



6-7-1 Symmetrical CMOS OTA

The circuit schematic of the CMOS OTA with symmetrical input stage is given in Fig. 6-45. The differential pair is formed by input transistors T1 and T2. They drive their output currents in two transistors, T3 and T4, which are connected as diodes.

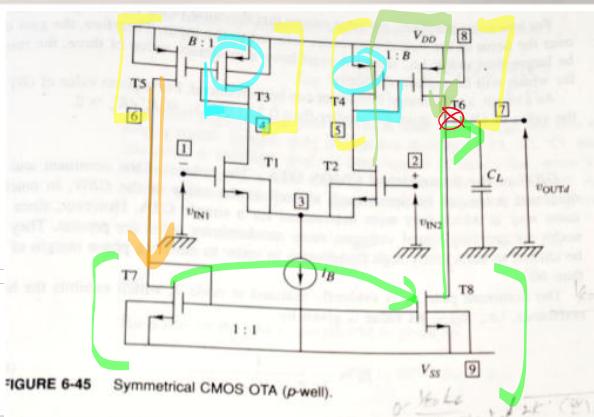


FIGURE 6-45 Symmetrical CMOS OTA (p-well).

They are the inputs of two current mirrors with current multiplication factor B . Typical values are $B = 10$ to 30. The output current of transistor T5 (see Fig. 6-45) is then mirrored once more in current mirror T7, T8, with $B = 1$, as indicated.

Gain of the Symmetrical CMOS OTA At nodes 4, 5, and 6, a diode connected FET is driven by a current source. A diode connected FET represents only a small signal resistance of $1/g_m$, whereas the current sources have an output resistance r_{os} , which is much higher than $1/g_m$. As a result, at each of these nodes, the small-signal resistance with respect to ground is quite small, i.e., $1/g_m$.

so does this matter?
maybe, gain = $g_m \times r_{os}$
still high
circle so not big value
probably showing "unity gain" in the early stages

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The small-signal resistance is high only at the output node 7. It is formed by the two output resistances r_{os} and r_{os} in parallel. For equal values of $r_{os} = r_{os}$, output resistance R_{out} equals $r_{os}/2$. On the other hand, the transconductance of the OTA is now a factor B higher than for the simple OTA, i.e., $B g_m$.

copy B times
 $I_d = B \times g_m L$
 $I_d = g_m L$
consider one by one when evaluating gain!
which means only the gain thru T6/T8 matters!

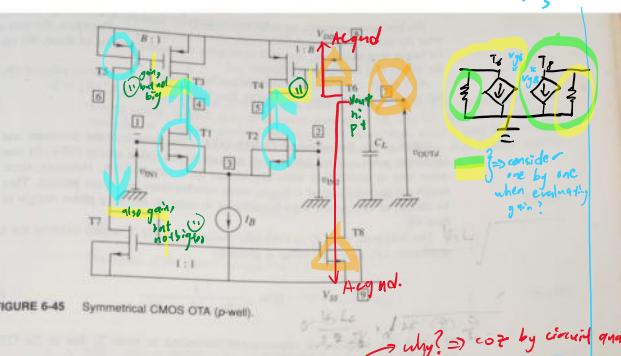


FIGURE 6-45 Symmetrical CMOS OTA (p-well).

The voltage gain A_v is then given by multiplication of the transconductance and R_{out} or by

$$A_v = B g_m \frac{r_{os}}{2} = V_{TP} \sqrt{\frac{2K_n}{I_B} \left(\frac{W}{L} \right)} \quad \text{why!} \quad (6-134)$$

FIGURE 6-45 Symmetrical CMOS OTA (p-well).

$$B \frac{r_{os}}{2} g_m = B \times \frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{1}{I_B} \right) \times \left(\sqrt{\frac{2k_n}{L}} I_B \right)$$

Round or by

$$A_v = B \cdot \frac{r_{o6}}{2} = V_{DS} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2K_n}{I_B} \left(\frac{W}{L} \right)} \quad (6-134)$$

after substitution of the MOST parameters (see Chap. 1).

Note that factor B is present in the expression of the gain A_v . The transconductance increases B times, whereas r_{o6} decreases B times. Yet, in comparison with A_v in Eq. (6-3a), an additional design factor appears in Eq. (6-134), which is I_B . Its value can be taken as larger than I_D . The voltage gain A_v can thus be increased by increasing the value of I_B or I_D . With this additional degree of freedom, the output resistance R_{OUT} and the voltage gain A_v can be increased without affecting the OTA transconductance.

