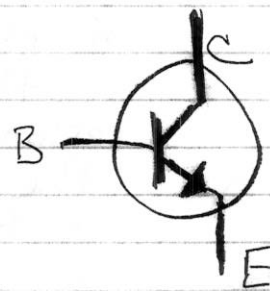
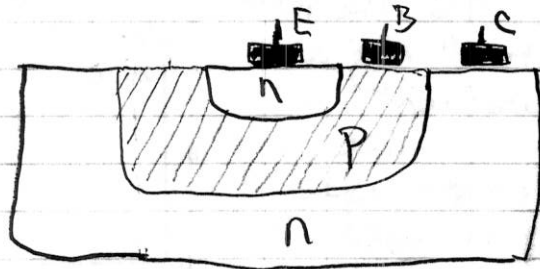


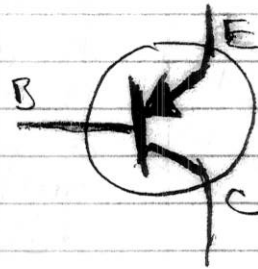
TRANSISTORS I

The transistor is the basis of nearly all modern electronics. A transistor enables a low-power signal to control a much higher-power signal (higher current, higher voltage, or both). Thus, transistors can form switches, amplifiers, digital logic gates, and much more.

There are two widely used varieties of transistor — the Bipolar Junction Transistor and the Field Effect Transistor. We will study BJTs this week and look at FETs next week.

NPN
transistor

BJTs come in two flavors: NPN and PNP. An NPN (PNP) transistor is a 3-terminal device consisting of two layers of n-type (p-type) material separated by a layer of p-type (n-type) material.

PNP
transistor

We'll mostly discuss NPN transistors. For PNP, reverse all of the polarities.

The simplest way to see a BJT is :

- ① The base \rightarrow emitter junction is a diode
- ② The current from collector to emitter (I_C) is proportional to the base \rightarrow emitter current (I_B) by a factor $\beta \sim 100$. (In practice, $50 \lesssim \beta \lesssim 300$.)

③ To keep the transistor in the "active" region (where $I_C = \beta I_B$), the collector must be at least a few tenths of a volt above the emitter: $V_{CE} \gtrsim 1V$, more at higher currents, as shown at right.

(Below the "active" region is the "cutoff" region, where the collector passes no current; and to the left of the "active" region is the "saturation" region, which is like the "ON" state when a transistor is used as a switch rather than as a linear amplifier. The usefulness of saturation is that you can switch a large current with quite small power $I_C \cdot V_{CE}$ dissipated in the transistor.)

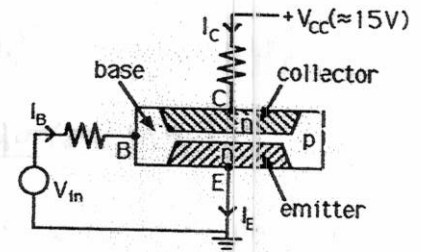
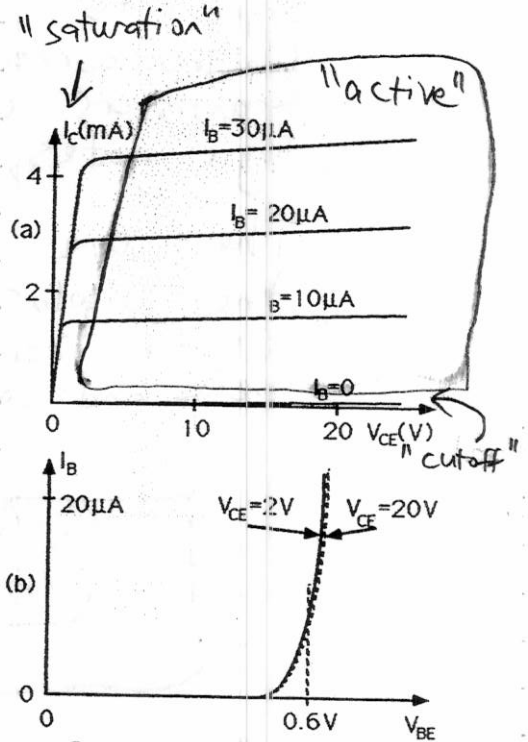


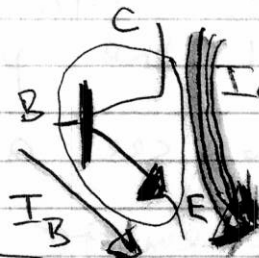
Fig. 9.29. The npn bipolar transistor.



BUCC.
Fig. 9.30. Characteristics of the bipolar transistor.

WARNING!
reversing V_{BE}
beyond \approx a
few volts will
cook the transistor

We will mostly consider "active" mode, where $I_C = \beta I_B$, $I_E = I_B + I_C = (\beta + 1) I_B$



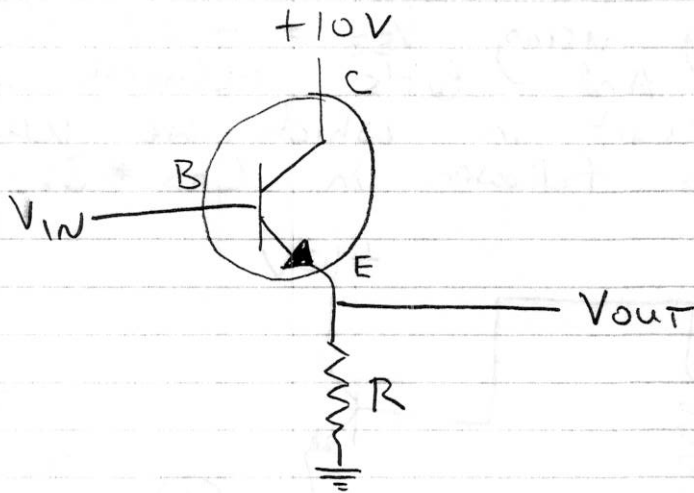
$I_C = \beta I_B$, $\beta \sim 10^2$

$I_B \sim e^{V_{BE}/25mV}$

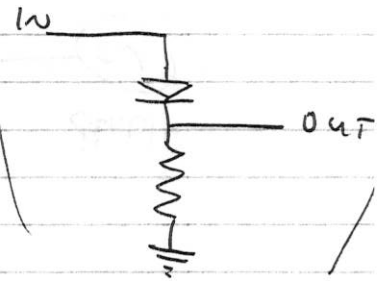
Small V_{BE} (hence I_B) controls large I_C

where $(kT/e) \approx 25mV$ at room temperature

First circuit example: emitter follower.

