

Simulation and Modeling of Fractional-N sigma delta PLL for Quantisation Noise Optimisation

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Abstract—Wireless Communication has expanded and achieved great heights. It has increased demand for rate of data transmission using low noise clock. Fractional-N frequency synthesizer is used most commonly in today's wireless technologies. This paper presents simulation and modeling of fractional-N frequency synthesizer and compares architectures that optimize quantization noise. Fractional-N frequency synthesizer is derived from integral-N frequency synthesizer using division control architectures such as Error Feedback Modulator (EFM), Multi-Stage Noise Shaping (MASH) and modified versions of MASH. Results show that fractional-N frequency synthesizer is capable of producing frequencies between 200MHz-225MHz with a phase margin of 48°. Spurious noise is observed at -200dBc.

Keywords—fractional-N frequency synthesizer, CppSim, EFM, MASH

interference and signal-to-noise ratio are key considerations. Phase noise and spurious noise affects the design considerations for frequency synthesizers. Minimizing phase noise and spurs of the frequency synthesizer while staying within power, size and cost constraints is a challenge for design engineers.

A behavioral model of integral-N frequency synthesizer is developed and its components are analyzed. A fractional-N synthesizer is developed from integral-N synthesizer architecture by using an additional sigma-delta modulator for division control. Modifications in sigma delta modulator is analyzed for reducing inherent spur noise.

The tools used are CppSim for behavioral simulation and PLL design assistant tool is used for achieving stable design parameters of integral-N PLL. This paper mainly deals with the behavioral simulation of fractional-N frequency synthesizer, to achieve stability, to improve jitter and spur noise and also making use of simple architecture for reducing area.

I. INTRODUCTION

Wireless applications like GSM, FM, EDGE etc. has limited number of bands and the local oscillators(LO) used in transceivers are expected to achieve these frequencies at low noise and high bandwidth. LO requires spanning a range of frequencies at an increment of fine resolution. It should be capable of hopping between channels in a short duration or at a great speed. This results in high bandwidth. LO are required to meet noise requirement such that it does not corrupt data or interfere on adjacent channels.

LOs are achieved through Phase Locked Loops(PLLs). These PLLs mimic noise characteristic of crystal oscillator (reference oscillator). Integer-N frequency synthesizer is an application of PLL. It is capable of producing frequencies that are integer multiples of reference frequency. Therefore, the integer-N frequency synthesizer is limited by resolution [1]. The resolution is dependent on reference frequency and for smaller resolution, reference frequency should be reduced. Bandwidth of PLL is dependent on reference frequency. Reducing reference frequency results in reducing bandwidth. Fractional-N frequency synthesizer decouples resolution from bandwidth [2].

Due to the demand in high data rate and existence of more number of users have led to need for a design where

II. DESIGN OF FRACTIONAL-N PLL

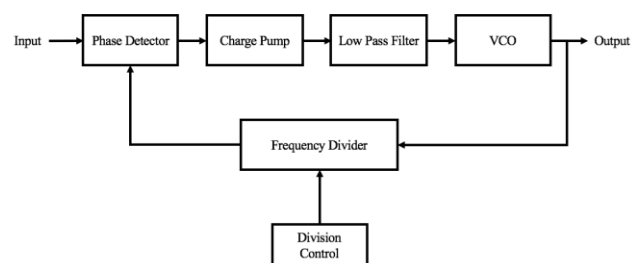


Figure 1: Block Diagram of fractional-N PLL

Figure 1 shows block diagram of fractional-N PLL. Phase detector compares the pulse edges between reference signal (input) and feedback signal from frequency divider. Charge pump charges the capacitor present in low pass filter when reference signal is leading and discharges when input is lagging. High frequency error signal is filtered by low pass filter. The DC output from low pass filter drives voltage controlled oscillator (VCO). Frequency divider reduces the frequency of output signal by mod value of the frequency divider. For integral-N PLL frequency divider holds a static

mod value. In fractional-N PLL the divide value is received from division control unit. Division control unit dynamically varies the mod value of frequency divider compared to static value in integral-N PLL. Dynamic variation results in achieving a fractional value due to averaging nature of low pass filter. Dynamic variation results in increasing noise characteristics. To reduce the impact of this noise, noise shaping circuits are used for division control unit.

