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## EXPERIMENT NO. (1)

### COMMON BASE INPUT AND OUTPUT CHARACTERISTICS

#### OBJECTIVE:

- To explain saturation and cutoff regions in relation to the curves.
- To understand common base input and output characteristics of BJT transistors.
- To determine the input and output resistance of BJT transistors in common base.

#### THEORY:

The input characteristic is the relation between  $I_E$  and  $V_{BE}$  at a constant  $V_{CB}$ . This relation is shown in figure 1.1

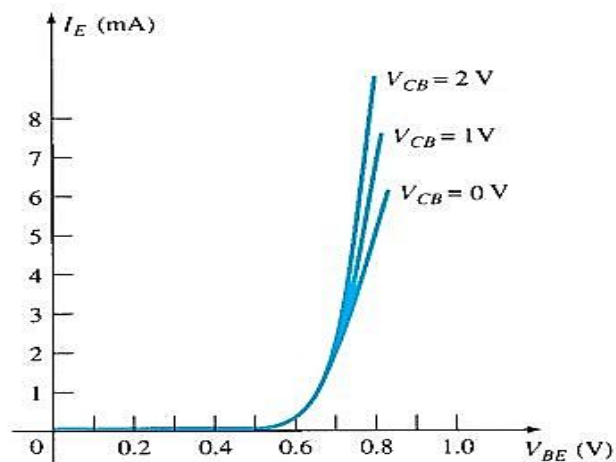


Figure 1.1 Common Base Input Characteristic

While the output characteristic is the relation between  $I_C$  and  $V_{CB}$  at a constant  $I_E$ . This relation is shown in figure 1.2

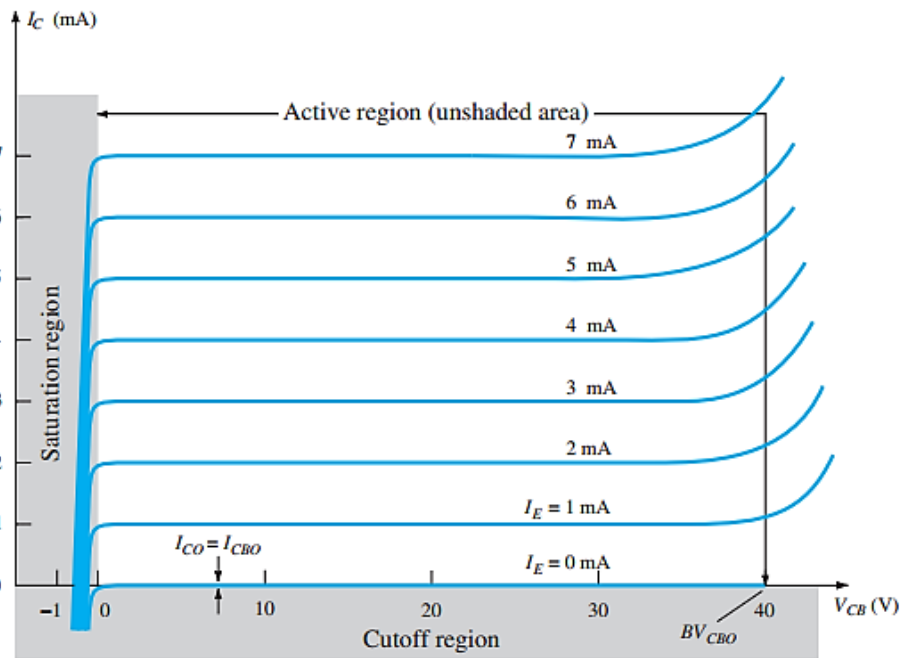


Figure 1.2 Common Base Output Characteristic

**REQUIRED ELEMENTS:**

Element	Quantity	Value/Type
Resistor	2	1 k Ohm
Transistor	1	C945
DC Voltage Source	2	
Multi-meters	3	
Wires		

**CIRCUITS:**

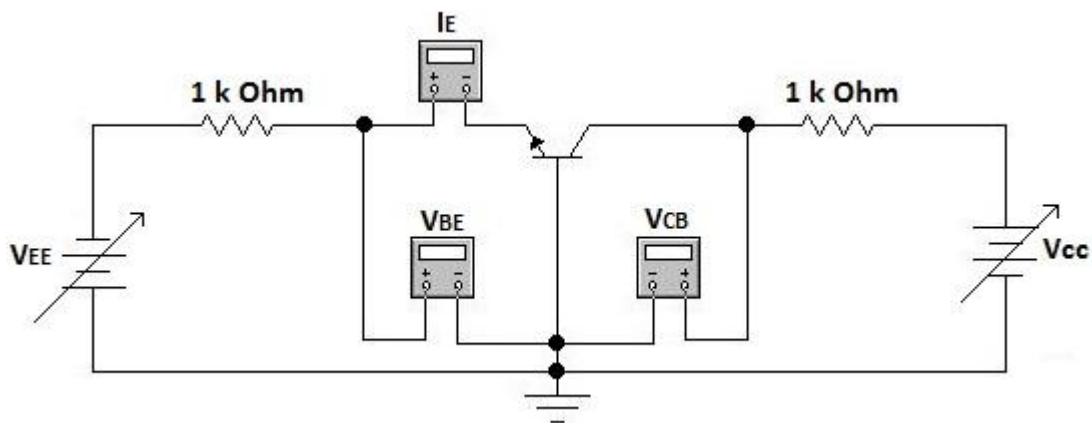


Figure 1.3

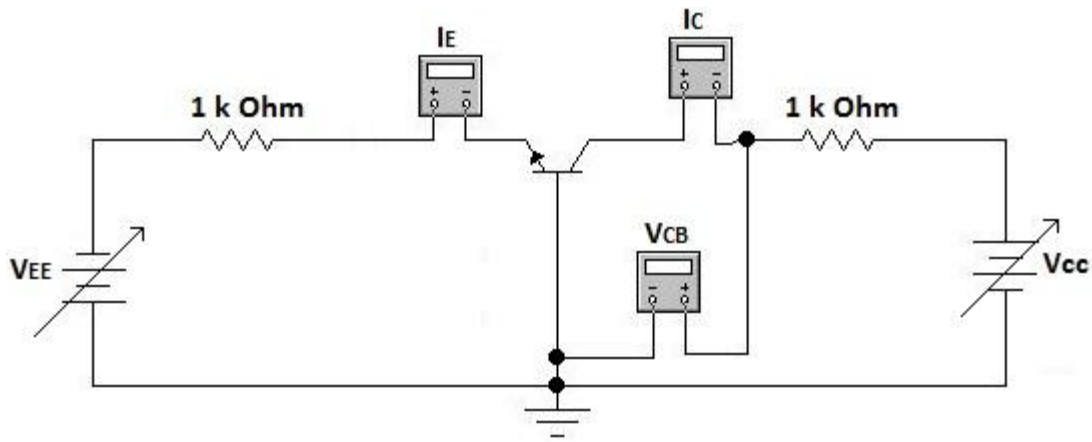


Figure 1.4

**PROCEDURE:**

**1- Input characteristic**

- a- Connect the circuit shown in figure 1.3
- b- Change  $V_{CC}$  to make  $V_{CB} = 0$ .
- c- Change  $V_{BE}$  by using  $V_{EE}$  from 0 to 0.9V steps 0.1V, and record  $I_E$  at each step.
- d- Repeat step c for  $V_{CB} = 2V$ .

$V_{BE}$ (V)	$I_E$ when $V_{CB} = 0V$	$I_E$ when $V_{CB} = 2V$
0		
0.1		
0.2		
0.3		
0.4		
0.5		
0.6		
0.7		
0.8		
0.9		

Table 1.1 Results for input characteristic

**2- Output characteristic**

- a- Connect the circuit shown in figure 1.4
- b- Adjust  $I_E$  at 0 by using  $V_{EE}$ .
- c- Change  $V_{CB}$  from 0 to 10V step 1, and record  $I_C$  for each step.
- d- Repeat step c for  $I_E = 1mA$ , and 2mA

$V_{CB}$ (V)	$I_C$ when $I_E = 0$ mA	$I_C$ when $I_E = 1$ mA	$I_C$ when $I_E = 2$ mA
0			
1			
2			
3			
4			

5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

Table 1.2 Results for output characteristic

## CALCULATION, QUESTION AND DISCUSSION

- 1- From the obtained results, draw the input and output characteristics.
- 2- From the input characteristic, find the input resistance.
- 3- From the output characteristic, find the output resistance and the current gain.
- 4- What are the advantages of this type of connection?
- 5- Define the reverse saturation current  $I_{CO}$ .
- 6- Discuss your experimental results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (2)

### COMMON EMITTER INPUT AND OUTPUT CHARACTERISTICS

#### OBJECTIVE:

- To understand common emitter input and output characteristics of BJT transistors.
- To determine the input and output resistance of BJT transistors in common emitter.

#### THOERY:

The most frequently encountered transistor configuration for the BJT transistors is called the common-emitter configuration because the emitter is common to both the input and output terminals (in this case common to both the base and collector terminals). The input curve is the relation between  $I_B$  and  $V_{BE}$  at constant  $V_{CE}$  as shown in figure 2.1.

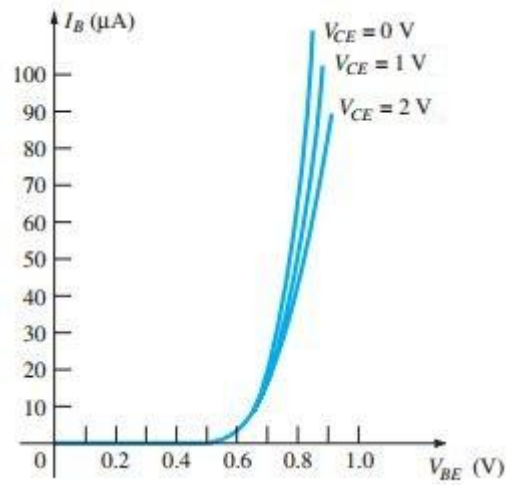


Figure 2.1 Common emitter input characteristic

While the output curve is the relation between  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  at constant value of  $I_B$ . The output characteristic is shown in figure 2.2.

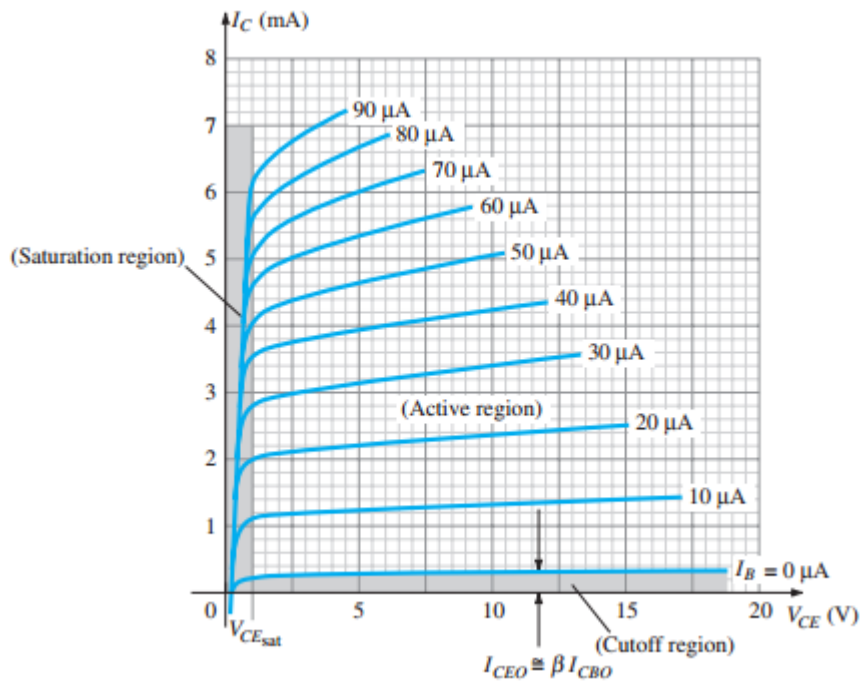


Figure 2.2 Common emitter output characteristic

### REQUIRED ELEMENTS:

Element	Quantity	Value/Type
Resistor	2	1 k Ohm
Transistor	1	C945
DC Voltage Source	2	
Multi-meters	3	
Wires		

### CIRCUITS:

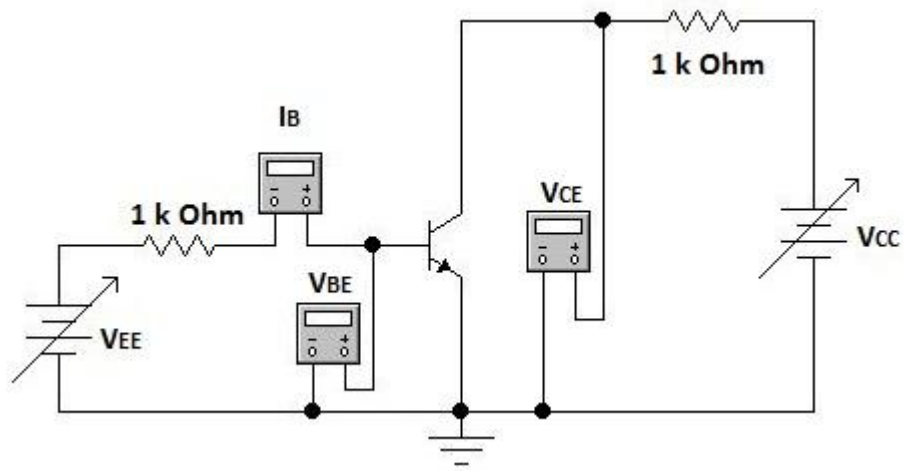


Figure 2.3

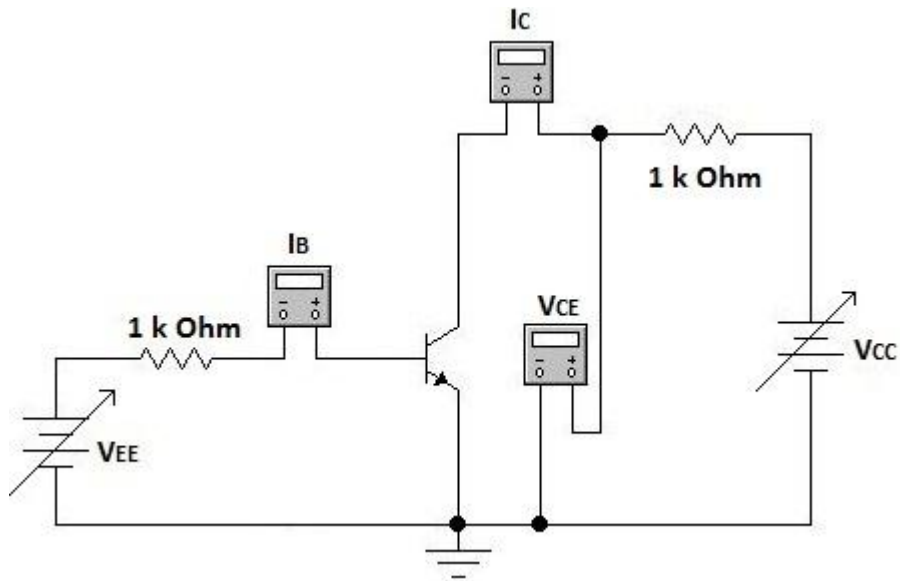


Figure 2.4

**PROCEDURE:**

**1- Input characteristic**

- a- Connect the circuit shown in figure 2.3
- b- Change  $V_{CC}$  to make  $V_{CE} = 0$ .
- c- Change  $V_{BE}$  by using  $V_{EE}$  from 0 to 0.9V steps 0.1V, and record  $I_B$  at each step.
- d- Repeat step c for  $V_{CE} = 2V$ .

