



# UCC

Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh, Éire  
University College Cork, Ireland

**M.Eng.Sc Electrical and Electronic Engineering**

EE4022\_EE6049\_Cadence\_Labs\_Design\_Assignment

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<b>Date</b>	06/12/2024

**Declaration:**

This report was written entirely by the author, except where stated otherwise. The source of any material not created by the author has been clearly referenced. The work described in this report was conducted by the author, except where stated otherwise.

**Signed: Gandhamani CM**

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# Design Project: Unity Gain Amplifier

## 1.Introduction:

A **unity gain amplifier** is a specialized amplifier configuration that produces an **output voltage equal to the input voltage**. It doesn't amplify the signal but serves as a **voltage follower** or a **buffer** to improve circuit performance in terms of impedance matching and isolation.

### 1.1 Advantages and Disadvantages:

A unity gain amplifier (also known as a voltage follower) is a circuit with a gain of 1, meaning the output voltage is equal to the input voltage. One key advantage is its high input impedance and low output impedance, making it ideal for impedance matching and signal buffering without altering the signal's amplitude. It is commonly used in applications where the signal source cannot drive a low-impedance load directly, as the unity gain amplifier isolates the source from the load, preventing loading effects. Another advantage is its simplicity, as it typically requires fewer components and offers excellent linearity. However, a major disadvantage is its inability to amplify signals, limiting its usefulness in applications that require increased signal strength. Additionally, unity gain amplifiers can introduce phase shifts at higher frequencies, and their performance may degrade with non-ideal op-amps or under high-frequency conditions.

### 1.2 Design Motivation:

The design motivation for the unity gain amplifier schematic and test schematic centers on creating a robust, efficient signal buffer that ensures signal integrity while providing electrical isolation between the source and load. A unity gain amplifier, also known as a voltage follower, is specifically designed to replicate the input voltage at its output without any amplification. The motivation behind its design stems from its ability to achieve high input impedance and low output impedance, enabling seamless interfacing with high-impedance sources while driving low-impedance loads. This minimizes signal distortion and eliminates loading effects, ensuring reliable transmission of signals between different circuit stages.

A key element often included in unity gain amplifier designs is the current mirror, which serves as a crucial building block for biasing and maintaining consistent current flow in various parts of the circuit. Current mirrors are used to ensure that the circuit operates in a stable and predictable manner, especially under varying load conditions. By providing a stable reference current, current mirrors help regulate the operation of transistors in the amplifier, ensuring linearity and consistent performance.

The inclusion of current mirrors in the unity gain amplifier's design brings several benefits:

1. **Stable biasing:** Current mirrors maintain a constant biasing current for the transistors, ensuring optimal operation across a wide range of input and output conditions.
2. **Improved performance:** They contribute to better linearity and precision by minimizing variations in the transistor operating points.

- Enhanced matching: Current mirrors help maintain symmetrical behavior between differential pairs or other matched components in the amplifier, reducing distortion.

In terms of usage, the unity gain amplifier is often deployed in applications such as:

- Buffering signals: It prevents loading of the previous stage while driving subsequent stages with minimal loss or distortion.
- Analog systems: Used in audio equipment, sensors, and data acquisition systems to ensure signal fidelity.
- Instrumentation: Ideal for high-impedance sensors, where it captures signals without affecting the source.
- Cascading stages: Facilitates smooth interfacing between different circuit stages, particularly in multi-stage systems.

The test schematic is designed to validate key parameters of the circuit, such as the input-output voltage relationship (unity gain), transient response (e.g., overshoot, settling time), and frequency response (e.g., phase margin and stability). Special emphasis is placed on the role of current mirrors in stabilizing the circuit during these tests, ensuring that the amplifier performs reliably under varying conditions and across different frequencies.

This meticulous design approach ensures that the unity gain amplifier achieves its intended purpose: providing a stable, reliable buffer in a variety of electrical and electronic systems.

**Steps to Arrive at the W/L values:**

$$\text{Frequency}(5 \text{ MHz}) = \frac{G_m}{2\pi C_c}$$

From the formula for transconductance  $g_m$ :

$$g_m = \sqrt{2\mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} I_D}$$

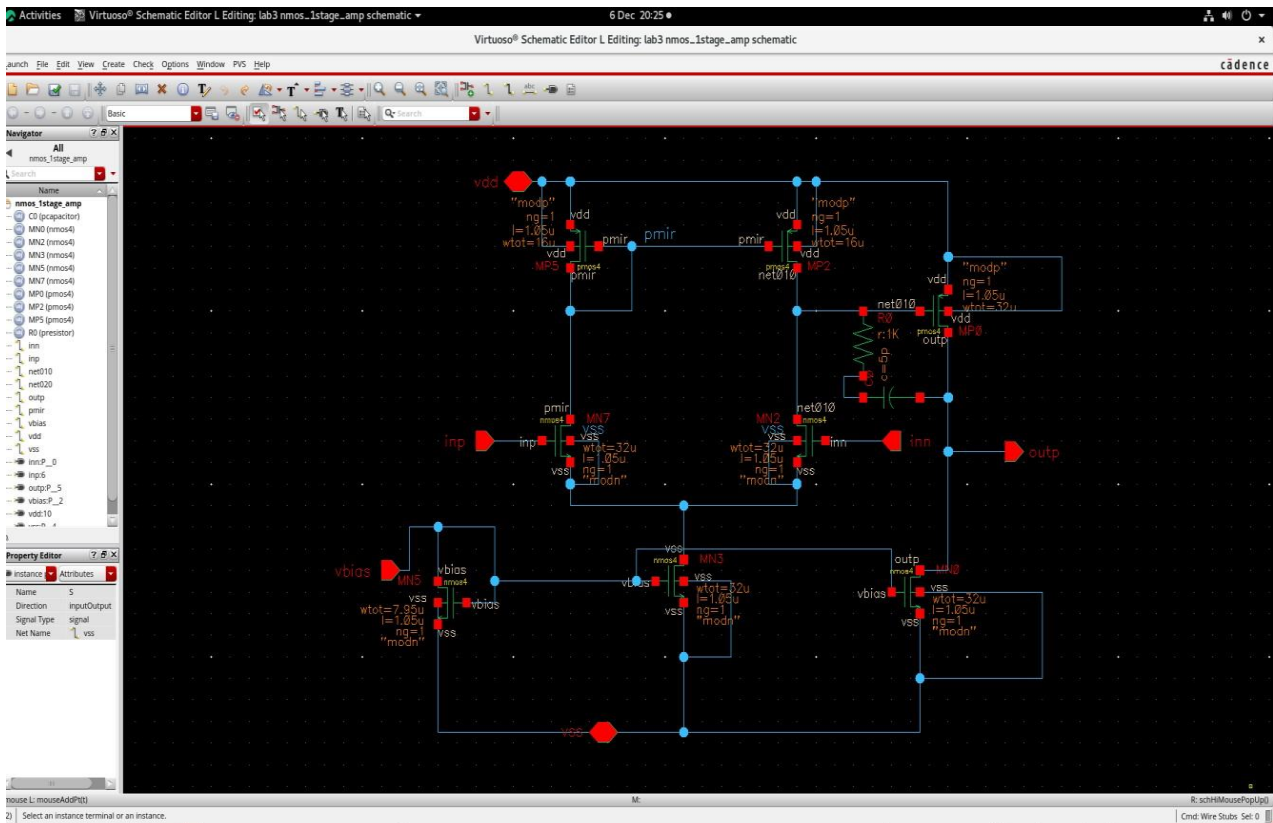
Squaring both sides:

