

CIRF
Circuit Intégré Radio Fréquence

Lecture I

- **Introduction**
- **Baseband Pulse Transmission**
- **Digital Passband Transmission**
- **Circuit Non-idealities Effect**

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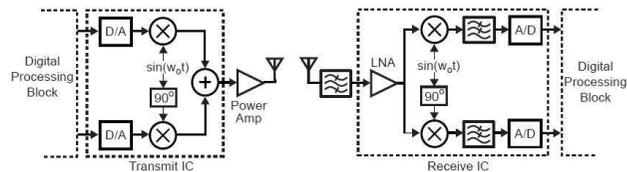
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Wireless Systems

▪ **Direct conversion architecture**



▪ **Transmitter issues**

- Meeting the spectral mask (LO phase noise & feedthrough, quadrature accuracy), D/A accuracy, power amp linearity

▪ **Receiver Issues**

- Meeting SNR (Noise figure, blocking performance, channel selectivity, LO phase noise, A/D nonlinearity and noise), selectivity (filtering), and emission requirements

M.H. Perrott

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Future Goals

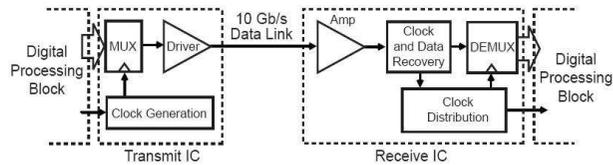
- **Low cost, low power, and small area solutions**
 - New architectures and circuits!
- **Increased spectral efficiency**
 - Example: GSM cellphones (GMSK) to 8-PSK (Edge)
 - Requires a linear power amplifier!
- **Increased data rates**
 - Example: 802.11b (11 Mb/s) to 802.11a (> 50 Mb/s)
 - GFSK modulation changes to OFDM modulation
- **Higher carrier frequencies**
 - 802.11b (2.5 GHz) to 802.11a (5 GHz) to ? (60 GHz)
- **New modulation formats**
 - GMSK, CDMA, OFDM, pulse position modulation
- **New application areas**

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High Speed Data Links

A common architecture



Transmitter Issues

- Intersymbol interference (limited bandwidth of IC amplifiers, packaging), clock jitter, power, area

Receiver Issue

- Intersymbol interference (same as above), jitter from clock and data recovery, power, area

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Future Goals

- Low cost, low power, small area solutions
 - New architectures and circuits!
- Increased data rates
 - 40 Gb/s for optical (moving to 120 Gb/s!)
 - Electronics is a limitation (optical issues getting significant)
 - > 5 Gb/s for backplane applications
 - The channel (i.e., the PC board trace) is the limitation
- High frequency compensation/equalization
 - Higher data rates, lower bit error rates (BER), improved robustness in the face of varying conditions
 - How do you do this at GHz speeds?
- Multi-level modulation
 - Better spectral efficiency (more bits in given bandwidth)

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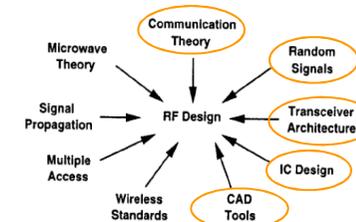
What are the Issues with Wireless Systems?

- Noise
 - Need to extract the radio signal with sufficient SNR
- Selectivity (filtering, processing gain)
 - Need to remove interferers (which are often much larger!)
- Nonlinearity
 - Degrades transmit spectral mask
 - Degrades selectivity for receiver

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Multidisciplinary of radio design



B. Razavi,

RF Microelectronics, Prentice Hall, 1998

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References

- S. Haykin, "Communication Systems", Wiley 1994.
- B. Razavi, "RF Microelectronics", Prentice Hall, 1997.
- M. Perrott, "High Speed Communication Circuits and Systems", M.I.T.OpenCourseWare, <http://ocw.mit.edu/>, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2003.
- D. Yee, "A Design methodology for highly-integrated low-power receivers for wireless communications", <http://bwrc.eecs.berkeley.edu/>, Ph.D. University of California at Berkeley, 2001.

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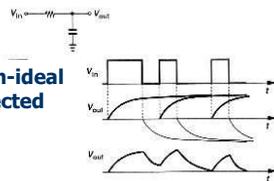
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Digital Baseband Transmission

Major sources of errors in the detection of transmitted digital data:

ISI : InterSymbol Interference

The result of data transmission over a non-ideal channel is that each received pulse is affected by adjacent pulses.



Channel Noise

Detecting a pulse transmitted over a channel that is corrupted by additive noise.

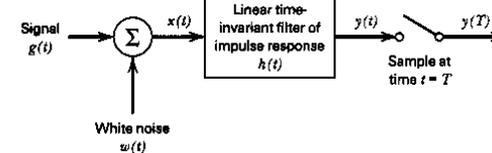


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Matched Filter

Linear Receiver Model



- $g(t)$: transmitted pulse signal, binary symbol '1' or '0'.
- $w(t)$: channel noise, sample function of a white noise process of zero mean and power spectral density $N_0/2$.

$$x(t) = g(t) + w(t) \quad , \quad 0 \leq t \leq T \quad \longrightarrow \quad h(t) \quad \longrightarrow \quad y(t) = g_0(t) + n(t)$$

- Filter Requirements, $h(t)$:
 - Make the instantaneous power in the output signal $g_0(t)$, measured at time $t=T$, as large as possible compared with the average power of the output noise, $n(t)$.

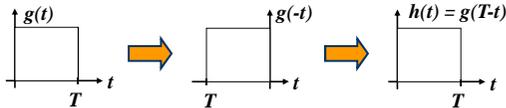
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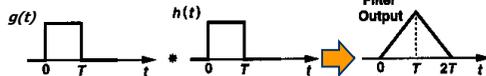
Matched Filter for Rectangular Pulse

$h(t)$ for a rectangular Pulse:

$$h_{opt}(t) = k g(T-t)$$



Filter Output $g(t)*h(t)$:



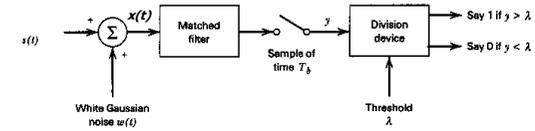
Implementation:



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Error Rate due to Noise



In the interval $0 \leq t \leq T_b$, the received signal:

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} +A + w(t) & \text{symbol '1' was sent} \\ -A + w(t) & \text{symbol '0' was sent} \end{cases}$$

T_b is the bit duration, A is the transmitted pulse amplitude

- The receiver has prior knowledge of the pulse shape but not its polarity.
- There are two possible kinds of error to be considered:
 - Symbol '1' is chosen when a '0' was transmitted.
 - Symbol '0' is chosen when a '1' was transmitted.

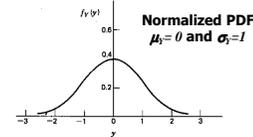
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PDF: Probability Density Function

Gaussian Distribution:

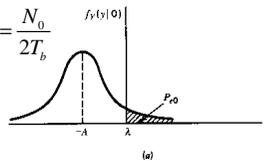
$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sigma_Y \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[-\frac{(y - \mu_Y)^2}{2\sigma_Y^2} \right]$$



Symbol '0' was sent: $\mu_Y = -A$, $\sigma_Y^2 = \frac{N_0}{2T_b}$

$$P_{e0} = P(y > \lambda | \text{symbol '0' was sent})$$

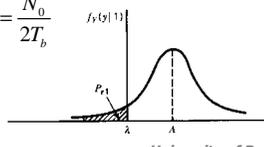
$$= \int_{\lambda}^{\infty} f_Y(y|0) dy$$



Symbol '1' was sent: $\mu_Y = +A$, $\sigma_Y^2 = \frac{N_0}{2T_b}$

$$P_{e1} = P(y < \lambda | \text{symbol '1' was sent})$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\lambda} f_Y(y|1) dy$$



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BER in a PCM receiver

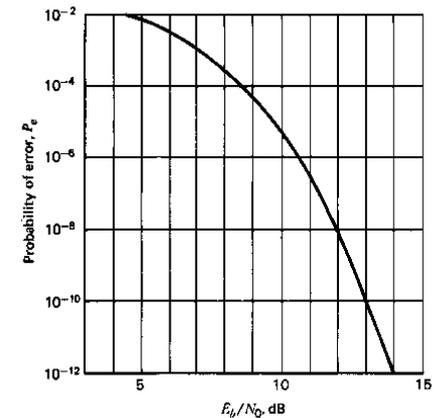
$$P_e = p_0 P_{e0} + p_1 P_{e1}$$

$$P_{e0} = P_{e1}$$

$$p_0 = p_1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P_e = P_{e0} = P_{e1}$$

$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}} \right)$$



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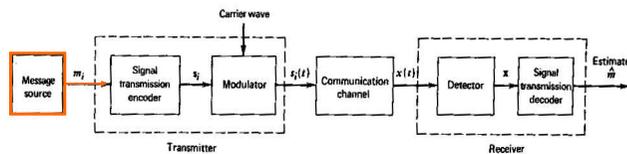
Why Modulation?

