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9.3–10.4-GHz-Band Cross-Coupled Complementary Oscillator With Low Phase-Noise Performance

Lin Jia, Jian-Guo Ma, *Senior Member, IEEE*, Kiat Seng Yeo, and Manh Anh Do

Abstract—A fully integrated 10-GHz-band voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO) has been designed and fabricated using commercial 0.18- μm CMOS technology. The complementary cross-coupled differential topology is adopted in the design. The measured phase-noise is around -89 dBc/Hz at the offset frequency of 100 kHz from the center frequency of 9.83 GHz, the output frequency tuning range of the fabricated VCO is 1.1 GHz ranging from 9.3 to 10.4 GHz, and the power consumption of the core VCO circuit is 5.8 mW. The design is the first one that adopts the complementary cross-coupled circuit structure for 10-GHz-band oscillators, and whose performances of the VCO are the best ones for 10-GHz-band oscillators, compared with the 10-GHz-band CMOS oscillators reported earlier.

Index Terms—Complementary cross-coupled differential topology, LC tank voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO), linear time variant (LTV), lower phase noise, lower power consumption, RF integrated circuit (RFIC), wide tuning range, 0.18- μm CMOS technology.

I. INTRODUCTION

IN RECENT years, the 10-GHz-band optical communication system (SONET) market has been growing rapidly and moving toward high data-rate applications. High-frequency low phase-noise oscillators are important to the building blocks in a transceiver design for these applications. CMOS processes typically achieve f_T in excess of 50 GHz to make the processes an alternative for the low-noise RF circuit operating at these higher frequencies [3]–[5]. CMOS oscillators with integrated inductors and p+/n-well varactor are well suited for such applications. Even though a significant amount of research has been carried out in the past, the CMOS voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO) operating in such a high-frequency band is still a challenge for RF integrated circuit (RFIC) designers since more stringent requirements are imposed on VCOs at higher frequencies. The main issue for recent VCO research is to achieve a monolithic integration between low phase noise with a wide frequency tuning range and low power consumption at given operating frequencies. Two papers had been reported on 10-GHz-band VCO adopted CMOS technologies, one is an LC delay line VCO with a 225-MHz tuning range, -75 -dBc/Hz phase noise at the 100-kHz offset frequency and 70-mW power consumption [1], the other one is the ring-coupled quadrature VCO with 2.5-GHz tuning range, -80 -dBc/Hz phase noise at 100-kHz offset frequency, and 45-mW power consumption [2].

This paper describes a fully integrated CMOS LC VCO designed and fabricated by a 0.18- μm CMOS technology operated at 10 GHz. The design is based on the cross-coupled complementary oscillator configuration with around a 1.1-GHz tuning range, from 9.3 to 10.4 GHz, low phase noise of -89 dBc/Hz at the offset frequency of 100 kHz as the oscillation frequency is 9.83 GHz, and the power consumption of the core circuit is 5.8 mW. To our knowledge, the performances of this design are better than that of the reported 10-GHz-band CMOS oscillators in the literature.

II. CIRCUIT DESIGN AND THEORY

The circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 1(a). A fully integrated complementary cross-coupled configuration is chosen because of the following advantages [6].

- The complementary structure offers higher transconductance at a given current, which results in faster switching of a cross-coupled differential pair.
- It performs better rise- and fall-time symmetry, which results in less upconversion of $1/f$ noise with the other low-frequency noise sources.
- The dc voltage dropping across the channel is larger for the all-NMOS structure since the dc value of the drain voltage is V_{dd} . There is, therefore, a stronger velocity saturation and a larger γ .

It is well known that the active devices (NMOS1, NMOS2, PMOS1, and PMOS2) serve as the negative resistor to compensate for the energy loss from the tank due to the tank effective resistor. The cross-coupled VCO operates as switches [3]. Firstly, the oscillator forces V_{GD} of the NMOS transistors are noted to be equal in magnitudes, but with opposite signs to generate a differential voltage across the resonator. At the differential zero voltage, four switching transistors (NMOS1, NMOS2, PMOS1, and PMOS2) are all in the saturation region and form a small-signal negative conductance that breed the startup of the oscillation. As the differential oscillation voltage crosses $V_{\text{th},n}$ (the threshold voltage of NMOS), V_{GD} (the voltage difference between gate-to-source voltage and drain-to-source voltage) of NMOS1 exceeds $+V_{\text{th},n}$, forcing it into the triode region, V_{GD} of NMOS2 falls below $+V_{\text{th},n}$, driving the device into a deeper saturation region, and then NMOS2 turns off.

