Course: Basic Electronics (EC21101)

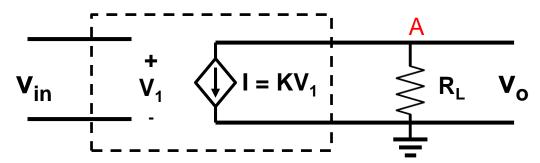
Course Instructor: Prof. Kapil Debnath

#### **Lecture 7: MOSFET**

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# Dependent source as amplifier

Let us consider a Voltage-controlled current source (VCCS). The voltage that controls the current source is connected to the input signal and the dependent current source is feeding the load resistance. The output voltage is measured across the load resistance.

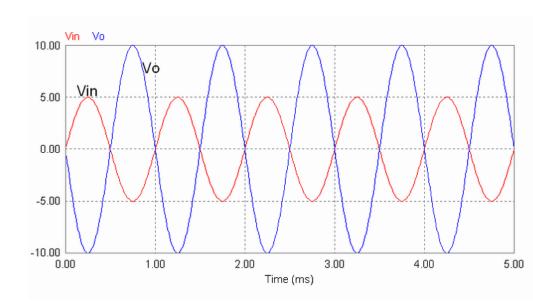


If we apply KCL at point A we get:

$$\frac{V_o}{R_L} + KV_1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = -R_L K V_{in}$$

If we have  $R_L$  and K such that  $R_L K > 1$ , we have an amplification of the input signal. Therefore we can argue that we can achieve amplification with a dependent source.



#### Dependent source realization

In order to realize a dependent source i.e. an amplifier we need a new device, known as transistor. There are two types of transistors available:

- 1. Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)
- 2. Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor (MOSFET)

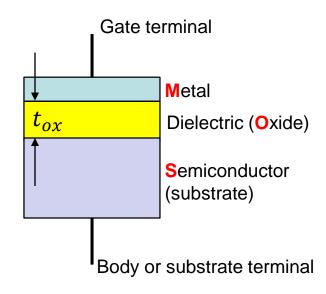
We have already covered BJT in the previous lectures, now we will briefly discuss the structure and behaviour of MOSFETs.

MOSFTEs have several advantages over BJTs, some of them are:

- 1. High input impedance
- 2. Smaller size
- 3. Low power consumption
- 4. Efficient switching
- 5. More stable to thermal changes

#### **Basic MOS structure**

The basic MOS (metal-oxide-semiconductor) structure consists of an insulating layer (oxide) sandwiched between a metal layer and a semiconductor layer. The structure is very similar to a parallel metal plate capacitor, hence the basic MOS structure is also called a MOS capacitor. Here one point to remember is that unless the semiconductor is heavily doped, the conductivity is much lower than that of metal.



Once some voltage is applied across the gate terminal and the body (substrate) terminal, we expect charges to accumulate on both sides of the dielectric region. The accumulated charge is given by:

$$Q = CV$$

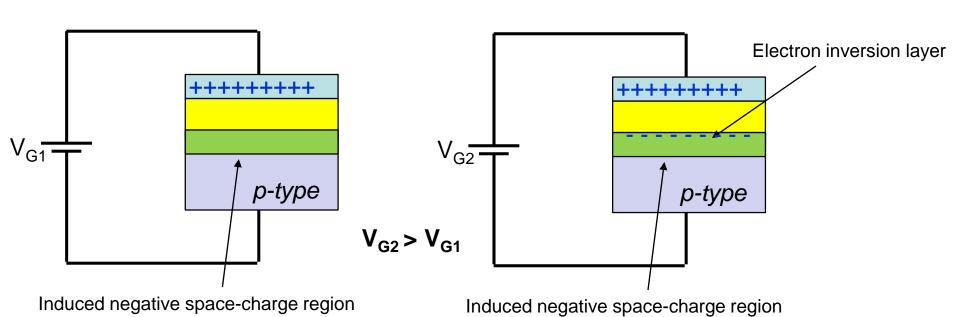
Where the capacitance is expressed as:

$$C = \varepsilon_{ox} \frac{A}{t_{ox}}$$

 $\varepsilon_{ox}$  is the dielectric permittivity, A is the cross-sectional area and  $t_{ox}$  is the thickness of the oxide layer

# MOS capacitor with p-type substrate

Let us first consider a MOS capacitor with p-type substrate. As you know, p-type semiconductor has more holes than electrons. When a positive bias is applied to the gate terminal with respect to the substrate, holes near the dielectric-semiconductor interface moves away from the interface leaving behind negative ions. Thus a negative space charge region is created. When a larger positive voltage is applied, minority carrier electrons in the p-type semiconductor are attracted to the oxide-semiconductor interface. As the applied field further increases the electron density near the interface also increases. After certain applied voltage the electron concertation becomes more than the hole concentration of the p-type substrate. This phenomenon is called inversion. i.e. near the dielectric-semiconductor interface the p-type semiconductor turns into an n-type semiconductor. This region where the electron concentration becomes more than the hole concentration is called an electron inversion layer or channel. We can have the same effect in an n-type semiconductor MOS by applying a negative bias to the gate terminal.



## MOS capacitor with p-type substrate

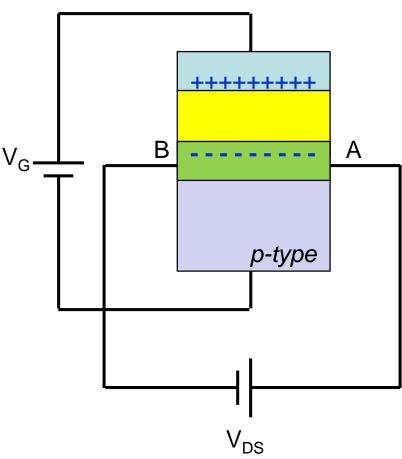
What if now we apply a voltage across the substrate as shown?

It should be obvious that due to the applied voltage  $V_{DS}$  the electrons will move along B to A direction and we will have a current flow from A to B.

Now if we increase  $V_G$  what will happen?

Since due to increase in  $V_{\rm G}$  electron density in the channel region will increase and hence the resistance of the region decrease. As a result the current flow will increase. Thus this structure can be considered as a voltage dependent current source where the current from A to B depends on voltage  $V_{\rm G}$ .

This is the basic operating principle of a MOSFET.

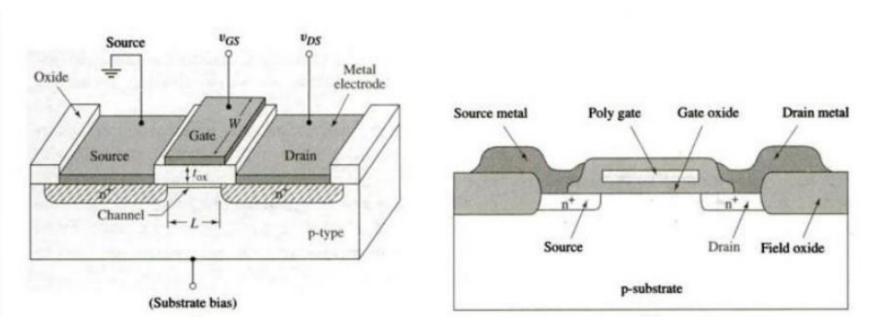


#### n-channel Enhancement-mode MOSFET

The mechanism described in the previous slide for current flow through the inversion layer in a MOS capacitor can be used to create a transistor. For most of the electronic devices, especially for integrated circuits, it is impractical to use electrical contacts on the side of the devices (such as point A and B).

Figure shows a simplified cross-section of a MOS field-effect transistor. As you can notice the gate, oxide and p-type substrate or body is same as the MOS capacitor. In addition we now have to n-regions, called source terminal and drain terminal. When no voltage is applied to the gate with respect to the body, no current can flow between source and drain. But due to an applied voltage at the gate when an inversion layer is created that allows the flow of charge through the inversion layer, also called the channel region. Since certain voltage must be applied to the gate terminal in order to create the inversion layer, this type of MOSFETs are called enhancement mode MOSFET.

#### n-channel Enhancement-mode MOSFET

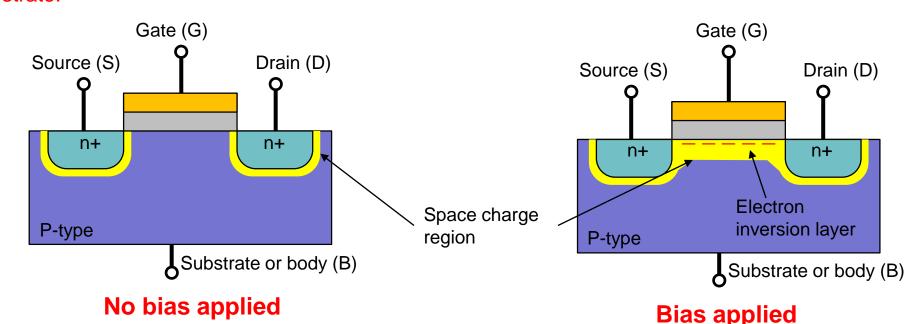


- Channel length,  $L \sim 1 \mu m$
- Oxide length,  $t_{\rm ox} \sim 400$  Angstrom
- NMOS (carriers are electrons)

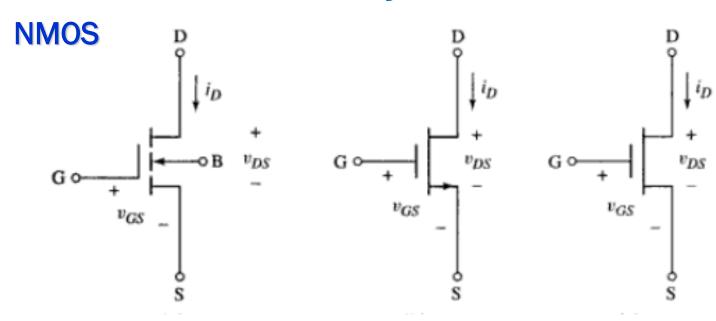
p-type substrate, two n-regions (n-source, n-drain) Positive Gate voltage

#### n-MOSFET basic transistor operation

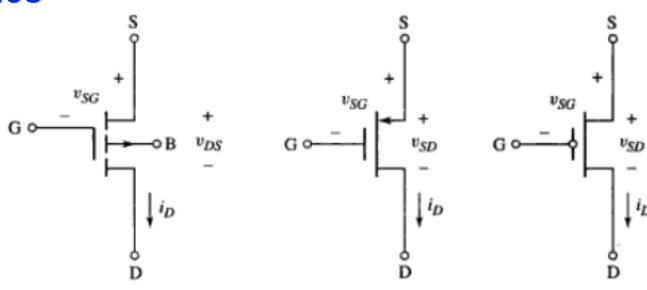
When zero bias is applied between the gate and body, the source and drain terminals are separated by the p-region. This is equivalent to two back-to-back diodes. Under such condition no current flows between the source and drain terminals. When a large voltage is applied to the gate an electron inversion layer is created close to the oxide-semiconductor interface and this layer connects the n-source to the n-drain. Since the free carriers in the inversion layer are electrons this device is also called n-channel MOSFET (NMOS). The source terminal supplied the carriers that flow through the channel and the drain terminal allows th4 carriers to drain from the channel. The magnitude of the current through the channel depends on the amount of charge in the inversion layer, which in term is a function of the applied gate voltage. Since the gate terminal is separated from the channel by the oxide layer, there is no gate current. Similarly, since the channel and substrate are separated by a space charge region, there is essentially no current through the substrate.



