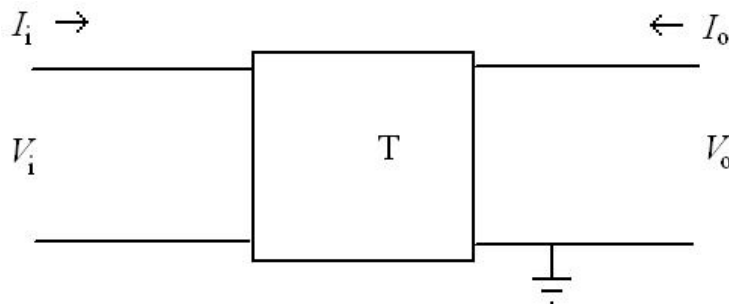


Lecture 7: Transistors and Amplifiers

Hybrid Transistor Model for small AC :

- The previous model for a transistor used one parameter (β , the current gain) to describe the transistor.
 - ◆ doesn't explain many features of three common forms of transistor amplifiers (common emitter etc.)
 - ◆ e.g. could not calculate the output impedance of the common emitter amp.
- Very often in electronics we describe complex circuits in terms of an equivalent circuit or model.
 - ◆ need a model that relates the input currents and voltages to the output currents and voltages.
 - ◆ the model needs to be linear in the currents and voltages.
 - For a transistor this condition of linearity is true for *small* signals.
- The most general linear model of the transistor is a 4-terminal “black box”.



- ◆ In this model we assume the transistor is biased on properly and do not show the biasing circuit.
- ◆ Since a transistor has only 3 legs, one of the terminals is common between the input and output.
- ◆ There are 4 variables in the problem, I_i , V_i , I_o , and V_o .
 - The subscript i refer to the input side while the subscript o refers to the output side.
 - We assume that we know I_i and V_o .

- ◆ Kirchhoff's laws relate all the currents and voltages:

$$V_i = V_i(I_i, V_o)$$

$$I_o = I_o(I_i, V_o)$$

- ◆ For a linear model of the transistor with a small changes in I_i and V_o :

$$dV_i = \left(\frac{\partial V_i}{\partial I_i} \right)_{V_o} dI_i + \left(\frac{\partial V_i}{\partial V_o} \right)_{I_i} dV_o$$

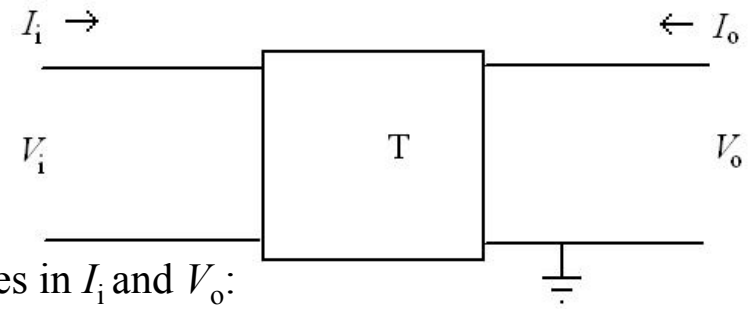
$$dI_o = \left(\frac{\partial I_o}{\partial I_i} \right)_{V_o} dI_i + \left(\frac{\partial I_o}{\partial V_o} \right)_{I_i} dV_o$$

- The partial derivatives are called the hybrid (or h) parameters:

$$dV_i = h_{ii} dI_i + h_{io} dV_o$$

$$dI_o = h_{oi} dI_i + h_{oo} dV_o$$

- h_{oi} and h_{io} are unitless
 - h_{oo} has units $1/\Omega$ (mhos)
 - h_{ii} has units Ω
- The four h parameters are easily measured.
 - e.g. to measure h_{ii} hold V_o (the output voltage) constant and measure V_{in}/I_{in} .
- Unfortunately the h parameters are not constant.
 - e.g. Figs. 11-14 of the 2N3904 spec sheet show the variation of the parameters with I_C .



