# LECTURE 10 – MOS CAPACITOR MODEL AND LARGE SIGNAL MODEL DEPENDENCE LECTURE ORGANIZATION

#### **Outline**

- MOSFET capacitor model
- Dependence of the large signal model on process
- Dependence of the large signal model on voltage
- Dependence of the large signal model on temperature
- MOSFET reliability
- Summary

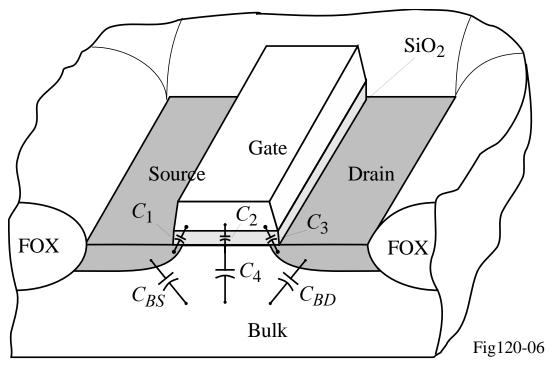
# CMOS Analog Circuit Design, 3rd Edition Reference

Pages 77-86 and new material

#### MOSFET CAPACITOR MODEL

# **Submicron Technology**

Physical perspective:

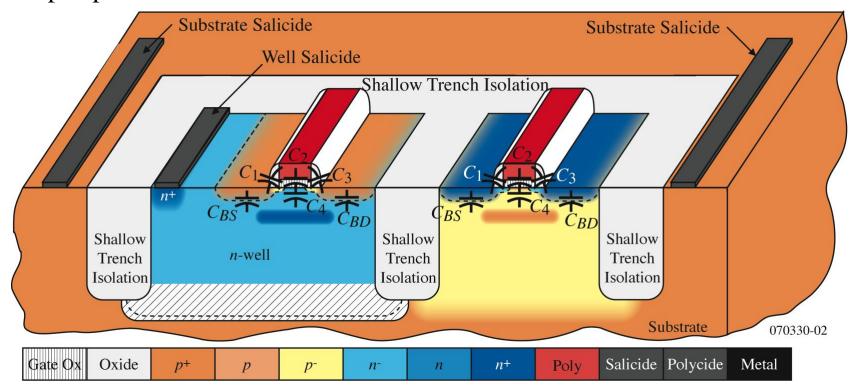


#### MOSFET capacitors consist of:

- Depletion capacitances
- Charge storage or parallel plate capacitances

# **Deep Submicron Technology**

#### Physical perspective:



#### MOSFET capacitors consist of:

- Depletion capacitances
- Charge storage or parallel plate capacitances

#### **MOSFET Depletion Capacitors**

#### Model:

1.) 
$$v_{BS} \leq FC \cdot PB$$

$$C_{BS} = \frac{CJ \cdot AS}{\left(1 - \frac{v_{BS}}{PB}\right)^{MJ}} + \frac{CJSW \cdot PS}{\left(1 - \frac{v_{BS}}{PB}\right)^{MJSW}},$$

and

2.) 
$$v_{BS} > FC \cdot PB$$

$$C_{BS} = \frac{CJ \cdot AS}{(1 - FC)^{1 + MJ}} \left[ 1 - (1 + MJ)FC + MJ \frac{V_{BS}}{PB} \right]$$

$$+\frac{CJSW \cdot PS}{(1 - FC)^{1+MJSW}} \left[ 1 - (1+MJSW)FC + MJSW \frac{V_{BS}}{PB} \right]$$

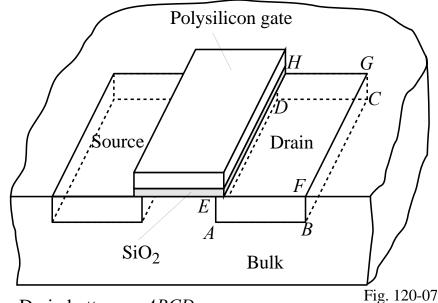
where

AS = area of the source

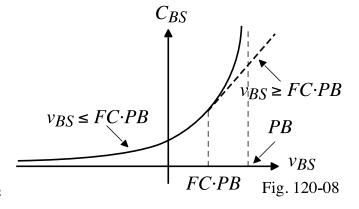
PS = perimeter of the source

*CJSW* = zero bias, bulk source sidewall capacitance

*MJSW* = bulk-source sidewall grading coefficient

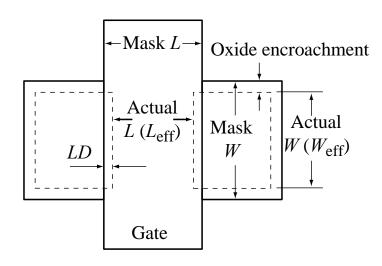


Drain bottom = ABCDDrain sidewall = ABFE + BCGF + DCGH + ADHE



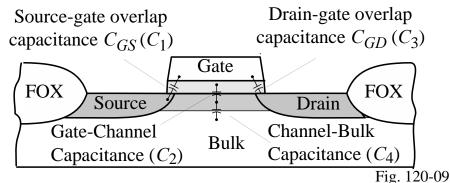
For the bulk-drain depletion capacitance replace "S" by "D" in the above.