A. Modelling of Tristate Phase Frequency Detector(PFD)

If the phase detector can detect phase difference more than 2π then it is called as Phase Frequency Detector(PFD). Phase frequency detector is used to compare the phase between reference oscillator output and feedback output from VCO in PLL. Tristate PFD is a digital circuit. If the posedge of input(ref) phase leads when compared to feedback(fb) signal it gives a high voltage [3]. If the posedge of input phase lags when compared to output signal it gives a low voltage. Otherwise it remains at zero. Tristate PFD is used as Phase frequency detector, this mainly composed of sub-modules D-flip-flop (DFF) and logical AND gate as shown in figure 2.

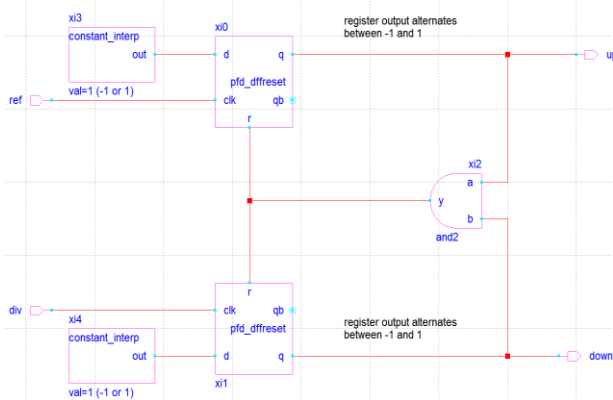


Figure 2: Tristate PFD

The inputs to PFD are voltage signals of reference and feedback signal. It compares the phase difference during the posedge transitions. The DFF can be derived from a latch. Figure 3 shows flow chart of latch.

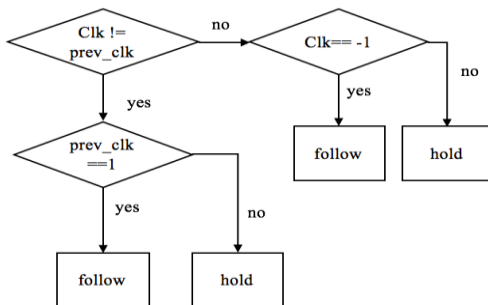


Figure 3: Flowchart of latch

As DFF can be constructed from latch. Output of DFF can be obtained by calling latch function in series and giving latch functions with appropriate inputs.

Flowchart for AND gate is shown in figure 4. The flowchart initially checks previous output. Initial case is that if previous output is low then the output transitions only when both inputs are not low value. At this time output moves from low to high indicated by giving state high value and 'out' signal will be taking an intermediate value. If both inputs are in transition output will also be in transition. During transition signal takes a value between -1 and 1 which is indicated using signal is in transition (T).

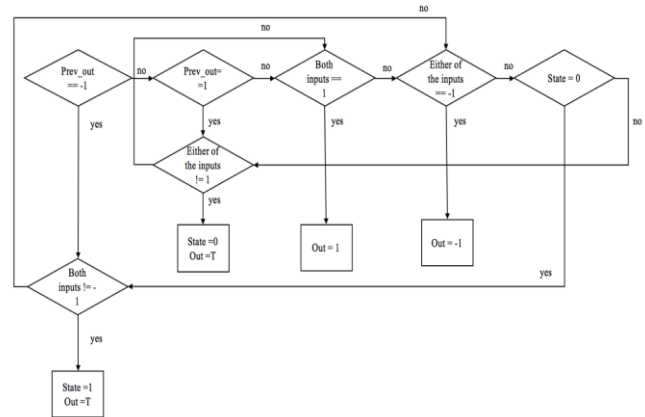


Figure 4: Flowchart of AND gate

B. Modeling of Charge Pump(CP)

The output of phase detector is in digital states. By using charge pump or a current steering DAC, the input digital states drive current to filter. This current charges or discharges loop filter. The width of PFD output state represents the phase difference. This phase difference from PFD output needs to be converted into analog voltage. Charge pump along with low pass filter gives analog output. This analog output is equivalent to the phase difference between reference signal and output signal. Charge pump is designed for a supply current. For a high input, it drives the current while for a low input it discharges. By considering supply current to be 'ival' the output values it can have is shown in table 1.

