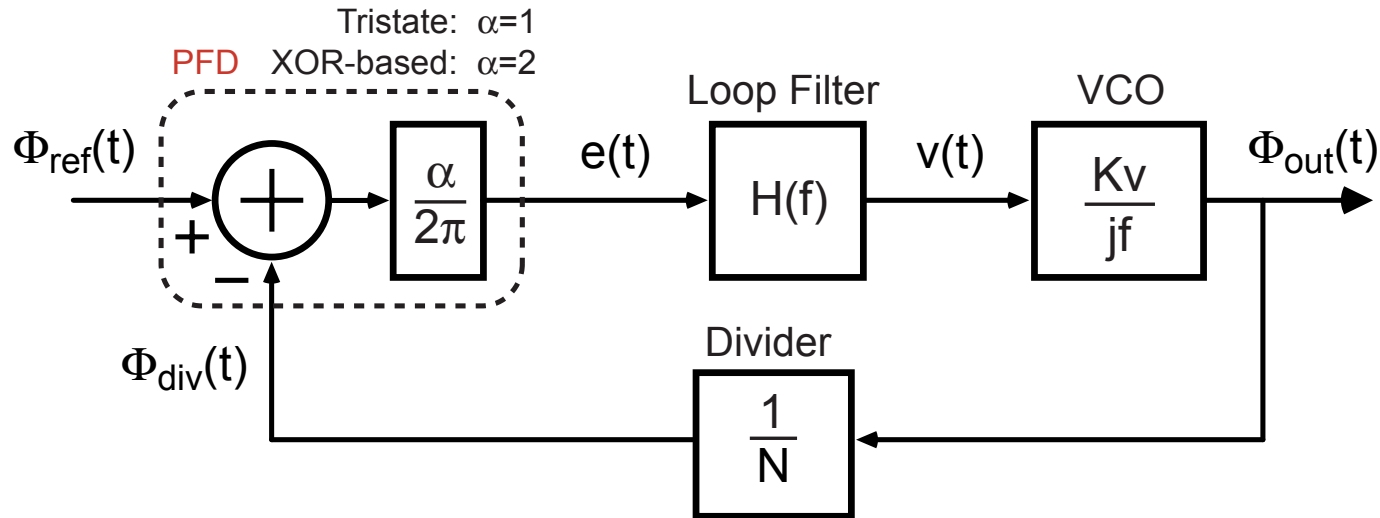
Linearized PLL Model With PFD Structures

- Assume that when PLL in lock, phase variations are within the linear range of PFD
 - Simulate impact of cycle slipping if desired (do not include its effect in model)
- Same frequency-domain PLL model as before, but PFD gain depends on topology used



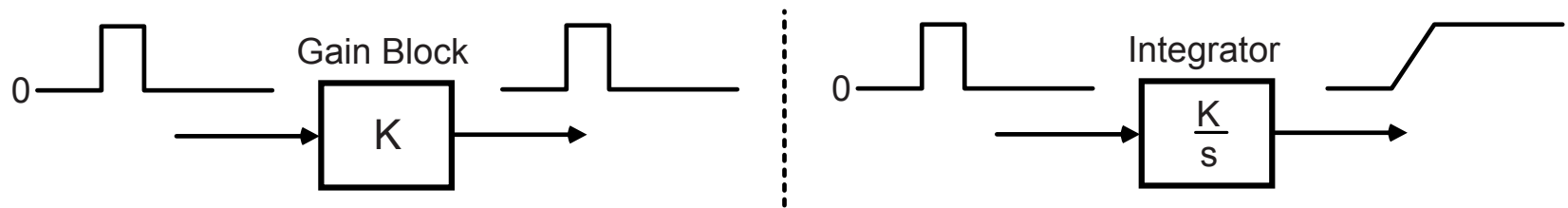
Type I versus Type II PLL Implementations

- **Type I: one integrator in PLL open loop transfer function**
 - VCO adds on integrator
 - Loop filter, $H(f)$, has no integrators
- **Type II: two integrators in PLL open loop transfer function**
 - Loop filter, $H(f)$, has one integrator



