

SECTION 3: BJT AMPLIFIERS

ECE 322 – Electronics I

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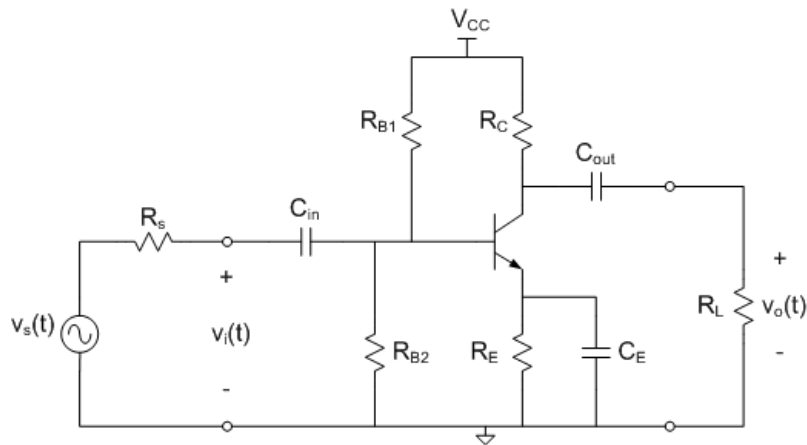
BJT Amplifier Circuits

Transistor Amplifier Circuits – Preview

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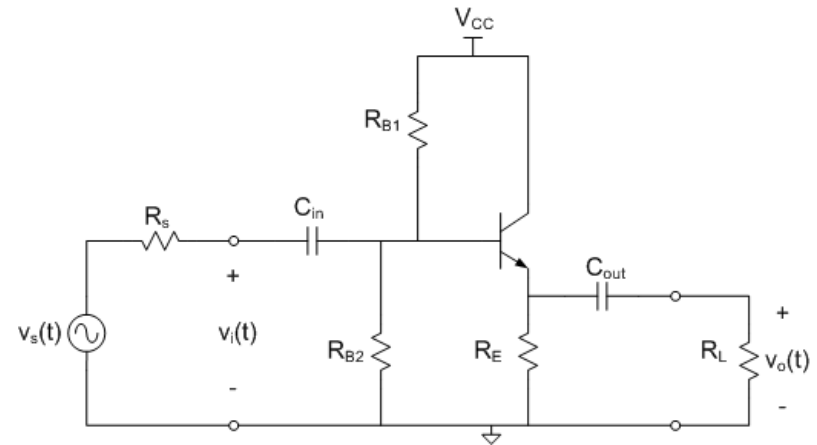
- In this section of the course, we will look at three BJT amplifiers, with a focus on the following two circuits:

Common-Emitter Amplifier:



- High voltage gain
- An amplifier

Emitter-Follower Amplifier:



- Near unity gain
- A buffer

BJT Amplifier Circuits

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- Recall the two functional pieces of a BJT amplifier:

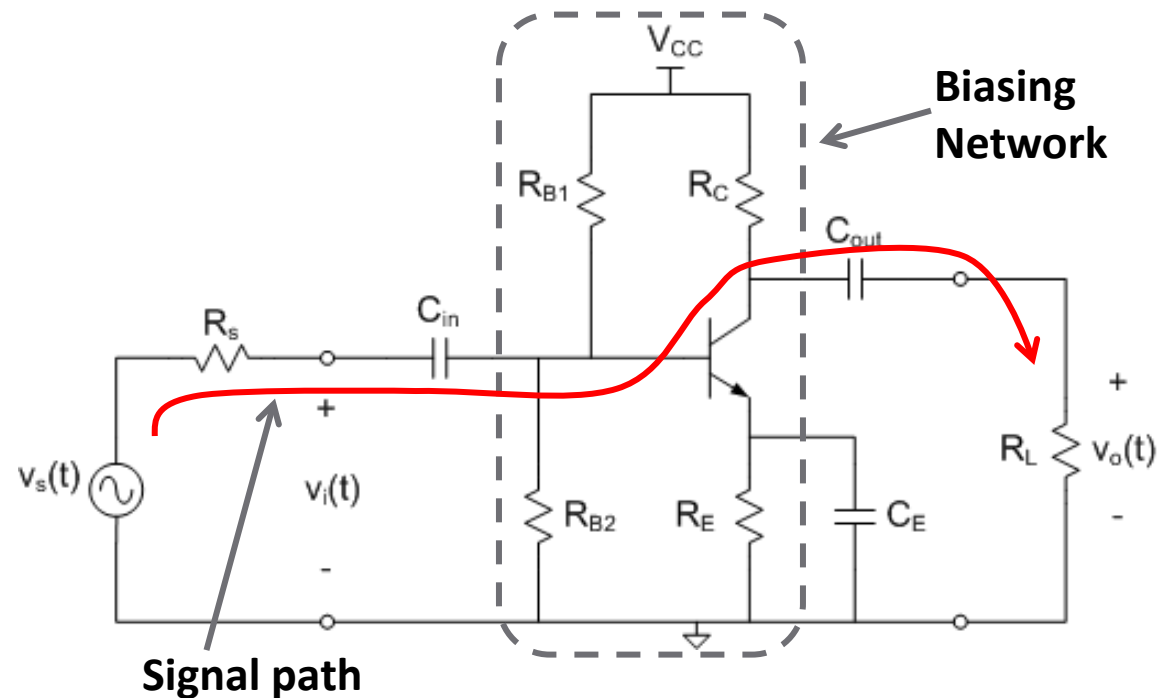
- ***Bias network***

- Sets the DC operating point of the transistor
- Ensures the BJT remains in the forward-active region

- ***Signal path***

- Sets the gain of the amplifier circuit

- Significant overlap between the two parts



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BJT Amplifier Biasing

BJT Amplifier Biasing

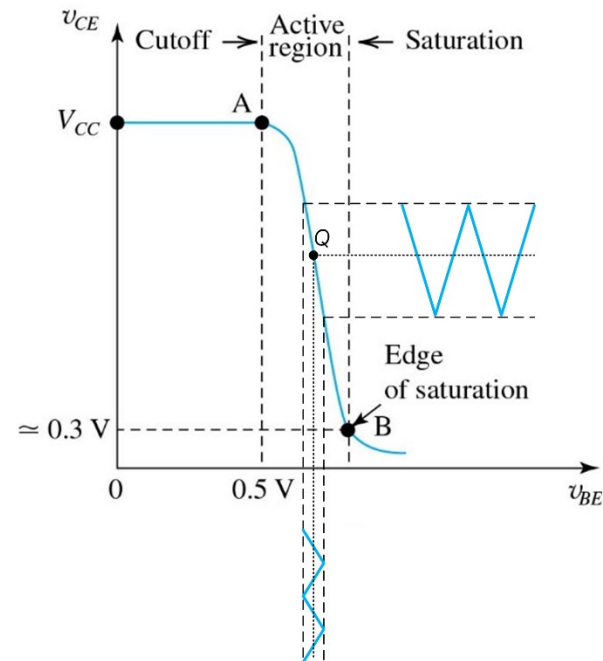
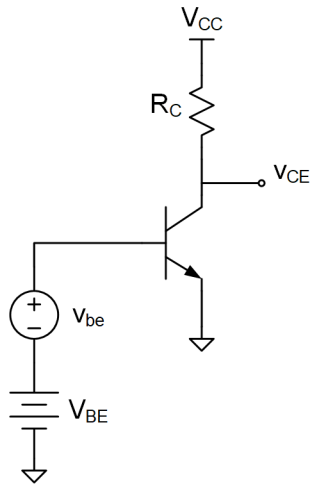
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- To function as an amplifier, a transistor must be biased in the ***forward-active region***
- DC operating point set by the ***bias network***
 - ▣ Resistors and power supply voltages
 - ▣ Sets the transistor's ***DC terminal voltages and currents*** – its DC bias
- How a transistor is ***biased*** determines:
 - ▣ Small-signal characteristics
 - ▣ Small-signal model parameters
 - ▣ How it will behave as an amplifier

Voltage Transfer Characteristic

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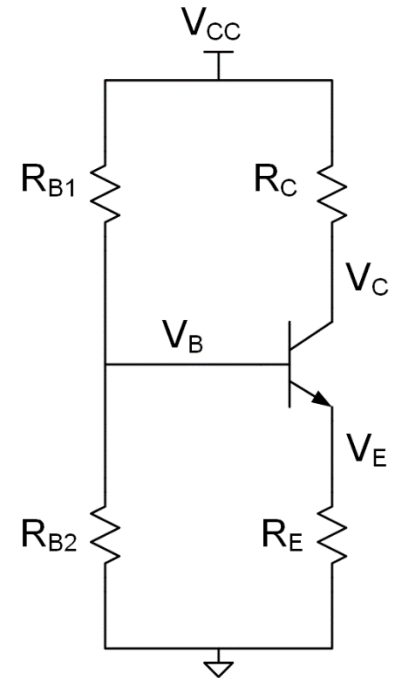
- BJT amplifier biased in the middle of its linear region
- Slope of the large-signal transfer characteristic gives the amplifier gain
 - ▣ Negative slope – gain is inverting
 - ▣ Small input signals yield larger output signals
 - ▣ Slope is nearly linear in this region



BJT Biasing – Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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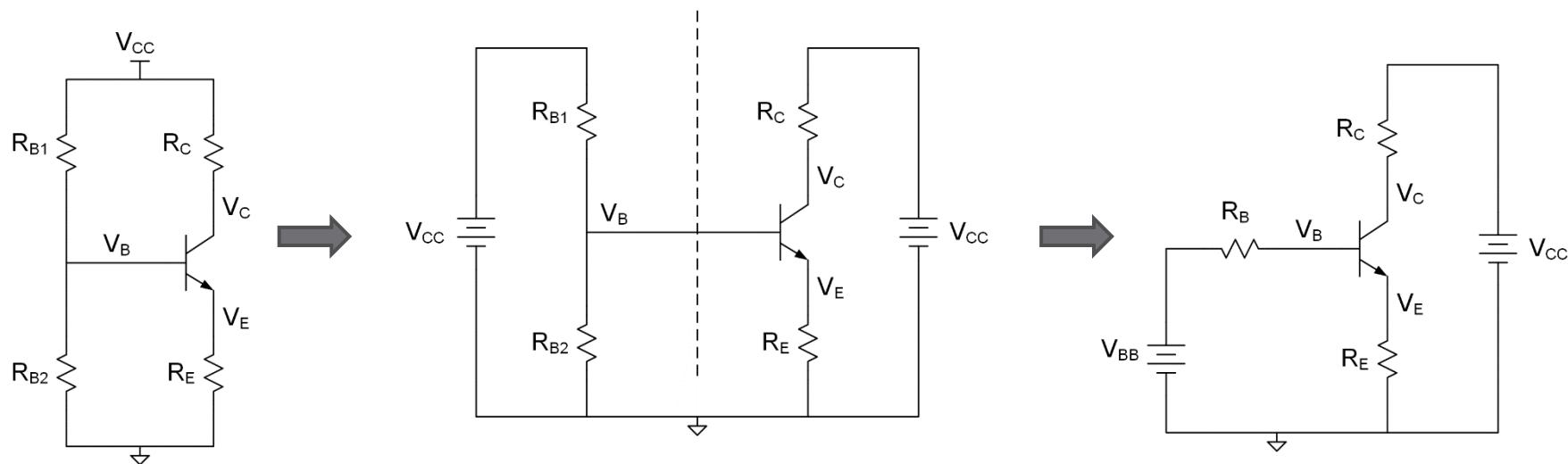
- **Four-resistor bias circuit:**
 - ▣ Commonly-used for both **common-emitter** amplifiers and **emitter-followers**
 - ▣ Single power supply or bipolar supply
- Provides **nearly- β -independent biasing**
 - ▣ β is often unknown and may be variable
 - ▣ DC operating point stays nearly constant as β changes
- Analyze the bias circuit by replacing the transistor with its large-signal model



Analysis of the Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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- To analyze the bias circuit, replace the transistor with its large-signal model
- First, simplify by replacing the base network with its Thevenin equivalent



$$V_{BB} = V_{CC} \frac{R_{B2}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}}, \quad R_B = \frac{R_{B1} R_{B2}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}}$$

Analysis of the Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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- Replace the transistor with its large-signal model
- Apply KVL around the B-E loop:

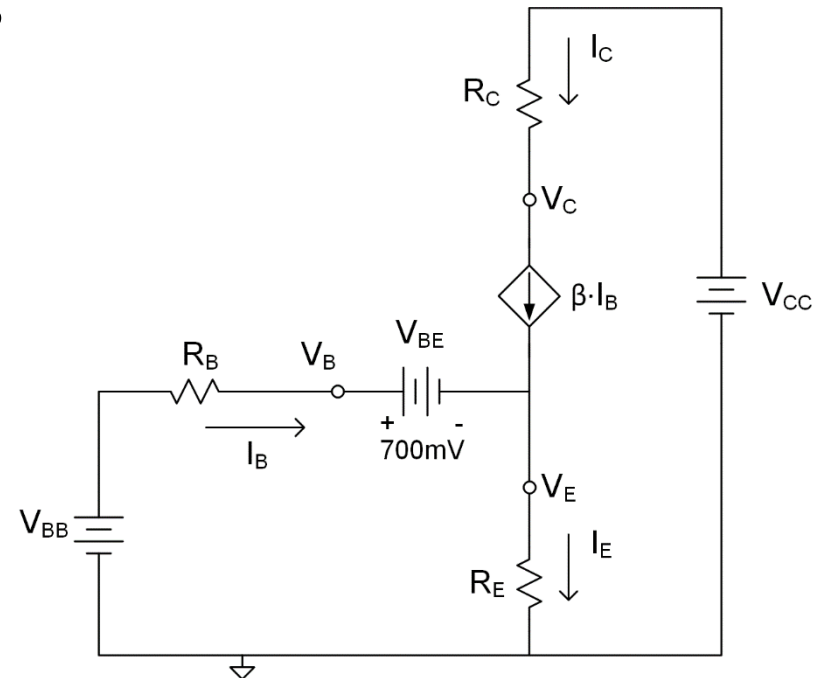
$$V_{BB} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

- Express I_E in terms of I_B , then solve for I_B :

$$I_E = (\beta + 1)I_B$$

$$V_{BB} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} - (\beta + 1)I_B R_E = 0$$

$$I_B = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_B + (\beta + 1)R_E}$$



Analysis of the Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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- Get I_C and I_E from I_B

$$I_C = \beta I_B$$

$$I_E = (\beta + 1)I_B$$

- Use currents to calculate terminal voltages:

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

$$V_E = I_E R_E = V_B - V_{BE}$$

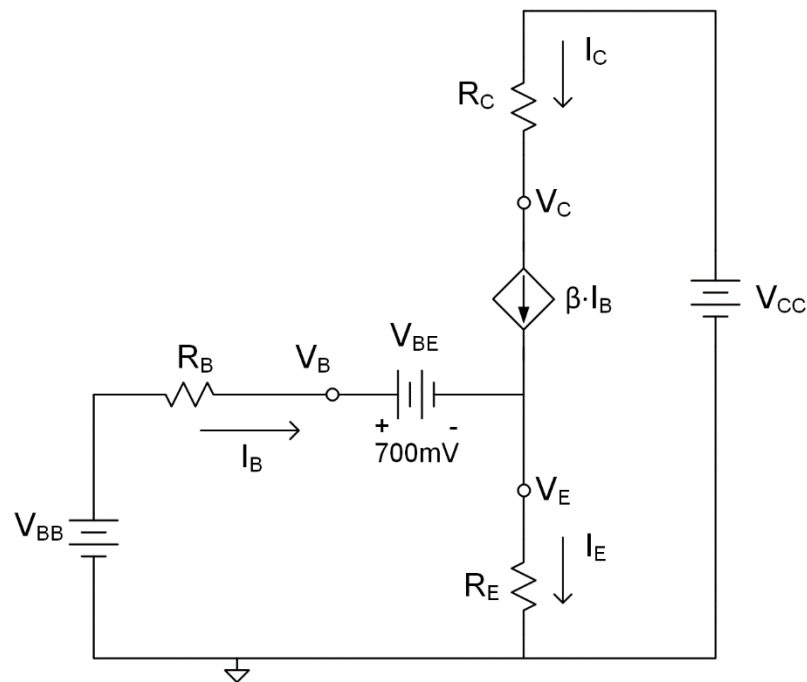
$$V_B = V_{BB} - I_B R_B = V_E + V_{BE}$$

- Verify that the transistor is biased in the forward active region:

- $V_{BE} > 0$

- $V_{BC} < 0$

- Next, we'll use the DC operating point to determine small-signal model parameters and a small-signal equivalent circuit



Design of the Four-Resistor Bias Network

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- Design the bias network for bias current that is ***independent of β and temperature variation***

- ***β independence***

- Changes in base current do not affect bias current
- Current in the base bias resistors (R_{B1} and R_{B2}) must be much larger than the base current

$$I_{R_{B1,2}} \gg I_B$$

- Set resistive divider current in same order of magnitude as bias current

$$0.1I_E \leq I_{R_{B1,2}} \leq I_E$$

- ***Temperature independence***

- Changes in B-E voltage with temperature do not affect bias current
- Set base voltage much larger than B-E voltage

$$V_B \gg V_{BE}$$

Design of the Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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□ **Rule of thumb for designing a bias network:**

- Select R_{B1} and R_{B2} to conduct approximately 1/10 of the desired bias current

$$\frac{V_{CC}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}} \approx 0.1I_E$$

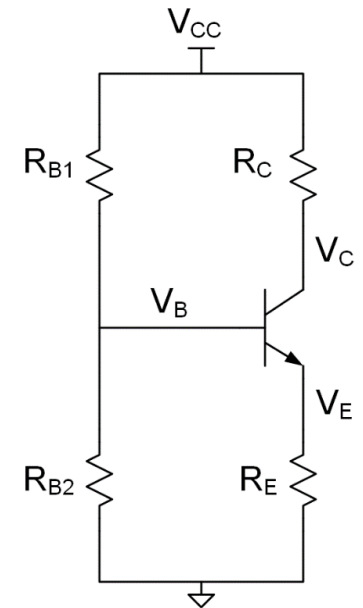
- Set V_{BB} to approximately 1/3 of the supply voltage

$$V_{BB} \approx \frac{V_{CC}}{3}$$

$$\frac{R_{B2}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}} \approx \frac{1}{3}$$

- Select R_C to drop approximately 1/3 of the supply voltage

$$R_C \approx \frac{V_{CC}/3}{I_C}$$



Design of the Four-Resistor Bias Circuit

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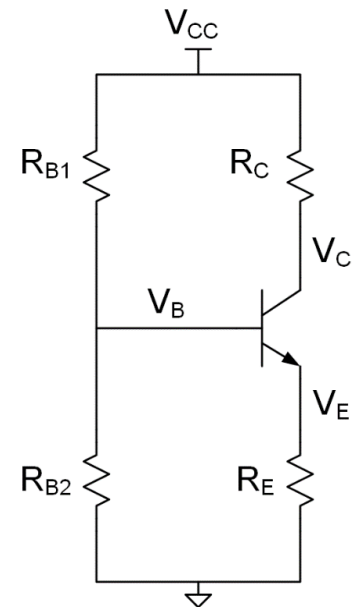
□ **Rule of thumb for designing a bias network** (continued):

- Determine R_E to provide the desired bias current

$$R_E = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{I_E} - \frac{R_B}{\beta + 1}$$

□ This configuration provides approximately:

- $V_{CC}/3$ across R_C
 - $V_{CC}/3$ across the C-B junction
 - $V_{CC}/3$ at the base (or, roughly, across R_E)
-
- v_o can swing approximately:
 - $V_{CC}/3$ in the positive direction, before cutoff
 - $V_{CC}/3$ in the negative direction, before saturation



Bias Circuit Design - Example

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- Design the bias network to provide $I_E = 1 \text{ mA}$
- Set R_{B1} and R_{B2} to conduct approximately $0.1I_E$

$$\frac{V_{CC}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}} = 0.1I_E = 100 \mu\text{A}$$

$$R_{B1} + R_{B2} = \frac{15 \text{ V}}{100 \mu\text{A}} = 150 \text{ k}\Omega$$

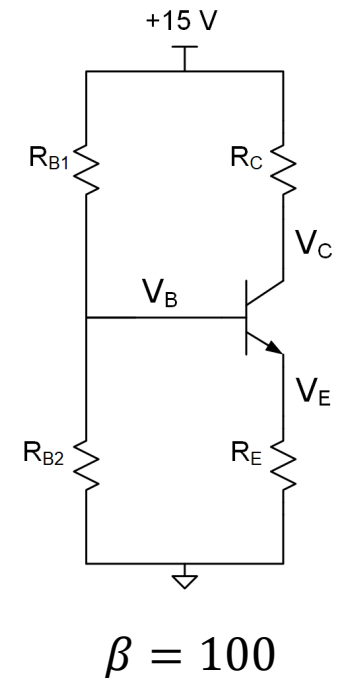
- Determine R_{B1} and R_{B2} to set $V_{BB} \approx V_{CC}/3$

$$\frac{R_{B2}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}} = 1/3$$

$$R_{B1} = 2R_{B2}$$

$$R_{B1} = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$R_{B2} = 50 \text{ k}\Omega$$



Bias Circuit Design - Example

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- Select R_C to drop approximately 1/3 of the supply voltage

$$R_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{3} = \frac{5 V}{1 mA}$$

$$R_C = 5 k\Omega$$

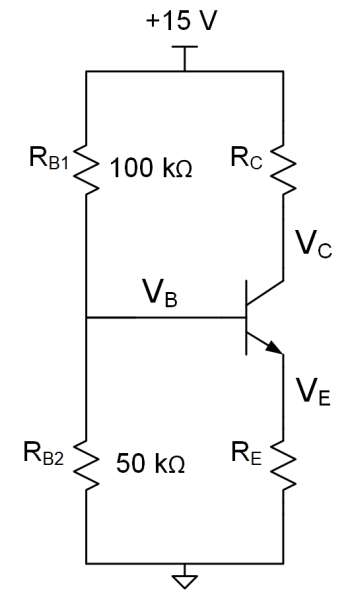
- Finally, determine R_E to provide the desired bias current

$$R_E = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{I_E} - \frac{R_B}{\beta + 1}$$

$$R_E = \frac{(5 V - 700 mV)}{1 mA} - \frac{(100 k\Omega || 50 k\Omega)}{101}$$

$$R_E = 4.3 k\Omega - 330 \Omega$$

$$R_E = 3.97 k\Omega$$



$$\beta = 100$$

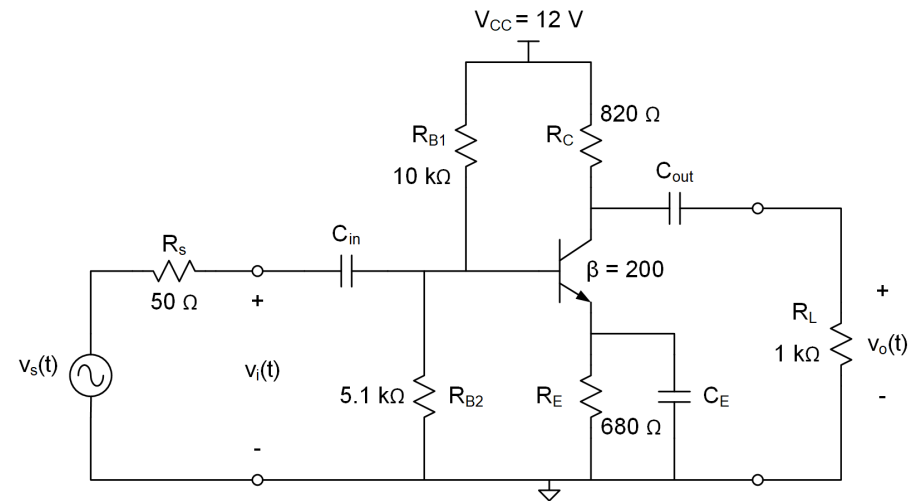
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Common-Emitter Amplifier