# **Symbols**



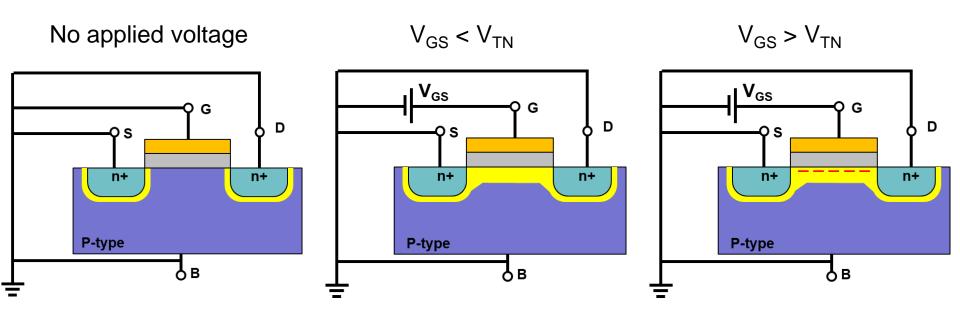
#### **PMOS**



# Ideal NMOS current-voltage characteristics

Let us first consider that all the terminals are grounded expect the gate terminal, where we apply certain positive voltage  $V_{GS}$ . When  $V_{GS}$  increases first a depletion layer is formed near the oxide-semiconductor interface. As  $V_{GS}$  further increases inversion layer starts to form and above a certain value of  $V_{GS}$  the electron density in the inversion layer becomes more than the majority (hole) density in the substrate. That voltage is called threshold voltage,  $V_{TN}$ .

As the gate voltage increases beyond  $V_{TN}$  electron density increases in the inversion layer, i.e. in the channel region. Thus the resistance between source and drain terminal decreases.



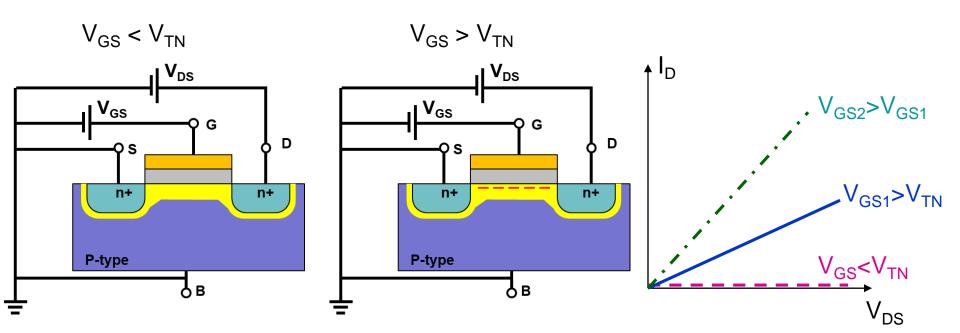
## Ideal NMOS current-voltage characteristics

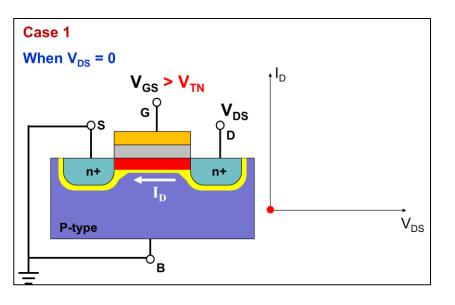
Let us now also apply a positive voltage to the drain with respect to source.

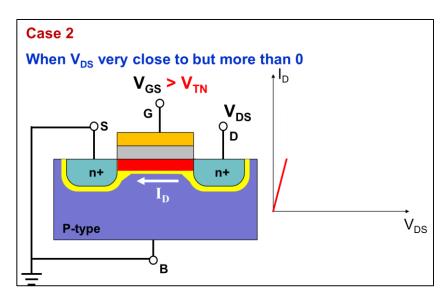
When the gate voltage is less than  $V_{TN}$ , essentially no current flows from drain to source, because there is no inversion layer is formed which can connect the source and drain terminals. Therefore for any value of drain to source voltage  $V_{DS}$  the current through the channel is zero.

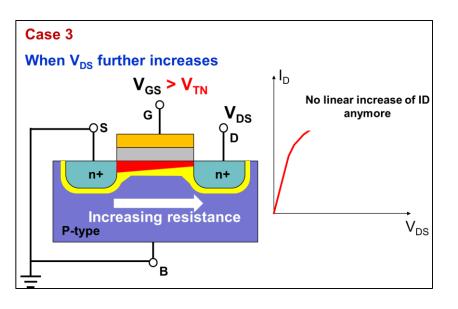
When  $V_{GS}$  increases beyond  $V_{TN}$ , current will flow between drain and source. For small value of drain to source voltage  $V_{DS}$ , the current through the channel  $I_D$  increases linearly with  $V_{DS}$ .

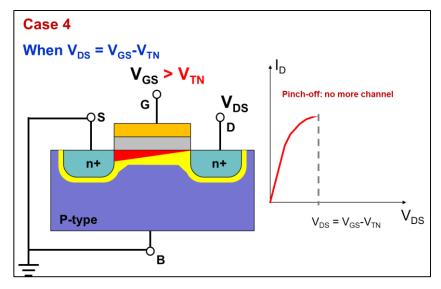
As the  $V_{GS}$  further increases, due to increased electron density in the channel the channel resistance decreases and hence the slope of the  $I_D$ - $V_{DS}$  curve increases.

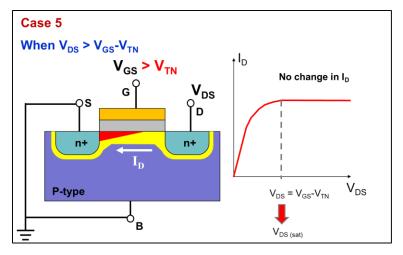


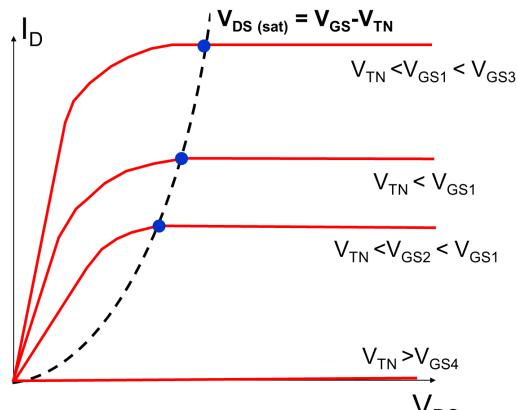


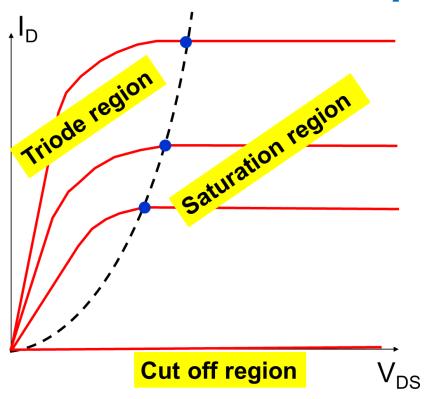












Triode region:

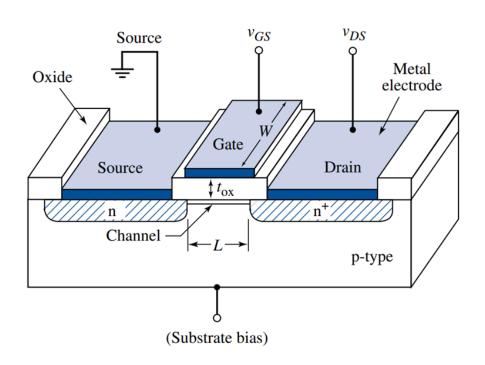
$$I_D = K_n [2(V_{GS} - V_{TN})V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2]$$

Saturation region:

$$I_D = K_n (V_{GS} - V_{TN})^2$$

Cut off region:

$$I_D = 0$$



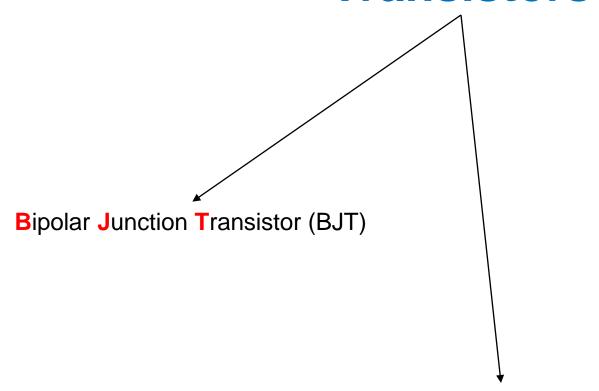
#### **Conduction parameter**

$$K_n = rac{W\mu_n C_{ox}}{2L}$$
Unit =  $mA/V^2$ 

$$C_{ox} = \frac{\varepsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}}$$
 (capacitance per unit area)

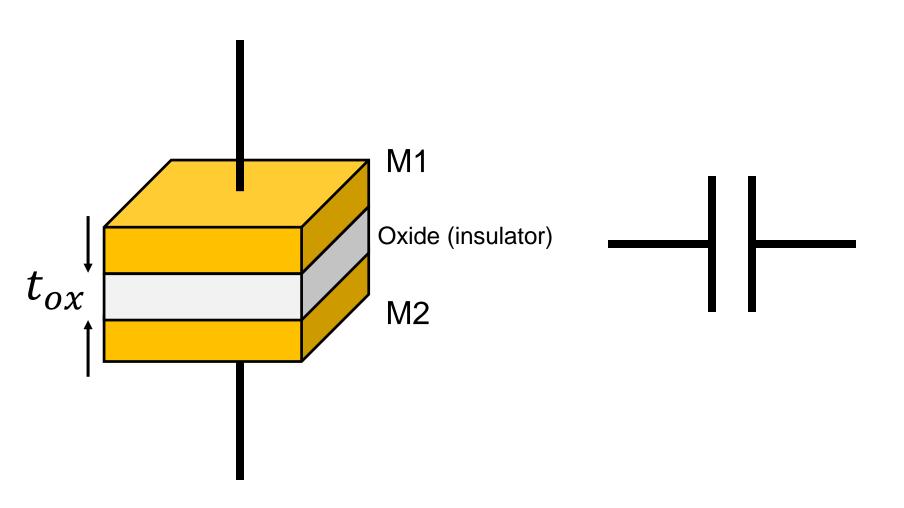
# Appendix class slides

#### **Transistors**

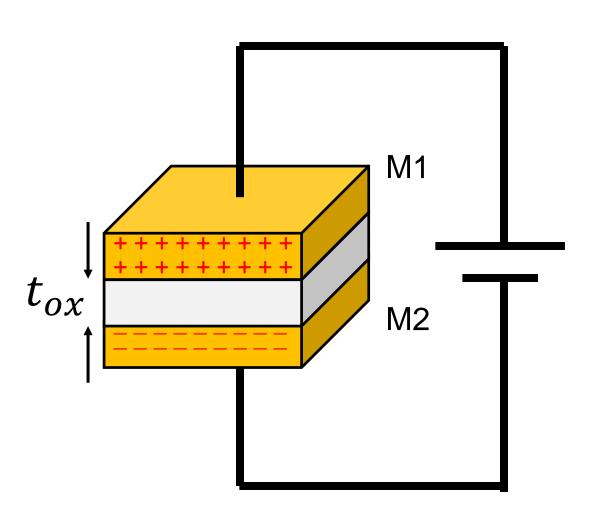


Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor (MOSFET)

