### INSTICE PRODUCED 20

Print engine name:

PrintServer 20

Print engine version:

17

Printer firmware version:

32

Server Adobe PostScript version:

48.3

Server software version:

V2.0

Server network node:

crawford

Server name:

crawford

Server job number:

28

Client software version:

WRL-1.0

Client network node:

util

Client name:

flm

Client job name:

dc\_xstrs.ps.732547235

Submitted at:

Fri Mor 19 08:26:10 1993

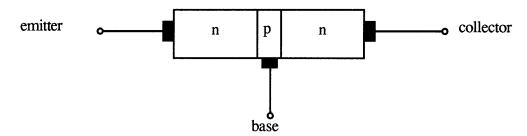
Printed at:

Fri Mar 19 08:26:24 1993

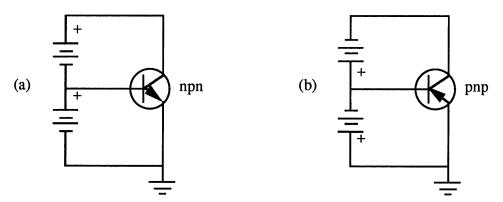
# flm@util dc\_xstrs.ps.732547235

#### DC CHARACTERISTICS OF BJTs AND FETs

Before we can understand how to design circuits usings BJTs and FETs we must review their basic properties. These basic properties are functions of the operational mechanisms of these devices, i.e. the solid state physics which is covered in other courses. The bipolar transistor, or BJT, comes in two types: npn and pnp referring to the physical construction of the device. The npn transistor is a thin slice of p-type material sandwiched between two slabs of n-type material as shown below.

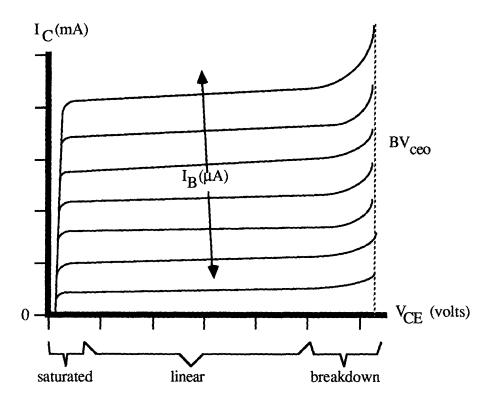


The middle layer is called the base; the substrate (or base upon which the entire structure is fabricated) is called the collector; and the top layer is called the emitter. The net result of this construction is that two diode junctions are formed: one between the collector and base and the other between the base and emitter. In practice, both transistor junctions (the diodes referred to above) are forward biased. Proper bias for npn and pnp transistors are shown below.



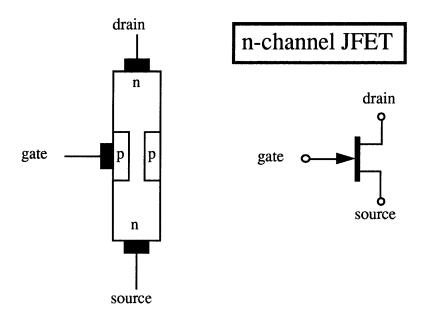
The net result of this bias is that current continuously flows through the junctions of the transistor; however, it is the relative magnitudes of these currents and the relationships between these currents that make the transistor an amplifier. For an npn transistor we can regard current as entering the transistor at both the base and collector and exiting at the emitter. This makes the emitter current the sum of the collector and base currents. The base current is quite small, however, and controls the collector current. The ratio of collector current to base current is the dc beta of the transistor and is denoted by  $\beta_{DC}$ . This ability to amplify current is what makes the bipolar transistor so useful, and even though the primary mode of operation of the BJT is current based, it can usefully function as a voltage and power amplifier when placed in a proper circuit.

The operation of the BJT can be summarized in the relationship between the base current  $I_B$ , the collector current  $I_C$  and the collector-emitter voltage  $V_{CE}$ . The exact relationship can be derived only after a fair digression into physical electronics. Suffice it to say that all bipolar junction transistors have characteristics similar to those shown in the graph below.



For amplifier operation the BJT is used in the "linear" region where the slope of the  $I_{C^-}V_{CE}$  curve is almost constant. This linear region makes possible an amplifier with very little distortion as will be discussed later. One wants to avoid operation, for amplifiers, in the saturated region characterized by small  $V_{CE}$  (typically 0.2 volts or less). Similarly, one wants to avoid operation in the region to the far right of the graph. This is the region in which large electric field strengths from the large  $V_{CE}$  can destroy the transistor junction.

