

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Stacked Common-Base vs Common-Emitter mmWave PA Cells and 68-105 GHz Broadband Asymmetrical PA in 250nm InP HBT

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**ABSTRACT** In this paper, we perform a comparative analysis between stacked common-emitter (SCE) and stacked common-base topologies (SCB) for high efficiency and broadband millimeter-Wave (mmWave) power amplifiers (PAs) in 250 nm InP-based heterojunction bipolar transistor (HBT) technology. We propose an analytical approach to design stacked PA cells accounting for complex load impedance and intra-matching between stacked transistors to allow optimal loadpull operation of both the devices in the stack. We demonstrate how SCB cell can allow higher gain, mitigated power and efficiency trade-off and linearity, when compared to more well-established SCE cells at higher mmWave frequencies. The designed SCB and SCE cells achieve a measured gain of 11.8 dB/6dB gain, 33%/34% peak PAE, 16.8%/14.5% PAE at 6-dB back-off, and  $P_{\text{sat}}$  of 18.7 dBm/19.6 dBm at 90 GHz. The SCB PA demonstrates superior linearity, and achieves an EVM of 2.38% at 11.8-dBm average power supporting 3 Gbps 64-QAM. The SCB PA achieves 17.9-18.9-dBm  $P_{\text{sat}}$  across 80-110 GHz and is one of the highest efficiency, broadband and linear PAs in W-band using InP technology. Utilizing the PA cells, we demonstrate an asymmetrical broadband power combining circuit for high efficiency combining across a large relatively bandwidth. The PA operates across a 68-105 GHz  $P_{\text{sat},3\text{dB}}$  bandwidth with 21.5 dBm peak saturation power and 24% peak PAE.

**INDEX TERMS** Asymmetrical combiner, broadband, common-base, InP HBT, millimeter-Wave (mmWave), power amplifiers (PAs), stacked PA.

## I. INTRODUCTION

InP heterojunction bipolar transistors (HBTs) with  $f_{\text{max}}$  approaching 700 GHz enable high-power, high-efficiency amplification at mmWave frequencies for communication and sensing. Courtesy of both the vertical and horizontal scalings, InP HBT balances the speed-breakdown trade-off and is a strong candidate for mmWave power amplifier operating at high mmWave frequencies above 40 GHz [1], [2]. As more mmWave bands have been allocated, the future spectrum sharing and intelligent spectrum management require the PA to be operable across a larger relative bandwidth.

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Among various mmWave InP PA topologies, common emitter (CE) device with Wilkinson type or corporate power combiner is the most popular [3], [4], [5], [6]. However, the low output impedance of a single CE PA cell suffers a larger output matching impedance transformation ratio as more PA cells are parallel combined, which limits the bandwidth. On the other hand, the conventional Wilkinson or multi-stage corporate power combiner typically trades matching efficiency for bandwidth. Therefore, the bandwidth of mmWave PA should be strategically addressed in both PA cell level and power combining architecture level.

For mmWave PA cells, transistor stacking allows a simultaneous higher power and higher gain and more importantly, a larger bandwidth due to higher output impedance [7], [8],

[9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [16]. Most of the prior works utilize a CE transistor as the input device with an output transistor connected in series to form a stacked common emitter (SCE) PA cell. Besides CE based topologies, common base (CB) topology, due to the greater breakdown voltage and higher available gain compared to CE-based PA cells, may also be exploited in power amplifier applications. Furthermore, combining the advantage of CB device and transistor stacking architecture leads to a new type of high gain, broadband PA cell: stacked common base (SCB) cell which will be discussed in this paper.

For broadband power combining architecture, the in-phase multi-way power combining presents the classical trade-off between bandwidth, matching efficiency and output power in PA design space [17]. Introduction of active matching networks or equivalent negative reactance components to direct cancel the reactive part can overcome this limitation [18], but this often comes with the limitations of instability and poor power handing [19], [20], [21]. Techniques such as frequency reconfigurable networks [22], [23], or external power injection with reconfigurable amplitude and phase [24], [25] have been proposed to loosen the trade-offs, but such architecture increases the control complexity, introduces switch losses and non-linearity, and are particularly more complex in InP-based technologies. Distributed amplifier architecture enhances the bandwidth, but typically struggles with efficiency due to non-optimum load across each stage [8].

In this paper, we address both the PA cell and combiner networks to create efficient and broadband mmWave PAs. First, we study and compare the various PA cells in mmWave with a focus on the SCE and SCB topologies, presenting an analytical method to design stacked PA cells, and demonstrating the importance of taking the load reactance into analysis for operation at mmWave. Secondly, using the SCE PA cells, we utilize an asymmetrical power combining architecture for bandwidth enhancement over conventional symmetrical power combiner [26]. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II discusses our proposed analytical method and design flow of the optimum stacked HBT PA cell (SCB and SCE) to enable simultaneous higher power and gain compared to single transistor PA cell at mmWave. Section III presents a comparison between CE, CB, SCE and SCB cells in terms of large signal performance, linearity and stability. The PA cell performance is also verified experimentally, emphasizing the consideration of stacked PA cell selection. With the selected PA cell, Section IV introduces the PA architecture with asymmetrical power combining to maintain high combining efficiency across a wide bandwidth. Section V presents the design and measurement result of the 68-105 GHz asymmetrical power combined PA using SCE cell in 250nm InP technology.

## II. ANALYSIS AND DESIGN OF STACKED HBT PA CELL

### A. PRINCIPLE AND DESIGN METHODOLOGY

Transistor stacking is a series power combining technique based on the series interconnection of a bottom transistor

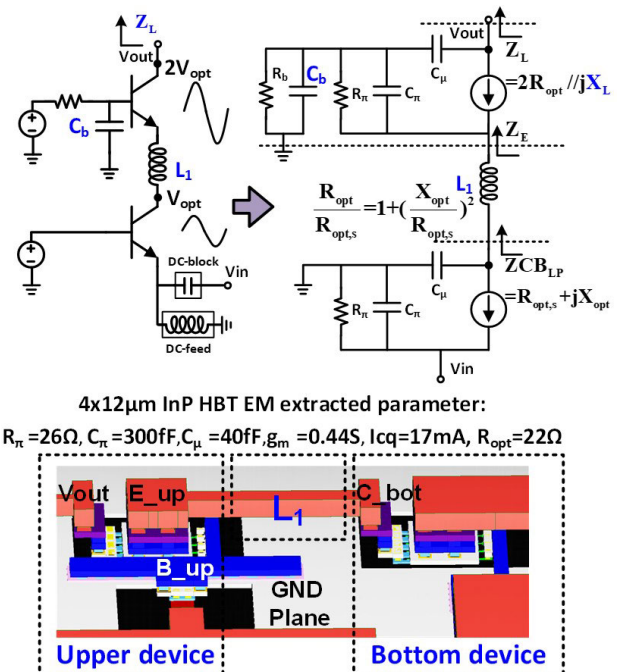
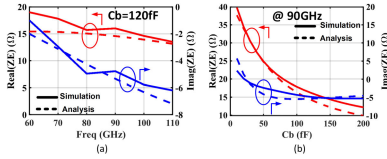


FIGURE 1. Proposed stacked common base (SCB) PA cell and its layout.

cascaded with a common-base-like upper transistor. Compared to single transistor, this enables higher output impedance for higher intrinsic gain, higher optimum impedance for better output matching bandwidth and efficiency, and higher saturation power. Conventional stack topology utilizes a common-emitter transistor at the bottom as the input transistor [7], [8], [9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [27]. As will be seen in Section III, the common-base (CB) InP HBT leads to superior performance than CE in terms of gain, gain compression and back-off efficiency at mmWave frequency range (>70 GHz), which motivates the investigation of utilizing the advantages of CB device by replacing the bottom CE device with a CB counterpart in a stacked PA cell, namely, forming a stacked common-base (SCB) topology (Fig. 1). Here, the base of the bottom device is ac grounded and the input signal is fed into its emitter, the top transistor has a shunt capacitor  $C_b$  at its base while an inductor  $L_1$  is inserted between the two transistors (Fig. 1). Intuitively, the SCB topology is a voltage amplifier since the input current ideally flows direct to the output node. The SCB topology was first proposed in [28] and the following section extends the analysis and design of an optimum SCB PA cell. There are three key considerations governing the proper operation of the SCB PA cell. They are

- *Output voltage doubling:* Assume the optimum collector voltage swing of bottom CB transistor is  $V_{opt}$  and its corresponding optimum load-pull impedance is  $Z_{CB,LP} = R_{opt,s} + jX_{opt}$ , which has an equivalent shunt resistance of  $R_{opt}$  ( $R_{opt} = R_{opt,s} \times (1 + (X_{opt}/R_{opt,s})^2)$ ). The stacked PA is expected to have a doubled voltage swing ( $2V_{opt}$ ) at the output node which is in-phase with



**FIGURE 2.** Variation of input impedance  $Z_E$ . (a) Variation against frequency for a fixed  $C_b$  (120 fF); (b) Variation against  $C_b$  for a fixed frequency (90 GHz).