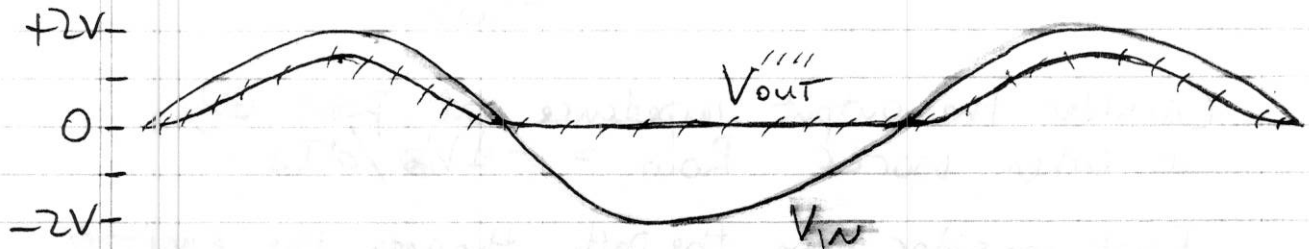


Recall this circuit from Lab 1:



Treating base \rightarrow emitter junction as a diode,
 $V_{out} \approx V_{in} - 0.7V$

Consider sine wave input, 2V amplitude:

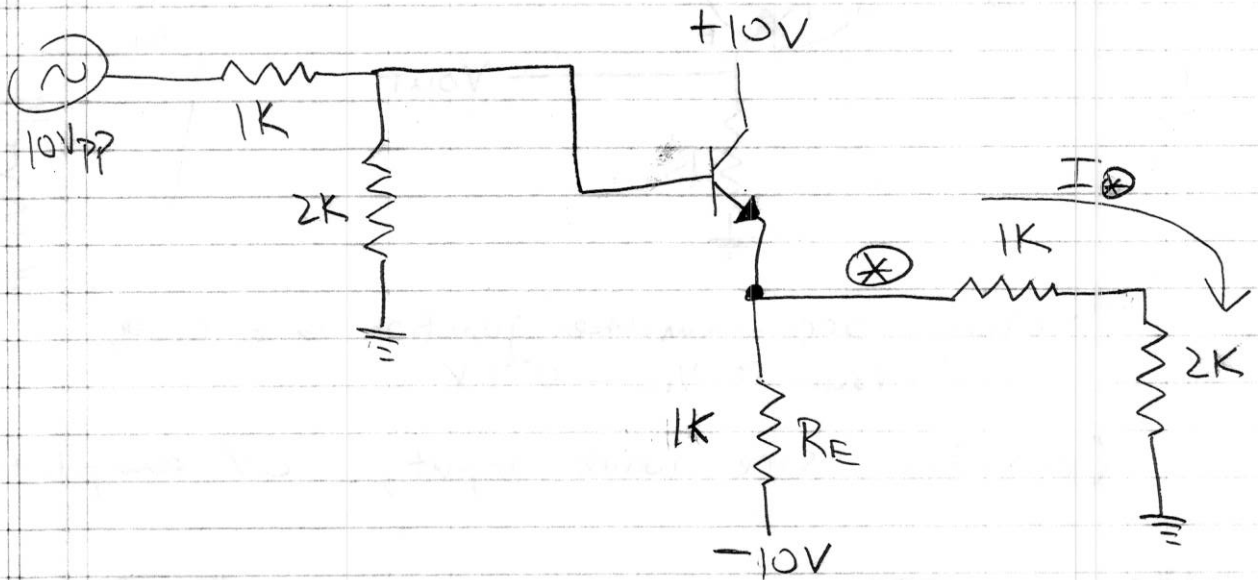


Consider input impedance: change V_{in} by ΔV .
 V_{out} changes by same ΔV (as long as V_{BE} is not reverse-biased), so $\Delta I_E = \Delta V / R$.
 Thus $\Delta I_B = \Delta I_E / (\beta + 1) = \Delta V / ((\beta + 1)R)$.

$$\text{So } R_{in} = \frac{dV_{in}}{dI_{in}} = (\beta + 1)R.$$

The follower makes the load appear (to the source) to be a factor $(\beta + 1) \sim 10^2$ larger (and for a voltage source, larger R_{in} is easier to drive).

Let's prevent the follower from clipping at zero volts by using $V_{EE} = -10V$ instead of ground. And let's actually use it in the circuit in which we used our opamp follower in Lab #3.



Consider the output impedance at point \otimes ,
 In other words $R_{out} = -dV_{\otimes}/dI_{\otimes}$.

