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High Speed Communication Circuits and Systems

Lecture 14

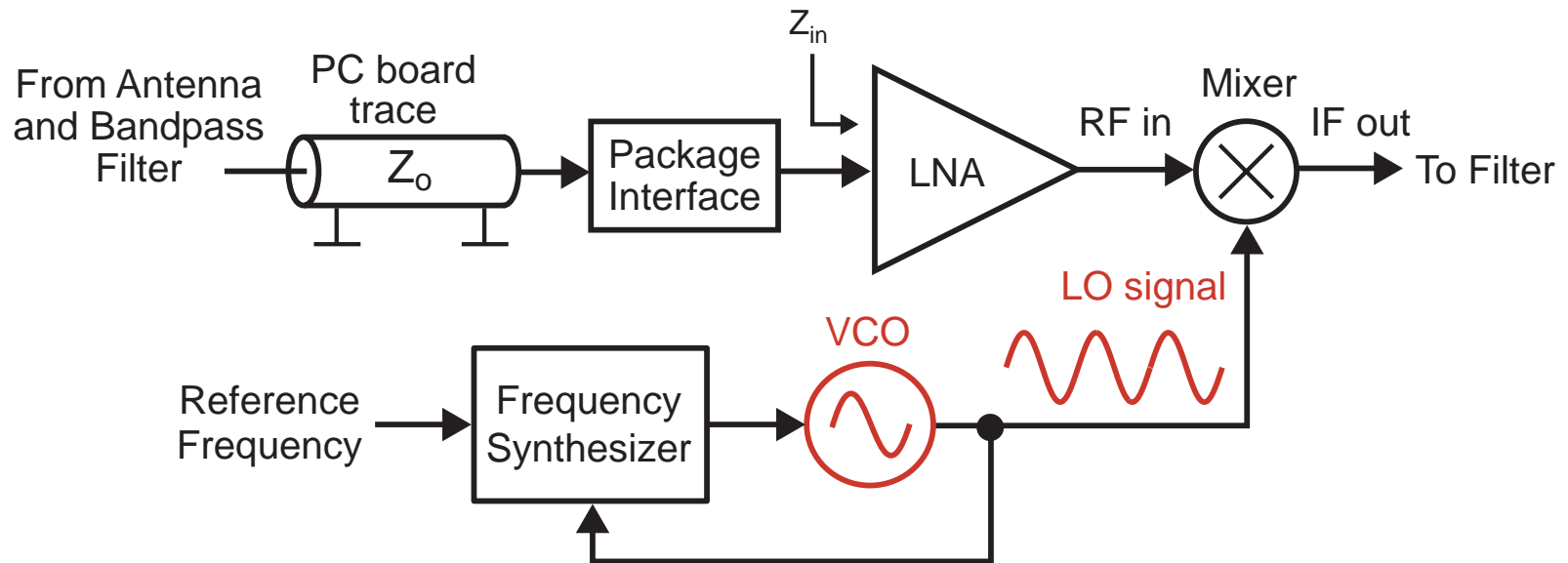
Voltage Controlled Oscillators

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

March 29, 2005

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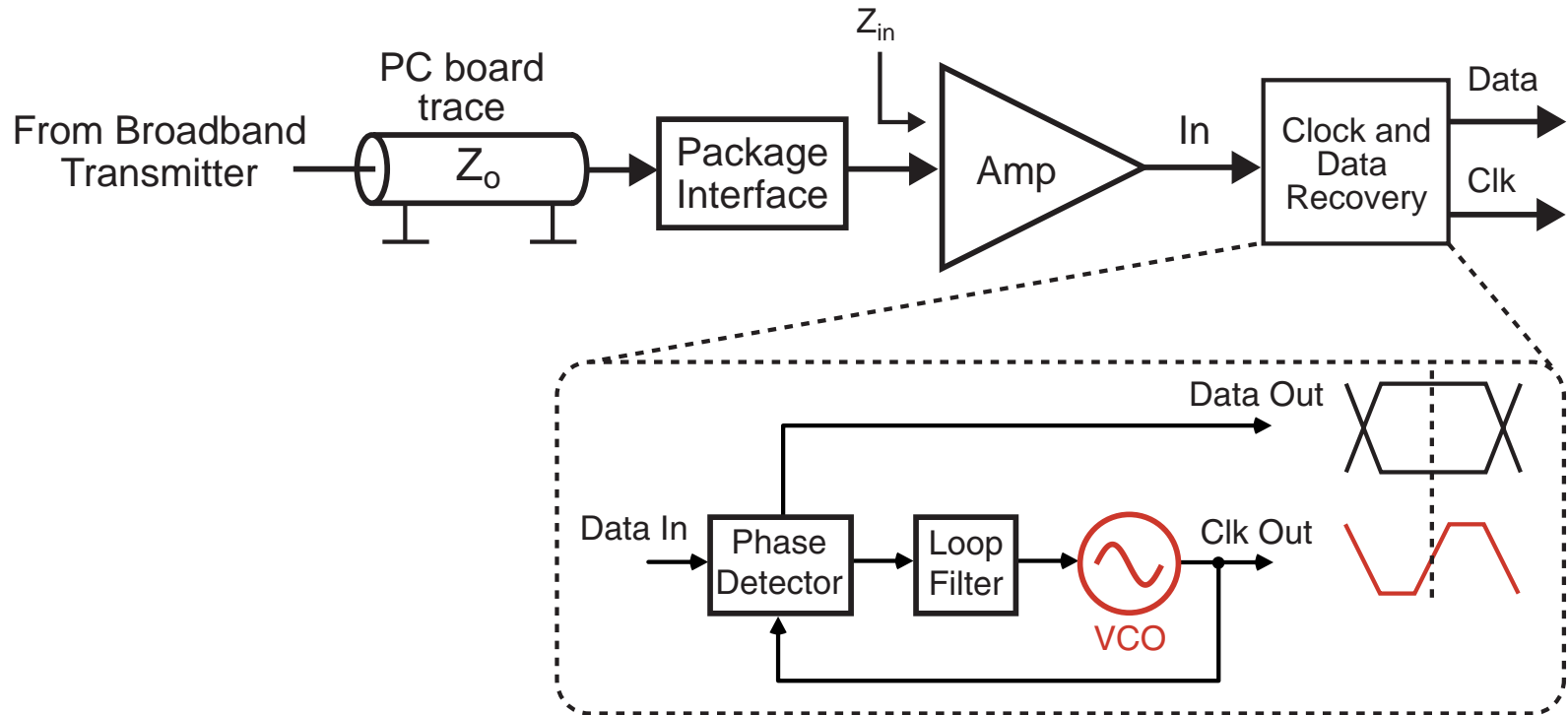
VCO Design for Narrowband Wireless Systems



■ Design Issues

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

VCO Design For Broadband High Speed Data Links



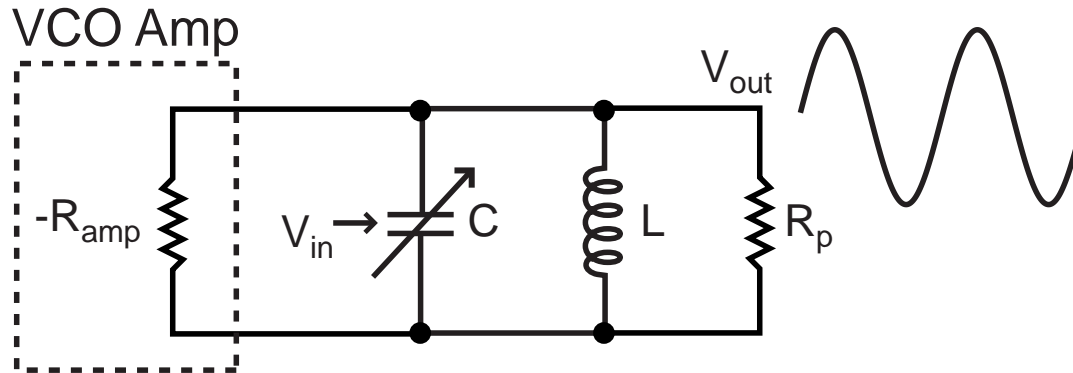
■ Design Issues

■ Same as wireless, but:

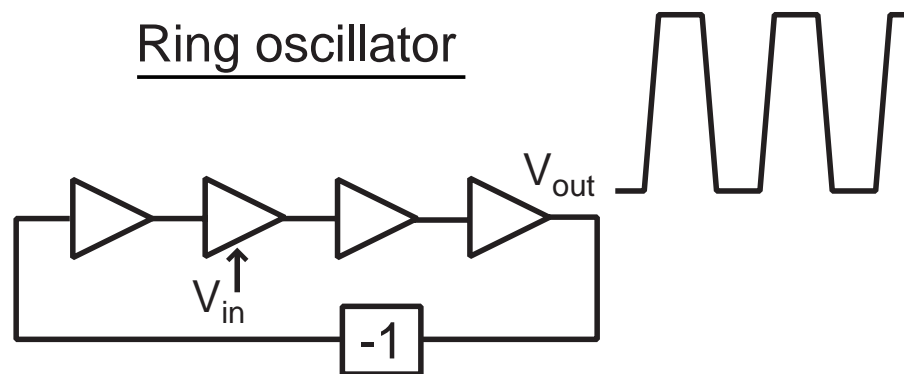
- Required noise performance is often less stringent
- Tuning range is often narrower

Popular VCO Structures

LC oscillator

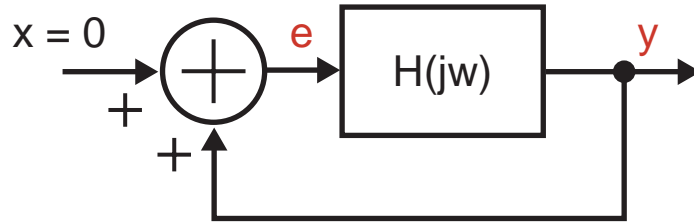


Ring oscillator



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

Barkhausen's Criteria for Oscillation



- **Closed loop transfer function**

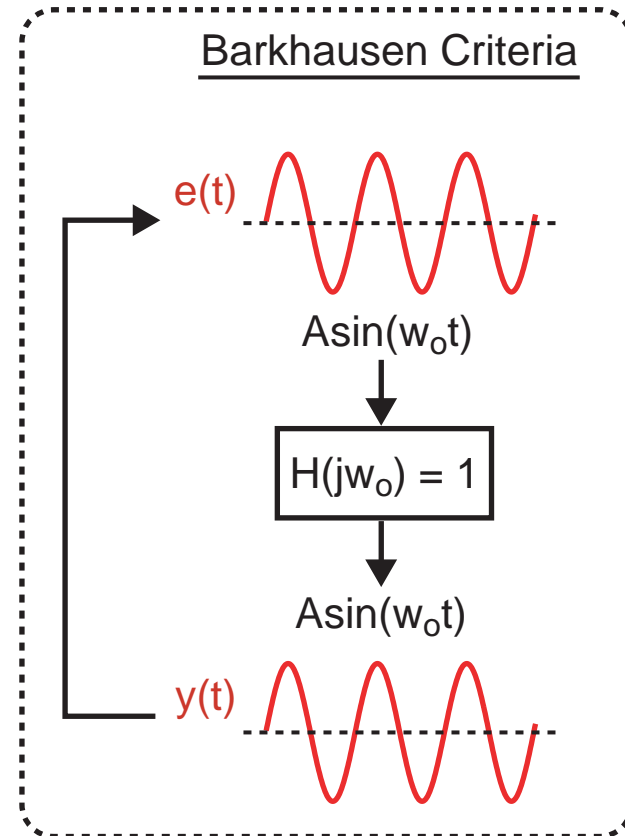
$$G(j\omega) = \frac{Y(j\omega)}{X(j\omega)} = \frac{H(j\omega)}{1 - H(j\omega)}$$

