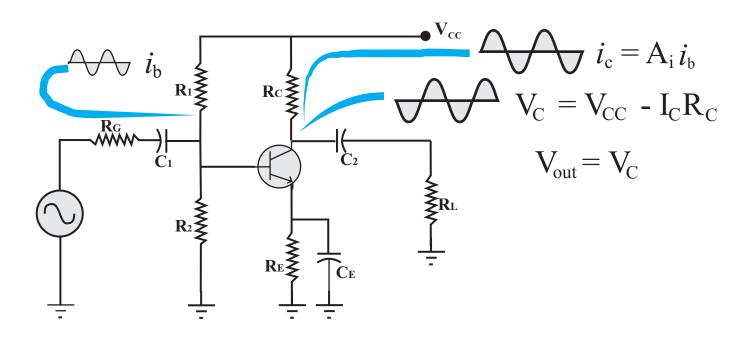


<u>Phasing Relationships</u>

- **The Input and Output currents are in phase**
- **The Input and Output voltages are 180**° out of phase



Current and Voltage Relationship

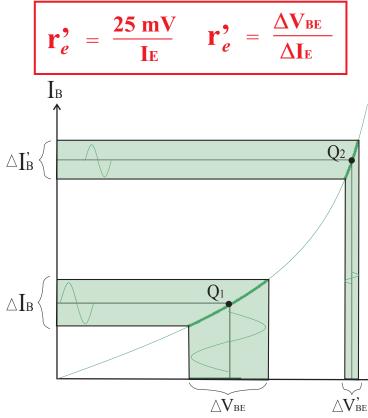
<u>Electronic Fundamentals II</u>

The Common Emitter Amplifier

<u>AC Emitter Resistance</u>

Page 3-2

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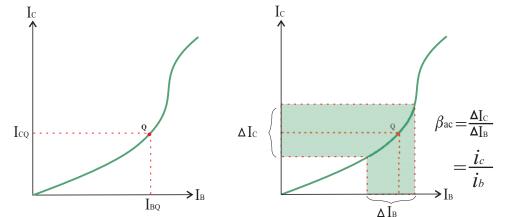


The figure to the right shows the diode curve for the base emitter junction of a transistor. If the transistor is biased at the operating point labeled Q_1 , The change in I_B causes the corresponding change in V_{BE} . Note that the changing values are shown as ΔI_B and ΔV_{BE} . Note that the value of ΔV_{BE} . Note that the value of ΔV_{BE} produced by ΔI_B decreases if the transistor is biased at the operating point labeled Q_2 . Thus the value of r'*e* is affected by the biasing point of the amplifier.

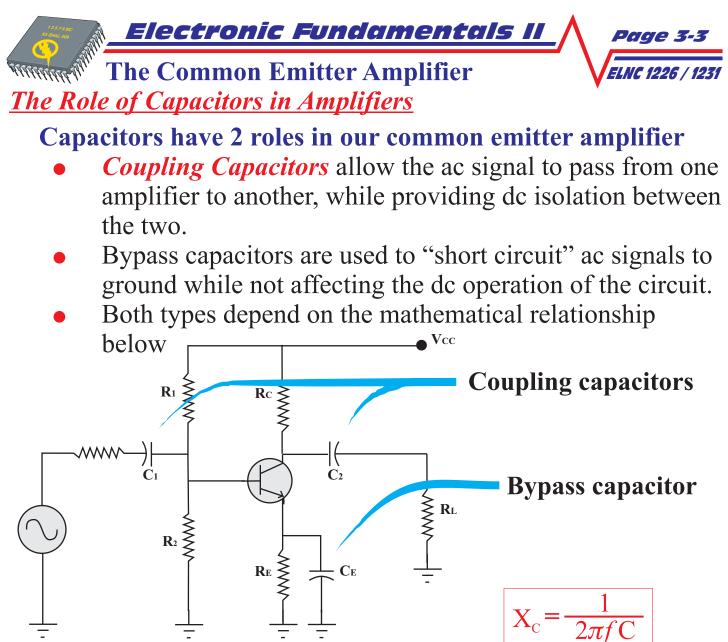
ac Beta -- a.k.a. β_{ac} and h_{fe}

The ac current gain is different than the dc current gain. This has to do with the fact that dc current gain is measured with $I_C \& I_B$ being constant. AC current gain is measured with changing ac current values.

The ac beta is the ratio of ac collector current to ac base current.



Example 9-1 is an example of finding ac emitter resistance



Capacitive Reactance

This formula says that the capacitive reactance is inversely proportional to frequency and to capacitance.

- If you double the frequency the reactance drops by half
- When the frequency is high enough, the reactance approaches zero
- When the frequency decreases to zero, the reactance becomes infinite.

This means:

- A capacitor is an *ac short* at *high frequencies*
- A capacitor is a *dc open* at *low frequencies*



The Critical Frequency

The critical frequency for the circuit to the right is the frequency that produces a capacitive reactance that is equal to the total resistance in the circuit. $100 \,\mu\text{F}$

or
$$X_c = R$$

For this condition:
 $I = 0.707 I_{(max)}$

This means that at the critical frequency, the rms current decreases to 70.7% of the maximum value.

