

CMOS Project Report

Delay Measurement Device

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1 Introduction

1.1 Specifications

The goal of this project is to design and simulate a delay measurement device using components available through the AMS C35 0.35 μm CMOS process. In order to measure the length of a long cable, a voltage pulse is applied to one end of the cable and the length is deduced from the time it takes to reach the other end.

The output of the device must scale with the delay between two voltage pulses, which can range between 10 ns and 500 ns. The pulses themselves are chosen to be 10 ns long, and the device must be able to drive a 10 pF capacitive load.

1.2 Basic Block Diagram

To achieve this, the device is organized as shown in figure 1.

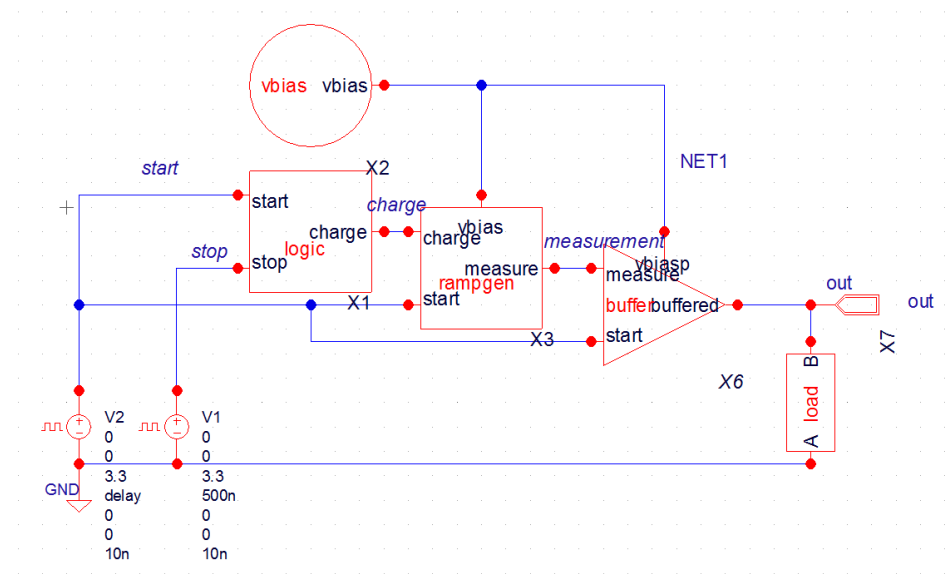


Figure 1: Block diagram overview of the delay measurement device.

At the core is the block `rampgen` which generates a rising ramp on its analog output `measure` when the digital input `charge` is `LO`, maintains its output when `charge` is `HI`, and resets it to ground when the digital input `start` is `HI`.

It is controlled by the first block, `logic`, which controls `charge` based on the succession of pulses on its digital inputs `start` and `stop` and some internal logic.

The output of `rampgen` is buffered by the output stage `buffer` which is able to drive the specified load of 10 pF.

In the next three sections, the design of each of these blocks is reviewed. Then, in the last section, the operation curves of the whole are presented.

2 Internal Logic

This block controls its output `charge` based on the voltage pulses received on its inputs `start` and `stop`, so that the next block `rampgen` can control its output `measure` based only on the current value of its inputs.

2.1 Derivation of a Truth Table

First, we notice that the system needs to have a memory. Indeed, after a pulse has occurred, and when both inputs are `LO`, the output `charge` can still be `HI` or `LO` depending on the last pulse. Given the logic that needs to be implemented and the fact that there are two separate pulse inputs we choose to implement the memory using an RS-latch. This choice will prove to be adequate at the end of this section. Intuitively, we choose to put `start` on the `set` of the latch and `stop` on the `reset`.

Furthermore, we cannot immediately reset `measure` to ground upon receiving a pulse on `stop`, because this would not give enough time for the output stage to properly latch the final value¹, or more generally, would not leave time for any reading device to use the measurement. For this reason, we choose to reset the whole device at the rising edge of a pulse on `start`, and to start the measurement at the falling edge of the pulse. To correctly measure the delay, the measurement must then be stopped at the falling edge of the pulse on `stop`. The output voltage is thus stabilized at its final value and available for reading from the end of the `stop` pulse until the beginning of the next `start` pulse.

With that in mind, it is possible to derive a first logical function, where `q` is the output of the RS-latch:

$$\text{charge}(\text{start}, \text{stop}, q) = q \cdot \overline{\text{start}} + \text{stop} \quad (1)$$

¹ In our case the output stage does not even have a memory so this does not really apply.