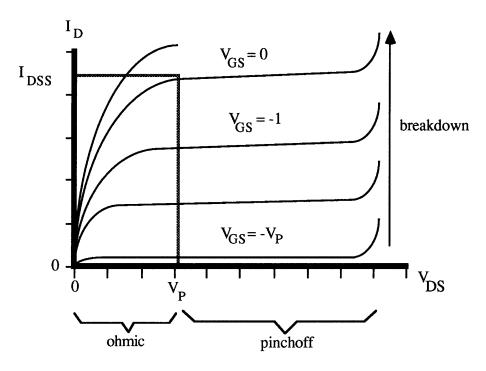
Field effect transistors, or FETs, are voltage-biased rather than current biased like BJTs. The basic structure of the FET is a thin connection between two terminals of similar semiconducting material. For example, the p-type material is used to connect two pieces of n-type material through a narrow n-type gate region as shown below. The two pieces of n-type material are known as the drain and source with current flow from the drain to the source for the FET shown below. The p-type/n-type connecting region is known as the channel region and the p-type material is called the gate.



The drain current is at its maximum value  $I_{DSS}$  when the gate-source voltage is zero. The precise definition of  $I_{DSS}$  is that it is the short circuit drain current, i.e. the drain current that flows when the gate is shorted to the source. For operation of the FET as a control device the gate-source voltage must be negative. This creates a reverse biased diode and produces a depletion region in the neighborhood of the gate. This depletion region reduces the amount of free carriers and consequently reduces the current flow between the source and drain. As the gate-source potential becomes more negative it eventually reaches a point called the pinchoff voltage  $V_P$  where the gate depletion regions close together and the source-drain current becomes essentially zero. The exact relationship between the drain current and  $V_{GS}$  is an exact square-law relationship:

$$I_{D} = I_{DSS} \left( 1 - \frac{|V_{GS}|}{V_{P}} \right)^{2}$$

The pinchoff voltage (actually  $-V_P$ ) is also the drain-source voltage which marks the boundary between the ohmic and pinch-off regions of operation of the FET. Essentially, the FET behaves like a variable (but non-linear) resistance in the ohmic region and then remains essentially constant for  $V_{DS} > V_P$ . For amplifiers it is this linear or pinch-off region that is of interest. In the pinch-off region the drain current is almost linearly proportional to the  $V_{GS}$  and independent of  $V_{DS}$  (see graph below).



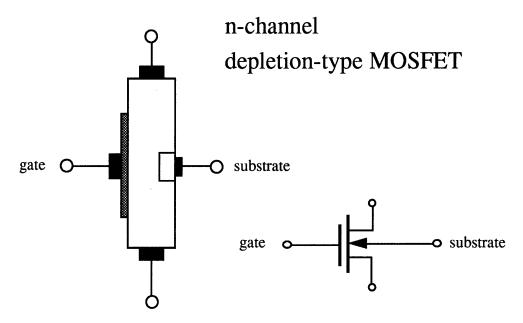
The ratio of change in  $I_D$  to the corresponding change in  $V_{GS}$  is known as the device transconductance  $g_m$  and is of fundamental concern when using the FET as an amplifier. The transconductance when the gate-source voltage is zero is denoted by  $g_{mo}$  and is often specified by the transistor manufacturer. The transconductance  $g_{mo}$ , the drain saturation current  $I_{DSS}$  and the pinch-off voltage  $V_P$  are all related by the relationship

$$g_{mo} = \frac{2I_{DSS}}{|V_P|}$$

where |V<sub>P</sub>| is the absolute value of the pinch-off voltage.

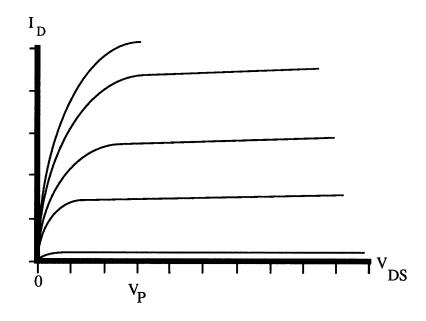
The above discussion was for a n-channel junction FET, or JFET for short. The same device with the semiconductor materials reversed is known as a p-channel JFET.

There is a special version of the JFET known as the MOSFET which is of particular interest in this course. The MOSFET or Insulated Gate FET, is a FET in which a silicon dioxide layer electrically insulates the gate electrode from the rest of the transistor. The internal structure of a MOSFET is shown below.



Since the FET operates by the electrode field created between the gate and the drain and source regions the insulated gate FET also functions in the same manner as an ordinary FET. However, the insulated gate now shifts the gate-source voltages and effectively reduces any already small gate currents to effectively zero.