Up until this point, the total gain A_v of the OTA has been considered. The gain of the first stage A_{v1} alone is important as well, as it determines the noise performance of the OTA. It is given by the ratio of $(v_5 - v_4)/v_{IN1}$, if v_{IN2} is grounded, it is found by inspection (see Sec. 6-1) to be

$$A_{v1} = \frac{g_{m1}}{g_{m3}} = \sqrt{\frac{K_n}{K_p} \sqrt{\frac{(W/L)_1}{(W/L)_3}}} \quad (6-135)$$

↳ definition:
low mud ΔV_{c4} (aka ΔV_{out} on side)
can be created by ΔV_{i2} (input)

↳ shown here!
so no ΔV_{c4}
 \therefore same for
L-diff pair → just cancelled

inverting amplifier!

$$B \cdot \frac{r_{o6}}{2} g_m = B \times \frac{1}{2} \times (\frac{I_D}{I_1}) \times (\sqrt{2k(\frac{W}{L})} I_D)$$

Output resistance: $r_o = \frac{1}{g_o} = \frac{\lambda + V_{DS}}{I_D} \cong \frac{1}{\lambda I_D}$

In the Shichman-Hodges model used above, output resistance is given as:

$$r_o = \frac{1 + \lambda V_{DS}}{\lambda I_D}$$

$$= \frac{1}{I_D} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} + V_{DS} \right)$$

$$= \frac{V_E L / \Delta L + V_{DS}}{I_D}$$

$$\lambda \approx \frac{\Delta L}{V_E L}$$

where V_E is a fitting parameter, although it is similar in concept to the Early Voltage for BJTs. For a 65 nm process, roughly $V_E \approx 4$ V/ μm .^[3] (A more elaborate approach is used in the EKV model.^[4]) However, no simple formula used for λ to date provides accurate length or voltage dependence of r_o for modern devices, forcing use of computer models, as discussed briefly next.

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For low noise purposes, we must ensure that the noise of the input stage is dominant over the noise of the output transistors referred to the input. Therefore, the gain must be larger than unity, i.e., the gain must have a minimum value of three, the reasons for which will be explained shortly.

As a result, a new design constraint can be introduced. For a given value of $(W/L)_1$, the value of $(W/L)_3$ must be smaller than 0.22 ($W/L_3 \approx K_n/K_p \approx 2$).

GBW of the Symmetrical CMOS OTA The values of the dominant and non-dominant poles can be determined, as well as the value of the GBW, in much the same way in which they were determined for a simple OTA. However, since more nodes are carrying signal voltages, more non-dominant poles are present. They must be shifted to sufficiently high frequencies in order to ensure a phase margin of more than 60°.

The dominant pole f_d is evidently realized at node 7, which exhibits the highest resistance, i.e., R_{OUT} . Its value is given by

$$f_d = \frac{1}{2\pi R_{OUT}(C_{s7} + C_L)} \quad (6-136)$$

in which C_{s7} includes all capacitances connected to node 7, due to the OTA (see Fig. 6-45). The value of GBW is given by

$$GBW = A_v f_d = \frac{B g_{m1}}{2\pi(C_{s7} + C_L)} = B \sqrt{\frac{2K_n}{I_B} \sqrt{\frac{(W/L)_1}{(W/L)_3}}} \quad (6-137)$$

expand g_{m1} , because current mirror needed!

after substitution of the MOST parameters.

In comparison with the GBW of the simple OTA, given by Eqs. (6-7a) and (6-7b), the GBW of the symmetrical OTA is B times larger. Note, however, that the total current consumption is $(B+1)$ times larger as well. The value of GBW is thus increased, but at the expense of more current consumption.

On the other hand, let us not forget that the increased symmetry of the input stage is an additional advantage, which has not yet been represented by numbers. This will be done later. In order to be able to effectively use this value of GBW, the nondominant poles are evaluated first. The calculation of the phase margin will show that the factor of B can never be made large. $\star\star\star\star\star$!

small R_s , $C_s \Rightarrow$ so, pole @ hi freq.

