A 210-GHz Amplifier in 40-nm Digital CMOS Technology

Chun-Lin Ko, Member, IEEE, Chun-Hsing Li, Student Member, IEEE, Chien-Nan Kuo, Member, IEEE, Ming-Ching Kuo, Member, IEEE, and Da-Chiang Chang, Member, IEEE

Abstract—This paper presents a 210-GHz amplifier design in 40-nm digital bulk CMOS technology. The theoretical maximum voltage gain that an amplifier can achieve and the loss of a matching network are derived for the optimization of a few hundred gigahertz amplifiers. Accordingly, the bias and size of transistors, circuit topology, and inter-stage coupling method can be determined methodically to maximize the amplifier gain. The measured results show that the amplifier exhibits a peak power gain of 10.5 dB at 213.5 GHz and an estimated 3-dB bandwidth of 13 GHz. The power consumption is only 42.3 mW under a 0.8-V supply. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this work demonstrates the CMOS amplifier with highest operation frequency reported thus far.

Index Terms—Amplifier, maximum gain, shunt stub matching, transmission line.

I. INTRODUCTION

PPLICATIONS beyond 200 GHz, aiming at the broad bandwidth for communication and the penetration capabilities for object detection, have drawn great attention recently [1], [2]. These wireless systems need high integration technology to achieve mobile, reliable, and economic production. Advanced digital CMOS technologies offer a promising opportunity to meet the requirements at such high frequencies. With continuous device scaling, the transistor speed is fast enough that circuits working near and even beyond 200 GHz become feasible, such as frequency dividers [3], [4], oscillators [5]–[7], and amplifiers [8]–[10].

Among the circuits, the amplifier is very critical to provide gain and improve system sensitivity. Yet amplifier design above

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- C.-L. Ko is with the Department of Electronic Engineering and the Institute of Electronics, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan, and is also with the National Chip Implementation Center (CIC), National Applied Research Laboratories, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan (e-mail: clko@cic.narl.org.tw).
- C.-H. Li and C.-N. Kuo are with the Department of Electronic Engineering and the Institute of Electronics, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan (e-mail: cnkuo@mail.nctu.edu.tw).
- M.-C. Kuo is with the Information and Communications Research Laboratories (ICL), Industrial Technology Research Institute (ITRI), Hsinchu 310, Taiwan.
- D.-C. Chang is with the National Chip Implementation Center (CIC), National Applied Research Laboratories, Hsinchu 300, Taiwan.

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200 GHz using digital CMOS technologies faces several challenges. Firstly, the unity current gain frequency (f_T) is limited. For instance, f_T is only around 300 GHz in 40-nm digital CMOS. As the operation frequency gets close to f_T , the transistor gain becomes relatively low. Although device scaling can improve f_T , it indeed lowers the output resistance, which is unfavorable for the amplifier gain. This explains why there exists debate if advanced technologies are really beneficial for RF, and even terahertz, circuit designs. Secondly, passive components have a low quality factor (Q) because of a lossy silicon substrate. The condition is worse in digital processes for lack of an ultra-thick metal layer and high performance metal-insulator-metal (MIM) capacitors. Low Q passive components cause significant signal loss in impedance matching networks. Another issue is that the supply voltage scales down with the technology, making circuit design more challenging. All these issues need to be considered carefully to have a high-gain amplifier in an advanced digital CMOS process.

Many prior studies presented amplifiers operating beyond 100 GHz in CMOS technologies [8]–[20]. The common-source (CS) or cascode topologies are commonly seen for signal amplification. However, the aforementioned circuits lack of a design methodology to deal with the issues of low-gain transistors and low-Q passive components. The passive loss issue confuses designers in transistor sizing, e.g., in [21]. Previous study of the design algorithm [22] is not easy to include the passive loss and select device size. In this paper, the amplifier design is developed based on the maximum voltage gain of an amplifier and the insertion loss (IL) of an impedance transformation network. With the design methodology, the bias, device size, circuit topology, and inter-stage coupling method can be optimized to achieve the maximal gain near f_T .

This paper is organized as follows. In Section II, the design methodology for the 210-GHz amplifier is presented. The analytical formulas of the maximum achievable voltage gain and the IL of a matching network are derived. Section III presents the implementation of a 210-GHz CMOS amplifier in 40-nm digital CMOS technology. The experimental results are shown in Section IV. Finally, Section V concludes this work.

