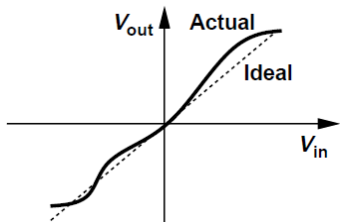


# ***Chapter 14: Nonlinearity and Mismatch***

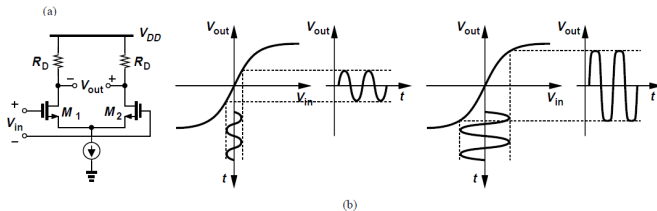
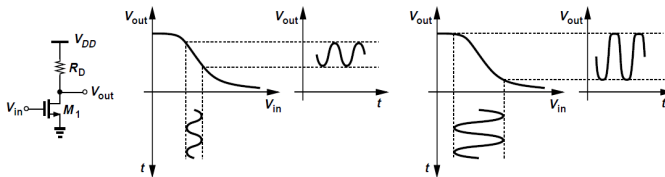
## **14.1 Nonlinearity**

## **14.2 Mismatch**

# Nonlinearity: General Considerations



- Nonlinear characteristic deviates from a straight line as the input swing increases
- E.g., Common-source stage or differential pair

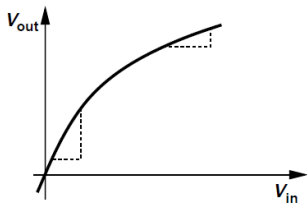


# Nonlinearity: General Considerations

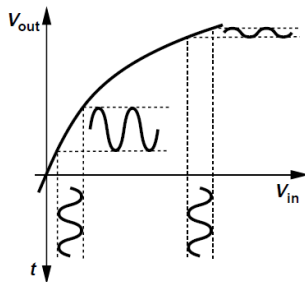
- Nonlinear input/output characteristic can be approximated by a polynomial in the range of interest

$$y(t) = \alpha_1 x(t) + \alpha_2 x^2(t) + \alpha_3 x^3(t) + \dots$$

- For small  $x$ ,  $y(t) \approx \alpha_1 x$ , indicating that  $\alpha_1$  is the small-signal gain in the vicinity of  $x \approx 0$



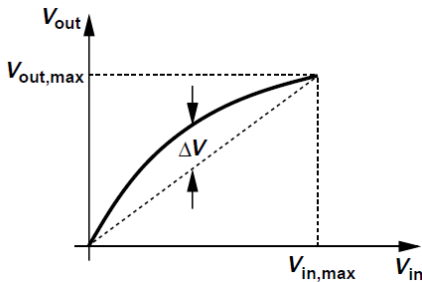
(a)



(b)

# Nonlinearity: General Considerations

- Nonlinearity can be quantified by specifying maximum deviation of characteristic from an ideal one



- For voltage range of interest, pass straight line through end points of actual characteristic and obtain maximum deviation  $\Delta V$
- Normalize to maximum output swing  $V_{out,max}$
- 1% nonlinearity for an input range of 1 V means

$$(\Delta V / V_{out,max} = 0.01)$$

## Nonlinearity: General Considerations

- **Nonlinearity can also be characterized by applying a sinusoid at input and measuring harmonic content of output**
- **If  $x(t) = A \cos \omega t$ , then**  
$$y(t) = \alpha_1 A \cos \omega t + \alpha_2 A^2 \cos^2 \omega t + \alpha_3 \cos^3 \omega t + \dots$$
$$= \alpha_1 A \cos \omega t + \frac{\alpha_2 A^2}{2} [1 + \cos(2\omega t)] + \frac{\alpha_3 A^3}{4} [3 \cos \omega t + \cos(3\omega t)] + \dots$$
- **Magnitude of  $n$ th harmonic grows roughly in proportion to  $n$ th power of input amplitude**
- **Quantified by summing the power of all harmonics except fundamental and normalizing to power of fundamental, metric called as “total harmonic distortion” (THD)**
- **For a third-order nonlinearity,**

$$THD = \frac{(\alpha_2 A^2/2)^2 + (\alpha_3 A^3/4)^2}{(\alpha_1 A + 3\alpha_3 A^3/4)^2}$$

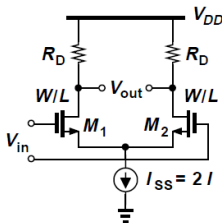
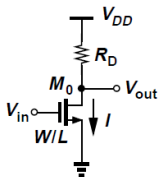
# Nonlinearity of Differential Circuits

