## Analog Front End Design and Layout of Bluetooth Receiver

A project Report submitted by

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for the award of the degree of

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Under the guidance of

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### Thesis Certificate

This is to certify that the thesis titled **Analog Front End Design** and **Layout of Bluetooth Receiver**, submitted by **Santosh Kumar Dasari**, to the Indian Institute of Technology, Madras, for the award of the degree of **Master of Technology**, is a bonafide record of the research work done by him under our supervision. The contents of this thesis, in full or in parts, have not been submitted to any other Institute or University for the award of any degree or diploma.

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#### Abstract

The project is aimed at designing the Analog front end of a bluetooth receiver. The motivation behind the design is to achieve the most important requirements for a bluetooth receiver namely compactness, high sensitivity, high linearity, low power consumption. A Direct conversion Receiver architecture is chosen to achieve compactness by eliminating need for off chip Image rejection Filter. The front end contains a Broadband noise cancellation low noise amplifier which doesn't use any inductor's thereby saving the area on the chip and making it more compact. The receiver architecture is current mode, which avoids voltage compression at various internal nodes in the circuit and thereby helps in achieving high linearity. The bluetooth receiver designed achieves a Noise figure of 4 dB giving a high sensitivity of -96 dBm and an IIP3 of -10.3 dBm. Power consumption is just 20.4 mW (Vdd = 1.2 V), which is very less as compared to bluetooth receivers designed so far.

## Abbreviations

**DCR** Direct Conversion Receiver

**DPSK** Differential Phase Shift Keying

**LNA** Low Noise Amplifier

**NF** Noise Figure

IRF Image Rejection Filter

LO Local Oscillator

**PSD** Power Spectral Density

**SNR** Signal to Noise Ratio

 ${\bf TCA} \quad \ \, {\bf TransConductance \ Amplifier}$ 

TIA TransImpedance Amplifier

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## Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

Bluetooth is a wireless technology standard for exchanging data over short distances (from 5cm to 10m). Bluetooth operates in ISM (Industrial, Scientific, Medicine) frequency band from 2.4 GHz to 2.48 GHz. A total of 79 channels are present, with each channel having a bandwidth of 1 MHz. Accurately, the carrier frequency of the 79 channels can be shown as: (2402 + k)MHz, k = 0.....78. Modulation schemes used for bluetooth are:

- GFSK- It is the Basic date rate modulation scheme, having a date rate of 1Mbps. It is the conventional modulation scheme used.
- 8-DPSK and  $\Pi/4$  DQPSK with data rate of 3 and 2 Mbps respectively. They constitute the Enhanced data rate modulation schemes.

As stated in the abstract the main metrics of a bluetooth receiver are its compactness (high level of integration on Silicon), low power consumption, high sensitivity and good linearity, in order to have large dynamic range. A small explanation of how these are achieved in design is given in the introduction. Section 1.1 describes the Specifications given in the Bluetoothstandard document version 4.0. In section 1.2 these standard specifications are translated to system level specifications for easy understanding and design at the circuit level. Section 1.3 describes the architecture of the Bluetooth receiver at block level.

# 1.1 Bluetooth standard document version 4.0 specifications

- Sensitivity: The reference sensitivity for a Bluetooth signal shall be better than or equal to -70 dBm at a bit error rate  $10^{-3}$ .
- Interference performance: The interference performance is measured with the wanted signal at -67 dBm. The magnitude of the interferer is given in the Table 1.1

Frequency of interference	Ratio
Co-Channel	21 dB
Adjacent Channel(1 MHz)	15 dB
Adjacent Channel(2 MHz)	-17 dB
Adjacent Channel(>3 MHz)	-27 dB

Table 1.1: The table shows the position of the interferers and the corresponding ratio of the interferers to the signal (which is at -67dbm)

• Out of Band Blockers: The out of band blockers applies to signals outside the band 2400- 2483.5 MHz.In the table 1.2, information on the out of band blockers power levels and their respective band is given:

Frequency of interference	Interferer power level
30 MHz - 2000 MHz	-30 dBm
2003 MHz - 2399 MHz	-35 dBm
2484 MHz - 2997 MHz	-35 dBm
3000 MHz - 12.75 GHz	-30 dBm

Table 1.2: The table shows the frequency of interferers and corresponding magnitude of the interferers.

- Intermodulation Characteristics: The intermodulation characteristics are checked in the following way:
  - 1. The wanted signal is kept at 6 dB above the reference sensitivity level, i.e at -64 dBm.It's frequency is  $f_0$ .
  - 2. Static sine wave signal shall be at a frequency  $f_1$  with a power level of -50 dBm.
  - 3. An interfering signal shall be at a frequency  $f_2$  with a power level of -50 dBm.  $f_0$  is frequency in the band of interest, i.e 2.402 GHz 2.48 GHz  $f_1, f_2, f_0$  are chosen such that  $2 * f_1 f_2 = f_0$  and  $|f_1 f_2| = n * 1$  MHz, where n can be 3,4 or 5.
- Maximum usable level: The maximum usable input power level shall be
   −20 dBm or better.

# 1.2 Translating Bluetooth standards to system level specifications

• Deriving Noise Figure(NF) from Sensitivity: The sensitivity expected out of a bluetooth receiver is -70 dBm or less. The project aims at a sensitivity of -96 dBm. Sensitivity (S) of any receiver chain is given in 1.1

$$S = -174 \, dBm/Hz + NF + 10 \log (B.W) + (SNR)_{o} \tag{1.1}$$

B.W is the bandwidth of bluetooth signal (1 MHz), NF is the integrated Noise figure of the receiver (from corner frequency to 1 MHz),  $(SNR)_o$  is minimum signal to noise ratio required at the output of the receiver. This number is typically 14 dB for bluetooth signal (with GFSK modulation scheme). Therefore, S = -100 + NF, in order to achieve S of -96 dBm or less, NF must be less than or equal to 4 dB.

• Deriving 1 dB Compression point from out of band interferer level: As can be seen in Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 the largest blocker is an out of band blocker of magnitude -30 dBm in frequency range 30 MHz to 2000 MHz. In

order to avoid compression due to the blocker the 1 dB compression point of the bluetooth receiver must be more than -30 dBm.

• Input referred third order intercept point (IIP3): The derivation of the required IIP3 is a little complicated. Referring to standard specifications of bluetooth on intermodulation, the input bluetooth signal should be at -64 dBm. From the input signal level, we can find the magnitude of the integrated noise floor, which is -64 -  $SNR_o$ = -64 - 14 = -78 dBm.

In a two tone test to determine the IIP3, two tones (very closely spaced inband interferers) are applied and their levels are raised until the third order inter-modulation components equals the integrated noise floor. In our case, the closely spaced tones are at frequency  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  which are given as:  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$ ,  $f_0$ are chosen such that  $2 * f_1 - f_2 = f_0$  and  $|f_1 - f_2| = n * 1$  MHz, where n can be 3,4 or 5 ( $f_0$  is the frequency of the input bluetooth signal).

$$IIP3 = P_{\text{int}} + \frac{P_{\text{int}} - IM_{\text{int}}}{2} \tag{1.2}$$

 $P_{int}$  = Level of interferer is specified in the intermodulation test as -50 dBm.

 $IM_{in}$  = integrated noise floor which is -78 dBm.

Therefore,  $IIP_3 = -36 \text{ dBm}$ .

# 1.3 Block level Architecture of the Bluetooth receiver

The architecture of the analog front end of bluetooth receiver is shown in fig. 1.1

The architecture chosen for bluetooth receiver here is a Direct Conversion Receiver (DCR) architecture. This architecture is chosen for the following reasons:

1. There is no concept of image in DCR, so there is no requirement of an Image rejection filter. Generally, the image rejection filter is placed before the mixer and needs a Q factor of more than 2400(i.e 2.4 GHz/1 MHz) for very high IF receiver and to even high values for low I.F receivers. Such high Q bandpass filters cannot be designed on chip and hence implemented off chip. Hence, non requirement of an Image Reject Filter helps in implementing the entire receiver(RF plus baseband blocks) on chip, hence making the receiver compact.

In the case of non zero I.F receiver, the LNA has to drive an off chip Image reject filter, where issues of maximum power transfer arise between the on chip

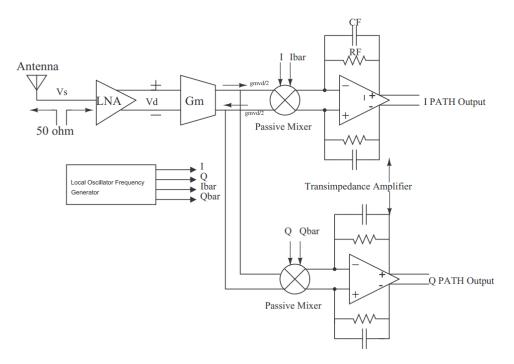


Figure 1.1: Architecture of the Bluetooth receiver

LNA and off chip image reject filter. Image rejection filter has to drive the mixer which should be designed to have an input impedance of 50 ohm for matching. This makes the design of a non-zero I.F complex compared to a DCR architecture.

2. In baseband part of the architecture the channel selection filtering is done by simple low pass filter with cutoff frequency of 2-3 MHz which are easily implemented on chip. Whereas in case of a high I.F receiver, a high Q channel select bandpass filter would be needed, though a high I.F will help in a better image rejection. Similarly a low I.F will make the channel selection filtering easy but it leads to requirement of very high Q Image reject filter. So, there are trade offs in Image reject filtering and Channel select filtering. In DCR we avoid playing with these trade offs as a simple low pass filter is needed for channel select filtering.

If the spectrum of the signal received is anti-symmetric, then direct frequency translation to baseband will lead to self corruption of the signal, hence two paths are chosen for the output namely In-phase path(I- path) and Quadrature-phase path(Q-path). With I path and Q path amplitude and phase can be attained correctly. A current mode architecture is used as it helps us reduce the voltage swings to ideally zero at some of the internal nodes in the receiver. This helps in avoiding compression of signal at the input for some of the blocks, thereby giving a higher 1-dB compression point. A brief qualitative overview on the presence of LNA, transconductor, Mixer and TIA is explained in the following paragraphs.

The signal received by the antenna has to travel a considerable distance on the chip before reaching the LNA, and as the distance which the RF signal has to travel becomes comparable to the wavelength of the signal, we have care about signal reflections at the input of the R.F front end. Low noise amplifier provides impedance matching at the input so that maximum power is transferred from the antenna and the reflections are minimized.

One of the aim of the project is to avoid usage of inductors in the R.F front end. So, a broadband LNA is chosen. But as compared to conventional LNA designs which consist of cascode Common Source LNA, the broadband LNA doesn't have a tuned input, and can't reject a lot of out of band noise(S/N noise ratio is enhanced by passive signal amplification at the input in Common source cascode LNA's)which

intuitively leads to higher noise figure contribution by LNA. So, a technique known as Noise cancellation is implemented which helps in achieving a low Noise figure contribution from LNA at the cost of little higher current consumption. The LNA can be modified to have variable gain step of 6 dB to achieve a higher dynamic range. Detailed design of variable gain LNA is explained in Chapter 2.

