Analog Circuits Day-6

BJT Amplifiers

Introduction

- In this unit we learn about AC response of transistors using different transistor models.
- In AC analysis we have to decide whether to use small signal or large signal technique. In this unit we will use small signal as input.
- Large signal amplifiers are power amplifiers.

Operating Point in Small Signal Analysis:

• In small signal analysis, as the input signal variation is small, the output signal variation is also limited and hence swing in Q-point is also limited.

Small signal is defined as the signal having magnitude sufficiently small to keep transistor in active region.

Transistor as an Amplifier

To use transistor as an amplifier it must be in the active region.

- We know that $X_c=1/2*pi*f*c$
- For AC input $f \neq 0$ (f not equal to zero)
- Xc=1/large value=0(approximately)
- Hence for AC input the capacitors are short circuited.
- C_1 , C_2 are coupling capacitors because those are the capacitors which are coupling the input to the amplifier and output to the load respectively.

Why to use coupling capacitors?

In order to prevent the DC from previous stage to interfere with the V_{cc} and hence the operating point will remain constant.

C₃ is bypass capacitor because it bypasses the AC signal as R_E offers some resistance.

To find out AC response we need to do 2 things

1)Obtain AC equivalent circuit.

2)Replace the transistor with equivalent circuit.

Equivalent circuit for AC analysis:

STEP-1

- Short circuit the DC sources.
- In the figure we have 1 DC source (ie) Vcc

and the potential of ground is 0v.

STEP-2

1 and STEP-2.

Short all the capacitors C1,C2 and C3 STEP-3

Redraw the network removing all the

elements which are short circuited in STEP-

Problems

- 1) If the emitter resistance in a common-emitter voltage amplifier is not bypassed, it will GATE-2014
	- A) Reduces voltage gain and input impedance
	- B) Reduces voltage gain and increase the input impedance
	- C) Increases voltage gain and reduces the input impedance
	- D) Increases both voltage gain and the input impedance

Solution: B

Reduces voltage gain and increases input impedance due to feedback.

The equivalent model of transistor:

Equivalent model is the combination of circuit elements properly chosen to best represent the actual behaviour of the device under specific Operating Point. We need equivalent models to use these network theorems in order to find out different network parameters like in case of P-N diode. There are three equivalent models of transistors. They are 1)Hybrid model (for low frequencies) 2)re –model (for low and high frequencies) 3)Hybrid **∏-**model (for low and high frequencies)

All the three models are used for small signal analysis.

Hybrid model

It is also known as h-parameters model

1) It is widely used before the popularity of Γ e-model.

2) Parameters are defined in general terms for any operating point conditions. In hybrid model we have to calculate h-parameters and using them we will draw the equivalent circuit.

These parameters have mixed dimensions hence these are known as hybrid parameters.

Need for Hybrid parameters:

Before transistors, vacuum tubes are used to design circuits. We have four parameters in small signal amplifiers. All these are obtained only by z-parameters or by yparameters in case of vacuum tubes. In case of transistors there was problem determining z-parameters, so a new set of parameters called as hybrid parameters are introduced.

Port 1 current is I1 Port 2 current is I2 Potential difference across port-1 is V1 Potential difference across port-2 is V2

Total current or voltage value=ac value + dc value

We can define parameters by taking any 2 parameters out of 4 as dependent and rest 2 as independent.

Let V1 and I2 be dependent quantities.

I1 and V2 are independent quantities. Say V1 and I2 are functions of I1 and V2 V1=f1(I1,V2); I2=f2(I1,V2)

v**1**=h11*i**1**+h12*v**2--------------------------(1)**

i**2**=h21*i**1**+h22*v**2---------------------------(2)**

- These equations are applicable to all 3 transistor configurations(CC,CB,CE) If we substitute $v_2=0$ in Eq-1 and Eq-2, then
- $h_{11}=v_1/i_1$; where h₁₁ is input impedance when output is short circuited
- Hence h_{11} can be represented as hi
- $h_{21} = i_2/i_1$; where h_{21} is forward current gain when the output is short circuited
- Hence h_{21} can be represented as h
- If we substitute $i_1=0$ in Eq-1 and Eq-2, then
- $h_{12}=v_1/v_2$; where h_{12} is reverse voltage gain when input is open circuited
- Hence h₁₂ can be represented as h_r
- $h_{22} = i_2/v_2$; where h_{22} is admittance with input open circuited
- Hence h₂₂ can be represented as h_0
- Nomenclature of h-parameters for various transistor configurations
- We can add 'e' or 'b' or 'c' as second suffix to all h-parameters for CE, CB and CC
- configurations respectively
- Example: For CE, the h-parameters are

