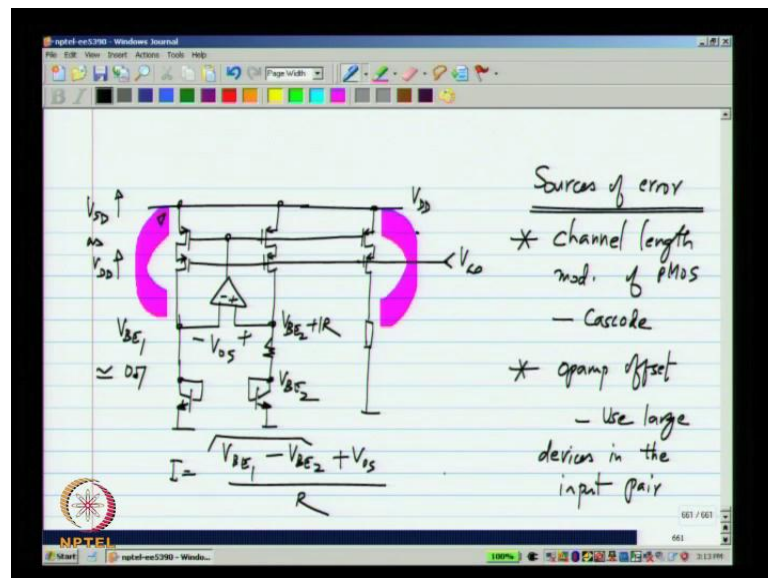


Analog Integrated Circuit Design
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Lecture - 54
Bias Current Generation and Band gap Reference

Hello and welcome lecture 54 of Analog Integrated Circuit Design, we are going discussing how to generate current references such that a transistor which is bias with this current as a constant g m. We will look at it little more that is sources of where are in such references, and move on to voltage references.

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We have looked at the PTAT cell what we had was these two PMOS transistor generating the reference current for bipolar transistors, and the entire circuit is self biased. Now; obviously, the implication here is that, this current is replicated somewhere else and used, and at many places for us, now one of the important things in a reference is that it should also not be very sensitive to the supply voltage. Now, in this particular circuit the voltage is here V_{BE1} and V_{BE2} plus IR which is the same V_{BE1} , these are almost constant there be a 0.7 volts as so.

So, as the V_{DD} changes the source drain voltage of these PMOS transistors V_{SD} increases as V_{DD} increases. So; that means, that this could be operating from a very different source drain voltage from this transistor, which is actually sourcing the current

into the desired circuit. So; that means, that the actual current that is flowing here is different from the self bias current that we generated, so that can also lead to errors.

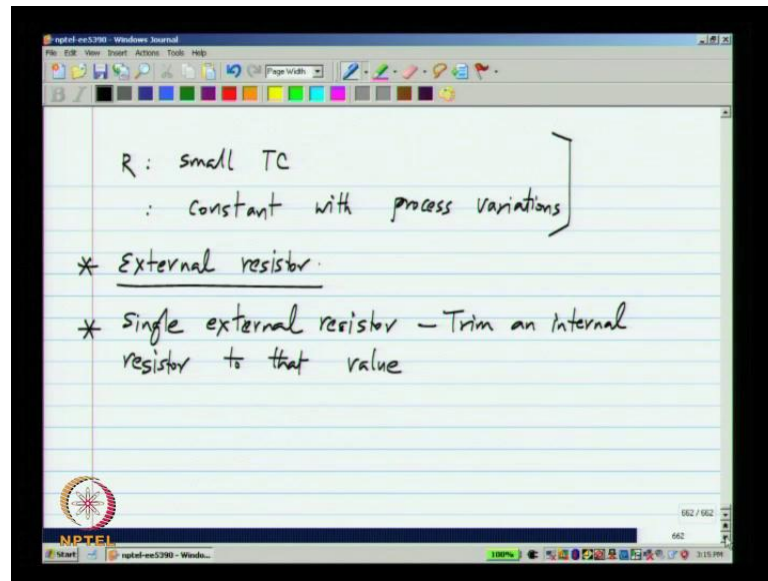
So, the easy way to fix this is by making this current mirrors more accurate, and less sensitive to V_{DD} that is by making them cascode current mirrors, what we can do is to introduce cascode devices here. So, in this case a current mirror also would be a cascode, and we have to bias the certain $V_{G_{naught}}$, which can also be generated using self bias that is mirror this and backup, just have to make sure that the circuit starts up correctly.

I would not show the details of that, the only thing is it should be such that these transistors remain in saturation. So, in that case what happens is this voltage can be very different from this, but the currents will not be, so different because of the cascode effect that we have seen earlier. Another source of error is the offset of this OPAMP. We said that this $V_{BE2} + IR$ will be forced equal to V_{BE1} by the action of negative feedback.

But, in presence of offset there will be a difference V_{OS} between these two, so this current finally, will be $V_{BE1} - V_{BE2} + V_{OS}$ divided by R . So, this will not be exactly proportional to absolute temperature, even if this difference is exactly proportional to absolute temperature. So, we have to make sure that this V_{OS} is much smaller than $V_{BE1} - V_{BE2}$, and how to do that basically in this half amp we have to use a large enough input differential pair, so that offset of this differential pair is rather small.

