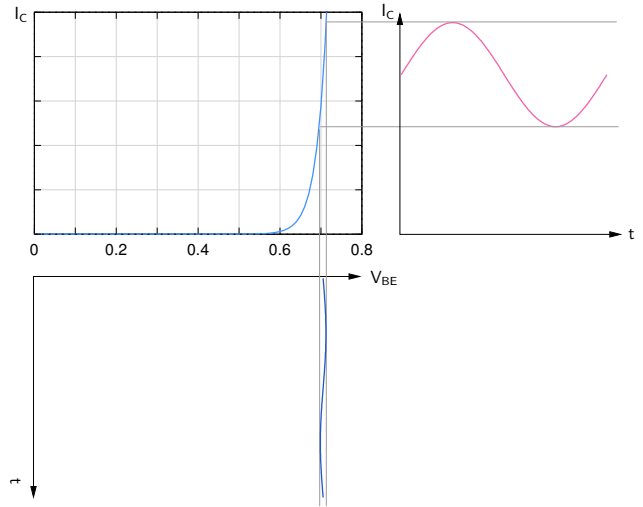
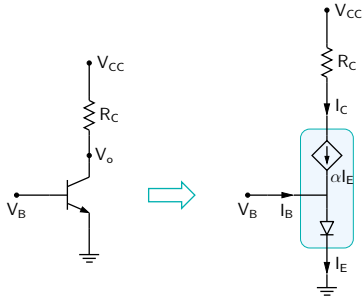
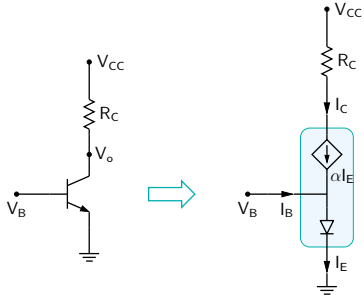


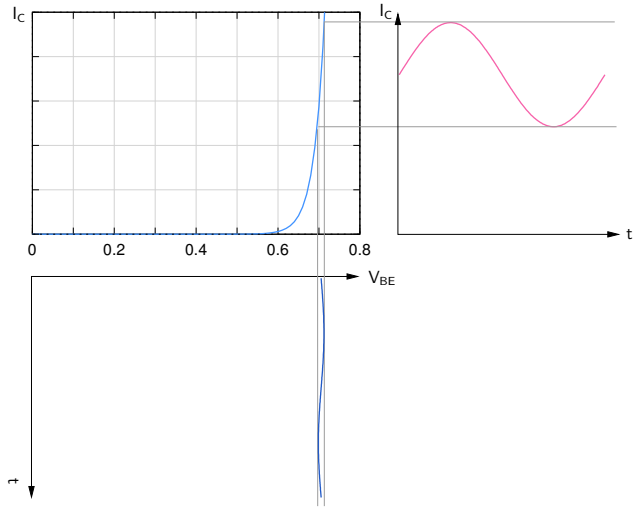
## BJT amplifier: basic operation



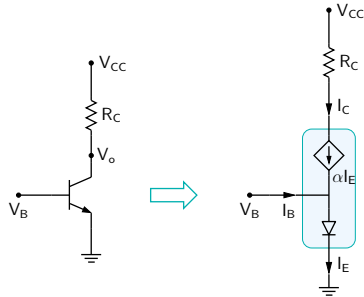
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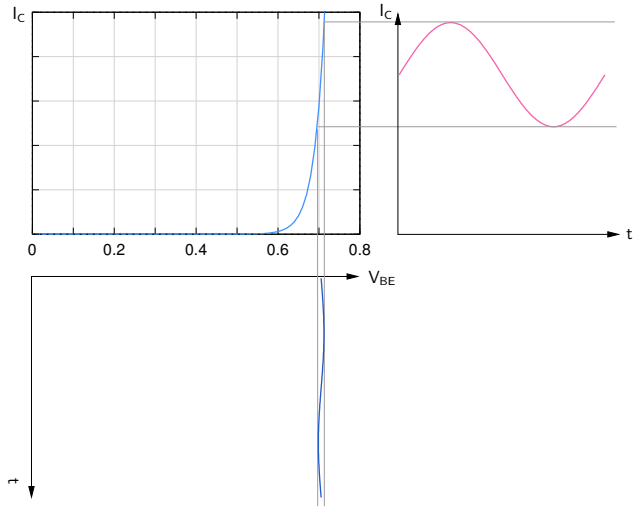
- \* In the active mode,  $I_C$  changes exponentially with  $V_{BE}$ :  $I_C = \alpha_F I_{ES} [\exp(V_{BE}/V_T) - 1]$



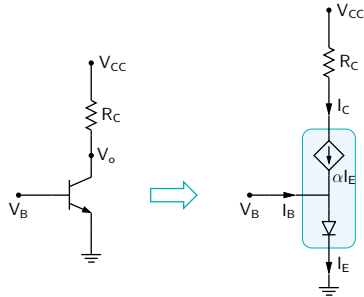
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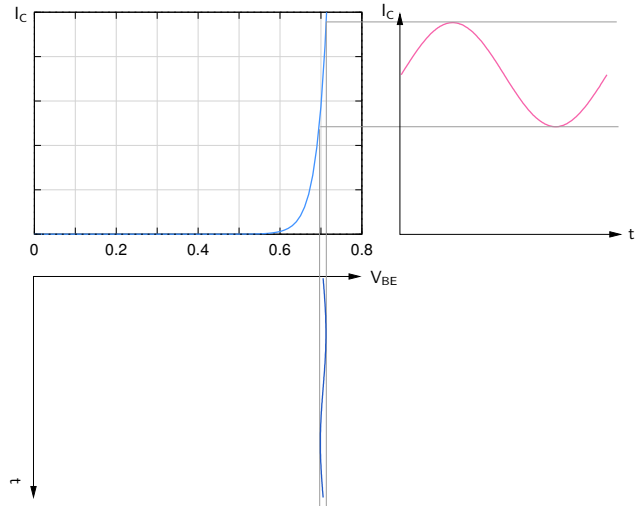
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- \*  $V_o(t) = V_{CC} - I_C(t) R_C$   
 $\Rightarrow$  the amplitude of  $V_o$ , i.e.,  $\hat{I}_C R_C$ , can be made much larger than  $\hat{V}_B$ .



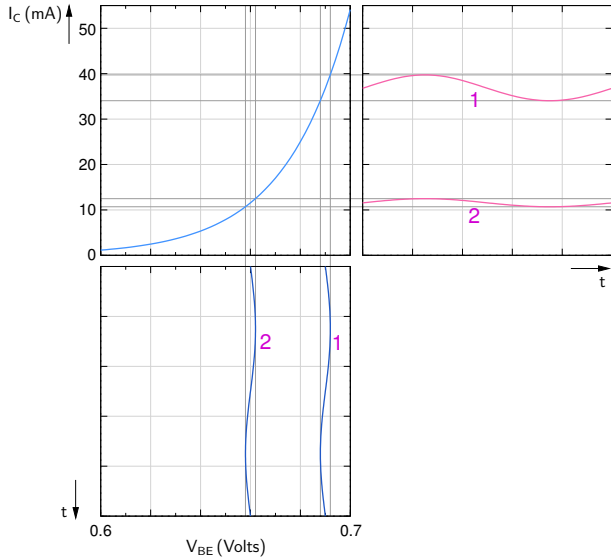
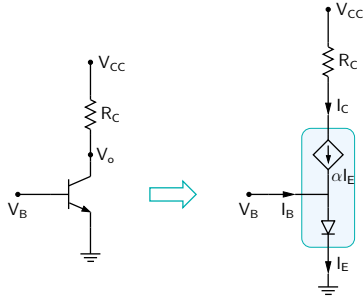
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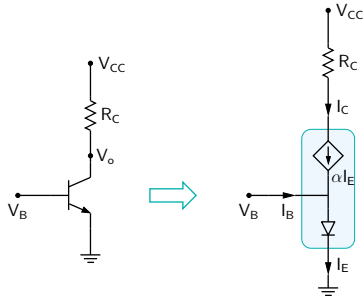
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- \* Note that both the input ( $V_{BE}$ ) and output ( $V_o$ ) voltages have DC ("bias") components.



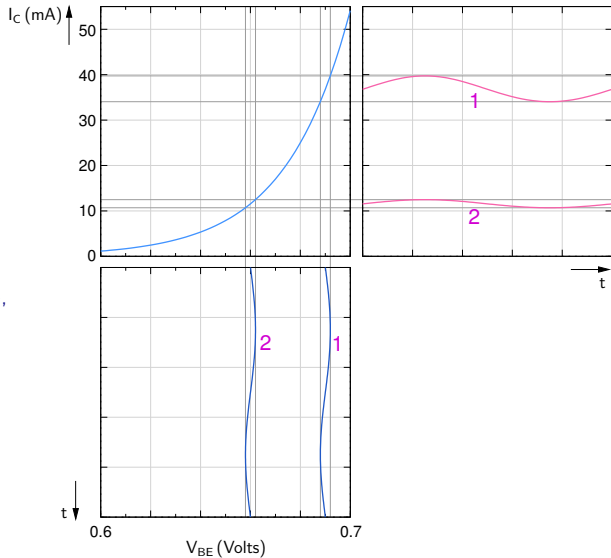
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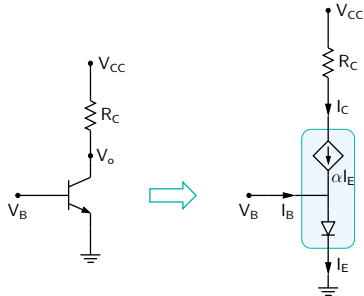
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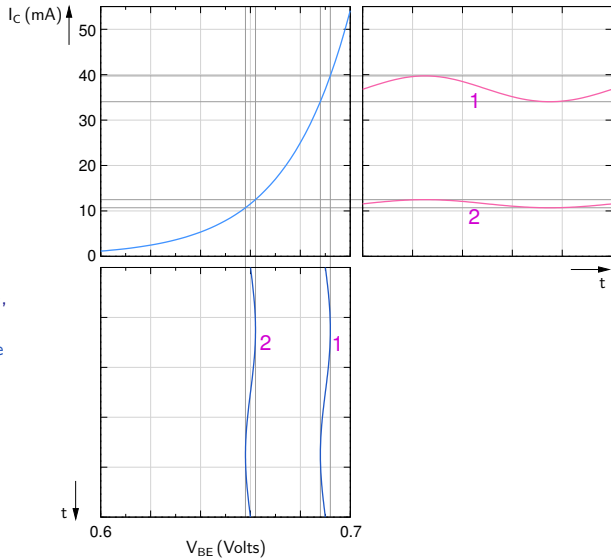
- \* The gain depends on the DC (bias) value of  $V_{BE}$ , the input voltage in this circuit.



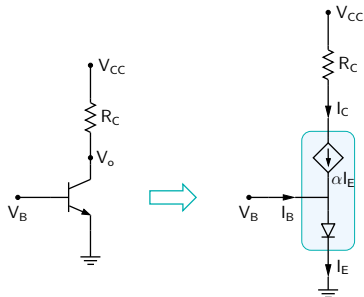
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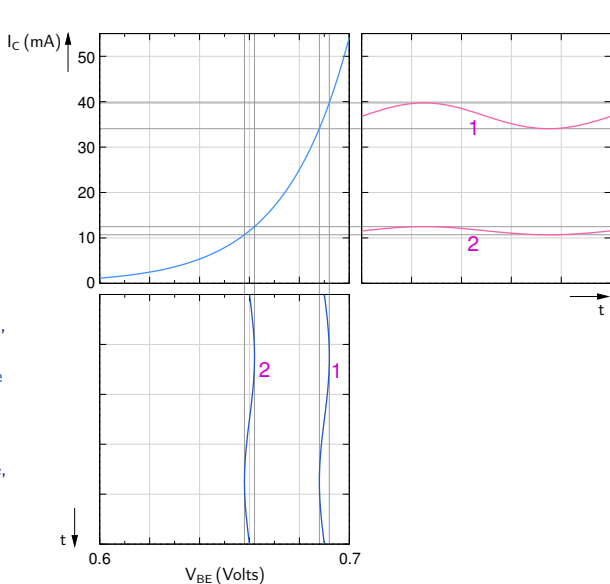
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## BJT amplifier: basic operation

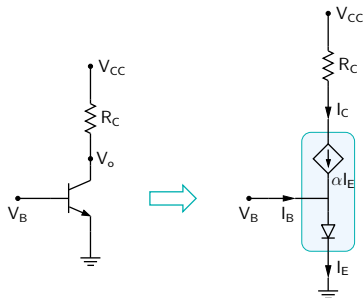


- \* The gain depends on the DC (bias) value of  $V_{BE}$ , the input voltage in this circuit.
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→ need a better biasing method.

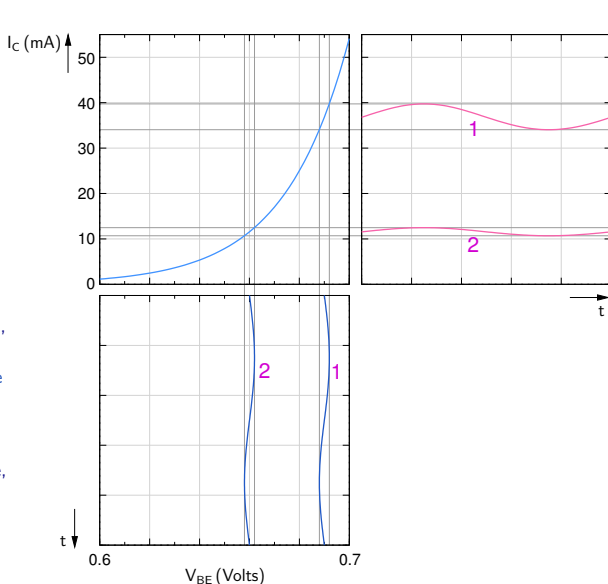




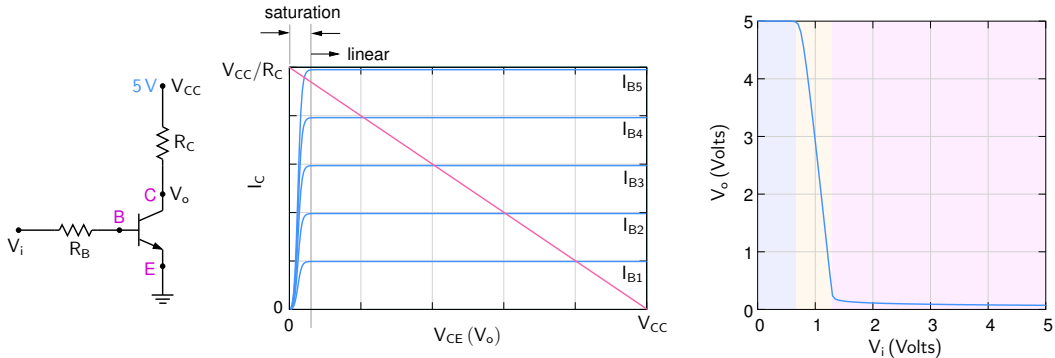
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→ need a better biasing method.
- \* Biasing the transistor at a specific  $V_{BE}$  is equivalent to biasing it at a specific  $I_C$ .

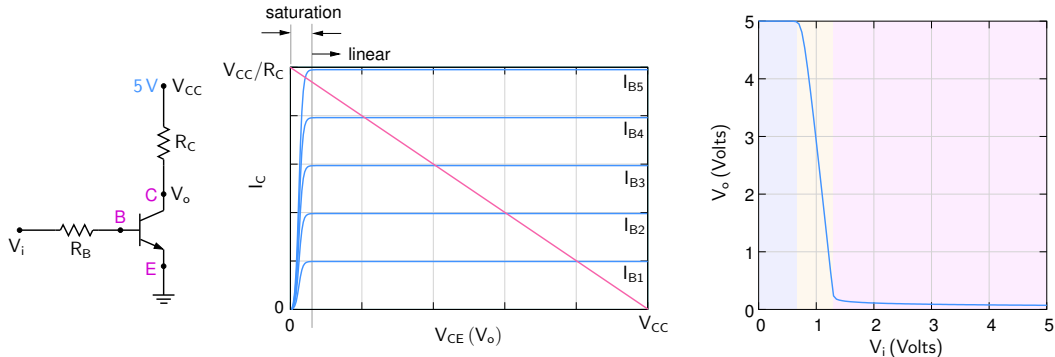


## BJT amplifier biasing



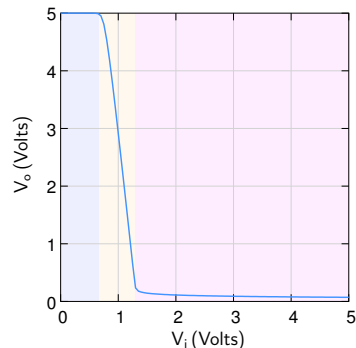
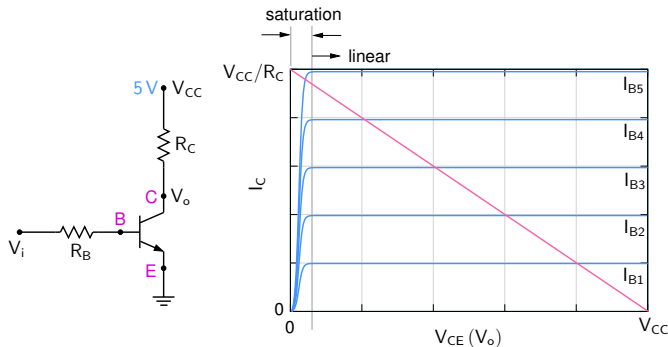
Consider a more realistic BJT amplifier circuit, with  $R_B$  added to limit the base current (and thus protect the transistor).