# SM Charge Storage (Parallel Plate) MOSFET Capacitances - C<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>



Overlap capacitances:

$$C_1 = C_3 = \text{LD} \cdot W_{\text{eff}} \cdot C_{ox} = \text{CGSO or}$$
  
CGDO (LD  $\approx 0.015 \, \mu \text{m}$  for LDD structures)

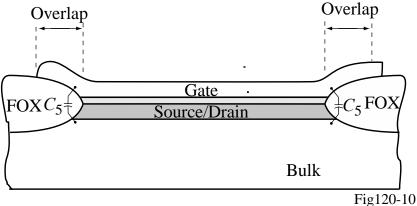


Channel capacitances:

 $C_2$  = gate-to-channel =  $C_{ox}W_{eff}$ ·(L-2LD) =  $C_{ox}W_{eff}$ · $L_{eff}$  $C_4$  = voltage dependent channelbulk/substrate capacitance

# **SM Charge Storage (Parallel Plate) MOSFET Capacitances -** *C***5**

View looking down the channel from source to drain

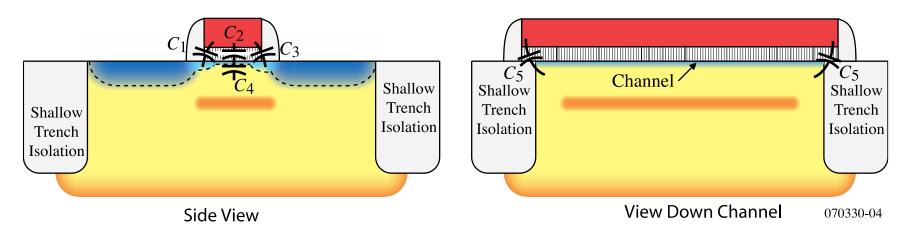


 $C_5 = CGBO$ 

Capacitance values based on an oxide thickness of 140 Å or  $C_{ox}$ =24.7 × 10<sup>-4</sup> F/m<sup>2</sup>:

Type	P-Channel	N-Channel	Units
CGSO	$220 \times 10^{-12}$	$220 \times 10^{-12}$	F/m
CGDO	$220 \times 10^{-12}$	$220 \times 10^{-12}$	F/m
CGBO	$700 \times 10^{-12}$	$700 \times 10^{-12}$	F/m
CJ	$560 \times 10^{-6}$	$770 \times 10^{-6}$	$F/m^2$
CJSW	$350 \times 10^{-12}$	$380 \times 10^{-12}$	F/m
MJ	0.5	0.5	
MJSW	0.35	0.38	

# DSM Charge Storage MOSFET Capacitances - C<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>5</sub>



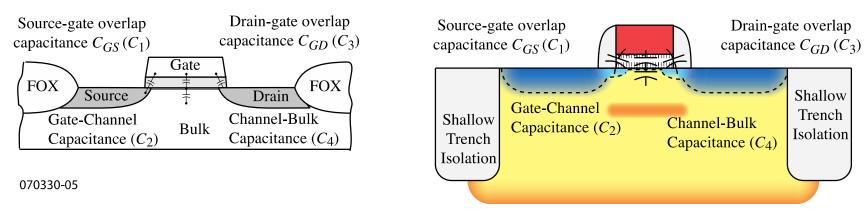
 $C_1$  and  $C_3$  are overlap capacitors due to lateral diffusion of the source and drain  $C_2$  is the gate to channel capacitance

 $C_4$  is the depletion capacitance between the channel and the bulk

 $C_5$  is the fringing capacitance between the gate and the bulk around the edges of the channel

#### **MOSFET Capacitors for the Cutoff Region**

#### Side view:



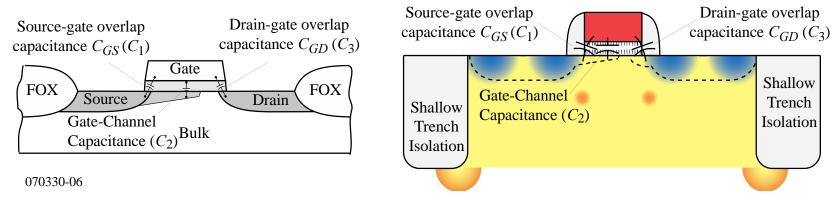
As the gate-source voltage varies from 0 to  $V_T$ , the channel-bulk capacitor varies from a very large capacitor (because of a very small depletion region) to a capacitor much smaller than  $C_2$ .

