PLL Transistor Level Implementation

A

Project Report

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by

Abstract

PLL TRANSISTOR LEVEL IMPLEMENTATION

Group Members: Mohammed Hamza, abc, def,
xyz

Guide: Dr BPH, Dr HMV

Keywords:

In this project we have endevoured to Design transistor level circuit to design a pll at technology of 180nm

A PLL is closed loop frequency system that locks phase of an output signal to an input reference signal ie. the ouput signal is an function of the input signal and the term lock hear means. PLL is used in many applications such as clock generation, clock recovery, frequency synthesis, demodulation and so on. The PLL is a feedback system that compares the phase of the output signal with the phase of the input reference signal and adjusts the output signal to minimize the phase difference. The PLL consists of three main components: a phase detector, a loop filter, and a voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO). The phase detector compares the phase of the input reference signal with the phase of the output signal and generates an error signal that represents the phase difference. The loop filter processes the error signal to remove high-frequency noise and generates a control voltage that is used to adjust the frequency of the VCO. The VCO generates an output signal whose frequency is proportional to the control voltage.

The design is carried out using LTspice with focus to demonstrate proof of concept

Dedication

To our families, friends, Guide, and all others that supported us in this work.

Acknowledgements

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

PLL   Phase Locked Loop

VCO   Voltage Controlled Oscillator

PID   Proportional-Integral Derivative

PD   Proportional Derivative

PFD   Phase Frequency Detector

TSMC   Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Company

OTA   Operational Transconductance Amplifier

FD   Frequency Divider

LF   Loop Filter

CP   Charge Pump

Symbols

C	Capacitance
R	Resistance
W	Width
L	Channel length
L	Inductor
t	Time
μ	Electron mobility
$\mathbf{C_{ox}}$	Oxide Capacitance
$\mathbf{V_{ov}}$	Voltage Overdrive
ϕ	Phase
ζ	Damping factor
ω	Frequency in radians
τ	Time constant

Chapter 1

Introduction

A PLL is a feedback system that includes a VCO, phase detector, and low pass filter within its loop.Its purpose is to force the VCO to replicate and track the frequency and phase at the input when in lock. The PLL is a control system allowing one oscillator to track with another.

$$\phi_{\text{out}}(t) = \phi_{\text{in}}(t) + \text{const.} \tag{1.1}$$
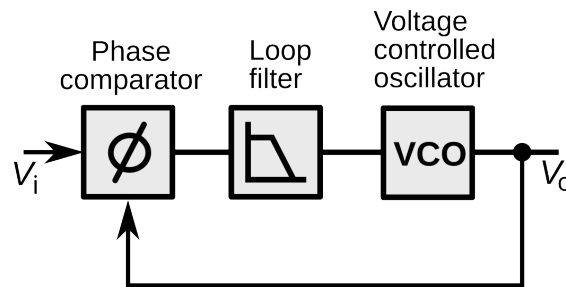
Figure 1.1: Simple analog phase locked loop

1.1   Motivation

Our team chose to work on the PLL project to gain practical knowledge about the fundamentals of phase-locked loops and their applications in modern electronics. We were particularly interested in the design and implementation of a PLL circuit at the transistor level to understand the underlying principles of PLL operation and the challenges involved in designing such circuits. We were motivated by the opportunity to work with simulation tools and techniques, such as LTspice, to analyze and optimize.

1.2   Brief History and Applications of PLL

- The PLL was invented in 1932 by Harold Stephen Black, an engineer at Bell Labs.

- The original PLL was used in telephone systems to eliminate noise and improve the quality of voice signals.

- Since then, the PLL has been widely used in various applications, including:

  - Clock generation: Ensuring that all components operate synchronously.

  - Frequency synthesis: Generating a range of frequencies from a single reference frequency.

  - Demodulation: Used in communication systems like FM radio and digital communication systems.

  - Data recovery: Recovering clock signals from data streams for proper synchronization.

  - Jitter reduction: Improving the performance of high-speed digital circuits.

  - Phase alignment: Aligning the phase of multiple signals for proper timing and synchronization.

  - Frequency modulation: Modulating signals in communication systems like FSK and PSK.

  - Signal conditioning: Filtering and conditioning signals to improve quality and reduce noise.

  - Clock recovery: Ensuring proper synchronization between transmitting and receiving devices.

1.3   Objective of the Project

- To design a PLL circuit at the transistor level using LTspice, with specific characteristics and specifications.

- Design targets:

  - Reference Frequency = 20 MHz

  - Output Frequency = 2.4 GHz

  - Power Consumption = 2 mW

  - Deterministic Jitter = 10 ps, pp

  - Random Jitter = 2 ps, rms

        – Supply Voltage = 1 V

- Carry out simulations to verify the performance of the designed PLL circuit.