So, the sources of error could be a channel length modulation of PMOS transistors for this use cascode, and OPAMP offset and for this use large devices in the input pair. So, these are the common precautions that one must take, while designing circuit of the sort.

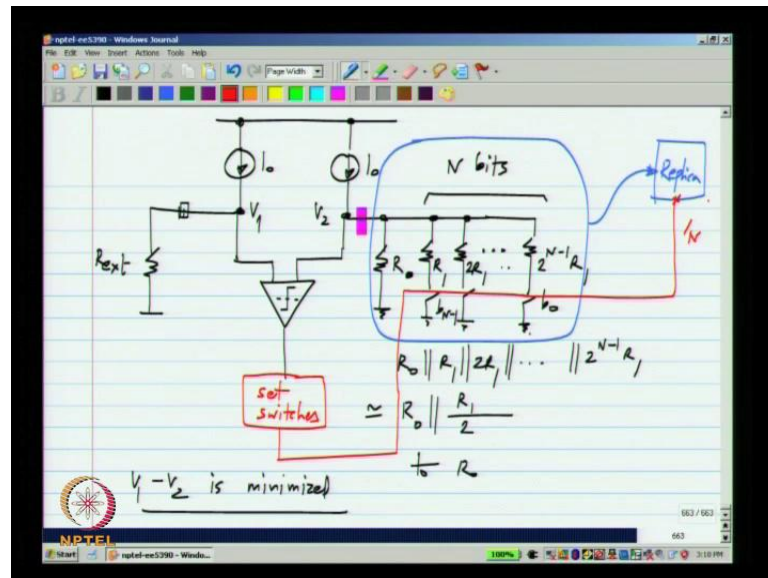
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Now, we also require that this R have a small temperature coefficient, otherwise its temperature coefficient will appear in the temperature coefficient of the current. And also it be constant with process variations. Both of these are relatively easy to do, if we have an external resistor. External resistor will be constant with process variations, and also we can have by an external resistor, which has very small temperature coefficient.

But, one of the problems says that first off all you may not want to use an external resistor, and especially many times you have a number of such circuits on your integrated circuit. So, you certainly do not want to use many such external resistors, one for each one because, that would become too expensive and the number of pins, and it will increase the number of pins unnecessarily and, so on. Again we can exploit matching between on-chip resistors to overcome this, we can use the single external resistor. And you trim an internal resistor to that value, there are a number of ways of doing it I will just outline one of the possible ways.

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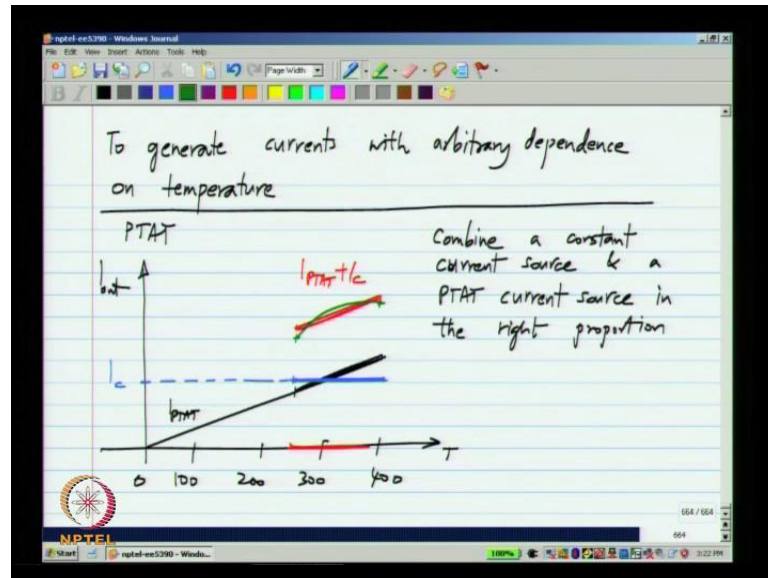
What you do is, let say we have an external register R_{ext} and this is the ground, and this is an on chip current source that will passes certain current. And you can pass the same current through an on chip register, which is variable and how do you make it variable one of the commonly used west is to use a set of parallel registers, which can be switched well I will call this R_{naught} and this R_1 . Let say $2R_1$ and, so on up to 2 to the N minus 1 R_1 that is N bits of an resolution, and this is b_0 up to b_{N-1} .

So, by controlling this switches you can change the value of the resistance that appears between that point and ground. And it can change from a minimum value of R_{naught} parallel of all these resistors, which is basically R_{naught} in parallel with approximately R_1 by 2 , all the way to R_{naught} an all the switches are open. Then what you do is you compare these two voltages in a comparator, and based on the output of the comparator you set the switches, you can for instance 0 binary search.

Such that finally, the difference V_1 minus V_2 is minimized, what then happens is that, the effective resistance between this point and ground will be as close as it can be two the resistance between that point and ground or the external resistance. Now, after that any time you want a resistance on chip that is accurately defined, what you do is you replicate these entire thing. This will be a replica, and it will also have N bits of control and the same N bits are used here, and replica could also be scaled if you wish.