- **Self-sustaining oscillation at frequency ω_o if**

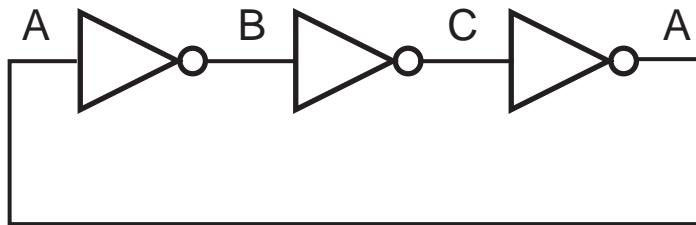
$$H(j\omega_o) = 1$$

- **Amounts to two conditions:**

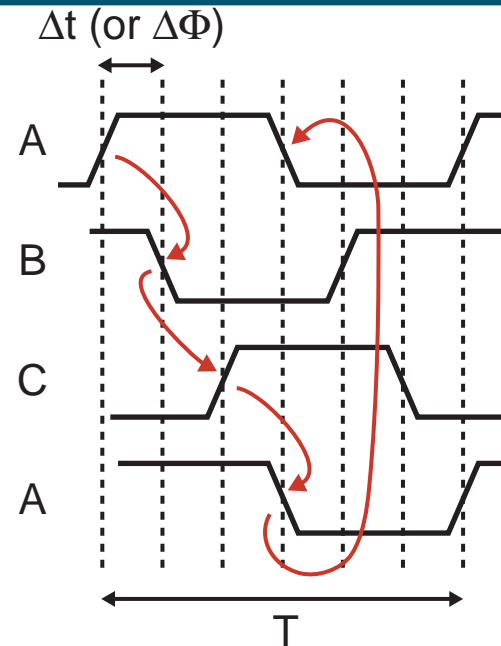
- Gain = 1 at frequency ω_o
- Phase = $n360$ degrees ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) at frequency ω_o



Example 1: Ring Oscillator



- Gain is set to 1 by saturating characteristic of inverters
- Odd number of stages to prevent stable DC operating point
- Phase equals 360 degrees at frequency of oscillation (180 from inversion, another 180 from gate delays)



- Assume N stages each with phase shift $\Delta\Phi$

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

- Alternately, N stages with delay Δt

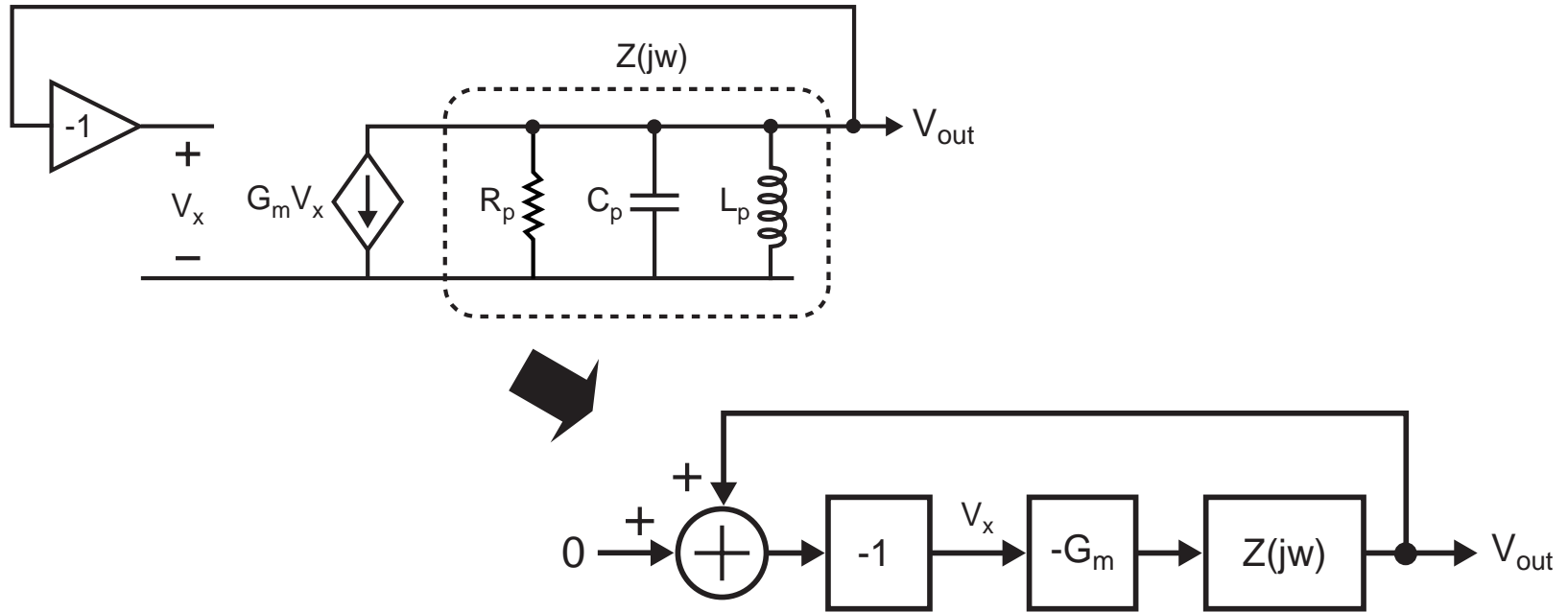
$$N\Delta t = \frac{T}{2} \Rightarrow \Delta t = \frac{T/2}{N}$$

Further Info on Ring Oscillators

- **Due to their relatively poor phase noise performance, ring oscillators are rarely used in RF systems**
 - They are used quite often in high speed data links,
 - We will focus on LC oscillators in this lecture

- **Some useful info on CMOS ring oscillators**
 - Maneatis et. al., “Precise Delay Generation Using Coupled Oscillators”, JSSC, Dec 1993 (look at pp 127-128 for delay cell description)
 - Todd Weigandt’s PhD thesis – <http://kabuki.eecs.berkeley.edu/~weigandt/>

Example 2: Resonator-Based Oscillator



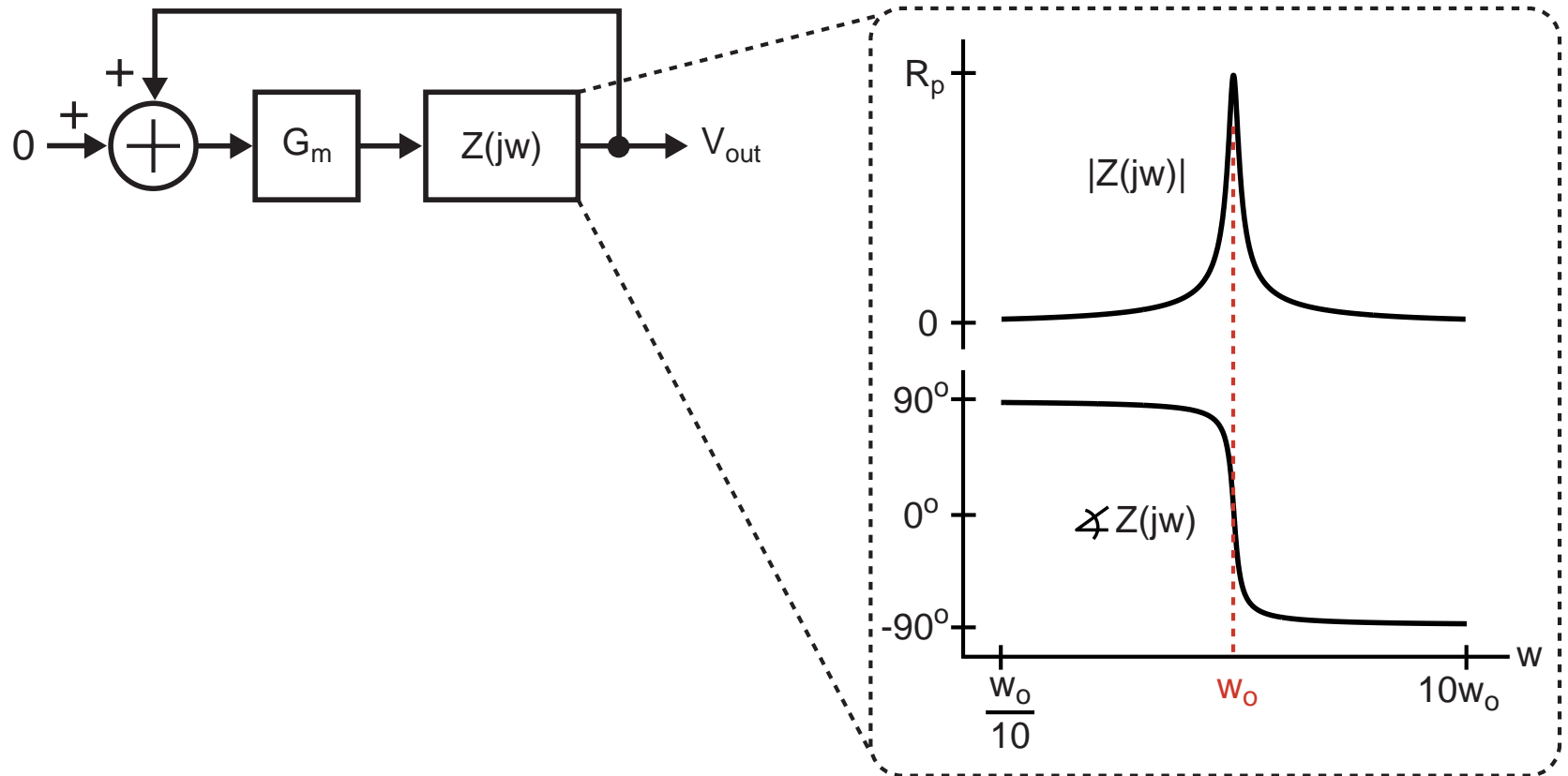
- **Barkhausen Criteria for oscillation at frequency ω_o :**

