

LECTURE 120 – FILTERS AND CHARGE PUMPS

(READING: [4,6,9,10])

Objective

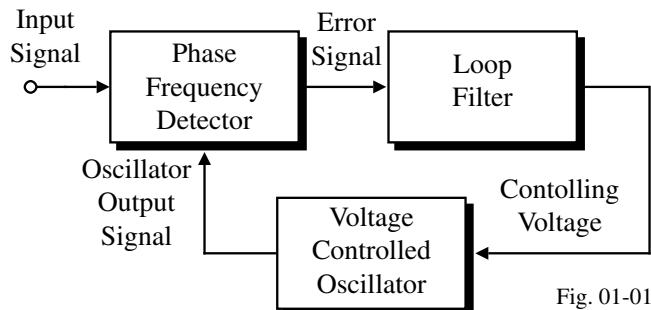
The objective of this presentation is examine the circuits aspects of loop filters and charge pumps suitable for PLLs in more detail.

Outline

- Filters
- Charge Pumps
- Summary

FILTERS

Why Does the PLL Need a Filter?

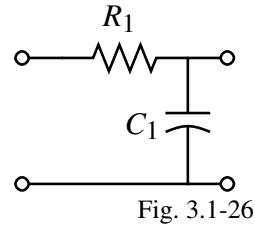


The loop filter is important to the performance of the PLL.

- 1.) Removes high frequency noise of the detector
- 2.) Influences the hold and capture ranges
- 3.) Influences the switching speed of the loop in lock.
- 4.) Easy way to change the dynamics of the PLL

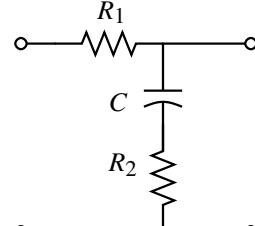
Passive Loop Filters

$$1.) F(s) = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + \frac{1}{sC_1}} = \frac{1}{sR_1C_1 + 1} = \frac{1}{1 + s\tau_1}, \quad \tau_1 = R_1C_1$$



$$2.) F(s) = \frac{R_2 + \frac{1}{sC}}{R_1 + R_2 + \frac{1}{sC}} = \frac{sCR_2 + 1}{sC(R_1 + R_2) + 1} = \left(\frac{1 + s\tau_2}{1 + s\tau_1} \right)$$

$$\tau_1 = C(R_1 + R_2) \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_2 = R_2C$$



Advantages:

- Linear
- Relatively low noise
- Unlimited frequency range

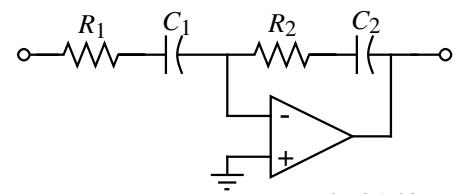
Disadvantages:

- Hard to integrate when the values are large ($C > 100\text{pF}$ and $R > 100\text{k}\Omega$)
- Difficult to get a pole at the origin (increase the order of the type of PLL)

Active Filters

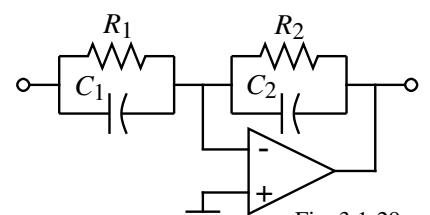
1.) Active lag filter-I

$$F(s) = -\frac{R_2 + \frac{1}{sC_2}}{R_1 + \frac{1}{sC_1}} = -\left(\frac{C_1}{C_2}\right)\left(\frac{sR_2C_2 + 1}{sR_1C_1 + 1}\right) \\ = -\left(\frac{C_1}{C_2}\right)\left(\frac{s\tau_2 + 1}{s\tau_1 + 1}\right), \quad \tau_1 = R_1C_1 \text{ and } \tau_2 = R_2C_2$$



2.) Active lag filter – II

$$F(s) = -\frac{\frac{1}{R_2sC_2}}{\frac{1}{R_1sC_1}} = -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)\left(\frac{sR_1C_1 + 1}{sR_2C_2 + 1}\right) = -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1}\right)\left(\frac{s\tau_1 + 1}{s\tau_2 + 1}\right)$$



Active Filters - Continued

3.) Active PI filter.

$$F(s) = -\frac{R_2 + \frac{1}{sC_2}}{R_1} = -\left(\frac{sR_2C_2 + 1}{sR_1C_2}\right) = -\left(\frac{s\tau_2 + 1}{s\tau_1}\right)$$

$$\tau_1 = R_1C_2 \text{ and } \tau_2 = R_2C_2$$

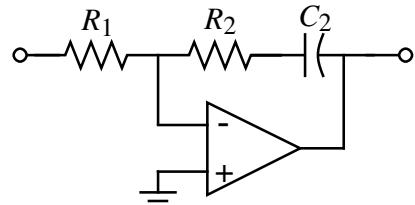


Fig. 3.1-30

Advantages:

- Can get poles at the origin
- Can reduce the passive element sizes using transresistance

We can show that $R_1(\text{eq.}) = 2R_1 + \frac{R_1^2}{R_x}$

Assume $R_1 = 10\text{k}\Omega$ and $R_x = 10\Omega$

$$\text{gives } R_1(\text{eq.}) = 20\text{k}\Omega + \frac{100,000\text{k}\Omega}{10\Omega} \approx 10\text{M}\Omega$$

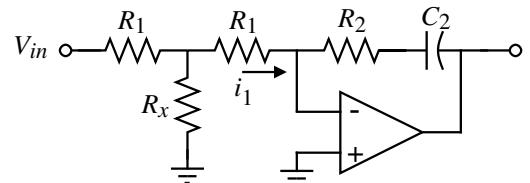


Fig. 3.1-31

Disadvantages:

- Noise
- Power
- Frequency limitation

Higher-Order Active Filters

1.) Cascading first-order filters (all poles are on the negative real axis)

Uses more op amps and dissipates more power.

2.) Extending the lag-lead filter.

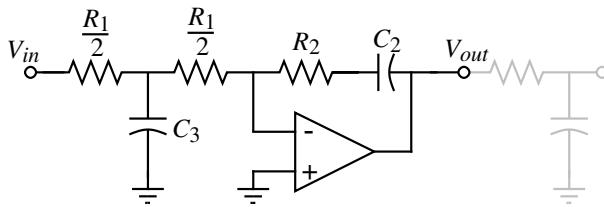


Fig. 120-02

From the previous slide we can write,

$$Z_1(s)(\text{eq.}) = R_1 \left(\frac{sR_1C_3}{4} + 1 \right) \text{ and } Z_2(s) = \frac{sR_2C_2 + 1}{sC_2}$$

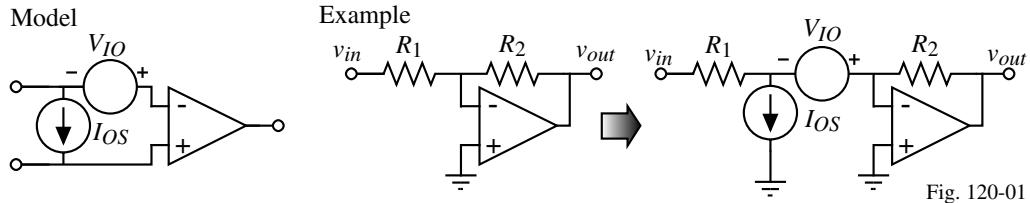
$$\therefore \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -\frac{\frac{sR_2C_2 + 1}{sC_2}}{R_1 \left(\frac{sR_1C_3}{4} + 1 \right)} = -\frac{sR_2C_2 + 1}{sC_2 R_1 \left(\frac{sR_1C_3}{4} + 1 \right)} = -\frac{s\tau_2 + 1}{s\tau_1(s\tau_3 + 1)}$$

where $\tau_1 = R_1C_2$, $\tau_2 = R_2C_2$, and $\tau_3 = 0.25R_1C_3$

The additional pole could also be implemented by an RC network at the output. However, now the output resistance is not small any more.

