## 25.5 A 320GHz Subharmonic-Mixing Coherent Imager in 0.13µm SiGe BiCMOS

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Terahertz imaging has been gaining increasing attention for its emerging applications in security, biomedical and material characterization. Previous works have demonstrated terahertz imagers on silicon: in [1], the authors demonstrated a 280GHz 4×4 array and an 860GHz pixel using Schottky-barrier diodes; in [2], a 0.7-to-1.1THz 1k-pixel camera was presented. Unfortunately, most previous works are based on incoherent direct detection (Fig. 25.5.1), which causes low sensitivity due to the output droping quickly with input power ( $\propto V_{BF}^2$ ), and, as a result, need exceedingly high power sources for illumination. This problem can be alleviated by utilizing coherent heterodyne detection scheme (Fig. 25.5.1), in which the terahertz input (RF) mixes with a local oscillation (LO) signal and generates an output with the amplitude proportional to  $V_{\text{RF}}V_{\text{LO}}$ . As the LO power is normally significantly higher than RF, the sensitivity is much enhanced. Moreover, as the output also carries the RF phase information ( $\varphi_{\text{RF}}$ ), digital beamforming is achievable. For a better comparison, an NPN transistor is configured both as a direct detector (input power injected from the emitter) and a heterodyne detector (-20dBm LO power pumped into the base). The simulated output current with different input power is shown in Fig. 25.5.1, in which we observe a sensitivity enhancement of more than 40dB. However, this coherent sensing scheme introduces a great challenge of synchronizing the frequencies of the transmitter (TX) radiated signal and the receiver (RX) LO. Fortunately, phaselocked terahertz sources have been demonstrated on silicon [3,4]. In this paper, a fully integrated 320GHz high-sensitivity coherent-imaging transceiver chipset is demonstrated.

The TX could be divided into two parts: a 4×4 320GHz radiator array and a 160GHz PLL (Fig. 25.5.2). The return-path-gap-based oscillator structure is adopted in the radiator cells (Fig. 25.5.2) since it can maximize the oscillation activity, eliminate the 2<sup>nd</sup>-harmonic self-power-cancelation/loading effect and efficiently radiate the 2<sup>nd</sup>-harmonic signal [3]. With these, the radiators achieve high output power and DC-to-radiation efficiency. Within each row, 4 radiators are mutually coupled together. To ensure frequency coherency between TX and RX, each row of the radiators are inject-locked by the mutually locked VCOs through the 2ndharmonic buffers (Fig. 25.5.2). Unfortunately, due to the large oscillation activity in the radiators, the locking range between the radiators and VCOs is small. However, a sufficient locking range is needed for the TX to be immune from the environmental change during the imaging process. Focusing on this issue, we achieved better locking range compared with [3]. A large tuning range is also required for the PLL in order to cover the radiator frequency shift caused by inaccurate device models at high frequency and process variation. In simulations, we achieved ~17GHz tuning range at the 160GHz output of the PLL, which is enough to cover ±5.3% radiator frequency shift. The simulated radiation pattern is also shown in Fig. 25.5.2. Compared to multiplier-chain-based locked terahertz sources, the PLL-based structure does not need any high frequency off-chip source, thus achieving a higher level of integration and a smaller size.

The RX (Fig. 25.5.3) is composed of an 8-cell detector array and a similar 160GHz PLL as in TX (with only one VCO and the 2<sup>nd</sup>-harmonic buffer is optimized for delivering LO power). Ideally, we could use the PLL to inject-lock a 320GHz oscillator to deliver the LO power. However, as mentioned before, with a large oscillation activity, the locking range for LO is small. Due to the possible TX/RX frequency mismatch caused by process variation, such small locking range is hardly able to ensure synchronization. To solve this problem, a subharmonic mixing scheme (160GHz LO directly provided by the PLL) is used for its larger LO tuning range as well as simplicity and less TX/RX frequency mismatch due to hardware reuse. A highly symmetric distribution network is designed to deliver the LO power is delivered to each cell. The geometry of the employed differential patch antenna is shown in Fig. 25.5.3. The simulated antenna gain is 2.2dB. A detailed block diagram of a detector cell is shown in Fig. 25.5.3. An NPN transistor is used as the nonlinear device to perform LO (pumped in at base) and RF (injected from

emitter) mixing. The transistor size is chosen by trading-off the conversion loss, device noise as well as input impedance at the emitter for antenna matching. To alleviate the LO self-mixing problem, a differential structure is adopted. The IF signal is then amplified by a low-noise pre-amplifier before it is mixed again into a 100kHz baseband signal. Finally, a low-pass filter (200kHz cutoff frequency) is followed. The total gain for the baseband circuits is simulated to be 60dB. It is noteworthy that due to the array topology and a phase-preserving detecting scheme, electrical scanning based on RX beam steering is possible and potentially able to significantly reduce imaging time.

