# A Power-efficient and Fast-locking Digital Quadrature Clock Generator with Ping-pong Phase Detection

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*Abstract***—This work presents a low-power and fast-locking digital 1.6GHz quadrature clock generator (QCG), which mainly consists of a novel ping-pong phase detection (PPD) controller with a pair of latch-based phase detectors. The proposed PPD scheme compares generated clock signals from a digitally controlled delay line (DCDL) with an input clock for fast coarse lock, resulting in a short locking time. Post-layout simulations of an implementation in 28nm CMOS technology suggest that the proposed work can lock within 13 cycles and produce 4-phase 1.6GHz quality output clocks, which supports a data rate of 6.4Gbps. It achieves an RMS jitter of 1.65ps and an effective peak-to-peak jitter of 1.12ps, offers power efficiency of 0.25mW/Gbps, and occupies an area of 0.00247mm<sup>2</sup> .** *281.0*<br> **Abstract—This work presents a**<br>
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# *Keywords***—***multiphase clock generator, fast lock, ping-pong phase detection (PPD), digital quadrature clock generator.*

#### I. INTRODUCTION

In contemporary high-speed systems-on-a-chips (SoCs) including memory interface, delay-locked loops (DLLs) have been used extensively [1-6] due to its avoidance of jitter accumulation over multiple reference clock cycles [4]. For next-generation high-speed systems, such as GDDR5X/6, multi-phase schemes including quadrature-data-rate (QDR) are demanded [5], especially to achieve a high data rate of 6.4Gbps for memory systems [7].

Among several approaches, digital-based DLLs have become popular due to their short lock-in time, power efficiency and smaller area compared to analog DLLs [2-8] and therefore have been the subject of recent research for power-saving post-DDR4 DLLs [9].

Several new designs of register-controlled digital DLL including [10] for high-speed applications were introduced, but they require long locking time in addition to large area and high power consumption [4]. In other designs [11-12], a time-to-digital converter (TDC) is used to achieve fast locking, but they are still limited by high area and power consumption [4, 6]. Other approaches based on successiveapproximation-register (SAR) scheme tackle the limit of the previous work, but its open-loop architecture cannot offer seamless tracking of variations, which might result in critical performance degradation [4].

In this paper, we introduce a digital DLL-based low-power and fast-locking quadrature clock generator (QCG) using a ping-pong phase detector (PPD). The proposed PPD-QCG achieves a fast coarse lock, followed by a fine locking stage, which reduces the total locking time. The PPD shares a digitally controlled delay line (DCDL) with the output of the QCG to minimize area, and it also offers low-power scheme by gating signal switching in the phase detectors during



Fig. 1. Block diagram of the proposed PPD-QCG.

locked state. The proposed QCG generates 4-phase output clocks operating at 1.6GHz, thus supporting QDR data rate of 6.4Gbps for next-generation memory interfaces.

## II. ARCHITECTURE

Asshown in Fig. 1, the PPD-QCG consists of the following three major blocks: a PPD, a DCDL, and a PPD controller with a multiplexer (MUX) for PPD scheme. The PPD consists of a pair of phase detectors ( $PD<sub>A</sub>$  and  $PD<sub>B</sub>$ ) for ping-pong style phase detection.

The architecture of each PD is a conventional single-shot phase detector producing one-hot-style output. However, this latch-based PD has its limit on fast phase acquisition while maintaining the previous phase information. A case of contradiction is introduced where an enable input signal of the latches needs to stay low to hold the current value while a high-to-low transition is required to update to a new value.

In this work, we combine the two PDs with a novel PPD control scheme to support seamless acquisition (e.g. multishot) of new phase information without losing the previous phase information, which achieves fast locking.

Each PD has an input signal SHOT to capture the phase information  $(L[0:7])$  and outputs an 8-bit signal bus indicating phase information (SW) with an overflow flag (OV) to the PPD controller. The controller detects phase underflow if all bits of SW is zero, while it detects phase overflow based on the OV flag. It then controls the DCDL by CODE signal bus, and also performs DCDL input multiplexing using SEL.

