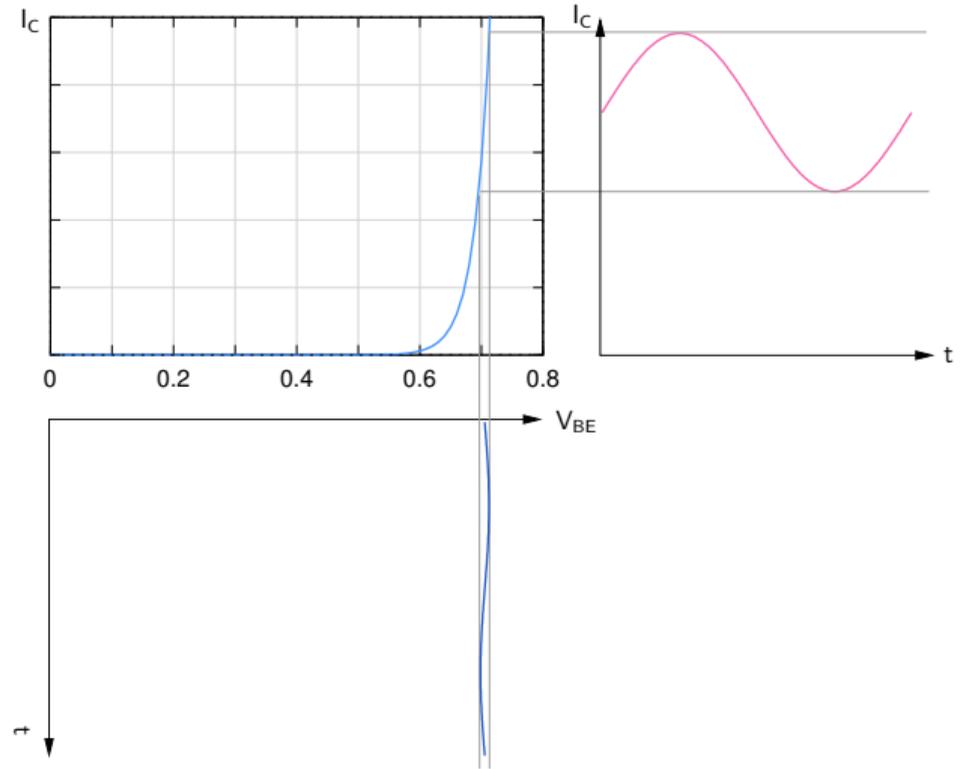
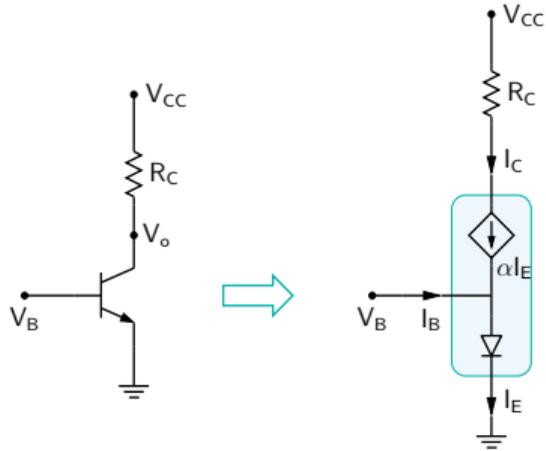
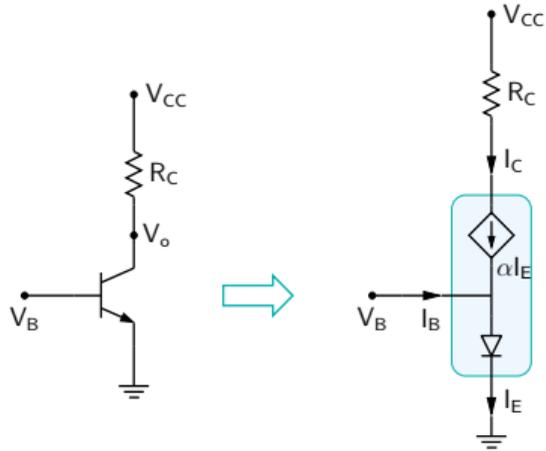


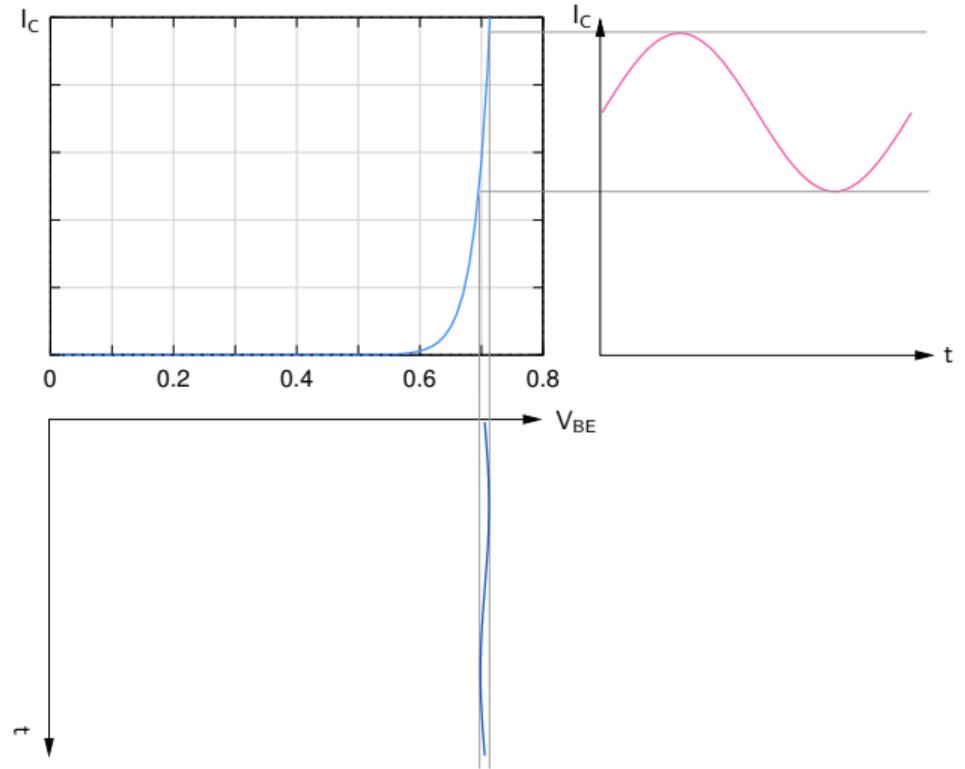
BJT amplifier: basic operation



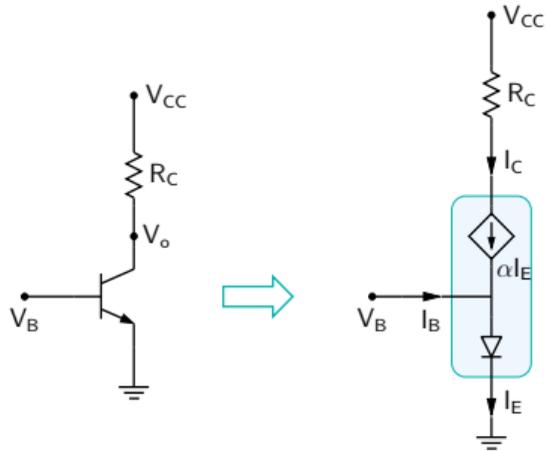
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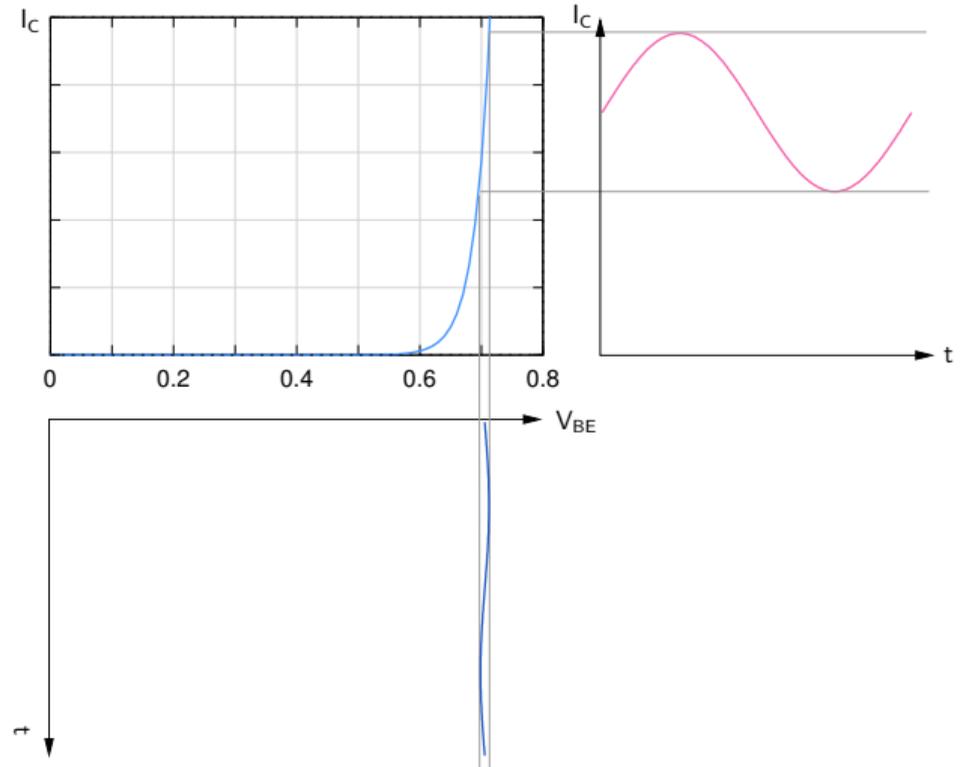
* In the active mode, I_C changes exponentially with V_{BE} : $I_C = \alpha_F I_{ES} [\exp(V_{BE}/V_T) - 1]$



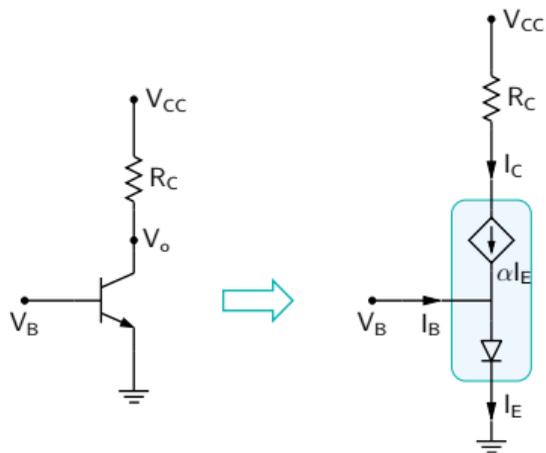
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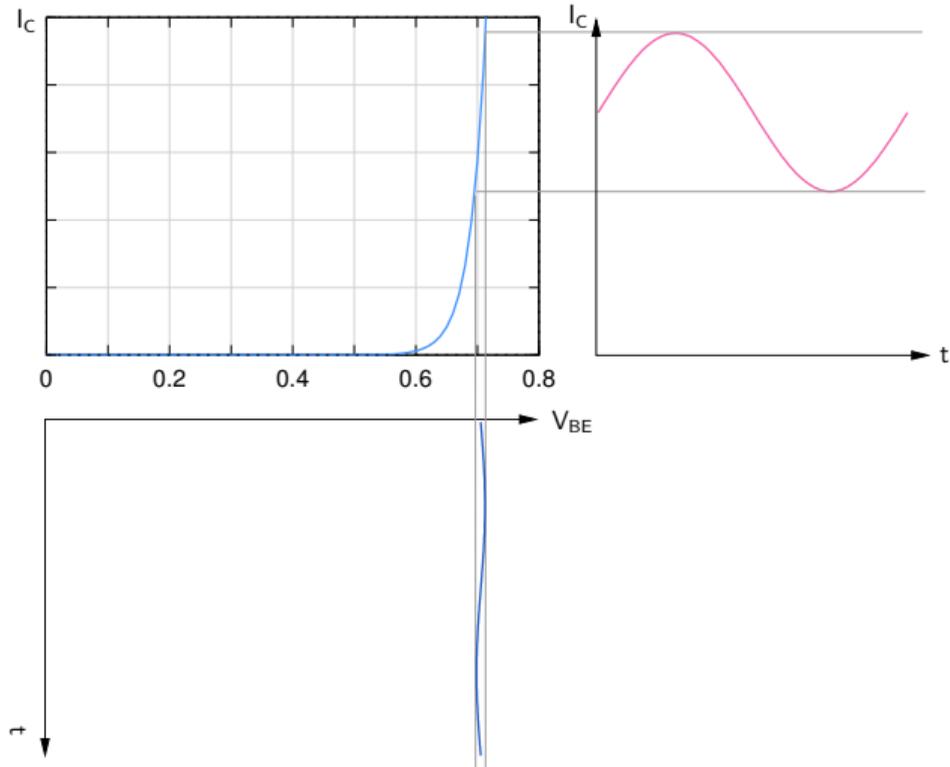
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 \Rightarrow the amplitude of V_o , i.e., $\hat{I}_C R_C$, can be made much larger than \hat{V}_B .



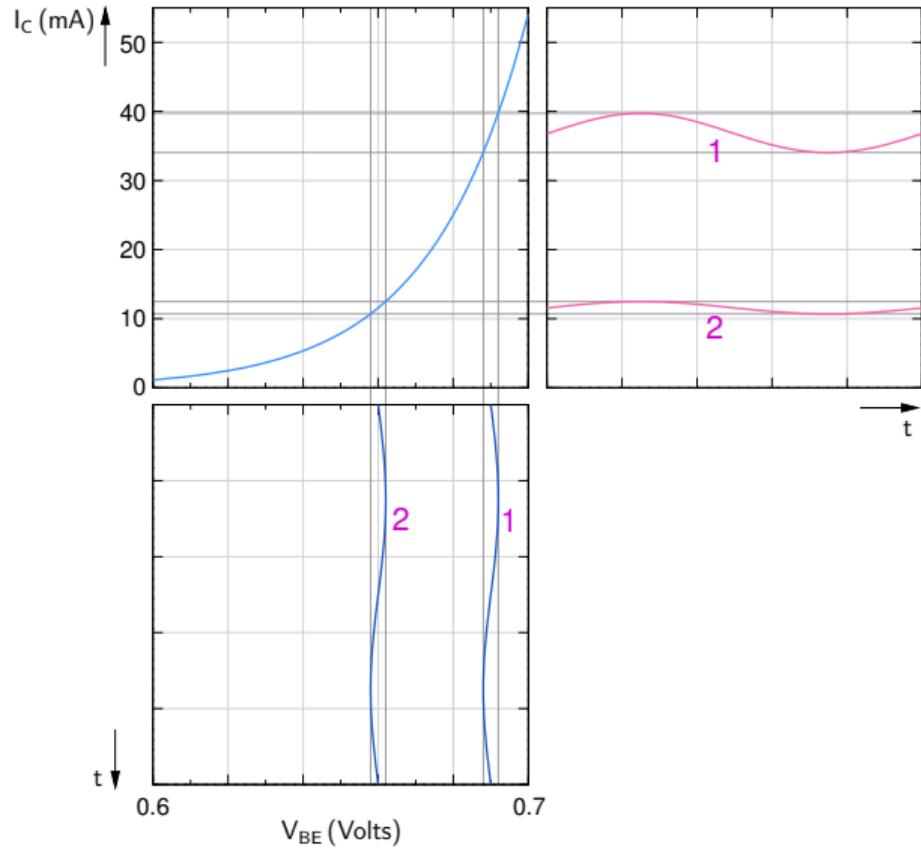
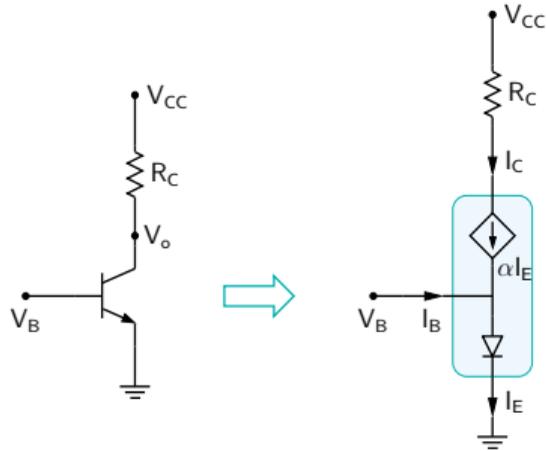
BJT amplifier: basic operation



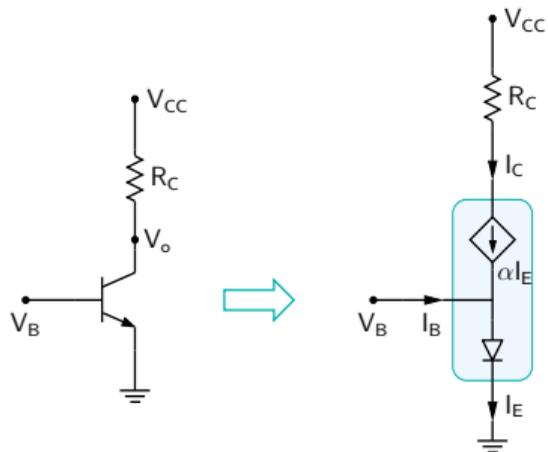
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 \Rightarrow the amplitude of V_o , i.e., $\hat{I}_C R_C$, can be made much larger than \hat{V}_B .
- * Note that both the input (V_{BE}) and output (V_o) voltages have DC ("bias") components.



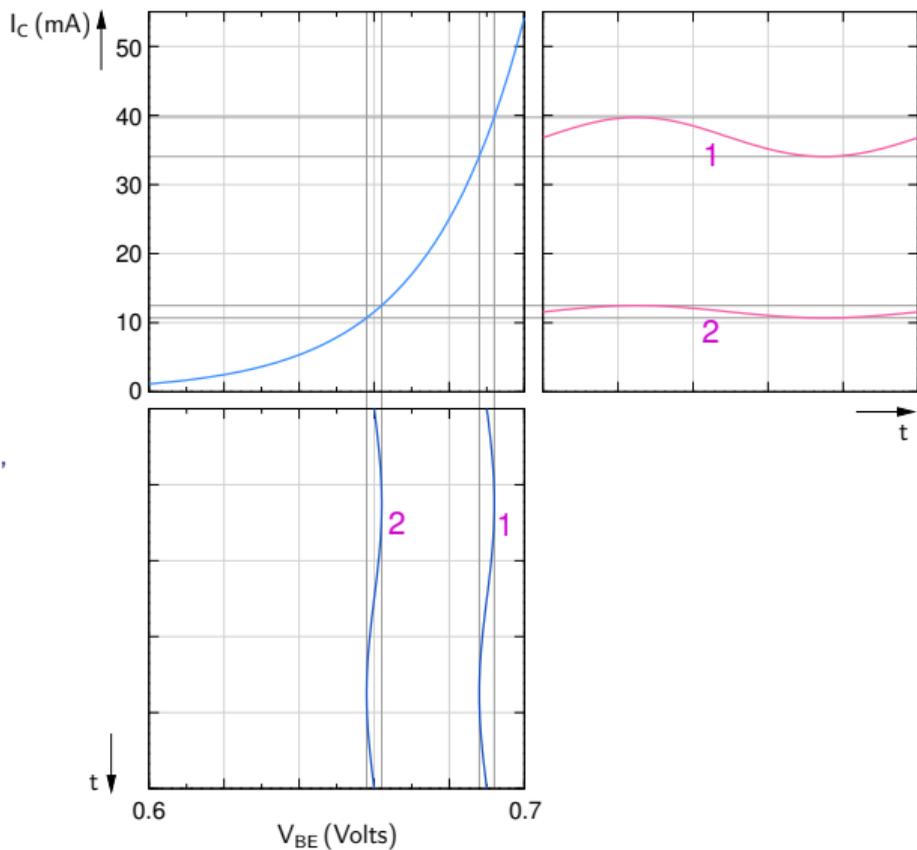
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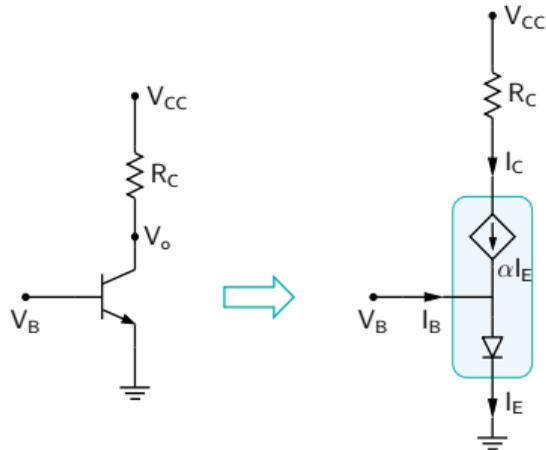
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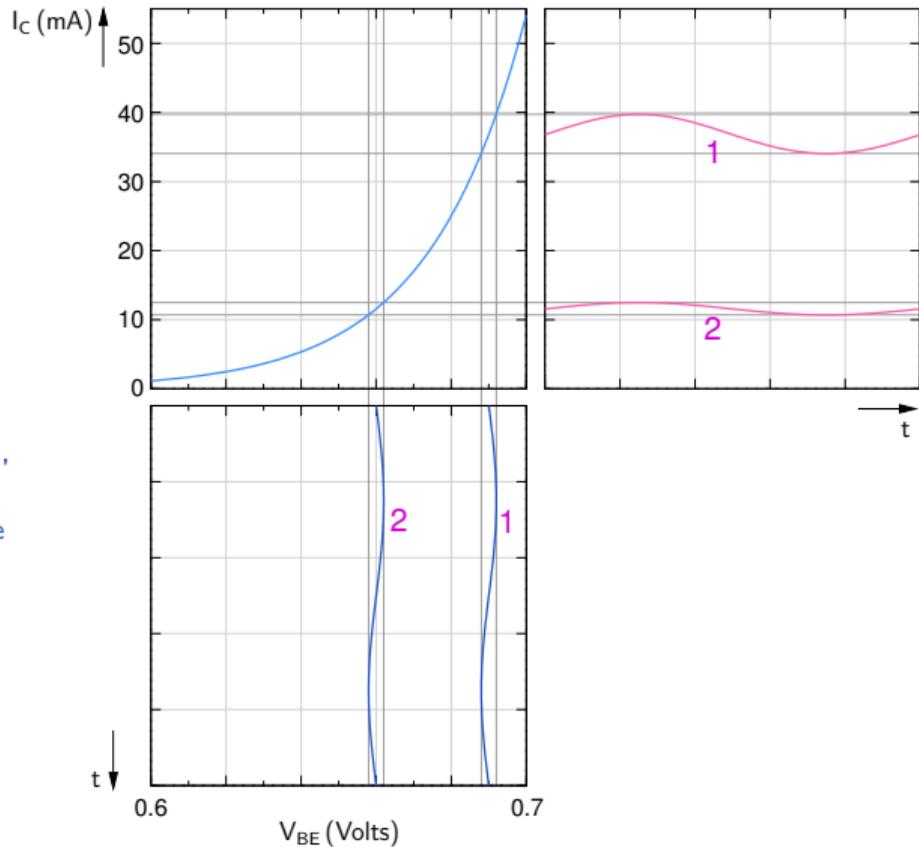
* The gain depends on the DC (bias) value of V_{BE} , the input voltage in this circuit.



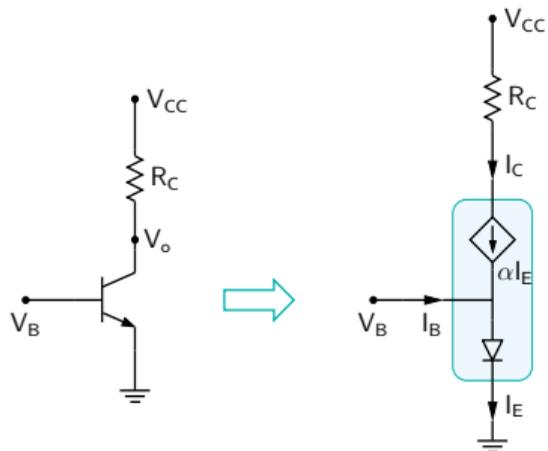
BJT amplifier: basic operation



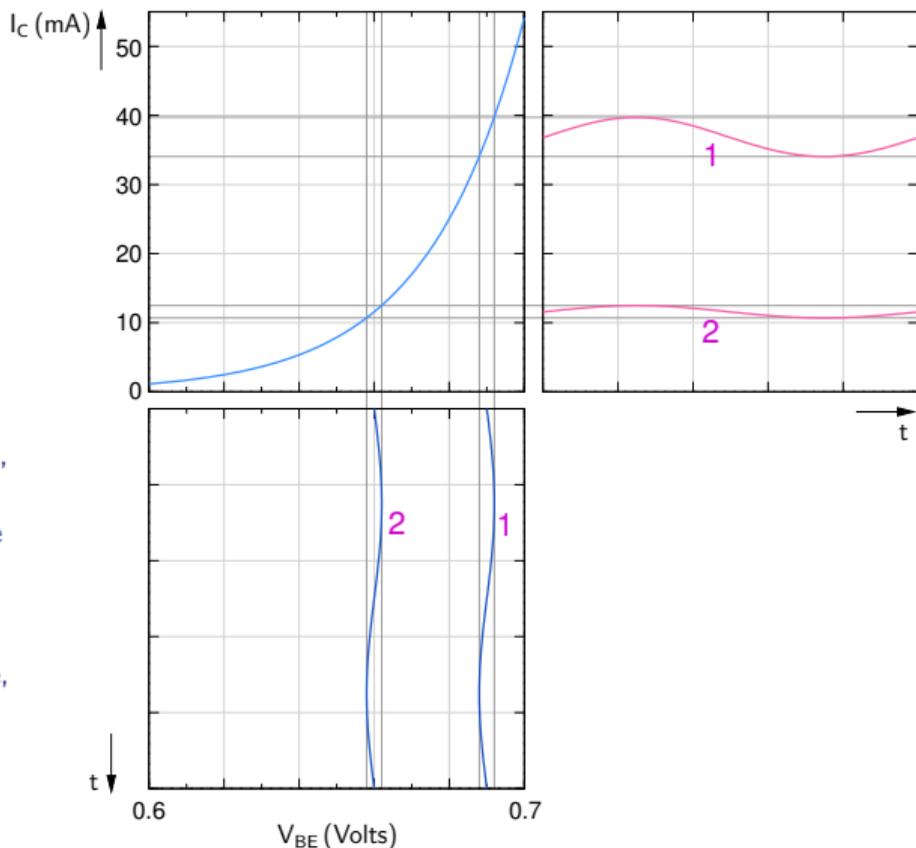
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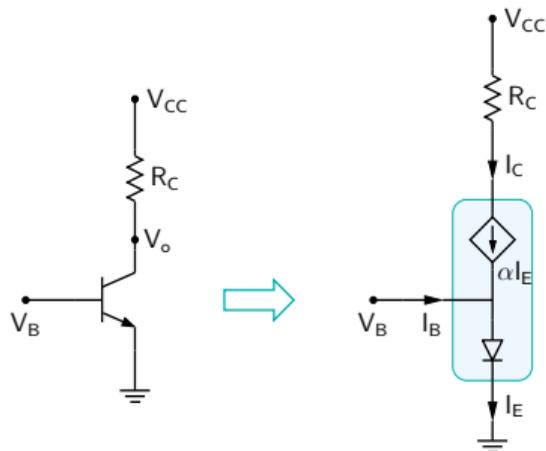
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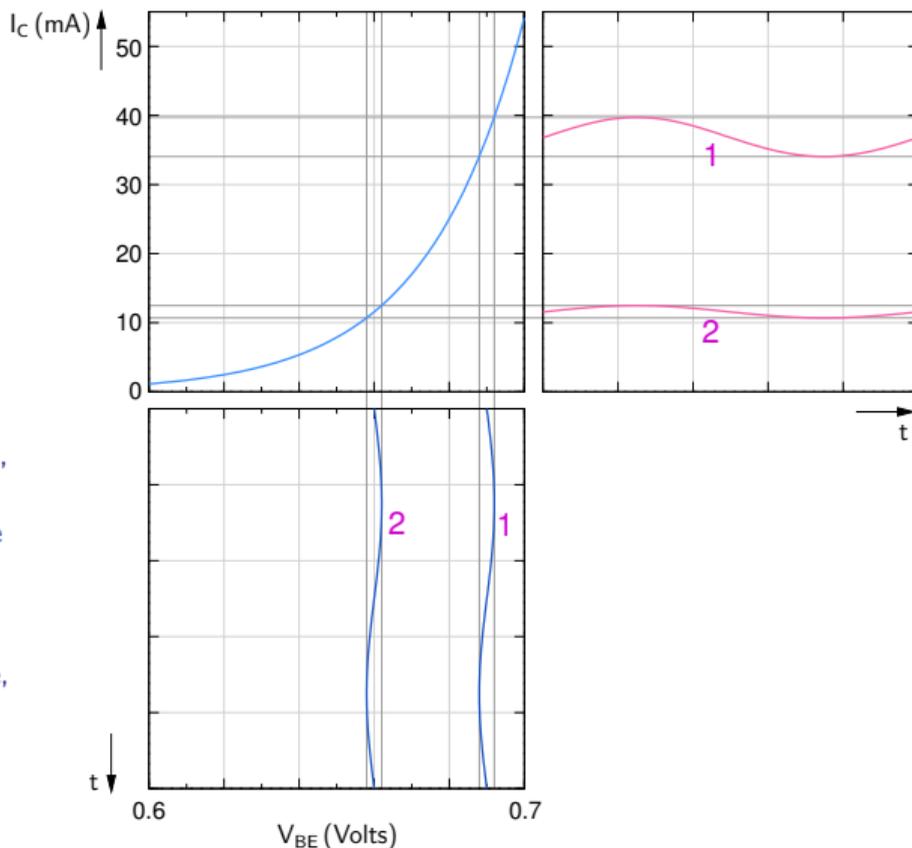
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→ need a better biasing method.



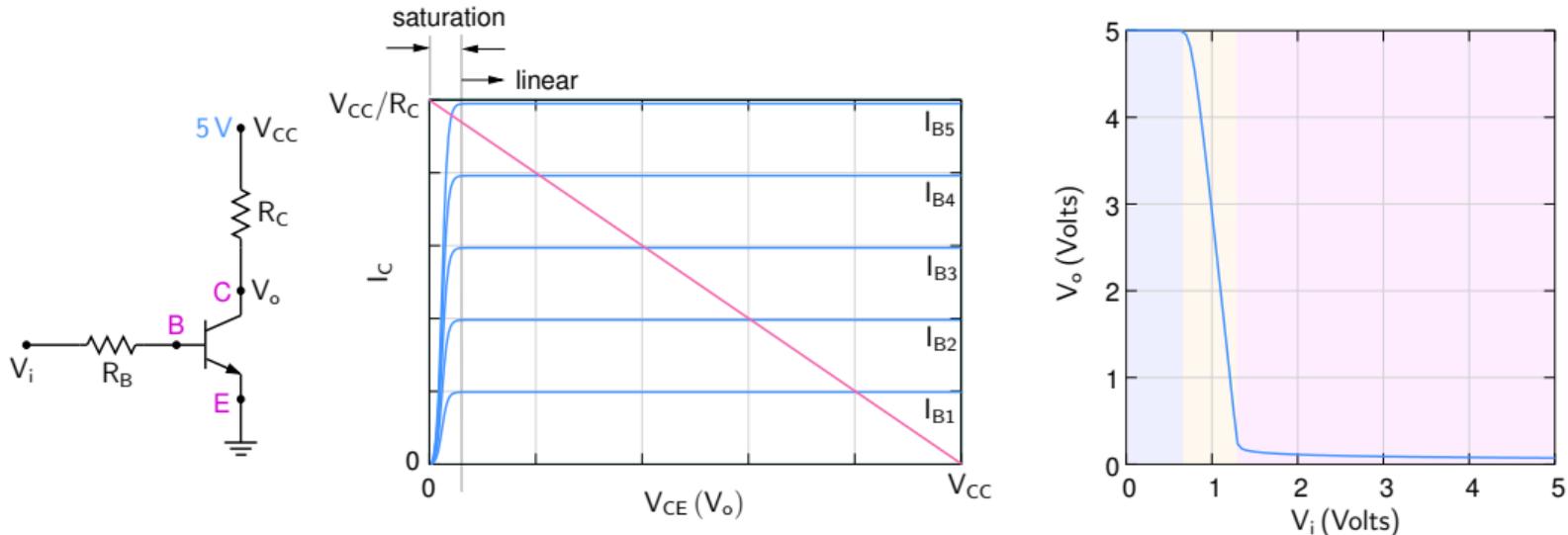
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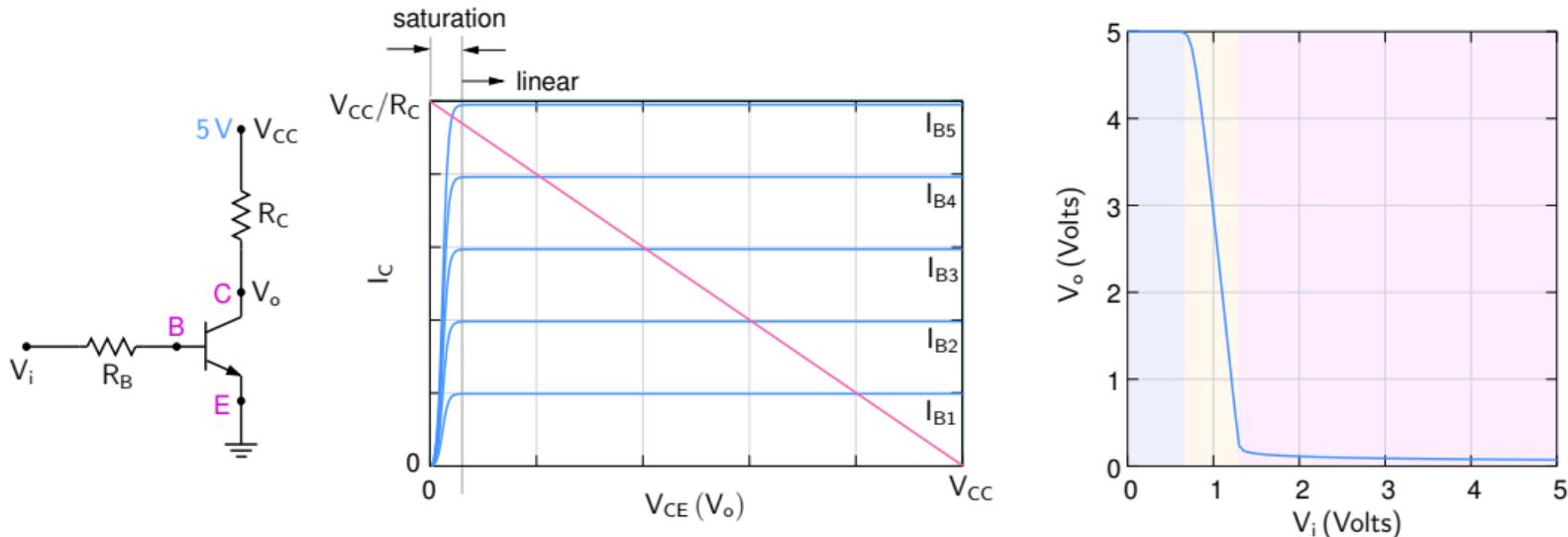
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- * Even if we could set the input bias as desired, device-to-device variation, change in temperature, etc. would cause the gain to change. → need a better biasing method.
- * Biasing the transistor at a specific V_{BE} is equivalent to biasing it at a specific I_C .