TABLE I: CHARGE PUMP OUTPUT

Input(V) from PFD	Output(μA)
-1	-ival
0	0
1	ival
T	T*ival

C. Modelling Low Pass Filter (LPF)

The loop filter converts current from charge pump to a voltage. For this purpose and for deriving filter equation let us

consider practical system shown in figure 5. It shows a current steering DAC connected to a resistor, capacitor setup.

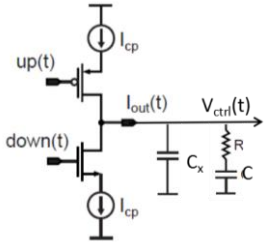


Figure 5: Loop filter with current steering DAC [4]

Capacitor one terminal is connected to current steering DAC output or charge pump output, while another end is grounded. When 'up' is high capacitor charges and when 'down' is high capacitor discharges. By ohm's law the voltage across capacitor is given by the eq (1).

$$v_{ctrl}(t) = \frac{1}{c} \int_{-\infty}^t I_{cp}(\tau) d\tau \quad \text{eq (1)}$$

$$v_{ctrl}(t) = \frac{1}{c} \cdot I_{cp} \int_{-\infty}^t (up(\tau) - dw(\tau)) d\tau \quad \text{eq (2)}$$

In eq (2) as long as 't' is much greater than period or τ , it gives an average value at the output. The resistor capacitor series circuit in cascade with capacitor is the loop filter. It acts as a low pass filter or averages over long periods. Loop filter gain can be calculated as,

$$H(s) = \left(R + \frac{1}{sC} \right) \parallel \left(\frac{1}{sC_x} \right)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s(c+c_x)} \cdot \frac{1+sCR}{1+sR \cdot \frac{c \cdot c_x}{c+c_x}} \quad \text{eq (3)}$$

Where $\omega_z = \frac{1}{cR}$ and $\omega_p = \frac{1}{R \cdot \frac{c \cdot c_x}{c+c_x}}$,

the above eq (3) can be written as

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s(c+c_x)} \cdot \frac{1+s/\omega_z}{1+s/\omega_p} \quad \text{eq (4)}$$

This loop filter architecture consists of integrator and propagator in the combination of resistor(R), capacitor(C) network. The R in the RC network achieves a proportional output while C gives integrator output. The above RC network acts a low pass filter [4]. The output of PFD consists of DC component. This DC component is filtered out through low pass filter.

D. Modeling of Voltage Controlled Oscillator (VCO)

Voltage Controlled Oscillator is a system that gives a specific frequency for given input voltage. The output frequency is related to input voltage by a constant 'K_{vco}'. Phase

is related to frequency. VCO can be modelled as shown in eq (5).

$$\omega(s) = K_{vco} \cdot v(s), K_{vco} \rightarrow \frac{\text{radians}}{\text{sec} \cdot V} \quad \text{eq (5)}$$

$$\omega(s) = K_{vco} \cdot v(s) \quad \text{eq (6)}$$

As output phase from VCO needs to be modelled, phase is integral of angular frequency as shown in the below eq (7).

$$\phi(t) = \int \omega(t) dt \quad \text{eq (7)}$$

Phase in Laplace domain is modelled in eq (8).

$$\phi(s) = \frac{\omega(s)}{s} \quad \text{eq (8)}$$

Substituting eq (6) in eq (8) results eq (9).

$$\phi(s) = \frac{K_{vco}}{s} \cdot v(s) \quad \text{eq (9)}$$

Analog component vco is modelled using above equation. Phase equation is used for modeling it. It can also be observed that an integrator is inherently present.

E. Modeling of Frequency Divider

Frequency Divider reduces input signal frequency by mod value N. It allows the high frequency signal to be comparable frequency at the input of phase detector.

Flowchart for divider is shown in figure 6. The div_val determines the number of cycles output needs to be low/high. Cycles are counted when there is a transition from low value to high value in input signal 'in'. State variable determines if output signal must be high state or low state.

