# On-chip low drop-out voltage regulator with NMOS power transistor and dynamic biasing technique

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**Abstract** We propose a NMOS low drop-out voltage regulator suitable for on-chip power management. The circuit does not requires any external components for achieving compensation since it is internally compensated. A dynamic biasing strategy and a clock booster allows to properly drive the NMOS power transistor in a power efficient fashion and without limiting the speed response of the regulator. Transistor level simulations confirm the effectiveness of the proposed approach.

**Keywords** CMOS analog integrated circuits · Voltage reference · CMOS reference · Low-drop voltage regulator

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# **1** Introduction

In recent years, power management in integrated circuits (ICs) is gaining more and more attention since it allows to drastically reduce the standby power of portable equipments such as cellular phones and PDAs [1]. In the case of a mixed-signal IC, a typical scenario may be composed of high voltage blocks (i.e., I/O buffers powered at 1.8 V for compatibility reason), of medium voltage blocks (i.e., analog circuits such as PLLs or operational amplifiers powered at 1.2–1.4 V) and of low voltage blocks (i.e., the logic circuit working at 0.6–1 V). Whereas, in the case of a digital IC, we may have speed-critical logic circuits working at nominal voltage (i.e., 1.2 V) and noncritical circuits powered at a lower supply (i.e., 0.9 V) thus reducing power dissipation [2].

A typical on-chip power management architecture consists of a single power supply (e.g., and external battery) and one or more local Voltage Regulators (VR) used to power up different sub-blocks at different supply voltages [3]. Such a strategy not only does allow for supplying different blocks at different voltages but also can significantly reduce crosstalk, improve the voltage regulation, eliminate spikes due to bondwires and reduce both board space and external pins [1].

Voltage regulators are made up of a stable and temperature independent voltage reference ( $V_{\text{REF}}$ ), an error amplifier and a large power transistor designed to deliver the current to the load,  $Z_L$ . In MOS technology, depending on whether the output transistor is an N- or P-type we may have the two general architectures shown in Fig. 1. The NMOS topology in Fig. 1(a) is the natural and the first choice for implementing a voltage regulator since it has many advantages (low output resistance, straightforward compensation, better load regulation, lower area



Fig. 1 Main schema of voltage regulators. a NMOS voltage regulator. b PMOS voltage regulator

occupation, etc.). However, it is not suitable for low-voltage applications. In fact, since node G cannot go above the supply voltage,  $V_{DD}$ , the output voltage,  $V_{OUT}$ , is limited to  $V_{DD} - V_{GS}$  where  $V_{GS}$  depends on the load current,  $I_L$  [4].

Today, in several CMOS systems the supply voltage is so low that PMOS LDO (Low Drop-Out) Voltage Regulators are preferable and the topology in Fig. 1(b) is often adopted [3, 5-9]. However, PMOS LDO regulators have several problems. In fact, the output pole (i.e., associated to the output node of the voltage regulator) is both unpredictable and located at a rather low frequency, making the frequency compensation complex. Therefore, PMOS LDO regulators, in general, need a large external capacitor for closed loop stability; additionally, little tolerance is allowed on both the capacitance and the parasitic series resistance of the external capacitor since both are used to achieve compensation. Besides, load regulation is degraded and the maximum output current (for a given area occupied by the output transistor) is significantly lower due to the reduced current capability of PMOS transistors [2, 10-12].

To solve the compensation difficulties and the necessity of a large external capacitor, NMOS low drop-out regulators have been reintroduced. In fact, these circuits may be compensated internally provided that the output capacitor is maintained below a certain value as is the case of onchip voltage regulators.

In order to perform low-dropout operation, two different approaches have been used to make the NMOS gate rise over the supply voltage. In the first one the error amplifier is powered by a supply higher than  $V_{DD}$ . Charge pumps [13–15] or a contactless inductive supply [16] have been used to do the job. However charge pumps have poor load efficiency and requires large capacitors resulting in high power and area consumption. Correspondingly, the contactless inductive supply is application specific and cannot be implemented anywhere. Moreover, in both cases, the fact that some current is not sinked from  $V_{DD}$  but from 2  $V_{DD}$  (or more) results in a significantly larger "effective" quiescent current and power dissipation.

The second approach exploits floating gate devices to implement a voltage shifter connected between the output of the error amplifier and the gate of the NMOS transistor [4, 17]. However, not only do floating gate devices require specific technologies but also must be set up and programmed, resulting in an increased complexity of the regulator.