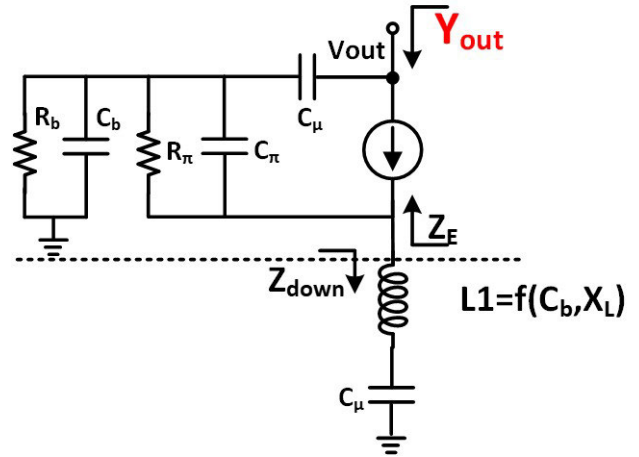
bottom transistor collector swing. To achieve this, the desired optimum load impedance ( $Z_L$ ) of the stacked PA should have a shunt resistance of  $2R_{opt}$  in parallel with a shunt reactance of  $X_L$  (Fig.1).

- *Broadband inter node impedance matching:* If we directly connect the emitter of top transistor to the collector of bottom transistor like a cascode, the interface is typically strongly mismatched because the input impedance of the top transistor is typically different from the optimum load impedance of bottom transistor. As we will show later, the top transistor input impedance is a function of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ , so one can choose these two parameters such that the required inter node impedance transformer ratio is minimized, which leads to a simple low loss matching network typically a single series inductor, and a wide matching bandwidth.
- *In-phase voltage addition at intrinsic current generator plane:* The imaginary part  $X_L$  in  $Z_L$  cannot be ignored because it should resonate out the stack device output capacitance. Only if this cancellation happens, the output current can flow to a pure resistive load ( $2R_{opt}$ ) to produce a voltage at intrinsic current generator plane that is in-phase with  $V_{opt}$ . Therefore, the  $Z_L=2R_{opt}/jX_L$  serves the optimum impedance at the “load-pull” plane.

Therefore, the design task is to properly choose these parameters:  $C_b$ ,  $X_L$  and  $L_1$  such that the above three constraints are fulfilled simultaneously. Our analysis and design method extends the methods in prior stacked PA analysis, taking into account the complexities of the reactive parts, and coupling capacitance and its effect on bandwidth. The stacked mmWave amplifier analysis presented in [7] is based on the assumption that the load impedance of stacked PA is a pure real value. A follow-up analysis in [10] accounts for the reactive part, but does not account for the gate-drain capacitance ( $C_\mu$  in our HBT case). In addition, the added intra-matching component on the stacked PA output impedance also needs to be taken into account [10]. In our analysis, the effect of the matching circuit on stack output capacitance is properly addressed.

Fig. 1 shows the equivalent model for the SCB PA cell analysis. An external  $R_b$  is added for base DC biasing. To address the inter-node matching, we firstly calculate the input impedance of the top transistor ( $Z_E$ ) as a function of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ :

$$Z_E = \frac{\frac{1}{Z_\pi} + \frac{1}{Z_{tune}} + (\frac{1}{Z_L} + \frac{1}{Z_\pi} + \frac{1}{Z_{tune}} + g_m)(SZ_L C_\mu)}{(g_m + \frac{1}{Z_\pi})(SC_\mu + \frac{1}{Z_{tune}}(1 + SZ_L C_\mu))} \quad (1)$$



**FIGURE 3.** Second design constraint determined by stack output capacitance to ensure optimal resonant matching.

where

$$Z_\pi = \frac{R_\pi}{1 + SR_\pi C_\pi}, Z_{tune} = \frac{R_b}{1 + SR_b C_b} \approx \frac{1}{SC_b} \quad (2)$$

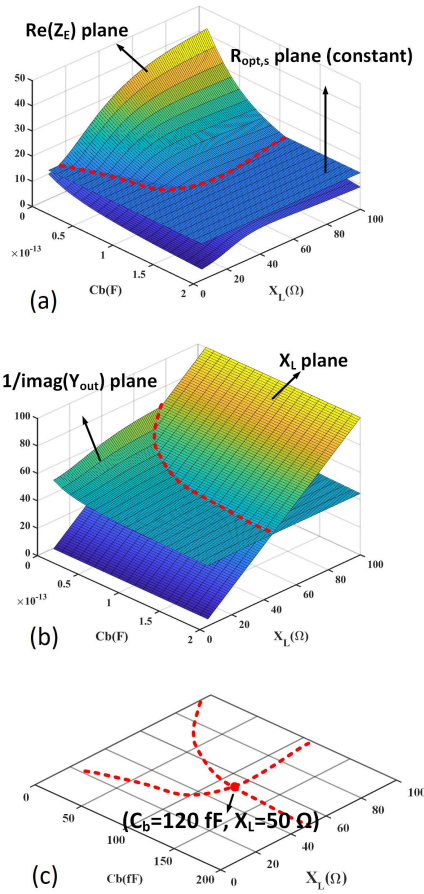
and

$$Z_L = \frac{2jR_{opt}X_L}{2R_{opt} + jX_L} \quad (3)$$

The external shunt cap ( $C_b$ ) at the base of top device plays an important role in adjusting  $Z_E$ , because  $C_b$  influences the base voltage swing of top transistor, and through  $C_\pi$  coupling, the emitter node of top transistor also gets influenced. Note that for 250nm InP technology, the moderate current gain ( $\beta \approx 20$ ) results in a relatively small  $R_\pi$ , which presents the similar impedance as  $C_\pi$ , so  $R_\pi$  should not be ignored in  $Z_\pi$ . However, the biasing resistor  $R_b$  should be large as a few hundred ohms to avoid the bypass effect on  $C_b$ , so  $C_b$  dominates the  $Z_{tune}$ .

Fig. 2 shows the good correlation between the simulation and analysis represented in (1) for both real part and imaginary part of  $Z_E$ , as 1. A function of frequency under fixed  $C_b$  and 2. A function of  $C_b$  at fixed frequency. All the analysis in this section is based on the extracted circuit parameters ( $C_\pi$ ,  $C_\mu$ ,  $R_\pi$ ,  $g_m$  and  $R_{opt}$ ) for a  $4 \times 12 \mu m$  transistor with 17 mA quiescent bias current, which is shown in Fig. 1. For the purpose of this figure, we assume the output load impedance of the stack is resistive ( $X_L=\infty$ ). Fig. 2(b) shows that the externally added  $C_b$  can significantly modulate the real part of the top device input impedance while a weaker effect on imaginary part is observed once  $C_b$  is large enough.

