# Lab 1: DC Analysis of MOS Transistors EECS 170B January 24, 2018

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## 1 NMOS Transistor

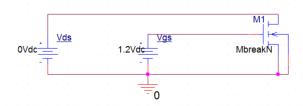


Figure 1: NMOS Circuit

In general, NMOS transistors have three operation modes. The first mode is cutoff, where  $V_{GS} < V_T$ , where  $V_T$  is the threshold voltage. The NMOS structure uses a MOS capacitor in the middle. Below the threshold voltage, not enough minority carriers exist in the bulk's conduction band to actually drive a substantial current. In the case of an NMOS transistor, the bulk is p-type, meaning minority carriers are electrons. Thus, when  $V_{GS} < V_T$  in the NMOS, the drain current due to the minority carrier electrons is effectively 0mA.

By setting a voltage at the gate, the majority carrier holes in the p-type substrate are pushed away, exposing the negative acceptor ions beneath them. A depletion region forms as a result. Once the gate voltage exceeds the threshold voltage, valence band electrons in the depletion region acquire enough energy to jump the bandgap and become conduction electrons. As a result, an inversion layer develops in the bulk between the source and the drain. A drain current can now flow.

When  $V_{GS} > V_T$ , a bifurcation occurs. The NMOS can either enter the triode or saturation mode. In the triode mode, the NMOS acts as an approximately linear resistor. The conductivity, and therefore the resistance, can be controlled by varying the number of minority carrier electrons by changing the gate voltage. By applying  $V_{DS}$ , a current is then driven through the somewhat linear resistance. For small values of  $V_{DS}$ , the resistance is basically linear. For larger values, the resistance begins to act less linear, but still exhibits similar behavior. The MOSFET remains in this triode mode for as long as  $V_{DS} < V_{GS} - V_T$ . However, once  $V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T$ , the MOSFET enters saturation. In the saturation mode, the NMOS does not have enough carrier electrons in the channel to support the desired current that should be present given  $V_{DS}$ . At this point, increasing  $V_{DS}$  leads to no additional current past the saturation current.

However, in the saturation mode, as  $V_{DS}$  is increased, more electrons concentrate toward the source than the drain. This is because the voltage in the semiconductor needs to reflect those applied at the metal electrodes. Thus, electrons concentrate toward the source to reflect the lower voltage that exists

at that position. At saturation, no excess carrier electrons exist at the drain, and the channel "pinches-off" as a result. Past this point, the channel length decreases because more and more of the area closer to the drain becomes unoccupied by electrons as they move toward the source. As the channel becomes shorter, its resistance decreases, and the current increases linearly. This effect is known as channel length modulation. So, the saturation current looks like:

$$i_D = \frac{k_n}{2} (V_{GS} - V_T)^2 (1 + \lambda V_{DS}) \ (\lambda : constant) \tag{1}$$

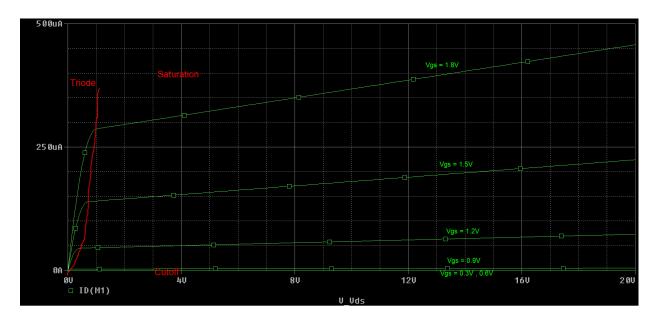


Figure 2: NMOS DC Sweep -  $i_D$  vs  $V_{DS}$ 

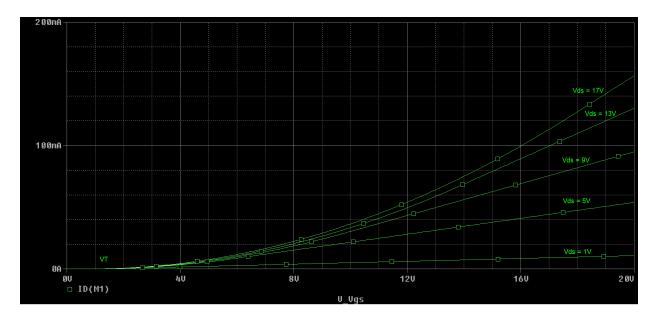


Figure 3: NMOS DC Sweep -  $i_D$  vs  $V_{GS}$ 

When sweeping through increasing values of  $V_{GS}$ , the transistor goes from cutoff mode to saturation mode and eventually to triode mode. In the saturation mode, the current varies quadratically with  $V_{GS}$ :