As the LNA is pseudo differential its output impedance in each output path is different, hence the output R.F currents from LNA can't be fed directly to a current mode passive mixer. So, a fully differential transconductor is used to feed equal signal currents to the current mode passive mixer. The current mode passive mixer translates the incoming R.F signal to the baseband signal. As the R.F currents from the transconductor are differential a fully differential passive mixer is chosen. Also the mixer chosen is of 25% duty cycle in order to avoid I-Q crosstalk. It will be discussed in detail in chapter 4 that a 25% has a better noise performance as compared to a 50% duty cycle mixer. The switches in the mixer are sized in such a way that the mixer contributes low noise and high linearity to the receiver. A detailed noise analysis of a current mode passive mixer is discussed in chapter 4.

The down converted currents are converted to differential output voltages using a transimpedance amplifier (TIA). As bluetooth signal has frequency component at dc the TIA is dc coupled to the mixer. Because the TIA is dc coupled to the mixer, flicker noise of input transistors in the TIA becomes important in it's design. This leads to sizing the input transistors in the TIA in a way to minimize the flicker noise, otherwise the flicker noise may completely drown out the signal near dc to few hundred kilohertz. TIA is also designed for the receiver to have a high dynamic range, as the input baseband currents are converted to the voltages at the output stage of the two-stage op-amp. Hence, if we ensure a high 1-db compression point of the output stage the linearity of the receiver can be improved.

Also ideally a TIA has zero input impedance due to which there are zero input voltage swings at it's input, hence there is no compression caused to the input differential pair in TIA. This enhances the overall linearity of the receiver chain. A simple first order low pass filter is implemented with the TIA to have a cut-off frequency of 2.5 MHz to pass the bluetooth signal of bandwidth 1 MHz.

# Chapter 2

# Low Noise Amplifier (LNA)

The LNA chosen for the receiver is a broadband LNA to avoid usage of inductors in the design (i.e one with tuned input and output). The circuit diagram of the noise cancellation LNA is shown in fig 2.1

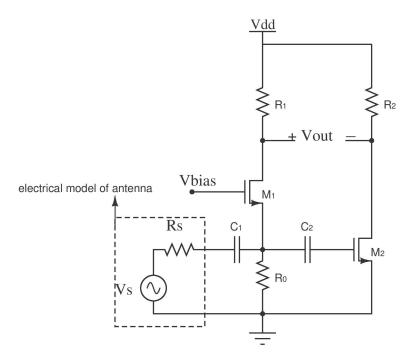


Figure 2.1: Low noise amplifier

The following are the key design aspects of an LNA:

### 2.1 Input Return Loss

The signal received by the antenna has to travel considerable distance on the PCB before reaching the receiver front end, which may result in voltage reflections and thereby attenuating the input signal. If the antenna is terminated in a 50 ohm load then the reflections can be minimized, just similar to terminating a transmission line (let's say of characteristic impedance of 50  $\Omega$ ) to a 50  $\Omega$  load to make reflections zero. Hence input impedance matching is of prime concern in design of LNA. The quality of the input match is expressed by the "input return loss" ( $\Gamma$ ) defined as ratio of reflected power to incident power with the output of LNA matched to 50 ohm.  $\Gamma$  is given as:

$$\Gamma = \frac{(Z_{in} - R_s)^2}{(Z_{in} + R_s)^2} \tag{2.1}$$

where  $Z_{in}$  is the input impedance of the LNA and  $R_s$  is the source impedance, in this case antenna's source impedance is 50  $\Omega$ . The input impedance matching is explained with help of figure 2.2

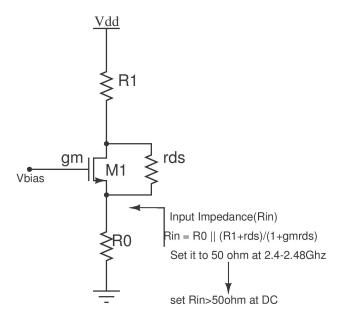


Figure 2.2: Low noise amplifier

The LNA is designed with minimum channel length of 60 nm in order to preserve nodal bandwidths to at least equal to signal frequency (i.e 2.4 - 2.48 GHz). The common gate (CG) and common source (CS) transistors M1 and M2 respectively in figure 2.1 are biased at a current density of  $12.5 \,\mu\text{A}/\mu\text{m}$  which gives a maximum dc gain of 10 and  $f_t$  of 30 GHz. The importance of biasing the transistor at high dc gain is described in the design aspect of "Noise figure" in this chapter. The input and output nodal bandwidths of the LNA are about 4 GHz, i.e., little higher than the frequency of operation (2.4-2.48 GHz). Had the channel lengths been higher we could have lost out on nodal bandwidths in the LNA because the nodal capacitors would be quadrupled in order to keep the same  $G_m$ .

The input matching is done by the Common Gate structure of the LNA in fig 2.1. As the channel length chosen is 60 nm channel length modulation effect also plays a role in determining the input impedance of the LNA. The input impedance  $R_{in}$  of the circuit in fig . 2.2 at D.C is given as:

$$R_{in} = \frac{(R_1 + r_{ds})}{(1 + g_m r_{ds})} || R_0$$
 (2.2)

A maximum d.c gain  $(g_m r_{ds})$  is chosen according to the below plot of dc gain versus current density (I/W) for a 60 nm channel length transistor set for  $V_{ds} = 600$  mV.

Choice of  $g_m$ : It looks from the formula of  $R_i n$  that  $g_m$  can be chosen in a way to minimize the current consumption in common gate part of LNA. But, the input referred noise of  $R_1$  is inversely proportional to the square of  $g_m$  hence  $g_m$  can't be made arbitrarily small to reduce current consumption.

How to choose  $g_m$ ? Looking at the long channel counterpart of figure 2.2, the input impedance is simply  $\frac{1}{g_m}$ . To have  $R_{in}$  of 50  $\Omega, g_m$  is set to 20 mS. Taking this as hint, the  $g_m$  of  $M_1$  is chosen to be 20 mS.

 $M_1$  is biased at a  $Vd_{sat}$  of approximately 75 mV to maximize  $IIP_3$ . So the current required in  $M_1$  can be calculated from :  $g_m = \frac{I_d}{Vd_{sat}}$  ( $g_m$  for a short channel transistor) which comes out to be 1.5 mA.  $R_1$  and  $R_0$  is chosen as 410  $\Omega$  and 300  $\Omega$  in order to minimize their noise figure contribution and also in such a way, that a current consumption of 1.5 mA gives a  $V_{ds}$  of at least 200 mV for  $M_1$ . Hence from equation 1,  $R_{in}$  is 85  $\Omega$  at DC.  $R_{in}$  is purposefully kept higher at DC to get the required (with some additional room of 10  $\Omega$  for to burn more current in  $M_2$  to lower it's noise

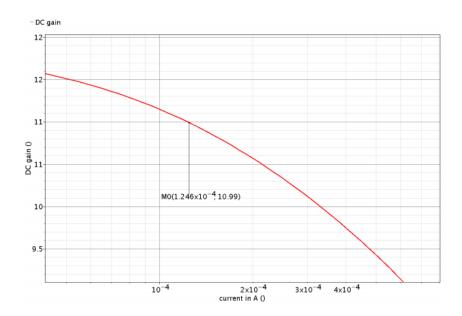


Figure 2.3: DC gain versus current plot in a 10u/60nm transistor

figure contribution) 50  $\Omega$  input impedance at the frequency band of interest (2.4 - 2.48 GHz).

The plots for input impedance and  $S_{11}$  (input reflection coefficient) can be seen below respectively:

### 2.2 Noise Figure

The LNA chosen is a broadband LNA, i.e without any tuned input and output. So, we are using noise cancellation technique by which the drain thermal noise of common gate transistor  $M_1$  is canceled. Then the components that contribute to the noise figure are  $M_2$ ,  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ . The design of these components to minimize the overall noise figure of LNA is discussed in detail.

Noise cancellation of  $M_1$  is explained with the help of figure 2.6

The aim is to identify two nodes in the circuit (node A and B) where the drain thermal noise of  $M_1$  appears in the same polarity and the signal  $V_s$  appears with opposite polarity, so that when a differential output is taken across these two nodes, then noise of  $M_1$  is canceled and signal is added.

The figure shows only the signal picture, biasing details of the transistors is not

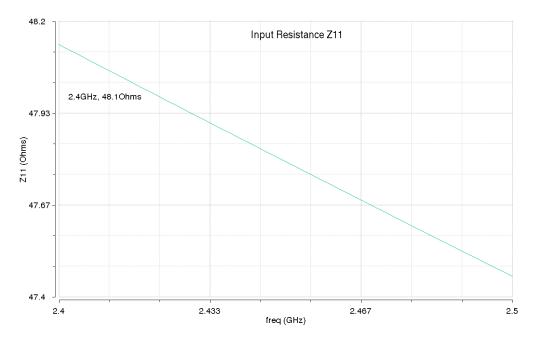


Figure 2.4: Input impedance of LNA matched to 50 ohm

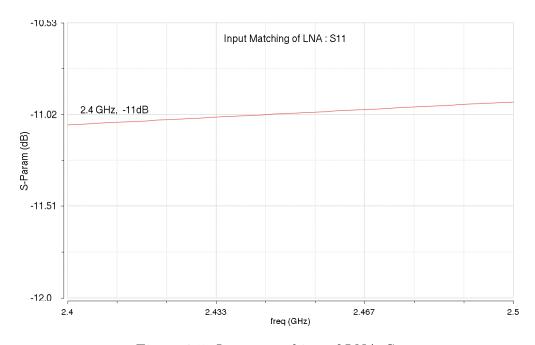


Figure 2.5: Input matching of LNA  $S_{11}\,$ 

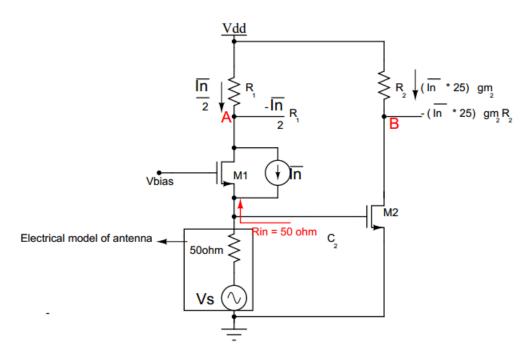


Figure 2.6: Noise cancellation of  $M_1$ 

shown. Neglecting channel length modulation, the input impedance looking into the source node of  $M_1$  is matched to antenna's 50  $\Omega$  impedance. As shown in the figure, the noise of  $M_1$  appears as  $-\frac{I_n}{2}$   $R_1$  on node A and as  $(I_n * 25)$   $g_{m2}$   $R_2$  on node B. If we set  $R_1 = 50$   $g_{m2}$   $R_2$  the drain thermal noise of  $M_1$  is canceled. The result can also be formulated as  $R_1 = R_s$   $g_{m2}$   $R_2$  as  $R_s$  is the antenna's resistance of 50  $\Omega$ , but  $g_{m1} = \frac{1}{R_s}$ . Hence, if gains of the two sides that is the Common Gate side  $(g_{m1}$   $R_1)$  and Common source side  $(g_{m2}$   $R_2)$  are equal then the noise of  $M_1$  is canceled. As the output is differential the gains in both the paths i.e., CG and CS should be same, this helps in canceling the noise from  $M_1$ . Hence, our aim is to make the gains of the CG side and CS side in figure 2.1 as exact as possible to cancel the noise of  $M_1$ . After canceling the noise of  $M_1$  the noisy components are  $R_0, R_1, M_2$  and  $R_2$ .

