

# EE 230

## Lecture 6

- Linear Systems
  - Poles/Zeros
  - Stability
- Circuit Analysis (Review)
- Amplifiers

# Quiz 5

A system has the transfer function  $T(s)$   
Determine the poles of the system.

$$T(s) = \frac{2 + \frac{1}{s}}{6 + s + \frac{8}{s}}$$

And the number is ?

1

3

8

5

4

2

6

9

7

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1

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**4**

7

## Quiz 5

A system has the transfer function  $T(s)$   
Determine the poles of the system.

$$T(s) = \frac{2 + \frac{1}{s}}{6 + s + \frac{8}{s}}$$

Solution:

$$T(s) = \frac{2 + \frac{1}{s}}{6 + s + \frac{8}{s}} = \frac{2\left(s + \frac{1}{2}\right)}{s^2 + 6s + 8}$$

$$T(s) = \frac{2\left(s + \frac{1}{2}\right)}{s^2 + 6s + 8} = \frac{2\left(s + \frac{1}{2}\right)}{(s + 2)(s + 4)}$$

Poles at  $s = -2$  and  $s = -4$

## Review from Last Time

For a linear network with a finite number of lumped elements,  $T(s)$  can always be expressed as a rational fraction in  $s$  with real coefficients

$$T(s) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m a_k s^k}{\sum_{k=1}^n b_k s^k}$$

This can be equivalently expressed in factored form as

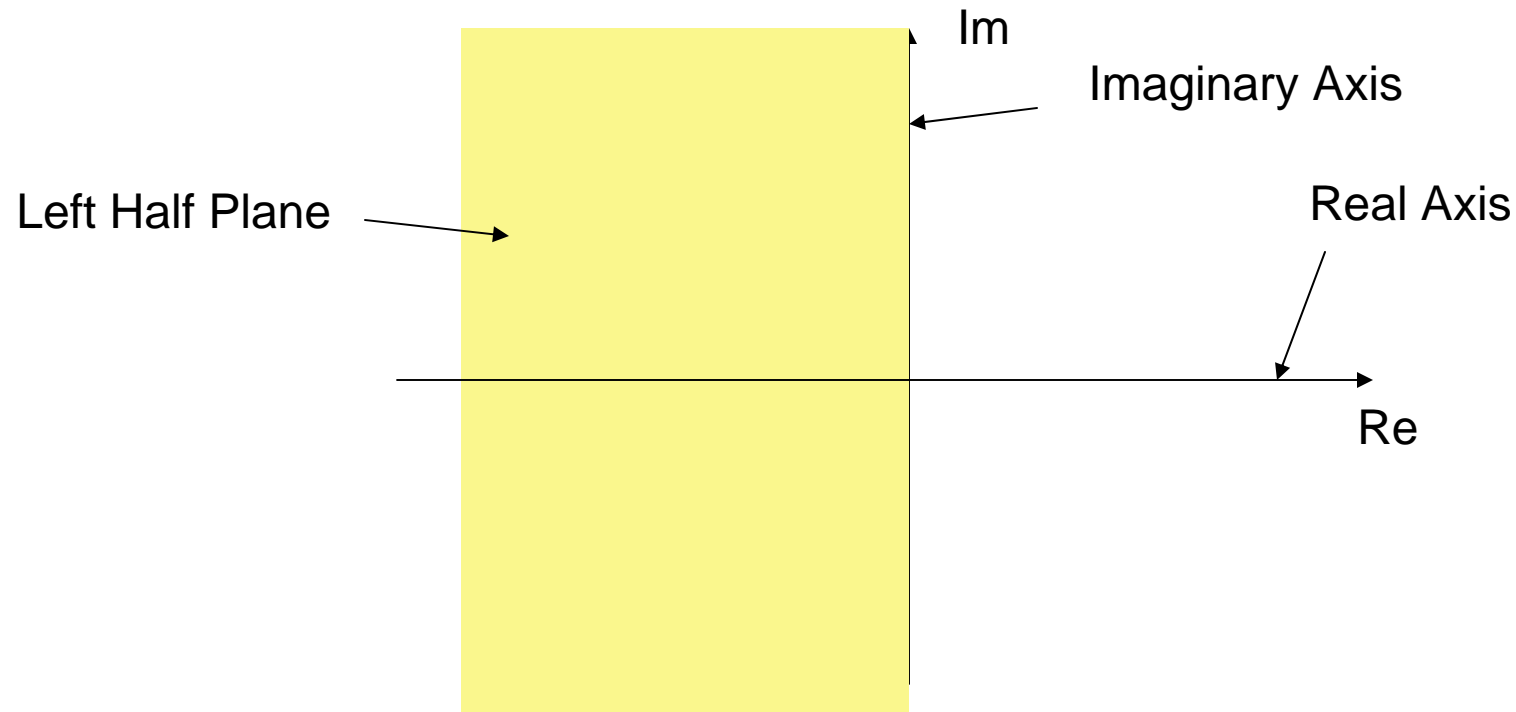
$$T(s) = H \frac{\prod_{k=1}^m (s - z_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^n (s - p_k)}$$

$\{z_k \ k = 1 \dots m\}$  termed the zeros of  $T(s)$

$\{p_k \ k = 1 \dots n\}$  termed the poles of  $T(s)$

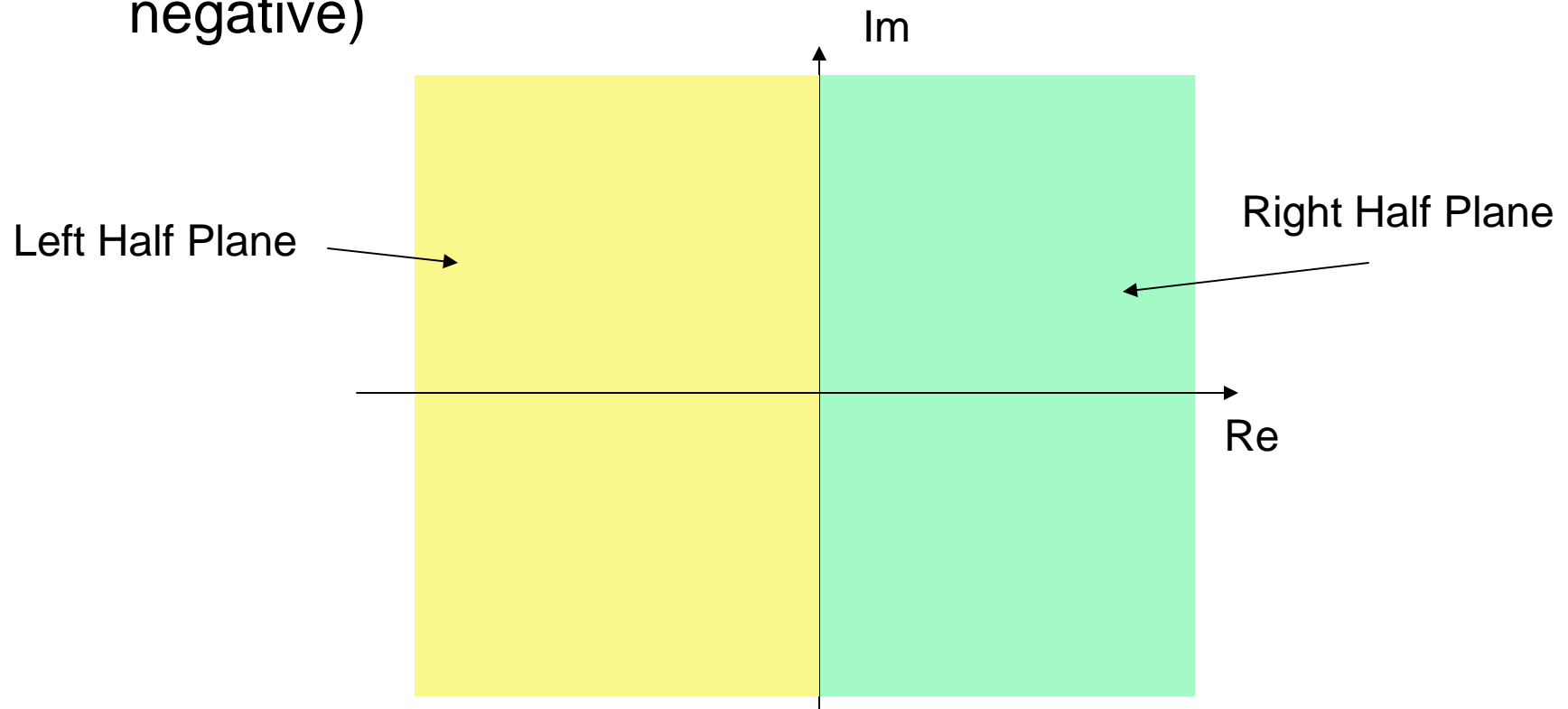
# Review from Last Time

Any network comprised of R's, C's, and L's will have poles in the left half-plane (real part of all poles is negative)



