III. Introduction to Bipolar-Junction Transistors

3.1 BJT \textit{iv} characteristics

A bipolar junction transistor is formed by joining three sections of semiconductors with alternative different dopings. The middle section (base) is narrow and one of the other two regions (emitter) is heavily doped. The other region is called the collector.

Two variants of BJT are possible: NPN (base is made of p-type material) and PNP (base is made of n-type material). Let’s first consider a NPN transistor. A simplified physical structure of a NON transistor is shown on the right.

A BJT has three terminals. Six parameters; \(i_C, i_B, i_E, v_{CE}, v_{BE}, \) and \(v_{BC}\); define the state of the transistor. However, because a BJT has three terminals, KVL and KCL should hold for these terminals:

\[
i_E = i_C + i_B \quad v_{BC} = v_{BE} - v_{CE}
\]

Thus, only four of these 6 parameters are independent. Two relationships among these four parameters (\(i_B, v_{BE}, i_C \) and \(v_{CE}\)) represent the “\(iv\)” characteristics of the BJT.

A BJT looks like 2 diodes placed back to back if we apply a voltage to only two of the three terminals, letting the third terminal float. We can use this feature to check if a transistor is working: use a multi-meter to ensure that both diodes are in working condition. (One should also check the resistance between C & E terminals and read a vary high resistance as one may have a burn through the base connecting collector and emitter.)

When the BE junction is forward biased, electrons from the emitter diffuse into the base and holes from the base into the emitter setting up the BE diode diffusion current. Because the emitter is heavily doped, a large number of electrons enter the base. If the base is thin enough, there would be a substantial number of electrons in the vicinity of the BC junction.

If a “negative” voltage is applied to the BC junction, the electrons from the emitter which had diffused to the vicinity of the BC junction are swept into the collector (a drift current). As a result, a substantial current flows between emitter and collector terminals. Note that the BC junction is reversed biased in this case (but the BC junction does not “act” as a diode).
This mode of operation is called the active mode: the BE junction is forward biased while the BC junction is reversed biased:

\[ v_{BE} = V_{D0} \quad & \quad v_{BC} < 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE} = v_{CB} + v_{BE} > V_{D0} \]

Since the BE junction acts as a diode, the number of electrons which diffused into base and are near the BC junction scales as \( \exp(v_{BE}/V_T) \) (for an emission coefficient, \( n = 1 \)). As all these electrons will be swept into the collector, regardless of \( v_{BC} \) (or \( v_{CE} = v_{BE} - v_{BC} \)), the collector current, \( i_C \) should not depend on \( v_{CE} \). Furthermore,

\[ i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \]

The base current, \( i_B \), also scales as \( \exp(v_{BE}/V_T) \). However, because emitter is heavily doped and base is thin, only a very small fraction of electrons that diffused into base combine with holes – majority of emitter-originated electrons are swept into the collector. As such, the ratio of \( i_C/i_B = \beta \) is large and relatively constant (but changes with temperature, etc.). Parameter \( \beta \) is called the BJT common-emitter current gain (or current gain for short):

\[ i_B = \frac{I_S}{\beta} e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \]

As can be seen, operation of a BJT requires the presence of emitter-generated electrons near the BC junction (thus, the BE junction should be forward biased). A BJT is called to be in “cut-off” if the BE junction is NOT forward biased. In this case, \( i_B = 0 \) and \( i_C = 0 \) regardless of any voltage applied to the BC junction.

Now, let’s consider the case of the BC junction being forward biased (with BE junction still forward biased), i.e., \( v_{CE} = v_{BE} - v_{BC} < V_{D0} \). This is called the saturation mode.

As the BC junction is forward biased, a diffusion current is set up between the collector and base regions (which is in the opposite direction to \( i_B \) and \( i_C \)). When \( v_{BC} \) is small (\( v_{BC} < 0.3 \text{V}, \) or \( v_{CE} > 0.4 \text{V for Si} \)), the diffusion current from the BC junction is negligible and \( i_C \) remains close to its value for the active mode. This region is usually called the “soft saturation region.” Some text books include this region as part of the active mode, i.e., say BJT is in active if \( v_{CE} > 0.4 \text{ V} \) (instead of \( v_{CE} \geq V_{D0} = 0.7 \text{ V} \)).

When \( v_{BC} \) becomes large enough (\( v_{CE} \approx 0.1 - 0.3 \text{ V for Si} \)) a substantial diffusion current flows from the collector to the base, thereby reducing \( i_C \) below its active-mode level, i.e., \( i_C < \beta i_B \). This is called the “deep saturation” region.

For \( v_{CE} \) close to zero (\( v_{CE} < 0.1 \text{ V for Si} \)), the collector current rapidly goes to zero. This region is referred to as the “near cut-off” region.
BJT \( iv \) characteristics above is typically shown as plot of \( i_B \) vs \( v_{BE} \) (similar to a diode \( iv \) curve) and a “contour” plot of \( i_C \) vs \( v_{CE} \) with each contour lines representing a value of \( i_B \). Note that \( i_C = g(v_{CE}, i_B) \) is actually a “surface” plot in the 3-D space of \( i_C, v_{CE}, i_B \). The \( i_Cv_{CE} \) plot shown is a projection of this 3-D surface with the \( i_B \) axis pointing into the plane. An \( i_Cv_{CE} \) plot of a commercial BJT is shown on the right.

A transistor can be damaged if (1) a large positive voltage is applied between the collector and emitter (breakdown region), or (2) product of \( i_Cv_{CE} \) exceed the power handling capability of the transistor, or (3) a large reverse voltage is applied between any two terminals.

Our rather simple description of the operation of a BJT in the active mode indicated that for a given \( i_B \), \( i_C = \beta i_B \) and is independent of \( v_{CE} \). However, as \( i_Cv_{CE} \) plot above shows, \( i_C \) increases slightly with \( v_{CE} \). The reason for this increase in \( i_C \) is that as \( v_{CE} \) is increased, the “effective” width of the base region is reduced and more electrons can reach the collector. This is called the “Early” effect.

In fact, if we extrapolate all characteristics lines of the active region, they would meet at a negative voltage of \( v_{CE} = -V_A \) as is shown. The voltage \( V_A \) is particular to each BJT (depends on its manufacturing) and has a typical value of 50 to 100 V. It is called the “Early” voltage. The Early effect can be accounted for by the following addition to the \( i_C \) equation (Note that \( i_B \) equation does NOT change):

\[
i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \left( 1 + \frac{v_{CE}}{V_A} \right)
\]

The above model, reproduced in the table below, is called a “large signal” model as it applies to any size currents/voltages applied to the BJT (as opposed to a “small-signal” model discussed later). While rather simple, it is quite sufficient for analysis. Note that the explicit non-linear form is included only in the active mode equations (we will use this form later). Furthermore, only “deep” saturation mode is included as for practical reasons, BJT is only operated in deep saturation mode when it is used as a switch or a logic gate and soft
saturation is usually avoided when BJT is used in the active mode (e.g., as an amplifier), in order to reduce non-linear distortion.

PSpice uses the Ebers-Moll model which includes a better treatment of transistor operation in the saturation mode. Furthermore, Ebers-Moll model provides a “smooth” transition from active to saturation to cut-off modes which is necessary for numerical calculations.

**Summary of BJT Large-Signal Models (NPN):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Large-signal model</th>
<th>Linear Approximation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cut-off:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE reverse biased</td>
<td>$i_B = 0$</td>
<td>$i_B = 0$, $v_{BE} &lt; V_{D0}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$i_C = 0$</td>
<td>$i_C = 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE forward biased</td>
<td>$i_B = \frac{I_S}{\beta} e^{v_{BE}/V_T}$</td>
<td>$v_{BE} = V_{D0}$, $i_B \geq 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE reverse biased</td>
<td>$i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \left(1 + \frac{v_{CE}}{V_A}\right)$</td>
<td>$i_C = \beta i_B$, $v_{CE} \geq V_{D0}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“Deep” Saturation:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE forward biased</td>
<td></td>
<td>$v_{BE} = V_{D0}$, $i_B \geq 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE forward biased</td>
<td>$v_{CE} = 0.1 - 0.3$ V, $i_C &lt; \beta i_B$</td>
<td>$v_{CE} = V_{sat}$, $i_C &lt; \beta i_B$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Si, $V_{D0} = 0.7$ V, $V_{sat} = 0.2$ V.

Similar to diodes, we need to use approximate linear models for BJT $iv$ equations for hand calculations and analysis. This can be easily achieved by using the diode constant voltage model for the BE junction. Such a piecewise linear model is also listed in the table above. Usually Early effect is ignored in such a linear approximation.