In this paper we propose a new NMOS LDO Voltage Regulator suitable for on-chip voltage regulation which makes use of a dynamic biasing strategy to properly drive the gate of the power transistor.

# 2 Basic principle

The basic principle of the proposed NMOS LDO Voltage Regulator is shown in Fig. 2 where a proper voltage shifter (represented by a battery of voltage  $V_B$ ) allows to boost up the node *G* over  $V_{DD}$ , when necessary.

Obviously, the value of  $V_B$  must be chosen carefully. Assuming the output node of the operational amplifier (i.e., node *H*) can swing from  $V_{DS}^{\text{sat}}$  to  $V_{DD} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}}$ , node *G* can swing from  $V_{G}^{\min}$  to  $V_{G}^{\max}$ , where

$$V_G^{\min} = V_B + V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} \tag{1a}$$

$$V_G^{\max} = V_B + V_{DD} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} \tag{1b}$$

Noting that  $V_G = V_G^{\min}$ , the circuit must be able to switch off the output transistor (i.e., with a large load, the transistor must be close to interdiction), it is necessary to satisfy the condition

$$V_{GS}^{\min} = V_G^{\min} - V_{OUT} \le V_{THN}$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

being  $V_{THN}$  the threshold voltage of  $M_N$ . Therefore, the voltage  $V_B$  should be as high as possible, provided that

$$V_B \le V_{\text{OUT}} + V_{THN} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} \tag{3}$$

Clearly, if the supply voltage,  $V_{DD}$ , is lower than  $V_{OUT} + V_{THN} - V_{DS}^{sat}$ , the highest possible value for  $V_B$  is  $V_{DD}$  itself, so that the optimal value for  $V_B$  is

$$V_B = \min(V_{\text{OUT}} + V_{THN} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}}, V_{DD})$$
(4)

When the circuit is required to provide the maximum current to the load and the supply voltage is close to the



Fig. 2 Basic principle of the proposed LDO voltage regulator

output voltage of the regulator (worst case), the transistor  $M_N$  is almost certainly in the triode region and the load current can be modeled by

$$I_D = \mu_n C_{\text{ox}} \left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_N \left(V_{GS} - V_{THN} - \frac{V_{DS}}{2}\right) V_{DS}$$
(5)

For a given minimum drop-out,  $V_{DO} = V_{DD}^{\min} - V_{OUT}$ , and a given maximum load current,  $I_L^{\max}$ , (corresponding to  $V_{GS}^{\max} = V_G^{\max} - V_{OUT} = V_B + V_{DD} - V_{DSsat} - V_{OUT}$ ), the aspect ratio of the MOS output transistor,  $(W/L)_N$ , should be

$$\left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_{N} = \frac{I_{L}^{\max}}{\mu_{n}C_{\text{ox}}\left(V_{B}+V_{DD}-V_{DSsat}-V_{\text{OUT}}-V_{THN}-\frac{V_{\text{DO}}}{2}\right)V_{\text{DC}}}$$
(6)

Depending on the value of  $V_B$  see (3), (6) may be simplified into

$$\left(\frac{W}{L}\right)_{N} \approx \begin{cases} \frac{I_{L}^{\max}}{\mu_{n}C_{\text{ox}}V_{DD}V_{\text{DO}}} & \text{for } V_{DD} > V_{\text{OUT}} + V_{THN} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}}\\ \frac{I_{L}^{\max}}{\mu_{n}C_{\text{ox}}(V_{DD} - V_{THN})V_{\text{DO}}} & \text{for } V_{DD} < V_{\text{OUT}} + V_{THN} - V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} \end{cases}$$

$$(7)$$

where we considered  $V_{DD} \gg 2 V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} + V_{DO}/2$ .

It is worth noting that the model in (7) underestimates the required aspect ratio since it does not take into account parasitic resistances, which must be considered for large load currents.

The regulator may be generalized by interposing a resistive voltage divider between the output of the regulator and the inverting input terminal of the error amplifier. In this case, it is easy to extend the present results by considering the general expression  $V_{\text{OUT}} = \beta V_{\text{REF}}$ , being  $\beta$  the feedback factor imposed by the resistive voltage divider.