Non-Idealities of Active Filters

DC Offsets:



What is the input and output offset voltages of this example?

$$\text{Output offset voltage } V_{OS}(\text{out}) = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) V_{IO} + R_2 I_{OS}$$

$$\text{Input offset voltage } V_{OS}(\text{in}) = -V_{IO} + R_1 I_{OS}$$

Assume the op amp is a 741 with $V_{IO} = 3\text{mV}$, $I_{OS} = 100\text{nA}$, and $R_1 = R_2 = 10\text{k}\Omega$.

$$\therefore V_{OS}(\text{out}) = 3\text{mV} + 10\text{k}\Omega \cdot 100\text{nA} = 4\text{mV}$$

$$V_{OS}(\text{in}) = -3\text{mV} + 10\text{k}\Omega \cdot 100\text{nA} = -2\text{mV}$$

We have seen previously that these input offset voltages can lead to large spurs in the PLL output.

Non-Idealities of Active Filters - Continued

Inverting and Noninverting Amplifiers:

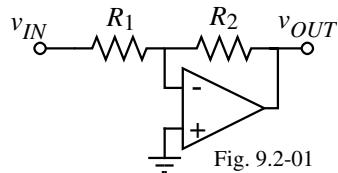
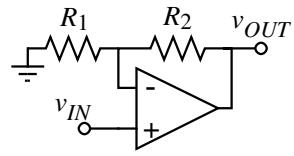


Fig. 9.2-01

Gain and $GB = \infty$:

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{R_1+R_2}{R_1}$$

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

Gain $\neq \infty$, $GB = \infty$:

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \left(\frac{R_1+R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\frac{A_{vd}(0)R_1}{R_1+R_2}}{1 + \frac{A_{vd}(0)R_1}{R_1+R_2}}$$

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = -\left(\frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\frac{R_1 A_{vd}(0)}{R_1+R_2}}{1 + \frac{R_1 A_{vd}(0)}{R_1+R_2}}$$

Gain $\neq \infty$, $GB \neq \infty$:

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \left(\frac{R_1+R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\frac{GB \cdot R_1}{R_1+R_2}}{s + \frac{GB \cdot R_1}{R_1+R_2}} = \left(\frac{R_1+R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\omega_H}{s + \omega_H}$$

$$\frac{V_{out}(s)}{V_{in}(s)} = \left(-\frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\frac{GB \cdot R_1}{R_1+R_2}}{s + \frac{GB \cdot R_1}{R_1+R_2}} = \left(-\frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \frac{\omega_H}{s + \omega_H}$$

Non-Idealities of Active Filters - Continued

Example:

Assume that the noninverting and inverting voltage amplifiers have been designed for a voltage gain of +10 and -10. If $A_{vd}(0)$ is 1000, find the actual voltage gains for each amplifier.

Solution

For the noninverting amplifier, the ratio of R_2/R_1 is 9.

$$A_{vd}(0)R_1/(R_1+R_2) = \frac{1000}{1+9} = 100.$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = 10 \left(\frac{100}{101} \right) = 9.901 \text{ rather than } 10.$$

For the inverting amplifier, the ratio of R_2/R_1 is 10.

$$\frac{A_{vd}(0)R_1}{R_1+R_2} = \frac{1000}{1+10} = 90.909$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -(10) \left(\frac{90.909}{1+90.909} \right) = -9.891 \text{ rather than } -10.$$

Non-Idealities of Active Filters - Continued

Finite Gainbandwidth:

Assume that the noninverting and inverting voltage amplifiers have been designed for a voltage gain of +1 and -1. If the unity-gainbandwidth, GB , of the op amps are 2π Mrads/sec, find the upper -3dB frequency for each amplifier.

Solution

In both cases, the upper -3dB frequency is given by

$$\omega_H = \frac{GB \cdot R_1}{R_1 + R_2}$$

For the noninverting amplifier with an ideal gain of +1, the value of R_2/R_1 is zero.

$$\therefore \omega_H = GB = 2\pi \text{ Mrads/sec (1MHz)}$$

For the inverting amplifier with an ideal gain of -1, the value of R_2/R_1 is one.

$$\therefore \omega_H = \frac{GB \cdot 1}{1+1} = \frac{GB}{2} = \pi \text{ Mrads/sec (500kHz)}$$

Non-Idealities of Active Filters - Continued

Integrators – Finite Gain and Gainbandwidth:

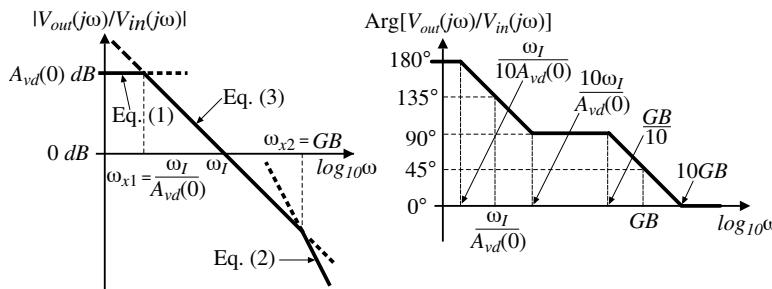
$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -\left(\frac{1}{sR_1C_2}\right) \frac{\frac{A_{vd}(s)}{sR_1C_2} sR_1C_2}{1 + \frac{A_{vd}(s)}{sR_1C_2}} = \left(-\frac{\omega_I}{s}\right) \frac{\frac{A_{vd}(s)}{(s/\omega_I) + 1}}{1 + \frac{A_{vd}(s)}{(s/\omega_I) + 1}}$$

where $A_{vd}(s) = \frac{A_{vd}(0)\omega_a}{s+\omega_a} = \frac{GB}{s+\omega_a} \approx \frac{GB}{s}$

Case 1: $s \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow A_{vd}(s) = A_{vd}(0) \Rightarrow \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} \approx -A_{vd}(0)$

Case 2: $s \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow A_{vd}(s) = \frac{GB}{s} \Rightarrow \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} \approx -\left(\frac{GB}{s}\right) \left(\frac{\omega_I}{s}\right)$

Case 3: $0 < s < \infty \Rightarrow A_{vd}(s) = \infty \Rightarrow \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} \approx -\frac{\omega_I}{s}$



CHARGE PUMPS

The use of the PFD permits the use of a charge pump in place of the conventional PD and low pass filter. The advantages of the PFD and charge pump include:

- The capture range is only limited by the VCO output frequency range
- The static phase error is zero if the mismatches and offsets are negligible.

