

Lecture – 15

Date: 17.10.2016

- General Frequency Response
- High Frequency MOSFET Model and Transit Frequency
- Determination of 3-dB Frequency
- CS Stage - Analysis using Miller's Approximation, OCTC Method, Exact Technique
- CD and CG Stages

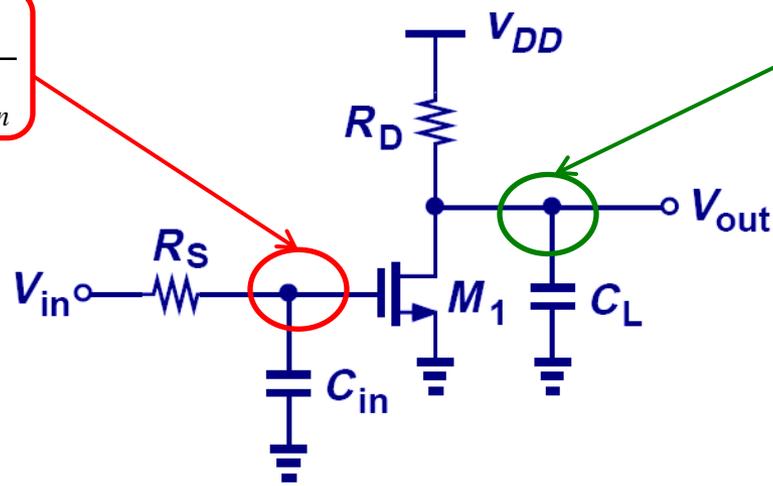
Frequency Response

Association of poles with nodes: poles of a circuit transfer function is key in the frequency response → it aids in determining the speed of various parts of the circuit

$$|\omega_{p1}| = |\omega_{in}| = \frac{1}{R_S C_{in}}$$

$$|\omega_{p2}| = |\omega_{out}| = \frac{1}{R_D C_L}$$

Low Frequency
Small Signal Gain

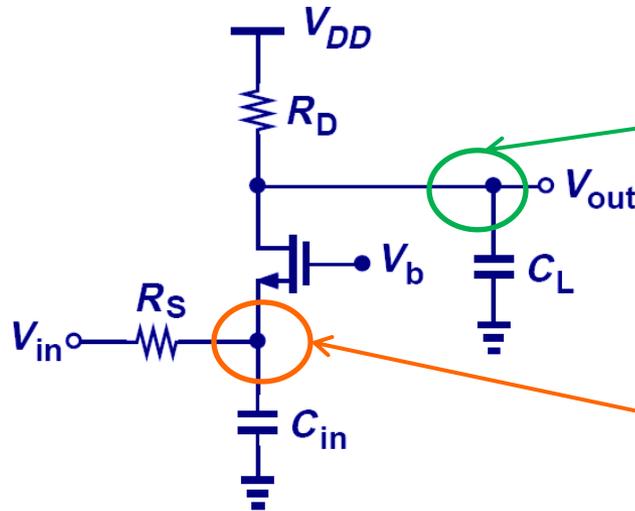


$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}}(j\omega) \right| = A_v \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_{p1}^2}\right)}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_{p2}^2}\right)}}$$

$$\therefore \left| \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} \right| = \frac{g_{m1} R_D}{\sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_{p1}^2}\right)} \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_{p2}^2}\right)}}$$

Frequency Response (contd.)

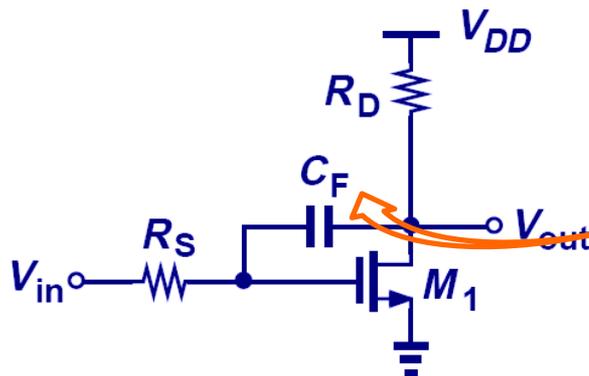
Example:



$$|\omega_{p2}| = |\omega_{out}| = \frac{1}{R_D C_L}$$

$$|\omega_{p1}| = |\omega_{in}| = \frac{1}{(R_S \parallel 1/g_{m1}) C_{in}}$$

Example: circuit with floating capacitor

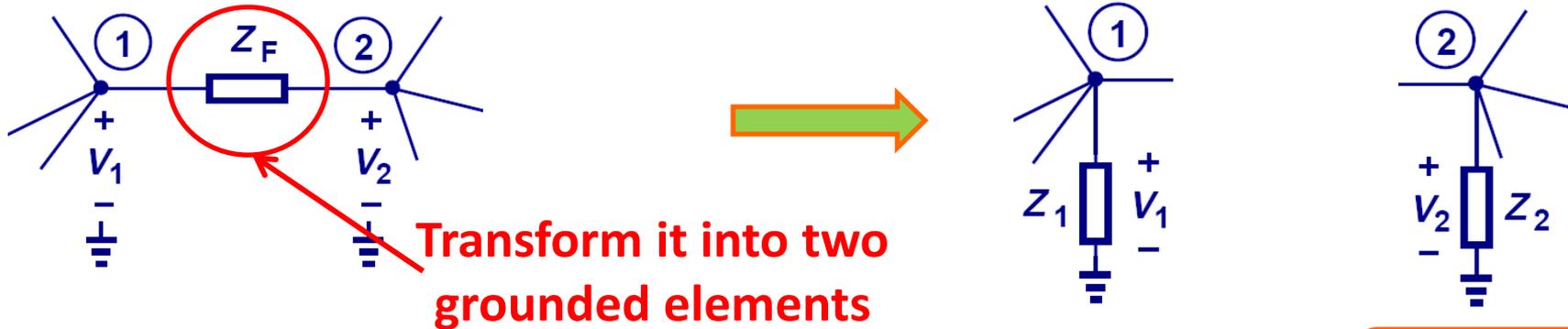


Now the capacitor C_F isn't connected between just one node and ground.
What do we do?

Miller's Theorem Provides the Solution

Miller's Theorem

- It converts floating impedance element into two grounded elements



- The current drawn by Z_F from node 1 must be equal to that drawn by Z_1

$$\frac{V_1 - V_2}{Z_F} = \frac{V_1}{Z_1}$$

- Current injected to node 2 must be equal to that injected to node 2 in both situations:

$$\frac{V_1 - V_2}{Z_F} = -\frac{V_2}{Z_2}$$

$$Z_1 = Z_F \frac{V_1}{V_1 - V_2} = \frac{Z_F}{1 - A_v}$$

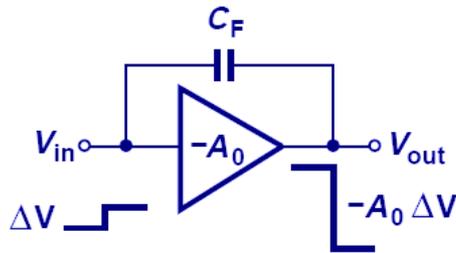
$$Z_2 = Z_F \frac{V_1}{V_1 - V_2} = \frac{Z_F}{1 - \frac{1}{A_v}}$$

$A_v = \text{low}$
frequency small-
signal gain

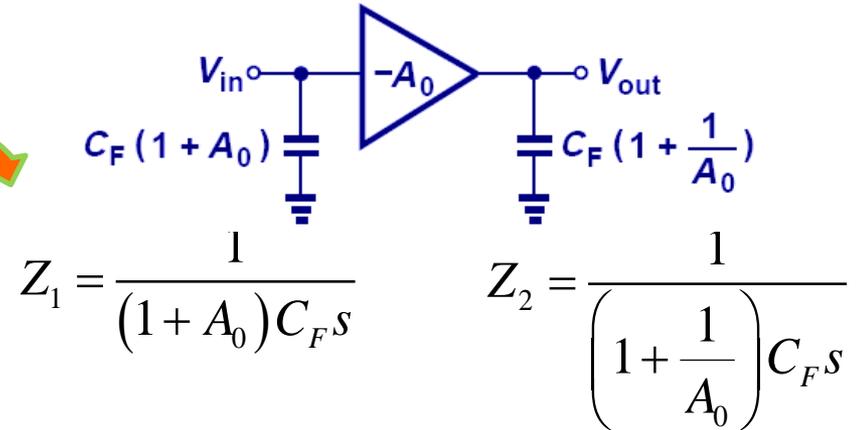
If A_v is the gain from node 1 to 2, then a floating impedance Z_F can be converted to two grounded impedances Z_1 and Z_2 .

Miller's Theorem (contd.)

- If Z_F is capacitive and amplifier is inverting then:

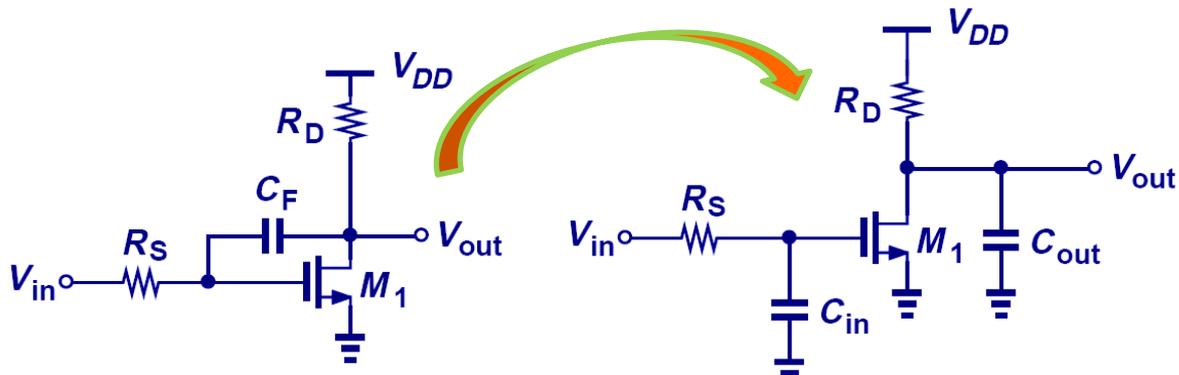


Miller's Theorem



With Miller's theorem, we can separate the floating capacitor. However, the input capacitor is larger than the original floating capacitor. We call this Miller multiplication.

