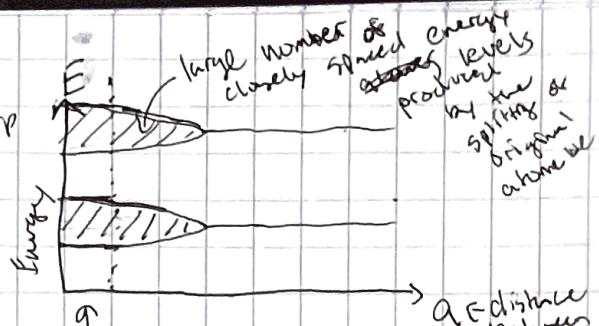


Diodes

1

→ atoms have discrete energy levels

light comes
M moves one up
fills electrons



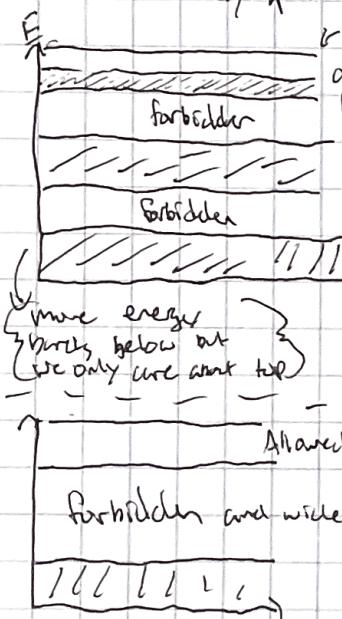
[Now have multiple atoms as your potential] → "N" atoms

[the // region represents the large number of closely spaced energy levels produced by the splitting of energy levels when potential of N atoms is added]

Energy bands consist of a large number of closely spaced energy lvl's

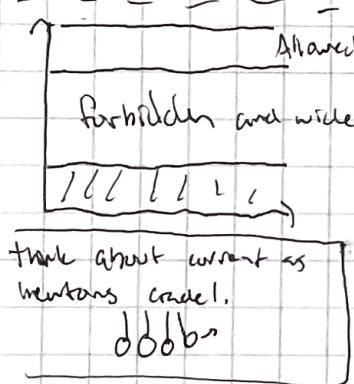
[sometimes thought of as overlap] gives e room to move around

just as electrons in individual atoms cannot have energies between atomic energy levels, electrons in a solid, can't have energy between bands



this last band being partially filled gives characteristic of conductor, also if the energy to move past forbidden band is small

[in order to produce a current e⁻ in the material must move & thus ↑ E, thus moving to a higher energy level, lots of empty levels in top band]



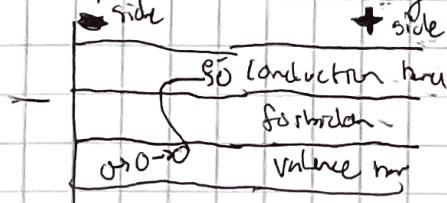
the gap is too wide to let electrons flow
this is an insulator.

the energy gained by e⁻ contributing to current is small, the voltage applied to produce the current accelerates e⁻ but before they gain much V they have collisions, that slow them down. As result Varies Energy 10^{-21} eV, this is comparable to spacing of bands (.1 eV). Thus there is noway e⁻ in an insulator can gain enough energy to cross forbidden band

Thermal energy

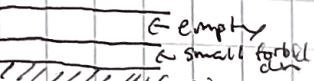
if T is big enough and gap is small enough, its possible for e⁻ to jump to the next allowed band. Once there it can be part of current, b/c now there is a lot of open energy levels.

→ if it is small enough you have a semiconductor



+ side when an e⁻ jumps forbidden zone it leaves behind a + empty spot, in that band it gets filled by another e⁻, but that leaves an empty + spot too! So normal current direction \rightarrow is OK.

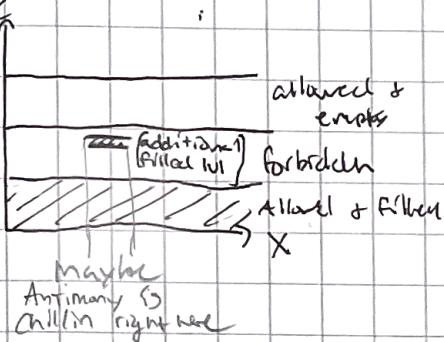
small enough
to allow thermal energy to promote



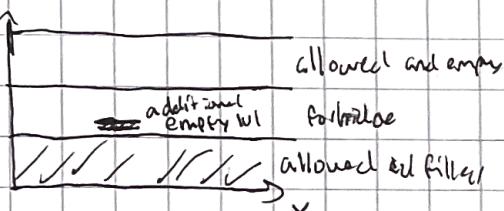
Doping a semi-conductor

Pure germanium \rightarrow [Outer shell] $4e^-$
 semiconductor \rightarrow [Outer shell] $4s^2 4p^2$ \rightarrow if dope with
 Antimony which has $5s^2 5p^3$

\rightarrow the semiconductor will then have a number of extra bound e^- it creates states near conductor band



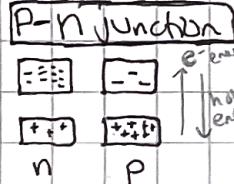
Having the extra band by the empty band thus makes it easier for e^- to be promoted to conduction band than valence band. The charges that produce this current are e^- , it is called an n-type semiconductor.



If you dope w/ gallium ($4s^2 4p^1$), called acceptor. Effect of acceptor is to add empty localized energy levels located just above valence.

A few e^- do get promoted to conduction band, but most of current is done by holes. (unlike n-type)

Since these levels are localized, the promoted e^- can't move through material so they don't contribute to current. So positive hole motion is called p-type semiconductor



-P type has more holes
 -N type has more e^-

when brought together the holes and e^- will spread out (diffuse away)

\Rightarrow moving to full page...

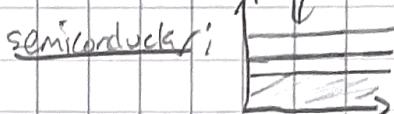
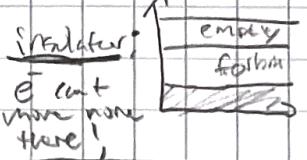
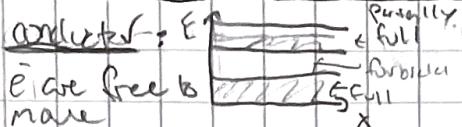
100: 3:53

95: 4:03

90: 6:13

P-N Junctions

3

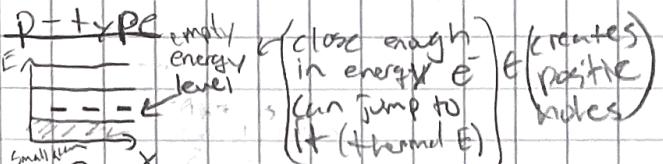


* When hole and e^- "find each other" e^- loses energy and drops back down.

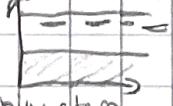
leaves a hole in bottom that moves too.

e^- can freely move after jumping
small gap with albums thermal energy to let it jump

not very good conductor so dope it



N-type:



e^- can easily jump to that next open energy level.

