# (20A04101T) ELECTRONIC DEVICES & CIRCUITS

Dr.G.ELAIYARAJA., M.E.Ph.D

**Professor** 

**Department of ECE** 

**VEMU Institute of Technology,** 

P.Kothakota, Chittoor, AP.

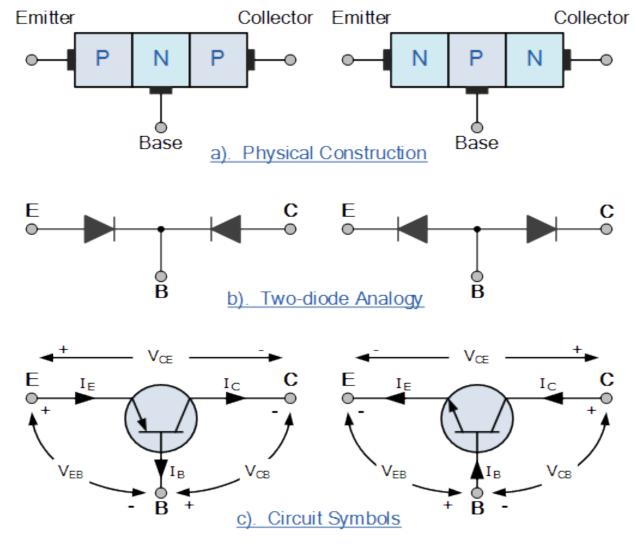
### Unit-3

- **❖** BJT Circuits at DC
- ❖ Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design
  - Voltage Amplifier
  - Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC)
  - Small-Signal Voltage Gain
  - Determining the VTC by Graphical Analysis
  - Q-POINT
- Small-Signal Operation and Models
  - > Transconductance
  - > Input Resistance at the Base
  - > Input Resistance at the Emitter
  - Voltage Gain
  - Separating the Signal and the DC Quantities
  - $\rightarrow$  The **Hybrid-** $\pi$  **Model**
  - > the **T Model**

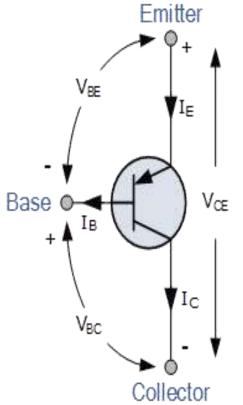
- Basic BJT Amplifier Configurations
  - Common-Emitter (CE) amplifier without and with emitter resistance
  - > Common-Base (CB) amplifier
  - Common-Collector (CC) amplifier or Emitter Follower
- Biasing in BJT Amplifier Circuits
  - > Fixed bias
  - > Self bias
  - Voltage Divider Bias Circuits
- Biasing using a Constant-Current Source
- CE amplifier Small Signal Analysis and Design
- Transistor breakdown and Temperature Effects
- Problem solving.

**PNP Transistor** 

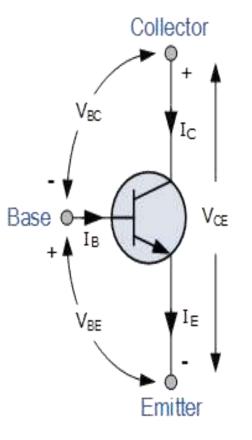
**NPN Transistor** 



**PNP Transistor** 



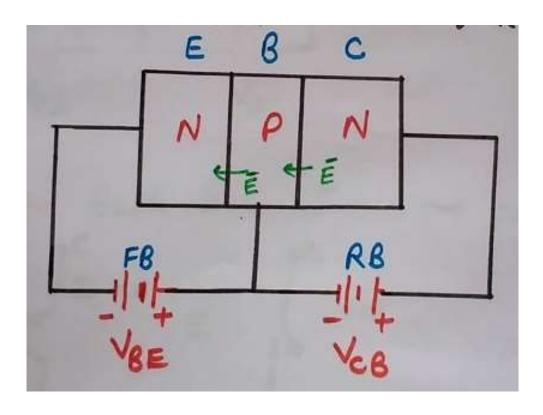
**NPN Transistor** 

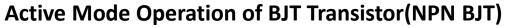


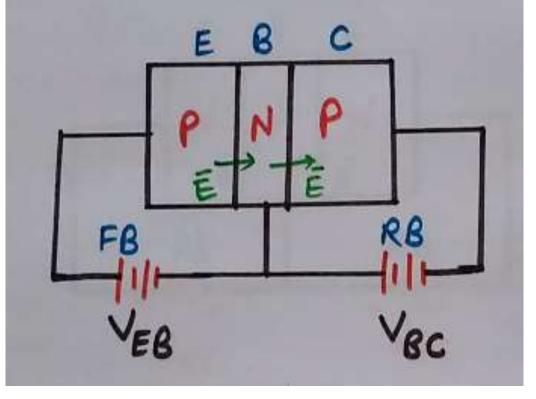
### **Operation Modes of BJT**

- \*Active mode
- \*Saturation mode
- \*Cutoff mode

Mode	EBJ	СВЈ
Cutoff	Reverse	Reverse
Active	Forward	Reverse
Saturation	Forward	Forward



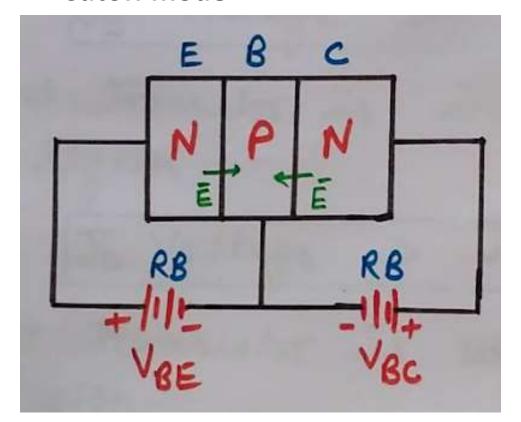




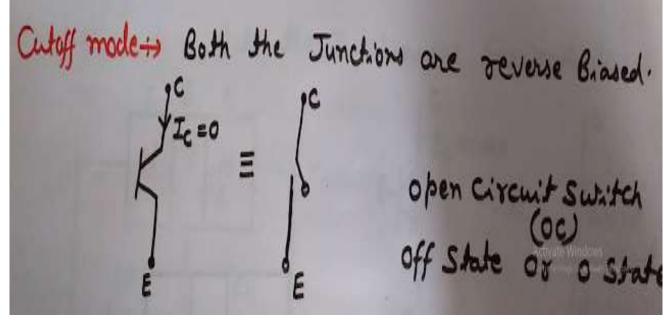
**Active Mode Operation of PNP BJT** 

### **Operation Modes of BJT**

- \*Active mode
- \*Saturation mode
- \*Cutoff mode



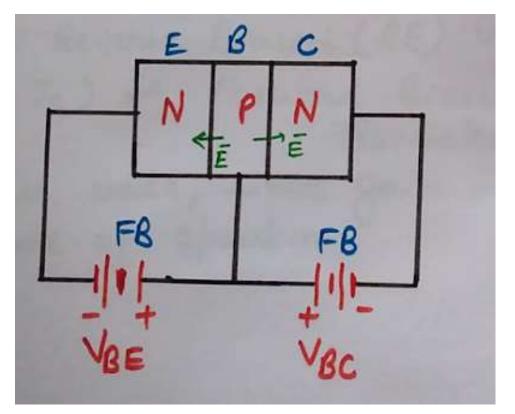
Mode	EBJ	СВЈ
Cutoff	Reverse	Reverse
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Saturation	Forward	Forward



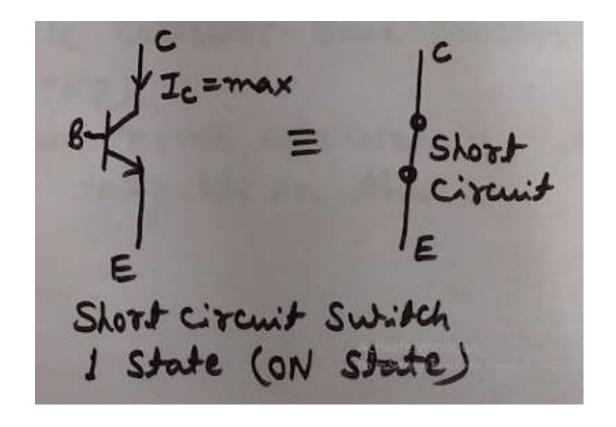
**Cut off Mode Operation of BJT** 

#### **Operation Modes of BJT**

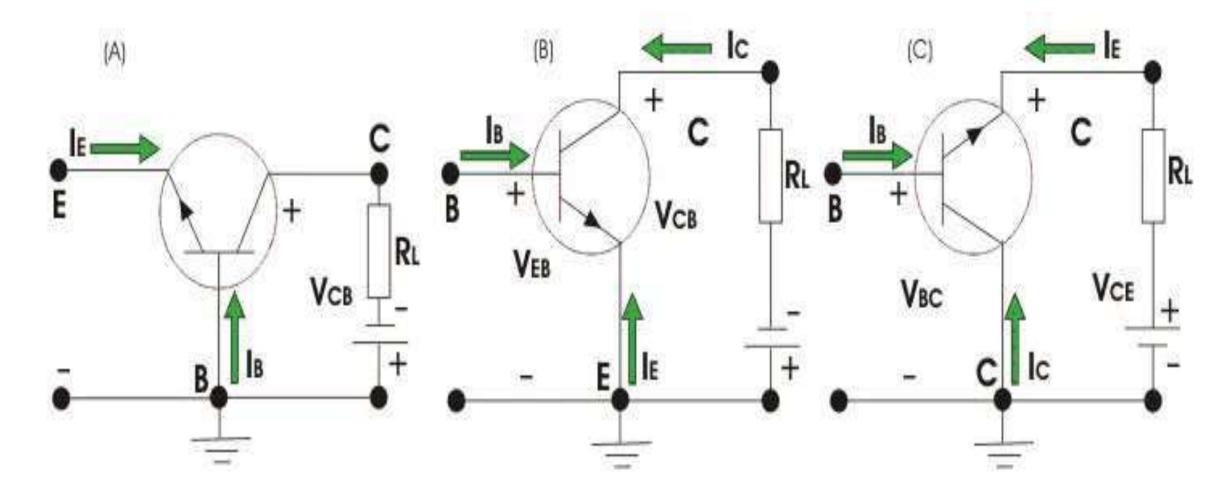
- \*Active mode
- \*Saturation mode
- \*Cutoff mode



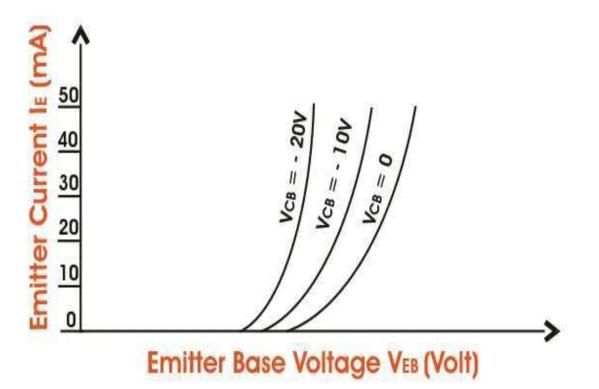
Mode	EBJ	СВЈ
Cutoff	Reverse	Reverse
Active	Forward	Reverse
Saturation	Forward	Forward



**Saturation Mode Operation of BJT** 

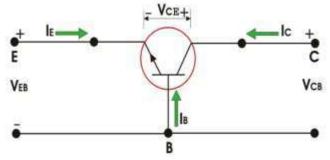


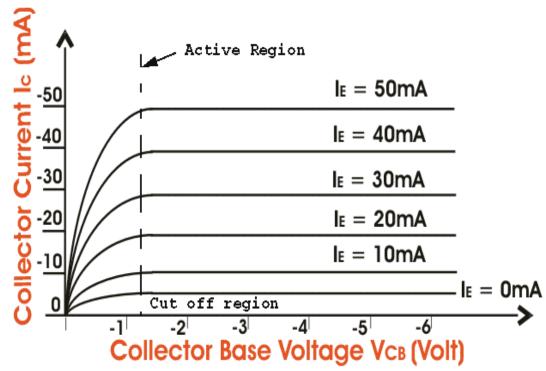
## **Common Base Characteristics Input Characteristics**



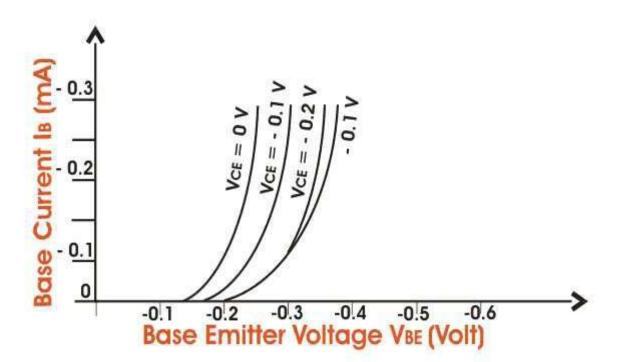




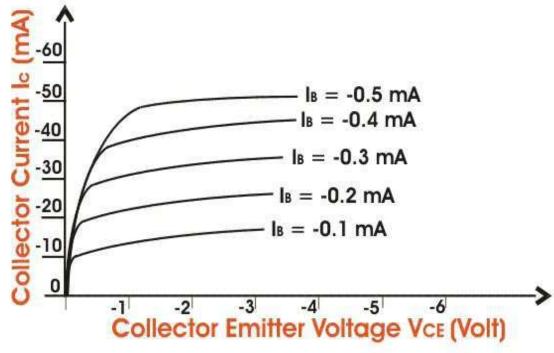




### **Common Emitter Characteristics Input Characteristics**



#### **Output Characteristics**



### **BJT Circuits at DC**

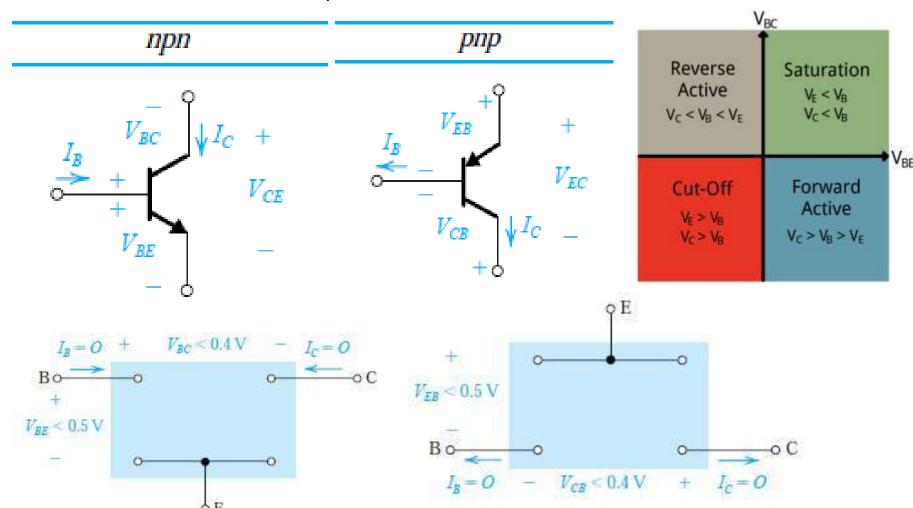
Conditions and Models for the Operation of the BJT in Various Modes

- Only DC
   Voltages are applied
- Vbe=0.7 V and Vce=0.2 V

Cutoff

EJB: Reverse Biased

CBJ: Reverse Biased



### **BJT Circuits at DC**

ΦE

Conditions and Models for the Operation of the BJT in Various Modes

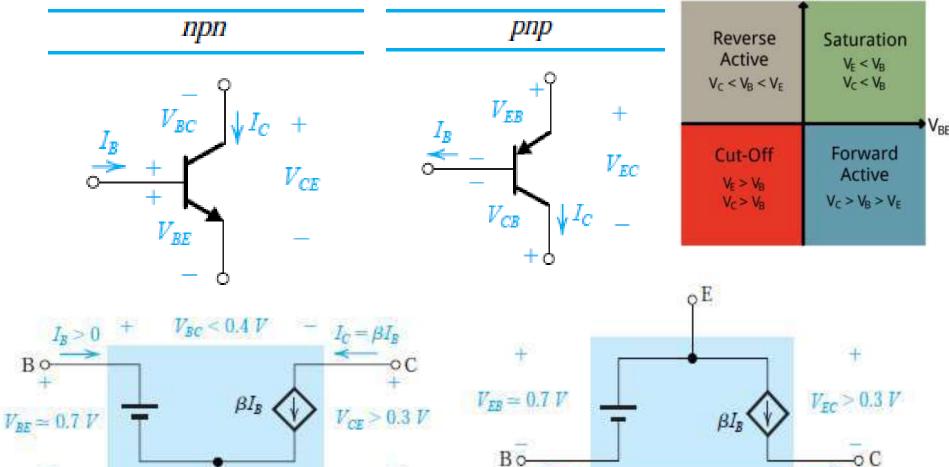
- npn Only DC
  - Voltages are applied
- Vbe=0.7 V and

Vce=0.2 V



EBJ: Forward Biased

CBJ: Reverse Biased



 $V_{BC}$ 

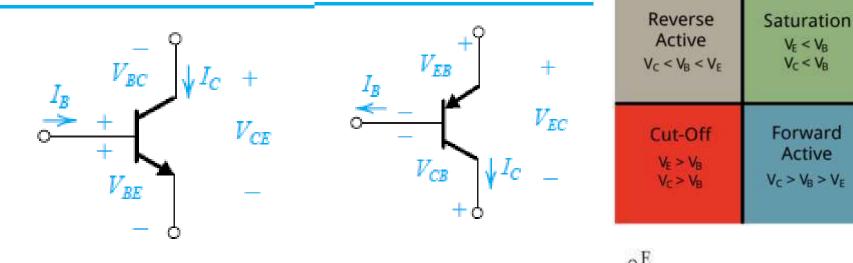
 $V_{CB} < 0.4 \ V$ 

### **BJT Circuits at DC**

npn

Conditions and Models for the Operation of the BJT in Various Modes

- Only DC Voltages are applied
- Vbe=0.7 V and Vce=0.2 V



pnp

 $V_{BC}$ 

VE < VR

Vc < VB

Forward

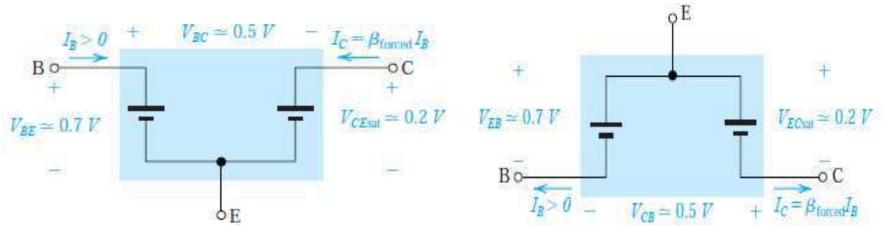
Active

 $V_{BE}$ 

#### Saturation

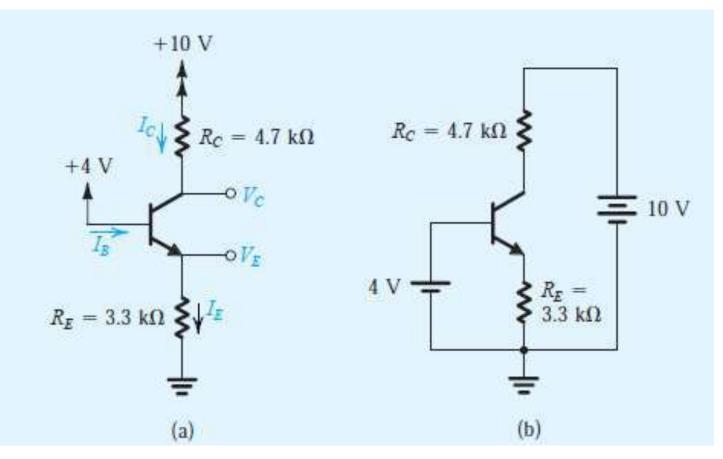
EBJ: Forward Biased

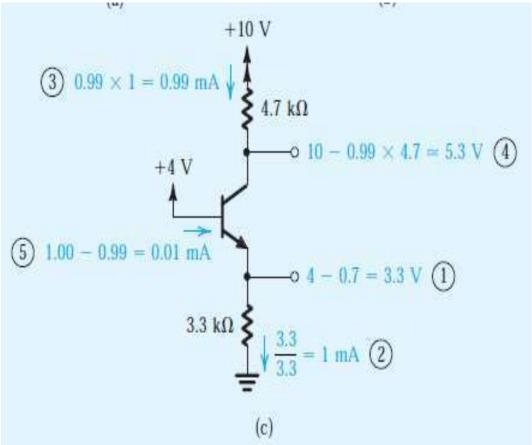
CBJ: Forward Biased



### BJT Circuits at DC-Active Mode(Problems)

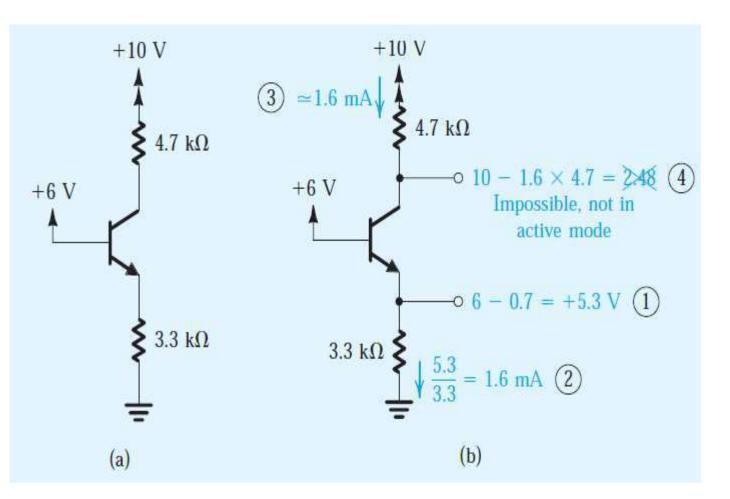
**Example,**  $\beta$  is specified to be 100.

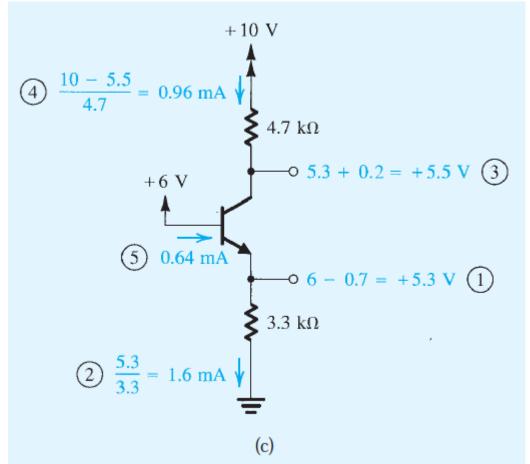




### BJT Circuits at DC-Saturation Mode(Problems)

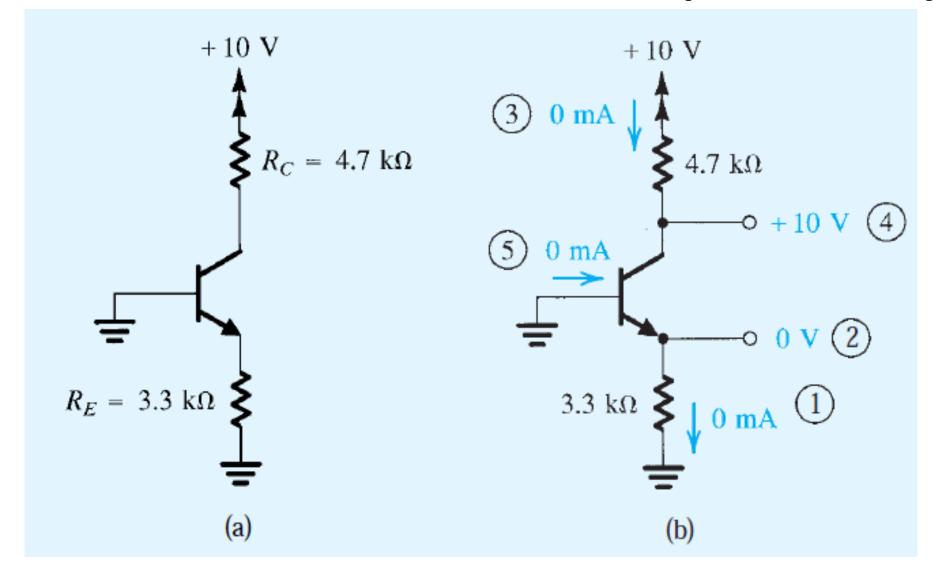
**Example,**  $\beta$  is specified to be ATLEAST OF 50.





## BJT Circuits at DC-Cutoff Mode(Problems)

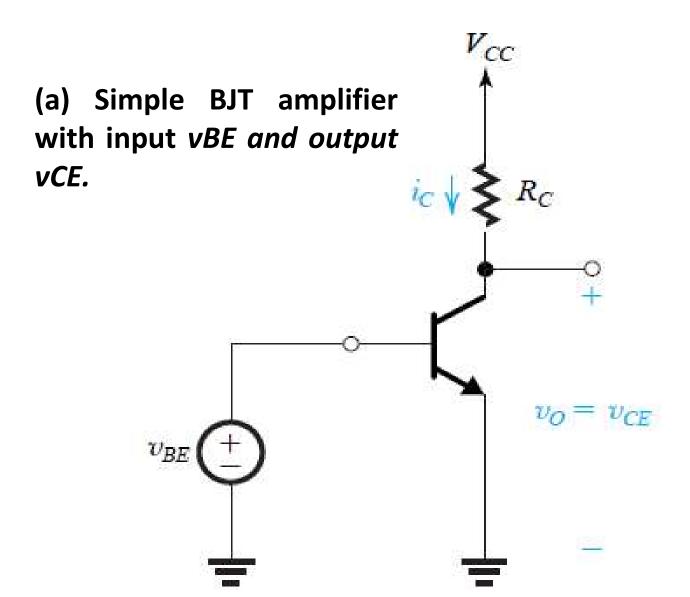
**Example** 



## Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design

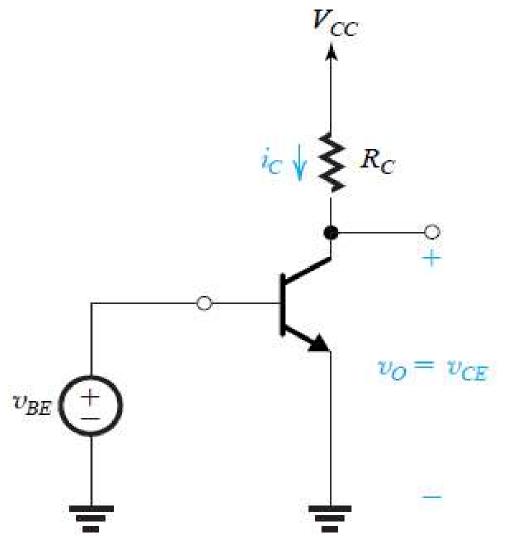
- The basis for this important application is that when operated in the active mode, the BJT functions as a voltage-controlled current source: the baseemitter voltage(Vbe) controls the collector current(Ic)
- Although the control relationship is nonlinear (exponential)
- we will shortly devise a method for obtaining almost-linear amplification from this fundamentally nonlinear device.
  - Voltage Amplifier
  - Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC)
  - Biasing the BJT to Obtain Linear Amplification
  - Small-Signal Voltage Gain
  - Determining the VTC by Graphical Analysis
  - Q-POINT

### Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design-Voltage Amplifier



- ❖ Voltage-controlled current source can serve as a transconductance amplifier, that is, an amplifier whose input signal is a voltage and whose output signal is a current.
- A simple way to convert a transconductance amplifier to a voltage amplifier is to pass the output current through a resistor and take the voltage across the resistor as the output.

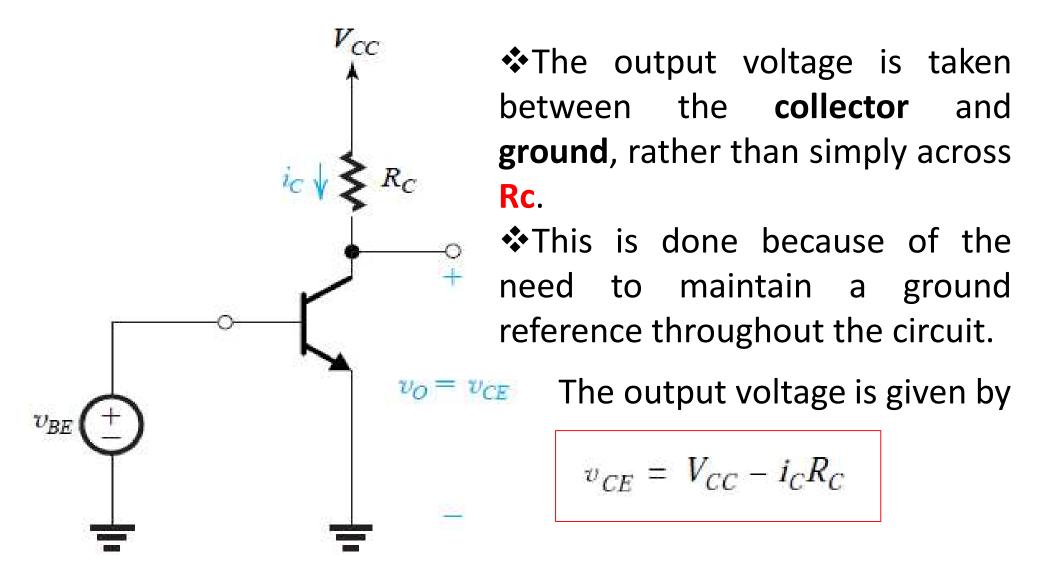
### Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design-Voltage Amplifier



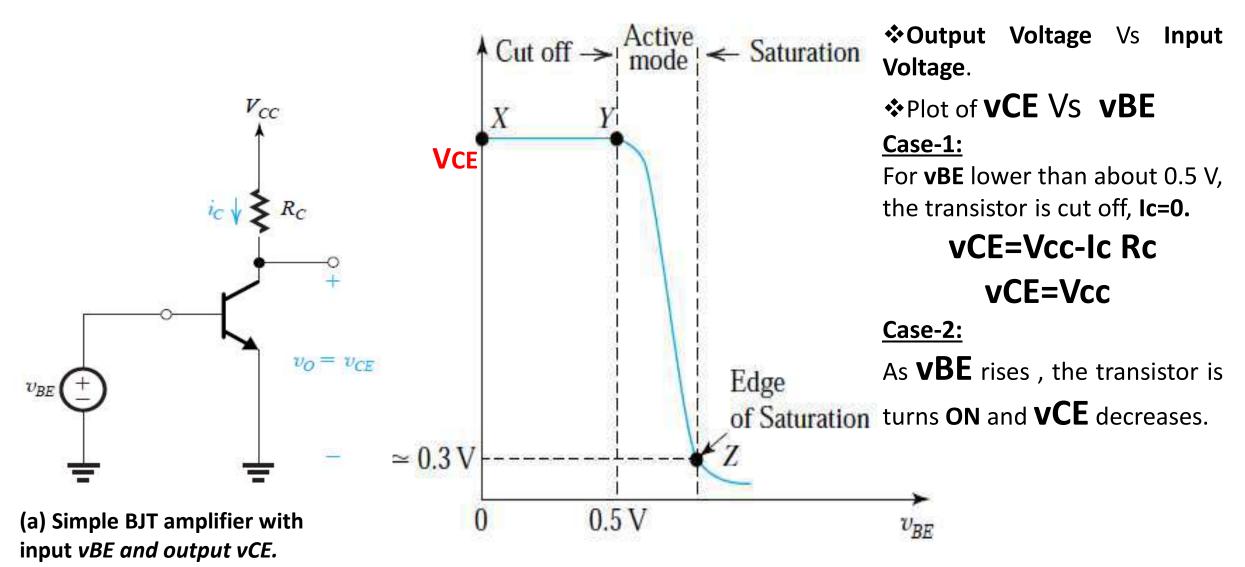
Here **vBE** is the input voltage, Rc (known as a load resistance) converts the collector current to a voltage (Ic Rc), and Vcc is the supply voltage that powers up the amplifier and, together with Rc, establishes operation in the active mode, as will be shown shortly.