First consider only the path through the emitter
 (e.g. let $R_E \rightarrow \infty$). Then $\Delta I_B = \Delta I_{\otimes}/(\beta+1)$.
 And $\Delta V_{\otimes} = \Delta V_B = \Delta I_B \cdot R_{source}$
 $= \Delta I_B \cdot (1K//2K)$

$$\text{So } R_{out} = \frac{R_{source}}{\beta+1} = \frac{1K//2K}{\beta+1} \sim 670\Omega \cdot 10^{-2} \sim \mathcal{O}(10\Omega)$$

Now include the parallel resistance of R_E ,
 which makes \approx no difference:

$$R_{out} = \frac{R_{source}}{\beta+1} // R_E$$

$$\sim \mathcal{O}(10\Omega) // 1K \sim \mathcal{O}(10\Omega)$$

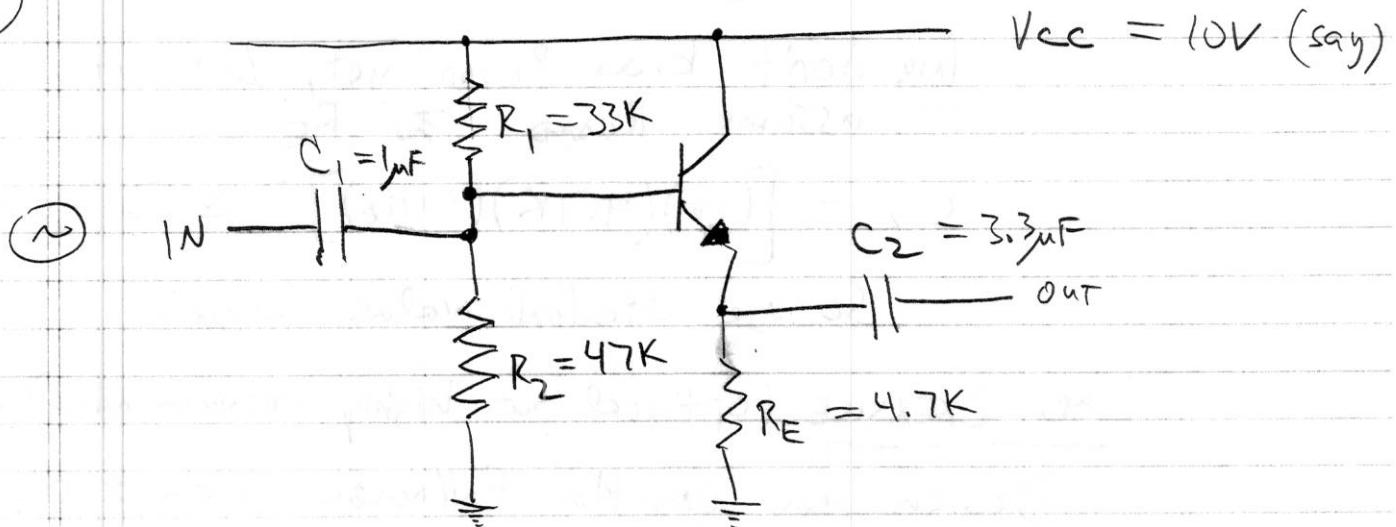
Recall that R_{out} wants to be small for a voltage source.

So you can see that the emitter follower makes the source think it is driving a load that is $\approx (10^3)$ times larger, and it makes the load think that it is being driven by a source that is $\approx (10^3)$ times stiffer (lower $R_{THEVENIN}$).

It's not nearly as large an improvement as you get from an opamp, and there is the annoying diode drop, but it's not bad.

Now let's bias the follower (and AC-couple the input) so that we can operate it from a single (positive) power supply.

Output



(Design steps from HH §2.05.)

- ① Choose V_E for largest symmetric swing: $V_E = \frac{1}{2} V_{CC}$
- ② Choose R_E for a reasonable "quiescent" (steady state) current. In this case, $4.7K \Rightarrow -I_E \approx 1mA$.
- ③ Choose R_1 & R_2 for $V_B = V_E + 0.7 \text{ volt} \Rightarrow R_2/R_1 = 5.7/4.3$
 Want $(R_1 // R_2) \ll \beta \cdot R_E \sim 500K$. E.g. $R_1 // R_2 \approx 25K$,
 $50K$ and $38K$ would be ideal, but $47K$ and $33K$ are available in a RCA lab and are pretty close.

$$10V \cdot \frac{47}{47+33} \approx 5.9V.$$

- ④ choose C_1 such that $f_{3dB} \lesssim 10\text{Hz}$
 (for their example of passing audio frequencies $20\text{Hz} \sim 20\text{kHz}$)

$$10\text{Hz} = f_{3dB} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

$$R \approx R_1 // R_2 // (\beta \cdot (R_E + R_{LOAD}))$$

$$\approx 33\text{K} // 47\text{K} \approx 20\text{K}$$

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi R f_{3dB}} = \left[(2\pi)(20\text{K}\Omega)(10\text{Hz}) \right]^{-1} \approx 0.8\mu\text{F}$$

Using $1\mu\text{F} \Rightarrow f_{3dB} \approx 8\text{Hz}$

- ⑤ choose C_2 for $f_{3dB} \lesssim 10\text{Hz}$

We don't know R_{LOAD} yet, but it's safe to assume $R_{LOAD} \gtrsim R_E$

$$C_2 = \left[(2\pi)(4.7\text{K})(10\text{Hz}) \right]^{-1} \approx 3.3\mu\text{F}$$

So use standard value $3.3\mu\text{F}$.