$$G_m Z(j\omega_o) = 1$$

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

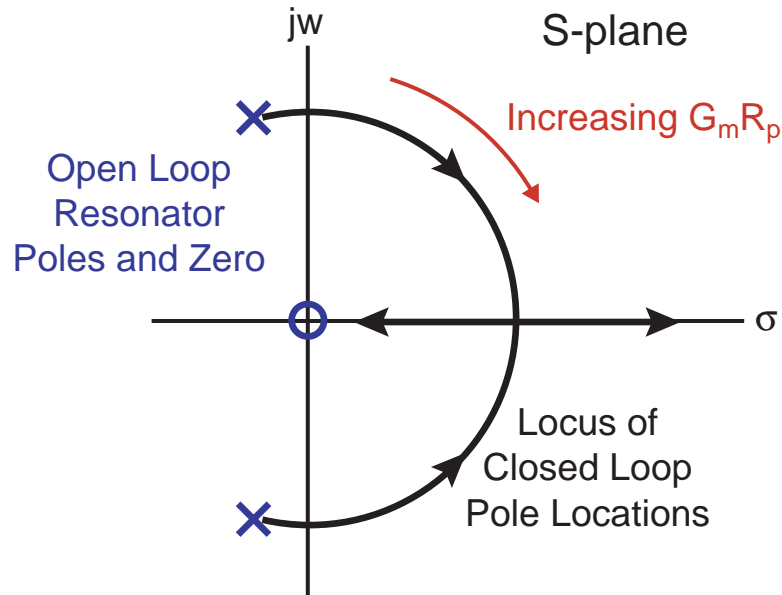
$$G_m R_p = 1$$

A Closer Look At Resonator-Based Oscillator



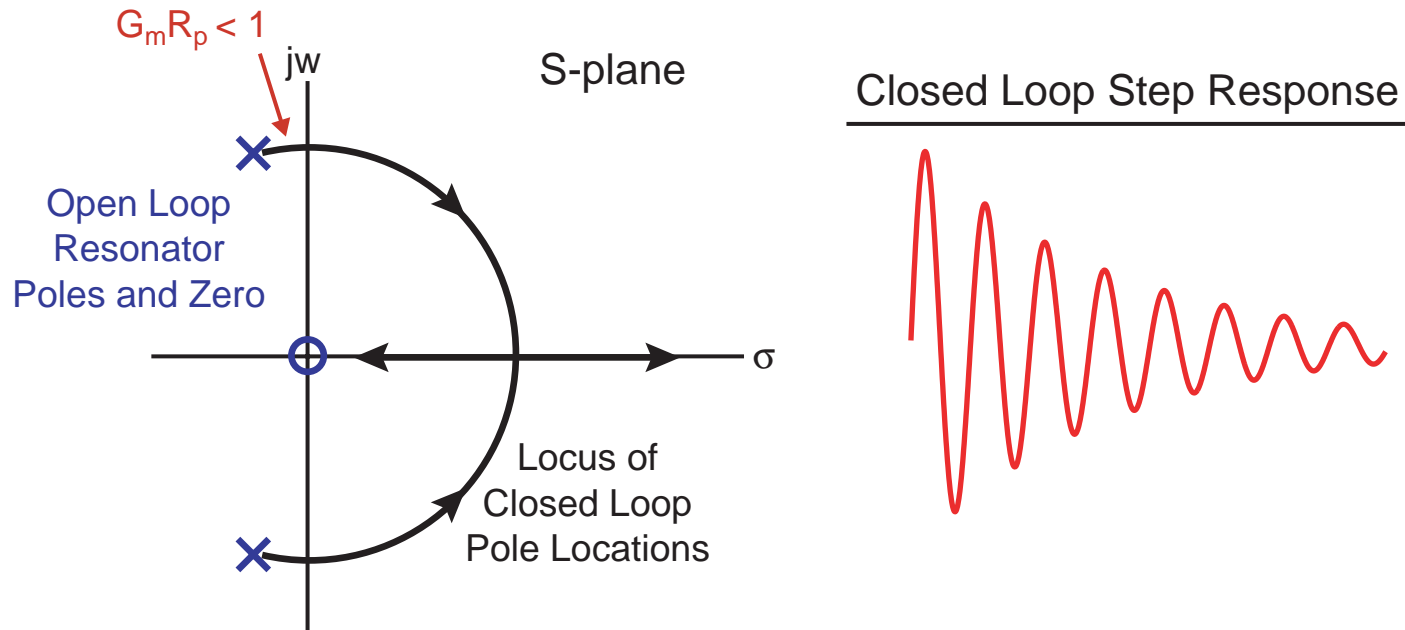
- For parallel resonator at resonance
 - Looks like resistor (i.e., purely real) at resonance
 - Phase condition is satisfied
 - Magnitude condition achieved by setting $G_m R_p = 1$

Impact of Different G_m Values



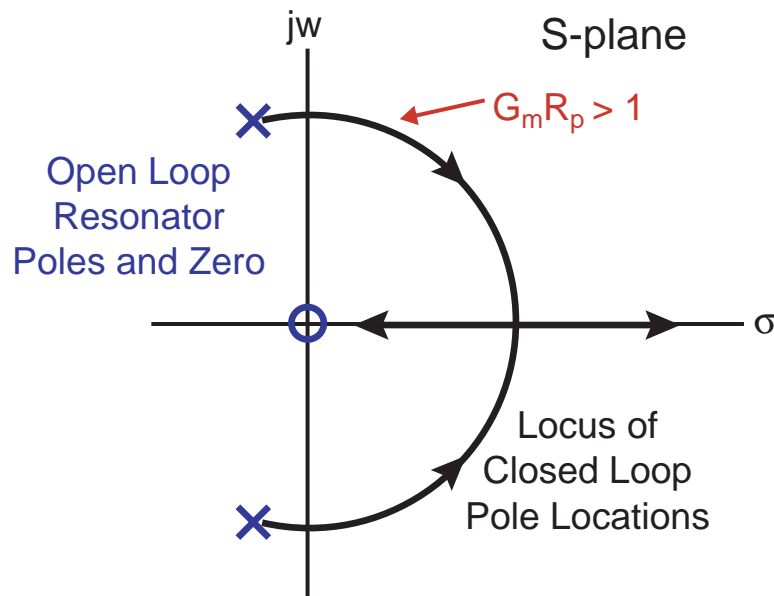
- Root locus plot allows us to view closed loop pole locations as a function of open loop poles/zero and open loop gain ($G_m R_p$)
 - As gain ($G_m R_p$) increases, closed loop poles move into right half S-plane

Impact of Setting G_m too low

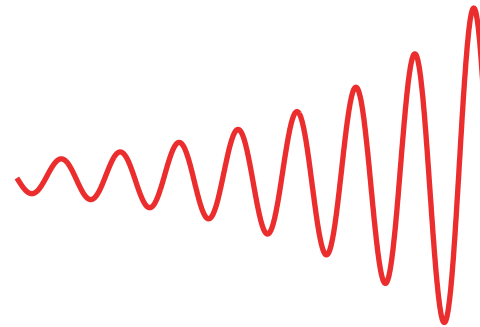


- **Closed loop poles end up in the left half S-plane**
 - Underdamped response occurs
 - Oscillation dies out

Impact of Setting G_m too High

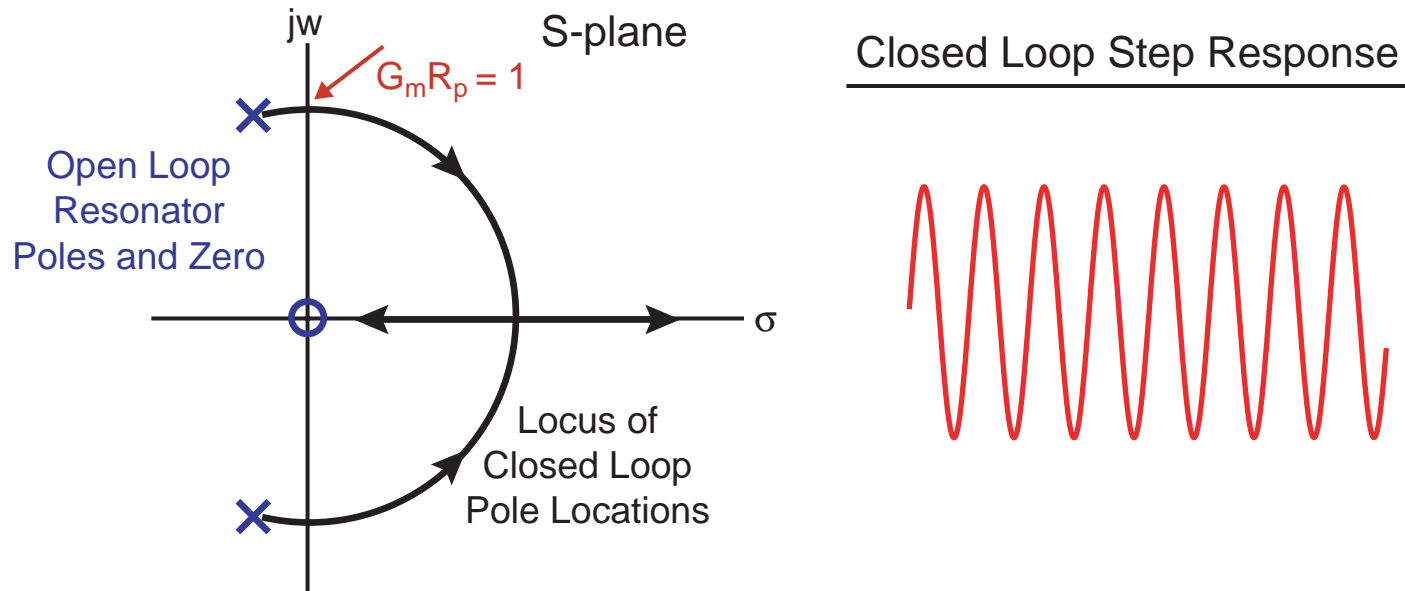


Closed Loop Step Response



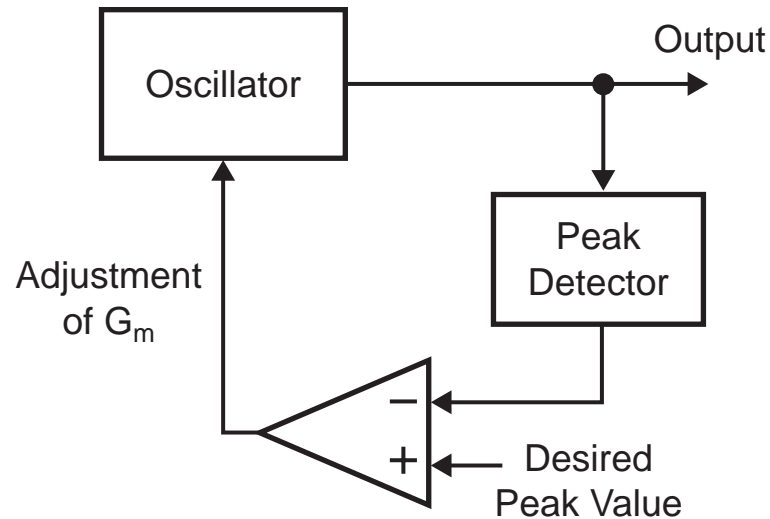
- **Closed loop poles end up in the right half S-plane**
 - **Unstable response occurs**
 - **Waveform blows up!**

Setting G_m To Just the Right Value



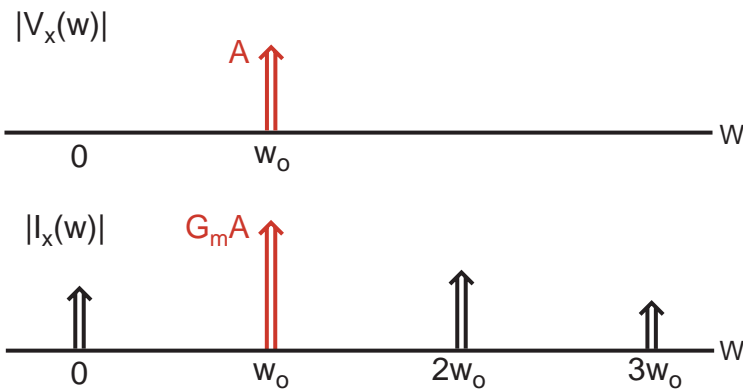
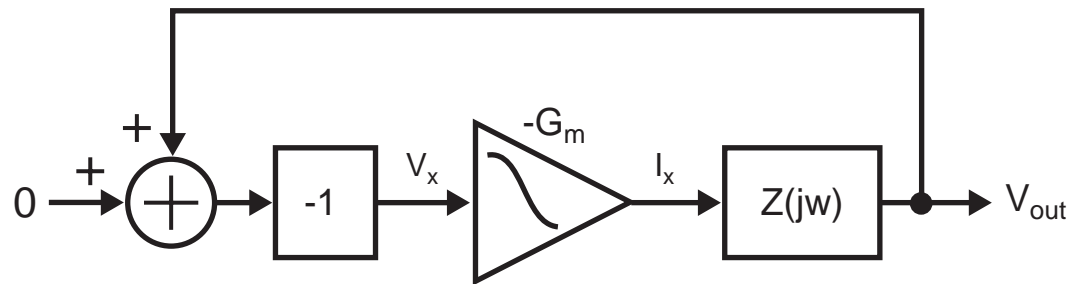
- **Closed loop poles end up on $j\omega$ axis**
 - Oscillation maintained
- **Issue – $G_m R_p$ needs to *exactly* equal 1**
 - How do we achieve this in practice?