- In wired systems, coaxial lines exhibit superior shielding at higher frequencies
- In wireless systems, the antenna size should be a significant fraction of the wavelength to achieve a reasonable gain.
- Communication must occur in a certain part of the spectrum because of FCC regulations.
- Modulation allows simpler detection at the receive end in the presence of non-idealities in the communication channel.

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Message Source



- m_i : one symbol every T seconds
- Symbols belong to an alphabet of M symbols: m_1, m_2, \dots, m_M

- Message output probability:

$$P(m_1) = P(m_2) = \dots = P(m_M)$$

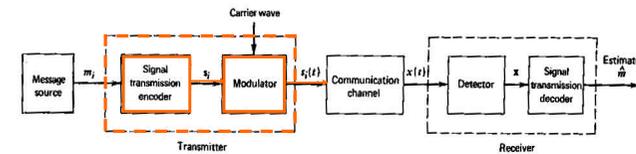
$$p_i = P(m_i) = \frac{1}{M}$$

- Example: Quaternary PCM, 4 symbols: 00, 01, 10, 11

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Transmitter



- **Signal Transmission Encoder:** produces a vector s_i made up of N real elements, where $N \leq M$.
- **Modulator:** constructs a distinct signal $s_i(t)$ representing m_i of duration T .

- Energy of $s_i(t)$:

$$E_i = \int_0^T s_i^2(t) dt, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M$$

- $s_i(t)$ is real valued and transmitted every T seconds.

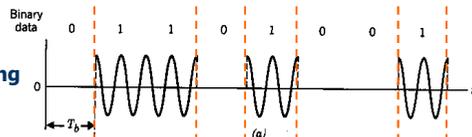
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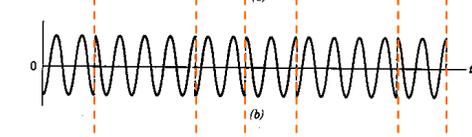
Examples of Transmitted signals: $s_i(t)$

• The modulator performs a step change in the amplitude, phase or frequency of the sinusoidal carrier

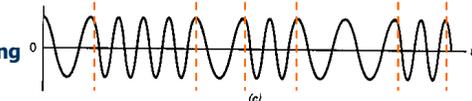
• **ASK:**
Amplitude Shift Keying



• **PSK:**
Phase Shift Keying



• **FSK:**
Frequency Shift Keying

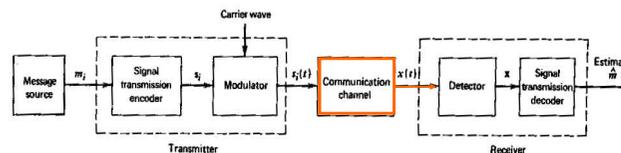


Special case: Symbol Duration $T =$ Bit Duration, T_b

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Communication Channel

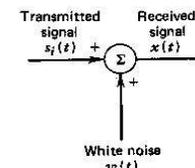


• **Two Assumptions:**

- The channel is linear (no distortion).
- $s_i(t)$ is perturbed by an Additive, zero-mean, stationary, White, Gaussian Noise process (AWGN).

• Received signal $x(t)$:

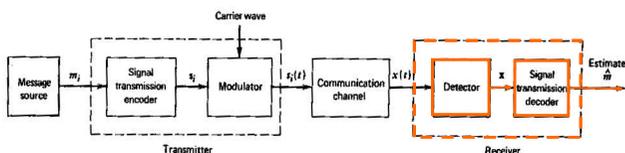
$$x(t) = s_i(t) + w(t), \quad \begin{cases} 0 \leq t \leq T \\ i = 1, 2, \dots, M \end{cases}$$



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Receiver



• **TASK:** observe received signal, $x(t)$, for a duration T and make a best estimate of transmitted symbol, m_i .

• **Detector:** produces observation vector x .

• **Signal Transmission Decoder:** estimates \hat{m} using x , the modulation format and $P(m_i)$.

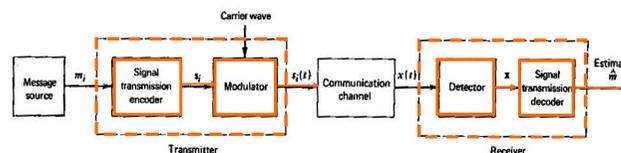
• The requirement is to design a receiver so as to minimize the average probability of symbol error:

$$P_e = \sum_{i=1}^M P(\hat{m} \neq m_i) P(m_i)$$

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Coherent and Non-Coherent Detection



• **Coherent Detection:**

- The receiver is time synchronized with the transmitter.
- The receiver knows the instants of time when the modulator changes state.
- The receiver is phase-locked to the transmitter.

• **Non-Coherent Detection:**

- No phase synchronism between transmitter and receiver.

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Coherent Binary PSK:

- $M=2, N=1$
 $0 \leq t \leq T_b$ $s_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)$ $s_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \pi)$

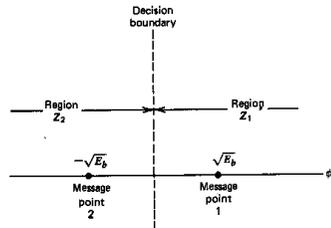
- To ensure that each transmitted bit contains an integral number of cycles of the carrier wave, $f_c = nc/T_b$, for some fixed integer nc .

- One basis function: $\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)$, $0 \leq t \leq T_b$

- Signal constellation consists of two message points:

$$s_{11} = \int_0^{T_b} s_1(t) \phi_1(t) dt = \sqrt{E_b}$$

$$s_{21} = \int_0^{T_b} s_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt = -\sqrt{E_b}$$



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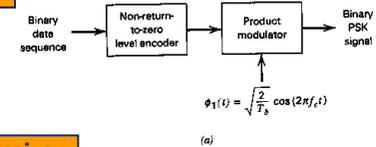
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Generation and Detection of Coherent Binary PSK

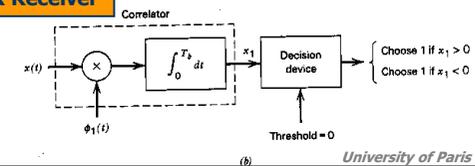
- Assuming white Gaussian Noise with $PSD = N_0/2$,
 The Bit Error Rate for coherent binary PSK is:

$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}} \right)$$

Binary PSK Transmitter



Coherent Binary PSK Receiver



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Coherent QPSK:

- $M=4, N=2$:
 $s_i(t) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + (2i-1) \frac{\pi}{4} \right] & , 0 \leq t \leq T \\ 0 & , \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$

$$s_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \frac{\pi}{4})$$

$$s_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + 3\frac{\pi}{4})$$

$$s_3(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + 5\frac{\pi}{4})$$

$$s_4(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + 7\frac{\pi}{4})$$

- Two basis function: $\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)$, $0 \leq t \leq T$

$$\phi_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \sin(2\pi f_c t) , 0 \leq t \leq T$$

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Constellation Diagram of Coherent QPSK System

- Assuming AWGN with $PSD = N_0/2$,
 The Bit Error Rate for coherent QPSK is:

$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\sqrt{\frac{E/2}{N_0}} \right)$$

with $E = 2 E_b$

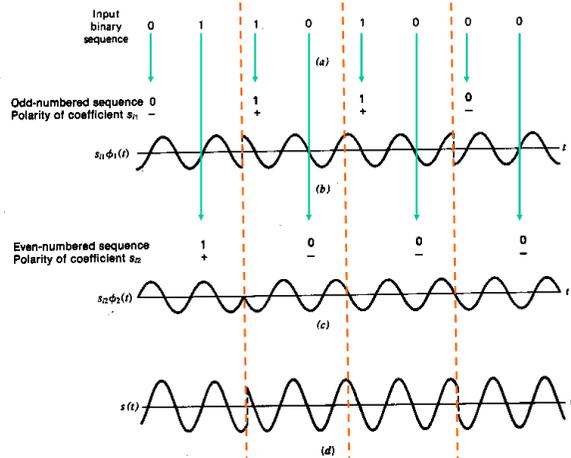
$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}} \right)$$

Identical to BPSK

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QPSK waveform: 01101000

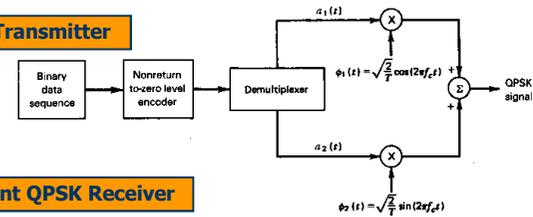


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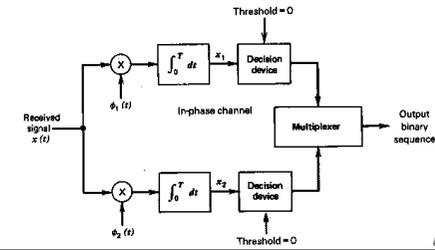
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Generation and Detection of Coherent QPSK Signals

QPSK Transmitter



Coherent QPSK Receiver



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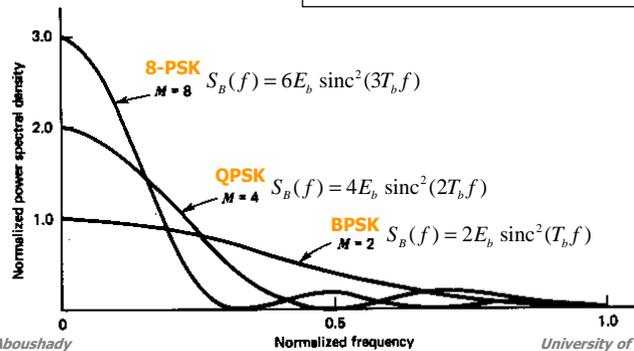
Power Spectra of BPSK, QPSK and M-ary PSK