$$g_m^2 = 2\mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} I_D$$

Rearrange to solve for  $\frac{W}{L}$ :

$$\frac{W}{L} = \frac{g_m^2}{2\mu C_{ox} I_D}$$

## 2. Schematic Design:



### Design Justification and Explanation:

To better understand the design and the rationale behind selecting **width** values (while keeping **length** constant) for the transistors in your **unity gain buffer** design, let's break down the design stage by stage, focusing on the **current mirror configuration** and the **cascode stage**.

#### 2.1. General Overview:

You have a total of 8 transistors in your design:

- **PMOS and NMOS transistors** are used in various configurations for the **input stage, current mirrors, and cascode stage**.
- The **width** values vary based on the requirements of each stage, including **biasing, transconductance, and output impedance**.

#### Understanding the Cascode Stage and Current Mirrors:

A **current mirror** is a fundamental circuit used to control the current flowing through various transistors. It copies (mirrors) a reference current from one transistor (called the reference transistor) to one or more output transistors. The use of current mirrors ensures that the biasing

current is stable and does not vary with changes in other parameters (like temperature or supply voltage).

- In **NMOS current mirrors**, the **drain current** is replicated by mirroring it through one or more output transistors.
- Similarly, **PMOS current mirrors** mirror a reference current from a PMOS reference transistor to the output PMOS transistor.

A **simple current mirror** consists of a **reference transistor** and one or more **output transistors** that receive the mirrored current. The mirroring accuracy depends on the matching of the transistors and the effective biasing.

### Why Different Widths for Current Mirror Transistors?

In your case, you have varied **width values** for different **PMOS** and **NMOS** transistors in the current mirror stage. Here's why:

- **PMOS Transistor in Current Mirror: 16  $\mu\text{m}$ :**
  - The **PMOS current mirror** is typically designed to control the current in the **output stage** and ensures that the current is mirrored accurately. Since **PMOS transistors** generally have lower mobility compared to **NMOS** transistors, they often require larger **width (W)** to achieve similar transconductance ( $g_m$ ) characteristics. A larger **width** increases the **output conductance** and ensures sufficient **current drive capability** for the load.
- **NMOS Transistor in Current Mirror: 32  $\mu\text{m}$ :**
  - The **NMOS current mirror** transistors are larger because **NMOS transistors** tend to provide better performance in terms of transconductance at smaller sizes compared to PMOS transistors. A **larger width (W)** allows for **better current mirroring** accuracy, and since the current mirror is used for **biasing**, ensuring correct current replication is critical for stable operation.
- **NMOS Transistor in Input Stage: 8  $\mu\text{m}$ :**
  - The **NMOS transistor** at the **input stage** has a smaller width (8  $\mu\text{m}$ ) because the input stage is typically designed for **low power consumption** and **high input impedance**. A smaller **width** provides a **lower transconductance**, which helps limit the **input bias current** and ensures that the **unity gain buffer** operates efficiently.

### Cascode Stage

A **cascode stage** is used to improve the **output impedance** and **gain** of a circuit by stacking two transistors. In this design, the **NMOS** and **PMOS** transistors in the **cascode stage** are both **32  $\mu\text{m}$**  in width. The reasons for this choice are:

- **Higher Output Impedance:** The cascode configuration improves the **output impedance** of the amplifier by reducing the effect of **channel-length modulation**. This results in a **more stable voltage gain** and makes the op-amp less sensitive to variations in the output voltage.

- **Increased Transconductance:** Since cascode transistors are often chosen for their high gain and stability, the **larger width** helps **increase the transconductance** of the cascode stage, ensuring that the **current mirrors** are mirrored accurately and provide sufficient biasing for the next stage.
- **Maintaining Proper Biasing:** Larger widths ensure that the **biasing conditions** are met in the cascode stage. This is essential to maintain proper operation of the current mirrors and overall amplifier.

### Why Keep Lengths the Same (1.05 $\mu\text{m}$ )?

Keeping the **length (LL)** the same for all transistors (1.05  $\mu\text{m}$ ) provides several advantages:

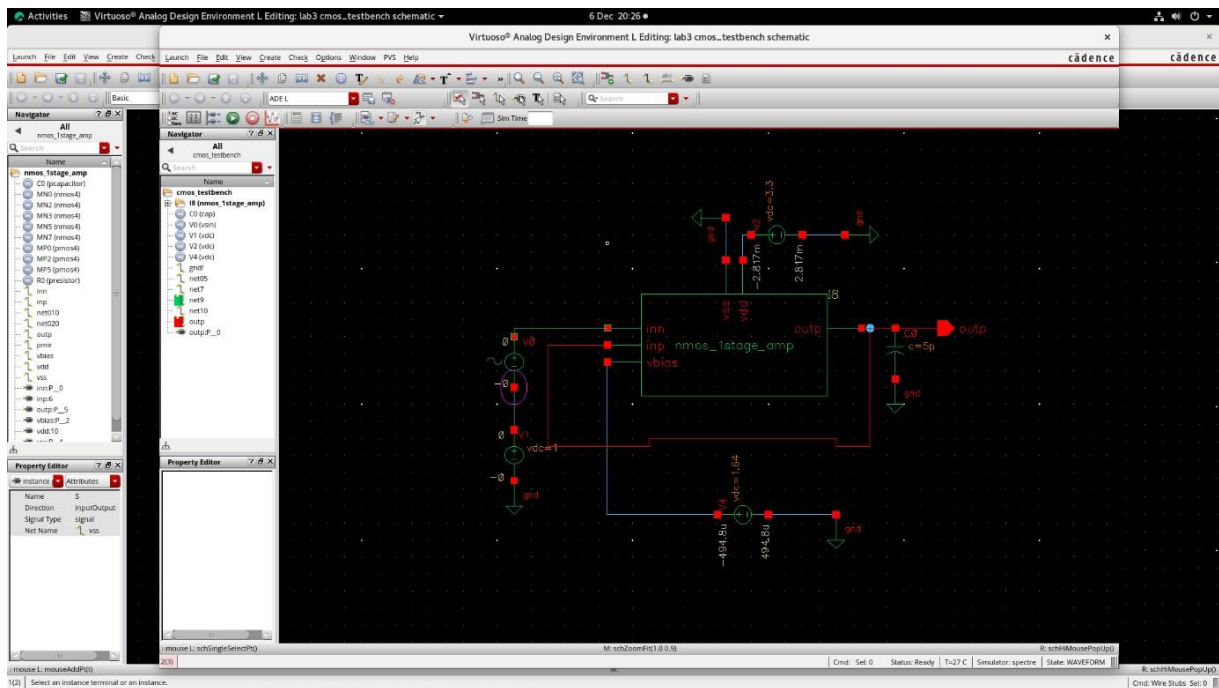
- **Consistency in Operating Region:** Ensuring that all transistors are of the same length guarantees that they remain in the **saturation region**. This is critical for both **current mirrors** and the **input/output transistors** of the amplifier, as they must operate in the saturation region to maintain proper current conduction.
- **Minimizing Short-Channel Effects:** A consistent **length** helps in minimizing **short-channel effects** (like **DIBL** and **velocity saturation**), which can arise if lengths are too small. By keeping LL at a larger value, you ensure better control over the device characteristics.
- **Matching Transistor Characteristics:** Matching the **length** ensures that all transistors have similar **threshold voltages** and **channel modulation effects**, which is important when designing circuits with matched biasing conditions.