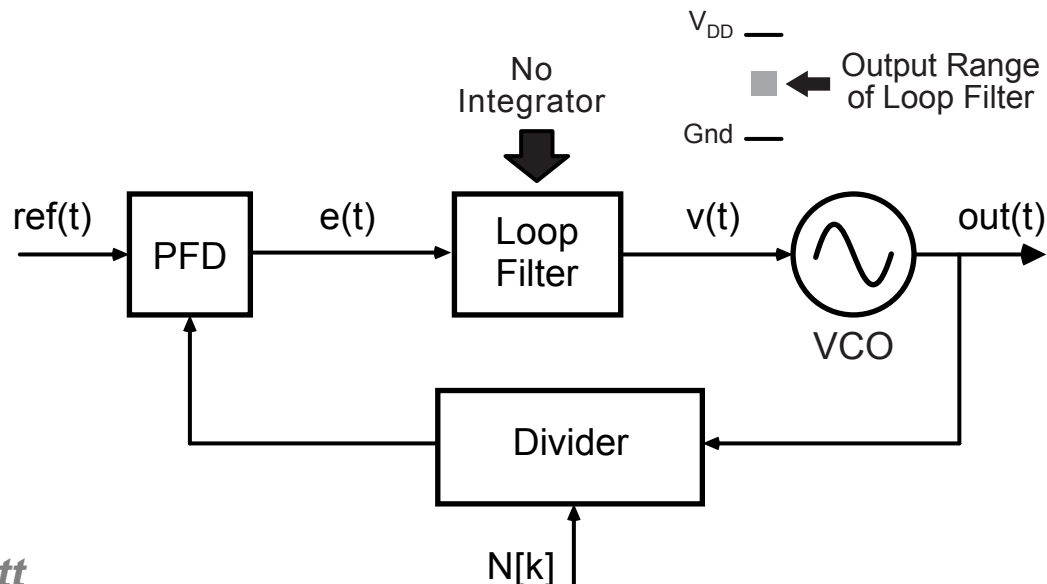
VCO Input Range Issue for Type I PLL Implementations

- DC output range of gain block versus integrator



- Issue: DC gain of loop filter often small and PFD output range is limited

- Loop filter output fails to cover full input range of VCO



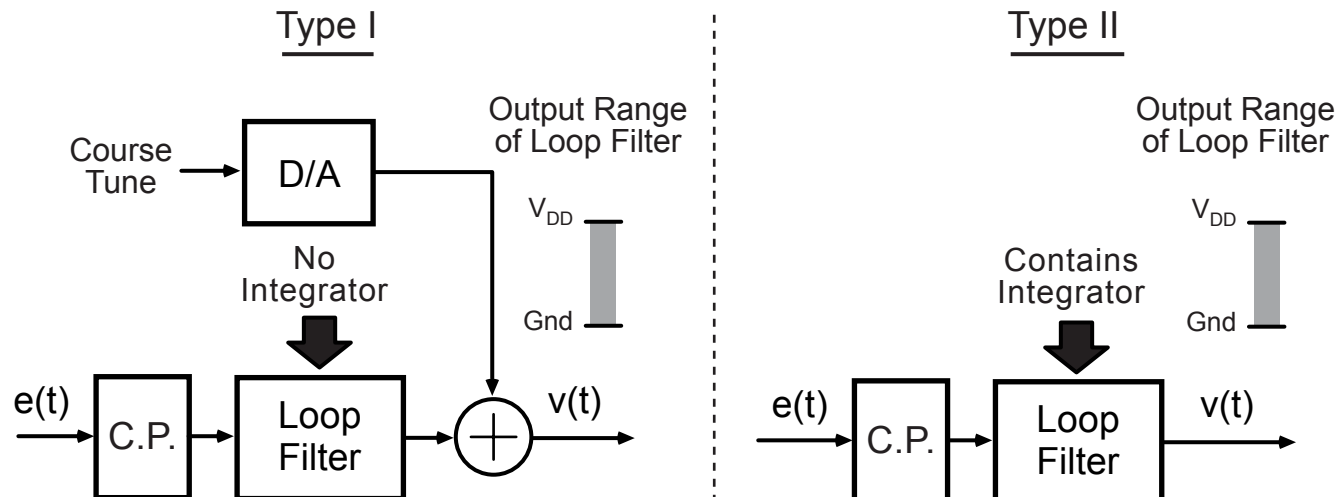
Options for Achieving Full Range Span of VCO