(makes + both of these enhance the 'current' in different ways)

(makes e^- move more)

Putting N and P together

* KEY: [empty levels in P-type] and [filled levels in N-type]



Creates a difference in electric field which cause a force on e^-

Moving N with less negative so it will then N have positive charge

N doped w/ Antimony - traps e^- (more e^-)
P doped w/ Gallium - traps e^- (less e^-)

[N side becomes more positive]
[P side becomes more negative]

creates a difference in electric field $F = qE$

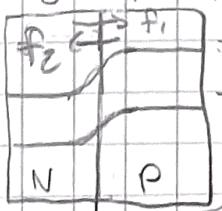
Since P is becoming more NEGATIVE
it repels e^- from N

Since N is the source of e^- for P
it reaches an equilibrium

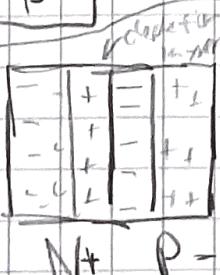
where the build up of charge is enough to repel further e^- from going to P side (dropping down)

The resulting electric field requires energy to overcome

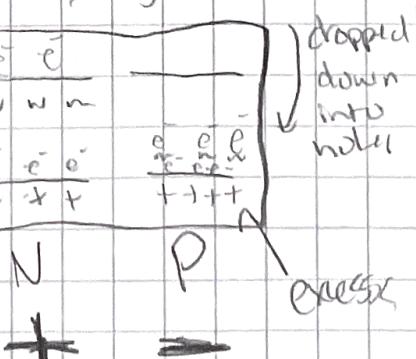
What does this do to Band Structure \rightarrow in equilibrium, ΔE to an from N to P should just be $(f_1 - f_2)$ enough to insure flow in N (f_1) = flow in P (f_2). Originally $f_1 > f_2$ bcc/ there are more e^- in N side than P side



ΔE "end state"



deletes pair (both neutral)



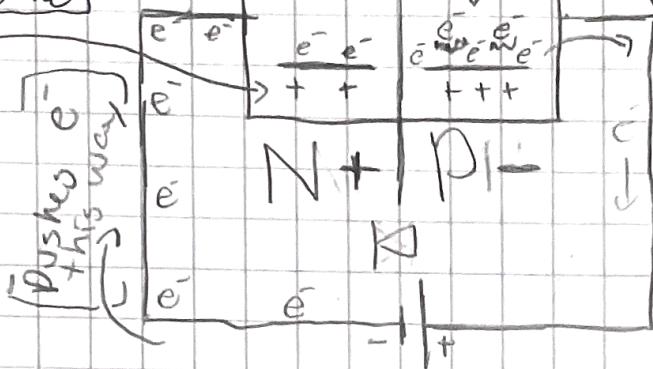
Connecting to a Voltage source

[\bar{e} get)
attached
to pos side
→

[e] get pushed across this gap by the battery.]

1

final stage
of decay



five sides
all the c
ans why

→ This lets electrons that crossed the diffusion gap drop down and get pulled with is current.

- * when it takes energy to push across this is a V drop across
- * behaves just like a wire

Flip the diode

* Same as flipping
Guru

get
on the
bus
but

hard for e^- to go past this forbidden zone so it just builds up

and others of

* builds up more \bar{e} on the left and takes \bar{e} on right causing even HIGH-FB AF so it has very high impedance

* Can't flow back 'cause can't drop
dust into holes and get pulled out
this is full & can't move

* Scaling this effect
in the box creates a
signature like this

norm
negative
negative self
flaw self

-	+	-	++
-	+	-	+
-	+	-	+
-	+	-	+
-	+	-	+

Stated o/a work
but gen z to
other side leaving
as tips < gathering
negatives

Chuks here!

Reinforcement

006
006
006

- P has lots of "holes" in conduction band which allows for e^- to drop in

BOTH
ARE
NEUT

SON has lots of
C in carbonan

- So when you connect two neutral things nothing happens
- except, The N conduction band \rightarrow diffuse over (because they repel) BUT Why?

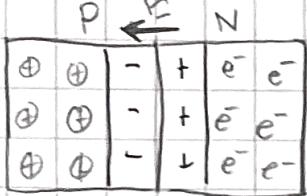
THEY DO, They fall into holes of P. This creates a charge difference on them. This attraction will cause force on e- from N.

P is at a
lower potential
than N

1

A diagram on lined paper showing two horizontal lines, one above the other. The top line is labeled 'P' and the bottom line is labeled 'N'. A third line, which is not perfectly horizontal, intersects both of them. The intersection with line P forms a triangle-like shape, while the intersection with line N is a single point.

Flow of holes and \bar{e} in PN junction (Another look)



Charged space slows down diffusion

Takes energy to push an e^- or takes energy to push positive h^+ against E

e^- are diffusing into P from N
(or holes are diffusing from P to N)

* Diffusion never equilibrates due to e^- from N dropping their energy level in P

I_{diffusion} gets battled by E

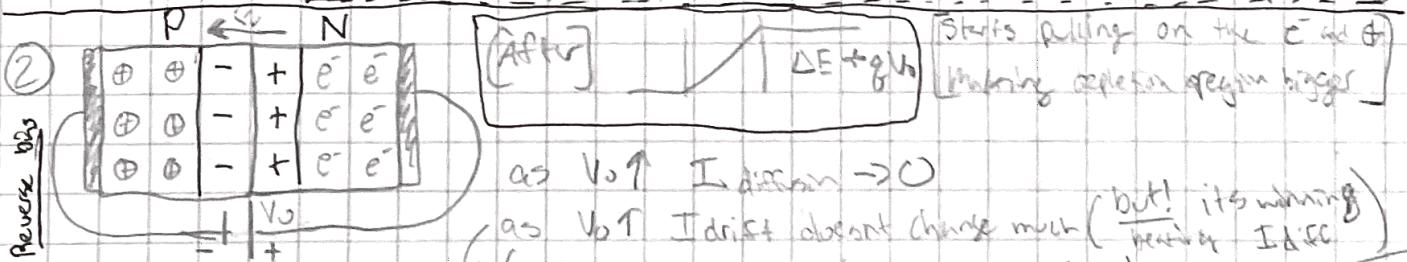
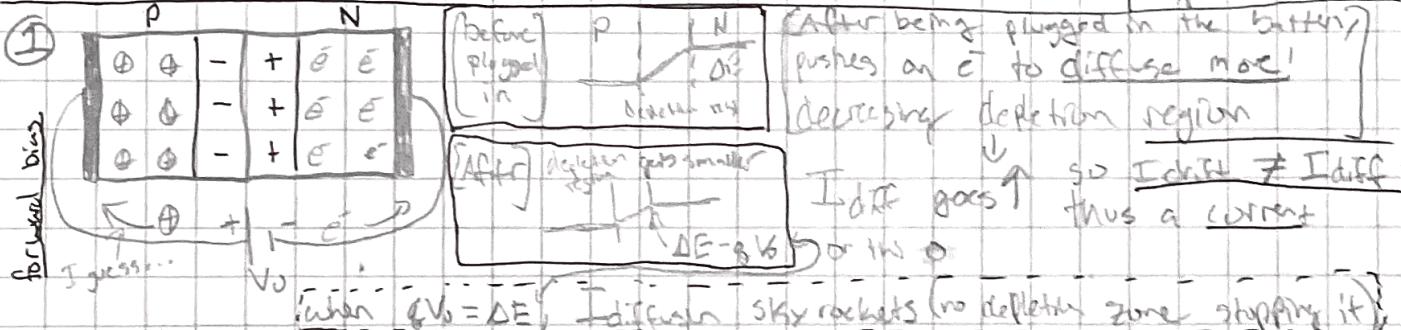
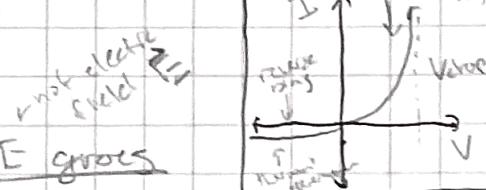
\Rightarrow N will have some holes and P will have some e^- 's (very small)
these actually get accelerated by E

I_{drift} \rightarrow from N to P

at equilibrium

I_{diffusion} = I_{drift}

current = I_{drift} (P to N) (direction of positive charge insertion)



Drift is due to thermal generation of e^- in P getting swept by E: P's drift \gg N's drift

If you make V_0 high enough for reverse bias, it widens E & makes e- from P accelerate faster. If high enough it can cause a chain reaction creating TONS of e- from knock-on after e- off atoms

avalanche breakdown

Zener diode (heavily doped diode, more n per cm^3)

\rightarrow doping it a lot makes depletion region very narrow makes E super strong because more ions per cm^3 a small depletion region is enough to reach equilibrium. E field is so strong it can tear e- off the ions unlike impact like normal breakdown

\hookrightarrow Zener breakdown happens at much lower voltage

quantum effect: normal Zener electron that get out

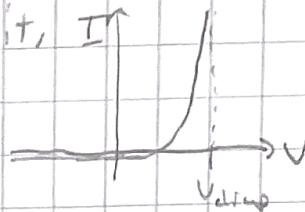
zener Zener through electron that get out