## BJT amplifier biasing



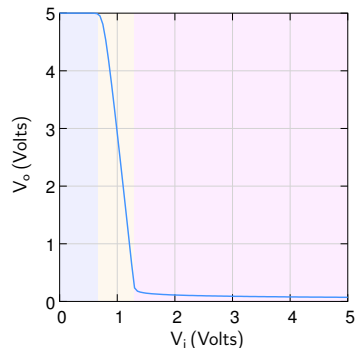
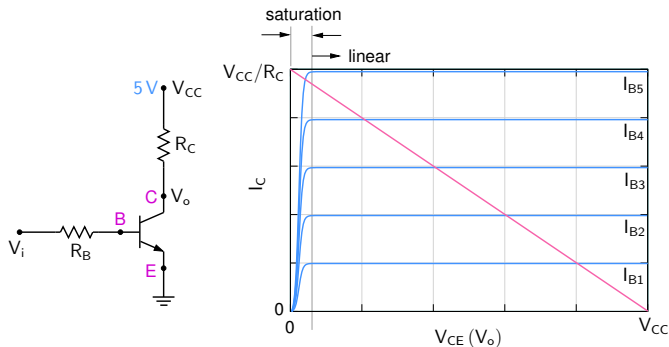
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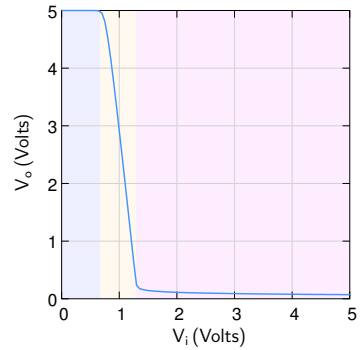
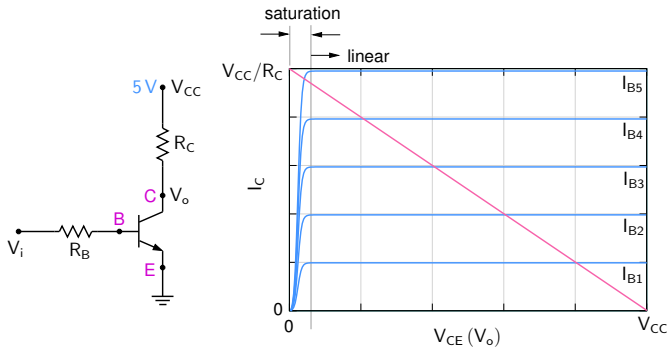
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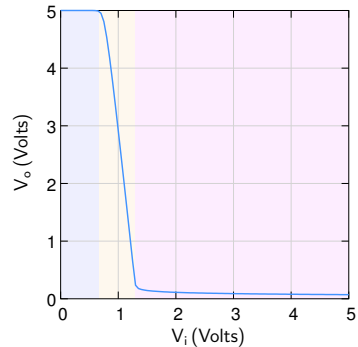
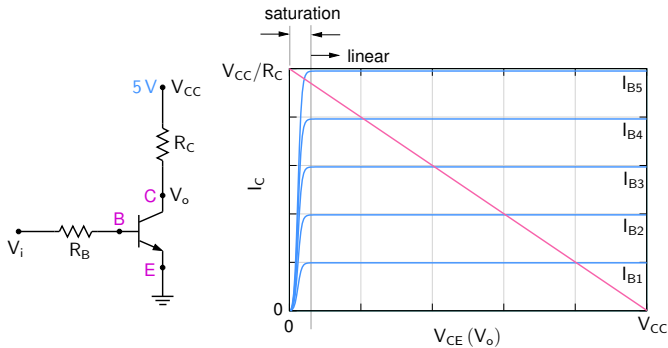
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- \* As  $V_i$  is increased further,  $V_o$  reaches  $V_{CE}^{\text{sat}}$  (about  $0.2V$ ), and the BJT enters the saturation region (both B-E and B-C junctions are forward biased).

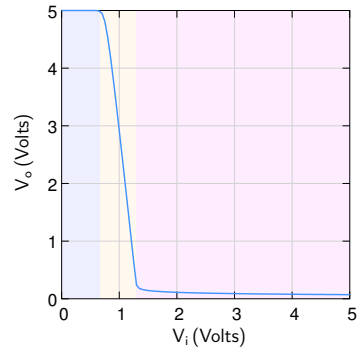
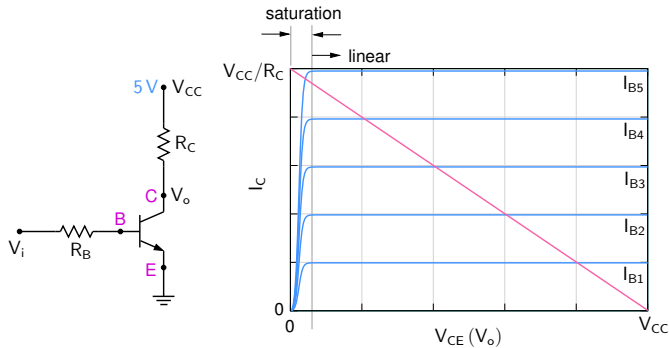
# BJT amplifier biasing



# BJT amplifier biasing

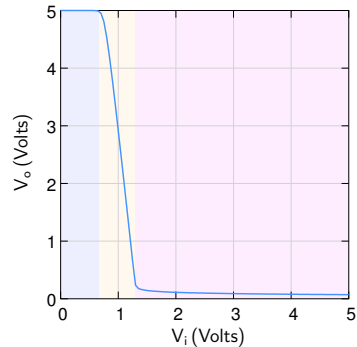
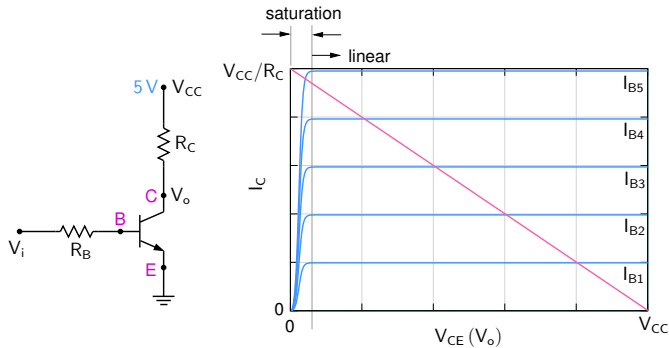


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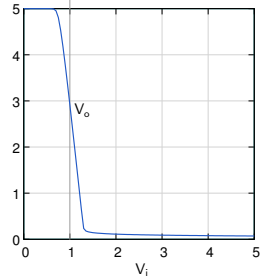
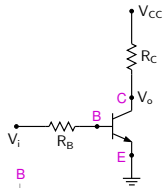
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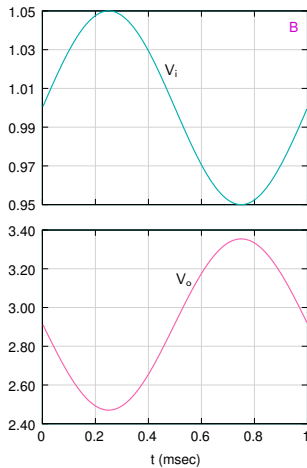
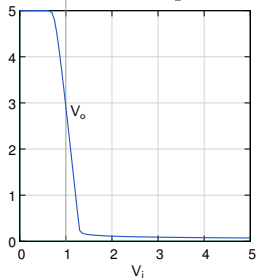
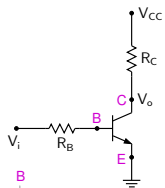


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- \* Further, to get a large swing in  $V_o$  without distortion, the DC bias of  $V_i$  should be at the centre of the amplifying region, i.e.,  $V_i \approx 1$  V.

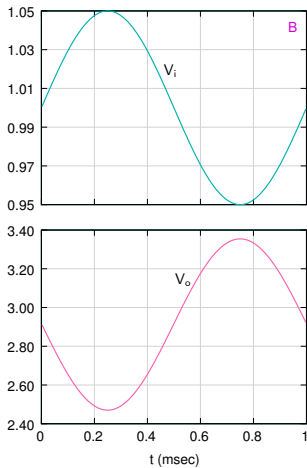
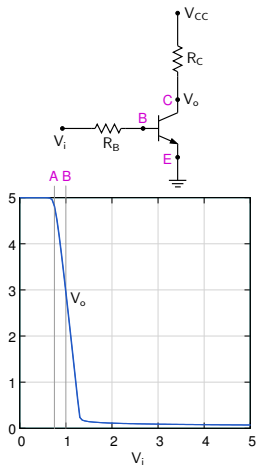
# BJT amplifier biasing



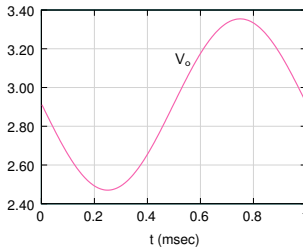
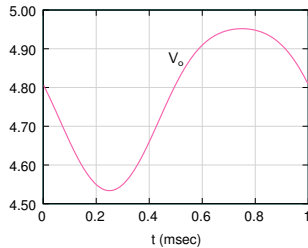
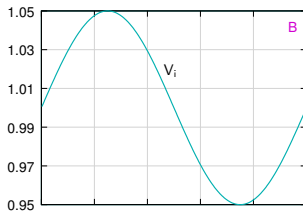
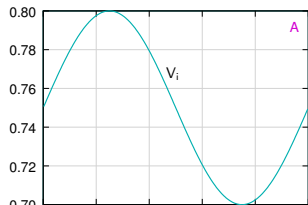
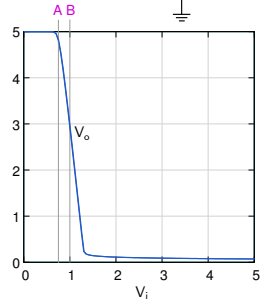
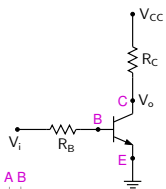
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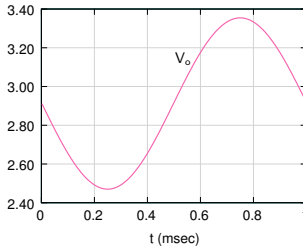
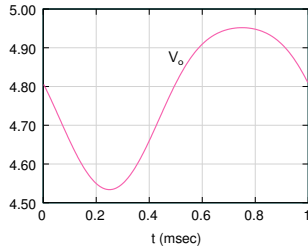
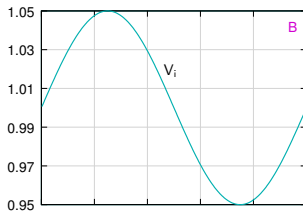
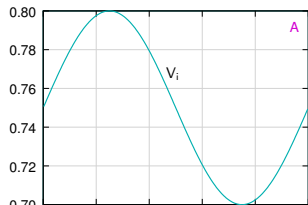
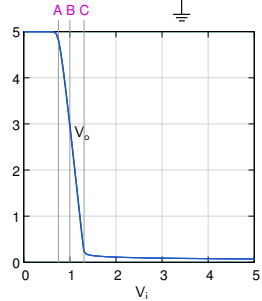
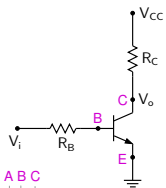
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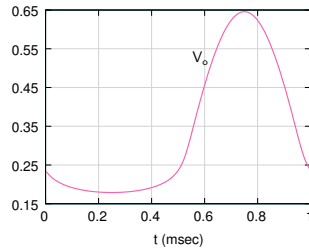
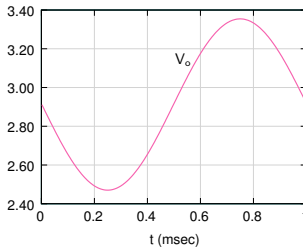
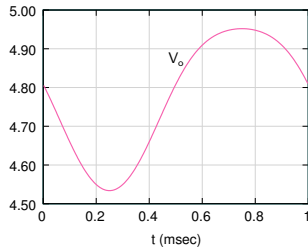
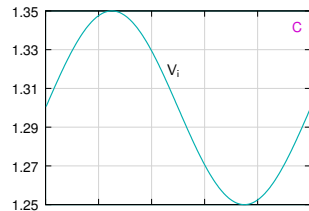
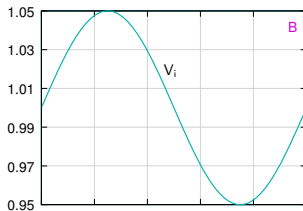
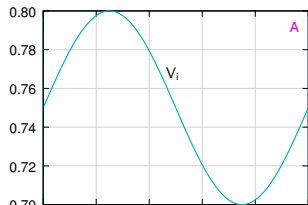
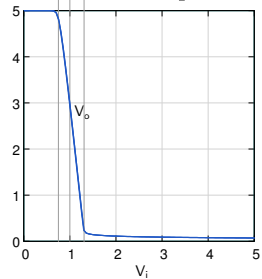
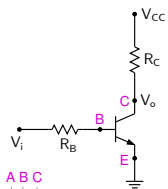
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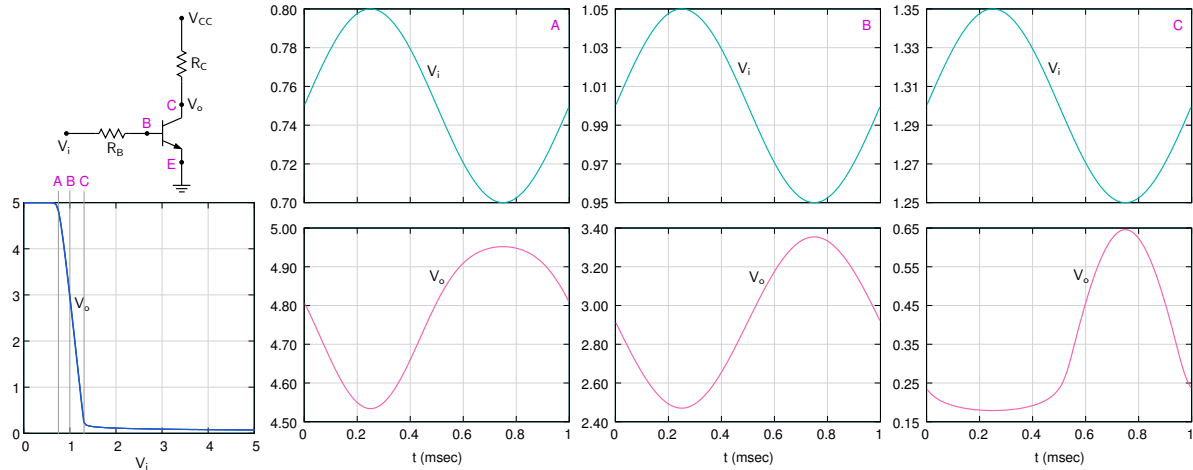
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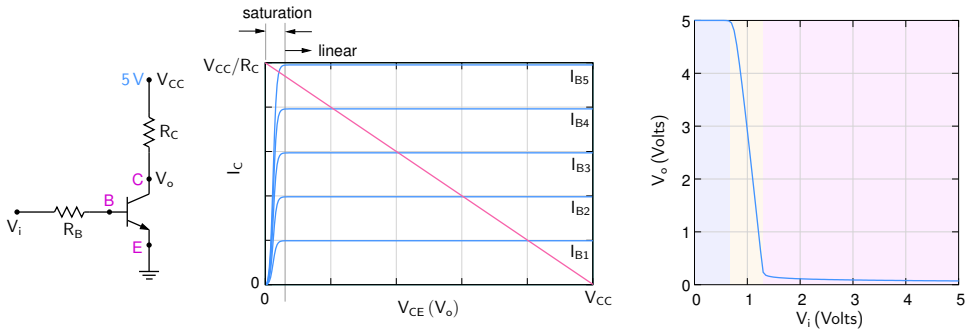
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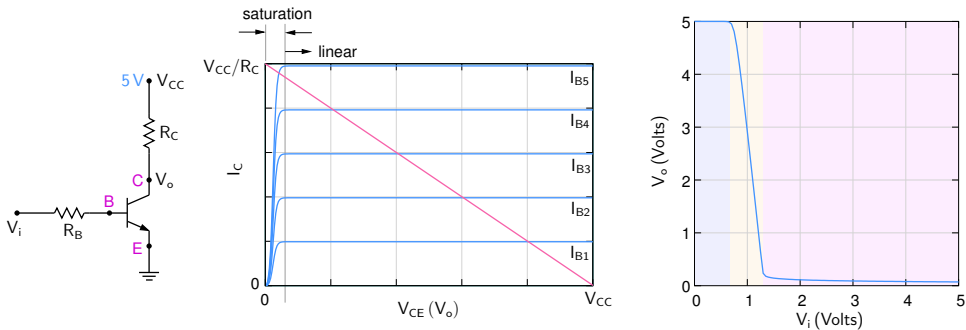
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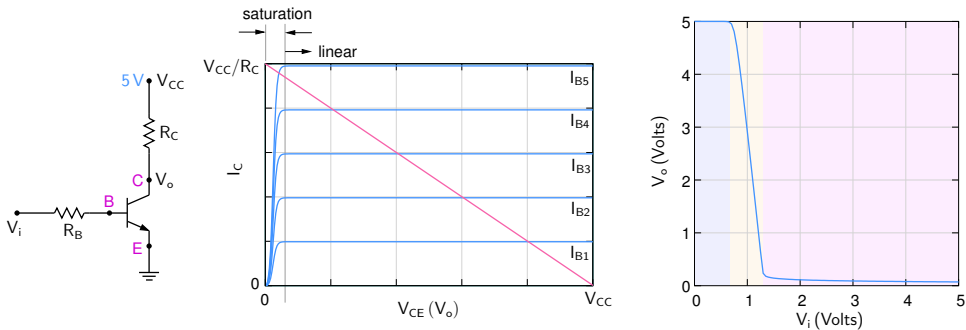
# BJT amplifier