Phase Margin PM of the Symmetrical CMOS OTA Nondominant poles occur at all other nodes, i.e., at nodes 4, 5, and 6, due to the capacitances on these nodes. Nodes 4 and 5 carry small signals, which have the same amplitude but the opposite phase. Therefore, the poles at nodes 4 and 5 are the same. Together, they form one single nondominant pole f_{n45} (see also App. 6-1).

ideally, only the dominant pole should be before unity gain

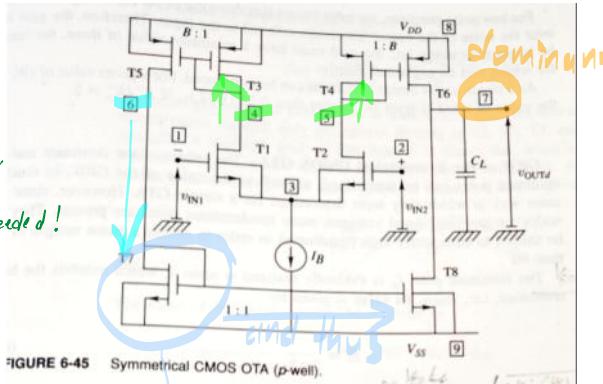


FIGURE 6-45 Symmetrical CMOS OTA (p-well).

and thus
w% increase!

symmetrical,
differential

It is found by inspection and is given by

$$f_{nd5} \approx \frac{g_{m1}}{2\pi C_{n5}} = \frac{\sqrt{2K_p T_B} \sqrt{(W/L)_3}}{2\pi C_{n5}} \quad (6-138)$$

The other nondominant pole occurs at node 6, i.e., f_{nd6} , but acts on only half of the output signal. Indeed, only the current flowing in T3, T5, T7, and T8 is subject to this pole. A thorough analysis (see App. 6-1) shows that, when a pole acts on only half of the signal, a zero must be added at twice the frequency. A pole-zero doublet is thus created. This pole is again found by inspection and is given by

$$f_{nd6} \approx \frac{g_{m1}}{2\pi C_{n6}} = \frac{\sqrt{2K_p T_B} \sqrt{(W/L)_7}}{2\pi C_{n6}} \quad (6-139)$$

and

$$f_d = 2f_{nd6}$$

The value of the phase margin PM is given by

$$\text{of dominant pole! } \text{PM} = 90^\circ - \varphi_{n5} - \varphi_{n6} \quad (6-140)$$

$$\text{with } \varphi_{n5} = \arctan \frac{GBW}{f_{nd5}} = \arctan B A_{v1} \frac{C_L + C_{n7}}{C_L + C_{n5}}$$

$$\text{and } \varphi_{n6} = \arctan \frac{GBW}{f_{nd6}} - \arctan \frac{GBW}{2f_{nd6}} \quad \text{same explanation, but just expanded "gm" only!}$$

after substitution of GBW , f_{nd5} , and f_{nd6} . Also $K'_n \approx 2K_p'$ and gain A_{v1} has been taken from Eq. (6-135).

It can be concluded that the phase margin PM can be increased by

- decreasing node capacitances C_{n5} and C_{n6} .
- decreasing B → yes, found this in simulations too!
- increasing $(W/L)_7$ → put more current to charge C_L faster!

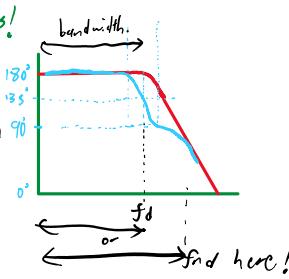
(provided we keep constant $A_{v1} = 3$ and constant C_L).

It is not acceptable to decrease B too much. Factor B is normally increased to increase the slew rate (as we will see later in this section). A good compromise is $B = 3$. For a given C_L , this leaves us thus only $(W/L)_7$ to play with to ensure sufficient phase margin.

However the phase margin is not very sensitive to $(W/L)_7$ because φ_6 is only a very weak function of $(W/L)_7$. As a result, other design plans may be more suitable, as explained later.

→ and, $\frac{1}{g_{m4}}$ parallel with $\text{Rout of } T_2$ *

the other half is the dominant pole



Example 6-13
Take a symmetrical OTA with $I_B = 10 \mu\text{A}$, $B = 3$, $V_{EB} = 8.3 \text{ V}/\mu\text{m}$, $L_6 = 10 \mu\text{m}$, $L_1 = 5 \mu\text{m}$ and $W_1 = 50 \mu\text{m}$; $K_p = 20 \mu\text{A}/\text{V}^2$, $K'_p = 10 \mu\text{A}/\text{V}^2$. Calculate the gains and the GBW for $C_L = 10 \text{ pF}$.
Find the PM for $(W/L)_7 = 10$ and $A_{v1} = 3$ if $C_{n5} = C_{n6} = 1 \text{ pF}$. Repeat for $B = 1$.

