

APPLICATION NOTE

An Introduction to FETs

INTRODUCTION

The basic principle of the field-effect transistor (FET) has been known since J.E. Lilienfeld's patent of 1925. The theoretical description of a FET made by Schockley in 1952 paved the way for development of a classic electronic device which provides the designer with the means by which he can accomplish nearly every circuit function. The field-effect transistor earlier was known as a "unipolar" transistor, and the term refers to the fact that current is transported by carriers of one polarity (majority), whereas in the conventional bipolar transistor carriers of both polarities (majority and minority) are involved.

This Application Note provides an insight into the nature of the FET, and touches briefly on its basic characteristics, terminology and parameters, and typical applications.

The following list of FET applications indicates the versatility of the FET family:

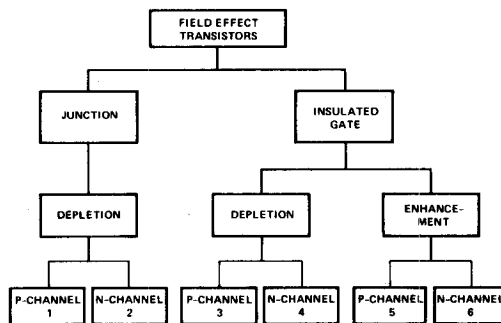
<i>Amplifiers</i>	<i>Switches</i>	<i>Current Limiters</i>
Small Signal	Chopper-type	Voltage-Controlled
Low Distortion	Analog Gate	Resistors
High Gain	Commutator	Mixers
Low Noise		Oscillators
Selective		
D.C.		
High-Frequency		

This very wide range of FET applications by no means implies that the device will replace the more widely-known bipolar transistor in every case. The simple fact is that FET characteristics — which are very different from those of bipolar devices — can often make possible the design of technically superior (and sometimes cheaper) circuits. This comment applies not only to networks employing discrete devices and conventional components such as resistors and capacitors, but also extends to both linear and digital integrated circuits.

In fact, FET technology today allows a greater packaging density in large-scale integrated circuits (LSI) than would ever be possible with bipolar devices.

(Although there is no industry-accepted definition of LSI, apparently when the equivalent circuit of an IC contains more than 1,000 active elements (500 gates) or is "very complex", the end product may be called LSI. With a typical LSI chip measuring less than 200 x 200 mils, this is high-density packaging indeed.)

The family tree of FET devices (Figure 1) may be divided into two main branches, junction FETs (JFETs) and Insulated Gate FETs (or MOSFETs, *metal-oxide-silicon field-effect transistors*). Junction FETs are inherently depletion-mode devices, and are available in both P- and N-Channel configurations. MOSFETs are available in both enhancement or depletion modes, and exist as both N- and P-Channel devices. The two main FET groups depend on different phenomena for their operation, and will be discussed separately.

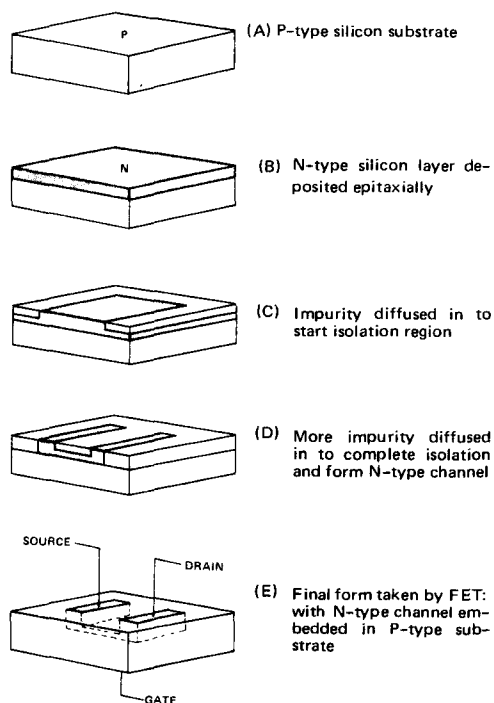


FET Family Tree
Figure 1

Junction FETs

In its most elementary version, this transistor consists of a piece of high-resistivity semiconductor material (usually silicon) which constitutes a channel for the majority carrier flow. The magnitude of this current is controlled by a voltage applied to a *gate*, which is a reverse-biased PN junction formed along the channel. Implicit in this description is the fundamental difference between FET and bipolar devices: when the FET junction is reverse-biased the gate current is practically zero, whereas the base current of the bipolar transistor is always some value greater than zero. The FET is a high input resistance device, while the input resistance of the bipolar transistor is comparatively low. If the channel is doped with a donor impurity, N-type material is formed and the channel current will consist of electrons. If the channel is doped with an acceptor impurity, P-type material will be formed and the channel current will consist of holes. N-Channel devices have greater conductivity than P-Channel types, since electrons have higher mobility than do holes; thus N-Channel FETs tend to be more efficient conductors than their P-Channel counterparts.

Junction FETs are particularly suited to manufacture by modern planar epitaxial processes. Figure 2 shows this process in an idealized manner. First, N-type silicon is deposited



Idealized Manufacture of an N-Channel Junction FET

Figure 2

epitaxially (single-crystal condensation surface) onto monocrystalline P-type silicon, so that crystal integrity is maintained. Then a layer of silicon dioxide is grown on the surface of the N-type layer, and the surface is etched so that an acceptor-type impurity can be diffused through into the silicon. The resulting cross-section is shown in Figure 2C, and demonstrates how a P-type annulus has been formed in the layer on N-type silicon. Figure 2D shows how a further sequence of oxide growth, etching, and diffusion can produce a channel of N-type material within the substrate.