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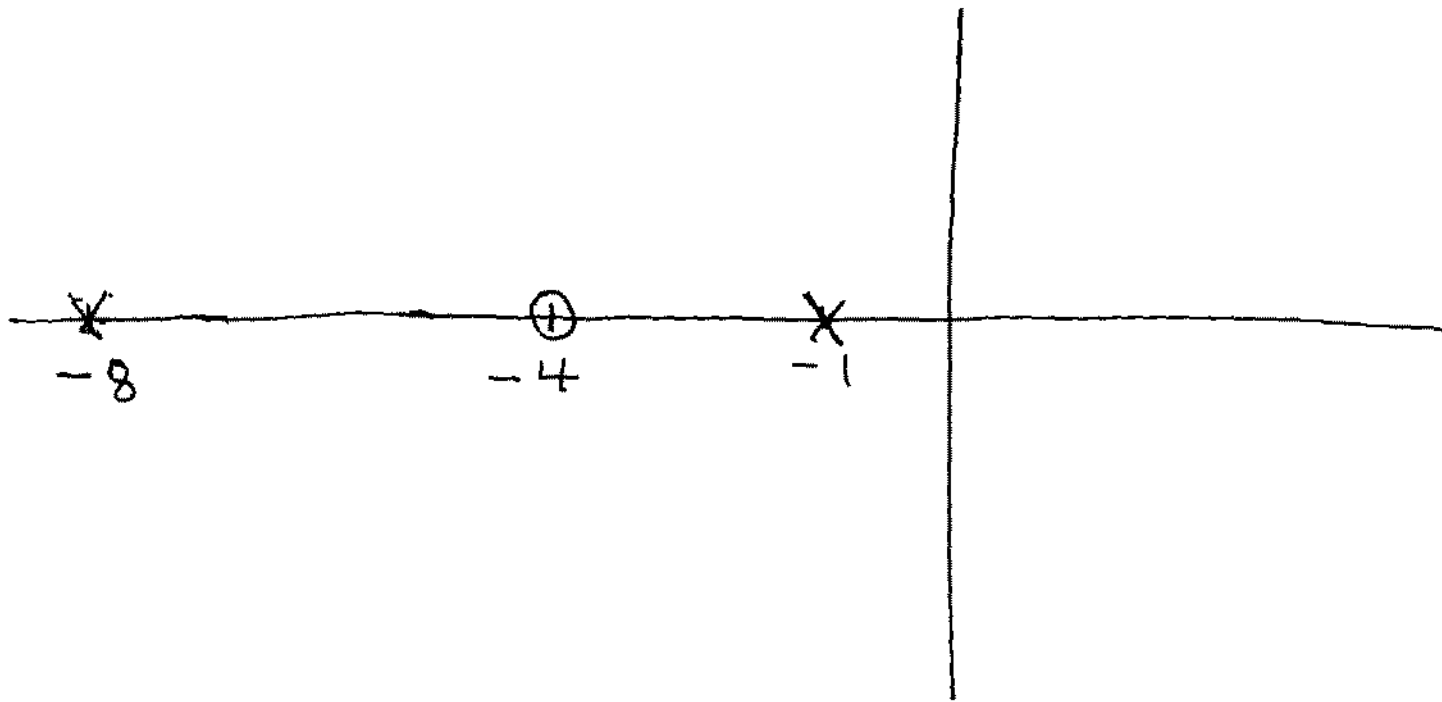




# Pole - Zero Plots

- Plots of the poles and zeros in the complex plane ( $\times \rightsquigarrow$  poles,  $\circ \rightsquigarrow$  zeros)

Example:  $Z = -4$ ,  $P_1 = -1$ ,  $P_2 = -8$



Example  $T(s) = \frac{s-1}{s^2+2s+2}$

Determine poles and zeros and plot in complex plane

$$z_1 = 1$$

$$p = ?$$

$$s^2 + 2s + 2 = 0 \Rightarrow s = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{2^2 - (4)(2)}}{2}$$

$$s = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{-4}}{2}$$

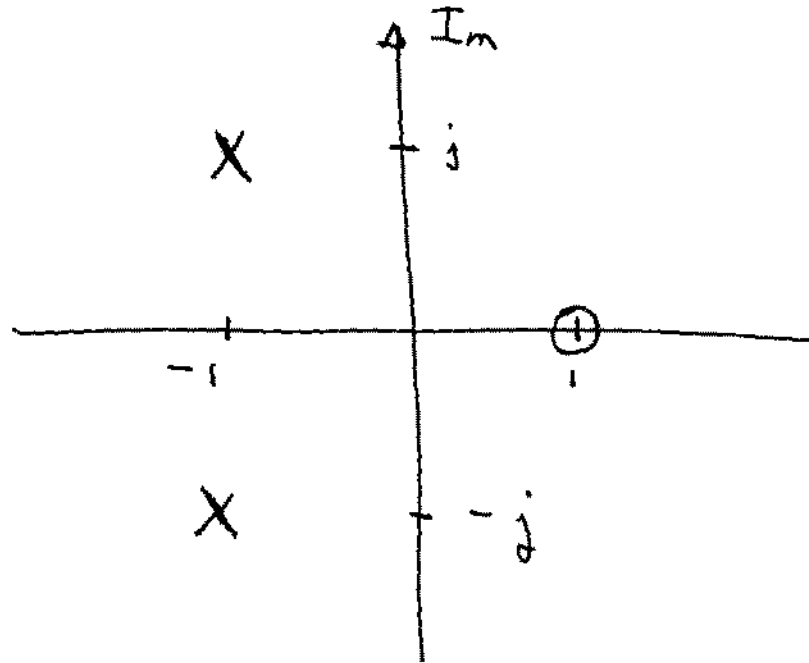
$$s = -1 \pm j$$

$$S = -1 \pm j$$

$$P_1 = -1 + j$$

$$P_2 = -1 - j$$

$$Z_1 = 1$$



Example:  $T(s) = \frac{4s+1}{s^5 + s^4 + 2s^3 + 3s^2 + 2s + 1}$

Zeros:  $\left\{-\frac{1}{4}\right\}$

poles: - 5 in number

- closed form expression does not exist for polynomials of order 5 or higher

Theorem: A system is stable iff  
all poles lie in the left half-plane

What is "stable" ?

- A linear system is stable iff any bounded input will result in a bounded output
- A system is stable iff the output due to any appropriately small input does not cause the output to go to  $\pm \infty$  and does not create an output that persists indefinitely

Examples:

$$T(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

pole at  $p = -1$

$\therefore$  system is stable

step response :  $r(t) = F + (I-F)e^{-t/\tau} = e^{-t}$

$$T(s) = \frac{1}{s-1}$$

pole at  $p = 1$

$\therefore$  system is unstable

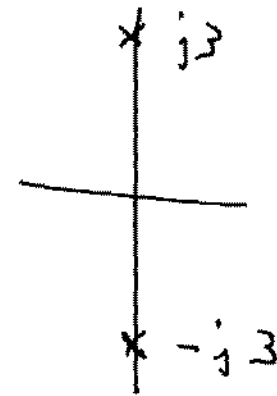
It can be shown that the step response is

$$r(t) = e^t$$

$r(t)$  diverges to  $\infty$  !

