

# GENERAL ELECTRIC TRANSISTOR MANUAL

# fifth edition

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## FOREWORD

In the past few years the transistor has become the symbol of the modern electronics industry. The wide spread usage of transistors is well deserved. It answers the equipment designers desire for a small, light, active and truly reliable electronic component having low heat dissipation, small power requirements and almost infinite life. Indeed, the transistor has opened an unlimited array of new application areas beyond those normally considered truly electronic.

With new transistors coming onto the market almost everyday, there is an urgent and continuing need for sound, basic information. With this in mind the first edition Transistor Manual was introduced by General Electric early in 1957 to provide a handy reference guide on available transistors and the basic principles of using them.

Since that time, General Electric has distributed over a half million copies all over the world and the manual has been translated into four different languages.

Again, we take pleasure in presenting the newest Transistor Manual, the fifth edition. This edition has been expanded by over 100 pages to include all new available transistor material. It is our hope that you find the manual informative and of continuing usefulness.

Jancher ABrainard

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## 1. BASIC SEMICONDUCTOR THEORY

In the few years since its introduction, the junction transistor has played a steadily increasing part in every branch of electronics. First applied in hearing aids and portable radios, the transistor now sees service in such diverse applications as industrial control systems, digital computers, automatic telephone exchanges, and telemetering transmitters for satellites. The next few years promise an equally spectacular growth since a "second generation" of semiconductor devices is now being introduced which will complement the junction transistor and extend the capabilities of semiconductor electronics. The frequency range of transistors will be extended into the UHF range by such devices as the tunnel diode and the "mesa" transistor. The power range will be extended by new devices such as the Silicon Controlled Rectifier which will make possible control circuits capable of operating to over 50 amperes, 400 volts, and 20 kilowatts. Devices such as the tunnel diode and the unijunction transistor will make possible simpler and more economical timing and switching circuits. Figure 1.1 lists the names and symbols for most of the semiconductor devices which are commercially available at the present time.

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6 QA 0 G 0 C 0 C 0 C 0 C 0 C 0 C 0 C 0 C	
<ol> <li>NPN transistor</li> <li>PNP transistor</li> <li>NPN tetrode transistor</li> <li>NPN tetrode transistor</li> <li>Tunnel diode</li> <li>PN unijunction transistor</li> <li>(6)(7) silicon controlled rectifier (NPNP transistor)</li> <li>rectifier or diode</li> <li>zener or breakdown diode</li> <li>symmetrical zener diode</li> </ol>	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$

## STANDARD SYMBOLS FOR SEMICONDUCTOR DEVICES FIGURE 1.1

## BASIC SEMICONDUCTOR THEORY

A complete understanding of semiconductor physics and the theory of transistor operation is, of course, not necessary for the construction or design of transistor circuits. However, both the electronics engineer and the hobbyist can obtain practical benefits from a general understanding of the basic theory of semiconductors. Such an understanding will often aid in solving special circuit problems and will prove of great assistance in the successful application of the newer semiconductor devices which become available. This chapter is concerned with the terminology and theory of semiconductors as it pertains to rectifiers and junction transistors. The theory and characteristics of other types of semiconductor devices such as the silicon controlled rectifier, the unijunction transistor, and the tunnel diode are discussed in later chapters of this manual.

The basic materials used in the manufacture of transistors are the *semiconductors* – materials which lie between the metals and the insulators in their ability to conduct electricity. The two semiconductors now being used are germanium and silicon. Both of these materials have four electrons in the outer shell of the atom (*valence electrons*). Germanium and silicon form crystals in which each atom has four neighboring atoms with which it shares its valence electrons to form four *covalent bonds*. Since all the valence electrons are required to form the covalent bonds there are no electrons free to move in the crystal and the crystal will be a poor electrical conductor. The conductivity can be increased by either heating the crystal or by adding other types of materials (*impurities*) to the crystal when it is formed.

Heating the crystal will cause vibration of the atoms which form the crystal. Occasionally one of the valence electrons will acquire enough energy (*ionization energy*) to break away from its parent atom and move through the crystal. When the parent atom loses an electron it will assume a positive charge equal in magnitude to the charge of the electron. Once an atom has lost an electron it can acquire an electron from one of its neighboring atoms. This neighboring atom may in turn acquire an electron from one of its neighbors. Thus it is evident that each free electron which results from the breaking of a covalent bond will produce an electron deficiency which can move through the crystal as readily as the free electron itself. It is convenient to consider these electron deficiencies as particles which have positive charges and which are called *holes*. Each time an electron is generated by breaking a covalent bond a hole is generated at the same time. This process is known as the *thermal generation* of *hole-electron pairs*. If a hole and a free electron collide, the electron will fill the electron deficiency which the hole represents and both the hole and electron will cease to exist as free charge carriers. This process is known as *recombination*.

The conductivity of a semiconductor material can also be increased by adding impurities to the semiconductor crystal when it is formed. These impurities may either be *donors* such as arsenic which "donate" extra free electrons to the crystal or *acceptors* such as aluminum which "accept" electrons from the crystal and produce free holes. A donor atom, which has five valence electrons, takes the place of a semiconductor atom in the crystal structure. Four of the five valence electrons are used to form covalent bonds with the neighboring semiconductor atoms. The fifth electron is easily freed from the atom and can move through the crystal. The donor atom assumes a positive charge, but remains fixed in the crystal. A semiconductor which contains donor atoms is called an *n-type* semiconductor since conduction occurs by virtue of free electrons (negative charge).

An acceptor atom, which has three valence electrons, can also take the place of a semiconductor atom in the crystal structure. All three of the valence electrons are used to form covalent bonds with the neighboring atoms. The fourth electron which is needed can be acquired from a neighboring atom, thus giving the acceptor atom a negative charge and producing a free hole in the crystal. A semiconductor which con-

tains acceptor atoms is called a *p-type* semiconductor since conduction occurs by virtue of free holes in the crystal (positive charge).

ELEMENT (SYMBOL)	GROUP IN PERIODIC TABLE	NUMBER VALENCE ELECTRONS	APPLICATIONS IN SEMICONDUCTOR DEVICES
boron (B) aluminum (Al) gallium (Ga) indium (In)	ш	3	acceptor elements, form p-type semiconductors, each atom substitutes for a Ge or Si atom in the semiconductor crystal and can take on or accept an extra electron thus producing a hole
germanium (Ge) silicon (Si)	IV	4	basic semiconductor materials, used in crystal form with con- trolled amounts of donor or acceptor impurities
phosphorus (P) arsenic (As) antimony (Sb)	V	5	donor elements, form n-type semiconductors, each atom substitutes for a Ge or Si atom in the semiconductor crystal and can give up or donate an extra electron to the crystal

### MATERIALS USED IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF TRANSISTORS AND OTHER SEMICONDUCTOR DEVICES FIGURE 1.2

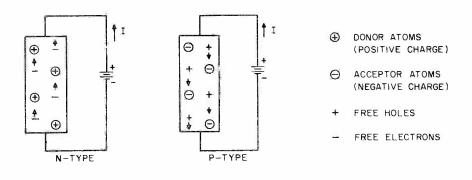
To summarize, conduction in a semiconductor takes place by means of free holes and free electrons (*carriers*) in the semiconductor crystals. These holes or electrons may originate either from donor or acceptor impurities in the crystal or from the thermal generation of hole-electron pairs. During the manufacture of the crystal, it is possible to control the conductivity and make the crystal either n-type or p-type by adding controlled amounts of donor or acceptor impurities. On the other hand, the thermally generated hole electron pairs cannot be controlled other than by varying the temperature of the crystal.

One of the most important principles involved in the operation of semiconductor devices is the *principle of space charge neutrality*. In simple terms, this principle states that the total number of positive charges (holes plus donor atoms) in any region of a semiconductor must equal the total number of negative charges (electrons plus acceptor atoms) in the same region provided that there are no large differences in voltage within the region. Use of this principle can frequently result in a simpler and more accurate interpretation of the operation of semiconductor devices. For example, in explaining

#### BASIC SEMICONDUCTOR THEORY

the characteristics of an n-type semiconductor it is usually stated that the function of the donor atoms is to produce free electrons in the crystal. However, using the principle of space charge neutrality it is more accurate to say that the function of the donor atoms is to provide positive charges within the crystal which permit an equal number of free electrons to flow through the crystal.

Carriers can move through a semiconductor by two different mechanisms: diffusion or drift. Diffusion occurs whenever there is a difference in the concentration of the carriers in any adjacent regions of the crystal. The carriers have a random motion owing to the temperature of the crystal so that carriers will move in a random fashion from one region to another. However, more carriers will move from the region of higher concentration to the region of lower concentration than will move in the opposite direction. Drift of carriers occurs whenever there is a difference in voltage between one region of the semiconductor and another. The voltage difference produces a force on the carriers causing the holes to move toward the more negative voltage and the electrons to move toward the more positive voltage. The mechanism of drift is illustrated in Figure 1.3 for both n-type and p-type semiconductors. For the n-type material, the electrons enter the semiconductor at the lower electrode, move upwards through the semiconductor and leave through the upper electrode, passing then through the wire to the positive terminal of the battery. Note that in accordance with the principle of space charge neutrality, the total number of electrons in the semiconductor is determined by the total number of acceptor atoms in the crystal. For the case of the p-type semiconductor, hole-electron pairs are generated at the upper terminal. The electrons flow through the wire to the positive terminal of the battery and the holes move downward through the semiconductor and recombine with electrons at the lower terminal.



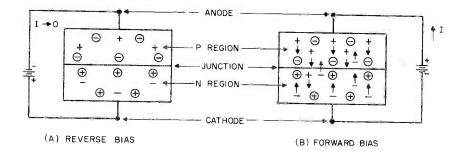
#### CONDUCTION IN N-TYPE AND P-TYPE SEMICONDUCTORS FIGURE 1.3

If a p-type region and an n-type region are formed in the same crystal structure, we have a device known as a rectifier or diode. The boundary between the two regions is called a *junction*, the terminal connected to the p-region is called the *anode*, and the terminal connected to the n-region is called the *cathode*. A rectifier is shown in Figure 1.4 for two conditions of applied voltage. In Figure 1.4A the anode is at a negative voltage with respect to the cathode and the rectifier is said to be *reverse biased*. The holes in the p-region are attracted toward the anode terminal (away from the junction) and the electrons in the n-region are attracted toward the cathode terminal (away from the junction). Consequently, no carriers can flow across the junction and no current

## BASIC SEMICONDUCTOR THEORY

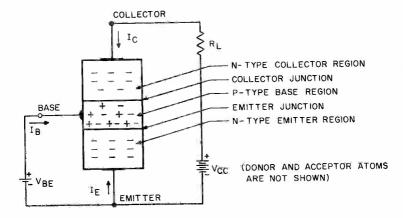
will flow through the rectifier. Actually a small *leakage current* will flow because of the few hole-electron pairs which are thermally generated in the vicinity of the junction. Note that there is a region near the junction where there are no carriers (*depletion layer*). The charges of the donor and acceptor atoms in the depletion layer generate a voltage which is equal and opposite to the voltage which is applied between the anode and cathode terminals. As the applied voltage is increased, a point will be reached where the electrons crossing the junction (leakage current) can acquire enough energy to produce additional hole-electron pairs on collision with the semiconductor atoms (*avalanche multiplication*). The voltage at which this occurs is called the *avalanche voltage* or *breakdown voltage* of the junction. If the voltage is increased above the breakdown voltage, large currents can flow through the junction and, unless limited by the external circuitry, this current can result in destruction of the rectifier.

In Figure 1.4B the anode of the rectifier is at a positive voltage with respect to the cathode and the rectifier is said to be *forward biased*. In this case, the holes in the p-region will flow across the junction and recombine with electrons in the n-region. Similarly, the electrons in the n-region will flow across the junction and recombine with the holes in the p-region. The net result will be a large current through the rectifier for only a small applied voltage.



## CONDUCTION IN A PN JUNCTION RECTIFIER FIGURE 1.4

An NPN transistor is formed by a thin p-region between two n-regions as indicated in Figure 1.5. The center p-region is called the *base* and in practical transistors is generally less than .001 inch wide. One junction is called the *emitter* junction and the other junction is called the *collector* junction. In most applications the transistor is used in the common emitter configuration as shown in Figure 1.5 where the current through the output or load ( $R_L$ ) flows between the emitter and collector and the control or input signal ( $V_{BE}$ ) is applied between the emitter and base. In the normal mode of operation, the collector junction is reverse biased by the supply voltage  $V_{CC}$  and the emitter junction is forward biased by the applied base voltage  $V_{BE}$ . As in the case of the rectifier, electrons flow across the forward biased emitter junction into the base. They diffuse through the base region and flow across the collector junction and then through the external collector circuit.



#### CONDUCTION IN A NPN JUNCTION TRANSISTOR (COMMON EMITTER CONFIGURATION) FIGURE 1.5

If the principle of space charge neutrality is used in the analysis of the transistor, it is evident that the collector current is controlled by means of the positive charge (hole concentration) in the base region. As the base voltage  $V_{BE}$  is increased the positive charge in the base region will be increased, which in turn will permit an equivalent increase in the number of electrons flowing between the emitter and collector across the base region. In an ideal transistor it would only be necessary to allow base current to flow for a short time to establish the desired positive charge. The base circuit could then be opened and the desired collector current would flow indefinitely. The collector current could be stopped by applying a negative voltage to the base and allowing the positive charge to flow out of the base region. In actual transistors, however, this can not be done because of several basic limitations. Some of the holes in the base region will flow across the emitter junction and some will combine with the electrons in the base region. For this reason, it is necessary to supply a current to the base to make up for these losses. The ratio of the collector current to the base current is known as the current gain of the transistor  $h_{FE} = I_C/I_B$ . For a-c signals the current gain is  $\beta = h_{fe} = i_c/i_b$ . The ratio of the a-c collector current to a-c emitter current is designated by  $a \equiv h_{fb} \equiv i_c/i_e$ .

When a transistor is used at higher frequencies, the fundamental limitation is the time it takes for carriers to diffuse across the base region from the emitter to the collector. Obviously, the time can be reduced by decreasing the width of the base region. The frequency capabilities of the transistor are usually expressed in terms of the *alpha cutoff frequency* ( $f_{hrb}$ ). This is defined as the frequency at which a decreases to 0.707 of its low frequency value. The alpha cutoff frequency may be related to the base charge characteristic and the base width by the equations:

$$T_{\rm E} = \frac{Q_{\rm B}}{I_{\rm E}} = \frac{W^2}{2D} = \frac{0.19}{f_{\rm hfb}}$$

where  $T_E$  is the emitter time constant,  $Q_B$  is the base charge required for an emitter current  $I_E$ , W is the base width, and D is the diffusion constant which depends on the semiconductor material in the base region.

#### BASIC SEMICONDUCTOR THEORY

As evident from Figure 1.5, the NPN transistor has some similarity with the vacuum tube triode. Positive voltage is applied to the collector of the transistor which corresponds to the plate of the tube, electrons are "emitted" by the cathode and are "collected" by the plate of the tube, and the control signal is applied to the base of the transistor which corresponds to the grid of the tube. One important difference between transistors and tubes is that the input impedance of the transistor is generally much lower than that of a tube. It is for this reason that transistors are usually considered as voltage controlled devices. Another important difference between transistors. That is, a PNP transistor will have characteristics similar to a NPN transistor except that in normal operation the polarities of all the voltages and currents will be reversed. This permits many circuits which would not be possible with tubes (since no tube can operate with negative plate voltage). Examples of complementary circuits can be found in other parts of this manual.

The operation of the transistor has been described in terms of the common emitter configuration. The term grounded emitter is frequently used instead of common emitter, but both terms mean only that the emitter is common to both the input circuit and output circuit. It is possible and often advantageous to use transistors in the common base or common collector configuration. The different configurations are shown in Figure 1.6 together with their comparative characteristics in class A amplifiers.

CIRCUIT CONFIGURATION		<b>CHARACTERISTICS</b> *	
COMMON EMITTER (CE)	RL	moderate input impedance moderate output impedance high current gain high voltage gain highest power gain	(1.3 K) (50 K) (35) (-270) (40 db)
COMMON BASE (CB)	R <sub>L</sub>	lowest input impedance highest output impedance low current gain high voltage gain moderate power gain.	$\begin{array}{c} (35 \ \Omega) \\ (1 \ M) \\ (-0.98) \\ (380) \\ (26 \ \mathrm{db}) \end{array}$
COMMON COLLECTOR (CC) (EMITTER FOLLOWER)	RL	highest input impedance lowest output impedance high current gain unity voltage gain lowest power gain	(350 K) (500 Ω) (-36) (1.00) (15 db)

5 volts and 1 ma., a load resistance of 10K, and a source (generator) resistance of 1K.

#### TRANSISTOR CIRCUIT CONFIGURATIONS FIGURE 1.6

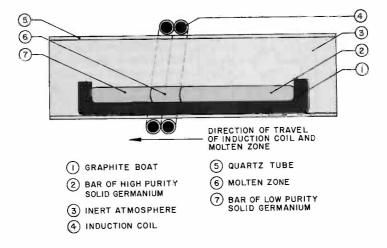
The knowledge of many sciences is required to build transistors. Physicists use the mathematics of atomic physics for design. Metallurgists study semiconductor alloys and crystal characteristics to provide data for the physicist. Chemists contribute in every facet of manufacturing through chemical reactions which etch, clean and stabilize transistor surfaces. Mechanical engineers design intricate machines for precise handling of microminiature parts. Electronic engineers test transistors and develop new uses for them. Statisticians design meaningful life test procedures to determine reliability. Their interpretation of life test and quality control data leads to better manufacturing procedures.

The concerted effort of this sort of group has resulted in many different construction techniques. All these techniques attempt to accomplish the same goal – namely to construct two parallel junctions as close together as possible. Therefore, these techniques have in common the fundamental problems of growing suitable crystals, forming junctions in them, attaching leads to the structure and encapsulating the resulting transistor. The remainder of this chapter discusses these problems and concludes with their bearing on reliability as illustrated by examples.

## METAL PREPARATION

Depending on the type of semiconductor device being made, the structure of the semiconductor material varies from highly perfect single crystal to extremely polycrystalline. The theory of transistors and rectifiers, however, is based on the properties of single crystals. Defects in a single crystal produce effects much the same as impurities and are generally undesirable.

Germanium and silicon metal for use in transistor manufacture must be so purified that the impurity concentration ranges from about one part in 10<sup>a</sup> to one part in 10<sup>u</sup>. Then a dominant impurity concentration is obtained by doping. Finally, the metal must be grown into a single highly perfect crystal.



SIMPLIFIED ZONE REFINING APPARATUS FIGURE 2.1

The initial purification of germanium and silicon typically involves reactions which produce the chemical compounds germanium and silicon tetrachloride or dioxide. These compounds can be processed to give metallic germanium or silicon of relatively high purity. The metal so prepared is further purified by a process called zone refining. This technique makes use of the fact that many impurities are more soluble when the metal is in its liquid state, thus enabling purification to result by progressive solidification from one end of a bar of metal.

In practical zone refining a narrow molten zone is caused to traverse the length of a bar. A cross-sectional view of a simplified zone refining furnace is shown in Figure 2.1. High purity metal freezes out of the molten zone as the impurities remain in solution. By repeating the process a number of times, the required purity level can be reached. During the process it is important that the metal be protected from the introduction of impurities. This is done by using graphite or quartz parts to hold the metal, and by maintaining an inert atmosphere or vacuum around it. The heating necessary to produce a narrow molten zone is generally accomplished by induction heating, i.e., by coils carrying radio frequency energy and encircling the metal bar in which they generate heat.

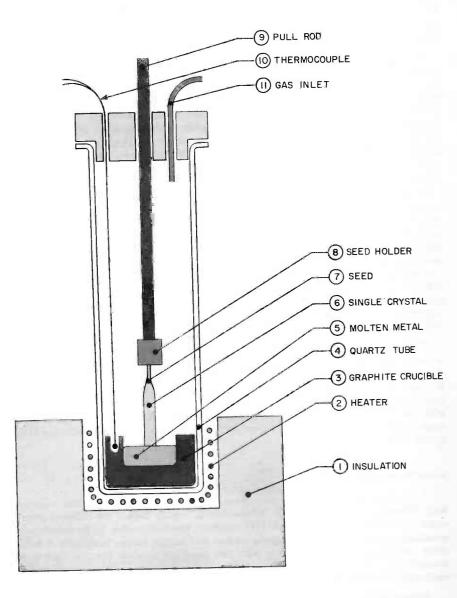
The purified metal is now ready for doping and growing into a single crystal. A common method for growing single crystals is the Czochralski method illustrated in Figure 2.2. In it a crucible maintains molten metal a few degrees above its melting point. A small piece of single crystal called a seed is lowered into the molten metal and then slowly withdrawn. If the temperature conditions are properly maintained a single crystal of the same orientation, i.e., molecular pattern as the seed grows on it until all the metal is grown into the crystal. Doping materials can be added to the molten metal in the crucible to produce appropriate doping. The rate at which doping impurities are transferred from the molten metal to the crystal can be varied by the crystal growing rate, making it possible to grow transistor structures directly into the single crystal. This is discussed in detail in the next section.

The floating zone technique for both refining and growing single crystals has recently been introduced. It is quite similar in principle to zone refining except that the graphite container for the bar is eliminated, reducing the risk of contamination. In place of it, clamps at both ends hold the bar in a vertical position in the quartz tube. The metal in the molten zone is held in place by surface tension. Doping agents added at one end of the bar can be uniformly distributed through the crystal by a single cycle of zone refining. This technique has had much success in producing high quality silicon metal.

### JUNCTION FORMATION

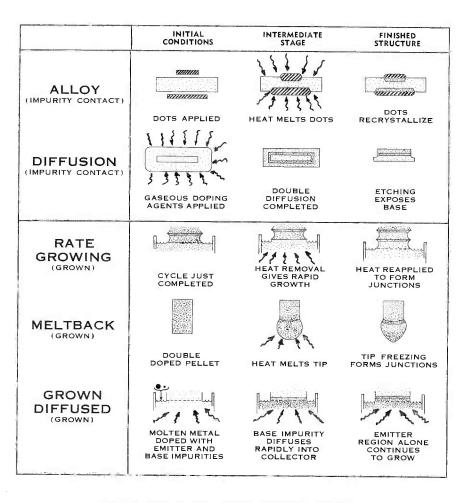
A junction may be defined as the surface separating two parts of a semiconductor with different properties. P-type or N-type doping usually defines the different properties. Transistors generally utilize PN junctions; however, metal to semiconductor junctions are used to manufacture point contact and surface barrier transistors. A transistor can be defined as a structure with two junctions so close together that they interact with one another. For example, the collector junction is close enough to the emitter to collect the current that diffuses into the base region.

Techniques for forming junctions may be subdivided into two basic types, impurity contact or grown junction. The impurity contact method involves treating a homogeneous crystalline wafer with impurities to generate the different properties which form the junction. The grown junction technique involves incorporating into the crystal during its growth the impurities necessary to produce junctions. Alloy transistors, surface barrier transistors, as well as transistors using surface diffusion are examples of



# SIMPLIFIED CRYSTAL GROWING FURNACE

the impurity contact process. Rate grown, meltback and grown diffused transistors are examples of the grown process. These processes, illustrated in Figure 2.3, are discussed below.



IMPURITY CONTACT AND GROWN JUNCTION TECHNIQUES FIGURE 2.3

The alloy transistor process starts with a wafer of semiconductor material doped to a desired level. Alloying contacts or dots containing impurities are then pressed on either side of the wafer. Heat is applied to the assembly, melting the dots which dissolve some of the wafer, giving an alloy solution. Heat is removed and the solution allowed to freeze. Due to the behavior of impurities during recrystallization, a heavy concentration of donors or acceptors is left at the alloy-semiconductor material boundary. The boundaries are the emitter and collector junctions. The larger dot is the collector. Indium, an acceptor type impurity, when alloyed to antimony doped germa-

nium results in PNP alloy transistors such as the 2N123, 2N396 and 2N525. The final structure of surface barrier and microalloy transistors is similar to that of the alloy transistor. The difference lies in initial etching of the wafer to minimize its thickness followed by plating of the emitter and collector dots. Microalloy transistors melt the dots, generating a recrystallized region which results in normal semiconductor to semiconductor junctions. Surface barrier transistors do not melt the dots and therefore have metal to semiconductor junctions.

In diffusion processes, a wafer of semiconductor material is inserted into a capsule containing one or more impurity elements. The starting material has an impurity concentration suitable for the collector of the transistor. Heat is applied to this system with the result that the impurity elements diffuse into the semiconductor material. If only one impurity element is used, it generates a diffused base region. Subsequently, an emitter region must be added to the structure to form a complete transistor. If two impurity elements are used with germanium wafers, the donor elements will diffuse faster than the acceptor elements and a PNP structure will result. If silicon wafers are used, the acceptor element will diffuse faster than the donor element, resulting in a NPN structure. After the diffusion cycle, proper cutting and etching of the wafer yields transistor structures.

The rate grown process has been applied successfully to germanium yielding transistors such as the 2N78 and 2N167. The molten metal in the crucible contains both donor and acceptor elements. The donor element is sensitive to growth rate so that the amount of this impurity being deposited in the crystal varies as the growing conditions are varied. While a single crystal is being grown from the molten metal, the power is turned off and the crystal is permitted to grow very rapidly. Then excessive power is applied. Growth stops and the crystal starts to remelt. Again the power is turned off. As the metal cools, melting stops and the crystal begins to grow. At the point where the growth rate is zero, the acceptor element predominates and a P region is established across the germanium crystal. Repeating this process, it is possible to grow multiple NPN structures in a single crystal.

In the meltback process, a single crystal doped with both donor and acceptor elements is grown. The crystal is then waferized and diced into small pellets or bars. Each pellet has both donors and acceptors in it. Heat is applied to the tip of the pellet, producing a small drop of molten metal held on by surface tension. Heat is removed and the drop recrystallizes. By taking advantage of the differences in the rate of deposition of the donor and acceptor elements in the drop, a very thin base region is formed, The meltback process yields NPN transistors such as the germanium 2N1289.

The grown diffused process is started by growing a crystal which is doped to the desired collector resistivity. Donor and acceptor elements are added to the molten metal at the same time. Growth continues, but the concentration of impurities has vastly increased. During the growing period, advantage is taken of the different diffusion rates of donor and acceptor elements. In silicon the more rapid acceptors generate diffused base NPN transistors such as the 2N335 and 2N338.

Figure 2.4 lists some of the attributes of junction formation processes. It is seen that the grown processes yield bar shaped transistor structures. Also, all but the now obsolete double-doped process give accelerating base fields to enhance high frequency performance. The rate grown process alone gives more than one wafer from each crystal. Grown diffused and double-doped processes give one wafer per crystal while the meltback process requires melting of each individual bar. Among the limitations of the grown processes is the fact that complimentary types generally are not possible. Also, the bar structure is relatively difficult to heatsink. However, the introduction of the fixed bed construction has resulted in thermal impedances lower than those of many alloy transistors.

Transistors utilizing a surface diffused region have a flat collector surface facilitating heatsink attachment. Because theoretically diffusion can be applied in a variety of ways, great design flexibility is possible. Practically, however, process complexity has limited the number of types being made.

Alloy and microalloy transistors yield two-sided structures which most nearly approximate ideal switches in DC characteristics. Both types have been combined with diffused bases to enhance high frequency performance.

It is seen that many of the structures give similar resistivity profiles and therefore are capable of similar results. For example, both meltback and microalloy diffused transistors have a sharp emitter to base emitter junction, an accelerating field in the base and a low resistivity collector. This results in excellent high frequency characteristics while maintaining relatively high voltage ratings and a moderate saturation resistance. Comparing these with the grown diffused transistor, the latter has the same abrupt emitter junction and graded base resistivity for good high frequency performance, but it does not have a low saturation resistance. Therefore, it is best suited for amplifier applications. On the other hand, the combination of grown diffused bars and fixed bed construction has led to respectable NPN silicon switching transistors such as the G-E 2N338.

The diffused alloy and alloy diffused structures differ in that the former is essentially a conventional alloy transistor with the addition of a diffused base region on the emitter side. The alloy diffused structure, however, has a wafer doped to the required collector resistivity and generates the base region by diffusion out of the emitter dot which has initially been doped with both donor and acceptor impurities.

The diffused base and diffused emitter-and-base structures have the same profiles. However, the former has the emitter junction formed by microalloying a semiconductor junction onto the surface of the base; the latter has the emitter already formed by diffusion.

Generally uniformity in transistor characteristics is attributed to processes capable of forming a large number of transistor structures simultaneously, but this uniformity can only be exploited if there is corresponding uniformity in pellet mounting and lead attachment.

## LEAD ATTACHMENT

Both ohmic and semiconductor type contacts are required for attaching leads to a transistor structure. Ohmic contacts, i.e., normal non-rectifying contacts, are used to attach leads to exposed regions such as the emitter and collector dots of an alloy transistor or the emitter and collector portions of grown transistor bars. The connection between the mounting base or header leads, and the leads from the transistor structure should also be ohmic. Unless care is taken, leads may form additional PN junctions. If the PN junction is in the collector a PNPN structure results. The same structure is found in the Silicon Controlled Rectifier and therefore it may cause the transistor to turn on regeneratively either at high temperatures or at high collector currents. If the PN junction is in the base lead, it results in a higher base to emitter input voltage, which is a strong function of temperature. This additional junction also affects the base turn off drive in switching circuits and will increase storage time and fall time beyond that of a normal transistor.

On the other hand, semiconductor contacts, i.e., PN junctions, can be useful. They make possible contact with the base region when overlapping the emitter or collector region by the base lead is unavoidable. Grown transistors have extremely narrow base regions so that rugged base leads generally overlap adjacent regions. By doping the base lead heavily with the same impurity as the base, an ohmic type contact is formed

PROCESS DESIGNATION	GEOMETRICAL SHAPE B = Bar D = Double Sided Wafer S = Single Sided Wafer	CROSS-SECTIONAL VIEW SHOWING JUNCTIONS (Not to scale)	RESISTIVITY* PROFILE (Horizontal line is intrinsic resistivity and separates regions. Emitter always on the left.)
RATE GROWN	В	EBC	E B C
MELTBACK	В		
MELTBACK DIFFUSED	B.		
GROWN DIFFUSED	В		
DOUBLE DOPED	В		-]
ALLOY	Ď		
DIFFUSED ALLOY (DRIFT)	D		t
ALLOY DIFFUSED	5		t
DIFFUSED BASE (MESA)	Continuente de la Collègne de	B () E ()	
DIFFUSED EMITTER-BASE (MESA)	s	BE	
SURFACE BARRIER	p	E	
MICRO ALLOY	D	Þ	
MICRO ALLOY DIFFUSED	D	96	

\*Profiles are typical and not necessarily to the same scale since processing details can alter profiles considerably. †Diffused alloy and alloy diffused are capable of identical profiles.

ACCELERATING BASE FIELD	TYPES THEORETICALLY POSSIBLE (Bracketed Types Unavailable Commercially)		NUMBER OF STRUCTURES FORMED	REPRESENTATIVE TRANSISTOR
	GERMANIUM	SILICON	SIMULTANEOUSLY	TYPES
YES	NPN	*	MULTIPLE	2N167
YES	NPN	(NPN) (PNP)	INDIVIDUAL	2N1289
YES	PNP	NPN	INDIVIDUAL	
YES	PNP	NPN	MULTIPLE	2N335
NO	(NPN) (PNP)	NPN (PNP)	MULTIPLE	903
NO	PNP NPN	PNP NPN	INDIVIDUAL	2N525
YES	PNP (NPN)	(PNP) (NPN)	INDIVIDUAL	2N247
YES	PNP	(NPN)	INDIVIDUAL	
YES	PÑP (NPN)	(PNP) (NPN)	MULTIPLE	2N695
YES	(PNP) (NPN)	PNP NPN	MULTIPLE	
NO	PNP (NPN)	(PNP) (NPN)	INDIVIDUAL	2N344
NO	PNP (NPN)	PNP (NPN)	INDIVIDUAL	2N393
ŶES	PNP (NPN)	NPN (PNP)	INDIVIDUAL	2N501

JUNCTION PROCESSES AND CHARACTERISTICS

to the base region while semiconductor contacts are simultaneously made to the emitter and collector. With normal transistor biasing, the collector to base PN junction so formed is normally reverse biased. Its primary effect is to increase the collector capacitance. The emitter junction, however, is forward biased, permitting a portion of the base current to be shunted through the overlap diode rather than to be injected into the base region. However, emitter overlap can be completely eliminated by electrolytic etching as in the 2N1289. Mesa-like transistors can also use advantageously heavily doped base leads to permit deep penetration of the base region.

Many materials are suitable for leads, especially if they are doped appropriately. Aluminum, gold, indium, nickel have been used successfully. Gold, which is readily doped P or N-type, is used successfully with both germanium and silicon.

Leads of circular and rectangular cross sections are common. Circular leads offer ease of handling; rectangular, offer a lower base resistance. With rate grown transistors, a circular lead is placed along the full length of the base region to combine the low base resistance of a ribbon contact with the advantages of the circular cross-section.

Alloying, soldering, welding and thermo compression bonding (TCB) are used for attaching leads to header terminals and to the transistor structure. Gold and aluminum are alloyed with germanium and silicon. In some cases, fluxless soldering is the preferred method, for example, in attaching leads to the indium dots on PNP alloy transistors. Welding finds an application primarily in attaching leads to the header terminals. Thermo compression bonding (TCB), which forms contacts by crushing the leads into the transistor structure at elevated temperatures, is of interest since it permits the very shallow surface penetration by the leads which is essential in extremely high frequency transistors. TCB also minimizes potential damage to the junctions because the leads are attached at relatively low temperatures. Close process control is necessary, however, since a precise balance between plastic and elastic deformation must be held to prevent contact failure during thermal cycling.

#### ENCAPSULATION

The term encapsulation is used here to describe the processing from the completion of the transistor structure to the final sealed unit. The primary purpose of encapsulation is to ensure reliability. This is accomplished by protecting the transistor from mechanical damage and providing a seal against harmful impurities. Encapsulation also governs thermal ratings and the stability of electrical characteristics.

The transistor structure is prepared for encapsulation by etching to dissolve the surface metal which may have acquired impurities during manufacture. Following etching, a controlled atmosphere prevents subsequent surface contamination. The transistor now is raised to a high temperature, is evacuated to eliminate moisture and is refilled with a controlled atmosphere. Then the cap, into which a getter may be placed, is welded on.

In some respects the design of the case, through its contribution to transistor reliability, is as important as that of the transistor structure. Mechanically, users expect to drop transistors, snap them into clips or bend their leads without any damage. Thermally, users expect the header lead seals to withstand the thermal shock of soldering, the junctions to be unaffected by heating during soldering, and the internal contacts to be unchanged by thermal cycling. Considerable design skill and manufacturing cost is necessary to meet the users expectations. Within the transistor structure, coefficients of expansion are matched to prevent strain during thermal cycling. Kovar lead seals withstand the shock of soldering and do not fatigue and lose their effectiveness after thermal cycling. Hard solders and welds maintain constant thermal impedance with time, avoiding possible crystallization of soft solders.

For the stability of electrical characteristics, hermetic seals cannot be over-

emphasized. They not only preserve the carefully controlled environment in which the transistor is sealed but they exclude moisture which causes instability. While some transistors can tolerate pure water vapor, water makes possible the ionization and migration of other harmful contaminants. Moisture can be responsible for slow reversible drifts in electrical characteristics as operating conditions are changed. Also, while a transistor is warming up after exposure to low temperatures, moisture may precipitate on the transistor surfaces, causing a large temporary increase in Ico. Kovar-hard glass lead seals are used in transistors designed for reliability. Kovar does not have the low thermal impedance or ductility of copper, however, and therefore seal integrity is paid for by a lower dissipation rating and a lower tolerance to lead bending.

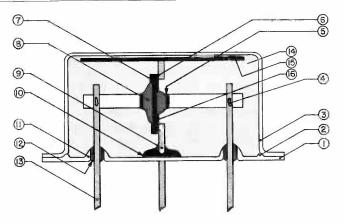
The case design governs the transistor's thermal impedance, which should be as low as possible and consistent from unit to unit. Very small cases minimize the junction to case impedance while increasing the case to air impedance. Larger cases such as the JEDEC 370 mil TO-9 combine a lower case to air impedance, with a lead configuration and indexing tab permitting automatic insertion of transistors into printed circuit boards.

#### RELIABILITY

Transistors have no known failure mechanism which should limit their life expectancy. Sufficient data has been collected to date to show that with careful construction techniques, transistors are capable of operation in excess of 30,000 hours at maximum ratings without appreciable degradation. Since transistors can perform logical operations at very low dissipation and amplify at high efficiency, the resulting low dissipation reduces the ambient temperature for other components, enhancing their reliability as well. The transistor's small physical size and its sensitivity to small voltage changes at the base, results in low circuit capacitances and low power requirements, permitting large safety factors in design. The variety of manufacturing processes being used by the industry permits choosing the optimum transistor for any circuit requirement. For example, rate grown transistors offer low  $I_{C0}$  and low  $C_c$  for applications requiring low collector current. Alloy transistors offer high peak power capabilities, great versatility in application, and are available in both PNP and NPN types. Meltback or mesa transistors give high speed at high voltage ratings while microalloy transistors give high speed and good saturation characteristics in lieu of high voltages.

Reliability is a measure of how well a device or a system satisfies a set of electrical requirements for a given period of time under a specified set of operating conditions. Because reliability involves the element of time, only life tests can provide data on reliability. Life tests, however, indicate what the transistor was and how much it has changed during the life test, but they are only a measure of reliability if correlations have been established between the deterioration during life tests and reliability. Life tests alone are inadequate in guaranteeing reliability because they cannot check all potential causes of failure. For example, they will not detect intermittent contacts or the excessive moisture which may cause erratic low temperature performance. Fortunately, other tests detect such conditions, but these problems have led to the adage that reliability cannot be tested in.

While it is true that reliability must be built in, it has seldom proved practical in the past to make an absolute measurement of a specific transistor's reliability. Transistors currently are sufficiently reliable that huge samples and considerable expense in manpower, equipment, and inventory are necessary to get a true measure of their reliability. However, tests can readily show if a transistor falls far short of the required reliability; therefore, they are useful in assigning ratings, in obtaining rate of degradation measurements, and as a measure of quality control or process variability. Figures 2.5, 2.6, 2.7 show some of the considerations in designing reliable transistors.



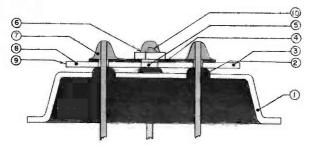
- (I) KOVAR METAL FOR BEST HERMETIC SEAL
- (2) RIDGE ASSURES BETTER PRECISION IN WELDING
- 3 COPPER CLAD STEEL FOR STRAIN FREE FABRICATION, SALT SPRAY RESISTANCE AND MECHANICAL STRENGTH
- WELDED CONTACTS BETWEEN COLLECTOR AND EMITTER TABS, AND HEADER LEADS
- (5) SPECIAL ALLOYS AND PROCESSING TO PREVENT POOR WETTING AND CONSEQUENT INTERMITTENT CONTACT
- SPECIAL ALLOYS BETWEEN WAFER AND SUPPORTING WINDOW TO CONTROL STRESSES DUE TO THERMAL EXPANSION, TO GET GOOD WETTING BETWEEN WINDOW AND WAFER REDUCING THERMAL IMPEDANCE AND SERIES BASE RESISTANCE, TO GET PURELY OHMIC CONTACT
- (7) CRYSTAL ORIENTATION CHOSEN TO PREVENT DOT SPREADING
- OLLECTOR DOT CENTERED EXACTLY OPPOSITE EMITTER DOT FOR HIGH CURRENT GAIN
- (9) THICK WINDOW TO MINIMIZE THERMAL IMPEDANCE TO CASE
- (O) TWO LARGE WELDS PROVIDE HEAT PATH FROM WINDOW TO CASE
- (I) SHOULDER ON SEAL FOR STRENGTH
- (2) KOVAR TO HARD GLASS MATCHED COEFFICIENT SEAL
- (3) KOVAR LEADS HELP RE DUCE JUNCTION HEATING DURING SOLDERING
- GASEOUS ATMOSPHERE AVOIDS THE MIGRATION OF IONS POSSIBLE WITH FLUID TYPE FILLERS
- GETTER TABLET TO PERMANENTLY ABSORB ANY MOISTURE DUE TO OUTGASSING
- SPECIAL ETCHING AND SURFACE TREATMENT RESULTS IN STABLE I CO AT ALL TEMPERATURES, VERY LOW NOISE FIGURE, AND SMALL I CO VARIATION WITH COLLECTOR VOLTAGE.

#### DESIGN FOR RELIABILITY (TYPES 2N43, 2N396, 2N525) FIGURE 2.5

While a transistor's design must be inherently reliable to yield a reliable product, the design must be coupled with vigorous quality control in manufacturing and accelerated life tests to verify that the process is truly under control.

There are a number of tests which appear to correlate with reliability; however, their significance and applicability to any specific transistor type will vary and must be assessed on this basis.

Storage of transistors at their maximum rated temperature can be a measure of process cleanliness, since chemical activity doubles approximately every ten degrees centigrade. Caution should be used since some organic fillers decompose if the rated temperature is exceeded.



- () KOVAR METAL HEADER FOR BEST HERMETIC SEAL
- 2 RAISED GLASS BEAD TO PREVENT POSSIBLE OCCLUSION OF CONTAMINANTS
- ③ CERAMIC DISK WITH COEFFICIENT OF THERMAL EXPANSION MATCHING THAT OF SILICON
- (4) GOLD STRIPS BONDED TO CERAMIC BY TECHNIQUES PERFECTED FOR CERAMIC TUBE
- 5 SLIT IN DISK CUT TO ± 0.001 " TOLERANCE
- (6) BASE REGION PLACED CLOSE TO COLLECTOR CONTACT FOR LOW THERMAL IMPEDANCE AND LOW SATURATION RESISTANCE
- THARD SOLDER PREVENTS THERMAL FATIQUE PROBLEMS
- (B) SPECIAL NON-POROUS CERAMIC IS IMPERVIOUS TO PROCESSING CHEMICALS
- (9) DISK DIAMETER SMALL ENOUGH TO PREVENT ANY CONTACT WITH CASE
- () BASE LEAD ATTACHED TO GOLD STRIP

#### FIXED BED MOUNTING DESIGN FOR RELIABILITY (TYPES 2N335, 2N337, 2N491) FIGURE 2.6

When operating transistors under dissipation, it is preferable to turn the transistors off for approximately ten minutes every hour in order to induce thermal cycling. Thermal cycling will tend to fatigue compression seals, will detect intermittent contacts or poor welds and, by establishing thermal gradients, will accelerate migration of any impurities that may be present.

Some transistors find operation at high voltages and high junction temperatures simultaneously most deleterious. Thermal runaway can be avoided without invalidating the test by applying a collector to base potential and disconnecting the emitter.

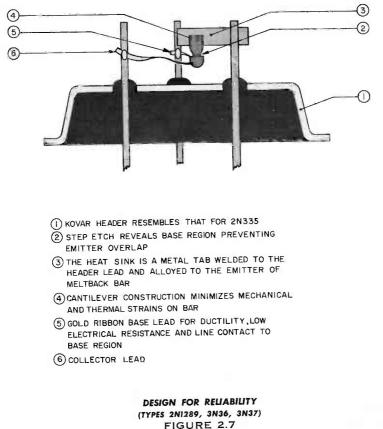
To determine the safety factor in the manufacturer's dissipation rating, life tests at 20% over-rating should detect marginal units. Caution should be exercised with transistors using organic fillers such as greases or oils, since the cases may rupture if the transistors overheat.

With some transistors, a drift in  $I_{co}$  at room temperature is believed to correlate with reliability. In germanium transistors, a drift of more than 1  $\mu$ a in 15 seconds after power is applied is considered excessive where reliability is of paramount importance.

A transistor may pass the high temperature tests readily even though it will malfunction at low temperatures due to moisture. Moisture can be detected by monitoring  $I_{c0}$  while a transistor warms up after being cooled to dry ice temperatures. A significant increase in  $I_{c0}$  while the transistor is warming up is indicative of moisture. Care should be taken, however, that vapor condensation on the outside of the transistor case is not responsible for the increase in  $I_{c0}$ . Two tests of hermetic seal which are widely used in the industry are the detergent pressure bomb and the Radiflo test. The former involves pressurizing transistors in water to which a small quantity of detergent has been added. On penetrating leaky seals, the detergent contaminates the junctions. To be significant, the test should use a relatively high pressure for a long period of time, particularly if organic fillers are used which might protect the junction temporarily. The Radiflo test forces a gas with a radioactive tracer into the transistor through leaky seals. A Geiger counter detects the presence of the radioactive gas within the leaky transistors.

Another measure of potential reliability are the distribution curves of the major parameters. Except where screening has been done to narrow limits, the distribution curves should be approximately Gaussian, indicating that the transistors represent good process control and statistically will ensure non-critical circuit performance.

The above tests can be made more significant by selecting the samples from several sources over a period of time. This permits a realistic appraisal of the manufacturing process control.



GURE 2. 24

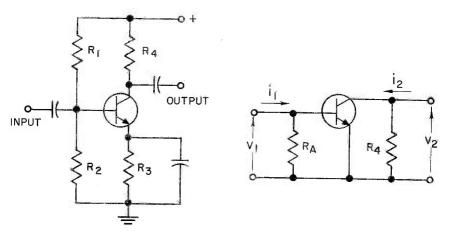
# 3. SMALL SIGNAL CHARACTERISTICS

A major area of transistor applications is in various types of low level a-c amplifiers. One example is a phonograph preamplifier where the output of a phonograph pickup (generally about 8 millivolts) is amplified to a level suitable for driving a power amplifier (generally 1 volt or more). Other examples of low level or small signal amplifiers include the IF and RF stages of radio and TV receivers and preamplifiers for servo systems.

As described in Chapter 4 on large signal characteristics a transistor can have very nonlinear characteristics when used at low current and voltage levels. For example, if conduction is to take place in an NPN transistor the base must be positive with respect to the emitter. Thus, if an a-c signal were applied to the base of an NPN transistor, conduction would take place only during the positive half cycle of the applied signal and the amplified signal would be highly distorted. To make possible linear or undistorted amplification of small signals, fixed d-c currents and voltages are applied to the transistor simultaneously with the a-c signal. This is called biasing the transistor, and the <u>d-c collector current and d-c collector to emitter voltage are referred to as the</u> bias conditions.

The bias conditions are chosen so that the largest a-c signal to be amplified is small compared to the d-c bias current and voltage. <u>Transistors used in small signal amplifiers</u> are normally biased at currents between 0.5 and 10 ma. and voltages between 2 and 10 volts. Bias currents and voltages below this range can cause problems of distortion, while bias currents and voltages above this range can cause problems of excessive noise and power dissipation.

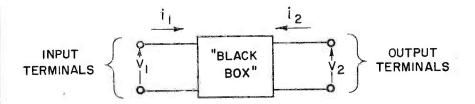
A typical circuit for a single stage low level a-c amplifier is shown in Figure 3.1. Resistors  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_3$  form the biasing circuit, the design of which is described in Chapter 5. The capacitors serve to block the d-c voltages, but offer a low impedance path to the a-c signal voltages. Thus, as far as the a-c signals are concerned, the circuit of Figure 3.1 is equivalent to the much simpler circuit of Figure 3.2. Resistor  $R_4$  represents the parallel resistance of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , while v and i designate the values of the a-c voltage and current.



TYPICAL LOW LEVEL A-C AMPLIFIER CIRCUIT AND A-C EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT FIGURES 3.1 AND 3.2

### SMALL SIGNAL CHARACTERISTICS

For the purpose of circuit design any amplifier, whether a single transistor stage or a complete circuit, can be considered as a "black box" which has two input terminals and two output terminals as indicated in Figure 3.3. The circuit designer, knowing the electrical characteristics of the "black box", can calculate the performance of the amplifier when various signal sources are applied to its input and various loads are connected to its output.



## BLACK BOX REPRESENTATION OF AN AMPLIFIER CIRCUIT FIGURE 3.3

Network theory tells us that the complete electrical characteristics of a "black box" such as Figure 3.3 can be specified in terms of four parameters. The parameters which are frequently used for specifying the characteristics of transistors and in the analysis of transistor circuits are the "hybrid" or "h" parameters. The "h" parameters are defined by the equations:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{h}_{11}\mathbf{i}_1 + \mathbf{h}_{12}\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{h}_1 \mathbf{i}_1 + \mathbf{h}_r \mathbf{v}_2 \tag{1}$$

$$\mathbf{i}_2 = \mathbf{h}_{21}\mathbf{i}_1 + \mathbf{h}_{22}\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{h}_f \, \mathbf{i}_1 + \mathbf{h}_0 \, \mathbf{v}_2$$
(2)

where

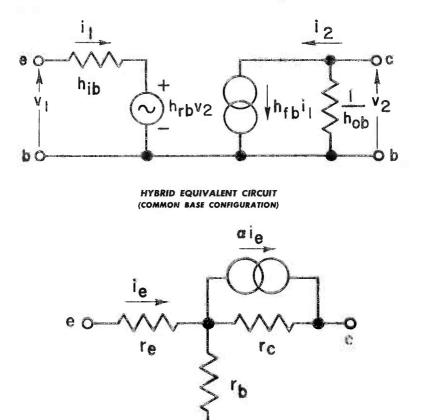
$h_{\scriptscriptstyle 11}\equiv h_{\scriptscriptstyle 1_2}$	is the input impedance with the output a-c short circuited (ohms)
$h_{12}\equiv h_{\rm r}$	is the reverse voltage transfer ratio with the input a-c open circuited (dimensionless) $% \left( {{{\bf{r}}_{{\rm{s}}}}_{{\rm{s}}}} \right)$
$h_{21}\equiv h_{\rm f}$	is the forward current transfer ratio with the output a-c short circuited (dimensionless)

$$h_{22} \equiv h_0$$
 is the output admittance with the input a-c open circuited (mhos)

The letter and numerical subscripts for the "h" parameters are completely equivalent and may be used interchangeably. Common practice is to use the numerical subscripts for general circuit analysis and the letter subscripts for specifying the characteristics of transistors. Since transistors can be measured and used in either the common base, common emitter, or common collector configuration an additional subscript (b, e, or c) is added to the "h" parameters to indicate the particular configuration involved. For example, the forward current transfer ratio in the common emitter configuration is designated by either  $h_{te}$  or  $h_{2te}$ .

It is frequently advantageous to use equivalent circuits for transistors to aid in circuit design or to gain understanding of transistor operation. The equivalent circuit for the "h" parameters in the common base configuration is shown in Figure 3.4. In this circuit the voltage transfer ratio,  $h_{rb}$ , appears as a voltage generator in the input circuit and the current transfer ratio,  $h_{rb}$ , appears as a current generator in the output circuit. Figure 3.5 shows another form of equivalent circuit for the transistor, the "T" equivalent circuit is of interest since it approximates the actual

transistor structure. Thus  $r_e$  and  $r_e$  represent the ohmic resistances of the emitter and collector junction while  $r_b$  represents the ohmic resistance between the base contact and the junctions. The current generator  $\alpha_{i_e}$  represents the transfer of current from the emitter junction to the collector junction across the base region.



"T" EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

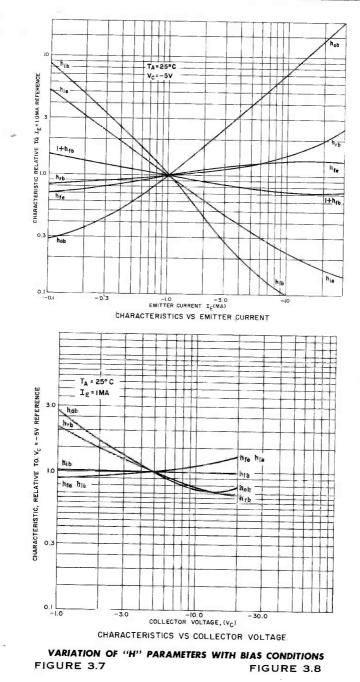
FIGURES 3.4 AND 3.5

If the "h" parameters are measured or specified for one configuration (e.g., common emitter) the values of the "h" parameters for the other configurations or the values of the parameters in the "T" equivalent circuit may be calculated. Figure 3.6 gives simple conversion equations for all possible cases. Also given in Figure 3.6 are typical values for all the parameters of the 2N525 transistor biased at 1 ma and 5 volts. The "h" parameters are dependent upon the biasing conditions and it is important in circuit design to correct the values of the parameters from the bias conditions under which they are specified to the bias conditions under which the transistors are used. The correction factors can be obtained from a graph such as Figures 3.7 and 3.8,

## APPROXIMATE CONVERSION FORMULAE H PARAMETERS AND T EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

(NUMERICAL VALUES ARE TYPICAL FOR THE 2N525 AT 1MA, 5V)

S	YMBOLS	CAL VALUES ARE	2	L ENGLO AT TIMA	- 1 - V
IRE	OTHER	COMMON EMITTER	COMMON BASE	COMMON COLLECTOR	T EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT
h <sub>ie</sub>	$h_{  e }$ , $\frac{1}{Y_{  e }}$	1400 OHMS	hib l+hfb	hic	$r_b + \frac{r_e}{1-a}$
hre	h <sub>l2e</sub> , #bc	3.37 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	hibhob l+hfb	l-h <sub>re</sub>	$\frac{r_{e}}{(1-a)r_{c}}$
hfe	h <sub>2le</sub> , ß	44	- <u>hfb</u> I+h <sub>fb</sub>	-(l+h <sub>fc</sub> )	-α Ì-α
hoe	<sup>h</sup> 22e <sup>,</sup> Z <sub>22</sub> e	27 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> MHOS	hob I+hfb	h <sub>oc</sub>	$\frac{1}{(1-a) r_{\rm C}}$
hib	h <sub>  </sub> , <u> </u> Y <sub>  </sub>	hië I+hfe	31 OHMS	- hic htc	$r_e + (1-\alpha)r_b$
<sup>h</sup> rb	h <sub>12</sub> ,μ <sub>ec</sub>	hiehoe l+h <sub>fe</sub> - h <sub>re</sub>	5 X 10 <sup>-4</sup>	h <sub>rc</sub> →l→ <u>hichoc</u> htc	rb rc
h <sub>fb</sub>	h <sub>21</sub> ,a	- <sup>h</sup> fe  +hfe	-0.978	— <sup>I+h</sup> fb hfb	- a
hob	$h_{22}, \frac{1}{Z_{22}}$	hoe l+hfe	0.60 X 10 <sup>-6</sup> MHOS	- hoc hfc	rc
<sup>h</sup> ic	h <sub>ilc</sub> , <mark> </mark> Yilc	híe	hib I+hfb	1400 OHMS	$r_{b} + \frac{r_{e}}{1-a}$
h <sub>rc</sub>	<sup>h</sup> l2c <sup>,</sup> <sup>µ</sup> be	l-h <sub>re</sub>	a de la companya de la company Reference de la companya de la company	1.00	$1 - \frac{r_e}{(1-\alpha)r_c}$
hfc	h2ic,ªeb	-(l+h <sub>fe</sub> )	- <u> </u>  +h <sub>fb</sub>	- 45	$-\frac{1}{1-a}$
ħoc	h <sub>22c</sub> , Z <sub>22c</sub>	hoe	hob I+hfb	27 X 10 <sup>-6</sup> MHOS	$\frac{1}{(1-\alpha)r_c}$
	a	hfe I+hfe	-hfb	<u>l+hfc</u> hfc	0.978
3	rc	l+hfe hoe	<u>I-hrb</u> hob	- hfc hoc	1.67 MEG
	le:	hre hoe	h <sub>ib</sub> h <u>rb</u> (l+hfb)	<u>I-hrc</u> hoc	12.5 OHMS
	r <sub>b</sub>	hie - <sup>h</sup> re hoe ((+hfe)	hrb hob	$h_{ic} + \frac{h_{fc}}{h_{oc}} (l - h_{rc})$	840 OHMS



For example, suppose that it is desired to find the typical value of  $h_{ob}$  for the 2N525 at 0.5 ma and 10 volts. From Figure 3.6 the typical value of  $h_{ob}$  at 1 ma and 5 volts is  $0.6 \times 10^{-6}$  mhos. From Figure 3.7 the correction factor at 0.5 ma is 0.6 and

#### SMALL SIGNAL CHARACTERISTICS

from Figure 3.8 the correction factor at 10 volts is 0.75. The value of  $h_{ob}$  is then calculated from:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{h}_{\rm ob} \ (0.5 \ {\rm ma}, 10 \ {\rm v}) &= 0.60 \times 10^{-6} \times 0.6 \times 0.75 \\ &= 0.27 \times 10^{-6} \ {\rm mhos} \end{aligned}$$

Once the "h" parameters are known for the particular bias conditions and configuration being used, the performance of the transistor in an amplifier circuit can be found for any value of source or load impedance. Figure 3.9 gives the equations for determining the input and output impedance, as well as the current, voltage, and power gain of a transistor amplifier stage directly from the "h" parameters. The particular "h" parameters used in these equations must correspond to the particular circuit configuration used. For example, if it is desired to calculate the voltage gain of a common emitter amplifier stage the values  $h_{1e}$ ,  $h_{re}$ ,  $h_{ee}$  must be used in equation 8.

With the exception of equation 9 all of the equations in Figure 3.9 are valid at any frequency provided that the values of the "h" parameters at that particular frequency are used. At the higher frequencies "h" parameters become complex and the low frequency "h" parameters are no longer valid. The matched power gain given by equation 10 requires that both the input and the output of the amplifier stage be tuned and the input and output resistances be matched to the generator and load resistance respectively. This situation is seldom met exactly in practice, but it is generally met closely enough to permit accurate results from equation 10.

If the voltage feedback ratio,  $h_r$ , is very small or is balanced out by external feedback the circuit is said to be unilateral. This means that no signal transmission can take place from the output of the circuit to the input. Under these conditions the input impedance of the circuit will be equal to  $h_1$  and the output impedance will be equal to  $1/h_o$ . The power gain under matched, unilateral conditions is given by equation 11. This power gain is a good figure of merit for the transistor since it is independent of circuit conditions and transistor configuration. It represents the maximum power gain that can be obtained from a transistor under conditions of absolute stability.

As an example of the use of these equations suppose that it is desired to design a tuned amplifier using the 3N37 operating at 150 mc. What power gain can be obtained and what input and output impedances should be used for the matching transformer? From the 3N37 specifications (converting from polar to rectangular form when necessary):  $a_{ie} = 80$ ,  $a_{re} = 0.00187$ ,  $a_{re} = -0.191$ ,  $a_{ee} = 5.5 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $b_{ie} = -10$ ,  $b_{re} = 0.0179$ ,  $b_{fe} = -1.08$ ,  $b_{oe} = 12.5 \times 10^{-4}$ . Putting these numbers into the equations in Figure 3.9 gives:

$$\begin{split} C &= -0.062 \\ D &= 0.75 \\ F &= 0.43 \\ G_m &= 8.75 \\ Z_{im} &= 60 - j \ 5.0 \ ohms \\ Y_{om} &= (4.15 + j \ 12.8) \times 10^{-i} \ mhos \end{split}$$

In a tuned circuit the reactive part of the output admittance would be tuned out so that:

 $R_i = 60 \text{ ohms}$   $R_a = 2400 \text{ ohms}$  $G_m = 10 \log (8.75) = 9.43 \text{ db}$  INPUT IMPEDANCE

$$Z_{i} = \frac{\Psi_{i}}{i_{i}} = h_{i} - \frac{h_{f}h_{r}Z_{L}}{i+h_{o}Z_{L}}$$
(3)

MATCHED INPUT IMPEDANCE \*

CURRENT GAIN

$$Z_{im} = o_i \left[ D - jC \right] + jb_i \tag{4}$$

$$Y_0 = \frac{i_0}{V_0} = h_0 - \frac{hfhr}{h_i + Zg}$$
(5)

(6)

$$A_{i} = \frac{i_{0}}{i_{i}} = \frac{h_{f}}{1 + h_{0}Z_{L}}$$
(7)

 $Y_{om} = o_0 \left[ D - jC \right] + jb_0$ 

VOLTAGE GAIN 
$$A_{V} = \frac{v_{O}}{v_{i}} = \frac{l}{h_{f} - \frac{h_{i}}{Z_{L}} \left(\frac{l + h_{O} Z_{L}}{h_{f}}\right)}$$
(8)

OPERATING POWER GAIN (LOW FREQUENCY ONLY, Zg=Rg, ZL=RL) 1 he 1

$$G = \frac{POWER INTO LOAD}{POWER INTO TRANSISTOR} = A_V A_i = \frac{\left(\frac{1+h_0}{1+h_0R_L}\right)}{h_T - \frac{h_i}{R_L} \left(\frac{1+h_0R_L}{h_f}\right)}$$
(9)  
MATCHED POWER GAIN \* 
$$G_m = \frac{\sigma_f^2 + b_f^2}{\Gamma_T - \sigma_f^2} = 27$$
(10)

$$G_{m} = \frac{\sigma_{f}^{2} + b_{f}^{2}}{\sigma_{i} \sigma_{0} [(1+D)^{2} + C^{2}]}$$
(10)

MATCHED UNILATERAL POWER GAIN  $G_{mu} = \frac{a_{f}^2 + b_{f}^2}{4a_{i}a_{j}} = \frac{\left|h_{f}\right|^2}{4a_{i}a_{j}}$  $(h_{r} = 0)$ (11)

Zg=Rg+jXg = OUTPUT IMPEDANCE OF GENERATOR

ZL=RL + jXL = IMPEDANCE OF LOAD

\* FOR MATCHED CONDITIONS

$$Z_{im} = R_g - jX_g$$

$$Z_{om} = R_L - jX_L$$

$$h_i = a_i + jb_i$$

$$h_r = a_r + jb_r$$

$$F = -\frac{a_r a_f - b_r b_f}{a_i a_0}$$

$$F = -\frac{a_r a_f - b_r b_f}{a_i a_0}$$

$$D = \sqrt{1 - F - C^2}$$

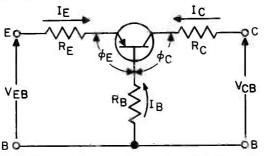
#### TRANSISTOR CIRCUIT EQUATIONS WITH H-PARAMETERS

## 4. LARGE SIGNAL CHARACTERISTICS

The large signal or d-c characteristics of junction transistors can be described in many cases by the equations derived by Ebers and Moll (Proc. IRE, December, 1954). These equations are useful for predicting the behavior of transistors in bias circuits, switching circuits, choppers, d-c amplifiers, etc. Some of the more useful equations are listed below for reference. They apply with a high degree of accuracy to germanium alloy junction transistors operating at low current and voltage levels, but are also useful for analyzing other types of transistors.

#### PARAMETERS

The parameters used in the following large signal equations are listed below and indicated in Figure 4.1.



PARAMETERS USED IN LARGE SIGNAL EQUATIONS FIGURE 4.1

$I_{CO}\equiv I_{CBO}$	Collector leakage current with reverse voltage applied to collector and emitter open circuited (I <sub>co</sub> has a positive sign for NPN transistors and a negative sign for PNP transistors)
$I_{\text{eo}}\equiv I_{\text{ebo}}$	Emitter leakage current with reverse voltage applied to emitter and collector open circuited ( $I_{E0}$ has a positive sign for NPN transistors and a negative sign for PNP transistors)
$\mathfrak{a}_N \equiv \mathfrak{a}$	Normal alpha, small signal common base forward current transfer ratio from emitter to collector with output a-c short circuited, low current and voltage levels ( $\alpha$ has a positive sign for NPN transistors and PNP transistors)
αI	Inverted alpha, same as $\alpha_N$ but with emitter and collector interchanged
R <sub>B</sub> , R <sub>E</sub> , R <sub>C</sub>	Ohmic resistance internal to transistor in series with base, emitter and collector leads respectively
$I_{B}$ , $I_{E}$ , $I_{C}$	D-C currents in base, emitter and collector leads respectively, positive sense of current corresponds to current flow into terminals
φο	Bias voltage across collector junction, collector to base voltage exclusive of ohmic drops (across $R_B$ , $R_c$ ), forward bias is positive polarity
$\phi_{\rm E}$	Bias voltage across emitter junction, emitter to base voltage exclusive of ohmic drops (across $R_B$ , $R_E$ ), forward bias is positive polarity
$V_{EB}, V_{CB}, V_{CE}$	Terminal voltages, emitter to base, collector to base, collector to emitter
$\Lambda \equiv \frac{q}{KT}$	$1/\Lambda = 26$ millivolts at $25^{\circ}$ C

(4d)

qElectronic charge =  $1.60 \times 10^{-19}$  coulombKBoltzmann's constant =  $1.38 \times 10^{-28}$  watt sec/°CTAbsolute temperature, degrees Kelvin = °C + 273

## BASIC EQUATIONS

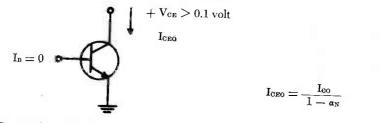
$$a_{\rm N} I_{\rm EO} = a_{\rm I} I_{\rm CO} \tag{4a}$$

$$I_{E} = -\frac{I_{EO}}{I - a_{N}a_{I}} \left(e^{A\phi_{E}} - 1\right) + \frac{a_{I}I_{CO}}{1 - a_{N}a_{I}} \left(e^{A\phi_{C}} - 1\right)$$
(4b)

$$\mathbf{I}_{0} = + \frac{a_{\mathrm{N}} \mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{EO}}}{1 - a_{\mathrm{N}} a_{\mathrm{I}}} (e^{\Lambda \phi_{\mathrm{E}}} - \mathbf{1}) - \frac{\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{CO}}}{1 - a_{\mathrm{N}} a_{\mathrm{I}}} (e^{\Lambda \phi_{\mathrm{C}}} - \mathbf{1})$$
(4c)

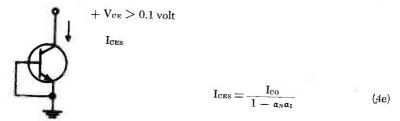
Under normal operating conditions, the collector is reverse biased so  $\phi c$  is negative. If the collector is reverse biased by more than 0.10 volts, then  $e^{A\phi c} \ll 1$  and can be eliminated from equations 4b and 4c. The equations given below are derived from equations 4a, 4b and 4c.

# COLLECTOR LEAKAGE CURRENT (ICEO)



 $I_{\rm CEO}$  is the collector leakage current with the base open circuited and is generally much larger than  $I_{\rm CO}.$ 

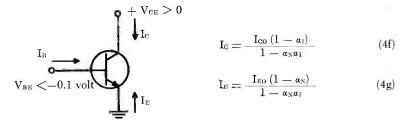
## COLLECTOR LEAKAGE CURRENT (Ices)



 $I_{CES}$  is the collector leakage current with the base shorted to the emitter and equals the leakage current the collector diode would have if the emitter junction was not present. Accurate values of  $a_N$  and  $a_I$  for use in the equations in this section are best obtained by measurement of  $I_{CO}$ ,  $I_{CEO}$  and  $I_{CES}$  and calculation of  $a_N$  and  $a_I$  from equations 4d and 4e. The value of  $I_{EO}$  may be calculated from equation 4a.

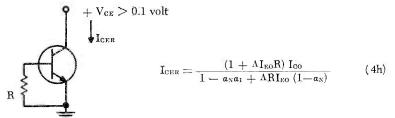
#### LARGE SIGNAL CHARACTERISTICS

#### COLLECTOR AND EMITTER LEAKAGE CURRENT -COLLECTOR AND EMITTER JUNCTIONS REVERSE BIASED



Equation 4f indicates that if both the emitter and the collector are reverse biased the collector leakage current will be less than  $I_{co}$  and the emitter leakage current will be less than  $I_{EO}$ . The reverse base current will be greater than  $I_{co}$ , but will be less than  $I_{CO}/\alpha_N$ . For example, if  $\alpha_N = 0.99$  and  $\alpha_I = 0.90$  then  $I_C = 0.92 I_{CO}$ ,  $I_E = 0.09 I_{EO}$  and  $I_B = -1.004 I_{CO}$ . This relationship indicates the advantage of using transistors in the inverted connection (collector and emitter interchanged) when a low leakage current is desired in switching circuits.

COLLECTOR LEAKAGE CURRENT (ICER)



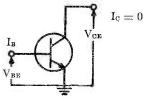
 $I_{CER}$  is the collector leakage current measured with the emitter grounded and a resistor R between base and ground. The size of the resistor is generally about 10K. From equation 4h, it is seen that as R becomes very large  $I_{CER}$  approaches  $I_{CEO}$  (Equation 4d). Similarly as R approaches zero,  $I_{CER}$  approaches  $I_{CES}$  (Equation 4e).

#### COLLECTOR LEAKAGE CURRENT-SILICON DIODE IN SERIES WITH EMITTER

$$R \qquad \qquad I_{C} = - \frac{(1 + \Lambda I_{EO}R - a_{I}\Lambda V_{D}) I_{OO}}{1 - a_{N}a_{I} + \Lambda RI_{EO} (1 - a_{N})}$$
(4i)

This circuit is useful in some switching applications where a low collector leakage current is required and a negative supply voltage is not available for reverse biasing the base of the transistor. The diode voltage  $V_D$  used in the equation is measured at a forward current equal to the  $I_{CO}$  of the transistor. This equation holds for values of  $I_C$  larger than  $I_{CO}$ .

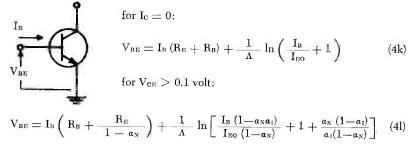
#### 



$$V_{CE} = I_B R_E + \frac{1}{\Lambda} \ln \frac{1}{\alpha_1}$$
 (4j)

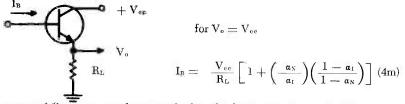
The second term in equation 4j indicates that the value of  $V_{CE}$  for small values of  $I_B$  is determined by the value of  $\alpha_1$ . As  $\alpha_1$  approaches unity, the second term in equation 4j will approach zero. This indicates the advantage of using a transistor in the inverted connection if a low voltage drop in a switching circuit is desired. Equation 4j also indicates that the series emitter resistance may be obtained by measuring the a-c resistance  $R_E = \Delta V_{CE} / \Delta I_B$ . The series collector resistance can be measured in the same manner if the transistor is inverted.

## BASE INPUT CHARACTERISTICS



A comparison of equations 4k and 4l indicates that they are approximately equal if  $R_E$  is small and  $a_N$  is smaller than  $a_1 (1 - a_N >> 1 - a_1)$ . For this condition, the base input characteristic will be the same whether the collector is reverse biased or open circuited.

#### VOLTAGE COMPARATOR CIRCUIT

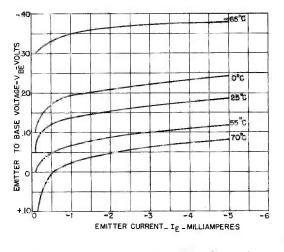


If an emitter follower is overdriven such that the base current exceeds the emitter current the emitter voltage can be made exactly equal to the collector voltage. For example, if a square wave with an amplitude greater than  $V_{ee}$  is applied to the base of the transistor the output voltage  $V_o$  will be a square wave exactly equal to  $V_{ee}$ . Equation 4m gives the base current required for this condition and indicates that the transistor should be used in the inverted connection if the required base current is to be minimized. This circuit is useful in voltage comparators and similar circuits where a precise setting of voltage is necessary.

# 5. BIASING

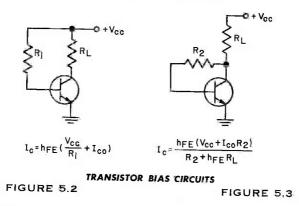
One of the basic problems involved in the design of transistor amplifiers is establishing and maintaining the proper collector to emitter voltage and emitter current (called the biasing conditions) in the circuit. These biasing conditions must be maintained despite varations in ambient temperature and variations of gain and leakage current between transistors of the same type. The factors which must be taken into account in the design of bias circuits would include:

- 1. The specified maximum and minimum values of current gain  $(h_{FE})$  at the operating point for the type of transistor used.
- 2. The variation of  $h_{FE}$  with temperature. This will determine the maximum and minimum values of  $h_{FE}$  over the desired temperature range of operation. The variation of  $h_{FE}$  with temperature is shown in Figure 10.7 for the 2N525 transistor.
- 3. The variation of collector leakage current ( $I_{co}$ ) with temperature. For most transistors,  $I_{co}$  increases at approximately 6.5-8%/°C and doubles with a temperature change of 9-11°C. In the design of bias circuits, the minimum value of  $I_{co}$  is assumed to be zero and the maximum value of  $I_{co}$  is obtained from the specifications and from a curve such as Figure 10.6. If silicon transistors are used, it is best to use the specified high temperature  $I_{co}$  for estimating the maximum  $I_{co}$ .
- 4. The variation of base to emitter voltage drop ( $V_{BE}$ ) with temperature. Under normal bias conditions,  $V_{BE}$  is about 0.2 volts for germanium transistors and 0.7 volts for silicon transistors and has a temperature coefficient of about -2.5 millivolts per °C. Figure 5.1 shows the variation of  $V_{BE}$  with collector current at several different temperatures for the 2N525. Note that for some conditions of high temperature it is necessary to reverse bias the base to get a low value of collector current.
- 5. The tolerance of the resistors used in the bias networks and the tolerance of the supply voltages.

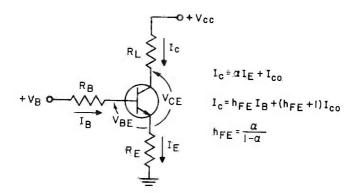


INPUT CHARACTERISTICS OF 2N525 (VCE=IV) FIGURE 5.1

Two of the simpler types of bias circuits are shown in Figures 5.2 and 5.3. These circuits can be used only in cases where a wide range of collector voltage can be tolerated (for Figure 5.2 at least as great as the specified range of  $h_{FE}$ ) and where  $h_{FE}^{max}$  times  $I_{co}^{max}$  is less than the maximum desired bias current. Neither circuit can be used with transistors which do not have specifications for maximum and minimum  $h_{FE}$  unless the bias resistors are selected individually for each transistor. The circuit of Figure 5.3 provides up to twice the stability in collector current with changes in  $h_{FE}$  or  $I_{co}$  than the circuit of Figure 5.2. However, the circuit of Figure 5.3 has a-c feedback through the bias network which reduces the gain and input impedance slightly. This feedback can be reduced by using two series resistors in place of  $R_2$  and connecting a capacitor between their common point and ground.



In cases where more stability is desired than is provided by the circuits of Figure 5.2 or 5.3, it is necessary to use a resistor in series with the emitter of the transistor as shown in Figure 5.4. There are several variations of this circuit, all of which may be obtained by the general design procedure outlined below.



# BASIC TRANSISTOR BIAS CIRCUIT FIGURE 5.4

For the circuit of Figure 5.4, the following equations apply:

$$I_{E} = (h_{FE} + 1) (I_{B} + I_{CO})$$

$$V_{B} = \left[\frac{R_{B}}{(h_{FE} + 1)} + R_{E}\right] I_{E} + V_{BE} - I_{CO}R_{B}$$
(5a)
(5b)

#### BIASING

Considering bias conditions at the temperature extremes, at the minimum temperature,  $I_E$  will have its minimum value and the worst conditions would occur for  $h_{FE} = h_{FE}^{min}$ ,  $V_{BE} = V_{BE}^{max}$ ,  $I_{CO} = 0$  or

at lowest temperature: 
$$V_B = \left[\frac{R_B}{h_{FE}^{\min} + 1} + R_E\right] I_E^{\min} + V_{BE}^{\max}$$
 (5c)

and at the highest temperature of operation  $I_E$  will have its maximum value and the worst conditions would occur for  $h_{FE} = h_{FE}{}^{max}$ ,  $V_{BE} = V_{BE}{}^{min}$ ,  $I_{CO} = I_{CO}{}^{max}$ .

at highest temperature: 
$$V_{B} = \left[ \frac{R_{B}}{h_{FE}^{max} + 1} + R_{E} \right] I_{E}^{max} + V_{BE}^{min} - I_{CO}^{max} R_{B}.$$
(5d)

from these two equations the value of  $R_B$  can be calculated:

$$R_{\rm B} = \frac{(I_{\rm E}^{\rm max} - I_{\rm E}^{\rm min}) R_{\rm E} + V_{\rm BE}^{\rm min} - V_{\rm BE}^{\rm max}}{I_{\rm Co}^{\rm max} - \frac{I_{\rm E}^{\rm max}}{h_{\rm FE}^{\rm max} + 1} + \frac{I_{\rm E}^{\rm min}}{h_{\rm FE}^{\rm min} + 1}}$$
(5e)

As an example, consider the following bias circuit design:

- 1. Select the transistor type to be used (2N525).
- 2. Determine the required range of temperature  $0^{\circ}C$  to + 55°C
- 3. Select the supply voltage and load resistance

 $V_{cc} = 20$  volts;  $R_L = 7.5 K$ 

4. Determine Ico<sup>max</sup>:

From the specifications the upper limit of  $I_{co}$  is 10  $\mu a$  at 25°C and from Figure 10.6  $I_{co}$  will increase by a factor of 10 at 55°C, thus  $I_{co}^{max} = 10 \times 10 = 100 \ \mu a$ .

5. Determine the values of h<sub>FE</sub><sup>min</sup> and h<sub>FE</sub><sup>max</sup>

From the specifications, the range of  $h_{FE}$  at 25°C is 34 to 65. From Figure 10.7  $h_{FE}$  can change by a factor of 0.75 at 0°C and by a factor of 1.3 at +55°C. Thus  $h_{FE}{}^{min} = 0.75 \times 34 = 25$  and  $h_{FE}{}^{max} = 1.3 \times 65 = 85$ .

6. Determine the allowable range of  $I_E$ :

In general, the variation of the circuit performance with emitter current determines the allowable range of emitter current. In some cases the allowable range of emitter current is determined by the peak signal voltage required across  $R_{L}$ .

Assume that the minimum current is .67 ma which gives a minimum voltage of 5 volts across  $R_L$  and the maximum emitter current is 1.47 ma which gives a maximum voltage of 11 volts across  $R_L$ . The allowable range of emitter current must be modified to take into account the tolerance of the bias resistors. Assuming a bias network using three 5% resistors, then

 $I_E^{min} = (1 + 3 \times .05) (0.67) = 0.77$  ma and

 $I_E^{max} = (1 - 3 \times .05) (1.47) = 1.25 \text{ ma}$ 

7. Estimate the values of  $V_{BE}^{min}$  and  $V_{BE}^{max}$ 

From Figure 5.1  $V_{BE}^{min}$  at 55°C and  $I_E = 1.47$  ma is about 0.08 volt,  $V_{BE}^{max}$  at 0°C and  $I_E = 0.67$  ma is about 0.17 volt.

8. Calculate the value of  $R_B$  from equation 5e

 $R_B = 4.17 R_E - 0.78 K$ 

9. Using the equation from (8), choose a suitable value of  $R_B$  and  $R_E$ . This involves a compromise since low values of  $R_E$  require a low value of  $R_B$  which shunts the

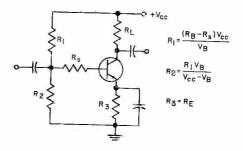
input of the stage and reduces the gain. A high value of  $R_E$  reduces the collector to emitter bias voltage which limits the peak signal voltage across  $R_L$ .

Choose  $R_E = 2.7K$  for which  $R_B = 10.4K$ . This gives a minimum collector to emitter voltage of 20 - (2.7 + 7.5) 1.47 = 5 volts.

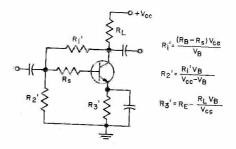
10. Calculate V<sub>B</sub> using equation 5c

11. If the bias circuits of either Figures 5.5 or 5.6 are to be used, the values of the bias resistors can be calculated from the values of  $R_B$ ,  $R_E$  and  $V_B$  obtained in the preceding design by the use of the conversion equations which are given. In these figures  $R_s$  represents a series resistance which would be present if transformer coupling were used in which case  $R_s$  would be the d-c resistance of transformer secondary. In cases where capacitor coupling is used  $R_s$  will usually be equal to zero. A comparison of Figures 5.5 and 5.6 indicates that the circuit of Figure 5.6 is superior in that for a given bias stability, it allows a lower value of the emitter resistor or larger values of the base resistors than the circuit of Figure 5.5. On the other hand, the circuit of Figure 5.6 gives a-c feedback through the bias circuits which may be a disadvantage in some cases.

For the circuit of Figure 5.5, assume  $R_s = 0$ . Then  $R_a = R_E = 2.7K$ ,  $R_1 = 77K$  or, choosing the next lowest standard value,  $R_1 = 68K$ . Using this value, calculate  $R_2 = 10K$ . For the circuit of Figure 5.6 as before  $R'_1 = 68K$  and  $R'_2 = 10K$ . Resistor  $R'_a$  is calculated as 1.73K or, using the next highest standard value,  $R'_a = 1.8K$ .



VOLTAGE DIVIDER TYPE BIAS CIRCUIT FIGURE 5.5



VOLTAGE DIVIDER TYPE BIAS CIRCUIT WITH FEEDBACK FIGURE 5.6

 $V_B = 2.56$  volts

### BIASING

# THERMAL RUNAWAY

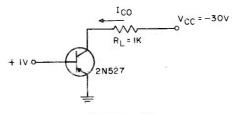
When a transistor is used at high junction temperatures (high ambient temperatures and/or high power dissipation) it is possible for regenerative heating to occur which will result in thermal run-away and possible destruction of the transistor. In any circuit the junction temperature (T<sub>J</sub>) is determined by the total power dissipation in the transistor (P), the ambient temperature  $(T_A)$ , and the thermal resistance (K). 

$$T_{I} = T_{A} + KP \tag{5f}$$

If the ambient temperature is increased, the junction temperature would increase an equal amount provided that the power dissipation was constant. However, since both  $h_{FE}$  and  $I_{CO}$  increase with temperature, the collector current can increase with increasing temperature which in turn can result in increased power dissipation. Thermal runaway will occur when the rate of increase of junction temperature with respect to the power dissipation is greater than the thermal resistance  $(\Delta T_J / \Delta P > K)$ .

Thermal run-away is generally to be avoided since it can result in failure of the circuit and possibly in destruction of the transistor. By suitable circuit design it is possible to ensure either that the transistor can not run away under any conditions or that the transistor can not run away below some specified ambient temperature. A different circuit analysis is required depending on whether the transistor is used in a linear amplifier or in a switching circuit.

In switching circuits such as those described in Chapter 10, it is common to operate the transistor either in saturation (low collector to emitter voltage) or in cutoff (base to emitter reverse biased). The dissipation of a transistor in saturation does not change appreciably with temperature and therefore run-away conditions are not possible. On the other hand, the dissipation of a transistor in cutoff depends on Ico and therefore can increase rapidly at higher temperatures. If the circuit is designed to ensure that the emitter to base junction is reverse biased at all temperatures (as for the circuit of Figure 5.7) the following analysis can be used:



### FIGURE 5.7

The transistor power dissipation will be,

 $P = I_{\rm CO} V_{\rm CE} = I_{\rm CO} (V_{\rm CC} - I_{\rm CO} R_{\rm L})$ 

The rate of change of power dissipation with temperature will be,

$$\frac{\mathrm{dP}}{\mathrm{dT}} = (V_{\rm cc} - 2I_{\rm co}R_{\rm L}) \frac{\mathrm{dI}_{\rm co}}{\mathrm{dT}} = (V_{\rm cc} - 2I_{\rm co}R_{\rm L}) \,\delta I_{\rm co} \tag{5h}$$

where  $\delta \simeq 0.08$  is the fractional increase in  $I_{\rm co}$  with temperature. The condition for run-away occurs when dP/dT = 1/K or,

$$(V_{CC} - 2I_{COM}R_L) \delta I_{COM} = 1/K$$
<sup>(51)</sup>

where  $I_{\rm COM}$  is the value of  $I_{\rm CO}$  at the run-away point. Solving for  $I_{\rm COM}$  gives,

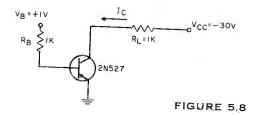
$$I_{\rm COM} = \frac{V_{\rm CC} \pm \sqrt{(V_{\rm CC})^2 - (8R_{\rm L})/(\delta K)}}{4R_{\rm L}}$$
(5j)

In this equation the solution using the negative sign gives the value of  $I_{COM}$ , while the solution using the positive sign gives the value of Ico after run-away has occurred. It is

(5g)

seen from the equation that the value of  $I_{\rm CO}$  after run-away can never be greater than  $V_{cc}/2R_{\scriptscriptstyle\rm L}$  so that the collector voltage after run-away can never be less than one half of the supply voltage  $V_{cc}$ . If the term under the square root sign in the above equation is zero or negative, thermal run-away cannot occur under any conditions. Also, if thermal run-away does occur it must occur when the collector voltage is greater than 0.75Vcc. Once the value of  $I_{COM}$  is determined from Equation (5j) the corresponding junction temperature can be determined from a graph such as Figure 10.6. The heating due to  $I_{COM}$  is found by substituting  $I_{COM}$  for  $I_{CO}$  in Equation (5g). Finally, the ambient temperature at which run-away occurs can be calculated from Equation (5f).

In circuits which have appreciable resistance in the base circuit such as the circuit of Figure 5.8 the base to emitter junction will be reverse biased only over a limited temperature range. When the temperature is increased to the point where the base to emitter junction ceases to be reverse biased emitter current will flow and the dissipation will increase rapidly. The solution for this case is given by:



$$I_{COM} = \frac{(V_{CC} - 2R_{L}h_{fe}I_{x}) \pm \sqrt{(V_{CC} - 2R_{L}h_{fe}I_{x})^{2} - (8R_{L})/(\delta K)}}{4R_{L}h_{fe}}$$
(5k)

where  $I_x = V_B/R_B$ .

In the analysis of run-away in linear amplifiers it is convenient to classify linear amplifiers into preamplifiers and power amplifiers. Preamplifiers are operated at low signal levels and consequently the bias voltage and current are very low particularly in stages where good noise performance is important. In capacitor coupled stages a large collector resistance is used to increase gain and a large emitter resistance is used to improve bias stability. Accordingly, thermal run-away conditions are seldom met in preamplifier circuits.

In contrast, power amplifiers invariably require transistors to operate at power levels which are near the run-away condition. The conditions are aggravated by the use of biasing networks of marginal stability which are required for power efficiency and by the use of transformer coupling to the load which reduces the effective collector series resistance. Since thermal run-away in power stages is likely to result in destruction of the transistors, it is wise to use worst case design principles to ensure that thermal run-away cannot occur. The worst case conditions are with  $\hat{h}_{fe} \rightarrow 00, \, V_{BE}=0,$  $R_{\rm L}=0,$  and  $I_{\rm CO}=I_{\rm CO}{}^{\rm max}.$  If these conditions are applied to a transistor in the general bias circuit shown in Figure 5.9 the total transistor dissipation is given by:

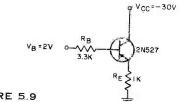


FIGURE 5.9

$$P = V_{CE}I_{C} \doteq (V_{CC} - V_{B} - I_{CO}R_{B})\left(I_{CO} + \frac{V_{B} + I_{CO}R_{B}}{R_{E}}\right)$$
(51)

Equating dP/dT with 1/K and solving for Icom as before,

$$I_{COM} = \frac{(V_{CC} - R_1 V_B) \pm \sqrt{(V_{CC} - R_1 V_B)^2 - (R_2)/(\delta K)}}{4R_B}$$
(5m)

where

$$R_{1} = \frac{R_{E} + 2R_{B}}{R_{E} + R_{B}} \qquad \qquad R_{2} = \frac{8R_{E}R_{B}}{R_{E} + R_{B}}$$

As before, the solution of Equation (5m) using the negative sign gives the value of  $I_{COM}$ , while the solution using the positive sign gives the final value of  $I_C$  after run-away has occurred. If the quantity under the square root sign is zero or negative, run-away cannot occur under any conditions.

In class-B power amplifiers the maximum transistor power dissipation occurs when the power output is at 40% of its maximum value at which point the power dissipation in each transistor is 20% of the maximum power output. In class-A power amplifiers on the other hand, the maximum transistor dissipation occurs when there is no applied signal. The maximum power dissipation is obtained by substituting  $I_{COM}$  in Equation (51) and the maximum junction temperature is obtained from Equation (5f).

In the design of power amplifiers the usual procedure is to design the circuit to meet the requirements for gain, power output, distortion, and bias stability as described in the other sections of this manual. The circuit is then analyzed to determine the conditions under which run-away can occur to determine if these conditions meet the operating requirements. As a practical example, consider the analysis of the class-A output stage of the receiver shown in Figure 8.16. The transistor is the 2N241A for which K =  $250^{\circ}$ C/watt and I<sub>co</sub><sup>max</sup> =  $16\mu a$  at  $25^{\circ}$ C and 25 volts. Calculating the circuit values corresponding to Figure 5.9 and Equation (5m):

$$\begin{split} V_{cc} &= 9 \, v, \quad R_{E} = 100 \, \Omega \\ V_{B} &= \frac{(1000) \, (9)}{1000 + 4700} = 1.58 \, v \\ R_{t} &= \frac{100 + 2(825)}{100 + 825} = 1.89 \\ R_{2} &= \frac{8(100) \, (825)}{100 + 825} = 713 \, \Omega \end{split}$$

Calculating Icom from Equation (5m),

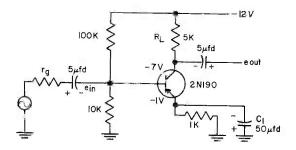
$$I_{COM} = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{0.47}}{3300} = 1.61$$
 ma or 2.02 ma

Since the quantity under the square root is positive, thermal run-away can occur. The two solutions give the value of  $I_{COM}$  (1.61 ma) and the value of  $I_{CO}$  after run-away has occurred (2.02 ma). The fact that these two currents are very nearly equal indicates that the change in power dissipation when run-away occurs will not be very large. Using the value  $I_{COM}/I_{CO}^{max} = 100$  the junction temperature at run-away from Figure 10.6(A) is about 92°C. The dissipation at run-away, calculated from Equation (51), is about 187 milliwatts. The rise in junction temperature due to this power dissipation is (0.25) (187) = 46.7 °C. The ambient temperature at run-away is then calculated to be 92 - 46.7 = 45.3 °C. The above value of maximum transistor power dissipation is calculated under the assumption that the series collector resistance is zero. In the circuit under consideration the transformer primary will have a small d-c resistance  $(R_T)$ which will reduce the transistor power dissipation by approximately  $(I_c)^2 R_T$  where  $I_c$  is given by the second term in Equation (51). Assuming that the d-c resistance of the transformer is 20 ohms the reduction in power dissipation for the case just considered will be 18.8 milliwatts and the ambient temperature at run-away will be increased to 50.0°C.

