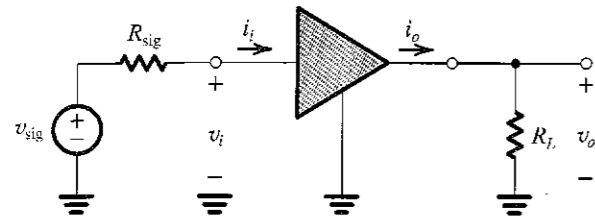


TABLE 4.3 Characteristic Parameters of Amplifiers

Circuit



Definitions

Input resistance with no load:

$$R_i \equiv \left. \frac{v_i}{i_i} \right|_{R_L = \infty}$$

Input resistance:

$$R_{in} \equiv \frac{v_i}{i_i}$$

Open-circuit voltage gain:

$$A_{vo} \equiv \left. \frac{v_o}{v_i} \right|_{R_L = \infty}$$

Voltage gain:

$$A_v \equiv \frac{v_o}{v_i}$$

Short-circuit current gain:

$$A_{is} \equiv \left. \frac{i_o}{i_i} \right|_{R_L = 0}$$

Current gain:

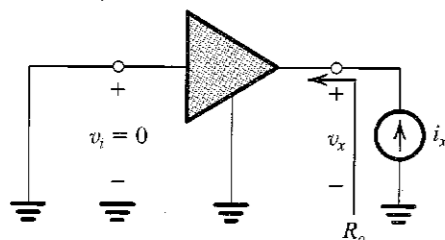
$$A_i \equiv \frac{i_o}{i_i}$$

Short-circuit transconductance:

$$G_m \equiv \left. \frac{i_o}{v_i} \right|_{R_L = 0}$$

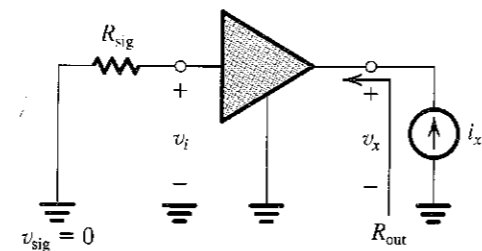
Output resistance of amplifier proper:

$$R_o \equiv \left. \frac{v_x}{i_x} \right|_{v_i = 0}$$



Output resistance:

$$R_{out} \equiv \left. \frac{v_x}{i_x} \right|_{v_{sig} = 0}$$



Open-circuit overall voltage gain:

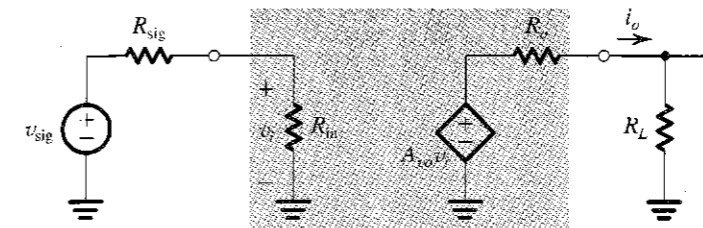
$$G_{vo} \equiv \left. \frac{v_o}{v_{sig}} \right|_{R_L = \infty}$$

Overall voltage gain:

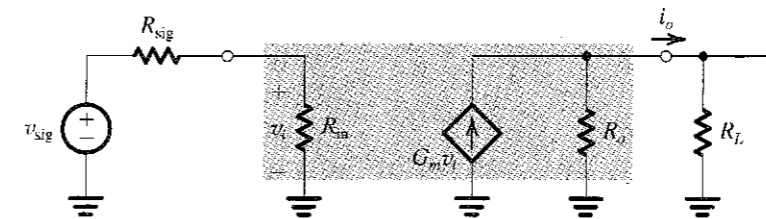
$$G_v \equiv \frac{v_o}{v_{sig}}$$

Equivalent Circuits

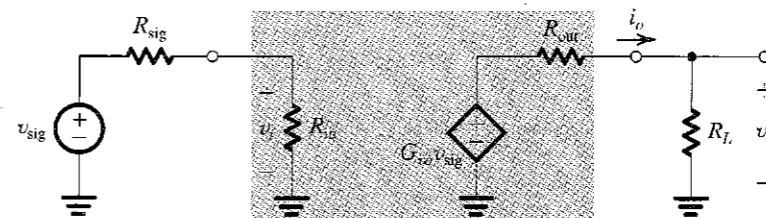
A:



B:



C:



Relationships

$$\frac{v_i}{v_{sig}} = \frac{R_{in}}{R_{in} + R_{sig}}$$

$$A_v = A_{vo} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o}$$

$$A_{vo} = G_m R_o$$

$$G_v = \frac{R_{in}}{R_{in} + R_{sig}} A_{vo} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o}$$

$$G_{vo} = \frac{R_o}{R_o + R_{sig}} A_{vo}$$

$$G_v = G_{vo} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_{out}}$$

- When evaluating the gain  $A_v$  from the open-circuit value  $A_{vo}$ ,  $R_o$  is the output resistance to use. This is because  $A_v$  is based on feeding the amplifier with an ideal voltage signal  $v_i$ . This should be evident from Equivalent Circuit A in Table 4.3. On the other hand, if we are evaluating the overall voltage gain  $G_v$  from its open-circuit value  $G_{vo}$ , the output resistance to use is  $R_{out}$ . This is because  $G_v$  is based on feeding the amplifier with  $v_{sig}$ , which has an internal resistance  $R_{sig}$ . This should be evident from Equivalent Circuit C in Table 4.3.
- We urge the reader to carefully examine and reflect on the definitions and the six relationships presented in Table 4.3. Example 4.11 should help in this regard.

## EXAMPLE 4.11

A transistor amplifier is fed with a signal source having an open-circuit voltage  $v_{sig}$  of 10 mV and an internal resistance  $R_{sig}$  of 100 k $\Omega$ . The voltage  $v_i$  at the amplifier input and the output voltage  $v_o$  are measured both without and with a load resistance  $R_L = 10$  k $\Omega$  connected to the amplifier output. The measured results are as follows:

|                      | $v_i$ (mV) | $v_o$ (mV) |
|----------------------|------------|------------|
| Without $R_L$        | 9          | 90         |
| With $R_L$ connected | 8          | 70         |

Find all the amplifier parameters.

**Solution**

First, we use the data obtained for  $R_L = \infty$  to determine

$$A_{vo} = \frac{90}{9} = 10 \text{ V/V}$$

and

$$G_{vo} = \frac{90}{10} = 9 \text{ V/V}$$

Now, since

$$G_{vo} = \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_{sig}} A_{vo}$$

$$9 = \frac{R_i}{R_i + 100} \times 10$$

which gives

$$R_i = 900 \text{ k}\Omega$$

Next, we use the data obtained when  $R_L = 10$  k $\Omega$  is connected to the amplifier output to determine

$$A_v = \frac{70}{8} = 8.75 \text{ V/V}$$

and

$$G_v = \frac{70}{10} = 7 \text{ V/V}$$

The values of  $A_v$  and  $A_{vo}$  can be used to determine  $R_o$  as follows:

$$A_v = A_{vo} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o}$$

$$8.75 = 10 \frac{10}{10 + R_o}$$

which gives

$$R_o = 1.43 \text{ k}\Omega$$

Similarly, we use the values of  $G_v$  and  $G_{vo}$  to determine  $R_{out}$  from

$$G_v = G_{vo} \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_{out}}$$

$$7 = 9 \frac{10}{10 + R_{out}}$$

resulting in

$$R_{out} = 2.86 \text{ k}\Omega$$

The value of  $R_{in}$  can be determined from

$$\frac{v_i}{v_{sig}} = \frac{R_{in}}{R_{in} + R_{sig}}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{8}{10} = \frac{R_{in}}{R_{in} + 100}$$

which yields

$$R_{in} = 400 \text{ k}\Omega$$

The short-circuit transconductance  $G_m$  can be found as follows:

$$G_m = \frac{A_{vo}}{R_o} = \frac{10}{1.43} = 7 \text{ mA/V}$$

and the current gain  $A_i$  can be determined as follows:

$$A_i = \frac{v_o/R_L}{v_i/R_{in}} = \frac{v_o R_{in}}{v_i R_L}$$

$$= A_v \frac{R_{in}}{R_L} = 8.75 \times \frac{400}{10} = 350 \text{ A/A}$$

Finally, we determine the short-circuit current gain  $A_{is}$  as follows. From Equivalent Circuit A in Table 4.3, the short-circuit output current is

$$i_{osc} = A_{vo} v_i / R_o$$

However, to determine  $v_i$  we need to know the value of  $R_{in}$  obtained with  $R_L = 0$ . Toward that end, note that from Equivalent Circuit C, the output short-circuit current can be found as

$$i_{osc} = G_{vo} v_{sig} / R_{out}$$

Now, equating the two expressions for  $i_{osc}$  and substituting for  $G_{vo}$  by

$$G_{vo} = \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_{sig}} A_{vo}$$