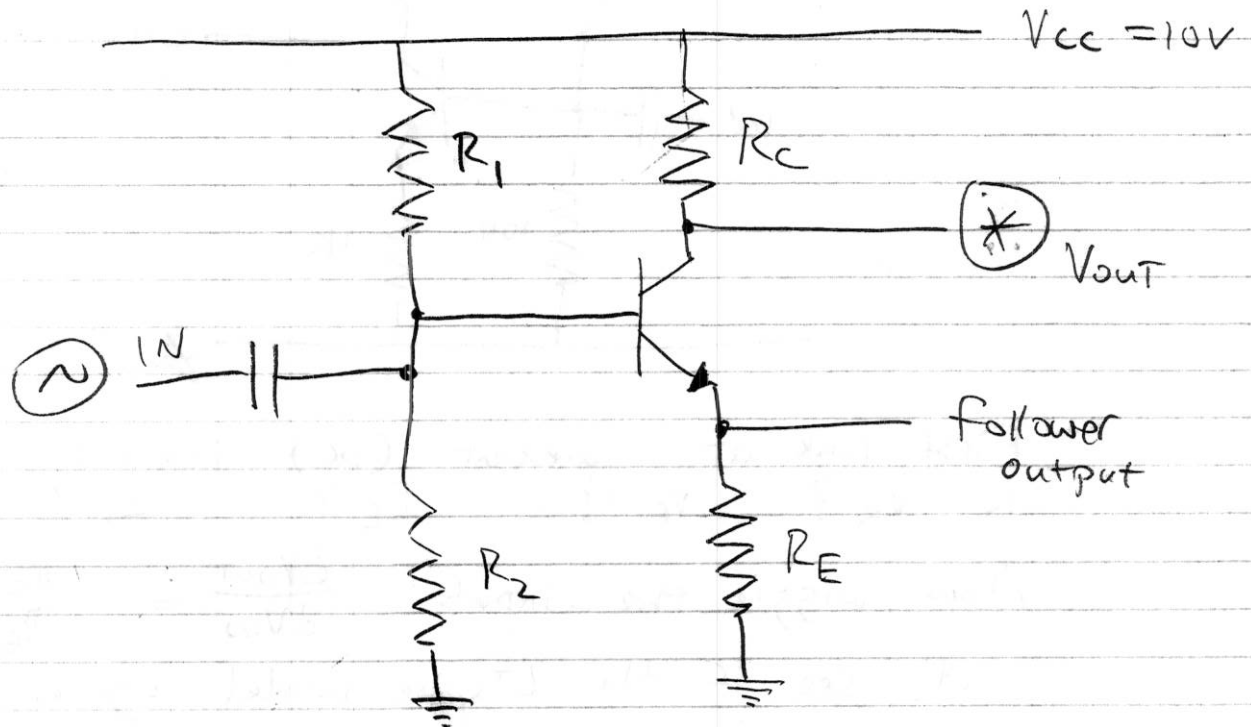
LAB EXERCISE (optional but highly recommended):

Design an emitter follower with ± 10 volt supplies to operate over the audio range ($20\text{Hz} - 20\text{kHz}$). Use 3mA quiescent current.

First assume that input source provides a DC path to ground. Then modify your design to use capacitively coupled input. Remember that there must be a DC path from base to ground.

Next circuit example: common emitter amplifier

start from emitter follower, and add a resistor at the collector



Now what happens when we wiggle V_{in} ?

$$V_E \approx V_B - 0.7V$$

$$I_E = V_E / R_E \approx \frac{V_B - 0.7V}{R_E}$$

$$I_C = I_E - I_B = I_E - \frac{I_E}{\beta + 1} \approx I_E$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow V_{\otimes} &= V_{CC} - I_C R_c \approx V_{CC} - I_E R_c \\ &= V_{CC} - \frac{R_c}{R_E} \cdot (V_B - 0.7V) \end{aligned}$$

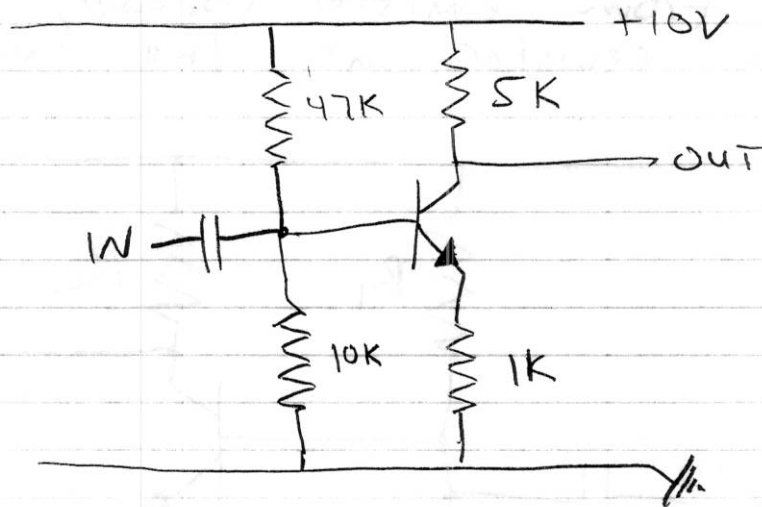
$$\text{So } \frac{dV_{\otimes}}{dV_{in}} = - \frac{R_c}{R_E}$$

Inverting amplifier!

Voltage gain can be arranged by suitable component choice

Common emitter amplifier, continued:

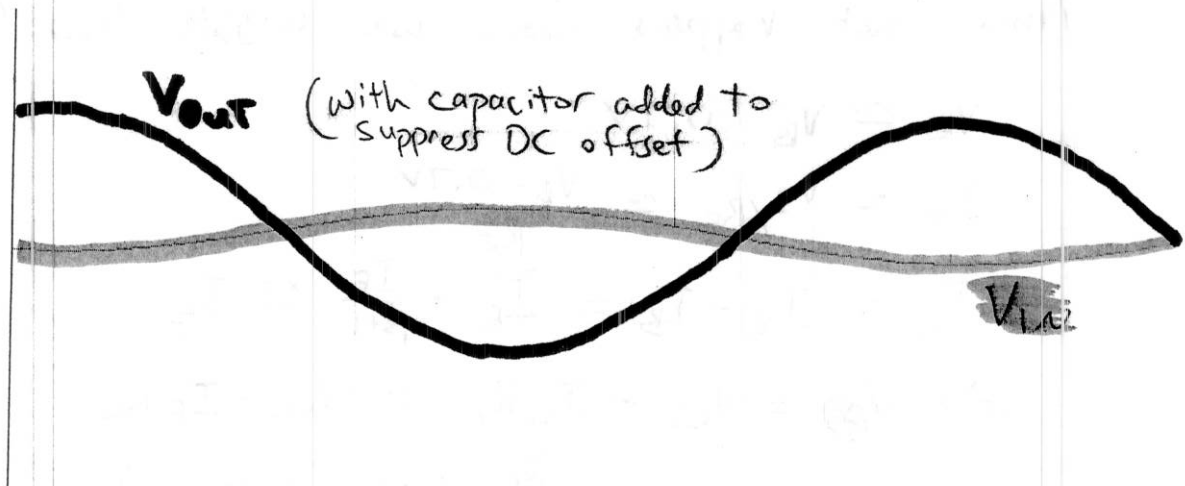
Let's fill in some component values:



First look at quiescent (DC) state: What is V_B ? V_E ? I_E ? I_C ? V_{out} ?