# 6. AUDIO AMPLIFIERS

# SINGLE STAGE AUDIO AMPLIFIER

Figure 6.1 shows a typical single stage audio amplifier using a 2N190 PNP transistor.



SINGLE STAGE AUDIO AMPLIFIER FIGURE 6.1

With the resistance values shown, the bias conditions on the transistor are 1 ma of collector current and six volts from collector to emitter. At frequencies at which  $C_1$  provides good by-passing, the input resistance is given by the formula:  $R_{1n} = (1 + h_{fe}) h_{1b}$ . At 1 ma for a design center 2N190, the input resistance would be 43  $\times$  29 or about 1250 ohms.

The a-c voltage  $gain \frac{e_{out}}{e_{in}}$  is approximately equal to  $\frac{R_{L}}{h_{ib}}$ . For the circuit shown this would be  $\frac{5000}{29}$  or approximately 172.

The frequency at which the voltage gain is down 3 db from the 1 Kc value depends on  $r_s$ . This frequency is given approximately by the formula:

$$\log f_{3db} \approx \frac{1 + h_{fe}}{6.28(r_a C_i)}$$

# TWO STAGE R-C COUPLED AMPLIFIER

The circuit of a two stage R-C coupled amplifier is shown by Figure 6.2. The input impedance is the same as the single stage amplifier and would be approximately 1250 ohms.

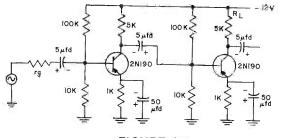


FIGURE 6.2

The load resistance for the first stage is now the input impedance of the second stage. The voltage gain is given approximately by the formula:

More exact formulas for the performance of audio amplifiers may be found in Chapter 3 on small signal characteristics.

# CLASS B PUSH-PULL OUTPUT STAGES

In the majority of applications, the output power is specified so a design will usually begin at this point. The circuit of a typical push-pull Class B output stage is shown in Figure 6.3.

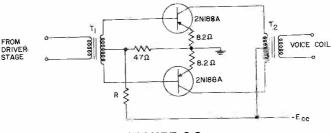


FIGURE 6.3

The voltage divider consisting of resistor, R and the 47 ohm resistor gives a slight forward bias on the transistors to prevent cross-over distortion. Usually about 1/10 of a volt is sufficient to prevent cross-over distortion and under these conditions, the no-signal total collector current is about 3.0 ma. The 8.2 ohm resistors in the emitter leads stabilize the transistors so they will not go into thermal runaway when the junction temperature rises to 75°C. Typical collector characteristics with a load line are shown below:

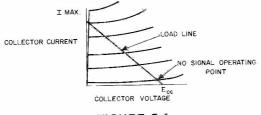


FIGURE 6.4

It can be shown that the maximum a-c output power without clipping using a pushpull stage is given by the formula:

$$P_{out} = \frac{I_{max} V_{CE}}{2}$$

Since the load resistance is equal to

$$R_L = \frac{V_{CE}}{I_{max}}$$

Where  $V_{CE} = \text{collector to emitter voltage}$ at no signal.

AUDIO AMPLIFIERS

and the collector to collector impedance is four times the load resistance per collector, the output power is given by the formula:

$$P_{o} = \frac{2 V_{CB}^{2}}{R_{c-c}}$$
(6a)

Thus, for a specified output power and collector voltage the collector to collector load resistance can be determined. For output powers in the order of 50 mw to 850 mw, the load impedance is so low that it is essentially a short circuit compared to the output impedance of the transistors. Thus, unlike small signal amplifiers, no attempt is made to match the output impedance of transistors in power output stages.

Power Gain = 
$$\frac{P_{out}}{P_{in}} = \frac{I_o^2}{I_{in}^2} \frac{R_L}{R_{in}}$$

Since  $I_{\sigma}$  is equal to the current gain, Beta, for small load resistance, the power gain formula can be written as

$$P. G. = \beta^2 \frac{R_{c-e}}{R_{b-b}}$$
(6b)

where  $R_{c-c} = collector$  to collector load resistance.

 $R_{b-b} =$  base to base input resistance.  $\beta =$  grounded emitter owned.

 $\beta$  = grounded emitter current gain. Since the load resistance is determined by the required maximum undistorted output power, the power gain can be written in terms of the maximum output power by combining equations (6a) and (6b) to give:

$$P. G_{r} = \frac{2\beta^{a} V_{CB}^{a}}{R_{b-b} P_{out}}$$
(6c)

# CLASS A OUTPUT STAGES

A Class A output stage is biased as shown on the collector characteristics below:

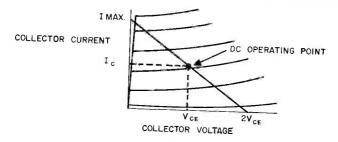


FIGURE 6.5

The operating point is chosen so that the output signal can swing equally in the positive and negative direction. The maximum output power without clipping is equal to:

$$P_{out} = \frac{V_{CE} I_e}{2}$$

The load resistance is then given by the formula:

$$R_{\rm L} = \frac{V_{\rm CI}}{I_{\rm c}}$$

Combining these two equations, the load resistance can be expressed in terms of the collector voltage and power output by the formula below:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{L}} = \frac{V_{\mathrm{CE}}^2}{2 \mathrm{P}_o} \tag{6d}$$

For output powers of 10 mw and above, the load resistance is very small compared to the transistor output impedance and the current gain of the transistor is essentially the short circuit current gain Beta. Thus for a Class A output stage the power gain is given by the formula:

P. G. = 
$$\frac{\beta^2 R_{L}}{R_{in}} = \frac{\beta^2 V_{CE}^2}{2 R_{in} P_{o}}$$

# CLASS A DRIVER STAGES

For a required output power of 250 mw, the typical gain for a push-pull output stage would be in the order of 23 db. Thus the input power to the output stage would be about 1 to 2 mw. The load resistance of a Class A driver stage is then determined by the power that must be furnished to the output stage and this load resistance is given by equation (6d). For output powers in the order of a few milliwatts, the load resistance is not negligible in comparison to the output impedance of the transistors, therefore, more exact equations must be used to determine the power gain of a Class A driver stage. From four terminal network theory, after making appropriate approximations, it can be shown that the voltage gain is given by the formula:

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}}{\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{ib}}} \tag{6f}$$

where  $h_{ib} =$  grounded base input impedance.

The current gain is given by the formula:

$$A_{I} = \frac{a}{1 - a + R_{L} h_{ob}}$$
(6g)

where  $h_{ob} =$  grounded base output conductance.

The power gain is the product of the current gain and the voltage gain, thus unlike the formula for high power output stages, there is no simple relationship between required output power and power gain for a Class A driver amplifier.

### DESIGN CHARTS

Figures 6.6 through 6.16 are design charts for determination of transformer impedances and typical power gains for Class A driver stages, Class A output stages, and Class B push-pull stages. The transformer-power output charts take into account a transformer efficiency of 75% and therefore may be read directly in terms of power delivered to the loudspeaker. Power gain charts show the ratio of output power in the collector circuit to input power in the base circuit and therefore do not include transformer losses. Since the output transformer loss is included in the one chart and the design procedure used below includes the driver transformer loss, it can be seen that the major losses are accounted for.

The charts can best be understood by working through a typical example. Assume a 500 mw output is desired from a 9v amplifier consisting of a driver and push-pull output pair. Also the signal source has an available power output of 156 m<sub>µ</sub>w ( $156 \times 10^{-9}$  watts). Overall power gain required then is:

$$P.C. = \frac{P_{out}}{P_{tn}} = \frac{500 \text{ mw}}{156 \text{ m}\mu\text{w}} = \frac{500 \times 10^{-3}}{156 \times 10^{-9}} = 3.2 \times 10^{9}$$

or approximately 65 db.

To obtain 500 mw in the loudspeaker, the output pair must develop 500 mw plus the transformer loss.

 $P_{\text{collector}} = \frac{P_{\text{out}}}{\text{transformer eff.}} = \frac{500 \text{ mw}}{.75} = 667 \text{ mw}$ 

From Figure 6.10, a pair of 2N321's in Class B push-pull has a power gain of approximately 24.5 db at 667 mw. This is a numerical gain of 280 so the power required by the output stage is:

$$P_{in} = \frac{P_{out}}{Gain} = \frac{667 \text{ mw}}{280} = 2.38 \text{ mw}$$

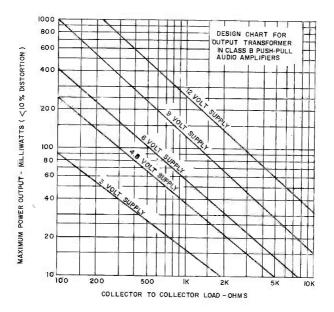
(6e)

If the driver transformer is 75% efficient, the driver must produce:

$$P_{\text{driver}} = \frac{P \text{ into output stage}}{75\%} = \frac{2.38 \text{ mw}}{.75} = 3.18 \text{ mw}$$

The remaining power gain to be obtained from the driver is 65 db - 24.5 db = 40.5 db. From Figure 6.15 the 2N322 has a power gain of 40.5 db at a power output of 3.18 mw.

The output transformer primary impedance is obtained from Figure 6.6, on the 9 volt supply line at 500 mw output, and is 212 ohms or approximately 200 ohms. The secondary should, of course, match the loudspeaker. From Figure 6.12 the driver transformer primary impedance is 7000 ohms. Therefore, a 7000 ohm or even a 5000 ohm transformer can be used. The secondary must be center-tapped. Typical values of impedance run from 1200 ohms to 4000 ohms. See the specification sheet of the specific output type used for the exact value of input impedance. When this procedure is used for commercial designs it must be remembered that it represents full battery voltage, typical power gain and input impedance, and therefore does not account for end-limit points.



# AUDIO AMPLIFIERS

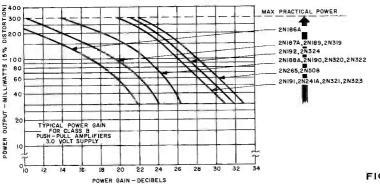


FIGURE 6.7

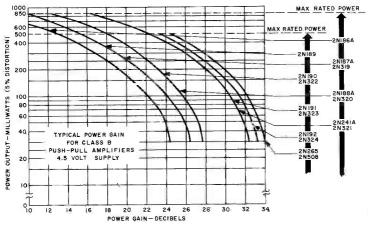
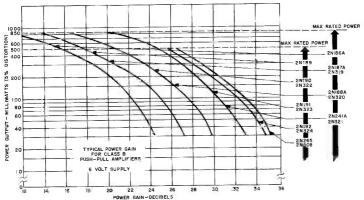
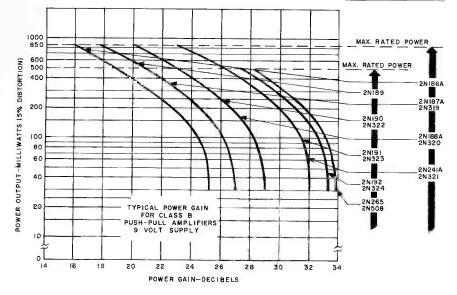


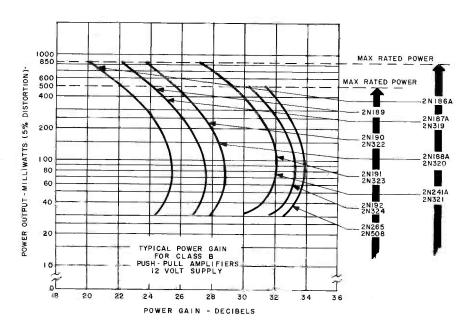
FIGURE 6.8

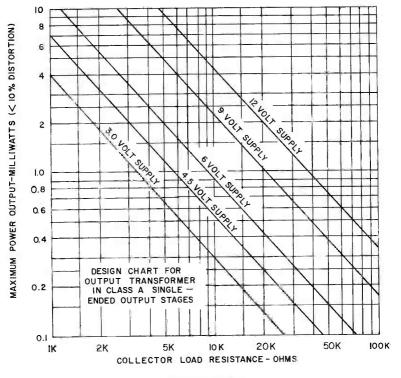


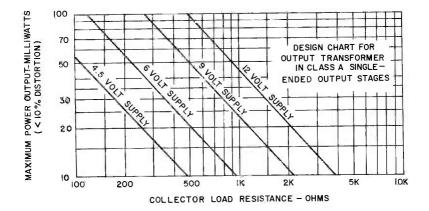
#### AUDIO AMPLIFIERS













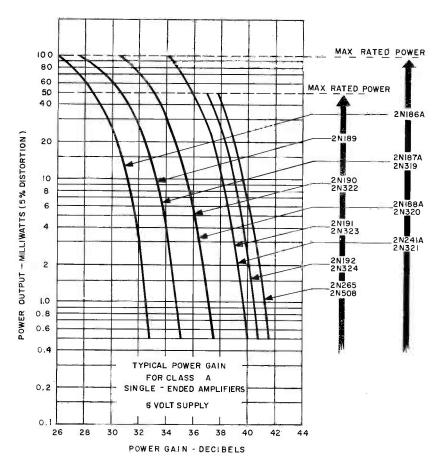


FIGURE 6.14

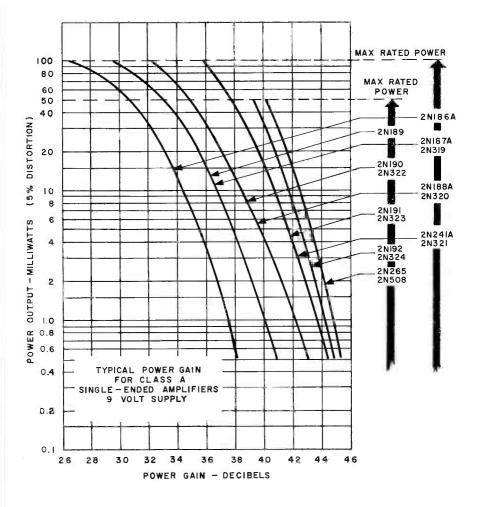


FIGURE 6.15

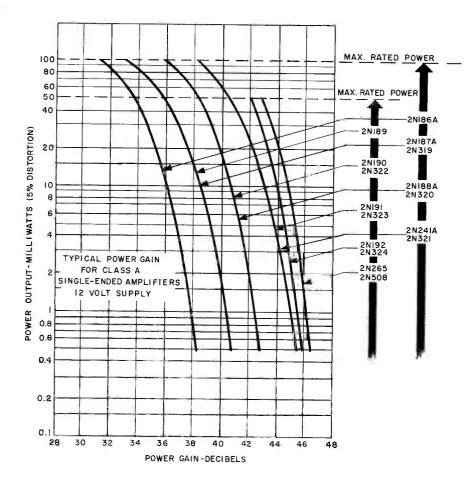
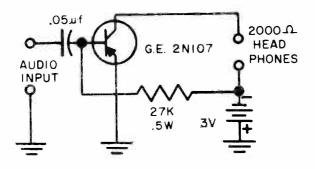
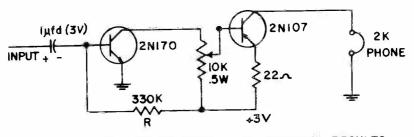


FIGURE 6.16

# AMPLIFIER CIRCUIT DIAGRAMS

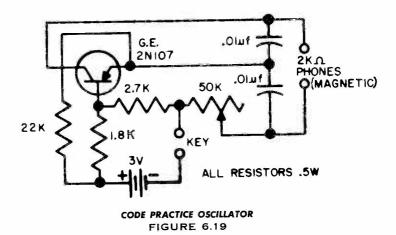


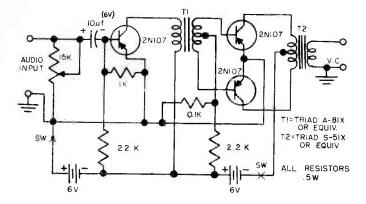
SIMPLE AUDIO AMPLIFIER FIGURE 6.17



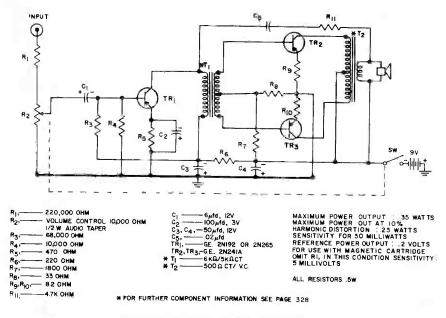
R SHOULD BE ADJUSTED FOR OPTIMUM RESULTS

DIRECT COUPLED "BATTERY SAVER" AMPLIFIER FIGURE 6.18

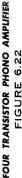


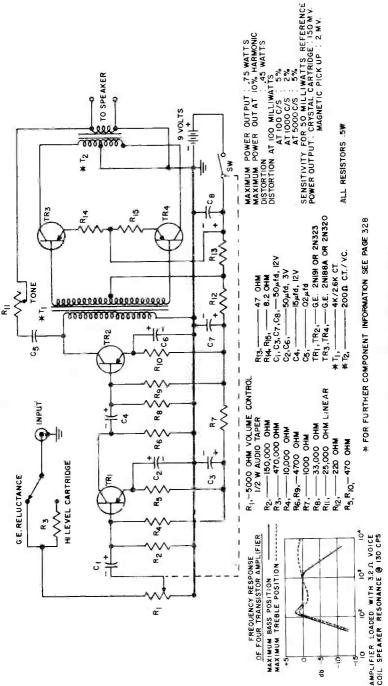


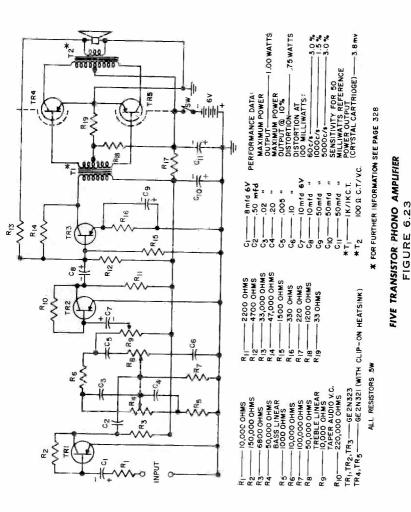
LOUDSPEAKER AUDIO AMPLIFIER FIGURE 6.20



THREE TRANSISTOR PHONO AMPLIFIER FIGURE 6.21







# AUDIO AMPLIFIERS

# 7. "HI-FI" CIRCUITS

Transistors are ideally suited for high fidelity amplifiers since there is no problem with microphonics or hum pick-up from filaments as there is with tubes. Transistors are inherently low impedance devices and thus offer better matching to magnetic pick-ups and loudspeakers for more efficient power transfer.

Transistor circuits with negative feedback can give the wide frequency response and low distortion needed in hi-fi equipment. In general, the distortion reduction is about equal to the gain reduction for the circuit to which negative feedback is applied. The input and output impedances of amplifiers with feedback are either increased or decreased, depending on the form of feedback used. Voltage feedback, over one or several transistor stages, from the collector decreases the output impedance of that stage; whereas current feedback from the emitter increases the output impedance of that stage. If either of these networks are fed back to a transistor base the input impedance is decreased, but if the feedback is to the emitter then the impedance is increased. The feedback can be applied to the emitter for effective operation with a low generator impedance, whereas the feedback to the base is effective with a high impedance (constant current) source. If the source impedance was low in the latter case then most of the feedback connections must be chosen to give a feedback signal that is out-of-phase with the input for negative feedback.

Care must be used in applying feedback around more than two transistor stages to prevent high frequency instability. This instability results when the phase shift through the transistor amplifiers is sufficient to change the feedback from negative to positive. The frequency response of the feedback loop is sometimes limited to stabilize the circuit. At the present time, the amount of feedback that can be applied to most audio power transistors is limited because of the poor frequency response in the common emitter and common collector connections. The common collector connection offers the advantage of local voltage feedback that is inherent with this connection. Local feedback (one stage only) can be used on high phase shift amplifiers to increase the frequency response and decrease distortion.

#### PREAMPLIFIERS

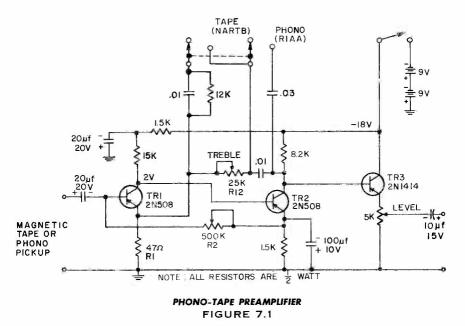
Preamplifiers have two major functions: (1) increasing the signal level from a pick-up device to 1 or 2 volts rms, and (2) providing compensation if required to equalize the input signal for a constant output with frequency.

The circuit of Figure 7.1 meets these requirements when the pick-up device is a magnetic phono cartridge (monaural or stereo), or a tape head. The total harmonic distortion of the preamp is less than  $\frac{1}{2}$ %.

This preamp will accommodate most magnetic pick-up impedances. The input impedance to the preamp increases with frequency because of the frequency selective negative feedback to the emitter of TR1. The impedance of the magnetic pick-ups will also increase with frequency but are below that of the preamp.

The first two stages of this circuit have a feedback bias arrangement for current stabilization of both stages at ambient temperatures less than  $40^{\circ}$ C ( $105^{\circ}$ F). R2 from the emitter of TR2 provides this DC current feedback to the base of TR1. R2 should be adjusted to give 2 volts at the collector of TR1. The output stage is well stabilized with a 5K emitter resistance.

The AC negative feedback from the collector of TR2 to the emitter of TR1 is frequency selective to compensate for the standard NARTB recording characteristic



for tape or the standard RIAA for phonograph records. The flat response from a standard NARTB pre-recorded tape occurs with the Treble Control (R12) at mid-position or 12K ohms (see Figure 7.2). There is about 8 db of treble boost with the Control at 25K maximum position, and approximately 20 db of treble cut with R12  $\pm$  0. Mid-position of the Treble Control also gives flat response from a standard RIAA recording.

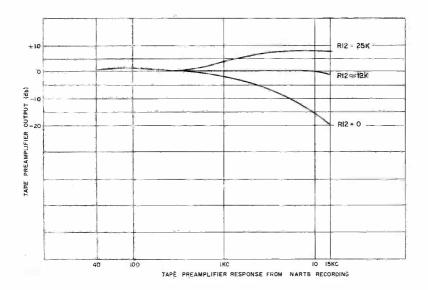


FIGURE 7.2

#### "HI-FI" CIRCUITS

The voltage feedback from the collector of TR2 decreases at low frequencies because of the increasing reactance of the feedback capacitor in series with the Treble Control. Each of the two feedback networks give the desired increase in gain at the lower frequencies to accomplish the correct compensation. If this feedback capacitor were shunted by an electrolytic capacitor, the preamplifier would give constant gain at all frequencies (in the "Tape" switch position) and the gain will decrease as R12 is decreased. With this flat preamp response a tuner may be connected to the preamp input with a variable attenuator network. This network might consist of a 50K potentiometer in series with a 1K resistor across the tuner output to ground, connect the preamp input across the 1K resistor which has one side on ground.

The RIAA feedback network (with Treble Control at mid-position) has a net feedback resistance of 6K to decrease the gain because of the higher level input. This resistance has a .01  $\mu$ f capacitor in parallel for decreasing the amplifier gain at the higher frequencies in accordance with RIAA requirements. This eliminates the need to load a reluctance pick-up with the proper resistance for high frequency compensation. If it is desirable to build the preamplifier for phonograph use only, the compensating feedback network would consist only of a .04  $\mu$ f feedback capacitor in series with a 6K resistor (or a 10K Treble Control) which has a .01  $\mu$ f capacitor in parallel.

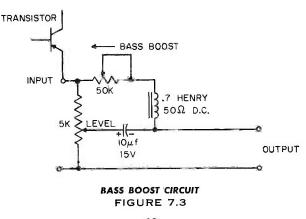
The emitter-follower output stage of the preamp gives a low impedance output for a cable run to a power amplifier (transistor or tube) and acts as a buffer so that any preamp loading will not affect the equalization characteristic.

The Treble Control should have a linear taper and the Level Control an audio taper. Two 9 volt batteries will give good life in this application since the total supply drain is approximately 3.5 ma DC. This 18 volts may also be obtained by suitable decoupling from a higher voltage supply that is available.

The preamplifier of Figure 7.1 may be altered to compensate for tapes recorded at 3¾ inches per second by setting R12 at 25K ohms and making the feedback capacitor .02  $\mu f \pm 20\%$ . In addition, the 47 ohm resistor from the emitter of TR1 to ground may be shunted with .5  $\mu f$  to attain a relatively flat response to 10 Kc. The value needed for this shunt capacitor will depend somewhat on the high frequency response of the tape head that is used, since this capacitor contributes to increased circuit gain above 3 Kc.

#### BASS BOOST CIRCUIT

The bass boost circuit of Figure 7.3 operates on the output of the preamp (Figure 7.1). With this addition, the operator now has the necessary treble and bass control



to compensate for listening levels, or deficiencies in program material, pick-up, speakers, etc. This bass boost circuit gives the operator independent control of the level, or amount of bass boost desired, or the level control can be used as a loudness control.

It is usually desirable to have some method of boosting the level of the lower portion of the audio spectrum as the overall sound level is decreased. This is to compensate for the non-linear response of the human ear as shown in the Fletcher-Munson curves that are often referred to in the audio industry. The ear requires a higher level for the low frequency sound to be audible as the frequency is decreased and also as the overall spectrum level is decreased.

Figure 7.4 shows the frequency characteristics of this bass boost circuit. With the level control set for zero attenuation at the output there is no bass boost available, but as the output level is attenuated, the available bass boost increases.

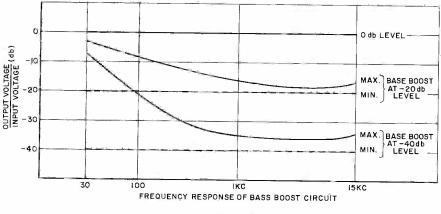


FIGURE 7.4

Figure 7.4 shows the frequency response (lower dashed curve) when the output is attenuated 40 db and the Bass Boost Control is set for minimum (50K ohms). The solid curve immediately above represents the frequency response when the Bass Boost Control is set at maximum (zero ohms). Thus a frequency of 30 cycles can have anything from zero to 27 db of boost with respect to 1 KC, depending on the adjustment of the Bass Boost Control.

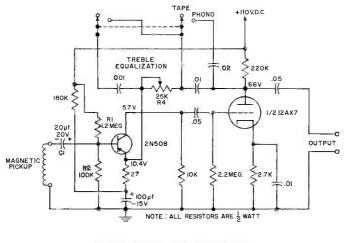
The Fletcher-Munson contours of equal loudness level show most of the contour changes involve a boost of the bass frequencies at the lower levels of intensity. Therefore, this circuit combination fulfills the requirements of level control, bass boost and loudness control. This boost circuit operates with the preamp (Figure 7.1) Level Control performing the same function as the Level Control in Figure 7.3. The Bass Boost Control may be a standard 50K potentiometer with a linear taper. The desired inductance may be obtained by using the green and yellow leads on the secondary of Argonne transistor transformer #AR-128.

# HYBRID PREAMPLIFIER

The hybrid preamplifier circuit of Figure 7.5 uses a similar feedback equalization technique to that of Figure 7.1 and therefore will accommodate most magnetic pick-up

#### "HI-FI" CIRCUITS

impedances. There is a small amount of treble boost above 10 KC due to the .01  $\mu$ f capacitor from the 12AX7 cathode to ground. The Treble Control is set near midposition for a compensated output from a standard RIAA recording or an NARTB recorded tape.



HYBRID PHONO-TAPE PREAMPLIFIER FIGURE 7.5

The 2N508 transistor is biased at approximately .6 ma from a constant current source for good current stability with temperature and transistor interchangeability. R1 and R2 bias the base for the desired  $V_{CE}$ .  $V_{CE}$  is in the range of .5 to 5 volts. This voltage varies with leakage current of C1, also with  $h_{FE}$  and  $I_{C0}$  for different transistors. This range of  $V_{CE}$  bias has little effect on the operation of the preamplifier.  $V_{CE}$  may reach saturation at ambient temperatures above 55°C.

The standard reference level for S/N (signal-to-noise) measurements in tape recording is the maximum level at which a 400 cycle signal can be recorded at 2% harmonic distortion. The hybrid preamplifier of Figure 7.5 is capable of a S/N of 60 db. The signal output from this reference level is approximately 1.5 volts and the total harmonic distortion of the preamp at this level is under 1%.

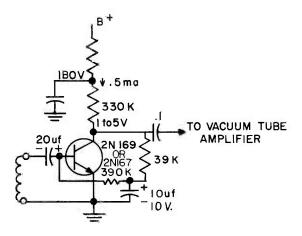
A dual preamp for a stereophonic disc or tape system could be built with two identical preamps as in Figure 7.5, using only one tube (12AX7) and two transistors (2N508).

#### NPN PREAMPLIFIER FOR MAGNETIC PICKUPS

In vacuum tube circuitry there is a problem in maintaining high S/N ratio at low audio frequencies because of the lower signal transfer from a magnetic pickup (tape, phono, or microphone) to the tube grid.

The lower input impedance of the transistor more nearly matches the source at low frequencies for a better signal transfer and thus improved S/N ratio. The input signal level at 100 cps has about 40 db of amplification in Figure 7.6 before it reaches the tube grid.

This circuit has a constant collector bias current that is independent of transistor parameters. The collector to emitter voltage,  $V_{CB}$ , is biased with a DC feedback network from the collector which helps to stabilize  $V_{CB}$ . This circuit should operate to about 50°C ambient temperature with the 2N169 and to 60°C with the 2N167.



NPN PREAMPLIFIER FOR MAGNETIC PICKUPS FIGURE 7.6

The circuit has an input impedance of about 3K ohms, and frequency compensation of the input signal may be accomplished in a following stage.

#### POWER AMPLIFIERS

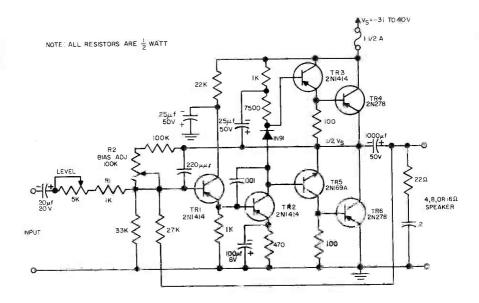
A great deal of effort has gone into developing transformerless push-pull amplifiers using vacuum tubes. Practical circuits, however, use many power tubes in parallel to provide the high currents necessary for direct driving of low impedance loudspeakers.

The advent of power transistors has given new impetus to the development of transformerless circuits since the transistors are basically low voltage, high current devices. The emitter follower stage, in particular, offers the most interesting possibilities since it has low inherent distortion and low output impedance.

Figure 7.7 is a direct coupled power amplifier with excellent low frequency response, and also has the advantage of a feedback arrangement for current stabilization of all stages. The feedback system also stabilizes the voltage division across the power output transistors TR4 and TR6 which operate in a Class B push-pull arrangement. TR3 and TR5 also operate Class B in the Darlington connection to increase the current gain. Using an NPN for TR5 gives the required phase inversion for driving TR6 and also has the advantage of push-pull emitter follower operation. TR4 and TR6 have a small forward bias to minimize crossover distortion. This bias is set by the voltage drop across the 100 ohm resistors that shunt the input to TR4 and TR6. TR3 and TR5 are biased for the same reason with the voltage drop across the 1N91. A 68 ohm resistor would serve the same function as the 1N91 except there would be no temperature compensation. Thermistors have also been used to compensate for the temperature variation of the emitter-base resistance, but they do not track this variation as well as a germanium junction diode which has temperature characteristics similar to the transistor.

#### "HI-FI" CIRCUITS

TR2 is a Class A driver requiring a very low impedance drive which is accomplished by an emitter follower TR1. TR1 needs a current source for low distortion, thus R1 and the Level Control supply the desired drive impedance. The Level Control should be set for a value of approximately 2K ohms when this amplifier is driven by the preamplifier of Figure 7.1. This will permit the amplifier to be driven to full output. TR1 has an emitter current of 1 to 1.5 ma, and TR2 has a 2 to 3 ma bias.





The bias adjust R2 is set for one-half the supply voltage across TR6 and can be trimmed for symmetrical clipping at maximum power output. TR4 and TR6 have a beta cut-off at approximately 7 Kc. The phase shift and drop in beta gives rise to a decline in transistor efficiency which causes an elevation of junction temperature. The .001  $\mu$ fd feedback capacitor from collector to base of TR2 aids in stabilizing this circuit by reducing the phase shift and high frequency gain of this stage. The 220  $\mu\mu$ fd capacitor shunting the bias network further aids the stabilization with high frequency negative feedback from output to input. This circuit has approximately 15 db of overall voltage feedback with the 27K resistor from load to input. The speaker system is shunted by 22 ohm in series with .2  $\mu$ fd to prevent the continued rise of the amplifier load impedance and its accompanying phase shift beyond the audio spectrum.

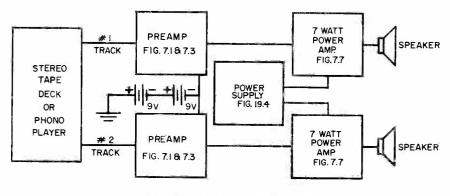
The overall result, from using direct-coupling, no transformers, and ample degeneration, is an amplifier with output impedance of ½ ohm for good speaker damping, and very low total harmonic distortion. The frequency response at average listening levels is flat over the audio spectrum.

When checking for maximum power out at the higher frequencies, a sinewave can be applied only for a short duration before sufficient heating for runaway results as indicated above. To protect the power transistors, a current meter should be used in series with the voltage supply for quick, visual indication of runaway while checking power output above approximately 2 Kc. There is not sufficient sustained high frequency power in regular program material to precipitate this instability. Thus the actual performance of the amplifier does not suffer since the power level in music and speech declines as the frequency increases beyond about 1 Kc.

This amplifier is capable of a 7 watt output with less than 1% harmonic distortion into a 4, 8 or 16 ohm speaker when used with the power supply of Figure 19.3, page 202.

#### STEREOPHONIC SYSTEM

A complete semiconductor, stereophonic playback system may be assembled by using the following circuits in conjunction with a stereophonic tape deck or phono player.



BLOCK DIAGRAM OF STEREOPHONIC SYSTEM FIGURE 7.8

Two identical preamplifier circuits can use a common 18 volt battery supply. The circuitry of Figure 7.1 may be used with the switch and RIAA network eliminated if the preamps are to be used for tape only.

The output of each preamp is fed to a power amplifier as indicated in Figure 7.8. Two identical power amplifiers with circuitry as in Figure 7.7 can use a common power supply as shown in Figure 19.4, page 202. The output of each amplifier fed to its respective speaker completes the stereo system as shown in Figure 7.8.

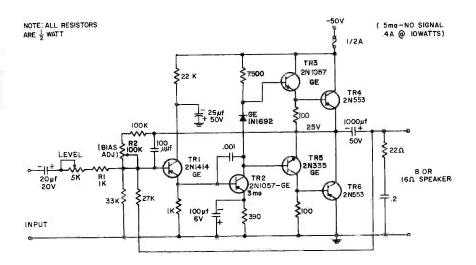
### DUAL 10 WATT STEREO SYSTEM

A dual 10 watt stereo system consists of two identical amplifiers with circuitry of Figure 7.9 using the common power supply of Figure 19.5, page 202. This power supply has separate decoupled outputs for each amplifier. The stereo system uses the same preamplifiers as that of Figures 7.1 and 7.3.

The power amplifier of Figure 7.9 is similar to that of Figure 7.7. Figure 7.9 uses transistors with a higher voltage rating, and also the 2N553 transistor has a beta cut-off frequency of approximately 25 Kc. Thus the 2N553's in Figure 7.9 give increased.

#### "HI-FI" CIRCUITS

efficiency and thus better stability at the higher frequencies. This amplifier with power supply of Figure 19.5, page 202, is capable of a 10 watt output with less than 1% distortion into an 8 or 16 ohm speaker.

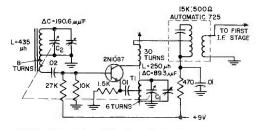




# 8. RADIO RECEIVER CIRCUITS

# AUTODYNE CONVERTER CIRCUITS

The converter stage of a transistor radio is a combination of a local oscillator, a mixer and an IF amplifier. A typical circuit for this stage is shown in Figure 8.1.



FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION SEE PAGE 226

#### AUTODYNE CONVERTER FIGURE 8.1

Redrawing the circuit to illustrate the oscillator and mixer sections separately, we obtain Figures 8.2 and 8.3.

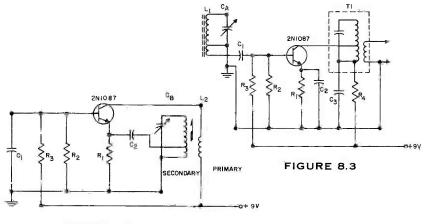


FIGURE 8.2

# The operation of the oscillator section (8.2) is as follows:

Random noise produces a slight variation in base current which is subsequently amplified to a larger variation of collector current. This A.C. signal in the primary of  $L_2$  induces an A.C. current into the secondary of  $L_2$  tuned by  $C_B$  to the desired oscillator frequency.  $C_2$  then couples the resonant frequency signal back into the emitter circuit. If the feedback (tickler) winding of  $L_2$  is properly phased the feedback will be positive (regenerative) and of proper magnitude to cause sustained oscillations. The secondary of  $L_2$  is an auto-transformer to achieve proper impedance match between the high impedance tank circuit of  $L_2$  and the relatively low impedance of the emitter circuit.  $C_1$  effectively bypasses the biasing resistors  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  to ground, thus the base is A.C. grounded. In other words, the oscillator section operates essentially in the grounded base configuration.

### The operation of the mixer section (8.3) is as follows:

The ferrite rod antenna  $L_1$  exposed to the radiation field of the entire frequency spectrum is tuned by  $C_A$  to the desired frequency (broadcast station).

The transistor is biased in a relatively low current region, thus exhibiting quite non-linear characteristics. This enables the incoming signal to mix with the oscillator signal present, creating signals of the following four frequencies:

- 1. The local oscillator signal.
- 2. The received incoming signal.
- 3. The sum of the above two.
- 4. The difference between the above two.

The IF load impedance  $T_1$  is tuned here to the difference between the oscillator and incoming signal frequencies. This frequency is called the intermediate frequency (I.F.) and is conventially 455 KC/S. This frequency will be maintained fixed since  $C_A$ and  $C_B$  are mechanically geared (ganged) together.  $R_4$  and  $C_8$  make up a filter to prevent undesirable currents flowing through the collector circuit.  $C_2$  essentially bypasses the biasing and stabilizing resistor  $R_1$  to ground. Since the emitter is grounded and the incoming signal injected into the base, the mixer section operates in the "grounded emitter" configuration.

### IF AMPLIFIERS

A typical circuit for a transistor IF amplifier is shown by Figure 8.4.

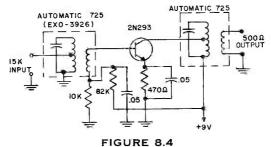


FIGURE 0.4

The collector current is determined by a voltage divider on the base and a large resistance in the emitter. The input and output are coupled by means of tuned IF transformers. The .05 capacitors are used to prevent degeneration by the resistance in the emitter. The collector of the transistor is connected to a tap on the output transformer to provide proper matching for the transistor and also to make the performance of the stage relatively independent of variations between transistors of the same type. With a rate-grown NPN transistor such as the 2N293, it is unnecessary to use neutralization to obtain a stable IF amplifier. With PNP alloy transistors, it is necessary to use neutralization to obtain a stable amplifier and the neutralization capacitor depends on the collector capacitance of the transistor. The gain of a transistor IF amplifier will decrease if the emitter current is decreased. This property of the transistor can be used to control the gain of the IF amplifier so that weak stations and strong stations will produce the same audio output from a radio. Typical circuits for changing the gain of an IF amplifier in accordance with the strength of the received signal are explained in the A.V.C. section of this chapter.

#### AUTOMATIC VOLUME CONTROL CIRCUITS

A.V.C. is a system which automatically varies the total amplification of the signal in a radio receiver with changing strength of the received signal carrier wave.

From the definition given, it would be correctly inferred that a more exact term to describe the system would be automatic gain control (A.G.C.).

Since broadcast stations are at different distances from a receiver and there is a great deal of variation in transmitted power from station-to-station, the field strength around a receiver can vary by several orders of magnitude. Thus, without some sort of automatic control circuit, the output power of the receiver would vary considerably when tuning through the frequency band. It is the purpose of the A.V.C. or A.G.C. circuit to maintain the output power of the receiver constant for large variations of signal strengths.

Another important purpose of this circuit is its so-called "anti-fading" properties. The received signal strength from a distant station depends on the phase and amplitude relationship of the ground wave and the sky wave. With atmospheric changes this relationship can change, yielding a net variation in signal strength. Since these changes may be of periodic and/or temporary nature, the A.V.C. system will maintain the average output power constant without constantly adjusting the volume control.

The A.V.C. system consists of taking, at the detector, a voltage proportional to the incoming carrier amplitude and applying it as a negative bias to the controlled amplifier thereby reducing its gain.

In tube circuits the control voltage is a negative going DC grid voltage creating a loss in transconductance (Gm).

In transistor circuits various types of A.V.C. schemes can be used:

## EMITTER CURRENT CONTROL

As the emitter current of a transistor is reduced (from 1.0 ma to .1 ma for instance) various parameters change considerably (see Figure 8.5).

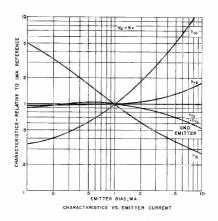
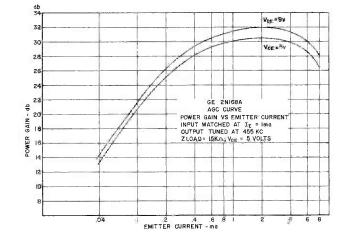


FIGURE 8.5

The effect of these changes will be twofold:

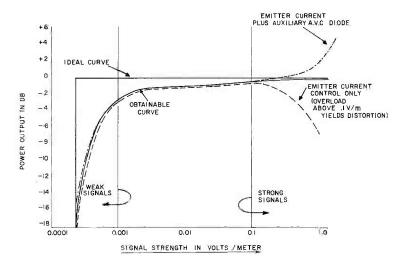
- 1. A change in maximum available gain and
- 2. A change in impedance matching since it can be seen that both  $h_{ab}$  and  $h_{1b}$  vary radically.

Therefore, a considerable change in power gain can be obtained as shown by Figure 8.6.





On the other hand, as a result of  $I_{\rm CO}$  (collector leakage current) some current always flows, thus a transistor can be controlled only up to a point and cannot be "cut-off" completely. This system yields generally fair control and is, therefore, used more than others. For performance data see Figure 8.7.



#### FIGURE 8.7

AUXILIARY A.V.C. SYSTEMS

Since most A.V.C. systems are somewhat limited in performance, to obtain improved control, auxiliary diode A.V.C. is sometimes used. The technique used is to shunt some of the signal to ground when operating at high signal levels, as shown by Figure 8.8.

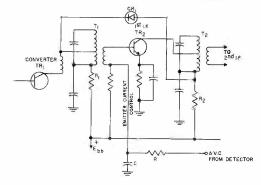
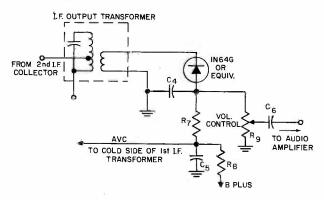


FIGURE 8.8

In the circuit of Figure 8.8 diode  $CR_1$  is back-biased by the voltage drops across  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  and represents a high impedance across  $T_1$  at low signal levels. As the signal strength increases, the conventional emitter current control A.V.C. system creates a bias change reducing the emitter current of the controlled stage. This current reduction coupled with the ensuing impedance mismatch creates a power gain loss in the stage. As the current is further reduced, the voltage drop across  $R_2$  becomes smaller thus changing the bias across  $CR_1$ . At a predetermined level  $CR_1$  becomes forward biased, constituting a low impedance shunt across  $T_1$  and creating a great deal of additional A.V.C. action. This system will generally handle high signal strengths as can be seen from Figure 8.7. Hence, almost all radio circuit diagrams in the circuit section of this manual use this system in addition to the conventional emitter current control.

# DETECTOR STAGE

In this stage (see Figure 8.9), use is made of a slightly forward biased diode in order to operate out of the square law detection portion of the I-E characteristics. This stage is also used as source of AGC potential derived from the filtered portion of the signal as seen across the volume control (R9). This potential, proportional to the signal level, is then applied through the AGC filter network C4, R7 and C5 to the base of the 1st IF transistor in a manner to decrease collector current at increasing signal levels. R8 is a bias resistor used to fix the quiescent operating points of both the 1st IF and the detector stage, while C6 couples the detected signal to the audio amplifier. (See Chapter 6 on Audio Amplifiers.)



# FIGURE 8.9

## REFLEX CIRCUITS

"A reflex amplifier is one which is used to amplify at two frequencies – usually intermediate and audio frequencies."\*

The system consists of using an I.F. amplifier stage and after detection to return the audio portion to the same stage where it is then amplified again. Since in Figure 8.10,

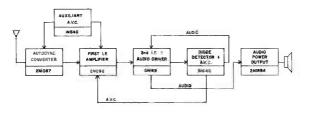




FIGURE 8.10

two signals of widely different frequencies are amplified, this does not constitute a "regenerative effect" and the input and output loads of these stages can be split audio – I.F. loads. In Figure 8.11, the I.F. signal (455 Kc/s) is fed through T2 to the detector circuit CR1, C3 and R5. The detected audio appears across the volume control R5 and is returned through C4 to the cold side of the secondary of T1.

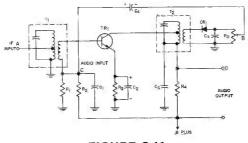


FIGURE 8.11

Since the secondary only consists of a few turns of wire, it is essentially a short circuit at audio frequencies. CI bypasses the I.F. signal otherwise appearing across the parallel combination of R1 and R2. The emitter resistor R3 is bypassed for both audio and I.F. by the electrolytic condenser C2. After amplification, the audio signal appears across R4 from where it is then fed to the audio output stage. C5 bypasses R4 for I.F. frequencies and the primary of T2 is essentially a short circuit for the audio signal.

The advantage of "reflex" circuits is that one stage produces gain otherwise requiring two stages with the resulting savings in cost, space, and battery drain. The disadvantages of such circuits are that the design is considerably more difficult, although once a satisfactory receiver has been designed, no outstanding production difficulties should be encountered. Other disadvantages are a somewhat higher amount of playthrough (i.e. signal output with volume control at zero setting), and a minimum volume effect. The latter is the occurrence of minimum volume at a volume control setting slightly higher than zero. At this point, the signal is distorted due to the balancing out of the fundamentals from the normal signal and the out-of-phase playthrough component. Schematics of complete radios are on pages 73 through 83.

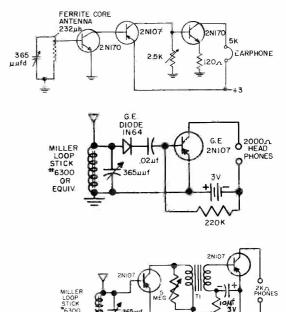
\* F. Langford-Smith, Radiotron Designers Handbook, Australia, 1953, p. 1140

100

PRI 200K ARGONNE

EQUIV

COMPLETE RADIO RECEIVER CIRCUIT DIAGRAMS



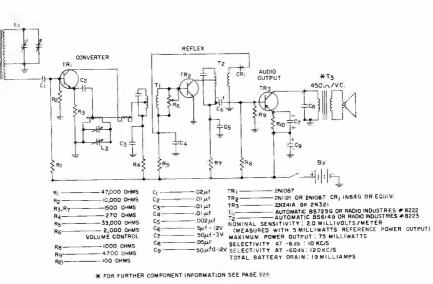
SIMPLE RADIO RECEIVER FIGURE 8.13

DIRECT COUPLED

VEST POCKET RADIÓ

FIGURE 8.12





6300

EQUIV

OR

NULL.

1

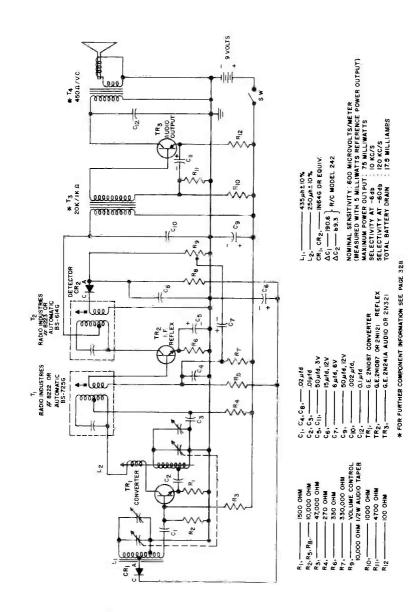
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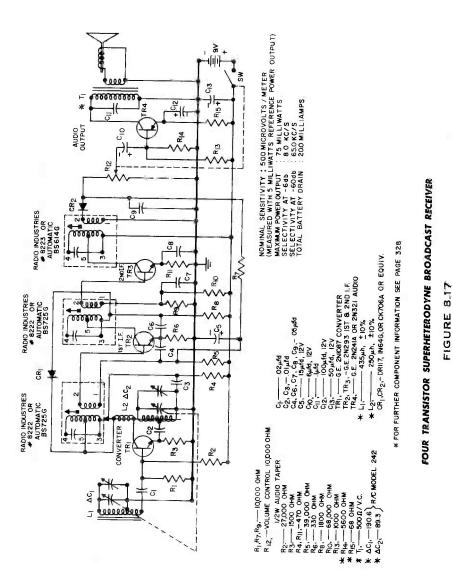
## THREE TRANSISTOR REFLEX RECEIVER

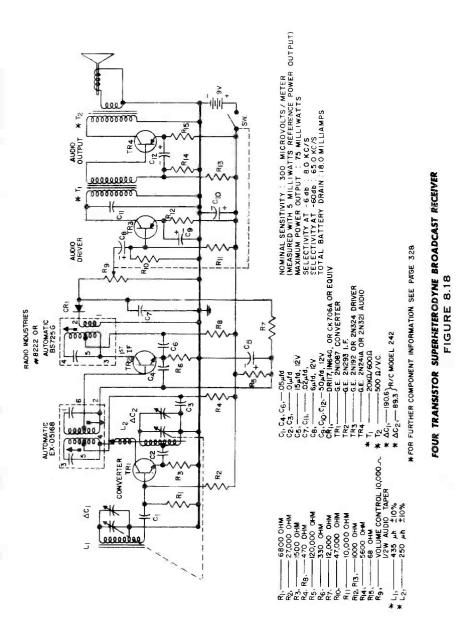
FIGURE 8.15

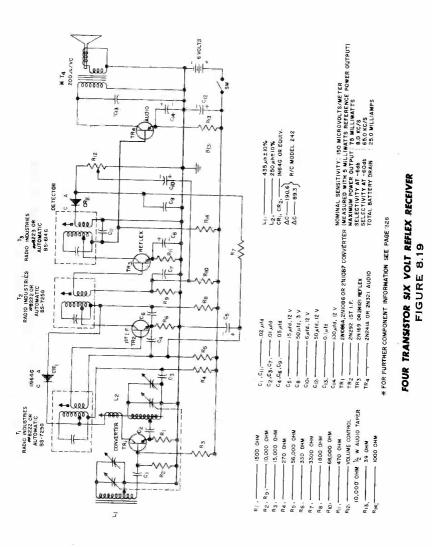


THREE TRANSISTOR REFLEX RECEIVER

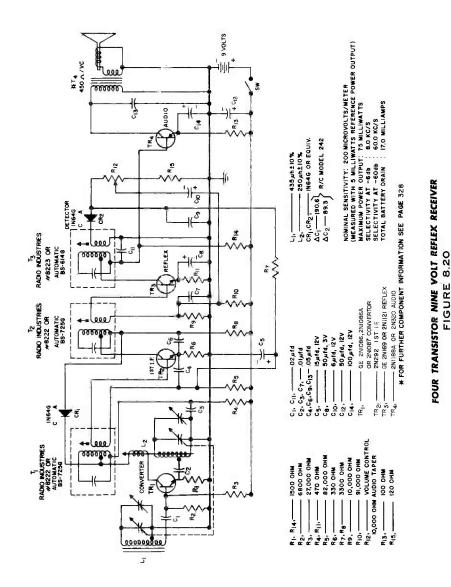
FIGURE 8.16

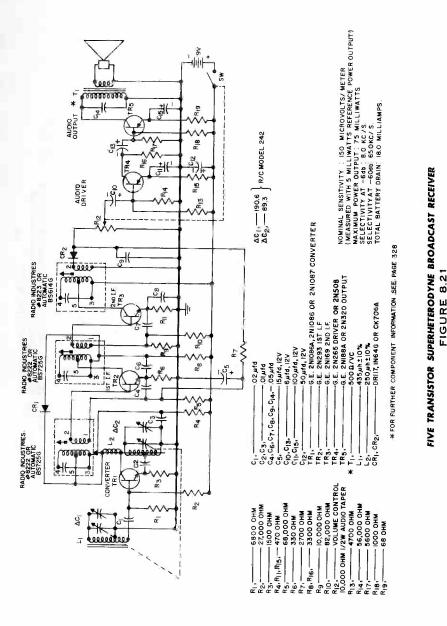


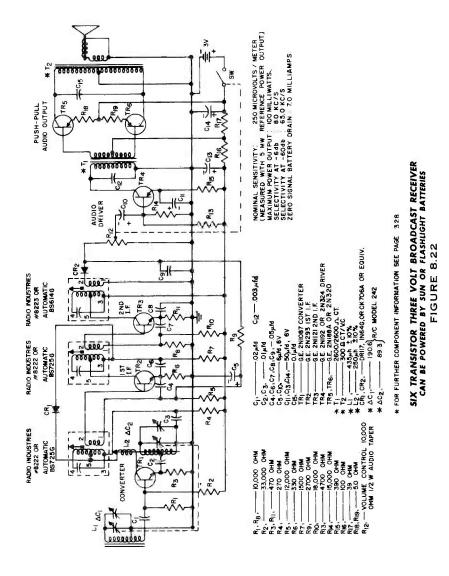


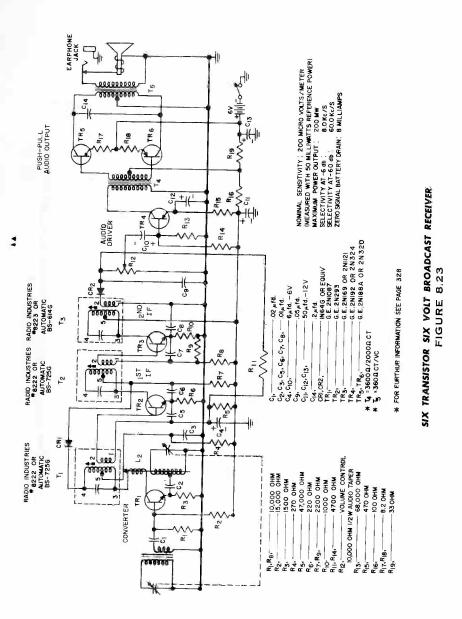


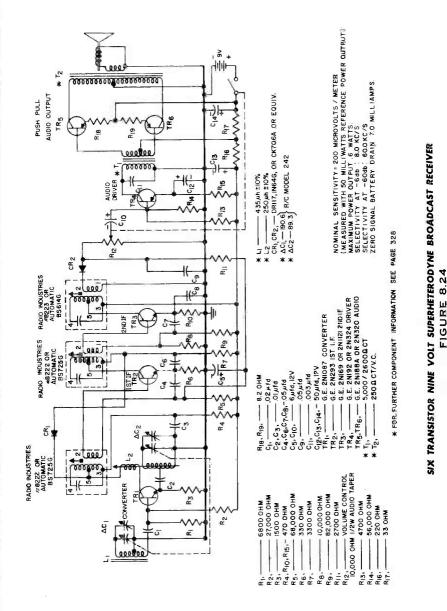
## RADIO RECEIVER CIRCUITS

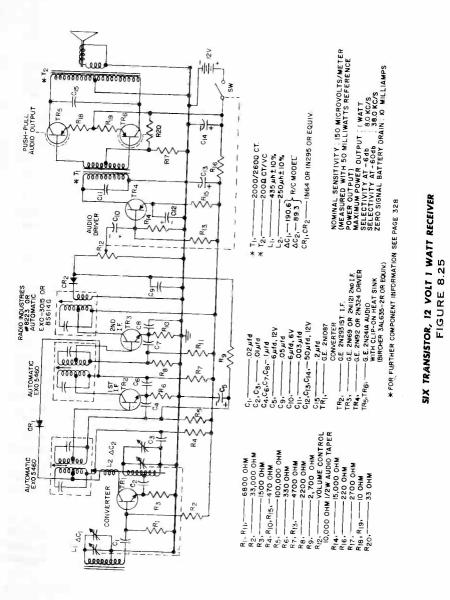












RADIO RECEIVER CIRCUITS

# 9. TRANSISTOR RADIO SERVICING TECHNIQUES

The major function of a radio receiver is to pick up modulated electromagnetic energy and transform its intelligence (modulation) into acoustical energy. Most modern receivers are of the "Superheterodyne" type, and consist of an Autodyne Converter or Oscillator-Mixer, one or two stages of IF Amplification, a Detector (which also provides a source of Automatic Volume Control power), and finally, one or more stages of Audio Amplification.

The components making up the AC circuitry of these stages include the antenna, oscillator coil, IF and audio transformers, tuning, coupling or bypass capacitors, and the speaker. Troubles in these components can usually be spotted by a DC test after the trouble area has been located by using signal tracing techniques.

Since the transistor is probably the most reliable component in the receiver, it should be the last component to be suspected. This is contrary to the long established rule of thumb used in tube radios, where the tubes are normally checked first. This is especially true in personal portable receivers using subminiature components, i.e., coils using extremely fine wire, electrolytics of extremely small dimension with low voltage ratings, etc. Because of their reliability, transistors are generally soldered into the circuit in printed circuit transistor radios. Removing and testing each transistor, as usually done in a tube set, will not only unnecessarily subject the transistor to high peak heating, but will probably damage some other component, particularly the printed circuit board.

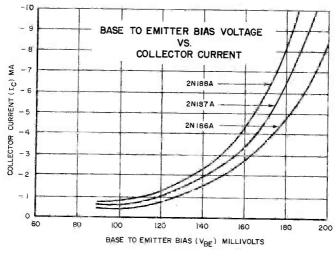
Now that the ground rules are laid for a trouble-shooting procedure, proceed with it in a logical sequence.

First determine whether the battery voltage *under load* is high enough to operate the receiver. Although most receivers are designed to operate down to one-half the battery voltage, severe distortion, low sensitivity and reduced power output, as well as possible "motorboating", may result from a low supply voltage. Also make a quick visual inspection to locate possible loose, dirty, or intermittent battery, speaker, or antenna connections. The set can now be analyzed further.

The fastest trouble-shooting technique is to inject an appropriate signal into each transistor base going from speaker to antenna. Starting at the audio stages (the volume control, for instance), apply a 400 or 1000 cycle audio signal. If a clean sine-wave with adequate power output appears at the speaker as indicated by an oscilloscope presentation or listening test, both audio circuits and speaker are in operating condition. In this event take an RF/IF generator and apply a 455 Kc/s signal (30% modulation – 400 or 1000 c/s) to the high frequency section of the receiver. As soon as the applied signal is not passed by a stage of amplification, this stage should be investigated on a DC basis. Note: Care must be taken that the generator's leads have a series DC blocking condenser in order not to change the bias condition in the circuit under investigation.

As a first check, it should be determined that both the magnitude and polarity of the supply voltage are appropriately applied. If NPN transistors are used, the collector will be positive with respect to emitter and base. The latter two will be very close voltage-wise, the base being somewhat more positive than the emitter. The opposite polarity applies to PNP transistors.

Figure 9.1 shows collector current vs. base to emitter bias voltage. Notice that a very small increase in  $V_{BE}$  produces a large increase in collector current. Thus, there will generally be from .1 to .2 volts between the base and emitter. Either the positive or negative side of the battery may be grounded, especially in sets using both NPN and PNP transistors.





The next step is to determine bias current. Since base, emitter and collector current are dependent on each other, it generally suffices to measure only one, the collector current for instance. This should be almost equal to the emitter current while the base current, being the difference between the two ( $I_B = I_E - I_c$ ), will generally be very small. Looking at Figure 8.6, it appears that since power gain is maximum between 1.5 and 3.0 ma, most stages will operate in this region. Actually, most RF/IF stages may have operating points down to .5 ma without serious loss of gain. An easy way to measure emitter current in most circuits is to measure to voltage drop across either the emitter resistor or possibly a collector resistor and calculating the current by Ohm's law. For example, if the emitter resistor is 1000 ohms and the measured voltage drop is 1.0 volt then the emitter current is  $I = \frac{E}{R} = \frac{1.0}{1000} = .001$  ampere = 1.0 milliamp. The insertion of a milliammeter into the emitter circuit will change the bias in the stage and is not a satisfactory testing technique.

If a stage (with the exception of the output stages) operates considerably below .5 ma or above 3.0 ma, it is fairly certain that the stage is operating improperly. Note: Care should be taken to measure these currents in the absence of signal since in AVC controlled stages, current will vary with signal strength.

In an improperly biased circuit, an ohmmeter check of the resistors and capacitors is in order next. If this fails to isolate the problem, the transistor can be replaced. Since it normally takes highly specialized equipment to test transistors (especially high frequency types) it is more practical to test by substitution.

If the trouble is located in the oscillator section of the converter, an IF signal can be passed through the mixer but an RF signal will not produce the necessary IF to get a signal through. In this case it should be determined at once whether the oscillator is operating at all. In the case of the autodyne converter in Figure 8.1, any AC VTVM, such as the Hewlett-Packard 400C, D, or H, or the Ballantine Models 310-A or 314, is sensitive enough to measure down to 50 mv and can be connected to the emitter of the converter transistor. If these instruments are not available, use a Vacuum Tube Voltmeter such as the Heathkit Model V-7A on the lowest AC-RMS Scale.

Since the local oscillator operates from .99-2.075 Mc/s, this VTVM should be provided with an RF probe (Heathkit Model 309C or equivalent). The presence or absence

#### TRANSISTOR RADIO SERVICING TECHNIQUES

of oscillator injection voltage can, however, be determined even without the use of such a probe.

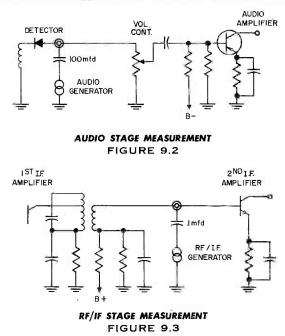
The proper magnitude of oscillation should be somewhere between 50 and 500 mv rms, and oscillation must be present over the entire broadcast band. (This can easily be checked by rotating the variable condenser from end to end.) No voltage at this point indicates the absence of oscillator injection, and an ohmmeter check of the oscillator coil should prove it faulty.

To trouble-shoot or align a transistor radio, it is generally helpful to know how much signal strength should be applied at a given stage in order to evaluate the gain of the receiver. The following is a measurement procedure useable for this purpose.

- 1. An AC VTVM should be connected across the speaker terminals (speaker remaining connected).
- 2. Applying the signal at any test point, the generator attenuator should be adjusted to get .13 or .4 volts rms reading on the output VTVM. (Since most speaker voice coil impedances are 3.2 ohms, this means that the "reference power output"\* is either  $P = \frac{V^2}{Z} \approx \frac{.13^2}{3.2} \approx 5 \text{ mw}$  or  $P = \frac{.4^2}{.3.2} = 50 \text{ mw}$

In various subminiature sets, however, the voice coil impedance is about 16 ohms\*\* in which case the reference AC voltage becomes  $V = \sqrt{5 \times 10^{-8} \times 16} \approx .28$  volts rms for 5 mw reference and  $V = \sqrt{50 \times 10^{-8} \times 16} \approx .89$  volts rms for 50 mw reference.

3. The signal can then be applied to any base as shown in Figures 9.2 and 9.3.

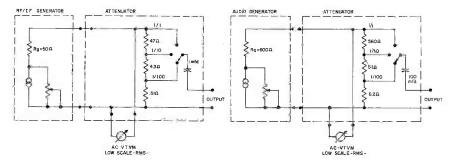


<sup>\*</sup>The "reference power output" is the power output conventionally used to make sensitivity measurements This value is fixed by IRE standard at 5 milliwatts for miniature portable receivers and 50 milliwatts for the larger type portables.

<sup>\*\*</sup>To determine the voice coil impedance of a speaker, a DC resistance test should yield a value close to the AC impedance of the voice coil, providing the speaker is measured while disconnected from the output transformer. A 3.2 ohm speaker will measure about 2.7 ohms while a 16 ohm speaker measures around 12 ohms in general.

#### TRANSISTOR RADIO SERVICING TECHNIQUES

By having a reference power output, it is now possible to read the input voltage at the generator and obtain the receiver sensitivity at this point. The sensitivity, the operational condition, and the quality of the receiver under test can now be assessed. This assumes the use of audio and RF generators having calibrated and metered attenuators (like Heathkit Model LG-1). In the absence of this type of equipment, two very simple attenuators can be built for RF/IF and for audio. See Figures 9.4 and 9.5. The attenuation will permit the injection of small signal into any circuit under test while the relatively unsensitive VTVM measures RMS voltages 10 or 100 times larger.





AUDIO DECADE ATTENUATOR FIGURE 9.5

Audio t Driver Base	Detector Base	2nd IF Base	1st IF Base	Converter Base
$\sim 2.5 \mathrm{mv}$	50  mv	$2.5 \mathrm{mv}$	50-100 μν	5-10 μν
v 5.0 mv	50  mv	2.5 mv	$50 \ \mu v$	5-10 μν
v .5 mv	5-10  mv	-	200 µv	10-20 μv
,	v 5.0 mv v .5 mv	v 5.0 mv 50 mv	v 5.0 mv 50 mv 2.5 mv v .5 mv 5-10 mv –	v 5.0 mv 50 mv 2.5 mv 50 $\mu$ v v .5 mv 5-10 mv - 200 $\mu$ v

#### TYPICAL INPUT VOLTAGES FOR REFERENCE OUTPUT

It will be found that sensitivities will vary from set to set because this measurement is only an indication of the order of magnitude of appropriate sensitivities. Even a 5/1deviation at times can be normal. Deviations larger than 10/1 are strong indications of trouble.

Broadcast Receiver Alignment Procedure:

A conventional set-up procedure is as follows:

a) Connect the output of the IF/RF generator to a radiating loop (Hazeltine #1150 or equivalent).\*

<sup>\*</sup>This loop is a calibrated lahoratory loop used for accurate sensitivity measurements. Since the purpose here is only to align rather than measure, either an air loop or a ferrite rod antenna may be used as a radiating element. If these are not available either, it often suffices to hring the generator leads close to the receiver's antenna and induce a signal through capacitive coupling.

#### TRANSISTOR RADIO SERVICING TECHNIQUES

- b) The output meter (AC VTVM) should be connected across the voice coil terminals, the speaker remaining connected.
- c) The receiver should be placed one to two feet away from the radiating loop in a plane that optimizes the coupling between the receiving and radiating antennas.
- d) Set the volume control of the receiver at maximum volume.
- e) Turn the Variable Condenser to the high frequency end of the dial (Gang wide open).

The set is now ready to be aligned.

1. Set the signal generator to 455 Kc/s and at maximum signal output. At this point there should be considerable output from the receiver.

If the set is operative but does not show enough output, reduce the distance between the receiver antenna and radiating element.

If the output is much larger than the standard reference value (.4 volts across 3.2 ohms  $\approx 50$  mw), reduce the output of the signal generator.

- 2. Peak the last IF transformer, then the interstage IF transformer, and finally the 1st IF transformer while maintaining an output voltage close to the reference value by gradually reducing the signal generator output voltage.
- 3. Repeat the same operation going from the 1st IF to the last IF this time. The IF strip is now aligned.
- 4. Set the generator frequency to 1630 Kc/s. The variable condenser in the receiver should still be tuned to the high frequency end. Adjust the oscillator "triumer" for maximum output at this point.
- 5. Now set the variable condenser to its lowest frequency point (gang fully meshed) and tune the signal generator until output is observed from the set (this should be around 530-540 Kc/s).

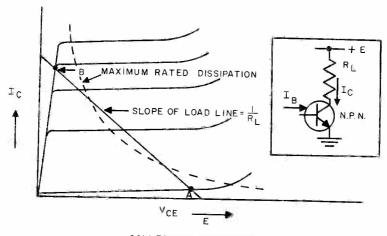
Should the low frequency fall below 520 Kc/s or above 540 Kc/s, the oscillator coil slug should be adjusted to move the low frequency end to 530 Kc/s. If this is done, operation number 4 must be repeated. This means that the set was thoroughly misaligned and it may require repeating operations 4 and 5 two or three times before a full frequency range is obtained.

- Set the generator to 1400 Kc/s and tune the receiver in very carefully. Now peak the antenna trimmer. The set is now "tracked" \*(fully aligned) at 1400 Kc/s.
- 7. Since it should also be "tracked" at 600 Kc/s,\*\* set the generator to this frequency, tune in the set, and observe whether the sensitivity of the receiver is close to its 1400 Kc/s value. If this is not the case, then peak the oscillator coil slug (providing the coil is slug tuned) while rocking the gang back and forth around 600 Kc/s. Although this procedure will somewhat reduce the frequency range of the set, it will yield the greatest sensitivity at the tracking points.
- 8. In case the oscillator coil is not tunable, the variable condenser will have to be "knifed", a procedure of bending the plates on the RF section of the air capacitor, plus realignment, that requires a high degree of experience and is not generally recommended.

<sup>\*</sup>The term "tracking" here applies to the procedure of having the oscillator and antenna circuit tuned to be exactly 455 Kc/s apart, yielding maximum gain at each tracked point.

<sup>\*\*</sup>Most commercial variable condensers are designed to track at three points along the band, 1400 Kc/s, 1000 Kc/s, and 600 Kc/s.

A switch is characterized by a high resistance when it is open and a low resistance when it is closed. Transistors can be used as switches. They offer the advantages of no moving or wearing parts and are easily actuated from various electrical inputs. Transistor collector characteristics as applied to a switching application is shown in Figure 10.1. The operating point A at which  $I_c = I_{co}/1 - a$  indicates the transistor's high resistance



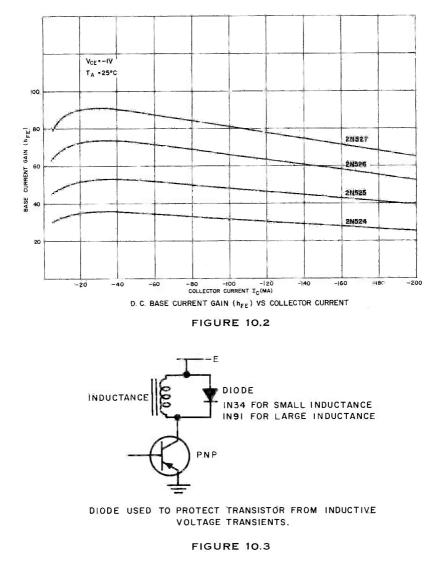
COLLECTOR CHARACTERISTICS

## FIGURE 10.1

when  $I_B = O$ . Since  $1-\alpha$  is a small number,  $I_C$  may be many times greater than  $I_{CO}$ . Shorting the base to the emitter results in a smaller  $I_C$ . If the base to emitter junction is reversed biased by more than .2v,  $I_C$  will approach  $I_{CO}$ . Reverse biasing achieves the highest resistance across an open transistor switch.

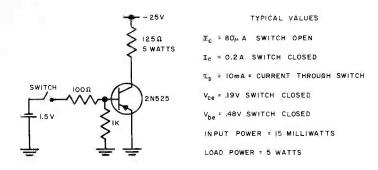
When the transistor switch is turned on, the voltage across it should be a minimum. At operating point B of Figure 10.1, the transistor is a low resistance. Alloy transistors such as the 2N525 have about one ohm resistance when switched on. Grown junction transistors, such as the 2N167 have approximately 80 ohms resistance which makes them less suitable for high power switching although they are well suited for high speed computer applications. In order that a low resistance be achieved, it is necessary that point B lie below the knee of the characteristic curves. The region below the knee is referred to as the saturation region. Enough base current must be supplied to ensure that this point is reached. It is also important that both the on and off operating points lie in the region below the maximum rated dissipation to avoid transistor destruction. It is permissible, however, to pass through the high dissipation region very rapidly since peak dissipations of about one watt can be tolerated for a few microseconds with a transistor rated at 150 mw. In calculating the I<sub>B</sub> necessary to reach point B, it is necessary to know how h<sub>PE</sub> varies with I<sub>c</sub>. Curves such as

Figure 10.2 are provided for switching transistors. Knowing  $h_{FE}$  from the curve gives  $I_{B\mbox{min}} \mbox{since} \ I_{B\mbox{min}} = \frac{I_C}{h_{FE}}$ . Generally  $I_B$  is made two or three times greater than  $I_{B\mbox{min}}$  to allow for variations in  $h_{FE}$  with temperature or aging. The maximum rated collector voltage should never be exceeded since destructive heating may occur once a transistor breaks down. Inductive loads can generate injurious voltage transients. These can be avoided by connecting a diode across the inductance to absorb the transient as shown in Figure 10.3.



# Lighted incandescent lamps have about 10 times their off resistance. Consequently, $I_B$ must be increased appreciably to avoid overheating the switching transistor when lighting a lamp.

A typical switching circuit is shown in Figure 10.4. The requirement is to switch a



Typical transistor switch application FIGURE 10.4

200 ma current in a 25 volt circuit, delivering 5 watts to the load resistor. The mechanical switch contacts are to carry a low current and be operated at a low voltage to minimize arcing. The circuit shown uses a 2N525. The 1K resistor from the base to ground reduces the leakage current when the switch is open. Typical values are indicated in Figure 10.4,

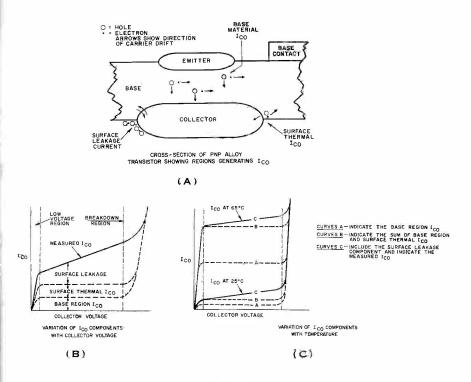
## TEMPERATURE EFFECTS ON SWITCHING CIRCUITS

At high junction temperatures,  $I_{co}$  can become a problem. In the off condition, both the emitter and collector junctions are generally reverse-biased. As a rule, the bias source has an appreciable resistance permitting a voltage to be developed across the resistance by  $I_{co}$ . The voltage can reduce the reverse bias to a point where the base becomes forward biased and conduction occurs. Conduction can be avoided by reducing the bias source resistance, by increasing the reverse bias voltage or by reducing  $I_{co}$  through a heat sink or a lower dissipation circuit design.

The  $I_{co}$  of a transistor is generated in three ways. One component originates in the semiconductor material in the base region of the transistor. At any temperature, there are a number of interatomic energy bonds which will spontaneously break into a hole-electron pair. If a voltage is applied, the hole and electron drift in opposite directions and can be seen as the  $I_{co}$  current. If no voltage is present, the hole and electron eventually recombine. The number of bonds that will break can be predicted theoretically to double about every 10°C in germanium transistors and every 6°C in silicon. Theory also indicates that the number of bonds broken will not depend on voltage over a considerable voltage range. At low voltages,  $I_{co}$  appears to decrease because the drift field is too small to extract all hole-electron pairs before they recombine. At very high voltages, breakdown occurs.

A second component of  $I_{co}$  is generated at the surface of the transistor by surface energy states. The energy levels established at the center of a semiconductor junction cannot end abruptly at the surface. The laws of physics demand that the energy levels adjust to compensate for the presence of the surface. By storing charges on the surface, compensation is accomplished. These charges can generate an  $I_{co}$  component; in fact, in the processes designed to give the most stable  $I_{co}$ , the surface energy levels contribute much  $I_{co}$  current. This current behaves much like the base region component with respect to voltage and temperature changes. It is described as the surface thermal component in Figure 10.5.

A third component of  $I_{co}$  is generated at the surface of the transistor by leakage across the junction. This component can be the result of impurities, moisture or surface imperfections. It behaves like a resistor in that it is relatively independent of temperature but varies markedly with voltage. Figure 10.5(A) shows the regions which contribute to the three components. Figure 10.5(B) illustrates how the components vary with voltage. It is seen that while there is no way to measure the base region and surface energy state components separately, a low voltage  $I_{co}$  consists almost entirely of these two components. Thus, the surface leakage contribution to a high voltage  $I_{co}$  can be readily determined by subtracting out the low voltage value of  $I_{co}$ .



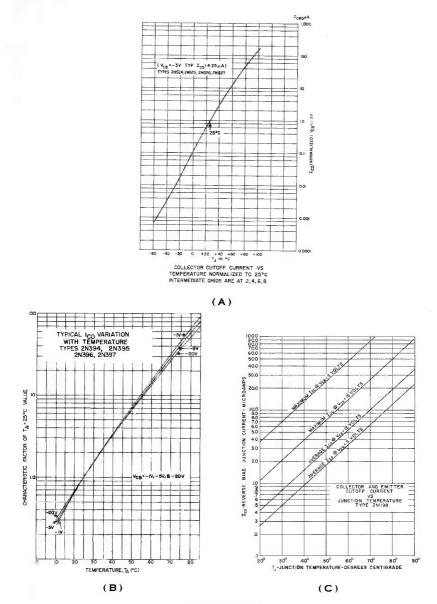
## FIGURE 10.5

Figure 10.5(C) shows the variation of  $I_{co}$  with temperature. Note that while the surface thermal and base  $I_{co}$  components have increased markedly, the leakage component is unchanged. For this reason, as temperature is changed the high voltage  $I_{co}$  will change by a smaller percentage than the low voltage  $I_{co}$ .

Figure 10.6 shows the variation of  $I_{co}$  with temperature and voltage for a number of transistor types. Note that the three curves for the 2N396 agree with the principles above and show a leakage current less than one microampere.

The variation of current gain at high temperatures is also significant. Since  $h_{FE}$  is defined as  $I_0/I_B$ ,  $h_{FE}$  depends on  $I_{CO}$  since  $I_C \approx h_{fe} (I_B + I_{CO})$ . If  $I_B = 0$  i.e., if the base is open circuited, a collector current still flows,  $I_C = h_{fe}I_{CO}$ . Thus  $h_{FE}$  is infinite when  $I_B = 0$ . As base current is applied, the ratio  $I_C/I_B$  becomes more meaningful. If  $h_{FE}$  is measured for a sufficiently low  $I_C$ , then at a high temperature  $h_{fe}I_{CO}$  will become equal to  $I_C$ . At this temperature  $h_{FE}$  becomes infinite since no  $I_B$  is required to maintain

I<sub>c</sub>. The AC current gain  $h_{re}$ , however, is relatively independent of  $I_{co}$  and generally increases about 2:1 from  $-55^{\circ}C$  to  $+85^{\circ}C$ .





The different electrical properties of the base, emitter and collector regions tend to disappear at high temperatures with the result that transistor action ceases. This temperature usually exceeds 85°C and 150°C in germanium and silicon transistors respectively.

When a transistor is used at high junction temperatures, it is possible for regenerative heating to occur which will result in thermal run-away and possible destruction of the transistor. For the maximum overall reliability, circuits should be designed to preclude the possibility of thermal run-away under the worst operating conditions. The subject of thermal run-away is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

In accordance with theory the collector saturation voltage,  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$ , decreases linearly with temperature for most transistors. In the case of alloy transistors, this is a result of the increase of  $I_{CO}$  with temperature which increases the effective base charge at high temperatures. However, transistors which have an appreciable ohmic resistance in series with the collector or silicon transistors which have a low  $I_{CO}$ , generally exhibit a positive temperature coefficient for  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$ .

The base to emitter voltage,  $V_{BE}$ , has a negative temperature coefficient which is about 2.0 millivolts per degree Centrigrade for both silicon and germanium transistors. Figure 5.1 shows the emitter to base characteristics of the 2N525 at several different temperatures. The series base resistance and emitter resistance ( $r_b$ ',  $r_e$ ') have a positivetemperature coefficient so that the IR drops across these resistances can offset the normal variation of  $V_{BE}$  at high values of base current.

The increase in  $V_{CE}$ <sup>(SAT)</sup> and the decrease in  $V_{BE}$  at high temperatures can lead to instability in DCTL circuits such as shown in Figure 10.9 and result in operation closer to saturation in circuits such as those shown in Figure 10.11.

A major problem encountered in the operation of switching circuits at low temperatures is the reduction in both the a-c and d-c current gain. Figure 10.7 shows the variation of  $h_{FE}$  with temperature for the 2N525 and indicates that at  $-55^{\circ}$ C the value of  $h_{FE}$  drops to about 50% of its value at 25°C. Most germanium and silicon transistors show approximately this variation of  $h_{FE}$  and  $h_{fe}$  with temperature. In the design of switching circuits the decrease of  $h_{FE}$  and the increase of  $V_{BE}$  at the lower temperatures must be taken into account to guarantee reliable circuit operation.

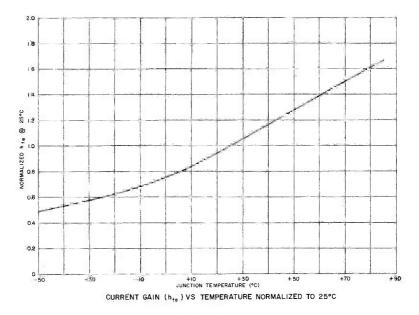


FIGURE 10.7

## POWER DISSIPATION

As with most electrical components, the transistor's range of operating conditions is limited by the transistor power dissipation.

Because the transistor is capable of a very low  $V_{CE}$  when it is in saturation it is possible to use load lines which exceed the maximum rated dissipation during the switching transient, but do not exceed it in the steady state. Such load lines can be used safely if the junction temperature does not rise to the runaway temperature during the switching transient. If the transient is faster than the thermal time constant of the junction, the transistor case may be considered to be an infinite heatsink. The junction temperature rise can then be calculated on the basis of the infinite heatsink derating factor. Since the thermal mass of the junctions is not considered, the calculation is conservative.

In some applications there may be a transient over-voltage applied to transistors when power is turned on or when circuit failure occurs. If the transistor is manufactured to high reliability standards, the maximum voltages may be exceeded provided the dissipation is kept within specifications. While quality alloy transistors and grown junction transistors can tolerate operation in the breakdown region, low quality alloy transistors with irregular junctions should not be used above the maximum voltage ratings.

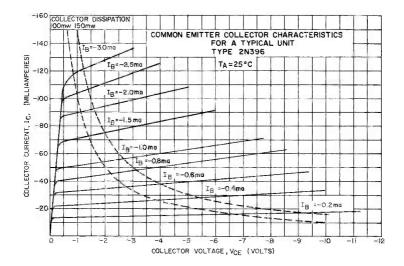
Quality transistors can withstand much abuse. In experimental work, a 2N43 was operated at a peak power of 15 watts and a peak current of 0.5 amperes with no change in characteristics. 2N396 Transistors in an avalanche mode oscillator were operated at peak currents of one ampere. 3N37 Tetrodes rated at 50 milliwatts and 25 milliamperes maximum were operated at a peak power of one watt and a peak current of 200 milliamperes without change in characteristics. Standard production units however should be operated within ratings to ensure consistent circuit performance and long life.

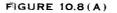
It is generally desirable to heatsink a transistor to lower its junction temperature since life expectancy as well as performance decreases at high temperatures. Heat sinks also minimize thermal fatigue problems, if any exist.

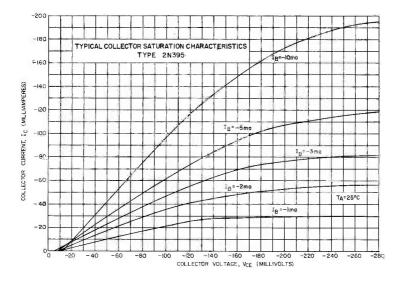
### SATURATION

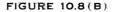
A transistor is said to be in saturation when both junctions are forward biased. Looking at the common emitter collector characteristics shown in Figure 10.8(A) the saturation region is approximately the region below the knee of the curves, since  $h_{FE}$  usually falls rapidly when the collector is forward biased. Since all the characteristic curves tend to become superimposed in the saturation region, the slope of the curves is called the saturation resistance. If the transistor is unsymmetrical electrically – and most transistors are unsymmetrical – then the characteristics will not be directed towards the zero coordinates but will be displaced a few millivolts from zero. For ease of measurement, generally the characteristics are assumed to converge on zero so that the saturation resistance is  $r_s = \frac{V_{CE}^{(SAT)}}{L_s}$ .

While the characteristic curves appear superimposed, an expanded scale shows that  $V_{CB}^{(SAT)}$  depends on  $I_B$  for any given  $I_C$ . The greater  $I_B$  is made, the lower  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  becomes until  $I_B$  is so large that it develops an appreciable voltage across the ohmic emitter resistance and in this way increases  $V_{CE}(sat)$ . In most cases the saturation voltage,  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$ , is specified rather than the saturation resistance. Figure 10.8(B) showing the collector characteristics in the saturation region, illustrates the small voltage off-set due to asymmetry and the dependence of  $r_s$  on  $I_B$ . Note also that  $r_s$  is a low resistance to both AC and DC.

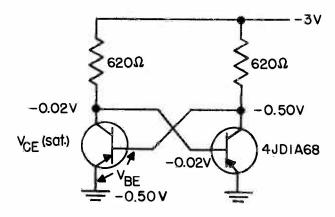








Some circuits have been designed making specific use of saturation. The direct coupled transistor logic (DCTL) flip-flop shown in Figure 10.9 utilizes saturation. In saturation  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  can be so low that if this voltage is applied between the base and emitter of another transistor, as in this flip-flop, there is insufficient forward bias to cause this transistor to conduct appreciably. The extreme simplicity of the circuit



DIRECT COUPLED TRANSISTOR LOGIC (DCTL) FUP-FLOP FIGURE 10.9

is self evident and is responsible for its popularity. However, special requirements are placed on the transistors. The following are among the circuit characteristics:

First, the emitter junction is never reverse biased permitting excessive current to flow in the off transistor at temperatures above 40°C in germanium. In silicon, however, operation to 150°C has proved feasible.

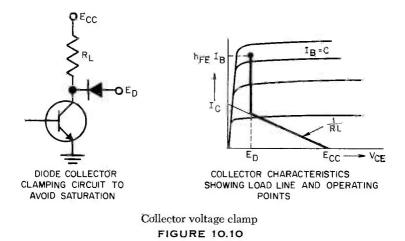
Second, saturation is responsible for a storage time delay, slowing up circuit speed. In the section on transient response we see the importance of drawing current out of the base region to increase speed. In DCTL, this current results from the difference between  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  and  $V_{BE}$  of a conducting transistor. To increase the current,  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  should be small and  $r'_b$  should be small. However, if one collector is to drive more than one base,  $r'_b$  should be relatively large to permit uniform current sharing between bases since large base current unbalance will cause large variations in transient response resulting in circuit design complexity.

Third, since  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  and  $V_{BE}$  differ by less than .3 volt, in germanium, stray voltage signals of this amplitude can cause faulty performance. While stray signals can be minimized by careful circuit layout, this leads to equipment design complexity. Silicon transistors with a .7 volt difference between  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  and  $V_{BE}$  are less prone to being turned on by stray voltages but are still susceptible to turn off signals. This is somewhat compensated for in transistors with long storage time delay since they will remain on by virtue of the stored charge during short turn-off stray signals. This leads to conflicting transistor requirements – long storage time for freedom from noise; short storage time for circuit speed.

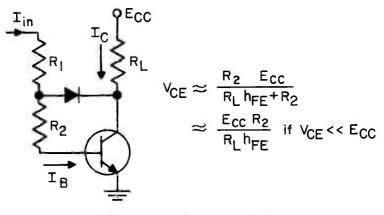
Another application of saturation is saturated flip-flops of conventional configuration. Since  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$  is generally very much less than other circuit voltages, saturating the transistors permits the assumption that all three electrodes are nearly at the same potential making circuit voltages independent of transistor characteristics. This yields good temperature stability, and good interchangeability. The stable voltage levels are useful in generating precise pulse widths with monostable flip-flops. The section on flip-flop design indicates the ease with which saturated circuits can be designed.

