# 2021\_01\_13\_EE538\_Lecture2\_W2021

January 12, 2021

# 1 EE 538: Analog Integrated Circuit Design

- 1.1 Winter 2021
- 1.2 Instructor: Jason Silver
- 1.3 Python packages/modules

```
[37]: import matplotlib as mpl
      from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
      import numpy as np
      from scipy import signal
      #%matplotlib notebook
      mpl.rcParams['font.size'] = 12
      mpl.rcParams['legend.fontsize'] = 'large'
      def plot_xy(x, y, xlabel, ylabel):
          fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10.0, 7.5));
          ax.plot(x, y, 'b');
          ax.grid();
          ax.set_xlabel(xlabel);
          ax.set_ylabel(ylabel);
      def plot_xy2(x1, y1, x1label, y1label, x2, y2, x2label, y2label):
          fig, ax = plt.subplots(2, figsize = (10.0, 7.5));
          ax[0].plot(x1, y1, 'b');
          ax[0].set_ylabel(y1label)
          ax[0].grid()
          ax[1].plot(x2, y2, 'b');
          ax[1].set_xlabel(x1label)
          ax[1].set_xlabel(x2label);
          ax[1].set_ylabel(y2label);
          ax[1].grid();
          fig.align_ylabels(ax[:])
```

```
def plot_xlogy(x, y, xlabel, ylabel):
   fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10.0, 7.5));
   ax.semilogy(x, y, 'b');
   ax.grid();
   ax.set_xlabel(xlabel);
   ax.set_ylabel(ylabel);
def nmos_iv_sweep(V_gs, V_ds, W, L, lmda):
                             # electron mobility (device parameter)
   \mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{n}} = 350
   e_ox = 3.9*8.854e-12/100; # relative permittivity
   C_{ox} = e_{ox}/t_{ox}
                            # oxide capacitance
   V_{thn} = 0.7
                              # threshold voltage (device parameter)
   V_{ov} = V_{gs} - V_{thn}
   Ldn = 0.08e-6
   Leff = L - 2*Ldn
   Id = []
   for i in range(len(V_ds)):
       I_d.append(np.piecewise(V_ds[i], [V_ds[i] < V_ov, V_ds[i] >= V_ov],
                       [u_n*C_ox*(W/Leff)*(V_gs - V_thn - V_ds[i]/
 \rightarrow2)*V_ds[i]*(1+lmda*V_ds[i]),
                       0.5*u_n*C_ox*(W/Leff)*(V_gs_{-u})
\rightarrowV_thn)**2*(1+lmda*V_ds[i])]))
   return np.array(I_d)
def pmos_iv_sweep(V_sg, V_sd, W, L, lmda):
   u_p = 100
                             # electron mobility (device parameter)
   e_ox = 3.9*8.854e-12/100; # relative permittivity
   C_ox = e_ox/t_ox
V_thp = -0.8
                            # oxide capacitance
                              # threshold voltage (device parameter)
   V_{ov} = V_{sg} - np.abs(V_{thp})
   Ldp = 0.09e-6
   Leff = L - 2*Ldp
   I_d = []
   for i in range(len(V_sd)):
       I_d.append(np.piecewise(V_sd[i], [V_sd[i] < V_ov, V_sd[i] >= V_ov],
                       [u_p*C_ox*(W/Leff)*(V_sg - np.abs(V_thp) - V_sd[i]/
 \rightarrow2)*V_sd[i]*(1+lmda*V_sd[i]),
                        0.5*u_p*C_ox*(W/Leff)*(V_sg - np.
 \rightarrowabs(V_thp))**2*(1+lmda*V_sd[i])]))
```

```
return np.array(I_d)
def nmos_iv_sat(V_gs, V_ds, W, L, lmda):
                             # electron mobility (device parameter)
   u_n = 350
   e_ox = 3.9*8.854e-12/100; # relative permittivity
                           # oxide thickness
   t_ox = 9e-9*100;
   C_ox = e_ox/t_ox
                         # oxide capacitance
   V_{thn} = 0.7
                             # threshold voltage (device parameter)
   V_{ov} = V_{gs} - V_{thn}
   Ldn = 0.08e-6
   Leff = L - 2*Ldn
   I_d = 0.5*u_n*C_ox*(W/Leff)*(V_gs - V_thn)**2*(1+lmda*V_ds)
   return I_d
```