Example: determine poles of the following circuit



$$C_{in} = (1 + A_0) C_F = (1 + g_m R_D) C_F$$

$$C_{out} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{A_0}\right) C_F = \left(1 + \frac{1}{g_m R_D}\right) C_F$$

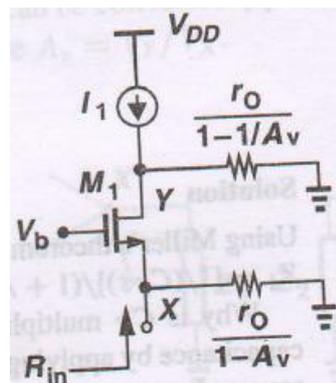
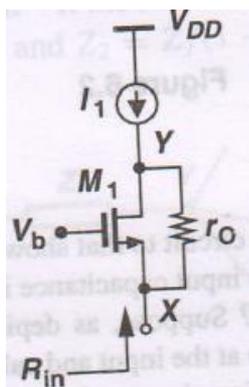
Miller's Theorem (contd.)

$$\therefore \omega_{in} = \frac{1}{R_S C_{in}} = \frac{1}{R_S (1 + g_m R_D) C_F}$$

$$\therefore \omega_{out} = \frac{1}{R_D C_{out}} = \frac{1}{R_D \left(1 + \frac{1}{g_m R_D} \right) C_F}$$

Miller's Theorem requires that the floating impedance and voltage gain be computed at the same frequency. **However, apparently we always use low-frequency gain even at high frequencies. It is done for simplifying the analysis, otherwise the use of Miller Theorem will be no simpler. Therefore it is often called Miller's Approximation**

Q: Calculate the input resistance of the following:



$$R_{in} = \frac{r_o}{1 - [1 + (g_m + g_{mb})r_o]} \parallel \frac{1}{g_m + g_{mb}}$$

Here,

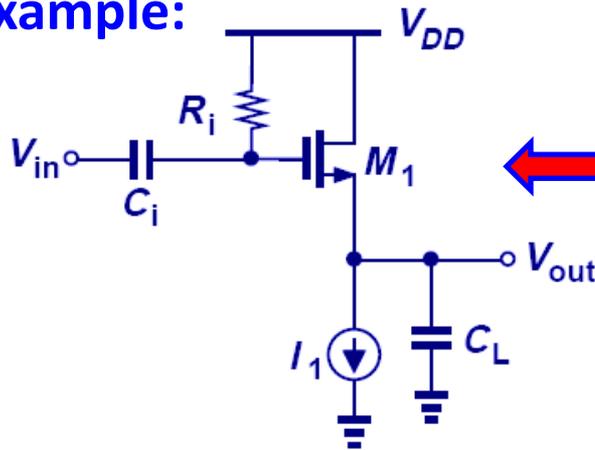
$$A_v = 1 + (g_m + g_{mb})r_o$$

$$R_{in} = \frac{r_o}{1 - A_v} \parallel \frac{1}{g_m + g_{mb}}$$

$$\therefore R_{in} \approx \infty$$

General Frequency Response

Example:



In high quality audio amplifier: R_i establishes a gate bias voltage equal to V_{DD} for M_1 , and I_1 defines the drain bias current. Assume $\lambda=0$, $g_m=1/(200\Omega)$, and $R_i=100k\Omega$. Determine the minimum required value of C_i and the maximum tolerable value of C_L

- The input network consisting of R_i and C_i attenuates the signal at low frequencies. The roll-off frequency for audio signal is given as:

$$2\pi * (20Hz) = \frac{1}{R_i C_i} = \frac{1}{100 * 10^3 * C_i}$$

$$\therefore C_i = 79.6nF \text{ Min. Value}$$

- The load capacitance creates a pole at the output node, lowering the gain at the high frequencies. Let us suppose pole frequency at 20kHz (upper end of audio):

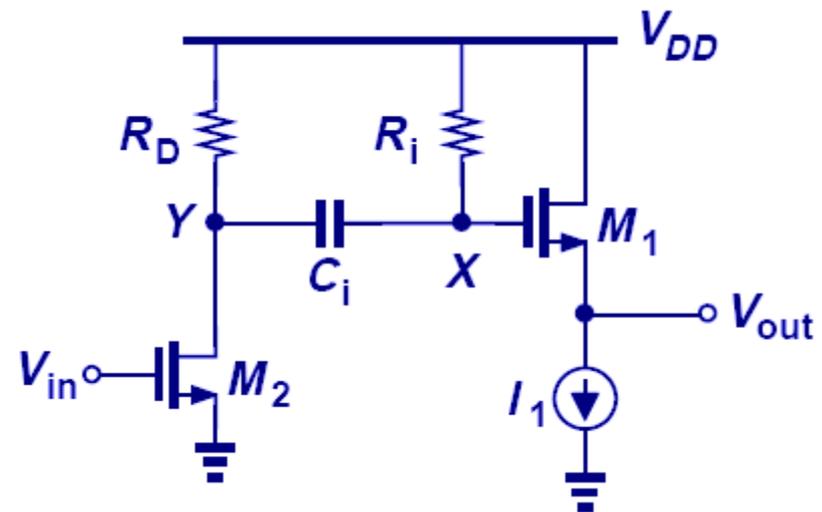
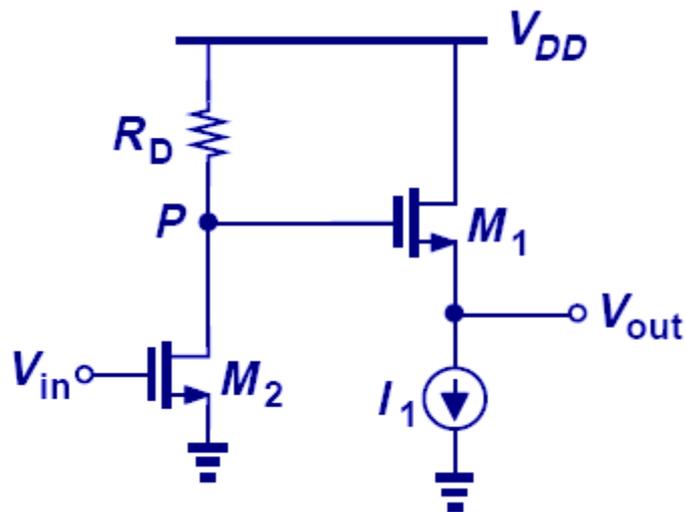
$$\omega_{p,out} = \frac{g_m}{C_L} = 2\pi * 20 * 10^3$$

$$\therefore C_L = 39.8nF \text{ Max. Value}$$

General Frequency Response (contd.)

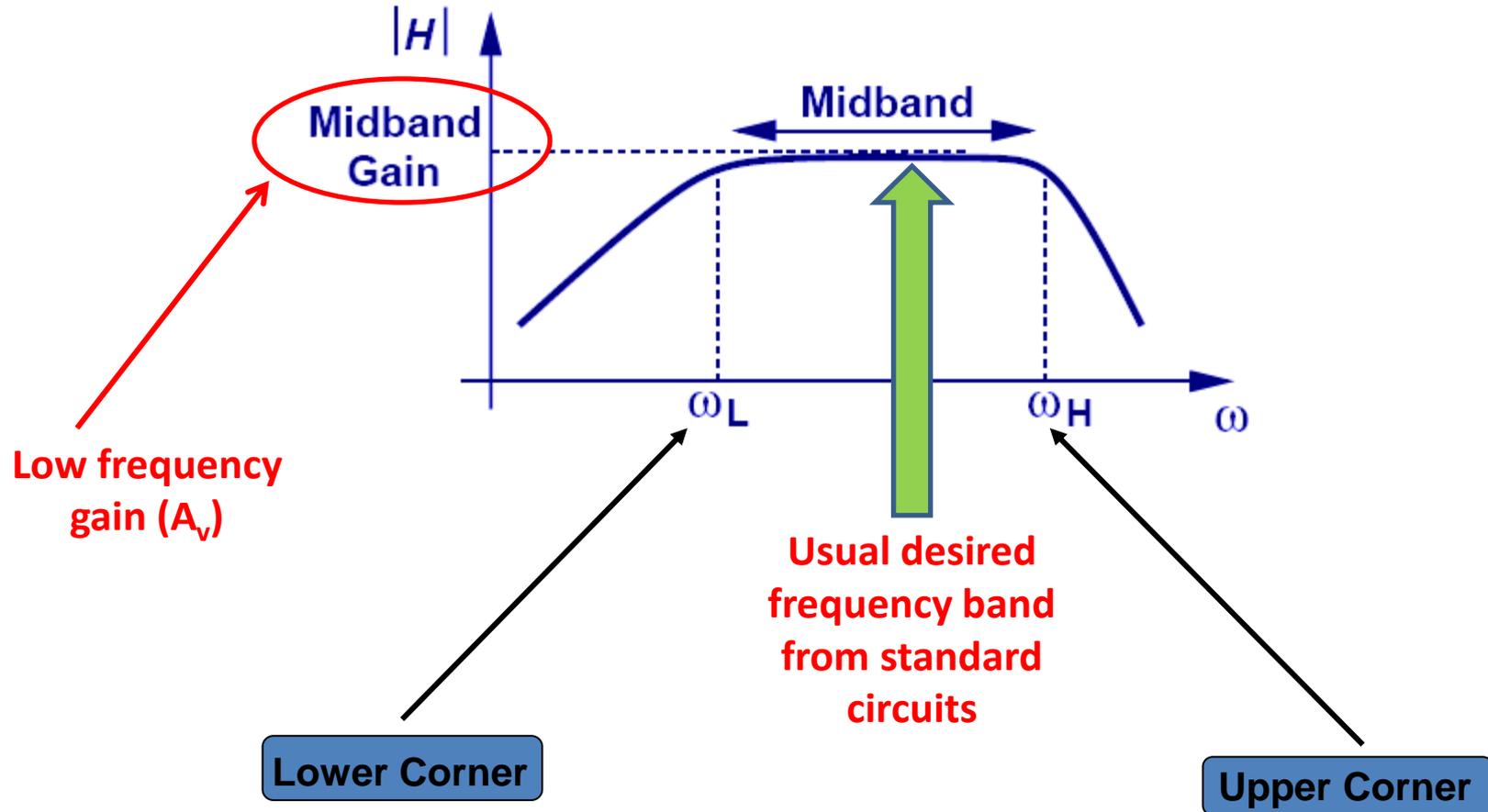
Why do we need capacitor C_i at the input in the previous example?

The absence of C_i could be blessing as it will not affect the performance at low frequencies \rightarrow we would be saved from computing C_i as well

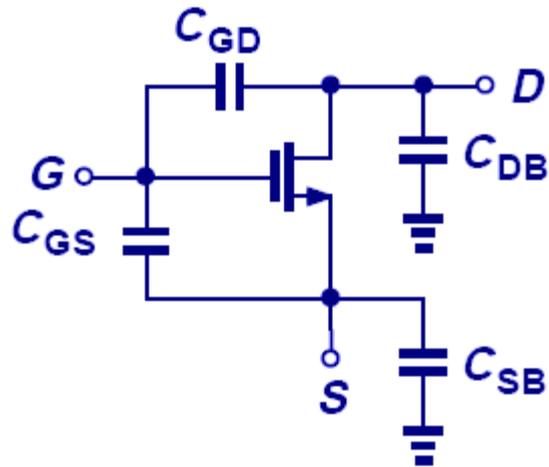


- Capacitive coupling, also known as AC coupling, passes AC signals from Y to X while blocking DC contents.
- This technique allows independent bias conditions between stages. Direct coupling does not.