In general, the advantages of saturated switch design are: (a) simplicity of circuit design, (b) well defined voltage levels, (c) fewer parts required than in non saturating circuits, (d) low transistor dissipation when conducting, and (e) immunity to short

stray voltage signals. Against this must be weighed the reduction in circuit speed. Speed is affected in a number of ways: (a) much higher trigger power is required to turn off a saturated transistor than an unsaturated one, (b) since  $V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$ ,  $h_{FE}$  and  $V_{BE}$  all vary markedly with temperature, circuit speed also depends on temperature.

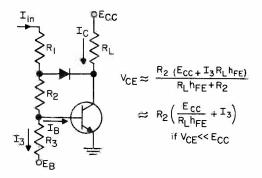


A number of techniques are used to avoid saturation. The simplest is shown in Figure 10.10. The diode clamps the collector voltage so that it cannot fall below the base voltage to forward bias the collector junction. Response time is not improved appreciably over the saturated case since  $I_0$  is not clamped but rises to  $h_{FE}I_B$ . With typical variations of  $I_B$  and  $h_{FE}$  with temperature and life for a standard transistor,  $I_0$  may vary by as much as 10:1. Care should be taken to ensure that the diode prevents saturation with the highest  $I_c$ . When the transistor is turned off,  $I_0$  must fall below the value given by  $(E_{CC}-E_D)/R_L$  before any change in collector voltage is observed. The time required can be determined from the fall time equations in the section on transient response. The diode can also have a long recovery time from the high currents it has to handle. This can further increase the delay in turning off.



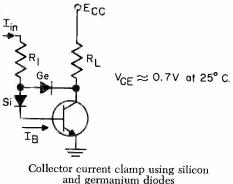
Collector current clamp without bias supply FIGURE 10.11(A)

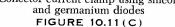
A much better way of avoiding saturation is to control  $I_B$  in such a way that  $I_C$  is just short of the saturation level. This can be achieved with the circuit of Figure 10.11(A). The diode is connected between a tap on the base drive resistor and the collector. When the collector falls below the voltage at the tap, the diode conducts diverting base current into the collector, preventing any further increase in  $I_C$ . The voltage drop across  $R_2$  is approximately  $I_CR_2/h_{FE}$  since the current in  $R_2$  is  $I_B$ . Since the voltage drop across the diode is approximately the same as the input voltage to the transistor,  $V_{CE}$  is approximately  $I_CR_2/h_{FE}$ . It is seen that if the load decreases ( $I_C$ is reduced) or  $h_{FE}$  becomes very high,  $V_{CE}$  decreases towards saturation. Where the change in  $h_{FE}$  is known and the load is relatively fixed, this circuit prevents saturation.



Collector current using bias supply FIGURE 10.11(B)

To avoid the dependence of  $V_{CE}$  on  $I_C$  and  $h_{FE}$ ,  $R_s$  may be added as in Figure 10.11(B). By returning  $R_s$  to a bias voltage, an additional current is drawn through  $R_s$ . Now  $V_{CE}$  is approximately  $(\frac{I_C}{h_{FE}} + I_s) R_s$ . Is can be chosen to give a suitable minimum  $V_{CE}$ .





The power consumed by  $R_s$  can be avoided by using the circuit of Figure 10.11(C). The silicon diode replaces  $R_s$ . Since the silicon diode has a forward voltage drop of approximately .7 volts over a considerable range of current, it acts as a constant voltage source making  $V_{CE}$  approximately .7 volts. If considerable base drive is used, it may be necessary to use a high conductance germanium diode to avoid momentary

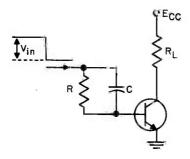
saturation as the voltage drop across the diode increases to handle the large base drive current.

In applying the same technique to silicon transistors with low saturation resistance, it is possible to use a single germanium diode between the collector and base. While this permits  $V_{CE}$  to fall below  $V_{BE}$ , the collector diode remains essentially nonconducting since the .7 volt forward voltage necessary for conduction cannot be reached with the germanium diode in the circuit.

The diode requirements are not stringent. The silicon diode need never be back biased, consequently, any diode will be satisfactory. The germanium diode will have to withstand the maximum circuit  $V_{CE}$ , conduct the maximum base drive with a low forward voltage and switch rapidly under the conditions imposed by the circuit, but these requirements are generally easily met.

Care should be taken to include the diode leakage currents in designing these circuits for high temperatures. All the circuits of Figure 10.11 permit large base drive currents to enhance switching speed, yet they limit both  $I_B$  and  $I_C$  just before saturation is reached. In this way, the transistor dissipation is made low and uniform among transistors of differing characteristics.

It is quite possible to design flip-flops which will be non-saturating without the use of clamping diodes by proper choice of components. The resulting flip-flop is simpler than that using diodes but it does not permit as large a load variation before malfunction occurs. The design procedure for an unclamped non-saturating flip-flop can be found in *Transistor Circuit Engineering* by R. F. Shea, et al (Wiley).

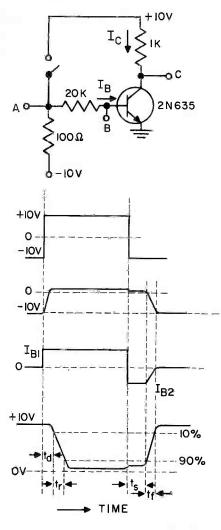


Stored charge neutralization by capacitor FIGURE 10.12

Another circuit which is successful in minimizing storage time is shown in Figure 10.12. If the input is driven from a voltage source, it is seen that if the input voltage and capacitor are appropriately chosen, the capacitor charge can be used to neutralize the stored charge, in this way avoiding the storage time delay. In practical circuits, the RC time constant in the base necessary for this action limits the maximum pulse repetition rate.

## TRANSIENT RESPONSE TIME

The speed with which a transistor switch responds to an input signal depends on the load impedance, the gain expected from the transistor, the operating conditions just prior to the input signal, as well as on the transistor's inherent speed. The following discussion will assume that the collector load resistance is sufficiently small that  $2\pi R_L C_c f_a \ll 1$  where  $C_c$  is the collector capacitance. If this is not the case, the rise and fall time equations must be multiplied by the correction factor  $(1 + 2\pi R_L C_c f_a)$ .



(a) TYPICAL CIRCUIT  $I_{BI} = I_{B2} \approx 0.5 \text{ ma}$   $I_C = 10 \text{ ma}$  $I_C / I_{BI} < h_{FE}$ 

- (b) WAVEFORM GENERATED AT A BY SWITCH
- (c) WAVEFORM AT B SHOWING FORWARD BIAS ON BASE DURING SATURATION
- (d) BASE CURRENT WAVEFORM NOTE REVERSE CURRENT  $I_{B2}$  DUE TO BASE BIAS DURING SATURATION
- (e) COLLECTOR WAVEFORM SHOWING STANDARD DEFINITIONS OF RESPONSE TIMES

Transient response FIGURE 10.13

Consider the simple circuit of Figure 10.13(a). Closing and opening the switch to generate a pulse as shown in Figure 10.13(b), gives the other waveforms shown in the figure. When the switch closes, current flows through the 20K resistor to turn on the transistor. However there is a delay before collector current can begin to flow since the 20K must discharge the emitter capacitance which was charged to -10 volts prior to closing the switch. Time must also be allowed for the emitter current to diffuse across the base region. A third factor adding to the delay time is the fact that at low emitter current densities current gain and frequency response decrease. The total delay from all causes is called the "delay time" and is measured conventionally from the beginning of the input pulse to the 10% point on the collector waveform as shown in Figure 10.13(e). Delay time can be decreased by reducing the bias voltage across the emitter capacitance, and by reducing the base drive resistor in order to reduce the

charging time constant. At high emitter current densities, delay time becomes negligible. Figure 10.14 shows typical delay times for the 2N396 transistor.

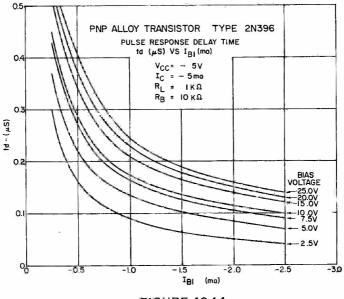
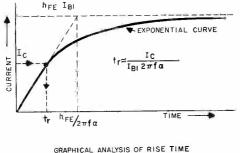


FIGURE 10.14

The rise time refers to the turn-on of collector current. By basing the definition of rise time on current rather than voltage it becomes the same for NPN and PNP transistors. The collector voltage change may be of either polarity depending on the transistor type. However, since the voltage across the collector load resistor is a measure of collector current, it is customary to discuss the response time in terms of the collector voltage. The theoretical analysis of rise time suggests that a single exponential curve as defined in Figure 10.15 fits the experimental results.



GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF RISE TIME SYMBOLS DEFINED IN FIGURE 109 THE INTERCEPT OF IC AND THE CURVE GIVES Tr.

#### **FIGURE 10.15**

If the load resistor  $R_L$  in Figure 10.13(a) is small enough that a current,  $h_{FE}I_{B1}$ , through it will not drive the transistor into saturation, the collector current will rise exponentially to  $h_{fe}I_{B1}$  with a time constant,  $h_{FE}/2\pi f_a$ . However, if  $R_L$  limits the current to

less than hFEIB1, the same exponential response will apply except that the curve will be terminated at  $I_c = \frac{V_{cc}}{R_L}$ . Figure 10.15 illustrates the case for  $I_c \approx h_{FE}I_{B1}/2$ . Note that the waveform will no longer appear exponential but rather almost linear. This curve can be used to demonstrate the roles of the circuit and the transistor in determining rise time. For a given  $h_{FE}$  and  $f_a$ , it is seen that increasing  $h_{FE}I_{B1}/I_C$  will decrease rise time by having  $I_c$  intersect the curve closer to the origin. On the other hand, for a given  $I_{B1}$  and  $I_{C},$  speed will be proportional to  $f_{\alpha}$  but nearly independent of  $h_{FE}$  since its effect on the time constant is balanced by its effect on the curve amplitude. A useful expression for rise time is  $t_r = I_C/I_{B1} 2\pi f_a$ . It is valid for  $I_C/I_B < h_{FE}/5$ . Since this analysis assumes that  $h_{FE}$  and  $f_{\alpha}$  are the same for all operating points the calculated results will not fit experimental data where these assumptions are invalid. Figure 10.16 shows that the rise time halves as the drive current doubles, just as the expression for tr suggests. However the calculated value for tr is in error by more than 50%. This shows that even though the calculations may be in error, if the response time is specified for a circuit, it is possible to judge fairly accurately how it will change with circuit modifications using the above equations.

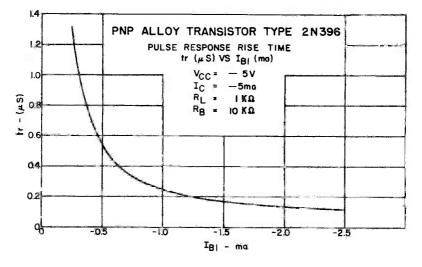
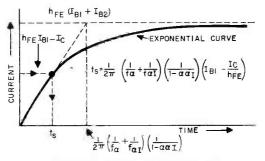


FIGURE 10.16

Storage time is the delay a transistor exhibits before its collector current starts to turn off. In Figure 10.13,  $R_B$  and  $R_L$  are chosen so that  $R_L$  rather than  $h_{FB}$  will limit the collector current. The front edge of the collector waveform, Figure 10.13(e), shows the delay time followed by the nearly linear risetime. When the collector voltage falls below the base voltage, the base to collector diode becomes forward biased with the result that the collector begins emitting. By definition, the transistor is said to be in saturation when this occurs. This condition results in a stored charge of carriers in the base region. Since the flow of current is controlled by the carrier distribution in the base, it is impossible to decrease the collector current until the stored carriers are removed. When the switch is open in Figure 10.13, the voltage at A drops immediately to -10 volts. The base voltage at B however cannot go negative since the transistor is kept on by the stored carriers. The resulting voltage across  $R_B$  causes the carriers to flow out of the base to produce a current  $I_{B2}$ . This is illustrated in Figure 10.13(c) and 10.13(d). As soon as the stored carriers are swept out, the transistor starts

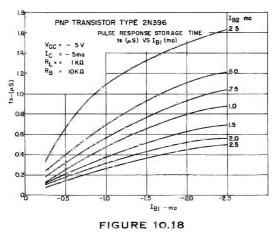
to turn off; the base voltage dropping to -10 volts and the base current decreasing to zero. The higher  $I_{B1}$  is, the greater the stored charge; the higher  $I_{B2}$  is, the faster it is swept out. Since both junctions are forward biased during storage time, the inverse characteristics of the transistor are involved. The inverse characteristics are obtained by interchanging the collector and emitter connections in any test circuit. They are identified by the subscript I following the parameter, e.g.,  $h_{FEI}$  is the inverse DC beta. Figure 10.17 shows a curve which is useful for calculating storage time graphically. The maximum value is  $h_{FE}(I_{B1}+I_{B2})$  where  $I_{B2}$  is given the same sign as  $I_{B1}$ , ignoring the fact it flows in the opposite direction. The time constant of the curve involves the forward and inverse current gain and frequency cut-off. The storage time corresponds to the time required to reach the current  $h_{FE}I_{B1}-I_{C}$ . It can be seen that for a given frequency response, high  $h_{FE}$  gives long storage time. The storage time also decreases as  $I_{B2}$  is increased or  $I_{B1}$  is decreased.



GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF STORAGE TIME. THE INTERCEPT OF (h\_{FE} I\_{BI} - I\_{C}) AND THE CURVE GIVES  $t_{S'}$ 

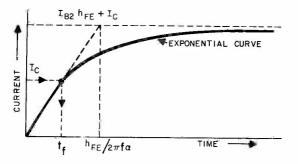
## **FIGURE 10.17**

The time constant for a very unsymmetrical transistor is approximately  $\frac{h_{\text{FEI}}+1}{2\pi f_{ar}}$ . It is seen that the generally specified normal  $h_{\text{FE}}$  and  $f_a$  are of little use in determining storage time. For a symmetrical transistor, the time constant is approximately  $\frac{h_{\text{FE}}+1}{2\pi f_a}$ . It is possible for a symmetrical transistor to have a longer storage time than





an unsymmetrical transistor with the same  $h_{FE}$  and  $f_{\alpha}$ . Figure 10.18 shows the dependence of storage time on  $I_{B1}$  and  $I_{B2}$  for the 2N396 transistor.



GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF FALL TIME THE INTERCEPT OF IC AND THE CURVE GIVES If. FIGURE 10.19

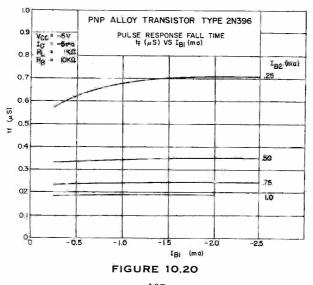
The collector current fall time can be analyzed in much the same manner. Figure 10.19 indicates the exponential curve of amplitude  $I_{\rm C}$  +  $h_{\rm FE}I_{\rm B2}$ , and a time constant,  $h_{\rm FE}/2\pi f_a$ . The fall time is given by the time it takes the exponential to reach  $I_{\rm C}$ . If  $h_{\rm FE}I_{\rm B2} >> I_{\rm C}$ , fall time is given by the expression,

$$t_{\rm F} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_a} \frac{h_{\rm FE} I_{\rm C}/I_{\rm B2}}{h_{\rm FE} + I_{\rm C}/I_{\rm B2}}$$

As hFE becomes large, this expression reduces to,

$$\mathbf{t}_{\mathrm{F}} = \frac{1}{2\pi \mathbf{f}_{a}} \frac{\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{G}}}{\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{B2}}}$$

which is identical to the expression for  $t_r$  except that  $I_{B2}$  replaces  $I_{B1}$ . Figure 10.20 shows typical fall time measurements for a 2N396.



# 11, BASIC COMPUTER CIRCUITS

Computers are generally classified as either analog or digital. An example of an analog computer is the slide rule where the numerical values involved in the calculations are represented by the distance along the scales of the slide rule. For the slide rule, distance is the analog of the numerical values. In an electronic analog computer the voltage or current in the circuit is used as the analog of the numerical values involved in the calculation. Analog computers are used primarily in cases where minimum cost is important and high accuracy is not required.

In a digital computer the numerical values change in discrete steps rather than continuously as in an analog computer. An example of a digital computer is the ordinary desk calculator or adding machine. In an electronic digital computer numerical values involved in the calculation are represented by the discrete states of flip-flops and other switching circuits in the computer. Numerical calculations are carried out in digital computers according to the standard rules of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Digital computers are used primarily in cases where high accuracy is required such as in standard accounting work. For example, most desk calculators are capable of giving answers correct to one part in one million, but a slide rule (analog computer) would have to be about  $\frac{1}{6}$  of a mile long to be read to the same accuracy.

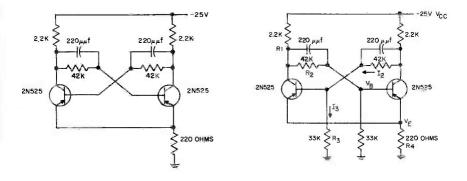
The transistor's small size, low power requirements and inherent reliability have resulted in its extensive use in digital computers. Special characteristics of the transistor such as low saturation resistance, low input impedance, and complementary NPN and PNP types, have permitted new types of digital circuits which are simple, efficient and fast. Computers operating at speeds of 5 megacycles are a commercial reality, and digital circuits have been proved feasible at 160 megacycles.

This chapter offers the design engineer practical basic circuits and design procedures based on proven techniques and components. Flip-flops are discussed in detail because of their extensive use in digital circuits.

## FLIP-FLOP DESIGN PROCEDURES

## SATURATING FLIP-FLOPS

The simplest flip-flop possible is shown in Figure 10.9, however, for standard transistor types the circuit in Figure 11.1(A) is preferable at moderate temperatures. We shall refer to the conducting and non-conducting transistors as the on and off



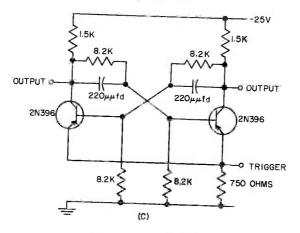
#### SATURATED FLIP-FLOPS

FIGURE 11.1 (A)

FIGURE 11.1 (E)

## BASIC COMPUTER CIRCUITS

transistors respectively. For stability, the circuit depends on the low collector to emitter voltage of the saturated on transistor to reduce the base current of the off transistor to a point where the circuit gain is too low for regeneration. The  $220\Omega$ emitter resistor can be removed if emitter triggering is not used. By adding resistors from base to ground as in Figure 11.1(B), the off transistor has both junctions reverse biased for greater stability. While the 33K resistors divert some of the formerly available base current, operation no longer depends on a very low saturation voltage consequently less base current may be used. Adding the two resistors permits stable operation beyond 50°C ambient temperature,



SATURATED FUP-FLOP FIGURE 11.1 (C)

The circuit in Figure 11.1(C) is stabilized to 100°C. The price that is paid for the stability is (1) smaller voltage change at the collector, (2) more battery power consumed, (3) more trigger power required, (4) a low  $I_{co}$  transistor must be used. The capacitor values depend on the trigger characteristics and the maximum trigger repetition rate as well as on the flip-flop design.

By far, the fastest way to design saturating flip-flops is to define the collector and emitter resistors by the current and voltage levels generally specified as load requirements. Then assume a tentative cross-coupling network. With all components specified, it is easy to calculate the on base current and the off base voltage. For example, the circuit in Figure 11.1(B) can be analyzed as follows. Assume  $V_{BE}$  = .3 volt and  $V_{CE}$  = .2 volt when the transistor is on. Also assume that  $V_{EB}$  = .2 volts will maintain the off transistor reliably cut-off. Transistor specifications are used to validate the assumptions.

I. Check for the maximum temperature of stability.

 $V_{\rm E} = \frac{R_4 V_{\rm CC}}{R_1 + R_4} = \frac{220}{2200 + 220}$  (25) = 2.3 volts  $V_{C on} = V_{E} + V_{CE on} = 2.3 + .2 = 2.5$  volts Assuming no Ico, the base of the off transistor can be considered connected to

$$V'_{B} = V_{G \text{ on }} \frac{R_{3}}{R_{2} + R_{3}} \text{through a resistor } R'_{B} = \frac{R_{2}R_{3}}{R_{2} + R_{3}}$$
$$V'_{B} = \frac{(2.5)(33K)}{(42K + 33K)} = 1.1 \text{ volts}$$
$$R'_{B} = \frac{(33K)(42K)}{75K} = 18.5K$$

The Ico of the off transistor will flow through R'B reducing the base to emitter potential. If the Ico is high enough, it can forward bias the emitter to base junction causing the off transistor to conduct. In our example,  $V_E = 2.3$  volts and  $V_{EB} = .2$  volts will maintain off conditions. Therefore, the base potential can rise from 1.1 volts to 2.1 volts (2.3 - .2) without circuit malfunction. This potential is developed across  $R'_{B}$  by  $I_{co} = \frac{2.1 - 1.1}{18.5K} = 54 \ \mu a$ . A germanium transistor with  $I_{co} = 10 \ \mu a$  at 25°C will not exceed 54  $\mu a$  at 50°C. If a higher operating temperature is required, R<sub>2</sub> and R<sub>3</sub> may be decreased and/or R4 may be increased.

II. Check for sufficient base current to saturate the on transistor.

 $V_{B on} = V_{E} + V_{BE on} = 2.3 + .3 = 2.6$  volts

The current through  $R_s=I_s=\frac{2.6v}{33K}=.079$  ma

The current through  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  in series is  $I_2=\frac{V_{CC}-V_{B\ o\hat{n}}}{R_1+R_2}=\frac{25-2.6}{42K+2.2K}$ - 506 ma

The available base current is  $I_B = I_2 - I_3 = .43$  ma The collector current is  $I_c = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{c \text{ on}}}{R_t} = \frac{25 - 2.5}{2.2K} = 10.25 \text{ ma}$ 

The transistor will be in saturation if hFE at 10 ma is greater than

$$\frac{I_c}{I_B} = \frac{10.25}{.43} = 24$$

If this circuit were required to operate to -55°C, allowance must be made for the reduction of h<sub>FE</sub> at low temperatures. The minimum allowable room temperature  $h_{FE}$  should be 50% higher or  $h_{FE min} = 36$ .

Generally it is not necessary to include the effect of  $I_{co}$  flowing through  $R_1$  when calculating I2 since at temperatures where Ico subtracts from the base drive it simultaneously increases hFE. If more base drive is required, R2 and R3 may be decreased. If their ratio is kept constant, the off condition will not deteriorate, and so need not be rechecked.

III. Check transistor dissipation to determine the maximum junction temperature. The dissipation in the on transistor is

V<sub>BE on</sub> I<sub>B</sub> + V<sub>CE on</sub> I<sub>c</sub> =  $\frac{(.3) (.43)}{1000} + \frac{(.2) (10.25)}{1000} = 2.18 \text{ mw}$ 

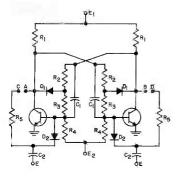
The dissipation in the off transistor resulting from the maximum  $I_{co}$  is

 $V_{\rm CB} I_{\rm CO} \approx \frac{-(25)~(55)}{10^6} = 1.4~{\rm mw}$ 

Generally the dissipation during the switching transient can be ignored at speeds justifying saturated circuitry. In both transistors the junction temperature is within 1°C of the ambient temperature if transistors in the 2N394-97 or 2N524-27 series are used.

# NON-SATURATED FLIP-FLOP DESIGN

The abundance of techniques to prevent saturation makes a general design procedure impractical if not impossible. While it is a simple matter to design a flip-flop as shown above, it becomes quite tedious to check all the worst possible combinations of component change to ensure manufacturability and long term reliability. Often the job is assigned to a computer which calculates the optimum component values and tolerances. While a number of flip-flop design procedures have been published, they generally make simplifying assumptions concerning leakage currents and the voltages developed across the conducting transistors.



# CIRCUIT CONFIGURATION FOR NON-SATURATING FLIP-FLOP DESIGN PROCEDURE

Characteristics:

Trigger input at points E

Trigger steering by D2 and R5

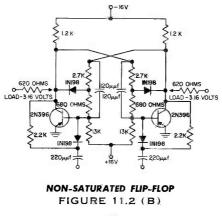
Collector clamping by D1 and R3

Connect points A, B, C, D, E as shown in Figure 11.3 to get counter or shift register operation

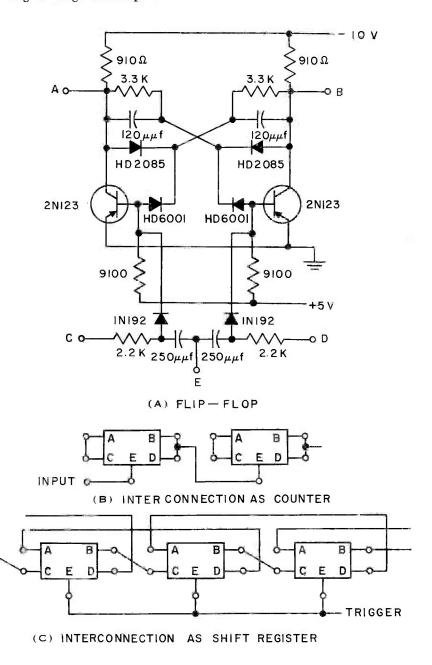
C1 and C2 chosen on basis of speed requirements

FIGURE 11.2 (A)

The design procedure described here is for the configuration in Figure 11.2(A). No simplifying assumptions are made but all the leakage currents and all the potentials are considered. The design makes full allowance for component tolerances, voltage fluctuations, and collector output loading. The anti-saturation scheme using one resistor (R3) and one diode (D1) was chosen because of its effectiveness, low cost and simplicity. The trigger gating resistors (R5) may be returned to different collectors to get different circuit functions as shown in Figure 11.3. This method of triggering offers the trigger sensitivity of base triggering and the wide range of trigger amplitude permissible in collector triggering. The derivation of the design procedure would require much space, therefore for conciseness, the procedure is shown without any substantiation. The procedure involves defining the circuit requirements explicitly then determining the transistor and diode characteristics at the anticipated operating points. A few astute guesses of key parameters yield a fast solution. However, since the procedure deals with only one section of the circuit at a time, a solution is readily reached by cut and try methods without recourse to good fortune. A checking procedure permits verification of the calculations. The symbols used refer to Figure 11.2(A) or in some cases are used only to simplify calculations. A bar over a symbol denotes its maximum value; a bar under it, its minimum. The example is based on polarities associated with NPN transistors for clarity. The result is that only E2 is negative. While the procedure is lengthly, its straightforward steps lend themselves to computation by technically unskilled personnel and the freedom from restricting assumptions guarantees a working circuit when a solution is reached. The circuit designed by this procedure is shown in Figure 11.2(B).



The same procedure can be used to analyze existing flip-flops of this configuration by using the design check steps.



500 KC COUNTER-SHIFT REGISTER FUP-FLOP FIGURE 11.3

STEP	DEFINITION OF OPERATION	SYMBOL	SAMPLE DESIGN FOR 2N396 TRANSISTOR
$(\mathbf{A})$	(A) Circuit Requirements and Device Characteristics		
H	Assume maximum voltage design tolerance	Δe	Let $\Delta e = \pm 5\%$
ଷ	Assume maximum resistor design tolerance	Δr	Let $\Delta r = \pm 7\%$ (assuming $\pm 5\%$ resistors)
3	Assume maximum ambient temperature	$\mathbf{T}_{\Lambda}$	Let $T_{A} = 40^{\circ}C$
4	Assume maximum load current out of the off side	Io.	Let $I_0 = 1$ ma
ໂຕ	Assume maximum load current into the on side	I	Let $I_1 = 0.2 \text{ ma}$
Ó	Estimate the maximum required collector current in the on transistor	H	Let $I_1 \leq 17.5 \text{ ma}$
2	Assume maximum design I <sub>co</sub> at 25°C		From spec sheet $I_{co} < 6 \ \mu a$
8	Estimate the maximum junction temperature	Ľ	Let $T_I = 60^{\circ}C$
G	Calculate I <sub>co</sub> at T <sub>I</sub> assuming I <sub>co</sub> doubles every 10°C or I <sub>cor<sub>I</sub></sub> = I <sub>cos</sub> $e^{i\pi(T_1-2t)}$	Ę	$I_2 = 6e^{-6T_1} = 71 \ \mu a;$ Let $I_3 = 100 \ \mu a$
10	Assume the maximum base leakage current is equal to the maximum $\mathbf{I}_{co}$	4	Let $I_{\rm s} = 100 \mu {\rm a}$
11	Calculate the allowable transistor dissipation		2N396 is derated at 3.3 mw/°C. The junction temperature rise is estimated at $20^{\circ}$ C therefore 67 mw can be allowed. Let $P_{\rm o}=67$ mw
12	Estimate $h_{FE}$ minimum taking into account low temperature degradation and specific assumed operating point	Buith	Let $a_{min} = 0.94$ or $\beta_{min} = 15.67$
13	Estimate the maximum design base to emitter voltage of the "on" transistor	V,	Let $V_i = 0.35$ volts
14	Assume voltage logic levels for the outputs		Let the level separation be $\geq 7$ volts

# NON-SATURATING FLIP-FLOP DESIGN PROCEDURE

BASIC COMPUTER CIRCUITS

-	NON-SATURATING FLIP-FLOP DE	SIGN	ATURATING FLIP-FLOP DESIGN PROCEDURE (CONTINUED)
STEP	DEFINITION OF OPERATION	SYMBOL	SAMPLE DESIGN FOR 2N396 TRANSISTOR
13	Choose the maximum collector voltage permissible for the "on" transistor	V2	Let $V_2 \leq 2.0$ volts
16	Choose suitable diode types		Let all diodes be 1N198
17	Estimate the maximum leakage current of any diode	ľ	Maximum leakage estimated as $\leq 25$ µa. Let I <sub>1</sub> = 40 µa at end of life
18	Calculate $I_5 = I_3 + I_4$	ŗ	$40 + 100 = 140 \ \mu a$
19a	Choose the minimum collector voltage for the "off" transistor keeping in mind 14 and 15 above	V.ª	Let $V_s \ge 9.0$ volts
19b	Choose the maximum collector voltage for the "off" tran- sistor	V,	Let $V_4 \leq 13.0$ volts
20	Choose the minimum design base to emitter reverse bias to assure off conditions	$\mathbf{V}_{5}$	Let $V_s = 0.5$ volt
21a	Estimate the maximum forward voltage across the diodes	V.	Let $V_e = 0.8$ volt
21b	Estimate the minimum forward voltage	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{T}}$	Let $V_7 = 0.2$ volt
22	Estimate the worst saturation conditions that can be tol- erated.		
22a	Estimate the minimum collector voltage that can be tolerated	Vs	Let $V_s = 0.1$ volt
22b	Estimate the maximum base to collector forward bias voltage that can be tolerated	Å,	Let $V_{a} = 0.1$ volt
23a	Calculate $V_a + V_7$	$\mathbf{V}_{20}$	2 + 0.2 = 2.2 volts
23b	Calculate $V_s + V_e$	Var	2 + 0.8 = 2.8 volts
24a	Calculate $V_8 + V_7$	$V_{32}$	0.1 + 0.2 = 0.3 volt

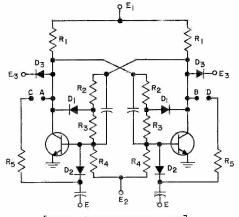
STEP	DEFINITION OF OPERATION	SYMBOL	SAMPLE DESIGN FOR 2N396 TRANSISTOR
24b	Calculate $V_6 + V_6$	V <sub>13</sub>	0.1 + 0.8 = 0.9 volt
25	Calculate $V_{\$} + V_{\$}$	Vu	0.1 + 0.1 = 0.2 volt
(B)	Cut and Try Circuit Design		
1	Assume $E_2$	Es	Let $E_2 = -16$ volts $\pm 5\%$ ; $\overline{E_2} = -15.2$ v; $\underline{E_2} = -16.8$ v
2a	Calculate $\frac{(1 + \Delta r)}{(1 - \Delta r)}$	Ŕ	$\frac{1.07}{0.93} = 1.15$
2b	Calculate $\frac{(1 + \Delta e)}{(1 - \Delta e)}$	K	$\frac{1.05}{0.95} = 1.105$
26	Calculate $\frac{I_1}{\beta_{min}}$	K,	$\frac{17.5}{15.67} = 1.117$ ma.
2d	Calculate $I_2 + I_0 + 2I_4$	K	$0.1 + 1.0 + 0.08 = 1.18 \mathrm{ma}$
2e	Calculate $rac{V_8 - V_9}{V_8 + V_9 - E_2}$	Ka	$\frac{0.8 - 0.1}{0.1 + 0.1 + 15.2} = 0.0454 \text{ volts}$
ŝ	$\text{Calculate } \overline{R_i} \leq \frac{1}{K_s} \left[ \frac{V_{i0} - V_1}{K_i K_s} - K_i \left( V_1 - \underline{E_2} \right) \right]$		$\frac{1}{1.117} \left[ \frac{2.2 - 0.35}{(1.15) (0.0454)} - 1.15 (0.35 + 16.8) \right] = 14.03 \text{ K}$
4	Choose R,	Å	Let $\mathbf{R}_{i} = 13\mathbf{K} \pm 7\%$ ; $\overline{\mathbf{R}_{i}} = 13.91 \text{ K}$ ; $\underline{\mathbf{R}_{i}} = 12.09 \text{ K}$
10	$\operatorname{Calculate} \operatorname{R}_9 \ge \operatorname{K}_8 \operatorname{\overline{R}_4}$		(0.0454) $(13.91K) = 0.632 K$
6	Choose R <sub>s</sub>	r.	Let $R_a = 0.68 \text{ K} \pm 7\%$ ; $\overline{R_a} = 0.7276 \text{ K}$ ; $\underline{R_a} = 0.6324 \text{ K}$
۲	$\label{eq:Check R_s by calculating $\overline{R_s} \leq \frac{\underline{R_4} \left( V_{10} - V_1 \right)}{V_1 - \underline{E_2} + K_8  \underline{R_4}}$}$		$\frac{(12.09 \text{ K}) (2.2 - 0.35)}{0.35 + 16.8 + (1.117) (12.09)} = 0.730 \text{ K}; \text{ choice of } R_s \text{ satisfactory}$
00	Calculate $\frac{\overline{R_s}}{-V_s - \overline{R_s} - I_s \overline{R_s}}$	Ϋ́ς	$\frac{13.91 \text{ K}}{-0.5 + 15.2 - (0.14) (13.91)} = 1.091 \text{ K/V}$
1			

	NON-SATURATING FLIP-FLOP DE	SIGN	ATURATING FLIP-FLOP DESIGN PROCEDURE (CONTINUED)
STEP	DEFINITION OF OPERATION	SYMBOL	SAMPLE DESIGN FOR 2N396 TRANSISTOR
Ø	$ ext{Calculate } rac{ ext{K}_{s} \left(  ext{V}_{z} +  ext{V}_{s}  ight) - rac{ ext{R}_{s}}{1 -  ext{K}_{s}  ext{L}_{s}}$		$\frac{(1.091)(2.0+0.5) \text{ K} - 0.632 \text{ K}}{1 - (1.091)(0.04)} = 2.19 \text{ K}$
10	Choose $R_a - If$ there are difficulties at this point, assume a different $E_a$ .	ħ	Let $R_s = 2.7 \text{ K} \pm 7\%$ ; $\overline{R_s} = 2.889 \text{ K}$ ; $\underline{R_s} = 2.511 \text{ K}$
11	Calculate $\frac{K_{1}^{2} \left[V_{3} - V_{13} + K_{1} \underline{R}_{3}\right]}{V_{4} - V_{11}}$	K	$\frac{(1.15)^2[9.0 - 0.3 + (1.18) (2.511)]}{13.0 - 2.8} = 1.51$
12	Calculate $\overline{\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{f}}} \leq rac{\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{f}}\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{s}}-\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{s}}}{\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{r}}-1/\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{s}}}$		$\frac{(1.51)}{1.51 - 1/1.105} = 17.63$
13	Choose $E_1$	ця Т	Let $E_1 = 16$ volts $\pm 5\%$ ; $\overline{E_1} = 16.8$ volts; $\underline{E_1} = 15.2$ volts
14	$\text{Calculate } \overline{R_{i}} \leq \frac{(E_{i}-V_{s}) \ \underline{R}_{s}}{V_{s}-V_{12}+K_{i} \ \underline{R}_{s}}$		$\frac{(15.2 - 9.0)}{9.0 - 0.3 + (1.18)} \frac{(2.511)}{(2.511)} = 1.335 \text{ K}$
15	$ ext{Calculate } rac{ extbf{R}_{1}}{ extbf{V}_{1} -  extbf{V}_{1}} rac{( extbf{E}_{1} -  extbf{V}_{4})}{ extbf{V}_{1} -  extbf{V}_{1}}$		$\frac{(16.8 - 13.0)}{13.0 - 2.8} = 1.077 \text{ K}$
16	Choose R1	B	Let $R_i = 1.2 \text{ K} \pm 7\%$ ; $\overline{R_i} = 1.284 \text{ K}$ ; $\underline{R_i} = 1.116 \text{ K}$
(C)	(C) Design Checks		
٢	Check "off" stability. Reverse bias voltage is given by: $V_{BB} \leq \overline{E_2} + \overline{\frac{R_4}{R_4 + R_3 + R_2}} [V_2 - \overline{E_3} + I_1 \frac{R_2}{2} + I_6 (\underline{R_3} + \underline{R_3})]$	$V_{EB}$	$-15.2 + \frac{13.91}{17.05}$ $[2 + 15.2 + (0.04) (2.511) + (0.14) (3.14)] = -0.7 \text{ volts}$ The design value of V, was 0.5 volts. Therefore, the "off"
	Orcutt stable II VBB — - Vs	1	condition is stable.

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STEP	DEFINITION OF OPERATION	SYMBOL	SAMPLE DESIGN FOR 2N396 TRANSISTOR
61	Check for non-saturation under the worst conditions.		
	$\mathrm{V}_{\mathtt{BB}} \leq \overline{\mathrm{F}}_{\mathtt{2}} + rac{\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{i}} \left( \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{is}} - \mathrm{E}_{\mathtt{2}}  ight)}{\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{i}} + \mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{s}}}$	Van	$-15.2 + \frac{13.91 (0.9 + 15.2)}{14.54} = 0.19 \text{ volts}$
	Circuit non-saturated if $V_{BE} \leq V_{ii}$		The design maximum of V14 was 0.2 volts.
3a Ja	Check for stability. Calculate: $R_A = \overline{R_1} + \overline{R_2}$	R	1.284 + 2,889 = 4.173 K
3b	$R_B = \overline{R_1} + \overline{R_2} + \overline{R_3} + \overline{R_4}$	RB	1.284 + 2.889 + .728 + 12.09 = 16.99 K
3c	$R_c = \overline{R_s} + \underline{R_t}$	Re	.728 + 12.09 = 12.82  K
3d	$\mathbf{E}'_1 = \underline{\mathbf{E}}_1 - \mathbf{K}_1  \overline{\mathbf{R}}_1$	$\mathbf{E}_{a}^{u}$	15.2 - (1.18) (1.284) = 13.68  volts
3e	$R_{D} = \underline{R}_{1} + \overline{R}_{2} + \overline{R}_{3} + \overline{R}_{4}$	Ro	1.116 + 2.889 + .728 + 13.91 = 18.643  K
şę	$I_{g} = \frac{R_{B}\left(\overline{E_{1}} - V_{2}\right) - \underline{R_{1}}\left[\overline{E_{1}} - \underline{E_{2}} - I_{5}\overline{R_{4}} - I_{4}(\overline{R_{5}} + \overline{R_{4}})\right]}{\underline{R_{1}}\left(R_{B} - \underline{R_{1}}\right)}$	9	$\frac{18.64 \left(16.8 - 2\right) - 1.116 \left[16.8 + 16.8 - (0.14) \left(13.91\right)}{1.116 \left(18.64 - 1.116\right)} - (.04) \left(.728 + 13.91\right)\right] = 12.34 \text{ ma}$
3g	${ m I_7} \coloneqq rac{{ m R_B}}{{ m R_A}{ m R_O}} \; ({ m E'_1} - { m V_{10}}) - \; rac{1}{{ m R_O}} \; ({ m E'_1} - { m E_2})$	Ą	$\frac{16.99}{(4.173)(12.82)}(13.68 - 2.2) - \frac{(13.68 + 16.8)}{12.82} = 1.266 \text{ ma}$
3h	$\mathrm{I_s} = rac{\mathrm{I_t} + \mathrm{I_s} + \mathrm{I_\tau}}{eta_{\mathrm{min}} + \mathrm{R_i}/\mathrm{R_c}}$	<b>.</b>	$\frac{0.2 + 12.34 + 1.266}{15.67 + 12.09/12.82} = 0.831 \text{ ma}$
ŝ	$\begin{split} V_{\text{BB}} &= \underline{E}_2 + \frac{R_4}{R_B} \left( 1 + \frac{R_A}{R_C} \right) \left( E'_1 - \underline{E}_2 \right) \\ &- \frac{R_4}{R_C} \left( E'_1 - V_{10} \right) - I_8 \frac{R_4}{R_B} \left( \frac{R_4 R_4}{R_C} - R_A - \overline{R}_3 \right) \end{split}$	V' <sub>BR</sub>	$-16.8 + \frac{12.09}{16.99} \left( 1 + \frac{4.173}{12.818} \right) \left( 13.683 + 16.8 \right) \\ - \frac{12.09}{12.818} \left( 13.683 - 2.2 \right) - 0.831 \frac{12.09}{16.99} \\ \left( \frac{(4.173)(12.09)}{12.818} - 4.173 - 0.7276 \right) = .55V \\ (55V is greater than V_1 = .35V, therefore the design is satisfactory.$

2 P.P.



SYMBOLS DEFINED IN FIGURE 11.2 (A)

# CIRCUIT CONFIGURATIONS FOR NON-SATURATING FUP-FLOP WITH CLAMPED OFF VOLTAGE FIGURE 11.4

The non-saturating flip-flop design procedure just discussed has been extended to the circuit in Figure 11.4. This circuit is identical to that in Figure 11.2(A) except that a diode clamp ( $D_8E_8$ ) determines the collector off voltage. A number of design solutions which have been calculated for a nominal 10 ma flip-flop and 5 volt logic level are shown in Figure 11.5. The standard conditions chosen are wide enough to include diode and transistor parameter variations from  $-55^{\circ}C$  to  $75^{\circ}C$  junction temperature. The solutions use only standard RTMA resistor values which are permitted to change up to  $\pm 10\%$  during life.

$I_0(I_1)$	LOAD	Deviation from	$\Delta e =$	$\pm 5\%$	$\Delta_r =$	$\pm 7\%$	$\Delta e =$	$\pm 5\%$	$\Delta r = \pm$	±10%	$\Delta e \simeq$	±10%	$\Delta \mathbf{r} \equiv$	±7%
max ma,	Out (I <sub>0</sub> ) má	STD Conditions	Rı	R2	Rs	R4	Rı	Rz	Rs	R.	Rı	$\mathbf{R}_{2}$	Ra	R,
10	1.0	»نيــــ	2.7	2.4	.82	11	2.2	2.0	.68	9.1	2.4	2,2	.75	10
10	1.5		2.4	2.4	.82	11	2.2	2.2	.68	9.1	2.2	2.4	.75	10
15	1.0	-	1.8	1.5	.56	7.5	1.5	1.2	.47	6.2	1.8	1.5	.51	6.8
15	1.5		1.8	1.5	.56	7.5	1.5	1.3	.47	6.2	1.8	1.5	.51	6.8
10	1.25	$V_{\text{s}} \equiv .2v \text{ max}$	3.0	3.0	.91	13	2.2	2.0	.68	9.1	2.2	2,2	.75	10
10	1.25	$V_{1} = .5v \text{ max}$	2.7	2.7	.91	12	2.4	2.7	.82	11	2.4	2.7	.82	11
10	1.25	$V_1 = .4v \text{ max}$	3.3	3.6	1.1	15	2.4	2.7	.91	12	2.7	3.0	1.0	13
10	1.25	$V_6 = .6v \text{ max}$	4.7	8.2	1.3	24	4.3	7.5	1.20	22	4.3	9.1	1.3	24

Standard Conditions:  $E_1 = 18v$ ,  $E_2 = -12v$ ,  $E_3 = 6v$ ,  $0.8v > V_{DIODE}(V_6, V_7) > 0.2v$ ,  $I_{DIODE LEAKAGE}(I_4 < .04 \text{ ma}, I_{CO} < .1 \text{ ma}, 2v > V_{CE ON}(V_5, V_8) > 0v$ ,  $V_{BE}(V_1) < .55v$ ,  $V_{EB}(V_5) > .2v$ ,  $V_{BC}(V_6) < .1v$ ,  $I_{LOAD IN}(I_1) = .2$  ma, 7.1v  $> V_{CE OFE}(V_5, V_7) > 5.9v$ ,  $h_{FE} = 18$  min. All resistor values in kilohms.

# PRACTICAL CIRCUITS, BASED ON FLIP-FLOP CONFIGURATION IN FIGURE 11.4 (symbols defined in non-saturating flip-flop design procedure) FIGURE 11.5

The high on voltage ( $V_{CE sat}$ ,  $V_z$ ) when the transistor is conducting is primarily the result of the assumed forward voltage of the diode. It is seen that raising the minimum collector to emitter voltage ( $V_s$ ) from 0 to 0.2 volts has a minor effect on the solutions.  $V_s = 0.1v$  gave identical solutions to  $V_s = 0.2v$ .

The last solution in Figure 11.5 shows that a high conductance diode permits more efficient design.

The capacitors in the circuit are determined by the frequency response of the transistor or by the maximum trigger pulse repetition rate.

Type Number	Ambient Temperature Range in Degrees Centigrade Assuming Worst Case Ico and hre	Potential Switching Speed	Type
2N43	-55 to 45	low	PNP
2N123	—55 to 60	med	PNP
2N396	-55 to 60	med	PNP
2N397	-55 to 60	high	PNP
2N404	—10 to 75	med	PNP
2N450	55 to 60	med	PNP
2N524	25 to 55	low	PNP
2N525	-55 to 55	low	PNP
2N526	—55 to 55	low	PNP
2N527	—55 to 55	low	PNP
2N634	25 to 60	low	NPN
2N635	—55 to 60	med	NPN
2N636	55 to 60	high	NPN
2N1289	—55 to 60	high	NPN

# TRANSISTORS SUITABLE FOR FUP-FLOP SOLUTIONS IN FIGURE 11.5 FIGURE 11.6

Figure 11.6 lists a number of military and industrial transistors which meet the conditions of the solution. In all cases the maximum ambient temperature is limited by  $I_{C0}$  while the minimum ambient temperature is limited by  $h_{FE}$ . No switching speeds are given because they depend on the trigger power available as well as on the inherent transistor speed.

## TRIGGERING

Flip-flops are the basic building blocks for many computer and switching circuit applications. In all cases it is necessary to be able to trigger one side or the other into conduction. For counter applications, it is necessary to have pulses at a single input make the two sides of the flip-flop conduct alternately. Outputs from the flip-flop must have characteristics suitable for triggering other similar flip-flops. When the counting period is finished, it is generally necessary to reset the counter by a trigger pulse to one side of all flip-flops simultaneously. Shift registers, and ring counters have similar triggering requirements.

In applying a trigger to one side of a flip-flop, it is preferable to have the trigger turn a transistor off rather than on. The off transistor usually has a reverse-biased emitter junction. This bias potential must be overcome by the trigger before switching can start. Furthermore, some transistors have slow turn on characteristics resulting in a delay between the application of the trigger pulse and the actual switching. On the other hand, since no bias has to be overcome, there is less delay in turning off a transistor. As turn-off begins, the flip-flop itself turns the other side on.

A lower limit on trigger power requirements can be determined by calculating the base charge required to maintain the collector current in the on transistor. The trigger source must be capable of neutralizing this charge in order to turn off the transistor. It has been determined that the base charge for a non-saturated transistor is approximately  $Q_{\rm B} = 1.22 \, {\rm I_C}/2\pi f_{\rm a}$ . The turn-off time constant is approximately  $h_{\rm FE}/2\pi f_{\rm a}$ . This indicates that circuits utilizing high speed transistors at low collector currents will require the least trigger power. Consequently, it may be advantageous to use high speed transistors in slow circuitry if trigger power is critical. If the on transistor was in saturation, the trigger power must also include the stored charge. The stored charge is given by

$$Qs = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{f_{\alpha}} + \frac{1}{f_{\alpha I}} \right) \left( \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_{N} \alpha_{I}} \right) \left( I_{BL} - \frac{I_{C}}{h_{FE}} \right)$$

where the symbols are defined in the section on transient response time.

Generally, the trigger pulse is capacitively coupled. Small capacitors permit more frequent triggering but a lower limit of capacitance is imposed by base charge considerations. When a trigger voltage is applied, the resulting trigger current causes the charge on the capacitor to change. When the change is equal to the base charge just calculated, the transistor is turned off. If the trigger voltage or the capacitor are too small, the capacitor charge may be less than the base charge resulting in incomplete

turn-off. In the limiting case  $C=\frac{Q_B}{V_T}$  . The speed with which the trigger turns off a

transistor depends on the speed in which  $Q_B$  is delivered to the base. This is determined by the trigger source impedance and r'<sub>b</sub>.

In designing counters, shift registers or ring counters, it is necessary to make alternate sides of a flip-flop conduct on alternate trigger pulses. There are so-called steering circuits which accomplish this. At low speeds, the trigger may be applied at the emitters as shown in Figure 11.7. It is important that the trigger pulse be shorter than the cross coupling time constant for reliable operation. The circuit features few parts and a low trigger voltage requirement. Its limitations lie in the high trigger current required.

At this point, the effect of trigger pulse repetition rate can be analyzed. In order that each trigger pulse produce reliable triggering, it must find the circuit in exactly the same state as the previous pulse found it. This means that all the capacitors in the circuit must stop charging before a trigger pulse is applied. If they do not, the result is equivalent to reducing the trigger pulse amplitude. The transistor being turned off presents a low impedance permitting the trigger capacitor to charge rapidly. The capacitor must then recover its initial charge through another impedance which is generally much higher. The recovery time constant can limit the maximum pulse rate.

Steering circuits using diodes are shown in Figures 11.8 and 11.9. The collectors are triggered in 11.8 by applying a negative pulse. As a diode conducts during triggering, the trigger pulse is loaded by the collector load resistance. When triggering is accomplished, the capacitor recovers through the biasing resistor  $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{r}}$ . To minimize

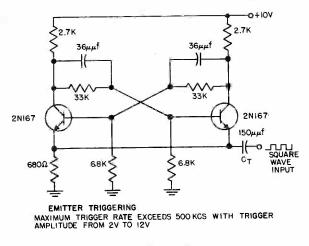
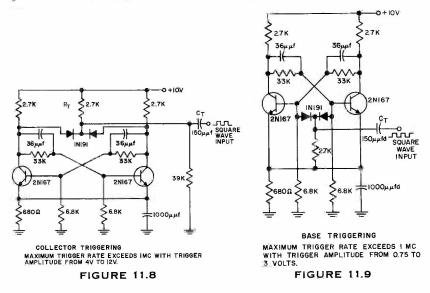


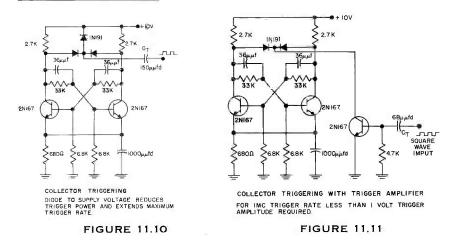
FIGURE 11.7

trigger loading,  $R_T$  should be large; to aid recovery, it should be small. To avoid the recovery problem mentioned above,  $R_T$  can be replaced by a diode as shown in 11.10. The diode's low forward impedance ensures fast recovery while its high back impedance avoids shunting the trigger pulse during the triggering period.



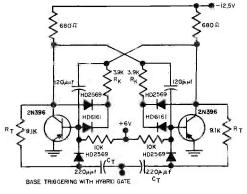
Collector triggering requires a relatively large amplitude low impedance pulse but has the advantage that the trigger pulse adds to the switching collector waveform to enhance the speed. Large variations in trigger pulse amplitude are also permitted.

In designing a counter, it may be advantageous to design all stages identically the same to permit the economies of automatic assembly. Should it prove necessary to increase the speed of the early stages, this can be done by adding a trigger amplifier as shown in Figure 11.11 without any change to the basic stage.



Base triggering shown in Figure 11.9 produces steering in the same manner as collector triggering. The differences are quantitative with base triggering requiring less trigger energy but a more accurately controlled trigger amplitude. A diode can replace the bias resistor to shorten the recovery time.

Hybrid triggering illustrated in Figure 11.12 combines the sensitivity of base triggering and the trigger amplitude variation of collector triggering. In all the other steering circuits, the bias potential was fixed, in this one the bias potential varies in

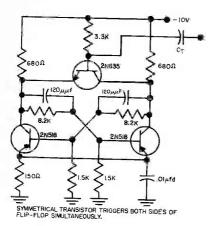


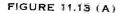
**FIGURE 11.12** 

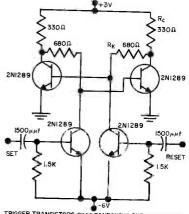
order to more effectively direct the trigger pulse. By returning the bias resistor to the collector, the bias voltage is  $V_{CB}$ . For the conducting transistor,  $V_{CB}$  is much less than for the off transistor, consequently, the trigger pulse is directed to the conducting transistor. This steering scheme is particularly attractive if  $V_{CB}$  for the conducting transistor is very small as it is in certain non-saturating circuits such as shown in Figure 10.11.

Care should be taken that the time constant  $C_T R_T$  does not limit the maximum counting rate. Generally  $R_T$  can be made approximately equal to  $R_X$  the cross-coupling resistor.

To design a shift register or a ring counter, it is only necessary to return  $R_T$  to the appropriate collector to achieve the desired switching pattern. The connections for the shift register are shown in Figure 11.3(A) and (B). A ring counter connection results from connecting the shift register output back to its input as shown in Figure 11.3(C).

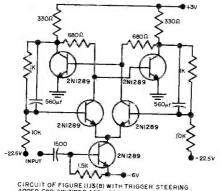






TRIGGER TRANSISTORS SIMULTANEOUSLY SUPPLY CURRENT TO TURN OFF ONE SIDE OF FLIP-FLOP AND TO DEVELOP A VOLTAGE ACROSS THE COLLECTOR LOAD ON THE OTHER SIDE

FIGURE 11.13 (B)



AOOED FOR COUNTER APPLICATION

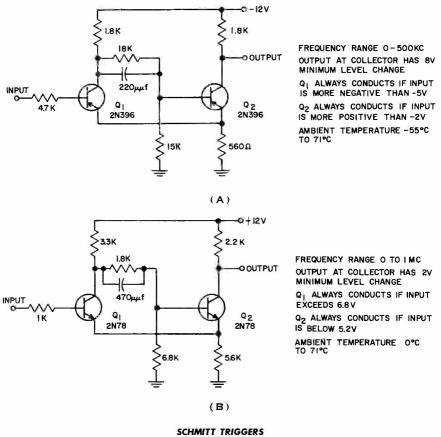
TRIGGER CIRCUITS USING TRIGGER POWER TO INCREASE SWITCHING SPEED FIGURE 11.13 (C)

By using transistors as trigger amplifiers, some circuits superpose the trigger on the output of the flip-flop so that an output appears even if the flip-flop is still in the transient condition. Figure 11.13(A) shows a symmetrical transistor used for steering. The transistor makes the trigger appear in opposite phase at the flip-flop collectors speeding up the transition. The circuit in Figure 11.13(B) can have  $R_c$  and  $R_{\pi}$  so chosen so that a trigger pulse will bring the collector of the transistor being turned on to ground even though the transistor may not have started conducting. The circuit in 11.13(B) may be converted to a steering circuit by the method shown in 11.13(C).

# SPECIAL PURPOSE CIRCUITS

# SCHMITT TRIGGER

A Schmitt trigger is a regenerative bistable circuit whose state depends on the amplitude of the input voltage. For this reason, it is useful for waveform restoration, signal level shifting, squaring sinusoidal or non-rectangular inputs, and for DC level detection. Practical circuits are shown in Figure 11.14.

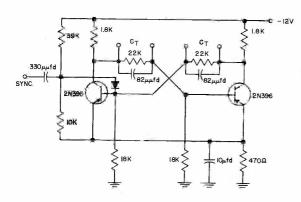


**FIGURE 11.14** 

Circuit operation is readily described using Figure 11.14(B). Assuming Q1 is nonconducting, the base of Q2 is biased at approximately  $\pm 6.8$  volts by the voltage divider consisting of resistors 3.3K, 1.8K and 6.8K. The emitters of both transistors are then at 6.6 volts due to the forward bias voltage required by Q2. If the input voltage is less than 6.6 volts, Q1 is off as was assumed. As the input approaches 6.6 volts, a critical voltage is reached where Q1 begins to conduct and regeneratively turns off Q2. If the input voltage is now lowered below another critical value, Q2 will again conduct.

# ASTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR

The term multivibrator refers to a two stage amplifier with positive feedback. Thus a flip-flop is a bistable multivibrator; a "one-shot" switching circuit is a monostable multivibrator and a free-running oscillator is an astable multivibrator. The astable multivibrator is used for generating square waves and timing frequencies and for frequency division. A practical circuit is shown in Figure 11.15. The circuit is symmetrical with the transistors DC biased so that both can conduct simultaneously. The cross-coupling capacitors prevent this, however, forcing the transistors to conduct alternately. The period is approximately  $T = \frac{C_T + 100}{40}$  microseconds where  $C_T$  is measured in  $\mu\mu f$ . A synchronizing pulse may be used to lock the multivibrator to an external oscillator's frequency or subharmonic.



FREQUENCY RANGE ICPS TO 250 KCPS BY CHANGING CT OUTPUT AT COLLECTOR HAS 8 VOLT MINIMUM LEVEL CHANGE AMBIENT TEMPERATURE -55°C TO 71°C SYNCHRONIZING PULSES PERMIT GENERATING SUBHARMONICS SYNC PULSE AMPLITUDE MUST EXCEED 1.5V POSITIVE, RISETIME MUST BE LESS THAN JO, SEC.

ASTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR FIGURE 11.15

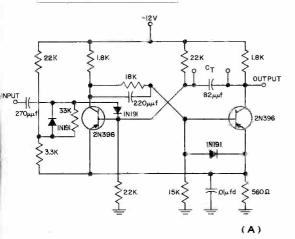
# MONOSTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR

On being triggered a monostable multivibrator switches to its unstable state where it remains for a predetermined time before returning to its original stable state. This makes the monostable multivibrator useful in standardizing pulses of random widths or in generating time delayed pulses. The circuit is similar to that of a flip-flop except that one cross-coupling network permits AC coupling only. Therefore, the flip-flop can only remain in its unstable state until the circuit reactive components discharge. Two circuits are shown in Figure 11.16 to illustrate timing with a capacitor and with an inductor. The inductor gives much better pulse width stability at high temperatures.

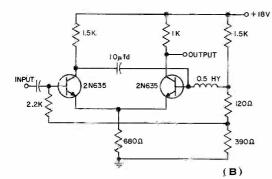
# INDICATOR LAMP DRIVER

The control panel of a computer frequently has indicator lamps to permit monitoring the computer's operation. The circuit in Figure 11.17 shows a bistable circuit which permits controlling the lamp by short trigger pulses.

A negative pulse at point A turns on the lamp, which remains on due to regenerative feedback in the circuit. A positive pulse at A will turn off the lamp. The use of complementary type transistors minimizes the standby power while the lamp is off.

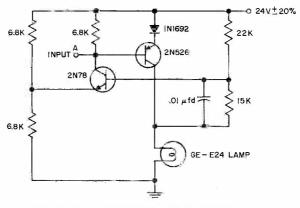


OUTPUT AT COLLECTORS HAS 8 VOLT LEVEL CHANGE OUTPUT PULSE DURATION 24SEC TO ISEC MAXIMUM INPUT FREQUENCY 250KC MAXIMUM REQUIRED INPUT PULSE IS 5 VOLTS DUTY CYCLE EXCEEDS 60% AMBIENT TEMPERATURE -55°C TO 71°C



OUTPUT AT COLLECTOR HAS 5 VOLT LEVEL CHANGE OUTPUT PULSE DURATION APPROX 600 MICROSECONDS MAXIMUM INPUT PULSE REQUIRED 3 VOLTS AMBIENT TEMPERATURE - 55°C. TØ 71°C

MONOSTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR FIGURE 11.16



TRIGGER PULSE REQUIREMENT 2 VOLTS MAXIMUM. AMBIENT TEMPERATURE -55°C TO 71°C RESISTOR TOLERANCE ± 10 % AT END OF LIFE

> BISTABLE INDICATOR LAMP DRIVER FIGURE 11.17

# 12. LOGIC

Large scale scientific computers, smaller machine control computers and electronic animals all have in common the facility to take action without any outside help when the situation warrants it. For example, the scientific computer recognizes when it has completed an addition, and tells itself to go on to the next part of the problem. A machine control computer recognizes when the process is finished and another part should be fed in. Electronic animals can be made to sense obstructions and change their course to avoid collisions. Mathematicians have determined that such logical operations can be described using the conjunctives AND, OR, AND NOT, OR NOT. Boolean algebra is the study of these conjunctives, the language of logic. A summary of the relations and operations of Boolean algebra follow the example of its use below.

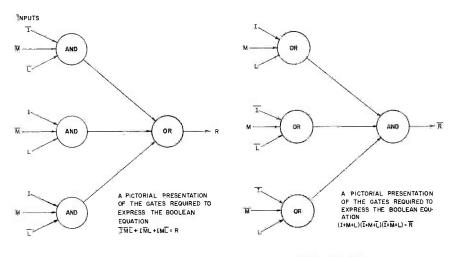
Transistors can be used to accomplish logic operations. To illustrate this, an example, from automobile operation will be used. Consider the interactions between the ignition switch, the operation of the motor and the oil pressure warning light. If the ignition is off, the motor and light will both be off. If the ignition is turned on, but the starter is not energized the warning lamp should light because the motor has not generated oil pressure. Once the motor is running, the ignition is on and the lamp should be off. These three combinations of ignition, motor and lamp conditions are the only possible combinations signifying proper operation. Note that the three items discussed have only two possible states each, they are on or off. This leads to the use of the binary arithmetic system, which has only two symbols corresponding to the two possible states. Binary numbers will be discussed later in the chapter.

	I	M	L	Result	1
E	0	0	0	V	I = IGNITION
2	0	0	1	x	M ≠ MOTOR L = LAMP
3	0	1	0	x	R = RESULT
4	0	1	1	X	1 = ON
5	L	0	0	X	0 = OFF ACCEPTABLE
6	1	Q	1	V	X = UNACCEPTAR
7	1	1	0	V	N=3=NO. OF VARIAB
8		1		x	2 <sup>N</sup> =8

Table of all possible combinations of ignition, motor and lamp conditions FIGURE 12.1

To write the expressions necessary to derive a circuit, first assign letters to the variables, e.g., I for ignition, M for motor and L for lamp. Next assign the number one to the variable if it is on; assign zero if it is off. Now we can make a table of all possible combinations of the variables as shown in Figure 12.1. The table is formed by writing ones and zeros alternately down the first column, writing ones and zeros in series of two down the second; in fours down the third, etc. For each additional variable, double the number of ones or zeros written in each group. Only  $2^N$  rows are written, where N is the number of variables, since the combinations will repeat if more rows are added. Indicate with a check mark in the result column if the combination represented in the row is acceptable. For example, combination 4 reads, the ignition is off and the motor is running and the warning light is on. This obviously is an unsatisfactory

situation. Combination 7 reads, the ignition is on and the motor is running and the warning light is off. This obviously is the normal situation while driving. If we indicate that the variable is a one by its symbol and that it is a zero by the same symbol, with a bar over it and if we use the symbol plus (+) to mean "OR" and multiplication to mean "AND" we can write the Boolean equation  $\overline{IML} + I\overline{ML} + I\overline{ML} = R$  where R means an acceptable result. The three terms on the left hand side are combinations 1, 6, and 7 of the table since these are the only ones to give a check mark in the result column. The plus signs indicate that any of the three combinations individually is acceptable. While there are many rules for simplifying such equations, they are beyond the scope of this book.



# FIGURE 12.2

FIGURE 12.3

To express this equation in circuitry, two basic circuits are required. They are named gates because they control the signal passing through. An "AND" gate generates an output only if all the inputs representing the variables are simultaneously applied and an "OR" gate generates an output whenever it receives any input. Our equation translated into gates would be as shown in Figure 12.2. Only if all three inputs shown for an "AND" gate are simultaneously present will an output be generated. The output will pass through the "OR" gate to indicate a result. Note that any equation derived from the table can be written as a series of "AND" gates followed by one "OR" gate.

It is possible to rearrange the equation to give a series of "OR" gates followed by one "AND" gate. To achieve this, interchange all plus and multiplication signs, and remove bars where they exist and add them where there are none. This operation gives us,

$$(I + M + L) (\overline{I} + M + \overline{L}) (\overline{I} + \overline{M} + L) = \overline{R}$$

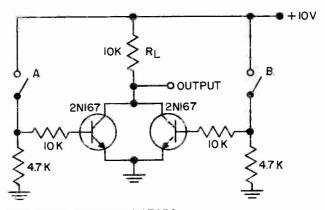
In ordinary language this means if any of the ignition or motor or lamp is on, and simultaneously either the ignition is off or the motor is on or the lamp is off, and simultaneously either the ignition is off or the motor is off or the lamp is on, then the result is unacceptable. Let us apply combination 4 to this equation to see if it is acceptable. The ignition is off therefore the second and third brackets are satisfied. The first bracket is not satisfied by the ignition because it requires that the ignition be on. However, the motor is on in combination 4, satisfying the conditions of the first bracket. Since the requirements of all brackets are met, an output results. Applying combination 7 to the equation we find that the third bracket cannot be satisfied since its conditions are the opposite of those in combination 7. Consequently, no output appears. Note that for this equation, an output indicates an unacceptable situation, rather than an acceptable one, as in the first equation. In gate form, this equation is shown in Figure 12.3.

Table 12.1 summarizes the definitions used with the Boolean equations above and indicates some of the rules which were used to convert the equation represented in Figure 12.2 to that of Figure 12.3. The more conventional symbols a, b, c are used in place of I, M, and L.

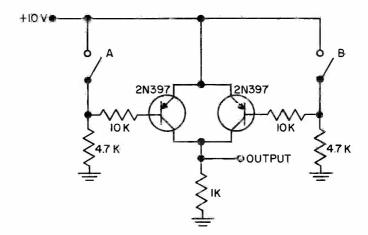
DEFI	NITIONS					
a, b, c, etc. ab or $a \cdot b$ or $(a)(b)$ $\frac{a}{a} + b$ 1 0	Symbols used in equations Reads as "a and b" Reads as "a or b" Reads as "not a" Reads as "true" or "on" Reads as "false" or "off"					
LAWS						
$\frac{Commutative Laws}{a + b = b + a}$ ab = ba $\frac{Associative Laws}{(a + b) + c = a} + (b + c)$ (ab)c = a(bc)	$\frac{\text{Distributive Law}}{a(b + c) = ab + ac}$ $\frac{\text{Special Distributive Law}}{(a + b)(a + c) = a + bc}$ $\frac{\text{De Morgan's Theorem}}{a + b = (\overline{ab})  \overline{ab} = (\overline{a} + \overline{b})$					
RELATIONSHIPS						
$1 = \overline{0} \qquad 0 = \overline{1}$ $a + a = a \qquad a \cdot a = a$ $a + 1 = 1 \qquad a \cdot 1 = a$ $\underline{a + a = 1} \qquad a \cdot a = 0$ $\overline{a = a} \qquad a + ab = a(1 + b) = a$						

# TABLE 12.1

Methods for using transistors in gate circuits are illustrated in Figure 12.4. The base of each transistor can be connected through a resistor either to ground or a positive voltage by operating a switch. In Figure 12.4(A) if both switches are open, both transistors will be non-conducting except for a small leakage current. If either switch A or switch B is closed, current will flow through R<sub>L</sub>. If we define *closing* a switch' as being synonymous with applying an input then we have an "OR" gate. When either switch is closed, the base of the transistor sees a positive voltage, therefore, in an "OR" gate the output should be a positive voltage also. In this circuit it is negative, or "NOT OR". The circuit is an "OR" gate with phase inversion. It has been named a "NOR" circuit. Note that if we define opening a switch as being synonymous with applying an input, then we have an "AND" circuit with phase inversion since both switch A and switch B must be open before the current through R<sub>L</sub> ceases. We see that the same circuit can be an "AND" or an "OR" gate depending on the polarity of the input.



(A) GATE USING NPN TRANSISTORS IF CLOSING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT, THIS IS AN "OR" GATE IF OPENING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT, THIS IS AN "AND" GATE NOTE: PHASE INVERSION OF INPUT

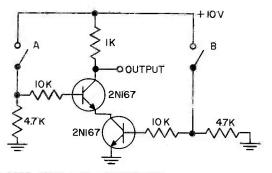


(B) GATE USING PNP TRANSISTORS IF CLOSING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "AND" GATE IF OPENING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "OR" GATE NOTE: PHASE INVERSION OF INPUT

# BASIC LOGIC CIRCUITS USING PARALLEL TRANSISTORS FIGURE 12.4

The circuit in Figure 12.4(B) has identically the same input and output levels but uses PNP rather than NPN transistors. If we define closing a switch as being an input, we find that both switches must be closed before the current through  $R_L$  ceases. Therefore, the inputs which made the NPN circuit an "OR" gate make the PNP circuit an "AND" gate. Because of this, the phase inversion inherent in transistor gates does not complicate the overall circuitry excessively.

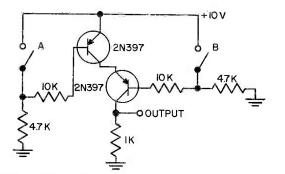
Figure 12.5(A) and (B) are very similar to Figure 12.4(A) and (B) except that the transistors are in series rather than in parallel. This change converts "OR" gates into "AND" gates and vice versa.



(A) GATE USING NPN TRANSISTORS IF CLOSING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "AND" GATE IF OPENING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "OR" GATE NOTE: PHASE INVERSION OF INPUT

(A)

(8)



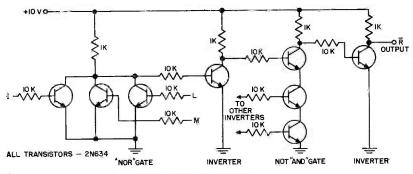
(B) GATE USING PNP TRANSISTORS IF CLOSING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "OR" GATE IF OPENING A SWITCH IS AN INPUT THIS IS AN "AND" GATE NOTE: PHASE INVERSION OF INPUT

> BASIC LOGIC CIRCUITS USING SERIES TRANSISTORS FIGURE 12.5

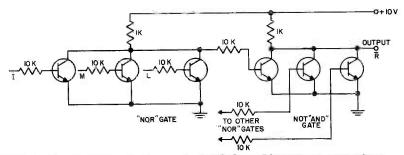
Looking at the logic of Figure 12.3, let us define an input as a positive voltage; a lack of an input as zero voltage. By using the circuit of Figure 12.4(A) with three

transistors in parallel, we can perform the "OR" operation but we also get phase inversion. We can apply the output to an inverter stage which is connected to an "AND" gate of three series transistors of the configuration shown in Figure 12.5(A). An output inverter stage would also be required. This is shown in Figure 12.6(A).

By recognizing that the circuit in Figure 12.4(A) becomes an "AND" gate if the input signal is inverted, the inverters can be eliminated as shown in Figure 12.6(B).



(A) INVERTERS COMPENSATE FOR PHASE INVERSION OF GATES



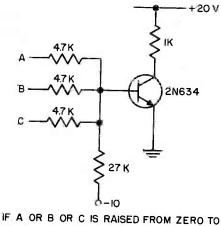
(B) PHASE INVERSION UTILIZED TO ACHIEVE "AND" AND "OR" FUNCTIONS FROM THE SAME CIRCUIT.

# Circuits representing $(I + M + L) \overline{(I + M + L)} \overline{(I + M + L)} = \overline{R}$ FIGURE 12.6

If the transistors are made by processes yielding low saturation voltages and high base resistance, the series base resistors may be eliminated. Without these resistors the logic would be called direct-coupled transistor logic DCTL. While DCTL offers extreme circuit simplicity, it places severe requirements on transistor parameters and does not offer the economy, speed or stability offered by other logical circuitry.

The base resistors of Figure 12.6 relax the saturation voltage and base input voltage requirements. Adding another resistor from each base to a negative bias potential would enhance temperature stability.

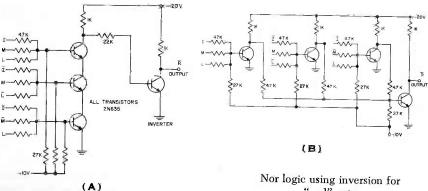
Note that the inputs include both "on" and "off" values of all variables e.g., both I and  $\overline{I}$  appear. In order that the gates function properly, I and  $\overline{I}$  cannot both be positive simultaneously but they must be identical and oppositely phased, i.e. when I is positive  $\overline{I}$  must be zero and vice versa. This can be accomplished by using a phase inverter to generate  $\overline{I}$  from I. Another approach, more commonly used, is to take I and  $\overline{I}$  from opposite sides of a symmetrical flip-flop.



12 VOLTS THE TRANSISTOR WILL CONDUCT.

BASIC NOR CIRCUIT FIGURE 12.7

"NOR" logic is a natural extension of the use of resistors in the base circuit. In the circuit of Figure 12.7, if any of the inputs is made positive, sufficient base current results to cause the transistor to conduct heavily. The "OR" gating is performed by the resistors; the transistor amplifying and inverting the signal. The logic of Figure 12.3 can now be accomplished by combining the "NOR" circuit of Figure 12.7 with the "AND" circuit of Figure 12.5(A). The result is shown in Figure 12.7. In comparing the circuits in Figure 12.6(A) and 12.8, we see that the "NOR" circuit uses one-fourth as many transistors and one-half as many resistors as the brute force approach. In fact if we recall that the equation we are dealing with gives  $\overline{R}$  rather than R, we see that we can get R by removing the output phase inverter and making use of the inherent inversion in the "NOR" circuit.



"and" gate

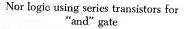
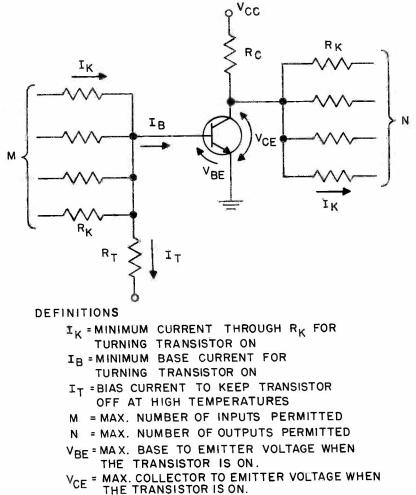


FIGURE 12.8

Because of the fact that a generalized Boolean equation can be written as a series of "OR" gates followed by an "AND" gate as was shown, it follows that such equations can be written as a series of "NOR" gates followed by a "NOR" gate. The low cost of the resistors used to perform the logic and the few transistors required make "NOR" logic attractive.



Circuit used for design of NOR circuitry

# FIGURE 12.9

A detailed "NOR" building block is shown in Figure 12.9. The figure defines the basic quantities. The circuit can readily be designed with the aid of three basic equations. The first derives the current  $I_{\kappa}$  under the worst loading conditions at the collector of a stage.

> $I_{\text{K}} = \frac{V_{\text{CC}} - V_{\text{BE}} - I_{\text{COM}} R_{\text{C}}}{R_{\text{K}} + N R_{\text{C}}}, \dots, \text{ where } I_{\text{COM}}$ (12a)

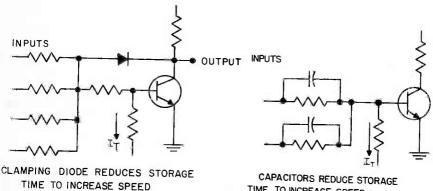
is the maximum  $I_{co}$  that is expected at the maximum junction temperature. The second equation indicates the manner in which  $I_{\kappa}$  is split up at the base of the transistor.

$$I_{\rm K} = I_{\rm B} + \frac{M \left( V_{\rm CEM} - V_{\rm CEN} + V_{\rm BE} - V_{\rm EB} \right) - \left( V_{\rm BE} - V_{\rm CEN} \right)}{R_{\rm K}} + I_{\rm com}$$
(12b)

where  $V_{\text{CEN}}$  is the minimum expected saturation voltage,  $V_{\text{CEM}}$  is the maximum expected saturation voltage and  $V_{\text{EB}}$  is the reverse bias required to reduce the collector current to  $I_{CO}$ .  $V_{EB}$  is a negative voltage. The third equation ensures that  $V_{EB}$  will be reached to turn off the transistor.

$$I_{\text{COM}} + \frac{(V_{\text{CEM}} - V_{\text{EB}})M}{R_{\kappa}} = I_{\text{T}}$$
(12c)

Knowing  $I_T$  and choosing a convenient bias potential permits calculation of  $R_T$ . In using these equations, first select a transistor type. Assume the maximum possible supply voltage and collector current consistent with the rating of the transistor and the maximum anticipated ambient temperature. This will ensure optimization of N and M. From the transistor specifications, values of  $I_{\rm COM},$   $V_{\rm BE},$   $V_{\rm CEN},$  and  $I_{\rm B}$  (min) can be calculated.  $I_{B}\xspace$  (min) is the minimum base current required to cause saturation.  $R_{\rm c}$  is calculated from the assumed collector current. In equation (12a) solve for  $I_{\kappa}$  using the desired value of N and an arbitrary value for  $R_{\kappa}.$  Substitute the value for  $I_{\kappa}$  in equation (12b) along with a chosen value for M and solve for  $I_B$ . While superficially  $I_B$  need only be large enough to bring the transistor into saturation, increasing  $\mathbf{I}_B$  will improve the rise time.



TIME TO INCREASE SPEED

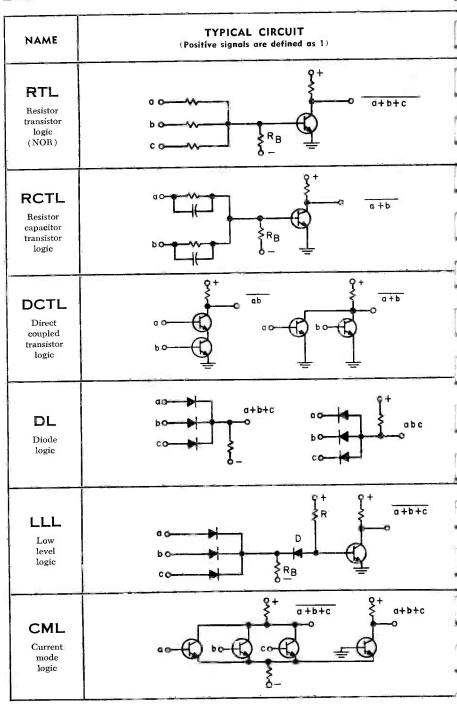
# (A)

(B)

# **FIGURE 12.10**

Circuit speed can also be enhanced by using a diode as shown in Figure 12.10(A) to prevent severe saturation or by shunting  $R_{\kappa}$  by a capacitor as in 12.10(B). The capacitors may cause malfunction unless the stored charge during saturation is carefully controlled; they also aggravate crosstalk between collectors. For this reason it is preferable to use higher frequency transistors without capacitors when additional speed is required.

Table 12.2 lists the characteristics of common logic systems employing transistors.



COMMON LOGIC SYSTEMS

DESCRIPTION	FEATURES	SUITABLE TRANSISTORS			
DESCRIPTION	FEATURES	GERMANIUM	SILICON		
Logic is performed by re- sistors. Any positive input produces an inverted out- put irrespective of the other inputs. Resistor RB gives temperature stability. (See p. 131)	The circuit design is straightforward. All logical operations can be per- formed with only this cir- cuit. Many transistors readily meet the steady state requirements.	2N43A* 2N78* 2N167* 2N169A 2N396* 2N525 2N526* 2N635 2N1057	2N335*		
Same as RTL except that capacitors are used to en- hance switching speed. The capacitors increase the base current for fast col- lector current turn on and minimize storage time by supplying a charge equal to the stored base charge.	Faster than RTL at the ex- pense of additional compo- nents and stringent stored charge requirements.	No standard types are characterized specifically for this logic 2N404* 2N525 2N634 2N1115			
Logic is performed by transistors. VCE and VBE, measured with the tran- sistor in saturation, define the two logic levels. VCE must be much less than VBE to ensure stability and circuit flexibility. (See p. 130)	Very low supply voltages may be used to achieve high power efficiency and miniaturization. Relatively fast switching speeds are practical.	4JD1A68 (PNP Alloy) Surface barrier types			
Logic is performed by diodes. The output is not inverted. Amplifiers are re- quired to maintain the cor- rect logic levels through several gates in series.	Several gates may be used between amplifiers. High speeds can be attained. Non - inversion simplifies circuit design problems. Relatively inexpensive components are used.	2N43A* 2N78* 2N123* 2N167* 2N396* 2N525 2N635	2N333* 2N337*		
Logic is performed by diodes. The output is in- verted. The diode D iso- lates the transistor from the gate permitting R to turn on the collector cur- rent. By proper choice of components only small voltage changes occur.	The number of inputs to the diode gate does not affect the transistor base current thus giving pre- dictable performance. The small voltage excursions minimize the effects of stray capacitance and en- hance switching speed.	2N123* 2N396* 2N525 2N526* 2N635 2N1115	2N335* 2N338*		
Logic is performed by transistors which are biased from constant current sources to keep them far out of saturation. Both in- verted and non-inverted outputs are available.	Very high switching speeds are possible because the transistors are operated at optimum operating condi- tions. Although the volt- age excursion is small the circuitry is relatively un- affected by noise.	2N1289 Mesa Types	2N337* 2N338*		

# BINARY ARITHMETIC

LOGIC

Because bistable circuits can be readily designed using a variety of components from switches to transistors, it is natural for counters to be designed to use binary numbers, i.e., numbers to the base, or radix, 2. In the conventional decimal system, a number written as 2904 is really a contraction for  $2 \times 10^3 + 9 \times 10^2 + 0 \times 10^1 + 4 \times 1$ . Each place refers to a different power of 10 in ascending order from the right. In the binary system, only two symbols are permitted, 0 and 1. All numbers are constructed on the basis of ascending powers of 2. For example, 11011 means  $1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 1$ . This is 27 in the decimal system.

This notation applies also to decimal fractions as well as integers. For example, the number 0.204 is a contraction of  $2 \times 10^{-1} + 0 \times 10^{-2} + 4 \times 10^{-3}$ . Similarly, the binary number 0.1011 is a contraction of  $1 \times 2^{-1} + 0 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4}$ . Using this construction, a table of equivalent binary and decimal numbers can be obtained as shown below.

Binary	Decimal	Binary	Decimal
0	0	0.000	0.000
1	1	0.001	0.125
10	2	0.010	0.250
11	3	0.011	0.375
100	4	0.100	0.500
101	5	0.101	0.625
110	6	0.110	0.750
111	7	0.111	0.875

Arithmetic operations can best be described by comparative examples.

Addition		Subtraction	
42	101010	44	101100
+18	10010	- 18	10010
60	111100	26	11010

During addition, the digits in a column are added to the carry from the previous column. The result is expressed as a sum digit which is recorded and a carry digit which is applied to the next column. The term digit generally refers to the figures in a decimal number; the term bit (an abbreviation of binary digit) is used with binary numbers. If the digit being subtracted is the larger of the two in the column, the techniques used to handle this situation in decimal subtraction are also applicable in the binary system.

Multiplication	1	Division	
42	101010	1.35	1.0101
21	10101	$5 \vee 6.7500$	$101 \sqrt{110.11000}$
42	101010	5	101
84	101010	17	1 11
882	101010	15	1 01
	1101110010	25	1000
		25	101
			110

Multiplying a binary number by two is equivalent to adding a zero to its right hand

side, just as multiplying a decimal number by 10 adds a zero. This is equivalent to shifting the number one place to the left. In computers, this operation is done by a shift register. Division can be readily understood since it involves the operations of additions, subtraction and multiplication only.

Computers generally employ circuits called adders which can perform the operation of addition. Adders can also perform other arithmetic operations besides addition. For example, an adder can perform subtraction by the use of a number's complement. The complement is obtained numerically by interchanging all ones and zeros. In equipment the complement can be obtained by taking the output from the opposite side of flip-flops.

The manner in which subtraction with an adder is accomplished is given by the following example:

Problem:	Calculate	
	1101 - 1001	
Complement of	1001 is 0110	
	$(1111 - 1001 \pm 0110)$	
Add:	1101 + 0110 = 10011	
Add 1	10011 + 1 = 10100	
Omit left hand digit to obtain		
	1101 - 1001 = 100	

Flip-flops can be connected in series so that the first flip-flop will alternate states with each input pulse, and successive flip-flops will alternate states at half the rate of the preceding flip-flop. In this way the flip-flops assume a unique configuration of states for a given number of input pulses. The flip-flops actually perform the function of binary counting. A practical circuit of a binary counter is shown in Figure 11.3(B) The count in a binary counter can be determined by noting whether each stage is in the 1 or 0 condition, and then assigning the appropriate power of 2 to the stage to reconstruct the number as in the examples above.

If it is required to count to a base other than 2, a binary counter can be modified to count to the new base.

The rules for accomplishing the modification will be illustrated for a counter to the base 10.

Rule	Example
1) Determine the number of binary stages	M = 10
(N) required to count to the desired	$2^{3} < 10 < 2^{4}$
new base (M)	N = 4
<ul> <li>2) Subtract M from 2<sup>N</sup></li> <li>3) Write the remainder in binary form</li> <li>4) When the count reaches 2<sup>N-t</sup>, feed back a one to each stage of the counter having a one in the remainder shown in 3)</li> </ul>	$1^{N} = 4^{2^{4}} - 10 = 6^{2^{6}}$ $6 = 110^{2^{N-1}} = 2^{3} = 1000^{2^{N-1}}$ Feedback added gives. $1  110^{2^{N-1}}$

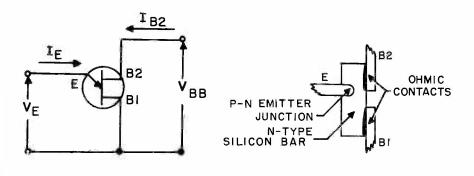
As additional pulses are added beyond the count  $2^{N-1}$ , they will count through to M and then recycle to zero. This method is based on advancing the count at the point  $2^{N-1}$ to the extent that the indicated count is  $2^N$  when M input pulses are applied. The feedback is applied when the most significant place becomes a one but it is imperative that feedback be delayed until the counter settles down in order to avoid interference with the normal counter action.

# **13. UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS**

The unijunction transistor is a three-terminal semiconductor device which has electrical characteristics that are quite different from those of conventional two-junction transistors. Its most important feature is its highly stable negative resistance characteristic which permits its application in oscillator circuits, timing circuits and bistable circuits. Circuits such as sawtooth generators, pulse generators, delay circuits, multivibrators, one-shots, trigger circuits and pulse rate modulators can be greatly simplified by the use of the unijunction transistor.

# THEORY OF OPERATION

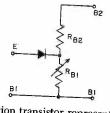
The construction of the unijunction transistor is shown in Figure 13.2. Two ohmic contacts, called base-one (B1) and base-two (B2) are made at opposite ends of a small bar of n-type silicon. A single rectifying contact, called the emitter (E), is made on the opposite side of the bar close to base-two. An interbase resistance, RBB, of between 5K and 10K exists between base-one and base-two. In normal circuit operation, base-one is grounded and a positive bias voltage, VBB, is applied at base-two. With no emitter current flowing, the silicon bar acts like a simple voltage divider (Figure 13.3) and a certain fraction,  $\eta$  of V<sub>BB</sub> will appear at the emitter. If the emitter voltage,  $V_{E}$ , is less than  $\eta$   $V_{BB}$ , the emitter will be reverse-biased and only a small emitter leakage current will flow. If  $V_E$  becomes greater than  $\eta V_{BB}$ , the emitter will be forward biased and emitter current will flow. This emitter current consists primarily of holes injected into the silicon bar. These holes move down the bar from the emitter to base-one and result in an equal increase in the number of electrons in the emitter to base-one region. The net result is a decrease in the resistance between emitter and base-one so that as the emitter current increases, the emitter voltage decreases and a negative resistance characteristic is obtained (Figure 13.5).



Symbol for unijunction transistor with indentification of principle voltages and currents FIGURE 13.1 Construction of unijunction transistorcross sectional view

# FIGURE 13.2

The operation of the unijunction transistor may be best understood by the representative circuit of Figure 13.3. The diode represents the emitter diode,  $R_{B1}$  represents the resistance of the region in the silicon bar between the emitter and base-one and  $R_{B2}$  represents the resistance between the emitter and base-two. The resistance  $R_{B1}$ varies with the emitter current as indicated in Figure 13.4.

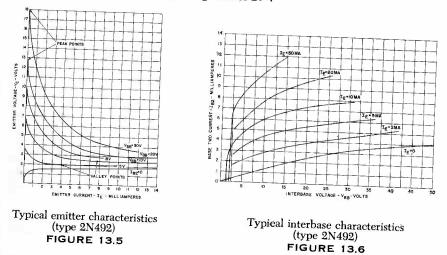


Unijunction transistor representative circuit FIGURE 13.3

I <sub>E</sub>	R <sub>BI</sub>
(MA)	(OHMS)
0	4600
	2000
2	900
5	240
0	150
20	90
50	40

Variation of R<sub>B1</sub> with I<sub>E</sub> in representative circuit (typical 2N492) FIGURE 13.4

The large signal properties of the unijunction transistor are usually given in the form of characteristic curves. Figure 13.5 gives typical emitter characteristic curves as plots of emitter voltage vs. emitter current for fixed values of interbase voltage. Figure 13.6 gives typical interbase characteristic curves as plots of interbase voltage vs. base-two current for fixed values of emitter current. On each of the emitter characteristic curves there are two points of interest, the peak point and the valley point. On each of the emitter characteristic curves the region to the left of the peak point is called the cut-off region; here the emitter is reverse biased and only a small leakage current flows. The region to the right of the valley point is the saturation region; here the dynamic resistance is positive and lies in the range of 5 to  $20\Omega$ .