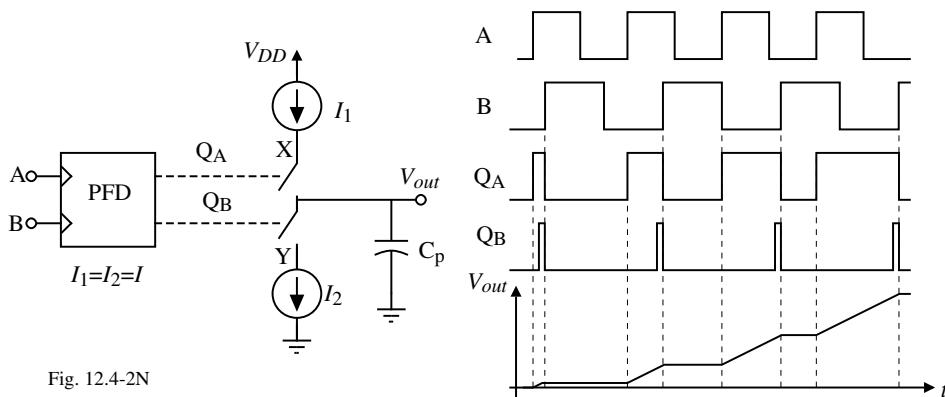


Fig. 12.4-2N

Q_A high deposits charge on C_p (A leads B).

Q_B high removes charge from C_p (B leads A).

Q_A and Q_B low V_{out} remains constant.

We have seen that a resistor in series with C_p is necessary for stability.

(QB is high for a short time due to reset delay but the difference between average values between QA and QB still accurately represents the input phase or frequency difference.)

Types of Charge Pumps

- Conventional Tri-Stage
 - Low power consumption, moderate speed, moderate clock skew
 - Low power frequency synthesizers, digital clock generators
- Current Steering
 - Static current consumption, high speed, moderate clock skew
 - High speed PLL (>100MHz), translation loop, digital clock generators
- Differential input with Single-Ended output
 - Medium power, moderate speed, low clock skew
 - Low-skew digital clock generators, frequency synthesizers
- Fully Differential
 - Static current consumption, high speed (>100MHz)
 - Digital clock generators, translation loop, frequency synthesizer (with on-chip filter)
- Advantages of charge pumps
 - Consume less power than active filters
 - Have less noise than active filters
 - Do not have the offset voltage of op amps
 - Provide a pole at the origin
 - More compatible with the objective of putting the filter on chip

Nonidealities in Charge Pumps[†]

Leakage current:

Small currents that flow when the switch is off.

Mismatches in the Charge Pump:

The up and down (charge and discharge) currents are unequal.

Timing Mismatch in PFD:

Any mismatch in the time at which the PFD provides the up and down outputs.

Charge Sharing:

The presence of parasitic capacitors will cause the charge on the desired capacitor to be shared with the parasitic capacitors.

[†] Woogun Rhee, “Design of High-Performance CMOS Charge Pumps in Phase-Locked Loops,” *Proc. of 1999 ISCAS*, Page II-545-II548, May 1999.

Charge Pumps

The low pass filter in the PLL can be implemented by:

- 1.) Active filters which require an op amp
- 2.) Passive filters and a charge pump.

The advantages of a charge pump are:

- Reduced noise
- Reduced power consumption
- No offset voltage

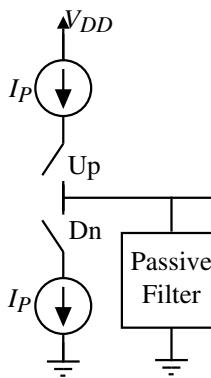
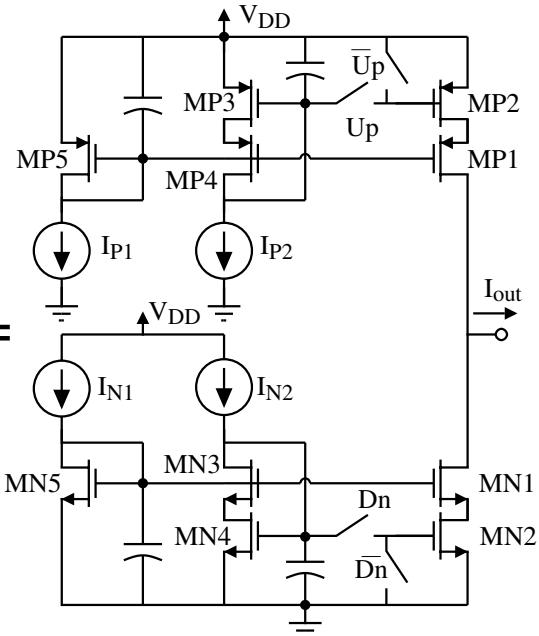


Fig. 12.4-22

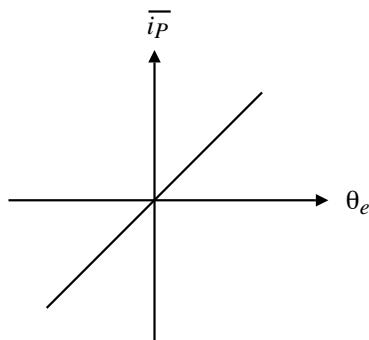


Discriminator-Aided PFD/Charge Pump[†]

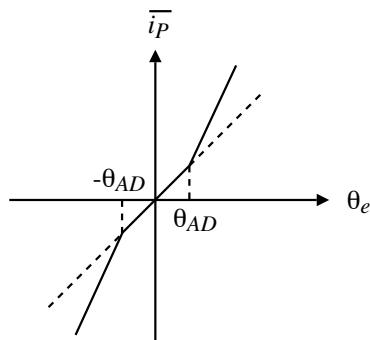
This circuit reduces the pull-in time, T_P , and enhances the switching speed of the PLL while maintaining the same noise bandwidth and avoiding modulation damping.

Technique:

Increase the gain of the phase detector for increasing values of phase error.



Characteristic of a Conventional PD



Characteristic of a Nonlinear PD

Fig. 3.1-32

The gain of the phase detector is increased when θ_e becomes larger than θ_{AD} or smaller than $-\theta_{AD}$. During the time the phase detector gain has increased by k , the loop filter bandwidth is also increased by k .

[†] C-Y Yang and S-I Liu, "Fast-Switching Frequency Synthesizer with a Discriminator-Aided Phase Detector," *IEEE J. of Solid-State Circuits*, Vol. 35, No. 10, Oct. 2000, pp. 1445-1452.