# 2 Lecture 2 - Single-Stage MOS Amplifiers

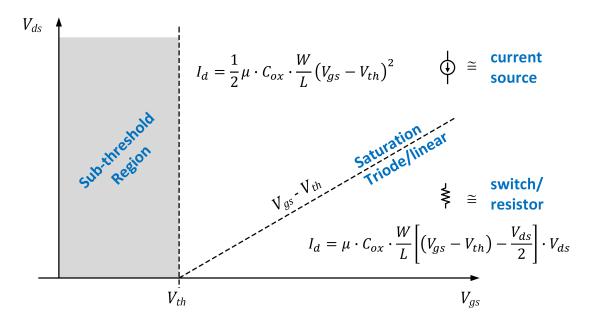
#### 2.1 Week 2

- Chapter 2 of Razavi (basic MOS physics)
  - Review: DC small signal model (2.4.3)
- Chapter 3 of Razavi (single-stage amplifiers)
- Chapter 5 of Razavi (current mirrors)
  - Section 5.1 Basic Current Mirrors

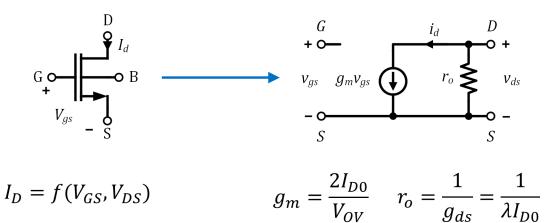
#### 2.2 Overview

- Last time...
  - MOSFET drain current a product of vertical ( $V_{GS}$ ) and lateral ( $V_{DS}$ ) electric fields
  - MOS behaves as a resistor in triode ( $V_{DS} << V_{GS} V_{TH}$ ) and a current source in saturation ( $V_{DS} > V_{GS} V_{TH}$ )
  - Small-signal model obtained by linearizing MOS behavior about a DC operating point (i.e. specific value of  $V_{GS} = V_{GS0}$ )
- Today...
  - Small signal model, cont.
  - PMOS transistors
  - Common source amplifier
    - \* Passive load
    - \* Active load
  - Basic current mirror

# 2.3 First-order MOS model summary

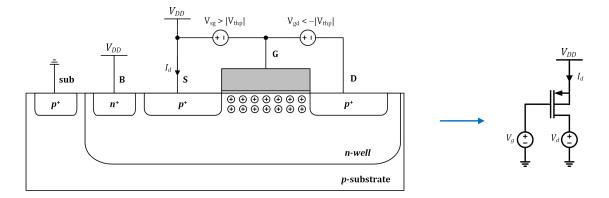


## 2.4 DC small-signal model



- Small-signal model replaces nonlinear  $I_D(V_{GS}, V_{DS})$  with linear parameters  $g_m$  and  $r_o$  that enable the use of linear circuit analysis techniques
- Important: All DC voltages become AC ground in the small-signal model

### **PMOS** transistor



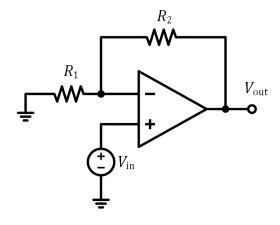
- In CMOS processes, PMOS transistors are produced in the same substrate as NMOS
- To operate in saturation, the following requirements must be satisfied:

$$-V_{sg} > |V_{thp}|$$
  
 $-V_{sd} > V_{sg} - |V_{thp}|$ 

 $-V_{sg} > |V_{thp}|$   $-V_{sd} > V_{sg} - |V_{thp}|$ • The saturation current for a *PMOS* transistor is thus given by

$$I_d = \frac{1}{2}\mu_p C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{sg} - |V_{thp}|)^2 (1 + \lambda V_{sd})$$
 (1)