■ Type I

- Add a D/A converter to provide coarse tuning
 - Adds complexity
 - Steady-state phase error inconsistently set

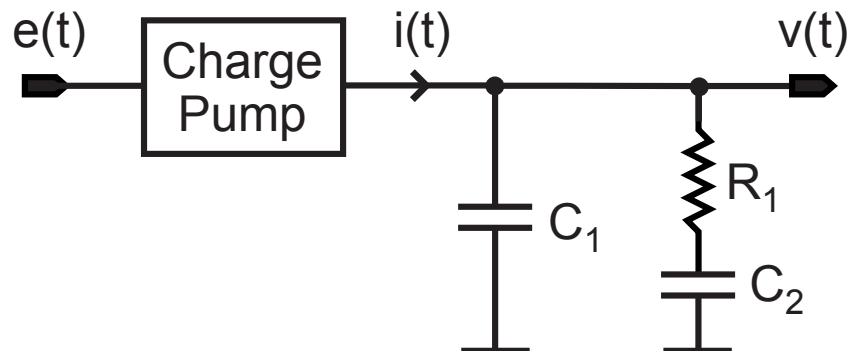
■ Type II

- Integrator automatically provides DC level shifting
 - Low power and simple implementation
 - Steady-state phase error always set to zero



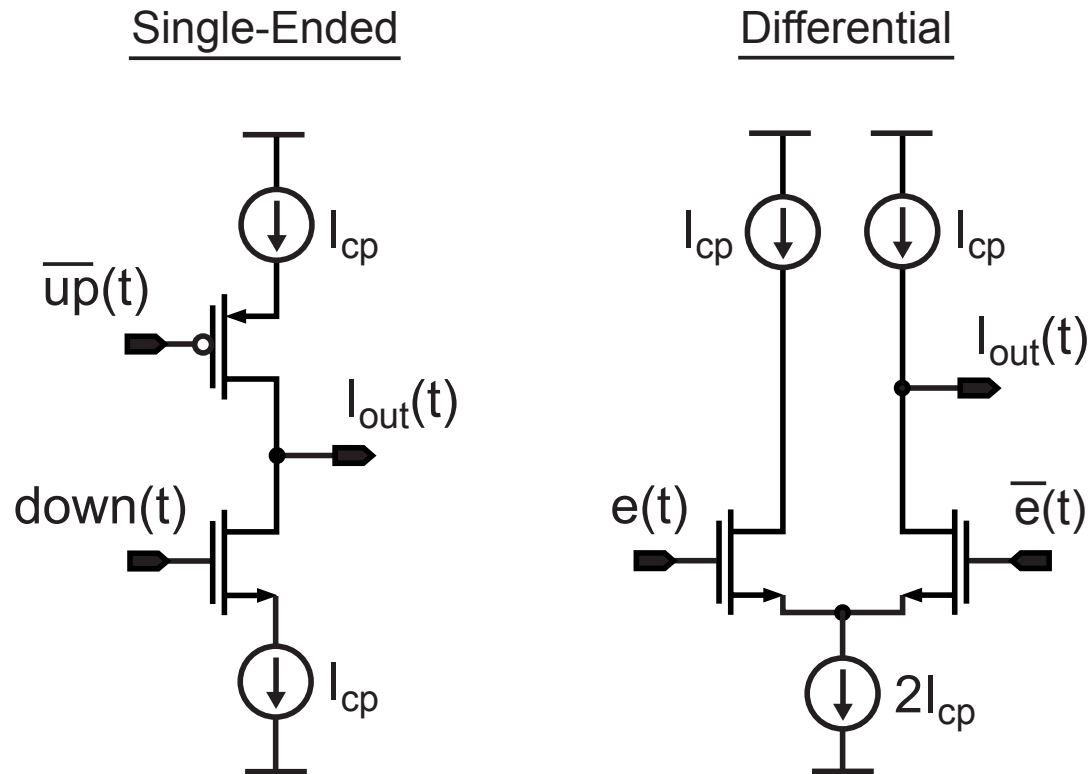
A Common Loop Filter for Type II PLL Implementation

- Use a charge pump to create the integrator
 - Current onto a capacitor forms integrator
 - Add extra pole/zero using resistor and capacitor
- Gain of loop filter can be adjusted according to the value of the charge pump current
- Example: lead/lag network



