Revision

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Outline

- ✓ Bipolar Junction Transistor (Lecture 02)
 - Introduction Forward-Active Mode Operation
 - CE Current-Voltage Characteristics
 - DC Analysis of Transistor Circuits
 - Small-Signal Hybrid $-\pi$ Equivalent Circuit
 - Small-Signal Voltage Gain
 - Hybrid $-\pi$ Equivalent Circuit, including Early Effect



Outline

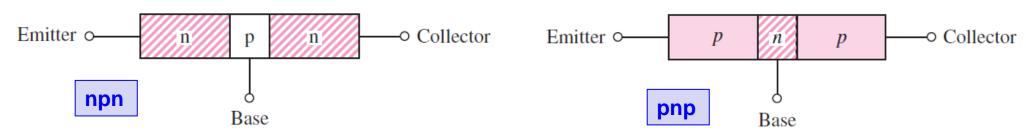
- ✓ BJT Amplifiers' (Lecture 03)
 - Common-Emitter (CE) Amplifiers
 - Common-Collector (CC) or Emitter-Follower Amplifier
 - Common-Base (CB) Amplifier
- ✓ Expanded Hybrid $-\pi$ Equivalent Circuit (Lecture 04)
 - Short-Circuit Current Gain
 - Cutoff Frequency
 - Miller Effect and Miller Cpacitance



Basic Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

Transistor principle is that the voltage between two terminals controls the current through the third terminal.

- ✓ BJT has 3 separately doped regions & contains 2 pn junctions. A single pn junction has two modes of operation forward and reverses biases.
- ✓ Bipolar transistor with 2 pn junctions, therefore has 4 possible modes of operation, which is one reason for the versatility of the device.
- ✓ With 3 separately doped regions, the bipolar transistor is a 3 terminal device. Current in the transistor is due to the flow of both electrons and holes, hence the name *bipolar*.

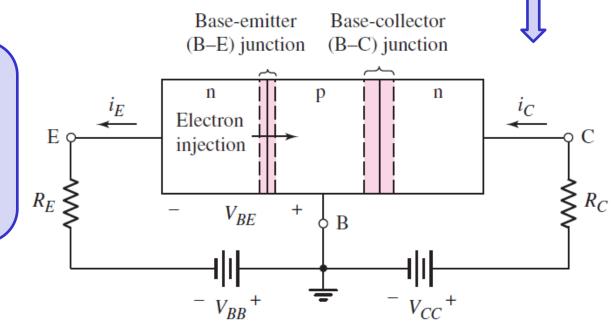




Forward-Active Mode Operation

- ✓ Since the transistor has 2 pn junctions, 4 possible bias combinations may be applied to the device, depending on whether a forward or reverse bias is applied to each junction.
- ✓ For example, if the transistor is used as an amplifying device, the base-emitter (B-E) junction is forward biased and the base-collector (B-C) junction is reverse biased, in a configuration called forward-active operating mode, or simply called the active region.

Since B-E junction is forward-biased, electrons from the emitter are injected across B-E junction into the base, creating excess minority carrier concentration in base. Since B-C junction is reverse-biased, the electron concentration at the edge of junction is 0.





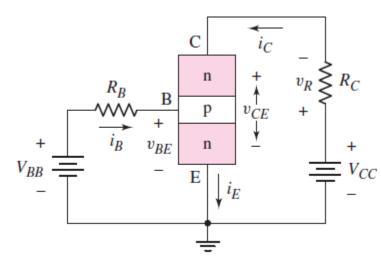
Forward-Active Mode Operation

Common-Emitter (CE) Current Gain:

✓ If bipolar transistor is considered as a single node, by using KCL, we get,

$$i_E = i_C + i_B$$

- ✓ If the transistor is biased in the forward-active mode, then $i_C = \beta i_B$.
- \checkmark From the above equations, we can get the relationship, $i_E = (1 + \beta)i_B$.
- ✓ Moreover, $i_C \& i_E$ are related as, $i_C = \left(\frac{\beta}{1+\beta}\right) i_E$
- ✓ Recall $i_C = \alpha i_E \to \alpha = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta}$

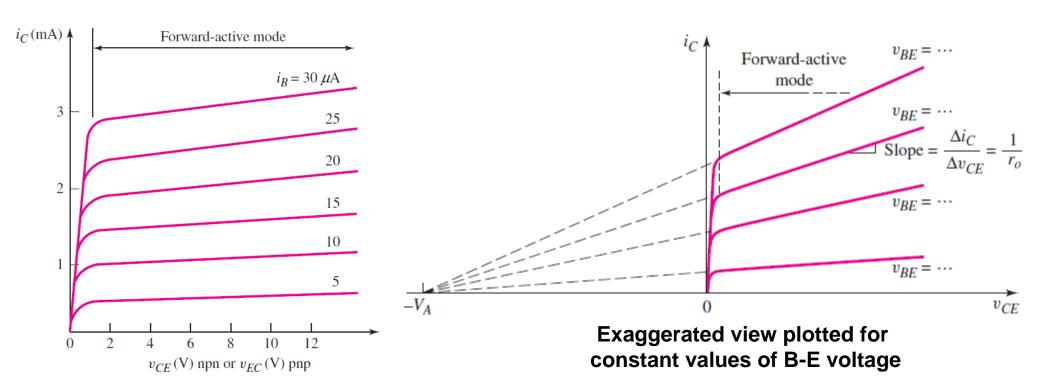


Common-emitter configuration



CE Circuit Current-Voltage Characteristics

The collector current is plotted against the collector—emitter voltage, for various constant values of the base current.