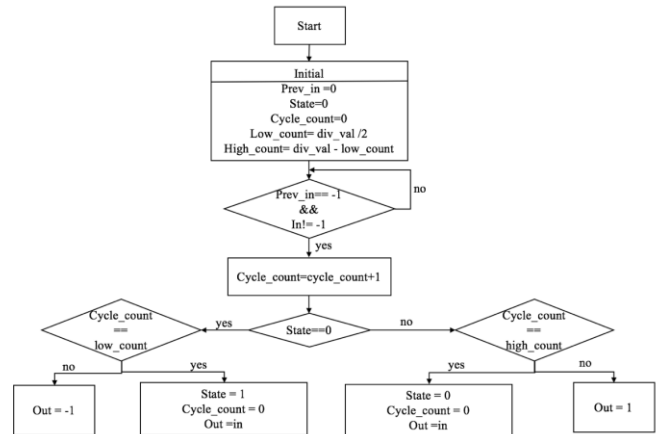


Figure 6: Flowchart for frequency divider

The closed loop gain of integral-N PLL is given in eq (10), where g(s) is forward path gain and 1/N is feedback path gain.

$$C(s) = \frac{\phi_{out}}{\phi_{ref}} = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s) \cdot \frac{1}{N}} \quad \text{eq (10)}$$

For low frequencies or within loop bandwidth the above eq becomes

$$C(s) \approx N$$

Therefore,

$$\phi_{out} = N \cdot \phi_{ref}$$

Where the frequency is derivative of phase and hence,

$$\frac{d\phi_{out}}{dt} = N \cdot \frac{d\phi_{ref}}{dt} \Rightarrow F_{out} = N \cdot F_{ref} \quad \text{eq (11)}$$

From the above eq (11) an integral PLL is also frequency synthesizer or multiplier of mod N. The output of integral PLL will have a frequency N times that of reference frequency.

F. Design Parameters for integral-N PLL

For a stable PLL to be designed zeroes and poles in the Laplace model must be carefully placed. The Laplace model is as shown in figure 7. The closed loop gain is given in eq (12). It shows that it has two poles at the origin and another pole ‘ ω_{p3} ’, zero ‘ ω_z ’.

$$A(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot I_{cp} \cdot \frac{1}{s(c+c_x)} \cdot \frac{1+s/\omega_z}{1+s/\omega_{p3}} \cdot \frac{K_v}{s} \cdot \frac{1}{N} \quad \text{eq (12)}$$

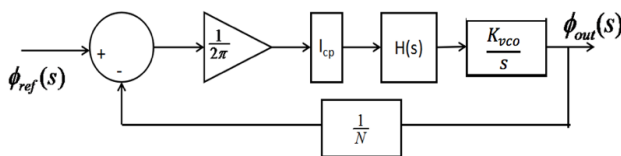


Figure 7: Laplace Model for integral-N PLL

Corresponding design parameters are given in table 2.

TABLE II: DESIGN PARAMETERS FOR INTEGRAL-N PLL

Design Case	A
ω_{ugb}	2.5MHz
fz	0.5MHz
fp	4.233MHz
gain	8.13E+09
Icp	2.00E-05A
Kvco	2e9Hz/V
f _{out}	200MHz
f _{in}	25MHz
N	8

G. Division Control Unit

Non-Integer ratios can be achieved by dynamically switching between the divider values. For the divider value sequence N+1, N, N+1, N..., for this sequence division value obtained over a long period of time is given by eq (13).

$$N + \beta = \frac{\text{count}(N) * N + \text{count}(N+1) * (N+1)}{\text{count}(N) + \text{count}(N+1)} \quad \text{eq (13)}$$

Four architectures are considered for division control unit. These architectures are digital in nature as they are easy to implement. Error Feedback Modulator (EFM), Multistage Noise Shaping (MASH) 1-1 are two architectures considered. EFM is first order in nature while MASH is second order. ‘1-1’ indicates that it is composed of first order EFM connected in series. Another two architectures considered is modified versions of MASH 1-1. In one architecture, an extra PRBS structure is used for bringing a random nature. In the other an odd initial state is considered for MASH 1-1.

H. Modeling of EFM

EFM is first order Digital Delta Sigma Modulator (DDSM). It consists of an accumulator and delay element. Required fractional value determines width of accumulator, number of delay elements required and input to the accumulator. There are two inputs to accumulator a constant and feedback. Output of the accumulator is the carry out and error. Carry out in first order implementation is single bit and it can have values zero and one. The divider values then can be $N+C_{out}$.