2.2 NAND / NOR Implementation

This function must be adapted based on the following implementation details:

- As will be shown in next section, **charge** should be active-low because it drives a PMOS switch.
- NAND and NOR gates are the most directly available and require less transistors than AND and OR gates.
- \bar{q} is directly available from the RS-latch.

Using de Morgan's law on the first term of the NOR which appears when taking account that **charge** should be active low, we find:

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{\text{charge}} &= \text{NOR}(q \cdot \overline{\text{start}}, \text{stop}) \\ &= \text{NOR}(\text{NOR}(\bar{q}, \text{start}), \text{stop})\end{aligned}$$

This final expression allows to implement the required logic using only one RS-latch and two NOR gates (rather than for example four NOT, one NAND and one NOR gate if we simply inverted function 1), as shown on figure 2.

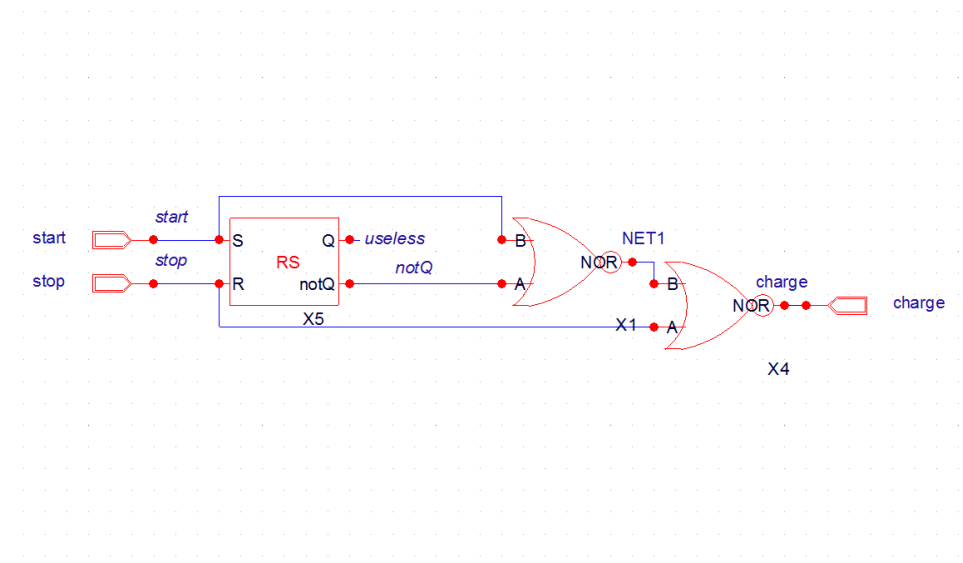


Figure 2: Gate circuit of logic.

2.3 Sizing

The logical gates are built using minimal length transistors. The width should theoretically progressively increase from input gates to output gates so that the output gate is able to drive the parasitic input capacitance of the next block and so that every gate in the circuit is able to drive the gate at its output. However, it turns out that minimally-sized transistors are able to correctly drive `rampgen`, so the whole logic circuit is made of minimally-size transistors.

3 Generation of the Measurement

`rampgen` generates a rising ramp on its output `measure` or maintains it based on its first input `charge`. The second input `start` allows to reset the output to ground.

3.1 Principle of Operation

To generate a voltage ramp on command, we choose to charge a capacitor through a switch with a DC current source.

We choose to split the switching and current generation responsibilities between two transistors. This allows to simultaneously achieve good switching behaviour which requires a low area transistor to reduce the gate parasitic capacitances, and good current source behaviour which requires a long transistor (and thus wide for a given I_{ds} and V_{ov}) to reduce g_{ds} .

We choose to reference `measurement` to ground so that its scales positively with the measured delay. This means that one of the capacitor terminals is grounded, and that the current source uses a PMOS. This choice is arbitrary, but will be taken into account when designing the output stage in order to maximize the output range.

The ramp switching is done using a PMOS as well because it allows to put the source on the drain of the current source which has relatively stable voltage. This gives better results than using an NMOS, because in that case the voltage at the source of the switch is actually the output ramp which should cover the widest possible range of voltages.

Finally, the output is shorted to ground by an NMOS switch controlled by `start`. `start` is thus active-high while `charge` is active-low, which corresponds to what we use in the previous section.

Figure 3 shows the circuit designed according to these considerations.