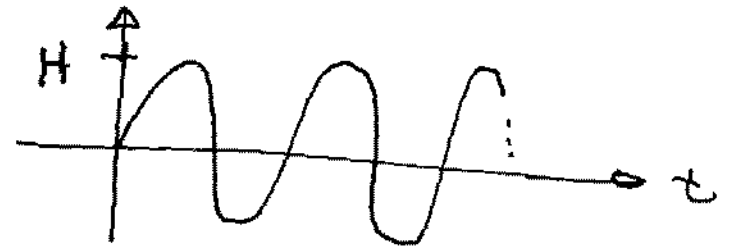
Example:  $T(s) = \frac{4}{s^2 + 9}$

Poles:  $\{-j3, +j3\}$



It can be shown that the step response will include a term

$$r(t) = H \sin 3t$$



$\therefore$  Output persists indefinitely

Is stability good or bad?

- depends on what is desired

Is instability good or bad?

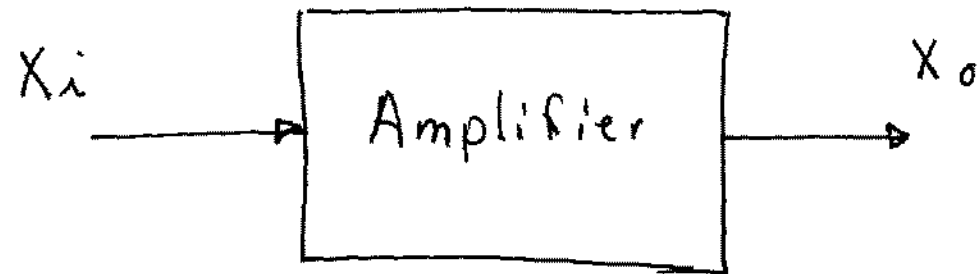
- depends upon what is desired



**End of Lecture 6**

Amplifiers

# Amplifiers



An ideal amplifier is linear and has a frequency independent transfer function that does not change with source or load impedance.

Ideally:  $X_o = K X_i$

$K$  is termed amplifier gain

$K = T(s)$ . Often  $K > 1$

# Types of Amplifiers

(variables of interest  $\{v, i\}$ )

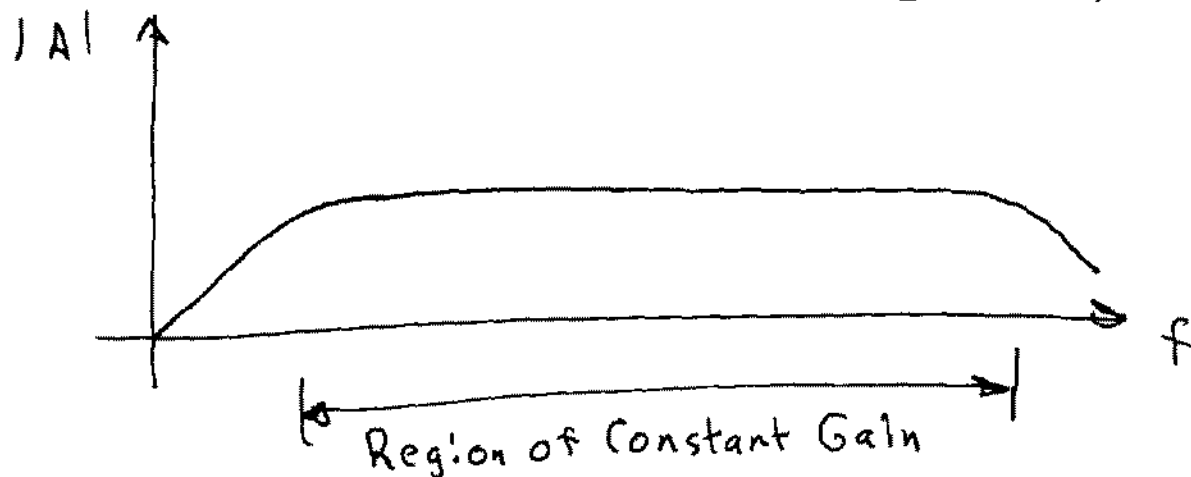
| Input | Output | Type             | Dimensions    |
|-------|--------|------------------|---------------|
| V     | V      | Voltage          | Dimensionless |
| I     | I      | Current          | "             |
| V     | I      | Transconductance | A/V           |
| I     | V      | Transresistance  | $\Omega$      |

Amplifiers are generally not ideal  
(but can be nearly ideal)

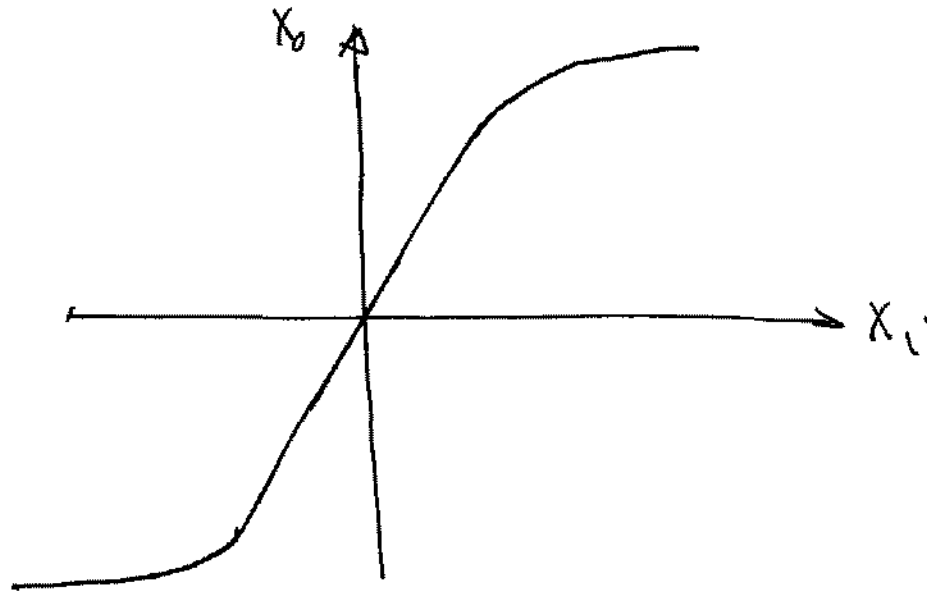
- Gain can be frequency dependent

$$\frac{X_o}{X_i} = K \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{X_o}{X_i} = A(s)$$

- for good practical amplifiers,  
 $A(s)$  will be nearly constant over  
a wide frequency range



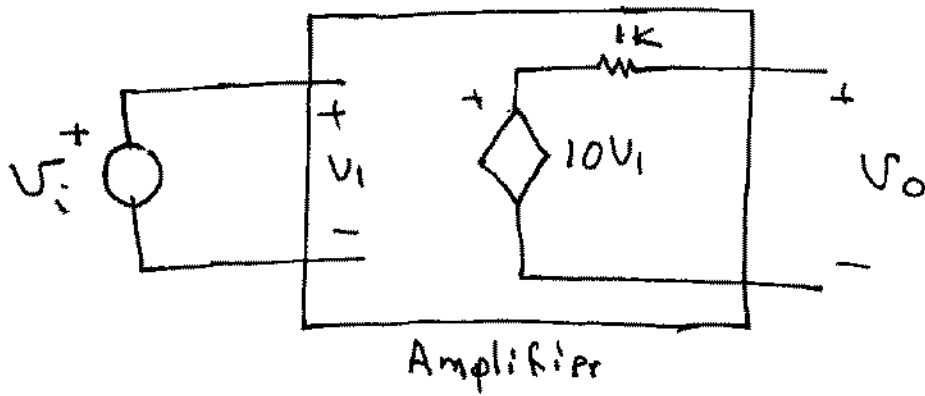
- The amplifier will display some nonlinearity