$$i_D = \frac{k_n}{2} (V_{GS} - V_T)^2 \tag{2}$$

Once  $V_{GS}$  becomes sufficiently high, the transistor enters triode mode. At this point, the current has a linear dependence on  $V_{GS}$ :

$$i_D = k_n((V_{GS} - V_T) - \frac{V_{DS}}{2})V_{DS}$$
 (3)

So, the transistor should remain at zero, then grow quadratically, and then linearly. This is precisely the behavior observed in figure (3). At higher  $V_{DS}$  values, the transistor remains in saturation for longer due to the fact that  $V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T$  remains true for more values of  $V_{GS}$ . So, the drain attains higher values before entering the linear triode region. As a result, the slope of the curve when in the triode region increases with  $V_{DS}$ . However, as  $V_{DS}$  becomes large, the  $i_D$  versus  $V_{GS}$  curves asymptotically approach the curve  $i_D = \frac{k_n}{2}(V_{GS} - V_T)^2$  for all  $V_{DS}$  values. When  $V_{DS}$  is large, the transistor may not enter the triode region in this  $V_{GS}$  range. This is why the curves begin to converge for larger  $V_{DS}$  values.

## 2 PMOS Transistor

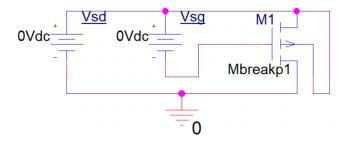


Figure 4: PMOS Circuit

The PMOS transistor has behavior similar to the NMOS, but with a few slight deviations. When the MOS capacitor is charged a voltage lower than the source, holes are attracted to form the channel. The terminal from which carriers flow shall be called the source. So, for the PMOS, the source terminal should be higher than the drain terminal so that holes can flow from high to low potential from the source. Therefore, current flows into the drain, unlike in an NMOS transistor, where the current flows away from the drain. So, the NMOS current plot should be flipped over the x-axis for the PMOS since the current is negative.

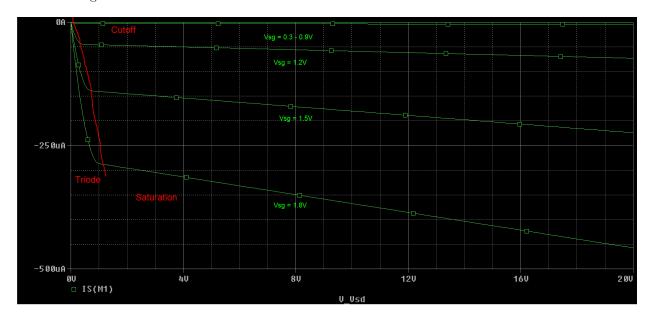


Figure 5: PMOS  $i_D$  versus  $V_{SD}$ 

If only the magnitude is observed, the plots should turn out to be the same. The voltages applied to the transistor are essentially the same, with source and drain terminals flipped, giving rise to the factor of -1 difference between the NMOS and PMOS current plots. For the SPICE models used, the PMOS has a process transconductance parameter  $k_p \approx \frac{k_n}{2}$ . The PMOS's process transconductance parameter is given by:

$$k_p' = \mu_p C_{ox} \tag{4}$$

The NMOS's parameter is:

$$k_n' = \mu_n C_{ox} \tag{5}$$

Here,  $C_{ox}$  is the oxide capacitance density per area,  $\mu_n$  is the electron mobility, and  $\mu_p$  is the hole mobility.  $k_p'$  is about half the magnitude of  $k_n'$  because the hole mobility  $\mu_p$  is about half the magnitude of  $\mu_n$ . Carrier electrons are simply electrons that move around freely in the conduction band. Carrier holes arise from electrons moving around in the valence band. When an electron moves in the valence band, the hole moves in the opposite direction in the conduction band. In the valence band, electrons are much closer to the nuclei of the semiconductor material, meaning the electrostatic force is much stronger and prevents the electrons from moving as quickly as they would in the conduction band. Because the electrons in the valence band move more slowly, the corresponding holes in the conduction band also move more slowly (for the same applied electric field as electrons in the conduction band). This is what leads to the lower hole mobility and thus a lower process transconductance parameter.