The High Frequency Border

We know that the coupling capacitor acts like a short at *high frequencies* but what does "*high*" mean:

High means 10 times as high as the critical frequency

When we say that the reactance has to be at least 10 times smaller than the total resistance, we are saying that the frequency has to be at least 10 times higher than the critical frequency. $f_{\rm b} > 10f_{\rm c}$

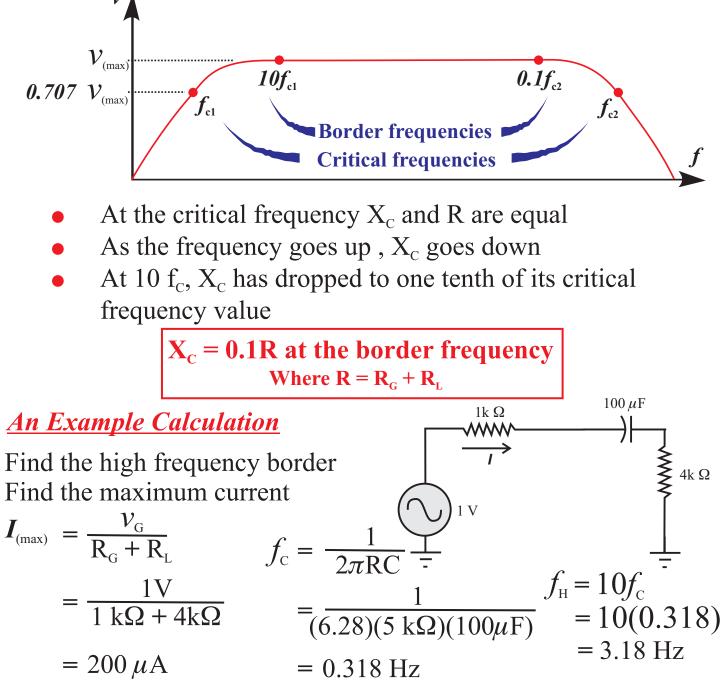
Given an RC circuit a) Find the critical frequency V b) Multiply it by 10 to get the frequency where high frequencies begin $0.707 V_{(max)}$ f_{c1} $0.1f_{c2}$ f_{c2} f_{c



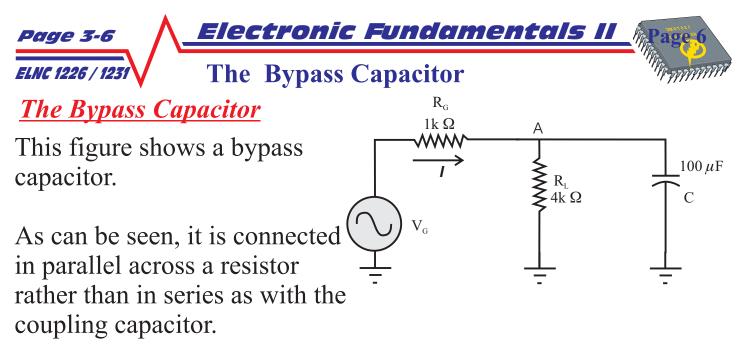
<u>The High Frequency Border</u>

The high frequency border is where high frequencies begin for the coupling capacitor.

Above the high frequency border, the load current is within 1% of the maximum value.



As long as the generator is above 3.18 Hz, the capacitor acts as an ac short.



The reason is to shunt or bypass ac current away from the resistor.

When the frequency is high enough, the capacitor appears as an ac short at point A, shorting point A to ground.

If we were to look at point A with an oscilloscope, we would see nothing at high frequencies because point A is at ground potential.

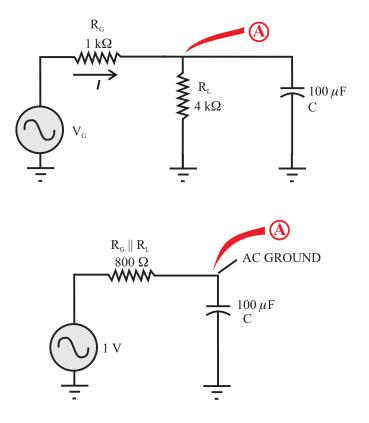
The Critical Frequency

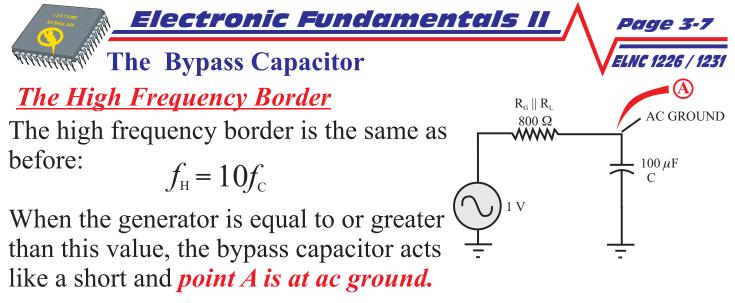
The critical frequency for this circuit is the same as before.

In this formula, R is the *Thevenin Resistance* facing the capacitor.

To find it, short out the voltage source and you can see that R_G and R_L are in parallel

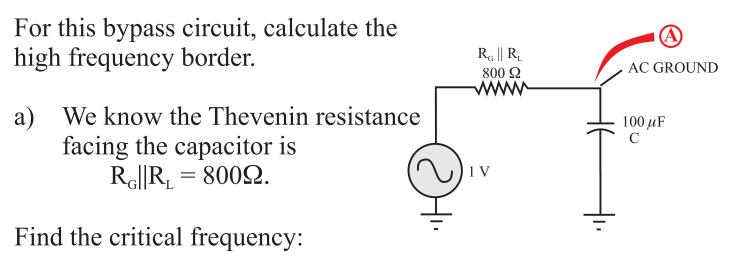
 $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}_{\rm G} \parallel \mathbf{R}_{\rm L}$





If we were to connect an oscilloscope to point A, we would see almost no signal since point A is now at ac ground.