For a practical amplifier, the output range over which the amplifier is linear or nearly linear can be quite large

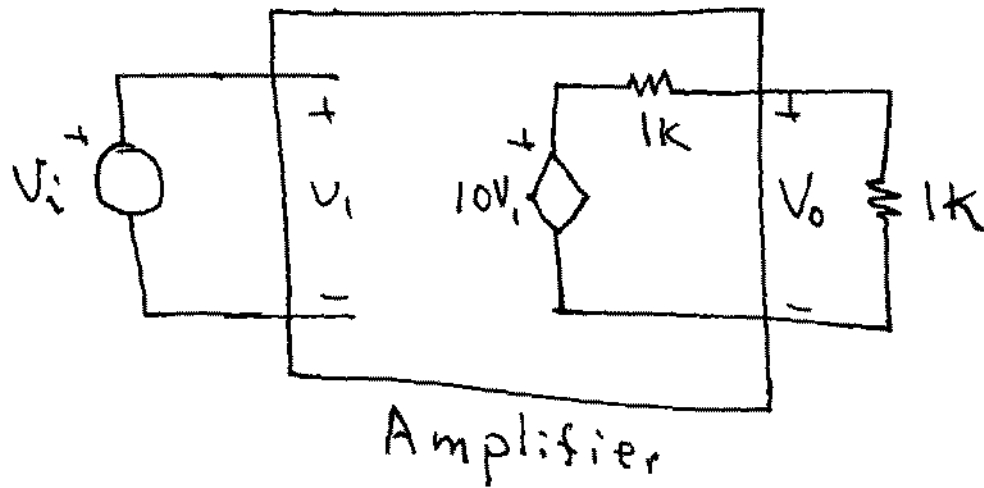
- The input and output impedances may not be ideal

Example: Voltage Amplifier, ideally  $V_o = KV_i$



$$V_o = 10V_i \quad \text{😊}$$

$$\text{Gain} = 10$$



$$V_o = \left( \frac{1k}{1k+1k} \right) 10V_i$$

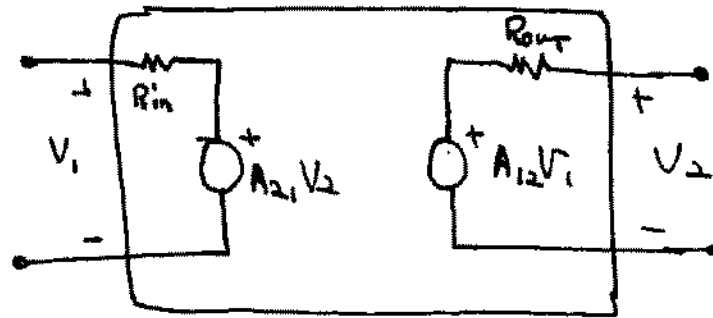
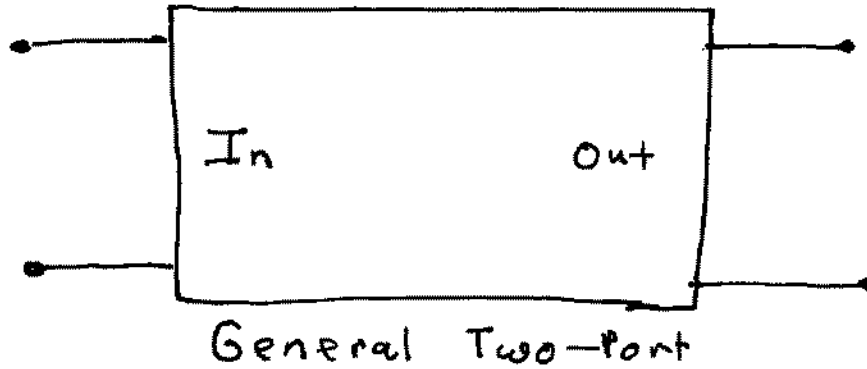
$$V_o = 5V_i$$

Gain dependent  
upon Load





# Amplifiers are Two-Port Networks



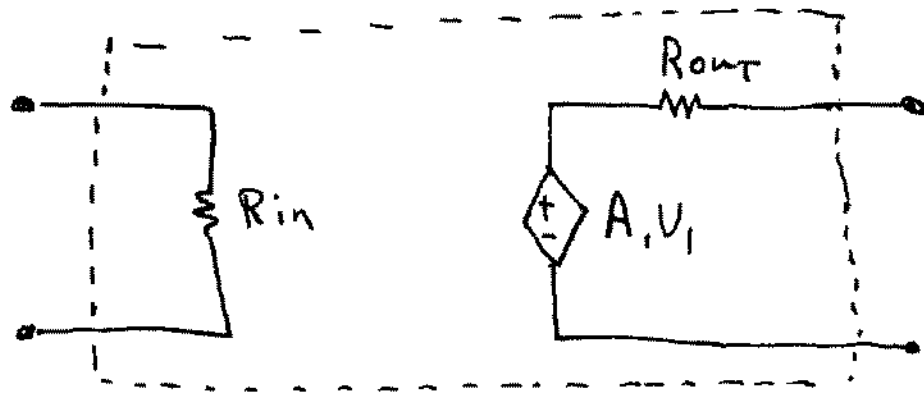
Linear Two-Port  
Model

$R_{in}$ : input impedance

$R_{out}$ : output impedance

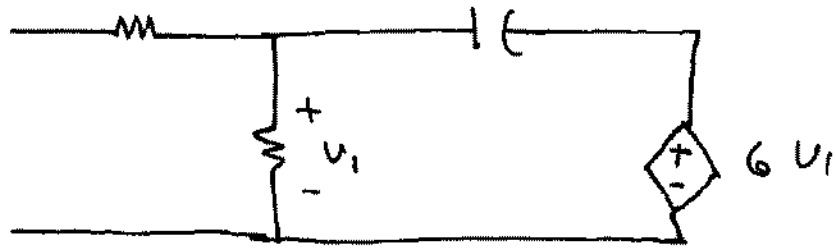
# Amplifiers Ideally Unilateral

- Signals propagate in only one direction

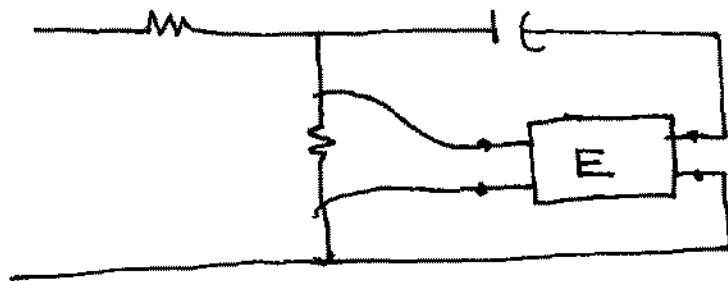


- Dependent sources discussed in EE 201 were actually two-ports but this terminology may not have been used.
- Dependent sources used in SPICE are two-ports
- Dependent sources are amplifiers.