Diodes [in Circuits] can ideal diode has $Z = \infty$ when $V < 0$ and $Z = 0$ when $V > 0$

a real diode has a V_{drop} across it, I

6

$$\text{Shockley diode eq'n: } I = I_0 \left[e^{\frac{eV}{kT}} - 1 \right]$$

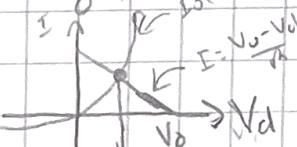


easy approximation: if $V \gg V_{drop}$ $\rightarrow I = 0$
 or $V_{drop} \gg V$ if $V \geq V_{drop}$: KVL $V = V_{drop} - IR \Rightarrow I = \frac{V_0 - V_{drop}}{R}$

If we use Shockley $\rightarrow V_0 - IR - V_d = 0 \rightarrow I = \frac{V_0 - V_d}{R}$

Solving for V_d CAN'T, transcendental equation

$$\frac{V_0 - V_d}{R} = I_0 \left(e^{\frac{eV_d}{kT}} - 1 \right)$$



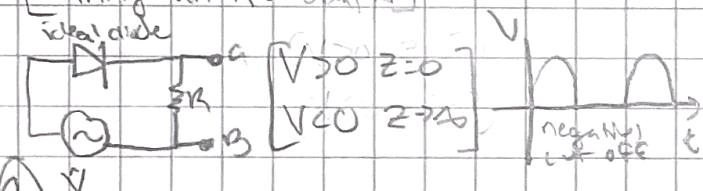
*Solve w/ Newton's method or "tand line"

origin of
Vd
equations I
don't understand

$$I = I_0 \left[e^{\frac{eV}{kT}} - 1 \right], \text{ when } \frac{eV}{kT} \gg 1, \frac{kT}{e} (\ln I - \ln I_0) = V - \frac{\Delta E}{e}$$

Energy of gap

Making an AC adapter

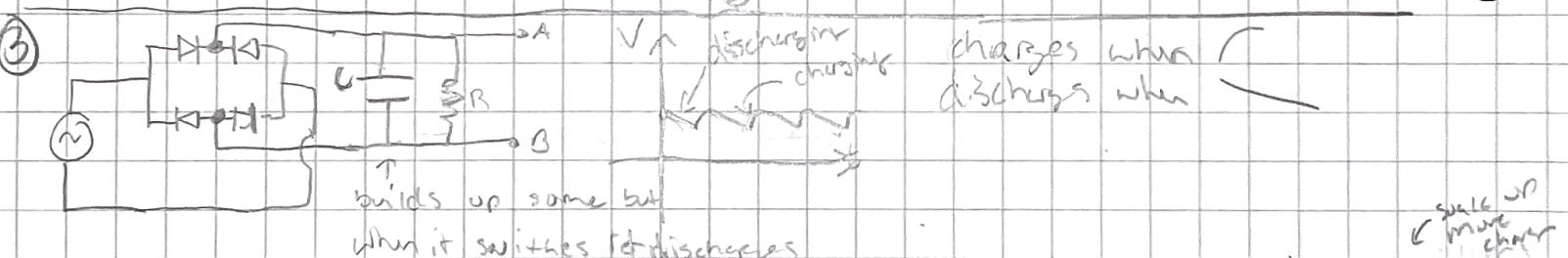


Let's get the cut off part



$\rightarrow K$ blocked
 $\rightarrow D$ passed

to understand follow path from either side when



\rightarrow this is one way to filter out the signals.

But what is actually happening?

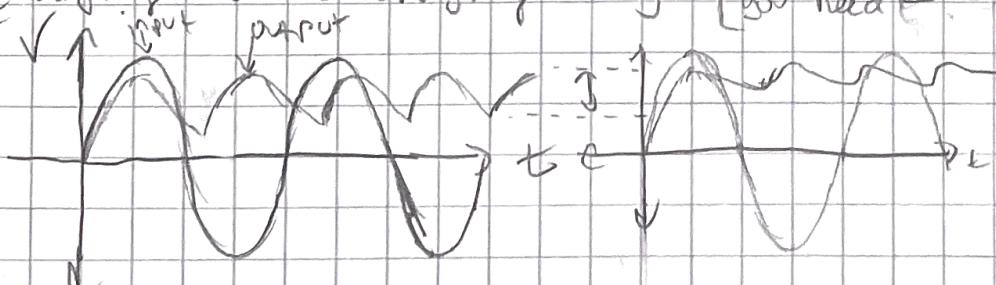
at certain times the capacitor C charging and discharging

you want it to charge
up quickly, to do this,
you need C .

- high capacitance

- C be high? so
it acts like wire or
doesn't conduct
much

$- \text{low } f_C = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$
get this when
you increase
the f_C



Bipolar junction transistor?

Form factor?

$$\downarrow \text{Voltage (rms) of output signal} = \frac{V_{rms(\text{AC})}}{R} \leftarrow \text{"AC part"}$$

$$r_i = \text{Average value of signal} = V_{DC} \leftarrow \text{"direct current part"}$$

[getting equations]

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int \frac{V(t)^2}{R_L} dt = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R_L} \Rightarrow V_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T V(t)^2 dt}$$



$$V_{DC} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T v(t) dt$$

Usually output voltage V_{DC} or V_{load}

of the form

$$\sqrt{V_{rms}}$$

$$* \text{you can say: } C_L(t) = \frac{V_{DC(t)}}{R_L} \text{ and } I_{DC} = \frac{V_{DC}}{R_L} \text{ and } I_{rms} = \frac{V_{rms}}{R_L}$$

lets think about ΔV drop of the capacitor that's causing these ripples

[for small ripples]

[you can approximate]

[load to be constant]

$$Q = CV$$

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = C \frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$\Delta V = \frac{I}{C} \Delta t$$

$\Delta t \approx \frac{T}{2}$ (half wave rectifier)

$\Delta t \approx \frac{1}{2f}$ (full wave rectifier)

* Resistor causes capacitor to discharge "somewhat" between cycles (or half cycles for full wave rectification)

[assuming a linear approximation it is conservative in design]

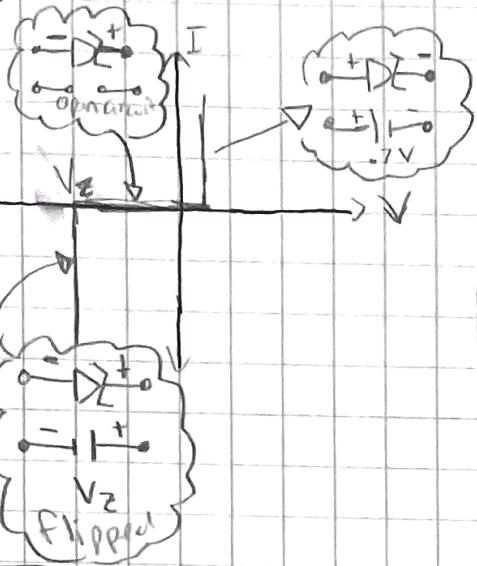
[capacitor begins charging again in less than a half cycle]

$$\Delta V = \frac{-I_{load}}{SC} \text{ or } \Delta V = \frac{I_{load}}{ZSC}$$

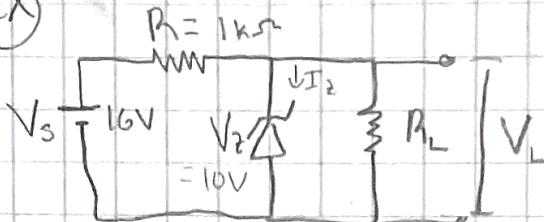


* I think I_{load} is current across the resistor because the resistor is what is making its $\frac{dV}{dE}$ & can't discharge anywhere else

Zener diode
Practice Problems



Ex



8

$R_L = 1k\Omega$; find state of zener diode by seeing voltage:

$$V_L = V_z = V_s \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} = 8.73V \text{ so zener is OFF}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Diagram: } \begin{cases} \text{off} & V_R = V_s - V_L = 16 - 8.73 = 7.27V \\ R_L = 3k\Omega & I_Z = 0, P_Z = 0 \end{cases} \\ & I_Z = I_R - I_L = 7.27V / 3k\Omega = 2.42mA \end{aligned}$$



$$V_L = V_{Zon} = V_s \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} = 12V \text{ so zener on}$$

$$V_{Zon} = V_L = 10V \quad (\text{Zener regulates voltage})$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_R = V_s - V_L &= 16 - 10 = 6V \quad I_L = \frac{V_R}{R_L} = \frac{6}{3k\Omega} = 2.0mA \\ I_R &= \frac{V_L}{R_L} = 10V / 3k\Omega = 3.33mA \quad I_Z = I_R - I_L = 3.33 - 2.0 = 1.33mA \end{aligned}$$

to find the minimum load resistance such that
(if $R_L > R_{Lmin}$, zener is on and $R_L < R_{Lmin}$ zener is off)