How to decide a value for the biasing resistor  $R_0$  to minimize it's noise contribution? Let the thermal noise current power spectral density(PSD) of  $R_0$  be  $I_{R0}^2$ . The contribution of noise of  $R_0$  to the NF of the LNA is given as  $\frac{R_s}{R_0}$ . Therefore,  $R_0$  is selected large as compared to  $R_s$  (antenna source resistance 50 ohm). The upper

limit of  $R_0$  is fixed by the voltage headroom assigned to it. The voltage headroom assigned to it is around 400 mV. The voltage headroom is so assigned because, we need a larger headroom for  $R_1$  as it is the dominant noise contributor in the LNA and it has to be made larger for reducing it's noise contribution. In our design  $R_0$  is fixed to a value of 300 ohm. Thus  $R_0$  contributes only 16 % to the NF of the LNA.

How to decide a value for the biasing resistor  $R_1$  to minimize it's noise contribution? The contribution of  $R_1$  to the NF of the LNA is  $\frac{1}{g_{m1}R_1}$ . For a fixed  $g_{m1}$  of 20 mS, only way to reduce the noise of  $R_1$  is to keep it to a value of  $\frac{600mV}{1.4mA} = 428 \Omega$ . So,  $R_0$  is set to a value around 420  $\Omega$ .

How to bias  $M_2$  to minimize it's noise contribution? The  $V_{dsat}$  of  $M_2$  is fixed to a value of 75 mV to maximize it's  $IIP_3$ . It's contribution to the NF of the LNA is given as:  $\frac{4kT\gamma}{g_{m2}}$ . Hence, only way to minimize the Noise figure contribution of  $M_2$ , is to increase  $g_{m2}$  which means we have to burn more current in CS side of the LNA. A current consumption of up to 6 mA is allowed on the CS side. Therefore, the  $g_{m2}$  of  $M_2$  is given as  $\frac{6mA}{75mV}=80$  mS. The gain on the CG side is fixed to 4 because of limited headroom of just 200 mV to  $M_1$  and channel length modulation effect. So,  $R_2$  is chosen such that equivalent output resistance of  $M_1$  i.e  $\frac{r_{ds2}}{R_2}$  is equal to  $\frac{4}{80mS}=50$  ohm. Biased at a current density of  $12.5uA/\text{um } r_{ds2}=100 \Omega$ , so  $R_2$  is chosen as  $100 \Omega$  to have an equivalent output resistance of  $50 \Omega$  for  $M_2$ .

Contribution of  $R_2$  together noise figure of LNA is given as:  $\frac{1}{g_{m2}^2 R_2 R_s} = \frac{1}{4*80mS*50}$ , which is only 6.25%.

To show the effect of Noise cancellation two plots for Noise figure are shown. First plot figure 2.7 shows the Noise figure of CG LNA alone, without noise cancellation to be 4.5 dB with contribution of CG transistor  $M_1$  as 41%. The second plot(figure 2.8) shows the noise figure of LNA with noise cancellation of  $M_1$ . The contribution of  $M_1$  to the NF is just less than 10%. The NF is 2.38 dB. The table 2.2 following the Noise figure plots shows the noise contribution of each component in LNA before and after noise cancellation.

$M_1$	41	9.35
$R_1$	16.4	12.14
$R_0$	6.1	9.9
$M_2$	X	9.15
$R_2$	X	1.3
$R_s(antenna)$	35	57.76

### 2.3 Voltage Gain

The gain of the LNA defines the overall  $IIP_3$  of the bluetooth receiver. This is because the transconductor, mixer and TIA does not undergo much input compression as input impedance of both the blocks is very small, approximately 9 ohm for the switch and 0.6 ohm for the TIA. Let  $IIP_{3LNA}$  and  $IIP_{3TCA}$  be the  $IIP_3$  of the LNA and the transconductor respectively. Let the gain of LNA be  $A_{LNA}$  in dB. Then the  $IIP_3$  of the LNA referred back to the input of LNA is  $IIP_{3TCA} - A_{LNA}$ . So, keeping a low gain in the LNA is desirable. The LNA is designed for a gain of 12 dB. It can have a variable gain step of 6 dB, which makes it's gain 6 dB lower when the input

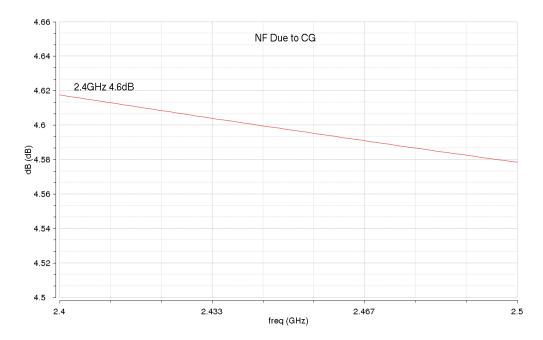


Figure 2.7: Noise figure of LNA without noise cancellation of  $M_1$ 

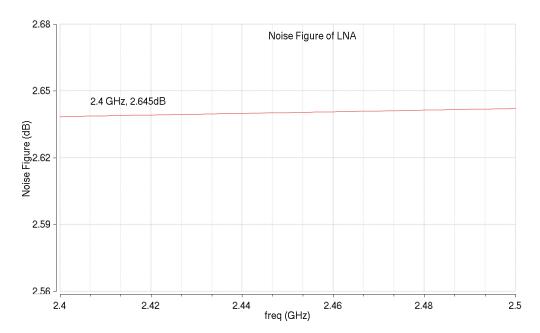


Figure 2.8: Noise figure of LNA with noise cancellation of  $M_1$ 

signal power is between -77 dBm and -14 dBm.

Derivation of the Voltage Gain for the Noise Cancellation LNA: In figure 2.9, first neglecting the channel length modulation effect for  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ , the gain of the Common Gate side can be written as  $\frac{V_{op}}{V_in} = g_{m1} R_1$  and that of the Common source side can be written as  $\frac{V_{op}}{V_i} = g_{m2} R_2$ .

source side can be written as  $\frac{V_{op}}{V_{in}} = g_{m2} R_2$ . So, the overall gain of the circuit is  $\frac{V_{op}-V_{in}}{V_{in}} = g_{m1} R_1 + g_{m2} R_2$ . But as the transistors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are short channel transistors, the gain is a major function of channel length modulation. The only advantage the choice of short channel length offers is, sufficient bandwidth is available on the input and output nodes in the circuit.

So, for the short channel case voltage gain is found in the following way: The input impedance of the  $R_{in}$  is given as:

 $R_{in} = \frac{(R_1 + r_{ds1})}{(1 + g_{m1}r_{ds1})}||R_0$ . The input current  $I_{in} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_{in}}$ . The output impedance  $R_{out1}$  looking into node A is given as: $R_{out1} = (g_{m1} \ r_{ds1} \ R_0) + R_0 + r_{ds1}$  in parallel with  $R_1$ . Therefore voltage at node A is given as  $I_{in} \ R_{out2}$  and hence voltage gain for the Common gate section is given as:

$$\frac{V_{op}}{V_{in}} = \frac{R_{out1}}{R_{in}}$$

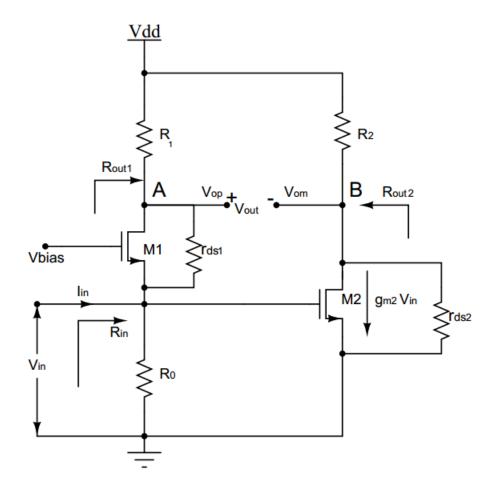


Figure 2.9: Understanding Voltage gain of the LNA

In the design:  $(g_{m1} \ r_{ds1}) = 4.37$ ,  $r_{ds1} = 228 \ \Omega$ ,  $R_1 = 424 \ \Omega$ ,  $R_0 = 300 \ \Omega$ .  $R_{out1} = 344.5 \ \Omega$  and  $R_{in} = 120 \parallel 300 = 85 \ \Omega$ . Hence, the gain is  $\frac{344.5}{85} = 4$ .

The gain of the Common Source side is simply written as :

 $g_{m2}*(R_2 \parallel r_{ds2}) = 80$  mS \*  $(100 \parallel 100) = 4$ . The overall voltage gain  $\frac{(V_{op}-V_{om})}{V_{in}}$  for the figure 2.9 is 8, when referred to the antenna input with the venin resistance of 50  $\Omega$  the gain becomes 4 (12 dB). A plot for the voltage gain of LNA (= 12 db) is shown below.

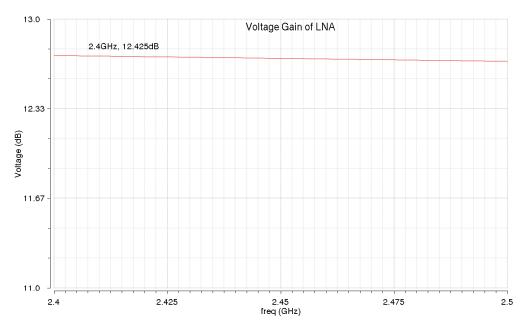


Figure 2.10: Gain for LNA

### 2.4 Third order Input intercept point $(IIP_3)$

The drain current of a transistor can be approximated as a weak cubic non linearity in the following way:

$$i_{ds} = a_1 \ v_{gs} + a_2 \ v_{gs}^2 + a_3 \ v_{gs}^3$$

 $a_1$  is the transconductance  $(g_m)$  of the transistor. Within the input dynamic range, it is desired that  $i_d$  should only be a function of  $v_{gs}$  not it's powers. If two interferers at frequencies  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  appear in the frequency band of operation (2.4-2.48 GHz) in such a way that  $|2*f_2-f_1|=f_0$ , (where  $f_0$  is the frequency of the channel of interest in the band), then with the presence of cubic non linearity these interferes fall on the bluetooth signal of interest at  $f_0$ , thus corrupting it. The magnitude of the third order intermodulation components is directly proportional to  $a_3$ . Therefore, it is essential that the coefficient  $a_3$  of  $v_{gs}^3$  be minimized at the biasing point of the transistor.

Second order non-linearity arises because of presence of  $v_{gs}^2$  term. Looking at the receiver chain in figure 1.1, we find that if two interferers at  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  undergo second order non - linearity in the LNA and TCA, second order intermodulation components

appear at  $f_1 + f_2$ ,  $f_1 - f_2$  is frequency of the order of a few MHz and doesn't makes it's way significantly into the baseband after downconversion, because the transconductor is A.C coupled to the mixer and low frequency components are high pass filtered. The high frequency component is approximately double the frequency of operation and is down converted to around a value of few GHz. Such a high frequency second order intermodulation component is filtered by the channel select low pass filter in the baseband, in this case first order low pass filter shown with the TIA. Hence, less focus is made on minimizing the second order intermodulation components.

How to minimize third order intermodulation components and achieve a good  $IIP_3$  for the LNA and transconductor?