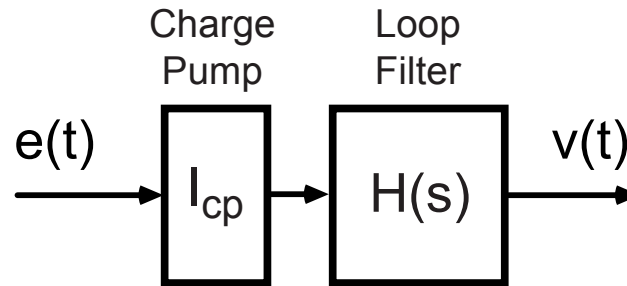
Charge Pump Implementations

- Switch currents in and out:



Modeling of Loop Filter/Charge Pump

- Charge pump is gain element
- Loop filter forms transfer function



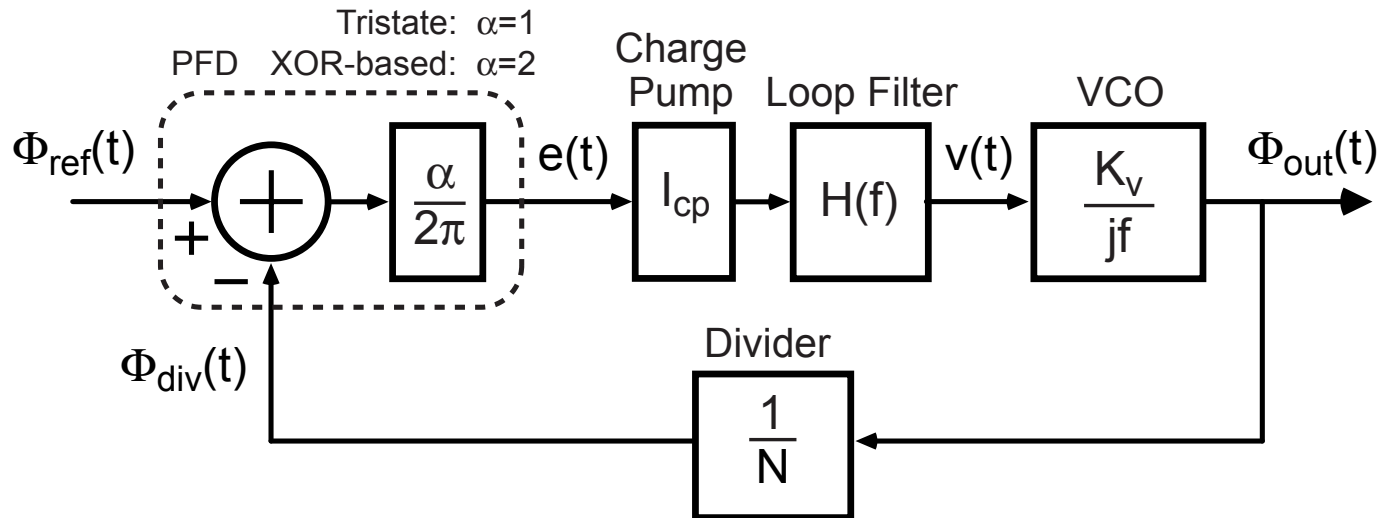
- Example: lead/lag network from previous slide

$$H(f) = \left(\frac{1}{sC_{sum}} \right) \frac{1 + jf/f_z}{1 + jf/f_p}$$

$$C_{sum} = C_1 + C_2, \quad f_z = \frac{1}{2\pi R_1 C_2}, \quad f_p = \frac{C_1 + C_2}{2\pi R_1 C_1 C_2}$$