Common-Emitter Amplifier

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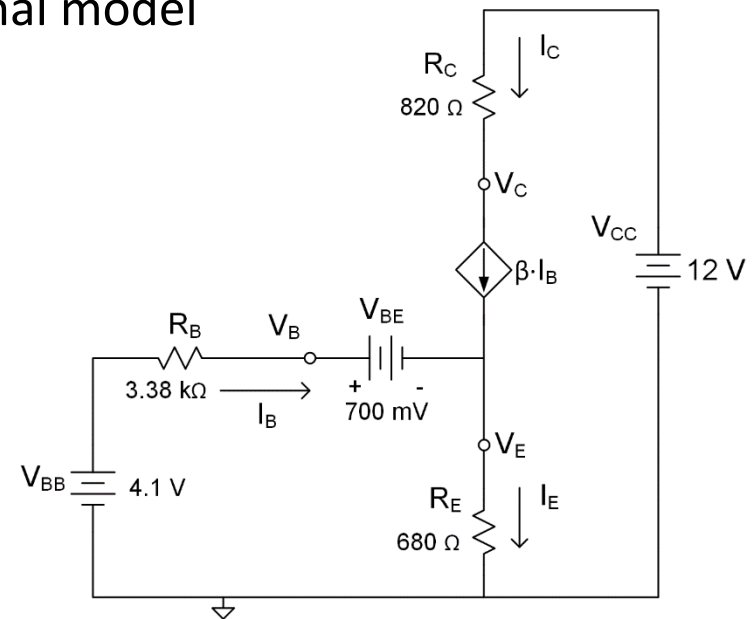
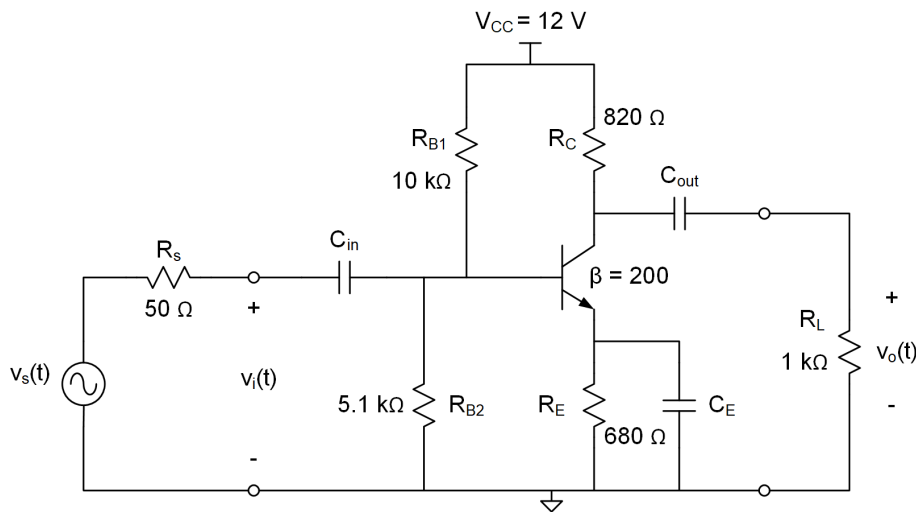
- Common-emitter amplifier
- All capacitors are **AC-coupling/DC blocking capacitors**
 - ▣ Open at DC
 - ▣ Shorts at signal frequencies
 - ▣ Isolate transistor bias from source/load
- Called *common*-emitter, because emitter is connected to common – i.e., ground or a power supply
 - ▣ C_E is a small-signal short to ground
 - ▣ Emitter is at small-signal ground



Common-Emitter Amplifier

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- Analyze the amplifier to find:
 - DC operating point
 - Small-signal voltage gain
- **Large-signal (DC) equivalent circuit:**
 - Replace all capacitors with open circuits
 - Simplify the base bias network
 - Replace the transistor with its large-signal model



C-E Amplifier – Large-Signal Analysis

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- As we have seen, base current is given by

$$I_B = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_B + (\beta + 1)R_E} = \frac{4.1 \text{ V} - 700 \text{ mV}}{3.38 \text{ k}\Omega + 201 \cdot 680 \text{ }\Omega} = 24.3 \text{ }\mu\text{A}$$

- Use I_B to get I_C and I_E

$$I_C = \beta I_B = 200 \cdot 24.3 \text{ }\mu\text{A} = 4.9 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_E = (\beta + 1)I_B = 201 \cdot 24.3 \text{ }\mu\text{A} = 4.9 \text{ mA}$$

- Next, use currents to determine terminal voltages

$$V_B = V_{BB} - I_B R_B = 4.1 \text{ V} - 24.3 \text{ }\mu\text{A} \cdot 3.38 \text{ k}\Omega = 4.02 \text{ V}$$

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 12 \text{ V} - 4.9 \text{ mA} \cdot 820 \text{ }\Omega = 7.98 \text{ V}$$

$$V_E = I_E R_E = 4.9 \text{ mA} \cdot 680 \text{ }\Omega = 3.33 \text{ V}$$

C-E Amplifier – Large-Signal Analysis

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- The complete DC operating point:

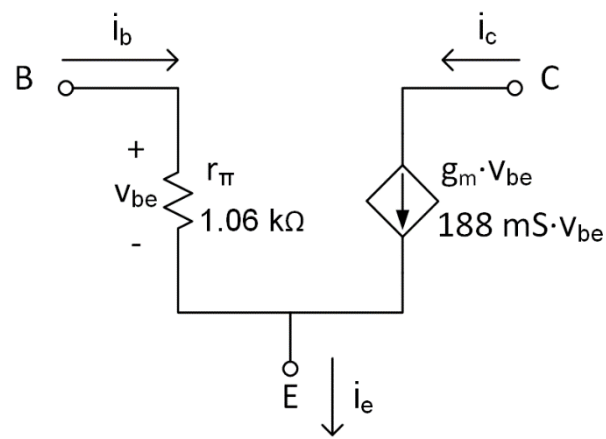
$$\begin{array}{ll} I_B = 24.3 \mu A & V_B = 4.02 V \\ I_C = 4.9 mA & V_C = 7.98 V \\ I_E = 4.9 mA & V_E = 3.33 V \end{array}$$

- Use the operating point to determine small-signal model parameters

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_{th}} = \frac{4.9 mA}{26 mV} = 188 mS$$

$$r_{\pi} = \frac{\beta}{g_m} = 200 \cdot \frac{V_{th}}{I_C} = 1.06 k\Omega$$

$$r_e = \frac{r_{\pi}}{\beta + 1} = 5.28 \Omega$$



C-E Amplifier – Small-Signal Analysis

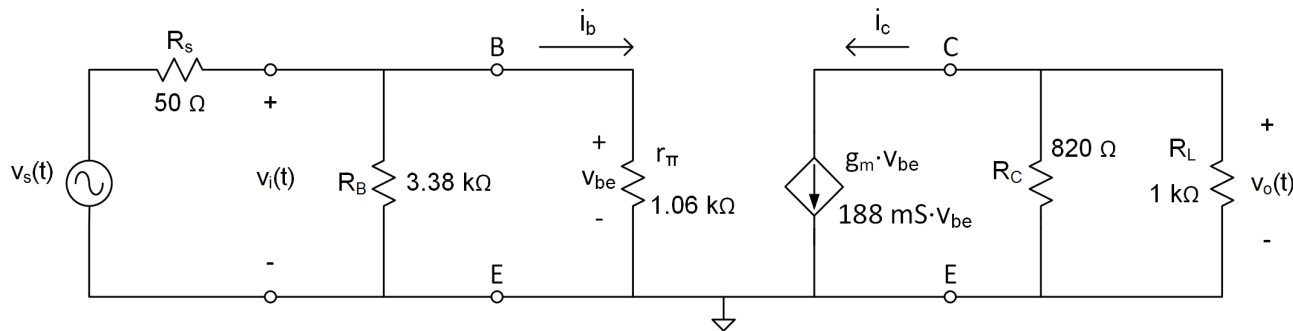
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- The DC operating point allowed us to determine the small-signal model for the transistor
- Next, create the ***small-signal equivalent circuit*** for the amplifier and perform a ***small-signal analysis***
- ***Small signal analysis:***
 1. Replace all AC coupling capacitors with shorts
 - Large enough to look like shorts at signal frequencies
 2. Connect all DC supply voltages to ground
 - From a small-signal perspective these are all constant voltages
 - Small-signal ground
 3. Replace the transistor with its small-signal model

C-E Amplifier – Small-Signal Analysis

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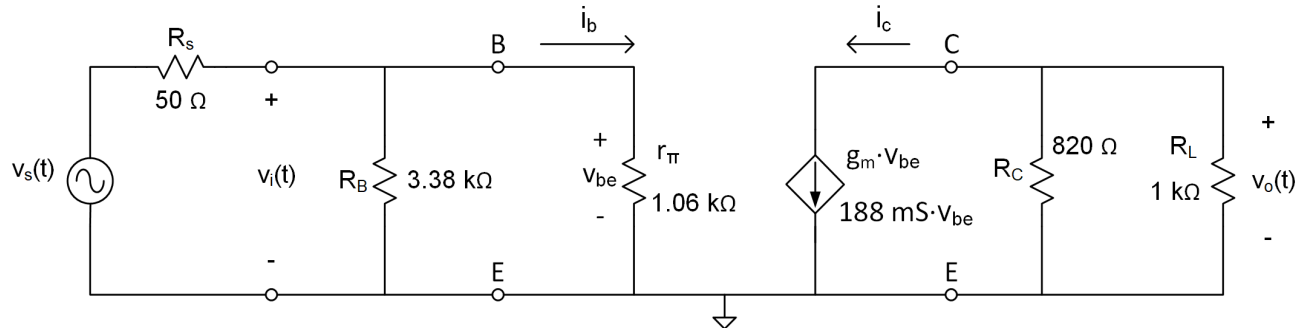
- Small-signal equivalent circuit
 - ▣ Use to determine small-signal voltage gain



- Emitter connected to ground
 - ▣ Emitter capacitor, C_E , is a small-signal short
- R_B is in parallel with r_π , and both connect to ground
- R_C is in parallel with R_L , and both connect to ground
- Input voltage, $v_i(t)$, appears across r_π and is the same as v_{be}
- The transistor is a **transconductance** device
 - ▣ Input voltage, v_{be} , creates output current, i_c

C-E Amplifier – Small-Signal Analysis

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- Determine the small-signal voltage gain:

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} \quad (1)$$

- The input is applied across the B-E junction, so

$$v_{be} = v_i \quad (2)$$

- The output is the collector current applied across the output resistance

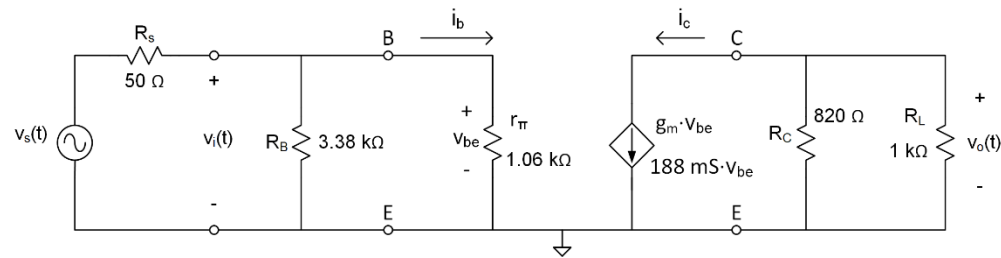
$$v_o = -i_c R_o = -g_m v_{be} R_o \quad (3)$$

where R_o is the total resistance seen by the collector:

$$R_o = R_C || R_L = \frac{R_C R_L}{R_C + R_L} \quad (4)$$

C-E Amplifier – Small-Signal Analysis

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- Substituting (4) and (2) into (3), we have

$$v_o = -g_m v_i R_o = -v_i \cdot g_m (R_C || R_L) \quad (5)$$

- The amplifier gain:

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_m (R_C || R_L) = -g_m R_o \quad (6)$$