The DCDL consists of 8 equal digitally-controlled unit delay cells (UDCs) of which the delay is  $\tau_d$ , where each UDC is a combination of current-starving inverter scheme for fine



Fig. 2. Phase detection examples of different CA values for a fixed-phased SHOT signal when the delay of unit delay cell  $\tau_d$  is (a) similar to the target delay (b) smaller than the target delay (c) greater than the target delay.



Fig. 3. Simplified diagrams indicating the blocks which are operating during a) the coarse-tuning stage and (b) the fine-tuning stage.

tuning and inverters with shunt-capacitor scheme for coarse tuning, respectively. Total of 8 signals (DL[0:7]) are generated from each UDC, and the 4-phase output clocks  $(CK_I, CK_Q, CK_{IB}, and CK_{QB})$  are then produced.

The BBPD compares the phase between the input clock  $(CK_{IN})$  and a DCDL-generated signal  $(CK_{FB})$ , then outputs the result  $(S_{BB})$  to the PPD controller.  $S_{BB}$  is then used to determine the sign of next CODE in a fine-tuning stage as well as to finely dither CODE at the final locking stage. The system also outputs two flags  $LOCK_C$  and  $LOCK_F$  indicating coarse and fine locking, respectively.

#### III. FAST LOCKING BY THE PING-PONG PHASE DETECTION

# *A. Basic Operations of the Proposed Work*

Each PD measures the phase difference between the DL signals and a fixed-phase SHOT signal generated from  $CK_{\text{IN}}$ . SW signals indicates the relative phase information of DL and SHOT, where the delay of DL is determined by  $\tau_d$ . The controller then converts SW to a positive integer C, as shown in Fig. 2. This approach not only detects the relative position of generated phase (aligned, early and late), but also obtains the relative magnitude of the phase for fast-locking coarse calibration of DCDL delay performing by the controller.

The ping-pong control scheme initially activates PD<sup>A</sup> while it deactivates  $PD_B$  at the first cycle of  $CK_{IN}$ . In the next cycle of  $CK_{\text{IN}}$ , the scheme deactivates  $PD_A$  while it activates  $PD_B$ . This on-and-off cycle for the 2 cycles of  $CK_{IN}$ constitutes one PPD cycle. From the third cycle of  $CK_{IN}$ , the scheme is repeated until the coarse locking and followed by fine-tuning stage, as depicted in Fig. 3.

## *B. Controls of Signals for Ping-pong Phase Detection*

The PPD controller generates main control signals by the circuit in Fig. 4. First,  $SHOT<sub>A</sub>$  is generated by a flip-flop capturing of the delayed CK<sub>IN</sub> for  $\tau_r = (T_{IN}/8) \times N_S$ , where



Fig. 4. Schematic of ping-pong control signal generator in PPD controller.



Fig. 5. Simplified timing diagram of ping-pong process for a case of  $\tau_d < T_D$ .

 $1 < N_S < 8$  and  $T_{IN}$  is the period of CK<sub>IN</sub>. SHOT<sub>B</sub> is then generated by another flip-flop capturing of SHOTA. SEL is also generated from SHOT<sub>A</sub> by delaying it for  $\tau_m$ , where  $\tau_m$  is a slight delay allowing time for the phase captures in the PDs before shuffling the multiplexer input. Note that a flag indicating the coarse lock (LOCK<sub>C</sub>) stops the toggling of control signals so that the system enters a fine-tuning stage. This signal gating scheme also performs switching power reduction in the PDs by stopping phase captures.