- Differential circuits exhibit “odd-symmetric” characteristic
- Even-order terms  $\alpha_2j$  in polynomial must be zero:

$$y(t) = \alpha_1 x(t) + \alpha_3 x^3(t) + \alpha_5 x^5(t) + \dots$$

- Differential circuit driven by a differential signal produces no even harmonics
- Consider two amplifiers providing equal small-signal voltage gain of

$$\begin{aligned} |A_v| &\approx g_m R_D \\ &= \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TH}) R_D \end{aligned}$$



# Nonlinearity of Differential Circuits

- If an input  $V_m \cos \omega t$  is applied to each circuit, for common-source stage,

$$I_{D0} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TH} + V_m \cos \omega t)^2$$

$$= I + \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TH}) V_m \cos \omega t + \frac{1}{4} \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} V_m^2 [1 + \cos(2\omega t)]$$

- Amplitude of second harmonic normalized to fundamental is

$$\frac{A_{HD2}}{A_F} = \frac{V_m}{4(V_{GS} - V_{TH})}$$

- For the differential pair, it can be shown that

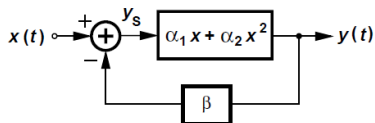
$$I_{D1} - I_{D2} = g_m \left[ V_m - \frac{3V_m^3}{32(V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2} \right] \cos \omega t - g_m \frac{V_m^3 \cos(3\omega t)}{32(V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2}$$

If  $V_m \gg 3V_m^3 / [8(V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2]$

- Differential pair ex  $\frac{A_{HD3}}{A_F} \approx \frac{V_m^2}{32(V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2}$  distortion for same gain and output swing, at the cost of higher power

# Effect of Negative Feedback on Nonlinearity

- Expected that negative feedback would yield higher linearity for a closed-loop system
- Consider a “mildly nonlinear” system below



- Assume core amplifier has an input/output characteristic  $y \approx \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2$ .
- Apply a sinusoidal input  $x(t) = V_m \cos \omega t$ , postulating that output contains a full second harmonic approximated as  $y \approx a \cos \omega t + b \cos 2\omega t$ .
- Through simple analysis, we can get

$$a = (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \beta b)(V_m - \beta a)$$

$$b = -\alpha_1 \beta b + \frac{\alpha_2 (V_m - \beta a)^2}{2}$$



# Effect of Negative Feedback on Nonlinearity

- Small nonlinearity means  $\alpha_2$  and  $\beta$  are small quantities, so that  $a \approx \alpha_1(V_m - \beta a)$  and hence

$$a = \frac{\alpha_1}{1 + \beta\alpha_1} V_m$$

- $b$  can be found as

$$b = \frac{\alpha_2 V_m^2}{2} \frac{1}{(1 + \beta\alpha_1)^3}$$

- Normalize amplitude of second harmonic to that of fundamental

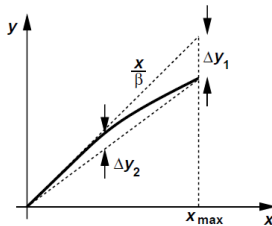
$$\frac{b}{a} = \frac{\alpha_2 V_m}{2} \frac{1}{\alpha_1} \frac{1}{(1 + \beta\alpha_1)^2}$$

- Without feedback, this ratio would be  $\alpha_2 V_m / (2\alpha_1)$
- Negative feedback reduces relative second harmonic by a factor of  $(1 + \beta\alpha_1)^2$  and gain by  $1 + \beta\alpha_1$

$$(1 + \beta\alpha_1)^2 \quad 1 + \beta\alpha_1$$

# Effect of Negative Feedback on Nonlinearity

- Feedforward amplifier in a feedback system suffers from gain error
- For a feedforward gain  $A0$  and feedback factor  $\beta$ , relative gain error is approximately  $1/(\beta A0)$
- Possible to derive a relationship between gain error and maximum nonlinearity of overall feedback circuit



- In above fig., nonlinearity,  $\Delta y_1$ , is always less than gain error,  $\Delta y_2$
- Choose high open-loop amplifier gain so that to guarantee  $\Delta y_2 < \epsilon$