# PARAMETERS-DEFINITION AND MEASUREMENT

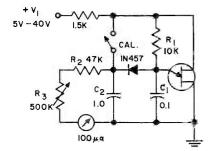
<u>1.  $R_{BB}$  – Interbase Resistance</u>. The interbase resistance is the resistance measured between base-one and base-two with the emitter open circuited. It may be measured with any conventional ohmmeter or resistance bridge if the applied voltage is five volts or less. The interbase resistance increases with temperature at about  $0.8\%/^{\circ}$ C. This temperature variation of  $R_{BB}$  may be utilized for either temperature compensation or in the design of temperature sensitive circuits.

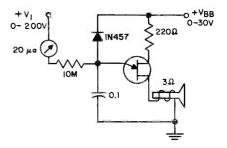
<u>2.  $\eta$  – Intrinsic Stand-off Ratio.</u> This parameter is defined in terms of the peak point voltage, V<sub>P</sub>, by means of the equation: V<sub>P</sub> =  $\eta$ V<sub>BB</sub> + V<sub>D</sub>... where V<sub>D</sub> is about 0.70 volt at 25°C and decreases with temperature at about 3 millivolts/°C. It is

#### UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

found that  $\eta$  is constant over wide ranges of temperature and interbase voltage. A circuit which may be used to measure  $\eta$  is shown in Figure 13.7. In this circuit R<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub> and the unijunction transistor form a relaxation oscillator and the remainder of the circuit serves as a peak voltage detector with the diode automatically subtracting the voltage V<sub>D</sub>. To use the circuit, the voltage V<sub>1</sub> is set to the value desired, the "cal." button is pushed and R<sub>3</sub> adjusted to make the meter read full scale. The "cal" button is then released and the value of  $\eta$  is read directly from the meter (1.0 full scale). If the voltage V<sub>1</sub> is changed, the meter must be recalibrated.

3. I<sub>P</sub> – Peak Point Current. The peak point current corresponds to the emitter current at the peak point. It represents the minimum current which is required to fire the unijunction transistor or required for oscillation in the relaxation oscillator circuit. I<sub>P</sub> is inversely proportional to the interbase voltage. I<sub>P</sub> may be measured in the circuit of Figure 13.8. In this circuit, the voltage V<sub>1</sub> is increased until the unijunction transistor fires as evidenced by noise from the loudspeaker. V<sub>1</sub> is then reduced slowly until the unijunction ceases to fire and the current through the meter is read as I<sub>P</sub>.





# TEST CIRCUIT FOR INTRINSIC STANDOFF RATIO (7) FIGURE 13.7

TEST CIRCUIT FOR PEAK POINT EMITTERS CURRENT (IP) FIGURE 13.8

4.  $V_P$  – Peak Point Emitter Voltage. This voltage depends on the interbase voltage as indicated in (2).  $V_P$  decreases with increasing temperature because of the change in  $V_P$  and may be stabilized by a small resistor in series with base-two.

5.  $V_{\rm E}$  (sat) – Emitter Saturation Voltage. This parameter indicates the forward drop of the unijunction transistor from emitter to base-one when it is conducting the maximum rated emitter current. It is measured at an emitter current of 50 ma and an interbase voltage of 10 volts.

6.  $I_{B2} \pmod{-\text{Interbase Modulated Current.}}$  This parameter indicates the effective current gain between emitter and base-two. It is measured as the base-two current under the same condition used to measure  $V_{E}$  (sat).

7.  $I_{EO}$  – Emitter Reverse Current. The emitter reverse current is measured with 60 volts between base-two and emitter with base-one open circuit. This current varies with temperature in the same way as the  $I_{CO}$  of a conventional transistor.

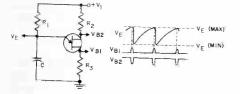
8.  $V_v$  – Valley Voltage. The valley voltage is the emitter voltage at the valley point. The valley voltage increases as the interbase voltage increases, it decreases with resistance in series with base-two and increases with resistance in series with base-one.

9.  $I_v - Valley$  Current. The valley current is the emitter current at the valley point. The valley current increases as the interbase voltage increases and decreases with resistance in series with base-one or base-two.

UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

# RELAXATION OSCILLATOR

The relaxation oscillator circuit shown in Figure 13.9 is a basic circuit for many applications. It is chiefly useful as a timing circuit, a pulse generator, a trigger circuit or a sawtooth wave generator.



BASIC RELAXATION OSCILLATOR WITH TYPICAL WAVEFORMS FIGURE 13.9

Conditions for Oscillation.

$$rac{V_1 - V_P}{R_1} > I_p, \ rac{V_1 - V_v}{R_1} < I_v$$

It is found that these conditions are very broad permitting a 1000 to 1 range of  $R_1$  from about 2K to 2M.  $R_2$  is used for temperature compensation, its value may be calculated from the equation:

$$\mathbf{R}_{2} \simeq rac{0.65 \ \mathbf{R}_{BB}}{\eta \mathrm{V}_{1}} \ \mathrm{(units \ are \ ohms, \ volts)}$$

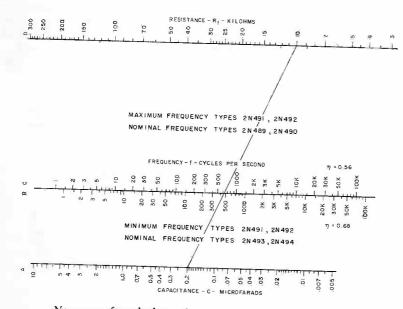
The maximum and minimum voltages of the emitter voltage waveform may be calculated from:

$$V_{E}$$
 (max.)  $\equiv V_{p} \equiv \eta V_{BB} + 0.7$  volt  
 $V_{E}$  (min.)  $\approx 0.5 V_{F}$  (sat)

The frequency of oscillation is given by the equation:

$$f \approx \frac{1}{R_i C \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-\eta}\right)}$$

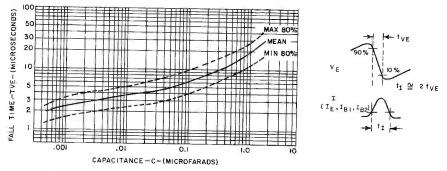
and may be obtained conveniently from the nomogram of Figure 13.10.



Nomogram for calculating frequency of relaxation oscillation FIGURE 13.10

# UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

The emitter voltage recovery time,  $t_{VE}$ , is defined as the time between the 90% and 10% points on the emitter voltage waveform. The value of  $t_{VE}$  is determined primarily by the size of the capacitor C in Figure 13.9 and may be obtained from Figure 13.11.



Recovery time of unijunction transistor relaxation oscillator vs. capacity FIGURE 13.11

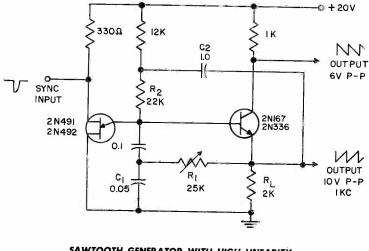
The pulse amplitude at base-one or base-two may be determined from the equations:  $[V_p - 1/2 V_p(sat)]C_{-}/c$ 

$$I_{E(peak)} \cong \frac{I_{Pp} - I/2 \nabla_{E}(sat) IC}{t_{VE}}$$

$$I_{B2(peak)} \cong \frac{I_{B2} (mod)}{7} \sqrt{I_{E(peak)}}$$
Units are ma, volts, mµf, µsec.

# SAWTOOTH WAVE GENERATOR

The circuit of Figure 13.12 may be used as a linear sawtooth wave generator. The NPN transistor serves as an output buffer amplifier with the capacitor  $C_2$  and resistor  $R_2$  serving in a bootstrap circuit to improve the linearity of the sawtooth.  $R_1$  and  $C_1$  give integrator type feedback which compensates for the loading of the output stage. Optimum linearity is obtained by adjusting  $R_1$ . Linearity is 0.3% or more depending on  $h_{FE}$  of the NPN transistor.

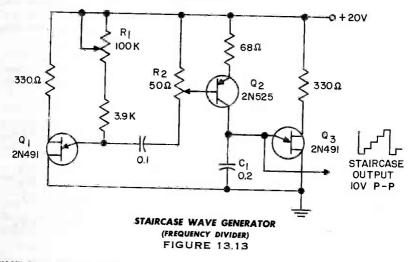


SAWTOOTH GENERATOR WITH HIGH UNEARITY FIGURE 13.12

# STAIRCASE WAVE GENERATOR

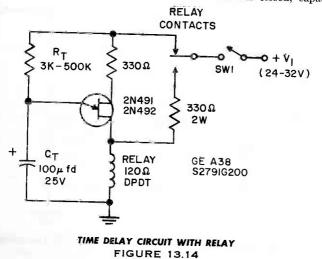
Figure 13.13 shows a simple staircase wave generator which has good stability and a wide operating range. The unijunction transistor  $Q_1$  operates as a free running oscillator which generates negative pulses across  $R_2$ . These pulses produce current pulses from the collector of  $Q_2$  which charge capacitor  $C_1$  in steps. When the voltage across  $C_1$ reaches the peak point voltage of  $Q_3$  this transistor fires and discharges  $C_1$ .

Resistor  $R_1$  determines the frequency of the steps and resistor  $R_2$  determines the number of steps per cycle. The circuit shown can be adjusted for a step frequency from 100 cps to 2 KC and the number of steps per cycle can be adjusted from one to several hundred. This circuit can also be adapted to a frequency divider by cascading stages similar to the stage formed by  $Q_2$  and  $Q_3$ .



# TIME DELAY RELAY

Figure 13.14 shows how the unijunction transistor can be used to obtain a precise delay in the operation of a relay. When the switch SW1 is closed, capacitor  $C_T$  is



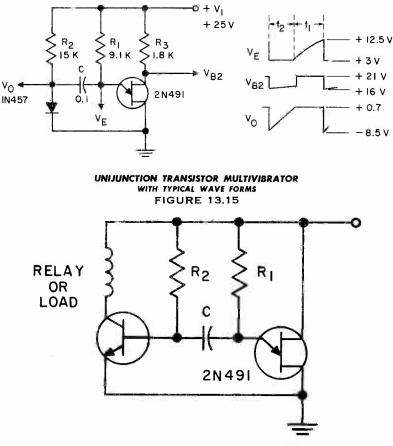
#### UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

charged to the peak point voltage at which time the unijunction transistor fires and the capacitor discharges through the relay thus causing it to close. One set of relay contacts hold the relay closed and the second set of contacts can be used for control functions. To be used in this circuit, relays must have fast operating times, low coil resistance and low operating power.

The time delay of this circuit is determined by  $R_{\rm T}$ , about one second of delay is obtained for each 10K of resistance,  $R_{\rm T}$ . The time delay is quite independent of temperature and supply voltage.

#### MULTIVIBRATOR

Figure 13.15 shows a unijunction transistor multivibrator circuit which has a frequency of about 1 Kc. The conditions for oscillation of this circuit are the same as for the relaxation oscillator. The length of time during which the unijunction transistor is off (no emitter current flowing) is determined primarily by  $R_1$ . The length of time during



Unijunction transistor multivibrator used to drive NPN transistor. FIGURE 13.16

which the unijunction transistor is on is determined primarily by  $R_2$ . The periods may be calculated from the equations:

$$\begin{split} t_{\lambda} &= R_1 C \ln \left[ \frac{V_1 - V_B}{V_1 - V_p} \right] \\ t_2 &= R_2 C \ln \left[ \frac{V_1 + V_p - V_B}{V_1 - V_p} \right] \end{split}$$

Where  $V_B$  is measured at an emitter current of  $I_E = \frac{V_1 (R_1 + R_2)}{R_1 R_2}$  and may be obtained

from the emitter characteristic curves.

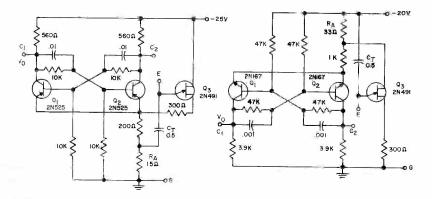
An NPN transistor may be direct coupled to the multivibrator circuit by replacing the diode as shown in Figure 13.16. This circuit has the advantage that the load does not have any effect on the timing of the circuit.

### HYBRID TIMING CIRCUITS

The unijunction transistor can be used in conjunction with conventional PNP or NPN transistors to obtain versatile timing circuits such as symmetrical and unsymmetrical multivibrators, one-shot multivibrators, variable frequency oscillators and time delay circuits. The advantages of these circuits include: (1) The output at the collector of each transistor is very nearly an ideal rectangular waveform. (2) The circuits will tolerate large variations in  $h_{\rm FE}$  or  $I_{\rm CO}$  of the transistors as compared to conventional circuits. (3) The circuits are not prone to "lock-up" or non-oscillation. (4) The timing stability is excellent. (5) A single small timing capacitor  $C_{\rm T}$  can be used, avoiding the use of electrolytic capacitors in many applications.

The hybrid timing circuits can use either germanium or silicon transistors as desired. The basic circuits for PNP or NPN transistors are shown in Figures 13.17 and 13.18. In both of these circuits, the junction transistors form a conventional flip-flop with the unijunction transistor serving the timing and triggering functions. Each time the unijunction transistor fires the discharge current from the capacitor  $C_T$  develops a pulse across  $R_A$  which triggers the flip-flop from one state to the other.

The basic circuits as shown in Figures 13.17 and 13.18 will operate at frequencies from about 1 cps to 500 cps and at temperatures above 75°C. Frequencies from 1 cycle per minute to 100 KC can be obtained by proper choice of  $C_T$  and  $R_A$  and suitable flip-flop design. The operating temperature range may be extended to 150°C by the use of silicon transistors.

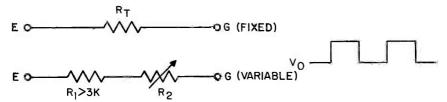


BASIC HYBRID TIMING CIRCUITS USING PNP AND NPN TRANSISTORS FIGURE 13.17 FIGURE 13.18

#### UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

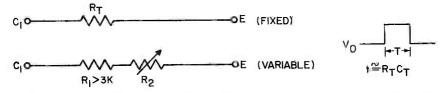
The basic hybrid timing circuits in Figures 13.17 and 13.18 can be adapted to perform desired functions by connecting resistors or potentiometers between the points in the circuit ( $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , E, G) as indicated below.

(A) Symmetrical Multivibrator - Square Wave Generator



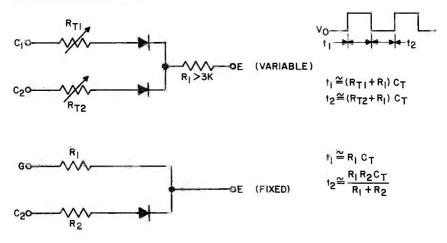
Connecting the resistor between points E and G in the basic circuits gives a square wave generator which has perfect symmetry. By the use of a 2 megohm potentiometer the frequency may be varied continuously from 1 cps to 500 cps. The frequency is  $f = 1/2 R_T C_T$ .

(B) One-Shot Multivibrator



The collector of  $Q_2$  will be positive in the quiescent state. A positive pulse at the base of  $Q_2$  in Figure 13.17 or a negative pulse at the base of  $Q_1$  in Figure 13.18 will trigger the circuit. At the end of the timing interval, the unijunction transistor will fire and cause the circuit to revert to its quiescent state. This circuit has the advantage of a fast recovery time so it may be operated at a high duty ratio without any loss of accuracy.

(C) Non-symmetrical Multivibrator

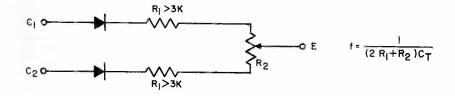


The timing capacitor  $C_T$  will be charged through the resistor  $R_{T1}$  or  $R_{T2}$  which is connected to the positive collector. The diodes will isolate the other resistor from the

# UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS

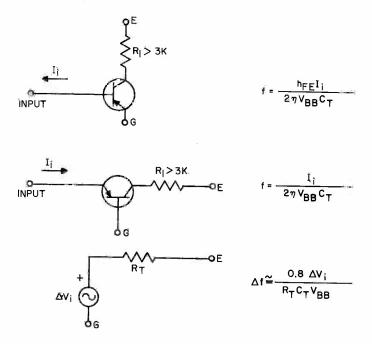
timing capacitor. The two parts of the period  $(t_1, t_2)$  can thus be set independently by  $R_{T1}$  and  $R_{T2}$  and may differ by as much as 1000 to 1.

(D) Non-symmetrical Multivibrator - Constant Frequency



This configuration gives a multivibrator which has a constant frequency but a variable duty cycle.

(E) Variable Frequency Oscillator



In the equations  $V_{BB}$  is the voltage between base-one and base-two of the unijunction transistor. These circuits give a variable frequency square wave output. For the first two circuits the frequency is proportional to the input current. The first circuit has a higher effective current gain than the second circuit, but the temperature stability is not as good. The third circuit is useful if only a small range of frequency variation is desired. The variation of frequency with input voltage is linear only for small changes in input voltage.

Further information on the characteristics and circuit applications of the unijunction transistor is given in application note ECG-380, "Notes on the Application of the Silicon Unijunction Transistor". Available on written request.

# 14. TUNNEL DIODE THEORY AND SWITCHING CIRCUITS

The tunnel diode is a new semiconductor device which offers the device engineer a unique physical mechanism for semiconductor operation and at the same time offers the circuit engineer a unique set of electrical characteristics for improved circuit design. In comparison with conventional types of transistors, the tunnel diode offers advantages of extremely high frequency operation, low noise, small size, low operating power levels, together with a potential low cost and high reliability.

Physically, the tunnel diode is a two terminal device consisting of a single PN junction. The essential difference between a tunnel diode and a conventional diode is due to the fact that the conductivity of the P and N material used in the fabrication of a tunnel diode is more than 1,000 times as high as the conductivity of the material used in the fabrication of conventional diodes. This higher conductivity is obtained by increasing the concentration of acceptor and donor impurities in the semiconductor material when it is formed as explained in Chapter 1 and 2.

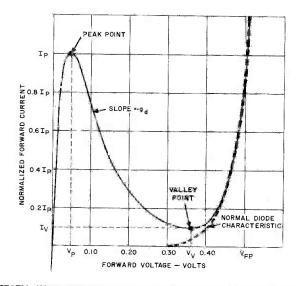
Owing to the very high conductivity of the P and N materials used in fabricating tunnel diodes the width of the junction (the depletion layer) is very small, of the order of  $10^{-6}$  inch. Because of the extremely narrow junction it is possible for electrons to tunnel through the junction even though they do not have enough energy to surmount the potential barrier of the junction. Although tunneling is impossible in terms of classical physics, it can be explained in terms of quantum mechanics. For this reason the mechanism is commonly called quantum mechanical tunneling.

Referring to the diagram of a rectifier shown in Figure 1.4, it is seen that under conditions of reverse bias there are no free electrons in the P region and no free holes in the N region to conduct charge across the junction. In the tunnel diode however, a small reverse bias will cause the valence electrons of the semiconductor atoms near the junction to tunnel across the junction into the N region and thus the tunnel diode will conduct under reverse bias. Similarly, for a low value of applied forward voltage the conventional rectifier will not conduct since the holes and electrons do not have enough energy to overcome the potential barrier of the junction. In the tunnel diode a small forward bias will cause the electrons in the N region to tunnel across the junction into the P region (appearing as valence electrons in the semiconductor atoms), and thus the tunnel diode will also conduct under small values of forward bias. If the forward bias on a tunnel diode is increased (e.g. above 50 millivolts for germanium) the energy of the free electrons of the N region will become greater than the energy of the valence electrons in the P region and consequently the tunneling current will decrease. The decrease in tunnel current with increasing forward bias causes the negative conductance characteristic which is typical of the tunnel diode. As the forward bias is increased further (above 300 millivolts for germanium) the free holes and electrons will have enough energy to flow over the potential barrier of the junction in a manner identical to that of a conventional diode.

Quantum mechanical tunneling, with a theoretical frequency limit of  $10^7$  megacycles per second, is inherently a much higher frequency mechanism than the drift and diffusion mechanisms involved in the operation of conventional diodes and transistors. In practice, the frequency limitation of the tunnel diode is determined by the parasitic capacity, inductance and resistance of the device rather than by the tunneling mechanism itself.

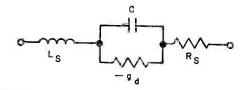
#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

A static characteristic curve for a typical germanium tunnel diode is shown in Figure 14.1. It is seen from this figure that the tunnel diode exhibits a low a-c resistance under reverse bias and for low values of forward voltage. With intermediate values of forward voltage the diode exhibits a negative conductance characteristic. At higher values of forward bias the diode characteristic approaches the forward characteristic of a conventional diode shown by the dotted line. The points on the characteristic curve where the a-c conductance is zero are called the *peak point* and the valley point. The voltage and currents at these points are called the *peak point* voltage  $-V_P$ , the valley point current  $-I_P$ , and the valley point current  $-I_P$ . The forward voltage at a current equal to the peak point current is designated by  $V_{FP}$ .



STATIC CHARACTERISTIC OF TYPICAL GERMANIUM TUNNEL DIODE FIGURE 14.1

The voltages of the tunnel diode characteristic are determined by the semiconductor material of which the tunnel diode is made and can only be controlled over a small range. The currents of the tunnel diode characteristics can be varied over a very wide range however. The peak current which is the characteristic commonly specified can be varied from  $10\mu a$  to 10 amperes or more although most applications require peak currents in the range of 1 to 50 ma. It is generally desired that the ratio of the peak current to valley current have a high value although the maximum value is determined by the semiconductor material.



SMALL SIGNAL EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT OF A TUNNEL DIODE FIGURE 14.2

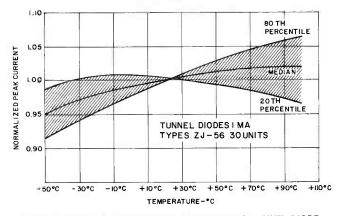
#### TUNNEL DIVIDE THEORY AND SWITCHING CIRCUITS

The small signal (ac) equivalent circuit of a tunnel diode biased in the negative conductance region is shown in Figure 14.2. The inductance, L<sub>s</sub>, is determined primarily by the package and the leads. For a TO-18 transistor package L<sub>s</sub> is about  $6 \times 10^{-0}$  henries if connections are made to the leads only and about  $3 \times 10^{-0}$  henries if connections are made to the case and the two common leads. For a microstrip package L<sub>s</sub> is about  $3 \times 10^{-10}$  henries. The resistance, R<sub>s</sub>, is determined by the bulk resistance of the semiconductor material and is generally less than 2 ohms. The capacity, C, is primarily due to the capacity of the junction although a small portion is due to the package and the leads. The negative conductance,  $-g_d$ , in the equivalent circuit is equal to the slope of the voltage-current characteristic at the particularly bias point under consideration. The value of the negative conductance can be assumed to be independent of frequency, the chief limitations in the frequency response of the tunnel diode being determined by the parasitic elements in the equivalent circuit (R<sub>s</sub>, L<sub>s</sub>, C).

Some of the more important electrical parameters of germanium and gallium arsenide tunnel diodes are summarized in Figure 14.3 together with their temperature coefficients. The variation of the peak current with temperature is shown in Figures 14.4 and 14.5.

CHARACTERISTIC	SYMBOL	GERMANIUM	GALLIUM
PEAK POINT VOLTAGE	VP	55 MV	150 MV
TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT	∆vp/∆t	- 80 MV / °C	-120 MV/°C
VALLEY POINT VOLTAGE	Vv	350 MV	500 M V
TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT	AVy /AT	-1.0 MV/°C	-1.0 MV/°C
FORWARD VOLTAGE AT PEAK CURRENT	VFP	500 M V	1100MV
TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT	∆V <sub>EP</sub> /∆T	-1.0 MV/*C	-1.0 MV/°C
PEAK TO VALLEY RATIO	Tp/Iv	8	15
VALLEY CURRENT TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT	$\Delta^{\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{V}}} \Delta^{T}$	+1.0 % /°C	+0.5%/°C
CONDUCTANCE TO PEAK CURRENT RATIO	9 <sub>d</sub> /Ĩp	6.5 MHO/AMP	5.0 MH0 / AMP
CONDUCTANCE TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT	$\triangle {}^{9} {}_{0} {}^{\prime} \triangle^{T}$	5% /°C	-
CAPACITANCE TO PEAK CURRENT RATIO	C/Ip	5 P.f/m-à	l.5 pf/må





PEAK CURRENT VS. TEMPERATURE GERMANIUM TUNNEL DIODE FIGURE 14.4

# TUNNEL DIODE THEORY AND SWITCHING CIRCUITS

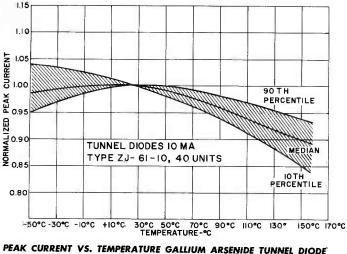
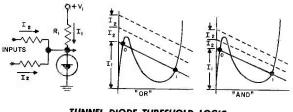


FIGURE 14.5

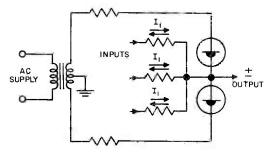
# SWITCHING CIRCUITS

One of the most promising areas for the application of tunnel diodes is in switching circuits, particularly in large scale computers where the tunnel diode can economically perform both the logic and memory functions. Here the tunnel diode offers the advantages of small size, low operating power, high speed and potential low cost and high reliability.



TUNNEL DIODE THRESHOLD LOGIC FIGURE 14.6

It is possible to form a simple bistable circuit by connecting a tunnel diode in series with a voltage source and a resistor as indicated in Figure 14.6. Here the load line is chosen to intersect the tunnel diode characteristic at two points where the dynamic resistance is positive. The circuit then has two stable states represented by "0" and "1" and can be switched from one state to the other by means of appropriate positive or negative signals. As indicated in Figure 14.6, the circuit can be used to perform analog threshold logic. Current from two or more inputs may cause the diode to switch to the high voltage state depending on the amplitude of the input signals and the biasing conditions of the diode. If the circuit is designed so that only a single input current is required to switch the diode an "OR" function is obtained, whereas if currents are required from all the inputs, an "AND" function is obtained. The chief limitation of this type of logic is that it places difficult requirements on the stability of the diodes and the other circuit components. This problem can be alleviated to some extent by connecting a second tunnel diode in parallel with  $R_1$ . This tunnel diode should have about twice the peak current of the first tunnel diode and the supply voltage  $V_1$  should be low enough so that both diodes can not be in the high voltage state. When the first diode is switched to the high voltage state, the second diode provides a low resistance across  $R_1$  and thus permits a greater range of current to be drawn from the output.<sup>3</sup>



BASIC TUNNEL DIODE MAJORITY LOGIC CIRCUIT "GOTO PAIR" FIGURE 14.7

An example of the use of tunnel diodes in a majority logic circuit is shown in Figure 14.7. Here the tunnel diodes are periodically turned on and off by an AC supply which may furnish either a sinewave or a square wave. The voltage of the supply has a sufficiently low value so that only one of the diodes can switch to the high voltage state. The diode which switches to the high voltage state will be determined by the majority decision of the inputs. For example, if the majority of the input currents are flowing to the right then the net current will be a positive current into the common point of the two diodes. This will cause a larger current to flow into the lower diode and when the upper side of the transformer goes positive the lower diode will switch to the high voltage state producing a positive output.

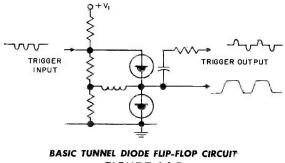
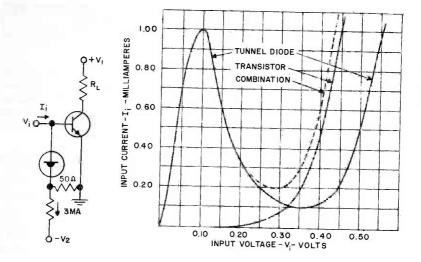


FIGURE 14.8

The circuit of Figure 14.8 can operate as a flip-flop or multivibrator depending on the biasing conditions chosen. As a flip-flop, the circuit is designed so that only one diode can be in the high voltage state and only one diode can be in the low voltage state. The current through the inductor will then flow through the diode which is in the low voltage state. When a negative pulse occurs at the trigger input, one diode will switch so they will both be in the low voltage state. At the end of the trigger pulse the current flowing in the inductor will cause a larger current to flow through the diode which was originally in the low voltage state thus causing it to switch to the high voltage state. The circuit thus operates as a counter stage. The output can be differentiated and used to trigger similar circuits as indicated in the figure.

# TUNNEL DIODE THEORY AND SWITCHING CIRCUITS



HYBRID TRIGGER CIRCUIT AND INPUT CHARACTERISTIC (Using Germanium Alloy Transistor and Germanium Tunnel Diode) FIGURE 14.9

The tunnel diode may also be combined with a transistor to perform many practical types of switching functions. A simple, graphical analysis of a circuit using a germanium tunnel diode in parallel with the input to a germanium transistor is shown in Figure 14.9. The characteristic of the tunnel diode in series with a 50 ohm resistor is first plotted. The input characteristic of the transistor is then plotted on the same graph but is displaced by 0.15 volts to account for the bias generated across the 50 ohm resistor. The net input characteristic is then obtained by adding the two curves together (add currents at each voltage for a parallel combination). The net input characteristic may then be analyzed by means of load lines for bistable or astable operation as desired. A flip-flop circuit can be obtained by connecting a resistor of suitable value from the base of the transistor to the  $+V_1$  supply such that the current flowing through the resistor is slightly less than the peak current of the tunnel diode.

Additional details on the design of tunnel diode switching circuits can be obtained by writing for ECG-488 "Tunnel Diodes as Amplifiers and Switches."

#### REFERENCES

- Lesk, Holonyak, Davidsohn, Aarons, "Germanium and Silicon Tunnel Diodes Design, Operation and Application", 1959 IRE WESCON Convention Record, Part 3.
- 2. Sylvan, T. P., Gottlieb, E., "Tunnel Diodes as Amplifiers and Switches", Electronic Equipment Engineering, May 1960.
- 3. Chow, W. F., "Tunnel Diode Logic and Memory Circuits", 7th Annual Symposium on Computers and Data Processing, University of Denver, July 1960.

# **15. TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS**

#### BIASING

Examining the tunnel diode V-I characteristics (see Figure 14.1), it becomes evident that for amplifier operation the "operating point" must be chosen in the negative conductance region. Furthermore, to secure a stable operating point, the bias must be derived from a voltage source. The location of this operating point will depend on the magnitude of the anticipated signal swing, the required signal-to-noise ratio, and the operating temperature range.

Biasing at the center of the more linear portion of the negative conductance slope will allow the greatest signal swing (about 100 mv for Ge and 150 mv for GaAs). For high temperature operation, the large signal distortion will increase, as a result of the increase in valley current. (See Figure 14.3 for valley current temperature coefficient). If this increased distortion is unacceptable, smaller signal swings and/or a higher current operating point will alleviate this problem. Another important bias consideration is the noise figure of the device. From Equation (1) on page 155 it can be seen that a lower operating current will provide a lower noise figure. This is only true if the reduction in diode conductance, resulting from this bias change, is smaller than the change in current. The above statement is predicated on a condition of match between  $-g_a$  and the generator conductance  $g_a$  as outlined in the section on noise.

If low noise is of paramount importance, a device with inherently high Ip/Iv ratio, refrigerated to further improve this ratio, and operated at the lowest permissible bias current, will give best results.

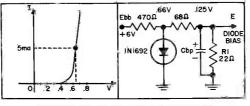
In most cases, it will be quite adequate to select the bias around the inflection point. This is the point of maximum negative conductance and occurs at about 130 mv for germanium and 250 mv for gallium arsenide.

The greatest bias problem is that the negative conductance region is not linear. In amplifier circuits it is necessary to match the diode conductance closely to the circuit conductance if high gain is to be achieved. Slight variations in bias point with the consequent variations in diode conductance can cause large changes in circuit gain. Hence it is important to ensure a very stable bias voltage.

Some of the possible methods for obtaining stable, low impedance bias supply voltages are;

- 1) the use of mercury cells
- 2) the use of forward biased diodes as voltage regulators
- 3) the use of breakdown diodes as voltage regulators

An example of the use of a forward biased diode for bias stabilization is shown in Figure 15.1. Here an inexpensive silicon diode is biased heavily in the forward direction so that it exhibits a low voltage and a low dynamic resistance. A low impedance voltage divider is used to reduce the diode voltage to the value desired for biasing of the tunnel diode.



SILICON DIODE VOLTAGE REGULATOR FIGURE 15.1

TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

#### **TEMPERATURE CHARACTERISTICS**

Figure 14.3 in the previous chapter gives the temperature coefficients of the various tunnel diode parameters. Each specific application may be dependent on the temperature coefficient of a different parameter. For example, in switching circuits the primary concern is the stability of the peak current since it determines the switching threshold, although the changing forward voltage can effect the amplitude of the output voltage.

In oscillators where matching is not required, it may be important only to make sure that, at the lowest operating temperatures, the device is driven from a voltage source. This requires the source resistance supplying the voltage to the tunnel diode to be much smaller than the negative resistance of the diode. Oscillators have been operated successfully over a temperature range from 4°K to over 573°K - a remarkably wide operating range. In amplifiers where some degree of match between the diode conductance and the circuit conductance is required, it is obvious that this match must be maintained over the required operating temperature range. Stable amplification can be achieved by using either negative feedback, direct temperature compensation with thermistors or other temperature sensitive devices or taking advantage of the non-linearity of  $g_4$  vs. bias by making the bias network deliberately temperature sensitive.

## FREQUENCY LIMITATIONS

Two significant frequency figures of merit can be assigned to the tunnel diode:<sup>1</sup>

a) resistive cut-off frequency 
$$f_{\pi\sigma} = \frac{|g_d|}{2\pi C} \sqrt{\frac{1}{R_s |g_d|}} - 1$$
  
b) self-resonant frequency  $f_{\pi\bar{o}} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{L_s C} - \left(\frac{g_d}{C}\right)^2}$ 

Both of these frequencies are derived from the equivalent circuit of Figure 14.2. The resistive cut-off frequency is the frequency at which the real part of the diode impedance, measured at its terminals, goes to zero. The tunnel diode can not amplify above this frequency. The self-resonant frequency is the frequency at which the imaginary part of the diode impedance goes to zero. It should be pointed out that both frequencies are reduced by external circuit components and therefore the highest possible operating frequency is very circuit dependent. In a transistor package the tunnel diode is limited to operating frequencies in the order of 1 KMc, this limit being due primarily to the lead inductance. Microstrip or microwave packaging, owing to its inherently lower inductance, can raise the frequency capabilities by an order of magnitude or more.

# NOISE PERFORMANCE

In the tunnel diode, one of the major contributions to noise is shot noise. The noise figure in a correctly designed amplifier can be in the range of 3 or 4 db provided that the source conductance is matched to the negative conductance of the tunnel diode. The noise figure is also dependent on the load conductance which might be a mixer or converter stage and be relatively noisy. It is possible, for example, to connect the tunnel diode in parallel with the input of an RF amplifier stage and obtain both reduced noise and increased gain. The noise figure<sup>2</sup> is given by the equation:

$$N.F. \simeq 1 + \frac{20}{g_g} \frac{I_{de}}{f_g} + \frac{T_1 \cdot g_1}{T_g \cdot g_g}$$
(1)

where  $I_{dc}$  is the DC bias current through the tunnel diode,  $g_g$  and  $g_1$  are the conductances of the generator and the load, the  $T_g$  and  $T_1$  are the effective noise temperatures of the generator and the load. From this equation it can be seen that it is desirable

#### TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

to make  $g_g$  large and  $g_1$  small. To achieve high gain it is necessary that  $g_g + g_1$  be very nearly equal to the conductance of the diode,  $|-g_d|$ . Thus to minimize the noise figure it is desirable to make  $g_g$  very nearly equal to  $|-g_d|$ . The value of  $I_{de}$  should be chosen as low as possible, consistent with a reasonable value of  $|-g_d|$ . To satisfy this requirement, tunnel diodes with high values of peak current to valley current ratios are desirable.

#### NUCLEAR RADIATION EFFECTS

Encouraging results have been obtained from preliminary investigations of the effects of nuclear radiation on the characteristics of some germanium tunnel diodes. Under a doseage of  $3 \times 10^{14}$  NVT (90% thermal, 10% fast), no apparent change in the electrical characteristics were observed except for the noise figure which increased by approximately 20% at the point of maximum negative conductance and by 100% near the valley point.

At a dosage of  $5 \times 10^{15}$  NVT, the valley current increased by about 25% while the other DC characteristics had not changed. The noise figure increased by a factor of 3 at the point of maximum negative conductance while the noise figure in the vicinity of the valley point was extremely high. Further tests on gallium arsenide tunnel diodes shows that they are still quite useful in switching circuits around  $10^{17}$ NVT fast neutrons/cm<sup>2</sup>. In general, the radiation resistance of tunnel diodes appears to be higher than some tubes (especially glass envelope types) and transistors and should be of definite value for military applications. Also it appears that GaAs units are more resistant to nuclear radiation than germanium or silicon units.

#### NEGATIVE CONDUCTANCE AMPLIFIER IN THE PARALLEL CONNECTION

A graphical analysis of this connection can be seen in Figure 15.2. The diode characteristic is represented by curve #1; the positive circuit conductance is shown by curve #2. Adding these conductances algebraically the resultant net input characteristic of the amplifier stage can be seen in curve #3. The slope of the input characteristic in the active region (between A "and B") is close to horizontal indicating a high input impedance. The value of this input impedance is given by:

$$\mathbf{Z}_{\mathrm{in}} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{g}_{\mathrm{t}}} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{g}_{\mathrm{g}} + \mathbf{g}_{\mathrm{i}} - \mathbf{g}_{\mathrm{a}}}$$

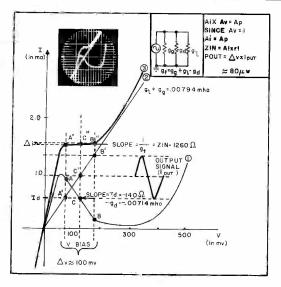
and the available power gain is:

$$\mathrm{PG}_{\mathrm{av.}} = \frac{4\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{g}}\,\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{1}}}{(\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{t}})^2}$$

It can be seen both graphically and mathematically that to obtain a high value of available stable power gain it is necessary for  $Z_{in}$  to be very large and positive. This requires  $g_g + g_i$  to be very nearly equal to but larger than  $|-g_d|$ . Since the voltage is the same across all the conductances in the circuit, the voltage gain of the parallel circuit will be unity.

The closer  $g_g + g_1$  is to  $|-g_d|$ , the greater is the current amplification obtained. A similar graphical analysis can be applied to the series connection resulting in a "low" input impedance circuit and voltage gain. The basic low frequency equivalent circuit of the parallel connection can be seen in Figure 15.3(A). Essentially it consists of a signal current source driving the parallel combination of the load resistance (rl) and the diode resistance (-rd).

Figure 15.3(B) shows the actual circuit yielding about 30 db gain. It is relatively difficult to build a stable low frequency amplifier circuit, since the tunnel diode is



PARALLEL AMPLIFIER STAGE AND EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT FIGURE 15.2

inherently trying to oscillate at very high frequencies (see Stability Criteria). The use of audio components and audio type layouts, generally result in enough stray inductance to enable the circuit to oscillate freely at high frequencies, since bypassing is not a simple matter in the UHF range.

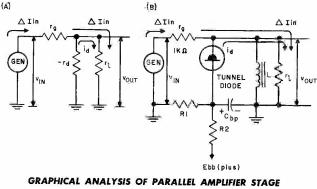
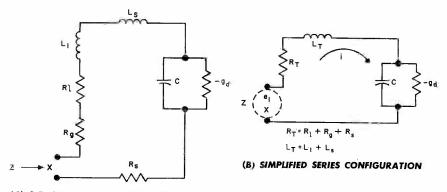


FIGURE 15.3

# STABILITY CRITERIA

Successful linear operation of a tunnel diode amplifier depends on the stability of the complete system, including in particular the internal impedance of the bias supply and the signal source impedance. The basic amplifier circuit can be reduced to that shown in Figure 15.4 where  $R_T = R_g + R_1 + R_s$ ,  $L_T = L_s + L_1$ , C is the total diode capacitance and  $-g_4$  the negative conductance of the diode at the operating current and voltage.

To determine the system stability one can examine the distribution of poles or zeros of the circuit determinant in the complex S-plane.<sup>1</sup>



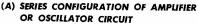


FIGURE 15.4

If the zeros of Z seen at the input, fall in the right half side of the S plane, the system is unstable. Conversely, if the zeros fall in the left half side of the S-plane the circuit is stable.

The input impedance is given as:

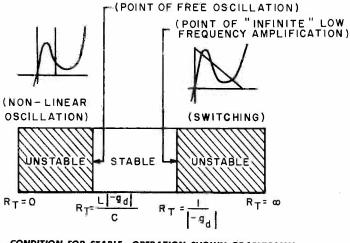
$$Z_{\text{(s)}} = \frac{S^{\text{s}} L_{\text{T}} C + S \left(R_{\text{T}} C - L_{\text{T}} \mid -g_{\text{d}} \mid\right) + \left(1 - R_{\text{T}} \mid -g_{\text{d}} \mid\right)}{SC - \mid -g_{\text{d}} \mid}$$

and the zeros are:

and

$$S = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{R_{T}}{L_{T}} - \frac{\left| -g_{d} \right|}{C} \right) \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}} \left( \frac{R_{T}}{L_{T}} - \frac{\left| -g_{d} \right|}{C} \right)^{2} - \frac{1 - R_{T} \left| -g_{d} \right|}{L_{T} C}$$
Then S will have a negative real part only *if both*:  $\frac{R_{T}}{L_{T}} - \frac{\left| -g_{d} \right|}{C} > 0$ 
and  $1 - R_{T} \left| -g_{d} \right| > 0$ . This can be rewritten as  $\frac{1}{\left| -g_{d} \right|} > R_{T} > \frac{L_{T} \left| -g_{d} \right|}{C}$ 
Figure 15.5 portrays the stability criteria graphically.

Figure stability criteria graphically.



CONDITION FOR STABLE OPERATION SHOWN GRAPHICALLY FIGURE 15.5

It is therefore important to remember that  $L_T$  must be smaller than

$$L_{T} < \frac{R_{T}C}{|-g_{d}|}$$

in order to provide stable amplification. Spelling out the many stability criteria.

# STABLE AMPLIFICATION

1) The circuit inductance must be smaller than,  $(L_{\rm T}) < \frac{R_{\rm T}C}{|-g_d|}$ 

2) The sum of the positive circuit conductances must be nearly equal to, but always greater than the negative conductance of the diode.

$$g_s + g_1 + g_x = |-g_d| \text{ or } R_T < \frac{1}{|-g_d|}$$

3) The total DC loop resistance must be less than the negative diode resistance (voltage source).

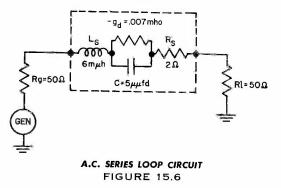
4) All above requirements must remain satisfied over a range of supply voltages and temperature conditions.

Amplifier circuits have been built from audio frequencies up to several hundred megacycles with gains in the 30 db range having excellent bandwidth.

The following design procedure will treat such a 100 Mc/s amplifier circuit in the series configuration.

# AMPLIFIER DESIGN PROCEDURE

In this circuit (see Figure 15.6), the source is a 50 ohm generator, the load is also  $50\Omega$  while the series resistance (R<sub>s</sub>) of the device is  $2\Omega$ . Hence  $R_T = 50 + 50 + 2 = 102\Omega$ . Use is made of a 1N2939 having a  $5\mu\mu$ fd capacitance and a negative conductance of 7 millimhos (-rd = 143 $\Omega$ ) at the inflection point.



In order to abide by the previously mentioned stability criteria, the real part of the negative conductance must be made equal to zero at the operating frequency. This also means that the *circuit* cut-off frequency is made equal to the operating frequency.

Hence,

$$egin{array}{lll} {
m R_T} & - rac{|-{
m g}_a|^2}{|-{
m g}_a|^2+\omega^2{
m c}^2} = 0, {
m thus} \ {
m R}_{
m T} = rac{1}{|-{
m g}_a|\left(rac{1+\omega^2{
m c}^2}{{
m g}_a^2}
ight)} \end{array}$$

 $R_T$  must be therefore be made equal to:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{T}} \equiv \frac{143}{1.21} \simeq 118\Omega$$

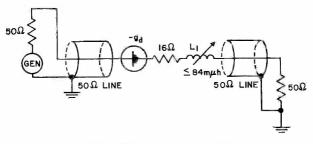
#### TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

Since the present series loop only exhibits a  $R_T \simeq 102\Omega$ , a  $16\Omega$  series resistance must be added to meet the previously outlined gain and stability criteria.

The last component in this AC circuit design procedure is the choice of the tuning inductance  $L_1$ . To get the highest value of stable gain  $L_T$  total must be only slightly smaller than the oscillation criteria  $L_T < R_T C/|-g_d|$  which here must be:

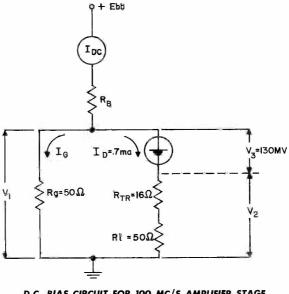
$$L_T < \frac{-118 \times 5 \times 10^{-12}}{7 \times 10^{-3}} = 84.3 \text{ m}\mu\text{h}$$

Since  $2 - 12 \text{ m}\mu\text{h}$  are inherent in the leads of the device (depending on lead length) and some stray circuit inductance will be found in the circuit, the actual coil (L<sub>1</sub>) will have to present a slightly smaller inductance value.





The bias arrangement can be derived in the following manner:



D.C. BIAS CIRCUIT FOR 100 MC/S AMPLIFIER STAGE FIGURE 15.8

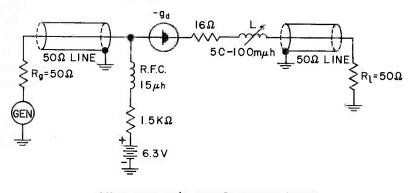
Assuming that the inflection point occurs at 130 mv and .7 ma, then  $V_3 = 130$  mv and  $I_D$  is .7 ma and  $V_2$  is  $(R_{TR} + R_L)$   $I_D = (16 + 50)$  .7  $\times$  10<sup>-3</sup> = 44 mv; therefore,  $V_1 = 130 + 44 = 174$  mv.

#### TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

 $I_6$  therefore is  $174\times 10^{-3}/50=3.48$  ma, and the total DC current  $I_{DC}=I_6+I_D$  = 3.48 + .7 = 4.18 ma. If one were to use a 6.3v battery, then  $R_B=6.3-.174/4.18\times 10^{-3}=6.126/4.18\times 10^{-3}\cong 1.5\mathrm{K}\Omega$ . In order to decouple the DC supply from the amplifier by at least a  $10\mathrm{K}\Omega$  inductive reactance,

$$m L_{RF} choke > rac{X_L}{\omega} pprox rac{10^4}{6 imes 10^8} pprox 15 \mu h$$

Figure 15.9 shows the complete circuit.



### COMPLETE 100 MC/S "SERIES" AMPLIFIER CIRCUIT FIGURE 15.9

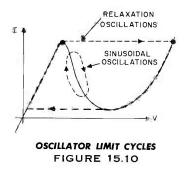
The measured results were 32 db gain at 100 Mc/s with a 20 Mc/s symmetrical bandwidth. As  $L_1$  is increased toward  $L_1 = R_T C/|-g_d|$ , the gain increases at the expense of bandwidth magnitude and symmetry.

# TUNNEL DIODE OSCILLATORS

Oscillators can be divided into two major groupings:

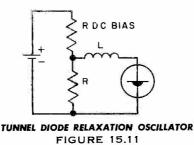
- 1) the relaxation oscillator
- 2) the sinusoidal oscillator

The distinction is that sinusoidal oscillators just barely satisfy the criterion for supplying the losses, therefore do not swing far off the linear region of the negative conductance portion of the V-I characteristic. Relaxation oscillators traverse large loops about the static characteristic (see Figure 15.10).



### RELAXATION OSCILLATORS

If the real component of the input impedance of the circuit is quite negative, the oscillation amplitude will be large, resulting in significant limiting (i.e. relaxation oscillation). A tunnel diode circuit employing this principal is shown in Figure 15.11.



The voltage swing of such a circuit could be as high as one volt (for GaAs units where  $V_{fp} - V_p \approx 1v$ ), while the current swing depends on the peak current of the device and could be as high as several amperes.

## SINEWAVE OSCILLATORS

The mathematical condition for "free" sinusoidal oscillations requires the real and imaginary part of the circuit input impedance to be equal to zero.

$$Z_{in} = R_e \left( Z_{in} \right) + I_M \left( Z_{in} \right) = 0$$

Practically, if the real part is slightly negative, good sinusoidal oscillations occur.

$$\frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{T}}}{\mathbf{L}_{\mathrm{T}}} - \frac{|-\mathbf{g}_{\mathrm{d}}|}{C} \approx 0$$

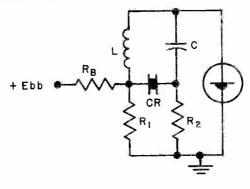
and the resonant frequency is:

$$f_{\text{e}} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1 - R_{\text{T}} \mid -g_{\text{d}} \mid}{L_{\text{T}}C} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

The frequency limit of the circuit is determined by the self-resonant frequency  $(f_{xo})$  and the resistive cut-off frequency  $(f_{ro})$  of the device. Since  $f_{xo}$  is determined largely by  $L_s$  and C both terms will have to be minimized for microwave applications. Hence for such applications, the use of the highest available  $|-g_d|/C$  ratio (presently GaAs yields the highest commercially available  $|-g_d|/C$ ) and extremely low  $L_s$  (microwave package) is recommended.

#### TUNNEL DIODE CRYSTAL CONTROLLED OSCILLATOR

The circuit of Figure  $15.12^3$  works basically as per above conditions with the exception of the criteria for  $R_{T_*}$ 



CRYSTAL CONTROLLED OSCILLATOR FIGURE 15.12

 $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are identical and are chosen to be about twice the value required for  $R_T$ . As a result, oscillation is not possible "off resonance." At resonance, the crystal becomes a short circuit and  $R_1$  is in parallel with  $R_2$ , essentially halving  $R_T$ . This value of  $R_T$ will now permit the circuit to oscillate stably.

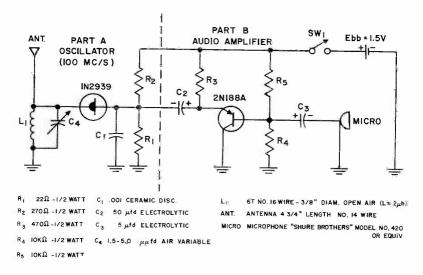
The power output of such oscillators is limited by the allowable voltage and current excursions. The voltage swing has to be smaller than the length of the negative portion of the V-I characteristic. The current swing depends on the  $I_p$  of the device. Since the latter is a direct function of area, for any given material, it also determines the device capacity. It follows then, that given a constant package (lead and structure) inductance, the capacitance must be small for higher frequency performance, hence it will take a low current device to extend the frequency limits.

The power output of a sinewave oscillator is given by the following expression:

$$P_{out} \simeq \left(\frac{V_{v} - V_{p}}{2 \sqrt{2}}\right)^{2} \frac{C}{L_{T}} R_{T}$$

### TUNNEL DIODE FM TRANSMITTER

A simple micropower FM transmitter using the 1N2939 tunnel diode is shown in Figure 15.13.



# 88-108 MC/S WIRELESS F.M. MICROPHONE FIGURE 15.13

Operation may be best explained by separating the circuit into two portions. Part A is a basic tunnel diode oscillator whose frequency is primarily determined by the resonant circuit in the cathode. Resistors R1 and R2 provide a stable low impedance voltage for the anode of approximately 150 mv. Capacitor  $C_1$  is the RF bypass for the anode.

Part B is a transistor emitter follower stage to amplify the audio signal from the microphone. The amplified audio is fed through capacitor C2 to the anode of the tunnel diode. FM modulation is accomplished by the audio signal instantaneously changing the anode bias. Since the characteristic curve is not perfectly linear in the negative resistance region, the negative conductance changes slightly with bias. As can

#### TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

be seen from the self-resonant frequency equation,  $f_{xo}$  is a function of  $|-g_d|$  and therefore the resonance of the circuit is affected. FM deviations of  $\pm 75$  KC are readily obtainable with this type of circuit.

The transmitter shown in the diagram has been successfully used as a wireless portable microphone. Its great advantage is that it allows complete mobility on the part of the speaker, and of course has no wires or cords. When used with an average FM receiver having a sensitivity of  $10\mu v$ , an operating range in excess of 100 feet was obtained. With the introduction of gallium arsenide tunnel diodes, this operating range can be appreciably extended due to the larger dynamic voltage swing possible with the gallium arsenide diodes, as well as their improved  $|-g_d|/C$  ratio.

### TUNNEL DIODE CONVERTERS

The following simultaneous functions must be performed by a single tunnel diode when used as a high gain self-oscillating converter<sup>3</sup>:

- a) oscillation at the L.O. frequency
- b) amplification at the R.F. frequency
- c) mixing due to non-linearities
- d) amplification at the I.F. frequency

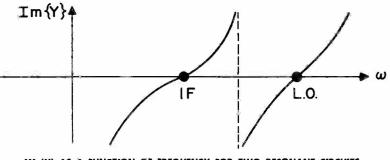
Rephrasing the above on a mathematical basis:

1) The imaginary part of the external circuit admittance across the negative conductance of the diode should ideally have zeros at the local oscillator and I.F. frequencies.

2) The real term of the external circuit admittance Y across  $|-g_{\mathfrak{a}}|$  at the L.O. frequency must be smaller than the negative conductance of the diode.

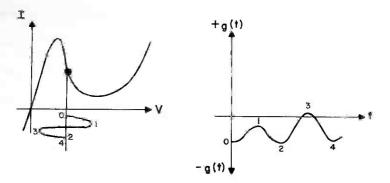
3) The real part of the external admittance across  $|-g_{d}|$  must be larger than the magnitude of  $|-g_{d}|$  at the I.F. frequency.

According to condition #1, Im  $\{Y\}$  as a function of  $\omega$  has the characteristic shown in Figure 15.14. In addition to the property of Im  $\{Y\}$  of Figure 15.14, conditions #2 and #3 make it possible to operate the two resonant circuits for oscillations at the L.O. frequency and amplification at the I.F. frequency.



IM (Y) AS A FUNCTION OF FREQUENCY FOR TWO RESONANT CIRCUITS FIGURE 15.14

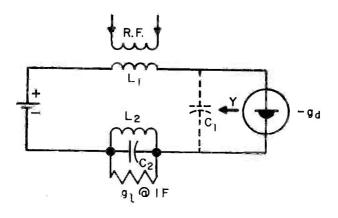
If the R.F. signal is introduced at a frequency close to the L.O.,  $R_{T}$  is slightly different from  $|-g_{t}|$  and Im  $\{Y\}$  is small. Therefore, amplification can be obtained provided that the R.F. signal does not interfere with the L.O. signal. This latter could occur if the R.F. signal is strong, (and its frequency close to the L.O.). Figure 15.15 shows the non-linear conductance variation vs. local oscillator swing for mixing.



CONDUCTANCE VARIATIONS VERSUS LOCAL OSCILLATOR SWING FIGURE 15.15

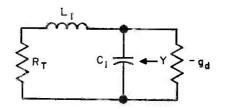
The operating point in Figure 15.15 is chosen around the inflection point since this would yield considerable non-linearity and low noise. Operation near the peak point current also seems quite practical however.

A possible tunnel diode converter circuit is shown in Figure 15.16.



TUNNEL DIODE CONVERTER CIRCUIT FIGURE 15.16

Since  $C_2$  is chosen to be a short circuit at the R.F. and L.O. Figure 15.16 can be reduced to Figure 15.17.



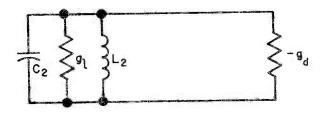
SIMPLIFIED CONVERTER CIRCUIT @ LOCAL OSCILLATOR FREQUENCY FIGURE 15.17

#### TUNNEL DIODE AMPLIFIERS

The condition for oscillation is  $|-g_4| \ge (C_1/L_1) R_T$ . Off resonance,  $|Y_{re}|$  becomes larger than  $|-g_4|$  and no oscillations occur.

If a small R.F. signal is introduced, since  $|Y_{re}|$  is slightly larger than  $|-g_{4}|$  amplification can occur.

 $L_1$  is a short circuit at the I.F. frequency and since  $C_1$  is very small the circuit can further be simplified to the one shown in Figure 15.18.



SIMPLIFIED CONVERTER CIRCUIT @ IF FIGURE 15.18

It is assumed that the effect of  $R_T$  is small enough to be neglected at the I.F. frequency.

If the load  $g_i$  is chosen so that it is only slightly larger than  $|-g_d|$  and Im  $\{Y\}$  is zero at I.F. frequency, amplification of the I.F. signal can also be obtained.

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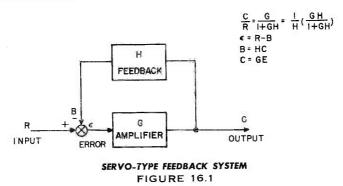
# 16. FEEDBACK AND SERVO AMPLIFIERS

# USE OF NEGATIVE FEEDBACK IN TRANSISTOR AMPLIFIERS

Negative feedback is used in transistor amplifiers to fix the amplifier gain, increase the bandwidth (if the number of transistors is less than three), reduce distortion, and change the amplifier input and output impedances. Feedback is used in servo amplifiers to obtain one or more of these characteristics.

Gain is reduced at the midband frequencies as the feedback is increased, and the predictability of the midband gain increases with increasing feedback. Thus, the greater the feedback, the less sensitive will be the amplifier to the gain changes of its transistors with operating point and temperature, and to the replacement of transistors.

The output and input impedances of the amplifier are dependent upon the type of feedback. If the output voltage is fed back, the output impedance is lowered. In contrast, feedback of the output current raises the output impedance. If the feedback remains a voltage, the input impedance is increased, while if it is a current, the input impedance is decreased.

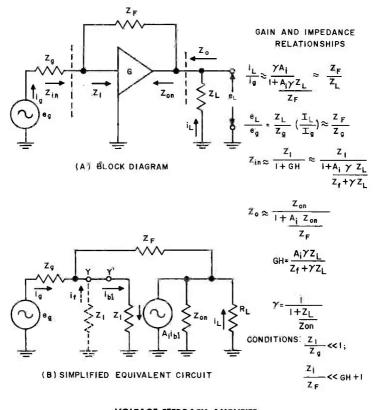


A convenient method for evaluating the external gain of an amplifier with feedback is the single loop servo-type system as shown in Figure 16.1. (The internal feedback of transistors can be neglected in most cases.) The forward loop gain of the amplifier without feedback is given by G and it includes the loading effects of the feedback network and the load. H is the feedback function, and is usually a passive network. In using this technique, it is assumed that the error current or voltage does not affect the magnitude of the feedback function. The closed loop gain is then:

$$\frac{C}{R} = \frac{G}{1 + GH} = \frac{1}{H} \qquad \frac{GH}{1 + GH}$$

where C is the output function and R is the input. If GH is made much larger than one, the closed loop response approaches 1/H and becomes independent of the amplifier gain. Thus, GH determines the sensitivity of the closed loop gain to changes in amplifier gain.

Since GH is a complex quantity whose magnitude and phase are a function of frequency, it also determines the stability of the amplifier. The phase shift of GH for all frequencies must be less than  $180^{\circ}$  for a loop gain equal to or greater than one or the amplifier will become unstable and oscillate. Therefore, if the number of transistors in the amplifier is greater than two, the phase shift of GH can exceed  $180^{\circ}$  at some frequency, and stabilization networks must be added to bring the loop gain to one before the phase shift becomes  $180^{\circ}$ .



### VOLTAGE FEEDBACK AMPLIFIER FIGURE 16.2

Figure 16.2 shows a voltage feedback amplifier where both the input and output impedances are lowered. A simplified diagram of the amplifier is shown in 16.2(B), which is useful in calculating the various gains and impedances.  $Z_1$  is the input impedance of the first stage without feedback, and  $Z_{on}$  is the output impedance of the last stage without feedback. Ai is the short circuit current gain of the amplifier without feedback (the current in the load branch with  $R_L = 0$  for a unit current into the base of the first transistor). Any external resistors, such as the collector resistor which are not part of the load can be combined with  $Z_{on}$ . The gain and impedance equations shown are made assuming that the error voltage  $(i_bZ_i)$  is zero which is nearly correct in most cases. If this assumption is not made, the loop gain of the amplifier can be derived by breaking the loop at y-y' and terminating the point y with  $Z_1$ . The loop gain is then  $i_c/i_{b1}$  with the generator voltage set equal to zero. Since the loop is a numeric, the voltage and current loop gains are identical. The loop gain is then:

Ai 
$$\left(\frac{Z_{L'}}{Z_{L'}+Z_F+Z_{i'}}\right) \quad \left(\frac{Z_g}{Z_g+Z_1}\right)$$

where

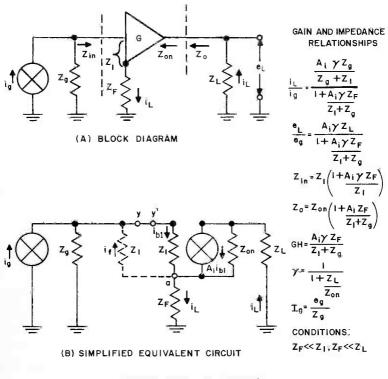
$$Z_{L}' = rac{Z_L Z_{on}}{Z_L + Z_{on}} = Z_L \gamma$$
, and  
 $Z_1' = rac{Z_g Z_1}{Z_g + Z_1}$ 

Notice that if  $Z_g >> Z_1$  and  $Z_F >> Z_1$ , then the loop gain is very nearly equal to CH as given in Figure 16.2.

The input impedance of the amplifier is reduced by 1 + GH, while the output impedance is also decreased.

Figure 16.3 shows a current amplifier where both the output and input impedances are increased. The loop is obtained by breaking the circuit at y-y' and terminating points y-a with  $Z_1$ . The loop gain is  $i_t/i_b$  and is approximately equal to:

$$\gamma \operatorname{Ai} Z_{F}$$
  
 $Z_{g} + Z_{1}$ 



CURRENT FEEDBACK AMPLIFIER FIGURE 16.3

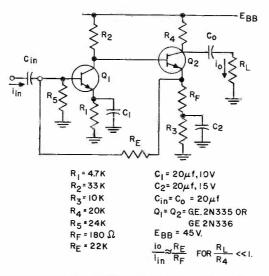
#### SERVO AMPLIFIER FOR TWO PHASE SERVO MOTORS

### PREAMPLIFIERS

Figure 16.4 shows a two stage preamplifier which has a low input impedance, and which is quite stable in bias point and gain over wide temperature ranges. In addition, no selection of transistors is required.

Because only two stages are involved, the amplifier is stable, and frequency stabilization networks are not required. The current gain  $i_a/i_{1n}$  is approximately  $R_F/R_F$  if the generator impedance and  $R_F$  are much larger than the grounded emitter input impedance of  $Q_1$ .  $R_F$  should not exceed a few hundred ohms because it contributes to the loss of gain in the interstage coupling network. The loss of gain in the interstage coupling is:

### FEEDBACK AND SERVO AMPLIFIERS



400 CYCLE PREAMPLIFIER FOR OPERATION IN AMBIENTS OF -55 to  $125^{\circ}$  C. FIGURE 16.4

$$K = \frac{Z_{o1}'}{Z_{o1}' + h_{ie2} + h_{fe2} R_{F}}$$

where  $Z_{o1}$  is the parallel combination of  $R_2$  and the output impedance of Q1. The loop gain then is approximately:

$$\left(\frac{\mathbf{h}_{\mathsf{fel}} \, \mathbf{h}_{\mathsf{fel}} \, \mathsf{K} \, \mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{F}}}{\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{E}}}\right) \quad \left(\frac{\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{5}}}{\mathsf{h}_{\mathsf{fel}} + \mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{5}}}\right)$$

Because the feedback remains a current, the input impedance of this circuit is quite low; less than 100 ohms in most cases. This preamplifier will work well where current addition of signals is desired and "cross-talk" is to be kept to a minimum.

Figure 16.5 shows a three stage, 400 cycle direct-coupled preamplifier with good bias stability from -55 to  $125^{\circ}$ C. If the dc conditions shown in the figure are met, the collector voltage of Q3 is approximately:

$$V_{C3} \approx \frac{\left[(R_1 + R_8 + R_0) R_2\right] (E_C - V_{B1})}{\alpha_1 R_1 R_3} + \frac{(R_1 + R_8 + R_0) V_{B1}}{R_1}$$

where  $V_{B1}$  is the breakdown voltage of the first avalanche diode. The various ac gains and impedances can be calculated from the equations of Figure 16.1 with the exception that the ac feedback is now approximately:

$$\left(\frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{L}}'}{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{s}}}\right) \quad \left(\frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{10}}}{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{9}}}\right)$$

where  $1/R_{L}' = 1/R_{L} + 1/R_{08} + 1/R_{7}$  and  $R_{03}$  is the output impedance of Q3. This assumes that the input impedance of Q1 is much less than  $R_{1}$  and  $R_{0}$ . The value of  $R_{10}$  determines the closed loop gain, while the values of  $C_{s1}$ ,  $C_{s2}$ ,  $R_{4}$ , and  $R_{0}$  are used to bring the magnitude of the loop gain to unity before the phase shift reaches 180°. The values required for these capacitors and resistors are dependent upon the maximum expected loop gain.

# DRIVER STAGE

Because the output stages of servo amplifiers are usually operated either Class B or a modified Class B, the driver must provide phase inversion of the signal. In most

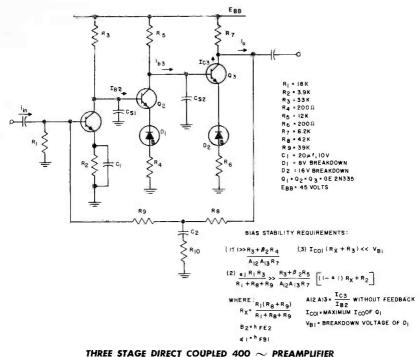
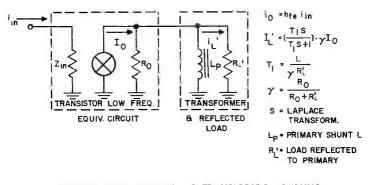
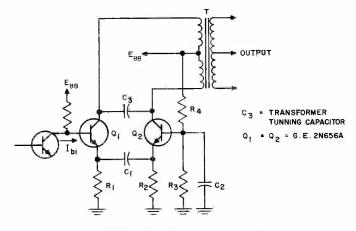


FIGURE 16.5

cases, this is accomplished by transformer coupling the driver to the output stage. The phase shift of the carrier signal in passing through the transformer must be kept small. However, since the output impedance of the transistor can be quite large, the phase shift can be large if the transformer shunt inductance is small, or if the load resistance is large as shown in Figure 16.6. The inductance of most small transformers decreases very rapidly if a dc current flows in the transformer. Therefore in transformer coupling, the phase shift of the carrier is reduced to a minimum if the dc current through the coupling transformer is zero, or feedback is used to lower the output impedance of the driver.

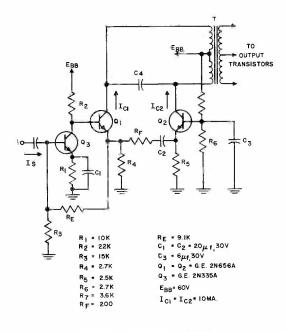


#### CARRIER PHASE SHIFT DUE TO TRANSFORMER COUPLING FIGURE 16.6



TWO STAGE CLASS "A" PUSH-PULL DRIVER FIGURE 16.7

Figure 16.7 shows a modified "long tail pair" driver. In this case Q1 and Q2 operate Class A, and the quiescent collector current of Q1 and Q2 cancel magnetically in the transformer. Transistor Q1 operates grounded emitter, while Q2 operates grounded base. Separate emitter resistors  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are used rather than a common emitter resistor in order to improve the bias stability. The collector current of Q1 is approximately  $h_{re1}$  i<sub>b1</sub>, while the emitter current of Q2 is  $(h_{re1} + 1)$  i<sub>b1</sub>. Since Q2 operates grounded base, the collector current of Q2 is  $-h_{rb2}/(h_{re1} + 1)$  i<sub>b1</sub> or  $-h_{re}$  i<sub>b1</sub> if the current gain of Q1 and Q2 are equal, Thus push-pull operation is obtained.



#### "STABLE" 400 CYCLE DRIVER FIGURE 16.8

#### FEEDBACK AND SERVO AMPLIFIERS

In order to stabilize the driver gain for variations in temperature and interchangeability of transistors, another transistor can be added to form a stage pair with Q1 as shown in Figure 16.8. The gain of the driver is then very stable and is given approximately by:

 $\frac{\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{cl}}}{\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{s}}} \cong \frac{-\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{c2}}}{\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{s}}} \cong \frac{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{E}}}{\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{F}}}$ 

### OUTPUT STAGE

The output stages for servo amplifiers can be grounded emitter, grounded collector or grounded base. Output transformers are generally not required because most servo motors can be supplied with split control phase windings. Feedback of the motor control phase voltage to the driver or preamplifier is very difficult if transformer coupling is used between the driver and output stages. If a high loop gain is desired, the motor and transformer phase shifts make stabilization of the amplifier very difficult. One technique which can be used to stabilize the output stage gain is to use a grounded emitter configuration where small resistors are added in series with the emitter and the feedback is derived from these resistors. The motor time constants are thus eliminated and stabilization of the amplifier becomes more practical.

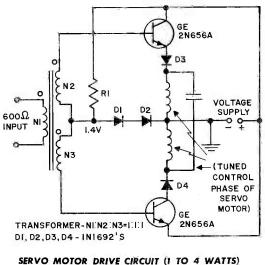


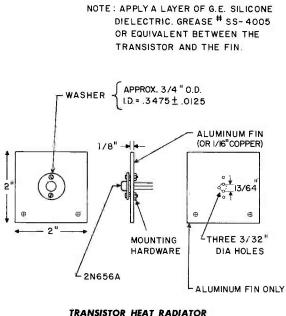
FIGURE 16.9

A second technique which results in a stable output stage gain and does not require matched transistor characteristics is the emitter follower (common collector) push-pull amplifier as shown in Figure 16.9. Also it offers the advantage of a low impedance drive to the motor. A forward bias voltage of about 1.4 volts is developed across D1 and D2, and this bias on the output transistors gives approximately 20 ma of no signal current. At lower levels of current the cross-over distortion increases and the current gain of the 2N656A decreases. D3 and D4 protect the 2N656A's from the inductive load generated voltages that exceed the emitter-base breakdown. The efficiency of this circuit exceeds 60% with a filtered DC voltage supply and can be increased further by using an unfiltered rectified ac supply. This unfiltered supply results in lower operating junction temperatures for the 2N656A's, and in turn permits operation at a higher ambient temperature. The maximum ambient operating temperature varies

#### FEEDBACK AND SERVO AMPLIFIERS

with the power requirements of the servo motor and the type of heat radiator used with the G-E 2N656A. It is practical to attain operation in ambients to 125°C.

The most effective heat radiator for the 2N656A results by placing the header of the package with intimate contact to a radiating surface of copper or aluminum. Figure 16.10 indicates a practical method.



# FIGURE 16.10

Another technique which results in a stable output amplifier gain over wide ambient temperature extremes and which is compatible with low gain transistors is shown in Figure 16.11. In this case, a grounded base configuration and a split control phase motor winding are used. The driver is coupled to the output stage by means of a stepdown transformer, and the current gain occurs in the transformer since the current gain of the transistors is less than one. The current gain is  $2aN_{\rm Pl}/N_{\rm S1}$  if the drivers are operated Class A such as shown in figures 16.7 or 16.8. The negative unfiltered dc supply and diode D1 are used to operate the transistor Class AB and eliminate crossover distortion. As the signal increases the diode D1 becomes conductive and shunts the bias supply. The operation of the output stage thus goes from Class A to Class B.

An unfiltered dc is used for the collector supply to reduce transistor dissipation. If saturation resistance and leakage currents are neglected, 100% efficiency is possible under full load conditions with an unfiltered supply. The transistor dissipation is given by:

$$P \approx \frac{E_{CM}^2}{4 R_L} \left[ a - a^2 \left( 1 + \frac{R_s}{R_L} \right) \right] + P_L$$

where  $P_L$  is the dissipation due to leakage current during the half-cycle when the transistor is turned off, a is the fraction of maximum signal present and varies from 0 to 1,  $R_s$  is the saturation resistance,  $R_L$  is the load resistance, and  $E_{CM}$  is the peak value of the unfiltered collector supply voltage. If  $P_L$  is negligible and  $R_s/R_L << 1$ ,

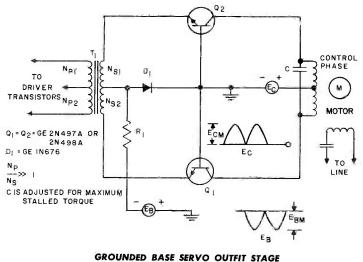


FIGURE 16.11

then maximum dissipation occurs at a = 1/2 or when the signal is at 50% of its maximum. Thus for amplifiers which are used for position servos, the signal under steady-state conditions is either zero or maximum which are the points of least dissipation.

The peak current which each transistor must supply in Figure 16.11 is given by:

$$i_m = \frac{2W}{E_{CM}}$$

where W is the required control phase power. The transistor dissipation can then be written in terms of the control phase power:

$$P = \frac{W}{2} \left[ a - a^{2} \left( 1 + \frac{R_{s}}{R_{L}} \right) \right] + P_{P}$$

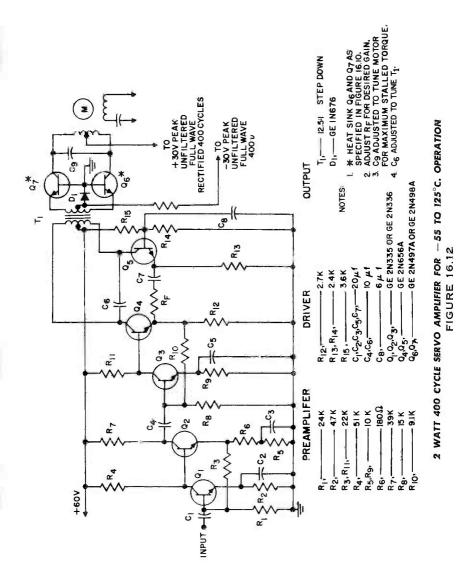
The driver must be capable of supplying a peak current of:

$$\frac{\dot{\mathbf{I}}_{m}}{\alpha} \left( \frac{\mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{ST}}}{\mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{P1}}} \right)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the grounded base current gain of the output transistor.

Figure 16.12 shows a complete servo amplifier capable of driving a 2 watt servo motor in an ambient of -55 to  $125^{\circ}$ C (if capacitors capable of operation to  $125^{\circ}$ C are used). The gain can be adjusted from 20,000 to 80,000 amperes/ampere by adjusting R<sub>F</sub> in the driver circuit. The variation of gain for typical servo amplifiers of this design is less than 10% from -55 to  $25^{\circ}$ C, and the variation in gain from 25 to  $125^{\circ}$ C is within measurement error. The variation in gain at low temperature can be reduced if solid tantalum capacitors are used instead of wet tantalum capacitors. The reason is that the effective series resistance of wet tantalum capacitors increases quite rapidly at low temperatures thus changing the amount of preamplifier and driver feedback. The effective series resistance of solid tantalum capacitors is quite constant with temperature. Many 85°C solid tantalum capacitors can be operated at 125°C if they are derated in voltage.

The amplifier in Figure 16.12 can be used to drive a three watt servo motor in an ambient of -55 to  $125^{\circ}$ C if the output transistors are changed to G-E 2N498A's and the unfiltered collector supply voltage is changed from 30 to 50 volts peak.



FEEDBACK AND SERVO AMPLIFIERS

# 17. TEST CIRCUITS

Few occupations are superficially more prosaic and in reality more challenging than precise measurement. A pertinent electronic illustration of this is the high fidelity record player. Playing a record can be considered measuring groove undulations and converting them precisely into air pressure undulations. High fidelity literature is profuse with advice on shielding, avoiding ground loops, negative feedback amplifiers, nonlinearities in loudspeakers and amplifiers, microphonics, etc. This advice is largely applicable to all measurement techniques.

This chapter will discuss proven transistor test circuits, but will stress possible pitfalls as well.

Test circuits are commonly divided into two groups: those which measure the actual value of a parameter, and those which indicate that the parameter exceeds a specified value. The latter are often referred to as go-no go tests. They are particularly useful in checking components against specifications. Actual parameter values are of interest in reliability, quality control and parameter distribution studies.

Generally go-no go tests are simpler, less likely to damage the transistor, and require less skill in interpretation. Most of the circuits discussed in this chapter can measure actual parameter values or serve for go-no go testing.

Precision is generally very difficult to achieve. Typically, even if 1% tolerance components are used, the cumulative error may be 5%.

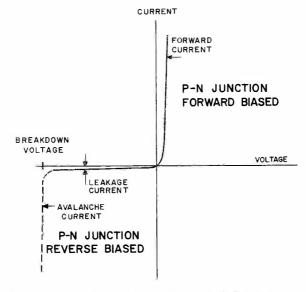
For a fast thorough semi-quantitative evaluation of a semiconductor device, a curve tracer such as the Tektronix 575 is extremely useful and convenient. It measures DC parameters such as leakage currents, breakdown voltages and saturation voltage and permits estimating small signal, low frequency h parameters. Tunnel diodes, unijunction transistors and controlled rectifiers can be tested. Anomalous negative resistance regions on conventional transistors can also be detected.

# BREAKDOWN VOLTAGES

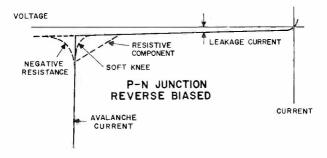
# JUNCTION BREAKDOWNS BVCBO, BVEBO

Figure 17.1 shows the current-voltage characteristics of a typical P-N junction. The equations of Chapters 3, 4 and 10 utilize the solid portion of the characteristic curve. The dotted region shows a rapidly increasing current in the reverse biased junction due to breakdown. If breakdown occurs at low voltages (below 6 volts), it is generally attributed to tunnelling or zener breakdown. Tunnelling is discussed in Chapter 14. At higher voltages, the holes and electrons making up the leakage current are accelerated sufficiently by the voltage across the junction to knock electrons out of the semiconductor atoms leaving holes behind. The holes and electrons so created add to the total current. The additional current is in turn accelerated and can dislodge other electrons. This causes an "avalanching" of current. The term "avalanche breakdown" describes this process. The breakdown voltage can be controlled by varying the doping of the P-N junction. While theory predicts a sudden "sharp" breakdown. This is shown in Figure 17.2 along with other variations of the breakdown characteristic.

The collector and emitter junctions being P-N junctions, exhibit this form of breakdown. Their breakdown voltages  $BV_{CBO}$  and  $BV_{EBO}$  are measured at a specified current in the range of 25 to 100  $\mu$ a for low power transistors. The current is chosen substantially higher than I<sub>CO</sub> in order to indicate true breakdown and yet low enough to avoid excessive dissipation. Figure 17.3 illustrates two practical test circuits for measuring avalanche breakdown. Circuit A approximates a constant current source. The VTVM



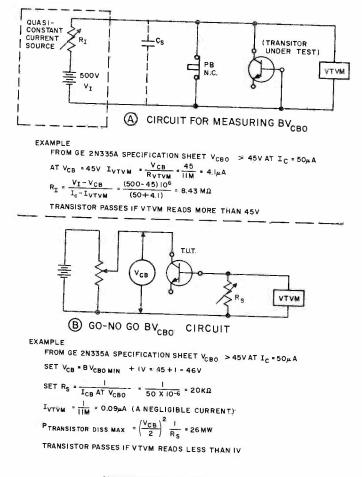
TYPICAL VOLTAGE CURRENT CHARACTERISTIC OF A P-N JUNCTION FIGURE 17.1



TYPICAL VARIATIONS IN BREAKDOWN CHARACTERISTIC OF A P-N JUNCTION FIGURE 17.2

indicates the breakdown voltage. When the transistor is out of the circuit the voltage across the socket will rise charging the stray capacitance  $C_s$ . The high voltage is an operator hazard and the discharge of  $C_s$  into the next transistor tested may damage the transistor. To avoid these problems a normally closed push button should be connected as shown and depressed only to take a reading. Some traisistors show a negative resistance in the breakdown region which may cause oscillations. These are best detected on a cathode ray oscilloscope curve tracer. Circuit B is more convenient for go-no go testing in checking transistors against specifications. The specified collector supply voltage is applied. The junction current is monitored by the VTVM.  $R_s$  is chosen to give a VTVM reading of one volt at the rated breakdown current.  $R_s$  is generally large enough to protect the transistor from damage even if its breakdown voltage is considerably exceeded. A VTVM is used because it will not be damaged by accidental overvoltage. Precision decade resistance boxes are convenient for giving  $R_1$  and  $R_s$ . Since circuit B does not take the transistor into breakdown, precautions to avoid transistor damage or circuit oscillation are less important.

#### TEST CIRCUITS



MEASUREMENT OF BVCBO FIGURE 17.3

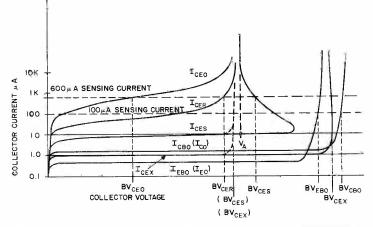
To measure the emitter junction breakdown, the same circuits and considerations apply. The emitter and collector can simply be interchanged in the test socket.

COLLECTOR TO EMITTER BREAKDOWN BVceo, BVcer, BVces, BVcex, Vrt

Collector to emitter breakdown is a more complex phenomenon. Figure 17.4 shows an idealized family of breakdown characteristics for an alloy transistor. Since conventional circuits reverse bias the collector junction, it is useful to compare breakdown voltages with  $BV_{CBO}$ .  $BV_{EBO}$  is shown to illustrate that  $I_{EO}$  is generally less than  $I_{CO}$  and that  $BV_{EBO}$  is approximately equal to  $BV_{CBO}$  in alloy transistors. There are five common measurements for collector to emitter breakdown. Four are shown in Figure 17.4 with the fifth, reach-through voltage, implied by the dotted curves. The most stringent test is  $BV_{CEO}$  in which the collector to emitter breakdown voltage is measured while the base is open circuited. In this circuit configuration the collector current ( $I_{CEO}$ ) is approximately  $h_{fe}$   $I_{CO}$  as indicated by equation (4d), Chapter 4. If the product  $h_{fe}$   $I_{CO}$ is large,  $I_{CEO}$  may exceed 100  $\mu$ a at a voltage which is far below breakdown. Therefore,

### TEST CIRCUITS

the breakdown sensing current must be chosen substantially above the  $h_{fe}$  I<sub>CO</sub> product. A common value is 600  $\mu$ a while specialized low leakage transistors like the G-E 2N167A use 300  $\mu$ a. The G-E 2N335A, on the other hand, in spite of its extremely low I<sub>CO</sub>, uses 1 ma for reasons to be discussed in connection with BV<sub>CES</sub>. Figure 17.4 shows the significant increase in voltage due to 600  $\mu$ a rather than 100  $\mu$ a as the sensing current. BV<sub>CEO</sub> has little meaning since it is impractical to operate transistors with the base open. I<sub>CEO</sub> approximately doubles every 10°C because of its dependence on I<sub>CO</sub>. Consequently, BV<sub>CEO</sub> is a very conservative rating primarily applicable to very poorly stabilized circuits.



TYPICAL FAMILY OF ALLOY TRANSISTOR BREAKDOWN CHARACTERISTICS FIGURE 17.4

BVCES is measured with the base shorted to the emitter. It is an attempt to indicate more accurately the voltage range in which the transisor is useful. In practice, using a properly stabilized circuit such as those described in Chapter 5, the emitter junction is normally forward biased to give the required base current. As temperature is increased, the resulting increase in Ico and hre requires that the base current decrease if a constant i.e. stabilized emitter current is to be maintained. In order that base current decrease, the forward bias voltage must decrease. A properly designed biasing circuit performs this function. If temperature continues to increase the biasing circuit will have to reverse bias the emitter junction to control the emitter current. This is illustrated by Figure 5.1 which shows that  $V_{BE} = 0$  when  $I_C = 0.5$  ma at 70°C for the 2N525.  $V_{BE} = 0$  is identically the same condition as a base to emitter short as far as analysis is concerned. Therefore, the BV ces rating indicates what voltage can be applied to the transistor when the base and emitter voltages are equal, regardless of the circuit or environmental conditions responsible for making them equal. Figure 17.4 indicates a negative resistance region associated with  $I_{\text{GES}}$ . At sufficiently high currents the negative resistance disappears. The 600 µa sensing current intersects ICES in the negative resistance region in this example. Oscillations may occur depending on the circuit stray capacitance and the circuit load line. In fact, "avalanche" transistor oscillators are operated in just this mode.

Conventional circuit designs must avoid these oscillations. If the collector voltage does not exceed  $V_A$  in Figure 17.4, there is no danger of oscillation.  $V_A$  is the voltage at which the negative resistance disappears at high current.

The 1 ma sensing current for the G-E 2N335A  $BV_{OEO}$  is meant to measure  $V_A$ . The 2N335A  $I_{CEO}$  is very small. As the transistor breaks down the transistor's current

gain increases with increasing collector current. This in turn enhances the avalanche effect generating a negative resistance region. The 1 ma sensing current measures  $V_A$  and insures that the full rated voltage will not cause oscillations.

To avoid the problems of negative resistance associated with  $BV_{CES}$ ,  $BV_{CER}$  was introduced. The base is connected to the emitter through a specified resistor. This condition falls between  $BV_{CEO}$  and  $BV_{CES}$  and for most germanium alloy transistors avoids creating a negative resistance region. For most low power transistors the resistor is  $10,000\Omega$ . The significance of  $BV_{CER}$  requires careful interpretation. At low voltages the resistor tends to minimize the collector current as shown by equation (4h), in Chapter 4. Near breakdown the resistor becomes less effective permitting the collector current to increase rapidly.

Both the value of the base resistor and the voltage to which it is returned are important. If the resistor is connected to a forward biasing voltage the resulting base drive may saturate the transistor giving the illusion of a collector to emitter short. Returning the base resistor to the emitter voltage is the standard  $BV_{CER}$  test condition. If the resistor is returned to a voltage which reverse biases the emitter junction, the collector current will approach I<sub>co</sub>.

For example, many computer circuits use an emitter reverse bias of about 0.5 volts to keep the collector current at cut-off. The available power supplies and desired circuit functions determine the value of base resistance. It may range from 100 to 100,000 ohms with equally satisfactory performance provided the reverse bias voltage is maintained.

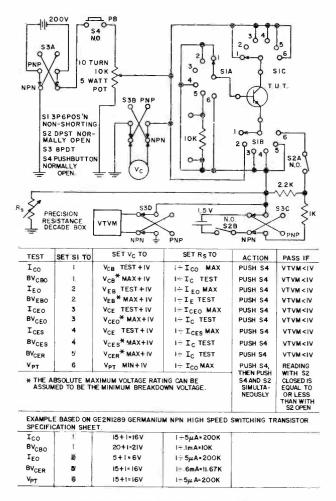
In discussing the collector to emitter breakdown so far, in each case the collector current is  $I_{co}$  multiplied by a circuit dependent term. In other words all these collector to emitter breakdowns are related to the collector junction breakdown. They all depend on avalanche current multiplication.

There is another collector to emitter breakdown mechanism called reach-through  $(V_{RT})$ . Recently, the term "reach-through voltage"  $(V_{RT})$  has been submitted to replace "punch-through voltage" because it is more descriptive of the actual phenomenon and because it cannot be confused with other terms such as punch-through in dielectrics. As the collector voltage is increased, the depletion layer which is discussed in Chapter 1 spreads into the base region. If the doping of the base region is appropriate, the depletion layer will spread into the emitter junction causing a large collector current before avalanche breakdown can occur. The dotted lines in Figure 17.4 indicate the breakdown characteristics of a reach-through limited transistor. Several methods are used to detect reach-through.  $BV_{CEX}$  (Breakdown voltage collector to emitter with base reverse biased) is one practical method. The base is reverse biased by one volt. The collector current  $I_{CEX}$  is monitored. If the transistor is avalanche limited  $BV_{CEX}$  will approach  $BV_{CES}$ .

Note that  $I_{GEX}$  before breakdown is less than  $I_{CO}$ . Therefore, if  $I_{CO}$  is measured at a specified test voltage and then the emitter is connected with a reverse bias of one volt, the  $I_{CO}$  reading will decrease if reach-through is above the test voltage and will increase if it is below.

