#### Module 2

#### **FET and SCR**

Introduction, JFET: Construction and operation, JFET Drain Characteristics and parameters, JFET Transfer chacteristics, Square law expression for I<sub>D</sub>, Input resistance, MOSFET: Depletion and Enhancement type MOSFET-Construction, Operation, Characteristics and Symbols, CMOS Silicon Controlled Rectifier(SCR)-Two Transistor model, Switching action, Characteristics, Phase Control application

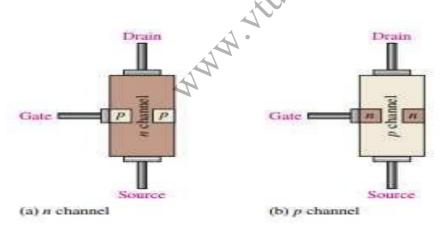
### Introduction

A field effect transistor (FET) is a voltage operated device that can be used in amplifiers and switching circuits. There are two major categories of FET's Junction FET(JFET) and Metal oxide semiconductor FET(MOSFET). These are further subdivided into p-channel and n-channel devices.

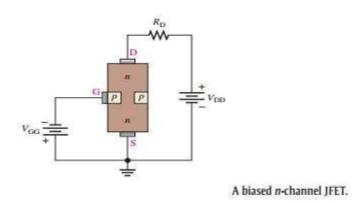
#### **JFET: Construction**

A JFET is a type of FET that operates with a reverse biased pn junction to control current in a channel. Depending on their structures, JFETs fall into either of two categories, n channel or p channel.

Fig(a) shows basic structure of an n-channel JFET. Wire leads are connected to each end of the n-channel; drain is at the upper end and the source is at the lower end. Two p-type regions are diffused in the n-type material to form a channel, both p-type regions are connected to the gate lead. A p-channel JFET is shown in fig(b).

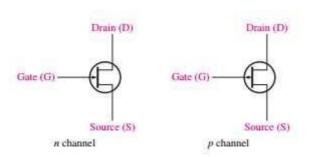


# **Operation**

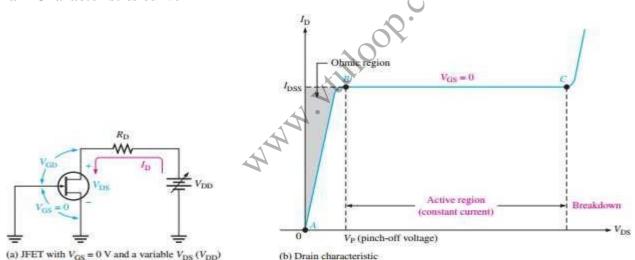


To illustrate the operation of a JFET, fig shows dc bias voltages applied to an n-channel device.  $V_{DD}$  provides a drain to source voltage and supplies current from drain to source.  $V_{GG}$  sets the reverse bias voltage between the gate and the source as shown. JFET is always operated with gate source pn junction reverse biased. Reverse biasing of the gate source junction with a negative gate voltage produces a depletion region along the pn junction, which extends into the n channel and thus increases its resistance by restricting the channel width. The channel width and channel resistance can be controlled by varying the gate voltage, thereby controlling the amount of drain current  $I_D$ .

# **JFET Symbols**



# JFET Drain Characteristics and Parameters Drain Characteristics curve



Consider the case when the gate-to-source voltage is  $zero(V_{GS}=0V)$ This is produce by shorting the gate to source, as in fig(a) where both are grounded. As  $V_{DD}$  is increased from 0V, $I_D$  will increase proportionally as shown in the graph of fig(b) between points A and B. In this area, the channel resistance is essentially constant because the depletion region is not large enough to have significant effect. This is called ohmic region because  $V_{DS}$  and  $I_D$  are related by ohm's law.

At point B in fig(b),the curve levels off and enters the active region where  $I_D$  becomes essentially constant. As  $V_{DS}$  increases from point B to Point C, the reverse bias voltage from gate to drain ( $V_{GD}$ ) produces a depletion region large enough to offset the increase in  $V_{DS}$ . Thus keeping  $I_D$  relatively constant.