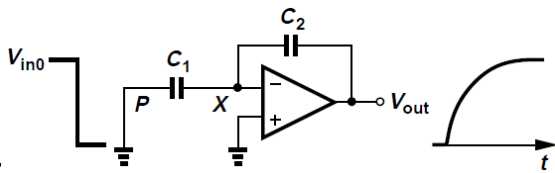
$$\Delta y_1 < \epsilon$$

# Capacitor Nonlinearity

- For a linear capacitor,  $Q = CV$  while for a voltage-dependent capacitor  $dQ = C dV$
- Total charge on a capacitor sustaining a voltage  $V_1$  is

$$Q(V_1) = \int_0^{V_1} C dV.$$

- Charge depends on history of voltage rather than instantaneous value
- Express each capacitor as  $C = C_0(1 + \alpha_1 V + \alpha_2 V^2 + \dots)$
- Consider noninverting amplifier below



- At the start of amplification mode,  $C_1$  has a voltage of  $V_{in0}$  and  $C_2$  a voltage of zero

# Capacitor Nonlinearity

- Assuming  $C_1 \approx MC_0(1 + \alpha_1 V)$  where  $M$  is the nominal closed-loop gain, charge across  $C_1$  is

$$\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= \int_0^{V_{in0}} C_1 dV \\ &= \int_0^{V_{in0}} MC_0(1 + \alpha_1 V) dV \\ &= MC_0 V_{in0} + MC_0 \frac{\alpha_1}{2} V_{in0}^2. \end{aligned}$$

- Similarly, if  $C_2 \approx C_0(1 + \alpha_1 V)$ , charge across it at the end of amplification mode is

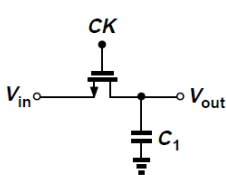
$$Q_2 = \int_0^{V_{out}} C_2 dV$$

- Equating  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  gives  $V_{out} = V_{in0} + \frac{\alpha_1}{2} V_{in0}^2$  for  $V_{out}$ ,

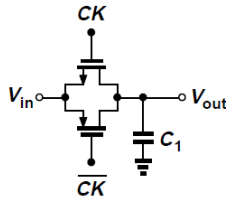
- For  $\alpha_1 V_{in0} \ll 1$ ,  $V_{out} \approx V_{in0} + \frac{\alpha_1}{2} V_{in0}^2$
- Second term represents nonlinearity due to capacitor voltage-dependence

# Nonlinearity in Sampling Circuits

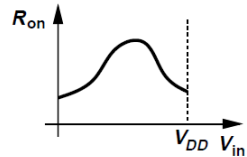
- On-resistance of MOS switches varies with input and output levels
- NMOS switch in Fig. (a) exhibits rising resistance as  $V_{in}$  and  $V_{out}$  increase
- Complementary topology of Fig. (b) displays varying equivalent resistance as  $V_{in}$  and  $V_{out}$  go from 0 to  $V_{DD}$
- $R_{on}$  reaches a peak here due to dependence of mobility on the vertical field in the channel



(a)

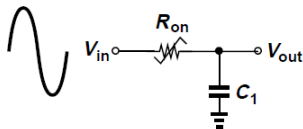


(b)



# Nonlinearity in Sampling Circuits

- We apply a large sinusoid to the input,  $V_{in} = V_0 \cos \omega_0 t + V_0$  where  $V_0 = VDD/2$  and seek harmonics at the output



- First assume resistance is linear and write output as

$$V_{out}(t) = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R_{on}^2 C_1^2 \omega_0^2 + 1}} \cos[\omega_0 t - \tan^{-1}(R_{on} C_1 \omega_0)] + V_0$$

- In practice, bandwidth must be large enough to negligibly attenuate the signal, i.e.,  $R_{on} C_1 \omega_0 \ll 1$  so that

$$V_{out}(t) \approx V_0 \cos(\omega_0 t - R_{on} C_1 \omega_0) + V_0$$

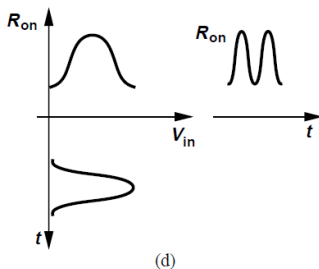
- Assume this expression holds for the nonlinear circuit if  $R_{on}$  is represented properly
- Phase shift from input to output varies as  $V_{in}$  and  $V_{out}$  vary, creating distortion

# Nonlinearity in Sampling Circuits

- For a periodic input,  $R_{on}$  also varies periodically and can be approximated by a Fourier series

$$R_{on}(t) = R_0 + R_1 \cos \omega_0 t + R_2 \cos(2\omega_0 t) + \dots$$

- For a roughly symmetric behavior of  $R_{on}$ , the time-domain behavior below is observed where  $R_{on}$  varies at twice the input frequency