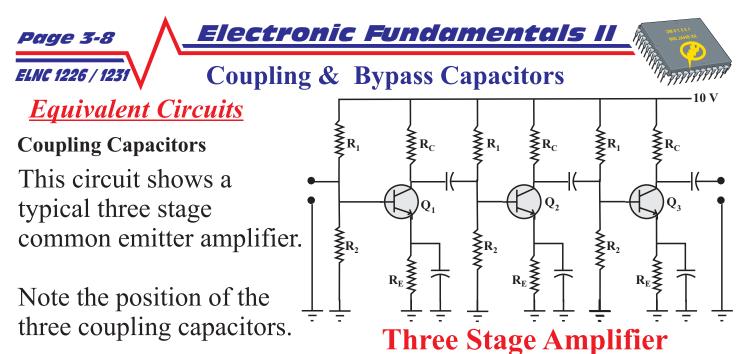
An Example Calculation



$$f_{\rm c} = \frac{1}{2\pi {\rm RC}} \qquad f_{\rm H} = 10 f_{\rm C}$$

= $\frac{1}{(6.28)(800 \ \Omega)(100 \mu {\rm F})} = 10(1.99 \ {\rm Hz})$
= 19.9 Hz

When the generator frequency is equal to or greater than 19.9 Hz, point A is at ac ground.



These should ideally be "transparent" to the ac signal, thus allowing it to pass with no loss from stage to stage.

Bypass Capacitors

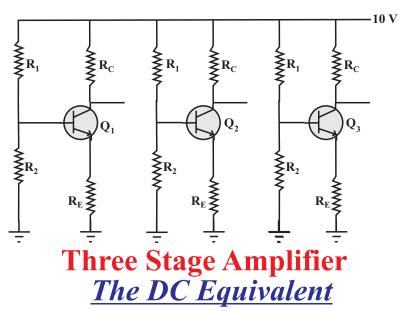
Note the position of the three bypass capacitors.

These are ideally "transparent" to the ac signal also and should hold the emitter of the transistor at ac ground.

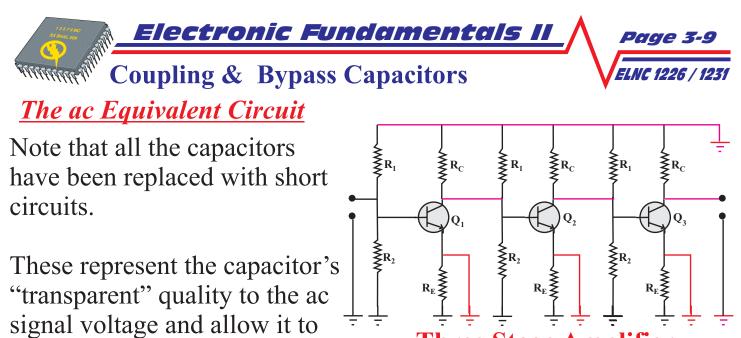
The dc Equivalent Circuit

Note that all the capacitors have been replaced with open circuits.

These open circuit represent the capacitor's infinite opposition to the dc current and voltage levels of the three stages.



This is the circuit that you will use to solve for the dc voltages that are present in the circuit.



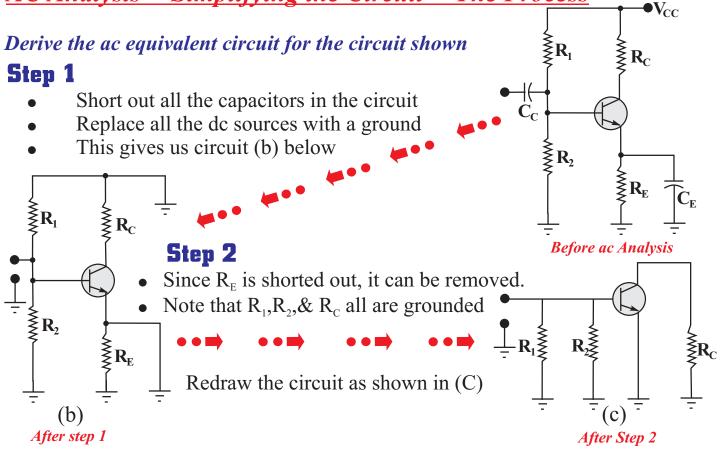
Three Stage Amplifier <u>*The AC Equivalent*</u>

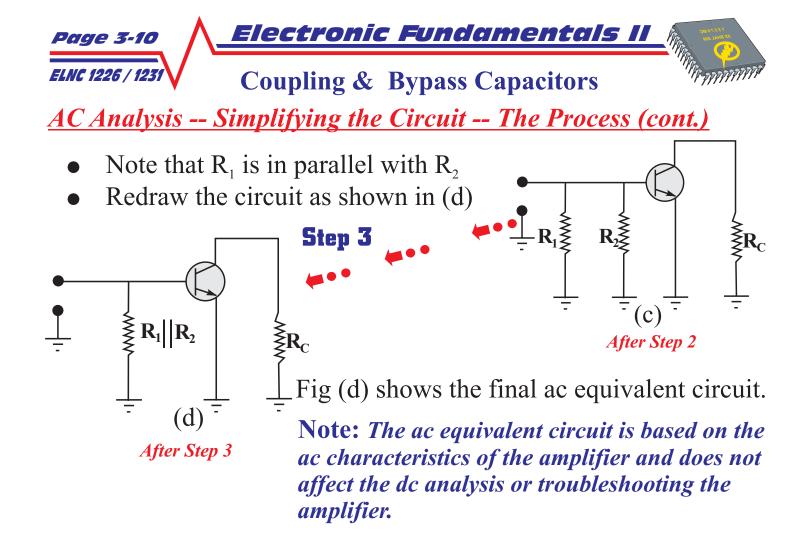
Remember that the dc supply (V_{cc}) has a very low ac resistance value. We must replace the dc source with a ground in the equivalent circuit because the ac signals see V_{cc} as a ground.

AC Analysis -- Simplifying the Circuit -- The Process

pass unhindered, from stage to

stage.







Remember that there are three types of gain:

- ✓ Voltage Gain
- ✓ Current Gain
- ✓ Power Gain

Remember: - that gain is a ratio

- That gain is a number without units
- That gain is a multiplier that exists between the input and output of an amplifier

<u>Voltage Gain</u>

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{V}} = \frac{\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathrm{out}}}{\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathrm{in}}}$$

Where: $A_v =$ the voltage gain of the amplifier $v_{out} =$ the ac output of the amplifier $v_{in} =$ the ac input of the amplifier

Example 9.3 shows an example calculation

Predicting Voltage Gain

How can we predict the voltage gain of an amplifier when v_{out} and v_{in} are not known?