The  $IIP_3$  of a source-degenerated Common Gate transistor is given in volts (peak value) as:  $3.26 V_{dsat}$ . Therefore, if we choose a  $V_{dsat}$  such that  $a_1$  is maximum at that point and  $a_3$  is minimum then we can ensure, that the magnitude of the  $IM_3$  components will be minimum and the transistor will have the desired linearity between  $i_d$  and  $v_{qs}$ .

Differentiating the equation w.r.t  $v_{gs}$  three times,  $i_d s = a_1 v_{gs} + a_2 v_{gs}^2 + a_3 v_{gs}^3$ , we get  $a_3 = 1/6 \left(\frac{d^3 i_{ds}}{dx^3}\right)$  or  $\frac{1}{6}$  of the second derivative of  $g_m$ .

#### How to find $a_3$ by simulation?

We first choose a transistor of channel length 60 nm and bias the drain at  $V_{dd}$  such that there is no compression at the drain(due to the transistor going into triode region). Choose an arbitrary Width, let's say 10 um.

Sweep the  $V_{gs}$  of the transistor from 0 to  $V_{dd}$  and plot the  $g_m$  of the transistor. Then, take the second derivative of  $g_m$  and divide by 6, which gives us  $a_3$ . Select the point where  $a_3$  is minimum and  $g_m$  (or  $a_1$ ) is maximum. In the design of LNA and the transconductor, the channel length of the input transistors is set as 60 nm. The optimum value of  $V_g s$ , is selected as 500 mV (giving a  $V_{dsat}$  of 75 mV). The below figure shows the maximum and minimum point of  $g_m$  and  $g_m$  are respectively.

The blue plot is for  $a_3$  and red plot is for  $g_m$ . The below figure shows the  $IIP_3$  for the LNA.It is +1.5 dm.

The blue plot is for  $a_3$  and red plot is for  $g_m$ .

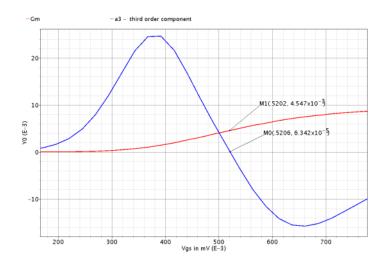


Figure 2.11: Maximising  $IIP_3$  of LNA by careful selection of  $V_{gs}$ 

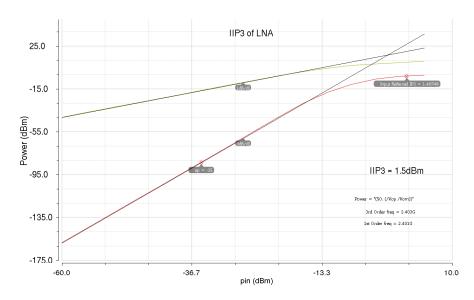


Figure 2.12:  $IIP_3$  for LNA

## 2.5 Layout of LNA

The layout of the Low Noise Amplifier is shown in the figure 2.13. The layout shown below includes the Common Gate stage, Common Source stage, load resistors, and coupling capacitors which are used to isolate the DC voltages and the biasing circuit for LNA. The capacitors are not completely shown in the figure 2.13. To the left is

the common gate stage and to the right is the common source stage. In the layout, the biasing circuit of this LNA is above CG and CS stages. The area occupied by LNA is  $40~\rm{um}~X~20~um$ .

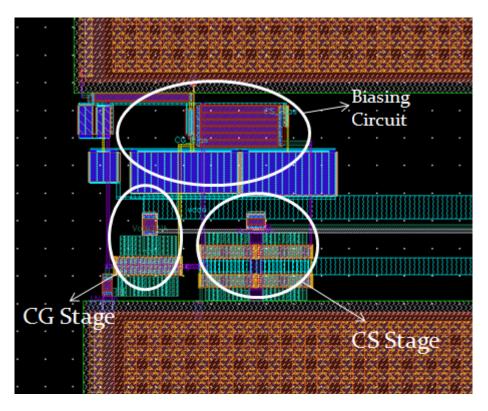


Figure 2.13: Layout of LNA

## Chapter 3

# Fully differential Transconductor

A simple model of the transconductor highlighting it's  $G_m$  and its output impedance at the frequency of operation (2.4 - 2.48 GHz) is shown below:

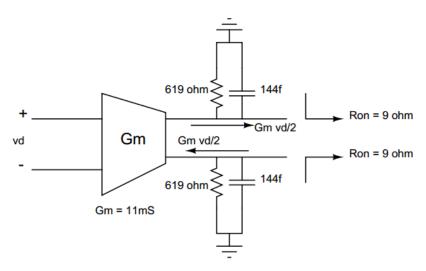


Figure 3.1: Model of a fully differential transconductor

The design aspects of the Transconductor are as follows:

## 3.1 Noise figure

The figure of the transconductor figure 3.2 is shown below:

The input referred voltage squared noise of the transconductor is given as:

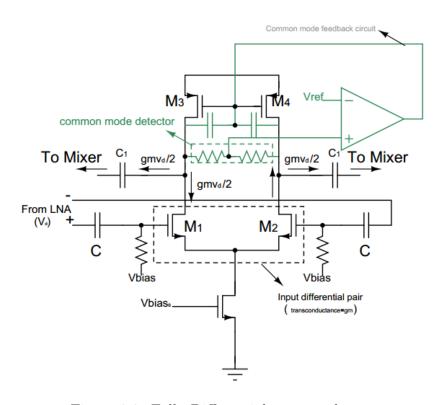


Figure 3.2: Fully Differential transconductor

$$V_{nTCA}^{2} = \frac{(8kT\gamma_{n})}{g_{m1}} + \frac{(8kT\gamma_{p}g_{m3})}{g_{m1}^{2}}$$

Usually  $g_{m3}$  is kept at least 4 times less than  $g_{m1}$  and  $M_3$  and  $M_4$  are designed with long channel lengths so that  $\gamma_p$  is usually the minimum, i.e.  $\frac{2}{3}$ . So, the noise due to the  $M_3$  and  $M_4$  can be ignored. So,  $V_{nTCA}^2 = \frac{(8kT\gamma_n)}{g_{m1}}$ . When referred to the input the LNA of gain 4, the input referred noise due to TCA becomes  $\frac{V_{nTCA}^2}{16}$ . k = 1.38 \* 10<sup>23</sup>, T = 300 K, excess drain thermal noise factor  $\gamma_n$  for 60 nm length transistor = 1.2.

We have to assign a noise budget to the transconductor, such that it contributes lesser noise as compared to LNA, so that the stages ahead of LNA contributes less to the NF. Let  $V_{nLNA}^2$  be the input referred noise of LNA and let  $V_{nRs}^2$  be the input noise due to the antenna's source resistance  $R_s$  of 50  $\Omega$ . Below figure shows the total input referred noise of LNA and antenna alone:

From section 2.2, the contribution of the antenna to the input referred noise as

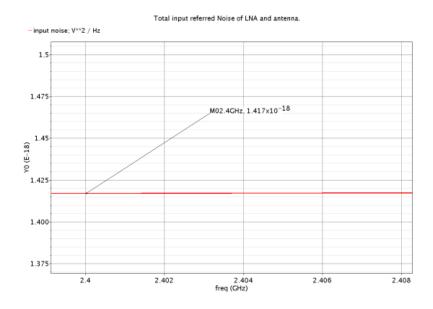


Figure 3.3: Input referred noise voltage PSD of LNA and antenna

shown in figure 3.3 is 57.76 % of which contribution of antenna is  $8*10^{-19}~V^2/Hz$ .

Therefore,  $V_{nLNA}^2 = 6 * 10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz$ . A noise budget of half the input referred noise of LNA is assigned to the transconductor. Therefore,  $V_{nTCA}^2 = \frac{(8kT\gamma_n)}{g_{m1}}$  must be less than  $3*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz$ . Doing the calculations, we get  $g_{m1} > 8$  mS. For a fixed  $V_{dsat}$  of 75 mV to get a good  $IIP_3$ , minimum current consumption of  $g_{m1} \ V_{dsat} = 8$  mS \* 75 mV = 0.6 mA is required in each transistor  $(M_1 \ \text{and} \ M_2)$ . So, minimum total current consumption in the transconductor is 1.2 mA.

In our design we have set  $g_{m1}$  as 11 mS and  $g_{m3}$  as 3.8 mS. From equation 2 the total input referred noise of transconductor to the LNA input input comes out to be  $2.5*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz$ , which is less than the assigned budget of  $3*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz$ .  $V_{nLNA}^2 = 6*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz \ V_{nTCA}^2 = 2.5*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz \ V_{nR_s}^2 = 8*10^{-19} \ V^2/Hz$ 

The total input referred noise of the LNA-Transconductor-antenna is  $16.5*10^{-19}$   $V^2/Hz$ . The same can be also be seen in the below plot of the total input referred noise of LNA-TCA-antenna. Now, the total noise factor of LNA-Transconductor cascade is  $(V_{nLNA}^2 + V_{nTCA}^2 + V_{nR_s}^2)/(V_{nR_s}^2) = 2.1$ , which is 3.34 dB.

Now we understand that, the Mixer and TIA must be designed such that they contribute only 1 dB to the Noise Figure, so that overall Noise Figure will be around 4 dB. The Noise Figure plot of the LNA-Transconductor is shown below:

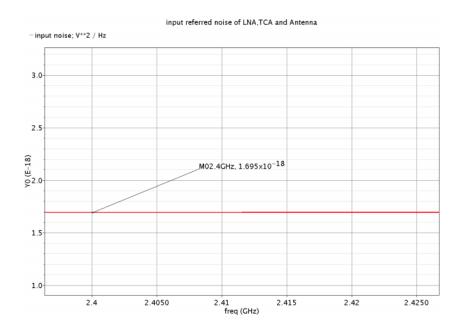


Figure 3.4: Input referred noise voltage PSD of LNA-Transconductor-antenna together

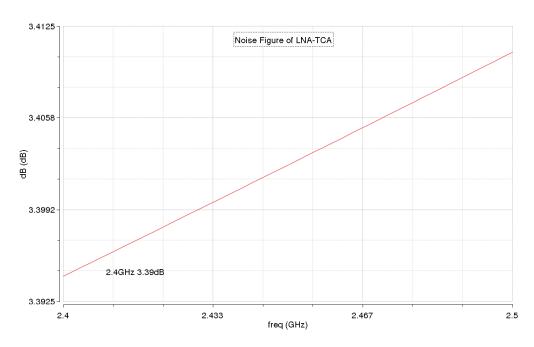
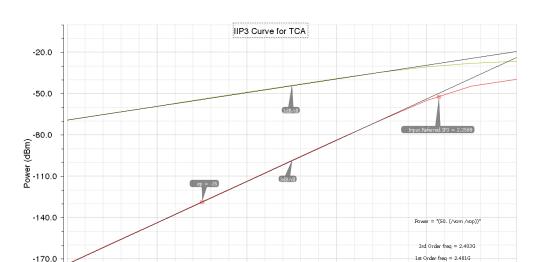


Figure 3.5: Noise figure of LNA-Transconductor cascade

-10.0

0.0



#### 3.2 $IIP_3$ of Transconductor

-40.0

-200.0

-50.0

Figure 3.6:  $IIP_3$  of transconductor

pin (dBm)

-30.0

As the transconductor is driving the mixer and the TIA, the output impedance of the transconductor is ideally the  $R_{on}$  of the switch in the mixer (approximately 10 ohm), the voltage swings at the output of the transconductor are negligible. Therefore, there is no compression faced by the transconductor at it's output. However, there can be compression at the input, because it's input is the amplified voltage output of the LNA. Therefore, we have to bother about the maximizing the  $IIP_3$  of the TCA. Referring to section 2.4, an optimum Gate-source bias voltage is chosen for the input differential pair. The input differential pair is designed with channel length of 60 nm and hence from figure 2.11, the optimum point of  $V_{gs}$  is at 500 mV, giving a  $V_{dsat}$  of 75 mV.