# Dependent Source Representation from EE 201



## Two-port Representation of Dependent Source



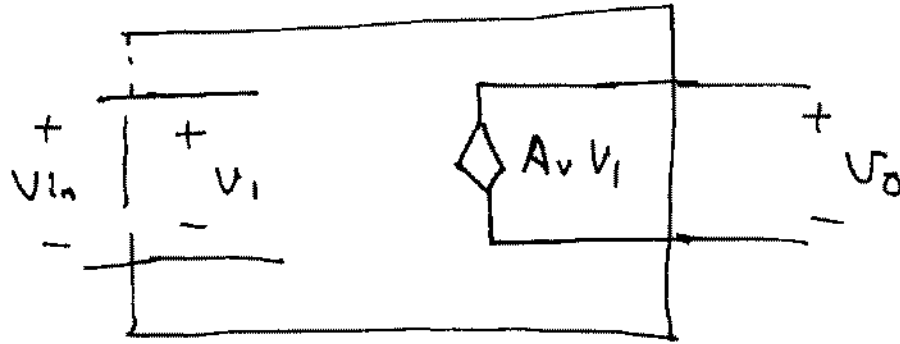
Consider 4 basic Amplifiers

- 1) Voltage
- 2) Current
- 3) Transconductance
- 4) Transresistance

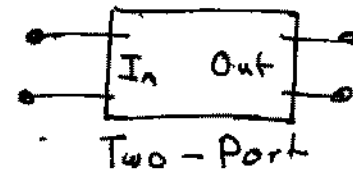
- Why so many different amplifier types?
  - because we can have them?
  - some transducers have output variables different than what is needed
  - sometimes perf. can be optimized by using a particular amplifier type
- If the amplifiers are not ideal, they are all functionally the same

# Voltage Amplifier

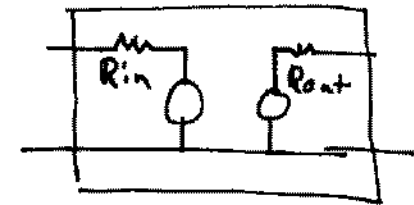
Ideal



- Note this is a two-port



- Both ports can be represented as a Thevenin equivalent circuit



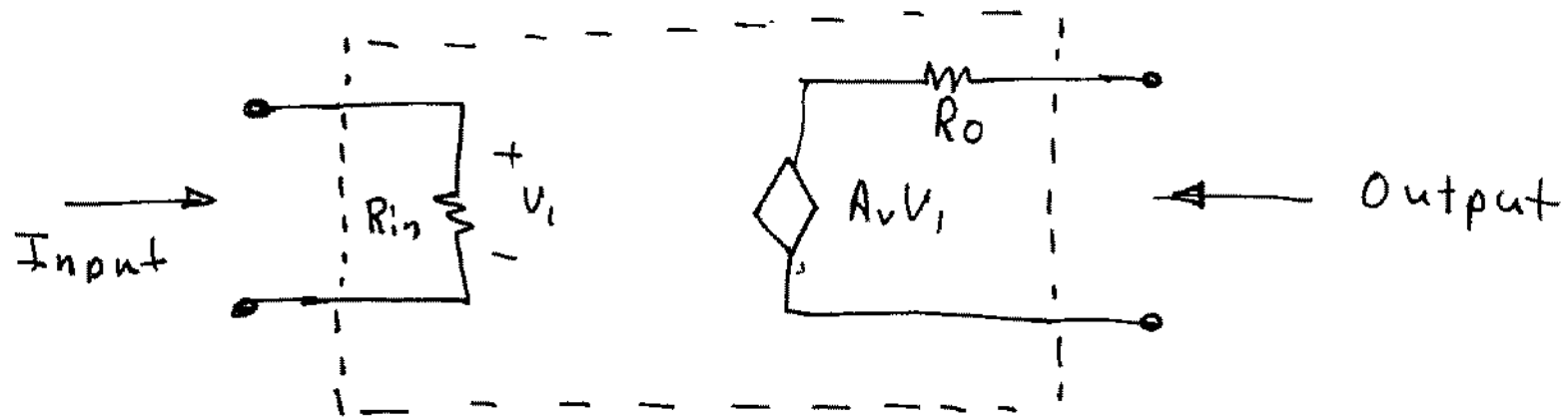
$R_{in} \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} \text{Thevenin impedance at input port}$

$R_{out} \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} \text{Thevenin impedance at output port}$

For ideal voltage amplifier

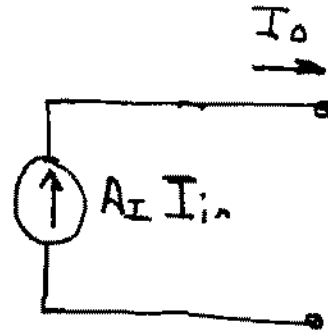
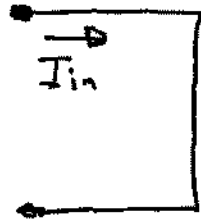
$$R_{in} = \infty, R_{out} = 0$$

# Practical Voltage Amplifier



# Current Amplifier

Ideal

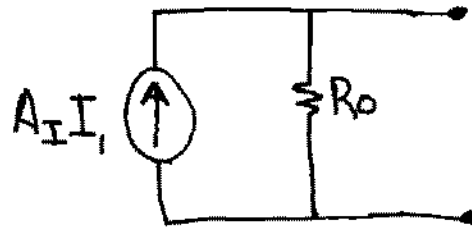
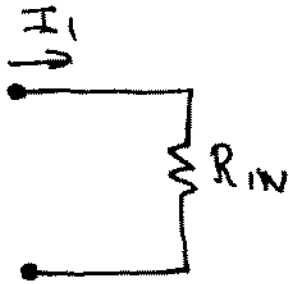