#### Pinch-off-voltage

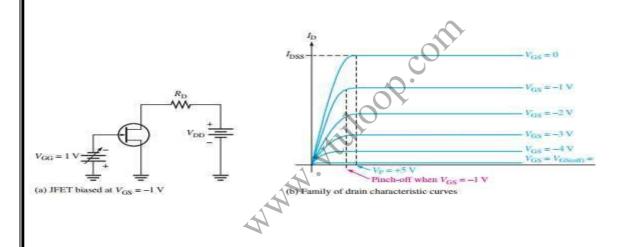
For  $V_{\rm GS}$  =0 V, the value of  $V_{\rm DS}$  at which  $I_{\rm D}$  becomes essentially constant (point B on the curve in Figure (b)) is the **pinch-off voltage**,  $V_{\rm P}$ . For a given JFET,  $V_{\rm P}$  has a fixed value. As you can see, a continued increase in  $V_{\rm DS}$  above the pinch off voltage produces an almost constant drain current. This value of drain current is  $I_{\rm DSS}$  ( $D_{\rm Tain}$  to Source current with gate  $S_{\rm Tain}$ ) and is always specified on JFET datasheets.  $I_{\rm DSS}$  is the *maximum* drain current that a specific JFET can produce regardless of the external circuit, and it is always specified for the condition,  $V_{\rm GS}$ = 0 V.

#### **Breakdown**

As shown in the graph in Figure (b), **breakdown** occurs at point C when  $I_D$  begins to increase very rapidly with any further increase in  $V_{DS}$ . Breakdown can result in irreversible damage to the device, so JFETs are always operated below breakdown and within the active region (constant current) (between points B and C on the graph).

#### V<sub>GS</sub> Controls I<sub>D</sub>

JFET action that produces the characteristic curve for  $V_{GS} = 0 \text{ V}$ .



Let's connect a bias voltage,  $V_{GG}$ , from gate to source as shown in Figure(a). As  $V_G$  is set to increasingly more negative values by adjusting  $V_{GG}$ , a family of drain characteristic curves is produced, as shown in Figure (b). Notice that  $I_D$  decreases as the magnitude of  $V_{GS}$  is increased to larger negative values because of the narrowing of the channel. Also notice that, for each increase in  $V_{GS}$ , the JFET reaches pinch-off (where constant current begins) at values of  $V_{DS}$  less than  $V_P$ . The term *pinch-off* is not the same as pinchoff voltage,  $V_P$ . Therefore, the amount of drain current is controlled by  $V_{GS}$ 

#### **Cut off Voltage**

The value of  $V_{GS}$  that makes  $I_D$  approximately zero is the **cut off voltage**,  $V_{GS}(off)$ ,. The JFET must be operated between  $V_{GS}$ = 0 V and  $V_{GS}(off)$ . For this range of gate-to-source voltages,  $I_D$  will vary from a maximum of  $I_{DSS}$  to a minimum of almost zero.

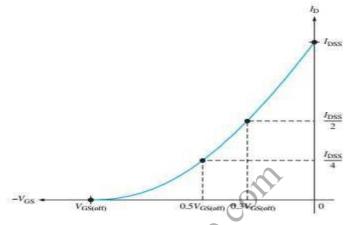
### Comparison of Pinch-Off Voltage and Cut off Voltage

As we seen, there is a difference between pinch-off and cut off voltages. There is also a connection. The pinch-off voltage  $V_P$  is the value of  $V_{DS}$  at which the drain current becomes constant and equal to  $I_{DSS}$  and is always measured at  $V_{GS} = 0$  V. However, pinch-off occurs for  $V_{DS}$  values less than  $V_P$  when  $V_{GS}$  is nonzero. So, although  $V_P$  is a constant, the minimum value of  $V_{DS}$  at which  $I_D$  becomes

constant varies with  $V_{GS}$ .  $V_{GS}(off)$  and  $V_P$  are always equal in magnitude but opposite in sign. A datasheet usually will give either  $V_{GS}(off)$  or  $V_P$ , but not both. However, when you know one, you have the other. For example, if  $V_{GS}(off) = -5$  V, then  $V_P = +5$  V, as shown in Figure (b).