Solution. The resulting values are $R_{\text{OUT}} = 2.77 \text{ M}\Omega$, the OTA transconductance is carried out in two steps. The GBW is determined at the dominant node, which is the output node, as given by Eq. (6-137). Second, the phase margin is determined by the two nondominant poles at the two other nodes.

Assume that C_L is given. For a given current I_B , a given $(V_{GS1} - V_T)$, and a given GBW , the size of the input transistor $(W/L)_1$ is obtained from Eq. (6-137). The sizes of the transistors $(W/L)_3$ and $(W/L)_7$ must be such that the phase margin, given in Eq. (6-140), is sufficiently large. Two extra variables are added, i.e., the gain of the first stage A_{v1} and the current multiplier B .

As a result, we have four variables I_B , $(W/L)_1$, $(W/L)_3$, and $(W/L)_7$ to satisfy four specifications: GBW , PM , A_{v1} , and B , provided C_L is given. An exact solution can thus be found.

We can also relax the specifications. After all, B is present because of the slew rate and A_{v1} is present because of the noise. Let us first calculate these characteristics exactly before we make a decision about the design plan.

need to charge them

Slew Rate Again, for the symmetrical OTA, the slew rate is determined by the load capacitance. The current available to charge this capacitance is now $B I_B$. The slew rate is given by

$$SR = B \frac{I_B}{C_L + C_{n7}} \quad (6-141)$$

It is B times larger than the slew rate for the simple OTA, which yields a considerable advantage. Remember, however, that the current consumption was $(B+1)$ times larger as well.

Noise Performance The total output noise voltage power $\overline{dv_{\text{out}}^2}$ is the sum of the equivalent input noise voltage powers $\overline{dv_{\text{in}}^2}$ of each transistor, multiplied by their gain

$$\text{Rout got corrected! } GBW = A_{v1} \frac{g_{m1}}{2\pi(C_{n5} + C_{n7})} = B \frac{\sqrt{2K_p T_B} \sqrt{(W/L)_1}}{2\pi(C_{n5} + C_{n7})} \quad \text{expand am.}$$

$$\text{of dominant pole! } \text{PM} = 90^\circ - \varphi_{n5} - \varphi_{n6} \quad (6-140)$$

$$\varphi_{n5} = \arctan \frac{GBW}{f_{nd5}} = \arctan B A_{v1} \frac{C_L + C_{n7}}{C_L + C_{n5}}$$

$$\varphi_{n6} = \arctan \frac{GBW}{f_{nd6}} - \arctan \frac{GBW}{2f_{nd6}} \quad \text{same explanation, but just expand "gm"}$$

$$= \arctan \sqrt{\frac{B(W/L)_1}{(W/L)_7}} \frac{C_{n6}}{C_L + C_{n7}} - \arctan \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{B(W/L)_1}{(W/L)_7}} \frac{C_{n6}}{C_L + C_{n7}}$$

$$A_{v1} = \frac{g_{m1}}{g_{m3}} = \sqrt{\frac{K'_n}{K'_p}} \sqrt{\frac{(W/L)_1}{(W/L)_3}}$$

squared. The equivalent input noise voltage power $\overline{dV_{in}^2}$ is then obtained by division of the total gain squared. This yields

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{dV_{in}^2} &= 2\overline{dV_1^2} + 2 \left(\frac{g_{m4}}{g_{m1}} \right)^2 \overline{dV_4^2} \\ &\quad + \frac{2}{B^2} \left[\left(\frac{g_{m6}}{g_{m1}} \right)^2 \overline{dV_6^2} + \left(\frac{g_{m7}}{g_{m1}} \right)^2 \overline{dV_7^2} \right]\end{aligned}\quad (6-142)$$

Substitution of all $\overline{dV_m^2}$ by their expression $8kTdf/3g_{m1}$ yields

$$y = \frac{\overline{dV_{in}^2}}{\overline{dV_1^2}} = 2 + 2 \frac{g_{m4}}{g_{m1}} + \frac{2}{B^2} \left[\frac{g_{m6}}{g_{m1}} + \frac{g_{m7}}{g_{m1}} \right] \quad (6-143a)$$

Note that the total equivalent input noise has been normalized to the equivalent input noise of one input transistor only. This is the so-called excess noise y .