In this design, the varied **widths (W)** for the PMOS and NMOS transistors are necessary to balance the **transconductance** and ensure **accurate current mirroring**. The **larger widths** in the **current mirror** stage (PMOS: 16  $\mu\text{m}$  and NMOS: 32  $\mu\text{m}$ ) ensure that the current mirrors can provide accurate current replication and meet the **biasing requirements**. The smaller NMOS **width** in the input stage (8  $\mu\text{m}$ ) helps in controlling the **input impedance** and ensuring **low power consumption**. Finally, the **larger widths** in the **cascode stage (32  $\mu\text{m}$ )** provide higher **output impedance** and **better voltage gain**, which enhances the overall performance of the **unity gain buffer**.

By carefully selecting these widths and keeping the **length** constant, you achieve a well-balanced design that ensures stable current flow, accurate biasing, and high output impedance for effective operation of the **unity gain buffer**.

### 3. Design of Test Bench Schematic:

The Sinusoidal signal with magnitude of 1.2 V and Common Mode voltage of 1V were given as outputs in this design the **inn** is positive supply and **inp** is the negative supply. The inverting side of the op-amp is connected to the output to form feedback path in order for the unity gain amplifier to generate the same output as the input.



This circuit is designed as a unity-gain amplifier, also known as a voltage follower, with the primary purpose of providing precise signal buffering, stability, and low power consumption. It operates by receiving a sinusoidal input signal with a magnitude of 1.2 V and a common-mode voltage (VCM) of 1 V. These values ensure that the input signal stays well within the linear operating range of the amplifier, preventing distortion or clipping while maintaining signal fidelity. The inverting input of the operational amplifier (op-amp) is connected directly to the output through a feedback loop, which forces the output voltage to follow the input voltage. This feedback configuration ensures the amplifier functions as a unity-gain buffer, where the output voltage is identical to the input voltage. The non-inverting input receives the input signal directly, allowing the circuit to achieve high input impedance, low output impedance, and exact voltage replication.

The inclusion of a capacitor in the circuit serves a dual purpose. First, it acts as a stability enhancer by filtering out high-frequency noise and smoothing signal transitions, especially in cases where rapid changes in input signals or external disturbances might cause instability. Second, it provides compensation for phase shifts that can occur at high frequencies, thereby ensuring consistent and reliable operation across a wide bandwidth. This makes the circuit suitable for high-speed applications where maintaining signal integrity is crucial.

The circuit uses voltage biasing, with Bias=1.64 V to establish the operating point of the transistors within the amplifier. Voltage biasing ensures that the transistors remain in their active region, allowing for linear and predictable amplification. Compared to current biasing, voltage biasing is less sensitive to process variations and temperature changes, leading to improved stability and reliability. Furthermore, voltage biasing simplifies circuit design and allows for lower power consumption, making it highly efficient and suitable for compact, modern electronic systems. The inclusion of the common-mode voltage (VCM) of 1 V in the input signal is intentional, as it positions the input voltage within a range that the amplifier can handle effectively without saturating.



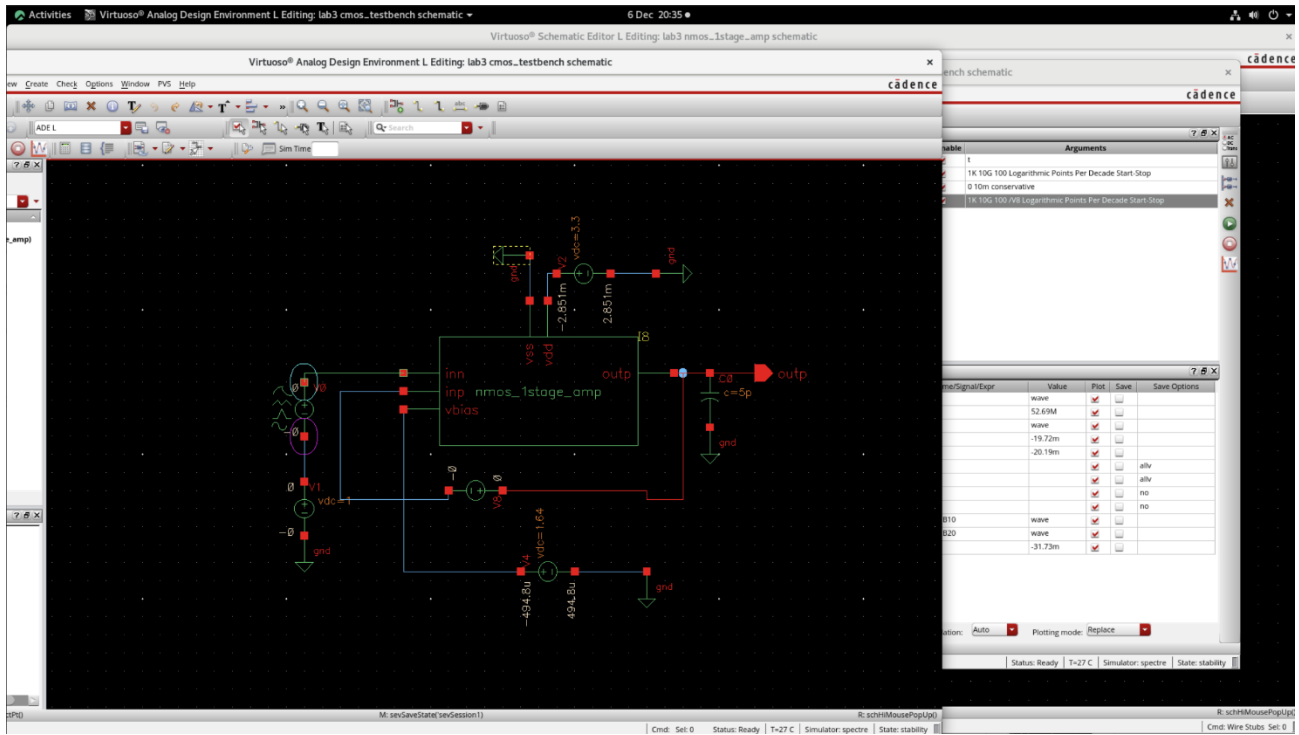
Overall, this amplifier is well-suited for applications requiring high signal fidelity, robust buffering, stage isolation, and the ability to drive varying loads, making it an integral component in analog signal processing systems.

