

### 4.3 INTRODUCTION TO POWER AMPLIFIERS

An Amplifier system has more than one stage as shown in Fig. 4.11. Voltage amplifiers in middle stages to handle small signals. The final stage (called power amplifier) drives a load like loud speaker and has to handle considerable amount of power. So large swing of voltage or current is needed for obtaining sufficient power. Voltage amplifiers are actually small signal amplifiers, they amplify input voltage. So, they raise only voltage level.

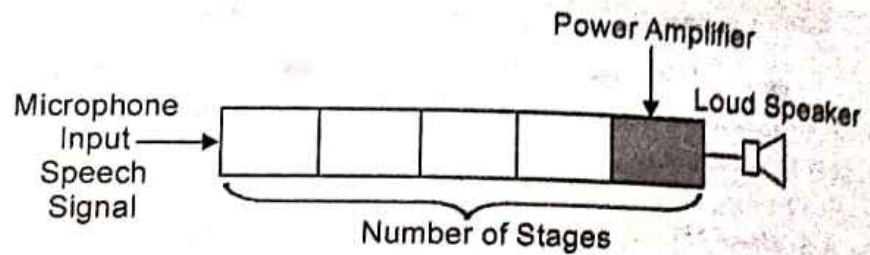


Fig. 4.11 : Amplifier System

Power amplifiers need large current. So they are known as large signal amplifier. Power amplifiers draw power from d.c. source and convert it to a.c. power to drive voice coil of loud speaker. In power amplifier, transformer primary winding is in series with collector. d.c. power loss in primary winding is very less as its resistance is small. Power transferred to secondary winding is a.c.

Power amplifiers find their application in the public address system, radio receivers, T.V. receivers, Tape players, CRTs and driving servomotors in industrial control system.

#### 4.3.1 Classification Of Power Amplifiers

On the basis of period of conduction i.e. the portion of the input cycle during which output current ( $I_C$ ) flows, the power amplifiers may be classified as

- (i) Class-A Amplifiers
- (ii) Class-B Amplifiers
- (iii) Class-AB Amplifiers
- (iv) Class-C Amplifiers

##### (i) Class-A Amplifiers:

In this type, the transistor is so biased that the output current flows for the full cycle of the input signal, as shown in Fig. 4.12. This means that the transistor remains forward biased throughout the input cycle. From Fig. 4.12 it is seen that the operating point Q is located at the centre of the load line. So that the output current flows for complete cycle of the input signal.

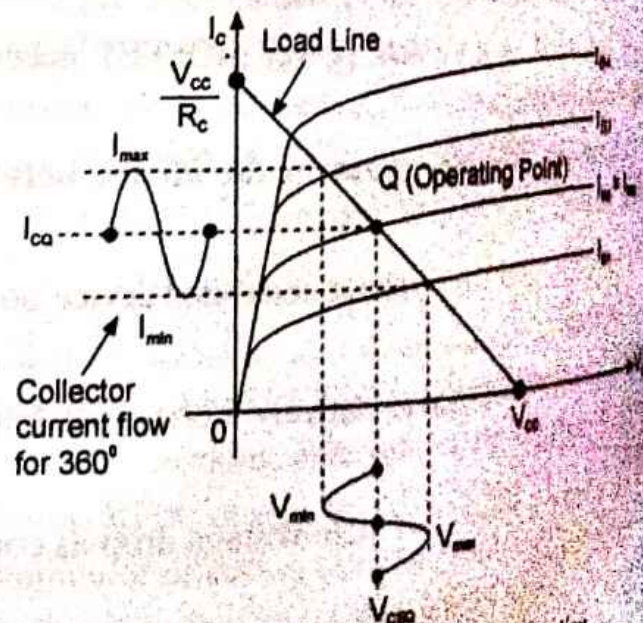


Fig. 4.12 : Class-A Amplifier Operation



As the collector current flows for  $360^\circ$  (full cycle) of the input signal. We can say that the angle of the collector current flow is  $360^\circ$ .

In class A operation, signal is faithfully reproduced at the output without any distortion. This is an important feature of class-A operation. The efficiency of class-A operation is very small.

### Class-B Amplifiers:

In class-B power amplifiers, the transistor is so biased that the output current flows only for half cycle of the input signal. It means that the transistor is forward biased for half of the input cycle. In the negative half cycle of input signals, the transistor enters in to cut-off region and no signal is produced at the output.

As the collector current flows only for  $180^\circ$  (half cycle) of the input signal. In this case the transistor conduction angle is equal to  $180^\circ$  as shown in Fig. 4.13. The operation point Q is located at  $(V_{CC}, 0)$  on the load line.

As only a half cycle is obtained at the output, for full input cycle, the output signal is said to be 'distorted' in class B operation. The efficiency of class-B amplifier is much higher than the class A amplifier.

### Class-AB Amplifiers:

In this type, the transistor is so biased that the output current flows for more than half but less than the full cycle. The transistor conduction angle is between  $180^\circ$  and  $360^\circ$  such a condition is shown in Fig. 4.14. The Q point is very close to cut-off value but well above X-axis.

The output signal obtained in the class AB operation is distorted. The efficiency of class AB amplifier is more than class A but less than class B operation.

The class AB operation is important in eliminating the crossover distortion. This is discussed later in this chapter.

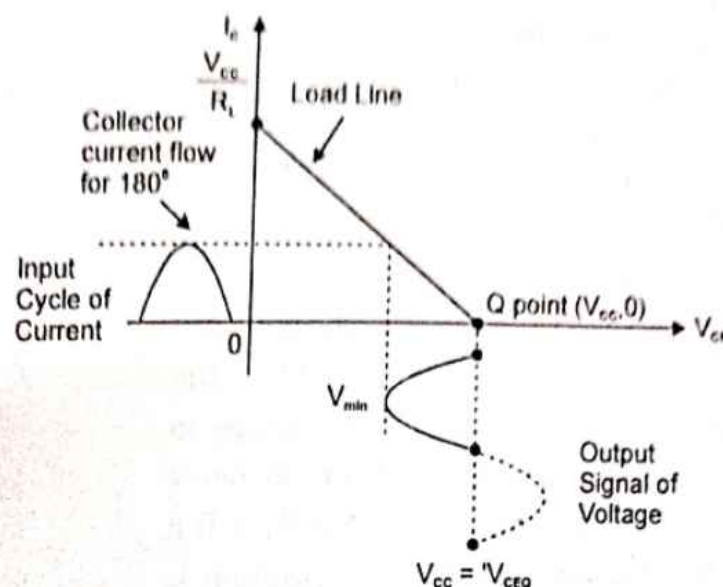


Fig. 4.13 : Class-B Amplifier Operation

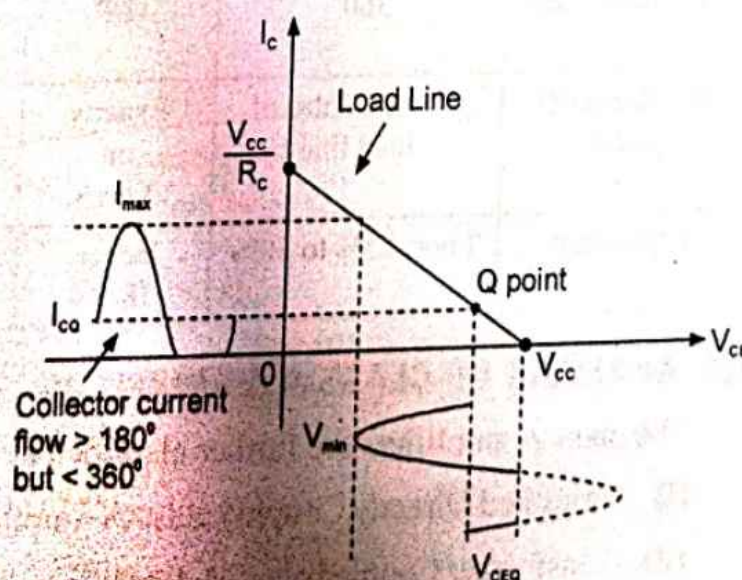


Fig. 4.14 : Class-AB Amplifier Operation



#### (iv) Class C Amplifier:

In class C Power Amplifier, the transistor bias and signal amplitude are such that the output current flows for appreciably less than half cycle of the input signal. Hence its conduction angle is upto  $120^\circ$  or  $150^\circ$  that is the transistor remains forward biased for less than half the cycle. Such a condition is shown in Fig. 4.15 For this operation the Q point is shifted below X-axis.