II. AMPLIFIER DESIGN METHODOLOGY

An amplifier can offer a maximum available power gain (MAG) related to its S-parameters [23]. Researchers used to design amplifiers based on MAG. The design, however, lacks of the information how to select circuit topology and choose transistor size. This paper is aimed to obtain the design guideline for amplifier design at frequencies close to f_T . It will be shown that the passive matching network reduces amplifier

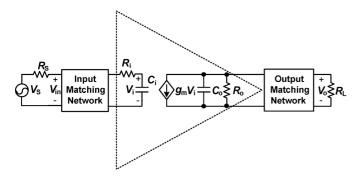


Fig. 1. Equivalent-circuit model of a narrowband amplifier.

gain significantly although the active device is still capable of providing good gain.

A. Maximum Achievable Voltage Gain

Unilateral amplifier design can serve as the design guideline for maximum gain. The unilateral assumption is often found acceptable when the error is less than 0.5 dB or so. A unilateral narrowband amplifier can be modeled by the equivalent circuit, as illustrated in Fig. 1. Instead of using S-parameters, it is easier to obtain design insight by modeling the input and output impedances of the active device as R_i and C_i in series and R_o and C_o in parallel, respectively. The transconductance of the active device is designated as g_m .

According to the unilateral model in Fig. 1, the maximum voltage gain under lossless matching network can be derived as

$$G_{v,\text{max}} = \left| \frac{V_o}{V_{\text{in}}} \right|_{\text{max} \otimes f_0} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f_T}{f_o} \sqrt{\frac{R_L}{R_S}} \sqrt{\frac{R_o}{R_i}}$$
(1)

where f_o is the frequency of interest and f_T is approximated as g_m/C_i . Similar analysis is also given in [24] and [25], but the input impedance is not taken into consideration, which might lead to errors in evaluating the active device gain. When $R_S = R_L$, (1) can be further simplified as

$$G_{v,\text{max}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{f_T}{f_0} \sqrt{\frac{R_o}{R_i}}.$$
 (2)

Fig. 2 shows $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ of a 40-nm nMOS transistor, together with MAG and the current gain (H_{21}) for comparison. The transistor width is 10.8 μ m. The gate-to-source voltage V_{GS} and the supply voltage V_{DD} are both set to 0.8 V. As can be observed, $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ derived using the unilateral model matches MAG very well within the unconditionally stable region, which is the frequency band of interest in this work. This shows that unilateral design is suitable.

Consequently, $G_{v, \max}$ can be used as a guideline to design millimeter-wave amplifiers at 210 GHz, although only analog parameters appears in (2). The equation indicates that high R_o and f_T can increase amplifier gain. From the device viewpoint, a long channel length L benefits the former, but jeopardizes the latter. To the first-order effect, device characteristics give $R_o \propto L$ and $f_T \propto 1/L$, which, in turn, yields to $G_{v,\max} \propto 1/\sqrt{L}$. Obviously, advanced technologies are still preferred. This is different from the analog circuit design using large intrinsic gain,

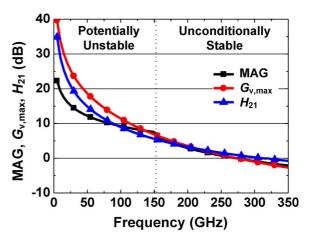


Fig. 2. Simulated MAG, $G_{v,\max}$, and current gain (H_{21}) of a 40-nm nMOS transistor.

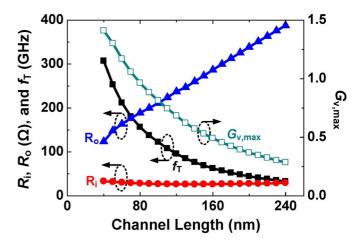


Fig. 3. Simulated $R_i,\,R_o,\,f_T,\,{\rm and}\,\,G_{v,{\rm max}}$ of a 40-nm nMOS transistor at 210 GHz.

which might be actually lower in advanced technologies. Fig. 3 shows the simulated parameters extracted from the S-parameters of a 40-nm nMOS transistor, as that in Fig. 2 if the channel length is varied. Smaller L gives a larger gain. When f_0 approaches to f_T , a proper resistance ratio of R_o/R_i can still ensure a good gain level.