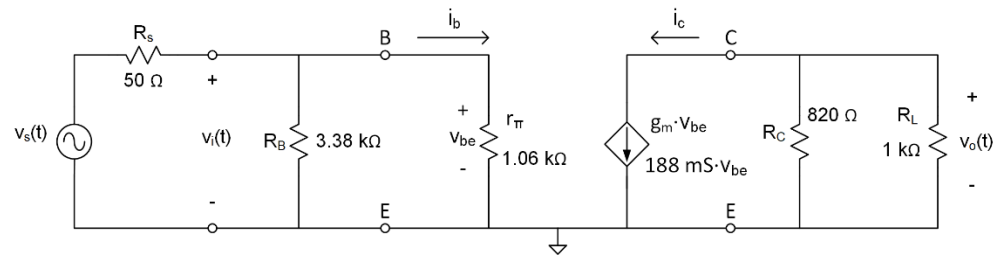
- This is the gain for *any* common-emitter amplifier

$$A_v = -g_m R_o$$

- The negative sign indicates that the amplifier has ***inverting*** gain

C-E Amplifier – Small-Signal Analysis

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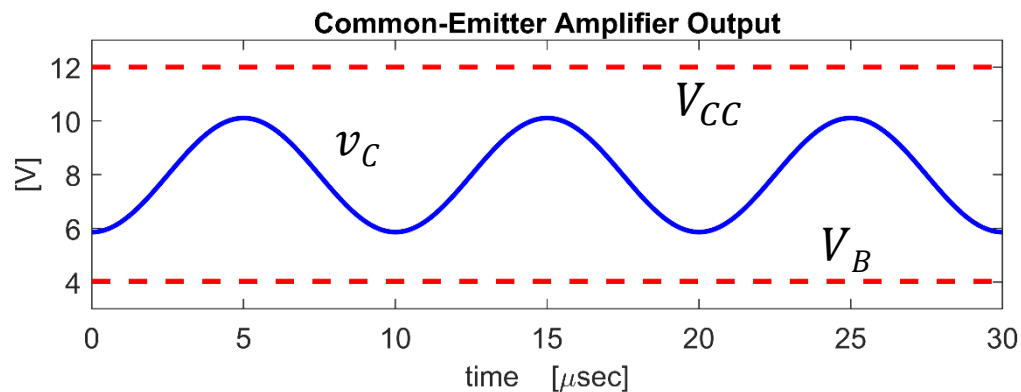
- For this circuit, the output resistance is

$$R_o = R_C || R_L = 820 \Omega || 1 \text{ k}\Omega = 451 \Omega$$

- The gain is

$$A_v = -188 \text{ mS} \cdot 451 \Omega = -84.7$$

- The output for a 50 mV_{pp} , 100 kHz input:

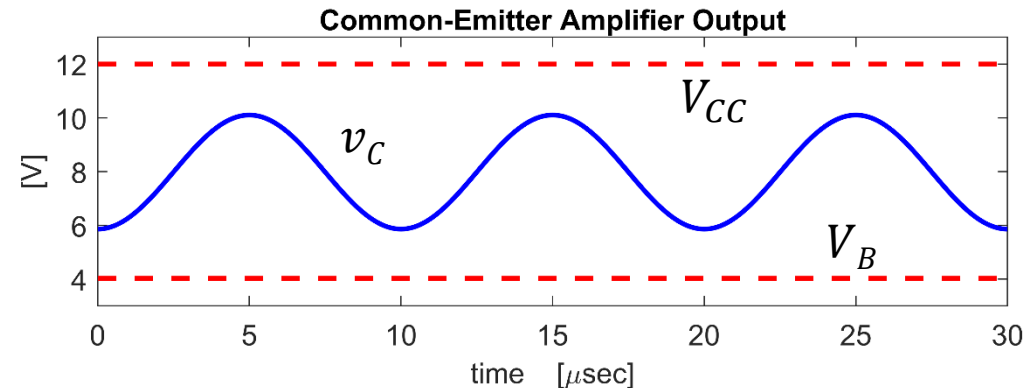


C-E Amplifier – Dynamic Range

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□ *Dynamic range*

- Range of input or output signal for which the transistor remains in the **forward-active region**
- The amplifier's **linear range**



□ For forward-active bias:

- B-C junction must remain reverse biased

$$v_{BC} < 0$$

- Total collector voltage must remain above the base voltage

$$v_C > v_B$$

- Collector cannot enter the cutoff region

$$I_C > 0, v_C < V_{CC}$$

C-E Amplifier – Dynamic Range

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- Optimal collector bias
 - DC collector voltage halfway between the base voltage and supply

$$V_C = \frac{(V_{CC} + V_B)}{2}$$

- Output can swing positive and negative equal amounts
- Then, the output dynamic range is

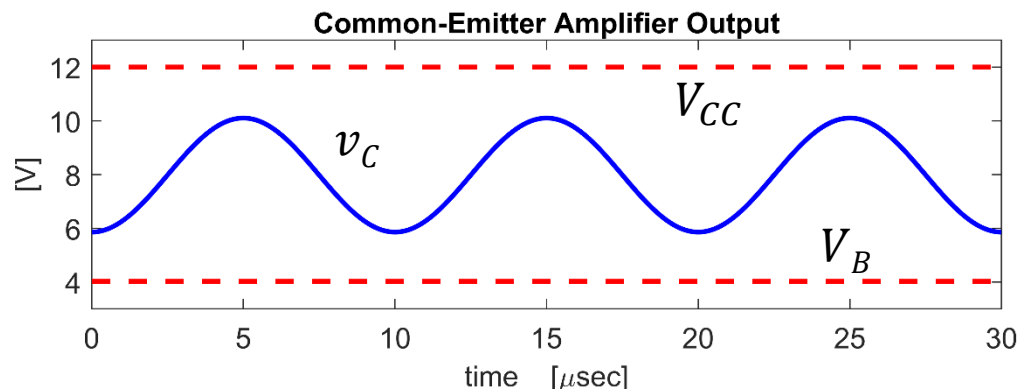
$$v_{opp} < (V_{CC} - V_B)$$

- The input is smaller than the output by the gain factor, so

$$v_{ipp} < \frac{(V_{CC} - V_B)}{A_v}$$

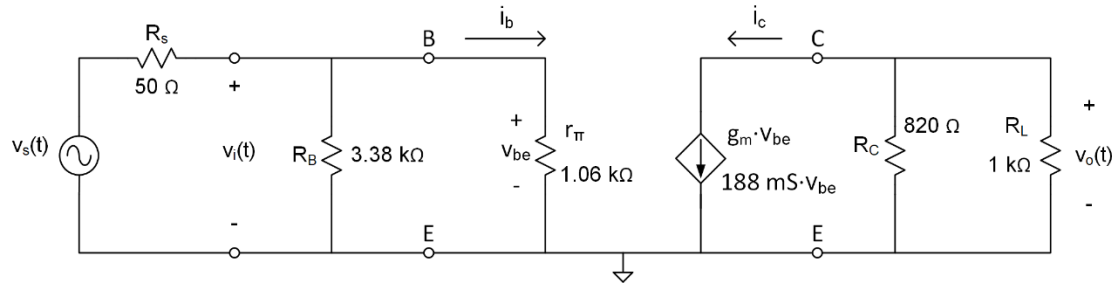
- Here,

$$v_{opp} < 8 V \quad \text{and} \quad v_{ipp} < 94.5 mV$$



C-E Amplifier – Gain from $v_s(t)$

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- If, instead, we want gain from other side of source resistance, v_s to v_o , we must account for source loading
 - ▣ Cascade of gain from v_s to v_i with gain from v_i to v_o

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_s} = \frac{v_i}{v_s} \cdot \frac{v_o}{v_i}$$

- Voltage division from v_s to v_i

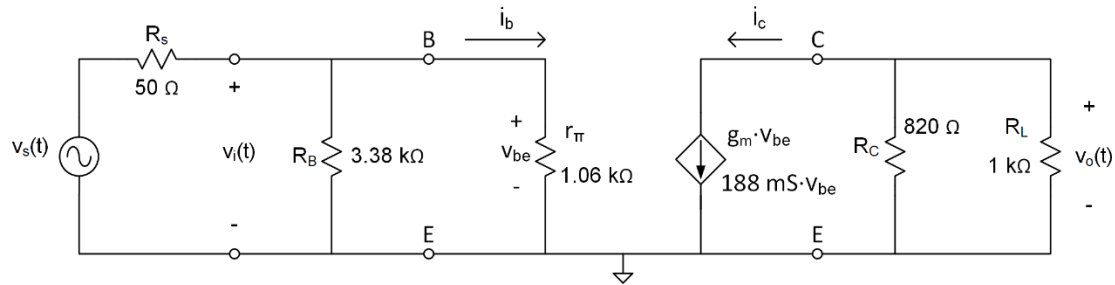
$$\frac{v_i}{v_s} = \frac{R_B || r_\pi}{R_s + R_B || r_\pi} = \frac{R_i}{R_s + R_i}$$

- Overall gain is now

$$A_v = -\frac{R_i}{R_s + R_i} g_m R_o$$

C-E Amplifier – Input Resistance

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- **Input resistance** is an important property of any amplifier
- For the C-E amplifier,

$$R_i = R_B || r_\pi$$

$$R_i = R_B || \frac{\beta}{g_m}$$

$$R_i = R_B || \frac{\beta V_{th}}{I_C}$$

- Dependent on β and I_C

C-E Amplifier – Analysis with T-Model

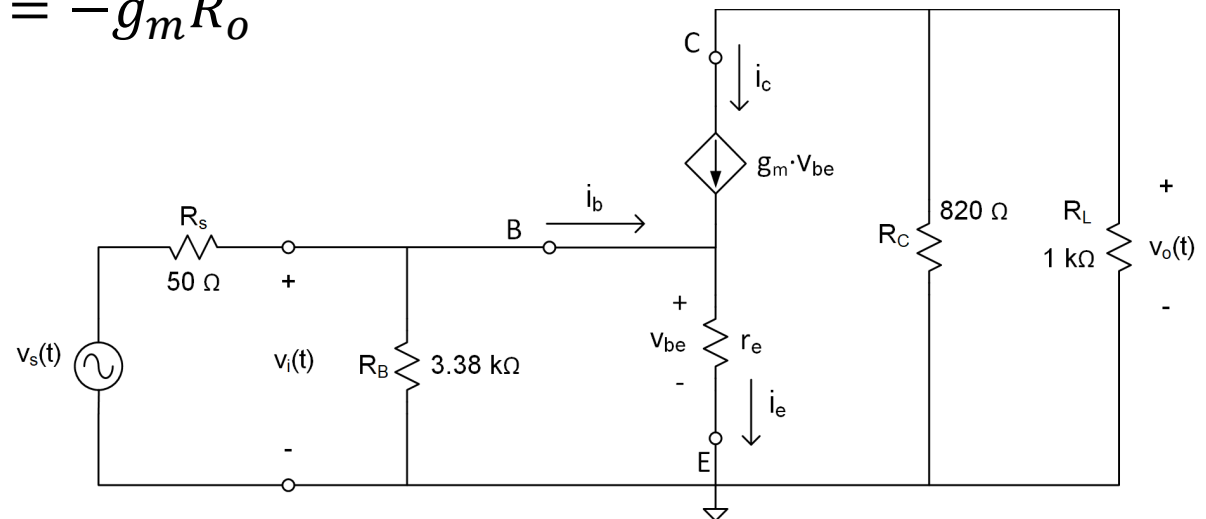
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- We used the hybrid- π model for small-signal analysis
 - ▣ Could also use the T-model
- Result is the same:

$$v_o = -i_c R_o = -g_m v_{be} R_o$$

$$v_o = -g_m R_o \cdot v_i$$

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i} = -g_m R_o$$



C-E Amplifier – Gain

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$$A_v = -g_m R_o$$

- C-E gain is **determined by g_m and R_o**
 - ▣ Select R_o (R_C) for desired gain
 - ▣ Transconductance is proportional to bias current

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_{th}}$$

- Therefore, **gain is proportional to bias current**
- ▣ Transconductance is inversely proportional to temperature

$$g_m = \frac{I_C q}{kT}$$

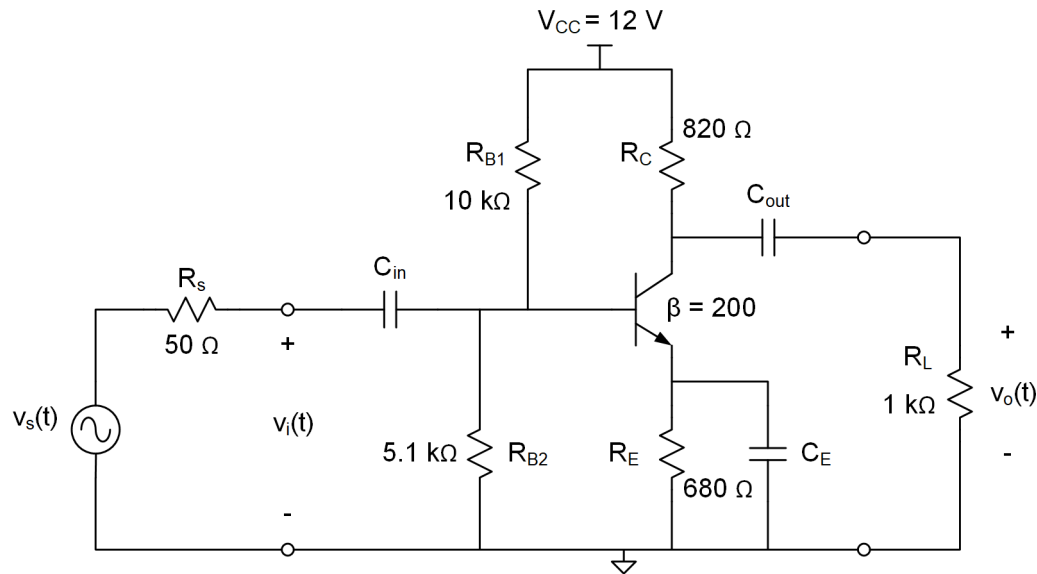
- Therefore, **gain is inversely proportional to temperature**