$V_{BE}$ (V)	$I_B$ when $V_{CE} = 0V$	$I_B$ when $V_{CE} = 2V$
0		
0.1		
0.2		
0.3		
0.4		
0.5		
0.6		
0.7		

0.8		
0.9		

Table 2.1 Results for input characteristic

**2- Output characteristic**

- a- Connect the circuit shown in figure 2.4
- b- Adjust  $I_B$  at 0 by using  $V_{EE}$ .
- c- Change  $V_{CE}$  from 0 to 7V step 1, and record  $I_C$  for each step.
- d- Repeat step c for  $I_B = 20\mu A$ , and  $40\mu A$

$V_{CE}$ (V)	$I_C$ when $I_B = 0$ A	$I_C$ when $I_B = 20\mu A$	$I_C$ when $I_B = 40\mu A$
0			
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			

Table 2.2 Results for output characteristic

**CALCULATION, QUESTION AND QUESTION:**

- 1- Draw the input characteristic from the result of part 1 of the experiment.
- 2- Find the input resistance from the input curve.
- 3- Draw the output characteristic from the results of part 2 of the experiment.
- 4- Find the output resistance and the current gain from the output curve.
- 5- What are the advantages of this kind of configuration?
- 6- Discuss your experimental result.

**EXPERIMENT NO. (3)**

**TRANSISTOR BASING CIRCUITS – FIXED BIAS**

**OBJECTIVE:**

- To describe and draw a dc load line.
- To define the Q point.
- To know the effect of temperature on Q point.

**THEORY:**



A transistor must be properly biased with a dc voltage in order to operate as a linear amplifier. A dc operating point (Q point) must be set so that signal variations at the input terminal are amplified and accurately reproduced at the output terminal. The best case is to set Q point at the center. The fixed bias circuit is one of the circuit which makes the transistor operates in the active region. In this circuit,  $I_C$  can be adjusted at the center by varying  $R_B$  or  $R_C$  or  $R_E$  in order to make Q point at the center of load line.

### REQUIRED ELEMENTS:

Element	Quantity	Value/Type
Resistor	2	1 k Ohm, 820 Ohm
Transistor	1	C945
DC Voltage Source	1	
Multi-meters	2	
Wires		

### PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 3.1
- 2- For  $R_B = 220 \text{ k}\Omega$  and  $R_E = 0 \text{ }\Omega$  (short circuit), measure the ammeter  $I_C$  and voltmeter  $V_{CE}$  readings.
- 3- Repeat step 2 when  $R_B = 470 \text{ k}\Omega$ .

When $R_E = 0$		
$R_B$	$I_C$	$V_{CE}$
220 k $\Omega$		
470 k $\Omega$		

Table 3.1 Table for results from step 2 and 3

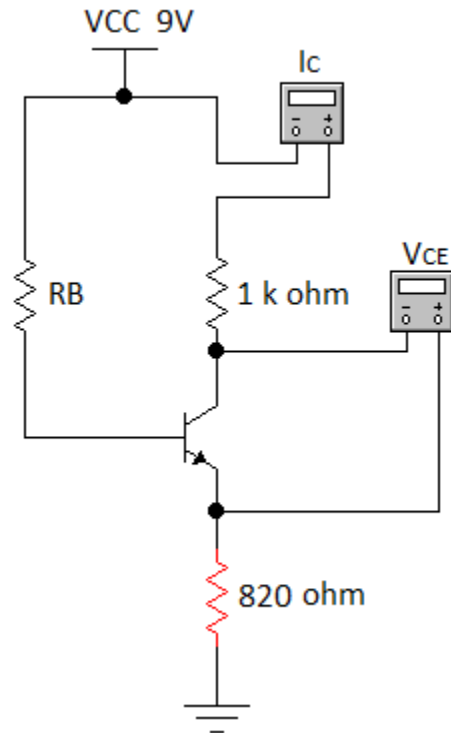
- 4- Repeat step 2 and 3 when  $R_E$  exists and equal 820  $\Omega$ .

When $R_E = 820 \text{ }\Omega$		
$R_B$	$I_C$	$V_{CE}$
220 k $\Omega$		
470 k $\Omega$		

Table 3.1 Table for results from step 4

- 5- Increase the transistor temperature and observe ammeter  $I_C$  and voltmeter  $V_C$  readings, where
  - A)  $R_B = 220 \text{ k}\Omega$  and  $R_E = 0 \text{ }\Omega$
  - B)  $R_B = 220 \text{ k}\Omega$  and  $R_E = 820 \text{ }\Omega$

### CIRCUIT:



**Figure 3.1**

### **CALCULATIONS, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:**

- 1- Draw the DC load line and denote Q point from your practical results for all cases.
- 2- Draw the DC load line and denote Q point theoretically for all cases. Assume that  $\beta_{dc} = 200$ .
- 3- What is the effect of temperature on the operating point?
- 4- What is the effect of  $R_E$  and  $R_B$  on the operating point?
- 5- Discuss your results.

## **EXPERIMENT NO. (4)**

### **TRANSISTOR BASING CIRCUITS – VOLTAGE DIVIDER**

#### **OBJECTIVE:**

- To know the effect of resistor values on the basing

- To describe the dc load line and Q-point.

## THEORY:

The voltage divider bias is the most widely used circuit arrangement in transistor applications especially amplifiers. A base voltage is developed by resistive voltage divider. The voltage divider bias has more advantages than fixed bias. The effect of temperature is less and designers have more chance to design the desired circuit. Therefore, this circuit has more applications than any other biasing circuits.

## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure (4.1)
- 2- For  $R_2 = 470 \Omega$ ,  $R_C = 1 \text{ K}\Omega$ ,  $R_E = 1 \text{ K}\Omega$ , change  $R_1$  from 0 to a suitable value and record  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  in table 4.1. **Note:** Please do not let  $I_C$  exceed 1.5 mA.
- 3- For  $R_1 = 33 \text{ K}\Omega$ ,  $R_C = 1 \text{ K}\Omega$ ,  $R_E = 1 \text{ K}\Omega$ , change  $R_2$  from 0 to a suitable value and record  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  in table 4.2

R1 $\Omega$	$I_C$	$V_{CE}$
0		
100		
200		
300		
400		
500		
600		
700		
800		
900		
1k		
2k		
Table 4.1		

R2 $\text{k}\Omega$	$I_C$	$V_{CE}$
0		
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
12		
Table 4.2		

- 4- For  $R_1 = 33 \text{ K}\Omega$ ,  $R_2 = 4.7 \text{ K}\Omega$ ,  $R_E = 1 \text{ K}\Omega$ , change  $R_C$  to set the Q-point at the center of the dc-load line, and then record  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$ .

## CIRCUIT:

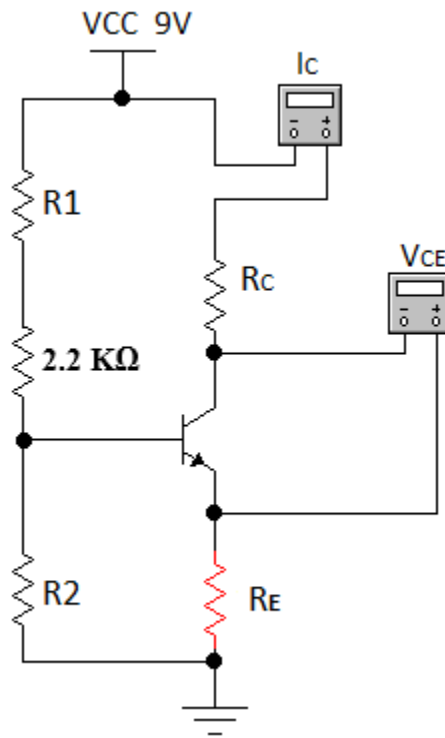


Figure 4.1 Voltage Divider bias

### CALCULATIONS, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Draw the relation between ( $R_1$  vs  $I_C$ ), and ( $R_1$  vs  $V_{CE}$ ) separately.
- 2- Draw the relation between ( $R_2$  vs  $I_C$ ), and ( $R_2$  vs  $V_{CE}$ ) separately.
- 3- Draw the dc-load line for the value of  $R_C$  which has practically been found to set the Q-point at the center.
- 4- Why  $2.2\text{ K}\Omega$  is connected in series with  $R_1$ ?
- 5- Discuss your practical result.

### EXPERIMENT NO. (5)

## COMMON EMITTER AMPLIFIER CHARACTERISTICS

### OBJECTIVE:

- Identify ac quantities
- Distinguish ac quantities from dc quantities
- Describe the voltage gain
- To find the input resistance
- Define phase inversion

### THEORY:

In a common emitter amplifier, the input signal is applied to base-emitter side, and the output is taken from the collector-emitter side of the transistor. To analyze the amplifier shown in figure (5.1), the dc bias values (voltages and currents) must be determined while the capacitors are replaced with open cct.

$$V_B = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V_{CC}$$

$$V_E = V_B - 0.7$$

$$\text{We know that } I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E}$$

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

$$I_C \cong I_E$$

For ac analyzing, the capacitors and the DC source are replaced with short cct ( $X_c = 0$ ).

The ac resistance of emitter is

$$r_e = \frac{25mv}{I_E}$$

And the voltage gain is:

$$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{I_C (R_C \parallel R_L)}{I_C r_e} = \frac{(R_C \parallel R_L)}{r_e}$$

$$\text{Therefore } V_c = A_v V_b$$

And the total input resistance is  $R_1 \parallel R_2 \parallel \beta_{dc} r_e$

### PROCEDURE:

- 1- Theoretically compute the dc parameters listed in the table (5.1) using above equations and records them in the table.
- 2- Practically measure and record the dc parameters listed in table (5.1).
- 3- Compute the ac parameters listed in table (5.2).
- 4- Turn on the signal generator and set  $V_s$  to 10 mVp-p and 1 kHz. Use the ac source as the input voltage ( $V_{be}$ ) to the circuit, and measure the ac output voltage and the voltage gain.
- 5- To find the  $R_{in}$ , a variable test resistance ( $R_{test}$ ) is connected in series with C1. Increase  $R_{test}$  until  $V_{out}$  drops to half of the previous value. This means that half of the input ac voltage ( $V_s$ ) is dropped on the  $R_{test}$  and the other half on  $R_{in}$ .

$$R_{in} = R_{test}$$

- 6- Use both channels of the oscilloscope to compare the input and output waveforms. What is the phase relationship between  $V_{in}$  and  $V_{out}$ ?
- 7- Remove  $C_E$  from the circuit, and measure the voltage gain. What can be concluded from this action?
- 8- Replace  $C_E$  and remove  $R_L$ , after that measure  $A_v$ .

DC parameters	Computed values	Measured values
$V_B$		
$V_E$		
$I_E$		
$V_C$		
$V_{CE}$		

Table 5.1

DC parameters	Computed values	Measured values
$V_b$		
$V_e$		
$I_e$		
$A_v$		
$V_C$		
$R_{in}$		

## CIRCUIT:

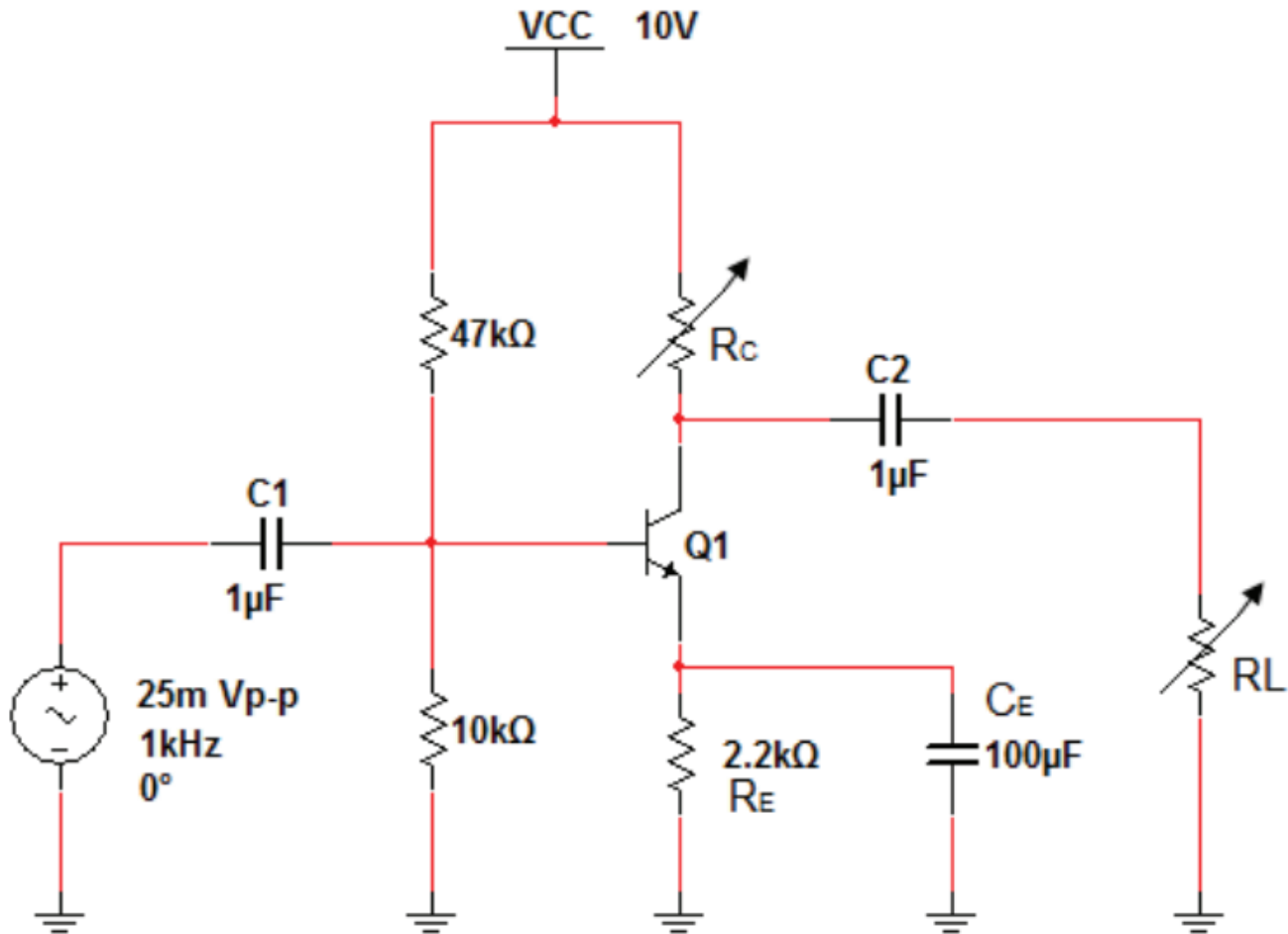


Figure 5.1 the amplifier circuit

## CALCULATION, QUESTION AND DISCUSSION

- 1- When  $C_E$  is open, you found that the gain was affected. Explain it why?
- 2- Discuss your results

## EXPERIMENT NO. (6)

## COMMON COLLECTOR AMPLIFIER CHARACTERISTICS

### OBJECTIVE:

- Discuss the emitter-follower amplifier with voltage-divider bias
- Current gain vs. Voltage gain in common-collector amplifier

### THEORY:

When the output is taken from the emitter terminal of the transistor as shown in Figure 6.1, the network is referred to as an *emitter-follower*. The output voltage is always slightly less than the input signal due to the drop from base to emitter, but the approximation  $A_v \cong 1$  is usually a good one. Unlike the collector voltage, the emitter voltage is in phase with the signal  $V_i$ . That is, both  $V_o$  and  $V_i$  attain their positive and negative peak values at the same time. The fact that  $V_o$  “follows” the magnitude of  $V_i$  with an in phase relationship accounts for the terminology emitter-follower.