BJT amplifier biasing

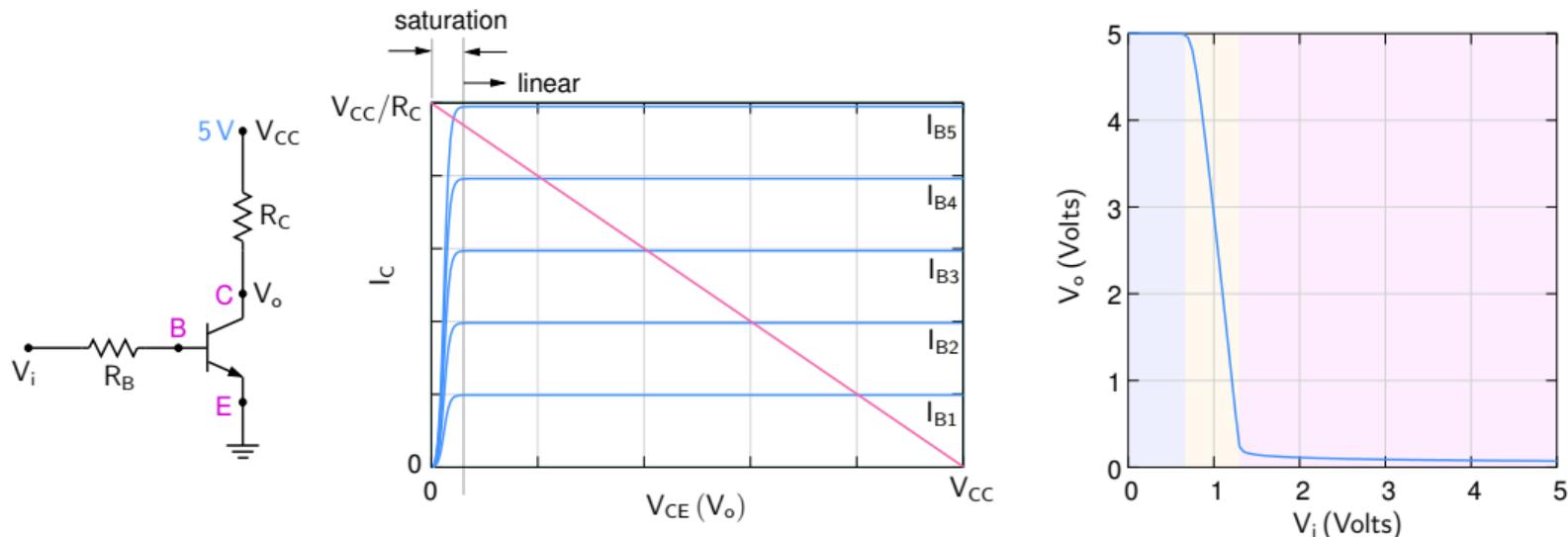


Consider a more realistic BJT amplifier circuit, with R_B added to limit the base current (and thus protect the transistor).



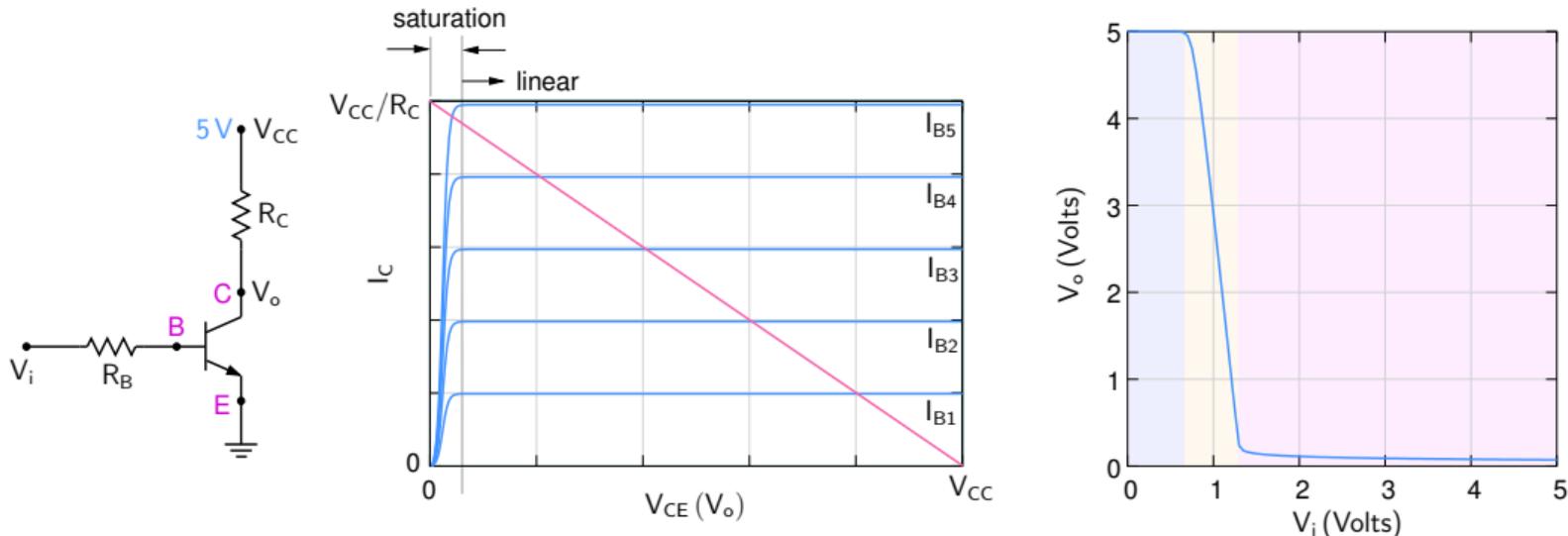
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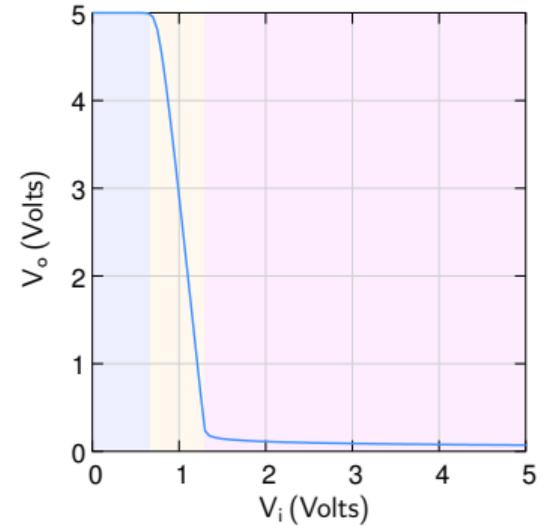
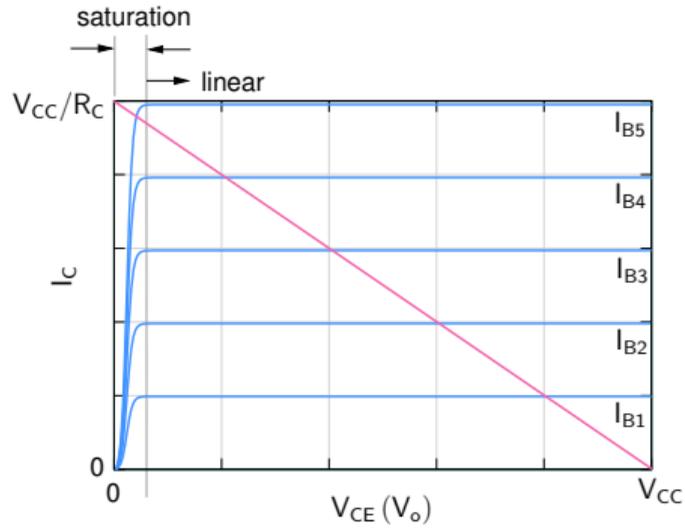
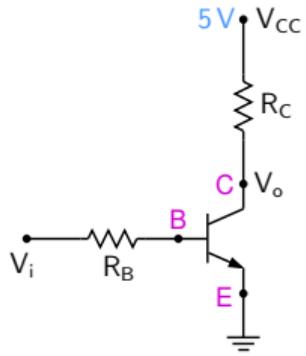
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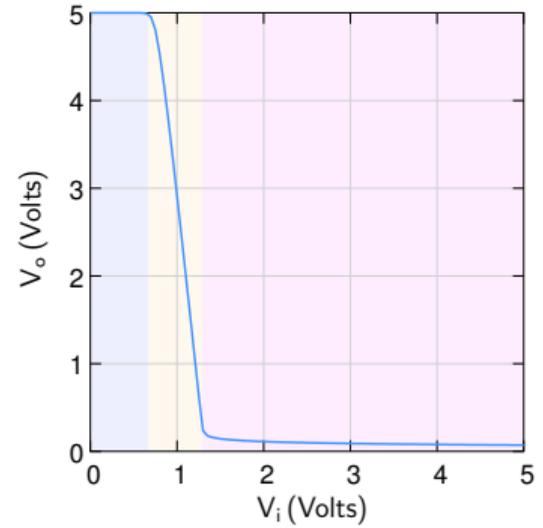
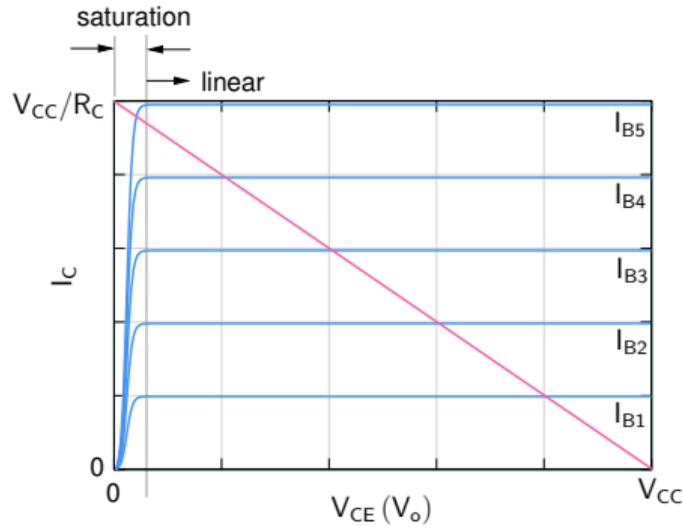
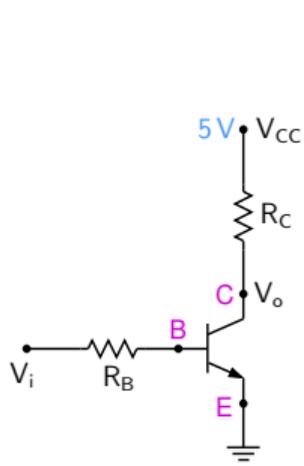
Consider a more realistic BJT amplifier circuit, with R_B added to limit the base current (and thus protect the transistor).

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- * As V_i is increased further, V_o reaches V_{CE}^{sat} (about $0.2V$), and the BJT enters the saturation region (both B-E and B-C junctions are forward biased).

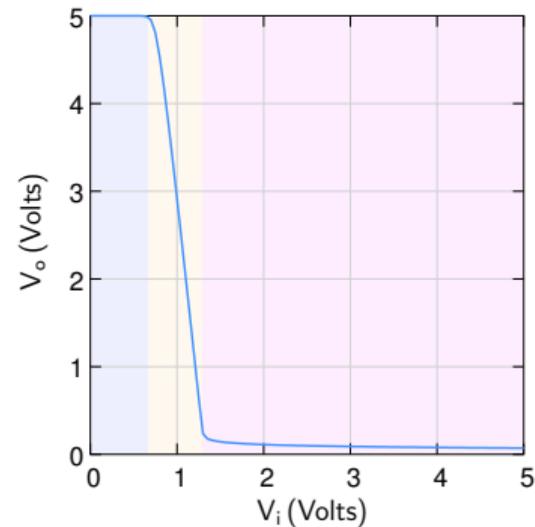
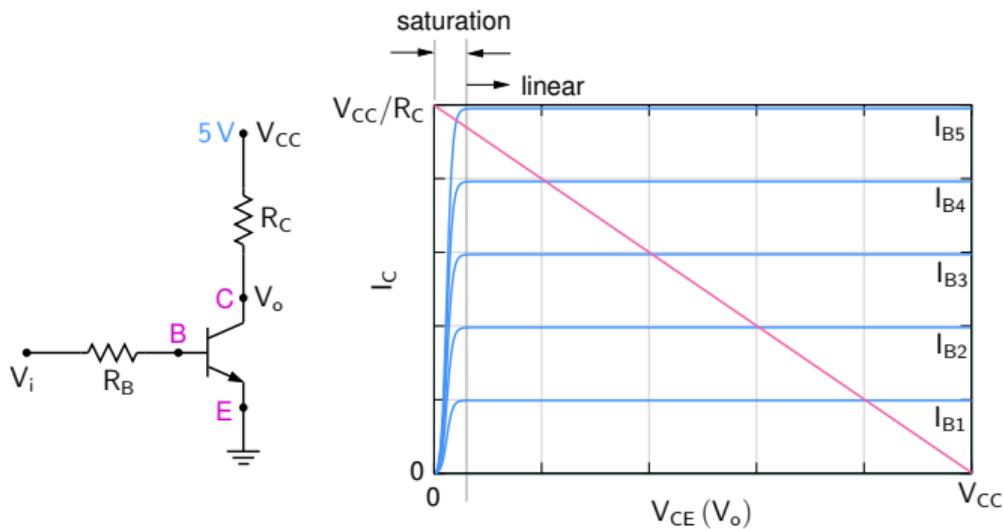
BJT amplifier biasing



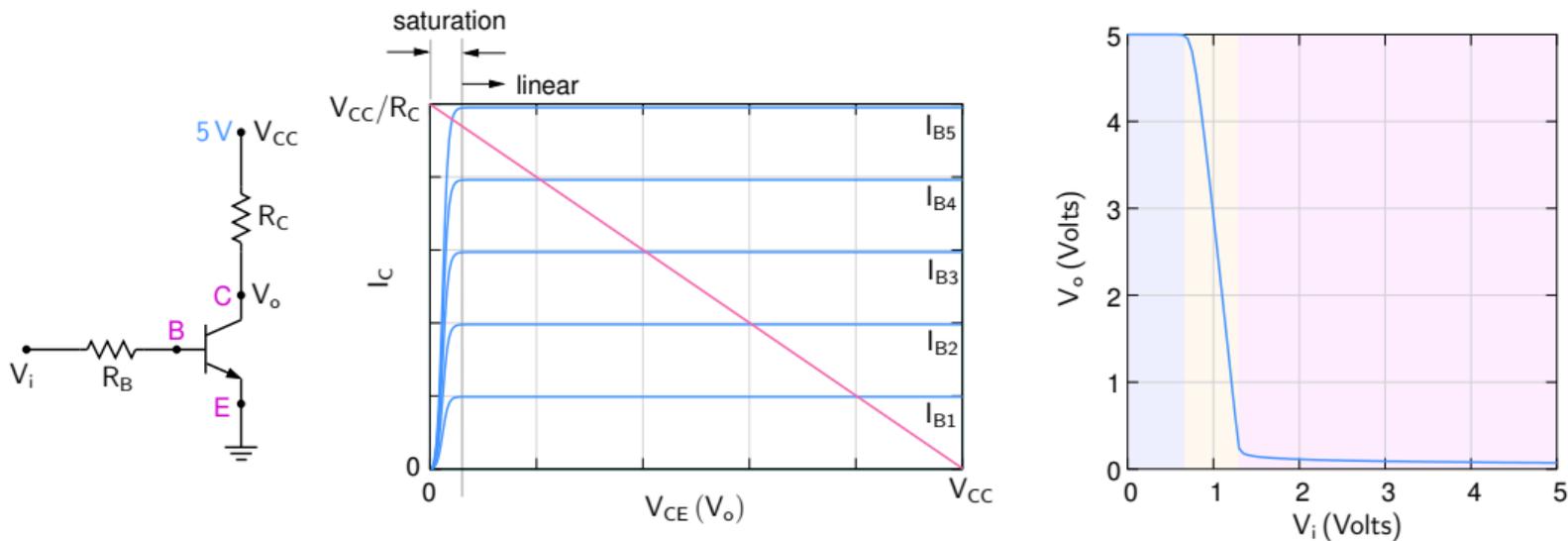
BJT amplifier biasing



* The gain of the amplifier is given by $\frac{dV_o}{dV_i}$.

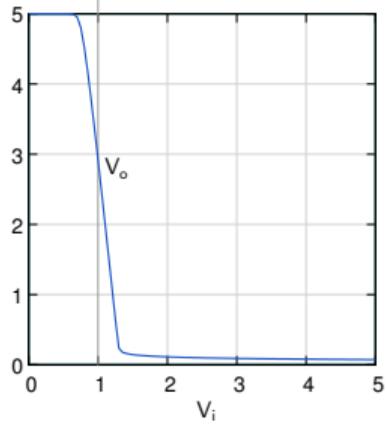
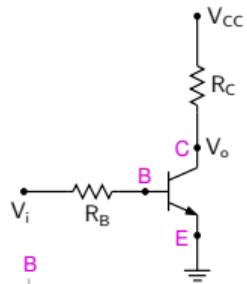


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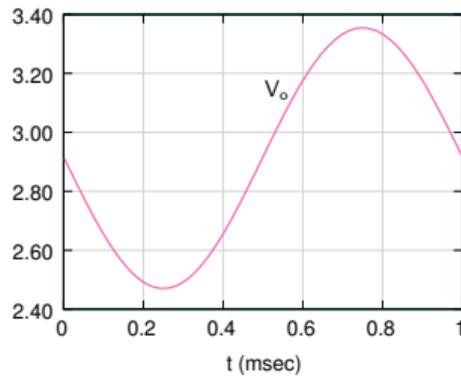
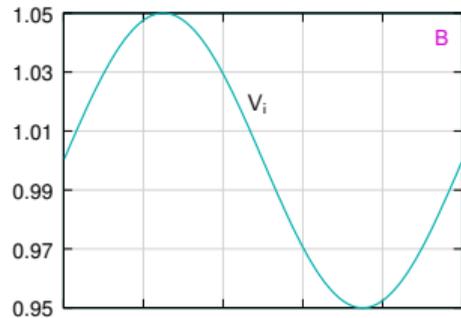
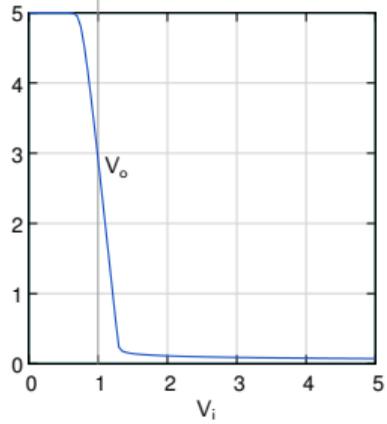
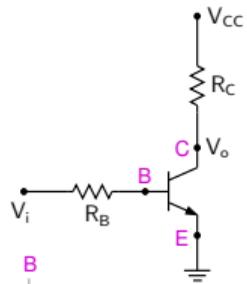


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- * Further, to get a large swing in V_o without distortion, the DC bias of V_i should be at the centre of the amplifying region, i.e., $V_i \approx 1 V$.

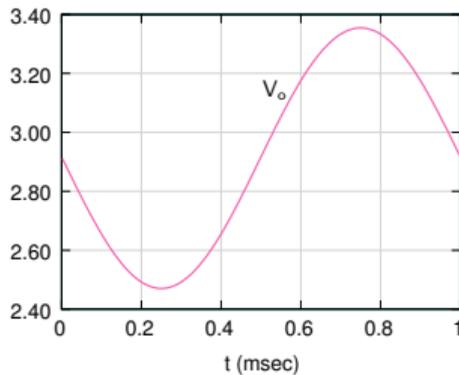
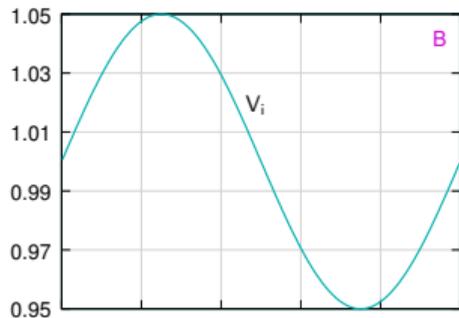
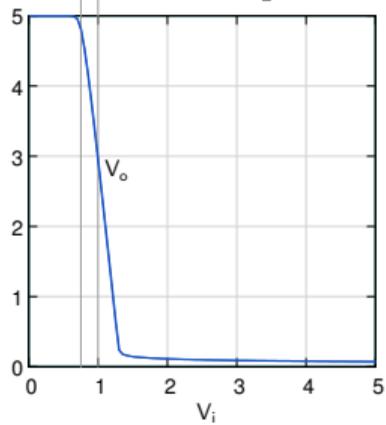
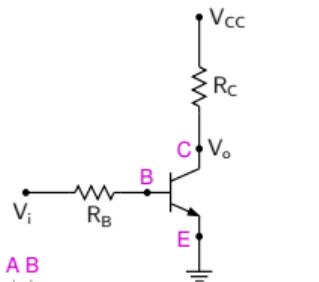
BJT amplifier biasing



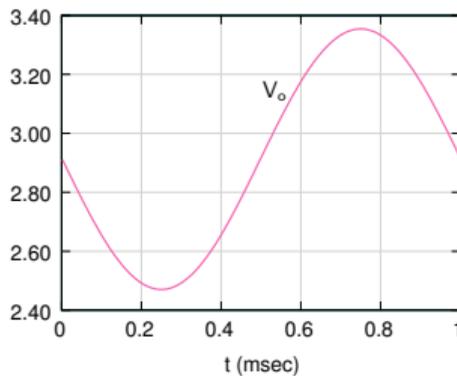
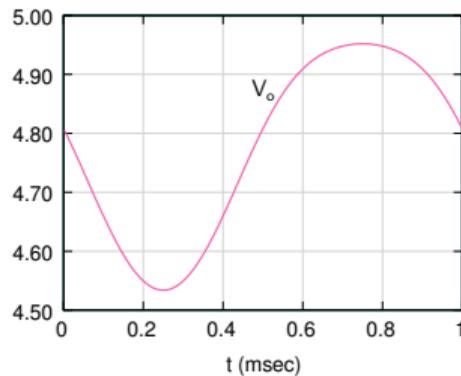
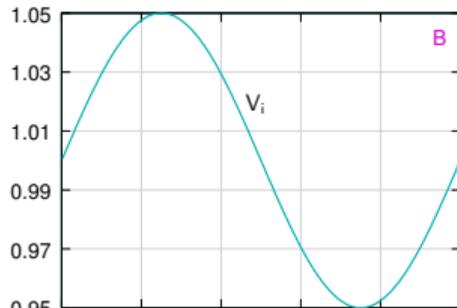
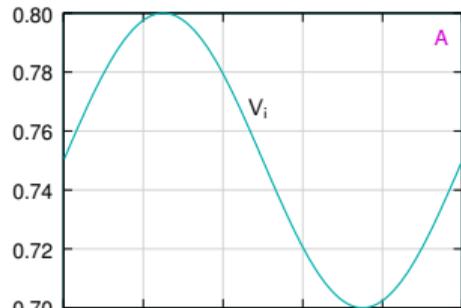
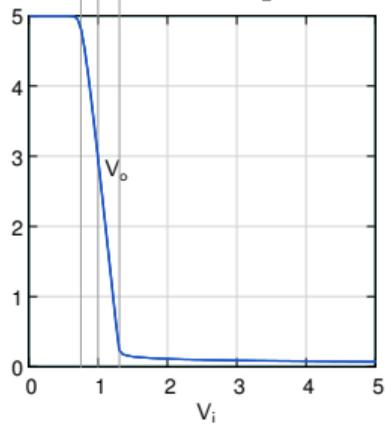
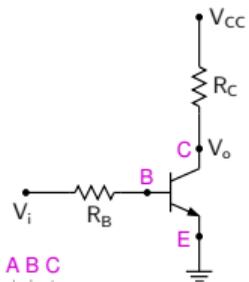
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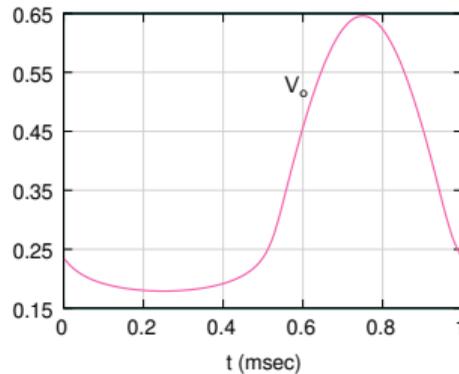
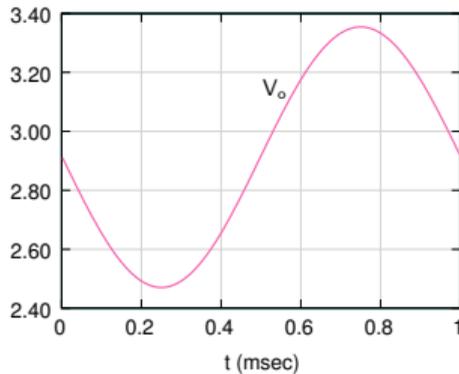
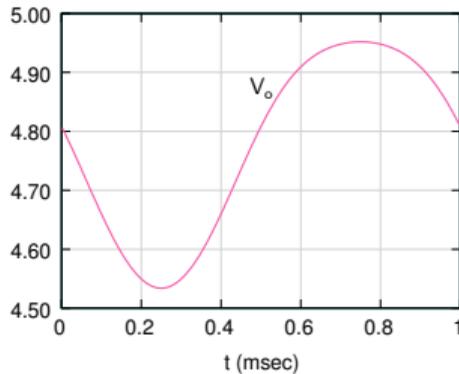
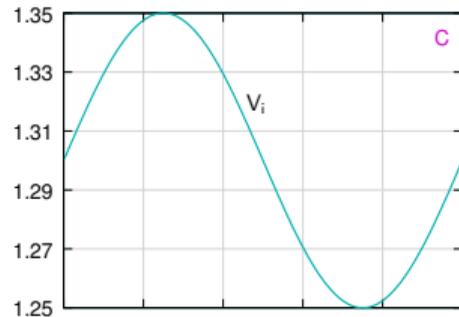
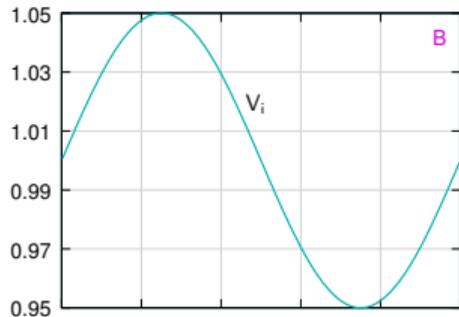
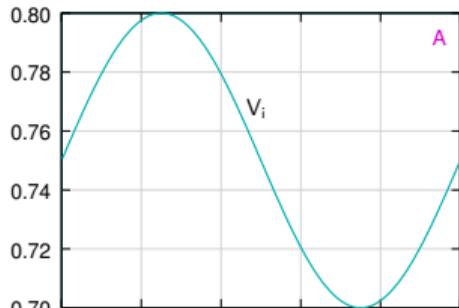
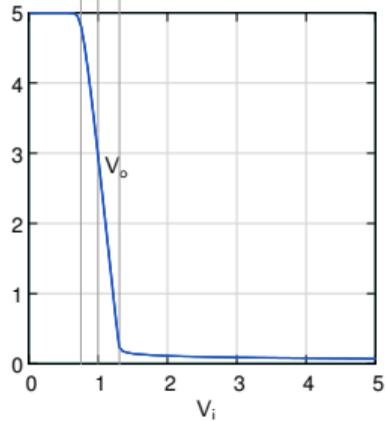
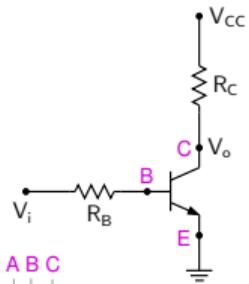
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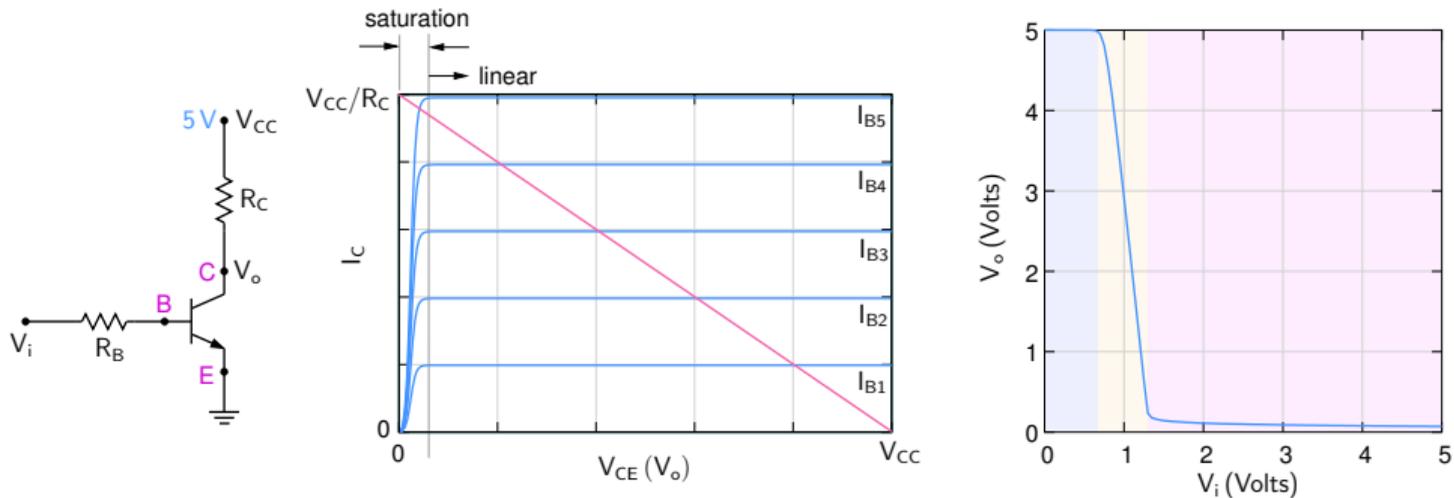
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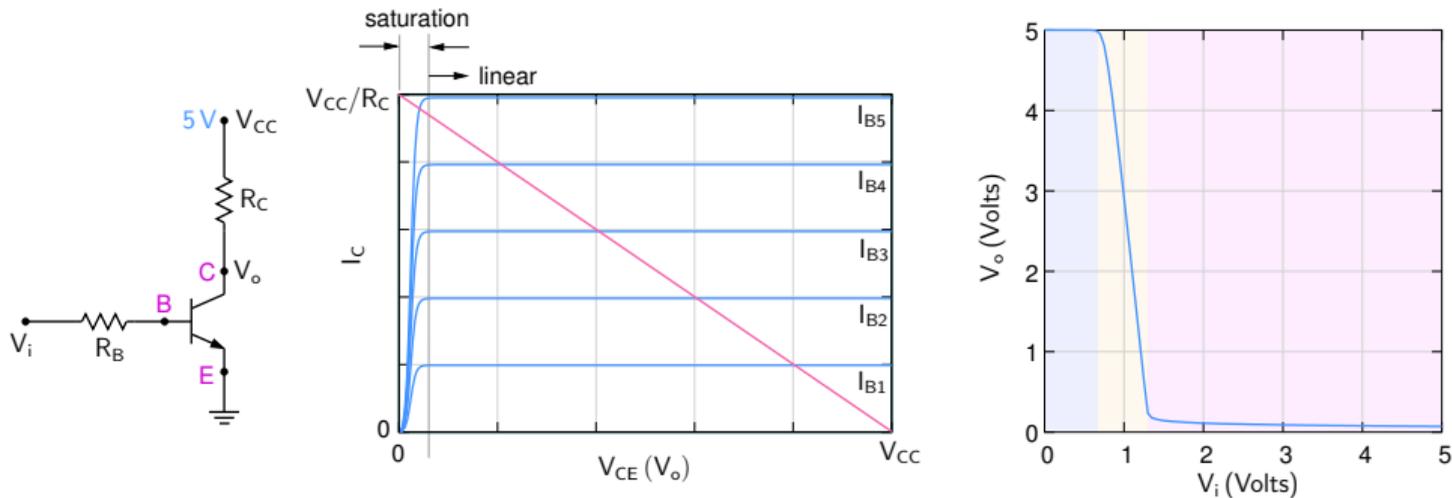