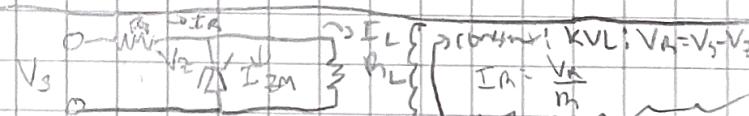
$$I_{Lmax} = \frac{V_L}{R_L} = \frac{V_z}{R_{Lmin}}$$

Since zener diode regulates, there is a max resistance, (has an I_{Zmax} where it breaks down)

Once the diode is on $I_Z = I_R - I_L$ (I_Z is limited to I_{Zmax})

$$\text{Generally: } R_L = \frac{V_L}{I_L} \Rightarrow R_{Lmax} = \frac{V_z}{I_{Lmax}} = \frac{V_z}{I_R - I_{Zmax}}$$

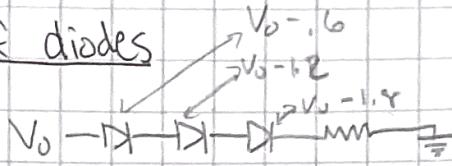
$$R_{Lmin} = \frac{V_z}{V_s - V_z}$$



so zener is on when: $I_{Lmin} < I_L < I_{Lmax}$, $R_{Lmin} < R_L < R_{Lmax}$

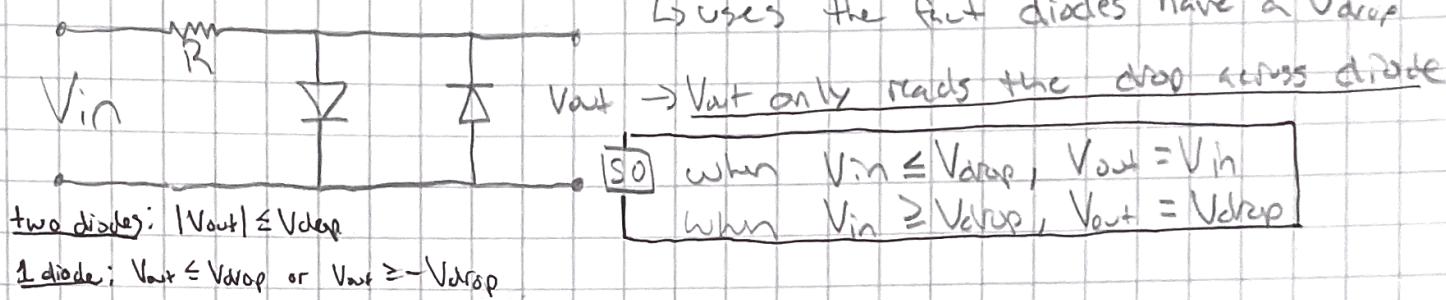
Different uses of diodes

Voltage dropper

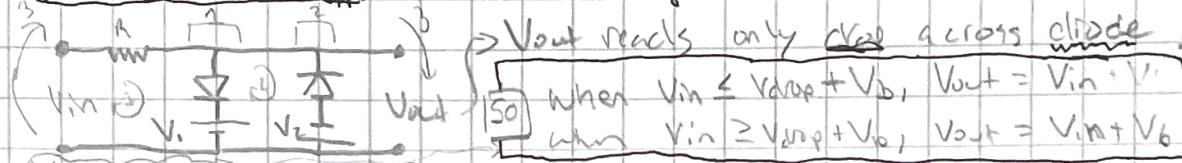


Limiter or Clipper ensures output voltage never exceeds a certain level

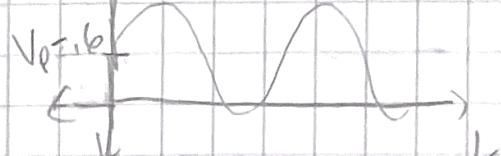
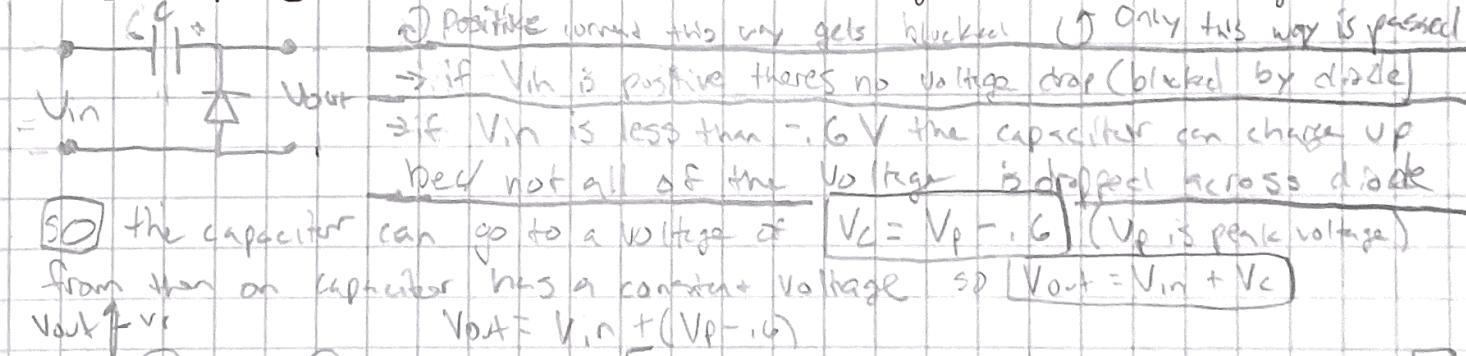
↳ uses the fact diodes have a V_{drop}



Variable diode clipper * same thing as above but can change how much it clips



DIODE CLAMP * used to shift an AC signal by a constant voltage



In negative cycle it charges the capacitor and if the capacitor tries to discharge its blocked by diode

$$V_c = V_p - 0.6 \quad [0.6 \text{ is always taken off b/c of diode}]$$

[think of this as variable $0 \rightarrow V_p$]

[thus the capacitor charges to $V_p - 0.6$ and can't discharge]

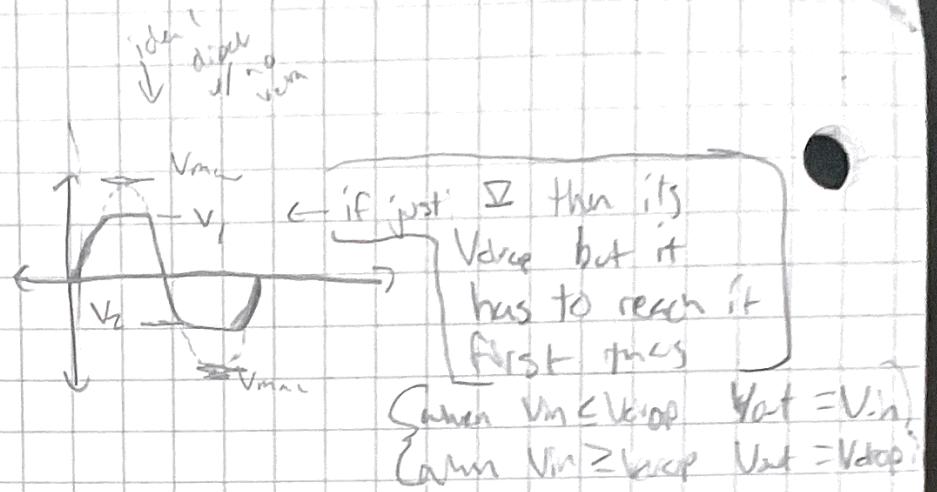
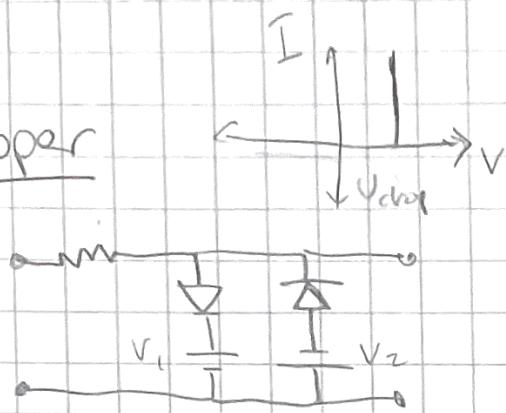
{Now capacitor acts like a constant voltage source} \rightarrow



$$\begin{aligned} V_{in} - V_{drop} - V_c &= 0 \\ V_{out} - V_{drop} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$V_{in} = V_{out} + V_c$$

