Design of Low-Power Active Tags for Operation With 77–81-GHz FMCW Radar

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Abstract—The system and transistor-level design of low-power millimeter wave (mm-wave) active tags in silicon is discussed in detail. Two active mm-wave tags with identical system architecture, padframe, and chip size were designed and fabricated in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies, respectively. They feature a three-stage low-noise amplifier (LNA), a wake-up detector, a BPSK modulator, and two variable gain output stages, each driving a separate transmit antenna in antiphase. The wake-up detector can be used to switch OFF all the blocks except for the LNA and detector, thus further reducing power consumption. The measured performance of the SiGe and SOI chips is remarkably similar: 19- and 20-dB gain, 9- and 8-dB noise figure, and 25-/10.8-mW (active/idle) and 18-mW power consumption, respectively. The SiGe tag was flipchip-mounted on a mini-PCB with one receive and two transmit antennas for system level functionality tests carried out over a distance of 5 m. The SiGe-tag wake-up sensitivity was verified to be -62 dBm, in excellent agreement with simulation results.

Index Terms—Active tag, antenna, BPSK modulator, detector, FMCW radar, low-noise amplifier (LNA), millimeter wave (mm-wave), SiGe BiCMOS, SOI CMOS, wake-up function.

I. INTRODUCTION

I N RECENT years, we have witnessed the proliferation of vehicles equipped with FMCW long-range and medium-range radars operating in the 77–81-GHz band. The impending introduction of autonomous vehicles will make these radar systems ubiquitous. Therefore, a low-power millimeter wave (mm-wave) tag (also referred to as backscatterer or reflector) operating in this band [1], [2] can act as a very useful aid for target identification in autonomous navigation.

In a would-be usage scenario illustrated in Fig. 1, the FMCW radar installed in the vehicle acts as the base station. It first interrogates the tag and then reads back the signal amplified and modulated with local information by the tag. Initially, the tag is in idle mode, consuming little power.

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Base Station

Fig. 1. FMCW radar system consisting of base station and active tag.

Once it preamplifies and detects the incoming FMCW signal, it powers up to modulate and further amplify the signal before it "reflects" it back to the base station.

Other possible applications include perimeter definition for autonomous lawn mowers, snow blowers, and similar autonomous robots.

Until recently, with the exception of an active tag operating at 34 GHz, which consumes 122 mW [3], only passive tags have been reported in the mm-wave range [1], [2], [4]. Despite their ultra-low power, passive tags suffer from signal loss and poor sensitivity, severely limiting the range over which they can operate. Recently, we have presented two ultra-low power 77–81-GHz active tags manufactured in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS [5] and 45-nm SOI CMOS [6] technologies with dedicated mm-wave back-end-of-line (BEOL).

This paper discusses the system-level specification of those tags in Section II and explores which technology back-end and transistor figures of merit (FoMs) determine the minimum power consumption in Section III. Section IV presents the low-power circuit topologies and design methodology and compares the specific implementations of each circuit block in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies. Fabrication and packaging is briefly reviewed in Section V, whereas the experimental characterization at the die level and in-the-package is covered in detail in Section VI, where new system-level experiments conducted in an anechoic chamber over 5 m are reported.

II. RADIO-LINK BUDGET

The design goal is to establish a 10-m link using existing FMCW long-range and medium-range radar systems and an ultrasmall size tag with minimal power consumption. It is assumed that the base station has a transmitter output power, P_{TX} , of 10 dBm, an antenna gain, G_{TRX} , of 20 dBi, and a receiver noise figure of 10 dB. The tag is specified for an antenna gain of 6 dBi, a receiver noise figure of 9 dB, a gain

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 TABLE I

 Base Station and Active Tag System Parameters

Block	Symbol	Description	Value	
	f_0	frequency range	77-81 GHz	
FMCW base station	P_{TX}	transmit power	10 dBm	
	G_{TRX}	transceiver antenna gain	20 dB	
	NF _{RX}	receiver noise figure	10 dB	
	d	distance between base station and target	> 10 m	
mm-wave tag	BW	operation bandwidth	5 GHz	
	G_{tag}	antenna gain	6 dB	
	A_{tag}	amplification gain	20 dB	
	NF _{tag}	noise figure	9 dB	
	BW_{mod}	modulation frequency	< 100 kHz	

of 20 dB, and a modulation bandwidth of 10-100 kHz. The 3-dB bandwidth of the tag must be at least 5 GHz, covering the 77–81-GHz band with some margin.