The slope in these characteristics is due to an effect called base-width modulation that was first analyzed by J. M. Early – called *Early effect*.



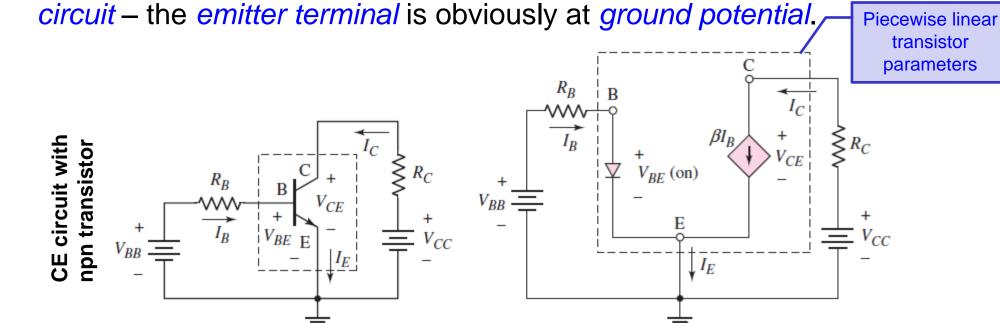
CE Circuit Current-Voltage Characteristics

- ✓ When the curves are extrapolated to zero current, they meet at a point on the negative voltage axis, at $v_{CE} = -V_A$. The voltage V_A is positive, called *Early voltage*. Typical values are in the range $50 < V_A < 300 V$.
- ✓ The linear dependence of i_C vs v_{CE} in the forward-active mode can be as, $i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \left(1 + \frac{v_{CE}}{V_A}\right)$
- ✓ Non-zero slope of the curves indicates that the *output resistance* r_o looking into the collector is finite. This r_o is determined from, $\frac{1}{r_o} = \frac{\partial i_C}{\partial v_{CE}}\Big|_{v_{RF}=Const}$
- ✓ Therefore, we can show that, $r_o \cong \frac{V_A}{I_C}$
 - I_C is the quiescent collector current when v_{BE} is constant and $v_{CE} < v_A$.



DC Analysis of Transistor Circuits

- ✓ Now analyze and design the dc biasing of transistor circuits an important part of designing bipolar amplifiers which is the focus of later syllabus.
- ✓ The piecewise linear model of a pn junction can be used for the dc analysis of bipolar transistor circuit.
- ✓ One of the basic transistor circuit configuration is *common-emitter (CE)*





DC Analysis of Transistor Circuits

- ✓ Assume that the B-E junction is forward-biased so that the voltage drop across that junction is cut-in or turn-on voltage $V_{BE}(on)$.
- ✓ When the transistor is biased in forward-active mode, the collector current is represented as a dependent current source, function of base current.
- ✓ Neglect the reverse-biased junction leakage current and Early effect.

The base current is,
$$I_B = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}(on)}{R_B}$$

It is implicit that $V_{BB} > V_{BE}(on) \rightarrow I_B > 0$. If $V_{BB} < V_{BE}(on)$, transistor is cut off & $I_B = 0$.

In the collector-emitter portion, we can write

$$I_C = \beta I_B$$
, and $V_{CC} = I_C R_C + V_{CE}$ (or) $V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$

It is also implicit that $V_{CE} > V_{BE}(on)$, which means B-C junction is reverse biased and the transistor is biased in the forward-active mode.



Hybrid-π Equivalent Circuit

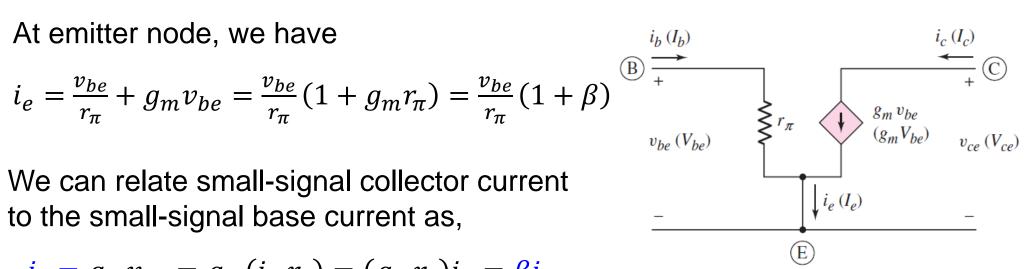
We can now develop an equivalent circuit model of BJT – voltage controlled current source and explicitly includes input resistance looking into base (r_{π}) .