The BJT model above requires three parameters. Two ($V_{D0}$ and $V_{sat}$) depend on the base semiconductor, e.g., for Si, $V_{D0} = 0.7$ V, $V_{sat} = 0.2$ V. The third, $\beta$, depends on BJT structure. Also, $\beta$ changes substantially with temperature, depends on on $i_C$, and can vary in commercial BJTs of similar type due to manufacturing inaccuracies. Typically, the manufacturer spec sheet specifies, an average value and a range for $\beta$ of a BJT. The specified $\beta_{\min}$ (minimum value of $\beta$) is an important parameter, i.e., all commercial BJTs of that type have a $\beta$ larger than $\beta_{\min}$ (although some BJTs can have a $\beta$ which is lower than the average value). This variation should be taken into account in designing BJT circuits. For example for a BJT circuit operating in deep saturation, we should set $i_C/i_B < \beta_{\min}$ (instead of the average $\beta$) to ensure that it works correctly for all commercial BJTs of that particular model.
**PNP transistor:** A PNP transistor operates in a similar manner to a NPN BJT, except that holes (instead of electrons) from the emitter diffuse through the base, reach the vicinity of the CB junction, and swept into the collector.

As a result, currents and voltages have opposite signs when compared to a NPN transistor e.g., \( v_{EB} = V_{D0} \) for the EB junction to be forward biased. The circuit symbol and conventions for currents/voltages in a PNP transistor are shown. With this convention, all currents and voltages would be positive and the NPN large signal model above directly applies to PNP transistors if we switch the subscripts for voltages, i.e., \( v_{BE} \rightarrow v_{EB} \) and \( v_{CE} \rightarrow v_{EC} \).

### 3.2 Solving BJT circuits

Similar to diode circuits, we need to assume that BJT is in a particular state, use BJT model for that state to solve the circuit, and then check the validity of our assumption.

**Recipe for solving NPN BJT circuits:**

1) Write down a KVL including the BE terminals (BE-KVL) and a KVL including CE terminals (CE-KVL).

2) Assume BJT is in cut-off (this is the simplest). Set \( i_B = 0 \). Calculate \( v_{BE} \) from BE-KVL.
   
   2a) If \( v_{BE} < V_{D0} \), then BJT is in cut-off, \( i_B = 0 \) and \( v_{BE} \) is what you just calculated. Set \( i_C = i_E = 0 \), and calculate \( v_{CE} \) from CE-KVL. You are done.
   
   2b) If \( v_{BE} > V_{D0} \), then BJT is not in cut-off. Set \( v_{BE} = V_{D0} \). Solve BE-KVL to find \( i_B \). You should get \( i_B > 0 \).

3) Assume that BJT is in the active mode. Let \( i_C = \beta i_B \). Calculate \( v_{CE} \) from CE-KVL.
   
   3a) If \( v_{CE} > V_{D0} \), then BJT is in the active mode. You are done.
   
   3b) If \( v_{CE} < V_{D0} \), then BJT is not in the active mode. It is in saturation. Let \( v_{CE} = V_{sat} \) and compute \( i_C \) from CE-KVL. You should find that \( i_C < \beta i_B \). You are done.

For PNP transistors one should substitute, respectively, \( v_{EB} \) and \( v_{EC} \) for \( v_{BE} \) and \( v_{CE} \) in the above recipe.

Note that if there exists a resistor (or other elements) in the emitter circuit, BE-KVL and CE-KVL have to be solved simultaneously (See Example 3, page 3-7).
**Circuit diagram conventions**: For resistors attached to BJT terminals, it is customary to identify them with a subscript corresponding to that particular terminal, i.e., $R_B$ is a resistor attached to the base terminal as is shown below. The voltage sources attach to each terminal are identified with a “double subscripts” corresponding to that particular terminal, i.e., $V_{CC}$ is a voltage source attached to the collector terminal circuit. Lastly, we usually do not show the independent voltage sources on the circuit, rather we identify them with a “node” with a corresponding voltage (compare figures below).

![Circuit Diagram](image)

**Example 1**: Compute transistor parameters (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$).

Following the procedure above (for NPN transistor):

- **BE-KVL**: $4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE}$
- **CE-KVL**: $12 = 10^3 i_C + v_{CE}$

Assume BJT is in cut-off. Set $i_B = 0$ in BE-KVL:

BE-KVL: $4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} \rightarrow v_{BE} = 4 > V_{D0} = 0.7$ V

So BJT is not in cut off and BJT is ON. Set $v_{BE} = 0.7$ V and use BE-KVL to find $i_B$.

BE-KVL: $4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} \rightarrow i_B = \frac{4 - 0.7}{40,000} = 82.5$ µA

Assume BJT is in active, Find $i_C = \beta i_B$ and use CE-KVL to find $v_{CE}$:

$i_C = \beta i_B = 100 i_B = 8.25$ mA

CE-KVL: $12 = 1,000 i_C + v_{CE} \rightarrow v_{CE} = 12 - 8.25 = 3.75$ V

As $v_{CE} = 3.75 > V_{D0}$, the BJT is indeed in active and we have: $v_{BE} = 0.7$ V, $i_B = 82.5$ µA, $i_E = (\beta + 1)i_C = 8.33$ mA, and $v_{CE} = 3.75$ V.
Example 2: Compute transistor parameters (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$).

Following the procedure above (Note PNP transistor):

**BE-KVL:** $12 = v_{EB} + 40 \times 10^3 i_B + 8 \quad \rightarrow \quad 4 = v_{EB} + 40 \times 10^3 i_B$

**CE-KVL:** $12 = v_{EC} + 10^3 i_C$

Assume BJT is in cut-off. Set $i_B = 0$ in BE-KVL:

**BE-KVL:** $4 = v_{EB} + 40 \times 10^3 i_B \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{EB} = 4 > V_{D0} = 0.7 \text{ V}$

So BJT is not in cut off and BJT is ON. Set $v_{EB} = 0.7 \text{ V}$ and use BE-KVL to find $i_B$.

**BE-KVL:** $4 = v_{EB} + 40 \times 10^3 i_B \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = \frac{4 - 0.7}{40,000} = 82.5 \mu\text{A}$

Assume BJT is in active mode. Find $i_C = \beta i_B$ and use CE-KVL to find $v_{EC}$:

$$i_C = \beta i_B = 100 i_B = 8.25 \text{ mA}$$

**CE-KVL:** $12 = v_{EC} + 10^3 i_C, \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{EC} = 12 - 8.25 = 3.75 \text{ V}$

As $v_{EC} = 3.75 > V_{D0}$, the BJT is indeed in active mode and we have: $v_{EB} = 0.7 \text{ V}$, $i_B = 82.5 \mu\text{A}$, $i_E = (\beta + 1)i_B = 8.33 \text{ mA}$, and $v_{EC} = 3.75 \text{ V}$.

Example 3: Compute transistor parameters (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$).

**BE-KVL:** $4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} + 10^3 i_E$

**CE-KVL:** $12 = 1,000 i_C + v_{CE} + 1,000 i_E$

Assume BJT is in cut-off. Set $i_B = 0$ and $i_E = i_C = 0$ in BE-KVL:

**BE-KVL:** $4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} + 10^3 i_E \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{BE} = 4 > 0.7 \text{ V}$

So BJT is not in cut off and $v_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V}$ and $i_B > 0$.

In this circuit, there is a resistor in the emitter circuit and BE-KVL include $i_E$. Therefore, we need to solve BE-KVL and CE-KVL simultaneously.
Assume BJT is in active, $i_E = (\beta + 1)i_B$:

**BE-KVL:**
$$4 = 40 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} + 10^3 (\beta + 1)i_B = 0.7 + (40 \times 10^3 + 10^3 \times 101)i_B$$
$$i_B = 23.4 \, \mu A \quad \rightarrow \quad i_C = \beta i_B = 2.34 \, mA, \quad i_E = (\beta + 1)i_B = 2.36 \, mA$$

**CE-KVL:**
$$12 = 1,000i_C + v_{CE} + 1,000i_E, \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE} = 7.30 \, V$$

As $v_{CE} = 7.30 > V_{D0}$, the BJT is indeed in active and we have: $v_{BE} = 0.7 \, V$, $i_B = 23.4 \, \mu A$, $i_E \approx i_C = 2.34 \, mA$, and $v_{CE} = 7.30 \, V$.

**Example 4:** Compute transistor parameters (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$).

Since there is a 10 V supply in the EB-loop, it is a good starting assumption that BJT is ON (PNP: $v_{EB} = V_{D0} = 0.7 \, V$ and $i_B > 0$)

**BE-KVL:**
$$10 = 2 \times 10^3 i_E + v_{EB}$$
$$i_E = \frac{10 - 0.7}{2 \times 10^3} = 4.65 \, mA$$

Since $i_E > 0$, the assumption of BE ON is justified (since $i_E > 0$ requires both $i_B$ and $i_C > 0$). Assuming BJT in active:

$$i_E = i_C + i_B = (\beta + 1)i_B \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = \frac{4.65}{101} \simeq 46.0 \, \mu A$$
$$i_C = i_E - i_B \simeq 4.60 \, mA$$

**CE-KVL:**
$$10 = 2 \times 10^3 i_E + v_{EC} + 10^3 i_C - 10 \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{EC} = 6.10 \, V$$

Since $v_{EC} = 6.10 > 0.7 = V_{D0}$, the assumption of BJT in active is justified and $v_{EB} = 0.7 \, V$, $i_B = 46.0 \, \mu A$, $v_{EC} = 6.10 \, V$, and $i_C = 4.60 \, mA$.