# **JFET Transfer Characteristic**

A range of  $V_{GS}$  values from zero to  $V_{GS}(off)$  controls the amount of drain current. For an n-channel JFET,  $V_{GS}(off)$  is negative, and for a p-channel JFET,  $V_{GS}(off)$  is positive. Because VGS does control  $I_D$ , the relationship between these two quantities is very important. Figure is a general transfer characteristic curve that illustrates graphically the relationship between  $V_{GS}$  and  $I_D$ . This curve is also known as a transconductance curve.



Notice that the bottom end of the curve is at a point on the  $V_{GS}$  axis equal to  $V_{GS}$  (off), and the top end of the curve is at a point on the  $I_D$  axis equal to  $I_{DSS}$ . This curve shows that

$$I_{\rm D} = 0$$
 when  $V_{\rm GS} = V_{\rm GS(off)}$ 

$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{I_{\rm DSS}}{4}$$
 when  $V_{\rm GS} = 0.5V_{\rm GS(off)}$ 

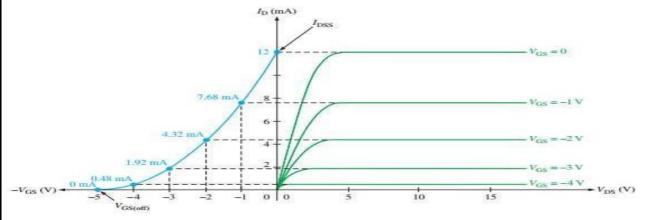
$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{I_{\rm DSS}}{2}$$
 when  $V_{\rm GS} = 0.3V_{\rm GS(off)}$ 

and

$$I_{\rm D} = I_{\rm DSS}$$
 when  $V_{\rm GS} = 0$ 

The transfer characteristic curve can also be developed from the drain characteristic curves by plotting values of  $I_D$  for the values of  $V_{GS}$  taken from the family of drain curves at pinch-off, as illustrated in Figure for a specific set of curves. Each point on the transfer characteristic curve corresponds to specific values of  $V_{GS}$  and  $I_D$  on the drain curves.

For example, when  $V_{GS} = -2V$ ,  $I_D = 4.32$  mA. Also, for this specific JFET,  $V_{GS}(off) = -5$  V and  $I_{DSS} = 12$  mA.



# Square Law Expression for ID

A JFET transfer characteristic curve is expressed approximately as

$$I_{\rm D} \cong I_{\rm DSS} \left(1 - \frac{V_{\rm GS}}{V_{\rm GS(eff)}}\right)^2 \qquad \dots (1)$$

With Equation (1),  $I_D$  can be determined for any  $V_{GS}$  if  $V_{GS}$ (off) and  $I_{DSS}$  are known. These quantities are usually available from the datasheet for a given JFET. Notice the squared term in the equation. Because of its form, a parabolic relationship is known as a **square law**, and therefore, JFETs and MOSFETs are often referred to as **square-law devices**.

# **Input Resistance**

A JFET operates with its gate-source junction reverse-biased, which makes the input resistance at the gate very high. This high input resistance is one advantage of the JFET over the BJT. (Recall that a bipolar junction transistor operates with a forward-biased base-emitter junction.) JFET datasheets often specify the input resistance by giving a value for the gate reverse current,  $I_{GSS}$ , at a certain gate-to-source voltage. The input resistance can then be determined using the following equation, where the vertical lines indicate an absolute value (no sign):

$$R_{\rm IN} = \frac{V_{\rm GS}}{I_{\rm GSS}}$$

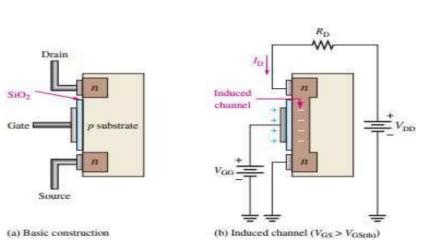
For example, the 2N5457 datasheet, maximum  $I_{GSS}$  of -1.0nA for  $V_{GS}$ =-15V at 25°C, at  $I_{GSS}$  increases with temperature, so the input resistance decreases.

#### MOSFET

The MOSFET (metal oxide semiconductor field-effect transistor) is another category of field-effect transistor. The MOSFET, different from the JFET, has no *pn* junction structure; instead, the gate of the MOSFET is insulated from the channel by a silicon dioxide (SiO<sub>2</sub>) layer. The two basic types of MOSFETs are enhancement (E) and depletion (D). Of the two types, the enhancement MOSFET is more widely used. Because polycrystalline silicon is now used for the gate material instead of metal, these devices are sometimes called IGFETs (insulated-gate FETs).