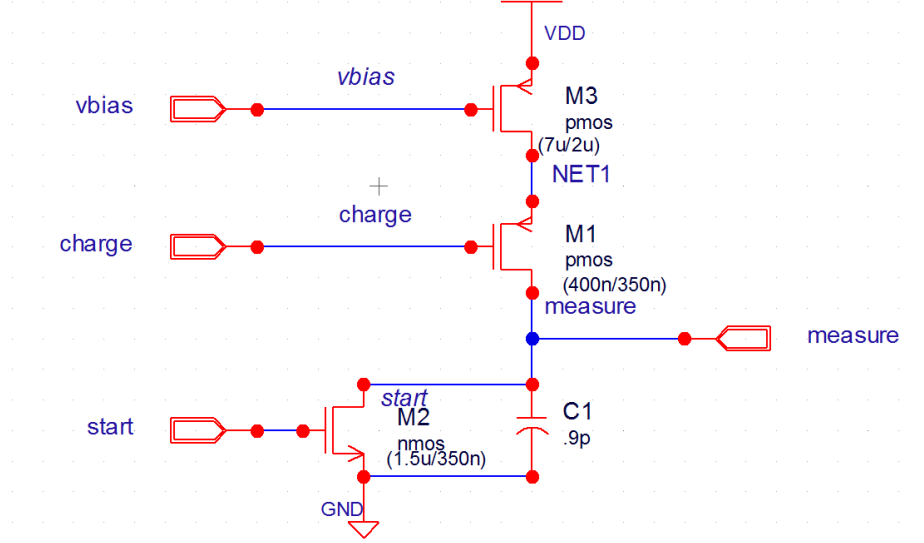


Figure 3: `rampgen` Circuit.

3.2 Sizing

M3 is chosen long in order to minimize its g_{ds} since it acts as a current source. It is not strongly biased in order to maximize the output range ($\text{vbias} \simeq 2.6\text{ V}$). Its width, in combination with the capacitance of **C1** determines the slope of the output ramp. The slope is chosen so that the device reaches the limits of saturation for the longest required delay of 500 ns. The width also controls the sizing of **M1** which has the same i_{ds} as **M3**.

On the other hand, **M1** should be as small as possible for two reasons. It should be small enough so that it can be correctly driven by `logic`, and it should be as small as possible in order to minimize C_{gd} . $C_{gd\text{M3}}$ tends to reproduce the falling and rising edges of **charge** on **measure**, which introduces small steps at the beginning and the end of the output ramp. This is undesired and increasing **C1** can also reduce this effect.

Based on this, the reasoning that led to the sizing of **M1**, **M3** and **C1** is as follows. **M3**'s length is set to $2\mu\text{m}$ in order to get a good current source behaviour. A minimally sized transistor can still conduct a reasonable amount of current so we try to use one for **M1**. **C1** is then set to a value which is big enough to satisfyingly reduce the effect of $C_{gd\text{M3}}$. Next, $i_{ds\text{M3}}$ is set by choosing **M3**'s width so that the ramp reaches the upper limit of the output range for a 500 ns delay.

Finally, we check that **M1** is able to deliver this final value of i_{ds} . A minimally sized transistor is able to deliver the current required by **M3** so the sizing of this part of the circuit is finished.

M2 is a minimal length transistor since linearity is not important during the reset phase. It is wide enough to drive **measure** from 3.3 V to ground in 10 ns, the length of a pulse, so that the output is properly reset for the next measurement.

4 Output Stage

This block buffers the measurement so that the device is able to drive a 10 pF capacitive load. It is expected to be the primary current consumer of the device ($\sim 200 \mu\text{A}$).

4.1 Principle of Operation

As shown in figure 4, **buffer** is made using an OTA in follower configura-

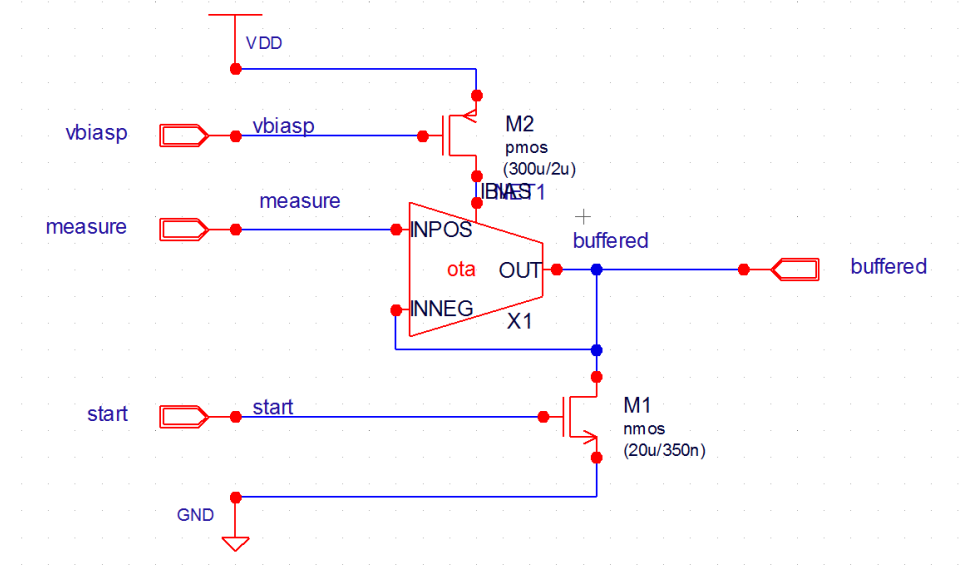


Figure 4: **buffer** circuit.