• Symbol Duration:

$$T = T_b \log_2 M$$

• Power Spectral Density of an M-ary PSK signal:

$$S_B(f) = 2E \text{sinc}^2(Tf) \\ = 2E_b \log_2 M \text{sinc}^2(T_b f \log_2 M)$$



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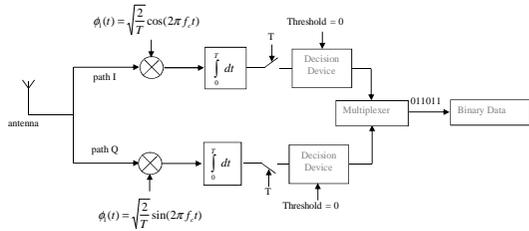
CIRF Circuit Intégré Radio Fréquence

Lecture I

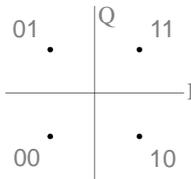
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QPSK Receiver



QPSK Constellation Diagram



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Receiver Circuit Non-Idealities

- Circuit Noise (Thermal, 1/f)**
- Gain Mismatch**
- Phase Mismatch**
- DC Offset**
- Frequency Offset**
- Local Oscillator phase noise**

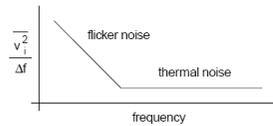
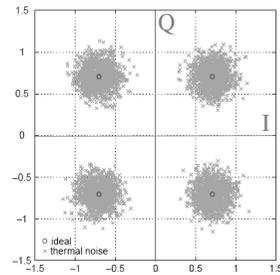
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Circuit Noise

Circuit Noise:

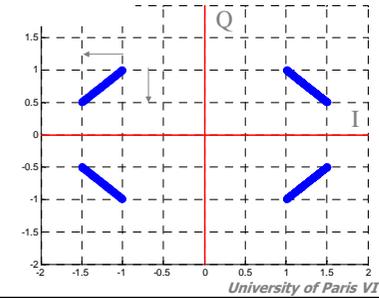
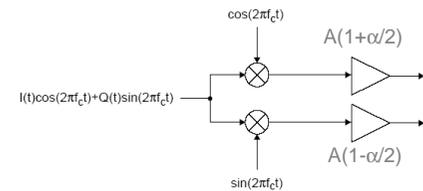
- Thermal Noise
 - Resistors
 - Transistors
- Flicker (1/f) Noise
 - MOS transistors



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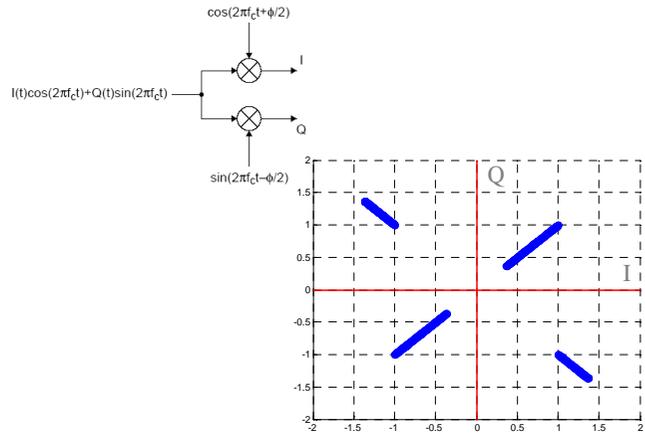
Gain Mismatch



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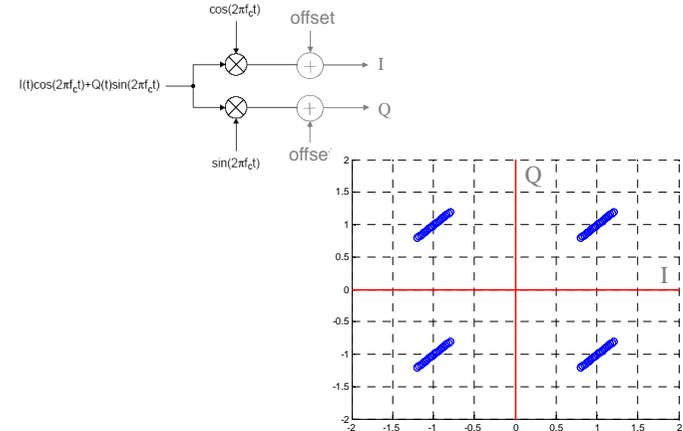
Phase Mismatch



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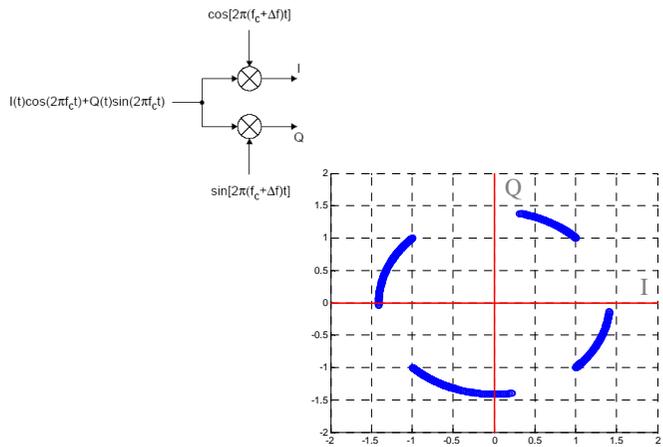
DC Offset



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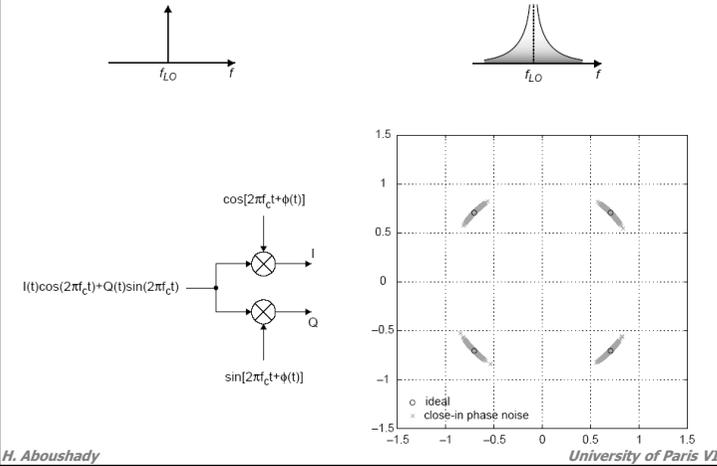
Frequency Offset



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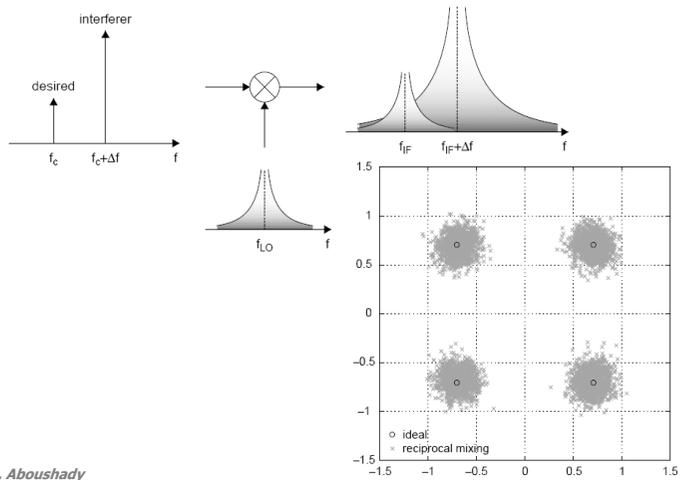
Local Oscillator Phase Noise



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Reciprocal Mixing



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Lecture II

- **Introduction**
- **Negative Resistance Oscillators**
- **Integrated Passive Components**
- **Phase Noise in Local Oscillators**

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CIRF Circuit Intégré Radio Fréquence

Lecture II

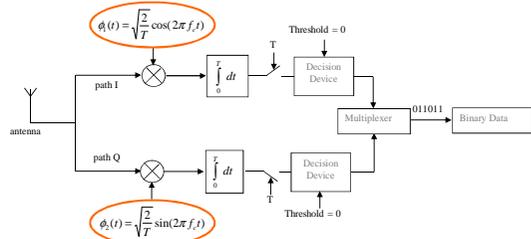
- **Introduction**
- **Negative Resistance Oscillators**
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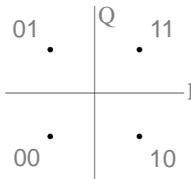
References