 $h_i \rightarrow h_{ie}$ $h_f \rightarrow h_{fe}$ $h_r \rightarrow h_{ne}$ $h_o \rightarrow h_{oe}$

To draw equivalent circuit for Eq-1 and Eq-2

Let us consider Eq-1,

 $v_1=h_{11}*i_1+h_{12}*v_2$

Unit of each term in the equation is volts. Hence by applying KVL we can obtain

equivalent circuit,

 $v_1 = h_i * i_1 + h_r * v_2$ Let us consider Eq-2, $i_2=h_{21}*i_1+h_{22}*v_2$

Use KCL to obtain equivalent circuit,

 $i_2=h_f* i_1+h_0* v_2$

Note: Whenever we have the transistor in the circuit and you have to perform AC analysis then the conventional transistor symbol is replaced by equivalent model. If we want to make the equivalent model according to transistor configuration, an other subscript will be added.

Let CE be the transistor, $h_i \rightarrow h_{ie}$; $h_f \rightarrow h_{fe}$; $h_r \rightarrow h_{re}$; $h_o \rightarrow h_{oe}$

Analysis of transistor amplifier using h-parameter

In the equivalent circuit of the transistor, introduce source voltage V_s and resistance R_s on the input side.

On the output side, introduce a load resistance R_L and i_L is current through load resistance.

Z_o-output impedance; Z_i-input impedance

Expression for current gain:

Current gain is defined as the ratio of output current to input current. It is denoted by

 A_i . . $A_i=i_L/i_1$ $i_L = -i₂$ (from above figure) Voltage drop across R_L is V_2 $V_2=i_I * R_I = -i_2 * R_I$

Consider the equation from equivalent model of transistor

$$
i_2 = h_f * i_1 + h_o * v_2 \rightarrow h_f * i_1 + h_o * (-i_2 * R_L)
$$

By solving the above equation we get, $i_2/i_1=h_f/(1+h_o*R_L)$

Therefore, $A_i = i_L/i_1 = -h_f/(1+h_o * R_L)$

This is true for all transistor configurations.

Expression for Input impedance:

Input impedance is defined as the impedance seen from terminals 1 and 1¹ According to ohms law, $V_1=i_1*Z_i$

$$
Z_i = \frac{V_1}{i_1}
$$

Consider Eq-1, $v_1 = h_i * i_1 + h_r * v_2 = h_i * i_1 + h_r * (-i_2 * R_L)$

By solving we get $Zi = \frac{v_1}{1}$ $\frac{\partial \mathbf{I}}{\partial \mathbf{I}} = h\mathbf{i} + A\mathbf{i} * h\mathbf{r} * \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}$

By substituting Ai value we will get Z_i=h_i-($\bm{h}_r^{\bm{*}}\bm{h}f\bm{*} \bm{R} \bm{L}$ $1 + h$ o RL)

Expression for Voltage gain:

It is defined as the ratio of output voltage to input voltage. It is represented by A_{v} .

 $A_v = V_o/V_i = V_2/V_1 = (-i_2 * R_L)/V_1$ (since $V_2 = -i_2 * R_L$)

Multiply and divide by i1 on R.H.S

Expression for Output Impedance:

To calculate Zo we need to short input source V_s and open output terminal i.e. RL= ∞ and V_s=0

 Z_{o} = $v_{\overline{2}}$ i_{2} ; Substitute i_2 value from h-parameter equation then we will get one equation

$$
Z_{o} = \frac{v_{2}}{h_{f}*i_{1}+h o* v_{2}} \cdots - \cdots - (1)
$$

Now apply KVL in input loop to get $2nd$ equation

 $-i_1 * R_s - i_1 * h_i - h_r * v_2 = 0$

Substitute Eq-(2) in Eq-(1)

Overall voltage gain:

It is defined as ratio of output voltage to source voltage

$$
A_v = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left(\frac{-hf * RL}{h_i + \Delta h * RL}\right)
$$

Therefore,
$$
A_{vs} = A_v^* \frac{V_1}{V_s}
$$
 -----(3)

From the above loop

$$
V1/Vs = \frac{zi}{R_s + Zi} \text{ --- } (4)
$$

 $A_{vs} =$ \overline{V}_{2} V_{s}

Multiply and divide it by v_1

Therefore,
$$
A_{vs} = A_v(\frac{Z_i}{R_s + Zi})
$$

If Vs is ideal==> R_s =0

Therefore, $A_{vs} = A_{vs}$

Overall current gain:

It is defined as the ratio of output current to the current delivered by the source. It is

denoted by A_{is} .