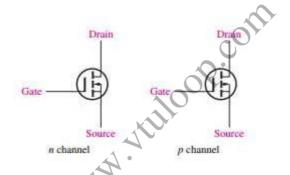
# **Enhancement MOSFET (E-MOSFET): Construction and Operation**

The E-MOSFET operates *only* in the enhancement mode and has no depletion mode. It differs in construction from the D-MOSFET, in that it has no structural channel. Notice in Figure (a) that the substrate extends completely to the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer. For an *n*-channel device, a positive gate voltage above a threshold value *induces* a channel by creating a thin layer of negative charges in the substrate region adjacent to the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer, as shown in Figure (b). The conductivity of the channel is enhanced by increasing the gate-to-source voltage and thus pulling more electrons into the channel area. For any gate voltage below the threshold value, there is no channel.



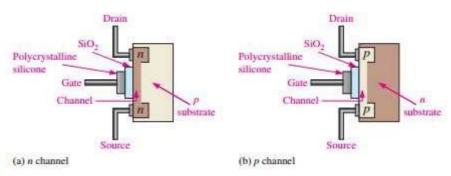
# **E-MOSFET Symbols**

The schematic symbols for the n-channel and p-channel E-MOSFETs are shown in figure . The broken lines symbolize the absence of a physical channel. An inward pointing substrate arrow is for n channel, and an outward-pointing arrow is for p channel. Some E-MOSFET devices have a separate substrate connection.



# **Depletion MOSFET (D-MOSFET): Construction and operation**

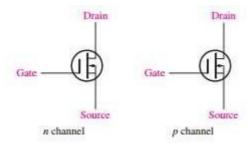
Another type of MOSFET is the depletion MOSFET (D-MOSFET), and figure illustrates its basic structure. The drain and source are diffused into the substrate material and then connected by a narrow channel adjacent to the insulated gate. Both n-channel and p-channel devices are shown in the figure. We will use the n-channel device to describe the basic operation. The p-channel operation is the same, except the voltage polarities are opposite those of the n-channel.



The D-MOSFET can be operated in either of two modes—the depletion mode or the enhancement mode—and is sometimes called a *depletion/enhancement MOSFET*. Since the gate is insulated from the channel, either a positive or a negative gate voltage can be applied. The *n*-channel MOSFET operates in the **depletion** mode when a negative gate-to-source voltage is applied and in the **enhancement** mode when a positive gate-to-source voltage is applied. These devices are generally operated in the depletion mode.

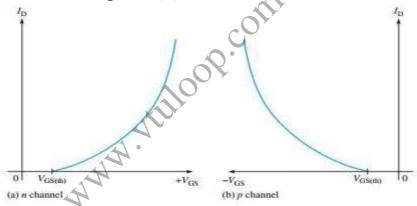
#### **D-MOSFET Symbols**

The schematic symbols for both the *n*-channel and the *p*-channel depletion MOSFETs are shown in figure. The substrate, indicated by the arrow, is normally (but not always) connected internally to the source. Sometimes, there is a separate substrate pin.



#### **E-MOSFET Transfer Characteristic**

The E-MOSFET uses only channel enhancement. Therefore, an n-channel device requires a positive gate-to-source voltage, and a p-channel device requires a negative gate-to-source voltage. Figure shows the general transfer characteristic curves for both types of E-MOSFETs. As we see, there is no drain current when  $V_{GS}$ = 0. Therefore, the E-MOSFET does not have a significant  $I_{DSS}$  parameter, as do the JFET and the D-MOSFET. Notice also that there is ideally no drain current until  $V_{GS}$  reaches a certain nonzero value called the *threshold voltage*,  $V_{GS}$ (th).