Clipper

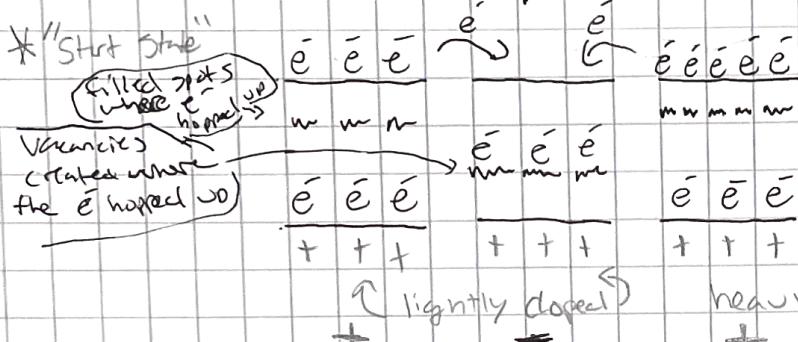


TRANSISTORS

two types: NPN and PNP, focusing on NPN, PNP's since just polarities and current is reversed

n-p-n junction

N P N (N and P start off neutral)



[electrons from N will fall down and create depletion layers]

* "End State" w/ batteries

actually not really, this is to show how e fall down, just know in the end state a depletion layer is formed

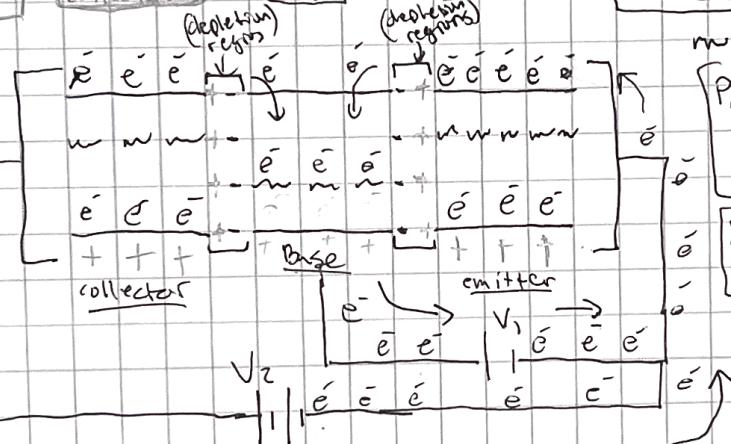
N P

Collector Base

N

Emitter

emitter-base depletion small
collector-base depletion large



m > doped added states

P doping adds holes to crystal, for e to move between bonds

N doping adds e more free in conducting layer

Emitter \rightarrow Base

forward biased

• use V_1 to push

across ΔE

• V_1 pulls e

from base and

emitter e fall

down into base

collector \rightarrow base

reverse biased

• creates larger depletion region

(it pulls e from N and supplies e to P (N is +, P is -))

collector \rightarrow emitter

• complete loop

emitter to collector for e (flowed for others)

electrons from the emitter

[P states]

(base & flow)

1) combines w/ hole in P type

\rightarrow collector

2) they go pass P and into collector to enclose this, P is lightly doped

(less recombination), also the

collector is lightly doped while

emitter has high doped, this

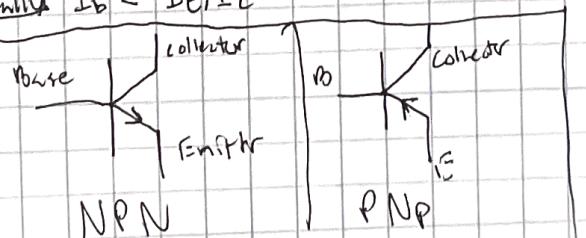
causes more emitter e to disperse

and can pass over that they

regions

in total: $I_{\text{emitter}} = I_{\text{collector}} + I_{\text{base}}$

typically $I_b \ll I_c, I_L$



V_{base} current controls the current from emitter to collector

Transistors

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I_e = I_c + I_b \\ I_b \ll I_e, I_c \end{array} \right.$$



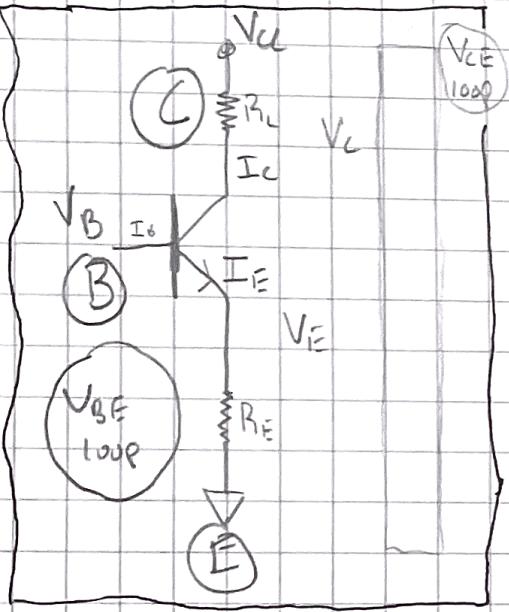
$I_c = \alpha I_e$, " α " fraction of emitter current that makes it to the collector

$I_b = (1 - \alpha) I_e$, $(1 - \alpha)$ means the rest of emitter current is base

* α is typically close to 1

also: $I_e = I_c + I_b$ plug in, $I_e = \alpha I_e + I_b \rightarrow I_b = (1 - \alpha) I_e$

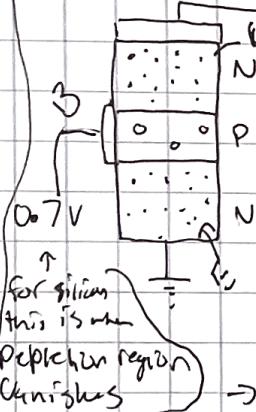
Another look: $B = \frac{I_c}{I_b} = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}$



$$BE \text{ loop: } V_B - V_{BE} - I_E R_E = 0 \quad I_S = I_E + I_S$$

$$CE \text{ loop: } V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

Transistor V_{th} min



+5V with just 5V no flow because of depletion region
at 0.7V on P it forward biases that region, meaning it shrinks the depletion region allowing charge carriers to flow.

→ Most go from bottom N to top N while very few go to 0.7V terminal

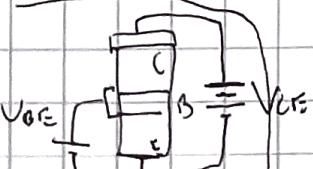
→ If 1 e⁻ goes to base and 99 e⁻ go to top and if you want 2 e⁻ to go to base 198 e⁻ go to top. Origin of "B" and shows amplification!