 A_{is} = i_{l} i_{1} ∗ *i*2 i_{s} $=$ Ai $*$ $\frac{1}{1}$ i_s

Convert voltage source at the input into current source.

Now, use current divider rule,

i1= ∗ + ==> 1 = + −−−−− −(5) Therefore, Ais=Ai*(+) In case of ideal current source, Rs= ∞ Therefore, Ais=Ai

Approximate hybrid equivalent model of transistor:

Lets consider CE transistor

For CE and CB the magnitude of h_r and h_o are such that the results obtained for the parameters like input Z, Output Z, voltage gain and current gain are slightly effected, if not included in the circuit. Hence we can remove it from the circuit.

 h_{oe} is output admittance and $\frac{1}{h}$ h_{oe} is output impedance which is very large compared to the load resistance R_L . Hence we can neglect the output impedance as no chance of flowing current through it.

If transistor is connected in fixed bias configuration then there is one more resistance connected in parallel to R_L which is R_C then also $\frac{1}{h}$ h_{oe} is greater than equivalent resistance so we can neglect in that case too.

 $h_f =$ V_{i} V_{o} $=0$ (approx.) (Since when transistor acts as an amplifier $V_0 > V_1$)

Therefore, $h_{re}V_{o}=0$ So we can replace this branch with an short circuit. Final Equivalent Circuit:

Conversion of h-parameters:

The need for the conversion is, generally the transistor manufacturer provides the hparameters of transistors in CE model because its mostly used.

Conversion requires following formulae:

For $CE \rightarrow CB$

$$
h_{ib} = \frac{h_{ie}}{1 + hfe}
$$
; $h_{rb} = \frac{h_{ie} * hoe}{1 + hfe}$; $h_{fb} = \frac{-hfe}{1 + hfe}$; $h_{ob} = \frac{h_{oe}}{1 + hfe}$

For $CE \rightarrow CC$

 $h_{ic} = h_{ie}$; $h_{rc} = 1-h_{re}$; $h_{fe} = -(1+h_{fe})$; $h_{oc} = h_{oe}$ For $CB \rightarrow CC$

$$
h_{ie} = \frac{h_{ib}}{1 + hfb}; \qquad h_{re} = \frac{h_{ib} * hob}{1 + hfb} - h_{rb}; \qquad h_{fe} = \frac{-hfe}{1 + hfb}; \qquad h_{oe} = \frac{h_{ob}}{1 + hfb}
$$

r^e Transistor model

Lets find out r_e model for CE transistor

 \rightarrow

- Modify the above circuit by placing a dependent current source in the collector branch and the emitter branch will have forward biased diode.
- We have dependent current source because current $i_c = \beta * i_b + (\beta + 1) * I_{CBO}$

Here we neglected the reverse saturation current as it is very small.

From the output characteristics of CE transistor, we find that the output resistance is

very large because resistance $(r_0) = \frac{1}{s \log n}$ slope

$$
r_{\rm o} \!\! = \!\! \infty
$$

(Since slope $=0$ (approx.))

In the collector branch place a forward biased diode because the input characteristics

- of CE transistor is similar to the input characteristics of a forward biased diode.
- There are three types of diode resistances:
- i)DC resistance
- ii)AC resistance(dynamic resistance)
- iii)Average AC resistance

For AC analysis we will consider second type of diode resistance which is represented

as r_d . Where r_d = **AVBE** $\Delta I_{\overline{B}}$

Now again replace diode by dynamic resistance $r_e(r_e=r_d)$ where i_e is the current flows through it.

≡

Calculating r_e :

Consider a PN junction diode

Where I_D is diode current and I_S be the reverse saturation current.