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Emitter Degeneration

C-E Amplifier – Emitter Degeneration

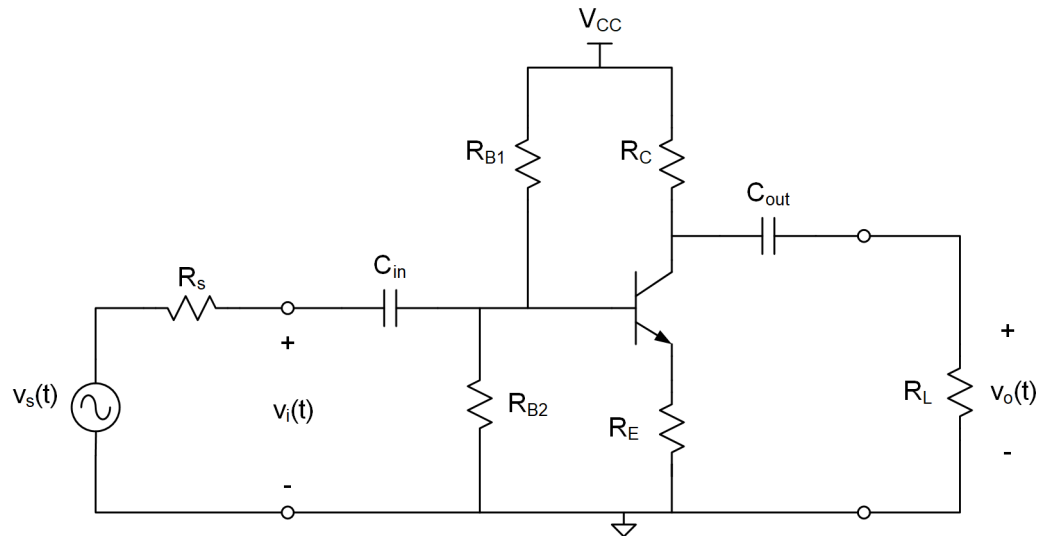
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- The C-E amplifier we have looked at so far had its emitter grounded (small-signal ground)
 - Due to bypass capacitor, C_E , around R_E
- What if we remove C_E ?
 - Or add another emitter resistor not bypassed by C_E
 - ***Emitter degeneration***

C-E Amplifier – Emitter Degeneration

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- Now, R_E is included in the small signal equivalent circuit
 - ▣ Emitter is no longer connected to small-signal ground
- Analysis will be simplified if we use the T-model
 - ▣ Usually the case whenever we have emitter resistance
 - ▣ R_E will be in series with r_e from the model

C-E Amplifier – Emitter Degeneration

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- The output is still given by

$$v_o = -i_C R_o = -g_m v_{be} R_o$$

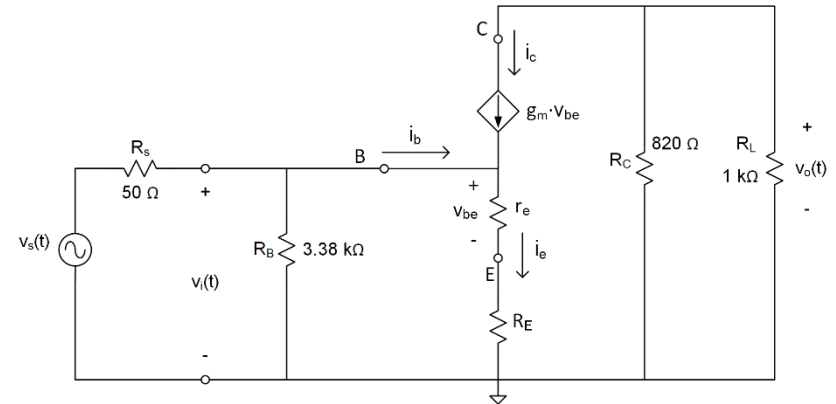
- But, now, v_{be} is the portion of v_i that appears across r_e

$$v_{be} = v_i \frac{r_e}{r_e + R_E}$$

$$v_{be} = v_i \frac{\frac{\alpha}{g_m}}{\frac{\alpha}{g_m} + R_E} = v_i \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + g_m R_E}$$

- The output is

$$v_o = v_i \left(-g_m R_o \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + g_m R_E} \right)$$



Emitter Degeneration – Gain

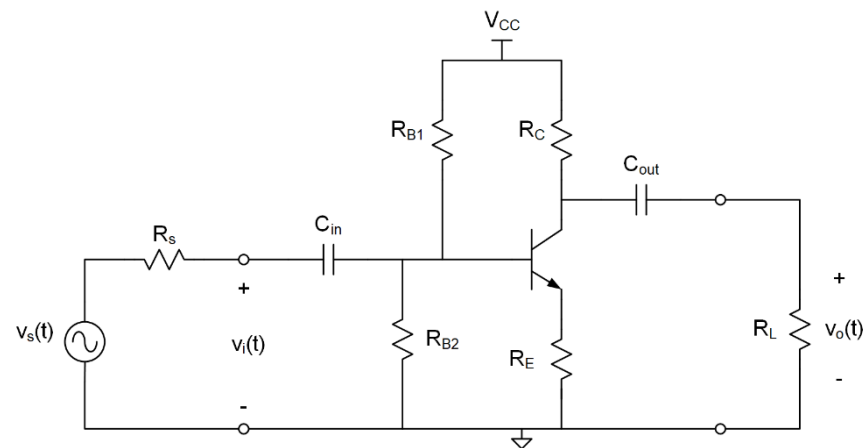
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- Rearranging the expression for the output gives the gain

$$A_v = -g_m R_o \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + g_m R_E}$$

- Recognizing that $\alpha \approx 1$, we can simplify

$$A_v \approx -\frac{g_m R_o}{1 + g_m R_E}$$



- **Emitter degeneration reduces the gain by a factor of $(1 + g_m R_E)$**
- If $R_E \gg r_e$, then $g_m R_E \gg 1$, and

$$A_v \approx -\frac{R_o}{R_E}$$

Emitter Degeneration – Transconductance

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$$A_v \approx -\frac{g_m R_o}{1 + g_m R_E}$$

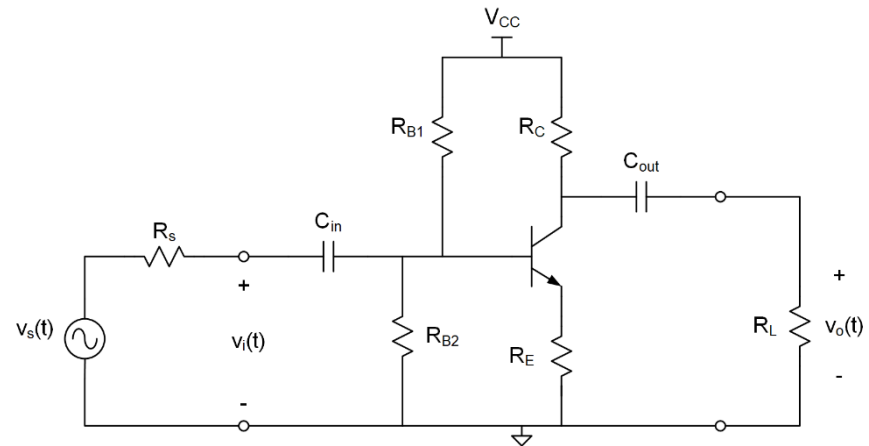
- We can rewrite the gain as

$$A_v = -G_m R_o$$

- G_m is the **effective transconductance of the amplifier**

$$G_m = \frac{g_m}{1 + g_m R_E}$$

- **Emitter degeneration reduces the transconductance by a factor of $(1 + g_m R_E)$**
 - ▣ This is why we see a reduction in gain by the same factor



Emitter Degeneration – Input Resistance

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- By definition, the input resistance (at v_i) is given by

$$R_i = \frac{v_i}{i_b}$$

- Base current is related to emitter current

$$i_b = \frac{i_e}{\beta + 1}$$

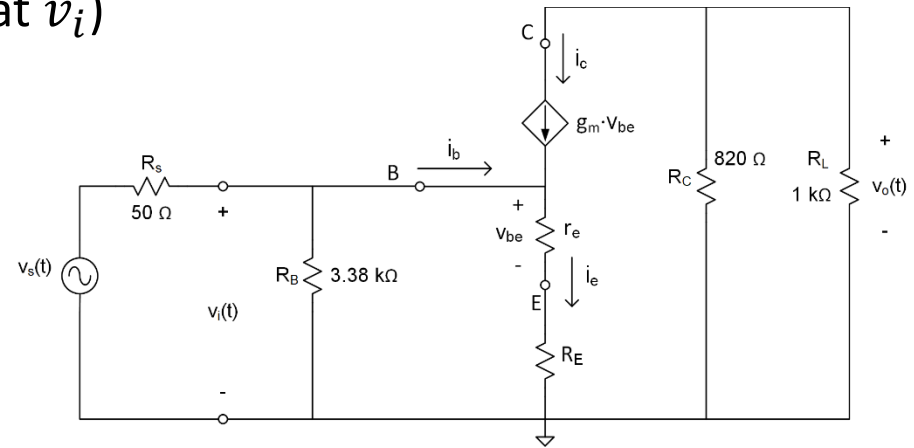
- Emitter current is

$$i_e = v_i / (r_e + R_E)$$

- Substituting into the previous expressions gives

$$R_i = \frac{v_i}{i_b} = \frac{v_i}{\frac{v_i}{(\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E)}}$$

$$R_i = (\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E)$$



Resistance Reflection Rule

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$$R_i = (\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E)$$

- Resistance reflection rule:

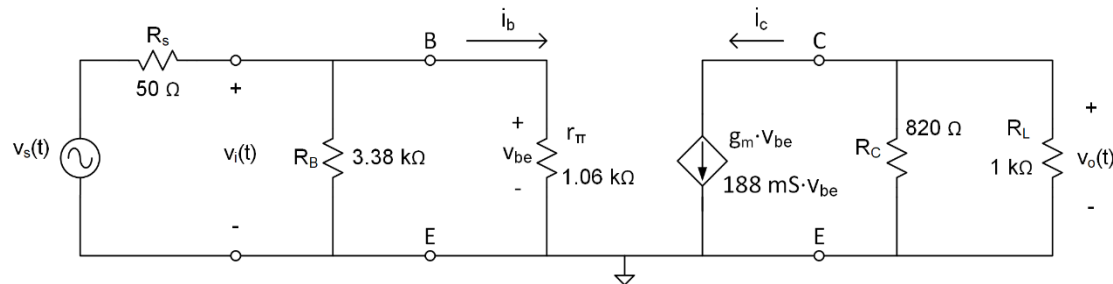
The resistance seen looking into the base is $(\beta + 1)$ times the total resistance at the emitter

- Equally applicable when $R_E = 0$:

$$R_i = (\beta + 1)r_e = r_\pi$$

- ***Base input resistance, r_π , is the reflected emitter resistance***

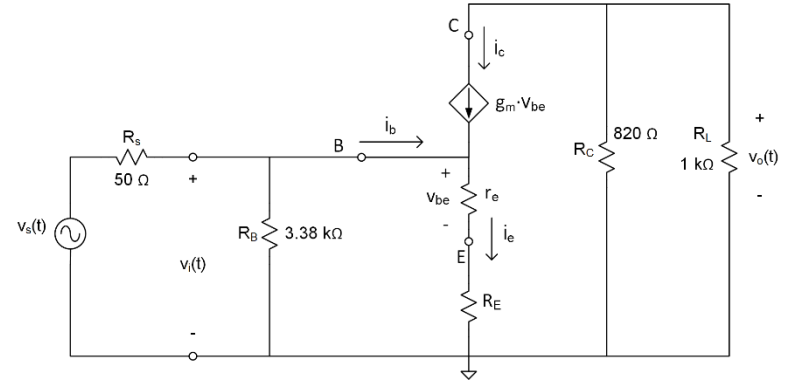
$$r_\pi = (\beta + 1)r_e$$



Emitter Degeneration – Negative Feedback

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- Without emitter degeneration, any increase in v_i appears as v_{be}
- Think through what happens when v_i increases *with* emitter degeneration:
 - v_{be} does increase
 - i_c and i_e increase
 - Voltage drop across R_E increases, driving v_e up
 - Increasing v_e reduces the amount of the v_i increase that appears as v_{be}