- Thus,

$$V_{out}(t) \approx V_0 \cos[\omega_0 t - R_0 C_1 \omega_0 - R_1 C_1 \omega_0 \cos \omega_0 t - R_2 C_1 \omega_0 \cos(2\omega_0 t) - \dots] + V_0.$$

# Nonlinearity in Sampling Circuits

- **For cosine terms with arguments much less than 1 rad,**

$$V_{out}(t) \approx V_0 \cos(\omega_0 t - R_0 C_1 \omega_0) + \\ [R_1 C_1 \omega_0 \cos \omega_0 t + R_2 C_1 \omega_0 \cos(2\omega_0 t) + \dots] V_0 \sin(\omega_0 t - R_0 C_1 \omega_0) + V_0$$

- **If only first two harmonics are retained, then**

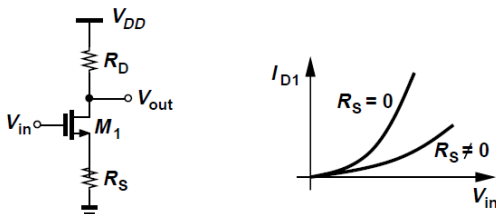
$$\text{THD} = \frac{R_1^2 + R_2^2}{4} C_1^2 \omega_0^2$$

- **In a differential sampling switch, even-order harmonics are suppressed**



# Linearization Techniques

- Principle behind linearization is to reduce dependence of circuit's gain on input level
- Make gain relatively independent of bias currents
- Simplest method is by means of a linear resistor



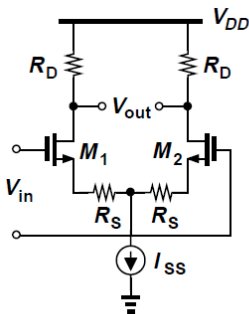
- Overall transconductance of degenerated CS stage is

$$G_m = \frac{g_m}{1 + g_m R_S}$$

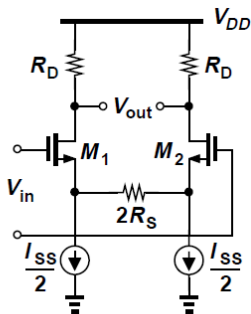
- For large  $g_m R_S$ , the value approaches  $1/R_S$ , an input-independent value

# Linearization Techniques

- Differential pair can be degenerated as shown in Figs. (a) and (b)



(a)

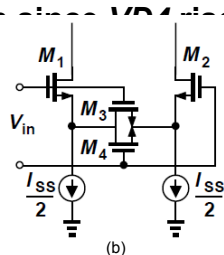
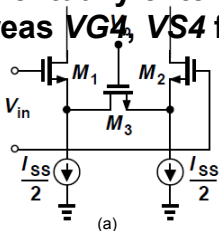


(b)

- In Fig. (a), degeneration resistors consume headroom of  $I_{SS}R_S/2$
- Circuit of Fig. (b) does not have this issue but suffers from higher noise and offset voltage

# Linearization Techniques

- Degeneration resistor can be replaced by a MOSFET operating in deep triode region [Fig. (a)]
- For large input swings,  $M_3$  may not remain in deep triode
- $V_b$  must track  $V_{in,CM}$  so that  $R_{on}$  is defined accurately
- Fig. (b) shows more a practical solution where  $M_3$  and  $M_4$  are in deep triode for  $V_{in} = 0$
- As  $V_{G1} > V_{G2}$ ,  $M_3$  stays in triode since  $V_{D3} = V_{G3} - V_{G1}$
- $M_4$  eventually enters saturation since  $V_{D4} > V_{G4}$  whereas  $V_{G4}$ ,  $V_{S4}$  fall

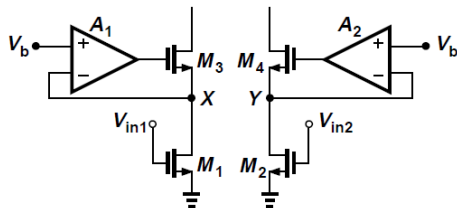


# Linearization Techniques

- MOSFET operating in triode region can provide a linear  $I_D/V_{DS}$  characteristic if  $V_{DS}$  is held constant

$$I_D = (1/2)\mu C_{ox}(W/L)[2(V_{GS} - V_{TH})V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2]$$

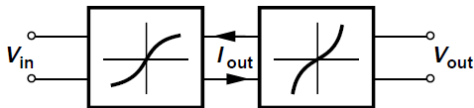
- This technique employs amplifiers **A1** and **A2** with cascode devices **M3** and **M4** to force  $V_X$  and  $V_Y$  to be equal to  $V_b$  for varying input levels