Discriminator-Aided Phase Detector (DAPD) – Continued

Schematic of a phase detector with DAPD and charge-pump filter:

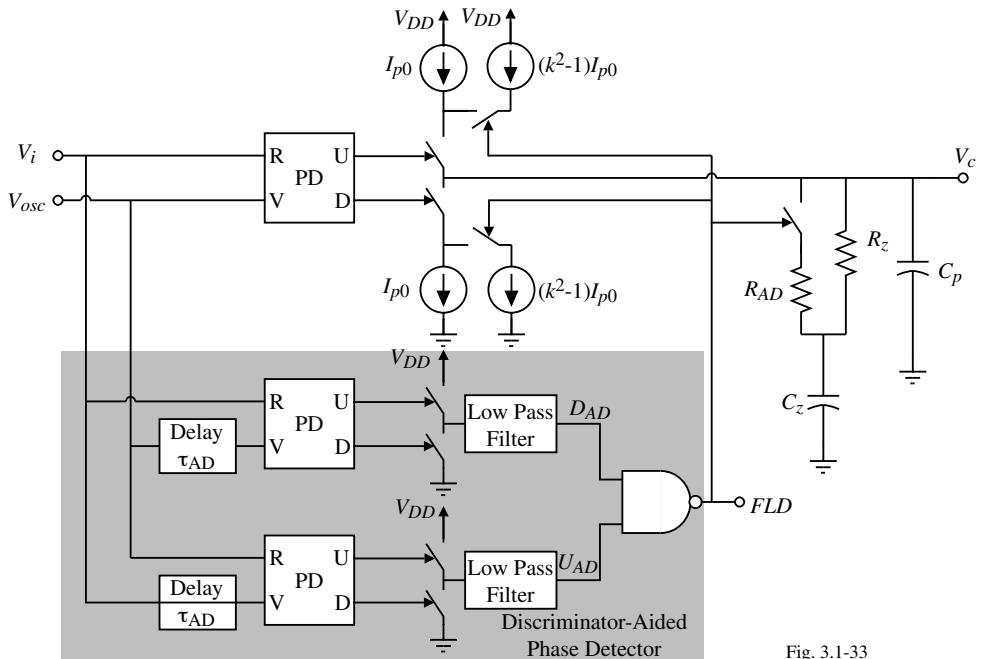


Fig. 3.1-33

0.35 μ m CMOS: Switching time for a 448 MHz to 462 MHz step is reduced from 90 μ s to 15 μ s ($k = 3$).

A Type-I Charge Pump[†]

This PLL uses an on-chip, passive discrete-time loop filter with a single state, charge-pump to implement the loop filter. The stabilization zero is created in the discrete-time domain rather than using RC time constants.

Block diagram of the Type-I, charge pump PLL frequency synthesizer:

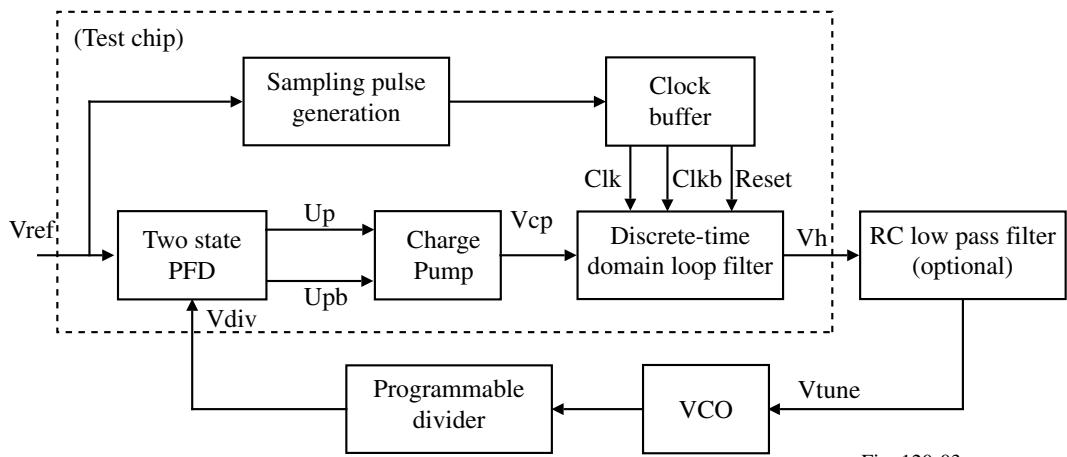
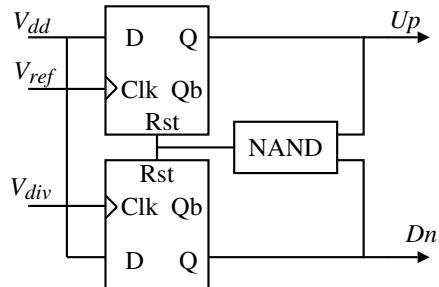


Fig. 120-03

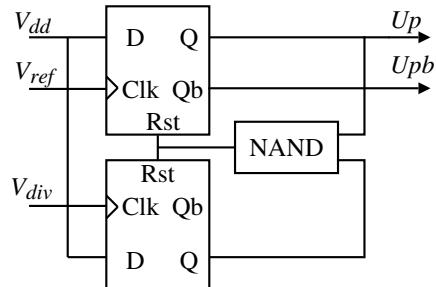
[†] B. Zhang, P.E. Allen and J.M. Huard, "A Fast Switching PLL Frequency Synthesizer With an On-Chip Passive Discrete-Time Loop Filter in 0.25 μ m CMOS," *IEEE J. of Solid-State Circuits*, vol. 38, no. 6, June 2003, pp. 855-865.

Type-I Charge Pump – Continued

Comparison of a conventional 3-state PFD and a 2-state PFD:



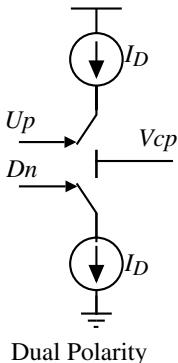
Conventional 3-state PFD



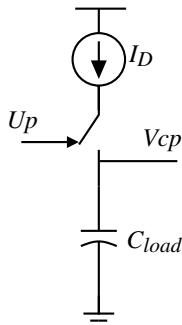
2-state PFD

Fig. 120-04

Dual polarity and single polarity charge pumps:



Dual Polarity



Single Polarity

Fig. 120-05

Single Polarity Charge Pump

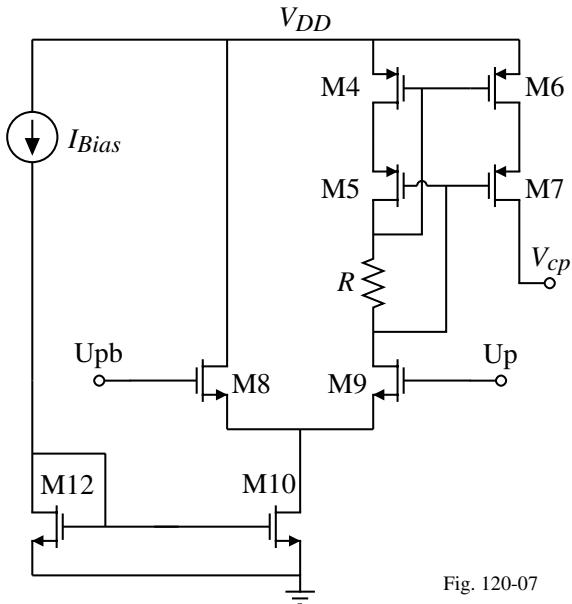
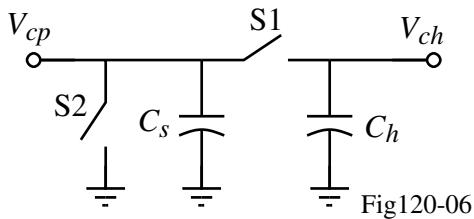


Fig. 120-07

No matching problems.