Amplitude Feedback Loop



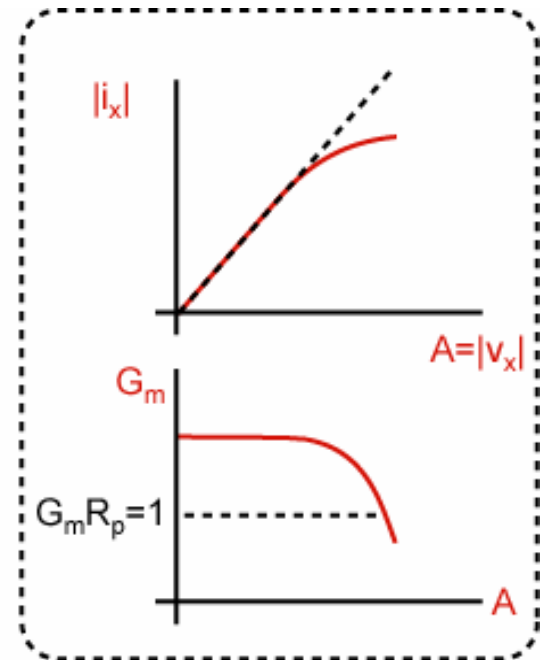
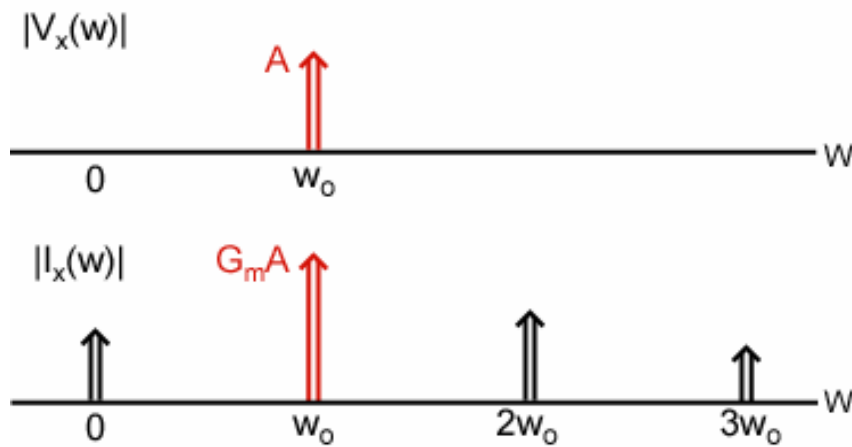
- One thought is to detect oscillator amplitude, and then adjust G_m so that it equals a desired value
 - By using feedback, we can precisely achieve $G_m R_p = 1$
- Issues
 - Complex, requires power, and adds noise

Leveraging Amplifier Nonlinearity as Feedback



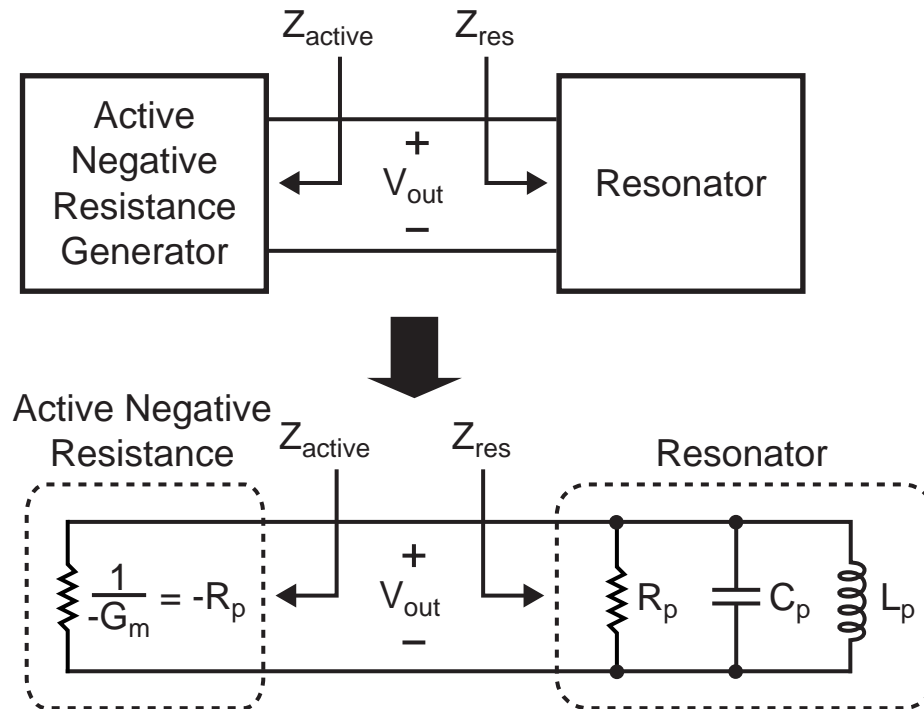
- **Practical transconductance amplifiers have saturating characteristics**
 - Harmonics created, but filtered out by resonator
 - Our interest is in the relationship between the input and the fundamental of the output

Amplifier Nonlinearity as Amplitude Control



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

One-Port View of Resonator-Based Oscillators

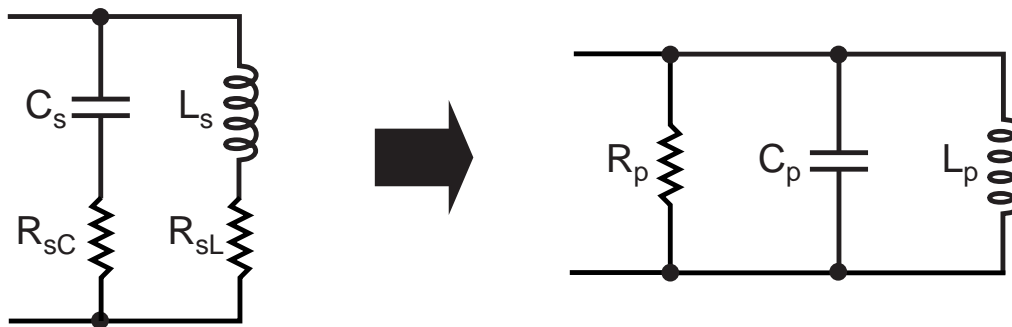


- Convenient for intuitive analysis
- Here we seek to cancel out loss in tank with a negative resistance element
 - To achieve sustained oscillation, we must have

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

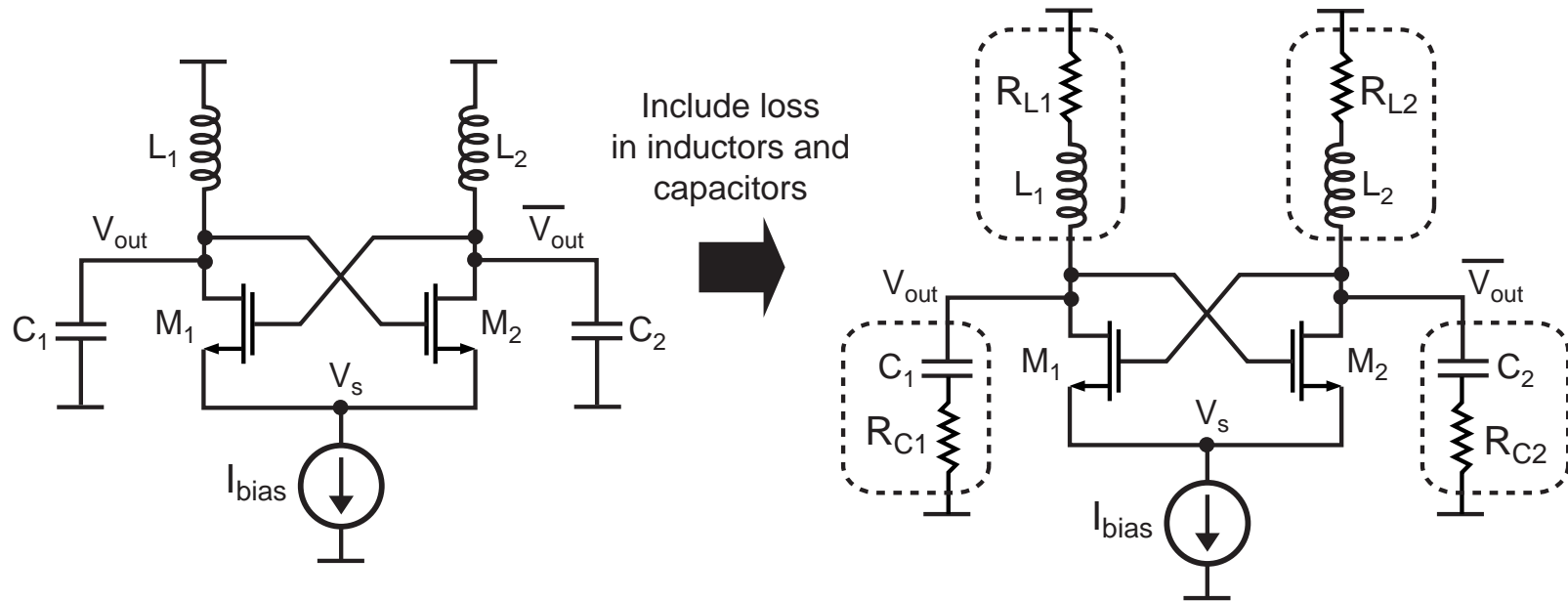
One-Port Modeling Requires Parallel RLC Network

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



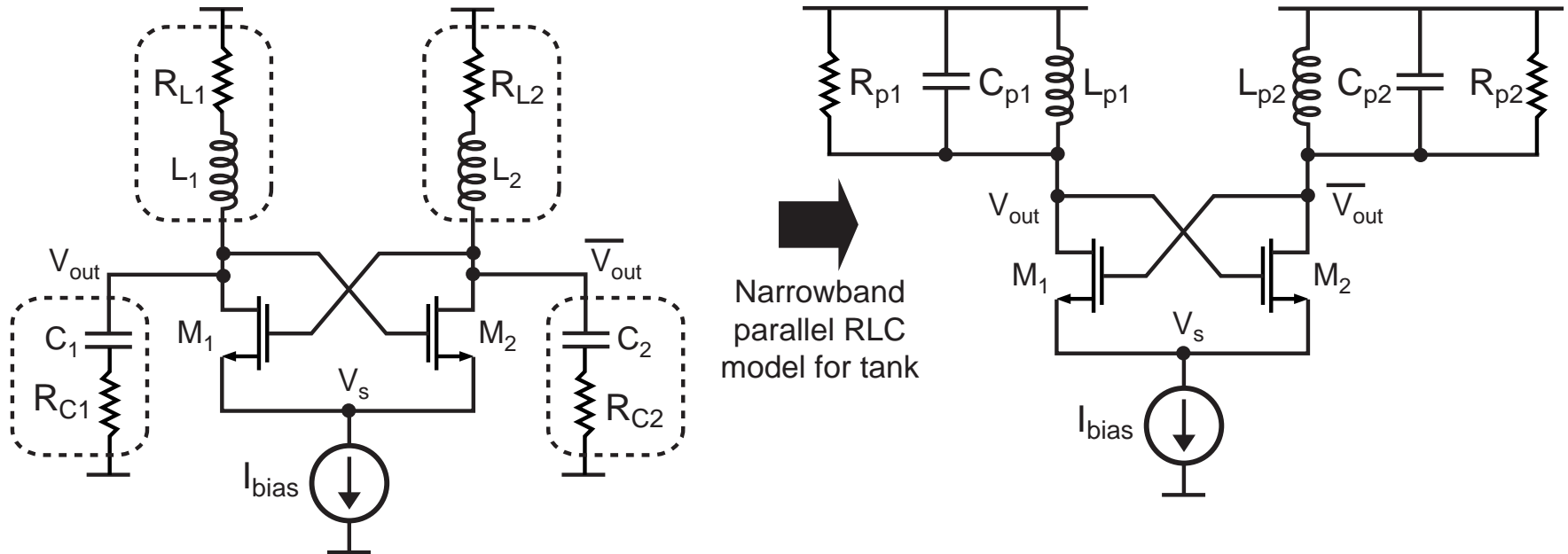
- Warning – in practice, RLC networks can have secondary (or more) resonant frequencies, which cause undesirable behavior
 - Equivalent parallel network masks this problem in hand analysis
 - Simulation will reveal the problem