$$R_{in} = 0$$

$$R_{out} = \infty$$

$$\frac{I_o}{I_{in}} = A_I$$

Practical

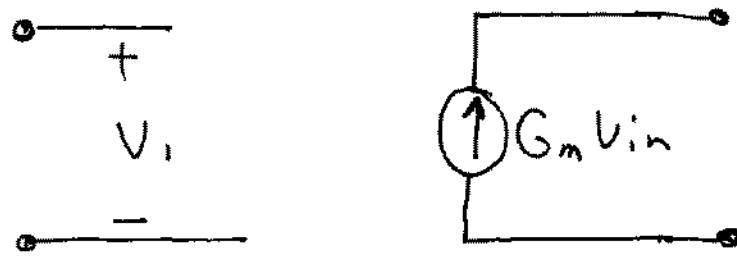


Note: Norton equivalent shown on output port



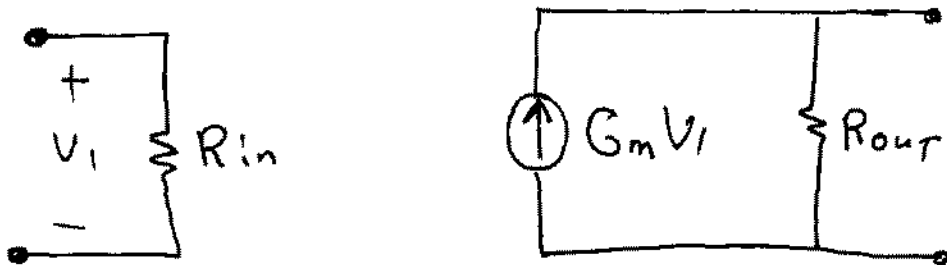
# Transconductance Amplifier

Ideal



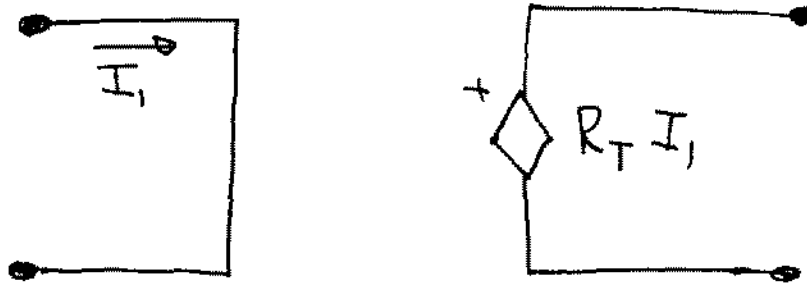
$$R_{in} = \infty, R_{out} = \infty$$

Practical



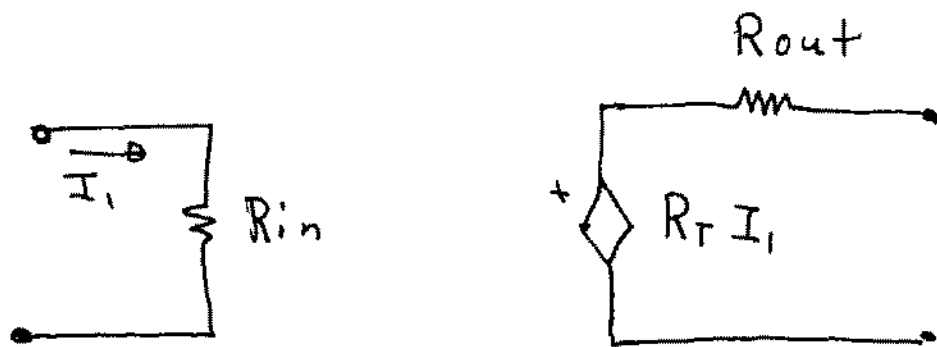
# Transresistance Amplifier

Ideal



$$R_{IN} = 0 \quad R_{OUT} = 0$$

Practical

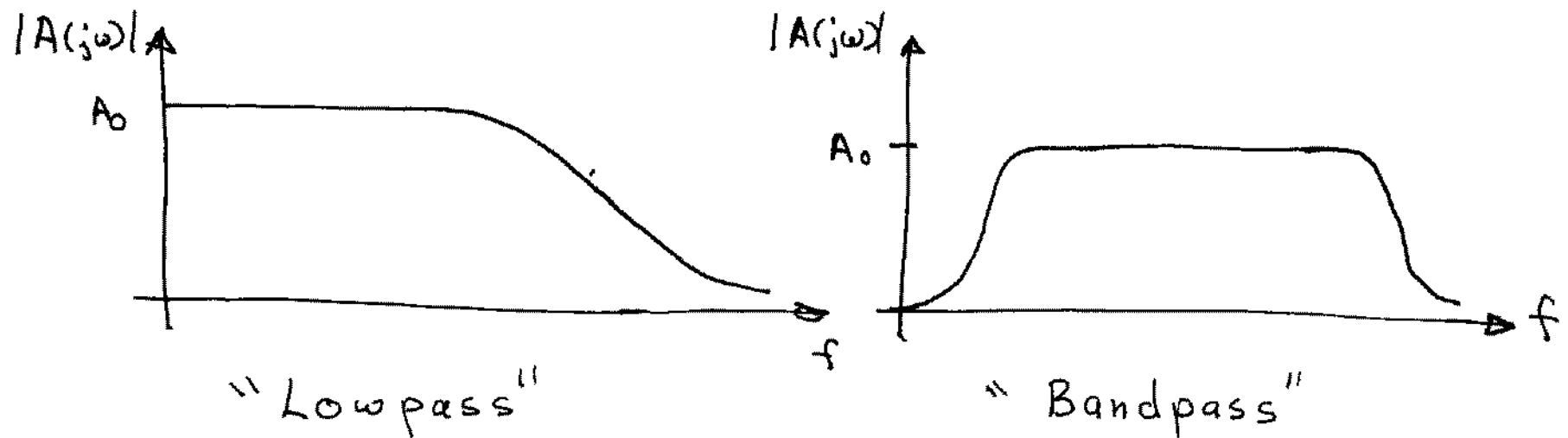


# Ideal Port Impedances

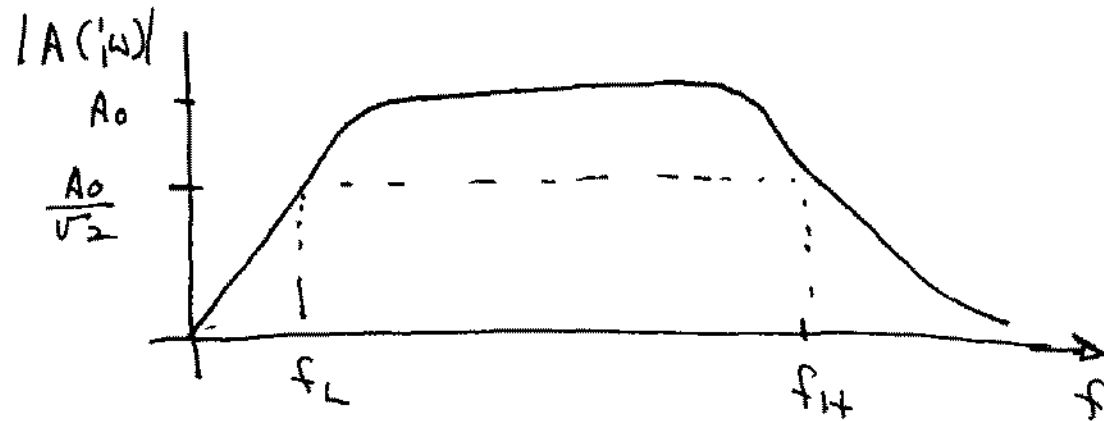
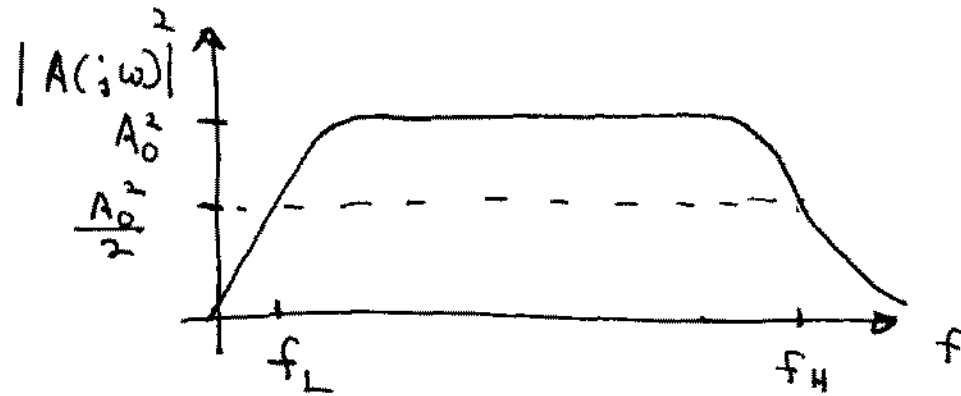
|           |          |          |          |
|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
|           |          | $R_{IN}$ |          |
|           |          | 0        | $\infty$ |
| $R_{OUT}$ | 0        | $R_T$    | $A_V$    |
|           | $\infty$ | $A_I$    | $G_m$    |

# Frequency Response of Amplifiers

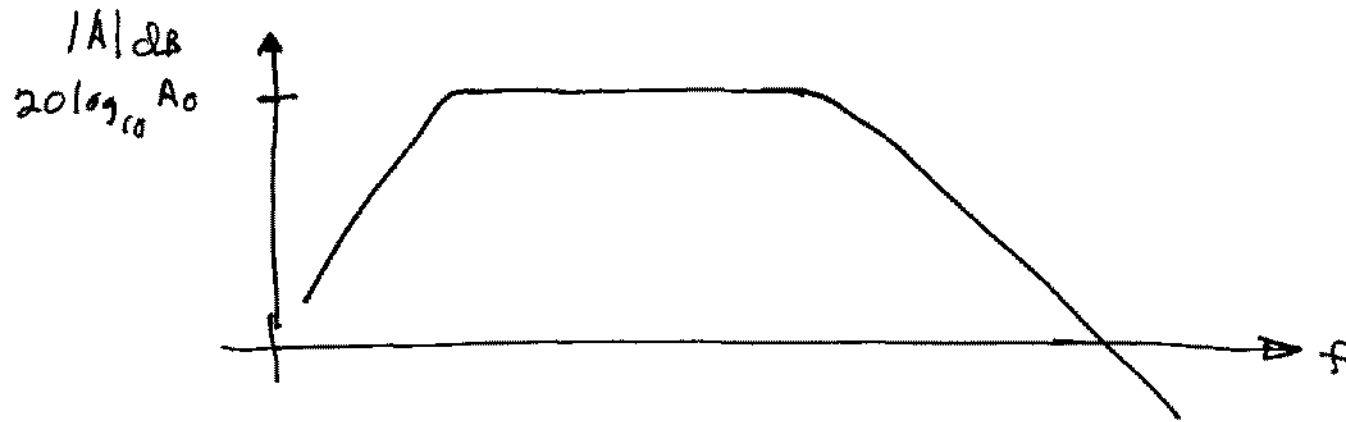
- In a region of interest, amplifiers behave linearly and can be modeled by a transfer function  $A(s)$
- All amplifiers exhibit a roll-off in gain at high frequencies and some also a rolloff at low frequencies



Half-power frequency is frequency where output power drops to  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the peak output power.