### 3.3 BJT transfer function

It is essential to realize that a transistor acts as a “valve.” In a BJT, $i_B$ controls how much $i_C$ flows through the transistor. The BJT does not “create” $i_C$. Rather a voltage or a current source is needed in the CE circuit which supplies $i_C$.

If BJT is in cut-off ($i_B = 0$), the valve is closed and no $i_C$ flows. In the active mode, the valve is partially open and changes in $i_B$ cause proportional changes in $i_C$. In saturation, the valve is open enough such that $i_C$ has reached the maximum value that can be provided by the outside circuit. Increasing $i_B$ would not lead to any increase in $i_C$ (i.e., $i_C$ is “saturated”).
Transistor is a three terminal element. It should be configured as a “two-port” network with two input wires and two output wires (so, one BJT terminal would be common between the input and the output). The widely used common-emitter configuration is shown (emitter is the common terminal).

It is obvious that we cannot directly apply \( v_i \) between the base and the emitter as the range of acceptable \( v_i \) would be quite limited (the BE junction is ON only for a small range of voltages around 0.7 V). As such, a resistor \( R_B \) is placed in the base circuit in order to “convert” \( v_i \) into an \( i_B \) that controls BJT operation.

As discussed, the voltage source \( V_{CC} \) is necessary to provide \( i_C \). A resistor \( R_C \) is placed in the collector circuit. Otherwise, \( v_{CE} = V_{CC} \) and no useful output is taken from the circuit.

We can compute the transfer function of this BJT circuit with a parametric method (similar to that used for diodes). We compute \( v_o = v_{CE} \) in terms of \( v_i \). Value of \( i_C \) is also computed as it provides insight into building switch circuits. We start with:

BE-KVL: \( v_i = R_B i_B + v_{BE} \)

CE-KVL: \( V_{CC} = R_C i_C + v_{CE} \)

**BJT in Cut-off:** \( i_B = 0, \ v_{BE} < V_{D0}, \text{ and } i_C = 0 \)

BE-KVL: \( v_i = v_{BE} \) and \( v_{BE} < V_{D0} \rightarrow v_i < V_{D0} \)

CE-KVL: \( V_{CC} = R_C i_C + v_{CE} \rightarrow v_o = v_{CE} = V_{CC} \)

Thus, as long as \( v_i < V_{D0} \), BJT will be in cut-off with \( v_{CE} = V_{CC} \) and \( i_C = 0 \).

**BJT in Active:** \( v_{BE} = V_{D0}, \ i_B \geq 0, \ i_C = \beta i_B, \text{ and } v_{CE} \geq V_{D0} \)

BE-KVL: \( v_i = R_B i_B + V_{D0} \rightarrow i_B = \frac{v_i - V_{D0}}{R_B} \rightarrow i_C = \beta i_B = \beta \times \frac{v_i - V_{D0}}{R_B} \)

CE-KVL: \( V_{CC} = R_C i_C + v_{CE} \rightarrow v_o = v_{CE} = V_{CC} - \frac{\beta R_C}{R_B} \times (v_i - V_{D0}) \)

Thus, \( v_{CE} \geq V_{D0} \rightarrow v_i \leq V_{D0} + \frac{\beta R_C}{R_B} \times (V_{CC} - V_{D0}) \equiv V_{IH} \)

Thus, for \( V_{D0} \leq v_i \leq V_{IH} \), BJT will be in active with \( v_{CE} \) and \( i_C \) given by the above expressions. Note that as \( v_i \) increases, \( i_B \) and \( i_C \) increase while \( v_o = v_{CE} \) decreases.
**BJT in saturation:** \( v_{BE} = V_{D0}, \ i_B \geq 0, \ v_{CE} = V_{sat}, \) and \( i_C < \beta i_B. \)

**BE-KVL:**
\[
\begin{align*}
\nu_i = R_B i_B + V_{D0} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad i_B = \frac{\nu_i - V_{D0}}{R_B} \\
v_o = v_{CE} = V_{sat}
\end{align*}
\]

**CE-KVL:**
\[
\begin{align*}
V_{CC} = R_C i_C + V_{sat} & \quad \Rightarrow \quad i_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{sat}}{R_C} \\
i_C < \beta i_B & \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nu_i > V_{D0} + \frac{R_B}{\beta R_C} \times (V_{CC} - V_{sat}) \equiv \hat{V}_{IH}
\end{align*}
\]

Thus, for \( \nu_i > \hat{V}_{IH}, \) BJT will be in saturation with \( v_o = v_{CE} = V_{sat} \) and \( i_C \) given by the above expressions. Note that as \( \nu_i \) increases, \( i_C \) and \( v_o = v_{CE} \) do not change, although \( i_B \) increases (\( i_C \) is “saturated!”).

\( \hat{V}_{IH} \) is very close to \( V_{IH} \) defined above (\( V_{sat} \) replaced with \( V_{DD} \) in the fraction). This discontinuity in \( \nu_i \) range is due to the use “deep” saturation model. In practice, a BJT transitions from active to saturation smoothly. Figures below show the transfer function of the BJT common-emitter configuration. Both \( v_o \) and \( i_C \) are plotted.

The behavior of the circuit can also be explored through the use of a load line. For BJTs, the load line is the relationship between \( i_C \) and \( v_{CE} \) that is imposed on BJT by the external circuit (\( i.e. \) through CE-KVL). Recall that \( i_C v_{CE} \) plot shown is a projection of a 3D surface with the \( i_B \) axis into the plane. In this 3-D space, CE-KVL represents a plane which is parallel to \( i_B \) axis (since CE-KVL does not include \( i_B \)).

The BJT load line is the intersection of CE-KVL plane with 3-D BJT \( iv \) characteristics.
In our 2-D projection, the BJT operating point is at the intersection of the load line with the corresponding $i_B$ contour of the transistor (e.g., if $i_B = 20 \mu A$, the intersection of the load line with the BJT line labeled $i_B = 20 \mu A$).

In the load line plot above, BJT is at point A as long as $v_i < V_{D0}$ and BJT is in cut-off ($i_B = 0$). When $v_i$ exceeds this value, $i_B > 0$ and operating point move along the load line toward higher $i_C$ and lower $v_o = v_{CE}$ (compare this with the transfer function plots!). When $v_i > V_{IH}$, transistor is in the saturation region (point B). As can be seen, increasing $v_i$ further (and increasing $i_B$) does not change $i_C$ and value of $i_C$ is saturated.

The transfer function plots above provide an insight into BJT functional circuits. If a BJT is in the active mode, $i_C$ is proportional to $i_B$ (and $v_o = v_{CE}$ has a linear relationship with $v_i$). Thus, one can utilize a BJT in the active mode to amplify signals since $i_C = \beta i_B$ and $\beta \gg 1$.

Features of the transfer function in the cut-off and the saturation regions allow one to build BJT switches and logic gates.

In electronic circuits, mechanical switches are not used. The switching action is performed by a transistor (similar to the circuit above). The input to the switch, $v_i$, is the output of some logic gate. When $v_i = 0$, the BJT will be in cut-off and $i_C = 0$ (open switch). When $v_i > V_{IH}$, the BJT is in saturation with a large $i_C$. When $R_C$ is replaced with a load, this circuit can switch a load ON or OFF (see e.g., Problems 12 & 13).

Similarly, the BJT circuit above is a NOT (or inverter) logic gate. When $v_i = 0$ (low state), BJT will be in cut-off and $v_o = V_{CC}$ (high State) When $v_i > V_{IH}$ (high state), BJT is in saturation with $v_o = v_{CE} = V_{sat} \approx 0.2$ V (low state). BJT logic gates are explored below.

### 3.4 BJT Logic Gates

You have seen binary mathematics and logic gates in ECE25. We will explore some electronic logic gates in this course. Binary mathematics is built upon two states: 0, and 1. We need to relate these binary states to currents or voltages to build logic circuits. It is advantageous (from the point of view of power consumption) to operate circuits with a low current. Thus, we denote these the binary states with voltages $V_L$ for state 0 or the Low state and $V_H$ for state 1 or the High state (for example, 0 V to represent state 0 and 5 V to represent state 1). These voltages are quite arbitrary and can be chosen to have any value.

The desired transfer function of an “ideal” inverter is shown in the figure below (left): when the input is low, the output is high and the when the input is high, the output is low. We can see a difficulty right away. In a practical circuit, there would be an output voltage for any input voltage, so the output voltage has to make a “smooth” transition from $v_H$ to $v_L$ as
the input voltage is varied. We also need to define a range of voltages (instead of one value) to represent high and low states as it is extremely difficult to design an electronic circuit to give an exact voltage value. So, gates are designed to respond to a range of voltages, \textit{i.e.}, the gate would think that the input is low if the input voltage is smaller than \( V_{IL} \) and would think that the input is high if the input voltage is larger than \( V_{IH} \) (see figure).