So, this is one common way of realizing a numbers on chip, which are lock to an external register. So, this also can possibly used to realize R, so there are number of techniques like this which if you think about the situation will become obvious to you or if you look at the literature you can study those things.

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Now, one of the other requirements may be to generate currents with some arbitrary dependence on temperature that is we have know how to make a current that is portioned to absolute temperature. But, you may be required to have a current that has some dependence like this or like that or something, this may be to compensate something of rather. Now, many times what you can do is to combine a constant current source, and a proportional to absolute temperature current source in the right proportion to do this.

So, what I mean is, so let me say that this is the absolute temperature axis plotted all the way from 0 Kelvin, of course we will not operate anywhere near that, and our operating region will be usually somewhere over here from 0 to 100 degree c or may be even minus 40 d c to 100 c and, so on, it will over there. Now, if you have a proportional absolute temperature current source, it is variation will be linear with temperature, and in the ranges are that we are interested in it will like that.

And let say you have constant current source that is constant with temperature, then in the range that where interested in it will be like that. If I sum these two what I will get will be something like that, this will be $I_P T + I_C$, and this is not linear that is this

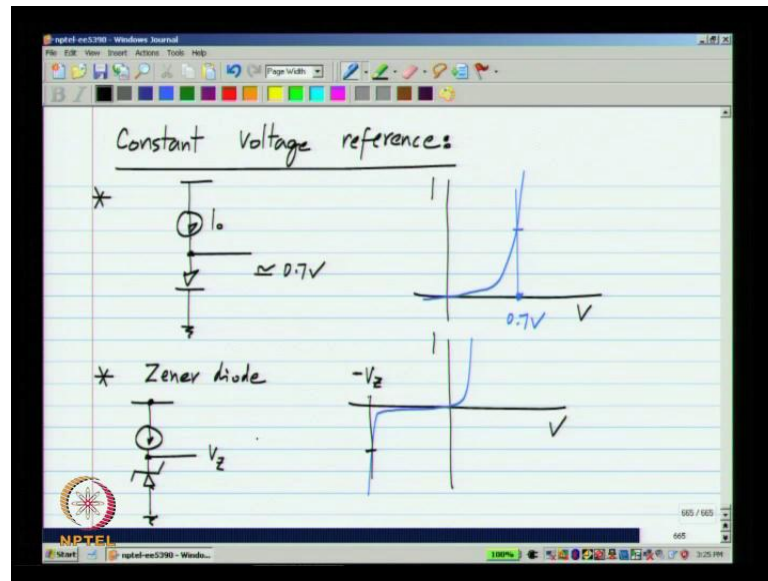
is a straight line, but it is not passing through the origin. Now, this could be the approximation for a desired curve, which is like that or something.

So, what you can do is if you're given a current versus temperature curve, you can look at the end points and see how it is varying, and try to generate it using a combination of I_P TAT and a constant current, for many times this is a crowded approximation that will surprise. And by the same token you can also generate current which have a negative temperature coefficient, instead of adding a P TAT current source to a constant current source. We can subtract the P TAT current source from the constant source, then the resulting current will have a negative temperature coefficient.

And by adjusting the proportions you may be able to get something that approximates the requirement that you have, so this is the another trick that you can use. Similarly, the circuit that generates a current, which keeps the g_m of a MOSFET constant, will have some complicated temperature dependents by combining that with the constant current source you may be able to get other dependences over temperature.

So, we have now discussed generating current references to some extent, and the current references over of the type which will keep the g_m of certain transistors constant. And to generate constant current, we need a constant voltage as I discussed earlier, so what will now look at is how to generate a constant voltage on chip. Again when I say constant voltage it should not be dependent on temperature, and preferably also not dependent on process and power supply voltage and, so on.

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Now, there are many constant voltage references in a crude sense that are used some times, first off all if we look at the I V characteristic of a diode, it is rather steep. And you know that for operating point calculations it is common to assume that the forward drop of the diode is just 0.7 volts, this is just an approximation. But, you can think of this as something that is roughly constant. So, if you pass a current through a diode you will get approximately 0.7 volts and you can think of that as a voltage reference, it turns out that this is too crude it will vary with temperature it will also vary with the current and, so on. But, to some approximation it works, and especially with discrete circuits you also know that, there is something known as zener diode. Essentially it is same as diode, which is operated in its reverse breakdown region.