- in order to act like an ~~amp~~ amplifier the P region has to be forward biased.

emitter-base → forward bias ← the voltage touches P which is + and V_B is +

collector-base → reverse bias ← V_{CC} is touching N which is - and V_{ac} is +

→ If not no current from emitter, if not collector current flows but there's also emitter flow



→ If you make V_{CE} bigger its reverse biasing P which increases depletion region on the top part which makes the bottom e⁻ get swept away more easily, less chance of recombination for V_{BE}

Notice if V_{BE} is small, < 0.7 $I_B \approx 0$ then

increased V_{CE}
you get $+ I_{CSS}$
 I_B at 0.7V

I_{CPS}

I_C

I_B

I_C

I_B

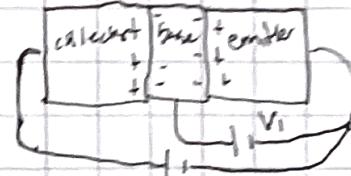
I_C

I_B

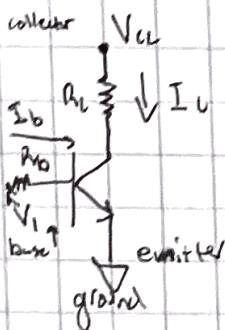
this decrease in current I_B when $V_{CE} > V_B$
causes a forward bias on collector-base
destroys depletion and diffusion happens
emitter base is more so it's harder for them to move

Book rough notes

3



DC Switching control of current



• V_{cc} is name of constant power supply

• V_i is control voltage (controls flow of current through R_b)

$$\text{base-emitter loop: } V_i - I_b R_b - V_{be} = 0 \quad V_{be} = V_i - V_{be} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{not used at} \\ \text{approx base drop} \end{array}$$

$$I_b = \frac{V_i - V_{be}}{R_b}$$

→ often will say $V_{be} = 0.6V$ for approx

$$\text{collector-emitter loop: } V_{cc} - I_c R_c - V_{ce} = 0$$

$$I_c = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce}}{R_c}$$

* But what line does use?
depends on I_b , thus solution

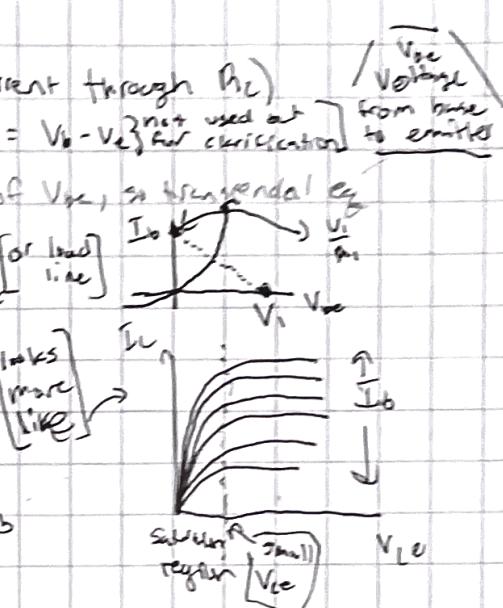
Switching V_i between 0 and big #:

• $V_i = 0$ from load line in base-emitter loop, $I_b = 0$

↳ from that $I_b = 0$ and in collector emitter loop, $I_c = 0$

$$I_b = 0$$

$$I_c = 0$$



from load lines $V_{ce} = V_{cc}$

* to not hit saturation line
low I_b and high V_{ce}/I_c

• If $V_i = \text{big number}$ then
in saturation region w/

I_b will also be large, thus load line hits
 I_c high and where it connects shows a $V_{ce} = \text{small}$

(read)

look back at NPN transistor, MAKES SENSE!

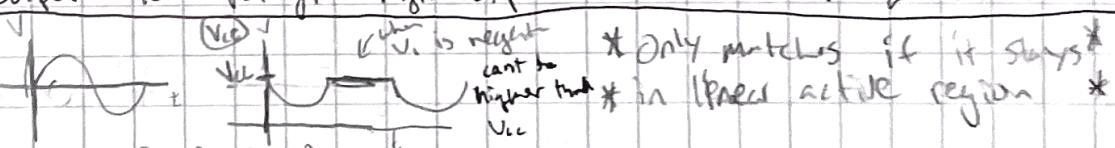
$V_i = 0, I_b = 0, I_c = 0, V_{ce} = V_{cc}$ or $V_i = \text{big}, I_b = \text{big}, I_c = \text{big}, V_{ce} = \text{small}$

• On off control of current (through R_c) by controlling V_i (switch)

• also if V_{cc} is output, low input gives high output etc. ... idle ... voltage inverter?

(amplifiers)

(Vi)



$V_i = 0 \quad V_{ce} = V_{cc}$ ①

$V_i = + \quad V_{ce} = \text{decrease}$ ②

↳ $I_b = \uparrow$ (line up)

almost an amplified signal

→ add a offset and it is

→ idk I don't get it

can't handle
negative
signals

When V_i is negative
then it gets clipped
but it acts like a
diode.

$I_b = 0$ when $V_i = -$

amplifier

universal DC bias circuit
→ Devise a circuit that keeps the transistor operating in the linear active region

→ Sets the constant DC operating conditions
Later add AC to produce ampl.

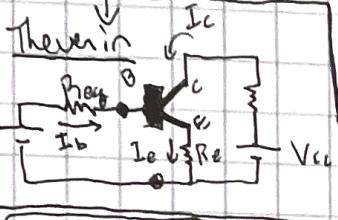
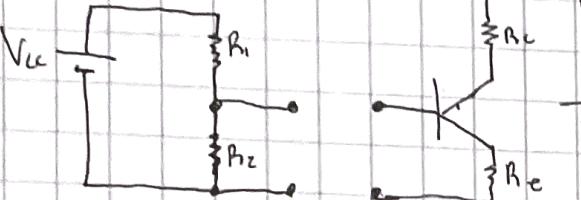
V_{cc} & voltage source

- R_1 and R_2 form a voltage divider
- R_E and R_L complete the circuit
- Other bias circuits can be derived from this one

from this thing you can make

(1)

(2)

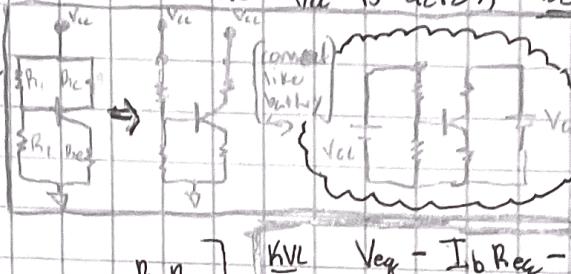


where:

$$V_{eg} = V_{cc} \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right), \quad R_{th} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

this is accurate w/e!

also V_{eg} is across both parts



KVL: $V_{cc} - I_b R_E - V_{BE} - I_c R_L = 0$
(Voltage drop across transistor) \Rightarrow Voltage drop across diode
 $V_{cc} - I_c R_L - V_{ce} - I_b R_E = 0$

Using these equations along with $I_e = I_c + I_b$, $I_L = \beta I_b$, to get I_c, I_b, V_{ce} operating point

1 $I_b = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{be}}{R_E + (\beta + 1)R_L}$ Plugging in $V_{cc} = 12V$

$$I_b \left[\frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + (\beta + 1) R_E \right] = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V_{cc} - V_{be}$$

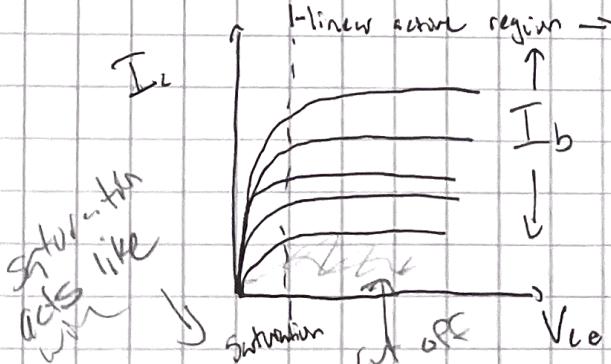
2 $V_{ce} = V_{cc} - I_c \left(R_L + \frac{\beta + 1}{\beta} R_E \right)$ rearrange

$$R_L + \left(\frac{\beta + 1}{\beta} \right) R_E = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce}}{I_c}$$

* Operating point is the DC voltage or current at a specific terminal of an active device with no input signal applied *

Side note: if input varies from 0-1V you could configure transistor to multiply by 5 so it goes from 0-5V. If you want to do 1000 but your supply is only 5 then it will only go between 0 and 5V.

The above circuit keeps transistor in linear active region, its DC mode.



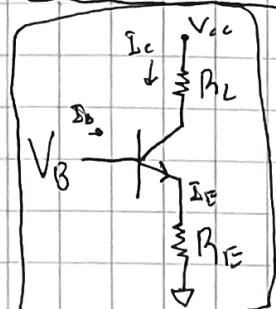
(by connecting to a V_{ce} you can)

Biasing is the process of providing DC voltage which helps in the functioning of the circuit. A transistor is biased in order to make the emitter-base junction forward biased and the collector-base junction reverse biased, so it remains in linear active region (to work as an amplifier).

