VACUUM TUBE AMPLIFIERS

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desired. Also, when a quick current response in spite of load inductance is required, it is preferable to use the plate circuit. In this case, the current through the load tends to follow the grid voltage without being influenced by the voltage across the load as much as it would be if the load were in the cathode circuit.

If a pentode differential amplifier, where μ and r_p are almost infinite, is used as an output circuit, Eq. (70) reduces to

$$\frac{\Delta i_L}{\Delta (e_1 - e_2)} = -\frac{g_m}{2 + \frac{R_L}{R_p}}.$$
 (71)

Twice as much current gain can be realized if the load is divided into two parts, as in the case of a differential relay or a magnetic oscilloscope, where each of the two parts is simply one of the R_p 's and the output is the difference between these currents. For a pair of triodes, this output current is [adding R_p to r_p in Eq. (61)]

$$i_1 - i_2 = \frac{\mu}{r_p + R_p} (e_1 - e_2).$$
 (72)

In the case of a pair of pentodes, the load resistance does not decrease

the gain, and Eq. (66) applies directly.

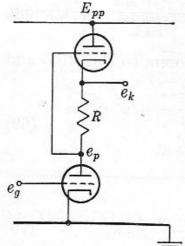


Fig. 11·37.—Series amplifier.

Two-tube Series Arrangement.—The circuit of Fig. 11·37, where e_k is the output voltage, is sometimes useful as a power amplifier. A similar circuit, having another resistor equal to R in series with the lower cathode and with the output terminal at e_p , affords cancellation of heater-voltage variation and is described in Sec. 11·12. The circuit between E_{pp} and e_p , comprising the plate load for the lower tube, resembles the constant-current circuit of Fig. 11·18, but without the battery it is not actually a constant-current device. It is merely the equivalent of a simple resistance, of value $r_p + (\mu + 1)R$,

returned to E_{pp} . Thus in Fig. 11.37 the voltage gain to the e_p terminal is

$$\frac{\Delta e_p}{\Delta e_q} = \frac{-\mu [r_p + (\mu + 1)R]}{2r_p + (\mu + 1)R}.$$
 (73)

Since all the current flows through R, the cathode is at a point at a distance R from the e_p end of the total equivalent resistance $r_p + (\mu + 1)R$, and therefore e_k moves $\frac{r_p + (\mu + 1)R - R}{r_p + (\mu + 1)R}$ times as much as e_p . Thus,

the gain to the cathode (with no load) is

$$\frac{\Delta e_k}{\Delta e_g} = \frac{-\mu(r_p + \mu R)}{2r_p + (\mu + 1)R}.$$
 (74)

To find the gain with a load, it is easiest first to determine the current gain in the case of a zero-resistance load. If R_L is zero in Fig. 11·38, so that e_k is fixed at E, a change Δe_g will produce a plate current incre-

ment Δi_{p1} of $\mu \Delta e_g/(r_p + R)$. This increment, in turn, lowers the upper grid by a voltage increment R times this, so that the upper tube current changes by an amount Δi_{p2} , equal to $-\mu^2 R \Delta e_g/r_p(r_p + R)$. Thus, if $R_L = 0$, the net current gain is

$$\begin{split} \frac{\Delta i_L}{\Delta e_g} &= -\frac{\mu}{r_p + R} - \frac{\mu^2 R}{r_p (r_p + R)} \\ &= -g_m \frac{r_p + \mu R}{r_p + R}. \end{split} \tag{75}$$

The current gain with a load of negligible resistance, where a suitable intermediate voltage source exists for a load tie point, is considerably greater than that for a simple amplifier or a differential amplifier or cathode follower.

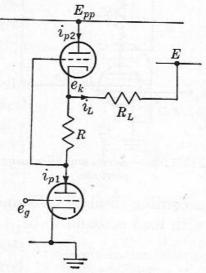


Fig. 11.38.—Series amplifier with load.

The output impedance is the ratio of open-circuit voltage gain to short-circuit current gain.

$$Z_0 = r_p \frac{r_p + R}{2r_p + (\mu + 1)R}. (76)$$

From Eq. (74), by means of Thévenin's theorem, the voltage gain with any load resistance is found to be

$$S = \frac{-\mu(r_p + \mu R)}{2r_p + (\mu + 1)R + (r_p + R)\frac{r_p}{R_L}}.$$
 (77)

The current gain with any R_L is

$$\frac{\Delta i_L}{\Delta e_g} = -g_m \frac{r_p + \mu R}{r_p + R \left[1 + (\mu + 1) \frac{R_L}{r_p} \right] + 2R_L}$$
(78)

It is apparent from Eq. (78) that as long as R_L is considerably smaller than r_p , R may be chosen so that the current gain is several times g_m . The maximum range of output current in both positive and negative

directions is achieved with $E = E_{pp}/2$ and $R = 1/g_m$, but the maximum gain occurs with an R of several times $1/g_m$.

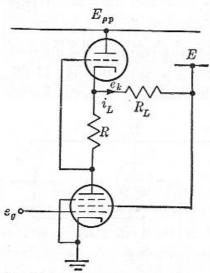


Fig. 11-39.—Series amplifier using pentode.

If a pentode is used in the lower position, as in Fig. 11.39, the formulas are simpler. In this case, Eq. (74), the voltage gain with $R_L = \infty$, becomes

$$\frac{\Delta e_k}{\Delta e_g} = -g_m(r_p + \mu R), \qquad (79)$$

where g_m refers to the pentode and μ and r_p to the triode. The output impedance is simply

$$Z_0 = r_p, (80)$$

because the pentode current is independent of its plate voltage, so that if e_k is moved by external means, the triode bias will remain constant and its current will vary

according to plate resistance. From Eqs. (79) and (80) the voltage gain with load is found to be

$$S = -g_m \frac{r_p + \mu R}{1 + \frac{r_p}{R_L}},$$
(81)

and the current gain is

$$\frac{\Delta i_L}{\Delta e_g} = -g_m \frac{r_p + \mu R}{r_p + R_L}. \tag{82}$$

A practical example of this output circuit is given in Fig. 11·42. Both tubes are pentodes, but the upper tube behaves like a triode because its plate and screen both are fixed.

A comparison of this circuit with the differential amplifier shows that for tubes of the same capabilities, the former has at least four times the gain and twice the maximum output current in both directions as the latter. On the other hand, this circuit requires a low-impedance intermediate voltage source, and, for a given available B+ voltage, the input voltage level must be considerably lower than that for a differential amplifier.

11.12. Cancellation of Effect of Heater-voltage Variation.—The fundamental effect of heater-voltage variation was explained in Sec. 11.6: A definite change of heater voltage is the equivalent of a definite change of the cathode potential relative to the other electrode potentials. For oxide-coated cathodes, a 10 per cent increase of heater voltage is the same as a cathode-potential decrease of about 100 mv, although this