## High-gain amplifier design



$$G = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{A_v}{1 + \beta A_v} \tag{2}$$

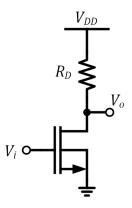
$$\beta = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \tag{3}$$

• if  $\beta A_v >> 1$ ,

$$G = \frac{A_v}{1 + \beta A_v} \to \frac{1}{\beta} \tag{4}$$

- High-gain amplifiers are used to desensitize transfer functions to temperature- and manufacturing-dependent physical parameters (e.g.  $g_m$  and  $r_o$ )
- Typical values of  $A_v$  for opamps are 100 140dB (100,000 10,000,000V/V)
- High *open-loop* gain  $(A_v) \rightarrow \text{precise } closed-loop \text{ gain } (G)$
- For this reason, when designing CMOS amplifiers (i.e. opamps and OTAs) substantial emphasis is placed on achieving high open-loop gain

#### 2.7 Common-source amplifier



$$I_{d} = \frac{1}{2}\mu \cdot C_{ox} \cdot \frac{W}{L}(V_{i} - V_{th})^{2}(1 + \lambda V_{o})$$
(5)

$$V_o = V_{DD} - I_d \cdot R_D \tag{6}$$

- The common-source amplifier is an exemplary model of how we achieve gain in analog circuits:
  - Change in the output current  $\Delta I_d$  is realized (primarily) by a change in the input voltage  $\Delta V_i$  and the voltage-current relationship of the device
  - Output voltage changes as the result of  $\Delta I_d$  flowing through the output resistance of the circuit (in this case,  $R_D$ )

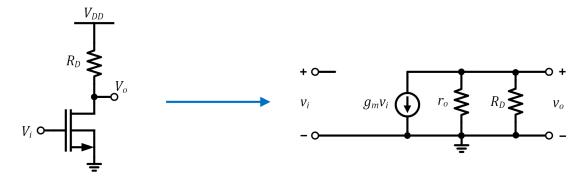
#### 2.8 Ouput voltage minimum/maximum (swing)

- For the maximum voltage, when  $V_o = V_{DD}$ , current no longer flows through  $R_D$  and changes in the input cannot effect changes in the output
- For the minimum, to ensure the transistor remains in saturation  $V_o$  should be greater than the overdrive voltage,  $V_i V_{th}$
- The valid range of output voltages is thus

$$V_i - V_{th} < V_o < V_{DD} \tag{7}$$

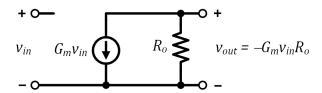
• Assuming signals swing symmetrically above and below the operating point, we can maximize use of the output swing by selecting  $R_D$  and  $I_D$  to an output operating point at the output of  $V_O = V_{DD}/2$ 

#### 2.9 Small-signal model



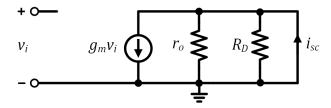
- $V_{DD}$  is a DC (constant) voltage, making it an AC (small-signal) ground
- $r_o$  and  $R_D$  appear in parallel in the small-signal model

#### 2.10 MOS amplifier analysis



- Voltage gain in transistor-based circuits is *almost always* realized as the product of a transconductance  $G_m$  and a small-signal resistance  $R_o$
- Analysis approach: Use Norton analysis to determine the parameters  $G_m$  and  $R_o$  using the small signal model
  - Find the short-circuit current  $i_{sc}$  to determine  $G_m = i_{sc}/v_{in}$
  - The output resistance  $R_o$  is determiend by setting  $v_{in} = 0$ , applying a test voltage to the output, and finding the expression for the resulting current