VCO Example – Negative Resistance Oscillator



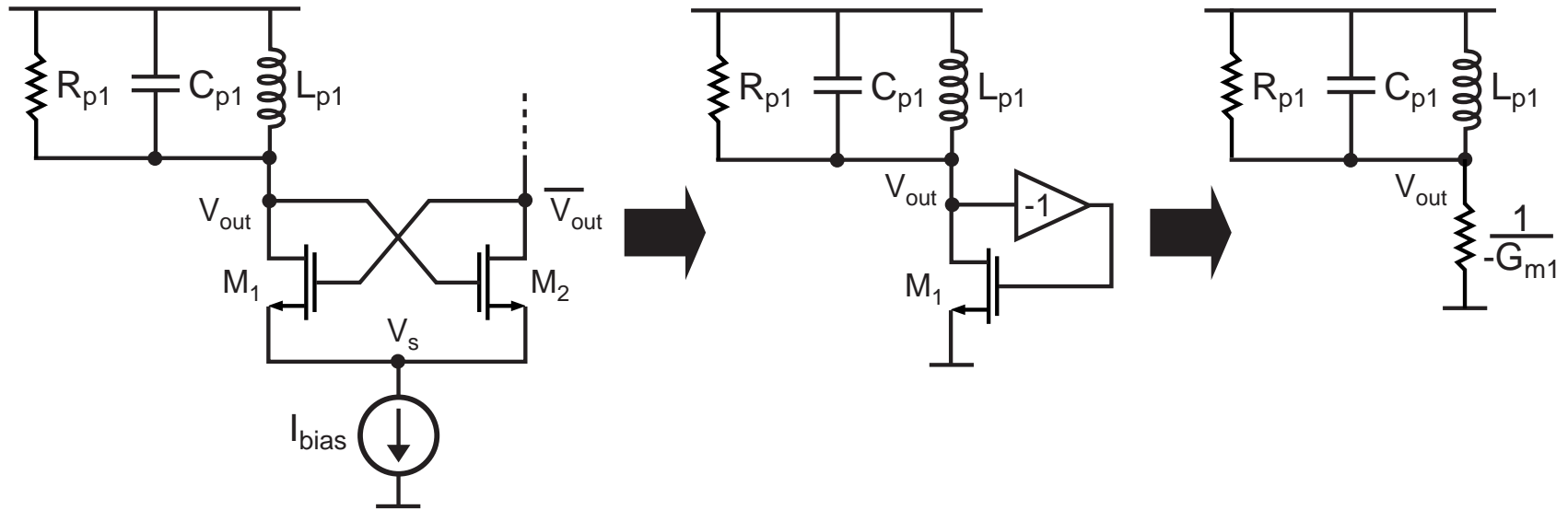
- This type of oscillator structure is quite popular in current CMOS implementations
 - Advantages
 - Simple topology
 - Differential implementation (good for feeding differential circuits)
 - Good phase noise performance can be achieved

Analysis of Negative Resistance Oscillator (Step 1)



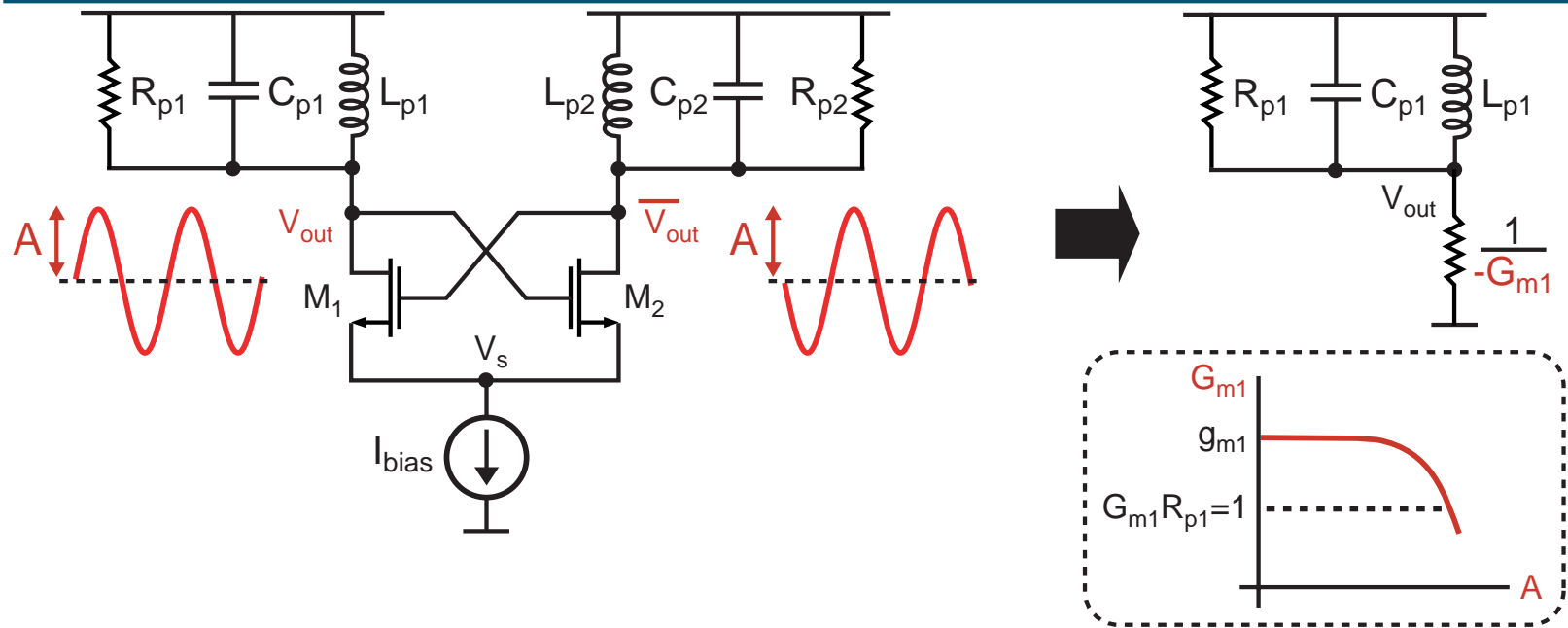
- Derive a parallel RLC network that includes the loss of the tank inductor and capacitor
 - Typically, such loss is dominated by series resistance in the inductor

Analysis of Negative Resistance Oscillator (Step 2)



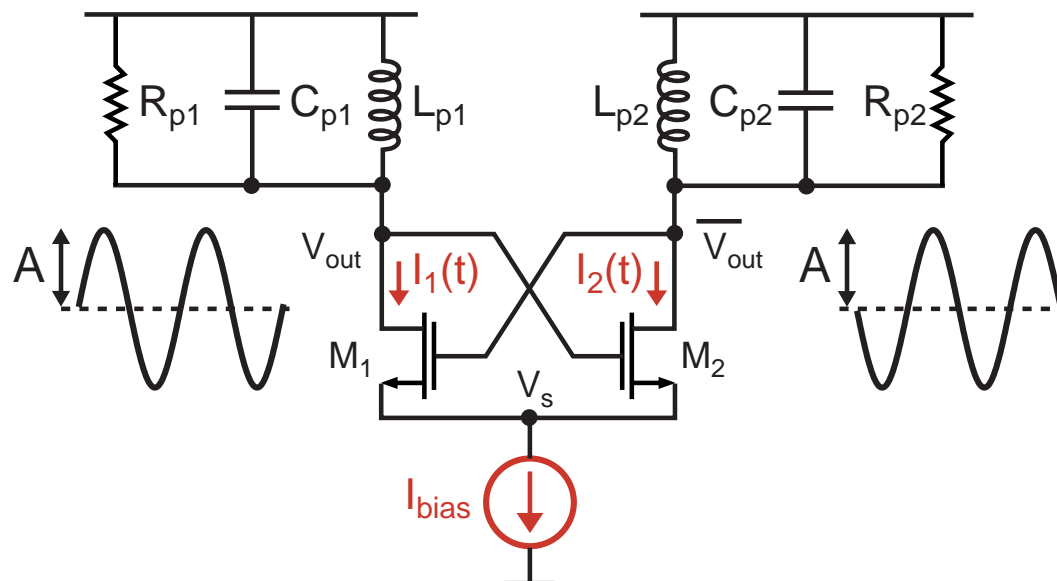
- **Split oscillator circuit into half circuits to simplify analysis**
 - Leverages the fact that we can approximate V_s as being incremental ground (this is not quite true, but close enough)
- **Recognize that we have a diode connected device with a negative transconductance value**
 - Replace with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

Design of Negative Resistance Oscillator



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

Calculation of Oscillator Swing: Max. Sinusoidal Oscillation



- If we assume the amplitude is large, I_{bias} is fully steered to one side at the peak and the bottom of the sinusoid:

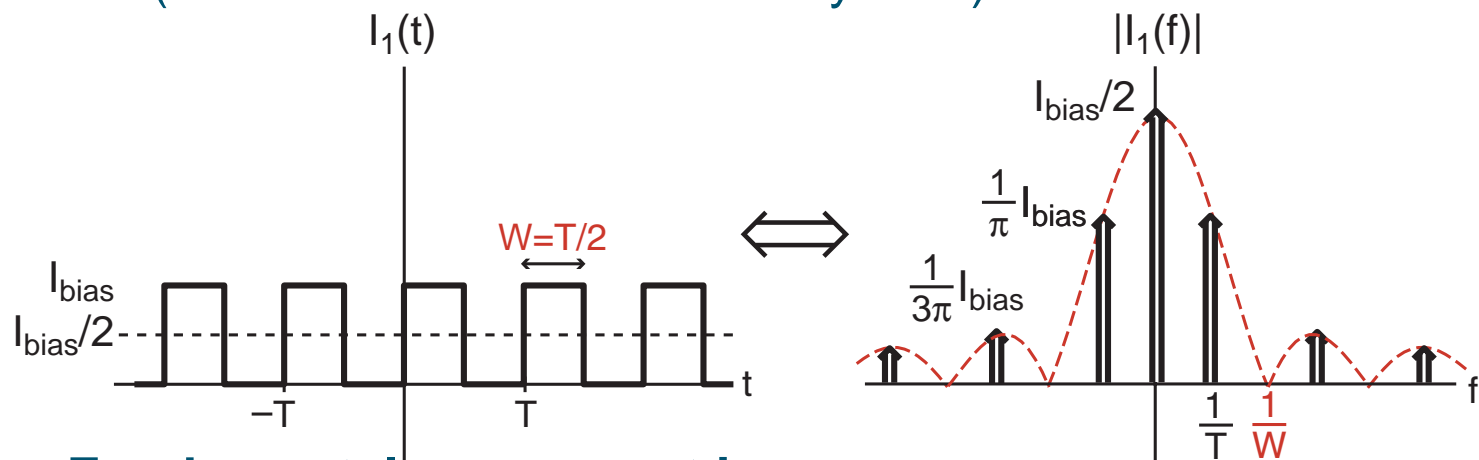
$$i_1(t), i_2(t) > 0 \quad i_1(t) + i_2(t) = I_{bias}$$

$$i_1(t) = \frac{I_{bias}}{2} (\sin \omega_o t + 1) \quad i_2(t) = \frac{I_{bias}}{2} (-\sin \omega_o t + 1)$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2} I_{bias} R_p$$

