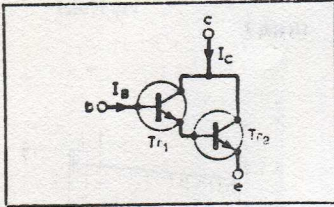


### High current-gain pairs—1

#### Darlington pair



#### Components

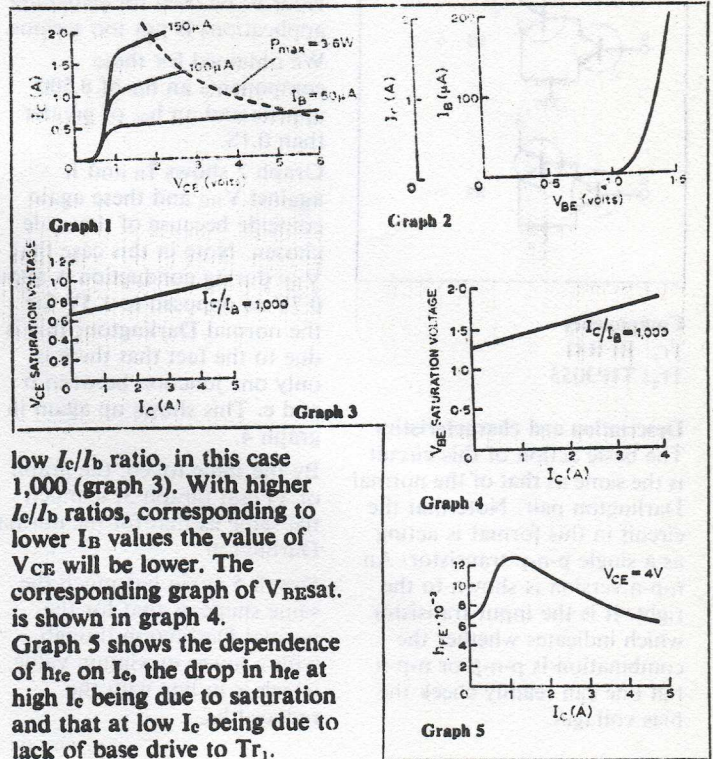
Tr<sub>1</sub>: BFR41 Tr<sub>2</sub>: TIP3055

#### Description and characteristics

A Darlington pair as shown above is a frequently used two-transistor circuit, the purpose being to obtain high gain through cascading two transistors. Because large currents are obtained in the second transistor one frequently finds this to be a power transistor and that the arrangement is used in many switching applications. As the circuit has only three

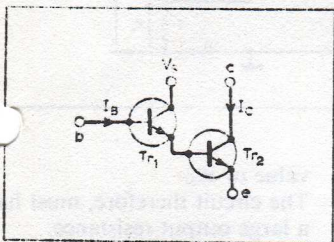
terminals it can be regarded as a single high-gain transistor. The basic action is that  $I_b$  produces, through Tr<sub>1</sub>, a large base drive for Tr<sub>2</sub>. The total  $I_c$  is the sum of the two collector currents although the contribution of Tr<sub>1</sub> to  $I_c$  will be small if the gain of Tr<sub>2</sub> is large.

The characteristics obtained for the components quoted are as shown. From graph 1 we obtained an  $h_{oe}$  of about 25mS and an  $h_{fe}$  of about 11,000. Graph 2 shows an  $h_{ie}$  of around 70. These figures are in line with theory (see reference). Graph 2 also shows the dependence of  $I_c$  on  $I_b$ , the two graphs being indistinguishable because of the scales chosen. For switching applications the value of  $V_{CE}$  is important.  $V_{CEsat}$  is defined as that  $V_{CE}$  corresponding to an arbitrarily



low  $I_c/I_b$  ratio, in this case 1,000 (graph 3). With higher  $I_c/I_b$  ratios, corresponding to lower  $I_b$  values the value of  $V_{CE}$  will be lower. The corresponding graph of  $V_{BESAT}$  is shown in graph 4. Graph 5 shows the dependence of  $h_{fe}$  on  $I_c$ , the drop in  $h_{fe}$  at high  $I_c$  being due to saturation and that at low  $I_c$  being due to lack of base drive to Tr<sub>1</sub>.

### High current-gain pairs—2



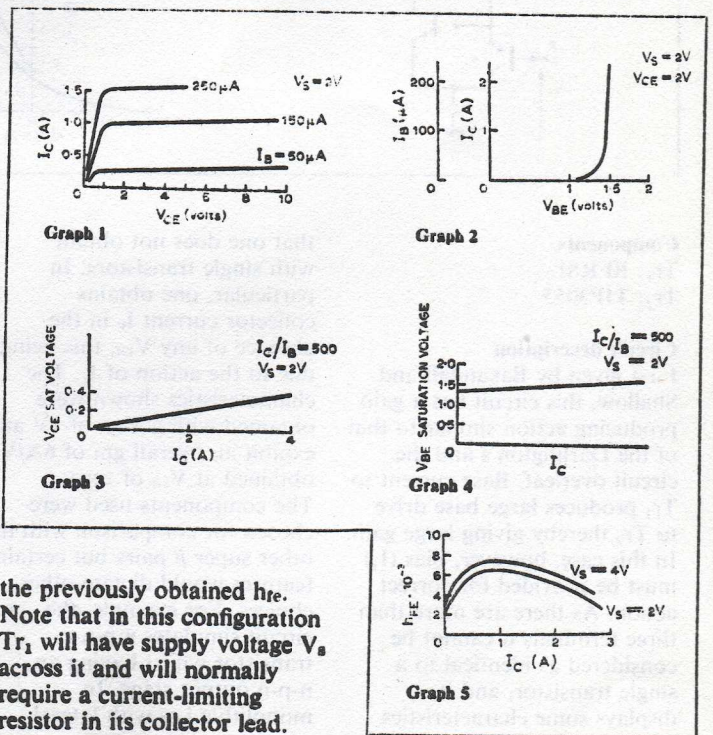
#### Components

Tr<sub>1</sub>: BFR41  
Tr<sub>2</sub>: TIP3055

#### Performance and description

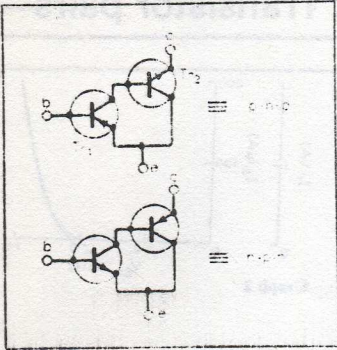
The Darlington circuits on card 1 are both super  $\beta$  circuits but have the additional characteristic that they only have three terminals and so can be regarded as a single transistor. The circuit shown above also has high gain but has four terminals, three of which can

be regarded as base, emitter and collector, the fourth being connected to a voltage which gives some control over the characteristics. The principal difference in performance of this circuit is that a low saturation voltage is obtained. From graph 1 we obtained an  $h_{fe}$  of 7,000 and an  $h_{oe}$  of 25mS for  $V_s = 2.0V$ . Characteristics for  $V_s = 4.0V$  are virtually identical. Graph 3 shows the low  $V_{CEsat}$  values obtained, slightly lower values being obtained for  $V_s = 4.0V$ . Graph 4 shows the expected  $V_{BESAT}$  values around 1.5V since two base-emitter junctions are between b and e. Again slightly lower values are obtained for  $V_s = 4.0V$ . The graph of  $h_{fe}$  is shown in graph 5, the figures being in line with



the previously obtained  $h_{fe}$ . Note that in this configuration Tr<sub>1</sub> will have supply voltage  $V_s$  across it and will normally require a current-limiting resistor in its collector lead.

### Complementary Darlington pair



**Components**  
 Tr<sub>1</sub>: BFR81  
 Tr<sub>2</sub>: TIP3055

**Description and characteristics**  
 The basic action of this circuit is the same as that of the normal Darlington pair. Note that the circuit in this format is acting as a single p-n-p transistor. An n-p-n version is shown to the right. It is the input transistor which indicates whether the combination is p-n-p or n-p-n but one can readily check the bias voltages.