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QPSK Receiver



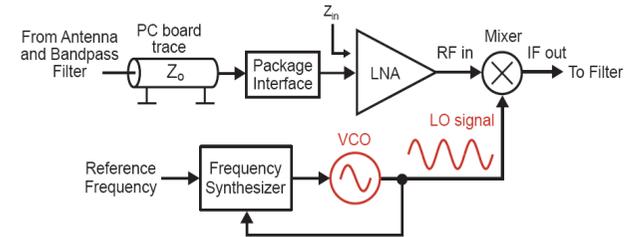
QPSK Constellation Diagram



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VCO Design for Wireless Systems



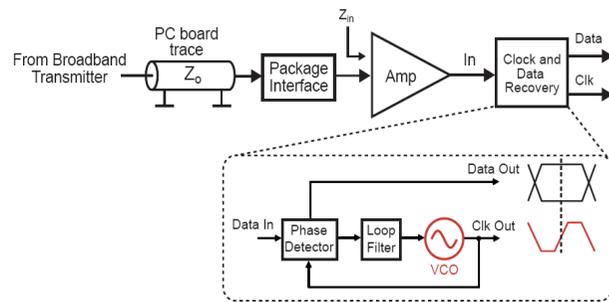
Design Issues

- Tuning Range – need to cover all frequency channels
- Noise – impacts receiver blocking and sensitivity performance
- Power – want low power dissipation
- Isolation – want to minimize noise pathways into VCO
- Sensitivity to process/temp variations – need to make it manufacturable in high volume

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VCO Design For High Speed Data Links



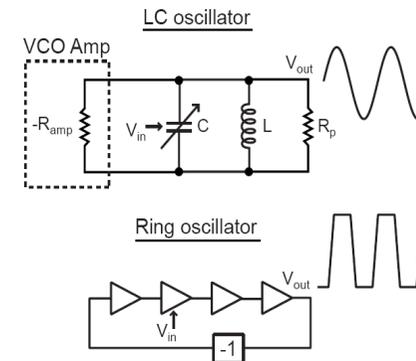
Design Issues

- Same as wireless, but:
 - Required noise performance is often less stringent
 - Tuning range is often narrower

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Popular VCO Structures



- LC Oscillator: low phase noise, large area
- Ring Oscillator: easy to integrate, higher phase noise

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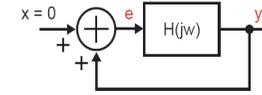
Further Info on Ring Oscillators

- Due to their relatively poor phase noise performance, ring oscillators are rarely used in RF systems
 - They are used quite often in high speed data links, though
- We will focus on LC oscillators in this lecture
- Some useful info on CMOS ring oscillators
 - Maneatis et. al., "Precise Delay Generation Using Coupled Oscillators", JSSC, Dec 1993 (look at pp 127-128 for delay cell description)
 - Todd Weigandt's PhD thesis – <http://kabuki.eecs.berkeley.edu/~weigandt/>

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Barkhausen's Criteria for Oscillation



- Closed loop transfer function

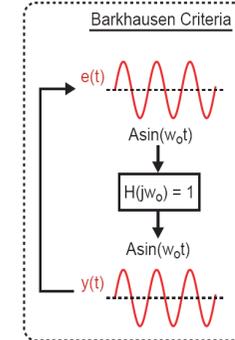
$$G(jw) = \frac{Y(jw)}{X(jw)} = \frac{H(jw)}{1 - H(jw)}$$

- Self-sustaining oscillation at frequency w_o if

$$H(jw_o) = 1$$

- Amounts to two conditions:

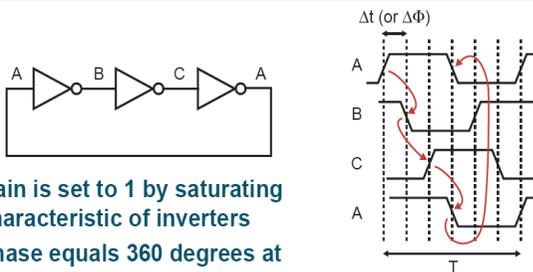
- Gain = 1 at frequency w_o
- Phase = $n360$ degrees ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) at frequency w_o



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Ring Oscillator



- Gain is set to 1 by saturating characteristic of inverters
- Phase equals 360 degrees at frequency of oscillation
 - Assume N stages each with phase shift $\Delta\Phi$

$$2N\Delta\Phi = 360^\circ \Rightarrow \Delta\Phi = \frac{180^\circ}{N}$$

- Alternately, N stages with delay Δt

$$2N\Delta t = T \Rightarrow \Delta t = \frac{T/2}{N}$$

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CIRF Circuit Intégré Radio Fréquence

Lecture II

- Introduction
- Negative Resistance Oscillators
- Integrated Passive Components
- Phase Noise in Local Oscillators

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Resonator-Based Oscillator

■ **Barkhausen Criteria for oscillation at frequency ω_o :**

$$\overline{G_m Z(j\omega_o)} = 1$$

- Assuming G_m is purely real, $Z(j\omega_o)$ must also be purely real

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A Closer Look At Resonator-Based Oscillator

■ **For parallel resonator at resonance**

- Looks like resistor (i.e., purely real) at resonance
 - Phase condition is satisfied
 - Magnitude condition achieved by setting $G_m R_p = 1$

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Impact of Different G_m Values

■ **Root locus plot allows us to view closed loop pole locations as a function of open loop poles/zero and open loop gain ($G_m R_p$)**

- As gain ($G_m R_p$) increases, closed loop poles move into right half S-plane

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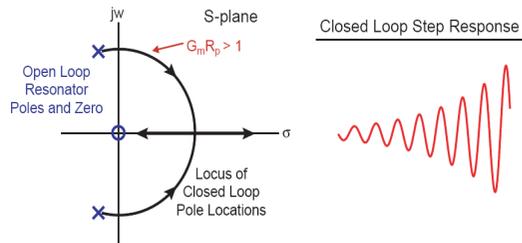
Impact of Setting G_m too low

■ **Closed loop poles end up in the left half S-plane**

- Underdamped response occurs
 - Oscillation dies out

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Impact of Setting G_m too High

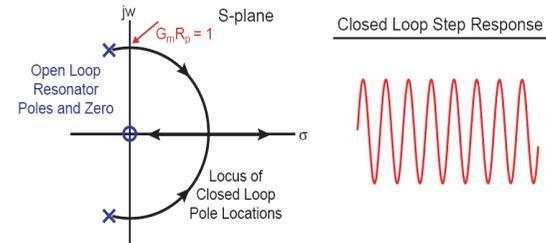


- Closed loop poles end up in the right half S-plane
 - Unstable response occurs
 - Waveform blows up!

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Setting G_m To Just the Right Value

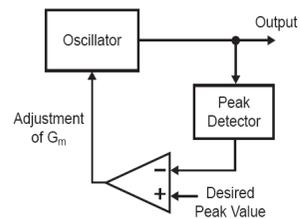


- Closed loop poles end up on $j\omega$ axis
 - Oscillation maintained
- Issue – $G_m R_p$ needs to *exactly* equal 1
 - How do we achieve this in practice?

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Amplitude Feedback Loop

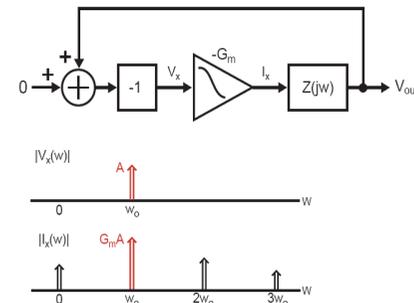


- One thought is to detect oscillator amplitude, and then adjust G_m so that it equals a desired value
 - By using feedback, we can precisely achieve $G_m R_p = 1$
- Issues
 - Complex, requires power, and adds noise

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Leveraging Amplifier Nonlinearity as Feedback

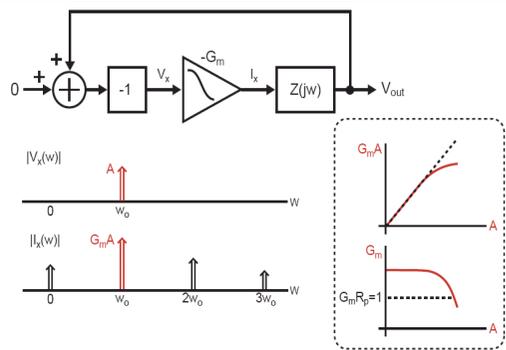


- Practical transconductance amplifiers have saturating characteristics
 - Harmonics created, but filtered out by resonator
 - Our interest is in the relationship between the input and the fundamental of the output

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Leveraging Amplifier Nonlinearity as Feedback

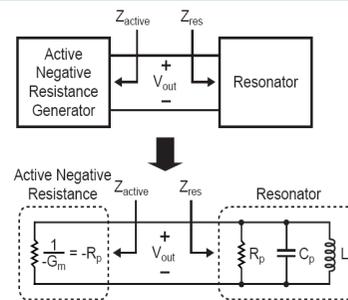


- As input amplitude is increased
 - Effective gain from input to fundamental of output drops
 - Amplitude feedback occurs! ($G_m R_p = 1$ in steady-state)

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One-Port View of Resonator-Based Oscillators



- Convenient for intuitive analysis
- Here we seek to cancel out loss in tank with a negative resistance element
 - To achieve sustained oscillation, we must have

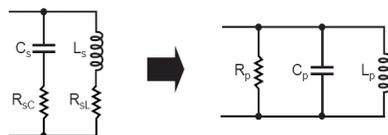
$$\frac{1}{G_m} = R_p \Rightarrow G_m R_p = 1$$