#### Capacitors in Cutoff:

$C_{GS}$	$C_1 = C_{OX} \cdot LD \cdot W = CGSO \cdot W$
$C_{GD}$	$C_3 = C_{OX} \cdot LD \cdot W = CGDO \cdot W$
$C_{GB}$	$C_2$ varies from $C_{ox} \cdot L \cdot W$ to $2C_5$
$C_{BD}$	$C_{BD} = (CJ \cdot AD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJSW}$
$C_{BS}$	$C_{BS} = (CJ \cdot AS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJSW}$

#### **MOSFET Capacitors for the Saturation Region**

#### Side view:



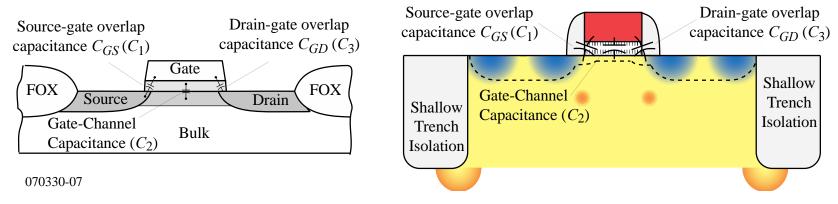
In the saturation region,  $C_4$ , becomes small and is not shown above.

#### Capacitors in Saturation:

$C_{GS}$	$C_1 = C_{ox} \cdot LD \cdot W + (2/3)C_{ox} \cdot L \cdot W = [CGSO + (2/3)C_{ox} \cdot L]W$
$C_{GD}$	$C_3 = C_{OX} \cdot LD \cdot W = CGDO \cdot W$
$C_{GB}$	$2C_5 = 2 \cdot CGBO \cdot W$
$C_{BD}$	$C_{BD} = (CJ \cdot AD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJSW}$
$C_{BS}$	$C_{BS} = (CJ \cdot AS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJSW}$

#### **MOSFET Capacitors for the Active Region**

#### Side view:



In the saturation region,  $C_4$ , becomes small and is not shown above.

# Capacitors in Active:

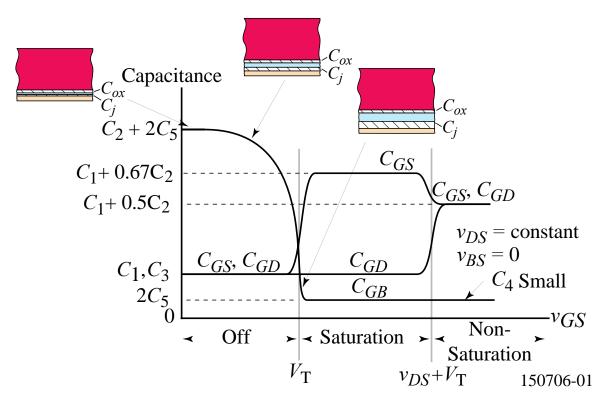
$C_{GS}$	$C_1 = C_{ox} \cdot LD \cdot W + (1/2)C_{ox} \cdot L \cdot W = [CGSO + (1/2)C_{ox} \cdot L]W$
$C_{GD}$	$C_3 = C_{ox} \cdot LD \cdot W + (1/2)C_{ox} \cdot L \cdot W = [CGDO + (1/2)C_{ox} \cdot L]W$
$C_{GB}$	$2C_5 = 2 \cdot CGBO \cdot W$
$C_{BD}$	$C_{BD} = (CJ \cdot AD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PD)/[1 - (v_{BD}/PB)]^{MJSW}$
$C_{BS}$	$C_{BS} = (CJ \cdot AS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJ} + (CJSW \cdot PS)/[1 - (v_{BS}/PB)]^{MJSW}$

# Illustration of $C_{GD}$ , $C_{GS}$ and $C_{GB}$

Comments on the variation of  $C_{BG}$  in the cutoff region:

$$C_{BG} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{C_2} + \frac{1}{C_4}} + 2C_5$$

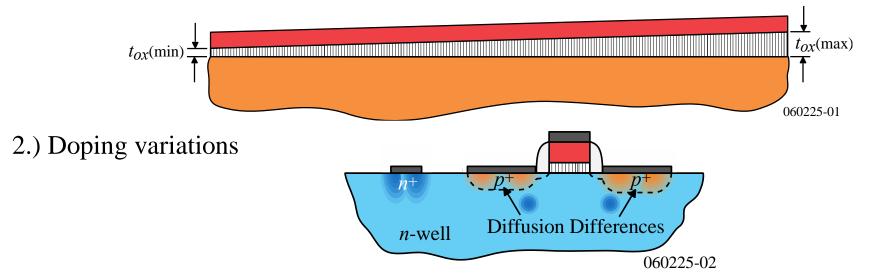
- 1.) For  $v_{GS} \approx 0$ ,  $C_{GB} \approx C_2 + 2C_5$  ( $C_4$  is large because of the thin inversion layer in weak inversion where  $V_{GS}$  is slightly less than  $V_T$ ))
- 2.) For  $0 < v_{GS} \le V_T$ ,  $C_{GB} \approx 2C_5$  ( $C_4$  is small because of the thicker inversion layer in strong inversion)



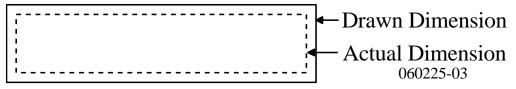
#### DEPENDENCE OF THE LARGE SIGNAL MODEL ON PROCESS

#### **How Does Technology Vary?**

1.) Thickness variations in layers (dielectrics and metal)



3.) Process biases – differences between the drawn and actual dimensions due to process (etching, lateral diffusion, etc.)