First, we concentrate on the intra-node impedance matching such that the bottom CB transistor sees the loadpull impedance ( $Z_{CB_{LP}}$ ) for optimal power generation. A perfect complex impedance matching condition of  $Z_E=Z_{CB_{LP}}$  maybe achieved by simultaneously selecting  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  from (1). However, such solution may not exist especially at high frequency. Therefore to achieve intra-node matching, new passive component should be added. For broad



**FIGURE 4.** Variation of  $\Re(Z_E)$  and  $1/\Im(Y_{out})$  as functions of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ . The intersection of the two lines gives the unique values of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  for optimal stack operation.

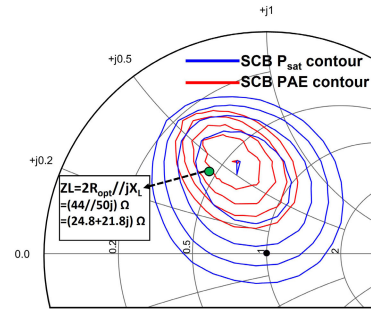
matching bandwidth, we can select the two design parameters ( $C_b$  and  $X_L$ ) such that the impedance transformation ratio is minimized by ensuring the following:

$$\Re(Z_E) = R_{opt,s} \tag{4}$$

where  $R_{opt,s}$  is the real part of the load-pull optimum load impedance of the bottom CB transistor. By doing so, only a series reactance tuning inductor  $L_1$  is needed to compensate the imaginary part. Since  $Z_E$  is a function of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  according to (1), Fig. 4 (a) shows the plane of  $\Re(Z_E)$  and the curved intersection line illustrating the range of values of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  that ensure (4).

For a certain combination of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ , the imaginary part of  $Z_E$  ( $\Im(Z_E)$ ) is also determined. Therefore, the broadband reactance tuning inductor  $L_1$  can be calculated from (5) which is also a function of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ . This inductor can be implemented by a high impedance transmission line (Layout in Fig. 1).

$$L_1 = \frac{X_{opt} - \Im(Z_E)}{\omega_0} = f(C_b, X_L) \tag{5}$$



**FIGURE 5.** Calculated optimum load impedance against simulated results.

In addition to the constraint in (4), ideally the loadline impedance of the stack at intrinsic current generator plane should be real ( $2R_{opt}$ ), which requires the reactance  $X_L$  to cancel the device output capacitance. This naturally leads to the second design equation of the stacked PA. As shown in Fig. 3, the output admittance  $Y_{out}$  can be analyzed, also as a function of  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  in (6). The  $Y_{out}$  dependence on  $X_L$  is due to that  $Y_{out}$  is a function of  $L_1$  while  $L_1$  is a function of  $X_L$  (from (5)). Note that for the common-base transistor at the bottom, the output network is equivalent to a capacitor  $C_\mu$  assuming a large output resistance.

$$Y_{out} = \frac{SC\mu(1 + g_m Z_\pi + SC_b(Z_{down} + Z_\pi + g_m Z_{down} Z_\pi))}{1 + S(C_b C_u)(Z_{down} + Z_\pi + g_m Z_{down} Z_\pi)} \tag{6}$$

where

$$Z_{down} = SL_1 + \frac{1}{SC\mu}, \tag{7}$$

Therefore, to optimally resonate out the output capacitance captured in the imaginary part of  $Y_{out}$ , the second design equation is

$$\frac{1}{\Im(Y_{out})} = \frac{1}{\omega_0 C_{out}} = X_L \tag{8}$$

At  $f_0 = 90$  GHz, equation (8) leads to another constraint curve governing  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ , as shown in Fig. 4(b). The intersections of the two lines in  $C_b$  and  $X_L$  plane gives the unique solutions to these parameters (Fig. 4(c)).

At 90 GHz, the SCB PA cell with extracted device parameters shown in Fig.1 results in  $C_b=120$  fF,  $X_L=50$   $\Omega$  and  $L_1=30$  pH. Therefore, the solution of the optimum load impedance for stacked PA cell can be calculated according to equation (3). The calculated impedance ( $2R_{opt} || jX_L \approx 24.8 + j21.8$   $\Omega$ ) is compared with the circuit load-pull simulation in Fig. 5. The good correlation validates the proposed analytical design method. The small discrepancy may due to the neglect of the device  $C_{ce}$  and output resistance. Note that this generalized design method for optimum stack PA operation achieving voltage scaling and ease of intra-matching can also apply to SCE PA cell.

## B. DESIGN FLOW SUMMARY

Following the analysis in Section II, the design flow of a stacked HBT PA cell can be summarized as below:

1. Given stacked PA supply VDD, center operating frequency  $f_0$  and desired  $P_{\text{sat}}$ , choose bottom device (CB or CE) size to deliver 1dB compression output power equal to at least half of the  $P_{\text{sat}}$ , under supply of VDD/2. Then extract the device parameters ( $R_{\pi}, C_{\pi}, C_{\mu}, g_m$ ) according to [29], and optimum load pull impedance  $Z_{\text{CBLP}}$ .

2. Set the top device base bias point such that the collector bias voltage of bottom device is VDD/2. Based on the analysis presented in (1) - (8), find the intersections of the two design constraints described by (4) and (8) to evaluate  $C_b$  and  $X_L$ . Evaluate  $L_1$  according to (5). Verify the calculated optimum load impedance  $Z_L$  is close to the load-pull simulation result of the stacked PA (Fig. 5).

3. Fine tune the first pass design parameters, followed by a load-pull analysis for performance optimization.

## III. COMPARISON OF CE, CB, SCE AND SCB TOPOLOGIES

In this Section, we focus on the trade-offs CB device for mmWave power amplification and comparison of different PA cells selection, especially between SCE and SCB.

### A. CB PA CELLS FOR HIGH GAIN, HIGH LINEARITY, AND HIGH EFFICIENCY WITH InP HBTs

CB topology, generally due to the reduced input-output feedback capacitance  $C_{ce}$  compared to the  $C_{bc}$  in the regular common-emitter (CE) topology, provides higher available gain at mmWave. Based on BJT transistor T model shown in Fig. 6, the maximum stable gain (MSG) and K factor of CB and CE device can be compared [30]:

$$\frac{MSG_{CB}}{MSG_{CE}} \approx \frac{r_{ex} + r_e}{r_b} \quad (9)$$

$$K_{CE} \approx ((r_b + 2r_{ex})C_{\mu} + r_e C_{\pi} (1 + \frac{2r_b}{r_{ex}}))\omega$$

$$K_{CB} \approx ((r_b + 2r_{ex})C_{\mu} + r_e C_{\pi})\omega$$

$$\omega_{(k=1, CB)} > \omega_{(k=1, CE)} \quad (10)$$

From (9), for a HBT device with high base doping such that  $r_b$  is relatively smaller than the numerator,  $MSG_{CB}$  can be larger than  $MSG_{CE}$ . From (10), starting from low frequency, we can see the K factor increases as frequency with a lower rate for CB topology compared to CE topology, which means the knee frequency where  $K=1$  is higher for CB compared to CE. With a simultaneous higher knee frequency and potential higher MSG for CB, the maximum available gain (MAG), therefore, is also higher for CB. The simulation of a  $4 \times 12 \mu\text{m}$  InP device for CB and CE topology also shows the similar behavior where the  $G_{\text{max}}$  of CB is higher than CE by up to 6 dB across 70-300 GHz (Fig. 6).