and for  $v_i$  from

$$v_i = v_{sig} \frac{R_{in}|_{R_L=0}}{R_{in}|_{R_L=0} + R_{sig}}$$

results in

$$R_{in}|_{R_L=0} = R_{sig} / \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{R_{sig}}{R_i} \right) \left( \frac{R_{out}}{R_o} \right) - 1 \right]$$

$$= 81.8 \text{ k}\Omega$$

We now can use

$$i_{osc} = A_{vo} i_i R_{in}|_{R_L=0} / R_o$$

to obtain

$$A_{is} \equiv \frac{i_{osc}}{i_i} = 10 \times 81.8 / 1.43 = 572 \text{ A/A}$$

**EXERCISE**

4.31 (a) If in the amplifier of Example 4.11,  $R_{sig}$  is doubled, find the values for  $R_{in}$ ,  $G_m$  and  $R_{out}$ . (b) Repeat for  $R_L$  doubled (but  $R_{sig}$  unchanged; i.e., 100 k $\Omega$ ). (c) Repeat for both  $R_{sig}$  and  $R_L$  doubled.  
 Ans. (a) 400 k $\Omega$ , 5.83 V/V, 4.03 k $\Omega$ ; (b) 538 k $\Omega$ , 7.87 V/V, 2.86 k $\Omega$ ; (c) 538 k $\Omega$ , 6.8 V/V, 4.03 k $\Omega$

**4.7.3 The Common-Source (CS) Amplifier**

The common-source (CS) or grounded-source configuration is the most widely used of all MOSFET amplifier circuits. A common-source amplifier realized using the circuit of Fig. 4.42 is shown in Fig. 4.43(a). Observe that to establish a **signal ground**, or an **ac ground** as it is sometimes called, at the source, we have connected a large capacitor,  $C_S$ , between the source and ground. This capacitor, usually in the  $\mu$ F range, is required to provide a very small impedance (ideally, zero impedance; i.e., in effect, a short circuit) at all signal frequencies of interest. In this way, the signal current passes through  $C_S$  to ground and thus *bypasses* the output resistance of current source  $I$  (and any other circuit component that might be connected to the MOSFET source); hence,  $C_S$  is called a **bypass capacitor**. Obviously, the lower the signal frequency, the less effective the bypass capacitor becomes. This issue will be studied in Section 4.9. For our purposes here we shall assume that  $C_S$  is acting as a perfect short circuit and thus is establishing a zero signal voltage at the MOSFET source.

In order not to disturb the dc bias current and voltages, the signal to be amplified, shown as voltage source  $v_{sig}$  with an internal resistance  $R_{sig}$ , is connected to the gate through a large capacitor  $C_{C1}$ . Capacitor  $C_{C1}$ , known as a **coupling capacitor**, is required to act as a perfect short circuit at all signal frequencies of interest while blocking dc. Here again, we note that as the signal frequency is lowered, the impedance of  $C_{C1}$  (i.e.,  $1/j\omega C_{C1}$ ) will increase and its effectiveness as a coupling capacitor will be correspondingly reduced. This problem too will be considered in Section 4.9 when the dependence of the amplifier operation on frequency is studied. For our purposes here we shall assume  $C_{C1}$  is acting as a perfect short circuit as far as the signal is concerned. Before leaving  $C_{C1}$ , we should point out that in situations where the signal source can provide an appropriate dc path to ground, the gate can be connected directly to the signal source and both  $R_G$  and  $C_{C1}$  can be dispensed with.

