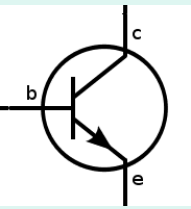


ELEC 301 - Electronic Circuits

L04 - Sep 11

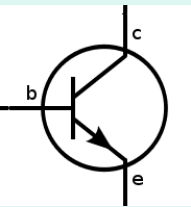
Instructor: Edmond Cretu



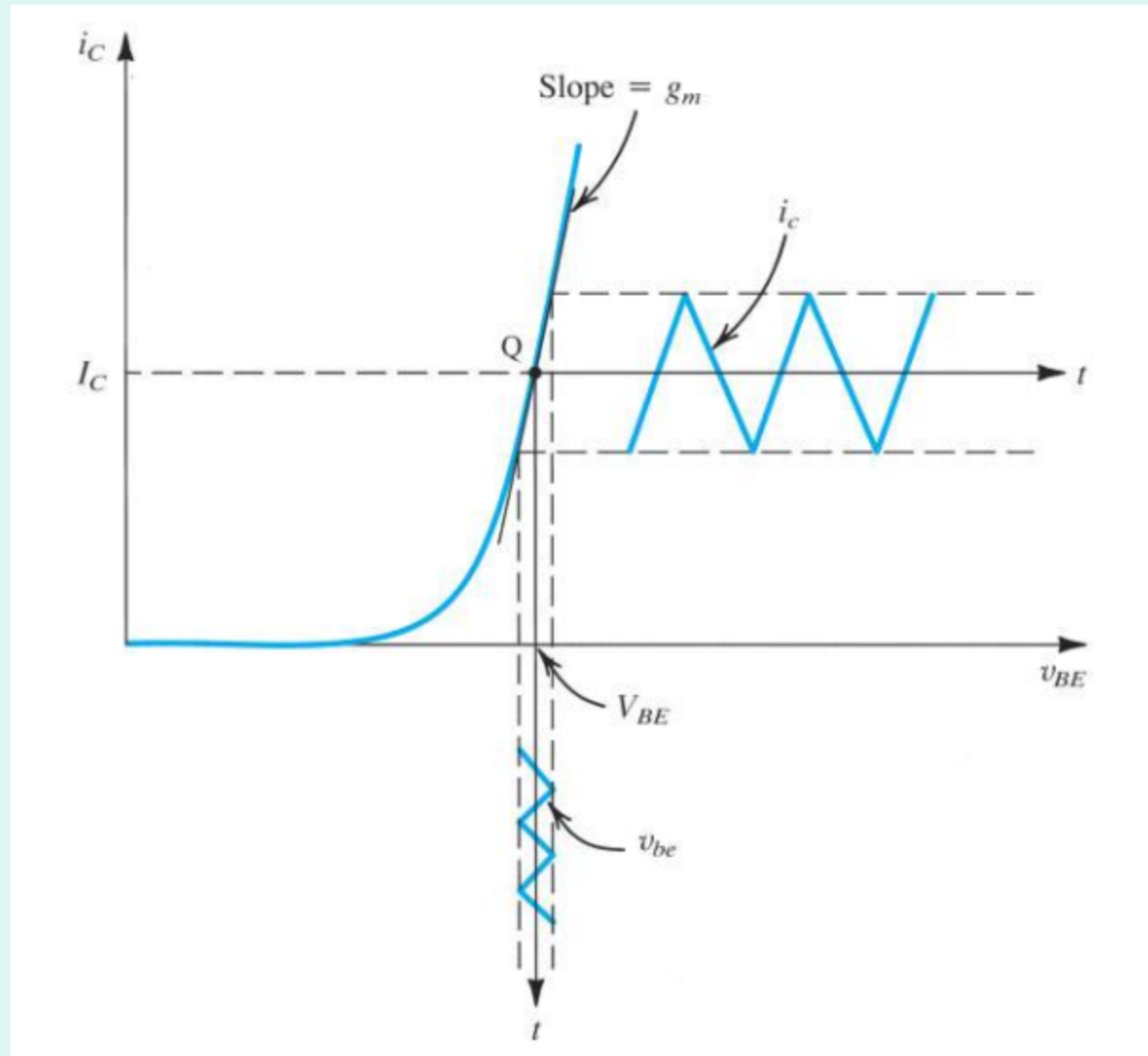


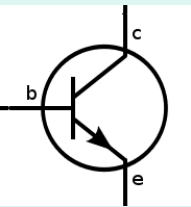
Last time

- Trends and design strategy: PCB vs. ASIC
- Amplification principles: diports, nonlinear device transfer characteristics
- Energy transfer from DC (power supply) to signal energy



Amplification



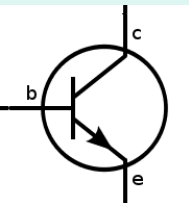


Amplification principle

- We need separate input output ports
- Energy is transferred from DC (battery) to signal through the inherent nonlinearity of the device
- **Question: is this the best we can do? DC levels are very prone to noise**
- Comparison BJT vs MOSFET:

$$i_C(t) = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \Rightarrow i_C \approx \underbrace{I_S e^{V_{BE}/V_T}}_{I_{C0}} + \underbrace{\frac{I_S e^{V_{BE}/V_T}}{V_T}}_{g_m = I_{C0}/V_T} v_{be}(t)$$

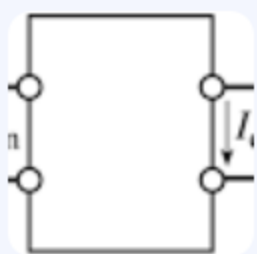
$$i_D(t) = \frac{1}{2} k' \frac{W}{L} (v_{GS}(t) - V_T)^2 \approx \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} k' \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_T)^2}_{I_{D0}} + \underbrace{k' \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_T)}_{g_m} v_{gs}(t)$$



BJT vs. MOSFET

BJT

- Transconductance
 $g_m = 1..400 \text{ mS}$ (exponential relation $i_c - v_{be}$) (40mS for $I_C = 1 \mu\text{A}$, 385mS for $I_C = 10 \text{ mA}$), linear dependence on I_C
- **higher gain applications in discrete circuits**
- higher output power than MOS
- HF performance $f_T > 300 \text{ GHz}$
- lower low-frequency noise than MOS



MOSFET

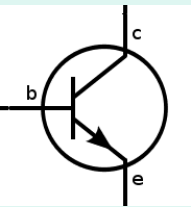
- Transconductance
 $g_m = 10 \mu\text{S} \dots 30 \text{ mS}$, Square-root dependency on I_D
- higher input impedance than BJT
- better geometric control (W/L), more predictable performance
- $f_T > 200 \text{ GHz}$ for $< 20 \text{ nm}$ technologies
- higher $1/f$ noise (surface effects)



Problems in electronic circuit

- **Design:** given a functional specification, design an appropriate electronic circuit
- **Analysis:** given a circuit, provide thorough analysis of its performance
- **Optimization:** combine design and analysis in iterative cycles to improve the operation w.r.t. defined set of goals
- **Synthesis:** use EDA tools to generate an electronic circuit from a set of specifications
- **Approximation:** use approximations for doing fast analytical computation in analysis

