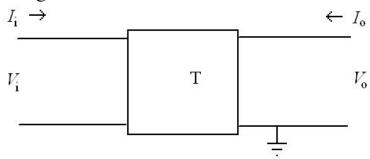
# **Lecture 7: Transistors and Amplifiers**

# **Hybrid Transistor Model for small AC:**

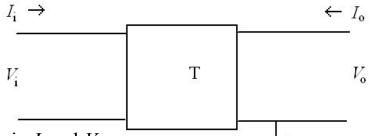
- The previous model for a transistor used one parameter ( $\beta$ , the current gain) to describe the transistor.
  - doesn't explain many features of three common forms of transistor amplifiers (common emitter etc.)
  - e.g. could not calculate the output impedance of the common emitter amp.
- Very 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
- hoo has units 1/Ω (mhos)
- $h_{ii}$  has units  $\Omega$
- 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  $I_{\rm C}$ .

- 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

## **Second subscript**

i = input impedance

e = common emitter

o = output admittance

b = common base

r = reverse voltage ratio

c = common collector

f = forward current ratio

For a common emitter amplifier we would write:

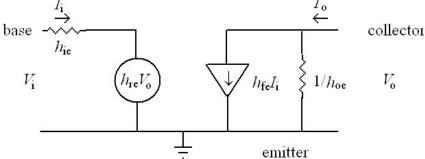
$$dV_{\rm i} = h_{\rm ie} dI_{\rm i} + h_{\rm re} dV_{\rm o}$$

$$dI_{\rm o} = h_{\rm fe} dI_{\rm i} + h_{\rm oe} dV_{\rm o}$$

• Typical values for the *h* parameters for a 2N3904 transistor in the common emitter configuration:

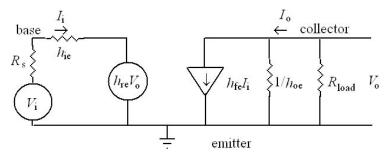
$$h_{\text{fe}} = 120, h_{\text{oe}} = 8.7 \times 10^{-6} \,\Omega^{-1}, h_{\text{ie}} = 3700 \,\Omega, h_{\text{re}} = 1.3 \times 10^{-4} \,\text{for} \,I_{\text{C}} = 1 \,\text{mA}$$

• 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  $h_{\rm re}V_{\rm o}$  independent of the current through it.
- Triangle: current source
  - the current through this element is always  $h_{\rm fe}I_{\rm in}$  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:  $G_{\rm I} = I_{\rm o}/I_{\rm in}$ 
  - Using Kirchhoff's current law at the output side we have:

$$h_{\rm fe}I_{\rm in} + V_{\rm o}h_{\rm oe} = I_{\rm o}$$

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:

$$G_{\rm I} \approx h_{\rm fe} = \beta$$

- Voltage gain:  $G_v = V_o/V_{in}$ 
  - This gain can be derived in a similar fashion as the current gain:

$$G_{\rm V} = V_{\rm o} / V_{\rm in} = -h_{\rm fe} R_{\rm load} / (\Delta R_{\rm load} + h_{\rm ie})$$
 with  $\Delta = h_{\rm ie} h_{\rm oe} - h_{\rm fe} h_{\rm re} \approx 10^{-2}$ 

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

$$G_{\rm V} = -h_{\rm fe}R_{\rm load}/h_{\rm ie} = -R_{\rm load}/r_{\rm BE}$$

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• Input Impedance:  $Z_i = V_{in}/I_{in}$ 

$$Z_i = (\Delta R_{\text{load}} + h_{\text{ie}})/(1 + h_{\text{oe}} R_{\text{load}})$$

- This reduces to a familiar form for most cases where  $\Delta R_{\text{load}} \ll h_{\text{ie}}$  and  $h_{\text{oe}} R_{\text{load}} \ll 1$   $Z_{\text{i}} = h_{\text{ie}} = h_{\text{fe}} r_{\text{BE}}$
- $Z_{\rm i} = h_{\rm ie} = h_{\rm fe} r_{\rm BE}$  Output Impedance:  $Z_{\rm o} = V_{\rm o}/I_{\rm o}$