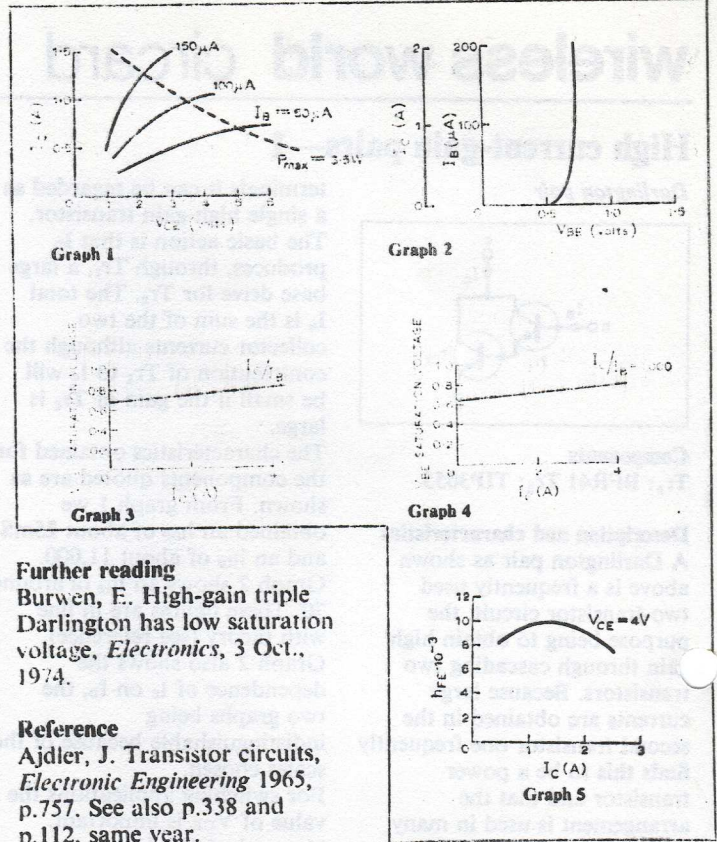
Graph 1 shows the output characteristics: not eminently suitable for a small-signal amplifier, but as the circuit tends to be used for switching applications is not too serious.

We obtained for these components an  $h_{FE}$  of 8,500 approx and an  $h_{oe}$  of greater than 0.1S.

Graph 2 shows  $I_B$  and  $I_C$  against  $V_{BE}$  and these again coincide because of the scale chosen. Note in this case that  $V_{BE}$  during conduction is about 0.7V as opposed to 1.5V for the normal Darlington; this is due to the fact that there is only one junction between b and e. This shows up again in graph 4.

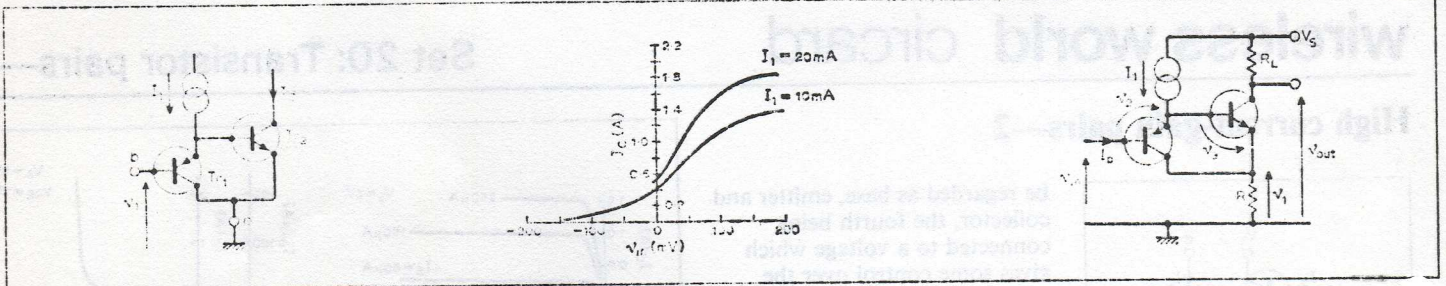
By the same token, the graph of  $V_{CEsat}$  (graph 3) is much the same as that for the normal Darlington.

Graph 5 again has much the same shape as that for the normal Darlington though with a lower maximum value, which is in line with the reduced  $h_{FE}$ .



**Further reading**  
 Burwen, E. High-gain triple Darlington has low saturation voltage, *Electronics*, 3 Oct., 1974.

**Reference**  
 Ajdler, J. Transistor circuits, *Electronic Engineering* 1965, p.757. See also p.338 and p.112, same year.



**Components**  
 Tr<sub>1</sub>: BFR81  
 Tr<sub>2</sub>: TIP3055

**Circuit description**  
 First given by Baxandall and Shallow, this circuit has a gain producing action similar to that of the Darlington's and the circuit overleaf. Base current to Tr<sub>1</sub> produces large base drive to Tr<sub>2</sub> thereby giving large gain. In this case, however, bias ( $I_1$ ) must be provided for correct action. As there are more than three terminals it cannot be considered as identical to a single transistor, and it displays some characteristics

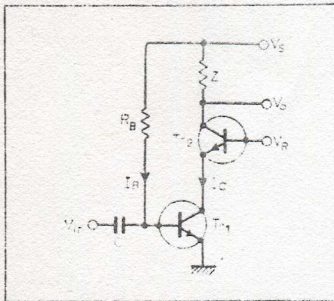
that one does not obtain with single transistors. In particular, one obtains collector current  $I_C$  in the absence of any  $V_{in}$ , this being due to the action of  $I_1$ . The characteristics shown were obtained with a  $V_{CE}$  of 1V and exhibit an overall gm of 6A/V, obtained at  $V_{in}$  of zero. The components used were chosen for comparison with the other super  $\beta$  pairs but certain features would dictate other choices. For example, the circuit simulates a p-n-p transistor whilst having an n-p-n output stage. In monolithic i.c.s with lateral

transistors, n-p-n transistors have low gain so that Tr<sub>1</sub> would dictate the overall gain. As Tr<sub>1</sub> has a very low voltage across it, viz  $V_{be}$  of Tr<sub>2</sub>, then Tr<sub>1</sub> can be made to have high gain—see MC1538R. When used as shown above right, the circuit exhibits extremely high output resistance which, allied to the high current gain, gives large voltage gain. The reason for this is that  $v_1 = v_3 + v_2 + v_{in}$  and as  $v_3$  and  $v_2$  cancel, both being base-emitter voltages, then  $v_1 = v_{in}$  and the current in  $R_1$  is thus defined by  $I_1$  and the current in  $R$ , no matter the

value of  $R_2$ . The circuit therefore, must have a large output resistance. Values as high as 50M $\Omega$  have been quoted.

**Further reading**  
 Baxandall, P. J. and Shallow, E. W. Constant-current source with unusually high internal resistance and good temperature stability; *Electronics Letters* vol. 2, p.351 1966.  
 Jarger, R. C. A high output resistance source, *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits*, Aug. 1974, pp.192-4.

### Cascode amplifier



#### Components

Tr<sub>1</sub>, Tr<sub>2</sub>: BFR41  
 V<sub>S</sub>: 10V  
 Z: 660mH coil plus stray capacitance plus c.p.o. loading  
 C: coupling capacitor  
 R<sub>B</sub>: see graph  
 V<sub>O</sub>: see graph

#### Circuit description

Tr<sub>1</sub> is a common-emitter amplifier which is feeding Tr<sub>2</sub>

in common-base mode. The load on Tr<sub>1</sub> is therefore a near short-circuit a.c.-wise. In addition, the current gain of Tr<sub>2</sub> is near unity but its output impedance is high, due to the common-base mode of operation. The combination therefore shows the gain characteristics of a short-circuited c.e. stage plus the output impedance characteristics of c.b. It is therefore ideally suited for the driving of tuned resonant loads or indeed of any high impedance load.

The basic equations are

$$I_c = g_m V_{in}$$

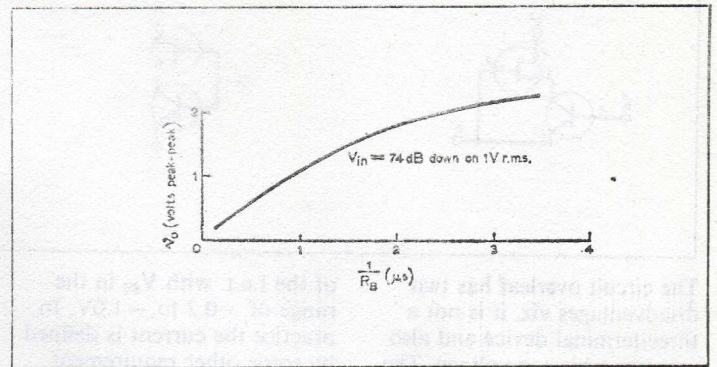
$$I_c \approx I_L$$

$$g_m = I_c / 26mV$$

$$V_o = Z I_L$$

The second equation assumes unity current gain through Tr<sub>2</sub> and the last equation assumes that h<sub>ob</sub> (for Tr<sub>2</sub>) is very low. The net result is

$$V_o / V_{in} = g_m Z_L$$



Since I<sub>c</sub> is almost linearly related to I<sub>B</sub>, particularly if V<sub>CE</sub> of Tr<sub>1</sub> is constant which it is in this case, then g<sub>m</sub> is controllable by R<sub>B</sub>. The net result is the graph shown. For each result the circuit was retuned for resonance, the change in resonant frequency being of around 1.5% over the complete range.