- Analyze the results and compare them with the design targets.

- Identify the charachteristics of the PLL circuit for example:

        – Phase noise

        – Jitter

        – Lock time

        – Frequency stability

        – Power consumption

        – Output waveform

        – Phase margin

        – Loop bandwidth

        – frequecy capture range

- Document the design process, challenges faced, and lessons learned during the project.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Phase-Locked Loops (PLLs) are critical components in modern electronic systems, widely used for frequency synthesis, clock generation, and signal synchronization. This section reviews the foundational concepts, advancements, and applications of PLLs as presented in the literature.

2.1   Fundamentals of PLLs

2.2   Types of PLLs

Several types of PLLs have been developed to cater to different applications:

- **Analog PLLs (APLLs):** These are the traditional PLLs that use analog components such as voltage-controlled oscillators (VCOs) and phase detectors.

- **Digital PLLs (DPLLs):** With advancements in digital technology, DPLLs have gained popularity due to their robustness and programmability.

- **All-Digital PLLs (ADPLLs):** These PLLs eliminate analog components entirely, offering better integration in digital systems.

2.3   Applications of PLLs

PLLs are employed in a wide range of applications:

- **Communication Systems:** PLLs are used for carrier recovery, clock recovery, and frequency synthesis in wireless and wired communication systems.

- **Microprocessors:** Modern processors use PLLs for clock generation and synchronization to achieve high-speed operation.

- **Power Electronics:** PLLs are utilized in grid synchronization for renewable energy systems and motor control applications.

2.3.1   Recent Advancements

2.3.2   Challenges and Future Directions

Despite significant progress, challenges remain in designing PLLs for ultra-low power applications, high-frequency operation, and integration in advanced semiconductor technologies. Future research is expected to address these challenges by leveraging emerging technologies such as quantum computing and advanced materials.

Chapter 3

Methodology/Design/Implementation

3.1   Phase Locked Loop System Overview

A Phase-Locked Loop (PLL) is a negative feedback control system circuit. As the name implies, the purpose of a PLL is to generate a signal whose phase matches that of a reference signal. This is achieved through multiple iterations of comparing the reference and feedback signals (ref fig:1.1). The overall goal of the PLL is to align the phases of the reference and feedback signals—this is referred to as the lock mode. Once locked, the PLL continues to compare the two signals, but since they are in lock mode, the PLL output remains constant.

A basic PLL consists of four main components:

1. Phase Detector or Phase Frequency Detector (PD or PFD)

2. Charge Pump (CP)

3. Low Pass Filter (LPF)

4. Voltage-Controlled Oscillator (VCO)

The Phase Frequency Detector (PFD) measures the phase difference between the reference and feedback signals. If a phase difference exists, it generates synchronized "up" or "down" signals to the charge pump and low pass filter. If the error signal from the PFD is an "up" signal, the charge pump adds charge to the LPF capacitor, increasing the control voltage, V_{cntrl}. Conversely, if the error signal is a "down" signal, the charge pump removes charge from the LPF capacitor, decreasing V_{cntrl}.

The control voltage V_{cntrl} serves as the input to the VCO. The LPF is essential for allowing only DC signals into the VCO and for storing the charge from the CP. The VCO adjusts the feedback signal's frequency based on the error generated by the PFD. If the PFD generates an "up" signal, the VCO speeds up the feedback signal. Conversely, if a "down" signal is generated, the VCO slows it down. The output of the VCO is then fed back to the PFD to recalculate the phase difference, thereby creating a closed-loop frequency control system.
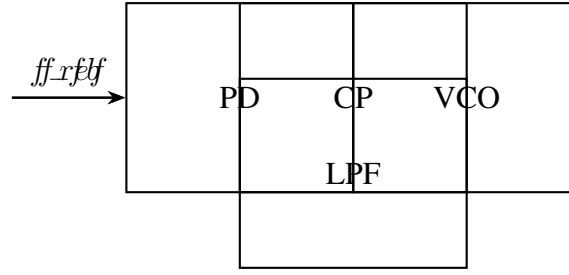
Figure 3.1: PLL Block Diagram

3.1.1 Phase Detector

A phase detector is a circuit that detects the difference in phase between its two input signals. An example of a basic phase detector is the XOR gate. It produces error pulses on both falling and rising edges.
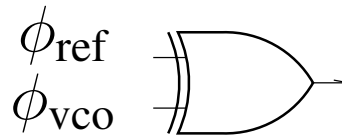