This configuration has high input impedance, a low output impedance and high current gain.

$$V_B = \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V_{CC}$$

$$V_E = V_B - 0.7$$

$$\text{We know that } I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E}$$

$$V_{CC} = V_C$$

$$I_C \cong I_E$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - V_E$$

For ac analyzing, the capacitors and the DC source are replaced with short cct ( $X_c = 0$ ).

The ac resistance of emitter is

$$r_e = \frac{25mv}{I_E}$$

$$V_{out} = I_e R_e \quad \text{Where } R_e = R_E || R_L$$

$$V_{in} = I_e (r_e + R_e)$$

Therefore the voltage gain is

$$A_v = \frac{I_e R_e}{I_e (r_e + R_e)} = \frac{R_e}{(r_e + R_e)} \quad \text{If } R_e \gg r_e \text{ then } A_v \cong 1$$

$$R_{in(base)} = \frac{V_{in}}{I_{in}} = \frac{V_b}{I_b} = \frac{I_e (r_e + R_e)}{I_b}$$



Since  $I_e \cong I_c = \beta I_b$

$$R_{in(base)} = \frac{\beta I_b (r_e + R_e)}{I_b}$$

The terms  $I_b$  cancel; therefore,

$$R_{in(base)} = \beta (r_e + R_e)$$

$$R_{in(total)} = R_1 \parallel R_2 \parallel R_{in(base)}$$

$$A_P = \frac{\left(\frac{V_O}{R_{O(total)}}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{V_i}{R_{in(total)}}\right)^2} = A_V^2 \left(\frac{R_{in(total)}}{R_{O(total)}}\right)^2 \cong \left(\frac{R_{in(total)}}{R_{O(total)}}\right)^2$$

$$R_{O(total)} = \left(\frac{R_1 \parallel R_2 \parallel R_S}{\beta}\right) \parallel (R_E + r_e)$$

$$R_{O(total)} \cong \left(\frac{R_S}{\beta}\right) \parallel (R_E + r_e) \quad \text{When } (R_1 \parallel R_2) \gg R_S$$

## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Theoretically compute the dc parameters shown in table 6.1
- 2- Practically measure the dc parameters shown in table 6.1
- 3- Theoretically compute the ac parameters shown in table 6.2
- 4- Practically measure the ac parameters shown in table 6.2 for  $V_s = 1$  Vp-p and 1 kHz.
- 5- Measure the input resistance using the same method that you used in the last experiment.
- 6- Use two channels of the oscilloscope figure out the phase difference between  $V_{in}$  and  $V_o$ .

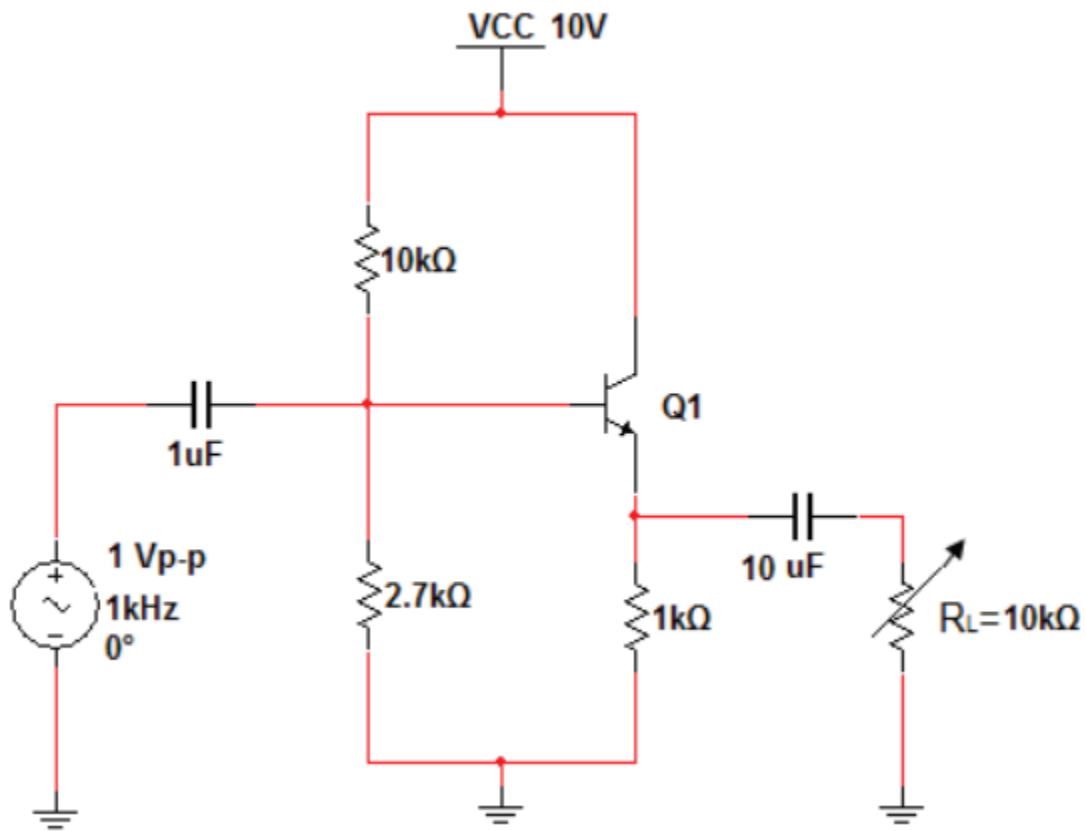
DC parameters	Computed values	Measured values
$V_B$		
$V_E$		
$I_E$		
$V_C$		
$V_{CE}$		

Table 6.1 DC parameters

AC parameters	Computed values	Measured values
$V_b$		
$V_e$		
$r_e$		
$A_V$		
$R_{in}$		
$A_p$		

Table 6.1 AC parameters

## CIRCUIT:



## CALCULATION, QUESTION AND DISCUSSION

- 1- Compare the input resistance of C.E.A and C.C.A.
- 2- Compare the phase difference of C.E.A and C.C.A.
- 3- The emitter follower can be used to drive a low impedance load such as loudspeakers. What characteristic makes this circuit for this purpose?
- 4- Discuss your results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (7)

# FIELD EFFECT TRANSISTOR OUTPUT CHARACTERISTICS

## OBJECTIVE:

- To discuss the drain characteristic curve
- To identify the ohmic, active, and breakdown regions of the curve
- To explain how gate-to-source voltage controls the drain current

## THEORY:

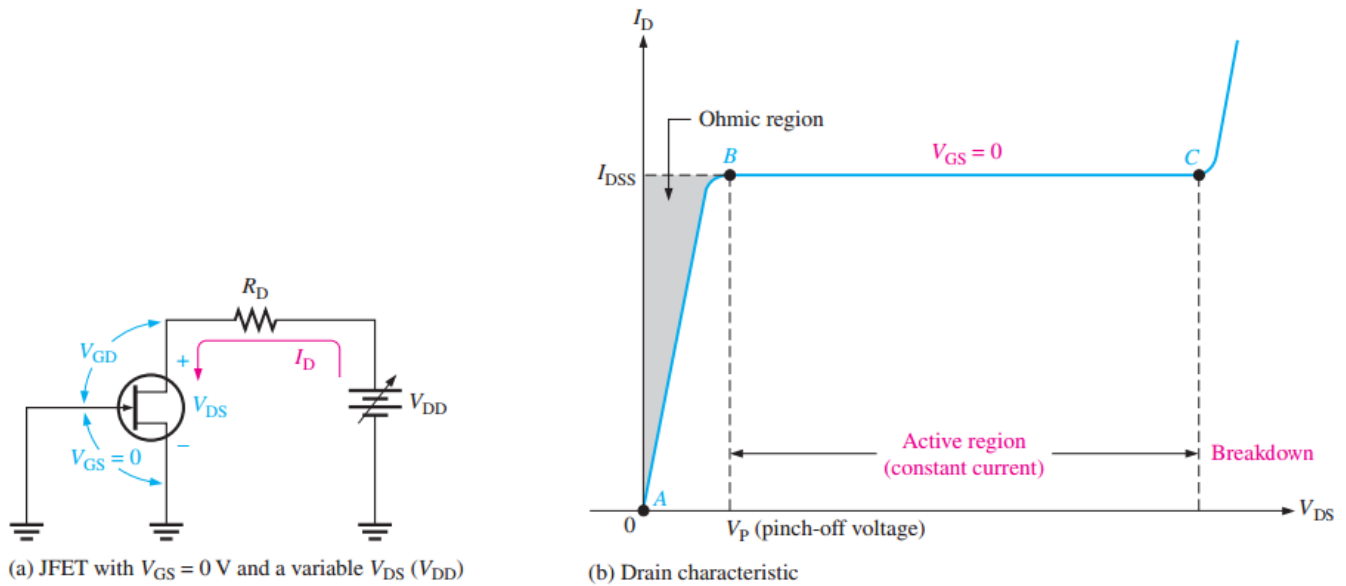
The term field-effect relates to the depletion region formed in the channel of a FET as a result of a voltage applied on one of its terminals (gate). Recall that a BJT is a current-controlled device; that is, the base current controls the amount of collector current. A FET is different. It is a voltage-controlled device, where the voltage between two of the terminals (gate and source) controls the current through the device.

### Drain Characteristic Curve

Consider the case when the gate-to-source voltage is zero ( $V_{GS} = 0$  V). This is produced by shorting the gate to the source, as in Figure 7–1(a) where both are grounded. As  $V_{DD}$  (and thus  $V_{DS}$ ) is increased from 0 V,  $I_D$  will increase proportionally, as shown in the graph of Figure 7–1(b) between points A and B. In this area, the channel resistance is essentially constant because the depletion region is not large enough to have significant effect. This is called the *ohmic region* because  $V_{DS}$  and  $I_D$  are related by Ohm's law.

At point B in Figure 7–1(b), the curve levels off and enters the active region where  $I_D$  becomes essentially constant. As  $V_{DS}$  increases from point B to point C, the reverse-bias voltage from gate to drain ( $V_{GD}$ ) produces a depletion region large enough to offset the increase in  $V_{DS}$ , thus keeping  $I_D$  relatively constant.

The value of  $V_{DS}$  at which  $I_D$  becomes essentially constant (point B on the curve in Figure 7–1(b)) is the pinch-off voltage,  $V_P$ . For a given JFET,  $V_P$  has a fixed value. As you can see, a continued increase in  $V_{DS}$  above the pinch off voltage produces an almost constant drain current. This value of drain current is  $I_{DSS}$  (Drain to Source current with gate Shorted) and is always specified on JFET datasheets.  $I_{DSS}$  is the maximum drain current that a specific JFET can produce regardless of the external circuit, and it is always specified for the condition,  $V_{GS} = 0$  V.



The drain characteristic curve of a JFET for  $V_{GS} = 0$  showing pinch-off voltage.

As  $V_{GS}$  is set to increasingly more negative values by adjusting  $V_{GG}$ , a family of drain characteristic curves is produced, as shown in Figure 7–2(b). Notice that  $I_D$  decreases as the magnitude of  $V_{GS}$  is increased to larger negative values because of the narrowing of the channel.

The value of  $V_{GS}$  that makes  $I_D$  approximately zero is the **cutoff voltage**,  $V_{GS(off)}$ , as shown in Figure 7–2(d). The JFET must be operated between  $V_{GS} = 0\text{ V}$  and  $V_{GS(off)}$ .