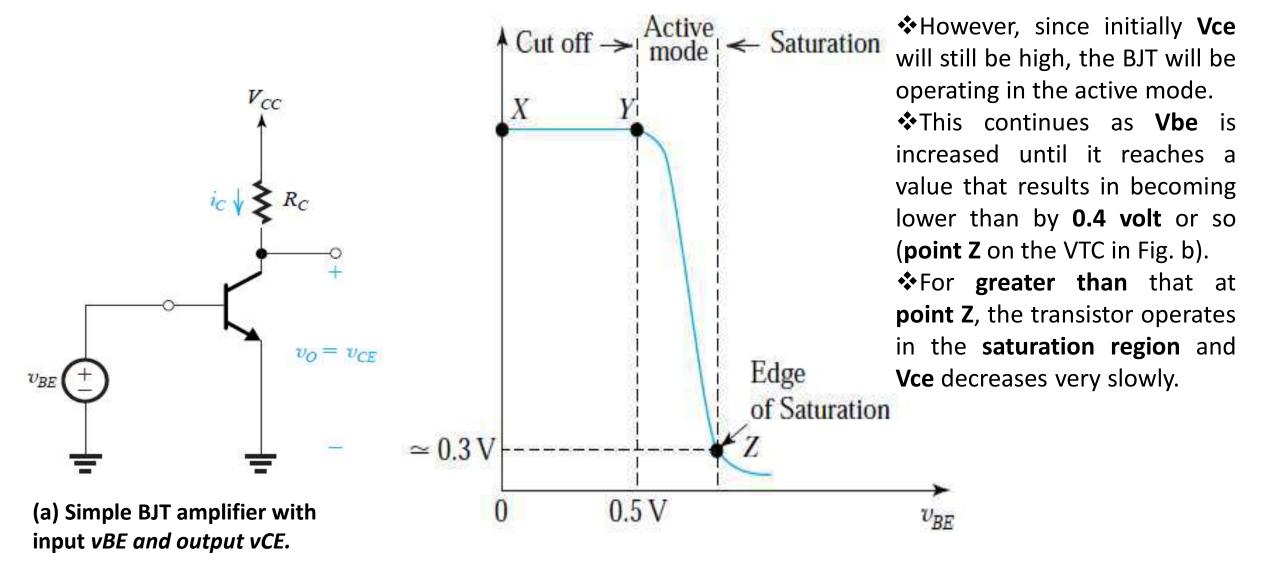
(a) Simple BJT amplifier with input vBE and output vCE.

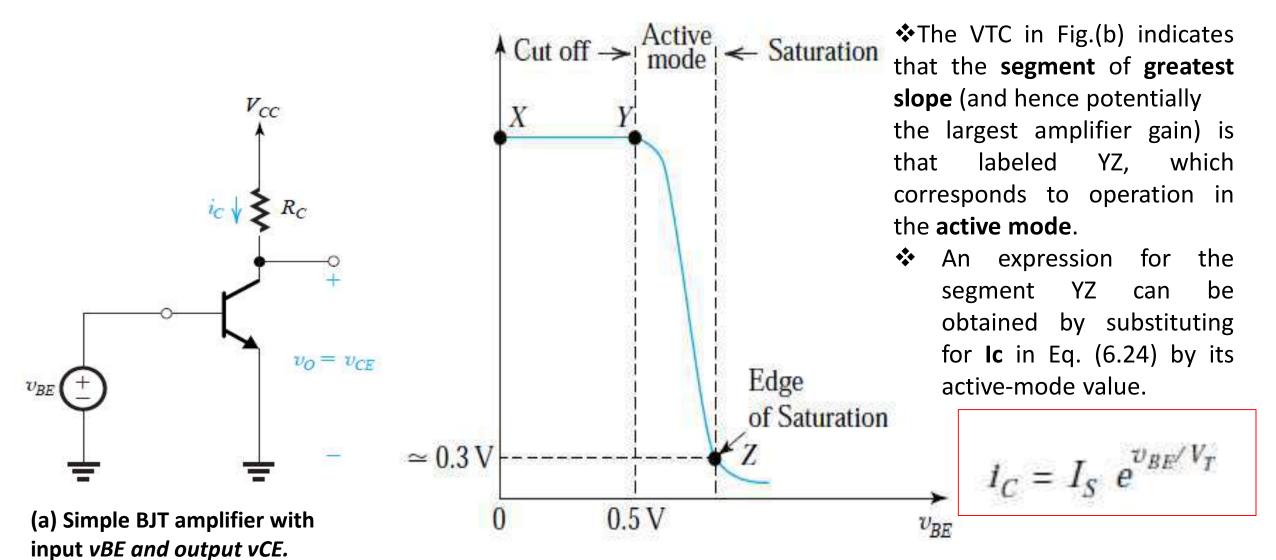
### Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design-Voltage Amplifier

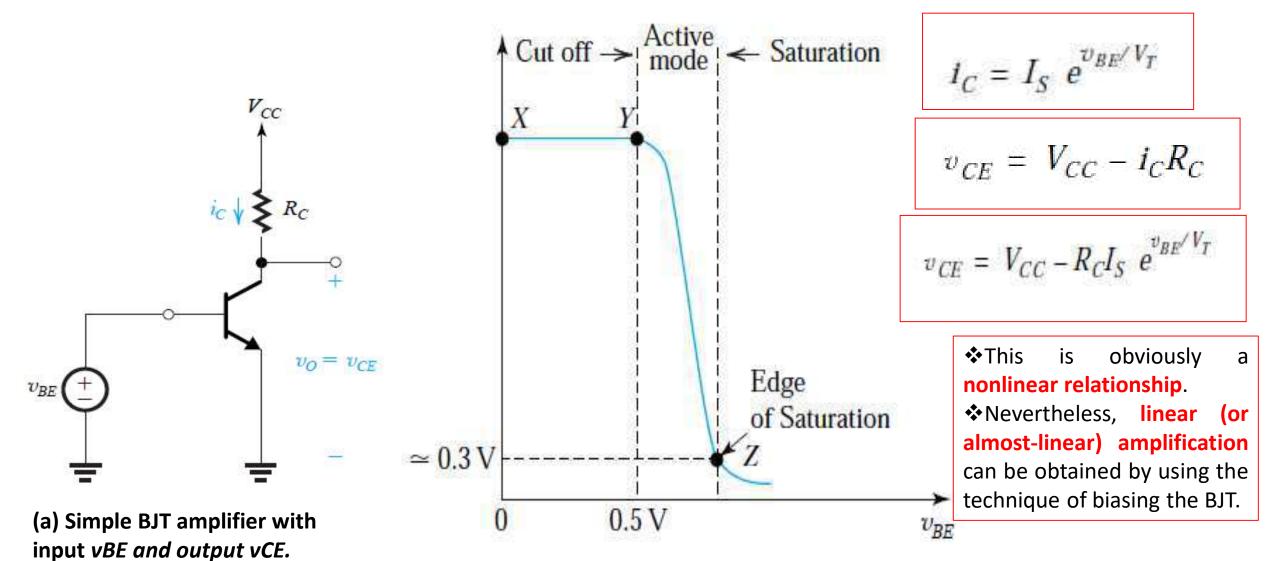


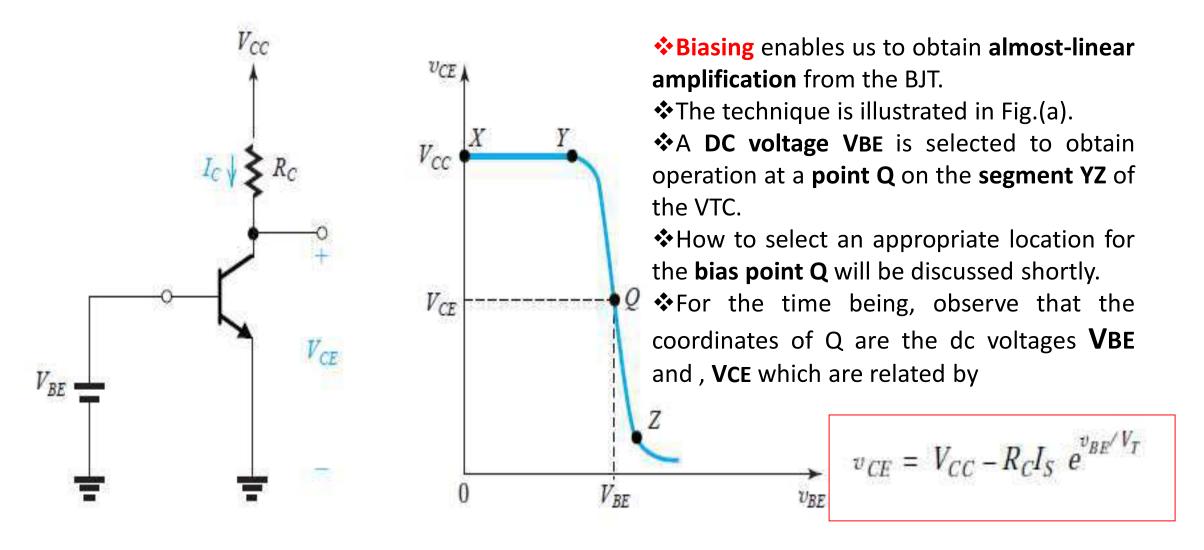
(a) Simple BJT amplifier with input vBE and output vCE.



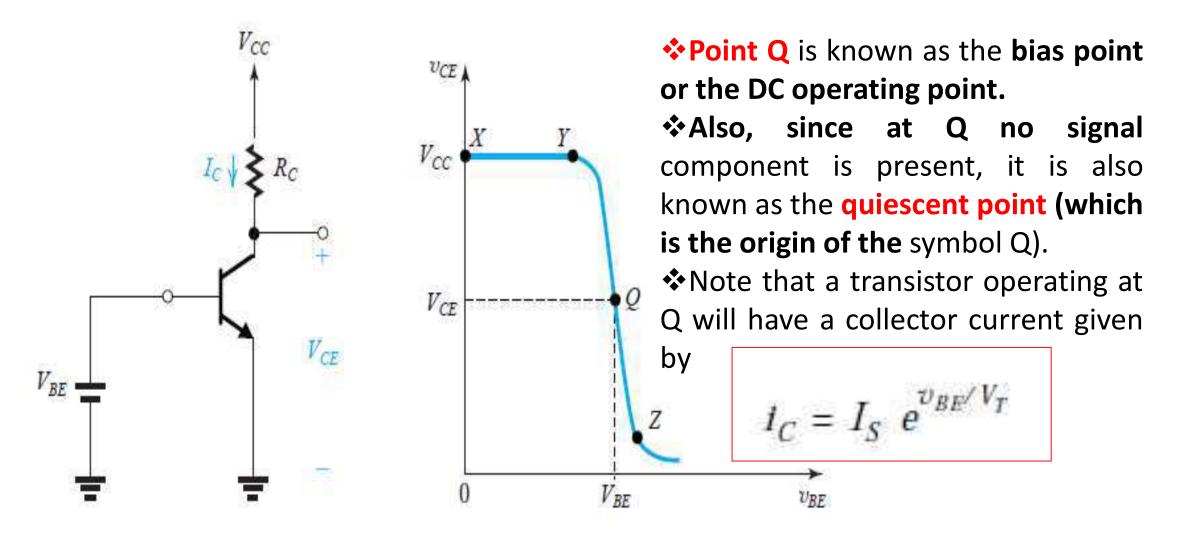




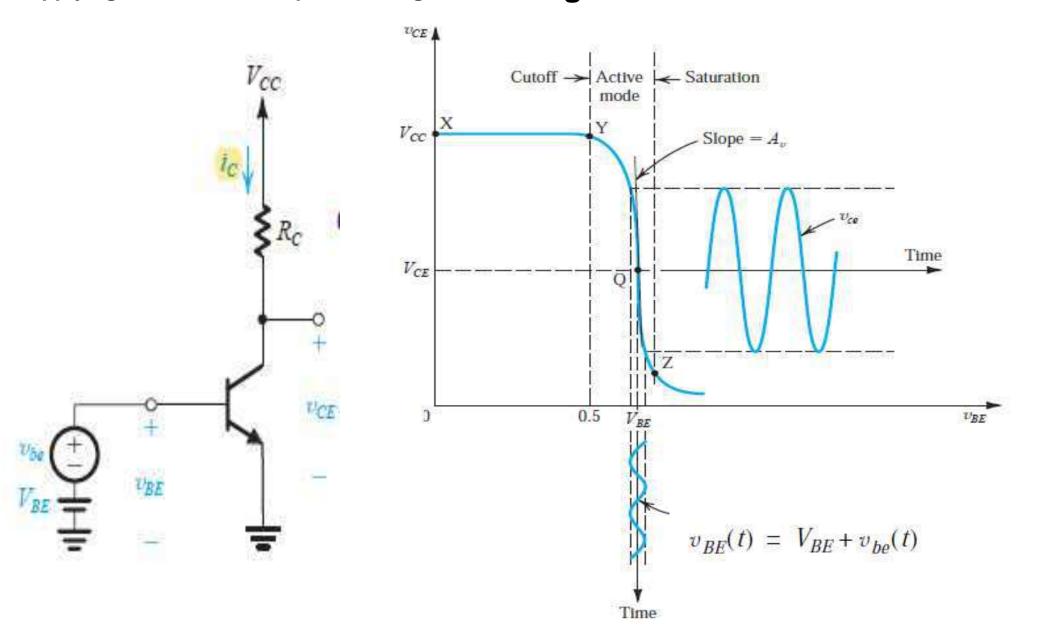




(a) Biasing the BJT amplifier at a point Q located on the active-mode segment of the VTC.



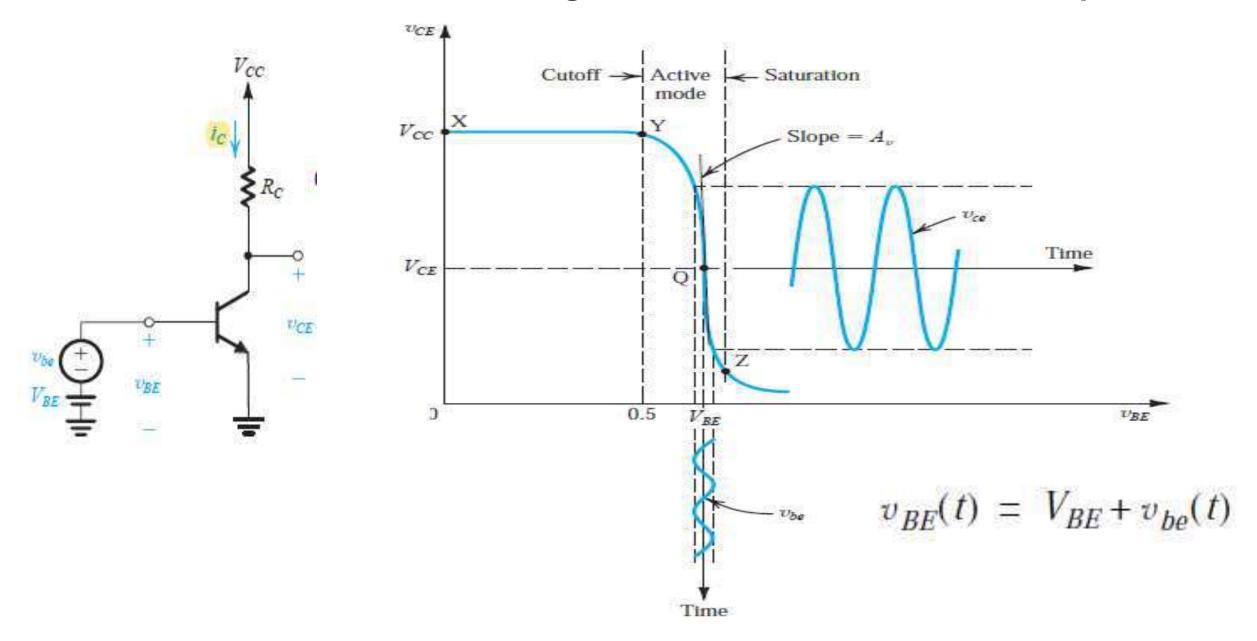
(a) Biasing the BJT amplifier at a point Q located on the active-mode segment of the VTC.



❖BJT amplifier biased at a point Q, with a small voltage signal vbe superimposed on the DC bias voltage VBE.

❖The resulting Output Signal vce appears superimposed on the DC collector voltage VCE.

❖ The amplitude of vce is larger than that of vbe by the voltage gain Av.



Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design- Small-Signal Voltage Gain

- ❖ If the input signal **Vbe** is kept small, the corresponding signal at the output **Vce** will be nearly proportional to with the constant of proportionality being the slope of the almost-linear segment of the VTC around Q.
- ❖ This is the voltage gain of the amplifier, and its value can be determined by evaluating the slope of the tangent to the VTC at the bias point Q,

$$A_v \equiv \frac{dv_{CE}}{dv_{BE}}\bigg|_{v_{BE} = V_{BE}}$$

$$A_v = -\left(\frac{I_C}{V_T}\right) R_C$$

- 1. The gain is negative, which signifies that the amplifier is inverting; that is, there is a 180 phase shift between the input and the output.
- 2. The gain is proportional to the collector bias current and to the load resistance.

$$A_v = -\left(\frac{I_C}{V_T}\right) R_C$$

$$A_v = -\frac{I_C R_C}{V_T} = -\frac{V_{RC}}{V_T}$$

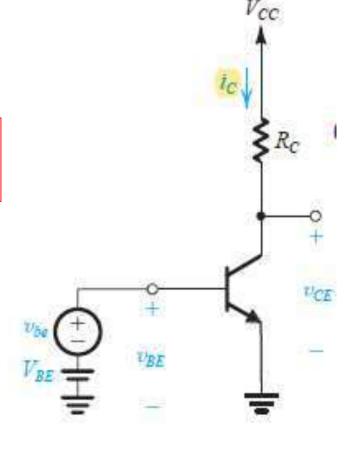
$$V_{RC} = V_{CC} - V_{CE}$$

Where VRC is the dc voltage drop across RC,

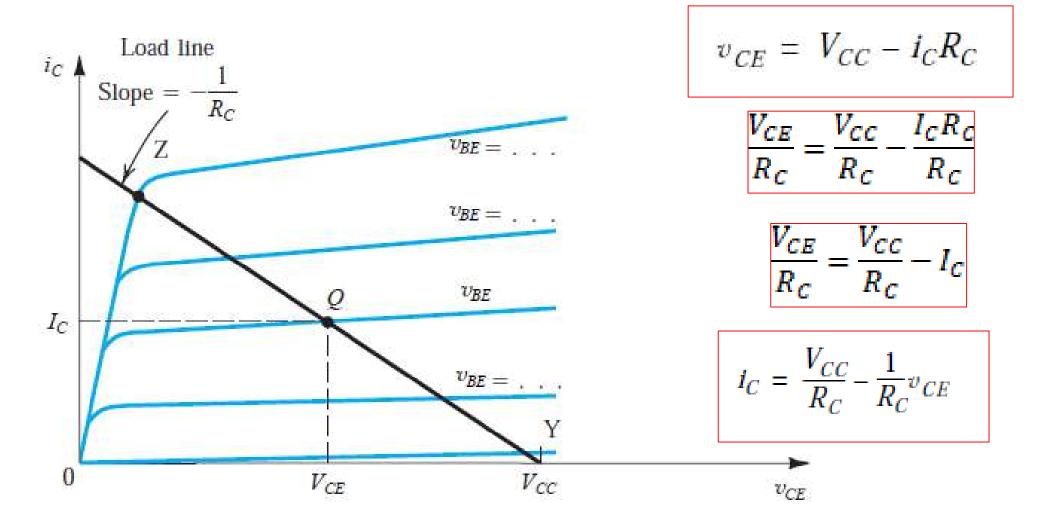
$$A_v = -\frac{V_{CC} - V_{CEsat}}{V_T}$$

$$A_V = -\frac{V_{CC}}{V_T}$$

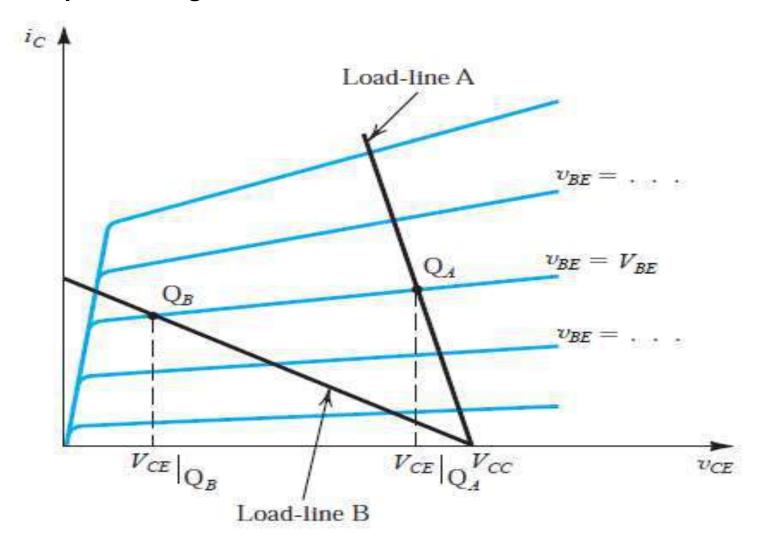
$$|A_{v\max}| \simeq \frac{V_{CC}}{V_T}$$



### Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design- Determining the VTC by Graphical Analysis



#### Applying the BJT in Amplifier Design- Q-Point

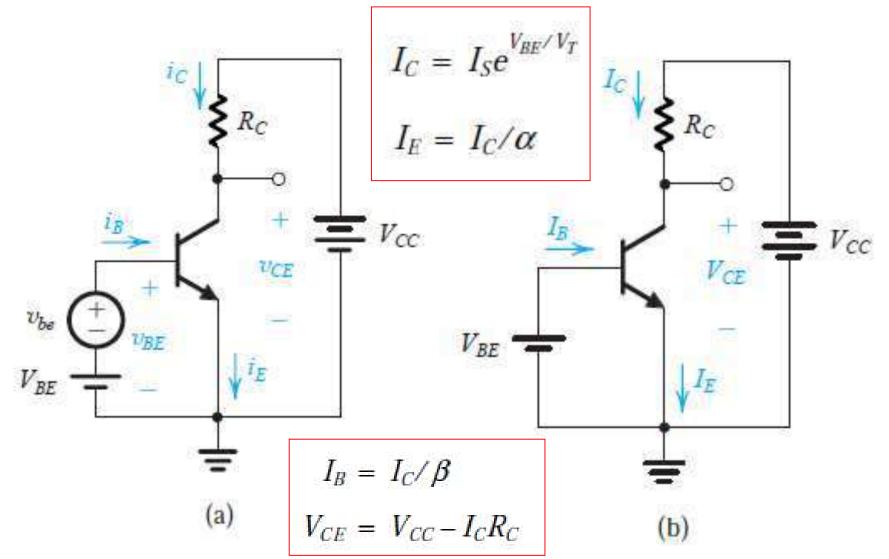


### **Small-Signal Operation and Models**

- > Trans-conductance
- > Input Resistance at the Base
- > Input Resistance at the Emitter
- Voltage Gain
- > Separating the Signal and the DC Quantities

- Hybrid-π Model
- > T Model

## **Small-Signal Operation and Models**



Transconductance 
$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$$

$$vBE = VBE + vbe----(1)$$

$$i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} = I_S e^{(V_{BE} + v_{be})/V_T}$$
$$= I_S e^{V_{BE}/V_T} e^{v_{be}/V_T}$$

$$i_C = I_C e^{v_{be}/V_T} \qquad ----(2)$$
If  $vbe < VT$ ,

If 
$$vbe < VT$$
, 
$$\frac{1}{z}$$

$$e^{\frac{v_{bs}}{V_T}} = 1 + \left(\frac{v_{bs}}{V_T}\right) + \frac{\left(\frac{v_{bs}}{V_T}\right)}{2!} + \frac{\left(\frac{v_{bs}}{V_T}\right)}{3!} + \cdots \qquad i_C \simeq I_C \left(1 + \frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right)$$

$$i_{E}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$V_{BE}$$

$$V_{BE}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$v_{be}$$

$$v_{cc}$$

$$v_$$

$$i_C \simeq I_C \left(1 + \frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right)$$
 ----(3)

### **Transconductance**

$$e^{\frac{v_{be}}{V_T}} = 1 + \left(\frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right) + \frac{\left(\frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right)}{2!} + \frac{\left(\frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right)}{3!} + \cdots$$
 ----(3)

This approximation, which is valid only for *vbe less than approximately 10 mV, is r*eferred to as the **small-signal approximation.** 

$$i_C \simeq I_C \left(1 + \frac{v_{be}}{V_T}\right)$$

$$i_C = I_C + \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be} \qquad ----(4)$$

Thus the collector current is composed of the dc bias value IC and a signal component ic,

$$i_c = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}$$

### **Transconductance**

$$i_c = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}$$

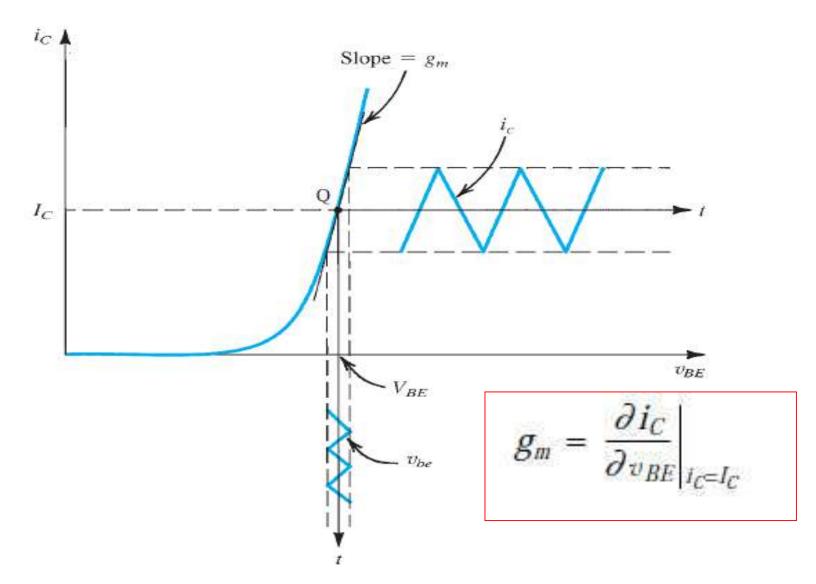
This equation relates the signal current in the collector to the corresponding base—emitter signal voltage. It can be rewritten as

$$i_c = g_m v_{be}$$

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_T}$$

$$g_m = \frac{\partial i_C}{\partial v_{BE}}\Big|_{i_C = I_C}$$

### **Transconductance**



### Input Resistance at the Base

$$i_B = \frac{i_C}{\beta} = \frac{I_C}{\beta} + \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}$$

Thus,

$$i_B = I_B + i_b$$

where IB is equal Ic/8 to and the signal component ib is given by

$$i_b = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}$$

Substituting for IC/VT by *gm gives* 

$$i_b = \frac{g_m}{\beta} v_{be}$$

The small-signal input resistance between base and emitter, looking into the base, is denoted by  $r\pi$  and is defined as

$$r_{\pi} \equiv \frac{v_{be}}{i_b}$$

$$r_{\pi}=rac{eta}{g_{m}}$$
 Substitute gm and Replace Ic/ $eta$  by IB

### Input Resistance at the Emitter

$$i_E = \frac{i_C}{\alpha} = \frac{I_C}{\alpha} + \frac{i_c}{\alpha}$$

Thus,

$$i_E = I_E + i_e$$

where IE is equal to IC  $/\alpha$  and the signal current ie is given by

$$i_e = \frac{i_c}{\alpha} = \frac{I_C}{\alpha V_T} v_{be} = \frac{I_E}{V_T} v_{be}$$

If we denote the small-signal resistance between base and emitter looking into the emitter by re, it can be defined as

$$r_e = \frac{v_{be}}{i_e}$$

$$r_e = \frac{V_T}{I_E}$$

$$r_e = \frac{\alpha}{g_m} \simeq \frac{1}{g_n}$$

### Input Resistance at the Emitter

The relationship between  $r\pi$  and re can be found by combining their respective definitions

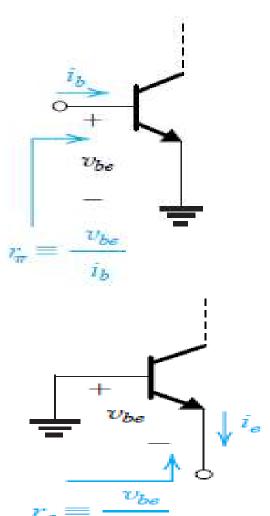
$$v_{be} = \mathbf{i}_b \mathbf{r}_\pi = \mathbf{i}_e \mathbf{r}_e$$

Thus,

$$r_{\pi} = (i_e/i_b)r_e$$

which yields

$$r_{\pi} = (\beta + 1)r_{e}$$



### **Voltage Gain**

$$v_{CE} = V_{CC} - i_C R_C$$

$$= V_{CC} - (I_C + i_c) R_C$$

$$= (V_{CC} - I_C R_C) - i_c R_C$$

$$= V_{CE} - i_c R_C$$

Here the quantity VCE is the dc bias voltage at the collector, and the signal voltage is given by

$$v_{ce} = -i_c R_C = -g_m v_{be} R_C$$

$$= (-g_m R_C) v_{be}$$

Thus the voltage gain of this amplifier Av is

$$A_v = \frac{v_{ce}}{v_{be}} = -g_m R_C$$

$$A_v = -\frac{I_C R_C}{V_T}$$

## **Small Signal Operation**

 $r_{\pi} = (\beta + 1)r_{\rho}$ 

#### Transconductance

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_T}$$

$$g_m = \frac{i_C}{V_{be}}$$

$$g_m = \frac{\partial i_C}{\partial v_{BE}}\Big|_{i_C = I_C}$$

Input Resistance at the Base

$$i_B = I_B + i_b$$

$$r_{\pi} = \frac{V_{I}}{I_{B}}$$

$$r_{\pi} = \frac{\beta}{g_m}$$

Input Resistance at the Emitter

$$i_E = I_E + i_e$$

$$r_e = \frac{V_T}{I_E}$$

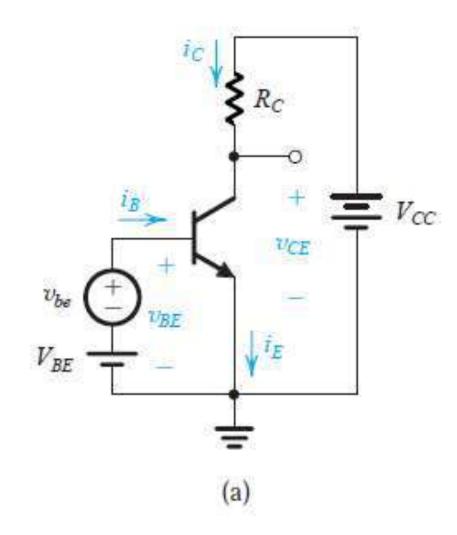
$$r_e = \frac{\alpha}{g_m} \simeq \frac{1}{g_m}$$

Voltage Gain

$$A_v = \frac{v_{ce}}{v_{be}} = -g_m R_C$$

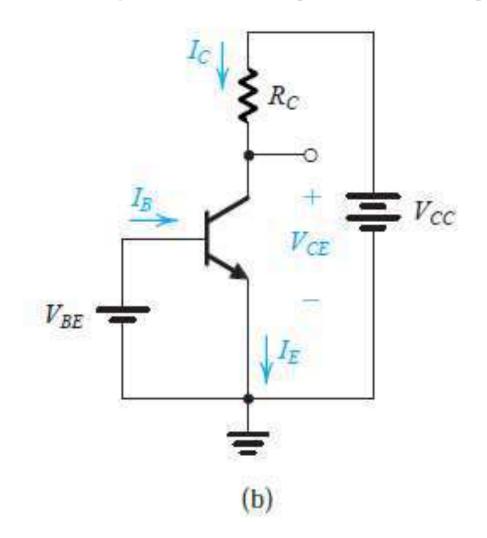
$$A_v = -\frac{I_C R_C}{V_T}$$

### Separating the Signal and the DC Quantities



- Every current and voltage in the amplifier circuit of Fig.(a) is composed of two components: a vcc dc component and a signal component
  - For instance, vBE = VBE + vbe, iC = IC + ic, and so on

### Separating the Signal and the DC Quantities



The dc components are determined from the dc circuit given in Fig. 6.36(b) and from the relationships imposed by the transistor.