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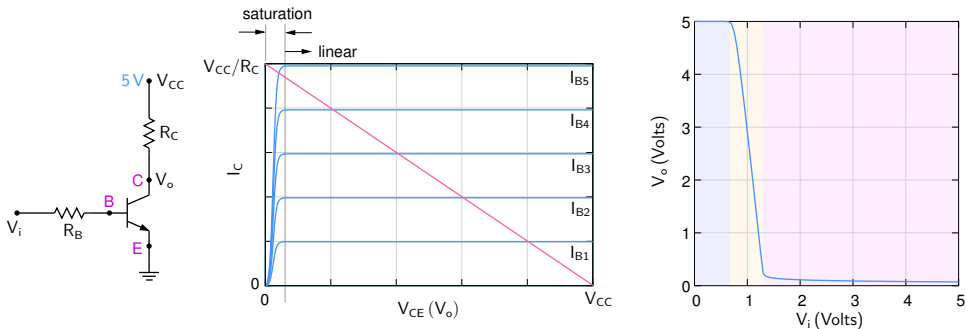


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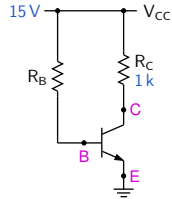
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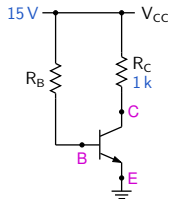
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- \* The first issue is addressed by using a suitable biasing scheme, and the second by using “coupling” capacitors.

## 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).

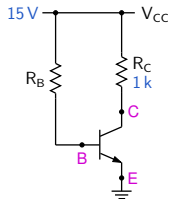
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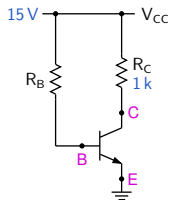


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As an example, for  $R_C = 1\text{ k}$ ,  $\beta = 100$ , let us calculate  $R_B$  for  $I_C = 3.3\text{ mA}$ , assuming the BJT to be operating in the active mode.

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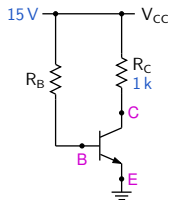
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$$I_B = \frac{I_C}{\beta} = \frac{3.3\text{ mA}}{100} = 33\text{ }\mu\text{A} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{15 - 0.7}{R_B}$$



## 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).

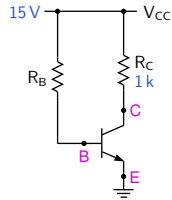
Equivalently, we may bias an amplifier for a certain DC value of  $V_{CE}$ , since  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  are related:  
 $V_{CE} + I_C R_C = V_{CC}$ .

As an example, for  $R_C = 1\text{ k}$ ,  $\beta = 100$ , let us calculate  $R_B$  for  $I_C = 3.3\text{ mA}$ , assuming the BJT to be operating in the active mode.

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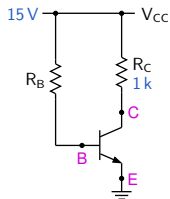
$$\rightarrow R_B = \frac{14.3\text{ V}}{33\text{ }\mu\text{A}} = 430\text{ k}\Omega.$$

## BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme (continued)



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

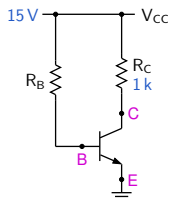
## BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme (continued)



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

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

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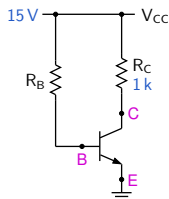
However, in practice, there is a substantial variation in the  $\beta$  value (even for the same transistor type). The manufacturer may specify the nominal value of  $\beta$  as 100, but the actual value may be 150, for example.

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.

## BJT amplifier: a simple biasing scheme (continued)



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

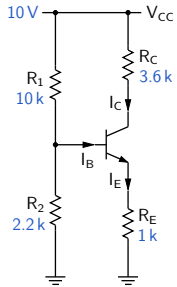
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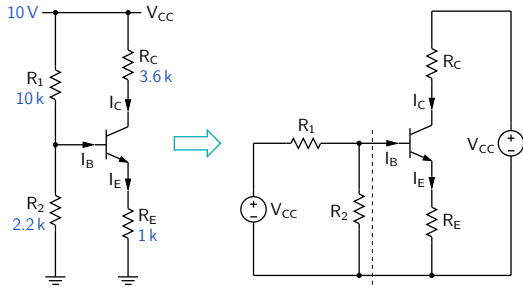
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→ need a biasing scheme which is not so sensitive to  $\beta$ .

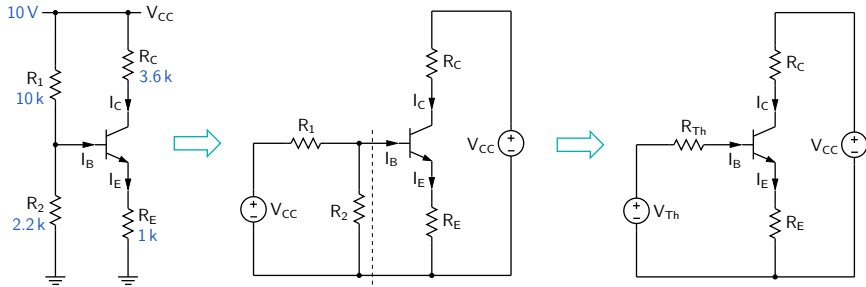
## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



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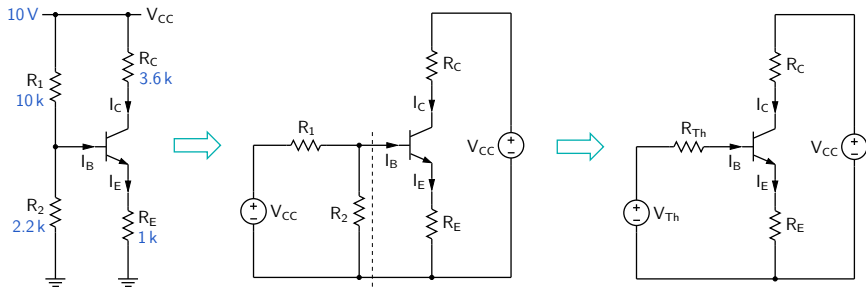


## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



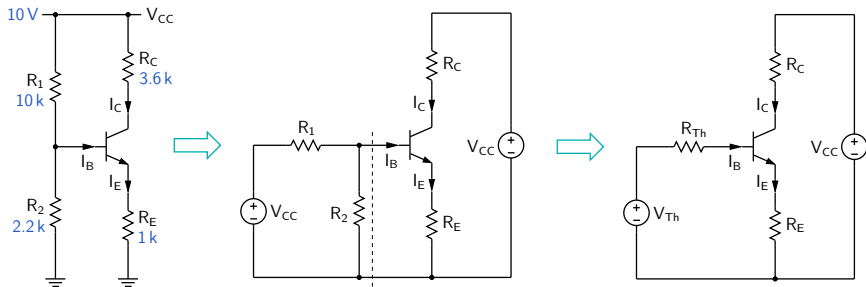


## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



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

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme

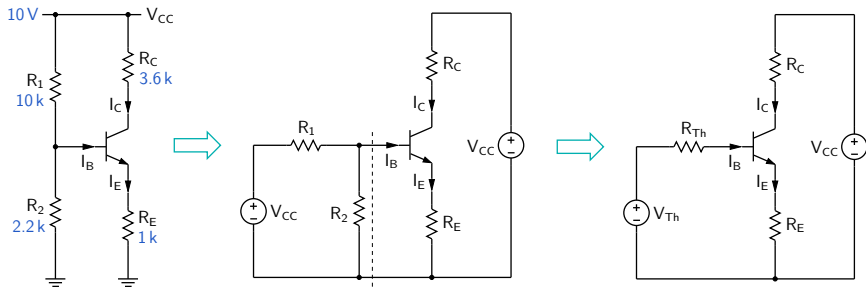


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Assuming the BJT to be in the active mode,

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

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



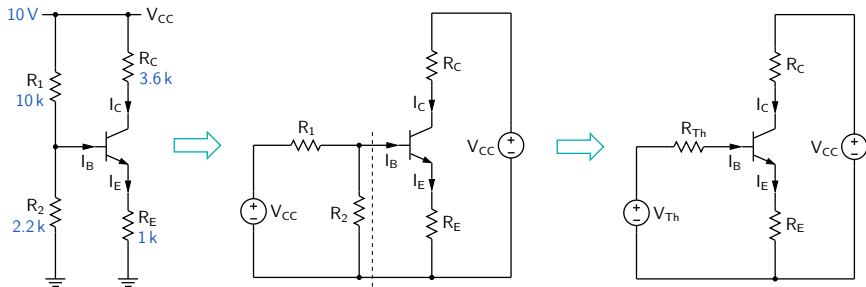
$$V_{Th} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V_{CC} = \frac{2.2k}{10k + 2.2k} \times 10V = 1.8V, \quad R_{Th} = R_1 \parallel R_2 = 1.8k$$

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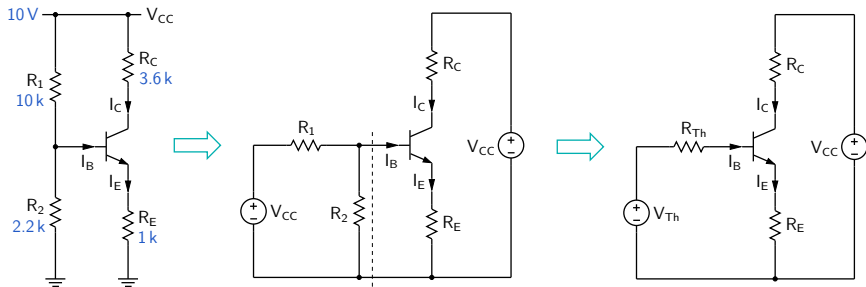
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For  $\beta = 100$ ,  $I_C = 1.07 \text{ mA}$ .

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme



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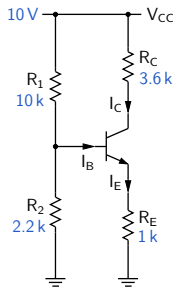
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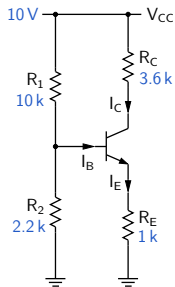
For  $\beta = 200$ ,  $I_C = 1.085 \text{ mA}$ .

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



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

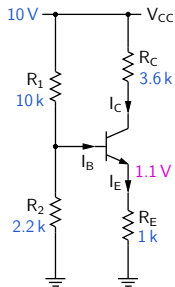
## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



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

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

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)

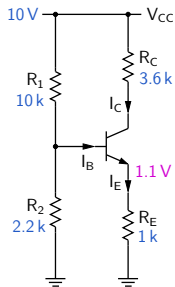


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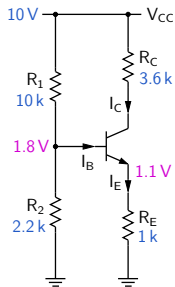


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## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)

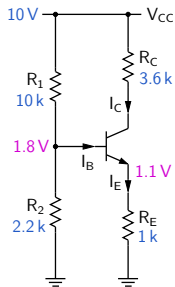


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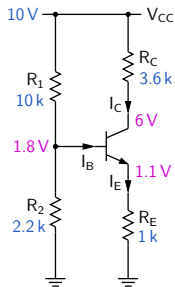
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## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



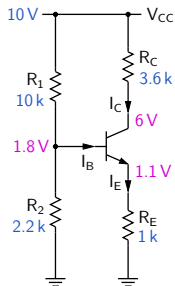
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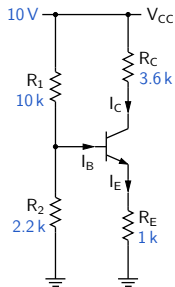
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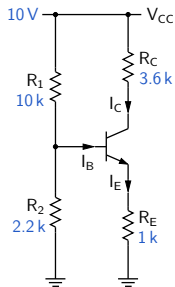
$$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 6 - 1.1 = 4.9\text{ V}.$$

## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



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

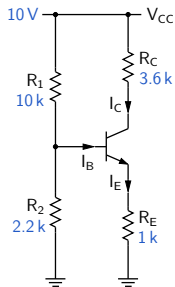
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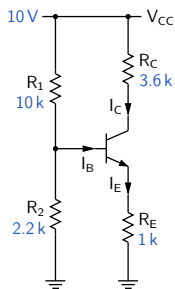
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## BJT amplifier: improved biasing scheme (continued)



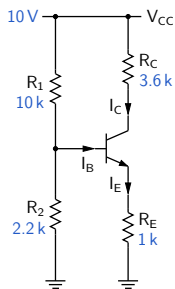
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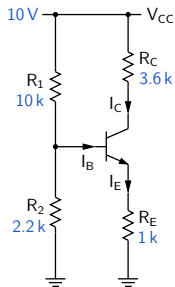
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$$I_C = \alpha I_E \approx I_E = 1.1\text{mA}.$$

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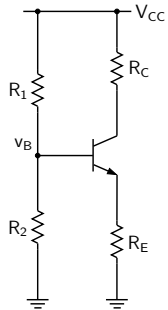
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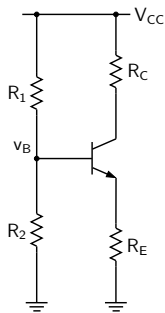
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$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C - I_E R_E = 10\text{ V} - (3.6\text{ k} \times 1.1\text{ mA}) - (1\text{ k} \times 1.1\text{ mA}) \approx 5\text{ V}.$$

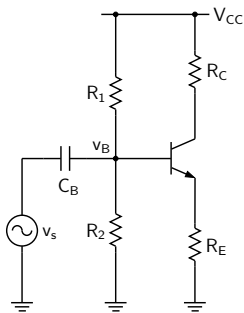
## Adding signal to bias



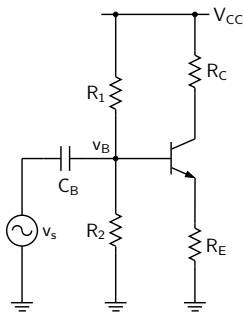


- \* As we have seen earlier, the input signal  $v_s(t) = \hat{V} \sin \omega t$  (for example) needs to be mixed with the desired bias value  $V_B$  so that the net voltage at the base is  $v_B(t) = V_B + \hat{V} \sin \omega t$ .