## 3-dB frequency notation

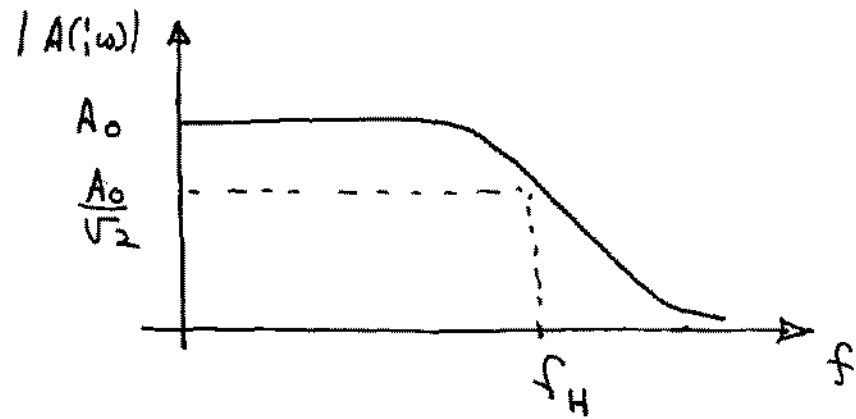


$$\begin{aligned} 20 \log_{10} A_0 - 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{2}} \right) &= 20 \log_{10} A_0 - 20 \log_{10} A_0 + 20 \log_{10} \sqrt{2} \\ &= 20 \log_{10} \sqrt{2} \\ &= 3.01 \text{ dB} \end{aligned}$$

Half-power frequency often termed "3dB frequency" since it is close to a 3dB drop in magnitude

Typical  $A(s)$

1) Lowpass



$$\omega_H = 2\pi f_H$$

$$A(s) \approx \frac{A_0}{\frac{s}{p} + 1}$$

$$|A(j\omega)| = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\omega^2}{p^2}}}$$

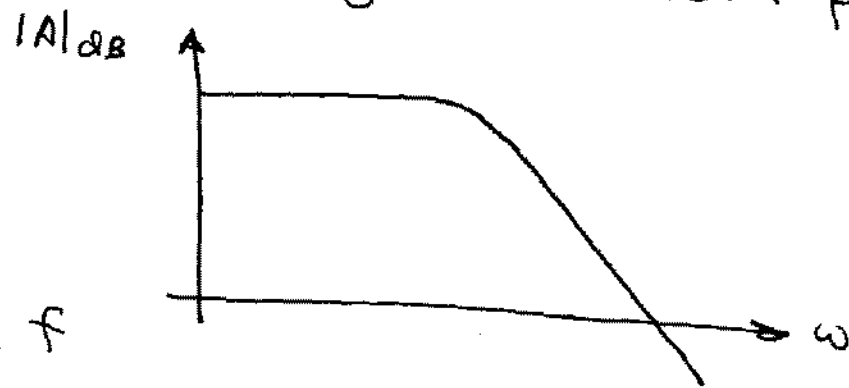
$$|A(j\omega_H)| = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\omega_H^2}{p^2}}}$$

solving, obtain  $\omega_H = p$

$$|A(j\omega)|_{dB} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\omega^2}{P^2}}} \right)$$

at high  $f$   $|A(j\omega)| \approx \frac{A_0}{\omega/P} = \frac{A_0 P}{\omega} = \frac{GB}{\omega}$

where GB is the product of gain and bandwidth  
 - termed gain-bandwidth product



At high  $f$

$$20 \log_{10} |A(j\omega)| \approx 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{GB}{\omega} \right)$$

in 1 decade,  $\Delta |A| = 20 \log_{10} \frac{GB}{\omega} - 20 \log_{10} \frac{GB}{10\omega} = -20 \text{ dB}$

$\therefore$  roll-off is 20 dB/decade

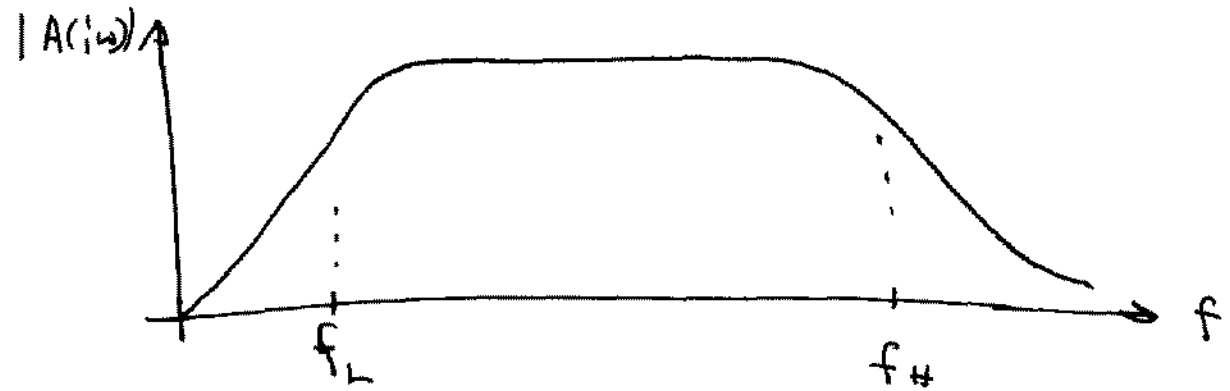
or

6.02 dB/octave



Typical  $A(s)$

2) Bandpass



$$\omega_L = 2\pi f_L$$
$$\omega_H = 2\pi f_H$$

Typical  $A(s)$

$$A(s) = \frac{A_0 \cdot s}{(s + P_1) \left( \frac{s}{P_2} + 1 \right)}$$

$$\approx \begin{cases} \frac{A_0 s}{s + P_1} \approx \frac{A_0 s}{P_1} & f < f_L \\ A_0 & f_L < f < f_H \\ \frac{A_0}{\left( \frac{s}{P_2} + 1 \right)} \approx \frac{A_0 P_2}{s} & f > f_H \end{cases}$$

$$\omega_L \approx P_1$$

$$\omega_H \approx P_2$$

To find  $\omega_L$

$$A(s) = \frac{A_0 s}{s + P_1}$$

$$|A(j\omega_L)| = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|A(j\omega)| \approx \frac{A_0 \omega}{\sqrt{\omega^2 + P_1^2}}$$