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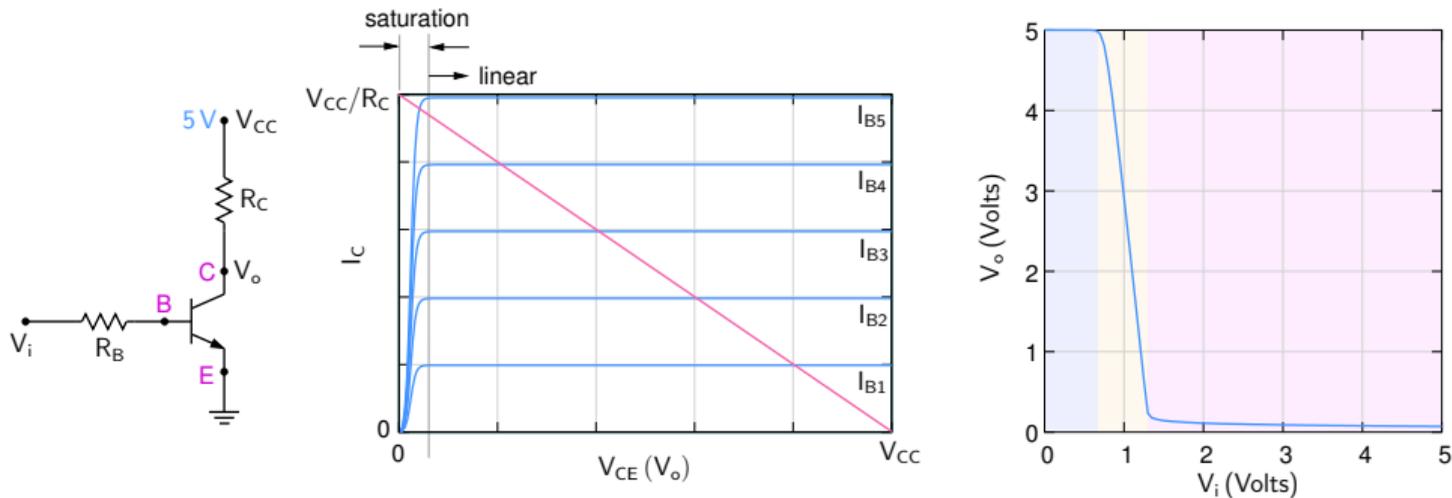


* The key challenges in realizing this amplifier in practice are

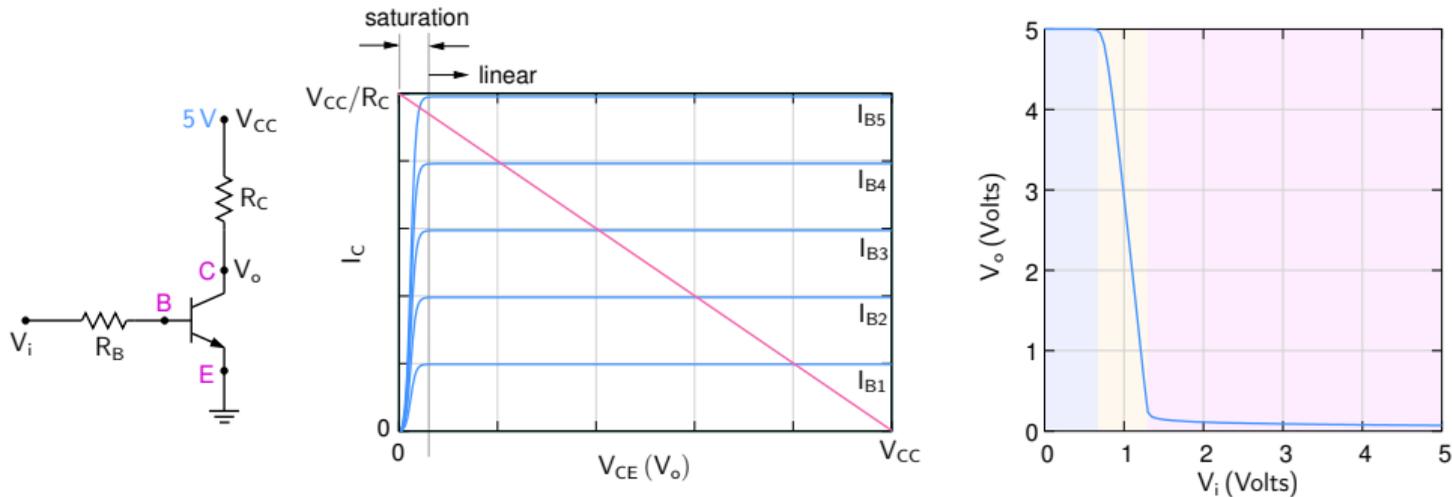
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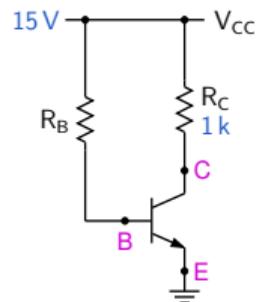


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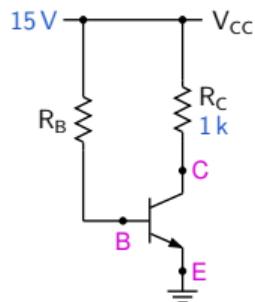
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 - adjusting the input DC bias to ensure that the BJT remains in the linear (active) region with a certain bias value of V_{BE} (or I_C).
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- * The first issue is addressed by using a suitable biasing scheme, and the second by using "coupling" capacitors.

BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme



“Biasing” an amplifier \Rightarrow selection of component values for a certain DC value of I_C (or V_{BE}) (i.e., when no signal is applied).

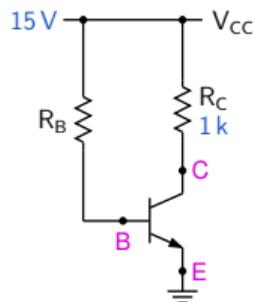
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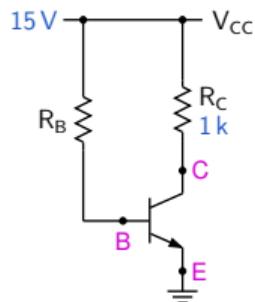


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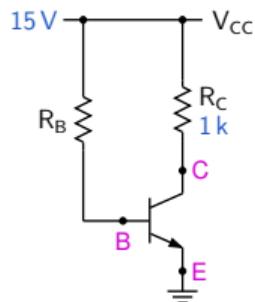
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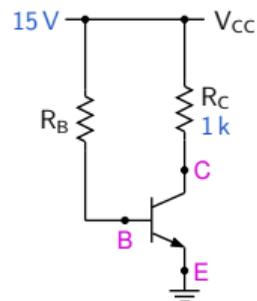
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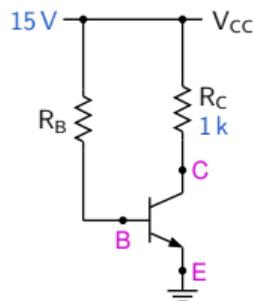
$$\rightarrow R_B = \frac{14.3\text{ V}}{33\text{ }\mu\text{A}} = 430\text{ k}\Omega.$$

BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme (continued)



With $R_B = 430\text{ k}$, we expect $I_C = 3.3\text{ mA}$, assuming $\beta = 100$.

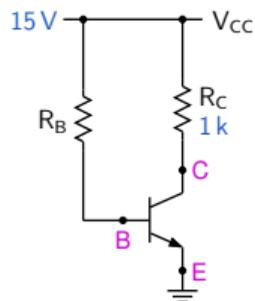
BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme (continued)



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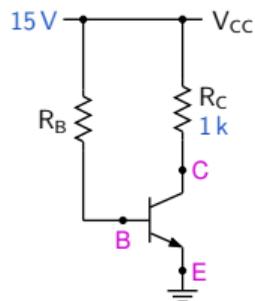
However, in practice, there is a substantial variation in the β value (even for the same transistor type). The manufacturer may specify the nominal value of β as 100, but the actual value may be 150, for example.

With $\beta = 150$, the actual I_C is,

$$I_C = \beta \times \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = 150 \times \frac{(15 - 0.7)\text{ V}}{430\text{ k}} = 5\text{ mA},$$

which is significantly different than the intended value, viz., 3.3 mA.

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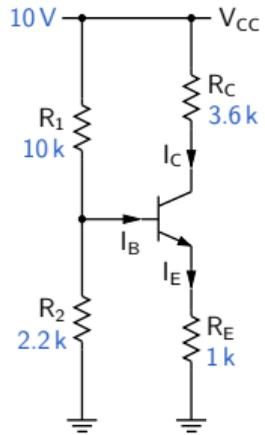
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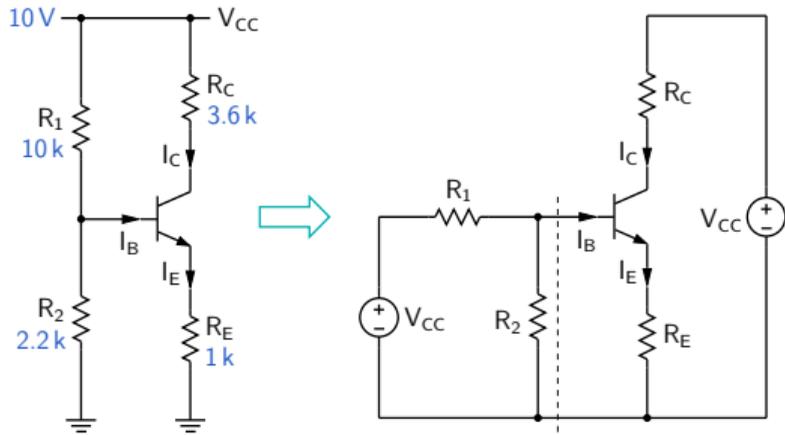
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→ need a biasing scheme which is not so sensitive to β .

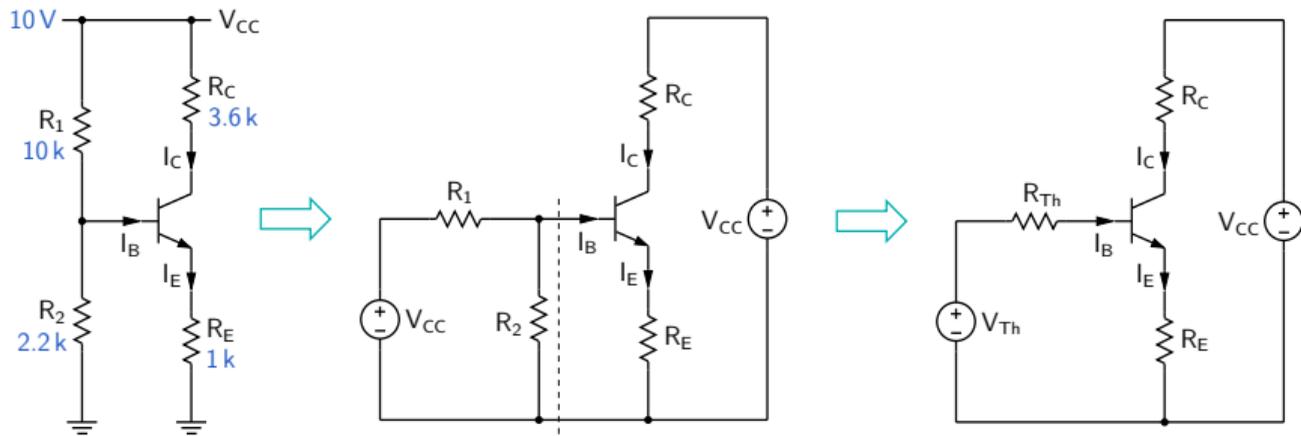
BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



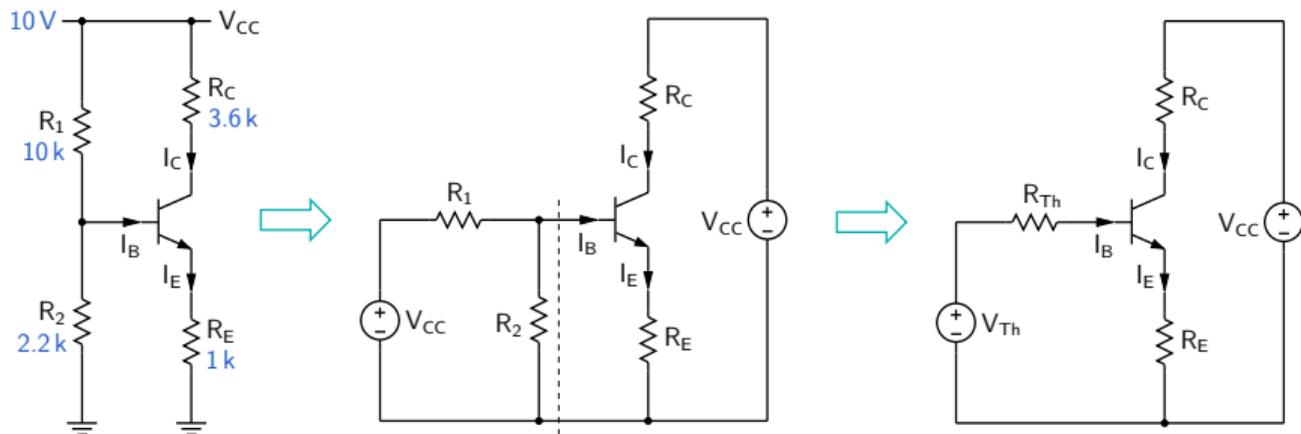
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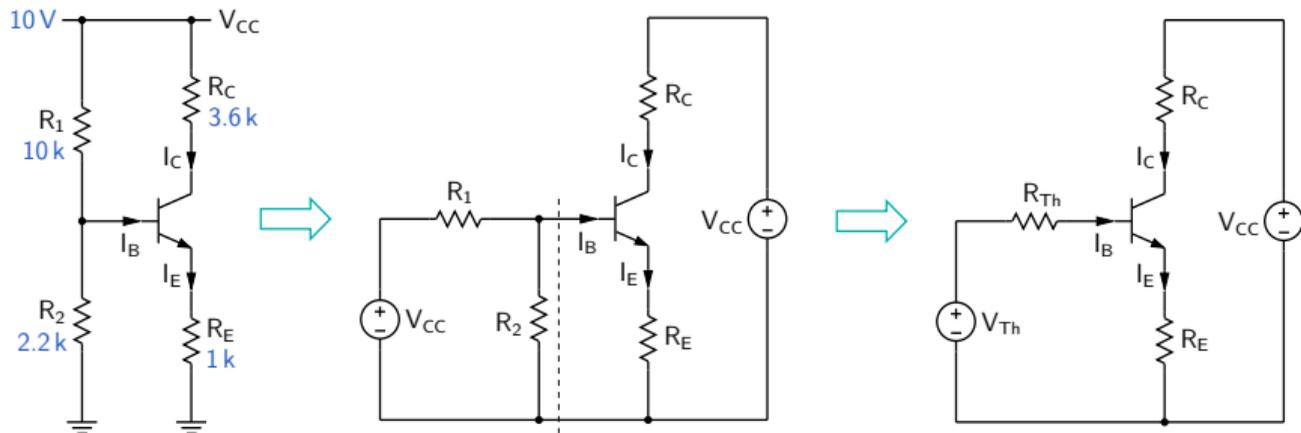


BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



$$V_{Th} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V_{CC} = \frac{2.2\text{k}}{10\text{k} + 2.2\text{k}} \times 10\text{V} = 1.8\text{V}, \quad R_{Th} = R_1 \parallel R_2 = 1.8\text{k}$$

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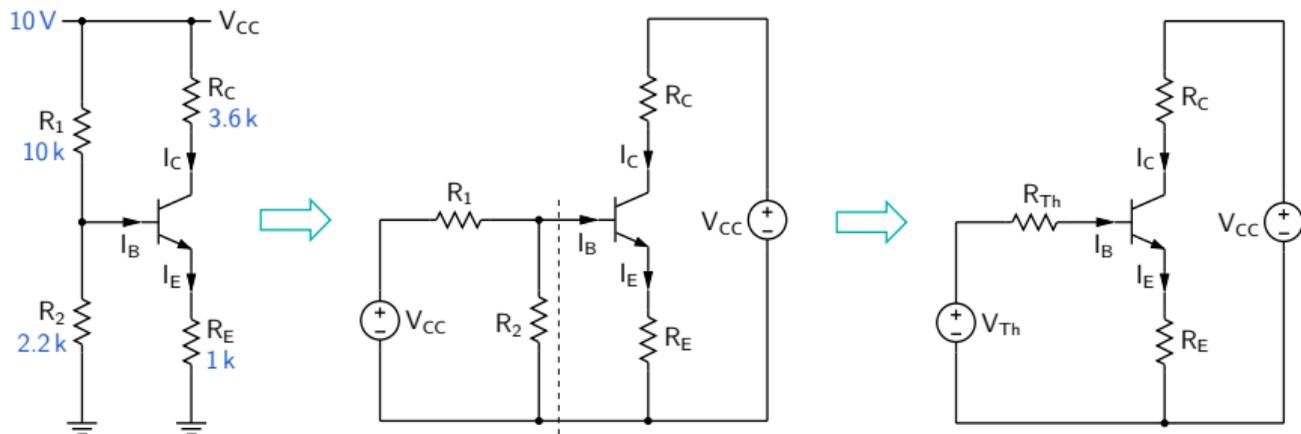


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Assuming the BJT to be in the active mode,

$$\text{KVL: } V_{Th} = R_{Th} I_B + V_{BE} + R_E I_E = R_{Th} I_B + V_{BE} + (\beta + 1) I_B R_E$$

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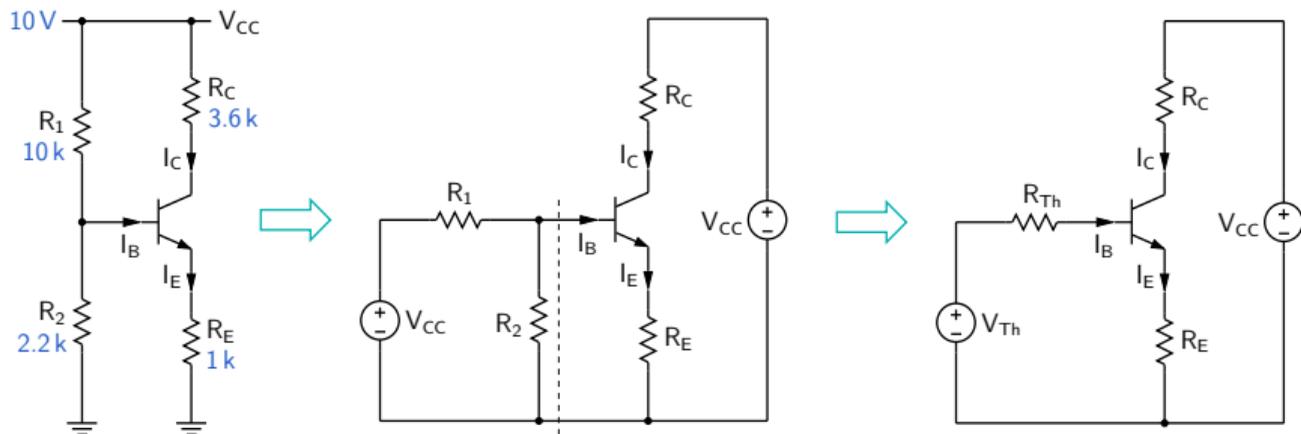
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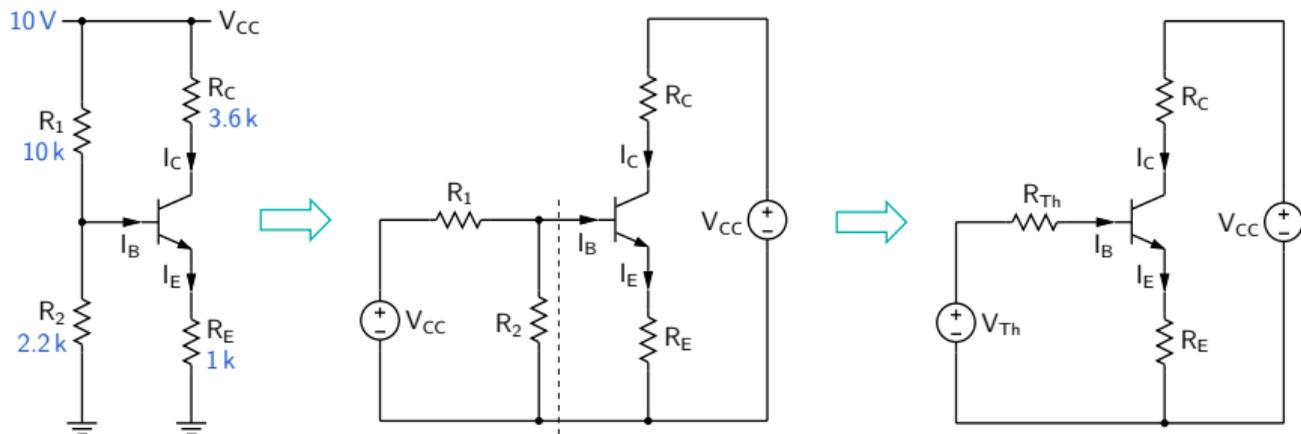
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For $\beta = 100$, $I_C = 1.07\text{mA}$.

BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



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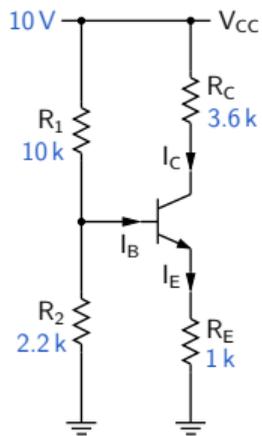
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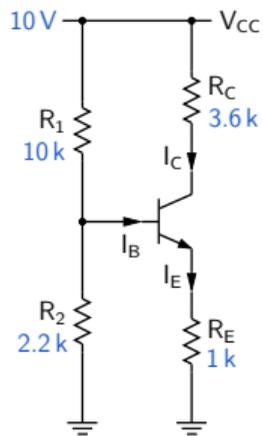
For $\beta = 200$, $I_C = 1.085\text{mA}$.

BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



With $I_C = 1.1\text{ mA}$, the various DC ("bias") voltages are

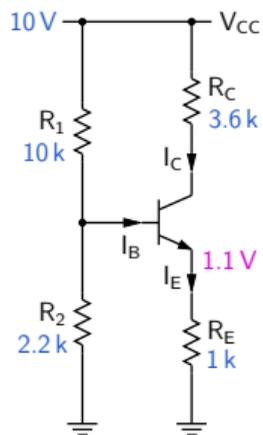
BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



With $I_C = 1.1 \text{ mA}$, the various DC ("bias") voltages are

$$V_E = I_E R_E \approx 1.1 \text{ mA} \times 1 \text{ k} = 1.1 \text{ V},$$

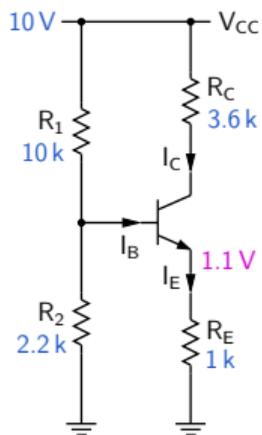
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BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)

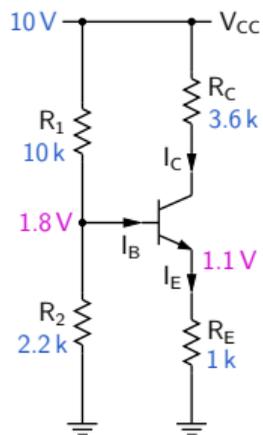


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BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)

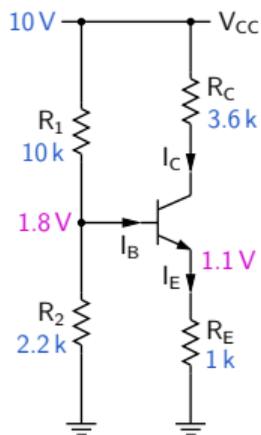


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BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



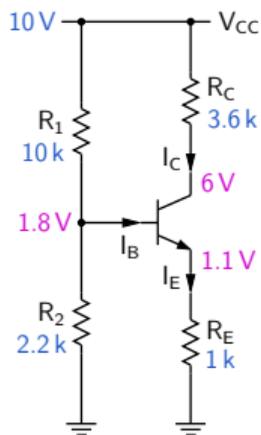
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BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



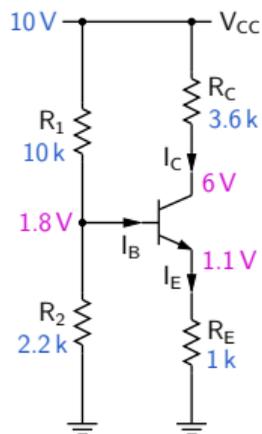
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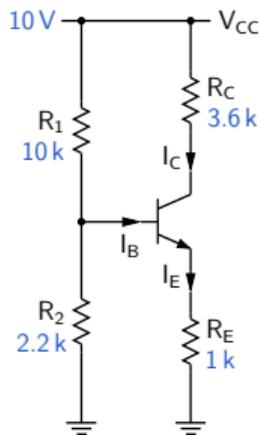
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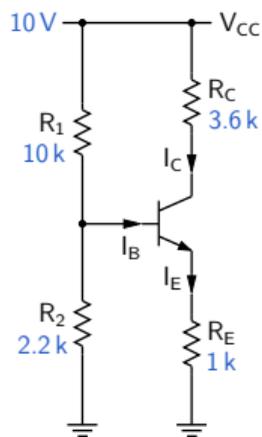
$$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 6 - 1.1 = 4.9\text{V}.$$

BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



A quick estimate of the bias values can be obtained by ignoring I_B (which is fair if β is large). In that case,

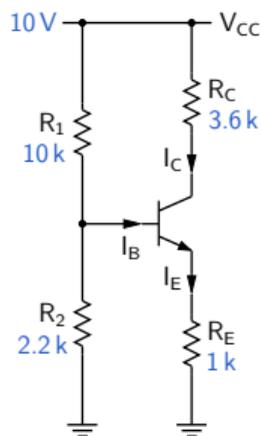
BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



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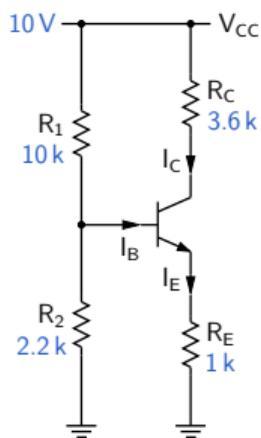


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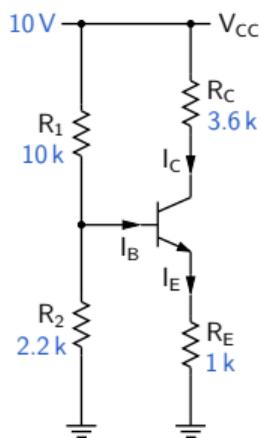
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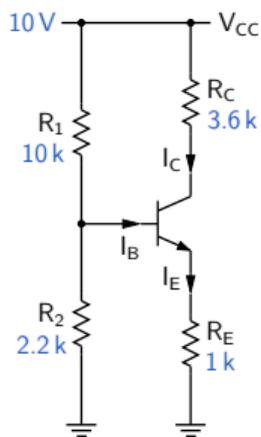
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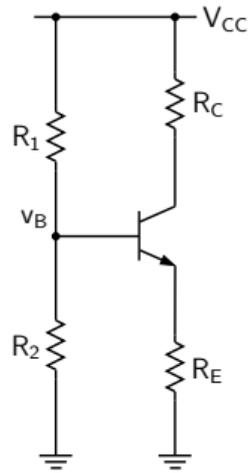
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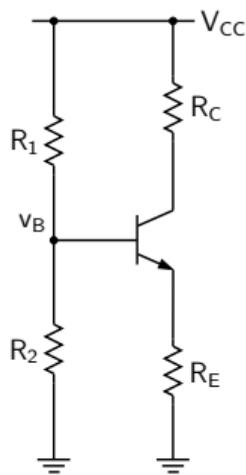
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Adding signal to bias

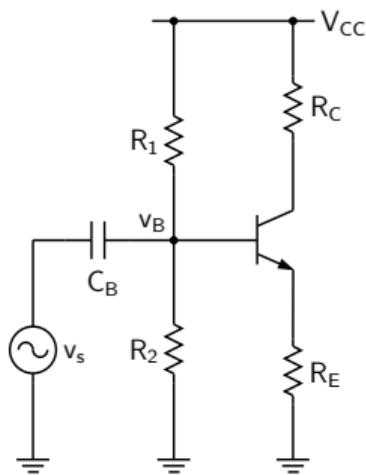


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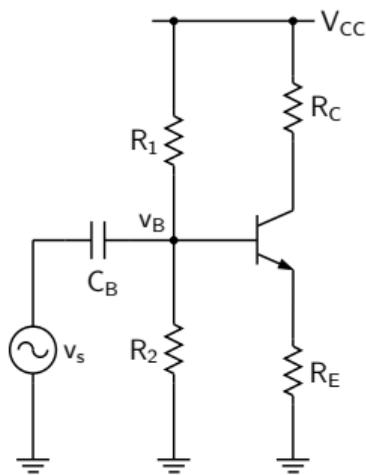
- * As we have seen earlier, the input signal $v_s(t) = \hat{V} \sin \omega t$ (for example) needs to be mixed with the desired bias value V_B so that the net voltage at the base is $v_B(t) = V_B + \hat{V} \sin \omega t$.

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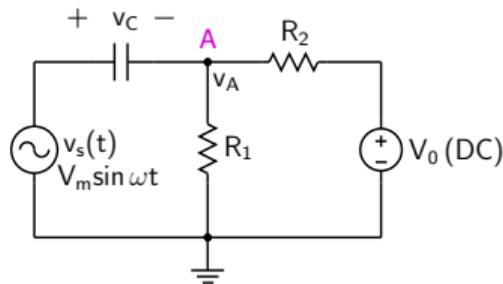


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- * This can be achieved by using a coupling capacitor C_B .

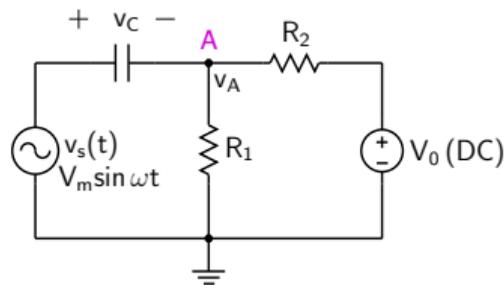
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- * This can be achieved by using a coupling capacitor C_B .
- * Let us consider a simple circuit to illustrate how a coupling capacitor works.

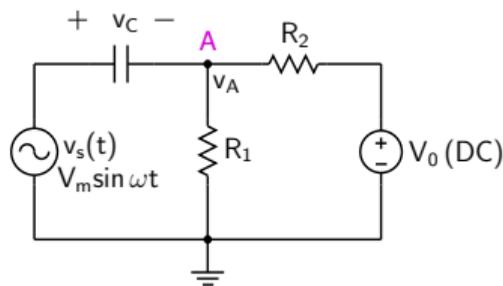


We are interested in the solution (currents and voltages) in the “sinusoidal steady state” when the exponential transients have vanished and each quantity $x(t)$ is of the form X_0 (constant) + $X_m \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$.



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There are two ways to obtain the solution:

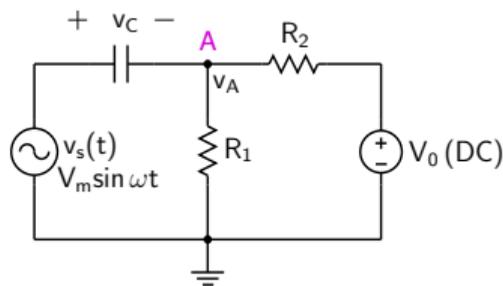


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(1) Solve the circuit equations directly:

$$\frac{v_A(t)}{R_1} + \frac{v_A(t) - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s(t) - v_A(t)).$$



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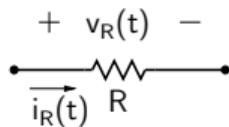
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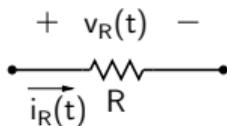
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- (2) Use the DC circuit + AC circuit approach.