Now wiggle the input. $\frac{dV_{out}}{dV_{in}} = -\frac{R_C}{R_E} = -5.$

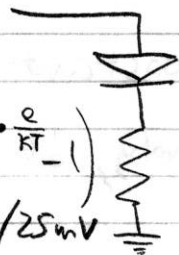
Let's see if the LTspice model agrees.



Now suppose we get greedy and try to increase the gain by reducing R_E .

Two problems:

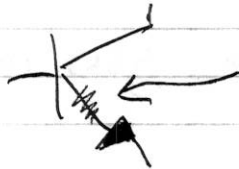
① recall $I_C = I_{sat} (e^{V_{BE} \cdot \frac{q}{kT}} - 1)$
 $\approx I_{sat} e^{V_{BE}/25mV}$



so $\frac{dV_{BE}}{dI_C} \approx \frac{25mV}{I_C}$

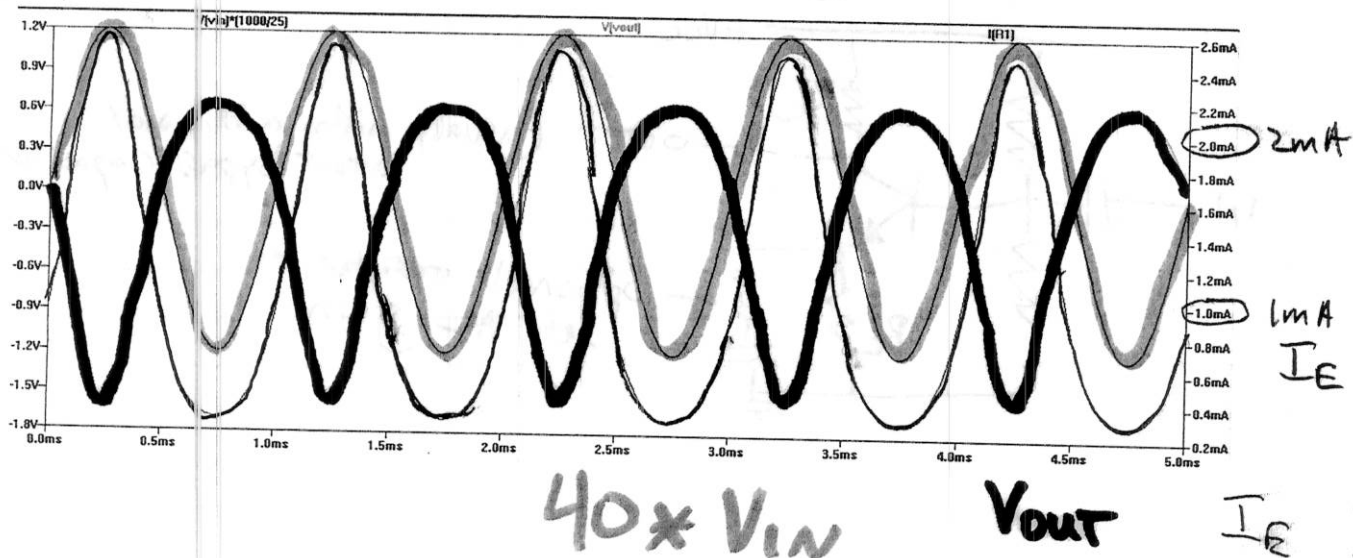
or since $I_E = \frac{\beta+1}{\beta} I_C \approx I_C$,

$\frac{dV_{BE}}{dI_E} \approx \frac{25mV}{I_E} = \frac{25\Omega}{I_E [mA]}$



diode curve makes emitter look like a resistance $r_e = 25\Omega / I_E$, where I_E is measured in milliamps.

If we don't keep $R_E \gg r_e$, we will see non linear response.



② second problem with omitting R_E is thermal instability:

at constant V_{BE} , I_C grows 9% per $^{\circ}C$
(alternatively, at constant I_C , V_{BE} falls $\approx 2mV$ per $^{\circ}C$)

No $R_E \Rightarrow$ high gain (limited only by r_e)

\Rightarrow transistor heats up

$\Rightarrow I_C$ grows

$\Rightarrow r_e$ decreases

gain increases

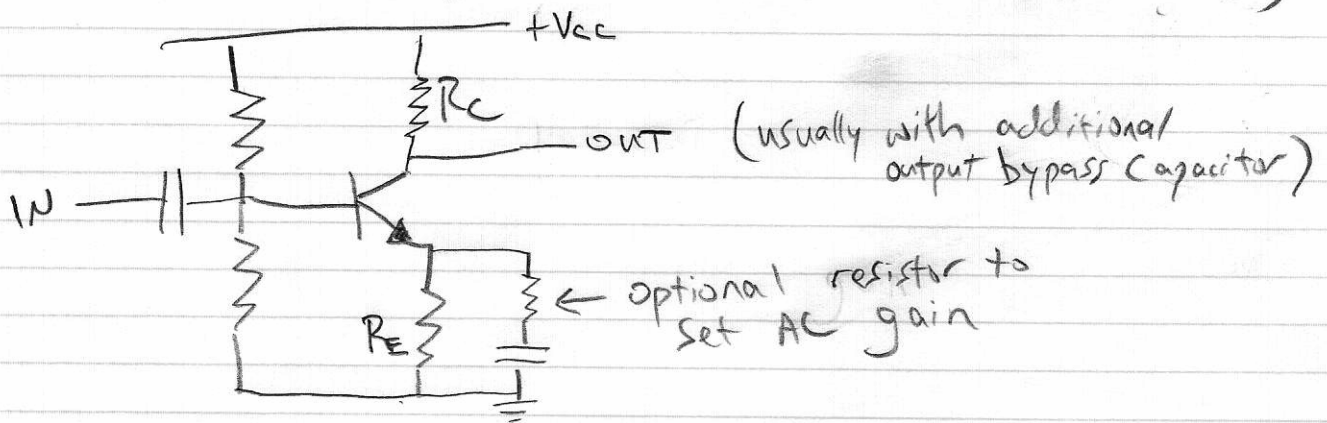
$\Rightarrow I_C$ and temperature continue to grow