#### **Large Signal Model Dependence on Process Variations**

#### 1.) Threshold voltage

$$V_T = V_{T0} + \gamma \left( \sqrt{\left| -2\phi_F + v_{SB} \right|} - \sqrt{\left| -2\phi_F \right|} \right)$$

where

$$V_{T0} = \phi_{MS} - 2\phi_F - \frac{Q_{b0}}{C_{ox}} - \frac{Q_{SS}}{C_{ox}}$$
 and  $\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{2q\varepsilon_{Si}N_A}}{C_{ox}}$ 

If  $V_{BS} = 0$ , then  $V_T$  is dependent on doping and oxide thickness because

$$\phi_F = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{N_{SUB}}{n_i} \right)$$
 and  $C_{OX} \propto \frac{1}{t_{OX}}$ 

(Recall that the threshold is also determined by the threshold implant during processing)

#### 2.) Transconductance parameter

$$K' = \mu_o C_{ox} \propto \frac{1}{t_{ox}}$$

For short channel devices, the mobility is degraded as given by

$$\mu_{eff} = \frac{\mu_O}{1 + \theta(V_{GS} - V_T)}$$
 and  $\theta \approx \frac{2x \cdot 10^{-9} \text{m/V}}{t_{OX}}$ 

#### **Process Variation "Corners"**

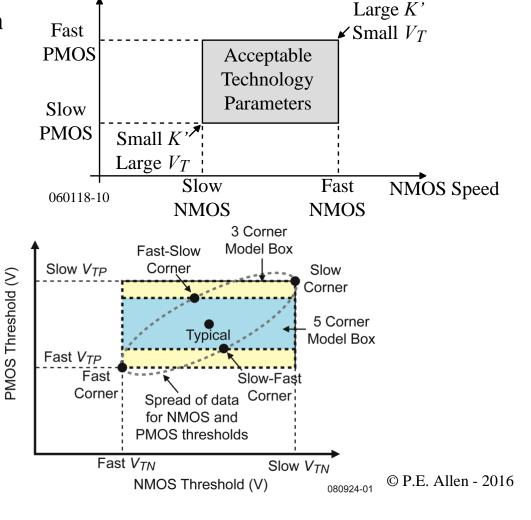
decrease.

For strong inversion operation, the primary influence is the oxide thickness,  $t_{ox}$ . We see that K' will tend to increase with decreasing oxide thickness whereas  $V_T$  tends to

PMOS Speed

If the "speed" of a transistor is increased by increasing K' and decreasing  $V_T$ , then the variation of technology can be expressed on a two-dimensional graph resulting in a rectangular area of "acceptable" process limitation.

Three corner versus five corner models



#### DEPENDENCE OF THE LARGE SIGNAL MODEL ON VOLTAGE

# What is Voltage Variation?

Voltage variation is the influence of power supply voltage on the component.

(There is also power supply influence on the circuit called power supply rejection ratio, PSRR. We will deal with this in a later lecture.)

Power supply variation comes from:

- 1.) Influence of depletion region widths on components.
- 2.) Nonlinearity (e.g., velocity saturation)
- 3.) Breakdown voltage

Note: Because the large-signal model for the MOSFET includes all the influences of voltage on the transistor, we will focus on passive components except for breakdown.

#### **Models for Voltage Dependence of a Component**

#### 1.) *i*th-order Voltage Coefficients

In general a variable y = f(v) which is a function of voltage, v, can be expressed as a Taylor series,

$$y(v = V_0) \approx y(V_0) + a_1(v - V_0) + a_2(v - V_0)^2 + a_3(v - V_0)^3 + \cdots$$

where the coefficients,  $a_i$ , are defined as,

$$a_1 = \frac{df(v)}{dv} \Big|_{v=V_0}, a_2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2f(v)}{dv^2} \Big|_{v=V_0}, \dots$$

The coefficients,  $a_i$ , are called the first-order, second-order, .... voltage coefficients.

2.) Fractional Voltage Coefficient or Voltage Coefficient

Generally, only the first-order coefficients are of interest.

In the characterization of temperature dependence, it is common practice to use a term called *fractional voltage coefficient*,  $VC_F$ , which is defined as,

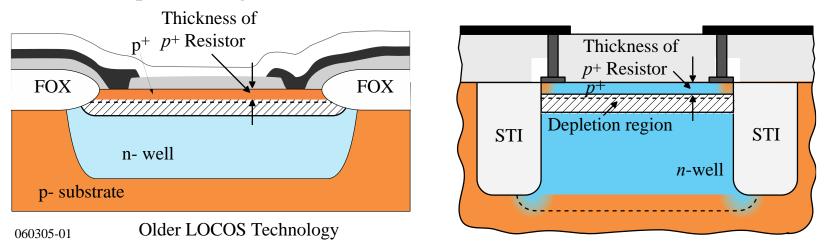
$$VC_F(v=V_0) = \frac{1}{f(v=V_0)} \frac{df(v)}{dv} |_{v=V_0}$$
 parts per million/V (ppm/V)

or more simply,

$$VC_F = \frac{1}{f(v)} \frac{df(v)}{dv}$$
 parts per million/V (ppm/V)

#### <u>Influence of Voltage on a Diffused Resistor – Depletion Region</u>

Influence of the depletion region on the  $p^+$  resistor:



As the voltage at the terminals of the resistor become smaller than the *n*-well potential, the depletion region will widen causing the thickness of the resistor to decrease.