# *C. Error Estimation by the First Shot in Ping-pong Cycle*

The initial timing error can be estimated by  $SHOT<sub>A</sub>$  from the region  $T_A$  in Fig. 5. We first define  $\tau_d$  and  $T_D$ , respectively indicating actual and ideal delay value of UDC, as

$$
\tau_d = T_D - \varepsilon = (T_{I\!N}/8) - \varepsilon , \qquad (1)
$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the delay error of UDC from the ideal value. From  $T_A$ , we can derive a formula to estimate timing error  $\varepsilon_A$  by

$$
C_A \times (T_D - \varepsilon_A) < N_S \times T_D \,, \tag{2}
$$

which can be also expressed in terms of  $\varepsilon_A$  as follows:

$$
\varepsilon_A > \frac{C_A - N_S}{C_A} \times T_D, \tag{3}
$$

where  $C_A \neq floor(N_S)$  with no under-/over-flow occurring. If  $C_A = floor(N_S)$ , the system adopts another estimation  $\varepsilon_B$  from the second shot of the PPD cycle, or enters the fine-tuning stage depending on the value of *CB*.

# *D. Error Estimation by the Second Shot in Ping-pong Cycle*

Better estimation  $\varepsilon_B$  can be obtained by SHOT<sub>B</sub> from  $T_B$ . The error estimation  $\varepsilon_B$  from  $T_B$  can be obtained as

$$
(8+C_B)\times (T_D-\varepsilon_B) < (8+N_S)\times T_D,
$$
\n(4)



Fig. 6. Examples showing the effect of location of SHOT signal when it is located (a) near the rising edge of DL[3] (b) at the center between the rising edges of DL[3] and DL[4] (c) near the rising edge of DL[4].

TABLE I. NUMERICAL EXAMPLE OF CODE CONTROL

$#_{PPD}$	$N_S$	$\tau_{\rm d}$ (ps)	◡◢	$\mathsf{C}_B$	$\mathcal{E}_{A,min}$ (p <sub>S</sub> )	$\mathcal{E}_{B,min}$ (ps)	c (ps)	(ps)
	4.9(W)	62			1.6	10.9	10.9	
	4.5 $(N)$				N/A	3.0	3.0	
	4.1(B)	76			Coarse locked		$2\Delta$	

*\* Target period (TD) = 78.125ps (1.6 GHz)*

which can be also expressed as:

$$
\varepsilon_{B} > \frac{C_{B} - N_{S}}{C_{B} + 8} \times T_{D} .
$$
 (5)

From (3) and (5), the final estimate  $\varepsilon$  can be found by

$$
\varepsilon > \varepsilon_{\min} = \max(\varepsilon_A, \varepsilon_B) . \tag{6}
$$

After each PPD cycles, the system updates  $\tau_d$  based on the estimated error  $\varepsilon$  by the following:

$$
\tau_{d,NEW} = \tau_d + \Delta_{\tau}, \text{ where} \tag{7}
$$

$$
\Delta_{\tau} = round(\varepsilon). \tag{8}
$$

This update is repeated until the following is satisfied:

$$
C_A = C_B = floor(N_S). \tag{9}
$$

When (8) is satisfied, the PPD moves to a fine-tuning stage.

#### *E. Delay Line controls of Fine-Tuning Stage*

Once the system enters the fine-tuning stage, the system first chooses the initial  $\Delta_{\tau}$  value by

$$
\Delta_{\tau} = \text{sgn}(S_{BB}) \times floor\left(\frac{0.5 \times T_D}{8} \times 0.5\right),\tag{10}
$$

where  $S_{BB}$  is the BBPD output indicating  $\tau_d$  is smaller (+1) or greater (-1) than  $T<sub>D</sub>$ . From this initial  $\Delta_{\tau}$ , the controller performs a conventional binary-search tuning based on  $S_{BB}$ . This only takes a few cycles because  $\tau_d$  is already well near the target. After fine locking, only the output-generating DCDL and the code-dithering BBPD are active while other blocks are hibernated or turned off to achieve power saving.

## *F. Numerical Discussion of the Proposed Work*

In this section, a numerical example of the PPD system will be introduced to explain the locking procedure visited in the previous sections. This example is a case of generating



Fig. 7. Transient results of  $\tau_d$  convergence versus  $#_{PPD}$  achieving coarse locking within 4 PPD cycles for any set of locking strategies. *(For examaple, WNB means a set of Worse-Normal-Better strategies during PPD cycles 1-3)*

1.6GHz  $(T_D = 78.125 \text{ps})$  output clocks and the delay line is initially off-calibrated at 2.016GHz ( $\tau_d = 62 \text{ps}$ ).

