ISTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY ★ GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SCIENCE ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY

**BANDWIDTH ENHANCEMENT TECHNIQUES
FOR CMOS TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER**

Ph.D. THESIS

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Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering

Electronics Engineering Programme

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İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ ★ FEN BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

CMOS TRANSFEREMPEDANS KUVVETLENDİRİCİNİN BANTGENİŞLİĞİ BAŞARIMINI GELİŞTİRMEYE YÖNELİK TEKNİKLER

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To my spouse and children,

FOREWORD

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ABBREVIATIONS

EMI	**:**	Electromagnetic Interference
OC	**:**	Optical Communication
LED	**:**	Light Emitting Diode
TIA	**:**	Transimpedance Amplifier
MUX	**:**	Multiplexer
DMUX	**:**	Demultiplexer
LA	**:**	Limiting Amplifier
TX	**:**	Transmitter
RX	**:**	Receiver
Gbps	**:**	Gegabits
PLL	**:**	Phase Locked Loop
CDR	**:**	Clock and Data Recovery
AGC	**:**	Automatic Gain Control
ISI	**:**	Inter Symbol Interference
FoM	**:**	Figure of Merit
BW	**:**	Bandwidth
CMOS	**:**	Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor
C_{pd}	**:**	Photodiode Capacitance
Q	**:**	Gain Peaking
C	**:**	Capacitor
L	**:**	Inductor
R	**:**	Resistor
G_m	**:**	Transconductance
RGC	**:**	Regulated Cascode
CHRT	**:**	Chartered Semiconductor Manufacturing
RTRN	**:**	Reverse Triple Resonance Network
VLSI	**:**	Very Large Scale Integration
IC	**:**	Integrated Circuit
SOC	**:**	System On Chip
Z_{TIA}	**:**	Transimpedance Gain
$\tau_g(f)$	**:**	Group Delay
$\overline{i_n^2}$	**:**	Input Referred Noise Current
CG	**:**	Common Gate
CS	**:**	Common Source
A	**:**	DC Voltage Gain
CHT	**:**	Cherry Hooper Topology
ω	**:**	Cut-Off Frequency
η	**:**	Bandwidth Improvement Factor

L_M	:	Mutual Inductance
τ	:	Time Constant
DA	:	Distributed Amplifier
NI	:	Negative Impedance
p	:	Pole
C_{gs}	:	Gate-Source Capacitance
AI	:	Active Inductor
g	:	Conductance
T	:	Temperature (Kelvin)
γ	:	Bias Dependent Factor
k_B	:	Boltzmann's Constant
g_{d0}	:	Zero Bias of Transconductance
δ	:	Gate Noise Factor
RF	:	Radio Frequency

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BANDWIDTH ENHANCEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR CMOS TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER

SUMMARY

The accelerated development of integrated systems in the communication technology and their application are among the significant technologies that have developed the information era by empowering high-speed computation and communication technique besides high-speed access to stored data. The continuous growth demand for high-speed transport of information has rekindled optical communications, leading to derived research on high-speed device and integrated circuit design. Among the available medium to transfer the data, optical fibers have the best performance. Optical fibers are very common these days to transport very high rate digital data. Such high speed data rates can be transported over kilometers of optical fiber and without significant loss. Normally loss is very low when the signal is transmitted using light rather than electrical signal. These fibers also have the advantage of being low cost in addition to improvement of performance. In state-of-the-art technology, fiber optic devices and systems are evidently employed to realize very high data rates. Fiber optic communication is a solution because high data rates can be transmitted through this high capacity cable with high performance.

Traditionally, analog circuits used in optical communication systems are implemented using Gallium Arsenide (GaAs) or Indium Phosphide (InP) technologies. These processes are designed for high speed circuits, and have been traditionally the only technologies able to produce the high bandwidth circuits required in optical communication systems. However, due to the aggressive scaling of the CMOS process, it is now becoming possible to design high performance analog circuits in CMOS. The primary advantage of moving to a CMOS process is a dramatic reduction in cost due to its widespread use in high volume digital circuits. Another advantage of using CMOS is its ability to integrate digital and analog circuits onto the same substrate.

Transimpedance amplifier (TIAs) is the first building block in the optical communication receiver that converts the small signal current to a corresponding output voltage signal. The important requirements of a typical TIA are large bandwidth, high transimpedance gain, low noise, low power consumption, and small group delay variation.

Current developments in nanoscale technologies made it economically feasible to design CMOS transimpedance amplifier (TIA) that satisfies the stringent performances necessary for the front-end optical transceivers applications such as low power, low cost and high integration which offers the most economical solution in the consumer application market.

In designing of TIA, the two major factors that must be considered are the bandwidth and the input sensitivity. The bandwidth of TIA is usually limited by the parasitic

capacitance at the input stage, and it can be calculated by its RC time constant contributed by photodiode capacitance, parasitic capacitance and input resistance of the amplifier. The sensitivity is affected by the input current noise of the TIA. Therefore it is challenge to choose the suitable circuit topology that provides an optimal trade-off between bandwidth and input signal sensitivity for TIA.

This thesis is an attempt toward providing novel techniques to extend the bandwidth of the transimpedance amplifier using CMOS technology. Different approaches used to improve the bandwidth of CMOS TIAs are covered. Moreover, this research provides the necessary background knowledge to fully understand the analysis and design of the transimpedance amplifier (TIA).

Bridging the gap between system and circuit design is done by: Understanding the bandwidth expansion by mathematical analysis. Introducing new circuit architectures that can be realized. Demonstrating implementation of the proposed designs using extensive simulations in CMOS technology.

It is shown in this thesis that, using a negative impedance NI circuit can be used for bandwidth extension. In our application, the negative impedance is incorporated into the output pole of TIA. The bandwidth can be improved by increasing the gain ($A = g_m R_{out}$) and by maintaining the same time constant at the output pole. A better gain A can be obtained if the output resistance R_{out} is increased. Increasing R_{out} can be done by placing a negative resistance R_{IN} in parallel with the output resistance R_{out}. In order to maintain the same time constant at the output node, a negative capacitance can be used. It have been reported that, the shunt feedback architecture is used to improve the bandwidth of TIA. Increasing the gain A effectively decreases the input resistance and hence increase the frequency of the input pole due to feedback. As a result, an improvement of the bandwidth can be obtained. Using the proposed topology, a wide band transimpedance amplifier with a bandwidth of 7 GHz and transimpedance gain of 54.3 $dB\Omega$ is achieved. The total power consumption of the proposed TIA from the 1.8 V power supply is 29 mW . The TIA is designed in 0.18 μm CMOS technology. The simulated input referred noise current spectral density is 5.9 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ and the TIA occupies $230\mu m \times 45\mu m$ of area.

Furthermore, a wide band TIA is designed using the matching technique. It is shown that by simultaneously using of series input matching topology and T-output matching network, the bandwidth of the TIA can be obviously improved. This methodology is supported by a design example in a 0.18 μm CMOS technology. The post layout simulation results show a bandwidth of 20 GHz with 50 fF photodiode capacitance, a transimpedance gain of 52.6 $dB\Omega$, 11 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ input referred noise and group delay less than 8.3 ps. The TIA dissipates 1.3 mW from a 1.8 V supply voltage.

In addition, a new design possessing to extend the bandwidth of the TIA is presented. This TIA employs a parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies on the conventional regulated common gate (RGC) architecture. In the proposed TIA, a capacitance degeneration and series inductive peaking technique are used for pole-zero elimination. The TIA is implemented in a 0.18 μm CMOS process, where a 100 fF photodiode is considered. The post layout simulation results show a transimpedance gain of 53 $dB\Omega$ transimpedance gain along with a 13 GHz bandwidth. The designed TIA consumes 11 mW from a 1.8 V supply, and its group-delay variation is 5 ps with 24 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ input referred noise.

In the last phase of the work, a technique to enhance the bandwidth of the regulated common gate (RCG) transimpedance amplifier is described. The technique is based on using a cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network. In order to verify the operation and the performance of the proposed technique, a CMOS design example is designed using the $0.18\mu m$ CMOS process technology. The post layout simulation results show that, the proposed TIA achieved a bandwidth of 8.4 GHz, a transimpedance gain of 51.3 $dB\Omega$ and input referred noise current spectral density of 20 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. The average group-delay variation is 4 ps over the bandwidth and the TIA consumes 17.8 mW from a 1.8 V supply.

To sum up, this thesis focuses on various design techniques of transimpedance amplifier (TIA) that improves the bandwidth performance. We believe that, our approaches and techniques exhibit a path which other future researchers can follow and as well refer to as their researching domain and also could be used in their research applications.

CMOS TRANSFEREMPEDANS KUVVETLENDİRİCİNİN BANTGENİŞLİĞİ BAŞARIMINI GELİŞTİRMEYE YÖNELİK TEKNİKLER

ÖZET

Bandwidth Enhancment techniques for CMOS Transimpedance amplifier

CMOS Transferempedans Kuvvetlendiricinin bandgenişliği başarımını geliştirmeye yönelik teknikler haberleşme teknolojisinde ve uygulamalarında ortaya çıkan hızlı gelişmeler ve uygulamalar verilere hızlı erişim avantajı yanında hızlı hesaplama ve haberleşme tekniklerine imkan veren bir bilgi çağını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sürekli artan hızlı bilgi transferi ihtiyacı, hızlı elemanların ve tümdevrelerin tasarımına yönelik araştırmalara liderlik eden optik haberleşme tekniğini doğurmuştur.

Veri iletimi için mevcut ortamlar arasında optik fiber yapıları en iyi başarımı sunmaktadır. Günümüzde optik fiberler çok yoğun sayısal veri transferinde geniş kullanım alanı bulmaktadır. Yoğun veri aktarımı kilometrelerce uzunlukta optik fiberler üzerinde önemli bir kayıp olmaksızın yapılabilmektedir. Normal şartlarda, işaret aktarımının ışık ile yapılması durumunda ortaya çıkan kayıp elektriksel yolla yapılan aktarıma gore daha düşüktür. Optik fiberler genel başarımı iyileştirmenin yanında düşük maliyet avantajını da sunmaktadır. En yüksek teknolojilerde, optik fiber elemanları ve sistemleri çok yoğun veri aktarımı amacıyla kullanılmaktadır. Sonuç olarak optik fiber teknolojisi düşük kayıpla çok yoğun veri aktarımını az maliyetle sunabilen bir teknoloji olarak günümüzde çok önemli bir konuma sahiptir.

Genel olarak, optik haberleşme sistemlerinde kullanılan analog devreler Galyum Arsenik (GaAs) veya İndiyum Fosfid (InP) teknolojileri ile üretilmektedir. Bu prosesler yüksek hızlı devreler için oluşturulmakta olup optik haberleşme sistemlerinin ihtiyaç duyduğu yüksek band genişliğine sahip devreleri üretmek için genellikle tek alternatif olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadırlar. Bununla birlikte, CMOS proseslerinde ortaya çıkan hızlı gelişmeler sayesinde daha yüksek başarımlara sahip analog devreleri CMOS proses kullanarak tasarlama ve gerçekleştirme imkanları gittikçe artmaktadır. CMOS prosesin tercih edilmesine sebep olan en önemli avantaj maliyetlerde ortaya çıkan büyük düşüştür. CMOS proseslerin maliyetinin düşük olmasının sebebi, büyük alan kullanımı gerektiren sayısal devre gerçekleştirmelerinde çok geniş bir kullanıma sahip olmasıdır. CMOS prosesin diğer bir avantajı sayısal ve analog devrelerin aynı taban üzerinde gerçekleştirilmesine imkan vermesidir.

Transferempedans kuvvetlendirici (TIA) optik haberleşme alıcılarındaki ilk blok olup girişindeki akımı çıkışında gerilime dönüştürmektedir. Tipik bir TIA'nın önemli başarım ihtiyaçları geniş bandgenişliği, yüksek transferempedans kazancı, düşük gürültü, düşük güç tüketimi ve küçük grup geçikme değişim aralığıdır.

Nano teknolojilerdeki güncel gelişmeler, optik alıcıların giriş katı uygulamalarında gerekli kolay bir şekilde elde edilemeyen başarımları sağlayabilen CMOS Transferempedans Kuvvetlendiricinin (TIA) tasarımını ekonomik hale getirmiştir.

TIA tasarımında dikkat edilmesi gereken iki önemli mesele bandgenişliği ve giriş hassasiyetidir. TIA'nın bandgenişliği genellikle girişteki parasitic kapasite tarafından sınırlanmaktadır. TIA'nın bandgenişliği fotodiyot kapasitesi, transistor giriş kapasitesi ve transistor giriş direncinin belirlediği RC zaman sabiti ile bulunabilir. Giriş hassasiyeti ise TIA'nın giriş gürültü akımından etkilenmektedir. Bundan dolayı TIA'nın bandgenişliği ve giriş işareti hassasiyeti başarımlarını optimum bir şekilde temin eden uygun devre topolojisinin belirlenmesi önemli bir meseledir.

Bu tez, CMOS teknolojisi kullanan Transferempedans Kuvvetlendiricinin band-genişliği başarımını geliştirmeye yönelik yeni teknikler sunan bir çalışmadır. CMOS TIA'nın bandgenişliği başarımını iyileştirmeye yönelik farklı yaklaşımlar tez içerisinde gösterilmektedir.

Bundan başka, bu çalışma transferempedansı kuvvetlendiricinin analizini ve tasarımını tam olarak anlamak için gerekli altyapı bilgisini de sunmaktadır. Bu tezde, sistemle devre tasarımı arasındaki boşluğu doldurmak için şunlar yapılmıştır: - Band genişliği başarımının arttırılmasının matematiksel analizlerle anlaşılması. - Gerçekleştirilebilir yeni devre yapılarının tanıtılması. - Teklif edilen tasarımların CMOS teknolojisiyle gerçekleştirilebilirliğinin kapsamlı ve detaylı simülasyonlar kullanılarak gösterilmesi.

Sunulan yeni devre yapılarının ilki olarak, negatif empedans devresinin bandgenişliği artışı için kullanılabileceği bu tezde gösterilmiş olup bu teknik bu tezde TIA'nın çıkış kutpu için uygulanmaktadır. Bandgenişliği, kazancı (gmRout) arttırarak ve çıkışta aynı zaman sabiti korunarak arttırılabilir. Çıkış direnci arttırılarak kazanç (A) yükseltilebilir. Çıkış direnci çıkışa uygulanacak bir negative direnç devresi ile arttırılabilir. Çıkışta aynı zaman sabitini korumak için ise negatif kapasite devresi kullanılabilir. Daha yüksek kazanç değeri (A) rezistif geribesleme sayesinde giriş direncini azaltarak giriş kutbunun yükselmesini sağlamaktadır. Sonuç olarak, bandgenişliği başarımında bir iyileştirme elde edilebilmektedir. Teklif edilen topoloji ile 7GHz bandgenişliğine ve 54.3dB'lik kazanca sahip bir TIA tasarlanmıştır. Teklif edilen TIA'nın 1.8V'luk besleme kaynağından çektiği toplam güç 29mW'tır. Teklif edilen TIA'nın 0.18um CMOS proses ile post-serimi yapılmıştır. Benzetimle elde edilmiş giriş gürültü akım yoğunluğu 5.9pA/ Hz olup kapladığı alan 230umX45um olmuştur.

Tezde bir sonraki çalışmada eşleştirme tekniği kullanılarak geniş bantlı bşr TIA tasarlanmıştır. Girişte seri empedans eşleştirme tekniği ve çıkışta T tipi eşleştirme yapısı birlikte kullanılarak TIA'nın bandgenişliği başarımının iyi bir düzeyde iyileştirilebileceği gösterilmiştir. Bu yaklaşım 0.18um CMOS teknolojisi ile yapılmış bir tasarım örneği ile desteklenmiştir. Post serim sonuçları 50fF'lık bir fotodiyot kapasitesi için 20GHz'lik bandgenişliği, 52.6dB'lik transferdirenci kazancı, 8.7pA/ Hz 'lik giriş gürültü akımı ve 3pS'den daha az grup geçikmesi başarımılarını vermiştir. Bu TIA uygulaması 1.8V'luk besleme kaynağından 1.3mW güç çekmiştir.

Tezin üçüncü aşamasında TIA band genişliği başarımını arttırmaya yönelik başka bir yapı sunulmaktadır. Bu yapı, literatürde bilinen regule edilmiş ortak geçitli mimari ile birlikte farklı rezonans frekanslarına sahip iki rezonans devresinin paralel kullanımını içermektedir. Teklif edilen TIA devresinde, kapasite dejenarasyon ve seri endüktif tepe teknikleri kutup-sıfır kompanzasyonu için kullanılmıştır. 100fF'lık fotodiyot kapasitesine sahip bir TIA 0.18um CMOS prosesi ili tasarlanmıştır. Post-serim sonuçları 13GHz'lik bandgenişliği, 53dB'lik transferdirenci kazancı, 24pA/ Hz 'lik

giriş gürültü akımı ve 5pS'den daha az grup geçikmesi başarımılarını vermiştir. Bu TIA uygulaması 1.8V'luk besleme kaynağından 11mW güç çekmiştir.

Tezin dördüncü aşamasında, regule edilmiş ortak geçitli mimari kullanan TIA'nın bandgenişliği başarımını arttırmaya yönelik bir teknik tanıtılmıştır. Bu teknik, resistif kompanzasyon tekniğini ve merdiven eşleştirme yapısını bir kaskod akım kaynağı ile birlikte kullanmaya dayanmaktadır. Bu yapının başarımını göstermek amacıyla, 0.18um CMOS prosesi ile bir tasarım yapılmıştır. Post-serim sonuçları 8.4GHz'lik bandgenişliği, 51.3dB'lik transferdirenci kazancı, 20pA/ Hz 'lik giriş gürültü akımı ve 4pS'den daha az grup geçikmesi başarımılarını vermiştir. Bu TIA uygulaması 1.8V'luk besleme kaynağından 17.8mW güç çekmiştir.

Tezin son aşamasında, tezde sunulan teknikler ve yapıların kendi aralarında karşılaştırılması verilmektedir. Karşılaştırma öncelikli olarak band genişliği, transferempedansı kazancı, gürültü, güç tüketimi, grup geçikme değişim aralığı ve kapladığı alan için yapılmaktadır. Bunlara ek olarak, sunulan yapıların kullandığı tekniklerin avantajlı yanları ile birlikte (kararlılık üzerinde oluşabilecek negatif etkiler gibi) dezavantajlı tarafları da tezin son aşamasında verilmektedir.

Tezin son aşamasında yapılan karşılaştırmalar, en iyi bant genişliği başarımının eşleştirme tekniğini kullanan yapıdan elde edildiğini göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte diğer yapıların da band genişliği başarımı üzerinde önemli iyileştirmeler yaptığı ortaya konulmaktadır. Gürültü açısından ise en yüksek başarımın negatif empedans tekniğini kullanan yapıda elde edildiği görülmektedir. Bu yapı aynı zamanda düşük alan kullanımı imkanı da sunmaktadır. Tezde sunulan diğer iki yapı ise özellikle yüksek değerli fotodiyot kapasiteleri için incelenmiş olup band genişliği başarımı üzerinde önemli iyileştirmeler yaptıkları gösterilmektedir.

Sonuç olarak, bu tezde transferempedans kuvvetlendiricinin bandgenişliği başarımını iyileştiren farklı teknikler sunulmakta olup bu teknikler ayrıntılı ve karşılaştırmalı olarak incelenmektedir. Tezde verilen sonuçlar sunulan yeni tekniklerin başarımlarının yüksek olduğunu ve literature yeni ve güçlü alternatfiler sunulduğunu göstermektedir. Tezde sunulan yaklaşımların ve tekniklerin gelecekte yapılacak benzer araştırmalara hem yardımcı olacak hem de referans olacak nitelikte olduğu düşünülmektedir.

1. INTRODUCTION

Integrated systems are among the significant technologies that have developed the information era by empowering high-speed computation and communication technique besides high-speed access to stored data. The continuous growth demand for high-speed transport of information has rekindled optical communications, leading to derived research on high-speed device and integrated circuit design [11].

Nowadays, improvement of faster communication channels is driven by propagation of the Internet, high-speed microprocessors, and low-cost memory. Moreover, optical fiber communication also has enormous attraction because of its advantages over electrical communication, such as data transmission capacity, smaller and lighter which reduces the cost of laying of the cable, low power consumption, more safety , better security, less cross-talk, and lower electromagnetic interference (EMI) [12].

Optical communication systems have been used to transfer data in past decades and are still dominant today due to the creation and development of wideband semiconductor lasers, low-loss fibers, fast photodetectors, and other high quality optoelectronic elements [13].

The main objective of an optical communication (OC) network is to transmit a huge data over a long distance from a transmitter to a receiver by sending pulses of light through an optical fiber. The simple OC system composes of three main blocks: a transmitter, an optical fiber, and a receiver as shown in Figure1.1.

- The transmitter generates the optical signal by converting the electrical signal to optical information as light pulses. The light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and laser diodes are most commonly devices used as transmitter.

- The receiver converts the light pulses back to electrical current pulses. The photodetector is the main device of the optical receiver.

- Optical fiber transports the optical data over the significant distance.
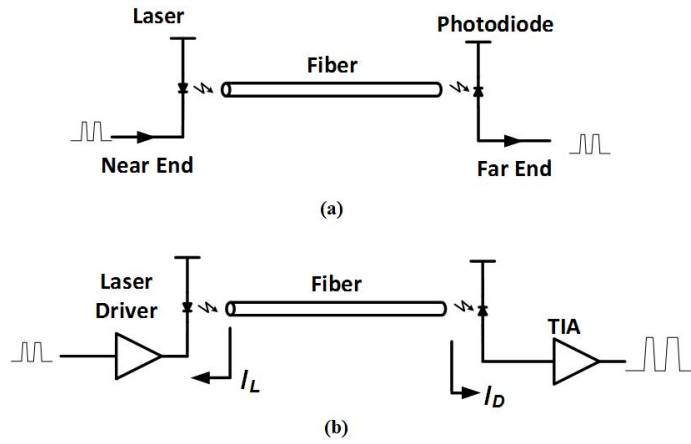
Figure 1.1 : (a) Simple optical system, (b) addition of driver and amplifier [1].

Due to long or low quality optical fiber, the optical signal attenuates significantly, as it transfers from one end to the other end and large a part of the optical power disappears. Therefore, to obtain better performance of an OC, auxiliary building blocks are used such as laser driver, transimpedance amplifier (TIA), multiplexer (MUX), demultiplexer (DMUX) , phase locked loop [1].

A laser driver is used to provide large current to the laser and to amplify the laser output. A transimpedance amplifier (TIA) amplifies the electrical current with sufficient bandwidth, converting it to a voltage for further signal processing in the subsequent stages, with small noise as possible.

Generally, the TIA output signal is smaller than the logic level (approximately $500\,mV\,p-p$). So extra amplification is placed in the form of a limiting amplifier (LA). After boosting the received signal to detectable logic levels, the noise is removed by a decision circuit. The decision circuit is triggered by a clock and data recovery circuit which creates a clock signal from the received data.

The complete optical communication system is shown in Figure1.2. The MUX is used in the transmitter (TX) to convert low speed "parallel" channels to a high speed serial data stream. Meanwhile, The DMUX is used in the receiver (RX) to regenerate received serial data stream from original parallel channels. The phase locked loop (PLL) creates a number of clock pulses to control the MUX.

At the receiver end limiting amplifier (LA) follows the TIA is used to amplify the output voltage of the TIA to the logical level. In additional, over, a clean-up flip-flop is placed between the LA and the DMUX to minimize the corruption of received signal
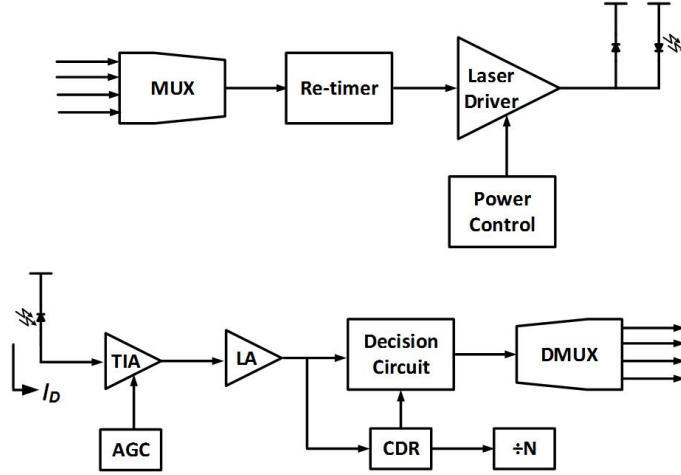
Figure 1.2 : Basic Optical Communication System [1].

and circuit noise. The clock and data recovery" (CDR) is used to generate the clock from the received signal. An automatic gain control (AGC) is employed to obtain better performance of the TIA.

1.1 CMOS transimpedance amplifier (TIA)

Wideband amplifiers are one of the most important building blocks of any optical communication system mainly, all amplifiers in the signal path, as the transimpedance amplifier (TIA) which typically affects cost and determines the overall optical link performance as speed, signal-to-noise ratio, and sensitivity [14, 15].

The main purpose of TIA is to amplify the small current received from the photodiode and convert it to a voltage signal. There are important parameters in the design of transimpedance amplifiers such as bandwidth, gain, noise, power, and supply voltage. The TIA should have high bandwidth to avoid inter symbol interference (ISI). The input current to the TIA is very small and therefore the gain should be high enough to be able to produce an acceptable voltage level for the limiting amplifier. This voltage is in the level of few mili-volts. Since the input current of TIA is very low, in order to achieve high signal to noise ratio, the input referred noise of TIA must be low. So that, the TIA is a wideband, high gain, and low noise amplifier with low power consumption and low supply voltage [16, 17]. In conclusion, design of TIA requires the trade-off a number of contradictory performance metrics including gain, bandwidth, noise, and power consumption which is a big challenge for analog circuit designers. In current to voltage amplifiers (TIAs), the figure of merit (FoM) is the

3

tansimpedance bandwidth product (ZBW). This means that the ZBW is traded off against the bandwidth (BW). Bandwidth is defined as the upper frequency for which the transimpedance gain rolls off 3dB below its midband value. Bandwidth is usually determined by the total capacitance contributed by the photodiode, the transimpedance amplifier and other parasitic elements present at the optical front-end [18].

Equally important as a large output impedance for amplifier circuits is a small input impedance. This is because a low input impedance reduces the loading-induced current error [19]. Also, in applications such as data links over wire channels, a low input impedance of the receivers is critical to increase the pole frequency at the input as the channels often have a large capacitance. Reduction of the input-capacitance helps to improve the bandwidth.

1.2 Literature summery of CMOS TIAs

Current developments in nanoscale technologies made it economically feasible to design CMOS transimpedance amplifier (TIA) that satisfies the stringent performances necessary for the front-end optical transceivers applications [20].

The bandwidth requirements of such transimpedance amplifiers continuously improve following the drive for higher speed systems. While device scaling maintains to deliver faster transistors with higher cut-off frequencies, it is still necessary to expand the bandwidth of amplifiers using circuit techniques that allow us to do so for a given process technology. For the CMOS TIA, the circuit bandwidth is basically limited by the intrinsic capacitances of the transistors. Over the last few decades; several bandwidth extension techniques have been developed to improve the bandwidth of TIAs. The main design concept in these techniques is all related to how to reduce the impact of the parasitic capacitances on the circuit.

Three approaches, namely current-mode signaling, inductive peaking, and distributed amplification, are widely used to improve the bandwidth of circuits [21]. Current mode circuits offer an improved bandwidth because it has low nodal impedances which decreases time constants of the circuits. In addition the low voltage swing reduces the time required to charge and discharge the nodes of the circuits [21, 22].

The bandwidth or speed of a circuit is set by the time constant of the critical node of the circuit. An effective way to minimize the effect of the large shunt capacitance of the critical node is to break the large shunt capacitor into several smaller shunt capacitors and separate them with inductors such that the large shunt capacitor is replaced with a distributed LC network or a transmission line [21,22].

Analui [23] has proposed a technique to isolate between different stages of an amplifier by using a passive matching networks at the input and output, as well as between the gain stages of the amplifier to enhance the bandwidth. The proposed passive network is an inductor and it forms a ladder filter with the parasitic capacitances of devices. The TIA achieves a 3-dB bandwidth of 9.2 GHz, transimpedance gain of 54dB Ω. This circuit has been implemented in 0.18 μm BICMOS process using CMOS transistors. The amount of PD capacitance has been considered 500 fF.

Chien and Chan [24, 25] proposed a bandwidth enhancement of TIA by a capacitive-peaking design. This technique uses a gain peaking effect of the frequency response by carefully controlling the capacitance C_L loaded at the output node of a preamplifier, thereby increasing the bandwidth. For many practical applications for broadening the bandwidth value of Q ranges from 1/2 to 5/6, which corresponds to the $0 - 10\%$ overshoot. Measurement shows that the maximally flat gain curve (Butterworth response) is obtained at $Q = 0.707$. The amount of the required gain peaking (Q) is determined by the capacitance C_L.

Tanabe et al. and Yoon et al. [6,26,27] proposed another way to broaden the frequency response is to degenerate the input transistors, so that their effective transconductance G_m increases at the high frequency to compensate for the reduced gain beyond the cutoff frequency. The capacitor C_s is to bypass the degeneration resistor R_s at high frequencies, providing the peaking behavior that extends the bandwidth. Here the input poles frequency is increased by a factor of $(1 + g_m R_s)$ implying that the load impedance seen be the preceding stage is reduced. This has an advantage over a direct trade off of a gain-bandwidth product without degeneration.

The idea of inductive peaking is to use the capacitive load, which usually limits bandwidth, to resonate with an inductor, thus increasing speed without additional power dissipation or loss of gain.

Shunt-peaking [5, 28, 29] can be realized by placing the inductor in series with the load resistor of an amplifier. If the dominant pole of the amplifier is at the output, the inductor adds a pole and a zero to the frequency response.

Shunt peaking has been used to design a 3.5 *Gbps* TIA in 0.5 *µm* CMOS in [5] shows that the bandwidth of this type of circuit could be extended as much as 85%. For a maximally at frequency response it was shown that a 72% increase in bandwidth could be achieved. The advantage of shunt inductive peaking is that the *Q* value of the on-chip inductor is not important since the series resistance of the inductor can be incorporated by adjusting the value of the resistor R_D. It is important to minimize the size of the inductor to reduce the parasitic capacitance. A number of TIAs have been designed using shunt inductive peaking [30–32].