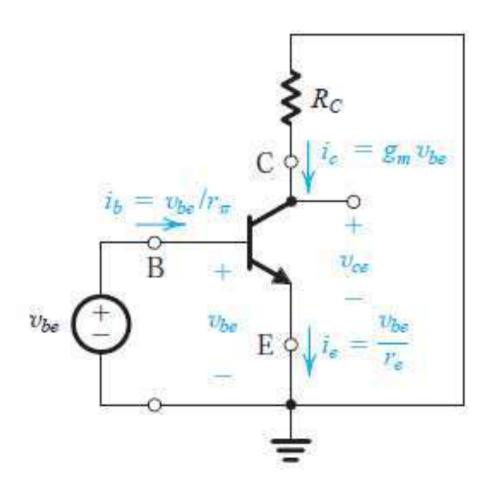
$$I_C = I_S e^{V_{BE}/V_T}$$

$$I_E = I_C/\alpha$$

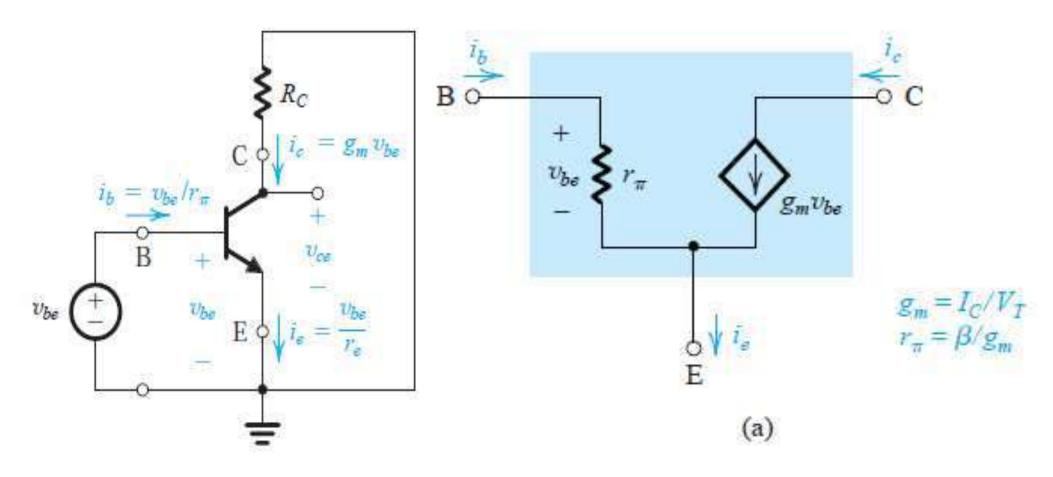
$$I_B = I_C/\beta$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

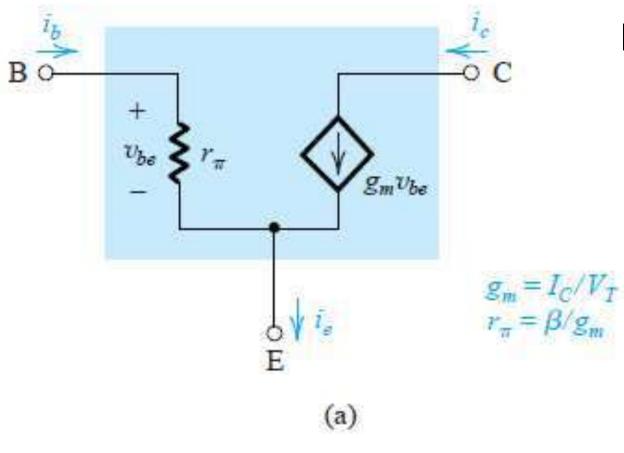
### Separating the Signal and the DC Quantities



- ❖On the other hand, a representation of the signal operation of the BJT can be obtained by eliminating the dc sources, as shown in Fig.
- Expressions for the current elements (ic, ib, and ie) obtained when a small signal vbe is applied.
- ❖ Small-Signal Circuit Model.



This model represents the BJT as a voltage controlled current source and explicitly includes the input resistance looking into the base ,  $r\pi$ 



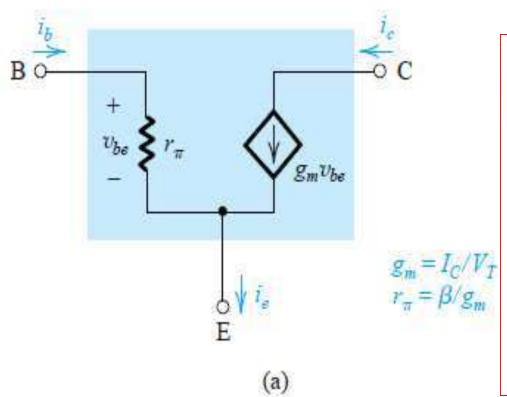
In this model

$$i_{c} = g_{m} v_{be}$$

$$i_{b} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}}$$

In this model

le=ic+ib



$$i_e = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} + g_m v_{be} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} (1 + g_m r_{\pi})$$

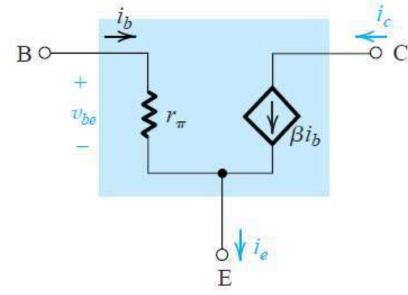
$$= \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} (1 + \beta) = v_{be} / (\frac{r_{\pi}}{1 + \beta})$$

$$= v_{be} / r_e$$
But  $g_m r_{\pi} = \beta$ .

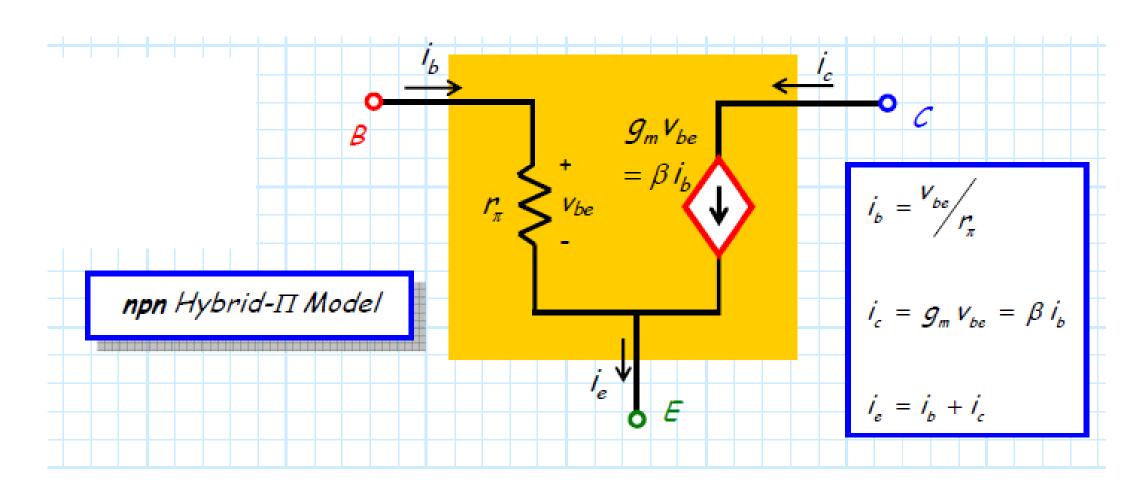
Slightly different model can be obtained by expressing the current of the controlled source (gmVbe) interms of base current ib

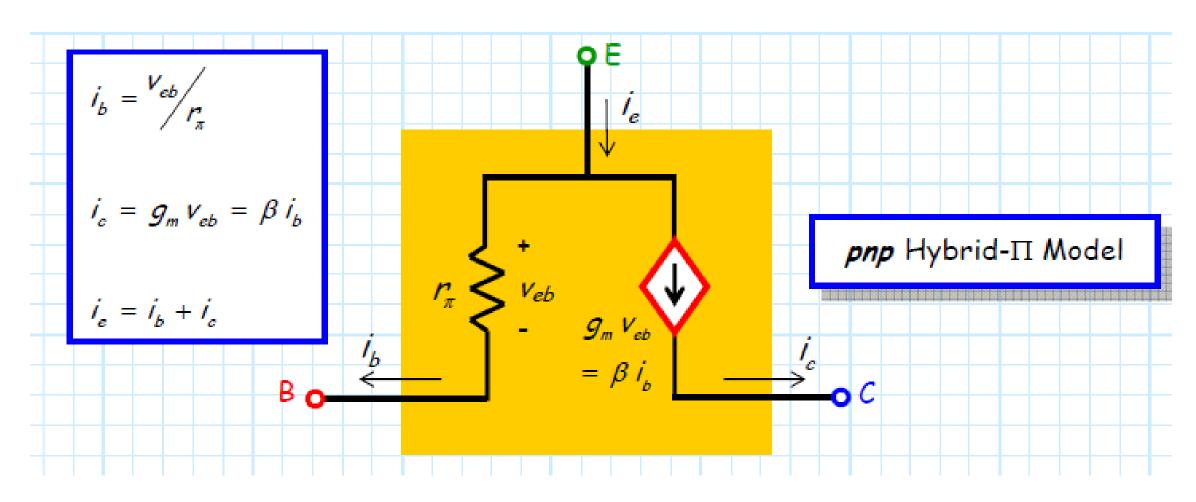
$$g_{mv_{be}} = g_m(i_b r_\pi)$$
$$= (g_m r_\pi) i_b = \beta i_b$$

Equivalent circuit model is

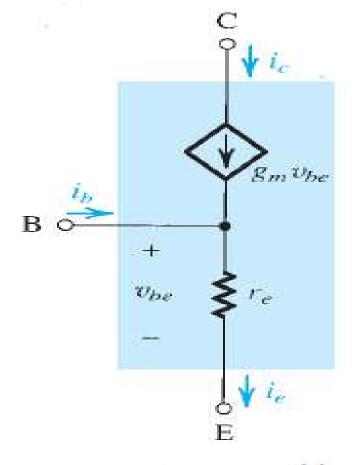


Here the transistor is represented as a current-controlled current source, with the control current being *ib*.





npn T-Model



T Model le=ic+ib lb=ie-ic

$$i_{b} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}} - g_{m}v_{be} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}} (1 - g_{m}r_{e})$$

$$= \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}} (1 - \alpha) = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}} (1 - \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1})$$

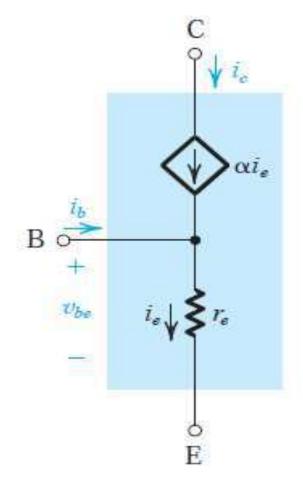
$$= \frac{v_{be}}{(\beta + 1)r_{e}} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}}$$

The current of the controlled source can be expressed in terms of the emitter current.

$$g_m v_{be} = g_m (i_e r_e)$$
$$= (g_m r_e) i_e = \alpha i_e$$

(a)

npn T-Model



### T Model

$$i_{b} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}} - g_{m}v_{be} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}}(1 - g_{m}r_{e})$$

$$= \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}}(1 - \alpha) = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{e}}(1 - \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1})$$

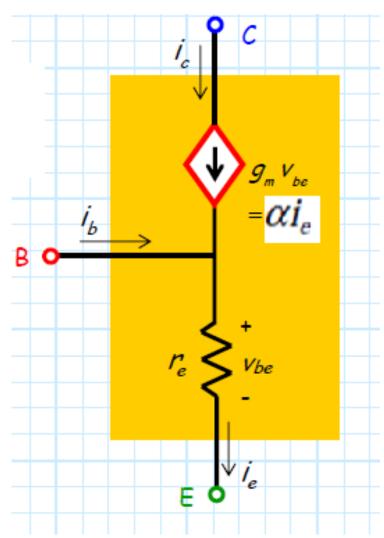
$$= \frac{v_{be}}{(\beta + 1)r_{e}} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}}$$

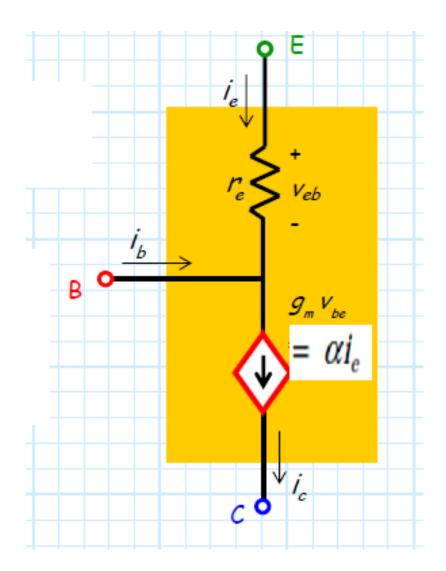
The current of the controlled source can be expressed in terms of the emitter current.

$$g_m v_{be} = g_m (i_e r_e)$$
$$= (g_m r_e) i_e = \alpha i_e$$

*npn* T-Model

## T Model





#### APPLICATION OF THE SMALL SIGNAL EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

1. Eliminate the signal source and determine the dc operating point of the BJT and in particular the dc collector current *IC*.

$$I_C, I_B, I_E$$
 and  $V_C$ 

2. Calculate the values of the small-signal model parameters:

$$g_m = rac{I_C}{V_T}$$
  $r_\pi = rac{V_T}{I_B}$   $r_\pi = rac{eta}{g_m}$   $r_e = rac{lpha}{g_m} \simeq rac{1}{g_m}$   $r_e = rac{V_T}{I_E}$ 

3. Eliminate the dc sources by replacing each dc voltage source with a short circuit and each dc current source with an open circuit.

#### APPLICATION OF THE SMALL SIGNAL EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

**4. Replace the BJT with one of its small-signal equivalent circuit models. Although any** one of the models can be used, one might be more convenient than the others for the particular circuit being analyzed.

- >Hybrid-π Model
- > T Model
- **≻**Hybrid Model
- 5. Analyze the resulting circuit to determine the required quantities (e.g., voltage gain, input and output resistance).

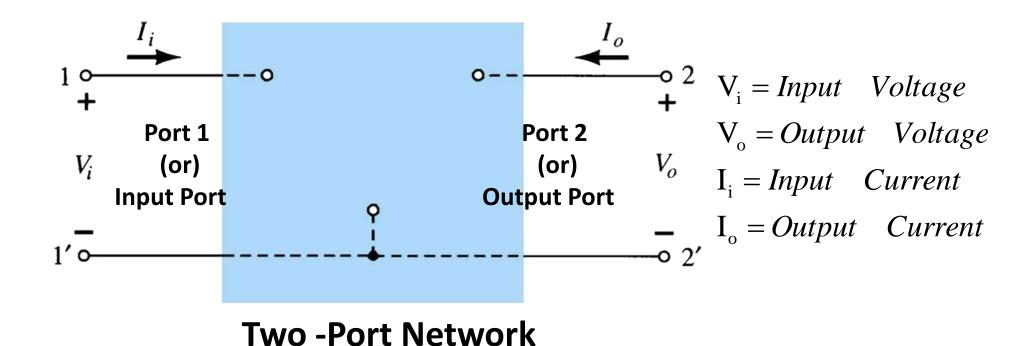
$$A_v = \frac{v_0}{v_i}$$

 $R_o$ and  $R_i$ 

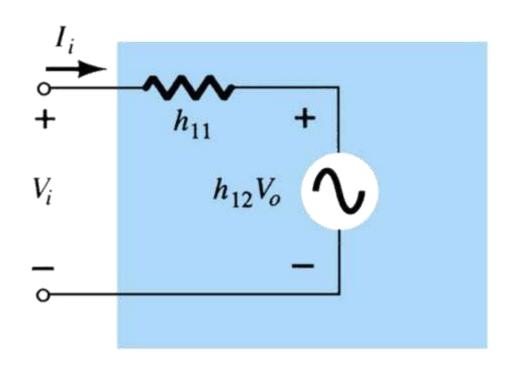
### Basic BJT Amplifier Configurations

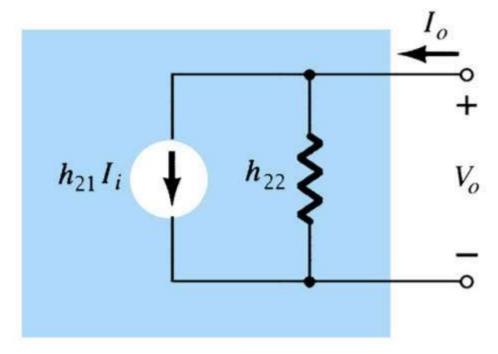
- Common-Emitter (CE) amplifier without and with emitter resistance
- ➤ Common-Base (CB) amplifier
- ➤ Common-Collector (CC) amplifier or Emitter Follower

### Hybrid Equivalent Model



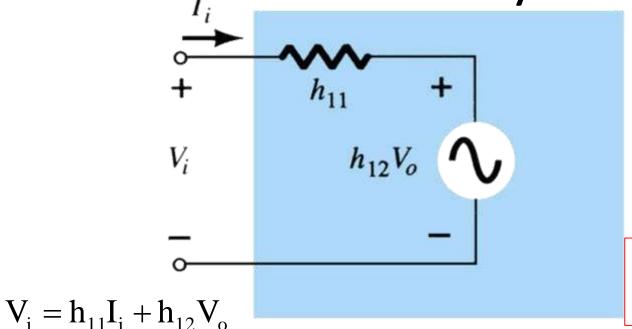
### Determination of Hybrid Parameters





$$V_i = h_{11}I_i + h_{12}V_o$$
  $I_O = h_{21}I_i + h_{22}V_o$ 

# Determination of Hybrid Parameters

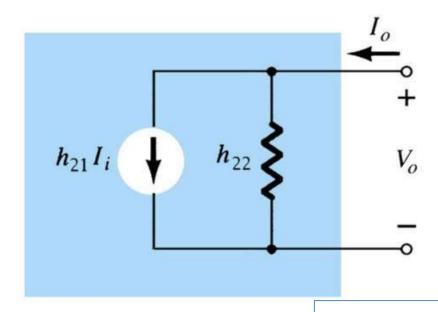


 $h_{11}$  -  $\Omega$  and  $h_{22}$  - mhos  $h_{12}$ ,  $h_{21}$  - Dimension Less.

$$h_{11} = \frac{V_i}{I_i}\Big|_{V_o = 0V}$$
 = Input Impedance with output part short circuited( $\Omega$ )

$$h_{12} = \frac{V_i}{V_o}\Big|_{I=0V}$$
 = **Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio** with input part open circuited

### Determination of Hybrid Parameters



$$I_{O} = h_{21}I_{i} + h_{22}V_{o}$$

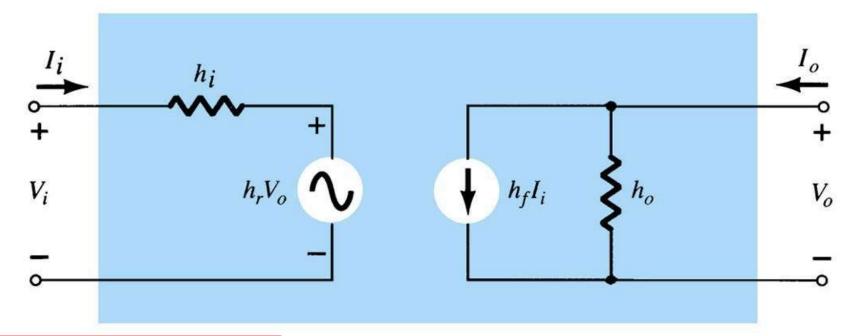
 $h_{11}$  -  $\Omega$  and  $h_{22}$  – mhos h12, h21 – Dimension Less.

$$h_{0} = h_{21}I_{i} + h_{22}V_{o}$$

$$h_{12} = \frac{I_{o}}{I_{i}}\Big|_{V_{o}=0V} = Forward Current Gain with output part short circuited$$

$$h_{22} = \frac{I_o}{V_o}\Big|_{I_v=0A}$$
 = **Output Adm ittance** with input part open circuited (mhos)

### General h-Parameters for any Transistor Configuration



$$V_{i} = h_{i} I_{i} + h_{r} V_{o}$$
 $I_{2} = h_{f} I_{i} + h_{0} V_{o}$ 

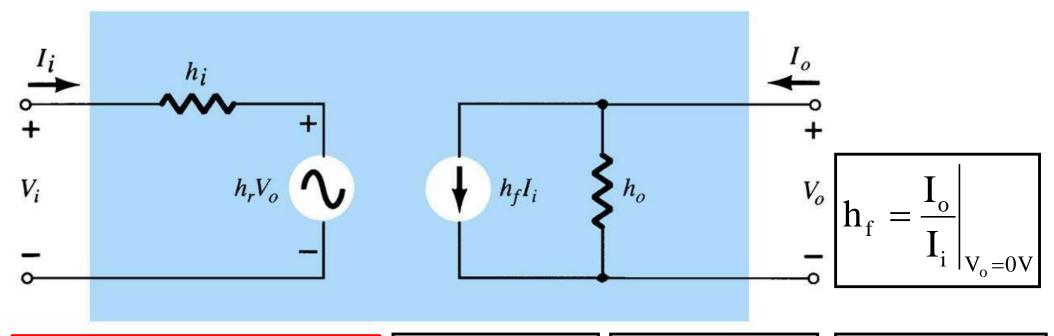
hi = Input Resistance(Vi/Ii)

hr = Reverse Transfer Voltage Ratio (Vi/Vo)

hf = Forward Transfer Current Ratio (Io/Ii)

ho = Output Conductance(Io/Vo)

### General h-Parameters for any Transistor Configuration



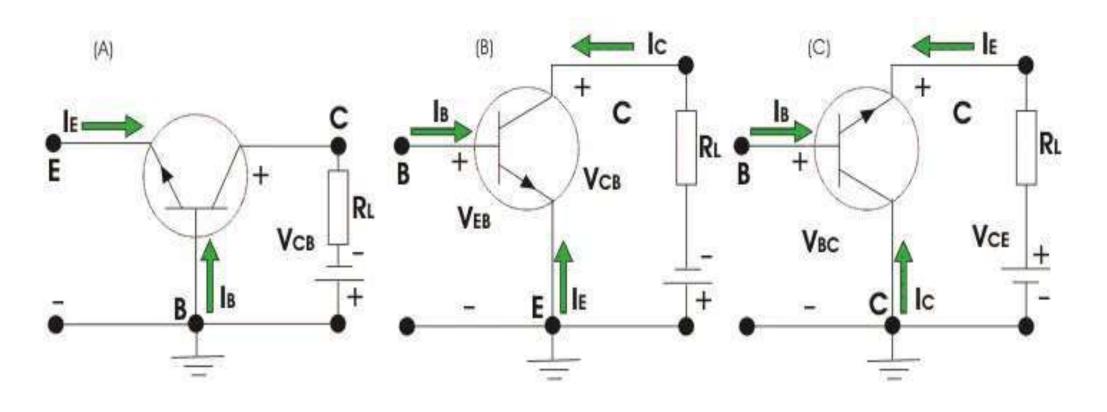
$$V_{i} = h_{i} I_{i} + h_{r} V_{o}$$
  
 $I_{o} = h_{f} I_{i} + h_{0} V_{o}$ 

$$\left| h_i = \frac{V_i}{I_i} \right|_{V_o = 0V}$$

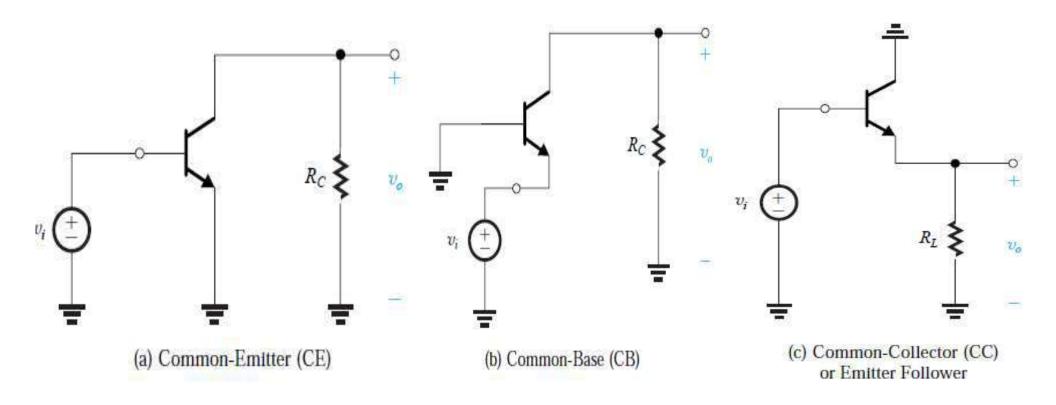
$$\left| h_r = \frac{V_i}{V_o} \right|_{I_i = 0 \, A}$$

$$\left| h_{o} = \frac{I_{o}}{V_{o}} \right|_{I_{i} = 0 A}$$

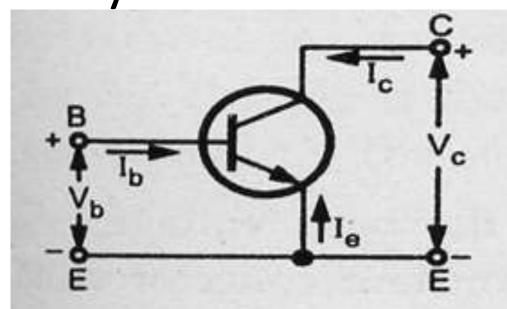
### Three Basic Configurations of BJT Amplifier

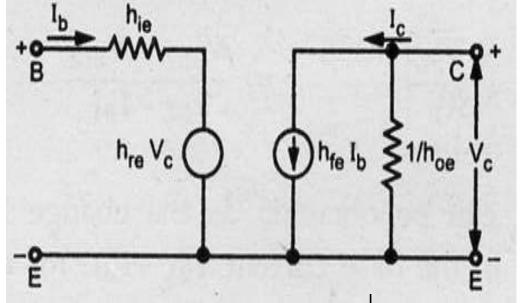


## Three Basic Configurations of BJT Amplifier



### Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CE



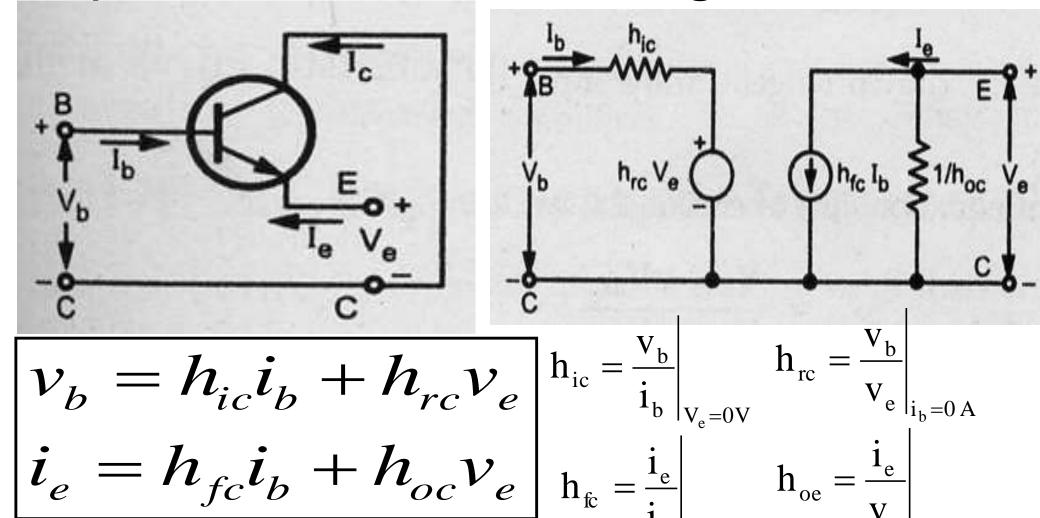


$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{v}_b &= h_{ie} i_b + h_{re} oldsymbol{v}_c \ oldsymbol{i}_c &= h_{fe} i_b + h_{oe} oldsymbol{v}_c \end{aligned} egin{aligned} \mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{ie}} = rac{\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{b}}}{\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{b}}} \Big|_{\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{c}} = 0 \mathrm{V}} \ \mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{fe}} = rac{\dot{\mathbf{i}}_{\mathrm{c}}}{\dot{\mathbf{i}}_{\mathrm{b}}} \Big|_{\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{c}} = 0 \mathrm{V}} \end{aligned}$$