A transconductor is a voltage controlled current source and needs a very high output impedance. So, the output common mode drain voltages of the input differential pair transistors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  in figure 3.2 is selected as high as possible, such that a minimum headroom of little more than  $V_{dsat}$  is maintained for the active PMOS loads. The active PMOS loads are designed with larger channel lengths to have a high output resistance.

In the design, the output common drain voltages are set at 800 mv. The output common mode voltages are set using a resistive common mode detector and an opamp connected in negative feedback (shown in green colour in figure 3.1). The  $IIP_3$  of the transconductor is 2.28 dBm and plot for the same is shown below in figure 3.6. The plots for common mode loop gain and phase is shown in figure 3.7:

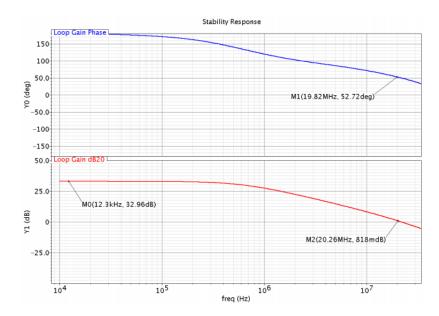


Figure 3.7: Stability of the common mode feedback loop in transconductor

#### 3.3 Layout of TCA stage:

The layout of the transconductance stage is shown in the figure 3.8. The layout shown includes the single stage OP-AMP which is used as transconductor, the common mode circuit, and biasing circuit. The capacitors placed above are the compensation capacitors. The area occupied by TCA is 90 um X 53 um.

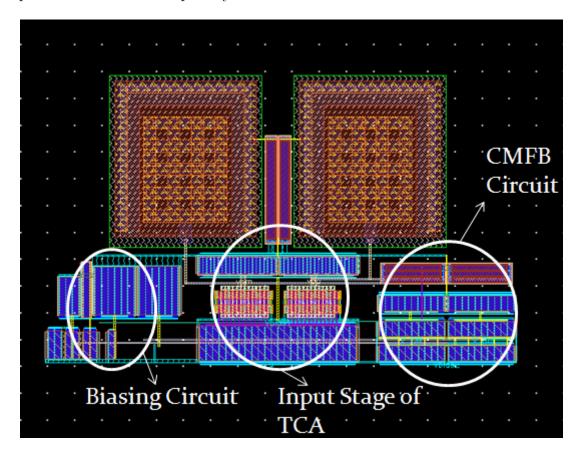


Figure 3.8: Layout view of Transconductor Amplifier

### Chapter 4

# Current mode 25 % duty cycle double balanced passive Mixer

A 25 % duty cycle passive mixer is chosen because of two reasons:

• To avoid crosstalk between I-path and Q-path. If the spectrum of the signal is anti symmetric then the crosstalk may lead to self corruption of the signal.

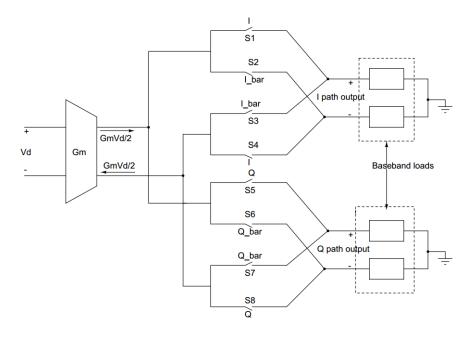


Figure 4.1: A current mode passive mixer

The crosstalk also leads to an increased noise from the mixer.

• The Noise figure of a 25 % duty cycle passive mixer is 3 dB less than the noise figure of a 50 % duty cycle passive mixer.

Both the above points are explained in detail with the help of the diagram shown in Fig. 4.1. The crosstalk can be identified by knowing which switches of the I and Q path are simultaneously ON during the time period 'T' of the L.O (local oscillator) waveforms.

The figure below shows the In-phase and Quadrature-phase waveforms in the case of a 50 % duty cycle passive mixer:

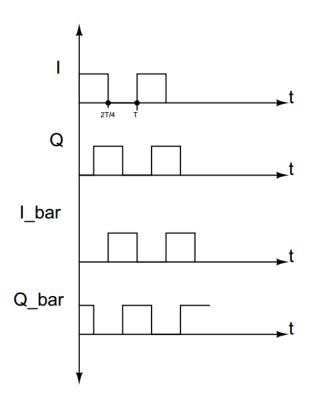


Figure 4.2: 50 % duty cycle I and Q waveforms

During the period 0 < t < T/4, I and  $Q_{bar}$  are ON, causing crosstalk between switches S1, S4 in the I path and S6, S7 in the Q path.

During the period T/4 < t < T/2, I and Q are ON , causing a crosstalk between switches S1, S4 in I path and S5, S8 in the Q path.

During the period T/2 < t < 3T/4,  $I_{bar}$  and Q are ON, causing a crosstalk between switches S2, S3 in I path and S5, S8 in the Q path.

Similarly during the period 3T/4 < t < T,  $I_{bar}$  and  $Q_{bar}$  are ON and relevant switches are ON.

It can be easily observed that in every 1/4 part of the time period 'T' both I and Q paths are ON simultaneously, so the input currents  $G_m v_d/2$  and  $-G_m v_d/2$  each split equally into I path and Q path 'mixer switches' causing only half of the current to be down converted. So, in real only  $G_m v_d/4$  is down converted instead of  $G_m v_d/2$  resulting in the half the gain of the mixer in either of the paths i.e  $1/\pi$ 

The above problem of the gain and I-Q crosstalk can be solved if two transconductors are used, one for I path and other for Q path. The drawback here is, the output of the LNA is loaded by double the gate capacitance, reducing nodal bandwidth and hence reducing the gain of the LNA, which increases the noise contributions of all the stages after the LNA. This results in an overall increase in the Noise Figure. The next solution without compromising any increase in the Noise Figure of the receiver and to avoid I-Q crosstalk is to use a 25 % duty cycle mixer. The ideal 25 % duty cycle I,Q waveforms are shown in figure 4.3

As we can see in the waveforms, in 1/4th of time period T, only one of the phase i.e either I or Q or  $I\_bar$  or  $Q\_Sbar$  is active and hence is no crosstalk between I and Q paths. Also as either I or Q path is ON in every quarter of a cycle, complete R.F current  $G\_m\ v\_d/2$  is down converted. The current gain of a 25 % duty cycle passive mixer is  $\sqrt{2}/\pi$  and it's 3 dB higher than the receiver with a 50 % duty cycle passive mixer with a single transconductor. Therefore the stages after the mixer and mixer itself will contribute less to the overall input referred noise at the LNA input.

# 4.1 Conversion Gain of a 25 % duty cycle passive mixer

The conversion gain of a double balanced passive mixer is  $\sqrt{2}/\pi$ , because the magnitude of the fundamental component of a waveform (I - Q) is  $2\sqrt{2}/\pi$ .

$$x_{LO}(t) = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \left\{ \sin \omega_{LO} t - \frac{1}{3} \sin 3\omega_{LO} t - \frac{1}{5} \sin 5\omega_{LO} t + \frac{1}{7} \sin 7\omega_{LO} t + \dots \right\}$$
(4.1)

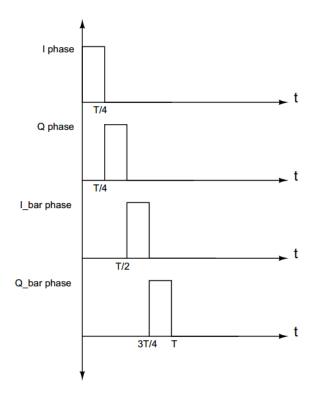


Figure 4.3: 25 % duty cycle I and Q waveforms

On multiplication with an R.F sinusoid the gain becomes  $\sqrt{2}/\pi=0.45$ . The figure 4.4 shows the necessary biasing for a passive mixer. The drain of the mixer is directly coupled to the TIA and hence input common mode voltage of the TIA becomes the drain bias voltage for the switches in the mixer. It is at 600 mV in the design. The source node of the switches are biased at 600 mV so that it always operates in heavy triode region when ON. As a NMOS switch passes low voltages very easily, the Gates of all the switches are biased above the drain by one Threshold voltage , i.e approximately 600 mV.

To Test the conversion gain of the mixer a 1 V input is applied to the LNA, it's output is 3.55 V(loaded voltage gain of the LNA is 3.55). The differential input R.F current to the mixer is I\_in+-  $I_{in-}$  =1 \* 3.5 \* 11 mS = 38.5 mA. Expected differential output baseband current is  $I_{out+}$  -  $I_{out+}$ = 0.45 \* 38.5 mA = 17.3 mA. The ratio of the currents = 16.72/37.1 = 0.45. The below plots figure 4.5 and figure 4.6shows the differential R.F current input to the mixer and output differential baseband current of the mixer

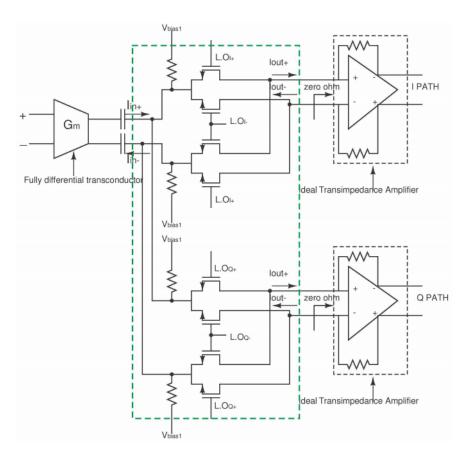


Figure 4.4: Biasing of a passive Mixer

# 4.2 Noise analysis of a passive mixer by Switched capacitor approach

The noise analysis for a passive mixer is shown with the help of figure 4.7

The thermal noise of a switch with ON resistance of  $R_{on}$  is  $I_{Ron}^2 = \frac{4KT}{R_{on}}$ . During the I phase, (switches driven by  $L.O_{I+}$  are ON)the nodal capacitors  $C_T$  are charged with the noise current PSD of the ON resistances of the two switches. The charging process is shown by green and red arrows for the two capacitors  $C_T$ . During the Q phase, (switches driven by  $L.O_{Q+}$  are on)the capacitors discharge through the ON switches in the Q path into the virtual ground nodes of the TIA. A capacitor  $C_T$  charged by an I phase switch and discharged through a Q phase switch gives an