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{tW} \propto \sqrt{V_R}$$

where  $V_R$  is the reverse bias voltage from the resistor to the well.

This effect is worse for well resistors because the doping concentration of the resistor is smaller.

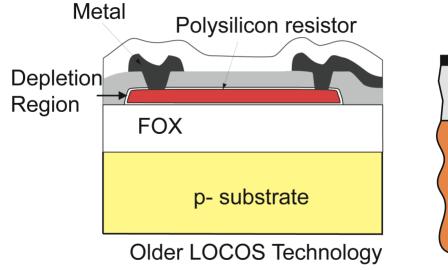
Voltage coefficient for diffused resistors  $\approx 200-800 \text{ ppm/V}$ 

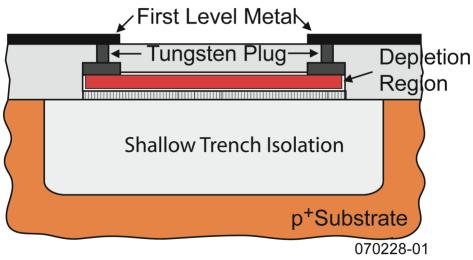
Voltage coefficient for well resistors  $\approx 8000 \text{ ppm/V}$ 

# **Voltage Coefficient of Polysilicon Resistors**

Why should polysilicon resistors be sensitive to voltage?

There is a small depletion region between the polysilicon and its surrounding material that has a very small dependence on the voltage between the polysilicon and the surrounding material.





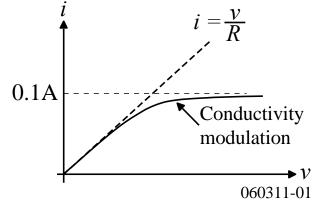
# **Voltage Nonlinearity and Breakdown Voltage**

Conductivity modulation:

As the current in a resistor increases, the conductivity becomes modulated and the

resistance increases.

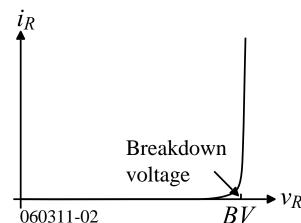
Example of a *n*-well resistor:



As the reverse bias voltage across a *pn* junction becomes large, at some point, called the breakdown voltage, the current will rapidly increase. Both transistors, diodes and depletion capacitors experience this breakdown.

Model for current multiplication factor:

$$i_R = M \cdot I_R$$
 where  $M = \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{v_R}{BV}\right)^n}$ 



# DEPENDENCE OF THE LARGE SIGNAL MODEL ON TEMPERATURE <u>Temperature Dependence of the MOSFET</u>

Transconductance parameter:

$$K'(T) = K'(T_0) (T/T_0)^{-1.5}$$
 (Exponent becomes +1.5 below 77°K)

Threshold Voltage:

$$V_T(T) = V_T(T_0) + \alpha(T - T_0) + \cdots$$

Typically  $\alpha_{NMOS} = -2\text{mV}/^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $-3\text{mV}/^{\circ}\text{C}$  from 200°K to 400°K (PMOS has a + sign) <u>Example</u>

Find the value of  $I_D$  for a NMOS transistor at 27°C and 100°C if  $V_{GS}$  = 2V and W/L = 5µm/1µm if  $K'(T_0) = 110$ µA/V<sup>2</sup> and  $V_T(T_0) = 0.7$ V and  $T_0 = 27$ °C and  $\alpha_{NMOS} = -2$ mV/°C. *Solution* 

At room temperature, the value of drain current is,

$$I_D(27^{\circ}\text{C}) = \frac{110\mu\text{A/V}^2 \cdot 5\mu\text{m}}{2 \cdot 1\mu\text{m}} (2-0.7)^2 = 465\mu\text{A}$$

At  $T = 100^{\circ}\text{C} (373^{\circ}\text{K})$ ,  $K'(100^{\circ}\text{C}) = K'(27^{\circ}\text{C}) (373/300)^{-1.5} = 110 \mu\text{A/V}^2 \cdot 0.72 = 79.3 \mu\text{A/V}^2$ and  $V_T(100^{\circ}\text{C}) = 0.7 - (.002)(73^{\circ}\text{C}) = 0.554\text{V}$ 

: 
$$I_D(100^{\circ}\text{C}) = \frac{79.3 \mu \text{A/V}^2 \cdot 5 \mu \text{m}}{2 \cdot 1 \mu \text{m}} (2-0.554)^2 = 415 \mu \text{A}$$
 (Repeat with  $V_{GS} = 2.0855 \text{V}$ )

#### **Zero Temperature Coefficient (ZTC) Point for MOSFETs**

For a given value of gate-source voltage, the drain current of the MOSFET will be independent of temperature. Consider the following circuit:

Assume that the transistor is saturated and that:

$$\mu = \mu_0 \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-1.5}$$
 and  $V_T(T) = V_T(T_0) + \alpha(T - T_0)$ 