It is important to clarify that, while in the idle mode, the tag operates as a low-noise radiometer. The wake-up function sensitivity is determined by the responsivity (*RESP*) and the noise equivalent power (*NEP*) of the low-noise amplifier (LNA)-detector block. A large RF bandwidth degrades its sensitivity. The wake-up function sensitivity of the tag is assumed to be better than -62 dBm. A summary of the base station and active tag parameters used in the link budget analysis can be found in Table I.

Friis's transmission equation can be used to calculate the signal power received by the tag in the downlink

$$P_{R,\text{tag}} = \frac{P_{\text{TX}}G_{\text{TRX}}G_{\text{tag}}\lambda^2}{(4\pi\,d)^2} \tag{1}$$

where λ is the free-space wavelength and *d* is the distance between the base station and the tag.

For a 77-GHz signal traveling over a distance of 25 m, the free space loss (*FSL*) becomes

$$FSL = 20 \times \log\left(\frac{4\pi d}{\lambda}\right) = 98 \text{ dB.}$$
(2)

Using (1) and (2), the received signal power at the tag is calculated as

$$P_{R,\text{tag}} = P_{\text{TX}} + G_{\text{TRX}} + G_{\text{tag}} - \text{FSL} = -62 \text{ dBm}.$$
 (3)

This value is equal to the sensitivity of the wake-up detector and limits its downlink operation. Therefore, given that the tag gain, A_{tag} , is 20 dB, its output power becomes

$$P_{T,\text{tag}} = P_{R,\text{tag}} + A_{\text{tag}} \quad \text{if} \ P_{R,\text{tag}} > -62 \text{ dBm.} \tag{4}$$

The lowest detectable power level in the base station receiver, S_i , can be expressed as

$$S_i = -174 \text{ dBm} + \text{SNR}_{\text{min}} + \text{NF}_{\text{RX}} + 10 \log(\text{BW}_{\text{mod}}) \quad (5)$$

where SNR_{min} denotes the minimum required SNR at the base station receiver, NF_{RX} is its receiver noise figure, and BW_{mod} is the baseband modulation frequency of the tag. For a given



Fig. 2. Link distance versus base station receiver SNR for two different values of the tag modulation bandwidth, with and without wake-up functionality.

sensitivity of the base station receiver, the maximum distance between the base station and the tag is given as

$$d = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi} 10^{(P_{T,\text{tag}} + G_{\text{TRX}} + G_{\text{tag}} - S_i)/20}$$

= $\frac{\lambda}{4\pi} 10^{(P_{\text{TX}} + 2G_{\text{TRX}} + 2G_{\text{tag}} + A_{\text{tag}} - S_i)/40}.$ (6)

Fig. 2 illustrates the maximum link distance as a function of the base station receiver SNR for two different values of the tag modulation bandwidth, with and without wake-up functionality.

If all the circuits in the tag are active all the time, the link distance can be longer than 20 m at a modulation bandwidth of 10 kHz and SNR of 14 dB. However, in the case where the wake-up function is desired and most of the tag is idle, the maximum link distance is determined by the wake-up function sensitivity of the tag in the downlink. Based on previously published work [7], [8], the tag wake-up sensitivity is expected to be dominated by the tag *RESP* and *NEP*. Therefore, an LNA with large gain (over 25 dB [8]) and low noise figure must be placed in front of the wake-up detector to improve the *NEP*. Moreover, the tag *RESP* must be large enough for the desired wake-up function sensitivity.

III. TECHNOLOGY FIGURES OF MERIT AT W-BAND

The 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS technology from STMicroelectronics and GlobalFoundries' 45-nm SOI CMOS technology were used for the physical implementation of the mm-wave active tag ICs.

The first process features 55-nm MOSFETs with high and low V_t and fully wired nMOSFET f_T/f_{MAX} of 280/300 GHz, three flavors of 100-nm emitter width SiGe HBTs with fully wired f_T/f_{MAX} of 300/330 GHz, and a nine-metal BEOL with 3- μ m-thick top Cu layer and 1.4- μ m-thick Alucap layer [13].