PLL Design with Lead/Lag Filter

Overall PLL block diagram

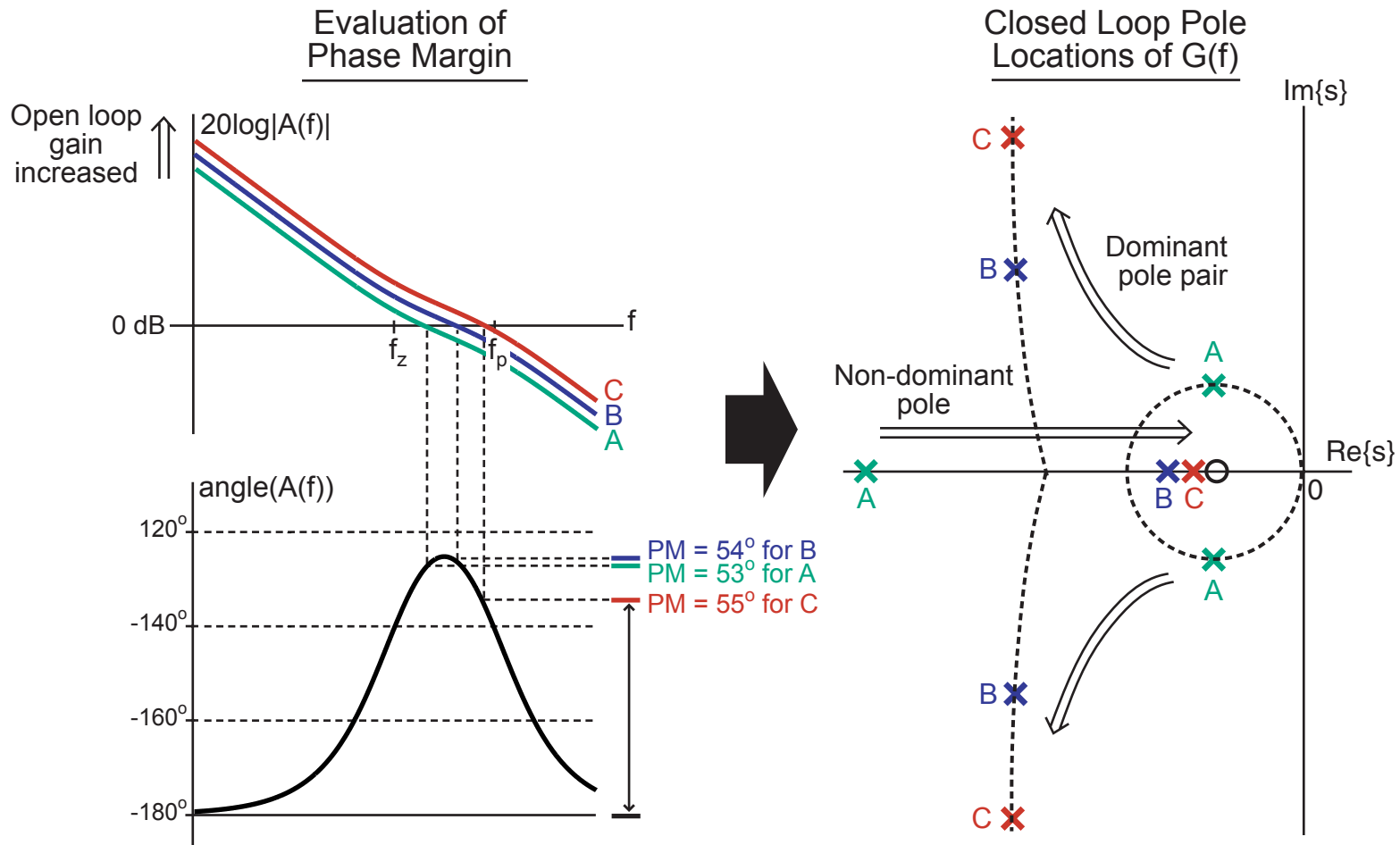


Loop filter

$$H(f) = \left(\frac{1}{sC_{sum}} \right) \frac{1 + jf/f_z}{1 + jf/f_p}$$

- Set open loop gain to achieve adequate phase margin
 - Set f_z lower than and f_p higher than desired PLL bandwidth