With R<sub>B</sub> = 1MΩ, the resonant

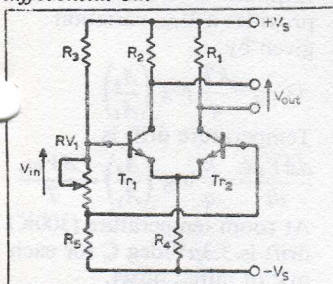
frequency was 924kHz and the bandwidth 18.5kHz giving a Q of 50. V<sub>R</sub> is not critical—it is only required to produce correct transistor action. In these results it was 3V. A 1.5-nF supply decoupling capacitor was necessary. Note that the graph represents a range of voltage gain from 50dB to 71dB and that the range of R<sub>B</sub> is 20:1.

# wireless world circard

## Set 20: Transistor pairs—4

### Long-tailed pair

#### (a) Differential in-differential out



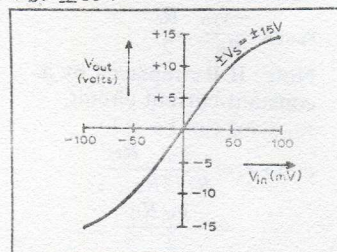
#### Circuit description

This emitter-coupled differential amplifier should have a large value for R<sub>4</sub> to provide a high common-mode rejection ratio (c.m.r.r.). This implies that the differential output voltage between collectors for a common signal at the bases, is very small and ideally zero. In general, the output signal depends on the difference between the signals at the

transistor bases. Each transistor receives half the signal i.e. the gain to each output is half of that provided by a single transistor under the same conditions.

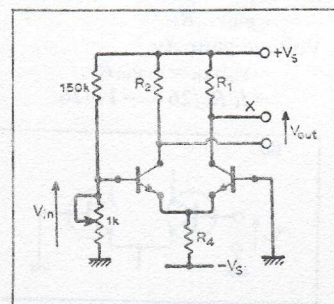
#### Performance data

Tr<sub>1</sub>, Tr<sub>2</sub>: matched pair from CA3086. R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub>, R<sub>4</sub>: 100kΩ  
 R<sub>3</sub>, R<sub>6</sub>: 150kΩ, R<sub>V1</sub>: 1kΩ  
 V<sub>S</sub>: ±15V



Gain slope: typically 230.  
 Variation in gain: ±1% for several choices of CA3086. Reducing R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub> by similar ratios will maintain slope at same order of magnitude.

#### (b) Single-ended in, differential out



V<sub>in</sub>: 10mV d.c. (20mV)  
 V<sub>out</sub>: 2.39V d.c. (4.79V)  
 i.e. gain slope similar to (a)

$$\frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{in}} = 240$$

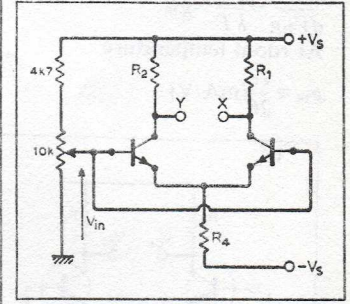
For single-ended output:

V<sub>out</sub> = voltage between X and ground.

$$\frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{in}} = \frac{10.28V - 9.06V}{20mV - 10mV} = 122.$$

i.e. gain is halved.

#### (c) Common mode input

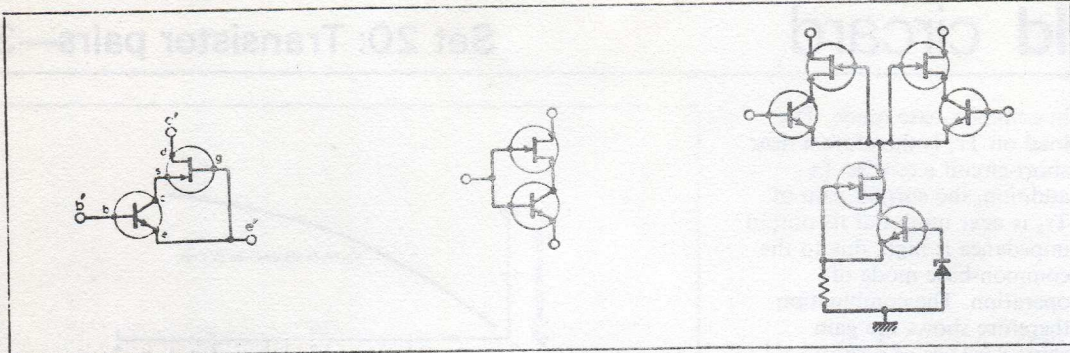


$$\frac{\Delta V_{xy}}{\Delta V_{in}} = \frac{0.149 - 0.142}{2 - 1} = 0.007$$

For single-ended output (terminal X to ground):

$$\frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{in}} = 0.0045$$

c.m.r.r. improved by trimming R<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub> for zero balance. Figure of merit is c.m.r.r. or voltage gain for differential inputs divided by voltage gain for common-mode inputs that is 0.007/230.



The circuit overleaf has two disadvantages viz, it is not a three-terminal device and also requires a biasing voltage. The above circuit suffers from neither of these disadvantages. The circuit is self-biasing provided only that  $I_c$  is less than  $I_a$  by an amount sufficient that the resulting  $V_{gs}$  keeps the bipolar transistor well out of saturation. Typically  $V_{ce}$  would need to be in the range 0.2 to 1.0V (though a higher value would be preferable for higher gain). This means that the operating current is restricted to the  $I_a$

of the f.e.t. with  $V_{gs}$  in the range of  $-0.2$  to  $-1.0V$ . In practice the current is defined by some other requirement (drift, matching etc) and is often much less than  $I_{dss}$ —the f.e.t. current with  $V_{gs}=0$  (which would give no gain from the bipolar anyway). The f.e.t. will frequently be required to operate near pinch-off. The circuit, above centre, is a less common form which loses the merit of low capacitive feedback. It does, however, have the merit of increased current capability since the f.e.t. can operate with  $V_{gs}=0V$ .

The circuit right is of a form found as the input of some commercially available differential amplifiers. Each two-transistor block can be regarded as a single transistor and the circuit is then recognisable as a long-tailed pair. The tail uses the high output impedance of the pair to provide an excellent constant-current source the other two pairs being used for their high voltage gain.

**Cross references**  
Set 20, cards 4, 10.

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**Useful relationships**

Bipolar transistor collector current related to base-emitter voltage by

$$I_c \approx I_s \exp qV_{BE}/kT$$

$$\frac{dI_c}{dV_{BE}} = \frac{qI_c}{kT} = g_m$$

At room temperature

$$g_m \approx \frac{I_c}{26} \text{ (mA/V)}$$

$$V_{C1} = -g_m \frac{v_{in}}{2} R_C$$

$$V_{C2} = -g_m \frac{-v_{in}}{2} R_C$$

Differential output given by

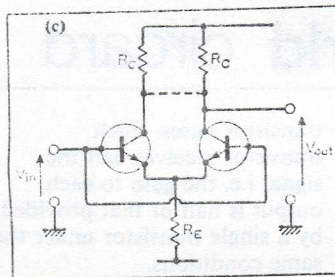
$$v_o = V_{C1} - V_{C2}$$

$$= -g_m v_{in} R_C$$

Voltage gain  $A_V$

$$= v_o/v_{in} = -g_m R_C$$

$$= -I_c R_C / 26 = -V_C / 26$$



For identical transistors the collectors are at equal potentials for common-mode signals. Hence they can be considered connected together

$$v_{out} \approx \frac{-v_{in}}{R_E} \cdot \frac{R_C}{2}$$

Note: If  $R_E$  replaced by a constant-current circuit,  $v_{out(cm)}$  can be  $\ll 1$ .