From diode current equation we know that $I_D=I_S(e)$ V \overline{D} ηV \overline{T} $-1)$ Differentiate with respect to V_D

$$
\frac{dI_D}{dV_D} = I_S \frac{d}{dV_D} \left(e^{\frac{D}{\eta V}}_T - 1\right)
$$

For high diode currents $n=1$

And $\frac{dI_D}{dV}$ dV_{D} = 1 r_d ; Substituting these values and by the above equation we will get 1 r_{d} = $I_{\rm S}$ (e V $\frac{D}{\eta V}$ $\binom{2}{T}$ V_T = I_D+IS V_T = $I_{\overline{D}}$ V_T

Therefore, $r_d =$ VT ID = $26mV$ $\frac{S_{HIV}}{ID}$ (Since at room temperature V_T=26mV) $r_e =$ $26mV$ $I_{\overline{E}}$

 $r_{\rm e}$ model for CE transistor further modification:

CE is mostly used because amplification is large in this configuration.

But in the above circuit for CE model input and output sides are not properly separated.

We know that $i_e = i_b + i_c$

Substitute $i_c = Bi_b$ then we will get $i_e = i_b(1+A)$

Find drop across resistance r_e

Drop across $r_e = r_e * i_e = r_e * i_b(1+\beta)$

To separate input and output circuit we will take r_e and $(1+**B**)$ together and ib is the current flowing through the resistance $r_e(1+A)$

And at the output side we have a dependent current source and a resistor r_{o}

Therefore the final equivalent r_e model for CE configuration is

And we can further simplify it by placing β in place of $(1+\beta)$

r_e model for Common Base Transistor:

In this CB, the output characteristics have 0 slope

$$
r_o = \frac{1}{slope} = \frac{1}{0} = \infty
$$

So we neglected the output resistance in $r_{\rm e}$ model of CB transistor.

Hybrid-∏ model

- Widely used because we can use it for high frequency small signals and we can also use it for low frequency small signals.
- At low frequencies it is assumed that transistor responds instantaneously to changes in the input voltage or current.
- If frequency of the input is high (MHz) and the amplitude of the input signal is changing the Transistor amplifier will not be able to respond. It is because; the carriers from the emitter side will have to be injected into the collector side. These take definite amount of time to travel from Emitter to Base, however small it may be.

• But if the input signal is varying at much higher speed than the actual time taken by the carries to respond, then the Transistor amplifier will not respond instantaneously. Thus, the junction capacitances of the transistor, puts a limit to the highest frequency signal which the transistor can handle.

Cc.

е

gm * Vhi

At high frequencies, parameters like junction capacitances come into picture.

- $C_{\rm u}$ This is the capacitor which represent Early effect and it is of few Pico Farads.
- $C_π$ Diffusion capacitance that represent minority carrier storage in base region and its value lies between 1PF to 2PF.
- r_{b} This is very small value which represents the resistance due to base connection and other resistances like base spreading resistance is also included. As it is small we can replace it by a short circuit.
- r_{n} input resistance between base and emitter terminal.

where $r_{\text{n}} = \beta r_{\text{e}}$

 \mathbf{r}_{u} - resistance between base and collector terminal. It is very large, hence replace it with open circuit.

Parameter calculations at low frequencies:

Input Conductance $(g_{b|e})$:

At low frequencies, capacitive reactance will be very large and can be considered as Open circuit. So in the hybrid- π equivalent circuit which is valid at low frequencies, all the capacitances can be neglected. B' =internal node in base.

$$
I_{C} = g_{m}. V_{b'e}; \t V_{b'e} = I_{b}. r_{b'e}
$$

\n
$$
I_{C} = g_{m}. I_{b}. r_{b'e}
$$

\n
$$
h_{fe} = \frac{I_{C}}{I_{B}} \Big|_{V_{CE}} = g_{m}. r_{b'e}
$$

\n
$$
r_{b'e} = \frac{h_{fe}}{g_{m}}
$$

\n
$$
g_{m} = \frac{|I_{C}|}{V_{T}}
$$

\n
$$
r_{b'e} = \frac{h_{fe}. V_{T}}{|I_{C}|}
$$

\n
$$
g_{b'e} = \frac{|I_{C}|}{h_{fe}. V_{T}}
$$
 or
$$
\frac{g_{m}}{h_{fe}}
$$

Base Spreading Resistance $(r_b$ or r_{bb} .):

The input resistance with the output shorted is hie. If output is shorted, i.e., Collector and Emitter are joined; $r_{b'e}$ is in parallel with $r_{b'e}$.