With these definitions, the transfer function of a practical inverter is shown below (right). The range of voltages, \( V_L \) to \( V_{IL} \) and \( V_{IH} \) to \( V_H \) are called the noise margin(s). The range of voltages between \( V_{IL} \) to \( V_{IH} \) is the forbidden region as in this range the output of the gate does not correspond to a binary state. The maximum speed that a logic gate can operate is set by the time it takes the circuit to traverse this forbidden region as the input voltage is varied from one state to another state.

3.4.1 Resistor-Transistor Logic (RTL)

The transfer function of the common-emitter configuration is reproduced below. Comparing this transfer function with the transfer function of a NOT gate (above), we can see the circuit would acts as a NOT gate (or an inverter) with a low state of \( V_L = V_{sat} \) and a high state of \( V_H = V_{CC} \) with \( V_{IL} = V_{D0} \) and \( V_{IH} \) defined in page 3-10.

This circuit is a member of resistor-transistor (RTL) family of logic gates.
A major drawback of this RTL inverter gate is the limited input range for the “low” signal ($V_{IL}$). While the noise margin for the “high” state can be controlled by adjusting values of $R_C$ and $R_B$, the noise margin for the “low” state is quite small and is set by $V_L = V_{sat} = 0.2$ V and $V_{IL} = V_{D0} = 0.7$ V. Moreover, we have used a constant-voltage model for the BE junction diode which assumes that BE junction turns ON at $V_{D0} = 0.7$ V. In reality, the BJT will come out of cut-off (the BE junction will conduct) at smaller voltages ($\sim 0.5$ V), making the noise margin for “low” state even smaller. Note that this issue of noise margin equally applies to BJT switches.

In order to build a gate with a larger noise margin for the “low” state, we examine the BE-KVL: $v_i = R_B i_B + v_{BE}$. Note that $v_i = V_{IL}$ corresponds to $v_{BE} = V_{D0}$ and $i_B > 0$ but small. Two approaches are possible. First, we can add an element in series with $R_B$ which would have a large voltage drop for a small current, e.g., a diode.

For this circuit, BE-KVL gives: $v_i = v_D + R_B i_B + v_{BE}$. Then to find $V_{IL}$, we substitute for $v_{BE} = V_{D0}$ and $i_B > 0$ but small to get: $V_{IL} \approx v_D + V_{D0}$. Since $i_D = i_B > 0$ but small, the diode should also be forward biased and $v_D = V_{D0}$. Thus, $V_{IL} \approx 2V_{D0} = 1.4$ V. Note that $V_{IL}$ can be increased further in increments of $V_{D0}$ by adding more diodes in the input.

This approach works reasonably well in ICs as the diode and the BE junction can be constructed with similar reverse saturation currents. However, for a circuit built with discrete components (e.g., a BJT switch) this approach may not work well as the reverse saturation current for discrete diodes, is typically 2 to 3 orders of magnitude larger than reverse saturation current for the BE junction. As such, the small current needed to make $v_{BE} \approx V_{D0}$ only leads to $v_D = 0.3 - 0.4$ V. (see Lab 4 for a solution to this problem).

The second way to increase the noise margin is to add a resistor between the base and ground as is shown. To see the impact of this resistor, note that $V_{IL}$ is the input voltage when BJT is just leaving the cut-off region. At this point, $v_{BE} = V_{D0}$, and $i_B$ is positive but very small (effectively zero). Since a voltage $v_{BE}$ has appeared across $R_1$, we have:

$$i_1 = \frac{v_{BE}}{R_1} \quad i_2 = i_B + i_1 \approx i_1 = \frac{v_{BE}}{R_1}$$

$$V_{IL} = v_i = R_B i_2 + v_{BE} = v_{BE} \frac{R_B}{R_1} + v_{BE} = V_{D0} \left(1 + \frac{R_B}{R_1}\right)$$

This value should be compared with $V_{IL} = V_{D0}$ in the absence of resistor $R_1$. It can be seen that for $R_B = R_1$, $V_{IL}$ can be raised from 0.7 to 1.4 V. Moreover, arbitrary values of $V_{IL}$ can
be achieved by proper choice of $R_B$ and $R_1$. Typically, $R_1$ does not affect $V_{IH}$ as $i_B$ needed to put the BJT in saturation is typically several times larger than $i_1$.

**RTL NOR Gate**

All high-level logic gate can be constructed from “basic” logic gates like NOR or NAND. By combining two or more RTL inverters, one obtains the basic logic gate circuit of RTL family, a “NOR” gate, as is shown below left (see Problem 15). More BJTs can be added for additional input signals. A RTL NAND gate is shown below right (see Problem 16).

RTLs were the first digital logic circuits using transistors. They require at least one resistor and one BJT per input. They were replaced with diode-transistor logic, DTL (reduced number of resistors and BJTs) and transistor-transistor logic, TTL (which “packs” all of the diodes in a special transistor). With the advent of CMOS technology, almost digital gates are CMOS gates and BJTs are only used in high-speed emitter-coupled logic (ECL) circuits.

A DTL circuit is analyzed in the following section is as it provides a good example for solving BJT circuits.

### 3.4.2 Diode-Transistor Logic (DTL)

The basic gate of DTL logic circuits is a NAND gate which is constructed by a combination of a diode AND gate (analyzed in pages 2-12) and a BJT inverter gate as is shown below (left figure). Because $R_B$ is large, on ICs, this resistor is usually replaced with two diodes. The combination of the two diodes and the BE junction diode leads to a voltage of 2.1 V for the inverter to switch and a $V_{IL} = 1.4$ V for the NAND gate (Why?). Resistor $R_1$ is necessary because without this resistor, current $i_B$ will be too small and the voltage across $D_3$ and $D_4$ will not reach 0.7 V although they are both forward biased.

**Example:** Verify that the DTL circuit above (with $R_A = 5$ kΩ, $R_C = 1$ kΩ, $R_1 = 5$ kΩ, and $V_{CC} = 5$ V) is a NAND gate. Assume that “low” state is 0.2 V, “high” state is 5 V, and BJT $\beta_{\text{min}} = 40$. 

---

*ECE65 Lecture Notes (F. Najmabadi), Winter 2013* 3-14
Case 1: $v_1 = v_2 = 0.2$ V  It appears that $D_1$ and $D_2$ will be forward biased by the 5-V supply. Assume $D_1$ and $D_2$ are ON: $v_{D1} = v_{D2} = V_{D0} = 0.7$ V and $i_1 > 0$, $i_2 > 0$.

$$v_3 = v_1 + v_{D1} = v_2 + v_{D2} = 0.2 + 0.7 = 0.9 \text{ V}$$

Voltage $v_3 = 0.9$ V is not sufficient to forward bias $D_3$ and $D_4$ as $v_3 = v_{D3} + v_{D4} + v_{BE}$ and we need at least 1.4 V to forward bias the two diodes. So both $D_3$ and $D_4$ are OFF and $i_4 = 0$. (Note that $D_3$ and $D_4$ can be forward biased without the BE junction being forward biased as long as the current $i_4$ is small enough such that voltage drop across the 5 kΩ resistor parallel to the BE junction is smaller than 0.7 V. In this case, $i_5 = i_4$ and $i_B = 0$.) Then:

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_A = \frac{5 - v_3}{5,000} = \frac{5 - 0.9}{5,000} = 0.82 \text{ mA}$$

And by symmetry, $i_1 = i_2 = 0.5i_A = 0.41$ mA. Since both $i_1$ and $i_2$ are positive, our assumption of $D_1$ and $D_2$ being ON are justified. Since $i_4 = 0$, $i_B = 0$ and BJT will be in cut-off with $i_C = 0$ and $v_o = 5$ V.

So, in this case, $D_1$ and $D_2$ are ON, $D_3$ and $D_4$ are OFF, BJT is in cut-off, and $v_o = 5$ V.

Case 2: $v_1 = 0.2$ V, $v_2 = 5$ V  Following arguments of case 1, assume $D_1$ is ON. Again, $v_3 = 0.7 + 0.2 = 0.9$ V, and $D_3$ and $D_4$ will be OFF with $i_4 = 0$. We find that voltage across $D_2$ is $v_{D2} = v_3 - v_2 = 0.9 - 5 = -4.1$ V and, thus, $D_2$ will be OFF and $i_2 = 0$. Then:

$$i_1 = i_A = \frac{5 - v_3}{5,000} = \frac{5 - 0.9}{5,000} = 0.82 \text{ mA}$$

and since $i_1 > 0$, our assumption of $D_1$ ON is justified. Since $i_4 = 0$, $i_B = 0$ and BJT will be in cut-off with $i_C = 0$ and $v_o = 5$ V.

So, in this case, $D_1$ is ON, $D_2$ is OFF, $D_3$ and $D_4$ are OFF, BJT is in cut-off, and $v_o = 5$ V.
Case 3: $v_1 = 5 \text{ V}, v_2 = 0.2 \text{ V}$ Because of the symmetry in the circuit, this is exactly the same as case 2 with roles of $D_1$ and $D_2$ reversed.