: 
$$I_D(T) = \frac{\mu_0 C_{OX} W}{2L} \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-1.5} [V_{GS} - V_{T0} - \alpha(T - T_0)]^2$$

$$V_{GS} =$$

$$\overline{\phantom{a}}$$
Fig. 4.5-12

$$\frac{dI_D}{dT} = \frac{-3\mu_0 C_{ox} W}{4LT_o} \left(\frac{T}{T_o}\right)^{-2.5} [V_{GS} - V_{TO} - \alpha(T - T_o)]^2 - \alpha \frac{\mu_0 C_{ox} W}{L} \left(\frac{T}{T_o}\right)^{-1.5} [V_{GS} - V_{TO} - \alpha(T - T_o)] = 0$$

$$\therefore V_{GS} - V_{T0} - \alpha (T - T_0) = \frac{-4T\alpha}{3} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad V_{GS}(ZTC) = V_{T0} - \alpha T_0 - \frac{\alpha T}{3}$$

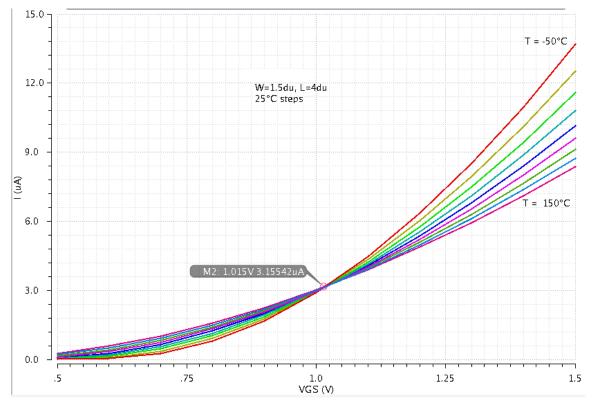
Let  $K' = 20 \mu \text{A/V}^2$ , W/L = 0.375,  $\alpha = -0.0016 \text{V/}^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $V_{T0} = 0.46 \text{V}$ .

At 
$$T=27^{\circ}\text{C}(300^{\circ}\text{K})$$
,  $V_{GS}(\text{ZTC})=0.46-(-0.0016)(300^{\circ}\text{K})-(0.333)(-0.0016)(300^{\circ}\text{K})=1.10\text{V}$ 

At 
$$T = 27^{\circ}\text{C}$$
 (300°K),  $I_D = (20\mu\text{A/V}^2)(1.5/4)(1.10-0.46)^2 = 3.07\mu\text{A}$ 

# **Experimental Verification of the ZTC Point**

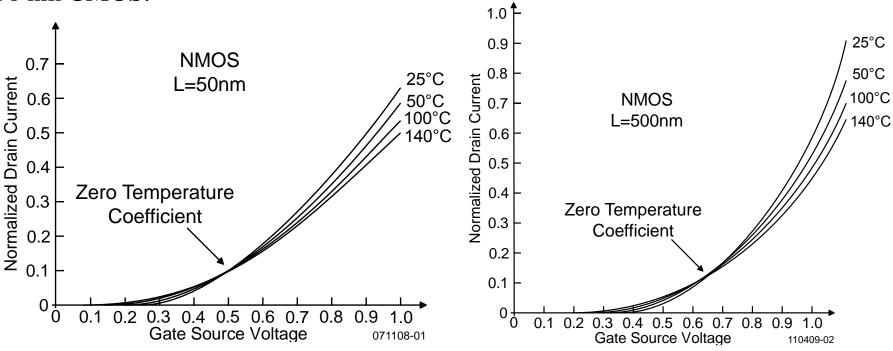
The plot below is the simulation results for an n-channel MOSFET with  $W=1.5\mu m$  and  $L=4\mu m$ .



A similar result holds for the p-channel MOSFET.

#### **ZTC Point for UDSM Technology**



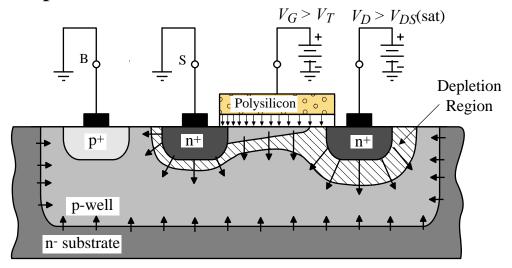


Note that the ZTC point can be close to  $V_{DD}$ . PMOS will have similar characteristics.

# **Bulk-Drain (Bulk-Source) Leakage Currents**

Cross-section of a NMOS in a p-well:





 $V_{GS} < V_T$ :

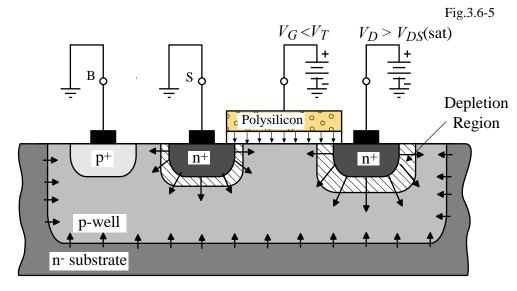


Fig.3.6-6

#### **Temperature Modeling of the PN Junction**

PN Junctions (Reverse-biased only):

$$-i_{D} \cong I_{s} = qA \left[ \frac{Dppno}{L_{p}} + \frac{Dnnpo}{L_{n}} \right] \cong \frac{qAD}{L} \frac{n_{i}^{2}}{N} = KT^{3} \exp \left( \frac{-V_{Go}}{V_{t}} \right)$$