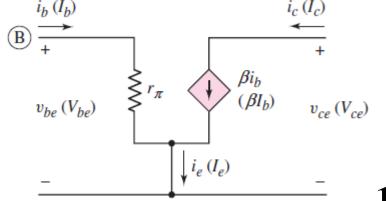
$$i_e = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} + g_m v_{be} = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} (1 + g_m r_{\pi}) = \frac{v_{be}}{r_{\pi}} (1 + \beta)$$

We can relate small-signal collector current to the small-signal base current as,

$$i_c = g_m v_{be} = g_m (i_b r_\pi) = (g_m r_\pi) i_b = \beta i_b$$

Consider,
$$g_m r_\pi = \frac{I_{CQ}}{V_T} \times \frac{\beta V_T}{I_{CQ}} = \beta$$

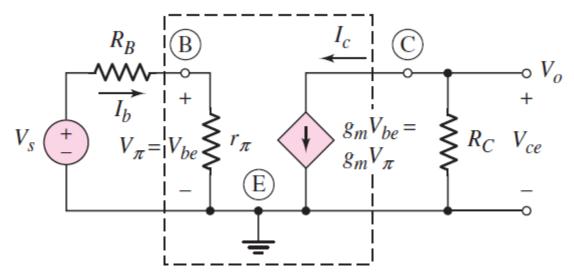






Small-Signal Voltage Gain

We can now *incorporate the small-signal hybrid* $-\pi$ model into the ac equivalent circuit – replace the equivalent model of the transistor.



Small-signal voltage gain

$$A_{v} = \frac{V_{o}}{V_{s}} = \frac{V_{ce}}{V_{s}} = \frac{-(g_{m}V_{\pi})R_{C}}{V_{\pi}/\left(\frac{r_{\pi}}{r_{\pi} + R_{B}}\right)} = -(g_{m}R_{C})\left(\frac{r_{\pi}}{r_{\pi} + R_{B}}\right)$$



Note that, $V_{\pi}=\left(\frac{r_{\pi}}{r_{\pi}+R_{B}}\right)V_{S}$ 。 o o $\frac{\text{Voltage}}{\text{divider rule}}$



Problem-Solving Technique

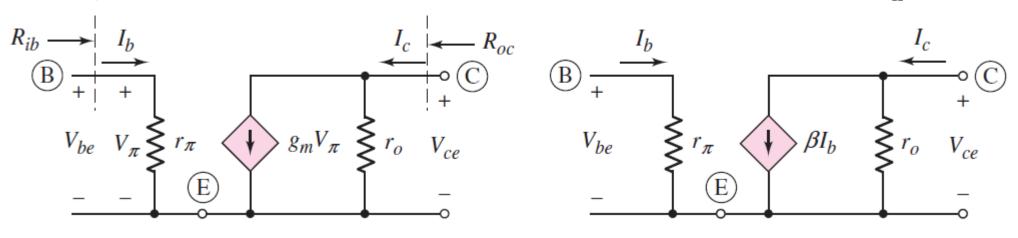
Since we are dealing with linear amplifier circuits, superposition applies, which means that we can perform the *dc* and *ac* analyses separately. The procedure is as follows:

- Analyze the circuit with only the dc sources present. This solution is the
 dc or quiescent solution, which uses the dc signal models. The transistor
 must be biased in the forward-active region in order to produce linear
 amplifier.
- 2. Replace each element in the circuit with its *small-signal model*. The small-signal model *hybrid*— π applies to the transistor.
- Analyze the small-signal equivalent circuit, setting the dc source components equal to zero, to produce the response of the circuit to the time-varying input signals only.



Hybrid-π Equivalent Circuit with Early Effect

So far we have assumed that the collector current is independent of the collector-emitter voltage in the small-signal equivalent circuit. Recall Early Effect, where the collector current varies with collector-emitter voltage.



$$i_C = I_S e^{v_{BE}/V_T} \left(1 + \frac{v_{CE}}{V_A}\right) \& r_o \cong \frac{V_A}{I_C}$$
 is small-signal transistor output resistance.

This resistance is an equivalent *Norton resistance*, which means that r_o is in parallel with the dependent current sources.



Input resistance, r_{π} (ohms); current gain, β (dimensionless) output resistance, r_o (ohms); transconductance, g_m (mhos);

Basic BJT Amplifiers (Lecture 03)

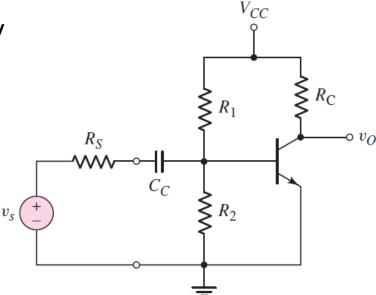


Common-Emitter (CE) Amplifier

- ✓ Note that the emitter is at ground potential hence called common-emitter.
- ✓ Signal from the signal source is coupled into the base of the transistor through the coupling capacitor C_C , which provides dc isolation between the amplifier and the signal source.
- ✓ The DC transistor biasing is established by R_1 and R_2 , and is not disturbed when the signal source is capacitively coupled to the amplifier.