### 3.1. Test Bench Schematic for 10mV step Input and STB Analysis:

The step response of a unity-gain buffer, or voltage follower, illustrates how the circuit responds to a sudden change (step input) in the input voltage. In this configuration, the operational amplifier (Op-Amp) is set up with the output directly fed back to the inverting input, ensuring that  $V_{out} \approx V_{in}$  with a nominal gain of 1. When a step input is applied, the output voltage ideally follows the input voltage with minimal delay or distortion. However, practical considerations such as the Op-Amp's finite bandwidth, slew rate, and settling time affect the step response. The bandwidth determines the range of frequencies the Op-Amp can handle without significant attenuation, while the slew rate sets the maximum rate at which the output voltage can change. These factors influence how quickly and accurately the output can track the step input. In an ideal Op-Amp with infinite bandwidth and slew rate, the step response would be instantaneous, but in real-world scenarios, the response exhibits a rise time as the output ramps to the new input level. Additionally, overshoot or ringing may occur if the circuit is marginally stable or the phase margin is insufficient, though these effects are typically minimal in a unity-gain buffer due to its inherently stable feedback configuration. The step response is critical for evaluating the dynamic performance of the buffer in applications requiring precise signal tracking and minimal distortion.

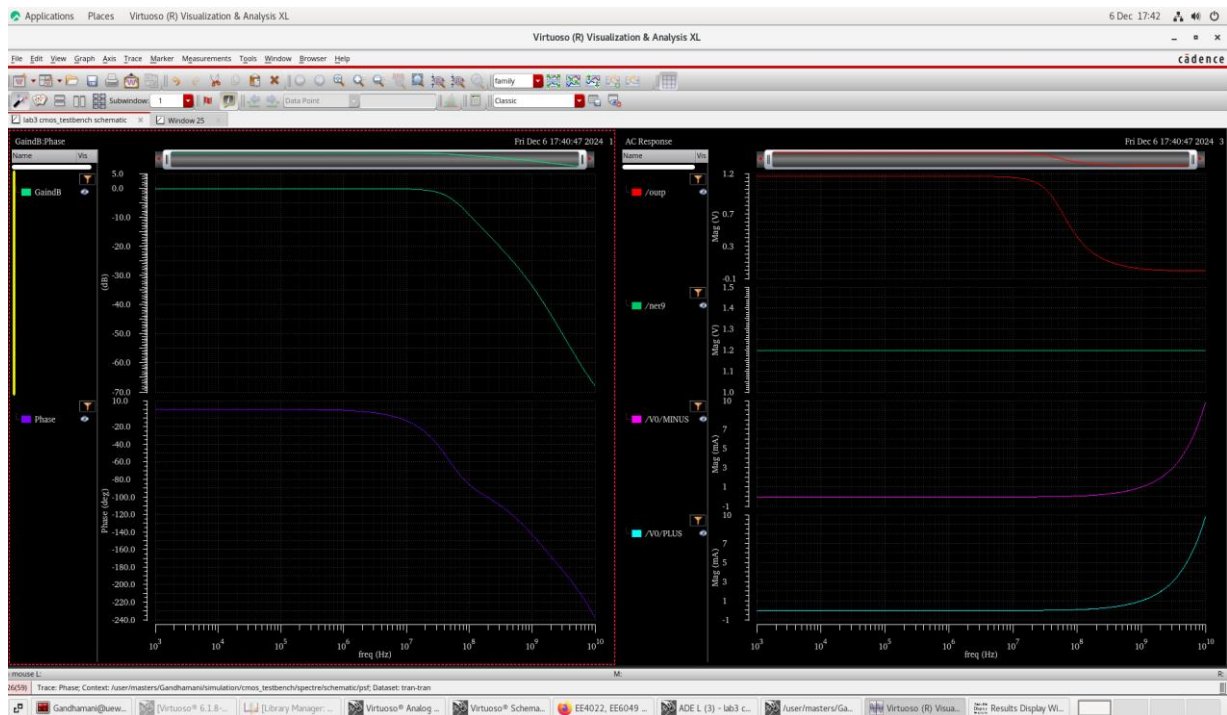
In the stability analysis of a unity-gain buffer, a  $V_{DC}=0$  source is strategically introduced in the feedback path as a probe to virtually break the feedback loop, facilitating the evaluation of critical stability metrics such as gain margin, phase margin, and loop gain. The unity-gain buffer configuration, in which the operational amplifier's output is directly fed back to its inverting input, ensures that the output voltage closely tracks the input voltage with a unity gain. Introducing the  $V_{DC}=0$  source does not alter the DC behavior of the circuit but allows the simulator to inject a small AC signal into the loop, enabling the computation of the open-loop gain  $A(s)$  and the feedback factor  $\beta(s)$  which together form the loop gain  $T(s)=A(s) \cdot \beta(s)$ .

This approach is essential because it enables the analysis of the feedback system's response over a wide frequency range, providing insights into its dynamic stability. Key stability metrics derived from this analysis include the **gain margin**, which measures how much the open-loop gain can increase before instability occurs, and the **phase margin**, which quantifies the additional phase shift required to bring the system to the verge of instability when the loop gain magnitude is 1 (0 dB). Other important parameters include the **gain crossover frequency**, the frequency at which the loop gain magnitude equals 1, and the **phase crossover frequency**, where the phase of the loop gain reaches  $-180^\circ$ . The Bode plot of  $T(s)$  is used to visually interpret these metrics.



## 4. Output Wave form:

### 4.1 AC Response



### AC Analysis:

AC analysis refers to the analysis of a circuit's behavior with respect to small signal variations (alternating current signals). In an AC analysis, the DC components (bias voltages and currents) are ignored, and only the AC components (signal variations) are considered to determine how the circuit amplifies or modifies an AC signal. This analysis is crucial for understanding the frequency response, gain, and stability of amplifiers and other analog circuits.

For an amplifier or unity gain buffer (like the one you've been discussing), the AC analysis involves determining how the circuit responds to small signal inputs, and it typically focuses on parameters like gain, bandwidth, and phase shift.