In class C operation as the collector current flows for less than  $180^\circ$ , the output is much more distorted. Due to this reason Class C Amplifiers are never used for audio frequency amplifiers. But the efficiency of class C operation is much higher and can reach very close to 100%.

Students may note here that, as the Q point moves away from the centre of load line below towards the X-axis, the efficiency of class of operation increases. Table below shows a summary of different classes of operation of power amplifiers.

Table : Comparison of Power Amplifiers

| Class               | A                          | B                 | AB                                             | C                     |
|---------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Operating cycle     | $360^\circ$                | $180^\circ$       | $180^\circ$ to $360^\circ$                     | Less than $180^\circ$ |
| Position of Q point | At the Centre of load line | Exactly on X-axis | Above X-axis but below the centre of load line | Below X-axis          |
| Efficiency          | Poor, 25% to 50%           | Better, 78.5%     | Higher than A but less than B (50% to 78.5%)   | Very high             |

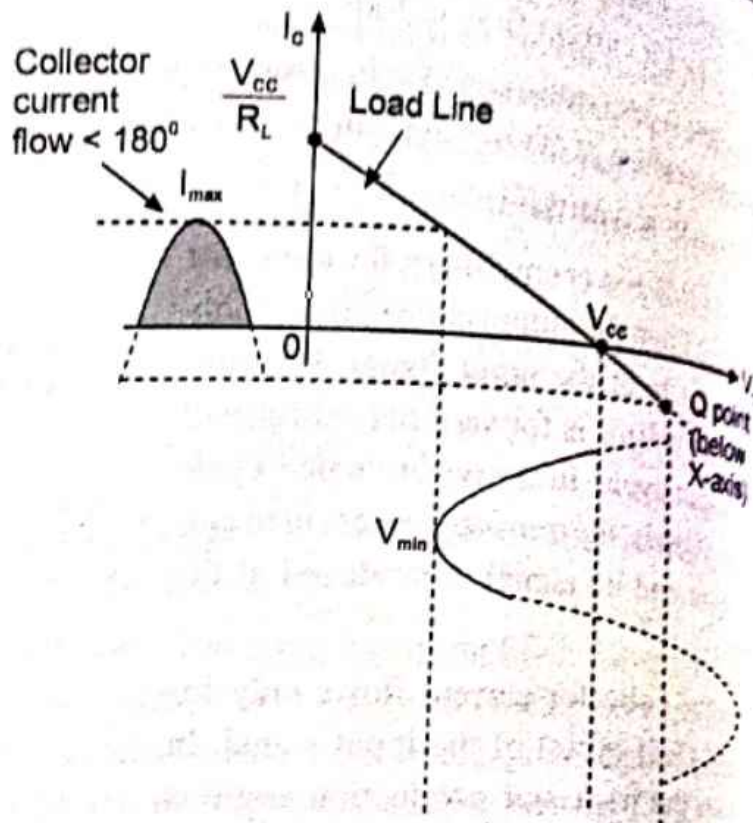


Fig. 4.15 : Class-C Operation

## 4.4 ANALYSIS OF CLASS-A AMPLIFIERS

The class-A amplifiers are further classified as

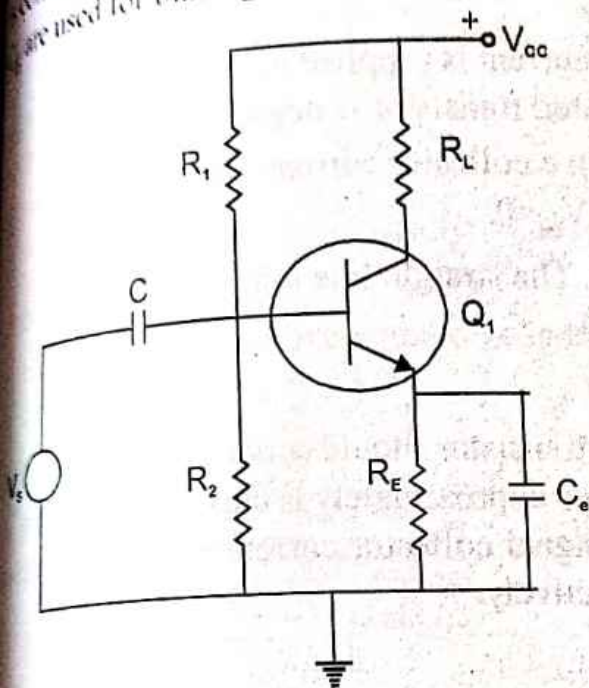
- (i) Series Fed Directly Coupled class-A Amplifiers
- (ii) Transformer Coupled class-A Amplifiers

In directly coupled type, the load is connected directly to the collector. While in the transformer coupled type, the load is coupled to the collector Through a transformer.

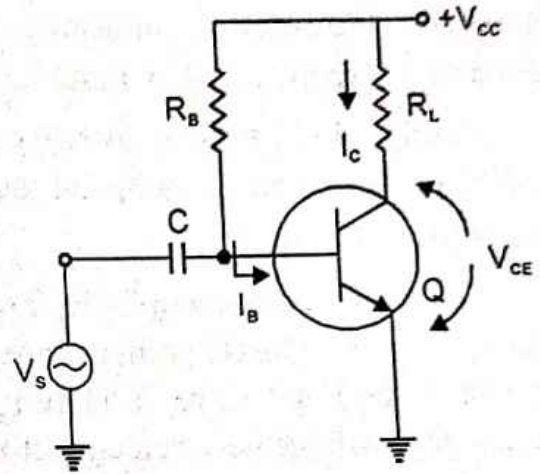


# Class A Series Fed Directly Coupled Class A Amplifiers

Fig. 4.16(a) shows a Class A series fed amplifier. It is so named because the load resistance  $R_L$  is connected directly in series with collector of the transistor  $Q$ . Resistor  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_E$  and capacitor  $C$  are used for biasing.



(a) Series Fed Directly Coupled Amplifier



(b) Schematic Diagram to Series Fed Directly Coupled Amplifier

Fig. 4.16

Fig. 4.16 (b) shows a schematic diagram of the circuit shown in Fig. 4.16 (a) where in a detailed biasing arrangement has been symbolically shown by single biasing resistance  $R_B$ .

To understand the operation of the circuit, we take help of graphical method. Fig. 4.17 shows the output characteristics (i.e.  $I_C$  Versus  $V_{CE}$ ) of the transistor  $Q$ .