### 3 Dinamically biased NMOS LDO regulator

The proposed NMOS LDO Regulator makes use of the dynamic biasing technique for implementing the voltage shifter,  $V_B$  [18], as shown in Fig. 3. Capacitor  $C_S$  acts as the voltage shifter and is charged to  $V_B$  by the Switched-Capacitor (SC) network in the figure.

The SC network requires two disoverlapped phases  $\phi_1$ and  $\phi_2$  of period  $T_S$  and works as follows. During phase  $\phi_1$ switches  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are closed and the flying capacitor  $C_R$  is charged at  $V_B$ . Conversely, during phase  $\phi_2$ ,  $S_3$  and  $S_4$ close,  $C_R$  is connected in parallel to  $C_S$  and the charge is redistributed between the two capacitors.

In the z-domain, we have that, during the phase  $\phi_1$ , the charges across both capacitors are [19]

$$Q_{CR}\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = C_R V_B\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = C_R V_B \tag{8a}$$



Fig. 3 Real implementation of the proposed NMOS LDO voltage regulator

$$Q_{CF}\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = C_{S}V_{GH}\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = C_{S}V_{GH}\left(z^{-1}\right) = C_{S}V_{GH}(z)z^{-1}(8b)$$

where we considered the fact that  $V_B$  is a constant voltage and that the value of  $V_{GH}$  does not change during the phase  $\phi_1$ . Moreover, during the phase  $\phi_2$ , the charges become

$$Q_{CR}(z) = C_R V_{GH}(z) \tag{9a}$$

$$Q_{CF}(z) = C_S V_{GH}(z) \tag{9b}$$

Since during the phase  $\phi_2$  the charge is only redistributed between the two capacitors, we may write

$$Q_{CR}\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) + Q_{CF}\left(z^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = Q_{CR}(z) + Q_{CF}(z)$$
(10)

that, considering (8) and (9) leads to

$$V_{GH}(z) = \frac{\frac{C_R}{C_R + C_S}}{1 - \frac{C_S}{C_R + C_S} z^{-1}} V_B$$
(11)

Relationship (11) represent the transfer function of a Switched-Capacitor (SC) integrator [19] that, after reaching the steady-state, will store the voltage  $V_B$  across the shifting capacitor  $C_S$ . The switches and the capacitor  $C_R$  perform an equivalent resistor  $R_{eq} = T_S/C_R$ . The time constant of the integrator is  $\tau_i = R_{eq}C_S = T_SC_S/C_R$  and the settling time,  $t_s$ , after which we may consider  $C_S$  completely charged at  $V_B$  results

$$t_s = 4T_S \frac{C_S}{C_R}.$$
(12)

#### 3.1 Switches and phases generator

A particular attention is required in the design of the switches as well as of their driving signals. In fact, due to the large swing at nodes H and G some switches could not switch on properly. In our implementation we used a clock booster approach for driving the switches.



**Fig. 4** 4-Phase clock generator ( $\delta \tau$  = delay blocks)

Switches  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$  and  $S_4$  are implemented with minimumsized NMOS transistors while  $S_3$ , which must handle the highest voltage in the circuit, is realized with a minimumsized transmission gate (a minimum sized NMOS transistor in parallel with a PMOS one). Bulks of NMOS transistors are connected to ground while the bulk of the PMOS transistor of  $S_3$  is connected to node *G* which is always at the higher potential.

Switches driving signals are generated by the circuit in Fig. 4. Starting from a master clock, *CK*, the circuit produces two main disoverlapped phases,  $\phi'_{1n}$  and  $\phi'_{2n}$ , and their respective complementary signals,  $\phi'_{1p}$  and  $\phi'_{2p}$ . These signals swing from ground to  $V_{DD}$  and are then passed to a Clock Booster block for being boosted up well above the supply voltage.

Clock boosters shown in Fig. 4 are implemented as shown in Fig. 5 [20]. Each of them consists of diode  $D_0$ , two capacitors,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , and the NMOS transistor,  $M_0$ . Assuming an n-well CMOS process, the diode is implemented with the PN junction placed between the p<sup>+</sup> drain/ source diffusions and the well. Capacitor  $C_{par}$  accounts for the parasitic capacitor given by the overall gate capacitance associated with the switches in the SC circuit.