In addition to the channel material, a FET contains two ohmic (non-rectifying) contacts, the *source* and the *drain*. These are shown in Figure 2E. Since a symmetrical geometry is shown in the idealized FET chip, it is immaterial which contact is called the source and which is called the drain; the FET will conduct current equally well in either direction and the source and drain leads are usually interchangeable.

(For certain FET applications, such as amplifiers, an asymmetrical geometry is preferred for lower capacitance and improved frequency response. In these cases, the source and drain leads should not be interchanged.)

Figure 2E also shows how the N-Channel is embedded in the P-type silicon substrate, so that the gate above the channel becomes part of this substrate. Figure 3 shows how the FET functions. If the gate is connected to the source, then the applied voltage (V_{DS}) will appear between the gate and the drain. Since the PN junction is reverse-biased, little current will flow in the gate connection. The potential gradient established will form a *depletion* layer, where almost all the electrons present in the N-type channel will be swept away. The most depleted portion is in the high field between the gate and the drain, and the least-depleted area is between the gate and the source. Because the flow of current along the channel from the (positive) drain to the (negative) source is really a flow of free electrons from source to drain in the N-type silicon, the magnitude of this current will fall as more silicon becomes depleted of free electrons. There is a limit to the drain current (I_D) which increased V_{DS} can drive through the channel. This limiting current is known as I_{DSS} (*Drain-to-Source* current with the gate *Shorted* to the source). Figure 3B shows the almost complete depletion of the channel under these conditions.

Figure 3C shows the output characteristics of an N-Channel JFET with the gate short-circuited to the source. The initial rise in I_D is related to the buildup of the depletion layer as V_{DS} increases. The curve approaches the level of the limiting current I_{DSS} when I_D begins to be *pinched off*. The physical meaning of this term leads to one definition of *pinch-off* voltage, V_P , which is the value of V_{DS} at which the maximum I_{DSS} flows.

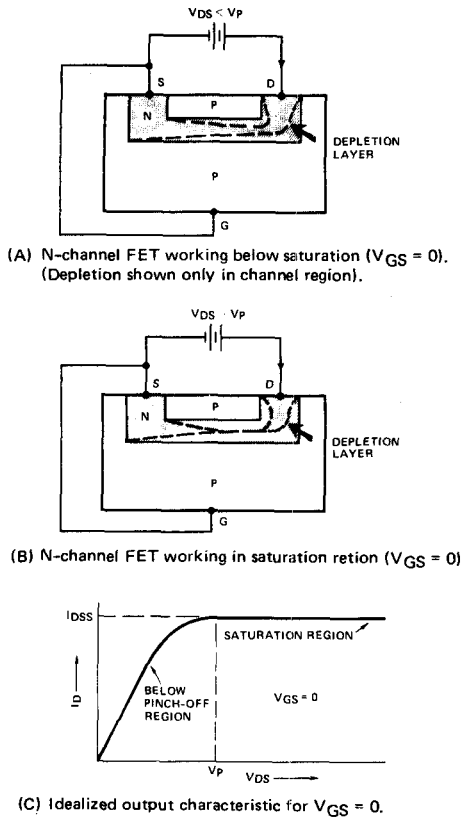
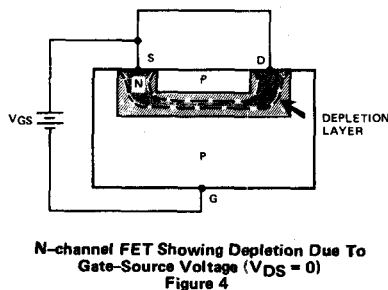


Figure 3

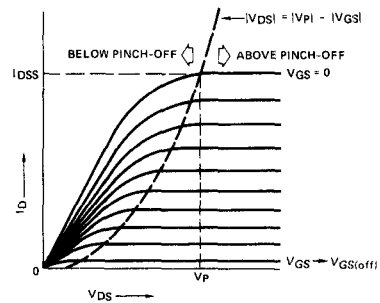
In Figure 4, consider the case where $V_{DS} = 0$, and where a negative voltage V_{GS} is applied to the gate. Again, a depletion layer has built up. If a small value of V_{DS} were now applied, this depletion layer would limit the resultant channel current to a value lower than would be the case for $V_{GS} = 0$. In fact, at a value of $|V_{GS}| \geq |V_P|$ the channel current would be almost entirely cut off. This cutoff voltage is referred to as the gate cutoff voltage, and may be expressed by the symbol V_P or by $V_{GS(off)}$. V_P has been widely used in the past, but $V_{GS(off)}$ is now more commonly accepted since it eliminates the ambiguity between gate cut-off and drain pinch-off. $V_{GS(off)}$ and V_P , strictly speaking, are equal in magnitude but opposite in polarity.



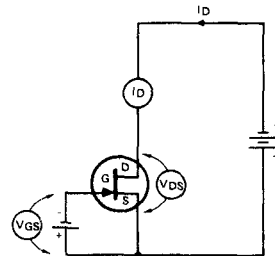
N-channel FET Showing Depletion Due To Gate-Source Voltage ($V_{DS} = 0$)
Figure 4

The mechanisms of Figure 3 and 4 react together to provide a family of output characteristics as shown in Figure 5A. The area below the pinchoff voltage locus is known as the triode or "below pinchoff" region; the area above pinchoff is often referred to as the pentode or saturation region. FET behavior in these regions is comparable to that of a power grid vacuum tube, and for this reason FETs operating in the saturation region may be used as excellent amplifiers. Note that in the "below pinchoff" region both V_{GS} and V_{DS} control the channel current, while in the saturation region V_{DS} has little effect and V_{GS} essentially controls I_D .

Figure 5B relates the curves of Figure 5A to the actual circuit arrangement, and shows the number of meters which may be connected to display the conditions relevant to any combination of V_{DS} and V_{GS} . Note that the direction of the arrow at the gate gives the direction of current flow for the forward-bias condition of the junction. In practice, however, it is always reverse-biased.