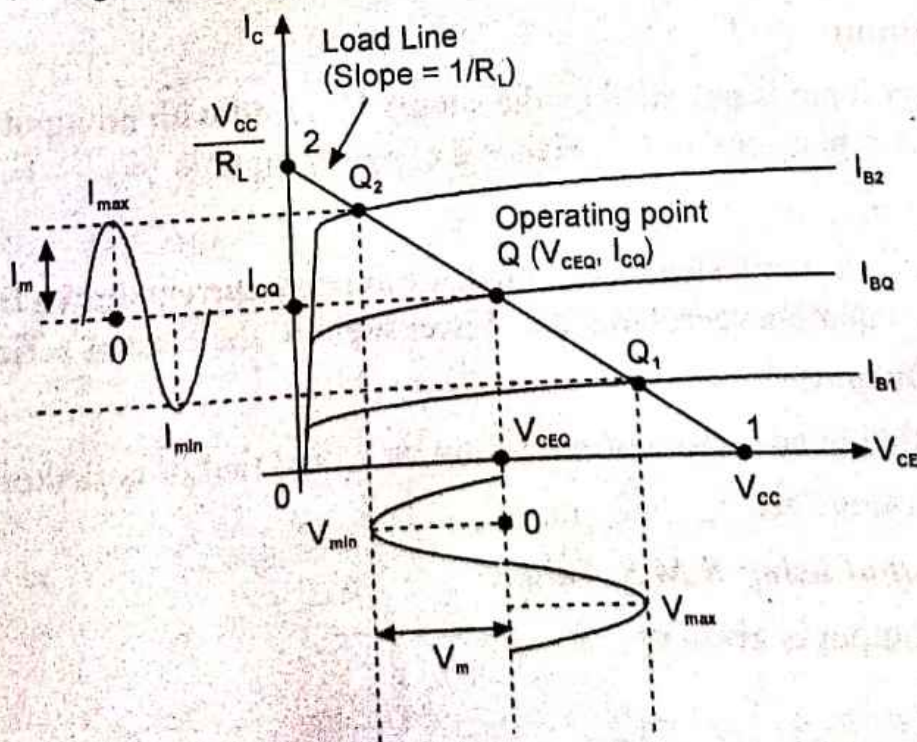


Fig. 4.17: Graphical Representation of Class A Amplifier



**(a) Drawing of Load Lines:**

When the base current  $I_b$  is zero, the collector current  $I_c$  is also equal to zero (neglecting saturation current  $I_{cs}$ ). Therefore the voltage drop across load resistance is also equal to zero, hence the collector-emitter voltage  $V_{ce}$  becomes equal to  $V_{cc}$ . Thus we get the point 1 on the  $V_{ce}$  axis which represents the condition of  $I_c = 0$  and  $V_{ce} = V_{cc}$ .

Now consider the situation when a very high base current is supplied to the transistor, of which the transistor saturates. The  $V_{ce}$  of the saturated transistor is negligible (0.1 or less) and hence the entire  $V_{cc}$  appears across  $R_L$ , resulting in a collector current  $I_{C(sat)} = V_{cc} / R_L$ . This condition is represented by Point 2, when  $I_c = I_{C(sat)}$  and  $V_{ce} = 0$ .

Points 1 and 2 represent two extreme conditions. The straight line joining these two points is called the load line. The slope of the load line is  $(1/R_L)$ .

**(b) The Q Point:**

For class-A power amplifier, it is necessary that the transistor should conduct for the full cycle of the input signal. Thus Q point (or operating point) selected approximately is the mid of load line, shown in the Fig. 4.13 as Q. Here  $I_{CQ}$  represents zero signal collector current and  $V_{CEQ}$  represents zero signal voltage between collector and emitter respectively.

**(c) Operation:**

Let us assume that the input signal applied to the amplifier is sinusoidal which results in a sinusoidal variation of base current  $I_b$ . This in turn will cause the collector current  $I_c$  and collector-emitter voltage  $V_{ce}$  to vary sinusoidally around the Q point.

When the base current goes up to a value of  $I_{b2}$ , the collector current goes up to a value of  $I_{c2}$ . Similarly when the base current goes down to a value of  $I_{b1}$ , the collector current goes down to a value of  $I_{c1}$ . Correspondingly the collector-emitter voltage are  $V_{min}$  and  $V_{max}$ , and Q point shifts new positions  $Q_2$  and  $Q_1$ .

**(d) D.C. Power Input:**

The D.C. power input is provided by the supply  $V_{cc}$ . And with no input signal, the d.c. current drawn is the collector bias current  $I_{CQ}$ . Hence d.c. power input is

$$P_{DC} = V_{CC} \cdot I_{CQ}$$

Note that even if a.c. input signal is applied, the average current drawn from the supply remains the same. Hence above equation represents d.c. power input to the class A series fed amplifier.

**(e) A.C. Power Output:**

Let the peak value of collector current swing be  $I_m$  and that of collector voltage swing be  $V_m$ . Hence their r.m.s. values are  $I_m / \sqrt{2}$  and  $V_m / \sqrt{2}$ .

**(i) A.C. Power Output using R.M.S. Values**

The a.c. power output is given by

$$P_{ac} = V_{rms} I_{rms} = I_{rms}^2 R_L = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R_L}$$



### A.C. Power Output using Maximum Values

The a.c. power output is given by

$$P_{ac} = I_{rms} \cdot I_{rms}$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \quad \dots (4.2)$$

Since  $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_L}$  the above equation can be rewritten as:

$$P_{ac} = \frac{V_m^2}{2R_L} \quad \dots (4.3)$$

or

$$P_{ac} = \frac{I_m^2 R_L}{2} \quad \dots (4.4)$$

Equation (4.3) and (4.4) represents a.c. power output using peak values.

### (iii) A.C. Power Output using Peak to Peak Values

We have from Equation (4.2)

$$P_{ac} = \frac{V_m I_m}{2}$$

But as  $V_m = \frac{V_{pp}}{2} = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{2}$  and

$$I_m = \frac{I_{pp}}{2} = \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{2}$$

we get

$$P_{ac} = \frac{\left( \frac{V_{pp}}{2} \cdot \frac{I_{pp}}{2} \right)}{2} = \frac{V_{pp} \cdot I_{pp}}{8} \quad \dots (4.5)$$

or

$$= \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})(I_{max} - I_{min})}{8} \quad \dots (4.6)$$

**(f) Efficiency:**

The efficiency of an amplifier represents the a.c. power delivered to the load from the source. The generalised expression for efficiency of an amplifier is given as

$$\% \eta = \frac{P_{ac}}{P_{IX}} \times 100$$

$$\% \eta = \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})(I_{max} - I_{min})}{8V_{cc}I_{CQ}} \times 100$$

This efficiency is also called as **conversion efficiency** of an amplifier.

**(g) Maximum Efficiency:**

From Fig. 4.13, we can see that minimum voltage possible is zero and maximum voltage is  $V_{cc}$ , for a maximum swing. Similarly the minimum current is zero and the maximum current is  $2I_{CQ}$ , for a maximum swing i.e.

$$V_{max} = V_{CC} \text{ and } V_{min} = 0$$

$$I_{max} = 2I_{CQ} \text{ and } I_{min} = 0$$

Using Equation (4.8) we can write

$$\% \eta_{max} = \frac{(V_{cc} - 0)(2I_{CQ} - 0)}{8V_{CC}I_{CQ}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{2V_{CC}I_{CQ}}{8V_{CC}I_{CQ}} \times 100 = 25\%$$

Thus the maximum efficiency possible in directly coupled series fed class-A amplifier is 25% (ideally). In a practical circuit it is less than 25%, i.e. of the order of 10 to 15%

**(h) Power Dissipation:**

The amount of power that must be dissipated by the transistor is the difference between the power input  $P_{DC}$  and the a.c. Power delivered to the load  $P_{ac}$ .

Power dissipation

$$P_d = P_{DC} - P_{ac}$$

Maximum power dissipation occurs when there is zero a.c. input signal, the a.c. power  $(P_{ac})$  is also zero.

$$P_{ac} = 0$$

Then

$$P_d = P_{DC}$$

or

$$P_d = V_{cc}I_{CQ}$$

Equation (4.11) gives the maximum power dissipation.



- Advantages :
1. The circuit is simpler to design and to implement.
  2. The load is directly connected in the collector circuit hence no output transformer is required.
- Disadvantages :
1. The load resistance is directly connected in the collector, therefore the quiescent collector current flows through it, there will be considerable power loss in the load resistance.
  2. Power dissipation is more, hence use of heat sink is essential.
  3. The efficiency is very poor due to large power dissipation.
  4. The output impedance is high so circuit can not be used for low impedance load like loud speaker.

## Transformer Coupled Class-A Amplifier

Due to load resistance  $R_L$  is directly coupled to the output circuit of amplifier the overall efficiency of transformer coupled class-A amplifier does not exceed 25%. Due to this  $I_{CQ}$  passes through  $R_L$  resistance. This current is representing a considerable waste of power  $= I_{CQ}^2 R_L$  because it does not contribute to useful ac power. This problem is solved by using a transformer as a coupling device between the output of transistor and load.