Fig. 5 Clock booster schematic



Fig. 6 Clock booster timing diagram

The digital section takes the phase  $\phi_{IN}$  and produces the control signals  $\phi_A$ ,  $\phi_B$  and  $\phi_C$ , depicted in the timing diagram in Fig. 6 where, for clarity's sake, the time axis has been expanded. Specifically, when input  $\phi_{IN}$  is high, it is quickly transferred to both phases  $\phi_A$  and  $\phi_B$ . After a delay of  $\delta\tau$ ,  $\phi_B$  goes down and remains in this condition until the next rising edge of the input occurs. After a second delay of  $\delta\tau$ ,  $\phi_C$  also goes high, and together with phase  $\phi_A$ , remains in this condition until the next falling edge of the input takes place. To achieve both signal inversion and proper load driving, buffers may be included.

Referring to Fig. 5, after the start-up transient, diode  $D_0$ will keep capacitor  $C_1$  precharged to a voltage close to  $V_{DD}$ . During phases  $\phi_A$  and  $\phi_B$  with phase  $\phi_C$  off, transistor  $M_0$  is switched on (its gate is at 2  $V_{DD}$ ) and capacitor  $C_2$  is precharged to  $V_{DD}$ . After charging  $C_2$ , phase  $\phi_B$  goes down turning  $M_0$  off,  $\phi_C$  then goes up, and the output is boosted above the power supply by about  $V_{DD}$ . More precisely, there is a charge redistribution between capacitors  $C_2$  and the parasitic capacitor,  $C_{par}$ , which sets  $\phi_{OUT}$  to

$$\phi_{\text{OUT}}^{\text{high}} = \left(1 + \frac{C_2}{C_2 + C_{\text{par}}}\right) V_{DD} \tag{13}$$

Finally, when phases  $\phi_A$  and  $\phi_C$  go down, transistor  $M_0$  is driven from the cut-off to the triode region,  $C_2$  and  $C_{par}$  discharge through  $M_0$ , and the output goes to zero. The behavior of  $\phi_{OUT}$  is shown in Fig. 6, too.

# 3.2 Switching noise

The dynamic biasing circuitry seems to add undesired noise to the output voltage of the regulator. Actually, due to the feedback, this effect is strongly mitigated.

It is apparent that noise may be introduced to node G of Fig. 3 either through charge injection or through leakage effects.<sup>1</sup> In both cases the noise can be modeled by means of a variation of the potential at node G,  $\Delta V_G$ . If the noise

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Node H is dynamically at ground and no noise can be injected to this node.

makes node G to increase, due to the common drain configuration of  $M_N$ , voltage  $V_{OUT}$  increases, too. Therefore, due to the negative feedback, node H decreases and, since  $V_G$  follows  $V_H$ , node G is brought to the correct potential thus nullifying the effect of the noise. The time for this to happen is strictly related to the transition frequency of the loop gain,  $\omega_T = 1/\tau_c$ . Specifically, noises "slower" than  $\tau_c$ are well compensated and mitigated by the feedback while noises "faster" than  $\tau_c$  are not.

As a consequence, choosing a sampling period,  $T_S$ , smaller than  $\tau_c$  always guarantees that both charge injection and leakage effects are nullified by the feedback loop.

#### 4 Circuit design and simulations

The proposed NMOS LDO regulator was designed in a standard 0.35- $\mu$ m CMOS process whose main parameters are  $V_{THN0} = 0.55$  V,  $V_{THP0} = -0.6$  V,  $\mu_n C_{ox} = 175 \,\mu$ A/V<sup>2</sup> and  $\mu_p C_{ox} = 60 \,\mu$ A/V<sup>2</sup>. The reference voltage  $V_{REF} = V_{OUT}$  was set to 1 V.

Considering  $V_{THN} \approx 0.6-0.7$  V (the threshold voltage is greater than  $V_{THN0}$  due to the body effect) and  $V_{DS}^{\text{sat}} \approx 0.1-$ 0.2 V, the relationship (3) suggests a shifting voltage of 1.4 V. The shifting voltage is generated by the circuit in Fig. 7 where transistor aspect ratios and current  $I_B$  are designed to provide  $V_B = 1.4$  V. Note that, if  $V_{DD} < 1.4$  V,  $M_2$  enters the triode region and the circuit generates  $V_B \approx V_{DD}$  which is the best value allowed in this condition (see 4).