Figure 3.2

Phase Frequency Detector

A phase frequency detector (PFD) is a circuit that detects the difference in phase and frequency between its two input signals. The PFD is a more advanced version of the basic phase detector. It can detect both phase and frequency differences, making it more suitable for applications where the input signals may have different frequencies. The PFD generates an error signal that is proportional to the phase and frequency difference between the two input signals. This error signal is then used to control the charge pump and low pass filter in the PLL.
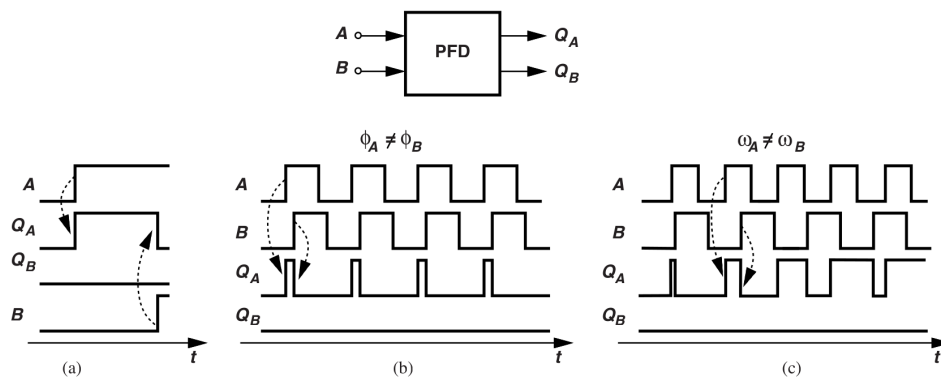

Figure 3.3: (a) Conceptual PFD operation, (b) case of input phase difference, and (c) case of input frequency difference

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3.1.2 Charge Pump

The charge pump is a circuit that converts the error signal from the phase detector into a control voltage for the VCO. The charge pump consists of two switches and a capacitor. The switches are controlled by the error signal from the phase detector. When the error signal is high, the switch connects the capacitor to the power supply, charging it. When the error signal is low, the switch connects the capacitor to ground, discharging it. The control voltage for the VCO is taken from the capacitor.

Icp

Up

Iout

Down

Icp
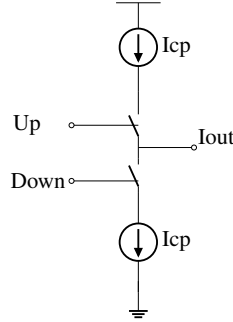
3.1.3 Low Pass Filter

The low pass filter is a circuit that removes high frequency noise from the control voltage generated by the charge pump. The low pass filter consists of a resistor and a capacitor. The resistor limits the current flowing into the capacitor, while the capacitor stores the charge. The output of the low pass filter is a smooth control voltage that is fed to the VCO.

3.1.4 Voltage Controlled Oscillator

The voltage controlled oscillator (VCO) is a circuit that generates an output signal whose frequency is proportional to the control voltage. The VCO consists of a transistor and a capacitor. The transistor is biased by the control voltage, which determines its operating frequency. The output of the VCO is fed back to the phase detector to complete the PLL loop.