Remembering that $g_{m1}/g_{m4} = A_{v1}$ and that $g_{m6}/g_{m1} = B$, the previous expression becomes

$$y = 2 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{A_{v1}} \left[1 + \frac{1}{B} \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{K_a(W/L)_7}{K_a(W/L)_5}} \right) \right] \right\} \quad (6-143b)$$

The total equivalent input noise can thus be reduced to the equivalent input noise of only the two input transistors, provided the gain of the first stage A_{v1} is large. Since this impairs the stability, as shown by Eq. (6-140), a compromise is taken for A_{v1} , such as three to five. Increasing B helps, but it also reduces the phase margin. A good compromise for B is one to three.

Example 6-14

Calculate the excess noise and the total input noise voltage for the amplifier of Fig. 6-45, from Example 6-13 with $B = 1$ in unity gain configuration (i.e., output connected to a noninverting input terminal). Also, calculate the maximum signal-to-noise S/N ratio for a sinusoidal output with a ± 2.5 V supply voltage.

Solution. Since $(W/L)_1 = 10$ and $A_{v1} = 3$, Eq. (6-135) yields $(W/L)_3 = 2.2$; also, $(W/L)_5 = (W/L)_3 = 2.2$ because $B = 1$. Hence, the total equivalent input noise voltage power is $y = 5.3$ times that of only the input transistor. For this transistor T1, $g_{m1} = 63.3 \mu\text{S}$, which yields $\overline{dV_1^2} = 1.75 \times 10^{-16} \text{ V}^2/\text{Hz}$ and $\overline{dV_{in}^2} = 9.3 \times 10^{-16} \text{ V}^2/\text{Hz}$. For a bandwidth of 0.1 MHz with a single-pole characteristic, the equivalent noise bandwidth is $\pi/2$ times as much (see Chap. 5), or 0.16 MHz. The equivalent

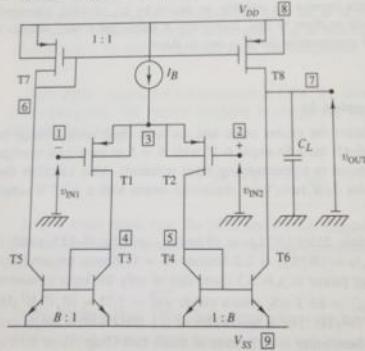
input noise is thus $1.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ V}^2$ or $12 \mu\text{VRMS}$. The peak output amplitude for a sine waveform is 2.5 V and its RMS value is $2.5/\sqrt{2} = 1.77 \text{ VRMS}$. As a result, the maximum S/N ratio is 1.5×10^7 , or 103 dB.