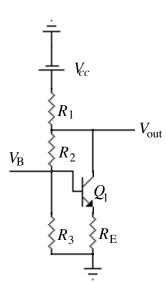
$$Z_{\rm o} = (R_{\rm s} + h_{\rm ie})/(\Delta + h_{\rm oe}R_{\rm s})$$

- $Z_0$  does not reduce to a simple expression.
- As the denominator is small,  $Z_0$  is as advertised large.

# Feedback and Amplifiers

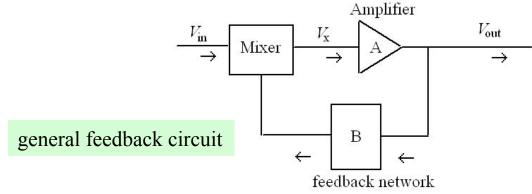
- Consider the common emitter amplifier shown.
  - This amp differs slightly from the CE amp we saw before:
    - bias resistor  $R_2$  is connected to collector resistor  $R_1$  instead of directly to  $V_{cc}$ .
  - How does this effect  $V_{\text{out}}$ ?
    - If  $V_{\text{out}}$  decreases (moves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

## 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

#### Feedback Fundamentals:



• Without feedback the output and input are related by:

$$V_{\text{out}} = AV_{\text{in}}$$

- 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:

$$V_{\rm x} = V_{\rm in} + BV_{\rm out}$$

• The gain with feedback is:

$$V_{\text{out}} = AV_{\text{x}} = A(V_{in} + BV_{\text{out}})$$

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

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A: open loop gain

Oscillation is a large fluctuation

of output signal with no input

AB: loop gain

G: closed loop gain

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- 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:

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

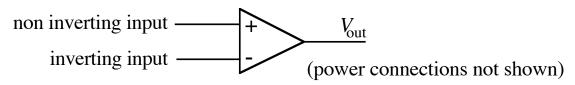
For large amplifier gain (A) the circuit properties are determined by the feedback loop.

- 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:

- circuits can be made stable with respect to variations in the transistor characteristics as long as *B* is stable.
  - o B can be made from precision components such as resistors.

# **Operational Amplifiers (Op Amps)**

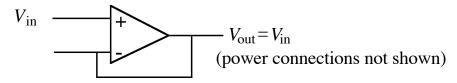
- Op amps are very high gain ( $A = 10^5$ ) differential amplifiers.
  - Differential amp has two inputs  $(V_1, V_2)$  and output  $V_{out} = A(V_1 V_2)$  where A is the amplifier gain.



- If an op amp is used without feedback and  $V_1 \neq V_2$ 
  - $V_{\rm out}$  saturates at the power supply voltage (either positive or negative supply).
- Example: Assume the maximum output swing for an op amp is  $\pm 15$  V.
  - If there is no feedback in the circuit:
    - $V_{\text{out}} = 15 \text{ V if } V_{\text{non-invert}} > V_{\text{invert}}$
    - $V_{\text{out}} = -15 \text{ V if } V_{\text{non-invert}} < V_{\text{invert}}$
- 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		<b>Real Op Amp</b> μA741	
Voltage gain (open loop)	$\infty$	$10^{5}$	
Input impedance	$\infty$	$2~\mathrm{M}\Omega$	
Output impedance	0	$75~\Omega$	
Slew rate	$\infty$	$0.5 \text{ V/}\mu\text{sec}$	Slew rate is how fast output can change
Power consumption	0	50 mW	
$V_{out}$ with $V_{in} = 0$	0	2 mV (unity gain)	
Price	0\$	\$0.25	
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- 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:

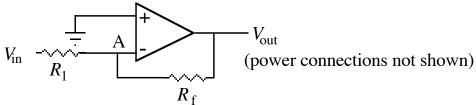


- The feedback network is just a wire connecting the output to the input.
- By rule #2, the inverting (-) input is also at  $V_{\rm in}$ .

$$V_{\text{out}} = V_{\text{in}}$$
.