$$c.m.r.r. = \frac{-g_m \cdot R_C}{R_C / 2 R_E}$$

$$= \frac{-g_m R_E}{2}$$

**Temperature drift**

For a pair of identical transistors, balanced to provide zero difference between the base-emitter voltages of each, then the temperature drift is

theoretically zero—a basic advantage of the differential mode.

$$V_{BE} \approx \frac{kT}{q} \log \left( \frac{I_c}{A_T} \right)$$

$A$  is dependent on transistor area. Two transistors on same chip, but different areas, provides a  $V_{BE}$  variation given by

$$\Delta V_{BE} = \frac{kT}{q} \log \left( \frac{A_2}{A_1} \right)$$

Temperature drift is

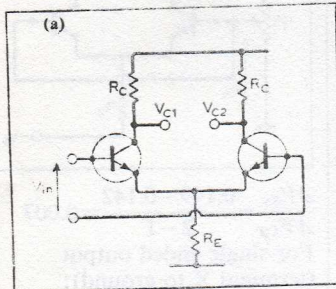
$$\frac{d\Delta V_{BE}}{dt} = \frac{k}{q} \log \left( \frac{A_2}{A_1} \right) = \frac{\Delta V_{BE}}{T}$$

At room temperature (300K) drift is  $3.3\mu V/\text{deg C}$  for each mV of initial offset.

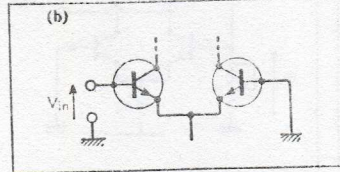
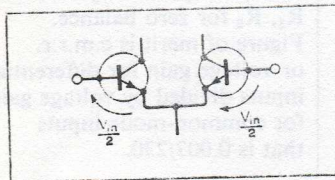
**Further reading**

Thermal variation of the emitter-base voltage of bipolar transistors. Widlar, R. J. *Proc. IEEE* Jan. 1967. Limits of temperature drift in non-compensated d.c. amplifiers. *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits*, Feb. 1970.

**Cross reference**  
Set 12, card 10



Differential input signal can be considered as



This single-ended input signal can be considered as the algebraic sum of differential and common-mode signals:

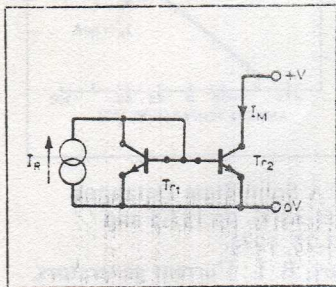
$$\text{i.e. } v_{in} = v_{in}/2 + v_{in}/2$$

$$\text{and } 0 = \frac{v_{in}/2}{\text{common mode}} - \frac{v_{in}/2}{\text{differential mode}}$$

For c.m.r.r. high, effect of common-mode signals negligible. Hence single-ended input equivalent to differential input.

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### Current mirrors

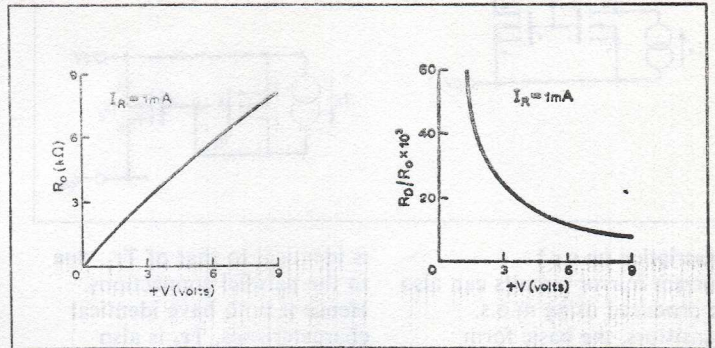


**Typical data**  
 $Tr_1, Tr_2$ : part of CA3086  
 $I_R$ : 1mA from commercial current generator,  $\pm 0.05\%$   
 $I_M$ : measured using 4-digit multimeter.  
 Curves opposite show  $R_o$  and  $R_D$  as functions of  $+V$ .

#### Description (bipolar)

The current mirror is an extremely useful two-transistor circuit extensively used as an integral part of monolithic operational amplifiers to define a reference current, the mirror current  $I_M$ , in terms of a reference current  $I_R$ . With identical transistors the base-emitter voltages are identical and if  $Tr_2$  has a high current gain the collector currents  $I_R$  and  $I_M$

are matched, to a first order. Any matched pair of n-p-n transistors may be used but those on a single chip are preferred; the variable temperature sensitivity of discrete device reduces reliability of the circuit. An important requirement in many applications of the current mirror is a high output resistance. The left-hand graph above shows that the static



output resistance ( $R_o = V/I_M$ ) increases with  $V$  for a given reference current value. However, the right-hand graph shows that whilst the dynamic output resistance ( $R_D/\delta V/\delta I_M$ ) also increases with  $V$ , the far more rapid rise in  $R_o$  causes the ratio of dynamic to static output resistance to fall rapidly with increasing  $V$ . Hence, a compromise must be made between the values of  $R_o$  and

$R_D$  to be used with a given value of  $I_M$ .

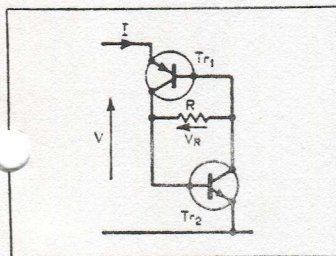
For currents in the microamp range the output resistance of the current mirror can be increased by inserting a negative feedback resistor in the emitter lead of  $Tr_2$ .

For higher current requirements, transistors on the same chip can be connected in parallel to increase the junction areas.

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## Set 20: Transistor pairs—6

### Complementary switching transistors



#### Circuit description

The arrangement of the complementary pair of transistors, with or without the resistor  $R$ , or connected between two other points, is a frequently used combination (see cross refs.). With the resistor  $R$  as shown, the circuit acts over a portion of its I-V characteristics as a negative resistance, of value  $-R$  approximately. Graphs obtained are shown for values of 1k and 10k $\Omega$ .

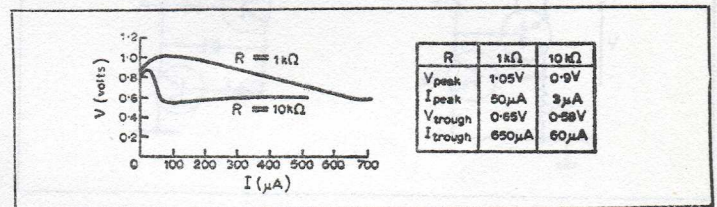
#### Components

$Tr_1$ : BFR81,  $Tr_2$ : BFR41  
 $R$ : 1k, 10k $\Omega$

#### Performance

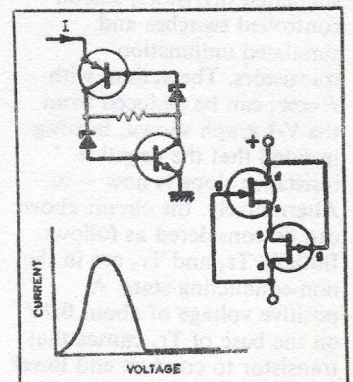
Slope in negative resistance region 0.75k $\Omega$  and 8k $\Omega$  for  $R=1k\Omega$  10k $\Omega$  respectively (see graph):

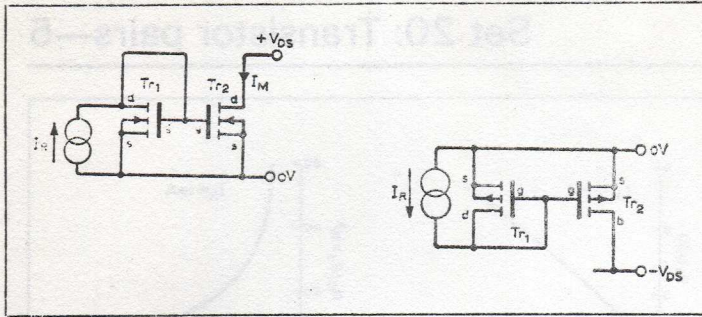
Initially with low  $I$ ,  $V$  may be considered as  $V_{EB1} - V_R + V_{BE2}$ . As  $V_R$  is low initially  $V$  is the sum of the two exponential emitter-base voltages. As  $I$  increases these two voltages tend to 0.6V but  $V_R$  continues to rise and because of the minus sign  $V$  starts to fall, at a value slightly less than 1.2V. The fall continues (negative resistance region) until both transistors saturate. At this point we can no longer assume that all the current is passing



through both collectors and  $R$  and we are best to view  $V$  as being  $V_{RC1} + V_R + V_{CE2}$ . Since the two transistor voltages are relatively fixed,  $V$  then starts rising again. The value of the trough is given by  $V_{EC1sat} + V_{BE2sat} \approx V_{BE2sat}$ . The voltage range of the circuit is readily increased by the modification shown opposite with Zener diodes appropriate to the application. These circuits are described as being open-circuit stable, i.e. for any current drive there is a unique voltage. The dual of this is the voltage driven, short-circuit-stable device. An

f.e.t. realization of this is shown with the corresponding characteristic (see Further reading).