From the circuit viewpoint, the topology of a high R_o/R_i is advantageous, such as the cascode. As compared to the CS, the gain boost is roughly by a factor of $\sqrt{2+g_m r_o}$, where $g_m r_o$ represents the transistor intrinsic gain. The intrinsic gain actually decreases in very advanced technologies so that the advantage becomes less effective. The comparison is shown in Fig. 4 by sweeping the finger number. $V_{\rm GS}$ is set at 0.8 V for transistors. V_{DD} is 0.8 V and 1.6 V for the CS and cascode, respectively. R_i is about the same in both cases and decreases as the finger number increases. The cascode topology exhibits a larger impedance ratio, about five times larger than that of the CS. Yet its f_T is lower due to the parasitic capacitance between the CS and common-gate transistors. Accordingly, the cascode topology shows a maximum gain around 1 dB higher at the finger number of 4. Nevertheless, the power dissipation is twice that of the CS. Actually, it will be shown later that the cascode no longer has a higher gain than that of the CS once the IL of

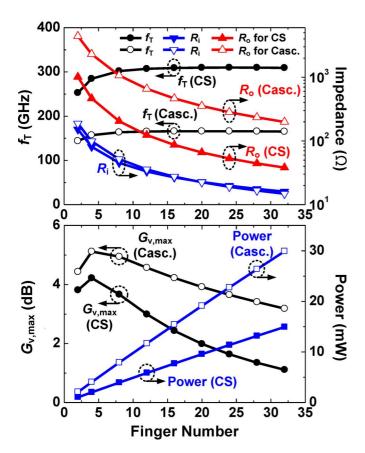


Fig. 4. Simulated R_i , R_o , f_T , $G_{v,\max}$, and power consumption of CS and cascode (Casc.) topologies at 210 GHz.

matching network is considered. The details will be discussed as follows.

B. IL of Matching Network

The IL of the matching network inevitably decreases the amplifier gain. It is valuable to assess how the network loss affects amplifier design. Instead of the common simple L-section networks and transformers [26], the shunt stub of transmission lines used in other designs beyond 200 GHz [23], [24] is chosen as the matching network in this work to eliminate the issue of limited self-resonant frequency.

To analyze the IL, we consider the impedance transformation from arbitrary load impedance of Z_L to a source impedance of Z_S , as illustrated on a Smith chart in Fig. 5(a) for $Z_S = 50~\Omega$. The shunt-stub matching network comprises two lossy transmission lines of TL_1 and TL_2 with length d and l, respectively, as shown in Fig. 5(b). Both lines are with a characteristic impedance of Z_0 . Either path through A or B can be selected. As far as the loss is concerned, a shorter path is always better.

Let the line loss be α dB/ λ . The IL is characterized by the ratio of $P_L/P_{\rm in}=(P_L/P_d)(P_d/P_{\rm in})$, given by

IL = -10 log
$$\left(\frac{P_L}{P_{\rm in}}\right)$$

= -10 log $\left[\left(\frac{1 - |\Gamma_L|^2}{e^{2\alpha d} - |\Gamma_L|^2 e^{-2\alpha d}}\right) \left(\frac{G_d}{G_d + G_{\rm stub}}\right)\right]$

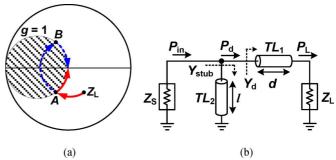


Fig. 5. (a) Smith chart of impedance matching. (b) Shunt-stub matching circuit.

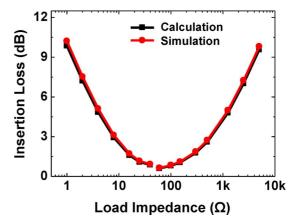


Fig. 6. IL of the shunt-stub matching network.

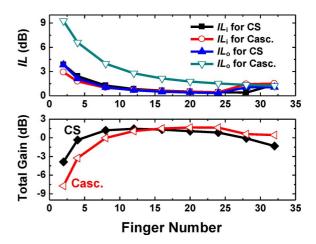


Fig. 7. Calculated ${\rm IL}_i$, ${\rm IL}_o$, and total gain of CS and cascode (Casc.) topologies at 210 GHz.

where G_d and $G_{\rm stub}$ are the real parts of the two admittance Y_d and $Y_{\rm stub}$, respectively, and $\Gamma_L = (Z_L - Z_0)/(Z_L + Z_0)$ is the load reflection coefficient referring to Z_0 . The length of d and l can be acquired from fulfilling the input complex conjugate matching condition [29].

Given Z_0 equal to 50 Ω , the calculated and the simulated results of the IL at 210 GHz are as shown in Fig. 6. The line loss α is assumed 2.8 dB/ λ , taking from the transmission line designed in Section III(a). In general, Z_L and Z_S could be complex values. In the analysis, Z_L is assumed to be real, and Z_S is 50 Ω . The simulation is conducted using the transmission line

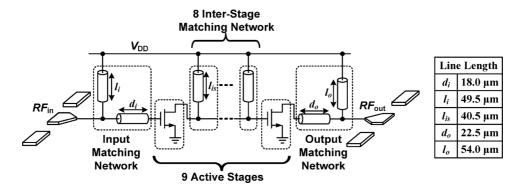


Fig. 8. Schematic of the proposed amplifier.

