Chapter 4  Physics of Bipolar Transistors

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In the chapter, we will study the physics of bipolar transistor and derive large and small signal models.
A voltage-dependent current source can act as an amplifier.

If $KR_L$ is greater than 1, then the signal is amplified.

$$A_V = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -KR_L$$
Voltage-Dependent Current Source with Input Resistance

Regardless of the input resistance, the magnitude of amplification remains unchanged.
A three-terminal exponential voltage-dependent current source is shown above.

Ideally, bipolar transistor can be modeled as such.
Bipolar transistor can be thought of as a sandwich of three doped Si regions. The outer two regions are doped with the same polarity, while the middle region is doped with opposite polarity.
Injection of Carriers

- Reverse biased PN junction creates a large electric field that sweeps any injected minority carriers to their majority region.
- This ability proves essential in the proper operation of a bipolar transistor.
Forward Active Region

- Forward active region: $V_{BE} > 0$, $V_{BC} < 0$.
- Figure b) presents a wrong way of modeling figure a).
Accurate Bipolar Representation

Collector also carries current due to carrier injection from base.
Carrier Transport in Base

(a) Forward Biased

(b) Reverse Biased

(c) Electron Density
Applying the law of diffusion, we can determine the charge flow across the base region into the collector.

The equation above shows that the transistor is indeed a voltage-controlled element, thus a good candidate as an amplifier.
When two transistors are put in parallel and experience the same potential across all three terminals, they can be thought of as a single transistor with twice the emitter area.
Although a transistor is a voltage to current converter, output voltage can be obtained by inserting a load resistor at the output and allowing the controlled current to pass thru it.
Ideally, the collector current does not depend on the collector to emitter voltage. This property allows the transistor to behave as a constant current source when its base-emitter voltage is fixed.
Base Current

Base current consists of two components: 1) Reverse injection of holes into the emitter and 2) recombination of holes with electrons coming from the emitter.

\[ I_C = \beta I_B \]
Applying Kirchoff’s current law to the transistor, we can easily find the emitter current.

\[ I_E = I_C + I_B \]

\[ I_E = I_C \left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right) \]

\[ \beta = \frac{I_C}{I_B} \]
Summary of Currents

\[ I_C = I_S \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \]

\[ I_B = \frac{1}{\beta} I_S \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \]

\[ I_E = \frac{\beta+1}{\beta} I_S \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \]

\[ \frac{\beta}{\beta+1} = \alpha \]
A diode is placed between base and emitter and a voltage controlled current source is placed between the collector and emitter.
As $R_L$ increases, $V_x$ drops and eventually forward biases the collector-base junction. This will force the transistor out of forward active region.

Therefore, there exists a maximum tolerable collector resistance.
Characteristics of Bipolar Transistor

(a) $I_C$ vs. $V_{BE}$

(b) $I_C$ vs. $V_{CE}$

$V_{BE} = V_{B1}$

$V_{BE} = V_{B2}$

$I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{BE2}}{V_T} \right)$

$I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{BE1}}{V_T} \right)$
Example: IV Characteristics

(a) $I_C$ vs. $V_{BE}$

(b) $I_C$ vs. $V_{BE}$ with $V_{CE}$ and $V_{BE}$ values

(c) $I_B$ vs. $V_{BE}$

(d) $I_B$ vs. $V_{BE}$ with $V_{CE}$ and $V_{BE}$ values
Transconductance, $g_m$ shows a measure of how well the transistor converts voltage to current.

It will later be shown that $g_m$ is one of the most important parameters in circuit design.

\[ g_m = \frac{d}{dV_{BE}} \left( I_s \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \right) \]

\[ g_m = \frac{1}{V_T} I_s \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \]

\[ g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_T} \]
Visualization of Transconductance

- $g_m$ can be visualized as the slope of $I_c$ versus $V_{BE}$.
- A large $I_c$ has a large slope and therefore a large $g_m$. 
Transconductance and Area

- When the area of a transistor is increased by $n$, $I_S$ increases by $n$. For a constant $V_{BE}$, $I_C$ and hence $g_m$ increases by a factor of $n$. 

When the area of a transistor is increased by $n$, $I_S$ increases by $n$. For a constant $V_{BE}$, $I_C$ and hence $g_m$ increases by a factor of $n$. 
The figure above shows that for a given $V_{BE}$ swing, the current excursion around $I_{C2}$ is larger than it would be around $I_{C1}$. This is because $g_m$ is larger for $I_{C2}$. 