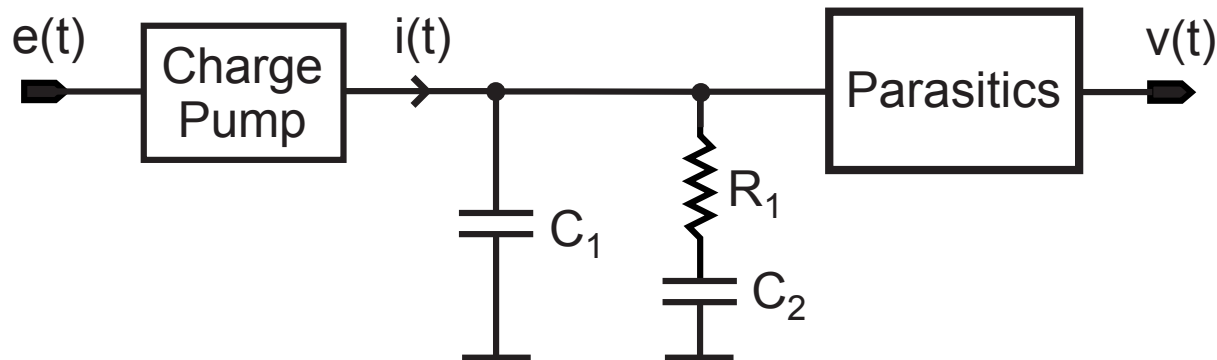
Closed Loop Poles Versus Open Loop Gain



- Open loop gain cannot be too low or too high if reasonable phase margin is desired

Impact of Parasitics When Lead/Lag Filter Used

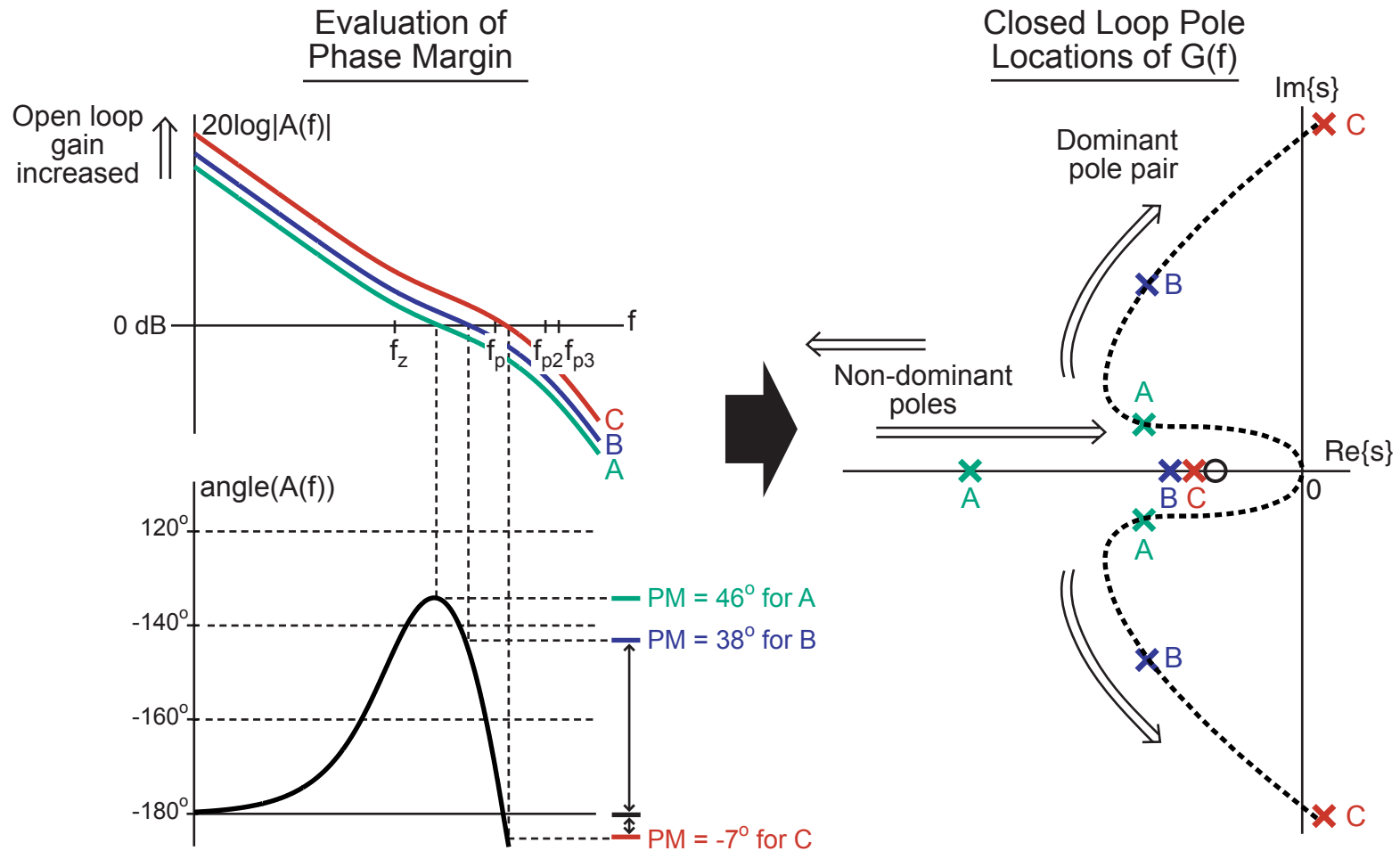
- We can again model impact of parasitics by including them in loop filter transfer function