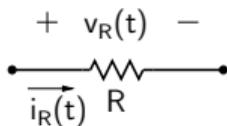
Resistor in sinusoidal steady state



Resistor in sinusoidal steady state

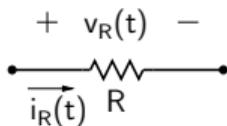


Let $v_R(t) = V_R + v_r(t)$ where $V_R = \text{constant}$, $v_r(t) = \widehat{V}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$,
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Since $v_R(t) = R \times i_R(t)$, we get $[V_R + v_r(t)] = R \times [I_R + i_r(t)]$.



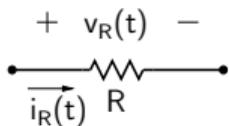
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This relationship can be split into two:

$V_R = R \times I_R$, and $v_r(t) = R \times i_r(t)$.

Resistor in sinusoidal steady state



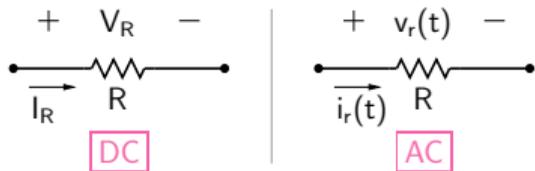
Let $v_R(t) = V_R + v_r(t)$ where $V_R = \text{constant}$, $v_r(t) = \widehat{V}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$,
 $i_R(t) = I_R + i_r(t)$ where $I_R = \text{constant}$, $i_r(t) = \widehat{I}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$.

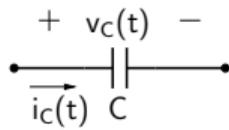
Since $v_R(t) = R \times i_R(t)$, we get $[V_R + v_r(t)] = R \times [I_R + i_r(t)]$.

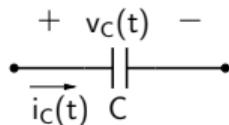
This relationship can be split into two:

$V_R = R \times I_R$, and $v_r(t) = R \times i_r(t)$.

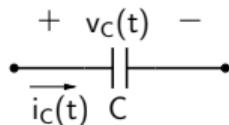
In other words, a resistor can be described by





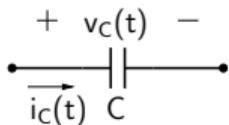


Let $v_C(t) = V_C + v_c(t)$ where $V_C = \text{constant}$, $v_c(t) = \widehat{V}_C \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$,
 $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$ where $I_C = \text{constant}$, $i_c(t) = \widehat{I}_C \sin(\omega t + \beta)$.



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 $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$ where $I_C = \text{constant}$, $i_c(t) = \widehat{I}_C \sin(\omega t + \beta)$.

Since $i_C(t) = C \frac{dv_C}{dt}$, we get $[I_C + i_c(t)] = C \frac{d}{dt} (V_C + v_c(t))$.



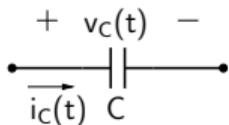
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Since $i_C(t) = C \frac{dv_C}{dt}$, we get $[I_C + i_c(t)] = C \frac{d}{dt} (V_C + v_c(t))$.

This relationship can be split into two:

$$I_C = C \frac{dV_C}{dt} = 0, \text{ and } i_c(t) = C \frac{dv_c}{dt}.$$

Capacitor in sinusoidal steady state



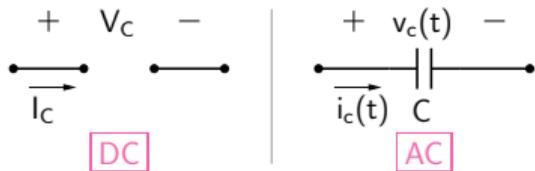
Let $v_C(t) = V_C + v_c(t)$ where $V_C = \text{constant}$, $v_c(t) = \widehat{V}_C \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$,
 $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$ where $I_C = \text{constant}$, $i_c(t) = \widehat{I}_C \sin(\omega t + \beta)$.

Since $i_C(t) = C \frac{dv_C}{dt}$, we get $[I_C + i_c(t)] = C \frac{d}{dt} (V_C + v_c(t))$.

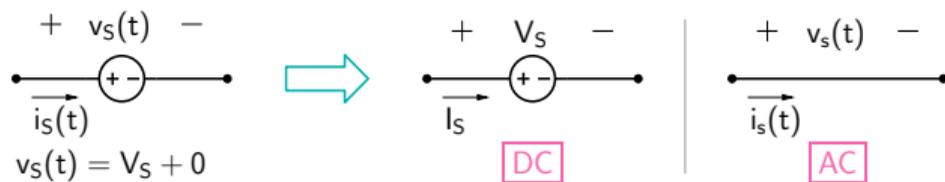
This relationship can be split into two:

$$I_C = C \frac{dV_C}{dt} = 0, \text{ and } i_c(t) = C \frac{dv_c}{dt}.$$

In other words, a capacitor can be described by

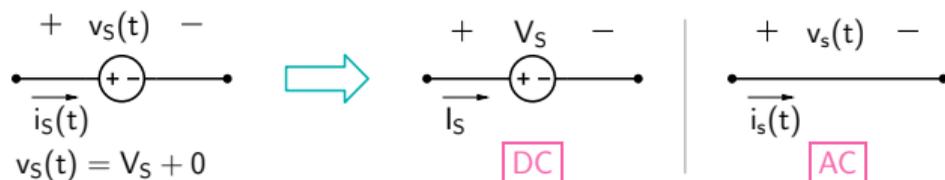


DC voltage source:

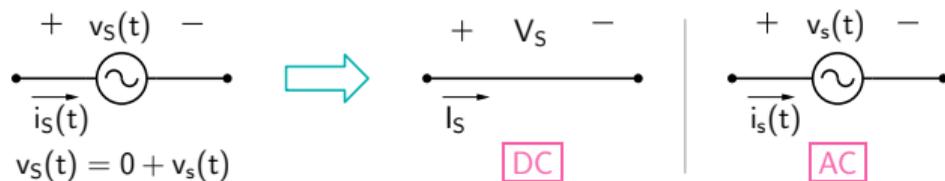


Voltage sources in sinusoidal steady state

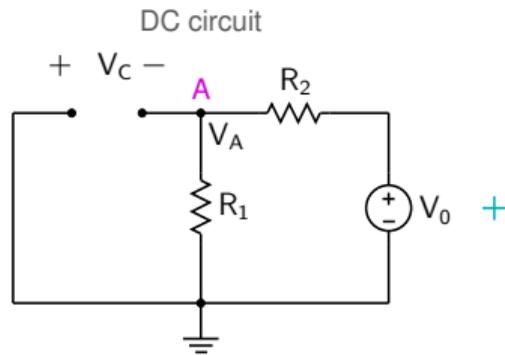
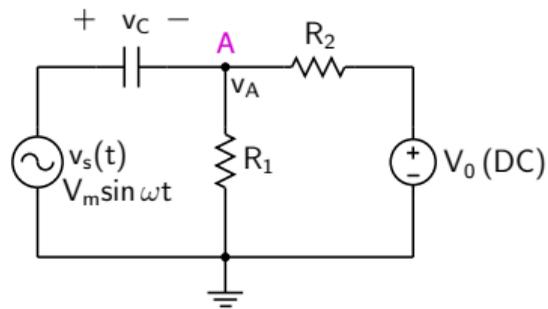
DC voltage source:



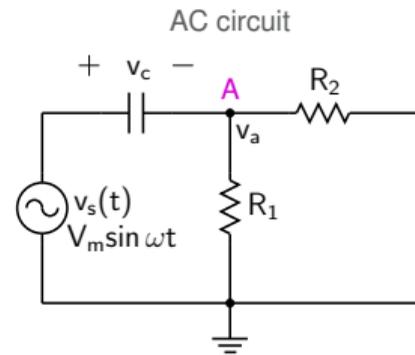
AC voltage source:



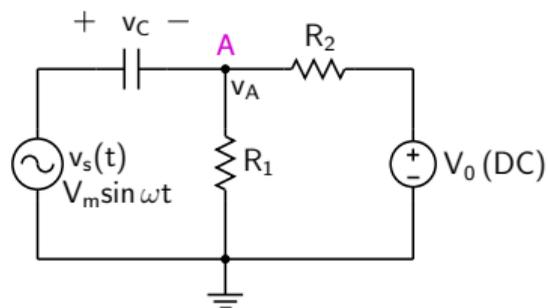
RC circuit with DC + AC sources



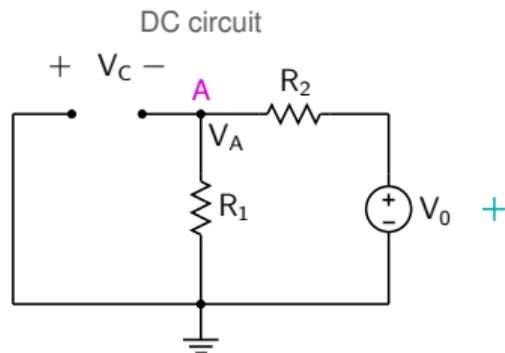
+



RC circuit with DC + AC sources

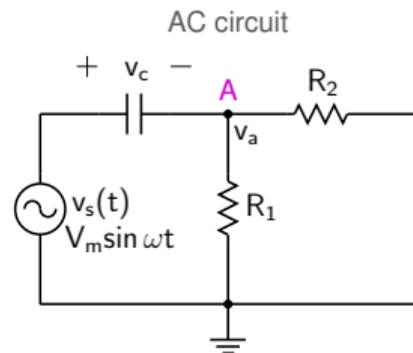
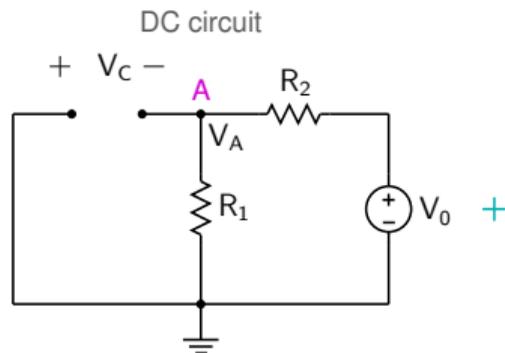
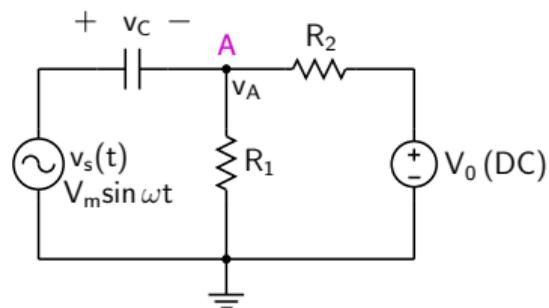


DC circuit:
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0.$$



(1)

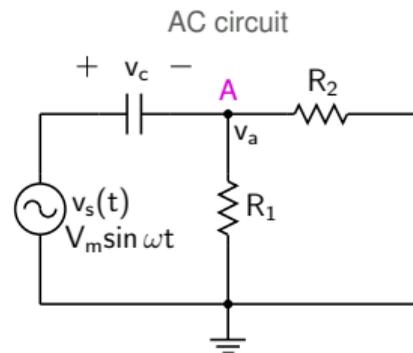
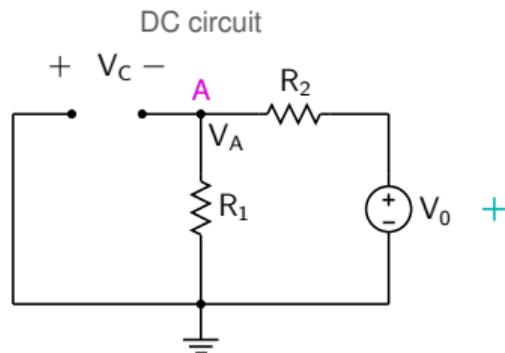
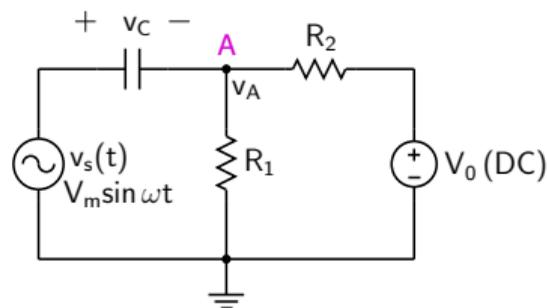
RC circuit with DC + AC sources



DC circuit:
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0. \quad (1)$$

AC circuit:
$$\frac{v_a}{R_1} + \frac{v_a}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_a). \quad (2)$$

RC circuit with DC + AC sources

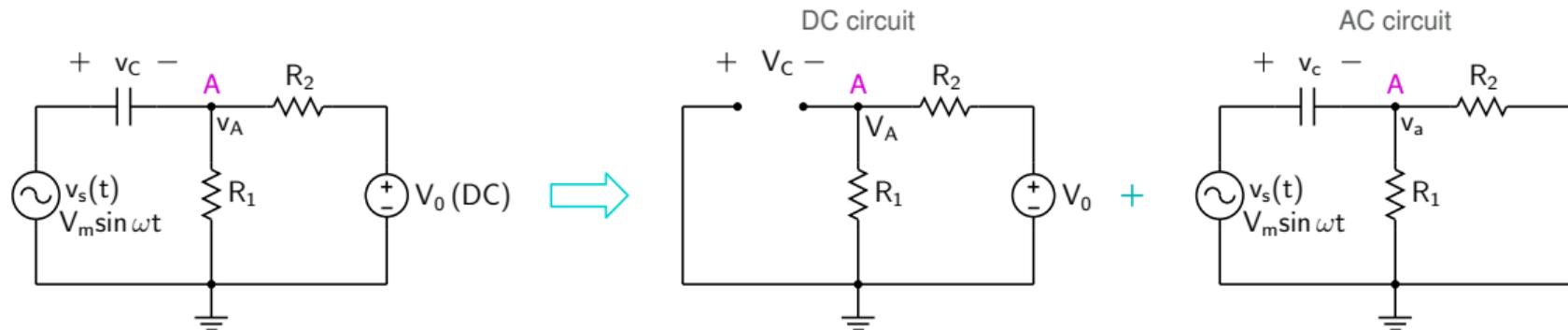


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Adding (1) and (2), we get
$$\frac{V_A + v_a}{R_1} + \frac{V_A + v_a - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_a). \quad (3)$$

RC circuit with DC + AC sources



DC circuit:
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0. \quad (1)$$

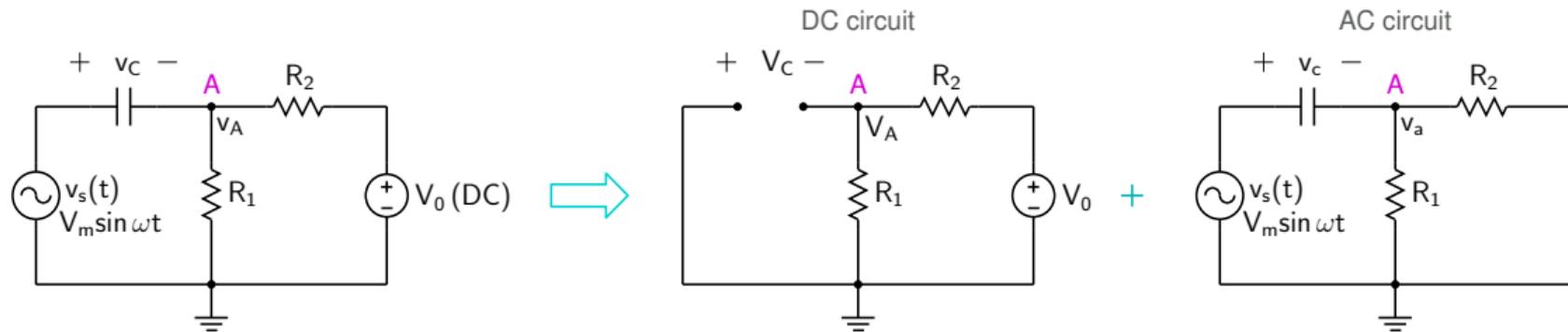
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$$\frac{V_A + v_a}{R_1} + \frac{V_A + v_a - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_a). \quad (3)$$

Compare with the equation obtained directly from the original circuit:

$$\frac{v_A}{R_1} + \frac{v_A - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_A). \quad (4)$$

RC circuit with DC + AC sources



DC circuit:
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0. \quad (1)$$

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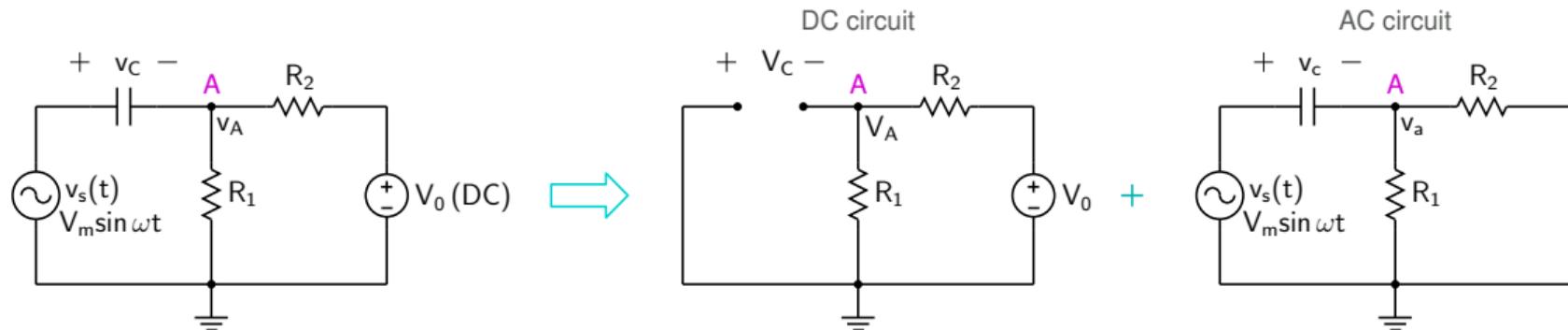
Adding (1) and (2), we get
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Compare with the equation obtained directly from the original circuit:

$$\frac{v_A}{R_1} + \frac{v_A - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_A). \quad (4)$$

Eqs. (3) and (4) are identical since $v_A = V_A + v_a$.

RC circuit with DC + AC sources



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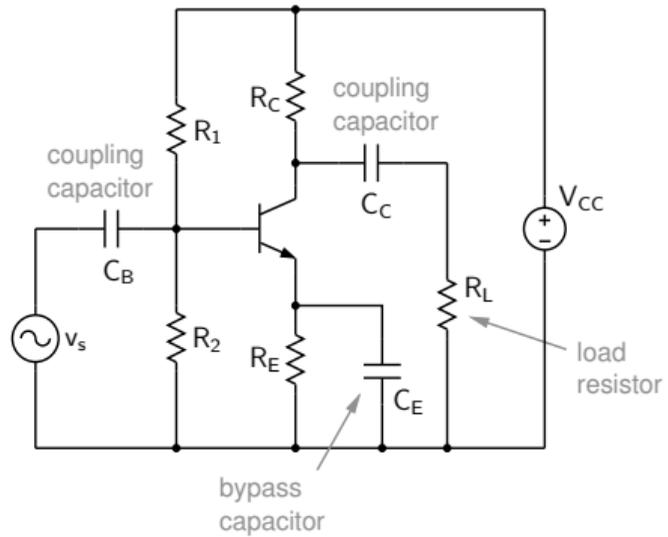
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Eqs. (3) and (4) are identical since $v_A = V_A + v_a$.

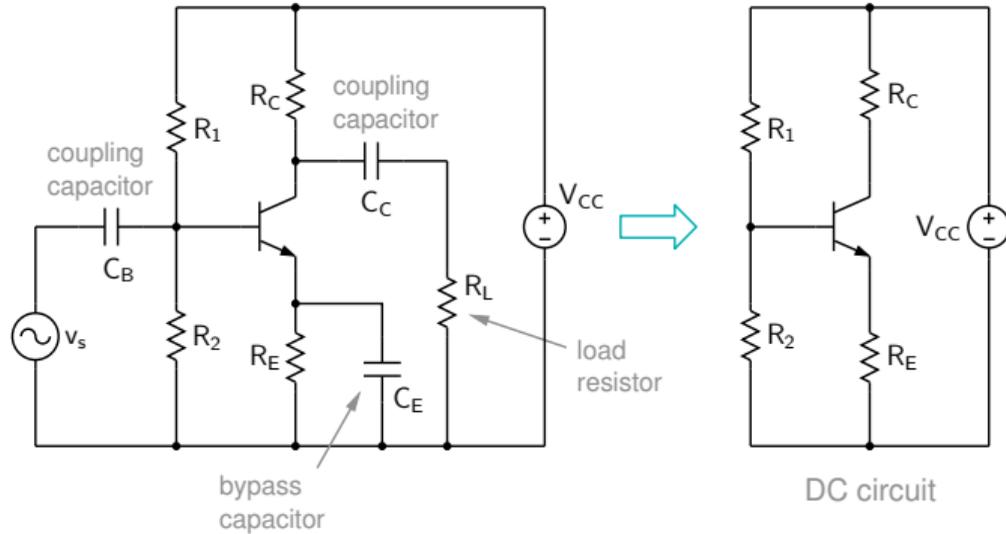
→ Instead of computing $v_A(t)$ directly, we can compute V_A and $v_a(t)$ separately, and then use

$$v_A(t) = V_A + v_a(t).$$

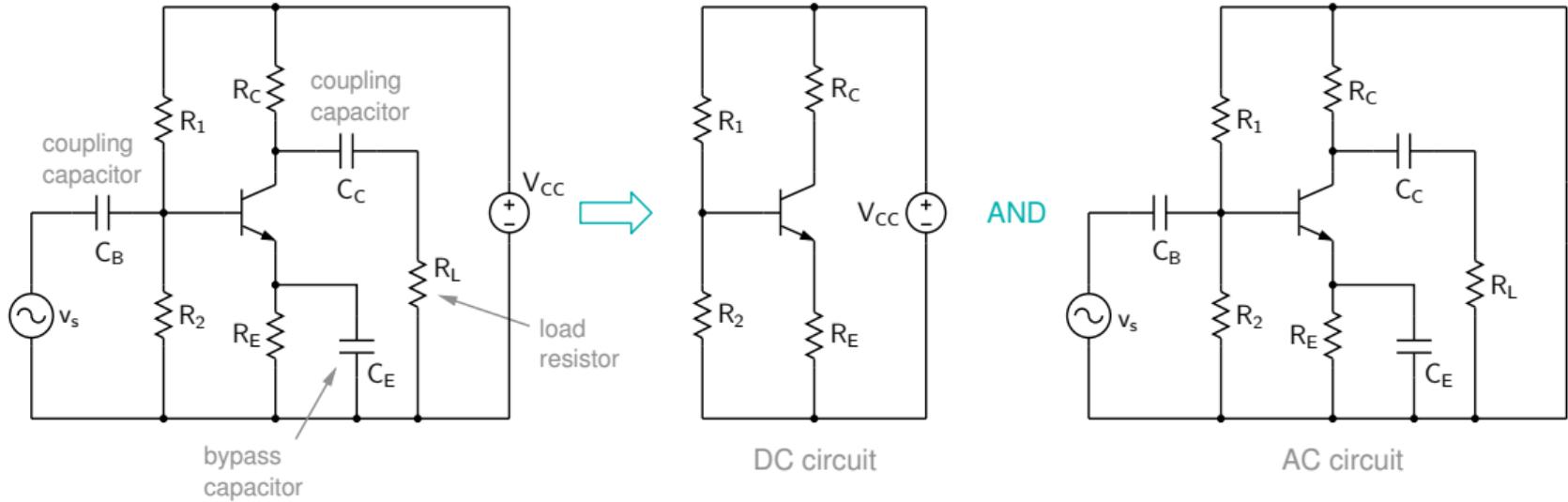
Common-emitter amplifier



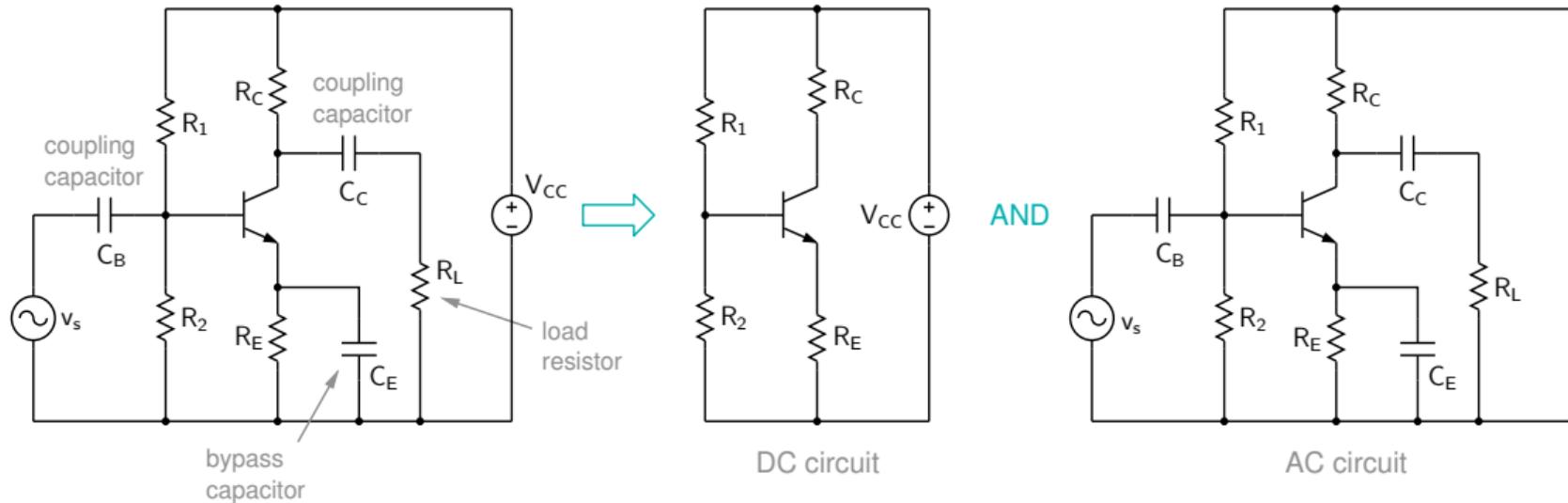
Common-emitter amplifier



Common-emitter amplifier

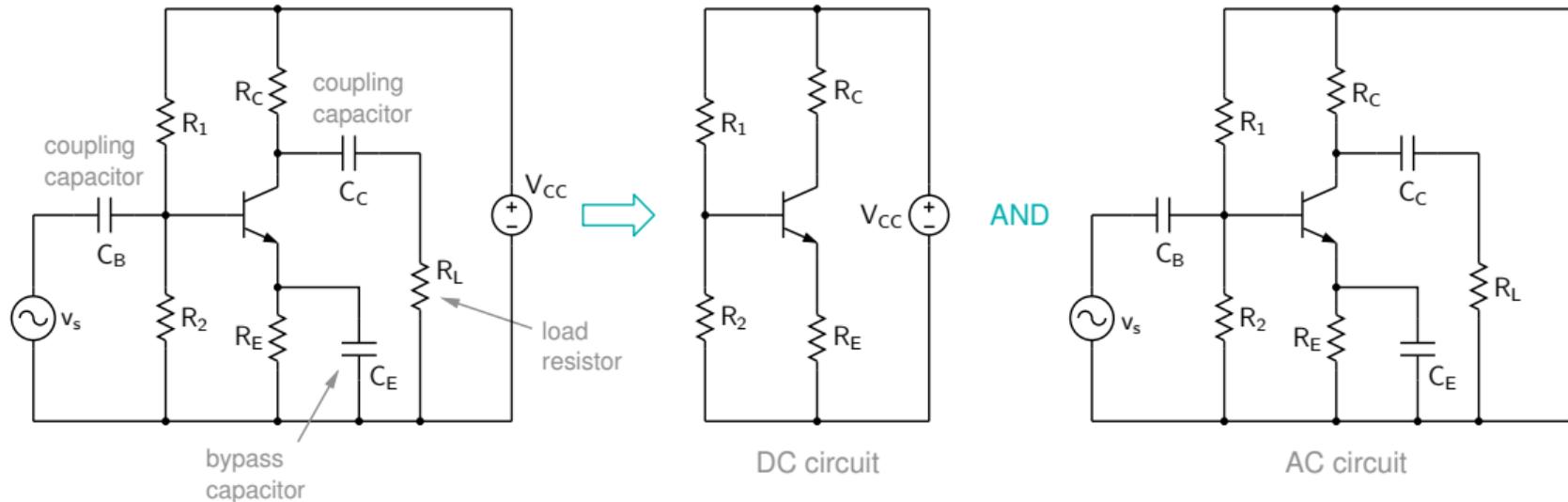


Common-emitter amplifier



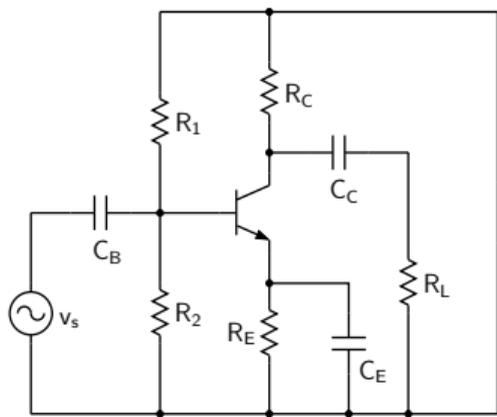
* The coupling capacitors ensure that the signal source and the load resistor do not affect the DC bias of the amplifier. (We will see the purpose of C_E a little later.)

Common-emitter amplifier

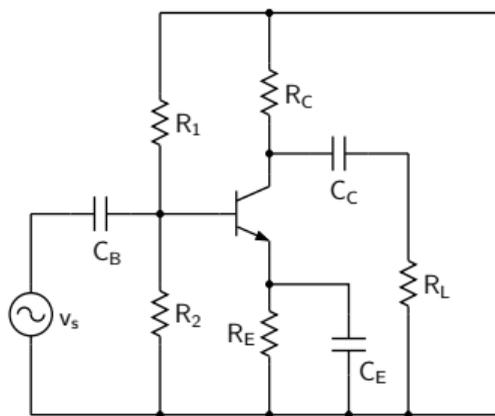


- * The coupling capacitors ensure that the signal source and the load resistor do not affect the DC bias of the amplifier. (We will see the purpose of C_E a little later.)
- * This enables us to bias the amplifier without worrying about what load it is going to drive.

Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



- * The coupling and bypass capacitors are “large” (typically, a few μF), and at frequencies of interest, their impedance is small.

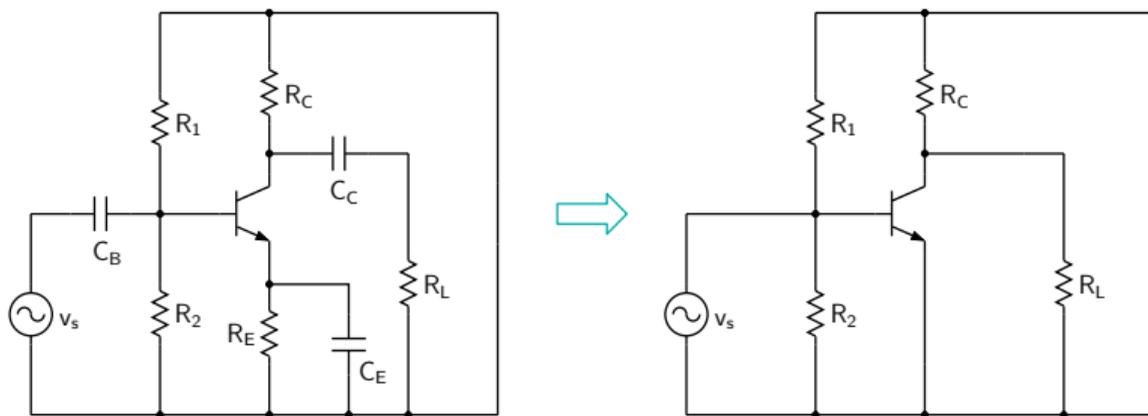
For example, for $C = 10 \mu F$, $f = 1 \text{ kHz}$,

$$Z_C = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 10^3 \times 10 \times 10^{-6}} = 16 \Omega,$$

which is much smaller than typical values of R_1 , R_2 , R_C , R_E (a few $k\Omega$).

$\Rightarrow C_B$, C_C , C_E can be replaced by short circuits at the frequencies of interest.

Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



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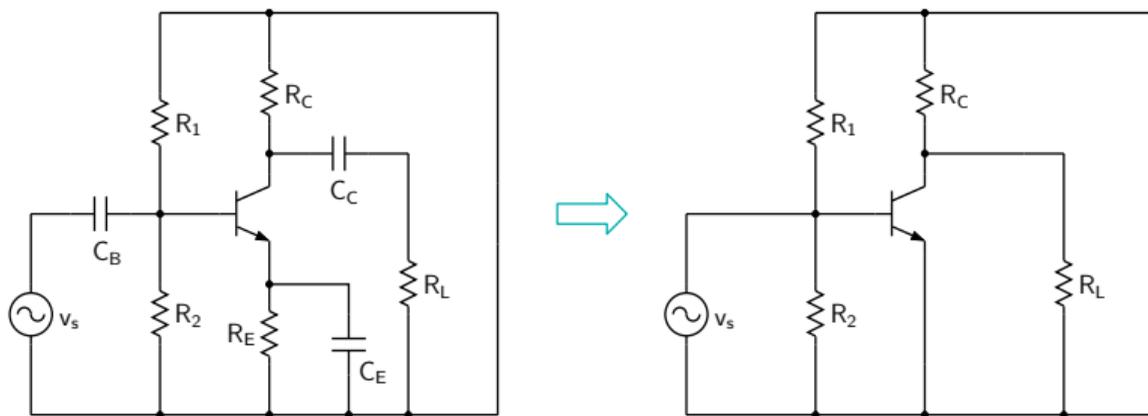
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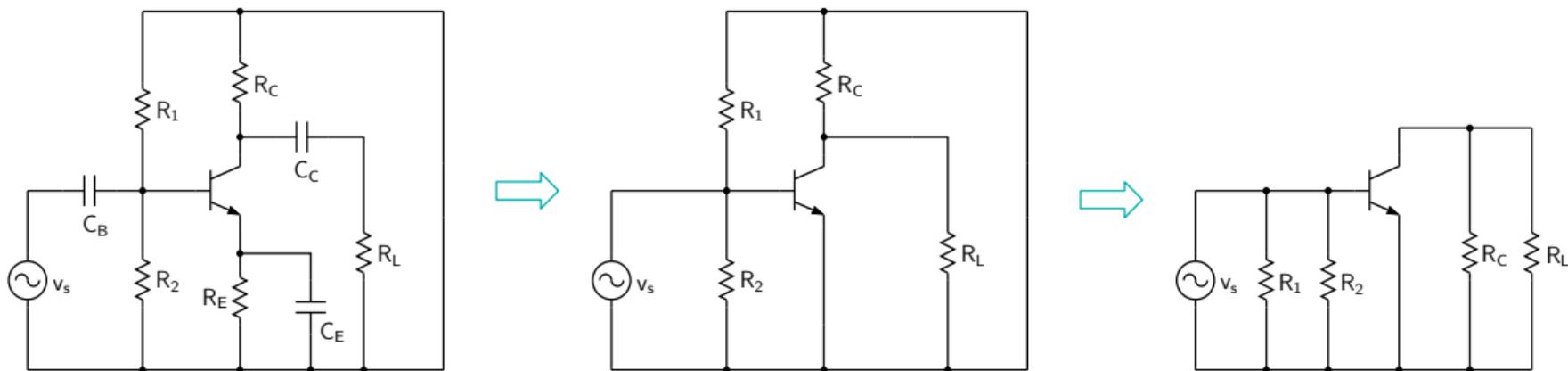
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- * The circuit can be re-drawn in a more friendly format.

Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



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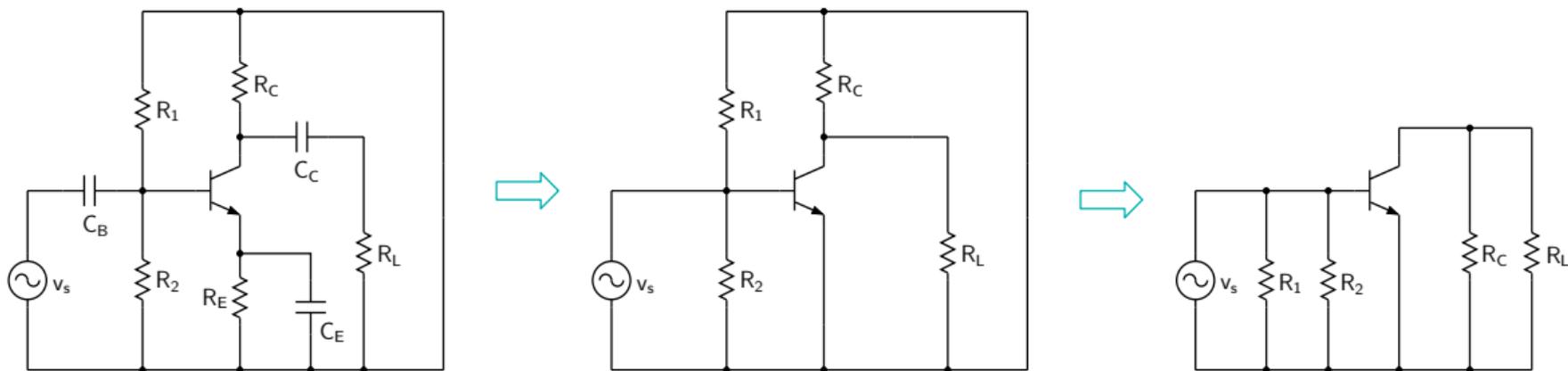
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Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



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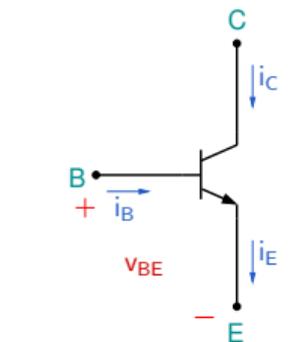
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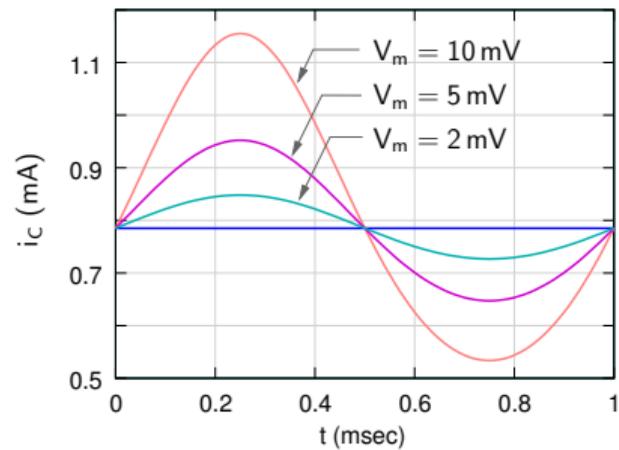
$\Rightarrow C_B$, C_C , C_E can be replaced by short circuits at the frequencies of interest.

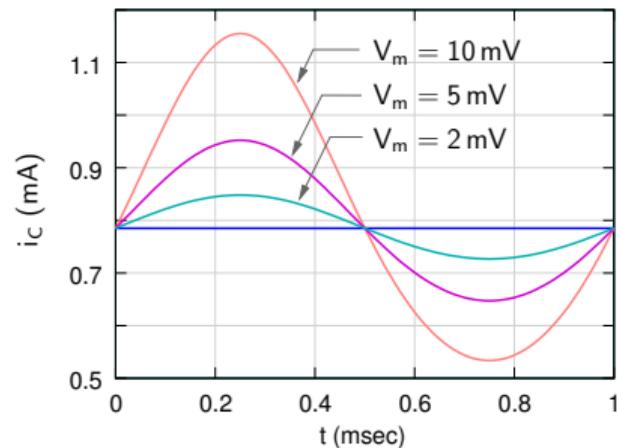
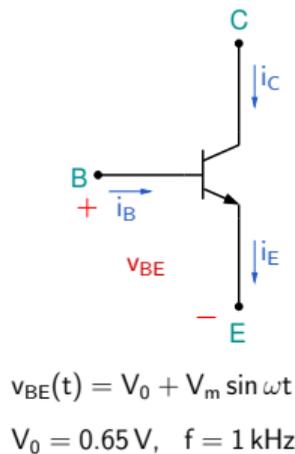
- * The circuit can be re-drawn in a more friendly format.
- * We now need to figure out the AC description of a BJT.



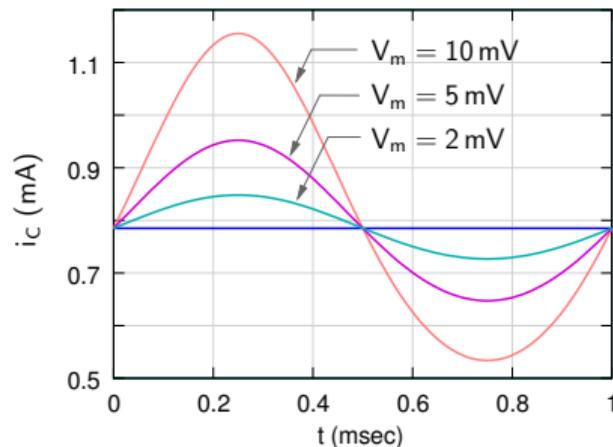
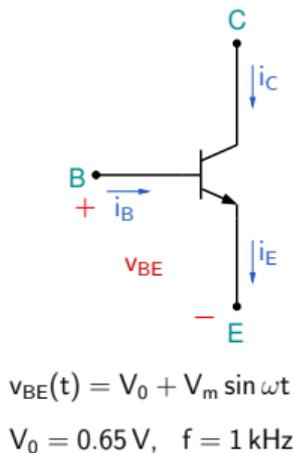
$$v_{BE}(t) = V_0 + V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$V_0 = 0.65 \text{ V}, \quad f = 1 \text{ kHz}$$



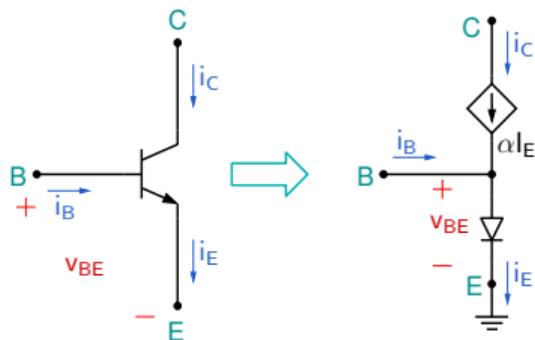


- * As the v_{BE} amplitude increases, the shape of $i_C(t)$ deviates from a sinusoid → distortion.

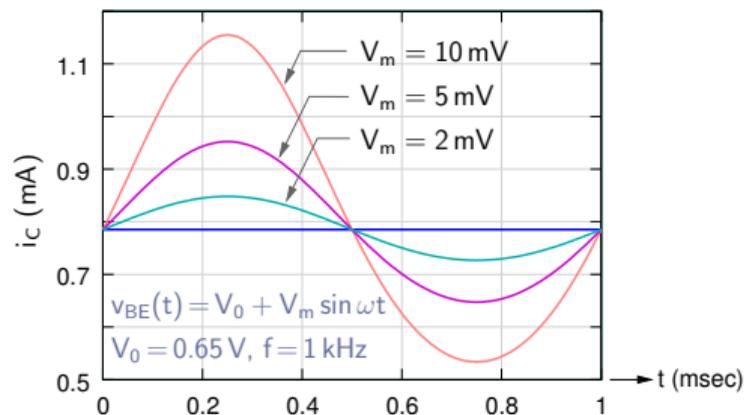


- * As the v_{BE} amplitude increases, the shape of $i_C(t)$ deviates from a sinusoid → distortion.
- * If $v_{be}(t)$, i.e., the time-varying part of v_{BE} , is kept small, i_C varies linearly with v_{BE} . How small? Let us look at this in more detail.

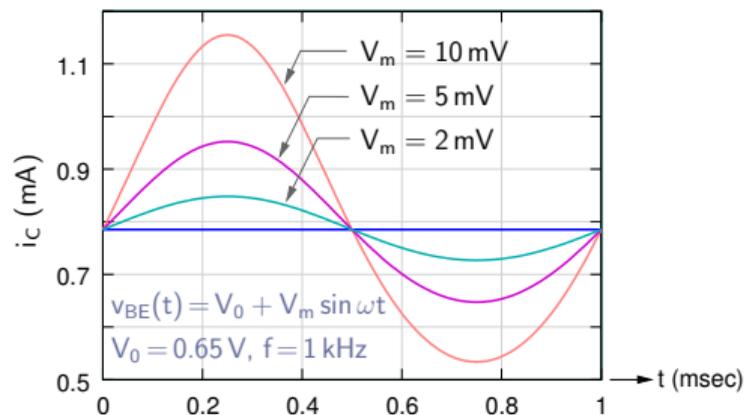
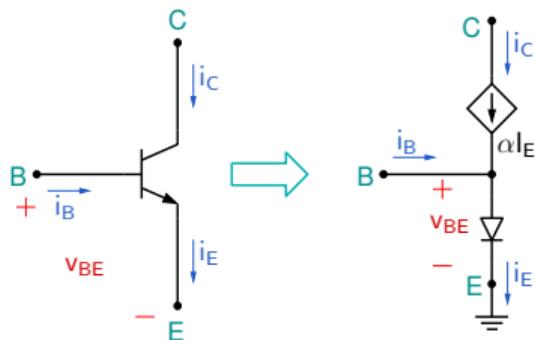
BJT: small-signal model



Let $v_{BE}(t) = V_{BE} + v_{be}(t)$ (bias+signal), and $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$.



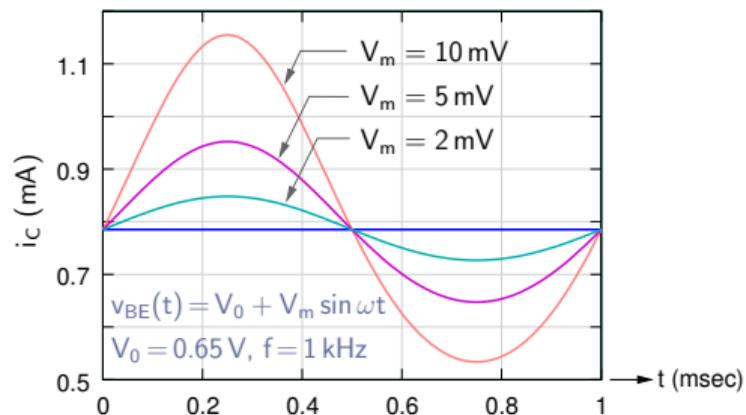
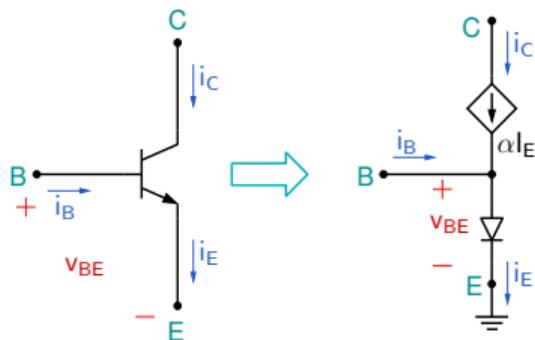
BJT: small-signal model



Let $v_{BE}(t) = V_{BE} + v_{be}(t)$ (bias+signal), and $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$.

Assuming active mode, $i_C(t) = \alpha i_E(t) = \alpha I_{ES} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$.

BJT: small-signal model



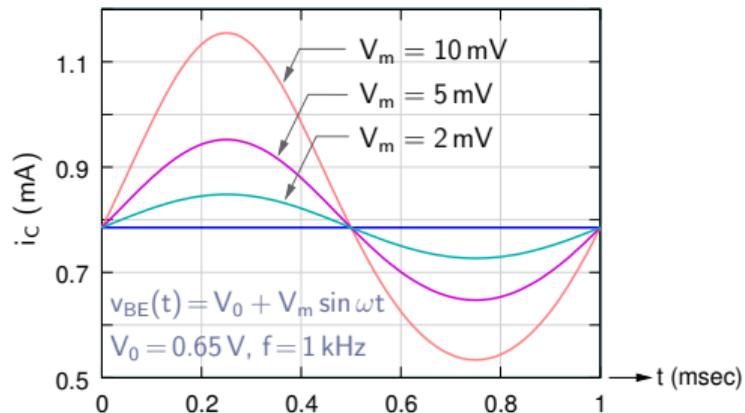
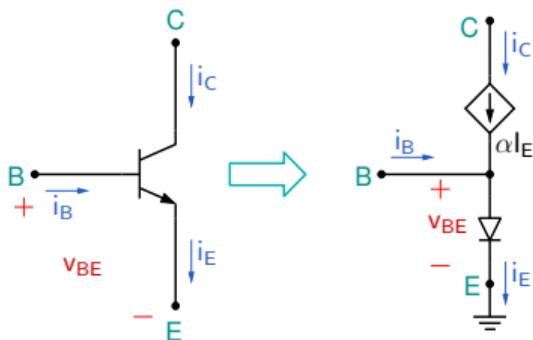
Let $v_{BE}(t) = V_{BE} + v_{be}(t)$ (bias+signal), and $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$.

Assuming active mode, $i_C(t) = \alpha i_E(t) = \alpha I_{ES} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$.

Since the B-E junction is forward-biased, $\exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) \gg 1$, and we get

$$i_C(t) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{V_{BE} + v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}\right) \times \exp\left(\frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right).$$

BJT: small-signal model



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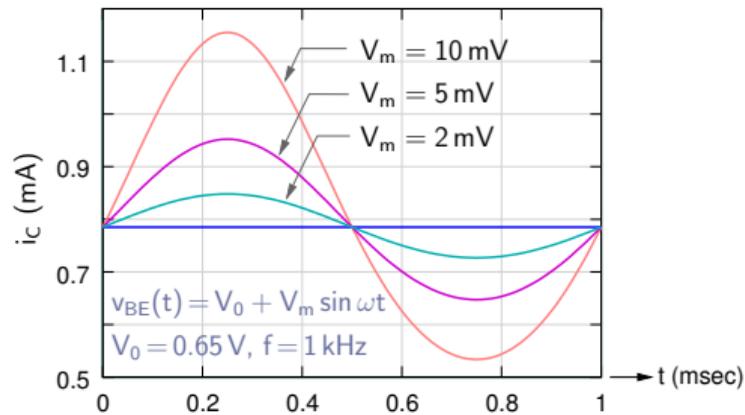
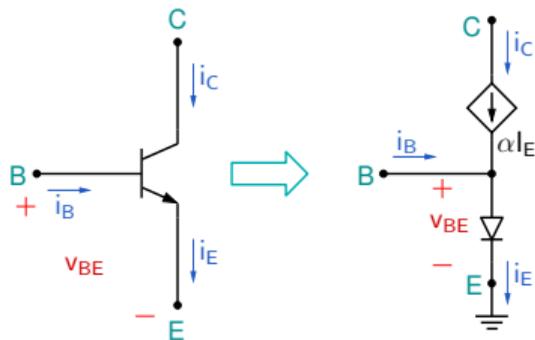
Since the B-E junction is forward-biased, $\exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) \gg 1$, and we get

$$i_C(t) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T}\right) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{V_{BE} + v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right) = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}\right) \times \exp\left(\frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right).$$

If $v_{be}(t) = 0$, $i_C(t) = I_C$ (the bias value of i_C), i.e., $I_C = \alpha I_{ES} \exp\left(\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}\right)$

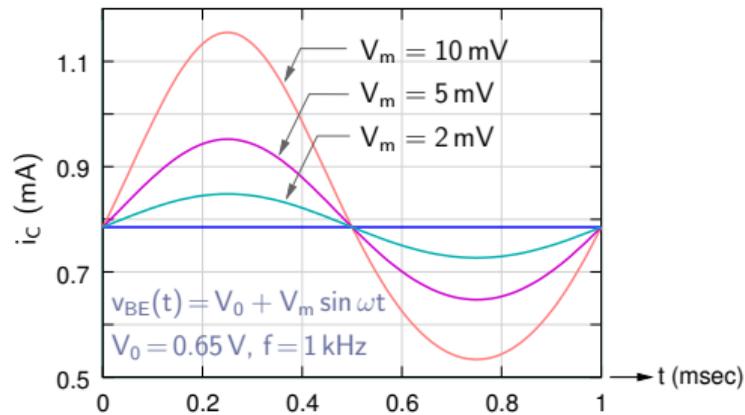
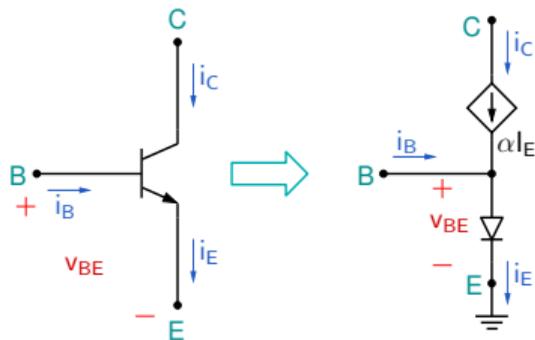
$$\Rightarrow i_C(t) = I_C \exp\left(\frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right).$$

BJT: small-signal model



$$i_C(t) = I_C \exp\left(\frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right) = I_C \left[1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots\right], \quad x = v_{be}(t)/V_T.$$

BJT: small-signal model

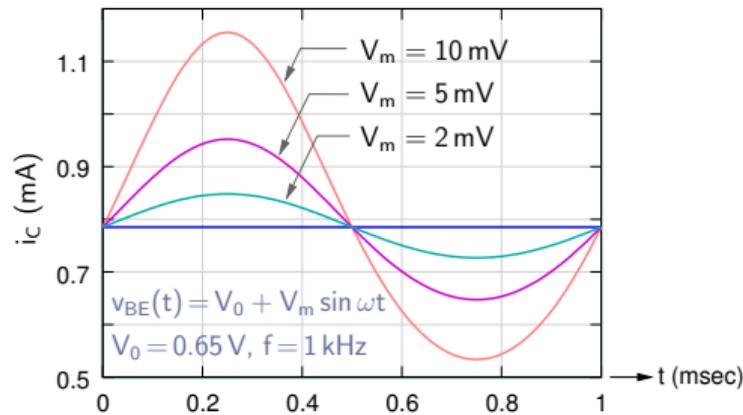
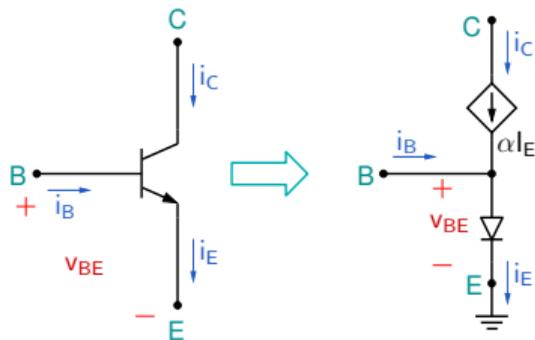


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BJT: small-signal model



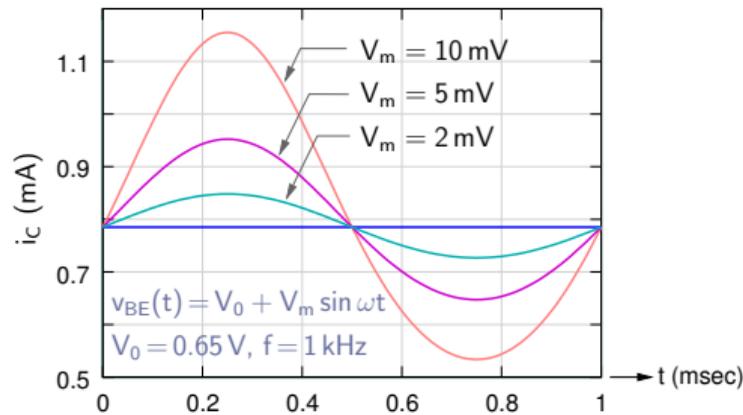
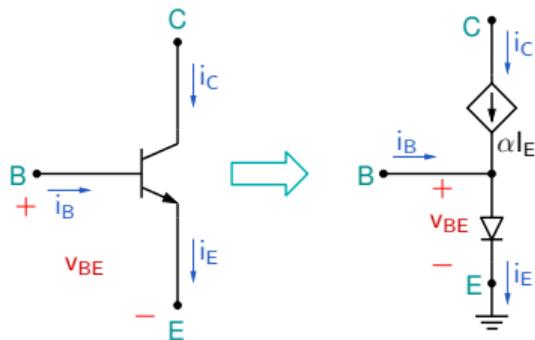
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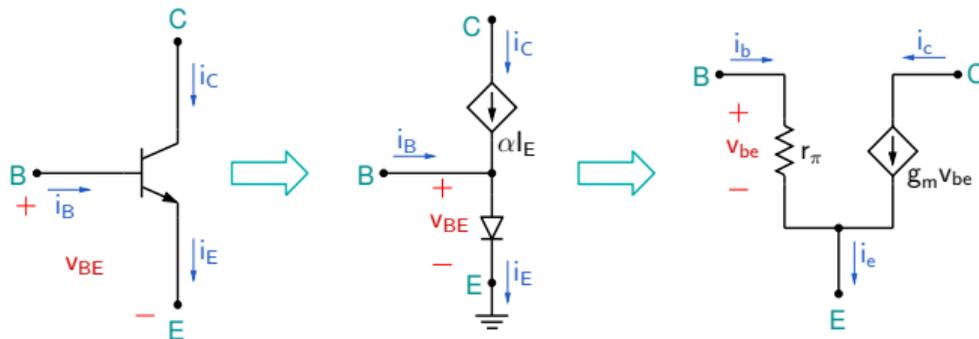
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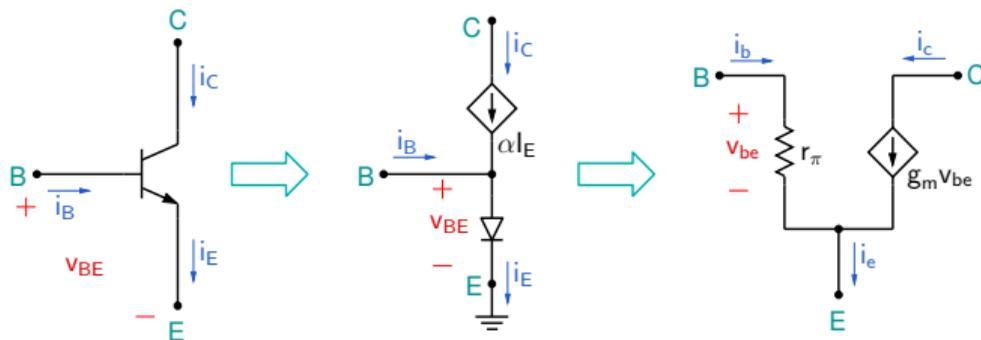
$$i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t) = I_C \left[1 + \frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right] \Rightarrow \boxed{i_c(t) = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}(t)}$$

BJT: small-signal model



The relationship, $i_c(t) = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}(t)$ can be represented by a VCCS, $i_c(t) = g_m v_{be}(t)$, where $g_m = I_C/V_T$ is the “transconductance.”

BJT: small-signal model

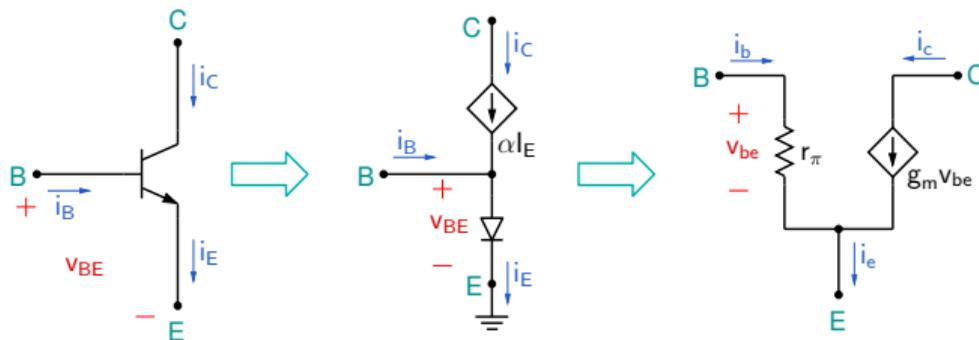


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For the base current, we have,

$$i_B(t) = I_B + i_b(t) = \frac{1}{\beta} [I_C + i_c(t)]$$

$$\rightarrow i_b(t) = \frac{1}{\beta} i_c(t) = \frac{1}{\beta} g_m v_{be}(t) \rightarrow v_{be}(t) = (\beta/g_m) i_b(t).$$



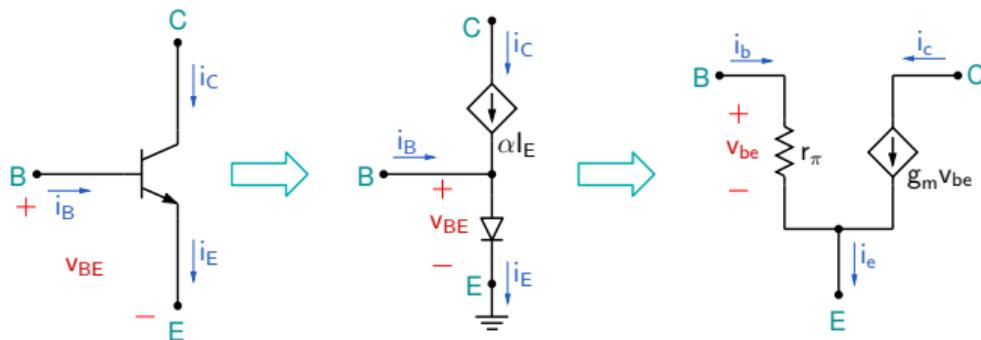
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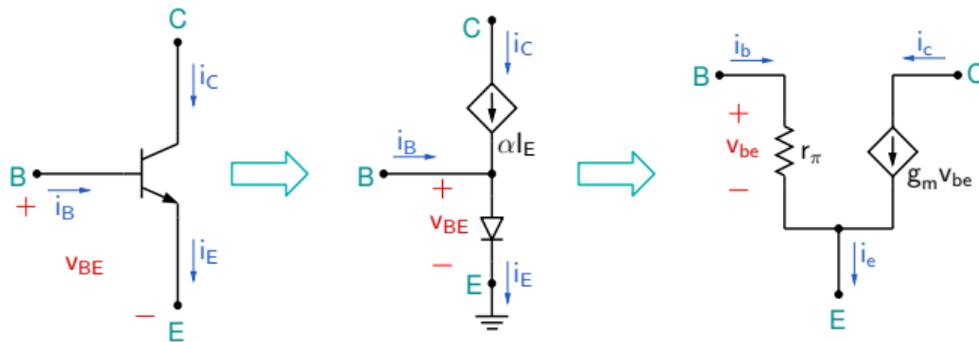
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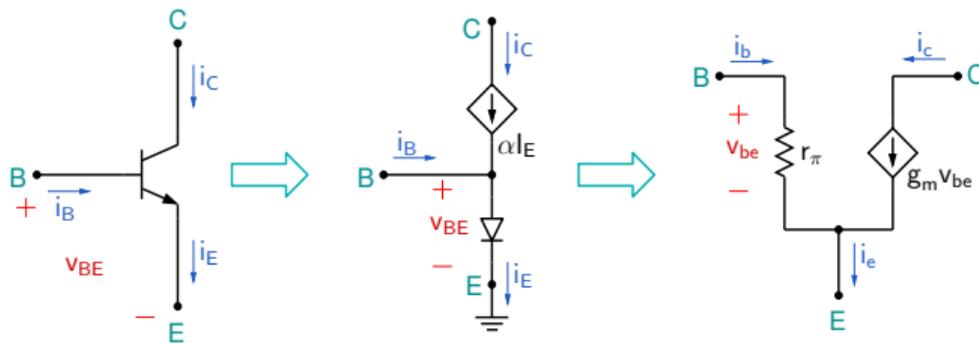
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The resulting model is called the π -model for small-signal description of a BJT.

BJT: small-signal model

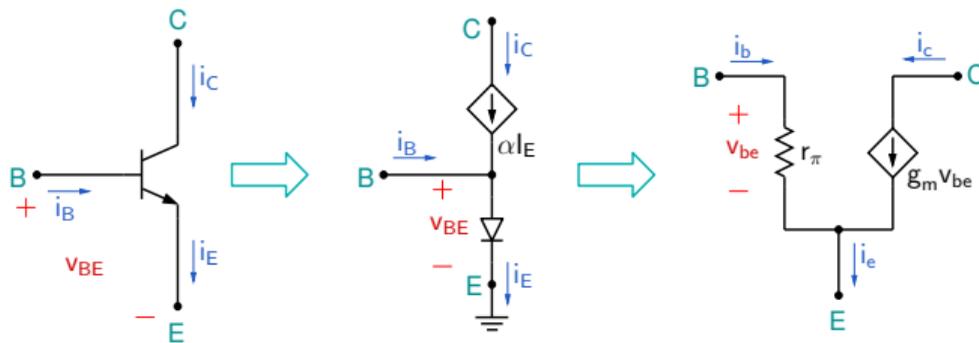


- * The transconductance g_m depends on the biasing of the BJT, since $g_m = I_C/V_T$. For $I_C = 1 \text{ mA}$, $V_T \approx 25 \text{ mV}$ (room temperature), $g_m = 1 \text{ mA}/25 \text{ mV} = 40 \text{ m}\Omega$ (milli-mho or milli-siemens).