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathrm{V}} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{C}}}{\mathbf{r}' \mathbf{e}}$$

Where: $A_v =$ the voltage gain of the amplifier $r_c =$ the total ac resistance of the collector circuit $r'_e =$ the ac emitter resistance of the transistor



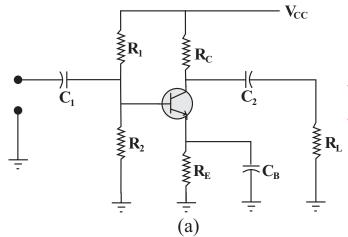
\mathbf{r}_{c} is the total ac resistance of the collector circuit

Circuit (a) below shows a common emitter amplifier with a load resistor connected.

Circuit (b) shows the resultant circuit with R_c in parallel with R_L

 $r_{\rm C} = \mathbf{R}_{\rm C} \parallel \mathbf{R}_{\rm I}$

≹R₁∥R₂



Examples 9.4 & 9.5 shows examples of determining A_v

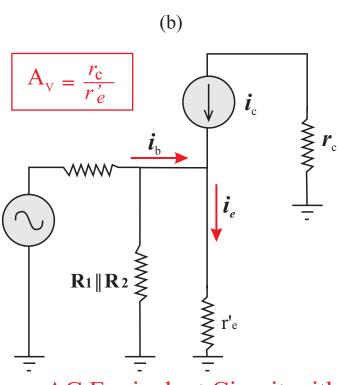
Voltage Gain Instability

This circuit shows us an ac model of our common emitter amplifier.

The voltage gain is equal to the ratio of ac collector resistance to the ac emitter resistance.

Remember that r_e^2 (ac emitter resistance) is a dynamic value that can change with temperature.

Because of this, the voltage gain of our amplifier, as it exists, can be somewhat unstable. To reduce this effect due to temperature, the swamped amplifier is used.



R_C

R_L≩

AC Equivalent Circuit with



Calculating v_{out}

Calculating v_{out} is a simple task when the voltage gain is known.

 $v_{out} = A_v v_{in}$ <u>Example 9.6</u> shows an example of determining v_{out}

<u>Current Gain</u>

Current Gain (A_i) is the factor by which *ac current increases* from the input of an amplifier to the output.

i	where	Ai	= the current gain of the amplifier.
$A_i = \frac{l_{out}}{\cdot}$		i _{out}	= the ac output or load current
<i>l l</i> _{in}		$\mathbf{\dot{l}}_{in}$	= the ac input or source current

We know that the current gain of the transistor is given on the spec. sheet as h_{fe} The actual amplifier gain will *always be lower* than the value of h_{fe} for 2 reasons:

1) The ac input current is divided between the transistor and the biasing network.

The ac collector current is divided between the collector resistor 2) and the load

Power Gain A_P

Power Gain (A_p) is the factor by which *ac signal power increases* from the input of an amplifier to the output.

Power gain can be found by multiplying current gain by voltage gain.

 $A_p = A_i A_v$



Power Gain (continued)

Once the power gain of an amplifier has been determined, you can calculate the output power at the load:

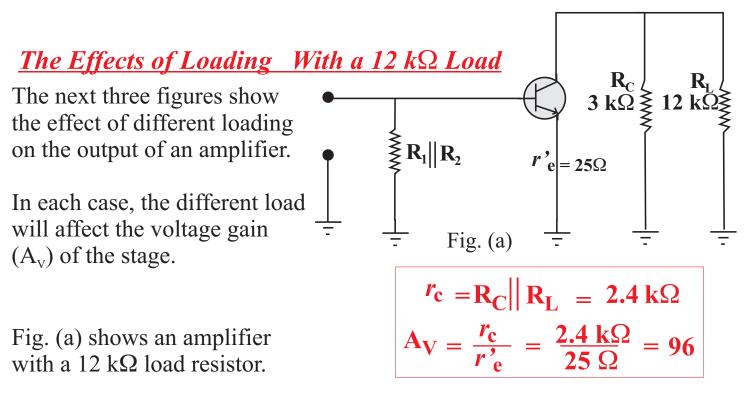
		where
p =	A D .	
-out	p^{\star} in	

A _p	= the power gain of the amplifier.
p_{out}	= the amplifier output power
$p_{\rm in}$	

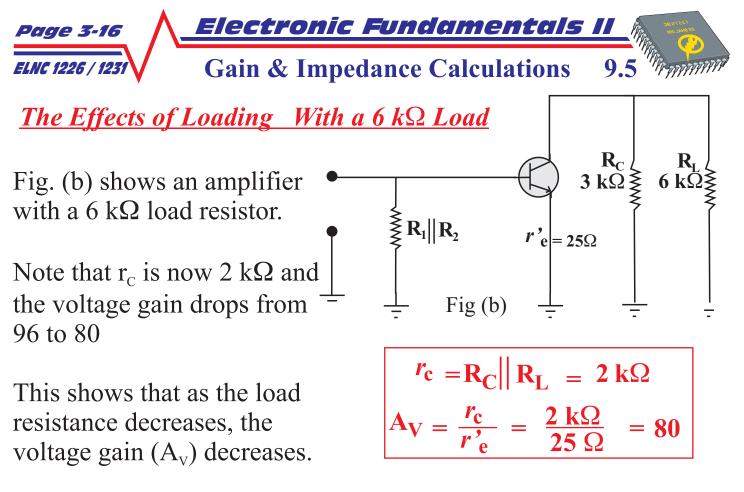
Example 9.7 shows an example of determining A_P



- The value of the load has an effect on the voltage gain of the common emitter amplifier.
- The lower the resistance of the load, the lower the voltage gain of the amplifier.
- The opposite is also true; that is the greater the resistance of the load, the greater the voltage gain of the amplifier.
- The greatest value of voltage gain (A_v) occurs, when the load opens
- When the load is open, the ac collector circuit consists of R_c only.
- This is when $r_c = R_c$ Since R_c must always be greater than $R_c ||R_L$, an amplifier has its maximum value of A_v when the load resistor is open.