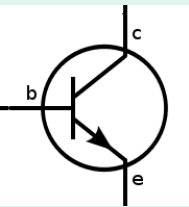




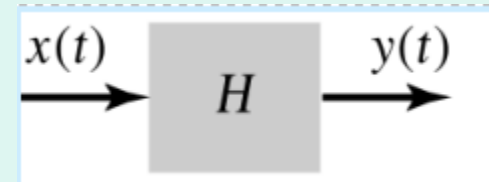
Review - Linear circuits

- Goal: simplification techniques for circuit analysis - reduced representations through iterative/global transformations
- Linear time-invariant (LTI) circuits/systems
- **Linearity** = superposition + homogeneity
- **Time-invariant** system - the structure of the system does not change in time (no matter when we apply an input, we get the same output response)
- LTI allows the design and analysis in either time or frequency domain
- Often the right feedback allows the **linearization** of a system



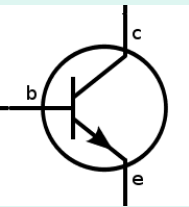


Time-invariant systems



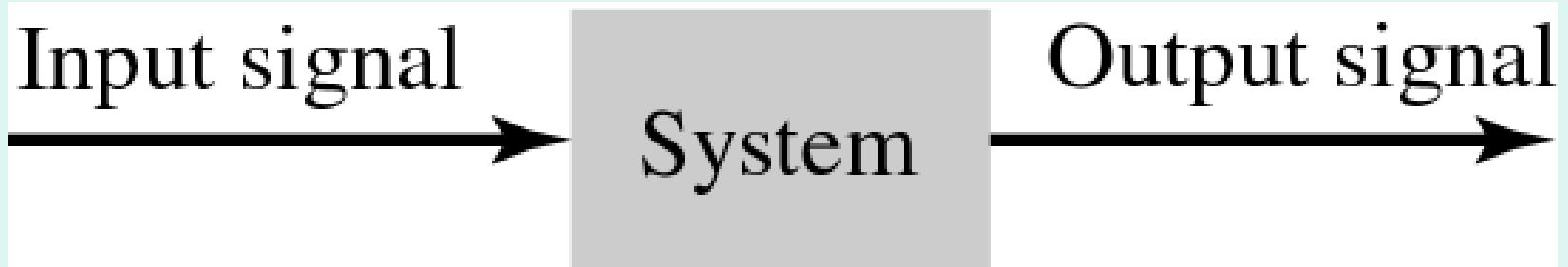
- A system is **time invariant** \leftrightarrow a time shift in the input signal produces an identical time shift in the output
- Heuristics: the structure of the system remains the same, it responds identically **no matter when the input signal is applied**
- **What counts is the relative difference of time between the input signal and the output one**

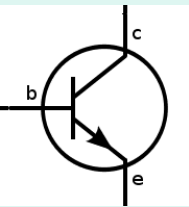
$H\{ \}$ is **time invariant** iff $\left[y(t) = H\{x(t)\} \Rightarrow y(t - t_0) = H\{x(t - t_0)\}, \text{any } t_0 \right]$



Causality in systems

- A physical system is causal: the effect of an input signal comes only after the signal occurs!
- **Causal system** = a system where the output $y(t)$ at some specific instant t_0 only depends on the input $x(t)$ for values of t less than or equal to t_0 . Therefore these kinds of systems have outputs and internal states that depends only on the current and previous input values.
- Modern physics have shaken the image of a strictly causal nature (quantum entanglement)

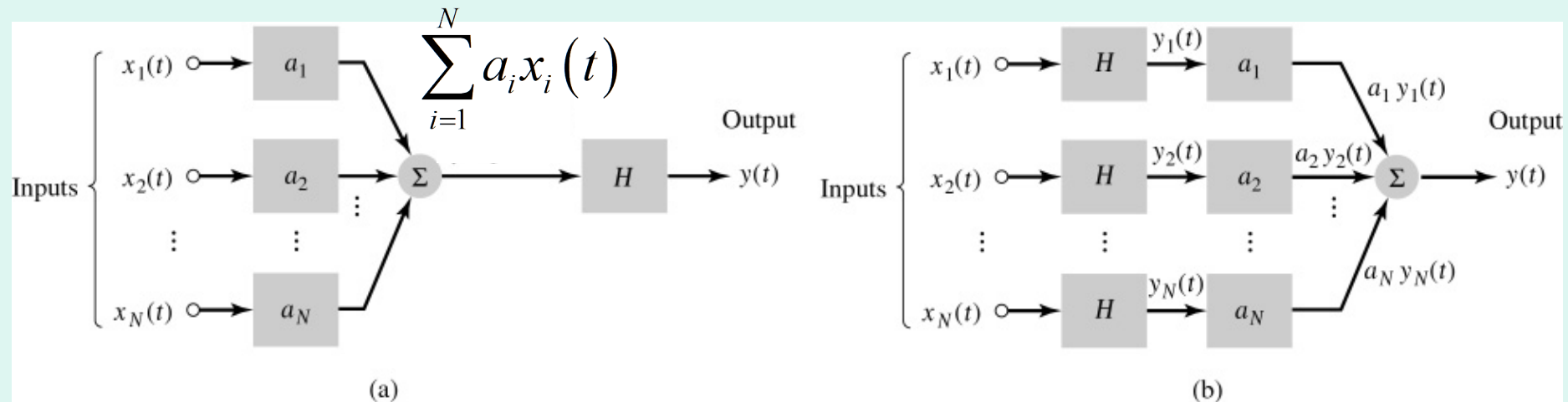




Linear systems

- Linearity of a system means that its action can be described by a **linear operator H**
- **Superposition + homogeneity properties**

