

## 15-2 THE DIFFERENTIAL AMPLIFIER

The function of a differential amplifier<sup>4</sup> (abbreviated DIFF AMP) is, in general, to amplify the difference between two signals. The need for DIFF AMPS arises in many physical measurements where response from dc to many megahertz is required. It is also the basic stage of an integrated operational amplifier with differential input.

Figure 15-5 represents a linear active device with two input signals  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$  and one output signal  $v_o$ , each measured with respect to ground. In an ideal DIFF AMP the output signal  $v_o$  should be given by

$$v_o = A_d(v_1 - v_2) \quad (15-5)$$

where  $A_d$  is the gain of the differential amplifier. Thus it is seen that any signal which is common to both inputs will have no effect on the output voltage. However, a practical DIFF AMP cannot be described by Eq. (15-5), because, in general, the output depends not only upon the *difference signal*  $v_d$  of the two signals, but also upon the average level, called the *common-mode signal*  $v_c$ , where

$$v_d \equiv v_1 - v_2 \quad \text{and} \quad v_c \equiv \frac{1}{2}(v_1 + v_2) \quad (15-6)$$

For example, if one signal is  $+50 \mu\text{V}$  and the second is  $-50 \mu\text{V}$ , the output will not be exactly the same as if  $v_1 = 1,050 \mu\text{V}$  and  $v_2 = 950 \mu\text{V}$ , even though the difference  $v_d = 100 \mu\text{V}$  is the same in the two cases.

**The Common-mode Rejection Ratio** The foregoing statements are now clarified, and a figure of merit for a difference amplifier is introduced. The output of Fig. 15-5 can be expressed as a linear combination of the two input voltages

$$v_o = A_1v_1 + A_2v_2 \quad (15-7)$$

where  $A_1$  ( $A_2$ ) is the voltage amplification from input 1 (2) to the output under the condition that input 2 (1) is grounded. From Eqs. (15-6)

$$v_1 = v_c + \frac{1}{2}v_d \quad \text{and} \quad v_2 = v_c - \frac{1}{2}v_d \quad (15-8)$$

If these equations are substituted in Eq. (15-7), we obtain

$$v_o = A_dv_d + A_c v_c \quad (15-9)$$

where

$$A_d \equiv \frac{1}{2}(A_1 - A_2) \quad \text{and} \quad A_c \equiv A_1 + A_2 \quad (15-10)$$

Fig. 15-5 The output is a linear function of  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  for an ideal differential amplifier;  $v_o = A_d(v_1 - v_2)$ .





The voltage gain for the difference signal is  $A_d$ , and that for the common-mode signal is  $A_c$ . We can measure  $A_d$  directly by setting  $v_1 = -v_2 = 0.5$  V, so that  $v_d = 1$  V and  $v_c = 0$ . Under these conditions the measured output voltage  $v_o$  gives the gain  $A_d$  for the difference signal [Eq. (15-9)]. Similarly, if we set  $v_1 = v_2 = 1$  V, then  $v_d = 0$ ,  $v_c = 1$  V, and  $v_o = A_c$ . The output voltage now is a direct measurement of the common-mode gain  $A_c$ .

Clearly, we should like to have  $A_d$  large, whereas ideally,  $A_c$  should equal zero. A quantity called the *common-mode rejection ratio*, which serves as a figure of merit for a DIFF AMP, is defined by

$$\text{CMRR} = \rho = \left| \frac{A_d}{A_c} \right| \quad (15-11)$$

From Eqs. (15-9) and (15-11) we obtain an expression for the output in the following form:

$$v_o = A_d v_d \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{v_c}{v_d} \right) \quad (15-12)$$

From this equation we see that the amplifier should be designed so that  $\rho$  is large compared with the ratio of the common-mode signal to the difference signal. For example, if  $\rho = 1,000$ ,  $v_c = 1$  mV, and  $v_d = 1$   $\mu$ V, the second term in Eq. (15-12) is equal to the first term. Hence, for an amplifier with a common-mode rejection ratio of 1,000, a 1- $\mu$ V difference of potential between the two inputs gives the same output as a 1-mV signal applied with the same polarity to both inputs.