## 4.2 DC, AC and Transient Analysis:

### Types of Transient Responses

#### 1. Overdamped Response:

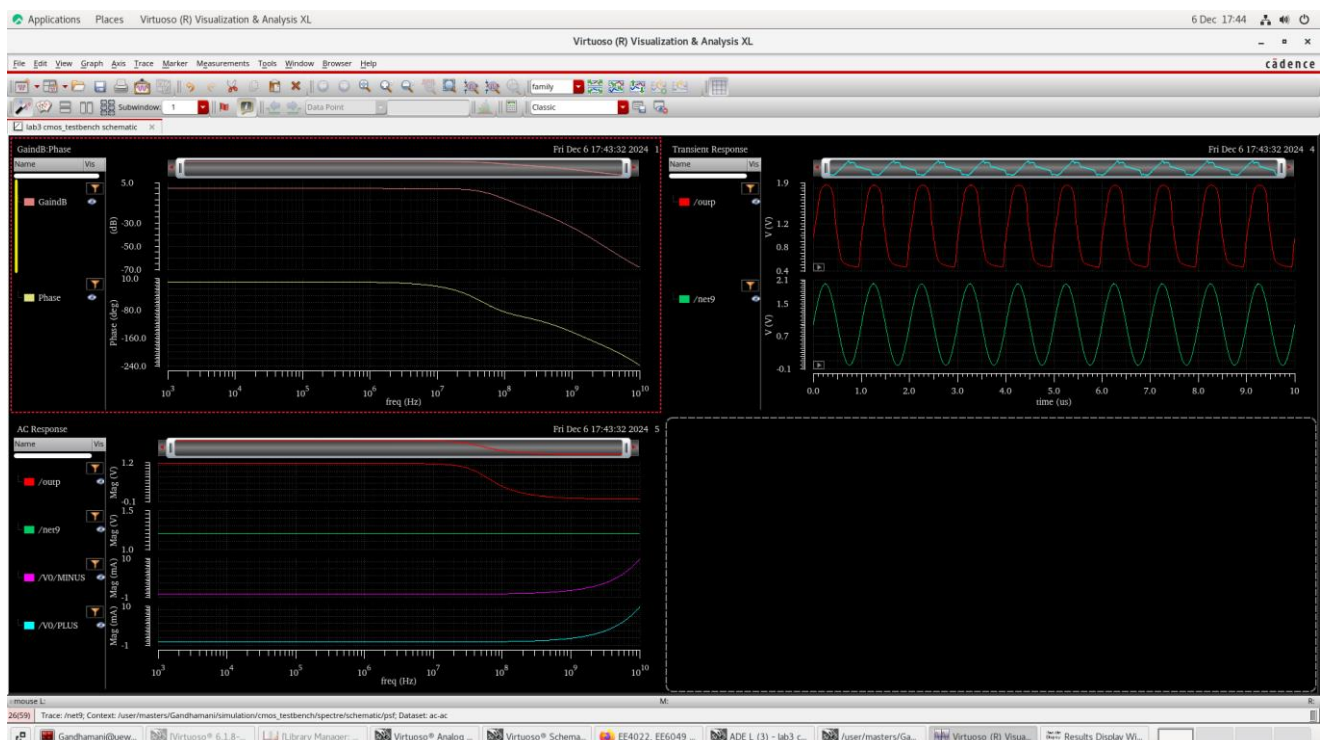
- This occurs when the circuit has high resistance or a high damping factor. The system slowly settles into its steady state without oscillation.
- Example: A resistor-capacitor (RC) circuit with high resistance will exhibit an overdamped response when a step voltage is applied.

#### 2. Underdamped Response:

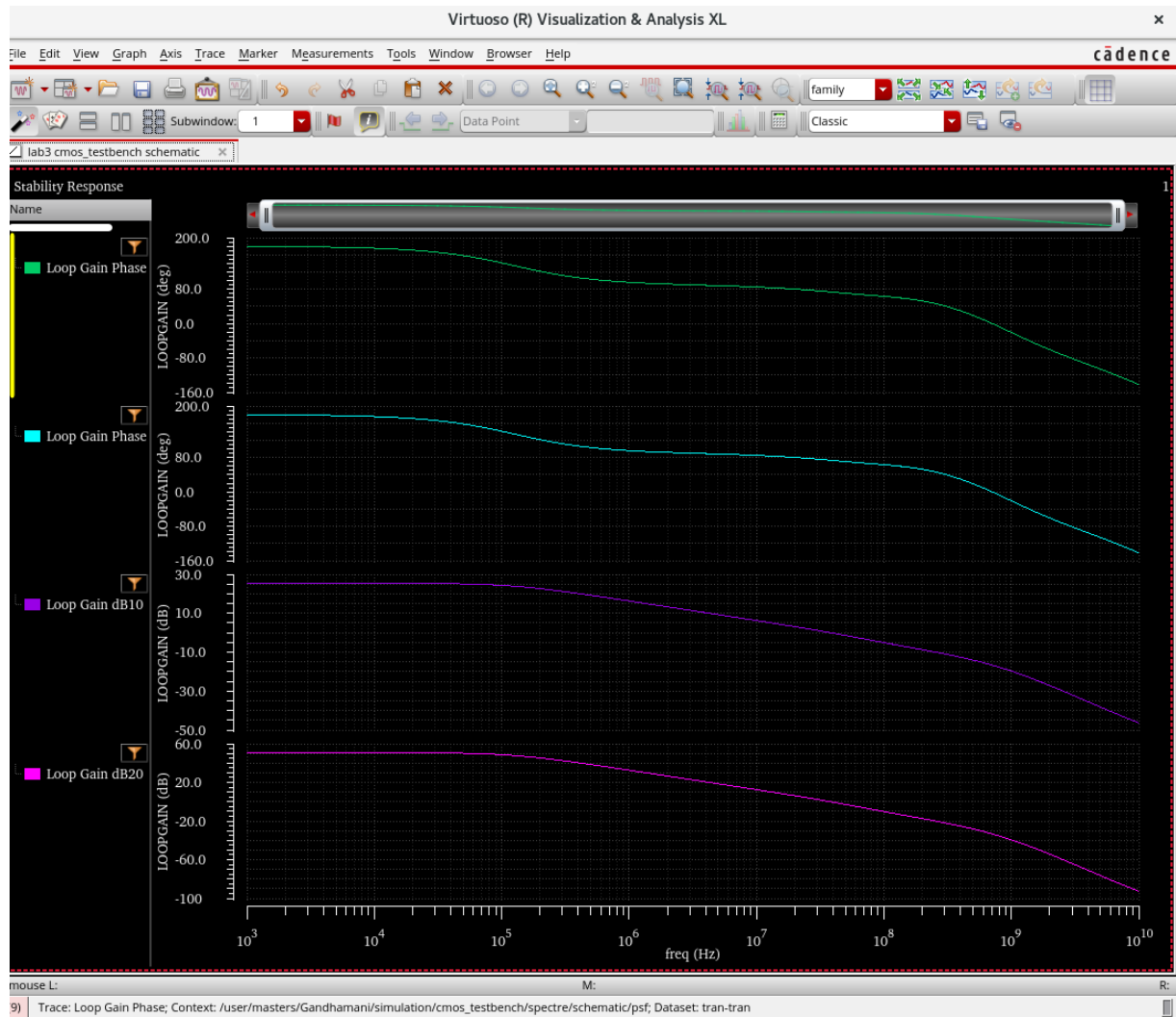
- This occurs when the circuit has moderate resistance, and it oscillates before settling into its final steady state. This is typical of circuits with LC resonant elements.
- Example: An RLC circuit can oscillate when excited with a step input due to the interaction between the capacitor and inductor.