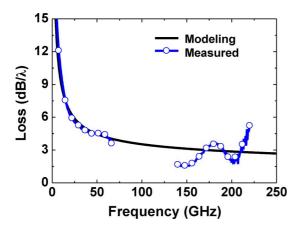


Fig. 9. Measured and modeling losses of the microstrip lines.

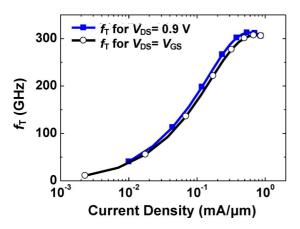


Fig. 10. Simulated f_T versus current density $(I_{\rm DS}/W)$.

model in the Agilent Advanced Design System (ADS). The results confirm that IL can be reduced if Z_L is close to Z_S . In other words, IL is larger if the impedance transformation ratio is higher. A similar conclusion with different types of matching networks can be found in [26].

This raises an issue of the tradeoff between $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ and IL. A large $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ calls for a large ratio of R_o/R_i , which, in turn, requires a large impedance transformation ratio in the matching networks and leads to a high IL. This is especially serious at a few hundred gigahertz because IL can significantly deteriorate

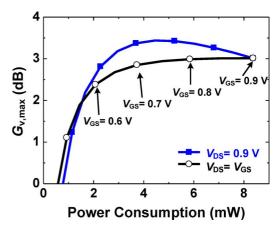


Fig. 11. Simulated $G_{v,\max}$ versus power consumption for a single stage.

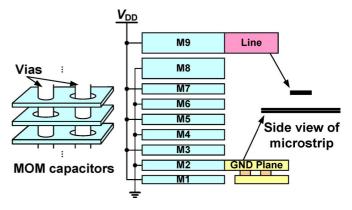


Fig. 12. Cross-section view of the MOM capacitors formed by dummy metals for the ac bypass at the power node, and the connection to the signal line and the ground of the microstrip line.

the low active gain. An optimal ratio of R_o/R_i is therefore necessary, which can be achieved by the selection of proper transistor size.

ILs are added to the $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ analysis to obtain the total amplifier gain. The better circuit topology and the optimal transistor size can then be determined. The IL of the input matching network (IL_i) is due to impedance transformation from Z_{in} to 50 Ω , and the IL of the output matching network (IL_o) from Z_{out} to 50 Ω , where Z_{in} and Z_{out} are the input and output impedance of the active circuits. Fig. 7 shows the total amplifier gain as the finger number is varied from 2 to 32, with per

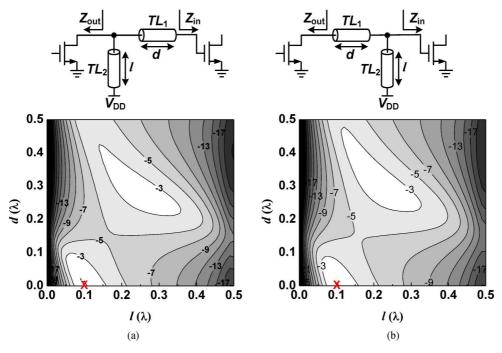


Fig. 13. Inter-stage matching topology and IL as the short stub is near the: (a) previous stage and (b) present stage

finger width of 0.9 μ m. The bias condition is the same as that in Fig. 4. The IL $_o$ of the cascode topology is the worst because of a high-impedance transformation ratio. This greatly reduces the total gain of the cascode topology. It turns out that both circuits give similar total gain around 1.5 dB with an optimal finger number of 12 and 20 for the CS and cascode, respectively. Note that the current dissipation is proportional to the finger number. The cascode topology consumes more current together with a higher supply voltage. Evidently, the CS topology shall be chosen to make the best tradeoff among the realized gain, supply voltage, and power consumption.

III. 210-GHz Amplifier Design

Fig. 8 shows the proposed 210-GHz amplifier using a 40-nm digital CMOS process. Multiple CS amplifiers are cascaded without inter-stage coupling capacitors. Based on the above discussion, the finger number of the transistor is chosen as 12 to have the maximum total gain. The shunt-stub matching network is applied to the input and output matching networks. Eventually the inter-stage matching is realized by a single short stub. Moreover, the number of cascaded stages is designed to be nine to achieve sufficient gain. The details will be presented as follows.