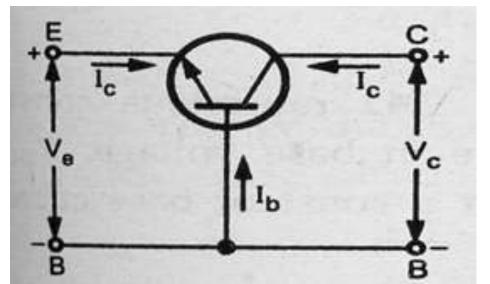
$$h_{ie} = \frac{V_b}{i_b} \Big|_{V_c = 0V} \qquad h_{re} = \frac{V_b}{V_c} \Big|_{i_b = 0 A}$$

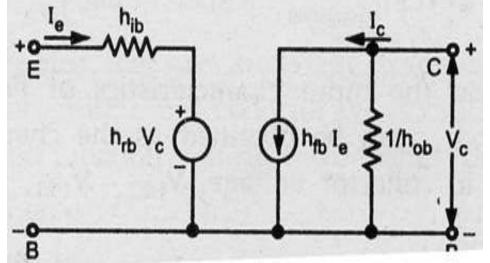
$$h_{fe} = \frac{\dot{i}_c}{i_b} \Big|_{V_c = 0V} \qquad h_{oe} = \frac{\dot{i}_c}{V_c} \Big|_{i_b = 0 A}$$

## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CC



## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CB



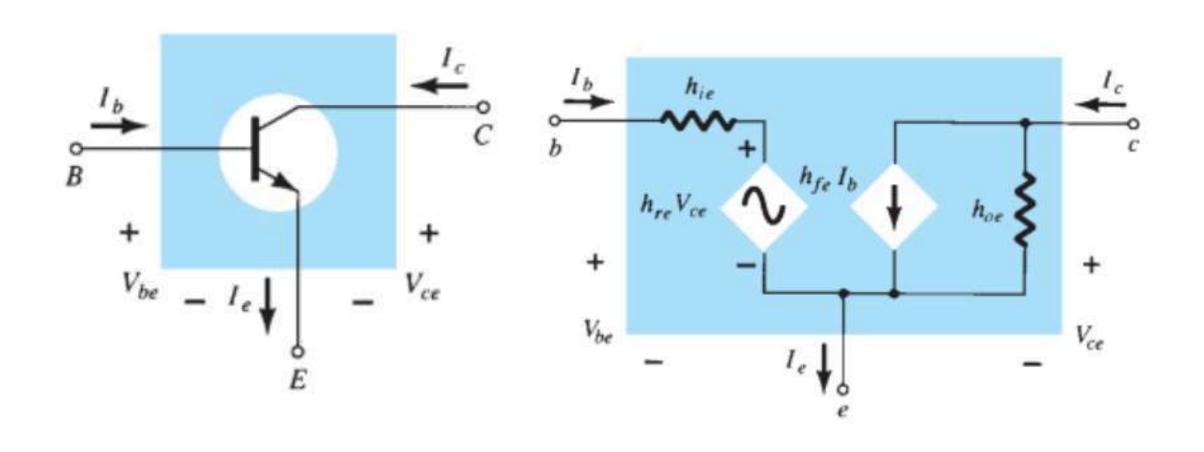


$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{v}_e = h_{ib} i_e + h_{rb} oldsymbol{v}_c \ oldsymbol{i}_c = h_{fb} i_e + h_{ob} oldsymbol{v}_c \end{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligne$$

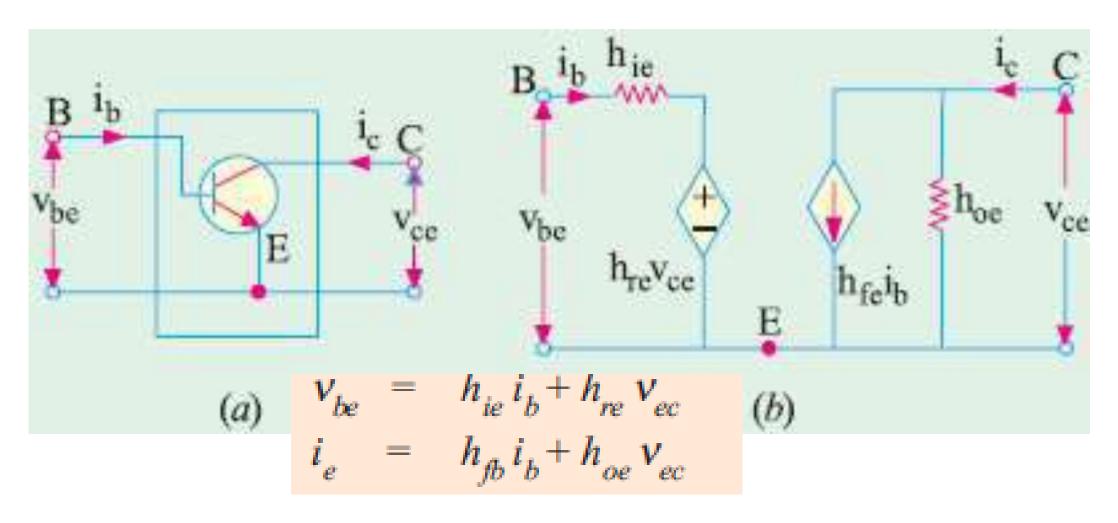
$$h_{ib} = \frac{V_e}{i_c} \Big|_{V_c = 0V} \qquad h_{rb} = \frac{V_e}{V_c} \Big|_{i_e = 0 A}$$

$$h_{fb} = \frac{i_c}{i_e} \Big|_{V_c = 0V} \qquad h_{ob} = \frac{i_c}{V_c} \Big|_{i_e = 0 A}$$

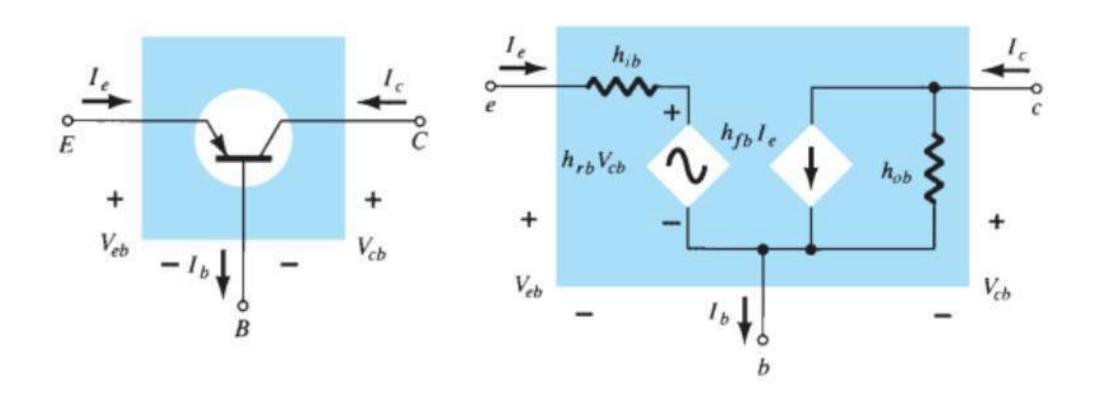
## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CE



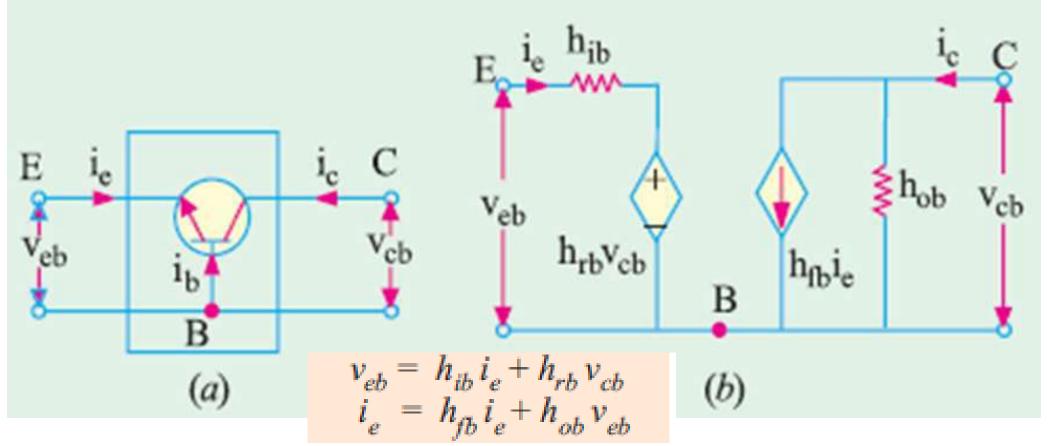
## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CE



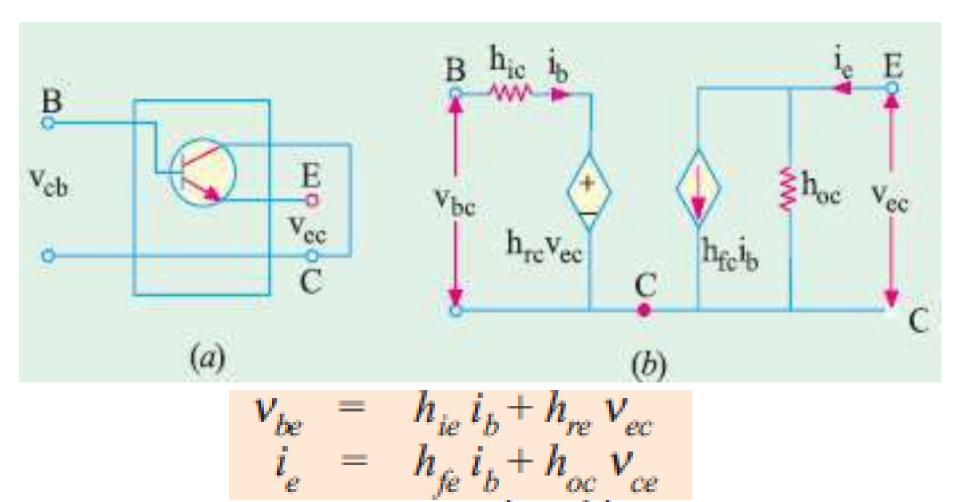
## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CB



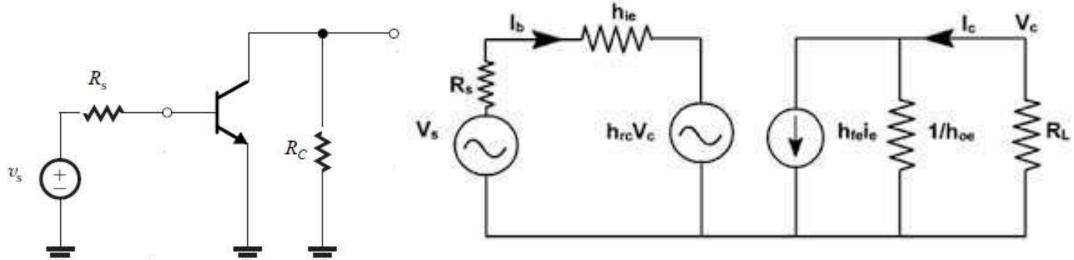
## Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CB



#### Hybrid Model for BJT Configurations-CC



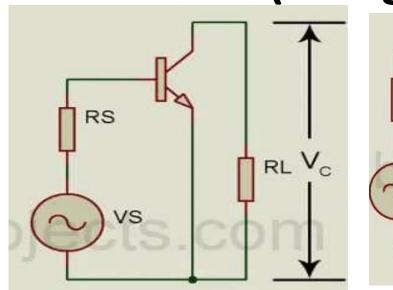
# CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)

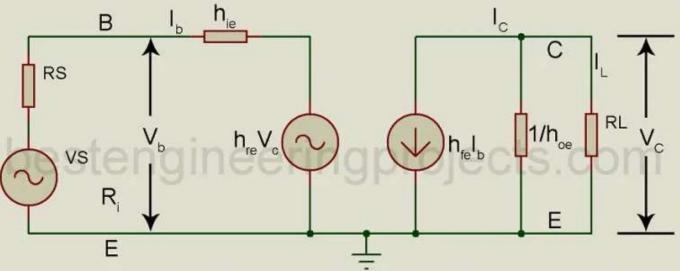


#### Determine:

- 1. Current Gain or Current Amplification A;
- 2. Input Resistance R<sub>i</sub>
- 3. Voltage Gain or Voltage Amplification  $A_v$
- 4. Output Admittance Y<sub>0</sub>
- 5. Output Resistance R<sub>o</sub>

# CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)



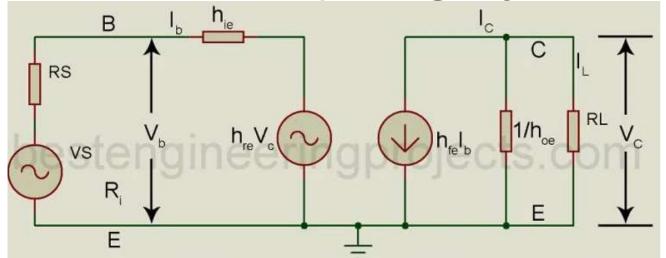


#### Determine:

- 1. Current Gain or Current Amplification A<sub>i</sub>
- 2. Input Resistance R<sub>i</sub>
- 3. Voltage Gain or Voltage Amplification  $A_v$
- 4. Output Admittance Y<sub>0</sub>
- 5. Output Resistance R<sub>o</sub>

#### CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance

(Using Hybrid Model)

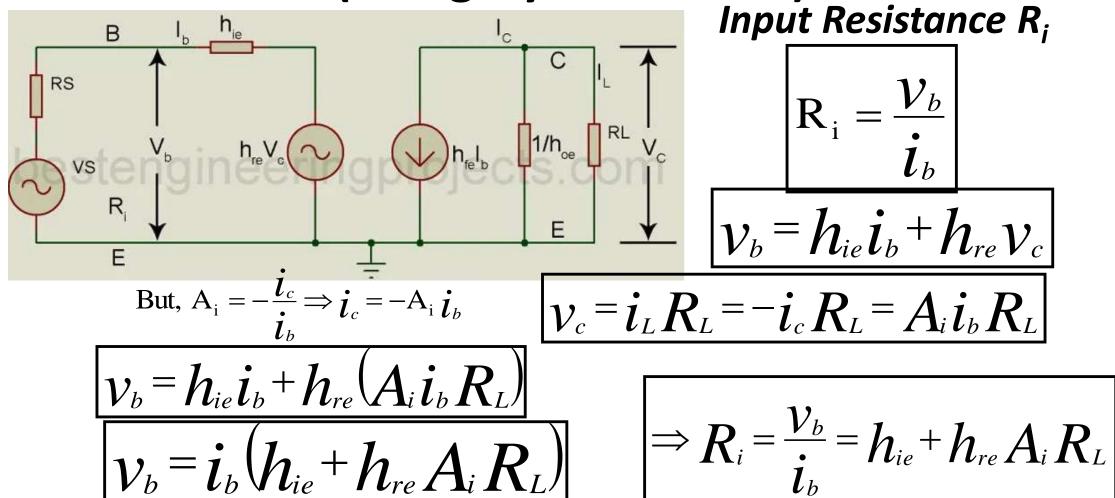


$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{A_i} &= rac{oldsymbol{l}_L}{oldsymbol{i}_b} = -rac{oldsymbol{l}_c}{oldsymbol{i}_b} \ oldsymbol{i}_c &= oldsymbol{h}_{fe} oldsymbol{i}_b + oldsymbol{h}_{oe} oldsymbol{v}_c \ oldsymbol{v}_c &= oldsymbol{i}_L oldsymbol{R}_L = -oldsymbol{i}_c oldsymbol{R}_L \end{aligned}$$

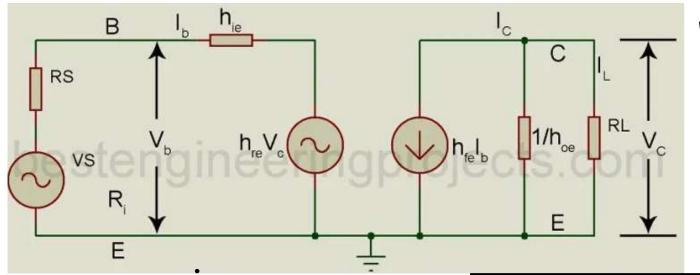
- Current Gain or Current Amplification:
- Current gain is defined as the ratio of the load current  $I_L$  to the input current  $I_b$ .

$$i_c = h_{fe}i_b + h_{oe}(-i_cR_L)$$
 $i_c (1 + h_{oe}R_L) = h_{fe}i_b$ 
 $i_c h_{fe}$ 

# CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)



# CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)



#### Voltage Gain A<sub>v</sub>

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{v}} = rac{oldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}_c}{oldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}_b}$$

But, 
$$A_i = -\frac{\boldsymbol{l}_c}{\boldsymbol{i}_b} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{i}_c = -A_i \boldsymbol{i}_b$$

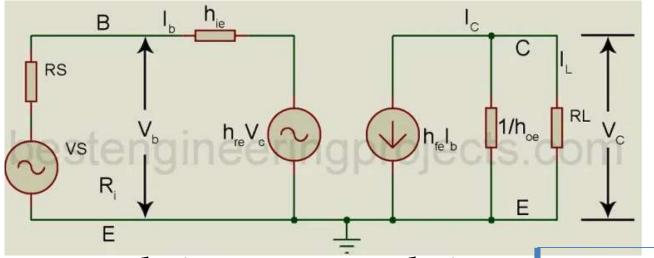
$$v_c = i_L R_L = -i_c R_L = A_i i_b R_L$$

$$\frac{1}{R_i} = \frac{ib}{v_b}$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{v} = \frac{v_{c}}{v_{b}} = \frac{A_{i} i_{b} R_{L}}{v_{b}} = \frac{A_{i} R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$

#### **CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance**

(Using Hybrid Model)



$$i_c = \frac{i_c}{v_c}$$
 $i_c = h_{fe}i_b + h_{oe}v_c$ 
Dividing By  $V_c$ 

$$\frac{i_c}{v_c} = \frac{h_{fe}i_b}{v_c} + \frac{h_{oe}v_c}{v_c} \Rightarrow \frac{i_c}{v_c} = \frac{h_{fe}i_b}{v_c} + h_{oe}$$

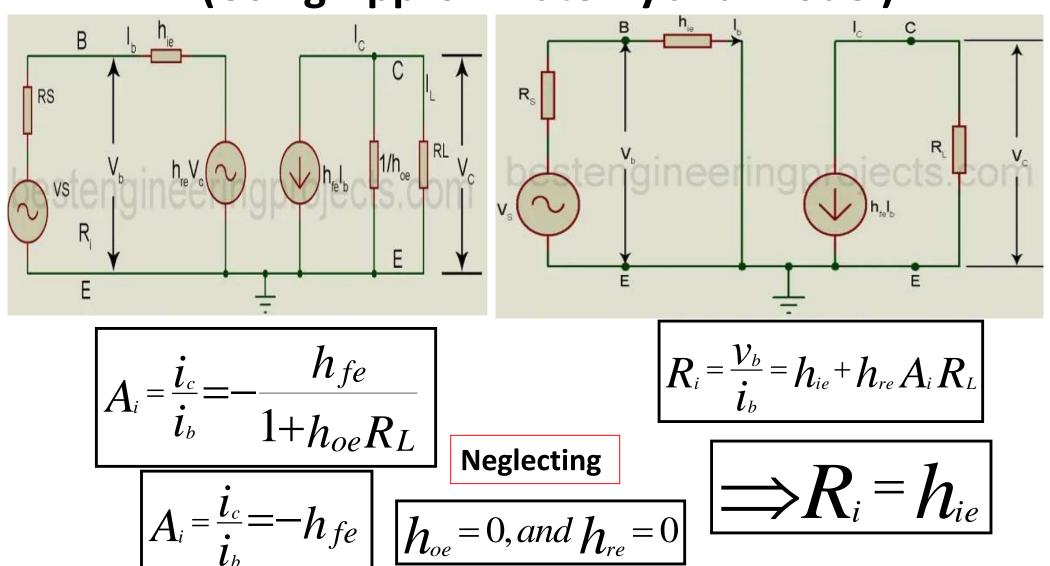
$$v_s = 0, R_s i_b + h_{ie} i_b + h_{re}v_c = 0$$

$$(R_s + h_{ie})i_b = -h_{re}v_c$$

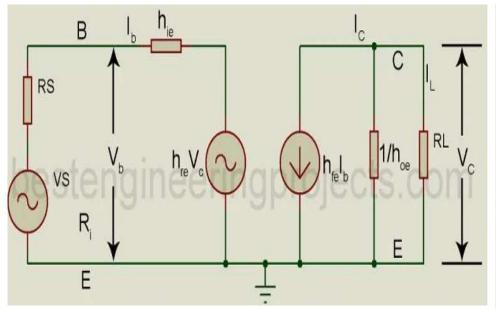
$$\Rightarrow \frac{i_b}{v_c} = -\frac{h_{re}}{R_s + h_{ie}}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_0 = h_{oe} - \frac{h_{fe}h_{re}}{R_s + h_{ie}}$$
 and  $R_0 = \frac{1}{Y_0}$ 

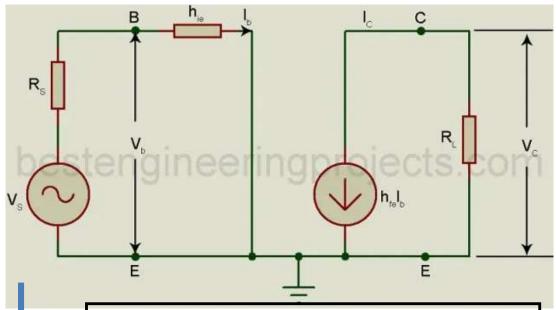
## CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Approximate Hybrid Model)



## CE Amplifier Without Emitter Resistance (Using Approximate Hybrid Model)



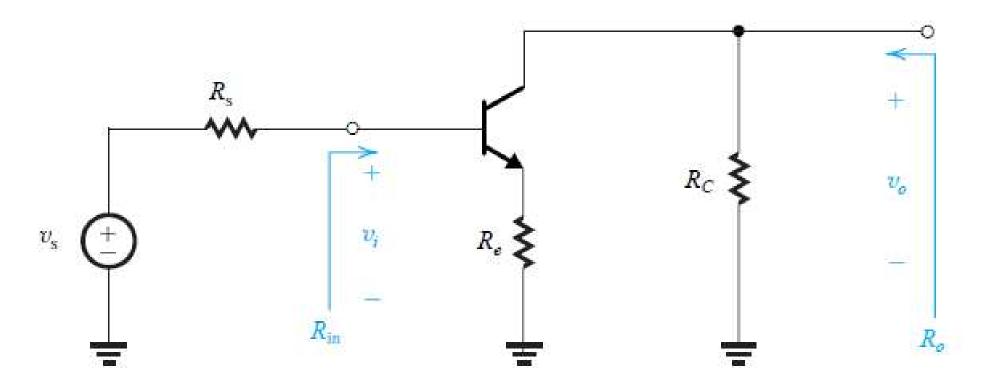
$$\Rightarrow A_{v} = \frac{A_{i}R_{L}}{R_{i}} = \frac{A_{i}R_{L}}{h_{ie}}$$



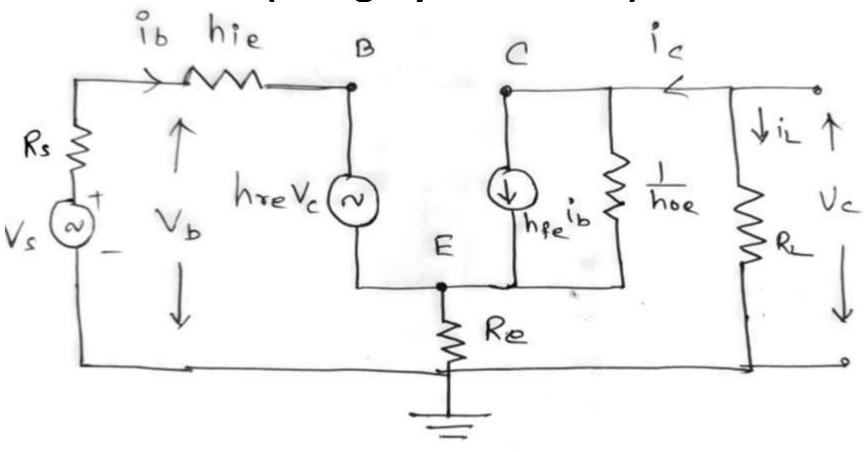
$$\Rightarrow Y_0 = h_{oe} - \frac{h_{fe}h_{re}}{R_s + h_{ie}} \text{ and } R_0 = \frac{1}{Y_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_0 = 0 \text{ and } R_0 = \frac{1}{Y_0} = \infty$$

#### CE Amplifier With Emitter Resistance



### CE Amplifier With Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)



### CE Amplifier With Emitter Resistance (Using Hybrid Model)

$$A_i = -\frac{h_{fe}}{1 + h_{oe}R_L}$$

$$R_i = \frac{V_b}{i_b} = h_{ie} + h_{re} A_i R_L$$

$$A_{v} = \frac{A_{i} R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$

$$|Y_{0} = h_{oe} - \frac{h_{fe}h_{re}}{R_{s} + h_{ie}}$$
 and  $R_{0} = \frac{1}{Y_{0}}$ 

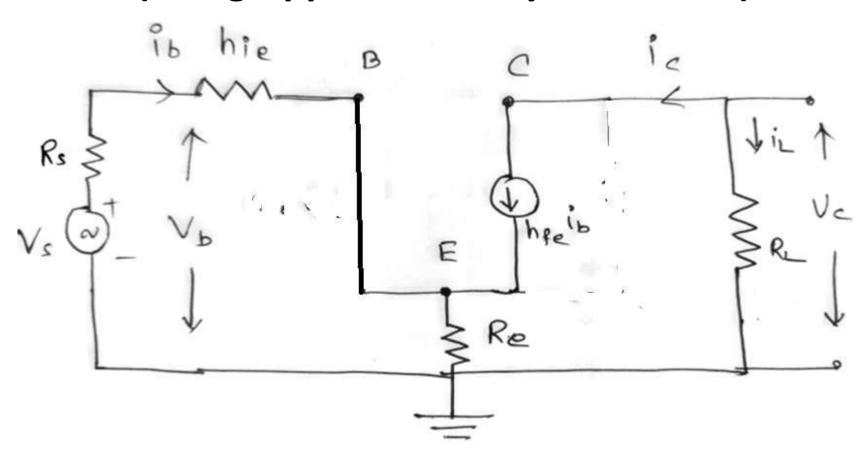
$$A_i = \frac{h_{oe}R_e - h_{fe}}{1 + h_{oe}(R_L + R_e)}$$

$$R_{i} = h_{ie} + h_{re} A_{i} (R_{L} + R_{e}) + R_{e} (1 - A_{i}) - R_{e} h_{re}$$

$$A_{v} = \frac{A_{i}R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$

$$R_0 = \frac{1 + h_{fe}}{h_{oe}} + \frac{(R_s + h_{ie})(1 + h_{oe}R_e)}{h_{oe}R_e}$$
 and  $Y_0 = \frac{1}{R_0}$ 

### CE Amplifier With Emitter Resistance (Using Approximate Hybrid Model)



# CE Amplifier With Emitter Resistance (Using Approximate Hybrid Model)

$$A_i = \frac{h_{oe}R_e - h_{fe}}{1 + h_{oe}(R_L + R_e)}$$

$$R_{i} = h_{ie} + h_{re} A_{i} (R_{L} + R_{e}) + R_{e} (1 - A_{i}) - R_{e} h_{re}$$

$$A_{v} = \frac{A_{i} R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$

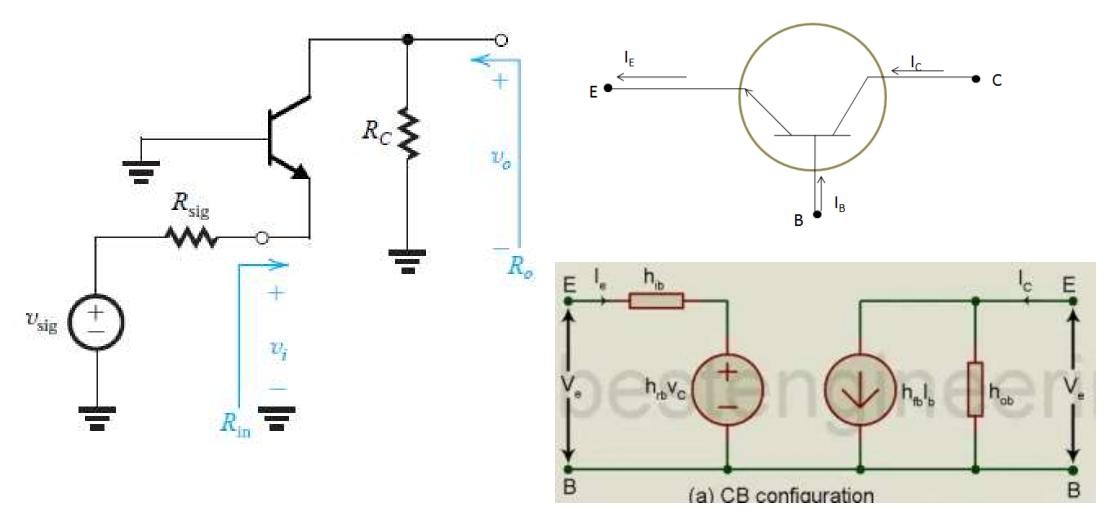
$$R_0 = \frac{1 + h_{fe}}{h_{oe}} + \frac{(R_s + h_{ie})(1 + h_{oe}R_e)}{h_{oe}R_e}$$
 and  $Y_0 = \frac{1}{R_0}$ 