$$f_{out} = K_{vco} * V_{in} + f_{min} \tag{3.1}$$

The VCO transfer function can be given as

$$H_{vco}(s) = \frac{\phi_o(s)}{v_o(s)} = \frac{K_{vco}}{S} \tag{3.2}$$

Kvco is an important factor it Determines the PLL settling time. There are different types of VCO like : Cross Coupled LC VCO, Current Starved VCO, Colpitts Oscillator. For this project, Current Starved VCO is used.
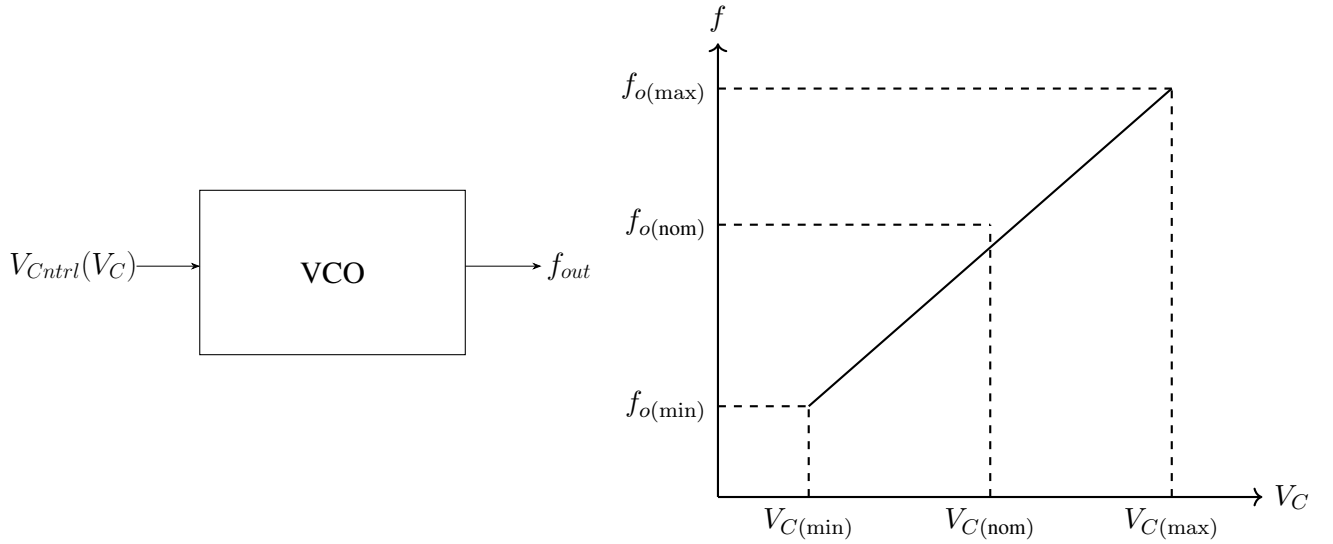
Figure 3.4: VCO Block Diagram and Characteristics

3.1.5 Frequency Divider

The frequency divider is a circuit that divides the frequency of the output signal from the VCO by a fixed integer value. The frequency divider is used to reduce the frequency of the output signal to match the frequency of the reference signal. The frequency divider can be implemented using a flip-flop or a counter. The output of the frequency divider is fed back to the phase detector to complete the PLL loop.

3.2 Design of the PLL blocks

3.2.1 Phase and Frequency Detector Design

3.2.2 Charge Pump Design

3.2.3 Low Pass Filter Design

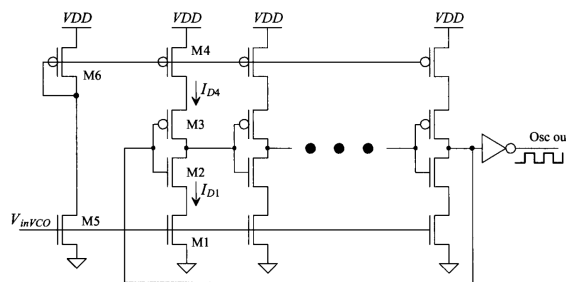### 3.2.4 Voltage Controlled Oscillator Design

Figure 3.5: Current Starved VCO Design

References

[1] J. F. Arsalan Mousavian, Dragomir Anguelov, "3D Bounding Box Estimation Using Deep Learning and Geometry," in *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2017.

Appendix I

Ability to track multiple objects in BEV space and the possible usage of heuristics in BEV space is explained here as an extension of the single image based tracking method presented earlier.

Extensibility to 3D tracking

Here we use the concept that objects cannot overlap in Bird's Eye View space. An LSTM network is trained to predict the change of parameter 'q' between consecutive frames. That is, for given $\dot{q}_{t-k}, ..., \dot{q}_{t-1}, \dot{q}_t \rightarrow \dot{q}_{t+1}$ is predicted where $\dot{q}_t = q_t - q_{t-1}$ and $q \in (C, S, \theta)$. Here;$C = C_x, C_y, C_z$ (the centre co-ordinates of the object), $S = (h, w, l)$ (object dimensions) and θ is the angle of rotation around the vertical axis. The loss function for training the parameter predictor (LSTM) is as follows.

$$LOSS_{pred}(p, \beta, \alpha, \delta, \theta) =$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \beta_{class_i}\left(\left(\sum_{p \in (C,S)} \alpha_p L_{Huber, \delta_p}(p_{pred}, p_{gt})\right) + \right.$$
$$\left. \alpha_\theta L_\theta(\theta_{pred}, \theta_{gt})_{object=i}\right) \quad (7)$$

Here P_{pred} refers to the predicted parameter and P_{gt} refers to the ground truth parameter.

δ_p is a parameter based learnable which in turn is the quadratic-linear margin of the Huber loss function and α_p or α_θ is a regressed parameter based learnable (where in the case of α_θ, the regressed parameter is θ and α_p is similarly interpreted whereas the scope of α_p is different from that of δ_p, considering the impact on cost function) and β_{class_i} is the class based learnable parameter w.r.t. the class of the ith object.