So, in this case, $D_1$ is OFF, $D_2$ is ON, $D_3$ and $D_4$ are OFF, BJT is in cut-off, and $v_o = 5 \text{ V}$.

Case 4: $v_1 = v_2 = 5 \text{ V}$ Examining the circuit, it appears that the 5-V supply will NOT be able to forward bias $D_1$ and $D_2$. Assume $D_1$ and $D_2$ are OFF: $i_1 = i_2 = 0, v_{D1} < V_{D0}$ and $v_{D2} < V_{D0}$. On the other hand, it appears that $D_3$ and $D_4$ will be forward biased. Assume $D_3$ and $D_4$ are forward biased: $v_{D3} = v_{D4} = V_{D0} = 0.7 \text{ V}$ and $i_4 > 0$. Further, assume the BJT is not in cut-off $v_{BE} = V_{D0} = 0.7 \text{ V}$ and $i_B > 0$. In this case:

$$v_3 = v_{D3} + v_{D4} + v_{BE} = 0.7 + 0.7 + 0.7 = 2.1 \text{ V}$$
$$v_{D1} = v_3 - v_1 = 2.1 - 5 = -2.9 \text{ V} < V_{D0}$$
$$v_{D2} = v_3 - v_2 = 2.1 - 5 = -2.9 \text{ V} < V_{D0}$$

Thus, our assumption of $D_1$ and $D_2$ being OFF are justified. Furthermore:

$$i_4 = i_A = \frac{5 - v_3}{5,000} = \frac{5 - 2.1}{5,000} = 0.58 \text{ mA}$$
$$i_5 = \frac{v_{BE}}{5,000} = \frac{0.7}{5,000} = 0.14 \text{ mA}$$
$$i_B = i_4 - i_5 = 0.58 - 0.14 = 0.44 \text{ mA}$$

and since $i_4 > 0$ our assumption of $D_3$ and $D_4$ being ON are justified and since $i_B > 0$ our assumption of BJT not in cut-off is justified.

We still do not know if BJT is in active or saturation. Assume BJT is in saturation: $v_o = v_{CE} = V_{sat} = 0.2 \text{ V}$ and $i_C/i_B < \beta$. Then, assuming no gate is attached to the circuit, we have

$$i_C = \frac{5 - V_{sat}}{1,000} = \frac{5 - 0.2}{1,000} = 4.8 \text{ mA}$$

and since $i_C/i_B = 4.8/0.44 = 11 < \beta = 40$, our assumption of BJT in saturation is justified.

So, in this case, $D_1$ and $D_2$ are OFF, $D_3$ and $D_4$ are ON, BJT is in saturation and $v_o = 0.2 \text{ V}$. Overall, the output in “low” only if both inputs are “high”, thus, this is a NAND gate.
### 3.5 Exercise Problems

#### Problems 1 to 6. Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

**Problem 7.** Find $I$ (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$).

![Problem 1](image1.png) ![Problem 2](image2.png) ![Problem 3](image3.png) ![Problem 4](image4.png)

**Problem 8.** This configuration is called a Darlington Pair. A) Show that If Q1 is OFF, Q2 will be OFF and if Q1 is ON, Q2 will ON, B) Show that if both BJTs are in active, the transistor pair act like one BJT in active with $\beta = i_{C2}/i_{B1} \approx \beta_1 \beta_2$.

**Problems 9 and 10.** Find $i_B, v_{BE}, i_C, v_{CE}$, and state of both transistors (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

![Problem 5](image5.png) ![Problem 6](image6.png) ![Problem 7](image7.png)

**Problem 11.** Find $i_B, v_{BE}, i_C, v_{CE}$, and state of both transistors for A) $v_i = 1$ V, B) $v_i = 3$ V, C) $v_i = 5$ V. Si BJTs with $\beta_1 = 100$ and $\beta_2 = 50$. 
Problem 12. This is a switching circuit. $v_i$ is the output of a logic gate which turns the light-emitting diode (LED) on or off depending on the state of the logic gate. The LED is made of GaAs and has a $V_{D0} = 1.7$ V. A) Show that for $v_i = 0$, LED will be OFF, B) Show that for $v_i = 5$ V, LED will be ON, and C) If we tarting from $v_i = 0$ and slowly increase $v_i$, at what voltage LED starts to light up? (Si BJT with $\beta = 100$.)

Problem 13. Design a switch circuit similar to problem 12 which turns an LED OFF and ON such that the LED is OFF for $v_i < 2.5$ V and is ON for $v_i > 2.5$ V. (Hint: See page 3-13 of lecture notes).

Problem 14. Show that this is NOR gate with a LOW state of 0.2 V and a HIGH state of 5 V (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

Problem 15. Show that this is NAND gate with a LOW state of 0.4 V and a HIGH state of 1.2 V (Si BJTs with $\beta = 200$).
3.6 Solution to Selected Exercise Problems

Problem 1. Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

This is a NPN transistor with $i_C = 2$ mA and $i_E = 2.5$ mA.

\[
\begin{align*}
i_B &= i_E - i_C = 0.5 \text{ mA} > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{BJT is ON} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V} \\
\frac{i_C}{i_B} &= \frac{2}{0.5} = 4 < 100 = \beta \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{BJT is in saturation} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE} = 0.2 \text{ V}
\end{align*}
\]

Problem 2. Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

This is a PNP transistor with $i_B = 20 \mu$A and $v_{CB} = -4$ V.

Since $i_B > 0$, EB is ON and $v_{EB} = 0.7$ V.

Since $v_{CB} = -4 < V_{D0} = 0.7$ V, CB is reverse biased and this transistor is in active mode:

\[
\begin{align*}
v_{EC} &= v_{EB} + v_{BC} = 0.7 + 4 = 4.7 \text{ V} \\
i_C &= \beta i_B = 2 \text{ mA}
\end{align*}
\]

Problem 3. Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

This is a NPN transistor with $i_B = 100 \mu$A and $v_{CE} = 5$ V.

\[
\begin{align*}
i_B &= 100 \mu \text{ A} > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{BJT is ON} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V} \\
v_{CE} &= 5 \text{ V} > V_{D0} = 0.7 \text{ V} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{BJT is in active} \quad \rightarrow \quad i_C = \beta i_B = 10 \text{ mA}
\end{align*}
\]

Problem 4. Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

This is a PNP transistor with $v_{EB} = -1$ V and $v_{CB} = -4$ V.

\[
\begin{align*}
v_{EB} &= -1 \text{ V} < 0.7 = V_{D0} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{BJT is in cut-off} \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = 0 \quad \& \quad i_C = 0 \\
v_{EC} &= v_{EB} + v_{BC} = -1 + 4 = 3 \text{ V}
\end{align*}
\]
**Problem 5.** Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

BE-KVL: $15 = 10^6 i_B + v_{BE}$

CE-KVL: $15 = 4.7 \times 10^3 i_C + v_{CE}$

Assume BJT is ON, $v_{BE} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$. BE-KVL gives:

BE-KVL: $15 = 10^6 i_B + 0.7 \rightarrow i_B = 14.3$ $\mu$A

Since $i_B > 0$, our assumption of BJT is ON is justified.

Assume BJT is in active: $i_C = \beta i_B = 100 i_B = 1.43$ mA and $v_{CE} > 0.7$ V. CE-KVL gives:

CE-KVL: $15 = 4.7 \times 10^3 \times 1.43 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE} \rightarrow v_{CE} = 8.28$ V

Since $v_{CE} = 8.28 > 0.7$ V our assumption of BJT in active is justified with $i_B = 14.3$ $\mu$A, $i_C = 1.43$ mA, and $v_{CE} = 8.28$ V.

**Problem 6.** Find the transistor parameters (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

BE-KVL: $15 = v_{EB} + 220 \times 10^3 i_B$

CE-KVL: $15 = v_{EC} + 3.9 \times 10^3 i_C$

Assume BJT (PNP) is ON, $v_{EB} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$. BE-KVL gives:

BE-KVL: $15 = 0.7 + 220 \times 10^3 i_B \rightarrow i_B = 65$ $\mu$A

Since $i_B > 0$, our assumption of BJT ON is justified.

Assume BJT is in active: $i_C = \beta i_B = 100 i_B = 6.5$ mA and $v_{EC} > 0.7$ V. CE-KVL gives:

CE-KVL: $15 = v_{EC} + 3.9 \times 10^3 \times 6.5 \times 10^{-3} \rightarrow v_{EC} = -10.4$ V

Since $v_{EC} = -10.4 < 0.7$ V our assumption of BJT in active is NOT justified.

Assume BJT in saturation, $v_{EC} = 0.2$ V, and $i_C < \beta i_B$. CE-KVL gives:

$15 = 0.2 + 3.9 \times 10^3 i_C \rightarrow i_C = 3.79$ mA

Since $i_C/i_B = 3.79/0.065 = 58 < 100 = \beta$, our assumption of BJT in saturation is justified with $i_B = 65$ $\mu$A, $i_C = 3.79$ mA, and $v_{EC} = 0.2$ V.
**Problem 7.** Find $I$ (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

EB-KVL: $15 = 10^3 i_E + v_{EB}$

EC-KVL: $15 = 10^3 i_E + v_{EC} + 10^3 i_C - 15$

Assume BJT (PNP) is OFF, $i_B = i_C = i_E = 0$ and $v_{EB} < 0.7$ V. EB-KVL gives:

EB-KVL: $15 = v_{EB}$

Since $v_{EB} = 15 > 0.7$ V, BJT is NOT in cut-off.