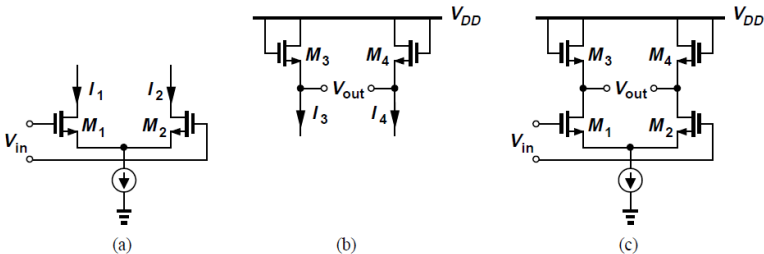
- $g_{m1} = g_{m2} =$  is small since  $V_{DS}$  must be low to ensure  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  remain in triode region
- $V_{in,CM}$  must be tightly controlled to track  $V_b$  to define  $I_{D1}$  and  $I_{D2}$

# Linearization Techniques

- Another approach to linearization: “post-correction”
- View the amplifier as a cascade of voltage-to-current (V/I) converter and a current-to-voltage (I/V) converter

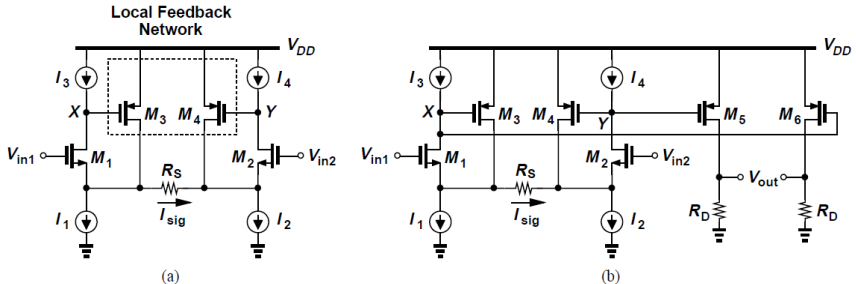


- If the V/I converter can be described as  $I_{out} = f(V_{in})$  and the I/V converter as  $V_{out} = f^{-1}(I_{in})$ , then  $V_{out}$  is a linear function of  $V_{in}$ , for e.g. figs. (a), (b), (c)



# Linearization Techniques

- Possible to linearize differential pair further by adding local feedback



- return a proportional current to the sources of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$
- Assume circuit is symmetric and  $I_1 = \dots = I_4$
- Ignoring CLM and body-effect,  $I_{D1} = I_3$  and  $I_{D2} = I_4$  regardless of the input signal

# Linearization Techniques

- Input transistors maintain a constant  $V_{GS}$  as  $V_{in} = V_{in1} - V_{in2}$  varies
- Current through  $R_S$  ( $I_{sig}$ ) must be provided only by  $M3$  and  $M4$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}V_{in} &= V_{GS1} + I_{sig}R_S - V_{GS2} \\ &= I_{sig}R_S\end{aligned}$$

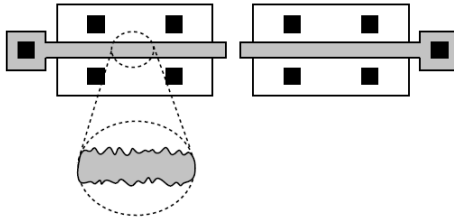
- Output voltage of this topology can be found to be

$$V_{out} = \frac{2R_D}{R_S}V_{in}$$

- Large number of devices in signal path produce significant noise
- Dependence of  $r_O$  upon  $V_{DS}$  in short-channel devices introduces some nonlinearity

# Mismatch

- **Nominally-identical devices suffer from finite mismatch due to uncertainties in manufacturing process**
- **Gate dimensions of MOSFETs suffer from random, microscopic variations and introduce mismatches between two transistors identically laid out**
- **MOS devices exhibit  $V_{TH}$  mismatches since  $V_{TH}$  is a function of doping levels in the channel and gate which vary randomly**





# Mismatch

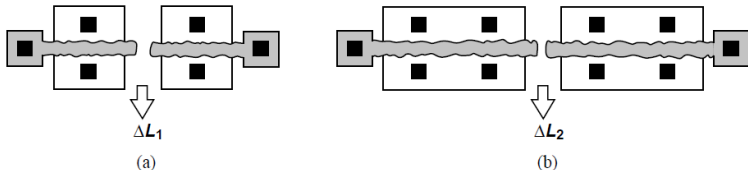
- Study of mismatch consists of two steps:
- Identify and formulate the mechanisms leading to mismatch between devices
- Analyze the effect of device mismatches upon the performance of circuits
- For a MOSFET in saturation,

$$I_D = (1/2)\mu C_{ox}(W/L)(V_{GS} - V_{TH})^2$$

- Mismatches between  $\mu$ ,  $C_{ox}$ ,  $W$ ,  $L$ , and  $V_{TH}$  result in mismatches between  $I_D$ 's (for a given  $V_{GS}$ ) or  $V_{GS}$ 's (for a given  $I_D$ ) of two nominally-identical transistors
- Intuitively, as  $W$  and  $L$  increase, their relative mismatches  $\Delta W/W$  and  $\Delta L/L$ , i.e., larger devices exhibit smaller mismatches