(A) Family of output characteristics for N-channel FET



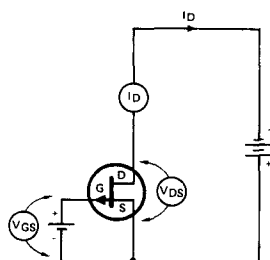
(B) Circuit arrangement for N-channel FET

Figure 5

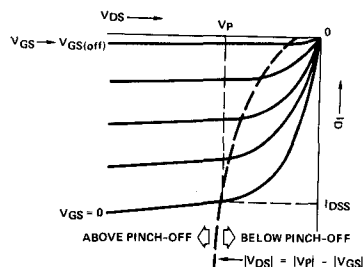
The P-Channel FET works in precisely the same way as does the N-Channel FET. In manufacture, the planar process is essentially reversed, with the acceptor impurity diffused first onto N-type silicon, and the donor impurity diffused later to form a second N-type region and leave a P-type chan-

nel. In the P-Channel FET, the channel current is due to hole movement, rather than to electron mobility. Consequently, all the applied polarities are reversed, along with their directions and the direction of current flow. Figure 6A shows the circuit arrangement for a P-Channel FET, and Figure 6B shows the output characteristics of the device. Note that the curves are shown in another quadrant than those of the N-Channel FET, in order to stress the current directions and polarities involved.

In summary, a junction FET consists essentially of a channel of semiconductor material along which a current may flow whose magnitude is a function of two voltages, V_{DS} and V_{GS} . When V_{DS} is greater than V_p , the channel current is controlled largely by V_{GS} alone, because V_{GS} is applied to a reverse-biased junction. The resulting gate current is extremely small.



(A) Circuit arrangement for P-channel FET

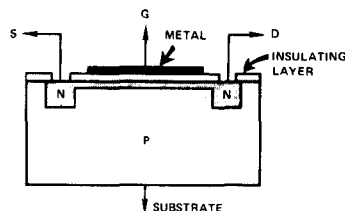


(B) Family of output characteristics for P-channel FET

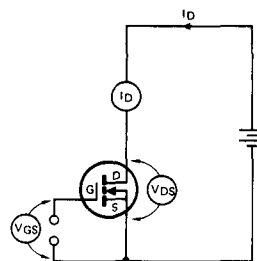
Figure 6

MOSFETs

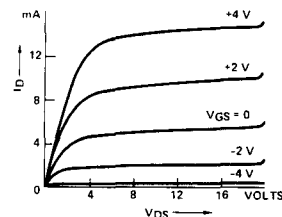
The metal-oxide-silicon FET (MOSFET) depends for its operation on the fact that it is not actually necessary to form a semiconductor junction on the channel of a FET in order to achieve gate control of the channel current. Instead, a metallic gate may be simply isolated from the channel by a thin layer of silicon dioxide, as shown in Figure 7A. Although the bottom of the insulating layer is in contact with the P-type silicon substrate, the physical processes which occur at this interface dictate that free electrons will accumulate at the interface, spontaneously forming an N-type channel. Thus a conducting path exists between the diffused N-type source and drain regions. Further, the MOSFET will behave



(A) Idealized cross-section through an N-channel depletion-type MOSFET



(B) Circuit arrangement for N-channel depletion MOSFET



(C) Family of output characteristics for the Siliconix 2N3631 N-channel depletion MOSFET

Figure 7

in a manner similar to the N-Channel junction FET when a voltage of the correct polarity is applied to the channel, as in Figure 7B.

Output characteristics of an N-Channel MOSFET are shown in Figure 7C. Because there is no junction involved, V_{GS} can be reversed without engendering a gate current; the gate may be made either positive or negative with respect to the source. Under these circumstances, still more free electrons will be attracted to the channel region, and I_D will become greater than I_{DSS} . This mode of operation is represented by the higher members of the family of output characteristics. Because the application of a negative gate voltage causes the channel to be depleted of free electrons — thus reducing I_D — the device just described is called a *depletion-mode* MOSFET.

The foregoing has established that the depletion-mode MOSFET is a "normally-ON" device: when $V_{GS} = 0$, a conducting path exists between source and drain. In many circuits a "normally-OFF" device would be useful, a condition which leads to the concept of an *enhancement-mode* MOSFET. In the latter device, an increasing voltage applied to the gate will enhance channel conduction, and depletion will never occur, I_D being zero when $V_{GS} = 0$.

A P-Channel enhancement-mode MOSFET is shown in Figure 8. Here, an acceptor impurity has been diffused into an N-type substrate to form P-type source and drain regions. No conducting channel exists between the source and the drain, because no matter how the drain-source voltage is applied one of the PN junctions will always be reverse-biased. On the other hand, if a negative voltage is applied to the gate, a field will be set up in such a direction as to attract holes into the upper layer of the substrate and produce a P-type channel. A family of output characteristics for a typical MOSFET is shown in Figure 8C. The idealized cross-section illustrated in Figure 8A may be used to show how the characteristics of Figure 8C come about. Refer to Figure 9 for an extension of this phenomenon.

If a constant (negative) gate voltage, ($V_{GS(K)}$) is applied, then an essentially-uniform P-Channel depletion layer will be induced, as in Figure 9A. If a negative drain voltage is applied, then current, I_D , will flow through the drain. As $|V_{DS}|$ increases, I_D also increases. However, the voltage between the drain and the gate decreases, so that the thickness of the channel at the drain end is reduced as in Figure 9B. Therefore, the relationship of I_D versus V_{DS} will eventually

reach a limiting value when $V_{DS} = V_{GS}$, and the channel becomes pinched off. This condition is shown in Figure 9C.