Calculation of Oscillator Swing: Squarewave Oscillation

- If amplitude is very large, we can assume $I_1(t)$ is a square wave
 - We are interested in determining fundamental component
 - (DC and harmonics filtered by tank)



- Fundamental component is

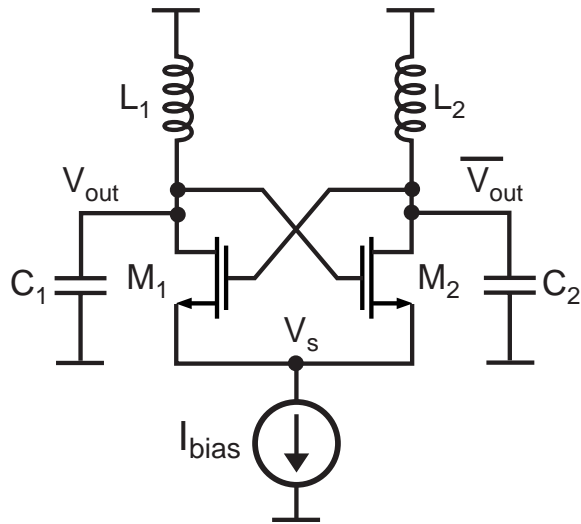
$$I_1(t) \Big|_{fund} = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{bias} \sin(\omega_o t), \quad \text{where } \omega_o = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

- Resulting oscillator amplitude

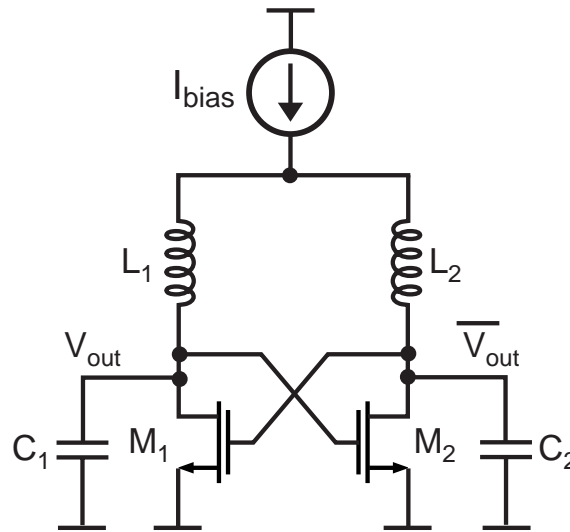
$$A = \frac{2}{\pi} I_{bias} R_p$$

Variations on a Theme

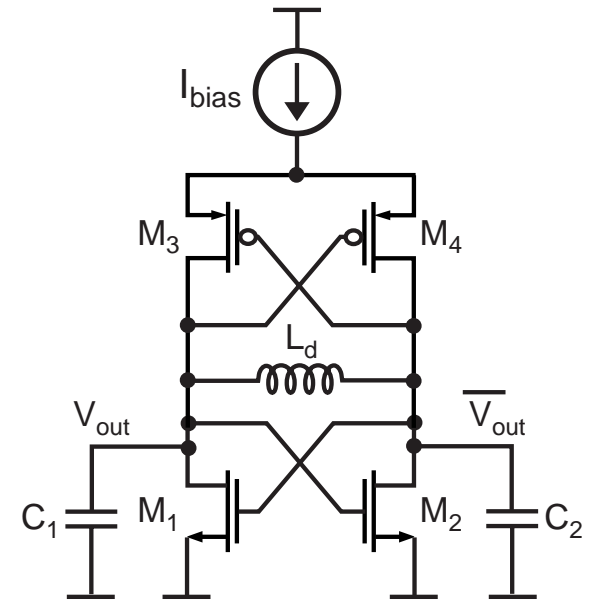
Bottom-biased NMOS



Top-biased NMOS

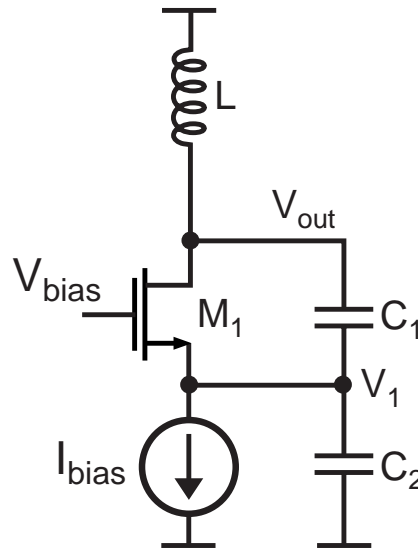


Top-biased NMOS and PMOS



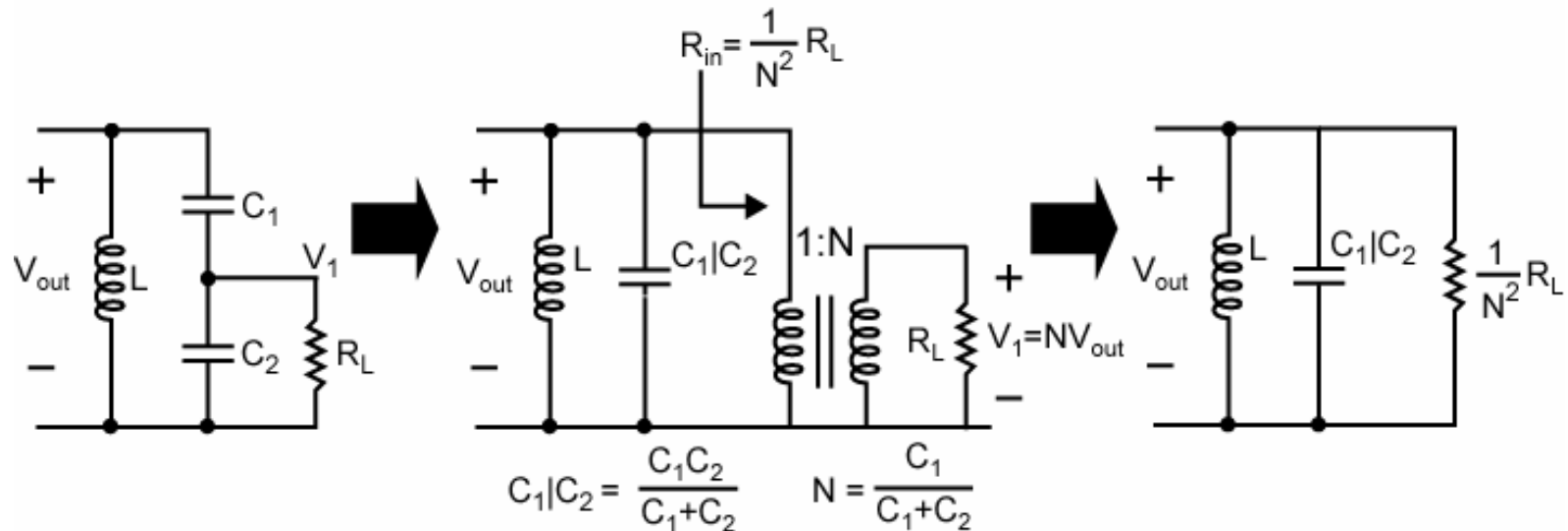
- **Biasing can come from top or bottom**
- **Can use either NMOS, PMOS, or both for transconductor**
 - Use of both NMOS and PMOS for coupled pair would appear to achieve better phase noise at a given power dissipation
 - See Hajimiri et. al, "Design Issues in CMOS Differential LC Oscillators", JSSC,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

Colpitts Oscillator



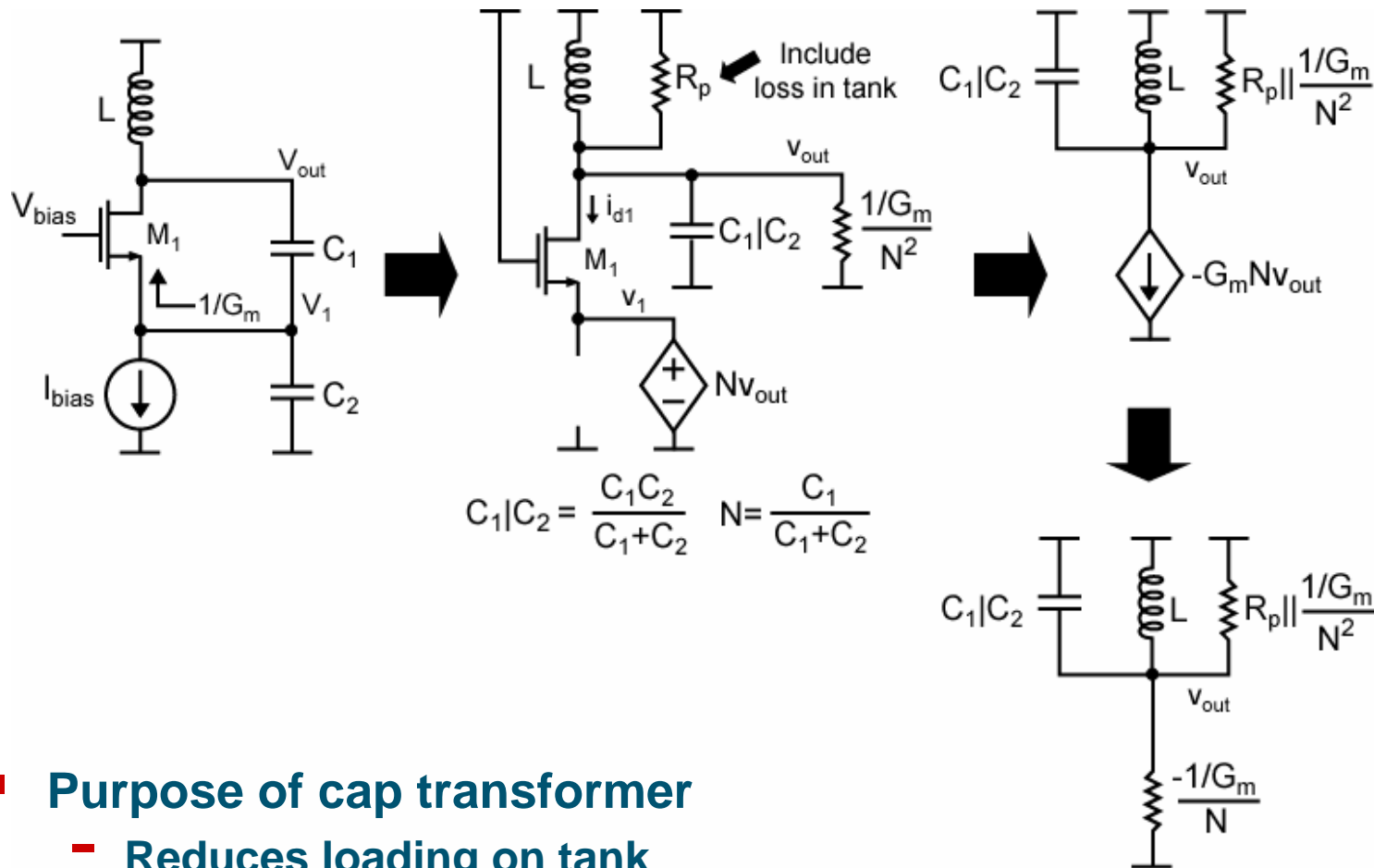
- **Carryover from discrete designs in which single-ended approaches were preferred for simplicity**
 - Achieves negative resistance with only one transistor
 - Differential structure can also be implemented, though
- **Good phase noise can be achieved, but not apparent there is an advantage of this design over negative resistance design for CMOS applications**