Assume that the signal frequency is 1) sufficiently high that any *coupling capacitance* acts as a perfect short circuit, and 2) is also sufficiently low that the *transistor capacitances* are neglected.

Neglect any capacitance effects within the transistor.



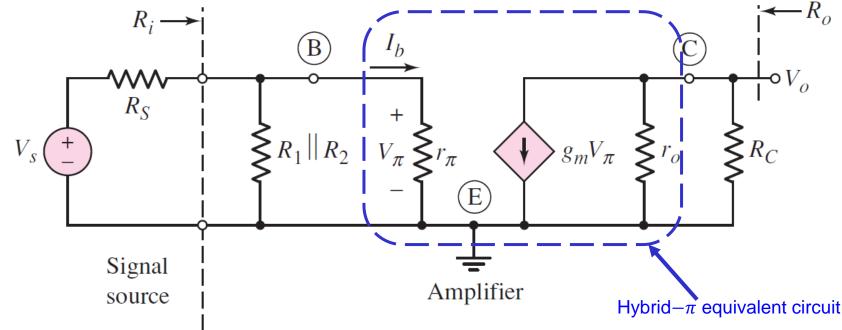


Common-Emitter – Small-signal Circuit

The output voltage can be written as, $V_o = -g_m V_\pi(r_o || R_C)$

The control voltage
$$V_{\pi}$$
 is found to be, $V_{\pi} = \frac{R_1||R_2||r_{\pi}|}{R_1||R_2||r_{\pi}+R_S} \times V_S$

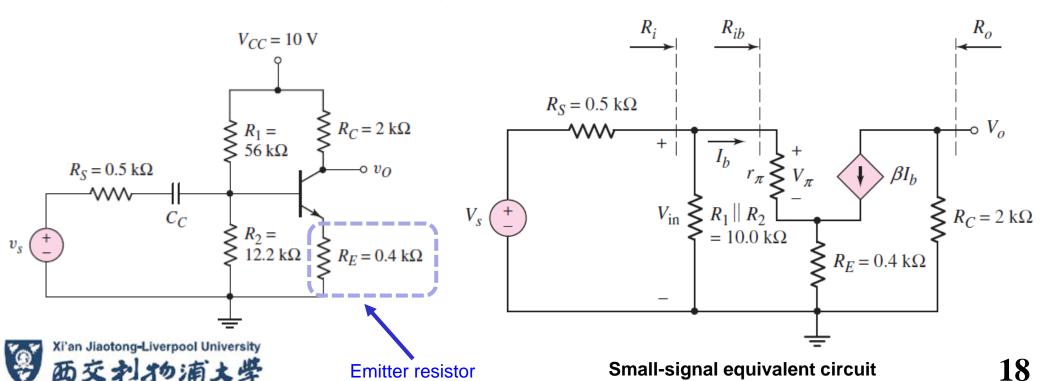
Thus, the small-signal voltage gain is, $A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_S} = -g_m(r_o||R_C) \frac{R_1||R_2||r_{\pi}|}{R_1||R_2||r_{\pi}+R_S|}$





Common-Emitter with Emitter Resistor

- ✓ The earlier CE circuit is not very practical voltage across R_2 provides the base-emitter voltage to bias the transistor in the forward-active region.
- ✓ A slight variation in the resistor value or in the transistor characteristics may cause the transistor to be biased in cutoff or saturation.
- ✓ Although the emitter is not at ground potential, it is still called as CE circuit.



Common-Emitter with Emitter Resistor

Note that current gain β is used in the equivalent circuit & assume that Early voltage is infinite so the transistor output resistance (r_0) can be neglected.

Input resistance R_{ih} : It is the input resistance looking into the base

Use KVL for the loop,
$$V_{in} = I_b r_\pi + (I_b + \beta I_b) R_E \rightarrow R_{ib} = \frac{V_{in}}{I_b} = r_\pi + (1 + \beta) R_E$$

Voltage gain A_v :

The output voltage is, $V_0 = -(\beta I_h) R_C$

The input resistance to the amplifier, $R_i = R_1 ||R_2||R_{ih}$

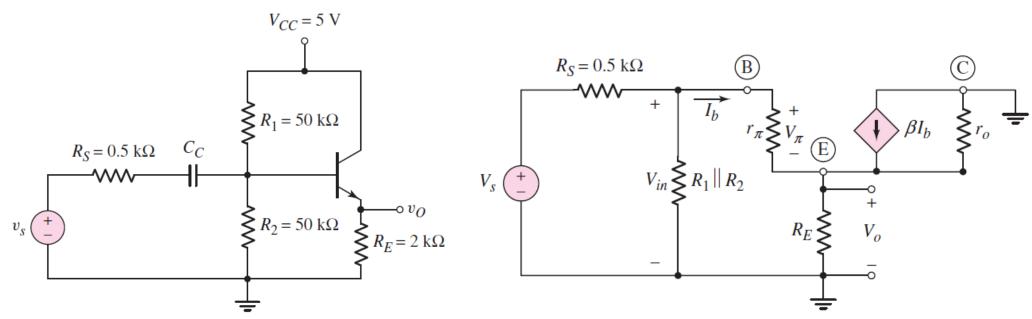
Moreover,
$$V_{in} = \left(\frac{R_i}{R_i + R_s}\right) V_s$$