- What good is this circuit?
  - Mainly as a buffer as it has high input impedance (MΩ) and low output impedance (100  $\Omega$ ).

## Inverting Amplifier:



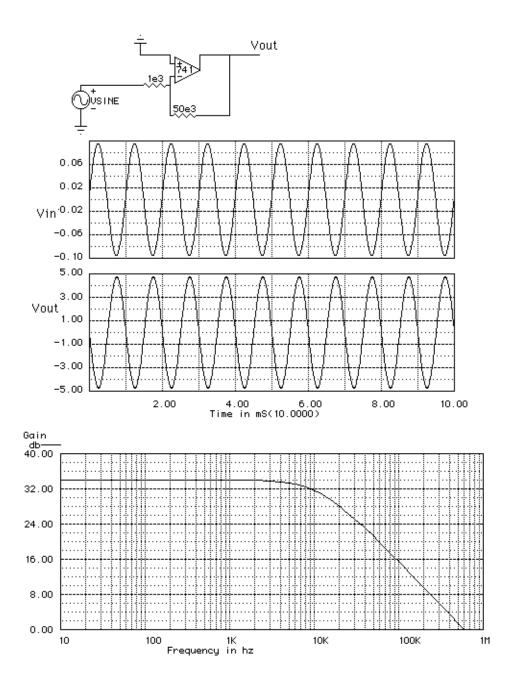
- By rule #2, point A is at ground.
- By Rule #1, no current is going into the op amp.
- We can redraw the circuit as:

$$V_{\rm in} \xrightarrow{I_{\rm in}} \xrightarrow{I_{\rm out}} V_{\rm out}$$

$$V_{\rm in}/R_1 + V_{\rm out}/R_{\rm f} = 0$$

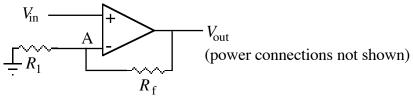
$$V_{\rm out} / V_{\rm in} = -R_{\rm f} / R_1$$

- 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:

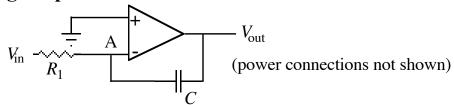


- By rule #2, point A is  $V_{in}$ .
- By Rule #1, no current is going into the op amp.
- We can redraw the circuit as:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
I_{\text{in}} & \longrightarrow & V_{\text{in}} & \longleftarrow & I_{\text{out}} \\
& & \times & & \times & & \times & V_{\text{out}} \\
& & \times & & \times & & \times & & X_{\text{f}} \\
V_{\text{in}} / R_1 + (V_{\text{in}} - V_{\text{out}}) / R_f &= 0 \\
V_{\text{out}} / V_{\text{in}} &= (R_1 + R_f) / R_1
\end{array}$$

- 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:

$$V_{\text{in}} \xrightarrow{I_{\text{in}}} \xrightarrow{} \underbrace{\frac{I_{\text{out}}}{C}}_{C} V_{\text{out}}$$

$$\frac{V_{\text{in}}}{R_{1}} + \frac{dQ}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{V_{\text{in}}}{R_{1}} + C \frac{dV_{\text{out}}}{dt} = 0$$

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

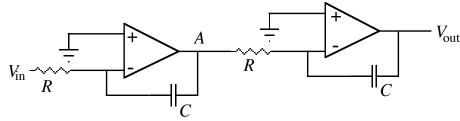
- The output voltage is related to the integral of the input voltage.
- $\Box$  The negative sign in the gain means that  $V_{\rm in}$  and  $V_{\rm out}$  have opposite polarity.

## 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:

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

The output voltage  $(V_{\text{out}})$  is the integral of  $V_{\text{A}}$ :

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

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