Different values of V_{GS} give rise to limiting values of I_D , so that the characteristic family of output curves which was shown in Figure 8 is realized. Characteristics of depletion-mode MOSFETs also come about for the same reason, except that members of the output characteristics family also exist for V_{GS} values of zero or reversed polarity. The P-Channel enhancement-mode MOSFET is currently the most popular member of the FET family in current use, and is in fact the basic element in many LSI integrated circuits.

In principle it is possible to manufacture the remaining two members of the MOSFET family, the P-Channel depletion-mode and the N-Channel enhancement-mode devices. Because of the spontaneous formation of an N-Channel at a silicon/silicon-dioxide interface, the fabrication processes involved become quite difficult on a volume production basis. Much work has gone into the development of practical MOSFET processes for these devices, and N-Channel depletion-mode types are now becoming generally available.

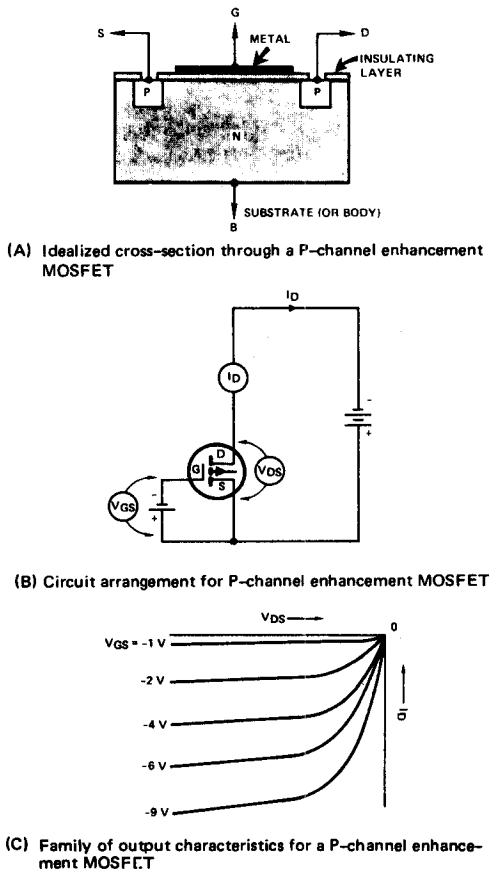


Figure 8

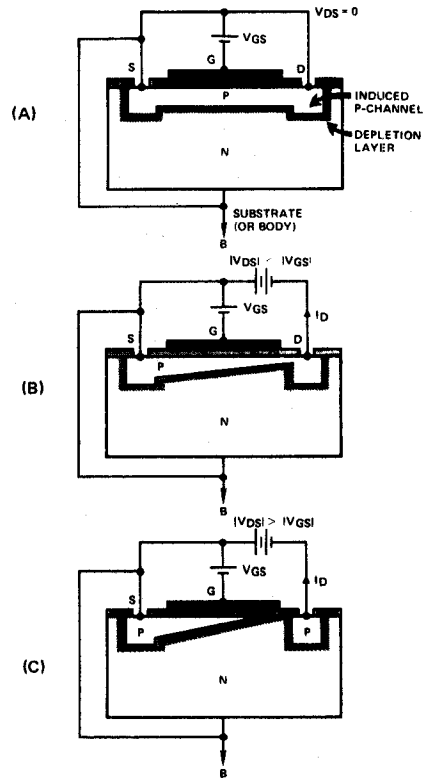


Figure 9

FET Characteristics

The FET enjoys certain inherent advantages over bipolar transistors because of the unique construction and method of operation of the field-effect device. These characteristics include:

- Low noise
- No thermal runaway
- Low distortion and negligible intermodulation products
- High input impedance at low frequencies
- Very high dynamic range (> 100 dB)
- Zero temperature coefficient Q point
- Junction capacitance independent of device current

The transfer function of a FET approximates to a square-law response, and the second and higher-order derivatives of g_m are near zero; thus strong second and negligible higher-order harmonics are produced. Intermodulation products are extremely low.

The input impedance of a FET is simply the impedance of a reverse-biased PN junction, which is on the order of 10^{10} to $10^{12} \Omega$. In practice, the input impedance is limited by the value of the shunt gate resistor used in a self-bias common-source circuit configuration. At RF frequencies, the input impedance drop is proportional to the square of the frequency; for example, in a 2N4416 FET, the input impedance would be $22K \Omega$ at 100 MHz. Also, the input susceptance increases linearly with frequency, since it is a simple parasitic capacitance.

The FET has very high dynamic range, in excess of 100 dB. Thus it can amplify very small signals because it produces very little noise, or it can amplify very large signals because it has negligible intermodulation distortion products. It also has a zero temperature coefficient bias point (zero TC point) at which changes in temperature do not change the quiescent operating point.

Junction FET capacitances are more constant over wide current variation than are the same parameters in a bipolar device. This inherent stability allows high-frequency (VHF through L-band) oscillators to be built which are far more stable than oscillators using low-frequency crystals and multiplier stages.

FET Terminology and Parameters

Any introduction to the nature, behavior, and applications of field-effect transistors requires that certain questions be answered on FET electrical quantities and parameters — in particular, the most important parameters, and the means by which they can be measured. The following discussion will define specific FET parameters and their associated subscript notations, and present basic test circuits and results.

Major parameters include:

- I_{DSS} — Drain current with the gate shorted to the source
- $V_{GS(off)}$ — Gate-source cutoff voltage
- I_{GSS} — Gate-to-source current with the drain shorted to the source
- BV_{GSS} — Gate-to-source breakdown voltage with the drain shorted to the source
- g_{fs} — Common-source forward transconductance
- C_{gs} — Gate-source capacitance
- C_{gd} — Gate-drain capacitance

Special attention should be given to the subscript "s" because it has two different meanings and three possible uses. In FET notations, an "s" for the first or second subscript identifies the source terminal as a node point for voltage reference or current flow. However, when using triple subscript notation, an "s" for the third subscript does not refer to the FET source terminal. It is an abbreviation for "shorted", and signifies that all terminals not designated by the first two subscripts must be tied together and shorted to the common terminal, which is always the second subscript. Therefore, the term I_{GSS} refers to the gate-source current with the drain tied to the source.