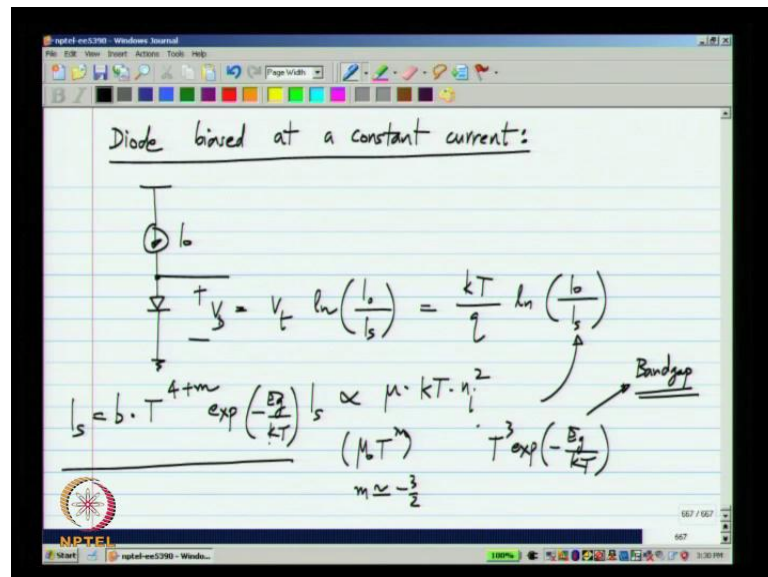
And this characteristic, in this region is rather steep and if you bias somewhere there, the voltage will be by and large independent of the current and that is known as the zener voltage. Typically it is denoted by special symbol, but basically it is a reverse biased diode, which is operated in the reverse break down region, now this also has a certain temperature coefficient. Now, it turns out that there are two different breakdown mechanisms, the avalanche breakdown mechanism and the tunneling breakdown mechanism.

And one of them has a positive temperature coefficient, and the other one has a negative coefficient. But, there is a problem with making this CMOS integrated circuits, first off

you design the junction in a CMOS IC, so that the reverse breakdown is usually at a voltage that is higher than the power supply, this is for safety. And you normally do not design special junctions, which can breakdown at a voltage below the supply voltage.

So, clearly if you the diodes breakdown only beyond the supply voltage, we cannot use it to realize a voltage reference. So, what we have to do is to come up with the circuit that has 0 temperature coefficient, and uses their components that we have own chip, so what will do is first look at the diodes behavior more carefully that is I said that, the diode gives approximately 0.7 volts, but depends on temperature. So, what will do is we look at how exactly it depends on temperature, and perhaps try to cancel that one.

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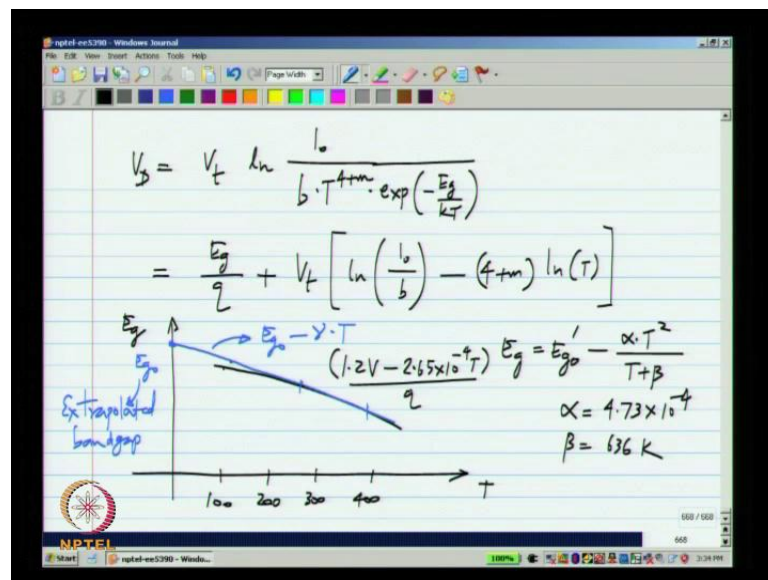
I will call this V_D which is $V_T \log I_0 / I_s$ which of course, is $kT/q \ln I_0 / I_s$. Now, just looking at this it looks as though the diode voltage is proportional to absolute temperature, but of course, I_s it turns out is very strongly dependent on temperature, I_s proportional to mobility and kT and n_i^2 where n_i^2 square is square of the intrinsic carrier concentration. And μ itself is dependent on temperature as $\mu \propto T^{-m}$ where m is approximately minus 1.5 and we have kT which is of course, proportional to temperature.

And this n_i^2 it is also dependent on temperature as $T^3 \exp(-E_g/kT)$, where E_g is the band gap. And of course, kT is proportional to temperature here, but there is a dependence on T^3 , which makes I_s very strongly dependent on

temperature it increases with temperature. So, the net result is that the diode drop V_D actually reduces with temperature.

So, putting all of these things together I will write I_s as some constant b which includes this bolds ones constant. And this μ naught over there T raise to 4 plus m , we get m form here, 1 from there and 3 from there, so it becomes 4 plus m , and I also have exponential minus E_g by $k T$. So, that represents I_s verses temperature, the store is not complete though because, E_g itself is dependent on temperature we look at it shortly.

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So, the diode drop or the base emitter voltage of bi polar transistor would be $V_T \ln I$ naught divided by $b T$ to the 4 plus m exponential minus E_g by $k T$. But, if you expand you will get E_g by q this by q come from $v T$ being $k T$ divided by q plus $v T$ times $\log I$ naught by b it is represents the constant terms over here minus 4 plus $m \log T$. Now, like I said E_g itself is dependent on temperature, and it terms out have rather complicated depends on temperature, which is $E_{g0} - \alpha T^2 / (T + \beta)$.