#### 2.11 Common-source Norton model (Gm)

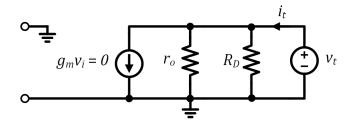


- To determine  $G_m$  in the Norton model, short the output terminals and measure  $i_{sc}$
- Due to the short circuit, no current flows through  $r_o$  or  $R_D$
- $G_m$  is determined by taking the ratio of  $i_{sc}$  to  $v_i$ :

$$G_m = \frac{i_{sc}}{v_i} = \frac{g_m \cdot v_i}{v_i} = g_m \tag{8}$$

• Thus, in the case of the common-source amplifier,  $G_m = g_m$ 

#### 2.12 Common-source Norton model (Ro)



- To determine  $R_o$ , apply a test voltage  $v_t$  between the output terminals and measure  $i_t$
- Here we can see that  $i_t$  is given by

$$i_t = v_t \cdot \left(\frac{1}{r_o} + \frac{1}{R_d}\right) \tag{9}$$

• Thus,  $R_o$  is just the parallel combination of  $r_o$  and  $R_D$ :

$$R_o = \frac{v_t}{i_t} = \left(\frac{1}{r_o} + \frac{1}{R_D}\right)^{-1} = \boxed{r_o||R_D|} \tag{10}$$

#### 2.13 Relative magnitudes of RD and ro

• Output resistance  $r_0$  is given by the expression

$$r_o \approx \frac{1}{\lambda I_{D0}} \tag{11}$$

• Typical drain resistance  $R_D$  can be expressed as (assumes output DC operating point of  $V_{DD}/2$ , which allows for maximal output signal swing)

$$R_D \approx \frac{V_{DD}}{2I_{D0}} \tag{12}$$

- For  $V_{DD} = 3V$  and  $\lambda = 0.1V^{-1}$ ,  $r_o \approx 7 \times R_D$
- Thus, for the common-source amplifier,

$$A_v = -g_m(r_o||R_D) \approx -g_m \cdot R_D$$
(13)

#### 2.14 Maximum gain with RD

What is the maximum gain that can be achieved with a passive (resistive) load?

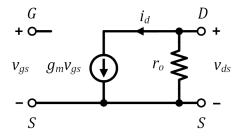
$$A_v \approx -g_m \cdot R_D = -\frac{2I_{D0}}{V_{ov}} R_D \tag{14}$$

• Assuming an operating point for the output voltage of  $V_{DD}/2$ , the gain is given by

$$|A_v| \approx \frac{2 \cdot V_{DD}/2}{R_D \cdot V_{ov}} \cdot R_D = \frac{V_{DD}}{V_{ov}}$$
(15)

- Assuming  $V_{DD} = 3V$  and  $V_{ov} = 150mV$ , this limits the gain to approximately 20V/V
- This is generally too low to be useful in building an opamp
- How do we increase gain?

## 2.15 MOS DC model (intrinsic gain)



$$g_m = \frac{2I_{D0}}{V_{OV}} \tag{16}$$

$$r_o = \frac{1}{g_{ds}} = \frac{1}{\lambda I_{D0}} \tag{17}$$

$$\left|\frac{v_{ds}}{v_{gs}}\right| = \frac{g_m}{g_{ds}} = \frac{2}{\lambda V_{OV}} \tag{18}$$

- Recall that the intrisic gain of the transistor is given by the product of  $g_m$  and  $r_o$
- $g_m$  increases linearly with drain current, while  $r_o$  is inversely dependent, keeping their product constant
- What is a typical value for  $g_m r_o$ ?