- This is **negative feedback**
 - Increasing output, i_c or i_e , subtracted from the input:

$$v_{be} = v_i - i_e R_E$$

- Similar to negative feedback in opamp circuits
 - Feedback reduces gain
 - In the limit, gain is set by a resistor ratio

Emitter Degeneration – Example

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- Determine the gain of the C-E amplifier with emitter degeneration
 - ▣ DC circuit is the same as before, but now only part of R_E is bypassed

- DC operating point unchanged:

$$I_B = 24.3 \mu A \quad V_B = 4.02 V$$

$$I_C = 4.9 mA \quad V_C = 7.98 V$$

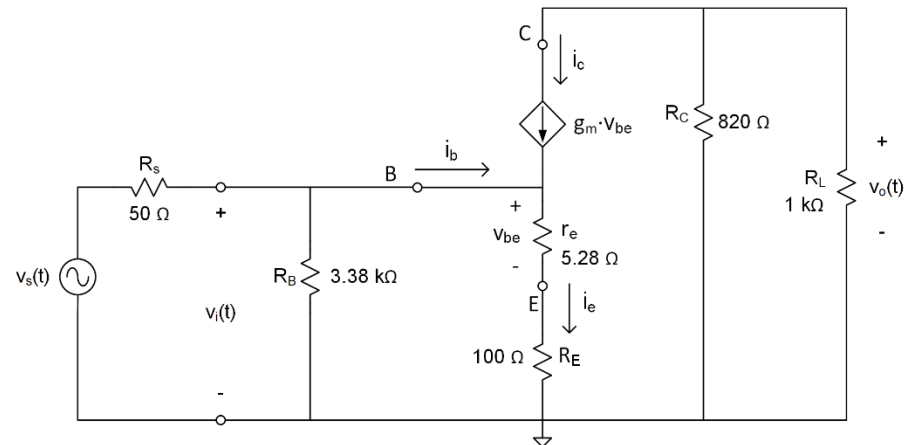
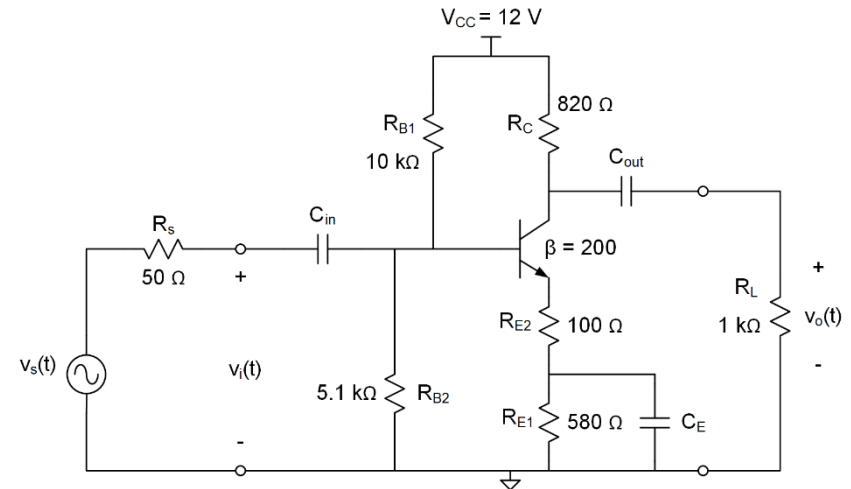
$$I_E = 4. mA \quad V_E = 3.33 V$$

- Small-signal model parameters unchanged:

$$g_m = 188 mS$$

$$r_\pi = 1.06 k\Omega$$

$$r_e = 5.28 \Omega$$



Emitter Degeneration – Example

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- Gain is given by

$$A_v = -G_m R_o$$

where

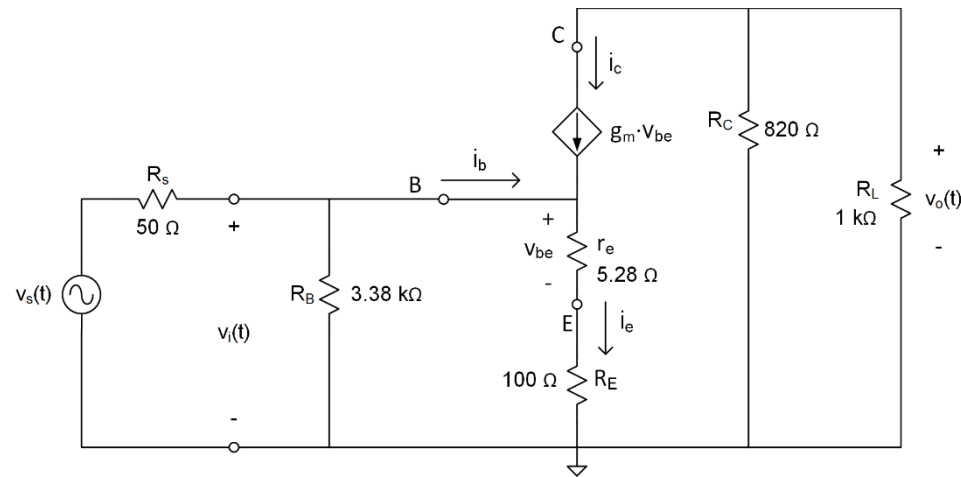
$$G_m = \frac{g_m}{(1 + g_m R_E)} = \frac{188 \text{ mS}}{19.8}$$

$$G_m = 9.5 \text{ mS}$$

so

$$A_v = -9.5 \text{ mS} \cdot 451 \Omega$$

$$A_v = -4.3$$



- Note the reduction in gain due to the emitter degeneration

$$A_v = -\frac{g_m R_o}{(1 + g_m R_E)} = -\frac{84.7}{19.8} = -4.3$$

- Also note that we can roughly approximate the gain as

$$A_v \approx -\frac{R_o}{R_E} = -\frac{451 \Omega}{100 \Omega} = -4.5$$

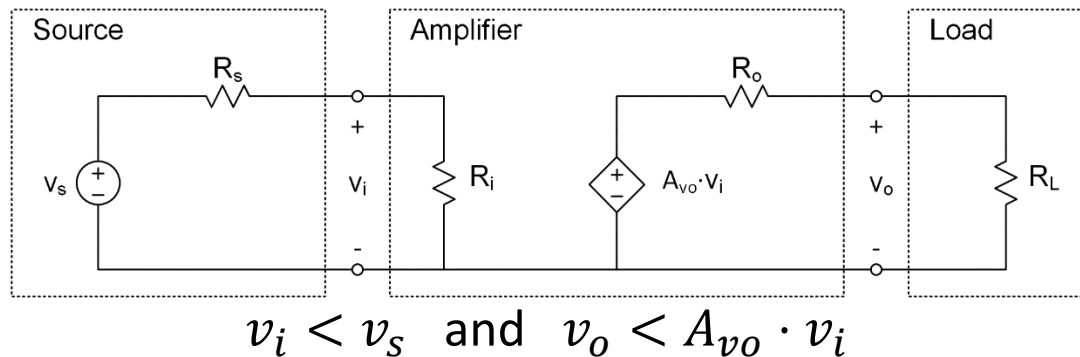
44

Emitter Follower

Buffering

45

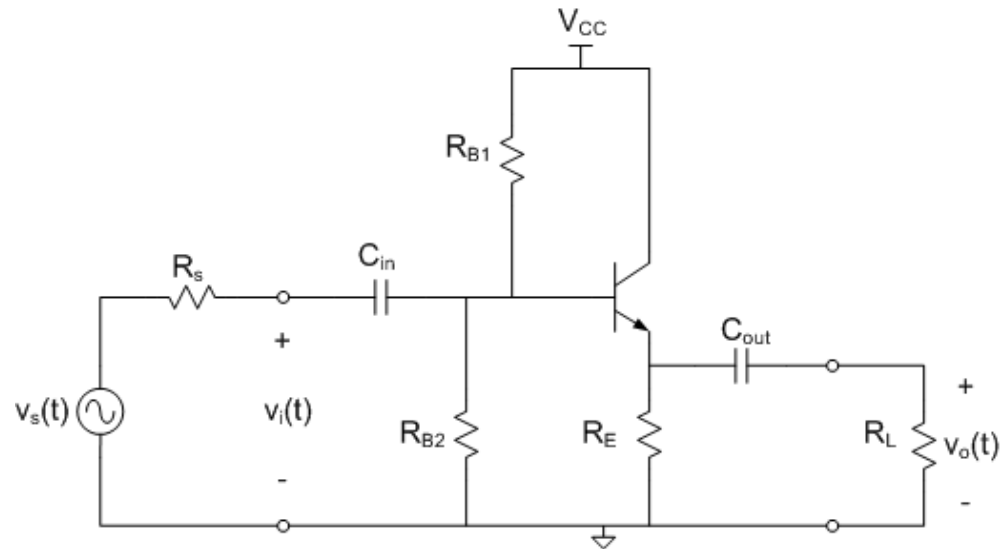
- In previous classes, you have learned about **loading effects**
 - ▣ Signal attenuation between output/input resistances of cascaded stages



- Inter-stage **buffers** can reduce attenuation due to loading
 - ▣ High input resistance, low output resistance
 - ▣ Unity gain
- We can use BJTs as buffers
 - ▣ **Emitter follower**

Emitter-Follower

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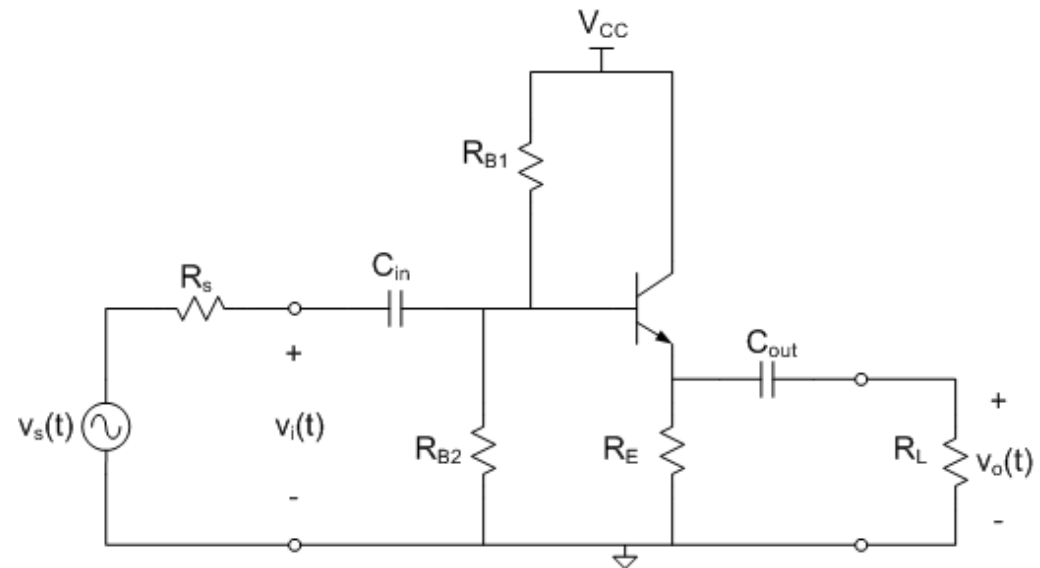


- ***Emitter-follower amplifier***
 - ▣ Input applied to the base
 - ▣ Output at the emitter
 - ▣ Emitter *follows* the base
- Also called a ***common-collector*** amplifier (CC)
 - ▣ Collector is connected to small-signal ground