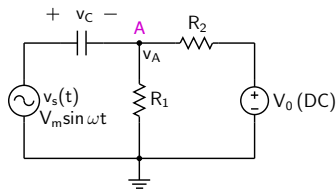
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- \* This can be achieved by using a coupling capacitor  $C_B$ .

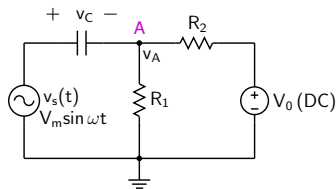


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- \* Let us consider a simple circuit to illustrate how a coupling capacitor works.



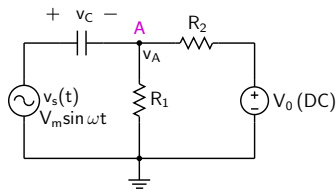
We are interested in the solution (currents and voltages) in the “sinusoidal steady state” when the exponential transients have vanished and each quantity  $x(t)$  is of the form  $X_0$  (constant) +  $X_m \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ .





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There are two ways to obtain the solution:

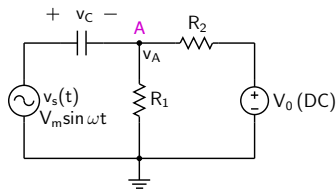


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There are two ways to obtain the solution:

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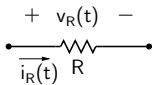
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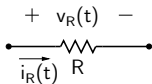
$$\frac{v_A(t)}{R_1} + \frac{v_A(t) - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s(t) - v_A(t)).$$

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

## Resistor in sinusoidal steady state

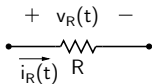


## Resistor in sinusoidal steady state



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

## Resistor in sinusoidal steady state

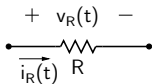


Let  $v_R(t) = V_R + v_r(t)$  where  $V_R = \text{constant}$ ,  $v_r(t) = \widehat{V}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ ,

$i_R(t) = I_R + i_r(t)$  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  $[V_R + v_r(t)] = R \times [I_R + i_r(t)]$ .

## Resistor in sinusoidal steady state



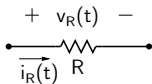
Let  $v_R(t) = V_R + v_r(t)$  where  $V_R = \text{constant}$ ,  $v_r(t) = \widehat{V}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ ,  
 $i_R(t) = I_R + i_r(t)$  where  $I_R = \text{constant}$ ,  $i_r(t) = \widehat{I}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ .

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  $v_r(t) = R \times i_r(t)$ .

## Resistor in sinusoidal steady state



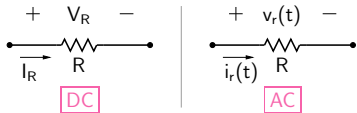
Let  $v_R(t) = V_R + v_r(t)$  where  $V_R = \text{constant}$ ,  $v_r(t) = \widehat{V}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ ,  
 $i_R(t) = I_R + i_r(t)$  where  $I_R = \text{constant}$ ,  $i_r(t) = \widehat{I}_R \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ .

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:

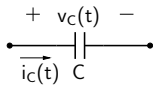
$V_R = R \times I_R$ , and  $v_r(t) = R \times i_r(t)$ .

In other words, a resistor can be described by

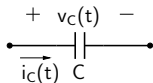




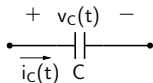
## Capacitor in sinusoidal steady state



## Capacitor in sinusoidal steady state

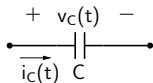


Let  $v_C(t) = V_C + v_c(t)$  where  $V_C = \text{constant}$ ,  $v_c(t) = \hat{V}_C \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ ,  
 $i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t)$  where  $I_C = \text{constant}$ ,  $i_c(t) = \hat{I}_C \sin(\omega t + \beta)$ .



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

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



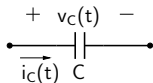
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Since  $i_C(t) = C \frac{dv_C}{dt}$ , we get  $[I_C + i_c(t)] = C \frac{d}{dt} (V_C + v_c(t))$ .

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



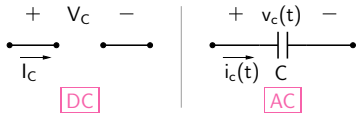
Let  $v_C(t) = V_C + v_c(t)$  where  $V_C = \text{constant}$ ,  $v_c(t) = \hat{V}_C \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ ,  
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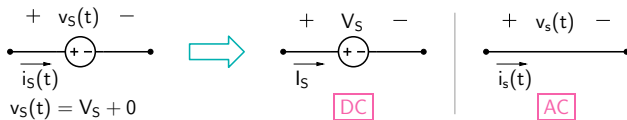
This relationship can be split into two:

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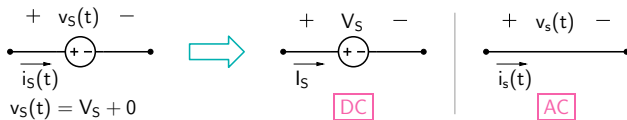


DC voltage source:

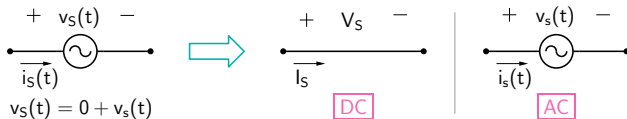


# Voltage sources in sinusoidal steady state

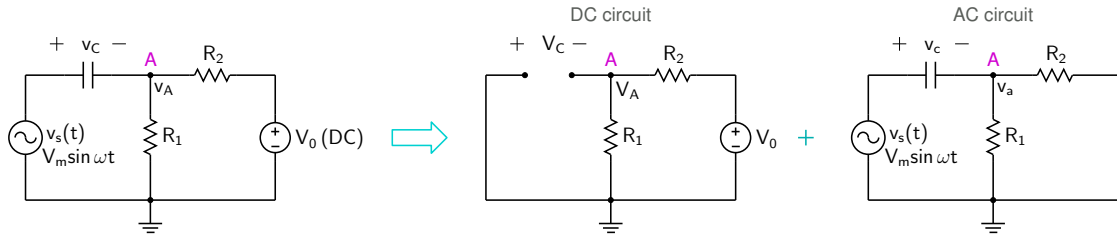
DC voltage source:



AC voltage source:

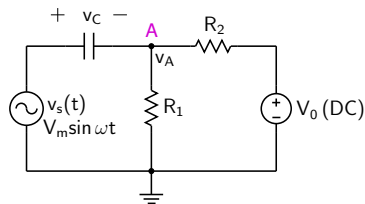


## RC circuit with DC + AC sources

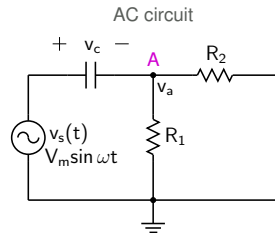
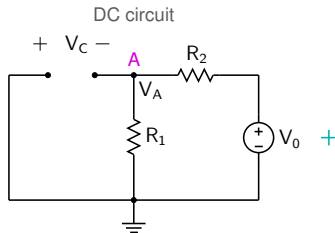




## RC circuit with DC + AC sources

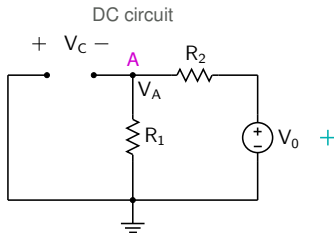
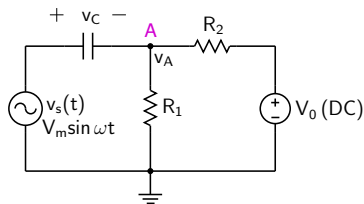


DC circuit: 
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0.$$



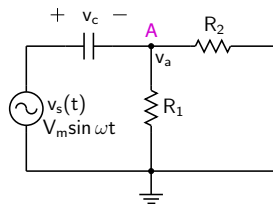
(1)

## RC circuit with DC + AC sources



+

AC circuit



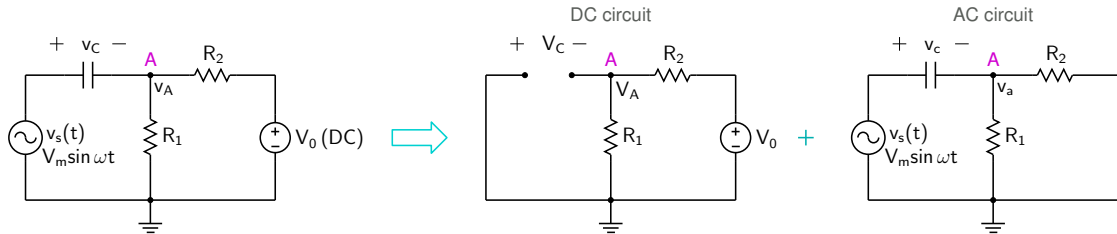
DC circuit: 
$$\frac{V_A}{R_1} + \frac{V_A - V_0}{R_2} = 0.$$

(1)

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

(2)

## RC circuit with DC + AC sources

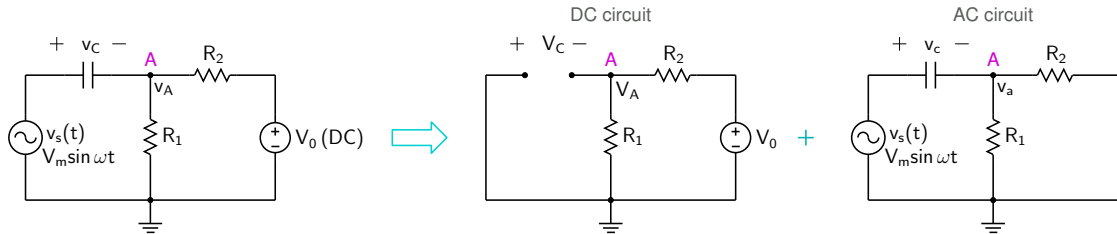


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AC circuit: 
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Adding (1) and (2), we get 
$$\frac{V_A + v_a}{R_1} + \frac{V_A + v_a - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_a). \quad (3)$$

## RC circuit with DC + AC sources



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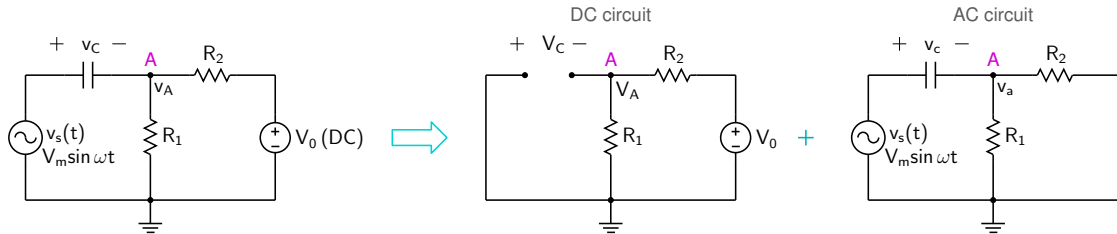
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$$\frac{V_A + v_a}{R_1} + \frac{V_A + v_a - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_a). \quad (3)$$

Compare with the equation obtained directly from the original circuit:

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

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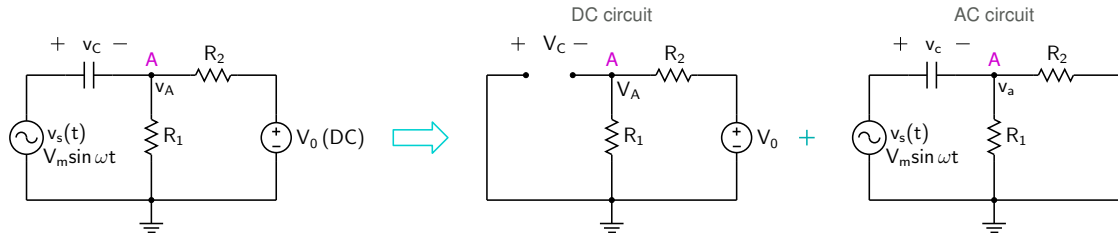
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Eqs. (3) and (4) are identical since  $v_A = V_A + v_a$ .

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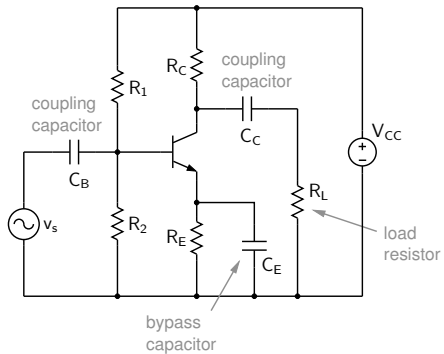
$$\frac{v_A}{R_1} + \frac{v_A - V_0}{R_2} = C \frac{d}{dt} (v_s - v_A). \quad (4)$$

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

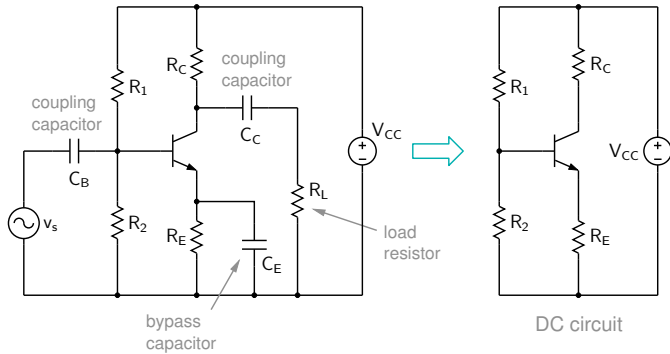
→ Instead of computing  $v_A(t)$  directly, we can compute  $V_A$  and  $v_a(t)$  separately, and then use

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

## Common-emitter amplifier

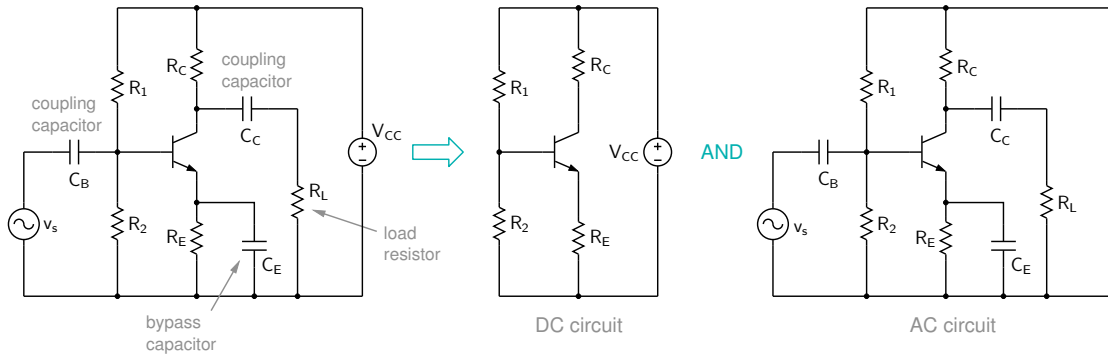


## Common-emitter amplifier

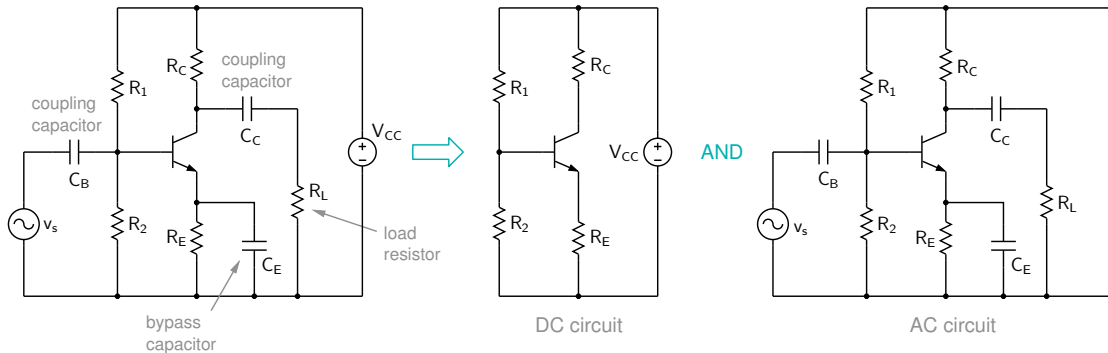




## Common-emitter amplifier

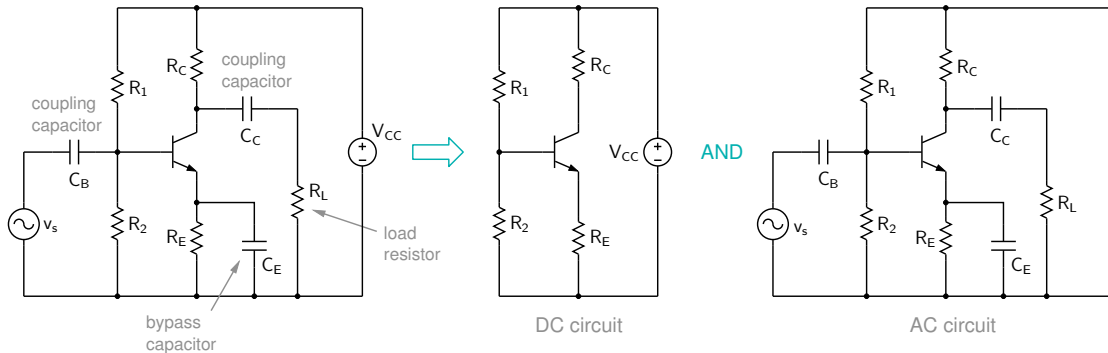


## Common-emitter amplifier



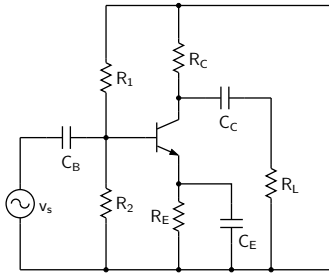
\* The coupling capacitors ensure that the signal source and the load resistor do not affect the DC bias of the amplifier. (We will see the purpose of  $C_E$  a little later.)