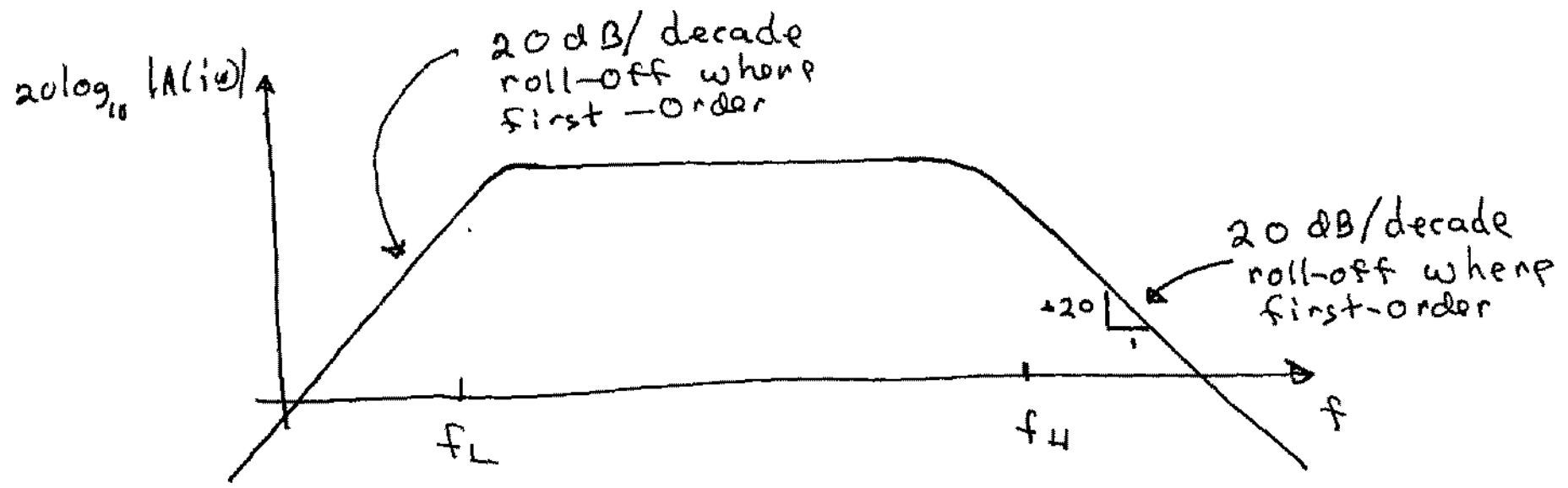
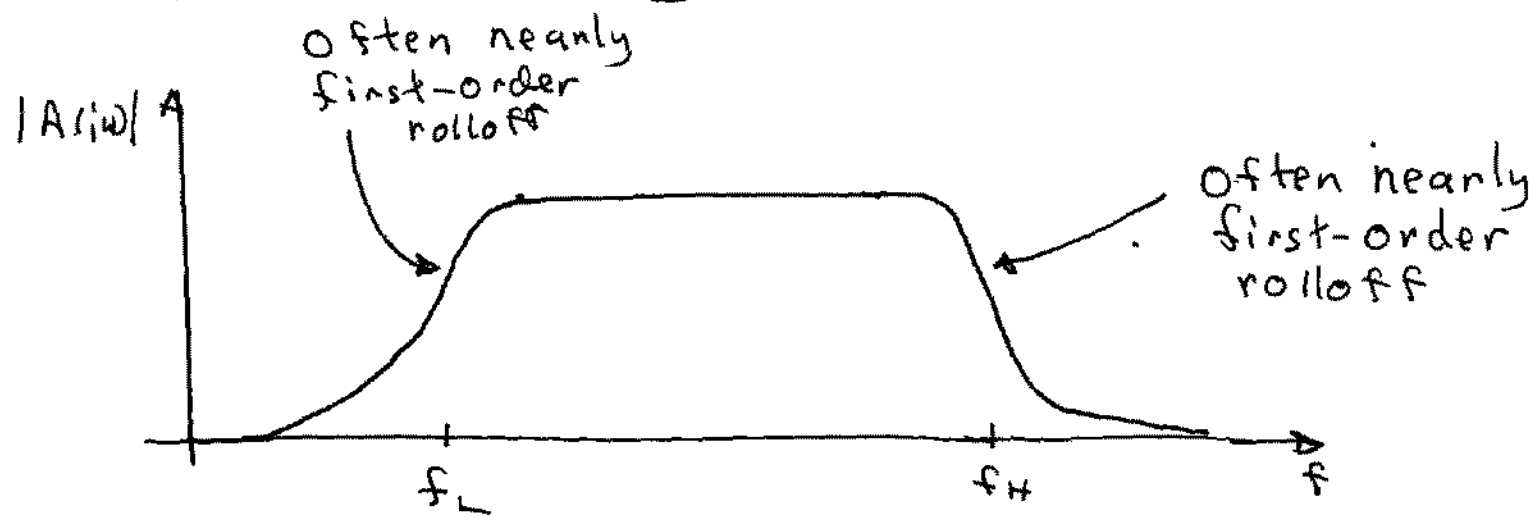
$$\therefore \frac{A_0 \omega_L}{\sqrt{\omega_L^2 + P_1^2}} = \frac{A_0}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\frac{\omega_L^2}{\omega_L^2 + P_1^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

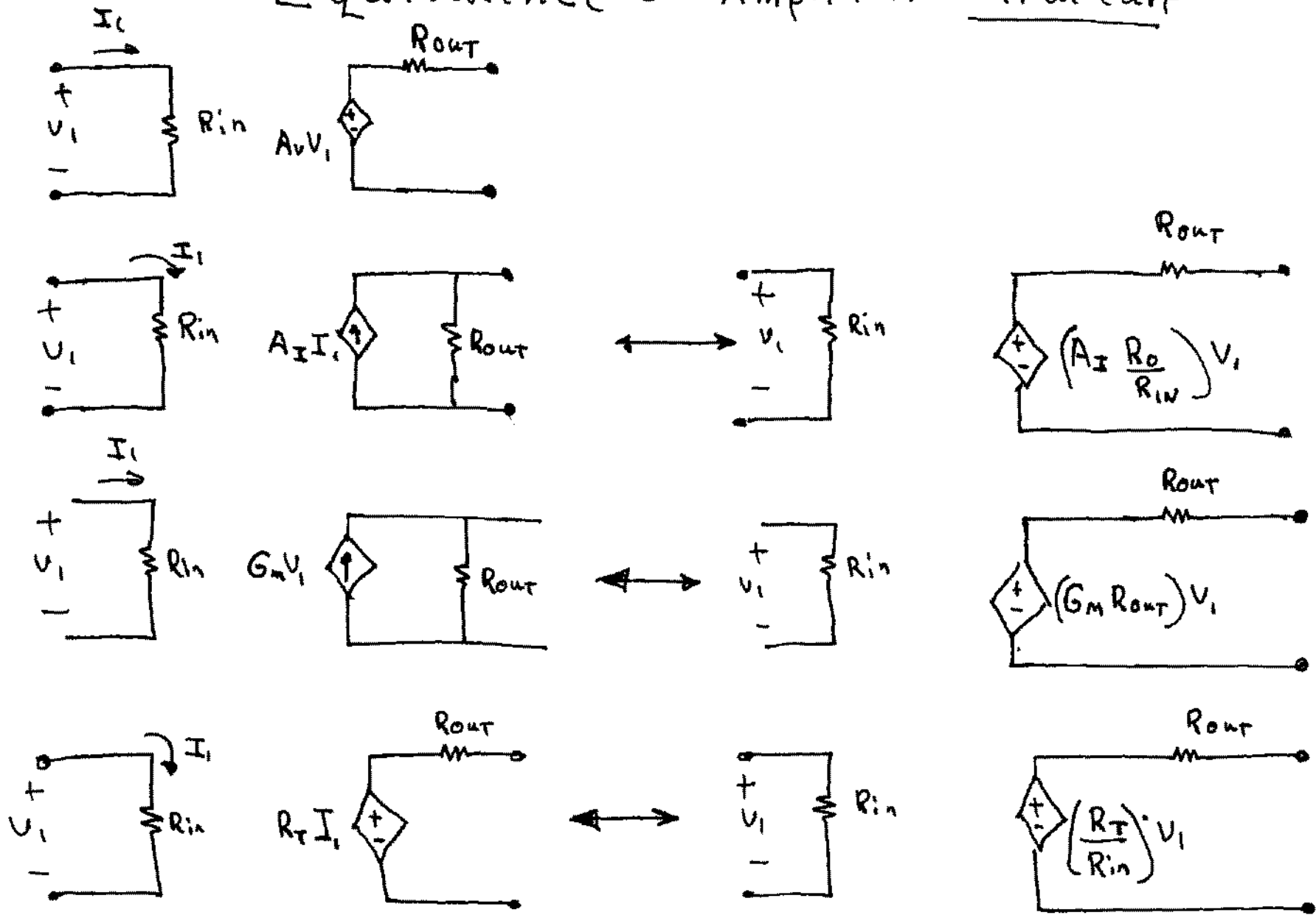
$$2\omega_L^2 = \omega_L^2 + P_1^2$$

$$\omega_L = P_1$$

# Linear vs Log Axis



# Equivalence of Amplifier Structure



Relative magnitudes of  $R_{in}$ ,  $R_{out}$ ,  $R_T$  &  $G_m$  determine which type is most ideal

End of Lecture ~~5~~  
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