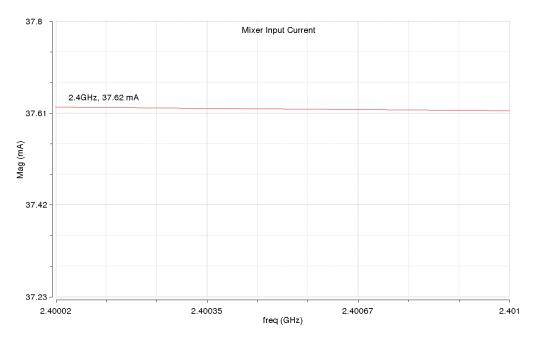


Figure 4.5: Differential R.F current input to the mixer in mA

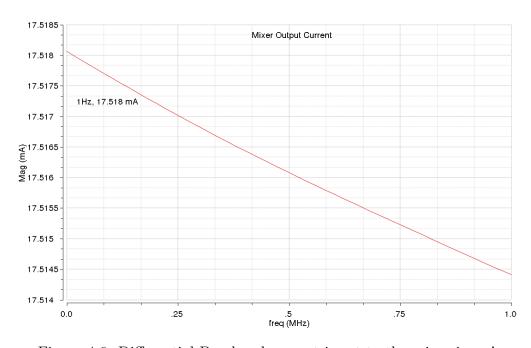


Figure 4.6: Differential Baseband current input to the mixer in mA

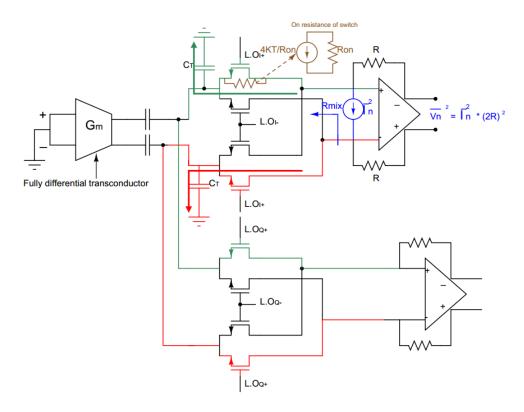


Figure 4.7: Noise analysis in a passive mixer

equivalent resistance of  $\frac{1}{f_0C_T}$ , according to switched capacitor analysis looking into the single output node of Q path mixer. Since, there are two charge and discharge process going on simultaneously, the equivalent output resistance of the mixer in I or Q path is  $\frac{2}{f_0C_T}$ . This process of charge and discharge of nodal capacitor  $C_T$  leads to the noise contribution by the passive mixer. The amount of noise charge deposited on the capacitors is proportional to the  $R_{on}$   $C_T$  time constant. So, if  $C_T$  is higher then the amount of noise charged sampled by the switches is higher and hence a higher noise contribution from the mixer.

The switched capacitor output resistance(for the I or Q mixer)  $R_{mix} = \frac{2}{f_0 C_T}$  is shown in blue colour in figure 4.7. The current noise PSD due to  $R_{mix}$  is  $I_n^2 = 4 \text{KT}/R_{mix}$ . Thus, the output voltage squared noise PSD in the I path(or Q path) is  $V_n^2 = I_n^2 (2R)^2$ . In our design the noise due the mixer is tracked by hand calculations, with the help of the switched capacitor analysis.

The hand calculation tracking is done as follows: What is the value of  $C_T$ ?

The below figure shows, how to calculate the value of  $C_T$ . The switches are sized

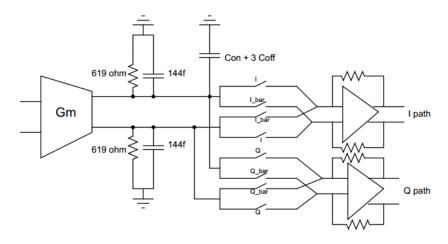


Figure 4.8: Estimating the value of capacitor  $C_T$ 

such that with a gate swing of 600 mV to 1.8 V(the L.O swing is 1.2 V but the gate is biased at 600 mV), the on resistance of the switch is at 10 ohm. The W/L of a switch is selected as 64 u/60 nm. Each output node of the TCA is connected to four switches, and as only one of the switch is ON in a time period of the L.O, the total capacitance contributed by the mixer at each node is given as  $C_{on} + C_{off}$ . In the design,  $C_{on} = 63.5$  fF and  $C_{off} = 25.6$  fF. A total of 140.3 fF is contributed by mixer to each output node of the TCA. Thus,  $C_T = 144 + 140.3 = 284.3$  fF.  $R_{mix} = \frac{2}{f_0 C_T} = 2924$  ohm. The current noise PSD of  $R_{mix}$  is referred to the LNA as  $\frac{4kT/R_{mix}}{(gainofLNA)^2 G_m^2 (gainofmixer)^2}$  which is  $\frac{4kT/R_{mix}}{16*11mS^2*0.45^2} = 1.375*10^{-20} V^2/\text{Hz}$  per switch. For four switches, it is 4 times and hence the input referred noise voltage at the input LNA due to the I path is  $5.5*10^{-20} V^2/\text{Hz}$ . According to the noise summary in the pnoise analysis, the contribution due to the mixer is  $6*10^{-20} V^2/\text{Hz}$ , which is approximately equal to the hand calculated result.

#### 4.3 Frequency Divider with 25% LO Waveforms

The frequency divider employs two D-latches in a master-slave configuration with negative feedback. The two identical D-latches are driven by complementary clocks. It looks like a counter operating at GHz of frequency. As there are two latches, there

can be four possible outputs.

The circuit implementation for the frequency divider proposed by Razavi [7]. is shown in Fig. 4.9. Each latch consists of two sense devices  $(M_{s1} \text{ and } M_{s2} \text{ in the master and } M_{s3} \text{ and } M_{s4} \text{ in the slave})$ , a regenerative loop  $(M_{c1} \text{ and } M_{c2} \text{ in the master and } M_{c3} \text{ and } M_{c4} \text{ in the slave})$ , and two pull-up devices  $(M_{p1} \text{ and } M_{p2} \text{ in the master and } M_{p3} \text{ and } M_{p4} \text{ in the slave})$ . A 4.8 GHz square signal drives the four PMOS transistors. When CLK is high,  $M_{p1}$  and  $M_{p2}$  are OFF and the master is in the sense mode, while  $M_{p3}$  and  $M_{p4}$  are ON and the slave is in the store mode.

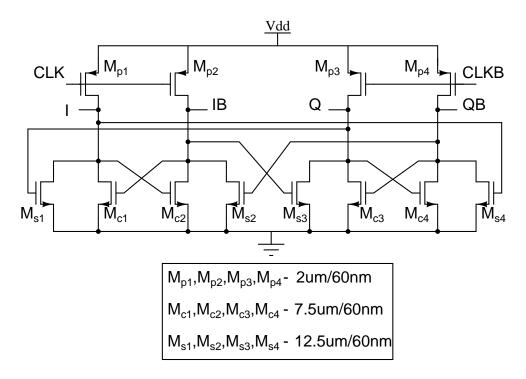


Figure 4.9: 25%-duty-cycle LO generator

When CLK goes low, the reverse occurs. Out of four, two PMOS transistors turn ON at a time. They try to pull their drain terminals to  $V_{DD}$ . But a cross coupled NMOS in the same latch, tries to pull only one of them to  $V_{DD}$  and other to ground. The  $V_{DD}$  output is decided by the sense MOS transistors. Thus the circuit inherently generates a four-phase clock with 25%-duty-cycle signal.

To remove the ripple in the zero state and for proper pulse shaping, four buffers are added next to the divider on for each output of the divider circuit. The entire

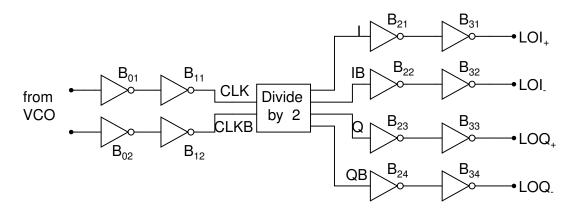


Figure 4.10: Complete LO generator

block diagram of LO generator circuit is given in Fig. 4.10. The buffer is a two-stage inverter to enhance the drive capability. The sizes of the MOSFETs are chosen such that the overlap voltage is lesser than 300mV (threshold voltages of MOS switches is 450mV) and the rise/fall time is lesser than 40psec. VCO produces differential 4.8 GHz sinusoidal signals. Two buffers follow the VCO and convert sinusoidal wave into rail-rail square waves for the complementary clocks to the divider circuit.

The output waveforms of the frequency divide by 2 circuit with 25% duty cycle are shown in the Figure 4.11.

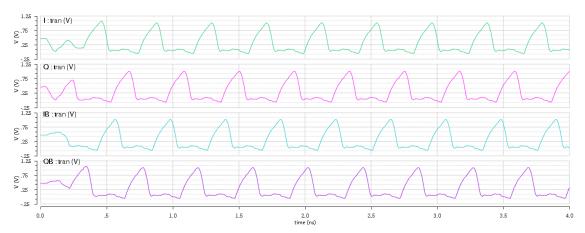


Figure 4.11: Output waveforms of frequency divider circuit

As explained in the section 4.3, the buffer circuit removes the ripple in the zero state and does pulse shaping. The output of the buffer circuit is shown in the Figure

#### 4.12.

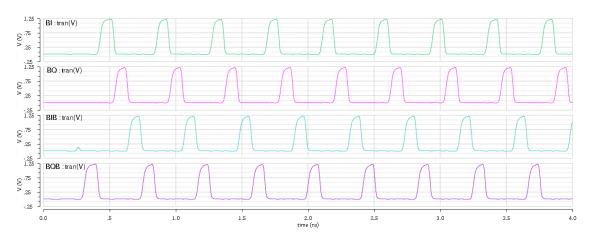


Figure 4.12: Output waveforms of Complete LO Generator

In the Figure 4.12 the waveforms from top are  $LOI_+$ ,  $LOQ_+$ ,  $LOI_-$ ,  $LOQ_-$  respectively with reference to the Figure 4.10. The overlap between every two waveforms is around 247mV as shown in Figure 4.13. The rise/fall times of all the waveforms is 36.3psec. Thus the waveforms meet all the requirements.

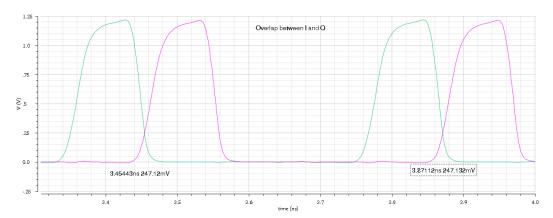


Figure 4.13: Overlap Voltage between LOI<sub>+</sub> and LOQ<sub>+</sub>

# 4.4 Layout of Mixer and Frequency Divider Circuit:

The layout of the passive mixer with 25% duty cycle LO generator along with the buffers is shown in the Figure 4.14. In the Figure 4.14 to the extreme left is the input clock buffers. To its right, in the center, the buffers after the divide by 2 circuit shown in Figure 4.10 are placed. The divide by 2 circuit is placed in the center and bottom with master on top and slave at bottom. To the extreme right, the 8 MOSFETs of the passive mixer shown in Figure 4.1 are laid out. The area occupied by Mixer and Frequency Divider is 100 um X 80 um.