Therefore,
$$A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_c} = \frac{-(\beta I_b) R_C}{V_c} = -\beta R_C \left(\frac{V_{in}}{R_{ib}}\right) \left(\frac{1}{V_c}\right) = \frac{-\beta R_C}{r_{\pi} + (1+\beta)R_E} \left(\frac{R_i}{R_i + R_c}\right)$$



Common-Collector (CC) Amplifier

- ✓ The output signal is taken off of the emitter with respect to ground and the collector is connected directly to V_{CC} . Since V_{CC} is at signal ground in the ac equivalent circuit (see) named as common-collector (*Emitter follower*).
- ✓ Equivalent circuit assume the coupling capacitor C_C acts as a short circuit. Collector terminal is at signal ground & the transistor output resistance r_o is in parallel with the dependent current source.





Common-Collector (CC) Amplifier

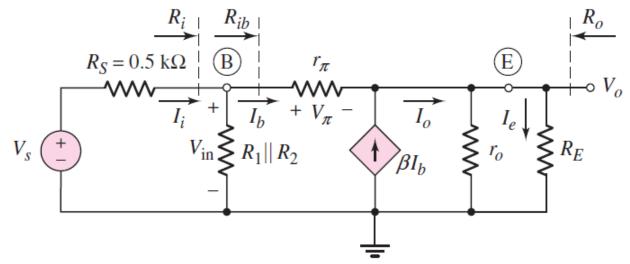
From the equivalent circuit,

$$I_o = (1 + \beta)I_b$$

$$V_o = I_b(1+\beta)(r_o||R_E)$$

KVL for base-emitter loop,

$$V_{in} = I_b[r_{\pi} + (1 + \beta)(r_o||R_E)]$$



Small-signal equivalent circuit with all signal grounds connected together

$$R_{ib} = \frac{V_{in}}{I_b} = r_{\pi} + (1 + \beta)(r_o||R_E) \Longrightarrow$$
 Input resistance looking into the base

We also write,
$$V_{in} = \left(\frac{R_i}{R_i + R_S}\right) V_S$$
; where, $R_i = R_1 ||R_2||R_{ib}$.

Small-signal voltage gain,
$$A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_S} = \frac{(1+\beta)(r_o||R_E)}{r_\pi + (1+\beta)(r_o||R_E)} \left(\frac{R_i}{R_i + R_S}\right)$$



Common-Collector (CC) Amplifier

Small-signal current gain,
$$A_i = \frac{I_e}{I_i}$$

Using current divider rule,
$$I_b = \left(\frac{R_1||R_2|}{R_1||R_2+R_{ib}|}\right)I_i$$

Since,
$$g_m V_\pi = \beta I_b$$
, then, $I_o = (1 + \beta)I_b = (1 + \beta) \left(\frac{R_1 || R_2}{R_1 || R_2 + R_{ib}}\right) I_i$

Write the load current in terms of
$$I_o$$
 produces, $I_e = \left(\frac{r_o}{r_o + R_E}\right) I_o$

Therefore, small-signal current gain,
$$A_i = \frac{I_e}{I_i} = (1 + \beta) \left(\frac{R_1||R_2|}{R_1||R_2 + R_{ib}|}\right) \left(\frac{r_o}{r_o + R_E}\right)$$

If we assume
$$R_1||R_2\gg R_{ib}$$
 and $r_o\gg R_E$, then $A_i\cong (1+\beta)$

Although small-signal voltage gain of CC amplifier is slightly less than 1, the small-signal current gain is normally greater than 1.

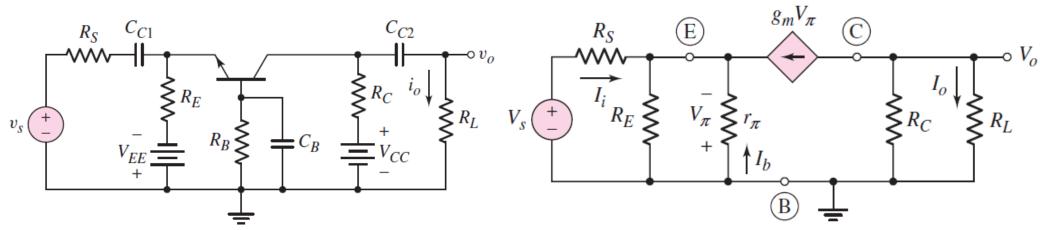


Common-Base (CB) Amplifier

- ✓ Base is at signal ground & input signal is applied to emitter Common-Base
- \checkmark Assume the load is connected to the output through coupling capacitor C_{C2} .
- ✓ Assume output resistance r_o to be infinite. The small-signal equivalent circuit of a CB configuration with hybrid- π model is complex.