Series inductive peaking has been used to design a 10 *Gbps* TIA in 0.18 *µm* CMOS technology in [33]. For TIA with a multi-stage amplifier, the series inductors between the stages increase the bandwidth of each individual stage. Each gain stage consists of a CMOS inverter with resistive feedback. The series inductors absorb the parasitic capacitance between the stages and increase the bandwidth. The series inductors combine with the parasitic capacitances to create a 3*rd* order *LC* ladder filter structure. A simulation was done to show that the five stage amplifier was able to produce a bandwidth three times higher than the amplifier with no inductive peaking. The TIA reported in [33] achieved a transimpedance gain of 61 dBΩ with a bandwidth of 7.2 *GHz*.

A combination of shunt and series peaking can be used to further extend the bandwidth of a circuit. This principle has been demonstrated in [7]. The inductors create multiple resonant structures that improve the bandwidth of the circuit.

Razavi proposed a novel TIA in this work that cascaded 5 differential pair gain stages using shunt and series inductive peaking. The bandwidth of the amplifier with shunt and series inductive peaking was approximately 3.5 times larger than the bandwidth of the amplifier without inductive peaking. The final amplifier was able to achieve a differential gain of 15 dBΩ and a bandwidth of 22 *GHz* using 0.18 *µm* CMOS technology.

Jin and HSu [8] have proposed PIP technique to reduce the effect of the parasitic capacitances using the combination of a number of inductors. The configuration of the inductors shapes a π and hence it is called a Pi-type inductor peaking (PIP). A 40 Gb/s TIA was implemented in 0.18 μm CMOS technology. Measurement results shows a transimpedance gain of 51 dBΩ and 3-dB bandwidth up to 30.5 GHz.

Chalvatzis [34] has used the inductive feedback technique to extend the bandwidth of CMOS TIA. Inverter based TIA and common source based TIA using inductive feedback have been introduced. These circuits have been used as building blocks for 40 Gb/s system. These circuits have been presented in this work but the bandwidth improvement is explained by resonance method. Meanwhile, the required inductor has been selected based on trial.

Chan and Chen [35] reported an inductor-less CMOS TIA. The proposed technique used a source-follower, regulated cascode and double active feedback schemes based on the 0.18 μm CMOS technology. The project only compensates input capacitance of the photodiode and input bonding pad but also avert the headroom effect. The TIA was implemented using the supply voltage of 1.8 V to achieve a 7.7 GHz bandwidth with an input capacitance of 300 fF and a transimpedance gain of 1.12 $k\Omega$.

Lu et al. [36] offered a novel bandwidth enhancement method based on the combination of capacitive degeneration, broad-band matching network, and the regulated cascode (RGC) input stage which curves the TIA design into a fifth-order low pass filter with Butterworth response. The TIA realizes a 3-dB bandwidth of about 8 GHz with 0.25 pF photodiode capacitance.

Ngo et al [37] reported a topology of TIA, using the combination of the shunt-feedback configuration with the RGC input stage and broad-band matching network, in a 0.13 μm CMOS technology. The TIA provides a 3-dB bandwidth of 7.5 GHz and transimpedance gain of 50 $dB\Omega$ for 300 fF photodiode capacitance.

A novel current-mode TIA was proposed by Lu et al [38]. The common source with active feed backed as input stage. It was realized using Chartered Semiconductor Manufacturing (CHRT) 0.18 μm-1.8 V RF CMOS technology. The proposed TIA is able to achieve low input impedance similar to the regulated cascode (RGC) topology. The TIA design also uses series inductive peaking and capacitive degeneration

techniques to enhance the bandwidth and the gain. Results show, a 3-dB bandwidth of about 7 GHz, transimpedance gain of 54.6 $dB\Omega$ for a photodiode capacitance of 0.3 pF.

Modification of RGC TIA to get improved frequency response and lower input referred noise is proposed by Bashiri et al. [39]. Using feedback path creates two real poles as two complex conjugate poles that can be used to expand the bandwidth. The proposed TIA achieves bandwidth of 21.6 GHz and 46.7 $dB\Omega$ transimpedance gain for an input capacitance of 200 fF using 65 nm CMOS technology.

Reverse triple resonance networks (RTRNs) is a novel bandwidth extension technique. RTRNs is proposed by Liao and Liu [40]. The results show that the RTRN method increases the bandwidth more than the shunt-series peaking technique, mainly when the parasitic capacitance is dominated by the subsequent stage.

A push-pull or "inverter" amplifier with shunt resistive feedback technique is reported by Kim and Buckwalter [41]. The proposed TIA provides a transimpedance gain of 55 $dB\Omega$ and group-delay variation of $\pm\,3.9ps$ over a 30 GHz. The power consumption is 9 mW power and the supply is 1 V. The benefit of this technique is to reuse the drain current and realize the intrinsic gain of both devices while decreasing the power dissipation.

To obtain wideband operation, nested feedback TIA and an inserting post amplifier with split series peaking are offered in [42]. The proposed TIA composes of three cascaded transconductance with dual feedback. The TIA achieves transimpedance gain of 92 $dB\Omega$ over 3-dB bandwidth of 35 GHz.

1.3 Research motivation

As demand for the use of optics in computing growths, integration of optoelectronic devices, interface circuitry and other digital VLSI circuits is having more consideration as a topology of realizing systems that can execute highly complex processing tasks. The accelerated development in the communication technology and their application present new design issues and challenges, such as the wide bandwidth, high gain, low noise, low power consumption, low cost and small size. The driving force behind this development is the wideband system. With recent developments in CMOS technology,

CMOS Integrated Circuit (IC) design offers a possible solution for System-On-Chip (SOC).

On the other side, CMOS technology have some advantages such as low power consumption, high integration degree and low the fabrication cost but, it have not performed well enough to continue in such a noisy environment without affecting other important characteristics. This performance limitation is primarily due to the nature of silicon CMOS devices that have limited gain, limited bandwidth, and large parasitic capacitances as well. Moreover the low-voltage headroom is an obstacle to design broadband TIA in CMOS technologies [6, 43, 44]. However, the complication of the models requested to precisely describe the performance of CMOS nanoscale transistors avoids the derivation of closed-form analytical expression that could be powerfully used in the design optimization of even the simplest circuits. In the literature, the lack of mathematical analysis of the bandwidth extension mechanism of TIA takes several iterations and hand modification of the design before converging toward the desired circuit.

Motivation of the thesis is to provide a mathematical framework to fill this empty gap. In additional, since the technique has shown a prodigious possible to expand the bandwidth of CMOS TIAs. The impetus exists to study the possibility to propose a novel technique to improve the bandwidth of the CMOS TIAs. Moreover, explore the validity of this technique by applying it to the design of a wideband TIA. The challenge of TIA design is to implement it by meeting the bandwidth and transimpedance gain at the same time.

In designing of TIA, the two major factors that must be considered are the bandwidth and the input sensitivity. The bandwidth of TIA is usually limited by the parasitic capacitance at the input stage, and it can be calculated by its RC time constant contributed by photodiode capacitance, parasitic capacitance and input resistance of the amplifier. The sensitivity is affected by the input current noise of the TIA. Therefore it is challenge to choose the suitable circuit topology that provides an optimal trade-off between bandwidth and input signal sensitivity for TIA.

In this thesis, several aspects that affect the performance of TIA are investigated. The work is focused on the design of TIA with high-gain, low noise, and low power TIA in a 180 nm standard CMOS technology.

1.4 Objectives and contributions

The main target of the research is to cover different approaches used to improve the bandwidth of CMOS TIAs. Also, to explore the possibilities for providing a new technique to improve the bandwidth for CMOS TIAs. In addition to explain mathematically the process of bandwidth extension. The objectives of this project are summarized as follows:

- To explore the mechanism of bandwidth extension of CMOS TIAs.

- To explain mathematically the process of bandwidth extension technique for in different topologies

- To investigate the possibilities for providing a novel topology to improve the bandwidth of the TIA using CMOS technology.

Based on the objectives; contributions of the research are:

- Propose a novel circuit design techniques to achieve high-performance CMOS integrated amplifiers for wireless/line communications at microwave frequencies.

- Develop a CMOS TIA that can satisfy performance, compatibility, and cost issues.

- Obtain a simple design without significant complication with respect to the case of a conventional TIA topology.

- In order to show the system performance of the proposed TIA configurations, for each design, the simulation results has been shown and the details noise analysis are discussed.

1.5 Organization of the thesis

In chapter 1, optical receivers and TIAs as one of the main parts of the optical receivers are discussed. Then the literature survey on different methods for achieving high bandwidth transimpedance amplifiers is given. As a result objective and contributions of the thesis are detailed.

In chapter 2, the most important specifications of a TIA are discussed. Moreover, the most common TIA topologies are investigated. Both open-loop topologies and closed-loop topologies are studied and the trade-off between the important TIA specifications are explained.

In chapter 3, existing techniques in the literature to extend the bandwidth of the TIAs are detailed. Some insight about the background of these techniques is given. In this chapter the focus is on techniques using spiral inductors to extend the bandwidth of transimpedance amplifiers. The discussion of inductive feedback technique using zero pole cancellation to extend the bandwidth of inverter based CMOS TIAs has been done. The small signal analysis for the circuits are given. The techniques are discussed analytically.

In chapter 4, the discussion of negative impedance technique to extend the bandwidth of CMOS transimpedance amplifier for the case of small photodiode capacitance $(50fF)$ is done. Simulation results and comparison with other previous works are shown in this chapter.

In Chapter 5, bandwidth extension using matching technique is applied. Different topologies can be used to implement the matching networks. Series input matching topology and T-output matching network are explained.The methodology is supported by a design example in a 0.18 μm CMOS technology.

In Chapter 6, a new transimpedance amplifier design possessing to improve the bandwidth is discussed. This TIA employs a parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies on the conventional regulated common gate (RGC) architecture. In the proposed TIA, we employ the capacitance degeneration and series inductive peaking for pole-zero elimination.

In Chapter 7, a technique to enhance the bandwidth of the regulated common gate (RCG) transimpedance amplifier is described. The technique is based on using a cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network. To verify the feasibility of the proposed technique, a CMOS design example is implemented using a $0.18\ \mu m$ RF CMOS technology.

In Chapter 8, conclusions and directions for future work are discussed.

2. BACKGROUND THEORY OF THE TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER

In optical communication system, after converting the optical signal to the electrical domain by the photodiode, the TIA converts the small photodiode current into a voltage. The TIA building block will be treated extensively in this chapter. The TIA circuit is characterized by important specifications including transimpedance gain, bandwidth, input capacitance, input referred noise current and the group delay. Since the TIA is the critical block in an optical receiver, these parameters limit the performance of whole receiver system. The most important specifications of a TIA are discussed. In additional, the most common TIA topologies are investigated. Both open-loop topologies and closed-loop topologies are studied and the trade-off between the important TIA specifications are explained.

2.1 Important specifications

- **Transimpedance gain** Z_{TIA}: it is the ratio between the output voltage of the amplifier to the input current. It is determined as:

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{v_{out}}{i_{in}} dB.\Omega \tag{2.1}$$

The transimpedance gain can be expressed using magnitude and phase representation by:

$$|Z_{TIA}(f)| = |Z_{(TIA,DC)}| e^{j\phi_{TIA}(f)} \tag{2.2}$$

where $Z_{(TIA,DC)}$ is the magnitude of DC gain and ϕ_{TIA} is the phase of the transimpedance. The DC gain $Z_{(TIA,DC)}$ should be chosen properly .When $Z_{(TIA,DC)}$ is small, the noise of the next stages will have a serious effect on the SNR of the system. Also, when $Z_{(TIA,DC)}$ is too high, a distortion of the signal may occur due to the nonlinearity [45, 46].

- **Group delay** $\tau_g(f)$: it is the delay of the output voltage v_{out} with respect to the input current i_{in}. It is calculated as:

$$\tau_g(f) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{d\angle Z_{TIA}(f)}{df} \right) \tag{2.3}$$

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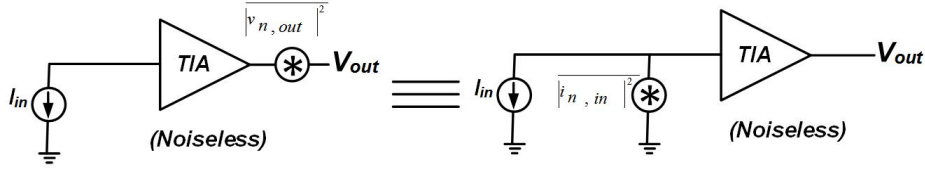
Figure 2.1 : Input Referred Noise Current.

In order to avoid the distortions in the output signal , the variations of the group delay have to be small.

- **Bandwidth BW:** Bandwidth is defined as the upper frequency where the gain drops $3dB$ below its midband value. In general, Bandwidth is limited by the total capacitance contributed by the photodiode and other parasitic elements existing at the optical front-end [47]. The TIA should have wide bandwidth to avoid inter symbol interference (ISI). The figure of merit (FoM) of the TIA the transimpedance bandwidth product (ZBW). That means that the ZBW is traded off against the bandwidth (BW).

- **Input-Referred Noise Current:** Generally, the input-referred noise current is controls all other noise sources and determines the sensitivity of the receiver. As shown in Figure 2.1, it is defined as, the noise current that could be added to the equivalent noiseless TIA to produce an equal output noise voltage to that of the original noisy circuit [48]. The input referred noise current is determined by:

$$\overline{|i_{in}|^2} = \frac{\overline{|v_{in}|^2}}{|Z_{TIA}|^2} \tag{2.4}$$

2.2 TIA topologies

2.2.1 Open loop topologies

2.2.1.1 Single resistor TIA

The basic goal of a TIA is to convert a current into a voltage that can be done by a resistor. The simplest TIA configuration is shown in in Figure 2.2(a), where the TIA is a simple resistor R_L. Figure 2.2(b) shows the equivalent circuit with the photodiode model. The photodiode is replace by an ideal current source i_{pd} and a
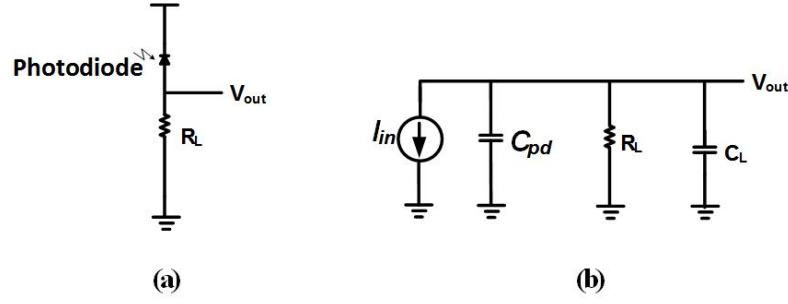
Figure 2.2 : (a) Circuit diagram of a single resistor TIA b) A single resistor with Photodiode Model.

parasitic capacitance C_{pd}. When the current i_{pd} passes through the resistor R_L, it is converted to a voltage V_{out}.

The transimpedance of the single-resistor TIA is written as :

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{R_L}{1 + j2\pi f R_L (C_{pd} + C_L)} \tag{2.5}$$

where C_L is the load capacitance of the TIA, which is typically significantly smaller than C_{pd}.

The DC transimpedance gain $|Z_{(TIA,DC)}|$ and the bandwidth are given by:

$$|Z_{(TIA,DC)}| = R_L \tag{2.6}$$

$$BW_{TIA} = \frac{1}{2\pi f R_L (C_{pd} + C_L)} \tag{2.7}$$

One problem with this single resistor TIA is that it has a fundamental trade-off between Gain and bandwidth. To achieve wider bandwidth, the resistor R_L must be reduced, that reduces the transimpedance gain.

2.2.1.2 Common gate TIA

The main problem of the single resistor TIA is the limited bandwidth that caused by the photodiode capacitance at the input node. The common-gate TIA improves the trade-off between transimpedance gain and bandwidth. Figure 2.3 shows the common-gate TIA. The photodiode current i_{pd} is converted into a voltage by resistor R_D.

By ignoring the output impedance of the transistors , the transimpedance gain of the common-gate TIA is given by (2.8):

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{R_D}{(1 + j2\pi f \frac{C_{in}}{R_{in}})(1 + j2\pi f R_D C_l)} \tag{2.8}$$

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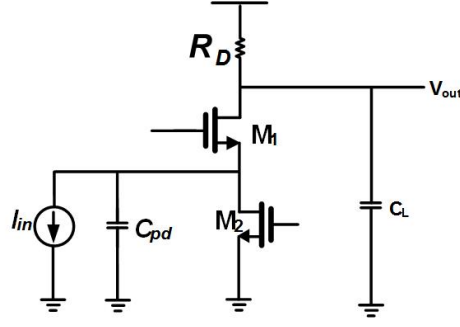
Figure 2.3 : Common-gate TIA.

where $C_{in} \approx C_{pd} + C_{gs,M_1}$ is the total input parasitic capacitance and the input impedance R_{in} is given by,

$$R_{in} = \frac{1 + g_{ds1}R_D}{g_{m1}(g_{ds1} + g_{ds2})} \approx \frac{1}{g_{m1}} \tag{2.9}$$

If we assume , $C_{in}/g_{m,M1} \gg R_D C_l$, the dominant pole is located at the input node, while the non-dominant pole is at the output node. Then transimpedance gain and the bandwidth can be expressed as:

$$|Z_{(TIA,DC)}| = R_D \tag{2.10}$$

$$BW_{TIA} = \frac{g_{m,M1}}{2\pi C_{in}} \tag{2.11}$$

2.2.2 Closed loop topologies

2.2.2.1 Regulated-cascode TIA

Feedback is used to improve the performance of the common gate TIA . The regulated common gate (RCG) is shown Figure 2.4. Using a local feedback reduces the input impedance which improves the bandwidth by increasing the location of the input pole to higher frequencies .

The approximated expression of transimpedance is given as:

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{-R_D}{(1 + j2\pi f \frac{C_{in}}{1+|A_3|})(1 + j2\pi f R_1 C_l)} \tag{2.12}$$

where $|A_3|$ is the dc voltage gain of transistor M_3 that given by:

$$|A_3| = g_{m,M_3} R_2 \tag{2.13}$$

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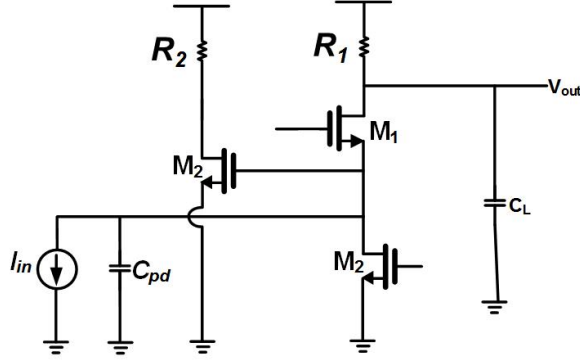
Figure 2.4 : Regulated Common Gate TIA.

g_{m,M_3} is the transconductance of transistor M_3 and C_{in} is total input capacitance which is determined by the photodiode capacitance and the parasitic capacitances of transistors M_1 and M_3. The input capacitance C_{in} can be calculated as:

$$C_{in} = C_{pd} + C_{gs,M_3} + (1 + |A_3|)(C_{gs,M_1} + C_{gd,M_3}) \qquad (2.14)$$

If we assume that the dominant pole is placed at the input, the transimpedance gain and the bandwidth can be expressed as:

$$|Z_{(TIA,DC)}| = R_1 \qquad (2.15)$$

$$BW_{TIA} = \frac{g_{m,M1}(1 + |A_3|)}{2\pi C_{in}} \qquad (2.16)$$

Compared with the common-gate TIA, the bandwidth is improved by a factor of $(1 + |A_3|)$ for the same transconductance of M_1. Since RGC TIA has a feedback loop, the stability of the amplifier should be guaranteed. For stability in this case , the loop gain must be smaller than unity when the phase has shifted by $180°$. As seen in equation (2.12), the transimpedance function has two poles, at the input and output. In reality a third pole can be traced back to the gate of M_1 that adds another $90°$ phase shift. To keep the system stable, the third pole has to be in a frequency at least three times higher than the frequency where the magnitude of the loop gain is lower than unity. This provides a phase margin of $72°$, which does not produce any overshoot in the time domain [45, 49].
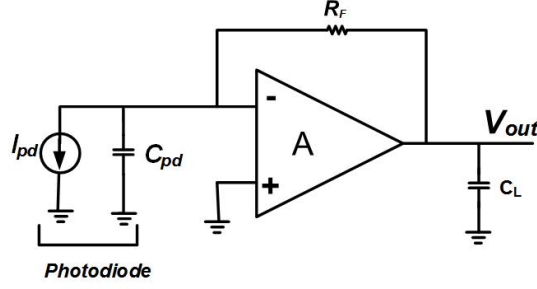
Figure 2.5 : A shunt-shunt feedback TIA.

2.2.2.2 Shunt-shunt feedback TIA

The shunt feedback TIA, which is basically a current-to-voltage converter with a negative resistive feedback, is the most commonly used circuit topology in optical fiber applications. This shunt feedback configuration provides a wide bandwidth by reducing the input-impedance while keeping a large resistor value in the feedback loop to enhance noise behavior [50, 51].

Figure 2.5 shows a schematic of a shunt- shunt feedback TIA where, R_F is the feedback resistor and A represents an ideal operational amplifier. The transimpedance of the shunt-shunt feedback TIA is given as:

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{AR_F - R_{out}}{(1 + A + j2\pi f(R_F C_{pd} + R_{out}(C_{in} + C_l))) - 4\pi^2 f^2 R_F R_{out} C_{in} C_l} \quad (2.17)$$

where R_{out} is the output resistance of amplifier with gain A and C_l is the load capacitance . Assuming $A \gg 1$ and $R_{out} \ll R_F$, then the transimpedance from (2.17) can be approximated as:

$$Z_{TIA} = \frac{R_F}{(1 + j2\pi f \, fracR_F C_{in} A)(1 + j2\pi f R_{out})} \quad (2.18)$$

If we assume that the dominant pole is placed at the input, the transimpedance gain and the bandwidth can be expressed as:

$$|Z_{(TIA,DC)}| = R_F \quad (2.19)$$

$$BW_{TIA} = \frac{A}{2\pi C_{in} R_F} \quad (2.20)$$

To keep the system stable , the the non-dominant pole of (2.18) pole has to be in a frequency at least three times higher then the frequency where the magnitude of the loop gain is lower than unity [45, 49]. By assuming the dominant pole is located at the

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input node due to the large value of photodiode capacitance, the non-dominant pole f_{nd} should satisfy the following condition:

$$f_{nd} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_{out} C_l} \geq 3 * \frac{A}{2\pi R_F C_{in}} \qquad (2.21)$$

3. BANDWIDTH ENHANCEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR CMOS TIAs

The rapid down-scale of the feature size of MOS devices, the aggressive decrease in the supply voltage, and the moderate reduction in the threshold voltage of recent CMOS technologies have greatly exaggerated the performance of CMOS TIAs, represented by wide bandwidth , high gain, and low noise amplifier with low power consumption and low supply voltage [52]. Bandwidth is of a serious alarm in wideband communications, like optical front-ends receiver and data communications. The bandwidth of a circuit is controlled by the time constant of the critical node, i.e. the node that has the highest time constant, of the circuit. [40].

The chapter covers different approaches used to improve the bandwidth of CMOS TIAs. Also, it provides some important calculations, which are done by pencil and paper. The chapter is organized as follows : Section 3.1 looks into Cherry Hooper amplifier technique. Section 3.2 investigates the capacitve peaking method. Section 3.3 examines the degeneration inductive procedure. The inductive topologies are examined is section 3.4. Section 3.5 focuses on the principles of the current mode signaling technique . Section 3.6 looks into the realization of distributed amplifier topology and the chapter is shortened in Section 3.7.

3.1 Cherry Hooper amplifier

The Cherry-Hooper topology was designed to sanction the gain and bandwidth of an amplifier to be tuned independently of each other. Figure 3.1 shows the simplest structure of Cherry Hooper topology. It is composed of a transconductance stage gm1 followed by transadmittance stage g_m [53]. The first stage converts the input signal to a current and the second stage with a shunt feedback resistor convert the current i_x into the output voltage.

$$i_x = v_{in}g_{m_1} \tag{3.1}$$
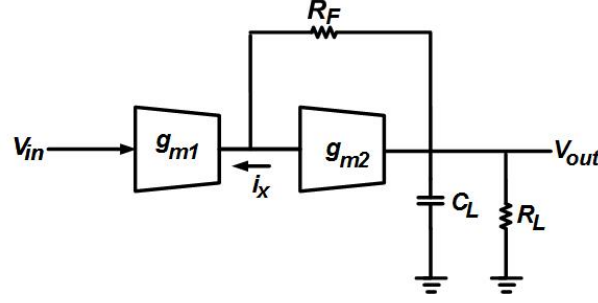
Figure 3.1 : The fundamental structure Cherry-Hooper topology [2].
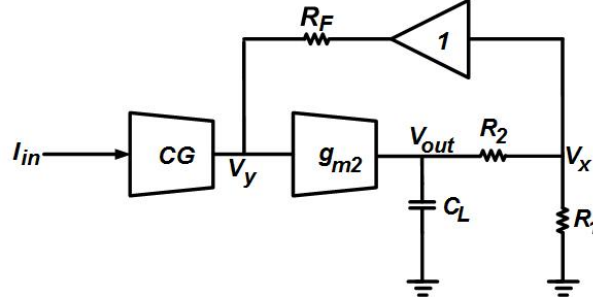
Figure 3.2 : A modified Cherry-Hooper TIA with a common gate input stage [2].

$$\frac{v_o}{v_{in}} = (g_{m2}R_f - 1)\frac{g_{m1}R_l}{1 + g_{m2}R_l}\frac{1}{1 + \frac{sR_lC_l}{1+g_{m2}R_l}} \tag{3.2}$$

assume $g_{m2}R_l \gg 1$

$$H(s) \cong \frac{g_{m1}R_1}{1 + \frac{sC_l}{g_{m2}}} \tag{3.3}$$

$$gain = g_{m_1}R_l \tag{3.4}$$

$$\omega_{-3dB} = \frac{g_{m2}}{C_l} \tag{3.5}$$

As shown in Equations (3.4) and (3.5), the gain and bandwidth of the amplifier are approximately independent of each other. The gain is proportional to the transconductance gm1 and the feedback resistor R_f while the bandwidth only depends on g_{m2} and the load capacitance C_L. This designates that gain is no longer sacrificed to increment bandwidth and visa-versa. The only to increment both gain and bandwidth is to increase the supply voltage, which is not an option for a designated CMOS technology.

The block diagram of the modified CH amplifier is shown in Figure 3.2. Replacing g_{m1} with a common gate or regulated gate cascade input stage provides low input

impedance. That helps avoid the parasitic capacitance from the photodiode. This configuration leads to enhancement of the amplifier's gain.

$$v_x = v_{out} \frac{R_l}{R_l + R_2} \tag{3.6}$$

$$v_y = -\frac{v_{out}}{g_m(R_l + R_2)} \tag{3.7}$$

$$v_y - v_x = R_f i_{in} \tag{3.8}$$

$$Z_T = \frac{v_{out}}{i_{in}} = R_f \left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_1 + 1/g_m} \right) \tag{3.9}$$

assume $1/g_m \ll R_1$

$$Z_T = R_f \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right) \tag{3.10}$$

The modified Cherry-Hooper TIA must be frozen as two poles system. The two high impedance nodes are at V_y and V_{out}. The output pole is well-defined in Equation (3.11), while the pole at V_y is determined by Equation (3.12). The quality factor, Q, and the center frequency of the amplifier are given in Equations (3.13) and (3.14). When Q is high the modified amplifier offers a wider bandwidth. with more peaking and ringing at the output. For low Q value it will produce an over damped system. Having $Q = 0.707$ will deliver the maximally flat response while $O = 1/\sqrt{3}$ as designated in [54] will provide the ideal compromise between peaking and bandwidth.

$$\omega_{p1} = \frac{-1}{(R_1 + R_2)C_l} \tag{3.11}$$

$$\omega_{p2} = \frac{-[1 + g_m(R_1 + R_2)]}{R_f C_y}) \tag{3.12}$$

$$Q = \frac{R_f C_y C_L (R_1 + R_2)(1 + g_m R_1)}{R_f C_y + [C_L(R_1 + R_2)(1 + g_m R_1)]} \tag{3.13}$$

The center frequency ω is given by:

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{1 + g_m R_1}{R_f(R_1 + R_2)C_l C_y}}) \tag{3.14}$$
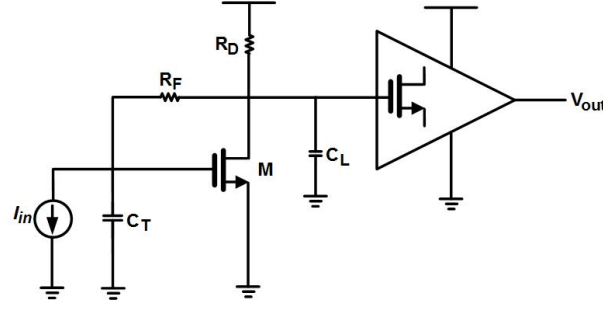
Figure 3.3 : Capacitive peaking [3].

3.2 Capacitive peaking

Capacitive Peaking technique uses a gain peaking effect of the frequency response by carefully controlling the capacitance C_L loaded at the output node of a preamplifier, thereby increasing the bandwidth [55–57].