Assume BJT is ON, $v_{EB} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$. EB-KVL gives:

EB-KVL: $15 = 10^3 i_E + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_E = 14.3$ mA

Assume BJT is in active: $i_E \approx i_C = \beta i_B$ and $v_{EC} > 0.7$ V. Therefore $i_C \approx i_E = 14.3$ mA and $i_B = i_C/100 = 143$ $\mu$A. EC-KVL gives

EC-KVL: $15 = 10^3 \times 14.3 \times 10^{-3} + v_{EC} + 10^3 \times 14.3 \times 10^{-3} - 15 \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{EC} = 1.4$ V

Since $v_{EC} = 1.4 > 0.7$ V, BJT is in active with $i_B = 143$ $\mu$A, $i_C = 14.3$ mA, and $v_{EC} = 1.4$ V.

**Problem 8.** This configuration is called a Darlington Pair. A) Show that If Q1 is OFF, Q2 will be OFF and if Q1 is ON, Q2 will ON, B) Show that if both BJTs are in active, the transistor pair act like one BJT in active with $\beta = i_{C2}/i_{B1} \approx \beta_1 \beta_2$.

Darlington pair are arranged such that $i_{E1} = i_{B2}$.

Part A:

If Q1 is OFF, $i_{B1} = i_{C1} = i_{E1} = 0$. Because of Darlington pair arrangement, $i_{B2} = i_{E1} = 0$ and Q2 would also be OFF.

If Q1 is ON, $i_{E1} > 0$. Because of Darlington pair arrangement, $i_{B2} = i_{E1} > 0$ and Q2 would also be ON.

Part B:

If Q1 & Q2 are both in active:

$$i_{C2} = \beta_2 i_{B2} = \beta_2 i_{E1} \approx \beta_2 i_{C1} = \beta_1 \beta_2 i_{B1} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{i_{C2}}{i_{B1}} = \beta_1 \beta_2$$

So, the Darlington pair act as a super high $\beta$ BJT.
Problem 9. Find $i_B, v_{BE}, i_C, v_{CE}$, and state of both transistors (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

![Circuit Diagram]

BE1-KVL: $15 = 1.3 \times 10^6 i_B + v_{BE1}$

CE1-KVL: $15 = 10 \times 10^3 i_C + v_{CE1}$

BE2-KVL: $v_{CE1} = v_{BE2} + 10^3 i_E$

CE2-KVL: $15 = v_{CE2} + 10^3 i_E$

KCL: $i_1 = i_C + i_B$

Assume Q1 is ON, $V_{BE1} = 0.7$ V and $i_B > 0$. BE1-KVL gives:

BE1-KVL: $15 = 1.3 \times 10^6 i_B + 0.7 \rightarrow i_B = 11 \mu$A

Since $i_B > 0$, our assumption of Q1 ON is justified.

Assume Q1 is active, $i_C = 100i_B = 1.1$ mA and $v_{CE1} > 0.7$ V. In principle, we should move forward and assume state of Q2 and solve the remaining three equations together. However, solution can be simplified if we assume $i_B \ll i_C$ and check this assumption after solution.

If $i_B \ll i_C$, then $i_1 \approx i_C$. CE1-KVL gives:

CE1-KVL: $15 = 10 \times 10^3 i_C + v_{CE1} = 10 \times 10^3 \times 1.1 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE1} \rightarrow v_{CE1} = 3.9$ V

Since $v_{CE1} > 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q1 in active is correct. State of Q2 can be found from BE2-KVL and CE2-KVL. Assume Q2 active: $V_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$, $i_C = 100i_B$, and $v_{CE2} > 0.7$ V. Then $i_E \approx i_C$ and:

BE2-KVL: $v_{CE1} = v_{BE2} + 10^3 i_E$

$3.9 = 0.7 + 10^3 i_C \rightarrow i_C = 3.2$ mA

CE2-KVL: $15 \approx v_{CE2} + 10^3 i_C = v_{CE2} + 10^3 \times 3.2 \times 10^{-3} \rightarrow v_{CE2} = 11.8$ V

Since $v_{CE2} > 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q2 in active is correct. Then $i_B = i_C / 100 = 32 \mu$A. We note that $i_B = 32 \mu$A $\ll i_C = 1.1$ mA. Therefore that assumption was also correct.

In sum, both BJTs are in active and $v_{BE1} = 0.7$ V, $i_B = 11$ mA, $i_C = 1.1$ mA, $v_{CE1} = 3.9$ V, $v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_B = 32 \mu$A, $i_C = 3.2$ mA, $v_{CE2} = 11.8$ V.
Problem 10. Find $i_B, v_{BE}, i_C, v_{CE}$, and state of both transistors (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

Note that Q2 is a PNP transistor

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{BE1-KVL:} & \quad 15 = 1.5 \times 10^6 i_B + v_{BE1} \\
\text{CE1-KVL & BE2-KVL:} & \quad 15 = v_{EB2} + v_{CE1} \\
\text{CE2-KVL:} & \quad 15 = v_{EC2} + 10^3 i_C \\
\text{KCL:} & \quad i_C = i_B
\end{align*}
\]

Assume Q1 is ON, $v_{BE1} = 0.7$ V and $i_B > 0$. BE1-KVL gives:

\[
\text{BE1-KVL:} \quad 15 = 1.5 \times 10^6 i_B + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = 9.5 \, \mu A
\]

Since $i_B > 0$, our assumption of Q1 ON is correct. Also, since $i_B = i_C > 0$, Q2 is ON and $v_{EB2} = 0.7$ V. Then CE1-KVL gives $v_{CE1} = 14.3$ V. Since $v_{CE1} > 0.7$ V, Q1 is in active and $i_{C1} = 100 i_B = 0.95$ mA.

KCL gives $i_B = i_C = 0.95$ mA. Assume Q2 is in active: $i_C = 100 i_B = 95$ mA and $v_{EC2} > 0.7$ V. CE2-KVL gives

\[
\text{CE2-KVL:} \quad 15 = v_{EC2} + 10^3 i_C = v_{EC2} + 10^3 \times 95 \times 10^{-3} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{EC2} = -80 \, V
\]

Since $v_{EC2} = -80 < 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q2 in active is incorrect. Assume Q2 is in saturation: $v_{EC2} = 0.2$ V and $i_C/i_B < 100$. CE2-KVL gives:

\[
\text{CE2-KVL:} \quad 15 = v_{EC2} + 10^3 i_C = 0.2 + 10^3 i_C \quad \rightarrow \quad i_C = 14.8 \, mA
\]

Since $i_C/i_B = 14.8/0.95 = 15.6 < 100$, our assumption of Q2 in saturation is correct.

In sum, Q1 is in active, Q2 is in saturation, and $v_{BE1} = 0.7$ V, $i_B = 9.5 \, \mu A$, $i_C = 0.95$ mA, $v_{CE1} = 14.3$ V, $v_{EB2} = 0.7$ V, $i_B = 0.95$ mA, $i_C = 14.8.2$ mA, $v_{EC2} = 0.2$ V.
Problem 11. Find $i_B, v_{BE}, i_C, v_{CE}$, and state of both transistors for A) $v_i = 1$ V, B) $v_i = 3$ V, C) $v_i = 5$ V. Si BJTs with $\beta_1 = 100$ and $\beta_2 = 50$.

Note that BJTs are arranged as a Darlington pair with $i_{E1} = i_{B2}$. So they will be either both ON or both OFF.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{BE1-KVL:} & \quad V_i = 470 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE1} + v_{BE2} \\
\text{CE1-KVL & BE2-KVL:} & \quad 10 = 4.7 \times 10^3 i_C + v_{CE1} + v_{BE2} \\
\text{CE2-KVL:} & \quad 10 = 470 i_C + v_{CE2} \\
\text{KCL:} & \quad i_C = i_B
\end{align*}
\]

Part A: $v_i = 1$ V.
Assume both BJTs are ON: $v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$, and $i_B > 0$. BE1-KVL gives:

\[
\text{BE1-KVL:} \quad 1 = 470 \times 10^3 i_B + 0.7 + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = -0.8 \, \mu A
\]

Since $i_B < 0$, our assumption is incorrect and both BJTs are in cut-off with $i_B = i_C = i_B = i_C = 0$. CE2-KVL gives $v_{CE2} = 10$ V. CE1-KVL gives $v_{CE1} + v_{BE2} = 10$ V. Our simple large-signal model for the BJT cannot resolve the values of $v_{CE1}$ and $v_{BE2}$ because any values of $v_{BE2} < 0.7$V and the corresponding value of $v_{CE1} = 10 - v_{BE2}$ will be acceptable.