# Common-emitter amplifier

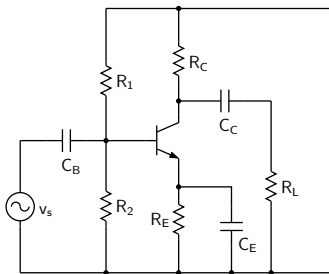


- \* The coupling capacitors ensure that the signal source and the load resistor do not affect the DC bias of the amplifier. (We will see the purpose of  $C_E$  a little later.)
- \* This enables us to bias the amplifier without worrying about what load it is going to drive.

## Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



## Common-emitter amplifier: AC circuit



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

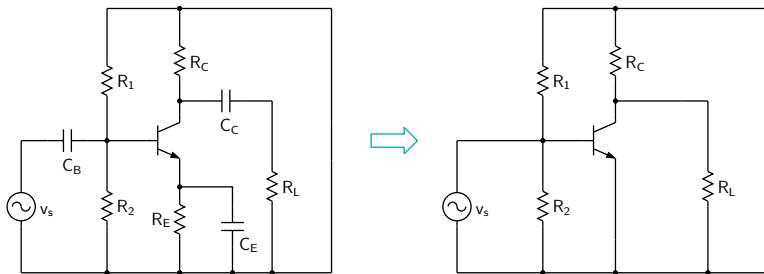
For example, for  $C = 10 \mu F$ ,  $f = 1 \text{ kHz}$ ,

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

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.

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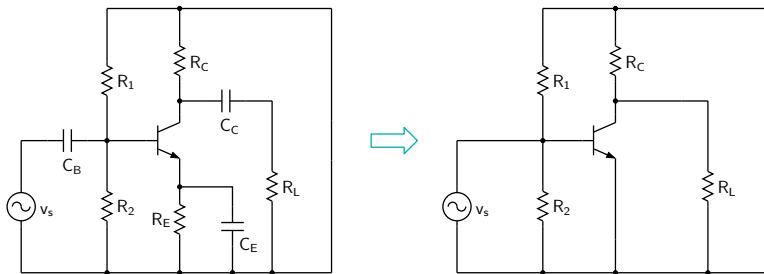
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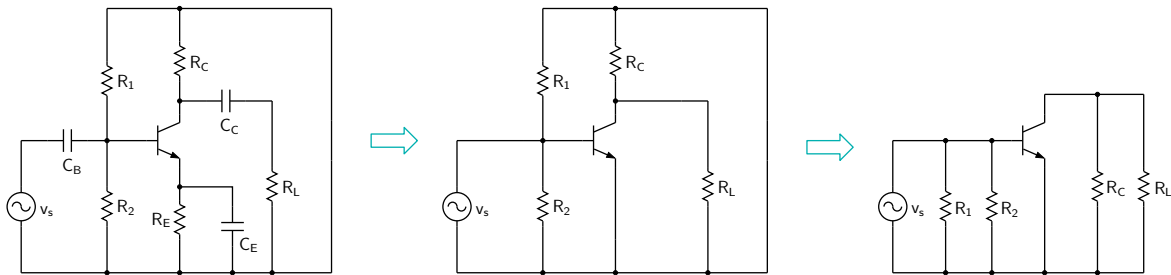
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- \* The circuit can be re-drawn in a more friendly format.

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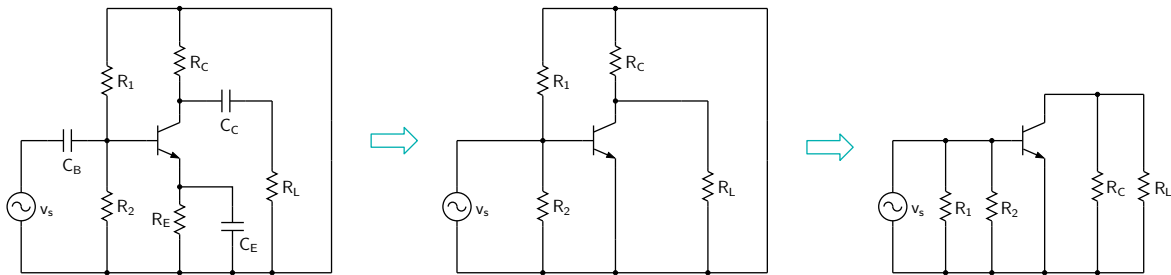
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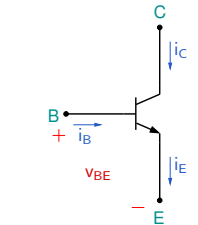
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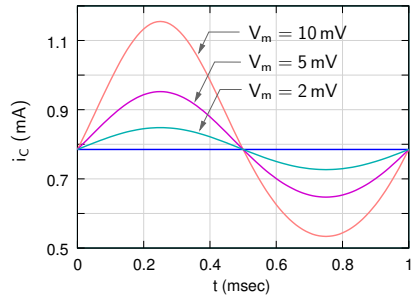
$\Rightarrow C_B$ ,  $C_C$ ,  $C_E$  can be replaced by short circuits at the frequencies of interest.

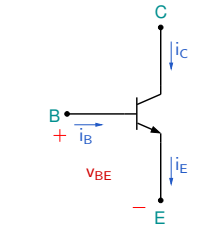
- \* The circuit can be re-drawn in a more friendly format.
- \* We now need to figure out the AC description of a BJT.



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

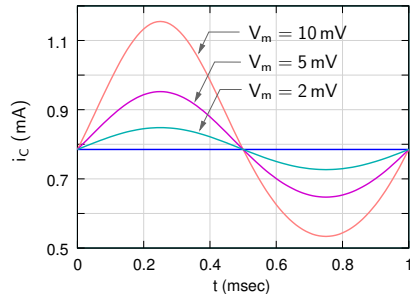
$$V_0 = 0.65 \text{ V}, \quad f = 1 \text{ kHz}$$



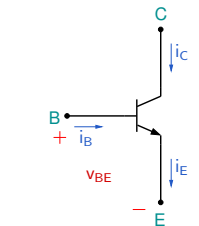


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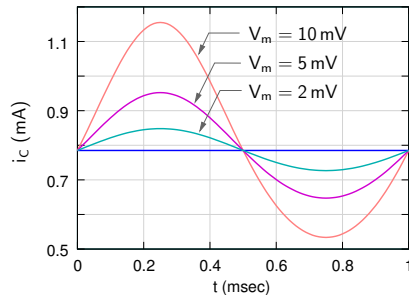


- \* As the  $v_{BE}$  amplitude increases, the shape of  $i_C(t)$  deviates from a sinusoid → distortion.



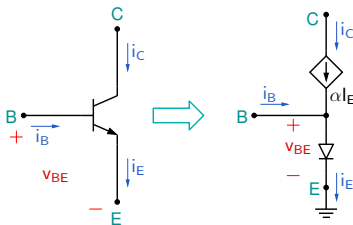
$$v_{BE}(t) = V_0 + V_m \sin \omega t$$

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

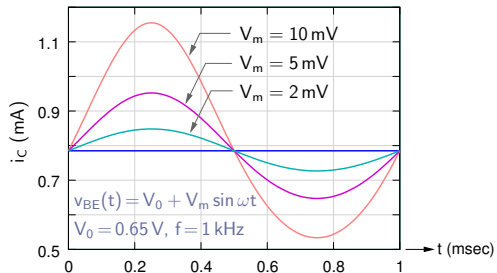


- \* As the  $v_{BE}$  amplitude increases, the shape of  $i_C(t)$  deviates from a sinusoid  $\rightarrow$  distortion.
- \* If  $v_{be}(t)$ , i.e., the time-varying part of  $v_{BE}$ , is kept small,  $i_C$  varies linearly with  $v_{BE}$ . How small? Let us look at this in more detail.

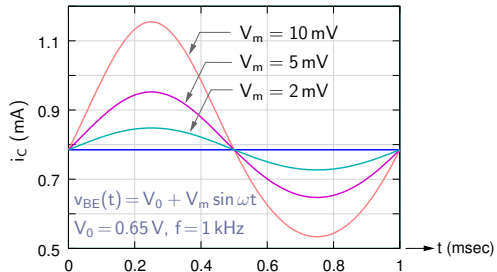
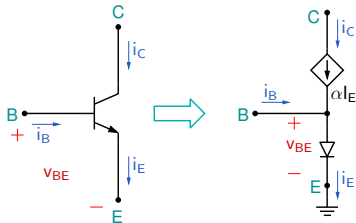
## BJT: small-signal model



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



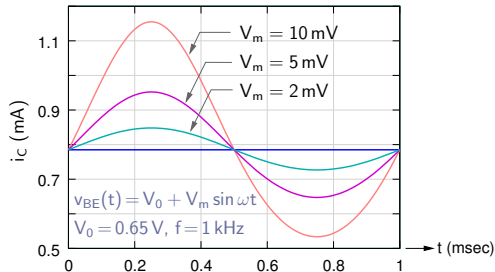
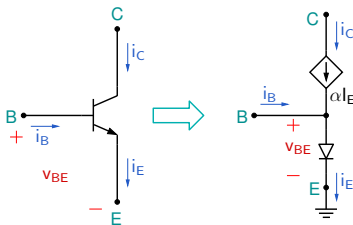
## BJT: small-signal model



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



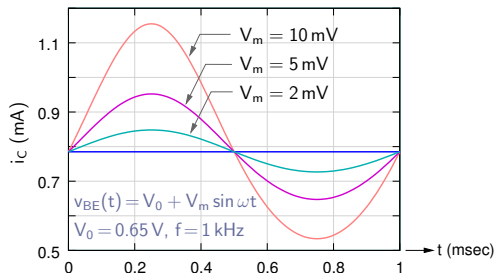
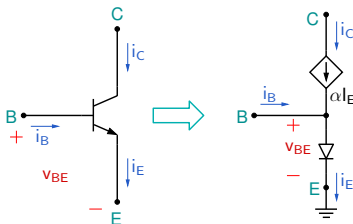
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Since the B-E junction is forward-biased,  $\exp \left( \frac{v_{BE}(t)}{V_T} \right) \gg 1$ , and we get

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

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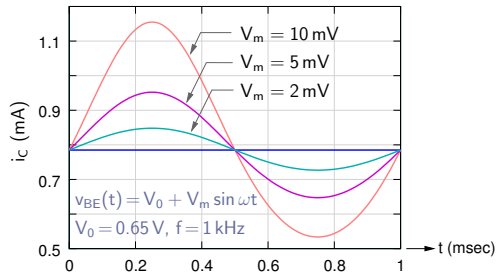
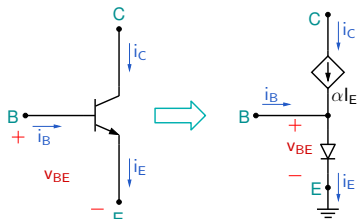
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If  $v_{be}(t) = 0$ ,  $i_C(t) = I_C$  (the bias value of  $i_C$ ), i.e.,  $I_C = \alpha I_{ES} \exp \left( \frac{V_{BE}}{V_T} \right)$

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

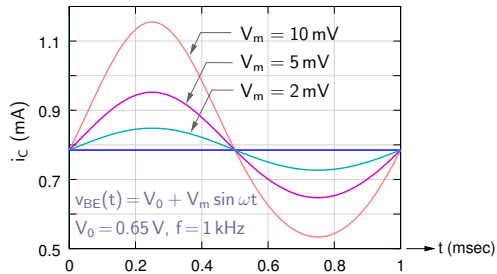
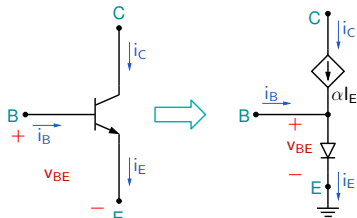


## BJT: small-signal model



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

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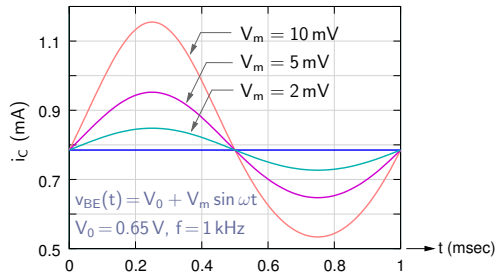
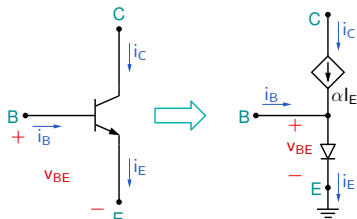


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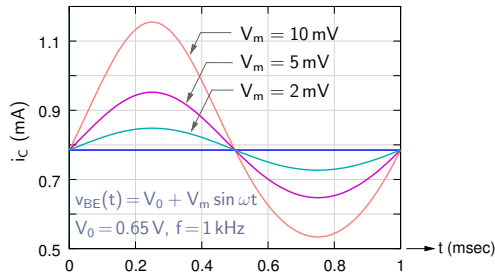
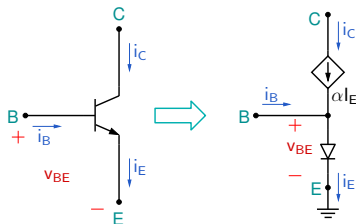
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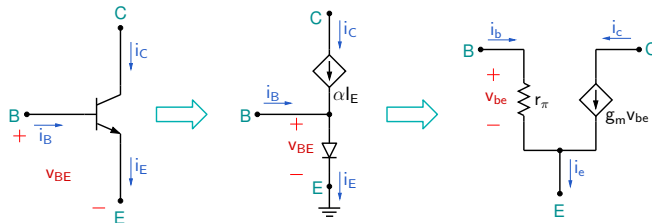
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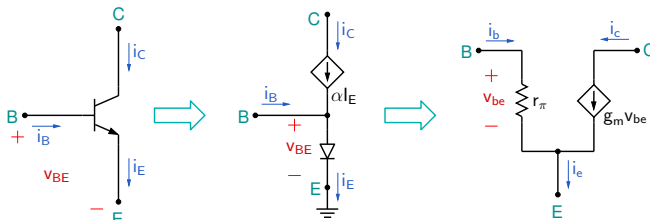
$$i_C(t) = I_C + i_c(t) = I_C \left[1 + \frac{v_{be}(t)}{V_T}\right] \Rightarrow i_c(t) = \frac{I_C}{V_T} v_{be}(t)$$

## 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.”

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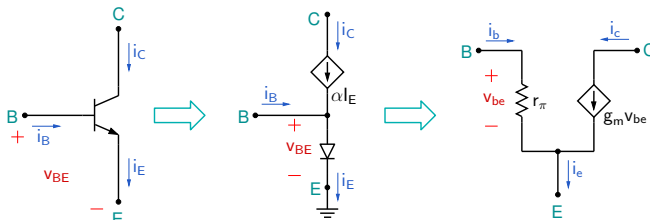
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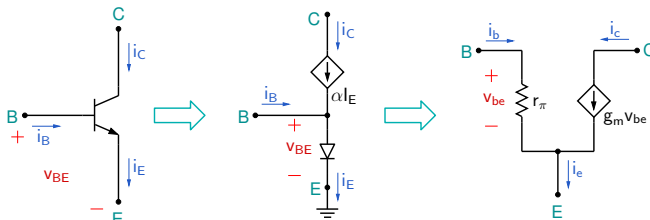
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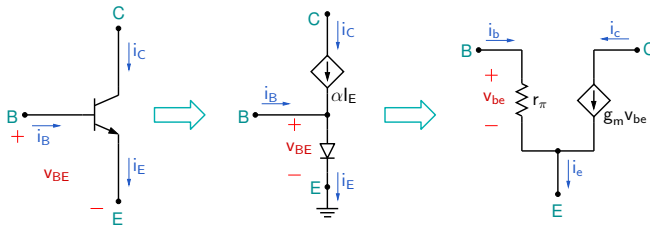
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The resulting model is called the  $\pi$ -model for small-signal description of a BJT.