Simultaneously, as the falling differential oscillation voltage crosses $-V_{\text{th},p}$ (the threshold voltage of PMOS, a negative value in our design), V_{DG} (the voltage difference between source-to-gate voltage and source-to-drain voltage of PMOS2) exceeds $-V_{\text{th},p}$, forcing it into the triode region, at the same time, V_{DG} of PMOS1 forces itself into deeper saturation, and

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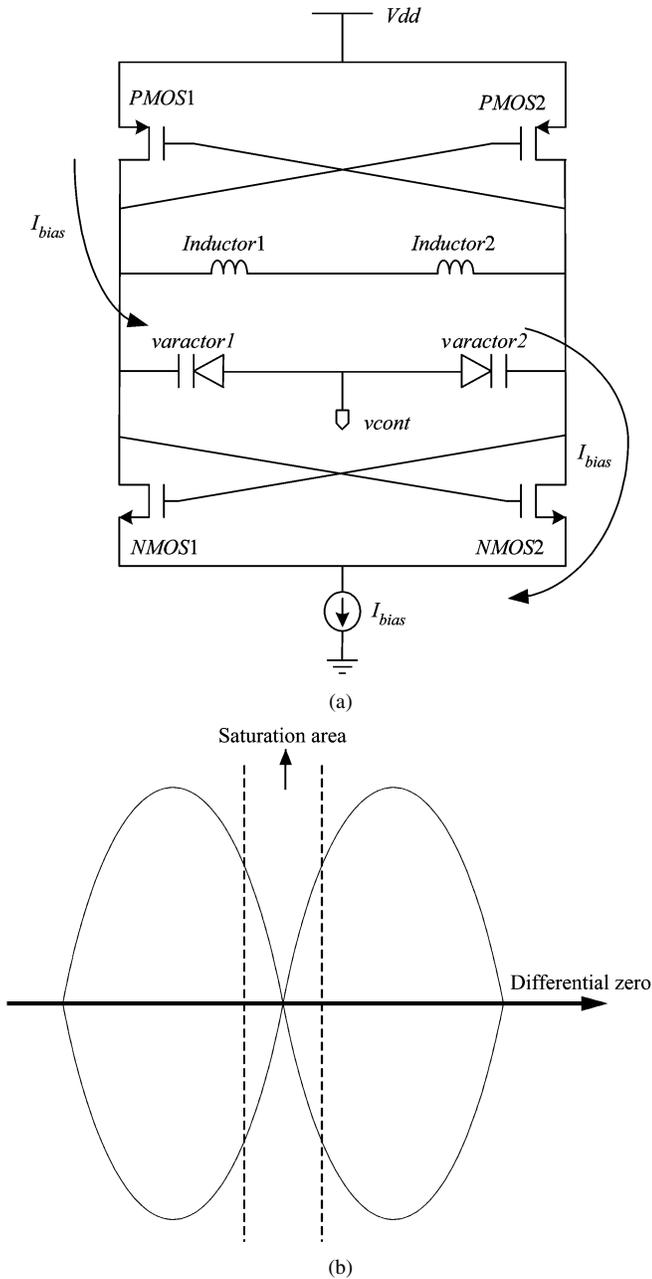


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic of the cross-coupled complementary LC VCO with the parasitic elements. (b) Differential zero.

then PMOS1 turns off. Thus, the complementary LC tank VCO operates when both NMOS and PMOS pairs are all in the saturation region beforehand, then NMOS1 and PMOS2 are at the off states, while other NMOS2 and PMOS1 are at the on states. Such a switching process is periodical throughout the operation of the VCO depicted in Fig. 1(b). The current I_{bias} , as indicated in Fig. 1(a), drives the LC tank VCO into the stable operation.