The equation for the parabolic transfer characteristic curve of the E-MOSFET differs from that of the JFET and the D-MOSFET because the curve starts at  $V_{GS}(th)$  rather than  $V_{GS(off\ )}$  on the horizontal axis and never intersects the vertical axis. The equation for the E-MOSFET transfer characteristic curve is

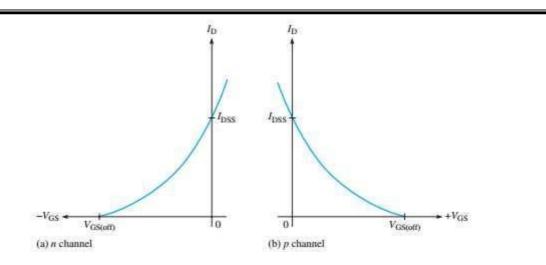
$$I_{\rm D} = K(V_{\rm GS} - V_{\rm GS(th)})^2$$

The constant K depends on the particular MOSFET and can be determined from the datasheet by taking the specified value of  $I_D$ , called  $I_{D(on)}$ , at the given value of  $V_{GS}$ 

#### **D-MOSFET Transfer Characteristic**

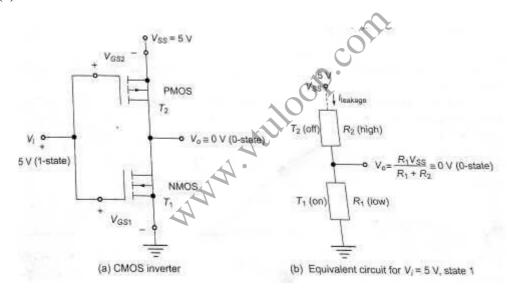
The D-MOSFET can operate with either positive or negative gate voltages. This is indicated on the general transfer characteristic curves in Figure 8–45 for both n-channel and p-channel MOSFETs. The point on the curves where  $V_{GS}$  =0 corresponds to  $I_{DSS}$ . The point where  $I_D$ = 0 corresponds to  $V_{GS(off)}$  = - $V_{P}$ .

As with the JFET, The square-law expression in Equation (1) for the JFET curve also applies to the D-MOSFET curve,



### **CMOS**

CMOS is the complementary metal oxide semiconductor, where in two enhancement MOSFET's, one N-type(NMOS) and other P-type(PMOS), are connected as a complementary pair. The two gates are connected to form the input terminal and the two drains are connected to form the output terminals as shown in fig(a).



The CMOS circuit offers two advantages:

- 1. The drain current is very low and flows mainly during transition from one state to the other (ON/OFF).
- 2. The power drawn in steady state is extremely small.

# **Digital Circuit Applications**

The circuit for a CMOS digital inverter is as in fig(a). The source terminal of PMOS  $(T_2)$  is connected to  $V_{ss}$ =5V, while the source terminal of NMOS $(T_1)$  is grounded.

#### **Operation**

# 1. Input

$$V_{GS} = 5 - 5 = 0V$$

 $T_2$  is nonconducting, OFF (its  $V_T$  is negative), draws only leakage current, offers high resistance ( $R_2$ )

$$V_{GS1}=5V>V_T$$

 $T_1$  is conducting, ON offers very low resistance( $R_1$ ). The circuit equivalent in this state is drawn in fig(b)

Output  $V_0=0$  0-state

It can be seen from the circuits of fig(b) that

$$V_0 = (R_1/R_1 + R_2)V_{SS} = 0V$$

#### 2.Input

V<sub>i</sub>=0V 0-state

 $V_{GS2}$ = -5V,  $T_2$  is conducting(low resistance)

 $V_{GS1} = -5V$ ,  $T_1$  is non conducting (high resistance)

Output

$$V_0=5V$$
 1-state

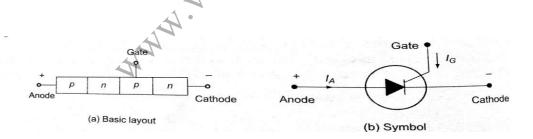
Thus we can see that the circuit acts as an inverter;1-state input produces 0-state output and 0-state input produces 1-state output.

# **Silicon Controlled Oscillator(SCR)**

It is a four layer device which along with its associated circuitry has a very wide range of applications-Rectifiers, Regulated power supplies,DC to AC conversion, Relay Control,Time Delay circuits and many more.

## **Basic Operations and Symbols**

The material used for SCR is silicon because of high temperature requirement of handling large current and power. Its four layers are arranged as pnpn shown in fig. The outer layers are connected to terminals to form **Anode** (positive terminal) and **Cathode** (negative terminal). The P-layer closer to the cathode is connected to the gate terminal. The SCR symbol is drawn in fig.It is similar to that of diode, the difference being the indication of the gate terminal.