By reanalyzing the feedback preamplifier circuit with the total output capacitance C_L attached, as shown in Figure 3.3, the transfer function can be expressed in second order form as follows:

$$Z_T = \frac{Z_{T0}\omega_0^2}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_0}{Q}s + \omega_0^2} \tag{3.15}$$

$$Q = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_1\omega_2}{\omega_1 + \omega_2}} \tag{3.16}$$

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{\omega_1\omega_2} \tag{3.17}$$

$$\omega_1 = \frac{1}{R_{IN}C_T} \tag{3.18}$$

$$\omega_2 = \frac{1}{R_{out}C_L} \tag{3.19}$$

In general, the value of Q ranges from $1/2$ to $5/6$, which corresponds to the $0 - 10\%$ overshoot, for many practical applications for broadening the bandwidth [5]. For Butterworth response, the maximally flat gain curve is obtained at $Q = 0.707$. The bandwidth of the preamplifier can be estimated by setting the magnitude of Equation (3.15) 0.707 times its low frequency gain Z_{T0}. That is,

$$\left| \frac{Z_{T0}\omega_0^2}{-\omega_{-3dB}^2 + j\sqrt{2}\omega_0\omega_{-3dB} + \omega_0^2} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}Z_{T0} \tag{3.20}$$

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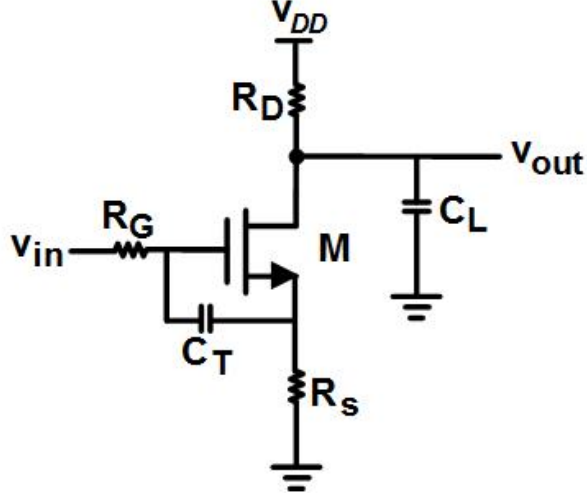
Figure 3.4 : Source degeneration [3, 4].

therefore, $\omega_0 = \omega_{3dB}$. Thus, once the amount of the required gain peaking (Q) is determined, the capacitance C_L could be easily estimated by Equation (3.16), (3.17) and (3.18).

3.3 Source degeneration

Another way to broaden the frequency response is to degenerate the input transistors. The effective transconductance G_m increases at the high frequency to compensate gain reducing at the cutoff frequency [26, 27, 58].

The capacitor C_s is to bypass the degeneration resistor R_s at high frequencies, providing the peaking behavior that extends the bandwidth. The R_G represents the output resistance of the preceding stage. Neglecting the body effect, the equivalent transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = G_m \frac{R_D}{1 + sR_D C_L} \tag{3.21}$$

$$= \left(\frac{g_m(1 + sR_s C_s)}{s^2 R_G C_{GS} R_s C_s + s(R_G C_{GS} + R_s C_s + R_s C_{GS}) + (1 + g_m R_s)} \right) \frac{R_D}{1 + sR_D C_L}$$

If the zero at $1/R_s C_s$ cancels out the output pole $1/R_D C_L$ at the drain, then,

$$\frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = \frac{G_m R_D}{s^2 R_G C_{GS} R_s C_s + s(R_G C_{GS} + R_s C_s + R_s C_{GS}) + (1 + g_m R_s)} \tag{3.22}$$

Assume that the low frequency pole ω_1 is much close to the origin, it can be also shown that,

$$\omega_1 = \frac{1 + g_m R_s}{R_G C_{GS} + R_s C_s + R_s C_{GS}} \approx \frac{1 + g_m R_s}{R_s C_s} \tag{3.23}$$

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if $R_L C_{GS} \gg R_s(C_s + C_{GS})$. Hence the input pole frequency is increased by a factor of $(1 + g_m R_s)$ implying that the load impedance seen by the preceding stage is reduced. This has an advantage over a direct trade-off of a gain-bandwidth product without degeneration.

3.4 Inductive peaking

Inductive characteristics are most important in high-speed applications to enhance the bandwidth. Oliver Heaviside's begun used the inductive peaking in 1890s to extend the bandwidth [59]. The idea of inductive peaking is to use the capacitive load, which usually limits bandwidth, to resonate with an inductor, thus increasing speed without additional power dissipation or loss of gain [5], [28] and [29]. Now we will discuss various forms of inductive peaking circuits with explanation of peaking with poles and zeros.

3.4.1 Shunt peaking

Shunt peaking is the common technique to expand bandwidth of wide band amplifiers. It utilizes a resonant peaking at the output of the circuit. It extends the BW by integrating an inductor to the output load. It introduces a resonant peaking at the output as the amplitude commences to roll off at high frequencies. At high frequencies capacitive reactance decreases so the inductor It increments the efficacious load impedance [60]. Figure 3.5 shows the common source amplifier with shunt peaking [5, 30].

The transfer function for the shunt-peaking circuit is given by:

$$\frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = -g_m \frac{sL + R}{s^2 LC + sRC + 1} = -g_m R \frac{\frac{\omega_0}{Q}}{s^2 + s\frac{\omega_0}{Q}\omega_0^2} \omega_0 Q \tag{3.24}$$

where,

$$Q = \frac{1}{R}\sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} \tag{3.25}$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \tag{3.26}$$

As seen Equation (3.24) can be assumed as a composition of two function that low-pass function and a band-pass function. In this case, the zero is mainly control
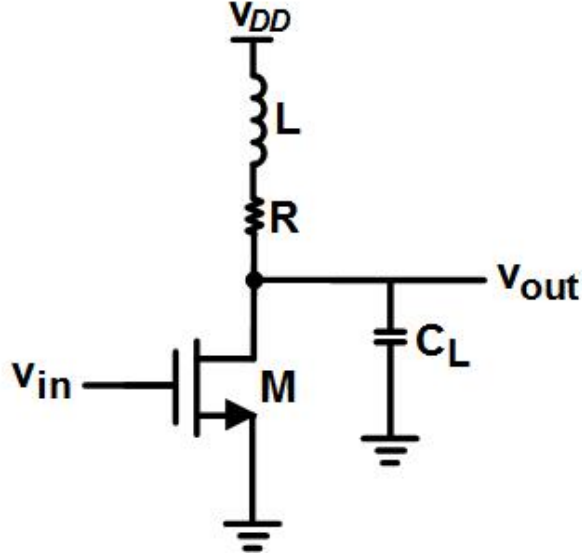
Figure 3.5 : Shunt Peaking [3, 5, 6].
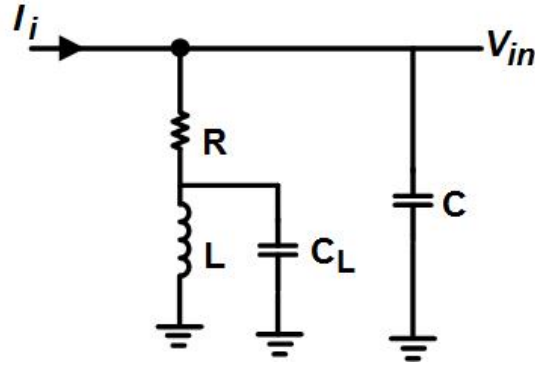
Figure 3.6 : Shunt peaking circuit with three poles and two zeros.

the bandwidth improvement and the circuit provides more overshoot than other second-order configurations. The maximally flat response is obtained when the value of $Q = 0.64$, the bandwidth expands by 72%. [61]. By assuming the self capacitance C_L of the inductor, that adds one pole then the circuit has three poles and two- zero [5].

The input impedance is given by:

$$Z(\omega) = \frac{R + j\omega L - \omega^2 L C_L R}{j\omega RC(1 - \omega^2 LC_L) - \omega^2 L(C + C_L) + 1} \tag{3.27}$$

$$= R \; \frac{1 - mn(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0})^2 + jm\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}}{1 - m(1 + n)(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0})^2 + j(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}[1 - mn(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0})^2])}$$

where, mR^2C , $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{RC}$ and $C_L = nC$
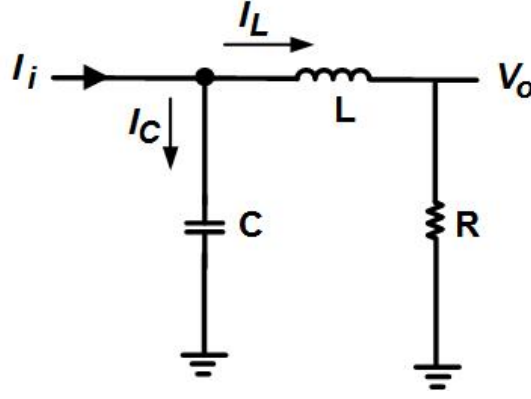
Figure 3.7 : Series Peaking Circuit.

3.4.2 Series peaking

Since the inductive peaking circuits are used mostly as drain load circuit [61]. To simplify the analysis we can remove the transistor symbol and assume the input current I_i flowing into the network which is written as :

$$I_i = I_D + I_L = V_i \left(j\omega C + \frac{1}{j\omega L + R} \right) \tag{3.28}$$

The output voltage is:

$$V_o = I_L R = V_i \left(\frac{1}{j\omega L + R} \right) \tag{3.29}$$

So that the transimpedance gain Z_T is :

$$Z_T = \frac{V_o}{I_i} = \frac{R}{-\omega^2 LC + j\omega RC + 1} \tag{3.30}$$

Assuming that $I_i = \frac{1V}{R}$ and $L = mR^2C$, so that output voltage V_o can be written as:

$$V_o = \frac{1}{s^2 + \frac{s}{mRC} + \frac{1}{mR^2C^2}} \tag{3.31}$$

We see that the denominator has two roots. For an efficient peaking the roots should be complex conjugates. To calculate the cut-off frequency (-3dB frequency), we assume that the output V_o drops to $\frac{V_{ODC}}{\sqrt{2}}$;

$$|V_{o(\omega\_3dB)}| = \frac{\sigma_1^2 + \omega_1^2}{\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + (\omega_{-3dB} + \omega_1)^2)(\sigma_1^2 + (\omega_{-3dB} - \omega_1)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{3.32}$$

The bandwidth improvement factor η is determined by the ratio between the cut-off frequency and the maximum non-peaking frequency ω_h.

$$\eta_b = \frac{\omega_{-3dB}}{\omega_h} \tag{3.33}$$

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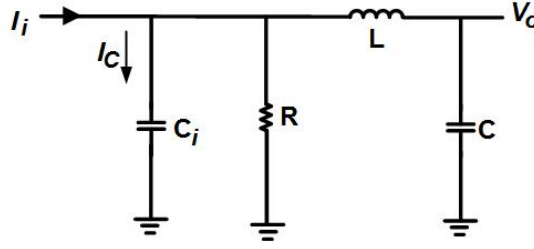
Figure 3.8 : Series peaking circuit with three poles.

To calculate the input impedance of the circuit:

$$Z_i = \frac{1}{j\omega C + 1/(j\omega L + R)} = \frac{j\omega L + R}{1 - 2\omega LC + j\omega RC} \tag{3.34}$$

The simplified expression of Z_i is:

$$Z_i = R\frac{1 + m(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_0})}{1 - m(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_0})^2 + \frac{j\omega}{\omega_0}} \tag{3.35}$$

where $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{RC}$.

Since when device is connected to the output will have at least some capacitance. Therefore the series peaking circuit becomes three independent reactive elements (two capacitors and one inductor), so the circuit has three poles. To have maximum bandwidth, the value of the input capacitor C_i must be smaller than the loading capacitance C.

The input impedance is:

$$Z_i = \frac{R(1 - \omega^2 LC)}{(1 + j\omega RC_i)(1 - \omega^2 LC) + j\omega C_L) - \omega CR} \tag{3.36}$$

and the output voltage is:

$$V_o = I_i\frac{R}{(1 + j\omega R(C_i + C) - \omega^2 LC) + j\omega^3 LRCC_i} \tag{3.37}$$

By assuming,

$$L = mR^2(C + C_i)n = \frac{C}{C + C_i} \quad \omega = \frac{1}{R(C_i + C)} \tag{3.38}$$

thereby the transimpedance gain Z_T is:

$$Z_T = \frac{1}{1 + j(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}) - mn(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0})^2 - jmn(1 - n)\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}} \tag{3.39}$$

Since the denominator is a 3rd -order polynomial we have three poles, one of them should be real and the others two must be complex conjugated. For a series peaking
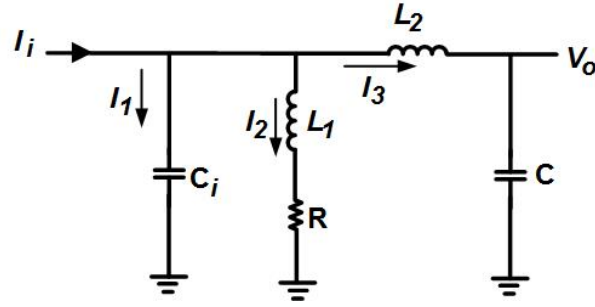
Figure 3.9 : The shunt–series peaking circuit.

circuit the calculation of ω_{-3dB} is relatively easy. The calculation becomes more difficult, where more poles and sometimes even zeros are introduced. In such cases it is better to use a computer to calculate response functions.

3.4.3 Shunt–series peaking circuit

Both the shunt and the series peaking can be combined to form a circuit, shown in Figure 3.9. Here the bandwidth this topology is increased more than the other inductive topologies [7].

The transimpedance is given by:

$$Z_T(s) = \frac{\frac{L_1}{L_1 L_2 C C_i}\left(s + \frac{R}{L_1}\right)}{s^4 + s^3 \frac{R}{L_1} + s^2 \frac{L_2 C + L_1 C_i + L_1 C}{L_1 L_2 C C_i} + s \frac{R(C_i + C)}{L_1 L_2 C C_i} + \frac{1}{L_1 L_2 C C_i}} \qquad (3.40)$$

3.4.4 T-coil peaking technique

$T-coil$ peaking network is shown in Figure 3.10. The circuit uses one transformer which is bridged by the capacitance C_b [58].The relation $R = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$ must maintain constant to obtain a constant input impedance $Z_i = R$ at any frequency [8].

The inductance L of the center tapped coil can be written as:

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + 2L_M \qquad (3.41)$$

Where L_1 and L_2 are self inductance and L_M is mutual inductance which can be determined by:

$$L_M = k\sqrt{L_1 L_2} \qquad (3.42)$$

In symmetrical case,the values of $L_1 = L_2$ case can be determined by:

$$L_1 = L_2 = \frac{L}{2(1+k)} \qquad (3.43)$$

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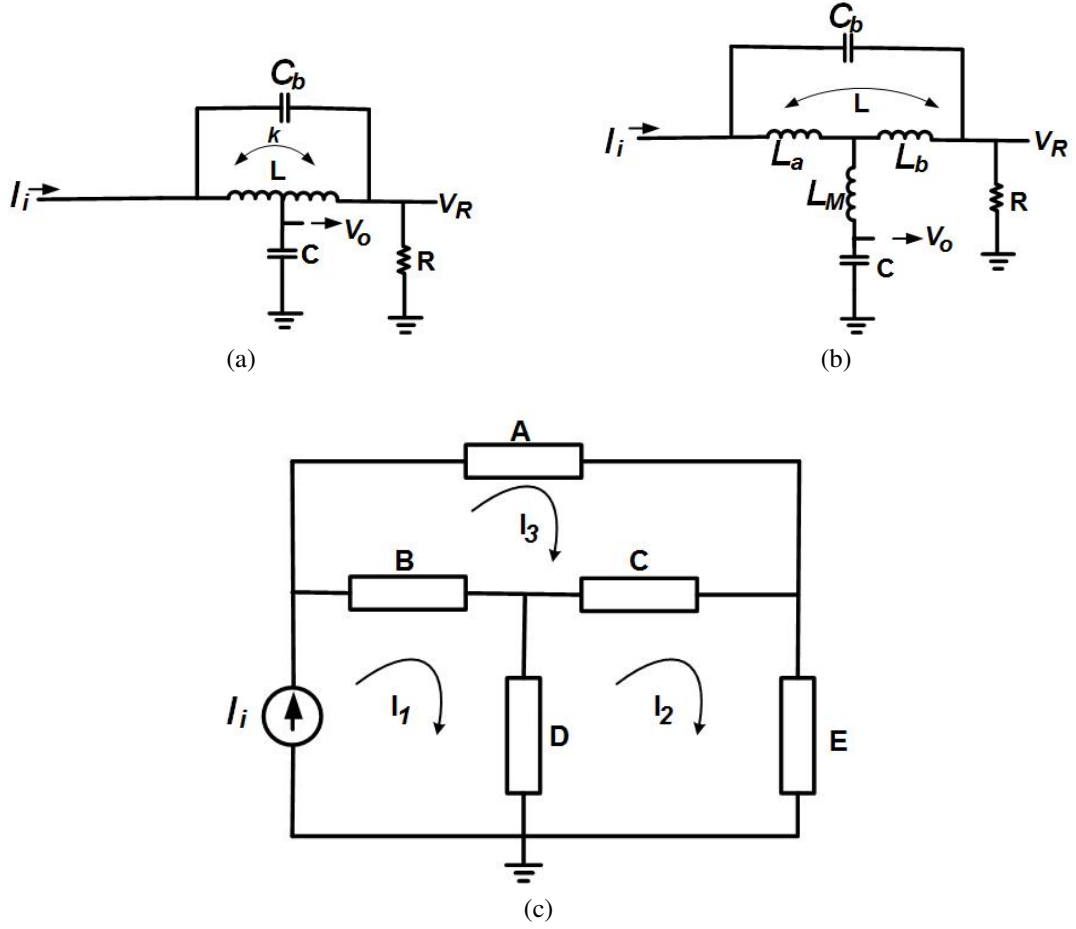
Figure 3.10 : a) The basic T-coil circuit. b) an equivalent circuit, with no magnetic coupling between the coils c) a simplified impedance circuit.
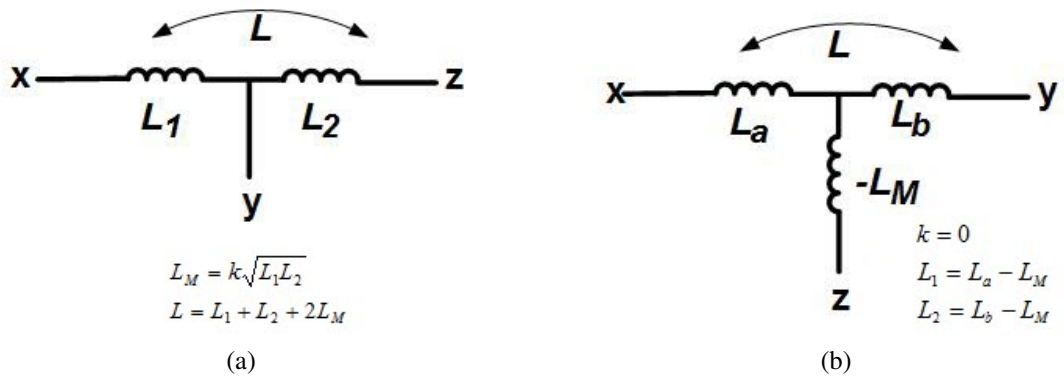
Figure 3.11 : a) The basic T-coil circuit. b) an equivalent circuit, with no magnetic coupling between the coils c) a simplified impedance circuit.

For the equivalent circuit of T-coil (Figure 3.11), the input voltage is obtained by:

$$V_i = I_i Z_i \tag{3.44}$$

The branches impedance are:

$$A = \frac{1}{sC_b}, B = sL_a, C = sL_b, D = -sL_M + \frac{1}{sC}, E = R \tag{3.45}$$

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As the result of the hand calculation, we can write the equations of the loop as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_i \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (B+D) & x_-D & -B \\ -B & (C+D+E) & -C \\ B & -C & -(A+B+C) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (3.46)$$

The simplified expression can be written as:

$$ACD + BDA + BEA + DVA - ECA - E^2A - E^2B - E^2C = 0 \qquad (3.47)$$

Let $L_a = L_b$, so that we can rewrite equation as:

$$sK_1 + s^{-1}K_2 = 0 \qquad (3.48)$$

where,

$$K_1 = \frac{L_a^2}{C_b} - \frac{LL_M}{C_b} - R^2 L K_2 = \frac{L}{CC_b} - \frac{R^2}{C_b} \qquad (3.49)$$

Assuming both $K_1 = K_2 = 0$, so that, we obtain:

$$L = R^2 C L_M = \frac{L}{4} - R^2 C_b = R^2 (\frac{C}{4} - C_b) \qquad (3.50)$$

Finally we get the expression of the transimpedance that given by:

$$Z_T = \frac{V_o}{I_i} = \frac{1}{sC} \frac{CA + EA + EB + EC}{CA + CB + DA + DB + DC + EA + EB + EC} \qquad (3.51)$$
$$= \frac{R}{s^2 R^2 C C_b + sRC/2 + 1}$$

We see that the denominator has two complex conjugates roots, are given by:

$$s_1, 2 = \sigma_1 \pm j\omega_1 = -\frac{1}{4RC_b} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4RC_b}^2 - \frac{1}{R^2 C C_b}} \qquad (3.52)$$

Comparing, the responses for the same kind of poles, the realization show that the -3dB frequency of the $T - coil$ is exactly twice as much as it is for the two-pole series peaking circuit and the bandwidth improvement factor is 2.83 [62].

When an input capacitance C_i is connected to the input of the two-pole $T - coil$, the circuit becomes has three poles as shown in Figure 3.12.

To simplify the analysis, we assume that the basic two-pole $T - coil$ circuit has a constant impedance R that unrelated to frequency. So we can determine the transfer function of the circuit by adding the third pole $s_3 = 1/RC_i$ to the two-pole network. So the transimpedance can be written as:

$$Z_T = \frac{V_o}{I_i} = \frac{1}{(s + \frac{1}{RC_i})(s^2 R^2 C C_b + sRC/2 + 1)} \qquad (3.53)$$
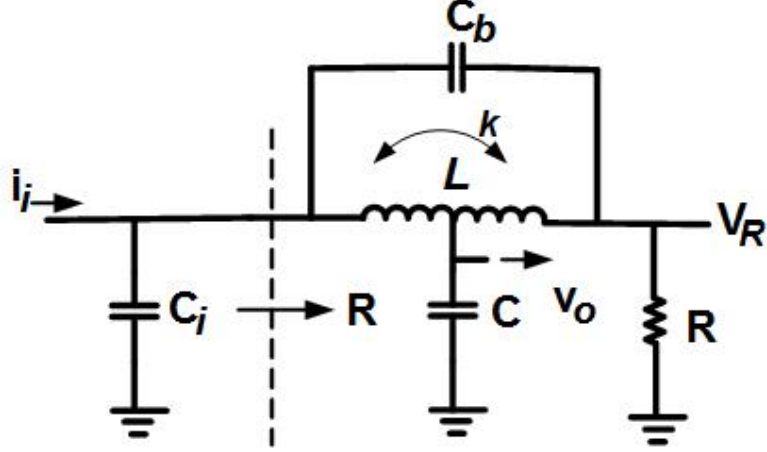
Figure 3.12 : T-coil network with three poles.

For wideband applications, we must have two complex conjugate poles and one real pole [63]. By adding another inductor between C_i and the $T-coil$, the bandwidth can be enhanced by 2.75 times of the two pole $Tcoil$ circuit. To do that, the coupling factor k must be improved to be greater than 0.5 [64]. The transfer function of the $L+T$ network (Figure 3.13) can be determined by multiplication both the transfer functions of a two-pole series peaking circuit and a two pole $T-coil$ circuit as follows: The two poles of T-coil section can be expressed as:

$$s_{1,2} = \sigma_1 \pm j\omega_1 = -\frac{1}{4RC_b} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{4RC_b}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{R^2CC_b}} \tag{3.54}$$

and the two poles of section L are written as:

$$s_{3,4} = \sigma_3 \pm j\omega_4 = -\frac{1}{2mRC_i} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{2mR^2C_i}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{mR^2C_i}} \tag{3.55}$$

To obtain better improvement of the bandwidth of $L+T$ configuration, the input capacitance C_i must be smaller than C. The bandwidth improvement factor η can be achieved 4.46. Figure 3.14 shows the bandwidth enhancement of different methods. Curve (a) shows frequency response in the normalization case. Curve (b) represents the gain peaking of the shunt peaking, curve (c) for the $T-coil$ peaking normalized frequency, and curve (d) shows the frequency response of the shunt- series peaking [5,7].

$$F(s) = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{mR^2C_i^2}}{s^2 + \frac{s}{mRC_i} + \frac{1}{mR^2C_i}}\right)\left(\frac{\frac{R}{R^2CC_b}}{s^2 + \frac{s}{RC_b} + \frac{1}{R^2CC_b}}\right) \tag{3.56}$$
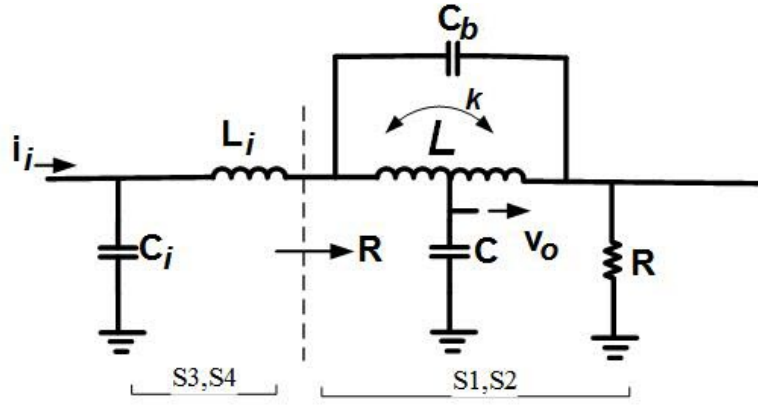
Figure 3.13 : T-coil network with three poles.
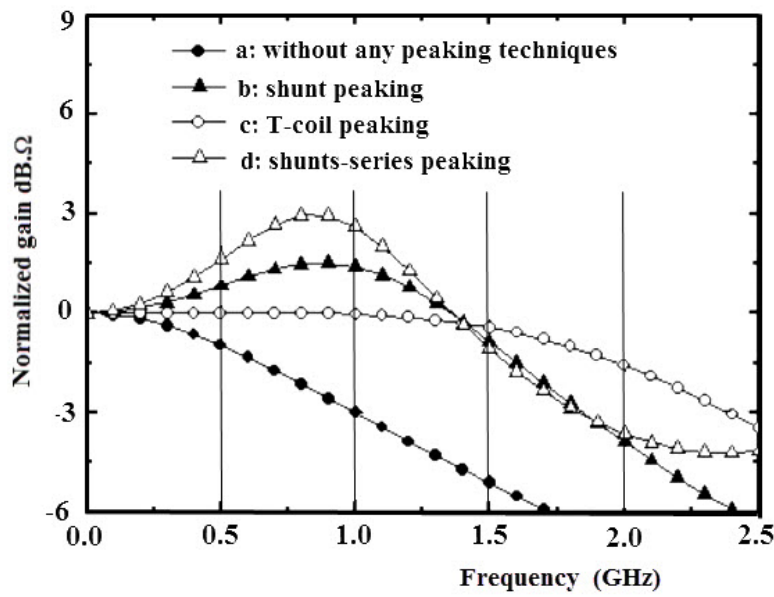
Figure 3.14 : The frequency response of the published inductive peaking techniques [5,7].

3.4.5 π-type inductor peaking (PIP)

Inductor Peaking (PIP) is an effective bandwidth extension technique. It improves the bandwidth using several inductors to resonate with the intrinsic capacitance [8].
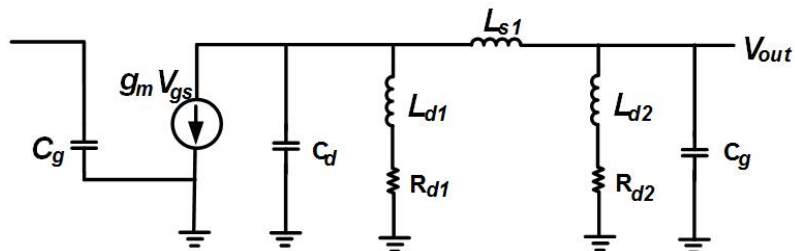
Figure 3.15 : Small-signal equivalent circuit of the PIP model [8].
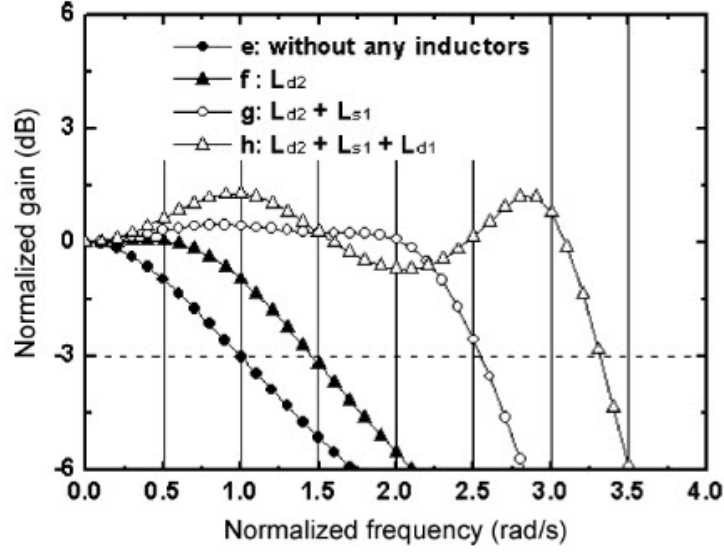
Figure 3.16 : The normalized frequency response of the inductor peaking (PIP) [9].

Without any inductors, the bandwidth ω_0 is limited by the resistive and capacitive loads. By connecting L_{d2} in series with R_{d2}, the transient current into R_{d2} is delayed and more current is forced to pass to the capacitance load which results an improvement the bandwidth. In addition, the bandwidth can be further enhanced by adding L_{s1} makes resonance with C_g at higher frequencies. Also adding another inductor L_{d1}, C_d and C_g creates resonance at even higher frequencies to get better enhanced bandwidth.

Figure 3.16 shows the normalized frequency response of the inductor peaking (PIP) circuit .The bandwidth extension is shown by placing the three peaking inductors one by one [9].

3.5 Current-mode signaling

When branch currents of the circuit are carriers of the information, the circuit is known as current-mode circuit. The nodal impedance is low for current-mode circuits and high for voltage mode networks. Current mode circuits offer an improved bandwidth due to the following reasons:

- Low nodal impedances decreases time constants of the circuits.