III. PHASE-NOISE ANALYSIS

A. Associate Noise Sources of LC Tank VCO

Fig. 2 depicts the total noise sources existing in an LC tank VCO. In general, those noise sources are viewed as the three main contributions of the equivalent positive resistor R_{tank} and

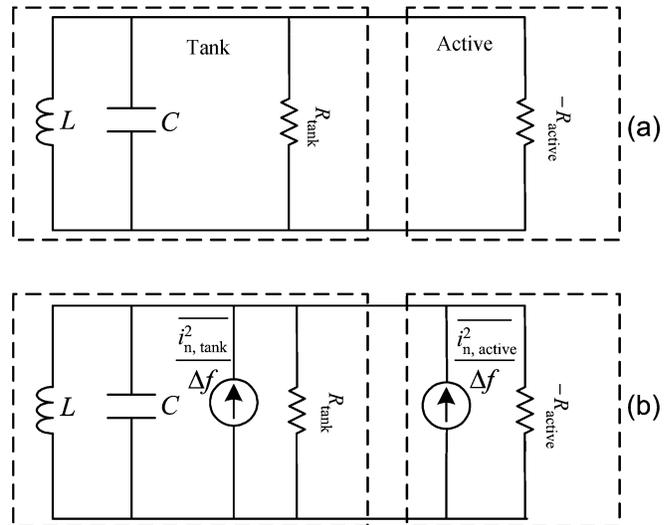


Fig. 2. Equivalent circuit of the LC tank VCO. (a) Without a noise source. (b) With noise sources.

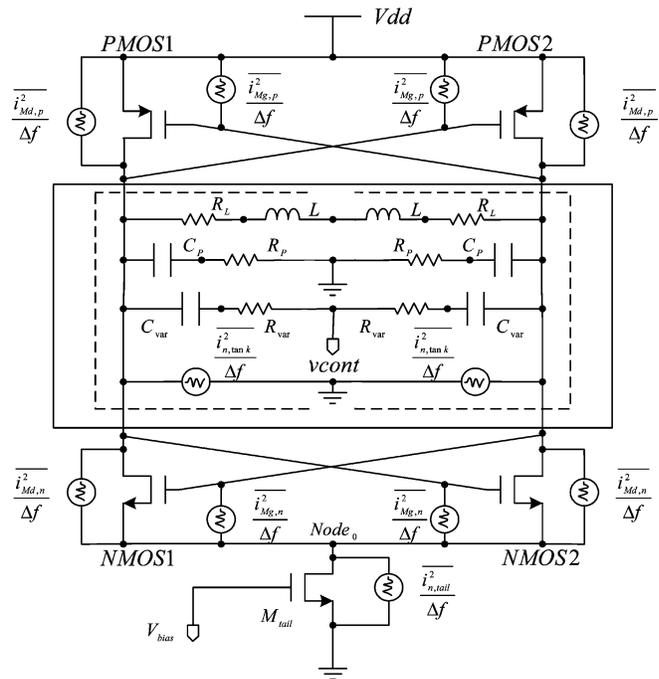


Fig. 3. Complementary LC tank VCO with the total noise sources.

the equivalent negative resistor $-R_{active}$, as shown in Fig. 2, and the contribution of the tail transistor's equivalent resistor R_{tail} , as shown in Fig. 3. The power spectral densities (PSDs) of these noise sources are required to evaluate the phase noise of the oscillator through linear time variant (LTV) methodology.

1) *Noise Sources of the Tank*: The main noise sources existing in the tank are shown in Fig. 3. The effective resistance of the tank is expressed [6] as follows:

$$R_{tank} \approx R_L + R_{var} + \frac{1}{R_p(\omega_0 C_{var})^2} \quad (1)$$

where R_L and R_{var} are the series resistance of the inductor and the varactor, respectively, R_p is the substrate resistance of the inductor, and C_{var} is the capacitance of the varactor.

The noise contribution from the effective resistance of the tank is presented by the following current PSD:

$$\overline{\frac{i_{n,\text{tank}}^2}{\Delta f}} = \frac{4kT}{R_{\text{tank}}}. \quad (2)$$

2) *Noise Sources of the Active Devices:* The current PSD of $R_{\text{active}}, (\overline{i_{n,\text{active}}^2}/\Delta f)$ can be modeled [5] as follows:

$$\overline{\frac{i_{n,\text{active}}^2}{\Delta f}} = \overline{\frac{i_{Md,n}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Md,p}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Mg,n}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Mg,p}^2}{\Delta f}}. \quad (3)$$