The BEOL of the partially depleted SOI-CMOS process has 11 metal layers with two 1.2- μ m-thick top Cu layers and 2.1- μ m-thick Alucap. The measured f_T and f_{MAX} of fully wired nMOSFETs with 770-nm gate-finger width and minimum gate length of 40 nm are both 250 GHz [9].

Both technologies use a standard silicon p-type substrate with $10-\Omega \times cm$ resistivity.



Fig. 3. Simulated MAG at 80 GHz as a function of current for minimum-size cascode stages in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies.

Since a critical design goal in this application is minimizing the power consumption of the tag, the most important technology FoMs are: 1) the power gain of the minimumsize amplifier stages and 2) the quality factor of *W*-band matching networks. The latter depends on the BEOL and on the resistivity of the Si substrate.

A. Power Gain of Minimum-Size Cascodes

For a given bias current, cascodes provide more than 3-dB higher gain and better isolation than common-emitter/source and common-base/gate topologies. Fig. 3 compares the simulated maximum available gain (MAG) of different minimum-size cascode stages at 80 GHz in both technologies as a function of bias current. The HBT–HBT and the MOS–HBT cascodes in the 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS process show the highest peak gain of 15 and 12.5 dB, respectively, at 0.5 mA. Their gain is larger than those of the 45-nm SOI-CMOS and 55-nm MOSFET cascodes at all bias currents smaller than 1 mA. The peak stable power gain of the 45-nm SOI CMOS cascode is 11.5 dB at 0.7 mA, while that of the 55-nm MOS-MOS cascode is 11 dB at 0.5 mA. All MOSFETs have the gate fingers contacted on both sides to minimize the gate resistance and maximize f_{MAX} .

As already mentioned, to minimize power consumption, one might be tempted to use the minimum-size HBTs and MOSFETs in all circuit blocks. However, Fig. 4 indicates that the power gain of minimum-size HBTs is significantly degraded by periphery effects, such as parasitic and fringing capacitances. Using larger-size HBT cascodes results in larger gain at all bias currents. This effect is less pronounced in the MOS–MOS cascodes whose MAG only depends on the gate finger width (fixed at 770 nm) and not on the number of fingers connected in parallel. All the above-mentioned simulations were performed after extraction of layout parasitic.

B. Impact of Matching-Network Q on Cascode-Stage Gain

Fig. 5 summarizes the values of the input and output impedances of the cascodes in Fig. 4 and the value of the inductors needed for interstage matching in each case. It is apparent that, besides the lower gain, minimum-size cascodes



Fig. 4. Simulated MAG for HBT-HBT and MOS-MOS cascodes of two different sizes in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies, respectively.



Fig. 5. Simulated input and output impedances and matching inductor values at 80 GHz for different HBT-HBT and 45-nm SOI MOSFET cascodes.

exhibit very large interstage impedances with large quality factor *Q*. The corresponding matching networks require very large inductor values, which are not realizable at 80 GHz with sufficiently high self-resonance frequency (SRF).

To evaluate the performance of the two BEOLs and understand their limitations, a 210-pH vertically series-stacked inductor, with identical layout formed in the top-three metal layers, was simulated in both BEOLs using a quasi-3-D EM simulator. The inductor layout, with 30- μ m diameter and 4- μ m metal width, is illustrated in Fig. 6. The effective inductance L and quality factor Q extracted from the simulated S-parameters are plotted as a function of frequency in Fig. 7. Although the two BEOLs have somewhat different top metal thickness and different total dielectric thickness, similar peak quality factors of 16.5 and SRF of 155/160 GHz are obtained for the SiGe BiCMOS and SOI technologies, respectively. The effective Q peaks at 70–75 GHz. A third set of curves is included for the case where the SOI substrate resistivity is changed from 10 $\Omega \times cm$ to the high-resistivity option of 1000 $\Omega \times cm$. As can be seen, the resistivity of the substrate has practically no impact on these mm-wave inductor designs,



Fig. 6. Three-turn inductor layout realized in the aluminum and top two copper layers.