Note that r_c is 2.4 k Ω and the voltage gain is 96

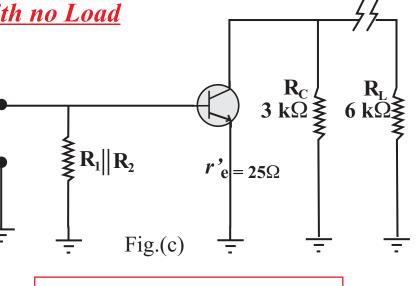


The Effects of Loading With no Load

Fig. (c) shows an amplifier with the load resistor open.

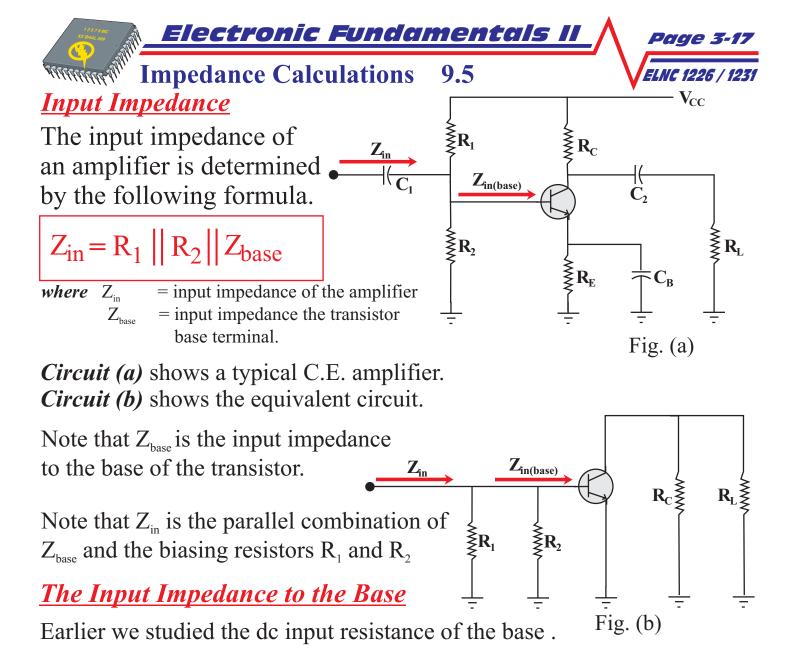
This leaves only R_c in the collector circuit, with no other resistance in parallel with it.

This situation gives us the maximum value of A_v as shown in the calculation.



$$r_{\rm c} = R_{\rm C} = 3 \, \mathrm{k}\Omega$$
$$A_{\rm VO} = \frac{r_{\rm c}}{r_{\rm e}^{\prime}} = \frac{3 \, \mathrm{k}\Omega}{25 \, \Omega} = 120$$

A_{VO} = The open load voltage gain of the circuit



Looking into the base of the transistor, the dc current sees the emitter resistor R_E , magnified by the dc current gain h_{FE}

This gave us the formula

 $\mathbf{R}_{\text{base}} = \mathbf{h}_{\text{FE}}\mathbf{R}_{\text{E}}$

The input impedance of the base is an ac quantity that is derived in a similar fashion.

Looking into the base of the transistor, the ac current sees only the ac resistance of the emitter diode magnified by the ac current gain of the transistor.

This gives us the formula $Z_{\text{base}} = h_{\text{fe}} r_e^2$

Example 9.9 shows an example of finding input impedance



We know that the overall current gain for a C.E. amplifier is always lower than the current gain (h_{fe}) of the transistor.

We know that:

$$A_i = \frac{i_{out}}{i_{in}}$$

This says that :

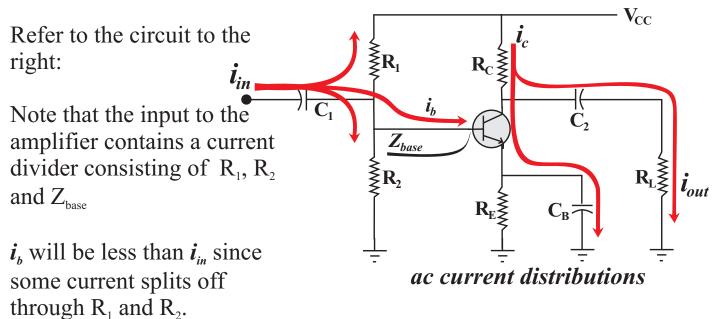
The current gain of the amplifier is the ratio of the ac load current (I_{out}) to the ac source current (I_{in})

We also know that:

$$h_{fe} = \frac{i_{\rm c}}{i_{\rm b}}$$

This says that:

The current gain of a transistor is the ratio of ac collector current to the ac base current



Similarly, i_{out} is less than i_c since some of the collector current splits off through R_L .

These two factors combine to cause the overall current gain of the amplifier to be significantly lower than the current gain of the transistor.



The formula that follows takes these factors into account and provides us with figure for current gain of the stage.

$$A_{i} = h_{fe} \left(\frac{Z_{in} r_{c}}{Z_{base} R_{L}} \right)$$

where:

Ai = the current gain of the common emitter amplifier h_{fe} = the current gain of the transistor

 $(Z_{in}r_{C})/(Z_{base}R_{L})$ = the reduction factor introduced by the biasing and output components

Example 9.10 illustrates the above

Multistage Amplifier Gain Calculations

How do we determine the overall gain of a multi-stage amplifier ?