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One-Port Modeling Requires Parallel RLC Network

- Since VCO operates over a very narrow band of frequencies, we can always do series to parallel transformations to achieve a parallel network for analysis

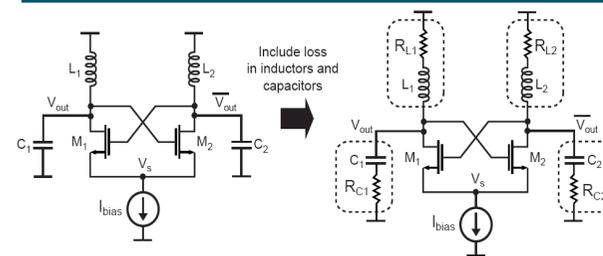


- Warning – in practice, RLC networks can have secondary (or more) resonant frequencies, which cause undesirable behavior
 - Equivalent parallel network masks this problem in hand analysis
 - Simulation will reveal the problem

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Example – Negative Resistance Oscillator



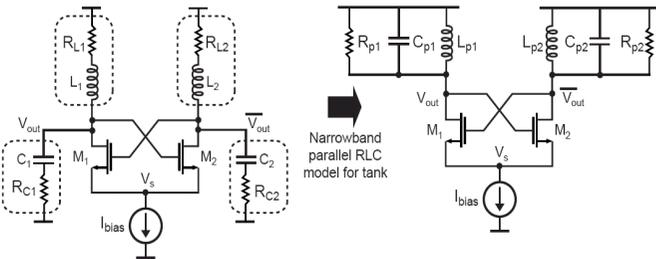
- This type of oscillator structure is quite popular in current CMOS implementations

- Advantages
 - Simple topology
 - Differential implementation (good for feeding differential circuits)
 - Good phase noise performance can be achieved

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Analysis of Negative Resistance Oscillator (Step 2)

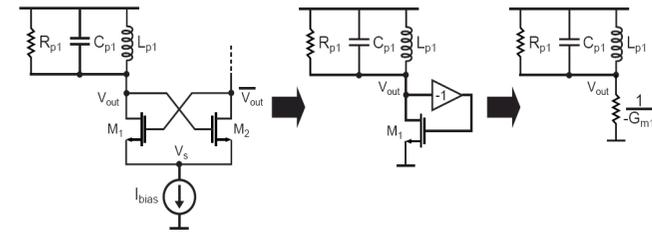


- Derive a parallel RLC network that includes the loss of the tank inductor and capacitor
 - Typically, such loss is dominated by series resistance in the inductor

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Analysis of Negative Resistance Oscillator (Step 2)

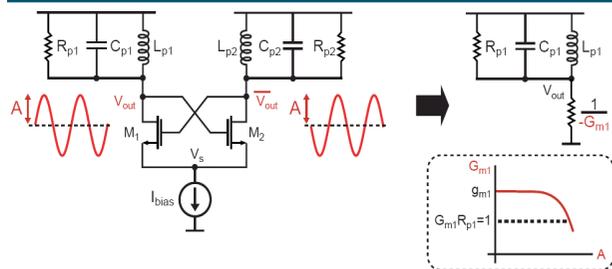


- Split oscillator circuit into half circuits to simplify analysis
 - Leverages the fact that we can approximate V_s as being incremental ground (this is not quite true, but close enough)
- Recognize that we have a diode connected device with a negative transconductance value
 - Replace with negative resistor
 - Note: G_m is *large signal* transconductance value

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Design of Negative Resistance Oscillator

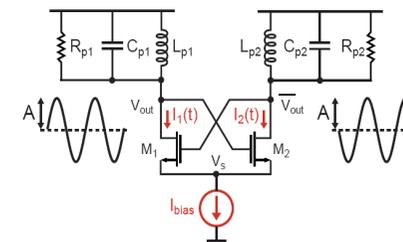


- Design tank components to achieve high Q
 - Resulting R_p value is as large as possible
- Choose bias current (I_{bias}) for large swing (without going far into saturation)
 - We'll estimate swing as a function of I_{bias} shortly
- Choose transistor size to achieve adequately large g_{m1}
 - Usually twice as large as $1/R_{p1}$ to guarantee startup

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Calculation of Oscillator Swing



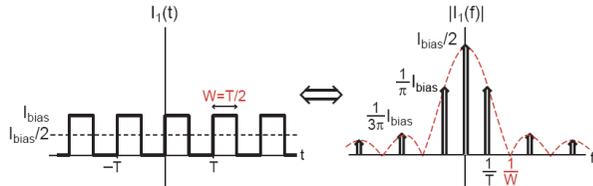
- Design tank components to achieve high Q
 - Resulting R_p value is as large as possible
- Choose bias current (I_{bias}) for large swing (without going far into saturation)
 - We'll estimate swing as a function of I_{bias} in next slide
- Choose transistor size to achieve adequately large g_{m1}
 - Usually twice as large as $1/R_{p1}$ to guarantee startup

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Calculation of Oscillator Swing as a Function of I_{bias}

- By symmetry, assume $I_1(t)$ is a square wave
 - We are interested in determining fundamental component
 - (DC and harmonics filtered by tank)



- Fundamental component is

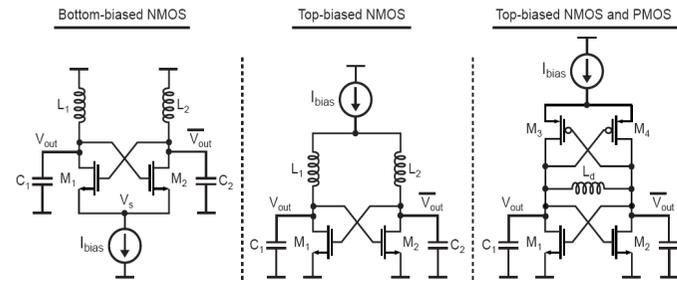
$$I_1(t) \Big|_{\text{fundamental}} = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{bias} \sin(\omega_o t), \quad \text{where } \omega_o = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$
- Resulting oscillator amplitude

$$A = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{bias} R_p$$

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Variations on a Theme

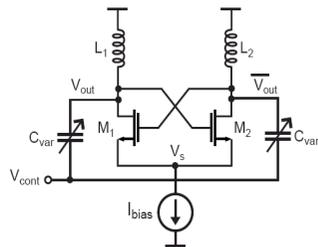


- Biasing can come from top or bottom
- Can use either NMOS, PMOS, or both for transconductor
 - Use of both NMOS and PMOS for coupled pair would appear to achieve better phase noise at a given power dissipation
 - See Hajimiri et. al, "Design Issues in CMOS Differential LC Oscillators", JSSC, May 1999 and Feb, 2000 (pp 286-287)

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Voltage Controlled Oscillators (VCO's)



- Include a tuning element to adjust oscillation frequency
 - Typically use a variable capacitor (varactor)
- Varactor incorporated by replacing fixed capacitance
 - Note that much fixed capacitance cannot be removed (transistor junctions, interconnect, etc.)
 - Fixed cap lowers frequency tuning range

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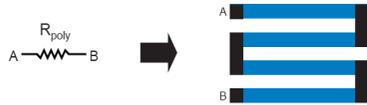
Lecture II

- Introduction
- Negative Resistance Oscillators
- Integrated Passive Components
- Phase Noise in Local Oscillators

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Polysilicon Resistors

- Use unsilicided polysilicon to create resistor



- Key parameters**
 - Resistance (usually 100- 200 Ohms per square)
 - Parasitic capacitance (usually small)
 - Appropriate for high speed amplifiers
 - Linearity (quite linear compared to other options)
 - Accuracy (usually can be set within $\pm 15\%$)

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MOS Resistors

- Bias a MOS device in its triode region



$$R_{ds} \approx \frac{1}{\mu C_{ox} W/L ((V_{gs} - V_T) - V_{DS})}$$

- High resistance values can be achieved in a small area (MegaOhms within tens of square microns)
- Resistance is quite nonlinear
 - Appropriate for small swing circuits

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High Density Capacitors (Biasing, Decoupling)

- MOS devices offer the highest capacitance per unit area
 - Limited to a one terminal device
 - Voltage must be high enough to invert the channel



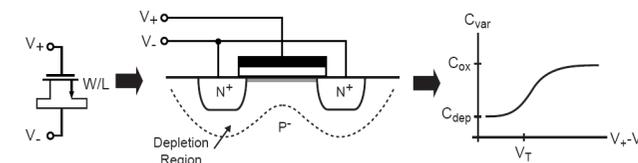
- Key parameters**
 - Capacitance value
 - Raw cap value from MOS device is 6.1 fF/ μm^2 for 0.24 μm CMOS
 - Q (i.e., amount of series resistance)
 - Maximized with minimum L (tradeoff with area efficiency)

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A Recently Popular Approach – The MOS Varactor