Because of the typical low input and output admittance of the FET, four-pole admittance equations are commonly used to describe electrical characteristics of the FET:

$$I_1 = Y_{11} V_{11} + Y_{21} V_{22} \quad (1)$$

When Y_{11} , Y_{21} , Y_{12} and Y_{22} are defined as the input, reverse transfer, forward transconductance, and output admittances respectively, Equation 1 reduces to

$$\begin{aligned} i_1 &= y_i v_{11} + y_r v_{22} \\ i_2 &= y_f v_{11} + y_o v_{22} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

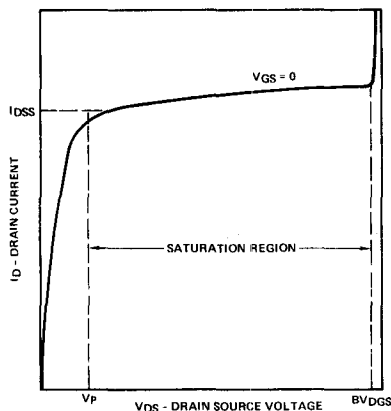
For a three-lead FET, 11 usually corresponds to the gate-source terminal and 22 corresponds to the drain-source terminal (i.e., the device is connected in the common-source mode). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} i_i &= y_{is} v_{gs} + y_{rs} v_{ds} \\ i_o &= y_{fs} v_{gs} + y_{os} v_{ds} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Here, the second subscript for the y parameters designates the source lead as the common or ground terminal.

I_{DSS} – Drain Current at Zero Gate Voltage (I_D at $V_{GS} = 0$)

By itself, I_{DSS} merely refers to the drain current that will flow for any applied V_{DS} with the gate shorted to the source. However, when a particular value for V_{DS} is given, equal to or greater than V_P (see Figure 10), I_{DSS} indicates the drain saturation current at zero gate voltage. Some FET data sheets label I_{DSS} for V_{DS} greater than V_P as $I_{D(on)}$.



FET Characteristic at $V_{GS} = 0$
Figure 10

 $V_{GS(off)}$ – Gate-Source Cutoff Voltage

The resistance of a semiconductor channel is related to its physical dimensions by $R = \rho L/A$, where

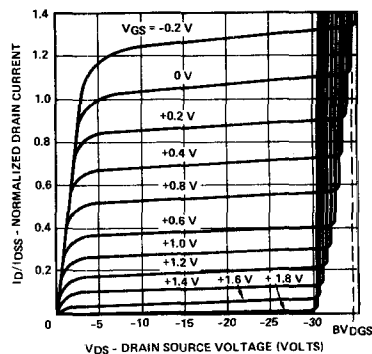
ρ = resistivity

L = length of the channel

$A = W \times T$ = cross-sectional area of channel

In the usual FET structure, L and W are fixed by device geometry, while channel thickness T is the distance between the depletion layers. The position of the depletion layer can be varied either by the gate-source bias voltage or by the drain-source voltage. When T is reduced to zero by any combination of V_{GS} and V_{DS} , the depletion layers from the opposite sides come in contact, and the a-c or incremental channel resistance, r_{DS} , approaches infinity. As earlier noted, this condition is referred to as "pinch-off" or "cutoff" because the channel current has been reduced to a very thin sheet, and current will no longer be conducted. Further increases in V_{DS} (up to the junction reverse-bias breakdown) will cause little change in I_D . Accordingly, the pinch-off region is also referred to as the pentode or "constant-current" region.

In Figure 10, pinch-off occurs with $V_{GS} = 0$. In Figure 11, V_{GS} controls the magnitude of the saturated I_D , with increases in V_{GS} resulting in lower values of constant I_D , and smaller values of V_{DS} necessary to reach the "knee" of the curve. The current scale in Figure 11 has been normalized to a specific value of I_{DSS} .



FET I_D vs V_{DS} Output Characteristics
Figure 11

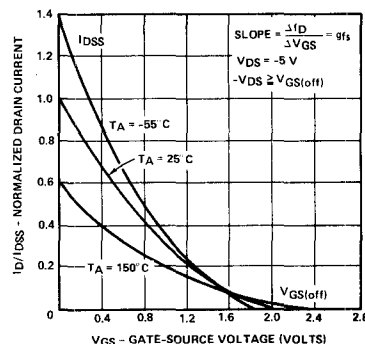
The knee of the curve is important to the circuit designer because he must know what minimum V_{DS} is needed to reach the pinch-off region with $V_{GS} = 0$. When appropriate bias voltage is applied to the gate, it will pinch off the channel so that no drain current can flow; V_{DS} has no effect until breakdown occurs. The specific amount of V_{GS} that produces pinch-off is known as the gate-source cutoff voltage, $V_{GS(off)}$.

 $V_{GS(off)}$ Test Procedure

Although the magnitude of $V_{GS(off)}$ is equal to the pinch-off voltage, V_P , defined by the pinch-off knee in Figure 10, rapid curvature in the area makes it difficult to define any precise point as V_P . Taking a second derivative of V_{DS}/I_D would yield a peak corresponding to the inflection point at the knee, which approximates V_P . However, this is not a simple measurement for production quantities of devices. A better measure is to approach the cutoff point of the I_D versus V_{GS} characteristic. This is easier than trying to specify the location of the knee of the I_D versus V_{DS} output characteristic.