Precise calibration of *N<sup>S</sup>* right after the rising edge of the DCDL-generated clock (SHOT $_{IDEAL}$ ), as depicted in Fig. 6 (a) and (c), offers more accurate  $\varepsilon$ . It becomes obvious from (3) and (5) that this increases  $\varepsilon_{\min}$ , offering more aggressive DCDL tuning. However, the non-ideal nature of the circuitry may result in the actual SHOT in the circuit becoming SHOTFAULT as depicted in Fig. 6. Therefore, aligning the rising edge of SHOT near the center between the two adjacent DLs (e.g.  $N_S \approx 4.5$ ) would be a more practical approach.

Table I demonstrates the decision procedure of  $\Delta_{CODE}$  after each PPD cycle (#*PPD*) for a case where *N<sup>S</sup>* is changing every PPD cycles, in the order of Worse-Normal-Better ( $N<sub>S</sub>$ : 4.9  $\rightarrow$  $4.5 \rightarrow 4.1$ ). The choice *N<sub>S</sub>* for *e* estimation can be considered as the PPD locking strategy, and the simulation results in Fig. 7 show the convergence of  $\tau_d$  within 4 PPD cycles (8)  $CK_{IN}$  cycles) for any set of PPD locking strategy.

Note that *T<sup>D</sup>* and *N<sup>S</sup>* are pre-determined values. In addition, *C<sup>A</sup>* and *C<sup>B</sup>* are bounded positive integers, thus most of the possible values of  $\Delta_{\tau}$ , rounded values of  $\varepsilon$ , can be precalculated and stored in the system, avoiding the use of any complex arithmetic block while offering low-cost design. In addition,  $\varepsilon_B$  determines the bound of  $\varepsilon$  in general, but  $\varepsilon_A$  is still useful for invalid- $\varepsilon_B$  cases due to overflow, as in Fig. 9.

#### IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

The work was implemented within the area of  $0.0025$ mm<sup>2</sup> in 28nm CMOS process, and the post-layout results with a noise-injected input clock show that it generates 1.6GHz quadrature outputs after 13 input clock cycles, as shown in Figs. 8-10. This work provides the worst-case effective peakto-peak output jitter ( $J_{PP}$ ) of 1.12ps and an RMS jitter ( $J_{RMS}$ ) of 1.65ps while achieving power efficiency of 0.25mW/Gbps. Note that  $J<sub>RMS</sub>$  is mainly from the injected noise of input clock.

Table II summarizes the performance of recent works, and here we have chosen a popular Figure-of-Merits ( $FoM<sub>RMS</sub>$ ) for fast-locking clock generators which is a function of locking cycles along with jitter and power. To compare the work without  $J<sub>RMS</sub>$ , we have used FoM<sub>PP</sub> which only replaces  $J<sub>RMS</sub>$  in Fo $M<sub>RMS</sub>$  to J<sub>PP</sub>. It is shown that work achieves the best FoM<sub>PP</sub> and power efficiency  $(\eta_p)$  among all work listed. It also achieves competitive FoMRMS while still offering the best FoM<sub>RMS</sub> among all multi-phase DLLs, considering decent FoM<sub>COST</sub> indicating normalized cost across different