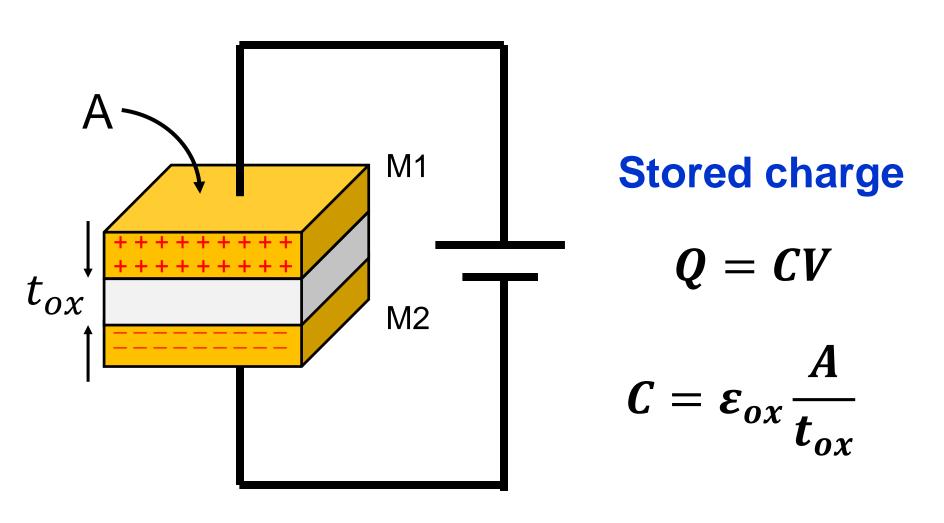
# **Conventional capacitor**

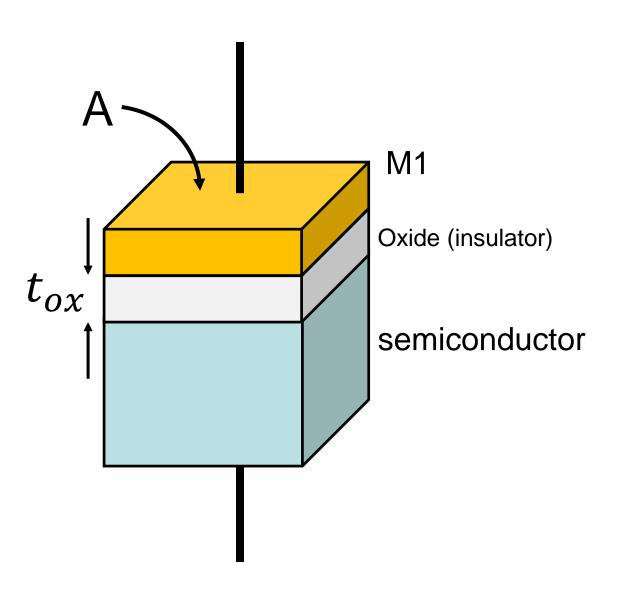


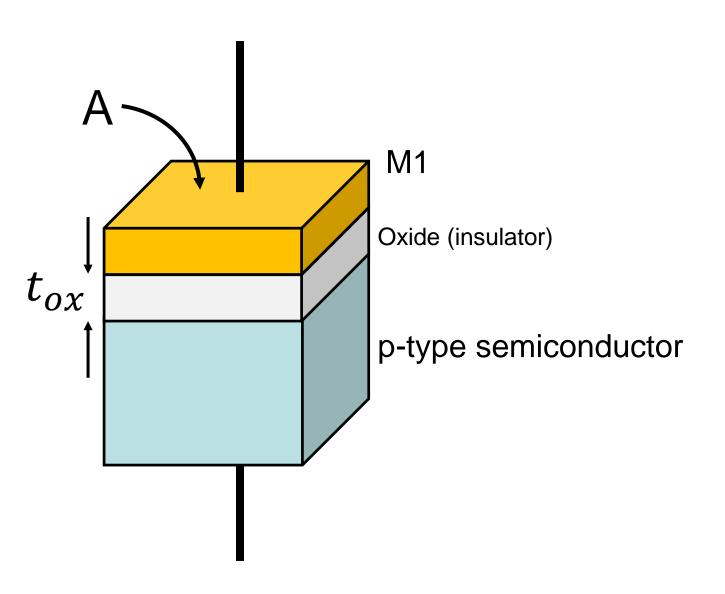
# **Conventional capacitor**

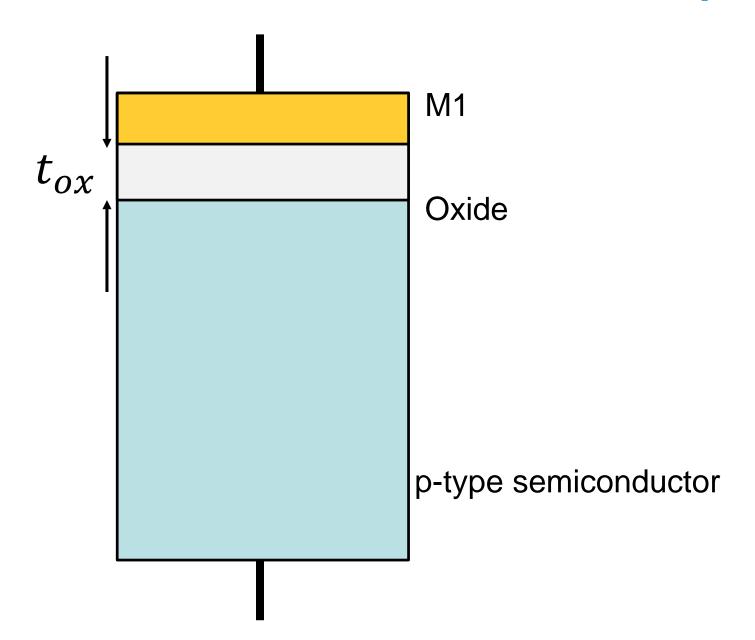


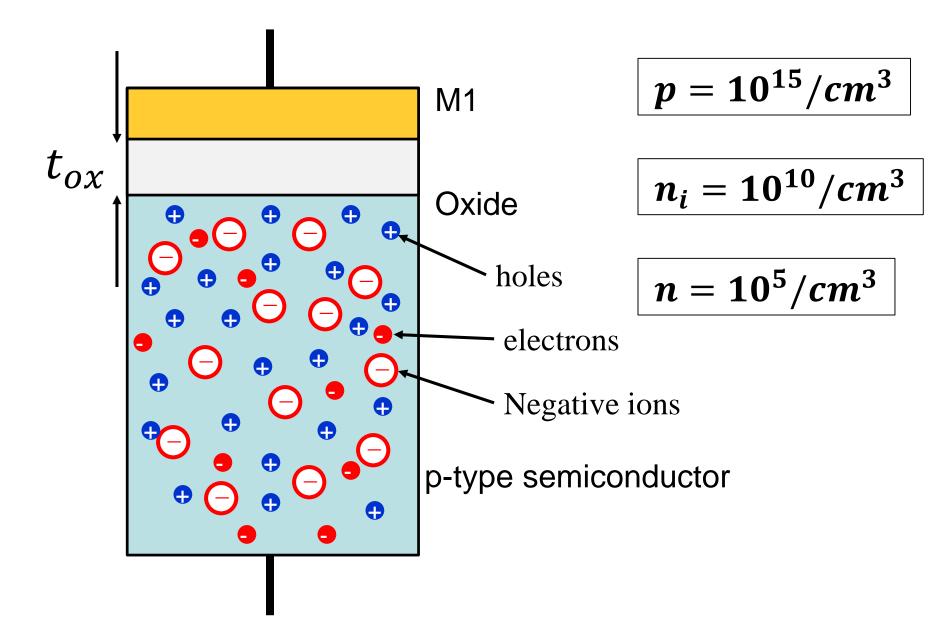
## **Conventional capacitor**

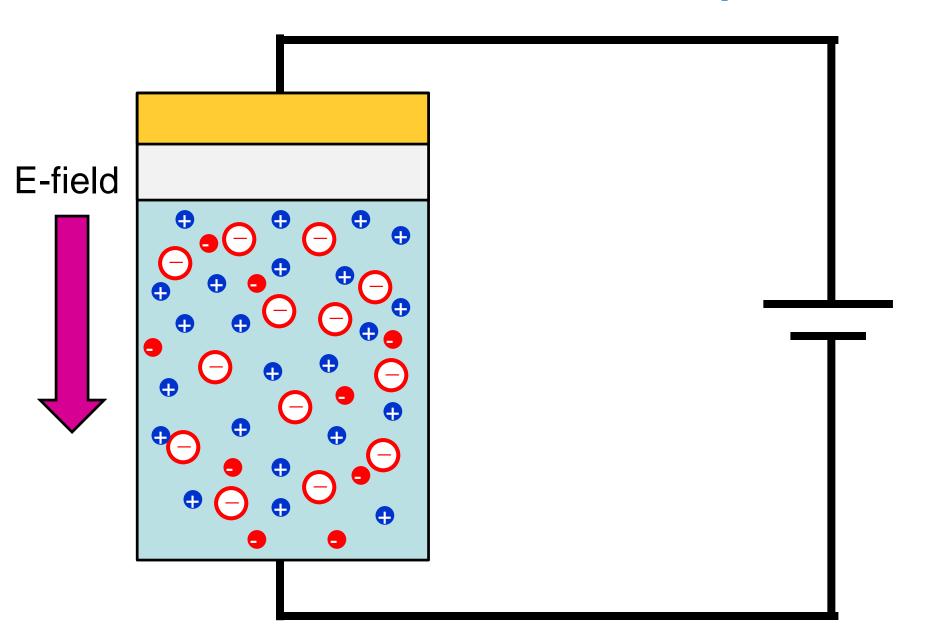


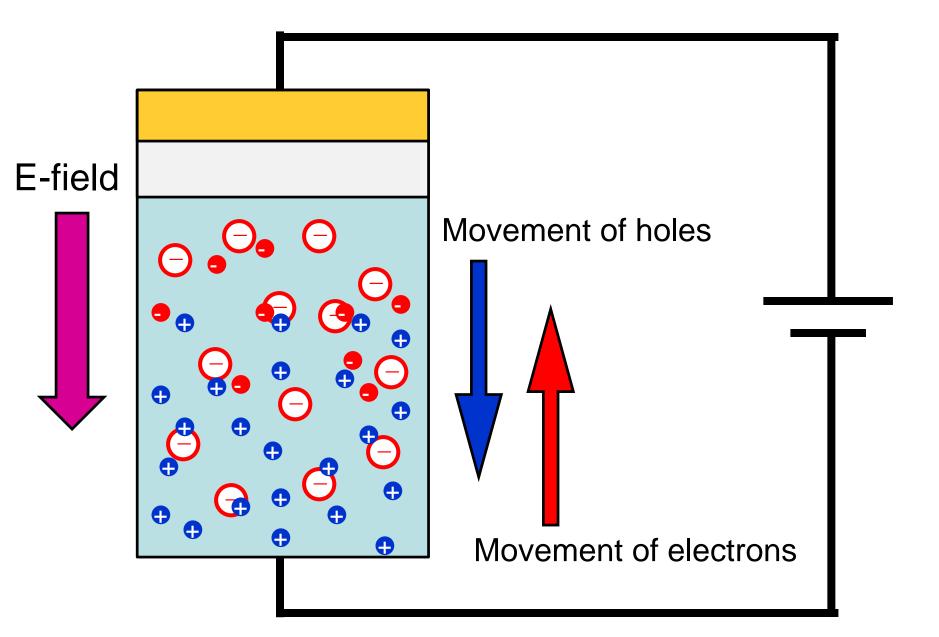