The drain currents in transistors depend on the MOSFET transconductance parameter, which for a PMOS is given by:

$$k_p = k_p' \frac{W}{L} \tag{6}$$

W is the transistor's channel width, and L is the channel length. Making the width W twice the width of the corresponding NMOS model compensates for the lower process transconductance parameter. Thus, the PMOS's  $|i_D|$  curve should be the same as the NMOS's. The factor of -1 difference for the  $i_D$  plots should be the only difference between the two.

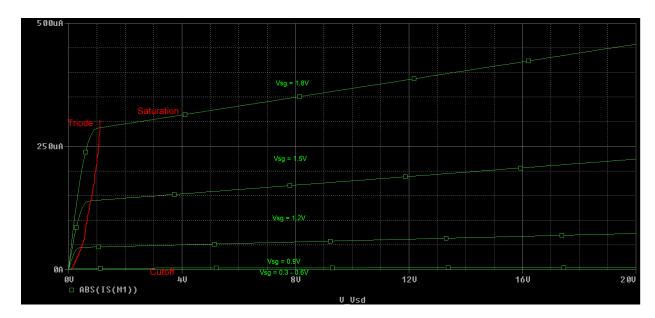


Figure 6: PMOS  $|i_D|$  vs  $V_{SD}$ 

When sweeping  $V_{SD}$ , the mechanics of the PMOS transistor are nearly identical besides the fact that holes are the charge carrier. As a result, the drain current differs by a factor of -1. The  $|i_D|$  curve is essentially the same as for the NMOS for the same reasons as above.

The same logic applies to the  $i_D$  versus  $V_{SG}$  curves. The difference is in the factor of -1.

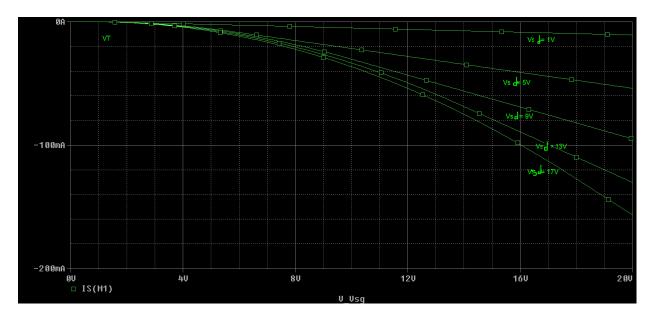


Figure 7: PMOS  $i_D$  vs  $V_{SG}$ 

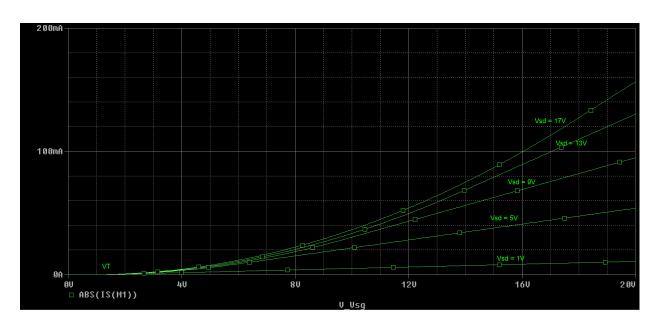


Figure 8: PMOS  $|i_D|$  vs  $V_{SG}$ 

## 3 Diode-Connected NMOS

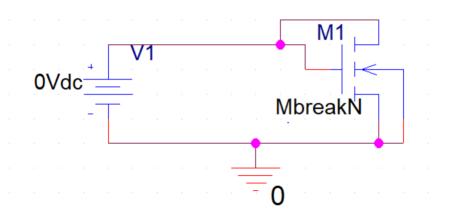


Figure 9: Diode-Connected NMOS Circuit

Two operation modes are possible for the circuit in figure (9). In the first case, consider  $V_{GS} < V_T$ . At this point, the transistor is in cutoff mode, and no current flows. For the second case,  $V_{GS} > V_T$ . Since  $V_G = V_D$  and  $V_{GS} > V_{GS} - V_T$ ,  $V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T$ . This satisfies the condition for saturation. So, the transistor is either in cutoff or in saturation. So, the transistor's drain current is given by:

$$i_D = \begin{cases} \frac{k_n}{2} (V_{GS} - V_T)^2 & V_{GS} > V_T \\ 0 & V_{GS} < V_T \end{cases}$$
 (7)