### Circuit Diagram:

Fig. 4.18 shows the basic circuit of transformer coupled amplifier. It is also called as single ended class-A amplifier because single transistor is used for amplification. The primary of the transformer, having negligible d.c. resistance, is connected in the collector circuit. The secondary of transformer is connected to load  $R_L$  (loud speaker acts as a load).

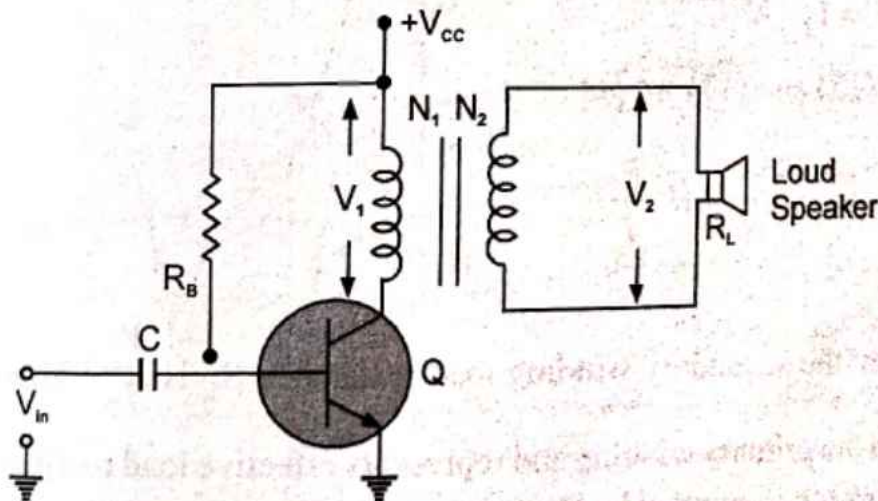


Fig. 4.18 : Transformer Class-A Amplifier

### Impedance Matching:

The function of transformer is to match the low impedance load to the high output impedance of the amplifier. Impedance matching is necessary to ensure that maximum power is transferred from the amplifier to the load.



primary to secondary. current can be changed by a transformer according to turns ratio. In addition, an impedance from either side (primary or secondary) can also be changed depending on the square of transformer ratio ( $N^2$ ).

Let us consider only the transformer and the load  $R_L$ .

As shown in Fig. 4.19 impedance  $R_L$  is connected across the transformer secondary. impedance is changed by the transformer when viewed at the primary side ( $R_L'$ ). This is explained below.

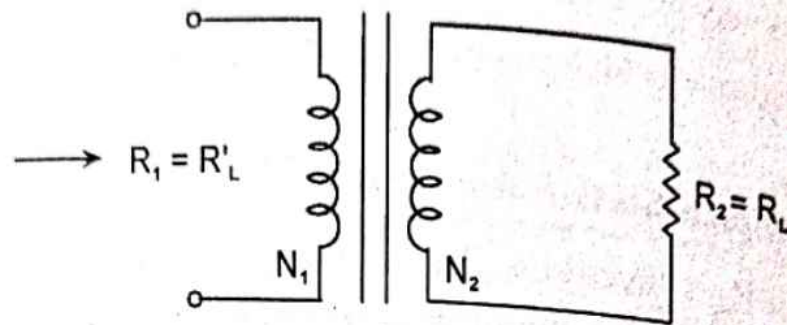


Fig. 4.19: Transformer with Load

Let the turns ratio between the primary and the secondary of the transformer be  $N$ . Therefore the voltage ratio and current ratio can be written as

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = N \text{ and } \frac{I_2}{I_1} = N \quad \left[ N = \frac{N_1}{N_2} \right]$$

Therefore,  $V_1 = N.V_2$

and  $I_1 = I_2 / N$

From Equation (12) and (13) we get

$$\frac{V_1}{I_1} = \frac{NV_2}{I_2 / N} = N^2 \frac{V_2}{I_2}$$

From ohm's law the secondary winding load resistance  $R_L$  is  $\frac{V_2}{I_2}$ . Therefore  $\frac{V_1}{I_1}$  is a kind of 'reflection' of  $R_L$  in the primary winding and represents effective load resistance on the primary side of the transformer which is denoted by  $R_L'$ .

Therefore from Equation (4.14) we can write

$$R_L' = N^2 R_L$$



where

$$N = \frac{N_1}{N_2}$$

$R_L$  = actual load resistance

$R_L'$  = resistance presented by the primary winding to the supply source.

Equation (4.15) indicates that the effective load resistance viewed at the primary side ( $R_L'$ ) appearing at the collector side of transistor is  $N^2$  times the load resistance ( $R_L$ ) connected to the secondary. In other words, the primary winding acts like a resistance equal to the load resistance across the secondary multiplied by the square of turns ratio.

Therefore by choosing proper turns ratio  $N$  we can match the actual load resistance  $R_L$  to any desired value of  $R_L'$ .

### DC Operation:

Since the primary of the transformer has negligible d.c. resistance ( $0 \Omega$ ), There will be no voltage drop across the primary winding of the transformer under quiescent condition.

The slope of d.c. load line is given as reciprocal of the d.c. resistance in the collector circuit. The d.c. resistance in this case is zero. Hence slope of d.c. load line will be infinite (ideally). In other words the d.c. load line in ideal condition is a vertically straight line.

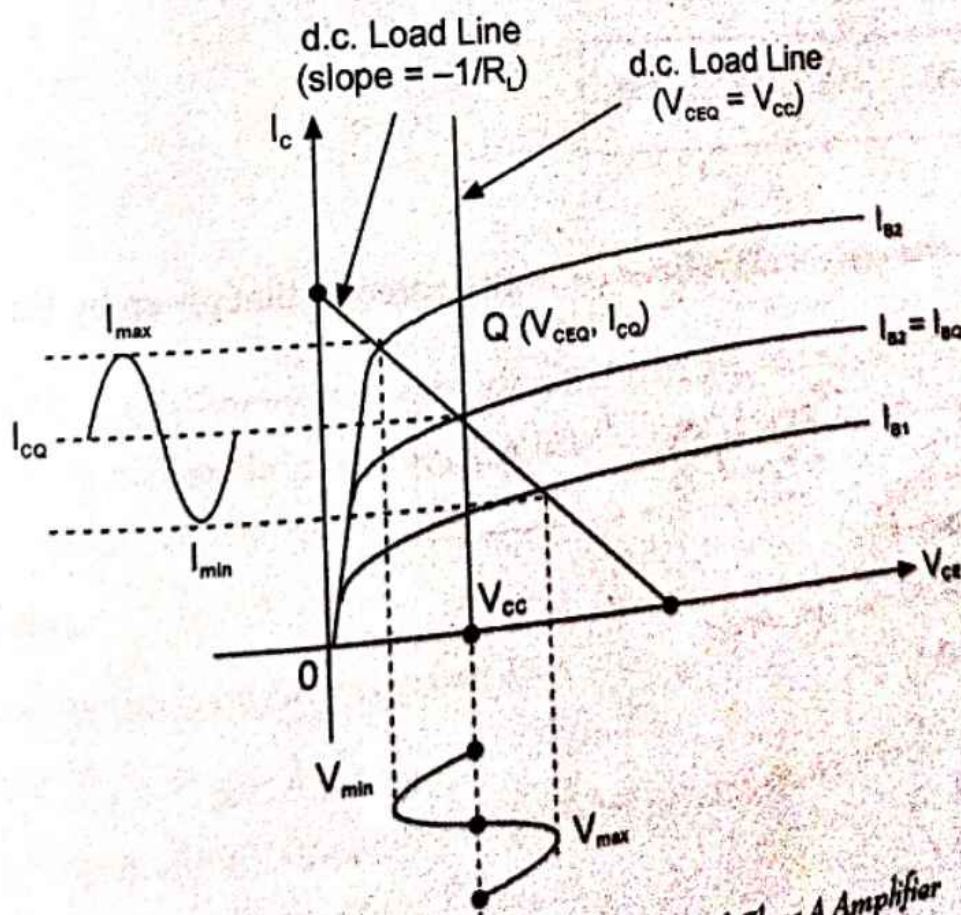


Fig. 4.20 : Load lines for Transformer Coupled Class A Amplifier



#### (d) DC Power Input:

The D.C. power input is given by

$$P_{DC} = V_{CC} \cdot I_{CQ}$$

This expression is same as for series fed directly coupled class A amplifier.