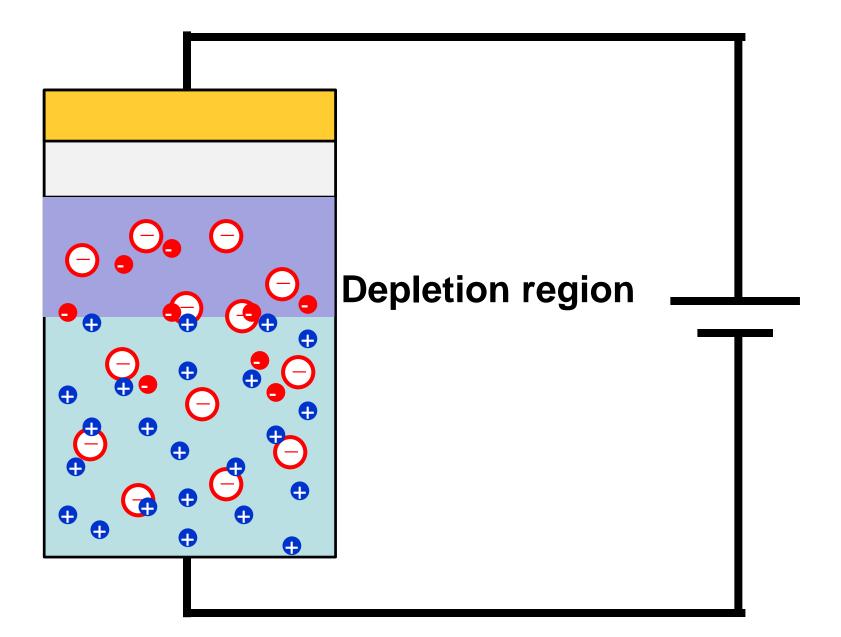


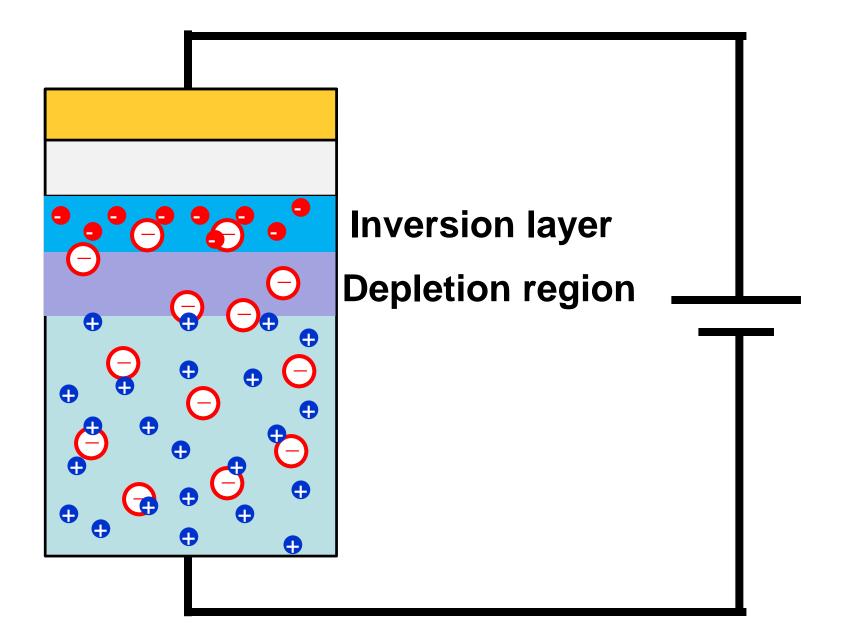


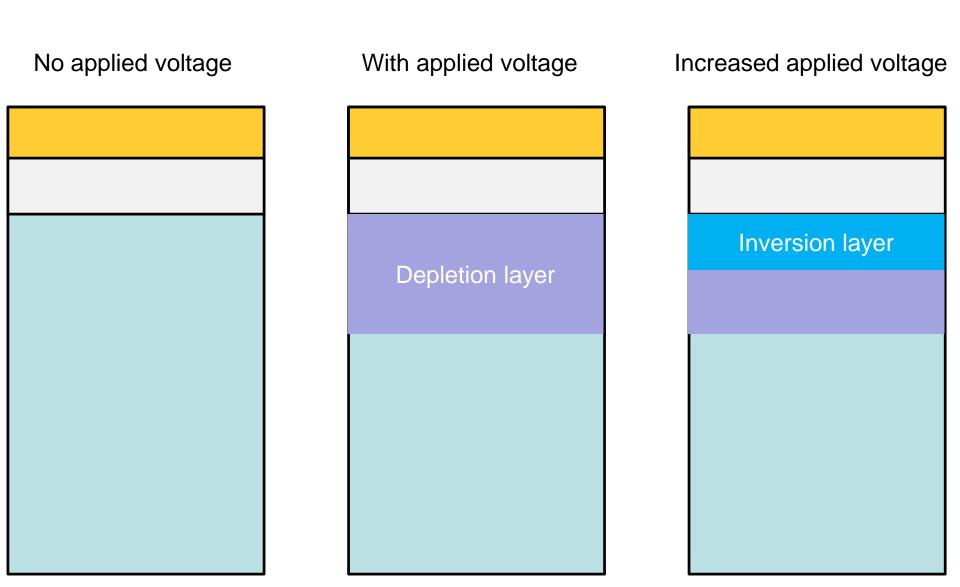


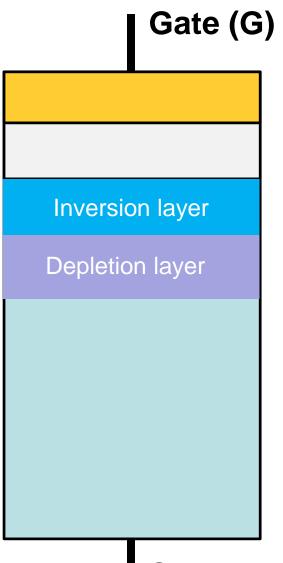




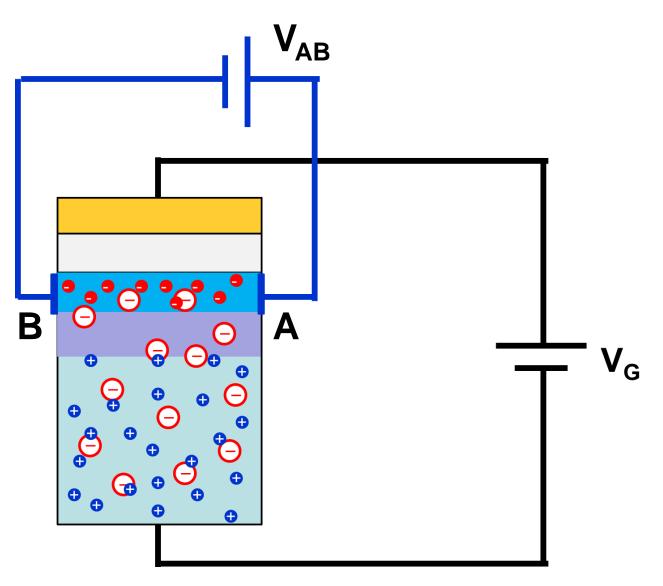


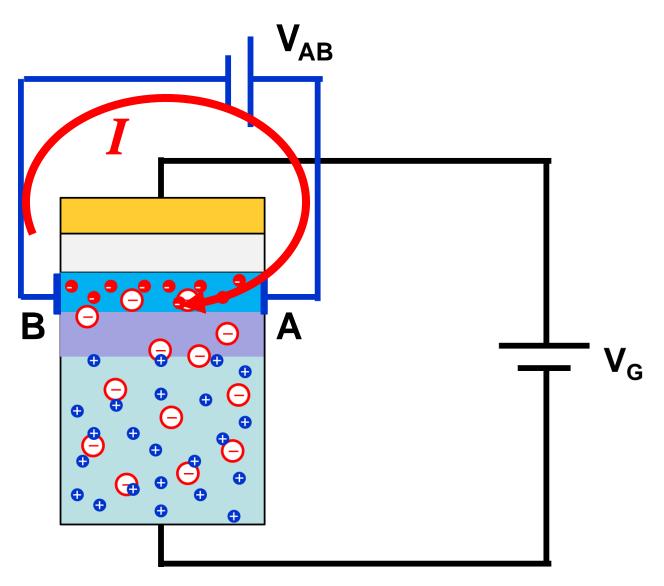


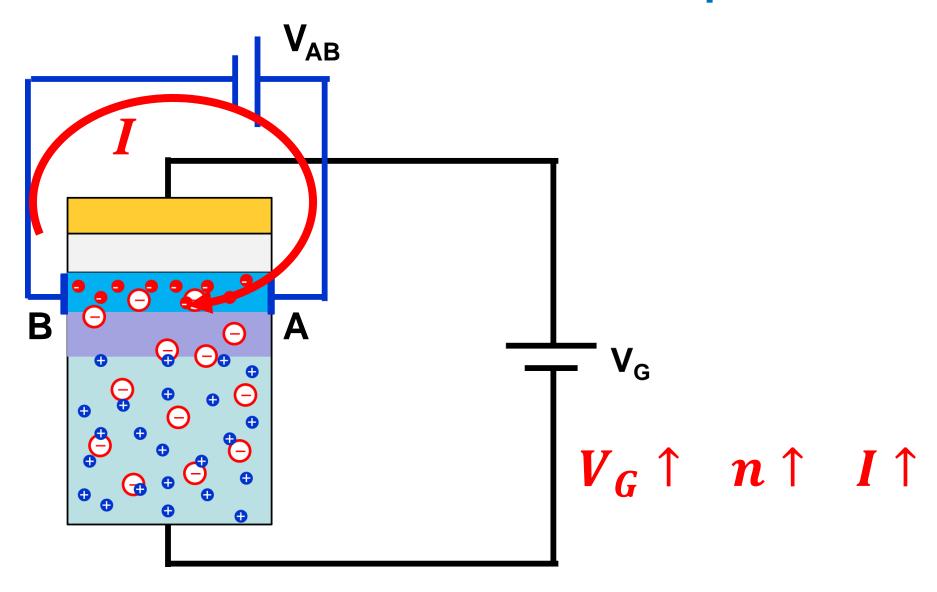


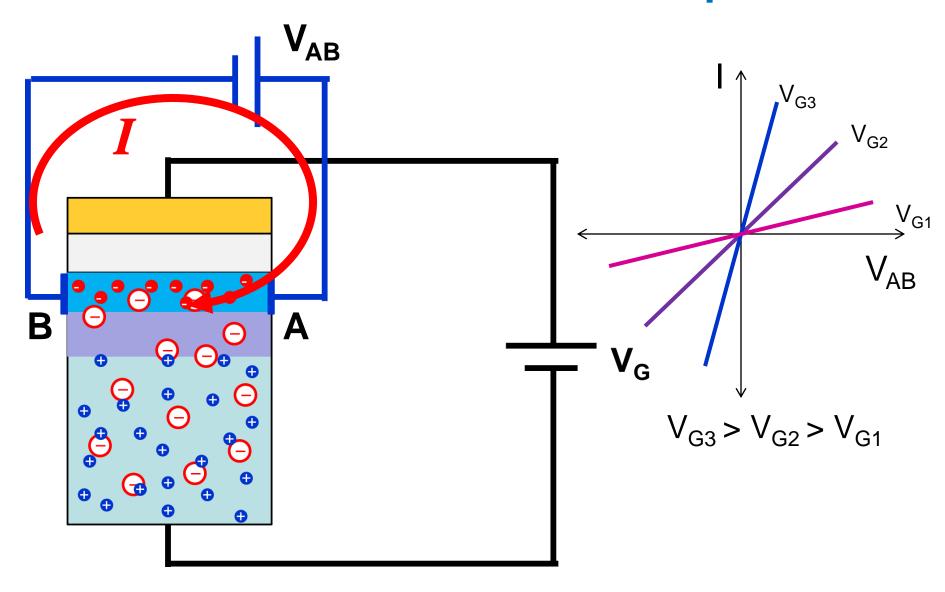


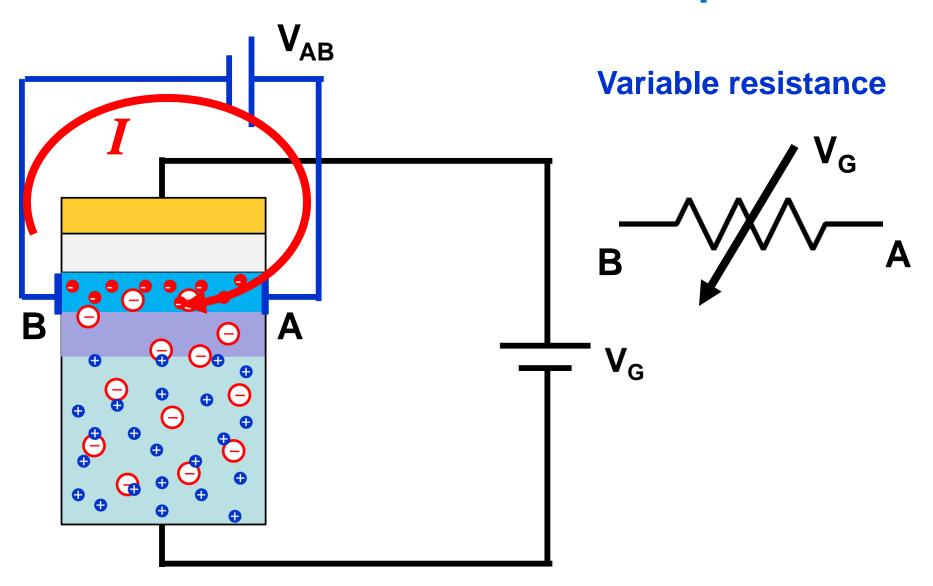
Substrate or body (B)