Small-signal output voltage, $V_o = -(g_m V_\pi)(R_C || R_L)$

KCL at the emitter node gives, $g_m V_\pi + \frac{V_\pi}{r_\pi} + \frac{V_\pi}{R_E} + \frac{V_S - (-V_\pi)}{R_S} = 0$





Common-Base (CB) Amplifier

Since
$$\beta = g_m r_\pi$$
, the above equation is $V_\pi \left(\frac{1+\beta}{r_\pi} + \frac{1}{R_E} + \frac{1}{R_S} \right) = -\frac{V_S}{R_S}$

Then,
$$V_{\pi} = -\frac{V_S}{R_S} \left[\left(\frac{r_{\pi}}{1+\beta} \right) ||R_E||R_S \right]$$

Substitute the control voltage V_{π} in the output voltage equation, which results

Small-signal voltage gain,
$$A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_S} = g_m \left(\frac{R_C||R_L}{R_S}\right) \left[\left(\frac{r_\pi}{1+\beta}\right)||R_E||R_S\right]$$

If $R_S \to 0$, the voltage gain becomes,

$$A_{v} = g_{m}(R_{C}||R_{L})$$

For CB circuit, the small-signal voltage gain is usually greater than 1.

Common-Base (CB) Amplifier

Small-signal current gain,
$$A_i = \frac{I_o}{I_i}$$

Write KCL at the emitter node, we get, $I_i + \frac{V_{\pi}}{r_{\pi}} + g_m V_{\pi} + \frac{V_{\pi}}{R_E} = 0$

Solving for
$$V_{\pi}$$
 gives, $V_{\pi} = -I_i \left[\left(\frac{r_{\pi}}{1+\beta} \right) || R_E \right]$

The load current,
$$I_o = -(g_m V_\pi) \left(\frac{R_C}{R_C + R_L}\right)$$

Therefore, the small-signal current gain can be written as

$$A_i = \frac{I_o}{I_i} = g_m \left(\frac{R_C}{R_C + R_L} \right) \left[\left(\frac{r_m}{1 + \beta} \right) || R_E \right]$$

$$A_i = \frac{I_o}{I_i} = \frac{g_m r_\pi}{1 + \beta} = \frac{\beta}{1 + \beta} \quad \text{if } R_E \to \infty \& R_L \to 0$$



西交利が滴え学 Small-signal current gain is slightly less than 1.

Comparison of Three Amplifiers

Characteristics of the three BJT amplifier configurations				
Configuration	Voltage gain	Current gain	Input resistance	Output resistance
Common emitter Emitter follower Common base	$A_v > 1$ $A_v \cong 1$ $A_v > 1$	$A_i > 1$ $A_i > 1$ $A_i \cong 1$	Moderate High Low	Moderate to high Low Moderate to high

CC circuit has very high input resistance, low output resistance, and $A_v \cong 1$.

✓ It is often used to isolate two circuits from each other, so circuit 2 does not draw

current from circuit 1 – useful as *buffer*.



High input impedance means it draws very little current from circuit 1 & is also able to drive circuit 2 easily from its low output impedance & high current gain. A voltage gain of nearly unity means the signal from circuit 1 is passed onto circuit 2 unchanged.



Frequency Response of Amplifier Circuits (Lecture 03)

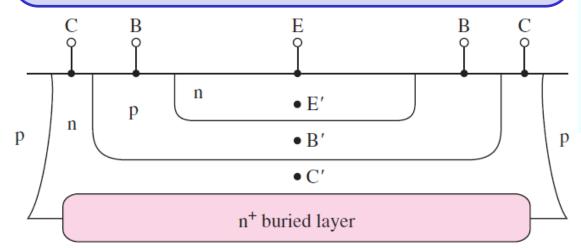


Expanded Hybrid-π equivalent Circuit

See the cross section of an npn bipolar transistor for hybrid— π model.

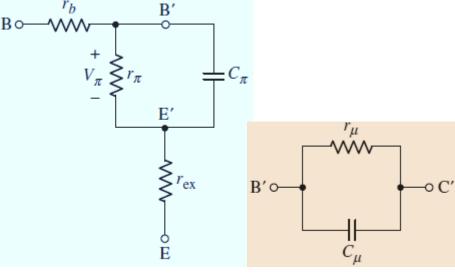
✓ C, B, and E terminals are external connections to the transistor, and C', B' & E' are idealized internal collector, base, and emitter regions.

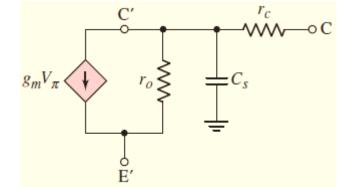
 r_b is base series resistance between B & B'. C_{π} is forward biased junction capacitance. r_{π} is forward biased diffusion resistance. r_{ex} is emitter series resistance E' & E.