Here, $p = C_x, C_y, C_z, h, w, l$, $\beta = \beta_{class}|class \in classes$, $\alpha = [[\alpha_p]_{p \in parameters}, \alpha_\theta]$ and $\delta = [\delta_p]_{p \in parameters}$.

Due to the discontinuous nature of the parameter θ at the two extreme ends of its domain $[-\pi, \pi]$, and due to the fact that $\theta = \pi$ and $\theta = -\pi$ depict the same orientation, it is not directly incorporated into the Huber loss function. It is handled separately using L_θ function [1], where $\theta_{pred}, \theta_{gt}$ are predicted and ground truth values of the parameter θ respectively.

$$L_\theta(\theta_{pred}, \theta_{gt}) = 0.5(1 - \cos(\theta_{gt} - \theta_{pred})) \quad (8)$$

Constraints as penalties

First, we introduce the hard constraint on BEV space that projections of the objects on to the x-z plane in general co-ordinates have no intersection. However, most of the research is focused

on building up 3D bounding boxes of objects where the rectangular projection does not create a clear cut segmentation of the object (ex: human) on BEV space. Therefore, we minimize an additional term as follows.

$$I = \sum_{v_i, v_j \in objects_{pred}, i \neq j} (1 + \xi^2_{class_i, class_j})(v_{i_{BEV}} \cap v_{j_{BEV}}) \quad (9)$$

Where $v_{i_{BEV}}$ is the projection of the bounding box of the object v_i onto the BEV space and $\xi_{class_i, class_j}$ is a learnable based on object classes under intersection which in turn forms a set $\xi_{class \times class}$ and each term is squared to ensure positivity. Therefore, the final minimization function is as follows,

$$L(p, \beta, \alpha, \delta, \theta, \{\xi\}) = LOSS_{pred}(p, \beta, \alpha, \delta, \theta) + I \quad (10)$$

However, at an optimum point $(p^*, \beta^*, \alpha^*, \delta^*, \theta^*, \{\xi\}^*)$; the loss function obeys a feature observed in Lagrange constrained optimization that; $\nabla L = 0$ where ∇ refers to the discrete derivative (this statement is intuitive only with the discrete derivative).

This implies that:

$$\nabla_{p,\theta} Loss_{pred} = -(1 + \xi^2_{class_i, class_j}) \nabla_{p,\theta}(v_{i_{BEV}} \cap v_{j_{BEV}}) \quad (11)$$

for all classes at optimum parameters p^*, θ^*. Therefore $(1 + \xi^2_{class_i, class_j})$ behaves similar to a Lagrange multiplier. This setting helps to build up a network that trains not only based on the individual performance per object but also encountering the joint effect of multiple object scenarios.

Appendix II

Mean Field Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Inference on Bipartite CRF

1: $Q_i(l) := \text{softmax}_i(-\phi_i(l))$ and $R_i(t) := \text{softmax}_i(-\psi_i(t))$ ▷ Initialization

2: **while** not converged **do**

3:      $Q_i'(l) \mathrel{-}= \phi_i(l)$ ▷ Update due to the first term

4:      $Q_i'(l) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{l' \in \mathcal{L}} \left(\mu(l, l') \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Sim}_\Phi(i, j) \, Q_j(l') \right)$ ▷ Update due to the second term

5:      $R_i'(t) \mathrel{-}= \psi_i(t)$ ▷ Update due to the third term

6:      $R_i'(t) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{t' \in \mathcal{T}} \left([t \neq t'] \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Sim}_\Psi(i, j) \, R_j(t') \right)$ ▷ Update due to the fourth term

7:      $Q_i'(l) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \left(f(l, \text{class}(t)) \, R_i(t) \right)$

8:      $R_i'(t) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} \left(f(l, \text{class}(t)) \, Q_i(l) \right)$ ▷ Updates due to the fifth term

9:      $Q_i'(l) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \left(f(l, \text{class}(t)) \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Sim}_\Omega(i, j) \, R_j(t') \right)$

10:      $R_i'(t) \mathrel{-}= \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} \left(f(l, \text{class}(t)) \sum_{j \neq i} \text{Sim}_\Omega(i, j) \, Q_j(l') \right)$ ▷ Updates due to the sixth term

11:      $Q_i(l) := \text{softmax}_i \left(Q_i'(l) \right)$ and $R_i(t) := \text{softmax}_i \left(R_i'(t) \right)$ ▷ Normalization

12: **end while**

Appendix III

List of Publications

- Extending Multi-Object Tracking systems to better exploit appearance and 3D information

- Bipartite Conditional Random Fields for Panoptic Segmentation