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**EXAMPLE** (a) Consider the situation referred to above, where the first set of signals is  $v_1 = +50$   $\mu$ V and  $v_2 = -50$   $\mu$ V and the second set is  $v_1 = 1,050$   $\mu$ V and  $v_2 = 950$   $\mu$ V. If the common-mode rejection ratio is 100, calculate the percentage difference in output voltage obtained for the two sets of input signals. (b) Repeat part a if  $\rho = 10,000$ .

*Solution* a. In the first case,  $v_d = 100$   $\mu$ V and  $v_c = 0$ , so that, from Eq. (15-12),  $v_o = 100A_d$   $\mu$ V.

In the second case,  $v_d = 100$   $\mu$ V, the same value as in part a, but now  $v_c = \frac{1}{2}(1,050 + 950) = 1,000$   $\mu$ V, so that, from Eq. (15-12),

$$v_o = 100A_d \left( 1 + \frac{10}{\rho} \right) = 100A_d \left( 1 + \frac{10}{100} \right) \quad \mu\text{V}$$

These two measurements differ by 10 percent.

b. For  $\rho = 10,000$ , the second set of signals results in an output

$$v_o = 100A_d(1 + 10 \times 10^{-4}) \quad \mu\text{V}$$

whereas the first set of signals gives an output  $v_o = 100A_d$   $\mu$ V. Hence the two measurements now differ by only 0.1 percent.

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### 15-3 THE EMITTER-COUPLED DIFFERENTIAL AMPLIFIER

The circuit of Fig. 15-6 is an excellent DIFF AMP if the emitter resistance  $R_e$  is large. This statement can be justified as follows: If  $V_{s1} = V_{s2} = V_s$ , then from Eqs. (15-6) and (15-9) we have  $V_d = V_{s1} - V_{s2} = 0$  and  $V_o = A_c V_s$ . However, if  $R_e = \infty$ , then, because of the symmetry of Fig. 15-6, we obtain  $I_{e1} = I_{e2} = 0$ . Since  $I_{b2} \ll I_{c2}$ , then  $I_{c2} \approx I_{e2}$ , and it follows that  $V_o = 0$ . Hence the common-mode gain  $A_c$  becomes zero, and the common-mode rejection ratio is infinite for  $R_e = \infty$  and a symmetrical circuit.

We now analyze the emitter-coupled circuit for a finite value of  $R_e$ .  $A_c$  can be evaluated by setting  $V_{s1} = V_{s2} = V_s$  and making use of the symmetry of Fig. 15-6. This circuit can be bisected as in Fig. 15-7a. An analysis of this circuit (Prob. 15-10), using Eqs. (8-67) to (8-69) and neglecting the term in  $h_{re}$  in Eq. (8-68), yields

$$A_c = \frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{(2h_{oe}R_e - h_{fe})R_c}{2R_e(1 + h_{fe}) + (R_s + h_{ie})(2h_{oe}R_e + 1)} \quad (15-13)$$

provided that  $h_{oe}R_e \ll 1$ . Similarly, the difference mode gain  $A_d$  can be obtained by setting  $V_{s1} = -V_{s2} = V_s/2$ . From the symmetry of Fig. 15-6, we see that, if  $V_{s1} = -V_{s2}$ , then the emitter of each transistor is grounded for small-signal operation. Under these conditions the circuit of Fig. 15-7b can be used to obtain  $A_d$ . Hence

$$A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{h_{fe}R_c}{R_s + h_{ie}} \quad (15-14)$$

provided  $h_{oe}R_e \ll 1$ . The common-mode rejection ratio can now be obtained using Eqs. (15-11), (15-13), and (15-14).