MOSFETs are characterized as enhancement or enhance/depletion mode devices depending upon the properties of the channel. In enhancement mode MOSFETs the drain current increases as  $V_{GS}$  increases;however, the channel only exists when  $V_{GS}$  is greater than a certain threshold voltage  $V_T$ . In enhancement/depletion mode MOSFETs the drain current increases as  $V_{GS}$  increases and the FET will continue to operate for  $V_{GS} > 0$ . Note that enhancement mode MOSFETs are the only type of FET which can operate with a forward biased gate. It must be pointed out that the polarity of  $V_{GS}$  is determined by the type of the bulk semiconducting material. Characteristic curves for n-type (not n-channel) enhancement and enhancement/depletion MOSFETs are shown below.



$V_{ m GS}$		
enhancement		enhancement /depletion
•	+5	+2
	+4	+1
	+3	0
	+2	-1
	+1	-2
	0	

The structure of the MOSFET is such that multiple gates can be fabricated for a common drain-source geometry. This allows the MOSFET to be used for logic circuits and active devices such as mixers where it is important to keep the device inputs electrically isolated from each other.

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Server name:

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Server job number:

86

Client software version:

WRL-1.0

Client network node:

util

Client name:

flm

Client job name:

Amplifiers.ps.735168829

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Sun Apr 18 17:48:49 19933X

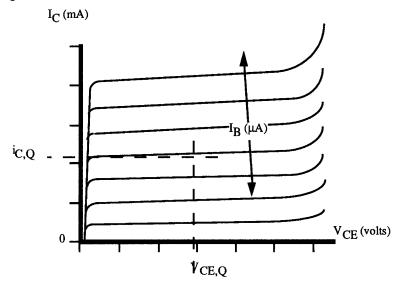
Printed at:

Sun Apr 18 17:48:50 1993

# flm@util Amplifiers.ps.735168829

### **AMPLIFIER PRINCIPLES**

The basic dc characteristics of BJTs and FETs have been developed in previous sections. In this section we will see how those characteristics can be used to permit amplification of current or voltage mode signals.



Consider the basic dc characteristics curve of a npn BJT shown above. The collector current is a function of both  $I_B$  and  $V_{CE}$ . To understand the operation of the npn BJT as an amplifier write

 $i_C = f(v_{CE}, i_B)$  and expand  $i_C$  in a Taylor series about the initial collector—emitter voltage and base current as shown below

$$i_{C} \approx i_{C,Q} + \Delta v_{CE} \frac{\partial f \left(v_{CE}, i_{B}\right)}{\partial v_{CE}} + \Delta i_{B} \frac{\partial f \left(v_{CE}, i_{B}\right)}{\partial i_{B}}$$

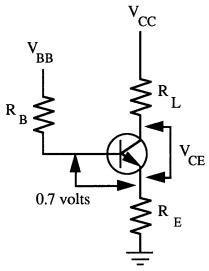
The above expression does not seem to resemble an amplifier, but note that if our initial collector–emitter voltage and base current are situated in the "linear" region of the characteristic curve the partial derivative of collector current with respect to collector–emitter voltage must be approximately zero. This allows us to re-write the above expression as

$$\Delta i_{B} = i_{C} - i_{C,Q} \approx \Delta i_{B} \frac{\partial f(v_{CE}, i_{B})}{\partial i_{B}} = \Delta i_{B} \beta$$

which indicates that any change in base current causes a change in collector current. If the change in collector current is larger than the change in base current we have an amplifier. This is an important concept and is the reason why we always operate amplifiers in the so-called "linear" part of their operating curves—to remove the functional dependence and make the amplification a simple constant.

Now that we understand the mathematics of a BJT amplifier, what circuit topology do we need to implement the amplifier? First, we need a circuit to establish an initial base current and collector-emitter voltage. A circuit which will accomplish this is shown below. Note that the collector-emitter voltage is established by the voltage drops across the emitter and collector

resistors. The base current is determined by the base resistance, the voltage drop across the base-emitter junction (about 0.7 volts for a silicon BJT), and the voltage drop across the emitter resistance. Using Kirchhoff's Voltage Law we can write equations for the base and collector circuits. As noted before the emitter current is the sum of the collector and base currents; but, as the collector current is usually much larger than the base current, we will use the approximation that the emitter current is approximately the collector current,  $I_C \approx I_E$ .