Type-I Charge Pump – Continued

The discrete-time loop filter:



$$F_1(s) \approx (1-z^{-1}) \frac{k_{lf}f_1(s)}{s}$$

where $z = e^{sT_s}$, T_s is the sampling period ($S1$), k_{lf} is a gain constant, and $f_1(s)$ accounts for the loading effect of the low pass filter.

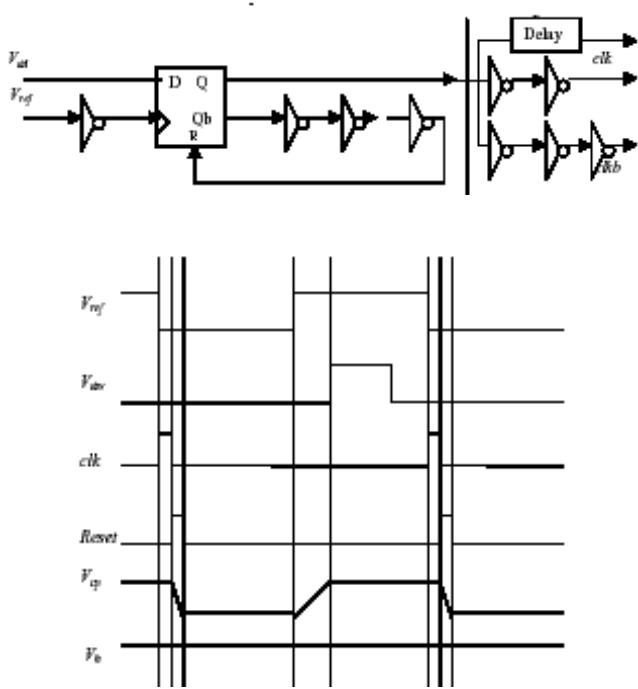
The open-loop transfer function of this system is given as,

$$T(s) = (1-z^{-1}) \frac{K_d K_o k_{lf} f_1(s)}{s^2 N} \rightarrow T(s) = (sT_s) \frac{K_d K_o k_{lf} f_1(s)}{s^2 N} = \frac{T_s K_d K_o k_{lf} f_1(s)}{sN}$$

which is a Type I system if $\omega \ll 2\pi/T_s$.

Type-I Charge Pump – Continued

Clock generator and clock waveforms:



Discrete-time loop filter:

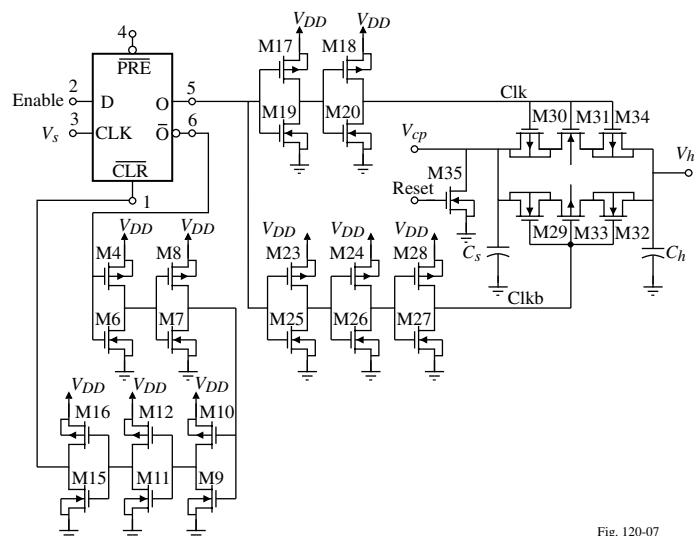
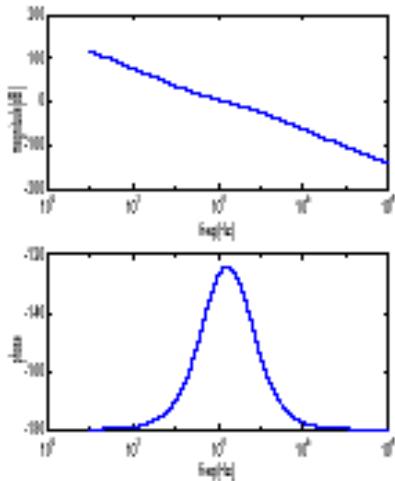


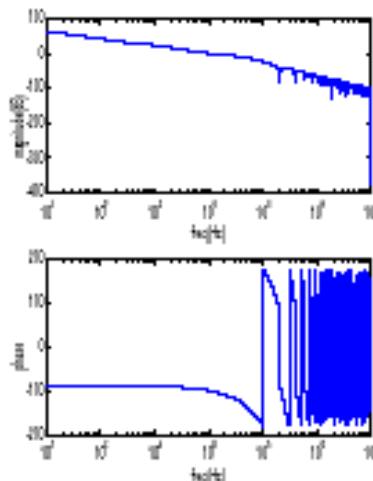
Fig. 120-07

Type-I Charge Pump – Continued

Comparison of the frequency response of the conventional and single state architectures:



Conventional architecture



Single-state architecture

Results:

	Conventional Architecture	Type-I Architecture
Reference spur	-53dBc	-62dBc
Switching time	140μs	30μs
Loop filter size	Off-chip filter	Integrated (70pF)

Use of Active Filters with Charge Pumps

Second-Order PLL:

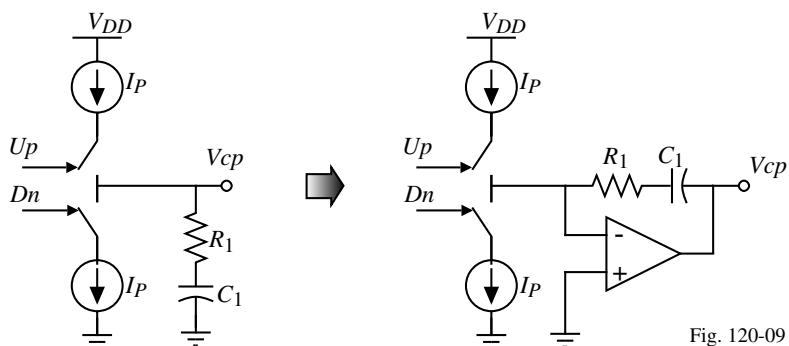


Fig. 120-09

PLL Crossover Frequency:

$$\omega_{c2} = \sqrt{\frac{K^2\tau^2 + \sqrt{K^4\tau^4 + 4K^4}}{2}} \quad \text{where } K = \frac{K_v}{NC_1}$$

PLL Settling Time for a Frequency step of $\Delta\omega$:

$$t_{s2} \approx \frac{2}{\omega_{c2}} \sqrt{\frac{1+\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{K^4\tau^4}}}{2}} \ln\left(\frac{\Delta\omega}{\alpha N \sqrt{1-\left(\frac{\tau\sqrt{K}}{2}\right)^2}}\right) \quad \text{where } \alpha = \frac{\theta(t_{s2})}{\theta(\infty)}$$

Charge Pump with a Third-Order Filter

The additional pole of a third-order PLL provides more spurious suppression. However, the phase lag associated with the pole introduces a stability issue.