Graphical representation:

- $I_C$ axis
- $I_{C2}$ axis
- $I_{C1}$ axis
- $V_{BE}$ axis
- $V_{CE}$ axis

Equations:

- $V_{BE} = V_{B2} + \Delta V$
- $V_{BE} = V_{B2}$
- $V_{BE} = V_{B1} + \Delta V$
- $V_{BE} = V_{B1}$

Symbols:

- $g_m$
- $\Delta V$
Small signal model is derived by perturbing voltage difference every two terminals while fixing the third terminal and analyzing the change in current of all three terminals. We then represent these changes with controlled sources or resistors.
Small-Signal Model: $V_{BE}$ Change

$\Delta I_C = g_m \Delta V_{BE}$

$\Delta V_{BE}$

$\Delta I_E$

$\Delta V_{BE}$

$\Delta I_B$

$\Delta I_C$

$\Delta V_{BE}$

$V_{BE}$

$V_T$

$I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{BE} + \Delta V_{BE}}{V_T} \right)$

$V_{CE}$

$B$ $+$ $C$

$g_m \Delta V_{BE}$

$E$

$B$

$C$

$g_m v_\pi$

$E$

$B$ $+$ $C$

$g_m v_\pi$

$E$

$r_\pi$

$g_m v_\pi$

$E$
Ideally, $V_{CE}$ has no effect on the collector current. Thus, it will not contribute to the small signal model.

It can be shown that $V_{CB}$ has no effect on the small signal model, either.
Here, small signal parameters are calculated from DC operating point and are used to calculate the change in collector current due to a change in $V_{BE}$. 

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_T} = \frac{1}{3.75\Omega}$$

$$r_\pi = \frac{\beta}{g_m} = 375\Omega$$
In this example, a resistor is placed between the power supply and collector, therefore, providing an output voltage.
Since the power supply voltage does not vary with time, it is regarded as a ground in small-signal analysis.
Early Effect

The claim that collector current does not depend on $V_{CE}$ is not accurate.

As $V_{CE}$ increases, the depletion region between base and collector increases. Therefore, the effective base width decreases, which leads to an increase in the collector current.
Early Effect Illustration

- With Early effect, collector current becomes larger than usual and a function of $V_{CE}$.
Early Effect Representation

\[ (I_S \exp \frac{V_1}{V_T}) \left( 1 + \frac{V_X}{V_A} \right) \]
Early effect can be accounted for in large-signal model by simply changing the collector current with a correction factor.

In this mode, base current does not change.
Early Effect and Small-Signal Model

\[ r_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CE}}{\Delta I_C} = \frac{V_A}{I_S \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} \approx \frac{V_A}{I_C} \]
When collector voltage drops below base voltage and forward biases the collector-base junction, base current increases and decreases the current gain factor, $\beta$. 
Large-Signal Model for Saturation Region

$$I_{S2} \exp \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}$$

(a)

$$V_{BE}$$

(b)
The speed of the BJT also drops in saturation.
Example: Acceptable $V_{cc}$ Region

- In order to keep BJT at least in soft saturation region, the collector voltage must not fall below the base voltage by more than 400mV.
- A linear relationship can be derived for $V_{cc}$ and $R_C$ and an acceptable region can be chosen.

$$V_{cc} \geq I_C R_C + (V_{BE} - 400mV)$$
In deep saturation region, the transistor loses its voltage-controlled current capability and $V_{CE}$ becomes constant.
With the polarities of emitter, collector, and base reversed, a PNP transistor is formed.

All the principles that applied to NPN's also apply to PNP’s, with the exception that emitter is at a higher potential than base and base at a higher potential than collector.
A Comparison between NPN and PNP Transistors

The figure above summarizes the direction of current flow and operation regions for both the NPN and PNP BJT’s.
PNP Equations

\[ I_C = I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} \right) \]

\[ I_B = \frac{I_S}{\beta} \exp \left( \frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} \right) \]

\[ I_E = \frac{\beta + 1}{\beta} I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} \right) \]

\[ I_C = \left( I_S \exp \left( \frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} \right) \right) \left( 1 + \frac{V_{EC}}{V_A} \right) \]
Large Signal Model for PNP

\[ \frac{I_S}{\beta} \exp \frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} \]

\[ I_B \]

\[ I_C \]

\[ I_E \]

\[ V_{EB} \]

\[ V_{EB} \]

\[ V_T \]
PNP Biasing

Note that the emitter is at a higher potential than both the base and collector.
Small Signal Analysis

- $V_{in}$: Input voltage
- $1.7$ V
- $R_C$: Collector resistor
- $300$ $\Omega$
- $I_C$: Collector current
- $Q_1$: Transistor
- $V_{out}$: Output voltage
- $V_{CC}$: Supply voltage
- $2.5$ V
The small signal model for PNP transistor is exactly IDENTICAL to that of NPN. This is not a mistake because the current direction is taken care of by the polarity of $V_{BE}$. 
Small Signal Model Example I
Small Signal Model Example II

- Small-signal model is identical to the previous ones.
Since during small-signal analysis, a constant voltage supply is considered to be AC ground, the final small-signal model is identical to the previous two.
Small Signal Model Example IV

(a) 

(b)