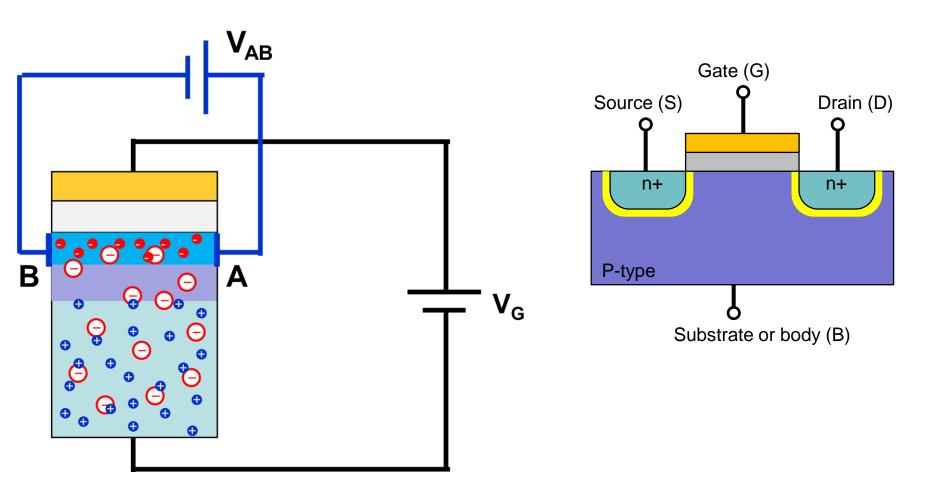




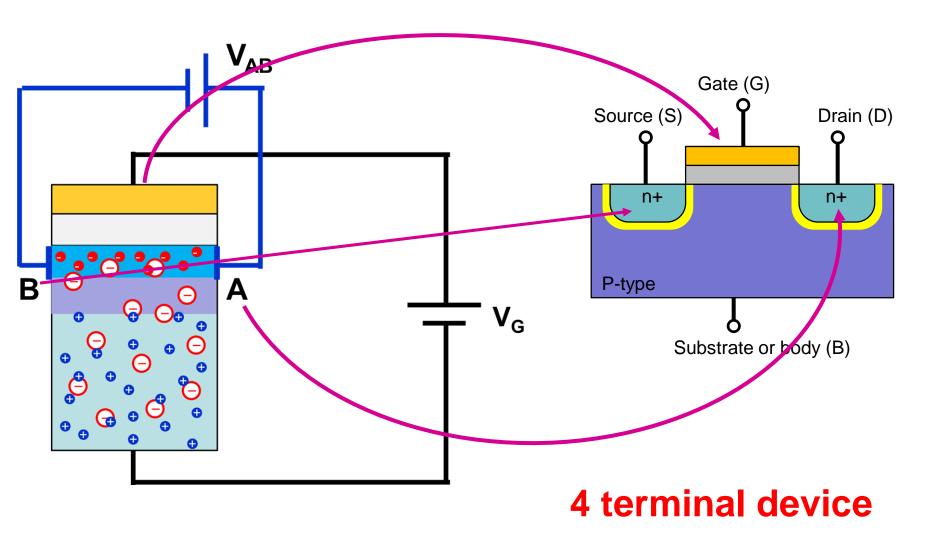




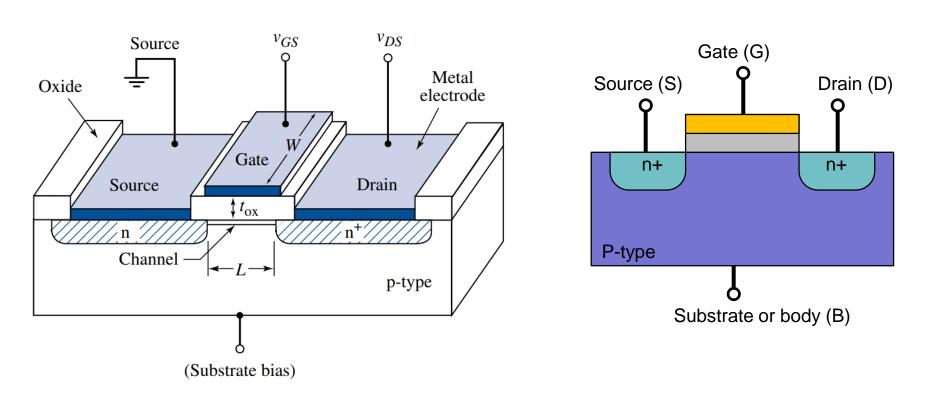
## **MOS Field Effect Transistor**



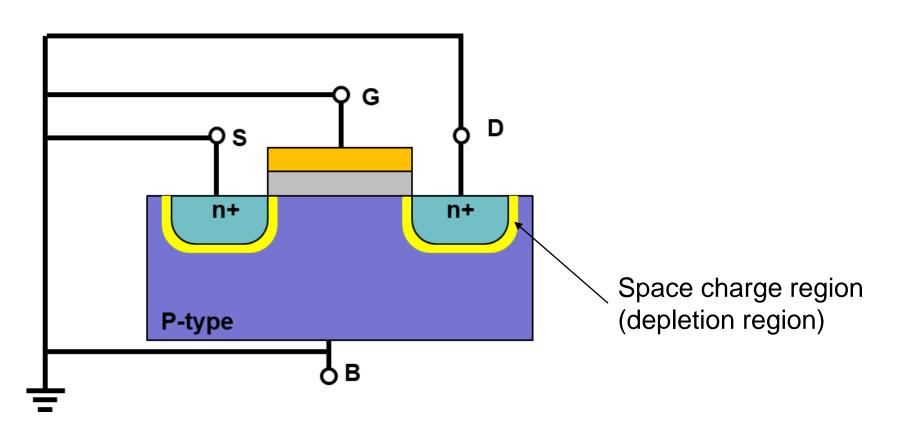
## **MOS Field Effect Transistor**

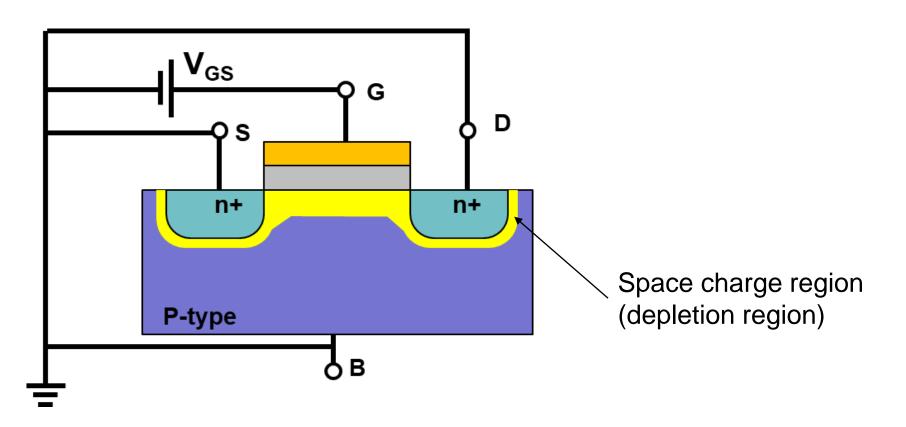


## **MOS Field Effect Transistor**

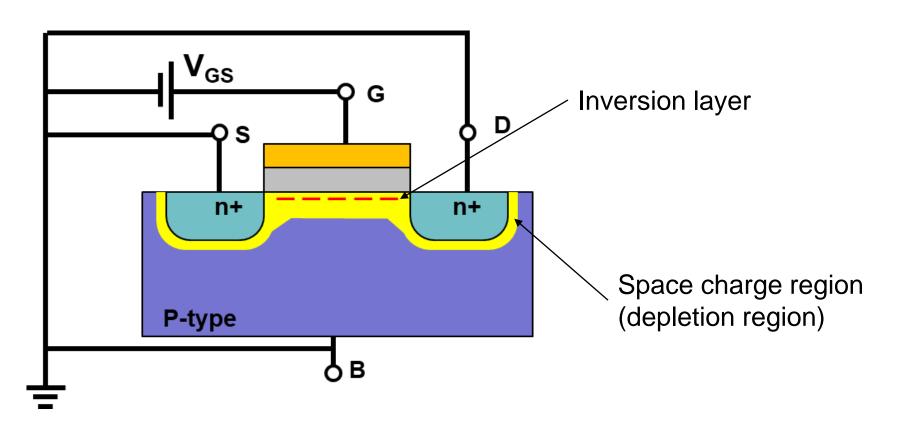


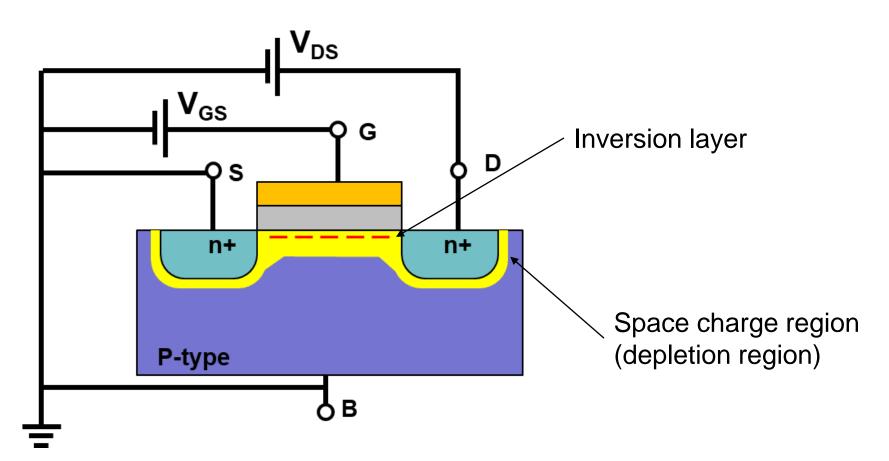
- Channel length,  $L \sim 1 \mu m$
- Oxide length,  $t_{ox} \sim 400$  Angstrom