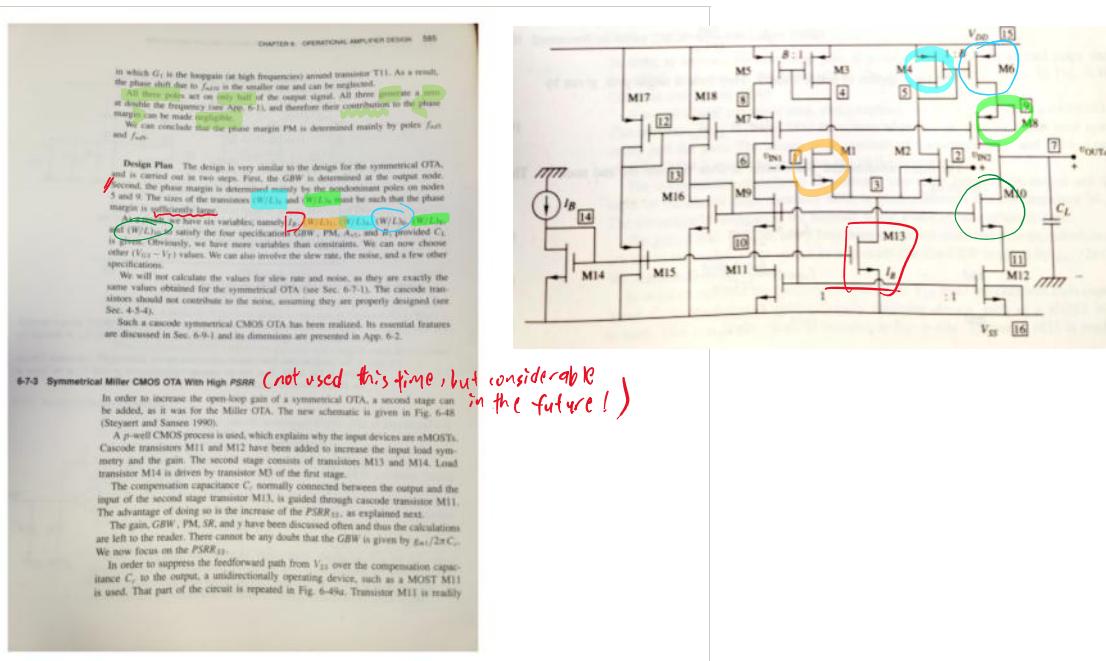
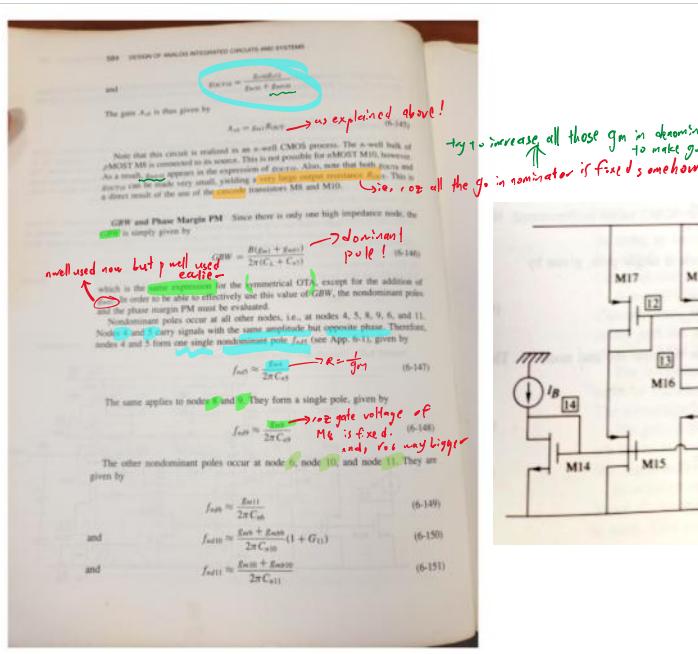
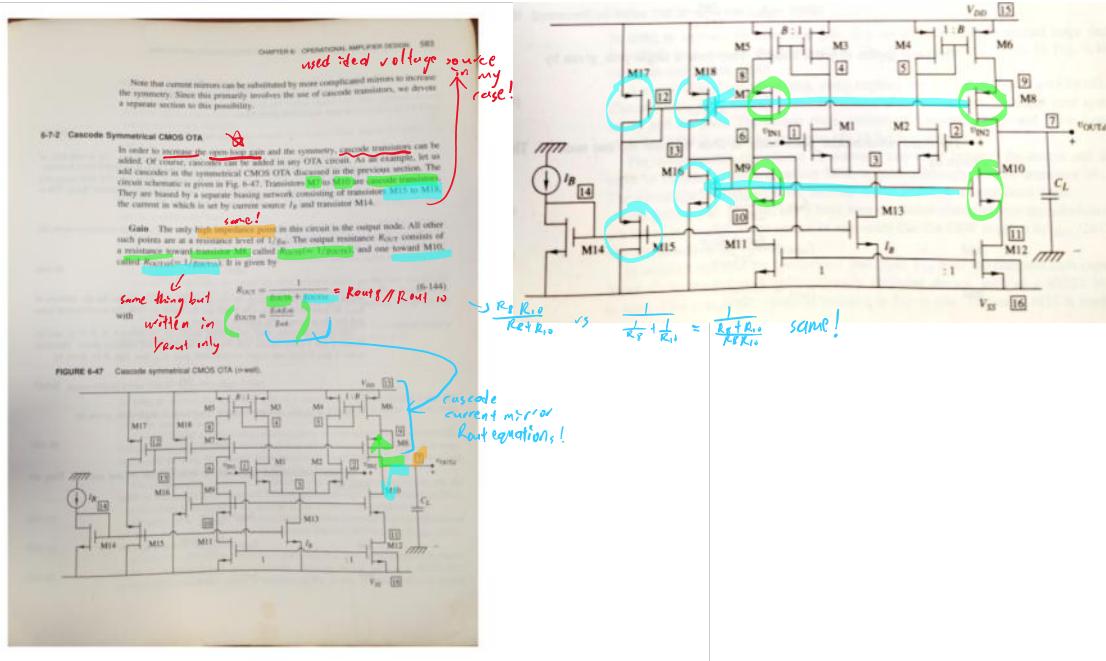
BICMOS Alternatives In a BICMOS process with an *n*-well, the symmetrical OTA can be realized, as shown in Fig. 6-46. To obtain better matching, the sources of the input devices are connected to their common well. The input devices are MOSTs, because of the high input impedance and the high SR/GBW ratio. The *n*MOST current mirrors have been replaced by *p*npn transistor mirrors.