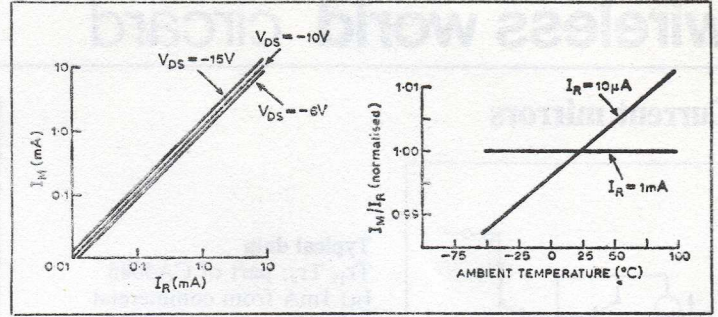


#### Description (m.o.s.)

Current mirror circuits can also be produced using m.o.s. transistors, the basic form using n-channel devices shown above left. Transistor  $Tr_1$  is diode-connected performing as a transistor with 100% feedback. Thus its drain current is still controlled by its gate-source voltage  $V_{GS}$ , i.e.  $I_D \approx g_{ss} V_{GS}$  where  $g_{ss}$  is the forward transconductance. Forcing a current  $I_R$  into this diode-connected transistor causes  $V_{GS}$  to rise until a state of equilibrium is attained when  $Tr_1$  sinks the reference current. The gate-source voltage of  $Tr_2$

is identical to that of  $Tr_1$ , due to the parallel connections. Hence if both have identical characteristics,  $Tr_2$  is also capable of sinking an identical current, the mirror current  $I_M$ . A reasonably good degree of matching can be obtained between the n-channel devices on a monolithic chip, the mirror current being typically within 10% of the reference current.

A current mirror using monolithic p-channel i.g.f.e.t.s, shown centre left, provides better performance than the n-channel type due to the ability to provide much closer



matching of the characteristics of p-channel devices. Such a circuit provides an  $I_M/I_R$  ratio which is to a first order independent of  $V_{DS}$ , as shown centre right.

The graph above right shows that the normalized ratio of  $I_M/I_R$  is within 1% of its nominal value over a wide range of ambient temperatures and  $I_R$  values.

#### Further reading

Jaeger, R. C. High output resistance current source, *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits*, pp.192-4, August, 1974.

RCA Solid State Databook SSD-201B, pp.183-8 and 213-25, 1974.

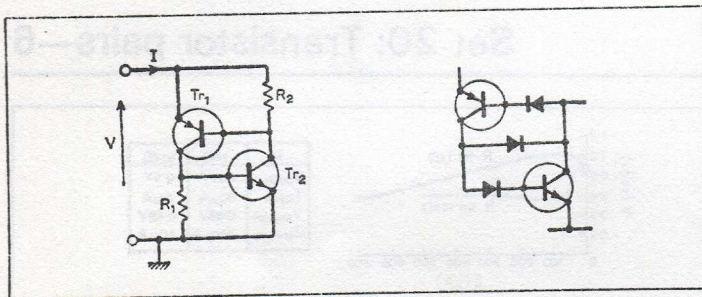
Hart, B. L. Current generators, *Wireless World*, vol. 76, 1970, pp.511-4.

Hart, B. L. Exdirectional current source, *Electronics Eng.* pp.39-41, July, 1974.

#### Cross references

- Set 3, card 9.
- Set 6, card 4.
- Set 9, card 5.
- Set 10, cards 1, 3, 7.
- Set 12, cards 4, 7.
- Set 15, card 6.
- Set 16, card 1.
- Set 20 card 0.

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#### Circuit description

The circuit shown overleaf, with  $R = \infty$ , is the basis of simulated thyristors, silicon controlled switches and simulated unijunction transistors. The action, with  $R = \infty$ , can be deduced from the V-I graph shown, bearing in mind that the negative resistance slope is now  $-\infty$ . Alternatively, the circuit above can be considered as follows. Initially  $Tr_1$  and  $Tr_2$  are in the non-conducting state. A positive voltage of about 0.7V on the base of  $Tr_2$  causes that transistor to conduct and lower its collector voltage. This causes

$Tr_1$  to conduct and providing  $Tr_1$  and  $Tr_2$  produce sufficient current through  $R_2$  and  $R_1$  respectively to keep the transistors conducting, then the action is self-sustaining with a voltage of approximately one  $V_{BE}$  across the circuit. The circuit can thus be used as a switch, triggered by a suitable voltage at either base. With  $R_1 = R_2 = 1k\Omega$  a value of 1.3mA for  $I$  was found to be the minimum which would maintain conduction. This value is as expected as the current  $I$  will split fairly evenly between  $Tr_1$  and  $R_1$  and  $Tr_2$  and  $R_2$ . Since approximately

0.65V is required at the base of each transistor to maintain conduction, it will be provided by 0.65mA in each path. For high-speed switching it is important to prevent the transistors from saturating. Addition of the anti-saturation diodes shown prevents the collector voltages from dropping below  $V_{BE}$ . The base lead diodes are not essential. Increasing  $R_1$  increases the trigger voltage necessary and reduces the effect of trigger point transients. Transients in the supply line give rise to false triggering due to rate effect. This can be reduced as  $R_2$  is reduced although this increases the holding current necessary.

#### Further reading

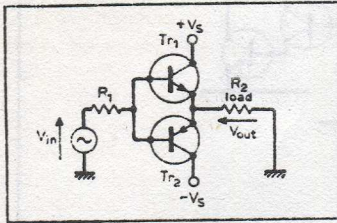
G.E. Transistor Manual. Sharma, S. M. Current-controlled negative resistance circuit. *Int. J. Electronics*, 1974, vol. 37, pp.209-18. Negative resistance shown in dual f.e.t. device, *Electronics*, April 18, 1974, p.5E.

#### Cross references

- Set 10, card 5.
- Set 8, card 3.
- Set 6, card 9.
- Set 3, card 4.

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### Complementary emitter-follower



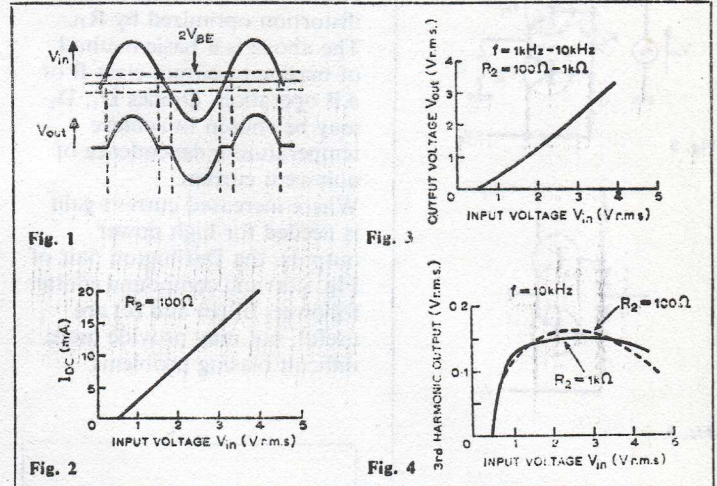
#### Circuit description

The basic circuit comprises a complementary n-p-n/p-n-p pair operating under class-C bias, and is the basis for many audio power amplifiers. When a positive-going input signal exceeds about 0.7V, transistor  $Tr_1$  will turn on, increasing its collector current which develops a voltage across the load  $R_2$ , but with a voltage gain of less than unity. At the same time  $Tr_2$  is biased off. Similarly, a negative-going input signal turns  $Tr_2$  on and  $Tr_1$  off, and the circuit thus

#### Typical data

$V_S: \pm 6V$   
 $T_1: BFR41, T_2: BFR81$   
 $R_1: 330\Omega, R_2: 1k\Omega$   
 Signal frequency: 1kHz  
 Fundamental/3rd harmonic output/input shown on graphs

provides bidirectional currents through the emitter load. The base-emitter diode characteristic is non-linear at low voltages, resulting in cross-over distortion (approximately  $2V_{BE}$ ) across the load. The resulting distortion on a sine wave input is shown in Fig. 1. Without an additional bias network, the effect of this distortion can be minimized by ensuring that  $V_S \gg V_{BE}$ . Using both positive and negative power supplies permits operation down to zero frequency. For a single supply a capacitor is required in



series with the load, to provide the base and collector currents of  $Tr_2$  during negative-going input signals.