- Example: include two parasitic poles with the lead/lag transfer function

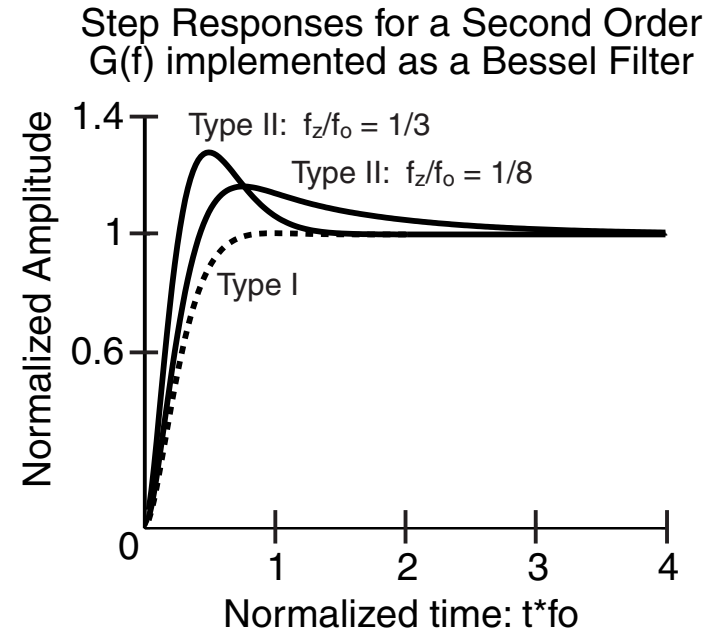
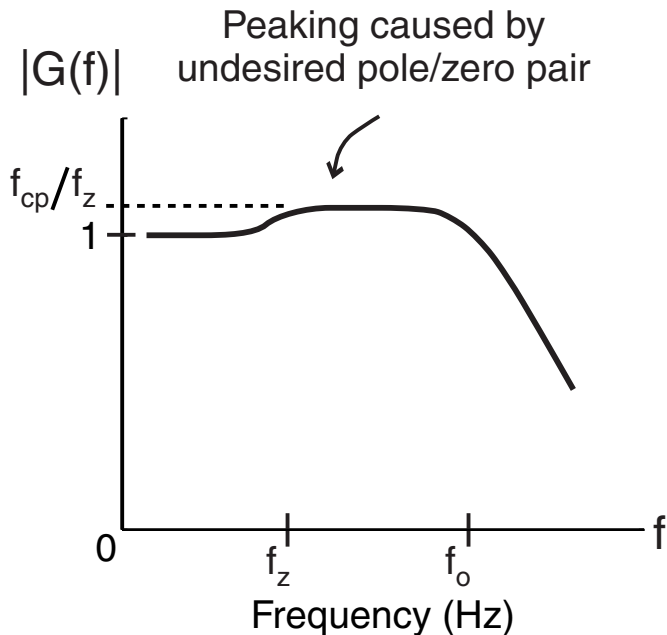
$$H(f) = \left(\frac{1}{sC_{sum}} \right) \frac{1 + jf/f_z}{1 + jf/f_p} \left(\frac{1}{1 + jf/f_{p2}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 + jf/f_{p3}} \right)$$

Closed Loop Poles Versus Open Loop Gain



- Closed loop response becomes unstable if open loop gain is too high

Negative Issues For Type II PLL Implementations



- **Parasitic pole/zero pair causes**
 - **Peaking in the closed loop frequency response**
 - A big issue for CDR systems, but not too bad for wireless
 - **Extended settling time due to parasitic “tail” response**
 - Bad for wireless systems demanding fast settling time