- Low voltage swing reduces the time required to charge and discharge the nodes of the circuits [65].
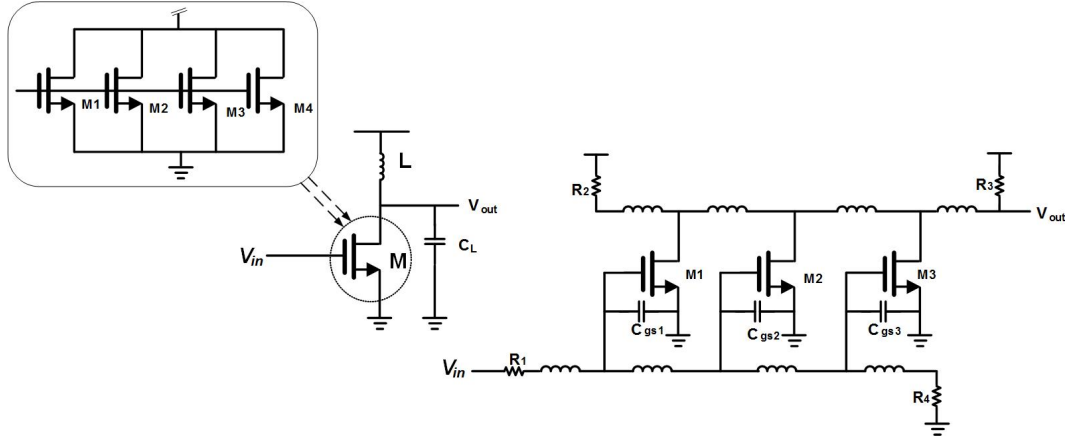
Figure 3.17 : Distributed amplifiers [10].

In this case, the improvement of the speed is often moderate. At the same time, decreasing the node impedance increases the node capacitance. Because each node is assumed to be a first-order *RC* network that have time constant, $\tau = R_n C_n$, where R_n and C_n are the resistance and capacitance of the node.

3.6 Distributed amplification

The bandwidth or speed of a circuit is set by the time constant of the critical node of the circuit. An effective way to minimize the effect of large shunt capacitance of the critical node is to break the large shunt capacitor into several smaller shunt capacitors and separate them with inductors such that the large shunt capacitor is replaced with a distributed *LC* network or a transmission line [10, 66].

Shown in Figure 3.17, a common-source amplifier where an shunt peaking inductor is employed at the drain of the transistor to offset the effect of the large output capacitance *C* arising from the large width of the transistor. The equivalent of the original transistor can be obtained by parallel connecting of *N* smaller transistors whose width is $1/N$. Inductors is used to separate the transistors and creates two transmission lines, one at the drain and the other at the source. Resistors R_{1-4} are used for impedance matching.

3.7 Chapter summary

Increasing the bandwidth is critical concern in broadband communications. Several CMOS TIA technique has been covered. Three topologies, inductive peaking, current-mode signaling and distributed amplification are the most used to enhance the bandwidth of circuits.

4. IMPROVE THE BANDWIDTH OF TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER USING NEGATIVE IMPEDANCE CIRCUIT

This chapter describes a compact Transimpedance amplifier (TIA). Based on the principle of negative impedance *NI* circuit, the proposed TIA provides high gain and wide bandwidth. The schematics and characteristics of negative impedance circuit *NI* have been explained. The inductor behavior is synthesized by gyrator *C* circuit. The TIA is implemented in $180nm$ RF MOS transistors in a HV CMOS technology with 1.8 V supply voltage technology. It reaches $-3dB$ bandwidth of 7 *GHz* and transimpedance gain of 54.3 $dB\Omega$ in the presence of a 50 fF photodiode capacitance. The simulated input referred noise current spectral density is 5.9 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. The power consumption is 29 mW. The TIA occupies $230\mu m \times 45\mu m$ of area.

4.1 Introduction

In the receiver of optical communication system, the transimpedance amplifier (TIA) is the first electrical building block that converts the induced photodiode current (i_{pd}) into a large voltage signal to be used in the digital processing unit. TIA is required to have high gain and wide bandwidth at the same time with low power dissipation. It is well known that, the main challenge to implement wideband TIA lies in the large photodiode parasitic capacitance at the input node that deteriorate the performance of the complete receiver system such as speed, sensitivity, and signal-to-noise ratio. Hence, it is necessary for VLSI designers to improve original circuit approach in order to reduce the input parasitic effects and to better enhance the performance in bandwidth, gain, noise, and power consumption [67]. To obtain high gain, cascode amplifier configuration is not appropriate in low power due to small voltage swings. Moreover, a multistage amplifiers suffer from stability issue because of the existence of multiple poles [68]. There are several works that have been reported to improve the bandwidth of TIA. Inductive peaking has been extensively used to improve the bandwidth and decrease parasitic capacitance effects [8, 69]. Moreover to overcome this drawback, a bandwidth enhancement technique using parallel sections

of series-peaked stages is described in [70]. However, an extreme size of the inductor makes the chip large and costly. An inductorless regulated cascode (RGC) topology reported in [67] decreases the input impedance of the TIA, therefore improving the bandwidth. Another approach in [71] used several shunt feedback TIAs in parallel in order to enhance the bandwidth. In that method, there is a strict trade-off between the number of stages and step-response damping ratio. The effect of the photodiode capacitance can be more professionally reduced from the bandwidth limitation by using regulated cascode (RGC) in [72–74]. Furthermore, a negative capacitance circuit can be used to decrease critical node capacitance to improve the bandwidth of the amplifier. In this chapter, the design and simulation results of $7GHz$ transimpedance amplifier is presented using $180nm$ CMOS technology. A negative impedance NI configuration is used as compensation circuit to enhance the frequency response of the TIA.

This chapter is organized as follows. Section 4.2 and Section 4.3 discuss the basic principle of negative impedance NI circuit and illustrates a technique to improve the bandwidth. An implementation of CMOS transimpedance amplifier as a design example follows in section 4.4. The active inductor is discussed in Section 4.5. The mathematical model for illustrating the noise of the proposed TIA is introduced in section 4.6. The simulation results are shown in Section 4.7 and finally conclusions are summarized in Section 5.7.

4.2 Principle of negative impedance circuit

Merits for using transimpedance amplifier TIA comprise its ability to provide a high transimpedance gain with wide bandwidth. TIA can be designed as a single ended voltage amplifier with a feedback resistor R_F. Figure 4.1 demonstrates the block diagram of the proposed transimpedance amplifier TIA. Since a photodiode operates as current source, it can be replaced by a current source I_{in} in parallel with the photodiode capacitance C_{pd}.

Using Miller effect, if we assume that $R_{out} \ll R_F$ and $R_{out}(C_{out} + C_F) \ll R_F C_{in}$ then, it can be shown easily that the simplified expression of transimpedance gain Z_T is given
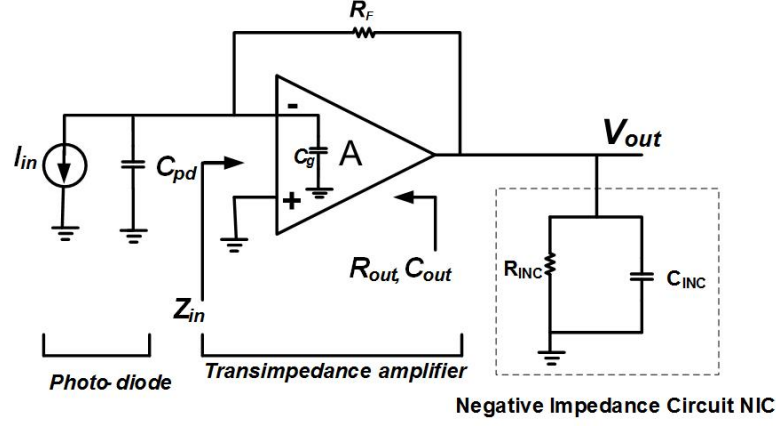
Figure 4.1 : Block diagram for the traditional resistive feedback TIA with *NI* circuit.

as:

$$Z_T = \frac{V_{out}}{I_{in}} = \approx \frac{R_F}{\left(1 + s\frac{R_F C_{in}}{A}\right)\left(1 + sR_{out}C_{out}\right)} \tag{4.1}$$

where A is the amplifier gain , R_F is the feedback resistor , C_{in} is the total input capacitance that includes the photodiode's capacitance C_{pd}, the input capacitance of the amplifier C_g and feedback parasitic capacitance $C_F(1-A)$. The output capacitance of C_{out} is sum of the amplifier output capacitance and the feedback parasitic capacitance $C_F(1-1/A)$. The transimpedance gain at low frequencies Z_{dc} equals R_F for high value of A and small value of R_{out}. As shown in Equation (4.1), the transimpedance gain function have two real poles p_1 and p_2 that are given as:

$$p_{1,in} = \frac{A}{R_F C_{in}} \tag{4.2}$$

$$p_{2,out} = \frac{1}{R_{out}C_{out}}$$

Due to high capacitance of the photodiode capacitance C_{pd}, the total input capacitance C_{in} is larger than the total output capacitance C_{out}. Besides, feedback resistor R_F is larger than the output resistance R_{out}. Hence, the dominant pole is suited on the input node and the output pole can be located at a sufficiently higher frequency than the input pole. From (4.2), the bandwidth can be improved by increasing the gain $(A = g_m R_{out})$ and by maintaining the same time constant at the output pole. A better gain A can be obtained if the output resistance R_{out} is increased. Increasing R_{out} can be done by placing a negative resistance R_{IN} in parallel with the output resistance R_{out}. In order to maintain the same time constant at the output node, a negative capacitance can be used. Increasing the gain A effectively decreases the input resistance and hence increase the

frequency of the input pole. As a result, an improvement of the bandwidth can be obtained.

As shown in Figure 4.1, a first-order amplifier with a negative impedance (NI) circuit is created at the output node. Both the equivalent output resistance R_{out} and equivalent output capacitance C_{out} are given as:

$$R_{out} = \frac{R_{NIC}R_{out}}{R_{NIC} - R_{out}}$$

$$C_{out} = C_{out} - C_{NIC}$$

(4.3)

Equation (4.3) shows that output capacitance C_{out} becomes smaller than C_{out} and the output resistance R_{out} becomes greater than R_{out}. This leads to increase in the voltage gain $A = g_m R_{out}$, which reduces the input resistance at the input node, while the time constant at the output node remains approximately the same.

For stability, the pole must be in the left half-plane when choosing the value of R_{NI} to be larger than R_{out} and $C_{NI} < C_{out}$. NI circuit could be realized by adding active circuit to output node.

From the point of theory, this technique could be applied at the input node also. When placing the negative impedance components at the input node, the input resistor increases and the input capacitance decreases. The large photodiode capacitance still limits the bandwidth because the value of the negative capacitance does not provide the effective reduction of the input capacitance to expand the bandwidth. In order to show the bandwidth improvement, a large value of negative capacitance is required which is very complex to implement using active devices.

In order to simplify our discussion, the principle of the proposed TIA is explained using Miller effect as mentioned above. However, to address the fundamental problem of the TIA design, an alternative analysis can be used. Figure 4.2 shows the small signal equivalent circuit at high frequencies using single MOS transistor amplifier stage. The transimpedance gain is given as:

$$\frac{V_{out}}{I_{in}} = \frac{(sR_F C_{in} + 1 - g_m R_F)R_{out}}{R_F R_{out} x^2 s^2 + (R_F(1 + g_m R_{out})C_F + R_{out}C_{out} + (R_F + R_{out})C_{in})s + 1 + g_m R_{out}}$$

(4.4)
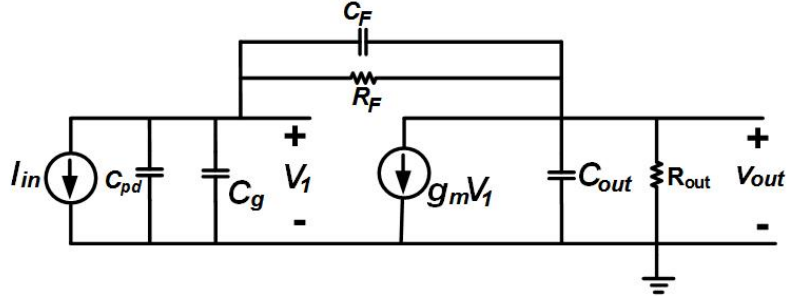
Figure 4.2 : Small signal equivalent circuit of TIA.

where $x = C_F C_{out} + C_{out} C_{in} + C_{in} C_F$. For dc case $(s = 0)$, Equation (4.4) can be simplified as:

$$\frac{V_{out}}{I_{in}} = \frac{(g_m R_F - 1)}{1 + g_m R_{out}} R_{out} \approx -R_F \tag{4.5}$$

As shown in Equation (4.4), the circuit contains one zero and two poles. By ignoring the effect of the zero, $f_z = \frac{1 - g_m R_F}{2\pi R_F C_F} = \frac{-g_m}{C_F}$, which is greater than f_{-3B} [1], the bandwidth can be approximately given as:

$$f_{-3db} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{R_F}{A} C_{in}(C_{out} + C_F) R_{out}}} \tag{4.6}$$

where $A = g_m R_{out}$ and g_m is the transconductance of the amplifier. As seen in Equation (4.6), in order to boost the bandwidth of the TIA, the gain A should be large during the design process and the output capacitance should be small. The main goal of using negative impedance (NI) circuit is increasing the gain A and decreasing the output capacitance C_{out} as mentioned previously.

4.3 The negative impedance (NI) circuit

The negative impedance (NI) circuit for single-ended transceiver can be realized with active devices as shown in Figure 4.3.(a). The circuit consists of NMOS transistor M_1 and NMOS transistor M_2 in diode configuration. The source of the diode is connected in series resistance R_s and inductor L_s. The equivalent small signal model of the negative impedance (NI) circuit is shown in Figure 4.3.(b). The input impedance Z_{in} is given as:

$$Z_{in} \approx R_s + sL_s + \frac{1}{sC_{gs1}} + \frac{1}{g_{m2} + sC_{gs2}} + \frac{g_{m1}}{sC_{gs1}} \left(R_s + sL_s + \frac{1}{g_{m2} + sC_{gs2}} \right) \tag{4.7}$$

where g_{m1} and g_{m2} are the transconductance of the transistors and C_{gs1} and C_{gs2} are the gate-source capacitances. Better bandwidth improvement can be obtained by inserting
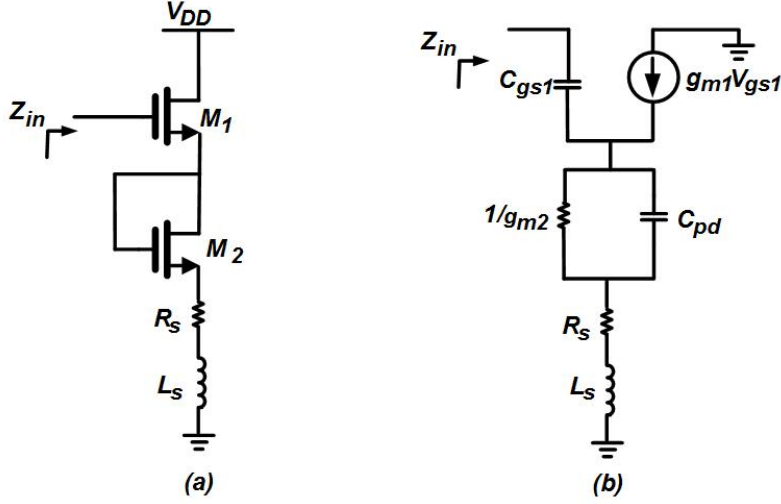
Figure 4.3 : (a) Negative impedance (NI) circuit. (b) Small signal equivalent model of the NI.

series inductor L_s between C_{out} and C_{NI}. Because it resembles as a third order LC ladder filter [33]. Equation (4.8), represents the real part of the input impedance.

$$Re\{Z_{in}\} \approx R_s + \frac{g_{m_1}L_s}{C_{gs1}} + \frac{g_{m2}}{g_{m2}^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs2}^2} - \frac{g_{m1}(C_{gs2}/C_{gs1})}{g_{m2}^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs2}^2} \tag{4.8}$$

As pointed out in (4.8), to obtain a negative resistance, the total value of $Re\{Z_{in}\}$ should be negative. The value of the negative resistance is limited by the size of the transistors, the series inductor L_s and the series resistor R_s . The imaginary part of the input impedance of $Im\{Z_{in}\}$ can be expressed as:

$$Im\{Z_{in}\} \approx \omega L_s - \frac{1}{\omega C_{gs1}} - \frac{g_{m1}R_s}{\omega C_{gs1}} - \frac{\omega C_{gs2}}{g_{m2}^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs2}^2} - \frac{g_{m1}g_{m2}/(\omega C_{gs1})}{g_{m2}^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs2}^2} \tag{4.9}$$

Assuming that both transistors have identical transconductance $(g_{m1} = g_{m2})$, $\omega^2 L_s C_{gs1} < 1$ and $\omega^2 C_{gs}^2 < g_m^2$, then $Im\{Z_{in}\}$ can be simplified as:

$$Im\{Z_{in}\} \approx -\frac{1}{\omega C_{gs1}}(\omega L_s C_{gs1} - g_{m1}R_s) < \frac{1}{\omega C_{gs1}} \tag{4.10}$$

Figure 4.4 and 4.5 show the plots of the real and the imaginary components of the negative impedance NI circuit. From the simulation results, we see that the real part represents a negative resistance that varies with the frequency. The NI circuit provides an enough negative resistance at frequencies up to7 GHz. The imaginary component acts as a negative capacitance.

Figure 4.6 illustrates the variation of the capacitance value over the frequency capacitance value at the frequency of 7 GHz as $-5 \ fF$.
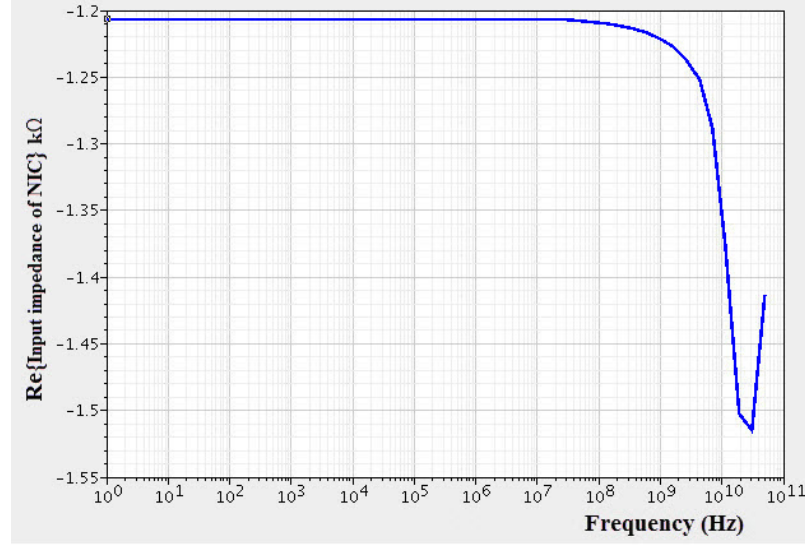
Figure 4.4 : The real component of the input impedance of Z_{NI}.
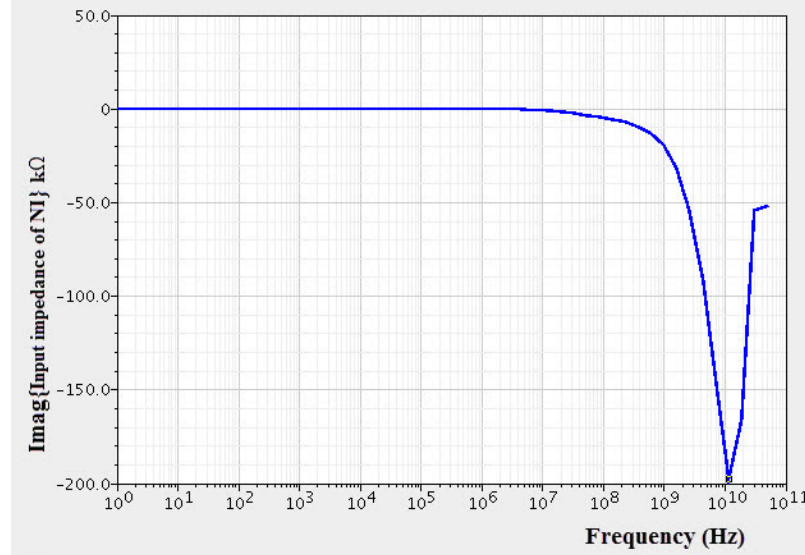
Figure 4.5 : The imaginary component of the input impedance of Z_{NI}.

4.4 Configuration of the proposed TIA with negative impedance *NI* circuit

The simplified diagram of the proposed transimpedance amplifier (TIA) is shown in Figure 4.7. It is a single-ended design including NMOS transistor M_x, feedback resistor R_F connecting the output to the input in order to decrease the dominant effect of the input pole, and negative impedance (NI) circuit. The output of TIA is taken at the drain of transistor M_x. In the proposed TIA, between the drain capacitance of M_x and the gate capacitance of M_1, a small series inductor L_1 can improve the bandwidth further.
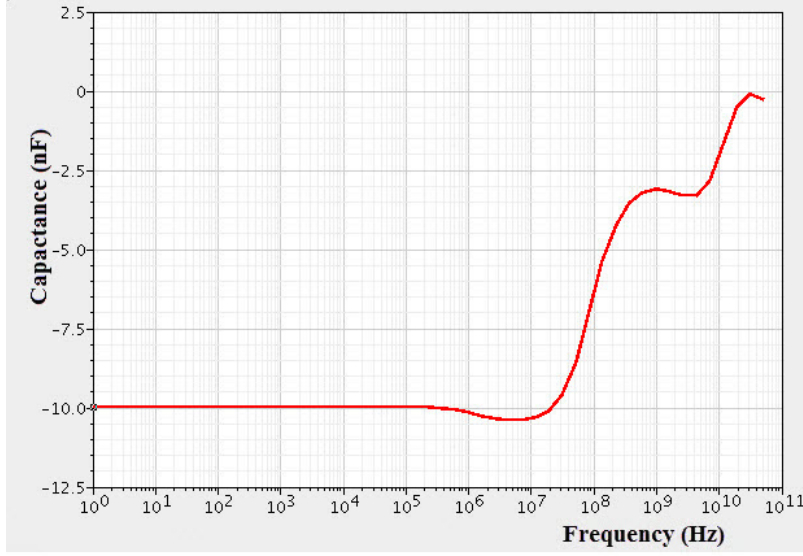
Figure 4.6 : Variation of *NI* capacitance over the frequency.
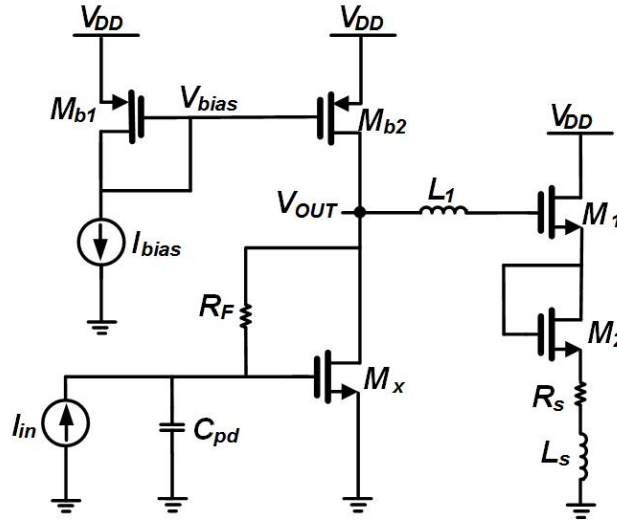
Figure 4.7 : A proposed circuit digram of the *TIA*.

4.5 Active inductor (*AI*)

CMOS active inductors (*AIs*) have become a very popular research topic recently due to several advantages over passive inductors. AIs can be realized with circuits that occupy small chip area. Moreover AIs have a large and variable inductance and high quality factor. On the other hand, AIs however have some major drawbacks compared to spiral inductors such as poor noise performance, and small dynamic range, nonlinear behavior, dc power dissipation, sensitivity to process, , voltage and temperature variations. The bandwidth extension topologies commonly use on-chip inductors to compensate the capacitance effects but their associated hardware cost is

very high. As a result, decreasing the area of required inductors for a TIA design is very important. Most AIs reported in [75–79] were based on the knowledge of gyrator C topology. As we need to design a floating active inductors to implement the negative admittance circuit (NI), the architecture of active inductors in [80, 81] could be used to obtain several nH of inductance operating at a few GHz region as shown in Figure 4.8. The gyrator is implemented by connection of two differential transconductance amplifiers back to back. The cross coupled NMOS transistors M_7 and M_8 provide a negative resistance to reducing the total series resistance of the active inductor network which provides a high quality factor Q of the active inductor. For simplicity, the circuit can be separated into two identical half-circuit. Figure 4.9(a) displays the small-signal equivalent circuit of half-circuit [82]. The input impedance can by simplified as:
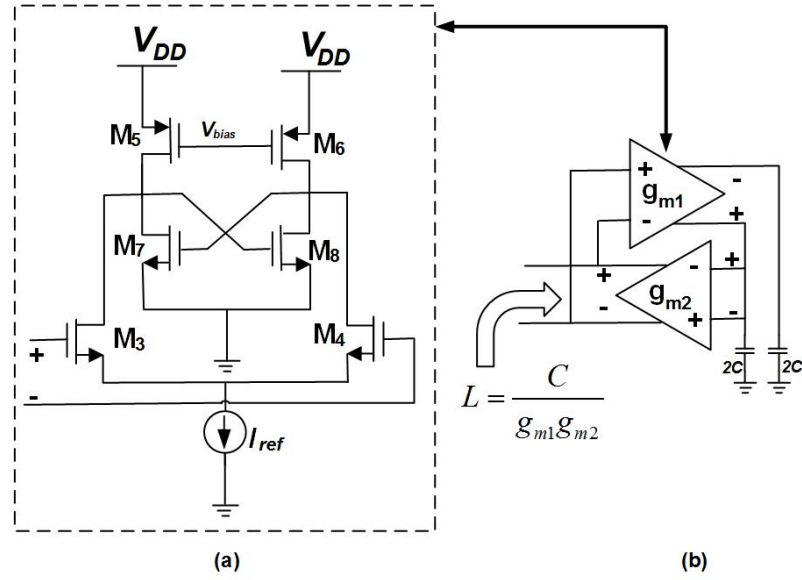
Figure 4.8 : Circuit schematic of floating active inductor.

$$Z_{in} \approx 2\frac{g_2 + sC_2}{s^2C_1C_2 + s(g_1C_2 + s(g_1C_2 + g_2C_1)) + g_{m1}g_{m2}g_1g_2} \tag{4.11}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are the total capacitance of the drain nodes, g_1 and g_2 are the total conductance at the drain nodes [82].

Figure 4.9(b) shows the simplified model of the active inductor. The elements value L, R, G, and C can be calculated thus:

$$L = \frac{2C_2}{g_{m1}g_{m2}}, L = \frac{2g_2}{g_{m1}g_{m2}}, G = \frac{g_1}{2}, C = \frac{C_1}{2} \tag{4.12}$$
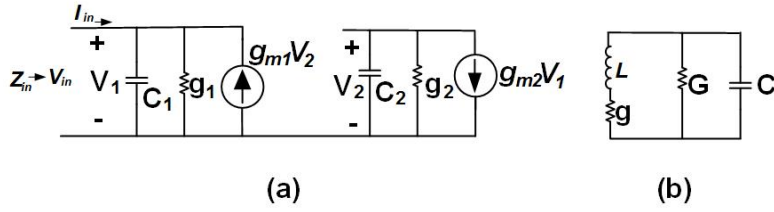
Figure 4.9 : (a) equivalent small-signal of half-circuit of Floating active inductor (b) Simplified model of active inductor.

Equation (4.12) shows that the desired inductance value can be obtained by decreasing g_{m1} and g_{m2} or increasing C_2.

4.6 Noise analysis of the proposed transimpedance amplifier

The proper characterization of noise of the TIA is important for the receiver due to the small current of the photodiode. Replacing the passive inductors by active elements produce some noise in the response of the proposed TIA. So, in order to operate at high sensitivity, the noise level must be very small [83]. The main noise sources of the TIA are the thermal noise of the resistor, the noise of MOS transistor and the flicker that can be neglected because it is not dominant.
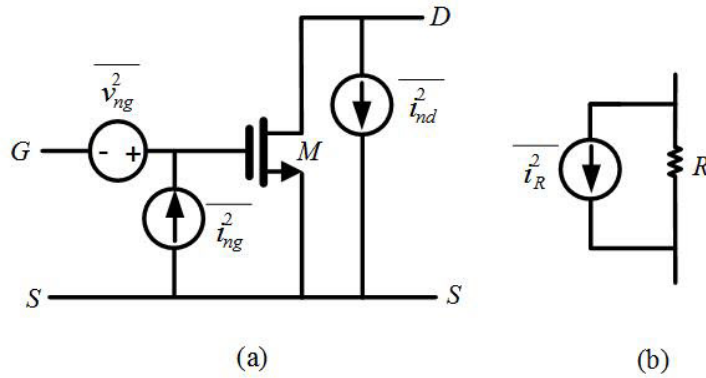
Figure 4.10 : (a) Noise model of MOS transistor, (b) Noise model of a resistor.

Both the transistor and resistor noise models are shown in Figure 4.10, where $\overline{v_{ng}^2} = \frac{\overline{i_{nd}^2}}{g_m^2}$. Both noises sources of the gate and the source can be modeled by shunt current source with noise powers of $\overline{i_{ng}^2} = 4k_BT\delta\Delta f(\omega^2 C_{gs}^2/5g_{d0})$ and $\overline{i_{nd}^2} = 4k_BT\gamma g_{d0}\Delta f$, respectively, where T is the temperature (Kelvin) , γ is the bias dependent factor, k_B is the Boltzmann's constant (Joule/Kelvin), C_{gs} is the gate-source capacitance, δ is the gate noise factor and g_{d0} is the zero bias of transconductance of the transistor [84, 85].