#### Component changes

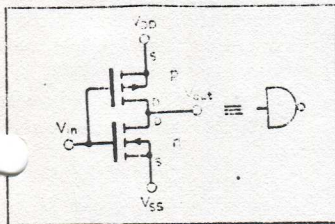
$R_2$ : Range from 100 to 1k $\Omega$ .  
 Variation in gain minimal.  
 Frequency: Up to 30kHz, little

difference from lower frequency operation.

Variation of mean current with input level in Fig. 2.  $R_1$ : Chosen to suppress parasitic oscillations. Alternative may be to keep interconnections very short to minimize series inductance.

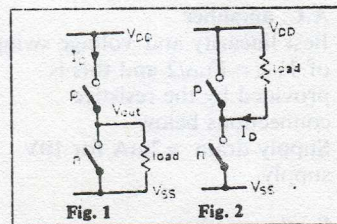
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### CMOS circuits



#### Description

The c.m.o.s. inverter shown above comprises a p-type and n-type enhancement mode m.o.s. transistor on the same chip.  $V_{DD} - V_{SS}$  may be in the range 3 to 15V. The pair is useful in digital circuits because of well-defined threshold that  $V_{in}$  must exceed before the device turns on.  
 n-type:  $V_{GS}$  positive for ON  
 p-type:  $V_{GS}$  negative for ON  
 Where the output has to sink or source current, the pair can be envisaged as the series switches. Fig. 1 is a source



condition, obtained for  $V_{in} = V_{SS}$  and  $V_{out} = V_{DD} - I_D R_O$  where  $R_O$  is the output resistance of p-transistor in the on state. For  $V_{in} = V_{DD}$ , the n-type sinks current for Fig. 2;  $V_{out} = I_D R_O$ . Basic i.c. package CD4007 contains one inverter and two complementary pairs with the drains unconnected. This permits a variety of interconnections: n-types are paralleled to increase sink current capability, Fig. 3. p-types are paralleled to increase source current

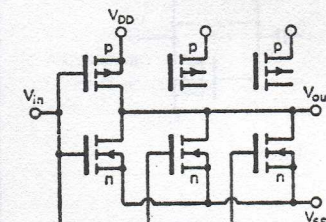


Fig. 3

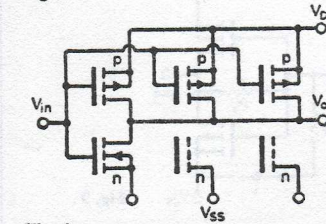


Fig. 4

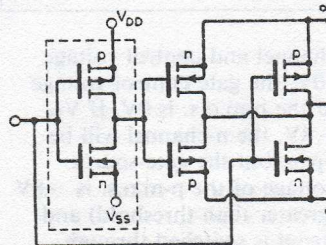


Fig. 5

capability, Fig. 4.

Fig. 5 is a dual bi-directional transmission gate where the two outputs and input may be interchanged for two inputs and one output. Note that the position of the transistors in the middle pair have been reversed.

The CD4049 package contains six inverters with current drive capability almost an order of magnitude greater than basic package. Parallel connection for increasing current sinking indicates typical current sharing for d.c. condition, Fig. 6.

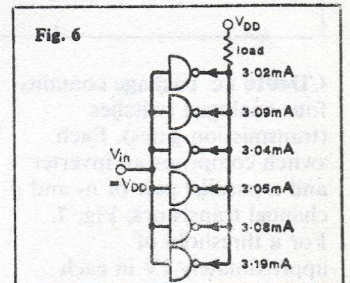


Fig. 6

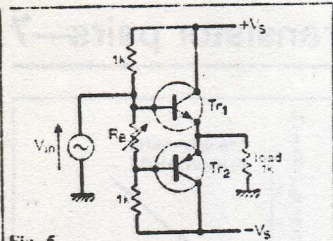


Fig. 5

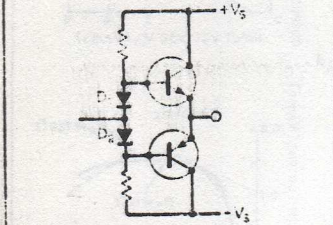


Fig. 6

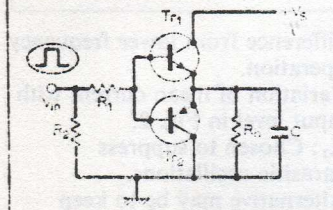
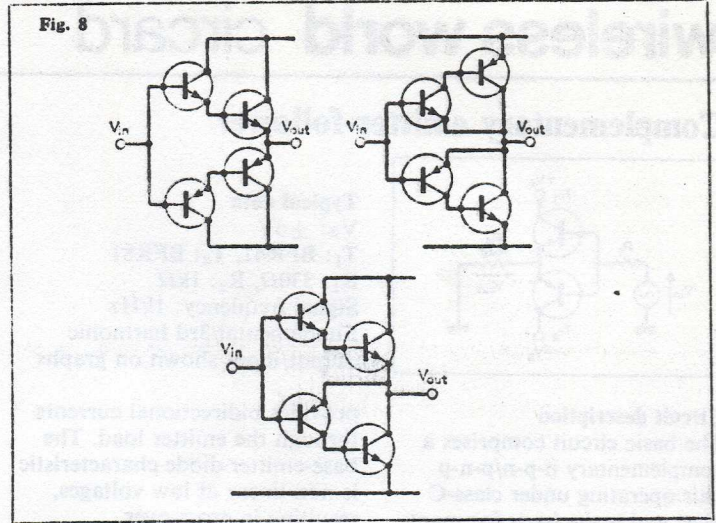
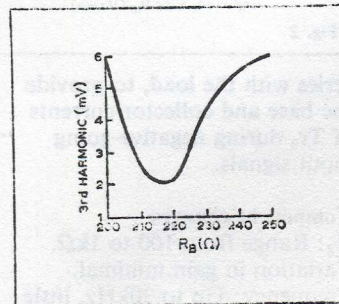


Fig. 7

**Effect of bias (Figs. 5 & 6)**  
 $R_E$  varied until transistors just on the point of conduction. Graph shows 3rd harmonic distortion optimized by  $R_E$ . The above is a basic method of biasing to ensure class B or AB operation. Diodes  $D_1, D_2$  may be chosen to achieve temperature independence of quiescent current. Where increased current gain is needed for high power outputs, the Darlington pair of Fig. 8 (a) and compound emitter followers of (b) and (c) are useful, but may provide more difficult biasing problems.

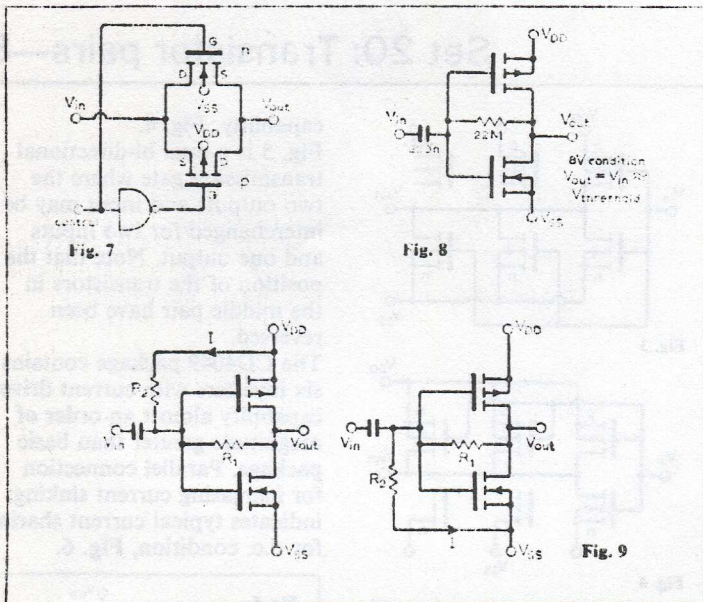


**Line driver (Fig. 7)**  
 Driving 50- $\Omega$  cable with line capacitance slows pulse edges. Improved using complementary pair. Typical: fall time  $\geq 100$ ns but dependent on simulated cable capacitance ( $R_c: 50\Omega$ ,  $C: 3$ nF,  $t_F: 75$ ns).