Circuit:

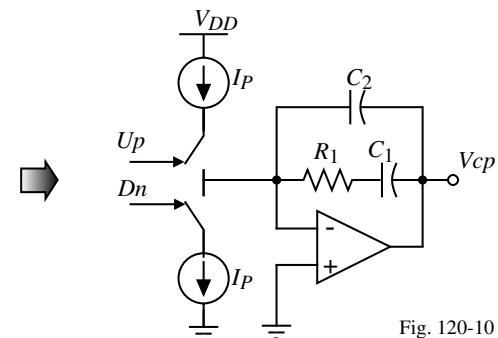
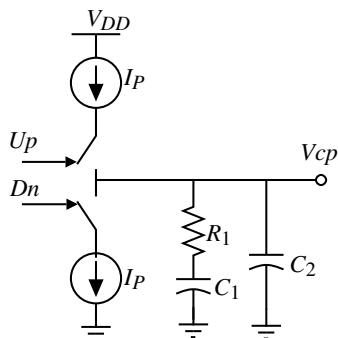


Fig. 120-10

The impedance of the loop filter is,

$$Z(s) = \left(\frac{b}{b+1}\right) \frac{s\tau + 1}{s^2 C_1 \left(\frac{s\tau}{b+1} + 1\right)} \text{ where } \tau = R_1 C_1 \quad \text{and} \quad b = \frac{C_1}{C_2}$$

The loop gain for this PLL is

$$LG(s) = -\frac{K_o I_P}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{b+1}\right) \frac{s\tau + 1}{s^2 C_1 \left(\frac{s\tau}{b+1} + 1\right)}$$

The phase margin of the loop is,

$$PM = \tan^{-1}(\tau\omega_{c3}) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\tau\omega_{c3}}{b+1}\right) \quad \text{where } \omega_{c3} \text{ is the crossover frequency}$$

Charge Pump with a Third-Order Filter – Continued

Differentiating with respect to ω_{c3} , shows that max. phase margin occurs when

$$\omega_{c3} = \sqrt{b+1} / \tau$$

$$\therefore PM(\max) = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{b+1}) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{b+1}}\right)$$

Maximum phase margin as a function of $b = C_1/C_2$.

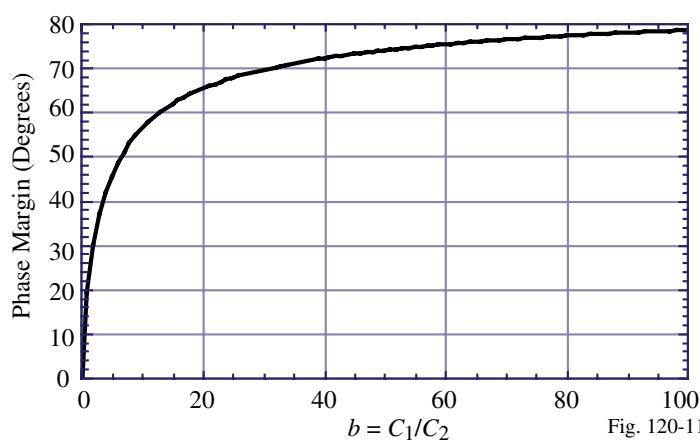


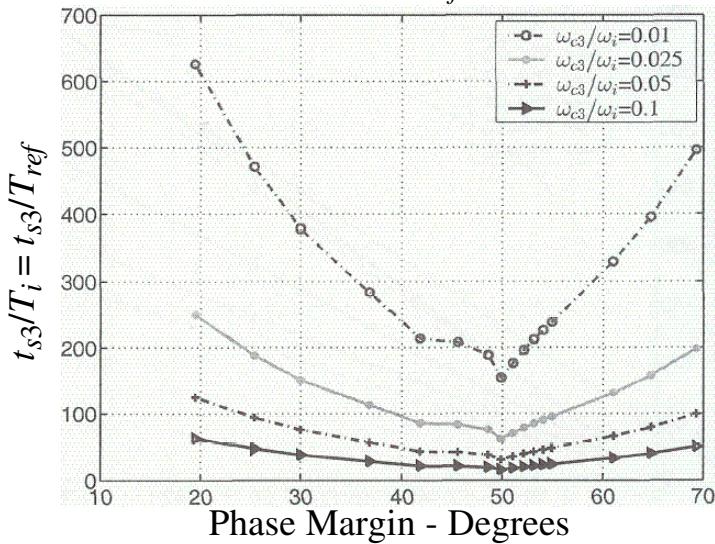
Fig. 120-11

Note that for $b \leq 1$, the phase margin is less than 20°.

Charge Pump with a Third-Order Filter – Continued

An analytical expression for settling time is difficult to calculate for the third-order filter.

The following figure shows the simulated settling time to 10ppm accuracy as a function of phase margin when $\Delta\omega/N = 0.04$ ($\omega_i = \omega_{ref}$).



For $\Delta\omega/N < 0.04$ and $20^\circ < PM < 79^\circ$, we may estimate the settling time to 10ppm accuracy as

$$t_{s3} \approx \frac{2\pi}{\omega_{c3}} [0.0067 \cdot PM^2 - 0.6303 \cdot PM + 16.78]$$

Charge Pump with a Third-Order Filter – Continued

A loop filter design recipe:

1.) Find K_v for the VCO.

2.) Choose a desired PM and find b from the max. PM equation.

3.) Choose the crossover frequency, ω_{c3} , and find τ from $\omega_{c3} = \sqrt{b+1} / \tau$.

4.) Select C_1 and I_P such that they satisfy

$$\frac{I_P K_v}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{b+1} \right) = \frac{C_1}{\tau^2} \sqrt{b+1}$$

5.) Calculate the noise contribution of R_1^2 . If the calculated noise is negligible the design is complete. If not, then go back to step 4.) and increase C_1 .

Example: Let $K_v = 10^7$ rads/sec., $N = 1000$, $PM = 50^\circ$ and $f_{c3} = 10\text{kHz}$.