The flowchart given in figure 8 calculates carry out and stores in variable ‘out’ while it stores the accumulator output in ‘sum’. The output of delay element is sum. Accumulator width is the number of bits required to represent input. It depends on number of channels. For each channel, corresponding input must be present. Max value is dependent on width of accumulator. When error is greater than max value, carry out is set. Accumulator width and inputs are the parameters that need to be determined.

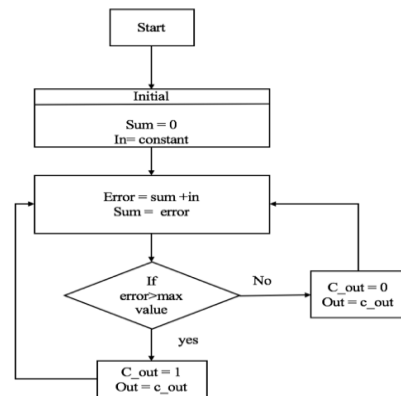


Figure 8: Flowchart of EFM

I. Modeling of MASH 1-1

MASH architecture is constructed from EFM itself. In this architecture two EFMs will be present. It is observed that maximum number of states achieved is equal to $2 \cdot 2^w$ where w is the width of accumulator. According to parsevals theorem more number of states allows reduction in quantization noise due to spurs. It is observed that even input has less number of states and odd input is observed to have maximum number of states. It is a second order architecture. It comprises of two EFMs connected in series [5]. Carry out from both EFMs results in a noise cancellation network. Output of noise cancellation network is a two-bit. Hence the frequency divider should be able to handle four mod values. In this case 7,8,9 and 10.

J. Modeling of MASH 1-1 with PRBS3

In the previous architecture, the number of states increased only by double. Number of states is dependent on nature of input. This is stochastic approach where Least Significant Bit (LSB) of input is randomly varied. The LSB is replaced by the output from three-bit PRBS generator. Hence here the number of states MASH 1-1 goes through is not deterministic [6].

K. Modeling of MASH 1-1 with Odd Initial State (OIS)

Here one of the EFM's accumulator is initialized to one. For MASH, least number of states is observed for even input. Previously in MASH and EFM architecture, for a given fraction number of states remained same, even if accumulator width was increased. For MASH with OIS, very high deterministic number of states can be achieved for higher accumulator width. Higher number of states allows decrease in noise due to spurs [8].

L. Design Parameters for fractional-N PLL

To span frequency from 200Mhz-225MHz using 16 channels, the frequency resolution is given by eq (14).

$$\Delta f = \frac{f_{max}-f_{min}}{\text{number of channels}} \quad \text{eq (14)}$$

The parameters required to be determined are input bit length and input values for each channel.

$$N_{frac}=N+\beta=N+\frac{\text{input}}{2^k} \quad \text{eq (15)}$$

$$k = \frac{\log \frac{f_{ref}}{\Delta f}}{\log 2} \quad \text{eq (16)}$$

Input bit length can be determined using eq (16). For the above specifications k or input bit length is determined to be four. Table 3 gives fractions achievable when $k=4$ and $k=11$. Using $k=11$ allows more resolution, the fractions using $k=4$ is also achieved and achieves more number of states.

TABLE III: INPUT FOR K=11 AND K=4

Input when k=4	Input when k=11	$\frac{\text{Input}}{\beta = 2^k}$
0	0	0
1	128	0.0625
2	256	0.125
3	384	0.1875
4	512	0.25
5	640	0.3125
6	768	0.375
7	896	0.4375
8	1024	0.5
9	1152	0.5625
10	1280	0.625
11	1408	0.6875
12	1536	0.75
13	1664	0.8125
14	1792	0.875
15	1920	0.9375

Schematic model of fractional-N PLL is shown in figure 9. Div_val_in is input to frequency divider. It is sum of output from division control unit and mod N value.

