

# **DC Biasing – BJTs**

Topic 4 (Chapter 4)

(Some materials are from Malvino's book)

# Biasing

**Biasing:** Applying DC voltages to a transistor in order to turn it on so that it can amplify AC signals.

# The Three Operating Regions

## Active or Linear Region Operation

- Base–Emitter junction is forward biased
- Base–Collector junction is reverse biased

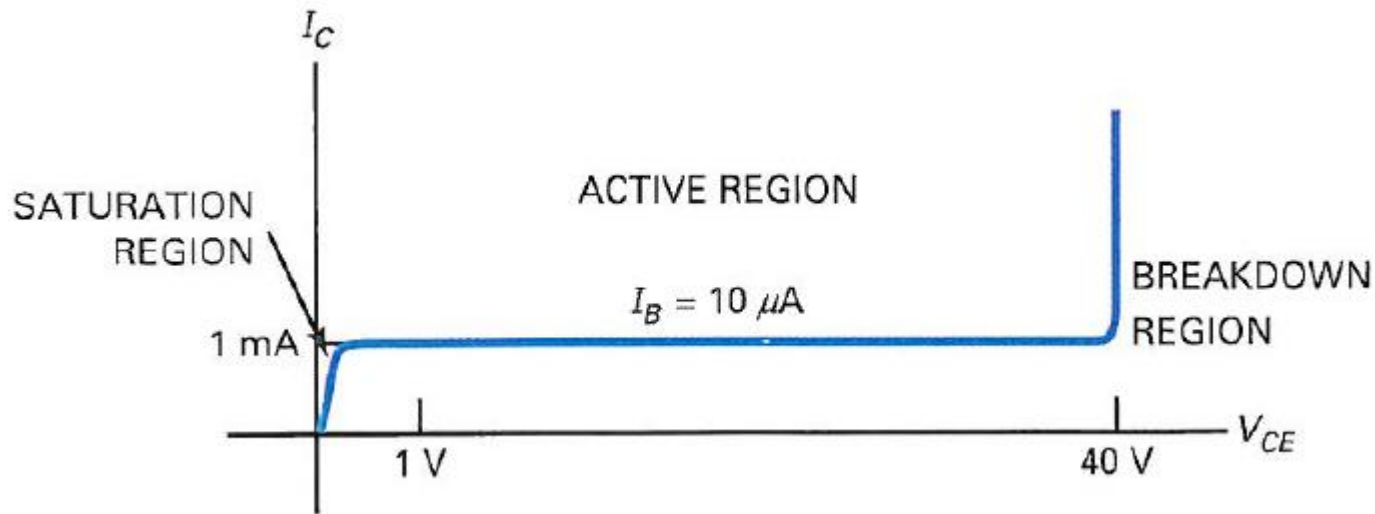
## Cutoff Region Operation

- Base–Emitter junction is reverse biased

## Saturation Region Operation

- Base–Emitter junction is forward biased
- Base–Collector junction is forward biased or near forward bias

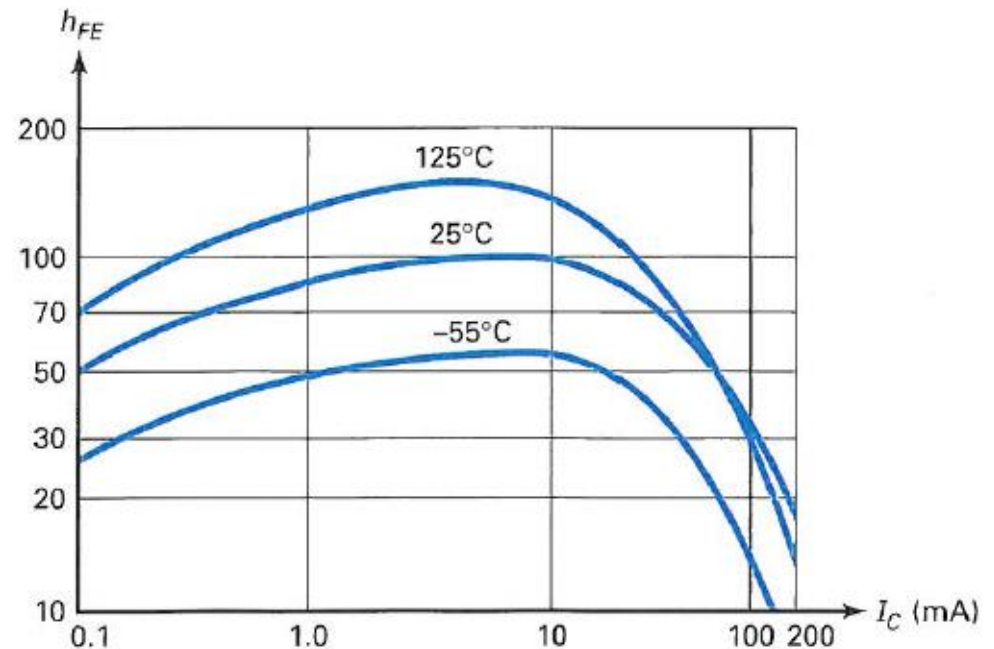
# Regions of operation



1. **Active** - - - used for linear amplification
  2. **Cutoff** - - - used in switching applications
  3. **Saturation** - - - used in switching applications
- **Breakdown** - - - can destroy the transistor and should be avoided