Differentiating with respect to temperature gives,

$$\frac{dI_{s}}{dT} = \frac{3KT^{3}}{T} \exp\left(\frac{-V_{Go}}{V_{t}}\right) + \frac{qKT^{3}V_{Go}}{KT^{2}} \exp\left(\frac{-V_{Go}}{V_{t}}\right) = \frac{3I_{s}}{T} + \frac{I_{s}}{T} \frac{V_{Go}}{V_{t}}$$

$$TC_{F} = \frac{dI_{S}}{I_{s}dT} = \frac{3}{T} + \frac{1}{T} \frac{V_{Go}}{V_{t}}$$

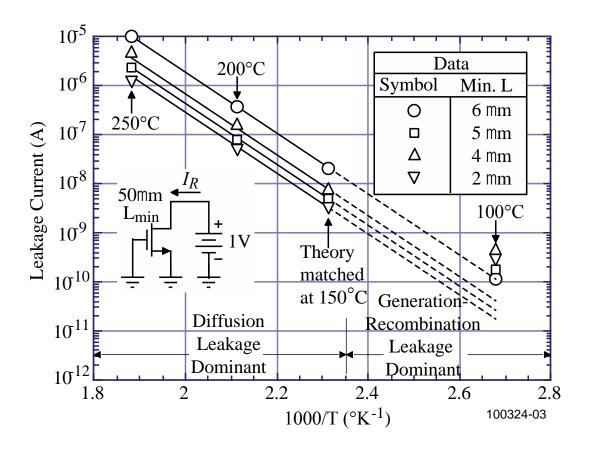
#### **Example**

Assume that the temperature is  $300^{\circ}$ K (room temperature) and calculate the reverse diode current change and the  $TC_F$  for a  $5^{\circ}$ K increase.

#### **Solution**

The  $TC_F$  can be calculated from the above expression as  $TC_F = 0.01 + 0.155 = 0.165$ . Since the  $TC_F$  is change per degree, the reverse current will increase by a factor of 1.165 for every degree K (or °C) change in temperature. Multiplying by 1.165 five times gives an increase of approximately 2. Thus, the reverse saturation current approximately doubles for every 5°C temperature increase. (Experimental is closer to 8°C.)

# **Experimental Verification of the PN Junction Temperature Dependence**



Theory:

$$I_s(T) \propto T^3 \exp\left(\frac{V_G(T)}{kT}\right)$$

#### <u>Temperature Modeling of the PN Junction – Continued</u>

PN Junctions (Forward biased  $-v_D$  constant):

$$i_D \cong I_s \exp\left(\frac{v_D}{V_t}\right)$$

Differentiating this expression with respect to temperature and assuming that the diode voltage is a constant ( $v_D = V_D$ ) gives

$$\frac{di_D}{dT} = \frac{i_D}{I_s} \frac{dI_s}{dT} - \frac{1}{T} \frac{V_D}{V_t} i_D$$

The fractional temperature coefficient for  $i_D$  is

$$\frac{1}{i_D}\frac{di_D}{dT} = \frac{1}{I_S}\frac{dI_S}{dT} - \frac{V_D}{TV_t} = \frac{3}{T} + \left[\frac{V_{Go} - V_D}{TV_t}\right]$$

If  $V_D$  is assumed to be 0.6 volts, then the fractional temperature coefficient is equal to 0.01+(0.155-0.077) = 0.0879. The forward diode current will approx. double for a  $10^{\circ}$ C. PN Junctions (Forward biased  $-i_D$  constant):

$$V_D = V_t \ln(I_D/I_s)$$

Differentiating with respect to temperature gives

$$\frac{dv_D}{dT} = \frac{v_D}{T} - V_t \left( \frac{1}{I_s} \frac{dI_s}{dT} \right) = \frac{v_D}{T} - \frac{3V_t}{T} - \frac{V_{Go}}{T} = -\left[ \frac{V_{Go} - v_D}{T} \right] - \frac{3V_t}{T} \approx -2.3 \text{ mV/}^{\circ}\text{C if } v_D = V_D = 0.6\text{V}$$

#### **Resistor Dependence on Temperature**

#### Diffused Resistors:

The temperature dependence of resistors depends mostly on the doping level of diffused and implanted resistors. As the doping level or sheet resistance increases from  $100 \ \Omega/\Box$  to  $400 \ \Omega/\Box$ , the temperature coefficient varies from about  $+1000 \ \text{ppm/°C}$  to  $+4000 \ \text{ppm/°C}$ . Diffused and implanted resistors have good thermal conduction to the substrate or well.

#### Polysilicon Resistors:

Typically has a sheet resistance of 20  $\Omega/\Box$  to 80  $\Omega/\Box$  and has poor thermal conduction because it is electrically isolated by oxide layers.

#### Metal:

Metal is often used for resistors and has a positive temperature coefficient.