A typical transfer characteristic I_D versus V_{GS} is shown in Figure 12. The curve can be closely approximated by

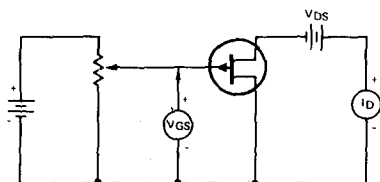
$$I_D = I_{DSS} \left(1 - \frac{V_{GS}}{V_{GS(off)}} \right)^2 \quad (4)$$



Typical I_D vs V_{GS} Transfer Characteristic
Figure 12

Equation 4 and Figure 12 indicate that at $V_{GS} = V_{GS(off)}$, $I_D = 0$. In a practical device, this cannot be true because of leakage currents. If I_D is reduced to less than 1 percent of I_{DSS} , V_{GS} will be within 10 percent of the $V_{GS(off)}$ value indicated by Equation 4. If I_D is reduced to 0.1 percent of I_{DSS} , the indicated $V_{GS(off)}$ error will be reduced to about 3 percent. For a true indication of $V_{GS(off)}$, and a realistic picture of the parameters of Figure 12, care must be taken that leakage currents do not result in an error in the $V_{GS(off)}$ reading. Typically, at room temperature, 1 percent of I_{DSS} is still well above leakage currents but is low enough to give a fairly accurate value of $V_{GS(off)}$.

A typical circuit for measuring $V_{GS(off)}$ is shown in Figure 13. At $V_{GS} = 0$, the value of I_{DSS} can be measured. Then, by increasing V_{GS} until I_D is 0.01 percent of I_{DSS} , the value of $V_{GS(off)}$ is obtained. From a production standpoint, it is more convenient to specify I_D at some fixed value (such as 1 nA), rather than as a certain percentage of I_{DSS} . Thus a pinchoff voltage specification may be given as indicated in Table I.



Circuit for Measuring $V_{GS(off)}$
Figure 13

Table I
Typical Pinch-Off Voltage Specification

Characteristic	Min	Max	Units
$V_{GS(off)}$ Gate-source pinch-off voltage of: $V_{DS} = -5 \text{ V}$, $I_D = -1 \mu\text{A}$	1	4	Volts

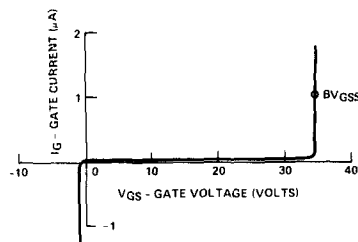
Another method which provides an indirect indication of the maximum value of $V_{GS(off)}$ is shown in Table II. The characteristic specified is $I_{D(off)}$, whereas the parameter of interest is $V_{GS} = 8$ volts. The specification does say that the maximum $V_{GS(off)}$ is approximately 8 volts, but no provision is made for stating a *minimum* $V_{GS(off)}$, as was done in Table I. Therefore, another test must be made if $V_{GS(off)}(\text{min})$ is to be specified.

Table II
Indication of Maximum V_p

Characteristic	Test Conditions	Min	Max	Unit
$I_{D(off)}$ Pinch-off drain current	$V_{DS} = -12 \text{ V}$, $V_{GS} = 8 \text{ V}$		-10	μA

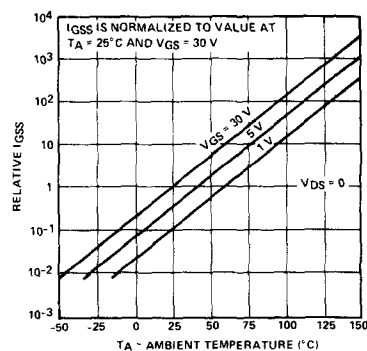
I_{GSS} — Gate-Source Cutoff Current

The input gate of a P-Channel FET appears as a simple PN junction; thus the input d-c input characteristic is analogous to a diode V-I curve, as is shown in Figure 14.



P-Channel FET Input Gate Characteristic
Figure 14

In the normal operating mode, with V_{GS} positive for a P-Channel device, the gate is reverse-biased to a voltage between zero and $V_{GS(off)}$. This results in a d-c gate-source resistance which is typically more than 100M Ω . The gate current is both voltage- and temperature-sensitive. Figure 15 shows this relationship for I_{GSS} versus temperature and V_{GS} .



I_{GSS} vs Temperature
Figure 15

If the gate-source junction becomes forward-biased, (negative voltage in a P-Channel device) or if V_{GS} exceeds the reverse-bias breakdown for the junction, the input resistance will then become very low.

The FET is normally operated with a slight reverse bias applied to the gate-source; hence a good measure of the d-c input characteristic is to check the gate current at a value of gate-channel voltage that is below the junction breakdown rating. In device evaluation, there are three common measurements of gate current: I_{GDO} , I_{GSO} , and the combined measurement I_{GSS} . These measurement circuits are shown in Figure 16.

The question is, should I_{GDO} and I_{GSO} be measured separately, or will one measurement of I_{GSS} suffice? One thing is certain: $I_{GSO} + I_{GDO} > I_{GSS}$, because the drain and the source are not completely isolated. They are, in fact, electrically connected via channel resistance. For most FETs, if V_G is greater than $V_{GS(off)}$, the difference between $(I_{GSO} + I_{GDO})$ and I_{GSS} is small; therefore, the measurement of I_{GSS} is a realistic means of controlling both I_{GDO} and I_{GSO} .

In a circuit, V_{GD} may be biased between zero and BV_{GDS} , while V_{GS} will be between zero and $V_{GS(off)}$; therefore, I_G is not necessarily the same as I_{GSS} .

BV_{GSS} – Gate-Source Breakdown Voltage

FET input terminals have been previously described as having NP or PN junctions, depending on the channel material. As such, the junction breakdown voltage is a necessary parameter.