A. Microstrip Line Design

The planar types of coplanar waveguides and microstrip lines are commonly chosen in on-chip implementation. The microstrip line is adopted in this work because of the structure simplicity and better ground accessibility to reduce the connecting loss to the ground. Besides, its ground plane also shields the lines from the lossy substrate to reduce the line loss. The top copper metal is used as the signal line. The two bottom

metal layers, M1 and M2, are connected together by vias as the ground plane. Note that opening slots are required on the ground plane to meet the metal density rule in chip fabrication. The slots are placed on M1 and M2 in a complementary manner to reduce the field penetration into the lossy substrate.

The microstrip lines are used to match the input and the output impedance of an nMOS transistor to 50 Ω . The line width is chosen as 4.5 μ m in this circuit. The measured line loss using two network analyzer systems for the frequency bands of 0.01-67 and 140-220 GHz is shown in Fig. 9. The multi-line de-embedding method is used to remove the pad effects with two lines of 720- and 540- μ m long [30]. However, the de-embedded results are still affected by the line resonance at high frequencies so that there exists ripples in the measured data over the frequency range of 140–220 GHz. The microstrip line is also modeled using the MLIN model in ADS by the approach in [31]. The measured loss is 2.8 dB/ λ at 210 GHz, where λ is around 750 μ m for the microstrip line at 210 GHz. The data is comparable to the reported results, around 2.5 to 6.7 dB/ λ at 110 GHz [32]–[36] and 2.2 dB/ λ at 200 GHz [9] in bulk CMOS technologies. The measured Z_0 is around 55 Ω at 210 GHz.

B. Bias Optimization

The transistor shall be biased at a proper current density for maximum f_T [37]. Fig. 10 shows f_T versus the current density. Two cases are included, one with a fixed $V_{\rm DS}$ of 0.9 V, and the other with $V_{\rm DS}$ equal to $V_{\rm GS}$. The differences in f_T and the corresponding optimal current densities are negligible, meaning that f_T is insensitive to $V_{\rm DS}$ variation. Actually the latter case benefits in inter-stage connection as far as direct dc coupling is concerned. Hence, the current density of 0.67 mA/ μ m is chosen in this work.

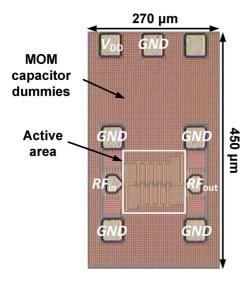


Fig. 14. Chip micrograph of the 210-GHz amplifier.

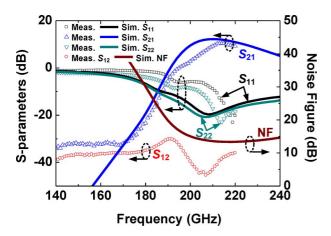


Fig. 15. Measured (symbols) and simulated (solid lines) S-parameters and noise figure of the 210-GHz amplifier.

C. Inter-Stage Design

In the multi-stage amplifier design, the inter-stage connection can be realized either by ac or dc coupling. Although ac coupling allows each stage to have independent gate bias voltage for the optimal gain, it causes extra signal loss induced by the dc block capacitor.

Fig. 11 shows $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ of a single-stage CS amplifier. Given the same power consumption, the case with an independent gate bias gives larger $G_{v,\mathrm{max}}$ by 0.45 dB, as compared to the case of $V_{\mathrm{DS}} = V_{\mathrm{GS}}$. However, a metal–oxide–metal (MOM) capacitor for dc blocking induces over 1-dB loss at 210 GHz based on the simulation. It is obvious that dc coupling is preferred to alleviate gain degradation.

Keeping the dc voltage node well ac grounded for single-ended circuits is essential to reduce parasitic effects. This work adopts decoupling capacitors for ac grounding, which are formed by the metal layers distributed on the entire chip, as shown in Fig. 12. Odd and even metal layers are connected to the power and ground, respectively. The layers are connected to one another by vias through the holes in the

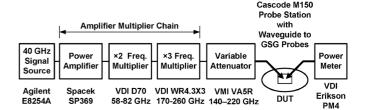


Fig. 16. Customized setup for large-signal measurement.

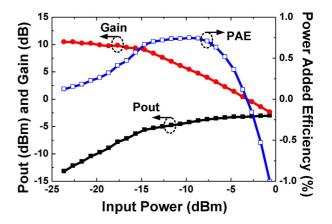


Fig. 17. Measured output power, gain, and PAE of the 210-GHz amplifier.