- 1) Determine the appropriate gain values for each individual stage.
- 2) Determine the overall gain by using one of the equations below

(1)
$$A_{\nu T} = (A_{\nu 1})(A_{\nu 2})(A_{\nu 3})$$

(2) $A_{iT} = (A_{i1})(A_{i2})(A_{i3})$
(3) $A_{pT} = (A_{\nu T})(A_{iT})$

Equations 1 and 2 above indicate that the overall value of A_v or A_i is a product of he individual stage gain values. Simply multiply them together to find the overall value.

Equation 3 indicates that the overall power gain is simply the product of the overall values of A_v and A_i



Finding the voltage gain of a two stage amplifier.

- Perform the basic dc analysis on both stages in the usual way
- Find r'*e* for both stages.
- Find the input impedance of the second stage (Z_{in})
- Find the ac collector resistance of the first stage. (r_c)
- Find the voltage gain of the first stage.
- Find the voltage gain of the second stage.
- Find the total gain for both stages.

Examples 9.11 and 9.12 show a complete example of this procedure

The Swamped Amplifier 9.6 Gain & Impedance Calculations

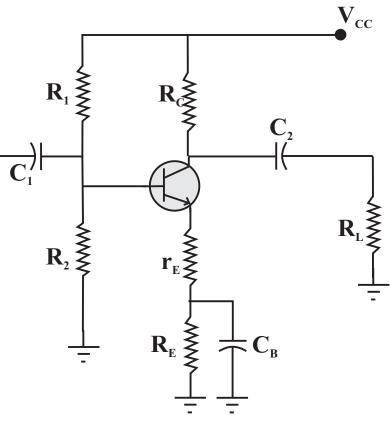
A swamped amplifier reduces variations in voltage gain by increasing the ac resistance of the emitter circuit.

By increasing this resistance, it also increases Z_{base} This, in turn, reduces the amplifier's loading effect on the previous stage.

Note that only part of the dc emitter resistance is bypassed.

The bypass capacitor eliminates only the value of R_{E} .

The other emitter resistor r_{E} , is now part of the ac equivalent circuit as shown on the next page.

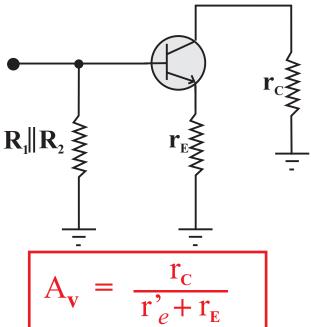




Note in the figure to the right that r_E has now been included in the ac equivalent circuit.

Only part of the total dc emitter resistance has been bypassed.

Since the voltage gain of the amplifier is the ratio of collector resistance to emitter resistance, a new formula for voltage gain.



Example 9.13, 9.14 demonstrates the gain calculation for a swamped amplifier.

The Effects of Swamping on Z_{base}

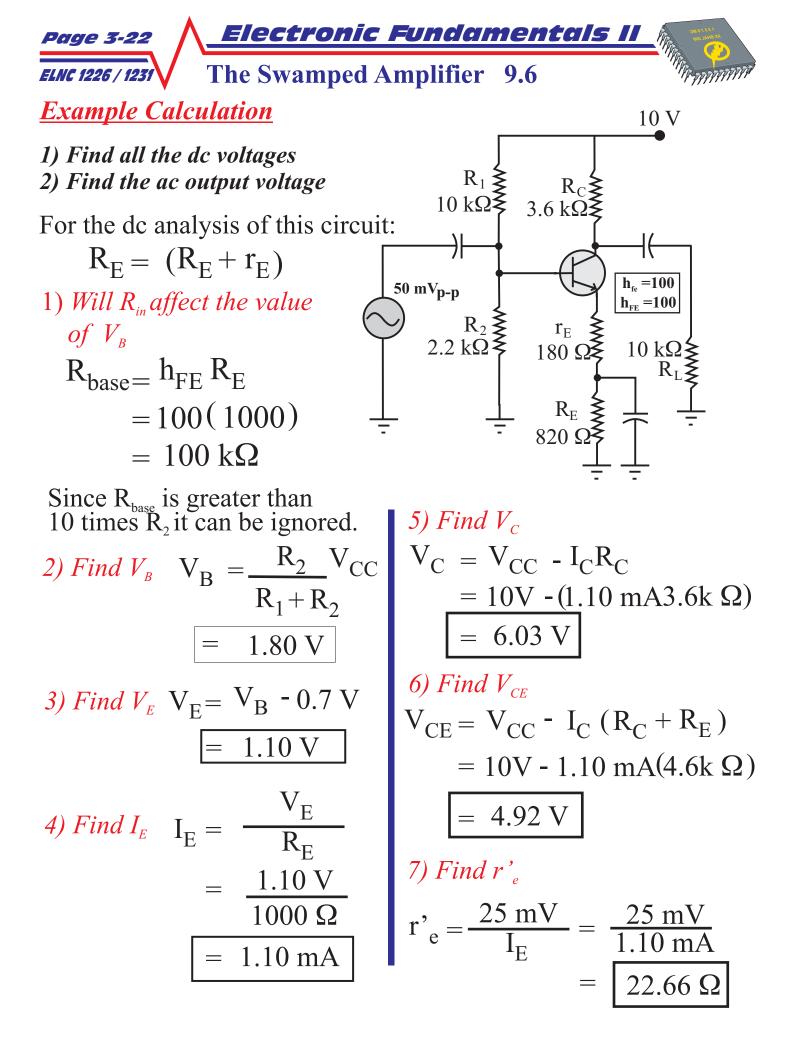
The input impedance is shown in the equation below.