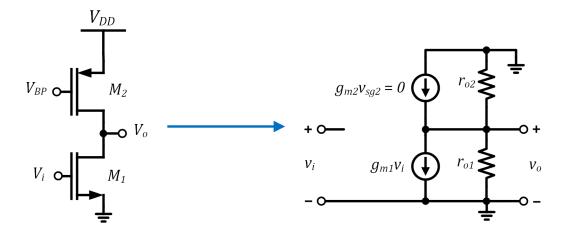
#### 2.16 Intrinsic gain

- In our Level 1 "process"  $\lambda_n = 0.1V^{-1}$
- In order to maximize signal swing, we want to use a relatively low overdrive voltage ( $V_{ov} = V_{GS} V_{th}$ )
- Assuming a gate bias of  $V_{GS} = 0.9V$  (for example), the intrinsic gain is given as

$$g_m r_o \approx \frac{2}{\lambda V_{ov}} = \frac{2}{0.1V^{-1} \times 200mV} = 100V/V$$
 (19)

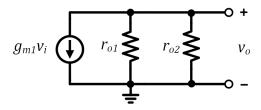
- This is  $5 \times$  the theoretical gain with a resistive load
- How can we can advantage of intrinsic gain to build amplifiers with gains approaching/exceeding 100dB?

#### 2.17 Common-source with active load



- We can increase the gain of the common-source statge by replacing the resistor  $R_D$  with a PMOS transistor in saturation
- This is referred to as an *active* load, since it replaces a passive device (resistor) with an active one (transistor)
- The bias voltage  $V_{BP}$  sets the DC operating point  $(g_{m1,2} \text{ and } r_{o1,2})$  of the amplifier stage by controlling the drain currents of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$
- Because both  $V_S$  and  $V_G$  of  $M_2$  are DC voltages, its transconductance current is zero in the small-signal model

#### 2.18 Small-signal gain



- In this circuit,  $M_1$  functions as a transconductor and  $M_2$  behaves as a resistance
- The small-signal gain expression is identical to that of the passive load, with  $R_D$  replaced by  $r_{o2}$ :

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_{m1} \cdot (r_{o1}||r_{o2})$$
 (20)

• If we make the (somewhat dubious) assumption that  $r_{op} = r_{on} = r_o$ , we can relate the gain of the active load stage to the MOSFET's intrinsic gain:

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_{m1} \cdot (r_{o1}||r_{o2}) \approx -\frac{g_m \cdot r_o}{2}$$
 (21)

• In practice  $r_{on} \neq r_{op}$ , but are of the same order of magnitude

#### 2.19 Magnitude of the gain

• Recall that the gain of the common-source stage with a passive load  $(R_D)$  is

$$A_v = -g_m(r_o||R_D) \approx -g_m \cdot R_D \tag{22}$$

• For a nominal DC output votage of  $V_{DD}/2$  (i.e. the DC operating point), this is

$$|A_v| \approx \frac{2 \cdot V_{DD}/2}{R_D \cdot V_{ov}} \cdot R_D = \frac{V_{DD}}{V_{ov}} \le 20V/V$$
 (23)

• For the active-load stage, the gain is given by

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_{m1} \cdot (r_{o1}||r_{o2})$$
 (24)

• Using our Level 1 process parameters, this becomes

$$A_v = -g_{m1} \cdot (r_{o1}||r_{o2}) = -g_{m1} \cdot r_{o1} \frac{r_{o2}}{r_{o1} + r_{o2}} \approx 33V/V$$
 (25)

• This is an improvement, but still fairly low. We'll discuss how to increase this soon...

#### 2.20 Ouput voltage range

• When  $V_0$  is at its maximum value,  $M_2$  still needs to be in saturation to operate as a high-resistance load, requiring

$$V_o < V_{DD} - V_{BP} - |V_{thp}| \tag{26}$$

• Similarly,  $M_1$  needs to remain in saturation, setting the lower bound on  $V_0$  as

$$V_o > V_i - V_{th} \tag{27}$$

• The valid range of output voltages is thus

$$V_i - V_{thn} < V_0 < V_{DD} - V_{BP} - |V_{thn}| \tag{28}$$

- Again to maximize use of this range we would like to set the operating point of  $V_0$  to approximately  $V_{DD}/2$
- How do we set the operating point?