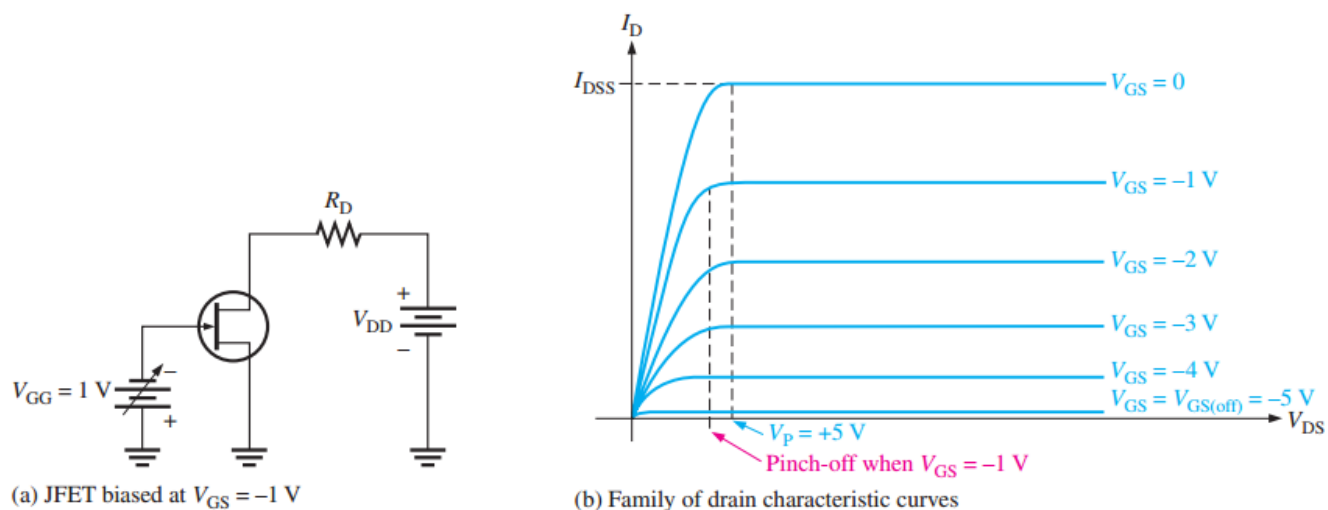


Figure 7.2 Family of Drain Characteristic

**PROCEDURE:**

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure (7.3)
- 2- By using  $V_{GG}$  source, adjust  $V_{GS} = 0\text{V}$ .
- 3- Change  $V_{DS}$  from 0 to 8V using the  $V_{DD}$  source and measure  $I_D$ , and fill table 7.1.
- 4- Repeat step 2 and 3 for  $V_{GS} = 1\text{V}$ , and  $2\text{V}$ .

$V_{DS}$ (volt)	$I_D$ when $V_{GS} = 0\text{ V}$	$I_D$ when $V_{GS} = 1\text{ V}$	$I_D$ when $V_{GS} = 2\text{ V}$
0			
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			

Table 7.1

## CIRCUIT:

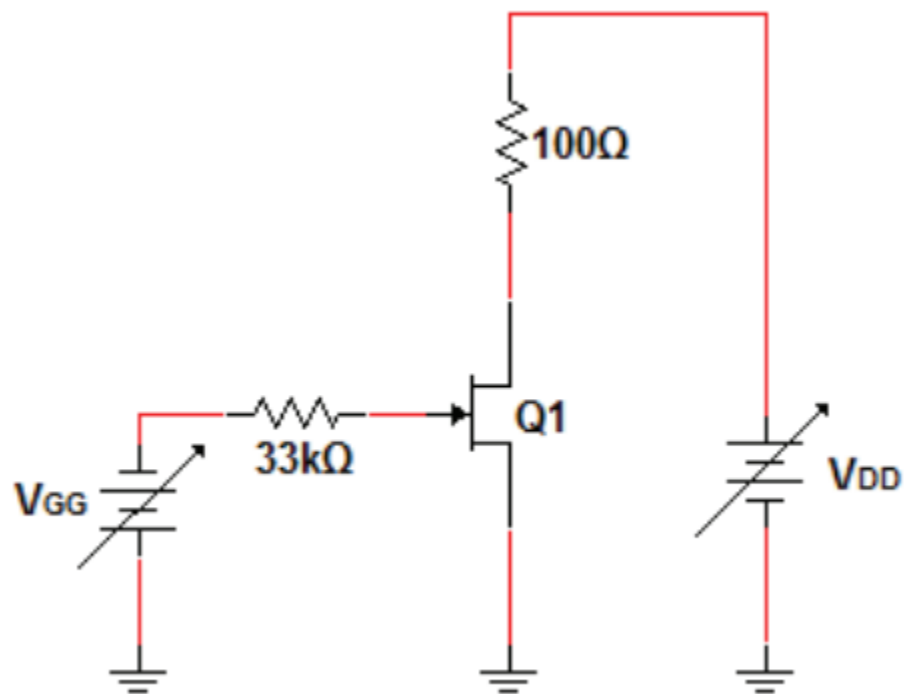


Figure 7.3

## CALCULATION, QUESTION AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Use your practical results to draw the drain characteristic curve.
- 2- Find  $I_{DSS}$  from the characteristic curve.
- 3- Compare the pinch off voltage,  $V_P$ , with cut off,  $V_{GS(off)}$ .
- 4- Discuss your results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (8)

### COMMON SOURCE FIELD EFFECT TRANSISTOR AMPLIFIER

#### OBJECTIVE:

- To explain and analyze the operation of common-source FET amplifiers.
- To discuss and analyze the FET ac model.
- To observe phase inversion.

#### THEORY:

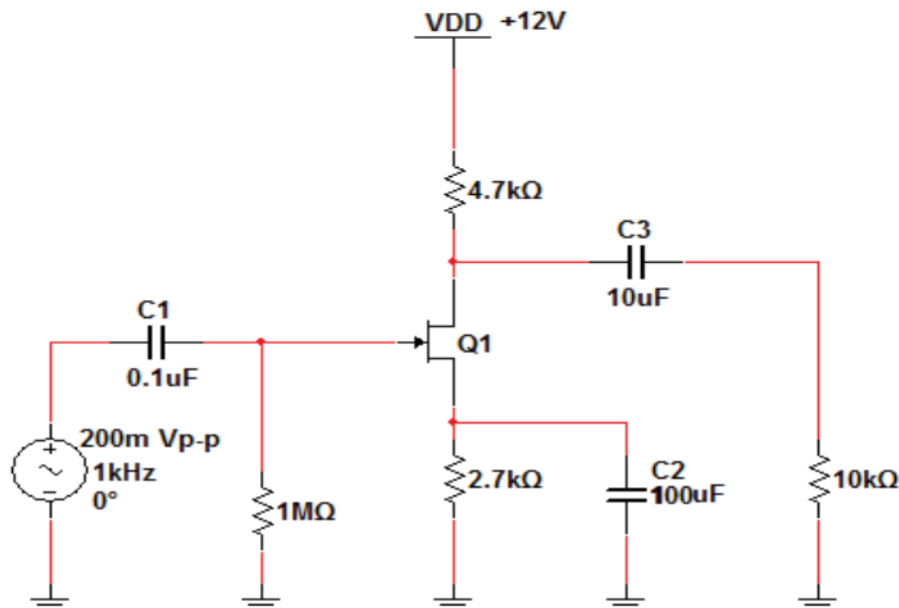
The FET has an important advantage compared to the BJT due to the FET's extremely high input impedance. Disadvantages, however, include higher distortion and lower gain. The particular application will usually determine which type of transistor is best suited. The common-source (CS) amplifier is comparable to the common-emitter BJT amplifier.

**Note:** For more details about DC and AC analysis, please review your theoretical lectures.

#### PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 8.1.
- 2- Set the signal generator at 200m V<sub>p-p</sub> and 1 kHz.
- 3- Measure the DC voltages at drain ( $V_D$ ), source ( $V_S$ ), gate ( $V_G$ ), and  $V_{DS}$ . Then measure  $I_D$
- 4- Measure the input and output AC voltages, and then find the voltage gain.
- 5- Remove the bypass capacitor and then measure the gain (measure input and output voltages).
- 6- Compare the phase difference between input and output voltages.

#### CIRCUIT:



#### CALCULATION, QUESTION AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Compare the voltage gain of common source FET amplifier with its analogy common emitter BJT amplifier. Which one has higher voltage gain? Use your results to make this comparison.
- 2- Discuss your results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (9) THE JFET AS AN ANALOG SWITCH

### OBJECTIVE:

- To explain how FETs can be used in analog switching applications
- To Explain how a FET operates as a switch

### THEORY:

An analog switch is an electronically controlled device that will either pass or shut off continuously varying analog signal. Figure 9.1 illustrates an analog switch. In most cases, a digital signal is used to control switching process.

A JFET can be used as an analog switch as shown in figure 9.2. Note that the analog signal is connected to  $R_D$  where a fixed supply voltage ( $V_{DD}$ ) would normally be connected. The digital signal that opens and closes the switch is the gate to source voltage  $V_{GS}$ .  $V_{GS}$  is either (0V) which makes the JFET on (conducting) or  $V_P$  (a negative voltage for N-channel) that makes the JFET off. The output voltage of the switch  $V_O$  is the drain to source voltage which will be either the analog signal (when the JFET is off) or zero (when the JFET is conducting)

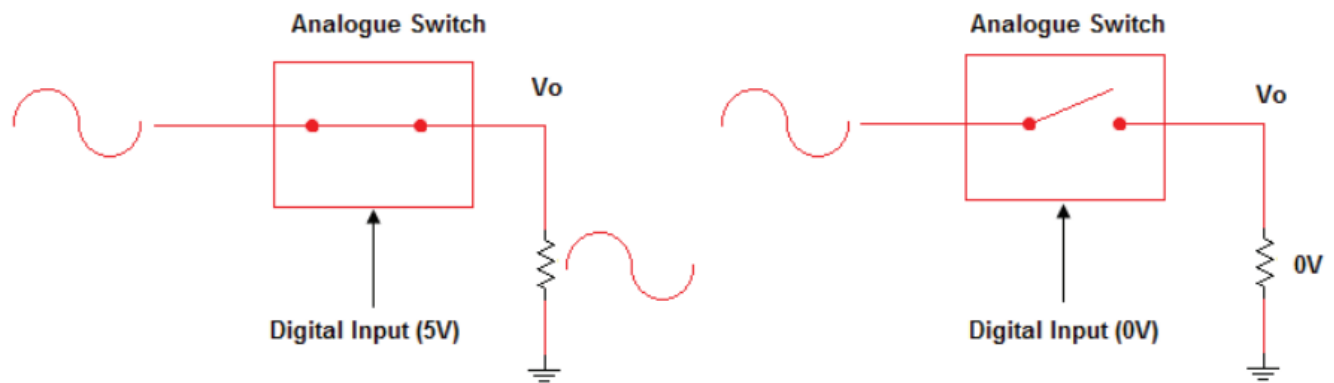


Figure 9.1 a normal switch operation

## CIRCUIT:

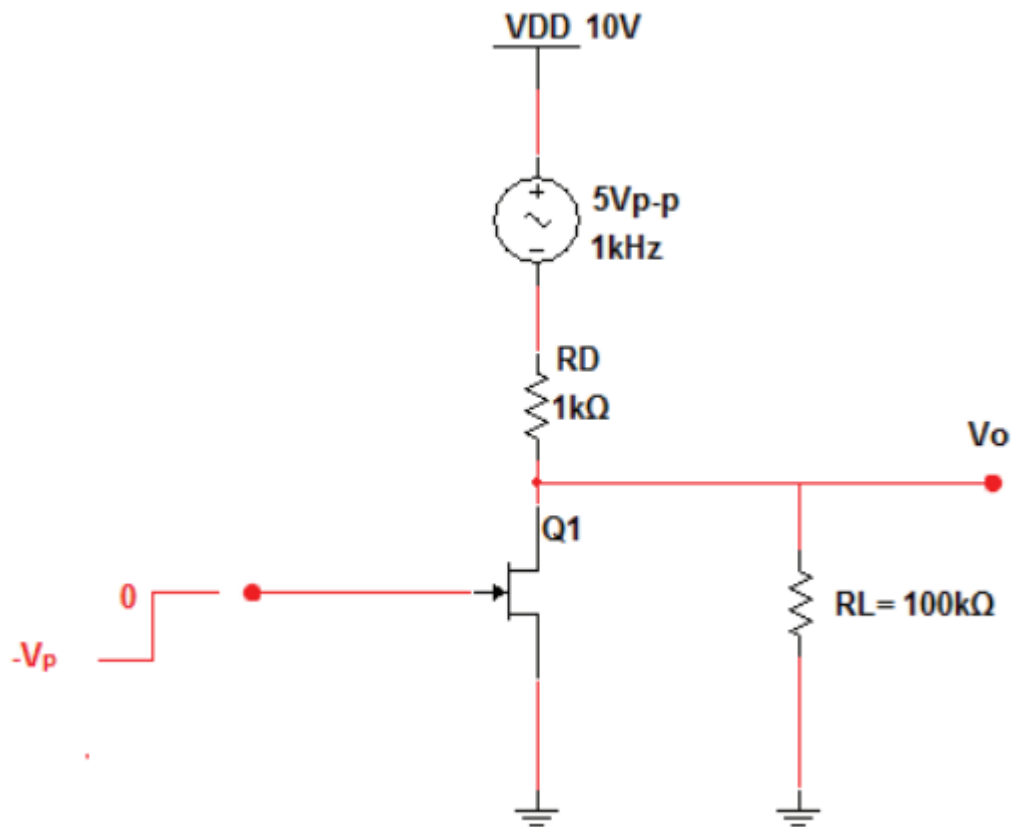


Figure 9.2 JFET as a switch

## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Practically measure  $V_P$  for the JFET. Use the same method of previous experiment.
- 2- Connect the circuit as shown in figure 9.2.
- 3- Make  $V_{GS} = 0$ , and then observe the output and draw the output signal.
- 4- Make  $V_{GS} = V_P$ , and then observe the output and draw the output signal.

## CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- What is  $R_{DSon}$ ?
- 2- Can we use BJT as a switch? If yes, which type of transistor (FET or BJT) performs better as a switch? And why?
- 3- Discuss your results.



## EXPERIMENT NO. (10)

### FREQUENCY RESPONSE OF COMMON EMITTER AMPLIFIER

#### OBJECTIVE:

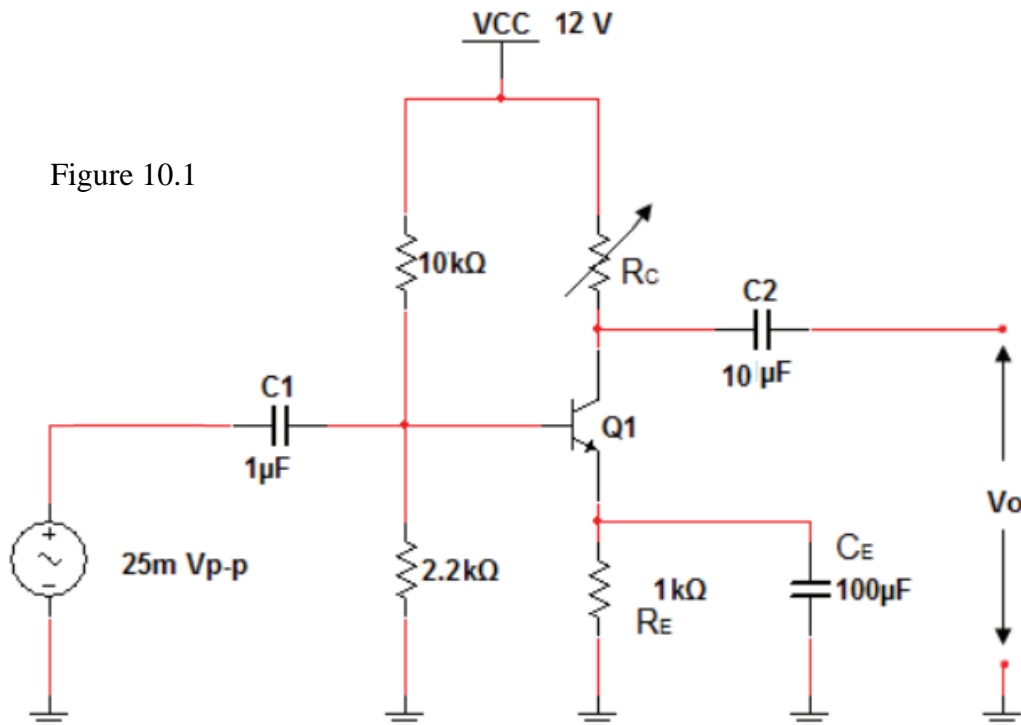
- To explain how circuit capacitances affect the frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze the low-frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze the high-frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze an amplifier for total frequency response
- To measure the frequency response of an amplifier

#### THEORY:

In the previous chapters on amplifiers, the effects of the input frequency on an amplifier's operation due to capacitive elements in the circuit were neglected in order to focus on other concepts. The coupling and bypass capacitors were considered to be ideal shorts and the internal transistor capacitances were considered to be ideal opens. This treatment is valid when the frequency is in an amplifier's midrange. As you know, capacitive reactance decreases with increasing frequency and vice versa. When the frequency is low enough, the coupling and bypass capacitors can no longer be considered as shorts because their reactances are large enough to have a significant effect. Also, when the frequency is high enough, the internal transistor capacitances can no longer be considered as opens because their reactances become small enough to have a significant effect on the amplifier operation. A complete picture of an amplifier's response must take into account the full range of frequencies over which the amplifier can operate.