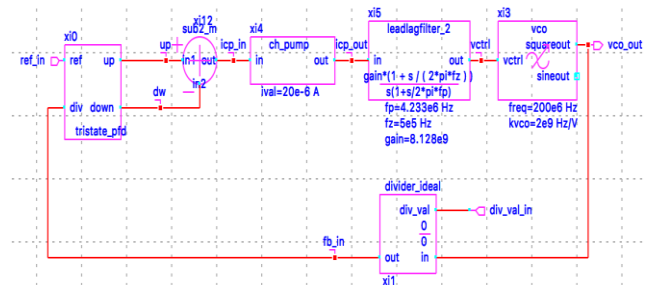


Figure 9: Schematic model for fractional-N PLL

III. RESULTS

A. Integral-N PLL results

CppSim is used for behavioral simulation. Figure 10 shows integral-N PLL results. Time period 'T' can be calculated.

$$T = (998.835 - 998.83) \mu\text{seconds and frequency 'f' is}$$

$$F = 1/T = 200 \text{ MHz}$$

Hence output frequency is equal to 200 MHz.

Vctrl is at a static value zero as shown in figure 10. Using eq (17) phase margin is calculated as 48.12°.

$$\text{Phase Margin} = \tan^{-1}(\omega_{ugb}/\omega_z) - \tan^{-1}(\omega_{ugb}/\omega_{p3}) \quad \text{eq(17)}$$

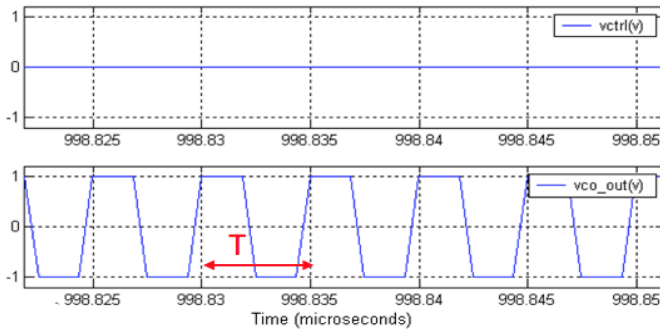


Figure 10: Integral-N PLL results

B. Analysis of Division Control Unit

Initially all four architectures of division control unit are simulated for accumulator width $k=4$. An averaging function is used to calculate the fractions. The resulting fractions for corresponding inputs are shown in figure 11. It is observed that for PRBS, absolute values are not achieved rather closer values are achieved. LSB of input in MASH with PRBS is dithered, hence when input seven is considered it essentially dithers between six and seven. This is the reason average observed is not expected value and for both six and seven same average is observed. While EFM, MASH and MASH with odd initial state achieves expected fractional values for all inputs.

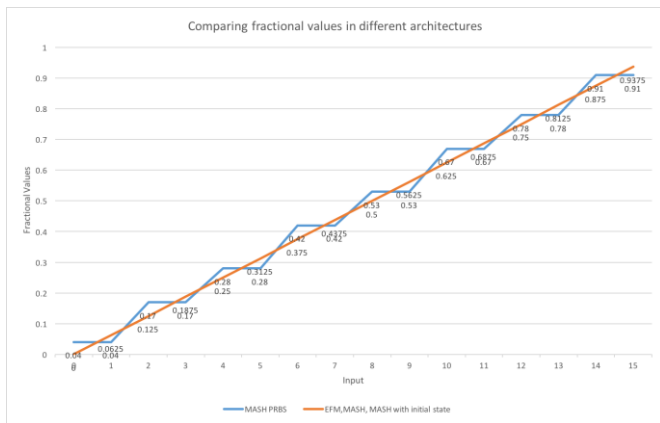


Figure 11: Comparing fractional values

The average output is equivalent to fraction $\frac{input}{2^n}$, where n is the width of accumulator. It is also observed that number of states are maximum for odd input while it varies for even input. Figure 12, gives the following observations about number of states for all inputs when bit length of input is four. In EFM maximum number of states observed for inputs is 16. For even inputs lesser number of states is observed and worst case is 2. The number of states remains same for these fractions even when the accumulator width is increased.

Maximum state for odd inputs at 32 and worst case observed for even with four states. The number of states remains same for these fractions even when the accumulator width is increased.

MASH with Odd Initial State (OIS) improves minimum number of states to eight. It also allows the fractions to improve the number of states with increase in accumulator width. Accumulator width of eleven is considered for improving number of states. To achieve same fractions for accumulator width of eleven, inputs need to be multiplied with 2^7 . For all fractions when accumulator width is eleven, the number of states observed is 2048. Whereas in MASH without odd initial state, number of states does not improve when accumulator width is eleven. The improvement observed is very high.