Here, $(\overline{i_{Md}^2}/\Delta f)$ and $(\overline{i_{Mg}^2}/\Delta f)$ are the channel induced noise and gate induced noise of the MOS devices, respectively, and they are modeled by [6]

$$\overline{\frac{i_{Md}^2}{\Delta f}} = 4kT\gamma g_{d0} \quad (4)$$

$$\overline{\frac{i_{Mg}^2}{\Delta f}} = 4kT\delta g_g, \quad \text{where } g_g = \frac{\omega^2 C_{gs}^2}{5g_{d0}} \quad (5)$$

where g_{d0} and g_g are the output conductance and transconductance of the MOS devices when they work in the saturation region; for this case, the zero crossing of the differential tank voltage is used to evaluate g_{d0} and g_g [3]. $\gamma \approx 2$ for a short channel transistor, hence, $\delta \approx 2\gamma = 4$ [6].

Therefore, the total noises of the active devices in the LC tank VCO can be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\frac{i_{n,\text{active}}^2}{\Delta f}} &= \left(\overline{\frac{i_{Md,n}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Md,p}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Mg,n}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{Mg,p}^2}{\Delta f}} \right) \\ &= \left(4kT\gamma g_{d0,n} + 4kT\delta g_{g,n} + 4kT\gamma g_{d0,p} + 4kT\delta g_{g,p} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

3) *Noise Source of the Tail Transistor:* The tail current source is operated at the double frequency of the oscillation frequency of the LC tank VCO since the tail node (Node₀) is pulled up when each one of the differential NMOS and PMOS turns on. According to [6], the noise of the tail current source in the vicinity of ω_0 has no effect on the differential noise current, and results in less up-conversion of the $1/f$ noise [6]. In addition, the main noise contribution caused by the tail transistor is the flick noise, i.e., one enlarges the area of this transistor, but keeps the same aspect ratio to reduce the $1/f$ noise. Hence, it can be neglected in our analysis.

Hence, the total noise of the LC tank VCO can be expressed by [7]

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \overline{\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}} &= \overline{\frac{i_{n,\text{active}}^2}{\Delta f}} + \overline{\frac{i_{n,\text{tank}}^2}{\Delta f}} \\ &= \left(4kT\gamma g_{d0,n} + 4kT\delta g_{g,n} + 4kT\gamma g_{d0,p} + 4kT\delta g_{g,p} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{4kT}{R_{\text{tank}}}. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

B. Calculation of the Phase-Noise Using LTV Analysis

Phase noise of an oscillator due to arbitrary noise source is given by [9], [10]

$$\Phi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h_{\Phi}(t, \tau) i(\tau) = \frac{1}{q_{\text{max}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Gamma(\omega_0 \tau) i(\tau) d\tau \quad (8)$$

where $i(\tau)$ is the current impulse injected at the node of the circuit, and $\Gamma(\omega_0 \tau)$ is the impulse sensitivity function (ISF). The ISF is essentially a transfer function between an arbitrary noise source and an excess phase at the output of the oscillator. q_{max} is the maximum charge swing, and $q_{\text{max}} = C_{\text{node}} V_{\text{max}}$, where V_{max} is the voltage swing across the capacitor at the node of the circuit.

It can be derived from (8) that the phase noise of an oscillator due to thermal noise is [9], [10]

$$L(\Delta\omega) = 10 \log \left(\frac{\Gamma_{\text{rms}}^2}{q_{\text{max}}^2} \cdot \frac{\sum \overline{\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}}}{2 \cdot (\Delta\omega)^2} \right) \quad (9)$$

and the single-side bandwidth (SSB) phase noise of an oscillator due to flicker noise is

$$L(\Delta\omega) = 10 \log \left(\frac{c_0^2}{q_{\text{max}}^2} \cdot \frac{\sum \overline{\frac{i_n^2}{\Delta f}}}{8 \cdot (\Delta\omega)^2} \cdot \frac{\omega_1/f}{\Delta\omega} \right). \quad (10)$$

The quantity Γ_{rms} is the rms value of the ISF. In this study, all ISFs were obtained using Spectre Time Simulations (periodic steady state) by injecting a small current pulse into an oscillator node over one oscillation cycle, and observing the output phase shifts several cycles later.