Recall from basic circuit theory that  $X_c = 1/2\pi fC$ . This formula shows that the capacitive reactance varies inversely with frequency. At lower frequencies the reactance is greater, and it decreases as the frequency increases.

#### CIRCUIT:



## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 10.1
- 2- Change  $R_C$  to obtain the Q point at the center of DC load line.
- 3- Change the input frequency from 10 Hz to 5 MHz, and measure  $V_O$  for each frequency.

Input Frequency (Hz)	Output Voltage (V)
10	
20	
30	
:	
:	
100	
200	
300	
:	
:	
1 k	
2 k	
3 k	
:	
:	
10 k	
20 k	
30 k	
:	
:	
100 k	
200 k	
300 k	
:	
:	
1 M	
2 M	
3 M	

## CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- From your practical results, plot  $V_o$  vs the frequency on a semiology paper.
- 2- From the plot, determine the upper and lower cutoff frequencies.
- 3- Find the bandwidth.
- 4- Determine the gain at one octave below the upper cutoff frequency.
- 5- Determine the gain at one octave above lower cutoff frequency.
- 6- Discuss your practical results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (11)

### FREQUENCY RESPONSE OF COMMON SOURCE AMPLIFIER

#### OBJECTIVE:

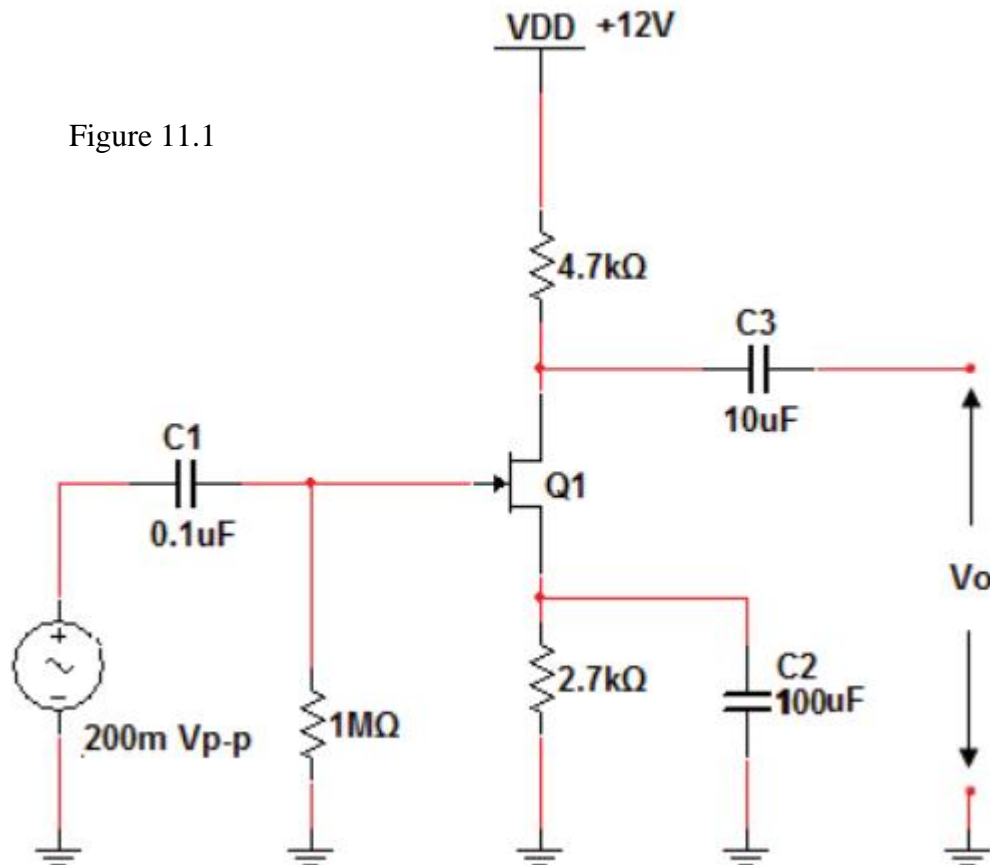
- To explain how circuit capacitances affect the frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze the low-frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze the high-frequency response of an amplifier.
- To analyze an amplifier for total frequency response
- To measure the frequency response of an amplifier

#### THEORY:

The analysis of the FET amplifier in the low-frequency region will be quite similar to that of the BJT amplifier. There are again three capacitors of primary concern as appearing in the network of figure 11.1: C1, C2, and C3. As in the case for the BJT amplifier, the reactance ( $X_c$ ) of the input, output, and bypass coupling capacitors decrease as the input frequency increases.

The approach to the high-frequency analysis of a FET amplifier is also similar to that of a BJT amplifier. The basic differences are the specifications of the internal FET capacitances and the determination of the input resistance.

#### CIRCUIT:



## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 11.1
- 2- Change the input frequency from 10 Hz to 5 MHz, and measure  $V_O$  for each frequency.

Input Frequency (Hz)	Output Voltage (V)
10	
20	
30	
:	
:	
100	
200	
300	
:	
:	
1 k	
2 k	
3 k	
:	
:	
10 k	
20 k	
30 k	
:	
:	
100 k	
200 k	
300 k	
:	
:	
1 M	
2 M	
3 M	

## CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- From your practical results, plot  $V_O$  vs the frequency on a semiology paper.
- 2- From the plot, determine the upper and lower cutoff frequencies.
- 3- Find the bandwidth.
- 4- Determine the gain at one octave below the upper cutoff frequency.
- 5- Determine the gain at one decade above lower cutoff frequency.
- 6- Discuss your practical results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (12)

### JFET AS A CONSTANT CURRENT SOURCE

#### OBJECTIVE:

- To explain how FET transistor can be used as a constant current source.
- To determine the maximum  $R_L$  to have a constant  $I_D$ .

#### THEORY:

A JFET can be used to supply constant current to a variable load by connecting its gate directly to its source as illustrated in figure 12.2. Here the resistor  $R_D$  is considered as the variable load resistance. The current that passes through  $R_D$  is independent of  $R_D$ . The condition that have to be satisfied to obtain a constant current from a JFET is:

$$|V_{DS}| \geq |V_P| - |V_{GS}| \quad 12.1$$

Since  $V_{GS} = 0$  in the circuit shown below

$$|V_{DS}| \geq |V_P|$$

The constant current produced by JFET is then  $I_D = I_{DSS}$  because  $V_{GS} = 0$ .

From the above condition we can find the maximum value of  $R_D$  ( $R_L$ ) to have a constant current  $I_D$ .

$$|V_{DS}| \geq |V_P|$$

$$V_{DS} = V_{DD} - I_{DSS} R_L$$

$$V_{DD} - I_{DSS} R_L \geq |V_P|$$

Thus 
$$R_L = \frac{V_{DD} - |V_P|}{I_{DSS}} \quad 12.2$$

#### PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 12.1.
- 2- Change  $V_{GG}$  until  $I_D = 0$  then measure  $V_{GS}$  which equals  $V_P$
- 3- Connect the circuit shown in figure 12.2.
- 4- For  $R_D = 1k\Omega$ , change  $V_{DD}$  until  $I_D$  become a constant value and then measure  $I_D$  which equals  $I_{DSS}$ .
- 5- Measure practically the maximum value of  $R_D$  ( $R_L$ ) that keep  $I_D$  constant.

**CIRUIT:**

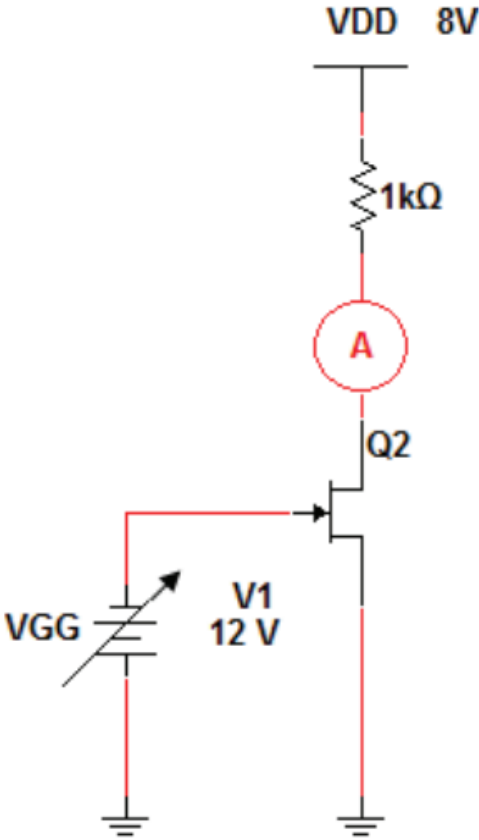


Figure 12.1

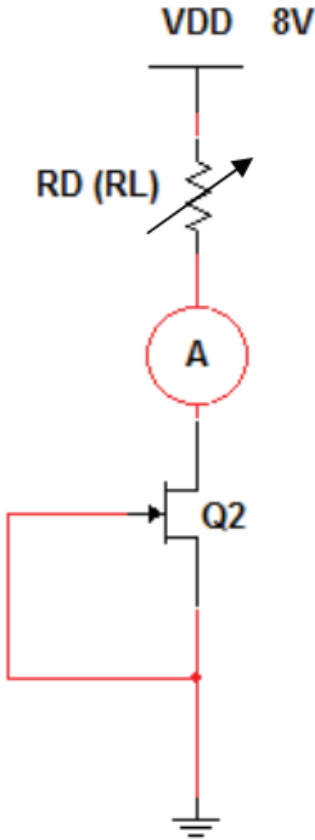


Figure 12.2

**CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:**

- 1- Calculate the maximum value of RD (RL) that keep ID constant by using equation 12.2.
- 2- Discuss your results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (13)

### TUNED AMPLIFIER

#### OBJECTIVE:

- To explain tuned amplifier.
- To explain tuned operation.
- To discuss the quality factor of a tuned amplifier.

#### THEORY:

Sometimes it is desired that an amplifier should be selective i.e. it should select a desired frequency or narrow band of frequencies for amplification. For instance, radio and television transmission are carried on a specific radio frequency assigned to the broadcasting station. The radio receiver is required to pick up and amplify the radio frequency desired while discriminating all others. To achieve this, the simple resistive load is replaced by a parallel tuned circuit whose impedance strongly depends upon frequency. Such a tuned circuit becomes very selective and amplifies very strongly signals of resonant frequency and narrow band on either side.

In summary, the tuned amplifier only amplifies frequencies lying within a desired frequency range. This desired frequency range is selected by replacing the  $R_C$  (BJT) or  $R_D$  (FET) by a parallel resonance circuit. The impedance of this tuned circuit strongly depends upon frequency. It offers a very high impedance at resonant frequency and very small impedance at all other frequencies.

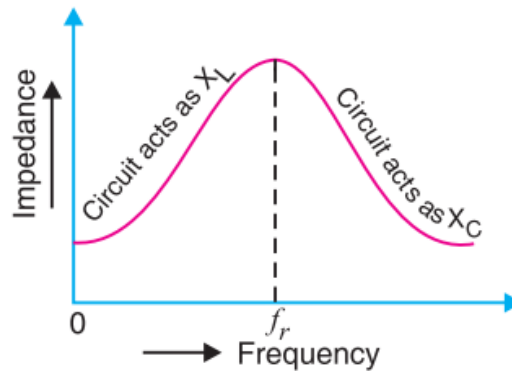


Figure 13.1

The resonance circuit impedance at the resonance frequency can be calculated as

$$Z_r = \frac{L}{RC}$$

If the input signal has the same frequency as the resonant frequency of LC circuit, large amplification will result due to high impedance of LC circuit at this frequency.

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \sqrt{\frac{L - CR_L}{L}}$$

In the above equation, if  $R_L$  is neglected, the equation will be;

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

It is desired that resonance curve of a parallel tuned circuit should be as sharp as possible in order to provide selectivity. The sharp resonance curve means that impedance falls rapidly as the frequency is varied from the resonant frequency. The smaller the resistance of coil, the more sharp is the resonance curve.

$$Q = \frac{X_L}{R} = \frac{2\pi f_r L}{R} = \frac{f_r}{\Delta f}$$

$$\Delta f = BW = f_2 - f_1$$

The quality factor Q of a parallel tuned circuit is very important because the sharpness of resonance curve and hence selectivity of the circuit depends upon it. The higher the value of Q, the more selective is the tuned circuit.