Secondly, due to higher breakdown voltage  $V_{\text{BCBO}}$  for CB topology, CB can also be attractive for power amplifications under high supply voltage [16], [31]. From the DC-IV simulation of the InP transistor, we can see CB cell

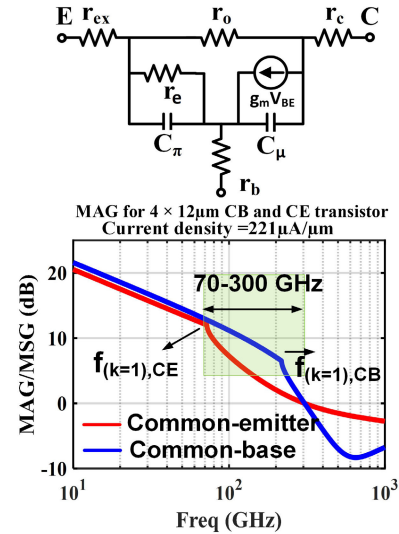


FIGURE 6. Simulation result showing higher available gain for CB cell.

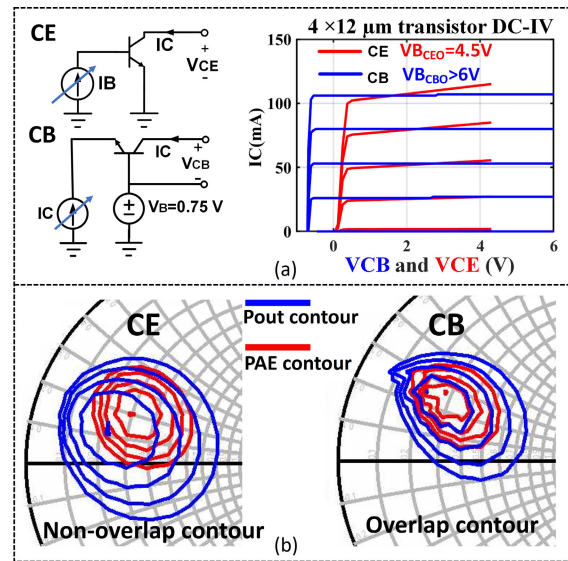
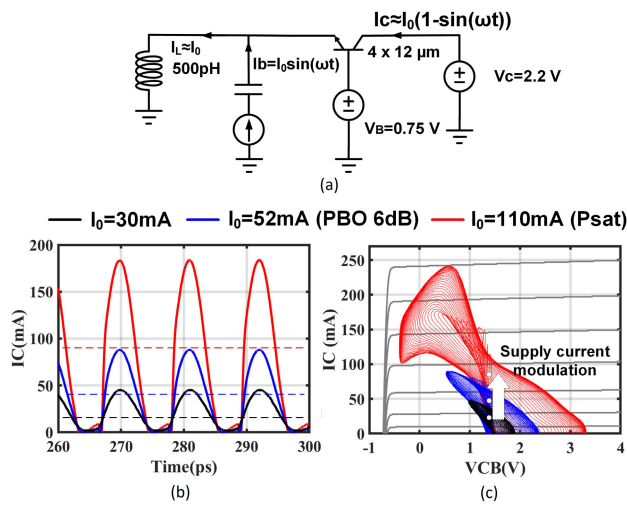


FIGURE 7. (a) DC-IV Simulation results showing superior gain compression and larger achievable swing for CB allowing higher linearity. (b) The 'close to ideal' DC-IV response leads to an overlapping of power and efficiency optimum loadpull impedance for CB.

has a sharper transition from off state to active state which indicates a preferable  $V_{\text{knee}}$ . In addition, in practice due to the thermal-electric feedback behavior [32], the CE configuration suffers from a larger signal-dependent  $I_c$  slope compared to CB. This results in a superior gain compression and larger achievable swing for CB (Fig. 7). For a regular class B CE or Common-source (CS) transistor, its optimum load impedances for power ( $Z_{\text{opt,pwr}}$ ) and efficiency ( $Z_{\text{opt,eff}}$ ) are notoriously distinct which typically needs a compromised choice of load impedance between these two conflicting requirements (Fig. 7(b)). The difference between  $Z_{\text{opt,pwr}}$  and  $Z_{\text{opt,eff}}$  can be explained by soft-turn on and



**FIGURE 8.** Current clamping effect for better back-off efficiency for CB.

current-dependent knee voltage [33]. On the contrary, due to the sharper turn on and relatively low knee voltage of CB transistor, the close to ideal DC-IV curve leads to almost overlapping of power and efficiency loadpull impedances (Fig. 7(b)). Such a property allows the simultaneous maximization of power and efficiency performance of a CB transistor.

Thirdly, the unique bias and signal feed mechanism for CB topology enables the current clamping effect [34] for linear and back-off efficiency enhancement operation. As shown in Fig. 8 (a), an inductor is used to bias the emitter to ground potential and a sinusoidal current with magnitude of  $I_0$  stimulates the amplifier. When the input current magnitude  $I_0$  is larger than the quiescent bias current, in the first several periods, the transistor is forced to be off and after several charging cycles, the inductor will be charged with a DC current of  $I_0$ . The charging cycles can be illustrated in the continuous load-line trajectory in Fig. 8 (c). Once the steady state is achieved, the shorted circuit output current of the amplifier will be  $I_c = I_0(1 - \sin(\omega_0 t))$ . This collector current is a level shifted sinusoidal waveform with class A conduction angle, but more importantly, the average current is proportional to the input current magnitude. The reduced bias current at lower input power results in the back-off efficiency enhancement as class B. Fig. 8 (b) and (c) show the shorted circuit time domain current and load-line under three different input power levels, which demonstrate the supply current modulation effect. It can be noted that the current modulation in Fig. 8 (b) does not correspond to a truncated current waveform like in class B operation. The simulated waveform shows full conduction angle for CB operation, thereby allowing high linearity.

**B. LARGE SIGNAL PERFORMANCE COMPARISON BETWEEN FOUR OPTIMALLY DESIGNED TOPOLOGIES**

Utilizing the benefit of CB device, a SCB PA cell is properly designed according to the flow in Section II. As a systematic

comparison, four PA cell topologies namely, CE, CB, SCE and SCB are simulated with optimum load termination. The large signal performance in terms of gain, efficiency and linearity at 90 GHz are shown in Fig. 9 and summarized in Fig. 12. Under same quiescent current, in the SCE and SCB amplifier  $R_{opt}$  expectedly increases, in this design, to approximately  $50 \Omega$ . The increase in the output impedance increases the gain, and allows good bandwidth and low loss output matching. Due to the high gain property of CB device, under almost same load impedance, SCB demonstrates 3.6 dB higher gain than SCE, while the single CB device achieves almost same gain as SCE.

In addition, almost close to ideal 3dB saturation power enhancement is achieved from stacked PA cells (2.6 dB for SCE over CE and 2.2 dB for SCB over CB). For the CB cell, a smaller difference between  $P_{1dB}$  and  $P_{sat}$  demonstrates sharper gain compression behavior. Even though the collector efficiency from the stacked PA cells are lower, due to higher gain, the peak PAE achieved from the four candidates are in the similar range. It should be noted that the PAE simulation accounts for the output matching network loss, assuming quality factors of capacitors and inductors as 20. To compare linearity and ACLR across different average power levels, envelope simulation is done using a 500MHz bandwidth 256QAM signal. As can be seen from the figure, SCE delivers the highest linear power with  $-35\text{ dBc}$  ACLR. As an example, the spectrum and constellation of the SCE PA cell at 7 dB back off is shown in Fig. 10.

**C. STABILITY COMPARISON BETWEEN FOUR TOPOLOGIES**

The benefit of CB device can come at the cost of stability risks. To compare the stability for the four topologies, we show the knee frequency (where K factor equals 1) of the four PA cells ( $4 \times 12 \mu\text{m}$  transistor) as a function of bias current in Fig. 11(a). The higher knee frequency indicates that the device is not unconditionally stable across a large range of frequencies, and care needs to be taken into account to ensure that the PA does not enter the instability region. As can be seen, for CB based PA cells, the frequency beyond which the device is unconditionally stable is at a much higher frequency when compared to CE based cells across all bias levels. The stability properties of a CB device can be improved by using SCB device to enhance device reverse isolation. At 100 GHz for example, the CE, SCE and SCB based PAs are unconditionally stable at 15mA quiescent bias current, while CB PAs are only conditionally stable. The source and load stability circles are plotted for CB and SCB PA cells (Fig. 11 (b)) as the design guideline.