From (7) we set the width and length of the NMOS power transistor to 2,000 µm and 0.35 µm, respectively. The sampling frequency of the dynamic biasing network is set to  $1/T_S = 100$  kHz and capacitors are set to  $C_R = C_S = 5$  pF (the corresponding settling time is  $t_s = 40 \,\mu$ s). In the clock booster, diode  $D_0$  is implemented by a p<sup>+</sup> diffusion in a n-well region, the aspect ratio of  $M_0$  is set to  $\frac{60}{0.35}$  and capacitors  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are set to 0.2 pF and 1 pF, respectively. The two-stage Miller-compensated OTA shown in Fig. 8 is used for the error amplifier. Component values are reported in Table 1.



Fig. 7 Circuit for generating voltage  $V_B$ 



Fig. 8 Schematic of the two-stage operational transconductance amplifier

<b>Table 1</b> Component values ofthe two-stage OTA	Component	Value
C C	M1, M2	40/0.35
	M3, M4	40/0.6
	M5	160/0.6
	M6	20/0.6
	M7	40/0.6
	M8	20/0.6
	$R_C$	2.5 kΩ
	$C_C$	10 pF
	$I_B$	10 µA

The total estimated chip area is about 0.03 mm<sup>2</sup>. The quiescent current of the regulator is 70  $\mu$ A, which is dominated by the currents flowing inside the amplifier (the power for generating the control signals for dynamic biasing is negligible).

# 4.1 Bandwidth and stability

No external component is required for closed loop stability. The loop gain of the regulator, which was obtained with a 20-pF capacitor and a 10- $\mu$ A load current at the output node, is shown in Fig. 9. In this condition, the regulator



Fig. 9 Worst-case loop gain of the LDO NMOS regulator

exhibits a dc gain of 66 dB and a transition frequency of 1.4 MHz with a 60°-phase margin. The same circuit, loaded with 100 pF, exhibits a phase margin of 31°. Clearly, increasing the load current allows one to increase the load capacitor while maintaining the same phase margin. For example, if the minimum load current is set to 100  $\mu$ A, the capacitive load may be risen up to 1 nF while maintaining a minimum phase margin of about 30°.

However, since the loop gain is not modified by the introduction of the dynamic biasing technique, the superior stability of NMOS-based regulators (in comparison to PMOS-based ones) is preserved.

#### 4.2 Load and line regulation

Figure 10 shows the output voltage,  $V_{OUT}$ , as a function of the load current,  $I_{I}$ , for different values of the supply voltage,  $V_{DD}$ . The circuit can deliver 20 mA with a dropout of 100 mV and 100 mA with a drop-out of 300 mV.

Figure 11 shows the output voltage,  $V_{OUT}$ , as a function of the supply voltage,  $V_{DD}$ , for different values of the load current,  $I_L$ .

#### 4.3 Dynamic biasing

In order to verify the effects of the proposed approach on the speed of the regulator, in this section we report transistor level simulations of the dynamic biasing circuitry including the disoverlapped phases generator and the clock-booster.

The detail of two disoverlapped phases,  $\phi_{1n}$  and  $\phi_{2n}$ , when the circuit is powered at 1.5 V, is shown in Fig. 12. Note that a disoverlap of more than 100 ns is apparent and, as predicted by (13), the clock is boosted up to about  $2V_{DD}$ .



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Fig. 11 Output voltage of the proposed NMOS LDO regulator as a function of the supply voltage, for different load currents



Fig. 12 Detail of the disoverlapped phases



Fig. 10 Output voltage of the proposed NMOS LDO regulator as a function of the load current, for different supply voltages

Fig. 13 Voltage applied to the gate of the NMOS power transistor as a function of the load current, for different values of the supply voltage



Fig. 14 Transient simulation of a load current change

The static behavior of the gate voltage of  $M_N$  (i.e., voltage  $V_G$ ) as a function of  $I_L$ , for different values of the supply voltage,  $V_{DD}$  is depicted in Fig. 13. As pointed out before, if  $V_{DD}$  drops below 1.4 V (i.e., the desired value for  $V_B$ ), the shifting capacitor is charged at about  $V_{DD}$ . As an example, when  $V_{DD} = 1.1$  V, for high load currents the gate voltage may be increased up to about 2.1 V.

