RFIC Design and Testing for Wireless Communications

A PragaTI (TI India Technical University) Course July 18, 21, 22, 2008

Lecture 6: Basic Concepts – Linearity, noise figure, dynamic range

By

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RFIC Design and Testing for Wireless Communications

Topics

Monday, July 21, 2008

9:00 - 10:30 Introduction - Semiconductor history, RF characteristics
11:00 - 12:30 Basic Concepts - Linearity, noise figure, dynamic range
2:00 - 3:30 RF front-end design - LNA, mixer
4:00 - 5:30 Frequency synthesizer design I (PLL)

Tuesday, July 22, 2008

9:00 - 10:30	Frequency synthesizer design II	(VCO)
11:00 - 12:30	RFIC design for wireless communications	
2:00 - 3:30	Analog and mixed signal testing	

Units for Microwave and RFIC Design

Peak-to peak voltage: V_{pp} Root-mean-square voltage: $V_{rms} = \frac{V_{pp}}{2\sqrt{2}}$ Power in Watt :

$$Pwatt = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R} = \frac{V_{pp}^2}{8R}$$

Power in dBm :

$$P_{dBm} = 10\log_{10}\left(\frac{Pwatt\left[mW\right]}{1mW}\right)$$

On a 50Ohm load, 0dBm=1mW=224mV_{rms}=632mV_{pp}

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Noise Figure

- In RF design, most of the front-end receiver blocks are characterized in terms of "noise figure" rather than input referred noise.
- Noise factor F is defined as

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{SNR_{in}}{SNR_{out}} = \frac{S_i/N_i}{S_o/N_o} = \frac{N_o}{GN_i} = \frac{N_{o(total)}}{N_{o(source)}} = \frac{N_{o(source)} + N_{o(added)}}{N_{o(source)}} = 1 + \frac{N_{o(added)}}{N_{o(source)}}$$

Noise Figure, NF = 10log 10 F

- Noise figure measures how much the SNR degrades as the signal passes through a system.
- For a noiseless system, SNRin = SNRout, namely, F=1, NF=0dB, regardless of the gain. This is because both the input signal and the input noise are amplified (or attenuated) by the same factor and no additional noise is introduced.

Thermal Noise

- Thermal noise (Johnson noise) due to random thermal motion of electrons and is generated by resistors, base and emitter resistance *r_b*,*r_E*,and *r_c*. of bipolar devices, and channel resistance of MOSFETs. Thermal noise is a white noise with Gaussian amplitude distribution.
- Thermal noise floor: $10 \log \left(\frac{kT}{1mW}\right) = -174 dBm / Hz \text{ at } 290^{\circ} K$



Shot Noise

 Shot noise (Schottky noise) – due to the particle-like nature of charge carriers. Only the time-average flow of electrons and holes appears as constant current. Any fluctuation in the number of charge carriers produces a random noise current at that instant. Shot noise is a Gaussian white process associated with the transfer of charge across an energy barrier (e.g., a p-n junction). This random process is called shot noise and is expressed in amperes per root hertz.

Flicker noise

 Flicker noise (1/f noise) – found in all active devices. In bipolar transistors, it is caused by traps associated with contamination and crystal defects in the emitter-base depletion layer. These traps capture and release carriers in a random fashion with noise energy concentrated in low frequency. K depends on processing and may vary by order of magnitude.

$$\overline{I_n^2} = K \frac{I_c^a}{f} \Delta f, \ a \approx 0.5 \sim 2$$

 In MOSFETs, 1/f noise arises from random trapping of charge at the oxide-silicon interfaces. Represented as a voltage source in series with the gate, the noise spectral density is given by

$$\overline{V_n^2} = \frac{K}{WLCox} \frac{1}{f}$$

Noise Power Spectral Density



BJT Model with Noise Sources



CMOS Model with Noise Sources



Gate resistance can be added to the noise model with gate resistivity p

$$R_{GATE} = \frac{1}{3}\rho \frac{W}{L}$$

Linear vs. Nonlinear Systems

A system is linear if for any inputs x₁(t) and x₂(t), x₁(t) → y₂(t), x₂(t) → y₂(t) and for all values of constants a and b, it satisfies

 $a x_1(t)+bx_2(t) \rightarrow ay_1(t)+by_2(t)$

• A system is nonlinear if it does not satisfy the superposition law.