tion. Similarly to **rampgen**, the output can be shorted by **M1** to ground. While this would not be necessary if the output stage was built around an ideal amplifier, it allows reduce the specifications on the slew rate of the

OTA. Because we do not care about linearity when resetting the output to ground, this responsibility is left to a minimal length transistor with digital input. This allows to concentrate on the linearity and the gain¹ of the OTA itself which does not need a high slew rate anymore.

4.2 Sizing

The OTA is a simple CMOS differential pair. The input stage uses PMOS transistors so that the input range matches the output range of `rampgen`. The widths are chosen so that the OTA can deliver enough current to drive the specified load. The NMOS loads are $2\mu\text{m}$ long in order to reduce their g_{ds} . However, the PMOS input transistors are not as long because they would get too wide in order to match the I_{ds} . The width required to drive the load is of the order of a couple of hundreds of μm .

The OTA bias current is provided by `M2`, which is $2\mu\text{m}$ long in order to have a good current source behaviour. It is biased with the same voltage as `rampgen`, which provides a low V_{ov} in order to maximize the output range. It is the largest transistor of the device.

Finally `M1` is of minimum length since linearity is not important during the reset phase, and wide enough to drive the output from 3.3 V to ground in the length of a pulse, 10 ns .

5 Characteristics of the Device

Figure 5 shows the device working in normal conditions and proves that it is working as it is supposed to. In the next subsections, we will examine its properties more closely, starting with the most important one, its static characteristic.

5.1 Static Characteristic

Figure 6 shows the static characteristic of the device, before and after the output stage. The characteristic is pretty linear in both cases. The output stage changes the slope a little because the static error changes slightly across the output range, but the linearity is preserved, which is the most important aspect.

¹ Follower error $\sim \frac{1}{A_{loop}}$

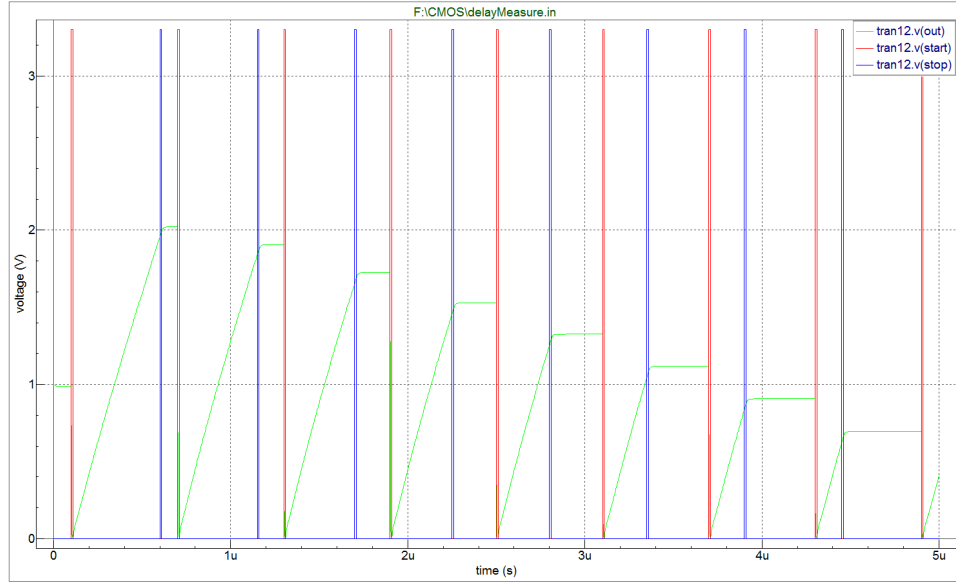


Figure 5: Delay measurement device under normal operation.