This current behavior mimics that of a pn-junction diode, but with a current that varies quadratically instead of exponentially with the applied voltage  $V_{GS}$ . The transistor, like a diode, requires a certain voltage in order to "turn-on", specifically  $V_T$ . Once this voltage is exceeded, the transistor is activated and immediately enters the saturation region. From this, increasing  $V_{GS}$  leads to quadratically larger drain currents, just like how increasing the applied voltage leads to exponentially growing diode currents.

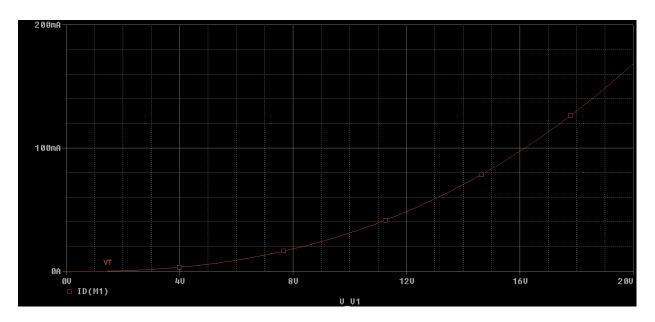


Figure 10: DC Sweep of Circuit in Figure (9)

## 4 Current Mirror

## 4.1 First Current Mirror Circuit

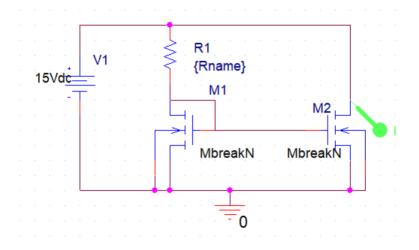


Figure 11: First Current Mirror Circuit

Assume transistors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  in figure (11) are identical. Because  $M_1$  is a diode-connected MOSFET, if  $V_{DS}=V_{GS}>V_T$ , then  $M_1$  operates in satura-

tion. Assume that  $M_1$  is not in cutoff and is therefore in saturation.  $M_1$ 's drain current shall be called  $i_{ref}$ , and  $M_2$ 's  $i_{out}$ .

Because the gates of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are connected and both of their sources are grounded,  $V_{GS}$  is the same for each. Since  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are identical transistors, their  $V_T$  values are identical as well. So, if current can flow through  $M_1$ 's drain, then  $M_2$  must also be active because  $V_{GS} > V_T$  in both cases.  $M_2$ 's  $V_{DS}$  certainly exceeds  $M_1$ 's  $V_{DS}$  since  $M_2$ 's drain is directly connected to the supply voltage rather than an intermediary resistor. Since  $M_1$  is in saturation,  $V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T$  is the condition for saturation, and  $M_2$ 's  $V_{DS}$  exceeds  $M_1$ 's  $V_{DS}$ , then  $M_2$  must also be in saturation.

Since both transistors are in saturation, have the same  $V_{GS}$  value, and have identical structures, the following must be true:

$$\frac{i_{ref}}{i_{out}} = \frac{\frac{k_n}{2}(V_{GS} - V_T)^2}{\frac{k_n}{2}(V_{GS} - V_T)^2} = 1 \to i_{ref} = i_{out}$$
 (8)

This circuit is called a "current mirror" because of the property demonstrated in equation (8). Given any input current  $i_{ref}$ , the output current  $i_{out}$  must be the same. Changing the dimensions of the transistors relative to one another can alter the output current by a constant factor [1].