#### 3. Critically Damped Response:

- This occurs when the system has just the right amount of resistance to settle into its final steady state as quickly as possible without oscillating.
- Example: This occurs in circuits that are designed to avoid overshoot and oscillation while settling fast.



### 4.3 STB Analysis:



Small-Signal Transfer Function (STB) analysis is a method used to analyze the behavior of electronic circuits under small variations in input signals, typically around their operating point or bias. The primary goal of STB analysis is to calculate the gain and frequency response of the circuit, helping to understand how the circuit amplifies small signals, such as the AC signals superimposed on a DC bias. In small-signal analysis, it is assumed that the variations in the input signal are small enough that the circuit's nonlinearities can be ignored, allowing the circuit to be linearized around its bias point. This results in a simplified analysis using linear models of components like transistors or operational amplifiers.

The transfer function  $H(s)$  is a key element in STB analysis, relating the Laplace transform of the output voltage or current to the Laplace transform of the input. This function provides a mathematical description of how the system responds to small changes in the input signal. The transfer function is represented as the ratio of the output voltage to the input voltage in the Laplace domain. Small-signal models are derived by linearizing the nonlinear characteristics of active components around their operating points, simplifying them into linear equivalent circuits.

The process of STB analysis begins by determining the DC operating point, also known as the bias point, of the circuit. This is done by solving the circuit with all AC sources turned off, finding the voltage and current values of all components, and ensuring proper biasing for active devices like transistors. After determining the bias point, the small-signal model for each active component is extracted, representing how these components respond to small changes in voltage or current. Once the small-signal models are established, the circuit is linearized, and the behavior of the circuit is analyzed using traditional linear circuit analysis techniques such as Kirchhoff's Voltage Law (KVL), Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL), and mesh analysis.

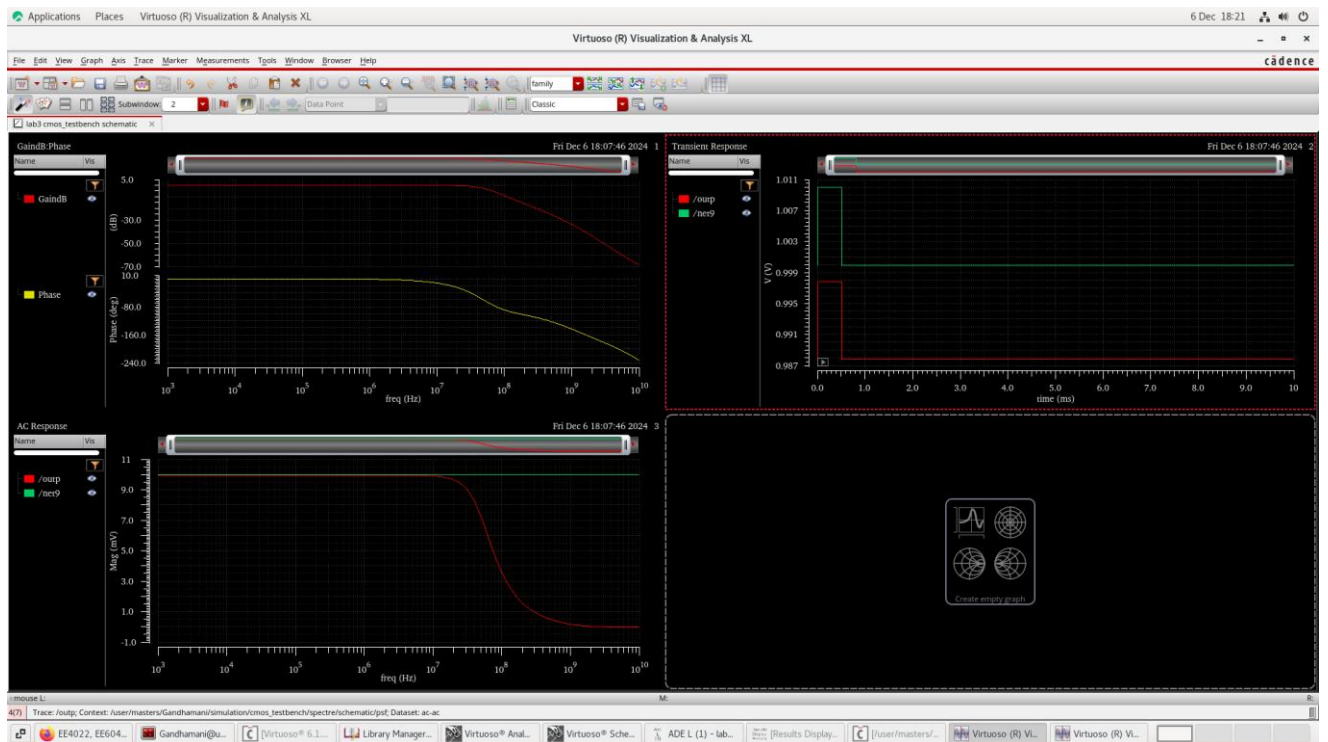
AC analysis is then performed to evaluate the small-signal voltage gain and other performance parameters, considering only the variations in the input signal, with all DC sources set to zero. The transfer function  $H(s)$  is derived, which provides insight into the amplification characteristics of the circuit. The frequency response of the circuit is analyzed by examining how the transfer function changes with frequency, which helps in identifying the circuit's bandwidth and gain characteristics. A common tool to represent this is the Bode plot, which shows magnitude and phase versus frequency.

Key parameters in STB analysis include transconductance  $g_m$ , output resistance  $r_o$ , and voltage gain. Transconductance  $g_m$  represents the change in output current with respect to the change in input voltage in an active device like a transistor and is crucial for determining the amplification capability of the circuit. Output resistance  $r_o$  is the resistance looking into the output terminal of a transistor and influences both the voltage gain and the output impedance of the circuit. The voltage gain of the circuit is typically calculated as the ratio of the output voltage to the input voltage and depends on factors like transconductance and the load resistance.