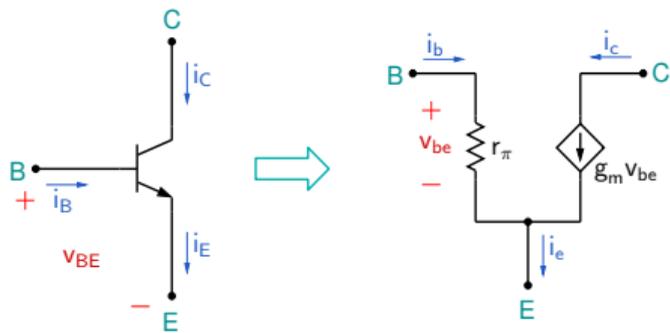
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- * r_π also depends on I_C , since $r_\pi = \beta/g_m = \beta V_T/I_C$. For $I_C = 1 \text{ mA}$, $V_T \approx 25 \text{ mV}$, $\beta = 100$, $r_\pi = 2.5 \text{ k}\Omega$.

BJT: small-signal model



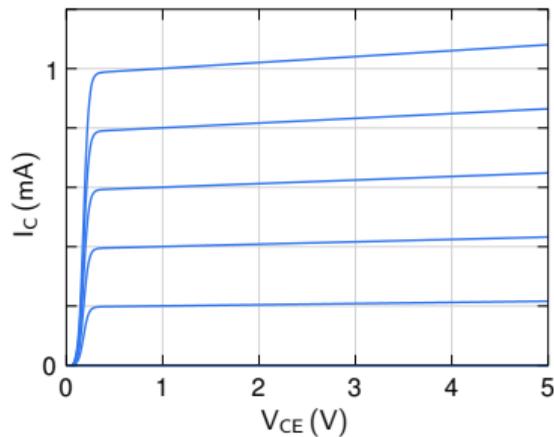
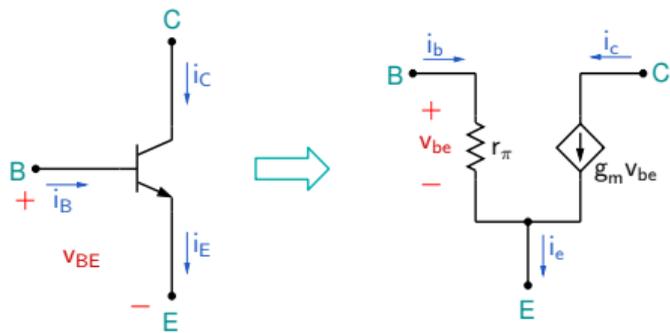
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- * Note that the small-signal model is valid only for small v_{be} (small compared to V_T).

BJT: small-signal model



* In the above model, note that i_c is independent of v_{ce} .

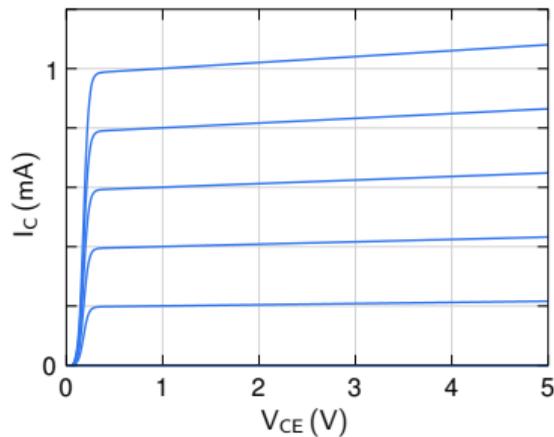
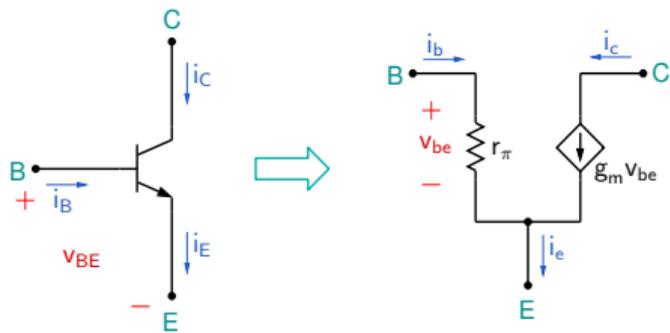
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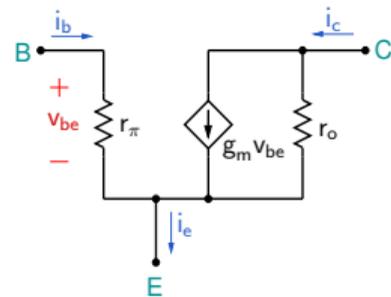
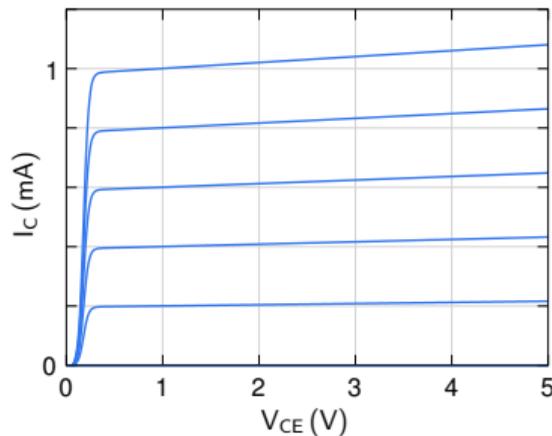
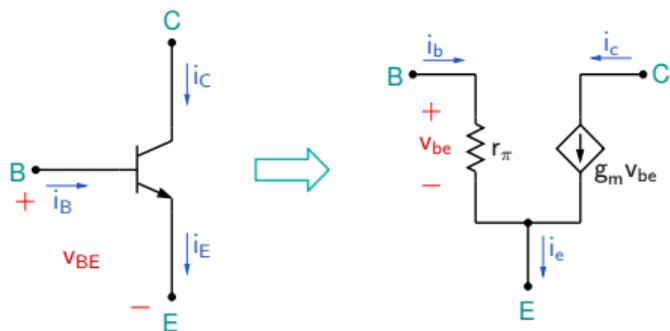
* In practice, i_c does depend on v_{ce} because of the Early effect, and $\frac{dI_C}{dV_{CE}} \approx \text{constant} = 1/r_o$, where r_o is called the output resistance.

BJT: small-signal model



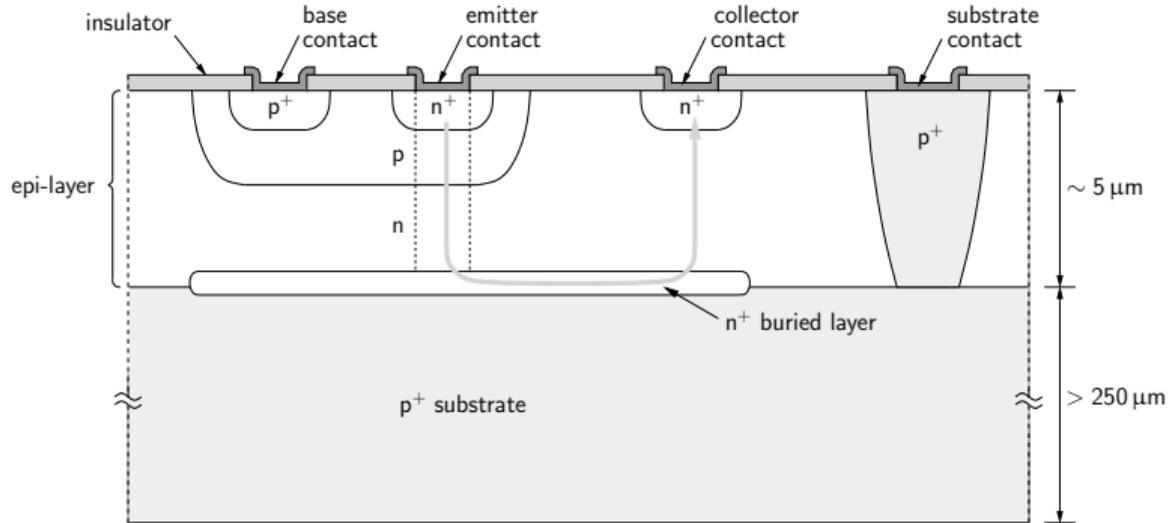
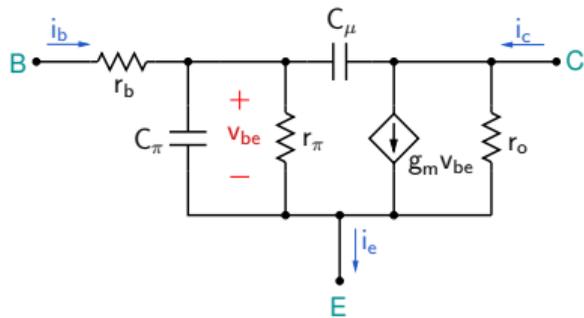
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- * A more accurate model includes r_o as well.

BJT: small-signal model



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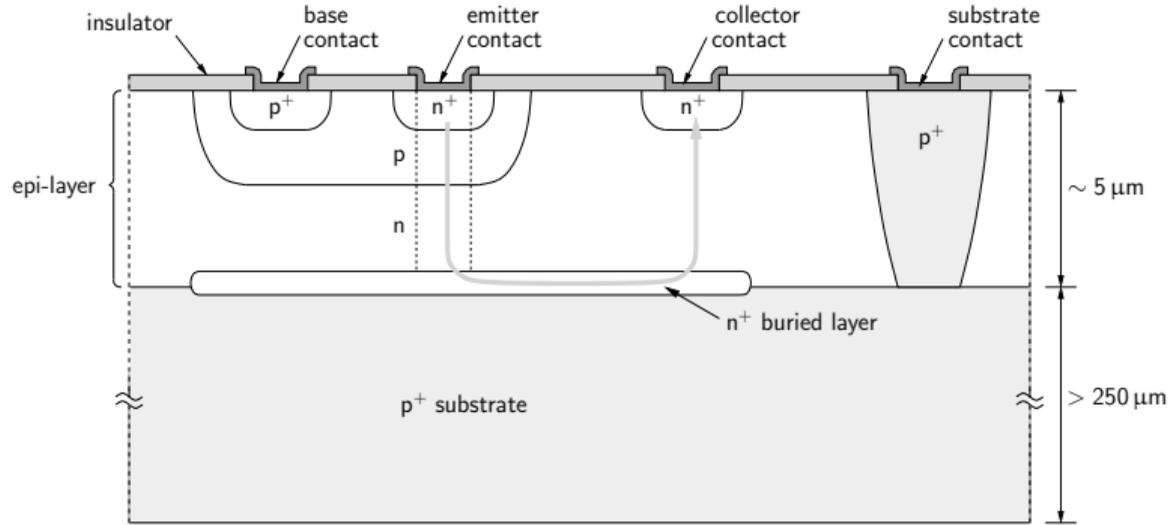
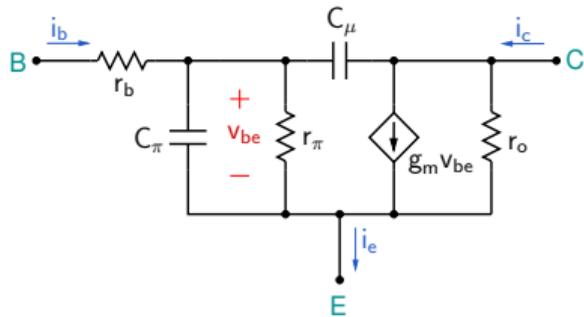
* A few other components are required to make the small-signal model complete:

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BJT: small-signal model



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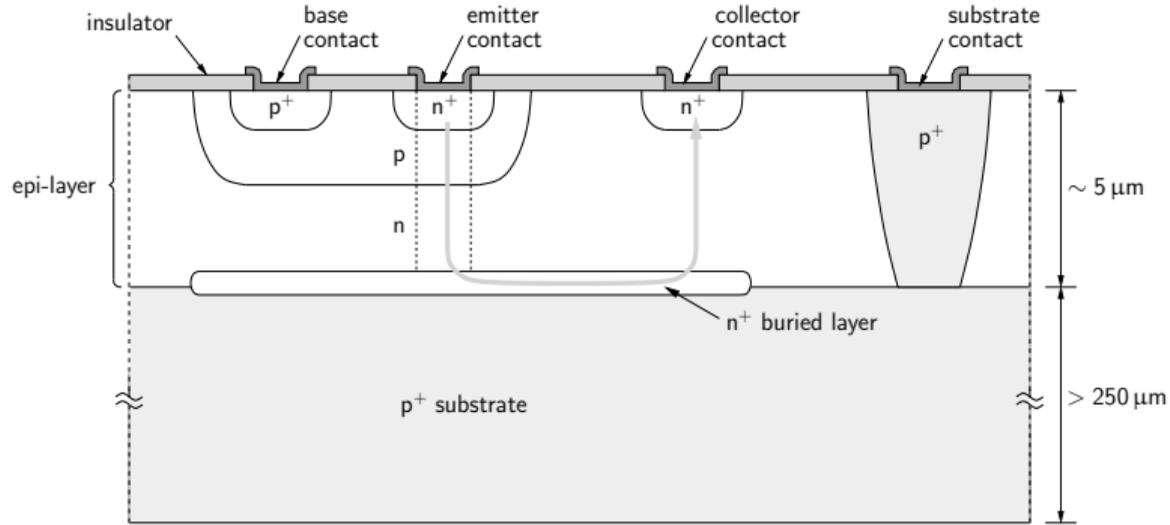
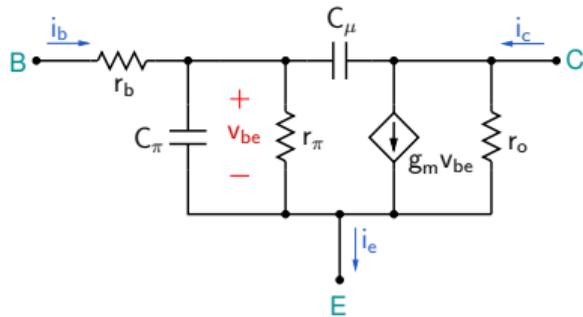
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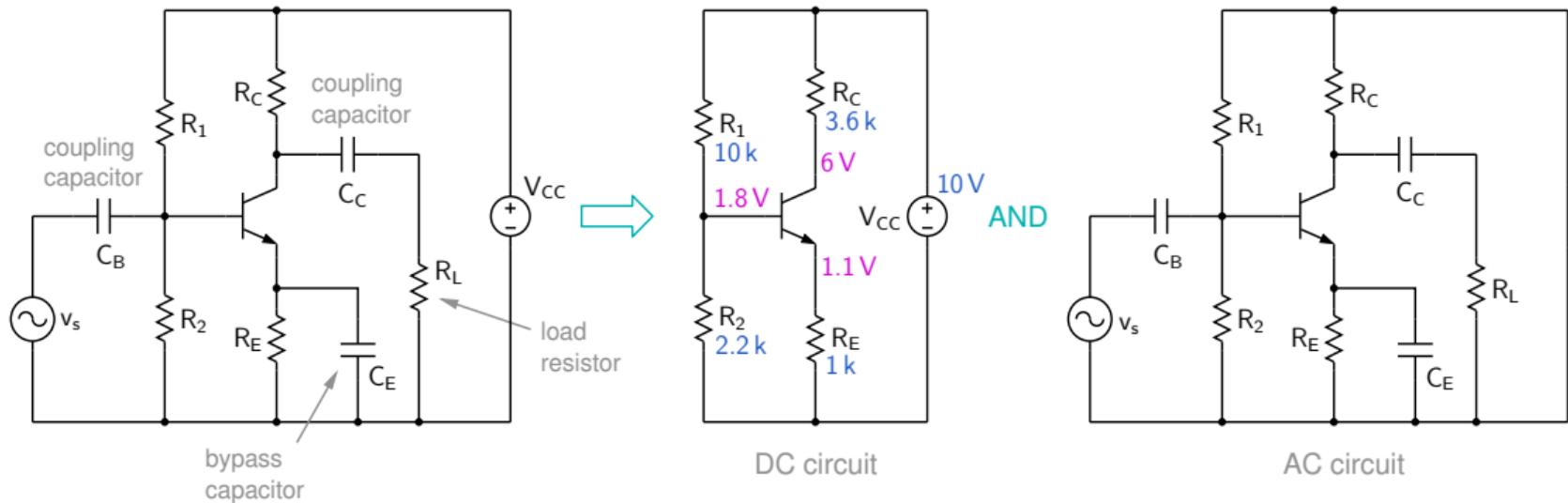
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BJT: small-signal model



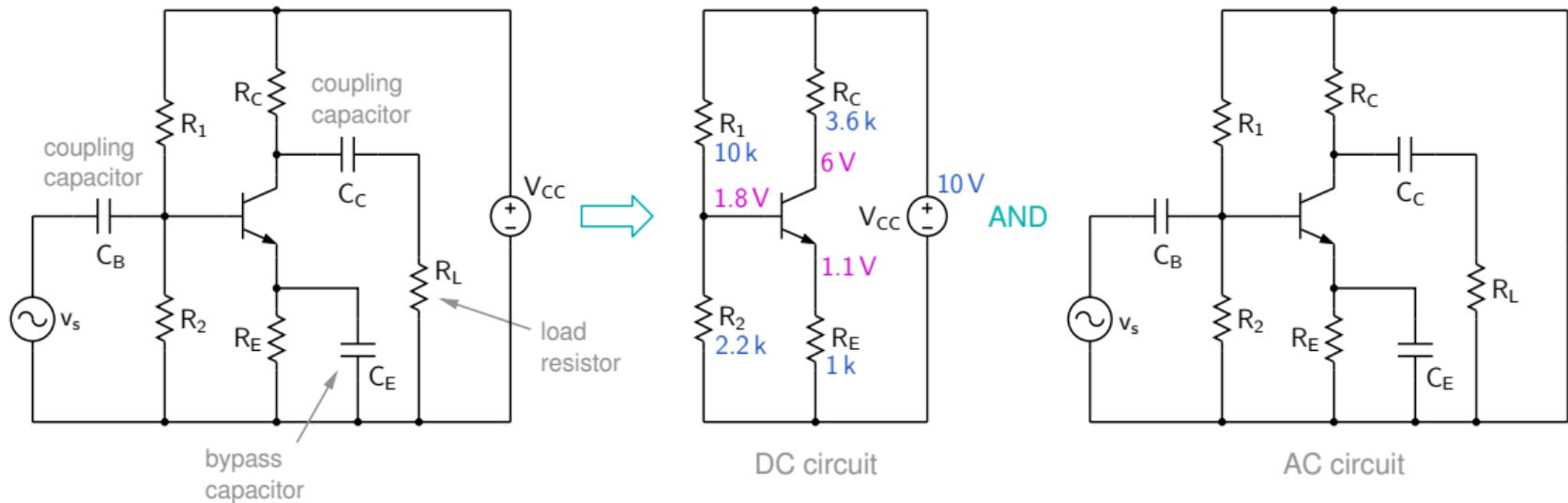
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- * Note that the small-signal models we have described are valid in the active region only.

Common-emitter amplifier



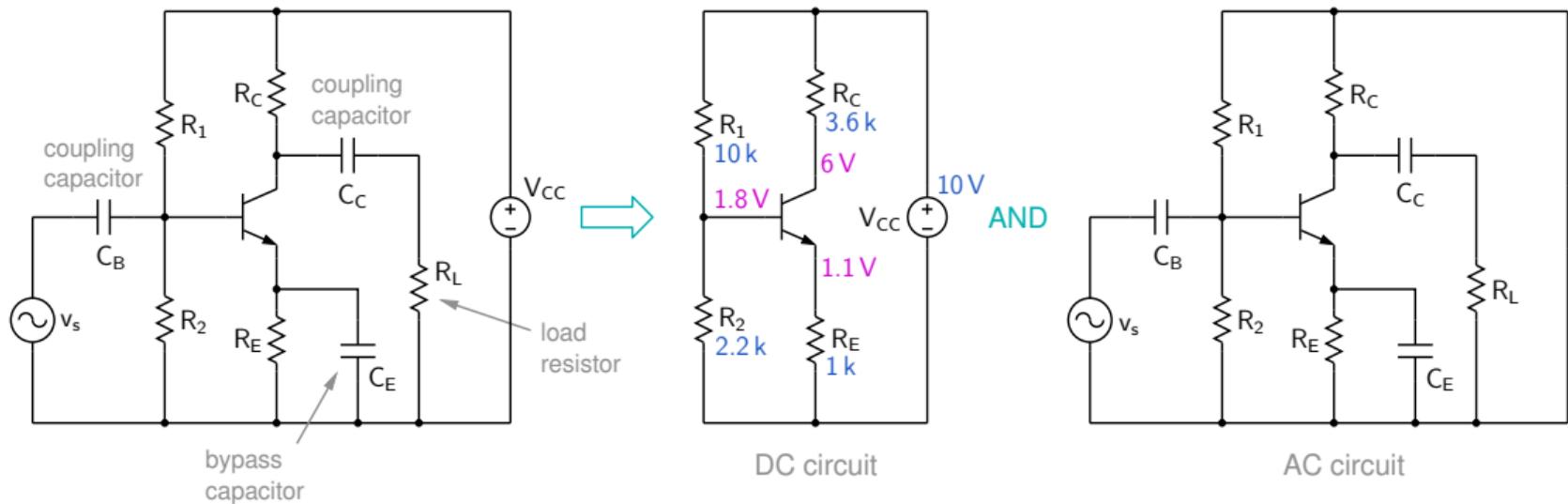
* We have already analysed the DC (bias) circuit of this amplifier and found that $V_B = 1.8\text{ V}$, $V_E = 1.1\text{ V}$, $V_C = 6\text{ V}$, and $I_C = 1.1\text{ mA}$.

Common-emitter amplifier



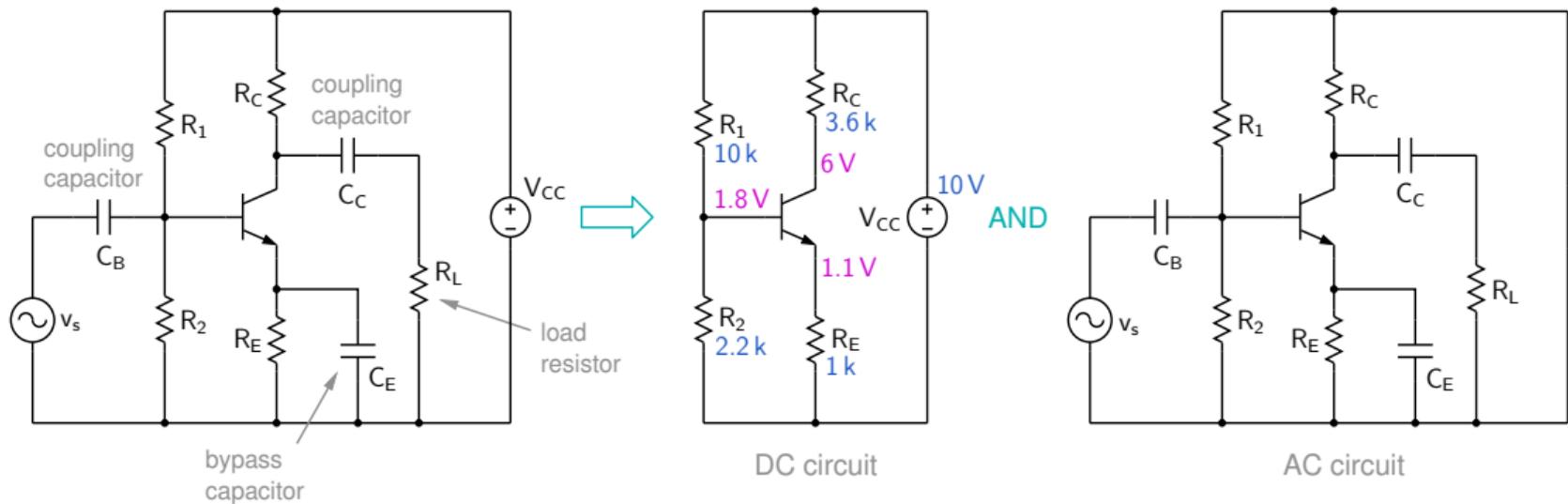
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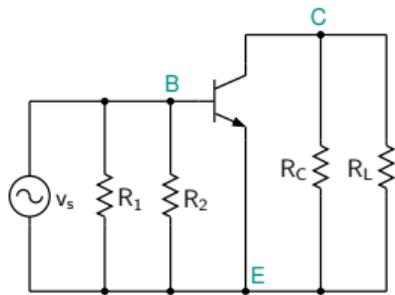
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Common-emitter amplifier

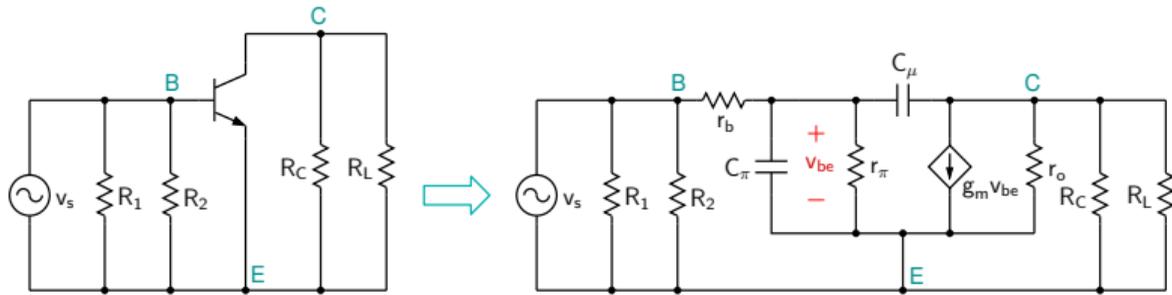


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- * We will then get the complete solution by simply adding the DC and AC results, e.g., $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$.
- * We will assume that C_B , C_C , C_E are large enough so that, at the signal frequency (say, 1 kHz), they can be replaced by short circuits.

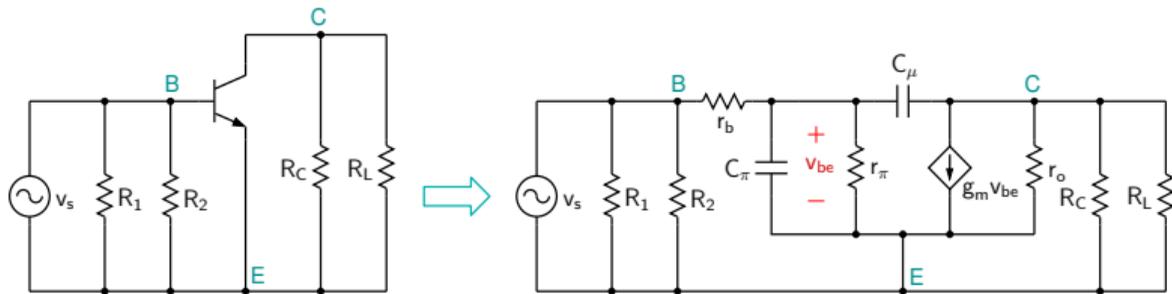
Common-emitter amplifier



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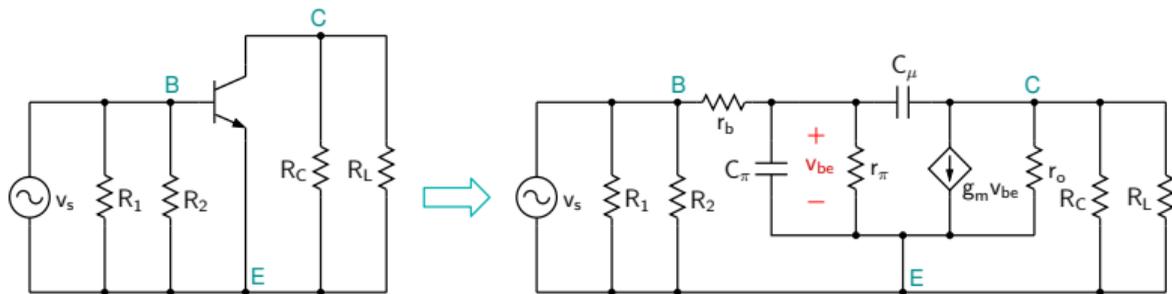


- * The parasitic capacitances C_π and C_μ are in the pF range. At a signal frequency of 1 kHz, the impedance corresponding to these capacitances is

$$\mathbf{Z} \sim \frac{-j}{\omega C} = \frac{-j}{2\pi \times 10^3 \times 10^{-12}} \sim -j 100 \text{ M}\Omega$$

→ C_π and C_μ can be replaced by open circuits.

Common-emitter amplifier



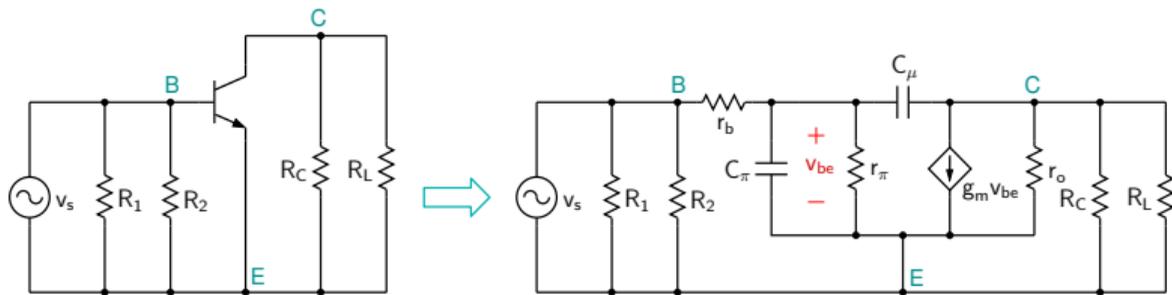
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Common-emitter amplifier



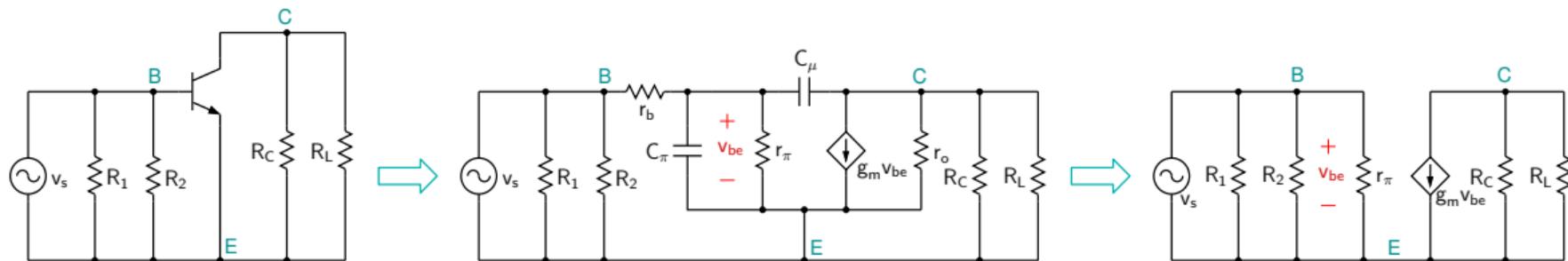
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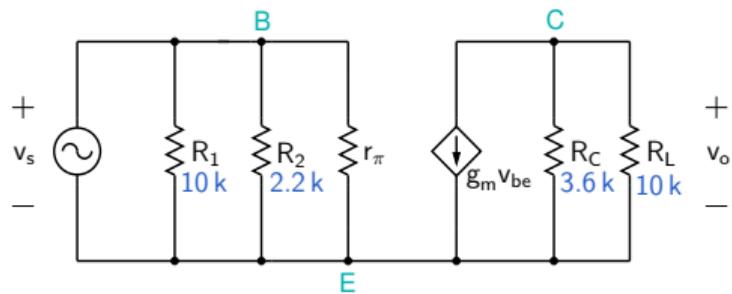
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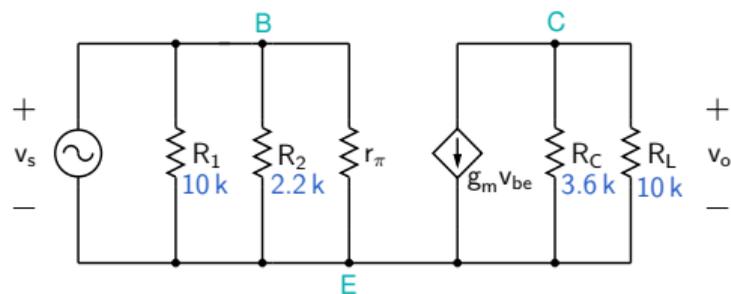
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Common-emitter amplifier



$$v_o = -(g_m v_{be}) \times (R_C \parallel R_L) = -(g_m v_s) \times (R_C \parallel R_L)$$

Common-emitter amplifier

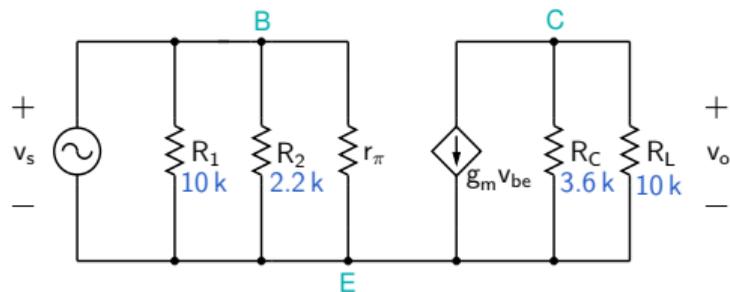


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(superscript L is used because the gain includes the effect of R_L .)