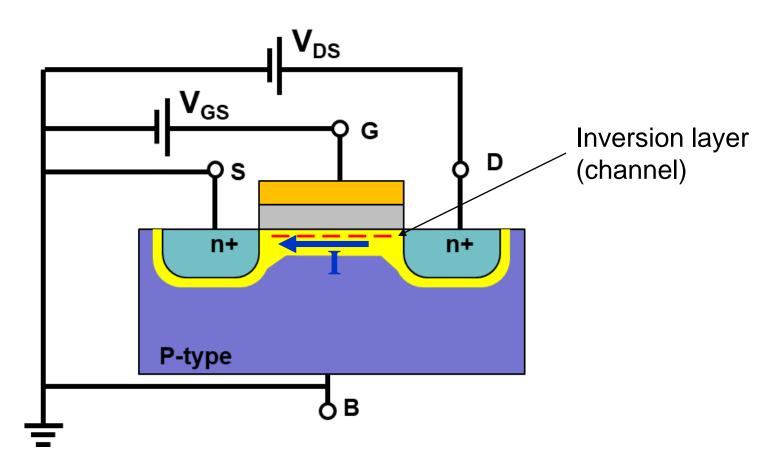


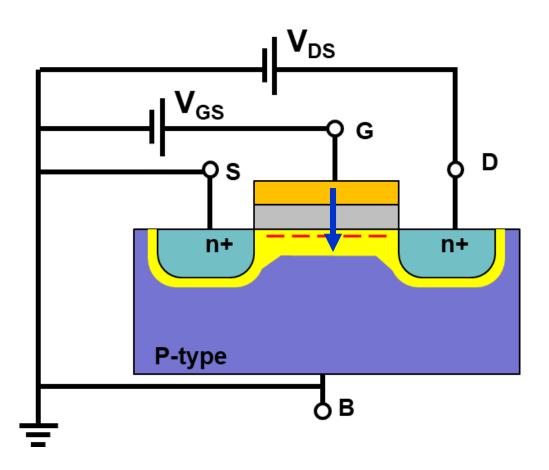


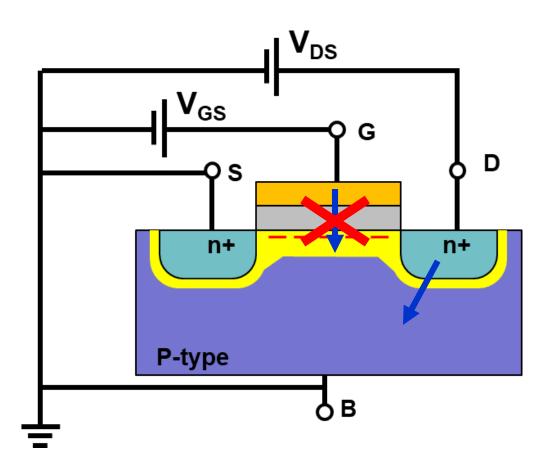
$$V_{GS} < V_{TN}$$

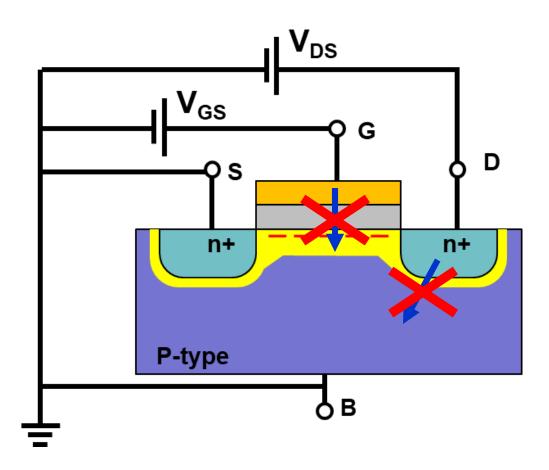


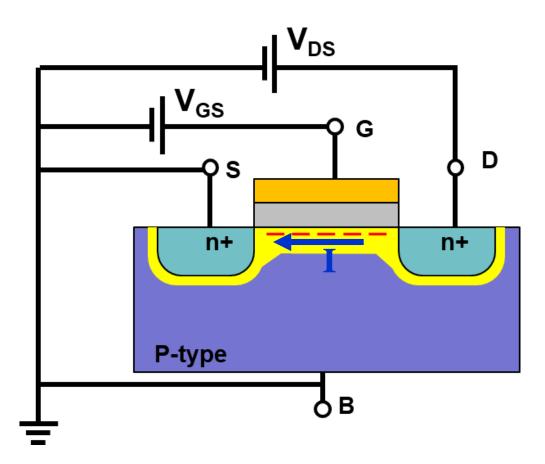






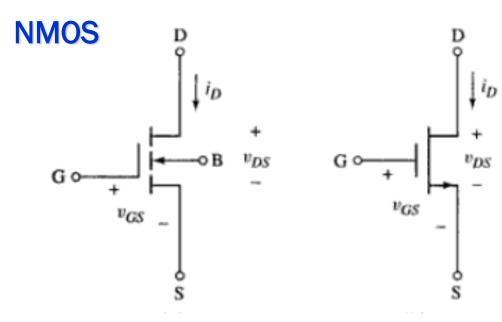




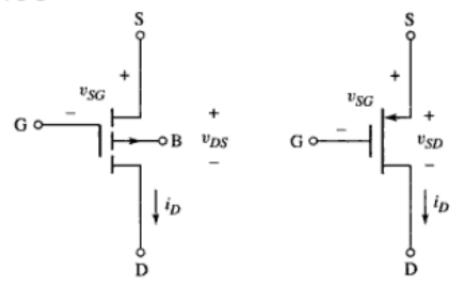


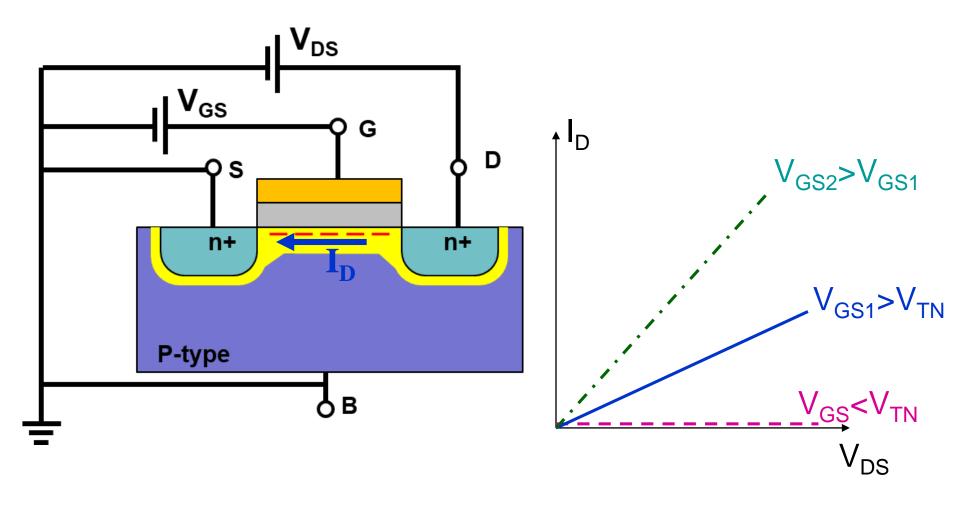
- Only allowed path is through the channel
- Since the channel is formed by electrons, its called an n-channel MOSFET or NMOS