Effects of Nonlinearity

- Harmonic Distortion
- Gain Compression
- Desensitization
- Intermodulation
- For simplicity, we limit our analysis to memoryless, time invariant system. Thus,

$$y(t) = \alpha_1 x(t) + \alpha_2 x^2(t) + \alpha_3 x^3(t) + \dots$$
 (3.1)

Effects of Nonlinearity -- Harmonics

If a single tone signal is applied to a nonlinear system, the output generally exhibits fundamental and harmonic frequencies with respect to the input frequency. In Eq. (3.1), if $x(t) = Acos\omega t$, then

$$y(t) = \alpha_1 A \cos \omega t + \alpha_2 A^2 \cos^2 \omega t + \alpha_3 A^3 \cos^3 \omega t$$

= $\alpha_1 A \cos \omega t + \frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2} (1 + \cos 2\omega t) + \frac{\alpha_3 A^3}{4} (3 \cos \omega t + \cos 3\omega t)$
= $\frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2} + (\alpha_1 A + \frac{3\alpha_3 A^3}{4}) \cos \omega t + \frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2} \cos 2\omega t + \frac{\alpha_3 A^3}{4} \cos 3\omega t$

Observations:

1. even order harmonics result from α_j with even j and vanish if the system has odd symmetry, i.e., differential circuits.

2. For large A, the *n*th harmonic grows approximately in proportion to A^n .

Effects of Nonlinearity -- Gain Compression

$$y(t) = \frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2} + (\alpha_1 A + \frac{3\alpha_3 A^3}{4})\cos\omega t + \frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2}\cos 2\omega t + \frac{\alpha_3 A^3}{4}\cos 3\omega t \quad (3.2)$$

- Under small-signal assumption, the system is normally linear and harmonics are negligible. Thus, α₁A dominates → small-signal gain = α₁.
- For large signal, nonlinearity becomes evident. large-signal gain = $\alpha_1 + 3\alpha_3 A^3 / 4$. The gain varies when input level changes.
- If α₃ < 0, the output is a "compressive" or "saturating" function of the input → the gain is compressed when A increases.

Output of Bipolar Differential Pair

$$\tanh(x) = x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 - \frac{7}{315}x^7 + \dots$$





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Effects of Nonlinearity – 1dB Compression Point



 1-dB compression point is defined as the input signal level that causes small-signal gain to drop 1 dB. It's a measure of the maximum input range.

•1-dB compression point occurs around -20 to -25 dBm (63.2 to 35.6mVpp in a 50- Ω system) in typical frond-end RF amplifiers.

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Effects of Nonlinearity – Desensitization (Blocking)

• Desensitization -- small signal experiences a vanishingly small gain when coexists with a large signal, even if the small signal itself does not drive the system into nonlinear range.

Applying two-tone inputs $x(t) = A_1 cos \omega_1 t + A_2 cos \omega_2 t$ to Eq.(3.1), we have

$$y(t) = \left(\alpha_1 A_1 + \frac{3}{4}\alpha_3 A_1^3 + \frac{3}{2}\alpha_3 A_1 A_2^2\right) \cos \omega_1 t + \cdots,$$

gain of desired signal
For A₁<< A₂, it reduces to $y(t) = \left(\alpha_1 + \frac{3}{2}\alpha_3 A_2^2\right) A_1 \cos \omega_1 t + \cdots,$

Observations:

• Weak signal's gain decreases as a function of A_2 if $\alpha_3 < 0$. For sufficiently large A_2 , the gain drops to zero \rightarrow the weak signal is "blocked" by the strong signal. (Why cannot we see stars during day?)

• Many RF receivers must be able to withstand blocking signals 60 to 70 dB greater than the wanted signals.

Effects of Nonlinearity – Intermodulation

• Harmonic distortion is due to self-mixing of a singletone signal. It can be suppressed by low-pass filtering the higher order harmonics.

• However, there is another type of nonlinearity -intermodulation (IM) distortion, which is normally determined by a "two tone test".