**D. MEASUREMENT RESULTS WITH SCE AND SCB PA CELLS**

Single stage SCE and SCB PA cells are fabricated and compared experimentally (Fig. 13). To ensure high gain and good stability of SCB PA cell, the base resistance and inductance of the bottom device should be minimized. Therefore, an

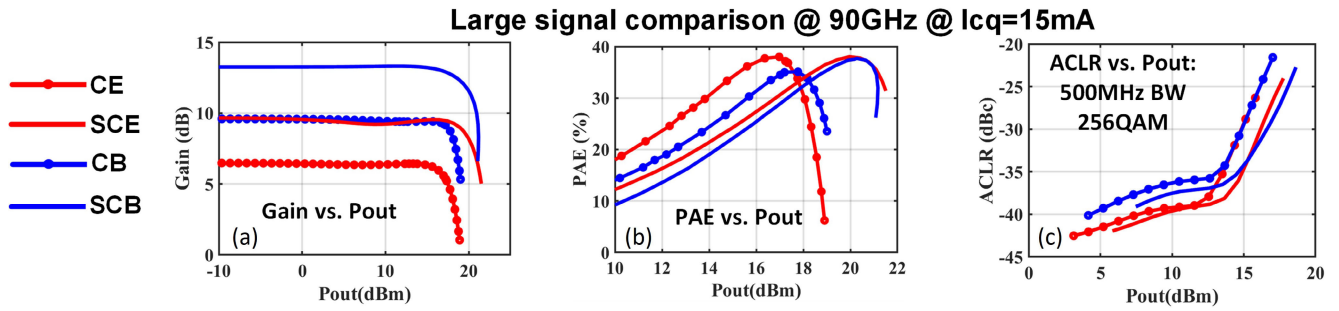


FIGURE 9. Large signal performance comparison between CE, CB, SCE and SCB at 90GHz.(a) Gain vs. power, (b) PAE, (c) Linearity (ACLR).

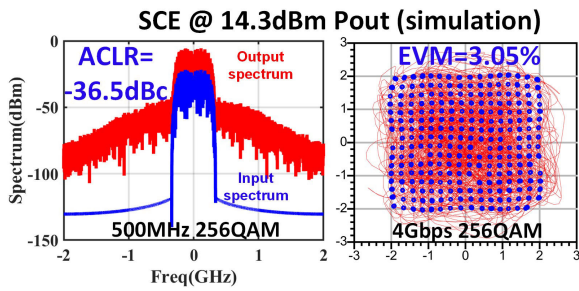


FIGURE 10. Simulated spectrum and 256 QAM constellation for SCE cell.

Topology /Performance	CE (4x12μm)	CB (4x12μm)	SCE (2x4x12μm)	SCB (2x4x12μm)
Bias point	2.2V, 15mA	2.2V, 15mA	4.3V, 15mA	4.3V, 15mA
Optimum Z <sub>load</sub> (Ω)	14.5+10j (R <sub>opt</sub> =22)	14.5+10j (R <sub>opt</sub> =22)	24+25j (R <sub>opt</sub> =50)	24+27j (R <sub>opt</sub> =54)
Gain (dB)	6.5	9.6	9.7	13.3
Psat (dBm)	18.9	18.9	21.5	21.1
P1dB (dBm)	17.2	18	19.3	19.2
Linear power (dBm) @ -35dBc ACLR w/500MHz BW 256 QAM	13.55	13.15	14.9	14.6
Peak CE (%)	54.8	41.1	46	42
Peak PAE (%)	38	36	38	37.8
Freq range for unconditional stability @ 15mA I <sub>bias</sub>	> 51 GHz	>275 GHz	>34GHz	>86GHz

FIGURE 12. Large signal performance at 90 GHz and stability summary between four topologies.

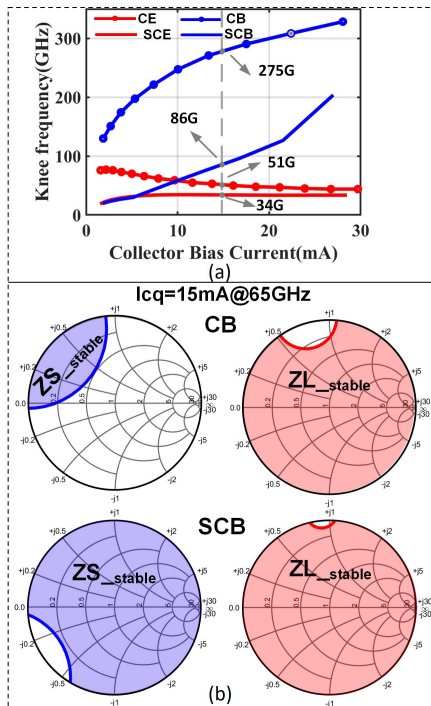


FIGURE 11. (a) Stability knee frequencies as a function of bias current. (b) Stability circles for CB and SCB at 65GHz.

on-chip bypass network is added very close to the base node (Fig. 1). The matching network loss and the voltage waveform are plotted in Fig. 13 indicating VCE of top device

is in-phase combined with VCB of bottom device, boosting the power of stacked CB stage over single CB stage, similar behavior as the traditional SCE device.

Fig.14 shows the measurement results of the test cells. Across 60-110 GHz, the SCB and SCE PA have a peak small signal peak S21 of 12.6 and 6.5 dB, respectively, demonstrating high gain capability for the SCB candidate. For CW measurement, at 98 GHz, the stacked CB/CE PA achieves 9.2 dB/5.3 dB gain, 31.6%/33% peak PAE, 16.3%/13.4% PAE at 6-dB back-off and P<sub>sat</sub> of 18.75 dBm/20 dBm. The back-off efficiency enhancement with high gain and flat AM-AM of SCB PA validates the advantage of power-dependent supply current modulation due to current clamping effect of CB PA. The SCB PA cell delivers broadband P<sub>sat</sub> of 17.9–19 dBm across 82–110 GHz and SCE delivers P<sub>sat</sub> of 19–20.1 dBm across 85–105 GHz, both exhibiting good bandwidth due to the proposed intra-matching and low impedance transformation ratio at the output. High-speed modulation test is performed as shown in Fig. 14 (c). At 90 GHz LO frequency, SCB design exhibits an EVM of 2.38% at average power of 11.8 dBm with average PAE of 15.9% supporting 3 Gbps 64-QAM signal while SCE design supports 2 Gbps 16-QAM signal with EVM of 3.88% at average power of 12.9 dBm and average PAE of 14%.

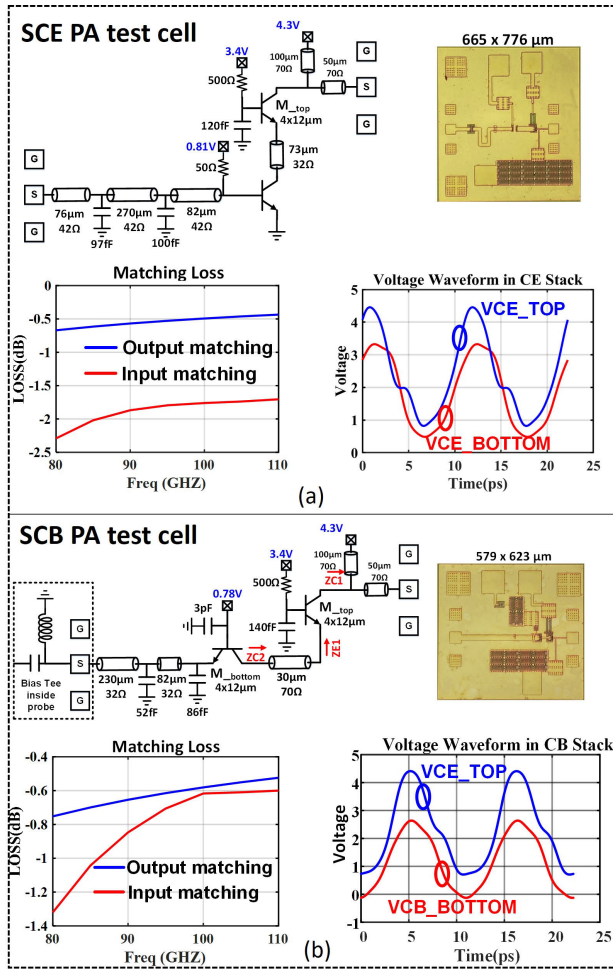


FIGURE 13. Test cell implementation (a) SCE cell. (b) SCB cell.