Now, $50^\circ = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{b+1}) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{b+1}}\right) \rightarrow b \approx 6.65$ (by iteration)

$$\tau = \frac{\sqrt{b+1}}{2\pi f_{c3}} = \frac{\sqrt{6.65+1}}{2\pi \cdot 1000} = 0.44 \text{ msec}$$

If $I_P = 200\mu\text{A}$, then $C_1 = \frac{I_P K_v}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{b+1} \right) \frac{\tau^2}{\sqrt{b+1}} = 19.34 \text{ nF} \rightarrow R_1 = \frac{\tau}{C_1} = 22.72\text{k}\Omega$

$$\text{Noise} = 4kTR = 4(1.38 \times 10^{-23})(300)(22.72\text{k}\Omega) = 3.76 \times 10^{-16} \text{ V}^2/\text{Hz}$$

Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter

To further reduce the spurs without decreasing the crossover frequency and thereby increasing the settling time, an additional pole needs to be added to the loop.

Circuit:

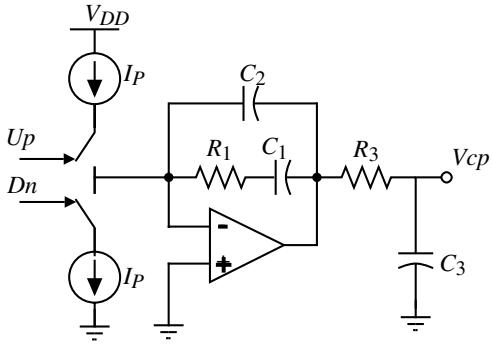
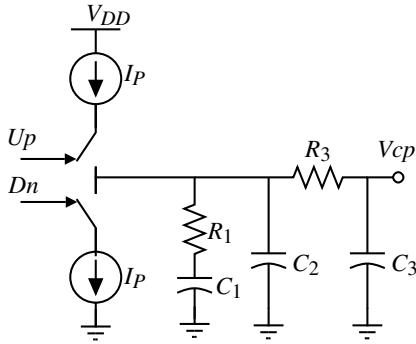


Fig. 120-12

The impedance of the passive filter is given as,

$$Z(s) = \frac{s\tau + 1}{sC_1 \left(1 + \frac{C_2}{C_1} + \frac{C_3}{C_1} \right) [B(s\tau)^2 + A s\tau + 1]}$$

where

$$A = \frac{1+b}{1+b} \frac{\tau_2 \left(1 + \frac{C_2}{C_1} \right)}{\tau}, \quad B = \frac{b}{1+b} \frac{\tau_2 C_2}{\tau C_1}, \quad \tau = R_1 C_1, \quad \tau_3 = R_3 C_3 \quad \text{and} \quad b = \frac{C_1}{C_2 + C_3}$$

Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

Phase margin:

$$PM = \tan^{-1}(\tau\omega_{c4}) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{A(\tau\omega_{c4})}{1-B(\tau\omega_{c4})^2}\right) \quad \text{where } \omega_{c4} = \text{crossover frequency}$$

The maximum phase margin is obtained when the derivative of the above equation with respect to ω_{c4} is set to zero. The results are:

$$\omega_{c4} = \frac{1}{\tau} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2B+AB+A-A^2}{B(B-A)} \right) + \sqrt{\left(\frac{2B+AB+A-A^2}{B(B-A)} \right)^2 - \frac{4(1-A)}{B(B-A)}}}$$

For ω_{c4} to be the crossover frequency, it must satisfy the following equation,

$$\frac{I_P K_v}{2\pi N} \sqrt{\frac{1+(\tau\omega_{c4})^2}{(A\tau\omega_{c4})^2 + [1-B(\tau\omega_{c4})]^2}} = C_1 \left(\frac{1+b}{b} \right) \omega_{c4}^2$$

Practical simplifications:

A positive phase margin \Rightarrow Zero lower than the two high frequency poles $\Rightarrow \frac{C_2}{C_1} < 1$

For the fourth pole not to decrease the phase margin it has to be more than a decade away from the zero, therefore, $b \frac{\tau_2}{\tau} \ll 1$.

With these conditions we find that $B \ll A$.

Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

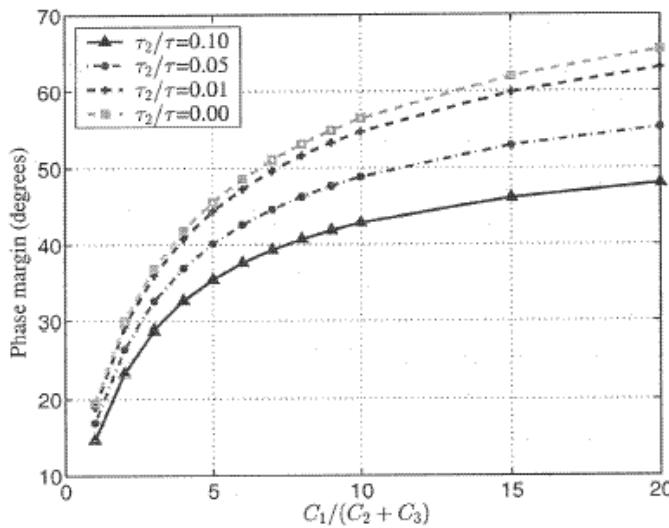
If $B \ll A$, then the previous relationships become,

$$A \approx \frac{1}{1+b}, \quad \omega_{c4} \approx \frac{1}{\tau\sqrt{A}} \approx \frac{\sqrt{1+b}}{\tau} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{I_P K_V}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{1+b} \right) \approx \frac{C_1}{\tau^2 \sqrt{1+b}}$$

The maximum phase margin also simplifies to,

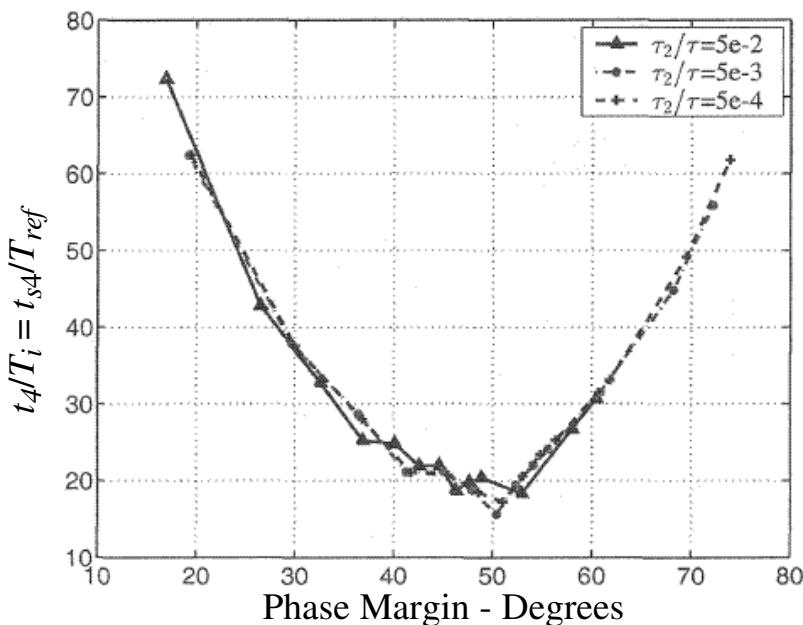
$$\text{PM(max)} \approx \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{1+b}) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+b}}\right)$$