Common-emitter amplifier



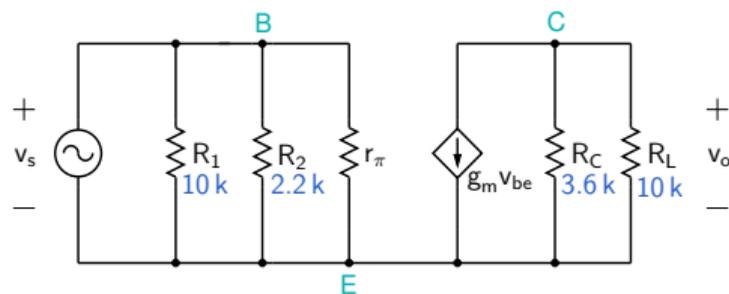
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Since I_C (bias current) = 1.1 mA, $g_m = I_C / V_T = 1.1 \text{ mA} / 25.9 \text{ mV} = 42.5 \text{ m}\Omega$.

Common-emitter amplifier



$$v_o = -(g_m v_{be}) \times (R_C \parallel R_L) = -(g_m v_s) \times (R_C \parallel R_L)$$

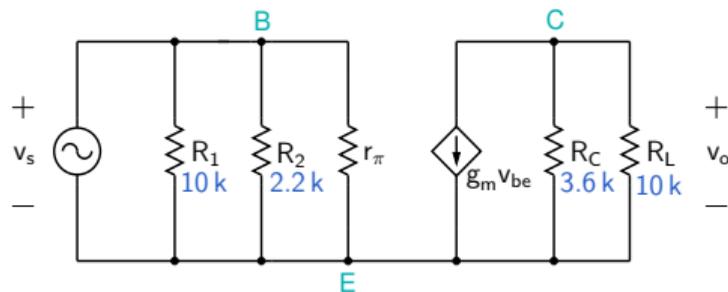
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Since I_C (bias current) = 1.1 mA, $g_m = I_C / V_T = 1.1 \text{ mA} / 25.9 \text{ mV} = 42.5 \text{ m}\mathcal{U}$.

$$\rightarrow A_V^L = -42.5 \text{ m}\mathcal{U} \times (3.6 \text{ k} \parallel 10 \text{ k}) = -112.5$$

Common-emitter amplifier



$$v_o = -(g_m v_{be}) \times (R_C \parallel R_L) = -(g_m v_s) \times (R_C \parallel R_L)$$

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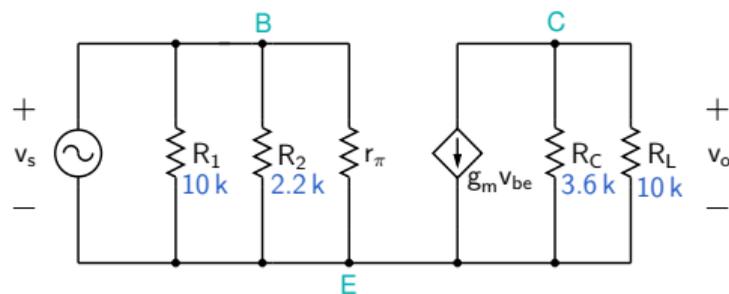
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Common-emitter amplifier



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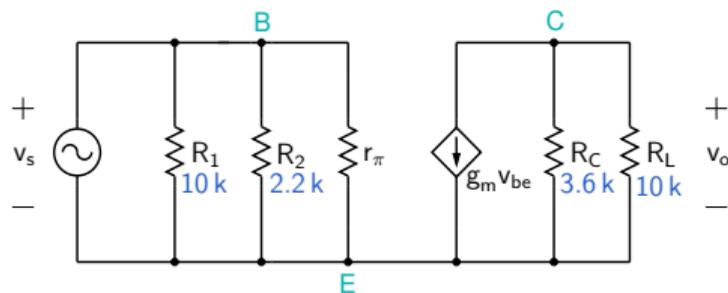
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For $v_s(t) = (2 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t$, the AC output voltage is,

$$v_o = A_V^L v_s = -(112.5) (2 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t = -(225 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t$$

Common-emitter amplifier



$$v_o = -(g_m v_{be}) \times (R_C \parallel R_L) = -(g_m v_s) \times (R_C \parallel R_L)$$

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Since I_C (bias current) = 1.1 mA, $g_m = I_C / V_T = 1.1 \text{ mA} / 25.9 \text{ mV} = 42.5 \text{ m}\Omega$.

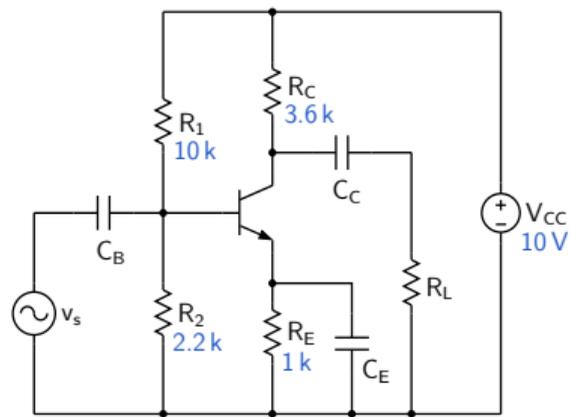
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The AC collector current is,

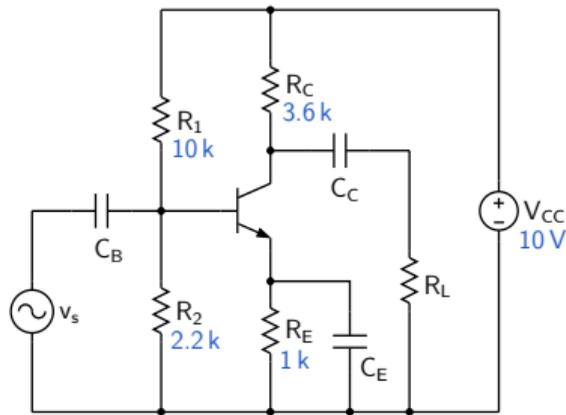
$$i_c = g_m v_{be} = g_m v_s = 42.5 \text{ m}\Omega \times (2 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t = 85 \sin \omega t \mu\text{A}.$$



For $v_s(t) = (2 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t$, we can now obtain expressions for the instantaneous currents and voltages:

$$v_C(t) = V_C + v_c(t) = V_C + v_o(t) = 6 \text{ V} - (225 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t .$$

$$i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t) = 1.1 \text{ mA} + 0.085 \sin \omega t \text{ mA} .$$

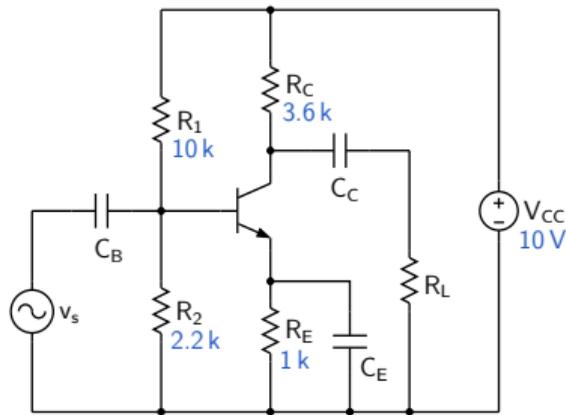


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Note that the above procedure (DC + AC analysis) can be used *only if* the small-signal approximation (i.e., $|v_{be}| \ll V_T$) is valid. In the above example, the amplitude of v_{be} is 2 mV, which is much smaller than V_T (about 25 mV).



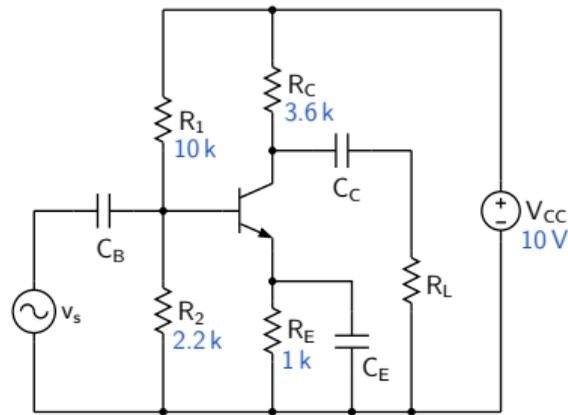
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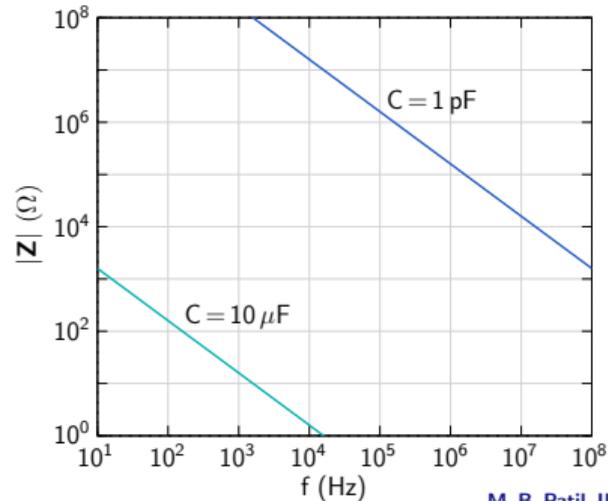
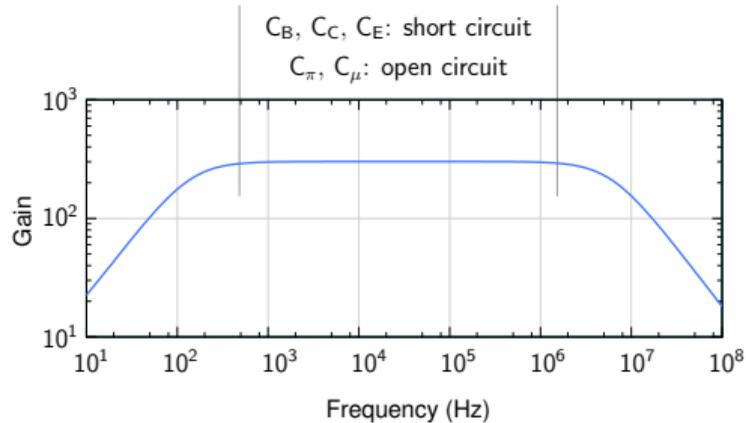
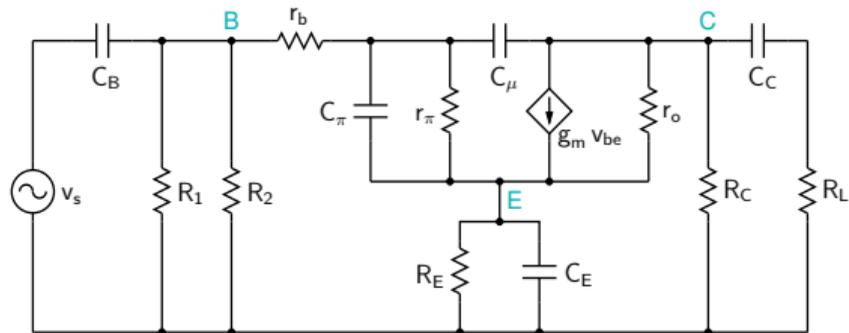
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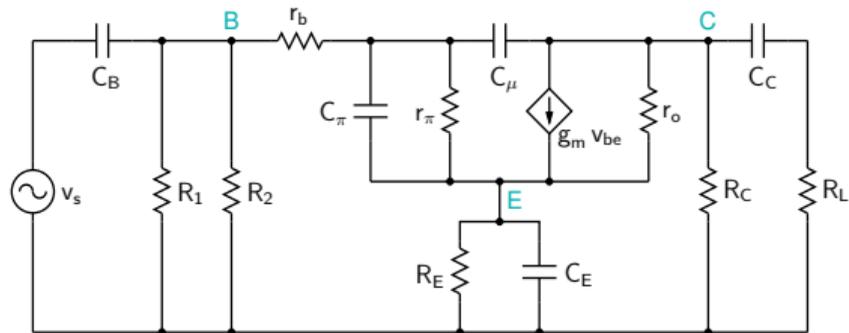
For $v_s(t) = (20 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t$, for example, the small-signal approximation will not hold, and a numerical simulation will be required to obtain the currents and voltages of interest.

In practice, such a situation is anyway not prevalent (because it gives rise to distortion in the output voltage) except in special types of amplifiers.

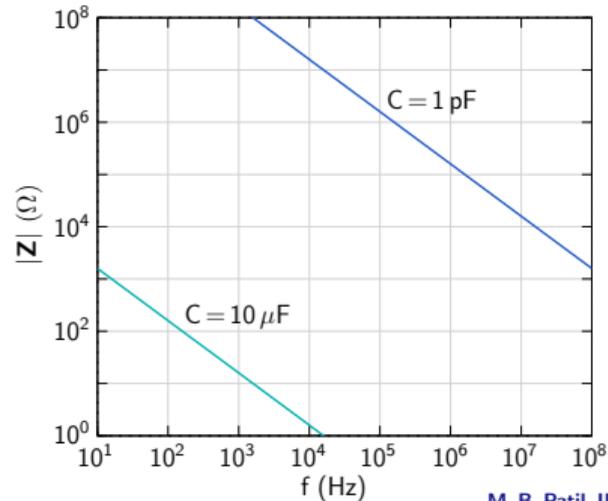
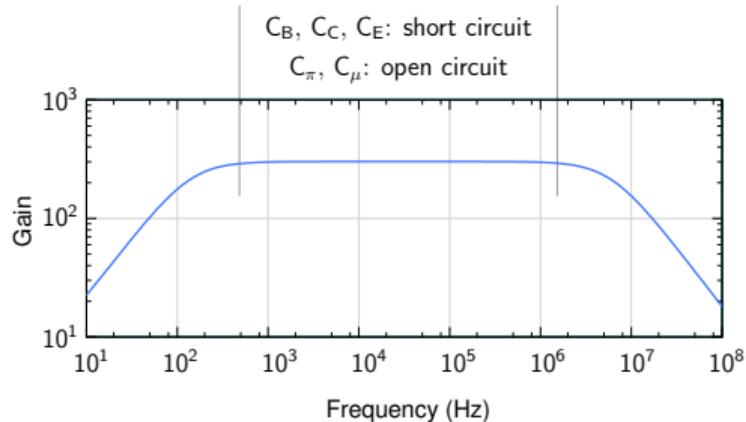
Frequency response of common-emitter amplifier



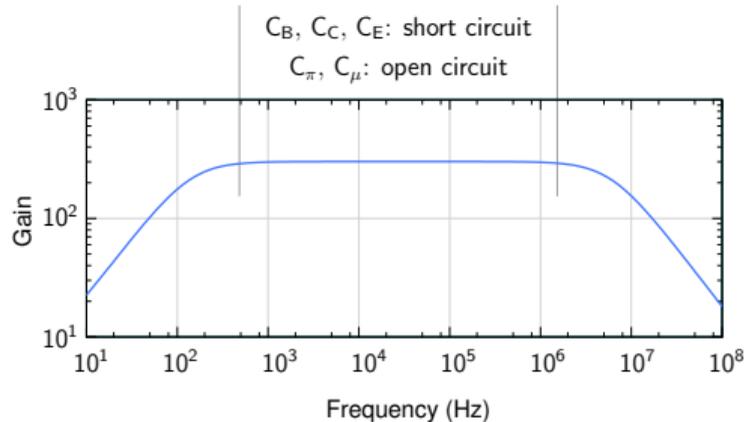
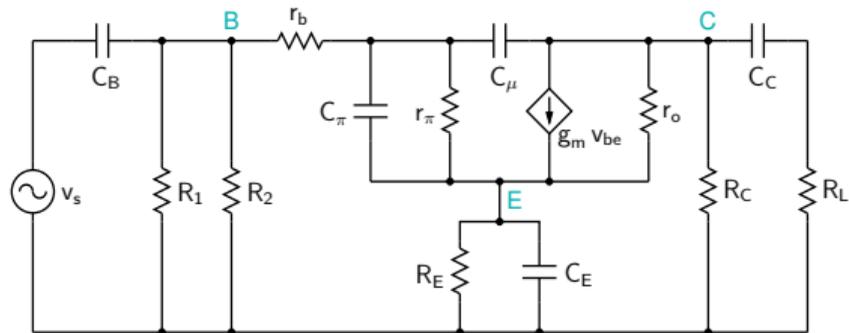
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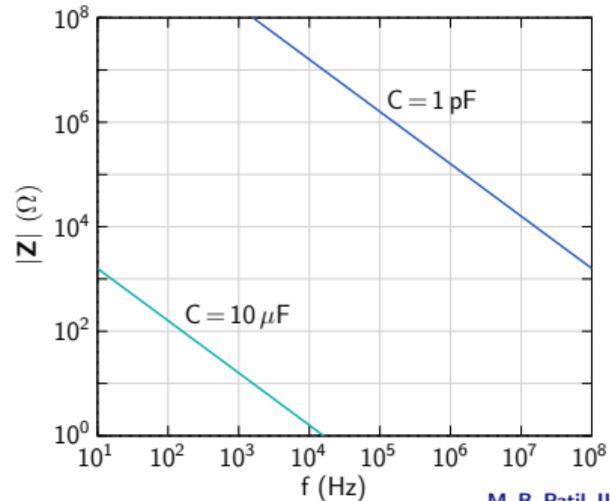
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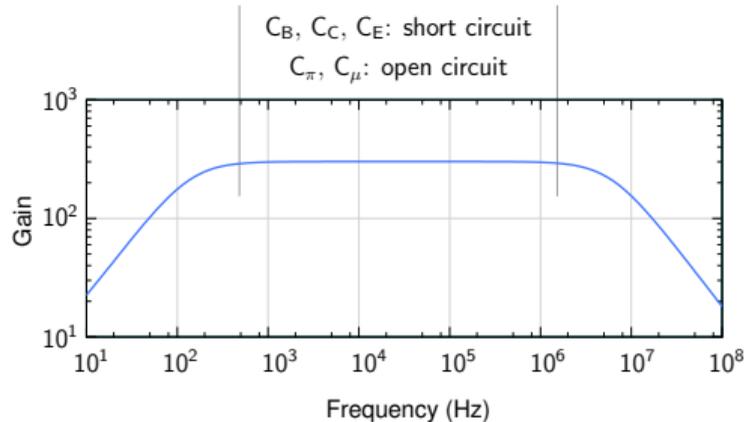
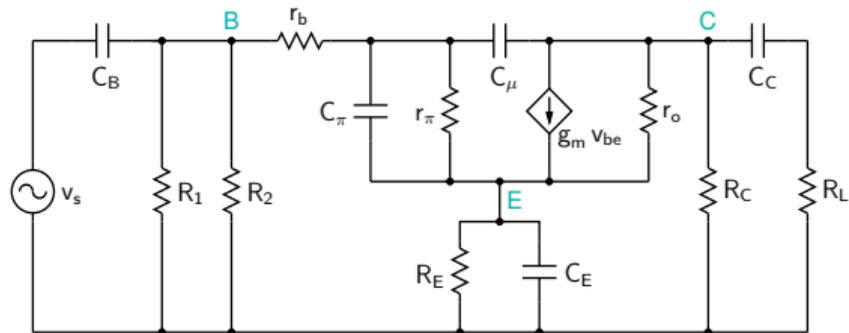
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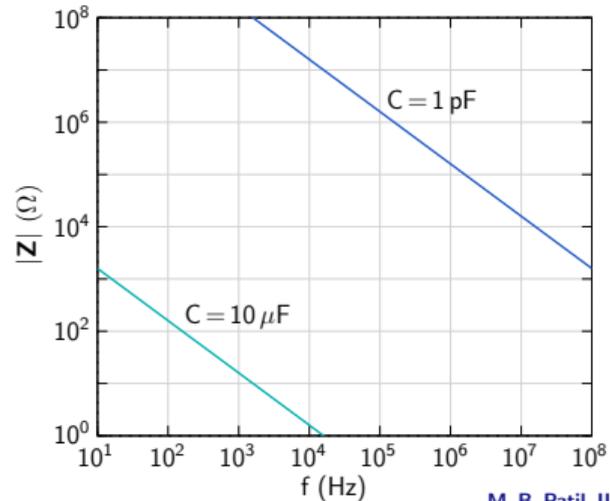
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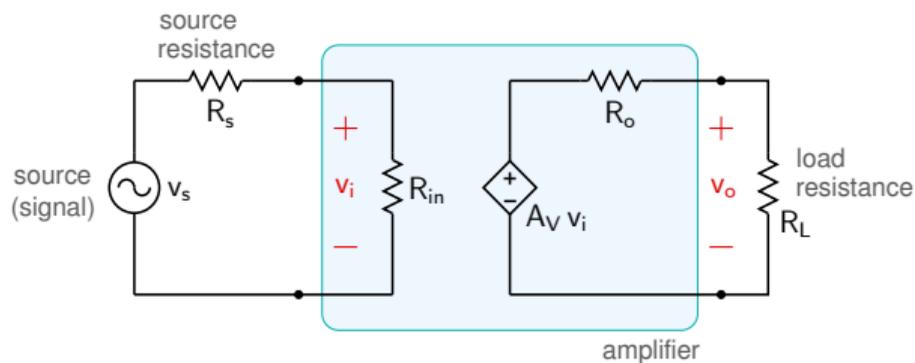
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- * In the “mid-band” range (which we have considered so far), the large capacitances behave like short circuits, and the small capacitances like open circuits. In this range, the gain is independent of frequency.

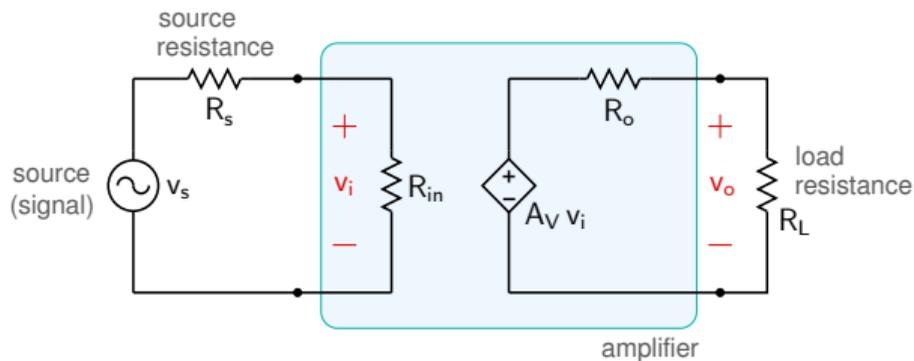


General representation of an amplifier



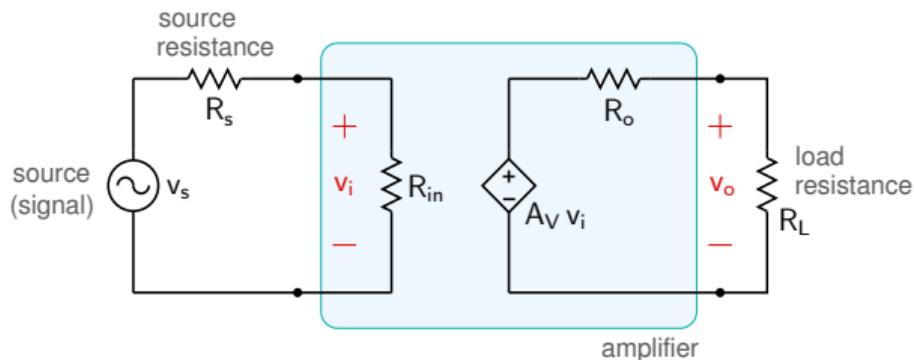
- * An amplifier is represented by a voltage gain, an input resistance R_{in} , and an output resistance R_o . For a voltage-to-voltage amplifier, a large R_{in} and a small R_o are desirable.

General representation of an amplifier



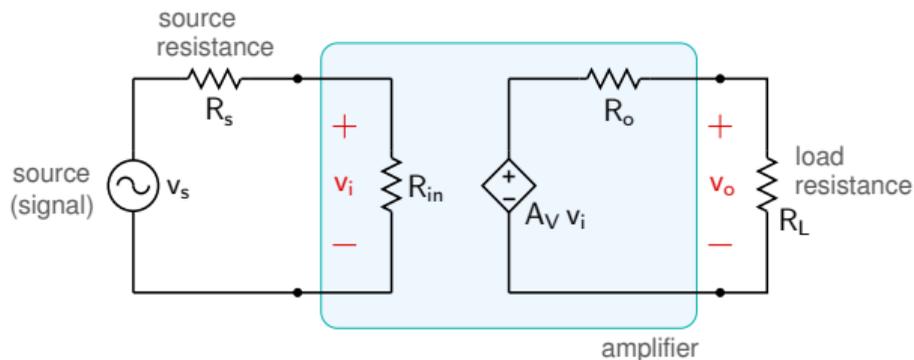
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General representation of an amplifier



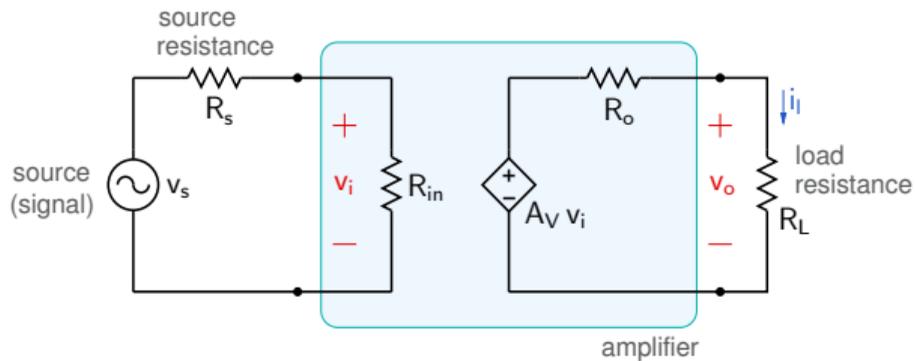
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- * The DC bias of the circuit can affect parameter values in the AC equivalent circuit (A_V , R_{in} , R_o). For example, for the common-emitter amplifier, $A_V \propto g_m = I_C/V_T$, I_C being the DC (bias) value of the collector current.

General representation of an amplifier



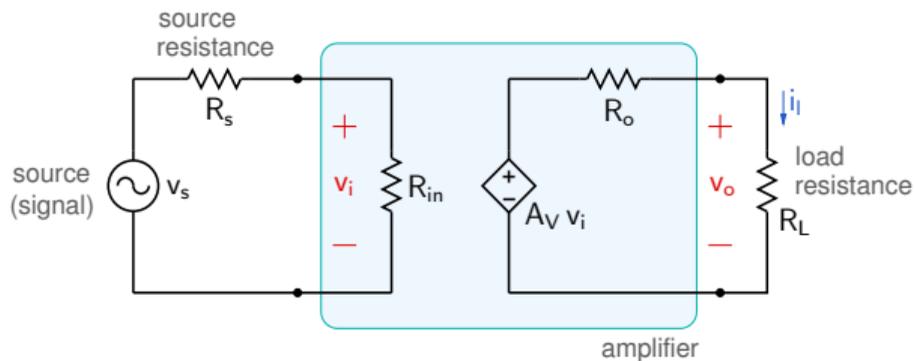
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- * Suppose we are given an amplifier as a “black box” and asked to find A_V , R_{in} , and R_o . What experiments would give us this information?

Voltage gain A_V



If $R_L \rightarrow \infty$, $i_l \rightarrow 0$, and $v_o \rightarrow A_V v_i$.

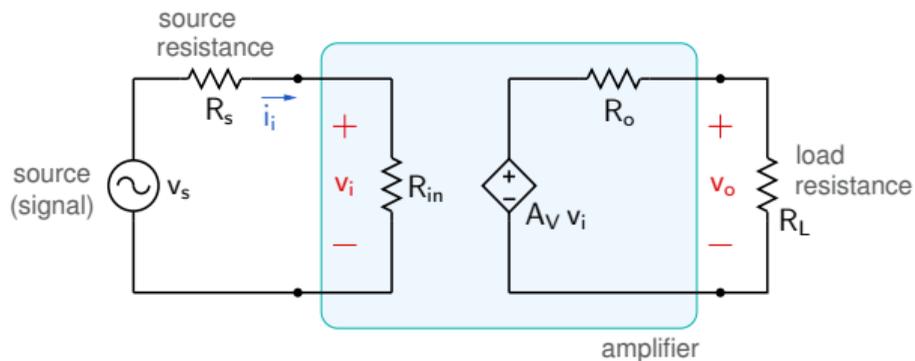
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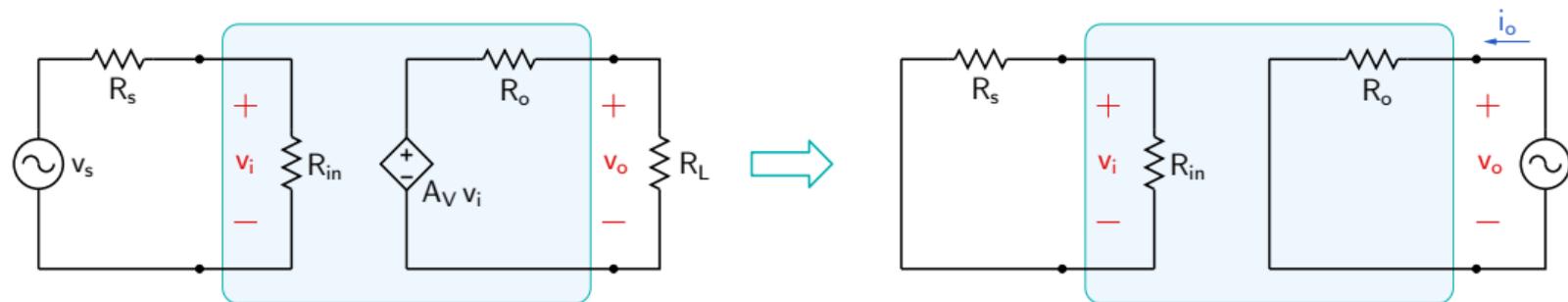
If $R_L \rightarrow \infty$, $i_l \rightarrow 0$, and $v_o \rightarrow A_V v_i$.

We can remove R_L (i.e., replace it with an open circuit), measure v_i and v_o , then use $A_V = v_o/v_i$.

Input resistance R_{in}



Measurement of v_i and i_i yields $R_{in} = v_i/i_i$.



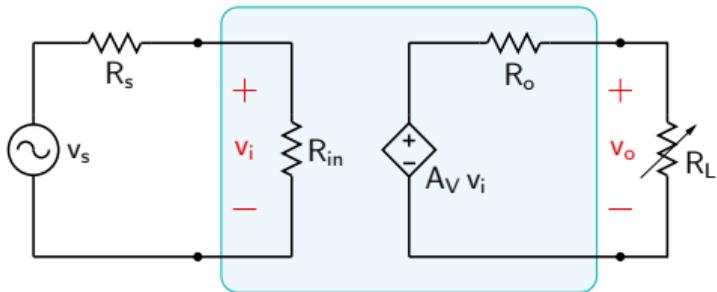
Method 1:

If $v_s \rightarrow 0$, $A_V v_i \rightarrow 0$.

Now, connect a test source v_o , and measure $i_o \rightarrow R_o = v_o/i_o$.

(This method works fine on paper, but it is difficult to use experimentally.)

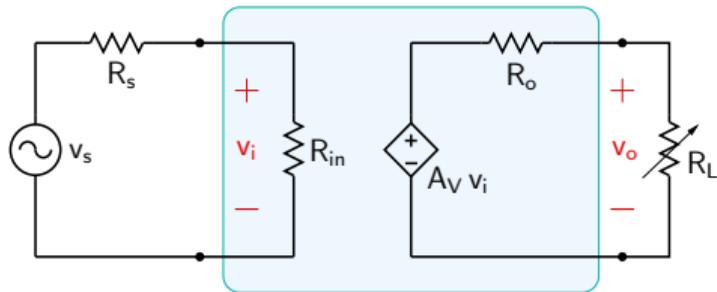
Output resistance R_o



Method 2:

$$v_o = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o} A_V v_i.$$

Output resistance R_o

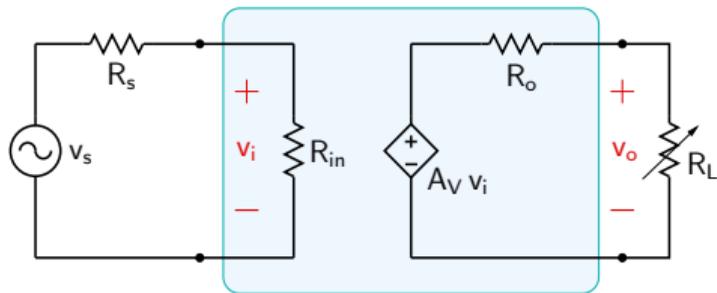


Method 2:

$$v_o = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o} A_V v_i.$$

If $R_L \rightarrow \infty$, $v_{o1} = A_V v_i$.