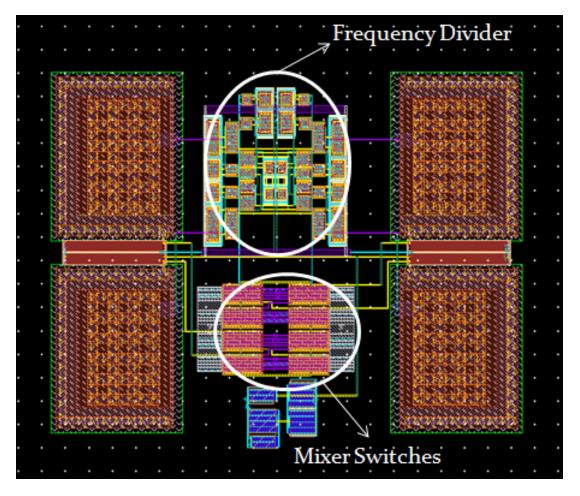


Figure 4.14: Layout of the current mode passive mixer and Frequency Divider Circuit

The layout of Low Noise Amplifier, TransConductor stage and the mixer along with frequency divider circuit is shown in figure 4.15. In the fig 4.15, towards left is the layout of the Low Noise Amplifier and in the center the TrasnConductance Amplifier stage is placed and to the right side is the layout of Mixer circuit along with the Frequency divide by 2 circuit. The area occupied by LNA, TCA, and Mixer is 290 um X 200 um.

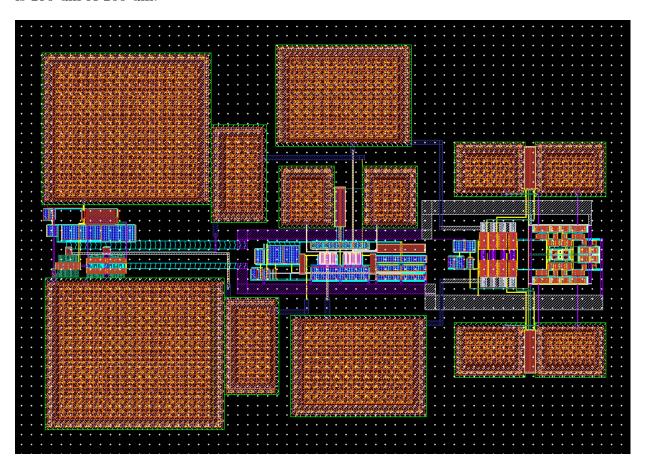


Figure 4.15: Layout of the LNA - TCA - Mixer along with Frequency Divider Circuit

### Chapter 5

### Transimpedance amplifier (TIA)

The current mode passive mixer down converts the RF signal to the baseband signal, and this down converted current at baseband frequencies is to be converted in to voltage signal. For this purpose Trans Impedance Amplifier is used. Trans Impedance Amplifier is designed using a two stage fully differential OP-AMP operated in negative feedback with a resistance in the feedback. A capacitor is also placed in parallel to this resistance for low pass filtering action. We use two such Trans Impedance Amplifiers one for I-channel and another for Q-channel.

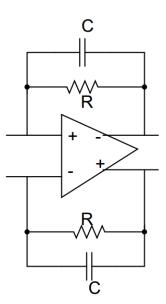


Figure 5.1: TIA:Opamp with a first order low pass filter

TIA is designed using a 2 stage opamp Fig. 5.2

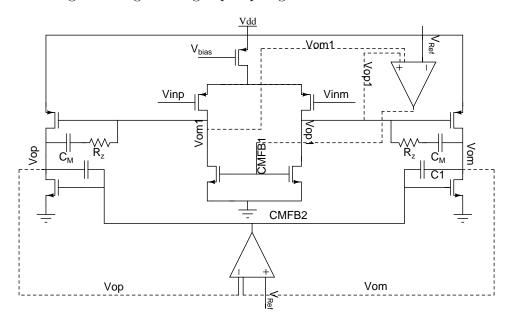


Figure 5.2: Two Stage OPAMP

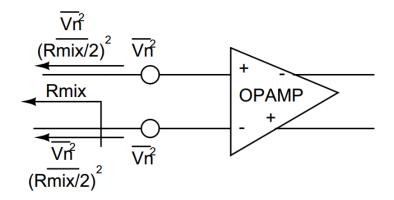


Figure 5.3: Specification on input referred noise of opamp

The main concerns in designing the Trans Impedance amplifier are Input referred Noise, Input Impedance of the TIA stage which is governed by Unity Gain Frequency, Open loop DC gain of the OP-AMP, Flicker Noise from the OP-AMP, Corner Frequency and Power Consumption.

Specification on the input referred noise of the OP-AMP is derived as follows figure 5.3:  $I_n^2 = \frac{V_n^2}{(R_{mix}/2)^2}$ ,  $R_{mix} = 2924\Omega$ .  $I_n^2$  when referred to the input of LNA is,  $\frac{\bar{I}_n^2}{A_{LNA}*g_m*0.45} < 2.5*10^{-19}$ , which is the noise budget for the TIA.

The input referred Noise of a differential OP-AMP is given in the below equation 5.1

$$\bar{V}_{in}^2 = 8KT\gamma \left(\frac{1}{g_{m1}} + \frac{g_{m3}}{g_{m1}^2}\right) \tag{5.1}$$

By completing the calculations we get  $V_n^2 << 8*10^{-17}$ . The Input referred voltage noise PSD of a differential input pair ignoring the Noise PSD due to active loads, is  $\frac{(8KT\gamma)}{g_m}$  which is  $2*V_n^2$ . To have lesser thermal noise the  $g_m$  of the input pair should be sufficiently high and the  $g_m$  of the active load transistors should be atleast 4 times lesser than the transconductance of input pair. From this we get that  $g_m$  should be more than 138  $\mu$ S. But, the flicker noise corner at this  $g_m$  is more than 1 MHz, which will drown the complete bluetooth signal.

Also, to have lesser Flicker Noise the input pair transistors are preferable larger in dimensions and the channel length is selected to be 1  $\mu$ m. A 1  $\mu$ m channel length device gives a maximum dc gain of 100, when biased at a  $V_{dsat}$  of 70 mV.

The Trans Conductance of the input pair is selected such that the thermal noise of the input pair is very less and the corner frequency is around 1 KHz.

The current density in the input diff pair is selected to have maximum dc gain.

The trans resistance of the Trans Impedance amplifier is  $1 \text{ K}\Omega$ . The impedance of the mixer looking in from TIA stage is around  $2.5 \text{ K}\Omega$ . As mixer used is in current mode the TIA should offer very less input impedance (ideally it should be zero) so that all the signal current flows through TIA stage. But the input impedance of the Trans Impedance Amplifier depends on Unity Gain Frequency and Open loop DC gain of OP-AMP. The relation is given in the equation 5.2 below.

$$R_{in} \approx R_F \left( \frac{1}{A} + \frac{s}{\omega_u} \right) \tag{5.2}$$

 $R_{in}$  is input impedance of TIA,  $R_F$  is the feedback resistor and  $\omega_u$  is the Unity Gain Frequency.

From the above relation we can observe that the Unity Gain Frequency and DC Gain of the OP-AMP should be as high as possible. For the OP-AMP used in TIA, unity gain frequency of 100 MHz, and DC gain of 63 dB is sufficient. With this

specifications the input impedance of the TIA is around 10  $\Omega$ s, which is reasonable good. The plot in figure 5.4 shows the variation of Input Impedance w.r.t Unity Gain frequency. The plot for the Input impedance of the TransImpedance amplifier at open loop gain of 63 dB at various unity gain frequencies is shown in the figure

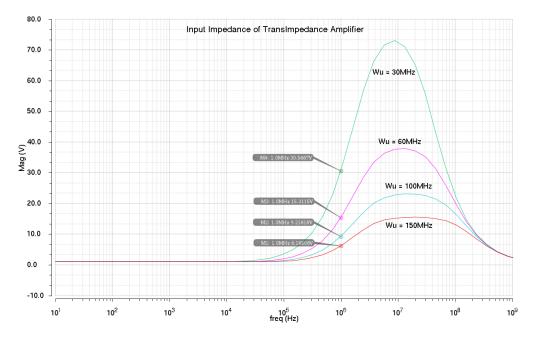


Figure 5.4: Input Impedance of Trans Impedance Amplifier

## 5.1 Layout of Trans Impedance Amplifier and results:

The figure 5.5 shown is the layout of the transimpedance amplifier. In the layout the larger transistors are input pair transistors below that is the second stage, the biasing circuit is placed to the right side. The larger capacitors on the either side of input differential pair are miller compensation capacitors. The capacitors placed below are the compensation capacitors used to stabilize the common mode feedback loops. The area occupied by Trans Impedance Amplifier is 300 um X 200 um.

Plot for DC gain and phase margin are shown in Figure: 5.6 The Open Loop DC gain of the OP-AMP is around 65 dB. The Unity Gain frequency is 130 MHz, and

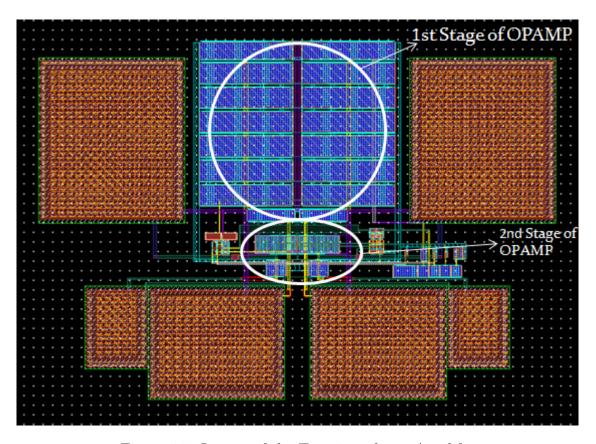


Figure 5.5: Layout of the Transimpedance Amplifer

the phase margin of the OP-AMP is 61 degrees.

Plot for Stability of Common Mode Feedback Loop 1 is shown in figure 5.7. The DC gain of the common mode loop is 58 dB, and the corresponding phase margin is 75.2 degrees.

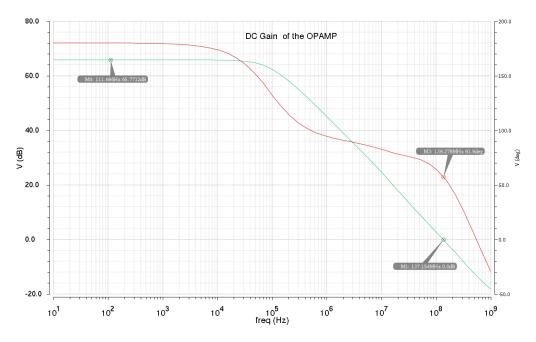


Figure 5.6: DC gain of the opamp

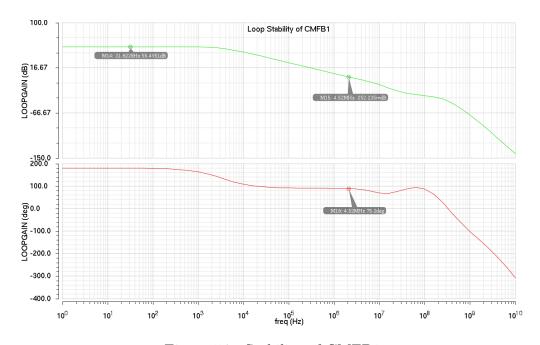


Figure 5.7: Stability of CMFB1

Plot for Stability of Common Mode Feedback Loop 2 is shown in figure 6.2. The DC gain of the common mode loop is 60 dB, and the corresponding phase margin is 74.5 degrees.