$$H \{ a_1 x_1(t) + a_2 x_2(t) \} = a_1 H \{ x_1(t) \} + a_2 H \{ x_2(t) \}$$

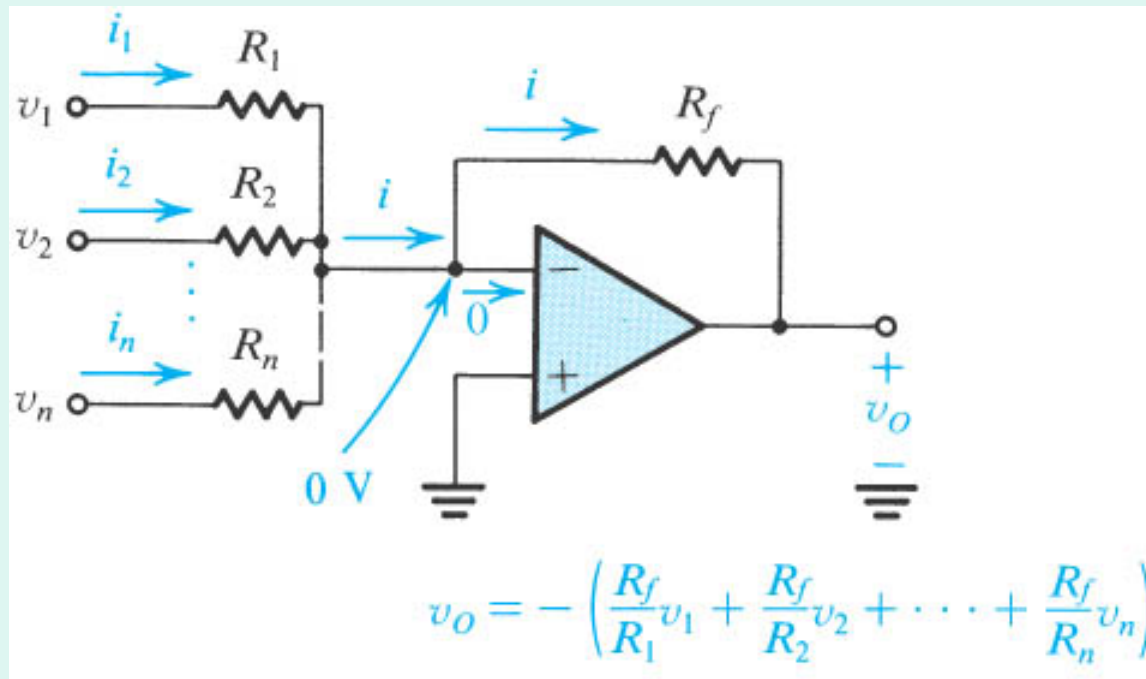


If these two configurations produce the same output $y(t)$, the operator H is linear.

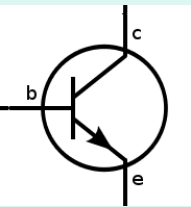


Use of superposition as an analysis tool

- Exm: the weighted summer

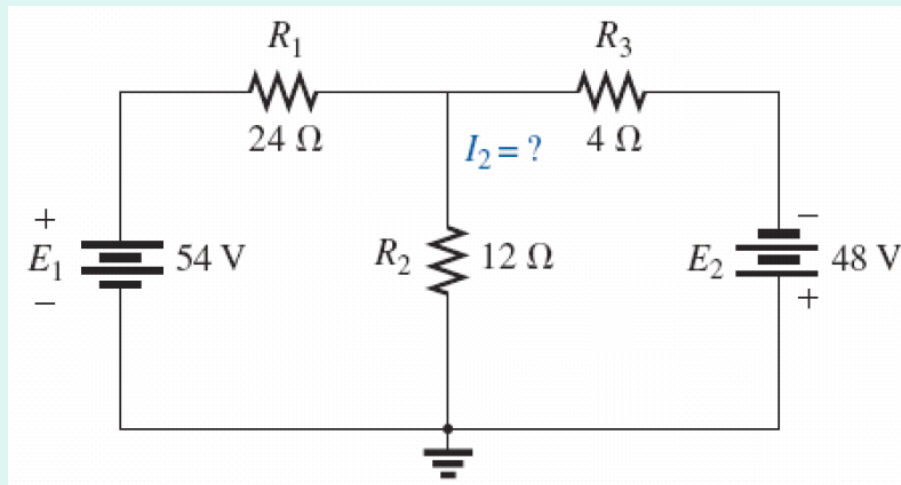


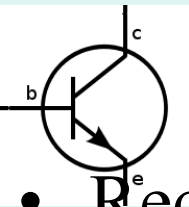
Total effect = sum of partial effects



Exm - homework

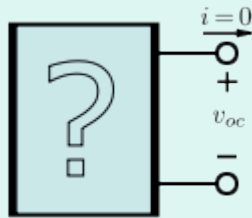
- Use superposition to determine the current through the 12Ω resistor



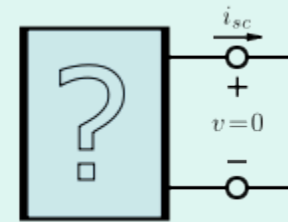


Circuit transformations

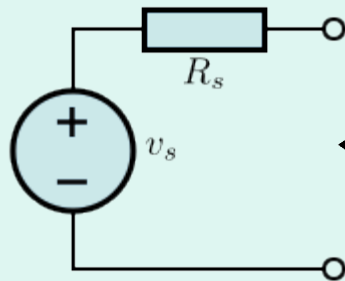
- Recall Thevenin/Norton equivalent circuit theorems for linear uniports
- Application: graphical reduction of branches



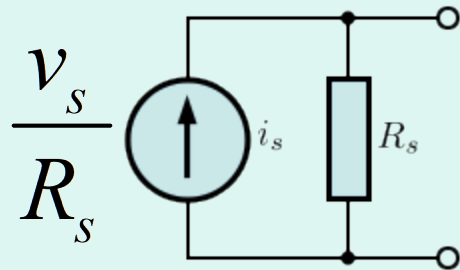
$$v_s = v_{oc}$$

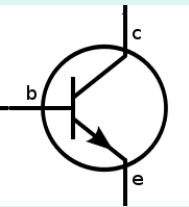


$$i_s = i_{sc}$$



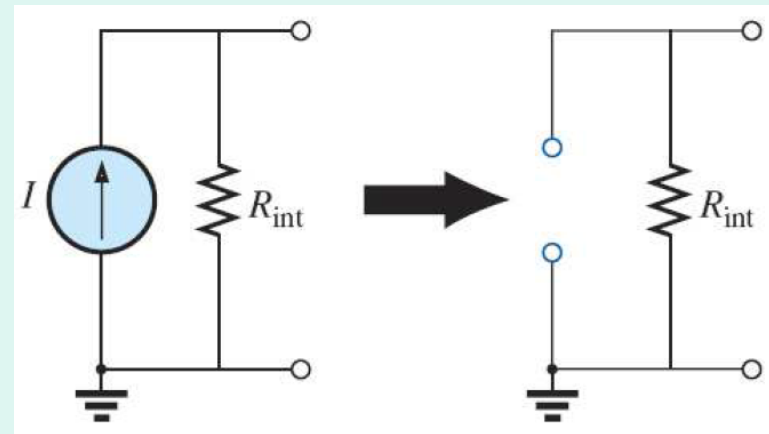
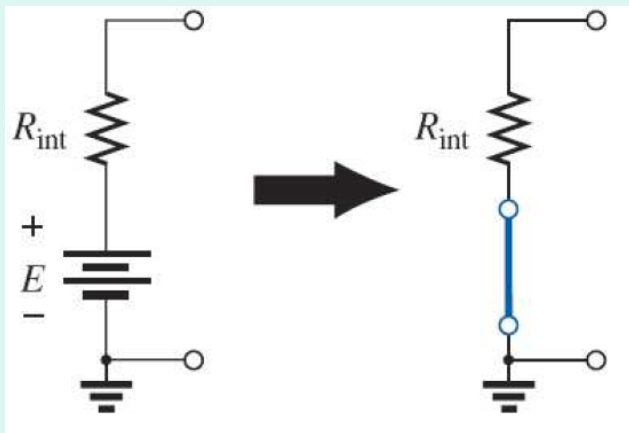
$$i_s = \frac{v_s}{R_s}$$