### CIRUIT:

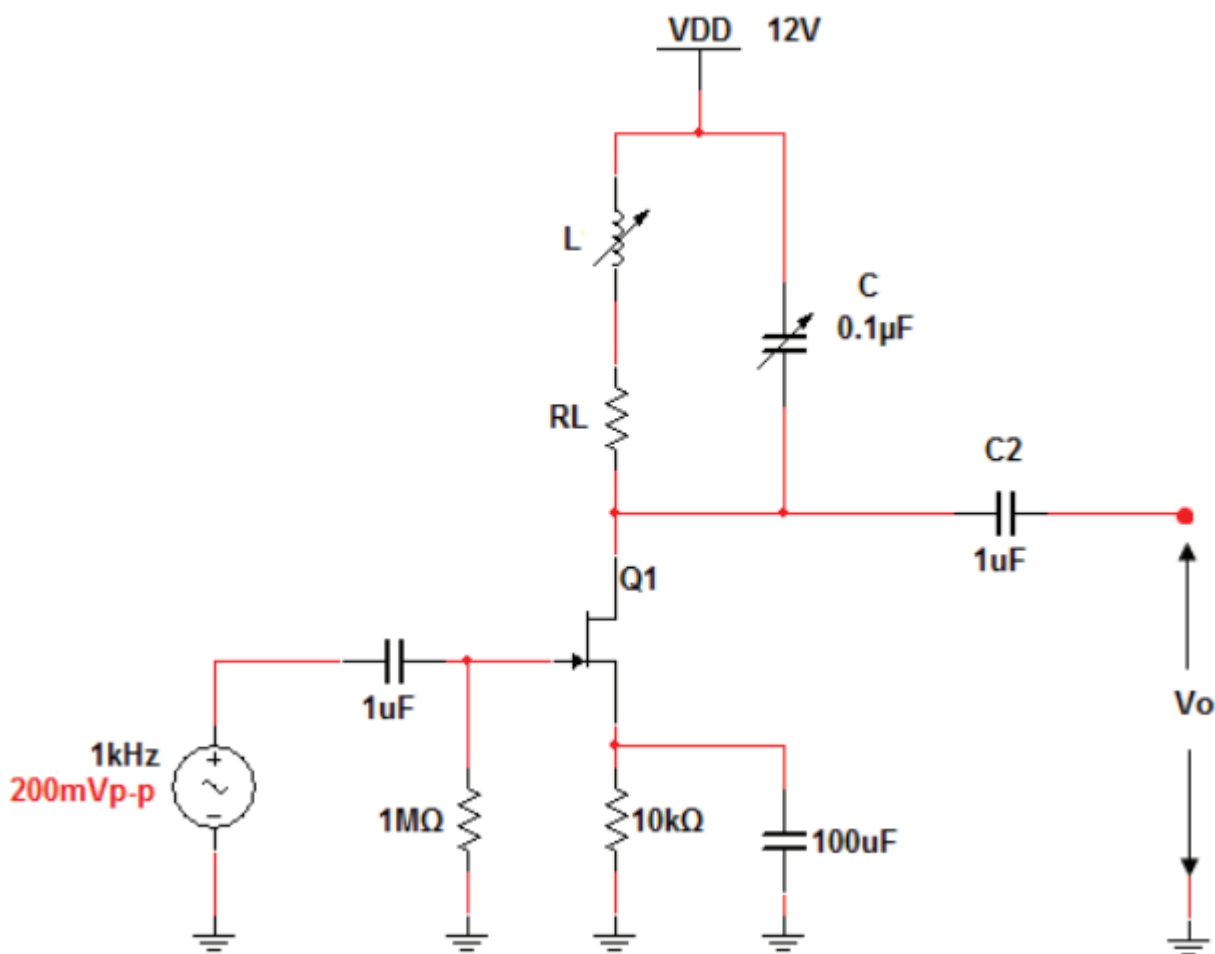


Figure 13.2



## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 13.2.
- 2- Practically, determine the resonance frequency  $f_r$  for a chosen value of L.
- 3- Practically, measure the voltage gain for the input frequencies shown in table 13.1 when  $R_L = 0 \Omega$ .
- 4- Repeat step 3 when  $R_L = 100 \Omega$  (table 13.2).

When $R_L = 0 \Omega$									
$\frac{f}{f_r}$	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	1	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5
$V_o$									
$A_v$									

Table 13.1

When $R_L = 100 \Omega$									
$\frac{f}{f_r}$	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	1	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5
$V_o$									
$A_v$									

Table 13.2

## CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Plot the relationship between  $A_v$  and the input frequency ( $f$ ).
- 2- Find the bandwidth from the relationship curve.
- 3- Find the quality (Q) of the tuned circuit.
- 4- Discuss your result

# EXPERIMENT NO. (14)

## THE DIFFERENTIAL AMPLIFIER

### OBJECTIVE:

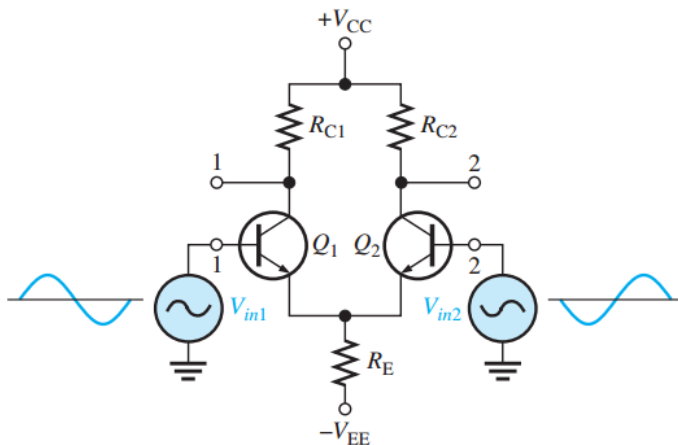
- Describe the differential amplifier and its operation.
- Calculate dc currents and voltages
- Define and determine the common-mode rejection ratio (CMRR)

### THEORY:

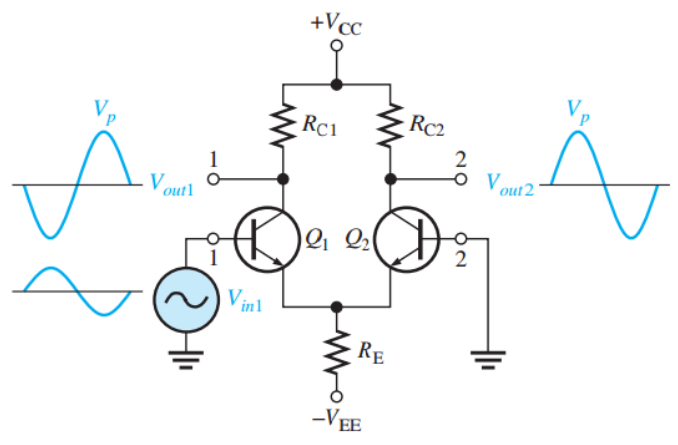
A differential amplifier is an amplifier that produces outputs that are a function of the difference between two input voltages. The differential amplifier has two basic modes of operation: differential (in which the two inputs are different) and common mode (in which the two inputs are the same).

#### *Differential Mode;*

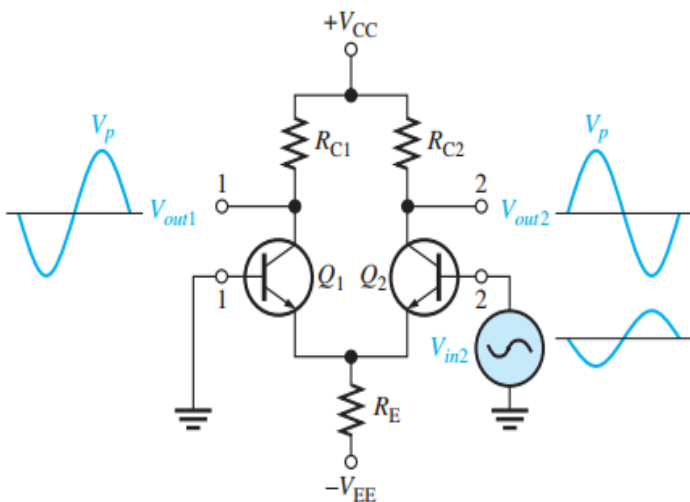
In this configuration, two opposite-polarity (out-of-phase) signals are applied to the inputs, as shown in figure below.



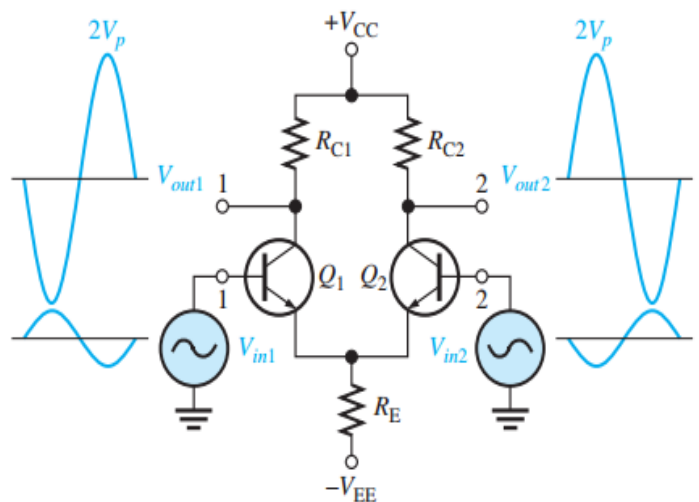
Differential inputs (180 out of phase)



The output due to  $V_{in1}$



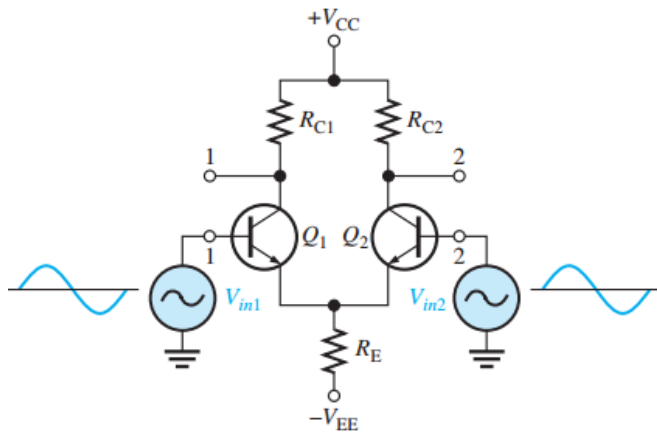
The output due to  $V_{in2}$



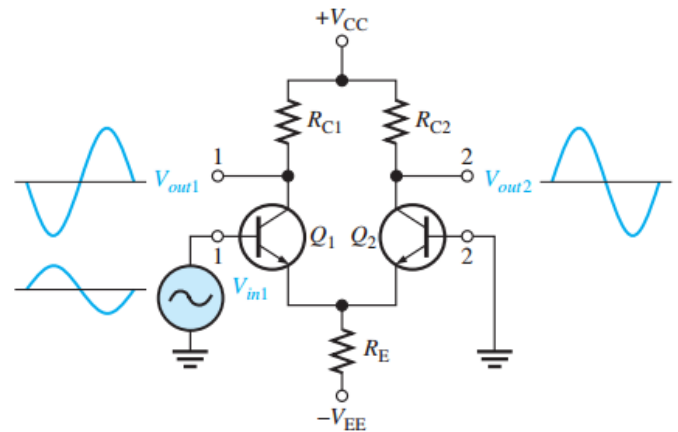
The total output due

### Common Mode;

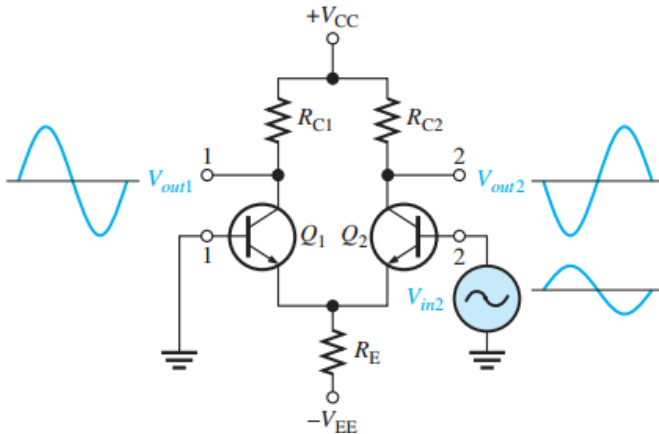
One of the most important aspects of the operation of a diff-amp can be seen by considering the common-mode condition where two signal voltages of the same phase, frequency, and amplitude are applied to the two inputs, as shown in Figure below.



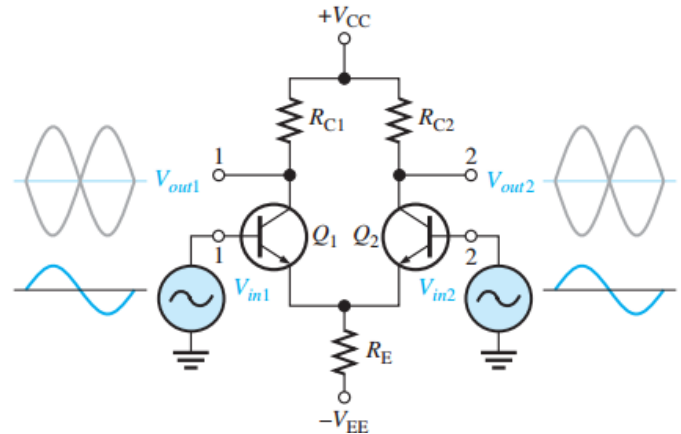
Common mode inputs (in phase)



The output due to  $V_{in1}$



The output due to  $V_{in2}$



Outputs due to  $V_{in1}$  and  $V_{in2}$  cancel because they are equal in amplitude but opposite in phase. The resulting outputs are 0 V ac.

### Common-Mode Rejection Ratio (CMRR);

The measure of an amplifier's ability to reject common-mode signals is a parameter called the CMRR (commonmode rejection ratio). Ideally, a diff-amp provides a very high gain for desired signals (differential mode) and zero gain for common-mode signals.