Emitter-Follower

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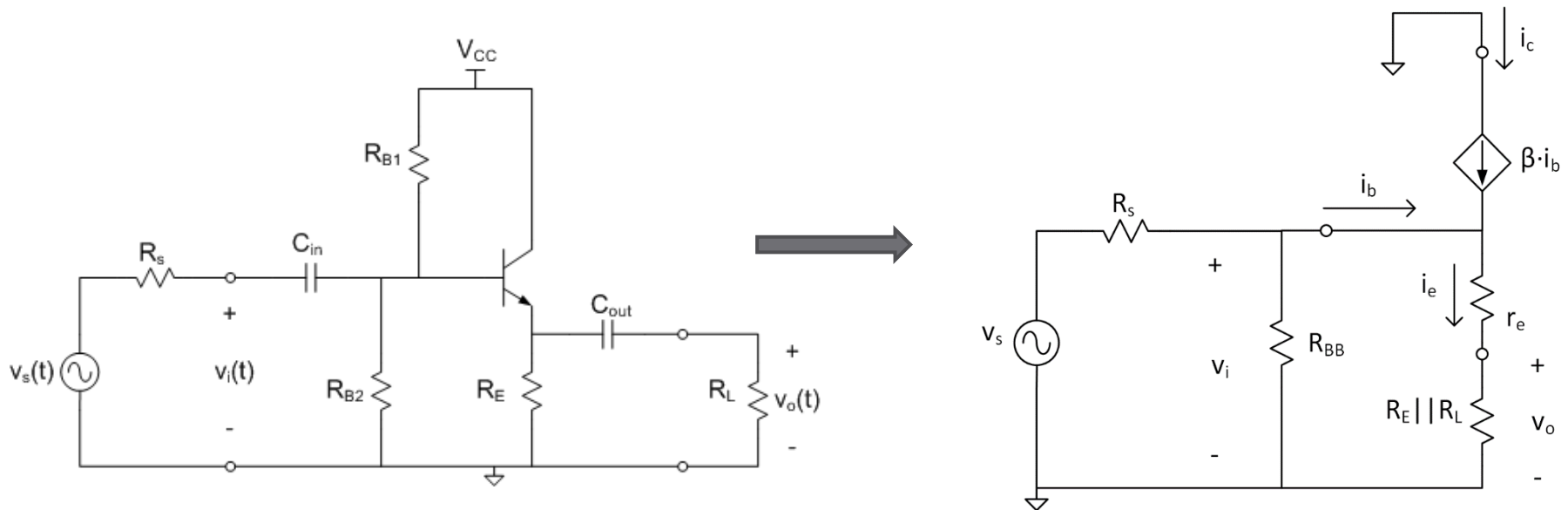
- Similar to opamp unity-gain buffer
 - ▣ Near-unity gain
 - ▣ High R_i , low R_o
 - ▣ Buffers source impedance
 - ▣ Reduces attenuation due to loading



- We will now analyze the emitter-follower
 - ▣ Large-signal analysis is the same as for the CE amplifier
 - ▣ Perform a small-signal analysis to determine voltage gain

Emitter Follower – Small-Signal Analysis

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- Replace the BJT with small-signal model
 - Emitter resistance, so use T-model
 - Short coupling caps
 - DC voltages connect to ground
 - Simplify parallel resistances

Emitter Follower – Small-Signal Analysis

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- First, determine gain from v_i to v_o

$$A_v = \frac{v_o}{v_i}$$

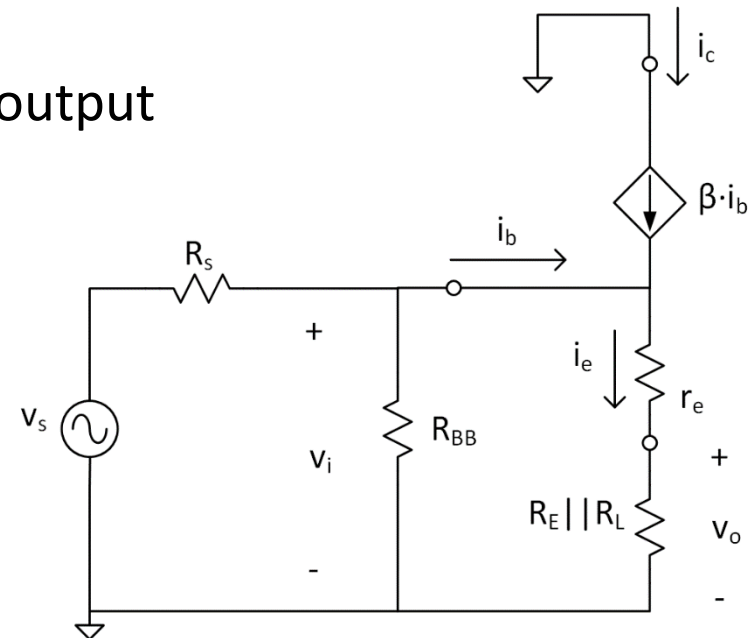
Applying voltage division gives the output

$$v_o = v_i \frac{R_E || R_L}{(R_E || R_L + r_e)}$$

Rearrange to get the gain

$$A_v = \frac{R_E || R_L}{(R_E || R_L + r_e)}$$

- Clearly, $A_v < 1$
- But, for $R_E || R_L \gg r_e$, $A_v \approx 1$



Emitter Follower – Input Resistance

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- The emitter follower's input resistance is defined as

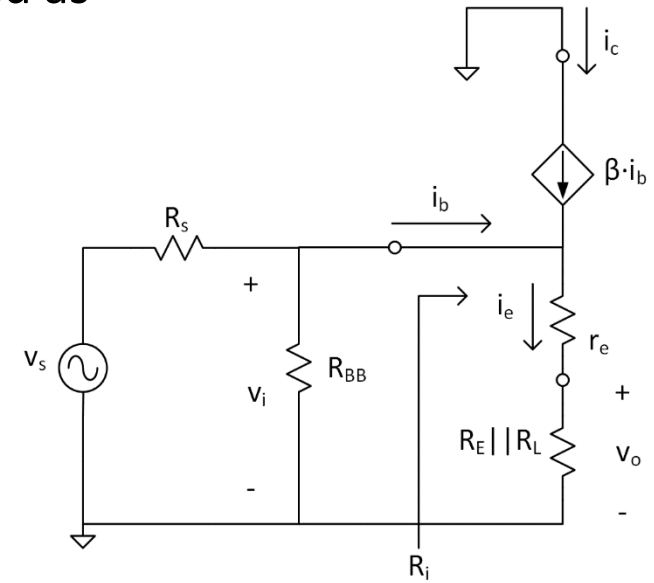
$$R_i = \frac{v_i}{i_b}$$

where

$$i_b = \frac{i_e}{\beta + 1} = \frac{v_i}{(\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E || R_L)}$$

- The input resistance is

$$R_i = (\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E || R_L)$$



- $(\beta + 1)$ times larger than the total resistance at the emitter
 - The **reflected** emitter resistance
- Typically a **very large input resistance**, as we would expect from a circuit used as a buffer
- Note that this is the resistance **at the base**
 - In parallel with R_{BB}

Emitter Follower – Output Resistance

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- To determine output resistance, set the input to zero
 - ▣ First, consider the case where the input is applied directly to the base (i.e., $R_s = 0$)
 - Set v_i to zero – ground the base

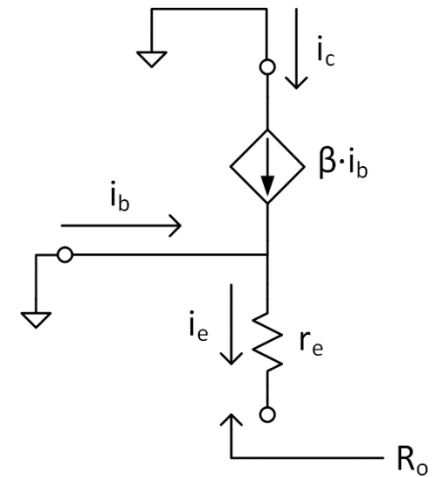
- For now, ignore R_E
 - ▣ In parallel with what we will calculate as R_o
- The output resistance is simply r_e

$$R_o = r_e$$

- Recall the expression for r_e

$$r_e = \frac{V_{th}}{I_E} = \frac{\alpha}{g_m} \approx \frac{1}{g_m}$$

- ▣ Typically a **small resistance**, as expected from a circuit used as a buffer
 - Increasing bias current decreases r_e and R_o



Emitter Follower – Output Resistance

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- Next, determine R_o for non-zero source resistance, $R_s \neq 0$
 - Set v_s to zero – ground the source

- By definition

$$R_o = -\frac{v_o}{i_e}$$

- Emitter current is

$$i_e = (\beta + 1)i_b$$

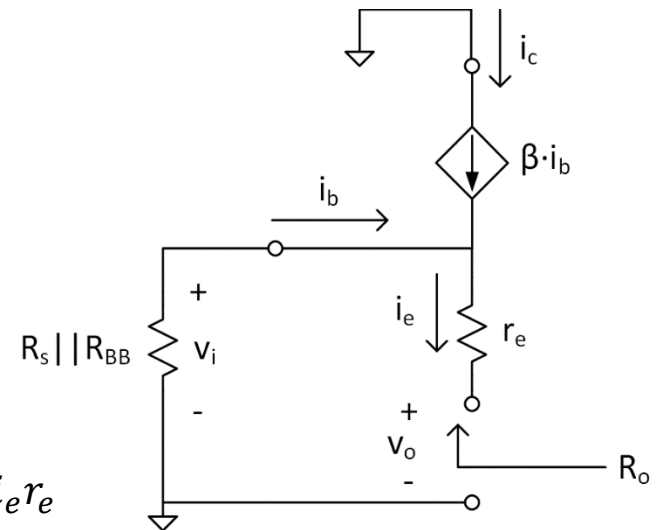
- KVL around the B-E loop

$$v_o = -i_b(R_s || R_{BB}) - i_e r_e = -\frac{i_e}{\beta + 1}(R_s || R_{BB}) - i_e r_e$$

$$v_o = -i_e \left(\frac{(R_s || R_{BB})}{\beta + 1} + r_e \right)$$

- R_o now includes all resistance at the base, **reflected** to the emitter:

$$R_o = \frac{(R_s || R_{BB})}{\beta + 1} + r_e = \frac{(R_s || R_{BB})}{\beta + 1} + \frac{r_\pi}{\beta + 1}$$



Resistance Reflection Rule

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- The input and output resistance of the emitter follower illustrate two versions of the ***resistance reflection rule***

- Version 1:

- ▣ ***Resistance seen at the base is the total resistance at the emitter increased by a factor of $(\beta + 1)$***

$$R_b = (\beta + 1)(r_e + R_E)$$

- Version 2:

- ▣ ***Resistance seen at the emitter is the total resistance at the base reduced by a factor of $(\beta + 1)$***

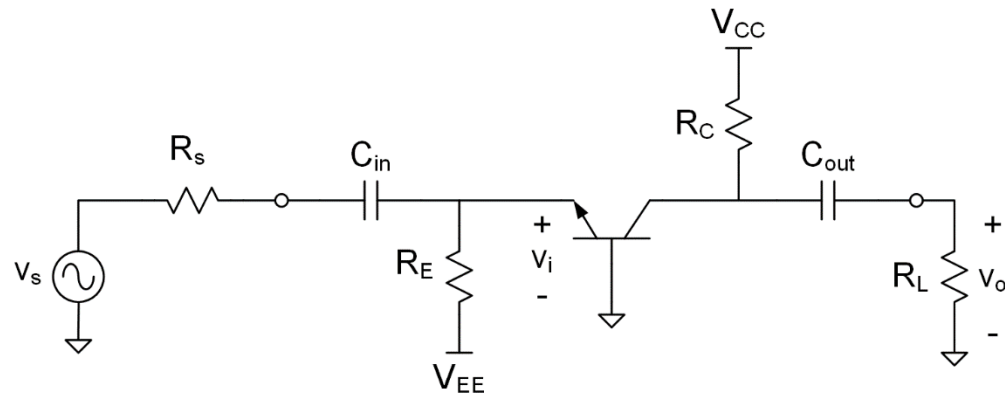
$$R_e = \frac{(r_\pi + R_B)}{(\beta + 1)}$$

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Common-Base Amplifier

Common-Base Amplifier

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- The third BJT amplifier configuration we will look at is the ***common-base amplifier***
 - Input applied to the emitter
 - Output taken from the collector
 - Base is connected to small-signal ground
 - By far the least common of the three amplifiers