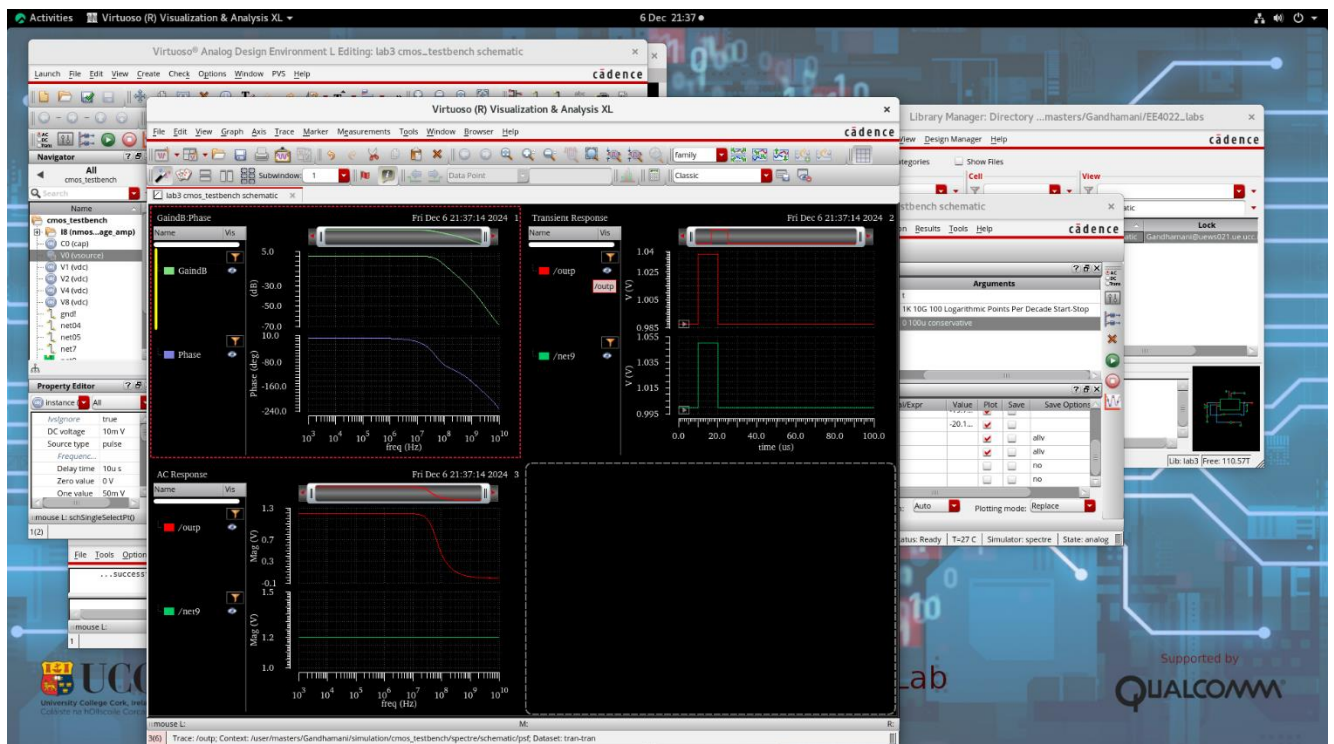
For instance, in a common-emitter amplifier, small-signal analysis involves finding the bias point of the transistor, linearizing it using small-signal parameters such as  $g_m$  and  $r_o$ , and then calculating the voltage gain. This analysis helps in optimizing the circuit design and ensuring that the amplifier meets the required performance specifications. Overall, STB analysis is essential for understanding and designing analog circuits, particularly amplifiers, filters, and other circuits where small variations in the input signal need to be amplified or processed.



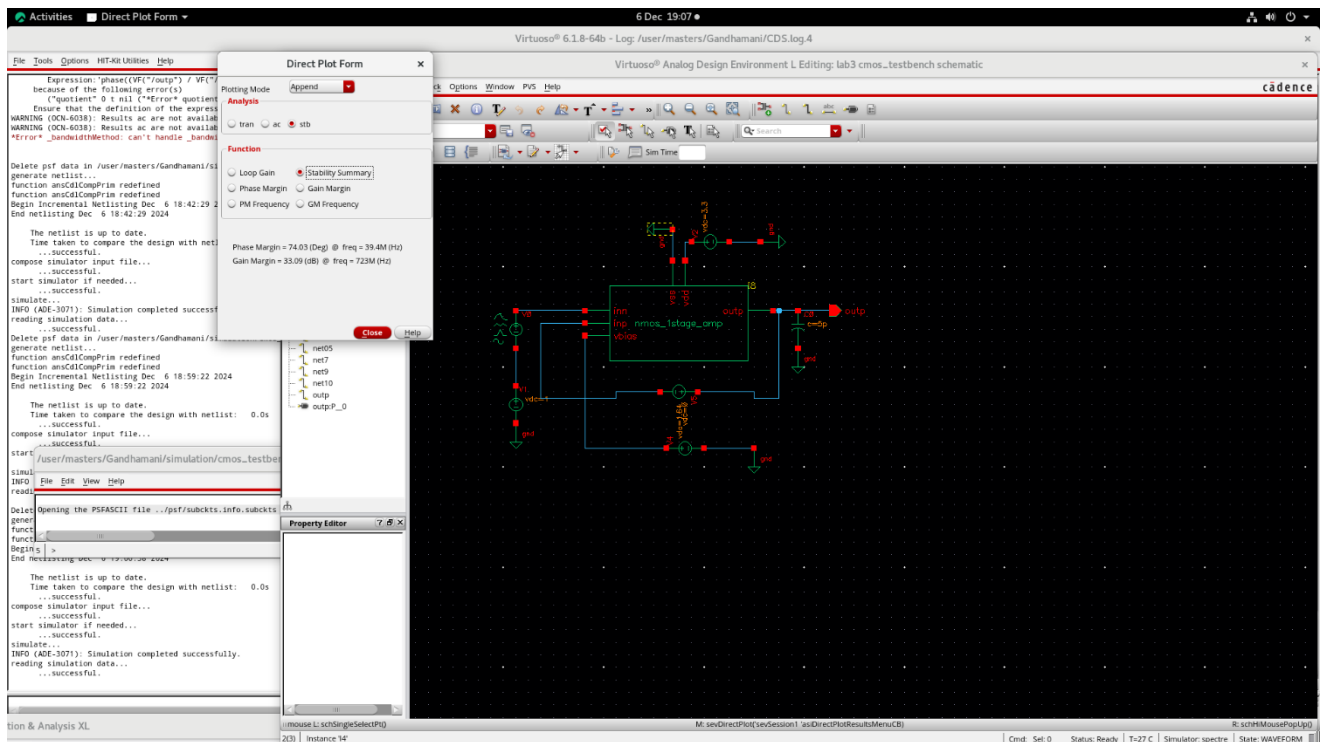
## 4.4 Transient Analysis for Step Response 10mV:



This Transient Response was obtained after changing the delay parameters, pulswidth and other parameters to lower values.



## 5. Stability Summary:



The **stability analysis of a unity gain amplifier** is crucial for ensuring its reliable operation, especially when feedback is applied. Stability is typically quantified by two key metrics: **phase margin** and **gain margin**, both of which indicate how far the system is from conditions that could cause oscillation or instability.

In this case, the amplifier has a **phase margin of 73.4 degrees at 39.4 MHz**. The phase margin is the amount of additional phase shift that can be introduced before the system reaches a critical phase shift of -180 degrees, where oscillations occur. A phase margin above 45 degrees is generally considered stable, and a margin as high as 73.4 degrees indicates that the amplifier is very stable. This means that even with variations in circuit components, temperature, or load, the system has a strong buffer against instability. The frequency of 39.4 MHz at which this phase margin occurs corresponds to the point where the gain of the amplifier has dropped to 0 dB (unity gain).