General Frequency Response (contd.)



High Frequency MOSFET Model



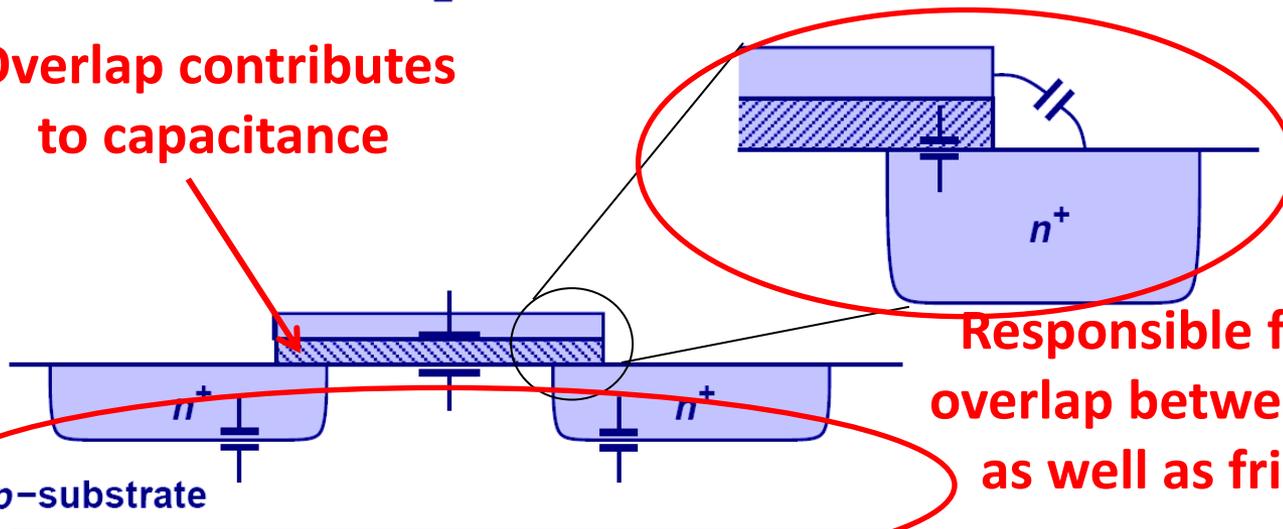
C_{GD} : gate-drain capacitance

C_{GS} : gate-source capacitance

C_{SB} : source-bulk capacitance

C_{DB} : drain-bulk capacitance

Overlap contributes
to capacitance

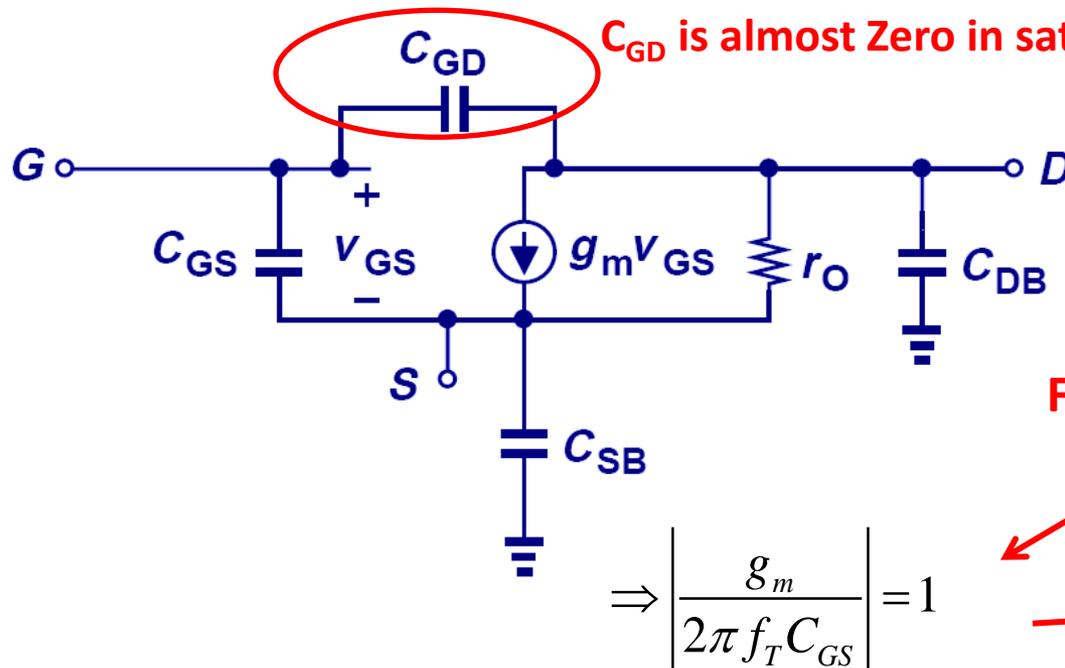


Responsible for C_{GD} and C_{GS} :
overlap between gate and S/D
as well as fringe field lines

Junction capacitance contributes to C_{SB} and C_{DB}

Cut-off Frequency or Transit Frequency

- So many capacitances in the MOSFET reduces the performance of amplifiers → cut-off or transit frequency, f_T , regulates the speed of MOSFET
- It is the frequency at which the small-signal current gain falls to unity



Input Current = $j\omega C_{GS} V_{GS}$

Output Current = $g_m V_{GS}$

For f_T : $\left| \frac{g_m V_{GS}}{\omega_T C_{GS} V_{GS}} \right| = 1$

$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{g_m}{2\pi f_T C_{GS}} \right| = 1 \quad \therefore f_T = \left| \frac{g_m}{2\pi C_{GS}} \right|$

The source-bulk and drain-bulk capacitance doesn't affect the speed of transistor

Determination of 3-dB frequency (f_H)

- As a designer it is important to understand the implications of various capacitive effects (present in the circuit) on the overall performance of the circuit
- In order to understand such implications there are three different techniques to determine f_H (a key parameter in high frequency performance estimation)
- **Miller's Approximation Technique:** It is useful for certain cases when the input resistance is relatively large and output capacitance (C_L) is relatively small \rightarrow in such a case the high-frequency response is dominated by the pole formed at the input node
- **OCTC Method:** Its useful for circuits when its not easy to determine the poles and zeros by hand analysis \rightarrow is an approximate method
- **Exact Analysis:** Involves full analysis of the circuit to find the transfer function

Determination of 3-dB frequency (f_H) – contd.

Physical Significance of Poles and Zeros in a Transfer Function:

- Think of Poles and Zeros as INFINITY's and ZEROs.
- At Zeros: the system produces ZERO output
- At Poles: the system produces INFINITE output
- Obviously, you cannot produce infinite voltage with any electronics

→ So, it means that, the output will be unbounded (in theory) and saturated at the highest possible value (in practice)

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Now, let's talk about a specific case: The TRANSFER FUNCTION can be the IMPEDANCE of a filter, it will be zero (short circuit) at zeros, and INFINITY (open circuit) at poles

Miller Approximation Technique

- High Frequency Gain function of an amplifier can be given as:

$$A(s) = A_M F_H(s)$$

Mid-band gain \rightarrow small-signal gain

Transfer function of amp

- $F_H(s)$ can be represented in terms of poles and zeros as:

$$F_H(s) = \frac{(1 + s / \omega_{z1})(1 + s / \omega_{z2}) \dots (1 + s / \omega_{zn})}{(1 + s / \omega_{p1})(1 + s / \omega_{p2}) \dots (1 + s / \omega_{pn})}$$

- If a dominant pole (ω_{p1}) exists then:

$$F_H(s) \cong \frac{1}{(1 + s / \omega_{p1})}$$



Assuming that zeros are usually
either at infinity or possess very
high value

Miller Approximation Technique (contd.)

- Thus presence of a dominant pole provides 3-dB roll-off frequency as: $\omega_H \cong \omega_{p1}$
- Condition for the existence of dominant pole:** the lowest-frequency pole is at least two octave away from the nearest pole or zero.

- If a dominant pole doesn't exist then: $F_H(s) = \frac{(1 + s / \omega_{z1})(1 + s / \omega_{z2})}{(1 + s / \omega_{p1})(1 + s / \omega_{p2})}$ **For 2-pole and 2-zero network**

$$\Rightarrow F_H(j\omega) = \frac{(1 + j\omega / \omega_{z1})(1 + j\omega / \omega_{z2})}{(1 + j\omega / \omega_{p1})(1 + j\omega / \omega_{p2})} \quad \Rightarrow |F_H(j\omega)|^2 = \frac{(1 + \omega^2 / \omega_{z1}^2)(1 + \omega^2 / \omega_{z2}^2)}{(1 + \omega^2 / \omega_{p1}^2)(1 + \omega^2 / \omega_{p2}^2)}$$

- For $\omega = \omega_H \rightarrow |F_H|^2 = 1/2$ and therefore: $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{(1 + \omega_H^2 / \omega_{z1}^2)(1 + \omega_H^2 / \omega_{z2}^2)}{(1 + \omega_H^2 / \omega_{p1}^2)(1 + \omega_H^2 / \omega_{p2}^2)}$

- ω_H is smaller than all other poles and zeros and as a consequence terms with ω_H^4 could be neglected. Therefore simplification gives:

$$\omega_H \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\omega_{p1}^2} + \frac{1}{\omega_{p2}^2}\right) - 2\left(\frac{1}{\omega_{z1}^2} + \frac{1}{\omega_{z2}^2}\right)}}$$

Open Circuit Time Constant (OCTC) Method

- Its not always straightforward to apply Miller technique and determine the poles and zeros
- In such cases OCTC method prove handy
- Alternate form of $F_H(s)$ for n-zero and n-pole network is:

$$F_H(s) = \frac{1 + a_1s + a_2s^2 + \dots + a_ns_n}{1 + b_1s + b_2s^2 + \dots + b_ns_n}$$

Where, **a** and **b** are related to zeros and poles respectively. For example, **b₁** is given by:

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\omega_{p1}} + \frac{1}{\omega_{p2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\omega_{pn}}$$

Ref: Paul E. Gray and Campbell L. Searle, Electronic Principles: Physics, Models, and Circuits (1969), John Wiley & Sons Inc., New York

- **b₁** can be determined by considering various capacitances in the network one at a time while reducing all other capacitors to zero i.e, replacing them with open circuits
- Determine **C_iR_i** for each capacitors and then compute:

$$b_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i R_i$$

Open Circuit Time Constant (OCTC) Method (contd.)