• When two signals with different frequencies applied to a nonlinear system, the output in general exhibits some components that are not harmonics of the input frequencies. This phenomenon arises from crossmixing (multiplication) of the two signals.

Effects of Nonlinearity – Intermodulation

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= A_{1} \cos \omega_{1} t + A_{2} \cos \omega_{2} \\ y(t) &= \frac{1}{2} \alpha_{2} (A_{1}^{2} + A_{2}^{2}) + \\ & \left[\alpha_{1} A_{1} + \frac{3}{4} \alpha_{3} A_{1} (A_{1}^{2} + 2A_{2}^{2}) \right] \cos \omega_{1} t + \\ & \left[\alpha_{1} A_{2} + \frac{3}{4} \alpha_{3} A_{2} (2A_{1}^{2} + A_{2}^{2}) \right] \cos \omega_{2} t + \\ & \frac{1}{2} \alpha_{2} \left[A_{1}^{2} \cos 2\omega_{1} t + A_{2}^{2} \cos 2\omega_{2} t \right] + \\ & \alpha_{2} A_{1} A_{2} \left[\cos(\omega_{1} + \omega_{2}) t + \cos(\omega_{1} - \omega_{2}) t \right] + \\ & \frac{1}{4} \alpha_{3} \left[A_{1}^{3} \cos 3\omega_{1} t + A_{2}^{3} \cos 3\omega_{2} t \right] + \\ & \frac{3}{4} \alpha_{3} \left[A_{1}^{2} A_{2} \left[\cos(2\omega_{1} + \omega_{2}) t + \cos(2\omega_{1} - \omega_{2}) t \right] + \\ & A_{1} A_{2}^{2} \left[\cos(2\omega_{2} + \omega_{1}) t + \cos(2\omega_{2} - \omega_{1}) t \right] \end{aligned} \end{aligned} \right]$$

Intermodulation – Why do we care about IM3 mostly?

In wireless communication system such as cellular handsets with narrow-band operating frequencies (i.e., a few tens of MHz), only the IM3 spurious signals (2w1 - w2) and (2w2 - w1) fall within the filter passband.



Intermodulation -- Third Order Intercept Point (IP3)

- Two-tone test: A₁=A₂=A and A is sufficiently small so that higherorder nonlinear terms are negligible and the gain is relatively constant and equal to α₁.
- As A increases, the fundamentals increases in proportion to A, whereas IM3 products increases in proportion to A³.

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= A\cos\omega_{1}t + A\cos\omega_{2} \\ y(t) &= \alpha_{2}A^{2} + \\ &A\left[\alpha_{1} + \frac{9}{4}\alpha_{3}A^{2}\right]\cos\omega_{1}t + A\left[\alpha_{1} + \frac{9}{4}\alpha_{3}A^{2}\right]\cos\omega_{2}t + \\ &\frac{A_{1dB}}{A_{1P3}} = \sqrt{\frac{0.145}{4/3}} \approx -9.6dB \\ &\frac{1}{2}\alpha_{2}A^{2}\left[\cos 2\omega_{1}t + \cos 2\omega_{2}t\right] + \alpha_{2}A^{2}\left[\cos(\omega_{1} + \omega_{2})t + \cos(\omega_{1} - \omega_{2})t\right] + \\ &\frac{1}{4}\alpha_{3}A^{3}\left[\cos 3\omega_{1}t + \cos 3\omega_{2}t\right] + \frac{3}{4}\alpha_{3}A^{3}\left[\cos(2\omega_{1} + \omega_{2})t + \cos(2\omega_{1} - \omega_{2})t\right] + \\ &\left[\cos(2\omega_{1} + \omega_{2})t + \cos(2\omega_{1} - \omega_{2})t\right] + \end{aligned}$$

Intermodulation – IP2 vs. IP3



Calculate IIP3 without Extrapolation



Relationship Between 1-dB Compression and IP3

1-dB compression point with single tone applied:

$$A_{IP3} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{3} \frac{|\alpha_1|}{|\alpha_3|}} \qquad A_{1-dB} = \sqrt{0.145 \frac{|\alpha_1|}{|\alpha_3|}} \qquad \frac{A_{IP3}}{|A_{1dB}|} = 3.04 = 9.66 dB$$