- There are 3 sets of the 4 hybrid parameters.
 - One for each type of amp: common emitter, common base, common collector
 - In order to differentiate one set of parameters from another the following notation is used:

First subscript

i = input impedance

o = output admittance

r = reverse voltage ratio

f = forward current ratio

Second subscript

e = common emitter

b = common base

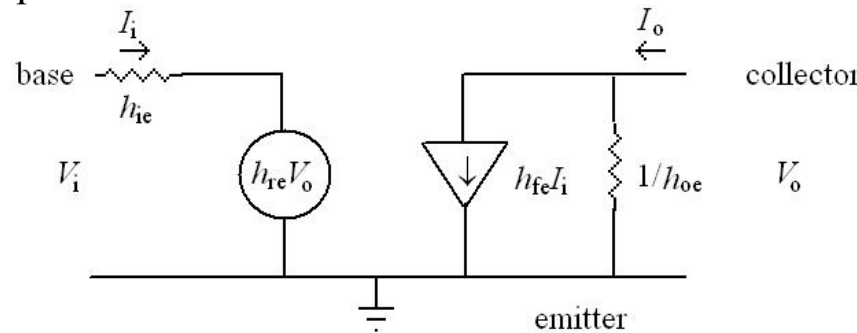
c = common collector

- For a common emitter amplifier we would write:

$$dV_i = h_{ie} dI_i + h_{re} dV_o$$

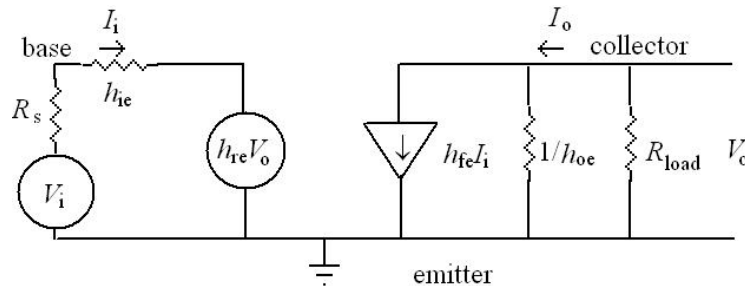
$$dI_o = h_{fe} dI_i + h_{oe} dV_o$$

- Typical values for the h parameters for a 2N3904 transistor in the common emitter configuration:
 $h_{fe} = 120$, $h_{oe} = 8.7 \times 10^{-6} \Omega^{-1}$, $h_{ie} = 3700 \Omega$, $h_{re} = 1.3 \times 10^{-4}$ for $I_C = 1 \text{ mA}$
- The equivalent circuit for a transistor in the common emitter configuration looks like:



- Circle: voltage source
 - the voltage across this element is always equal to $h_{re} V_o$ independent of the current through it.
- Triangle: current source
 - the current through this element is always $h_{fe} I_{in}$ independent of the voltage across the device.

- We can use the model to calculate voltage/current gain and the input/output impedance of a CE amp.
- Equivalent circuit for a CE amp with a voltage source (with resistance R_s) and load resistor (R_{load}):



biasing network not shown

◆ **Current gain:** $G_I = I_o / I_{in}$

- Using Kirchhoff's current law at the output side we have:

$$h_{fe} I_{in} + V_o h_{oe} = I_o$$

- Using Kirchhoff's voltage rule at the output we have:

$$V_o = -I_o R_{load}$$

$$h_{fe} I_{in} = h_{oe} I_o R_{load} + I_o$$

$$G_I = I_o / I_{in} = h_{fe} / (1 + h_{oe} R_{load})$$

- For typical CE amps, $h_{oe} R_{load} \ll 1$ and the gain reduces to familiar form:

$$G_I \approx h_{fe} = \beta$$

◆ **Voltage gain:** $G_v = V_o / V_{in}$

- This gain can be derived in a similar fashion as the current gain:

$$G_v = V_o / V_{in} = -h_{fe} R_{load} / (\Delta R_{load} + h_{ie})$$

$$\text{with } \Delta = h_{ie} h_{oe} - h_{fe} h_{re} \approx 10^{-2}$$

- This reduces to a familiar form for most cases where $\Delta R_{load} \ll h_{ie}$

$$G_v = -h_{fe} R_{load} / h_{ie} = -R_{load} / r_{BE}$$

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- ◆ **Input Impedance:** $Z_i = V_{in}/I_{in}$

$$Z_i = (\Delta R_{load} + h_{ie}) / (1 + h_{oe} R_{load})$$
 - This reduces to a familiar form for most cases where $\Delta R_{load} \ll h_{ie}$ and $h_{oe} R_{load} \ll 1$