#### IV. BROADBAND ASYMMETRICAL POWER COMBINING BASED ON STACKED PA CELL

In this Section, we utilize the stacked PA cells and design broadband mmWave PAs with an asymmetrical power combining architecture.

##### A. PRINCIPLE OF BROADBAND ASYMMETRICAL POWER COMBINING

In [35] and [36], multi-port asymmetrical networks were proposed to overcome the strict bandwidth and efficiency trade-offs. The fundamental principle is captured in Fig. 15. In a symmetrical combiner, all the combining PA cells combine in phase with symmetry, resulting in the network collapsing to a two port network limited by the classical Bode-Fano limit. Higher power necessitates higher number of combining stages, requiring a larger impedance transformation ratio and higher losses [37], [38], [39], [40]. In comparison, consider the case where we break the symmetry with an array of PA cells operating with phase offsets that combining in a specially designed asymmetrical combiner, such that they

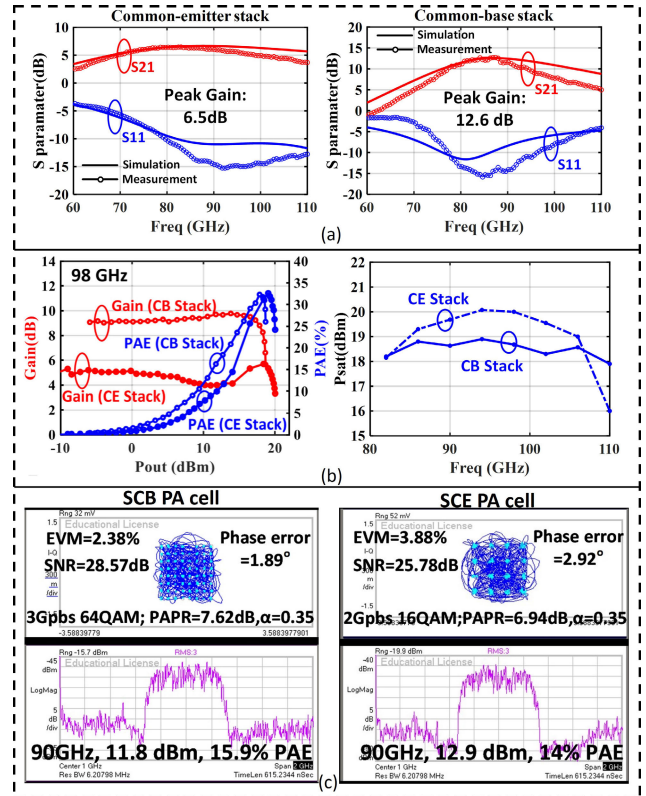


FIGURE 14. SCE and SCB test cell measurement comparison. (a) S-parameters. (b) CW performance and  $P_{sat}$  across frequency. (c) Modulation performance.

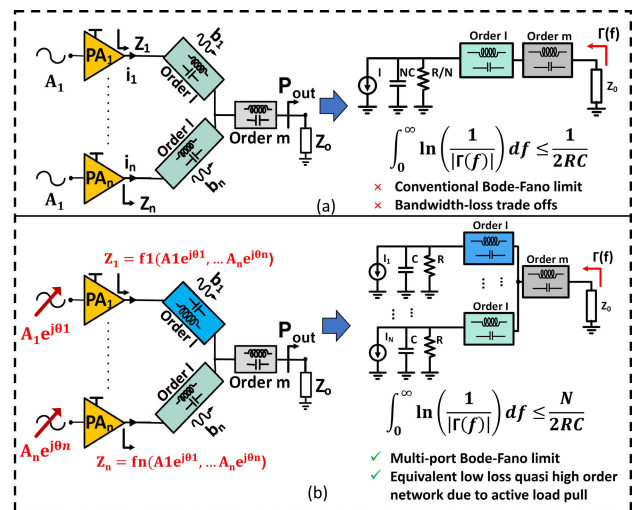
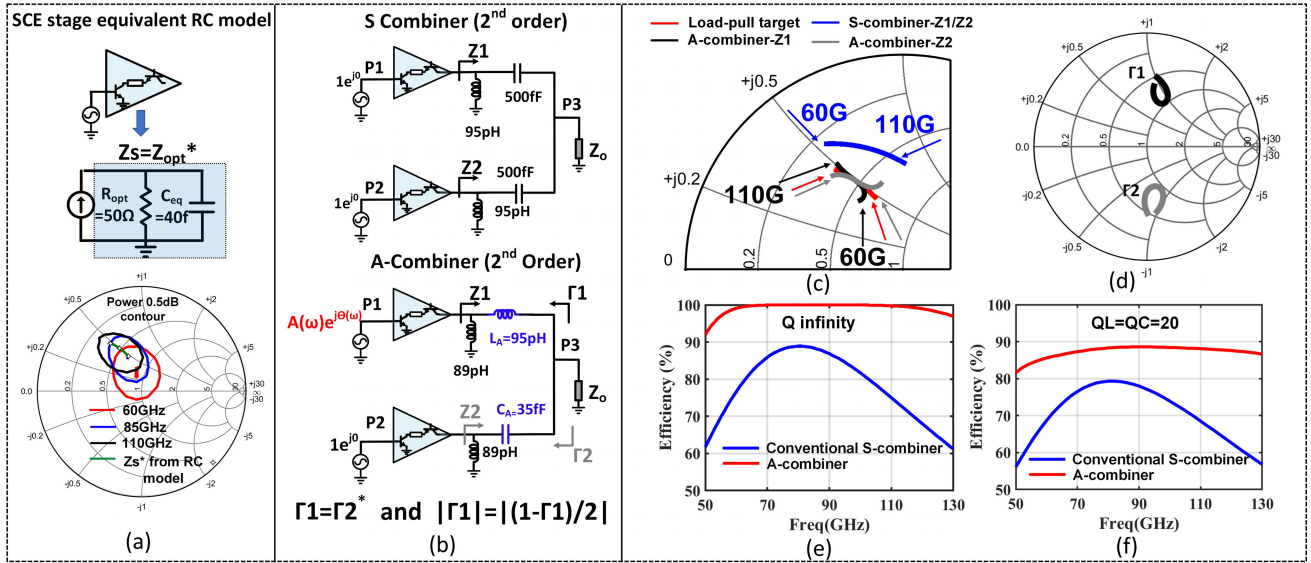