And for silicon this α is 4.73 times 10 to the minus 4, electron volts for Kelvin and β is 636 Kelvin. So, if you plot it, it looks something like that, now again we are interested in the temperature range around 250 and 350 or 400 Kelvin, and over that range it can be approximated by a straight line, this is the range of interest. And it can be represented as some E_g naught minus γT that is it is a straight line, which

starts from E_g which I will call the extra polarized band gap, and then it decreases linearly with temperature.

Now, this approximation is not valid in all region, but in the region that we are interested in it is valid, the two curves become close to each other. And it turns out that these values are E_g is approximately 1.2 electron volts, rather I will write E_g as 1.2 volts minus 2.65 times $10^{-4} T$ divided by q . So, what is on top will have dimensions of volts and if we divided by q you will naturally get the electron volts.

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with the following handwritten equations and notes:

$$V_D = \frac{E_{g0}}{q} - 3.08 V_T + V_T \left[\ln\left(\frac{b_0}{b}\right) - (4+m) \ln(T) \right]$$

$$\frac{E_{g0}}{q} = 1.2V - 2.65 \times 10^{-4} T$$

$$= 1.2V - 3.08 V_T$$

$$V_D = \frac{E_g}{q} + V_T \left[\ln\left(\frac{b_0}{b}\right) - 3.08 - (4+m) \ln(T) \right]$$

Below the equations, there are handwritten notes: "0.7V" and "1.2V" with arrows pointing to the first two equations. A bracket under the third equation is labeled "Negative Voltage; Negative TC" with a note " $\approx -0.5V$ ".

So, V_D can be further rightness E_g by q and like I said E_g by q could be sorry this is not this divided by q , but this times q , E_g by q could be 1.2 volts minus 2.65 times $10^{-4} T$. And this because, it is proportional T I will write it in terms of the thermal voltage V_T it will be 1.2 volts minus 3.08 V_T , so I have minus 3.08 V_T plus V_T times $\ln\left(\frac{b_0}{b}\right) - 4 + m \ln T$. So, this is what we will have, and it is clear that this E_g by q is approximately 1.2 volts, and we know from experience that V_D is about 0.7 volts may 0.8 and, so on.

So, this entire thing will be a negative voltage, so it is approximately minus 0.5 volts are so, and top of it this entire thing will also proportional to V_T that is its proportional to absolute temperature, except this last term which also has $\log T$ in it. So, this entire term on top of it will also have a negative temperature coefficient that is this entire term will become more negative with increasing temperature.

So, the diode drop turns have a negative temperature coefficient, and again you may have read about this that it has negative temperature coefficient of about 1.5 milli volts for Kelvin or 2 milli volts for Kelvin. It depends on the type of the diode that you have, and how much current you bias it with, but roughly that is a number. But, in this entire thing there is one quantity that is completely independent of temperature, and also anything related our circuit that is E_g naught.

The extra polited band gap that a characteristics of silicon, and also not a dainty temperature, but extra polited 0 degrees. So, if we compensate for the remaining terms in this expression, we will get a voltage that is just E_g naught by q , and that will be absolutely constant and independent of temperature. So, that is the sense behind this voltage reference, which is known as band gap reference it is called a band gap reference because, its final output voltage will be the extra polited band gap voltage E_g naught by q or 1.2 volts.

Now, you may have seen in catalogs that a number of band gap references are available with 1.2 volts as the output voltage. And the reason is that the extra polited band gap silicon is 1.2 volts, so what we will do, is we will see how to cancel the remaining terms which our negative temperature coefficient. Now, how do we cancel in negative temperature coefficient by adding a term which has a positive temperature coefficient.

And that we already have, we have something that is proportional to absolute temperature, which has a positive temperature coefficient and that can cancel the negative temperature coefficient given here. In fact, if you look at the remaining term besides E_g naught by q that is proportional to V_t , except for the last term which also has $\ln T$. So, it is blindly non-linear, so to that if you add something that is proportional T with a positive coefficient, then you can potentially cancel it at some particular temperature, and also get a rough cancelation at a wide range of temperatures. ((Refer Time: 29:15))

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Bandgap reference:

- * Diode (V_D) drop has a negative temp. coefficient of $\approx -1.5\text{mV/K}$
- * Add a PTAT voltage to realize zero TC.

$$V_{out} = V_D + \alpha \cdot V_T$$
$$= \frac{E_{g0}}{2} + V_T \left[\ln\left(\frac{I_a}{I_b}\right) - 3.08 - (4+m)\ln T \right] + \alpha V_T$$

Set to zero at 300K

So, what will do is said this part to 0 to 300 Kelvin, which will cancel of the temperature coefficient at that temperature. For other temperate, they will be it will not be exactly constant, but usually we can leave with that, and there also sophisticate by, so that correcting for that as well. Now, one of the things is this looks like it is dependent on this precise combers of I naught by B etcetera, etcetera, but that is not the case.

So, in simulation we can determine what is the value of alpha, and then as long as these things are modeled correctly, we will able to do the cancelation. We do not need to calculate from these values as well shortly show for illustration, but as long as the dependence of diode drop across temperature is modeled correctly in your device model you will be able to do this.