Temperature Coefficients of Resistors:

n-well = 4000 ppm/°C

Diffusion =  $+1500 \text{ ppm}/^{\circ}\text{C}$ 

Polysilicon =  $500-2000 \text{ ppm/}^{\circ}\text{C}$ 

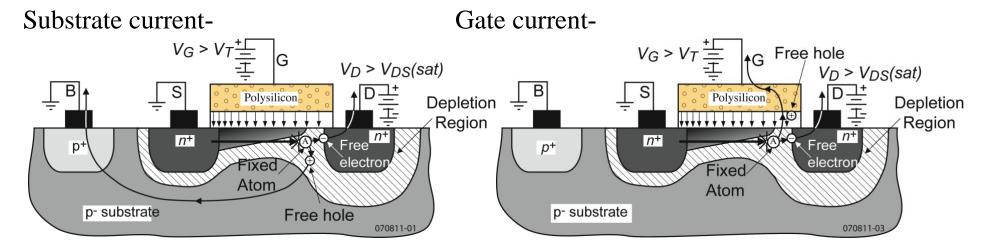
Ion implanted =  $+400 \text{ ppm}/^{\circ}\text{C}$ 

 $Metal = +3800 \text{ ppm/}^{\circ}\text{C (aluminum)}$ 

#### MOSFET RELIABILITY

#### **Hot Carrier Injection**

Hot carriers depend on channel length. Longer channel lengths minimize hot carrier effects. The worst-case hot carrier degradation occurs in NMOS devices when the gate voltage is between  $V_T$  and  $0.5V_{DS}$  and  $V_{DS}$  is large.

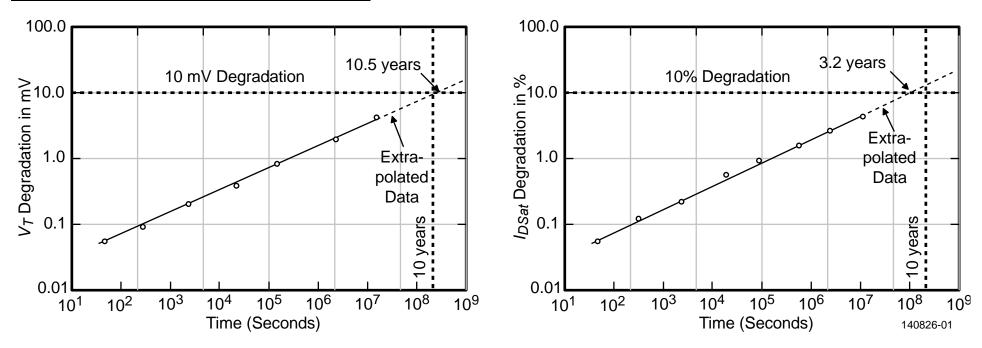


#### Target specifications:

- 1.) No more than 100mV change in  $V_T$  within a year of stress.
- 2.) No more than a 10% change in  $I_{Dsat}$  or  $R_{dson}$  within a year of stress.

Substrate current is a measure of hot carrier injection.

#### **Typical NMOS Reliability Data**

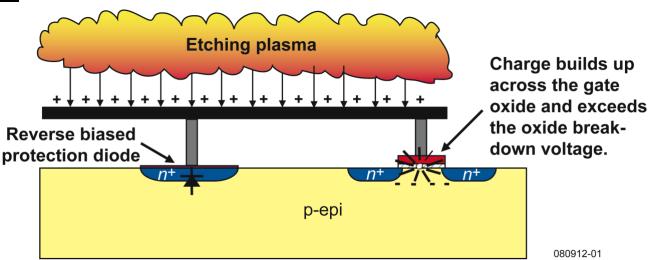


Note the extrapolation of short time data out to a year or more.

#### Also:

- NBTI (negative bias temperature instability) PMOS with large gate-source voltage
- GOI (gate oxide integrity) reliability of dielectrics

#### **Antenna Effect**



- The antenna effect is the situation during processing the charged plasmas that are used put charge on the metal and if this metal is connected to the gate of a MOSFET and the metal area is large enough, the oxide can breakdown.
- Oxide thicknesses less than 100Å are more susceptible to the antenna effect (plasma induced discharge).
- A reverse biased diode connected from the metal to the semiconductor can be used to leak this charge during processing (at high temperatures) and protect the gate oxides.
- Design rules exists to avoid having metal with large areas connected to gates (metal jumpers).

#### **SUMMARY**

- The large signal capacitance model includes depletion and parallel plate capacitors
- The depletion capacitors  $C_{BD}$  and  $C_{BS}$  vary with their reverse bias voltage
- The capacitors  $C_{GD}$ ,  $C_{GS}$ , and  $C_{GB}$  have different values for the regions of cutoff, active and saturated
- The large signal model varies with process primarily through  $\mu_o$  and  $t_{ox}$
- Voltage dependence of resistors and capacitors is primarily due to the influence of depletion regions
- The temperature dependent large signal model of the MOSFET yields a gate-source voltage where the derivative of drain current with respect to temperature is zero
- Other MOSFET temperature dependence comes from the leakage currents across reverse biased *pn* junctions
- MOSFET reliability concerns degradation in performance over a specified lifetime