\Rightarrow runaway condition

\Rightarrow eventually transistor goes into saturation

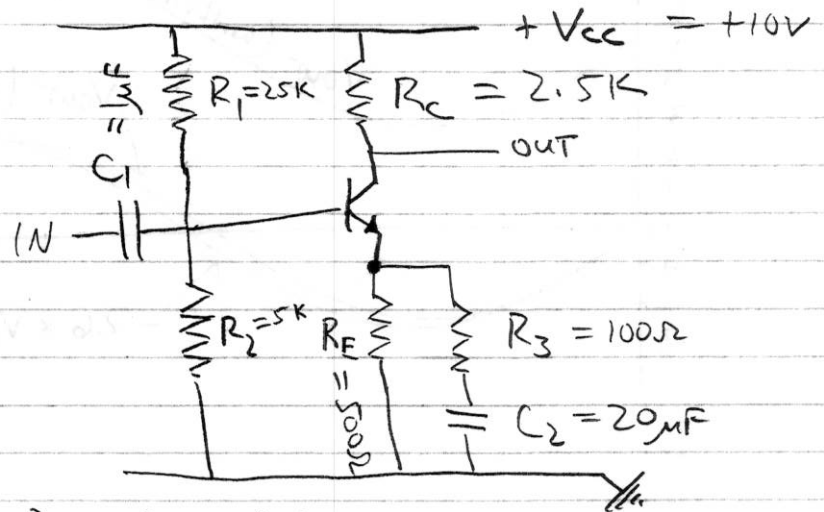
Solution: R_E limits I_C at DC; use bypass capacitor to increase AC gain.

(Note that \uparrow temperature $\Rightarrow \uparrow I_C \Rightarrow \uparrow V_E$ (via R_E)
 $\Rightarrow \downarrow V_{BE} \Rightarrow \downarrow I_C$. Feedback stabilizes I_C .)



Let's go through HH design example for common emitter amplifier with large AC gain:

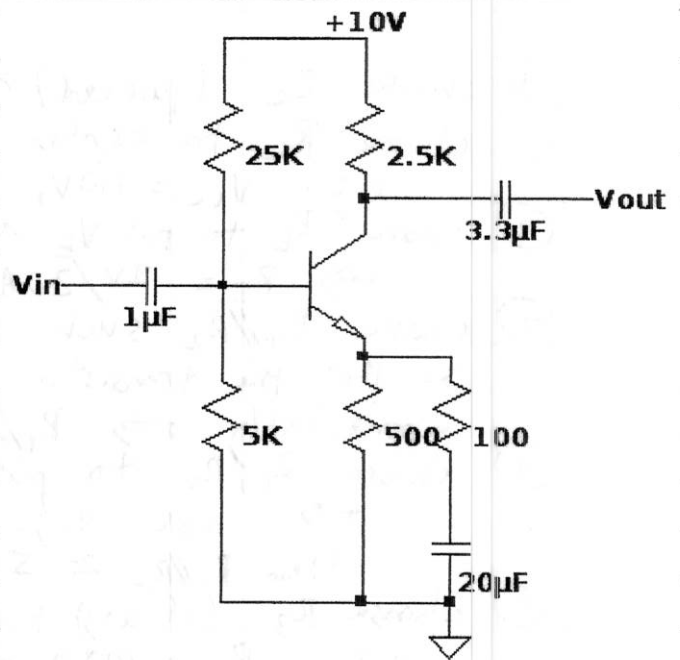
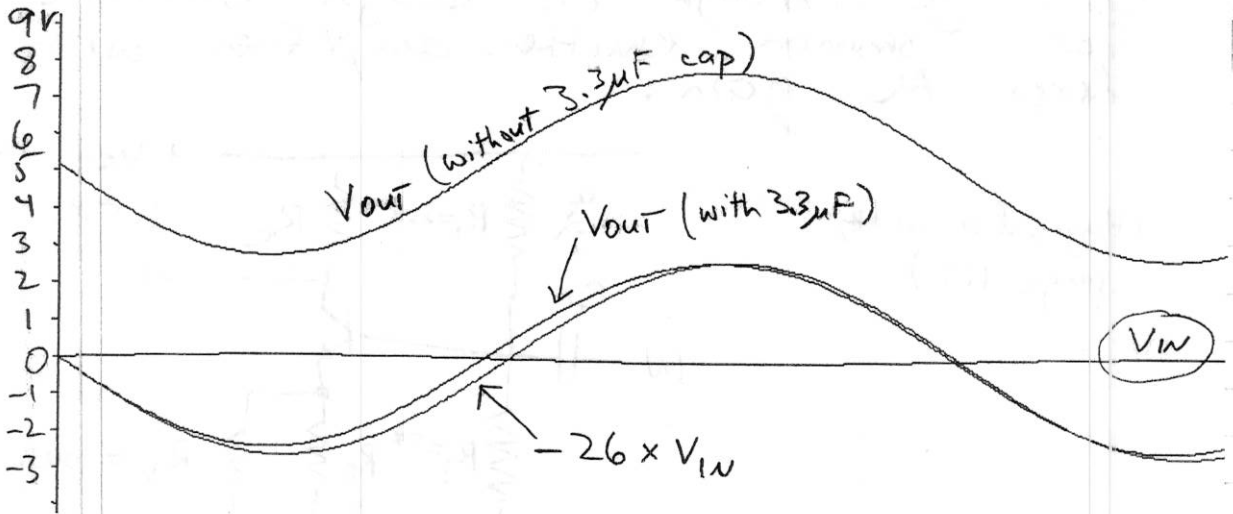
(Hayes & Horowitz, page 115)