- If one of the poles is dominant (say P1) then:

$$b_1 \cong \frac{1}{\omega_{p1}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \omega_H \cong \frac{1}{b_1} = \frac{1}{\sum_i C_i R_i}$$

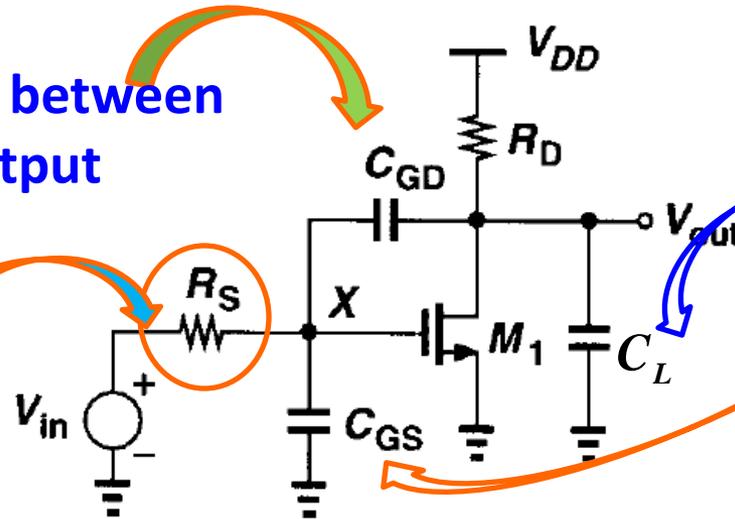
Advantage of OCTC method:

- It tells the circuit designer which of the various capacitances is significant in determining the network (amplifier) frequency response
- The relative contribution of the various capacitances to the effective time constant b_1 is immediately obvious
- For example, if in any amplifier the contribution of $C_{GD}R_{GD}$ in the overall time constant is maximum \rightarrow then C_{GD} is dominant capacitor in determining $f_H \rightarrow$ to increase f_H , either use MOSFET with smaller C_{GD} or for a given MOSFET reduce R_{GD} by either reducing the load impedance or by employing smaller source impedance \rightarrow furthermore, if source impedance is also fixed then the only way to increase f_H (and hence the bandwidth) is by reducing the load impedance
- Reduction in load impedance \rightarrow leads to reduction in A_M

Common Source Amplifier

Floating Capacitor between
Input and Output

Driven by finite
source
resistance



Grounded Capacitor

A_v	I (μA)	L (μm)	W (μm)	g_m (μS)	C_{DB} (fF)	C_{GD} (fF)	C_{GS} (fF)
10	10	2	5.78	3.613	5.19	1.84	98.16
15	10	2	32.5	5.33	27.5	10.4	517.8
20	10	2	668.2	6.66	319.6	239.8	6,041.1

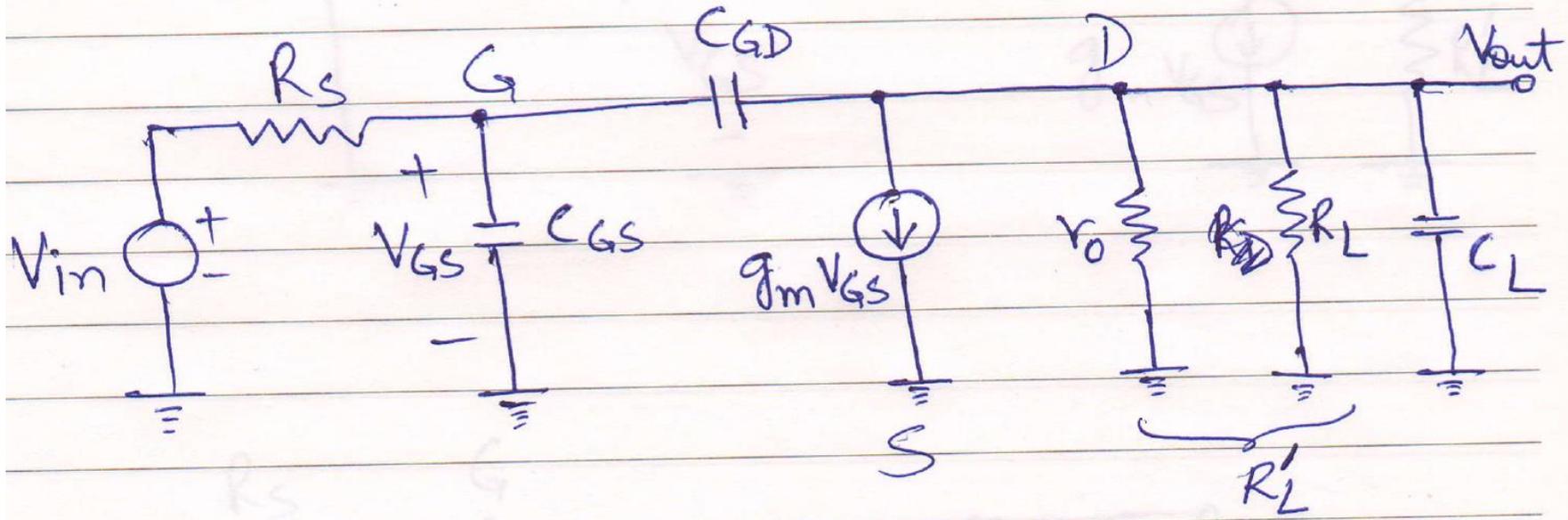
Increasing
Gain

Constant
Current

Increasing $C_{GS} \leftrightarrow$ Reduced
Speed

Difficult to achieve high gain and high speed at the same time!

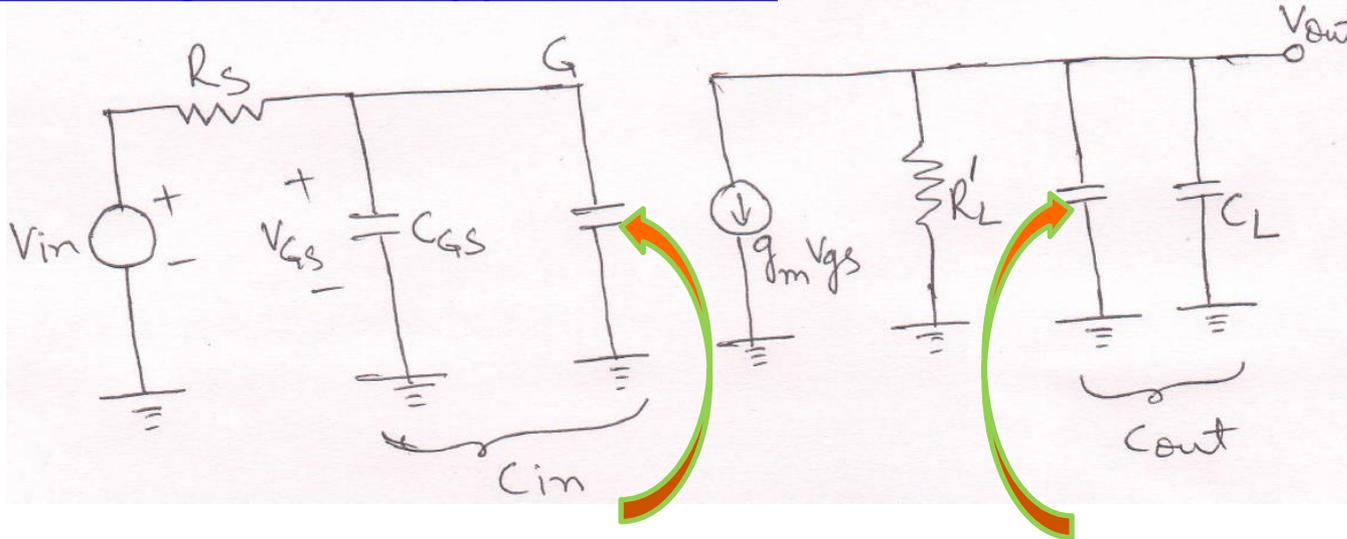
Common Source Amplifier (contd.)



- R_s : also includes the resistance due to the biasing network
- R_L : includes $R_D \rightarrow$ usually R_L is of the order of r_o
- C_L : represents the total capacitance between the drain and the ground \rightarrow includes C_{DB} and input capacitance of succeeding amplifier stage $\rightarrow C_L$ in an IC is substantial

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Analysis using Miller's Approximation



$$C_A = (1 - A_v)C_{GD} = (1 + g_m R_L')C_{GD} \quad C_B = (1 - A_v^{-1})C_{GD} \approx C_{GD}$$

Therefore the poles are:

$$\omega_{in} = \frac{1}{R_S C_{in}} = \frac{1}{R_S (C_{GS} + C_A)} = \frac{1}{R_S (C_{GS} + (1 + g_m R_L')C_{GD})}$$

$$\omega_{out} = \frac{1}{R_L' C_{out}} = \frac{1}{R_L' (C_L + C_B)} = \frac{1}{R_L' (C_L + C_{GD})}$$

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Then the transfer function is given by:

$$H(s) = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}}(s) = \frac{-g_m R_D}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{in}}\right) \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{out}}\right)}$$

When R_S is large
and C_L is small



ω_{in} dominates, and the transfer function becomes:

$$H(s) = \frac{-g_m R_D}{\left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{in}}\right)}$$



$$H(s) = \frac{A_M}{1 + \frac{s}{\omega_H}}$$

Dominant Pole

3-dB Frequency:

$$f_H = \frac{1}{2\pi C_{in} R_S}$$

Where,

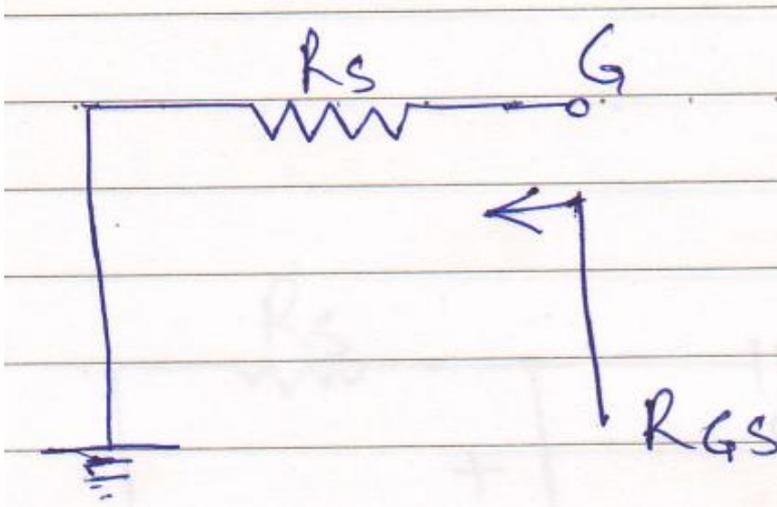
$$C_{in} = C_{GS} + C_{GD}(1 + g_m R'_L)$$

The main error in this expression is that the presence of zero has not been considered