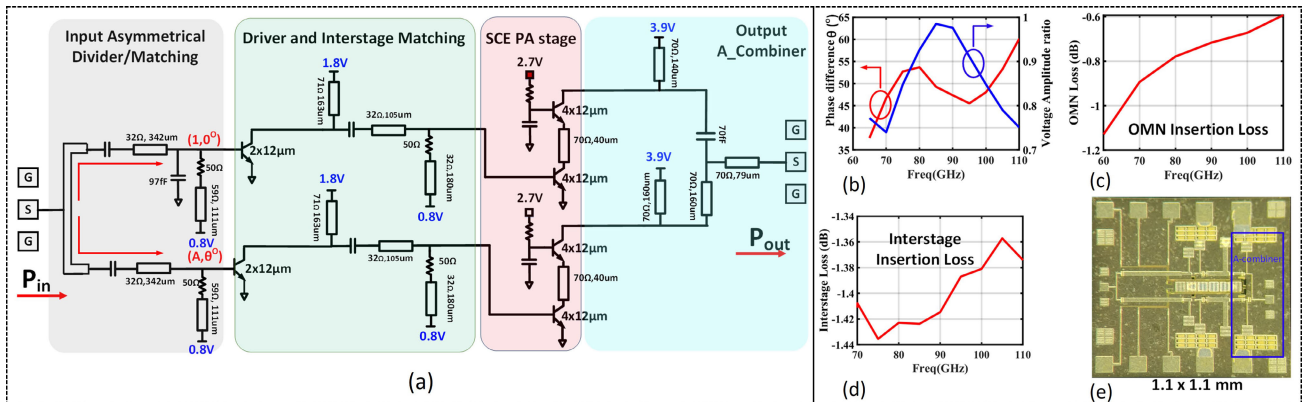
FIGURE 15. Symmetrical and asymmetrical networks for high efficiency and broadband combining. (a) Conventional in-phase power combining technique suffering from bandwidth and matching loss trade-off. (b) Asymmetrical power combining with excitations in each path for high efficiency matching across a wide bandwidth creating a quasi higher order network due to active loadpulling.

combine in phase only at the output load. In such a case, due to the asymmetrical nature of the topology with amplitude and phase offsets, the network does not collapse to





**FIGURE 16.** Comparison of symmetrical and asymmetrically combined broadband mmWave PAs in InP. (a) SCE stage modeling using RC network for network analysis. (b) S-combiner and A-combiner design. (c) Load impedance seen by the two PAs for S-combiner and A-combiner, exhibiting the broader bandwidth for A-combiner. (d) Simulation of  $\Gamma_1(\omega)$  and  $\Gamma_2(\omega)$ . (e) Power combining efficiency  $\eta$  for lossless component. (f) Power combining efficiency  $\eta$  with  $QC=QL=20$  for passive component.



**FIGURE 17.** PA with an asymmetrical 2port combiner and SCE cells. (a) 2-stage SCE PA cell based asymmetrical power combining PA schematic. (b) Input amplitude ratio and phase difference response versus frequency. (c) Output combiner insertion loss across 60-110 GHz. (d) Inter-stage insertion loss across 60-110 GHz. (e) Chip micrograph.

a two-port network. Instead, the bandwidth limitations of a N way A-combiner are related to the bound of a multi-port system and the bound is improved compared to the conventional two-port bound of S-combiner [41]. In reality, a N-port asymmetrical network behaves like a quasi-Nth order filter, allowing simultaneously high power and high bandwidth typologies [36]. The PAs synthesize their broadband optimal load-pull impedance across the frequency range through controlled mutual active load-pulling by the non-isolated asymmetrical combiner.

As an example, a two-way symmetrical combiner (S-combiner) and an asymmetrical combiner (A-combiner) for a two-way combined PA is designed at 85 GHz with the SCE PA cells, as shown in Fig. 16 (b). The port 1 and 2 of the

3 port combiner are driven by the proper designed stacked PA cell from Section III, where each stacked PA can be modeled as a RC network ( $R=50 \Omega$ ,  $C=40 \text{ fF}$ ) whose impedance  $Z_s$  is the conjugate of its load-pull impedance at center frequency (Fig. 16 (a)). As shown in the smith chart, this linear RC modeling of the PA cell tracks the real non-linear load-pull contours well across the 60-110 GHz frequency and therefore, can be used to perform linear network analysis. While there are many possible solutions to the asymmetrical combiner, in this example, we follow the conjugate nature of the combiner as presented in [36], where

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_1(\omega_0) &= \Gamma_2^*(\omega_0) \\ |\Gamma_1(\omega_0)| &= |(1 - \Gamma_1(\omega_0))/2| \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

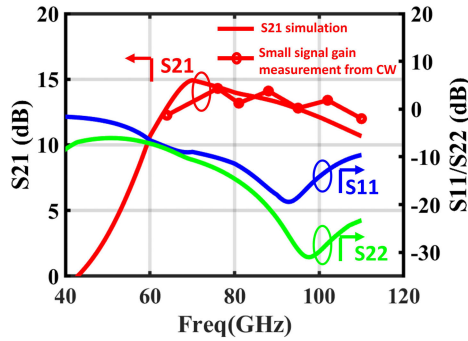


FIGURE 18. S-parameters performance.

where  $\Gamma_1$  and  $\Gamma_2$  are the reflection coefficient looking back to P1 and P2 path from the combining load (Fig. 16 (b)), and  $\omega_0$  is the center frequency. To start the asymmetrical combiner design with second order matching network on each path, we first choose the shunt inductance network value (89 pH) to resonate out the output capacitance at center frequency 85 GHz. Then following (11), a series inductor and capacitor are added to the two paths, such that L and C resonate at center frequency (95 pH and 35 fF) guaranteeing (11). When properly excited at the optimal phases (generated in the asymmetrical input network), the A-network achieves a much wider and higher efficiency operation due to their nature of actively synthesizing optimal impedance across frequency. The simulation results of this asymmetrical combiner under optimum excitation are shown in Fig.16 (c)-(f). For lossless matching component, the load impedance  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  seen by the two stacked PAs are very close to each other (exactly equal at center frequency and slightly separate apart at band edge) and also align with the desired load-pull contours across 60-100 GHz, indicating a wideband matching, compared to a narrow band and inaccurately matched contour from S-combiner (Fig. 16 (c)). Plot of  $\Gamma_1$  and  $\Gamma_2$  in smith chart (Fig. 16 (d)) shows a conjugate location at center frequency and holds roughly true across 60-100 GHz, as expected from equation (11). As can be seen in Fig.16(e)-(f), the A-combiner achieves much wider bandwidth at higher efficiency for both lossless and lossy passive components due to their ability to synthesize quasi-higher order networks (as a result of the lack of symmetry) that allows it to synthesize optimal impedances across frequency through mutual loadpulling through the combiner network. Fig.16(g) shows the desired phase ( $\theta(\omega)$ ) and amplitude ( $A(\omega)$ ) response for the A-combiner.

**B. DESIGN OF BROADBAND ASYMMETRICAL POWER COMBINING PA IN InP**

Following the design principles laid out, we design a broadband two stage asymmetrical power combining PA using SCE PA cell as the output stage in 250 nm InP HBT technology. The lumped inductor components are implemented using

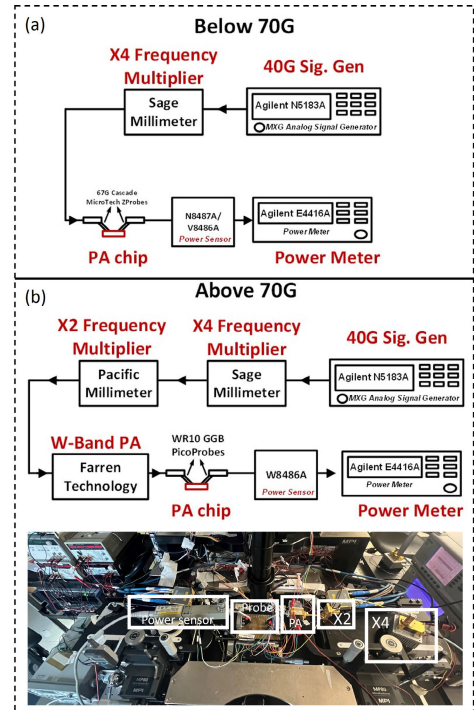


FIGURE 19. Setup for the CW large signal measurement (a) Below 70 GHz. (b) Above 70 GHz.

high impedance transmission lines. The complete schematic is shown in Fig. 17 (a). The driver is CE topology sized  $2 \times 12 \mu\text{m}$  in upper and lower branches. Inter-stage matching is achieved using transmission lines and capacitors optimized for broadband operation. The input power dividing network needs to ensure broadband input matching while synthesizing the desired driving phases difference across frequency as shown in Fig. 17 (b). The output A-combiner achieves an insertion loss of 0.6-1.1 dB across 60-110 GHz (Fig. 17 (c)). The insertion loss of the transmission line based inter-stage matching is better than 1.5 dB over 64-110 GHz. The simulated S-parameters are shown in Fig. 18, where both input and output matching is broadband with reflection coefficient below  $-10$  dB across the 60-110 GHz.