Exact phase margin:



Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

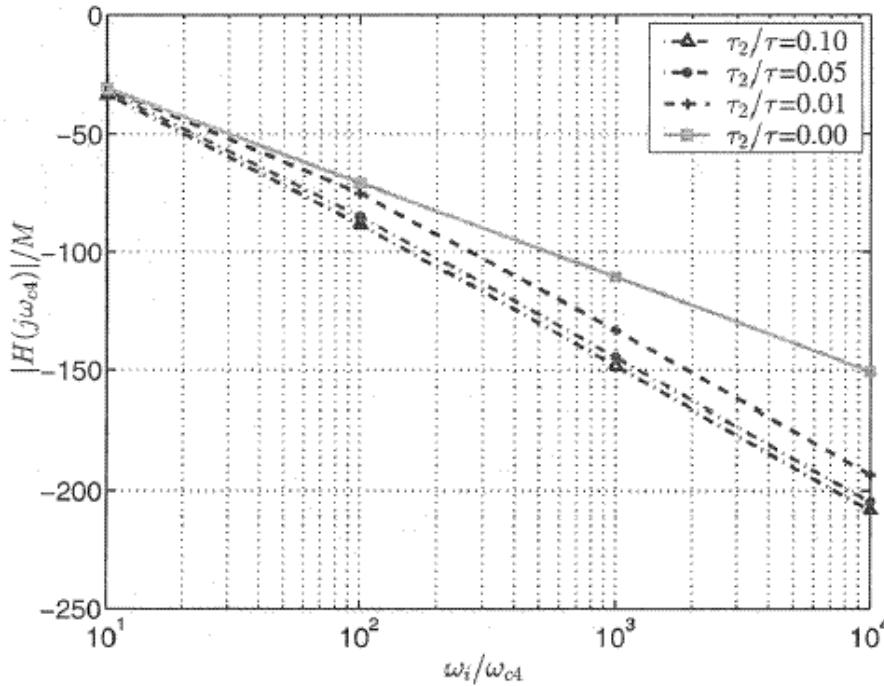
Simulation is used to estimate the settling time of the fourth-order loop to 10 ppm accuracy when $\Delta\omega/N < 0.04$:



Note that the settling time at a given phase margin is independent of τ_2/τ and is the same as that of a third-order loop.

Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

Spur suppression of the fourth-order filter.



Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

Loop filter design procedure:

- 1.) Find K_V for the VCO.
- 2.) Choose a desired phase margin and find b . (If PM = 50°, then $b = 6.5$)
- 3.) Choose the crossover frequency ω_{c4} and find τ . ($\tau \approx 2.7/\omega_{c4}$ if $b = 6.5$)
- 4.) Choose the desired spur attenuation and find τ_2/τ from the previous page.

5.) Select C_1 and I_P such that they satisfy $\frac{I_P K_V}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{1+b} \right) \approx \frac{C_1}{\tau^2} \sqrt{1+b}$.

- 6.) Calculate the noise contribution of R_1 and R_3 .

Example: Let $K_V = 10^7$ rads/sec., $N = 1000$, PM = 50°, $f_{c4} = 1\text{kHz}$ and $f_{ref} = 100\text{kHz}$.

Since PM = 50°, $b = 6.5$

$$\tau \approx 2.7/\omega_{c4} = 2.7/(2\pi \cdot 1000) = 430\mu\text{sec.}$$

Let us choose τ_2/τ as 0.1 which corresponds to about -90dB of suppression.

$$\text{If } I_P = 200\mu\text{A}, \text{ then } C_1 = \frac{I_P K_V}{2\pi N} \left(\frac{b}{1+b} \right) \frac{\tau^2}{\sqrt{b+1}} = 18.63 \text{ nF} \rightarrow R_1 = \frac{\tau}{C_1} = 23.09\text{k}\Omega$$

$$\tau_2 = 0.1\tau = 43\mu\text{sec}$$

$$\text{If } C_3 = 1\text{nF}, \text{ then } R_3 = \tau_2/C_3 = 43\mu\text{sec}/1\text{nF} = 43\text{k}\Omega$$

$$\text{Noise: } v_{R1}^2 = 4kTR_1 = 3.823 \times 10^{-16} \text{ V}^2/\text{Hz} \text{ and } v_{R3}^2 = 4kTR_3 = 7.12 \times 10^{-16} \text{ V}^2/\text{Hz}$$

Charge Pump with a Fourth-Order Filter – Continued

Open loop transfer function for a typical fourth-order PLL:

PSPICE File:

```

Fourth-order, charge-pump PLL loop gain
.PARAM N=1000, KVCO=1E7, T=0.43E-3, T2=43E-6, KD=1, E=10
.PARAM A=0.2287 B=0.00868
*VCO Noise Transfer Function
VIN 1 0 AC 1.0
RIN 1 0 10K
EDPLL1 2 0 LAPLACE {V(1)}=
+(-KD*KVCO*46.52E6*(S*T+1)/(S+E)/(B*T*T*S*S+A*T*S+1)}
RDPLL1 2 0 10K
*Steady state AC analysis
.AC DEC 20 10 100MEG
.PRINT AC VDB(2) VP(2)
.PROBE
.END

```

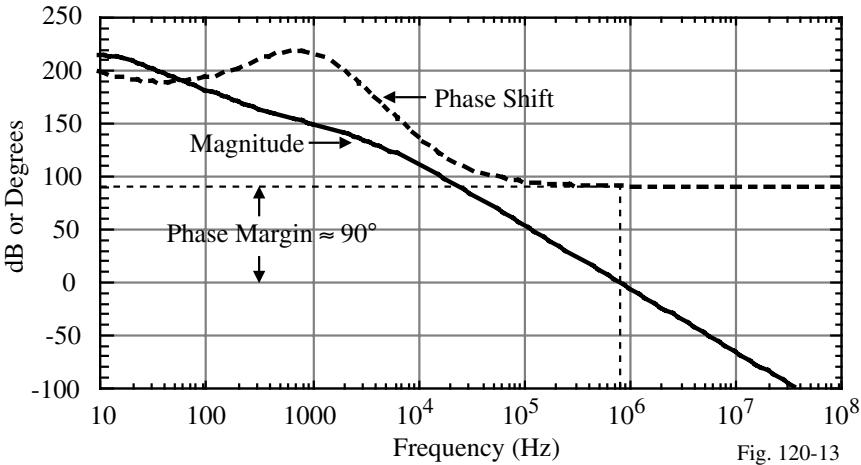


Fig. 120-13

SUMMARY

Filters

- Determines the dynamic performance of the PLL
- Active and passive filters
- Order of the filter – higher the order, the more noise and spur suppression
- Nonidealities of active filters
 - DC offsets
 - Finite op amp gain
 - Finite gain-bandwidth
 - Noise

Charge Pumps

- Avoid the use of the op amp to achieve a pole at the origin (Type-II systems)
- Nonidealities in charge pumps
 - Leakage current
 - Mismatches in the up and down currents
 - Timing mismatches
 - Charge sharing