Output resistance R_o



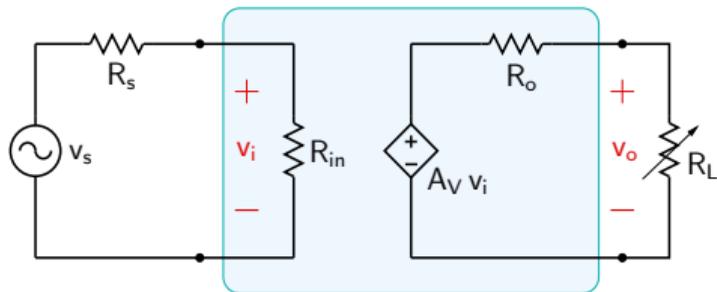
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$$\text{If } R_L \rightarrow \infty, v_{o1} = A_V v_i.$$

$$\text{If } R_L = R_o, v_{o2} = \frac{1}{2} A_V v_i = \frac{1}{2} v_{o1}.$$

Output resistance R_o



Method 2:

$$v_o = \frac{R_L}{R_L + R_o} A_V v_i.$$

$$\text{If } R_L \rightarrow \infty, v_{o1} = A_V v_i.$$

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Procedure:

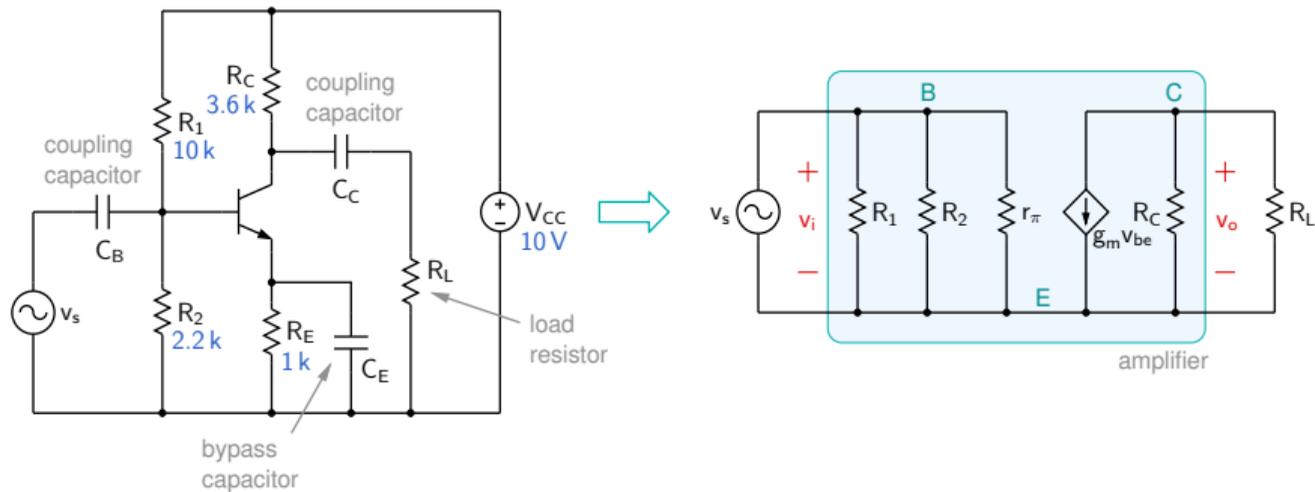
Measure v_{o1} with $R_L \rightarrow \infty$ (i.e., R_L removed).

Vary R_L and observe v_o .

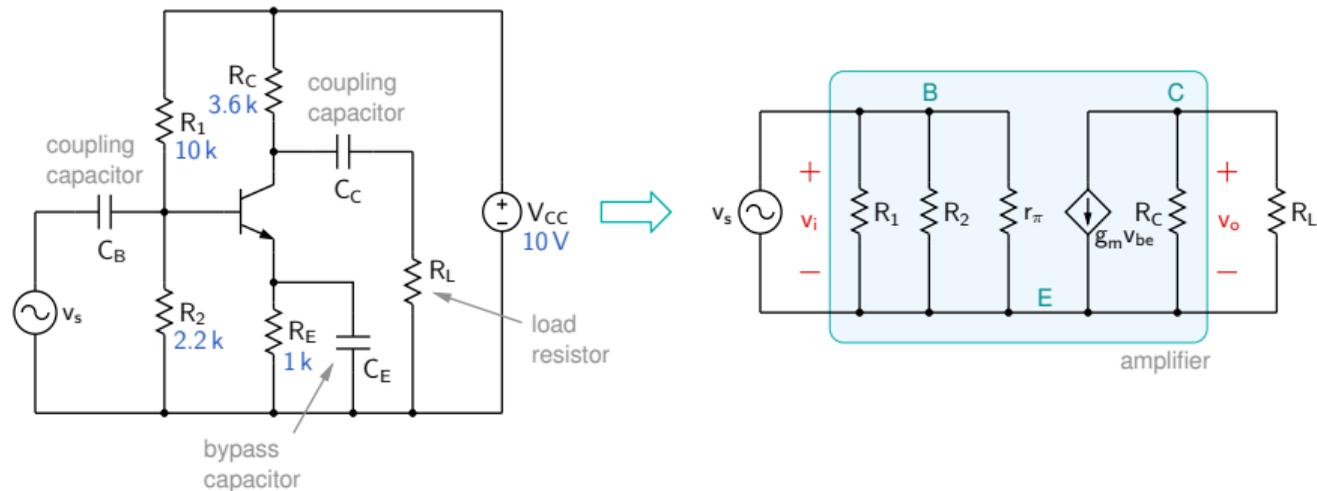
When v_o is equal to $v_{o1}/2$, measure R_L (after removing it).

R_o is the same as the measured resistance.

Common-emitter amplifier



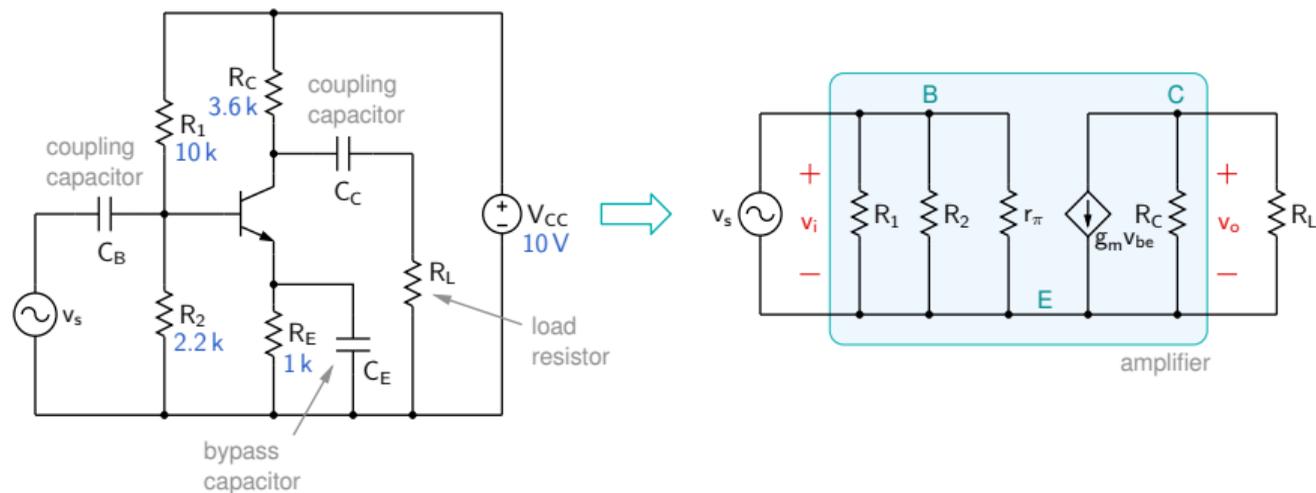
Common-emitter amplifier



$$A_V = \frac{v_o}{v_i}, \text{ with } R_L \rightarrow \infty.$$

$$A_V = \frac{-g_m v_{be} R_C}{v_i} = -g_m R_C = -42.5 \text{ m}\Omega \times 3.6 \text{ k} = 153.$$

Common-emitter amplifier



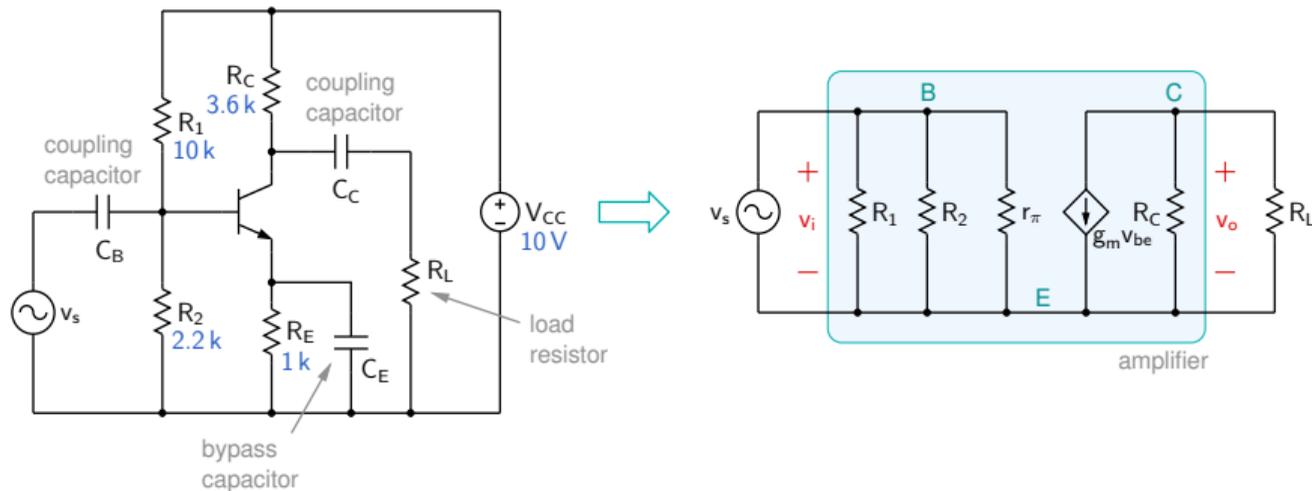
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The input resistance of the amplifier is, by inspection, $R_{in} = (R_1 \parallel R_2) \parallel r_\pi$.

$$r_\pi = \beta / g_m = 100 / 42.5 \text{ m}\Omega = 2.35 \text{ k} \rightarrow R_{in} = 1 \text{ k}.$$

Common-emitter amplifier



$$A_V = \frac{v_o}{v_i}, \text{ with } R_L \rightarrow \infty.$$

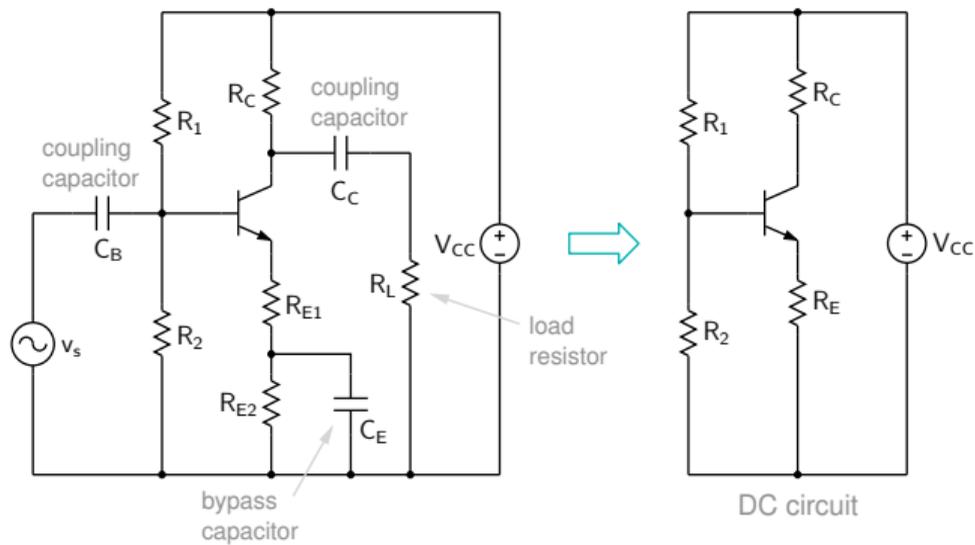
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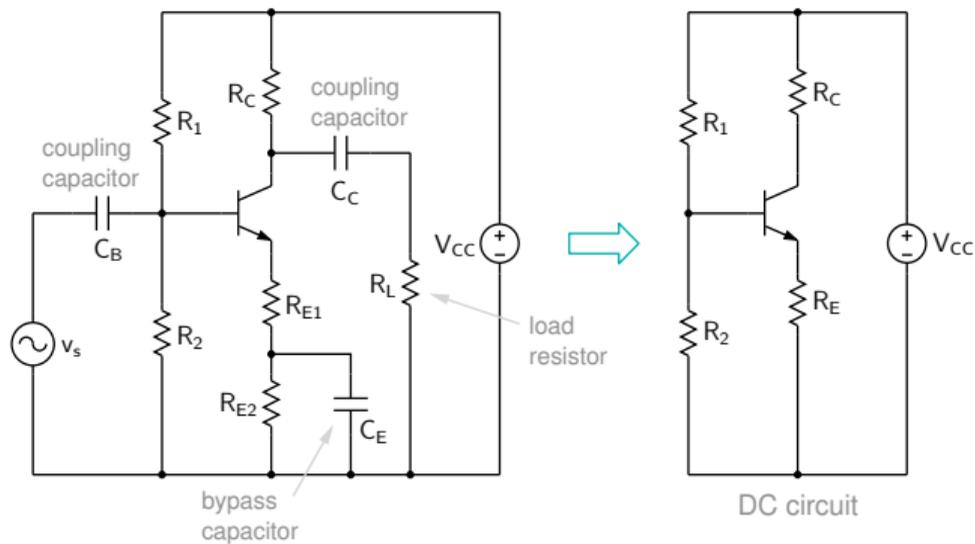
$$r_\pi = \beta/g_m = 100/42.5\text{ m}\ddot{\text{U}} = 2.35\text{ k} \rightarrow R_{in} = 1\text{ k}.$$

The output resistance is R_C (by "Method 1" seen previously).

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass

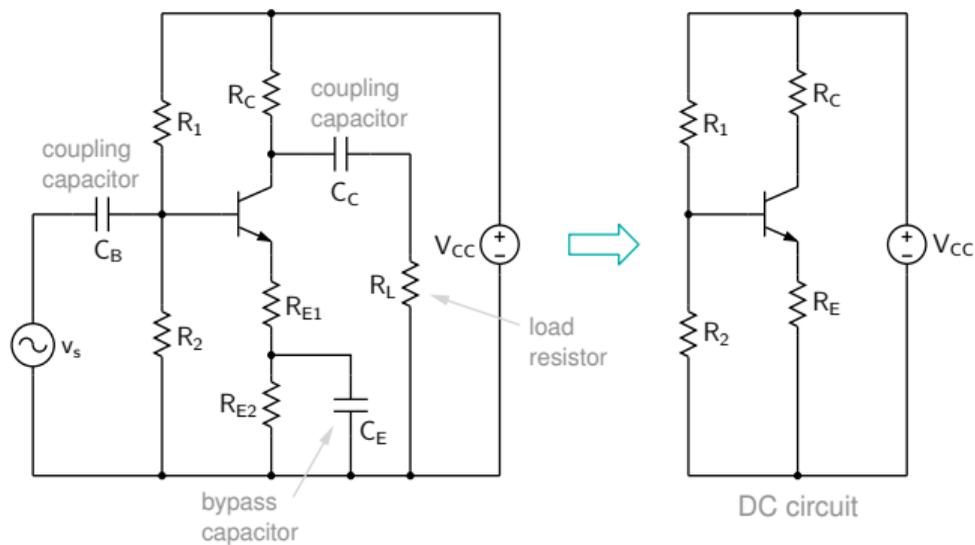


Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



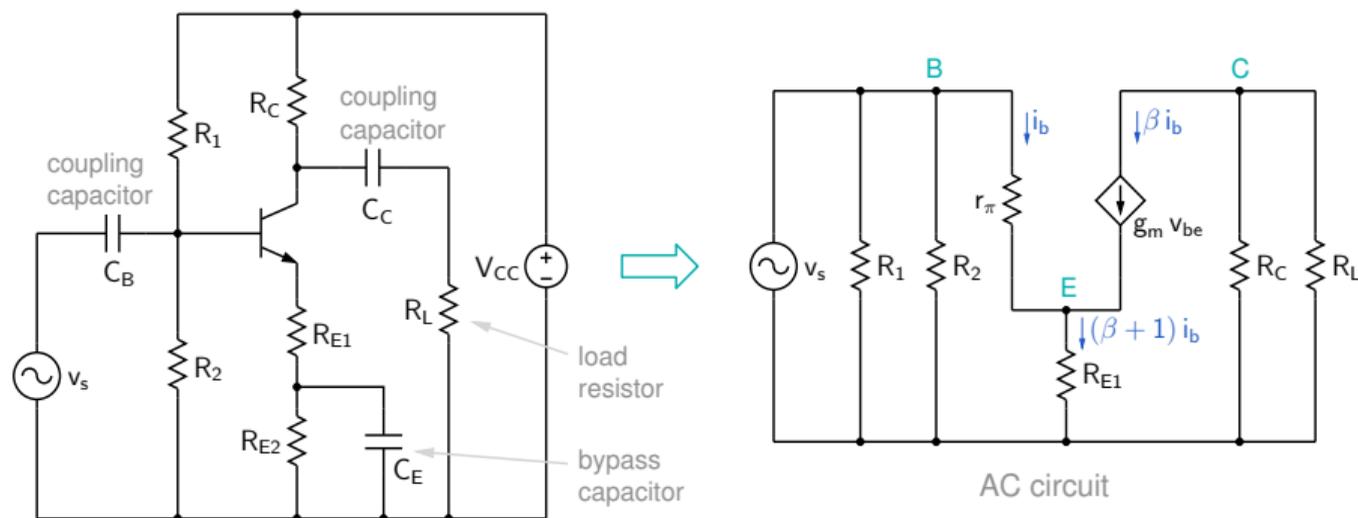
- * For DC computation, C_E is open, and the DC analysis is therefore identical to our earlier amplifier, with $R_E \leftarrow R_{E1} + R_{E2}$.

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



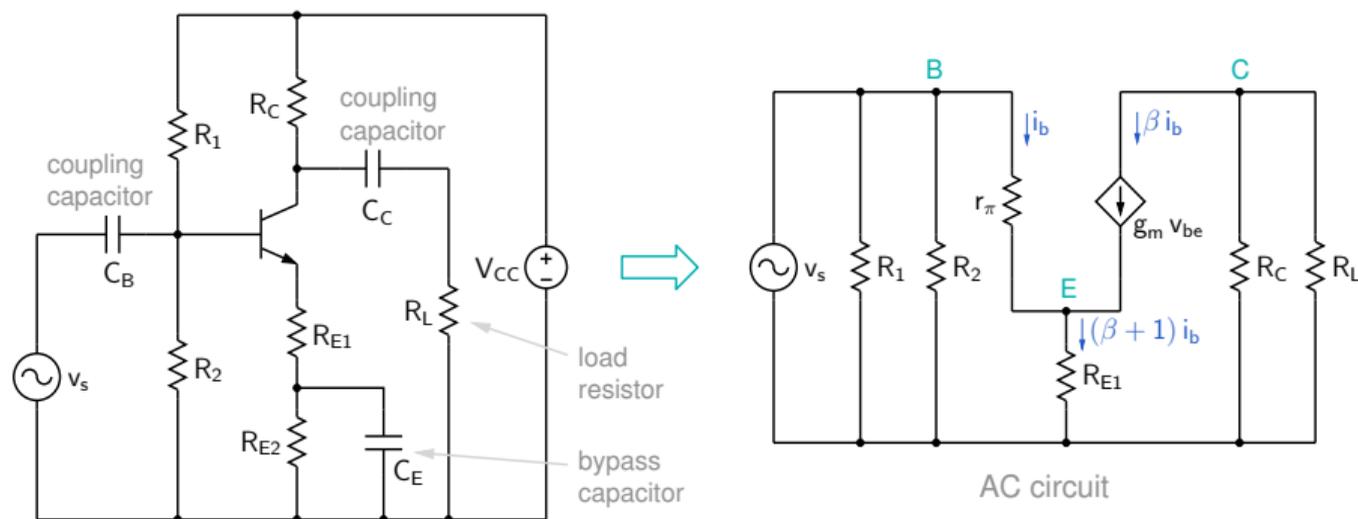
- * For DC computation, C_E is open, and the DC analysis is therefore identical to our earlier amplifier, with $R_E \leftarrow R_{E1} + R_{E2}$.
- * Bypassing a part of R_E (as opposed to all of it) does have an impact on the voltage gain (see next slide).

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation, C_B , C_C , C_E can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

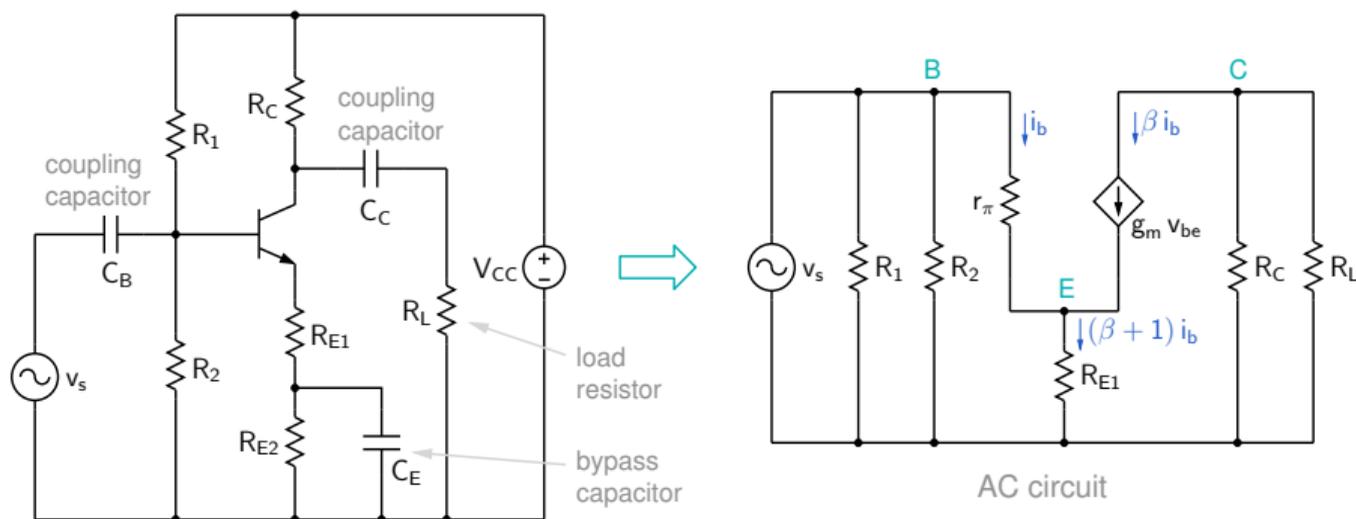
Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation, C_B , C_C , C_E can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

$$v_s = i_b r_\pi + (\beta + 1) i_b R_{E1} \rightarrow i_b = \frac{v_s}{r_\pi + (\beta + 1) R_{E1}}$$

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass

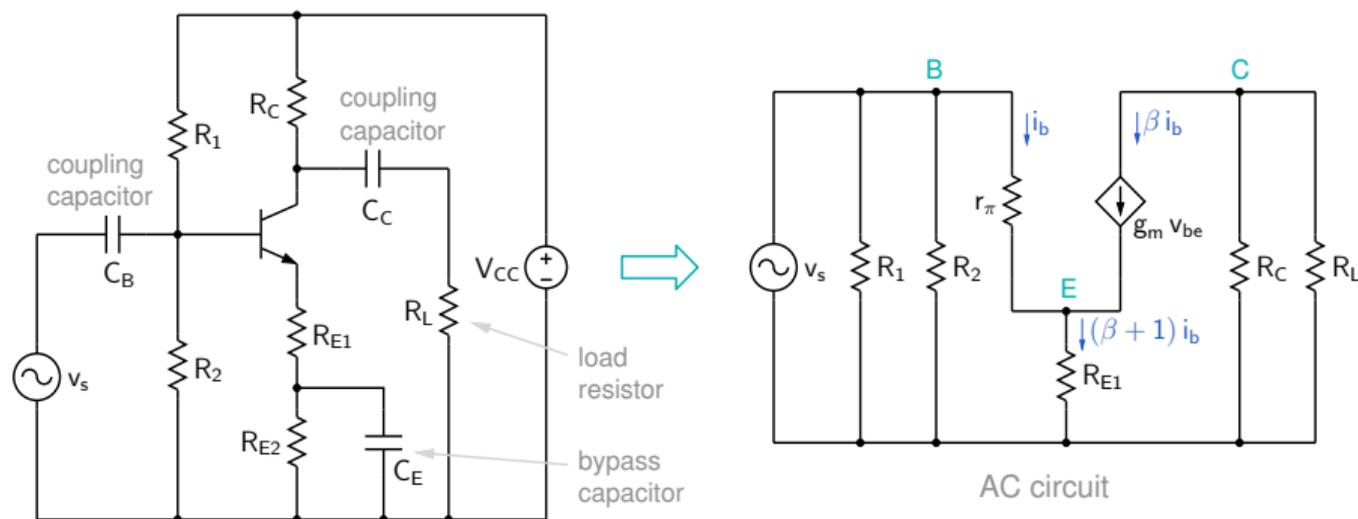


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$$v_s = i_b r_\pi + (\beta + 1) i_b R_{E1} \rightarrow i_b = \frac{v_s}{r_\pi + (\beta + 1) R_{E1}}$$

$$v_o = -\beta i_b \times (R_C \parallel R_L) \rightarrow \frac{v_o}{v_s} = -\frac{\beta (R_C \parallel R_L)}{r_\pi + (\beta + 1) R_{E1}} \approx -\frac{(R_C \parallel R_L)}{R_{E1}} \text{ if } r_\pi \ll (\beta + 1) R_{E1}.$$

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



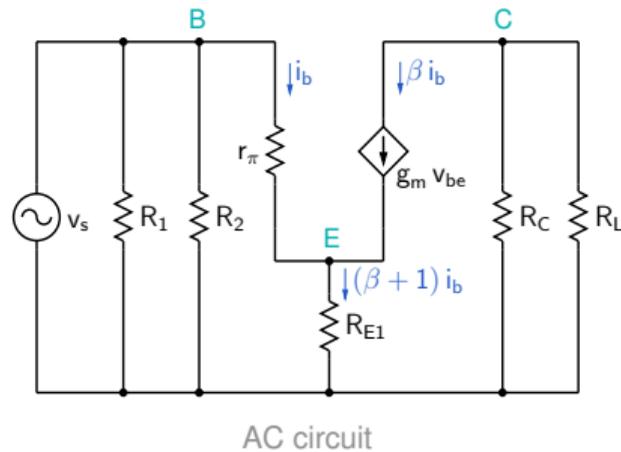
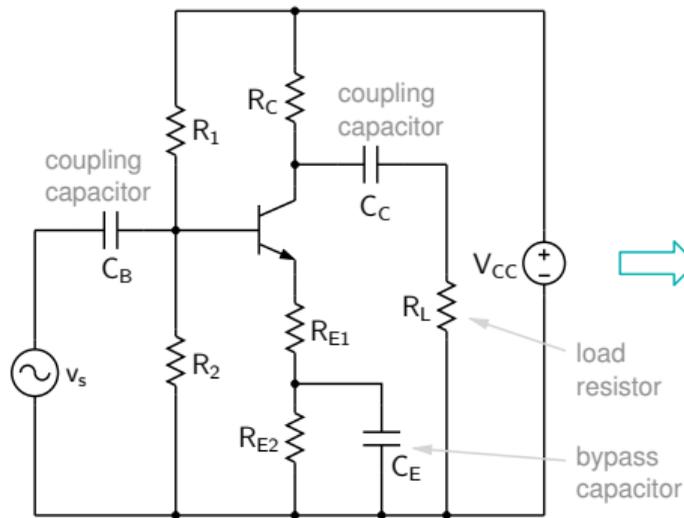
Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation, C_B , C_C , C_E can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

$$v_s = i_b r_\pi + (\beta + 1) i_b R_{E1} \rightarrow i_b = \frac{v_s}{r_\pi + (\beta + 1) R_{E1}}$$

$$v_o = -\beta i_b \times (R_C \parallel R_L) \rightarrow \frac{v_o}{v_s} = -\frac{\beta (R_C \parallel R_L)}{r_\pi + (\beta + 1) R_{E1}} \approx -\frac{(R_C \parallel R_L)}{R_{E1}} \text{ if } r_\pi \ll (\beta + 1) R_{E1}.$$

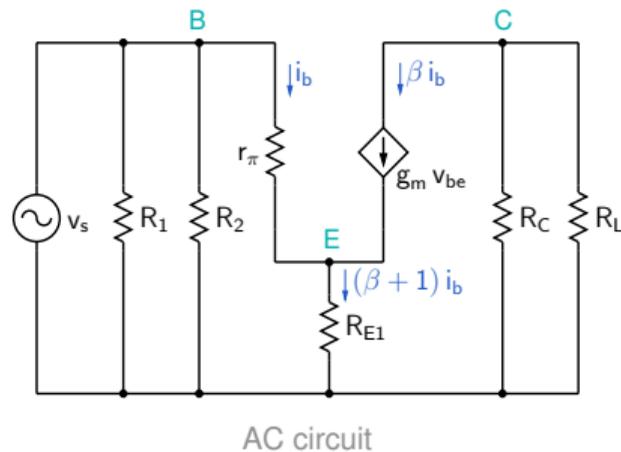
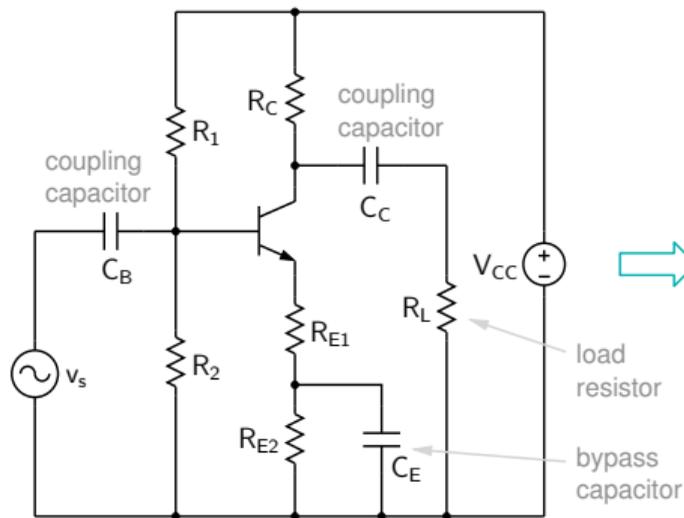
Note: R_{E1} gets multiplied by $(\beta + 1)$.

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



$$\frac{v_{be}}{v_s} = \frac{r_{\pi} i_b}{r_{\pi} i_b + R_E (\beta + 1) i_b} = \frac{r_{\pi}}{r_{\pi} + R_E (\beta + 1)}$$

Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass

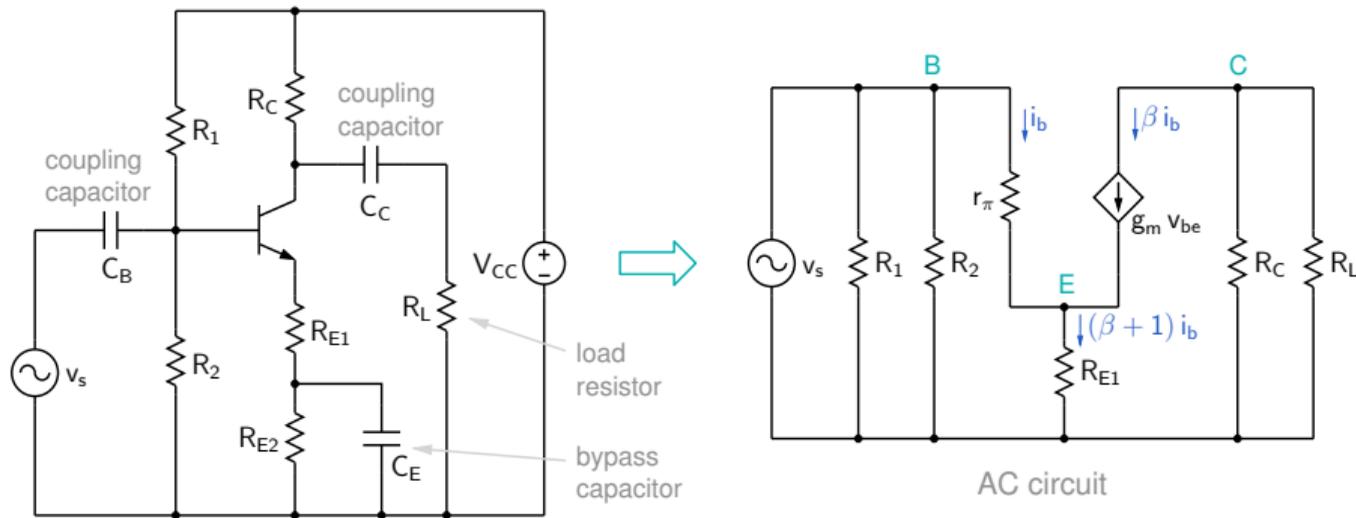


$$\frac{v_{be}}{v_s} = \frac{r_\pi i_b}{r_\pi i_b + R_E (\beta + 1) i_b} = \frac{r_\pi}{r_\pi + R_E (\beta + 1)}$$

The small-signal condition, viz., $|v_{be}(t)| \ll V_T$ now implies

$$|v_s| \frac{r_\pi}{r_\pi + R_E (\beta + 1)} \ll V_T \text{ or } |v_s| \ll V_T \times \frac{r_\pi + R_E (\beta + 1)}{r_\pi}, \text{ which is much larger than } V_T.$$

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→ Although the gain is reduced, partial emitter bypass allows larger input voltages to be applied without causing distortion in $v_o(t)$. (For comparison, we required $|v_s| \ll V_T$ for the CE amplifier.)