1 Transistor Introduction

Transistors (as presented in this course) are 3 terminal, voltage controlled switches. This means that, when a transistor is “on,” it connects the Source (S) and Drain (D) terminals via a low resistance path (short circuit). When a transistor is “off,” the Source and Drain terminals are disconnected (open circuit).

Two common types of transistors are NMOS and PMOS transistors. Their states (shorted or open) are determined by the voltage difference across the Gate (G) and Source (S) terminals, compared to a “threshold voltage.” Transistors are extremely useful in digital logic design since we can implement Boolean logic operators using switches.

Recall that in this class, $V_{tn}$ denotes how much higher the gate needs to be relative to the source for the NMOS to be on, and that $|V_{tp}|$ denotes how much lower the gate needs to be relative to the source for the PMOS to be on.

Transistors can be connected together to perform boolean algebra. For example, the following circuit is called an “inverter” and represents a NOT gate.
When the input is high \((V_{in} \geq V_{tn}, V_{in} \geq V_{DD} - |V_{tp}|)\), then the NMOS transistor is on, the PMOS transistor is off, and \(V_{out} = 0\). When the input is low \((V_{in} \leq V_{tn}, V_{in} \leq V_{DD} - |V_{tp}|)\), the NMOS transistor is off, the PMOS transistor is on, and \(V_{out} = V_{DD}\). When working with digital circuits like the one above, we usually only consider the values of \(V_{in} = 0, V_{DD}\). This yields the following truth table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(V_{in})</th>
<th>(V_{out})</th>
<th>NMOS</th>
<th>PMOS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(V_{DD})</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(V_{DD})</td>
<td>off</td>
<td>on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you think of \(V_{DD}\) being a logical 1 and 0V being a logical 0, we have just created the most elementary logical operation using transistors!

## 2 RC Circuit Theory

The RC circuit is a fundamental component of any real world circuit. Many electronic systems’ specifications, like clock speed and bandwidth, are direct results of RC circuits. We will use differential equation methods to find the time domain behavior of RC systems. We first set up our problem by defining two functions of time: \(I_C(t)\) is the current into the capacitor at time \(t\), and \(V_C(t)\) is the voltage across the capacitor at time \(t\).

Let’s consider the RC circuit above in Figure 4. Assume that the capacitor is initially fully charged to \(V_{DD}\) at time \(t = 0\). Current will flow out of the capacitor through the resistor: as the current flows out, the charge stored in the capacitor decreases. This causes the voltage across the capacitor to decrease. How can we describe this behavior mathematically?
The current across the resistor, $I_R$, is

$$I_R(t) = \frac{V_C(t)}{R}.$$  

From KCL, $I_R(t) = I_C(t)$, and we also know that

$$I_C(t) = C \cdot \frac{d}{dt} V_C(t).$$

Equating our expressions for $I_R(t)$ and $I_C(t)$, we get

$$C \cdot \frac{d}{dt} V_C(t) = -\frac{V_C(t)}{R}.$$  

We end up with $-\frac{V_C(t)}{R}$ because the current through the resistor is flowing against the direction we defined for $I_C(t)$. Rearranging terms, we get

$$\frac{d}{dt} V_C(t) = -\frac{1}{RC} V_C(t).$$

How can we solve this differential equation to get $V_C(t)$? One way to solve this is to notice that $\frac{d}{dt} k \cdot e^{-at} = -k \cdot a \cdot e^{-t}$, and hence, a reasonable guess to the solution is

$$V_C(t) = ke^{-\frac{t}{RC}}$$  

where $k$ is a constant; how do we get $k$ explicitly? This requires initial conditions of our problem: we know at $t = 0$, $V_C(t) = V_{DD}$. Hence, we have $k = V_{DD}$. This gives us

$$V_C(t) = V_{DD} e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}.$$  

Now, we can start to ask some interesting questions. One of them is: How long does it take so that the voltage in the capacitor is halved? The answer is

$$t_{\text{half-life}} = \ln(2) RC \approx 0.693 RC,$$

which is derived by setting $V_C(t) = \frac{1}{2} V_{DD}$ and solving for $t$. We see that the bigger the values of $RC$, the longer it takes for the voltage to drop. Because of this reason, $RC$ is also called the time constant $\tau$. 

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1. NAND Circuit

Let us consider a NAND logic gate. This circuit implements the boolean function $(A \cdot B)$.

![NAND Circuit Diagram]

Figure 5: NAND

$V_{in}$ and $V_{tp}$ are the threshold voltages for the NMOS and PMOS transistors, respectively. Assume that $V_{DD} > V_{in}$ and $|V_{tp}| > 0$.

(a) Label the gate, source, and drain nodes for the NMOS and PMOS transistors above.

**Answer:** In an NMOS, the terminal at the higher potential is always the drain, and the terminal at the lower potential is always the source. Therefore, the drain is at the top of $N_2$ (connected to $V_{out}$) and the top of $N_1$ (connected to $N_2$). The source is at the bottom of $N_2$ (connected to $N_1$) and the bottom of $N_1$ (connected to ground). The gate terminal of $N_2$ is connected to $V_A$; the gate of $N_1$ is connected to $V_B$. In an PMOS, the terminal at the higher potential is always the source, and the terminal at the lower potential is always the drain. Therefore, the source is at the top of $P_1$ and $P_2$ (connected to $V_{DD}$). The drain is at the bottom of $P_1$ and $P_2$ (connected to $V_{out}$). The gate terminal of $P_1$ is connected to $V_A$; the gate of $P_2$ is connected to $V_B$.