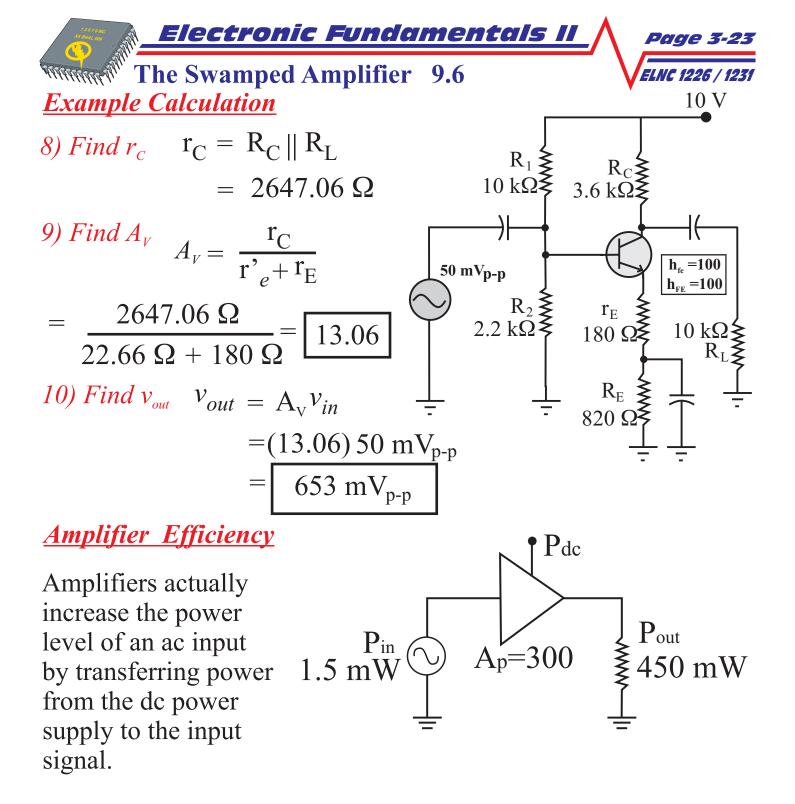
$$\mathbf{Z}_{\text{base}} = \mathbf{h}_{\text{fe}} \left(\mathbf{r}_{e}^{*} + \mathbf{r}_{E} \right)$$

This says that the input impedance of the transistor base is equal to the ac emitter resistance r'_{e} plus the un-bypassed emitter resistance, all magnified by the ac current gain h_{fe}

Advantages - more stable against variations r'e
- has a higher input impedance
Disadvantages - It has a reduced voltage gain compared to a standard CE amplifier

Examples 9.15 ,9.16, 9.17 illustrate Z_{in} and Z_{base}

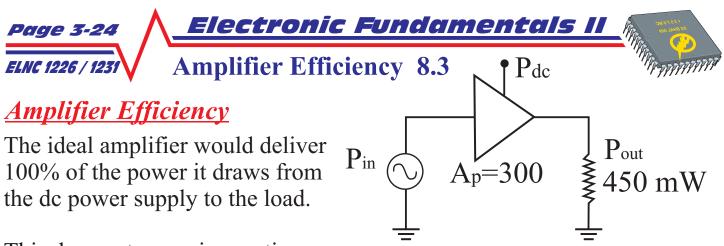




In this example, the input signal has a power rating of 1.5 mW

This gives an output power of 450 mW , if A_P is 300.

The difference between $P_{in} \& P_{out}$ is 448.5 mW, and this power was actually transferred from the dc power supply to the load.



This does not occur in practice,

however, because the components of the amplifier dissipate some of the power.

A figure of merit for any amplifier is its efficiency. The efficiency of an amplifier is the amount of power drawn from the supply that is actually delivered to the load.

Example 8.6 illustrates efficiency rating

$$\eta = \frac{P_L}{P_{dc}} \times 100$$

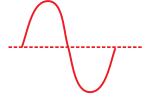
Where η = the efficiency of the amplifier $P_{\rm L}$ = the ac load power P_{dc} = the dc input power

 η is the Greek letter *eta* **Distortion**

One of the goals in amplification is to produce an output waveform that has the exact same shape as the input waveform.

Distortion is defined as any undesired change in the shape of the waveform.

The waveforms below illustrate several different types of distortion that can be produced by amplifiers



Input Waveform (pure sinewave)

Non Linear Distortion

Crossover

Distortion



Our mid-point biased C.E. amplifier that we have studied is Class A. **Under normal operating conditions**

• An active device that conducts during the entire input cycle

the Class A amplifier has:

- An output that contains little or no distortion
- A maximum theoretical efficiency of 25%.

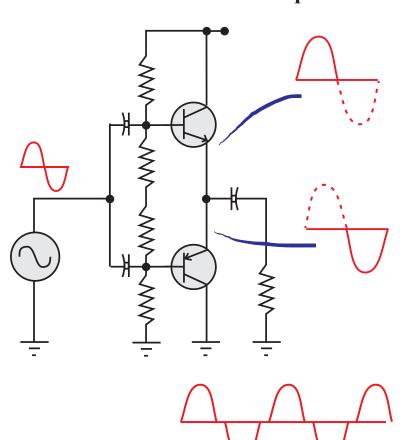
Class B

A typical Class B amplifier will have two transistors that are connected as shown here.

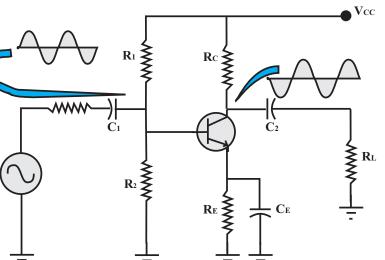
Under normal operating conditions, the Class B amplifier has:

- Two transistors that are biased at cutoff (each conducts during one half of the input cycle.
- An output that contains little or no distortion
- A maximum theoretical efficiency of 78.5%

 \pm \pm \pm Class A Amplifier



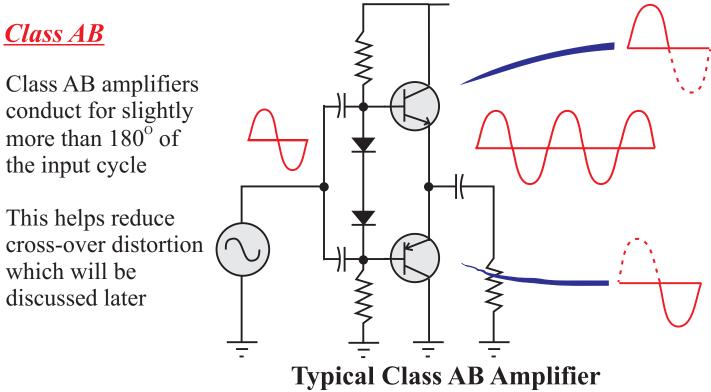
Typical Class B Amplifier Push - Pull Complementary-symmetry





In Class B amplifiers, no current flows through the output transistors in the quiescent state.