"Emitter floating potential" is another test for reach-through. If the voltage on an open-circuited emitter is monitored while the collector to base voltage is increased, it will remain within 500 mv of the base voltage until the reach-through voltage is reached. The emitter voltage then increases at the same rate as the collector voltage.  $V_{RT}$  is defined as  $V_{CR} - 1$  where  $V_{CR}$  is the voltage at which  $V_{ER} = 1 v_{\mu}$ 

Figure 17.5 shows the details of a practical go-no go test set for breakdown and leakage current measurements.



### CIRCUIT FOR GO-NO GO TESTING OF LEAKAGE CURRENTS AND BREAKDOWN VOLTAGES FIGURE 17.5

# LEAKAGE CURRENTS, Ico, Ico, Iceo, Ices

The test set shown in Figure 17.5 can also be used to measure  $I_{CO}$ ,  $I_{EO}$ ,  $I_{CEO}$  and  $I_{CES}$ . The circuit is identical to that in Figure 17.3(B). For precise measurements the ambient temperature should be controlled. Also handling should be minimized since it can heat the transistor. To measure millimicroampere currents a VTVM is useful since one hundred millimicroamperes develop one volt across its 10 megohm input impedance.

# DC CURRENT GAIN, SATURATION CHARACTERISTICS, hfe, Vbe, Vce (SAT) AND $R_{\text{SC}}$

In switching applications, the leakage currents and breakdown voltages determine circuit conditions when a transistor is off or non-conducting.

When a transistor is turned on, it is generally necessary to know the base input required to produce the desired collector current. In switching circuits the minimum collector to emitter voltage that can be achieved is often important. This data is provided by  $h_{FE}$ ,  $V_{BE}$ ,  $V_{CE}$  (SAT) or  $R_{SC}$ .

DC beta or  $h_{FE}$  is defined as  $I_C$  divided by  $I_B$ . Since  $h_{FE}$  varies with both collector current and collector voltage, test conditions must specify the operating conditions precisely. Generally either the base current or the collector current is specified along with the collector to emitter voltage. The unspecified current is then varied to produce the specified collector voltage. The ratio  $I_C/I_B$  under these conditions is  $h_{FE}$ . Since accurate microammeters are expensive and prone to damage, if carelessly used, it is often more convenient to use precision decade resistors along with a stable power supply. Figure 17.6 shows this principle applied to measuring the  $h_{FE}$  of the G-E 2N525 transistor.

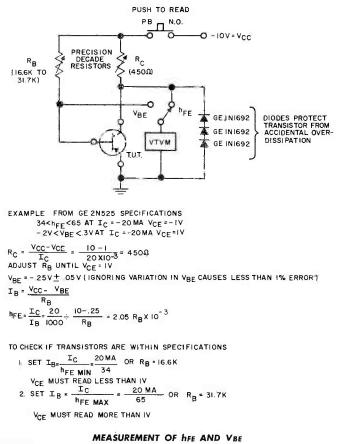


FIGURE 17.6

While the measurement in Figure 17.6 can be done precisely, it requires interpretation. The transistor dissipates approximately 20 mw at the specified operating point. This raises the junction temperature about  $5^{\circ}$ C making this no longer a  $25^{\circ}$ C electrical characteristic. It might be argued that the increase in junction temperature is unimpor-

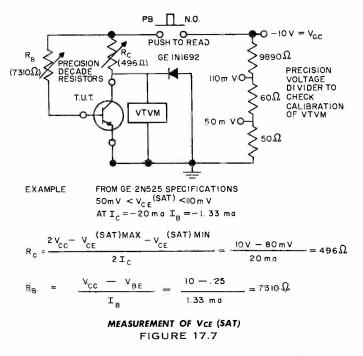
#### TEST CIRCUITS

tant because the measurement represents the actual  $h_{FE}$  in a 25°C ambient. This argument is only valid for amplifier applications since short pulses at low duty factors such as found in computer circuits will not heat up the junction because of its thermal time constants and thermal capacity. Since  $h_{FE}$  increases with temperature the pulsed  $h_{FE}$  will be lower than that measured in Figure 17.6. While the difference is generally small, this factor should not be overlooked.

The base input voltage is often specified at the same operating point as specified for  $h_{FE}$  and therefore can be read as shown in Figure 17.6.

The G-E 1N1692 diodes limit the maximum transistor dissipation while  $R_B$  is being adjusted. The G-E 1N1692 current is approximately 10 microamperes at 0.35 volts forward bias, therefore the diodes introduce a negligible error at  $V_{CE} = 1$  volt. At 0.75 volts forward bias the G-E 1N1692 current is approximately 100 milliamperes. This clamps  $V_{CE}$  maximum to approximately 2 volts in Figure 17.6.

The collector saturation voltage  $V_{CE}$  (SAT) is measured in the same circuit as  $h_{FE}$ . The main difference is that both  $I_B$  and  $I_C$  are specified for  $V_{CE}$  (SAT). No adjustments are required. The collector voltage is read directly and compared with the specifications. Figure 17.7 illustrates this for the G-E 2N525. The calibration of the VTVM can be checked against a precision voltage divider as shown.



Note that checking  $h_{FE}$  against fixed limits is best done as a  $V_{OE}$  (SAT) test as shown in Figure 17.6.

The saturation resistance  $R_{sc}$  is basically a restatement of  $V_{CE}$  (SAT).  $R_{sc}$  is the equivalent resistance of a transistor when it is in saturation.  $R_{sc} = V_{CE}$  (SAT)/I<sub>c</sub>. For the G-E 2N525,  $R_{sc max.} = 110 \text{ mv}/20 \text{ ma} = 5.5 \text{ ohms.}$  Unfortunately  $R_{sc}$  varies with current and temperature which limits its usefulness. To illustrate the variation with current, the G-E 2N396 specifications show  $R_{sc} < 4\Omega$  at  $I_c = 50$  ma. Redefining the 200 ma  $h_{FE}$  rating in terms of  $R_{sc}$  gives  $R_{sc} < 1.75\Omega$  at  $I_c = 200$  ma.

Instead of measuring  $R_{sc},$  measure  $V_{CE}$  (SAT) and convert to  $R_{sc}$  by  $R_{sc} \equiv V_{CE}$  (SAT)/Ic.

### h PARAMETERS

Historically it proved convenient to describe transistor small signal characteristics by specially selected pairs of equations. The transistor is considered as a "black box" with input and output terminals. One set of two equations can fully describe the performance of the "black box". This is discussed in Chapter 3 on small signal characteristics.

Each set of two equations contains four variables; the input voltage and current, and the output voltage and current. It also contains four constants, or parameters, describing the "black box". To be useful, the equations must have only two unknown variables, therefore the equations depend on two of the four variables being arbitrarily assigned. Solving the equations determines the other two variables and provides a complete description of the "black box" performance. By carefully chosing the arbitrarily assigned variables to suit the requirements of the circuit application, the mathematics for solving the equations can be simplified.

There are six ways in which the assigned variables can be chosen. Each way results in different values for the parameters. The sets of parameters are identified as the "a", "b", "g", "h", "y" and "z" parameters. Because each set of equations describes the same "black box" it is possible to convert from one set of parameters to another as desired. Hence by knowing one set, all sets are known.

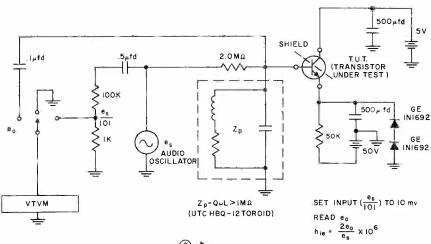
With transistors the most convenient parameters to measure are the h parameters. They are discussed in detail in Chapter 3. Specification sheets most often show the h parameters for the common base configuration. This is partially due to the high precision with which the two assigned variables, the emitter current and the collector to base voltage, can be maintained.

On the other hand, common emitter configurations are used more frequently in actual circuits. For this reason the test circuits to be described measure common emitter parameters which can be converted to common base parameters with the conversion factors in Chapter 3.

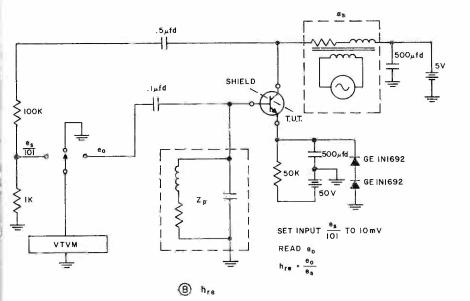
Common emitter parameters should be measured at a constant collector current and a specified collector to emitter voltage. However, for convenience of measurement the DC operating conditions are generally obtained from a common base configuration. That is, the emitter current and collector to base voltage are controlled. The AC test signal nevertheless is applied in the common emitter mode.

The circuits in Figure 17.8 apply a constant 1 ma emitter current through the 50K resistor and a 5 volt collector to base voltage from a separate power supply. The capacitors must be non-polarized if the circuitry is used for both PNP and NPN transistors by reversing the battery and diode connections. The base must be at ground to direct current but not to the test signal. This is achieved by the tuned circuit from base to ground. The inductor is a high Q toroid such as the UTC HQB-12 which is tuned by the capacitor to the test frequency of either 270 cps or 1000 cps. If large base currents are encountered, care should be taken to avoid saturating the toroid.

Initially 270 cps was chosen because it was "a low frequency" to even the lowest frequency transistors, and because it was harmonically unrelated to 60 cps thus avoiding power line interference. All presently available transistors however still have their low frequency parameters unchanged at 1000 cps, and components for this frequency are more readily available. The circuits in Figure 17.8 may be used at either frequency providing the inductor is tuned accordingly.

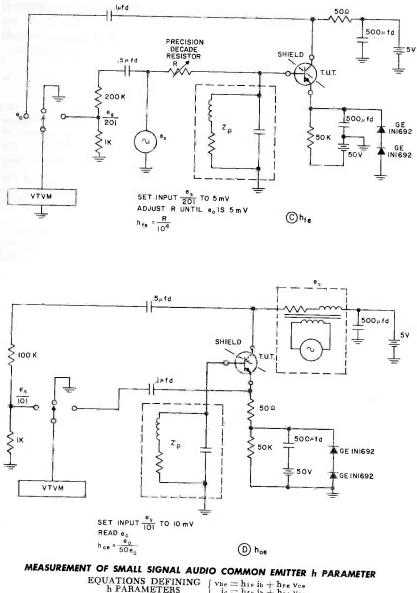


A hie



 $\begin{array}{l} \label{eq:measurement} \textbf{MEASUREMENT OF SMALL SIGNAL AUDIO COMMON EMITTER $h$ PARAMETER$} \\ \begin{array}{l} EQUATIONS DEFINING \\ h PARAMETERS \\ \hline ie = hre ib + hre vee$\\ OPERATING POINT: IE = 1 ma V_{CB} = 5V \\ \hline FIGURE 17.8 \end{array}$ 

### TEST CIRCUITS



 $\begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{EQUATIONS DEFINING} \\ \mbox{h PARAMETERS} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mbox{vb}_{b} = \mbox{h}_{1e} \mbox{ ib } + \mbox{h}_{re} \mbox{vc}_{e} \\ \mbox{ic = hre ib } + \mbox{h}_{oe} \mbox{vc}_{e} \\ \mbox{OPERATING POINT: } \mbox{Ig = 1} \mbox{ may vc}_{B} = 5V \\ \mbox{FIGURE 17.8} \end{array} \right.$ 

The 1N1692 diodes prevent the emitter bypass capacitor from charging to  $-50\bar{v}$  when the transistor under test is removed. If the diodes were removed, discharging the capacitor through the next transistor tested might damage the transistor. One diode is sufficient if only germanium transistors are tested. Two are required for silicon transistors. The VTVM is an audio high impedance voltmeter such as the Ballantine Model 310A or Hewlett-Packard 400D. The voltmeter can be switched to calibrate the input signal. The center ground position on the switch is used as a shield between input and

### TEST CIRCUITS

output. For measuring  $h_{re}$  and  $h_{be}$ , the resistance of the transformer winding supplying  $e_s$  should be minimized.

If  $BV_{CES}$  or  $V_{RT}$  are less than 5 volts, there is a possibility of damaging the transistor in these circuits. Breakdown voltages should be measured before h parameter measurements are attempted.

# BASE SPREADING RESISTANCE AND COLLECTOR CAPACITY $r_{b'}$ and $C_{\delta b}$

One of the more useful common emitter transistor equivalent circuits contains a series base input resistance called  $r_b'$ . A capacitor  $C_{ob}$  is connected in series with  $r_b'$  to the collector. This collector to base time constant  $r_b' C_{ob}$  can control a transistor's high frequency performance. A well known expression for the maximum available power gain of a tuned amplifier is  $G \approx \frac{0.04}{f^2} \times \frac{f_{hfb}}{r_b' C_{ob}}$  where  $f_{hfb}$  is the alpha cut-off frequency and f is an operating frequency between 1/20 and 2  $f_{hfb}$ . The equation shows that a large  $r_b' C_{ob}$  product can offset the advantage of a high  $f_{hfb}$ .

At high frequencies,  $h_{rb} \approx 2\pi f r_b' C_{ob}$ . Doubling the test frequency will double  $h_{rb}$  if the test frequency is high enough. For alloy transistors 1 mc is a suitable test frequency. Figure 17.9 shows a suitable test circuit for high frequency  $h_{rb}$ . The shield is essential.

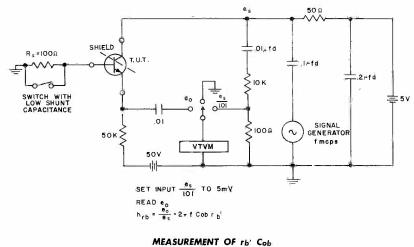


FIGURE 17,9

To determine  $r_b{}^{\prime}$  and  $C_e$  separately, two measurements are made. The base switch is closed giving  $h_{rb1} = \frac{e_{o1}}{e_s} = 2\pi f C_{ob} r_b{}^{\prime}$ . The switch is opened giving  $h_{rb2} = \frac{e_{o2}}{e_s} = 2\pi f C_{obr}$  $(r_b{}^{\prime} + R_s)$ . Solving for  $r_b{}^{\prime}$  gives  $r_b{}^{\prime} = \frac{e_{o1} R_s}{(e_{o2} - e_{o1})}$ . Solving for  $C_{ob}$  gives  $C_{ob} = \frac{e_{o2} - e_{o1}}{2\pi f e_s R_s}$ The significance and validity of  $r_b{}^{\prime}$  and  $C_{ob}$  as measured above depends entirely on the validity of the equivalent circuit assumed for the transistor under test.

### ALPHA CUT-OFF FREQUENCY fnew

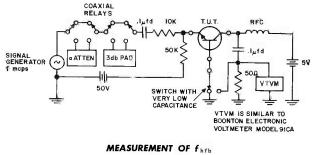
The alpha cut-off frequency,  $f_{hfb}$ , was the earliest measure of a transistor's frequency response. It is defined as the frequency at which alpha, the small signal common base current gain, decreases in amplitude by 3 db. In modern transistors  $f_{hfb}$  ranges from

100 Kcs to 2000 mcs. Since at frequencies over 100 mcs accurate measurements become exceedingly difficult, low frequency data is often extrapolated instead of measuring  $f_{\rm hfb}$  at higher frequencies.

In itself  $f_{hfb}$  is of little importance, since for example,  $f_{hfb}$  along with  $r_b'$  and  $C_{ob}$  determine high frequency amplifier power gain. Special amplifier transistors therefore are often characterized directly in terms of power gain.

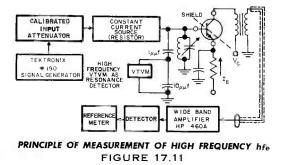
In switching circuits, transient response times become shorter when  $f_{hfb}$  increases. But they do not correlate well because of  $f_{hfb}$  variations with operating point and also because of the effects of  $C_{ob}$  and voltage bias.

While  $f_{htb}$  can be increased considerably by grading the base impurity distribution as discussed in Chapter 2, common emitter performance does not increase proportionately. Transient response time, for example, appears to correlate better with common emitter frequency response rather than with  $f_{htb}$ . This leads to specifying a common emitter gain-bandwidth product, or high frequency  $h_{te}$ , or the frequency at which  $h_{te} = 1$ .



**FIGURE 17.10** 

The circuit in 17.10 is suitable for measuring  $f_{\rm hfb}$  to 100 mcs. The 3 db pad is switched in and the base is connected to the VTVM. The signal generator is adjusted to give 1 mv across the VTVM. The 3 db pad is switched out and the base grounded. The VTVM will read 1 mv if the input frequency is  $f_{\rm hfb}$ . It will read over 1mv for lower frequencies and less than 1 mv for higher. This circuit is best for go-no go testing. Care should be taken to minimize stray capacitance and inductance. The test as outlined assumes the low frequency alpha is very close to unity. If this assumption is not valid, an additional attenuator will compensate for low alpha. The 3 db pad is switched in, the attenuator is switched out, the base is grounded and the signal generator is adjusted to give 1 mv output at a low frequency. The base is then connected to 50 $\Omega$ . The attenuator is switched in and adjusted until the output is again 1 mv. The signal



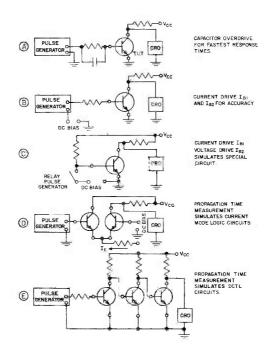
#### TEST CIRCUITS

generator frequency is raised and the output again adjusted to 1 mv. Finally the attenuator and 3 db pad are switched out, the base is grounded and the output reads 1 mv if the signal generator frequency is  $f_{\rm htb}$ .

Figure 17.11 indicates the principle used to measure high frequency  $h_{fe}$ . Since the resonant circuit at the base must be retuned with every change in frequency the measurement is tedius. The principle is similar to that in Figure 17.10. The input attenuator is used to offset the gain of the transistor so that the reference meter reads the same during calibration and test. This avoids errors due to non-linearities in the amplifier, detector or meter. Calibration is achieved by removing the transistor, connecting a capacitor jumper from base to collector and tuning the resonant circuit for maximum output. The signal generator level is adjusted to approximately 10  $\mu$ a and the meter deflection is recorded. The jumper is removed and the VTVM is used to retune the resonant circuit. The transistor is reinserted and the attenuator increased until the meter reading returns to its calibration value. The attenuation added is equal to the gain of the transistor at the test frequency.

### TRANSIENT RESPONSE TIME ta, tr, ts, tr

Chapter 10 on switching characteristics defines and discusses transient response times. Because they are strongly circuit dependent, transistor manufacturers have had considerable scope in specifying response time. Figure 17.12 shows five basic circuits currently in use. Capacitor overdrive (A) gives the fastest response times but small inaccuracies in component values or pulse generator characteristics result in large changes in response time. Also in practical circuits it is seldom possible to simulate these overdrive conditions,



BASIC CIRCUITS FOR RESPONSE TIME MEASUREMENT FIGURE 17.12

Current drive (B) for  $I_{B1}$  and  $I_{B2}$  gives the slowest response times but is much less sensitive to pulse generator characteristics. If a high amplitude input pulse is used to define the currents accurately the delay time becomes long. Also the emitter junction breakdown voltage may be exceeded. For these reasons, it is not sufficient to define the currents; the entire circuit must be specified.

Storage time can be minimized by a high  $I_{B^2}$  current. In complex flip-flop circuits using several transistors, it is possible to design for high  $I_{B^2}$ . Circuit C simulates this condition by combining voltage and current drives.

As noted in Chapter 12 on Logic, current mode logic circuits are extremely fast although expensive in transistors. Circuit D is useful in measuring the delay i.e. the propagation time through one level of logic. It is difficult with this circuit to measure the performance of an individual transistor.

DCTL offers the simple logic chain in E for measuring the propagation time through several stages. The circuit averages the transistors' performance and permits reasonably accurate high speed measurements with relatively slow pulse generators and oscilloscopes.

In order to avoid the expense or risetime limitations of pulse generators, mercury wetted relays capable of 0.25 nanoseconds (millimicroseconds) risetime are sometimes specified. Most relays operate at 60 cps and generate pulses with approximately a 50% duty factor. The 60 cycle pulse rate results in low CRT trace intensity while the 50% duty factor may cause appreciable heating. The relay pulse generators in the Tektronix R unit and type 110 pulse generator minimize these problems.

There has been considerable work done to separate transient response time into circuit and transistor dependent parts. It is hoped that once the intrinsic transistor characteristics of significance in response time are known and specified, the performance of any circuit can be predicted. While considerable progress has been made, no analysis is valid for the majority of transistors available today. For typical transistors from a specific manufacturing process however, response times can be predicted quite accurately over a moderate range of operating points. But the typical transistors have never been a problem since their response time can be measured directly at the desired operating point, and the designer can base his circuit on the measured data. The problem lies with the small percentage of units which do not follow the typical variation. This problem has not been satisfactorily resolved to date.

Since no one transient response test circuit is widely accepted, none is shown in this section. To test any specific transistor the manufacturer's test circuit should be followed explicitly. In some cases, however, the circuit may be incompletely specified leading to ambiguity or error. The check list in Figure 17.13 suggests the considerations underlying an accurate measurement. It can be used to assess the adequacy of either the manufacturer's or circuit designer's specified test conditions.

As the check list suggests the input pulse must be precisely specified. Whether a conventional pulse generator or a relay type is used generally determines the rest of the circuit. The pulse risetime, width and repetition rate are essentially predetermined if a relay is used, but all of these parameters should be given for conventional pulse generators.

Component characteristics should be defined. Precision high stability components should be used.

At high frequencies the shunt capacitance of resistors may become significant. The self-resonant frequency of capacitors, their power factor and series inductance may have to be considered. Also, if any diodes are used it should be ascertained that their leakage current, capacitance and recovery time do not introduce significant errors.

PULSE GENERATOR	- TYPE OF GENERATOR - PULSE WIDTH - PULSE RISETIME (MAX MIN LIMITS) - PULSE AMPLITUDE - PULSE REPETITION RATE - GENERATOR IMPEDANCE
COMPONENTS	- TOLERANCE - FREQUENCY RESPONSE - LAYOUT - DISSIPATION
INITIAL CONDITIONS	- VOLTAGE BIAS - EMITTER JUNCTION PROTECTION
DRIVE CONDITIONS	<ul> <li>SERIES BASE IMPEDANCE</li> <li>TIME CONSTANTS IN DRIVE CIRCUIT</li> <li>FORWARD BIAS CURRENT OR CHARGE</li> <li>REVERSE BIAS VOLTAGE, CURRENT OR CHARGE</li> <li>DANGER OF OVERDRIVE</li> <li>PULSE REPETITION RATE SENSITIVITY</li> <li>PULSE WIDTH SENSITIVITY</li> </ul>
ουτρψτ	- AC AND DC LOAD - LOADING EFFECT OF MEASURING EQPT - OUTPUT TIME CONSTANT DUE TO STRAY AND OUTPUT LOADING CAPACITANCES - REFERENCE TIMES - TERMS DEFINED
MISC	- POWER SUPPLY DECOUPLING - RINGING

CHECK LIST FOR RESPONSE TIME MEASUREMENT CIRCUITS FIGURE 17.13

Circuit layout may be important. For example, adding two picofarads (micromicrofards) stray capacity from collector to base increases the rise time approximately 40% in typical high speed mesa transistor test circuits.

The voltage bias on the base before the input pulse is applied largely determines the delay time and in some circuits affects the rise time. Also if the bias voltage exceeds the emitter junction breakdown voltage this must either be allowed by the transistor manufacturer or a protective diode voltage clamp should be specified.

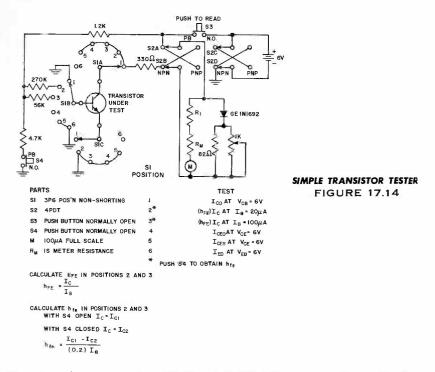
The input pulse characteristic together with the series base impedance determines the drive conditions. If capacitors are used as part of the drive impedance, the transient response times may be strongly dependent on the input pulse width and repetition rate. In measuring risetime, the test circuit generally specifies a forward bias current or base charge. By knowing the current or charge, performance can be predicted at other operating points. Reverse bias conditions are equally important in predicting storage time and fall time. If voltage drives are used, precaution should be taken to avoid transistor damage due to equipment misadjustment.

In measuring very fast response times (in the order of one to five nanoseconds) it may be necessary to make the oscilloscope input impedance part of the collector load. For slower speeds, conventional low capacitance probes may be used but their contribution to the response time should be checked. The reference times from which measurements are made should be carefully noted. Some specifications lump together delay and risetime. Some circuit engineers think of storage time in terms of the delay it causes and refers to it as "delay time." Pulse width may be measured across the base of the pulse or at 50% of full amplitude.

It is important that the DC biasing power supplies be able to supply fast transient currents without ringing. The power supplies may have to be decoupled right at the transistor socket with several paralleled capacitors. Each capacitor is chosen to extend the frequency of effective bypass; electrolytics for low frequencies, button stand-off capacitors for high frequencies. The pulse generator should be checked for overshoot or ringing. Ringing makes the pulse amplitude indeterminate particularly if the pulse is capacitively coupled to the base of the transistor under test.

### SIMPLE TRANSISTOR TESTER

Occasionally after an accidental overvoltage or slip of a test probe the need arises to quickly check if a transistor has been damaged. The circuit in Figure 17.14 is designed to meet this need. The 100  $\mu$ a meter is in a network which results in a nearly linear scale to 20  $\mu$ a, a highly compressed scale from 20  $\mu$ a to 1 ma and a nearly linear scale to full scale at 10 ma. The network permits reading I<sub>CO</sub>, I<sub>EO</sub>, I<sub>CES</sub> and I<sub>CEO</sub> to within 10% on all transistors from mesas to power alloys without switching meter ranges or danger to the meter movement.



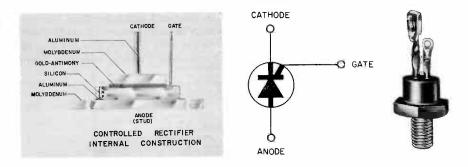
The test set also measures  $h_{FE}$  with 20  $\mu$ a and 100  $\mu$ a base current. Depressing the  $h_{fe}$  button decreases the base drive 20% permitting  $h_{fe}$  to be estimated from the corresponding change in collector current. The tests are done with a 330 $\Omega$  resistor limiting the collector current to approximately 12 ma and maximum transistor dissipation to approximately 20 mw. Therefore, this test set can not harm a transistor regardless of how it is plugged in or how the switches are set.

By making  $R_m + R_l$  equal to 12K the scale will be compressed only 1  $\mu a$  at 20  $\mu a$ . The potentiometer should be adjusted to give 10 ma full scale deflection. The scale can then be calibrated against a standard conventional meter.

If the NPN-PNP switch is in the wrong position, the collector and emitter junctions will be forward biased during the  $I_{C0}$  and  $I_{E0}$  tests respectively. The high resulting current can be used as a check for open or intermittent connections within the transistor.

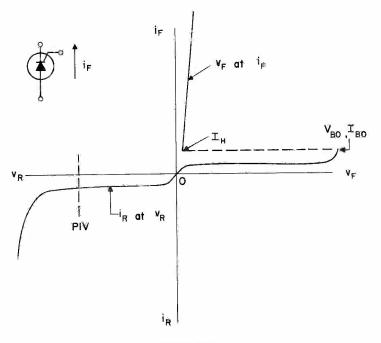
# 18. SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIER

The Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR) has a PNPN device structure and is the semiconductor equivalent of a gas thyratron. It is constructed by making both an alloyed PN junction and a separate ohmic contact to a diffused PNP silicon pellet as shown in Figure 18.1. This structure is typical of the 16 ampere SCR shown with its circuit symbol in this same figure.





In addition to the 16 ampere SCR, General Electric also offers a complete family of SCR's capable of carrying load currents from a few hundred milliamperes to 70 amperes average. SCR's are also classified within any basic current rating by the maximum voltage they can block. For a list of condensed specifications on SCR's see page



# FIGURE 18.2

The electrical characteristics of the SCR are shown in Figure 18.2. With reverse voltage impressed on the device (cathode positive), it blocks the flow of current until the avalanche voltage is reached as in an ordinary rectifier. With positive voltage applied to the anode, the SCR blocks the flow of current until the forward breakover voltage ( $V_{BO}$ ) is reached. At this point the SCR switches into a high conduction state and the voltage across the device drops to about one volt. In the high conduction state, the current flow is limited only by the external circuit impedance and supply voltage. At anode to cathode voltages less than the breakover voltage, the SCR can be switched into the high conduction mode by a small pulse (typically 1.5 volts and 30 milliamperes) applied from gate to cathode. This method of "turning-on" the SCR by means of a gate is used in the majority of applications since it permits the control of large amounts of power from low power signal sources. Once the SCR is in the high conduction state, it continues conduction indefinitely after removal of the gate signal until the anode current is interrupted or diverted by some external means for about 20 microseconds. This permits the SCR to regain its forward blocking capability.

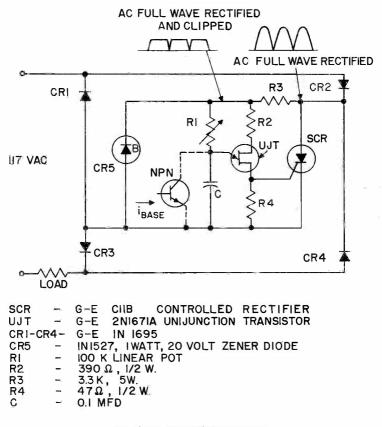
The magnitude of gate pulse needed to turn on an SCR varies with temperature and also from unit to unit. In order to achieve precise firing, it is desirable to use a short gate pulse with an amplitude of at least 3 volts and capable of delivering the maximum firing current requirements of the SCR. A simple and economical source of these pulses is the unijunction relaxation oscillator shown in Figure 13.9. A typical value for capacitor C in this diagram is 0.2 microfarad, and the gate triggering pulse is taken off at V<sub>B1</sub>. The gate and cathode of the SCR are connected to V<sub>B1</sub> and ground respectively, or are coupled to the unijunction transistor circuit by a pulse transformer where isolation is necessary.

This circuit produces pulses spaced roughly  $R_1C$  seconds apart and is the basis for SCR firing circuits in DC to AC inverters or other equipment operating from DC supplies. The major advantage of the unijunction circuit is that the interval between pulses depends primarily on the values of  $R_1$  and C and is essentially constant with changes in supply voltage or temperature.

When SCR's are used in AC circuits, it is necessary that the firing pulses have a precisely determined phase relationship with the supply voltage. A means for synchronizing is illustrated in Figure 18.3 which shows a 150 Watt AC phase controlled voltage regulator. This simple type of circuit is particularly suitable for controlling incandescent lights and electric furnaces, ovens, and heaters operated from 60 cps sources.

The 117 volt AC supply is connected to the load through the single phase bridge formed by rectifiers CR1 through CR4. This bridge applies full wave rectified DC to the anode of SCR. Through the clipping action of zener diode CR5 in conjunction with R3, the unijunction oscillator circuit formed by UJT, R1, and C is energized by a 20 volt clipped voltage supply as indicated. C begins charging at the start of the AC wave and UJT produces a pulse after a time interval depending on the value of R1 in the UJT emitter circuit. As soon as SCR fires, it shorts out the voltage supply to UJT and prevents C from charging up until the start of the next half cycle, when SCR returns to its blocking state by virtue of the supply voltage momentarily dipping to zero. Thus, the timing of the UJT is always synchronized to the start of each half cycle of the supply voltage. For proper operation, it is essential that inductance in series with SCR inside the rectifier bridge be kept to a minimum. The circuit will operate properly however with any reasonable value of inductive load in the AC circuit.

Since the bridge applies full wave voltage to SCR, the firing angle for both half cycles is controlled by this single UJT, and symmetrical phase controlled AC voltage

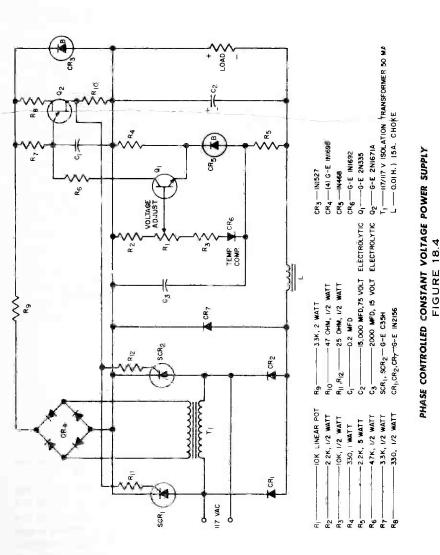


### 150 WATT VOLTAGE REGULATOR FIGURE 18.3

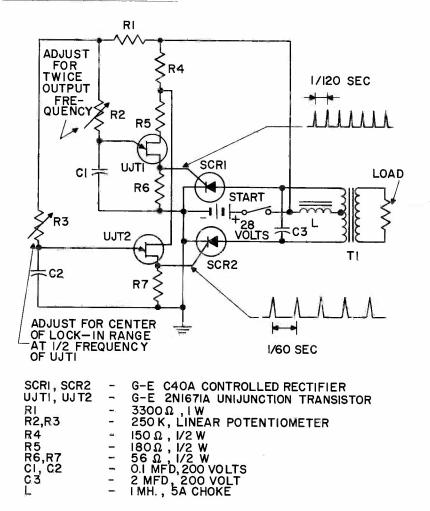
is delivered to the load. The firing angle, and therefore the power to the load, can be adjusted by varying R1. Alternately, the power output can be controlled by an NPN transistor connected across C as shown. If a small current is injected into the base of the NPN transistor, an amplified current will flow from collector to emitter, thus diverting some charging current from C. Reducing the charging current to the capacitor delays the firing of the UJT and SCR, and less average current flows to the load. The power gain from the base circuit of the NPN transistor to the output of the SCR is over ten million. Because of this high gain, this basic circuit can be readily adapted to high performance regulated power supplies, temperature controls, and other similar applications requiring feedback.

Through use of a pair of back-to-back connected SCR's of higher current rating than the C10, loads as high as 10 kilowatts on 117 volts may be controlled. By using two SCR's and two conventional rectifiers in a full wave phase controlled bridge circuit, it is possible to obtain a continuously variable DC output.

Figure 18.4 shows the circuit of a  $\frac{1}{2}$  kilowatt, 50 volt regulated power supply that will maintain the output DC voltage constant within  $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ % for wide variations of load current or supply voltage. By making the feedback voltage to Q1 proportional to current rather than voltage, a constant current supply will result.



### SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIER



### D.C. TO A.C. PARALLEL INVERTER FIGURE 18.5

Figure 18.5 is the circuit of a 100 watt parallel type inverter suitable for converting 28 volt DC to 60 cycle AC or else to DC at a higher or lower voltage level.

UJT1 is the primary oscillator and UJT2 is synchronized to UJT1 through the common resistor R4 in their base two circuits. As a result, UJT2 fires at exactly half the frequency of UJT1. Since UJT1 produces the first pulse, SCR1 will turn on first and SCR2 will remain in a blocking condition. The current from the 28 volt supply will then flow through the upper side of transformer T1. The transformer action will produce a voltage of approximately  $2 \times 28 = 56$  volts at the anode of SCR2 and across capacitor C3. When the next trigger pulse is applied to the gate of SCR2, it will turn on and the voltage at the anode of SCR2 will fall to a value equal to the forward conduction drop. The voltage at the anode of SCR1 will fall to approximately -56 volts because of the action of commutating capacitor C3. Capacitor C3 will maintain a reverse bias across SCR1 long enough for SCR1 to recover its forward blocking

### SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIER

state. The next trigger pulse will occur at the gate of SCR1 and cause the circuit to revert to the original state. In this manner, the current from the DC supply will flow alternately through the two sides of the transformer primary and produce an AC voltage in the secondary.

The inductance L serves as a ballast to prevent excessive current flow during switching. During the switching interval, opposing currents can flow in both halves of the transformer primary to the commutating capacitor C3 and to the anode of the SCR which has been turned on. If this current is not limited, the charging time for the commutating capacitor will be very short and the SCR which is to be turned off will not be reverse biased long enough for it to recover. Large values of L on the other hand prevent the supply from adjusting to rapid changes in load. For example, if load current is suddenly decreased, a voltage will be induced across L which will also appear at the anode of the SCR which is in the blocking condition. If this transient is greater than the breakover voltage of this SCR, it will turn on and the inverter will fail. This condition can be prevented by placing a free-wheeling rectifier in parallel with L.

Many other applications make use of the unique static power handling capabilities of the SCR. A partial list of some of these applications follows:

Radar and Beacon Modulators	Servo Systems
DC Transformers	Temperature Controls
Ultrasonic Generators	Reversing Drives
Pulse Width Modulation of Power	<b>Transient Voltage Protection Currents</b>
DC Motor Armature Control	Squib Firing
Generator Field Control	Regulated Power Supplies
AC and DC Static Switching	Ignitron Firing
Latching Relays	Lamp Dimmers
Power Flip-Flops	Variable Frequency Inverters
20 µsec Current-Limiting Circuit Breakers	Electronic Ignition Systems

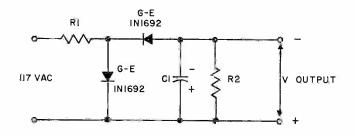
The use of SCR's in these and other types of applications is discussed in detail in the General Electric "Controlled Rectifier Manual" ECG-442, available for \$1.00.

# **19. POWER SUPPLIES**

The low power requirements and portability of many transistorized circuits make operation from batteries feasible and desirable. However, where heavier load current requirements and the relatively short life of batteries prohibit their use, DC loads can be operated from 117 volt 60 cycle power systems through use of silicon or germanium rectifiers. A discussion of several general types of rectifier power supplies follows.

# NON-ISOLATED POWER SUPPLIES FOR CLASS A FIXED LOADS

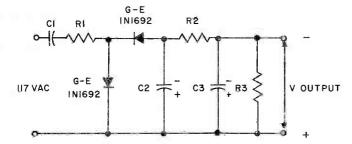
For load requirements less than about ¼ ampere, low cost circuits of the type shown in Figures 19.1 and 19.2 can be used provided the load is fixed and provided adequate safety precautions are incorporated to prevent shock hazard due to lack of isolation of the load from the 117 volt line. Both sides of the DC load should be isolated from possible accidental contact by the user. These circuits utilize series dropping resistors instead of transformers to reduce the line voltage to the required level. For this reason, it is essential that these power supplies always be operated with rated load across the output terminals. Absence of this load current, even momentarily, will apply excessive voltage to the filter capacitors and rectifiers. Thus this type of power supply is limited to class A loads in which the average load current does not vary with the amplitude of the input signal.



OUTPUT VOLTAGE V			Cĭ	R2	APPROX RIPPLE	
12 VOLTS	I MA	43K,1/2W	250#f 15 VOLT ELECTROLYTIC	180K	0.1%	
12 VOLTS	2 MA	22K, 1/2W	250µf I5 VOLT ELECTROLYTIC	100K 1/2W	0.1%	
25 VOLTS	2 MA	18K , 1/2W	250µf 30 VOLT ELECTROLYTIC	180K 1/2W	0.i%	

\* TO ADJUST VOLTAGE OUTPUT FOR OTHER OUTPUT CURRENTS, ADJUST R2.

> PRE-AMP POWER SUPPLIES FIGURE 19,1



	OUTPUT * CURRENT	RI	R2	R3	CI 200 VOLT METALLIZED PAPER	C2 ELECTRO- LYTIC	C3 ELECTRO- LYTIC	APPROX. RIPPLE
12 VOLTS	100 MA	2Ω IW	100Ω 2₩	2200Ω IW	THREE 2-µf IN PARALLEL	250µf 15 VOLT	250µ <b>f</b> 15 VOLT	0.5%
12 VOLTS	150 MA	2Ω Į₩	100Ω 10₩	2200Ω IW	FOUR 2-µf IN PARALLEL	250µf 15 VOLT	250μf 15 VOLT	0.5%
25 VOLTS	50 MA	2Ω 1W	250Ω 2W	IW IOK	TWO 2- µf IN PARALLEL	100µf 50 VOLT	250µf 30 VOLT	0.5%

<sup>\*</sup> TO ADJUST VOLTAGE OUTPUT FOR OTHER OUTPUT CURRENTS, ADJUST R3.

### GENERAL PURPOSE TRANSISTOR POWER SUPPLIES FIGURE 19.2

RC filters reduce the output ripple to very low values as indicated in the charts in Figures 19.1 and 19.2. The use of silicon rectifiers results in high reliability at minimum cost.

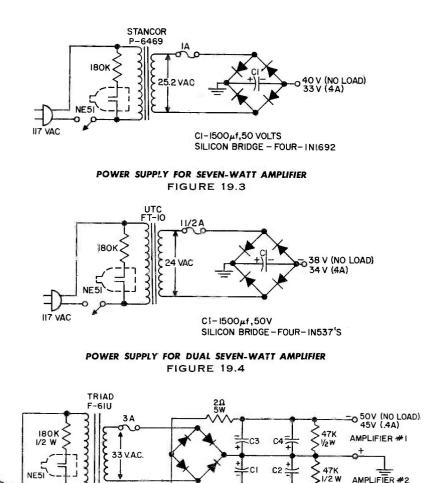
Since one side of the 117 volt line is carried through to the load, reversal of the line plug may be necessary in high gain amplifiers to reduce hum. Also, these two power supplies develop a negative output voltage with respect to the common line between the AC and the load. To develop a positive output voltage with respect to this line, it is only necessary to reverse the rectifiers and electrolytic capacitors in the circuit.

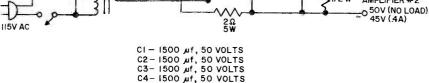
When a silicon rectifier feeds a capacity input filter as in Figures 19.1 and 19.2, it is necessary to limit the high charging current that flows into the input capacitor when the circuit is first energized. Otherwise this surge current may destroy the rectifier. Resistor R1 is used in these circuits to limit this charging current to safe values.

### ISOLATED POWER SUPPLIES WITH TRANSFORMER STEP-DOWN

Class B loads require a stiffer voltage source than the resistance-capacity combinations of Figures 19.1 and 19.2 can provide. For this and other types of load that require good voltage regulation, the line voltage should be dropped through a transformer rather than series resistance or capacitance. For loads greater than about one ampere, choke type filters are also desirable for good regulation.

Figures 19.3 through 19.5 illustrate the use of a step-down transformer in conjunction with a rectifier bridge to secure reasonably stiff well-filtered voltage for class B audio amplifiers illustrated elsewhere in this manual.



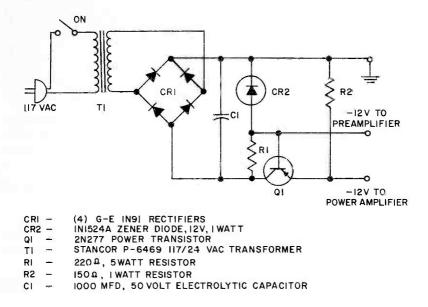




### POWER SUPPLY FOR DUAL TEN-WATT AMPLIFIER FIGURE 19.5

# REGULATED POWER SUPPLIES

For optimum voltage regulation and ripple reduction, active elements must be introduced to the power supply. The 12 volt 1 ampere power supply in Figure 19.6 uses a power transistor as an active element in series with the load to maintain the output voltage constant. A 1 watt zener diode is used as the voltage reference. At full load, the output voltage ripple is less than 0.1%, and voltage regulation from no load to full load is 2%.



### 12 VOLT, 1 AMPERE REGULATED POWER SUPPLY FIGURE 19.6

Efficiency and cost considerations in regulated power supplies above a few hundred watts generally dictate active regulating elements that operate in a high speed switching mode to minimize thermal losses in the active element. A 500 watt power supply of this type that uses silicon controlled rectifiers as switches is shown in Figure 18.4.

# 20. TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

### HOW TO READ A SPECIFICATION SHEET

Semiconductors are available in a large variety of different types, each with its own unique characteristics. At the present time there are over 2200 different types of diodes and rectifiers and over 750 different types of transistors being manufactured.

The Characteristics of each of these devices are usually presented in specification sheets similar to the ones represented on page 205 and page 306 respectively. These specifications, particularly the transistor specification on the next page, contain many terms and ratings that are probably new to you, so we have selected several of the more important ones and explained what they mean.

## NOTES ON TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION SHEET

(1) The lead paragraph is a general description of the device and usually contains three specific pieces of information — The kind of transistor, in this case a silicon NPN triode, — A few major application areas, amplifier and switch, — General sales features, electrical stability and a standard size hermetically sealed package.

(2) The Absolute Maximum Ratings are those ratings which should not be exceeded under any circumstances. Exceeding them may cause device failure.

(3) The **Power Dissipation** of a transistor is limited by its junction temperature. Therefore, the higher the temperature of the air surrounding the transistor (ambient temperature), the less power the device can dissipate. A factor telling how much the transistor must be derated for each degree of increase in ambient temperature in degrees centigrade is usually given. Notice that this device can dissipate 125mw at 25°C. By applying the given derating factor of 1mw for each degree increase in ambient temperature, we find that the power dissipation has dropped to 0mw at 150°C, which is the maximum operating temperature of this device.

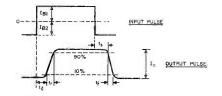
(4) All of the remaining ratings define what the device is capable of under specified test conditions. These characteristics are needed by the design engineer to design matching networks and to calculate exact circuit performance.

(5) Current Transfer Ratio is another name for beta. In this case we are talking about an a-c characteristic, so the symbol is  $h_{re}$ . Many specification sheets also list the d-c beta using the symbol  $h_{FE}$ . Beta is partially dependent on frequency, so some specifications list beta for more than one frequency.

**(6)** The **Frequency Cutoff**  $\mathbf{f}_{hrb}$  of a transistor is defined as that frequency at which the grounded base current gain drops to .707 of the 1kc value. It gives a rough indication of the useful frequency range of the device.

O The **Collector Cutoff Current** is the leakage current from collector to base when no emitter current is being applied. This leakage current varies with temperature changes and must be taken into account whenever any semiconductor device is designed into equipment used over a wide range of ambient temperature.

(8) The Switching Characteristics given show how the device responds to an input pulse under the specified driving conditions. These response times are very dependent on the circuit used. The terms used are explained in the curves at right.



The General Electric Types 2N337 and 2N338 are high-frequency silicon NPN transistors intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for high-speed switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a

2N337, 2N338

**Outline Drawing No. 4** 

diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. For electrical reliability and parameter stability, all transistors are subjected to a minimum 160 hour 200°C cycled aging operation included in the manufacturing process. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

### SPECIFICATIONS

<b>2</b> -{	ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS Voltage	: (25°C)							
	Collector to Base Emitter to Base	Vсво Vево						$\begin{array}{c} 45 \\ 1 \end{array}$	volts volt
	Current								
	Collector	Ic						20	ma
പ	Power								
୴ୄ	Collector Dissipation*	Pc						125	mw
	Temperature								
	Storage Operating	TSTG TA						to 200	°C
	operating	14					65	to 150	•С
4	ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (Unless otherwise specified; $V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = -1 mo;$	: (25°C)							
L	f = 1  kc		2	N337		2N338			
	Small-Signal Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	Min.	Typ.	Max.	
(5)-(	Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Output Admittance	hre hib hrb hob	$\begin{array}{c} 19\\ 30\end{array}$	$55 \\ 47 \\ 180 \\ .1$	$\begin{smallmatrix}&80\\2000\\1\end{smallmatrix}$	39 30	$99 \\ 47 \\ 200 \\ .1$	80 2000 1	${}^{ m ohms}_{ m \times10^{-6}}_{ m \mu mho}$
	High-Frequency Characteristics								
<b>6</b> -C	Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Capacitance $(f = 1 mc)$ Common Emitter Current Gain	fhfb Cob	10	$\begin{array}{c} 30 \\ 1.4 \end{array}$	3	20	$\begin{array}{c} 45 \\ 1.4 \end{array}$	3	me μμf
	(f = 2.5  mc)	hre	14	24		20	26		
	D-C Characteristics								
	Common Emitter Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = 5v$ ; $I_C = 10$ ma)	hre	20	35	55	45	75	150	
	Collector Breakdown Voltage (ICBO = 50 $\mu$ a; IE = 0) Emitter Breakdown Voltage	Vсво	45			45			volts
	$(I_{EBO} = -50 \ \mu a; I_C = 0)$ Collector Saturation Resistance	Vebo	1			1			volt
	$(I_B = 1 \text{ ma; } I_C = 10 \text{ ma})$ $(I_B = .5 \text{ ma; } I_C = 10 \text{ ma})$	Rsc Rsc		75	150		75	150	ohms ohms
~[	Cutoff Characteristics								
	Collector Current (VcB = 20v; IE = 0; TA = 25°C) Collector Current	Ісво		.002	I		.002	1.	μа
L	$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = 0; T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$	Ісво			100			100	$\mu \mathbf{a}$
٢	Switching Characteristics								
8-	Rise Time Storage Time Fall Time	tr ts tr		$.02 \\ .02 \\ .04$			$.06 \\ .02 \\ .14$		μsecs μsecs μsecs

\*Derate 1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C

# EXPLANATION OF PARAMETER SYMBOLS

# SMALL SIGNAL & HIGH FREQUENCY PARAMETERS (at specified bias)

Symbols	Abbreviated Definitions				
hob	Com. base - small signal output admittance, input AC open-circuited				
hib	Com. base - small signal input impedance, output AC short-circuited				
hrb	Com. base - small signal reverse voitage transfer ratio, input AC open-circuite				
hrs	Com. base				
hre	Com. emitter small signal forward current transfer ratio, output AC short-circuited				
hic	Com. collector				
hoe, hie	Examples of other corresponding com. emitter symbols				
fhfb	Com. base the frequency at which the magnitude of the small-				
fhre	Com. emitter signal short-circuit forward current transfer ratio is 0.707 of its low frequency value.				
fмах	Maximum frequency of oscillation				
Cob	Collector to base Capacitance measured across the output terminals				
Coe	Collector to emitter f with the input AC open-circuited				
r'b	Base spreading resistance				
Ge	Com. emitter Power Gain (use $G_b$ for com. base)				
CGe	Conversion gain				
NF	Noise Figure				

# SWITCHING CHARACTERISTICS (at specified bias)

ta	Delay time						
tr	Rise time	These depend on both transistor					
ts	Storage time	and circuit parameters					
te	Fall time	)					
VCE (SAT.)	Saturation voltage at specified Ic and IB. This is defined only with the collector saturation region (steady state condition).						
hfE	Com. emitter – static value of short-circuit forward current transfer ratio, $h_{FE} = \frac{Ic}{I_B}$						
hfe (inv)	Inverted hre (emitter and collector leads switched)						

# UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR MEASUREMENTS.

$I_{B2}$ (MOD)	Modulated interbase current
Ір	Peak point emitter current
Iv	Valley current
Rвво	Interbase resistance
VBB	Interbase voltage
Vv	Valley voltage
η	Intrinsic stand-off ratio. Defined by $V_P = \eta V_{BB} + \frac{200}{T_J}$ (in ° Kelvin)

### TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

DC MEAS	UREA	AENTS
---------	------	-------

	DO MERSOREMENTS
Ic, Ie, Ib	DC currents into collector, emitter, or base terminal
Vсв, Vев	Voltage collector to base, or emitter to base
VCE	Voltage collector to emitter
VBD	Voltage base to emitter
Vсво	Voltage, collector to base junction reverse biased, emitter open-circuited (value of Ic should be specified)
VCEO	Voltage, collector to emitter, at zero base current, with the collector junction reverse biased. Specify Ic.
Vceo	Voltage, collector to emitter, with base open-circuited. This may be a function of both "m" (the charge carrier multiplication factor) and the $h_{fb}$ of the transistor. Specify Ic.
VCER	Similar to VCEO except a resistor of value "R" between base and emitter.
VCES	Similar to VCEO but base shorted to emitter.
VRT	Reach-through voltage, collector to base voltage at which the collector space charge layer has widened until it contacts the emitter junction.
VCCB VCCE VBBE	Supply voltage collector to base       NOTE - third subscript         Supply voltage collector to emitter       may be omitted if no confusion results.
Ісо, Ісво	Collector current when collector junction is reverse biased and emitter is DC open-circuited.
1ео, Іево	Emitter current when emitter junction is reverse biased and collector is DC open-circuited.
Iceo	Collector current with collector junction reverse biased and base open-circuited.
Ices	Collector current with collector junction reverse biased and base shorted to emitter.
IECS	Emitter current with emitter junction reverse biased and base shorted to collector.
Rsc	Collector saturation resistance

### OTHER SYMBOLS USED

Pa	Peak collector power dissipation for a specified time duration duty cycle and wave shape.
Рт	Average continuous total power dissipation.
Ρc	Average continuous collector power dissipation
Po	Power output
Zi	Input impedance
Zó	Output impedance
Та	Operating Temperature (ambient)
Ťı	Junction Temperature
TSTG	Storage Temperature

**NOTE:** In devices with several electrodes of the same type, indicate electrode by number. Example: IB2. In multiple unit devices, indicate device by number preceding electrode subscript. Example: I2c. Where ambiguity might arise, separate complete electrode designations by hyphens or commas. Example: V1c1-2c1 (Voltage between collector #1 of device #1 and collector #1 of device #2.)

NOTE: Reverse biased junction means biased for current flow in the high resistance direction.

# GENERAL ELECTRIC TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS



Outline Drawing No. 1

The General Electric Type 2N43 Germanium Alloy Junc-tion Transistor Triode is a PNP unit particularly recom-mended for high gain, low power applications. A hermetic enclosure is provided by use of glass-to-metal seals and welded seams.

# SPECIFICATIONS

•• -					
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage					
Collector to Base Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Emitter to Base	VCBO VCER VEBO			45 30 5	volts volts volts
Current					
	Ic			300	ma
Collector	.10			000	
Power					
T-1-1 Transiston Discinction*	Рт			240	mw
Total Transistor Dissipation*	~ ~				
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		65	to 100	°C
Operating Junction	TJ			85	°C
Operating ,					
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)			Design	64	
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Center	Max.	
(Unless otherwise specified; $V_{\rm C} = -5x$					
common base; $l_E = -1$ ma;					
f = 270  cps. or  1  kc					
Common base output admittance		7	.8	1.5	μmhos
(input A-C open circuited)	hon	.1	.0	1.0	μπποσ
Forward current transfer ratio	hre	30	42	66	
(output A-C short circuited) Common base input impedance	111 6	00			
(output A-C short circuited)	hib	25	29	35	ohms
Common base reverse voltage transfer			-	Ť er	$\times 10^{-4}$
ratio (input A-C open circuited)	hru	1	5	15	X 10 .
Common base output capacity (input	0	20	40	60	μμf
A-C open circuited; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ )	Cob NF	20	6	20	db
Noise Figure $(f = 1 \text{ Kc}; BW = 1 \text{ cycle})$ Frequency cutoff (Common Base)	fhfb	.5	1.3	3.5	mc
Frequency cuton (Common Dase)	1110	10			
D-C Characteristics					
	Y		8	-16	µamps
Collector cutoff current (VCB0 $= -45v$ )	Ico Ieo		-4	1ŏ	µamps
Emitter cutoff current ( $V_{ERO} = -5v$ ) Collector Saturation Voltage	VCE (SAT)	-65	90	130	mv
(Ic = -20  ma; Is as indicated)	@ IB =	-1.3	1.3	-1.3	ma
Base input voltage, common emitter				200	
$(V_{CE} - 1 \text{ volt}; I_C = -20 \text{ ma})$	$V_{BE}$	-180	-230	-280	mv
Common emitter static forward current					
transfer ratio ( $V_{CE} = -1$ volt;	h	34	53	65	
$I_{\rm C} = -20 \text{ ma}$	hee	04	200	4.0	
Common emitter static forward current transfer ratio ( $Vc_E = -1$ volt;					
$I_{c} = -100 \text{ ma}$	hfe	30	48		
Collector to emitter voltage (10 K ohms		00			volts
resistor base to emitter; $Ic = -0.6 \text{ ma}$	VCER	30 30			volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT				

\*Derate 4 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

2N43A **Outline Drawing No. 1** 

The 2N43A is identical to the 2N43 except that  $h_{te}$  is guaranteed to be between 30 and 66. It is therefore electrically identical to the USAF 2N43A.

### Per MIL-T-19500/18

The General Electric Type 2N44 Germanium Alloy Junc-tion Transistor Triode is a PNP unit particularly recom-mended for medium gain, low power applications. A her-metic enclosure is provided by use of glass-to-metal seals and welded seams.

## SPECIFICATIONS

		-			
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C) Voltage	6				
Collector to Base Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Emitter to Base	VCBO VCER VEBO			45 30 5	volts volts volts
Current					
Collector	Ic			-300	ma
Power					
Total Transistor Dissipation*	Pr			240	mw
Temperature					
Storage Operating Junction	TSTG		6	5 to 100	SC
Operating Junction	Тл			85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Design Center	Max.	
(Unless otherwise specified; $V_C = -5v$ common base; $I_E = -1$ ma; f = 270 cps. or 1 kc)					
Common base output admittance		-	5		
(input A-C open circuited) Forward current transfer ratio	hob	,1	.9	1.5	μmihos
(output A-C short circuited)	hfe		25		
Common base input impedance (output A-C short circuited)	here	07	03	0 Ó.	
Common base reverse voltage transfer	hib	<b>27</b>	31	38	ohms
ratio (input A-C open circuited)	hrb	1.0	4	13	$ imes 10^{-4}$
Common base output capacity (input A-C open circuited; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ )	Cob	20	40	60	μμf
Noise Figure $(f = 1 \text{ Kc}; BW = 1 \text{ cycle})$	NF	20	-10	15	db
Frequency cutoff	furb	.5	1.0	3.0	me
D-C Characteristics					
Collector cutoff current (VCBO = $-45v$ )	Ico		8	-16	µamps
Emitter cutoff current ( $V_{EBO} = -5v$ ) Collector Saturation Voltage	IEO VCE(SAT)	55	-4 -90	-10	μamps
(1c = -20  ma;  Is as indicated)	@ I <sub>B</sub> =		-90 -2	$^{-130}_{-2}$	mv ma
Base input voltage, common emitter Common emitter static forward current	VBE	-200	-250	300	my
transfer ratio (Vce = $-1$ volt; Ic = $-20$ ma) Common emitter static forward current	hre	18	31	43	
transfer ratio ( $V_{CE} = -1$ volt;					
$I_{\rm C} = -100 \text{ ma}$ ) Collector to emitter voltage (10 K ohms	hfe	13	25		
resistor base to emitter; $I_{\rm C}=-0.6~{ m ma}$ ) Reach-through Voltage	VCER VRT	$-30 \\ -30$			volts volts

\*Derate 4 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

USAF 2N43A Outline Drawing No. 1



USAF 2N44A

Per MIL-T-19500/6

Outline Drawing No. 1



Outline Drawing No. 3.

The General Electric 2N78 is a rate grown NPN high frequency transistor intended for high gain RF and IF amplifier service and general purpose applications. The exclusive G-E rate-growing process used in the manufacture of the 2N78 enhances the stable and uniform characteristics re-

quired for military and industrial service. The 2N78's low collector cutoff current and controlled D-C Beta simplifies bias stabilization. In order to achieve the high degree of reliability necessary in industrial and military applications, the 2N78 is designed to pass 500G 1 millisecond drop shock, 10,000G centrifuge, 10G of vibration fatigue and 10G variable frequency vibration, as well as temperature cycling, moisture resistance, and operating and storage life tests as outlined in MIL-S-19500B.

# SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage					
Collector to Emitter (base open)	VCEO			15	volts
Collector to Base (emitter open)	Vсво			15	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO			5	volts
Current					
Collector	In			20	ma
Emitter	IC IE			-20	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation*	Pc			65	mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG			85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
Low Frequency Characteristics (Common B	ase)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 270 cps)$		Min.	Nom.	Max,	
(See Note)		25		00	
Input Impedance (output short circuited) Voltage Feedback Ratio	hiv	25	55	82	ohms
(input short circuited)	hrb	.8	2	10	× 10-4
Current Amplification					
(output short circuited)	hrb	.97	.983	.995	. <b>1</b> x
Output Admittance (input open circuited)	$\mathbf{h}_{ob}$	.1	.2	.7	$\mu$ mhoš
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Berro )				
	Duser				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 1 ma)$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	5	9		me
Output Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob	0	93	6	μµf
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f \equiv 1 mc)$	hrb			14	$ imes 10^{-8}$
Noise Figure	NF		12		db
$(V_{CB} = 1.5v; I_E = -0.5 ma; f = 1 kc)$ Power Gain in Typical IF Test Circuit	IN F		12		άb
(455 kc)	Ge	29	31	34	db
D-C Characteristics					
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	lco		.7	3	μa.
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = 5v_{.}$ )	IEQ		.6	5	$\mu a$
D-C Base Current Gain $(I_{C} = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CE} = 1_{V})$	hre	45	70	135	
(1C = 1  ma;  VCE = 1  V)	115.12	40		100	
Typical Operation (Common Emitter)					
$(\mathbf{V}_{CE} = 5\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{I}_{E} = 1 \mathbf{m}_{a})$		IF Amp.	IF Amp.	RF Amp.	
Input Frequency		262	455	1600	kc
Input Impedance (resistive)		300	350	700	ohms
Output Impedance (resistive) Matched Power Gain		30 37	$15 \\ 30$	$\frac{7}{23}$	K ohms db
Matched rower Gam				20	ub 1

Note: The Low Frequency Characteristics are design limits within which 98% of production normally falls.

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

The General Electric 2N78A is a rate grown NPN high frequency transistor intended for high gain RF and IF amplifier service and general purpose applications. The exclusive G.E. rate-growing process used in the manufacture of the 2N78A enhances the stable and uniform



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

characteristics required for military and industry service. The 2N78A's low collector cutoff current and controlled D-C Beta simplifies bias stabilization. In order to achieve the high degree of reliability necessary in industrial and military applications, the 2N78A is designed to pass 500G 1 millisecond drop shock, 10,000G centrifuge, 10G of vibration fatigue and 10G variable frequency vibration, as well as temperature cycling, moisture resistance, and operating and storage life tests as outlined in MIL-S-19500B.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C	)				
Voltage Collector to Emitter (base open) Collector to Base (emitter open) Emitter to Base	Vceo Vcbo Vebo			$20 \\ 20 \\ 5$	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	Ic Ie			$20 \\ -20$	ma ma
Power Collector Dissipation*	$\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{c}}$			65	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage	TSTG			85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)	unless othe	erwise specifie	d		
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v; T_A = 25^{\circ}C$ ) Collector Cutoff Current	Ico		.7	3	μa
$(V_{CB} = 15v; T_A = 71^{\circ}C)$ Emitter Cutoff Current $(V_{EB} = 5v)$ D-C Base Current Gain	Ico Ieo		$15 \\ .6$	$39 \\ 5$	μа μа
(Ic = 1 ma; Vce = 1v) Collector to Emitter Voltage	hfE	45	70	135	
(Base open $Ic = .3 ma$ )	VCEO	-20			volts
<u>Low Frequency Characteristics (Common B</u> ( $V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 270 cps$ ) (See Note)	ase)				
Input Impedance (Output short circuited) Voltage Feedback Ratio	hib	25	55	82	ohms
(Input open circuited) Current Amplification	hrb	.8	2	10	$ imes 10^{-4}$
(Output short circuited) Output Admittance (Input open circuited)	hfb hob	.97 .1	.983 .2	$.995 \\ .7$	μmhos
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 1 \text{ mo})$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Output Capacity $(f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Noise Figure	fhfb Cob hrb	5	9 3	6 14	${{}^{\mu\mu f}_{ imes 10^{-8}}}$
(VcB = 1.5v; IE = $-0.5$ ma; f = 1 kc) Power Gain in Typical IF Test Circuit	NF		12		db
(455 kc)	Ge	29	31	34	db
Typical Operation (Common Emitter)		IF Amp.	IF Amp.	RF Amp.	
$(V_{CE} = 5v; I_E = 1 \text{ mo})$ Input Frequency Input Impedance (resistive) Output Impedance (resistive) Matched Power Gain		$262 \\ 300 \\ 30 \\ 37$	$455 \\ 350 \\ 15 \\ 31$	$\begin{array}{c}1600\\700\\7\\23\end{array}$	ke ohms K ohms db

Note: The Low Frequency Characteristics are design limits within which 98% of production normally falls.

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

Certified to meet MIL-S-19500/90

2N78A

Outline Drawing No. 3

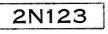


Outline Drawing No. 1

The General Electric type 2N107 is an alloy junction PNP transistor particularly suggested for students, experimenters, hobbyists, and hams. It is available only from franchised General Electric distributors. The 2N107 is hermetically sealed and will dissipate 50 milliwatts in  $25^{\circ}$ C free air.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C) Voltage Collector (referred to base)	Vcb	-12	volts
Current Collector Emitter	Ic In	$-10 \\ 10$	ma ma
<b>Temperature</b> Junction	$T_J$	60	°C
$\begin{array}{l} \label{eq:common base, f = 270 cps} \\ \hline \begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	VCB IE hob hrb hrb Ico Cob fhrb	$\begin{array}{c} -5.0 \\ 1.0 \\95 \\ 32 \\ 3 \\ 10 \\ 40 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{array}$	volts ma $\mu$ mhos ohms $\times 10^{-4}$ $\mu a$ $\mu \mu f$ me
$\frac{\text{Common Emitter (V_{CB} = -5v, I_{E} = 1 ma)}}{\text{Base Current Gain}}$	hre	20	



**Outline Drawing No. 7** 

The General Electric Type 2N123 is a PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for military, industrial and data processing applications where high reliability at the maximum ratings is of prime importance. (Not recommended for new designs, use 2N396A)

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Emitter Collector to Base Emitter to Base	Vceo Vcbo Vebo			$-15 \\ -20 \\ -10$	volts volts volts
<b>Current</b> Collector Peak Collector (10 µs max.) Emitter	Iс Ісм Ів			$-125 \\ -500 \\ 125$	ma ma ma
Power Peak Collector Dissipation (50 µsec 20% Duty Cycle)* Total Transistor Dissipation**	Pc PT			500 150	mw mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction Temperature	Tstg Tj		5	65 to 85 85	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
<b>D-C Characteristics</b> Common Emitter Current Gain $(V_{CE} = -1v; Ic = -10 ma)$ Common Emitter Current Gain	hfe	<b>Min.</b> 30	<b>Тур</b> . 75	Max. 150	
Common Dimiter Common Com			17		

$(V_{EC} = -1v; I_E = -10 ma)$	hfe(INV)		17		
Saturation Voltage $(I_B =5 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		15	2	volts
Collector Cutoff Current (VCB0 = $-20v$ ) Emitter Cutoff Current (VEB0 = $-10v$ )	ICBO IEBO		$^{-2}_{-2}$	$-6 \\ -6$	$\mu a$ $\mu a$
Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $Ic = -600 \ \mu a$ ) Reach-through Voltage	Vceo Vrt	$^{-15}_{-20}$	$-25 \\ -35$		volts

High Frequency Characteristics (Comm	ion Base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 \text{ mo})$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Alpha Cutoff Frequency (Inverse) Collector Capacity (f = 1 mc) Voltage Feedback Ratio (f = 1 mc) Base Spreading Resistance	fhfb fhfb(INV) Cob hrb r'b	5	8 12 9 90	20 150	mc $\mu\mu f$ $\times 10^{-s}$ ohms
Low Frequency Characteristics (Commo	n Base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5_{i}; I_E = 1 \text{ mc}; f = 270 \text{ cp}$ Input Impedance Voltage Feedback Ratio Forward Current Transfer Ratio Output Admittance			3000 6.0 90 65		extstyle  imes  extstyle  imes  extstyle  imes  extstyle  imes  extstyle  imes  extstyle  imes  ime
Switching Characteristics					
$(l_{c} = -10 \text{ ma; } l_{B1} = l_{B2} = 1 \text{ ma})$ Delay Time Rise Time Storage Time Fall Time	ta t <del>r</del> ts tr		.18 .45 .90 .35		μsec μsec μsec μsec
*Derate 8 mw/°C increase	in ambient temperat	ture above 2	5°C.		

\*\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

Per MIL-T-19500/30

**USAF 2N123** 

Outline Drawing No. 7

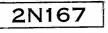
The General Electric types 2N135, 2N136 and 2N137 are PNP alloy junction germanium transistors intended for RF and IF service in broadcast receivers. Special control of manufacturing processes provides a narrow spread of characteristics, resulting in uniformly high power gain at radio frequencies. These types are obsolete and available for replacement only.

2N135, 2N136, 2N137

Outline Drawing No. 7

# SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C	)	2N135	2N136	2N137		
Voltage						
Collector to Base (emitter open) Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 100 \text{ ohms}$ ) Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 1 \text{ megohm}$ )	VCBO VCER VCER	$-20 \\ -20 \\ -12$	$-20 \\ -20 \\ -12$	$^{-10}_{-10}$ $^{-6}$	volts volts volts	
Current						
Collector Emitter	$\mathbf{I_E}_{\mathbf{I_E}}$	$-50 \\ 50$	$-50 \\ 50$	50 50	ma ma	
Power						
Collector Dissipation	Pc	100	100	100	mw	
Temperature						
Storage	$T_{STG}$	85	85	.85	°C	
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: Design Center Values (Common Base, 25°C, V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v, I <sub>E</sub> = 1 ma)						
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Output Capacitance $(f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Minimum Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Cutoff Current	hrb Cob fhfb fhfb	$\begin{array}{c} 7\\14\\4.5\\3\end{array}$	$     \begin{array}{r}       7 \\       14 \\       6.5 \\       5     \end{array}   $	$\begin{array}{c} 7\\14\\10\\7\end{array}$	$ imes 10^{-8}$ $\mu\mu f$ mc mc min	
$(V_{CB} = 6v, Emitter open)$ Base Current Amplification	Ico	5	5	.5	µa min	
(Common Emitter, $f = 270$ cps)	hie	20	40	60		



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

Storage Time

Fall Time

The General Electric Type 2N167 is an NPN germanium high frequency, high speed switching transistor intended for industrial and military applications where reliability is of prime importance. In order to achieve the high degree of reliability necessary in industrial and military applications,

the 2N167 is designed to pass 500G 1 millisecond drop shock, 10,000G centrifuge, 10G of vibration fatigue and 10G variable frequency vibration, as well as temperature cycling, moisture resistance, and operating and storage life tests as outlined in MIL-T-19500A.

### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage					
Collector to Base	Vсво			30	volts
Collector to Emitter	VCEO			30	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO			5	volts
Current	-			75	ma
Collector	Ic			-75	ma
Emitter	IE			-10	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation (25°C)*	Pc			65	mw
Total Transistor Dissipation (25°C)**	Pr			75	mw
Total Transistor Dissipation (20 0)					
Temperature				and an	
Storage	TSTG			85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
<b>D-C Characteristics</b>		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
$(I_{\rm C} = 8 \text{ ma; } V_{\rm CE} = I_{\rm V})$	hre	17	30	.95	
Base Input Voltage					
$(I_B = .47 \text{ ma; } I_C = 8 \text{ ma})$	VBR	.3***	.41	.6*	**volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
(Base Open; $Ic = .3 ma$ )	VCE	30			volts
Saturation Voltage ( $I_B = .8 \text{ ma}$ ; $I_C = 8 \text{ ma}$	) $V_{CE}(SAT)$		.35		volts
Cutoff Characteristics			.6	1.5	μa
Collector Current ( $IE = 0$ ; $VCB = 15v$ )	Ico		.35	1.3	μa μa
Emitter Current ( $I_C = 0$ ; $V_{EB} = 5v$ )	IEO		.0.0		μα
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; 1_E = 1 ma)$					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	5.0	9.0		mc
Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob		2.5	6	μµf
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 mc)$	hrb		7.3		$ imes 10^{-s}$
t - Common	Bero)				
<u>Low Frequency Characteristics</u> (Common ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $I_E = -1$ ma; $f = 270$ cps)	buse/				
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hfb	.952	.985	.995*	**
Output Admittance	hop	.1***	.2	.7*	**µmhos
Input Impedance	hib	25***	55	82*	**ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hrb		1.5		$ imes 10^{-4}$
neverse voltage righter flatto	-				
Switching Characteristics					
(Ic = 8 ma; I <sub>B1</sub> = .8 ma; I <sub>B2</sub> = .8 ma)			4		μsec
Turn-on Time	tò		4		µsec

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*Derate 1.25 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

ts.

ť,

\*\*\*These limits are design limits within which 98% of production normally fall.

.7

.2

usec

μsec

The General Electric Type 2N167A is an isolated case, NPN germanium high frequency, high speed switching transistor intended for industrial and military applications where reliability is of prime importance. In order to achieve the high degree of reliability necessary in

ADCOLUTE MANUAL DATINGS, (25°C)



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

industrial and military applications, the 2N167A is designed to pass 500G 1 millisecond drop shock, 10,000G centrifuge, 10G of vibration fatigue and 10G variable frequency vibration, as well as temperature cycling, moisture resistance, and operating and storage life tests as outlined in MIL-S-19500B. The 2N167A is available to MIL-S-19500/11 specification as USAF 2N167A.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCEO VEBO			30 30 5	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	Ic Ie			$\begin{array}{c} 75 \\ -75 \end{array}$	ma ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C)* Total Transistor Dissipation (25°C)**	Po Pr				mw mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage	Tstg			85	°G
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)	unless otherwise	specified			
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio $(I_{\rm C} = 8 \text{ ma}; V_{\rm CE} = 1v)$	hfg	17	.30	90	
Base Input Voltage (IB = .47 ma, Ic = 8 ma)	VBE	.3***	.41	,6**	* volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage (Base open; $Ic = .3 ma$ )	VCE	30			volts
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = .8 ma; I_C = 8 ma)$	VCE(SAT)		.35		volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ ; $V_{CB} = 15v$ ; $T_A = 25^{\circ}C$ )	Ico		.6	1.5	μa
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ ; $V_{CB} = 15v$ ; $T_A = 71^{\circ}C$ )	Ico		11	29	да,
Emitter Current (Ic = 0; VEB = 5v; TA = $25^{\circ}$ C)	IEO		.4	1.5	$\mu \mathbf{a}$
Emitter Current (Ic = 0; VEB = 5v; TA = 71°C)	IEO		8		μa.
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 1 \text{ mo})$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Capacity (f = 1 mc) Voltage Feedback Ratio (f = 1 mc)	fara Cob hrb	5.0	9.0 2.5 7.3	6	${}^{ m mc}_{\mu\mu { m f}}_{ m  imes 10^{-8}}$
Low Frequency Characteristics (Common E	(ase)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 \text{ ma; } f = 270 \text{ cps})$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hfb hob hib hrb	.952 .1*** 25***	$.985 \\ .2 \\ 55 \\ 1.5$	.995** .7** 82**	** µmhos ** ohms × 10-4
Switching Characteristics					
$(I_C=8\mbox{ mo; }I_{B1}=.8\mbox{ mo; }I_{B2}=.8\mbox{ mc})$ Turn-on Time Storage Time Fall Time	to ts tr		.4 .7 .2		μsec μsec μsec
*Denste 11 mm /°C in one oo	in ambient temps	and the sec			

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*Derate 1.25 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

\*\*\*These limits are design limits within which 98% of production normally fall.

Per MIL-S-19500/11A

USAF 2N167A

**Outline Drawing No. 3** 



The 2N168A is a rate-grown NPN germanium transistor intended for mixer/oscillator and IF amplifier applications in radio receivers. Special manufacturing techniques provide a low value and a narrow spread in collector capacity so that neutralization in many circuits is not required. The

2N168A has a frequency cutoff control to provide proper operation as an oscillator or autodyne mixer. For IF amplifier service the range in power gain in controlled to 3 db. This type is obsolete and is not recommended for new designs. For new designs we recommend type 2N1086.

## CONVERTER TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)			
Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ )			
Collector to Base (emitter open)	VCER VCEO	15	volts
( inter open)	V CBO	15	volts
Current			
Collector	-		
	$I_C$	-20	ma
Power			
Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	Pc	65	mw
Temperature			
Operating and Storage	T. T.		
	TA, TSTG	-55 to 85	°C
TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C	)		
Converter Service			
Maximum Ratings			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vec	12	volts
		12	voits
Design Center Characteristics			
Input Impedance (IE = 1 ma; $V_{CE} = 5v$ ; f = 455 KC	$\mathbf{Z}_{i}$	400	ohms
Output Impedance ( $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ ; $V_{CE} = 5v$ ; $f = 455 \text{ K}$	C)Z.	12	K ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio		14	K OIIIIS
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$	hrb	5	× 10-a
Collector to Base Capacitance		0	~ 10 -
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$	Cob	2.4	μµf
Frequency Cutoff ( $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v$ )	fhfb	8	mc
Minimum Frequency Cutoff $(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v)$	fhfb	5	me min
Surrent Gain $(I_B = 20 \mu a; V_{CE} = 1v)$	hre	40	me mm
Ainimum Base Current Gain	hre	23	
Aaximum Base Current Gain	hre	135	
		100	
Conversion Gain	CG.	25	db
F Amplifier Performance			uo
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	4	
Collector Current	Ic	5	volts
nput Frequency	f	1	ma
vailable Power Gain	r Ge	455	KC
finimum Power Gain in typical IF circuit	G.	39	db
ower Gain Range of Variation in typical IF circuit	G.	28	db min
, provide a succession of the	<u>.</u>	3	db
utoff Characteristics			
collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Ico	.5	
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	Ico	.5	.µa
		3	µa ma <b>x</b>

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

The General Electric Type 2N169 transistor is a rate-grown NPN germanium device, intended for use as an IF amplifier in broadcast radio receivers. The collector capacity is controlled to a uniformly low value so that neutralization in most circuits is not required. Power gain at 455KC in a



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

typical receiver circuit is restricted to a 2.5db spread. The uniformity provided by the controls of collector capacity and power gain allows easy and economical incorporation of this type into receiver circuits. The 2N169 has special high beta characteristics required in the final stage of reflex IF circuits where large audio gain is desired.

### IF TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ )	VCER		
Collector to Base (emitter open)	VCBR	15 15	volts
	1000	10	voits
Current			
Collector	İc	äh	
Concetor	46	-20	mā
Power			
	-L-1		
Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{C}}$	65	mw
-			
Temperature			
Operating and Storage	TA, TSTG	-55 to 85	•C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:** (25°C)			
Reflex IF Amplifier Service			
Maximum Ratings			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	9	
Concert Dupper, Contage	V CQ	3	volts
Design Center Characteristics			
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 \text{ KC except as noted}$	)		
Input Impedance	Zi	700	ohms
Output Impedance	Zo	700	K ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio ( $V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 mc$ )	hrb	10	$\times 10^{-3}$
Collector to Base Capacitance ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ )	Cob	2.4	μμf
Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	fhfb	8	mc
Base Current Gain (Ic = 1 ma; $V_{CE} = 1v$ )	hre	72	me
Minimum Base Current Gain	hre	32	
Reflex IF Amplifier Performance			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	5	volts
Collector Current	Ic	2	ma
Input Frequency	f	455	KC
Minimum Power Gain in Typical IF Circuit	Ge	27	db
Power Gain Range of Variation in Typical IF Circuit	Ge	2.5	db
		2.0	ap
Cutoff Characteristics			
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Ico	.5	μa
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	Ico	.5	μa μa max
		0	THE WEEK
*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient t	emperature.		

\*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.

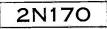
2N169A

The General Electric type 2N169A is a rate-grown NPN germanium transistor recommended for high gain RF and IF amplifier service and general purpose industrial applications where high beta, high voltage, low collector capacity and extremely low collector cutoff current are of prime importance.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	Vcbo Vceo Vebo			25 25 5	voltš volts volts
Current Collector	Ie			-20	må
Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc			65	mw
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Tj			—55 to 85 —55 to 85	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
DC Characteristics		Min.	Design Center	Max.	
Collector to Emitter Voltage (RBE = 10 K; Ic = .3 ma) Reach-through Voltage Forward Current Transfer Ratio	VCER VRT	25 25			
(Ic = 1 ma; Vce = 1v) Base Input Voltage $(Ic = 1 ma; Vce = 1v)$ Saturation Voltage $(IB = .5; Ic = 5 ma)$	hfe Vbe Vce(sat) Ico	34 .1** .13**	72 .14 .23 .9	200 .2** .4** 5	ща
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ ; $V_{CB} = 15v$ ) Emitter Current ( $I_C = 0$ ; $V_{EB} = 5v$ )	IEO		.9		µa.
Low Frequency Characteristics					
$(V_{CE} = 5v; I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } f = 270 \text{ cps})$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hfe hob hib hrb		50 .2 55 2		$\mu mhos ohms \  imes 10^{-4}$
<b>High Frequency Characteristics</b>					
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 1 mo; f = 455 KC)$ Base Spreading Resistance Output Capacity Forward Current Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	r'b Cob hfe hoe hie hrb		$250 \\ 2.4 \\ 30 \\ 140 \\ 700 \\ 10$		$\mu \mu f$ $\mu mhos$ hms $\times 10^{-3}$
Noise Figure ( $B_w = 1 \text{ cycle}$ ) (f=1 KC; Vcs = 1.5v; I <sub>E</sub> = -0.5 ma) (Common Emitter) Power Gain (Typical IF Test Circuit) Available Power Gain Cutoff Frequency	NF Ge Ge fhfb	27	12 28 39 9		db db db mc

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*These limits are design limits within which 98% of production normally falls.



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

The 2N170 is a rate grown NPN germanium transistor intended for use in high frequency circuits by amateurs, hobbyists, and experimenters. The 2N170 can be used in any of the many published circuits where a low voltage, high frequency transistor is necessary such as for re-

generative receivers, high frequency oscillators, etc. If you desire to use the 2N170 NPN transistor in a circuit showing a PNP type transistor, it is only necessary to change the connections to the power supply.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)			
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ )	VCER	9	volts
Current Collector	Ic	20	ma
Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc	25	mŵ
Temperature Operating and Storage	Ta, Tstg	—55 to 85°	°C

TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:	(25°C)		
High Frequency Characteristics			
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 \text{ KC}$ except a	s noted)		
Input Impedance (Common Emitter)	Zi	800	ohms
Output Impedance (Common Emitter)	Zo	15	Kohms
Collector to Base Capacitance $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob	2.4	μµf
Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	faitb	4	mc
Power Gain (Common Emitter)	Ge	22	db
Low Frequency Characteristics			
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CE} = 5v; f = 270 \text{ cps})$			
Input Impedance	hib	55	ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio	hrb		$\times 10^{-4}$
Current Gain	hrb	.95	/( =0
Output Admittance	hob	.5	$ imes 10^{-6}$ µmhos
Common Emitter Base Current Gain	hre	20	/ = 0 /
Cutoff Characteristics			
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Ico	3	µa max
*Derate 1 mu/°C increase in ambie	nt tommorotuno		

\*Derate 1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

The 2N186A, 2N187A, and 2N188A are medium power PNP transistors intended for use as audio output amplifiers in radio receivers and quality sound systems. By unique process controls the current gain is maintained at an essentially constant value for collector currents from 1 ma to 200 ma. This linearity of current gain provides

2N186A, 2N187A 2N188A

Outline Drawing No. 1

200 ma. This linearity of current gain provides low distortion in both Class A and Class B circuits, and permits the use of any two transistors from a particular type without matching in Class B Circuits. These types may be substituted for Types 2N186, 2N187, 2N188 respectively.

SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25	°C)				
Voltage Collector to Base (emitter open) Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Emitter to Base (collector open)	Vcbo Vcer Vebo			$-25 \\ -25 \\ -5$	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ic			200	ma
Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc			200	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Operating Storage	TA TSTG			-55 to 75 -55 to 85	°C
TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERIST	TCS: (25°C)				
Class B Audio Amplifier Operation		2N186A	2N187A	2N188A	
(Values for two transistors. Note that is not required to kold distortion to 5% for any two transistors from a ty	less than				
Maximum Class B Ratings (Common Em	itter)				
Collector Supply Voltage Power Output (Distortion less than 5%)	Vcc Po	$-12 \\ 750$	$-12 \\ 750$	$-12 \\ 750$	volts mw
Design Center Characteristics					
Input Impedance (large signal base to base $(\triangle I_{\mathbb{B}} = 100 \text{ ma})$	se) hie	1200	2000	2600	oĥms
Base Current Gain $(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$ Base Current Gain	hfe	19-31	25-42	34-65	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -100 \text{ ma})$ Collector Capacity	hfe	24	36	54	
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1 mc)$ Frequency Cutoff $(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = -1 mc)$	Cob na) fhfb	40	40	40 1.2	μμf mc
Class B Circuit Performance (Common E	mitter)				
Collector Voltage Minimum Power Gain	Vcc	-12	-12	12	volts
at 100 mw power output	Ge	24	26	28	min db
Class A Audio Amplifier Operation (Com	mon Emitter)				
$(V_{CC} = 12v; I_E = 10 \text{ ma})$ Power Gain at 50 mw power output	Ge	34	36	38	db
Cutoff Characteristics					
Maximum Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CBO} = -25v$ )	Ico	-16	-16	-16	max μa
$\begin{array}{l} \text{Maximum Emitter Cutoff Current} \\ (\text{V}_{\text{EBO}} = -5\text{v}) \end{array}$	IEO	10	-10		max μa
*Dorate 1.0 mm/90 in masses	in an hinne to		OFOO		

\*Derate 4.0 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

219

2N189, 2N190, 2N191, 2N192

Outline Drawing No. 1

The 2N189, 2N190, 2N191, and 2N192 are alloy junction PNP transistors intended for service in transistorized audio amplifiers. By control of transistor characteristics during manufacture, a specific power gain is provided for each type. Special processing techniques and the use of hermetic seals provides stability of these characteristics throughout life.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)						
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ )	VCER				_25	volts
Current	V CER					vons
Collector	Ic				-50	ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C)*	Pc				75	mw
Temperature Operating Storage	Tj Tstg				55 to 60 55 to 85	°C °C
TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:	(25°C)					
Audio Driver Class A Operation		2N189	2N190	2N191	2N192	
(Values for one transistor driving a transf coupled output stage)	ormer					
Maximum Class A Ratings (Common Emitter	)					
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	-12	-12	-12	-12	volts
Design Center Characteristics						
Current Gain (VCE = $-1v$ ; Ic = $-20$ ma)	hfe	25-42	34-65	$50-125 \\ 40$	$70-176 \\ 40$	c
Collector Capacity ( $V_{CB} = -5v$ ; $I_E = -1$ ma) Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = -5v$ ; $I_E = -1$ ma)	Сов fhfb	40	$40 \\ 1.0$	1.2	1.5	μμf mc
Noise Figure (VcB = $-5v$ ; I <sub>E</sub> = $-1$ ma;						
f = 1  KC; BW = 1  cycle)	NF	15	15	15	15	db
Audio Circuit Performance (Common Emitter						les?
Collector Supply Voltage Emitter Current	Vcc IE	-12 -1	-12 -1	-12	-12 -1	volts ma
Minimum Power Gain at 1 mw power output	G.e	37	39	41	43	min db
Small Signal Characteristics						
$(V_{C} = -5v; I_{E} = -1 m_{a}; f = 1 KC)$						
Input Impedance	hib hie	$\frac{29}{1000}$	$\frac{29}{1400}$	$\frac{29}{1800}$	$\begin{array}{c} 29 \\ 2200 \end{array}$	ohms ohms
Input Impedance base to emitter Voltage Feedback Ratio	hrb	4	1400	1800	2200	× 10-4
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	32	42	67	90	/ - ·
Current Amplification	hes hos	97	977.8	985	989	μmhos
Output Admittance	110 B	1.0	.0	.0	.0	μπποs
Cutoff Characteristics Maximum Collector Cutoff Current						
$(V_{CB} = -25v)$	Ico	-16	-16	-16	-16	max µa
*Derate 2.0 mw/°C increase in an	mbient ten	nperature	above 25	°C.		

2N241A

The 2N241A is a medium power PNP transistor intended for use as an audio output amplifier in radio receivers and quality sound systems. By unique process controls the current gain is maintained at an essentially constant value for collector currents from 1 ma to 200 ma. This linearity of

Outline Drawing No. 1

collector currents from 1 ma to 200 ma. This linearity of current gain insures low distortion in both Class A and Class B circuits, and permits the use of any two transistors from a particular type without matching in Class B circuits.

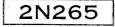
#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)			
Voltage Collector to Base (emitter open) Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Emitter to Base (collector open)	Vcbo Vcer Vebo	-25 -25 -5	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ic	-200	ma
Power Collector Dissipation	Pc	200*	mw
Temperature Operating Storage	Tj Tstg	—55 to 75 —55 to 85	°C °C

TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)			
Class B Audio Amplifier Operation (Values for two transistors. Note that matching is not required to hold distortion to less than 5% for any two transistors from a type)			
Maximum Class B Ratings (Common Emitter)			
Collector Supply Voltage Power Output (Distortion less than 5%)	Vcc Po	$-12 \\ 750$	volts
Design Center Characteristics		-	
Input Impedance large signal base to base ( $\Delta I_E = 100 \text{ ma}$ ) Forward Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -1v$ ; $I_C = 20 \text{ ma}$ ) Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -1v$ ; $I_C = -100 \text{ ma}$ ) Collector Capacity ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ ; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ ) Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ ; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ )	hie hFE hFE Cob fhtb	$\begin{array}{r} 4000 \\ 50 \text{ to } 125 \\ 73 \\ 40 \\ 1.3 \end{array}$	ohms µµf mc
Class B Circuit Performance (Common Emitter)			
Collector Voltage Minimum Power Gain at 100 mw power output	Vcc Ge	$-12 \\ 31$	volts min db
$\frac{\text{Class A Audio Amplifier Operation (Common Emitter)}}{(\text{Vcc} = -12\text{v}; \text{I}_{\text{E}} = 10 \text{ ma})}$ Power Gain at 50 mw power output	Ge	<b>4</b> 0	db
Cutoff Characteristics			ab
Maximum Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CBO} = -25v$ ) Maximum Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EBO} = -5v$ )	Ico Ieo	$^{-16}_{-10}$	inax μa max μa
*Derate 4 mw/°C increase in ambient tem	perature within range	25°C to 75°C	

\*Derate 4 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature within range 25°C to 75°C.