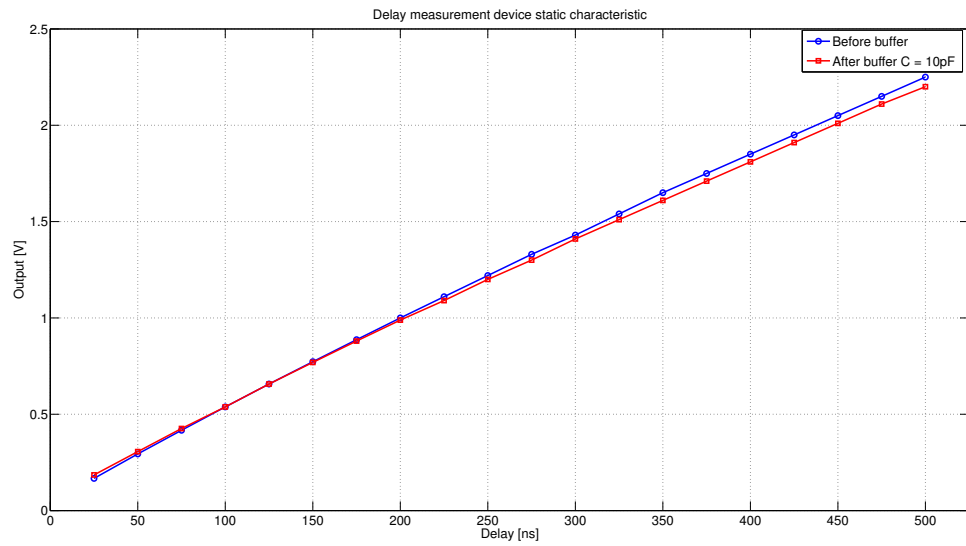


Figure 6: Static characteristic of the device.

5.2 Output Range

Figure 6 shows that the output ranges from 666 mV for a 10 ns delay to 2.2 V for a 500 ns delays. Figure 7 shows how the device behaves for longer

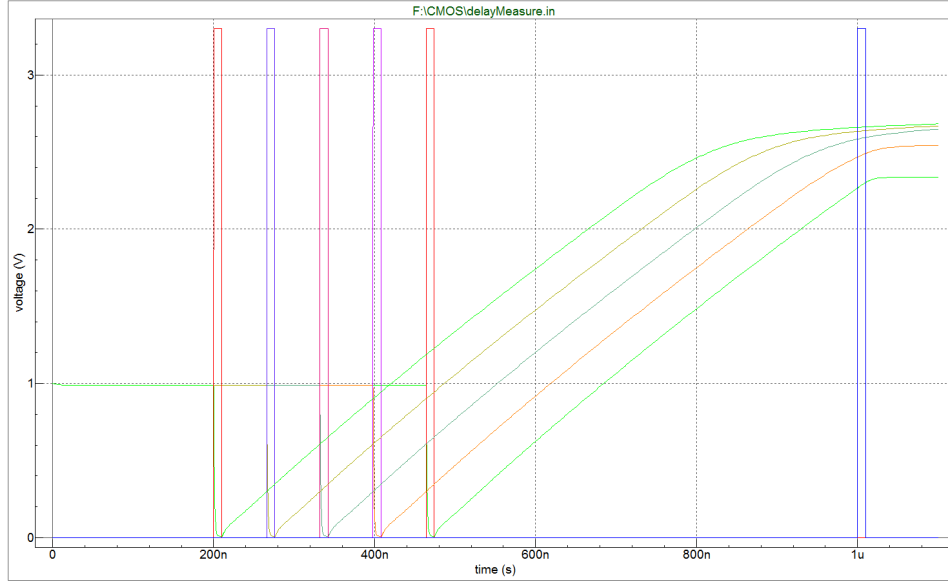


Figure 7: Output range limits of the device. Shortest delay (light green): 500 ns delay, other tested delays are in increments of ~ 66 ns.

delays. The output stays linear for delays slightly outside of the nominal range, but then starts to lose linearity very quickly. This means that the device is correctly sized from that point of view and that the near full output range is used during normal operation.

5.3 Imperfections

The device has two main sources of imperfections. First, as presented in 3.2, there is a capacitive coupling between the output of `rampgen` and its digital input `charge`, which means that there are small steps at the output of the device on falling edges on `start` and `stop`.

Secondly, the device is not perfectly memoryless. This is because there is a capacitive path between the output of the device and `vbias`, through the OTA. This means that the very steep falling edge which happens on every reset pulls `vbias` down. The effect on `vbias` depends on the height of the edge and influences the current that charges the capacitor to

provide `measurement` . A measurement is thus slightly influenced by the previous one: the device has some hysteresis.

To avoid this, the user can consider this effect as a transient, run multiple identical measurements back to back and only keep the last one so that the output doesn't depend on the unknown state of `vbias` anymore.