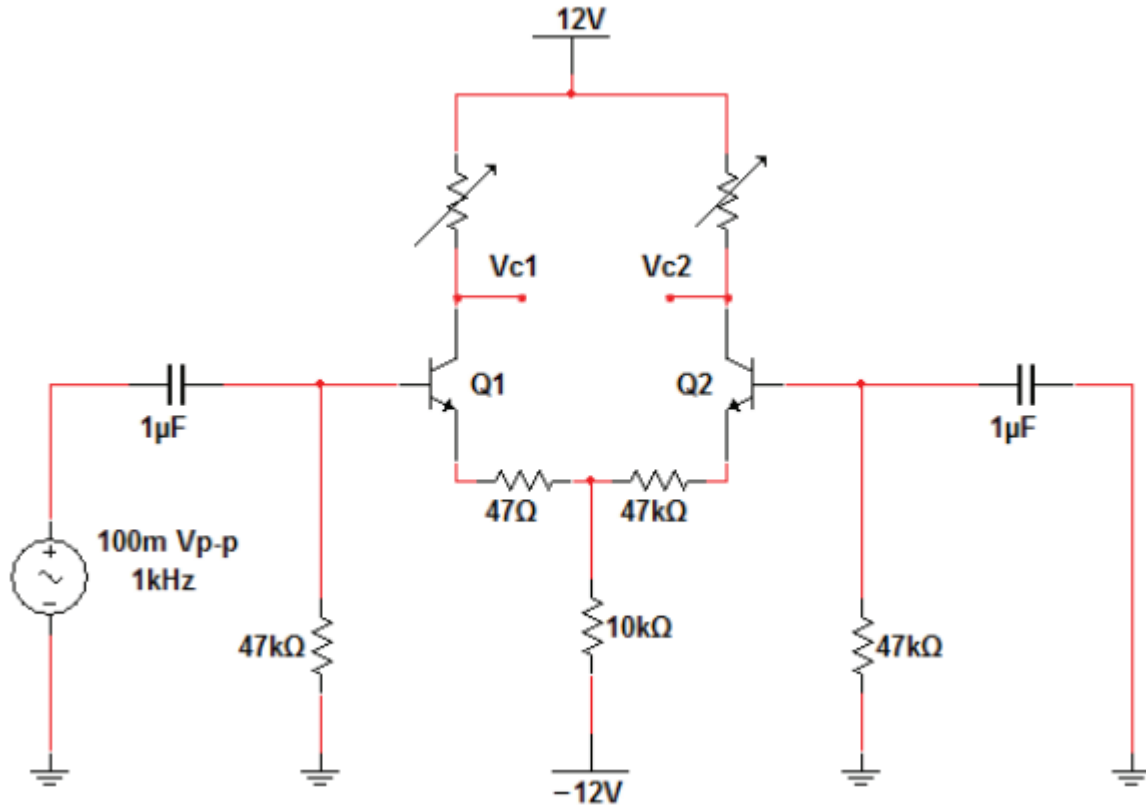
The higher the CMRR, the better. A very high value of CMRR means that the differential gain  $A_{v(d)}$  is high and the common-mode gain  $A_{cm}$  is low. The CMRR is often expressed in decibels (dB) as

$$\text{CMRR} = 20 \log \left( \frac{A_{v(d)}}{A_{cm}} \right)$$

$$A_{cm} = -R_C / (2R_T), \text{ and } A_{vd} = R_C / 2(R_{E2} + r_e)$$

## PROCEDURE:

1- Connect the circuit shown in figure below.



- 2- Set the Q-points of both transistors at the center of the dc load-line by changing  $R_c$ .
- 3- Practically measure the dc parameters shown in table 14.1.
- 4- Practically measure the ac parameters shown in table 14.2.
- 5- Observe  $V_{C1}$  and  $V_{C2}$  after making  $V_{in1} = 0$ , and  $V_{in2} = V_s$ .
- 6- Using the same source as for the two inputs, measure  $A_{cm}$ .
- 7- Using two different source measure  $A_{vd}$ .

DC parameters	Measured values	Computed Values
$I_E$		
$I_B$		
$V_B$		
$V_E$		
$V_A$		
$V_C$		

Table 14.1

DC parameters	Measured values	Computed Values
$I_E$		
$I_B$		
$V_B$		
$V_E$		
$V_A$		
$V_C$		

Table 14.2

### CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Compute the dc parameters theoretically and compare them with the measured values in table 14.1.
- 2- Compute the ac parameters theoretically and compare them with the measured values in table 14.1.
- 3- Discuss Your results

## EXPERIMENT NO. (15)

### LOGIC GATES

#### OBJECTIVE:

- Explain how to use diode to build OR and AND gates.
- Explain how to use transistor to build inverter, NOR and NAND gates.
- Describe the saturation and cutoff regions of a transistor.

#### THEORY:

A gate is a logic circuit with one output and one or more inputs. An output occurs only for a certain combinations of input signals. Logic gates are digital (two states) circuits because the input and the output signals are either high or low voltages. Gates can be described with Boolean algebra.

A diode is like an electronic switch. When a diode is forward biased and a required forward voltage is applied, the diode is on (switch is on). However, when zero voltage or a reversed biased voltage is applied the diode is off (switch is off). This characteristic of the diode is very useful to build logic gate such as OR and AND gates.

In a transistor, the collector-to-emitter impedance is quite low near or at saturation and large near or at cutoff. For instance, the load line defines *saturation* as the point where the current is quite high and the collector-to-emitter voltage quite low as shown in Figure 15.1. At *cutoff*, the current is relatively low and the voltage near its maximum value.

The above impedance levels established by “on” and “off” transistors make it relatively easy to understand the operation of the logic gates.

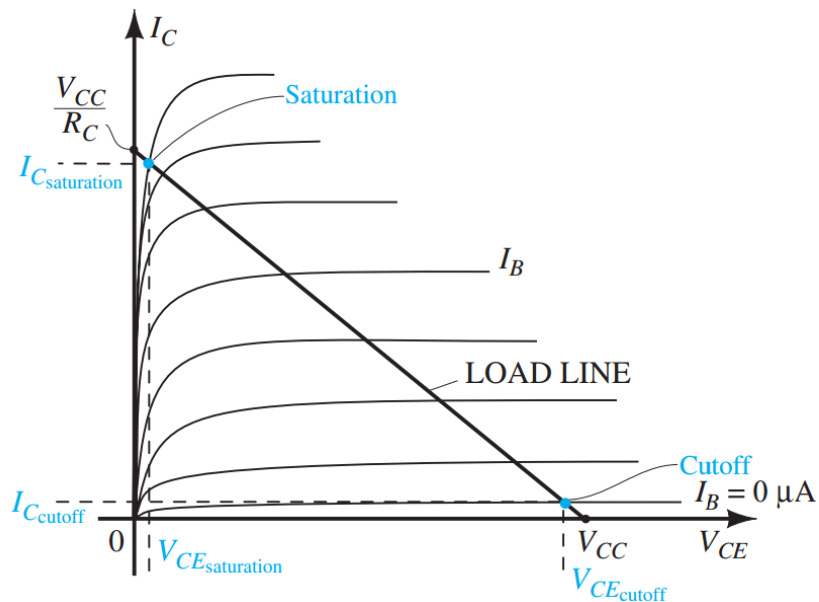
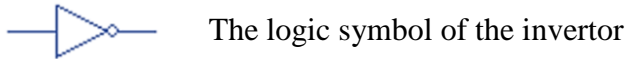


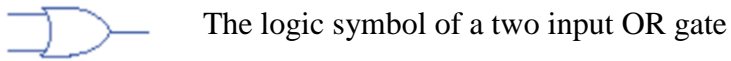
Figure 15.1 Points of operation for a BJT logic gate.

## THE LOGIC GATES:

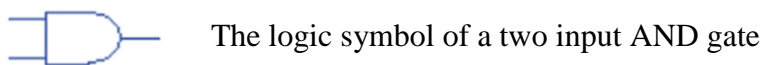
- 1- **Invertor:** An invertor is a gate with only one input and one output. The output state is always the opposite of the input state.



- 2- **OR gate:** The OR gate has two or more inputs, but it has only one output. If any input is high the output is high.



- 3- **AND gate:** The AND gate has two or more inputs, but it has only one output. All inputs must be high to get a high output.



## THE CIRCUITS:

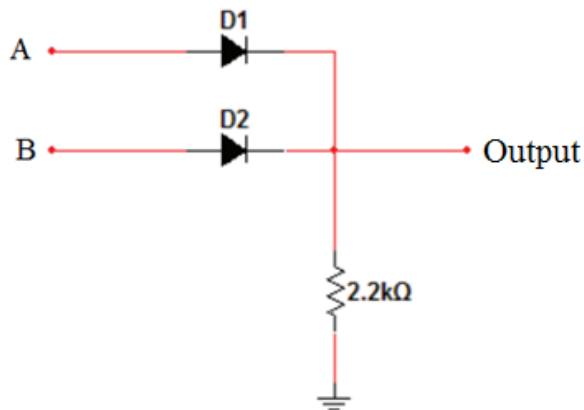


Figure 15.2 OR gate

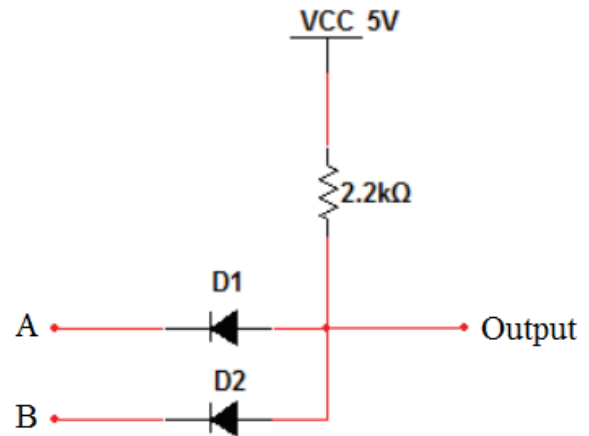


Figure 15.3 AND gate

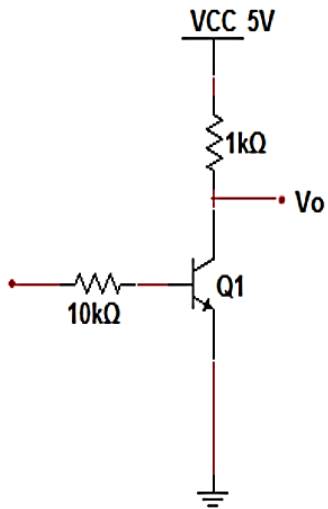


Figure 15.4 Inverstor

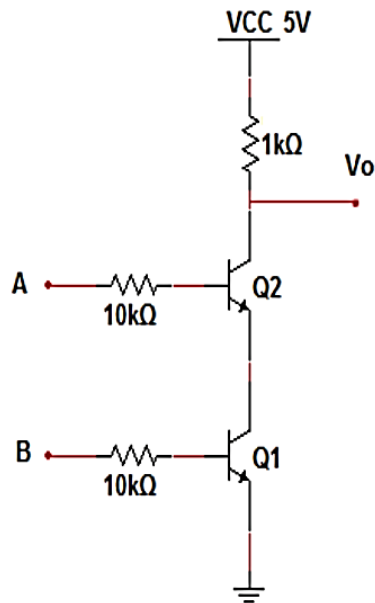


Figure 15.5 NAND gate

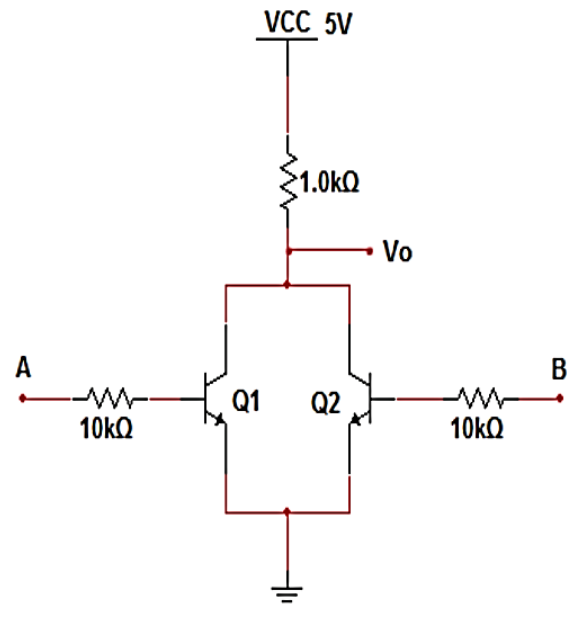


Figure 15.6 NOR gate

## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in figure 15.2
- 2- Write the truth table of the circuit.

A	B	OUTPUT

- 3- Connect the circuit shown in figure 15.3
- 4- Write the truth table of the circuit.

A	B	OUTPUT

- 5- Connect the circuit shown in figure 15.4
- 6- Write the truth table of the circuit.

INPUT	OUTPUT



7- Connect the circuit shown in figure 15.5

8- Write the truth table of the circuit.

A	B	OUTPUT

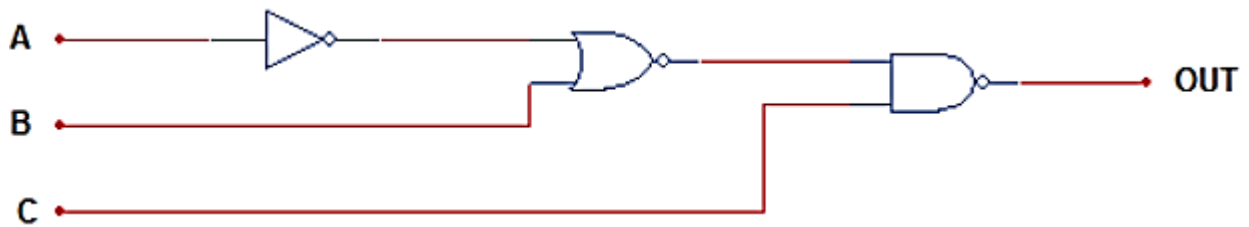
9- Connect the circuit shown in figure 15.6

10- Write the truth table of the circuit.

A	B	OUTPUT

### CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Design an OR gate using transistors only.
- 2- Design an AND gate using transistors only.
- 3- Design the circuit shown below using transistors only.



4- Discuss your results.

## EXPERIMENT NO. (16)

### LINEAR OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIER (OP-AMP) CIRCUIT

#### OBJECTIVE:

- Become familiar with operational amplifier circuits.
- To study operational amplifier (op-amp).
- To study inverting and non-inverting amplifiers.

#### OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIER:

The standard operational amplifier (op-amp) symbol is shown in Figure 16–1(a). It has two input terminals, the inverting (-) input and the non-inverting (+) input, and one output terminal. Most op-amps operate with two dc supply voltages, one positive and the other negative, as shown in Figure 16–1(b), although some have a single dc supply. Usually these dc voltage terminals are left off the schematic symbol for simplicity but are understood to be there.

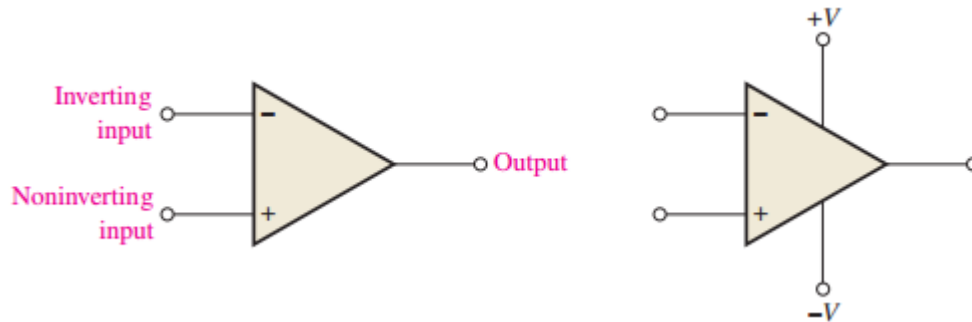


Figure 16.1

(a) Symbol

(b) Symbol with dc supply connections

The ideal op-amp has *infinite voltage gain* and *infinite bandwidth*. Also, it has an *infinite input impedance (open)* so that it does not load the driving source. Finally, it has a *zero output impedance*. Although integrated circuit (IC) op-amps approach parameter values that can be treated as ideal in many cases, the ideal device can never be made. Characteristics of a practical op-amp are *very high voltage gain*, *very high input impedance*, and *very low output impedance*.