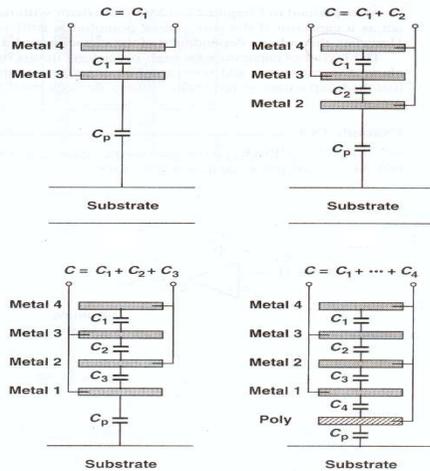
- Consists of a MOS transistor (NMOS or PMOS) with drain and source connected together
 - Abrupt shift in capacitance as inversion channel forms
- Advantage – easily integrated in CMOS
- Disadvantage – Q is relatively low in the transition region
 - Note that large signal is applied to varactor – transition region will be swept across each VCO cycle



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Vertical Metal Capacitors

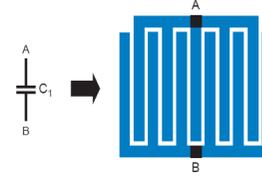


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Lateral Metal Capacitors

- Lateral metal capacitors offer high Q and reasonably large capacitance per unit area
 - Stack many levels of metal on top of each other (best layers are the top ones), via them at maximum density

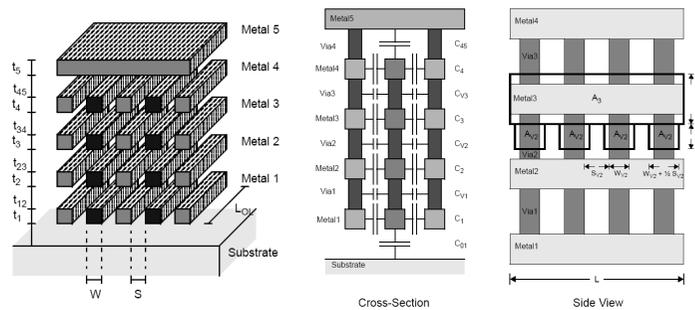


- Accuracy often better than $\pm 10\%$
- Parasitic side cap is symmetric, less than 10% of cap value
- Example: $C_T = 1.5 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$ for $0.24\mu\text{m}$ process with 7 metals, $L_{\min} = W_{\min} = 0.24\mu\text{m}$, $t_{\text{metal}} = 0.53\mu\text{m}$
 - See "Capacity Limits and Matching Properties of Integrated Capacitors", Aparicio et. al., JSSC, Mar 2002

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Vertical Mesh Metal Capacitors



$$C_{\text{mesh}} = 2(C_1 + C_{V1} + C_2 + C_{V2} + C_3 + C_{V3} + C_4) + C_{45}$$

$$C_{\text{par}} = C_{01}$$

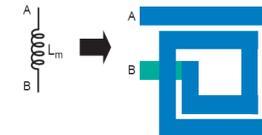
K.T. Christensen, "Low Power RF Filtering for CMOS Transceivers", Ph.D. Denmark Technical University, 2001, http://phd.dtv.dk/2001/oersted/k_t_christensen.pdf

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Spiral Inductors

- Create integrated inductor using spiral shape on top level metals (may also want a patterned ground shield)



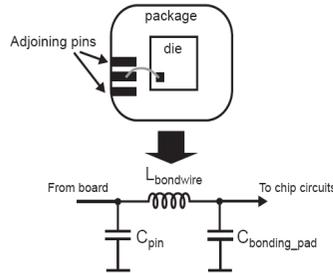
- Key parameters are Q (< 10), L (1-10 nH), self resonant freq.
- Usually implemented in top metal layers to minimize series resistance, coupling to substrate
- Design using Mohan et. al, "Simple, Accurate Expressions for Planar Spiral Inductances, JSSC, Oct, 1999, pp 1419-1424
- Verify inductor parameters (L, Q, etc.) using ASITIC <http://formosa.eecs.berkeley.edu/~niknejad/asitic.html>

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Bondwire Inductors

- Used to bond from the package to die
 - Can be used to advantage



- Key parameters
 - Inductance ($\approx 1 \text{ nH/mm}$ – usually achieve 1-5 nH)
 - Q (much higher than spiral inductors – typically > 40)

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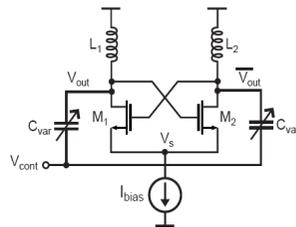
Other Types of Resonators

- Quartz crystal
 - Very high Q, and very accurate and stable resonant frequency
 - Confined to low frequencies ($< 200 \text{ MHz}$)
 - Non-integrated
 - Used to create low noise, accurate, “reference” oscillators
- SAW devices
 - High frequency, but poor accuracy (for resonant frequency)
- MEMS devices
 - Cantilever beams – promise high Q, but non-tunable and haven’t made it to the GHz range, yet, for resonant frequency
 - FBAR – Q > 1000 , but non-tunable and poor accuracy
 - Other devices are on the way!

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Supply Pulling and Pushing

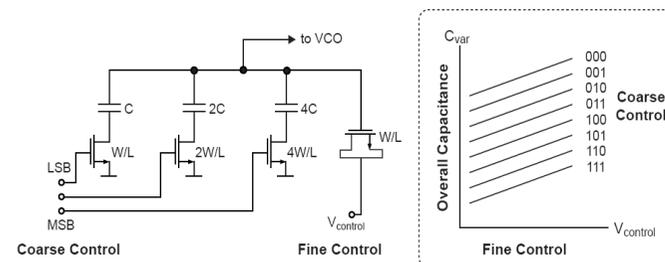


- Supply voltage has an impact on the VCO frequency
 - Voltage across varactor will vary, thereby causing a shift in its capacitance
 - Voltage across transistor drain junctions will vary, thereby causing a shift in its depletion capacitance
- This problem is addressed by building a supply regulator specifically for the VCO

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A Method To Increase Q of MOS Varactor

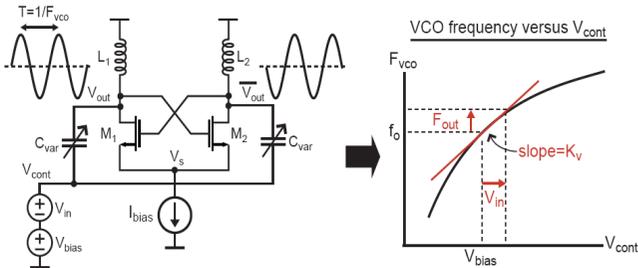


- High Q metal caps are switched in to provide coarse tuning
- Low Q MOS varactor used to obtain fine tuning
- See Hegazi et. al., “A Filtering Technique to Lower LC Oscillator Phase Noise”, JSSC, Dec 2001, pp 1921-1930

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Model for Voltage to Frequency Mapping of VCO



- Model VCO in a small signal manner by looking at deviations in frequency about the bias point
 - Assume linear relationship between input voltage and output frequency

$$F_{out}(t) = K_v v_{in}(t)$$

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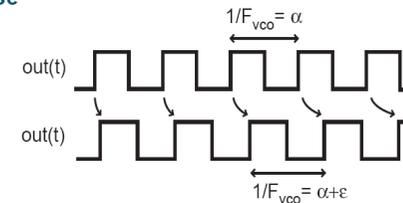
Model for Voltage to Phase Mapping of VCO

$$\Phi_{out}(t) = K_v v_{in}(t)$$

- Phase is more convenient than frequency for analysis
 - The two are related through an integral relationship

$$\Phi_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi F_{out}(\tau) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi K_v v_{in}(\tau) d\tau$$

- Intuition of integral relationship between frequency and phase



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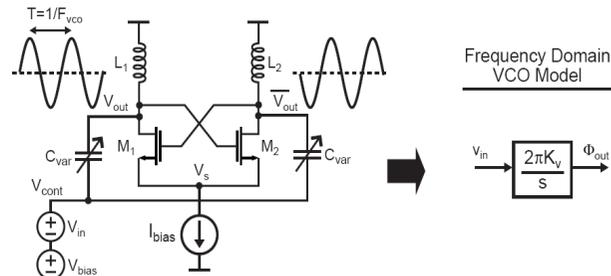
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Frequency Domain Model of VCO

- Take Laplace Transform of phase relationship

$$\Phi_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t 2\pi K_v v_{in}(\tau) d\tau \Rightarrow \Phi_{out}(s) = \frac{2\pi K_v v_{in}(s)}{s}$$

- Note that K_v is in units of Hz/V



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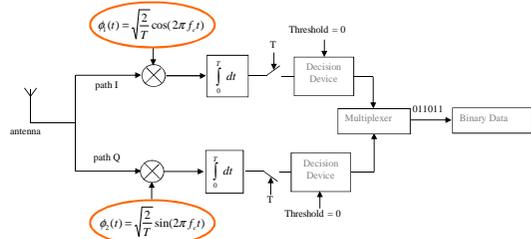
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Lecture II

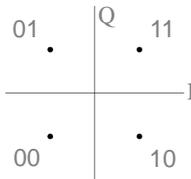
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QPSK Receiver