# Current gain is not fixed

- Depends on:
  - ✓ Transistor
  - ✓ Collector current
  - ✓ Temperature



# **DC Biasing Circuits**

**Fixed-bias or Base-Bias**

**Emitter Bias**

**Voltage divider bias circuit**

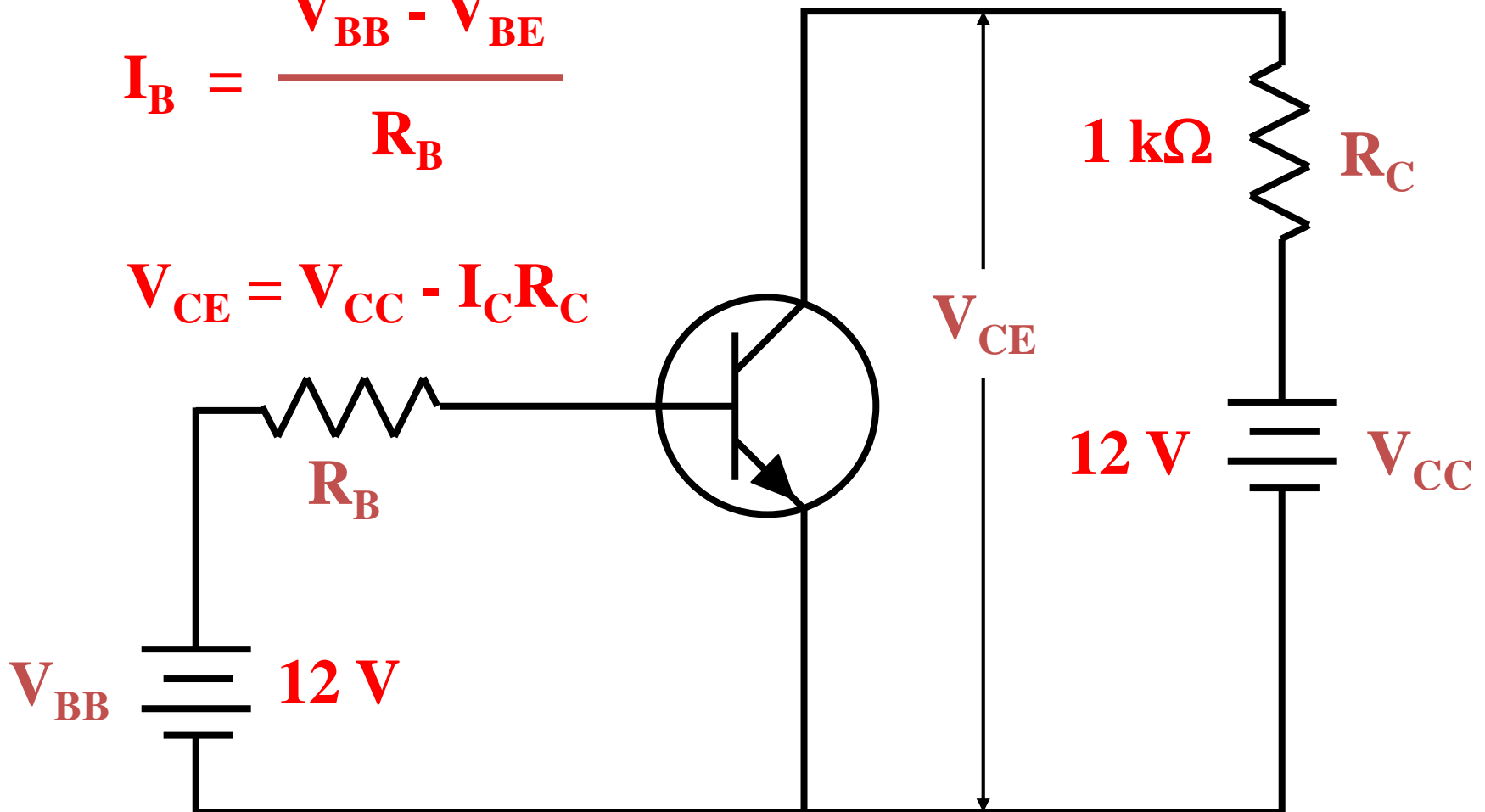
**DC bias with voltage feedback**

# Base-Bias or Fixed-Bias

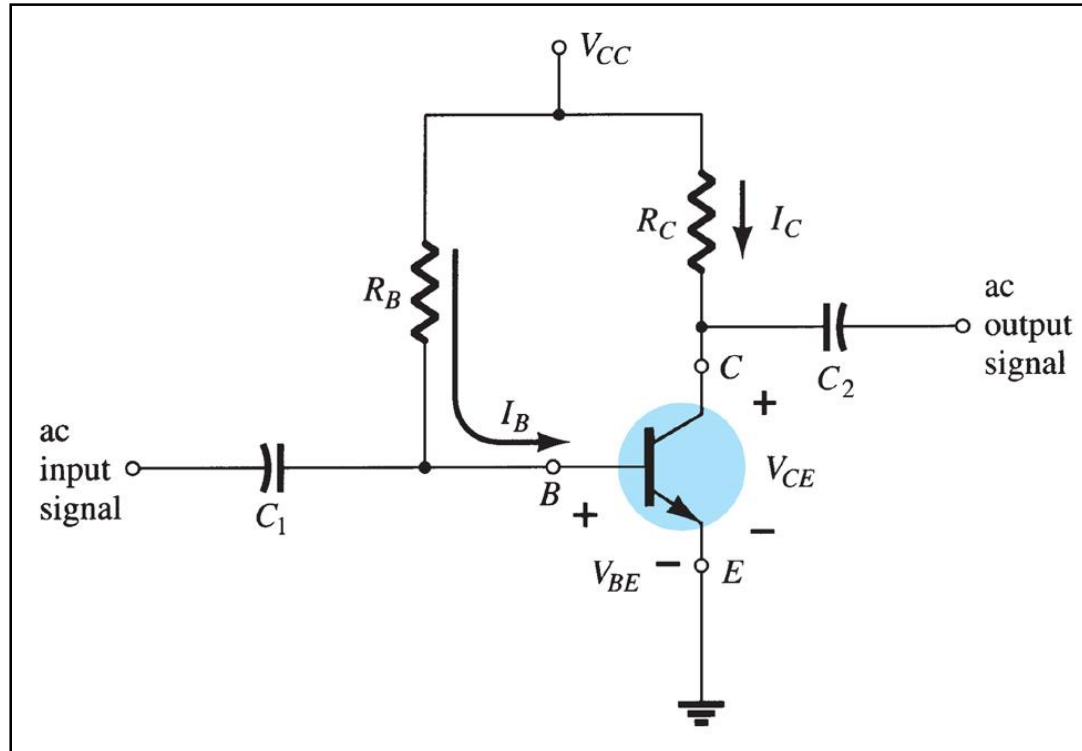
- Setting up a fixed value of **base** current
- Usually  $V_{BB}$  and  $V_{CC}$  are the same supply

$$I_B = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_B}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$



# Typical Base-Bias or Fixed-Bias Amplifier Circuit



- A single supply is used
- Coupling capacitors are used to shield the circuit from input and output DC voltages