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF FAST-LOCKING CLOCK-GENERATING DIGITAL DLLS

Year	2014	2015	2015	2015	2015	2018	2018	2018	2020	This
Conf. $/$ Journal	<b>TCAS-II</b> [1]	EL [7]	<b>JSSC</b> [8]	<b>TCAS-I</b> [6]	<b>TVLSI</b> [2]	<b>ISCAS</b> $[9]$ <sup>a</sup>	<b>TCAS-I</b> [4]	<b>TCAS-II</b> $[13]$	<b>TCAS-II</b> [5]	Work <sup>a</sup>
Process (nm)	130	65	65	55	130	65	130	65	28 <sup>b</sup>	28
Supply $(V)$	1.2				1.5		1.2			
Area $(mm2)$	0.025	0.025	0.0153	0.018	0.08	0.02	0.0077	0.019	0.0072	0.0025
Range (GHz)	$0.4 - 0.8$	$1.5 - 5.0$	$0.003 - 1.8$	$0.1 - 2.5$	$0.008 - 0.5$	$1.65 - 7.0$	$1.5 - 3.3$	$0.7 - 2.0$	$1.8 - 2.5$	$0.8 - 2.0$
I-Q support	Yes	No	No	N <sub>o</sub>	Yes	No	No.	N <sub>o</sub>	Yes	Yes
Lock cycles	75	11	5	8	8	6	16	40	72	13
$J_{PP}/J_{RMS}$ (ps) $\omega$ freq. (Hz)	20/2.3 @ 0.8G	$6^{\circ}/N/A$ @; 5.0G	3/0.85 @ 1.8G	3/0.24 (a) 2.5G	10/2.3 @ $0.18G$	$4.55^{\circ}$ /N/A $\omega$ 7.0G	$9.3^{\circ}/1.62$ (a) 3.3G	$4.5\frac{\circ}{1.574}$ $\omega$ 2.0 $Gd$	$1.7^{\circ}/1.05$ (a) 2.5G	$1.12\frac{\circ}{1.65}$ $(a)$ 1.6G
Power $(mW)$	7.200	6.900	9.500	1.960	26.000	7.100	7.000	$3.310^{\circ}$	3.700	1.623
FoM <sub>RMS</sub> <sup>f</sup>	$-186.7$	N/A	$-217.7$	$-231.4$	$-200.6$	N/A	$-203.3$	$-198.8$	$-196.7$	$-211.3$
$FoM_{PP}$ g	$-167.9$	$-195.2$	$-206.7$	$-209.5$	$-187.8$	$-202.8$	$-188.1$	$-189.7$	$-192.6$	$-214.6$
$\eta_p^{\ h}$	2.25	0.69	2.64	0.39	36.11	0.51	1.06	0.83	0.37	0.25
$FoM_{COST}$ <sup>1</sup>	9.25	8.17	19.11	4.67	303.89	4.80	0.67	7.44	13.59	3.20

<sup>a.</sup> Post-layout simulation results. <sup>b.</sup> 28nm FDSOI process. <sup>c.</sup> Effective p-p jitter = output p-p jitter – input p-p jitter (7, 9, 13). <sup>d</sup>. Results from 1x-MDLL mode. <sup>c.</sup> Power at 1GHz.

f. FoMRMS = 10 log{(JRMS / 1sec)<sup>2</sup> × (lock cycles<sup>2</sup>) × power (mW)} [14-16]. <sup>g.</sup> FoMP = 10 log{(JPP / 1sec)<sup>2</sup> × (lock cycles<sup>2</sup>) × power (mW)}. <sup>h.</sup> n<sub>p</sub> = power (mW) / data rate (DDR or QDR; Gbps).

 $\frac{1}{2}$  FoM<sub>COST</sub> = FoM<sub>POWER</sub> × FoM<sub>AREA</sub>, where FoM<sub>POWER</sub> = power ( $\mu$ W) / (frequency (MHz) × supply<sup>2</sup> (V<sup>2</sup>)) and FoM<sub>AREA</sub> = area (mm<sup>2</sup>) / channel length ( $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>) [8, 17, 18].



Fig. 9. Post-layout simulation results showing locking of 13 cycles.

process technology nodes and superior power efficiency.

#### V. CONCLUSION

We have proposed a PPD-QCG, offering novel timing error estimation to achieve fast-locking control of the DCDL as well as dynamic power gating of the PDs. In post-layout simulations, 1.6GHz quadrature clocks were generated within 13 cycles with 0.25mW/GHz power efficiency, which fits the specification of future interface systems requiring 6.4Gbps.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by Samsung Electronics.

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Fig. 10. Post-layout simulation results of (a) generated quadrature clocks, and jitter of (b) noise-injected CKIN, and (c) CKQB output with jitter distribution. *(More than 30,000 samples of the rising egdes were measured)*

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