In general, these noise sources are cyclostationary because of the periodic changes in current and voltages of the active devices. Consequently, the cyclostationary nature of the noise sources must be considered in a complete analysis. The ISF contains only the sensitivity to noise as a function of time, but it does not reveal the information on the time duration, for which a noise source is present. Hence, the effective ISF is given by [9]

$$\Gamma_{\text{rms,eff}}(x) = \Gamma(x)_{\text{rms}} \times \alpha(x) \quad (11)$$

where $\alpha(x)$ represents the noise modulation function (NMF) [7].

In this design, the simulated ISF with an injected charge of 0.1 pC is shown in Fig. 4(a). The NMOS and PMOS NMFs are presented in Fig. 4(b), and the effective ISFs are shown in Fig. 4(c). According to (11), the effective Γ_{rms} of all active devices' noise sources $\Gamma_{\text{rms},n,\text{eff}} = 0.19$ and $\Gamma_{\text{rms},p,\text{eff}} = 0.15$ are obtained, respectively, when the LC VCO operates at 9.83 GHz.

Therefore, the phase noise of -93 dBc/Hz at the offset frequency of 100 kHz is calculated by (9). As such, the phase noises of -95 and -89 dBc/Hz are calculated when the VCO operates at 9.3 and 10.4 GHz, respectively. The noise contributions of all noise sources existing in LC tank VCO and the effective ISF of the active device are summarized in Table I. The PSD of the active devices (NMOS and PMOS) is much bigger than that of the tank. Hence, the noises from the active devices

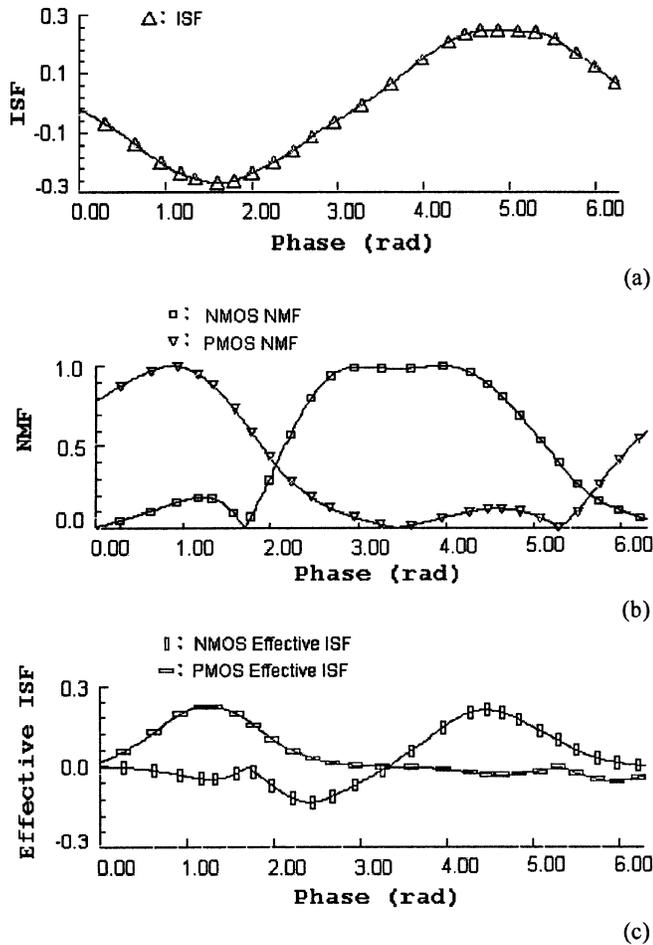


Fig. 4. (a) ISF ($\Gamma_{rms}(x)$) of NMOS and PMOS. (b) NMF ($\alpha(x)$) of NMOS and PMOS. (c) Effective ISF ($\Gamma_{rms,eff}(x)$) of NMOS and PMOS.

TABLE I
PSD OF ALL NOISE SOURCES AND EFFECTIVE ISF

Noise Source	PSD (A^2/Hz)	Γ_{rms}
NMOS	2.86e-22	$\Gamma_{rms,n,eff} = 0.19$
PMOS	1.41e-22	$\Gamma_{rms,p,eff} = 0.15$
Tank	8.1e-23	$\Gamma_{rms} = 0.28$

are the main contributors to the phase noise of the VCO, and all parameters in Table I are used to calculate the phase noise by (9).