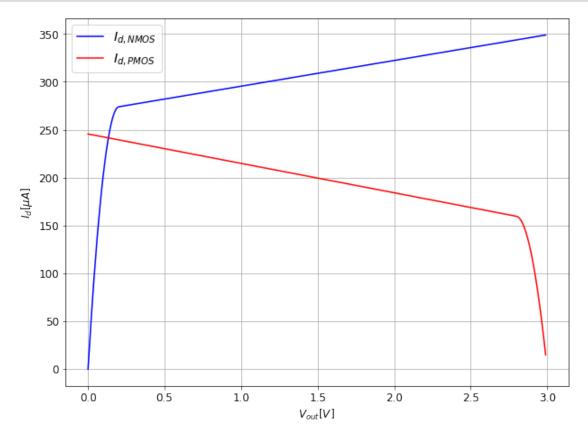
```
[20]: def plot_cs_op_point(V_DD, V_BP, V_GS1, V_out):
    I_d1 = nmos_iv_sweep(V_GS1, V_out, 100, 1, 0.1)
    I_d2 = pmos_iv_sweep(V_DD-V_BP, V_DD-V_out, 200, 1, 0.2)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(10.0, 7.5))
    ax.plot(V_out, 1e6*I_d1, label=r'$I_{d,NMOS}$', color='blue')
    ax.plot(V_out, 1e6*I_d2, label=r'$I_{d,PMOS}$', color='red')
    ax.set_xlabel(r'$V_{out} [V]$')
```

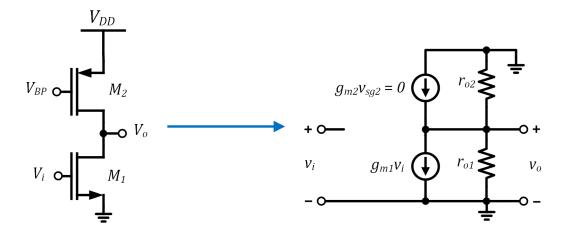
```
ax.set_ylabel(r'$I_{d} [\mu A]$')
ax.legend()
ax.grid()
```

- Because  $I_{D1} = I_{D2}$ , the point at which the drain current curves intersect constitutes the operating point of the circuit
- For a nominal (DC) input voltage of 0.86V, both transistors are approximately in the middle of their saturation ranges and the output voltage is  $\sim V_{DD}/2$
- However, if  $V_{GS1}$  is changed slightly, the resulting operating point can place either  $M_1$  or  $M_2$  in triode, drastically decreasing the gain
- Feedback is required to stabilize the output DC voltage at a desired value (more on this later)

```
[36]: V_DD = 3
V_BP = 2
V_GS1 = .9
V_out = np.arange(0,3,step=0.01)
plot_cs_op_point(V_DD, V_BP, V_GS1, V_out)
```



#### 2.21 Common-source biasing

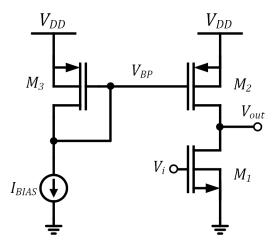


• If the output voltage is maintained such that both  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  remain in saturation, the gain is determined by

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_{m1} \cdot r_{o1} || r_{o2}$$
 (29)

- where  $g_{m1}=2I_{D1}/V_{OV1}$ ,  $r_{o1}=1/\lambda_nI_{D1}$ ,  $r_{o1}=1/\lambda_pI_{D2}$ , and  $I_{D1}=I_{D2}$   $I_{D2}$  ( $I_{D1}$ ) constitutes the DC operating point of the circuit, and is often referred to as the "bias current"
- How do we control  $I_{D2}$ ?