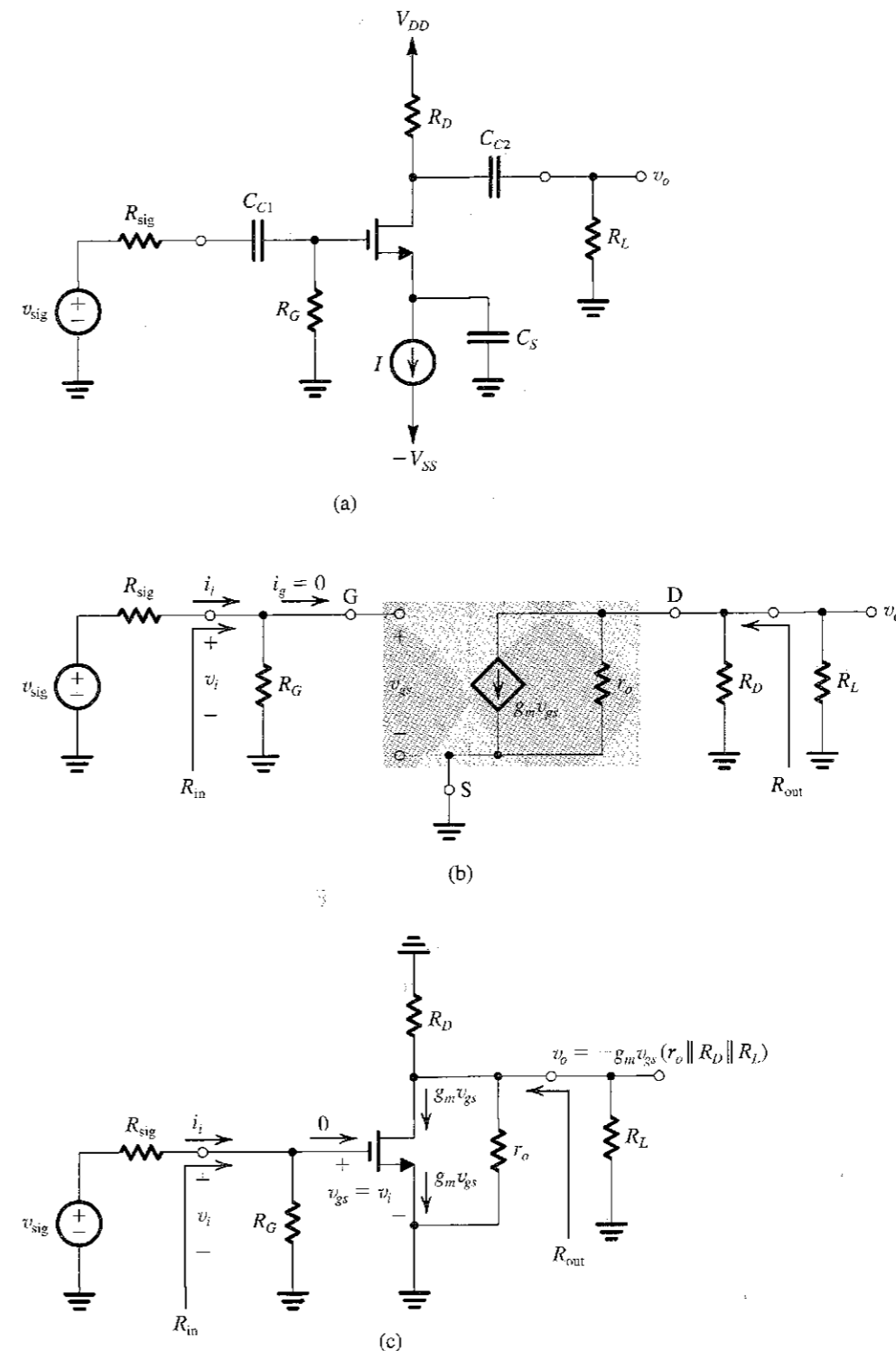
The voltage signal resulting at the drain is coupled to the load resistance  $R_L$  via another coupling capacitor  $C_{C2}$ . We shall assume that  $C_{C2}$  acts as a perfect short circuit at all signal frequencies of interest and thus that the output voltage  $v_o = v_d$ . Note that  $R_L$  can be either an actual load resistor, to which the amplifier is required to provide its output voltage signal, or it can be the input resistance of another amplifier stage in cases where more than one stage of amplification is needed. (We will study multistage amplifiers in Chapter 7.)

To determine the terminal characteristics of the CS amplifier—that is, its input resistance, voltage gain, and output resistance—we replace the MOSFET with its small-signal model. The resulting circuit is shown in Fig. 4.43(b). At the outset we observe that this amplifier is unilateral. Therefore  $R_{in}$  does not depend on  $R_L$ , and thus  $R_{in} = R_i$ . Also,  $R_{out}$  will not depend on  $R_{sig}$ , and thus  $R_{out} = R_o$ . Analysis of this circuit is straightforward and proceeds in a step-by-step manner, from the signal source to the amplifier load. At the input

$$i_g = 0$$

$$R_{in} = R_G \tag{4.78}$$

$$v_i = v_{sig} \frac{R_{in}}{R_{in} + R_{sig}} = v_{sig} \frac{R_G}{R_G + R_{sig}} \tag{4.79}$$



**FIGURE 4.43** (a) Common-source amplifier based on the circuit of Fig. 4.42. (b) Equivalent circuit of the amplifier for small-signal analysis. (c) Small-signal analysis performed directly on the amplifier circuit with the MOSFET model implicitly utilized.