The 2N265 is an alloy junction PNP transistor intended for driver service in transistorized audio amplifiers. By control of transistor characteristics during manufacture, a specific power gain is provided for each type. Special processing techniques and the use of hermetic seals provides stability of these characteristics throughout life.



**Outline Drawing No. 1** 

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)			
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ )	VCER	25	volts
Current Collector	Ič	50	ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C)*	Pc	75	mw
Temperature Operating Storage	T <sub>J</sub> T <sub>STG</sub>	-55 to 60 -55 to 85	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°)**			
Audio Driver Class A Operation			
(Values for one transistor driving a transformer coupled output stage)			
Maximum Class A Ratings (Common Emitter)			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	-12	volts
Design Center Characteristics			
IInput Impedance base to emitted ( $I_E = -1 ma$ )	hie	4000	ohms
Current Gain (Vcc = $-1v$ ; Ic = $-20$ ma)	hre	99-176	
Collector Capacity ( $V_{CB} = -5v$ ; $I_E = -1 ma$ ) Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = -5v$ ; $I_E = -1 ma$ )	Cob	40	$\mu\mu\mathbf{f}$
Noise Figure (VCB = $-5v$ ; IE = $-1$ ma;	furb	1.5	me
f = 1  KC; BW = 1  cycle)	NF	8	db
Audio Circuit Performance (Common Emitter)			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	-12	volts
Emitter Current	IE	l	ma
Minimum Power Gain at 1 mw power output	Ge	45	min db
Small Signal Characteristics (Common Base)			
$(V_{C} = -5v; I_{E} = -1 \text{ ma; } f = 1 \text{ KC})$			
Input Impedance Voltage Feedback Ratio	hib	29	ohms
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	115	$\times 10^{-4}$
Output Admittance	hob	.5	μmhos
Cutoff Characteristics			
Maximum Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CBO} = -25v$ )	Ico	-16	max µa

\*Derate 2.0 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C. \*\*Values are typical unless indicated as minimum or maximum.

2N292. 2N293

Outline Drawing No. 3

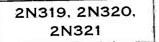
Types 2N292 and 2N293 are rate grown NPN germanium transistors intended for amplifier applications in radio receivers. Special manufacturing techniques provide a low value and a narrow

COLLIGATIONS

in many circuits is not required. The type 2N293 is intended for receiver circuits where high gain is needed. In IF amplifier service the range in power gain is controlled to 2.5 db.

IF TRANSISTOR SPEC	CIFICATIO	ONS		
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)		2N292	2N293	
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{EB} = 10K$ ) Collector to Base (emitter open)	VCER VCBO	$\overset{15}{15}$	15 15	volts volts
Current Collector	Ic	20	20	ma
Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc	65	65	mw
Temperature Operating and Storage	TA, TSTG	—55 to 85 —	55 to 85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)** IF Amplifier Service				
Maximum Ratings Collector Supply Voltage	Vco	12	12	volts
$\frac{\text{Design Center Characteristics}}{\text{Input Impedance (IE = 1 ma; VCE = 5v; f = 455 KC)}$	Zi	500	350	ohms
Output Impedance ( $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 \text{ KC}$ )	Zo	15	15	K ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Collector to Base Capacitance	hrb	10 2.4	5 2.4	$\times$ 10 <sup>-3</sup> $\mu\mu f$
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Frequency Cutoff $(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CB} = 5v)$ Base Current Gain $(V_{CE} = 1v; I_C = 1 \text{ ma})$ Minimum Base Current Gain	Cob fhfb hfe hfe hfe	$2.4 \\ 5 \\ 25 \\ 8 \\ 51$	2.4 8 25 8 51	mc
Maximum Base Current Gain IF Amplifier Performance			_	
Collector Supply Voltage Collector Current Input Frequency Minimum Power Gain in Typical IF Test Circuit Power Gain Range of Variation in Typical IF Circuit	Vcc Ic f Ge Ge	$5\\1\\455\\25.5\\2.5$	51 455 28 2.5	volts ma KC db'min db
$\frac{\text{Cutoff Characteristics}}{\text{Collector Cutoff Current (VcB} = 5v)}$ Collector Cutoff Current (VcB = 15v)	Ico Ico	.5 5	.5 5	μa μa max

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C. \*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

The 2N319, 2N320, and 2N321 are miniaturized versions of the 2N186A series of G-E transistors. Like the prototype versions, the 2N319, 2N320, and 2N321 are medium power PNP transistors intended for use as audio output amplifiers in radio receivers and quality sound systems. By unique process controls the current gain is main-

tained at an essentially constant value for collector currents from 1 ma to 200 ma. This linearity of current gain provides low distortion in both Class A and Class B circuits, and permits the use of any two transistors from a particular type without matching in Class B Circuits.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°	<b>C</b> )		
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Collector to Base Emitter to Base	Vcer Vcbo Vebo	$-20 \\ -30 \\ -3$	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ĭœ	-200	ma

Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc				
Temperature	an sea			225	mw
Operating	Тл				
Storage	TSTG			-65 to 85 65 to 100	°C O°
TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTIC	S: (25°C)			00 10 100	C
D.C. Characteristics		2N319	2N320	2112.27	
Current Gain (Ic = $-20$ ma;		211312	21320	2N321	
$V_{CE} = -1v$	hre	25-42	34-65	53-121	
Current Gain (Ic = $-100$ ma; Vce = $-1y$ )			01.00	00-121	
VCE = -1V Collector to Emitter Voltage (R <sub>BE</sub> = 10K;	hfe	31	45	70	
1c = .6  ma	VCER	-20	-		
Collector Cutoff Current (VCB-25v)	ICO	-20	20	-20	volts
Maximum Collector Cutoff Current		-0	-0	-8	μa
$(V_{CB} = -25_V)$	Ico	-16	-16	16	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = -3v$ )	IEO	2	2	-2	μa
Small Signal Characteristics (Common Base	<u>)</u>				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; f = 270 \text{ cps})$					
Frequency Cutoff Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	fhrb	2.0	2.5	3.1	me
Noise Figure	Cob NF	25	25	25	μµf
Input Impedance	hib	30 30	6	6	db
Thermal Characteristics	ALID	30	30	30	ohms
Thermal Resistance					
Without Heat Sink (Junction to Air)		0.0			
With Clip On Heat Sink (Junction to Case)		.27	.27	.27	°C/mw
Performance Data (Common Emitter)		~Z	.2	.2	°C/mw
Class A Power Gain $(Vcc = -9v)$	Ge	00			
Power Output	Po	33 50	35	38	db
Class B Power Gain ( $Vcc = -9v$ )	G.	26	$\frac{50}{28}$	50 31	mw
Power Output	Po	100	100	100	db mw
*Derate 3.7 mw/°C increase in	ambient temp		0500	100	111 11

C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C. 3.7 mw/

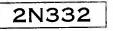
The 2N322, 2N323, 2N324 are alloy junction PNP transistors intended for service in audio amplifiers. They are miniaturized versions of the 2N190 series of G.E. transistors. By control of transistor characteristics during manufacture, a specific power gain is provided for each type. Special processing techniques and the use of hermetic seals provides stability of these characteristics throughout life.

2N322,	2N323,
2N3	324

**Outline** Drawing No. 2

#### SPECIFICATIONS

	CONTRACTO	143			
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage					
Collector to Emitter ( $B_{BE} \leq 10$ K)	VCER			-16	
Collector to Base	Vсво			-16	volts volts
Current				10	voits
Collector	Ic			-100	ma
Power				100	ma
Collector Dissipation	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{C}}$			140	'nw
Temperature					
Operating Storage	TA			-65 to 60	°C
	$\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{STG}}$			-65 to 85	°Č
TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTIC	S: (25°C)				
D.C. Characteristics		2N322	2N323	211224	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio		214322	211323	2N324	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	hre	34-65	53-121	72-198	
Collector to Emitter Voltage		04-00	00-121	72-196	
$(R_{EB} = 10K; I_{C} =6 \text{ ma})$	VCER	16	-16	-16	volts
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = -16v$ ) Max. Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = -16v$ )	Ico	-10	-10	-10	μa
Small Signal Characteristics	Ico	-16	-16	-16	μa
Frequency Cutoff $(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = -1 ma)$	c				
Collector Capacity ( $V_{CB} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1$ ma)	fhrb	2.0	2.5	3.0	mc
Noise Figure (VCB = $-5v$ : $IE = 1$ ma)	NF	25 6	25	25	$\mu\mu f$ db
Input Impedance ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ ) Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ )	hie	2200		3300 <sup>6</sup>	db ohms
Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}$ )	hre	45	68	85	onms
Thermal Characteristics			00	ΟQ	
Thermal Resistance Junction to Air		4	4	*	(0.01
Performance Data Common Emitter		-	4	4	mw/°C
Power Gain Driver ( $Vcc = 9v$ )	Ge	10			
Power Output	Po	42 1	43	44	db
		1	1	1	mw



The General Electric Type 2N332 is a silicon NPN transistor intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits.

Outline Drawing No. 4 They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All tran-sistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage Collector to Base (Emitter Open) Emitter to Base (Collector Open)	Усво Vево			45 1	volts volt
Current Collector	Ic			25	ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C) Collector Dissipation (100°C) Collector Dissipation (150°C)	Pc Pc Pc			$150 \\ 100 \\ 50$	mw mw mw
Temperature Storage Operating	$ \begin{array}{c} T_{\rm STG} \\ T_{\rm A} \end{array} $			5 to 200 5 to 175	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: $(25^{\circ}C)$ (Unless otherwise specified $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $I_{E} = -1$ mo; $f = 1$ kc)					
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Power Gain	hre hib hrb hob	9 30 .25 0.0	$15 \\ 43 \\ 1.5 \\ .25$	$22 \\ 80 \\ 5.0 \\ 1.2$	ohms $\times 10^{-4}$ $\mu$ mhos
$(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 1 kc; R_G = 1K ohms; R_L = 20K ohms)$ Noise Figure	Ge NF		35 20		db db
High Frequency Characteristics					
Frequency Cutoff (VCB = $5v$ ; IE = $-1$ ma)	fnev		10		me
Collector to Base Capacity ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $I_E = -1$ ma; $f = 1$ mc)	Cop		7		μµf
Power Gain (Common Emitter) ( $V_{CB} = 20v$ ; $I_E = -2 \text{ ma; } f = 5 \text{ mc}$ )	Ge		14		đЪ
D-C Characteristics					
	hre		14		
Collector Breakdown Voltage ( $I_{CBO} = 50 \ \mu a; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C$ )	VCBO	45			volts
Collector Cutoff Current $\langle V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C \rangle$ $\langle V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 0; T_A = 150^{\circ}C \rangle$	Ісво Ісво		.002	2 50	μа μа
Collector Saturation Resistance $(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}; I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	Rsc		90	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics $(I_{B_1} = 0.5 \text{ ma}; I_{R_2} = -0.5 \text{ ma};$ $I_C = 5.0 \text{ ma})$					
Delay Time	ta		.7		µsec
Rise Time Storage Time	tr ts		.65 .4		μsec μsec
Fall Time	tr		.13		μsec

2N332

Certified to meet MIL-T-19500/37A

**Outline** Drawing No. 4

The General Electric Type 2N333 is a silicon NPN transistor intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits.



trequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All tran-sistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C	2)				
Voltage					
Collector to Base (Emitter Open) Emitter to Base (Collector Open)	VCBO VEBO			45 1	volts volt
Current					
Collector	Ic			25	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation (25°C) Collector Dissipation (100°C)	Pc			150	mw
Collector Dissipation (100 C)	Pc Pc			$^{100}_{50}$	mw mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		_6	65 to 200	
Operating	T <sub>A</sub>		-6	5 to 175	$^{\circ}{}^{\circ}$
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C	)				
(Unless otherwise specified $V_{CB} = 5v;$ $f_E = -1 ma; f = 1 kc)$					
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance	hre	18	30	44	
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hib hrb	$^{30}_{.25}$	$^{43}_{2.0}$	80 10.0	$^{ m ohms}_{ m  imes$ 10-4
Output Admittance Power Gain	hab	0.0	.2	1.2	μmhos
$(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 1 kc; R_G = 1 K ohms; R_L = 20 K ohms)$	C		00		
Noise Figure	Ge NF		$39 \\ 15$		db db
High Frequency Characteristics					
Frequency Cutoff					
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$ Collector to Base Capacity	furb		12		me
(Vcs = $5v$ ; IE = $-1$ ma; f = 1 mc) Power Gain (Common Emitter)	Cob		7		$\mu\mu f$
$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 5 mc)$	Ge		14		db
D-C Characteristics					
Common Emitter Current Gain					
$(V_{CE} = 5v; I_C = 1 ma)$ Collector Breakdown Voltage	hrs		31		
$(I_{CBO} = 50 \ \mu a; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$ Collector Cutoff Current	Vсво	45			volts
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		.002	2	μa
$(V_{CB} = 5v, I_E = 0, T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$ Collector Saturation Resistance	Ісво			$5\overline{0}$	$\mu a$
$(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}; I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	Rsc		80	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics					
$(I_{B_1} = 0.5 \text{ ma}; I_{B_2} = -0.5 \text{ ma};)$					
Ic = 5.0 ma)	•		05		
Delay Time Rise Time	ta tr		.65 .55		μsec μsec
Storage Time Fall Time	ts tr		.75		μsec
	**		.1.4		μsec

# **USN 2N333**

Per MIL-T-19500/37A

**Outline Drawing No. 4** 



**Outline** Drawing No. 4

The General Electric Type 2N334 is a silicon NPN transistor intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and

extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All transistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C	)				
Voltage					
Collector to Base (Emitter Open) Emitter to Base (Collector Open)	VCBO VEBO			45 1	volts volt
Current					
Collector	Iĉ			25	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation (25°C) Collector Dissipation (100°C)	Pc Pc			$\begin{array}{c} 150 \\ 100 \end{array}$	mw mw
Collector Dissipation (150°C)	Pc			50	mw
Temperature	<b>m</b>				
Storage Operating	TSTG TA			5 to 200 5 to 175	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: $(25^{\circ}C)$ (Unless otherwise specified V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v; $l_{\rm E} = -1$ ma; f = 1 kc)					
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio	hre	18	39	90	
Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hib hrb	30 .5	$\frac{43}{2.5}$	80     10.0	$\times 10^{-1}$
Output Admittance	hob	0.0	.18	1.2	μmhos
Power Gain ( $V_{CE} = 20v$ ; $I_E = -2 ma$ ; $f = 1 kc$ ;					
$R_G = 1K$ ohms; $R_L = 20K$ ohms)	Ge NF		40 15		db
Noise Figure	IN F		19		db
High Frequency Characteristics					
Frequency Cutoff $(V_{CB} = 5v)$ IF = -1 ma)	fhfb	8.0	13		me
$(\hat{V}_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$ Collector to Base Capacity		0.0			
$(V_{CR} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1 mc)$ Power Gain (Common Emitter)	Cob		7		μμf
$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 5 mc)$	Ge		13		db
D-C Characteristics					
Common Emitter Current Gain	1 (		0.0		
$(V_{CE} = 5v; I_C = 1 ma)$ Collector Breakdown Voltage	hfé		38		
$(I_{CBO} = 50 \ \mu a; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$ Collector Cutoff Current	Vсво	45			volts
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		.002	2	μa
$(V_{CB} = 5_V; I_E = 0; T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$ Collector Saturation Resistance	Iceo			50	μa
$(I_B = 1 ma; I_C = 5 ma)$	Rsc		75	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics					
$(I_{B_1} = 0.5 \text{ ma}; I_{B_2} = -0.5 \text{ ma};$					
$I_{\rm C} = 5.0  { m ma}$ ) Delay Time	ta		.65		μsec
Rise Time	tr		.55		µsec
Storage Time Fall Time	ts tr		$.80 \\ .15$		μsec μsec

### Per MIL-T-19500/37A

# **USN 2N334**

**Outline** Drawing No. 4

The General Electric Type 2N335 is a silicon NPN transistor intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed Bed Mounting design for

2N335

**Outline Drawing No. 4** 

extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All tran-sistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

SP	ECIFICATIONS				
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)	)				
Voltage					
Collector to Base (Emitter Open) Emitter to Base (Collector Open)	<b>V</b> сво Vево			45 1	volts volt
Current					
Collector	Ic			25	mą
Power					
Collector Dissipation (25°C) Collector Dissipation (100°C)	Pc			150	mw
Collector Dissipation (100 C)	Pc Pc			100 50	mw mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		-65	5 to 200	°C
Operating	Та			5 to 175	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
(Unless otherwise specified $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $I_E = -1$ ma; f = 1 kc)					
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	'Nom.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance	hfe hib	37	60	90	
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hrb	30 .5	43 3.0	80 10.0	$^{ m ohms}_{ m  imes 10^{-4}}$
Output Admittance Power Gain	hob	0.0	.15	1.2	μmho <b>s</b>
$(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 1 kc; R_G = 1 K ohms; R_L = 20 K ohms)$	Ge		40		31
Noise Figure	NF		42 12		db db
High Frequency Characteristics					
Frequency Cutoff	6		7 m		
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$ Collector to Base Capacity	fufb		14		me
$(V_{CR} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1 mc)$ Power Gain (Common Emitter)	Сов		7		μμf
$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 5 mc)$	Ğ.		13		db
D-C Characteristics					
Common Emitter Current Gain	1		Fig		
$(V_{CE} = 5v; I_C = 1 ma)$ Collector Breakdown Voltage	hfe		56		
$(I_{CBO} = 50 \ \mu a; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$ Collector Cutoff Current	Vсво	45			volts
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво Ісво		.002	$\frac{2}{50}$	μa
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 0; T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$ Collector Saturation Resistance					μа
$(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}; I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	Rsc		70	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics					
$(I_{B_1} = 0.5 \text{ ma}; I_{B_2} = -0.5 \text{ ma}; I_C = 5.0 \text{ ma})$					
Delay Time	ta		.6		μsec
Rise Time Storage Time	Ťr ts		.5		μsec μsec
Fall Time	tr		.15		µsec

**USN 2N335** 

Per MIL-T-19500/37A

**Outline Drawing No. 4** 



**Outline Drawing No. 4** 

The General Electric Type 2N336 is a silicon NPN transistor intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for

are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All tran-sistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability. their electrical stability.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage Collector to Base (Emitter Open) Emitter to Base (Collector Open)	Vсво Vево			$45 \\ 1$	volts volt
Current Collector	Ic			2,5	ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C) Collector Dissipation (100°C) Collector Dissipation (150°C)	Pc Po Pc			$\begin{array}{c}150\\100\\50\end{array}$	mw mw mw
Temperature Storage Operating	Тътб Та			to 200 to 175	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: $(25^{\circ}C)$ (Unless otherwise specified V <sub>CB</sub> = $5v$ ; $J_{E} = -1$ ma; $f = 1$ kc)					
Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Power Gain	hte hib hrb hob	76 30 .5 0.0	$120 \\ 43 \\ 4.0 \\ .13$	$333 \\ 80 \\ 10.0 \\ 1.2$	${\rm ohms} \ {\rm \times 10^{-4}} \ {\rm \mu mhos}$
(Ver = 20v; Ir = $-2 \text{ ma}$ ; f = 1 ke; Re = 1K ohms; Rr = 20K ohms) Noise Figure	Ge NF		43 10		db db
High Frequency Characteristics					
Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $I_E = -1 ma$ ) Collector to Base Capacity	fnfb		15		me
(V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v; I <sub>E</sub> = $-1$ ma; f = 1 mc) Power Gain (Common Emitter) (V <sub>CB</sub> = 20v; I <sub>E</sub> = $-2$ ma; f = 5 mc)	Cob Ge		7 12		μμf đb
$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{D-C Characteristics} \\ \hline \textbf{Common Emitter Current Gain} \\ (V_{CE} = 5v; \ \textbf{Ic} = 1 \ \textbf{ma}) \end{array}$	hre		100		
Collector Breakdown Voltage (I <sub>CB0</sub> = 50 $\mu$ a; I <sub>E</sub> = 0; T <sub>A</sub> = 25°C)	Vсво	45			volts
Collector Cutoff Current (V <sub>CB</sub> = 30v; I <sub>E</sub> = 0; T <sub>A</sub> = 25°C) (V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v; I <sub>E</sub> = 0; T <sub>A</sub> = 150°C)	Ісво Ісво		.002	$\frac{2}{50}$	μа μа
Collector Saturation Resistance ( $I_B = 1 ma; I_C = 5 ma$ )	Rsc		70	200	ohms
$\frac{\text{Switching Characteristics}}{({\rm Is}_1=0.5~{\rm ma};{\rm Is}_2=-0.5~{\rm ma};}$					
Ic = 5.0 ma) Delay Time	ta		.5		μsee
Rise Time	tr		.4 1.4		μsec μsec
Storage Time Fall Time	ts tr		1.2		μsec

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The General Electric Types 2N332A, 2N333A, 2N334A, 2N335A, 2N336A, are silicon NPN transistors intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-

2N332A - 2N336A

Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe condi-tions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCBO VEBO	45 45 4	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ic	25	ma
Power Collector Dissipation RMS	Pc @ 25°C (Free Air) Pc @ 150°C (Free Air)	500 83	mw mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Tj	-65 to 200 -65 to 175	°C °C

#### 2N332A, 2N333A

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

			2N332	A		2N333/	<b>A</b>	
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage (Ic = 50 $\mu$ a, IE = 0)	Vсво	45			45			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $I_B = 0$ , $I_C = 1$ ma)	VCEO	45			45			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage $(I_E = 100 \ \mu a, I_C = 0)$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio (low current)	Vebo	4			4			volts
(Ic = 1 ma, Vc = 5v)	hfe		16			27		
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}, I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		.5	1.0		.45	1.0	volts
$\frac{\text{Cutoff Characteristics}}{\text{Collector Current}}$ (V <sub>CB</sub> = 30v; I <sub>E</sub> = 0;								
$T_A = 25$ °C) Collector Current (high temperature) (VCB = 30v; IE = 0;	Ісво		ĩ	500		1	500	mμa
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$ ) Collector Emitter Current (V <sub>CE</sub> = 30v; I <sub>B</sub> = 0;	Ісво		,Î	20		1	20	μa
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$	Iceo		60			60		μa
Low Frequency Characteristics								
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1000 cps)$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance	hre hte	9 270	$\frac{16}{750}$	$22 \\ 1760$	$\frac{18}{540}$	30 1300	$\begin{array}{r} 44\\3520\end{array}$	ohms
Output Admittance Voltage Feedback Ratio	hoe hre	0.0	$3.5 \\ .7$	20	0.0	5.0 1.0	25	$\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$
Input Impedance	hib	30	40	80	30	40	80	ohms
Output Admittance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hob hrb	$0.0 \\ .25$	$.25 \\ 1.2$	$1.2 \\ 5$	$0.0 \\ .25$	$1.2^{2}$	$^{1.2}_{10}$	$^{\mu  m mhos}_{ imes 10^{-4}}$
Noise Figure ( $B_w = 1$ cycle)	NF	.20	1.2	30	.20	13	30	db
High Frequency Characteristics	Common Base	<u>)</u>						
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 \text{ ma})$ Output Capacity $(f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Cutoff Frequency Power Gain (Common Emitter)	Cob fhfb	2.5	.10 10	15	2.5	7 11	15	μμf mc
$(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma; f = 5 mc)$	G		11			11 con	tinued r	db next page

2N334A, 2N335A

### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (25°C)

		143m	2N334			2N335		
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage (Ic = 50 $\mu$ a, IE = 0)	Vсво	45			45			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage (In = 0, Ic = 1 ma) Emitter to Base Voltage	VCEO	45			45			volts
(IE = 100 $\mu$ a, IC = 0) Forward Current Transfer Ratio (low current)	VEBO	4			4			volts
(Ic = 1 ma, VcE = 5v)	hře		36			45		
Saturation Voltage ( $I_B = 1 \text{ ma}, I_C = 5 \text{ ma}$ )	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		.42	1.0		.4	1.Ö	volts
Cutoff Characteristics								
Collector Current								
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		1	500		1	500	mμa
Collector Current	10.00		-			-	000	
(high temperature)								
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0;$	<b>T</b>		1	20		1	20	
$T_A = 150$ °C) Collector Emitter Current	Ісво		T	20		بالر	-20	μa
$(V_{CE} = 30v; I_B = 0;$								
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$	ICEO		60			60		μa
Low Frequency Characteristics								
$(\hat{V}_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma;)$								
f = 1000  cps)								
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	18	38	90	37	52	90	
Input Impedance	hie	540	1700	7200	1110	2000	7200	ohms
Output Admittance	hoe	0.0	$6.0 \\ 1.3$	30	0.0	$7.0 \\ 1.5$	30	$\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$
Voltage Feedback Ratio	hre hib	30	40	80	30	40	80	ohms
Input Impedance Output Admittance	hob	0.0	.18	1.2	0.0	.15	1.2	µmhos
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hrb	.50	1.2	10	.50	1.2	10	× 10-4
Noise Figure ( $B_w = 1$ cycle)	NF	• 4	12	30		11	30	db
Low Frequency Characteristics (C	ommon Base)							
$(\mathbf{V}_{CB} = 5\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{I}_{E} = -1 \mathbf{m}_{a})$	Cob		7	15		7	15	$\mu\mu f$
Output Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$ Cutoff Frequency	fhtb	8.0	12	10	2.5	13	10	mc
Power Gain (Common Emitter)	*#10	5.0	14		2.0	10		
$(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma;)$								
f = 5 mc	Ge		12			12		db.

2N336A

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (25°C)

			2N3364	χ	
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage					
$(Ic = 50 \ \mu a, Ie = 0)$	Vсво	45			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(I_B = 0, I_C = 1 ma)$	VCEO	45			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage	VEBO	4			wolte
$(IE = 100 \ \mu a, IC = 0)$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio	VEBO	.4			volts
(low current)					
(Ic = 1  ma,  Vc = 5v)	hee		75		
Saturation Voltage	1.1.1		14.00		
$(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}, I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		.4	1.0	volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current					
$(V_{CB} = 30v; I_E = 0)$					
$T_{A} = 25^{\circ}C$	Ісво		ï	500	mua
Collector Current	ACD0		-	00.0	
(high temperature)					
$(V_{CB} = 30_{V}; I_{E} = 0;$			1		
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$	Ісво		1	20	$\mu a$
Collector Emitter Current					
$(V_{CE} = 30v; I_B = 0;$	Teres		60		11.00
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$	ICEO		00		μa.

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Low Frequency Characteristics						
$\begin{array}{c} (V_{CB}=5v; l_{E}=-1 \text{ ma}; \\ f=1000 \text{ cps}) \\ Forward Current Transfer Ratio \\ Input Impedance \\ Output Admittance \\ Voltage Feedback Ratio \\ Input Impedance \\ Output Admittance \\ Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio \\ Noise Figure (B_{w}=1 \text{ cycle}) \end{array}$	hfe hoe hre hib hob hrb NF	$\begin{array}{c} 76\\ 2280\\ 0.0\\ 30\\ 0.0\\ .50\end{array}$	9537002.340.131.211	$333 \\ 15,000 \\ 35 \\ 80 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30$	ohms $\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$ ohms $\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$ db	
<b>High Frequency Characteristics</b>	(Common Base)					
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$ Output Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$ Cutoff Frequency Power Gain (Common Emitter) $(V_{CE} = 20v; I_E = -2 ma;$	Сов fhfb	.2.5	7 15	15	μμf mc	
f = 5  mc	Ge		12		đb	

The General Electric Type 2N335B is a silicon high voltage NPN transistor intended for amplifier applica-tions in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switching circuits. They are grown junc-tion devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These tran-sistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configura-tion conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. All transistors are cycle-aged at a temperature of 200°C for a minimum of 160 hours to enhance their electrical stability.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)	)				
Voltage					
Collector to Base	Vсво			60	volts
Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCEO VEBO			60	volts
Limiter to base	VEBO			4	volts
Current					
Collector	Ĩc			25	ma
	10			20	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation RMS	Pc @ 25°C	(Free Air)		500	mw
	Pc @ 150°C	(Free Air)		83	mw
·					
Temperature Stanson	_				
Storage Operating Junction	T <sub>STG</sub> T†			5 to 200	°C
operating function	1 J		6	5 to 175	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage			• , .	mux.	
$(Ic = 50 \ \mu a, IE = 0)$	Vсво	60			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage $(I_B = 0, I_C = 1 m_A)$	¥7				_
Emitter to Base Voltage	VCEO	60			volts
$(I_E = 100 \ \mu a, I_C = 0)$	VEBO	4			volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (low current) ( $Ic = 5 \text{ ma}, Vce = 10v$ )	hre	id o			
Saturation Voltage (I <sub>B</sub> $\equiv 1$ ma, I <sub>C</sub> $\equiv 5$ ma)	UFE VCE(SAT)	28	45 .4	90 1.0	volts
Input Impedance $(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}, I_C = 0)$	VBE		.4	1.0	volts
-				_	
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current					
$(V_{CB} = 30v, I_E = 0, T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		1	500	mμa
Collector Current (high temperature) (VCB = $30v$ , I <sub>E</sub> = 0, T <sub>A</sub> = $150^{\circ}C$ )	Ісво				,
Collector Emitter Current	10 80		1	20	μa
$(V_{CE} = 30v, I_B = 0, T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$	ICEO		<b>6</b> 0		
			00		μa

#### Low Frequency Characteristics

$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 \text{ ma; } f = 1000 \text{ cps.}$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance Output Admittance Voltage Feedback Ratio Input Impedance Output Admittance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Noise Figure $(B_w = 1 \text{ cycle})$	hfe hte hce hre hib hob hrb	37     1110     0.0     30     0.0     .50     .50	5220007.01.540.151.211	$90 \\ 7200 \\ 30 \\ 80 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 1.2 \\ 10 \\ 30 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10$	ohms $\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$ ohms $\mu$ mhos $\times 10^{-4}$ db
High Frequency Characteristics (Common $(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 \text{ ma})$ Output Capacity (f = 1 mc)         Cutoff Frequency         Power Gain (Common Emitter) $(V_{CE} = 20v, I_E = -2 \text{ ma}, f = 5 \text{ mc})$	Cob furb Ge	2.5	7 13 12	15	μμf mc db

2N337, 2N338

**Outline Drawing No. 4** 

The General Electric Types 2N337 and 2N338 are high-frequency silicon NPN transistors intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for high-speed switching cirouts. They are group importion devices with a

cuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. For electrical reliability and parameter stability, all transistors are subjected to a minimum 160 hour 200°C cycled aging operation included in the manufacturing process. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Emitter to Base	Vсво Vево						$45 \\ 1$	volts volt
Current Collector	Ic						20	ma
Power Collector Dissipation*	Pc						125	mw
Temperature Storage Operating	Tstg Ta						to 200 to 150	°C O°
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: $(25^{\circ}C)$ (Unless otherwise specified; $V_{CB} = 20v; I_{E} = -1 mo;$ $f = 1 kc)$ 2N337								
Small-Signal Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Current Transfer Ratio Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Output Admittance	hfë hib hrb	$\frac{19}{30}$	$55 \\ 47 \\ 180$	80 2000	39 30	99 47 200	80	ohms
	hob		.1	1		.1	$2000 \\ 1$	$ imes 10^{-6}$ $\mu  m mho$
High-Frequency Characteristics							2000	
High-Frequency Characteristics Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Capacitance ( $f = 1$ mc) Common Emitter Current Gain		10			20		2000 1 3	

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TRANSISTOR	SPECIFICATIONS

D-C Characteristics								
Common Emitter Current Gain								
$(V_{CE} = 5_{v}; I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma})$	hfE	20	35	55	45	75	150	
Collector Breakdown Voltage	~ *							
$(I_{CBO} = 50 \ \mu a; I_E = 0)$	Vсво	45			45			volts
Emitter Breakdown Voltage $(I_{EBO} = -50 \ \mu a; I_{C} = 0)$	17	1			7			
Collector Saturation Resistance	VEBO	1			1			volt
$(I_B = 1 \text{ ma}; I_C = 10 \text{ ma})$	Rsc		75	150				ohms
$(I_B = .5 \text{ ma}; I_C = 10 \text{ ma})$	Rsc		10	100		75	150	ohms
							100	omna
Cutoff Characteristics								
Collector Current								
$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = 0; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		.002	1		.002	1	μa
Collector Current	-							
$(V_{CB} = 20v; I_E = 0; T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$	Ісво			100			100	μa.
Switching Characteristics								
Rise Time	tr		.02			.06		usecs
Storage Time	ts		.02			.02		usecs
Fall Time	tr		.04			.14		usees

\*Derate 1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C

Per MIL-S-19500/69B

The General Electric 2N377 is a germanium NPN alloy transistor. It is designed for computer switching and general purpose usages where tight control of current gain is important.

# USN 2N337-2N338

Outline Drawing No. 4



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C) Voltage Collector to Base Vсво 25volts Collector to Emitter $V_{CER}$ (R = 5K) 20 volts Emitter to Base VEBO ĩš volts Power Dissipation\* Рт 150 mw Temperature Storage TSTG -55 to $\pm 100$ $^{\circ}C$ ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) **D-C Characteristics** Min. Typ. Max. Forward Current Transfer Ratio (low current) (Ic = 30 ma; VcE = 1v) Forward Current Transfer Ratio (high current) (Ic = 200 ma; VcE = .75v) Base Input Voltage (In = 10 mode Ia = .200 ma) 20 60 hre 20hre $(I_B = 10 \text{ ma}; I_C = 200 \text{ ma})$ V<sub>BE</sub> 1.5volts **Cutoff Characteristics** Collector Current (IE = 0; V<sub>CB</sub> = 1<sub>V</sub>) (IE = 0; V<sub>CB</sub> = 20<sub>V</sub>) Emitter Current (Ic = 0; V<sub>EB</sub> = 1<sub>V</sub>) (Ic = 0; V<sub>EB</sub> = 15<sub>V</sub>) Collector to Emitter Current (V<sub>CB</sub> = 20<sub>U</sub>, B<sub>CB</sub> = 5<sub>V</sub>, V<sub>CB</sub> = 5<sub>V</sub>) Ico 5 11.9 2Ŏ Ico μa Ino 5 шa IEO 1ŏ μa $(V_{CE} = 20v; R_{BE} = 5K; V_{BE} = -5v)$ ICEX 50 μa High Frequency Characteristics (Common Base) $(V_{CB} = 6v; I_E = 1.0 \text{ ma})$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Capacity (f = 1 mc)fnth $12^{6}$ mc Cob 20 pf **Switching Characteristics** $(I_{C} = 200 \text{ ma}, I_{B1} = 10 \text{ ma}; I_{B2} = 10 \text{ ma})$ Rise Time tr *µ*sec Storage Time Fall Time ts 0.7usec te 1.0 *usec*

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C rise above 25°C ambient temperature.



The General Electric 2N388 is a germanium NPN alloy transistor designed for low power, medium speed switching service where high gain and control of switching parameters is important.

### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage					
Collector to Base	Vсво			25	volts
Collector to Emitter	VCER (R =	= 10K)		20	volts
Emitter to Base	Vebo			15	volts
Current					
Collector	Ic			200	ma
Power					
Total Transistor Dissipation*	Pr			150	mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		65	to +100	°C
Operating Junction	TJ		-00	+100 + 100	°C
				1 - 00	0
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C	)				
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
$(I_{\rm C} = 30 \text{ ma; } V_{\rm CE} = 0.5 \text{v})$	hre	60		180	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Ic = 200  ma, VcE = 0.75 v)	hre	30			
Base Input Voltage					
$(I_B = 4 \text{ ma, Ic} = 100 \text{ ma})$	VBE			0,8	volts
Base Input Voltage ( $I_B = 10 \text{ ma}, I_C = 200 \text{ ma}$ )	VBE		0.8	1.5	volts
(1B = 10  ma, 10 = 200  ma)	* 115		0.0	1.0	VOIt3
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $IE = 0$ , $VCB = 25v$ )	Ico			10	μa.
Collector Current (IE = 0, VCB = $1v$ )	Ico			5	μa
Emitter Current (Ic = 0, $V_{EB} = 15v$ )	IEO			10	$\mu a$
Emitter Current (Ic = 0, $V_{EB} = 1v$ )	IEO			5	μa
Collector to Emitter Current $(V_{CE} = 20v, R_{BE} = 10K)$	τ			Éo	un d
(VCE = 20V, RBE = 10K)	ICER			50	μâ
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(\mathbf{V}_{CB} = 6\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{I}_{E} = 1 \mathbf{m}_{a})$					
Alpha Cutoff, Frequency	fhfb	5			me
Collector Capacity $(f = 2 mc)$	Сор		12.0	20	pf
Switching Characteristics					
Switching Characteristics					
(Ic = 200 ma, IB1 = 10 ma, $iB2$ = 10 r Rise Time			.50	1.0	μsec
Storage Time	tr ts		.30	.70	µsec µsec
Fall Time	tr		.20	.70	µsec

\*Derate 2 mw/°C rise above 25°C ambient temperature.

**USN 2N388** 

Per MIL-T-19500/65

Outline Drawing No. 2

The General Electric Type 2N394 is a germanium PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for general purpose applications where economy is of prime importance. As a special control in manufacture, all 2N394 transistors are subjected to a high pressure detergent test



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

to enhance reliable hermetic seals and are also aged at a temperature of 100°C for 96 hours minimum.

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage

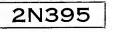
voltage			
Collector to Base	Vсво	-30	volts
Collector to Emitter	Vceo	10	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO		volts
Current			
Collector	Ic/	-200	ma
			104
Power			
Power Dissipation*	$\mathbf{P_T}$	150	mw
Peak Power Dissipation**		150	mw
(50 µsec. Max 20% duty cycle)	Po	500	mw
Temperature			
Storage	TSTG	-65 to 100	°C
Operating Junction	$T_J$	85	°C
		00	0

### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
D-C Base Current Gain					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 ma)$	hre	20	70		
$(V_{CE} = -1_{v}; I_{C} = -100 \text{ ma})$	hre	10	40		
Saturation Voltage			10		
$(I_B = -1.0 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		04	15	volts
Base Input Voltage				120	voits
$(I_B = -1.0 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	VBE		27	35	volts
Collector to Base Voltage					TORS
$(Ic = -100 \ \mu a)$	Vсво	30			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage					( OIL)
$(Ic = -100 \ \mu a)$	VEBO	-20			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R_{BE} = 10K \text{ ohms}; Ic = -600 \ \mu a)$	VCER	- 15			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage					10. 10 - 20m
$(Ic = -600 \ \mu a)$	Vceo	-10			
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $V_{CB} = -10v$ )	Ісво			0	
Emitter Current ( $V_{EB} = -5v$ )	Ісво		-2.5	6	μa
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	10	-2.0	-6	μa
neach-thioligh voltage	VRT	-10	-25		volts
High Frequency Characteristics (Comm	on Base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 ma)$					
Alpha-Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	4	9		me
Collector Capacitance $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob	-	12	20	μµf
Base Spreading Resistance	r'b		150	20	ohms
*D			-54		Q.IIII3

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C for temperatures over 25°C.

\*\*Derate 8.33 mw/°C for temperatures above 25°C.



The General Electric type 2N395 is a PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for military, industrial, and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance.

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R \leq 10 K$ )	VCER	-15	volts
Collector to Base	Vсво	-30	volts
Emitter to Base	Vebo	-20	volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	-200	ma
Power			
Dissipation	Pr	200	mw
Peak Power Dissipation*			
(50 µsec. max. 20% duty cycle)	Pe	500	mw
Temperatures,			
Storage	Tstg	-65 to 100	°C
Operating Junction	Тз	+85	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
D-C Base Current Gain					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	hre	20		150	
$(V_{CE} = -0.35v; I_C = -200 ma)$	hfe	10			
Saturation Voltage					
$(I_B = -5 \text{ ma}; I_C = -50 \text{ ma})$	$V_{CE}^{(SAT)}$		-0.1	-0.2	volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Cutoff Current					
$V_{CB} = -15y$	Ісво		-2.5	-6	µamps
Emitter Cutoff Current (VEB = $-10v$ )	Ієво		-2.0	6	µamps
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-15	_30		volts
			4		
High Frequency Characteristics (Commo	n base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 ma)$					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	3	4.5		me
Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob		12	20	μµ££
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 mc)$	hrb		9		imes 10-8
Base Spreading Resistance	r'b		130	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics					
$(l_{c} = -10 \text{ ma}; l_{B1} = l_{B2} = 1.0 \text{ ma})$					
Delay Time	ta		.21		μsec

Delay Thie	-u		
Rise Time	tr	.55	μsec
Storage Time	ts	.50	$\mu sec$
Fall Time	tr	.40	μsec

\*Derate 8.33 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

The General Electric type 2N396 is a PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for military, industrial, and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance.

2N396

Outline Drawing No. 2

#### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Collector to Base Emitter to Base	VCER VCBO VEBO	-20 -30 -20	volts volts volts
Current			
Collector	Íç		ma
Power			
Dissipation Peak Power Dissipation* (50 µsec. max. 20% duty cycle)	Pr p.	200 500	mw mw
Temperatures			
Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Tj	$\begin{array}{r}-65 \text{ to } 100\\+85\end{array}$	°C °C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
D-C Base Current Gain					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 ma)$	hre	30		150	
$(V_{CE} = -0.35v; I_C = -200 \text{ ma})$	hre	15			
Saturation Voltage					
$(I_B = -3.3 \text{ ma}; I_C = -50 \text{ ma})$	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		-0.08	-0.2	volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Cutoff Current					
$(V_{CB} = -20v)$	ICBO		-2.5	-6	µamps.
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = -10v$ )	IEBO		-2.0	-6	µamps
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-20	35		volts
High Freqency Characteristics (Commo	n base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 ma)$					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fhib	5	8		mc
Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob		12	20	$\mu\mu f$
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 mc)$	hrb		10		$\times 10^{-3}$
Base Spreading Resistance	r′ь		140	200	ohms
Switching Characteristics					
$(I_{C} = -10 \text{ ma}; I_{B1} = I_{B2} = 1.0 \text{ ma})$					
Delay Time	ta		.19		μsec
Rise Time	tr		.40		µsec
Storage Time	ts		.60		μsec
Fall Time	tr		.31		<i>µsec</i>

\*Derate 8.33 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.



The General Electric Type 2N396A transistor is a PNP alloy medium frequency germanium triode intended primarily for industrial switching applications.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage				
	VCE0		-20	volts
Collector to Emitter	Vсво		-30	volts
Collector to Base	VEB0		-20	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBU		20	
Current				
Collector	Ia		-200	ma
Power				
Dissipation*	Pr		200	mw
Peak Dissipation**	pe		500	mw
Temperature				
Storage	TSTG	-6	5 to 100	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)				
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Mox.	
D-C Forward Current Transfer Ratio				
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	hre	30	150	
$(V_{CE} =35v; I_C = -200 \text{ ma})$	hre	15		
Low Temperature D-C Forward Current				
Transfer Ratio				
$(T_A = -55^{\circ}C; V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	hre	20		
Saturation Voltage Collector-Emitter				
$(I_{\rm C} = -50 \text{ ma}; I_{\rm B} = 3.3 \text{ ma})$	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		20	volts
Collector to Base (Ic = $-100 \ \mu a$ )	Vсво	30		volts
Emitter to Base (IE = $-100 \ \mu a$ )	VEBO	-20		volts
Collector to Emitter (Ic = $-600 \ \mu a$ )	VCEO	-20		volts
Cutoff Characteristics				
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = -20v$ )	Ісво		-6	μa
High Temperature Collector Cutoff Current				
$(T_A = +71^{\circ}C; V_{CB} = -20v)$	Ісво		-120	$\mu a$
Collector Cutoff Current				
$(V_{BE} = +2.0v; V_{CE} = -20v; R = 10K)$	ICEV		-6	μ <b>a</b> .
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = -10v$ )	Іево		-6	$\mu \mathbf{a}$
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-20		volts
High Frequency Characteristics (Common Base)				
$(\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{CB}} = -5\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{E}} = 1  \mathbf{ma})$	c	<i>_</i>		mcs
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	5	20	pf
Open Circuit Output, Capacitance $(f = 1 mc)$	Сов		20	pr
Switching Characteristics				
$(Ic = -10 ma; I_{B1} = I_{B2} = 1.0 ma)$		0.10	0.20	μsec
Delay Time	ta	0.10	0.20	μsec μsec
Rise Time	tr	0.20	0.80	µsec µsec
Storage Time	ts	0.25	0.80	μsec
Fall Time	tř	0.20		<b>M</b> 000

\*Derate 3.33 mw/°C for increase in ambient temperature above 25°C. \*\*Derate 8.33 mw/°C for increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

**USN 2N396A** 

Per MIL-S-19500/64A

**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

The General Electric type 2N397 is a PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for military, industrial, and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance,



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R \leq 10 K$ )	VCER	-15	volts
Collector to Base	Vсво	_30	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO	20	volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	-200	ma
Power			
Dissipation	PT	200	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{w}$
Peak Power Dissipation*			
$(50 \ \mu sec. max. 20\% duty cycle)$	pc	500	mw
Temperatures			
Storage	TSTG	65 to 100	°C
Operating Junction	Тл	+85	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
D-C Base Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -1v$ ; Ic = -10 ma) ( $V_{CE} = -0.35v$ ; Ic = -200 ma)	hre hre	40 20		150	
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = -2.5 \text{ ma}; I_C = -50 \text{ ma})$	VCE(SAT)		-0.07	-0.2	volts

#### **Cutoff Characteristics**

Collector Cutoff Current					
$(V_{CB} = -15v)$	Ісво		-2.5	-6	$\mu$ amps
Emitter Cutoff ( $V_{EB} = -10v$ )	Іево		-2.0	-6	$\mu$ amps
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-15	-20		volts

### High Freqency Characteristics (Common base)

$(\mathbf{V}_{CB} = -5\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{I}_{E} = 1 \mathbf{m}_{a})$					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	farb	10	12		mc
Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob		12	20	μμf
Voltage Feedback Ratio $(f = 1 mc)$	hrb		11		$ imes 10^{-8}$
Base Spreading Resistance	r'b		160		ohms

#### **Switching Characteristics**

$(I_{C} = -10 \text{ ma}; I_{B1} = I_{B2} = 1.0 \text{ m}$	ma)		
Delay Time	ta	.17	μsec
Rise Time	tr	.3	μsec
Storage Time	ts	.7	μsec
Fall Time	tr	.28	μsec
	in the big make to make a make the second state of the second		

\*Derate 8.33 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

MILLING BATILLOS



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

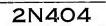
The General Electric Type 2N404 is a germanium PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor, intended for military, industrial and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

10000

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)	,				
Voltage Collector to Emitter Collector to Base Emitter to Base	VCEO VCBQ VEBO			$-24 \\ -25 \\ -12$	
Current Collector	To			-100	ma
Power Dissipation*	$\mathbf{Pr}$			120	mw
Temperature Storage	TSTG		-6	65 to 85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
<b>D-C Choracteristics</b> Collector to Base Voltage (Ic = $-20 \ \mu a$ ) Emitter to Base Voltage (IE = $-20 \ \mu a$ )	Vсво Vево	Min. 25 12	<b>Typ</b> . 45 40	Max.	volts volts
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = -4 \text{ ma; Ic} = -12 \text{ ma})$ $(I_B = -1 \text{ ma; Ic} = -24 \text{ ma})$ Base Input Voltage	$\begin{array}{c} V_{CE}(\text{SAT}) \\ V_{CE}(\text{SAT}) \end{array}$		—.1 —.14	$15 \\20$	
$(I_{B} =4 \text{ ma}; I_{C} = -12 \text{ ma})$ $(I_{B} = -1 \text{ ma}; I_{C} = -24 \text{ ma})$	VBE VBE		24 32	$35 \\40$	
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current (VcB = $-12$ volts; IE = 0) (VcB = $-12$ volts; IE = 0; TA = 80°C) Evitter Current	Ісво Ісво		2	$-5 \\ -90$	μ <b>a</b> μa
Emitter Current ( $V_{EB} = -2.5$ volts; Ic = 0) Reach-through Voltage	IEBO Vrt	-24	$^{-1}_{-40}$	-2.5	μa volts
High-Frequency Characteristics					
Alpha-Cutoff Frequency ( $V_{CB} = -6$ volts; $I_E = 1$ ma)	fhfb	4	8		mc
Collector Capacitance ( $V_{CB} = -6$ volts; $I_E = 1$ ma)	Cob		12	20	μμf
Stored Base Charge $(I_B = 1 \text{ ma; } I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	Qsb			1400	$\mu\mu coulombs$

\*Derate 2.86 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.



Certified to meet MIL-T-19500/20

This is a PNP Germanium Alloy Triode transistor intended

for general use as a medium speed switch or amplifier.

Outline Drawing No. 2

2N413

Outline Drawing No. 2

#### SPECIFICATIONS

# ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Emitter to Base	Vcro Vero	$-30 \\ -20$	volts volts
Collector to Emitter	VCEO	-18	volts
Collector to Emitter ( $V_{BE} = +0.1$ volts)	VCEX	-25	

<b>Current</b> Collector Peak Collector	Ic ie			$-200 \\ -400$	ma ma
<b>Power</b> Total Transistor Dissipation*	$\mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{T}}$			150	mw
Temperature Storage	TSTG		-65	to +85	°G
ELECTRICAL SPECIFICATIONS: (25°C)					
$\begin{array}{l} \underline{\textbf{D-C Choracteristics}}\\ \hline Collector to Base Voltage (Ic = -100 \ \mu a) \\ Emitter to Base Voltage (IE = -100 \ \mu a) \\ Collector to Emitter Voltage (Ie = -600 \ \mu a) \\ Collector Cutoff Current (VcB = -12v) \\ Emitter Cutoff Current (VEB = -12v) \end{array}$	<b>V</b> СЕО Vево Vсео Ісво Іево	Min. 30 20 18	Тур.	Max. 5 5	volts volts µa µa
$\label{eq:A-C Characteristics} \hline (V_{CB} = -6v, I_E = 1 ma, f = 1 kc unless otherwise noted) \\ Common Emitter Current Gain \\ Output Capacity (f = 1 mc) \\ Voltage Feedback Ratio (f = 1 mc); \\ Base Spreading Resistance \\ Input Resistance \\ Alpha Cutoff Frequency \\ \end{array}$	hte Cob hrb h'b hib fhrb		$30 \\ 12 \\ .6 \\ 100 \\ 28 \\ 6$		pf × 10−3 ohms ohms mcs

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C for increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

This is a PNP Germanium Alloy Triode transistor intended for general use as a medium speed switch or amplifier.

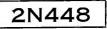
2N414 Outline Drawing No. 2

### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Emitter to Base Collector to Emitter Collector to Emitter ( $V_{BE} = +0.1v$ )	VCBO VEBO VCEO VCEX			$-30 \\ -20 \\ -15 \\ -20$	volts volts volts
<b>Current</b> Collector Peak Collector	IC Ic			$-200 \\ -400$	ma ma
<b>Power</b> Total Transistor Dissipation*	$\mathbf{P_T}$			<b>15</b> 0	mw
Temperature Storage	Tsrg		(	65 to 85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
$\begin{array}{l} \underline{\textbf{D-C Choracteristics}}\\ \hline Collector to Base Voltage (I_C = 100 \mu a)\\ Emitter to Base Voltage (I_E = -100 \ \mu a)\\ Collector to Emitter Voltage (I_C = -600 \ \mu a)\\ \hline Collector Cutoff Current (V_{CB} = -12_V)\\ Emitter Cutoff Current (V_{EB} = -12_V)\\ \end{array}$	<b>V</b> сво <b>V</b> ево <b>V</b> сео Ісво Іево	Min. 30 20 15	Тур.	Max. —5 —5	volts volts volts µa µa
$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \underline{A\text{-C Characteristics}}\\ \hline (Vcs = -6v, l_E = 1 ma, f = 1 kc \\ unless otherwise noted)\\ \hline Common Emitter Current Gain\\ \hline Output Capacity (f = 1 mc)\\ \hline Voltage Feedback Ratio (f = 1 mc)\\ \hline Base Spreading Resistance\\ \hline Input Resistance\\ \hline Alpha Cutoff Frequency\\ \end{array}$	hre Cob hrb r'b hib fhrb		$60 \\ 12 \\ .8 \\ 120 \\ 28 \\ 7$		pf × 10 <sup>-3</sup> ohms ohms mcs

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C for increase in ambient temperatures above 25°C.



The General Electric Type 2N448 transistor is a rate-grown NPN germanium device intended for IF amplifier applications in radio receivers. Special manufacturing techniques provide a low value and a narrow spread in collector capacity so that neutralization in many circuits is not required.

In IF amplifier service, the range in power gain is controlled to 2.5 db.

### IF TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

## ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R_{EB} = 10K$ )	VCER	15	volts
Collector to Base (emitter open)	Vсво	15	volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	-20	ma
Collector	14		
Power			
Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	Pc	65	mw
Temperature			
Operating and Storage	TA, TSTG	-55 to 85	°C
Operating and Storage	14, 1810	001000	2
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:**			
IF Amplifier Service			
Maximum Ratings			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	12	volts
Confector Suppry Voltage	(00		
Design Center Characteristics			
Input Impedance (IE = 1 ma; $V_{CE} = 5v$ ; $f = 455 \text{ KC}$		500 15	ohms K ohms
Output Impedance (I <sub>E</sub> = 1 ma; V <sub>CE</sub> = 5v; $f = 455$ KC	) Zo	15	K onms
Voltage Feedback Ratio	1	10	$\times 10^{-3}$
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$ Collector to Base Capacitance	hrb	.10	X 10 -
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$	Cob	2.4	μμf
Frequency Cutoff ( $IE = 1$ ma; $VCB = 5v$ )	fhrb	5	mc
Base Current Gain (Ic = 1 ma; $V_{CE} = 1v$ )	hre	25	
Minimum Base Current Gain	hfe	8	
Maximum Base Current Gain	hre	51	
IF Amplifier Performance			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vec	-5	volts
Collector Current	Ic	1	ma
Input Frequency	f	455	KC
Minimum Power Gain in Typical IF Test Circuit	Ge	23	db min
Power Gain Range of Variation in Typical IF Circuit	Ge	2.5	db
Cutoff Characteristics			
Cutoff Characteristics	Tee	r	
Collector Cutoff Current (VcB = $5v$ )		.5	μa μa max
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	100	J	μα шах

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

\*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.

The General Electric Type 2N449 transistor is a rate-grown NPN germanium device, intended for use as an IF amplifier in broadcast radio receivers. The collector capacity is controlled to a uniformly low value so that neutralization in most circuits is not required. Power gain at 455KC in a



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

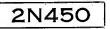
typical receiver circuit is restricted to a 2.5db spread. The uniformity provided by the controls of collector capacity and power gain allows easy and economical incorporation of this type into receiver circuits. Type 2N449 has special high beta characteristics required in the final stage of reflex IF circuits where large audio gain is desired.

### IF TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ )	VCER	15	volts
Collector to Base (emitter open)	Vсво	15	volts
Concettor to Euler (children open)			
Current			
Collector	Ic		ma
Power			
Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	Pc	65	mw
Conector Dissipation at 25 C	10	00	111.00
Temperature			
Operating and Storage	TA. TSTG	55 to 85	°C
operating and storage	14, 1816		Ģ
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:** (25°C)			
Reflex IF Amplifier Service			
Maximum Ratings			
	**	9	14
Collector Supply Voltage	Voc	9	volts
Design Center Characteristics			
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
$(l_E = 1 ma; V_{CE} = 5v;$			
f = 455 KC except as noted) Input Impedance	Zi	700	ohms
Output Impedance	Zo	$\frac{7}{10}$	K ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ ) Collector to Base Capacitance ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ ; $f = 1 \text{ mc}$ )	hrb	2.4	$\times 10^{-3}$
Frequency Cutoff ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Cob	2.4	μμf mc
Base Current Gain ( $Ic = 1 ma; Vce = 1v$ )	hfb hff	72	me
Minimum Base Current Gain		32	
Minimum Base Current Gain	hff.	52	
Reflex IF Amplifier Performance			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	5	volts
Collector Current	Ic	2	ma
Input Frequency	f	455	KC
Minimum Power Gain in Typical IF Circuit	G <sub>e</sub>	24.5	db
Power Gain Range of Variation in Typical IF Circuit	Ge	24.5	đb
Tonos oum nange of variation in Typical IF Cheut	Ue .	4.0	au
Cutoff Characteristics			
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Ico	.5	μa
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	Ico	5	µa max
		0	

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.



The General Electric Type 2N450 is a germanium PNP alloy junction high frequency switching transistor intended for military, industrial and data processing applications where high reliability at the maximum ratings is of prime importance. As a special control in manufacture, all 2N450

transistors are subjected to a high pressure detergent test to enhance reliable hermetic seals and are also aged at a temperature of 100°C for 96 hours minimum.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Base	Vсво	-20	volts
Collector to Emitter	VCEO	-10	volts
Emitter to Base	Vebo	-12	volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	-125	ma
Peak Collector Current (50 µsec 20% Duty Cycle)	ie	350	ma
Power			
Dissipation	Рт	150	mw*
Peak Power Dissipation (50 µsec 20% Duty Cycle)	Pe	350	mw**
Temperature			
0	T	65 40 85	°C

Storage	1 STG	-05 to 65	C
Operating Junction	Tı	85	°C

### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

. . . . . . . . .

D-C Characteristics					
D-C Base Current Gain		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -10 ma)$	hre	30	110		
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -100 ma)$	hre	15			
$(V_{EC} = -1v; I_E = -10 ma)$	hFE(INV)		17		
Saturation Voltage (IB = $5$ ma; Ic = $-10$ ma)	VCE (SAT)		04	2	volts
Base Input Voltage $(I_B =5 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	VBE(SAT)		23	35	volts
Collector to Base Voltage (Ic = $-100 \ \mu a$ )	Vсво	-20			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage (Ic = $-100 \ \mu a$ )	VEBO	-10			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage $(I_{\rm C} = -600 \ \mu a)$	Vceo	-12			volts
Collector Cutoff Current ( $I_E = 0$ ; $V_{CB} = -12v$ )	Ico			6	µа
Emitter Cutoff Current $(I_{C} = 0; V_{EB} = -6v)$	IEO			6	μa
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-12			volts

#### High Frequency Characteristics (Common Base)

$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 ma)$					
Alpha-Cutoff Frequency	fhfb	5	10		me
Alpha-Cutoff Frequency Inverse	fhfb(INV)		4		mc
Collector Capacitance $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob		12	20	$\mu\mu f$
Base Spreading Resistance ( $f = 1 mc$ )	r'b		100	200	ohms

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

\*\*Derate 5.9 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

The General Electric Silicon Unijunction Transistor is a hermetically sealed three terminal device having a stable "N" type negative resistance charactistic over a wide temperature range. A high peak current rating makes this device useful

2N489-2N494

#### **Outline Drawing No. 5**

in medium power switching and oscillator applications, where it can serve the purpose of two conventional silicon transistors. These transistors are hermetically sealed in a welded case. The case dimensions and lead configuration are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment. The Silicon Unijunction Transistor consists of a "N" type silicon bar mounted between two ohmic base contacts with a "P" type emitter near base-two. The device operates by conductivity modulation of the silicon between the emitter and base-one when the emitter is forward biased. In the cutoff, or standby condition, the emitter and interbase power supplies establish potentials between the base contacts, and at the emitter, such that the emitter is back biased. If the emitter potential is increased sufficiently to overcome this bias, holes (minority carriers) are injected into the silicon bar. These holes are swept towards base-one by the internal field in the bar. The increased charge concentration, due to these holes, decreases the resistance and hence decreases the internal voltage drop from the emitter to base-one. The emitter current then increases regeneratively until it is limited by the emitter power supply. The effect of this conductivity modulation is also noticed as an effective modulation of the interbase current.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)			
<b>Voltage</b> Emitter Reverse Interbase	$T_{ m J}=150^{\circ}{ m C}$	60 See Fig. 1	volťs
Current	. 20	see rig. 1	
RMS Emitter Peak Emitter*	$T_{\rm J} = 150^{\circ} C$	7Q	ma
Power		2	amps
AV Dissipation AV Dissipation – Stabilized***		$\begin{array}{c} 450 \\ 600 \end{array}$	mw** mw**
Temperature		000	111W**
Operating Storage		-65 to 150 -65 to 175	°C O'
*Capacitor discharge 10 (1)		-03 10 175	6

\*Capacitor discharge -10 µfd or less. \*\*Derate 3.9 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

\*\*\*Total power dissipation must be limited by external circuit.

Types 2N489-2N494 are specified primarily in three ranges of stand-off and two ranges of interbase resistance. Each range of stand-off ratio has limits of  $\pm 10\%$  from the center value and each range of interbase resistance has limits of  $\pm 20\%$  from the center value.

#### 2N489, 2N490

			2N489			2N490		
MAJOR ELECTRICAL CHARACT	ERISTICS:	Min.	Nom.	Max.	Min.	Nom.	Max	
Interbase Resistance at 25°C Junction Temperature	R <sub>RBO</sub>	4.7	5.6	6.8	6.2	7.5	9.1	kilohms
Intrinsic Stand-off Ratio Modulated Interbase Current $(I_E = 50 \text{ ma}; V_{BB} = 10v;$	η	.51	.56	.62	.51	.56	.62	KIIOMIIIS
$T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$ Emitter Reverse Current (B1 open circuit)	$I_{B_2}(MOD)$	6.8	12	22	6.8	12	22	ma
$(V_{B_2E} = 60v, T_J = 25^{\circ}C)$	IEO		.03	12		.03	12	
$(V_{B_2E} = 10v; T_J = 150^{\circ}C)$	IEO		1.8	20		1.8	20	μa. μa
MINOR ELECTRICAL CHARACTE	RISTICS; (T	vpical V	alues)					
Emitter Saturation Voltage $(I_E = 50 \text{ ma; } V_{BB} = 10 \text{ v})$								
$T_A = 25^{\circ}C$ ) Peak Point Emitter Current	VE (SAT)	2.3	3.1	3.8	2.4	3.3	4.2	völts
$(V_{BB} = 25v; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$ Valley Voltage	I <sub>P</sub> Vv	$1.1 \\ 12$	4 1.9	$\frac{12}{3.4}$	1.0	$^{4}_{1.9}$	$\frac{12}{3.5}$	μa volts
Valley Current Maximum Frequency of Oscillation $(IB_2 = 4.5 \text{ ma; Relaxation})$	Iy	12	19	35	Í1	19	31	ma
Oscillator)	fmax		0.9			0.7		mc

continued next page

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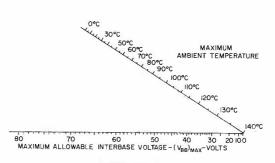
)			2N491			2N492		
MAJOR ELECTRICAL CHARACT	ERISTIÇS:	Min.	Nom.	Max	Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Interbase Resistance at 25°C								
Junction Temperature	RRBO	4.7	5.6	6.8	6.2	7.5	9.1	kilohms
Intrinsic Stand-off Ratio	η	.56	.62	.68	.56	.62	.68	
Modulated Interbase Current	.,							
$(I_E = 50 \text{ ma}; V_{BB} = 10 \text{v};$								
$T_{\Lambda} = 25^{\circ}C$	IB, (MOD)	6.8	12	22	6.8	12	22	ma
Emitter Reverse Current	- rafa							
(Bl open circuit)								
$(V_{B_2E} = 60v; T_J = 25^{\circ}C)$	IEO		.03	12		.03	12	$\mu a$
$(V_{B_{2}E} = 10v; T_{J} = 150^{\circ}C)$	IEO		1.8	20		1.8	20	μa
-								•
MINOR ELECTRICAL CHARACT	ERISTICS: (1	'ypical V	alues)					
Emitter Saturation Voltage								
$(I_E = 50 \text{ ma}; V_{BB} = 10 \text{v};$								
$T_{A} = 25^{\circ}C$	VE(SAT)	2.5	3.4	4.3	2.7	3.6	4.5	volts
Peak Point Emitter Current								
$(V_{BB} = 25v; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	IP		4	12		$2.2^{4}$	12	μa
Valley Voltage	Vv	1.2	2.2	3.9	1.2	2.2	3.9	volts
Valley Current	lv	13	.20	37	12	20	38	ma
Maximum Frequency of Oscillation	1 L							
$(I_{B_2} = 4.5 \text{ ma}; \text{Relaxation})$								
Oscillator)	fmax		0.8			0.7		me

2N493, 2N494

			2N493			2N494		
MAJOR ELECTRICAL CHARACTE	RISTICS;	Min.	Nom.	Max.	Min.	Nom.	Max.	
Interbase Resistance at 25°C								
Junction Temperature	RRBO	4.7	5.6	6.8	6.2	7.5	9.1	kilohms
Intrinsic Stand-off Ratio	η	.62	.68	.75	.62	.68	.75	
Modulated Interbase Current								
(IE = 50  ma; VBB = 10v;		5					100 100	
$T_A = 25^{\circ}C$ )	IB2 (MOD)	6.8	12	22	6.8	12	22	ma
Emitter Reverse Current								
(Bl open circuit)	-					0.0	10	
$(V_{B_2E} = 60v; T_J = 25^{\circ}C)$	IEO		.03	12		.03	12	$\mu a$
$(V_{B_2E} = 10v; T_J = 150^{\circ}C)$	Ieo		1.8	20		1.8	20	μa
MINOR ELECTRICAL CHARACTE	RISTICS: (T	ypical V	alues)					
Emitter Saturation Voltage								
$(I_E = 50 \text{ ma}; V_{BB} = 10 \text{v};$								
$T_{A} = 25^{\circ}C$	VE(SAT)	2.8	3.8	4.6	3.0	3.9	4.8	volts
Peak Point Emitter Current								
$(V_{BB} = 25v; T_A = 25^{\circ}C)$	Ip		$^{4}_{2.5}$	12		$2.5^{4}$	12	$\mu a$
Valley Voltage	Vv	1.4	2.5	4.4	1.4	$\frac{2.5}{21}$	4.3	volts
Valley Current	Iv	14	24	40	12	21	35	ma
Maximum Frequency of Oscillation								
$(IB_2 = 4.5 \text{ ma; Relaxation})$	£		0.7			0.65		
Oscillator)	<b>f</b> MAX		0.7			0.05		me

INTERBASE RESISTANCE (25°C)- R<sub>880</sub>-KILOHMS 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

RMS EMITTER POWER DISSIPATION < 40MW



## FIGURE 1

Per MIL-T-19500/75

USAF 2N489 - 2N494

**Outline Drawing No. 5** 

2N497, 2N498

**Outline Drawing No. 8** 

The General Electric 2N497 and 2N498 are silicon NPN double diffused transistors designed for Military and Industrial service for medium power audio to medium frequency applications. The low saturation voltage and low input impedance make

these devices especially suited for either high level linear amplifier or switching applications. Typical applications include servo driver and output stages, pulse amplifiers, solenoid drivers, D.C. to A.C. converters, etc.

### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (.	25°C)	2N497	2N498	
Voltage				
Collector to Base	Vсво	60	100	volts
Collector to Emitter	VCEO	60	100	volts
Emitter to Base	Vebo	8	8	volts
Power				
Transistor Dissipation				
(Free Air @ 25°C)*	Pr	.8	.8	watt
Transistor Dissipation				
(Case Temperature @ 25°C)**	Pr	4	4	watt
Temperature				
Storage	TSTG	-65 to 200	-65 to 200	°C
Operating Junction	TJ	-65 to 200	-65 to 200	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) unless otherwise specified

		2N	2N497		2N498	
<b>D-C Characteristics</b>		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage						
$(Ic = 100 \ \mu a, IE = 0)$	VCBO	60		100		volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage						
$(I_{\rm C} = 250 \ \mu a)$	VCEO	60		100		volts
Emitter to Base Voltage						
$(I_{\rm E}=250~\mu{\rm a},~I_{\rm C}=0)$	VEBO	8		8		volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio						
(Ic = 200  ma, VcE = 10v)	hfe	12	36	12	36	
Base Input Resistance						
$(I_B = 8 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} = 10 \text{v})$	hIE		500		500	ohms
Saturation Resistance						
$(I_B = 40 \text{ ma}, I_C = 200 \text{ ma})$	TCE (SAT)		25		25	ohms
Cutoff Characteristics						

Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ ,  $V_{CB} = 30v$ ) Ico

\*Derate 4.57 mw/°Cincrease in ambient temperature above 25°C. \*Derate 22.8 mw/°C increase in case temperature above 25°C.

10

10 µa

2N497A, 2N498A

The General Electric 2N497A and 2N498A are Silicon NPN double diffused transistors designed for Military and Industrial service for medium power audio to medium frequency applications. The low saturation voltage and

low input impedance make these devices especially suited for either high level linear amplifier or switching applications. Typical applications include servo driver and output stages, pulse amplifiers, solenoid drivers, D.C. to A.C. converters, etc.

### SPECIFICATIONS

## ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Vallago		2N497A	2N498A	
Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	Vсво Vсео Vево	60 60 8	100 100 <b>8</b>	volts volts volts
Power Transistor Dissipation		,	з	watt
(Free Air @ 25°C)* Transistor Dissipation (Case Temperature @ 25	PT °C)**PT	1	5	watt
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	Т <sub>5Т0</sub> Т <sub>3</sub>	-65 to 200 -65 to 200	65 to 200 65 to 200	°C °C

### CTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) unless otherwise specified

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTIC	3: (2) C/ un	ess officialse					
		2N497A		2N4	98A		
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.		
Collector to Base Voltage $(Ic = 100 \ \mu a, I_E = 0)$	<b>V</b> сво	60		100		volts	
Collector to Emitter Voltage $(I_{\rm C} = 250 \ \mu a)$	VCEO	60		100		volts	
Collector to Emitter Voltage $(I_C = 16 \text{ ma})$	VCEO	60				volts	
Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $I_C = 10 \text{ ma}$ )	VCEO			100		volts	
Emitter to Base Voltage $(I_E = 250 \ \mu a, I_C = 0)$	<b>Vebo</b>	8		8		volts	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio $(I_{\rm C} = 200 \text{ ma}, V_{\rm CE} = 10 \text{v})$	hfe	12	36	12	36		
Base Input Resistance ( $I_B = 8 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} = 10v$ )	hiE		200		200	ohms	
Saturation Resistance ( $I_B = 40$ ma, $I_C = 200$ ma)	r <sub>CE</sub> (SAT)		10		10	ohms	
Cutoff Characteristics							
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ , $V_{CB} = 30v$ ) Collector Current	Ico		10		10	μа.	
(High Temperature) ( $I_E = 0$ , $V_{CB} = 30v$ ,	leo		250		250	<i>щ</i> а.	
$T_A = 150^{\circ}C$ )	100						

\*Derate 5.72 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

\*\*Derate 28.6 mw/°C increase in case temperature above 25°C.

The 2N508 is an alloy junction PNP transistor intended for driver service in audio amplifiers. It is a miniaturized version of the 2N265 G.E. transistor. By control of transistor characteristics during manufacture, a specific power gain is provided for each type. Special processing techniques

2N508

Outline Drawing No. 2

and the use of hermetic seals provides stability of these characteristics throughout life.

### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

VCER	-16	volts
VCBO	-16	volts
Ic	-100	ma
$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{C}}$	140	mw
TA	-65 to 60	°C
TSTG	-65 to 85	°C
	Vсво Іг Рс Т▲	Vсво —16 Ic —100 Pc 140 T <sub>4</sub> —65 to 60

### TYPICAL ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

#### **D-C Characteristics**

Forward Current Transfer Ratio			
(Ic = -20 ma; Vc = -1v)	hfe	99-198	
Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ ; Ic =6 ma)	VCER	-16	volts
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = -16v$ )	Ico	-10	μa
Maximum Collector Cutoff Current (VcB $= -16v$ )	Ico	-16	μa

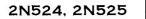
#### Small Signal Characteristics

Frequency Cutoff (VcB = $-5v$ ; IE = 1 ma)	fhfb	3.5	me
Collector Capacity (VCB = $-5v$ ; IE = 1 ma)	Cob	24	μμf
Noise Figure (V <sub>CB</sub> = $-5v$ ; I <sub>E</sub> = 1 ma)	NF	6	đb
Input Impedance ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1$ ma)	hie	3	K ohms
Current Gain ( $V_{CE} = -5v$ ; $I_E = 1$ ma.)	hre	112	

#### **Thermal Characteristics**

Thermal Resistance Junction to Air	4.0	mw/°C
Performance Data Common Emitter		

Power Gain Driver ( $Vcc = -9v$ )	Ge	45	db
Power Output	Po	i	mw



The General Electric types 2N524 and 2N525 are germanium PNP alloy junction transistors particularly recommended for low to medium power amplifier and switching application in the frequency range from audio to 100 KC. This series

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of transistors is intended for military, industrial and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance. The 2N524 and 2N525 are equivalent to the 2N44 and 2N43 respectively and may be directly substituted in most applications.

### SPECIFICATIONS

# ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10 \text{ K}$ ) Emitter to Base	VCBO VCER VEBO	45 30 15	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ĩe	-500	ma
Power Total Transistor Dissipation*	Рт	225	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating	TSTG TJ	65 to 100 85	D° D°

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#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

#### Small Signal Characteristics

(Unless o	therwise	specified	$V_{\rm C} = -5v$
common	base; le	; ≕1 m	a; f = 1 KC

		Min.	2N524 Nom.	Max,	Min.	2N525 Nom.	Max.	
Output Admittance (Input AC Open Circuited) Input Impedance	hob	.10	.65	1.3	.1	.6	1.2	μmhos
(Output AC Short Circuited)	hib	26	31	36	26	31	35	ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio (Input AC Open Circuited) Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Common Emitter; Output	hrb	1	4.0	10	.1	5.0	11	$\times 10^{-4}$
AC Short Circuited) Frequency Cutoff Output Capacity (f = 1 mc;	hre fhfb	16 ,8	$30 \\ 2.0$	$\begin{array}{c} 41 \\ 5.0 \end{array}$	$30 \\ 1$	$\frac{44}{2.5}$	$\begin{array}{c} 64 \\ 5.5 \end{array}$	me
Input AC open circuited)	Cob	18	25	40	18	25	40	μµf
Noise Figure ( $f = 1 \text{ kc}$ ; BW = 1 cycle)	NF	1	6	15	1	6	15	db
$\begin{array}{l} \underline{\textbf{D-C Characteristics}}\\ \hline \textbf{Forward Current Gain}\\ (Common Emitter, Ic/IB)\\ (VGE = -1v; Ic = -20 ma)\\ (VGE = -1v; Ic = -100 ma)\\ \textbf{Collector Saturation Voltage}\\ (Ic = -20 ma; IB as indicated)\\ \hline \textbf{Base Input Voltage,}\\ Comnion Emitter\\ (VGE = -1v; Ic = -20 ma)\\ \textbf{Collector Cutoff Current}\\ (VGB = -30v)\\ \hline \textbf{Emitter Cutoff Current}\\ (VGB = -15v)\\ \hline \textbf{Collector to Emitter Voltage}\\ (RBE = 10K ohms; IC = -6 ma)\\ \hline \textbf{L}_{int} = -6 ma)\\ \hline \textbf{Collector Saturent}\\ Constant to the saturation for th$	hfe hfe $\begin{cases} V_{CE}(SAT) \\ @ IB = \\ V_{BE} \\ ICO \\ IEO \\ V_{CER} \end{cases}$	-30			-1.33 200	-1.33	300 10	volts ma μa μa volts
Reach-through Voltage Thermal Resistance (k) Junction Temperature Rise/ Total Transistor Dissipation:	VRT	30			-30			volts
Free Air Infinite Heat Sink				.27 $.11$			.27	°C/mw °C/mw
Clip-on Heat Sink in Free Air				.20			.20	°C/mw

\*Derate 3.7 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

The General Electric types 2N526 and 2N527 are germanium PNP alloy junction transistors particularly recommended for low to medium power amplifier and switching application in the frequency range from audio to 100 KC. This series of transistor is inter dad for

2N526, 2N527

**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

of transistors is intended for military, industrial and data processing applications where high reliability and extreme stability of characteristics are of prime importance.

### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C) Voltage Collector to Base VCBO

Collector to Emitter	VCBO	45	volts
$(R_{BE} = 10 \text{ K})$ Emitter to Base	V <sub>CER</sub> V <sub>EBO</sub>	$-30 \\ -15$	volts
Current		-15	volts
Collector	Ic	- FÓO	
Power		<del>≻</del> -500	ma
Total Transistor Dissipation*	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{T}}$	007	
Temperature		225	mw
Storage Operating	${f T_{STG}}{f T_J}$	-65 to 100 85	°C O°
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERIST	ICS: (25°C)	00	C

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# Small Signal Characteristics

Unless oth	erwise specifi	ed $V_{\rm C} = -5v$
common b	ase; $I_{\rm E} = -1$	ma; $f = 1 \text{ KC}$

			2N526			2N527		
Output Admittance		Min.	Nom.	Max.	Min.		Max.	
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hop	.1	.42	1.0				
Input Impedance (Output AC Short Circuited)	hin				.1	.37	.9	$\mu$ mhos
Reverse Voltage Transfer Batio		26	30	33	26	29	31	ohms
(Input AC Open Circuited) Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Common Emitter; Output	hrö	J.	6.5	12	1	8-0	14	X 10-4
AC Short Circuited)	hre	44	64	88	60	81	120	
Frequency Cutoff Output Capacity $(f = 1 mc;$	fhfb	1.3	3.0	6.5	1.5	3.3	120	me
Input AC open circuited) Noise Figure $(f = 1 \text{ kc};$	Сов	18	25	40	18	25	40	μμf
BW = 1  cycle)	NF	1	6	15	1	6	.15	db
<b>D-C Characteristics</b>								
Forward Current Gain (Common Emitter, $I_0/I_B$ ) (VCE = $-1v$ ; $I_C = -20$ ma) (VCE = $-1v$ ; $I_C = -100$ ma) Collector Saturation Voltage	hfe hfe	53 47	73 66	90	72 65	91 86	121	
(Ic = -20  ma;) Is as indicated) Base Input Voltage,	$W_{CE}$ (SAT) @ I <sub>B</sub> =	$\overset{-55}{-1.0}$	$-80 \\ -1.0$	$^{-110}_{-1.0}$	$-60 \\67$	-90 67	$-110 \\67$	volts mà
Common Emitter $(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$ Collector Cutoff Current	VBE	- <b>.</b> 190 ·	230 -	280 -	180 -	216	260	
$(V_{CBO} = -30v)$ Emitter Cutoff Current	Ico		5	-10		-5	-10	μa
$(V_{EBO} = -15v)$ Collector to Emitter Voltage $(R_{BE} = 10K \text{ ohms};$	Ieo		-4	-10		-4	-10	μа
Ic =6 ma) Reach-through Voltage	V <sub>CER</sub> V <sub>RT</sub>	30 30			$-30 \\ -30$			volt <b>s</b> volts
Thermal Resistance (k)								
Junction Temperature Rise/ Total Transistor Dissipation: Free Air Infinite Heat Sink Clip-on Heat Sink in Free Air *Derate 3.7 mw/°C	increase in	ambient t		.27 .11 .20	250	-	.27 .11 .20	°C/mw °C/mw °C/mw
*Derate 3.7 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.								

Per MIL-S-19500/60B

# **USN 2N526**

**Outline Drawing No. 2** 



The General Electric type 2N634 is an NPN germanium alloy triode transistor designed for high speed switching applications.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Emitter to Base Collector to Emitter	Vcbo Vebo Vceo			20 15 20	volts volts volts
Current Collector Base Emitter	IC IB IE			300 50 300	ma ma ma
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	$T_{\mathbf{STG}}$ $T_{\mathbf{A}}$		_	65 to 85 85	°C
Power Dissipation	Рт			150	mw
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
Collector Voltage		Min.	Nam.	Max.	
$(Ic = 15 \ \mu amp; IE = 0)$	Vсво	20			volts
Emitter Voltage					
$(I_E = 10 \ \mu amp; I_C = 0)$ Collector to Emitter Voltage	VEBQ.	15			volts
$(I_c = 600 \ \mu amp; R = 10 \ K)$	VCER	20			volts
Collector Cutoff Current	venu	20			voits
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 0)$	Ісво			5	μamps
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	20			volts
D-C Current Gain	han	1.57			
(Ic = 200 ma; Vcc = 0.75v) Alpha Cutoff Frequency	hfE	15			
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$	fach	5	8		me

Thermal Characteristic

Derate 2.5 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

	2N	634	A
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Outline Drawing No. 2

The General Electric Type 2N634A is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switching service where control of switching parameters is important.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	$V_{CER} V_{CER} (R = 10K) V_{CEBO}$	.)		25 20 25	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	$\mathbf{I_{E}}$			300 300	ma ma
Power Dissipation*	PT			150	mw
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	${f T_{STG}}{T_f}$		6	5 to 100 85	0.
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)	except as noted				
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, Vce = $lv$ ) (Ic = 10 ma, Vce = $lv$ , TA = $-55^{\circ}$ C) (Ic = 200 ma, Vce = $.35v$ )	hru	40 25 20	55 42	120	
Base Input Voltage $(I_{\rm C} = 10 \text{ ma}, I_{\rm B} = .5 \text{ ma})$	VBE	.20	.25	.35	volts
(Ic = 200  ma, IB = 10  ma) Saturation Voltage $(Ic = 10 \text{ ma}, IB = .25)$	VCE(SAT)		.10	$1.5 \\ 0.2$	volts volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current (V <sub>CB</sub> = $25v$ , I <sub>E</sub> = $0$ )	Ісво			6	$\mu a$
$(V_{CB} = 25v, I_E = 0, T_A = 71^{\circ}C)$ Emitter Current (VEB = 25v, IC = 0)				80	μa,
Collector to Emitter Voltage	Iebo			6	$\mu a$

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C rise above 25°C ambient temperature.

2N635

The General Electric type 2N635 is an NPN germanium alloy triode transistor designed for high speed switching applications.

	SPECIFICATIONS	Outline Drawing	g No. 2
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATING	S: (25°C)		
Voltage Collector to Base Emitter to Base Collector to Emitter	VCRO VEBO VCEO	20 15 20	volts volts
Current Collector Base Emitter	$\mathbf{Ic}$ $\mathbf{IB}$ $\mathbf{IE}$	300 50 300	ma ma ma
Temperature Storage Operating Junction		-65 to 85 85	°C °C

Power					
Dissipation	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{T}}$			150	mw
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (	(25°C)				
Collector Voltage		Min.	Nom,	Max.	
$(Ic = 15 \ \mu amp; IE = 0)$	VCB0	20			volts
Emitter Voltage					
$(I_E = 10 \ \mu amp; I_C = 0)$	VEBO	15			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage		-•			Volts
$(Ic = 600 \ \mu amp; R = 10 \ K)$	VCER	20			
Collector Cutoff Current		-20			volts
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 0)$	Ісво			-	
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	20		5	µamps
D-C Current Gain	1 1 1	20			volts
(Ic = 200  ma; Vc = 0.75 v)	hre	07			
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	UFD	25			
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = -1 ma)$	<b>1</b> 2	• •			
$(v_{0}b = 0v, m = -1 ma)$	FhFb	10	12		me

#### **Thermal Characteristic**

Derate 2.5 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.

The General Electric Type 2N635A is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switch-ing service where control of switching parameters is important.

# 2N635A

Outline Drawing No. 2

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	$V_{CBO} V_{CER} (R = 10K) V_{CEB} V_{EBO}$	:)		25 20 25	volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	Ic Ie			300 300	ma ma
Power Dissipation*	Pr			150	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	$T_{STG}$ T <sub>J</sub>		-6	5°to 100 85	°C S°
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v) (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v, T_A = $-55^{\circ}$ C) (Ic = 200 ma, VcE = $.35_{\vee}$ )	hfe	Min. 80 40 40	Тур. 100 70	<b>Max</b> 240	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v) (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v, T_A = -55°C) (Ic = 200 ma, VcE = .35v) Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma, IB = .5 ma)	hfe Vbe	80 40	100	240 .32	volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, V <sub>CE</sub> = 1v) (Ic = 10 ma, V <sub>CE</sub> = 1v, T <sub>A</sub> = $-55^{\circ}$ C) (Ic = 200 ma, V <sub>CE</sub> = $.35v$ ) Base Input Voltage	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{E}'}$	80 40 40	100 70	240	volts volts volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v) (Ic = 10 ma, VcE = 1v, T_A = -55°C) (Ic = 200 ma, VcE = .35v) Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma, IB = .5 ma) (Ic = 200 ma, IB = 10 ma)	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{E}'}$	80 40 40	100 70 .24	.32 1.5	volts

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C rise above 25°C ambient temperature.



The General Electric type 2N636 is an NPN germanium alloy triode transistor designed for high speed switching applications.

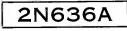
#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Emitter to Base Collector to Emitter	Vcbo Vebo Vceo			$20 \\ 15 \\ 15 \\ 15$	volts volts volts
Current Collector Base Emitter	Ic Îb If			$300 \\ 50 \\ 300$	ma ma ma
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Ta		-	65 to 85 85	°C
Power Dissipation	$\mathbf{P_{T}}$			150	mw
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTI	(CS: (25°C)	h.4.*	Maria	Mary	
Collector Voltage (Ic = 15 $\mu$ amp; IE = 0)	СS: (25°С) Vсво	<b>Min.</b> 20	Nom.	Max.	volts
Collector Voltage (I <sub>C</sub> = 15 $\mu$ amp; I <sub>E</sub> = 0) Emitter Voltage			Nom.	Max.	volts volts
Collector Voltage ( $I_C = 15 \mu amp; I_E = 0$ ) Emitter Voltage ( $I_E = 10 \mu amp; I_C = 0$ ) Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $I_C = 600 \mu amp; R = 10 K$ )	Vcbo Vebo	20	Nom.	Max,	
Collector Voltage (I <sub>C</sub> = 15 $\mu$ amp; I <sub>E</sub> = 0) Emitter Voltage (I <sub>E</sub> = 10 $\mu$ amp; I <sub>C</sub> = 0) Collector to Emitter Voltage (I <sub>C</sub> = 600 $\mu$ amp; R = 10 K) Collector Cutoff Current (VcB = 5v; I <sub>E</sub> = 0) Reach-through Voltage	Vcbo Vebo	20 15	Nom.	<b>Мо</b> ж, 5	volts
Collector Voltage ( $I_C = 15 \mu amp; I_E = 0$ ) Emitter Voltage ( $I_E = 10 \mu amp; I_C = 0$ ) Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $I_C = 600 \mu amp; R = 10 K$ ) Collector Cutoff Current (V $c_B = 5v; I_E = 0$ ) Reach-through Voltage D-C Current Gain	Vcbo Vebo Vcer Icbo Vrt	20 15 15	Nom.		volts volts µamps
Collector Voltage (I <sub>C</sub> = 15 $\mu$ amp; I <sub>E</sub> = 0) Emitter Voltage (I <sub>E</sub> = 10 $\mu$ amp; I <sub>C</sub> = 0) Collector to Emitter Voltage (I <sub>C</sub> = 600 $\mu$ amp; R = 10 K) Collector Cutoff Current (VcB = 5v; I <sub>E</sub> = 0) Reach-through Voltage	Vcbo Vebo Vcer Icbo Vrt	20 15 15 15	Nom. 17		volts volts µamps

#### **Thermal Characteristic**

Derate 2.5 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

The General Electric Type 2N636A is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switching service where control of switching parameters is important.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	$V_{CBO} \over V_{CER}$ (R = 10K) V <sub>EBO</sub>	25 15 25	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	$ \begin{matrix} {\rm Ic} \\ {\rm Ie} \end{matrix} $	300 300	ma ma
Power Dissipation*	PT	150	mw
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tsrg Tj	65 to 100 85	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (2	5°C) except as noted		

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma, Vcg = Iv) (Ic = 10 ma, Vcg = Iv, TA = $-55^{\circ}$ C) (Ic = 200 ma, Vcg = $.35v$ )	her	$100 \\ 50 \\ 50$	$\begin{array}{c} 190 \\ 125 \end{array}$	300	
$\begin{array}{l} \text{Base Input Voltage} \\ (I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma, I}_{B} = .5 \text{ ma}) \\ (I_{C} = 200 \text{ ma, I}_{B} = 10 \text{ ma}) \\ \text{Saturation Voltage (I}_{C} = 10 \text{ ma, I}_{B} = .13) \end{array}$	VBE VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>	.20	. <b>2</b> 3 .075	$.30 \\ 1.5 \\ 0.15$	volts volts volts
$\frac{Cutoff Characteristics}{Collector Current (V_{CB} = 25v, I_E = 0)}$ (V_{CB} = 25v, I_E = 0, T_A = 71°C) Emitter Current (V_{EB} = 25v, I_C = 0) Collector to Emitter Voltage	Ісво Іево Марр	15		6 80 6	μa μa μa volts
$(I_{CER} = 100 \ \mu a, R_{BE} = 10K)$	VCER	15			vons

\*Derate 2.5 mw/°C rise above 25°C ambient temperature.