From Eq. (15-13) it is seen that the common-mode rejection ratio increases with  $R_e$ , as predicted above. There are, however, practical limitations on the magnitude of  $R_e$  because of the quiescent dc voltage drop across it; the emitter

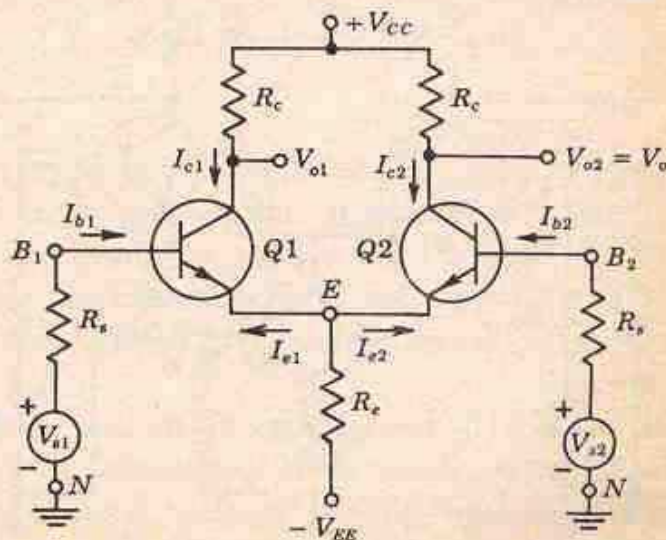


Fig. 15-6 Symmetrical emitter-coupled difference amplifier.



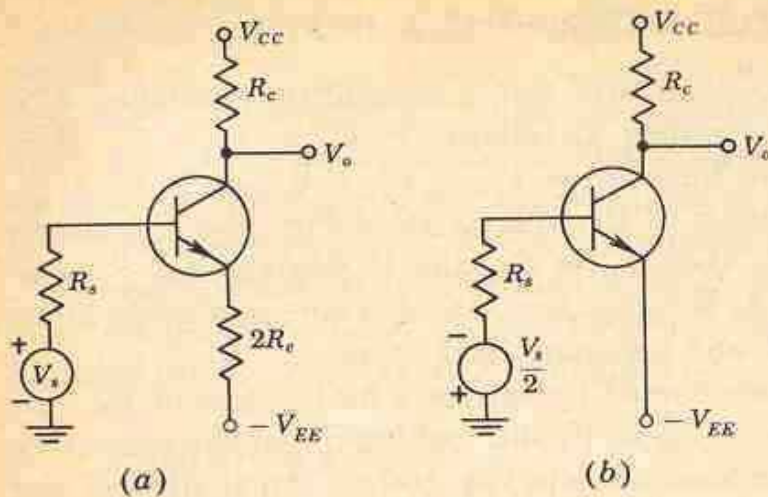


Fig. 15-7 Equivalent circuit for a symmetrical differential amplifier used to determine (a) the common-mode gain  $A_c$  and (b) the difference gain  $A_d$ .

supply  $V_{EE}$  must become larger as  $R_e$  is increased, in order to maintain the quiescent current at its proper value. If the operating currents of the transistors are allowed to decrease, this will lead to higher  $h_{i_e}$  values and lower values of  $h_{f_e}$ . Both of these effects will tend to decrease the common-mode rejection ratio.

**Differential Amplifier Supplied with a Constant Current** Frequently, in practice,  $R_e$  is replaced by a transistor circuit, as in Fig. 15-8, in which  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_3$  can be adjusted to give the same quiescent conditions for  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  as the original circuit of Fig. 15-6. This modified circuit of Fig. 15-8 presents a very high effective emitter resistance  $R_e$  for the two transistors  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ . Since  $R_e$  is also the effective resistance looking into the collector of transistor  $Q_3$ , it is given by Eq. (8-70). In Sec. 8-15 it is verified that  $R_e$  is hundreds of kilohms even if  $R_3$  is as small as 1 K.