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Analysis using OCTC Method

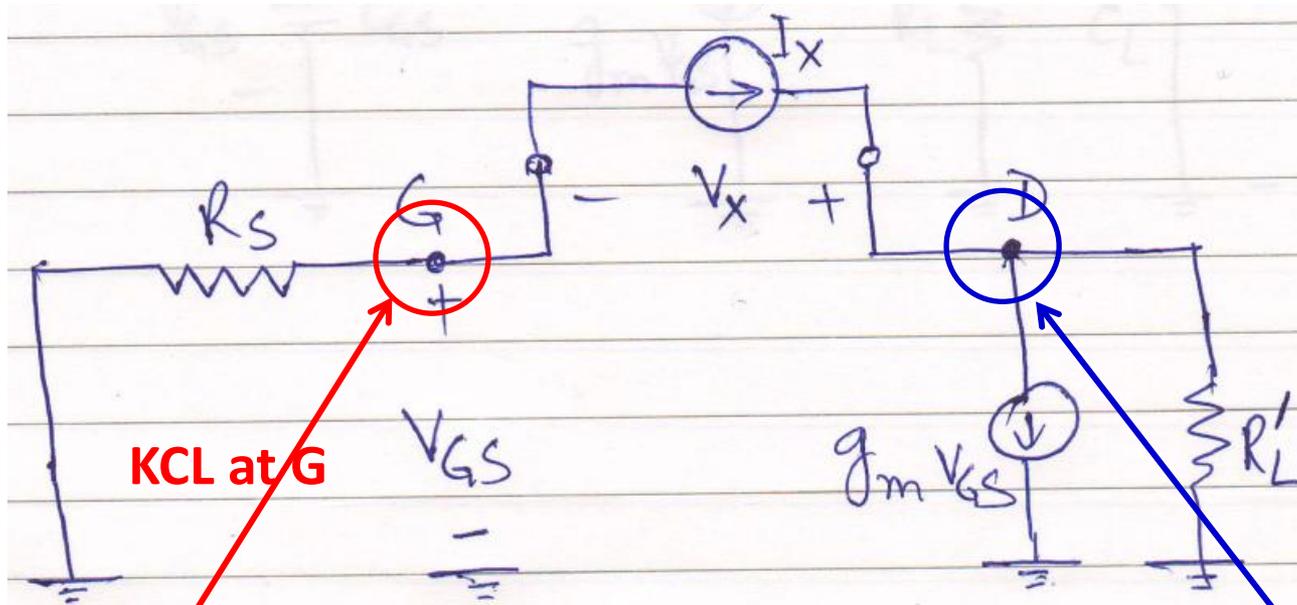
- Considering only C_{GS} → open other capacitances and short the voltage sources and open the current sources
- For R_{GS} we get:



$$R_{GS} = R_S$$

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

- Considering only $C_{GD} \rightarrow$ open C_{GS} and C_L



Then, $R_{GD} = \frac{V_X}{I_X}$

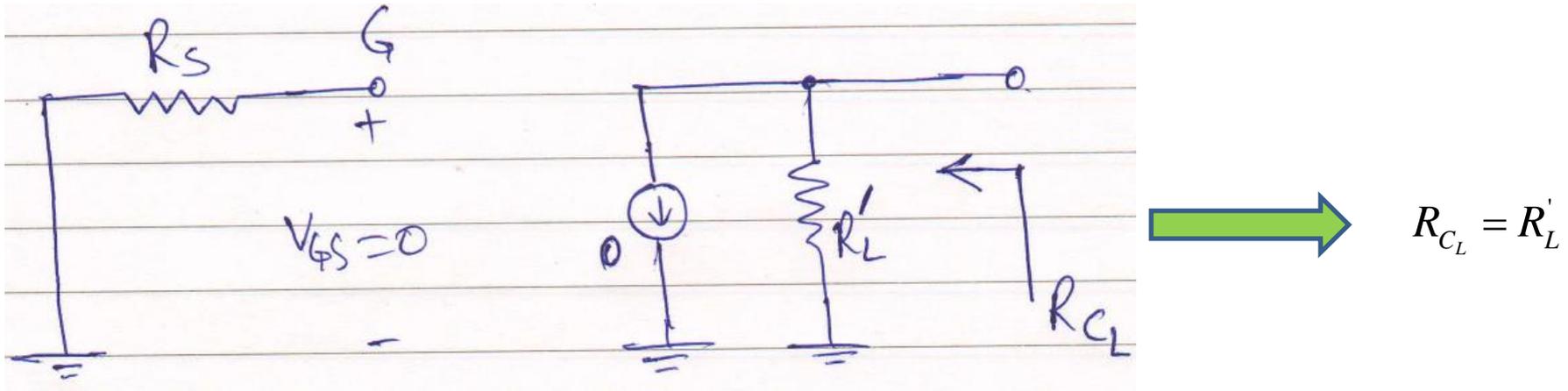
$$\frac{V_{GS}}{R_S} + I_X = 0$$

$$I_X = g_m V_{GS} + \frac{V_{GS} + V_X}{R'_L}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{GD} = \frac{V_X}{I_X} = R_S + (1 + g_m R_S) R'_L$$

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

- Considering only $C_L \rightarrow$ open C_{GS} and C_{GD}



Thus, the effective time constant: $\tau_H = C_{GS}R_{GS} + C_{GD}R_{GD} + C_L R_{C_L}$

Therefore the 3-dB roll-off frequency is:

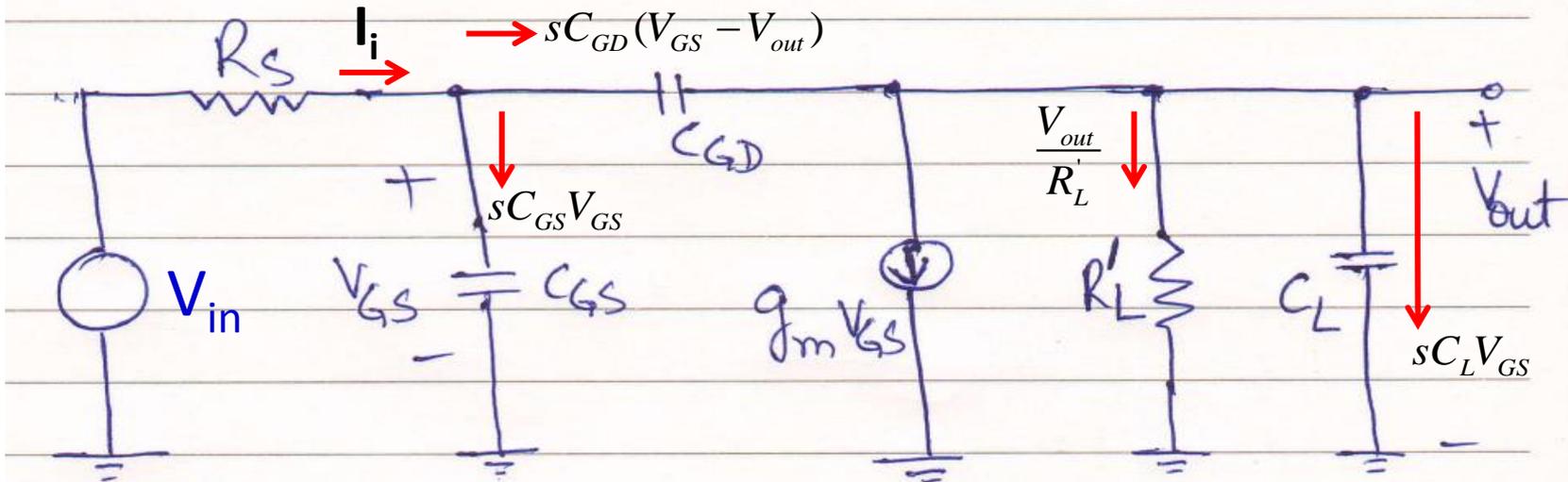
$$f_H = \frac{1}{2\pi\tau_H}$$

Provides a better
estimate than Miller's
approximation

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Exact Analysis

- Miller's Approx and OCTC Technique provides insight about the impact of various capacitances on the high frequency response of amplifier
- However, for simple circuits its imperative to carry out exact analysis



KCL at the drain: $sC_{GD}(V_{GS} - V_{out}) = g_m V_{GS} + \frac{V_{out}}{R'_L} + sC_L V_{out}$

$$V_{GS} = \frac{-V_{out}}{g_m R'_L} \frac{1 + s(C_L + C_{GD})R'_L}{1 - (sC_{GD} / g_m)}$$

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

KVL at the gate:

$$V_{in} = I_i R_S + V_{GS}$$

KCL at the gate:

$$I_i = sC_{GS}V_{GS} + sC_{GD}(V_{GS} - V_{out})$$

$$V_{in} = V_{GS} [1 + s(C_{GS} + C_{GD})R_S] - sC_{GD}R_S V_{out}$$

Where,

$$A = [C_{GS} + C_{GD}(1 + g_m R'_L)]R_S + (C_L + C_{GD})R'_L$$

$$B = [(C_L + C_{GD})C_{GS} + C_L C_{GD}]R_S R'_L$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{-(g_m R'_L) [1 - s(C_{GD} / g_m)]}{1 + sA + s^2 B}$$

Observations

- There exists one zero → not known through the approximate analysis
- 2nd order denominator [D(s)] → presence of two poles
- There are three capacitances → why only two poles and one zero

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Poles Determination

- As $s \rightarrow 0$, the transfer function approaches: $\Rightarrow \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -(g_m R'_L)$ **DC Gain**

- Let ω_{p1} and ω_{p2} be the two poles then:
$$D(s) = \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{p1}}\right) \left(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{p2}}\right) = 1 + s \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{p1}} + \frac{1}{\omega_{p2}}\right) + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{p1}\omega_{p2}}$$

- If ω_{p1} is dominant then:
$$D(s) \cong 1 + \frac{s}{\omega_{p1}} + \frac{s^2}{\omega_{p1}\omega_{p2}}$$

- Now, equating the coefficients:
$$\omega_{p1} = \frac{1}{\left[C_{GS} + C_{GD} (1 + g_m R'_L) \right] R_S + (C_L + C_{GD}) R'_L}$$

$$\omega_{p1}\omega_{p2} = \frac{1}{\left[(C_L + C_{GD}) C_{GS} + C_L C_{GD} \right] R_S R'_L}$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_{p2} = \frac{\left[C_{GS} + C_{GD} (1 + g_m R'_L) \right] R_S + (C_L + C_{GD}) R'_L}{\left[(C_L + C_{GD}) C_{GS} + C_L C_{GD} \right] R_S R'_L}$$

Very similar to the pole determined using OCTC method with the only addition being $R'_L(C_{GD} + C_L)$

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

Example:

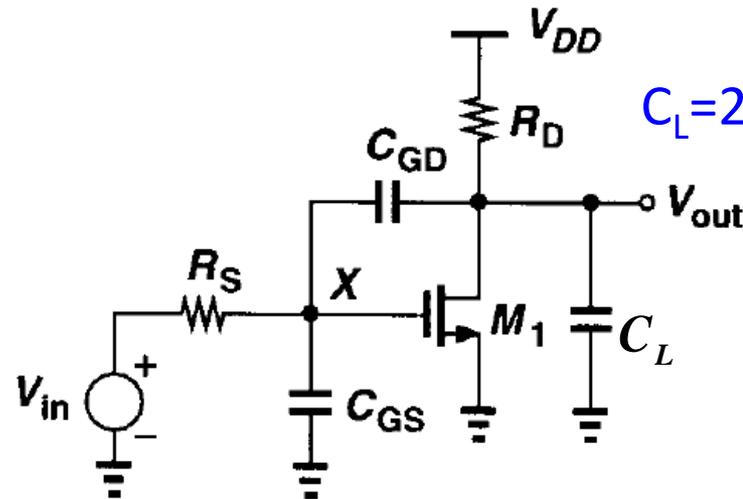
$$R_S = 50 \text{ Ohms}$$

$$L = 2.0 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$$

$$A_V = 15$$

$$f_{in} = 4.65 \text{ GHz}$$

$$f_{out} = 69.9 \text{ MHz}$$

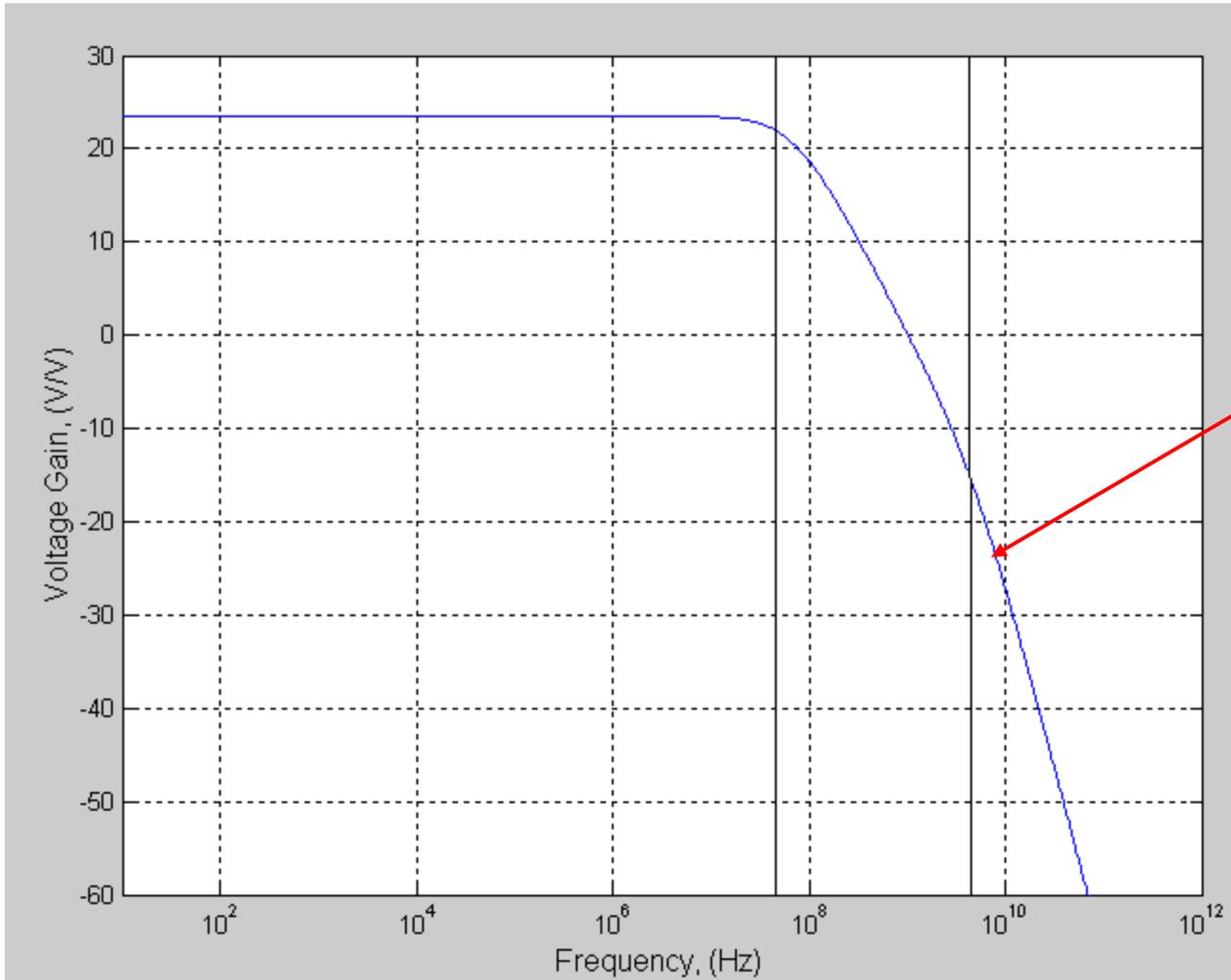


$$C_L = 27.51 \text{ fF}, R_L' = 60 \text{ KOhm}$$

$$\omega_{in} = \frac{1}{R_S (C_{GS} + (1 + g_m R_L') C_{GD})}$$

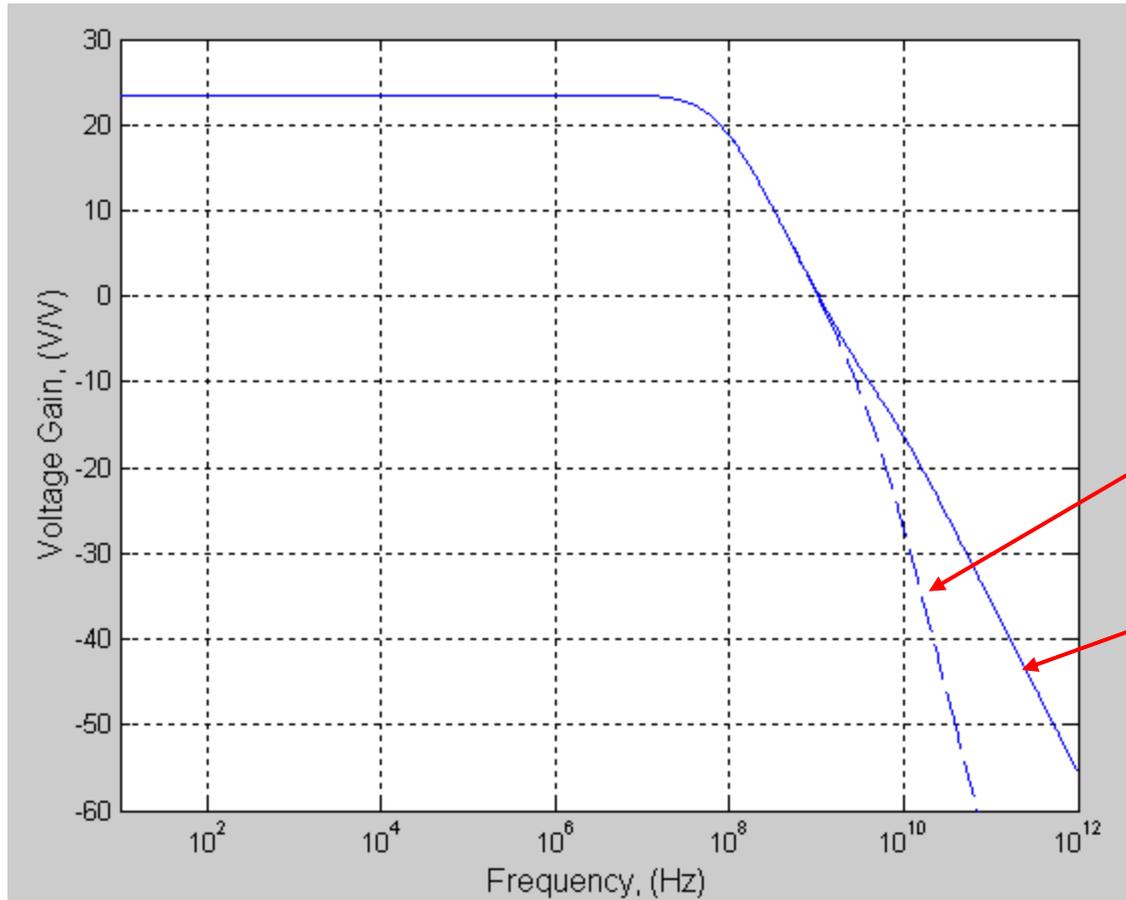
$$\omega_{out} = \frac{1}{R_L' (C_L + C_{GD})}$$

Transfer Function



**Miller
Approximation**

Transfer Function



**Miller
Approximation**

Exact Analysis

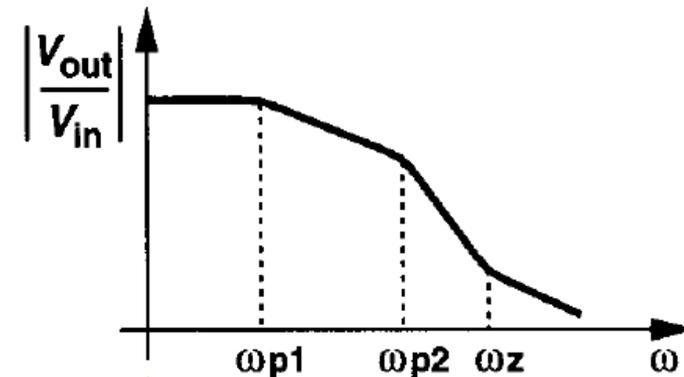
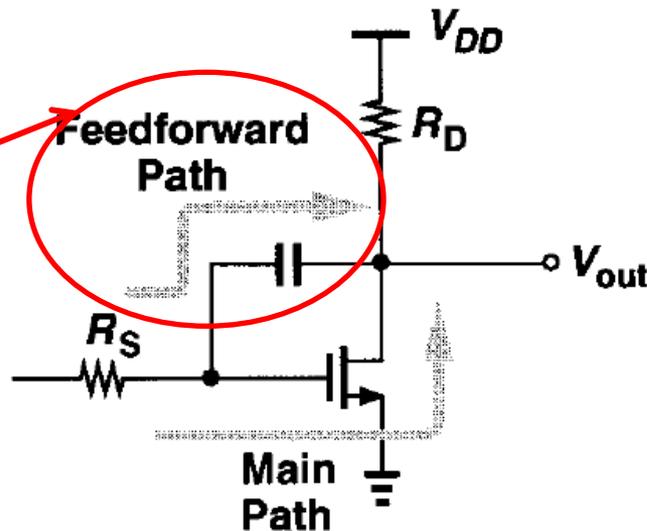
Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

- There exists one zero given by:

$$\omega_{z1} = \frac{g_m}{C_{GD}}$$

- This zero results from the direct coupling of the input and output through C_{GD} at high frequencies
- the capacitor provides a feed-forward path