#### (e) AC Operation:

In class A operation the Q point is located at the centre of the load line.

The a.c. load line is obtained by drawing a line through the operating point or quiescent point (Q-point). Slope of a.c. load line is equal to

$$\left( \frac{-1}{R'_L} \right)$$

When a.c. signal is applied, collector current varies with input signal and accordingly operating point Q shift its position up and down on load line. Collector voltage varies between  $V_{max}$  and  $V_{min}$ . This varies in opposite phase to the collector current. The variation of collector voltage across the primary of the transformer due to this a.c. voltage is induced in the secondary which in turn develops a.c. power in the load.

#### AC Output Power:

Generalised expression for a.c. output power (delivered to load) for transformer coupled amplifier is same as represented by Equation (4.6) i.e.

$$P_{ac} = \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})(I_{max} - I_{min})}{8}$$

#### Efficiency :

The general expression for the efficiency is also same as that given by Equation (4.7) and (4.8) i.e.

$$\% \eta = \frac{P_{ac}}{P_{DC}} = \frac{(V_{max} - V_{min})(I_{max} - I_{min})}{8 V_{CC} \cdot I_{CQ}} \times 100$$

#### Maximum Efficiency :

Looking at Fig.4.11 we can write

$$V_{min} = 0$$

$$\text{and } V_{max} = 2 V_{CC}$$

$$I_{min} = 0$$

$$\text{and } I_{max} = 2 I_{CQ}$$



Using Equation (4.17)

$$\eta_{max} = \frac{(2V_{CC} - 0)(2I_{CQ} - 0)}{8V_{CC}I_{CQ}}$$

$$= \frac{4V_{CC}I_{CQ}}{8V_{CC}I_{CQ}} \times 100$$

$$= 50\%$$

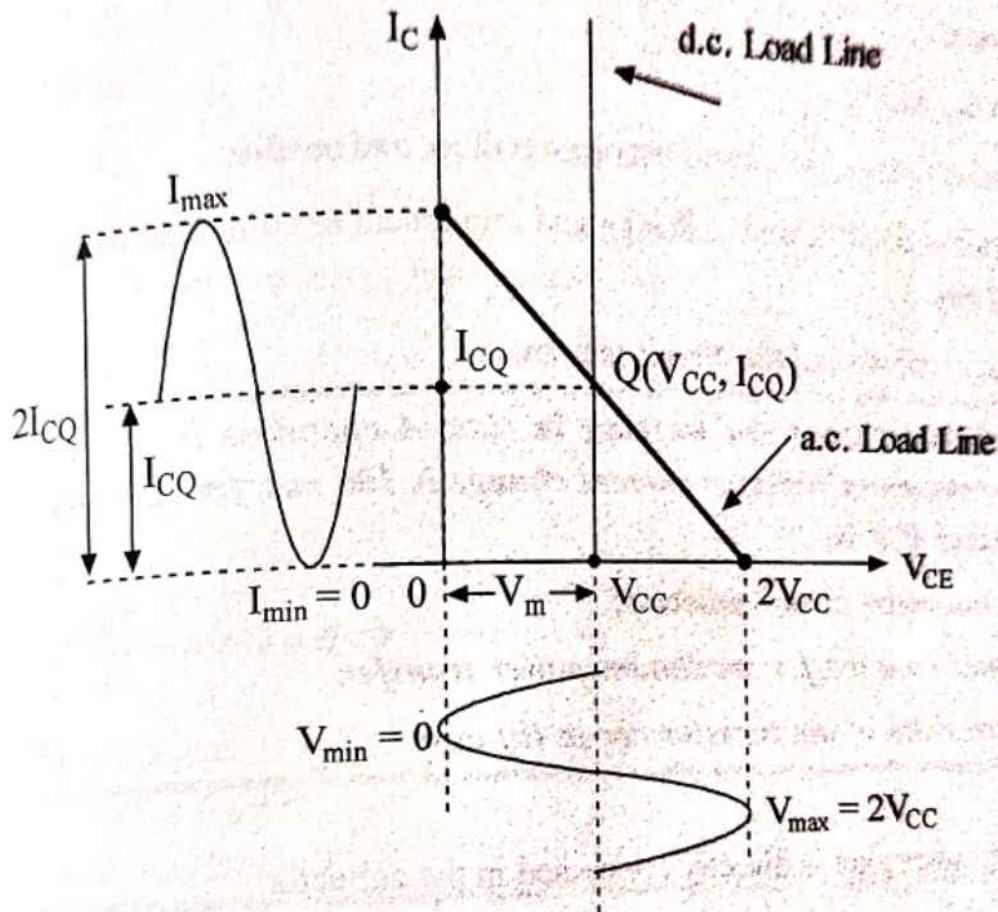


Fig.4.15 : Operating point for transformer coupled class A amplifier

Hence maximum efficiency in case of a transformer coupled class-A amplifier is 50%. For practical circuits it is about 30 to 35%.

#### (i) Power Dissipation:

Power dissipation by the transistor is given by

$$\text{Power dissipation } P_d = P_{DC} - P_{ac}$$

When there is no input signal, the entire d.c. power gets dissipated in the form of heat ( $P_{ac} = 0$ ), which is the maximum power dissipation.

...(4.18)

$$(P_d)_{max} = P_{DC} = V_{CC} I_{CQ}$$



## HARMONIC DISTORTION IN POWER AMPLIFIER

One of the important requirements of an amplifier is that the waveform of the amplified output should be enlarged but faithful reproduction of the input waveform.

However, in practice this is often not the case due to the *non-linear characteristics of transistor*. Whenever an amplifier are to handle large signals, distortion is always introduced in the output i.e. wave shape of output is never exact replica of the waveshape of the input signal. Harmonic distortion is prominent one.

Harmonic distortion means the presence of frequency components in the output waveform, which are not present in the input signal.

When an input signal is applied to a transistor, the non linear characteristics causes the positive half cycle of the signal to be amplified more than negative half cycle. Due to this the output signal contains additional frequency component and some undesired frequency components, which are integral multiple of input signal frequency. These additional frequency components are called harmonics. As the output is said to be distorted, this is called harmonic distortion.

For example if the fundamental frequency is  $f$  Hz, then the output signal contains fundamental frequency component at  $f$  Hz and additional frequency components at  $2f$  Hz,  $3f$  Hz and so on. The component is called second harmonic, the  $3f$  component is called as third harmonic and so on. The fundamental frequency component is not considered as a harmonic because it has the frequency same as the input signal.

Out of all the harmonic components, the second harmonic has the largest amplitude. As the order of the harmonic increases, its amplitude decreases. Since the second harmonic amplitude is largest, second harmonic distortion is more important in the analysis of A.F. amplifier.

### Percentage Harmonic Distortion:

The percentage harmonic distortion due to each order ( $2^{nd}$ ,  $3^{rd}$  and so on) can be calculated by comparing the amplitude of each order of harmonic with the amplitude of the fundamental frequency component.

If the fundamental frequency component has an amplitude of  $B_1$  and the  $n^{th}$  harmonic component has an amplitude of  $B_n$  then the percentage harmonic distortion due to  $n^{th}$  harmonic component is expressed as

$$\boxed{\%D_n = \frac{|B_n|}{|B_1|} \times 100} \quad \dots(4.19)$$

$$\%D_2 = \frac{|B_2|}{|B_1|}$$

$$\%D_3 = \frac{|B_3|}{|B_1|} \text{ and so on}$$



**Total harmonic Distortion:**

Total harmonic distortion,  $D$  which is the effective distortion due to all the individual components

$$\% D = \sqrt{D_2^2 + D_3^2 + D_4^2 + \dots} \times 100$$



## CLASS-A PUSH-PULL AMPLIFIER

The distortion introduced by non-linearity discussed earlier can be minimized by the circuit known as push-pull configuration. The amplifier is then known as push-pull amplifier. Fig. 4.24 shows a circuit arrangement for class-A push-pull amplifier.