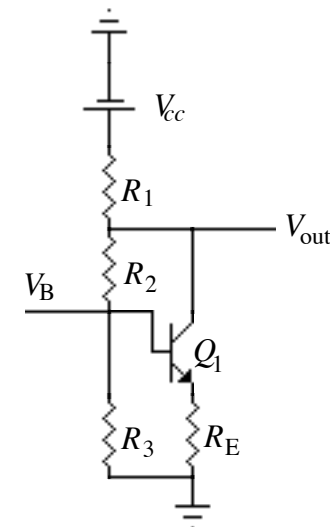
$$Z_i = h_{ie} = h_{fe} r_{BE}$$
- ◆ **Output Impedance:** $Z_o = V_o/I_o$

$$Z_o = (R_s + h_{ie}) / (\Delta + h_{oe} R_s)$$
 - Z_o does not reduce to a simple expression.
 - As the denominator is small, Z_o is as advertised large.

Feedback and Amplifiers

- Consider the common emitter amplifier shown.
 - ◆ This amp differs slightly from the CE amp we saw before:
 - bias resistor R_2 is connected to collector resistor R_1 instead of directly to V_{cc} .
 - ◆ How does this effect V_{out} ?
 - If V_{out} *decreases* (moves away from V_{cc})
 - ☞ I_2 increases
 - ☞ V_B decreases (gets closer to ground)
 - ☞ V_{out} will increase since $\Delta V_{out} = -\Delta V_B R_1/R_E$
 - If V_{out} *increases* (moves towards V_{cc})
 - ☞ I_2 decreases
 - ☞ V_B increases (moves away from ground).
 - ☞ V_{out} will decrease since $\Delta V_{out} = -\Delta V_B R_1/R_E$

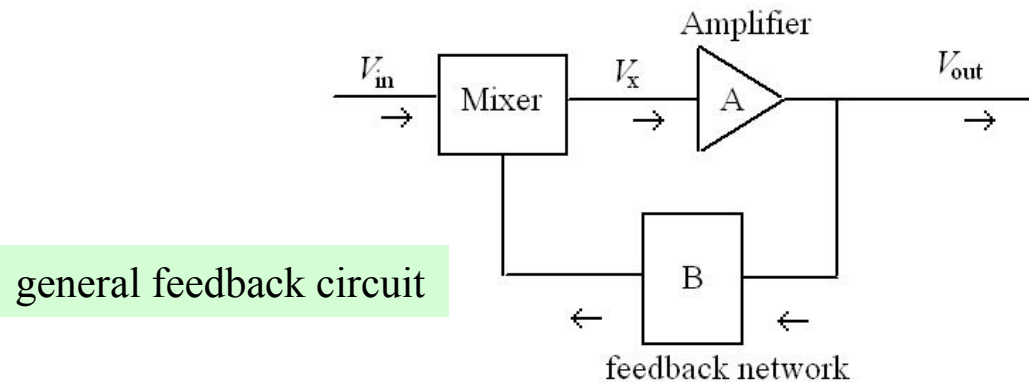
This is an example of NEGATIVE FEEDBACK



- ◆ Negative Feedback is **good**:
 - Stabilizes amplifier against oscillation
 - Increases the input impedance of the amplifier
 - Decreases the output impedance of the amplifier
- ◆ Positive Feedback is **bad**:
 - Causes amplifiers to oscillate

Oscillation is a large fluctuation of output signal with no input

● **Feedback Fundamentals:**



- ◆ Without feedback the output and input are related by:

$$V_{out} = AV_{in}$$
- ◆ The feedback (box B) returns a portion of the output voltage to the amplifier through the “mixer”.
 - The feedback network on the AM radio is the collector to base resistors (R_3, R_5)
- ◆ The input to the amplifier is:
- ◆ The gain with feedback is:

$$V_x = V_{in} + BV_{out}$$

$$V_{out} = AV_x = A(V_{in} + BV_{out})$$

$$G = V_{out} / V_{in} = A / (1 - AB)$$

A : open loop gain
 AB : loop gain
 G : closed loop gain

- Positive and negative feedback:

- ◆ Lets define $A > 0$ (positive)

$$G = V_{\text{out}} / V_{\text{in}} = A / (1 - AB)$$

- ◆ Positive feedback, $AB > 0$:

- As $AB \rightarrow 1$, $G \rightarrow \infty$.

- circuit is unstable

- oscillates if $AB = 1$

- ◆ Negative feedback, $AB < 0$:

- As $A \rightarrow \infty$, an amazing thing happens:

$$|AB| \rightarrow \infty$$

$$|G| \rightarrow |1/B|$$

For large amplifier gain (A) the circuit properties are determined by the feedback loop.