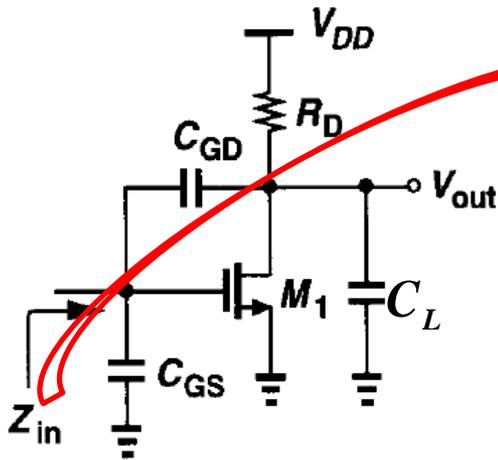
Only at high frequencies



It results in a slope in the frequency response that is less negative than -20dB/dec

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)

- In high speed applications, the input impedance of the common source stage is extremely important

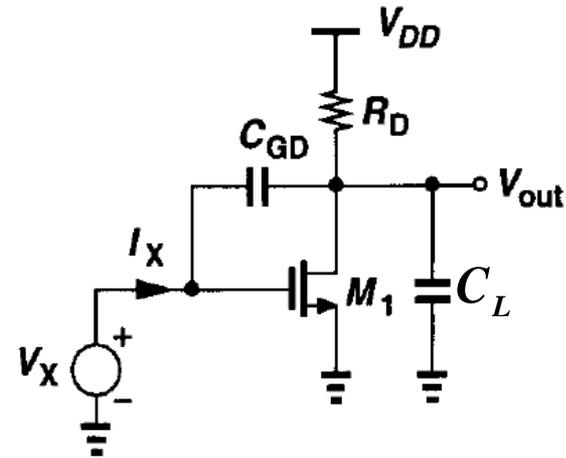


At high enough frequency, we can derive

$$Z_{in} = \frac{1}{[C_{GS} + (1 + g_m R_D) C_{GD}] s}$$

But at extremely high frequencies where Miller's approximation doesn't give appropriate performance, it's a must to take into account the contribution of output node

Common Source Amplifier (contd.)



For simplification, C_{GS} has
been ignored

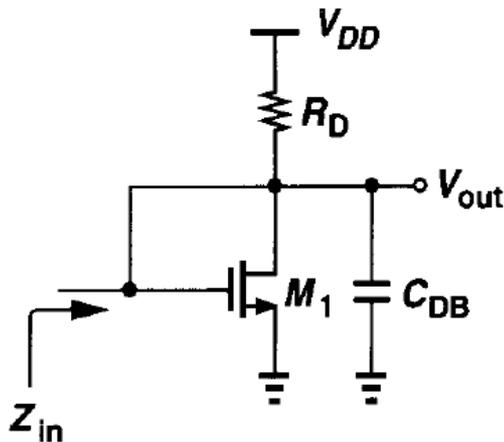
Using small signal model:

$$\frac{V_X}{I_X} = \frac{1 + R_D (C_{GD} + C_{DB})s}{C_{GD}s \left[(1 + g_m R_D + R_D C_L s) \right]}$$

Therefore:

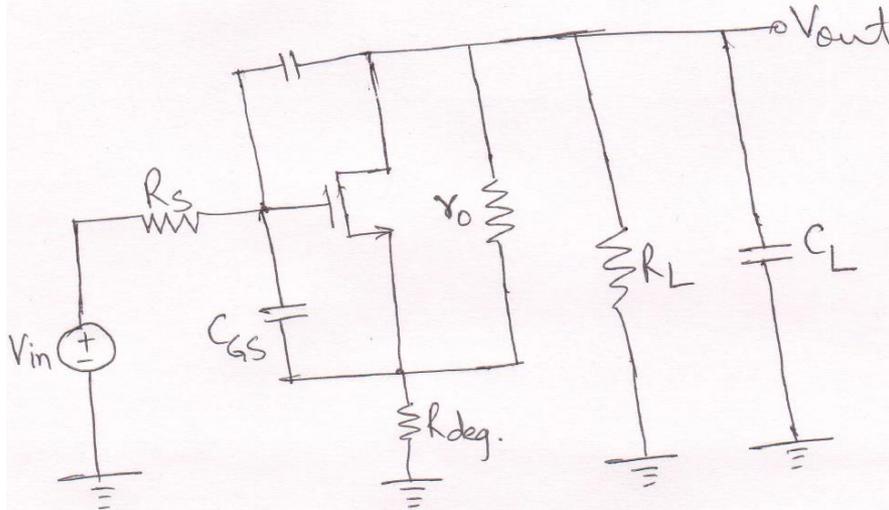
$$Z_{in} = X_{C_{GS}} \parallel \frac{V_X}{I_X}$$

At extremely high frequency



This is the case when C_{GD} is very high
→ provides a low impedance path
between G and D

CS Amplifier with Source Degeneration



We know,

$$R_{out} = r_o \left[1 + (g_m + g_{mb}) R_{deg} \right]$$

$$G_m = \frac{g_m}{1 + (g_m + g_{mb}) R_{deg}}$$

- To determine the effective time constant, use OCTC by considering one capacitor at a time.

- Consider C_{GD} first: $R_{GD} = R_S \left(1 + G_m R'_L \right) + R'_L$ Where, $R'_L = R_L \parallel R_{out}$

- Then Consider C_L : $R_{C_L} = R_L \parallel R_{out} = R'_L$

- Finally Consider C_{GS} : $R_{GS} = \frac{R_S + R_{deg}}{1 + (g_m + g_{mb}) R_{deg} \left(\frac{r_o}{r_o + R_L} \right)}$

CS Amplifier with Source Degeneration (contd.)

- Now, the effective time constant: $\tau_H = C_{GS}R_{GS} + C_{GD}R_{GD} + C_L R_{C_L}$
- For relatively large R_S the contribution of $C_{GD}R_{GD}$ in open circuit time constants (τ_H) will be largest.

$$\Rightarrow \tau_H = C_{GD}R_{GD} \qquad \therefore f_H \cong \frac{1}{2\pi C_{GD}R_{GD}}$$

Comment

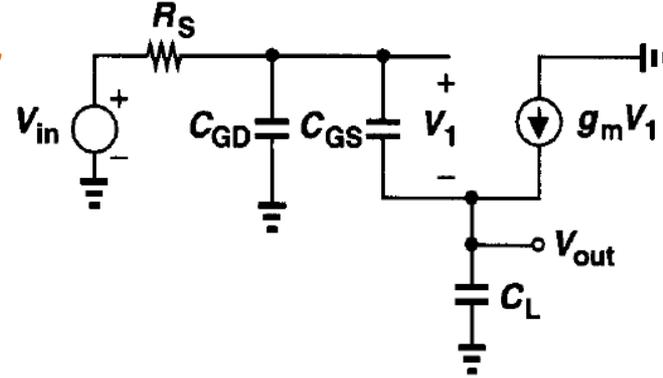
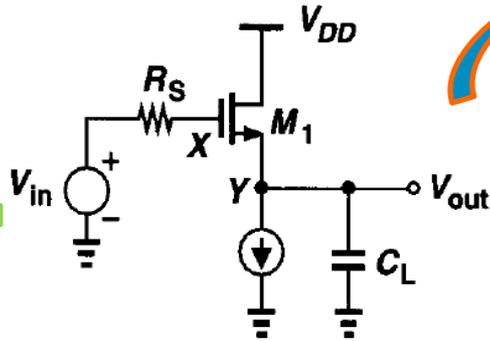
- If R_{deg} is increased \rightarrow the mid-band gain A_M will decrease \rightarrow this causes reduction in $R_{GD} \rightarrow$ as a result f_H increases
- As $G_m R_L' \gg 1$ and $G_m R_S \gg 1$ the term R_{GD} can be approximated as:

$$R_{GD} \cong G_m R_L' R_S = |A_M| R_S$$

$$\Rightarrow f_H = \frac{1}{2\pi C_{GD} |A_M| R_S}$$

Gain bandwidth product ($f_H \cdot |A_M|$)
remains constant for fixed $R_S \rightarrow$
however other capacitances make it
variable

Common Drain



Strong interaction between XY, making it difficult to associate each pole with each node

$$H(s) = \frac{g_m + C_{GS}s}{R_S(C_{GS}C_L + C_{GS}C_{GD} + C_{GD}C_L)s^2 + (g_m R_S C_{GD} + C_L + C_{GS})s + g_m}$$

$$D = \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{p1}} + 1 \right) \left(\frac{s}{\omega_{p2}} + 1 \right) = \frac{s^2}{\omega_{p1}\omega_{p2}} + \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{p1}} + \frac{1}{\omega_{p2}} \right) s + 1$$

Denominator

Dominant Pole

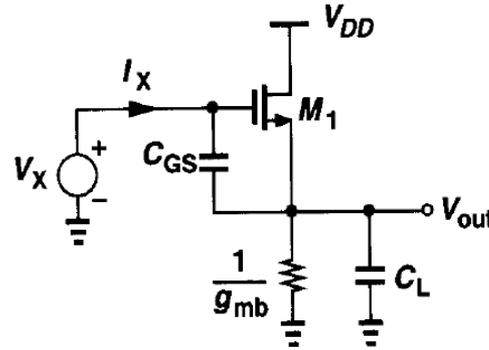
$$\omega_{p1} \approx \frac{g_m}{g_m R_S C_{GD} + C_L + C_{GS}} = \frac{1}{R_S C_{GD} + \frac{C_L + C_{GS}}{g_m}}$$

If, $R_S = 0$: then

$$\omega_{p1} = \frac{g_m}{C_L + C_{GS}}$$

Common Drain Amplifier (contd.)

Input Impedance



$$V_X = \frac{I_X}{C_{GS}s} + \left(I_X + \frac{g_m I_X}{C_{GS}s} \right) \left(\frac{1}{g_{mb}} \parallel \frac{1}{C_L s} \right)$$

$$Z_{in} = \frac{V_X}{I_X} = \frac{1}{C_{GS}s} + \left(1 + \frac{g_m}{C_{GS}s} \right) \frac{1}{g_{mb} + C_L s}$$

At relatively low frequencies:

$$Z_{in} \approx \frac{V_X}{I_X} = \frac{1}{C_{GS}s} \left(1 + \frac{g_m}{g_{mb}} \right) + \frac{1}{g_{mb}} \quad g_{mb} \gg |C_L s|$$

Equivalent Input Capacitance :

$$C_{in_eq} = \frac{g_{mb} C_{GS}}{g_m + g_{mb}}$$

Can be obtained using Miller's Theorem

At high frequencies:

$$Z_{in} \approx \frac{1}{C_{GS}s} + \frac{1}{C_L s} + \frac{g_m}{C_{GS} C_L s^2} \quad g_{mb} \ll |C_L s|$$

For a given, $s=j\omega$

$$Z_{in} = \frac{1}{j\omega C_{GS}} + \frac{1}{j\omega C_L} - \frac{g_m}{\omega^2 C_{GS} C_L}$$

Negative Resistance

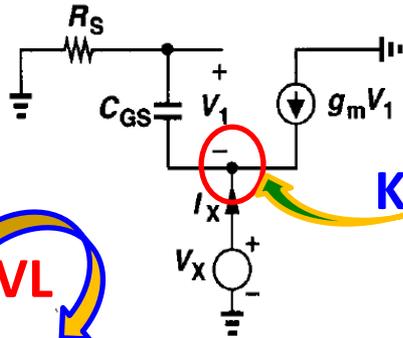
must be some positive feedback at the input node

could be useful in
oscillator design

Common Drain Amplifier (contd.)