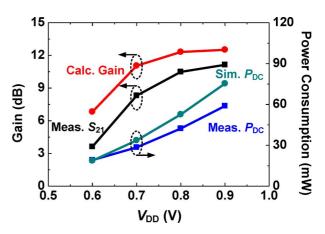


Fig. 18. Measured and calculated gain of the 210-GHz amplifier.

adjacent layers. This can maximize the capacitance between V_{DD} and the ground and also reduce the parasitic effects of the needed interconnects between the pads and circuits.

The inter-stage connection is implemented by the shunt-stub matching network from $Z_{\rm out}$ to $Z_{\rm in}$ directly. Generally, shorter transmission lines are better. Two possible configurations are illustrated as shown in Fig. 13. In each one, two solution sets of transmission-line lengths can be found to meet the matching condition. The contour plots of the network IL provide more information over the ranges with $0 < d < \lambda/2$ and $0 < l < \lambda/2$. From the plots, the optimal length of d and l for the minimum loss, marked as an X, can be determined as zero and 0.1λ , respectively, for both cases. This concludes that the inter-stage matching can be reduced to a single shunt stub. The loss is only 0.94 dB at 210 GHz.

Ref.	Tech.	f _T /f _{max} (GHz)	f _{Peak Gain} (GHz)	V _{DD} (V)	P _{DC} (mW)	S ₁₁ (dB)	S ₂₂ (dB)	Gain (dB)	3-dB BW (GHz)	P _{1dB} (dBm)	P _{sat} (dBm)	Topology/Match Comp.	Area (mm²)
[8]	65 nm	-/-	200	2.0	108	-10	-16*	8.1	5*	-10	-	Diff. 5 Casc./Lump.	0.058
[9]	65 nm	180/320	150	1.1	25.5	-7.4	-13.6	8.2	27	1.5	6.3	3 CS/MSL	0.16
[10]	65 nm	200/250	144	1.4	54.6	-24	-15	20.6	33#	5	>5.7	Diff. 3 Casc./Lump.	0.048
[11]	65 nm	-/-	142*	1.2	-	- 4*	-10*	11	15	-0.5	13.2	Diff. 5 CS/Lump.	0.125*
[12]	65 nm	170/240	140	1.2	63	-	-	8	10	-5	>-1.8*	3 CS+3 CG/Lump	0.06^{*}
[13]	65 nm	-/-	140	1.2	112+	-	-	9.9	28*	-	-	6 Casc./MSL	0.27^{*}
[14]	65 nm	-/220	117.5	2.0	48	-7*	-5*	25.3	20*	-3	0.5	4 Casc./MSL	0.248
[15]	65 nm	-/>200	109	2.0	267	-3*	-10*	14.1	9	11.6	14.8	Diff. 2 Casc+CS/Lump+TL	0.106
[16]	130 nm	-/130	107	0.95	31	-13	-19	12.5	5.4	-1	>2.3	3 CS/MSL	0.15*
[17]	90 nm	100/300	103.8	1.0	22	-9.8	-5.5	9.3	2*	-	•	3 CS/CPW	0.243*
[18]	90 nm	-/150	100.5	2.4	140*	-11	-15	15.1	18	6	10	Diff. 3 Casc./MSL	0.4
[19]	65 nm	-/-	100	1.2	86	-8*	-11*	13	21	6	10	4 CS/CPW	0.33
[20]	90 nm	-/250	99	1.2	94	-11*	-3*	11	11	-	-	Diff. 6 CS/Lump.	0.11
[1]	45 nm	200/200	95	1.4	52	-16*	-17*	10.7	15*	5.2	7.5	3 CS/CPW	0.32
This Work	40 nm	310/275	213.5	0.8	42.3	-12.7	-22.6	10.5	13	-7.2	-3.2	9 CS/MSL	0.013

TABLE I
PERFORMANCE SUMMARY AND COMPARISON WITH PRIOR WORKS IN CMOS

*Estimated graphically. *Not 3-dB bandwidth, but the bandwidth with larger than 0 dB gain. *Receiver

Diff.: differential topology.

D. Layout Consideration

The circuit layout needs to be carefully arranged to reduce undesired parasitic effects. Fig. 14 shows the chip micrograph of the fabricated amplifier. For coupling reduction, the shunt stubs for the inter-stage matching are placed in the upper position for the odd stages and in the lower position for the even stages. In this way, the currents of the adjacent stubs have the same phase, and the magnetic field coupling increases the inductance. This helps to reduce the required line length and the loss can be further minimized. Note that the amplifier with this layout style is checked and shows no stability issue.