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with the following handwritten equations:

$$\frac{dV_{out}}{dT} = \frac{k}{q} \left[\ln\left(\frac{I_0}{I}\right) - 3.08 - (4+m) \ln T \right] - \frac{kT}{q} \frac{(4+m)}{T} + \alpha \cdot \frac{k}{q} = 0$$

$$\alpha = - \left[\ln\left(\frac{I_0}{I}\right) - 3.08 - (4+m) \ln T \right] + (4+m)$$

$$= - \frac{V_D - E_g/q}{V_t} + (4+m)$$

$$= \frac{E_g/q - V_D}{V_t} + (4+m)$$

On the right side of the whiteboard, the following values are listed:

- $E_g/q = 1.2V$
- $V_D = 0.7V$
- $V_t = 25mV$
- $m = -\frac{3}{2}$

The calculation shows that $\frac{E_g/q - V_D}{V_t} + 2.5 = 22.5$.

If derivative of the output voltage with temperature is given by this term of course, is constant with temperature, and this whole thing becomes V_t which if you differentiate you had k by q , and you have this constant terms. And also this has to be differentiated which will give you and finally, for the last term which we are going to add will have α times k by q . And this entire thing has to be set to 0, so α terms are to be $\ln I$ not by b minus 3.08 minus 4 plus $m \ln T$ minus 4 plus m .

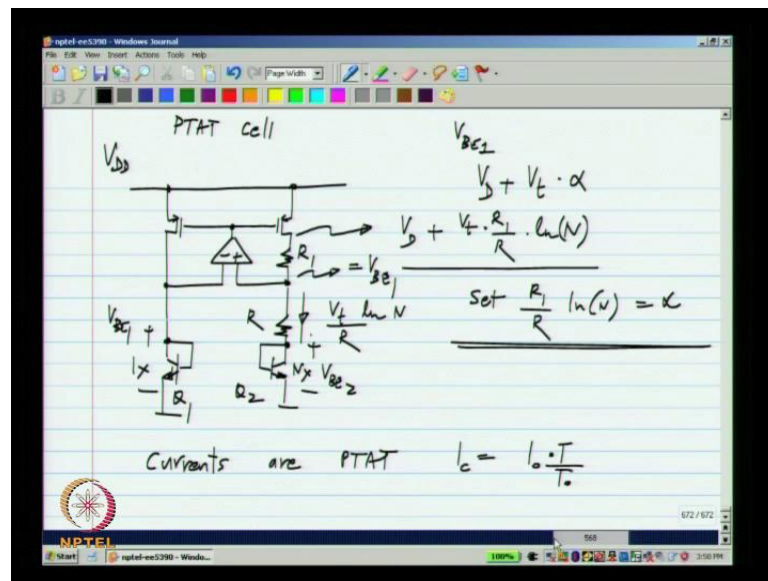
Again as I said, we will show the rough calculation assuming some parameters, but when you realize a band gap circuit, it is based on simulation and you adjust the parameter α . So, that the temperature coefficient becomes exactly 0, now you notice that this expression this part of it also appears in the expression for the diode voltage itself, the diode voltage is this much.

So, what we have there is what is inside these brackets, and that is equal to V_D minus E_g naught by q divided by V_t , this is negative by the way this by substituting we will get minus V_D minus E_g naught by q divided by V_t that is this entire thing in brackets and plus 4 plus m which is E_g naught by q minus the diode voltage divided V_t plus 4 plus m . And if you substitute E_g naught by q to be 1.2 volts V_D to be 0.7 volts, and V_t just for hand calculation I will approximate it 25 milli volts and m we know is minus 3 by 2.

So, what we will get is these differences 500 milli volts divided by 25 milli volts, and 4 plus m is 4 minus 1.5 which is 2.5. So, that comes out to be about 22.5, so if α is

22.5 that is you add the diode voltage at a constant current plus 22.5 times the thermal voltage V_t , you will get a voltage that is independent of temperature and that voltage will be equal to the extra polished band gap of silicon, which is 1.2 volts. So, will see how to realize this in circuit, we have to refine these results are a little bit we are going to do that. And again this alpha I showed it by hand calculation, but in reality you will just do it by simulation.

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So, how do we go about doing this we know will start with the P TAT cell because, we know that we will need a voltage that is proportional to absolute temperature and I will show bipolar transistors here. So, although I said diode drops and, so on even when you want to diode, it is a better to realize it as a diode connected bipolar transistor, you can consult devices about to say why that is the case. You can have a diode that is single p n junction or you can have a bipolar transistor which is lets a n p n junction, which the collector connected to the base it becomes a diode.

The transistor connected as a diode follows the exponential lot more closely, than the single junction diode. So, again you can consult devices looks to see why this is the case, but that is what is frequently done, so what we have here this is the P TAT cell, we have V_{BE1} and V_{BE2} . And when it is operating correctly this voltage will be equal to V_{BE1} , and this current will be equal to $V_t \log N$ divided by R , where this Q_1 has an area of 1 and Q_2 has an area of N .