Output Impedance

The body effect and C_{SB} yields an impedance in parallel to the output \rightarrow lets ignore this for now



$$-I_X = V_1 C_{GS} s + g_m V_1$$

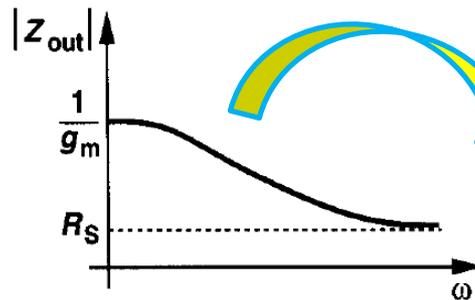
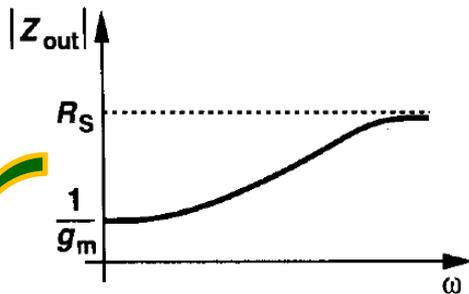
$$\therefore Z_{out} = \frac{Z_X}{I_X} = \frac{R_S C_{GS} s + 1}{g_m + C_{GS} s}$$

At low frequencies: $Z_{out} = \frac{1}{g_m}$

Expected

At very high frequencies: $Z_{out} = R_S$

Due to the fact that C_{GS} shorts the G and S

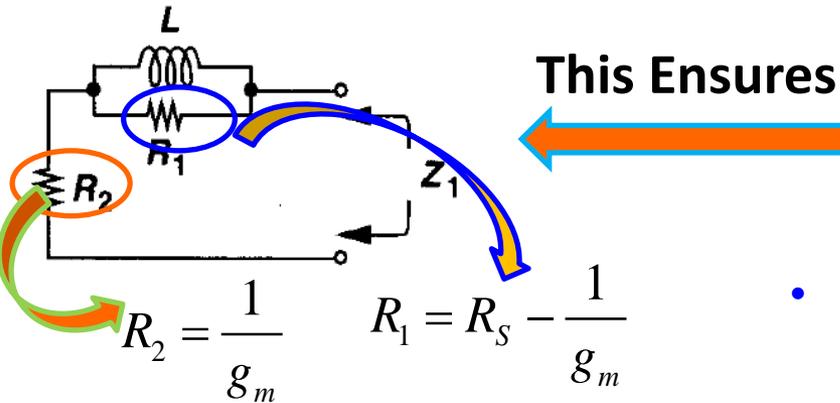


This is required considering that CD works as buffer and its purpose is to lower the output impedance i.e., $(1/g_m) < R_S$

The output impedance increases with frequency \leftrightarrow clear indication of the presence of inductive element

Common Drain Amplifier (contd.)

Output Network – first order model



$$Z_1 = \frac{1}{g_m}$$

At low frequencies

$$Z_1 = R_S$$

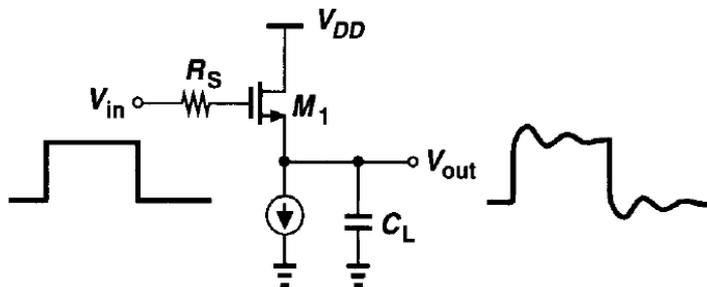
At very high frequencies

- For the determination of Z_1 equate the Z_1 expression to that of Z_{out}

$$L = \frac{C_{GS}}{g_m} \left(R_S - \frac{1}{g_m} \right)$$

Its apparent that if a CD stage is driven by a R_S , then it exhibits inductive behavior at the output

It has detrimental effect on the output characteristics

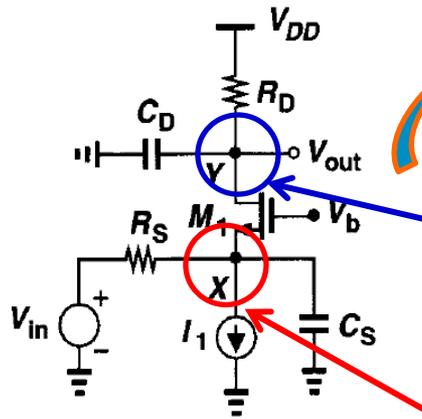


For example, the ringing problem in step response

Common Gate Amplifier

Very important: no Miller multiplication of capacitances

Primary factor for providing wide-band performance



$$\omega_{out} = [C_D R_D]^{-1} \quad \leftarrow C_D = C_{GD} \parallel C_{DB}$$

$$\omega_{in} = \left[C_S \left(R_S \parallel \frac{1}{g_m + g_{mb}} \right) \right]^{-1} \quad \leftarrow C_S = C_{GS} \parallel C_{SB}$$

Therefore the transfer function:

$$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{(g_m + g_{mb})R_D}{1 + (g_m + g_{mb})R_S} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{C_S}{g_m + g_{mb} + R_S^{-1}} s \right) (1 + R_D C_D s)}$$

- If we consider channel length modulation → not easy to associate a pole to the input node → direct analysis is needed to get the transfer function
- The low input impedance may load the preceding stage

Common Gate Amplifier (contd.)

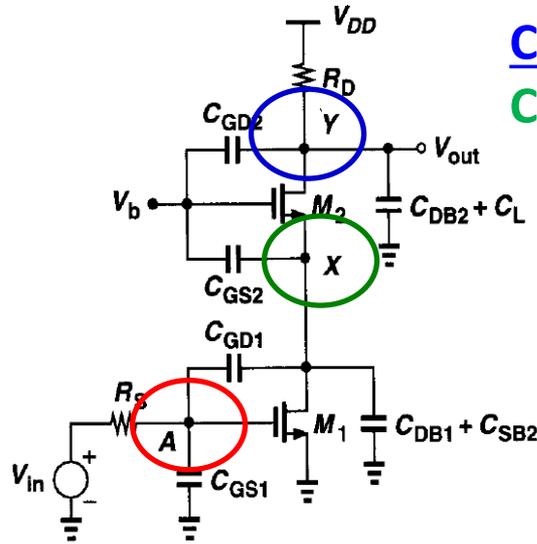
- The voltage drop across R_D is typically maximized to obtain a reasonable gain, therefore the dc level of input signal must be low
- CG stage with relatively large capacitance at the input \rightarrow possesses low output impedance \rightarrow good for cascode configuration

Cascode Stage

Why do we need cascode stage?

- High input impedance – good in a sense that it doesn't disturb the previous stage and doesn't get affected by the previous stage
- **High gain – important any way!**
- Relatively higher output impedance – doesn't disturb the succeeding stages
- **How about freq response?**
 - Provides a broader bandwidth of operation \rightarrow due to CG stage (no Miller approximation of intrinsic capacitor) \rightarrow it was the initial motivating factor for cascode stage!!!

Cascode Stage (contd.)



Capacitance at node A:

C_{GS1} in parallel with $(1-A_M)C_{GD1}$.

Where A_M is given by:

$$A_M = \frac{g_{m1}}{g_{m2} + g_{mb2}}$$

With assumption that R_D is small and the channel length modulation is negligible

For equal dimensions of M_1 and M_2 : A_M approximately equals 1 \rightarrow therefore C_{GD} gets multiplied by a factor of roughly 2 both at node A as well as at node X \rightarrow much smaller multiplication factor as compared to a single CS stage

Therefore the pole associated with node A is:

$$\omega_{p,A} = \frac{1}{R_S \left[C_{GS1} + \left(1 + \frac{g_{m1}}{g_{m2} + g_{mb2}} \right) C_{GD1} \right]}$$

Capacitance at node X: $2C_{GD1} + C_{DB1} + C_{SB2} + C_{GS2}$

Therefore the pole associated with node X is: $\omega_{p,X} = \frac{g_{m2} + g_{mb2}}{2C_{GD1} + C_{DB1} + C_{SB2} + C_{GS2}}$

Cascode Stage (contd.)

Capacitance at node Y: $C_{DB2} + C_L + C_{GD2}$

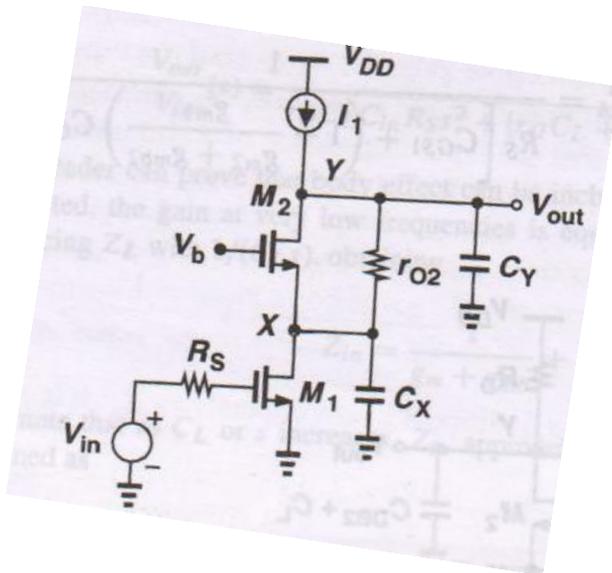
Therefore the pole associated with node Y is:

$$\omega_{p,Y} = \frac{1}{R_D (C_{DB2} + C_L + C_{GD2})}$$

- Do you have any control on the choice of poles?
- **Yes** → through selection of appropriate devices
- Usually $\omega_{p,X}$ is chosen very high → to obtain better stability

Instead of R_D → if a constant current source is used → what happens?
→ do the designer have control on the choice of poles?

How about output impedance?



If we ignore C_{GD1} and the capacitance at the node Y then:

$$Z_{out} = (1 + g_{m2}r_{o2})Z_X + r_{o2}$$

$$= r_{o1} \parallel (C_X s)^{-1}$$

Z_{out} contains a pole at $(r_{o1}C_X)^{-1}$

Z_{out} falls above this frequency