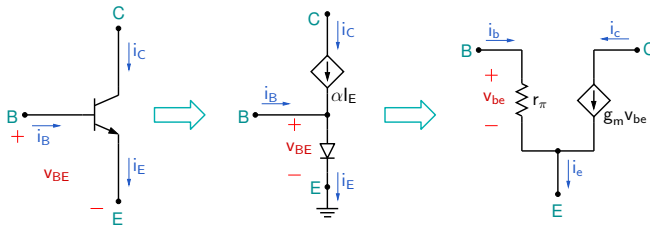


## BJT: small-signal model



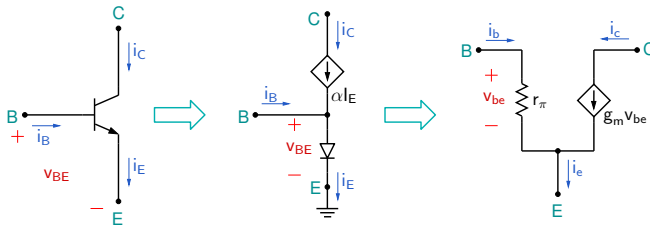
- \* The transconductance  $g_m$  depends on the biasing of the BJT, since  $g_m = I_C/V_T$ . For  $I_C = 1\text{ mA}$ ,  $V_T \approx 25\text{ mV}$  (room temperature),  $g_m = 1\text{ mA}/25\text{ mV} = 40\text{ mS}$  (milli-mho or milli-siemens).

## BJT: small-signal model



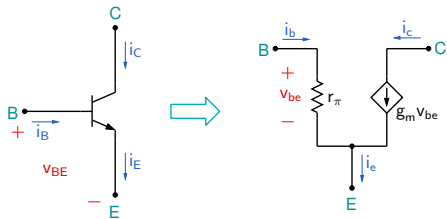
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## BJT: small-signal model



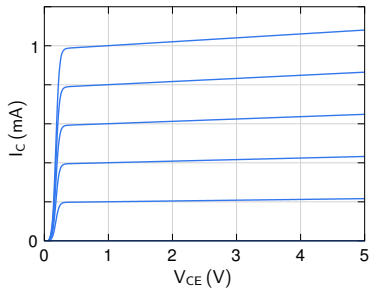
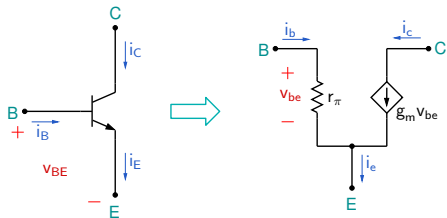
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- \* Note that the small-signal model is valid only for small  $v_{be}$  (small compared to  $V_T$ ).

## BJT: small-signal model



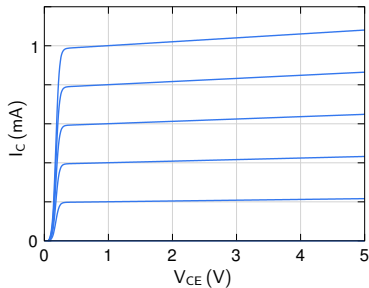
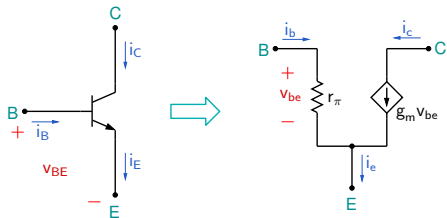
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## BJT: small-signal model

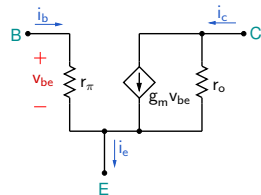
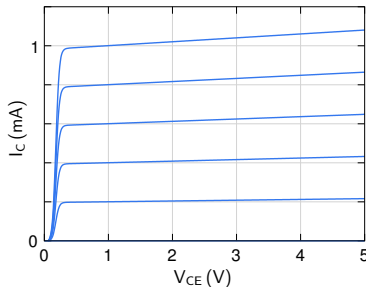
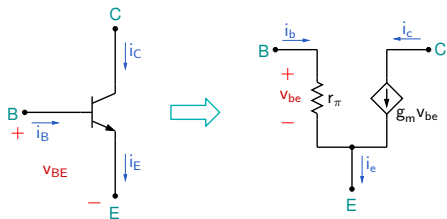


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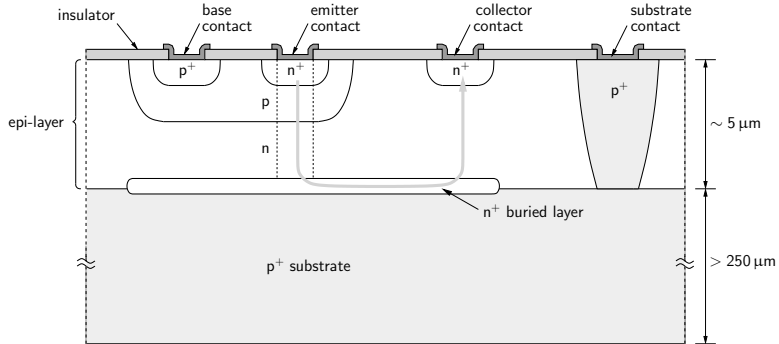
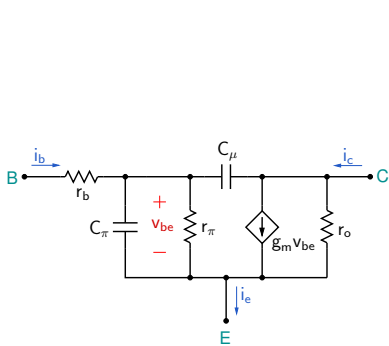


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# BJT: small-signal model



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

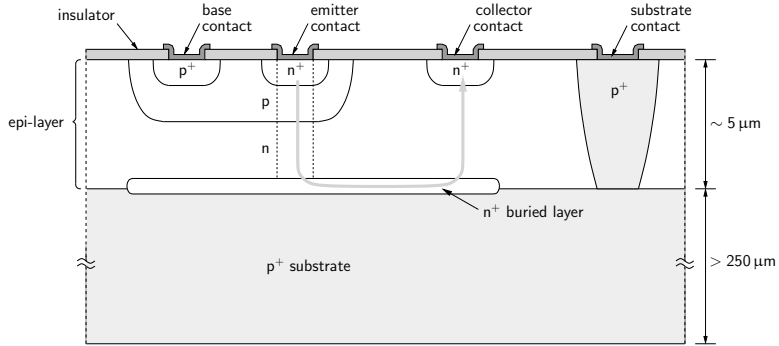
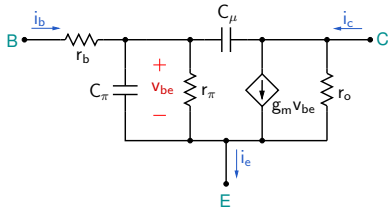
$r_b$ : base spreading resistance

$C_\pi$ : base charging capacitance + B-E junction capacitance

$C_\mu$ : B-C junction capacitance

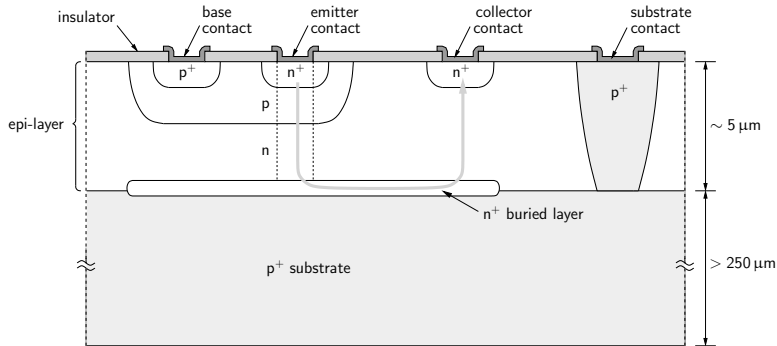
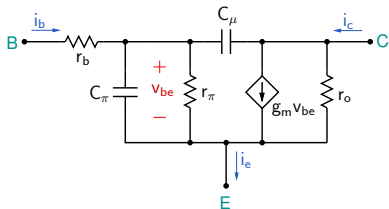


# BJT: small-signal model



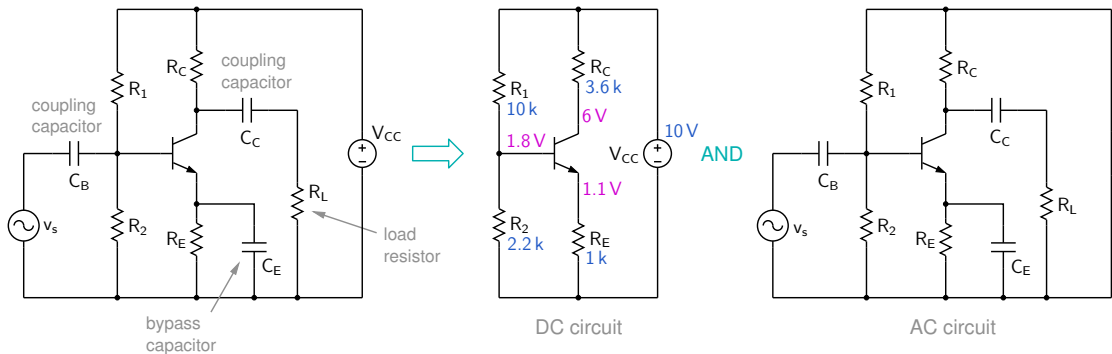
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  - $r_b$ : base spreading resistance
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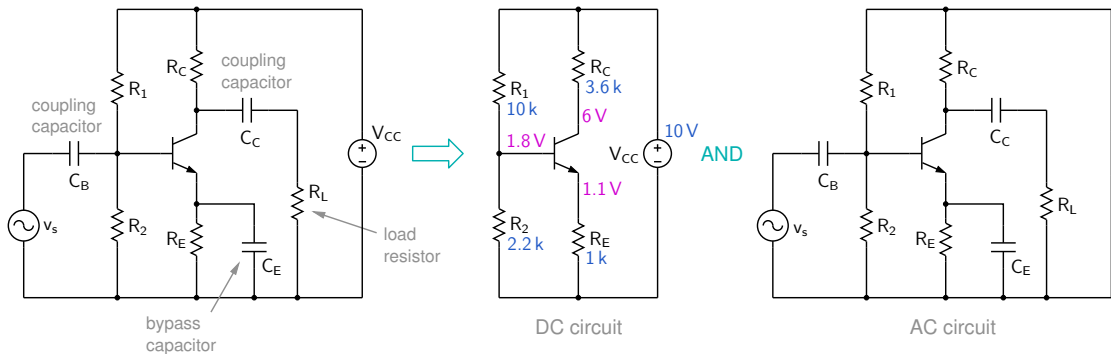
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- \* Note that the small-signal models we have described are valid in the active region only.

## Common-emitter amplifier



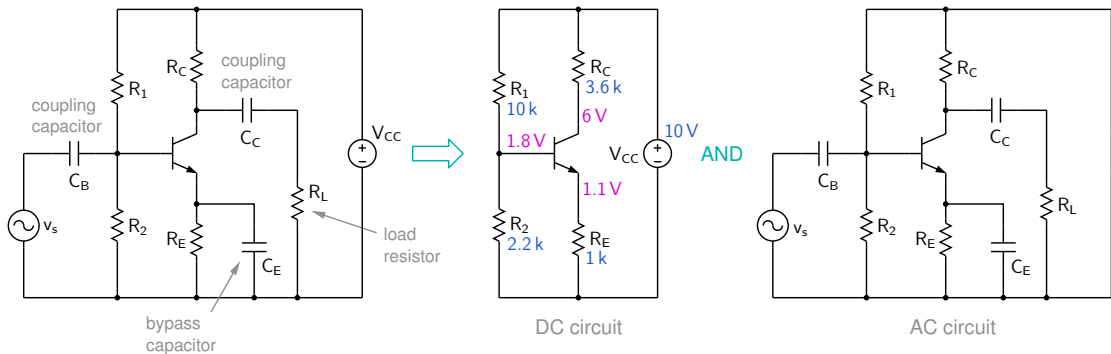
\* We have already analysed the DC (bias) circuit of this amplifier and found that  $V_B = 1.8\text{ V}$ ,  $V_E = 1.1\text{ V}$ ,  $V_C = 6\text{ V}$ , and  $I_C = 1.1\text{ mA}$ .

## Common-emitter amplifier



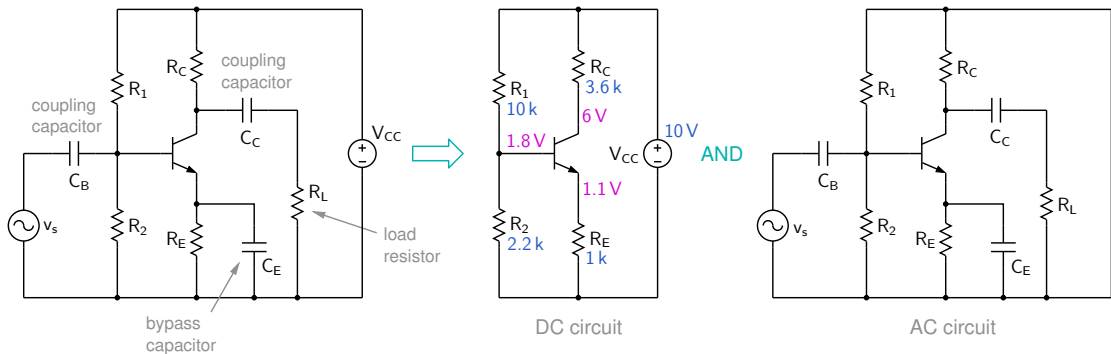
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## Common-emitter amplifier



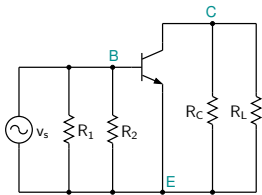
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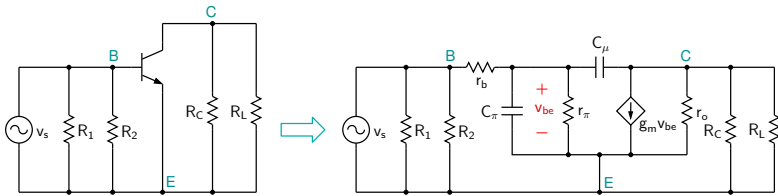


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## Common-emitter amplifier

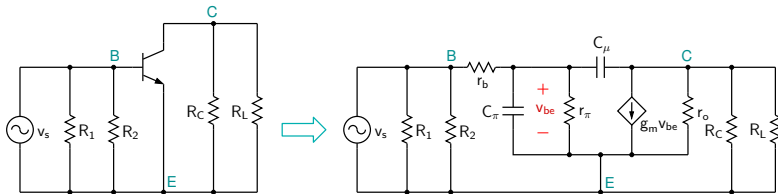


## Common-emitter amplifier





## Common-emitter amplifier

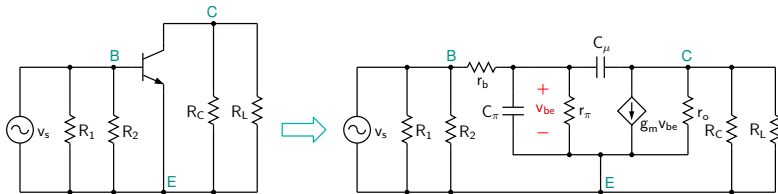


- \* The parasitic capacitances  $C_\pi$  and  $C_\mu$  are in the pF range. At a signal frequency of 1 kHz, the impedance corresponding to these capacitances is

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

→  $C_\pi$  and  $C_\mu$  can be replaced by open circuits.