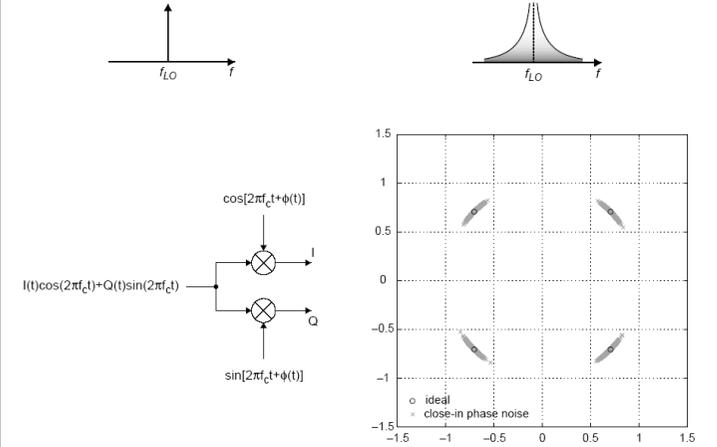
QPSK Constellation Diagram



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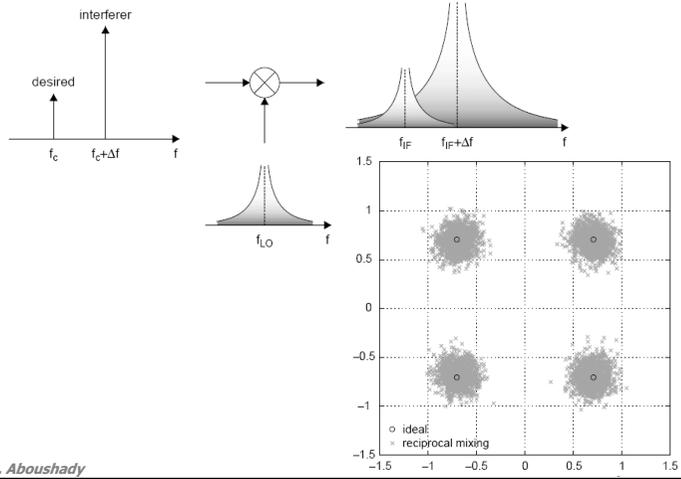
Local Oscillator Phase Noise



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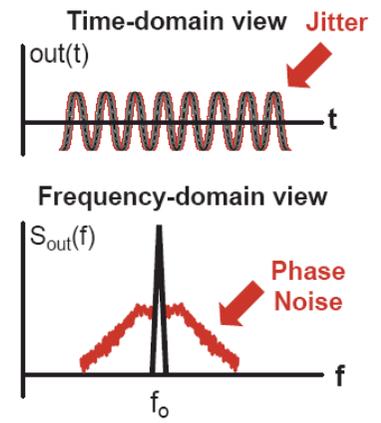
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Reciprocal Mixing



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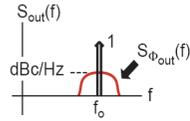
Phase Noise in Oscillators



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Measurement of Phase Noise in dBc/Hz



- Definition of $L(f)$

$$L(f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{\text{Spectral density of noise}}{\text{Power of carrier}} \right)$$

- Units are dBc/Hz

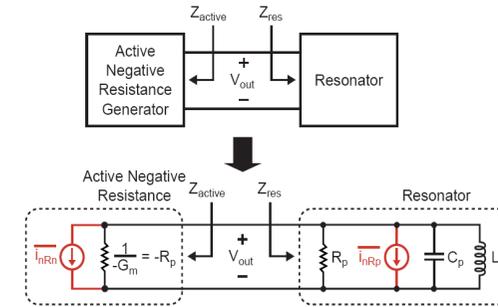
- For this case

$$L(f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{S_{\Phi_{out}}(f)}{1} \right) = 10 \log(S_{\Phi_{out}}(f))$$

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Calculation of Intrinsic Phase Noise in Oscillators



- Noise sources in oscillators are put in two categories

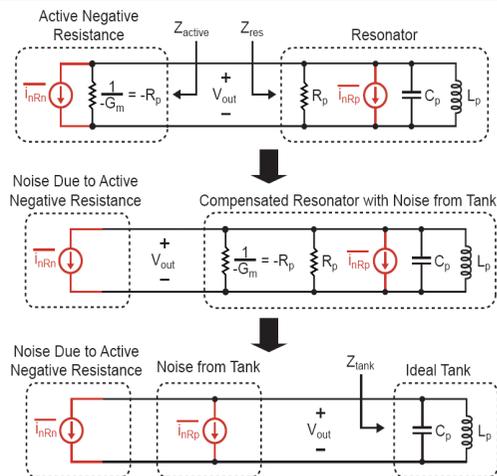
- Noise due to tank loss
- Noise due to active negative resistance

- We want to determine how these noise sources influence the phase noise of the oscillator

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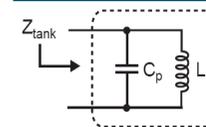
Equivalent Model for Noise Calculations



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Calculate Impedance Across Ideal LC Tank Circuit



$$Z_{tank}(w) = \frac{1}{jwC_p} || jwL_p = \frac{jwL_p}{1 - w^2L_pC_p}$$

- Calculate input impedance about resonance

Consider $w = w_o + \Delta w$, where $w_o = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_pC_p}}$

$$Z_{tank}(\Delta w) = \frac{j(w_o + \Delta w)L_p}{1 - (w_o + \Delta w)^2L_pC_p}$$

$$= \frac{j(w_o + \Delta w)L_p}{\underbrace{1 - w_o^2L_pC_p}_{= 0} - 2\Delta w(w_oL_pC_p) - \Delta w^2L_pC_p} \approx \frac{j(w_o + \Delta w)L_p}{\underbrace{-2\Delta w(w_oL_pC_p)}_{\text{negligible}}}$$

$$\Rightarrow Z_{tank}(\Delta w) \approx \frac{jw_oL_p}{-2\Delta w(w_oL_pC_p)} = \frac{j}{2w_oC_p} \left(\frac{w_o}{\Delta w} \right)$$

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A Convenient Parameterization of LC Tank Impedance



$$Z_{tank}(\Delta\omega) \approx -\frac{j}{2} \frac{1}{\omega_o C_p} \left(\frac{\omega_o}{\Delta\omega} \right)$$

- Actual tank has loss that is modeled with R_p
 - Define Q according to actual tank

$$Q = R_p \omega_o C_p \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\omega_o C_p} = \frac{R_p}{Q}$$

- Parameterize ideal tank impedance in terms of Q of actual tank

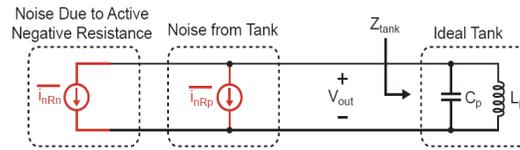
$$Z_{tank}(\Delta\omega) \approx -\frac{j R_p}{2 Q} \left(\frac{\omega_o}{\Delta\omega} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow |Z_{tank}(\Delta f)|^2 \approx \left(\frac{R_p f_o}{2Q \Delta f} \right)^2$$

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Overall Noise Output Spectral Density



- Assume noise from active negative resistance element and tank are uncorrelated

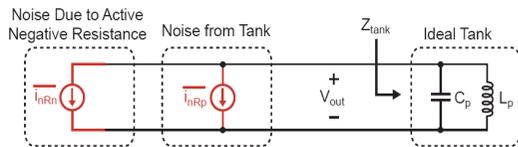
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_{out}^2}{\Delta f} &= \left(\frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} + \frac{i_{nRn}^2}{\Delta f} \right) |Z_{tank}(\Delta f)|^2 \\ &= \frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} \left(1 + \frac{i_{nRn}^2}{\Delta f} / \frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} \right) |Z_{tank}(\Delta f)|^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Note that the above expression represents total noise that impacts both amplitude and phase of oscillator output

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Parameterize Noise Output Spectral Density



- From previous slide

$$\frac{v_{out}^2}{\Delta f} = \frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} \left(1 + \frac{i_{nRn}^2}{\Delta f} / \frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} \right) |Z_{tank}(\Delta f)|^2$$

$F(\Delta f)$

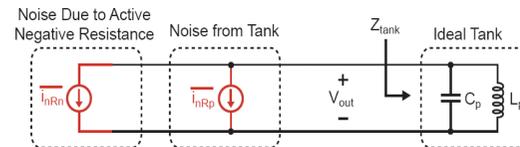
- $F(\Delta f)$ is defined as

$$F(\Delta f) = \frac{\text{total noise in tank at frequency } \Delta f}{\text{noise in tank due to tank loss at frequency } \Delta f}$$

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Fill in Expressions



- Noise from tank is due to resistor R_p

$$\frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} = 4kT \frac{1}{R_p} \text{ (single-sided spectrum)}$$

- $Z_{tank}(\Delta f)$ found previously

$$|Z_{tank}(\Delta f)|^2 \approx \left(\frac{R_p f_o}{2Q \Delta f} \right)^2$$

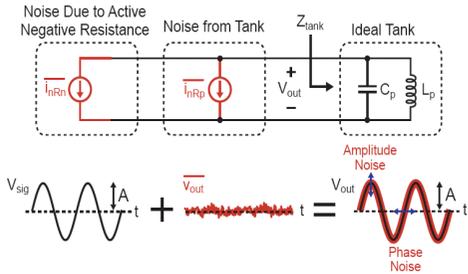
- Output noise spectral density expression (single-sided)

$$\frac{v_{out}^2}{\Delta f} = 4kT \frac{1}{R_p} F(\Delta f) \left(\frac{R_p f_o}{2Q \Delta f} \right)^2 = 4kT F(\Delta f) R_p \left(\frac{1}{2Q \Delta f} \right)^2$$