We now verify that transistor  $Q_3$  acts as an approximately constant cur-

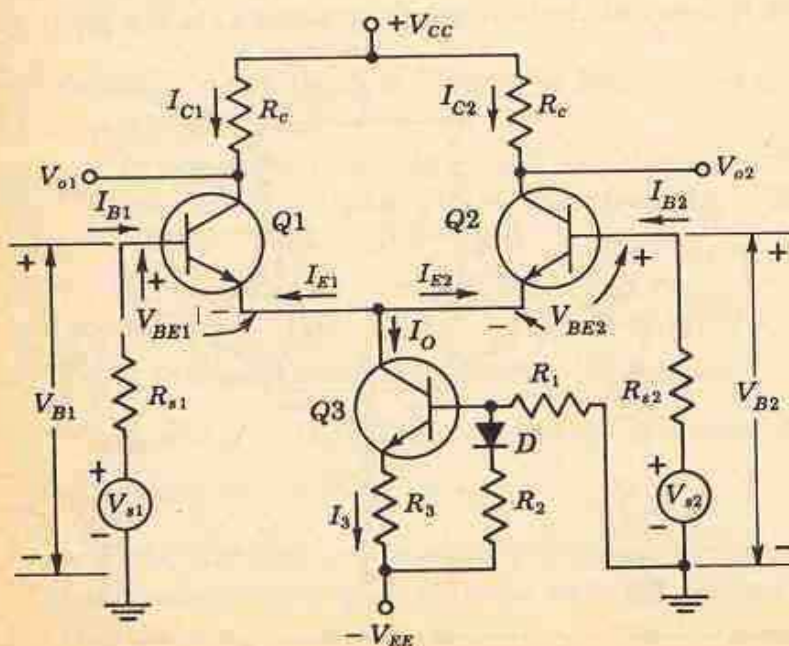


Fig. 15-8 Differential amplifier with constant-current stage in the emitter circuit. Nominally,  $R_{s1} = R_{s2}$ .



rent source, subject to the condition that the base current of  $Q_3$  is negligible. Applying KVL to the base circuit of  $Q_3$ , we have

$$I_3 R_3 + V_{BE3} = V_D + (V_{EE} - V_D) \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad (15-15)$$

where  $V_D$  is the diode voltage. Hence

$$I_O \approx I_3 = \frac{1}{R_3} \left( \frac{V_{EE} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} + \frac{V_D R_1}{R_1 + R_2} - V_{BE3} \right) \quad (15-16)$$

If the circuit parameters are chosen so that

$$\frac{V_D R_1}{R_1 + R_2} = V_{BE3} \quad (15-17)$$

then

$$I_O = \frac{V_{EE} R_2}{R_3 (R_1 + R_2)} \quad (15-18)$$

Since this current is independent of the signal voltages  $V_{s1}$  and  $V_{s2}$ , then  $Q_3$  acts to supply the DIFF AMP consisting of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  with the constant current  $I_O$ .

The above result for  $I_O$  has been rendered independent of temperature because of the added diode  $D$ . Without  $D$  the current would vary with temperature because  $V_{BE3}$  decreases approximately  $2.5 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$  (Sec. 5-8). The diode has this same temperature dependence, and hence the two variations cancel each other and  $I_O$  does not vary appreciably with temperature. Since the cutin voltage  $V_D$  of a diode has approximately the same value as the base-to-emitter voltage  $V_{BE3}$  of a transistor, then Eq. (15-17) cannot be satisfied with a single diode. Hence two diodes in series are used for  $V_D$  (Fig. 15-11).

Consider that  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  are identical and that  $Q_3$  is a true constant-current source. Under these circumstances we can demonstrate that the common-mode gain is zero. Assume that  $V_{s1} = V_{s2} = V_s$ , so that from the symmetry of the circuit, the collector current  $I_{c1}$  (the increase over the quiescent value for  $V_s = 0$ ) in  $Q_1$  equals the current  $I_{c2}$  in  $Q_2$ . However, since the total current increase  $I_{c1} + I_{c2} = 0$  if  $I_O = \text{constant}$ , then  $I_{c1} = I_{c2} = 0$  and  $A_c = V_{o2}/V_s = -I_{c2}R_c/V_s = 0$ .