A useful equivalent circuit for a FET is the distributed constant network shown in Figure 17, for a P-Channel FET. If an N-Channel device is being evaluated, the diodes would be reversed. In most applications, the gate-drain voltage is greater than the gate-source voltage; thus the gate-drain breakdown rating is most important. However, it is also pos-

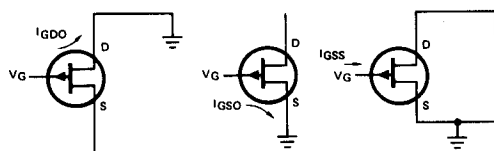
sible to consider the gate-source junction breakdown and the apparent drain-source breakdown (i.e., in Figure 17, when a high negative voltage is applied from drain to source, CR_1 will break down while CR_n becomes forward-biased).

Some device manufacturers use a BV_{GDO} rating, which means they are only checking diode CR_1 . A better method is to use a BV_{GSS} rating (gate-source breakdown with the drain shorted to the source), because it checks both CR_1 and CR_n , in addition to exposing the *weakest* breakdown path along the entire gate-channel junction. The BV_{GSS} test also allows the user to interchange source and drain lead connections without worry about device breakdown ratings.

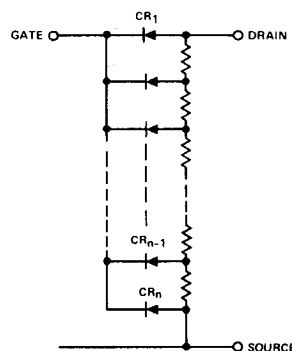
Admittedly, a BV_{GSS} test will reject some units which might pass a BV_{GDO} test; the number rejected, however, will be insignificant compared to the advantage of providing symmetrical operation.

Test Procedures for BV_{GSS}

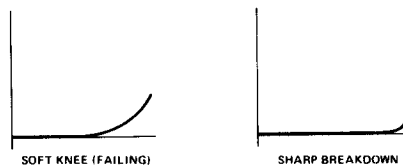
Junctions may break down softly or sharply; junctions with soft knee breakdown are undesirable. Without examining each individual unit on a curve tracer, devices with a soft knee may be eliminated by selecting a low current level for breakdown measurement (see Figure 18).



Three Common Measurement of Gate Current
Figure 16



A Useful FET Equivalent Circuit
Figure 17



Examples of Soft Knee and Sharp Knee Breakdown
Figure 18

g_{fs} — Transconductance

Transconductance, g_{fs} , is a measure of the effect of gate voltage upon drain current:

$$g_{fs} = \frac{\Delta I_D}{\Delta V_{GS}}, \quad V_{DS} = \text{constant} \quad (5)$$

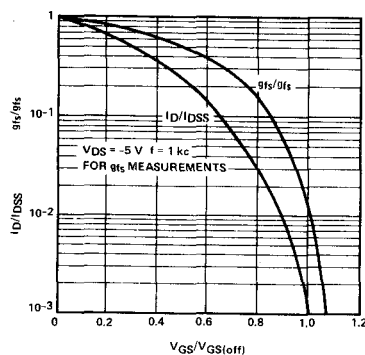
The interrelation of g_{fs} to the parameters I_{DSS} and $V_{GS(OFF)}$ should be noted. Equations 4, 6 and 7 describe the value of I_D and g_{fs} in a FET for any value of V_{GS} between zero and $V_{GS(OFF)}$.

$$g_{fs} = g_{fso} \left(1 - \frac{V_{GS}}{V_{GS(off)}} \right) \quad (6)$$

$$g_{fso} = - \frac{2I_{DSS}}{V_{GS(off)}} \quad (7)$$

where g_{fso} is the value of g_{fs} at $V_{GS} = 0$ and I_{DSS} is the value of I_D at $V_{GS} = 0$. With these equations, the value of g_{fs} can be calculated with a fair degree of accuracy (20 percent) if I_{DSS} and $V_{GS(off)}$ are known.

Figure 19 shows normalized curves for I_D and g_{fs} as functions of V_{GS} in a P-Channel FET. These curves were obtained from actual measurements on typical diffused channel FETs, such as the 2N2606. The curves agree very well with Equations 4 and 6 until $V_{GS(off)}$ is approached. For these curves, $V_{GS(off)}$ was assumed to be the value of V_{GS} where $I_D/I_{DSS} = 0.001$.



Normalized Curves for I_D and g_{fs}
as Functions of V_{GS}
Figure 19

The drain current of a JFET operating in the triode (below pinch-off) region can be accurately predicted by using Equation 8, where

$$I_{D/triode} = I_{DSS} \left(\frac{V_{DS}}{V_{GS(off)}} \right)^{1/2} \quad (8)$$

Specifications for g_{fs} are shown in Tables III and IV. Note that there is a difference in the test conditions specified for the N-Channel 2N3823 and the P-Channel 2N3329. The gate voltage for the 2N3823 is established as zero. This means that g_{fs} is measured at $I_D = I_{DSS}$, as in Table III.

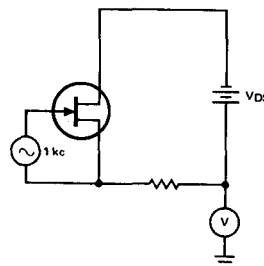
Table III (2N3823)

Characteristic	Test Conditions	Min	Max	Unit
g_{fs} Small-signal common-source forward transconductance	$V_{DS} = 15 \text{ V}$, $V_{GS} = 0$, $f = 1 \text{ kHz}$	3,500	6,500	μmho

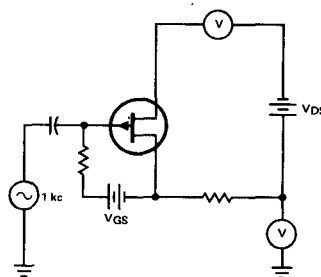
Table IV (2N3329)

Characteristic	Test Conditions	Min	Max	Unit
Y_{fs} Common-source forward transfer admittance	$V_{DS} = -10 \text{ V}$, $I_D = -1 \text{ mA}$, $f = 1 \text{ kHz}$		20	μmho

The test conditions shown in Table IV specify a certain value for I_D (-1 mA for the 2N3329). This means that for each unit tested, V_{GS} is adjusted until I_D equals the specified value. The conditions specified in Table III simplify testing of the g_{fs} parameter by eliminating the necessity of adjusting V_{GS} . Figures 20 and 21 show typical test setups for the two methods.