**C. MEASUREMENT RESULTS**

The PA micrograph is shown in Fig.17 (e) which occupies  $1.1\text{mm} \times 1.1\text{mm}$  chip area. The main stage PA cells operate from 3.9 V supply, while the driver cells operate from 1.8 V supply. The measured small signal gain across frequency is plotted in Fig. 18 showing broadband output matching. The PA is characterized for large signal measurement across 60–110 GHz using the measurement setup shown in Fig. 19. For CW measurements, the input chain includes signal generator and frequency quadrupler. For frequency above 70 GHz, a frequency doubler and a W band commercial PA are also added to drive the DUT.

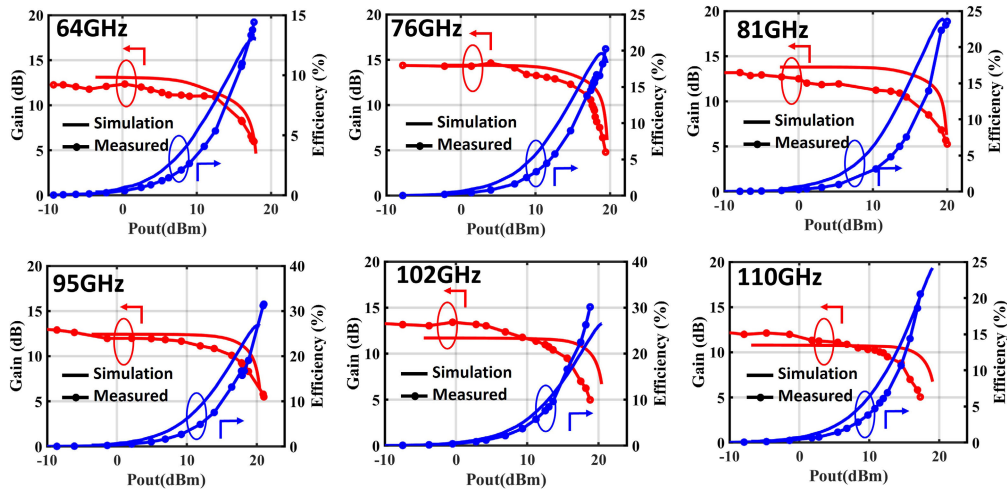


FIGURE 20. CW large-signal measurement across 64-110 GHz.

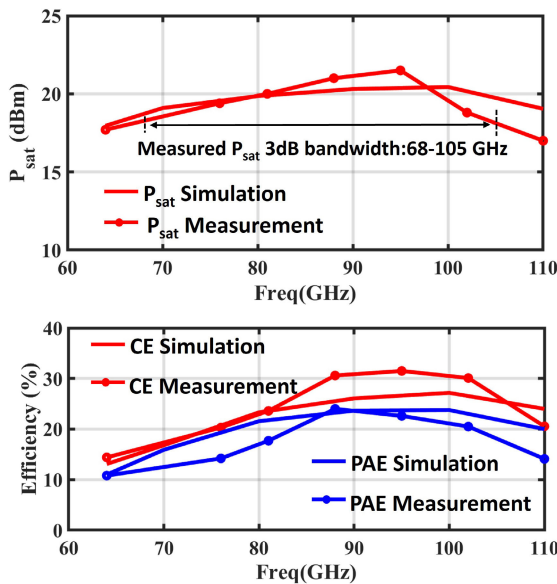


FIGURE 21. Measurement and simulated large signal performance across frequency. (a) Saturation power. (b) Total collector efficiency and PAE.

The measured gain and total collector efficiency (Accounting both PA stage and driver stage) are plotted against output power across 64–110 GHz, as shown in Fig. 20. At 95 GHz, the PA delivers an output power of 21.4 dBm with peak total collector efficiency of 32%, and 13 dB small signal gain. The PA achieves 18.5–21.5 dBm  $P_{sat}$  over 64–108 GHz (3dB  $P_{sat}$  bandwidth of 43%). Across the above bandwidth, the PA demonstrates a total collector efficiency between 16–32% with a peak efficiency achieved at 95 GHz and a PAE between 11–24% with peak at 88 GHz. Fig. 21 summarizes the measurement CW performance across frequency, overlap with simulation results. Fig. 22 presents the comparison with

Ref	Technology	PA Topology	Freq (GHz)	Fractional BW (%)	Psat (dBm)	Peak PAE (%)	Peak S21 (dB)
Huang IMS 21'	250nm InP	Coupler differential	35-100	96.3	18.9-22.6	14.7-29.3	16.5@ 60GHz
Griffith MWCL 20'	250nm InP	T-line combining	88-104	16.7	20-20.8	14-24.7	28@ 88GHz
Liu MWCL 21'	250nm InP	Stack single ended	85-110	21.1	19-20.1	15-34	6.5 @ 82GHz
Griffith IMS 19'	250nm InP	T-line combining	55-135	84.2	19.6-21.4	6.2-8.8	27.3@ 90GHz
Nguyen TMTT 20'	InP HBT	Distributed amplifier	DC-90	NA	18-22	20@ 20GHz	10.5@ 15GHz
Griffith IMS 16'	250nm InP	Single ended CE	96-120	22.2	19.3-20.2	19-22	18@ 110GHz
Maurer CSICS 16'	130nm InP	Series combining	50-100	66	17-22	7-14.7	15.5@ 60GHz
Griffith CSICS 14'	250nm InP	Wilkinson combining	76-94	21.2	22.3-23.7	21-29	15 @ 70GHz
This work	250nm InP	SCB PA cell	82-110	29.2	17.9-19	20-33	12.6@ 87GHz
This work	250nm InP	SCE PA cell	82-105	24.6	18-20	16-35	6.5@ 82GHz
This work	250nm InP	Asymmetry combining	68-105	43	18.5-21.5	13-24	14 @ 76GHz

FIGURE 22. Comparison with state of the art broadband mmWave PA in InP.

state of the art broadband mmWave PA in InP covering W band.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a comparative approach toward high efficiency mmWave PAs using stacked common emitter and stacked common base PAs. We present an analytical approach to guaranteeing optimal stack operation at high mmWave frequencies with SCB cells taking into consideration intra-stack matching and optimal loadpull operation of the bottom transistor and the top transistor. The analytical approach is valid for SCE cells as well. We present a systematic comparison between conventional single device PA cells and optimally designed stacked PA cells: SCE and proposed SCB PA cell, showing that SCB cell allows high gain, sharp gain compression but needs careful analysis

of stability. At 90 GHz, the designed stacked CB/CE PA achieves 11.8 dB/6dB gain, 33%/34% peak PAE, 16.8%/14.5% PAE at 6-dB back-off, and  $P_{\text{sat}}$  of 18.7 dBm/19.6 dBm. The SCB PA achieves an EVM of 2.38% at 11.8-dBm average power supporting 3 Gbps 64-QAM. The SCB PA with 17.9-19 dBm  $P_{\text{sat}}$  across 82-110 GHz demonstrates one of the highest efficiency, broadband and linear PAs in W-band using InP technology. We utilize an asymmetrical power combining circuit topology for high combining efficiency across large relatively bandwidth. A 68-105 GHz asymmetrical power combined PA using SCE cell in 250nm InP technology is demonstrated showing 21.5 dBm peak saturation power and 24% peak PAE.

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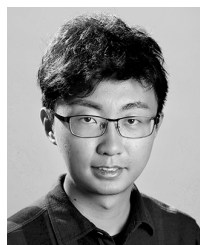


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