## Common-emitter amplifier



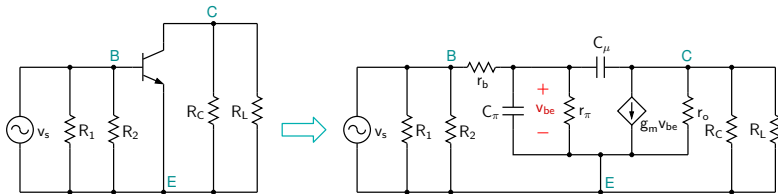
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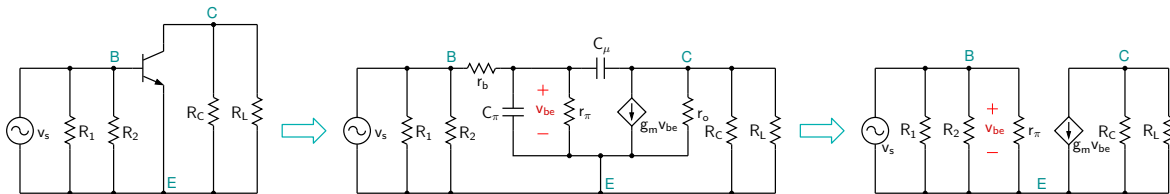
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- \* The above considerations significantly simplify the AC circuit.

## Common-emitter amplifier



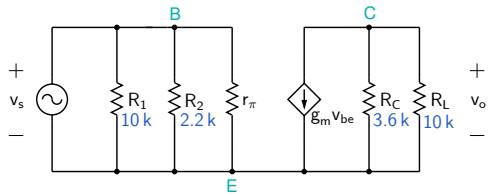
- \* The parasitic capacitances  $C_\pi$  and  $C_\mu$  are in the pF range. At a signal frequency of 1 kHz, the impedance corresponding to these capacitances is

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

→  $C_\pi$  and  $C_\mu$  can be replaced by open circuits.

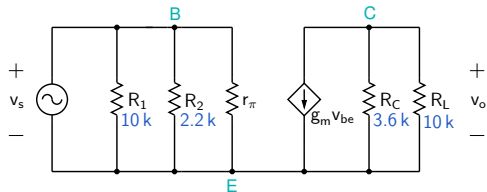
- \* For simplicity, we will assume  $r_b$  to be small and  $r_o$  to be large (this assumption will only slightly affect the gain computation).
- \* The above considerations significantly simplify the AC circuit.

## 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

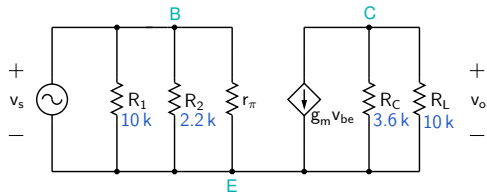


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$$\rightarrow A_V^L = \text{voltage gain} = \frac{v_o}{v_s} = -g_m (R_C \parallel R_L)$$

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## Common-emitter amplifier



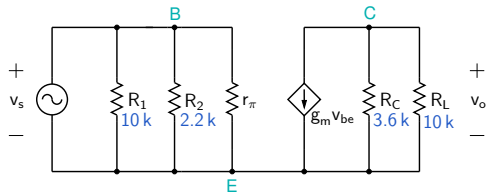
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## Common-emitter amplifier



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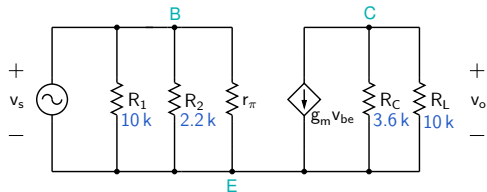
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$$\rightarrow A_V^L = -42.5 \text{ m}\mathcal{U} \times (3.6 \text{ k} \parallel 10 \text{ k}) = -112.5$$



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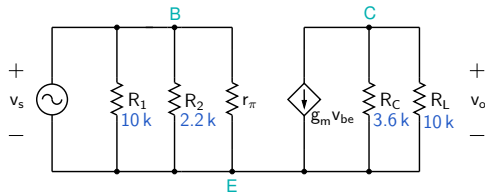
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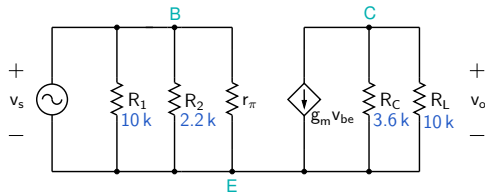
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For  $v_s(t) = (2\text{ mV}) \sin \omega t$ , the AC output voltage is,

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

## Common-emitter amplifier



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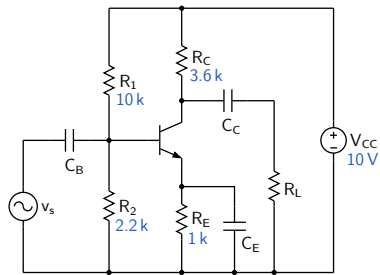
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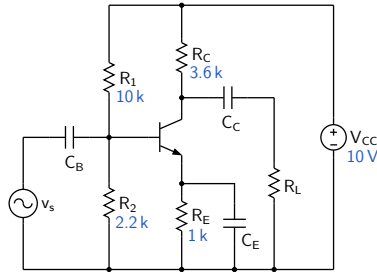
$$i_c = g_m v_{be} = g_m v_s = 42.5 \text{ m}\mathcal{U} \times (2 \text{ mV}) \sin \omega t = 85 \sin \omega t \text{ }\mu\text{A}.$$



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

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

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

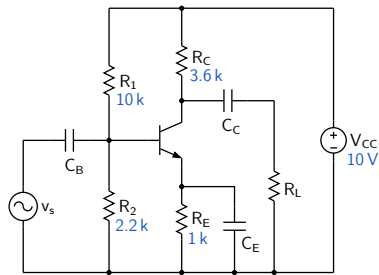


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Note that the above procedure (DC + AC analysis) can be used *only if* the small-signal approximation (i.e.,  $|v_{be}| \ll V_T$ ) is valid. In the above example, the amplitude of  $v_{be}$  is 2 mV, which is much smaller than  $V_T$  (about 25 mV).



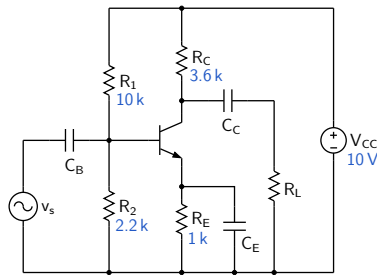
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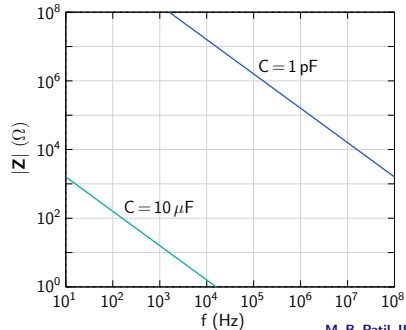
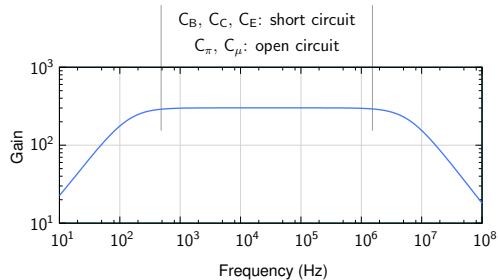
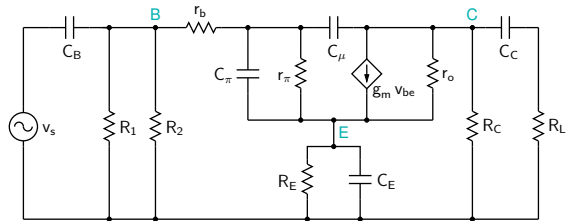
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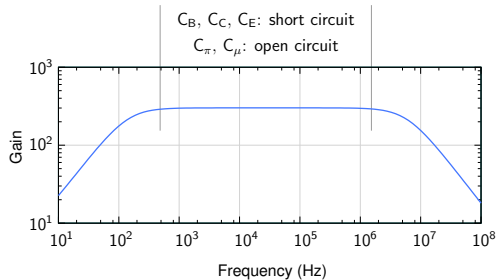
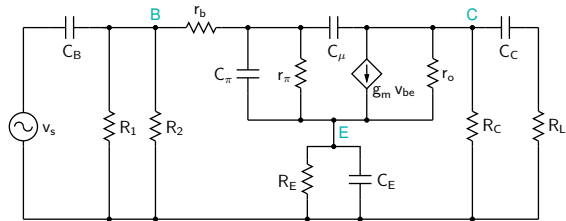
In practice, such a situation is anyway not prevalent (because it gives rise to distortion in the output voltage) except in special types of amplifiers.

# Frequency response of common-emitter amplifier

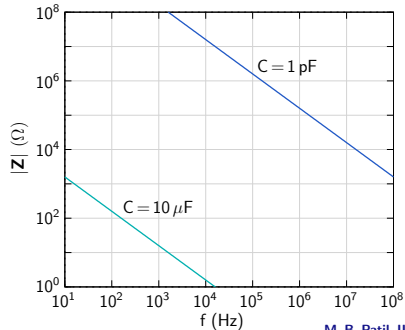




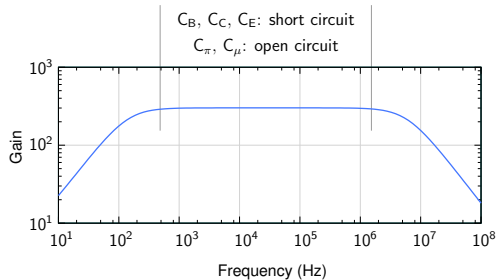
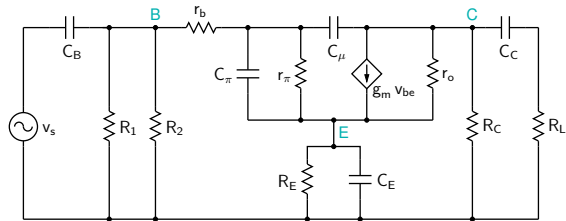
# Frequency response of common-emitter amplifier



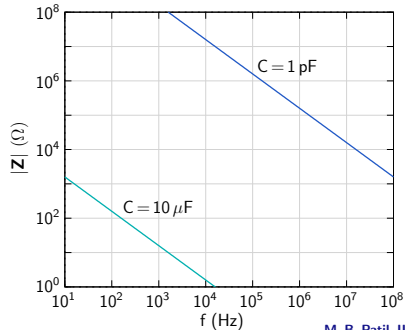
\*  $C_B, C_E, C_C$  are large capacitances  $\rightarrow 1/\omega C$  is negligibly small (short circuit) except at low frequencies.



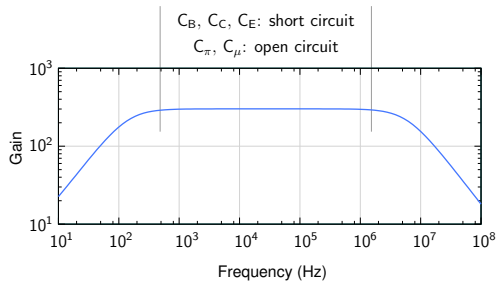
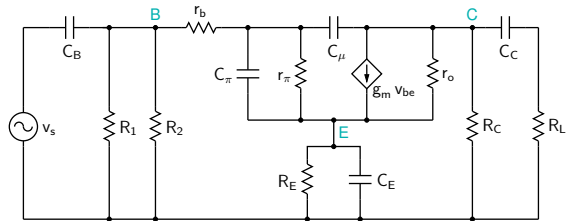
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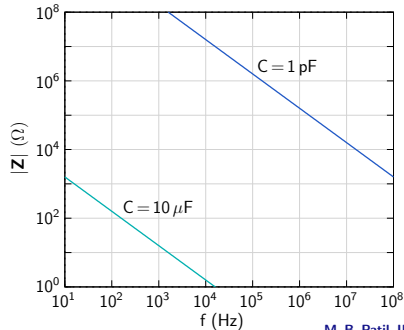
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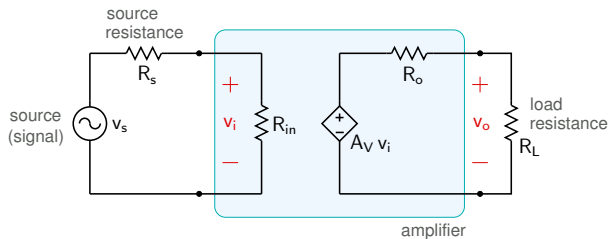
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- \* In the “mid-band” range (which we have considered so far), the large capacitances behave like short circuits, and the small capacitances like open circuits. In this range, the gain is independent of frequency.

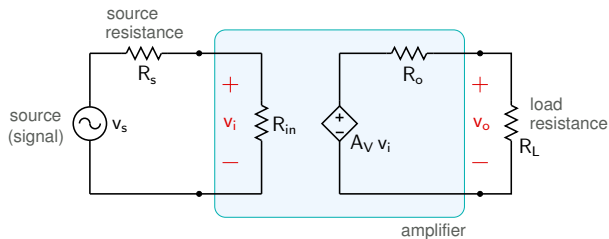


## General representation of an amplifier



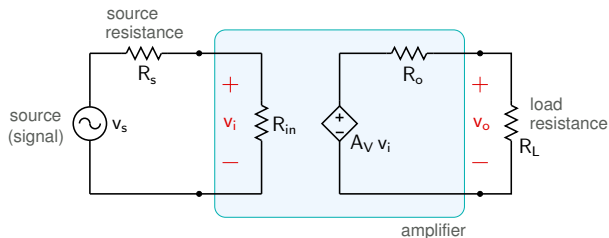
- \* An amplifier is represented by a voltage gain, an input resistance  $R_{in}$ , and an output resistance  $R_o$ . For a voltage-to-voltage amplifier, a large  $R_{in}$  and a small  $R_o$  are desirable.

## General representation of an amplifier



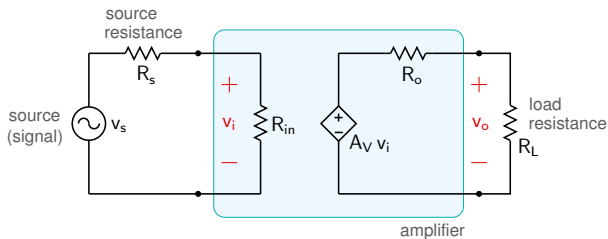
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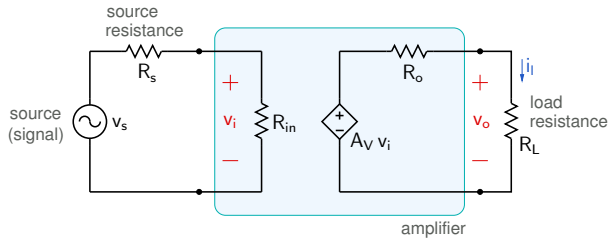
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## General representation of an amplifier



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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?

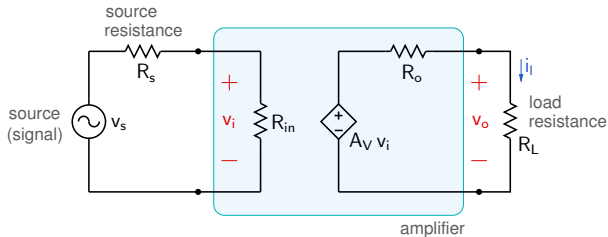
## Voltage gain $A_V$



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



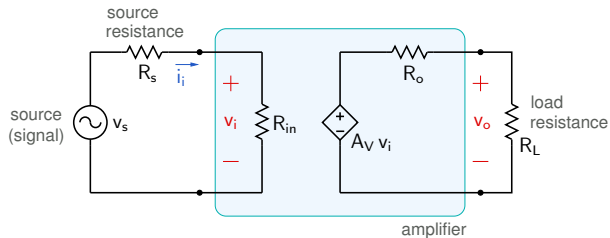
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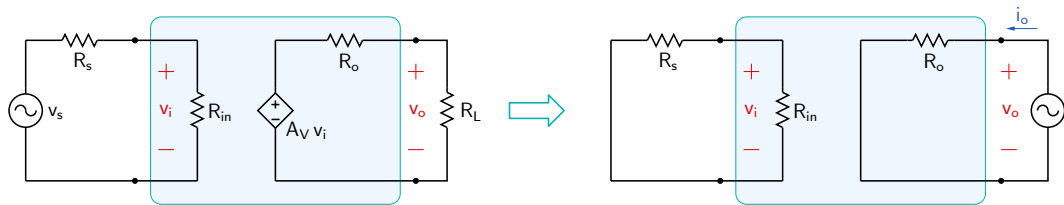
If  $R_L \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $i_l \rightarrow 0$ , and  $v_o \rightarrow A_V v_i$ .

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  $R_{in} = v_i / i_i$ .