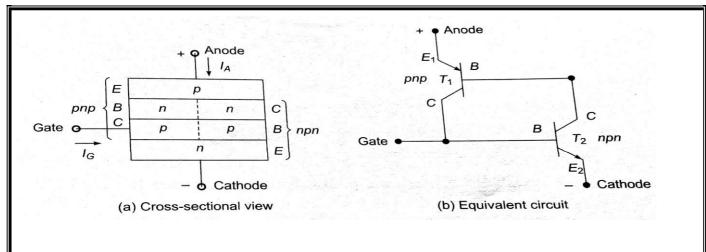


As a forward voltage is applied across the anode(+) and cathode(-),no conduction takes place as the middle np junction is reverse biased. If a positive pulse is applied at the gate, such that a current of magnitude equal to more than  $I_G$ , (turn-on)flows into the gate, the processes in the device cause it to go into conduction. The forward current (anode to cathode) is offered a resistance as 0.01 to 0.1 $\Omega$ . However, because of regenerative action, removing the gate current does not cause the device to turn off. The dynamic reverse resistance of an SCR is as high as  $100K\Omega$  or more.

#### **Two Transistor Model**

The cross sectional view of an SCR with its four layers is drawn in fig. The device comprises one PNP and one NPN transistor. The base of PNP is connected to the collector of NPN, and the collector of PNP is connected to the base of NPN, while gate is connected to the base of NPN.

The corresponding two transistor model equivalent circuit is drawn in fig.



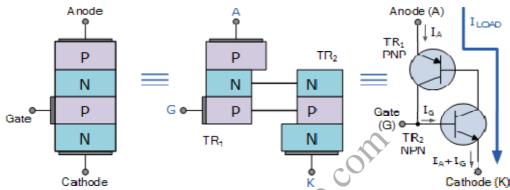


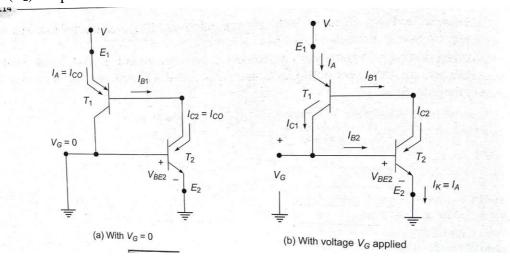
Fig: Two transistor model

# **Switching Action**

Let a positive V is applied to the anode  $(E_1)$ ,and the cathode  $(E_2)$  and gate(G) be both grounded as shown in fig(a). As  $V_G = V_{BE2} = 0$ , the transistor  $T_2$  is in 'off' state. It means that CB junction of  $T_2$ , through EB-junction of  $T_1$  is reverse biased. Therefore,  $I_{B1} = I_{CO}$  (minority carrier current) is too small to 'turn – on' $T_1$ . Thus  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are 'off' and so anode current.

$$I_A = I_{B1} = I_{CO}$$

is off negligible order. It means that SCR is in 'turn-off' state, that is the switch between anode  $(E_1)$  and cathode  $(E_2)$  is open.



Now ,let a voltage  $+V_G$  be applied at the gate as shown in fig(b). As  $V_{BE2}=V_G$ , on making  $V_G$  sufficiently large , $I_{B2}$  will cause  $T_2$  to turn on and the collector and the collector  $I_{C2}$  becomes large. As

 $I_{B1}=I_{C2}$ ,  $T_2$  turns on causing a large collector current  $I_{C1}(I_A=I_{C1})$  to flow. This in turn, increases  $I_{B2}$  causing a regenerative action to set in. The result is that the SCR is turned on, that is switch between anode( $E_1$ ) and cathode( $E_2$ ) is closed (turn-on). The current  $I_A$  must be limited by the external circuit, say a series resistance between the source and  $E_1$ .

The turn-on time of an SCR is typically 0.1 to  $1\mu$ s. However, for high power devices in the range of 100-400A, turn-on time may be  $10-25\mu$ s.