The problem of not finding unique values for $v_{CE1}$ and $v_{BE2}$ is due to our simple diode model of the BE junction. In reality both BE junctions will be forward biased with voltages smaller than 0.7 V (so both $i_B$’s will be very small) and BJTs will have small values of $i_C$’s.

Part B: $v_i = 3$ V.
Assume both BJTs are ON: $v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_B > 0$, and $i_B > 0$. BE1-KVL gives:

\[
\text{BE1-KVL:} \quad 3 = 470 \times 10^3 i_B + 0.7 + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_B = 3.4 \, \mu A
\]

Since $i_B > 0$, our assumption is correct and both BJTs are ON.
Assume Q1 in active: $i_C = 100 i_B = 0.34$ mA and $v_{CE1} > 0.7$ V. Then CE1-KVL gives:

\[
\text{CE1-KVL & BE2-KVL:} \quad 10 = 4.7 \times 10^3 i_C + v_{CE1} + v_{BE2} \\
10 = 4.7 \times 10^3 \times 0.34 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE1} + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE1} = 7.7 \, V
\]
Since $v_{CE1} = 7.7 > 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q1 in active is correct. Then, $i_{B2} = i_{E1} \approx i_{C1} = 0.34$ mA.

Assume Q2 is in active: $i_{C2} = 50i_{B2} = 17$ mA and $v_{CE2} > 0.7$ V. Then CE2-KVL gives:

$$\text{CE2-KVL: } 10 = 470i_{C2} + v_{CE2} = 470 \times 17 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE2} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE2} = 2.01 \text{ V}$$

Since $v_{CE2} = 2.01 > 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q2 in active is correct.

Therefore, Q1 & Q2 are in active, and $v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_{B1} = 3.4 \mu$A, $i_{C1} = 0.34$ mA, $v_{CE1} = 7.7$ V, $i_{B2} = 0.34$ mA, $i_{C2} = 17$ mA, and $v_{CE2} = 2.01$ V.

Part C: $v_i = 5$ V.

Assume both BJTs are ON: $v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_{B1} > 0$, and $i_{B2} > 0$. BE1-KVL gives:

$$\text{BE1-KVL: } 5 = 470 \times 10^3 i_{B1} + 0.7 + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_{B1} = 7.66 \mu\text{A}$$

Since $i_{B1} > 0$, our assumption is correct and both BJTs are ON.

Assume Q1 is in active: $i_{C1} = 100i_{B1} = 0.77$ mA and $v_{CE1} > 0.7$ V. Then CE1-KVL gives:

$$\text{CE1-KVL & BE2-KVL: } 10 = 4.7 \times 10^3 i_{C1} + v_{CE1} + v_{BE2}
\quad 10 = 4.7 \times 10^3 \times 0.77 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE1} + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE1} = 5.70 \text{ V}$$

Since $v_{CE1} = 5.70 > 0.7$ V, our assumption of Q1 in active is correct. Then, $i_{B2} = i_{E1} \approx C1 = 0.77$ mA.

Assume Q2 is in active: $i_{C2} = 50i_{B2} = 38.3$ mA and $v_{CE2} > 0.7$ V. Then CE2-KVL gives:

$$\text{CE2-KVL: } 10 = 470i_{C2} + v_{CE2} = 470 \times 38.3 \times 10^{-3} + v_{CE2} \quad \rightarrow \quad v_{CE2} = -8.0 \text{ V}$$

Since $v_{CE2} = -8.0 < 0.7$ V, our assumption is incorrect and Q2 is in saturation: $v_{CE2} = 0.2$ V and $i_{C2}/i_{B2} < 50$. Then CE2-KVL gives:

$$\text{CE2-KVL: } 10 = 470i_{C2} + v_{CE2} = 470i_{C2} + 0.2 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_{C2} = 20.9 \text{ mA}$$

Since $i_{C2}/i_{B2} = 20.9/0.77 = 27 < 50$, our assumption is correct.

Therefore, Q1 is in active, Q2 is in saturation, and $v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7$ V, $i_{B1} = 7.66 \mu$A, $i_{C1} = 0.77$ mA, $v_{CE1} = 5.7$ V, $i_{B2} = 0.77$ mA, $i_{C2} = 20.9$ mA, and $v_{CE2} = 0.2$ V.
Problem 12. This is a switching circuit. \( v_i \) is the output of a logic gate which turns the light-emitting diode (LED) on or off depending on the state of the logic gate. The LED is made of GaAs and has a \( V_{D0} = 1.7 \) V. A) Show that for \( v_i = 0 \), LED will be OFF, B) Show that for \( v_i = 5 \) V, LED will be ON, and C) If we starting from \( v_i = 0 \) and slowly increase \( v_i \), at what voltage LED starts to light up? (Si BJT with \( \beta = 100 \).

BE-KVL: \( v_i = 47 \times 10^5 i_B + v_{BE} \)

CE-KVL: \( 5 = 10^3 i_C + v_D + v_{CE} \)
\[ i_C = i_D \]

Part A: \( v_i = 0 \):
Assume BJT is OFF, \( i_B = 0 \) and \( v_{BE} < 0.7 \) V. BE-KVL gives:

BE-KVL: \( 0 = 47 \times 10^3 i_B + v_{BE} = 0 + v_{BE} \rightarrow v_{BE} = 0 \)

Since \( v_{BE} = 0 < 0.7 \) V, our assumption of BJT in cut-off is correct and \( i_C = 0 \). Since \( i_D = i_C = 0 \), the diode will be OFF.

Part B: \( v_i = 5 \) V:
Assume BJT is ON, \( v_{BE} = 0.7 \) V, \( i_B > 0 \). BE-KVL gives:

BE-KVL: \( 5 = 47 \times 10^3 i_B + 0.7 \rightarrow i_B = 91.5 \) \( \mu \)A

Since \( i_B > 0 \) our assumption of BJT is ON is justified. When BJT is ON, \( i_C > 0 \) and since \( i_D = i_C > 0 \), the LED will be on with \( v_D = 1.7 \) V.

Assume BJT is in active: \( i_C = \beta i_B = 100 i_B = 9.15 \) mA and \( v_{CE} > 0.7 \) V. CE-KVL gives:

CE-KVL: \( 5 = 10^3 i_C + v_D + v_{CE} \)
\[ 5 = 10^3 \times 9.15 \times 10^{-3} + 1.7 + v_{CE} \rightarrow v_{CE} = -5.85 \) V

Since \( v_{CE} = -5.85 < 0.7 \) V our assumption of BJT in active is NOT justified.

Assume BJT in saturation, \( v_{CE} = 0.2 \) V, and \( i_C < \beta i_B \). CE-KVL gives:

CE-KVL: \( 5 = 10^3 i_C + v_D + v_{CE} = 10^3 i_C + 1.7 + 0.2 \rightarrow i_C = 3.1 \) mA

Since \( i_C/i_B = 3.1/0.0915 = 34 < 100 = \beta \), our assumption of BJT in saturation is justified.

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Therefore, for $v_i = 5 \text{ V}$, LED is ON, BJT is in saturation, and $v_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V}$, $v_D = 1.7 \text{ V}$, $i_B = 91.5 \mu\text{A}$, $i_C = 3.1 \text{ mA}$, and $v_{CE} = 0.2 \text{ V}$.

Part C:
LED is ON when $i_D > 0$. Since $i_C = i_D > 0$, the BJT should be ON.
We found that for $v_i = 0$, BJT is in cut-off and LED is OFF. As we increase $v_i$ and while BJT is still in cut-off, BE-KVL gives $v_{BE} = v_i$ since $i_B = 0$. So as we increase $v_i$, $v_{BE}$ increases while $i_B$ remains zero.

When $v_i$ reaches 0.7 V, $v_{BE}$ also reaches 0.7 V while $i_B$ is still zero.
If we increase $v_i$ beyond this point, $v_{BE}$ cannot increase, rather $i_B$ becomes positive and BJT will be turned ON leading to $i_C > 0$ and LED turning ON.
So, LED will light up when $v_i \geq 0.7 \text{ V}$.

**Problem 13.** Design a switch circuit similar to problem 12 which turns an LED OFF and ON such that the LED is OFF for $v_i < 2.5 \text{ V}$ and is ON for $v_i > 2.5 \text{ V}$. (Hint: See page 3-13 of lecture notes).

Addition of a resistor $R$ (see circuit) will raise $v_i$ that turns the LED ON.
In problem 12, we saw that LED will just turn ON when $v_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V}$ and $i_B \approx 0$. BE-KVL gives:

\[
\text{BE-KVL: } \quad v_i = 47 \times 10^3 i + v_{BE} \\
2.5 = 47 \times 10^5 i + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i = 38.3 \mu\text{A}
\]

Since $i_B = 0$, $i_R = i = 38.3 \mu\text{A}$. Ohm’s law for the resistor $R$ gives:

\[
v_{BE} = R i_R \quad \rightarrow \quad 0.7 = 38.3 \times 10^{-6} R \quad \rightarrow \quad R = 18.3 \text{ k}\Omega
\]
Problem 14. Show that this is NOR gate with a LOW state of 0.2 V and a HIGH state of 5 V (Si BJTs with $\beta = 100$).