→ V_{cc} from E to CE, low base current

Transistor example problems

5



BE loop

$$V_B = V_{BE} + I_E R_E$$

* if transistor is conducting then $V_{BE} = V_{drop}$

$$\Rightarrow V_B = V_{drop} + I_E R_E$$

think discrete levels

$$I_c = \beta I_B \quad (\text{only true for linear active region})$$

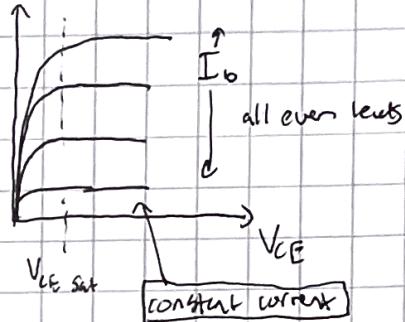
$$\text{then } I_c = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta} I_E \approx I_E$$

then

$$I_c \approx I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{drop}}{R_E}$$

* I_c is controlled by V_B , doesn't depend on load *

(current source b/c its constant and doesn't change)



$V_{ce\text{ sat}}$

constant current

$$\frac{I_c}{R_L} \approx 1 \quad \text{if } \beta \gg 1$$

Q1 Given R_E , R_L , $V_{ce\text{ sat}}$, what's the maximum current this source can provide. ($I_c \approx I_E$) * remember $V_{ce} \geq V_{ce\text{ sat}}$ *

$$V_{cc} = V_{ce} + I_c R_L + I_E R_E \rightarrow V_{ce} = V_{cc} - I_c (R_L + R_E) \geq V_{ce\text{ sat}}$$

then

$$I_c \leq \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce\text{ sat}}}{R_L + R_E}$$

Q2 Find R_E so a $I_c = 0.5A$ flows through the load, $V_B = 3.2V$

(assuming transistor action condition)

$$I_c = 0.5A \rightarrow I_c \approx I_E \rightarrow I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E} = \frac{V_B - V_{drop}}{R_E}$$

$$R_E = \frac{V_B - V_{drop}}{I_E} = 5.2\Omega$$

Q3 What is the maximum value of the load resistor with $I_c = 0.5$, $V_a = 15V$

* or how big can you make R_L so it stays in linear active region *

$\hookrightarrow = 24.4\Omega$

$$V_{cc} = I_c R_L + I_E R_E + V_{ce} \rightarrow V_{ce} = V_{cc} - I_c R_L - I_E R_E \geq V_{ce\text{ sat}}$$

$$R_L \leq \frac{V_{cc} - I_E R_E - V_{ce\text{ sat}}}{I_c}, \begin{cases} R_E \text{ is from} \\ \text{above} \end{cases}, \begin{cases} \text{if past saturation} \\ I_c \approx I_E \end{cases} = 24.4\Omega$$

as R_L gets bigger it takes up a larger fraction of V_{cc} meaning V_{ce} gets lower pushing it into saturation

Q4 If $R_L = 10\Omega$ what value of V_B will put transistor into saturation?

as V_B gets bigger, I_E goes up (using saturation) $V_{ce} = V_{ce\text{ sat}}$ $I_E \approx I_L$
makes $V_{ce} = V_{ce\text{ sat}}$ which actually looks at load line on other sheet

$$V_{cc} = I_c R_L + I_E R_E + V_{ce} \approx I_E (R_L + R_E) + V_{ce}$$

$$\hookrightarrow I_E \approx \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce}}{R_L + R_E}$$

$$V_B = V_{drop} + I_E R_E \approx \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce}}{R_L + R_E} R_E + V_{drop}$$

$$\hookrightarrow V_B \leq \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce\text{ sat}}}{R_L + R_E} R_E + V_{drop} \approx 5.7V$$

plugging in $V_{ce\text{ sat}}$ you can rearrange to solve for I_E right

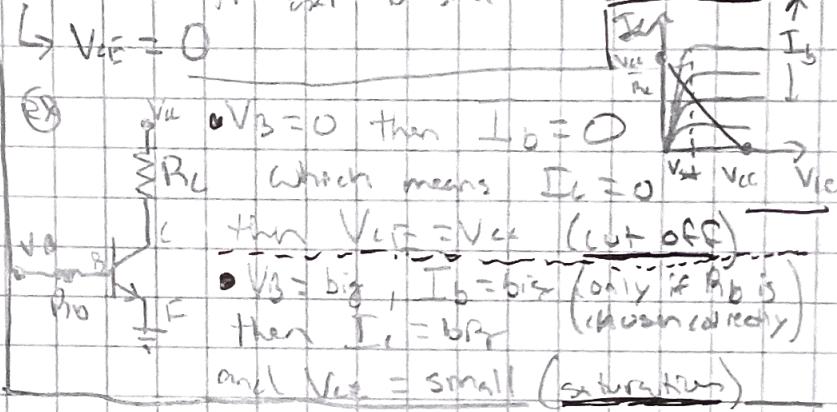
Tips tricks overview

6

(open circuit)

- If V_{in} or $V_B < (V_{BE} = V_{dce})$ then there is no flow (cut off)
- $V_{CE} > V_{CEsat}$ to be in linear active region
 ↳ Community: $V_{ce} = V_{CE} + V_{out}$, V_{out} is voltage across emitter
- You then can use $I_C = \beta I_B \rightarrow I_C \approx I_E$ as $I_E = \frac{\beta+1}{\beta} I_C$
 • β is big
- If $V_{CE} < V_{CEsat}$ (acts like wire) ($I_C = I_E$)
 ↳ You are in saturation V_{CE} is small so it's like

~ impedance seen by V_B is $Z_B = \frac{V_B}{I_B}$
 ↳ if in linear mode



Amplifiers

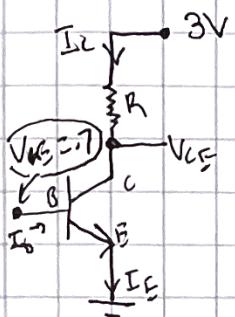
npn emitter follower can't sink current | pnp follower can't source current

Intro

7

Cut off state: (OFF STATE)

- ① if $V_{BE} < .7V$ (P region isn't biased enough so no flow) (max w/ base curv)



$$I_b \approx I_c = 0 \quad * \text{no voltage drop across } R \quad (V_{CE} = V_{CC} = 3)$$

- ② $V_{BE} \approx .7V$ lets say $I_b = 10\mu A$, $\beta = 100$, $R = 1k\Omega$ (Input current)

$$I_c = \beta I_b = 1mA \quad \text{and} \quad I_{cR} = 1V$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{so } 3V - 1V = V_{CE} = 2V \quad \text{AMPLIFIER}$$

Output across $V_{CE} = 2V$, $1mA$

input = $10\mu A$, \Rightarrow I trunk $V_{BE} \propto \beta$ increasing so I_b increases

$$\hookrightarrow I_b = 30\mu A \Rightarrow I_c = 3mA \quad \text{As. } I_{cR} = 3V \quad \text{so } V_{CE} = 0$$

$0 < I_B < 30\mu A \Rightarrow I_c = \beta I_B \text{ and } 0 < V_{CE} < 3V$

LINEAR ACTIVE REGION

$I_B > 30\mu A \Rightarrow I_c = 3mA \text{ (maximum)} \quad V_{CE} = 0 \text{ min}$

Saturation State \uparrow (ON STATE)

*Saturation its fully conducting * Cut off not conducting
acts like wire \Rightarrow acts like open circuit

we want: $V_{out} = 10V_{in}$ but its also amplifier

Transistor as a voltage Amplifier if $\Delta V_{out} = 10\Delta V_{in}$, which means a DC offset can amplify

$$\Delta V_{out} = 10\Delta V_{in} \quad * \text{assume in active state*} \quad I_c = \beta I_b$$

* V_{BE} is not DC current so I_c and I_b change in time $\Rightarrow \Delta I_c = \beta \Delta I_b$

$$\hookrightarrow [V_{cc} - V_{out} = I_c R_L] \Delta \xrightarrow{\text{take } \Delta \text{ constant}} V_{cc} = 0 \Rightarrow [-\Delta V_{out} = R_L \Delta I_c]$$

$$[V_{in} - V_{BE} = I_b R_b] \Delta \xrightarrow{\text{constant}} \Delta V_{in} = \Delta I_b R_b$$

then:

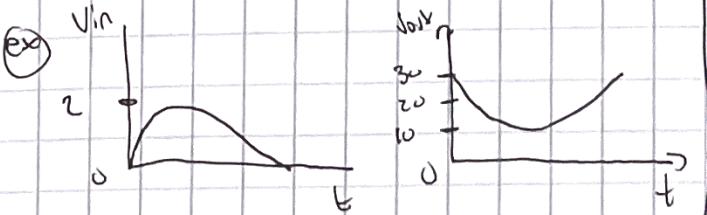
$$\frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{in}} = -\frac{R_L}{R_b} \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_b} = -\frac{R_L}{R_b} \beta$$

$$-\frac{R_L}{R_b} \beta \xrightarrow{\text{Voltage gain}}$$

minus sign just flips magnitude
increase V_{in}

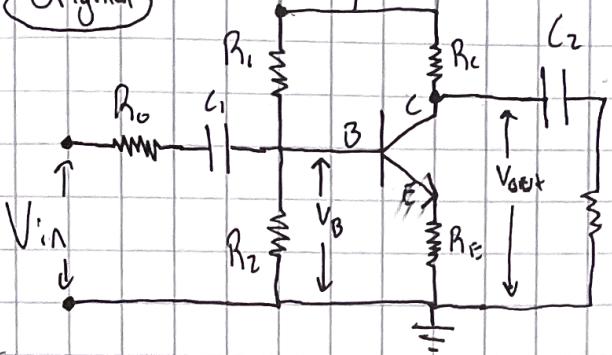
$I_b \uparrow$ then
 $I_c \uparrow$ (more drop across R_L than V_{out})

ex)



Common Emitter

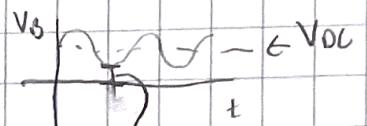
(Original)



* To analyze this common emitter we will be doing the method of combining AC part and DC part. *

- R_o is like input impedance of source
- Capacitors are useful for separating AC part and DC part, (only lets AC to pass) \hookrightarrow When analysing DC part the impedance of capacitor goes infinite $Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C} \rightarrow \omega = 0 \ Z_C \rightarrow \infty$

• R_1 and R_2 decide the voltage "V_B". If most of the voltage drops across R_1 , V_B will be small and might not have enough voltage to go across $V_{BE} = V_{drop}$



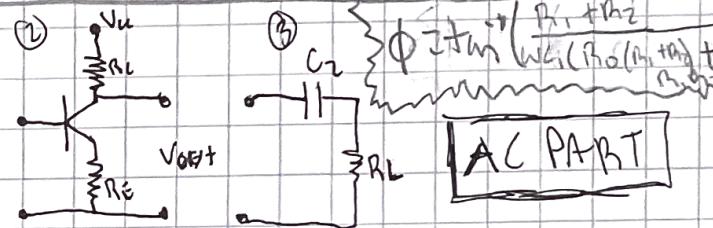
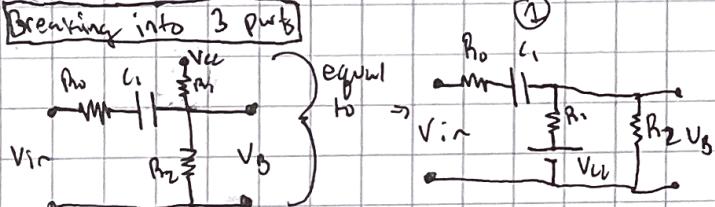
this has to be $> V_{drop}$ or risk off

SLACK?

• controls the drop across

• R_E controls drop across transistor as whole $V_B = V_{drop} + I_E R_E$ loop

Breaking into 3 parts



Complex Ohm's Law

• interested in voltage that's changing so V_{AC} is ① that's put & DC part ($= 0$)

\rightarrow Voltage divider: $V_B = \frac{(R_1 + R_2)}{R_o + R_1 + R_2 + R_E} V_{in}$

$$(R_1 + R_2) V_{in} \rightarrow V_B = \frac{(R_1 + R_2) V_{in}}{(R_o + R_1 + R_2 + R_E)}$$

now for ②

Even though I messed up it shows that all other DC parts are 0 too

② $V_{cc} = 0$ again, using universal DC bias equations and setting $V_{cc} = 0$:

$$I_B \left(\frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + (B+1) R_E \right) = -V_{BE} \quad \text{and} \quad R_E + \left(\frac{B+1}{B} \right) R_E = -\frac{V_{CE}}{I_C} \quad I_C = B I_B \quad \text{Amplifier...}$$

KVL

$$\bullet V_B - V_{BE} + I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\bullet V_{out} = V_{CE} + V_B - V_{BE}$$

$$V_{out} = V_{CE} + V_B - V_{BE}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{BE} \left(\frac{R_1 R_2 + R_E (B+1) (R_1 + R_2)}{(B+1) R_E} \right)$$

$$V_B = V_{out} = \frac{R_1 R_2 V_p \cos(\omega t + \phi)}{\sqrt{(R_o (R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2)^2 + \left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{w_L}\right)^2}}$$

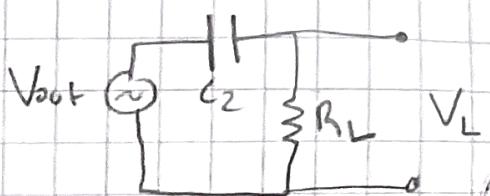
solve above eq's * for V_{CE} *

plug into this and pull out $V_B =$

* $V_{BE} = 0$, under AC condition !

AC Part gets to the load

So now we have something like



$$V_B = V_{out} = \frac{(R_1 + R_2) V_p \cos(\omega t + \phi)}{\sqrt{(R_0 + R_1 + R_2)^2 + (\omega C_1)^2}}$$

$$V_B = V_{out} = \frac{R_1 R_2 V_p \cos(\omega t + \phi)}{\sqrt{(R_0(R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2)^2 + (\frac{R_1 + R_2}{\omega C_1})^2}}, \quad \phi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{\omega C_1 (R_0(R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2)}\right)$$

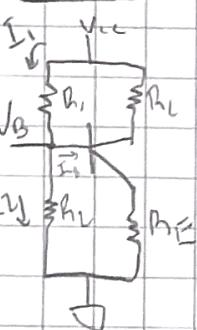
$$\tilde{V}_L = \tilde{V}_B \frac{R_L}{R_L + Z_{C_2}} = \frac{-R_1 R_2 R_3 V_p}{(R_1(R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2)^2 + (\frac{R_1 + R_2}{\omega C_1})^2} R_L - \frac{\dot{\phi}}{\omega C_1} e^{j(\omega t + \phi)}$$

$$\tilde{V}_L = A \cdot \frac{\cos(\omega t + \phi + \phi_2)}{\left(\frac{R_L}{R_1 + R_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{\omega C_2}\right)^2}, \quad \phi_2 = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\omega C_2 R_L}\right) \quad (\text{no DC part})$$

DC part

* capacitors have $Z = \infty$ so it breaks it off

if R_1 and $R_2 \ll (1+\beta)R_E$



$$V_B = V_{out} + I_E R_E$$

$$V_{cc} = I_L R_1 + V_{CE} + I_E R_E$$

$$I_L = \beta I_B$$

$$I_E = I_L + I_B$$

$$V_{cc} = I_L R_1 + V_B$$

$$V_B = I_2 R_2$$

$$I = I_L + I_B$$

$$V_B = \frac{V_{cc}(R_1 + R_2) + (1+\beta)R_E R_2 V_{cc}}{R_1 R_2 + (1+\beta)(R_1 + R_2) R_E}$$

$$V_B = V_{cc} \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$I_2 = \frac{V_{cc} R_2 - V_{cc}(R_1 + R_2)}{R_1 R_2 + (1+\beta)(R_1 + R_2) R_E}$$

$$V_B = \tilde{V}_B + V_{DC(\tilde{V}_B)} = \frac{R_1 R_2 V_p \cos(\omega t + \phi)}{\left((R_0(R_1 + R_2) + R_1 R_2)^2 + \left(\frac{R_1 + R_2}{\omega C_1}\right)^2\right)} + \frac{V_{cc}(R_1 + R_2) + (1+\beta)R_E R_2 V_{cc}}{R_1 R_2 + (1+\beta)(R_1 + R_2) R_E}$$