Two transistor  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are used, both of these transistors are identical. Their emitters are connected together. But bases and collectors are connected to opposite ends of input and output transformers (i.e.  $T_{r1}$  and  $T_{r2}$ ). Both the transformers  $T_{r1}$  and  $T_{r2}$  are centre-tapped transformers. Resistors  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  provides biasing arrangement. Load is connected across secondary of  $T_{r2}$  (output transformer). To ensure that maximum power is delivered to the load from amplifier, turns ratio of  $T_{r2}$  is so chosen that output impedance of transistor matches to that of load impedance.

### Operation:

Looking at the Fig. 4.24,  $i_{c1}$  and  $i_{c2}$  flows in opposite direction through the primary of transformer  $T_{r2}$ . In addition  $i_{c1}$  and  $i_{c2}$  are equal in magnitude. So there is no net d.c. component of collector current in the primary of transformer  $T_{r2}$ . Hence there is no DC saturation in the transformer core. This results in increase in a.c. power output compared with single transistor operation.

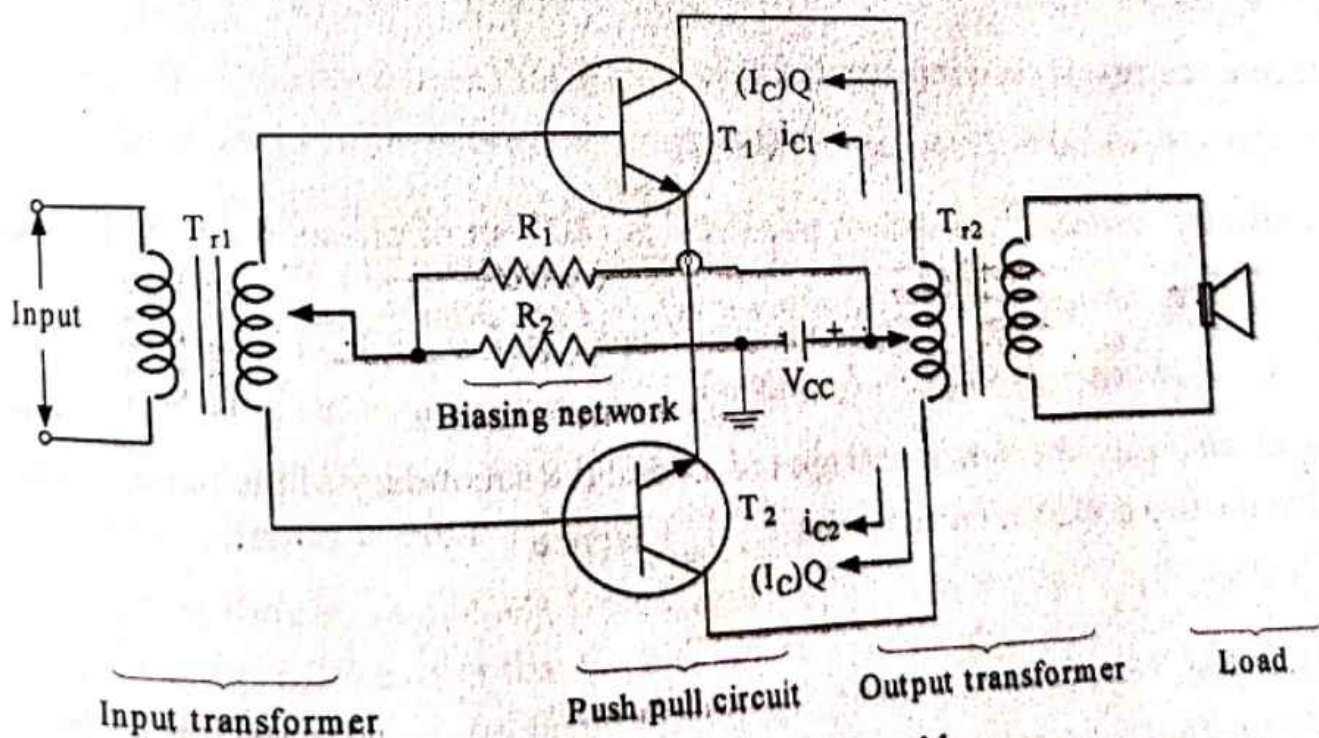


Fig. 4.24: Class-A Push-Pull Amplifier



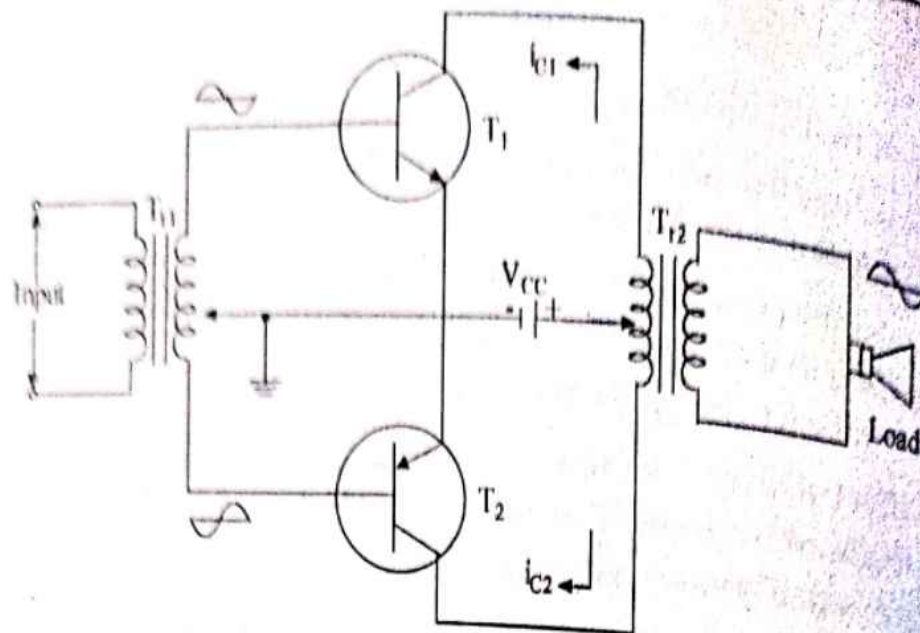
## CLASS-B PUSH-PULL AMPLIFIER

In the earlier section, we have seen that though the class-A push-pull amplifier removes some of the drawbacks of single-ended transistors coupled amplifier, but the efficiency is only limited to 50%. The class-B push-pull amplifier which we will see in this section, helps in getting higher efficiency and consequently a higher output power for a given type transistor.

**Need for Push-pull :** In class B amplifiers output current flows for only one half cycle. So either positive or negative half cycle is missing in the output. This type of output produces large distortion. To avoid this, a push-pull configuration is used. Here one transistor conducts during one half cycle and other transistor conducts during second half cycle of the input.

Fig. 4.25(a) shows the circuit of class-B push-pull amplifier. This circuit is similar to the class-A push-pull amplifier (Fig. 4.24) except that the biasing resistors  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are absent so no biasing is provided for two transistors. This is because two transistors are to work in class-B operation. In this operation, operating point is set at cut off region (on X-axis) for which no biasing is required.