We first find the state of Q1 for the two cases of $V_1 = 0.2$ and $5$ V.

BE1-KVL: $v_1 = 500i_{B1} + v_{BE1}$

For $v_1 = 0.2$ V, assume that Q1 is in cut-off ($i_{B1} = 0$ and $v_{BE1} < V_{D0} = 0.7$ V). Then, BE1-KVL gives $V_{BE1} = 0.2 < 0.7$ V and, thus, Q1 is indeed in cut-off. So:

$v_1 = 0.2$ V $\rightarrow$ $i_{B1} = i_{C1} = 0$, $v_{BE1} = 0.2$ V, $v_{CE1}$ can be anything

For $v_1 = 5$ V, assume that Q1 is NOT in cut-off ($i_{B1} > 0$ and $v_{BE1} = V_{D0} = 0.7$ V). Substituting for $v_{BE1} = 0.7$ in BE1-KVL, we get $I_{B1} = 4.3/5,000 = 0.86$ mA. Since $i_{B1} > 0$, Q1 is indeed NOT in cut-off. Therefore,

$v_1 = 5$ V $\rightarrow$ BJT is ON (not in cut-off) $i_{B1} = 0.86$ mA $v_{BE1} = 0.7$ V $i_{C1} > 0$

Note that because the circuit is symmetric (i.e., there is no difference between Q1 circuit and Q2 circuit), the above results also applies to Q2.

Case a: $v_1 = v_2 = 0.2$ V From above, both BJTs will be in cut-off and $i_{C1} = i_{C2} = 0$. By KCL, $I = i_{C1} + i_{C2} = 0$, and $v_o$ can be found from Ohm’s Law:

$5 - v_o = 500I = 0 \rightarrow v_o = 5$ V

Case b: $v_1 = 0.2$ V, $v_2 = 5$ V Since $v_1 = 0.2$ V, Q1 will be in cut-off with $i_{C1} = 0$. Since $v_2 = 5$ V, Q2 will not be in cut-off with $i_{B2} = 0.86$ mA. Assume Q2 is in saturation ($v_{CE2} = 0.2$ V and $i_{C2}/i_{B2} < \beta$). In this case, $v_o = v_{CE2} = 0.2$ V and $I = i_{C1} + i_{C2} = i_{C2}$. By Ohm’s Law:

$500I = 500i_{C2} = 5 - V_o = 5 - v_{CE2} = 4.8 \rightarrow i_{C2} = 4.8/500 = 9.6$ mA

Since $i_{C2}/i_{B2} = 11 < \beta = 100$, Q2 is indeed in saturation. So, in this case, $v_o = 0.2$ V.

Case c: $v_1 = 5$, $v_2 = 0.2$ V Because the circuit is symmetric (i.e., there is no difference between Q1 circuit and Q2 circuit), results from Case b can be applied here. Thus, Q2 will be in cut-off with $i_{C2} = 0$ and Q1 will be in saturation with $i_{C1} = 9.6$ mA and $v_o = v_{CE2} = 0.2$ V.

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Case d: \( v_1 = v_2 = 5 \text{ V} \) Both BJTs will be ON with \( i_{B1} = i_{B2} = 0.86 \text{ mA} \) and \( v_{BE1} = v_{BE2} = 0.7 \text{ V} \). Since from the circuit, \( v_{CE1} = v_{CE2} \), both BJTs will be in saturation or both in active. Assume that both are in saturation. Then, \( v_o = v_{CE1} = v_{CE2} = 0.2 \text{ V} \) and we should have \( i_C1/i_{B1} < \beta \) and \( i_C2/i_{B2} < \beta \). By Ohm’s Law:

\[
500I = 5 - v_o = 5 - 0.2 = 4.8 \quad \rightarrow \quad I = 4.8/500 = 9.6 \text{ mA}
\]

Since BJTs are identical and have same \( i_B \), we should have \( i_{C1} = i_{C2} \) and current \( I \) should be equally divided between two BJTs. Thus, \( i_{C1} = i_{C2} = 0.5I = 4.8 \text{ mA} \). To check if BJTs are in saturation: \( i_{C1}/i_{B1} = 4.8/0.86 = 5 < \beta = 100 \) and \( i_{C2}/i_{B2} = 4.8/0.86 = 5 < \beta = 100 \) so both BJTs are indeed in saturation and \( v_o = 0.2 \text{ V} \).

In summary, the output is high when both inputs are low and the output is low otherwise. Therefore, this is a NOR gate.

**Problem 15.** Show that this is NAND gate with a LOW state of 0.4 V and a HIGH state of 1.2 V (Si BJTs with \( \beta = 200 \)).

\[
i_{E1} = i_{E2}
\]

**CE-KVL:** \( 1.2 = 10^3i_{C1} + v_{CE1} + v_{CE2} \)

\( v_o = v_{CE1} + v_{CE2} = 1.2 - 10^3i_{C1} \)

**BE1-KVL:** \( v_1 = 2 \times 10^3i_{B1} + v_{BE1} + v_{CE2} \)

**BE2-KVL:** \( v_2 = 2 \times 10^3i_{B2} + v_{BE2} \)

**Case 1:** \( v_1 = 0.4, v_2 = 0.4 \): Assume Q2 is off \( (i_{B2} = 0, v_{BE2} < V_{D0}) \). Substituting for \( i_{B2} = 0 \) in the BE2-KVL above, we get: \( v_{BE2} = v_2 = 0.4 < 0.7 = V_{D0} \). Thus, Q2 is off and \( i_{C2} = 0 \). Since \( i_{E1} = i_{C2} = 0 \) and \( i_{E1} = i_{C1} + i_{B1} = 0 \), we should have \( i_{C1} = 0 \) (because \( i_{C1} \geq 0 \) and \( i_{B1} \geq 0 \) ). Then, from CE-KVL above:

\[
v_o = 1.2 - 10^3i_{C1} = 1.2 \text{ V}
\]

**Case 2:** \( v_1 = 1.2, v_2 = 0.4 \): Similar to Case 1, assume Q2 is off to find \( i_{C1} = 0 \) and \( v_o = 1.2 \text{ V} \).

**Case 3:** \( v_1 = 0.4, v_2 = 1.2 \): Assume Q1 is off \( (i_{B1} = 0, v_{BE1} < V_{D0}) \). Substituting for \( i_{B1} = 0 \) in the BE1-KVL above, we get: \( v_{BE1} = 0.4 - v_{CE2} \). Since \( v_{CE2} \) cannot be negative (powered by 1.2 V), \( v_{BE1} = 0.4 - v_{CE2} < 0.7 = V_{D0} \) and Q1 is off \( (i_{C1} = 0) \). Then:

\[
v_o = 1.2 - 10^3i_{C1} = 1.2 \text{ V}
\]
Case 4: \( v_1 = 1.2, v_2 = 1.2 \): Since both inputs are high, we start by assuming that both BJTs are ON (we still need to prove it): \( i_{B2} > 0, v_{BE2} = V_D0 = 0.7 \) V and \( i_{B1} > 0, v_{BE1} = V_D0 = 0.7 \) V. Four possible combinations exist with Q1 and Q2 being respectively in active & active, active & saturation, saturation & active, and saturation & active. Since problem states that this is NAND gate and the low voltage is 0.4 V, a good guess is that both BJTs are in saturation \( v_{CE1} = V_{sat} = 0.2 \) V, \( i_{C1}/i_{B1} < \beta \) and \( v_{CE2} = V_{sat} = 0.2 \) V, \( i_{C2}/i_{B2} < \beta \).

Starting with BE1-KVL and BE2-KVL above, we get:

\[
\begin{align*}
1.2 & = 2 \times 10^3 i_{B2} + 0.7 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_{B2} = 0.25 \text{ mA} \\
1.2 & = 2 \times 10^3 i_{B1} + 0.7 + 0.2 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_{B1} = 0.15 \text{ mA}
\end{align*}
\]

Since \( i_{B2} > 0 \), and \( i_{B1} > 0 \), assumption of both BJTs ON is correct. Then, CE-KVL gives:

\[
1.2 = 10^3 i_{C1} + 0.2 + 0.2 \quad \rightarrow \quad i_{C1} = 0.8 \text{ mA}
\]

Since \( i_{C1}/i_{B1} = 0.8/0.15 = 5.3 < \beta = 200 \), our assumption of Q1 being in saturation is justified. To find \( i_{C2} \), we note \( i_{C2} = i_{E1} = i_{C1} + i_{B1} = 0.8 + 0.15 = 0.95 \) mA. Then \( i_{C2}/i_{B1} = 0.95/0.25 = 3.8 < \beta = 200 \), so our assumption of Tr2 being in saturation is also justified. Lastly,

\[
v_o = v_{CE1} + v_{CE2} = 0.2 + 0.2 = 0.4 \text{ V}
\]

Overall, \( v_o = 1.2 \) V or HIGH State (cases 1, 2, and 3) unless both inputs are HIGH (case 4). Therefore, this is a NAND gate.