**Further reading**  
 Williams, P. Voltage following.

*Wireless World*, Sept., 1968.  
 Williams, G. E. Practical transistor circuit design and analysis, McGraw-Hill 1973.  
 Markus, T. Electronic circuits manual, McGraw-Hill.

**Cross references**  
 Set 7, cards 1, 3.  
 Set 20, card 1.



**CD4016** i.c. package contains four analogue switches (transmission gates). Each switch comprises an inverter and a parallel pair of n- and p-channel transistors, Fig. 7. For a threshold of approximately 2V in each

channel and control voltage 10V, the gate control voltage of the p-m.o.s. is 0V. If  $V_{in} > 8$ V, the n-channel will be open, but the gate-source voltage of the p-m.o.s. is  $-8$ V (greater than threshold) and signal is switched through

because the  $V_{GS}$  of each transistor never equals the threshold of the transistors, the full supply range can be switched through.

**A.C. amplifier**  
 Best linearity and voltage swing of  $V_{out} = V_{DD}/2$  and this is provided by the resistive connections below  
 Supply drain  $\approx 2$ mA for 10V supply.

**Further reading**  
 RCA Solid-State Databook Series SSD-203A 1973.  
 Design Ideas with COS/MOS *New Electronics*, April 30, 1974.  
 I.C. op-amp has CMOS output *Electronics*, Sept. 19, 1974.  
 Fitchen, F. C. and Ellerbruch, V. G. Linear operation of the MOSFFT complementing pair, *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits*, Dec., 1971.

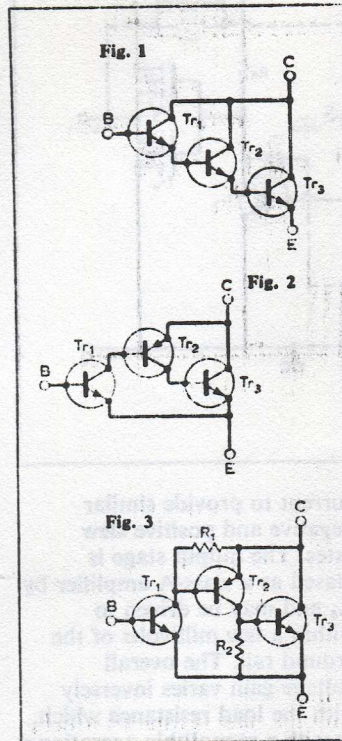
**Cross references**  
 Set 8, card 1.  
 Set 10, card 7.  
 Set 11, card 5.  
 Set 12, card 1.



### Triples & mixed pairs

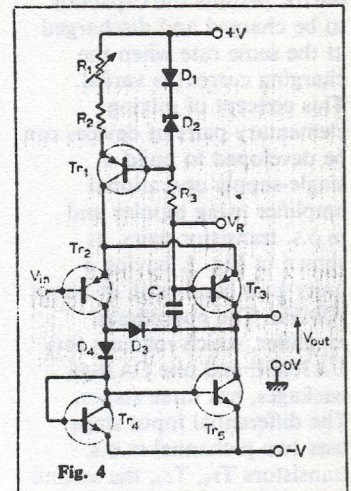
The principle of using transistors in pairs can often be usefully extended to the use of devices in triples, the resulting equivalent transistor having a current gain equal to the product of those of the individual transistors. In all such arrangements, two of which are shown above, the equivalent transistor has the same "polarity" as the input transistor.

The three n-p-n transistors in Fig. 1 act as a compound emitter-follower having a current gain of approximately  $h_{fe}^3$ , for large  $h_{fe}$ , and is useful for driving currents of several amps from a driver stage delivering less than a milliamp. The complementary transistor triple in Fig. 2 is useful in voltage regulators as a low-dissipation series element,



the  $V_{BE}$  and  $V_{CE}$  values of the equivalent transistor being the lowest possible for a triple. In this arrangement the temperature coefficient of only one transistor affects the output. The operating current in the input transistor will be very small, reducing its current gain. This effect can remove much of the benefit of using a triple instead of a pair. By using resistors as shown in Fig. 3 the operating currents in the earlier stages are increased and stabilized.

Thinking of the various pairs of devices discussed on other cards as elementary building blocks can prove a powerful method of developing more complicated circuit functions. For example, a long-tailed pair  $Tr_1$ ,  $Tr_2$  and  $Tr_3$  may be used to drive a current mirror  $Tr_4$  and  $Tr_5$  as shown in Fig. 4 to produce a waveform generator which provides a symmetrical



Typical values. Supply  $\pm 10V$ ,  $V_R$  0V,  $R_1$  5k $\Omega$ ,  $R_2$  2.2k $\Omega$ ,  $R_3$  4.7k $\Omega$ ,  $C_1$  33nF,  $D_1$  1N914,  $D_2$  1N5234,  $D_3$ ,  $D_4$  HP5082-2800,  $Tr_1$ ,  $Tr_2$ ,  $Tr_3$  2N3546,  $Tr_4$ ,  $Tr_5$   $\frac{1}{2}$   $\times$  SL301-A. triangular output when driven by input pulses. This circuit uses the long-tailed pair to

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### Pot pourri

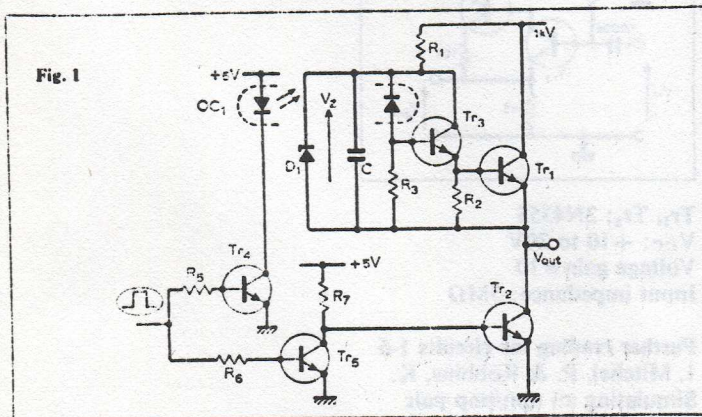
n-n-p/p-p-n simulation at high voltage

Optical couplers are used to provide fast high voltage switching with a simulated complementary pair. Transistors  $Tr_1$  and  $Tr_2$  are high-voltage n-p-n types:  $Tr_1$  is on when  $Tr_2$  is off and vice versa. With  $Tr_1$  off, C charges to  $V_z$ , storing

charge. This is used to turn  $Tr_1$  on fast when the optical coupler operates.

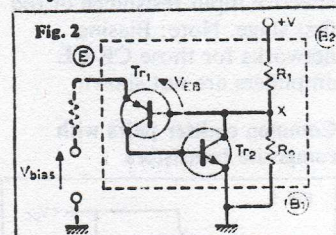
Optical coupler provides the polarity inversion when  $Tr_4$  and  $Tr_5$  are driven by 5V pulses.

$Tr_3$ ,  $Tr_4$ ,  $Tr_5$ : 2N2222  
 $R_1$ : 270k $\Omega$  (10W),  $R_2$ : 1k $\Omega$   
 $R_3$ : 100 $\Omega$ ,  $R_4$ : 47 $\Omega$   $R_5$



$R_6$ : 680 $\Omega$ , C: 10nF  
 $D_1$ : 6.8V zener, OC1: Monsanto MCO1  
 Rise and fall times of around 2 $\mu$ s are claimed for components used.

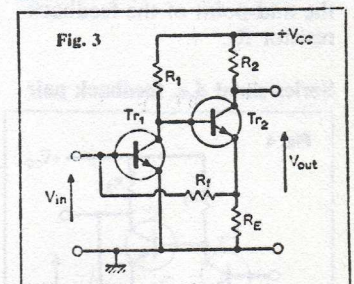
### Unijunction from bipolar pair



$Tr_1$ : 2N4126,  $Tr_2$ : 2N4124  
 $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ : 4.7k $\Omega$ , V: +3 to 25V  
 Because the collector current of  $Tr_1$  is the base current of  $Tr_2$  and vice versa, then any change of current provides a positive feedback action.  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$  and E are the equivalent unijunction terminals. When E is open-circuit  $V_x = R_1 V / (R_1 + R_2)$ .