#### **TURN-OFF**

When the SCR is in conduction mode, the gate is ineffective in turning it off. The turn off mechanism is called **commutation** and it can be achieved in two ways

**Natural commutation**: When the source that feeds the current to anode of SCR is such that naturally passes through zero, the SCR turns off at the current zero. This is the case when the SCR is fed from the ac source. In this situation, the commutation is also known as line commutation.

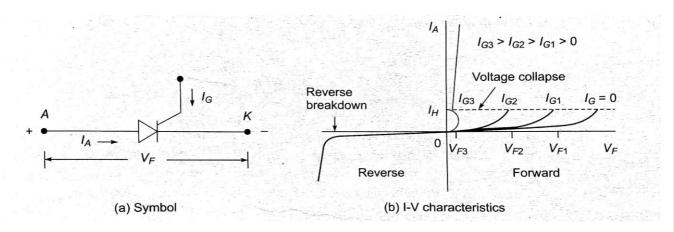
**Forced commutation:** In this method of commutation, the current through the SCR is forced to become zero by passing a current through it in opposite direction from an independent circuit.

#### **Turn-off Circuit**

Basic Turn-off circuit is shown in fig. A transistor and a dc battery source in series are connected to the SCR. When the SCR is in conduction mode(on),  $I_B=0$  and when the transistor is off, it is almost an open circuit. To turn off the SCR, a positive  $I_B$  pulse of magnitude large enough to drive the transistor into saturation is applied at the transistor base. The transistor acts almost like a short circuit. This causes flow of very large  $I_{off}$  through the SCR in the opposite direction to its conduction current. The total SCR current reduces to zero in a very short time causing it to turn off. The transistor has to withstand a large current but for a very short time. Turn-off time of an SCR is typically 5-30 $\mu$ s.

# **SCR Characteristics**

The symbol and I-V characteristics of an SCR are given in fig. Various voltages and currents which provide important information for SCR application.



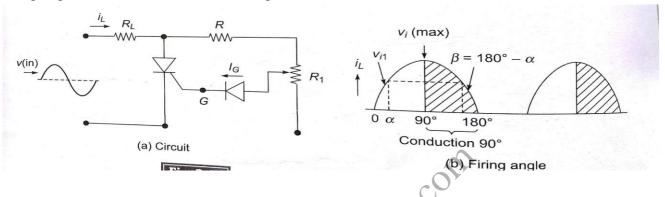
- 1. Forward breakover voltage  $V_F$  (BR) is the voltage at which for a given  $I_G$ , the SCR enters into conduction mode. As in fig, that this voltage reduces as  $I_G$ , increases.  $V_F$  (BR) has dependence on the circuit connection between G and K terminals.
- 2. **Holding current I\_H** is the value of the current below which SCR switches from conduction state to forward blocking regions of specified conditions.

- 3. **Forward and reverse blocking** regions are those regions in which the SCR is open circuited and no current flows from anode to cathode.
- 4. Reverse breakdown voltage corresponds to zener or avalanche region of a diode.

# **Applications of SCR**

### **Variable Resistance Phase Control**

A variable phase control circuit is as in fig. The SCR gate current is controlled through R and the variable  $R_1$ .Let  $R_G$  be adjusted to high value so that even at the peak value  $v_i(positive)$ ,  $I_G < I_{G(turn-on)}$  and no conduction takes place. As  $R_1$  is reduced,  $I_G$  rises to turn on the value at a particular angle(time)of  $v_i$ . The conduction then begins and continues till  $v_i$  reaches zero (180°). Varying  $R_1$  allows the adjust of SCR firing angle from  $0^0$  to  $90^0$  as shown in fig.



At R<sub>1</sub>, corresponding to the firing angle of 90°,  $v_{i=}$   $v_{i(max)}$ . If R<sub>1</sub> is adjusted for firing angle at  $\alpha$ , the firing will takes place at angle  $\alpha$ <90° but not at angle  $\beta$ =(180°- $\alpha$ )>90° as the angle  $\alpha$  is reached in time on the  $v_i$  wave. So the operation of this circuit is known as **half-wave**, **variable** –**resistance phase control**.

Thus,  $i_L(dc)$  can be adjusted to the maximum value at  $0^0$  to the minimum value of  $90^0$ .It may be noted that a diode is provided in the firing circuit to prevent the flow of reverse gate current.