The General Electric 2N656, and 2N657 are silicon NPN double diffused transistors designed for Military and Industrial service for medium power audio to medium frequency applications. The low saturation voltage and low input impedance make

2N656, 2N657

**Outline Drawing No. 8** 

these devices especially suited for either high level linear amplifier or switching applications. Typical applications include servo driver and output stages, pulse amplifiers, solenoid drivers, D.C. to A.C. converters, etc.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS:	(25°C)	2N656	2N657	
Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCEO VEBO	60 60 8	$100\\100\\8$	volts volts volts
Power Transistor Dissipation (Free Air @ 25°C)* Transistor Dissipation (Case Temperature @ 25°C)**	Pr Pr	»8 4	.8	watt watt
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	${f TstG} {f TJ}$	-65 to 200 -65 to 200	—65 to 200 —65 to 200	°C °C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) unless otherwise specified

		2N	656	2N	657	
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Max	Min.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage						
$(I_{\rm C} = 100 \ \mu a, I_{\rm E} = 0)$	Vсво	60		100		volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage						
$(I_0 = 250 \ \mu a)$	VCEO	60		100		volts
Emitter to Base Voltage						
$(I_{\rm E}=250 \ \mu {\rm a}, I_{\rm C}=0)$	Vebo	8		8		volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio		-				
$(I_{\rm C} = 200 \text{ ma}, V_{\rm CE} = 10 \text{v})$	hfE	30	90	30	90	
Base Input Resistance					-	
$(I_B = 8 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} = 10 \text{v})$	hiE		500		500	ohms
Saturation Resistance	(247)		07			
$(I_B = 40 \text{ ma}, I_C = 200 \text{ ma})$	r <sub>ČE</sub> (SAT)		25		25	ohms
Cutoff Characteristics						
Collector Current ( $IE = 0$ , $VCB = 30v$ )	Ico		10		10	μa

\*Derate 4.57 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C. \*\*Derate 22.8 mw/°C increase in case temperature above 25°C.

The General Electric 2N656A and 2N657A are silicon NPN double diffused transistors designed for Military and Industrial Service for medium power audio to medium frequency applications. The low saturation voltage and

# 2N656A, 2N657A

**Outline Drawing No. 8** 

low input impedance make these devices especially suited for either high level linear amplifier or switching applications. Typical applications include servo driver and output stages, pulse amplifiers, solenoid drivers, D.C. to A.C. converters, etc.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATIN	GS: (25°C)	2N656A	2N657A	
<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	Vсво Vсео Vево	60 60 8	$100 \\ 100 \\ 8$	volts volts
	VEBU	0	o	volts
<b>Power</b> Transistor Dissipation (Free Air @ 25°C)* Transistor Dissipation	PT	1	ľ	watt
(Case Temperature @ 25°C)*	*Pr	5	5	watt
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tsrc Tj	-65 to 200 -65 to 200	-65 to 200 -65 to 200	°C °C
			continued	next page

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTIC	CS; (25°C) u	inless otherwise	specified			
		2N6	56A	2N6	557A	
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage						
$(Ic = 100 \ \mu a, IE = 0)$	Vсво	60		100		volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage		00		100		
$(Ic = 250 \ \mu a)$ Collector to Emitter Voltage	VCEO	60		100		volts
(Ic = 16  ma)	VCEO	60				volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage	(CEO	00				voits
(Ic = 10 ma)	VCEO			100		volts
Emitter to Base Voltage						
$(I_E = 250 \ \mu a, I_C = 0)$	VEBO	8		8		volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	1	20	0à	00	00	
(Ic = 200  ma, VcE = 10v) Base Input Resistance	hfE	30	90	30	90	
$(I_B \equiv 8 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} \equiv 10 \text{v})$	hiE		200		200	ohms
Saturation Resistance					-00	011115
$(I_B = 40 \text{ ma}, I_C = 200 \text{ ma})$	TCE (SAT)		10		10	ohms
Cutoff Characteristics						
Collector Current						
(IE = 0, VCB = 30v)	Ico		10		10	μa
Collector Current						
(High Temperature)						
$(I_{\rm E} = 0, V_{\rm CB} = 30v, T_{\rm A} = 150^{\circ}{\rm C})$	Ico		250		050	
IA = IO(O)	100		200		250	$\mu a$

\*Derate 5.72 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C. \*\*Derate 28.6 mw/°C increase in case temperature above 25°C.



The General Electric Type 2N1057 is a germanium PNP alloy junction switching transistor intended for low to medium power switching applications at low frequen-cies. A hermetic enclosure is provided by the use of glass-to-metal seals and welded seams,

Decian

#### SPECIFICATIONS

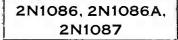
#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ ) Collector to Emitter ( $V_{BE} = 2v$ ) Emitter to Base	VCBO VCER VCEX VEBO	$-45 \\ -30 \\ -45 \\ -5$	volts volts volts volts
Current Collector	Ic	-300	ma
Power Total Transistor Dissipation*	Pr	240	mw
Temperatures Storage Operating Junction	Tsrg Ts	$-65  ext{ to } 100 \\ 85$	ိုင် သိ

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

	Min	Design	Max	
		Center	Mux.	
VCER	-30			volts
VRT	-45			volts
)	- 1			
hře	34	58	90	
<b>hfe</b>	30	52		
Vnn		920	090	
VISE		-230	-200	.mv
$V_{CE}^{(\rm SAT)}$	-60	80	-130	mv
Ico			-16	µamps
IEO			$-\hat{1}\check{0}$	µamps
			04 -	
ase)				
Cob	20	40	60	$\mu\mu f$
fhfb	.5		3.0	me
	VRT hFE hFE VBE VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup> ICO IEO ase) Cob	VRT         -45           hFE         34           hFE         30           VBE         VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup> VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup> -60           Ico         Ico           GSE)         Cob           Cob         20	Min.         Center           VCER         -30           VRT         -45           hFE         34         58           hFE         30         .52           VBE         -230         VCE(SAT)           VCE(SAT)         -60         -80           Ico         Ico         Ico           GSE)         20         40	Min.         Center         Mox.           VCER VRT         -30 -43         -30 -43         -40           hFE         34         58         90           hFE         34         58         90           hFE         34         58         90           hFE         30         52         -280           VBE         -230         -280         -280           VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup> -60         -80         -130           Ico         -116         -10         -10           ase)

The General Electric Types 2N1086, 2N1086A, and 2N1087 are NPN rate grown germanium transistors intended for mixer/oscillator or autodyne converters in radio broadcast receivers. Special manufacturing techniques provide a low value and a narrow spread in collector



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

capacity. Minimum conversion gain and narrow conversion gain spreads are guaranteed.

#### CONVERTER TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage		2N1086	2N1086A	2N1087	
Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ )	VCER	.9	9	9	volts
Collector to Base (emitter open)	Vсво	9	9	9	volts
Current					
Collector	Iç	-20	-20	-20	ma
Power					
Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	Pc	65	65	65	mw
Temperature					
Operating and Storage	Ts	3-55 to 85	-55 to 85	-55 to 85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:**					
Converter Service					
			,		
Maximum Ratings					
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	9	.9	9	wolts
Design Center Characteristics					
Input Impedance					_
$(I_E = 1 ma; V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 KC)$	Zr	350	350	350	ohms
Output Impedance ( $I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 \text{ KC}$ )	Zo	15	15	15	K ohms
Voltage Feedback Ratio	20	10	10	1,9	Ti Ainna
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma}; V_{CB} = 5v; f = 1 \text{ mc})$	hrb	5	5	5	$ imes 10^{-3}$
Collector Capacitance					
(IE = 1 ma; VCB = 5v; f = 1 mc) Frequency Cutoff $(IE = 1 ma; VCB = 5v)$	Cob fhfb	2.4 8	2.4 8	2.4 8	μμf
Base Current Gain (Ic = 1 ma; $V_{CE} = 3V$ )	hre	40	40	40	me
Minimum Base Current Gain	hFE	17	17	17	
Maximum Base Current Gain	here	195	195	195	
Converter Performance (1600 kcls)					
Conversion Gain in Typical Converter					
Test Circuit	CGe	24	24	-26	db
Conversion Gain Range of Variation		4	2	2	ďb
in Typical Converter Circuit		AF.	2	2	up
Cutoff Characteristics					
Cutoff Characteristics	Trans	0	3	3	
Collector Cutoff Current (VCB = $5v$ )					
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 5v$ )	Ico Ico	3 .5	.5	.5	μa max. μa

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C. \*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.

2N1097, 2N1098

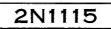
The General Electric Types 2N1097 and 2N1098 are alloy junction PNP transistors intended for low power output and audio driver service in entertainment equipment. These types are similar to the General Electric Types

2N322 and 2N323 except for  $h_{FE}$  limits.

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)				
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} \leq 10 \text{ K}$ )	VCER		-16	volts
Collector to Base	Vсво		-16	volts
Current				
Collector	Ic		-100	ma
Temperature				
Storage	TSTG		-65 to 85	°C °C
Operating Junction	$T_J$		85	°C
Power				
Transistor Dissipation*	PAV		140	mw
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)				
D-C Characteristics		2N1097	2N1098	
Collector Current ( $V_{CB} = -16v$ )	Ісво	-16	-16	$\mu a \max$ .
Forward Current Transfer Ratio $(1c = -20 \text{ ma; } Vc_{\text{E}} = -1v)$	hre	34-90	25-90	
Low Frequency Characteristics				
$(V_c = -5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1 KC)$ Output Capacity (Typical)	Cob	25	25	μμf
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Typical)	hfe	55	45	μμε

SPECIFICATIONS

\*Derate 2.3 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.



**Outline Drawing No. 7** 

The 2N1115 transistor is a germanium PNP switching type intended for highly reliable service in missile and other military equipment.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCEO VEBO	$-20 \\ -15 \\ -10$	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter Peak Collector* Peak Base*	IC IE ic ib	$-125 \\ 125 \\ -500 \\ -500$	ma ma ma
Power Peak Collector Dissipation Total Transistor Dissipation	pe P <b>r</b>	$\begin{array}{c} 500\\ 150\end{array}$	mw mw
Temperature. Storage	TSTG	-65 to 85	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

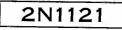
DC Characteristics		Min.	Max.	
Base Input Voltage (for low current condition) ( $I_B = -0.25 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma}$ )	VBE		-0.4	volts
Base Input Voltage (for high current condition) ( $I_B = -1.7$ ma; $I_C = -60$ ma)	VBE		-0.5	volts
Saturation Voltage (low level) $(I_B = -0.25 \text{ ma}; I_C = -10 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		-0.15	volts
Saturation Voltage (high current) ( $I_B = -1.7$ ma; $I_C = -60$ ma)	VCE (SAT)		-0.35	volts

Cutoff Characteristics				
Emitter Current $V_{EB} = -10$ ) Collector to Emitter Current	IEO		-6	μa
$(V_{CE} = -20; R_{BE} = 10K; V_B = 3)$	ICEX		6	μa
High Frequency Characteristics (Common Base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = 1 mc)$ Alpha Cutoff Frequency Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	fhfb Cob	5.0	20	mcs µµf
Switching Characteristics				1-1-1
Storage Time	ts		3.0	<i>µsec</i>
Thermal Characteristics				

Derate 2.5 mw°/C for temperatures above 25°C

\*Duration of intermittent current peaks is limited by the thermal transient response of of the transistor.

The General Electric Type 2N1121 transistor is a rategrown NPN germanium device, intended for use as IF amplifiers in broadcast radio receivers. The collector ca-



an planters in Booautast ratio receivers. The conector ca-pacity is controlled to a uniformly low value so that neutralization in most circuits is not required. Power gain at 455KC in a typical receiver circuit is restricted to a 2.5db spread. The uni-formity provided by the controls of collector capacity and power gain allows easy and economical incorporation of this time into required. The Uniform economical incorporation of this type into receiver circuits. Type 2N1121 has special high beta characteristics required in the final stage of reflex IF circuits where large audio gain is desired.

#### IF TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ ) Collector to Base (emitter open)	VCER VCBO	15 15	volts volts
Current Collector	Ic	20	ma
<b>Power</b> Collector Dissipation at 25°C*	Pc	65	mw
Temperature Operating and Storage	Та,Тато	—55 to 85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:** (25°C)			
Reflex IF Amplifier Service			
Maximum Ratings			
Collector Supply Voltage	Vcc	9	volts
Design Center Characteristics			
$(I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } V_{CE} = 5v; f = 455 \text{ KC except as noted})$ Input Impedance Output Impedance Voltage Feedback Ratio (V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v; f = 1 mc) Collector to Base Capacitance (V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v; f = 1 mc) Frequency Cutoff (V <sub>CB</sub> = 5v) Base Current Gain (Ic = 1 ma; V <sub>CE</sub> = 1v) Minimum Base Current Gain	Zi Zo hrb Cob fntb hFE hFE	$700 \\ 7 \\ 10 \\ 2.4 \\ 8 \\ 72 \\ 32$	ohms K ohms $\times 10^{-3}$ $\mu\mu f$ mc
Reflex IF Amplifier Performance			
Collector Supply Voltage Collector Current Input Frequency Minimum Power Gain in Typical IF Circuit Power Gain Range of Variation in Typical IF Circuit	Vcc Ic f Ge Ge	5 2 455 29.5 2.5	volts ma KC db db
Cutoff Characteristics			
$\begin{array}{l} Collector \ Cutoff \ Current \ (V_{CB}=5v) \\ Collector \ Cutoff \ Current \ (V_{CB}=15v) \end{array}$	Ico Ico	.5 5	μa μa max
*Derate 1 1 mur/°C increases in such in the			

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*All values are typical unless indicated as a min. or max.

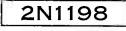
2N1144, 2N1145

The General Electric Types 2N1144 and 2N1145 are alloy junction PNP transistors intended for low power output and audio driver service in entertainment equipment. These types are similar to General Electric Types configuration.

2N1097 and 2N1098 except for package configuration.

SPECIFI	CATIONS			
ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)				
Voltage Collector to Emitter ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ ) Collector to Base	VCER VCB0		$^{-25}_{-25}$	volts volts
Current Collector	Ic		-100	ma
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Tj		-65 to 85 85	°C O
Power Transistor Dissipation*	Pr		140	mw
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)				
D-C Characteristics		2N1144	2N1145	
Collector Current ( $V_{CB} = -25_V$ ) Forward Current Transfer Ratio	ICBO	16	-16	µa max.
(Ic = 20  ma;  VcE = Iv)	hff	34-90	25-90	
Low Frequency Characteristics				
$(V_C = -5v; I_E = 1 \text{ ma; } f = 1 \text{ KC})$ Output Capacity (Typical) Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Typical)	Cob hre	40 55	40 42	μμ£

\*Derate 2.3 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature over 25°C.



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

The General Electric Type 2N1198 is an NPN germanium high frequency, high speed switching transistor intended for industrial and military applications where reliability is of prime importance. In order to achieve the high degree of reliability necessary in industrial and

military applications, the 2N1198 is designed to pass 500G 1 millisecond drop shock, 10,000G centrifuge, 10G variable frequency vibration, as well as temperature cycling, moisture resistance and operating and storage life tests as outlined in MIL-T-19500A. The 2N1198 has the same low collector cutoff current and reliability as the 2N167 and is identical to the 2N167 on all parameters except voltage.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C	1				
<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCEO VCEO VEBO			25 25 5	volts volts volts
Current Collector Emitter	Ic Ie			$     \begin{array}{r}       75 \\       -75     \end{array}   $	ma ma
Power Collector Dissipation (25°C)* Total Transistor Dissipation (25°C)**	Pc PT			65 75	mw mw
Temperature Storage	TSTG			85	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
<b>D-C Characteristics</b> Collector to Emitter Breakdown Voltage (Base Open, Ic = .3 ma) Forward Current Transfer Ratio	BVCEO	Min. 25	Design Center	Max.	volts
(Ic = 8  ma;  VcE = 1v)	hre	17	30	90	
Base Input Voltage					
$(I_B = .47 \text{ ma}; I_C = 8 \text{ ma})$	VBE	.3***	.41	.6*	**volts
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = .8 \text{ ma}; I_C = 8 \text{ ma})$	VGE (SAT)		.35		

TRANSISTOR	SPECIFICATIONS

$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \hline \textbf{Cutoff Characteristics}\\ \hline \hline \textbf{Collector Current} \; (I_E=0; V_{CB}=15v)\\ \hline \textbf{Emitter Current} \; (I_C=0; V_{EB}=5v) \end{array}$	Ìcò Ieo		.6 .35	1.5	<b>μ</b> а μа
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$\begin{array}{l} \hline (V_{CB}=5v; \ l_{E}=1 \ mo) \\ Alpha \ Cutoff \ Frequency \\ Collector \ Capacity \ (f=1 \ mc) \\ Voltage \ Feedback \ Ratio \ (f=1 \ mc) \end{array}$	fnfb Cob hrb	5.0	$9.0 \\ 2.5 \\ 7.3$	6	mc μμf × 10-3
Low Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v; I_E = 1 \text{ mo}; f = 270 \text{ cps})$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio Output Admittance Input Impedance Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hть hob hib hrb	.952 .1*** 25***	$.985 \\ .2 \\ 55 \\ 1.5$		**µmhos **ohms × 10-4
Switching Characteristics					
(]c = 8 ma; I <sub>B1</sub> = .8 ma; I <sub>B2</sub> = .8 ma Turn-on Time Storage Time Fall Time	) ts tr		4 .7 .2		μsec μsec μsec
*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increa	se in amh	ient temperature			

\*Derate 1.1 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*Derate 1.25 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. \*\*\*These limits are design limits within which 98% of production normally falls.

The General Electric Type 2N1217 is an NPN isolated case germanium high frequency, high speed, low level switching transistor intended for industrial and military

2N1217

applications where reliability is of prime importance. Outline Drawing No. 3 The 2N1217 features extremely low collector cutoff current, high D.C. Beta at very low collector current, and low collector capacity. All transistors are baked 100 hours at 85°C to stabilize characteristics.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCEO VEBO	20 20 5	volts volts volts
Current Collector	Lc	25	ma
Power Total Transistor Dissipation*	$P_{\mathrm{T}}$	75	mw
Temperature Storage Lead ( $\frac{1}{16}$ " + $\frac{1}{32}$ " from case for 10 seconds)	Тято ) Ть	85 230	°C °C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) unless otherwise specified

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Emitter Voltage (Ic = $300 \ \mu a$ )	VCEO	20			volts
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ , $V_{CB} = 15v$ )	Ісво		.6 .4	1.5	uade
Emitter Current ( $Ic = 0$ , $V_{EB} = 5v$ )	IEBO		.4	1.5	µade
Collector Current			5.4		
$(IE = 0, VCB = 15v, TA = 70^{\circ}C)$	Ісво		11	29	$\mu$ ade
Forward Current Transfer Ratio		3			
(Ic = .5  ma, Vc = 1v)	hfE	40		100	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio		40		1.000	
(Ic = 2  ma, Vce = 1v)	hfE	40	60	100	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio $(Ic = 2 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} = 1v, T_A = -55^{\circ}C)$	1	20			
$(10 \pm 2 \text{ ma}, \text{ VCE} \pm 1\text{ V}, 11 \pm -35 \text{ C})$ Base Input Voltage	hfe	20			
$(I_B = .2 \text{ ma}, I_C = 2 \text{ ma}).$	VBE		.26		volts
Saturation Voltage	* BE		.20		voits
$(I_B = .2 \text{ ma}, I_C = 2 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		.10		volts
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = 5v, I_B = 1 ma)$					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency	fnib	6.0	9.0		me
Collector Capacity $(f = 1 mc)$	Cob	00	2.5	6:	unt
Switching Characteristics				82	1410.00
$(l_{\rm C}=2  {\rm ma},  l_{\rm B1}=l_{\rm B2}=.2  {\rm ma})$				0	
Rise Time	tr		.4 .9 .3	.⊳6 1.6	µsec
Storage Time Fall Time	ts		.9	DeL N	µsec
ran rune	tr		.0	•**	μseo

2N1276, 2N1277

The General Electric Types 2N1276 and 2N1277, are silicon NPN transistors intended for amplifier applications in the audio and

Outline Drawing No. 4 devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for exteremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	VCBO VCEO VEBO	40 30 1	volts volts volt
Current Collector	Ic	25	ma
Power Collector Dissipation RMS*	Pc	150	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	${f T_{STG}} {f T_J}$	65 to 200 150	°C °C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

			2N127	6		2N1277	1	
<b>D-C Characteristics</b>		Min.	Typ.	Max.	Min.	Typ.	Maxe	
Collector to Base Voltage	2 a				10			•7
$(I_{\rm C} = 50 \ \mu a, I_{\rm E} = 0)$	VCB0	40			40			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage $(I_B = 0, I_C = 1 m_A)$	VCEO	80			30			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage								
$(I_E = 100 \ \mu a, I_C = 0)$	VEBO	1.0	4.0		1.0	4.0		volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio (low current)								
(Ic = 10  ma, Vc = 5v)	hre		10			20		
Saturation Voltage (low level)								
$(I_B = 2.2 \text{ ma}, I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		.49	1.0		.53	1.0	volts
Cutoff Characteristics								
Collector Current								
$(I_E = 0, V_{CB} = 30v)$	Ico		.001	1		.001	1	μa
Collector Current	400							
(high temperature)								
$(I_E = 0, V_{CB} = 30v, T_A = 150^{\circ}C)$	Ico		1	50		1	50	μa
$I_{A} \equiv I_{30} C$	100		,	00		1	00	$\mu a$
Low Frequency Characteristics (C	ommon Base)							
$(V_{CB} = 5v, I_E = -1 ma, f = 1)$	000 cps)							
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	9	$^{14}_{.37}$	22 1	18	33	44 1	µmhos
Output Admittance Input Impedance	hob hib	30	.37	80	30	.30	80	ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio	hrb	00	2.4	10	00	2.6	10	$\times 10^{-4}$
Noise Figure ( $\mathbf{B}_{w} = 1$ cycle),							в	
(Common Base or Common						*0		11
Emitter)	NF		22			18		db
Power Gain $(V_{CE} = 5v, I_{C} = +1)ma$								
f = 1000  cps	Ge		37			39		db
High Frequency Characteristics (		)						
$(V_{CB} = 20v, I_E = -1 ma, f =$			0.0	FO		0.0	<b>H</b> 6	Ě
Output Capacity	Cob	15	2.0 30	5.0	15	2.0 30	5.0	μμf m <b>c</b>
Cutoff Frequency	fufb	10	50		10	00		me

The General Electric Types 2N1278 and 2N1279 are silicon NPN transistors intended for amplifier applications in the audio and radio frequency range and for general purpose switch-

## 2N1278. 2N1279

#### **Outline Drawing No. 4**

quency range and for general purpose switch-ing circuits. They are grown junction devices with a diffused base and are manufactured in the Fixed-Bed Mounting design for extremely high mechanical reliability under severe conditions of shock, vibration, centrifugal force, and temperature. These transistors are hermetically sealed in welded cases. The case dimensions and lead configuration conform to JEDEC standards and are suitable for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

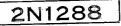
#### SPECIFICATIONS

### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	Vebo Vebo Vebo	40 30 1	volts volts volt
Current Collector	Ic	.25	ma
<b>Power</b> Collector Dissipation RMS*	Pc	150	mw
<b>Temperature</b> Storage Operating Junction	${f T}_{STG} \ T_J$	-65 to 200 150	°C °°

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (25°C)

			2N1278	0		-		
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	Min.	2N1279 Typ.	Max.	
Collector to Base Voltage						.,	max.	
$(Ic = 50 \ \mu a, IE = 0)$ Collector to Emitter Voltage	Vсво	40			40			volts
$(I_B = 0, I_C = 1 ma)$ Emitter to Base Voltage	VCEO	30			30			volts
$(IE = 100 \ \mu a, IC = 0)$ Forward Current Transfer Ratio	VEBO	1.0	4.0		1.0	4.0		volts
(low current) $(Ic = 10 ma, V_{CE} = 5v)$ Saturation Voltage (low level)	<b>h</b> ff		33			80		
$(I_B = 2.2 \text{ ma}, I_C = 5 \text{ ma})$	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		.56	1.0		.47	1.0	volts
<b>Cutoff Characteristics</b>								
Collector Current $(J_B = 0, V_{CB} = 30_V)$ Collector Current (high temperature)	$I_{CO}$		.001	1		.001	1	μa
(Imple on VCB = $30v$ , T <sub>A</sub> = $150^{\circ}$ C)	Ico		1	50		1	50	μa
Low Frequency Characteristics (C	ommon Base)							
$(V_{CB} = 5v, I_E = -1 ma, f = 1)$	000 cps)							
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hfe	37	66	90	76	101	333	
Output Admittance Input Impedance	hob		.18	1		.14	1	μmhos
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Noise Figure $(B_w = 1 \text{ cycle})$ ,	hib hrb	30	44 2.3	80 10	30	44 2.0	$\begin{array}{c} 80\\10 \end{array}$	$^{ m ohms}_{ m  imes 10^{-4}}$
(Common Base or Common Emitter) Power Gain	NF		15			15		db
$(V_{CE} = 5v, I_{C} = +1 ma, f = 1000 cps)$	Ge		44			45		db
High Frequency Characteristics (	Common Base)							
$(V_{CB} = 20v, I_E = -1 ma, f =$	1 mc)							
Output Capacity	Cob		2.0	5.0		2.0	5.0	£
Cutoff Frequency	fnfb	15	30	0.0	15	34	0,0	μμt mc



The General Electric type 2N1288 is a germanium meltback NPN transistor designed for high speed computer switching. All units are aged 150 hours at a temperature of 100°C min. to stabilize characteristics. The 2N1288 is designed to meet the requirements of

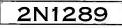
MIL-T-19500A. The case dimensions conform to the TO-39 outline and the units are for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage				10	volts
Collector to Emitter	VCER(R=10K)			5	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO			15	volts
Collector to Base	Vсво			10	, one
Current				50	ma
Collector	Ic			0.0	ma
Power				75	mw
Dissipation*	Pr				
Temperature			05	to +85	°C
Storage	TSTG			to $+85$	°C
Operating Junction Temperature	Tı			10 -1 00	U
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	10			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage		10			volts
$(R_{BE} = 10K, Ic = .6 ma)$	VCER	10			VOILS
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	1 .	50	150	300	
$(I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma}, V_{CE} = 1v)$	hre	90	14 Q 12		
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	30	100		
(Ic = 25  ma, VcE = 1v)	11111	90			
Base to Emitter Voltage	VBE		25	0.5	volts
$(I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma}, I_{B} = .5 \text{ ma})$ Collector Saturation Voltage	100				
$(Ic = 10 \text{ ma}, I_B = .5 \text{ ma})$	VCE(SAT)		.2	0.3	volts
Collector Cutoff Frequency					
$(I_E = 5 \text{ ma}, V_C = 1v)$	fhrb	40	60		
Collector Capacitance			0	10	
$(I_E = 5 \text{ ma}, V_C = 1v, f = 2 \text{ mc})$	Gob		6	10	μµf
Collector Cutoff Current			0	5	µ:a
$(V_{CB} = 5v, I_E = 0)$	Ico		2	10	μa μa
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = 5v$ , $I_C = 0$	) IEO		3	1.0	μu
Switching Speeds					
$(I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma}, I_{B1} = I_{B2} = 1 \text{ ma})$			60	100	mµsec
Rise Time	tr.		200	. 300	mµsec
Storage Time	ts		60	100	musec
Fall Time	tr		0.50		

The General Electric type 2N1289 is a germanium meltback NPN transistor designed for high speed computer switching. All units are aged 150 hours at a temperature of 100°C min. to stabilize characteristics. The 2N1289 is designed to meet the requirements of



Outline Drawing No. 10

MIL-S-19500B. The case dimensions conform to the TO-5 outline and the units are for insertion in printed boards by automatic assembly equipment.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter	VCER	15	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO	15	volts
Collector to Base	Vcbo	20	volts
Current			
Collector	Ie	50	ma
Power			
Dissipation*	Pr	75	mw
Temperature			
Storage	T <sub>STG</sub>	-65 to $+100$	°C
Operating Junction	TJ	-55  to + 85	°Č

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS (25°C) unless otherwise specified

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	15			volts
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R_{BE} = 10K, I_{C} = 600 \ \mu a)$	VCER	15			volts
Emitter to Base Voltage (IE = $100 \ \mu a^{\circ}$ )	VEBO	15			volts
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Ic = 10  ma, VcE = 1v)	hff	.50	150	300	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
$(Ic = 10 \text{ ma}, Vce = 1v, T_A = -55^{\circ}C)$	hfe	30	80		
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Ic = 25  ma, Vce = 1v)	hre	40	130		
Base to Emitter Voltage					
(Ic = 10 ma, IB = .5 ma)	VBE		.25	0.4	volts
Collector Saturation Voltage					
(Ic = 10  ma, IB = .5  ma)	VCE (SAT)		12	0.3	volts
Collector Cutoff Current					
$(V_{CB} = 15v, I_{E} = 0)$	Ico		2	5	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = 5v$ , $Ic = 0$ )	Ieo		2	5	μä
Collector Cutoff Current					
$(V_{CB} = 15v, I_E = 0, T_A = 70°C)$	Ico		-40	70	µa.
High Frequency Characteristics					
Alpha Cutoff Frequency					
$(I_{\rm E}=5 \text{ ma}, V_{\rm C}=1_{\rm V})$	fhfb	40	60		mc
Collector Capacitance					
(IE = 5 ma, Vc = 1v, f = 2 ma)	Cob		6	10	μµf
Switching Speeds					1
$(Ic = 10 \text{ ma}, I_{B1} = I_{B2} = 1 \text{ ma})$					
Rise Time	tr		60	100	mµsec
Storage Time	ts		200	300	musec
Fall Time	tr		60	100	mµsec



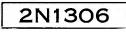
The General Electric Type 2N1304 is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switching service when control of switching parameters is important.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage					
Collector to Base	Vсво			25	volts
Collector to Emitter	$V_{CER}$ (R = 1	0K)		20	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO			25	volts
Current					
Collector	Ic.			300	ma
Power					
Total Transistor Dissipation*					
(25°C Case Temperature)	$\mathbf{P_T}$			300	mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		-65	to +100	°C
5				•	
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
D-C Characteristics	hfe	<b>Min.</b> 40	<b>Тур.</b> 70	<b>Max.</b> 200	
D-C Characteristics Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre				
<b>D-C Characteristics</b> Forward Current Transfer Ratio $(I_c = 10 \text{ ma}; V_{CE} = 1v)$	hFE	40			
$\label{eq:D-C Characteristics} \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .5 ma) \\ \hline$	hye Vbe	40			volts
$\label{eq:D-C Characteristics} \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ Base Input Voltage$		<b>4</b> 0 15	7,0 25	200	volts
$\label{eq:D-C Characteristics} \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .5 ma) \\ \hline$	VBE Ibx	<b>4</b> 0 15	7,0 25 3	200 .35 8	μa
$\label{eq:basedimensional} \begin{array}{ c c c } \hline \textbf{D-C Characteristics} \\ \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ \hline Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; IB = .5 ma) \\ \hline Total Base Reverse Current (V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v) \\ \hline Saturation Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; IB = .25) \\ \hline \end{array}$	Vbe Ibx Vce <sup>(SAT)</sup>	40 15 .20	7,0 25	200 .35	μa volts
$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \hline \textbf{D-C Characteristics} \\ \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio \\ (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) \\ (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ \hline Base Input Voltage \\ (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .5 ma) \\ \hline Total Base Reverse Current \\ (V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v) \\ \hline \end{array}$	VBE Ibx	<b>4</b> 0 15	7,0 25 3	200 .35 8	μa
$\label{eq:barrending} \begin{array}{l} \hline \textbf{D-C Choracteristics} \\ \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio \\ (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) \\ (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ \hline Base Input Voltage \\ (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .5 ma) \\ \hline Total Base Reverse Current \\ (V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v) \\ \hline Saturation Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .25) \\ \hline Reach-through Voltage \end{array}$	Vbe Ibx Vce <sup>(SAT)</sup>	40 15 .20	7,0 25 3	200 .35 8	μa volts
$\label{eq:basedimensional} \begin{array}{ c c c } \hline \textbf{D-C Characteristics} \\ \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ \hline Base Input Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; IB = .5 ma) \\ \hline Total Base Reverse Current (V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v) \\ \hline Saturation Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; IB = .25) \\ \hline \end{array}$	Vbe Ibx Vce <sup>(SAT)</sup>	40 15 .20	7,0 25 3	200 .35 8	μa volts
$\label{eq:barrending} \begin{array}{l} \hline \textbf{D-C Choracteristics} \\ \hline Forward Current Transfer Ratio \\ (Ic = 10 ma; V_{CE} = 1v) \\ (Ic = 200 ma; V_{CE} = .35v) \\ \hline Base Input Voltage \\ (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .5 ma) \\ \hline Total Base Reverse Current \\ (V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v) \\ \hline Saturation Voltage (Ic = 10 ma; I_B = .25) \\ \hline Reach-through Voltage \end{array}$	Vbe Ibx Vce <sup>(SAT)</sup>	40 15 .20	7,0 25 3	200 .35 8	μa volts

\*Derate 5.0 mw/°C rise in case temperature above 25°C ambient. The power rating in free air at 25°C is 150 mw.



**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

The General Electric Type 2N1306 is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switching service when control of switching parameters is important.

ma

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

#### Voltage Collector to Base VCB0 25volts Collector to Emitter $V_{CER}$ (R = 10K.) 20 volts Emitter to Base VEBO 25 volts

#### Current

Collector

Ic 300

Power					
Total Transistor Dissipation*					
(25°C Case Temperature)	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{T}$			300	mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		-65	to +100	°C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
D-C Characteristics		Min:	Typ.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Ic = 10 ma; VcE = 1v)	hrE	60	100	300	
(Ic = 200  ma; Vce = .35v)		20			
Base Input Voltage					
$(I_{C} = 10 \text{ ma}; I_{B} = .5 \text{ ma})$	VBE	-20	.24	.32	volts
Total Base Reverse Current					
$(V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v)$	IBX		3	8	$\mu a$
Saturation Voltage (Ic = $10 \text{ ma}$ ; IB = $.17$ )	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup> .		.085	0.2	volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	15			volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $V_{CB} = 25v$ ; $I_E = 0$ )	Ісво		1.5	6	μa
Emitter Current ( $V_{EB} = 25v$ ; $I_C = 0$ )	IEBO.		1.2	6	μa

\*Derate 5.0 mw/°C rise in case temperature above  $25^{\circ}$ C ambient. The power rating in free air at  $25^{\circ}$ C is 150 mw.

The General Electric Type 2N1308 is an NPN alloy transistor designed for low power medium speed switching service when control of switching parameters is important.

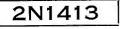
# 2N1308

**Outline Drawing No. 2** 

#### SPECIFICATIONS

ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)					
Voltage					
Collector to Base	Vсво			25	volts
Collector to Emitter	$V_{CER}$ (R = 10	)K)		20	volts
Emitter to Base	Veb0			25	volts
Current					
Collector	Ic			300	ma
Power					
Total Transistor Dissipation*					
(25°C Case Temperature)	$\mathbf{Pr}$			300	mw
Temperature					
Storage	Tstğ		-65	to +100	°Ĉ
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)					
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Ic = 10 ma; VcE = 1v)	hfe	80	150		
$(I_{\rm C} = 200 \text{ ma}; V_{\rm CE} = .35 \text{v})$		20			
Base Input Voltage					
(Ic = 10  ma; IB = .5  ma)	VBE	.20	.23	.30	volts
Total Base Reverse Current					
$(V_{CB} = 20v; V_{EB} = 10v)$	IBX		3	8	μa
Saturation Voltage (Ic = $10 \text{ ma}$ ; IB = $.13$ )	VCE (SAT)		.075	0.15	volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	15			volts
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $V_{CB} = 25v$ ; $I_E = 0$ )	Ісво		1.5	6	μa
Emitter Current ( $V_{EB} = 25v$ ; Ic = 0)	IEBO		1.2	6	μa

\*Derate 5.0 mw/°C rise in case temperature above 25°C ambient. The power rating in free air at 25°C is 150 mw.



The General Electric Type 2N1413 is a PNP alloy intended for those industrial audio amplifiers and low frequency switching applications where cost is of prime importance. All units are hermetically sealed and are subjected to 100 hours of high temperature bake as well

as a detergent pressure test, thus assuring reliable performance under adverse environmental conditions. Efficient thermal characteristics are assured by welding the transistor base to the case.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

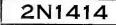
#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Base	VCBO	35	volts
Collector to Emitter	$V_{CER}$ (R <sub>BE</sub> $\leq 10K$ )	-25	volts
Emitter to Base	Vebo	10	volts
Current			
Collector	Ie	-200	ma
Power			
	Fe	200	mw
Collector Dissipation*	<b>x</b> -0	200	Шуv
Temperature			
Storage	Tsrc	-65 to +85	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$
Operating	$T_{J}$	+85	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
(Unless otherwise specified $Ve = -5v$ c	ommon base;				
$l_{\rm E} = -1$ ma; f = 1000 cps)					
Output Admittance					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hop	.1	.65	1.3	$\mu$ mhos
Input Admittance					
(Output AC Short Circuited)	hip	26	29	36	ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hrs	1	4.8	10	imes 10-4
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Common Emitter; Output AC					
Short Circuited)	hfe	20	30	41	
Frequency Cutoff	fhfb	0.8	3.2		me
Output Capacity					
(f = 1 mc; Input AC Open Circuited)	Cob		26	40	μμf
Noise Figure (f = 1 kc; $B_w = 1$ cycle)	NF		6		db
D-C Characteristics					
Forward Current Gain (Common Emitter)					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	hfe	25	36	42	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; Ic = -100 ma)$	hfe	23			
Collector Saturation Voltage					
(Ic = $-20$ ma; IB as indicated)	VCE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		-70		mv
	@ IB =		-2.0		ma
Base Input Voltage, Common Emitter					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	VBE		255		volts
Collector Cutoff Current (VCB0 $= -30v$ )	Ico		8	-12	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current (VEBO = $-10v$ )	IEO		-5	-10	μa
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R_{BE} = 10K \text{ ohms}; Ic =6 \text{ ma})$	VCER	-25			volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-25			volts

The General Electric Type 2N1414 is a PNP alloy intended for those industrial audio amplifiers and low frequency switching applications where cost is of prime importance. All units are hermetically sealed and are subjected to 100 hours of high temperature bake as well



Outline Drawing No. 2

as a detergent pressure test, thus assuring reliable performance under adverse environmental conditions. Efficient thermal characteristics are assured by welding the transistor base to the case.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

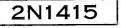
#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Valtage

voirage			
Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	$V_{CBO}$ $V_{CER}$ (RBE $\leq 10K$ ) $V_{EBO}$	$-35 \\ -25 \\ -10$	volts volts volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	-200	ma
Power			
Collector Dissipation*	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{C}}$	200	mw
Temperature			
Storage	Tsrg	-65 to +85	°C
Operating	TJ	+85	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Týp.	Max.	
(Unless otherwise specified $V_{\rm C}=-5v$ c	ommon base:				
$l_{\rm E} = -1$ ma; f = 1000 cps)	,				
Output Admittance					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	how	.1	.62	1.2	μmhos
Input Admittance					
(Output AC Short Circuited)	his	26	29	35	ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hrb	1	5.2	.11	$\times 10^{-4}$
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Common Emitter; Output AC Short					
Circuited)	hfe	30	44	64	
Frequency Cutoff	fhfb	1.0	3.6		me
Output Capacity ( $f=1$ mc;					
Input AC Open Circuited)	Cob		26	40	μµf
Noise Figure ( $f = 1$ kc; $B_w = 1$ cycle)	NF		6		db
D-C Characteristics					
Forward Current Gain (Common Emitter)					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	hrs	34	52	65	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_{C} = -100 ma)$	hfp	30			
Collector Saturation Voltage					
(Ic = -20  ma; IB  as indicated)	VCE (SAT)		-75		mv
	@ Ів ==		-1.33		ma
Base Input Voltage, Common Emitter					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	VBE		243		volts
Collector Cutoff Current (VCB0 = $-30v$ )	Ico		-8	-12	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current (VEB0 $\equiv -10v$ )	IEO		-5	-10	μa
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R_{BE} = 10K \text{ ohms}; Ic =6 \text{ ma})$	VCER	-25			volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-25			volts



The General Electric Type 2N1415 is a PNP alloy intended for those industrial audio amplifiers and low frequency switching applications where cost is of prime importance. All units are hermetically sealed and are subjected to 100 hours of high temperature bake as well

as a detergent pressure test, thus assuring reliable performance under adverse environmental conditions. Efficient thermal characteristics are assured by welding the transistor base to the case.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage			
Collector to Base	Vсво	-35	volts
Collector to Emitter	$V_{CER}$ (RBE $\leq 10K$ )	-25	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO	-10	volts
Current			
Collector	Iç	-200	ma
Power			
Collector Dissipation*	Po	200	mw
Temperature			
Storage	TSTG	-65 to +85	°C
Operating	$T_J$	+85	۴C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

Small Signal Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
(Unless otherwise specified $V_c = -5v c$	ommon base;				
$I_{\rm E} = -1$ ma; f = 1000 cps),					
Output Admittance					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hob	.1	.55	1.0	μmhos
Input Admittance					
(Output AC Short Circuited)	hib	26	29	33	ohms
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio					
(Input AC Open Circuited)	hrb	.1	5.7	12	$ imes 10^{-4}$
Forward Current Transfer Ratio					
(Common Emitter; Output AC					
Short Circuited)	hre	44	64	88	
Frequency Cutoff	fhfb	1.3	4.0		me
Output Capacity					
(f = 1 mc; Input AC Open Circuited)	Cob		26	40	.µµ£
Noise Figure (f = 1 kc; $B_w = 1$ cycle)	NF		6		đb
D-C Characteristics					
Forward Current Gain (Common Emitter)					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	hfe	53	73	90	
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -100 \text{ ma})$	hfe	47			
Collector Saturation Voltage					
$(I_{\rm C} = -20 \text{ ma}; I_{\rm B} \text{ as indicated})$	VCE (SAT)		-80		mv
(10)	@ IB ==		-1.0		ma
Base Input Voltage, Common Emitter					
$(V_{CE} = -1v; I_C = -20 ma)$	VBE		230		volts
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CBO} = -30v$ )	Ico		-8	-12	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EBO} = -10v$ )	IEO		-5	-10	μa
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R_{BE} = 10K \text{ ohms}; I_{C} =6 \text{ ma})$	VCER	-25			volts
Reach-through Voltage	VRT	-25			volts

The General Electric Type 2N1510 is a germanium NPN rate grown transistor intended for industrial, military and data processing applications where operation at high voltages and low currents is required. A low value of collector leakage current at high voltages plus very stable voltage



**Outline Drawing No. 3** 

with life make this transistor especially suited for use in neon indicator and direct indicating counter circuits where high ambient temperatures are encountered and reliability is of prime importance.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C).

Voltage			
Collector to Emitter $(R = 10K)$	VCER	70	volts
Collector to Base	Vсво	75	volts
Emitter to Base	VEBO	8	volts
Current			
Collector	Ic	20	ma
Power			
Dissipation*	Pe	75	ńw
Temperature			
Storage	TSTG	-55 to $+85$	°C
Operating Junction	Tı	+85	$^{\circ}C$
Lead Temperature 1/6" ±1/32"			
from Case for 10 Seconds	Tr.	230	°C

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

D-C Characteristics		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Base Current Gain ( $Ic = 1 ma, Vc_E = 1v$ )	hfe	8	30	90	
Base Current Gain ( $Ic = 4 \text{ ma}, Vce = 1v$ )	hre	4			
Saturation Voltage					
$(I_B = 1.0 \text{ ma}, I_C = 4 \text{ ma})$	VCE (SAT)		.26		volts
Base Input Voltage					
$(I_B = 1.0 \text{ ma}, I_C = 4 \text{ ma})$	Vве		.38		volts
Reach-through Voltage (VEB $= 1v$ )	VRT	75			volts

#### **Cutoff Characteristics**

Collector Cutoff Current					
$(V_{CE} = 70v, V_{BE} = -5v)$	ICEX		.5	5	щã
Collector Cutoff Current ( $V_{CB} = 75v$ )	Ісво		.6	5	μa
Emitter Cutoff Current ( $V_{EB} = 8v$ )	Ієво			10	щa
Collector to Emitter Voltage					
$(R = 10K, Ic = 300 \ \mu a)$	VCER	70			volts

\*Derate 1.25 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature.

2N1614

Outline Drawing No. 1

V 14 - ---

The General Electric Type 2N1614 is a germanium PNP Alloy Junction Triode Switching Transistor. It is intended for military, industrial and data processing systems where high voltage, reliability, and excellent stability of characteristics are of prime importance.

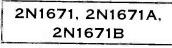
Applications include neon indicator circuits, relay driver circuits and direct indicating counter circuits.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

<b>Voltage</b> Collector to Base Collector to Emitter Collector to Emitter Emitter to Base	$V_{CEO} V_{CER} (R = 10)$ $V_{CEX} (V_{BE} = V_{EBO})$			-65 -40 -60 -12	volts volts volts volts
Current Collector	$\mathbf{Ic}$			300	ma
Power Dissipation RMS Total Transistor Dissipation*	Pr			240	mw
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Тзто Тј		-65	5 to 100 85	°C °C
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)			_	.,	
D-C Characteristics		Min.	Тур.	Max.	
Collector to Emitter Voltage ( $R_{BE} = 10K$ , $I_C = -600 \ \mu a$ ) ( $V_{BE} = +2v$ in series with	VCER	-40			volts
$R_{BE} = 1K$ , $I_{C} = -50 \ \mu a$ )	VCEX	60			volts
Reach-through Voltage Forward Current Transfer Ratio	VRT	60			volts
(low current) ( $I_{C} = -20$ ma; $V_{CE} = -1v$ ) Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hfm	18		43	
(high current) (Ic = $-100$ ma; Vce = $-1v$ ) Base Input Voltage	hfe	13	25		
(for low current condition) (Ic = $-20$ ma; VcE = $-1v$ )	VBE		-240	300	mv
Saturation Voltage $(I_B = -2 \text{ ma}; I_C = -20 \text{ ma})$	VOE <sup>(SAT)</sup>		-90	-130	mv
Cutoff Characteristics					
Collector Current ( $I_E = 0$ ; $V_{CBO} = -65v$ ) Emitter Current ( $I_C = 0$ ; $V_{EBO} = -12v$ )	Ico Ieo			$-25 \\ -16$	μa μa
Low Frequency Characteristics (Common E	Base or Commo	n Emitter)			
$(V_{C} = -5v; I_{E} = -1 mo; f = 1 kc)$					
Forward Current Transfer Ratio	hre	0.1	25	1.5	μmhos
Output Admittance	hob	0.1 27	0.9 31	38	ohms
Input Impedance	hib	1.0	4.0	13	$\times 10^{-4}$
Reverse Voltage Transfer Ratio Noise Figure ( $B_w = 1 \text{ cyc}$ ), (f = 1 kc)	hrb NF	1.0	4.0	20	db
High Frequency Characteristics (Common	Base)				
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = -1 mo; f = 1 mc)$ Output Capacity Cutoff Frequency	Соъ	.20	40	60	μµf
$(V_{CB} = -5v; I_E = -1 ma; f = 1000 cps)$	fhfb	0.5	1.0	3.0	me
	I fairly have not	mature chore	95°C		

The General Electric Silicon Unijunction Transistor is a three terminal device having a stable "N" type negative resistance characteristic over a wide temperature range. A stable peak point voltage, a low peak point current, and a high pulse current rating make this device useful in oscillators, timing



**Outline Drawing No. 5** 

circuits, trigger circuits and pulse generators where it can serve the purpose of two conventional silicon or germanium transistors.

The 2N1671 is intended for general purpose industrial applications where circuit economy is of primary importance. The 2N1671A is intended for industrial use in firing circuits for Silicon Controlled Rectifiers and other applications where a guaranteed minimum pulse amplitude is required. The 2N1671B is intended for applications where a low emitter leakage current and a low peak point emitter current (trigger current) are required.

These transistors feature Fixed-Bed Construction and are hermetically sealed in a welded case. All leads are electrically isolated from the case.

#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

Voltage		
Emitter Reverse	30	volts
Interbase	35	volts
Current		
RMS Emitter	50	ma
Peak Emitter*	2	amps
Power		
RMS Dissipation**	450	mw
Temperaturo		
Operating Range	-65 to $+140$	°C
Storage Range	-65 to $+150$	°C

\*Capacitor discharge- $10\mu$ fd or less, 30 volts or less-Total interbase power dissipation must be limited by external circuitry.

\*\*Derate 3.9 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature. (Thermal resistance to case = 0.16°C/mw.)

#### 2N1671

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

Parameter		Note	Mín.	Max.	
Intrinsic Standoff Ratio ( $V_{BB}' = 10v$ )	η	1	0.47	0.62	
Interbase Resistance ( $V_{BB} = 3v$ , $I_E = 0$ )	RBBO	2	4.7	9.1	kilohms
Emitter Saturation Voltage					
$(V_{BB} = 10v, I_E = 50 ma)$	VE(SAT)			5	volts
Modulated Interbase Current				-	
$(V_{BB} = I_{0v}, I_E = 50 ma)$	IB2(MOD)		6.8	22	ma
Emitter Reverse Current					
$(V_{B2E} = 30v, I_{B1} = 0)$	IEO			12	μa
Peak Point Emitter Current ( $V_{BB} = 25v$ )	IP			25	µ.a.
Valley Point Current					1.4.1
$(V_{BB} = 20v, R_{B2} = 100\Omega)$	Iv		8		ma
				continued	next page

#### 2N1671A

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

Parameter		Note	Min.	Max.	
Intrinsic Standoff Ratio ( $V_{BB} = 10v$ )	n	1	0.47	0.62	
Interbase Resistance ( $V_{BB} = 3v$ , $I_E = 0$ )	Rвво	2	4.7	9.1	kilohms
Emitter Saturation Voltage					
$(V_{BB} = 10v, I_E = 50 ma)$	VE(SAT)			5	volts
Modulated Interbase Current					
$(V_{BB} = 10v, I_E = 50 ma)$	IB2(MOD)		6.8	22	ma
Emitter Reverse Current					
$(V_{B2E} = 30v, I_{B1} = 0)$	IEO			12	μa
Peak Point Emitter Current ( $V_{BB} = 25v$ )	IP			25	μa
Valley Point Current					
$(V_{BB} = 20v, R_{B2} = 100\Omega)$	Iy		8		mä
Base-One Peak Pulse Voltage	Vов1	3	2.0		volts

2N1671B

#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C)

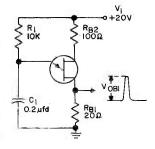
Parameter		Note	Min.	Max,	
Intrinsic Standoff Ratio ( $V_{BB} = 10v$ )	η	1	0.47	0.62	
Interbase Resistance ( $V_{BB} = 3v$ , $I_E = 0$ )	Rвво	2	4.7	9.1	kilohms
Emitter Saturation Voltage					
$(V_{BB} = 10v, IE = 50 ma)$	VE(SAT)			5	volts
Modulated Interbase Current					
$(V_{BB} = 10v, IE = 50 ma)$	IB2(MOD)		6.8	22	ma
Emitter Reverse Current					
$(V_{B2E} = 30v, I_{B1} = 0)$	IEO			0.2	$\mu \mathbf{a}$
Peak Point Emitter Current ( $V_{BB} = 25v$ )	Ip			6	μa
Valley Point Current					
$(V_{BB} = 20v, R_{B2} = 100\Omega)$	Iv		8		ma
Base-One Peak Pulse Voltage	Vob1	3	3.0		volts

#### NOTES:

1. The intrinsic standoff ration,  $\eta$ , is essentially constant with temperature and interbase voltage.  $\eta$  is defined by the equation:

$$V_{\rm P} \equiv \eta V_{\rm BB} + \frac{200}{T_{\rm J}}$$

- $\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{Where} & V_{P}{=}\mbox{Peak point emitter voltage} \\ & V_{BB}{=}\mbox{interbase voltage} \\ & T_{J}{=}\mbox{Junction Temperature (Degrees Kelvin)} \end{array}$
- The interbase resistance is nearly ohmic and increases with temperature in a well defined manner. The temperature coefficient at 25°C is approximately 0.8%/°C.
- **3.** The base-one peak pulse voltage is measured in the circuit below. This specification on the 2N1671A is used to ensure a minimum pulse amplitude for applications in SCR firing circuits and other types of pulse circuits.



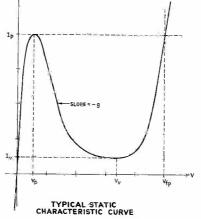
# TUNNEL DIODES

The 1N2939 is a germanium tunnel diode which makes use of the quantum mechanical tunneling phenomenon thereby attaining a unique negative conductance characteristic and very high frequency performance. The 1N2939 is designed for low level switching and small

1N2939

Outline Drawing No. 9

signal applications with frequency capabilities up to 2.2 Kmc. It features a closely controlled peak point current, good temperature stability and extreme resistance to nuclear radiation.



#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

#### Voltage

Forward Voltage\* Reverse Voltage\*

Ρ	0	w	e	r

Dissipation**	$\mathbf{Pc}$			50	mw
Temperature					
Storage	TSTG		55	to +100	°C
Operating Junction	$T_J$			to +100	°Č
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25	°C) (1/8" Leads)				
		Min.	Týp.	Max.	
Peak Point Current	Ip	0.9	1.0	1.1	ma
Valley Point Current	Iv		0.10	0.14	ma
Peak Point Voltage	Vp		55		mv
Valley Point Voltage	Vv		350		mv
Forward Peak Point Current Voltage	Vrp		500		mv
Peak Point Current to Valley					
Point Current Ratio	$I_p/I_v$		10		
Negative Conductance	-g		6.6×1	0-3	mho
Total Capacity	c		5.0	15	µµfd
Series Inductance	Ls***		6×1		henry
Series Resistance	Rs		1.5		ohm

\*Limited by dissipation.

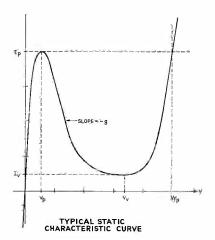
\*\*Derate .66 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

1N2940

**Outline Drawing No. 9** 

The 1N2940 is a germanium tunnel diode which makes use of the quantum mechanical tunneling phenomenon thereby attaining a unique negative conductance characteristic and very high frequency performance. The 1N2940 is designed for low level switching and small

signal applications with frequency capabilities up to 2.2 Kmc. It features a closely controlled peak point current, good temperature stability and extreme resistance to nuclear radiation.



#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C)

#### Voltage

Forward Voltage\* Reverse Voltage\* Power

Dissipation**	$\mathbf{Pc}$	50	mw
Temperature			
Storage	Taxo	-55 to $+100$	°C
Operating Junction	$T_{J}$	-55 to $+100$	°C

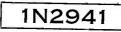
#### ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS: (25°C) (1/8" Leads)

		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Peak Point Current	$I_p$	0.9	1.0	1.1	ma
Valley Point Current	Iv			0.22	ma
Peak Point Voltage	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{p}}$		55		mv
Valley Point Voltage	$V_v$		350		mv
Forward Peak Point Current Voltage	Vfp		500		my
Peak Point Current to Valley					
Point Current Ratio	Ip/Iv		8		
Negative Conductance	$-\mathbf{g}$		6.6  imes 1	0-3	mho
Total Capacity	C		5.0	15	$\mu\mu fd$
Series Inductance	Ls***		6  imes 1	0- <del>0</del>	henry
Series Resistance	$\mathbf{R}_{s}$		1.5		ohm

\*Limited by dissipation.

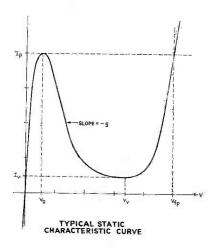
\*\*Derate .66 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

The 1N2941 is a germanium tunnel diode which makes use of the quantum mechanical tunneling phenomenon thereby attaining a unique negative conductance characteristic and very high frequency performance. The 1N2941 is designed for low level switching and small



Outline Drawing No. 9

signal applications. It features a closely controlled peak point current, good temperature stability and extreme resistance to nuclear radiation.



#### SPECIFICATIONS

#### ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS: (25°C) Voltage Forward Voltage\* Reverse Voltage\*

Pc			50	mw
TSTG		55	to 1100	°C
TJ				°C
5°C) (1/2" Leads)		00	10 1100	C
/8	Min.	Typ.	Max	
Ĩp	4.2			má
			1.04	ma
				mv
				mv
v ip		500		mv
In/In		0		
		-		
				mho
				$\mu\mu fd$
			10-9	henry
ns.		0.5		ohm
	TsTG	$ \begin{array}{c} T_{STG} \\ T_{J} \\ \hline \\ 5^{\circ}C) & (y_{g}'' \text{ Leads}) \\ \hline \\ I_{p} \\ I_{v} \\ V_{p} \\ V_{v} \\ V_{v} \\ V_{rp} \\ \hline \\ I_{p}/I_{v} \\ -g \\ C \\ I_{s}**** \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{cccc} T_{STG} &55 \\ T_{J} & -55 \\ \hline & & \\ \hline S^{\circ}C) & (1/g'' \ Leads) \\ \hline & & \\ \hline I_{p} & 4.2 & 4.7 \\ I_{v} & 0.6 \\ V_{p} & 55 \\ V_{v} & 350 \\ V_{rp} & 500 \\ \hline & & \\ V_{rp} & 500 \\ \hline & & \\ I_{p}/I_{v} & 8 \\ -g & 30 \times 1 \\ C & 25 \\ L_{s}^{***} & 6 \times 3 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

\*Limited by dissipation.

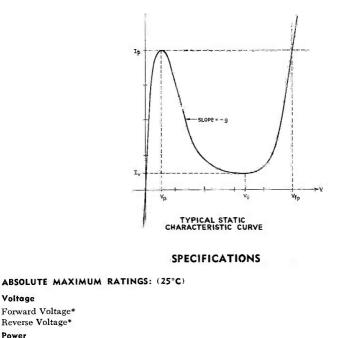
\*\*Derate .66 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

1N2969

**Outline Drawing No. 9** 

The 1N2969 is a germanium tunnel diode which makes use of the quantum mechanical tunneling phenomenon thereby attaining a unique negative conductance characteristic and very high frequency performance. The 1N2969 is designed for low level switching and small

signal applications with frequency capabilities up to 2.5 Kmc. It features a closely controlled peak point current, good temperature stability and extreme resistance to nuclear radiation.



Dissipation**	Pe	50	mw
Temperature Storage Operating Junction	Tstg Tj	55 to +100 55 to +100	°C °C

ELECTRICAL	CHARACTERISTICS:	(25°C)	(1/8" Leads)	)
------------	------------------	--------	--------------	---

Voltage Forward Voltage\* Reverse Voltage\* Power

		Min.	Typ.	Max.	
Peak Point Current	Ip	2.0	2.2	2.4	ma
Valley Point Current	Iv		.285	.480	ma
Peak Point Voltage	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{p}}$		55		mv
Valley Point Voltage	Vv		350		mv
Forward Peak Point Current Voltage	Vfp		500		mv
Peak Point Current to Valley					
Point Current Ratio	$I_p/I_v$		8		
Negative Conductance	$-\mathbf{g}$		16  imes 1	.0-3	mho
Total Capacity	С		8	30	$\mu\mu fd$
Series Inductance	Ls***		$6 \times 1$	.0-9	henry
Series Resistance	$\mathbf{R}_{s}$		1.0		ohm

\*Limited by dissipation.

\*\*Derate .66 mw/°C increase in ambient temperature above 25°C.

		MAXI	NUM R.	MAXIMUM RATINGS		U	LECTRI	CAL PA	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	RS	2		
Dvg.	8° 8 Pc	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CE</sub> *	le ma	TJ <sup>o</sup> C	MIN. hre-hfe*@ Ic ma		MIN. face mc	Ge db.	MAX. Ico (µa)	@ VcB	Closest	D×0
		20 80 20	-100 - 50 - 30	$^{-20}_{-25}$	22 25 25	1.9α 1.9α 2.9α					5		
V	61	00 200	- 20 - 35*	100	60 55 55	2.5a							4
<b>V</b> V	-	50 50 100	30 * 30 * 30 *	100 30 7	85 85 40	100 100 $2.2\alpha$		2T	171	15	30	Old G11	
	-	00 20	- 40 - 40	8 - 1 - 8	40 40	2.2α 2.2α 2.2α	નંનં	2.7 2.7 2.7	21T 21T	150	25	Old G11A	
		20.00	- 8.5 - 255 - 255	- 8 8 	50 50 50	40 40		9.9	40T 40T		2	2N190 2N190 2N190	
B B B		0.00	- 20 - 20	∞ ∞ ∞ 	8088 808	40 45T 30T		~	40T 40T 36T			2N169 2N191 2N190	100
ചചാ		000	- 20 - 25	8 - 128 8	2020	15T 18T 40T	P		32T 34 40T	- 12 - 10	-13	2N189 2N189 2N190	
	ลีดีลี	222	- 30 - 30 - 30	- 300 - 300 - 300	100 100 100	30 30 25T	ر ار ترتان	101010		- 16 - 16	- 45	2N43 2N43A 2N44	
DQ	-	0.00		-10 - 12	100 50 65	$\begin{array}{c} 25T\\ 40T\\ .975\alpha\end{array}$	с <u>з</u>		34 4T	-10 -10	- 45 - 12 - 12	2N44 2N320 2N320	
20		0.00	- 35* - 35* - 15	$^{-20}_{-20}$	2022 2022	.970a .975 2a		3T		ي ا ا	-12 -12	2N321 16V 2N320	
	11	120	- 20 - 20 20	80 80 80 	50 50	$2.2\alpha$	,			-350	1		
	ສສຊ	200	- 45 - 45	- 10	60 60 60				40T 39T 38T			2N1098 16V 2N1097 16V 2N320	004
000	2 <b>2</b> 2	2.2	- 40*	- 200	88	90T* -100 90T* -100			35T 35T	112	-20	2N321 2N321	44

REGISTERED JEDEC TRANSISTOR TYPES

JUNE 1, 1960

	44 				MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV CB* BV CB*	lc ma	T <sup>3</sup> °C	MIN. hfe-hFB*	@ lc ma	MIN. facb mc	NIX 8° db 8	$\underset{Ico(\mu\alpha)}{MAX}$	@ VcB	Closest GE	D¥g.
2N59C	and	MM	AF Out AF Out	000	180 180 180	-60* -25* -40*	-200 -200 -200	85 85 85	90T* 65T* 65T*	-100 -100 -100		35T 35T 35T	- 15 - 15 - 15	$-20 \\ -20 $	2N321 2N321	44
2N60A 2N60B 2N60C	PNP	* * *	AF Out AF Out	000	180	1 20 * 1 20 *	200 - 200 - 200	822 822 82	65T* 65T* 45T*	$-100 \\ 100 \\ 100$		35T 35T 35T	-15 -15 -15	- 20 - 20	2N320	4
2N61A 2N61B	dNP dNP dNP	388	AF Out AF Out	000	180	- 40* - 50*	- 200 - 200 - 200	8558	45T* 45T* 45T*	100 100 100		35T 35T 35T	-15 -15 -15	-20 - 20 - 20	2N320	4
2N62 2N63 2N63	dNd	Phil Ray	Obsolete AF	DAA	100		-10 - 10 - 10	85 85	.975aT 22T 45T			39T 41T	99 	- 66 - 16	2N107 2N322	H4
2N65 2N65	dNd	Ray WE	AF Obsolete	× •	100 1W 2W	1		85 80 70	706		.2	92T 23T	-300	- 6	2N323	4
2N67 2N71	dNd	Syl Syl	Pwr Pwr	¥	2 W 1 W			095			2.5	23 20	-150 ma			
2N72 2N73 2N74	PNP	MCA W	Ubsolete Sw Sw	1	200 200 200		3	8	-						2N1614 2N1614 2N1614	⊷,⊣ ⊢
2N75 2N76 2N77	dNd	GE RCA	Obsolete AF	, C	20 20	- 20*	- 10 - 15 90	85 85 85	.90α 55 45*	1	1.0 .70	34 44T 27	-10 -10 3	$-20 \\ -12 \\ 15$	2N322 2N324 2N78	440
2N78 2N79 2N79	NdN	GE RCA	RF/IF AF AF	n m U m	355	1 30 20		82	45* 46 80T		۰. ۲	29 44	3	15 - 10	2N78A 2N321 2N508	cc 4 c1
2N8U 2N81 2N82 2N82	dNP NDNP	GE	Obsolete AF BF		35 at 71° (	8000 1 - 1 - 1 - 1		100 100	20 20 40T	<u></u> ю	37	25T	-16 -16 3	- 30 - 30 - 10	2N1098 2N1098 2N634	000
2N94A 2N95	NdN	Syl Syl	RF Pwr Oborlete		30 2.5W			75 70 55	40T	s,	54.51 1947	25T 23T	ന	10	- 2N634	
2N97 2N97 2N97A	NdN	8998		<b>~</b> ~	2002			75 85 75	.85a .85a .95a		بۇنىرى	38T 38T 47T	10 10 10	4.5 30 4.5	2N169 15V 2N169A 25V 2N169A 25V	
2N98A 2N98A 2N999 2N100	NAN	3 338	IF FI	444	32.00		10 10 2	85 75 50	.96α .95α .99α		2.5 2.5	47T 47T 53T	1001	4.5 6.5 6.5	2N169A 25V 2N169A 25V 2N170 6V	ကကက်
2N101 2N101 2N102 2N103	dNP NGN NGN	Syl 1	Pwr Pwr IF		1W 20		-1.5 1.5 10	70 75 75	.60œ		75T	23T 23T 33T	50	10 80	2N170 6V	3

	r				MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	VTINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	RAMETE	RS		-	
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> *	le ma	Tr°C	MIN. hte-hfe	@ Ic ma	MIN. facto mc	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico(μα)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N104 2N105 2N105	ANP PNP	RCA RCA Ray	AF AF AF	ACA	150 35 100	$-30 \\ -25 \\ -6$	-50 - 15 - 10	85 85 85	44 55 25	5	7.7	33T 42 28	$\begin{array}{c} -10\\ -12\\ 12\end{array}$	$^{-12}_{-12}$	2N1415 2N321 2N1097	0140
2N107 2N108 2N109	dNd dNd	GE CBS RCA	AF AF Out AF	₽B-	50 50 150	- 20 - 25	$-10 \\ -15 \\ -70 $	60 85	20 75*		9	30T	-10	-12	2N107 2N322 2N322	- 4 4
2N110 2N111 2N111A	Pt PNP PNP	WE Ray Ray	Sw IF	<b>4</b> 44	200 150 150	- 15 - 15	-50 200 -200	8555 8555	32 15 15	1	1.5 3T 3T	33T 33T	ר   יטיטי	-12 -12	2N394 2N394	00
2N112 2N112A 2N113	dNd dNd	Ray Ray Ray	IF IF RF	<b>4</b> 44	150 150 100	-15 -15 -6	- 200 - 200 - 5	888	15 15 45T		5T 5T 10T	35T 35T 33T	ານ 	- 12 - 12	2N394 2N394 2N394	000
2N114 2N117 2N118	AND NGN NGN	Ray TI TI	RF Sw Si (= 903) Si (= 904)	<b>~</b> ~~	100 150 150	30* 30* 10	22 25 25	150 150 150	65Τ .90α .95α	пн	20T 1 2		10 10	30	2N394 2N332 2N333	04 <del>4</del>
2N119 2N120 2N122	NGN	TI IT	Si AF Si AF Pwr	¥¥	150 150 8.75W	30* 45*	25 25 140A	150 175 150		1 100	$^{2}_{7T}$		10 2 10 ma	20 20	2N335	4
2N123 2N124 2N125	NGN NGN	TI TI	SS W W W W W	~~~	150 50 50	-15 10* 10*	- 125 8 8	75 75 75		-10	ທຸດທ		1010	202 150 150	2N123 2N293 2N167	1-00
2N126 2N127 2N128	NGN NGN	TI TI Phil	Sw Sw SB Osc	AAD	30 00 30 20	10* 10* -4.5	8 8 19   	75 85 85	1	່ນບຸດ	5 5 45 f <sub>max</sub>		01 01 00 	ດາດາດ 	2N167 2N167	ကက
2N129 2N130 2N130A	dNd dNd	Phil Ray Ray	SB RF AF AF	Qææ	. 30 1005	-4.5 -22 -40	$^{-100}_{-100}$	888	1	s. H	30 fmax	39T 40T	- 15 - 15	-5 -20	2N1413 2N1413	0,01
2N131 2N131A 2N132	dNq dNq	Ray Ray Ray	AF AF AF	aaa	85 100 85	-15 - 30 - 12	-100 - 100 - 100	82 82 8 22 22	45T 27 90T	r	.8T	41T 42T 42T	-15	-20	2N1413 2N1413 2N321	81 61 74
2N132A 2N133 2N133A 2N133A	dNP dNP	Ray Ray Ray	AF AF AF	n n n	100 85 100	-20 - 15 - 20	$\begin{array}{c}1\\1\\1\\1\\0\end{array}$	8888	56 25 50T	н <del>м</del>	1T .8T	44T 36T 38T	+15 -12 -15	-20 -15 -20	2N321 2N1414 2N1414	400
2N135 2N136 2N137	dNq dNq	GEE GEE	Obsolete Obsolete Obsolete	444	100 1000 1000	-12 - 12 - 6	20   50   1	85 55 85	20T 40T 60T		4.5T 6.5T 10T	29T 31T 33T			2N394 2N394 2N394	~~~~~
2N138 2N138A 2N138B	ANP PNP	Ray Ray Ray	AF Out AF Out AF Out	ава	150 150 100	-12 - 30 - 30	$^{-20}_{-100}$	85 50 85 80	140T			30T 29T 29T			2N508	C#
2N139 2N140 2N141	dng dnd	RCA RCA Syl	IF Osc Pwr	V	35 4W	-16 - 30 - 30	- 15 - 15 8A	85 85 65 85 85	48 45 .975αT	50 4.1	6.8 7 .4T	30 27 18T	- 100 - 100	$^{-12}_{-20}$	2N394 2N394	4141

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELEC.	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr,	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CE</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	la ma	Tĵ°C	MIN. hre-hre*	@ Ic ma	MIN. facto me	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico (μα)	@ Vor	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N142 2N143 2N144	NdN NdN NdN	Syl Syl	Pwr Pwr Pwr		4W 4W 4W	- 30 - 30 - 30	8. - 8. 8.	65 65	.975αT .975αT .975αT	- 50 50 50	14 14 14	26T 26T 26T	-100 - 100 -100	$^{-20}_{20}$		
	NAN	TTT	न्त्रम	~~~	888	02 80 02 80	លលល	75 75 75	888	•		888	~~~	999	2N293	63
-	Nan	EEE	411	~~~	65 65 65	16 32 16	លល់ល	75 75 75				3232	n n n	12 12 12	2N169 2N169 2N169	
	NdN	LII	IF IF	~~~	85 55 55	32 16 32	ເດຍເດ	75 75 75	n 1		Þ	35 38 38 38		1212	2N169 2N169 2N169	~ ~ ~ ~
2N155 2N156 2N157	dNd	CBS CBS CBS CBS CBS CBS	Pwr Pwr Pwr		8.5W 8.5W 8.5W	- 30* - 30* - 60*	- 3A - 3A - 3A	85 85 85 85	24* 20*	54	.15T .15T .1	33	1 ma 1 ma 1 ma	- 30 - 60 - 60		
	dNP dNP	CBS CBS CBS CBS CBS	Pwr Pwr Pwr		8.5W 8.5W 8.5W	+08 - 80*	- 3A - 3A - 3A	8585	20* 21* 21*	5A 5A 5A	.1 .15T .15	37	l ma l ma l ma	- 90 - 60 - 80	- -	
	NdN	888	Si IF Si IF Si RF	~~~	150 150 150	40* 40*	អូអូអូ	150 150 150	.9a .95a	777	14 14 17	34T 34T 37T	ເດເດເຊ	40 40 40	2N332 2N332 2N333	***
	NdN NdN	555	Si RF Si RF Si RF	×××	150 150	40* 40*	52 52 52 52	150 150 150	.95a .95a .95a	777	5T 88	37T 38T 38T	ດເດເດ	404 04 04 04 04	2N333 2N335 2N335 2N335	* रं रं
	NdN	GP GP GF	Si RF Si RF Obsolete	< < C	150 150	40* 40* 6	20 25 20	150 150 50	$.975\alpha$ $.975\alpha$ .32T	ы ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца ца	6T 6T	40T 40T 24T	លលល	40 5	2N335 2N335 2N170	ৰৰণ
N167 N167A N168	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	GE GE GE	Sw Sw IF		339.5	1288	75 20 20	85 85 75	17* 17* 20T	∞ ∞ –	51 S	28	1.5	15 15	2N167 2N167 2N293 2N293	ନ ର ମ
2N168A 2N169 2N169	NdN	SES SES	Obsolete IF AF		888 888	15515	20 20 20 20	8558 85	23* 34*		s T S T S	28 27 27	លម្ងាល	15 155 155	2N1086 2N169 2N169A	205 BD.00
	Nan	GE TI Dlc	IF IF Pwr	νA	25 65 40W	- 16 - 60		50 75 95	.95¤T 85T*	1 1A	4T .6T	22T 22 40T	5 ma	- 40 55	2N170 2N293	67 63
2N174 2N174A 2N175	dNP dNP	Dle Dle RCA	Pwr Pwr AF	¢	40W 85W 20	- 80 - 80 - 10	- 13 <b>A</b> - 15 <b>A</b> - 2	95 95 85	40T* 40* 65	1A 1.2A .5	12. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	39T 43T	10 ma 8 ma 12	- 60 - 25		
2N176 2N178 2N179	dN4 dN4	Motor Motor Motor	Pwr Pwr Pwr		3W 3W	-12 - 12 - 20	- 600 - 600	088 088 88				25T 29T 32T				

MAXIMUM RATINGS         ELECTRICAL PARAMETEI           Use         Nor. $e^{\text{craw}}$ Vor. $e^{\text{craw}}$ Iome         Tric $e^{\text{craw}}$ RV or           Use         No. $e^{27}$ EVOR.         Iom         Tric         MIN.         MIN.         MIN.           AF Out         B         250         -30         -35         75         60T         Tric $a^{T}$ T $a^{T}$ T           AF Out         B         100         255         10         85         577         60T $a^{T}$ T $a^{T}$ T           AF Out         A         100         255         200         85         2577 $a^{T}$ T $a^{T}$ T           AF Nut         1         200         -255         200         85         2577 $a^{T}$ T $a^{T}$ T           AF Nut         AF         1         200         -255         200         85         5577         100         11         27           AF Nut         AF         1         255         200         85         277         100         12         27           AF         1         75         33         347         100         12																	
						MAX	IMUM RA	TINGS			ELECT	RICAL P.	ARAMETI	ERS			
PNP         CRS         AF Out         B         150         -30         -25         75         667         73         337           NPN         CRS         Sw         B         100         234         10         55         237         56           NPN         CRS         Sw         B         100         234         10         55         237         367           NPN         CRS         Sw         B         100         234         10         55         237         26           NNN         CRS         Sw         B         100         235         10         55         26         37         27         37         37           NNN         GR         AF         1         100         235         200         55         26         35         27         100         17         38         37         10         10         25         37 <t< th=""><th>èn.</th><th>Type</th><th>Mfr,</th><th>Use</th><th>Dwg. No.</th><th>Pc mw @ 25°C</th><th>BV<sub>CE</sub> BV<sub>CB</sub>*</th><th>la ma</th><th>T,°C</th><th></th><th>@ la ma</th><th>MIN. fhrb mc</th><th>Gada.</th><th>MAX. Ιco (μα)</th><th>@ VCB</th><th>Closest GE</th><th>Dwg.</th></t<>	èn.	Type	Mfr,	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CE</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	la ma	T,°C		@ la ma	MIN. fhrb mc	Gada.	MAX. Ιco (μα)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg.
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	0-10	dng Ngn	CBS CBS CBS CBS	AF/Out AF Out Sw	æœæ	150 250 100	-30 -30 25*	- 25 - 38 10	75 85	60T 60T 25T*		2.5	37T 34T	3T	10	2N321 2N321 2N634	440
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-	NdN	CBS CBS TI	Sw Sw AF Out	a a A	100 100 150	25* 25* - 20	- 150	85 85 75	50T* 100T* 35	-100	5 10	26	3T 3T 15	$^{10}_{-20}$	2N634 2N635 2N320 2N320	004
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	V	dNd	GE GE GE	Obsolete AF Out Obsolete		100 200 100	- <b>2</b> 5 - 25 - 25	200 200 200	ເຊັສ ສ ເຊັສ ເຊັສ	24T* 24T* 36T*	- 100 - 100 - 100	87 81 11	80 87 88 87 88 89	- 16 - 16 - 16	- 25 - 25 - 25	2N186A 2N186A 2N187A 2N187A	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	¥28	dNd	GE GE GE	AF Out Obsolete AF Out	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	200 200	- 25 - 25 - 25	-200 -200 -200	888 85 85	36T* 54T* 54T*	-100 100 100	11 1.2T 1.2T	30 32 32 32	- 16 - 16 - 16	- 25 - 25 - 25	2N187A 2N188A 2N188A 2N188A	<b></b>
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	601	dNd dNd	GE GE GE	AF AF AF		75 75 75		- 50 - 50 - 50	888	24T* 36T* 54T*		.8T 1.0T 1.2T	37 39 41	116 116 1 1 1	- 25 - 25	2N189 2N190 2N191	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2004	and	GE Syl Syl	AF Osc Osc	144	75 50 50	-25 15 15	50	85 75 75	75T* 3.8 4.8		1.5T 2.2	43 15T	- 16 40 40	-25 15 15	2N192 2N1086 2N1086	<b></b>
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	44 6 7	NdNd	Syl RCA Phil	Osc AF AF	< <Ω	50 50	- 12 - 12 - 12	$^{-100}_{-20}$	75 85 65	5 47T 35		27 2.T	20	50 -15	18 12	2N1087 2N1414 2N1415	50 N N
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	7A 7B 1	dNd NdN	Phil Phil Syl	AF AF Osc	00 ×	50 50 50	$-12 \\ -12 \\ 10$	$^{-20}_{50}$	65 65 75	35 35 3.8		$^{2}_{2}T$		-15 -15 20	$-12 \\ -12 \\ 10$	2N1415 2N1415 2N293	000
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	332		Syl Syl Syl	Osc AF AF	~~~	50 50 150	255 255 25	100 100	75 75 85	7 70 100		4 10 Ke	22T 39 38	200 200 200	10 20 20	2N293 2N169A None	m m
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	4100	N dN	Syl RCA Syl	0	<b>V</b> YV	125 150 50	-30 -30	- 50 - 50	75 85 75	50 44 3.5	35	6.1.51	26 33T 26T	$^{200}_{-10}$	-12 15	None 2N1415 2N292	61 et
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	~ 80	dNd	RCA RCA	AF IF Osc	~~~	150 80 80	- 25 - 16 - 16	- 15 - 15	85 85 85	75* 48 75	۲.	6.8 10	30T 32	9 1 - 1	$-12 \\ -12$	2N321 2N394 2N394	400
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	004	dNd	Phil Phil Phil	AF AF AF Out	<b>≺</b> ΩΩ	50 100 250	- 10 - 18 - 25*	$^{-150}_{150}$	85 65 75	65 39 60*	$-\frac{2}{100}$	.5T 5T	43	$^{-20}_{-25}$	9 - 12	2N323 2N323 2N321	444
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	10.91	dNd	Phil Phil Phil	AF Out AF Out AF Out	<u>000</u>	250 250 250		150 150 150	75 75 75	60* 35* 35*	$^{-100}_{-100}$	.5T .4T .4T		-25 -25 -25	- 12 - 30 - 30	2N321 2N321 2N321 2N321	444
	× 0	NdN	Syl Syl Phil	AF Out AF SB RF	AAD	9 20 20 6	25 -4.5	50 40 30 80	75 75 55	$\frac{50}{19}$	35 .5 1 35	.6 .55 20 fos	23	200 200 - 3	40 - 55	2N169 2N169	iu u

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			Í
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV CE BV CB*	le ma	T,°C	MIN. hre-hre*	@ Ic ma	MIN. facto mc	Alk. G db.	MAX. Ico(µa)	@ VcB	Closest GE	Dvg. No.
37 37	NGN NGN NGN	Phil Syl Syl	SB RF IF IF	Å∢∢	50 <i>9</i>	-4.5 10 10	20 ° °	55 75 75	6 0 10 6 0 10	10 H H	30 fos		- 60 100	1021	2N448 9N448	ris or
544 54	PNP PNP PNP	Bendix Bendix Bendix	Pwr Pwr Pwr		25W 25W 25W			966 966			8 Kc 8 Kc 7 Kc	52 52 52	-1 ma T -1 ma T	- 25	0	5
5B 5B	dNq dNd	Bendix Bendix Bendix	Pwr Pwr Pwr		25W 25W	- 40 - 40 - 40	- 3A 3.0A - 3A	95 95 95			7 Kc 6 Kc		-1 ma	-25		
6A 6B 8	dNd	Bendix Bendix T1	Pwr Pwr AF	¥	25W 50	- 40 - 40	3A 3.0A	95 75	4 a	, ,	6 Kc		-1 ma 300 -20	-25 -20	2N323	Ŷ
IA IA	dnd	Phil GE GE	SB Sw Obsolete AF Out	₽⊣₼	$\substack{100\\200}$	6	-15 200 20 <b>0</b>	85 85	16 73T* 73T*	100 100	30 fos 1.3T 1.3T	E E	- 16 - 16	- 255	2N241A 2N241A 2N241A	
01 07 <del>4</del>	NdN	IVI I	Pwr Si AF Si AF	¥	20W 750 750	-45 60* 60*	-2A 60 60	85 150 150	6. 6.	11	5 Kc	- 30 30 30	-5 ma 1 1	- 45 30 30	F	
~ 80 6	dud	TI	Drift RF RF AF	CAA	80 350 350	-12 - 25 - 25	-10 - 5 - 5 - 200	822 855 85	$^{60}_{30}$	-100	30 50T	37	- 20 - 10 - 25	-12 - 12 - 25		ļ
2N250 2N251 2N252	dud dud	EEE	Pwr Pwr IF	¥	12W 12W 30	-30 - 160 - 160	-2A -5	55 80 55 80	30* 30*	- 5A - 5A		30 28	-1 ma -2 ma -10	- 30 - 12	- A	
0.4.10 li	NAN NAN ANG	TI CBS	IF IF Pwr	×<	65 1.5W	$^{12}_{-15*}$	ທີ່ ທີ່ ທີ່	75 75 85			2T	[	n n	66	2N293 2N293	er es
6A	dNP PNP	CBS CBS CBS CBS CBS	Pwr Pwr Pwr		20W 1.5W 20W	$^{15}_{25}$	-44 -3 4A	85555	25* 25*	450 450	2T	22	5 ma 5 ma	15 - 25		
2N257 2N260 2N260A	dng dnd	ಕೆಕೆಕೆ	Pwr Si AF Si AF	щщ	200 200 200	-40* -10* -30*	-50 -50	85 150 150	55T 16T 16T	.5 <b>A</b>	7 Kq 1.8T 1.8T	30 38T 38T	-2 ma .001T .001T	-40 -6	2N332 2N332 2N332	***
2N261 2N262 2N262A	PNP PNP	ಕೆಕೆಕೆ	Si AF Si AF Si AF	മമമ	200 200	-75* 30*	- 50 - 50 50	150 150 150	10T 20T 20T		1.8T 6T 6T	36T 40T 40T	001T 	0 0 0 0 0 0	2N332 2N333 2N333 2N333	ずずず
2N265 2N267 2N268	dNd	GE RCA Cle	AF Drift RF Pwr	A	75 80 2W	-25 -12 -80*	- 10	85 85 85 85	110T*	1	1.5T 30 6 Kc	45 37 28	-16 -20 -2 ma	- 25 - 12 - 80	2N265, 2N508	1-8
2N268A 2N269 2N270	dng dng	RCA RCA	Pwr Sw AF Out	AC	120 150	-25 - 25	-100 - 75	90 85 85	20* 35 70	2A 150	Ť	1	-2 ma - 10	- 12 - 12 - 25	2N404 2N321	01 <del>4</del>
																-

					MAXI	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	RICAL P	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr	Uşe	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> *	lc ma	Tr°C	MIN. hte-hre*@ la ma	@ lc ma	MIN. faco mo	MIN. Ge db.	MAX. Ιco (μα)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg.
2N271 2N271A 2N271A		Ray Ray Ray	RF IF AF	~~~	150 150 150	$\begin{array}{c} -10 \\ -10 \\ -24 \end{array}$	$-200 \\ -200 \\ -100$	8888	45T 45T 60	<u>, -                                   </u>	10T 10T 1T	29T 39T 12T	5 5 - 6T		2N324	4
2N273 2N274 2N274	1	RCA BCA Dlco	RF Drift RF Pwr	PA	150 80 55W	-30 - 40	-100 -10 12A	85 85 95	10 60T 85T	50 1.2A	30T .5T	29 45T 34T	-6T -20 5 ma T	-20 - 12 - 30	2N1098	2
2N278 2N285 2N285A	dnd dnd	Dlco Bendix Bendix	Pwr Pwr Pwr		55W 25W 25W	-50 - 40	12A 3A 3A	95 95	85T	1.2A	.5T 6 Kc 6 Kc	34T 38 38 38	'5 ma T -1 ma -1 ma		4	the second second
2N290 2N291 2N292		Dlco TI GF	Pwr AF IF	۲n	55W 180 65	- 70 - 25 15		95 85 85	72T* 30* 8	1.2A 100 1	.4T 5T	37T - 31 25.5	-1 ma T 25 5	- 60 - 25 15	2N320 2N292	40
2N293 2N297 2N297A		S en	l F Pwr Pwr	e2	65 35W 35W	- 50 - 50	-20 -5A -5A	85 95 95	$^{8}_{40*}$	– <i>v</i> i vi	8T 5 Kc 5 Kc	28	5 3 ma 3 ma		2N293	et e
2N299 2N300 2N301		Phil Phil RCA	SB RF SB RF Pwr	œы	20 20 11W	-4.5 -4.5 -20	5 5 -1.5A	91 85 91	11 70T*	.5 1A	90 fos 85 fos	20 33T -	-3 ma	- 12 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30		
2N301A 2N302 2N303		RCA Ray Ray	Pwr Obsolete Obsolete	×۷	11W 150 150	$-30 \\ -10 \\ -10$	-1.5A -200 -200	91 85 85	70T* 45T 75T	1A	$\frac{7}{14}$	33T -	-3 ma 1T 1T		2N186A 2N186A	11
2N306 2N307 2N307A		syl Syl Syl	AF Pwr Pwr	ĸ	50 10W 17W	288 288	- 1A - 2A	75 75 75	25 20 20	$\begin{array}{c} 200\\ 200\\ 200 \end{array}$	.6 3 Kc 3.5 Kc		50 15 ma 7 ma	- 35 - 35 - 35	2N292	က
2N308 2N309 2N310		IT	IF HI HI	~~~	888	-20 - 30	ດເທດ 	និនន័ន	28T			39 41 37T	- 10 - 110 - 110	6 6 1		
2N311 2N312 2N313		Motor Motor GE	Sw Sw Obsolete	υu	75 75 65	– 15 15 ភូ ស	20	8888	25 25 25		ŝ	36 max	- 60 - 60	-15 15	2N123 2N167 Use 2N292	r-⇔.w
2N314 2N315 2N316		GE GT GT	Obsolete Sw Sw	00	65 100 100	-15 -115 -10	-200 -200	85 85 85	25 15 20	100 200	8 5T 12T	39 max	5 5 7 7	212 	Use 2N293 2N396 2N397	ec ed ed
2N317 2N318 2N319		GT GE	Sw Photo AF	£ÞŬ	100 50 225	-12	$^{-200}_{-20}$	85 85	20 34T*	400 - 20	20T 75T 2T		-2 -16	5	2N319	4
2N320 2N321 2N322	dNd	GE GE GE	AF AF AF	444	225 225 140	- 20 - 16	-200 - 200 - 100	85 85 60	50T* 80T* 15T	$^{-20}_{-20}$	2.5T 3.0T 2T		-16 -16 -16 -16	-25 - 25 - 16	2N320 2N321 2N322	***
2N323 2N324 2N325	dNP dNP	GE GE Syl	AF AF Pwr	44	140 140 12W	-16 -35	$^{-100}_{-2A}$	60 85	68T 85T 30*	-20 - 20 - 500	2.5T 3.0T .15	1	-16 -16 -500	-16 - 16 - 30	2N323 2N324	44