Fig. 7. EM simulation of effective inductance L and quality factor Q of the same inductor realized in the 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS BEOL (SiGe) and 45-nm SOI CMOS BEOL with $10-\Omega \times \text{cm}$ (SOI) and $1000-\Omega \times \text{cm}$ (SOI_res) silicon substrates. L and Q describe the inductor with $30-\mu\text{m}$ diameter in both BEOLs, whereas Ln and Qn describe the $26-\mu\text{m}$ -diameter inductor in the SiGe BEOL.

because the inductor footprint is small and vertical coupling is employed. The $L \times SRF$ product is 32 GHz×nH. Since the SRF of the inductor has to be at least two times larger than the frequency at which it is used, it is also clear that inductor values larger than 200 pH should not be used at 80 GHz in these technologies.

Finally, a better $L \times \text{SRF}$ product of 36 GHz×nH with similar peak-Q value of 15 can be achieved in the SiGe BiCMOS process if 2-µm-wide metal lines are used in the inductor design. For the same inductance value of 210 pH, the inductor footprint is reduced to a diameter of 26 µm, increasing the SRF to 180 GHz.

The effect of the quality factor of the matching network on the gain of the SiGe HBT-HBT and SOI CMOS cascode stages at 80 GHz is simulated in Fig. 8 as a function of bias current. MAG improves by more than 3 dB when the inductor Q increases from 10 to 20. It is also important to note that the gain of the HBT-cascode with infinite-Q inductor decreases from 23 dB in Fig. 4 to 17 dB when the inductor Q is 20. There is negligible degradation in the MAG of the SOI MOSFET cascode when the matching network Q changes from infinity to 20. The latter can be explained by examining the data in the table of Fig. 5. The quality factor of the output impedance of the SOI MOS–MOS cascode is 3, whereas the



Fig. 8. Simulated MAG at 80 GHz versus current of HBT-HBT cascode in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and MOS-MOS cascode in 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies for output matching quality factors of 10 and 20.



Fig. 9. Block diagram of the mm-wave tag. The detector block connection in the SiGe and SOI implementation is shown with the dashed line.

output impedance of the HBT–HBT cascode has a Q of 15. As a result, the MAG of the HBT cascode is more sensitive to the variation of the quality factor of the output matching network.

IV. TRANSISTOR-LEVEL DESIGN FOR ULTRA-LOW POWER CONSUMPTION

The block diagram of the proposed mm-wave tags is shown in Fig. 9. The received FMCW-signal is amplified by a threestage LNA after which it is simultaneously applied to the detector and to the BPSK modulator. The p and n outputs from the BPSK-modulator are connected to two different variablegain output stages, each driving a separate transmit antenna with opposite sign. If the signal at the LNA input pad is larger than -62 dBm, the detector output voltage trips and can be used to wake up the BPSK modulator and the two variable-gain output stages, which are otherwise in sleep mode, unbiased. Since the signals at the two transmit antennas are 180° out of phase and have independently adjustable levels, the leakage into the receive antenna can be canceled, or at least minimized, to avoid positive feedback and possible oscillation. The antenna-to-antenna isolation can be further minimized by appropriate antenna spacing and orientation. In a real application scenario, a processor chip will be copackaged with the tag. The processor will read the detector output signal and provide the bias wake-up, modulation, and gain control signals to the tag.



Fig. 10. Schematic of the LNA block implemented in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS technology.



Fig. 11. Schematic of the LNA block implemented in 45-nm SOI CMOS technology.

The design and implementation of each circuit block are discussed in more detail in Sections IV-A–D. The SOI tag operates from a single 1.2-V supply, while the SiGe tag was designed to operate with a supply voltage from 1.8 to 2.5 V.

A. LNA

The schematics of the three-stage SiGe and SOI LNAs are identical and are reproduced in Figs. 10 and 11, respectively. The input stage features shunt-series transformer feedback for broadband impedance and noise matching. The role of the 450- and 500-fF capacitors is to provide low-inductance ac ground at the supply node and at the base/gate of the top HBT/MOSFET in each cascode stage. In the SiGe LNA, resistive emitter degeneration is used to stabilize the dc operating point over temperature and process variation and to make it insensitive to layout ground resistance. The noise generated by the emitter degeneration resistors is shunted by 500-fF capacitors at high frequency.