Now, what we needed was V_D plus V_T times α . V_D is nothing, but V_{BE1} , so how do we do that it is extremely simple all I have to do is to add a voltage to this branch, I will call this R_1 . So, this voltage will be V_D plus V_T times R_1 by $R \log N$, so all we have to do is to set R_1 by $R \log N$ to the appropriate value α , this gives a band gap voltage and that is about 1.2 volts. Now, there is one set will be here earlier while calculating the temperature coefficient of the diode voltage and, so on, I assume that the diode was biased at a constant current that is current add the 0 temperature coefficient.

Now, we have found a simple way of adding the diode voltage or V_{BE2} a proportional absolute temperature voltage that is across R_1 . But, here in this cell the current through the diode is not temperature independent, but it has a proportional to absolute temperature dependence. Now, this changes things only slightly, so I am not going to go through the details I will just outline the difference, to the current in the cell or proportional to absolute temperature I_C will be it will be something proportional to absolute temperature I will call it I_{naught} times T by T_{naught} .

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The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten mathematical equations. The equations are as follows:

$$V_D = V_T \ln\left(\frac{I_C}{I_S}\right)$$

$$= \frac{E_g}{q} + V_T \left[\ln\left(\frac{I_C}{I_S}\right) - 3.08 - (4+m) \ln T \right]$$

$I_C = I_C' \cdot \frac{T}{T_0}$
 $\ln\left(\frac{I_C'}{T_0 I_S}\right) + \ln T$

PTAT

$$\frac{E_g}{q} + V_T \left[\ln\left(\frac{I_C'}{T_0 I_S}\right) - 3.08 - (3+m) \ln T \right]$$

So, all that happens is that earlier we had $V_T \log I_C$ by I_S , we took care of the temperature dependence everywhere except this I_C was assumed to be constant. And when we finally, wrote down the expression, we had got E_g naught by q plus V_T times $\log I_{naught} b$ which was assumed to be constant minus 3.08 minus 4 plus $m \log t$. Now, the only thing that happens is that, this will have a temperature dependence.

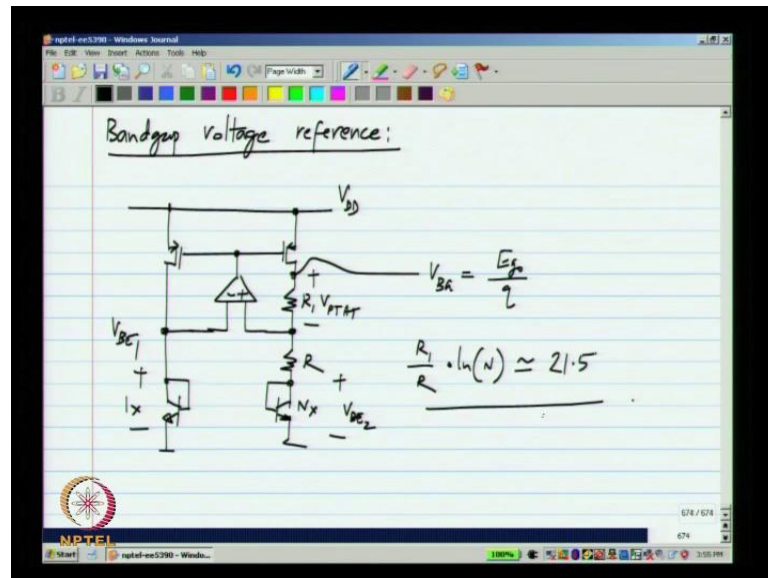
So, like I said if I_{naught} is $I_{naught} \times T$ by T_{naught} , so let me $naught$ use the same symbol, some $I_{naught} \text{ prime}$ time's T by T_{naught} . What we get here would be $\log I_{naught} \text{ prime}$ by T_{naught} times b plus $\log T$, so we will get this extra dependence. So, all that happens is that we have $4 \log T$ here and a $\log T$ there, so this will get modified to when the current is $P T A T E g_{naught}$ by q plus $V t \log I_{naught} \text{ prime}$ by $T_{naught} b$, the exact thing is not important it is a constant minus 3.08 minus 3 plus $m \log T$.

So, wherever you add 4 plus m earlier now we have 3 plus m , so we can again approximately calculate the ratio. So, this becomes 3 plus m , so instead of 22.5 you will have 21.5 , again a small difference and like I said earlier, you would calculate this by simulation. This is because, here in the first term I have taken $E g_{naught}$ by q minus $V D$ to be 1.2 volts minus 0.7 volts, $E g_{naught}$ by q is 1.2 volts that is pretty accurate, but $V D$ can be anything it depend on the kind of diodes you have.

So, to get this α value exactly you determinate by simulation, and like many of the other reference circuits, this circuit also sensitive to how accurately your transistors are modeled. Now, this is basically the band gap reference circuit, which is used very widely which used in every integrated circuit, sometimes you may have more than one that generates a constant voltage source, it is also commercially available as a standalone reference for many applications.