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JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CE</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	le ma	T,°C	MIN. hre-hre*	@ la ma	MIN. fhrb mc	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico (μα)	@ VcB	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N326 2N327 2N327		Syl Ray Hay	Pwr Si AF AF	0°0	335 350	35 50*	$^{2A}_{-100}$	85 160 160	30* 9	500 1 .1	.15 .3T .2T	96	500 1 1	0000 0000 1 1		
2N328 2N328A 2N328A		Ray Ray Ray	Si AF Si AF Si AF	000	335 335 335		-100 -100	160 160 160	18 18* 36		.35T .3T .6T	32 34		9000 1 1 20	1	
2N329A 2N330 2N330A		Ray Ray Ray	Si AF Si AF Si AF	000	350 335 350		-100 -100	160 160 160	36* 9 25T		r Livivi	30 34T	 1	1 30		
2N331 2N332 2N332A		RCA TI-GE GE	AF Si AF Si AF	0.4.4	200 500		12	85 200 175	50T 9	5 <del>4</del>	10T 2.5	44T 14T 11	$^{-16}_{-500}$	-30	2N1415 2N332 2N332A 2N332A	0144
2N333 2N333A 2N333A 2N334		TI-GE GE TI-GE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	***	150 500 150			200 175 200	18 18 18		12* 2.5 8	14T 11 13T	.500 2	8 9 9 9 9 9	2N333 2N333A 2N334	** ** *
2N334A 2N335 2N335A		GE TI-GE GE	S: AF S: AF AF	444	500 150 500			175 200 175	8122 2318	-	8.0 14* 2.5	12 13T	.500 .500	20 20 20 20	2N334A 2N335 2N335A 2N335A	<del>र र र</del>
2N335B 2N336 2N336A		GE TL-GE GE	S: AF S: AF AF	44	500 150 500		នេនន	175 200 175	37 76 76	ж <b>н</b> .	2.5 15* 2.5	12T 12T 12	.500 .500	888 888	2N335B 2N336 2N336A 2N336A	***
2N337 2N338 2N338 2N339	NGN NGN	TI-GE TI-GE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	440	125 125 1W	42* 55* 55*	50 50 50 50	200 200 150	19 39 .9α		10 20	30		30.20	2N337 2N338	44
2N340 2N341 2N342		EEE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	000	NI NI			150 150 150	9α 9α 9α	აით 		888 888		8 8 8		
2N343 2N344 2N345	1 1	T Phil	Si AF RF RF	000	1W 40 40			150 85 85	$\frac{.966\alpha}{11}$ 25	ло I	30 fos 30 fos	30	- 5 5	30   22	2N335B	Ŧ
2N346 2N350 2N351		Phil Motor Motor	RF Pwr Pwr	đ	40 10W			85 90 90	$^{10}_{25*}$	-700 - 700	60 fos 5 Kc 5 Kc	30 32	-3 ma -3 ma -3 ma	- 30		
2N352 2N353 2N354	dng dng	Phil Phil Phil	Pwr Pwr Si AF	D	25W 30W 150	- 40 - 40 - 25*	-2A -2A -50	100 140	30 40 9	VI III	10 Kc 7 Kc 8 f <sub>os</sub>	30 30	-5 ma - -5 ma - 1	1 @ 85°C 1 @ 85°C 10		
2N355 2N356 2N357	ANA Ngn Ngn	Phil GT GT	Si AF Sw Sw	AUU	150 120 120	-10* 18 15	50 100	140 85 85	20 20 20	$\begin{array}{c} 1\\100\\200\end{array}$	8 fos 3T 6T		1 5 5	- 10 55	2N634 2N634	6710
2N358 2N364 2N365	NAN NAN	115 TIT	Sw AF AF	U A A	120 150 150	$30^{+}_{-30}$	100 50 50	85 85 85	20 19	300 - 1 - 1	T6 1		1002	30 22 30 22	2N635	61

						MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	<b>RAMET</b>	RS			
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	JEDEC. No.	Туре	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	P.º mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	la ma	Tı°C	MIN. hre-hru*	@ lc ma	MIN. fheb me	AIN. G, db	MAX. Ico(µa)	@ VcB	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N366 2N367 2N368	N MN ANA ANA		AF AF AF		150 100 150	$^{30*}_{-30*}$	- 50 - 50	85 75 75			– ci 4		- 10 - 10 - 10	- 30 - 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 	2N1413 2N1413 2N1413	6163
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N369 2N370 2N371	dnd dnd		AF Drift RF Drift RF		150 80 80	- 30* - 24* - 24*	- 50 - 20 - 20	75 85 85 85			.5 30T 30T	31M 17.6M	-20 - 10 - 10	112	2N1415	61
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N372 2N373 2N374	dNd		Drift RF Osc Drift Osc		08 8 8 0 8 0 8 0 8	24* 24* 24*	-20 - 10 - 10	85 85 85 85			30T 30T 30T	12.5M 40T 40T	-10 -16 -116	-12 -12 -12		
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N375 2N376 2N377	dnd NdN	Motor Motor Syl-GE	Pwr Pwr Sw	63	45W 10W 150	- 60 - 40* 20	-3A -3A 200	100 100		1A 1A 30	7 Kc 5 Kc 6T	35T	-3 ma 5	-60 1	2N377	5
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N377A 2N378 2N379	ndn dnd	Syl TS TS	Sw Pwr Pwr	£	150 50W 50W	40 - 80	200 - 5 <b>A</b> - 5 <b>A</b>	100 100		200 2A 2A	6T 5 Kc 5 Kc		-500	- 40 - 25		
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N380 2N381 2N382	dNd	TS TS TS	Pwr AF Out AF Out	00	50W 200 200	60 255 	5 <b>A</b> 200 200	100 85 85		20 20 20	7 Kc 1.2T 1.5T		-500 -10T -10T		2N320 2N321 2N321	44
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N383 2N384 2N385 2N385	and	TS RCA Syl	AF Out Drift Osc Sw	000	$120 \\ 150$	- 25 - 30 25	$-200 \\ -10 \\ 200$	85 85 100		20 1.5 30	1.8T 100T 4		-10T -16 35		2N321 2N634	4 0
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	2N386 2N387 2N388	dnd dnd	Phil Phil Syl-GE	Pwr Pwr Sw	23	12.5W 12.5W 150	- 60 - 80 20	3A 3A 200	000100		-2.5A -2.5A 30	7 Kc 6 Kc 5		-5 ma -5 ma 10	- 60 - 80 25	2N388	61
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	2N388A 2N389 2N392	NdN	Syl TT Dic	Sw Si Pwr Pwr	£	150 85W 70W	$^{40}_{-60*}$	200 -5A	100 200 95		200 1A 3A	5 6 Kc		40 10 ma 60 .8 ma	@ 100°C -60		
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N393 2N391 2N395	and	Phil GE GE	SSS SSS	24 29	150 200	$^{-16}_{-15}$	-50 -200 -200	85 85 100		100 100 100	40 fos 4 3	1	ου 	-10 -15	2N394 2N395	. 01 01
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2N396A 2N396A 2N397	dNd dNd	GE GE GE	SS Sw SSS	ผยย	$200 \\ 200 \\ 200 \\ 200 $	-20 -15	-200 - 200 - 200	100 100		$-10 \\ -10 \\ -10$	5 10		999 	-20 -15	2N396 2N396A 2N397	9999
PNP         Bendix         Pwr         25W         -40         -3A         90         36xT         1         8.Kc         30T         -1 ma           PNP         W         AF         C         180         -20         -150         85         .96xT         1         8.Kc         30T         -1 ma           PNP         W         AF         C         180         -20         -100         85         .96xT         1         8.Kc         30T         -1 ma           PNP         WCA-GE         Sw         -20         -100         85         .97xT         1         8.FT         -15           PNP         RCA-GE         Sw         2         120         -24         -100         85         .97xT         1         .65T         -45           PNP         RCA         AF         C         150         -18         -35         85         .55T*         1         .65T         43T         -14	2N398 2N399 2N400	dnd	RCA Bendix Bendix	Sw Pwr Pwr	a	50 25W 25W	-105 - 40 - 40	-110 -3.0A 3.0A	85 95 95		—5 та	8 Ka		—14 -1 ma 2 ma	$^{-2.5}_{-25}$	2N1614	-
PNP         RCA-GE         Sw         2         120         -24         -100         85         85         -5         -5           PNP         RCA         AF         A         150         -18         -35         85         357*         1         67         43T         -14           PNP         RCA         AF         C         150         -18         -35         85         357*         1         65T         43T         -14	2N401 2N402 2N403	and	Bendix W W	Pwr AF AF	ပပ	25W 180 180	$^{-40}_{-20}$	$-\frac{-3A}{-200}$	90 85 85	.96aT .97aT		8 Kc .6T .85T	1	-1 ma 15 15	-25 - 20 - 20 - 20	2N320 2N319	44
	2N404 2N405 2N406	dud	RCA-GE RCA RCA	AF AF	NAQ	120 150 150	$-24 \\ -18 \\ -18$		888 858	35T* 35T*		4 .65T .65T	43'T 43T		- 12 - 12 - 12	2N404 2N322 2N322	44

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELEC'	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			18-1 1
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25° <b>C</b>	BV <sub>CE</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	la ma	TJ°C	MIN. hte-hFE*	@ la ma	MIN. Furb mc	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico (μα)	@ Vcb	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N407 2N408 2N408		RCA RCA RCA	AF AF IF	حن<	150 150 80	- 18 - 13 - 13	-70 -15	82 82 82 82	65T* 65T* 98αT	$^{-50}_{-50}$	6.7T	33T 33T 38T	-14 - 14 - 14 - 10	-12 - 12 - 13	2N323 2N323 2N394	440
2N410 2N411 2N412		RCA RCA RCA	IF 0sc 0sc	040	80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80		- 15 - 15	855 85	.98œT 75T 75T	ففعا	6.7T	38T 32T 32T	01-10	-13 -13 -13	2N394 2N394 2N394	0,0101
2N413 2N413A 2N414		GE Ray GE	IF Sw IF IF Sw	2010	150 150	115	- 200 - 200 - 200	85	30T 60	1	6T 2.5T 7T	33T	مەمە 1	-12 - 12 - 12 - 12	2N413 2N394 2N414	000
2N414A 2N415 2N415A		Ray Ray Ray	IF Osc IF	000	150 150		-200 -200 -200	85 85 85 85	60T 80T 80T		7T 10T 10T	35T 30T 39T	ທີ່ທີ່ທີ່ 	- 12 - 12 12	2N394 2N394 2N394 2N394	ุ่ดดด
2N416 2N417 2N418	dng dnd	Ray Ray Bendix	RF RF Pwr	00	150 150 25W	- 112 80 80	-200 -200 5A	85 85 100	80T 140T 40*	1 4A	10T 20T 400 Kc	20T 27T	-5 -5 15 ma	- 12 - 12 - 60	2N394 2N394	00
2N420 2N420A 2N422		Bendix Bendix Ray	Pwr Pwr AF	σ	25W 25W 150		5A 5A -100	100 100 85	40* 40* 50T	44 4 1	400 Kc 400 Kc .8T	10 m 38T	10 ma 15 ma - 15	- 25 - 60 - 20	2N320	4
2N425 2N426 2N427		Ray Ray Ray	Sw Sw Sw	000	150 150		-400 -400 -400 -400	888	20* 30* 40*		50 10 10 10		1   52 25 25 25 25	1 30 1 1 30 1 1 1 1	2N394 2N395 2N396	210101
2N428 2N438 2N438A		Ray CBS CBS	Sw Sw Sw	000	150 150 150		- 400	888 858 85	60* 20* 20*	50 50	10 2.5 2.5		$^{-25}_{10}$	-30 25 25	2N397 2N634 2N634	010101
2N439 2N439A 2N440		CBS CBS CBS	SSw Sw w	000	100 150			888 888	30 30* 40*	200	10 5 5		10110	25 25 25	2N634 2N634 2N635 2N635	010101
2N440A 2N444 2N445		GT GT	Sw Sw Sw	000	150 120 100	15 12	1	888 888 888	40* 15T 35T	20	10 .5T 2T		10 2T 2T	25 10	2N635	61
2N446 2N447 2N448		GE GE GE	Sw Sw IF	UU m	100 100 65	10 15 15	20	85 85 85	60T 125T 8*	1	5T 5T 5T	23	27 27 27	10 150	2N634 2N635 2N448	ରାହାମ
2N449 2N450 2N456		GE GE TI	IF Sw Pwr	-1 %	150 50	-15 - 40 - 40	- 125 - 125 5A	95 85 95	34* 30* 130T*			24.5	-2 ma	-15 40	2N449 2N450	mr-
2N457 2N458 2N459		ITTS	Pwr Pwr Pwr		2020	- 60 - 60 - 60	5A 5A	95 95 100	130T* 130T* 20*	1A 1A 2A	5 Kc		-2 ma -2 ma 100 ma	- 60 - 80 - 60		
2N460 2N461 2N462		TS Phil	AF Sw Sw	ပပု⊾	200 200 150	45* 45* 40*	-400 -400 -200	100 100 75	$94\alpha$ $97\alpha$ 20*	-200	1.2T 1.2T .5	34T 37T	15 15 35	45 45 35	2N524 2N1614	1 5

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS	P		ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMETI	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Úse	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV CB BV CB	le ma	Tյ°C	MIN. hre-hru*	@ lc ma	MIN. facto mo	AIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico (µa)	@ V <sub>CB</sub>	Closest GÉ	Dwg. No.
2N463 2N464 2N465	ANP ANP ANP	WE Ray Ray	Pwr AF AF	QQ	37.5W 150 150	60 40 - 30	$^{5A}_{-100}$	100 85 85	20* 14 27	$-\frac{2A}{1}$	4 mc .7T .8T	40T 42T	-300 -15 -15	-40 -20 -20	2N1614 2N1414	
2N466 2N467 2N469	ANP QNP QNP	Ray GT	AF AF Photo	000	150 150 50	- 20 - 15	-100 -100		56 112 10			44T 45T	- 115 - 115 - 115 - 115	120	2N321 2N508	401
2N481 2N482 2N483 2N483	dng dnd	Ray Ray Ray	Osc IF IF	000	150 150 150	112	1 - 1 - 20	8555 8555	50T 50T 60T		3T 3.5T 5.5T		-10 -10	$ \uparrow $	2N395 2N395 2N394	000
2N484 2N485 2N486	dng dng	Ray Ray Ray	IF IF	000	150 150 150	112	-20 -10	888 888 88	90T 50T 100T		10T 7.5T 12T		- 10 - 10	12   12   12	2N394 2N394 2N394	0000
2N489 2N490 2N491	6	999 999	Si Uni Si Uni Si Uni	ຄາຍເບ	SEE G-E TR SEE G-E TR SEE G-E TR	FRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION FRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION FRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION	DR SPEC DR SPEC DR SPEC	IFICATI IFICATI IFICATI	ON SECTION ON SECTION ON SECTION	NON					2N489 2N490 2N491	ທິດເບັ
2N492 2N493 2N494		000 000 000	Si Uni Si Uni Si Uni	າຍຍາ	SEE G-E TR SEE G-E TR SEE G-E TR	G-E TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION G-E TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION G-E TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION	OR SPEC OR SPEC OR SPEC	IFICATI IFICATI IFICATI	ON SECTION ON SECTION ON SECTION	NNO	-		е - с. с.		2N492 2N492 2N494	າວາວາວ
2N495 2N496 2N497	dnd Ndn	Phil Phil TJ-GE	Si RF Si Sw Si AF	ပပ∞	150 150 4W	- 25 - 10 60	500 500 500	$140 \\ 140 \\ 200 $	9 12*	1 200	8 fos 8 fos		- <u>-</u> -9	-10 30	2N497	8
2N497A 2N498 2N498A	NAN NAN NAN	GE TI-GE GE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	0000	5W 5W	100 100 100	200 200 200	2000 2000 2000	12* 12*	200 200 200			10 10 10	00000 00000	2N497A 2N498 2N498A	00 00 00
2N499 2N500 2N501	dNd dNd	Phil Phil Phil	MADT MADT MADT	000	30 @ 45°C 50 @ 45°C 25 @ 45°C	- 15 - 15 - 15	- 50	85 85 85 85	6 20*	2 - 10	c	10	100 100	- 30 - 20 - 15		
2N501A 2N502 2N502A	dNd	Phil Phil Phil	MADT MADT MADT	000	25 @ 45°C 25 @ 41°C 25 @ 45°C	-15* -20 -30*	- 50	100 85 100	20* 9	-10 -10	200	α 12	$-\frac{25}{100}$	- 15 - 20 - 30		7
2N503 2N506 2N507	ANP ANP NAN	Phil Syl Syl	MADT AF AF	DAA	25 @ 41°C 50 50	$^{-20}_{40*}$	$^{-100}_{-100}$	8888 72 72 72	25 25 25	1002	100 .6 .6	п	-100 -15 15	- 120 30 30	2N320	Ÿ
2N508 2N509 2N514	dNd	GE WE TI	AF Out RF Pwr	C 19	140 225 80W	- 16 - 30* - 40	100 40 25A	85 100 95	$^{125T*}_{.96\alpha}$	- 20 - 10 - 25	3.5T 750T		-16 -2.0	$^{-16}_{-20}$	2N508	ব
2N514A 2N514B 2N515 2N515	ANA ANA NAN	IT Ivs	Pwr Pwr IF	¥	80W 50W	- 60 - 80 18	-25A -25A 10	95 95 75	12* 12* 4	- 25 - 25 1	7.0T	23	- 2.0 50	- 30 - 40 18		
2N516 2N517 2N519	NAN	Syl GT GT	IF Sw	44U	50 50 100	18 - 158	10	75 75 85	15 4 4 15		બબાળ	25	2000 1000	1288	2N394	5

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECI	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	D×9	Pc mw @ 25°C	BVCB BVCB*	la ma	TJ°C	MIN. hre-hra* (	@ lc ma	MIN. fite me	AIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico (μα)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
4520 4521 4521	dng qnd	555	sw ww ww	000	100 1000 1000	- 12 - 10 - 8		85 85 85	20 35 60		13.8 J		010101 	ດາດດາ 1   1	2N394 2N397	ci éi
1523 1524 1525	dng dng	GE GE GE	Sw AF	บุงง	100 225 225	- 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30 - 30	- 500	85 100 100	80 16 30		21 .8 .1		$^{+10}_{-10}$	1 30 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2N524 2N525	64 64
2N526 2N527 2N527 2N528	dud dud	GE GE WE	AF AF Pwr	0101	225 225 2.5W		- 500	100 100 100	44 60 20*	$+ \frac{-1}{0.5}$	1.3 1.5		+10 +15	30	2N526 2N527	6161
N529	PNP-	GT	AF	C	100	15		85	15	п	2.5T		າດ	ഗ		
2N530	-UNP-	GT	AF	υ	100	15	5	85	20	1	3T		ŝ	s		100 million (1990)
2N531	-dnd-	GT	AF	C	100	15		85	25	-	3.5T		20	ŝ		1
2N532	-dnd- Ndn	GT	AF	υ	100	15		85	30	H	4.1		ŝ	10		
2N533	PNP.	GT	AF	U	100	15		85	35	jri	4.5T		υσ	ъ N		1
V534 V535 V535A		MM	AF AF AF	<u>000</u>	25 @ 50°C 50 50	-50 - 20 - 20	$^{+25}_{-20}$	65 85 85	35533	111	$^{2T}_{T2}$		-10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10	-50 - 12 - 12	2N1057 2N1415 2N1415	01 01
2N535B 2N536 2N538 2N538		Phil Phil M-M	AF Sw Pwr	ΩΩ	50 50 10W @ 70°C	-20 - 20 - 80*		85 85 95	35 100* 40	$^{-1}_{2\mathrm{A}}$	2T 1 8 Kc T	5	-10 -10 -20 ma	-12	2N508 2N508	C1 C1
V538A V539 V539A	dng dng dng	H-M H-M	Pwr Pwr Pwr		10W @ 70°C 10W @ 70°C 10W @ 70°C	-80* -80* -80*		95 95	40 27 27	2A 2A 2A	8 Kc T 7 Kc T 7 Kc T		20 ma 20 ma 20 ma	08 08 1 1 1	2	a construction of the second se
V540 V540A V5444		M-H M-H RCA	Pwr Pwr RF	¥	10W @ 70°C 10W @ 70°C 80	$^{-80}_{-24*}$	-10	95 95 85	18 18 60T	2A 2A 1	6 Kc T 6 Kc T 30T	30.4	$^{-20}_{-16}$	- 80 - 12		
V553 V554 V555	dng dng	Del Motor Motor	Pwr Pwr Pwr		12W @ 71°C 10W @ 80°C 10W @ 80°C	-80* -40* -30	4A - 3A - 3A	95 90 90	$^{40}_{20}$	5A 5A	20 Kc 8 Kc T 5 Kc	20 34T	-2 ma -50T -7 ma	$^{-60}_{-30}$		
V556 V557 V558		Syl Syl Syl	se s	000	100 1000 1000	25* 20* 15*	200 200	85 85 75 75	35* 20* 60*	ннн						2
2N559 2N560 2N561	ANA NGN QNA	WE WE RCA	Sw IF Sw Pwr	00	150 50W	- 15 - 50	50 5 <b>A</b>	100 100	25* 20* 65T	$^{-100}_{-1A}$	ف	24.6	- 20 10 1 - 20	-5 @ 65°C -20 -30		

				-	MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	RAMETI	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BVCB BVCB*	lo ma	T,°C	MIN. hfe-hFE*	@ la ma	MIN. farb me	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico(µa)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dvg.
2N563 2N564 2N565		555	AF AF AF	40 A	150 120	- 25 - 25 - 25	- 300 - 300 - 300	8888	10* 10*		.8T 1.1 1.1		ююн 	110	2N44 2N524	- 01
2N566 2N567 2N568		555	AF AF	040	120 150	222 522 522		888 888	* * * * * 0 0 *		1.5T	1	ດ ໂດ ເດ ມ 	110	2N525 2N525 2N43	-  01 - 0
2N569 2N570 2N571		555	AF AF AF	<0<	150 120 150	1000	300	8888	*02 *02	┥┥┥╸	21 21 37		ນ ເດ ເດ 	01-10	2N241A 2N241A 2N527	n – c
2N572 2N574 2N574A		GT M-H M-H	AF Pwr Pwr	U	25W @ 75°C 25W @ 75°C 25W @ 75°C		-300 -15A -15A	32 S S S	10*	- 10A	3T 6 Kc T 6 Kc T		-7 ma	-10 -60 -80	2N508	1 01
2N575 2N575A 2N576	ANP NAN NAN	M-H M-H Syl	Pwr Pwr Sw	U	25W @ 75°C 25W @ 75°C 200	-60* -80* 20	- 15A - 15A 400	95 95 100	$^{19*}_{80T*}$	-10A -10A 30	5 Kc T 5 Kc T 5 T		-7 ma -20 ma 20	60 - 80 20	-	
2N576A 2N578 2N579		Syl RCA RCA	SSS W W	000	200 120 120	$-\frac{20}{14}$	- 400 - 400 - 400	100 85 85	20* 20*	400 1 1	Long		6 0 4     0 4 10	-12 - 12	2N394 2N396	୍ଟାର
2N580 2N581 2N582		RCA RCA	8 8 8 8 8 8	000	120 80 120	+14 - 15 - 14	$-400 \\ -100 \\ -100$	85 85 85	$^{30*}_{40*}$	$\begin{array}{c} -20\\ -20\end{array}$	10 14 14		າ. 	$^{-12}_{-12}$	2N397 2N394	લલ
2N584 2N584 2N585		RCA RCA	ss s v s s	000	150 120 120	-15 -14 24	$-200 \\ -100 \\ 200$	ແຕ່ສູ	$^{20*}_{20*}$	$^{-20}_{20}$	44c		აია 	-15 12 12	2N394 2N634	61 61
2N586 2N587 2N588		RCA Syl Phil	Sw Sw MADT	≺ບບ	250 150 30 @ 45°C	-45* - 15	- 250 200 - 50	85 85	35T* 20*	$-250 \\ 200$			-16 50 15	- 45 140 15		1
2N591 2N592 2N593		GT GT GT	AF Sw Sw	000	50 125 125	- 32 - 30 - 30	-20	100 85 85	70T 20* 30*	نه – او	17 17 6T	41T	0.5   22.5   22.5	2 1 1 0 12 1 1 1 1	2N324 2N1414 2N1414	400
2N594 2N595 2N596		555	Sw Sw	000	100 100 100	20 15 10		8888	20* 35* 50*		1. 1.2		ດາດເຕ	ທດດ	2N634	PA
2N597 2N598 2N599		ING Phil	Sw Sw Sw	000	250 250 250	- 40 - 20	-400 -400 -400	100 100 100	40* 50* 100*	-100 -100 -100	3 12 12		- 25 - 25 25	- 45 - 30 - 30		
2N600 2N601 2N602		Phil GT	Sw Sw Drift Sw	000	750 0.75 120	$^{-20}_{-20}$	-400 -400	100 100 85	50* 2.5 20*	-100 3	12		-25 -8 -8	-30 - 30 - 10	2N395	12
2N603 2N604 2N605	1	555	Drift Sw Drift Sw Drift RF	000	120 120	$^{-20}_{-15}$	2	85 85 55 85	30* 40* 40T	ا_ نىرنى		20	8 8 0 1 - 1 8 1 - 1	-10 - 12	2N396 2N397 2N394	000

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELEC	TRICAL P.	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	s	-		
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dvg.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BVCE BVCB*	ic ma	TJ°C	MIN. hte-hre*	e lo ma	MIN. face mc	AIN. Ge db	MAX. co(µa)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg.
2N656 2N656A 2N657	NGN NGN	GE-TI GE GE-TI	Si AF Si AF Si AF	ထင္လာထ	4W 5W 4W		500 500 500	200 200	30* 30*	200 200			1	30 30	2N656 2N656A	00 00
2N657A 2N658 2N659	udu dnd	GE Ray Ray	Si AF Sw Sw	∞UC	175 175		500 - 1A	200 85	30*	200	2.5			- 12 - 12	2N657A 2N657A 2N394	00 00 C1
2N660 2N661 2N661 2N662	dNd	Ray Ray Ray	ws ww ww	000	175			8 22 23 23	*09 80*		120		- 25	- 25	2N396 2N397	01 01
2N665 2N679 2N696	dNd NdN	Dle Syl F-C	Pwr Sw Sw	00	35W 150 2W	- 80* 20 40	5A (IE)	82 6 82 6	200 204 20**		4 20 Kc 2	<mark>2</mark>	1	-25 0 @ 71°C 25 30	2N396	57
2N699	NdN		Sw Sw Sw	000	2W 600		50	175 175	40* 35 20*	150 1 10		7	1	30 60 10		
2N705 2N705		FC	w w w	000	600 300 0.6W		- 50	175 100 300	10* 25* 15*	- 10 - 10 10	300T		0-1-0 0-2-0	1220		
2N710 2N710	ndnd Ndn	RCA	Osc AF	000	300 20		-50	100 85	9* 25* 35T	10	300T 2T			10 2 2		r
2N1015A 2N1015B 2N1015B	NAN	MAN	Pwr Pwr Swr	1	150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C		75A 75A 7.5A	150 150 150	10* 10*	2A 2A 2A	20T Kc 20T Kc 20T Kc	502		30 60 100		i.
2N1015D 2N1015D 2N1015E		***	Pwr Pwr Pwr		150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C		7.5A 7.5A 7.5A	150 150	10* 10*	24 24 24	20T Kc 20T Kc 20T Kc	20 20 20		150 200 250		
2N1015F 2N1016A 2N1016A	NAN	***	Pwr Pwr		150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C		7.5A 7.5A 7.5A	150 150	$10^{*}$ $10^{*}$	22 22 24	20T Kc 20T Kc 20T Kc	500		300		Ĩ
2N1016B 2N1016C 2N1016D	NdN NdN	833	Pwr Pwr Pwr		150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C		7.5A 7.5A 7.5A	150 ° 150 °	10* 10*	5A 5A 5A	20T Kc 20T Kc 20T Kc	50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 5		100 150		
2N1016E 2N1016F 2N1017	NPN NPP NPP	W W Ray	Pwr Pwr Sw	C	150 @ 45°C 150 @ 45°C 150	250 300 - 10	7.5A 7.5A - 400	150 150 85	10* 10*	5A 5A 1	20T Kc 20T Kc 15	881		250 300 300	7	
2N1021 2N1022 2N1038	dng dnd	HIL	Pwr Pwr Pwr		50W 50W 20W	$-100 \\ -120 \\ -40$	-5 -3A	95 95 95	70T* 35*	-1A -1A -1A	-	-2 ma -2 ma -125		-120		1
2N1039 2N1040 2N1041	dNd	IFE	Pwr Pwr Pwr		20W 20W 20W	60 - 100	-3A -3A -3A	95 95 95	35* 35* 8	- 1A 1A 1A		-125 -125 -125		نىنىن		

					MAX	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMETI	ERS			
LEDEC	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	c ma	T <sup>3</sup> °C	MIN. hre-hre.	@ lc ma	MIN. facto mc	MIN. Ge db.	MAX. Ico ( µa)	@ VCB	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N1144 2N1145 2N1145	dNd NdN	GE GE TI	AF Out AF Out Si AF		140 140 150	$-16 \\ -16 \\ 45*$	-100 -100 25	85 85 175	55T 45T 		4T	35T	-16 -16 -16	-16 - 16 - 30	2N1144 2N1145	
2N1150 2N1151 2N1152	1	EEE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	444	150 150	45* 45*	1	175	-0.948 -0.948		r Ts	165 165 165	1 61 61 6	908 908		
2N1153 2N1154 2N1155		II II	Si AF Si AF Si AF	<b>A A A</b>	150 750	45* 50* 80*	2002	175 150 150	7800- 0.987 0.9	ĺ	L2	42.5T 30 30	0000	30 20 80 80		
2N1156 2N1157 2N1157A		TI M-H-M H-H	Si AF Pwr Pwr	V	750	120 * - 60 * - 80 *	40	150 95 95	- 0.9 38* 38*	- 10A			-7.0 ma	120 - 60 - 80		
2N1159 2N1160 2N1168		Die Die Die	Pwr Pwr Pwr		20W @ 71°C 20W @ 71°C 45W	80* 80* -50*	-65 5A (IE)	- 65 - 65 95	30* 20* 110T	3A 5A 1A	10T Kc 10T Kc 10 Kc T	37T	8 ma 8 ma 8 ma	2000		
2N1171 2N1172 2N1177		Ray Dlc RCA		U	80	-12 + 40* - 30*	400 - 10	- 65 - 71	$^{30*}_{100}$	100	10	34T	0.2 ma -12	- 12 - 12 - 12	2N397	2
2N1178 2N1179 2N1180		RCA RCA	Drift RF IF Drift RF IF Drift RF IF		80 80 80 80 80	-30* -30* -30*	-10 - 10 - 10 - 10	12 12	40 80 80		140 140 100			- 12		э.
2N1183A 2N1183A 2N1183B		RCA RCA	Pwr Pwr Pwr	000	1W 1W 1W		1 - 1 - 1 3 - 0 3 - 0 - 1 - 1 - 1	100 100 100	20* 20*	400 - 400 - 400		- 250	- 250 - 250 - 250	- 45 - 80 - 80		Î
2N1184 2N1184A 2N1184B	dNd dNd dNd	RCA RCA GF	Pwr Pwr Pwr Swr	000	1 WI IW	20 - 40		100 100	40* 40* 40*		500 Kc 500 Kc 500 Kc		-250 -250 -250	- 45 - 80 - 80		
2N1199		Phil M-H	Pwr Pwr	νŪ	60 001	- 20 22	100	150 95	17* 12* 40*	$^{20}_{-0.5A}$	s	I	1.5 0.7 -2.0 ma	- 15 - 10 - 80	2N1198	60
2N1203 2N1213 2N1214	dud dud	M-H RCA RCA	Pwr Sw Sw	00	75	- 70 - 25 - 25	-100 -100	95 71 71	25*	-2A		1	-2.0 ma -5 -5	-120 - 120 - 12		2
2N1215 2N1216 2N1217	ANP NAN	RCA GE	Sw Sw	იიი	75 75 75	- 25 - 25 20	$-100 \\ -100 \\ 25$	12 12	40*	'n	6.0		29 29 29	- 12 15 15	2N1217	60
2N1224 2N1225 2N1226 2N1226	dud dud	RCA RCA RCA	RF IF RF IF RF IF	000	120 120 120	-40 - 60	-10 - 10 - 10 - 10	100 100 100	20 20 20 20 20	$\frac{11.5}{1.5}$	30 100 30	ងព	- 12 - 12 12	12 122		
2N1228 2N1229 2N1230	dNd	Hughes Hughes Hughes	w w w	000	400 400 400	- 15 - 15 - 35		160 160 160	14 28 14		1.2T 1.2T 1.2T		-0.1 -0.1	- 12 - 30		

		2			MAXI	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS		, a	ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMETE	RS			
JEDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	la mà	Ţ,°C	MIN. hre-hru* (	a la ma	MIN. face ma	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico(µd)	@ VcB	Closes <sup>†</sup> GE	D¥9. No.
2N1231 2N1232 2N1233	PNP PNP	Hughes Hughes Hughes	SSS W W	000	400 400 400	60 		160 160 160	28 14 28		1.2T 1.0T 1.0T		-0.1 -0.1 -0.1			
2N1234 2N1238 2N1238		Hughes Hughes Hughes	Sw w Sw w	D D	400 1W free air 1W free air	-110 -15 -15		160 160 160	14 14 28		8T 1.2T 1.2T		0.1	90 - 12 - 12		4
2N1240 2N1241 2N1242		Hughes Hughes Hughes	Sw ww	1	1W free air 1W free air 1W free air	1 35		160 160 160	14 28 14		1.2T 1.2T 1.0T		- 0.1 0.1 0.1	1 30		
2N1243 2N1244 2N1251		Hughes Hughes Syl	Sw ww w	v	1W free air 1W free air 150	-110 - 15	100	160 160 85	28 14 70	N.	1.0T .8T 7.5		$-0.1 \\ -0.1 \\ 50$	20 20 20 20		
2N1252 2N1253 2N1261		F-C M-H	Sw Sw Pwr	ပပ	2W 2W	20 - 45		175 175 95	15* 40* 20*	150 150			10	50		10 - 10 - 10
2N1262 2N1263 2N1264	PNP PNP	M-H M-H Syl	Pwr Pwr Drift IF RF		50	- 45 - 45 - 20*	50	95 95 75	30* 45*	1,5			$^{-2.0}_{-20}$	60 60 20		
2N1265 2N1266 2N1276		Syl Syl GE	AF IF RF Si AF	44¥	50 80 150	-10* -10* 30	100 25	85 85 150	25 10 10T	101	600 15	37T	100 100 1	-10	2N1097 2N1098 2N1276	004
2N1277 2N1278 2N1279		GE GE GE	Si AF Si AF Si AF	444	150 150 150	30 30 30	5222 522	150 150	20T 33T 80T	0100	15 15 15	39T 44T 45T		0.00 0.00 0.00	2N1277 2N1278 2N1279 2N1279	444
2N1280 2N1281 2N1282			Sw Sw Sw	000	200 200 200	16 12 6	400 400 400	8888 888	40 60 70	$^{+20}_{-20}$	5 10		- 10 - 10	- 10	2N396 2N396 2N397	<u>ି</u> ଦା ମ ମ
2N1284 2N1288 2N1289		ITC GE GE	SS Sw w	പട	150 75 75	15 5 15	400 50 50	8888 8578 8578	30 50*	10	5 40 40		ە دە ا	155 155	2N396 2N1288 2N1289	10 23
2N1291 2N1293 2N1295	ANP ANP NAN	CBS CBS CBS CBS	Pwr Pwr Pwr		20W 20W 20W	808	ra ra ro	888	40* 40* *0*	0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.5			ຄຍອ	808 1		
2N1297 2N1299 2N1300	dng Ngn Ngn	CBS Syl RCA	Pwr Sw Sw	цю	20W 150 150	$\begin{array}{c}100\\-20\\-12\end{array}$	$^{3}_{-100}$	100 85 85	40* 35*	$-10^{-50}$	4.0		100 130	40	2N377	61
2N1301 2N1304 2N1306	dng Ngn Ngn	RCA GE-TI GE-TI	Sov Sw Sw	044	150 300 300	$-12 \\ 20 \\ 15$	$\begin{array}{c} -100\\ 300\\ 300\end{array}$	$100 \\ 100 $	50 40* 60*	$-10 \\ 10 \\ 10$	5 10		فعم	25 25	Ĩ	
2N1308 2N1310 2N1313	NGN NGN NGN	6E-TI 6T T-S	Sw Neon Indicator Sw	0 8	300 120 180	$^{15}_{-15}$	300 400~	100	80* 20* 40*	10 5	15 1.5T 6	2	2.5	25 - 0.5	2N396	5

					XAM	MAXIMUM RATINGS	ATINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMETI	ERS			
JEDEC No.	Туре	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BVCB BVCB*	la ma	T <sub>3</sub> °C	MIN. hte-hte	la ma	MIN. face mc	MIN. Ge db	MAX. Ico ( µd)	@ V <sub>GB</sub>	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
2N1316 2N1317 2N1318	dNd dNd		SSS W	000	200 200	15 12	400 400	85 85	50* 45*		10		1 - 1 - 1	-12 - 12	2N397 2N397 2N397	616
9781343	dNd	JLI	wo mo	50	200	0	400	85			10			- 10	2N397	101
2N1344	PNP		s s s	υος	150	10 10	400 400	88 8 8 8 8 8	15* 60*	- 20	41-		10	- 15	2N395 2N397	61 61
2N1346	PNP	ITC	Sw		0CT	0	400	50		-400	10		-6	-12	2N397	101
2N1347	ANd	ITC	Sw.	00	150	12	200	22 22 22 22	40* 30*	+ 14 10	0 1 2		ي ا ا	<u>ہ</u> ہ	2N397	1010
202102	FIND	DIT	AF	C	150	20	200	85			2.5T		0 10 	130	2N596	516
2N1353	PNP	ITC	y N N		200	10	200	58 28		10	1.5		9	10	2N394	1 61
2N1355	PNP	ITC	Sw		200	20	200	85		10	n un		99	15	2N395	1010
2N1357	dNd	Dir Dir	Sw		200	15	200	85			10		9	12	20307	7 6
2N1411	PNP	Phil	Sw	D	25 @ 45°C	-12 -12	-50	26 25 25	40* 20*	5. 1.2	100		u	L		1
2N1413	PNP	GE	AF Sw	c1	200	- 25	-200	85		00-	0.0		01	0		
2N1114	dNd	36 90	AFSw	c1 0	200	- 25	-200	82		130	1.0		10	1 30	2N1413 2N1414	c1 c
LGFLNG	DND	DESI	AF 5W	NK	0	- 25	-200	85		-20	1.3		- 12	- 30	2N1415	101
2N1428	PNP	Phil	Sw S	20	25 @ 45°C	و م ا ا	- 20	85		-50			5	9-		
2N1429	DNP	Phil	Sw	o	100	- 0	- 50	140		0 10 			1.0	99		
2N1431	NAN	Syl	AF	¥	180	15	100	75		35	P	10 m	20	06		
2N1433	PNP	CBS	Pwr		100	- 45 - 50	0 f et	100		c1 c	Ľ		32;	14		
2N1434	PNP	CBS	Pwr		1 N	- 50	2 2	05		4 C	0		1.0	2		
2N1435	dNd	CBS	Pwr	¢		- 50	3.5	35		10	രശ		1.0	64 G		
001115	DND	UIU.	DW AN	00	50	- 15*	-50	100		-10	,		T•0	4		
2N1447	PNP	ITC	AF	50	200	25	400	85			89.		10	30	2N524	2
2N1448	PNP	ITC	AF	о С	200	22	400	85			1.5 2		10	30	2N525	210
2N1449 9N1450	dNd	ITC TTC	AF	υ	200	25	400	85			2.5		10	30	9N597	3 0
271172	NPN	Phil	Sw	с С	120	30* 25 *	100	85	20*	10			10	1		4
2N1 173	NPN	Syl	Sw	Я		20	400	75			V		6.9	10	6	
2N1479	NUN	RCA	Dur	υ	250	- 30*	-400	100	1	100	ť		22	1.5	2N396	2
2N1480	NDN	BCA	Dure		1117	-00	1.0	C 1			1.5	60	10	30	2N497A	80
2N1481 2N1482	NdN	RCA BCA	Pwr		4W W	*09 90%	0.01 1.1.1	175	32**	200	1.5	100 60	10	30 30 30	2N497A 2N656A	00 00
2N1483	NDN	BCA	Dues			- OOT	6.1	6/1			1.5	100	10	30	2N656A	8
2N1484 2N1485	NdN	RCA	Pwr Pwr	<u> </u>	15W 15W	100* 60*	وبه وبه وز	175 175 175	****	750 1. 750 1. 750 1.	1.25		15	0000		
												No.	eT	ne	and the second s	

	þ				MAXI	MAXIMUM RATINGS	VTINGS			ELECT	ELECTRICAL PARAMETERS	ARAMET	ERS			
EDEC No.	Type	Mfr.	Use	Dwg. No.	Pc mw @ 25°C	BV <sub>CB</sub> BV <sub>CB</sub> *	le ma	T <sub>3</sub> °C	MIN. hre-hFB*	@ Ic ma	MIN. fhramc	MIN. G. db	ΜΑΧ. Ιco (μα)	@ V <sub>CB</sub>	Closest GE	Dwg. No.
1486 1487 1488	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	RCA RCA RCA	Pwr Pwr Pwr		15W 60W 60W	100* 60* 100*	993	175 175 175	35* 10* 10*	750 1.5 1.5	1.25 1 1		25 25 25	30 30 30	1	
2N1489 2N1490 2N1500 2N1500 2N1501	NAN ANA ANA ANA	RCA Phil M-H	Pwr Pwr MADT MADT Pwr	υU	60W 60W 50		-50 - 50	175 175 85 100 100	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5 1.5			ល្អសូល ខេត្ត			
1507 1510 1605	NAN	A-H GE Svl	PWT Neou Indicator Sw	mC	0.6W 75 150	- 40+ 60* 70	500 20 100	95 175 85 100	100* 8* 40*	150 150 20	4	С. 	מי אי – אי	-40 30 12	2N1510	8
1614 1671 1671A	PNP Nd Nd	GE GE GE	Sw Si Uni Si Uni	ດເວເ	G-E G-E	-65* RANSIST	- 300 TOR SPF	SCIFICA SCIFICA	-65*     -300     85     18*     -20       TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION SECTION     TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION SECTION	TION TION	0.5		- 25	- 65	2N1614 2N1671 2N1671A	- 10 10
1671B 21 22	PN Pt NPN	GE Syl WE	Si Uni Sw RF	a,	SEE G-E TI 100	RANSIST - 60 15*	ror spi	SCIFICA 50 85	TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATION SECTION $-60$ $50$ $2.5$ $15*$ $85$ $-92\alpha$	TION	15	2	10	5	2N1671B	ιn
23 23A 23B	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	555	Obsolete Obsolete Obsolete			30 30 30	າດເບ				20 35 20	14 12 11	10 10 10	444 885		
23C 30	NdN NdN	999 999 999	Obsolete Obsolete Obsolete		50	90 90	2005 2052	88 13 13	100T 100T		10 40T 80T	10 10T	10	4.5		
31 35 35	NGN NGN NGN	GE TI	Obsolete Si RF Si RF		50 125 125	30 90 30 90	800 800	85 150 150	100T 10 10	-1-1	80T 100T 150T	10T	44	20 20		-
3N36 3N37 3N45 3N46	NdN NdN NdN	GE GE M-H M-H	RF Pwr Pwr	وه	30 30 1W	6 6 1 8 0 8 0 8	20 20	85 85 100 100	25* 20*	-5A 10 -5A	50 -5A 16.5T Kc -5A 12T Kc		$^{10}_{-0.2}$	00'99 	3N36 3N37	99
runner diodes 1N2939 1N2940 1N2941 1N2969 1N2969	DIO	DES		5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	SEE G-E TH SEE G-E TH SEE G-E TH SEE G-E TH SEE G-E TH	TRANSISTOR TRANSISTOR TRANSISTOR TRANSISTOR	TOR SPE TOR SPE TOR SPE TOR SPE	SPECIFICATION SPECIFICATION SPECIFICATION SPECIFICATION	TION SECTION SECTION SECTION	SECTION SECTION SECTION SECTION					1N2939 1N2940 1N2941 1N2969	0000

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	TYPES AND USES:	MANUFACTURERS:	T-Tuvical Values
	<ul> <li>Si-Silicon High Temperature Transistors (all others germanium)</li> <li>Pt-Point contact types</li> <li>AF-Dudio Frequency Amplifier and General Purpose</li> <li>AF Out-High current AF Output Pwr-Power output 1 watt or more RF-Radio Frequency Amplifier</li> <li>Osc-High gain High frequency RF oscillator IF-Intermediate Frequency RP oscillator IF-Low IF (262 Kc) Amplifier lo IF-Low IF (262 Kc) Amplifier Sw-High current High frequency switch AF Sw-Low frequency switch</li> </ul>	Bendix–Bendix Aviation Corp. CBS–CBS–Hytron Cle–Clevite Transistor Products Dlc–Delco Radio Div., General Motors Corp. F-C–Fairchild Semiconductor Corp. GE–General Tleetric Corp. GT–General Transistor Corp. GP–Germanium Products Corp. Hughes–Hughes Semiconductors ITC–Industro Transistor Corp.	M-H-Minneapolis-Honeywell Regulator Co. Motor-Motorola, Inc. Phil-Philco Ray-Raytheon Manufacturing Company RCA-RCA Syl-Sylvania Electric Products Go. TI-Texas Instruments, Inc. TS-Tung-Sol. W-Westinghouse Electric Corp. WE-Western Electric Company
299			

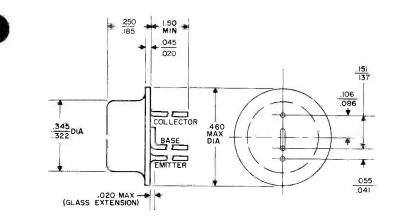
ABBREVIATIONS

**NOTE:** Closest GE types are given only as a general guide and are based on available published electrical specifications. However, General Electric Company makes no representation as to the accuracy and completeness of such information.

Since manufacturing techniques are not identical, the General Electric Company makes no claim, nor does it warrant, that its transistors are exact equivalents or replacements for the types referred to.

### TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS.

### OUTLINE DRAWINGS





### DIMENSIONS WITHIN JEDEC OUTLINE T0-5

NOTE 1: This zone is controlled for automatic handling. The variation in actual diameter within this zone shall not exceed .010

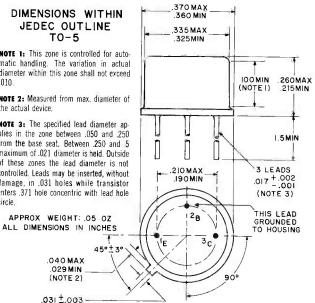
NOTE 2: Measured from max, diameter of the actual device.

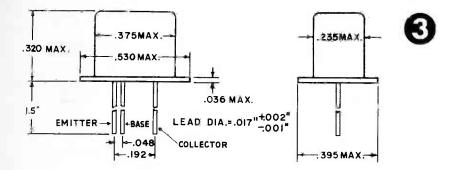
NOTE 3: The specified lead diameter applies in the zone between .050 and .250 from the base seat. Between .250 and 5 maximum of .021 drameter is held. Outside of these zones the lead diameter is not controlled. Leads may be inserted, without damage, in .031 holes while transistor enters .371 hole concentric with lead hole circle.

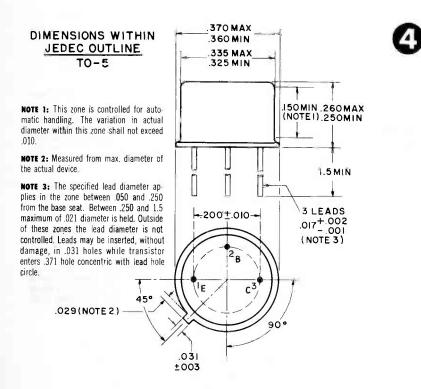
APPROX WEIGHT: .05 OZ

.040 MAX 029 MIN

(NOTE 2) 031 ± 003 - 45°







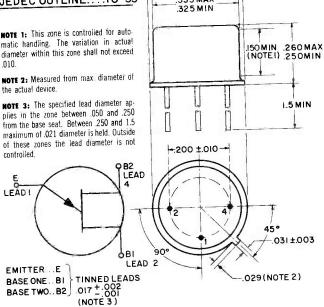


## DIMENSIONS WITHIN JEDEC OUTLINE....TO-33

NOTE 1: This zone is controlled for automatic handling. The variation in actual diameter within this zone shall not exceed .010.

the actual device.

NOTE 3: The specified lead diameter applies in the zone between .050 and .250 from the base seat. Between .250 and 1.5 maximum of .021 diameter is held. Outside of these zones the lead diameter is not controlled.

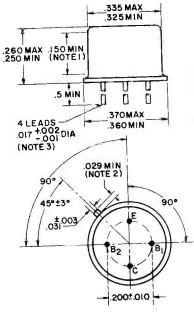


.370 MAX

360 MIN

335 MAX





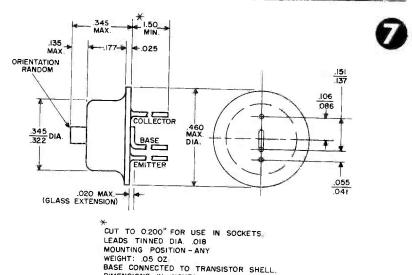
### DIMENSIONS WITHIN JEDEC OUTLINE TO-12

NOTE 1: This zone is controlled for automatic handling. The variation in actual diameter within this zone shall not exceed .010.

NOTE 2: Measured from max. diameter of the actual device.

NOTE 3: The specified lead diameter applies in the zone between .050 and .250 from the base seat. Between .250 and .5 maximum of .021 diameter is held. Outside of these zones the lead diameter is not controlled.

### TRANSISTOR SPECIFICATIONS



DIMENSIONS IN INCHES.

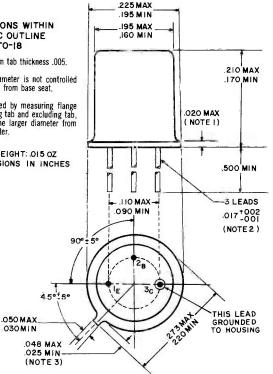


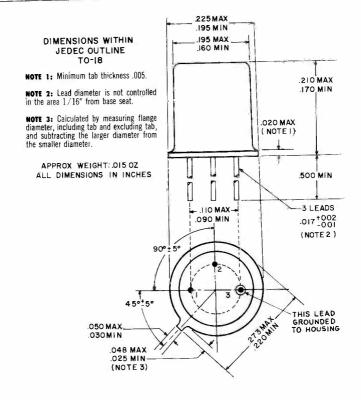


NOTE 2: Lead diameter is not controlled in the area 1/16" from base seat.

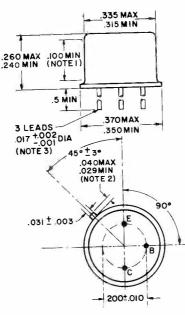
**NOTE 3:** Calculated by measuring flange diameter, including tab and excluding tab, and subtracting the larger diameter from the smaller diameter.

APPROX WEIGHT: 015 OZ ALL DIMENSIONS IN INCHES







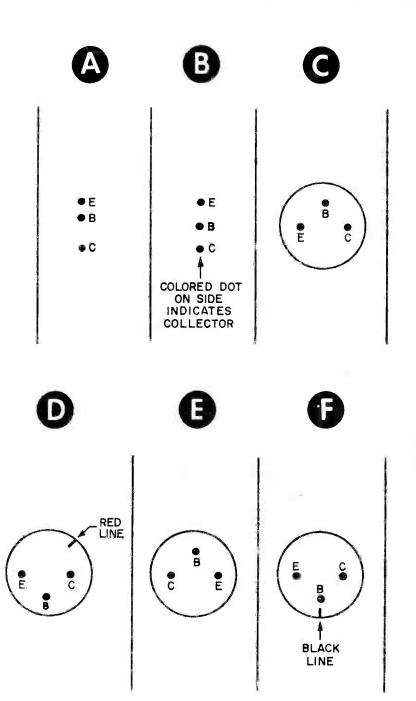


### JEDEC OUTLINE TO-39

NOTE 1: This zone is controlled for automatic handling. The variation in actual diameter within this zone shall not exceed 010.

**NOTE 2:** Measured from max. diameter of the actual device.

**NOTE 3:** The specified lead diameter applies in the zone between .050 and .250 from the base seat. Between .250 and .5 maximum of .021 diameter is held. Outside of these zones the lead diameter is not controlled.



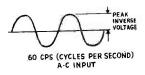
# 21. RECTIFIER SPECIFICATIONS

### NOTES ON RECTIFIER SPECIFICATION SHEET

The performance of a rectifier is judged primarily on four key measurements, or parameters. They are always given for specific ambient conditions, such as still air and 55°C, and are based on a 60 cycles per second (A-C) input with the rectifier feeding a resistive or inductive load (see (a) below). A capacitive load will increase

the Peak Reverse Voltage duty on the rectifier cell and will therefore necessitate a slightly lower set of ratings than shown here. These key parameters are:

1 Maximum Peak Reverse Voltage (usually referred to as PRV), the peak a-c voltage which the unit will withstand in the reverse direction; 2 Maximum Allowable D-C Output Current, which varies with ambient



temperature; (3) Maximum Allowable One-cycle Surge Current, representing the maximum instantaneous current which the rectifier can withstand for one cycle, usually encountered when the equipment is turned on; ( Maximum Full-load Forward Voltage Drop, measured with maximum d-c output flowing and maximum PRV applied. This is a measure of the rectifier's efficiency.

EXAMPLE:

1N1692, 1N1693 1N1694, 1N1695

These alloy junction silicon rectifiers are designed for general purpose applications requiring maximum economy. These rectifiers are hermetically sealed and will perform reliably within the operating specifications.

### RATINGS AND SPECIFICATIONS LICO CDS Posistivo or Industivo)

(A) (60 CPS, Resisti	ive or induc	Tive/			
° '	1N1692	1N1693	1N1694	1N1695	
(1)- Max. Allowable Peak Inverse Voltage	100	200	300	400	volts
Max. Allowable RMS Voltage	70	140	210	280	volts
Max. Allowable Continuous Reverse DC Voltage	100	200	300		volts
Max. Allowable DC Output 100°C Ambient	250	250	250	250	ma
Max. Allowable DC Output 50°C Ambient	600	600	600	600	ma
(3)- Max, Allowable One Cycle Surge Current	20	20	20	20	amps
(Hull Load Forward Voltage Drop (Full cycle average at 100°C)	.60	.60	.60	.60	volts
Max. Leakage Current at Rated PIV (Full cycle average at 100°C)	0.5	0.5	0.5		ma
Peak Recurrent Forward Current	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	amps
Max. Operating Temperature	-	+	115°C —		

The other ratings or specifications are additional yardsticks of performance which are more or less critical depending on the operating conditions to be experienced. For instance, the 1N1692 Series for which specifications are shown, being silicon rectifiers, are able to show a higher range of Ambient Operating Temperatures with higher output than a germanium unit would, and are preferred on this basis for many applications. Maximum Leakage Current refers to the reverse current which will flow when voltage is applied, and here, too, can be a critical measure of performance for specific applications such as magnetic amplifiers.

Sometimes there is confusion as to whether a unit is a Diode or a Rectifier. Actually the word Diode means "two" and both rectifiers and diodes have two elements. However, rectifiers are capable of handling much larger currents than diodes. The term diode is used to describe units used in high frequency, low current, signal applications such as in high frequency circuits of television receivers.

	<u>ne</u> ,	STIFIER S	PECIFICATIONS	2
		Max. Rated D-C Current @ 115°C Stud Temp. @ 180°C Cond. Angle	4444444 >>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>	
IONS	series of Silicon omplete detailed roducts Depart- iharles Building, licon Controlled n semiconductor i blocking up to uits may be used	Max. Gate Current to Fire (150°C J.T.)	6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma 6.0 ma	
CONDENSED RECTIFIER SPECIFICATIONS	SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS The following condensed specifications covering the General Electric series of Silicon Controlled Rectifiers summarize the most important parameters. For complete detailed specifications of a particular type, please contact the Semiconductor Products Depart- ment, Advertising and Sales Promotion, General Electric Company, Charles Building, Liverpool, New York. For application information covering the General Electric Series of Silicon Controlled Rectifiers, please see Chapter 18. LOW CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS The CIO Silicon Low Current Controlled Rectifier is a three junction semiconductor device for use in low power switching and control applications requiring blocking up to 400 volts and RMS load currents up to 7 amperes. Series and parallel circuits may be used for higher power applications.	Max. Peak 1 Cycle 5 urge Current	4 09 4 09 4 09 4 09 8 09 8 09 8 09 8 09 8 09 8 09 8 09 8	
RECTIFIER	SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS The following condensed specifications covering the General E Controlled Rectifiers summarize the most important parameters specifications of a particular type, please contact the Semiconon ment, Advertising and Sales Promotion, General Electric Com Liverpool, New York. For application information covering the General Electric Serie Rectifiers, please see Chapter 18. LOW CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS The CI0 Silicon Low Current Controlled Rectifier is a three device for use in low power switching and control applications r 400 volts and RMS load currents up to 7 amperes. Series and para for higher power applications.	PRV	25 500 1500 2500 2500 2500 400	
ONDENSED	SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS The following condensed specifications cove Controlled Rectifiers summarize the most in specifications of a particular type, please co ment, Advertising and Sales Promotion, Ge Liverpool, New York. For application information covering the G Rectifiers, please see Chapter 18. LOW CURRENT SILICON CONTROLL The CI0 Silicon Low Current Controlled 1 device for use in low power switching and co 400 volts and RMS load currents up to 7 amp for higher power applications.	Min. V <sub>Bo</sub>	25 2500 2500 2500 2500 2500 2500 2500 2	
Ü	SILICON CONTRC The following conder Controlled Rectifiers specifications of a pa ment, Advertising an Liverpool, New York. For application infor Rectifiers, please see C LOW CURRENT S The CIO Silicon Lov device for use in low 400 volts and RMS los for higher power appli	G-E Type No.	0100 01000 01000 01000 01000 01000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000	
		Outline Drwg. No.		

The C35 Silicon Controlled Rectifier is a three junction semiconductor device for use in power control and power switching applications requiring blocking voltages up to 500 volts and load currents up to 25 amperes. Series and parallel circuits may be used for MEDIUM CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS higher power applications.

Outline Drwg. No.	JEDEC or G-E Type No.	Min. V <sup>BO</sup>	PRV	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge Current	Max. Gate Current to Fire (195°C I T )	Max. Rated D-C Current @ 57°C Stud Temp. @ 180°C
5	2N681 (C35U)	25	25	150 A	25 ma	25 A
53	2N682 (C35F)	50	50	150 A	25 ma <sub>s</sub>	25 A
61	2N683 (C35A)	100	100	150 A	25 ma	25 A
5	2N684 (C35G)	150	150	150 A	25 ma	25 A
51	2N685 (C35B)	200	200	150 A	25 ma	25 A
67	2N686 (C35H)	250	250	150 A	25 ma	25 A
61	2N687 (C35C)	300	300	150 A	25 m	25 A
67	2N688 (C35D)	400	400	150.A	25 ma	25 A
5	2N689 (C35E)	500	500	150 A	25 ma	25 A

G-E Type No.	Min. V <sub>B0</sub>	PRV	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge Current	Max. Gate Current to Fire (100°C J.T.)	Max. Rated D-C Current @ 25°C Stud Temp. @ 180°C Cond Ande	
	25 50 150 200 250 400	25 50 100 250 250 250 200 800 800	125 A 125 A 125 A 125 A 125 A 125 A 125 A	50 ma 50 ma 50 ma 50 ma 50 ma 50 ma 50 ma 50 ma	16 A 16 A 16 A 16 A 16 A 16 A 16 A 16 A	

# MEDIUM CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS

The C36 Silicon Controlled Rectifier is a three junction semiconductor device for use in power control and power switching applications requiring blocking voltages up to 400 volts and RMS load currents up to 16 amperes. Series and parallel circuits may be used for higher power applications.

### RECTIFIER SPECIFICATIONS

309

RECTIFIERS
CONTROLLED
T SILICON
CURREN
MEDIUM

The C40\* series of Silicon Controlled Rectifiers are specially selected to meet inverter circuit applications, as well as other circuitry that requires a maximum limit on turn-off time. Each of these types is tested to insure that the turn-off time is less than 12 microrequired for the silicon controlled rectifier to regain its forward blocking state after forward current conduction. This time is measured from the point where the forward seconds, under the specified test conditions. Turn-off time is defined as the time interval current reaches zero to the time of reapplication of forward voltage.

The 12 microsecond turn-off time applies to the types listed for the following operating conditions:

Outline Drwg. No.	G-E Type No.	Min. V <sub>B0</sub>	PRV	Max. Fwd. Cur. Immed. Before Turn-off	Peak Rev. Current Min. Max.	ev. Aax.	Min. Rate of Rise Rev. Current	of Rise — Re-applied for Voltage
						1.1.1		
61	C40U	25	25	10.4	5 A 5	D A	5 A / 115	30 V / 10
0	C40F	£0	RO R	V OL				Sed / 1 017
			<b>.</b>	WAT	Y W C	20 A	SA/AS	$20 V/\mu s$
И	C40A	100	100	IOA I	5 A 2	20 A	5 A/us	20 V / us
2	C40G	150	150	10 A	5 4 5	0 4	Z \ /	
c	auro	000					cm/w c	50 A / #S
4 6	dut-	200	200	TUA		20 A	$5 \text{ A}/\mu s$	20 V / µS
N	C40H	250	250	10 A	5 A 2	20 A	5 A/us	20 V/us
61	C40C	300	300	10 A	5 A 2	20 A	5 A/us	20 V / 45

the type C35 Silcon Controlled Rectifier Specification Sheet.

3         C60U         25         25         1000 A         30 ma           8         C60F         50         50         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60A         100         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60G         50         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60G         150         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60B         200         150         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60B         200         200         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60H         250         250         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60H         250         1000 A         30 ma           3         C60H         200         1000 A         30 ma	Outline Drwg. No.	G-E Type No.	Min. V BO	PRV	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge Current	Max. Gate Current to Fire (150°C J.T.)	Max. Rated D-C Current @ 85°C Stud Temp. @ 180°C Cond. Angle
50         50         1000 A           100         100         1000 A           150         150         1000 A           200         250         1000 A           300         300         1000 A	3	C60U	25	25	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
100         100         100         1000 A           150         150         1000 A           200         200         1000 A           250         200         1000 A           300         300         3000 A	. ¢	C60F	50	50	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
150         150         1000 Å           200         200         1000 Å           250         250         1000 Å           300         300         1000 Å	(1)	C60A	100	100	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
200 200 200 1000 A 250 250 1000 A 300 300 1000 A	ė	C60G	150	150	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
250 250 1000 A 300 300 1000 A	3	C60B	200	200	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
300 300 1000 A	3	C60H	250	250	1000 A	30 ma	110 A
	3	CEOC	300	300	1000 A	30 ma	110 A

HIGH CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS

The C60 Silicon Controlled Rectifier is a three junction semiconductor device for use in power control and power switching applications requiring blocking voltage up to 300 volts and RMS load currents up to 110 amperes. Series and parallel circuits may be used for higher power applications.

An outstanding feature of the C60 is the all hard solder construction affording a high degree of freedom from thermal fatigue.

311

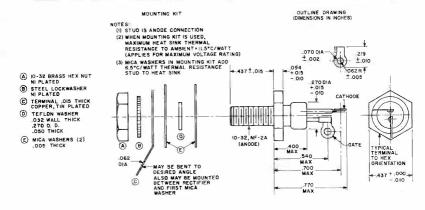
HIGH CURRENT SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS

The C50 Silicon Controlled Rectifier is a three junction semiconductor device for use in power control and power switching applications requiring blocking voltages up to 400 volts and RMS load currents up to 110 amperes. Series and parallel circuits may be used for higher power applications.

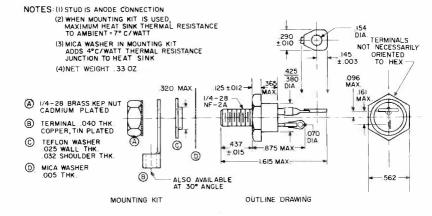
An outstanding feature of the C50 is the all hard solder construction affording a high degree of freedom from thermal fatigue.

Outline Drwg. · No.	G-E Type No.	Min. V Ba	PRV	Max. Peak I Cycle Surge Current	Max. Gate Current to Fire	Max. Rated D-C Current @ 59°C Stud Temp. @ 180°C
ი	C50U C50F C50A C50A C50B C50B C50C C50C C50D C50D	25 50 100 150 250 350 400	25 50 100 150 150 250 300 350 400	1000 A 1000 A 1000 A 1000 A 1000 A 1000 A 1000 A 1000 A	40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma 40 ma	A 011 A 011

### OUTLINE DRAWINGS (SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS)

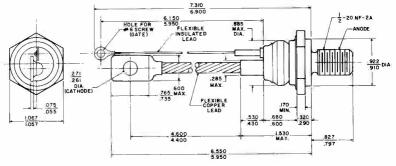


### **C10 SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIER**



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C35, C36, C40 SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS



NOTE: ONE 2-20 BRASS NICKEL-PLATED NUT AND ONE SILICON BRONZE SPRING LOCKWASHER SUPPLIED WITH EACH UNIT APPROX WEIGHT (EXCLUDING HARDWARE) = 3 OZ

0

### C50, C60 SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS

CONVENTIONAL RECTIFIERS

LOW CURRENT GERMANIUM RECTIFIER CELLS

The following General Electric germanium junction rectifiers have become industry standards of quality. They have demonstrated life for over 25,000 hours with no significant change in characteristics. The General Electric-developed top hat package and associated, hermetic seal coupled with a closely controlled manufacturing process, guarantees continued product excellence. These germanium rectifiers offer extremely low forward resistance that is difficult to match with any other type rectifier.

Max. Storage Temp. C	105°C 105°C 95°C 95°C	85°C 105°C	105°C	105°C	105°C	105°C	105°C
Max. Oper. CC.	95°C 95°C 85°C	55°C 95°C	95°C	95°C	95°C	95°C	95°C
Max. Full Load Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	.18 volts .18 volts e Ratio-700 @ 55°C e Ratio-700 @ 55°C	.D.C48 volts .19 volts	.22 volts		Y		
Max. Ikge. Current (Full Cycle Avg.)	.6 ma .6 ma Min Forward/Reverse Ratio Min Forward/Reverse Ratio	.3 ma @ 150 V.D.C48 volts .95 ma	1.35 ma				
Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	25 A 25 A 25 A 25 A	25 A 25 A	25 A	25A	25 A	25 A.	25 A
Max. Ipc at T°C	75 ma @ 55°C Amb. 75 ma @ 55°C Amb. 75 ma @ 55°C Amb. 75 ma @ 55°C Amb.	100 ma @ 55°C Amb. 100 ma @ 55°C Amb.	150 ma @ 55°C Amb.	750 ma @ 55°C Amb.	1000 ma @ 55°C Amb.	1000 ma @ 55°C Amb.	1200 ma @ 55°C Amb.
PRV	300 300 300 300 300	200	100	300	400	200	100
JEDEC or G-E No.	1N93 USN1N93 1N315 USAF-1N315	1N368 1N92	16N1	1N153	1N158	1N162	1N151
Drwg. No.	-	-	ĩ	10	63	¢t	61

LOW CURRENT SILICON RECTIFIER CELLS (LEAD MOUNTED)

These low current silicon rectifier cells utilize the same top hat package so well established by the above germanium cells; it is a hermetically scaled package with years of field experience indicating product excellence. A wide writety of top quality silicon low current cells are indicated below. There are low leakage cells for magnetic amplifiers, high temperature rectifiers with

stable characteristics over a wide temperature range for the most exacting Military requirements, low cost units for the highly competitive manufacturer and a good selection of Military approved units are available in those units asterisked (\*).

Max. Max. Oper. Storage Temp. Temp. C		
Max Oper. °C	150°00 150°000 10000 10000 100000 100000 100000 100000 100000 100000 1000000	
		the second se
Max. Full Load Voitage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	1.5 V @ 25°C 1.5 V @ 25°C	15 V @ 200 ma 15
Max. Lkge. Current (Full Cycle Avg.)		$\begin{array}{c} 1.0 & \mu \\
Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	15 A 15 A 15 A 15 A 15 A 15 A	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Max. Ipe at T <sup>o</sup> C	300 ma @ 50°C Amb. 300 ma @ 50°C Amb.	600 ma @ 25°C Amb. 600 ma @ 55°C
PRV	100 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000	1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
JEDEC or G-E Type No.	1N440 1N441 1N442 1N442 1N444 1N444 1N444	1N599 1N599 1N599 1N591 1N501 1N602 1N603 1N604 1N605 1N605 1N661 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692 1N1692
Drvg. No.	मों ले ज ल ज मा	<b>ゴブゴダズブゴブゴーボルゴジボントしゅう</b>

### RECTIFIER SPECIFICATIONS

175°C 175°C	
150°C	
1.5 V @ 25°C 1.5 V @ 25°C	>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>
1.75 ma @ 25°C 2.0 ma @ 25°C	0.3 ma () 25°C 0.75 ma () 25°C 1.75 ma () 25°C 1.5 ma () 25°C 3 ma () 15°C 3 ma () 15°C 3 ma () 15°C 4 ma () 15°C 3 ma (
16 Å 16 Å	12 23 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25
650 ma @ 50°C Amh. 650 ma @ 50°C Amb.	750 ma         50°C Amb.           750 ma         55°C Amb.           750 ma         50°C Amb.           750 ma         50°C Amb.           750 ma         50°C C Amb.
500 600	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
1N444B 1N445B	IN440B IN440B IN442B IN442B IN1400 IN1100 IN1100 IN1487 IN1487 IN1487 IN1487 IN1490 IN1490 IN1490 IN1490 IN1490 IN1490 IN1547* IN1096 IN1096 IN1096
مرآمو	

SUBMINIATURE SILICON RECTIFIERS

These double diffused junction subminiature glass rectifiers are designed for maximum thermal conductance over a wide temperature range. Their rugged design is well suited to meet stringent military requirements. They are hermeti-cally sealed for maximum reliability.

Max. Storage Temp.	175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C	175°C 1775°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C 200°C
Max. Operating Temp.	175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C	175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C
Max. Full Load Voltage Drop	1 V @ 400 ma @ 25°C 1 V @ 400 ma @ 25°C	1 V Q 400 ma Q 25°C 1 V Q 400 ma Q 25°C 400 ma Q 25°C 400 ma Q 25°C 1 V Q 400 ma Q 5°C 1 V Q 400 ma
Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	<b>বববব</b> ব ৯৯৯৯৯৯৯	ة ما تا 5 ما تا 5 ما ما 5 ما تا 5 ما ما تا 5 ما ما 5 ما ما 5 ما ما تا 5 ما ما
Мах. І <sub>рс</sub> @ т°С	200 A @ 25°C 200 A @ 25°C	400 A @ 25°C 400 A @ 25°C
PRV	100 200 800 600 600 600 600	100 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000
JEDEC No.	288MI 389MI 186MI 186MI 186MI 186MI 186MI	IN677 IN677 IN646 IN646 IN682 IN688 IN688 IN648 IN688 IN688 IN688
No.		

MOUNTED)
(STUD
CELLS
RECTIFIER
SILICON
CURRENT
LOW

These low current rectifiers are essentially the same group of rectifiers as the lead mounted rectifiers listed above. It uses basically the same package (with its inherent dependability and experience factor) mounted on a  $\frac{7}{6}$  hex with a 10-32 stud for mounting convenience. The stud mounted unit offers the advantage of utilizing a heatsink for better heat transfer and resulting higher current ratings. Military approved units are available in those units asterisked (\*).

Drwg. No.	JEDEC or G-E Type No.	PRV	Max. Ipc at T°C	Max. Peak I Cycle Surge	Max. Lkge. Current (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Full Load Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Oper. CC.	Max. Storage Temp. °C
ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ ৰ	IN2564 IN349 IN349 IN345 IN345 IN345 IN335 IN335 IN333 IN345 IN333	400 400 400 400 400 400 400 400 400 400	200 ma @ 135°C Case 200 ma @ 150°C Case	1 A for 3 ms 10 A 10 A 10 A 10 A 10 A 10 A 10 A	25 ma @ 135°C 1 ma @ 135°C 1 ma @ 150°C 5 ma @ 150°C 5 ma @ 150°C 5 ma @ 150°C 5 ma @ 150°C	2 V (0) 500 ma 2 V (0) 500 ma 2 V (0) 400 ma 400 ma 400 ma	170°CCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC
¥ राच्यात्रावाच्यात्रावाच्यात्र 010	11122 1112 11122 1	1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 100	maa maa maa maa maa maa maa maa maa maa	15555555555555555555555555555555555555	55 ma 52 ma 52 ma 52 ma 53 ma 53 ma 53 ma 54 ma 54 ma 55 ma 56	2 V @ 800 ma 2 V @ 800 ma 65 V @ 150°C 65 V @ 150°C	170°CC 17	175°C 170°C 170°C 170°C 170°C 170°C 170°C 170°C 175°C
-	IN6550 IN6550 IN662 IN663 IN653 IN653 IN655	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	ma @ 100°C ma @ 100°C ma @ 100°C ma @ 100°C ma @ 100°C ma @ 100°C	4 A for 3 ms 4 A for 3 ms	5 μa         0         25°C           1.0 μa         0         25°C           15 μa         0         25°C           25 μa         0         25°C           25 μa         0         25°C           2.5 μa         0         25°C           2.5 μa         0         25°C           2.5 μa         0         25°C           2.5 μa         0         25°C           3.5 μa         0         25°C           5.0 μa         0         25°C	1.5 V @ 25°C 1.5 V @ 25°C	150°C 150°C 150°C 150°C 150°C 150°C 150°C	175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C
44	1N254* 1N255*	190. 380	400 ma @ 135°C Case 400 ma @ 135°C Case	1.5 A for 3 ms 1.5 A for 3 ms	.1 ma @ 135°C .15 ma @ 135°C	1.5 V @ 500 ma 1.5 V @ 500 ma	150°C	150°C
al at at at at at	1N607 1N607A 1N608 1N608 1N609A 1N609A 1N609A	150 150 150 150 150	1 A @ 100°C Amb. 1 A @ 100°C Amb. 1 A @ 100°C Amb. 1 A @ 100°C Amb. 1 A @ 100°C Amb.	2 A .1 sec 2 A .1 sec	.025 ma @ 25°C .001 ma @ 25°C .025 ma @ 25°C .001 ma @ 25°C .010 ma @ 25°C .01 ma @ 25°C	1.5 V @ 200 ma 25°C 1.5 V @ 200 ma 25°C	150°CC 150°CCC 150°CCCC 150°CCCC 150°CCC 150°CCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	170°CC 170°CC 170°CC 170°CC

No. No.	JEDEC or G-E No.	NR4	Wa	Max. Inc at T <sup>o</sup> C	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	Max. Lkge. Current (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Full Laad Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Oper. Temp. °C	Max. Storage Temp. °C
サキサチョー	IN610 IN610A IN6110A IN611A IN612 IN612A IN613A IN613A IN613A IN614A IN614A IN1116 IN1116 IN1116 IN1118	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	нананана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналарианалариана 2000 гороналарианалариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналарианалариана 2000 гороналариана 2000 гороналарианалар	© 100°C Amb. © 100°C Amb. © C Amb. © C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C Amb. 00°C C A	22232323232323232323232323232323232323	025 ma @ 25°C 001 ma @ 25°C 025 ma @ 25°C 001 ma @ 25°C 0015 ma @ 25°C 0015 ma @ 25°C 0025 ma @ 150°C 3 ma @ 150°C 3 ma @ 150°C	1.5 V @ 200 ma 25°C 1.5 V @ 150°C 1.5 V @ 150°C 1.5 V @ 150°C 1.5 V @ 150°C 1.5 V @ 150°C	0.000000000000000000000000000000000000	000000 0000 00000 000
ren er	1N1120 1N253*	98	1.5 A			.3 ma @ .1 ma @	90 0 >> >	156°C	175°C

# LOW CURRENT SILICON RECTIFIERS (INSULATED STUD)

These units are the same as the 1N1115-1N1120 series listed above except the stud is insulated from the junction. This offers an easy solution to the customer who desires insulated mounting.

Drvg.	JEDEC or G-E Type No.	PRV	Max. I <sub>DC</sub> at T <sup>o</sup> C	Max. Peak I Cycle Surge	Max. Lkge. Current (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Full Load Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Oper. CC	Storage Temp. °C
ත ක ක ක ක ක	IN2851 IN2852 IN2847 IN2848 IN2849 IN2850 IN2850	500 500 200 800 400	1.5 A @ 50°C Case 1.5 A @ 50°C Case 1.5 A @ 75°C Case	15 A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A	.3 ma @ 150°C .3 ma @ 150°C .4 ma @ 150°C .3 ma @ 150°C .3 ma @ 150°C .3 ma @ 150°C	65 V @ 150°C 65 V @ 150°C	150°C 150°C 165°C 165°C 165°C	175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C 175°C

CELLS
RECTIFIER
SILICON
CURRENT
MEDIUM

further increased by the availability of a negative polarity unit (stud is anode), described by the suffix "R" appearing after the type number. The use of positive and negative polarity units facilitates the construction of bridge circuits and These stud mounted alloy junction silicon rectifiers are designed for all rectifier applications in the 5 to 30 ampere range. A high junction temperature rating and an extremely low forward voltage drop and thermal impedance permit high current op-These rectifiers may be mounted directly to a chassis or a fin or may be electrically insulated from the heatsink by using the mica washer insulating kit which is provided with each unit. Versatility is General Electric research, advance development and product design have resulted in a highly efficient rectifying junction. This feature plus a mechanical design employing high temperature hard solders and welds for all internal and external ioints and seals, which eliminates common sources of thermal fatigue failure, has produced a silicon rectifier with outstanding reliability under all operating conditions. Military approved units are available in those units asterisked (\*). permits the use of either a positive or negative heatsink in half-wave and center-tap applications. eration with minimum space requirements.

- o.	JEDEC or G-E Nope	Repetitive PRV	Transient PRV	Max. Ipc at 150°C Stud — Sinale Phase	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	Max. Lkge. Current (Full Cycle Average at Full Load)	Max. Full Load Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.)	Aex. Oper. °C per.	Max. Storege Conp.
	-02				2		0000	00000	J.0006
	N1341 A	50	100	6 A	150 A	3 ma @ 150°C Stud	6 V @ 150°C Stud	200.00	200°C
6 6	1N1341RA	50	100	6 A	150 A	150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1342A	100	200	9 9 9	150 A	0 150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1342RA	100	200	4 4 9	150 A	0 150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1343A	007	200	44	150 A	a 150°C	V @ 150°C	20000	2002
	N1343KA	500	350	6 A	150 A	@ 150°C	V @ 150°C	2002	2000
	N1344RA	200	350	6 4	150 A	0 150°C		0.002	20002
-	N1345A	300	450	6 A	150 A	0 150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1345RA	300	450	6 A	150 A	0 0 1 2 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 0	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1346A	400	600	6 A	A DGI	0 150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	200°C
	N1346RA	400	600	V Q	V Det	0 150°C	V @ 150°C	200°C	2000
-	N1347A	500	002	4 V	150 A	@ 150°C	V @ 150°C	200.00	2002
	N134/KA	000	007	A P 9	150 A	@ 150°C	V @ 150°C	2002	0.002
	N1248PA	600	800	6 A	150 A	@ 150°C	V (a) 150°C	2002	0 007
1	TATOLOT			10.4	A 00.9	@ 150°C		175°C	175°C
	N248	00		T UL	200 A	@ 150°C		175°C	D-971
	N248K	001		10 4	200 A	@ 150°C			175.0
-	101010	001		10 4	200 A	@ 150°C		C. 9.1	0.11
	1N250	200		10 A	200 A	5 ma @ 150°C Stud		175°C	175°C
-	TOROD	006		10 A	200 A	O Det D			

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Repetitive PRV 50	Tra	X IS SIL	Max. Peak I Cycle Surge 240 A	kge. Cu rcle Ave 'ull Loαc @ 150°C	Max. Full Load Voltage Drop (Full Cycle Avg.) .55 V @ 150°C Stud	Max. Cper. Cper. Conc. 200°C	Max Statege Temp. °C
	200 200 200	12 A 12 A 12 A 12 A	240 A 240 A 240 A	3.0 ma @ 150°C Stud 2.5 ma @ 150°C Stud 2.5 ma @ 150°C Stud 2.5 ma @ 150°C Stud	a 150°C a 150°C a 150°C	200°C	200°C
	350	12 A 12 A 12 A	240 A	a 150°C	(a) 150°C	200°CC	200°CC
	450 450	12 A 12 A	240 A 240 A 240 A	2 150°CC	a 150°C	200°C	200.CC
	009 200	12 A 12 A	240 A 240 A 240 A	a 150°C	a 150°C	200°C	200°C
	700 800	12 12 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	240 A 240 A 240 A	a 150°C	.55 V @ 150°C Stud .55 V @ 150°C Stud .55 V @ 150°C Stud	200°CC	200°CC
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	and the second s	20 A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A	850 A 850 A 850 A 850 A 850 A 850 A	5 ma @ 150°C Stud 5 ma @ 150°C Stud		0000000 1775 1775 1775 1785 1785 1785 1785 1785	0000000 1122000 1122000 1122000
	100 2	25 A @ 145°C	300 A	5 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200°C
	200 2	25 A @ 145°C	300 A	4.5 ma @ 145°C Stud.	0.60 V @ 146°C Stud	200°C	200°C
	350 2	25 A @ 145°O	300 A	4.0 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200°C
	450 2	25. A @ 145°C	300 A	8.5 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200°C
	500 2	25 A @ 145°C	300.A	3.0 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200.02
	700 2	25 A @ 145°C	800 A	2.5 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200°C
	800: 2	25 A @ 145°C	800 A	2.0 ma @ 145°C Stud	0.60 V @ 145°C Stud	200°C	200°C
		25A 20A 20A	250 A 350 A 350 A	10 ma @ 175°C Stud 5 ma @ 150°C Stud 5 ma @ 150°C Stud		150°C 175°C 175°C	175°C 175°C 175°C

The 4JA60 is a large area junction silicon rectifier designed for power supply applications requiring d-c outputs as high as 85 amperes per rectifying element at rms input voltage up to 280 volts. A combination of extremely low forward voltage drop, minimum thermal impedance  $(0.8^{\circ}C/watt-junction$  to stud), and a tapered pipe thread heatsink connection contributes to high allowable current ratings with very little external cooling required. In many applications, a single threeto siz-inch copper or aluminum fin will provide ample free convection cooling. Versatility is further increased by the

availability of a negative polarity (stud is anode) unit, the 4JA61. The use of positive and negative polarity units facilitates the construction of bridge circuits and permits the use of either a positive or negative heatsink in half-wave and centertap applications. Stacked fin assemblies are also available. Outstanding features of the 4JA60 series are the hard solder and weld construction which offers a high degree of freedom from thermal fatigue and a high, but conservative surge current rating.

							i de la competition de la comp	-
Max. Storege Temp. C	200°C	200°C	D-00	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C
Max. Oper. °C	200°G	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C	200°C
Max. Forward Volt. Drop @ 50 Amps 200°C Junction (Full Cycle Avg.)	0.60 V @ 200°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 200°C Jct.	0.60 Y @ 200°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 200°C Jet.	0.60 V @ 200°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 200°C Jef.	0.60 V @ 200°C Jet.	0,60 V @ 200°C Jct.
Max. Peak Lkge. Current @ Max. PRV 200°C Junction	70 ma @ 200°C Jet.	60 ma @ 200°C Jet.	50 ma @ 200°C Jct.	45 ma @ 200°C Jct.	40 ma @ 200°C Jct.	35 ma @ 200°C Jct.	32 ma @ 200°C Jct.	28 ma @ 200°C Jct.
Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	800 A	900 A	900 A	¥ 006	¥ 006	¥ 006	¥ 006	¥ 006
Max. 196 at 160°C Stud — Single Phase	50 A.	50 A	50 Å	50 A	60 A.	50.A	50 A	50 A
Transient PRV	100	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
Repetitive	60	100	150	200	250	300	350	06%
JEDEC or G-E Type No.	4JA60F 4JA61F	4JA60A 4JA61A	4JA60G 4JA61G	4JA60B 4JA61B	4JA60H 4JA61H	4JA60C 4JA61C	4JA60J 4JA61J	4JA60D 4JA61D
E.S.			Č= D-	to be	2-1-		6-10-	D-D-

The 4JA62 is a large area junction silicon rectifier designed for power supply applications requiring d-c outputs as high as 85 amperes per rectifying element at rms input voltage up to 280 volts. A combination of extremely low forward voltage drop, minimum thermal impedance (0.8°C/watt-junction to stud), and a tapered pipe thread heatsink connection contributes to high allowable current ratings with very little external cooling required. In many applications, a single three- to six-inch copper or aluminum fin will provide ample free convection cooling. Versatility is further increased by the avail-

ability of a negative polarity (stud is anode) unit, the 4JA63. The use of positive and negative polarity units facilitates the construction of bridge circuits and permits the use of either a positive or negative heatsink in half-wave and center-tap applications. Stacked fin assemblies are also available.

Outstanding features of the 4JA60 series are the hard solder and weld construction which offers a high degree of freedom from thermal fatigue, and a high, but conservative surge current rating.

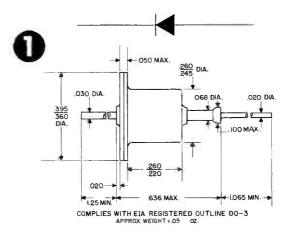
Drwg. No.	JEDEC or G-E No.	Repetitive PRV	Transient PRV	Max. Ipo at 110°C Stud Single Phase	Max. Peak 1 Cycle Surge	Max. Peak Lkge. Current @ Max. PRV 150°C Junction	Max. Forward Volt. Drop @ 50 Amps 150°C Junction (Full Cycle Avg.)	Max. Oper. °C	Max. Storoge Temp.
	4JA62F 4JA63F	50	100	50 A	900 A	70 ma @ 150°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 150°C Jct.	150°C	200°C
	4JA62A 4JA63A	100	200	50 A	800 A	60 ma @ 150°C Jet.	0.60 V @ 150°C Jct.	150°C	200°C
	4JA62G 4JA63G	150	250	50 A	\$ 00 ¥	50 ma @ 150°C Jct <sup>z</sup>	0.60 V @ 150°C Jet.	150°C	0.00Z
	4JA62B 4JA63B	200	300	<b>8</b> 0 <b>A</b>	800 A	45 ma @ 150°C Jct.	0,60 V @ 150°C Jet.	150°C	D.002
	4JA62H 4JA63H	250	360	50 A	¥ 006	40 ma @ 150°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 150°C Jct.	150°C	200°C
	4JA62C 4JA63C	300	400	50 A	\$00 ¥	35 ma @ 150°C Jet,	0.60 V @ 150°C Jct.	150°C	200°C
<u> </u>	4JA62J 4JA63J	350	450	50 A	900 A	32 ma @ 150°C Jet.	0.60 V @ 150°C Jct.	150°C	200°C
<b></b> -	4JA62D 4JA63D	400	200	¥ 03	A 006	28 ma @ 150°C Jct.	0.60 V @ 150°C Jet.	150°C	200°C

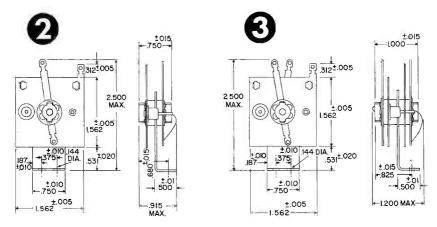
### RECTIFIER SPECIFICATIONS

### RECTIFIER STACKS

G-E Type	PIV (Up to)	Max. I <sub>DC</sub> at T <sup>D</sup> C (Up to)
4JA211	630 V	6 A @ 55°C Amb.
4JA411	3360 V	18 A @ 25°C Amb.
4JA421	2000 V	.75 A @ 25°C Amb.
4JA422	10,000 V	.50 A @ 25°C Amb.
4JA3011	630 V	48 A @ 55°C Amb.
4JA3511	1800 V	67.5 A @ 55°C Amb.
4JA6011	840 V	573 A @ 35°C Amb.
4JA6211	840 V	430 A @ 35°C Amb.

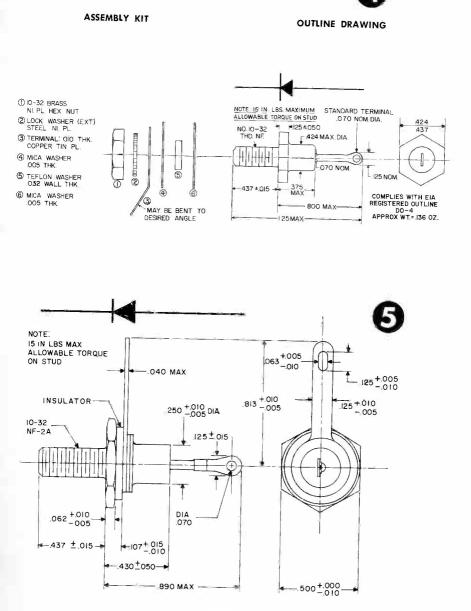
### OUTLINE DRAWINGS





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# OUTLINE DRAWINGS (CONTINUED)

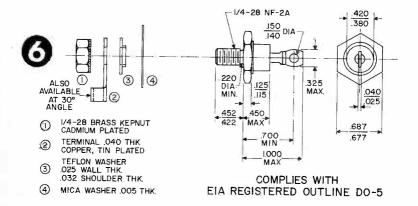


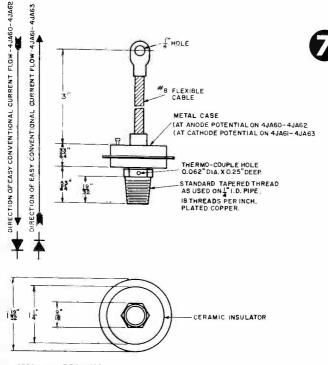
### ASSEMBLY KIT

OUTLINE DRAWING

NOTE: MICA WASHER IN MOUNTING KIT MAY ADD UP TO 4"C/WATT THERMAL RESISTANCE JUNCTION TO STUD DIRECTION OF EASY CONVENTIONAL CURRENT FLOW - IN2154-IN2160

DIRECTION OF EASY CONVENTIONAL CURRENT FLOW-IN2154R-IN2160R

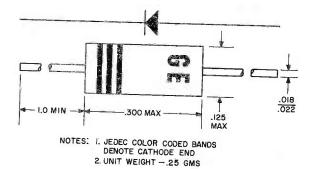




ARROX. WEIGHT 3 OUNCES

# OUTLINE DRAWINGS (CONTINUED)

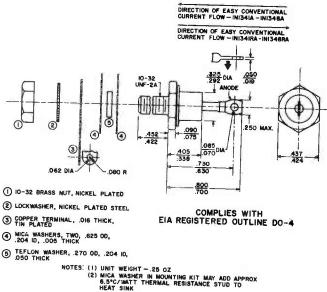






MOUNTING KIT

### OUTLINE DRAWING



SEMICONDUCTOR PRODUCTS DEPARTMENT

ELECTRONICS PARK . SYRACUSE I, N.Y.

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