## Inverting Amplifier:

An op-amp connected as an inverting amplifier with a controlled amount of voltage gain is shown in Figure 16–2. The input signal is applied through a series input resistor  $R_i$  to the inverting input. Also, the output is fed back through  $R_f$  to the same input. The non-inverting (+) input is grounded.

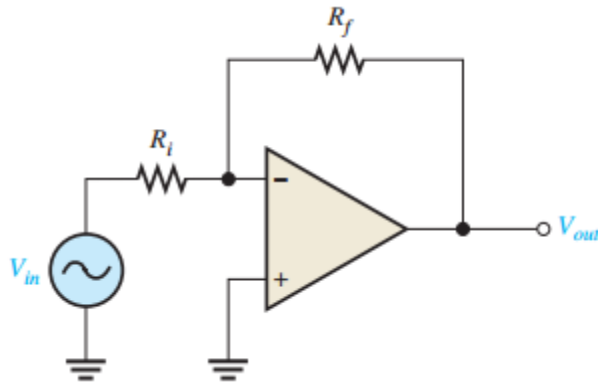
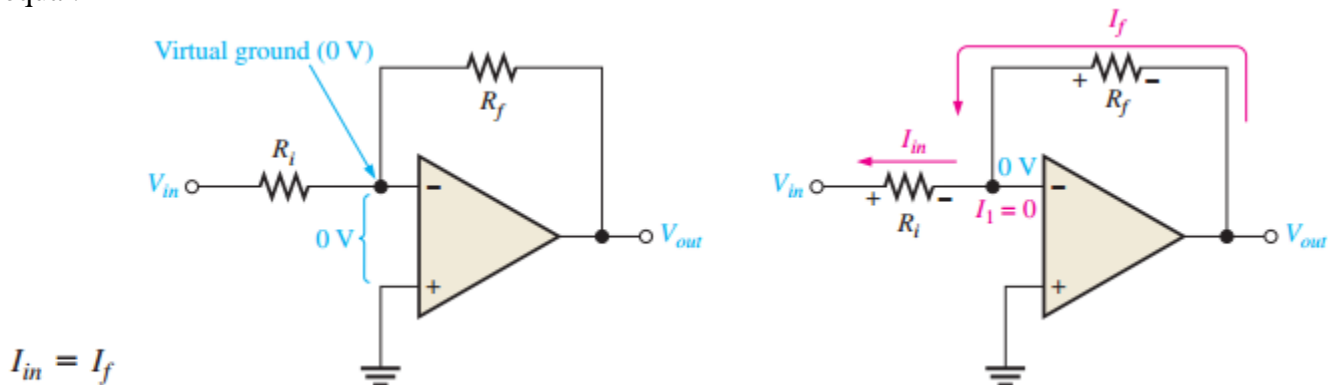


Figure 6.2 Inverting Amplifier

Since there is no current at the inverting input, the current through  $R_i$  and the current through  $R_f$  are equal.



$$I_{in} = I_f$$

Figure 16.3 (a) Virtual ground

(b)  $I_{in} = I_f$  and current at the inverting input ( $I_1$ ) is 0

The voltage across  $R_i$  equals  $V_{in}$  because the resistor is connected to virtual ground at the inverting input of the op-amp. Therefore,

$$I_{in} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_i}$$

Also, the voltage across  $R_f$  equals because of virtual ground, and therefore

$$I_f = \frac{-V_{out}}{R_f}$$

Since  $I_f = I_{in}$

$$\frac{-V_{out}}{R_f} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_i}$$

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = -\frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

Of course,  $V_{out}/V_{in}$  is the overall gain of the inverting (I) amplifier.

$$A_{cl(I)} = -\frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

### Non-inverting Amplifier:

An op-amp connected in a closed-loop configuration as a non-inverting amplifier with a controlled amount of voltage gain is shown in Figure 15–4. The input signal is applied to the non-inverting (+) input. The output is applied back to the inverting input through the feedback circuit (closed loop) formed by the input resistor  $R_i$  and the feedback resistor  $R_f$ . This creates negative feedback as follows. Resistors  $R_i$  and  $R_f$  form a voltage-divider circuit, which reduces  $V_{out}$  and connects the reduced voltage  $V_f$  to the inverting input. The feedback voltage is expressed as,

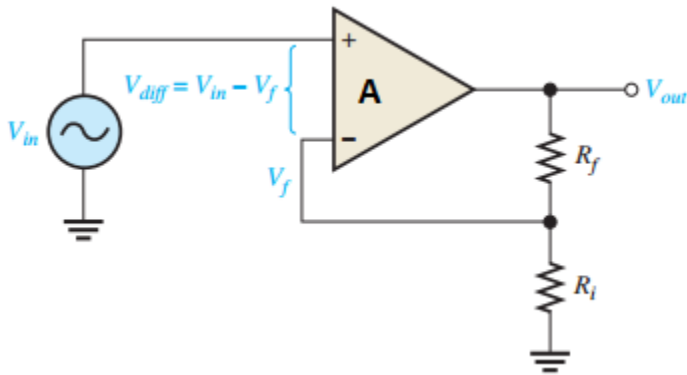


Figure 16.4 Non-inverting Amplifier

$$V_{out} = A(V_{in} - V_f)$$

$$V_f = \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_f} V_{out}$$

$$V_{out} = A\left(V_{in} - \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_f} V_{out}\right)$$

$$V_{out} = AV_{in} - \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_f} AV_{out}$$

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{A}{\left(1 + \frac{R_i}{R_i + R_f} A\right)}$$

The product  $\frac{R_i}{R_i + R_f} A$  is typically much greater than 1, so the equation simplifies to

$$A_{overall} = \frac{R_i + R_f}{R_i}$$

## CIRCUITS:

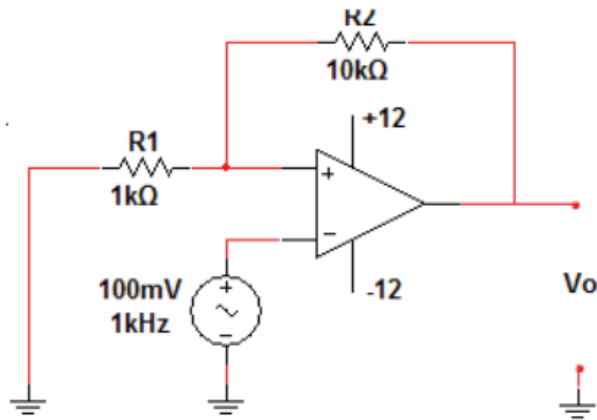


Figure 16.5 Inverting Amplifier

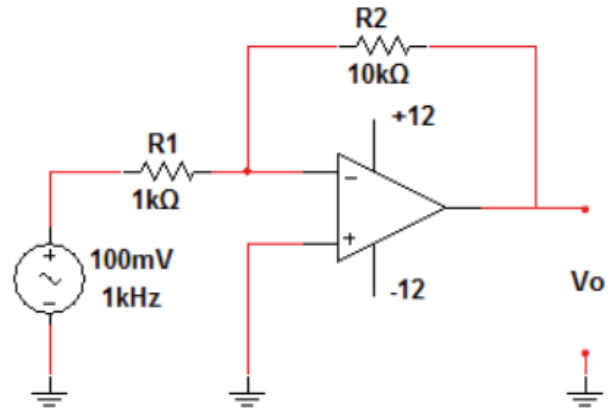


Figure 16.6 Non-inverting Amplifier

## PROCEDURE:

- 1- Connect the circuit shown in fig. (16.5).
- 2- Measure the output voltage.
- 3- Determine the input impedance of the OP-AMP
- 4- Connect the circuit shown in fig. (16.6)
- 5- Measure the output voltage.
- 6- Determine the output impedance of the OP-AMP.

## CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Compute theoretically the voltage gain of the two circuits and compares it with the measured values.
- 2- Discuss your results

# **EXPERIMENT NO. (17)**

## **ASTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR**

### **OBJECTIVE:**

- To study the characteristics of the astable multivibrator.
- To study the use of the astable as a voltage to frequency converter.

### **THEORY:**

The astable multivibrator has two quasi – stable states and periodic transition occur from one state to the other. As shown in figure (17.1) one state is with the transistor T2 nonconducting whereas the other state is the reverse of this. The output square wave contains a large number of frequencies, hence the name multivibrator. If  $R_1 = R_4$ ,  $R_2=R_3=R$  and  $C_1=C_2=C$ , the circuit is said to be symmetrical and each transistor remains in conducting state for the same time. In this case, the mark- to –space ratio is unity and the time period  $T$  of the oscillator is given approximately by:

$$T=1.4 RC \text{ seconds} \dots\dots\dots (1) \quad \text{where } R \text{ is in ohms, } C \text{ in farads.}$$

$$F = 1/T \text{ (HZ)} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

The frequency of oscillation may be varied over the range from cycles to megacycles per seconds by adjusting  $R$  or  $C$ . It is also possible to change  $T$  electrically by connecting  $R_2$ ,  $R_3$ , to an auxiliary voltage according to the equation;

$$T = 2RC \ln (1+V_{cc}/V) \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

Such a circuit is called voltage to frequency converter it is shown in figure (17.2)

### **PROCEDURE:**

- 1- Connect the circuit of figure (17.1) and draw the wave forms of  $V_{B1}$ ,  $V_{B2}$ ,  $V_{C1}$ ,  $V_{C2}$  respectively with all required indications.
- 2- Repeat step 1 for values of  $R_2 = 22k\Omega$ ,  $R_3 = 47k\Omega$ ,  $C_1= C_2 = 0.1\mu F$ .
- 3- Connect the circuit of figure (17.2) and change the applied voltage ( $E$ ) from 1 to 6 volt in suitable steps (say 0.5 volt), and observe the output voltage  $V_o$  and measure  $T$  corresponding to each step.

E volt	Vo	T

# CALCULATION, QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION:

- 1- Try to show the principle of operation of each circuit and discuss the outputs of the circuit and then conclude yours by comparing the theoretical and experimental results.
- 2- Derive equations 1 and 3.

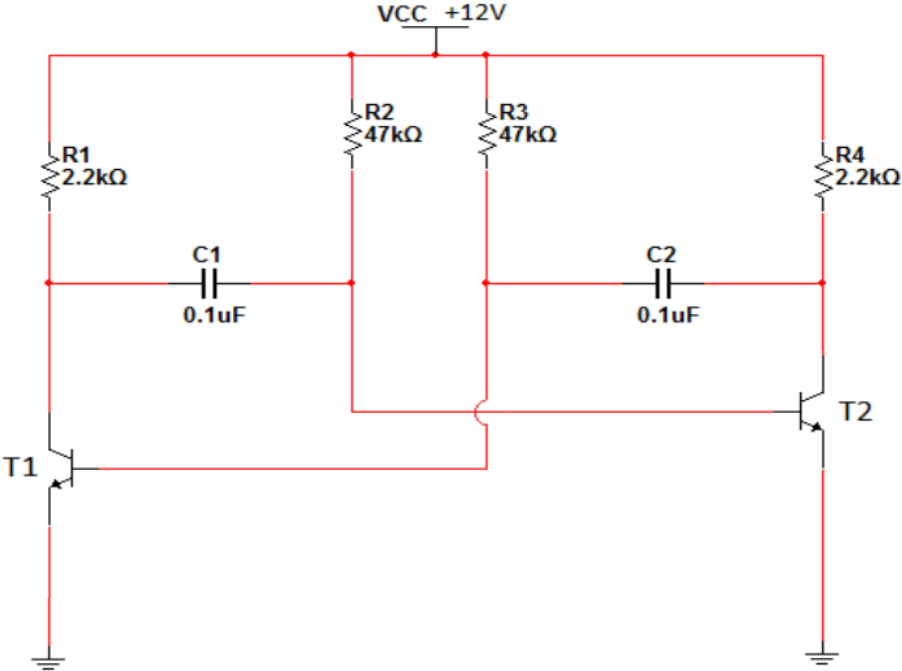


Figure 17.1

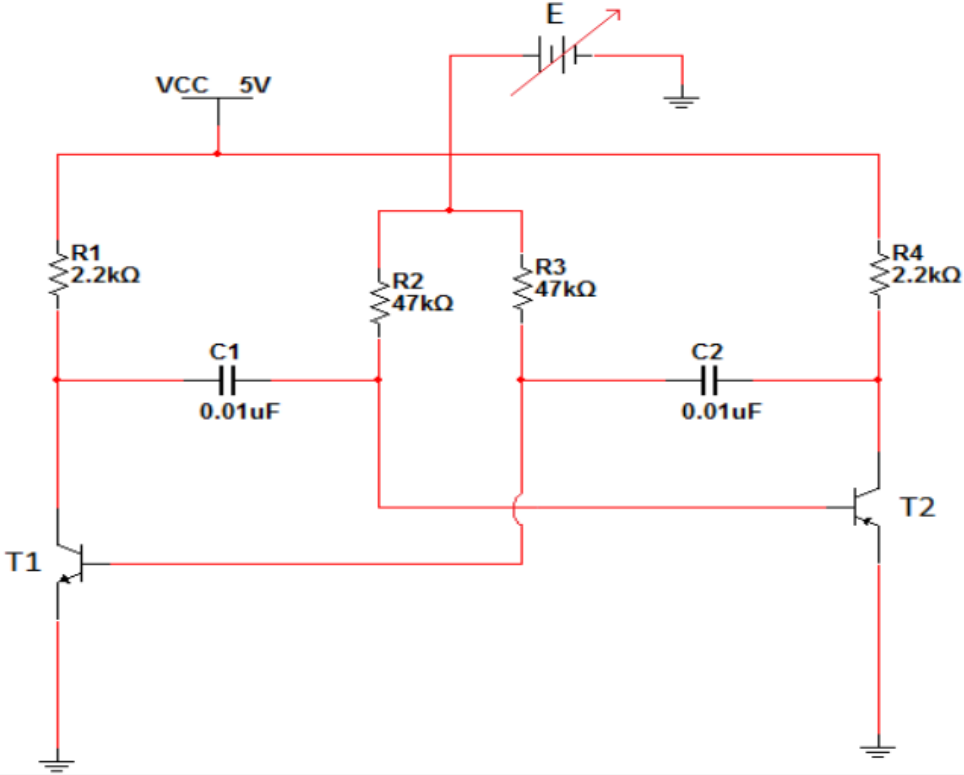


Figure 17.2