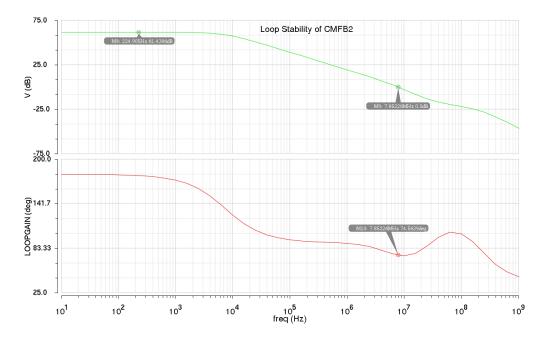


Figure 5.8: Stability of CMFB2

The cutoff frequency of the low pass filter can't be selected at 1MHz, as the droop will be 3dB then. Hence, a cutoff of 2.5 MHz is selected, which demands capacitor of 63.6 pF in parallel to the 1K  $\Omega$  resistor.

### Chapter 6

# Layout and the Results of the complete Receiver Chain

#### 6.1 Layout of the complete receiver chain:

The layout of the complete receiver chain is shown in the figure 6.1

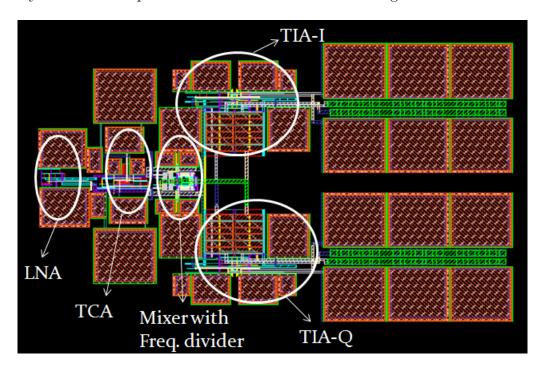


Figure 6.1: Layout of the Complete Receiver Chain

The layout of Low Noise Amplifier, TransConductor, mixer along with frequency divider circuit and the Trans Impedance Amplifier stages is shown in figure 6.1. In the layout shown in figure. 6.1, towards left is the layout of the Low Noise Amplifier and after that in the center the TransConductance Amplifier stage is placed and beside that layout of Mixer circuit along with the Frequency divide by 2 circuit is kept and to the right is the Trans Impedance Amplifier stage. In this receiver chain we use two TIA blocks, one for I-channel and another for Q-channel. These two are placed symmetric to the mixer circuit. In this TIA stage, in feedback we use 1 K $\Omega$  resistor and 63.6 pF capacitor in parallel, as we are having two such stages totally we need 4 such 63.6 pF capacitors which are placed to the extreme right side in the layout. The area occupied by Entire Receiver Chain is 570 um X 850 um.

#### 6.2 Voltage Gain, Noise Figure and IIP3

#### 1. Voltage Gain of the Receiver Chain:

The voltage Gain of the LNA loaded by the TCA is 3.55, followed by transcon-

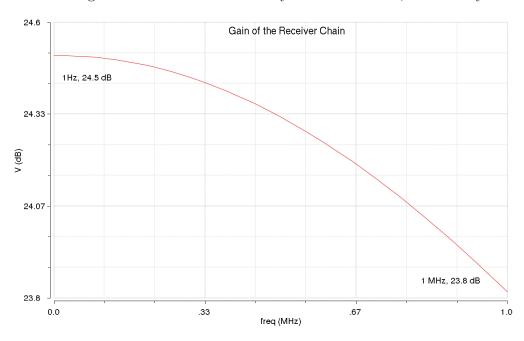


Figure 6.2: Voltage Gain of the receiver

ductance gain  $g_m = 11 \text{mS}$ , followed by a mixer with a current conversion Gain

=0.45 and a TIA with transresistance of 1K $\Omega$ . So the Overall Conversion Gain of the receiver chain is 3.55 \* 11 mS \* 0.45 \* 1000  $\Omega$  = 17.5 = 24.8 dB. The plot for the voltage Gain of the receiver is shown in the figure

2. Noise Figure of the Receiver: The integrated Noise figure of the receiver from a corner frequency of 10 KHz to 1 MHz is 4.28 dB. Table 6.1 representing noise contributions of different blocks in the receiver is shown below: The plot

Name of the block	NF percentage contribution	
Antenna	39	
Low Noise Amplifier	30	
Fully Differential transconductor	13	
Mixer	9	
Transimpedance Amplifier	6	

Table 6.1: Noise contribution by various blocks in receiver chain

for the Noise Figure is shown below:

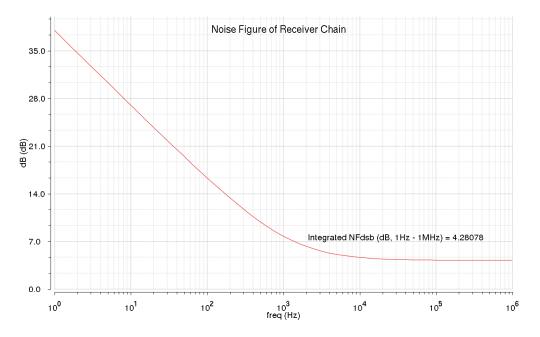


Figure 6.3: Noise Figure of the receiver

3. **IIP3 of the receiver chain :** The  $IIP_3$  of the RX chain is -10.3 dB. This result is evident because, the gain of the LNA is 11.5 dB (LNA loaded) and the  $IIP_3$  of the TCA as shown in chapter on TCA is approximately +2 dBm. So, the overall  $IIP_3$  of the Chain has to be less than (2-11.5) = -9.5 dBm. And the  $IIP_3$  of the chain is -10.3 dBm. The plot for  $IIP_3$  is shown below. Also,

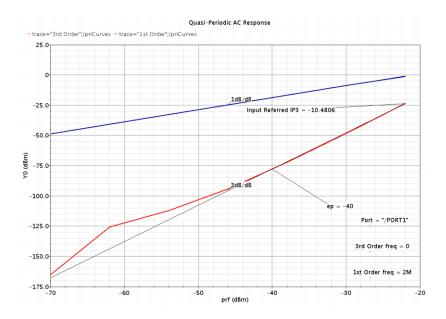


Figure 6.4:  $IIP_3$  of the receiver

an interesting point can be absorbed from this result, i.e., the passive mixer and the TIA hardly undergoes any compression. This shows that a current mode architecture is best suited to obtain good  $IIP_3$  or a good linearity. Also,the 1-dB compression point according to the relation between  $IIP_3$  and the 1-db compression point, i.e., P1-dB =  $IIP_3$  - 9.6 dB, is -19.6 dBm. The P1-dB, can also be understood intuitively as: The transistors in the  $2^{nd}$  stage in the two stage OP-AMP,are designed to have a  $V_{dsat}$  of, 100 mV. The output common mode is set at 600 mV, therefore allowable output signal swing is  $V_{dd}$  -  $V_{dsat}$  = 600 mV - 100 mV = 500 mV. When referred back to the input of the LNA, corresponding input signal is 500 mV/16 = 31.2 mV = -20 dBm. After -20 dBm of input, there is voltage compression at the output as the transistors in the output stage go from saturation to triode region, so it makes sense to say that P1 db point of the receiver is at -20 dBm.

# 6.3 Voltage Gain, Noise Figure and $IIP_3$ across process corners

The plot of Voltage Gain across process corners is shown below in figure 6.5

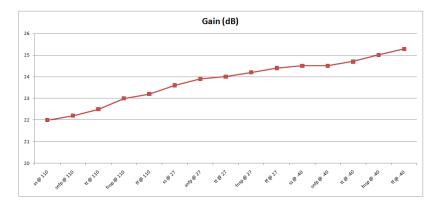


Figure 6.5: Voltage gain across process corners

The plot of Noise figure across process corners is shown below in figure 6.6.

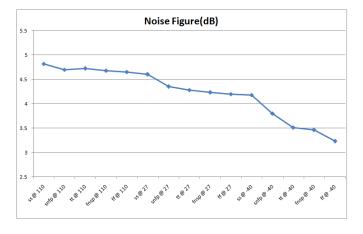
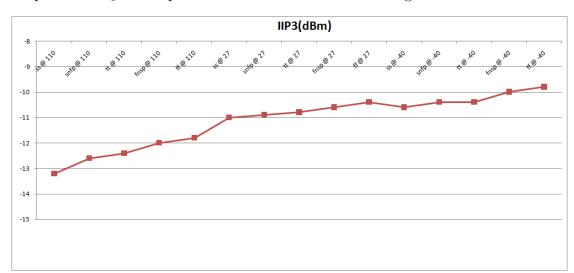


Figure 6.6: NF across process corners



The plot of  $IIP_3$  across process corner is shown below in figure 6.7:

Figure 6.7:  $IIP_3$  across process corners

#### 6.4 Results Summary

Specifications of all the blocks and their power consumptions are given below in tabular form.

#### • Low Noise Amplifier

Characteristic	Value	
S11	$-11.1 \; dB$	
Voltage Gain(unloaded)	$12.4~\mathrm{dB}$	
NF	$2.64~\mathrm{dB}$	
$IIP_3$	$5.4~\mathrm{dBm}$	
Current Drawn	$6.87~\mathrm{mA}$	
Power consumption $(V_{dd} = 1.2 \text{ V})$	$8.2~\mathrm{mW}$	

Table 6.2: Summary of LNA

#### • Trans Conductane Amplifier

Characteristic	Value	
Transconductance	11mS	
NF	12  dB	
Output impedance	619 $\Omega \parallel$ 144 fF	
Current Drawn	$1.9~\mathrm{mA}$	
Power consumption $(V_{dd} = 1.2 \text{ V})$	$2.28~\mathrm{mW}$	

Table 6.3: Summary of TCA

#### $\bullet$ Mixer and Frequency Divider

Characteristic	Value
Conversion Gain	0.45
On resistance of the switch	9 ohm
Contribution to capacitance $C_T$	140 fF
Current Drawn by Frequency Divider $(V_{dd} = 1.2 \text{ V})$	3.7 mA
Power consumption by Frequency Divider $(V_{dd} = 1.2 \text{ V})$	$4.4~\mathrm{mW}$

Table 6.4: Summary of Mixer and Frequency Divider

#### • Trans Impedance amplifier

Characteristic	Value
Transimpedance	1К $\Omega \parallel 63.6$ pF
Unity Gain frequency	120 MHz
Unity loop Gain frequency	70 MHz
Current Drawn	2.25 mA(in each channel)
Total Power consumption $(V_{dd} = 1.2 \text{ V})$	5.4  mW (I + Q)

Table 6.5: Summary of TIA

#### 6.5 Comparison with recent work on Bluetooth

Characteristic	This work	IEEEJSSC [3]	IEEEJSSC [9]	ISSCC [8]
Sensitivity(dBm)	-95.8	-95.5	-91	-88
Current(mA)	17(high gain)	35	21	29.7
S11(dB)	-10.8	-20	-	-
Inductors used in LNA	No	Input Balun used	Yes	Yes
Dynamic range	-95.8 to -20 dBm	-95.5 to -4 dBm	-	-
$IIP_3(dBm)$	-10.3	>20	-	-
Technology(nm)	65	110	65	130
$V_{dd}(V)$	1.2	1.5	1.2	12

#### 6.6 Conclusions

The Bluetooth receiver is designed without using any inductors thereby saving lot of area on the chip. It has sensitivity of -95.8 dBm and good linearity. The receiver has a Integrated Noise Figure of 4.2 dB. The Power consumed by the receiver is also very less.

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