# Mismatch

- All mismatches decrease as the area, WL increases
- As WL increases, random variations experience greater “averaging”, falling in magnitude



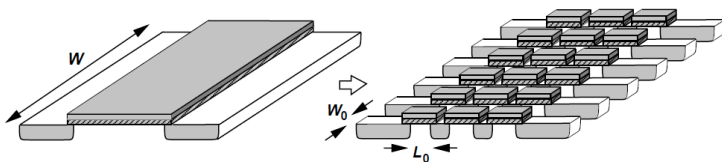
- For the above case,  $\Delta L_2 < \Delta L_1$  because if the device is viewed as many smaller parallel transistors, each with width  $W_0$ , equivalent length is

- Overall variability  $L_{eq} \approx (L_1 + L_2 + \dots + L_n)/n$

- $\sigma[\Delta L_{eq}] \approx (\Delta L_1^2 + \Delta L_2^2 + \dots + \Delta L_n^2)^{1/2}/n = \frac{(n\Delta L_0^2)^{1/2}}{n} = \frac{\Delta L_0}{\sqrt{n}}$  for width  $W_0$

# Mismatch

- $\mu C_{ox}$  and  $V_{TH}$  suffer from less mismatch if device area increases



- A large transistor can be decomposed into a series and parallel combination of small unit transistors with dimensions  $W_0$  and  $L_0$ , each exhibiting  $(\mu C_{ox})_j$  and  $V_{THj}$
- These experience greater averaging as number of unit transistors increases

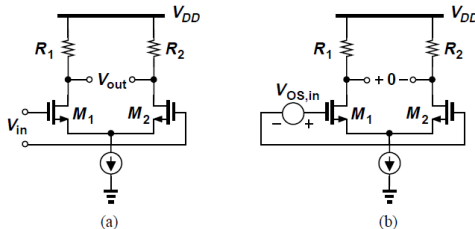
$$\Delta V_{TH} = \frac{A_{VTH}}{\sqrt{WL}}$$

$$\Delta \left( \mu C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} \right) = \frac{A_K}{\sqrt{WL}},$$

- $A_{VTH}$  and  $A_K$  are proportionality factors

# Effect of Mismatch

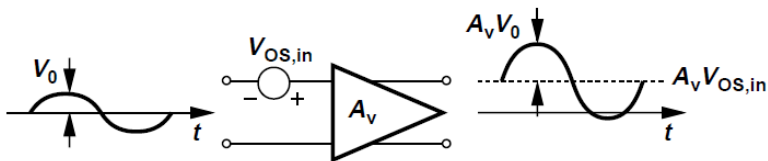
- Mismatches lead to three distinct phenomena:
- DC offsets
- Finite even-order distortion
- Lower common-mode rejection
- DC Offsets:



- In different symmetry,  $V_{out} = 0$  but with mismatches  $V_{out} \neq 0$  and perfect
- Circuit suffers from a “dc offset” equal to the observed value of  $V_{out}$  when  $V_{in}$  is set to zero

## Effect of Mismatch

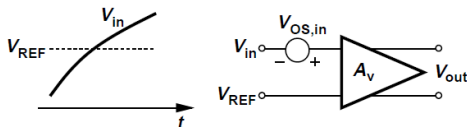
- More meaningful to specify input-referred offset voltage, defined as the input level that forces the output to go to zero
- Note that  $|V_{OS,in}| = |V_{OS,out}|/A_v$
- If a differential pair is to amplify a small input voltage, output contains amplified replicas of both the signal and the offset



- In a cascade or direct-coupled amplifiers, the ac offset may experience so much gain that it drives the latter stage into nonlinear operation

# Effect of Mismatch

- DC offset also affects the precision with which signals can be measured



- If an amplifier is to determine whether the input signal is greater or less than a reference,  $V_{REF}$ , then the input-referred offset imposes a lower bound on the minimum  $V_{in} - V_{REF}$  that can be detected reliably
- Input-referred offset voltage of a differential pair can be found as