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A commercial 0.18- μm CMOS process (CSM 0.18- μm technology) is used to design and implement the project. Six metal layers are used in this process. The technology has a cutoff frequency f_T of 58 GHz, a maximum frequency f_{max} of 67 GHz [11], and the supply voltage of 1.8 V. Inductors are implemented by stacking the fifth metal layer and top metal layer (sixth metal layer) to prevent the loss of the metal and substrate. The simulation of this inductor predicts an inductance of 0.5 nH and an effective Q value of 10 at 9.83-GHz operation frequency, which is shown in Fig. 5. The p+/n-well diode varactor of the design

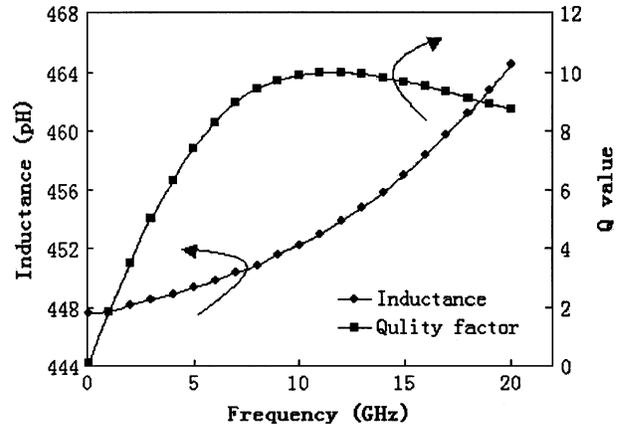


Fig. 5. Simulated inductance and Q value of the inductor.

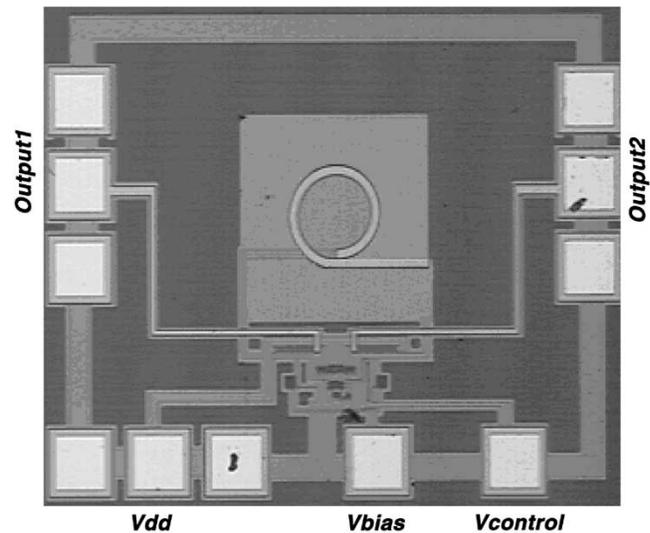


Fig. 6. Die photograph of the LC oscillator.

incorporates an capacitance of $C_{var} = 0.5$ pF with the Q value of around 38 at 9.83 GHz, and the dynamic range C_{max}/C_{min} is approximately 2.5 with $0 V < V_{var} < 4 V$ [11].

The area of the die is approximately 0.5×0.6 mm², as shown in Fig. 6. The VCO is measured on the wafer level. A ground-signal-ground (GSG) RF probe is used at the output of the oscillator (output1 or output2, as shown in Fig. 6). The GPG dc probe connected to the bias network is adopted for power supply V_{dd} to filter the original noise from the dc supply equipment HP4142.

The phase noise and PSD have been measured using an HP8564E spectrum analyzer, whose phase-noise characteristic for the 9.83-GHz oscillator is shown in Fig. 7. The phase noise is -91 dBc/Hz at the 100-kHz offset frequency away from the oscillator center frequency of 9.3 GHz, -89 dBc/Hz at the 100-kHz offset frequency away from the oscillation frequency of 9.83 GHz, and -84 dBc/Hz at the 100-kHz offset frequency away from the oscillation frequency of 10.4 GHz.