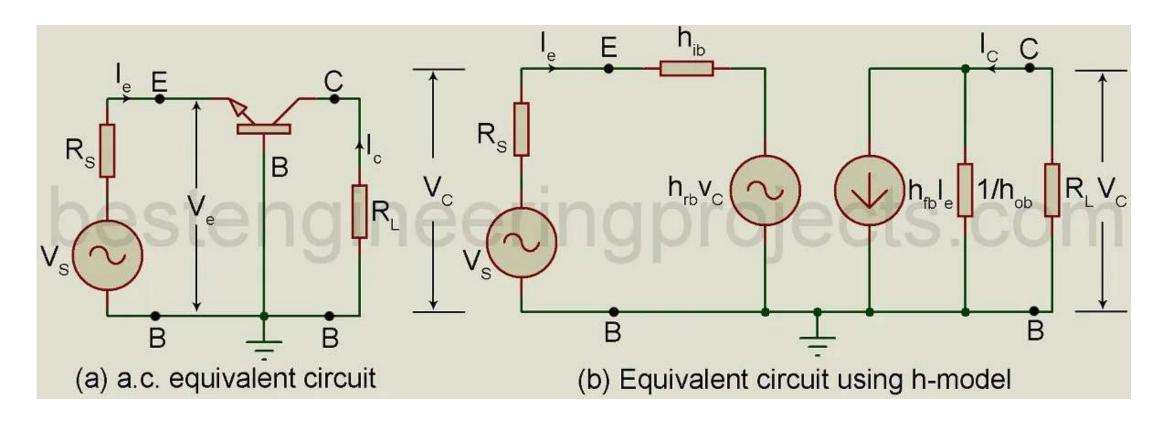
$$A_i = -h_{fe}$$

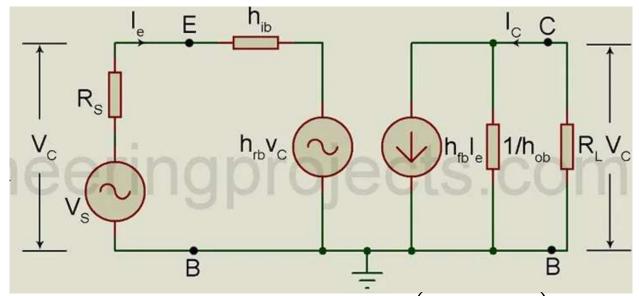
$$R_i = h_{ie} + (1 + h_{fe})R_e$$

$$A_{v} = \frac{A_{i}R_{L}}{R_{i}} = \frac{-h_{fe}R_{L}}{h_{ie}+(1+h_{fe})R_{e}}$$

$$Y_0 = 0$$
, and  $R_0 = \infty$ 





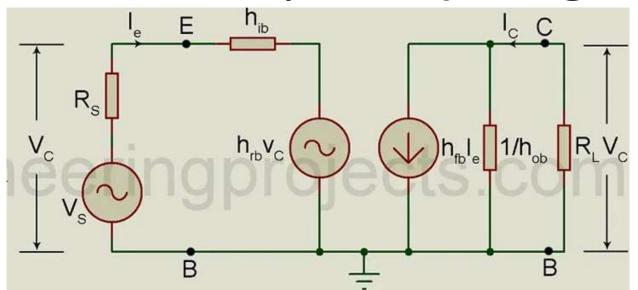


$$i_c = h_{fb}i_e + h_{ob}(-i_c R_L)$$

$$i_c (1 + h_{ob} R_L) = h_{fb}i_e$$

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{i}} &= rac{oldsymbol{i}_L}{oldsymbol{i}_e} = -rac{oldsymbol{i}_c}{oldsymbol{i}_e} \ oldsymbol{i}_c &= h_{fb}oldsymbol{i}_e + h_{ob}oldsymbol{v}_c \ oldsymbol{v}_c &= oldsymbol{i}_L oldsymbol{R}_L = -oldsymbol{i}_c oldsymbol{R}_L \end{aligned}$$

$$A_i = \frac{i_c}{i_e} = -\frac{h_{fb}}{1 + h_{ob}R_L}$$



$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{i}} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}_{e}}{\boldsymbol{\dot{l}}_{e}}$$

$$v_e = h_{ib}i_e + h_{rb}v_c$$

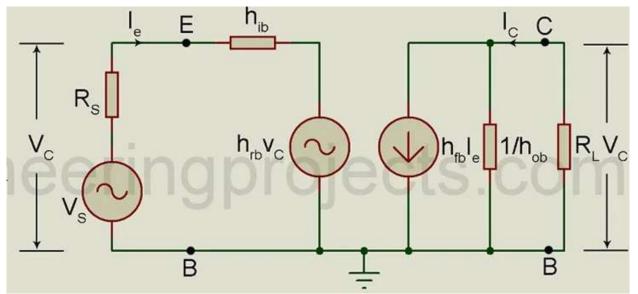
But, 
$$A_i = -\frac{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_c}{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e} \Rightarrow \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_c = -A_i \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e$$

$$v_c = i_L R_L = -i_c R_L = A_i i_e R_L$$

$$v_e = h_{ib}i_e + h_{rb}(A_ii_eR_L)$$

$$v_e = i_e (h_{ib} + h_{rb} A_i R_L)$$

$$\Rightarrow R_i = \frac{V_e}{i_e} = h_{ib} + h_{rb} A_i R_L$$



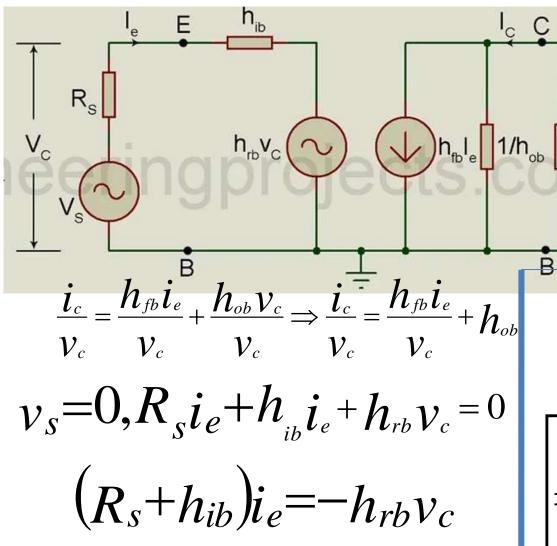
$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{v}} = rac{\mathcal{V}_c}{\mathcal{V}_e}$$

But, 
$$A_i = -\frac{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_c}{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e} \Rightarrow \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_c = -A_i \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e$$

$$v_c = i_L R_L = -i_c R_L = A_i i_e R_L$$

$$\frac{1}{R_i} = \frac{\boldsymbol{i}_e}{\boldsymbol{v}_e}$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{v} = \frac{v_{c}}{v_{e}} = \frac{A_{i} i_{e} R_{L}}{v_{e}} = \frac{A_{i} R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$

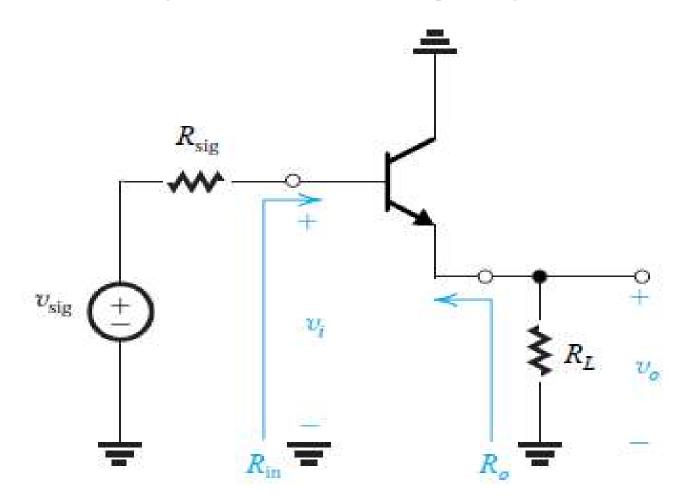


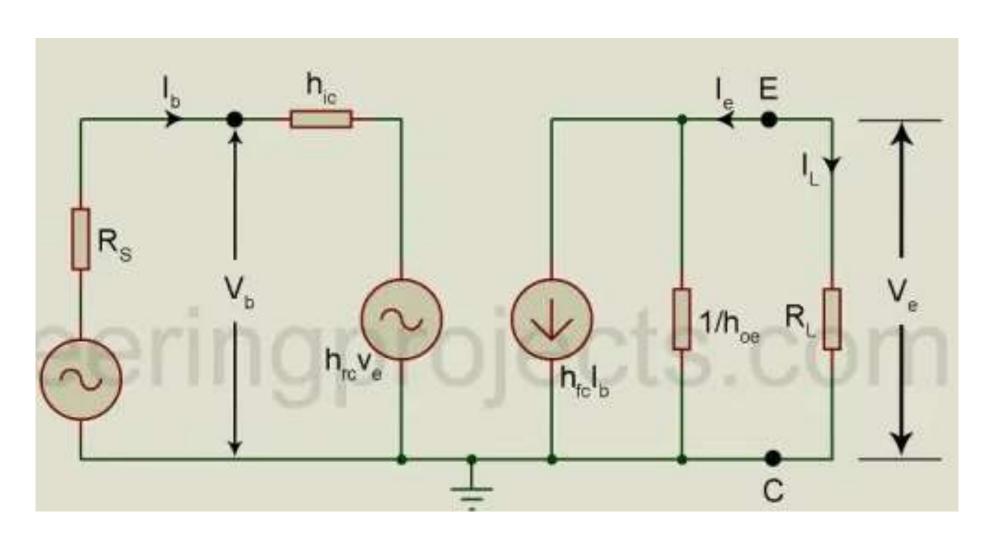
Output Admittance Y<sub>o</sub>

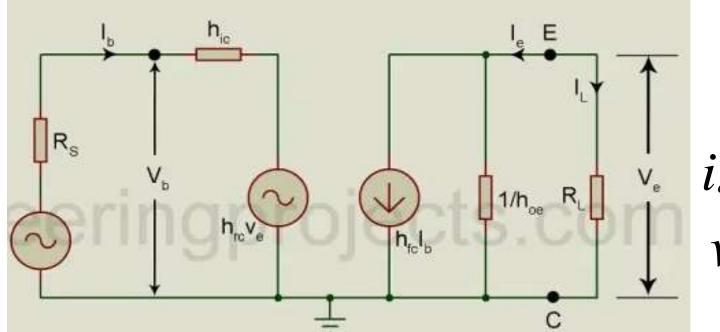
$$i_c = \frac{i_c}{v_c}$$
 $i_c = h_{fb}i_e + h_{ob}v_c$ 
Dividing By  $V_c$ 

$$\Rightarrow \frac{i_e}{v_c} = -\frac{h_{rb}}{R_s + h_{ib}}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_0 = h_{ob} - \frac{h_{fb}h_{rb}}{R_s + h_{ib}}$$
 and  $R_0 = \frac{1}{Y_0}$ 





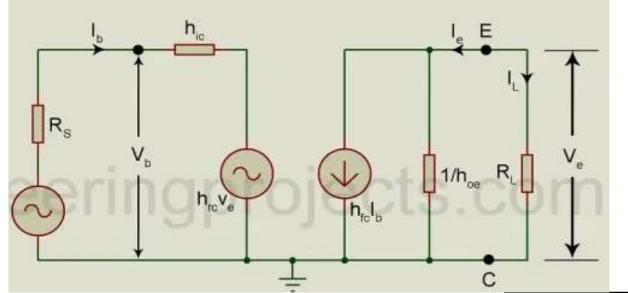


$$A_{i} = \frac{\dot{l}_{L}}{\dot{l}_{b}} = -\frac{\dot{l}_{e}}{\dot{l}_{b}}$$
 $i_{e} = h_{fc}\dot{i}_{b} + h_{oc}v_{e}$ 
 $v_{c} = \dot{l}_{L}R_{L} = -\dot{l}_{e}R_{L}$ 

$$i_e = h_{fc}i_b + h_{oc}(-i_eR_L)$$

$$i_e(1 + h_{oc}R_L) = h_{fc}i_b$$

$$A_i = \frac{i_e}{i_b} = -\frac{h_{fc}}{1 + h_{oc}R_L}$$



$$\mathbf{R}_{i} = \frac{\mathcal{V}_{b}}{\boldsymbol{i}_{b}}$$

$$v_b = h_{ic} i_b + h_{rc} v_e$$

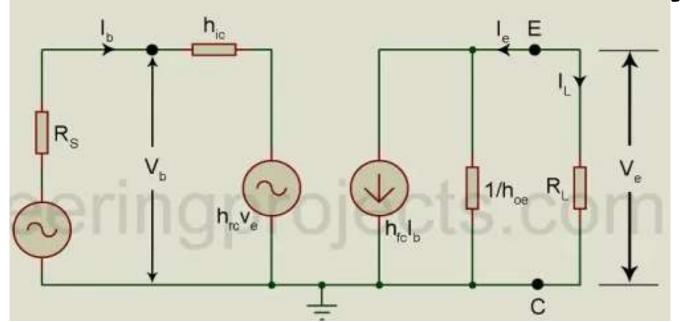
But, 
$$A_i = -\frac{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e}{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_b} \Rightarrow \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e = -A_i \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_b$$

$$v_e = i_L R_L = -i_e R_L = A_i i_b R_L$$

$$v_b = h_{ic}i_b + h_{rc}(A_ii_bR_L)$$

$$v_b = i_b (h_{ic} + h_{rc} A_i R_L)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{R}_i = \frac{\mathbf{V}_b}{\mathbf{i}_b} = \mathbf{h}_{ic} + \mathbf{h}_{rc} \mathbf{A}_i \mathbf{R}_L$$



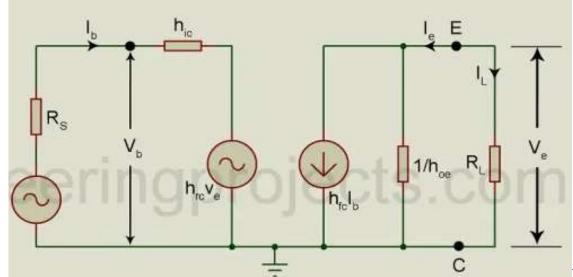
$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{v}} = \frac{\mathcal{V}_e}{\mathcal{V}_b}$$

But, 
$$A_i = -\frac{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e}{\dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_b} \Rightarrow \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_e = -A_i \dot{\boldsymbol{l}}_b$$

$$\frac{1}{R_i} = \frac{\boldsymbol{i}_b}{\boldsymbol{v}_b}$$

$$v_e = i_L R_L = -i_e R_L = A_i i_b R_L$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{v} = \frac{v_{e}}{v_{b}} = \frac{A_{i} i_{b} R_{L}}{v_{b}} = \frac{A_{i} R_{L}}{R_{i}}$$



$$\frac{\dot{l}_e}{V_e} = \frac{h_{fc}\dot{l}_b}{V_e} + \frac{h_{ob}V_e}{V_e} \Rightarrow \frac{\dot{l}_e}{V_e} = \frac{h_{fc}\dot{l}_b}{V_e} + h_{oc}$$

$$v_s = 0, R_s i_b + h_{ic} i_b + h_{rc} v_e = 0$$

$$(R_s+h_{ic})i_b=-h_{rc}v_e$$

Output Admittance Y<sub>o</sub>

$$i_e = \frac{i_e}{v_e}$$
 $i_e = h_{fc}i_b + h_{oc}v_e$ 
Dividing By  $V_e$ 

$$\Rightarrow \frac{i_b}{v_e} = -\frac{h_{rc}}{R_s + h_{ic}}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_0 = h_{oc} - \frac{h_{fc}h_{rc}}{R_s + h_{ic}}$$
 and  $R_0 = \frac{1}{Y_0}$ 

#### Conversion Formulae for Hybrid Parameters

From CB to CE	From CE to CB	From CE to CC
$h_{ie} = \frac{h_{ib}}{1 + h_{fb}}$	$h_{ib} = \frac{h_{ie}}{1 + h_{fe}}$	$h_{ic} = h_{ie}$
$h_{oe} = \frac{h_{ob}}{1 + h_{fb}}$	$h_{ob} = \frac{h_{oe}}{1 + h_{fe}}$	$h_{oc} = h_{oe}$
$h_{fe} = \frac{-h_{fb}}{1 + h_{fb}}$	$h_{fb} = \frac{-h_{fe}}{1 + h_{fe}}$	$h_{fc} = (1 + h_{fe})$
$h_{re} = \frac{h_{ib} h_{ob}}{1 + h_{fb}} - h_{rb}$	$h_{rb} = \frac{h_{ie} \ h_{oe}}{1 + h_{fe}} - h_{re}$	$h_{rc} = 1 - h_{re} \cong 1$

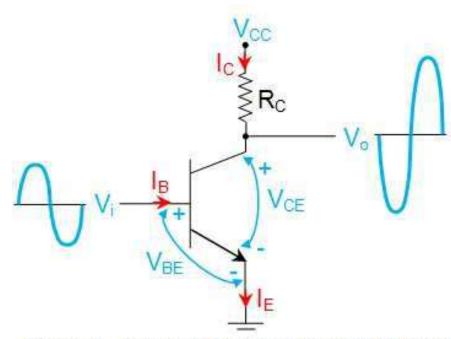


Figure 1 A Simple Common Emitter Amplifier

$$V_0 = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

- ❖ Collector terminal (output terminal) is connected to supply voltage  $V_{CC}$  through the collector resistor  $R_{C}$ .
- ❖ Base terminal is provided with the AC signal which needs to be amplified.
- ❖ Emitter terminal is grounded (hence also referred to as Grounded Emitter configuration).

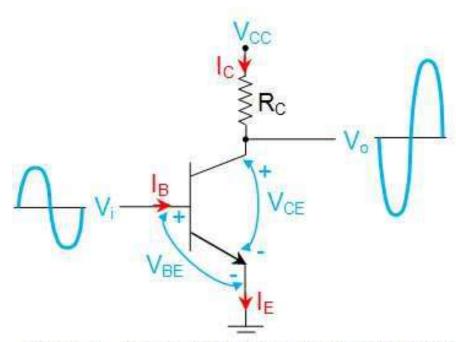


Figure 1 A Simple Common Emitter Amplifier

- In this kind of arrangement, as the input voltage  $V_i$  increases, the base current  $I_B$  also increases which in turn increases the collector current  $I_C$ .
- ❖This causes an increase in the voltage drop across the collector resistor, R<sub>C</sub> which results in a decreased output voltage V<sub>0</sub> as emphasized by the following relationship

$$V_0 = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

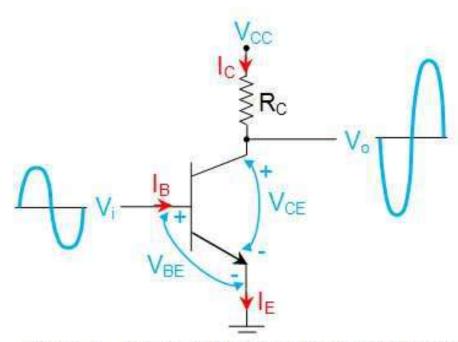


Figure 1 A Simple Common Emitter Amplifier

$$V_0 = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

- ❖ Similarly as the input voltage goes on decreasing, I<sub>B</sub> and hence I<sub>C</sub> decrease, due to which the voltage drop across R<sub>C</sub> also decreases thereby increasing the output voltage.
- This indicates that for the positive halfcycle of the input waveform, one would get amplified negative half-cycle while for the negative input pulse, the output would be a amplified positive pulse. Hence there exists a phase-shift of 180° between the input and the output waveforms of the common emitter amplifier for which it is also referred to as **Inverting Amplifier**.

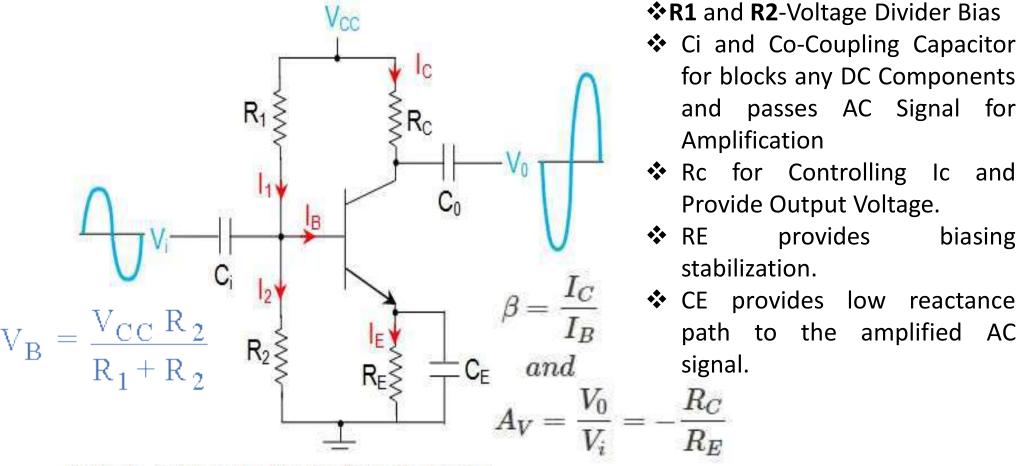
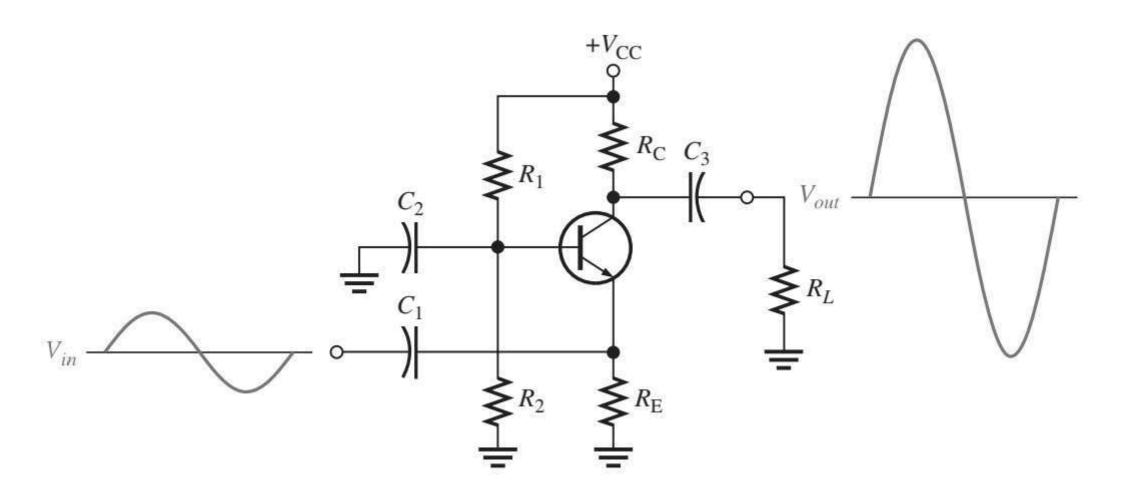
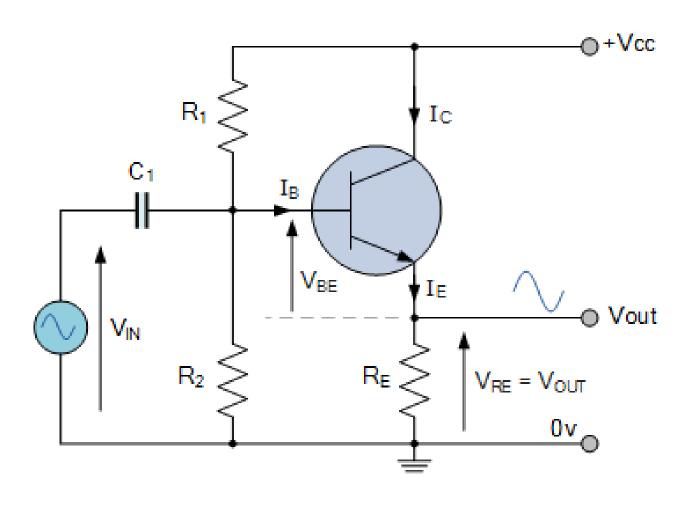


Figure 2 Common Emitter Amplifier with Biasing and Decoupling Details



#### CC Amplifier Circuit(Emitter Follower)



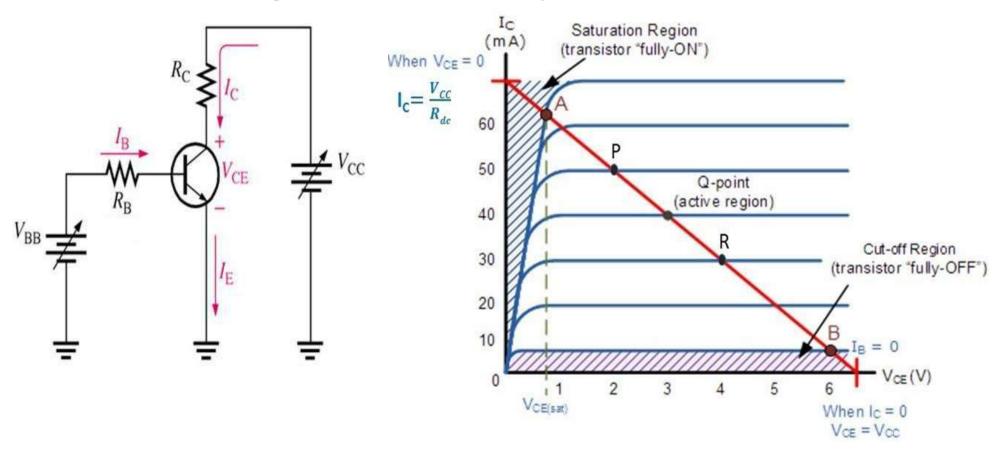
#### Comparison of BJT Amplifier

Characteristics	CE Amplifier	CB Amplifier	CC amplifier (Emitter Follower)
<b>Current Gain</b>	High	Less Than Unity	High
Voltage Gain	High	High	Less Than Unity
Input Resistance	Medium	Lowest	Highest
<b>Output Resistance</b>	Moderately High	Highest	Lowest
Phase Shift between Input and Output	180°	0°	0°
Application	For Audio Frequency Applications	For High Frequency Applications	For Impedance Matching

#### Biasing in BJT Amplifier Circuits

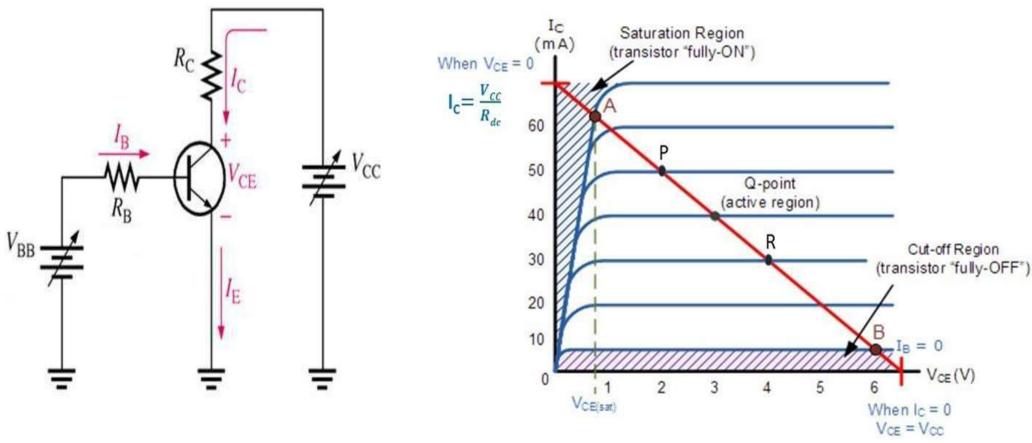
- Fixed Bias(Base Bias)
- Self Bias/Voltage Divider Bias Circuits
- Biasing Using a Collector-to-Base Feedback Resistor
- Biasing using a Constant-Current Source

#### Biasing in BJT Amplifier Circuits



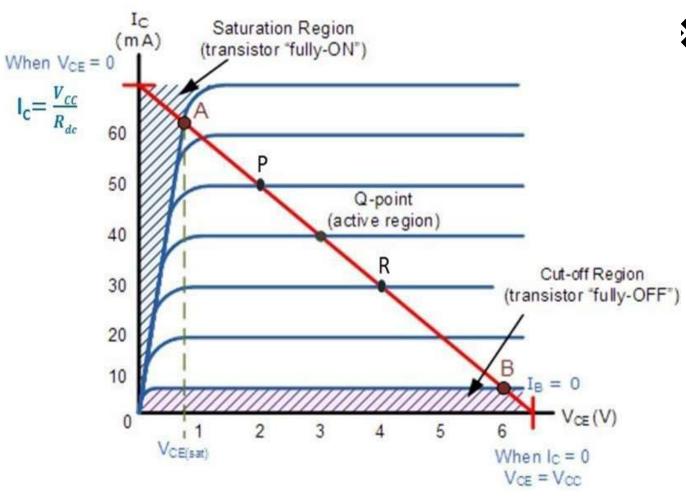
The biasing problem is that of establishing a **constant dc current** in the collector of the BJT.

### Biasing in BJT Amplifier Circuits



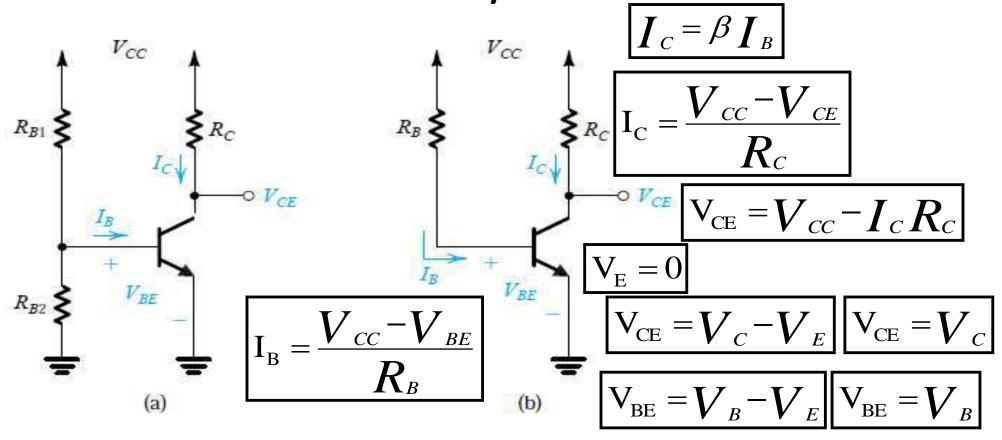
This current has to be calculable, predictable, and insensitive to variations in temperature and to the large variations in the value of β encountered among transistors of the same type.