This creates the relatively high efficiency rating and suits them well for use as power amplifiers



Complementary-symmetry

<u>Class C</u>

The Class C amplifier contains a single transistor that conducts for less than 180° of the ac input cycle.

The transistor is biased deeply into cutoff

The ac input to the transistor causes it to conduct for only a brief time during the input cycle

The rest of the output waveform is produced by the LC tank in the collector circuit.



<u>Class C</u>

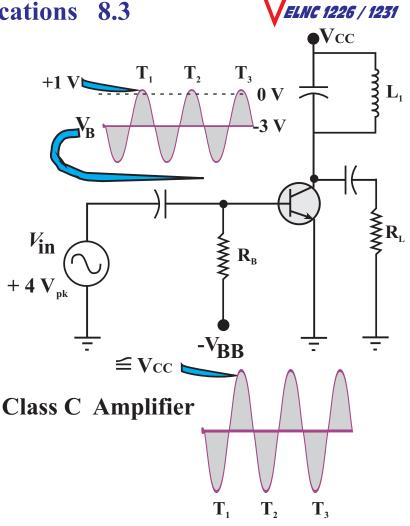
The class C amplifier is, by its design, a tuned amplifier.

A tuned amplifier is one that produces a usable output over a specific range of frequencies.

A Class C Amplifier typically has: +

- A single transistor that conducts for less than 180° of the input cycle.
- An output that may contain a significant amount of distortion.
- A maximum theoretical efficiency rating of 99%

All amplifiers may be allocated to one of a number of classes depending on the way the active device is operated





Hybrid parameters or *h*-parameters are transistor specifications that describe the component operating characteristics under special circumstances. Each of the four *h*-parameters is measured under no-load or full load conditions.

These *h*-parameters are then used in circuit analysis applications.

The four *h*-parameters for a transistor in a common emitter

amplifier are:

 h_{ie} = the base input impedance

 h_{fe} = the base-to-collector ac current gain h_{oe} = the output admittance

- h_{re} = the reverse voltage feedback ratio.

The Input Impedance of the Base (h_{ie})

The Input Impedance of the Base (h_{ie}) is measured with the output shorted. A shorted output is a full load condition. You can see in Fig (A) that the capacitor is an ac short from collector to emitter. Note that h_{ie} is determined as:

$$h_{ie} = \frac{v_{in}}{i_b}$$

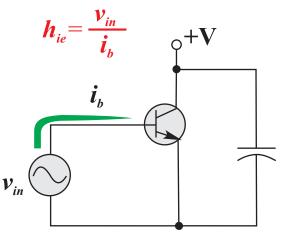


Fig (A) Input Impedance

Why short the output? Take the example of a swamped amplifier, we know that: $\mathbf{Z}_{base} = \boldsymbol{h}_{fe}(\boldsymbol{r'}_{e} + \boldsymbol{r}_{E})$

By shorting the collector and emitter terminals, the measured value of h_{ie} does not reflect any external resistance in the circuit.



The base to collector current gain is also measured with the output shorted. This means that h_{fe} is measured under full load.

In Fig. (B), the output is shorted, and an ac signal voltage is applied to the base.

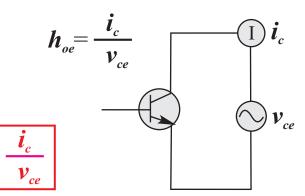
Both i_b and i_c are measured under this full load condition and the ratio of them is the ac current gain.

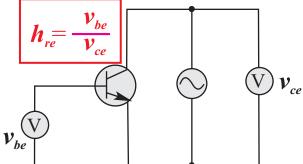
Output Admittance (h_{oe})

The output admittance is measured with the *input open*. An ac signal voltage is applied across the collector - emitter terminals and the ac current is measured in the collector circuit. The value of admittance is then calculated as: $h_{oe} = \frac{i_c}{v}$

<u>Reverse Voltage Feedback</u> (h_{re})

This is the amount of output voltage that is reflected back to the input. It is measured with the input open. A signal is applied to the collectoremitter terminals. With the input open, the voltage fed back to the





base-emitter junction is measured. *Fig (D) <u>Reverse Voltage feedback</u>* Since the base-emitter voltage is less

than the collector-emitter voltage, h_{re} will always be less than 1.

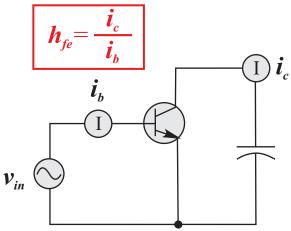


Fig (B) <u>ac Current Gain</u>



For our purposes, we are interested in these four h-parameter equations.

These equations will give us more accurate results and should be used where ever possible.

$$A_{i} = h_{fe} \left(\frac{Z_{in} \mathbf{r}_{c}}{h_{ie} \mathbf{R}_{L}} \right) \qquad r'_{e} = \frac{h_{ie}}{h_{fe}}$$
$$Z_{base} = h_{ie} \qquad A_{v} = \frac{h_{fe} \mathbf{r}_{c}}{h_{ie}}$$