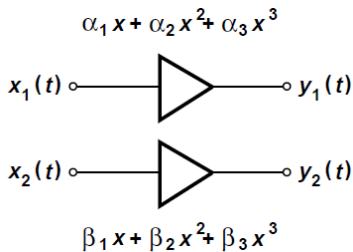
• **More accurate** 
$$V_{OS,in} = \frac{V_{GS} - V_{TH}}{2} \left[ \frac{\Delta R_D}{R_D} + \frac{\Delta(W/L)}{(W/L)} \right] - \Delta V_{TH}$$

$$V_{OS,in}^2 = \left( \frac{V_{GS} - V_{TH}}{2} \right)^2 \left\{ \left( \frac{\Delta R_D}{R_D} \right)^2 + \left[ \frac{\Delta(W/L)}{(W/L)} \right]^2 \right\} + \Delta V_{TH}^2$$

# Effect of Mismatch

- **Even-Order Distortion:**
- **Mismatches introduce finite even-order nonlinearity in differential circuits**
- **If the two signal paths in a differential circuit are represented by  $y_1 \approx \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_1^2 + \alpha_3 x_1^3$  and  $y_2 \approx \beta_1 x_2 + \beta_2 x_2^2 + \beta_3 x_2^3$  the differential output is given by  $y_1 - y_2 = (\alpha_1 x_1 - \beta_2 x_2) + (\alpha_2 x_1^2 - \beta_2 x_2^2) + (\alpha_3 x_1^3 - \beta_3 x_2^3)$**
- **For  $x_1 = -x_2$ , this reduces to**

$$y_1 - y_2 = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1)x_1 + (\alpha_2 - \beta_2)x_1^2 + (\alpha_3 + \beta_3)x_1^3$$

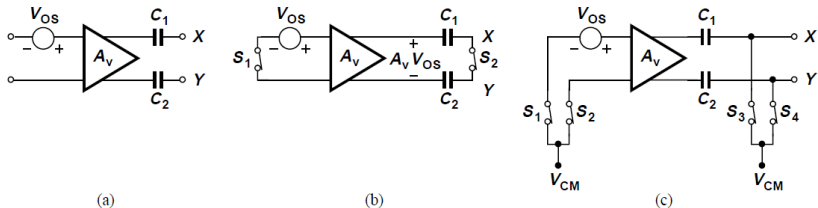


## Effect of Mismatch

- If  $x_1(t) = A \cos \omega t$ , the second harmonic has an amplitude of  $(\alpha_2 - \beta_2)A^2/2$ , i.e., proportional to the mismatch between second-order coefficients of the input/output characteristic
- At high frequencies, signals experience considerable phase shift, even-order distortion may arise from phase mismatch
- In circuits dissipating a high power, thermal gradients across the chip may create asymmetries

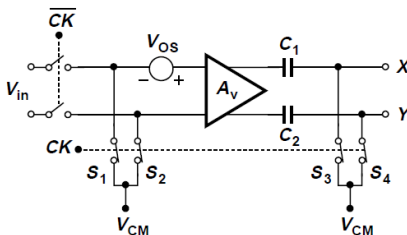


# Offset Cancellation Techniques



- **Differential amplifier with an input-referred offset is followed by two series capacitors [Fig. (a)]**
- **As shown in Fig. (b), inputs are shorted together, driving amplifier output to  $V_{out} = A_v V_{OS}$**
- **Assume  $V_X$  and  $V_Y$  are shorted during this period as well**
- **$A_v V_{OS}$  is stored across  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , zero differential input results in zero differential output**
- **After  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  turn off, there is zero offset voltage**
- **Proper CM voltage needed at input and output**

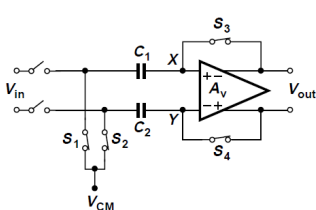
# Offset Cancellation Techniques



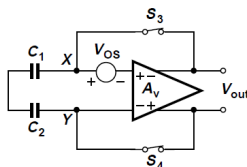
- This technique “measures” the offset by setting the differential input to zero and stores the result on capacitors in series with the output
- Requires a dedicated offset-cancellation period during which actual input is disabled
- Called “output offset storage”, this technique reduces overall mismatch if  $S_3$ - $S_4$  do not have charge injection mismatch
- Large  $A_v$  may saturate output, hence  $A_v$  of roughly 10 is used

# Offset Cancellation Techniques

- In application requiring high voltage gain, topology of Fig. (a) may be used
- Called “input offset storage”, this incorporates two series capacitors at the input and places amplifier in unity-gain feedback loop during offset cancellation



(a)



(b)