Output Conductance (g_{ce})

This is the conductance with input open circuited. In h-parameters it is represented as

$$
h_{oe}. \text{ For } I_b = 0, \text{ we have,}
$$
\n
$$
I_c = \frac{V_{ce}}{r_{ce}} + \frac{V_{ce}}{r_{b'c} + r_{b'e}} + g_m V_{b'e}
$$
\n
$$
h_{re} = \frac{V_{be}}{V_{ce}} \qquad \therefore \qquad V_{b'e} = h_{re}. \ V_{ce}
$$
\n
$$
I_c = \frac{V_{ce}}{r_{ce}} + \frac{V_{ce}}{r_{b'c} + r_{b'e}} + g_m \cdot h_{re}. V_{ce}
$$

$$
h_{oe} = \frac{1}{r_{ce}} + \frac{1}{r_{b'c}} + g_m \cdot h_{re}
$$

\n
$$
= g_{ce} + g_{b'c} + g_m h_{re}
$$

\n
$$
g_{b'c} = \frac{g_m}{h_{fe}}
$$

\n
$$
g_m = g_{b'e} \cdot h_{fe}
$$

\n
$$
h_{re} = \frac{r_{b'e}}{r_{b'e} + r_{b'c}} \approx \frac{r_{b'e}}{r_{b'c}} = \frac{g_{b'c}}{g_{b'e}}
$$

\n
$$
h_{oe} = g_{ce} + g_{b'c} + g_{b'e} h_{fe} \cdot \frac{g_{b'c}}{g_{b'c}}
$$

\n
$$
g_{ce} = h_{ce} - (1 + h_{te}) \cdot g_{b'c}
$$

$$
h_{fe} \gg 1, 1 + h_{fe} \approx h_{fe}
$$

\n
$$
g_{ce} = h_{oe} - h_{fe} \cdot g_{b'e}
$$

\n
$$
g_{b'e} = h_{re} \cdot g_{b'e}
$$

\n
$$
g_{ce} = h_{oe} - h_{fe} \cdot h_{re} \cdot g_{b'e}
$$

Validity of hybrid- π model The high frequency hybrid Pi or Giacoletto model of BJT is valid for frequencies less than the unit gain frequency.

Trans-conductance or Mutual Conductance (gm):

The transconductance is the ratio of change in the collector current due to small changes in the voltage V_{BE} across the emitter junction. It is given as

-----------------(1)

We know that, the collector current in active region is given as

$$
\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{C}} = \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{C}0} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}_0 \cdot \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{E}}
$$

$$
\partial I_c = \alpha \partial I_c
$$
 : $I_{CO} = \text{Constant}$

Substitute ∂I_c in Eq-(1) we get,

$$
\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{m}} = 0 - \alpha_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{E}}}{\partial \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{b}^{\prime} \mathbf{e}}}
$$

 $V_{b'e} = V_E$

The emitter diode resistance, r_e is given as

$$
\mathbf{r}_e = \frac{\partial \mathbf{V}_E}{\partial \mathbf{I}_E}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{\mathbf{r}_e} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{V}_E}{\partial \mathbf{I}_E}
$$

Substituting r_e in place of ∂I_c / ∂V_E we get,

$$
g_m = \frac{\alpha}{r_e} \qquad \qquad \dots \text{ (3)}
$$

The emitter diode is a forward biased diode and its dynamic resistance is given as

$$
r_e = \frac{V_T}{I_E}
$$
 (4)

where V_T is the "volt equivalent of temperature", defined by

$$
V_T = \frac{kT}{q}
$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant in joules per degree kelvin $(1.38 \times 10^{-23} J/K)$ is the tronic charge $(1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})$.

Substituting value of r_c in equation (3) we get,

$$
\alpha I_{\infty} = I_{\infty}
$$

For pnp transistor I_c is negative. For an npn transistor I_c is positive, but the foregoing analysis (with $V_E = +V_{BE}$) leads to $g_m = (I_c - I_{CO}) / V_T$.

Hence, for either type of transistor, g_m is positive.

$$
g_m = \frac{I_c - I_{CO}}{V_T} \qquad \qquad \therefore \quad I_c \gg I_{CO} \qquad \qquad \dots (5)
$$

Substituting value of V_T in equation (5) we get

$$
g_{m} = \frac{I_{c} q}{k T} = \frac{I_{c} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23} T}
$$

=
$$
\frac{11600 I_{c}}{T}
$$
 ... (6)

From equation (6) we can say that transconductance g_m is directly proportional to collector current and inversely proportional to temperature.