Cross section of npn transistor for hybrid- π model



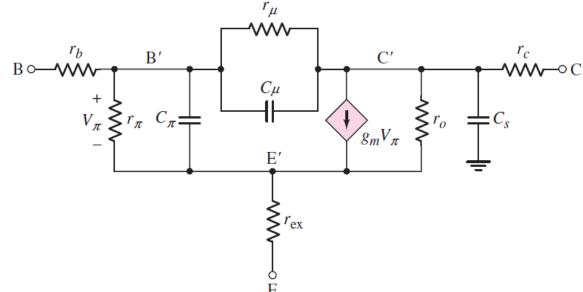




Expanded Hybrid-π equivalent Circuit

 r_c is collector series resistance between C & C'. C_s is junction capacitance of reverse-biased collector-substrate junction. $g_m V_\pi$ is collector current controlled by internal base-emitter voltage. r_o is inverse of output conductance g_o and is due primarily to Early effect.

 r_{μ} is reverse-biased diffusion resistance (range of megohms & neglected). C_{μ} is reverse-biased junction capacitance (normally < C_{π} , however, *cannot be neglected due to Miller effect*).



Short-Circuit Current Gain

Neglect the parasitic resistances r_b , r_c , r_{ex} , & r_{μ} , and substrate capacitance C_s .

Write KCL at the input node,
$$I_b = \frac{V_{\pi}}{r_{\pi}} + \frac{V_{\pi}}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_{\pi}}} + \frac{V_{\pi}}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_{\mu}}} = V_{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{r_{\pi}} + j\omega \left(C_{\pi} + C_{\mu} \right) \right]$$

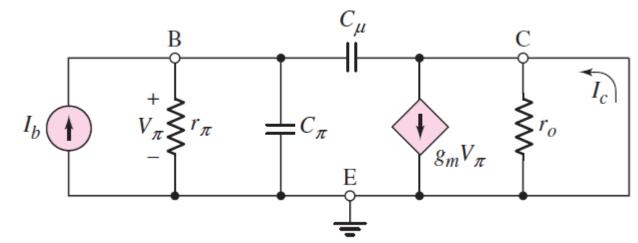
Note that $V_{\pi} \neq I_b r_{\pi}$, since a portion of I_b is now shunted through $C_{\pi} \& C_{\mu}$. From KCL at the output node,

$$\frac{V_{\pi}}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_{\mu}}} + I_{c} = g_{m}V_{\pi} \rightarrow I_{c} = V_{\pi}(g_{m} - j\omega C_{\mu}) \rightarrow V_{\pi} = \frac{I_{c}}{(g_{m} - j\omega C_{\mu})}$$

Substitute V_{π} in I_b results as,

$$I_b = I_C \times \frac{\left[\frac{1}{r_{\pi}} + j\omega(C_{\pi} + C_{\mu})\right]}{g_m - j\omega C_{\mu}}$$

$$\therefore A_i = \frac{I_c}{I_b} = \frac{(g_m - j\omega C_\mu)}{\left[\frac{1}{r_\pi} + j\omega(C_\pi + C_\mu)\right]}$$



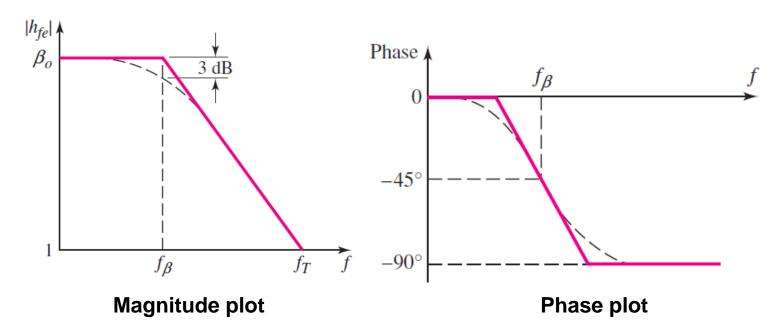


Short-Circuit Current Gain

$$A_i = h_{fe} = \frac{I_c}{I_b} = \frac{(g_m - j\omega C_\mu)}{\left[\frac{1}{r_\pi} + j\omega(C_\pi + C_\mu)\right]} \cong \frac{g_m r_\pi}{1 + j\omega r_\pi(C_\pi + C_\mu)} \text{ if } \omega C_\mu \ll g_m$$

See the Bode plot of short-circuit current gain magnitude. The corner frequency, beta cutoff frequency (f_{β}) , is given by,

$$f_{\beta} = \frac{1}{2\pi r_{\pi}(C_{\pi} + C_{\mu})}$$



Cutoff Frequency

Note that the magnitude of current gain decreases with increasing frequency and reaches to 1 at f_T (cutoff frequency). We can write A_i in the below form:

$$A_{i} = h_{fe} = \frac{\beta_{o}}{1 + j\left(\frac{f}{f_{\beta}}\right)} \rightarrow \left|h_{fe}\right| = \frac{\beta_{o}}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f}{f_{\beta}}\right)^{2}}}$$

At f_T , $h_{fe} = 1$ and normally $\beta_o \gg 1$, $f_T \gg f_\beta$. Therefore, equation becomes

$$1 \cong \frac{\beta_o}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{f}{f_{\beta}}\right)^2}} = \frac{\beta_o f_{\beta}}{f_T} \to f_T = \beta_o f_{\beta} = \beta_o \frac{1}{2\pi r_{\pi}(C_{\pi} + C_{\mu})} = \frac{g_m}{2\pi(C_{\pi} + C_{\mu})}$$