# Biasing in BJT Amplifier Circuits



Another important consideration in design bias locating the dc bias point in the iC-vCE plane to allow for maximum output signal swing.

Fixed Bias/Base Bias



Two obvious schemes for biasing the BJT: (a) by fixing VBE; (b) by fixing IB. Both result in wide variations in IC and hence in VCE and therefore are considered to be "bad." Neither scheme is recommended.

## Fixed Bias/Base Bias

- First, attempting to bias the BJT by fixing the voltage VBE by, for instance, using a voltage divider across the power supply VCC, is not a viable approach:
- The very sharp exponential relationship iC-vBE means that any small and inevitable differences in VBE from the desired value will result in large differences in IC and in VCE.
- Second, biasing the BJT by establishing a constant current in the base, where is also not a recommended approach.
- Here the typically large variations in the value of β among units of the same device type will result in correspondingly large variations in IC and hence in VCE.

### Fixed Bias/Base Bias

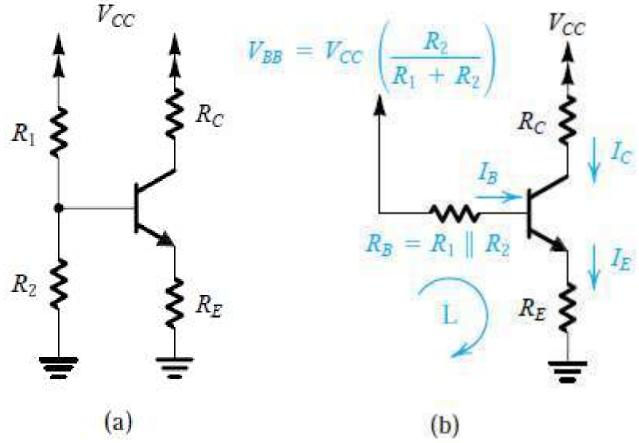
#### ADVANTAGES OF FIXED BIAS CIRCUIT

- 1. Simple circuit as it uses few components.
- It provides max flexibility, because the biasing conditions are easily set by changing the value of R<sub>B</sub>.

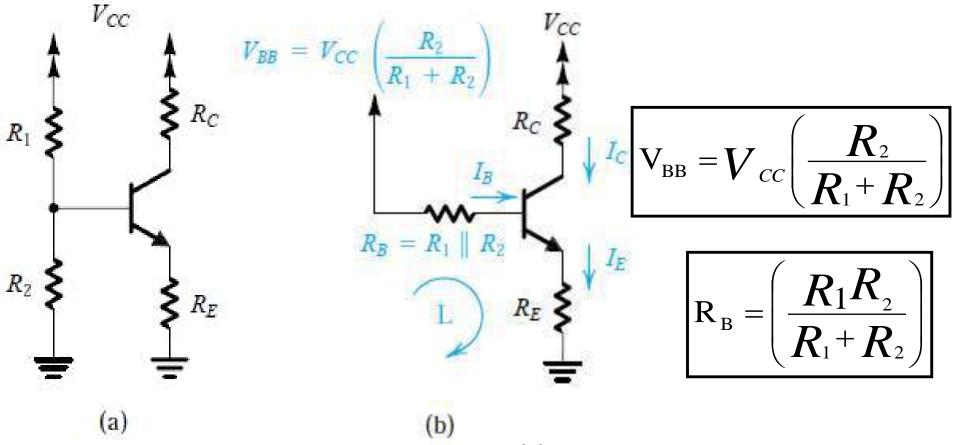
#### DISADVANTAGES OF FIXED BIAS CIRCUIT

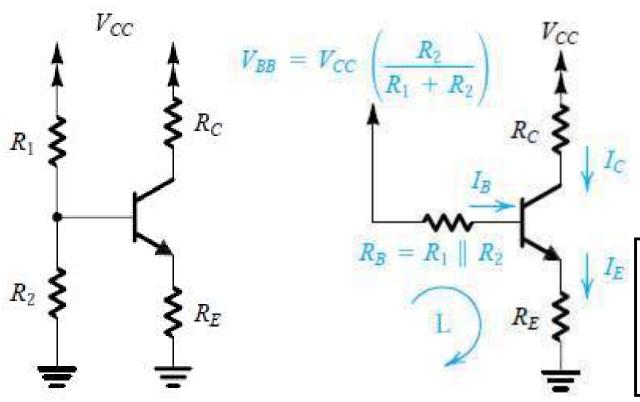
#### Poor stability

- There is no means to stop self increase of I<sub>C</sub> due to increase in temperature.
   So, thermal stability is not provided.
- 2. If  $\beta$  increases due to transistor replacement then, Ic also increases by factor  $\beta$ . Therefore there is a chance of thermal rungway  $I_C = \beta I_B$



- ❖The arrangement most commonly used for biasing a discrete-circuit transistor amplifier if only a single power supply is available.
- ❖The technique consists of supplying the base of the transistor with a fraction of the supply voltage VCC through the voltage divider R1, R2.
- ❖In addition, a resistor RE is connected to the emitter.





(a)

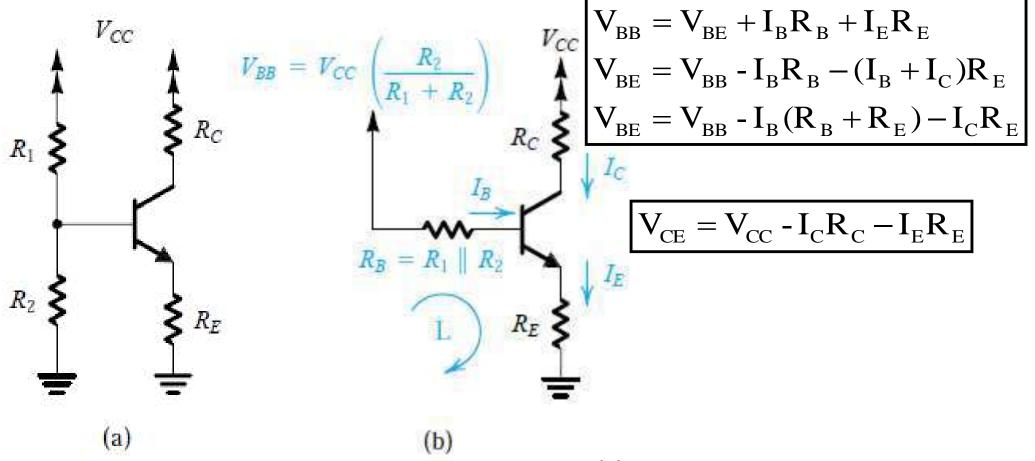
The current *IE* can be determined by writing a Kirchhoff loop equation for the base—emitter—ground loop, labeled L, and substituting

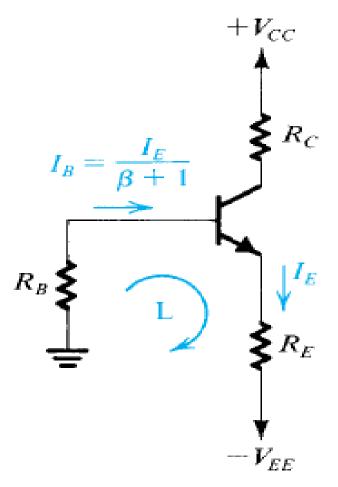
$$I_{\rm B} = \frac{I_{\rm E}}{\beta + 1}$$

$$V_{BB} = I_{B}R_{B} + V_{BE} + I_{E}R_{E}$$

$$V_{BB} = \left(\frac{I_{E}}{\beta + 1}\right)R_{B} + V_{BE} + I_{E}R_{E}$$

$$I_{E} = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_{E} + \frac{R_{B}}{\beta + 1}}$$





- ❖ Biasing the BJT using two power supplies. Resistor *RB* is needed only if the signal is to be capacitively coupled to the base.
- $\clubsuit$  Otherwise, the base can be connected directly to ground, or to a grounded signal source, resulting in almost total  $\beta$  -independence of the bias current.

$$I_{E} = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{R_{E} + \frac{R_{B}}{\beta + 1}}$$

#### Biasing Using a Collector-to-Base Feedback

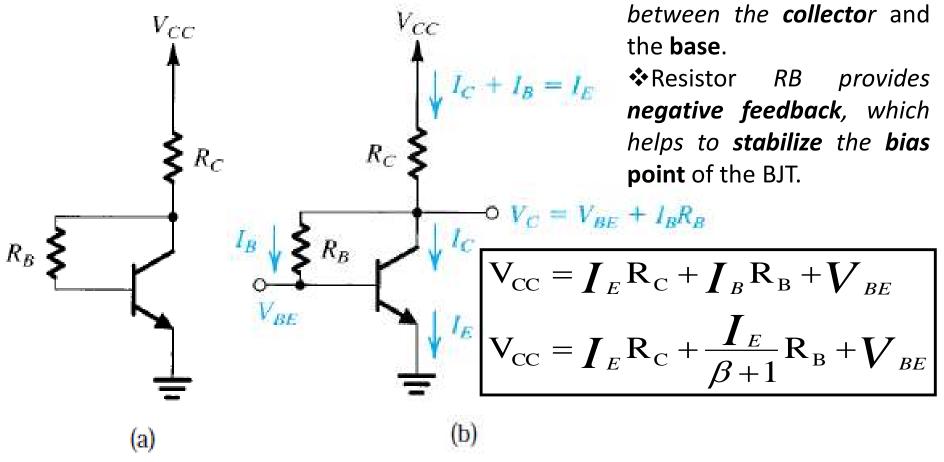
#### Resistor

❖The circuit employs a

connected

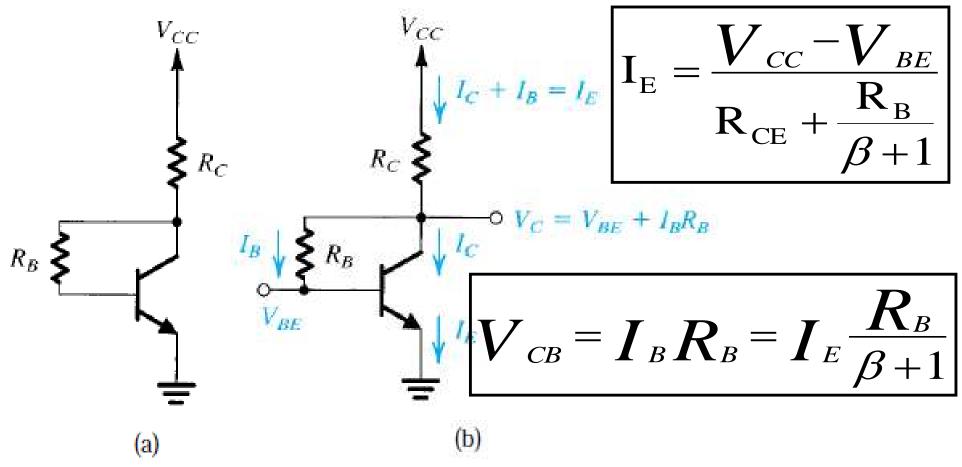
RB

resistor



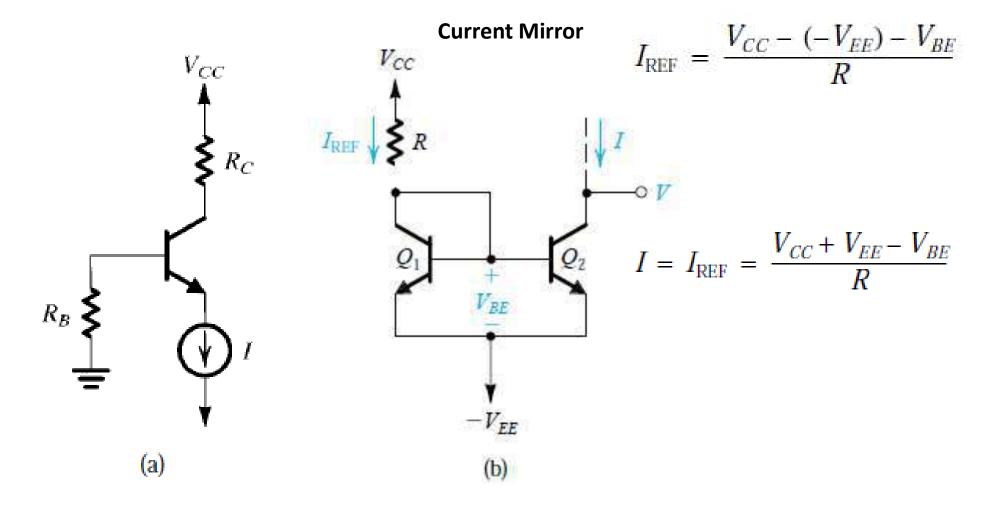
- (a) A CE transistor amplifier biased by a feedback resistor RB.
- (b) Analysis of the circuit in (a).

# Biasing Using a Collector-to-Base Feedback Resistor

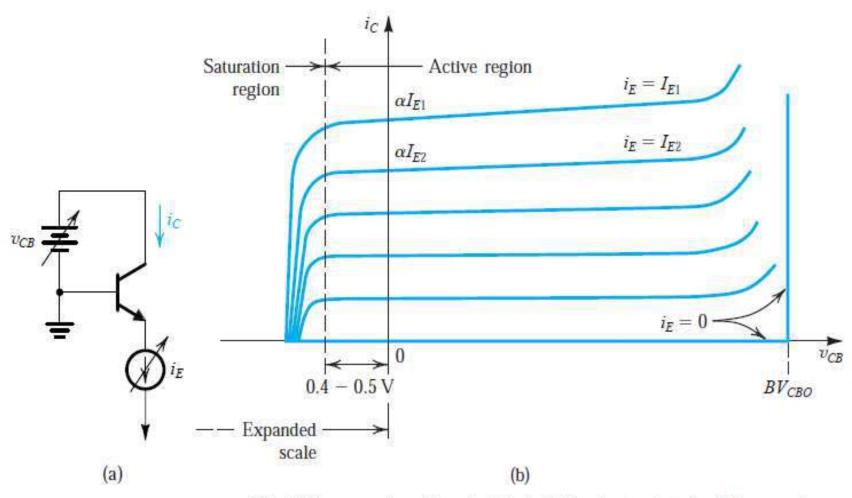


- (a) A CE transistor amplifier biased by a feedback resistor RB.
- (b) Analysis of the circuit in (a).

### **Biasing Using a Constant-Current Source**

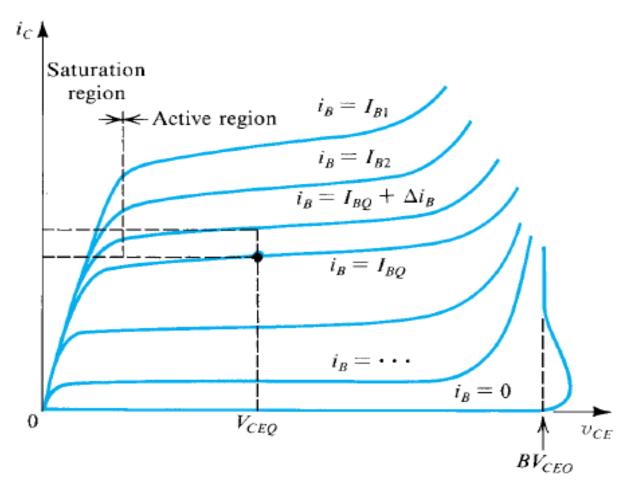


#### **Transistor Breakdown and Temperature Effects**



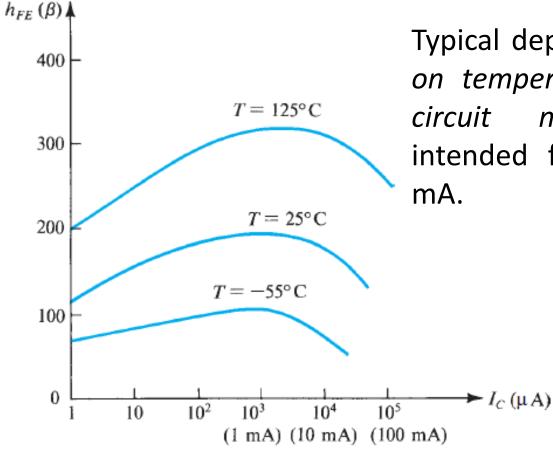
The BJT common-base characteristics including the transistor breakdown region.

#### **Transistor Breakdown and Temperature Effects**



The BJT common-emitter characteristics including the breakdown region.

#### **Transistor Breakdown and Temperature Effects**



Typical dependence of  $\beta$  on *IC and* on temperature in an integrated-circuit npn silcon transistor intended for operation around 1 m<sup> $\Delta$ </sup>

# (20A04101T) ELECTRONIC DEVICES & CIRCUITS

Dr.G.ELAIYARAJA., M.E.Ph.D

**Professor** 

**Department of ECE** 

**VEMU Institute of Technology,** 

P.Kothakota, Chittoor, AP.

#### Unit-4

- MOS Field-Effect Transistors (MOSFETs):
- Introduction
- Device Structure and Physical Operation
  - Device Structure
  - Operation with Zero Gate Voltage
  - Creating a Channel for Current Flow
  - Operation for Different Drain to Source Voltages(Vds)
- ❖ The P-channel MOSFET
- CMOS
- V-I Characteristics
  - ➤ iD vDS Characteristics
  - → iD vGS Characteristics
  - > Finite Output Resistance in Saturation
  - Characteristics of the p- Channel MOSFET

- MOSFET Circuits at DC
- Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design
- ➤ Voltage Transfer Characteristics
- ➤ Biasing the MOSFET to Obtain Linear Amplification
- ➤ The Small Signal Voltage Gain
- Graphical Analysis
- The Q-point
- Problem solving.

#### Introduction

- Compared to BJTs, MOSFETs can be made quite small (i.e., requiring a small area on the silicon IC chip), and their manufacturing process is relatively simple.
- Also, their operation requires comparatively little power.
- To pack large numbers of MOSFETs (as many as 2 billion) on a single IC chip to implement very sophisticated, very-largescale-integrated (VLSI) digital circuits such as those for memory and microprocessors.

## Historical Background

#### Evolution of IC Technology

Year	Technology	Number of components	Typical products
1947	Invention of transistor	1	_
1950–1960	Discrete components	1	Junction diodes and transistors
1961–1965	Small-scale integration	10–100	Planner devices, logic gates, flip-flops
1966–1970	Medium-scale integration	100-1000	Counters, MUXs, decod- ers, adders
1971-1979	Large-scale integration	1000-20,000	8-bit µp, RAM, ROM
1980–1984	Very-large-scale integration	20,000-50,000	DSPs, RISC processors, 16-bit, 32-bit μP
1985-	Ultra-large-scale integration	>50,000	64-bit μp, dual-core μP

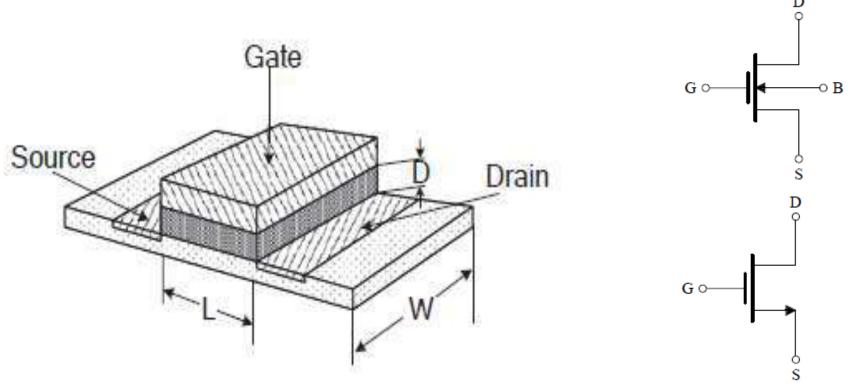
MUX multiplexer,  $\mu P$  microprocessor, RAM random-access memory, ROM read-only memory, DSP digital signal processor, RISC reduced instruction set computer

#### Introduction

- Analog circuits such as amplifiers and filters can also be implemented in MOS technology, albeit in smaller, less-dense chips.
- Also, both analog and digital functions are increasingly being implemented on the same IC chip, in what is known as mixedsignal design.

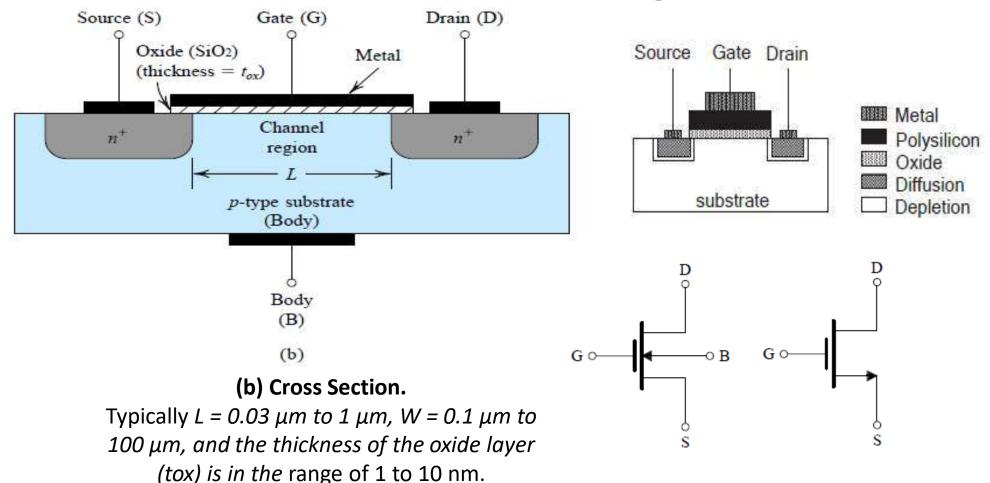
**Device Structure Insulated-gate FET or IGFET** Metal Oxide (SiO<sub>2</sub>) Source region p-type substrate (Body) Channel region Drain region Physical Structure of the Enhancementtype NMOS transistor: (a) perspective (a) view;

**Device Structure** 

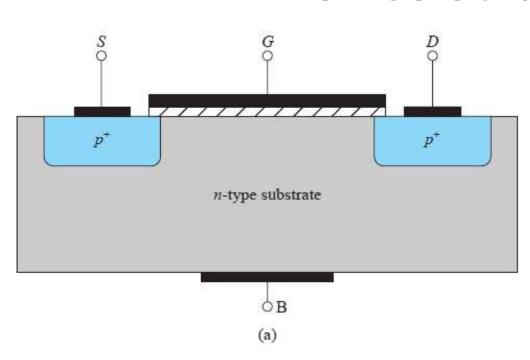


Physical Structure of the Enhancementtype NMOS transistor: (a) perspective view;

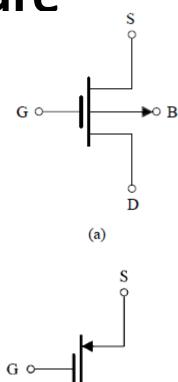
#### **Device Structure**



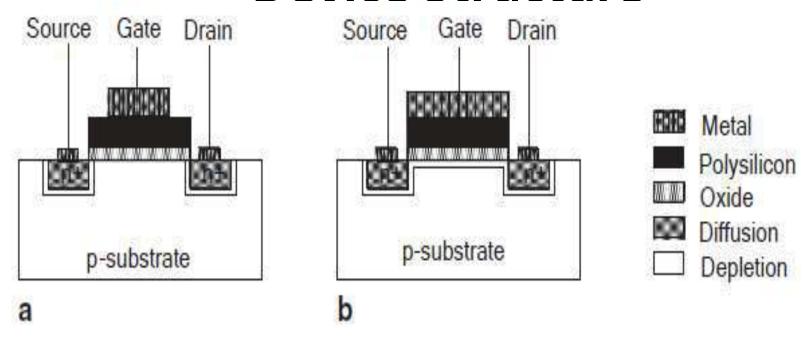
#### **Device Structure**



(a) Physical structure of the PMOS transistor



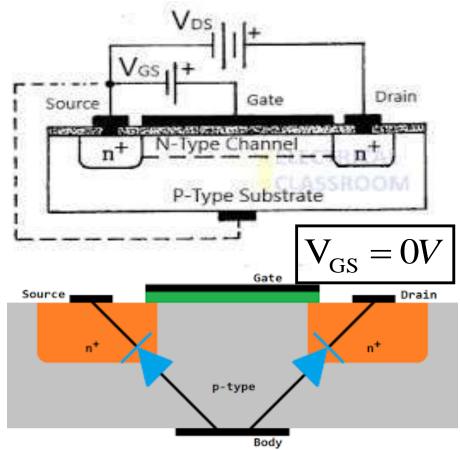
#### **Device Structure**

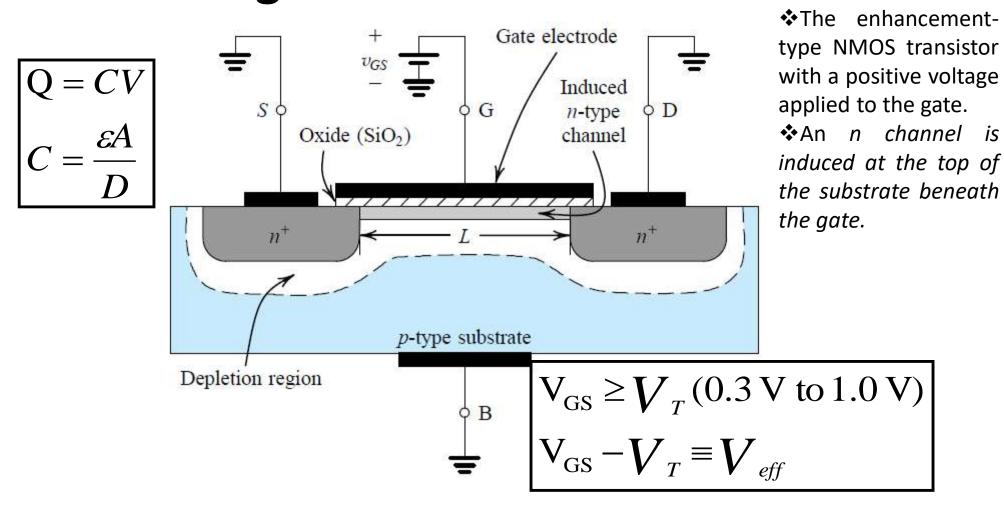


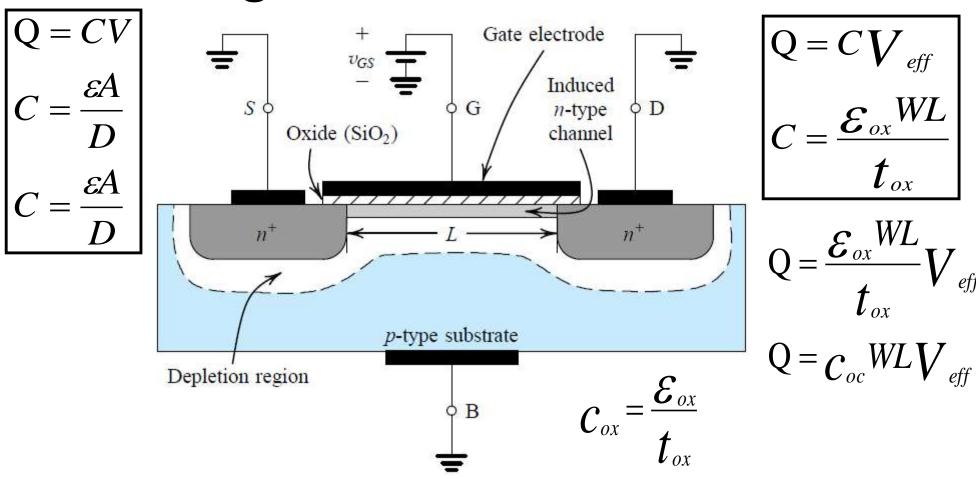
- (a) nMOS enhancement-mode transistor
- (b) nMOS depletion-mode transistor

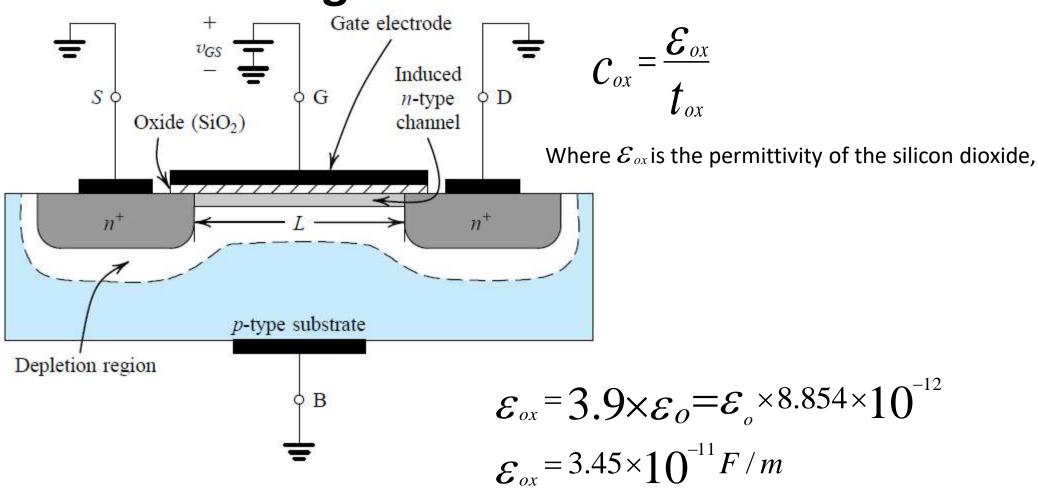
# Device Structure and Physical Operation-Operation with Zero Gate Voltage

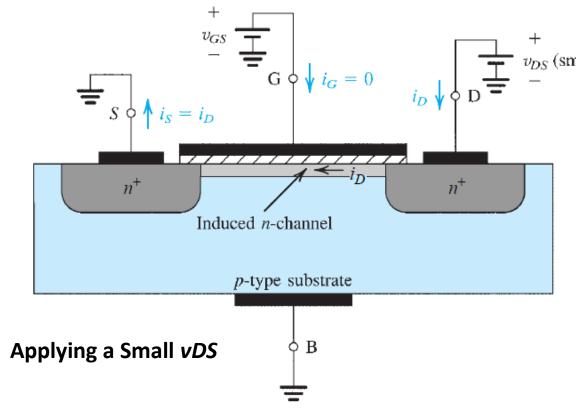
- ❖With zero voltage applied to the gate, two back-to-back diodes exist in series between drain and source.
- ❖One diode is formed by the *pn junction* between the *n*+ drain region and the ptype substrate, and the other diode is formed by the *pn junction between the p-type* substrate and the *n*+ source region.
- ❖ These back-to-back diodes prevent current conduction from drain to source when a voltage vDS is applied.
- $\clubsuit$  In fact, the path between drain and source has a very high resistance (of the order of 10^12  $\Omega$ ).