(b) If $V_A = V_{DD}$ and $V_B = V_{DD}$, which transistors act like open circuits? Which transistors act like closed circuits? What is $V_{out}$?

**Answer:** $P_1$ and $P_2$ are off, creating an open circuit. $N_1$ and $N_2$ are on, creating a closed circuit. $V_{out} = 0V$ because it is connected by closed circuit to ground.

(c) If $V_A = 0V$ and $V_B = V_{DD}$, what is $V_{out}$?

**Answer:** $P_2$ and $N_2$ are off, creating an open circuit. $P_1$ and $N_1$ are on, creating a closed circuit. $V_{out} = V_{DD}$ because it is connected by closed circuit to $V_{DD}$.

(d) If $V_A = V_{DD}$ and $V_B = 0V$, what is $V_{out}$?

**Answer:** $P_1$ and $N_1$ are off, creating an open circuit. $P_2$ and $N_2$ are on, creating a closed circuit. $V_{out} = V_{DD}$ because it is connected by closed circuit to $V_{DD}$.

(e) If $V_A = 0V$ and $V_B = 0V$, what is $V_{out}$?
Answer: \( N_1 \) and \( N_2 \) are off, creating an open circuit. \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) are on, creating a closed circuit. \( V_{out} = V_{DD} \) because it is connected by closed circuit to \( V_{DD} \).

2. RC Circuits

In this problem, we will be using differential equations to find the voltage across a capacitor over time in an RC circuit. We set up our problem by first defining three functions over time: \( I(t) \) is the current at time \( t \), \( V(t) \) is the voltage across the circuit at time \( t \), and \( V_C(t) \) is the voltage across the capacitor at time \( t \).

Recall from 16A that the voltage across a resistor is defined as \( V_R = RI_R \) where \( I_R \) is the current across the resistor. Also, recall that the voltage across a capacitor is defined as \( V_C = \frac{Q}{C} \) where \( Q \) is the charge across the capacitor.

![Figure 6: Example Circuit](image)

(a) First, find an equation that relates the current across the capacitor \( I(t) \) with the voltage across the capacitor \( V_C(t) \).

Answer:

Differentiating \( V_C(t) = \frac{Q(t)}{C} \) in terms of \( t \), we get

\[
\frac{dV(t)}{dt} = \frac{dQ(t)}{dt} \frac{1}{C}
\]

By definition, the change in charge is the current across the capacitor, so

\[
\frac{d}{dt} V_C(t) = I(t) \frac{1}{C}
\]

(b) Write a system of equations that relates the functions \( I(t) \), \( V_C(t) \), and \( V(t) \).

Answer:

Kirchhoff’s law states that the voltage across a closed loop is 0.

\[
RI(t) + V_C(t) - V(t) = 0
\]

\[
RI(t) + V_C(t) = V(t)
\] (1)

(c) So far, we have three unknown functions and only one equation, but we can remove \( I(t) \) from the equation using what we found in part (a). Rewrite the previous equation in part (b) in the form of a differential equation.

Answer:

From part (a), we have
\[ I(t) = \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} \]

Substituting this into Equation gives us

\[ RC \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} + V_C(t) = V(t) \]

\[ RC \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} + V_C(t) = V(t) \]

\[ \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} = -\frac{1}{RC} V_C(t) \]

\[ V_C(t) = A e^{-\frac{1}{RC} t} \]

Thus, we see that \( A = V_{DD} \), and our solution is
\( V_C(t) = V_{DD}e^{-\frac{1}{RC}t} \)

![Circuit diagram](image)

**Figure 8: Circuit for part (e)**

(e) Now, let’s suppose that we start with an uncharged capacitor \( V_C(0) = 0 \). We apply some constant voltage \( V(t) = V_{DD} \) across the circuit. Solve the differential equation for \( V_C(t) \) for \( t \geq 0 \).

**Answer:**

Substituting \( V(t) = V_{DD} \) into our solution from part (c):

\[
RC \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} + V_o(t) = V_{DD}
\]

We want to arrange this equation to be in a form that we know how to solve:

\[
\frac{d}{dt} V_C = \frac{V_{DD} - V_C(t)}{RC}
\]

This is not quite the form we have seen before, as the term on the right is not equal to the term being differentiated. Let’s instead define a new variable \( \tilde{V}_C(t) = V_C(t) - V_{DD} \). Note that \( \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt} = \frac{d\tilde{V}_C(t)}{dt} \). We can substitute these into our differential equation and obtain

\[
RC \frac{d\tilde{V}_C(t)}{dt} + \tilde{V}_C(t) - V_{DD} = 0
\]

\[
RC \frac{d\tilde{V}_C(t)}{dt} + \tilde{V}_C(t) = 0
\]

In this equation, we have now removed \( V_{DD} \) from the left hand because of how we defined \( \tilde{V}_C(t) \). We can now solve the differential equation using the same method as in the previous part to get

\[
\tilde{V}_C(t) = Ae^{-\frac{t}{RC}}
\]

Substituting \( V_C(t) = V_{DD} + \tilde{V}_C(t) \) back into this equation gives us

\[
V_C(t) = V_{DD} + Ae^{-\frac{t}{RC}}
\]

Using in the initial condition \( V_C(0) = 0 \), we get:

\[
0 = V_{DD} + Ae^{-\frac{0}{RC}} \implies A = -V_{DD}
\]

Therefore,

\[
V_C(t) = V_{DD} - V_{DD}e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} = V_{DD}(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}})
\]
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