Analysis of Cap Transformer used in Colpitts



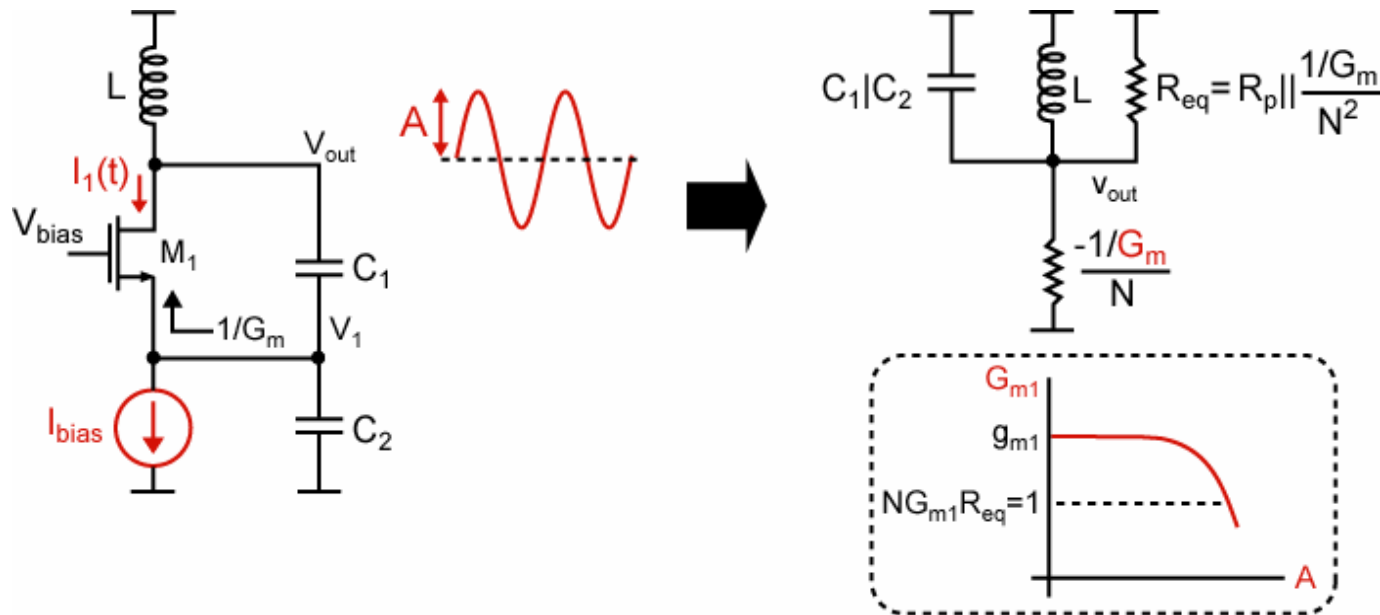
- **Voltage drop across R_L is reduced by capacitive voltage divider**
 - Assume that impedances of caps are less than R_L at resonant frequency of tank (simplifies analysis)
 - Ratio of V_1 to V_{out} set by caps and not R_L
- **Power conservation leads to transformer relationship shown (See Lecture 4)**

Simplified Model of Colpitts



- **Purpose of cap transformer**
 - Reduces loading on tank
 - Reduces swing at source node (important for bipolar version)
- **Transformer ratio set to achieve best noise performance**

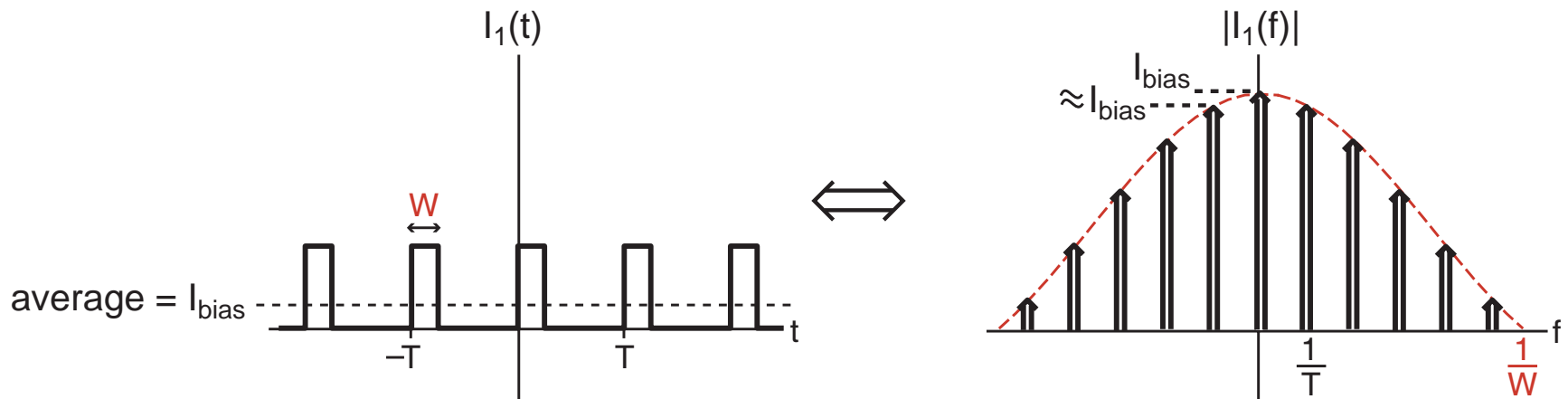
Design of Colpitts Oscillator



- Design tank for high Q
- Choose bias current (I_{bias}) for large swing (without going far into G_m saturation)
- Choose transformer ratio for best noise
 - Rule of thumb: choose $N = 1/5$ according to Tom Lee
- Choose transistor size to achieve adequately large g_{m1}

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

- $I_1(t)$ consists of pulses whose shape and width are a function of the transistor behavior and transformer ratio
 - Approximate as narrow square wave pulses with width W



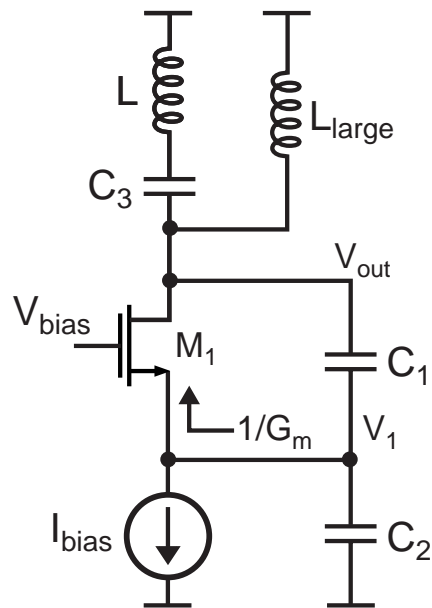
- Fundamental component is

$$I_1(t) \Big|_{fund} \approx 2I_{bias} \sin(\omega_o t), \quad \text{where } \omega_o = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

- Resulting oscillator amplitude

$$A \approx 2I_{bias} R_{eq}$$

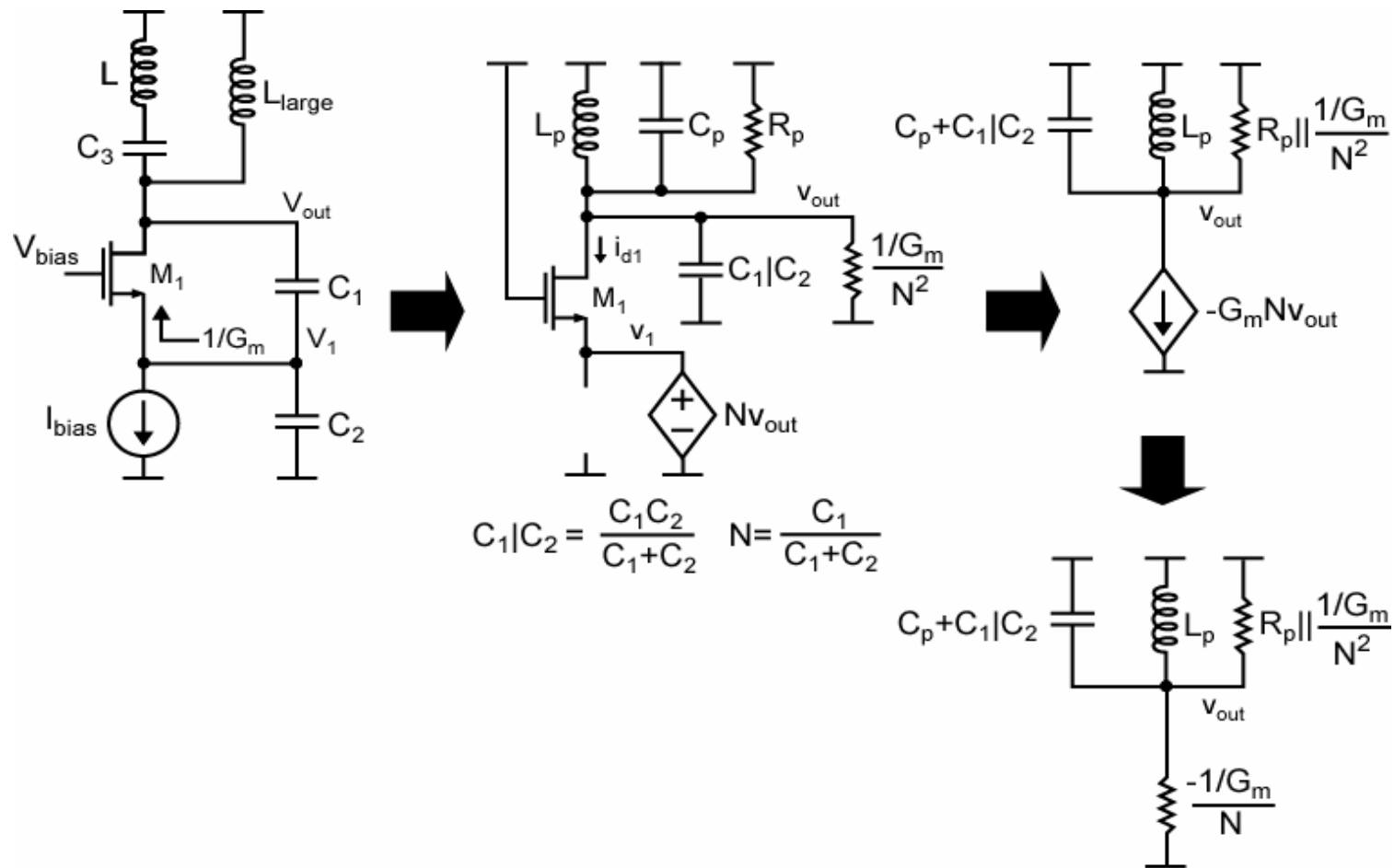
Clapp Oscillator



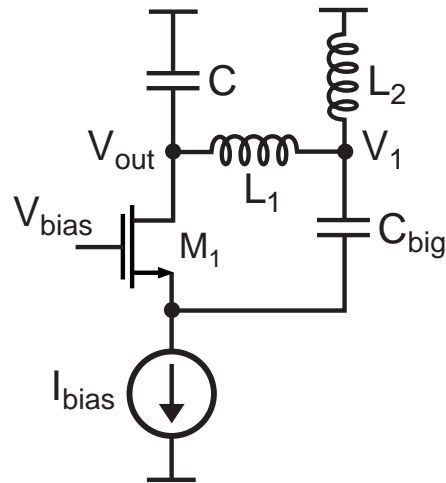
- Same as Colpitts except that inductor portion of tank is isolated from the drain of the device
 - Allows inductor voltage to achieve a larger amplitude without exceeded the max allowable voltage at the drain
 - Good for achieving lower phase noise

Simplified Model of Clapp Oscillator

- Looks similar to Colpitts model
 - Be careful of parasitic resonances!