- ① choose I_c (quiescent) \sim few mA;
choose R_c to center V_{out} , given I_c
e.g. $V_{cc} = +10V, I_c = 2mA \Rightarrow R_c = 5V/2mA = 2.5K$
 - ② choose R_E to put $V_E \sim 1V$, for temperature stability
 $\Rightarrow R_E = 1V/2mA = 500\Omega$
 - ③ choose $R_1 // R_2$ such that $R_{in}(\text{transistor}) \sim \beta \cdot R_E \gg R_1 // R_2$,
so that the transistor does not load the bias network appreciably $\Rightarrow R_1 // R_2 \ll 50K$
 - ④ choose R_1, R_2 to put V_B at $V_E + 0.7V = 1.7V$
 \Rightarrow use e.g. $R_2 = 5K, R_1 = R_2 \cdot \frac{8.3}{1.7} = 25K$
then $R_1 // R_2 \approx 5K \ll 50K$
 - ⑤ choose R_3 (if any) for AC gain
e.g. $R_3 = 100\Omega \Rightarrow \text{gain} = -R_c / (r_e + (R_E // (R_3 + Z_{C2})))$
- ⑥ Choose C_2 for $f_{3dB} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC_2}$,
where $R = R_3 + r_e = 113\Omega$.
So e.g. $20\mu F \Rightarrow f_{3dB} = 70Hz$

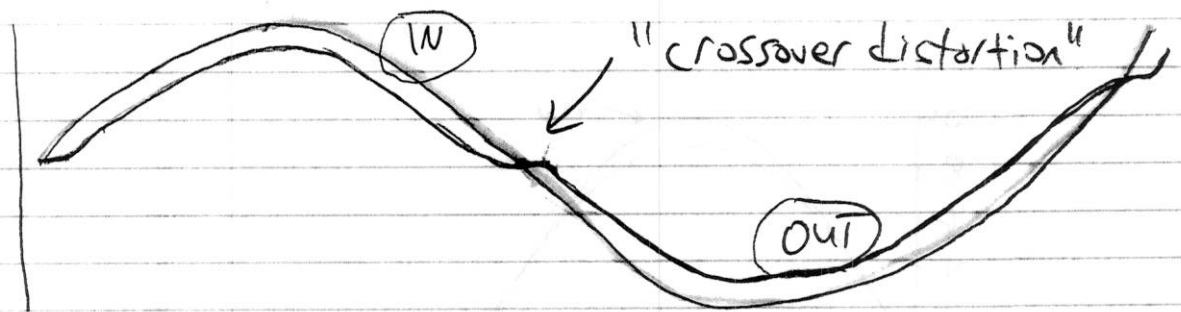
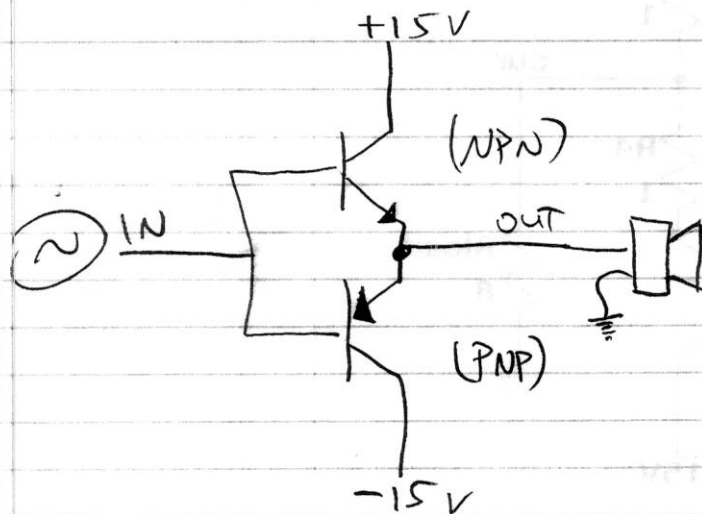
⑦ Choose C_1 for f_{3dB} , where
 $R = R_1 // R_2 // \beta \cdot (R_E // R_3)$
 $\sim 5K // 25K // 10K \sim 3K$
- $\approx -R_c / (r_e + R_E // R_3)$
 $\approx -2.5K / (\frac{25mV}{2mA} + 500\Omega // 100\Omega)$
 $\approx -2.5K / 96\Omega \approx -26$
- \sim
- $\sim 70Hz$ to match (6) $\Rightarrow 0.75\mu F$, so we'll use $1\mu F$.

Let's try it in LTspice...



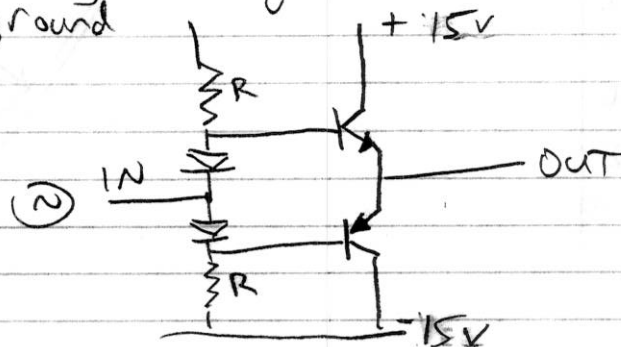
Now suppose you want to drive a big current through a speaker. MH example (§ 2.15, page 91, figure 2.54) shows problem with using an emitter follower: either you amplify only the positive half of the waveform, or else you bias the follower such that its quiescent power \gg its useful power.