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Separation into Amplitude and Phase Noise



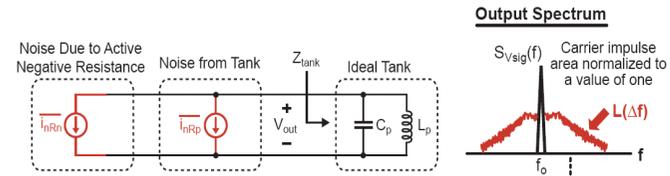
- Equipartition theorem states that noise impact splits evenly between amplitude and phase for V_{sig} being a sine wave
- Amplitude variations suppressed by feedback in oscillator

$$\Rightarrow \frac{v_{out}^2}{\Delta f} \text{ phase} = 2kTF(\Delta f)R_p \left(\frac{1}{2Q\Delta f} \right)^2 \text{ (single-sided)}$$

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Output Phase Noise Spectrum (Leeson's Formula)



$$L(\Delta f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{\text{Spectral density of noise}}{\text{Power of carrier}} \right)$$

- All power calculations are referenced to the tank loss resistance, R_p

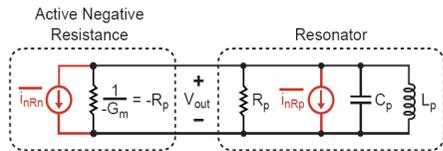
$$P_{sig} = \frac{V_{sig,rms}^2}{R_p} = \frac{(A/\sqrt{2})^2}{R_p}, \quad S_{noise}(\Delta f) = \frac{1}{R_p} \frac{v_{out}^2}{\Delta f}$$

$$L(\Delta f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{S_{noise}(\Delta f)}{P_{sig}} \right) = 10 \log \left(\frac{2kTF(\Delta f)}{P_{sig}} \left(\frac{1}{2Q\Delta f} \right)^2 \right)$$

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Example: Active Noise Same as Tank Noise

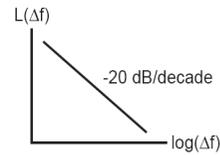


- Noise factor for oscillator in this case is

$$F(\Delta f) = 1 + \frac{i_{nRn}^2}{\Delta f} / \frac{i_{nRp}^2}{\Delta f} = 2$$

- Resulting phase noise

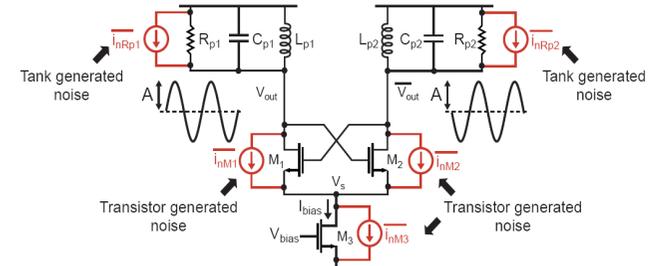
$$L(\Delta f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{4kT}{P_{sig}} \left(\frac{1}{2Q\Delta f} \right)^2 \right)$$



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The Actual Situation is Much More Complicated

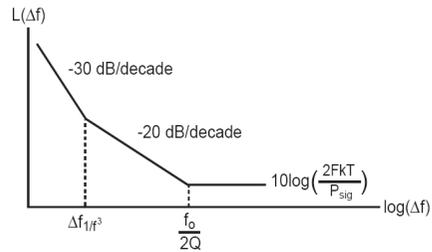


- Impact of tank generated noise easy to assess
- Impact of transistor generated noise is complicated
 - Noise from M_1 and M_2 is modulated on and off
 - Noise from M_3 is modulated before influencing V_{out}
 - Transistors have $1/f$ noise
- Also, transistors can degrade Q of tank

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Phase Noise of A Practical Oscillator

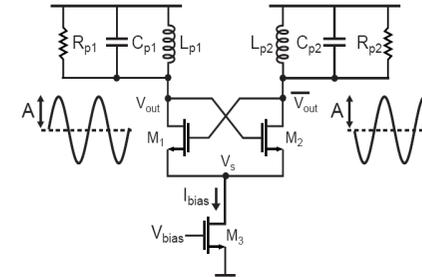


- Phase noise drops at -20 dB/decade over a wide frequency range, but deviates from this at:
 - Low frequencies – slope increases (often -30 dB/decade)
 - High frequencies – slope flattens out (oscillator tank does not filter all noise sources)
- Frequency breakpoints and magnitude scaling are not readily predicted by the analysis approach taken so far

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Approach for Negative Resistance Oscillator



- Recall Leeson's formula

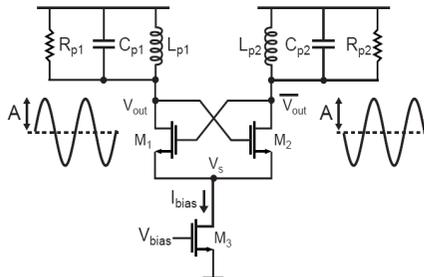
$$L(\Delta f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{2kTF(\Delta f)}{P_{sig}} \left(\frac{1}{2Q} \frac{f_0}{\Delta f} \right)^2 \right)$$

- Key question: how do you determine $F(\Delta f)$?

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$F(\Delta f)$ Has Been Determined for This Topology



- Rael et. al. have come up with a closed form expression for $F(\Delta f)$ for the above topology
- In the region where phase noise falls at -20 dB/dec:

$$F(\Delta f) = 1 + \frac{2\gamma I_{bias} R_p}{\pi A} + \frac{4}{9} g_{do, M3} R_p \quad (R_p = R_{p1} = R_{p2})$$

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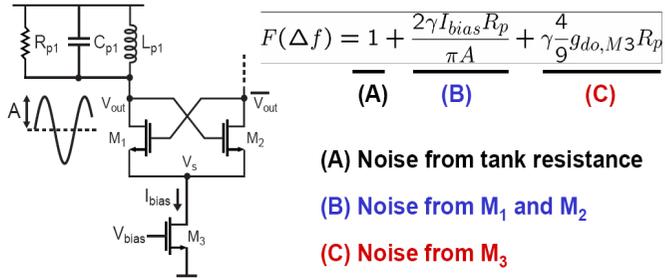
References to Rael Work

- Phase noise analysis
 - J.J. Rael and A.A. Abidi, "Physical Processes of Phase Noise in Differential LC Oscillators", Custom Integrated Circuits Conference, 2000, pp 569-572
- Implementation
 - Emad Hegazi et. al., "A Filtering Technique to Lower LC Oscillator Phase Noise", JSSC, Dec 2001, pp 1921-1930

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Designing for Minimum Phase Noise



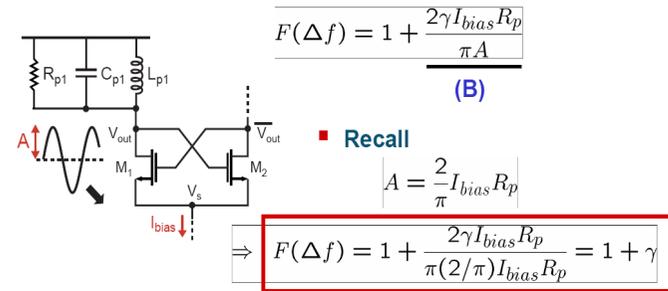
- (A) Noise from tank resistance
- (B) Noise from M_1 and M_2
- (C) Noise from M_3

- To achieve minimum phase noise, we'd like to minimize $F(\Delta f)$
- The above formulation provides insight of how to do this
 - Key observation: (C) is often quite significant

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Minimization of Component (B) in $F(\Delta f)$



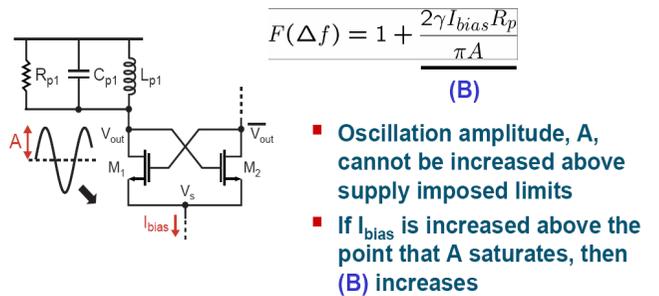
- So, it would seem that I_{bias} has no effect!
 - Not true – want to maximize A (i.e. P_{sig}) to get best phase noise, as seen by:

$$L(\Delta f) = 10 \log \left(\frac{2kTF(\Delta f)}{P_{sig}} \left(\frac{1}{2Q\Delta f} \right)^2 \right)$$

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Current-Limited Versus Voltage-Limited Regimes



- Oscillation amplitude, A, cannot be increased above supply imposed limits
- If I_{bias} is increased above the point that A saturates, then (B) increases

- Current-limited regime: amplitude given by $A = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{bias} R_p$
- Voltage-limited regime: amplitude saturated

Best phase noise achieved at boundary between these regimes!

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