**Practical Considerations<sup>4</sup>** In some applications the choice of  $V_{s1}$  and  $V_{s2}$  as the input voltages is not realistic because the resistances  $R_{s1}$  and  $R_{s2}$  represent the output impedances of the voltage generators  $V_{s1}$  and  $V_{s2}$ . In such a case we use as input voltages the base-to-ground voltages  $V_{b1}$  and  $V_{b2}$  of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$ , respectively. For the analysis of nonsymmetrical differential circuits the reader is referred to Ref. 4.

The differential amplifier is often used in dc applications. It is difficult to design dc amplifiers using transistors because of drift due to variations of  $h_{FE}$ ,  $V_{BE}$ , and  $I_{CBO}$  with temperature. A shift in any of these quantities changes the output voltage and cannot be distinguished from a change in



input-signal voltage. Using the techniques of integrated circuits (Chap. 7), it is possible to construct a DIFF AMP with  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  having almost identical characteristics. Under these conditions any parameter changes due to temperature will cancel and the output will not vary.

Differential amplifiers may be cascaded to obtain larger amplifications for the difference signal. Outputs  $V_{o1}$  and  $V_{o2}$  are taken from each collector (Fig. 15-8) and are coupled directly to the two bases, respectively, of the next stage (Fig. 15-11).

Finally, the differential amplifier may be used as an emitter-coupled phase inverter. For this application the signal is applied to one base, whereas the second base is not excited (but is, of course, properly biased). The output voltages taken from the collectors are equal in magnitude and  $180^\circ$  out of phase.

#### 15-4 TRANSFER CHARACTERISTICS OF A DIFFERENTIAL AMPLIFIER

It is important to examine the transfer characteristic<sup>5</sup> ( $I_C$  versus  $V_{B1} - V_{B2}$ ) of the DIFF AMP of Fig. 15-8 to understand its advantages and limitations. We first consider this circuit qualitatively. When  $V_{B1}$  is below the cutoff point of  $Q1$ , all the current  $I_O$  flows through  $Q2$  (assume for this discussion that  $V_{B2}$  is constant). As  $V_{B1}$  carries  $Q1$  above cutoff, the current in  $Q1$  increases, while the current in  $Q2$  decreases, and the sum of the currents in the two transistors remain constant and equal to  $I_O$ . The total range  $\Delta V_O$  over which the output can follow the input is  $R_C I_O$  and is therefore adjustable through an adjustment of  $I_O$ .

From Fig. 15-8 we have

$$I_{E1} + I_{E2} = -I_O \quad (15-19)$$

$$V_{B1} - V_{B2} = V_{BE1} - V_{BE2} \quad (15-20)$$

The emitter current  $I_E$  of each transistor is related to the voltage  $V_{BE}$  by the diode volt-ampere characteristic

$$I_E = I_S e^{V_{BE}/V_T} \quad (15-21)$$

where  $I_S$  is defined in terms of the Ebers-Moll parameters in Prob. 15-12.

If we assume that  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  are matched, it follows from Eqs. (15-19) to (15-21) that

$$I_{C1} \approx -I_{E1} = \frac{I_O}{1 + \exp[-(V_{B1} - V_{B2})/V_T]} \quad (15-22)$$

and  $I_{C2}$  is given by the same expression with  $V_{B1}$  and  $V_{B2}$  interchanged. The transfer characteristics described by Eq. (15-22) for the normalized collector currents  $I_{C1}/I_O$  (and  $I_{C2}/I_O$ ) are shown in Fig. 15-9, where the abscissa is the normalized differential input  $(V_{B1} - V_{B2})/V_T$ .