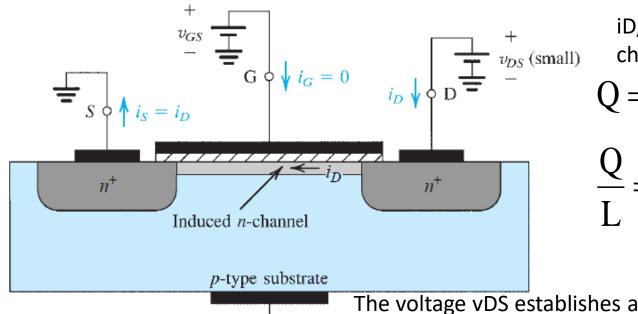








- ❖An NMOS transistor with vGS > Vt and with a small vDS applied.
- ❖The device acts as a resistance whose value is determined by vGS.
- ❖ Specifically, the channel conductance is proportional to vGS − Vt, and thus iD is proportional to (vGS − Vt)vDS.
- Note that the depletion region is not shown (for simplicity).



iD, current is the charge per unit channel length

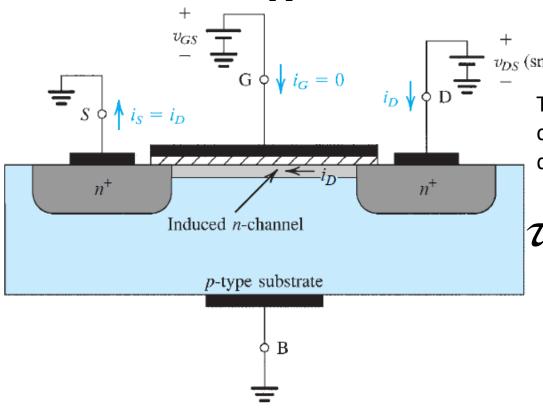
$$Q = c_{ox} WLV_{eff}$$

$$\frac{Q}{L} = C_{ox} W V_{eff}$$

Applying a Small *vDS* 

The voltage vDS establishes an electric field *E across the length* of the channel,

$$E = rac{{{{oldsymbol {\cal V}}_{DS}}}}{L}$$



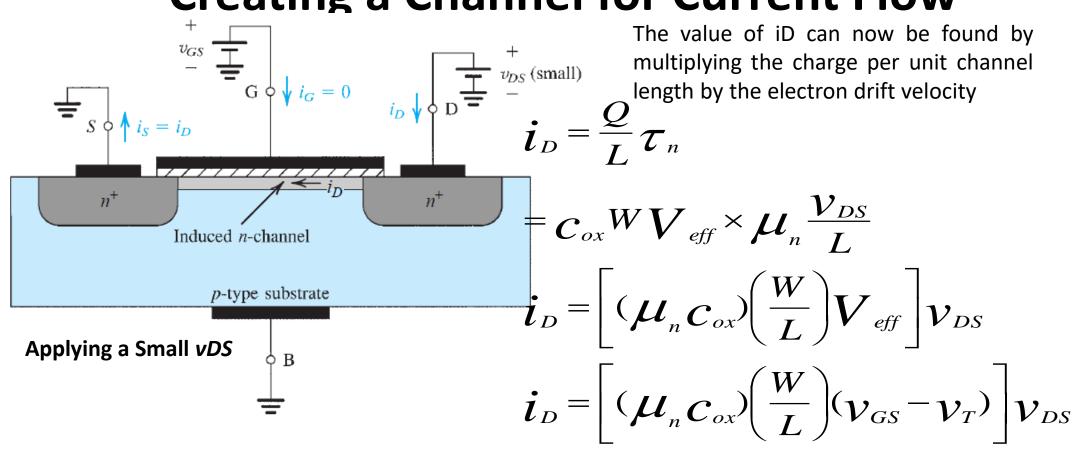
Applying a Small *vDS* 

This electric field in turn causes the channel electrons to drift toward the drain with a velocity given by

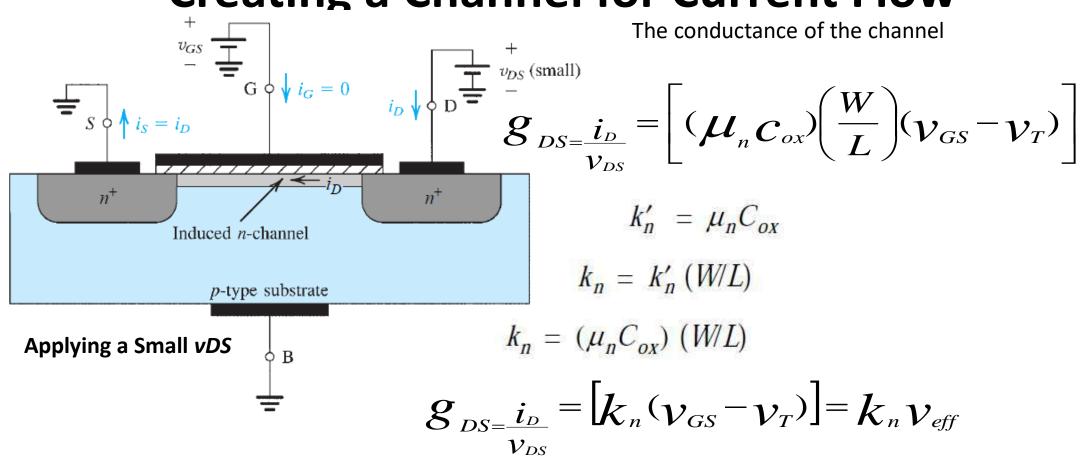
$$\tau_{n} = \mu_{n} E = \mu_{n} \frac{v_{DS}}{L}$$

$$\mu_{n} - mobility$$

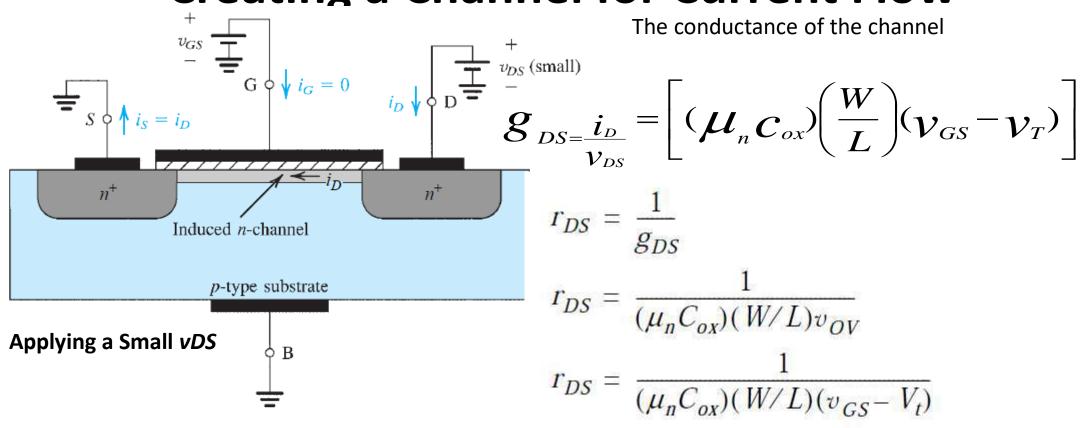
$$\mu_n$$
-mobility

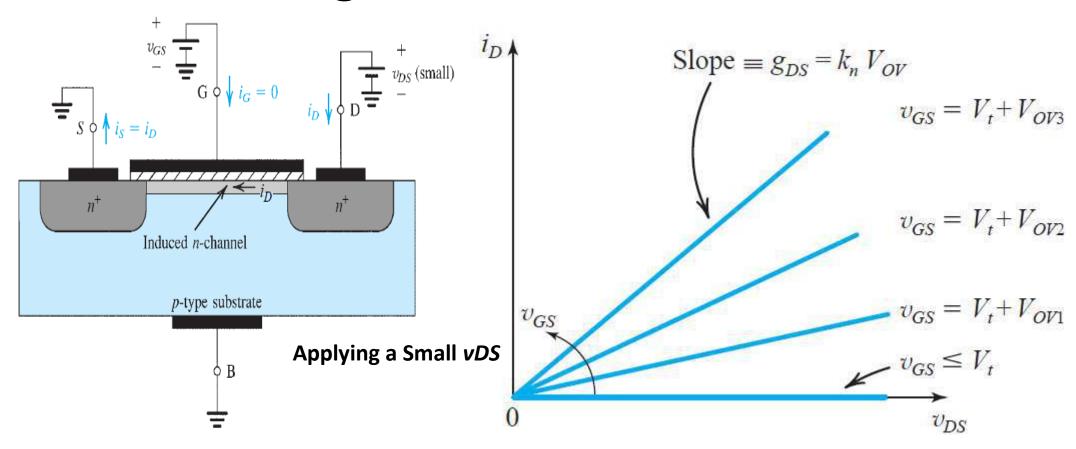


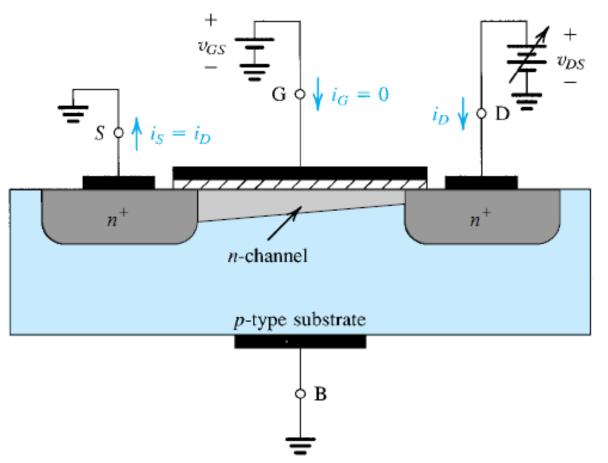
#### **Creating a Channel for Current Flow**



#### **Creating a Channel for Current Flow**





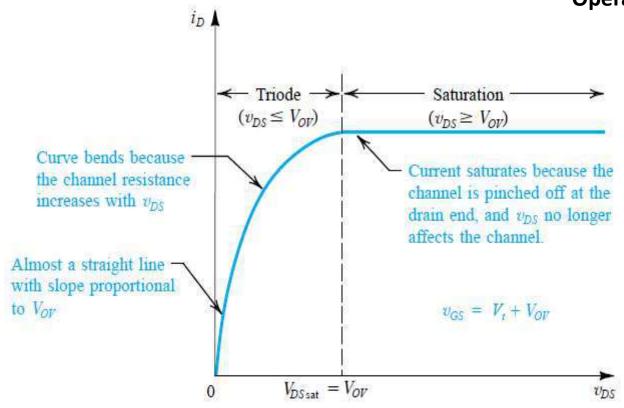


#### Operation as vDS Is Increased

Operation of the enhancement **NMOS** transistor as *vDS* increased. The induced channel acquires a tapered shape, and its resistance increases as vDS increased. Here, is kept constant at a value > Vt;

$$vGS = Vt + VOV$$

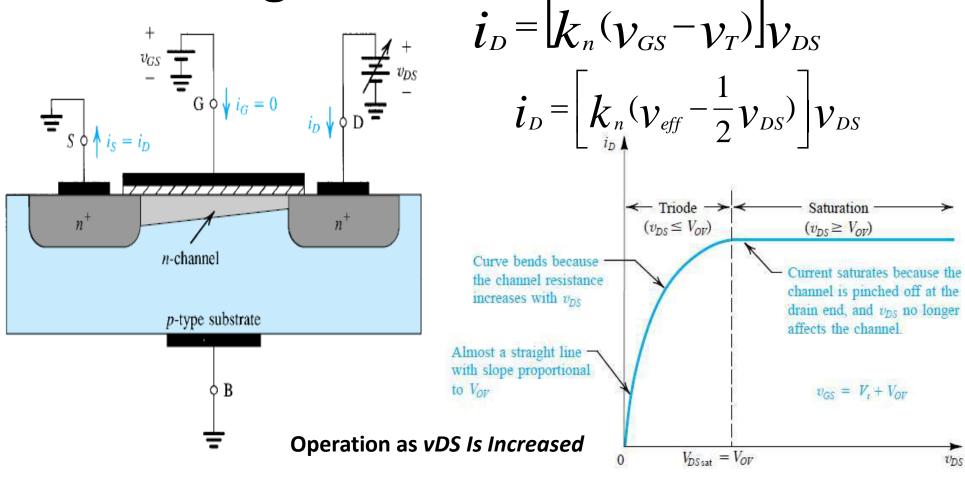
#### Operation as vDS Is Increased

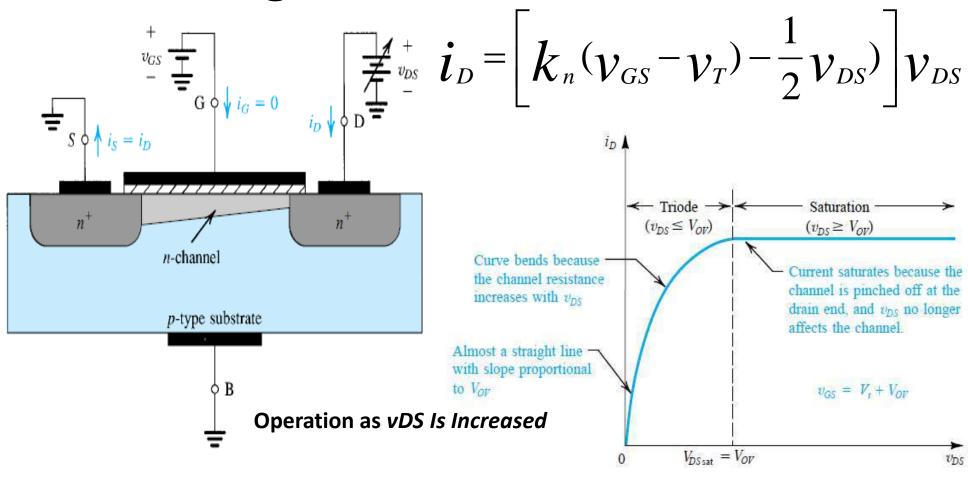


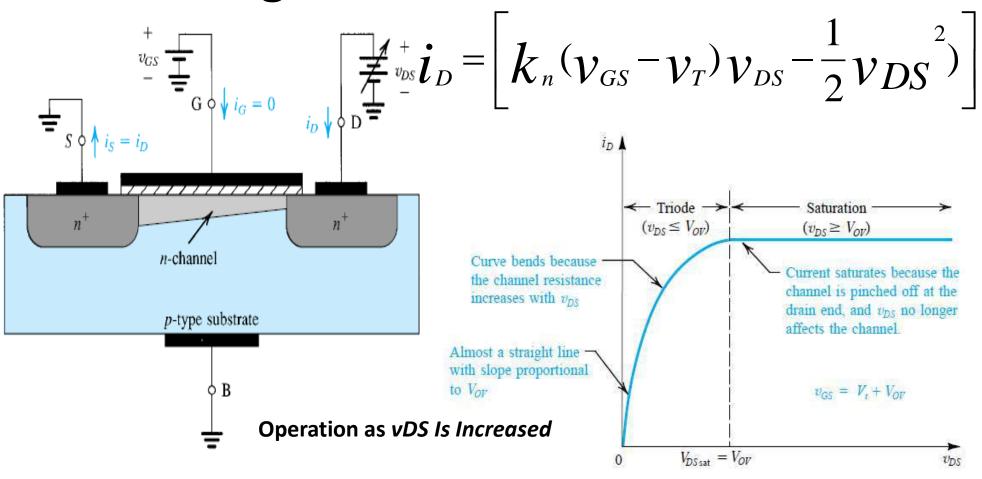
The drain current *iD*versus the drain-tosource voltage vDS
for an enhancementtype NMOS
transistor operated
with vGS = Vt + VOV

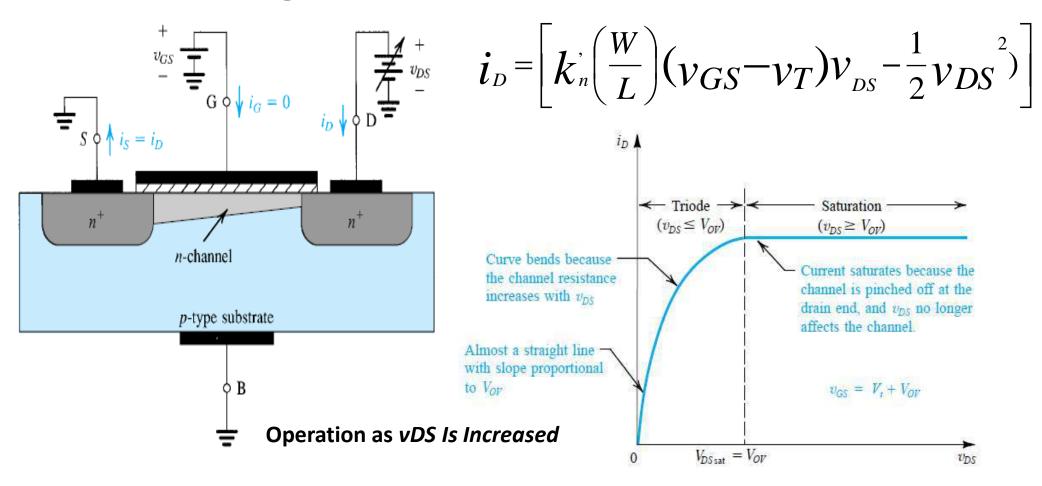
### Device Structure and Physical Operation-

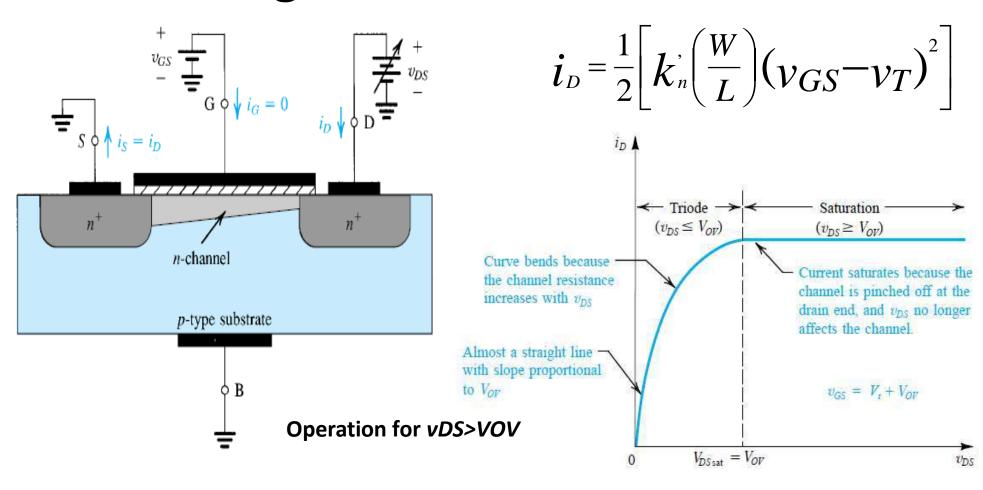
Creating a Channel for Current Flow











$$i_D = 0$$
 for  $V_{GS} < V_T$ 

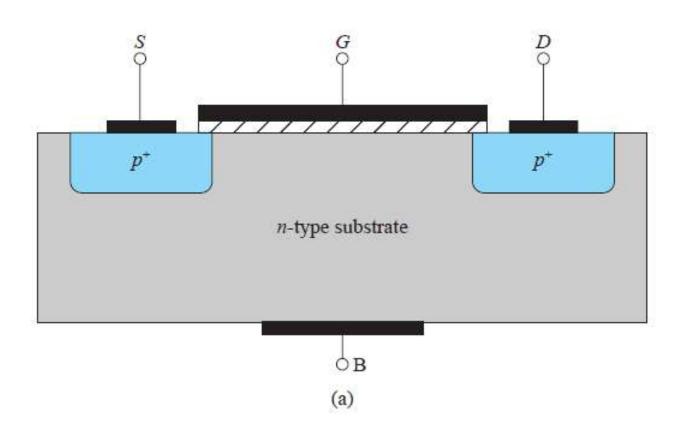
#### **Triode Region**

$$i_D = \left[ k_n' \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) (v_{GS} - v_T) v_{DS} - \frac{1}{2} v_{dS}^2) \right] for v_{GS} \ge v_T \text{ and } v_{dS} \le v_{eff}$$

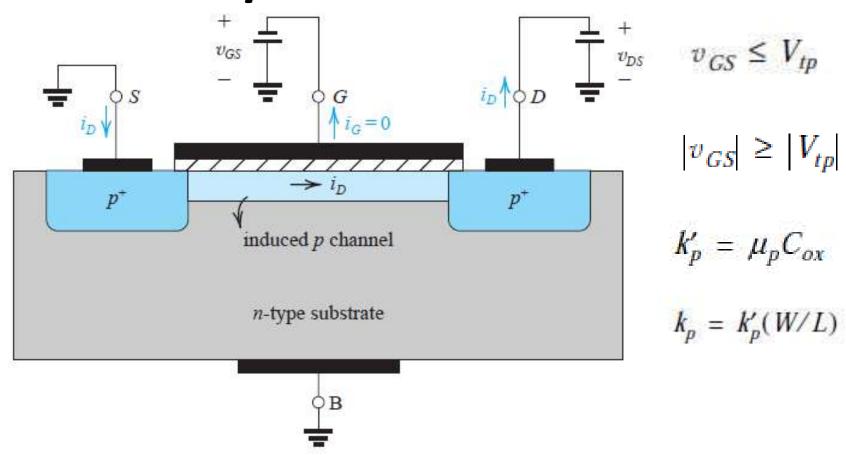
#### **Saturation Region**

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} \left[ k_n \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) \left( v_{GS} - v_T \right)^2 \right]$$
 for  $v_{GS} \ge v_T$  and  $v_{ds} \ge v_{eff}$ 

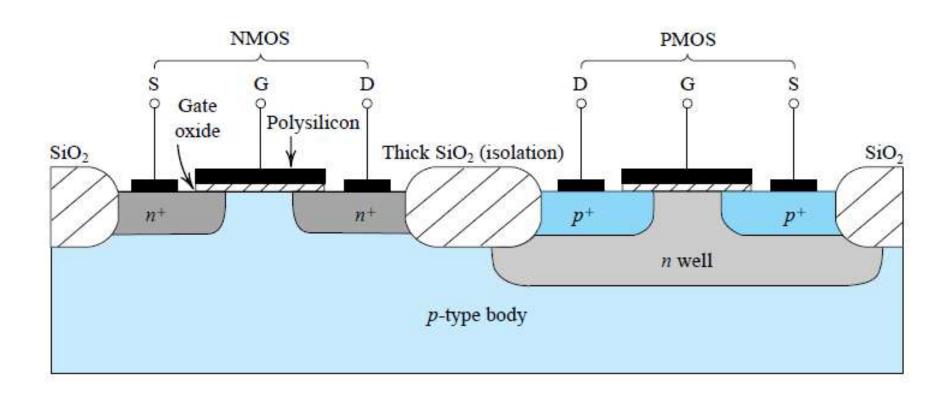
## p-Channel MOSFET



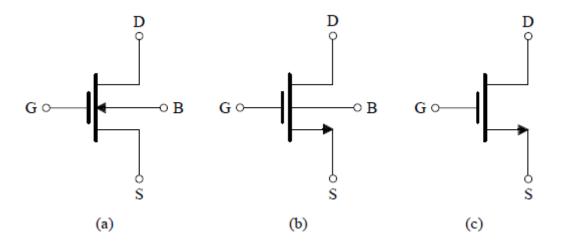
### p-Channel MOSFET

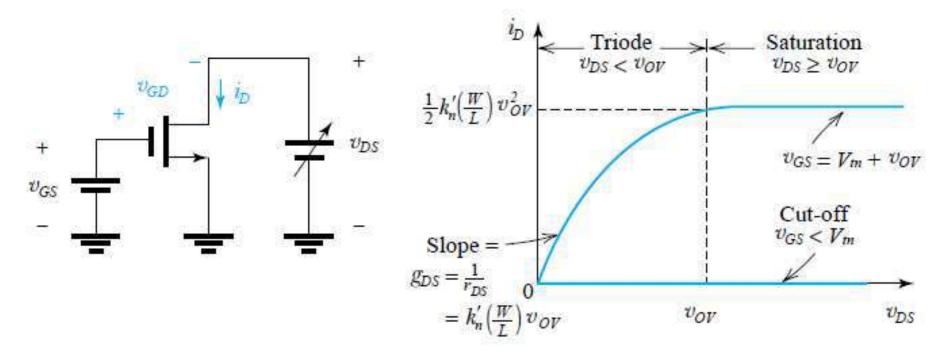


## **Complementary MOS or CMOS**

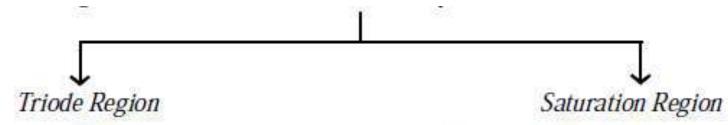


- → iD vDS Characteristics
- → iD vGS Characteristics
- ➤ Finite Output Resistance in Saturation
- ➤ Characteristics of the p- Channel MOSFET
- ❖These characteristics can be measured at dc or at low frequencies and thus are called static characteristics.





- $v_{GS} < V_{tn}$ : no channel; transistor in cut-off;  $i_D = 0$
- $v_{GS} = V_{tn} + v_{OV}$ : a channel is induced; transistor operates in the triode region or the saturation region depending on whether the channel is continuous or pinched-off at the drain end;



Continuous channel, obtained by:

$$v_{CD} > V_{tn}$$

or equivalently:

Then,

$$I_D = K_n \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) \left[ (v_{CS} - V_{tn}) v_{DS} - \frac{1}{2} v_{DS}^2 \right]$$

or equivalently,

$$I_D = k_n' \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) \left(v_{OV} - \frac{1}{2}v_{DS}\right) v_{DS}$$

Pinched-off channel, obtained by:

$$v_{CD} \leq V_{tn}$$

or equivalently:

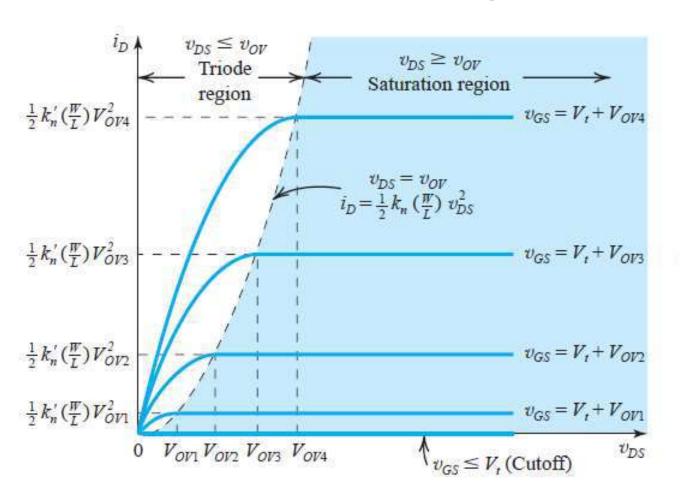
$$v_{DS} \ge v_{OV}$$

Then

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} K_n \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) (v_{GS} - V_{tn})^2$$

or equivalently,

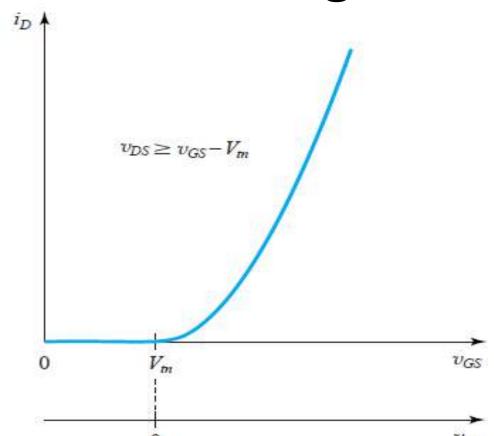
$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} k_n' \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) v_{OV}^2$$



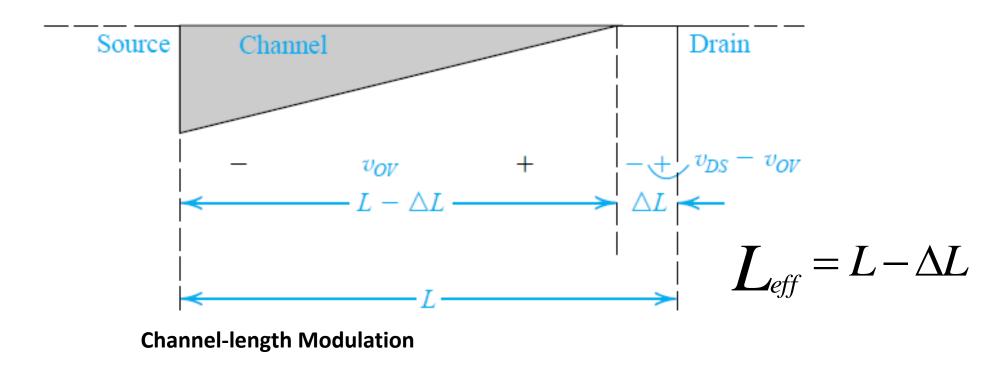
When the MOSFET is used to design an amplifier, it is operated in the saturation region.

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} K_n \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) (v_{GS} - V_{tn})^2$$

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} k_n \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) v_{OV}^2$$



The iD-vGS characteristic of an NMOS transistor operating in the saturation region. The iD-vOV characteristic can be obtained by simply relabelling the horizontal axis; that is, shifting the origin to the point vGS = Vtn.



Increasing vDS beyond vDSsat causes the channel pinch-off point to move slightly away from the drain, thus reducing the effective channel length (by  $\Delta L$ ).