The figure-of-merit (FoM) characteristic is expressed as [12]

$$FoM = 10 \log \left[\left(\frac{f_0}{\Delta f} \right)^2 \frac{1}{L(\lambda) P_{supply}} \right]. \quad (12)$$

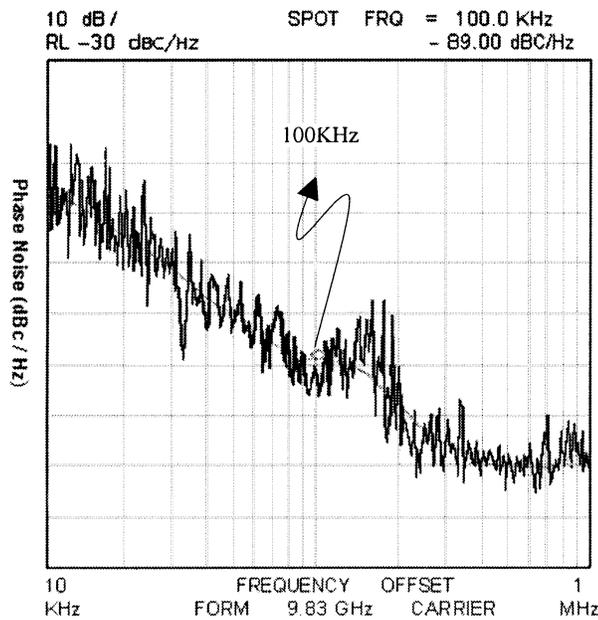


Fig. 7. Measured phase noise at 9.83 GHz.

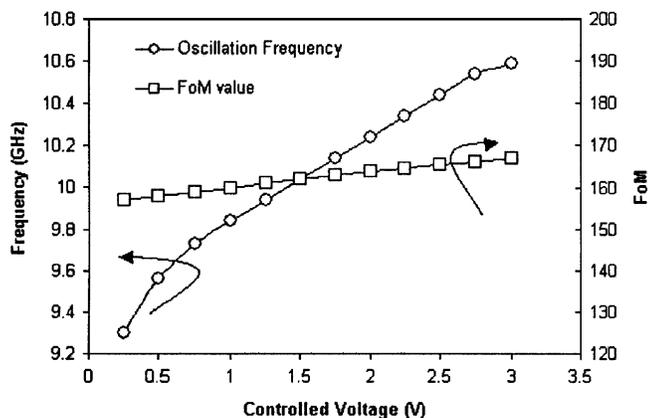


Fig. 8. Tuning characteristics and FoM of the VCO.

TABLE II
SUMMARIZATION OF THE VCO PERFORMANCE

Items	Measured	LTV method
Supply Voltage	1.8V	1.8V
Core circuit power supply	5.8mW	5.6mW
Center Frequency	9.83 GHz	10.2GHz
Tuning Range	11.2%	15.6%
Phase-noise ($f_0=9.3\text{GHz}$, @100kHz)	-91dBc/Hz	-95 dBc/Hz
Phase-noise ($f_0=9.83\text{GHz}$, @100kHz)	-89dBc/Hz	-93 dBc/Hz
Phase-noise ($f_0=10.4\text{GHz}$, @100kHz)	-84dBc/Hz	-89 dBc/Hz

Here, f_0 is the oscillation frequency of the VCO given by $f_0 = (1/2\pi)(\sqrt{LC})$ [6], Δf is the offset frequency, and P_{supply} is the power consumption. Fig. 8 depicts the curves of the oscillation frequency and FoM versus the controlled voltage (which is the voltage difference between the cathode and anode of the pn varactors) from measurement, the tuning range around 1.1 GHz and FoM value of 165 at 9.83-GHz operation frequency are achieved.

The phase-noise performances from the measurement and LTV method for a 9.83-GHz VCO are summarized in Table II.

The phase noise using LTV analysis has a good agreement compared to the measured phase noise at the 100-kHz offset frequency, and the maximum difference between both is approximately 5 dBc/Hz. The performance of the 10-GHz VCO is an excellent one for 0.18- μm CMOS technology compared with the reported results in the literature.

V. CONCLUSION

A 1.1-GHz tuning range from a 9.3–10.4-GHz VCO with the low phase noise of -89 dBc/Hz at an offset frequency of 100 kHz away from the center frequency of 9.83 GHz has been designed and fabricated by using Chartered Semiconductor Manufacturing (CSM) 0.18- μm technology. The power consumption of the core circuit of the VCO is 5.8 mW, and the output peak-to-peak voltage is around 1.1 V. Thus far, this design is the first one to adopt complementary cross-coupled differential for a 10-GHz-band CMOS VCO, and the performance of the designed VCO is the best one for a 10-GHz CMOS VCO. Furthermore, this design is very useful for the 10-Gb/s clock and data recovery integrated circuit (IC) and SONET communication applications.

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