(a) Class-B Push-Pull Amplifier

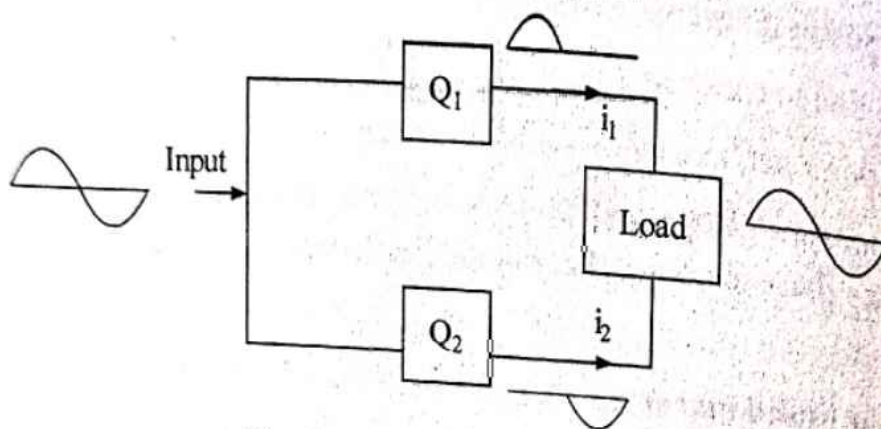


Fig. 4.25 Push-Pull Operation

### Operation:

The input transformer is a phase splitter providing two signals  $180^\circ$  out of phase, one going to the base of each transistor. When there is no signal, both the transistors are cut-off and hence no current is drawn by either of them. Thus there is no power wasted during the no signal condition.

Now let us consider that an a.c. signal ( $V_s = V_m \sin \omega t$ ) is applied at the input. During the positive half cycle of input signal i.e. when  $V_s$  goes positive, the induced voltage on the secondary of the input transformer becomes positive for the base of  $T_1$  and is negative for  $T_2$ . Thus  $T_1$  conducts during positive half cycle and during this time  $T_2$  does not conduct.

In the negative half cycle, when  $V_s$  goes negative  $T_1$  does not conduct but  $T_2$  conducts. In Fig.4.25(b) the wave shapes for  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  are shown, each remaining zero for  $180^\circ$  and conducting for next  $180^\circ$  (similar to rectified half waves). Due to transformer action the current induced in the secondary is a full wave.

### D.C. power input:

The d.c. power input to the two transistors,

$$P_{dc} = 2 \times \text{power input to the transistor} = 2[I_{dc} \times V_{cc}]$$



$$I_{dc} = \frac{I_m}{\pi} \text{ (for half wave)}$$

$$P_{dc} = \frac{2I_m V_{CC}}{\pi}$$

...(4.57)

**A.C. power output:**

The a.c. power output using peak values is expressed as

$$P_{ac} = \frac{V_m I_m}{2}$$

$$P_{ac} = \frac{I_m}{2} (V_{CC} - V_{min})$$

...(4.58)

**Efficiency:**

The efficiency of the class-B amplifier can be calculated using basic equation.

$$\% \eta = \frac{P_{ac}}{P_{dc}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\frac{I_m}{2} (V_{CC} - V_{min})}{\frac{2}{\pi} I_m V_{CC}} \times 100$$

$$\% \eta = \frac{\pi (V_{CC} - V_{min})}{4 V_{CC}} \times 100$$

...(4.59)

**Maximum efficiency:**

The maximum efficiency arises when  $V_{min} = 0$

Therefore

$$\% \eta_{max} = \frac{\pi V_{CC}}{4 V_{CC}} \times 100$$

...(4.60)

$$\% \eta_{max} = 78.5\%$$

Thus maximum possible efficiency for push-pull class-B amplifier is 78.5%. This value is more than class-A where the efficiency is maximum 50%. This increase in efficiency is due to the standing current being zero and hence no loss of power during the cut off half cycle.



## 4.8 TRANSFORMER LESS CLASS-B AMPLIFIERS

The circuit of class-B push-pull amplifier discussed earlier (Fig. 4.26) uses two transformers, one at the input and one at the output. However, transformers are costly and make the amplifier circuit heavier. We now present complimentary symmetry circuits wherein the transformers are not required.

### Complimentary symmetry circuit:

This amplifier circuit shown in Fig. 4.20 does not use an input or output transformer.

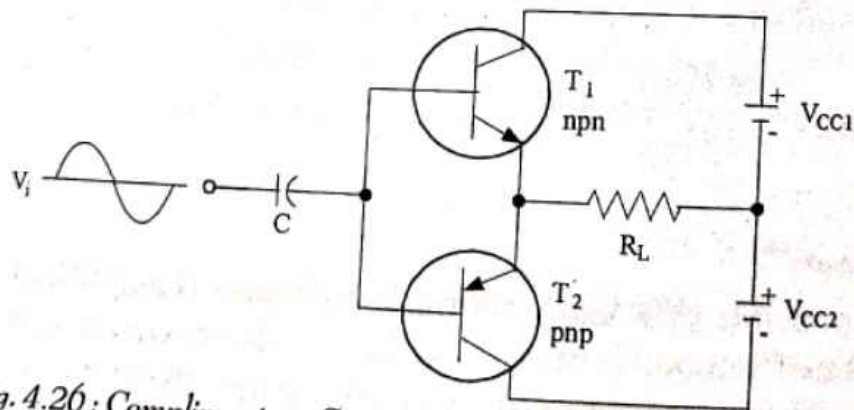


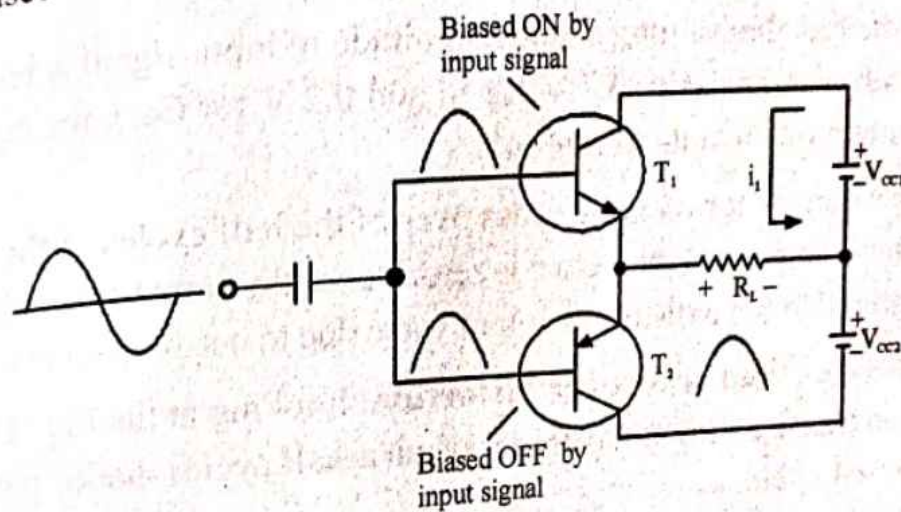
Fig. 4.26 : Complimentary Symmetry Class-B Push-Pull Amplifier



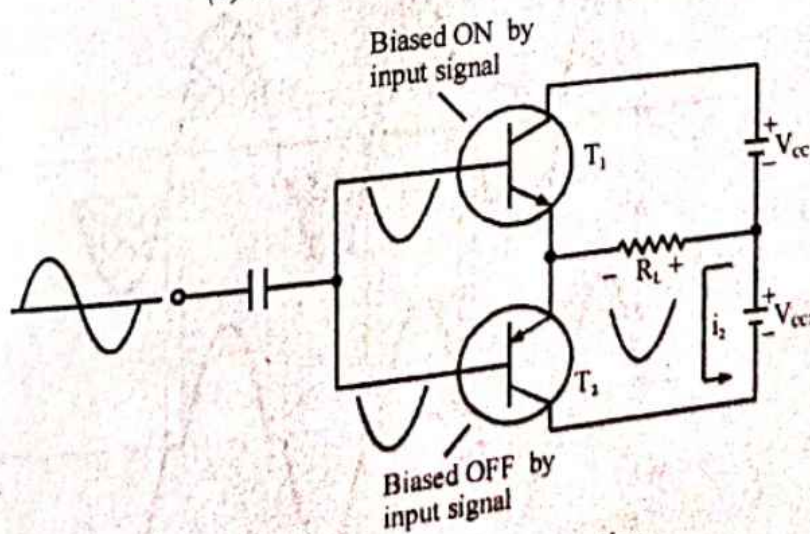
the input transformer used in push-pull amplifier circuit has the function of providing two input signals  $180^\circ$  out of phase, which makes only one transistor (either  $T_1$  or  $T_2$ ) to conduct at a time. Since these transistors (one N-P-N and other P-N-P), if we introduce same base voltage input transformer in the push-pull amplifier circuit. Perfectly matched pair of complementary transistors are available in the market.