# **Symbols**

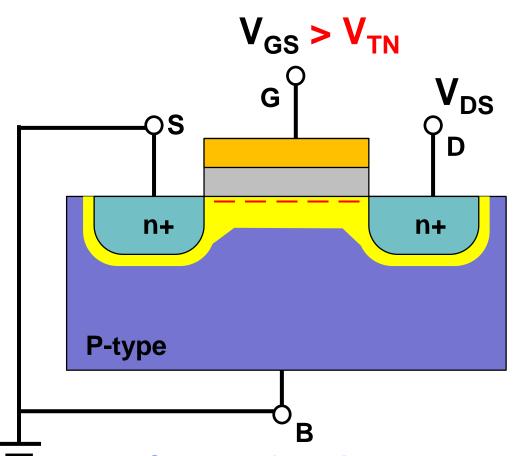


## **PMOS**

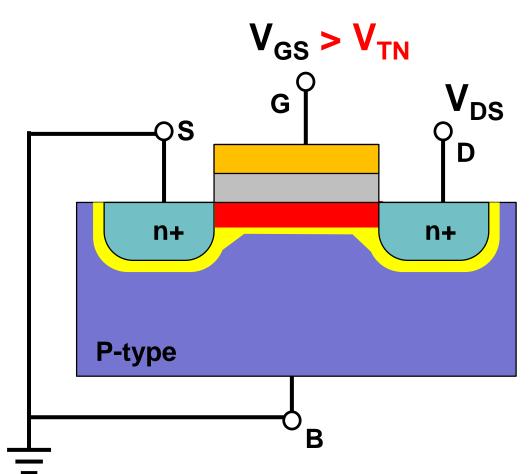




For very small values of V<sub>DS</sub>

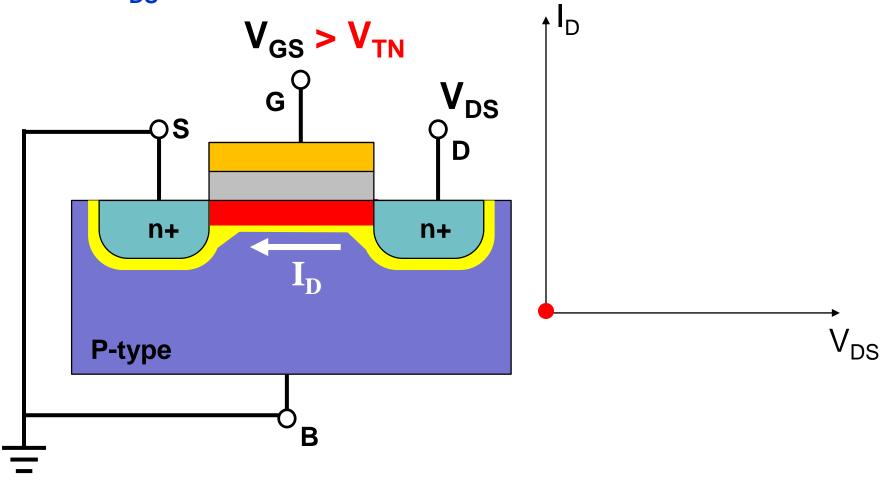


Current flow is allowed between drain and source



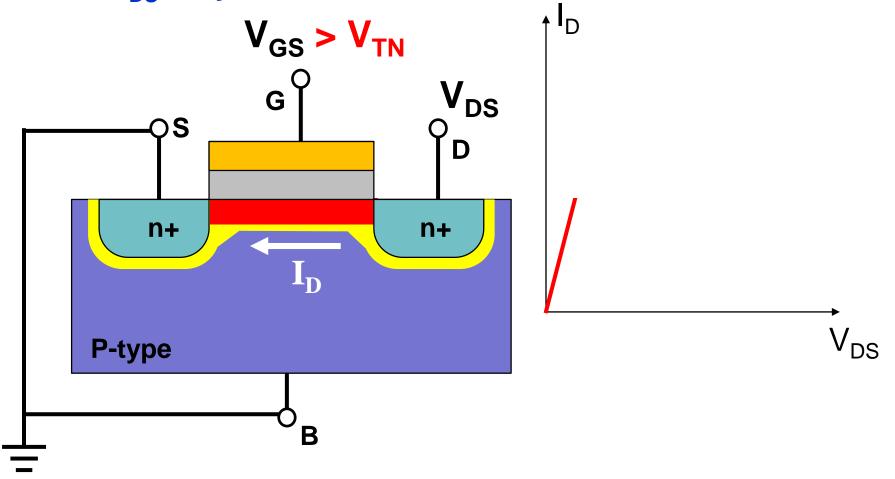
Electron density is represented by the width of the red region

When 
$$V_{DS} = 0$$

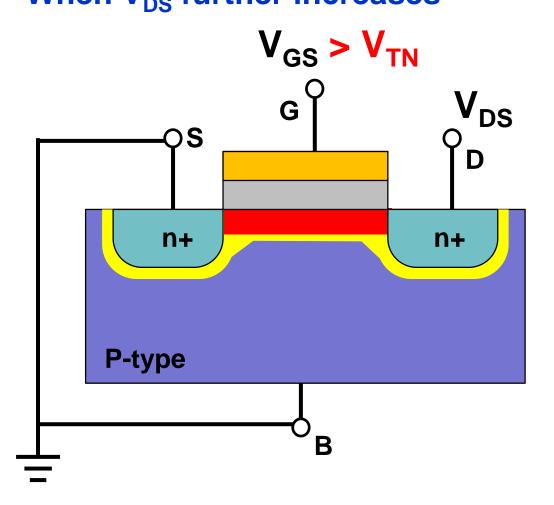


#### Case 2

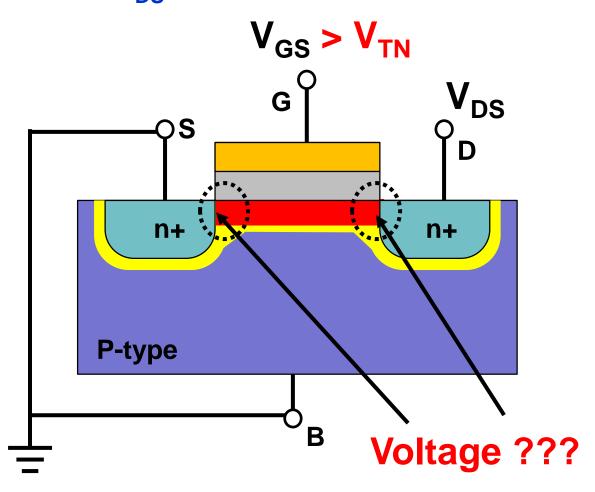
When V<sub>DS</sub> very close to but more than 0



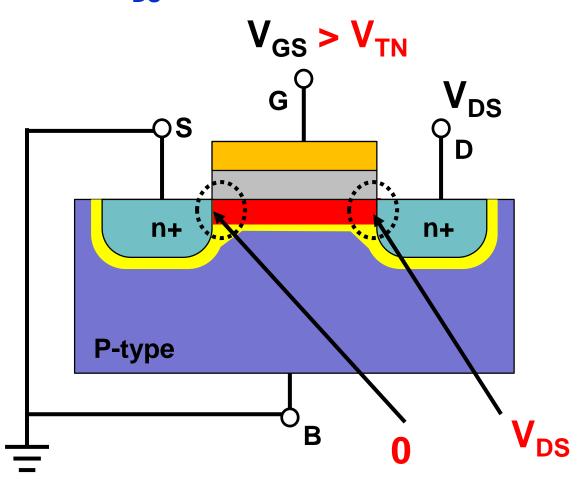
Case 3 When  $V_{DS}$  further increases