#### 2.22 **Basic current mirror**



• Assuming  $\lambda_p = 0$ , if  $(W/L)_2 \$ = (WL)_3\$$ ,

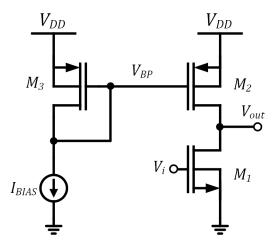
$$I_{D1} = I_{D2} = I_{D3} = I_{BIAS} (30)$$

• Hence,

$$g_{m1} = \frac{2I_{BIAS}}{V_{OV}}, \quad r_{o1} = \frac{1}{\lambda_n I_{BIAS}}, \quad r_{o2} = \frac{1}{\lambda_p I_{BIAS}}$$
 (31)

- A "diode-connected" transistor ( $M_3$  in the figure) converts a current ( $I_{BIAS}$ ) into a voltage ( $V_{BP}$ ) based on the relation
- Current biasing in this manner allows us to control the small-signal performance of the circuit by designing  $I_{BIAS}$  to achieve specific goals (e.g. gain, bandwidth, noise)

## 2.23 Current mirror operation



• Again, assuming  $\lambda_p = 0$ 

$$V_{SG3} = |V_{thp}| + \sqrt{\frac{2 \cdot I_{BIAS}}{\mu_p C_{ox} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_3}}$$
(32)

• The commmon-source bias current is thus

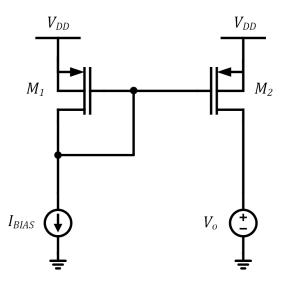
$$I_{D1} = I_{D2} = \frac{1}{2}\mu \cdot C_{ox} \cdot \frac{W}{L}(V_{DD} - V_{BP} - |V_{thp}|)^2$$
(33)

• The "diode" connection (gate and drain shorted together) ensures  $M_3$  is always in saturation, since

$$V_{SG} = V_{SD} > V_{SG} - |V_{thp}| \tag{34}$$

- Because  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  share gate and source connections,  $M_2$  "mirrors" (i.e. copies)  $M_3$ 's current
- However, we have ignored the fact that  $V_{SD2}$  is not necessarily equal to  $V_{SD3}$
- How do  $I_{D1}$ ,  $I_{D2}$  vary with  $V_{out}$ ?

### 2.24 Finite output resistance



• Considering the effect of channel-length modulation on  $M_2$ 's drain current gives

$$I_{D2} = \frac{1}{2}\mu \cdot C_{ox} \cdot \frac{W}{L} (V_{DD} - V_{BP} - |V_{thp}|)^2 [1 + \lambda (V_{DD} - V_o)]$$
(35)

• To assess the dependence of  $I_{D2}$  on  $V_o$ , we can take the derivative

$$\frac{\partial I_{D2}}{\partial V_o} = \frac{1}{r_{o2}} \tag{36}$$

- The purpose of  $M_2$  is to provide current for the common-source stage
- The output resistance of the current mirror captures the dependence of  $I_{D2}$ , which determines *how* effectively it operates as a current source
- It turns out then that the same factor limiting voltage gain in the common-source stage limits the precision of a current mirror: *output resistance*
- How can we increase output resistance and, as a result, gain?
- More on this next time...

#### 2.25 Summary

- High gain in operational amplifiers (Opamps) and operational transconductance amplifiers (OTAs) is achieved using (one or more) structures similar in form to the common-source stage
  - Voltage gain is realized as the product of a transconductance  $(G_m)$  and a resistance  $(R_o)$
- Active loads enable higher values of  $R_o$ , and thus higher gain, than passive loads
- Current biasing allows us to precisely define the critical small-signal parameters  $(g_m, r_o)$  that determine circuit performance
- Finite MOS output resistance limits both gain and the precision of current mirrors
- Next time, we will look at how to build both better current mirrors and voltage amplification stages