During the positive half cycle of input signal, transistor  $T_1$  is forward biased and therefore it conducts, while  $T_2$  (P-N-P) is reverse biased and therefore does not conduct. This results into positive half cycle across the load  $R_L$ , this is shown in Fig. 4.27.

During the negative half cycle of input signal, i.e. only  $T_2$  conducts and  $T_1$  (N-P-N) is reverse biased and therefore does not conduct. This results into negative half cycle across load  $R_L$ .



(a) Positive Half Cycle Operation



(b) Negative Half Cycle Operation

Fig. 4.27 : Operation of complementary symmetry class B push-pull amplifier

Thus the current  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  flow in one half cycle each but flow through  $R_L$ . Therefore the total current through  $R_L$  is in both half-cycles.



Following are the advantage and disadvantages of this circuit :

**Advantages :**

- (i) As the circuit is transformerless, its weight, size and cost are less.
- (ii) The frequency response improves due to transformerless circuit.

**Disadvantages :**

- (i) The circuit needs two separate voltage supplies. ( $V_{cc1}$  and  $V_{cc2}$ )
- (ii) The output is distorted to cross over distortion, i.e. during the cross over from positive to negative both the transistors are OFF, resulting in no output signal.

#### 4.9 CROSSOVER DISTORTION

Cross over distortion in output signal refers to the fact that during the time when input signal crosses over from positive to negative (or negative to positive), there is some non-linearity in output signal.

This is due to the fact that as long as the magnitude of input signal is less than cut-in voltage of base emitter junction of transistor (0.7 V for Si and 0.2 V for Ge), the collector current remains zero, and transistor remains in cut-off region.

Hence there is a period between the cross over of the half cycles of the input signal, for which none of the transistor is active and the output is zero. Hence the output signal does not follow the input signal and gets distorted. Such a distorted output wave due to cut-in voltage is shown in Fig. 4.28.

Such a distortion is called **cross over distortion**. Looking at the Fig. 4.28 it is seen that during cross over distortion transistor conducts for less than a half cycle (shaded portion in Fig. 4.22) rather than the complete half cycle.

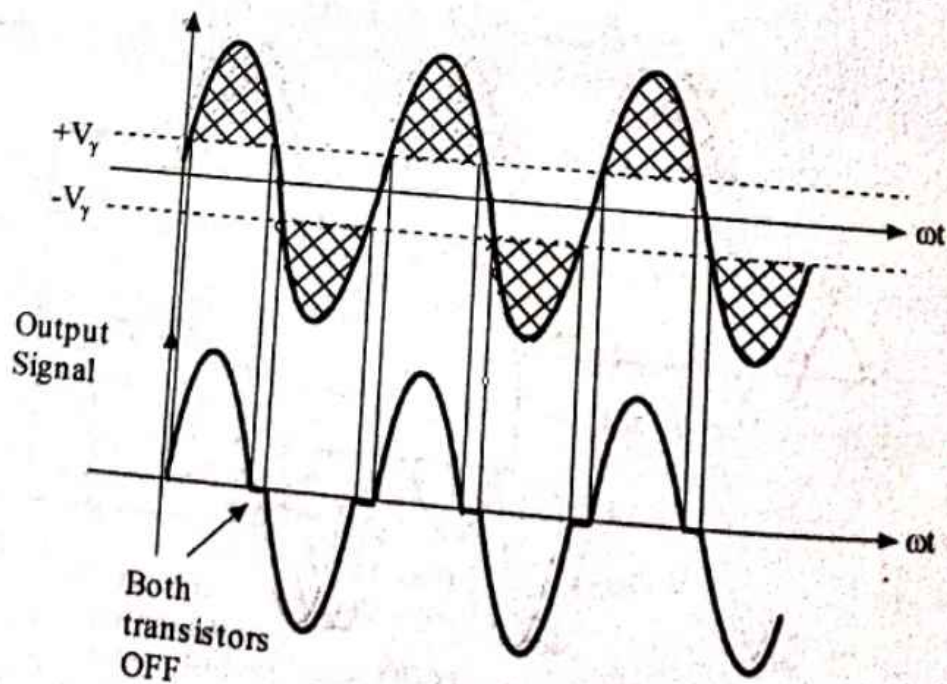


Fig. 4.28: Cross Over Distortion in Class-B Amplifiers

Crossover distortion is eliminated in class-AB amplifiers where both the transistors are biased to be ON for more than half a cycle.



### 4.11 CLASS-AB AMPLIFIER

In class-B amplifier, distortions are introduced due to cross over distortion, mismatch of  $\beta$  and non-linearity of input and output characteristics. These distortions can be reduced by some modification. The basic reason for cross over distortion is the cut-in voltage of the junction. To overcome this cut-in voltage, a small forward bias equal to cut-in voltage is applied to both the transistors. So that when an a.c. signal is applied to the base, collector circuit starts immediately i.e. no crossover distortion. So in class-AB mode, the base bias during quiescent state is such that current flows for more than  $180^\circ$  (class-B) but less than  $360^\circ$  (class-A) and hence name class-AB. Class-AB amplifier gives less distortion than class-B but efficiency is less than class-B.

### 4.12 CLASS C AMPLIFIERS

A basic class C amplifier with tank circuit as load is shown in Fig. 4.24. A class C power amplifier is biased to operate for less than  $180^\circ$  of the input signal cycle. The tuned circuit in the output however, will provide a full cycle of output signal for the fundamental or resonant frequency of the tuned circuit (L and C tank circuit) of the output.

The use of such amplifiers is therefore limited for a fixed frequency, as occurs in communication circuits. Operation of a class C circuit is not intended primarily for large signal or power amplifiers.

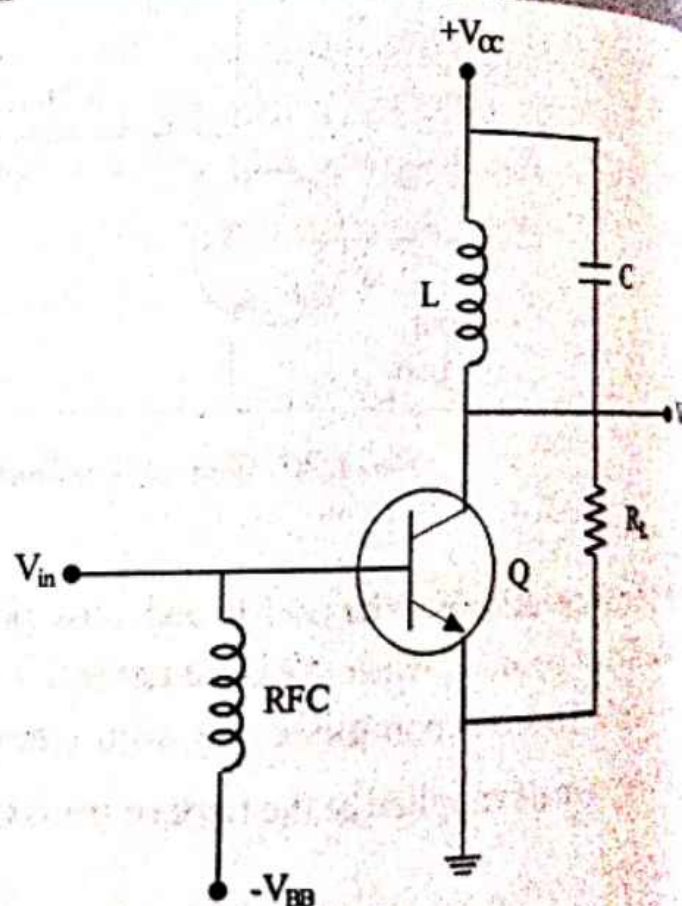


Fig. 4.30: Class C power amplifier