Resistive degeneration is not needed in the SOI LNA, since the MOSFET bias current is less sensitive to ground resistance variation due to the linear (rather than exponential) dependence of drain current on V_{GS} . Based on the analysis in Section III, all HBTs were sized with an emitter length of 1.18 μ m and are biased at the peak- f_{MAX} collector current density of 1.3 mA/ μ m for maximum gain. In the SOI LNA, all transistors have 40-nm physical gate length and 770-nm gate finger width, and are biased at the peak- f_{MAX} current density of 0.3 mA/ μ m to maximize gain while also minimizing the noise figure. Furthermore, the input stage is slightly larger than the following stages to facilitate input noise matching. No effort was made to minimize the noise figure of the SiGe LNA by increasing the size of the input HBT cascode for improved noise matching.

B. BPSK Modulator

The BPSK modulator was realized using the doublebalanced Gilbert cell topology as shown in Fig. 12(a) and (b). A transformer was used for single-ended-to-differential conversion and to conjugately match the modulator input impedance to the output of the preceding stage. As a compromise between power consumption and matching network realizability, close-to-minimum-size SiGe HBTs, with $0.5-\mu m$ emitter length, four-finger nMOSFETs were used in the SiGe and SOI tags, respectively. All transistors in the mixing quad are biased at half the peak- f_{MAX} current density to maximize switching speed and gain [14].

C. Detector

In the case of the SiGe tag, the wake-up detector is connected in parallel with the input of the BPSK modulator [Fig. 12(a)]. It employs a common-emitter differential pair with wide-swing pMOSFET current-mirror load for differential-to-single-ended conversion. The current-mirror output drives a 2.5-V, thick-oxide CMOS inverter which switches ON and OFF the bias current in the BPSK modulator and in the two variable-gain output stages. The differential pair has minimum size HBTs, to maximize the detector *RESP*. The active cascode load provides large gain, maximizing the detector RESP with minimal current consumption. For a given supply voltage, this arrangement provides higher output resistance and therefore higher responsivity compared with a resistive load [7], [8]. However, the pMOSFET load increases the 1/f noise corner. The role of the 270-fF MoM capacitors is to filter out any mm-wave signal leakage to the detector output.

In the SOI tag, the wake-up detector is embedded in the modulator stage and employs a common-gate differential topology with a dummy BPSK modulator inserted for symmetry and power-supply rejection. The detector amplifies the common-mode signal formed at the source of the input differential pair, which is proportional to the input signal power. Since nanoscale CMOS detectors have significantly worse *NEP* and *RESP* at mm-wave frequencies than SiGe



Fig. 12. Schematic of the modulator and detector block implemented in (a) 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and (b) 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies.



Fig. 13. Simulated *RESP* and *NEP* versus frequency for SiGe and SOI detectors.



The *RESP* and *NEP* are simulated in Fig. 13 for both tags, showing a clear advantage for the SiGe version, as expected [8].

Fig. 14 reproduces the simulated detector output waveforms as a function of the received input signal power. The SiGe tag wakes up at -62 dBm, whereas the SOI version triggers at -56 dBm and takes a longer time to settle because of its lower responsivity.

D. Variable Gain Amplifier

The schematics of the SiGe and SOI variable gain amplifiers (VGAs) are illustrated in Fig. 15. The first uses a common-base topology, whereas a cascode topology is



Fig. 14. Simulated SiGe and SOI tags wake-up time as a function of input signal power at 80 GHz.

implemented in SOI. Gain control is achieved with classical topology by steering current from the main amplifier path, Q_1 , to ac ground through Q_2 . In the SOI version, a second, smaller size nMOSFET Q_2 was placed in parallel with the main common-gate transistor, Q_1 . To minimize the capacitive parasitic of Q_2 and to maintain a symmetrical layout, the active area of Q_2 was merged with that of Q_1 . Only two extra gate fingers were added, one on each side of Q_1 . The gate voltage of Q_2 was fixed at 0.85 V through a resistive voltage divider, whereas the voltage at the gate of Q_1 was connected to an external pad for gain control.

V. CHIP FABRICATION AND PACKAGING

The die microphotographs of the SiGe and SOI tags are shown in Fig. 16. The dies have identical dimensions and padframe and occupy $0.57 \times 0.88 \text{ mm}^2$. The input pad is located at the bottom and the two outputs pads are at the top.

The dies were flip-chip mounted on a $23 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$ mini-PCB, which includes the receive and two transmit antennas,



Fig. 15. Schematic of the VGA block implemented in (a) 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and (b) 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies.