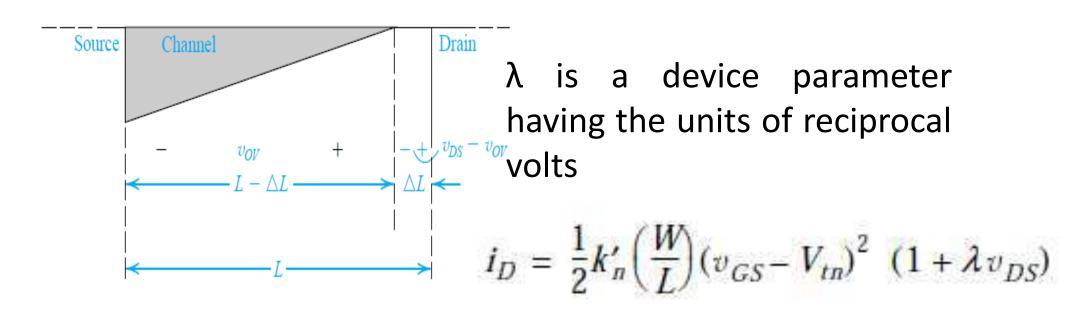
$$i_D = \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{\Delta L}{L}\right)^2} \frac{1}{2} \left[ k_n \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) (v_{GS} - v_T)^2 \right]$$

$$L_{eff} = L - \Delta L = 1 - \frac{\Delta L}{L} \approx 1 - \lambda V_{DS}$$

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} \left[ k_n \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) (v_{GS} - v_T)^2 \right] (1 + \lambda V_{DS})$$

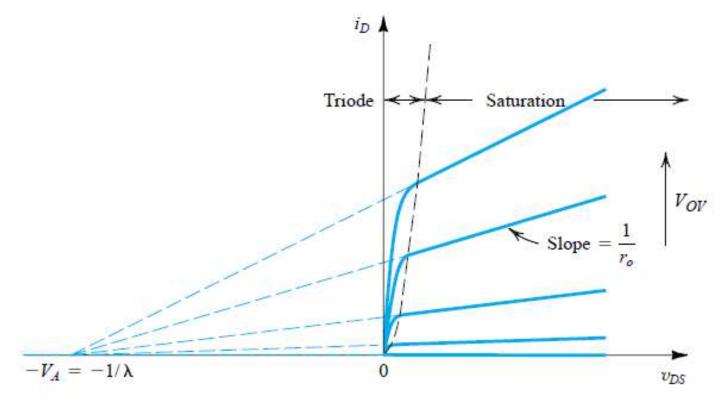
**Channel-length Modulation** 

Increasing vDS beyond vDSsat causes the channel pinch-off point to move slightly away from the drain, thus reducing the effective channel length (by  $\Delta L$ ).

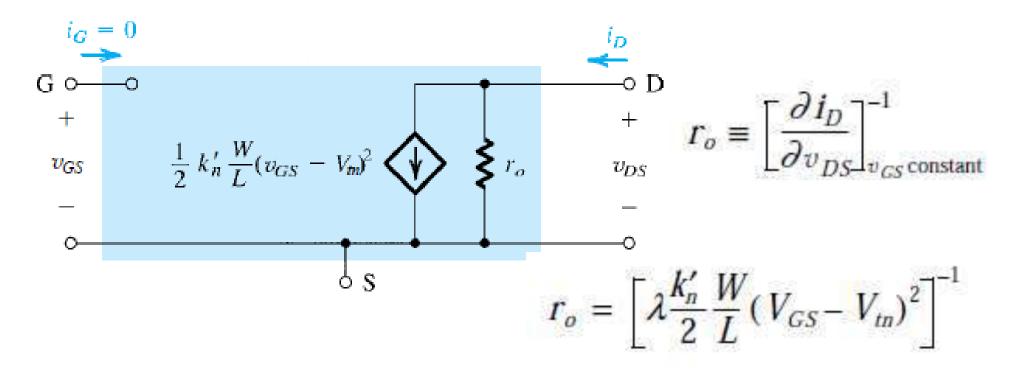


#### **Channel-length Modulation**

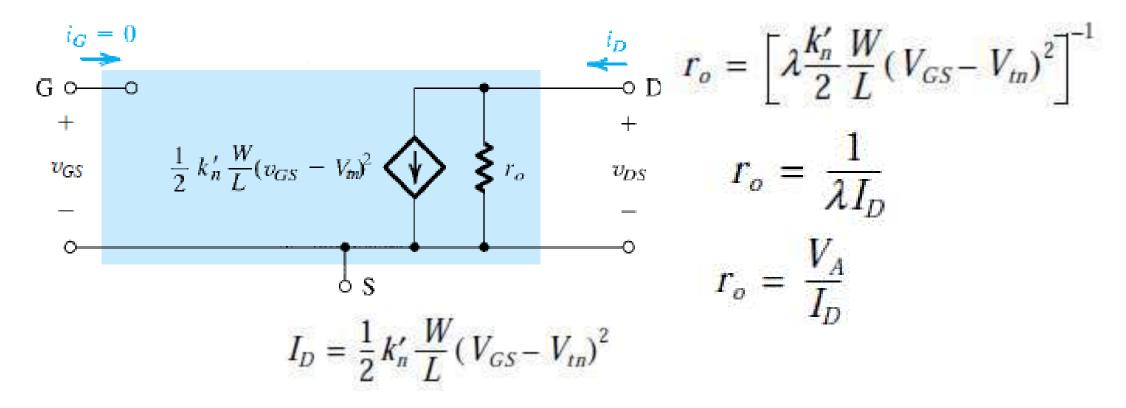
Increasing vDS beyond vDSsat causes the channel pinch-off point to move slightly away from the drain, thus reducing the effective channel length (by  $\Delta L$ ).



Effect of vDS on iD in the saturation region. The MOSFET parameter VA depends on the process technology and, for a given process, is proportional to the channel length L.

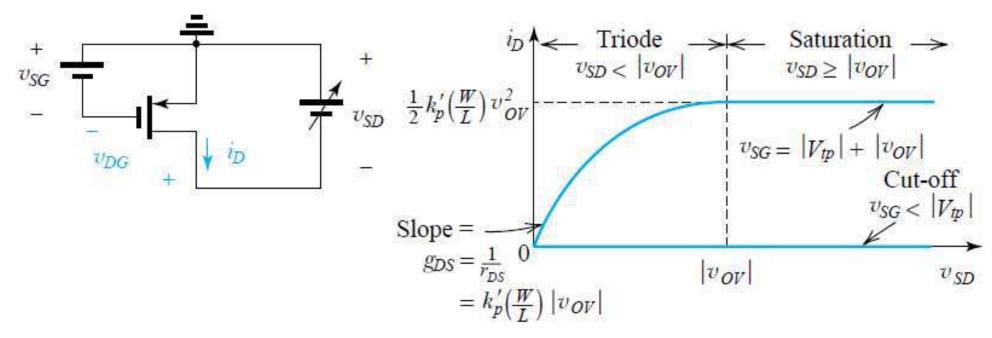


Large-signal equivalent circuit model of the *n-channel MOSFET in saturation, incorporating* the output resistance *ro.* 



Large-signal equivalent circuit model of the *n-channel MOSFET in saturation, incorporating* the output resistance *ro.* 

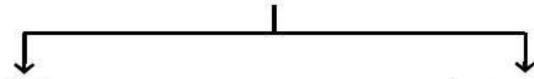
# Current-Voltage Characteristics- Characteristics of the *p-Channel MOSFET*



 $v_{SG} < |V_{tp}|$ : no channel; transistor in cut-off;  $i_D = 0$ 

 $v_{SG} = |V_{tp}| + |v_{OV}|$ : a channel is induced; transistor operates in the triode region or in the saturation region depending on whether the channel is continuous or pinched-off at the drain end;

# Current-Voltage Characteristics- Characteristics of the *p-Channel MOSFET*



Triode Region

Continuous channel, obtained by:

$$v_{DG} > |V_{tp}|$$

or equivalently:

$$v_{SD} < |v_{OV}|$$

Then,

$$i_D = k_p' \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) \left[ (v_{SG} - |V_{tp}|) v_{SD} - \frac{1}{2} v_{SD}^2 \right]$$

or equivalently

$$i_D = k_p' \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) \left(\left|v_{OV}\right| - \frac{1}{2}v_{SD}\right) v_{SD}$$

Saturation Region

Pinched-off channel, obtained by:

$$v_{DG} \leq |V_{tp}|$$

or equivalently

$$v_{SD} \ge |v_{OV}|$$

Then

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} k_p' \left( \frac{W}{L} \right) \left( v_{SG} - |V_{tp}| \right)^2$$

or equivalently

$$i_D = \frac{1}{2} k_p' \left(\frac{W}{L}\right) v_{OV}^2$$

#### **MOSFET Circuits at DC**

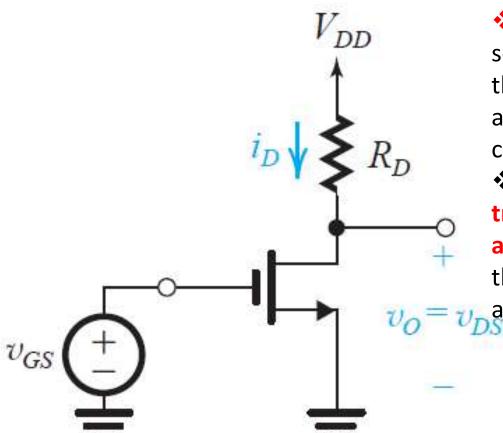
- Consider circuits in which only dc voltages and currents are of concern.
- Design and analysis examples of MOSFET circuits at dc.
- The objective is to instill in the reader a familiarity with the device and the ability to perform MOSFET circuit analysis both rapidly and effectively.
- Generally neglect channel-length modulation,λ=0

$$V_{eff} = V_{GS} - V_{tn}, V_{eff} = V_{SG} - \left| V_{tp} \right|$$

### Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design

- The basis for this important application is that when operated in **saturation**, the MOSFET functions as **voltage-controlled current source**: The **gate-to-source voltage** controls the **drain current**.
- Although the control relationship is nonlinear (square law)
- we will shortly devise a method for obtaining almost-linear amplification from this fundamentally nonlinear device.
  - Voltage Amplifier
  - Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC)
  - Biasing the BJT to Obtain Linear Amplification
  - Small-Signal Voltage Gain
  - Determining the VTC by Graphical Analysis
  - Q-POINT

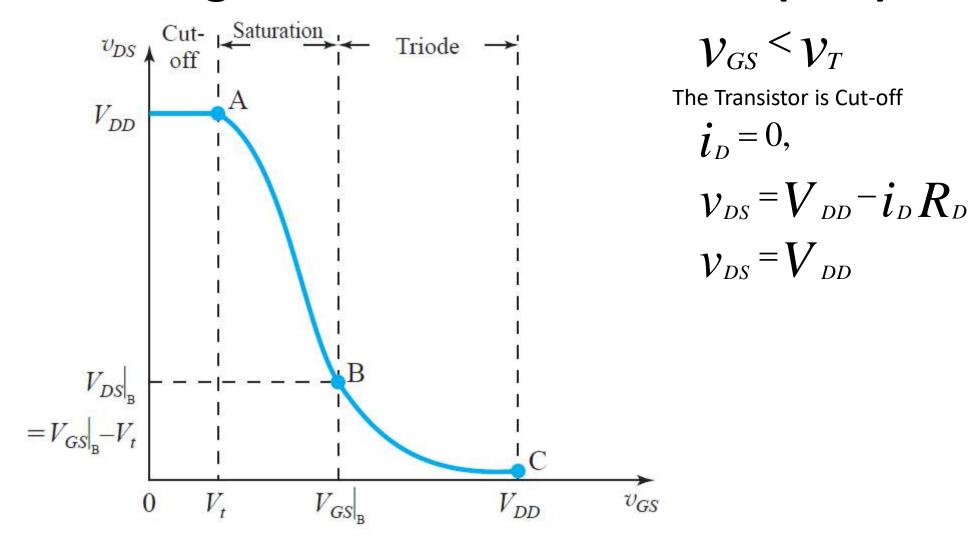
# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Obtaining a Voltage Amplifier

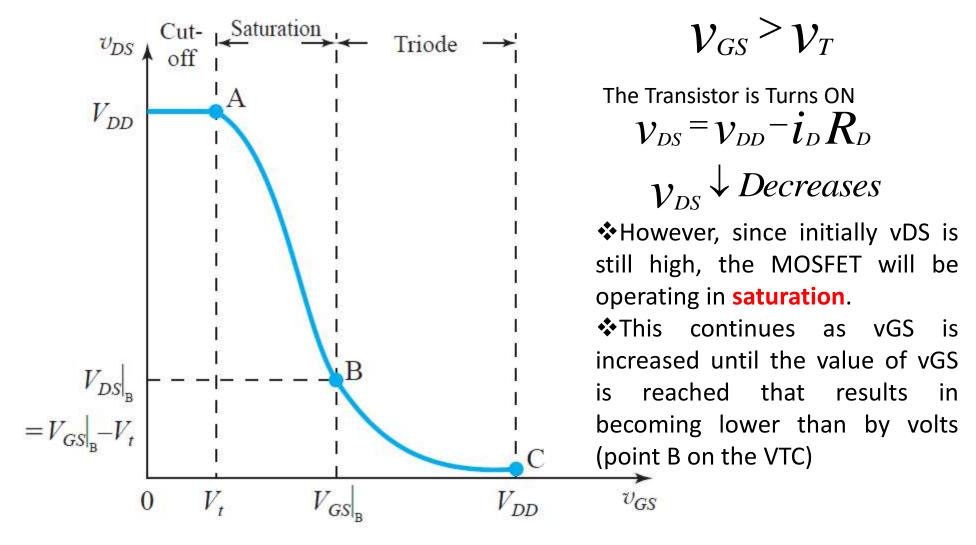


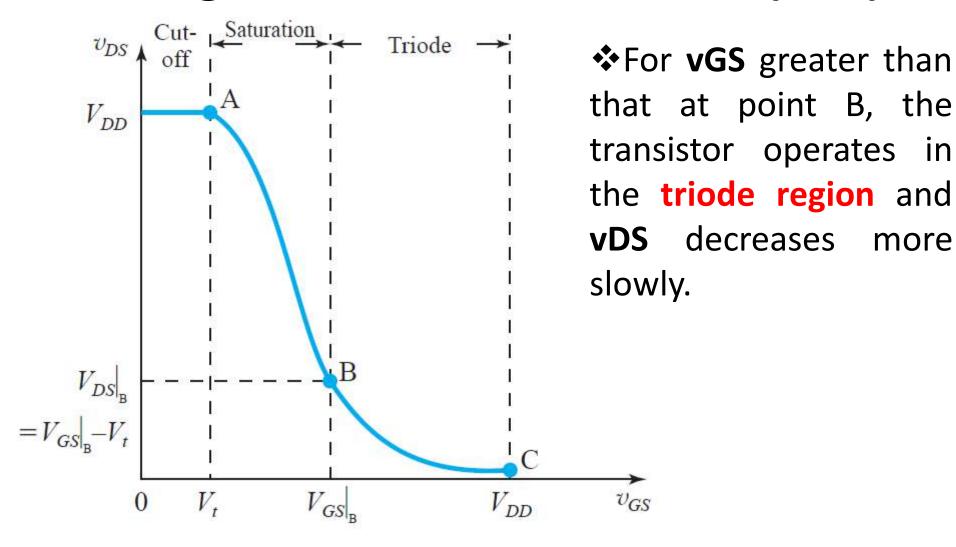
❖Voltage-controlled current source can serve as a transconductance amplifier, that is, an amplifier whose input signal is a voltage and whose output signal is a current.

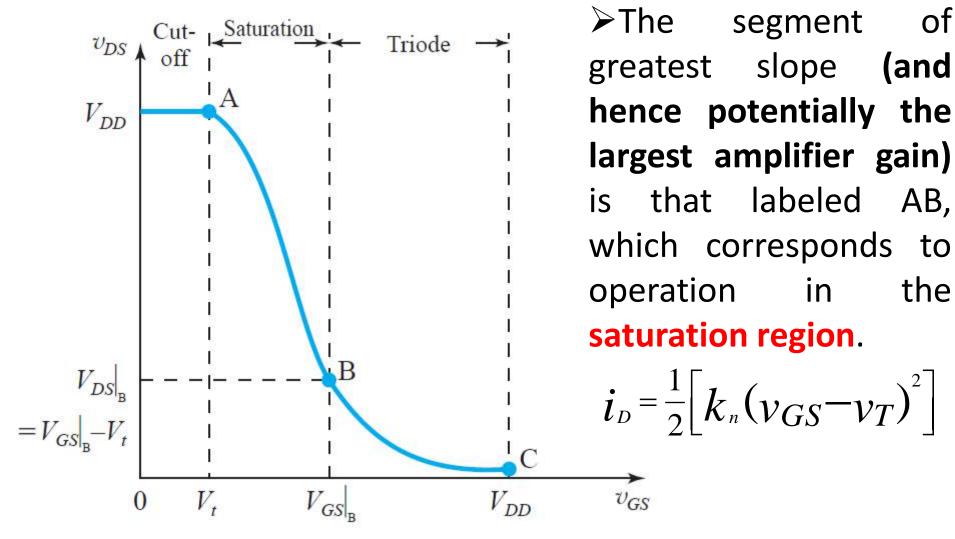
A simple way to convert a transconductance amplifier to a voltage amplifier is to pass the output current through a resistor and take the voltage across the resistor as the output.

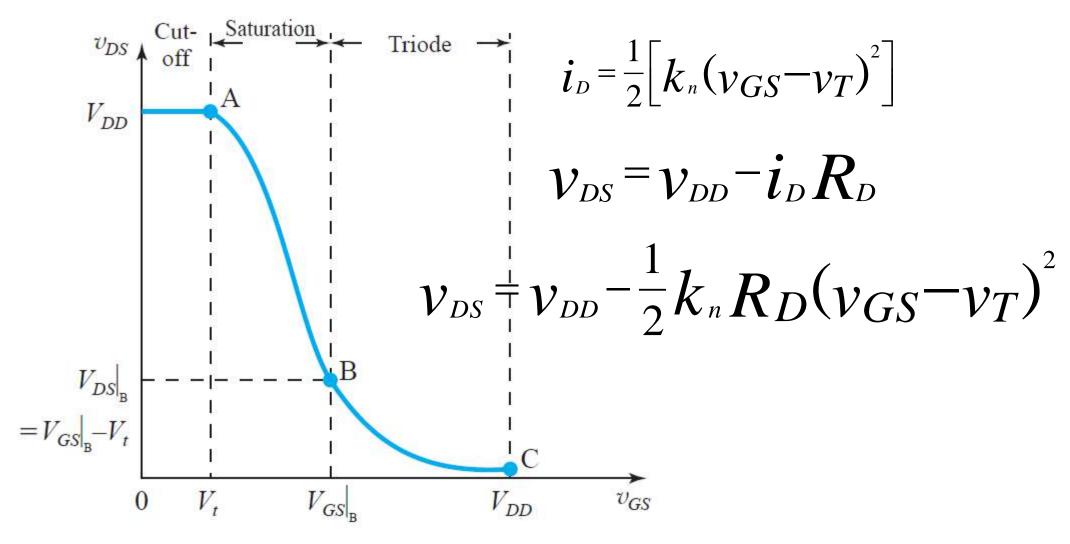
$$v_{DS} = v_{DD} - i_D R_D$$

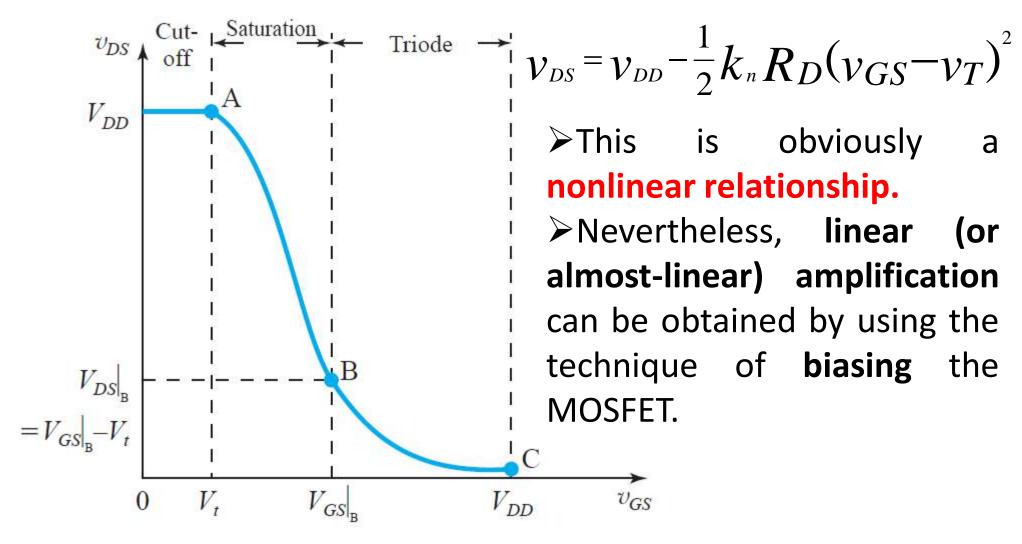


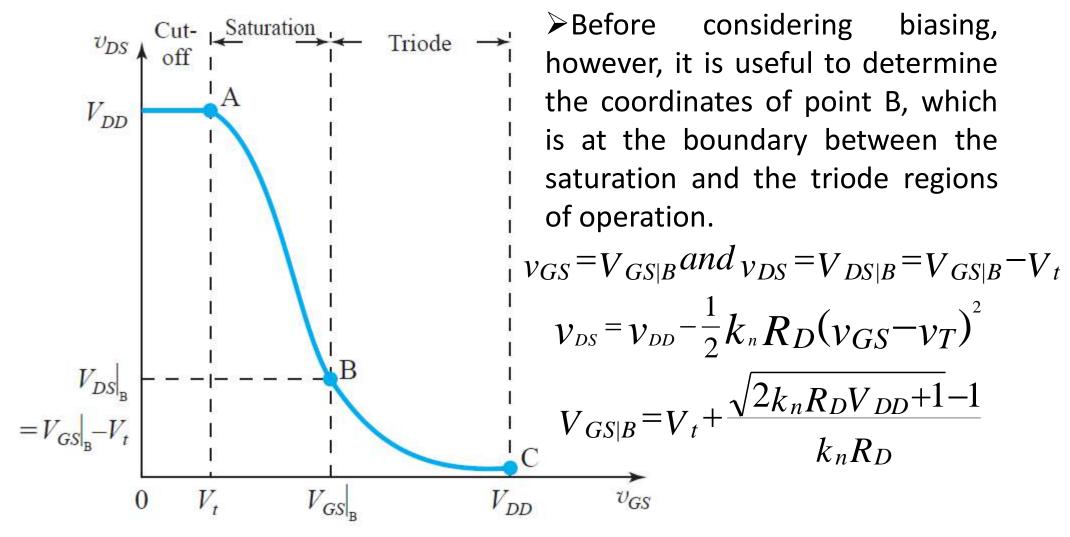




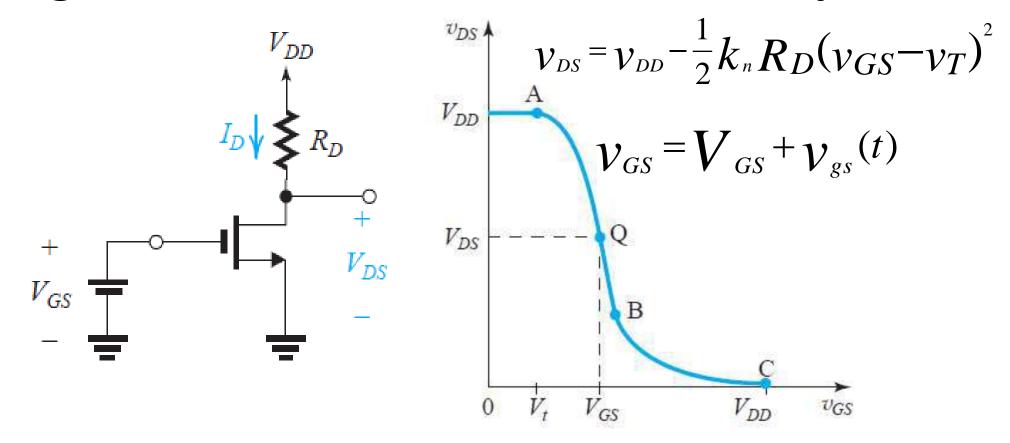




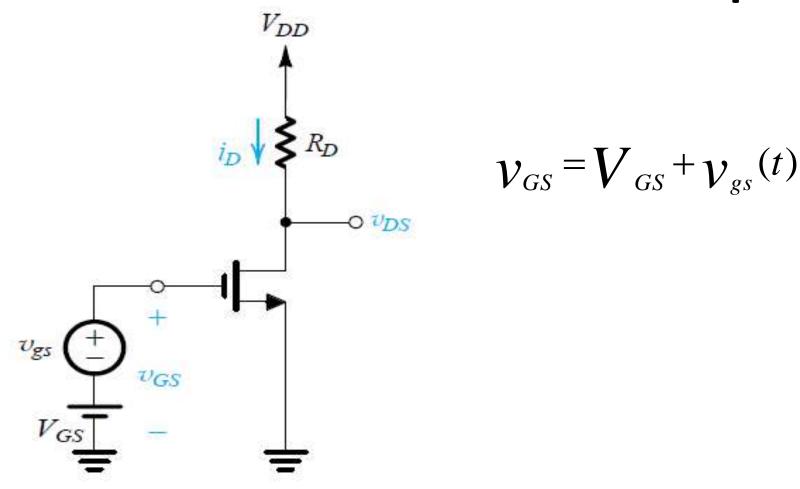




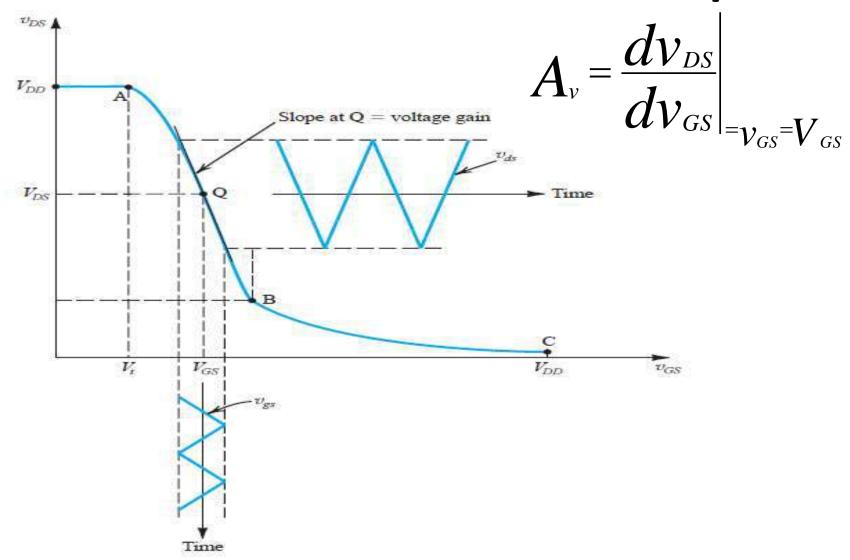
# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Biasing the MOSFET to Obtain Linear Amplification



## Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Biasing the MOSFET to Obtain Linear Amplification



# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Biasing the MOSFET to Obtain Linear Amplification



# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-**Small Signal Voltage Gain**

$$A_{v} = \frac{dv_{DS}}{dv_{GS}} \Big|_{v_{GS} = V_{GS}}$$

$$i_{D} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ k_{n} (V_{eff})^{2} + k_{n} R_{D} (v_{GS} - v_{T})^{2} + k_{n} R_{D} (v_{GS} - v_{T}) + k_{n} R_{D} ($$

$$i_{D} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ k_{n} (V_{eff})^{2} \right]$$

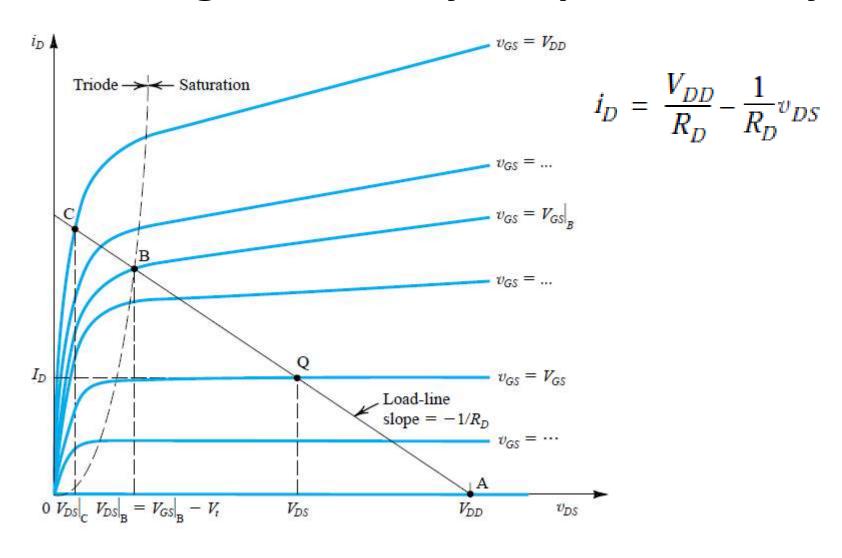
$$k_{n} = \frac{2i_{D}}{(V_{eff})^{2}}$$

$$A_{v} = -k_{n} R_{D} V_{eff}$$

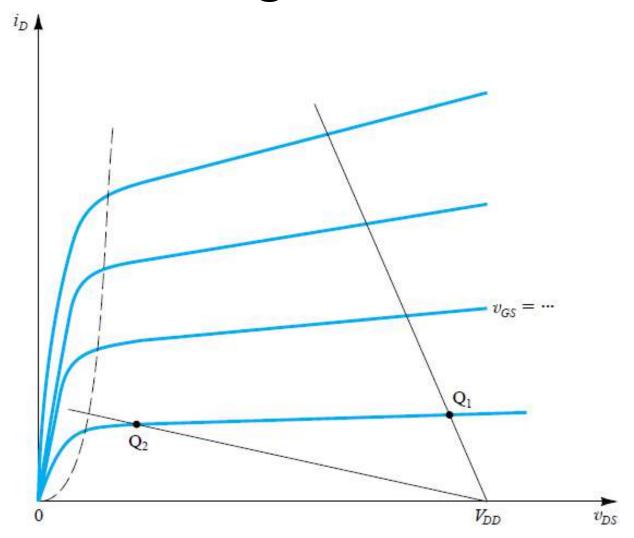
$$A_{v} = -\frac{2i_{D}}{(V_{eff})^{2}} R_{D} V_{eff}$$

$$A_{v} = -\frac{i_{D} R_{D}}{V_{eff}}$$

# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Determining the VTC by Graphical Analysis



# Applying the MOSFET in Amplifier Design-Locating the Bias Point Q



#### Unit-5

#### MOSFET Small Signal Operation Models

- The DC Bias
- Separating the DC Analysis and the Signal Analysis
- Small Signal Equivalent Circuit Models
- The Transconductance
- The T Equivalent Circuit Model

#### Basic MOSFET Amplifier Configurations

- Three Basic Configurations
- Characterizing Amplifiers
- Common Source (CS) Amplifier without and with Source Resistance
- Common Gate (CG) Amplifier
- Source Follower
- The Amplifier Frequency Response

# **❖**Biasing in MOSFET Amplifier Circuits

- Biasing by Fixing VGS with and without Source Resistance
- Biasing using Drain to Gate Feedback
   Resistor
- Biasing using Constant Current Source

# Common Source Amplifier using MOSFETs

- Small Signal Analysis and Design
- Body Effect
- **❖** Problem Solving.