When the potential at E exceeds  $V_{EB}$  and  $V_x$ , both transistors saturate, and  $R_2$  is short-circuited. This condition is maintained for a potential at E down to  $V_{EB} + V_{CESat}$  of  $Tr_2$ . Switching speed depends on maximum frequency of operation of the transistors. For  $Tr_1$ ,  $Tr_2$  silicon drift of  $V_{EB} < 3mV/deg C$ .

### Shunt-series d.c. feedback pair



Current fed back via  $R_f$  is proportional to  $Tr_2$  collector current, and thus the circuit provides current-shunt

switch a defined current into two paths; which combined with a closely-matched current mirror permits the capacitor to be charged and discharged at the same rate when the charging current is varied. This concept of mixing elementary pairs of devices can be developed to build a single-supply operational amplifier using bipolar and m.o.s. transistor pairs, as shown in Fig. 5, having a unity-gain bandwidth of about 10MHz. The operational amplifier, which requires two CA3600E and one CA3046 packages, has three stages. The differential input stage uses two p-channel m.o.s. transistors  $Tr_3, Tr_4$ , the second stage uses an n-p-n bipolar transistor  $Tr_7$ , and the output stage is a complementary m.o.s. transistor pair  $Tr_8, Tr_9$ . The zener network, using two diode-connected transistors  $D_1, D_2$  of the CA3046, feeds a p-channel current mirror  $Tr_2$  that establishes a 400 $\mu$ A constant current in the input

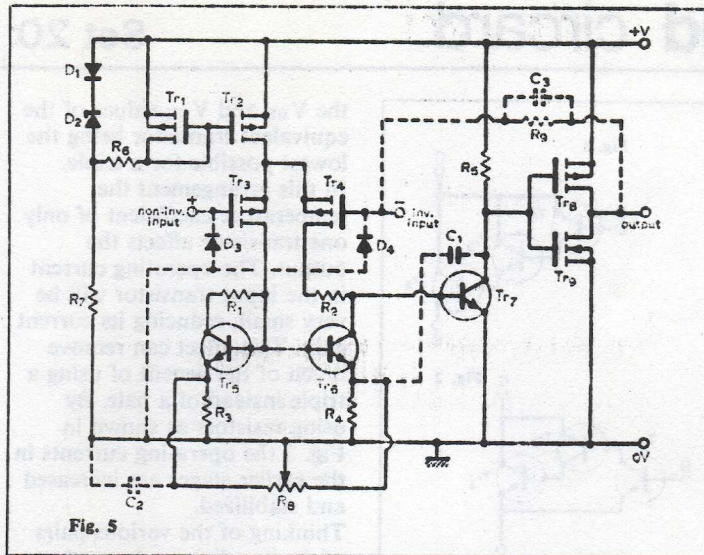


Fig. 5

stage. This differential-input amplifier is loaded by four resistors,  $R_1$  to  $R_4$ , and a bipolar current mirror,  $Tr_5, Tr_6$ , to provide optimum balance, any voltage offset being nulled with the potentiometer  $R_8$ . The current in the second stage, determined by  $R_5$ , is adjusted to equal the 400- $\mu$ A first-stage

current to provide similar negative and positive slew rates. The output stage is biased as a class-A amplifier by  $R_9$  and may be driven to within a few millivolts of the ground rail. The overall voltage gain varies inversely with the load resistance which, as with a monolithic operational

amplifier, would have a value of about 2k $\Omega$ . Compensation requires inclusion of the feedback capacitor  $C_1$ , with  $C_2$  added when using the operational amplifier as a unity-gain follower. In this configuration,  $R_9$  and  $C_3$  should be added to avoid the possibility of latch up and  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  added to the inputs to prevent negative-going input signals exceeding about 700mV which could also cause latch up. Typical values are:  $V+15V$ ;  $R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4$  200 $\Omega \pm 1\%$ ;  $R_5$  20k $\Omega \pm 1\%$ ;  $R_6$  11k $\Omega \pm 1\%$ ;  $R_7$  7.5k $\Omega \pm 1\%$ ;  $R_8$  10k $\Omega$ ;  $R_9$  1k $\Omega$ ;  $C_1$  39pF;  $C_2$  300pF;  $C_3$  150pF;  $D_3, D_4$  1N914.

**Further reading**  
Williams, P. Voltage Following, *Wireless World*, vol. 74, 1968, pp. 295-8.  
Nowicki, J. R. Compound transistor connections, *Electronic Engineering*, September, 1971, p.63.  
Burwen, E. High-gain triple Darlington has low saturation voltage, *Electronics*, Oct. 3, 1974.

negative feedback, which primarily controls the overall current-gain. Effective current gain is  $A_i/(1+\beta A_i)$  where  $A_i$  is the current gain of the two stages, with  $R_f$  connected between  $Tr_1$  base and ground.  $\beta \approx R_f/R_1$ . For  $\beta < 0.1$ , input resistance is  $R_i/(1+\beta A_i)$  where  $R_i$  is input resistance without feedback. Voltage gain  $\approx \frac{R_f}{R_E} \cdot \frac{R_2}{R_S}$  where  $R_S$  is source resistance. Voltage gain can be increased by by-passing  $R_E$ , or by-passing the mid-point of the feedback resistor  $R_f$ .

#### Series-shunt d.c. feedback pair

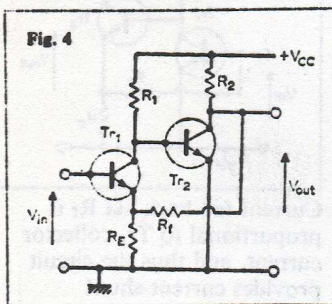


Fig. 4

In this connection, the voltage gain is now mainly affected by the feedback, and the input resistance is increased. Voltage gain is  $A_v/(1+\beta A_v) \approx 1/\beta$  if  $A_v$  is large.  $A_v$  is the product of the gains of each stage, with  $R_f$  connected from  $Tr_2$  collector to ground, and  $\beta = R_E/R_f$ . Input resistance is  $R_i(1+\beta A_v)$ , where  $R_i$  is effective input resistance of the first stage. Note: Biasing networks for those CE-CE amplifiers are not shown.

#### Common emitter pairs with composite transistors

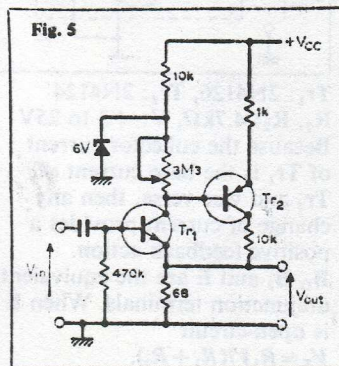


Fig. 5

$Tr_1, Tr_2$ : 2N4355  
 $V_{cc}$ : 15 to 30V  
Voltage gain  $\approx 100$   
Cut-off frequency  $\approx 10$ kHz  
Input resistance  $> 200$ k $\Omega$   
By sacrificing voltage gain, a high input impedance can be obtained with the circuit shown below.

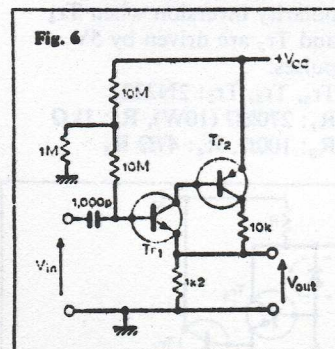


Fig. 6

$Tr_1, Tr_2$ : 2N4355  
 $V_{cc}$ : +10 to 30V  
Voltage gain  $\approx 10$   
Input impedance: 5M $\Omega$

**Further reading for circuits 1-6**  
1. Mitchel, P. & Robbins, K. Simulating an npn/pnp pair

for high voltage switching. *Electronics*, Aug. 22, 1974.  
2. Shyne, N. A. Bipolar pair simulates unijunction, *Electronics*, Jan. 24, 1974.  
3, 5, 6. Cowles, L. G. Transistor circuit design, Prentice-Hall, 1972.  
4. Millman & Halkies, *Electronic Devices and Circuits*, McGraw-Hill, 1967, p.502.

**Cross references**  
Set 20, cards 6, 7.  
Set 12, card 9.