At room temperature, 300 K

∴

$$
g_{m} = \frac{1160 I_{c}}{300} = \frac{I_{c}}{26 \times 10^{-3}}
$$

$$
= \frac{I_{c} |mA|}{26}
$$

... (7)

Problems

1) A good transconductance amplifier should have (A) high input resistance and low output resistance GATE(2017) (B) low input resistance and high output resistance (C) high input and output resistances (D) low input and output resistances Solution: (C)

For a transconductance amplifier, input and output resistance is high.

Reason: The transconductance amplifier is also known as Voltage Controlled Current Source. An amplifier is VC when input resistance is high, and an amplifier is CS when output resistance is high.

2) A bipolar transistor is operating in the active region with a collector current of 1mA. Assuming that the B of the transistor is 100 and the thermal voltage(V_T) is 25mV, the transconductance (g_m) and the input resistance (r_n) of the transistor in the common emitter configuration, are

A)g^m =25mA/V and r^ᴨ = 15.625KΩ B)g^m =40mA/V and r^ᴨ = 4.0KΩ C)g^m =25mA/V and r^ᴨ = 2.5KΩ D)g^m =40mA/V and r^ᴨ = 2.5KΩ

GATE(2004)

Solution:

Given,

$$
I_c = 1 \text{mA}; \, \mathbf{B} = 100; \, \mathbf{V}_T = 25 \text{mV}
$$
\nWe know that

\n
$$
g_m = \frac{I_c}{V_T} = \frac{1}{25} = \frac{40 \text{mA}}{25} / \text{V}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbf{B} = g_m \mathbf{r}_m \rightarrow \mathbf{r}_n = \frac{\mathbf{B}}{g_m} = \frac{100}{40 \times 10^{-3}} = 2.5 \text{ k}\Omega
$$

3) A BJT is biased in forward active mode. Assume VBE = 0.7 V, $\frac{KT}{a}$ \overline{q} = 25mV and reverse saturation current I_s = 10⁽⁻³⁾ A. The transconductance of the BJT (in mA/V) is $__$ A)1.425A/V B)5784mA/V C)5790mA/V D)2675mA/V GATE(2014)

Solution: (B)

Given,

 $V_{BE} = 0.7V;$ $V_T = \frac{KT}{a}$ $\frac{dI}{q} = 25 \text{mV}; \quad I_s = 10^{(-3)} \text{ A}$ We know that, $I_c=I_s(e)$ V \overline{D} η V $\frac{p}{r}$ - 1) where ^η = 1 when diode current is high

By substituting we will get $I_C = 144.6 \text{mA}$

Therefore,
$$
g_m = \frac{I_c}{V_T} = \frac{144.6mA}{25mV} = 5784mA/V
$$

4) The input impedance(Z_i) and the output impedance(Z_o) of an ideal transconductance amplifier is ___________ GATE(2006)

A)
$$
Z_i = 0
$$
, $Z_o = 0$
\nB) $Z_i = 0$, $Z_o = \infty$
\nC) $Z_i = \infty$, $Z_o = 0$
\nD) $Z_i = \infty$, $Z_o = \infty$

Solution:

For Transconductance amplifier $Z_i = \infty$, $Z_o = \infty$

5) The current i_b through base of a silicon npn transistor is $1+0.1 \cos(1000\pi t)$ ma. At 300K, the r_{π} in the small signal model of the transistor is GATE-2012

Solution: (C).

Current i_b through the base of a silicon npn transistor is 1+0.1 cos (10000 πt) ma

$$
r_{\pi} = \beta. r_e = \beta V_T / l_E \approx \beta V_T / \beta i_b = V_T / i_b
$$

$$
V_T = 25mv, i_b = 1ma
$$

$$
r_{\pi} = 25 \Omega
$$

6) The current gain of a BJT is GATE-2002

(a) $g_m r_0$ (b) g_m / r_o (c) $g_m r_\pi$

(d) g_m / r_π

Solution:

$$
g_m = I_c / V_T = \beta I_B / I_B r_\pi \rightarrow g m = \beta / r_\pi
$$

so $\beta = g_m r_\pi$