Common-Base Amplifier – Gain

56

- There is emitter resistance, so use the T-model for small-signal analysis
- The output is given by

$$v_o = -i_c R_C || R_L$$

$$v_o = -\alpha i_e R_C || R_L$$

where

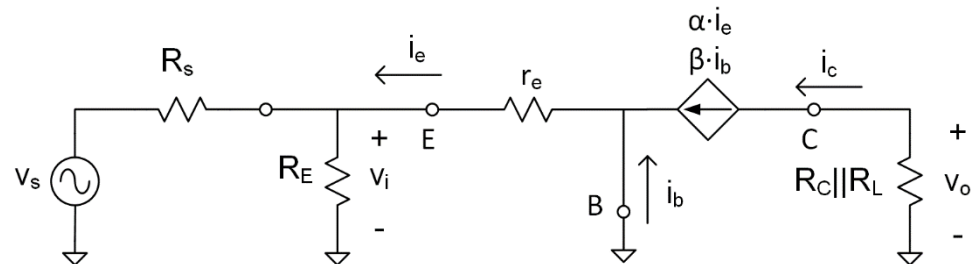
$$i_e = -\frac{v_i}{r_e}$$

so

$$v_o = v_i \frac{\alpha}{r_e} R_C || R_L = v_i g_m R_C || R_L$$

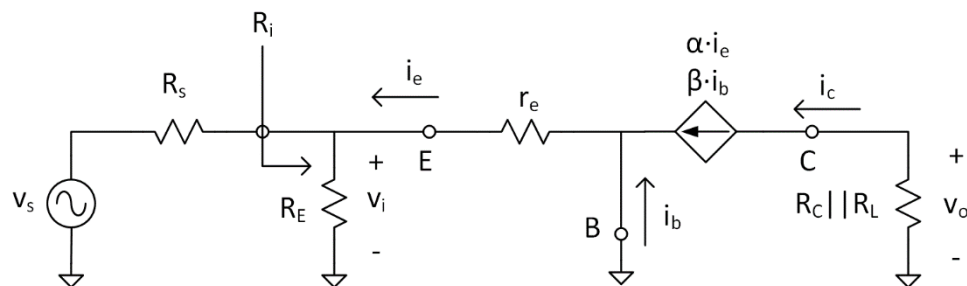
- Common-base voltage gain is

$$A_v = g_m R_C || R_L$$



Common-Base – Input Resistance

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- R_i is the parallel combination of the resistance connected to the emitter and the resistance looking into the emitter

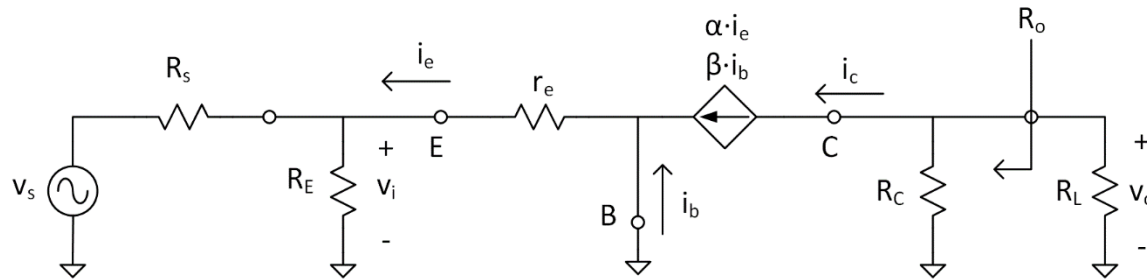
$$R_i = R_E || r_e = R_E || \frac{\alpha}{g_m}$$

- Note that typically, r_e is quite small, so

$$R_i \approx r_e \approx \frac{1}{g_m}$$

Common-Base – Output Resistance

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- If we neglect the transistor's output resistance, r_o , the common-base output resistance is

$$R_o = R_C$$

- Entirely determined by the collector resistor

Common-Base Amplifier

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- Low input resistance

$$R_i = r_e \approx \frac{1}{g_m}$$

- For $R_s \gg r_e$, there will be significant attenuation from v_s to v_i

$$v_i \ll v_s$$

- The overall gain from v_s to v_o may be small

- Typically only useful in certain applications:

- Low source resistance

- E.g., amplifiers driven by cables
- R_i matched to Z_0 (e.g. 50 Ω or 75 Ω) to avoid reflections

- Current buffers

- E.g., in ***cascode*** amplifiers

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Transistors as Switches

Transistors as Switches

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- Our focus in this course is the use of transistors for designing ***linear amplifiers***
 - Output is a scaled version of the input
- Transistors can be used also be used as ***nonlinear switches***
 - Either ***on*** or ***off*** (closed or open)
 - Fundamental building block of ***digital integrated circuits***
 - Microprocessors have ***billions*** of transistors (MOSFETS) used as switches
 - Useful for switching large amounts of current, e.g.,
 - Controlling a mechanical device (e.g., pump, heater, motor) with a microcontroller
 - Power inverters

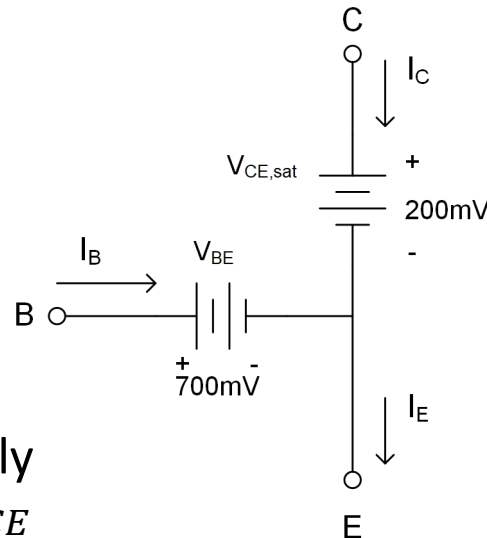
Saturation/Cutoff Region Models

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- ❑ Transistors used as **amplifiers** must stay in the **forward active** region
- ❑ Transistors used as **switches** operate alternately in the **saturation** (closed) and **cutoff** (open) regions
- ❑ Equivalent circuit models:

Saturation Region (on):

- ❑ Both junctions forward biased

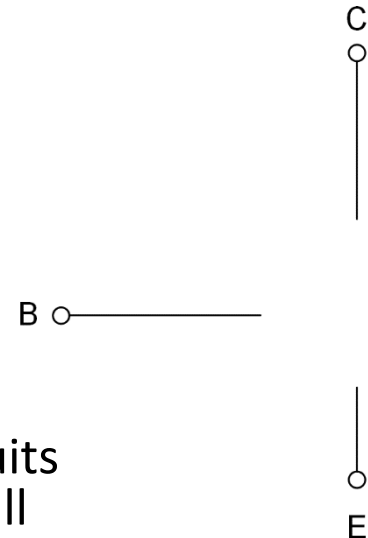


- ❑ Small, nearly constant V_{CE}

$$V_{CE,sat} \approx 200\text{ mV}$$

Cutoff Region (off):

- ❑ Both junctions reverse biased

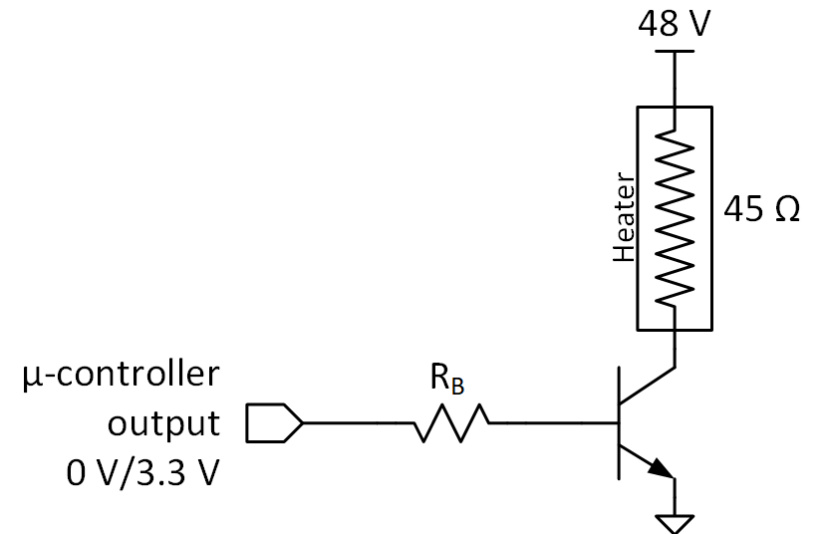


- ❑ Open circuits between all terminals

Using a BJT as a Switch - Example

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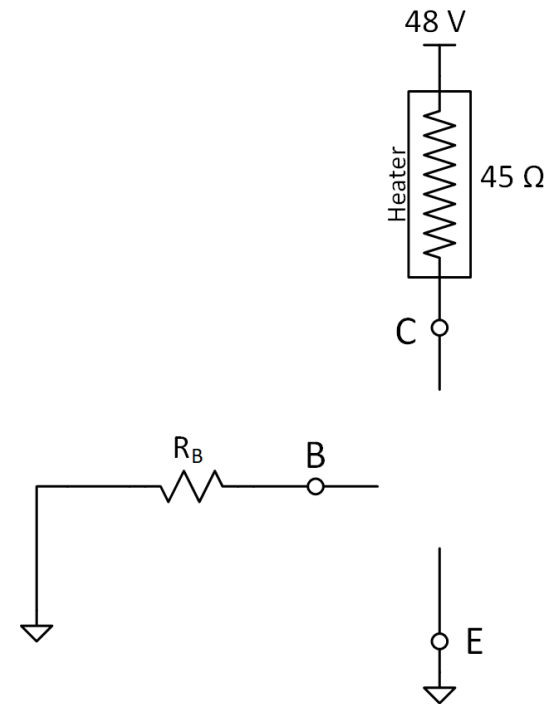
- Let's say we want to turn resistance heater on and off using a microcontroller
 - ▣ Heater may require amperes of current
 - ▣ Microcontroller output may be limited to tens of mA
- Control a BJT switch with the microcontroller output
 - ▣ Low-current control signal from the microcontroller
 - Base resistor limits output current
 - ▣ BJT switches the large current required by the heater



Using a BJT as a Switch - Example

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- When the μ -controller's output is low (0 V)
 - $V_{BE} = 0\text{ V}$
 - Transistor is in the cutoff region
 - Switch is off
 - No current flows
 - The heater is off



Using a BJT as a Switch - Example

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- When the μ -controller's output is high (3.3 V)

- $V_{BE} \approx 700 \text{ mV}$
- $V_{CE} = V_{CE,sat} \approx 200 \text{ mV}$
- Transistor is saturated
- Switch and heater are on

- Collector/heater current:

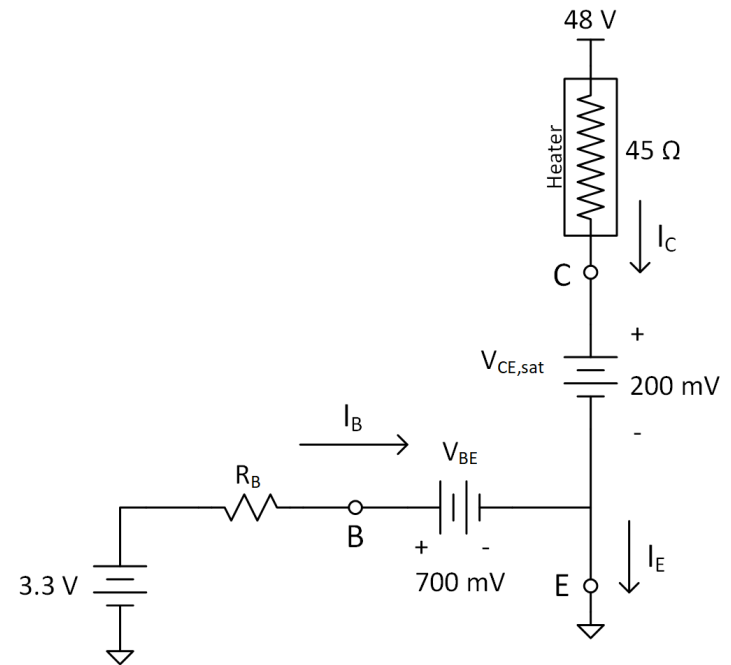
$$I_C = \frac{48 \text{ V} - 200 \text{ mV}}{45 \Omega} = 1.1 \text{ A}$$

- Heater power:

$$P_h = I_C^2 \cdot R_h$$

$$P_h = (1.1 \text{ A})^2 \cdot 45 \Omega$$

$$P_h = 50.8 \text{ W}$$



Using a BJT as a Switch - Example

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- Microcontroller output current (base current) :

$$I_B = \frac{3.3 \text{ V} - V_{BE}}{R_B}$$

- Select R_B to limit base current
 - ▣ Let's say $I_{B,max} = 20 \text{ mA}$

$$R_B \geq \frac{3.3 \text{ V} - 700 \text{ mV}}{I_{B,max}} = \frac{2.6 \text{ V}}{20 \text{ mA}}$$

$$R_B \geq 130 \Omega$$

- Typically choose R_B to keep I_B well below $I_{B,max}$