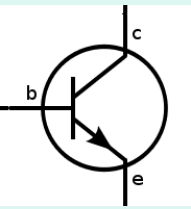




Circuit reduction techniques (1)

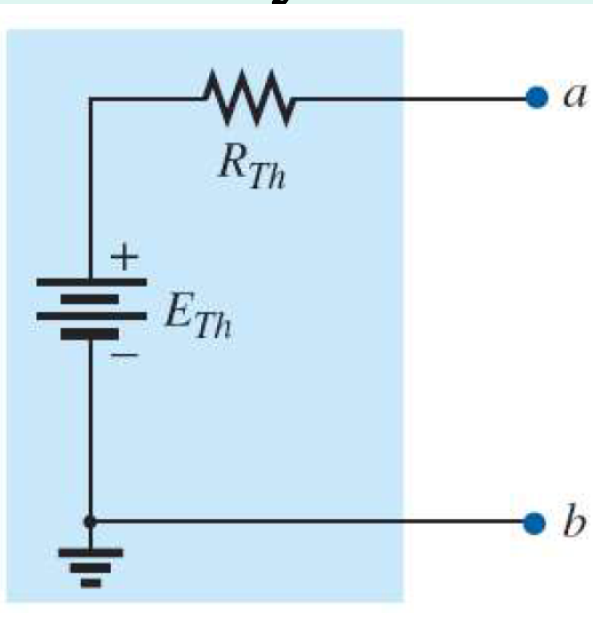
- Superposition theorem: the current through, or voltage across, any element of a network is equal to the algebraic sum of the currents and voltages produced independently by each source (with all other sources removed)





Thevenin's theorem (internal view)

- Any 2-terminal (uniport) linear network can be replaced by an equivalent circuit consisting solely of a voltage source and series impedance



- $Z_{th}(s)$ is calculated setting all sources to zero (including initial conditions on L, C)
- $E_{th}(s)$ is calculated by returning all sources to their original position and finding the open-circuit voltage between $a-b$

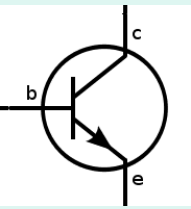
Thevenin equivalent circuit (DC case)





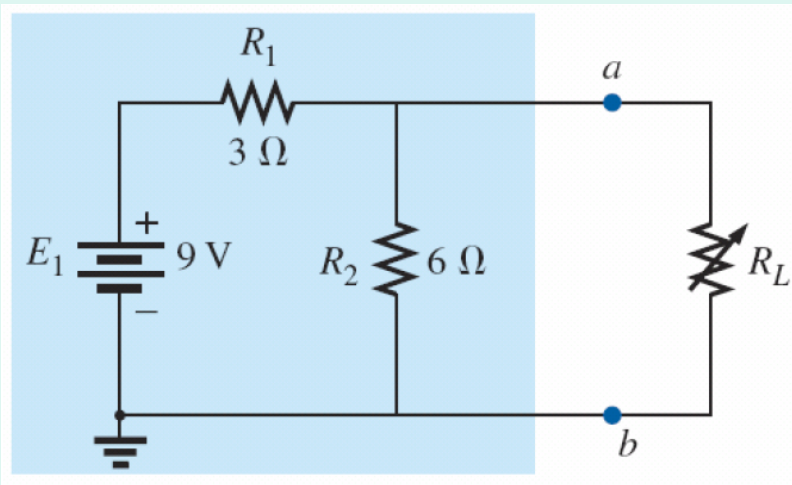
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- A circuit diagram showing two resistors, labeled A and B, connected in parallel. Resistor A is on the left and Resistor B is on the right. Two horizontal wires connect them: the top wire has a small circle (representing a resistor) between A and B, and the bottom wire also has a small circle between A and B. The entire circuit is enclosed in a rectangular border.





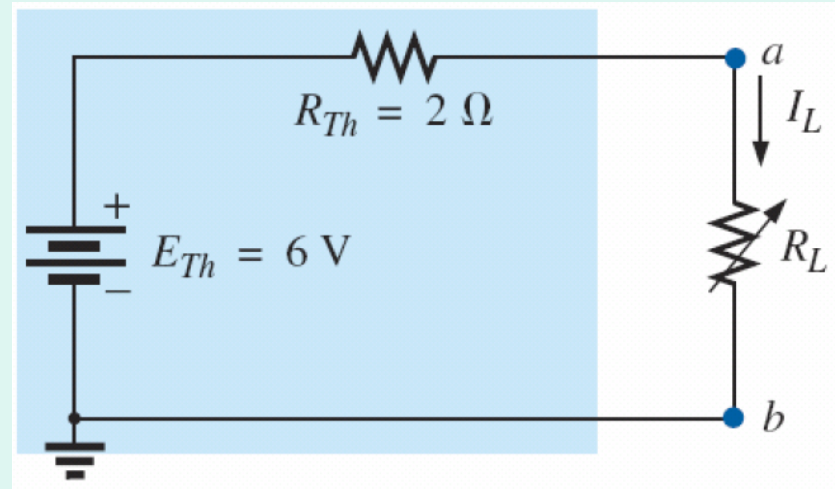
Useful for simplification of circuits

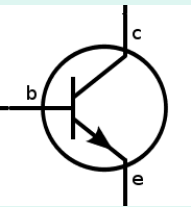
- Find the Thevenin equivalent between terminals a-b



$$R_{TH} = R_1 \parallel R_2 = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

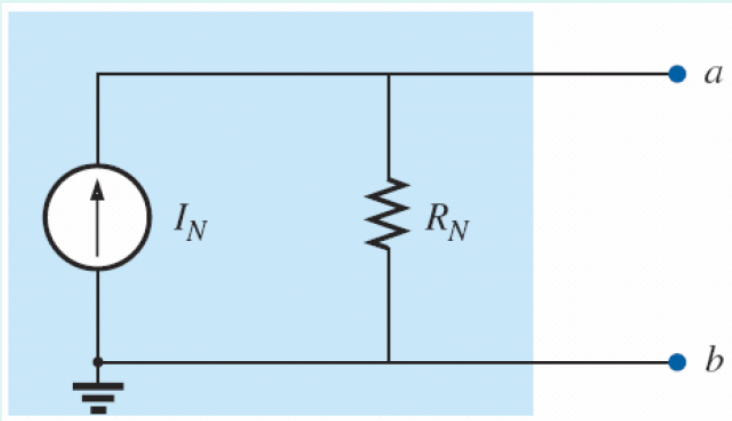
$$V_{TH} = E_1 \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$





Norton's theorem

- Any linear 2-terminal network can be replaced by an equivalent circuit consisting of a current source and a parallel impedance