The signal pads with the dimension of 40 μ m \times 40 μ m are tapered to reduce the step discontinuity. Two bottom metal layers are used as ground shielding from the substrate. The power pads for dc bias are placed 200 μ m away from the signal pads to avoid probe collision. All areas, except pads and active areas, are used to form the MOM capacitors between V_{DD} and the ground. They also act as the dummy metals to fulfill the density rule. The entire chip occupies the area of 450 μ m \times 270 μ m, while the core circuit only 103 μ m \times 130 μ m.

Agilent ADS Momentum is used to conduct the post-layout simulation. The layout parasitic increases ${\rm IL}_i$ and ${\rm IL}_o$ to be 1.0 and 0.9 dB, respectively, and each inter-stage matching loss to 1.6 dB. The simulated gain of each stage has 3.0 dB at 210 GHz when $V_{\rm GS}$ and $V_{\rm DS}$ are 0.8 V. To have the gain larger than 10 dB with a margin, a stage number of 9 is selected. The total gain of the nine-stage amplifier is 12.3 dB at 210 GHz, which includes the losses of the input, the output, and the eight interstage matching networks. The simulated power consumption is only 52.6 mW.

IV. MEASUREMENT RESULTS

The proposed amplifier is implemented using TSMC 40-nm digital CMOS technology where MIM capacitors and ultra-thick top metal are not available.

The amplifier is measured on chip using a network analyzer system that can support measurement from 140 to 220 GHz. The system consists of a dc subsystem HP 4142B and an RF

subsystem Agilent E8361C with millimeter head controller, N5260A, and millimeter-wave test head module, N5256AW05. The calibration by line–reflect–reflect–match (LRRM) is applied to move the reference planes to the probe tips. After calibration, the line standard shows that $S_{11,\rm Line}$ and $S_{22,\rm Line}$ are all smaller than -40 dB, and $S_{21,\rm Line}$ is -0.02 with ± 0.02 -dB variation. The match standard has $S_{11,\rm Match}$ and $S_{22,\rm Match}$ of -25 dB with ± 5 -dB variation. The input power level at the probe tip is fixed at -25 dBm.

Fig. 15 presents the measured S-parameters. The measured peak S_{21} is 10.5 dB at 213.5 GHz. The gain remains 9.3 dB at 220 GHz. If the upper 3-dB frequency is symmetric with respect to the peak gain frequency, the 3-dB bandwidth can be estimated as 13 GHz. S_{11} and S_{22} are -12 and -22 dB at 213.5 GHz, respectively. The reverse isolation, S_{12} , is below -30 dB, which confirms that the amplifier is unconditionally stable. The amplifier consumes only 52.9-mA dc current under a 0.8-V supply. Limited by experimental equipment, the noise figure (NF) is only available by simulation. As shown in Fig. 15, the NF is 13.4 dB at 210 GHz.

Linearity performance is measured by the customized setup in Fig. 16. The system contains a signal source, a power amplifier, $\times 2$ and $\times 3$ multipliers, an attenuator, a probe station with ground–signal–ground (GSG) probes, and the power meter. The output power is measured by directly connecting output of the attenuator to a power meter. The device-under-test (DUT) is tested using on-wafer GSG probes. The power at the probe tip is calibrated with the measured loss of each probe. Fig. 17 shows input power sweep results at 0.8-V power supply and signal source of 35.583 GHz. Output 1-dB gain compression point P_{1} dB is at -7.2 dBm. The saturated output power $P_{\rm sat}$ is -3.2 dBm when gain drops to 0 dB. The peak power-added efficiency (PAE) is around 0.75%. At $V_{DD}=0.9$ V, $P_{\rm sat}$ increases to -2.4 dBm.

The measured results under different supply voltages are also examined as shown in Fig. 18 along with the associated power consumption. The calculation results are also included for comparison. The trend of calculation and measurement results is

very close. The power gain starts to saturate as V_{DD} is larger than 0.8 V. Although the amplifier with V_{DD} of 0.9 V has higher gain, it consumes much power. V_{DD} of 0.8 V is the best tradeoff among the gain and the power consumption.

The peak gain difference between the simulation and measurement results is only 1.8 dB. This proves the usefulness of the proposed design methodology for the 210-GHz amplifier design. Table I makes comparison of the performance with previous reported CMOS amplifiers operating beyond 100 GHz. Clearly, the proposed amplifier presents the highest operating frequency while using the lowest supply voltage and the smallest chip area.