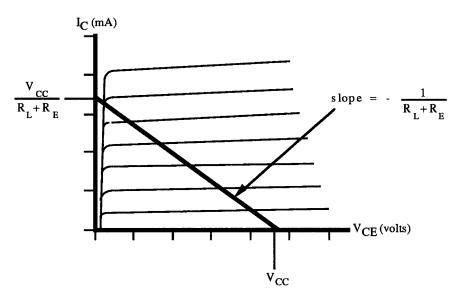


The equation for the collector current can be re-written as

$$I_{C} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{R_{L} - R_{E}} = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_{L} - R_{E}} - \frac{V_{CE}}{R_{L} - R_{E}}$$

and, when plotted on a transistor characteristic curve as shown below, has a simple interpretation. The first term is the y-intercept of the equation and represents the collector current for zero collector-emitter voltage. This zero collector-emitter voltage corresponds to the transistor condition known as "saturation" and will produce the maximum collector current. From our characteristic curves we see that saturation occurs when the collector-emitter voltage drops below approximately 0.2 volts. The second term is simply the slope of the

relationship between the collector-emitter voltage and the collector current. Because any output voltage must be developed across the resistors used in this expression it is called the "load line."

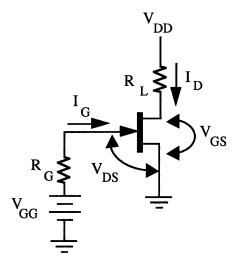


The load is represented by the equation we wrote above to model the transistor load (collector) circuit. The second equation relates the emitter current (assumed to be approximately the collector current), the base current and the base-emitter voltage. This latter voltage represents the voltage drop across the forward biased base-emitter junction which looks like an ordinary silicon diode with a constant voltage drop of approximately 0.7 volts. To solve this equation

$$V_{BB} = I_B R_B + V_{BE} + I_C R_E$$

we note that the collector current is known from the load line; the solution of this second equation then represents the intersection of the load line with a characteristic curve for a constant base current. The only additional consideration is that this solution must lie in the transistor's "linear" region if it is to be used as a good amplifier. The simultaneous solution of these two equations is known as the Q-point (or quiescent point) and represents the dc (or steady) state of the transistor. Returning to the Taylor series expansion of the collector current we see that once the Q-point has been selected according to the above equations any small variation in base current will cause a larger variation in collector current. This is the basis of amplification in a BJT.

A similar situation holds true for a FET except that the circuit is somewhat simpler to analyze. Consider the common-source FET amplifier shown below.



We can write the equation of a load line for the drain-source circuit:

$$I_{D} = \frac{V_{DD} - V_{DS}}{R_{L}} = \frac{V_{DD}}{R_{L}} - \frac{V_{DS}}{R_{L}}$$

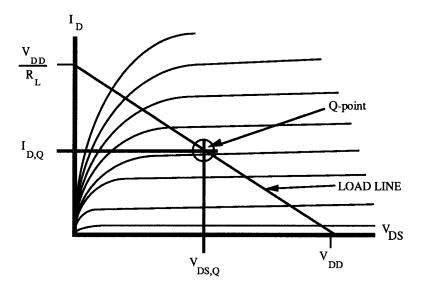
The situation seems more complicated for the gate-source junction than for the BJT. KVL yields an equation which includes the gate current, source current and the gate-source voltage.

$$V_{GG} + I_G R_G + V_{GS} = 0$$

This equation is in three unknowns and we have only two equations. The solution is much simpler than it appears because the effective gate current is zero. There is at most a small leakage current through the gate which can be ignored for most practical purposes. Consequently, KVL for the gate circuit yields

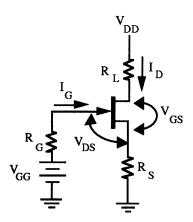
$$V_{GG} \approx -V_{GS}$$

This situation is nearly identical to that for the BJT. We can plot the load line on the transistor characteristic curve as shown below.



This gives us an equation which will accept a number of gate-source voltages as solutions. If we pick a gate-source voltage which places us in the center of the FETs linear region, we can use the resulting circuit as an amplifier.

Consider the common-source amplifier shown below.



The device has both drain and source "load" resistors which establish the Q-point for the drain-source circuit. To bias the circuit we must choose an appropriate gate-source voltage on the characteristic curve. However, how do we pick the gate resistor shown in the circuit above to create a gate-source voltage other than zero? The answer is simple, the gate current  $I_G$  which we previously ignored and will continue to neglect is so small that the voltage drop across the gate resistor can be neglected. The gate bias voltage  $V_{GG}$  is set to zero and  $R_G$  connected directly to ground putting the gate potential  $V_G$  at zero volts. The source, on the other hand, is at some positive potential  $V_S$  above ground. The gate to source potential is then  $V_G$ - $V_S$  which is the required negative potential. There is a very small "leakage" current through the gate; however, this leakage gate current is so small that  $R_G$  must be very large for most FETs—on the order of 0.5-2 Megohms or more - and a good "rule of thumb" is to use a 1/2 to 1 M $\Omega$  resistor to bias a JFET. A more sophisticated analysis would reveal that  $R_G$  can be selected to optimize the bias stability of the amplifier just as the emitter resistor can be selected to stabilize the bias point of a BJT.