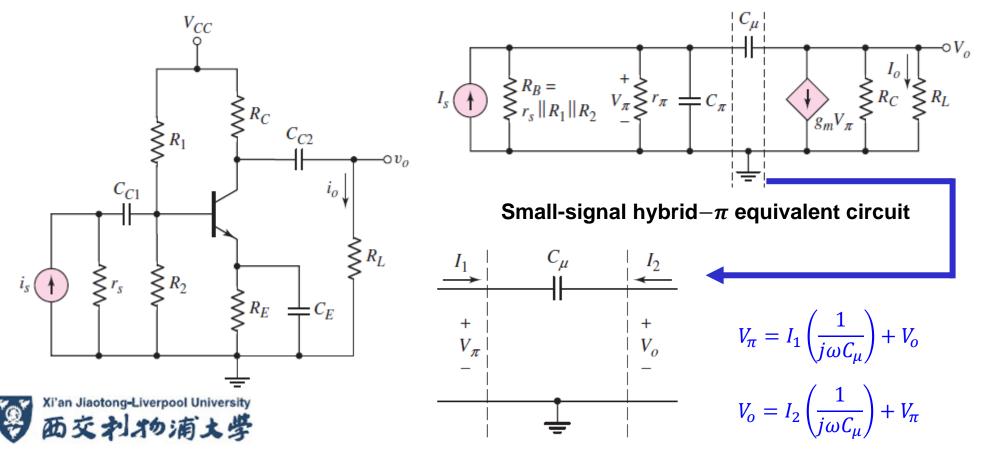
Frequency f_{β} is called the bandwidth of transistor, therefore, f_T is more commonly called as unity-gain bandwidth (or) gain bandwidth product.



Miller Effect and Miller Capacitance

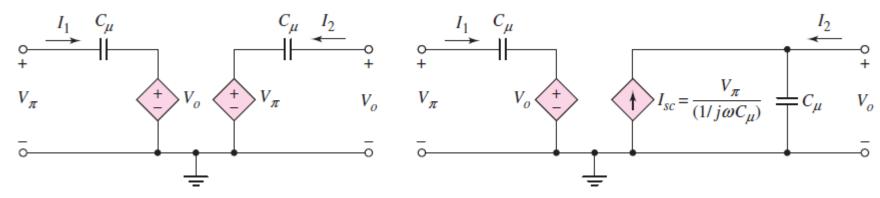
As mentioned earlier, the capacitance C_{μ} cannot really be ignored – *Miller* effect, or feedback effect, is a multiplication effect of C_{μ} in circuit applications.

✓ Assume the frequency is sufficiently high for the coupling and bypass capacitors to act as short circuits $-C_{\mu}$ connects output back to the input.



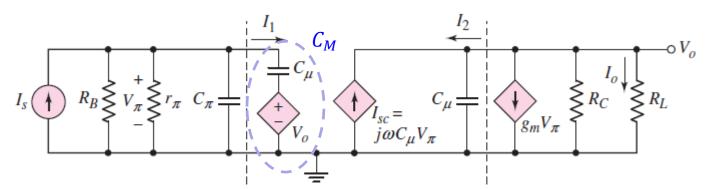
Miller Effect and Miller Capacitance

✓ Now form a two-port equivalent circuit and then convert the Thevenin equivalent circuit on the output side to Norton equivalent circuit.



Two-port equivalent circuit of C_{μ} : Thevenin Two-port equivalent circuit of C_{μ} : Norton at output

✓ Again, reconsider the original equivalent circuit and now replace the circuit segment between the dotted lines with the above Norton circuit.





Miller Effect and Miller Capacitance

Recall the expression for V_{π} and obtain the equation for I_1 as follows:

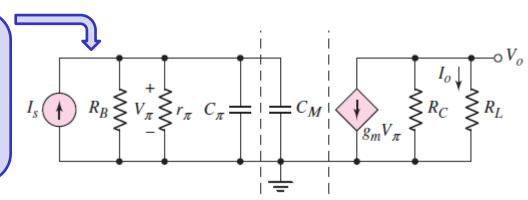
$$I_1 = \frac{V_{\pi} - V_o}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_{\mu}}} = j\omega C_{\mu} (V_{\pi} - V_o)$$

The output voltage is, $V_o = -g_m V_\pi(R_C||R_L)$

Therefore, I_1 becomes as, $I_1 = j\omega C_{\mu} [1 + g_m(R_C||R_L)]V_{\pi}$

The circuit segment between the dotted lines can be replaced by an equivalent capacitance called Miller capacitance as, $C_M = C_\mu [1 + g_m(R_C||R_L)]$ Note that the multiplication effect of C_μ is the Miller effect.

Consider the frequency of operation is very much smaller such that 1) I_{sc} is negligible compared to $g_m V_\pi$ source, 2) C_μ will be much greater than $R_C || R_L$, therefore C_μ can be considered as an open-circuit.





See you in the Final Exam (Jan 03, Friday@2 PM)

The End