V. CONCLUSION

A 210-GHz amplifier is successfully designed and verified in 40-nm digital CMOS technology. The measured results show the peak power gain of 10.5 dB at 213.5 GHz. The power consumption is only 42.3 mW under a 0.8-V supply. The occupied chip area is only 0.013 mm². The agreement between the measured and the simulated results verifies the proposed design approach.

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Chun-Lin Ko (S'04–M'12) received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan, in 1998 and 2000, respectively, and is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in electronics engineering at National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan.

From 2000 to 2004, he was a Circuit Design Engineer with the SoC Technology Center (STC), Industrial Technology Research Institute (ITRI), Hsinchu, Taiwan. In 2005, he joined the National Chip Implementation Center (CIC), National Applied Research

Laboratories (NARL), Hsinchu, Taiwan. His current work is the development of the RF design environment and flow for advanced CMOS technologies. His research has been focused on CMOS front-end circuits for GSM and WLAN systems. His current research interests include design and analysis of CMOS millimeter-wave and terahertz integrated circuits for imaging and wireless communication systems.



Chun-Hsing Li (S'10) received the B.S. degree in electrophysics and M.S. degree in electronics engineering from National Chiao Tung University (NCTU), Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 2005 and 2007, respectively, and is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree at NCTU.

Following one year of military service as a Second Lieutenant with the Marine Corps, he was a Research Assistant with the RF System Integration Laboratory, NCTU, until June 2009. In Fall 2009, he joined the Department of Electrical Engineering, University of

California at Los Angeles (UCLA). In Winter 2010, he was with the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of California at Santa Barbara. Since April 2010, he has been with NCTU. His current research is focused on RF and terahertz circuit design.

Mr. Li was the recipient of the Best Paper Award of the Chinese Institute of Engineers (2013). He was a corecipient of the Best Paper Award of the 13th IEEE International Conference on Electronics, Circuits, and Systems, Nice, France, 2006. He was also the recipient of the MediaTek Fellowship in 2011.



Chien-Nan Kuo (S'93–M'97) received the B.S. degree from National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 1988, the M.S. degree from National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan, in 1990, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), Los Angeles, CA, USA, in 1997.

In 1997, he joined ADC Telecommunications, San Diego, CA, USA, as a Member of Technical Staff with the Mobile System Division, during which time he was involved in wireless base-station design. In

1999, he joined Broadband Innovations Inc. In 2001, he joined the Microelectronics Division, IBM. He is currently an Associate Professor with the Department of Electronics Engineering, National Chiao Tung University. His research interests include wireless transceiver front-end and system integration design, low-power design for the application of wireless sensor networks, terahertz imaging circuit and system design, and development of circuit-package co-design in the system-in-package (SiP) technique.



Ming-Ching Kuo (S'06–M'08) received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering and M.S. degree in electronics engineering from National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 1998 and 2000, respectively, and the Ph.D. degree in electronics engineering from National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 2010.

In 2001, he joined the SoC Technology Center (STC), Industrial Technology Research Institute (ITRI), Hsinchu, Taiwan, where he was involved in the design of several radio projects for cellular,

WLAN, and mobile TV applications. In 2011, he joined MediaTek Inc., Hsinchu, Taiwan, as a Technical Manager. He is currently with the Information and Communications Research Laboratories (ICL), ITRI, where he is an Associate Technical Director. His research interests include RF circuit and system integration designs, analog front-end design for medical imaging applications, and development of single photon avalanche diode (SPAD) sensors.



Da-Chiang Chang (M'11) was born in Taipei, Taiwan, in 1966. He received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from National Tsing-Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan, in 1989 and 1991, respectively, and the Ph.D. degree in electronic engineering from the National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taipei, Taiwan, in 2001.

From July 1991 to June 1993, he was an officer with the R.O.C. Air Force. In Fall 1993, he joined the Department of Electronic Engineering, Chinese Institute of Technology, Taipei, Taiwan, as an Instructor.

and in 2001 become an Associate Professor. From 2002 to 2003, he was with the United Microelectronics Cooperation (UMC), Hsinchu, Taiwan. From 2003 to 2005, he was with Acer Laboratories Inc. (ALi), Taipei, Taiwan. In 2005, he joined the National Chip Implementation Center (CIC), Hsinchu, Taiwan, where he is currently a Researcher and a Division Manager in charge of the development of RF system-in-package design environment and technologies. His current research interests are in high-speed RF and analog CMOS circuit design, integration of RF front-ends for millimeter-wave applications, and the co-design flow for CMOS and system-in-package technologies.