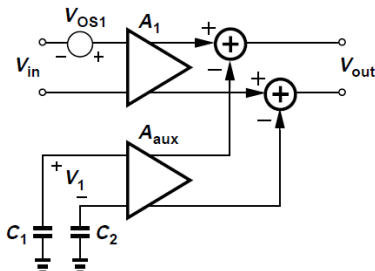
- From Fig. (a),

$$V_{out} = \frac{A_v}{1 + A_v} V_{OS}$$

- $V_{OS,in}$  equal  $V_{OS}$   $\approx V_{OS}$ . match perfectly

# Offset Cancellation Techniques

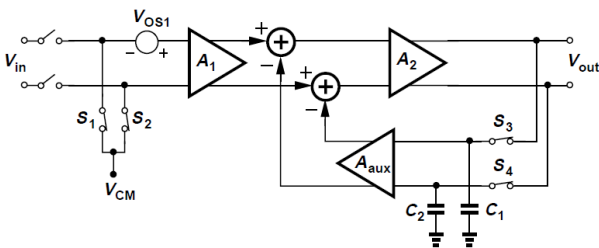
- Offset cancellation can isolate signal path from offset storage capacitors by use of “auxiliary” amplifier



- Consider above circuit, where  $A_{aux}$  amplifies the differential voltage  $V_1$  stored across  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  and subtracts the result from the output of  $A_1$
- If  $V_{OS1}A_1 = V_1A_{aux}$ , then for  $V_{in} = 0$ ,  $V_{out} = 0$  and offsets are cancelled
- $C_1$  and  $C_2$  do not appear in the signal path

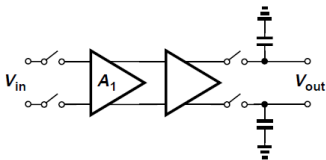
# Offset Cancellation Techniques

- $V_1$  is generated by adding a second stage,  $A_2$  and the output is sensed by  $A_{aux}$  during offset cancellation
- First only  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are on, yielding  $V_{out} = V_{OS1}A_1A_2$
- Next, assume  $S_3$  and  $S_4$  turn on, placing  $A_2$  and  $A_{aux}$  in a negative feedback loop
- $V_{out}$  drops by a factor approximately equal to the loop gain:  $V_{OS1}A_1A_2/(A_2A_{aux}) = V_{OS1}A_1/A_{aux}$
- Stored across  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , this value is indeed the required  $V_1$  because  $(V_{OS1}A_1/A_{aux})A_{aux} = V_{OS1}A_1$

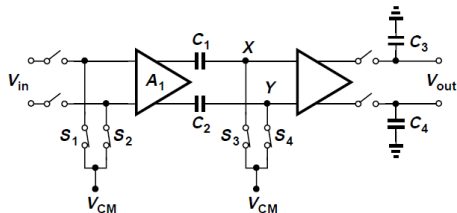


# Reduction of Noise by Offset Cancellation

- Offset of a differential amplifier can be viewed as a noise component having a very low frequency
- Consider a differential amplifier to be used at the front end of a sampling system [Fig. (a)]
- Noise of  $A_1$  directly corrupts  $V_{in}$ , especially  $1/f$  noise
- In Fig. (b), amplifier undergoes offset cancellation before every sampling operation
- If time elapsed from end of offset cancellation to end of sampling is  $\Delta t$ , noise frequencies below  $1/\Delta t$  are suppressed



(a)



(b)

## Alternative Definition of CMRR

- Consider a differential circuit sensing an input CM change,  $\Delta V_{in,CM}$
- If the differential output voltage changes by  $\Delta V_{out}$  while the differential input voltage is zero, we can say that the output offset voltage of the circuit has changed by  $\Delta V_{out}$
- In other words,

$$A_{CM-DM} = \frac{\Delta V_{OS,out}}{\Delta V_{CM,in}}$$

- Since  $CMRR = A_{DM}/A_{CM-DM}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} CMRR &= \frac{A_{DM}}{\frac{\Delta V_{OS,out}}{\Delta V_{CM,in}}} \\ &= \frac{\Delta V_{CM,in}}{\frac{\Delta V_{OS,out}}{A_{DM}}} \end{aligned}$$

## Alternative Definition of CMRR

- Since  $\Delta V_{OS,out}/A_{DM}$  is the input-referred offset voltage, we have

$$CMRR = \frac{\Delta V_{CM,in}}{\Delta V_{OS,in}}$$

- This result proves useful in analyzing behavior of circuits
- In circuit of Fig. (a), body effect is eliminated and  $V_{TH1,2}$  does not depend on  $V_{in,CM}$
- $M_1, M_2$  in Fig. (b) experience body effect and thus have mismatch in  $V_{TH1}$  and  $V_{TH2}$ , degrading its CMRR