The **gain margin of 33 dB at 723 MHz** is another critical metric that reflects the stability of the system. Gain margin represents the amount by which the gain can be increased before the system reaches a critical gain of 1 (or 0 dB) at the frequency where the phase shift reaches -180 degrees. A gain margin of 33 dB indicates that the amplifier can handle a significant increase in gain without becoming unstable. The frequency of 723 MHz, where this gain margin is measured, is much higher than the unity gain frequency, meaning that the amplifier has ample stability even at high frequencies. These stability margins ensure the amplifier performs reliably across a wide range of operating conditions, providing confidence in its ability to handle noise, load variations, and component tolerances without degradation in performance. The large phase and gain margins make this amplifier particularly suited for applications where stability under dynamic conditions is critical, such as high-frequency or feedback-intensive systems.



## 6. Output Table:

Parameter	Result	Testbench
Current Consumption	2.834 mA	DC Analysis
AC Closed-loop Gain	0 dB	AC Analysis
AC Closed-loop 3 dB Bandwidth	10 MHz	AC Analysis
Loop Gain at 1 kHz	50 dB	STB Analysis
Loop Gain 3 dB Bandwidth	7.2 MHz	STB Analysis
Loop Gain Unity Gain Frequency	loop gain crosses 0 dB at around 72 MHz	STB Analysis
Phase Margin	74.3°	STB Analysis
Gain Margin	38 dB	STB Analysis
Transient Gain at 1 MHz	1V peak at 1MHz	TRAN Analysis
Step Response Overshoot	5-10%	TRAN Analysis
Figure of Merit (Bandwidth/Power)	1.96 GHz/W	Combined

The design of the unity gain amplifier, as indicated by the performance metrics, is highly efficient in terms of both power consumption and bandwidth, which are critical factors for any high-performance amplifier design.

The **current consumption** of 2.834 mA, derived from the DC analysis, is relatively low, suggesting that the amplifier operates with minimal power usage. This is an important aspect of efficiency, particularly in low-power or battery-operated systems, where power consumption needs to be optimized. This efficiency is further supported by the **figure of merit** of 1.96 GHz/W, which demonstrates that the amplifier delivers a high bandwidth (10 MHz for the 3 dB closed-loop bandwidth) while consuming minimal power. A higher figure of merit indicates that the amplifier is able to achieve a wide operational bandwidth with less power, making it suitable for power-sensitive applications.

In addition, the **AC closed-loop 3 dB bandwidth** of 10 MHz shows that the amplifier is capable of maintaining a stable performance over a wide frequency range, ensuring it can handle diverse signal conditions without significant degradation of its performance. This high bandwidth ensures the amplifier can operate efficiently in a variety of high-frequency applications, without wasting power on frequencies that are out of its effective range.

The **loop gain unity gain frequency** of 72 MHz is another indicator of the design's high efficiency, as it shows that the amplifier can operate effectively at higher frequencies before the loop gain drops below unity, indicating stability at higher operating frequencies. The **gain margin** of 38 dB and **phase margin** of 74.3° confirm that the amplifier is stable even at high frequencies, avoiding any risk of oscillation or instability that would otherwise waste power and degrade the signal integrity.

Lastly, the **transient response**, which shows a **step response overshoot** of only 5-10%, indicates that

the amplifier's transient behavior is controlled and efficient, with minimal overshoot or ringing that could result in signal distortion or unnecessary power dissipation.

Overall, the amplifier is efficient in both power consumption and signal handling, delivering high performance across multiple metrics without unnecessary energy expenditure. The combination of low current consumption, wide bandwidth, high figure of merit, and stable transient and steady-state behavior makes this design a highly efficient solution for a wide range of applications.

## **7. Unix Path:**

**/user/masters/Gandhamani/EE4022\_labs/cds.lib**

**The project is done in Lab 3 directly.** So the outputs states in ADEL for Lab 3 were deleted in order to start this project in lab 3 for easier execution.

## **8. Conclusion: Key Take Aways.**

In conclusion, the unity gain amplifier design demonstrates exceptional efficiency and performance across a range of critical metrics. With a low current consumption of 2.834 mA and a high figure of merit of 1.96 GHz/W, the amplifier strikes an optimal balance between power usage and operational bandwidth. Its stable performance, as indicated by the 10 MHz AC closed-loop 3 dB bandwidth, high loop gain unity frequency of 72 MHz, and robust phase and gain margins, ensures reliable operation even at high frequencies. The controlled transient response further highlights the amplifier's efficiency, with minimal overshoot, preventing signal distortion and unnecessary power dissipation. Overall, this unity gain amplifier is an efficient and highly capable design, suitable for power-sensitive, high-performance applications where bandwidth, stability, and low power consumption are paramount.

## **9. Self Reflection:**

In reflecting on my experience in the EE4022 course module, focusing on DC, AC, Transient, and STB Analysis, I've gained a comprehensive understanding of both the theoretical and practical aspects of amplifier design. The module guided me from the very basics of electrical circuit analysis to the advanced techniques required for designing and evaluating a unity gain amplifier.

Starting with DC analysis, I learned how to analyze circuits under steady-state conditions, measuring key parameters like current, voltage, and power. This foundational knowledge helped me understand the behavior of circuits when no time-varying signals are present. I applied these principles in practical lab exercises, where I was able to verify my calculations and observations with real-world measurements.

AC analysis was the next major area of focus. Here, I learned how to analyze circuits in the frequency domain, determining the frequency response of various components. This helped me understand how amplifiers behave across different frequencies and allowed me to calculate important characteristics such as the AC closed-loop gain and bandwidth. I gained hands-on experience with the significance of gain and phase margins, which are critical for ensuring the stability and performance of the amplifier.

In the Transient analysis section, I was introduced to time-domain analysis, where I learned to simulate and measure the time-varying responses of circuits. This was crucial for understanding how amplifiers respond to inputs like step functions and sinusoidal signals. I was able to observe the time-domain behavior, including overshoot and settling time, which are vital for understanding the amplifier's performance under dynamic conditions.

The Stability (STB) analysis was an essential part of the course, where I learned about the phase and gain margins and the impact of these factors on the overall stability of the amplifier. The stability analysis helped me design an amplifier that could maintain its performance without risking oscillations or instability, even at higher frequencies.

Designing the unity gain amplifier, in particular, was an invaluable experience. By applying the knowledge gained from DC, AC, Transient, and STB analysis, I was able to design and simulate a fully functional amplifier. Through the lab, I understood the importance of optimizing the design to balance power consumption, bandwidth, gain, and stability. I also learned how to evaluate the amplifier's performance, measuring key parameters such as the closed-loop gain, phase margin, and bandwidth.

Overall, this course module has significantly enhanced my understanding of amplifier design and circuit analysis. It provided me with the skills to analyze and design amplifiers from both a theoretical and practical standpoint. I now feel more confident in my ability to approach complex analogue circuit design tasks, and I am equipped with the tools to optimize amplifier performance based on various design criteria.