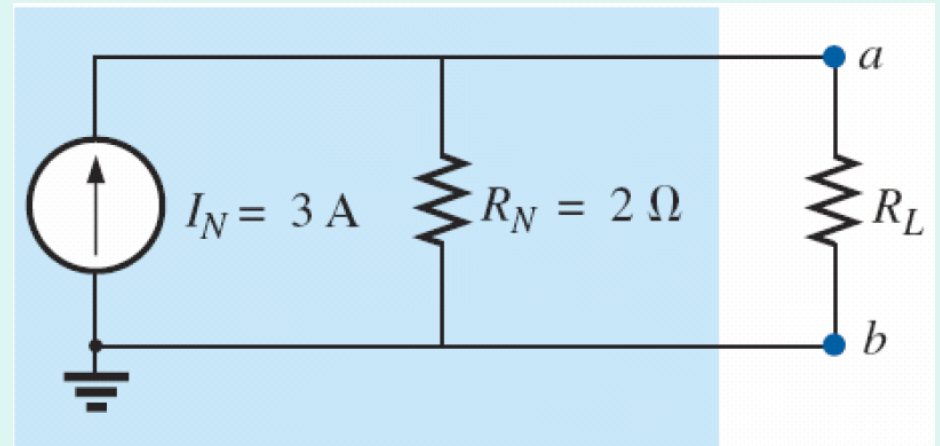
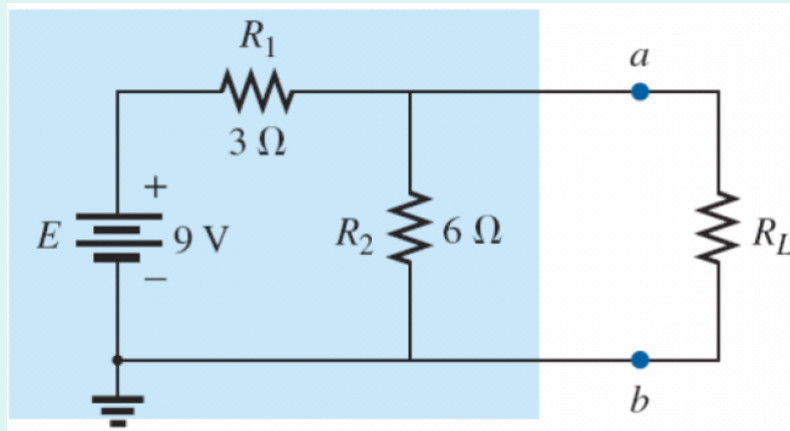
Norton equivalent circuit

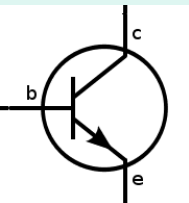
- $Z_N(s)$ is computed by setting all sources to zero (including all ICs) and then finding the resultant impedance between a-b ($Z_N(s) = Z_{th}(s)$)
- Calculate $I_N(s)$ by returning all sources to their original position and then finding the short-circuit current between a-b



Exm

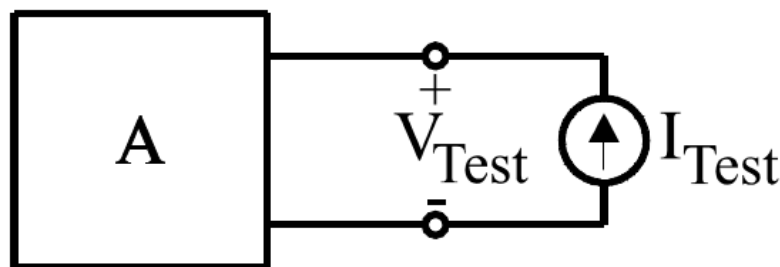
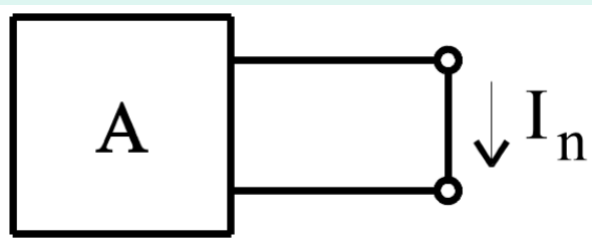
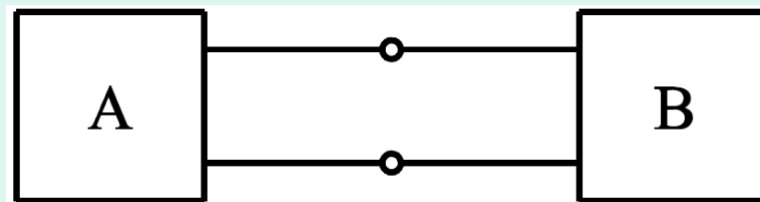
- Find the Norton equivalent circuit between a-b terminals



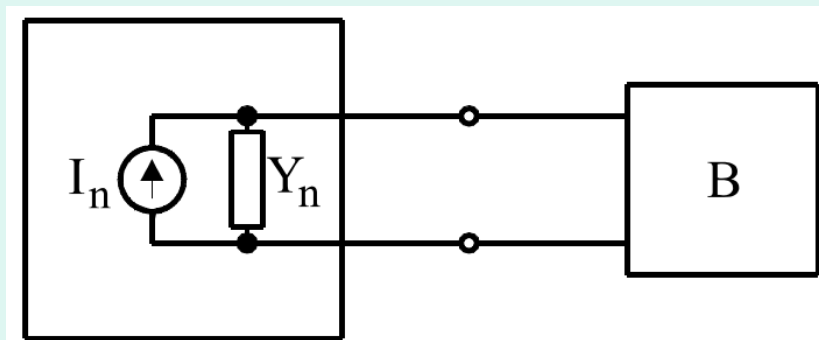


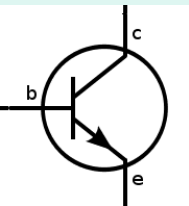
Norton's theorem - external view

- A portion of linear network may be represented at an electrical port by an equivalent circuit source I_n and an equivalent admittance Y_n