- Example: $A = 10^5$ and $B = -0.01$ then $G = 100$.

- The stability of the gain is determined by the feedback loop (B) and not the amplifier (A).

- Example: B is held fixed at 0.01 and A varies:

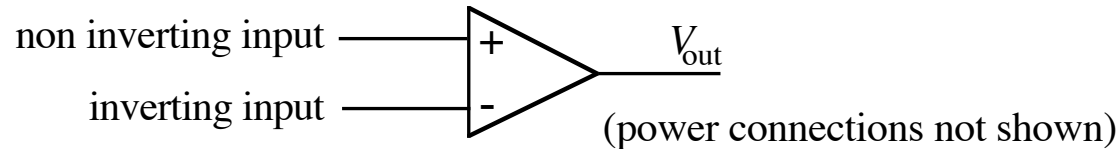
A	Gain
5×10^3	98.3
1×10^4	99.0
2×10^4	99.6

- circuits can be made stable with respect to variations in the transistor characteristics as long as B is stable.

- B can be made from precision components such as resistors.

Operational Amplifiers (Op Amps)

- Op amps are very high gain ($A = 10^5$) differential amplifiers.
 - Differential amp has two inputs (V_1, V_2) and output $V_{\text{out}} = A (V_1 - V_2)$ where A is the amplifier gain.

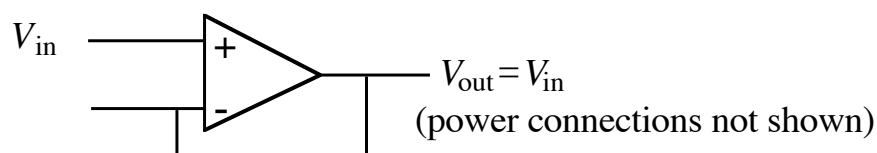


- If an op amp is used without feedback and $V_1 \neq V_2$
 - V_{out} saturates at the power supply voltage (either positive or negative supply).
 - Example: Assume the maximum output swing for an op amp is ± 15 V.
 - If there is no feedback in the circuit:
 - $V_{\text{out}} = 15$ V if $V_{\text{non-invert}} > V_{\text{invert}}$
 - $V_{\text{out}} = -15$ V if $V_{\text{non-invert}} < V_{\text{invert}}$
- Op amps are almost always used with negative feedback.
 - The output is connected to the (inverting) input.
- Op amps come in “chip” form. They are made up of complex circuits with 20-100 transistors.

	Ideal Op Amp	Real Op Amp $\mu\text{A}741$
Voltage gain (open loop)	∞	10^5
Input impedance	∞	$2 \text{ M}\Omega$
Output impedance	0	75Ω
Slew rate	∞	$0.5 \text{ V}/\mu\text{sec}$
Power consumption	0	50 mW
V_{out} with $V_{\text{in}} = 0$	0	2 mV (unity gain)
Price	0\$	\$0.25

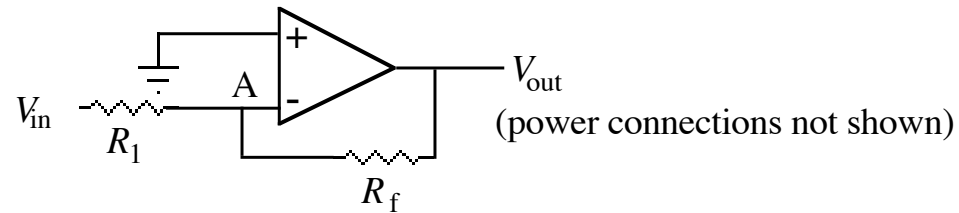
Slew rate is how fast output can change

- When working with op amps using negative feedback two simple rules (almost) always apply:
 - ◆ **No current goes into the op amp.**
 - This reflects the high input impedance of the op amp.
 - ◆ **Both input terminals of the op amp have the same voltage.**
 - This has to do with the actual circuitry making up the op amp.
- Some examples of op amp circuits with negative feedback:
 - ◆ **Voltage Follower:**

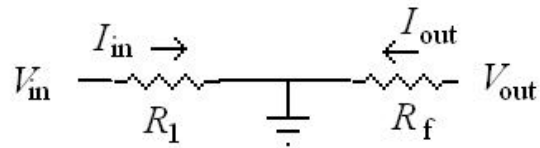


- The feedback network is just a wire connecting the output to the input.
- By rule #2, the inverting (-) input is also at V_{in} .
 - ☞ $V_{out} = V_{in}$.
- What good is this circuit?
 - ☞ Mainly as a buffer as it has high input impedance ($M\Omega$) and low output impedance ($100\ \Omega$).