1-dB compression point with two tones applied:

$$\frac{A_{IP3}}{A_{1dB}} = \frac{2\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_1}{3\alpha_3}}}{0.22\sqrt{\frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_3}}} = 5.25 = 14.4dB$$

Determine IIP3 and 1-dB Compression Point from Measurement

- An amplifier operates at 2 GHz with a gain of 10dB. Two-tone test with equal power applied at the input, one is at 2.01 GHz. At the output, four tones are observed at 1.99, 2.0, 2.01, and 2.02GHz. The power levels of the tones are -70,-20,-20, and -70dBm. Determine the IIP3 and 1-dB compression point for this amplifier.
- Solution: 1.99 and 2.02 GHz are the IP3 tones.

$$IIP3 = (P_1 - G) + \frac{1}{2} [P_1 - P_3] = -20 - 10 + \frac{1}{2} [-20 + 70] = -5dBm$$
$$P_{1dB} = -5 - 9.66 = -14.66dBm$$



Intermodulation of Cascade Nonlinear Stages

$$y_1(t) = \alpha_1 x(t) + \alpha_2 x^2(t) + \alpha_3 x^3(t) + \dots$$
$$y_2(t) = \beta_1 y_1(t) + \beta_2 y_1^2(t) + \beta_3 y_1^3(t) + \dots$$

. . .



Linearity is more important for back-end stages.



Noise Figure of Cascade Stages

$$NF_{tot} = 1 + (NF_1 - 1) + \frac{NF_2 - 1}{G_{p1}} + \frac{NF_3 - 1}{G_{p1}} + \dots + \frac{NF_m - 1}{G_{p1}G_{p1}} + \dots + \frac{NF_m - 1}{G_{p1}G_{p2\dots}G_{p(m-1)}}$$

 NF_{tot} – total equivalent Noise Figure NF_m – Noise Figure of mth stage G_{pm} – Available power gain of mth stage

Noise figure is more important for front-end stages.

Sensitivity

• Sensitivity -- defined as the minimum signal level that the system can detect with acceptable SNR.

$$NF = \frac{SNR_{in}}{SNR_{OUT}} = \frac{P_{sig} / P_{RS}}{SNR_{OUT}}$$

 The overall signal power is distributed across the channel bandwidth, B, integrating over the bandwidth to obtain total mean square power

$$P_{sig,tot} = P_{RS} \bullet NF \bullet SNR_{OUT} \bullet B$$

$$P_{in,\min}\Big|_{dBm} = P_{RS}\Big|_{dBm/Hz} + NF\Big|_{dB} + SNR_{\min}\Big|_{dB} + 10\log B$$

where P_{RS} is the source resistance noise power.

Maximum Input Power



where $P_{IM,out}$ denotes output-referred power of IM₃ products, $P_{out}=P_{in}+G$, $P_{IM,OUT}=P_{IM,in}+G$. The input level for which the IM products become equal to the noise floor *F* is thus given by

$$P_{in} = \frac{2P_{IIP3} + F}{3} = \frac{2P_{IIP3} - 174dBm + NF + 10\log B}{3}$$

Dynamic Range

- Dynamic Range (DR) -- defined as the ratio of the maximum to minimum input levels that the circuit provides a reasonable signal quality.
- Spurious-Free Dynamic Range (SFDR) -- determine the upper end of dynamic range on the intermodulation behavior and the lower end on sensitivity.
- The upper end of the dynamic range is defined as the maximum input power in a two tone test for which the 3rd IM products do not exceed the noise floor F=-174dBm+NF+10logB.
- The SFDR is thus given by

$$SFDR = P_{in,\max} - P_{in,\min} = \left(\frac{2P_{IIP3} + F}{3}\right) - (F + SNR_{\min}) = \frac{2(P_{IIP3} - F)}{3} - SNR_{\min}$$

• Example: NF=9dB, P_{IIP3}=-15dBm, B=100kHz, SNR_{min}=12dB → SFDR=(-15-(-174+9+50))/1.5-12=54.7dB.