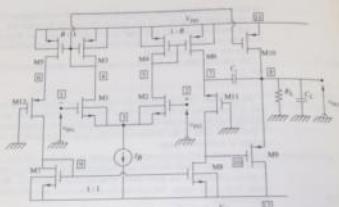
The advantages of using a BICMOS process are as follows. First, the minimum voltage across a bipolar transistor is only a few hundred mV's, allowing a larger output swing. Second, the transconductance of a bipolar transistor is smaller. This causes the impedances at nodes 4 and 5 to be smaller. At these nodes, however, the capacitance is higher because of the collector-to-substrate capacitances. As the main nondominant pole is determined at these nodes, it will depend on the actual values used, whether the phase margin is smaller or not.

However, the noise performance will always be worse. The gain A_{v1} will probably be less than unity, giving rise to a large contribution by all transistors (see Eq. (143b)). In the CMOS circuit, we can effectively limit the noise contributions to the noise of two input transistors only, which is the best that can be achieved with any differential circuit.

FIGURE 6-46 Symmetrical BICMOS OTA (*n*-well).

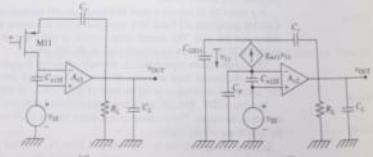




FIGURE 6-48 Miller symmetrical CMOS OTA with high $PSRR_{SS}$ (20 dB).

recognized. In biasing is left out, but it must ensure that the MOST always operates in saturation. The parasitic capacitance from the gate of M13 to V_{DD} is denoted by C_{GSS} .

For analysis, the transistor is substituted by its small-signal equivalent circuit, shown in Fig. 6-49b. Note that the parasitic capacitance to ground C_p at the drain of the MOST cannot be neglected.

FIGURE 6-49 Principle schematic of OTA with high $PSRR_{SS}$. (a) Original circuit; (b) small-signal equivalent circuit.

Straightforward analysis of this circuit yields

$$\frac{v_{out}}{v_{SS}} = \frac{C_p}{C_c} \left(1 + j \frac{f}{f_{11}} \right) \quad (6-152)$$

with

$$f_{11} = \frac{g_{m11}}{2\pi(C_c + C_{GSS11})}$$

$$\text{if } A_{v2} > \frac{C_{m1SS} + C_p}{C_c} \left(1 + j \frac{f}{f_{11}} \right)$$

which is normally no problem.

For a large f_{11} , g_{m11} must also be large, but then C_p increases as well. Let us take for M11 a transistor that is equal in size to M1. In this case, $f_{11} \approx GBW$. If $C_{m1SS} = 0.2 \text{ pF}$, and $C_p = 0.1 \text{ pF}$, then the gain v_{OUT}/v_{SS} is 0.1, or -20 dB. This condition is easy to fulfill if $A_{v2} > 0.3$, which should not present a problem.

The high frequency $PSRR_{SS,GBW}$ is then given by

$$PSRR_{SS,GBW} = \frac{C_c}{C_p} \quad (6-153)$$

which is 10 if $C_c = 1 \text{ pF}$ and $C_p = 0.1 \text{ pF}$. In comparison with unity for the Miller CMOS OTA, a factor of 10 has been gained by insertion of transistor M11. While it is always better to add the transistor, an extra node is added to the circuit, and this means that extra calculations will be necessary for the phase margin.

Such a symmetrical Miller CMOS OTA has been realized. Its features are discussed in Sec. 6-9-1 and its dimensions and characteristics are given in App. 6-2.