◆ **Inverting Amplifier:**



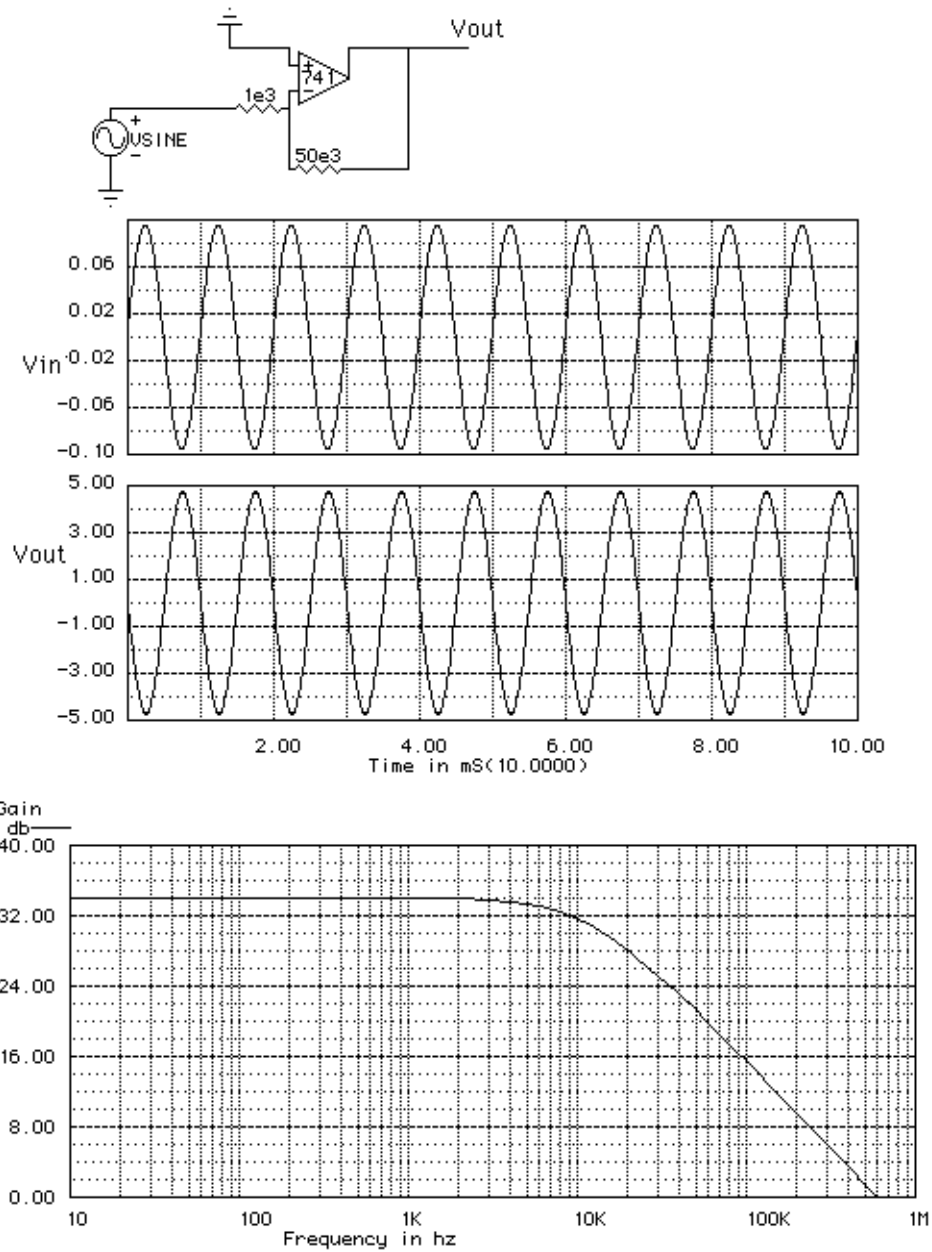
- By rule #2, point A is at ground.
- By Rule #1, no current is going into the op amp.
- We can redraw the circuit as:



$$V_{in} / R_1 + V_{out} / R_f = 0$$

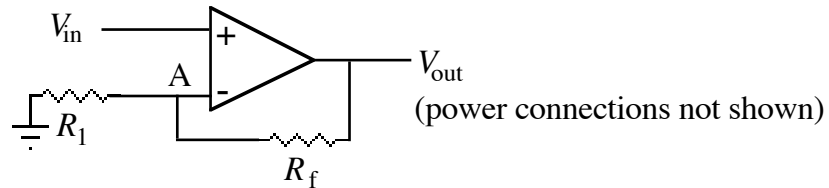
$$V_{out} / V_{in} = -R_f / R_1$$

- 🔧 The closed loop gain is R_f/R_1 .
- 📌 The minus sign in the gain means that the output has the opposite polarity as the input.

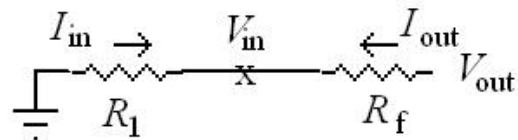


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◆ **Non-Inverting Amplifier:**



- By rule #2, point A is V_{in} .
- By Rule #1, no current is going into the op amp.
- We can redraw the circuit as:

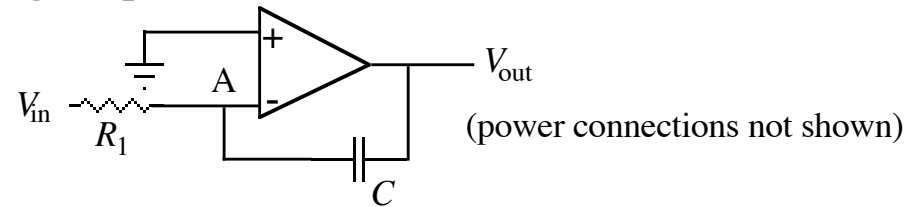


$$V_{in} / R_1 + (V_{in} - V_{out}) / R_f = 0$$

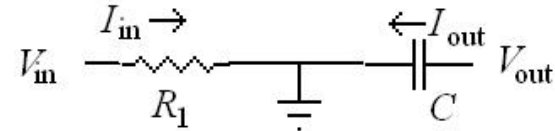
$$V_{out} / V_{in} = (R_1 + R_f) / R_1$$

- The closed loop gain is $(R_1 + R_f) / R_1$.
- The output has the same polarity as the input.

◆ **Integrating Amplifier:**



- Again, using the two rules for op amp circuits we redraw the circuit as:



$$\frac{V_{in}}{R_1} + \frac{dQ}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_{in}}{R_1} + C \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} = 0$$

$$V_{out} = \frac{-1}{CR_1} \int V_{in} dt$$

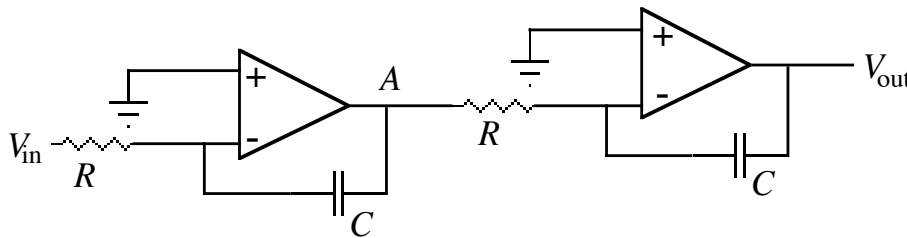
- 👉 The output voltage is related to the integral of the input voltage.
- 👉 The negative sign in the gain means that V_{in} and V_{out} have opposite polarity.

◆ **Op Amps and Analog Calculations:**

- Op amps were invented before transistors to perform analog calculations.
- Their main function was to solve differential equations in real time.
- Example: Suppose we wanted to solve the following:

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = g$$

- This describes a body under constant acceleration (gravity if $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$).
- The following circuit gives an output which is the solution to the differential equation:



- The input voltage is a constant ($= g$).
- For convenience we pick $RC = 1$.
- At point A:

$$V_A = -\int V_{in} dt = -\int \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} dt = -\frac{dx}{dt}$$

- The output voltage (V_{out}) is the integral of V_A :

$$V_{out} = -\int V_A dt = \int \frac{dx}{dt} dt = x(t)$$

If we want non-zero boundary conditions (e.g. $V(t = 0) = 1 \text{ m/s}$) we add a DC voltage at point A.