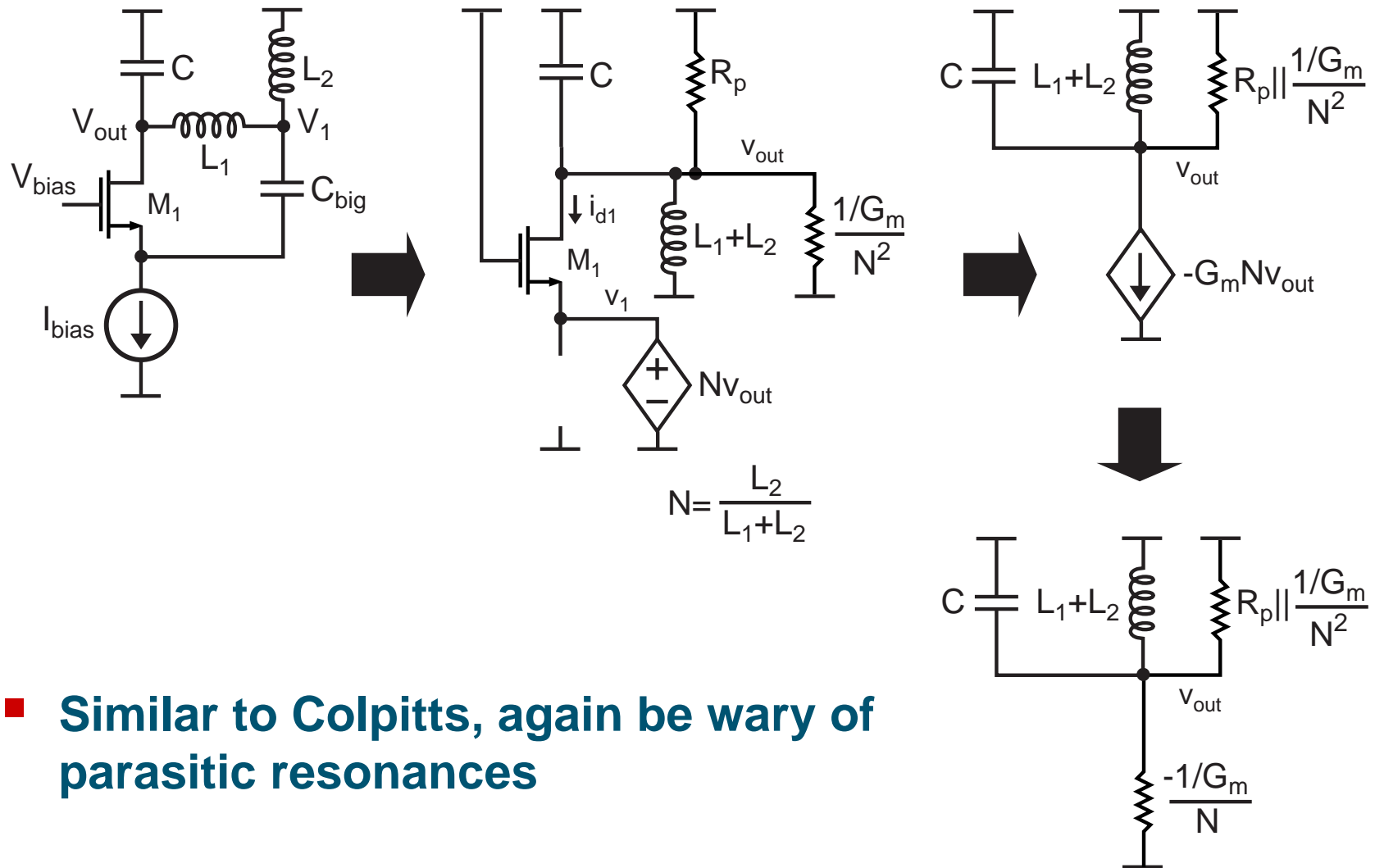


Hartley Oscillator



- Same as Colpitts, but uses a tapped inductor rather than series capacitors to implement the transformer portion of the circuit
 - Not popular for IC implementations due to the fact that capacitors are easier to realize than inductors

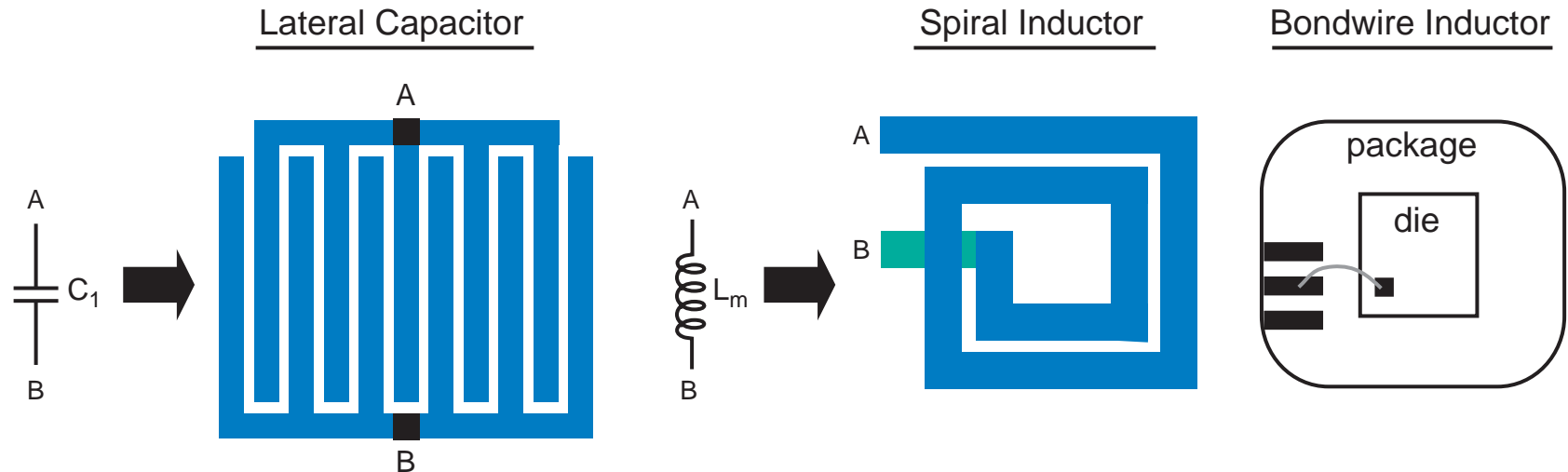
Simplified Model of Hartley Oscillator



- **Similar to Colpitts, again be wary of parasitic resonances**

Integrated Resonator Structures

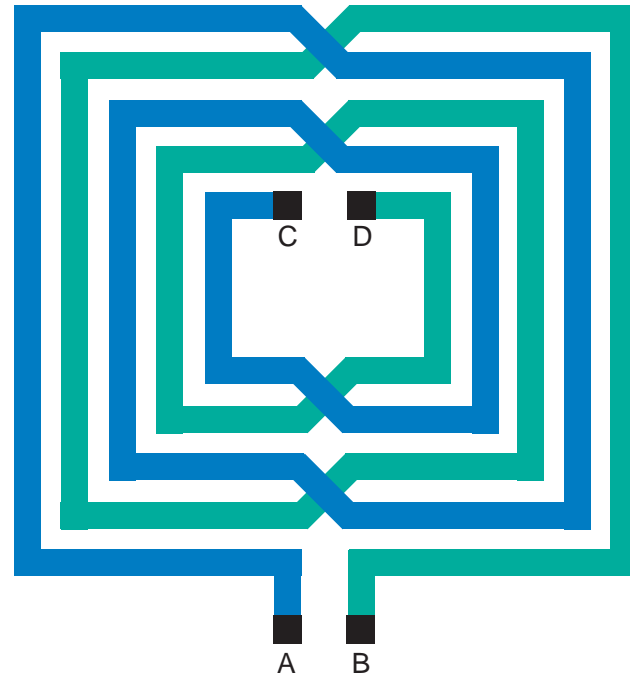
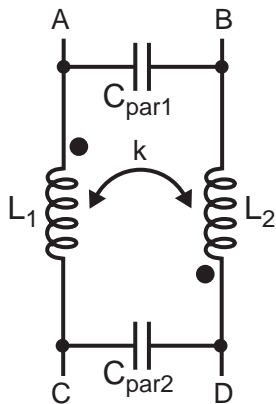
- Inductor and capacitor tank
 - Lateral caps have high Q (> 50)
 - Spiral inductors have moderate Q (5 to 10), but completely integrated and have tight tolerance ($< \pm 10\%$)
 - Bondwire inductors have high Q (> 40), but not as “integrated” and have poor tolerance ($> \pm 20\%$)
 - Note: see Lecture 6 for more info on these



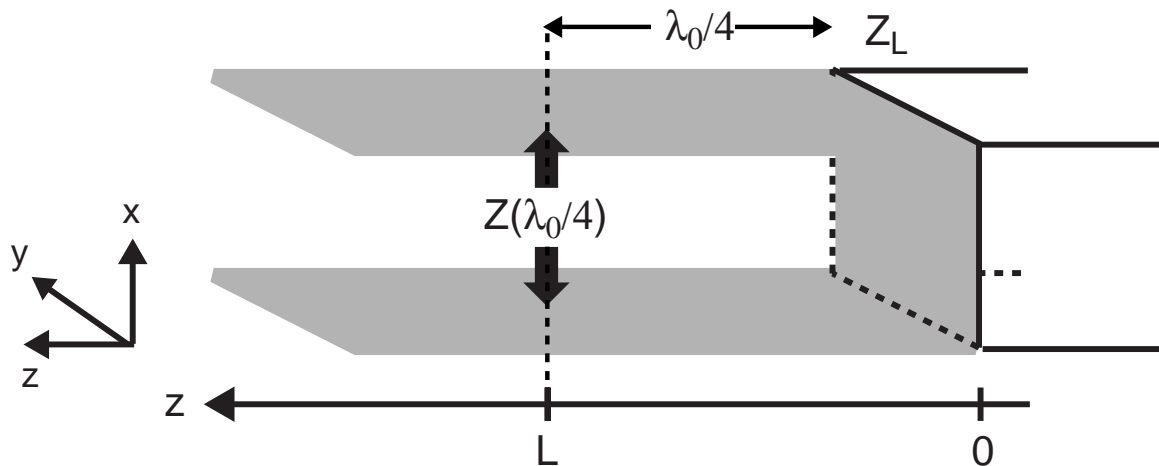
Integrated Resonator Structures

■ Integrated transformer

- Leverages self and mutual inductance for resonance to achieve higher Q
- See Straayer et. al., “A low-noise transformer-based 1.7 GHz CMOS VCO”, ISSCC 2002, pp 286-287



Quarter Wave Resonator



- Impedance calculation (from Lecture 4)

$$Z(\lambda_0/4) \approx -j \frac{2}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} \left(\frac{w_0}{\Delta w} \right)$$

- Looks like parallel LC tank!
- Benefit – very high Q can be achieved with fancy dielectric
- Negative – relatively large area (external implementation in the past), but getting smaller with higher frequencies!

Other Types of Resonators

- **Quartz crystal**
 - Very high Q, and very accurate and stable resonant frequency
 - Confined to low frequencies (< 200 MHz)
 - Non-integrated
 - Used to create low noise, accurate, “reference” oscillators
- **SAW devices**
 - Wide range of frequencies, cheap (see Lecture 9)
- **MEMS devices**
 - Cantilever beams – promise high Q, but non-tunable and haven’t made it to the GHz range, yet, for resonant frequency
 - FBAR – $Q > 1000$, but non-tunable and poor accuracy
 - Other devices are on the way!