In principle, the dynamic biasing strategy does not significantly degrade the speed response of the regulator because, after start-up, the capacitor  $C_S$  behaves like a constant voltage source. In fact, Fig. 14 shows  $V_{OUT}$ ,  $V_G$ and the voltage across the shifting capacitor,  $V_{GH}$ , when the load current is rapidly changed from 10 mA to 100 mA (at time  $t = 200 \,\mu\text{s}$ ) and vice versa (at time  $t = 400 \,\mu\text{s}$ ); the reference voltage and the supply voltage are 1 V and 1.5 V, respectively. Inspection of Fig. 14 reveals that, as a consequence of the abrupt current variation,  $V_{OUT}$  exhibits negligible voltage spikes of 1 µs duration. Conversely (and as expected), voltage  $V_G$  changes rapidly from 1.95 V to 2.35 V (and vice versa) to adequate  $V_{GS}$  to the current change. As clearly shown in Fig. 14, the variation of the load current results in sharp variation of the voltage  $V_{GH}$ across the shifting capacitor.<sup>2</sup> After the abrupt voltage change,  $C_S$  is (slowly) recharged at  $V_B$  by the dynamic biasing circuit. This slow process takes about 40 µs, (i.e., the settling time  $t_s$ ), and is not observable at the output of the regulator because, immediately after the variation, the loop reacts in order to keep the error of the regulator small.

As discussed in Sect. 3.2, Fig. 14 reveals the robustness of the dynamic biasing to switching noise effects, also. In fact, it is apparent that, when the load current changes abruptly (i.e., at time  $t = 200 \,\mu$ s and  $t = 400 \,\mu$ s), capacitor  $C_S$  experiences a sharp voltage change. However, the feedback immediately reacts to bring the output voltage to

the correct value. The reaction time, which depends on the transition frequency of the feedback loop, is less than 1  $\mu$ s, in excellent agreement with the simulated transition frequency of 1.4 MHz.

This is evident from Figs. 15 and 16 which show two enlarged views of the same simulation, one for the low-tohigh current change and one for the high-to-low change. These figures also show responses of ideal regulators implemented as in Fig. 2 (i.e., with the ideal DC voltage source,  $V_B$ ). It clearly appears that the effects of the dynamic biasing strategy on the speed of the regulator are irrelevant.

A similar quick reaction occurs for supply voltage variations. It is however interesting to observe that variations of  $V_{DD}$  may result in significant variations of  $V_{GH}$ ; in fact, this is due to the circuit in Fig. 7 which produces  $V_B = \min(1.4 \text{ V}, V_{DD})$ . As an example, Fig. 17 shows  $V_{OUT}$ ,  $V_G$  and  $V_{GH}$  when the supply voltage is changed from 1.2 V to 1.5 V (at time  $t = 200 \,\mu$ s) and vice versa (at



Fig. 15 Detail of transient simulation of a load current change (low-to-high)



Fig. 16 Detail of transient simulation of a load current change (high-to-low)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Capacitor  $C_S$  must supply the charges required for changing  $V_{GS}$ , that is, for charging the large capacitor  $C_{GS}$  of  $M_N$ .



Fig. 17 Transient simulation of a supply voltage change



Fig. 18 Detail of transient simulation of a supply voltage change (low-to-high)



Fig. 19 Detail of transient simulation of a supply voltage change (high-to-low)

time  $t = 400 \,\mu\text{s}$ ); the reference voltage is 1 V and  $I_L$  is maintained at 10 mA. Inspection of Fig. 17 shows that, as expected, both  $V_{OUT}$  and  $V_G$  remain practically unchanged.

Voltage  $V_{GH}$ , however, automatically goes (slowly) from  $V_{DD}$  to 1.4 V; even in this case the slow charge of  $C_S$  is dominated by the settling time  $t_s$  but it is not observable at the output node as the loop automatically adjusts the output of the error amplifier in order to keep the error of the regulator small.

This behavior is apparent from Figs. 18 and 19 which show two enlarged views of the same simulation, one for the low-to-high supply voltage change and one for the high-to-low change. The responses of ideal regulators implemented as in Fig. 2 (i.e., with the ideal DC voltage source,  $V_B$ ) are included, also. It is clearly visible that, again, the effects of the dynamic biasing on the speed of the regulator are negligible.

## 5 Conclusion

We have proposed a on-chip NMOS low-dropout voltage regulator which exploits a dynamic biasing strategy to properly drive the NMOS output transistor. The circuit does not require external components and is very attractive for on-chip power management. As in two-stages operational amplifiers, the compensation is achieved through an internal Miller capacitor. The dynamic biasing technique, does not affect the speed response of the regulator. Extensive simulations demonstrate the effectiveness and the feasibility of the proposed strategy and the negligible effects of the dynamic biasing strategy on the speed of the regulator.

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