Fig. 16. Chip microphotograph of the mm-wave tag in (a) 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and (b) 45-nm SOI CMOS technologies. Both chips have a size of $0.57 \times 0.88 \text{ mm}^2$.



Fig. 17. Tag chip flip-chip mounted on a $23 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$ mini-PCB with two transmit and one receive antennas.

as illustrated in Fig. 17. To improve gain and isolation, the antennas are spaced farther apart and at different orientations than on the $7 \times 7 \text{ mm}^2$ flexible interposer in [5] and [6].

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The SiGe BiCMOS and SOI tags were first probed on die. The wake-up detector functionality was verified only in the SiGe tag. The SOI detector output was activated even in the absence of an input signal. It is suspected that the offset voltage of the MOSFET differential pair in the detector is too large and trips the CMOS inverter. Link demonstration experiments were conducted only on the packaged SiGe BiCMOS tags.

A. On-Die Measurements

Fig. 18 compiles the measured S-parameters and $50-\Omega$ noise figure, NF_{50} , for both tags. The Agilent 75–88-GHz N8975A-K88 single-sideband downconverter and the N8975A noise figure analyzer were used together with the ELVA *W*-band noise source with built-in isolator to measure NF_{50} . In these measurements, the SiGe tag draws 10 mA from 2.5 V, whereas the SOI tag was biased at 15 mA from 1.2 V. The SiGe and SOI tags have almost identical performance, with 19- and 20-dB gain, respectively, between the LNA input and each VGA output. The input reflection coefficient, S_{11} ,



Fig. 18. Measured tag S-parameters in the W-band. Solid and dash lines correspond to SiGe and SOI tags, respectively.



Fig. 19. Measured and simulated tag NF_{50} in the *W*-band. Solid and dash lines correspond to SiGe and SOI tags, respectively.

remains lower than -15 dB from 75 to 81 GHz and from 75 to 86 GHz for the SiGe and SOI tags, respectively.

Although the available VNA does not cover the 67–75-GHz range, measurements below 67 GHz reported in [5] and [6] indicate that the 3-dB bandwidth is 9 GHz for the SiGe tag and 5 GHz for the SOI tag. The measured 50- Ω noise figure is less than 9 and 8 dB, respectively. A comparison between measured and simulated noise figure for both SiGe BiCMOS and the SOI CMOS tags is provided in Fig. 19. It shows good agreement between measurements and simulations. Nevertheless, the simulated noise figure of the SOI tag has a minimum at a slightly higher frequency than that of the measured noise figure.

A breakout of the SiGe LNA was also fabricated and measured. It showed excellent S_{11} and S_{22} and a peak gain of 30 dB while consuming 11.25 mW from 2.5 V. The LNA gain decreases to 26 dB and the power consumption reduces to 8.1 mW when the supply voltage is 1.8 V [5].

To illustrate the tradeoff between gain, noise figure, and power consumption, Figs. 20 and 21 show the measured gain and NF_{50} of the SiGe and SOI tags as a function of the current density in the input cascode at 79 and 78 GHz, respectively. The optimum noise figure current density is 1.15 and 0.3 mA/ μ m for the SiGe and SOI tags, respectively. Figs. 20 and 21 also show that the power consumption can



Fig. 20. Measured gain from the input to one output and NF_{50} versus current density for the SiGe tag at 79 GHz.



Fig. 21. Measured gain from the input to one output and NF_{50} versus current density for the SOI tag at 78 GHz.



Fig. 22. Measured tag gain from the input to one output as a function of the gain control voltage and frequency in SiGe tag.

be reduced almost in half, with minimal degradation of noise figure, if the tag gain is reduced to 15 dB.

The gain control is demonstrated in Figs. 22 and 23. Both chips allow for more than 20 dB of the gain control, although only a small range of that is needed to balance the outputs.

The measured output spectrum of the SOI tag die is reproduced in Fig. 24 when a 77.4-GHz input signal is BPSK-modulated by a 500-kHz sine wave. More than 35 dB



Fig. 23. Measured tag gain from the input to one output as a function of the gain control voltage and frequency SOI tag.



Fig. 24. Spectra of a 77.4-GHz carrier BPSK-modulated with a 500-kHz sinusoid for SOI tag.



Fig. 25. Measured SiGe tag detector output voltage versus input power.

of carrier suppression can be observed, indicating negligible parasitic amplitude modulation.