From the *TIA* circuit in Figure 4.7, the equivalent input referred current noise of M_x is given as:

$$\overline{i_{ngx}^2} = 2qk_BI_{Gx} + \omega^2 C_{gsx}^2 \overline{v_{ngx}^2} \tag{4.13}$$

where q is the electron charge, I_{Gx} is the gate induced current that can be neglected and $\overline{v_{ngx}^2}$ is given as:

$$\overline{v_{ngx}^2} = \frac{\overline{i_{ngx}^2}}{g_{mx}^2} = \frac{\overline{i_{RF}^2} + \overline{i_{nx}^2} + \overline{i_{ngL1}^2} + \frac{\overline{v_{ng}^2} - \overline{v_{ngx}^2}}{R} + \overline{i_{nL1}^2}}{g_{mx}^2} \tag{4.14}$$

where $\overline{i_{nL1}^2}$ is the equivalent input noise of active inductor L_1. The simplified expression of the equivalent input noise of active inductor L_1 can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{i_{nL1}^2} =& \overline{i_{ng}^2} + \overline{i_{dn}^2} + \overline{i_{dp}^2} + 2g_{mp}^2\overline{v_{gp}^2} + g_{mn}^2 Z_{gn}^2 2\overline{i_{gn}^2} + 2\overline{i_{dn}^2} + 2\overline{i_{dp}^2} + 2g_{mp}^2\overline{v_{gp}^2} \\
=& 2\overline{i_{gn}^2}(1 + g_{mn}^2 Z_{gn}^2) + 2\overline{i_{dn}^2}(1 + g_{mn}^2 Z_{gn}^2) + 2\overline{i_{dp}^2}(1 + g_{mn}^2 Z_{gn}^2) \\
& + 4g_{mn}^4\overline{v_{gn}^2}Z_{gn}^2 + 2\overline{g}_{mp}^2\overline{v_{gp}^2}(1 + g_{gmn}^2 Z_{gn}^2)
\end{aligned} \tag{4.15}$$

Note that $Z_{gn}^2 = \frac{1}{\omega^2 C_{gn}^2}$ [86], then the input noise of serial active inductor $\overline{i_{nLs}^2}$ is derived as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{i_{nL1}^2} =& 8k_BT\Delta f\left(1 + \frac{g_{mn}^2}{\omega^2 C_{gsn}^2}\right)\left(\delta_n\frac{\omega^2 C_{gsn}^2}{5g_{d0n}} + \gamma_n g_{d0n} + \gamma_p g_{d0p} + \delta_p\frac{g_{mp}^2}{5g_{d0p}}\right) \\
& + 8k_BT\Delta f\delta_p\frac{g_{mn}^4}{5g_{d0p}\omega^2 C_{gsn}^2}.
\end{aligned} \tag{4.16}$$

then total input noise $\overline{i_{in,total}^2}$ becomes:

$$\overline{i_{in,total}^2} = \overline{i_{nf}^2} + \overline{i_{nL1}^2} + \left(\frac{1}{R_f^2} + \omega^2 C_{in}^2\right)\overline{v_{ngx}^2} \tag{4.17}$$

where $\overline{i_{nf}^2}$ is the thermal noise of diode resistance R_f which is given by:

$$\overline{i_{nf}^2} = \frac{4k_BT}{R_f} \tag{4.18}$$

Substituting Equations (4.14), (4.15), (4.16) and (4.18) into Equation (4.17), the simplified expression of total input noise $\overline{i_{in,total}^2}$ can be written as:

$$\overline{i_{in,total}^2} \approx \frac{4k_BT}{R_f} + \frac{1}{g_{mx}^2}\left(\frac{1}{R_f^2} + \omega^2 C_{in}^2\right) \tag{4.19}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left\{\frac{4k_BT}{R_F} + k_BT\gamma g_{d0}\Delta f + 4k_BT\delta\Delta f\frac{\omega^2 C_{gs}^2}{5g_{d0}} + 8k_BT\Delta f\left(1 + \frac{g_{mn}^2}{\omega^2 C_{gsn}^2}\right)\right. \\
&\left.\left(\delta_n\frac{\omega^2 C_{gs}^2}{5g_{d0n}} + \gamma_n g_{d0} + \gamma_p g_{d0p} + \delta_p\frac{g_{mp}^2}{5g_{d0}}f\frac{\omega^2 C_{gs}^2}{5g_{d0}}\right) + 8k_BT\delta_p\Delta f\frac{g_{mn}^4}{5g_{d0}\omega^2 C_{gsn}^2}\right\}
\end{aligned}$$

As seen in Equation (4.19), the total noise can be minimized by choosing R_F and g_{mx} to be as large as possible. Improving g_{mx} can be done by increasing bias current or expanding the aspect ratio W/L of the transistor. High power consumption is induced when bias current increases. Moreover, using a large transistor aspect ratio increases the capacitance C_{gs} and C_{gsn} which generates more noise. As a result, we have to select the proper ratio W/L and bias current to optimize the noise performance.

4.7 Simulation results

In order to evaluate the performance of the proposed TIA as shown in Figure 4.11, the TIA was implemented using 180 nm RF MOS transistors in a HV CMOS process technology. All post layout simulation results have been performed by using cadence software tools.
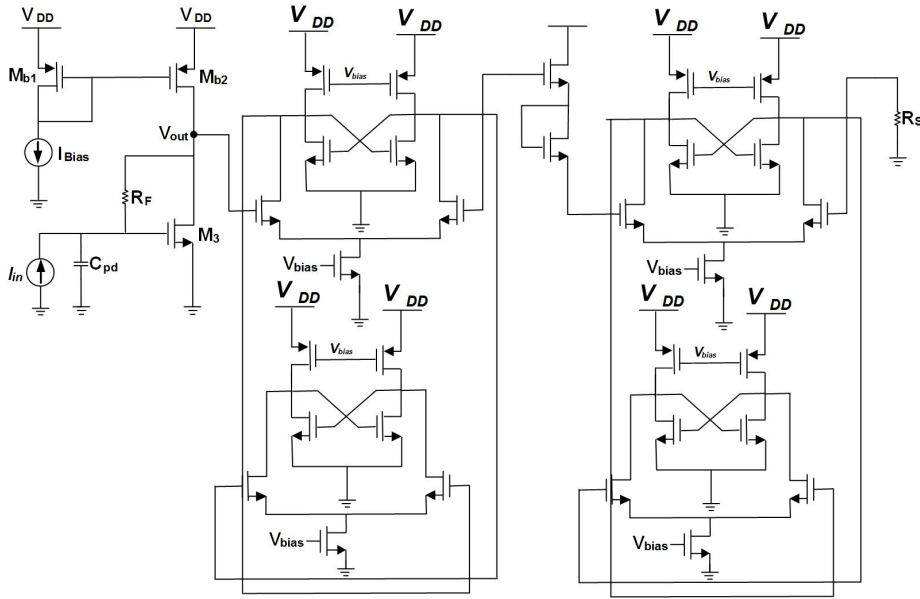
Figure 4.11 : TIA realization.

Figure 4.12 shows the simulated transimpedance gain versus frequency for $50fF$ photodiode capacitance for the proposed TIA with and without the negative impedance NI circuit. The proposed TIA with NI is described as having a transimpedance gain of 54.3 $dB\Omega$ and bandwidth of 7 GHz. The simulation results shows that the bandwidth is improved by 6 GHz compared to the TIA without negative impedance NI circuit and without scarifying the gain. As a result, the overall bandwidth of the TIA with NI is extended 7 times more. Simulations resulted in considerable increase of gain

bandwidth product (*GBP*) by a factor of 5. The *TIA* consumes 29 *mW* from 1.8 *V* supply.
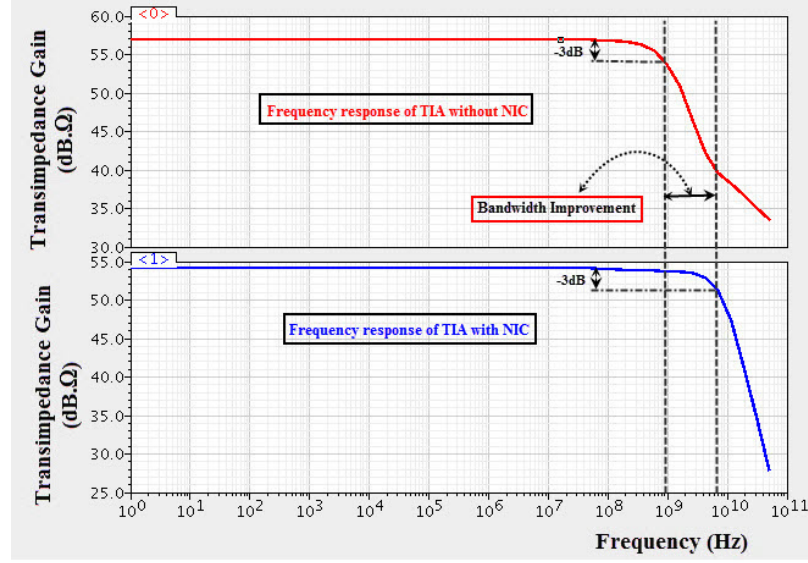
Figure 4.12 : Simulation results comparison of the frequency response of TIA with and without *NI*.

Figure 4.13 shows the frequency response of the *TIA* for different photodiode capacitances varying from 50 *fF* to 200 *fF*. For photodiode capacitance 200 *fF*, the -3_{dB} bandwidth is above 2.5 *GHz* and it is above 3.5 *GHz* with a value of photodiode capacitance 100 *fF*.
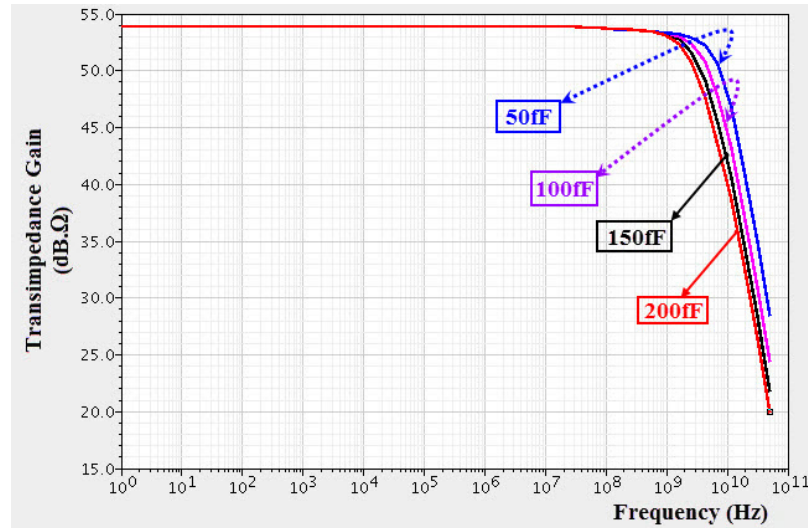
Figure 4.13 : Frequency response of the proposed TIA for four different values of C_{pd}.

Figure 4.14 illustrates the simulation of input noise current spectral density. Simulation results shows an equivalent input noise current spectral density below 5.9 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$

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within bandwidth of 7 *GHz*. Figure 4.15 shows the group-delay variation with
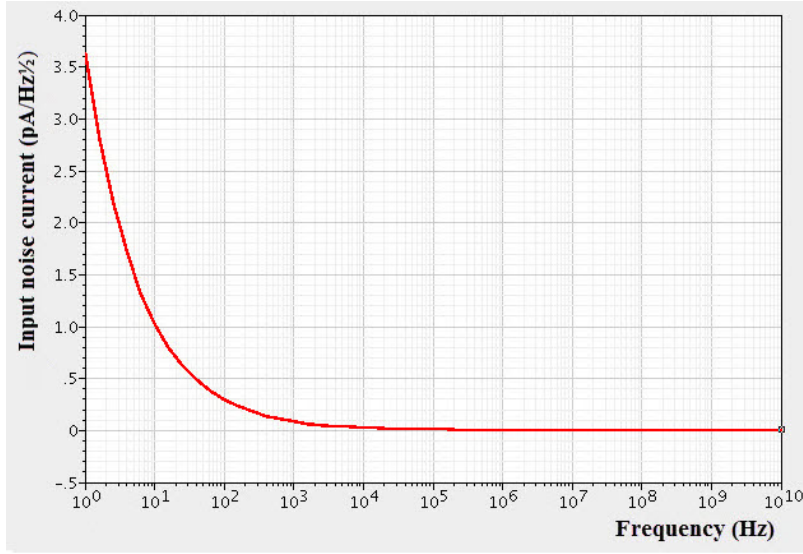
Figure 4.14 : Spectral density of the input noise current as function of frequency.

frequency. The TIA has a minimum group delay of 26 *ps*, increases to 30 *ps* within the bandwidth of 7*GHz*. The output signal will suffer less from distortion when the photodiode capacitance value is 50 *fF*. The comparison of the frequency response
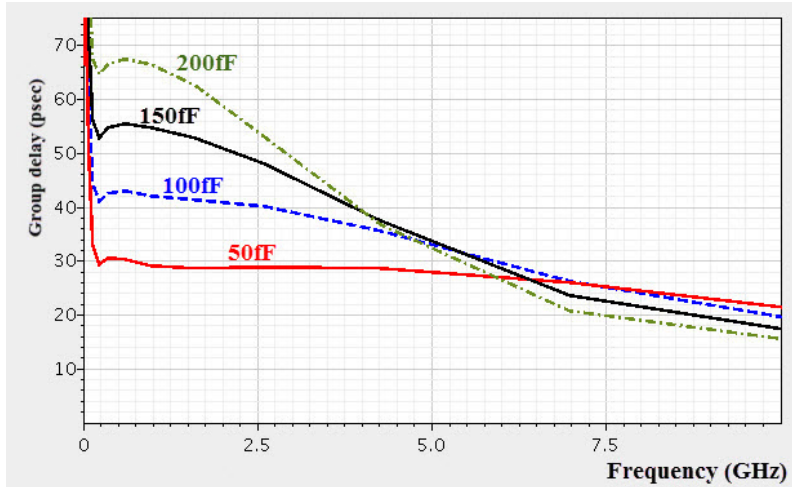
Figure 4.15 : Measured group delay variation of TIA for different values of C_{pd}.

of both the schematic and extracted circuit of the TIA are shown in Figure 4.16. For the same gain of 54.25 $dB.\Omega$, the -3 dB bandwidth of the schematic circuit of *TIA* is 7 *GHz* and 6.5 *GHz* for the extracted layout circuit.

To study the impact of the process variations on the frequency response of the TIA, a set of 100 samples has been chosen for Monte Carlo simulation [87]. As shown in Figure 4.17, the frequency response has a small variation due to process variation and mismatching.

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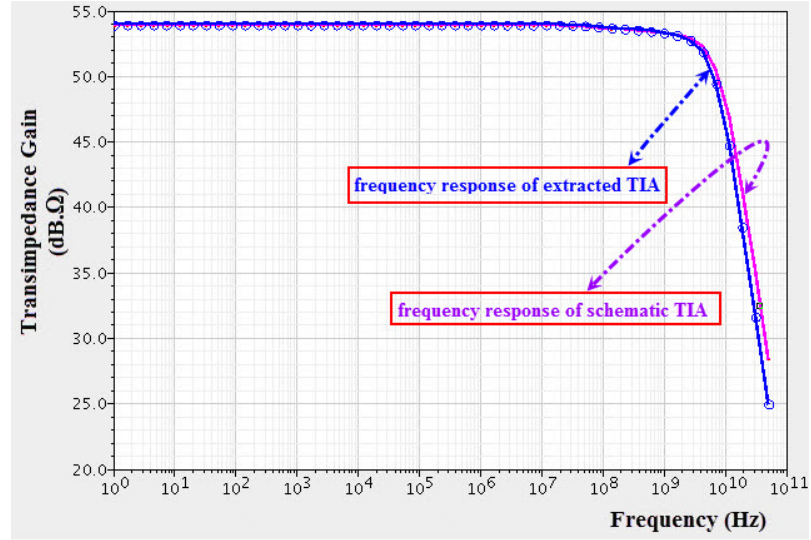
Figure 4.16 : The frequency response of the TIA (schematic and extracted).
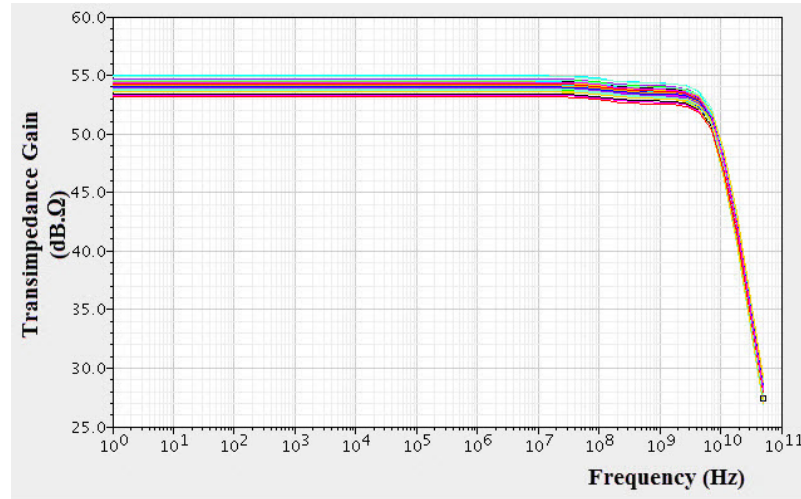
Figure 4.17 : Monte Carlo simulation results for the frequency response for 100 samples.

Corner analysis is used to make the design more realistic by simulating the circuit in different operational conductions, such as different temperatures and altered process corners. Figure 4.18 shows the transient response of the TIA at different process corners for $10\mu A_{(p-p)}$. As a result, the merits of proposed TIA shows that the TIA can work normally at different process corners with a small input current for wide bandwidth. Figure 4.19 shows layout of the TIA. The occupied area of the layout is $230\mu m \times 43\mu m$.

Table 4.1 shows a comparison of the proposed TIA performance with other works. From Table 4.1, it can be seen that the noise of the proposed TIA is smaller than
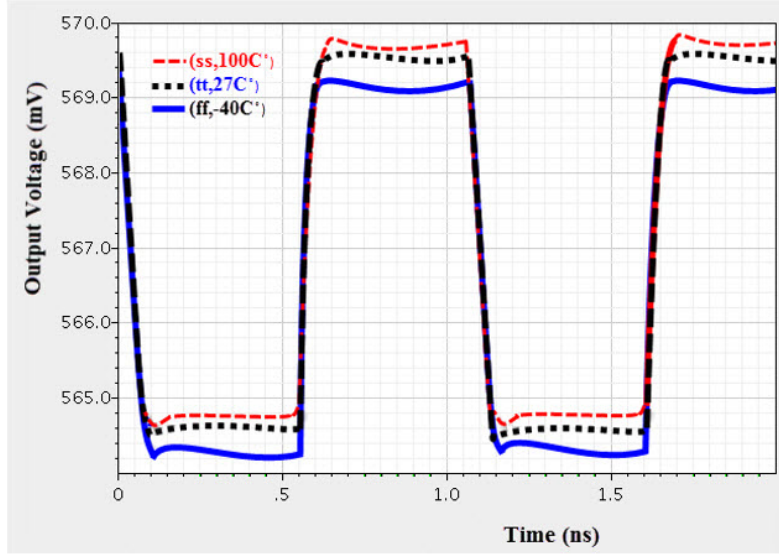
Figure 4.18 : Transient response of the TIA under different corners.
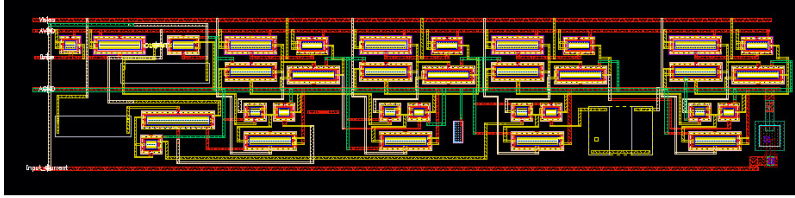
Figure 4.19 : Layout of the TIA.

Table 4.1 : Performance Comparison of Recent CMOS TIAs.

Ref.	C_{pd} (fF)	Gain ($dB\Omega$)	BW (GHz)	Power (mW)	Noise ($pA/\sqrt{Hz}$)	Area
This work [a]	50	54.3	7	29	5.9	$230\mu m \times 45\mu m$
[88] [a]	50	54.3	5.35	3.5	8.2	——
[8] [b]	50	51	30.5	60.1	34.3	$1.17mm \times 0.46mm$
[89] [b]	–	60	6.9	16.9	–	$0.051mm^2$
[90] [b]	–	50	7.5	4.1	–	$42mm \times 0.17mm$
[91] [a]	–	51.7	8.5	14	–	–
[92] [a]	200	64.8	4.5	3.5	13.7	$97\mu m \times 53\mu m$

a: Simulation results, b: Measurement results

the other TIA configurations, where the active inductors have been used. The power consumption is comparatively higher than the other TIA circuits.

4.8 Conclusion

This paper presents a compact transimpedance amplifier *TIA*. The effects of using the negative impedance *NI* circuit are demonstrated through a proposed transimpedance

amplifier. The TIA is implemented in 180 *nm* RF MOS transistors in a HV CMOS technology with 1.8 *V* supply voltage technology. Cadence tools is used in analyzing the performance of the *TIA*. It is observed that the *TIA* provides -3dB bandwidth at 7 *GHz*, transimpedance gain of 54.3 *dB*.Ω in the presence of a 50 fF photodiode capacitance and input referred noise current spectral density of $5.9 pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. The power consumption is 29 *mW*. The TIA occupies $230\mu m \times 45\mu m$ of area. Simulation results show that the TIA is very proficient for applications in optical transceivers.

5. IMPROVE THE BANDWIDTH OF TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER USING MATCHING TECHNIQUE

This chapter describes a matching technique to improve the bandwidth of multi-GHz frequency ranges for the transimpedance amplifier. It is shown that by simultaneously using of series input matching topology and T-output matching network, the bandwidth of the TIA can be obviously improved. This methodology is supported by a design example in a 0.18 μm CMOS technology. The post layout simulation results show a -3dB bandwidth of 20 GHz with 50 fF photodiode capacitance, a transimpedance gain of 52.6 $dB\Omega$, 11 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ input referred noise and group delay less than 8.3 ps. The TIA dissipates 1.3 mW from a 1.8 V supply voltage.

5.1 Introduction

The continuous growth in the commercial wireless telecommunications market has been driving to satisfy the demands of high speed, low cost and high integration of radio-frequency (RF) broad-band receivers [93]. Recently, it is reported that, every ten years, the speed of analog CMOS circuits increases by one order of magnitude. Moreover, the integration and cost advantages of CMOS technologies encouraged extensive work on developing the optical communication system [94].

One of the main challenges in the receiver system is the design of a wideband transimpedance amplifier TIA. In CMOS technology, common source (CS) and common gate (CG) are the most used transistor configurations in TIA topologies. CS TIA has high gain and superior good noise performance. CG configuration provides low power, less parasitic stable circuit, and less noise performance [92, 95, 96]. Furthermore, the inductive source degenerated technique is used to improve both the gain and noise performance of TIA [97].

The input matching mechanism is conceivable for CG configuration so that, it is extensively used in wideband TIA circuits [98, 99]. On the other hand, CS configuration may be used in wideband TIAs using feedback network or matching circuits.

Cascode stage is generally used in CMOS RF circuits. It composes of a *CS* stage followed by a *CG* stage. Cascode configuration provides high power gain, better noise performance and low power consumption [100]. For low frequencies, the noise sources of the upper transistor is degenerated by the output impedance of the lower transistor. Therefore cascode stage configuration has better noise performance. In high frequencies, the admittance parasitic of common node (drain-source) increases as frequency increases. As a result, when the source impedance of upper transistor is low, its drain noise performs in the output [95, 101]. It is possible to improve the bandwidth of cascode stage using feedback technique [102, 103] and matching networks [104].

In this chapter, a matching technique is applied to improve the bandwidth of the transimpedance amplifier based on using cascode topology. The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 5.2 demonstrates the proposed TIA design. The matching technique to improve bandwidth is presented in Section 5.3 and Section 5.4. The noise analysis is discussed in Section 5.5. To demonstrate the practicality of this technique, the simulation results of a design example is followed in Section 5.6.

5.2 The proposed TIA design

Applying proper matching networks at the input and the output nodes are the strategic phases in improving the bandwidth of the TIA. For cascode topology, the input impedance is pure capacitive (in very low frequencies) so that a resistive part must be added to the input impedance. That can be done by connecting a degenerating inductance in the source of *CS* transistor. On the other hand, *CG* configuration offers wideband matching possibility.

It has been explored that combination of *CS* configuration in the first stage and cascode configuration in the second stage provides good noise performance of *CS* stage and high gain of cascode stage [105, 106]. The noise is small because of capacitances and parasitic admittances existence at the cascode node. So that, the best topology of the proposed TIA design is cascading stages of *CS* cascode configuration as shown in Figure 5.1. Both the input and output matching techniques will be explained in the next sections.
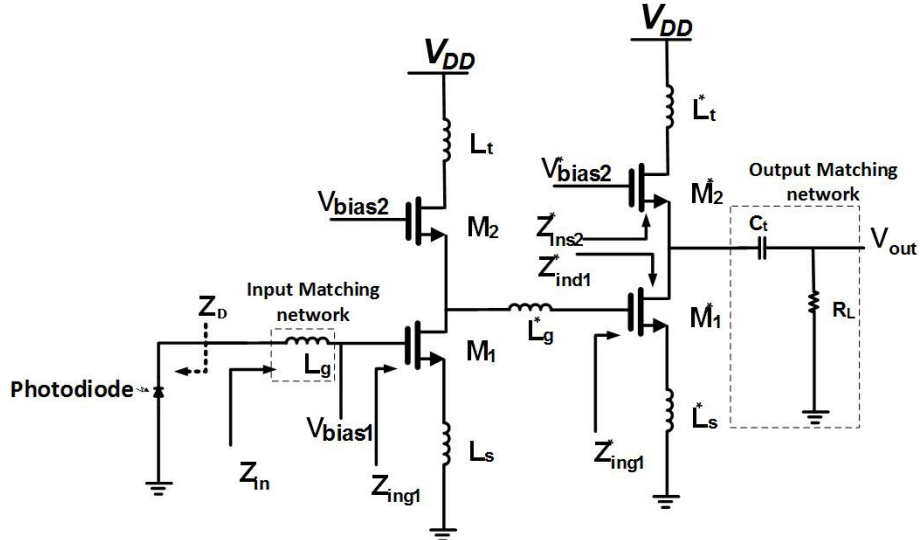
Figure 5.1 : Schematic of proposed TIA with matching networks.

5.3 Input matching analysis

There are different topologies which could be used to implement the input matching. Probably the simplest matching network is using a series inductor at the gate of the input transistor as shown in Figure 5.1. Figure 5.2 shows the small signal model of the input matching circuit. Neglecting the effect of the feedback capacitance C_{gd1} of the input transistor M_1 and the drain-source conductance g_{o1}, The input impedance Z_{ing1} can be represented as the parallel of a resistance R_p with the capacitor C_{gs}. Thus, the small signal model to calculate the input impedance Z_{in} has to be redrawn as shown in Figure 5.3.
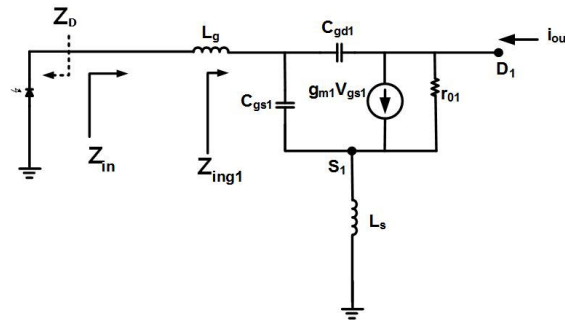
Figure 5.2 : Small signal model of the input matching of Figure 5.1.
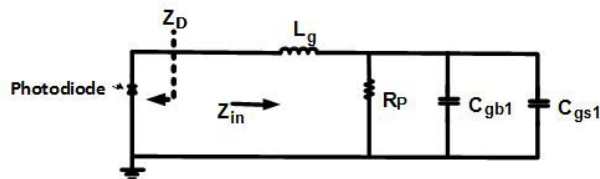
Figure 5.3 : Simplified small signal model to calculate of Z_{in}.

The input impedance Z_{in} is given by:

$$Z_{in} = \frac{R_p}{1 + \omega^2 R_p^2 C_T^2} \tag{5.1}$$
$$+ j\omega \left(\frac{L_g - R_p^2 C_T (1 - \omega^2 L_g C_T)}{1 + \omega^2 R_p^2 C_T^2} \right)$$

where L_s is the degeneration inductor at the source of M_1 and g_{m1} is the transconductance of transistor M_1. Both of R_p and C_T are given by:

$$R_p = \frac{1}{\omega^2 L_s C_{gs1} g_{m1}} \tag{5.2}$$
$$C_T = C_{gs1} + C_{gb}$$

In order to realize a conjugate matching of the transimpdance amplifier , the real part of $Re\{Z_{in}\}$ must be equal the diode resistance R_D and the imaginary competent of $Im\{Z_{in}\}$ have to be complex conjugate of photodiode impedance X_s. That means :

$$R_D = \frac{R_p}{1 + \omega^2 R_p^2 C_T^2} \quad , \tag{5.3}$$
$$- \omega \left(\frac{L_g - R_p^2 C_T (1 - \omega^2 L_g C_T)}{1 + \omega^2 R_p^2 C_T^2} \right) = \frac{1}{\omega C_{pd}}$$

where C_{pd} is the photodiode capacitance .

From Equation (5.3), matching conductions can be satisfied by using the proper values of the inductances L_s and L_g. Supposing that $\omega^2 R_p^2 C_T^2 \gg 1$, then L_s can be given by:

$$L_s = \frac{R_D}{\omega} \left(\frac{C_T}{C_{gs1}} \right), L_g = \frac{\frac{1}{C_{pd}} + \frac{1}{C_{gs1}}}{\omega R_D g_{m1}^2} \tag{5.4}$$

where ω is cut- off frequency.

5.4 Output matching analysis

As shown in Figure 5.4, we choose the T configuration to implement the output matching. In order to calculate the output impedance Z_{out}, first of all, we have to determine the admittance Y_{ins2} at the source of M_2. From the small signal circuit shown in Figure 5.4(a), we have:

$$Y_{ins2} = Y_{db2} - \frac{(g_{m2} + g_{o2})(C_{gs2} g_{o2} + C_{gd2} Y_{ss2})}{Y_{ss2} C_{gs2}} \tag{5.5}$$
$$+ (g_{m2} + g_{o2}) \frac{C_{gd2}}{C_{gs2}} + (j\omega C_{gd2} + g_{o2})$$

where, $Y_{ss2} = Y_{s2} + Y_{sb2} + j\omega C_{gs2} + g_{m2} + g_{o2}$, Y_{s2} is the load at the source of transistor M_2 that given by $(Y_{s2} = Y_{sb2} + Y_{ind1})$, and Y_{sb2} is source-substrate admittance of M_2 , Y_{db2} is drain-substrate admittance of M_2 and Y_{ind1} is the input admittance to the drain of M_1.

$$Y_{ind1} = Y_{db1} + \frac{j\omega(C_{gs1}g_{o1} + C_{gd1}Y_{ss1})}{j\omega C_{gs1}(-j\omega C_{gs1} - g_{m1}) + Y_{ss1}Y_{gg1}} \quad (5.6)$$
$$\times \left(-j\omega C_{gd1} + g_{m1} - \frac{(g_{m1} + g_{o1})Y_{gg1}}{j\omega C_{gs1}} \right)$$
$$+ (j\omega C_{gd1} + g_{o1})(g_{m1} + g_{o1})\frac{C_{gd1}}{C_{gs1}}$$

where $Y_{ss1} = Y_{s1} + Y_{sb1} + j\omega C_{gs1} + g_{m1} + g_{o1}$ and $Y_{gg1} = \frac{Y_{g1}}{1+R_gY_{g1}} + j\omega C_{gd1} + j\omega C_{gs1}$.