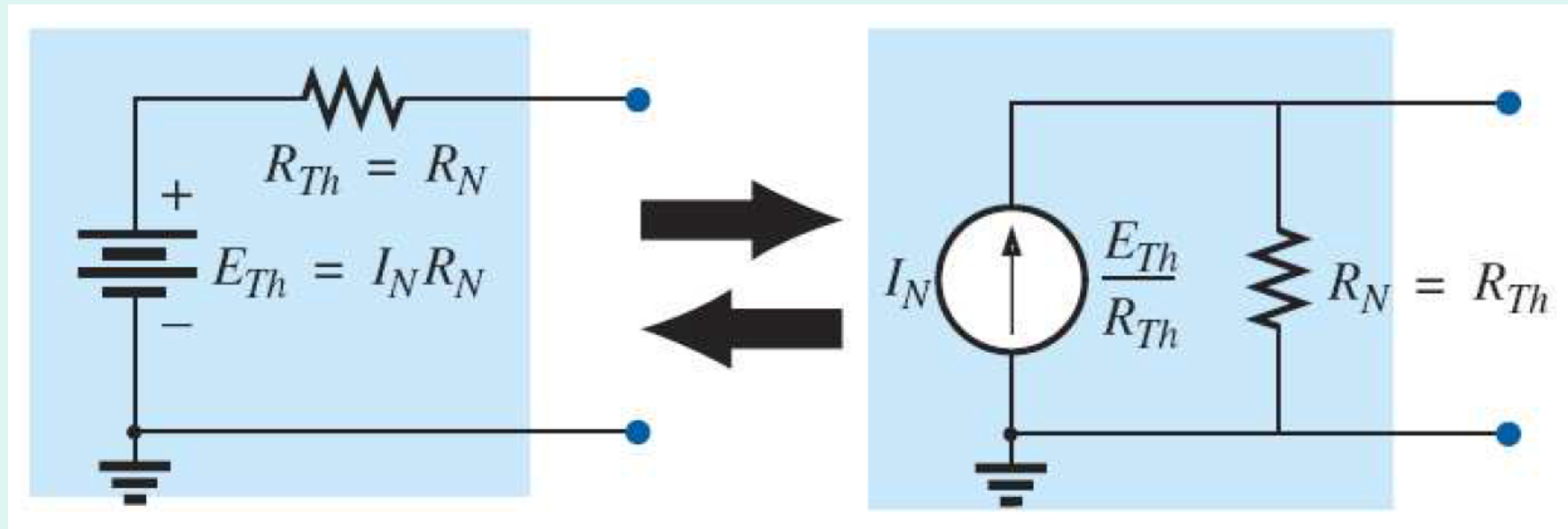


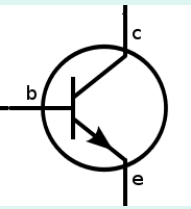
$$Y_n = \frac{I_{\text{Test}}}{V_{\text{Test}}}$$





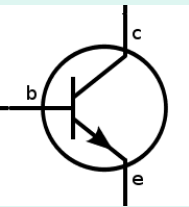
Converting between Thevening and Norton equivalent uniports





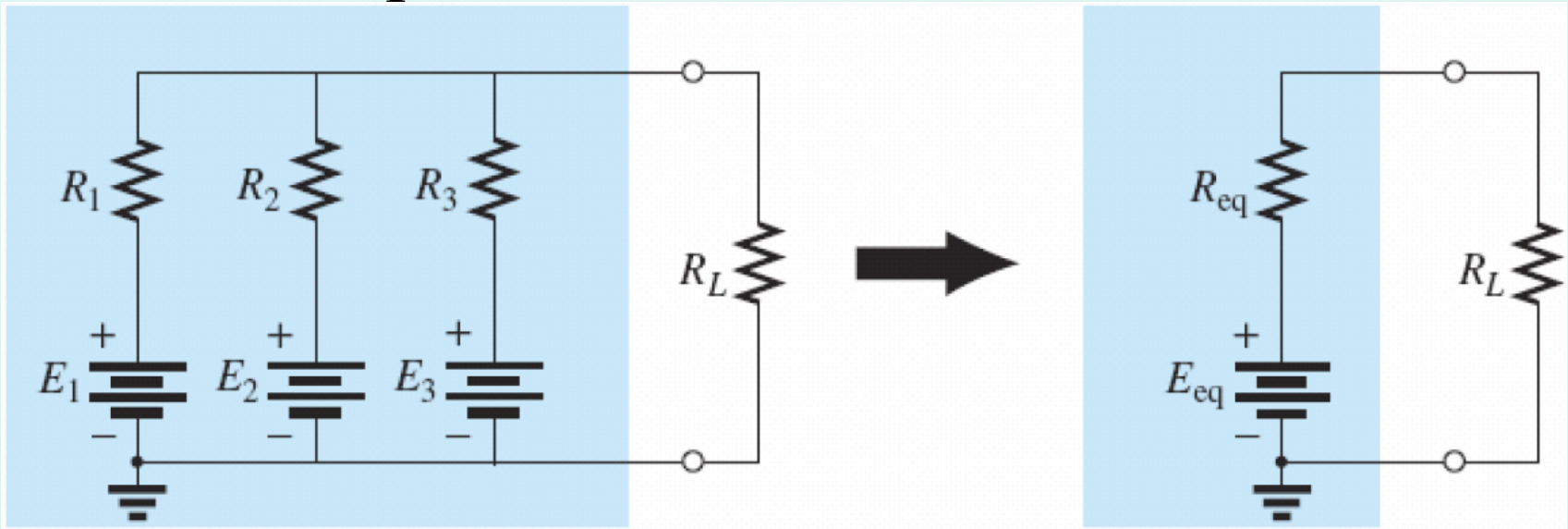
Question

- What to do if do not have access to the inner circuit (only to the port of A)? How do you determine the Thevenin/Norton equivalent?



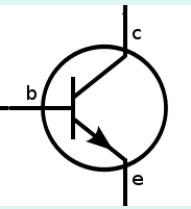
Circuit reduction techniques (2)

- **Millman's theorem** (for parallel branches) – any number of parallel branches can be reduced to one



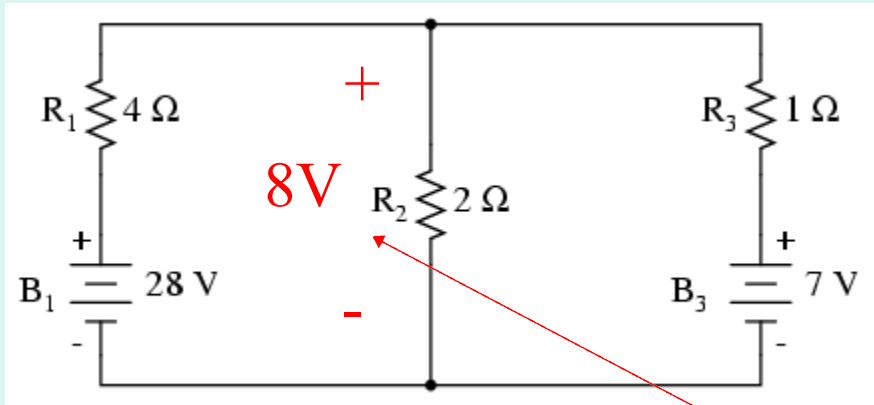
$$Y_{eq}(s) = Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 \left(\frac{1}{Z_{eq}(s)} = \frac{1}{Z_1} + \frac{1}{Z_2} + \frac{1}{Z_3} \right)$$

$$E_{eq}(s) = \frac{Y_1 E_1 + Y_2 E_2 + Y_3 E_3}{Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3}$$