Solution: push-pull follower



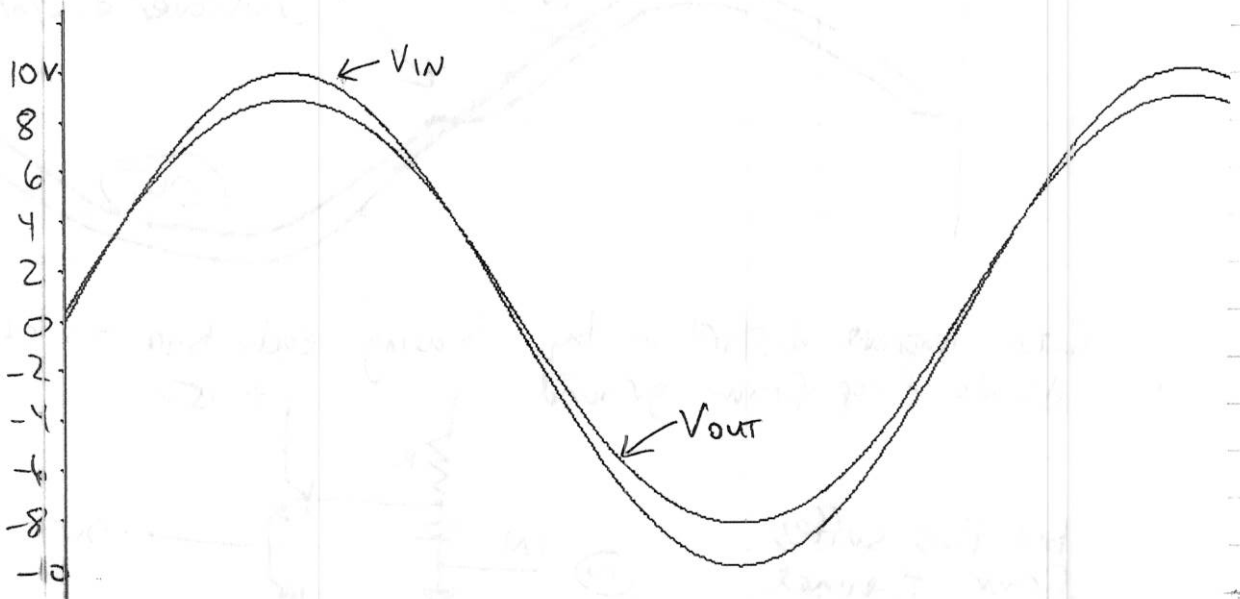
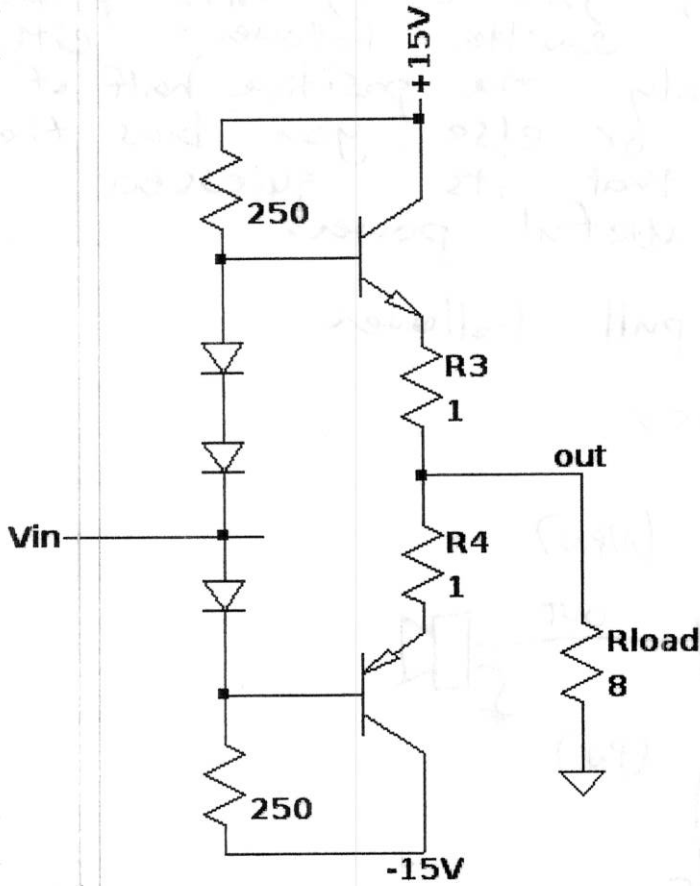
Can improve distortion by biasing each base to stay one diode drop from ground

but this suffers from thermal runaway problem



PHYSICS 364, 2010-10-12, page 14

So in practice, your push-pull buffer probably looks something like this:



PHYSICS 364, 2010-10-12, page 15

Next Monday, we'll look at a couple of additional BJT circuits, then we'll study Field Effect Transistors.

Note that I put LTspice models online for nearly all of the circuits in these notes.

due Thursday, 2010-10-21

HOMEWORK for WEEK 6: (Borrowed from Harvard course)

Design a circuit that will deliver two outputs: one that looks like the input (except for a DC offset), and one that looks like an inverted version of the input (except that the DC level is whatever you think best). Such a circuit is called a "phase splitter."

Here are the specifications:

- power supply: $+25V$
- quiescent I_c : $2.5mA$
- R_{out} for signal source feeding your circuit: $\leq 100\Omega$
- $f_{signal} \geq 50 Hz$

Once your design is complete, evaluate the following, at signal frequencies:

- input impedance
- output impedance, at in-phase terminal (emitter)
- output impedance, at inverted-phase terminal
- largest input signal that can pass through your circuit without clipping (collector)

Now add a circuit fragment that will lower R_{out} at the collector.

- What is the new R_{out} ?