Y_{g1} is the input admittance at the gate transistor M_1, and Y_{s1} is the load at the source of M_1 which is given by : $Y_{s1} = Y_{sb} +$ generation admittance at the source of M_1'".
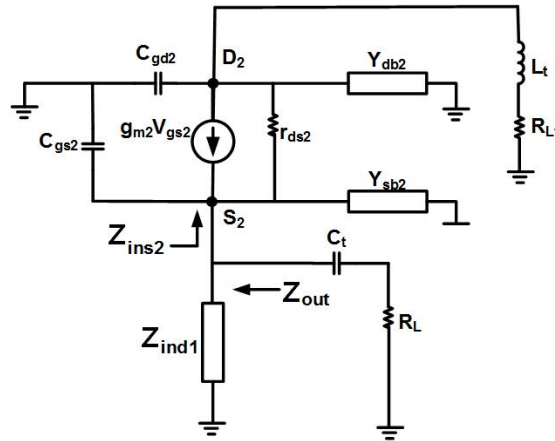
(a)
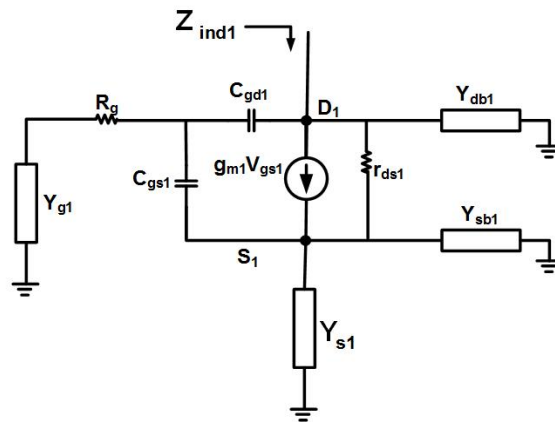
(b)

Figure 5.4 : (a) The small signal model to calculate Z_{out} (b) The small signal model to calculate $Y_{ind1'}$ at drain of M_1'.

Assuming $g_{m1} = g_{m2} = g_{m1}$, $g_{o1} = g_{o2} = g_o$, $C_{gs1} = C_{gs2} = C_{gs}$, $g_m \gg g_o$, $C_{gd1} = C_{gd2} = C_{gd}$ and $C_{gs} \gg C_{gd}$, then simplified expression of output impedance Z_{out} is given as:

$$Z_{out} = \frac{\left[\omega^2 C_{gs} L_s^* (g_o + L_s^* C_{gs} g_m) + g_m\right] + j\omega C_{gs}}{\left[\omega^2 C_{gs} L_s^* (g_o + L_s^* C_{gs} g_m) + g_m\right]^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs}^2} \tag{5.7}$$

To satisfy the complex conjugate matching conductions, the values of R_{load} and C_t are given thus:

$$R_{Load} = \frac{\omega^2 C_{gs} L_s^* (g_o + L_s^* C_{gs} g_m) + g_m}{\left[\omega^2 C_{gs} L_s^* (g_o + L_s^* C_{gs} g_m) + g_m\right]^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs}^2} \tag{5.8}$$

$$C_t = \frac{\left[\omega^2 C_{gs} L_s^* (g_o + L_s^* C_{gs} g_m) + g_m\right]^2 + \omega^2 C_{gs}^2}{\omega^2 C_{gs}}$$

As shown in (5.8), the value of C_t changes with frequency. In practical, simulation results show that, by using the average capacitance value of C_t (0.4pf) over the range of 1GHz to 20GHz, a flat gain and a wide bandwidth can be achieved.

5.5 Input noise analysis

To analysis the noise performance of the proposed TIA, the small signal noise model shown in Figure 5.5, is used which includes the noise sources of the input matching network, the active devices M_1, M_2 and the gate resistance. The load noise is neglected because it has no contribution in calculation the input noise.
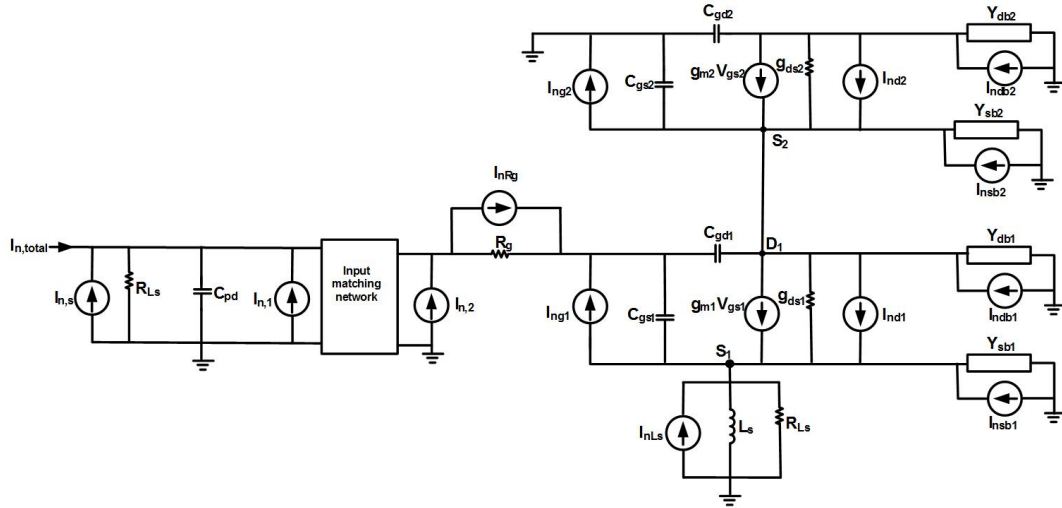
Figure 5.5 : Small signal noise model of the TIA.

The current noise generated by transistor M_1 is given by :

$$\overline{I_{n,M1}^2} = (g_{m1} + g_{o1})\left[\overline{I_{n,g1}^2}\left(\frac{1}{Y_{ig1}A_{dg1}} - A_{dg1}Z_{ss1}\right) + \overline{I_{n,d1}^2}(-Z_{cc} + A_{ds1}Z_{ss1})\right] \tag{5.9}$$

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where $I_{n,g1}^2$ is the gate noise of M_1 and is given by [107]:

$$I_{n,g1}^2 = 4k_B T \delta g_g, \quad \delta = 4/3 \quad and \quad g_g = \frac{\omega^2 C_{gs1}}{5g_{d0}} \tag{5.10}$$

where g_g is the equivalent conductance at the gate , g_{d0} is the drain-source conductance when $V_{ds} = 0$, and δ is bias dependent noise factor.

Y_{ig1} is the admittance of gate node of M_1 and is given by :

$$Y_{ig1} = \frac{(1 + R_g Y_{inm})(1 + R_g Y_{ing1})}{Y_{inm}(1 - R_g Y_{ing1}) + Y_{ing1}(1 + R_g Y_{inm})} \tag{5.11}$$

Y_{inm} is the input admittance of the input matching circuit. A_{dg1} is the transfer function between the drain and gate of M_1. It is calculated as:

$$A_{dg1} = \frac{(g_{m1} + g_{o1})(g_{m1} + j\omega C_{gs1}) - Y_{ss1}(g_{m1} - j\omega C_{gd1})}{Y_{ss1} Y_{dd1} - g_{o1}(g_{m1} + g_{o1})} \tag{5.12}$$

where,

$$Y_{ss1} = g_{m1} + j\omega C_{gs1} + g_{o1} + Y_{s1} + Y_{sb1}$$

$$Y_{dd1} = g_{o1} + j\omega C_{gd1} + Y_{d1} + Y_{db1}$$

Y_{ds1} is the transfer function between the drain and source of M_1 . It is calculated as :

$$A_{ds1} = \frac{y_{gg1}(g_{m1} + g_{o1}) + j\omega C_{gs1}(j\omega C_{gd1} - g_{m1})}{j\omega(g_{m1} - g_{o1}) + Y_{gg1} Y_{dd1}} \tag{5.13}$$

where $Y_{gg1} = j\omega C_{gs1} + j\omega C_{gd1} + \frac{Y_{g1}}{1 + R_g Y_{g1}}$ Y_{g1} is the equivalent admittance of the input matching circuit at the gate node of M_1. Z_{ss1} is the nodal impedance of the source of M_1 and is calculated as :

$$Z_{ss1} = \frac{1}{Y_{ins1} + \frac{1}{\omega L_s(j + 1/Q_{Ls})}} \tag{5.14}$$

where Y_{ins1} is the equivalent admittance at the source node of M_1 and is given by:

$$Y_{ins1} = \frac{j\omega C_{gd1}x + j\omega C_{gs1}Y_{dd}x + Y_{gg}g_{o1}(g_{m1} + g_{o1}) + \frac{C_{gs1}}{C_{gd1}}g_{o1}Y_{gg}Y_{dd}}{j\omega C_{gd1}(j\omega C_{gs1} - g_{m1}) - Y_{dd}Y_{gg} + \frac{C_{gs1}}{C_{gd1}}g_{o1} + Y_{ss}} \tag{5.15}$$

where

$$Y_{gg} = Y_{g1} + j\omega C_{gs1} + j\omega g_{o1}$$

$$Y_{ss} = g_{o1} + j\omega C_{gs1} + g_{m1} + Y_{sb1}$$

$$Y_{dd} = g_{o1} + j\omega C_{gd1} + Y_{d1} + Y_{db1}$$

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Z_{cc} is the equivalent admittance at cascode and is given by:

$$Z_{cc} = \frac{1}{Y_{ind1} + Y_{ins2}} \tag{5.16}$$

both Y_{ind1} and Y_{ins2} are calculated by using equation (5.6) and equation (5.5).

The current noise generated by transistor M_2 is given by :

$$\overline{I^2_{n,M2}} = (g_{m1} + g_{o1}) \left(-\overline{I^2_{n,g2}} + \overline{I^2_{n,g2}} \right) Z_{cc} - \overline{I^2_{n,d2}} \tag{5.17}$$

The noise outcome by gate resistor $\overline{I^2_{n,ORg}}$ is given by:

$$\overline{I^2_{n,ORg}} = (g_{m1} + g_{o1}) \times \left(Z_{ing1} A_{dg1} - Z_{gg1} A_{gi1} A_{gdi1} \right) \overline{I_{n,Rg}} \tag{5.18}$$

where, Z_{ing1} is the impedance at the gate of M_1 . A_{dgi1} is the transfer function between the drain and gate of M_1 and A_{gi1} can be determine by $A_{gi1} = 1 - Y_{ing1} R_g$.

The input matching network is modeled by two port noise model with two current noise sources $\overline{I^2_{n,1}}$ and $\overline{I^2_{n,2}}$, where,

$$I^2_{n,1} = 4 k_B T \Delta f \left(\frac{R_{Lg}}{R_{Lg} + R_s + j\omega L_g + \frac{1}{j\omega C_{pd}}} \right) \tag{5.19}$$

$$I^2_{n,2} = 0$$

Hence current noise generated by input matching network is given by :

$$\overline{I^2_{n,m}} = (g_{m1} + g_{o1}) \left(\overline{I^2_{n,1}} Z_{ii1} A_{inm1} A_{ig1} A_{dg1} \right) \tag{5.20}$$

where Z_{ii} is the equivalent input impedance, A_{inm} is the transfer function of the input matching circuit. Finally, the total input current noise is given by:

$$\overline{I^2_{n,total}} = \overline{I^2_{n,M1}} + \overline{I^2_{n,M2}} + \overline{I^2_{n,ORg}} + \overline{I^2_{n,m}} \tag{5.21}$$

5.6 Design example and simulation results

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the matching methodology, a design example was implemented using 0.18 μm HV CMOS process. Simulations are done with a single supply (i.e.1.8V) and the presence of a 50 fF photodiode capacitance. As shown in in Figure 5.6, the frequency response of the provides a transimpdance gain of 53.7 $dB\Omega$ and bandwidth range of 1 $KHz - 15\ GHz$ for schematic circuit and 20 GHz bandwidth
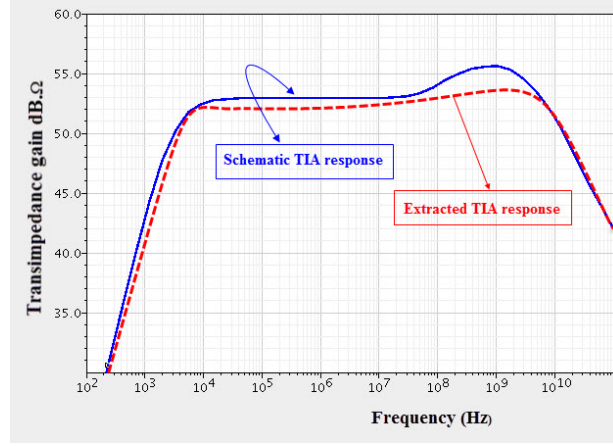
Figure 5.6 : The frequency response for $C_{pd} = 50 fF$.

with 52.6 $dB\Omega$transimpedance gain for the extracted TIA. The power consumption is in the range of 1.3 mW.

Figure 5.7 shows the frequency response against the input capacitance C_{pd}. For the photodiode capacitance of 100 fF , the gain is 55 $dB\Omega$ and bandwidth is 4.5 GHz and it is above 3 GHz for $C_{pd} = 200$ fF with gain of 57 $dB\Omega$. For large value of photodiode capacitance 500 fF, the gain becomes 61 $dB\Omega$ and 400 MHz bandwidth.
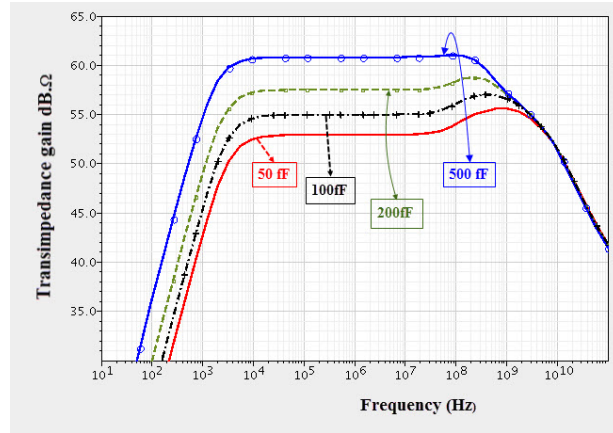
Figure 5.7 : The frequency response for different values of C_{pd}.

The simulation of input noise current spectral density against the input capacitance C_{pd} is depicted in Figure 5.8. It shows that the noise is maximum at low frequencies then it decreases at high frequencies over the desired bandwidth. The average input noise of the TIA is 11 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ for input capacitance $C_{pd} = 50$ fF and 38 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ when $C_{pd} = 500$ fF.

The group-delay variation is a significant parameter of a TIA. Even with large enough bandwidth, distortions of the output may take place if the phase linearity of the TIA

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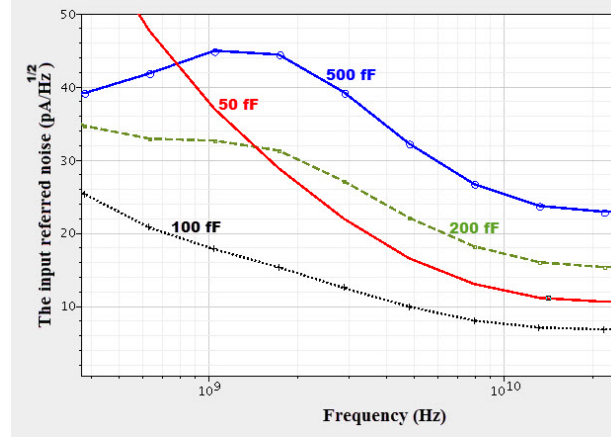
Figure 5.8 : The input noise current spectral density against the photodiode capacitance C_{pd}.

is insufficient. It can be observed in Figure 5.9, within the bandwidth of 20 *GHz*, the TIA circuit has a group delay variation of less than 8.3 *ps* when $C_{pd} = 50$ *fF*.
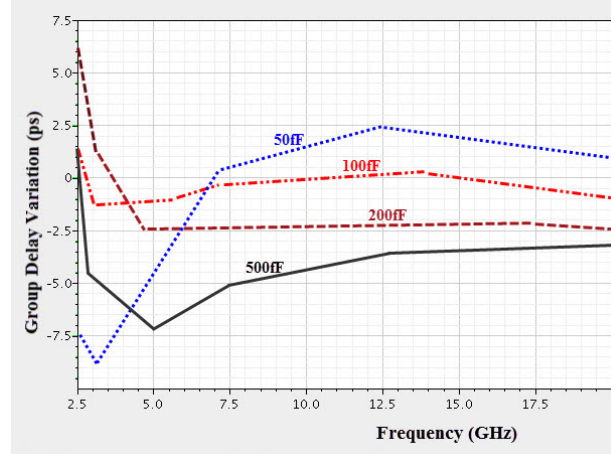
Figure 5.9 : The group delay variation of the TIA.

To study the impact of the process variations on the frequency response of the TIA, a set of 100 samples has been chosen for Monte Carlo simulation. As shown in Figure 5.10, the frequency response has a small variation due to process variation and mismatching.

Corner analysis is used to make the design more realistic by simulating the circuit in different operational conductions, such as different temperatures and altered process corners. Figure 5.11 shows the transient response of the TIA at different process corners for $10\mu A_{(p-p)}$. As a result, the merits of proposed TIA shows that the TIA can work normally at different process corners with a small input current for wide bandwidth.

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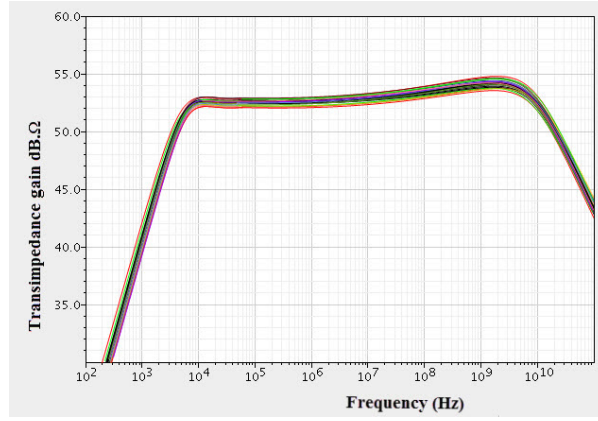
Figure 5.10 : Monte Carlo simulation results for the frequency response for 100 samples.
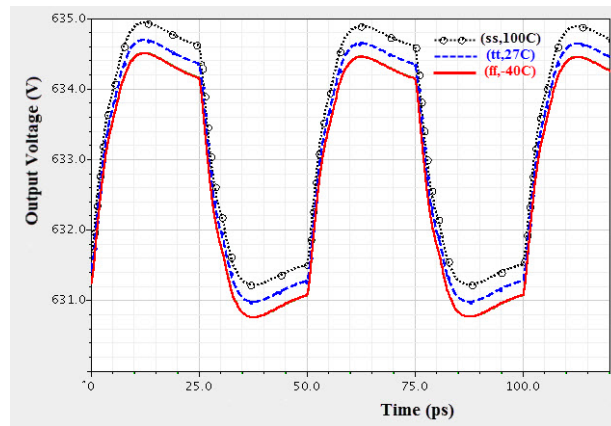
Figure 5.11 : Transient response of the TIA under different corners.
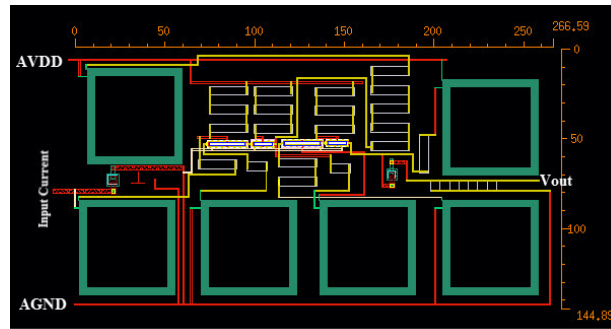
Figure 5.12 : Layout of the TIA.

Table 5.1 shows a comparison of the performance of proposed TIA with those recently reported in the literature. The performance figures show that the proposed provide wide bandwidth with smaller noise than the other TIA circuits. Furthermore while its power dissipation is the lowest with relatively small area.

Table 5.1 : Performance Comparison of Recent CMOS TIAs.

Ref.	C_{pd} (fF)	Gain $(dB\Omega)$	BW (GHz)	Power (mW)	Noise $(pA/\sqrt{Hz})$	Group dealy (ps)	Area
This work[a]	50	52.6	20	1.3	11	8.3	$140\mu m \times 266\mu m$
[92][b]	200	64.8	4.5	3.5	13.7	—	$97\mu m \times 53\mu m$
[89][b]	—	60	6.9	16.9	—	—	$0.051mm^2$
[90][a]	—	50	7.5	4.1	—	—	$42mm \times 0.17mm$
[91][a]	—	51.7	8.5	14	—		—
[108][a]	50	54.3	7	29	5.9	26	$230\mu m \times 45\mu m$
[88][a]	50	54.3	5.35	3.48	8.2	—	—
[8][b]	50	51	30.5	60.1	34.3	—	$1.17mm \times 0.46mm$

a: Simulation results, b: Measurement results

5.7 Conclusion

This work demonstrates the performance of a transimpedance amplifier TIA using matching networks technique with cascode configuration. The proposed TIA provides wide bandwidth and low noise. The TIA is designed in a 0.18 μ m CMOS technology. The post layout simulation results shows that the proposed TIA achieves a bandwidth performance of 20 *GHz*, 52.6 *dB.*Ω transimpedance gain, 11 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ input referred noise and a group variation of less than 8.3 *ps* within the pass band. The power dissipation is 1.3 *mW* from a 1.8 *V* supply voltage.

6. IMPROVE THE BANDWIDTH OF TRANSIMPEDANCE AMPLIFIER BY MODIFICATION THE INPUT CIRCUIT

We present a new transimpedance amplifier (TIA) design possessing an improved bandwidth. This TIA employs a parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies on the conventional regulated common gate (RGC) architecture. In the proposed TIA, we employ the capacitance degeneration and series inductive peaking for pole-zero elimination. We implemented the layout of proposed TIA in a 0.18 μm CMOS process, where a 100 fF photodiode is considered. Our post-simulation test results show that the TIA provides 53 $dB\Omega$ transimpedance gain and 24 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ input referred noise. The designed TIA consumes 11 mW from a 1.8 V supply, and its group-delay variation is 5 ps over 13 $GHz 3-dB$ bandwidth.

6.1 Introduction

Continuous growth in the wireless telecommunication has evolved to high level of chip integration and focused research studies towards the field of high frequency applications [109]. The accelerated CMOS technology is the only candidate that can satisfy the demands for low-cost and high integration with reasonable speed for analog applications in the Giga-Hertz range [110].

The transimpedance amplifier (TIA) is the critical block in the optical communication system that converts the induced photodiode current into an amplified voltage signal to be used in the digital processing unit. The bandwidth is considered as the highest priority in TIA design. The challenge in TIA design lies in the large photodiode parasitic capacitance C_{pd}, the input node that degrades the performances of the TIA. Therefore, it is required to decrease the input parasitic effects and prior to focusing on the compromise between the bandwidth and the noise [67].

There have been two commonly used topologies in designing wideband CMOS TIAs: the common gate (CG) amplifier and the shunt feedback amplifier [48]. Several bandwidth enhancement efforts have been reported in published literature which were

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based on isolation of the input capacitance of the photodiode to minimize its effect on the bandwidth calculation. Inductive peaking is one of the commonly used techniques to improve the bandwidth and decrease parasitic capacitance effects [111]. Placing an inductor in a strategic location of the amplifier circuit provides a resonance with parasitic capacitances, which expands the bandwidth of the TIA [5, 28, 29]. Capacitive peaking has been used for bandwidth extension by using a capacitor to control the pole locations of a feedback amplifier [56, 112]. Multiple shunt parallel feedback is another approach for enhancing the bandwidth [71]. The effect of the photodiode capacitance can be more professionally reduced from the bandwidth limitation by using regulated cascode (RGC) [67]. In this chapter, we have propose a new TIA design with improved bandwidth. The proposed TIA is based on modification of the input part of the conventional RGC TIA architecture by using parallel arrangement of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies. Capacitance degeneration and series inductive peaking networks are used for pole-zero elimination to improve the bandwidth.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 6.2, we present an overview of the traditional RCG input stage and we introduce the concept of modified RCG input stage and the analysis of the architecture of parallel arrangement of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies. We present the capacitance degeneration architecture and proposed TIA design in Section 6.3 and Section 6.4, respectively. We present the noise analysis in Section 6.5, demonstrative simulation results in Section 6.6, and the conclusions in Section 6.7.

6.2 Regulated common gate (RCG) input stage

6.2.1 Conventional RCG input stage

Among all the building blocks in an optical communication system, the TIA is the one of the most critical blocks in receiver design. It is a well-known fact that RGC input configuration can attain better isolation within the large photodiode capacitance C_{pd} by local feedback topology. Figure 6.1 shows the schematic diagram of the conventional RGC with a *PD*, which converts the incoming optical signal to a small signal current I_{pd}. The common-source (CS) amplifier consists of M_1 and R_D operates as a local

feedback technique and regulates the CG. As a result of the small-signal analysis, the input resistance of the RGC circuit is given by [113, 114].

$$Z_{i,RCG} = \frac{1}{g_{m2}(1 + g_{m1}R_D)},$$ (6.1)

where g_{m1} and g_{m2} are the transconductance of M_1 and M_2 respectively. It is clearly seen that the input resistance decreased because the transconductance G_m is $(1 + g_{m1}R_D)$ times larger than that of CG amplifier input stage, where $(1 + g_{m1}R_D)$ is the DC gain of the local feedback. Therefore, RGC stage acts as a buffer between the PD and the TIA stage and decreases the effect of the photodiode capacitance C_{pd} [114].
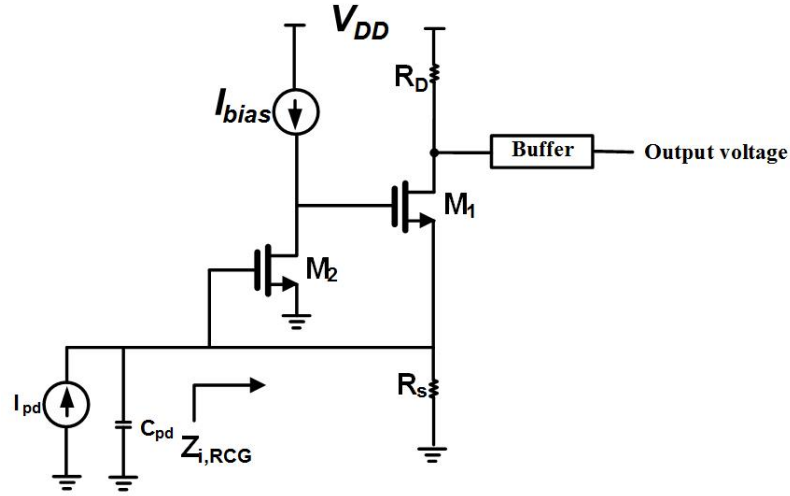
Figure 6.1 : Regulated common gate (RCG) TIA.

6.2.2 Modified RCG input stage

In the design of ultra-wideband TIAs, the wideband input stage plays very critical role. The design methodology of the narrow-band TIA is our first focus followed by demonstration of how to extend its input bandwidth.

(a)   (b)
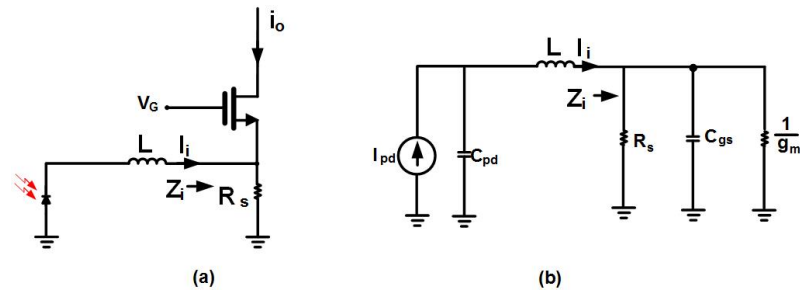
Figure 6.2 : The input part of a narrow band RCG TIA.

Figure 6.2 shows the input part of a typical narrow band TIA topology. The RGC TIA topology improves the bandwidth limitation due to the input pole that consists of

the gate-source capacitance C_{gs} and the input resistance Z_i . Nevertheless, the large parasitic capacitance of photodiode C_{pd} still reduces both the bandwidth and the noise performance of the TIA. The series inductive peaking technique is used to overcome this problem. The inductor L is placed between C_{gs} and of C_{pd}, which creates an inductive π network [114]. The expression used to analyze the performance of the current transfer function is derived from the small-signal mode circuit shown in Figure 6.2(b).

$$\frac{I_i}{I_{pd}} = \frac{1}{s^3 RC_{pd}C_{gs} + s^2 RLC_{gs} + sR(C_{pd}+C_{gs}) + 1} \tag{6.2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\left(\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right)^3 \frac{k}{m}(1-k)\left(\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right)^2 \frac{1-k}{m} + \frac{s}{\omega_0} + 1}$$

where $R = (1/g_m)//R_S$, $k = \frac{C_{gs}}{C_{pd}+C_{gs}}$, $m = \frac{R^2(C_{pd}+C_{gs})}{L}$ and the cutoff frequency $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{(C_{pd}+C_{gs})R}$. Inductive-peaking technique provides significant bandwidth extension ratio (BWER) by selecting different values for variables k and m [115]. To improve the input-bandwidth, we use a parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies, as shown in Figure 6.3. The input impedance is given by,

$$Z_i = Z_1 \backslash \backslash Z_2 \tag{6.3}$$

where

$$Z_j = \frac{R_j}{1 + \omega_j^2 C_{gsj}^2 R_j^2} + j\left(\frac{\omega_j^3 L_j C_{gsj}^2 R_j^2 - \omega_j L_j C_{gsj} R_j^2 + \omega_j L_j}{1 + \omega_j^2 C_{gsj}^2 R_j^2}\right) \tag{6.4}$$

C_{gsj}, L_j and R_j are the gate –source capacitance , serial inductor and equivalent input resistance of transistor M_j, respectively $(j = 1, 2)$.