Exm

- Circuit computation through Millman's theorem



Millman's Theorem Equation

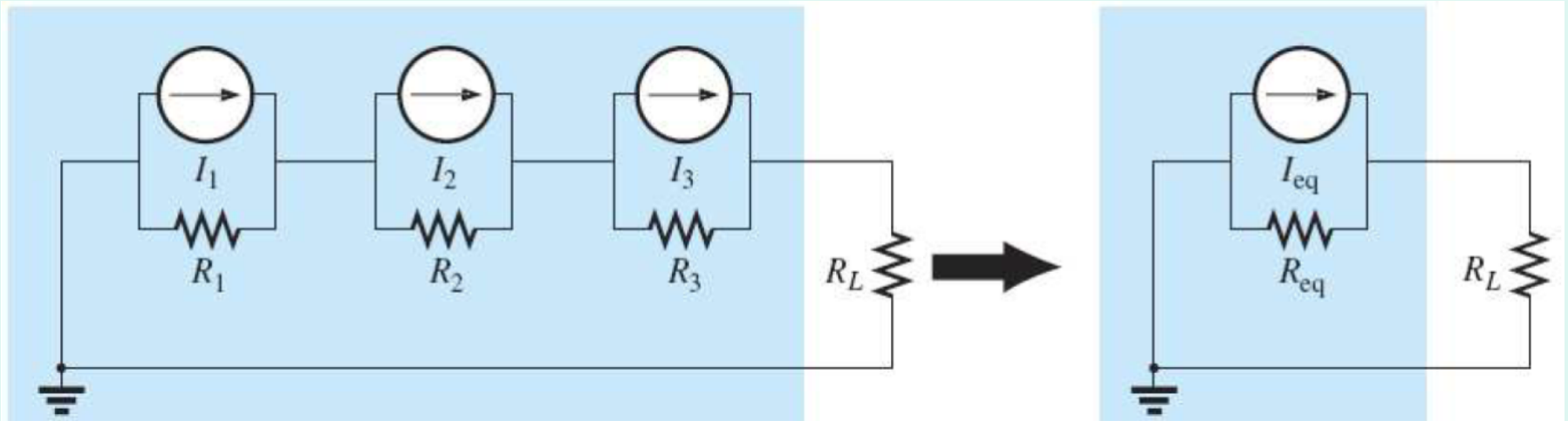
$$\frac{\frac{E_{B1}}{R_1} + \frac{E_{B2}}{R_2} + \frac{E_{B3}}{R_3}}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}} = \text{Voltage across all branches}$$

$$\frac{\frac{28 \text{ V}}{4 \Omega} + \frac{0 \text{ V}}{2 \Omega} + \frac{7 \text{ V}}{1 \Omega}}{\frac{1}{4 \Omega} + \frac{1}{2 \Omega} + \frac{1}{1 \Omega}} = 8 \text{ V}$$



Dual of Millman's theorem

- Reduces branches in series



$$Z_{eq}(s) = Z_1 + Z_2 + Z_3$$

$$I_{eq}(s) = \frac{Z_1 I_1 + Z_2 I_2 + Z_3 I_3}{Z_1 + Z_2 + Z_3}$$

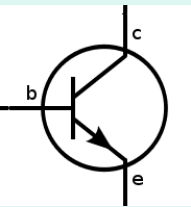


More subtle case: superposition with linear dependent sources

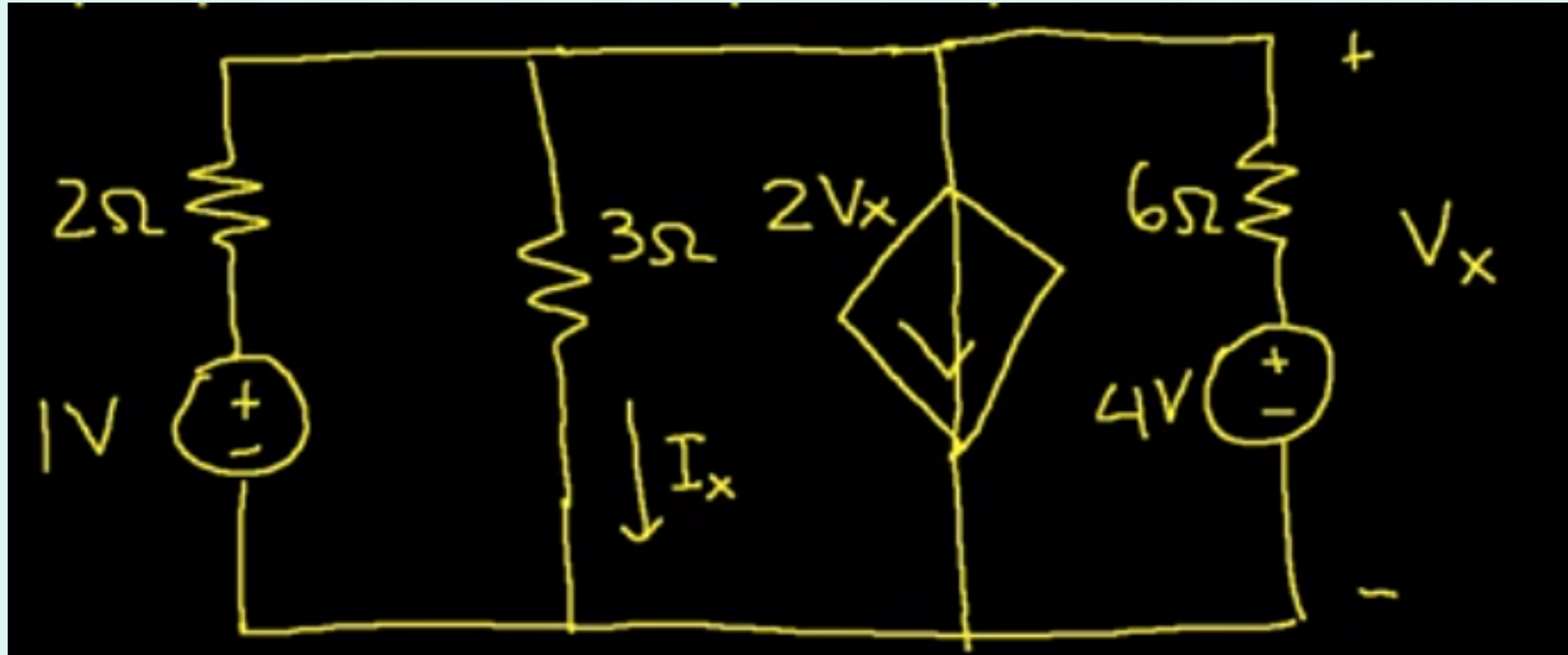
- Steps:

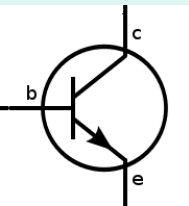
1. Identify sources: distinguish between independent and controlled sources in the circuit
2. Activate one independent source (replace the independent V sources with SC and Independent I sources with OC). Do not deactivate any controlled sources \Rightarrow analyze the circuit to find the partial output(s)
3. Repeat step 2 for all independent sources
4. Sum the partial contribution to get the total response