Figure 12: Comparing number of states when $k=4$

C. Fractional-N PLL results

The results of fractional-N PLL whose bandwidth is $1/10^{th}$ of reference frequency and MASH 1-1 divider modulator with odd initial state is shown in figure 13. Input given is 896 which implies that expected frequency is 210.9375 MHz. From figure the $freq_avg$ is approximately at 210.9375 MHz and jitter goes up to 200 pico-seconds.

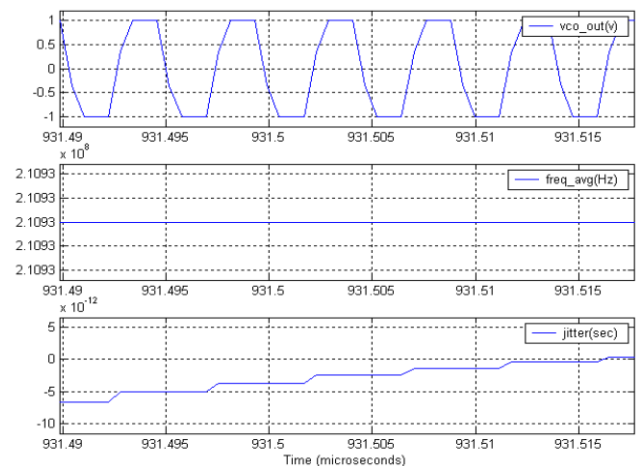


Figure 13: Fractional-N PLL results

D. Noise Analysis

The phase noise plot for different architectures for the accumulator width of eleven and input to divider control of 512 is shown in figure 14. Using 512 as input expected output frequency is 206.25MHz. It can be observed that spur noise is least in case of PRBS and MASH with odd initial state while highest in case of EFM and MASH. It can also be observed that spurs are present but its strength is less in MASH with PRBS and odd initial state. It is less than -200dBc. Spurs are observed at offset of more than 2MHz from center frequency in MASH with odd initial state. Their strength is less by 200 dB compared to center frequency.

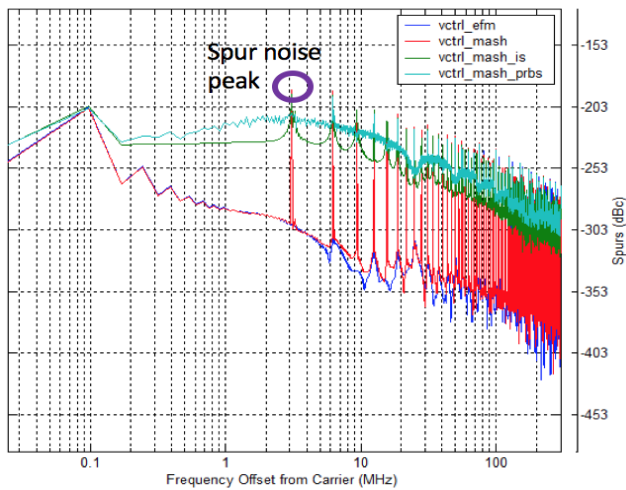


Figure 14: Phase noise plot

The freq_avg for all architectures are set at 206.25 as shown in Table 5. It can be seen that MASH with PRBS architecture performs well. Their performance is attributed to the fact that not all input combinations are used. While using PRBS in architecture it is highly recommended to confirm that it achieves expected frequency for the required fractions. Since its a stochastic approach sometimes it can vary. MASH with odd initial state has approximate performance to MASH with PRBS. Architecture required for MASH with odd initial state is less compared to PRBS.

TABLE IV: JITTER RESULTS

Architecture	average frequency(MHz)	rms jitter(ps)
EFM	206.25	64.6
MASH	206.25	148.91
MASH PRBS	206.25	122.74
MASH IS	206.25	125.34

IV. CONCLUSION

Four different division control architectures such as EFM, MASH 1-1, MASH 1-1 with odd initial state and MASH 1-1 with PRBS are considered for achieving fractional division and low spurs. These architectures are digitally implementable and unconditionally stable circuits. Spur strength achieved is less than -200dBc. Lower architectural requirement is seen in MASH with odd initial state compared to PRBS. Behavioral simulation is carried out through CppSim software. The output frequency of integral PLL achieved is 200MHz from a 25MHz reference frequency. A division control module is designed for 200MHz-225 MHz range output with 16 channels.

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