In equation (6.4), one should note that, if the reactive elements are accurately selected, then the input impedance become purely resistive. Moreover when the gate of $M_{(1-1)}$ and $M_{(1-2)}$ have the same bias voltages, $M_{(1-1)}$ and $M_{(1-2)}$ have identical cutoff frequency ω_0. As a result the circuit can realize a wide bandwidth.

6.3 The capacitance degeneration

Modification of RGC input stage can be augmented through the possibility of achieving a broadband frequency response through the increment of the effective transconductance G_m of the circuit at high frequencies [36,48]. To emphasize more on
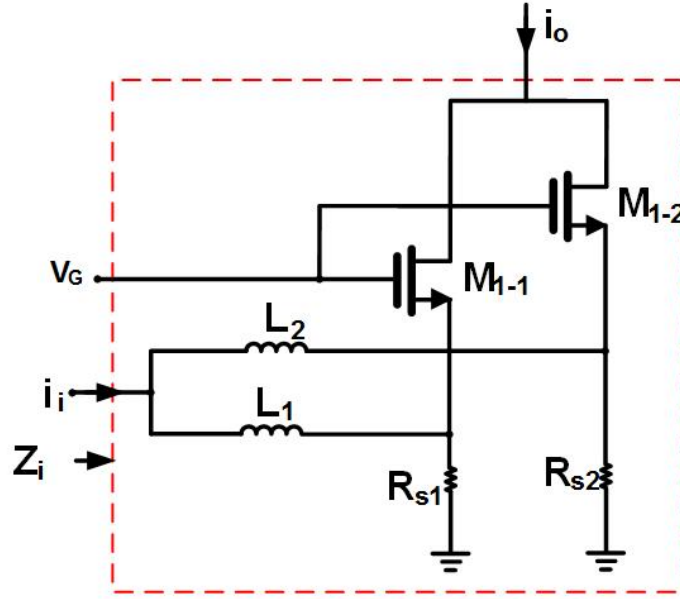
Figure 6.3 : The input part of RCG TIA with two input branches.

the above stated point, we can compensate the dominant pole of the overall circuit with a zero, which can be reached through capacitive degeneration configuration [114].
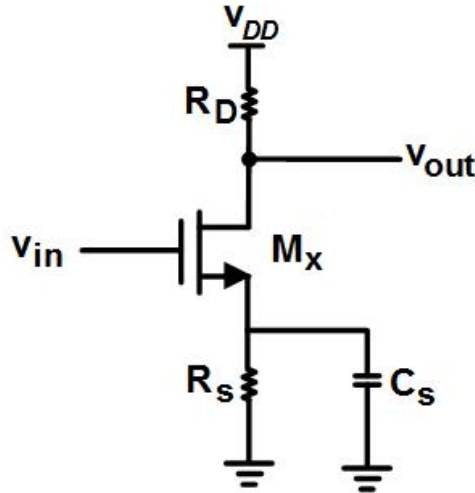
Figure 6.4 : Configuration of capacitive degeneration.

For the capacitive degeneration topology shown in Figure 6.4, the transconductance equivalency is calculated as [116]:

$$A_v = \frac{g_m R_D}{1 + g_m R_s} \frac{1 + s R_s C_s}{1 + s \frac{R_s C_s}{1 + g_m R_s}} \tag{6.5}$$

which introduces a zero (z_1) at $(R_s C_s)^{-1}$ and a pole at $(1 + g_m R_s)/(R_s C_s)$. The dominant pole can be compensated by the zero. As a result the bandwidth is limited by the second lowest pole of the circuit.
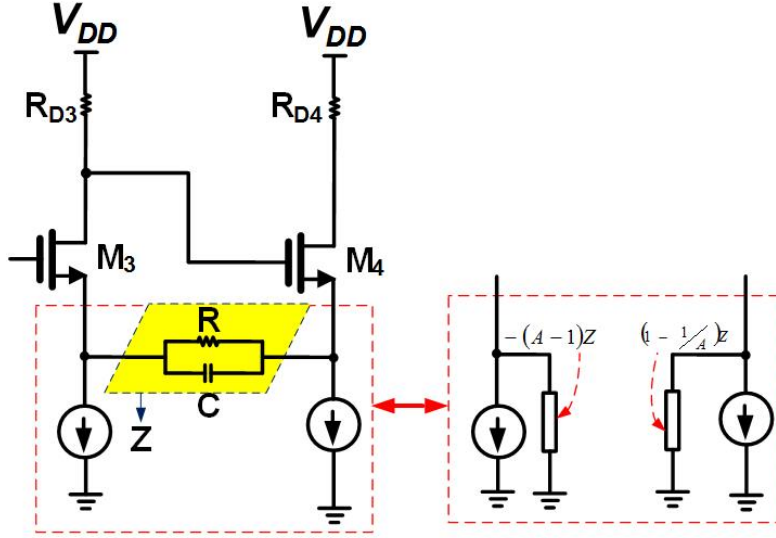
Figure 6.5 : The proposed configuration of capacitive degeneration.

The proposed capacitive degeneration topology shown in Figure 6.5 is employed to provide capacitive and resistive degeneration. Therefore extra gain and bandwidth enhancement can be achieved at the same time. The transconductance equivalency of half of the circuit in Figure 6.5 is expressed as:

$$G_m = \frac{g_m(1+sRC)}{1+g_mR/2+sR_sC_s} \tag{6.6}$$

Note that in (6.6), the transconductance introduces a zero (z_1) at $(R_sC_s)^{-1}$ and brings an additional polep_2 at $(1+g_mR/2)/R_sC_s$. The dominant pole $p_1 = 1/(R_DC_L)$ appears at the drain node. If $R_sC_s = R_DC_L$, then the zero z_1 cancels the pole p_1 , therefore the bandwidth is extended to the second pole of the circuit $p_2 = (1+g_mR/2)/(R_sC_s)$. In pole-zero elimination technique, if the zero is moved to a lower frequency (C large), the frequency response displays a source peaking so that the capacitor should be small to avoid the gain peaking. This is an important advantage of the intended circuit stems from the variation of the amplifier's input impedance and thus the proceeding stage load is seen.

6.4 The proposed TIA

We present the proposed wideband TIA based on RCG in Figure 6.6. The modification of the input network of RCG TIA provides better enhancement of bandwidth and decreases the input-referred noise current. A $100fF$ photodiode capacitor is used at the input of the TIA. The gain stage is composed of two common source amplifiers with capacitance degeneration technique.

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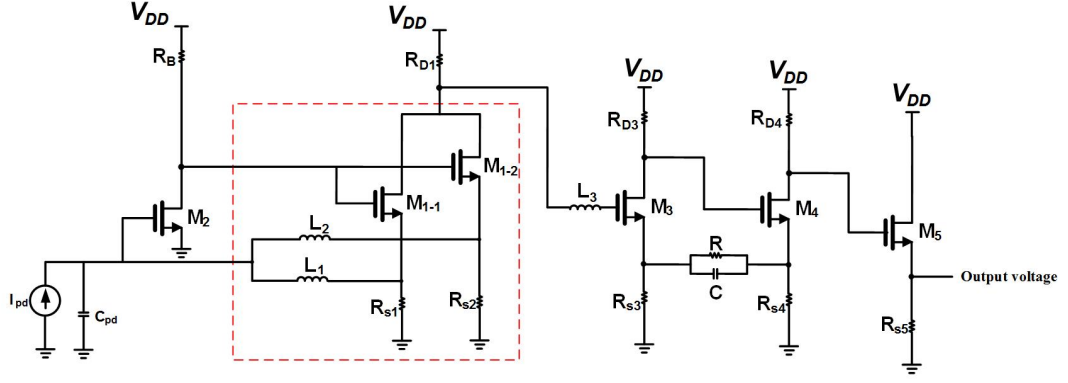
Figure 6.6 : Schematic of proposed RCG TIA.

Refereeing to Miller theorem [117], the shunt impedance $Z = (R \backslash\backslash(1/sC))$ connected between the drain nodes of M_3 and M_4 can be separated into a couple of grounded impedances. If A is the voltage gain between the two terminals of Z in Figure 6.5, then the equivalent split impedances are $-(A-1)Z$ and $[(1-1/A)Z]$. These impedances produce zeros with R_{s3} and R_{s4} to make perfect cancellation of the poles at the drain of M_3 and M_4. Therefore, the bandwidth is further improved [114].

The source follower consisting of M_5 and R_{s5} as a buffer is used to evade affecting the frequency response of the TIA due to input parasitic capacitances of the succeeding stage in the receiver system namely, the Limiting amplifier (LA).

6.5 Noise analysis

In the proposed TIA of Figure 6.6, we consider the thermal noise generated by the active devices M_{1-1}, M_{1-2} and M_2 and thermal noises of resistors R_B, R_{s1}, R_{s2} and R_D. The flicker noise$(1/f)$ is ignored because it is not dominant in MOS transistor. The noise contribution of R_D is neglected due to the parasitic capacitance in parallel with R_D which makes its noise impact non dominant. The noise analysis is performed based on the noise model shown in Figure 6.7.

The thermal noise in MOS transistor is modeled by a noise current source between the drain and source terminals with spectral noise of [118],

$$\bar{i_{nd}^2} = 4qk_BT\gamma g_m, \tag{6.7}$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann's constant $(J/^\circ K)$, T is the absolute temperature $(^\circ K)$ and γ is the complex function of transistor parameters and bias conduction. The equivalent
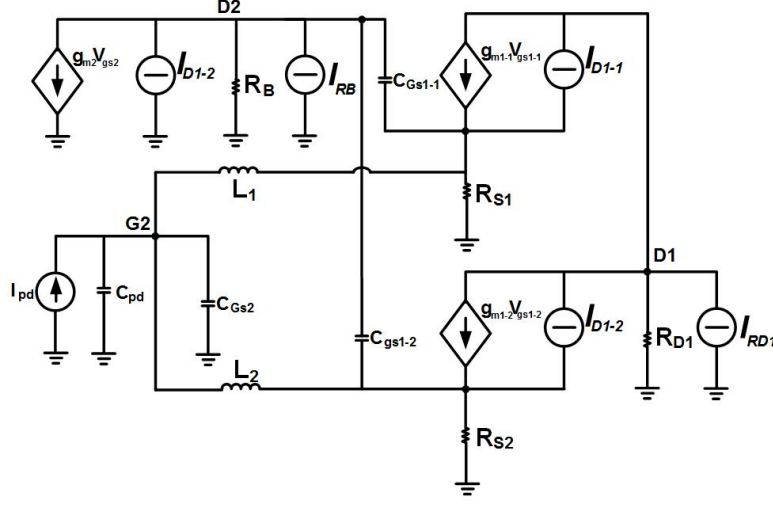
Figure 6.7 : Modified RCG TIA with noise sources.

input noise current spectral density can be given as:

$$\overline{i_{n,in}^2} = \overline{i_{n,R}^2} x^2 \left[(1 - \omega^2 L_1 C_{pd})^2 + (1 - \omega^2 L_2 C_{pd})^2 \right] \tag{6.8}$$
$$+ \omega^2 C_{pd} (\overline{i_{n,M1-1}^2} + \overline{i_{n,M1-2}^2} + \overline{i_{n,M2}^2}),$$

where $\overline{i_{n,R}^2}$ is the thermal noise of the resistors given by:

$$\overline{i_{n,R}^2} \approx 4k_B T \left[\frac{1}{R_{s1}} + \frac{1}{R_{s2}} + \frac{(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B)}{(g_{m2} + 1/R_B)^2} \times \left(\frac{1}{R_{s1}^2} + \frac{1}{R_{s2}^2} \right) \right] \tag{6.9}$$

and

$$x = 1 - \omega^2 \frac{L_1 + L_2}{1 + g_{m2} R_B} \left(C_{gd2} + \frac{C_{gs2}}{1 + g_{m2} R_B} \right) \tag{6.10}$$

$$\overline{i_{n,M1-j}^2} = \frac{4k_B T \left(\gamma g_{m1-j} + 1/R_D \right)}{g_{m1-j}^2} \qquad (j = 1, 2)$$

$$\overline{i_{n,M2}^2} = \frac{4k_B T \left(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B \right)}{(g_{m2} + 1/R_B)^2}$$

For half circuit of the capacitive degeneration stage, the input noise current spectral density $(\overline{i_{n,HCDEG}^2})$ is given by:

$$\overline{i_{n,HCDEG}^2} = \frac{4k_B T \omega^2 C_{Dj,eq}^2}{1 + \omega^2 R_{sj,eq}^2 C_{sj,eq}^2} \left(\left[\gamma g_{d0,j} + \frac{1}{R_{Dj}} \right] \left[\frac{1 + g_{mj} + R_{sj,eq}}{g_{mi}} \right] \right) + R_{sj,eq} 2 \tag{6.11}$$

where $C_{Dj,eq}$ and $C_{Dj,eq}$ are the equivalent parasitic capacitance at drain and source nodes respectively, $R_{sj,eq}$ is the equivalent resistance at source node and $g_{d0,j}$ is the zero-bias drain conductance. Because the main deliberation is given to the modified RCG input stage and the capacitive degeneration stage, the contribution noise of the

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buffer is ignored, As shown in (6.8), the resistors noise is the main noise at low frequencies and the impact noise of M_1 and M_2 becomes dominant at high frequencies. Note that the input noise current reduces appreciably at high frequencies using L_1 and L_2 at the input of the TIA. Furthermore the minimum noise can be realized by boosting the transconductance g_{m2}.

6.6 Simulation results

We performed simulation analysis of the proposed TIA circuit using $0.18\ \mu m$ CMOS technology with a $1.8\ V$ single supply and a $100\ fF$ photodiode capacitance. Figure 6.8 shows the layout of the proposed TIA with $147\ \mu m \times 230\ \mu m$ of area cost. The frequency responses of the conventional RCG and the proposed TIAs are presented in Figure 6.9. The RCG TIA provides a bandwidth of $3.5\ GHz$, whereas the bandwidth of proposed TIA extends up to $13\ GHz$. Transimpedance gains of the conventional RCG and proposed TIAs are $47.7\ dB.\Omega$ and $53.2\ dB.\Omega$, respectively. While the total power consumption of the conventional RCG TIA is $5\ mW$, the proposed TIA consumes only $11\ mW$.
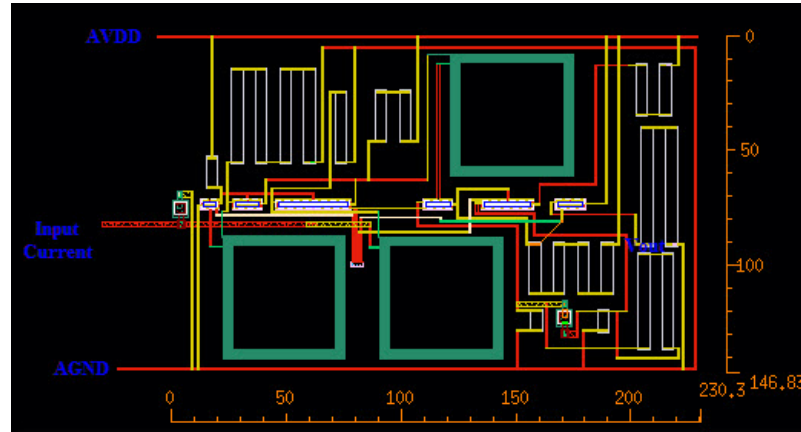
Figure 6.8 : The layout of the proposed TIA.

Figure 6.10 shows the simulation results of input noise current spectral densities of the RCG and the proposed TIA. As shown, the proposed TIA has less input referred noise current than the RGC configuration. It shows an average input noise current spectral density below $24\ pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ within the bandwidth.

Figure 6.11 shows the group-delay variation with frequency. As shown, the proposed TIA provides smaller group-delay variation than the RGC configuration. The TIA has
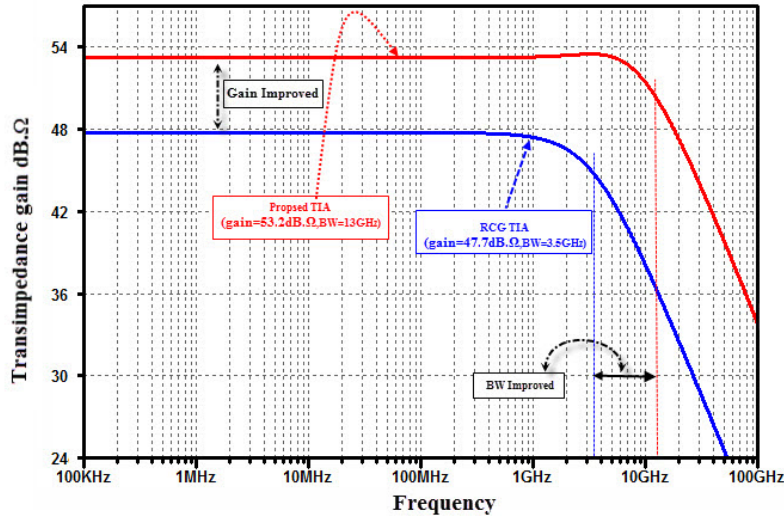
Figure 6.9 : Frequency response results of the TIA.
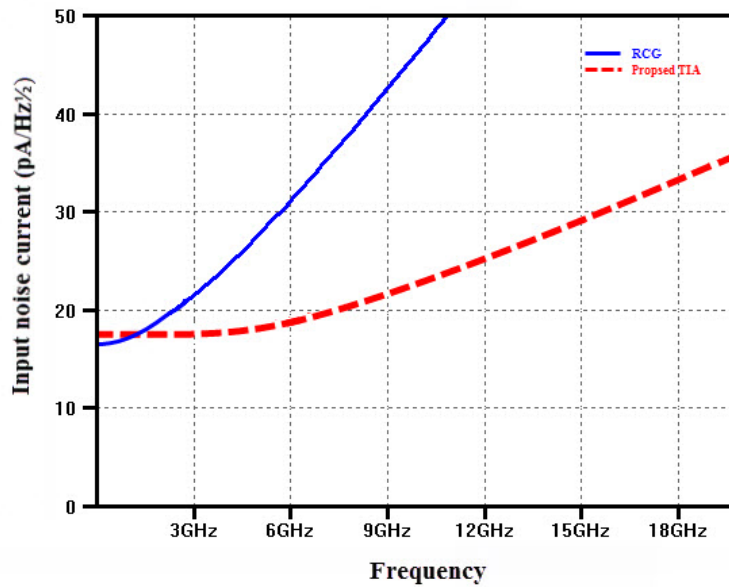
Figure 6.10 : Spectral density of the input noise current.

a minimum group delay of 4 *ps*, increases to 14 *ps* within the bandwidth of 13 *GHz*. This small variation means that output signal will not suffer from distortion as RGC TIA.

The transient response of the TIA is shown in Figure 6.12 at different process corners. The width of the input current pulse is 10 *ps* with a rise and fall time of 1 *ps* and the peak-to-peak current is 50 *μA*. The simulation result shows that, at different process corners, the output swing variations is very small. This depicts that the transient response of the TIA is fast enough even for small input current.
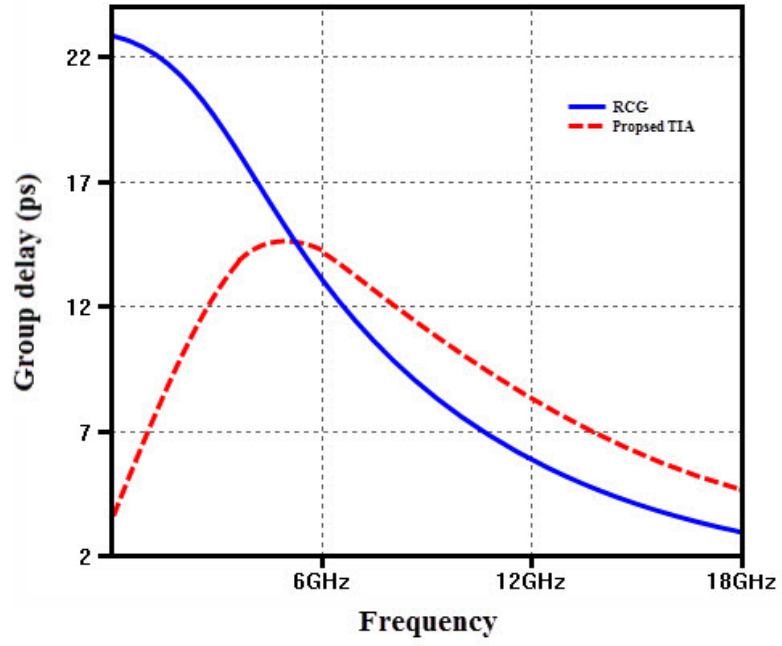
Figure 6.11 : The group delay variation of TIA.
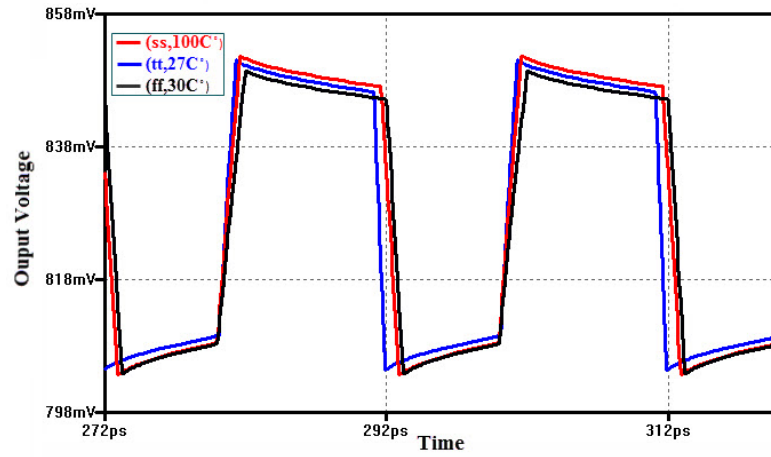
Figure 6.12 : Transient response of the TIA at different process corners.

6.7 Conclusion

The proposed TIA design improves the performance of the RGC TIA. Use of parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies improves the bandwidth and minimizes the equivalent input noise current density of RCG TIA. The capacitance degeneration and series inductive peaking networks are used for pole-zero elimination. The proposed design is implemented in a 0.18 μm CMOS process in the presence of a 100 fF photodiode capacitance. It is observed that the TIA achieves a -3dB bandwidth at 13 GHz and transimpedance gain of 53.2 $dB\Omega$

Table 6.1 : Performance summary and comparison with the other works using $0.18\mu m$ CMOS technology.

Ref.	C_{pd} (fF)	Gain ($dB\Omega$)	BW (GHz)	Power (mW)	Noise ($pA/\sqrt{Hz}$)
This work[a]	100	53.2	13	11	24
[119][b]	150	59	8.6	18	25
[36][b]	250	53	8	13.5	18
[38][b]	300	54	7	18.6	18
[64][a]	150	62.3	9	108	–
[8][b]	50	51	30.5	60.1	55.7
[108][a]	50	54.3	7	29	5.9

a: Simulation results, b: Measurement results

The input referred noise current spectral density is 24 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$ and the average group-delay variation is 5 ps over the bandwidth and the TIA consumes 11 mW from a 1.8 V supply. Simulation results show that the TIA displays a broadband flat response, provides an ultra-low noise performance, and hence it is proficient for applications in optical transceivers.

7. IMPROVING THE BANDWIDTH PERFORMANCE BY USING A CASCODE CURRENT MIRROR WITH RESISTIVE COMPENSATION TECHNIQUE AND A LADDER MATCHING NETWORK

In this work, a technique to enhance the bandwidth of the regulated common gate (RCG) transimpedance amplifier is described. The technique is based on using a cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network. To verify the feasibility of the proposed technique, a CMOS design example is implemented using a $0.18\mu m$ RF CMOS technology. The simulation results show that, the propose TIA achieved a bandwidth of 8.4 GHz, a transimpedance gain of 51.3 $dB\Omega$ and input referred noise current spectral density of 20 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. The average group-delay variation is 4 ps over the $-3dB$ bandwidth and the TIA consumes 17.8 mW from a 1.8 V supply.

7.1 Introduction

One of the most critical building blocks for the optical communication system is transimpedance amplifier (TIA). It is widely used as the front-end of optical communication receivers. In the design of a TIA , the important parameters are wide bandwidth, high transimpedance gain, low noise, low power consumption, and small group delay variation [120].

Since CMOS becomes the most economical technology for designing such large-scale integrated systems, numerous research efforts have been devoted to implement TIAs using CMOS technology. Until now, CMOS TIAs tends to be dominated by two different topologies: the common gate (CG) amplifier and the shunt feedback amplifier. Many different architectures have been reported to improve the bandwidth of CMOS TIA. The concept of these techniques is how to isolate the large input capacitance of the photodiode from bandwidth calculation. In this manner, regular cascade (RCG) configuration [33], CG feed forward topology with negative feedback [111] and inductive peaking technique [121] are the important methods.

Matching circuit becomes an essential concern in the design of high-speed electronic circuits to offer an initial solution of broadband matching issues. In this technique, the effect of parasitic element can be controlled over the bandwidth. By introducing a matching network between the TIA amplifier and photodiode (PD), the equivalent input noise current density can be reduced for a certain bandwidth [122]. A cascode current mirror is one of the effective and simple current mirrors. It delivers low input impedance and high output impedance [109]. The bandwidth of cascode current mirror has been improved by Gupta et al. in [123] by using resistive compensation method. In this work, a broadband TIA is described. A cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network are used to improve the bandwidth of the conventional regulated common gate (RCG) TIA using $0.18\mu m$ CMOS technology.

The remainder of the paper organized as follows: In section 7.2, a TIA based on RCG circuit with ladder- matching network is investigated. Section 7.3 introduces architecture of the cascode current mirror using resistive compensation technique. In Section 7.4, the proposed TIA is presented; in Section 7.5, the noise analysis is discussed. Section 7.6 demonstrates the simulation results and finally, the conclusion is summarized in Section 7.7.

7.2 Regulated common gate (RCG) TIA with ladder matching network

The basic configuration of RCG-TIA shown in Figure 7.1 has been extensively studied in [67, 124, 125].
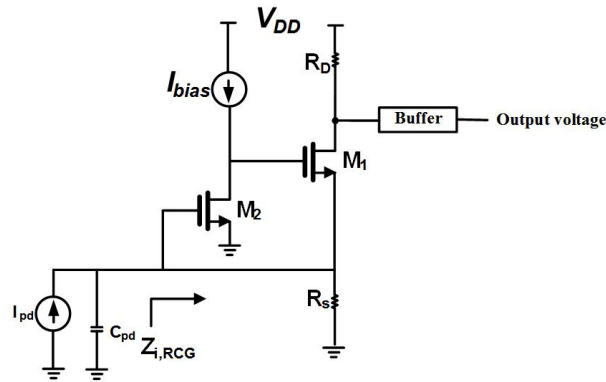
Figure 7.1 : Regulated common gate (RCG) TIA.

The RCG input impedance TIA has already been derived as [31],

$$Z_{i,RGC} = \frac{1}{1/R_s + (1+A_0)\left[g_{m1} + (C_{gs1} + C_{gd2})\right] + sC_{gs2}} \tag{7.1}$$

where $A_0 = g_{m2}R_B$ is the DC gain of CS amplifier, C_{gs2} and C_{gd2} are the gate-source and gate-drain parasitic capacitances of M_2 respectively. Generally, the two poles affecting the bandwidth of RCG TIA are the input pole $\omega_{i,RGC}$ and the output pole $\omega_{o,RGC} = \frac{1}{R_D C_o}$ where C_o is the output capacitance. The dominant pole that limits the bandwidth of RCG TIA $\omega_{i,RGC}$ is given by:

$$\omega_{i,RGC} = \frac{1 + (1+A_0)g_{m1}R_s}{R_s\left[(1+A_0)(C_{gs1} + C_{gd2}) + C_{pd} + C_{gs2}\right]} \tag{7.2}$$

where C_{pd} is the photodiode capacitance .

Assuming $1/g_{m1} \ll R_s$, then

$$\omega_{i,RGC} = \frac{g_{m1}}{C_{gs1} + C_{pd}\left(\frac{C_{gd2}}{C_{pd}} + \frac{1 + C_{gs2}/C_{pd}}{1 + A_0}\right)} \tag{7.3}$$

In order to obtain a flat frequency response and minimum input referred noise current spectral density, the width of M_1 should be small [67]. To achieve high gain CS amplifier, the size of M_2 must be chosen large. As a result the parasitic capacitances of M_2 will increase. It can be noticed from (7.3), these parasitic capacitances add limitation to RCG bandwidth.

Matching networks had been very widely used for broadband analog circuit design to reduce the effects of parasitic capacitances [33, 115, 126]. In this technique, the effect of parasitic element can be controlled over the bandwidth. Using a ladder matching network at input of RCG TIA configuration provides better improvement of bandwidth and reduces its input-referred noise current. In order to nullify the photodiode capacitance impact at the input of the RCG TIA configuration, it is not only crucial to have very low input impedance, but also this impedance must be resistive at the chosen bandwidth.