Both TX and RX chips are implemented in the 0.13µm SiGe:C BiCMOS technology from STMicroelectronics. The TX output spectrum and the power measurement setups are shown in Fig. 25.5.4. A hemispherical high-resistivity silicon lens is attached to the backside of the chip to eliminate the substrate wave. The measured radiator free-running and locked spectrum as well as locked phase noise are shown in Fig. 25.5.4. Due to the large division ratio and the wide tuning range required for the PLL, the phase noise is slightly sacrificed. The TX output locking range at different radiator  $V_{Base}$  is shown in Fig. 25.5.4. As  $V_{Base}$  increases, the oscillation activity of the radiators increases, and as discussed before, the locking range decreases quickly. However, a total locking range of 3.91GHz is still achieved. The TX directivity is measured to be 18dBi (radiation pattern shown in Fig. 25.5.4). The calorimeter is located 9cm away from the TX chip during the power measurement in order to ensure a far-field condition. The measured output power as well as the radiator array DC-to-radiation efficiency vs supply voltage are shown in Fig. 25.5.4. The peak EIRP and output power are 21.1dBm and 2.03mW, respectively. The RX measurement setup is shown in Fig. 25.5.5. To eliminate a standing wave caused by a reflection at the RX PCB, an absorber is positioned in front of it. The measured output-signal PSD and the output noise spectrum density are shown in Fig. 25.5.5. Due to limited close-in phase noise of the PLLs (both RF and LO phase noise is determined by the PLLs), the output signal power is spread within the 90kHz bandwidth, however it is still 28dB higher than the noise floor with a 15cm TX-to-RX distance. The output signal is integrated from 10kHz to 100kHz to get an output rms voltage (this operation sacrifices the RF phase information in the output). The output rms voltage as well as the received power of a detector cell vs distance are shown in Fig. 25.5.5. An equivalent incoherent responsivity is defined as the responsivity an incoherent detector needs to generate the same output rms voltage with the same received power. The conversion gain from the input terahertz voltage (assume  $50\Omega$ impedance) to the output rms voltage as well as the equivalent responsivity vs distance are shown in Fig. 25.5.5. With the transmission-mode imaging setup shown in Fig. 25.5.1, some terahertz images are formed (Fig. 25.5.6). The performance summaries of TX and RX as well as a comparison table are given in Fig. 25.5.6. To make a fair comparison between coherent and incoherent imagers, a sensitivity is defined as the input power for the output to have SNR=1 within a 1kHz bandwidth (corresponding to 1ms time constant for fast imaging). The comparison shows the coherent imager can achieve ~10× better sensitivity. The sensitivity enhances even further with larger bandwidth (~20× for 10kHz and ~70× for 100kHz) corresponding to faster imaging.

## References:

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Figure 25.5.5: The receiver measurement: setup, output PSD and noise, output rms voltage and received power, conversion gain and equivalent incoherent responsivity.







Figure 25.5.4: The transmitter measurement: setup, spectrum, phase noise, locking range, radiation pattern, output power and efficiency.

Torah	ortz Imagoe				Tranen	aittor Porforma	nco Su	mman		
					Output Fragman av Banga (CUp)			<u>1111ar y</u>		
A Human Tooth				Output Frequency Range (GHZ)			319.04 ~ 322.95			
N (120x80 pixels )					Peak Radiated Power (mvv)			2.03		
					Peak EIRP (dBm)			21.1		
"UNIC" Metallic Symbol				Directivity (dBi)			18.0			
				Peak Radiator Enciency (%)			0.41			
Attached to a Student ID Card				Card	Phase Noise (dBc/Hz)			-87.2 @ 100KH2 offset		
Chip inside the card					DC Consumption (mW)			433 (Radiator Array) 172 (PLL)		
Receiver Performance Summary										
					LO Tuning Range (GHz)			152.5 ~ 164.8		
					Antenn	ina Gain (dB)		2.2		
L.	"UNIC" Symbol Wire Antenna inside Conversion Gain (V/V)							6.7 @ 100KHz		
12.23								31.0		
the card				Sensitivity (pW) [1kHz BW]			70.1			
6cm					DC Consumption (mW)			41.6 (Detector Array)		
Comparison Table								10.0 (11		
	References	es Technology Frequency		Arra	ay Size	Responsivity	Sensitivity <sup>6</sup>		Coherent	
		130nm CMOS	0.28 THz	4×4		336 V/W <sup>1</sup>	917	pW <sup>7</sup>		
	JSSC 2013 [1]		0.86 THz	single pixel		273 V/W <sup>1</sup>	1.33 nW <sup>7</sup>		NO	
	JSSC 2012 [2]	65nm CMOS	0.86 THz	32×32		140 kV/W <sup>2</sup>	3.16 nW <sup>7</sup>		No	
	Tran. THz 2015 [5]	130nm SiGe	0.26 THz	4×4		2.6 MV/W <sup>3</sup>	250~278 pW <sup>7</sup>		No	
	JSSC 2013 [6]	180nm SiGe	0.32 THz	4×4		18 kV/W <sup>4</sup>	1.08 nW <sup>7</sup>		No	
	This Work	130nm SiGe	0.32 THz	8		> 7.26 MV/W <sup>5</sup>	70.1 pW		Yes	
	<ol> <li>24dB on-chip amplifier gain is de-embeded.</li> <li>Con-chip readout circuit gain and 5dB off-chip VGA gain included.</li> <li>3:35-75.80 VGA gain included.</li> <li>The equivalent resonsivity of the coherent detector is defined as: the responsivity an incoherent detector needs to generate same output r.m.s. votage with the same received power level. 60dB baseband gain included.</li> <li>The sensitivity is defined as the input power level for the output signal to have SNR=1 within 1kHz bandwidth.</li> <li>TA ssaume noise spectrum density in start within the VHz bandwidth.</li> </ol>									

Figure 25.5.6: Terahertz images, performance summaries and comparison with other state-of-the-art imagers.