Test Circuit for g_{fs} with $V_{GS} = 0$
Figure 20



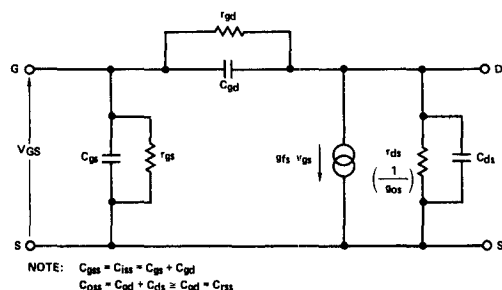
Test Circuit for g_{fs} with I_D Specified
Figure 21

Junction FET Capacitances

Associated with the junction between the gate and the channel of a FET is a capacitance whose value and geometric distribution are functions of the applied voltages V_{GS} and V_{DS} . Because of the complexity of dealing with such a distributed capacitance, a simplification is made so that two lumped capacitances, C_{gs} and C_{gd} , exist between the gate and the source and drain, respectively. (A much smaller capacitance, C_{ds} , also exists between the drain and the source, stemming mainly from the device package; this header capacitance is small enough so that it can be ignored for most purposes.)

Data sheets quote C_{gs} and C_{gd} (or other capacitances from which they may be derived) for specified operating conditions. Occasionally, graphs are included which show the variations of C_{gs} and C_{gd} as the result of changing conditions of V_{DS} , V_{GS} and temperature. If these data are not presented, an estimate of inter-electrode capacitance values may be made by assuming that these values vary inversely with the square root of the bias voltage. The temperature variations will be very small, because they depend on the $-2.2 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$ change in junction potential difference.

Assuming that the FET is properly biased — that is, that the d-c conditions are met by the external circuitry — it is possible to construct an incremental equivalent circuit from which the small-signal or a-c performance may be predicted. Such an equivalent circuit is shown in Figure 22.



Incremental Equivalent Circuit for the Junction FET
Figure 22

The equivalent capacitance from the gate to the source, C_{gs} , is shunted by a very large input resistance, r_{gs} , with both of these parameters being characteristic of a reverse-biased junction. Similarly, the equivalent capacitance from the gate to the drain is shunted by the very large resistance r_{gd} . (For most purposes, r_{gs} and r_{gd} may be neglected, and the gate impedance of the FET treated as pure capacitance). At the drain side of the equivalent circuit the small capacitance C_{ds} — which stems from the header material — is shunted by the incremental channel resistance, r_{ds} . This resistance is capable of wide variations, depending on bias conditions. Since the equivalent circuit is fundamentally relevant to the pinch-off or saturated condition, r_{ds} will be on the order of megohms.

The incremental channel current is given by the transconductance, g_{fs} , multiplied by the incremental gate voltage. For the small signal, v_{gs} , this is manifested in the equivalent circuit by the current generator $g_{fs}v_{gs}$. Notice that the conventional direction of flow of this current is such that i_d flows into the FET, in a "positive" direction.

Many circuits can be designed around the equivalent circuit for the junction FET. The actual values of g_{fs} and r_{ds} can be measured as previously mentioned; there remains only the requirement to establish the methods of determining C_{gs} and C_{gd} .

First, assume that the FET is in operation and that the drain is connected to the source via a large capacitor, i.e., the drain and source are short-circuited to a-c. Under these circumstances, a capacitance measurement between the gate and the source will give

$$C_{gss} \text{ (or } C_{iss}) = C_{gs} + C_{gd} \quad (9)$$

Second, assume that the gate and source are short-circuited to a-c in a similar manner. A capacitance measurement between the drain and the source will now give

$$C_{dss} \text{ (or } C_{oss}) \approx C_{gd} \quad (10)$$

The alternative symbols C_{iss} and C_{oss} simply refer to measurements made at the input (gate) and the output (drain) respectively. An alternative symbol for C_{gd} is C_{rss} , which refers to the "reverse" capacitance.

In data sheets, it is customary to state $(= C_{iss}) C_{gss}$ and $C_{dss} (= C_{oss})$. C_{rss} is often given in place of C_{oss} because if $C_{ds} \ll C_{oss}$, which is usually the case, then $C_{rss} \approx C_{oss}$. Equations (9) and (10) can be used in those instances where it is necessary to extract C_{gs} and C_{gd} , as in

$$C_{gs} = C_{iss} - C_{gd} = C_{iss} - C_{rss} \quad (11)$$

and

$$C_{gd} = C_{rss} \quad (12)$$

Remember that all capacitance measurements should be made at the same bias levels, since the capacitances are functions of applied voltages. To indicate the order of the capacitances to be found in a junction FET, consider the values given in the data sheet for the Siliconix E202 N-channel FET. They are given as

$$C_{iss} \text{ (at } V_{DS} = 20 \text{ V and } f = 1 \text{ MHz)} = 5 \text{ pF max.}$$

and

$$C_{rss} \text{ (at } V_{DS} = 20 \text{ V and } F = 1 \text{ MHz)} = 2 \text{ pF max.}$$

Hence, at a drain-source voltage of 20 V and a frequency of 1 MHz, $C_{gs} = 5 - 2 = 3 \text{ pF}$ maximum. Even though the FET is physically symmetrical, bias conditions have forced the capacitances to be unequal.