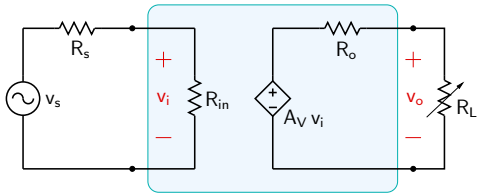
## Method 1:

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.)

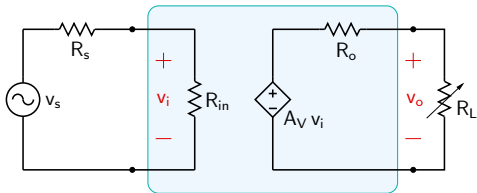
## Output resistance $R_o$



Method 2:

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

## Output resistance $R_o$

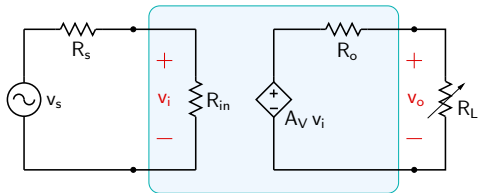


Method 2:

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

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

## Output resistance $R_o$

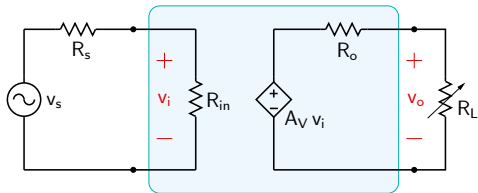


Method 2:

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

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

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



Method 2:

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

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Procedure:

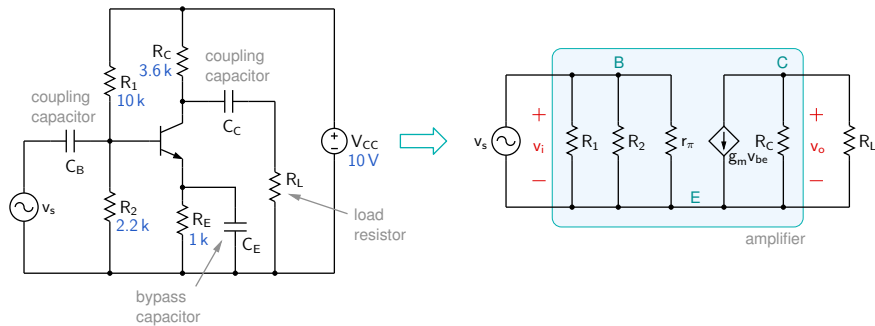
Measure  $v_{o1}$  with  $R_L \rightarrow \infty$  (i.e.,  $R_L$  removed).

Vary  $R_L$  and observe  $v_o$ .

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

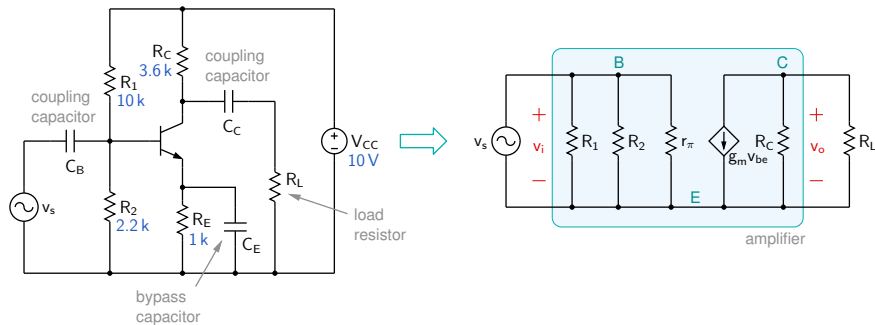
$R_o$  is the same as the measured resistance.

## Common-emitter amplifier





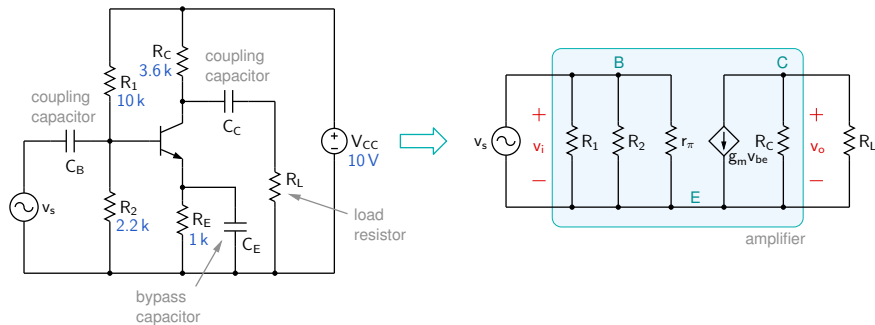
## Common-emitter amplifier



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

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

## Common-emitter amplifier



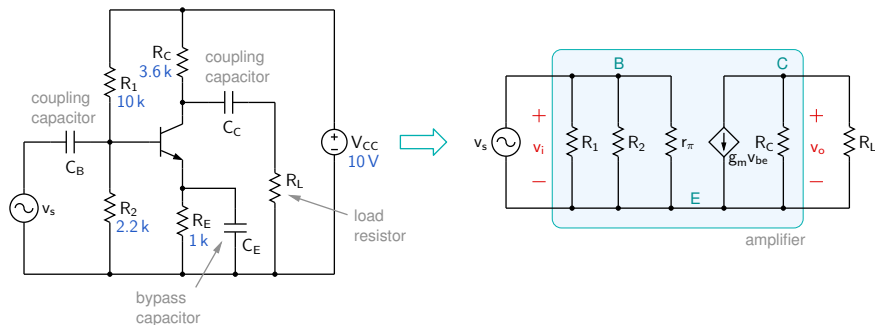
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The input resistance of the amplifier is, by inspection,  $R_{in} = (R_1 \parallel R_2) \parallel r_\pi$ .

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

## Common-emitter amplifier



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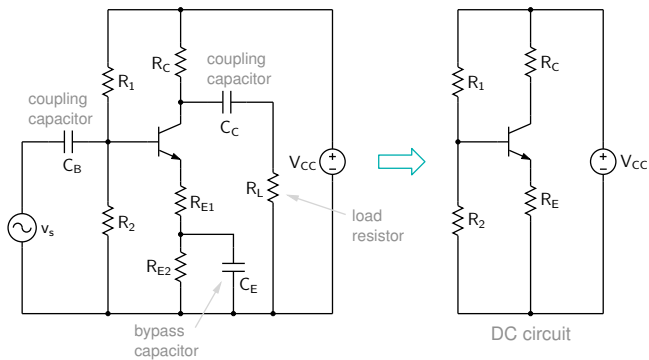
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The input resistance of the amplifier is, by inspection,  $R_{in} = (R_1 \parallel R_2) \parallel r_\pi$ .

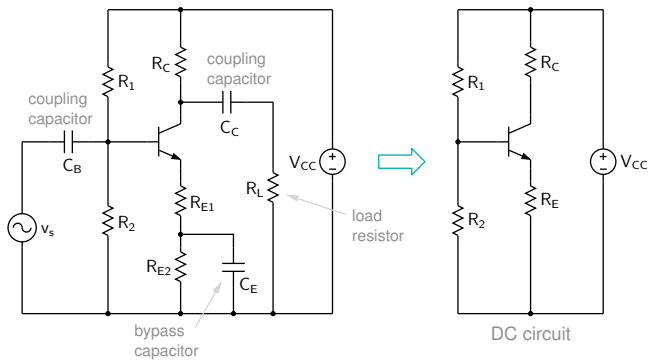
$$r_\pi = \beta / g_m = 100 / 42.5 \text{ mS} = 2.35 \text{ k} \rightarrow R_{in} = 1 \text{ k}.$$

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

## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass

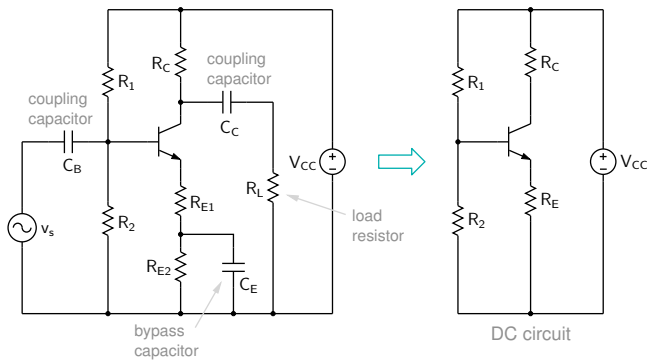


## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



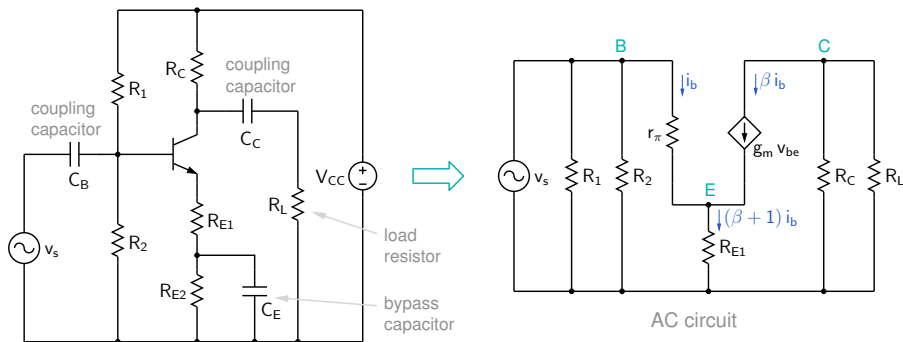
- \* For DC computation,  $C_E$  is open, and the DC analysis is therefore identical to our earlier amplifier, with  $R_E \leftarrow R_{E1} + R_{E2}$ .

## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



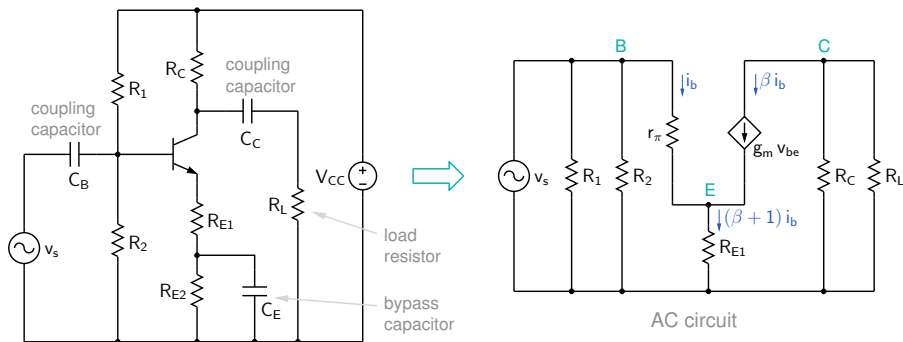
- \* For DC computation,  $C_E$  is open, and the DC analysis is therefore identical to our earlier amplifier, with  $R_E \leftarrow R_{E1} + R_{E2}$ .
- \* Bypassing a part of  $R_E$  (as opposed to all of it) does have an impact on the voltage gain (see next slide).

## 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

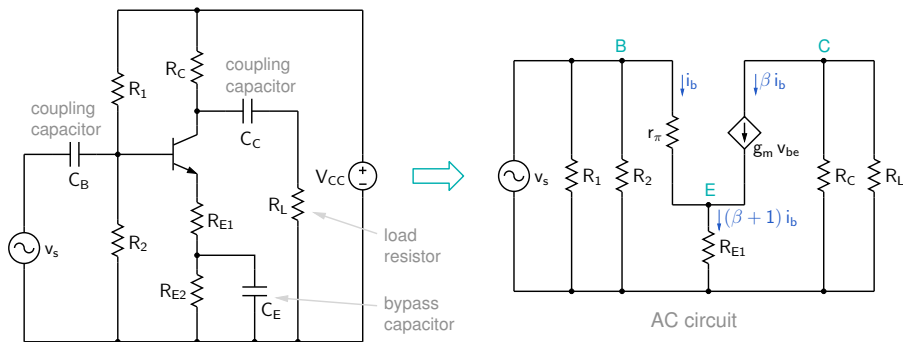


Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation,  $C_B$ ,  $C_C$ ,  $C_E$  can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

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



## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass

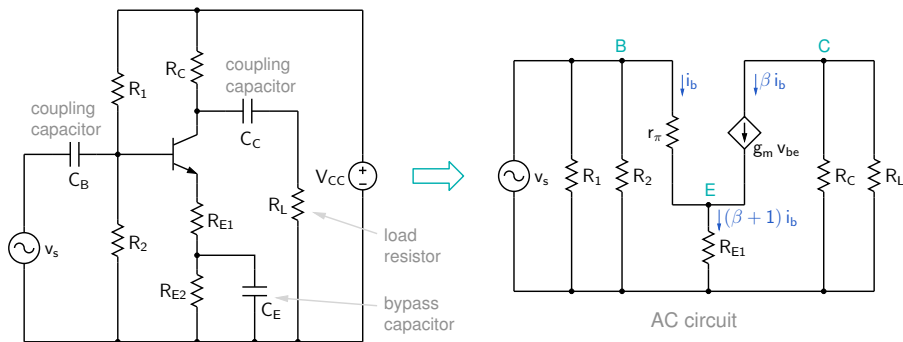


Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation,  $C_B$ ,  $C_C$ ,  $C_E$  can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

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

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

## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



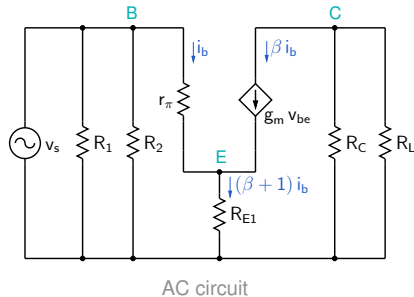
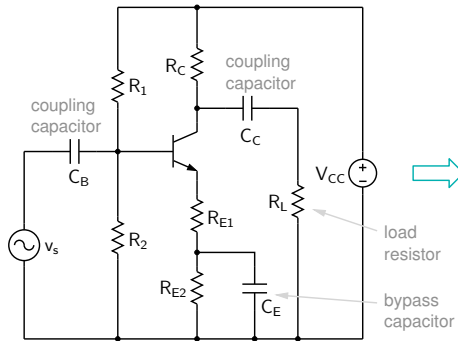
Again, assume that, at the frequency of operation,  $C_B$ ,  $C_C$ ,  $C_E$  can be replaced by short circuits, and the BJT parasitic capacitances by open circuits.

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

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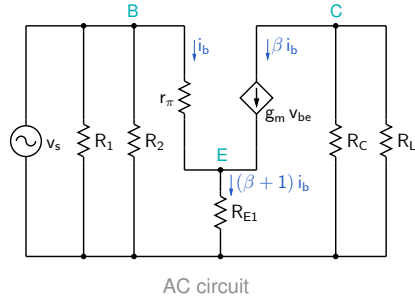
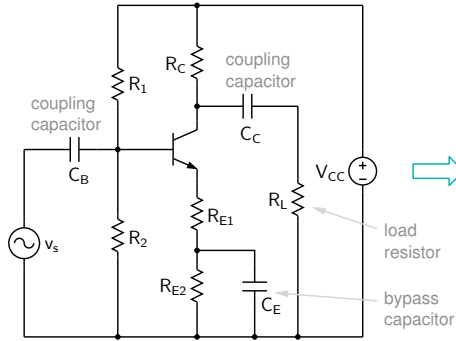
Note:  $R_{E1}$  gets multiplied by  $(\beta + 1)$ .

## 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

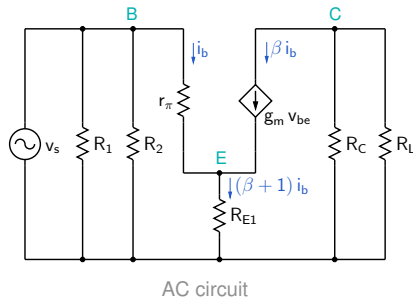
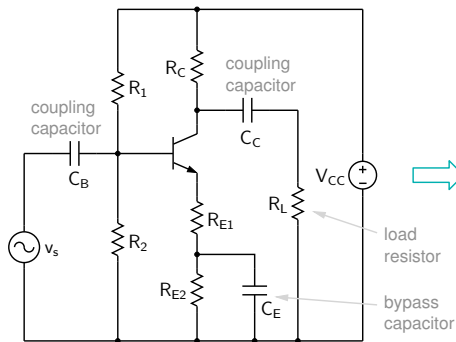


$$\frac{v_{be}}{v_s} = \frac{r_\pi i_b}{r_\pi i_b + R_E (\beta + 1) i_b} = \frac{r_\pi}{r_\pi + R_E (\beta + 1)}$$

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

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

## Common-emitter amplifier with partial bypass



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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.)