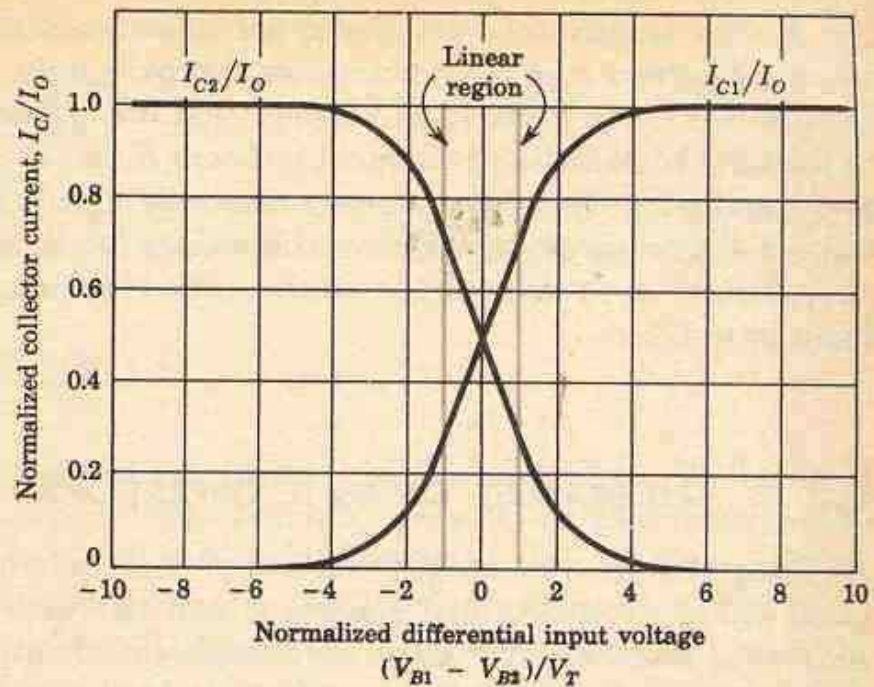


Fig. 15-9 Transfer characteristics of the basic differential-amplifier circuit.

If Eq. (15-22) is differentiated with respect to  $V_{B1} - V_{B2}$ , we have the transconductance  $g_{md}$  of the DIFF AMP with respect to the differential input voltage, or

$$\frac{dI_{C1}}{d(V_{B1} - V_{B2})} = g_{md} = \frac{I_O}{4V_T} \quad (15-23)$$

where  $g_{md}$  is evaluated at  $V_{B1} = V_{B2}$ . This equation indicates that, for the same value of  $I_O$ , the effective transconductance of the differential amplifier is one-fourth that of a single transistor [Eq. (11-4)]. An alternative proof of Eq. (15-23) is given in Prob. 15-11.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the transfer curves of Fig. 15-9:

1. The differential amplifier is a very good limiter, since when the input  $(V_{B1} - V_{B2})$  exceeds  $\pm 4V_T$  ( $\approx \pm 100$  mV at room temperature), very little further increase in the output is possible.

2. The slope of these curves defines the transconductance, and it is clear that  $g_{md}$  starts from zero, reaches a maximum of  $I_O/4V_T$  when  $I_{C1} = I_{C2} = \frac{1}{2}I_O$ , and again approaches zero.

3. The value of  $g_{md}$  is proportional to  $I_O$  [Eq. (15-23)]. Since the output voltage change  $V_{o2}$  is given by

$$V_{o2} = g_{md}R_c(V_{B1} - V_{B2}) \quad (15-24)$$

it is possible to change the differential gain by varying the value of the current  $I_O$ . This means that automatic gain control (AGC) is possible with the DIFF AMP.

4. The transfer characteristics are linear in a small region around the operating point where the input varies approximately  $\pm V_T$  ( $\pm 26$  mV at room temperature). In Prob. 15-14 we show that it is possible to increase the region of linearity by inserting two equal resistors  $R_e$  in series with the emitter leads of  $Q1$  and  $Q2$ . This current-series feedback added to each transistor results in a smaller value of  $g_{m_d}$ . Reasonable values for  $R_e$  are  $50 - 100 \Omega$ , since for large values,  $A_d$  is reduced too much. The insertion of  $R_e$  also increases the input impedance.