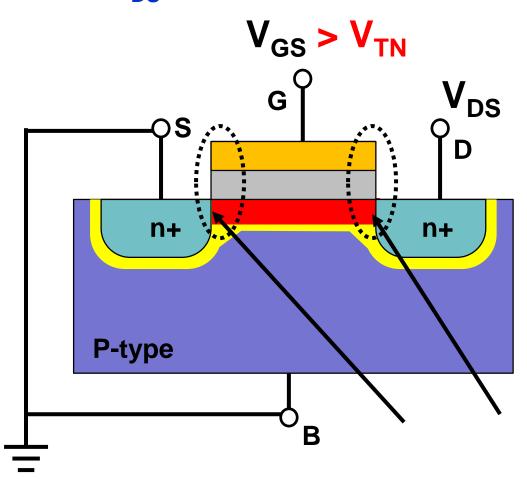
Case 3



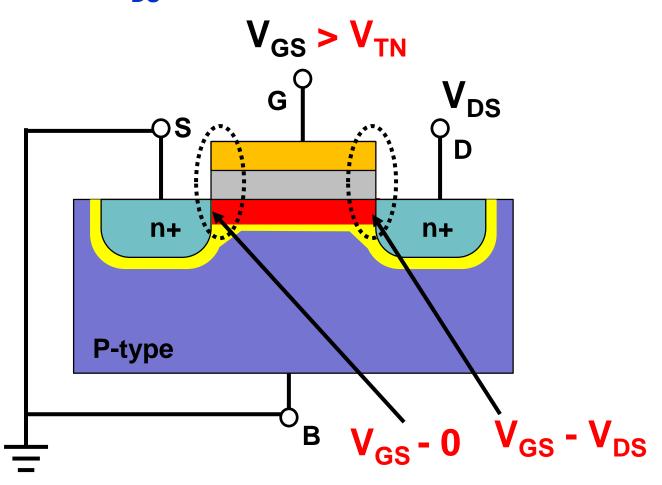
Case 3



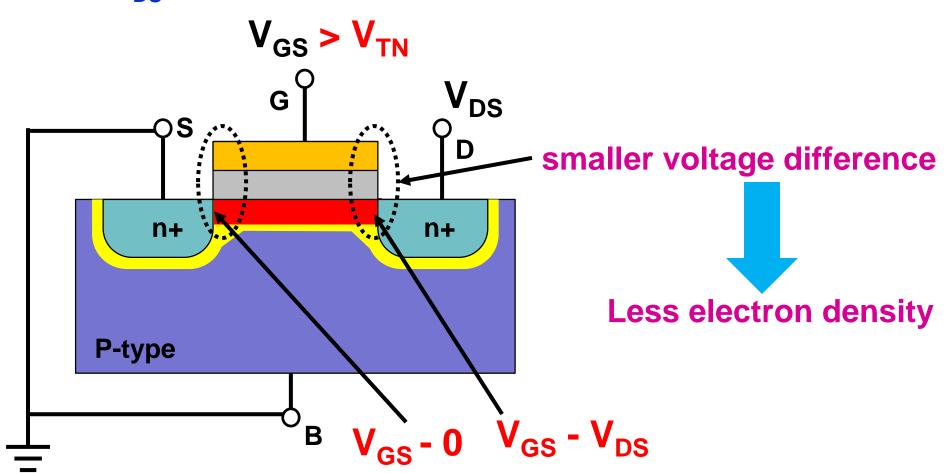
Case 3



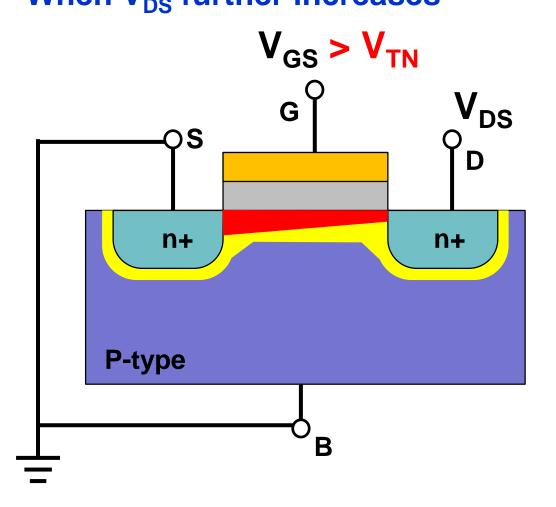
Case 3

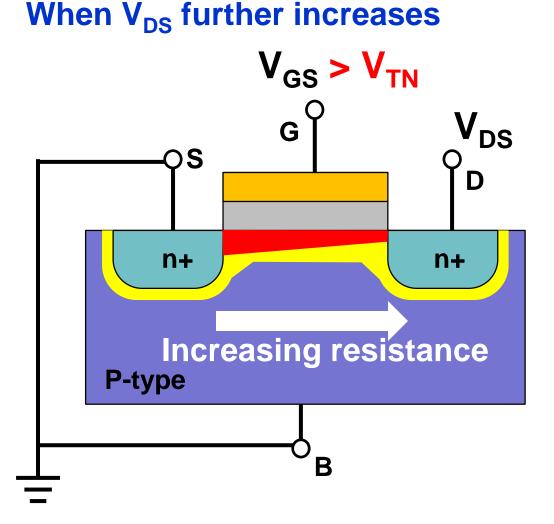


#### Case 3

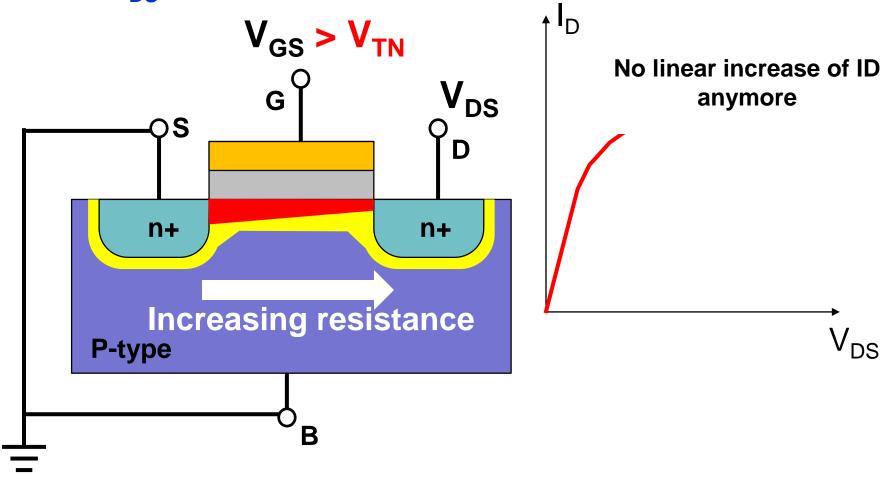


Case 3 When  $V_{DS}$  further increases

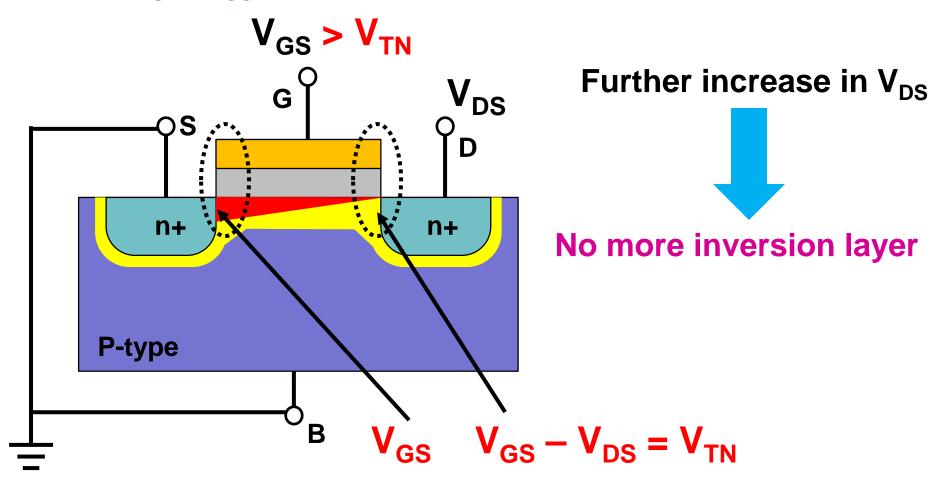




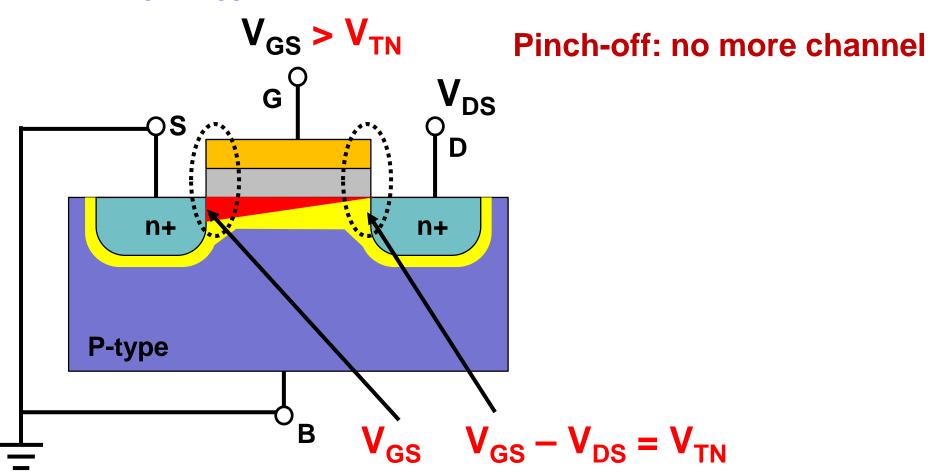
#### Case 3



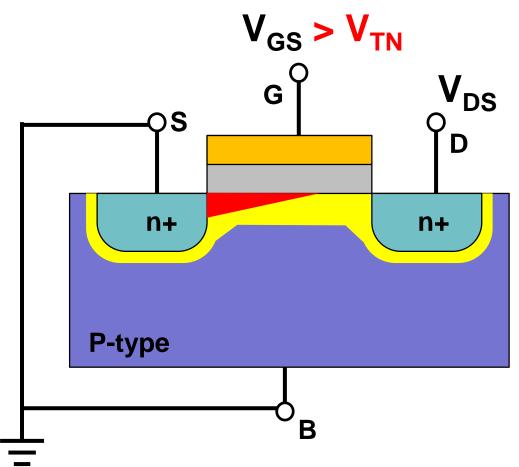
When 
$$V_{DS} = V_{GS} - V_{TN}$$

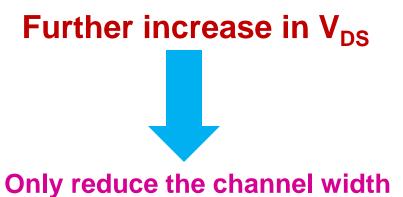


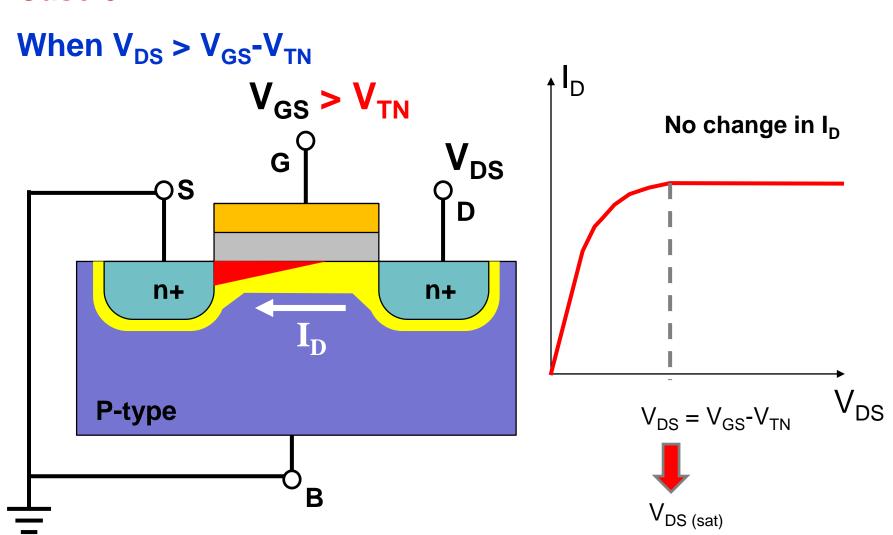
When 
$$V_{DS} = V_{GS} - V_{TN}$$

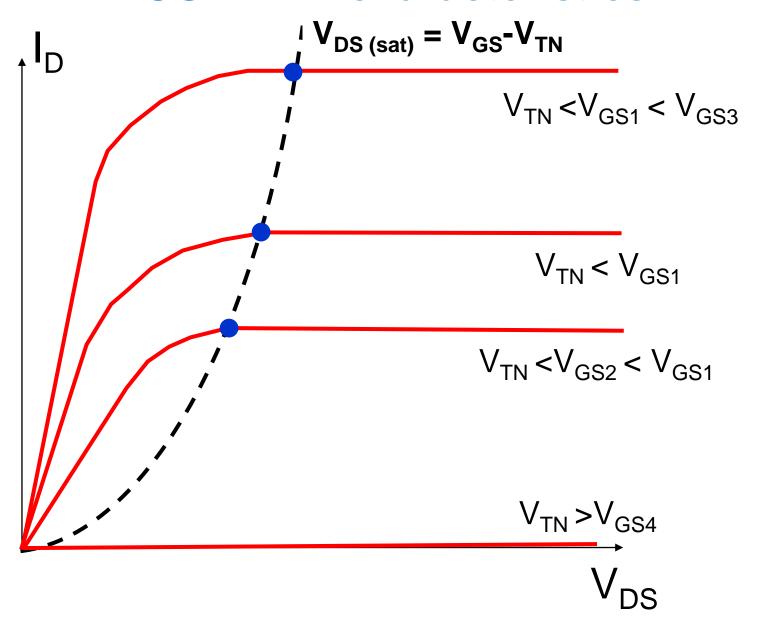


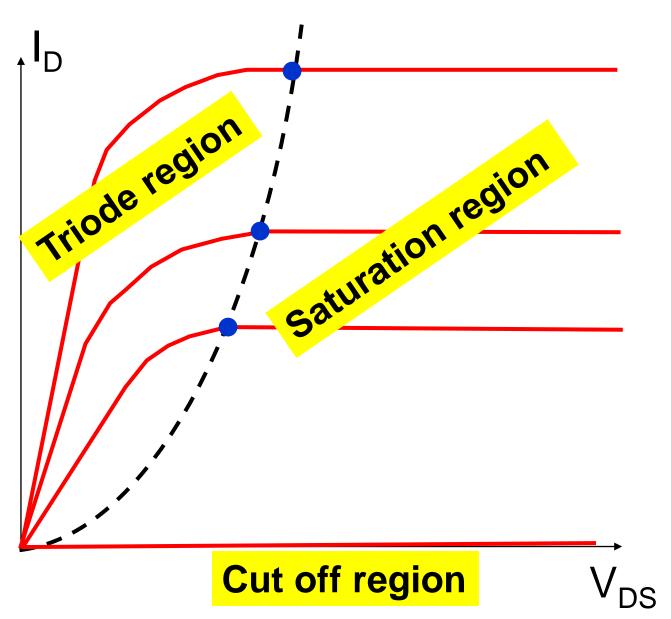












Triode region:

$$I_D = K_n [2(V_{GS} - V_{TN})V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2]$$
  $V_{DS}$  and  $V_{GS}$  dependence

Saturation region:

$$I_D = K_n (V_{GS} - V_{TN})^2$$
 Only  $V_{GS}$  dependence

Cut off region:

$$I_D = 0$$

#### Triode region:

$$I_D = K_n [2(V_{GS} - V_{TN})V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2]$$

#### Saturation region:

$$I_D = K_n (V_{GS} - V_{TN})^2$$

#### Cut off region:

$$I_D = 0$$

## **Conduction parameter**

$$K_n = \frac{W\mu_n C_{ox}}{2L}$$
Unit =  $mA/V^2$ 