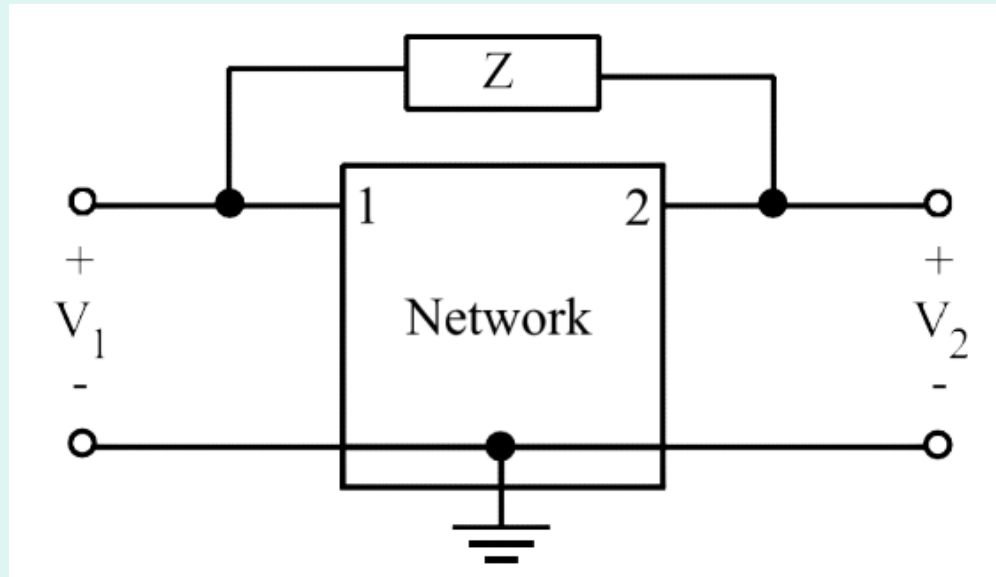
Homework example



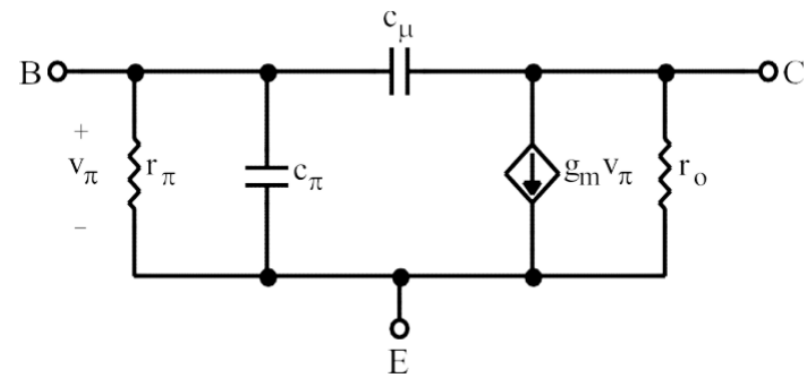
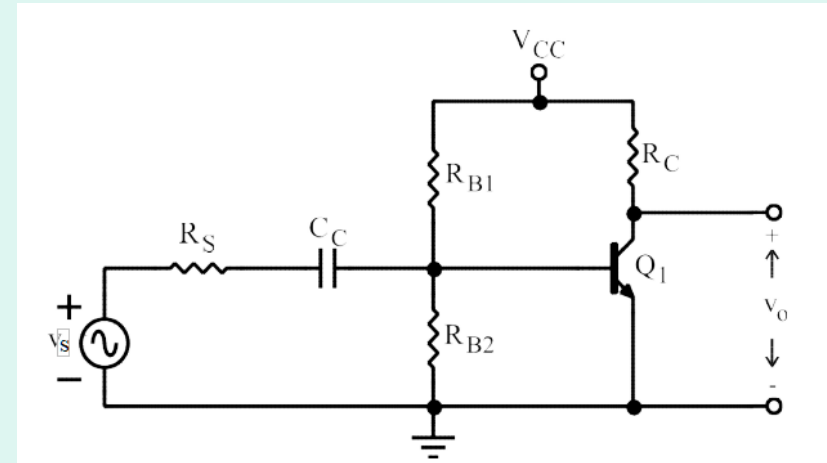


Miller's theorem

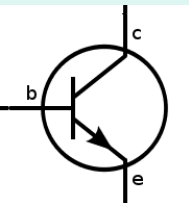
- Helps in analysis by eliminating the feedback



$$V_2 = kV_1$$

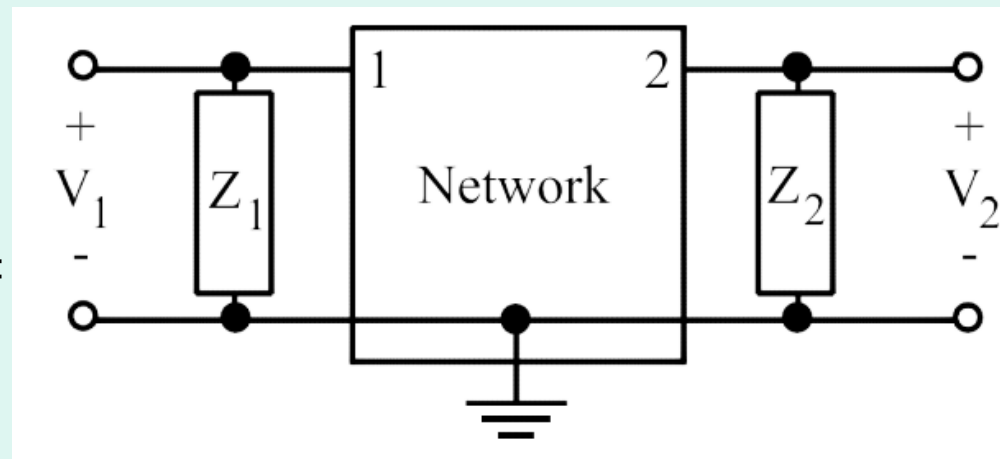
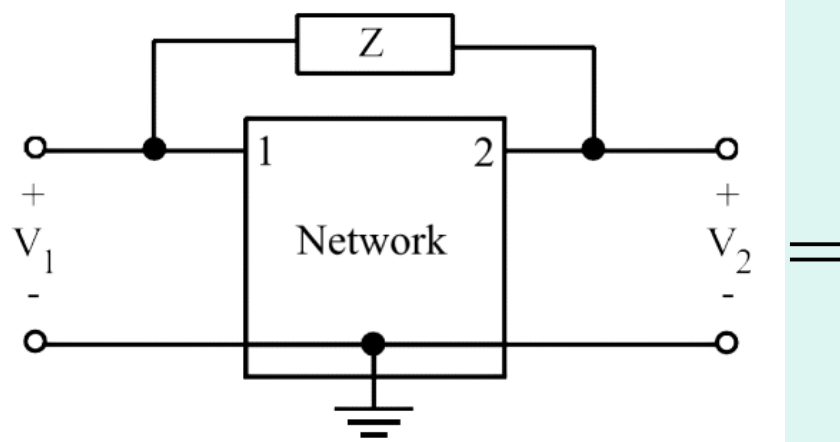


hybrid- π small signal model



Miller's theorem (2)

- Replace the Z feedback with two impedances Z_1 and Z_2



$$V_2 = kV_1$$

$$V_2 = kV_1$$

$$Z_1 = Z \frac{1}{1 - k}$$

$$Z_2 = Z \frac{k}{k - 1}$$