Figure 7.2 shows RCG TIA configuration with ladder matching network at the input. To simplify the analysis of the frequency behavior, the effect of C_{gs1} is neglected. The CS amplifier is modeled by a first order amplifier with input impedance of C_{gs2}, zero output impedance and transfer function of

$$A(s) = \frac{-A_0}{1 + s/\omega_0} \tag{7.4}$$
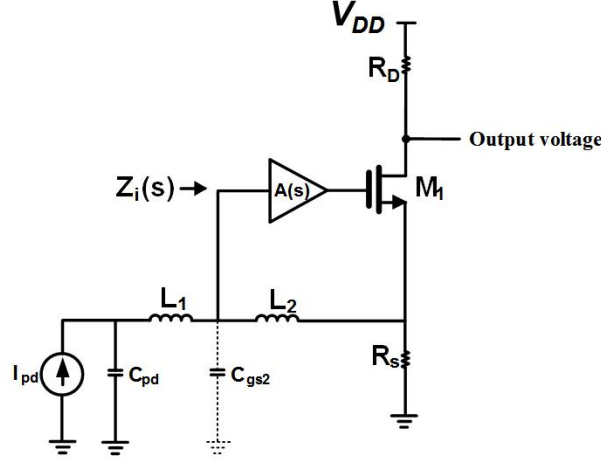
Figure 7.2 : RCG TIA configuration with ladder network.

where ω_0 is the -3dB cutoff frequency of the CS amplifier. The input impedance can be written as:

$$Z_i(s) = \frac{1}{1-A(s)}\left(sL_2 + \frac{1}{g_{m1}+sC_{gs1}}\right) // \frac{1}{C_{i,CS}}$$

$$C_{i,CS} = C_{gs2} + (1+A_0)C_{gd2}$$

(7.5)

where $C_{i,CS}$ is the total input parasitic capacitance of the CS amplifier.
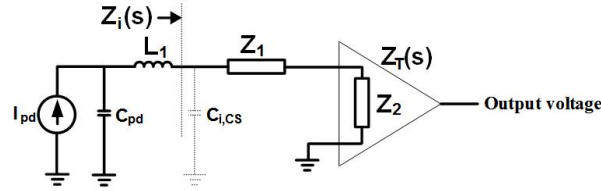
Figure 7.3 : Simplified model of RCG with ladder network.

Figure 7.3 shows the equivalent model of the circuit in Figure 7.2, where $Z_T(s)$ is given by:

$$Z_T(s) = \frac{R_D}{1+sR_DC_o}$$

(7.6)

According to [127] Z_1 and Z_2 are expressed by:

$$Z_1(s) = \frac{sL_2}{1+A_0}\left(1+\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right)$$

(7.7)

$$Z_2(s) = \frac{1}{g_{m1}(1+A_0)}\left(1+\frac{s}{\omega_0}\right)$$

(7.8)

Referring to the analysis in [57], in order to reach a wideband TIA with Butterworth response, the impedances of Z_1 and Z_2 must be inductive and resistive respectively. So the bandwidth of M_2 amplifier ω_0 must be large. The cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique is used to improve the bandwidth of M_2.

7.3 Cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique

Figure 7.4 shows the cascade current mirror. In this circuit, a compensating resistance R is placed between the gates of main pair transistors M_1 and M_2 to boost the bandwidth. Figure 7.5 shows the small signal equivalent circuit model of cascade current mirror with resistor where, C_{gsi} and g_{mi} are the gate to source capacitance and transconductance of transistor, respectively (where $i = 1$ to 4).
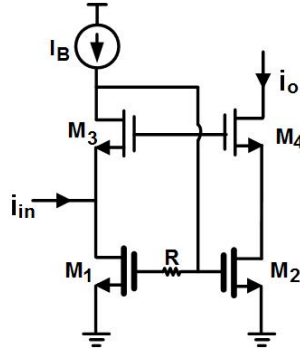
Figure 7.4 : Cascode current mirror with resistive compensation.
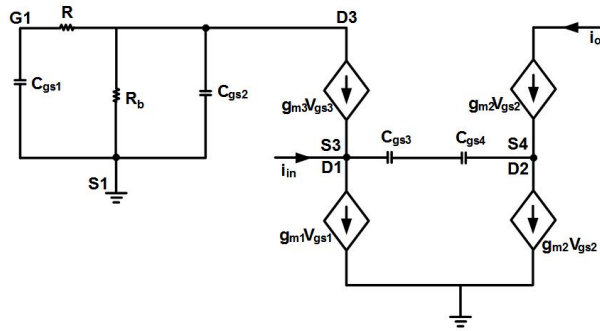
Figure 7.5 : Simplified model of compensated cascode current mirror.

By assuming $g_{m1} = g_{m2} = g_{m3} = g_{m4} = g_m$ and $C_{gs1} = C_{gs3} = C_{gs4} = C_{gs}$, then the simplified expression of the current gain $A_i(s)$ is given as:

$$A_i(s) = \frac{i_o}{i_{in}} = \frac{g_m}{C_{gs}} \left(\frac{s + 1/C_{gs}R}{s^2 + s(\frac{2}{C_{gs}R} + \frac{g_m}{C_{gs}}) + \frac{2g_m}{C_{gs}^2 R}} \right) \qquad (7.9)$$

It is evident from (7.9) that, the current gain has one zero (z_1) and two poles (p_1, p_2) where,

$$z_1 = -\frac{1}{C_{gs}R}, \quad p_1 = -\frac{g_m}{C_{gs}}, \quad p_2 = -\frac{2}{C_{gs}R} \tag{7.10}$$

A maximum bandwidth is obtained when $R = 1/g_m$ because one pole-zero is canceled and the current gain function becomes low pass function with one pole. Hence, the bandwidth of the system is calculated by:

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2g_m}{C_{gs}} \tag{7.11}$$

It is observed that in compensated current mirror, the transconductance (g_m) becomes double which will improve the bandwidth also. The resistor R essentially delays the response but also generates a zero which eliminates this problem.

7.4 The proposed TIA

Figure 7.6 demonstrates the proposed wideband RCG TIA. The ladder matching network at input of RCG TIA offers better improvement of bandwidth and reduces the input-referred noise current. The source follower consisting of M_4 and R_{s4} as a buffer is used to evade affecting the frequency response of the RCG stage duo to input parasitic capacitances of the next stage in the receiver system.
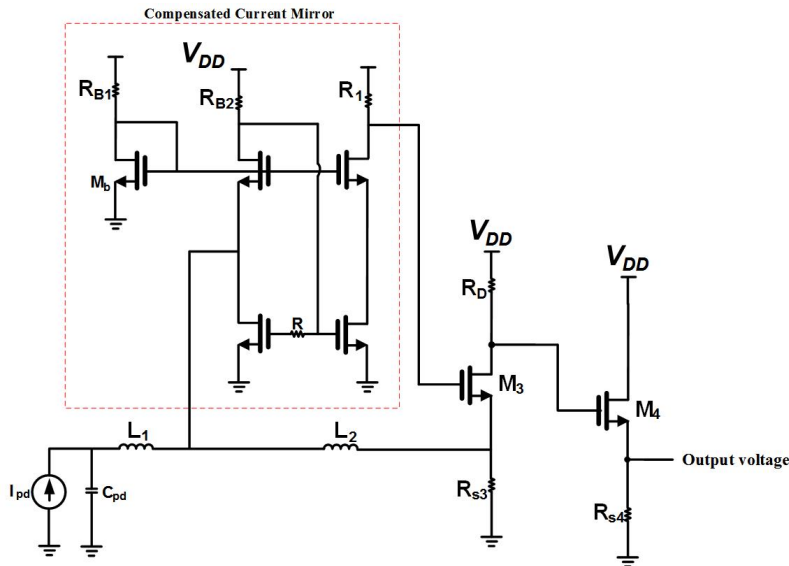
Figure 7.6 : Schematic of proposed RCG TIA.

7.5 Noise analysis

A TIA is usually the first block of the receiver of optical communication system and it requests to have adequate gain while introducing minimum input noise level should be low enough to confirm that the receiver operates at high sensitivity for a low bit-error-rate [83]. Since the flicker noise is not dominant in MOS transistor so that it can be ignored. The main noise sources of the TIA shown in Figure 7.1 are the thermal noise of the resistors $\overline{i^2_{n,R}}$ and the noise of MOS transistors $\overline{i^2_{n,M1}}$ and $\overline{i^2_{n,M2}}$. The total input referred noise of TIA circuit can be calculated by:

$$\overline{i^2_{n,in}} \approx \overline{i^2_{n,M1}} + \overline{i^2_{n,M2}} + \overline{i^2_{n,R}} \tag{7.12}$$

where,

$$\overline{i^2_{n,M1}} = \omega^2 C^2_{gs1} \frac{4k_B T(\gamma g_{m1} + 1/R_D)}{g^2_{m1}} \tag{7.13}$$

$$\overline{i^2_{n,M2}} = \omega^2 (C^2_{gs2} + C^2_{pd})^2 \frac{4k_B T(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B)}{(g_{m2} + 1/R_B)^2}$$

$$\overline{i^2_{n,R}} = 4k_B T \left[\frac{1}{R_D} + \frac{1}{R_s} + \frac{(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B)}{R^2_s (g_{m2} + 1/R_B)^2} \right]$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann's constant (Joule/° Kelvin), T is the absolute temperature (Kelvin) and γ is the complex function of basic transistor parameters and bias conduction . As shown in (7.13), the resistor noise is the foremost noise at low frequencies and the noise form M_1 and M_2 becomes dominant at high frequencies. In order to reduce the total noise, g_{m1} and g_{m2} should be as large as possible and the parasitic capacitances C_{gs1} and C_{gs2} must be as small as possible. Isolation of parasitic capacitances using the matching network decreases the noise contribution form M_1 and M_2. Using ladder matching circuit at the input of TIA reduces the input referred noise current to be [127]:

$$\overline{i^2_{n,M1}} = \omega^2 C^2_{pd} \frac{4k_B T(\gamma g_{m1} + 1/R_D)}{g^2_{m1}}$$

$$\overline{i^2_{n,M2}} = \omega^2 C^2_{pd} \frac{4k_B T(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B)}{g^2_{m2} 1/R_B}$$

$$\overline{i^2_{n,R}} = (1 - \omega^2 L_1 C_{pd})^2 \left[1 - \omega^2 \frac{L_2}{1 + g_{m2} R_B} \left(C_{gd2} + \frac{C_{gs2}}{1 + g_{m2} R_B} \right) \right]^2$$

$$4k_B T \left[\frac{1}{R_D} + \frac{1}{R_s} + \frac{(\gamma g_{m2} + 1/R_B)}{R^2_s (g_{m2} + 1/R_B)^2} \right] \tag{7.14}$$

It can be observed from (7.14) that, the input noise current reduces significantly at high frequencies using ladder matching circuit at the input of the TIA. Moreover the minimum noise can be achieved by increasing the transconductance g_{m2}. Therefore, by replacing the compensated current mirror instead of M_2, the input referred noise will decrease.

7.6 Simulation results

The TIA is implemented using 0.18 μm MOS process technology. Simulations are done using cadence tools with a single supply ($i.e. V_{DD} = 1.8\ V$) where a 300 fF photodiode capacitance is considered. Figure 7.7 shows the layout of proposed TIA. The area of the TIA is $275 \mu m \times 235 \mu m$.
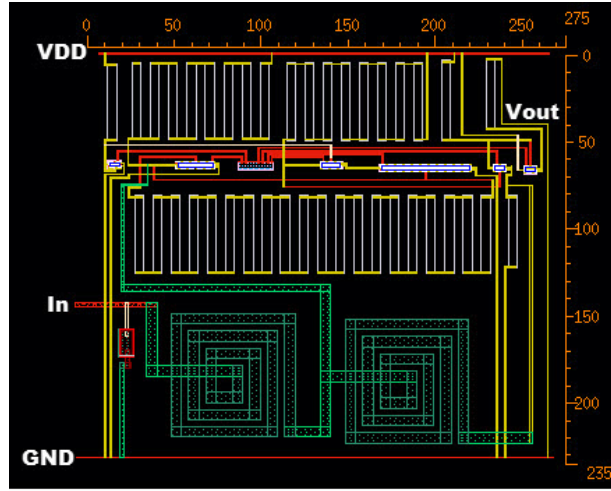
Figure 7.7 : Layout of TIA.

Figure 7.8 demonstrates the frequency response results of three different cases. By introducing ladder matching and the compensated cascode current mirror one by one, the gradually improved bandwidth can be observed. Our post-simulation test results show that, the proposed TIA is characterized as having a transimpedance gain of 52 $dB\Omega$ and bandwidth of 9.6 GHz. After layout extraction with RC parasitic, the gain becomes 51.3 $dB.\Omega$ and 8.4 GHz bandwidth. The total power consumption of the TIA is 17.8 mW.

Figure 7.9 illustrates the simulation of input noise current spectral density of the RCG and the proposed. As shown, the proposed TIA has less input referred noise current
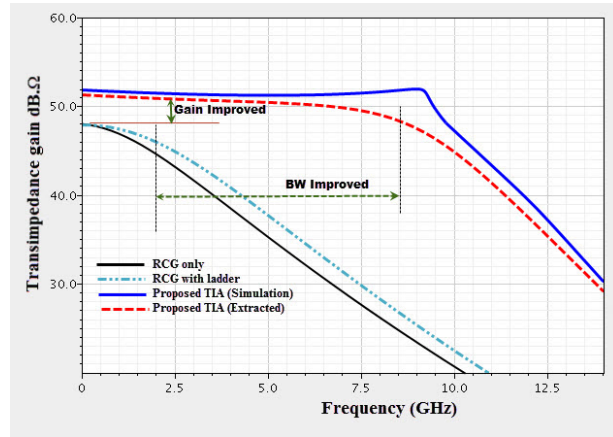
Figure 7.8 : The frequency response results of the TIA.

than the RGC configuration. The simulation result shows an equivalent input noise current spectral density below $20p\,A/\sqrt{Hz}$ within the bandwidth.

Figure 7.10 shows the group-delay variation with frequency. The TIA has a minimum group delay of $-6ps$, increases to 13 *ps* within the bandwidth of 8.4 *GHz*.
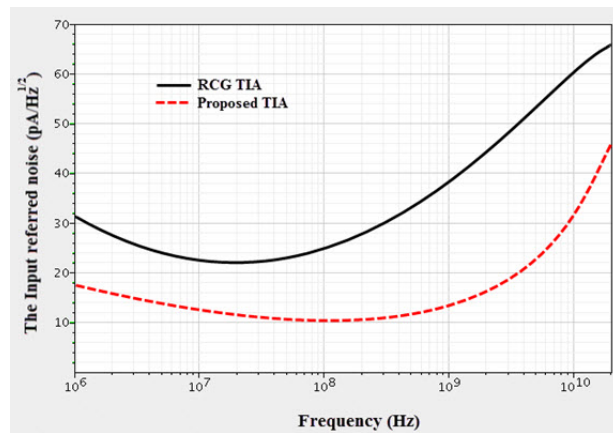
Figure 7.9 : Spectral density of the input noise current as a function of frequency.
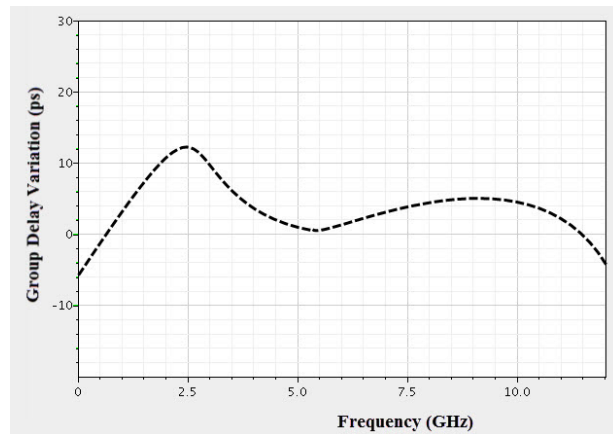
Figure 7.10 : The group delay variation of TIA.

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To study the impact of the process variations on the frequency response of the TIA, a set of 100 samples has been chosen for Monte Carlo simulation. As shown in Figure 7.11, the frequency response has a small variation due to process variation and mismatching. To make the design more realistic, corner analysis is used to simulate the circuit in different operational conductions, such as different temperatures and altered process corners.
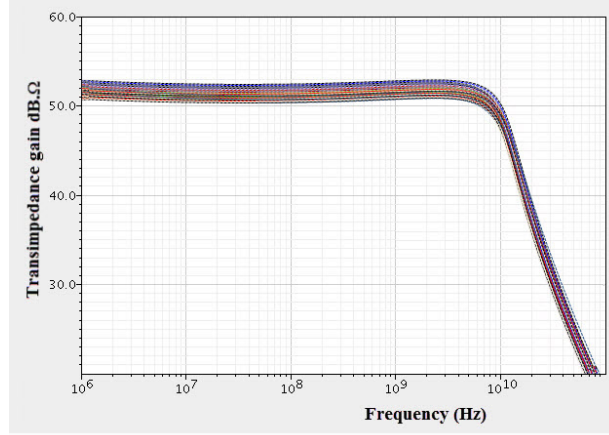
Figure 7.11 : Monte Carlo simulation results for frequency response for 100 samples.

Figure 7.12 shows the transient response of the TIA at different process corners for $10\ \mu A_{p-p}$ input current pulse. The simulation results show that, the proposed TIA can operate normally at various process corners for wide bandwidth. Table 7.1 shows a
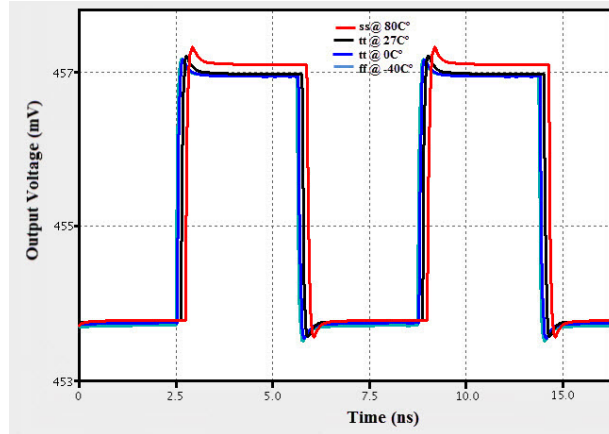
Figure 7.12 : Transient response of the TIA under different corners.

comparison of the performance of proposed TIA with those recently reported in the literature. The performance figures show that the bandwidth of the proposed TIA for a high photodiode capacitance is higher than the other TIA circuits while its power dissipation is the lowest.

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Table 7.1 : Performance Comparison of Recent CMOS TIAs.

Ref.	C_{pd} (fF)	Gain $(dB\Omega)$	BW (GHz)	Power (mW)	Noise $(pA/\sqrt{Hz})$
This work[a]	300	51.3	8.4	17.8	20
[128][b]	200	58.7	2.6	47	13
[129][a]	300	56.7	5.0	27.3	21
[33][b]	250	61.0	7.2	70.2	8.2
[130][a]	200	59.8	2.9	25.4	13.1
[36][b]	250	53	8.0	135	18
[38][b]	300	54	7.0	18.6	18

a: Simulation results, b: Measurement results

7.7 Conclusion

The proposed TIA design offers a good technique to improve the input noise and bandwidth performances of the conventional RCG TIA. The technique is based using cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network. The TIA is implemented in TSMC 180 *nm* CMOS technology with 1.8 *V* supply voltage. It is observed that the TIA provides -3 dB bandwidth of 8.4*GHz*, transimpedance gain of 51.3 *dB*Ω in the presence of a 300 *fF* photodiode capacitance and input referred noise current spectral density of 20 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. TIA consumes 17.8 *mW*. Simulation results show that the TIA displays a broadband flat response and an ultra-low noise performance with lower power in comparison with other techniques. Therefore, it is very proficient for applications in optical transceivers.

8. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

All over this thesis, the most significant results and main conclusions have been encapsulate in the final section of each chapter. In this final chapter, the most remarkable contributions will be presented to provide a general synopsis of the whole work. First, the main objectives presented in the first chapter will be considered, confirming their achievement and leading to the conformable conclusions. Finally, further works will be pointed out.

The major need for today's optical communication devices is to operate at wider band such as to support high speed Internet, multimedia communication and similarly many more broadband services. Due to integration and cost advantages of CMOS technologies, CMOS has encouraged extensive work on developing the optical communication system.

This thesis has covered in-depth the design of the first building block in the optical receiver system: the transimpedance amplifier (TIA). The goal of TIA consists of converting the small photodiode current into a voltage as efficiently as possible. This research provides the necessary background knowledge to fully understand the analysis and design of the transimpedance amplifier (TIA). Due to which many studies and researches are being done throughout the globe, the two most serious limitations of the TIA design are its transimpedance gain and bandwidth.

Bridging the gap between system and circuit design is done by:

- Understanding the bandwidth expansion by mathematical analysis.

- Introducing new circuit architectures that can be realized.

- Demonstrating implementation of the proposed designs using extensive simulations in CMOS technology.

Table 8.1 : Summary of TIA bandwidth enhancement techniques.

no.	Technique	Improvement techniques	Advantages	Drawbacks /Issues
1	Negative Impedance	Increase the gain, decrease the input resistance and maintain the same time of the output pole.	The bandwidth directly depends on the gain A of the amplifier. It has a high priority in presence of large photodiode capacitance. The size of the chip using is smaller than that of the chips using passive devices. The TIA does not depend on Q-value because it uses only active devices and resistors.	Could not be applied at the input node. It consumes high power.
2	Matching networks	Eliminate or minimize the unwanted reactance through a range of frequencies.	Large photodiode parasitic capacitance can be isolated and it is good for noise performance and low power consumption.	It has the trade-off between the bandwidth and complexity. The chip area occupied large size.It becomes more tricky when real parts of the terminations are incommensurate, or when they have complex impedances. It has more noise sources.
3	Modification input stage	Lower impedance current amplifier input stage.	The bandwidth can be optimized because it is independent of the photodiode capacitance.	large chip area,CG has low transimpedance gain, more noise sources.
4	Using a cascode current mirror with Resistance compensation	Zero-pole cancellation	Simple design,, It boots the bandwidth of current mirrors changing the DC characteristics of the original circuits.	Large g_m is required which costly in terms of power consumption. The TIA becomes unstable due to the incorrect zero-pole cancellation, Inductor area and CG has low transimpedance gain, more noise sources.

In this thesis, in order to fulfill the transimpedance amplifier requirements, various bandwidth enhancement techniques been proposed to improve the bandwidth of CMOS TIAs in this study as shown in Table 8.1. Figure 8.1 shows the performances comparison of TIA bandwidth enhancement techniques.

(a) Bandwidth

(b) Power

(c) Noise

(d) Area
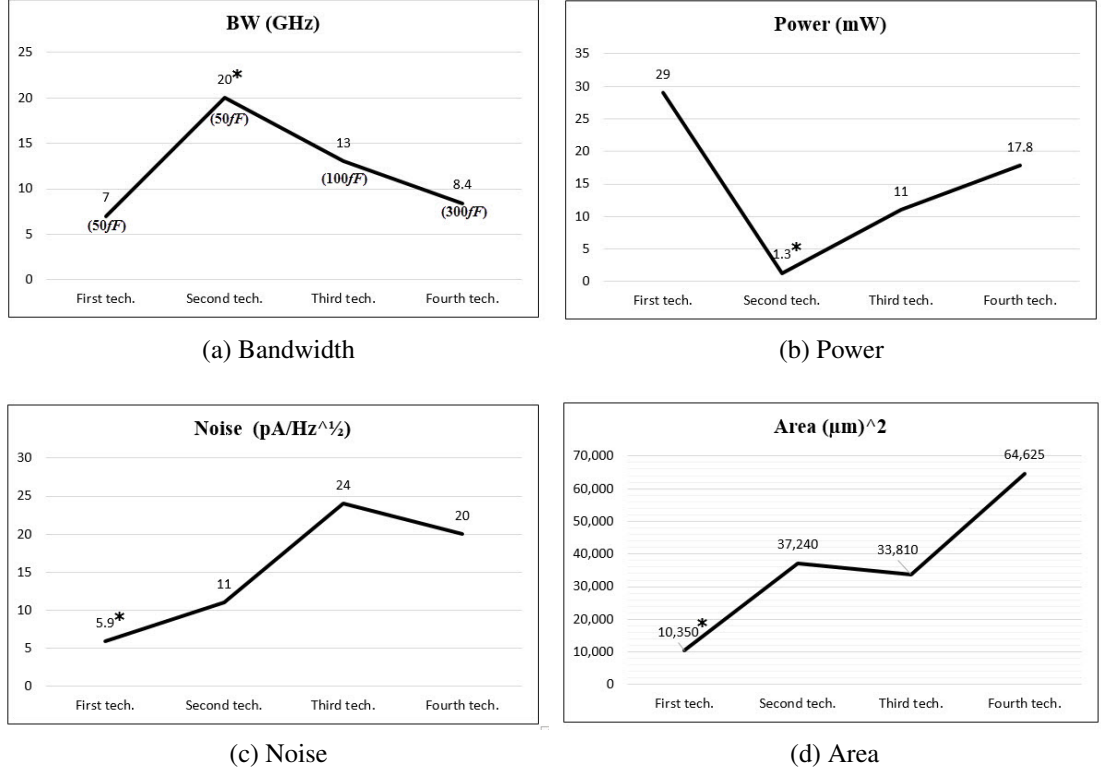
Figure 8.1 : Performances comparison of TIA bandwidth enhancement techniques.

First, we provided the principle of the negative impedance circuit. We developed a theory that analytically related to the bandwidth extension. We proposed a new TIA topology based on employing a negative impedance circuit. We demonstrated the proposed TIA in 0.18 μm CMOS technology that was successfully simulated up to 7 GHz and provides up to 54.3 $dB\Omega$ transimpedance amplifier.

One major advantage of negative impedance technique is its priority in presence of large photodiode capacitance because the bandwidth directly depends on the gain A of the amplifier. Furthermore, this technique uses only active devices and resistors which makes the TIA does not depend on Q-value and parasitic effect of on-chip components, unlike the inductive-peaking and capacitive-peaking techniques. Moreover, the size of the chip using this topology is smaller than that of the chips using passive devices. The major disadvantage of negative impedance technique is its

higher power dissipation.

Second, we proposed a wide band transimpedance amplifier using the matching technique. It is shown that by simultaneously using of series input matching topology and T-output matching network, the bandwidth of the TIA can be obviously improved. We demonstrated a CMOS 0.18 μm CMOS TIA that operates up to bandwidth of 20 GHz with a transimpedance gain of 52.6 $dB\Omega$. The matching technique gives us several advantages. First we can avoid large photodiode parasitic capacitance. Second, it is good for noise performance. Third it has low power consumption. The drawback of this approach is the trade-off between the bandwidth and complexity. Another disadvantage of using passive inductors is that makes the chip area occupied large size.

Third, we introduced a novel architecture to extend the bandwidth of the TIA. This TIA employs a parallel combination of two series resonate circuits with different resonate frequencies on the conventional regulated common gate (RGC) architecture. This methodology is supported by a design example in a 0.18 μm CMOS process . The proposed TIA is founded to have a 53 $dB\Omega$ transimpedance gain over 13 GHz bandwidth and less noise than RCG topology. The main advantage of this topology is that photodiode capacitance is decoupled from the TIA input by the common base stage. Hence the bandwidth can be optimized because it is independent of the photodiode capacitance. Furthermore, it has an additional significant noise source, what is the main obstacle of this technique. Also the power consumption will be higher because more devices are used in the modification input stage.

Finally, we developed a novel TIA architecture that enables to achieve a bandwidth of 8.4 GHz . The technique is based on using a cascode current mirror with resistive compensation technique and a ladder matching network. The simulation results show that, the propose TIA achieved a bandwidth of 8.4 GHz, a transimpedance gain of 51.3 $dB\Omega$ and input referred noise current spectral density of 20 $pA/\sqrt{Hz}$. The average group-delay variation is 4 ps over the -3_{dB} bandwidth and the TIA consumes 17.8 mW from a 1.8 V supply. The primary benefits of this technique are its simple design, that can be designed independently of the main TIA to reduce input impedance.

Also, the resistive compensation technique boots the bandwidth of current mirrors without changing the DC characteristics of the original circuits. There are also two major drawbacks associated with this technique. When the load capacitance is large, a large gm is required which costly in terms of power consumption. Moreover, the passive resistance has a large tolerance and it varies with process and temperature which does not track transconductance of the MOS transistor because. This will add extra noise source, power consumption and increase the chip area.

8.1 Future works

Overall, this thesis provides insight and proposes useful techniques to improve the bandwidth of the transimpedance amplifier. It presents exhaustive understanding of the methodology to enhance the bandwidth bandwidth of the transimpedance amplifier and highlights on basic concepts which have been usually ignored in the literature. An accurate and deep understanding of these mechanisms offers many opportunities to extend this research to new areas and further on transimpedance amplifiers.

- Commonly, the impact of bandwidth enhancement techniques on the other parameters has been unheeded in the literature. Further research can begin to consider the effect of the bandwidth extension techniques on other parameters focusing on phase, group delay, etc with these types of TIAs.

- The next step would be moving on the need for a more comprehensive of the noise analysis to investigate way to further minimize the noise while improving the bandwidth. In the proposed topologies, it was shown that once the noise source and procedure was understood, necessary techniques could be taken to reduce the source of the noise which is in itself a huge topic.

  Moreover the noise generated by a huge number of transistor could affect the sensitivity of the receiver . This problem can be solved by isolate the core of the transimpedance amplifier. So that, more research on isolation technique are mandatory.

  Furthermore, the noise analysis can also be done that includes a model for the bond wire. It has been reported that, the bond wire has a serious impact on the TIA

bandwidth and noise performance. It should be possible obtain better performance by optimizing the TIA performance with the bond wire.

- As previously mentioned the usage of negative impedance circuit at the output node of the TIA allows to improve the bandwidth of the TIA. Using the negative impedance circuit can be more generalized in many RF building blocks whose frequency response or bandwidth is determined by one or two dominant poles . More research is needed to investigate alternate structures for the design of negative resistance circuits with high efficiency in the gain and the bandwidth

- Despite the fact that inductors are believed to be area inefficient, inductors do not presuppose high quality factors. Therefore, a new technique inspired to implement the inductor in an area-efficient fashion. The active inductors is used to reduce the chip area of the TIA circuits . However, active inductors have several drawbacks including: high power consumption and high noise, this work focuses on reducing the large chip area required to fabricate spiral inductor by using active devices and reducing the cost. More research is needed to investigate alternate structures of the active inductor to reduce the power consumption.

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List of Publications and Patents:

PUBLICATIONS/PRESENTATIONS ON THE THESIS

▪ **ABU TAHA J.**, Yazgi M., A 6.03 GHz Low Power Transimpedance Amplifier TIA in CMOS 0.18μm Technology., *International Journal of Emerging Technology and Advanced Engineering (IJETAE)*,February 37-46, 2015.

▪ **ABU TAHA J.**, Yazgi M., Broadband Transimpedance Amplifier TIA in CMOS 0.18μm Technology Using Matching Technique., *ELECO 2015, Proceeding of the 2015 9th International Conference on Electrical and Electronics Engineering, ELECO 2015*, February 26-28, Bursa, Turkey.

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