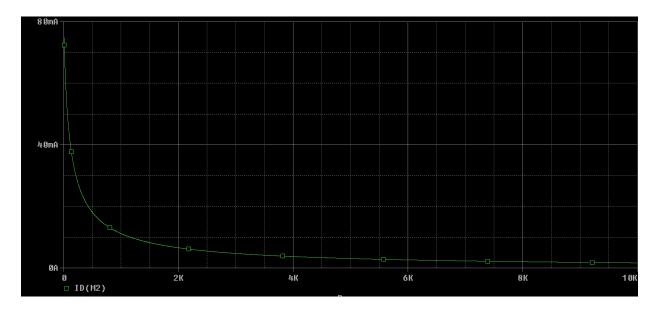


Figure 12:  $i_{out}$  versus  $R_1$  for Current Mirror in Figure (11)

In the extreme case where  $R_1$  is a short and  $V_T < V_{DD}$  (as it should be), where  $V_{DD}$  is the supply voltage, then  $V_{GS} = V_{DD} > V_T$ . Thus,  $M_1$  and there-

fore  $M_2$  are both in the saturation region. At this point,  $V_{GS}$  is maximum, and the maximum  $i_D$  should flow.

On the other hand, if  $R_1$  is an open circuit, current cannot flow through  $M_1$ 's drain. Furthermore, current cannot flow from  $M_1$ 's gate to its drain because it would need to be supplied by current from one of the transistors' gates. Therefore,  $M_1$  cannot receive any drain current. So, as  $R_1 \to \infty$ ,  $i_D = 0$ . Thus, as  $R_1$  is increased, it absorbs more and more of the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  until  $M_1$  operates in cutoff mode. Thus, the  $i_{ref}$  versus  $R_1$  curve should be downward sloping.

#### 4.2 Second Current Mirror Circuit

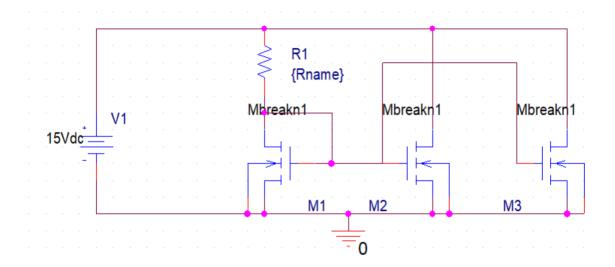


Figure 13: Second Current Mirror Circuit

The circuit in figure (13) is simply an extension of the circuit in figure (11). By the same physical principles described earlier, the currents through  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  should be individually identical to the current  $i_{ref}$  running through  $M_1$ . The  $i_D$  versus  $R_1$  curve should be essentially the same as the one in the previous circuit since the physical situation (voltages at each node of  $M_1$ ) should be the same.

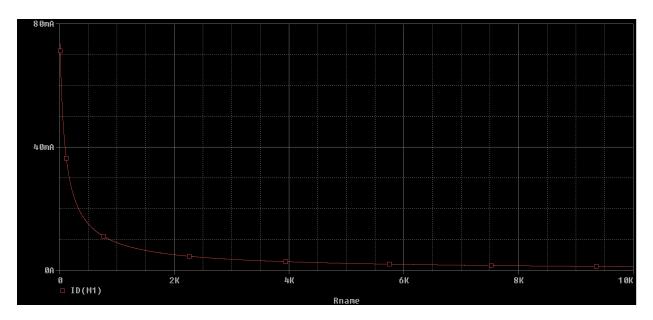


Figure 14:  $i_{D,M1}$  versus  $R_1$ 

Since the currents through  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  should each be  $i_{ref}$ , their sum should be about  $2i_{ref}$ . For instance, at  $R_1=10\Omega$ ,  $i_{ref}$  from figure (14) is about 75mA. The sum of the currents in figure (15) is about 150mA, twice that value. The curve follows the same trend, but with double the values for this reason.

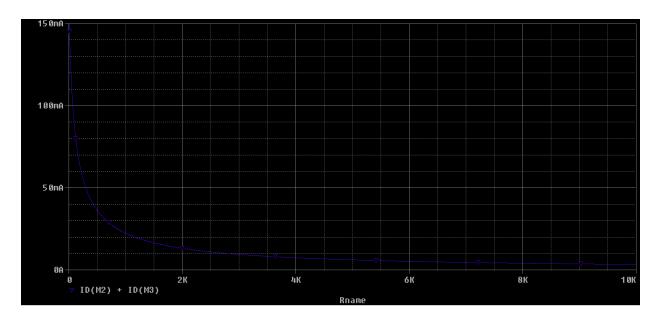


Figure 15:  $i_{D,M2} + i_{D,M3}$  versus  $R_1$ 

## References

 $[1] \ http://inf-server.inf.uth.gr/courses/ce433/tutorials/mosfet \% 20 current \% 20 mirror.pdf.$