You will want constant voltage source is everywhere for voltage regulators and many other cases. So, this band gap reference because, it is finally, dependent on this single voltage which is independent of everything right that is it is the extrapolated band gap of silicon, it can be very accurately realize with as sufficiently elaborate circuit, and it is also used extremely widely.

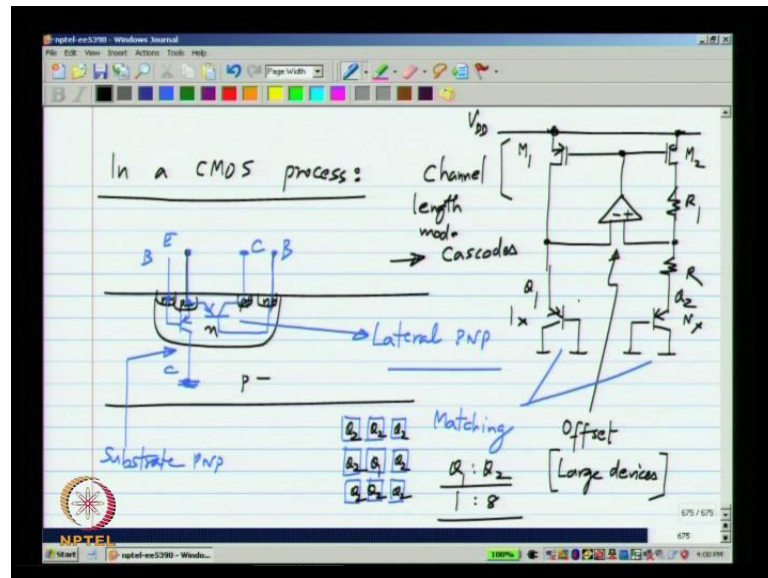
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The very basic band gap voltage reference is what we just outline, we have the proportional to absolute temperature cell, which gives as a current that is proportional to absolute temperature. And in this circuit we also have the diode drop or V_{BE} , so we can stack the two together, this is V_{BE1} and here we have V_{PTAT} , so the sum of the two is the output V_{BG} , which should be equal to E_g naught by q if you done the cancelation correctly.

Now, there are number of other things, so first off all we have to realize lesson CMOS technologies as well, I have assumed that both bipolar transistors, and CMOS transistors available. If you have a purely bipolar technology, we can do that the OPAMP band the current mirror on top has to be realize choosing bipolar transistors that is e_g . But, if you have a purely CMOS technology, you still have to make these diodes or diode connected transistors. And they can be made using the parasitic PNP transistors that are available in any CMOS process.

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You have the n well, in which you would be making the PNP transistor, so and sub state is p as well. So, you see that you have PNP over here and also PNP over there, so the two kinds of PNP bipolar transistors available, one type where this is the emitter because, it is highly doped this is the base and this is the collector. A collector is straight to the substrate, so it has to be connected to ground or the lowest potential, this is the base and the collector, this is known as the substrate PNP.

And you can also use the other set of PNP junctions, in which case all three terminal will be available. This is the annual junction and that is the base, and this is known as the lateral PNP and this also can be used one of the problems is that in this case the PNP transistor symmetrical. The drain and source are the same, so; that means, the collector and emitter are the same this is not a good feature in a bipolar transistor, you would like the emitter to the most highly doped base to have intermediate doping and a collector to be lightly doped.

But, this lateral PNP high symmetrical, but sometimes it can be used, now for the particular case of a band gap circuit, you do not need a transistor with P terminals, you need a diode connected transistor. So, the substrate PNP can be used very effectively, so all you would is that the diodes that you had would be realize like that, the fact that the collector is constraints to be ground is because, here also we need the collector to be grounded.

So, this is all we have to do $1 \times$ and $N \times$, and these two transistors are identical, as usual the sources of error include the channel length modulation of these for which, you will use cascades to overcome if you necessary. If the sensitivity to the supply voltage is too high, then you should use cascades here, here alternatives which one of which we will discuss later. And the other important thing is the offset of this OPAMP, which means that you have to use large devices.

And finally, you also need good matching between these two that is if this device is one that N . And you can use all the other techniques that you know for good matching like common centroid to make sure that they are match and dummy devices and, so on. So, one popular way of laying out transistors for the band gap is to do this, this is that why I call this Q_1 and Q_2 , this would be Q_1 and all these would be Q_2 . And this will realize a ratio of 1 to N in the area.

So, this is how a band gap reference would be realized in a CMOS process, as I mentioned earlier it is used very widely to generate voltage references. This gives you 0 temperature coefficient at a particular temperature, assuming that your model is accurate. Let say you said the temperature coefficient to 0 add 300 Kelvin or room temperature, so at that point it gives you 0 temperature coefficient, but the temperature coefficient will not be 0 at other temperatures, there will be certain variation with temperature.

Now, there are more sophisticated corrections that you can apply, if you know the kind of temperature dependency you have, just like we added a P TAT correction to the diode voltage. We can add higher order corrections, they are known as curvature corrections they are known as curvature connection and the circuits are known as curvature corrected band gaps. So, in the next lecture we will briefly discuss those things, and also another way of combating the errors due to variations in the power supply voltage.

Thank you I will you in the next lecture.