Fig. 25 shows the detector output of the SiGe tag switching at $P_{\rm in} = -61.2$ dBm, in very close agreement with the simulations in Fig. 25.

B. In-Package Measurements

The measurement setup in Fig. 26 was used to verify the functionality and link distance of the packaged SiGe tag. It consists of a *W*-band multiplier signal source with 0-dBm output power and a 20-dBi horn antenna as the FMCW



Fig. 26. Photograph of the measurement setup in an anechoic chamber.



Fig. 27. Measured spectra, in dB, of a received 76.2-GHz carrier BPSKmodulated by a 4-kHz sinusoid applied at BPSK pad of the packaged SiGe tag placed 5 m away from the base station.

base station transmitter, and a second 20-dBi horn antenna connected to a *W*-band harmonic downconvert mixer as the base station receiver. The packaged SiGe tag was placed at a distance of 5 m from the FMCW source.

Propagation experiments were conducted with BPSK modulation at 4 kHz and with AM modulation at 10 kHz. In both the cases, the carrier frequency was 76.2 GHz. The AM modulation was applied to the variable gain pads. The corresponding spectra, captured by the spectrum analyzer connected to the base station receiver, are provided in Figs. 27 and 28, respectively. The SNR is better than 18 dB in both the cases, in agreement with the system link simulations in Section II.

Finally, Fig. 29 reproduces the measured power of the sideband received from a 76.2-GHz carrier BPSK-modulated with a 4-kHz sine wave by the SiGe tag as a function of the distance between the tag and the base station. Both copolarized and cross-polarized antenna measurements are reported and compared with theory. Again, close agreement is obtained with the theoretical power calculations using Friis's transmission equation.

Table II summarizes the performance of the two tags and compares it with the state of the art. The 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS

TABLE II							
COMPARISON WITH THE STATE OF ART							

	This Work	This Work	[3]	[11]	[2]	[10]	[12]
Туре	Active	Active	Active	Active	Passive	Passive	Passive
Technology	55-nm BiCMOS	45-nm SOI CMOS	250-nm BiCMOS	180-nm CMOS	GaAs PIN diode	GaAs Shottkey diode	180-nm CMOS
f0 [GHz]	78	77	34.45	5.8	76	61	24
BW [GHz]	9	5	0.5	0.15	1	0.5	0.25
NF [dB]	9	8	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Gain [dB]	19	20	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Sensitivity [dBm]	-62	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Wake-up Functionality	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
$P_{DC}[mW]$	25/10.8*	18	122 ^{§§}	54	N.A.	5	0.039/0.013*

* Active/Idle §§ Includes interface and pulse generation







Fig. 29. Received copolar and cross-polar sideband power versus distance in the base station-tag measurement setup. The dotted line shows the theoretical expected power level.

tag has the highest functionality, with similar gain, noise figure, and power consumption as the 45-nm SOI CMOS tag operating in the same frequency range. It includes a wake-up

function with a sensitivity of -62 dBm. In the idle mode, only the LNA and the detector are ON, consuming 10.8 mW from 1.8 V. When the input signal exceeds -62 dBm, the output of the wake-up detector changes logic states and activates all blocks in the tag. In active mode, the SiGe tag consumes 25 mW from 2.5 V and has 19-dB gain, 9-dB noise figure, and 9-GHz bandwidth centered on 77 GHz.

VII. CONCLUSION

Active mm-wave reflectors with one receive and two transmit channels were studied and demonstrated for the first time at the W-band, in 55-nm SiGe BiCMOS and 45-nm SOI CMOS commercial technologies. A comparative study was conducted for SiGe HBT and SOI CMOS cascode topologies and the impact of the quality factor of the passive matching networks on amplifier gain and power consumption in order to establish the best system architecture and best circuit topologies in both technologies were studied. Simulations and on-die measurements have confirmed that similar performance can be achieved for SiGe and SOI tags. The SiGe and SOI tag measurements show 19- and 20-dB gain, 9- and 5-GHz bandwidth, a noise figure of 9 and 8 dB, respectively, and 20 dB of independent gain control for each transmit channel. The built-in wake-up detector on the SiGe tag has an input sensitivity level of -62 dBm and can be used to put the tag in either active or idle mode, further saving power in the absence of an interrogating signal from the FMCW radar base station.

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