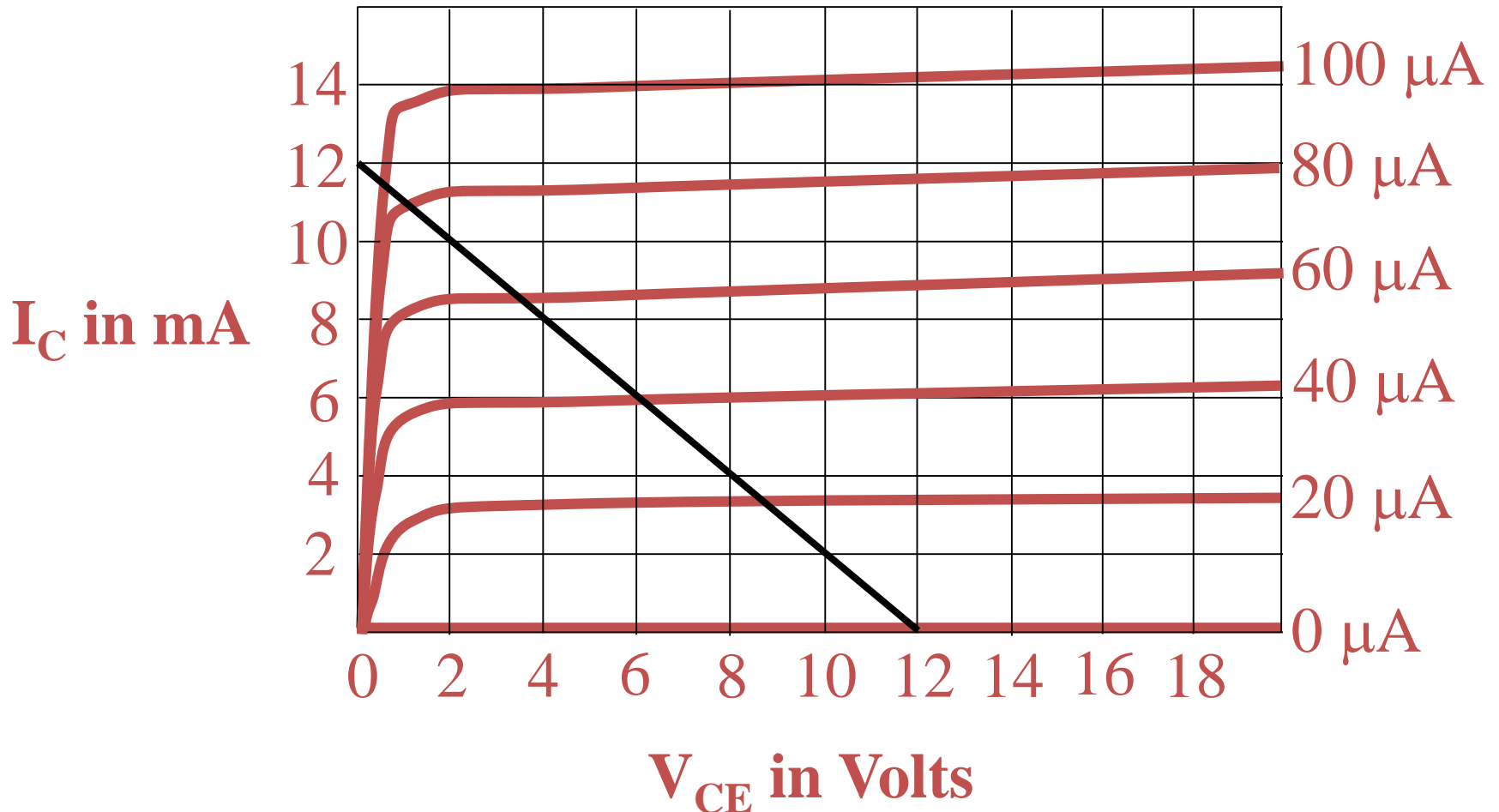
# Load line

- A visual summary of all the possible transistor operating points
- Connects saturation current ( $I_{Csat}$ ) to cutoff voltage ( $V_{CEcutoff}$ )

# Load line

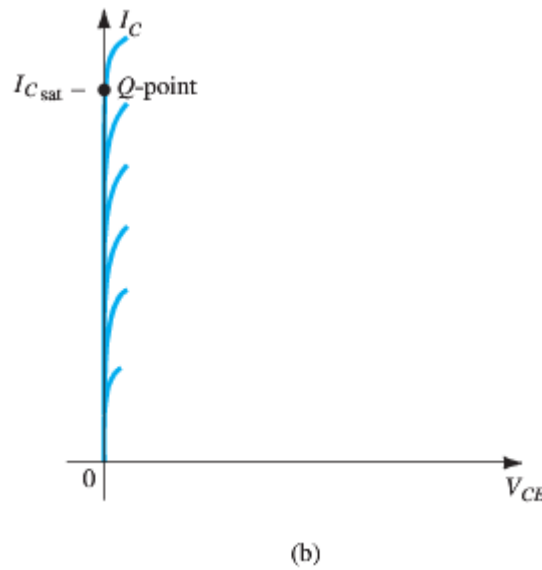
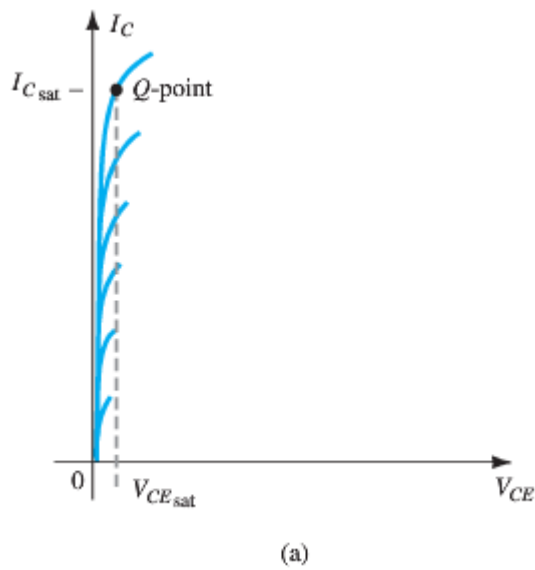
$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{R_C}$$

A graph of this equation produces a load line.



# Saturation

When the transistor is operating in **saturation**, current through the transistor is at its *maximum* possible value.

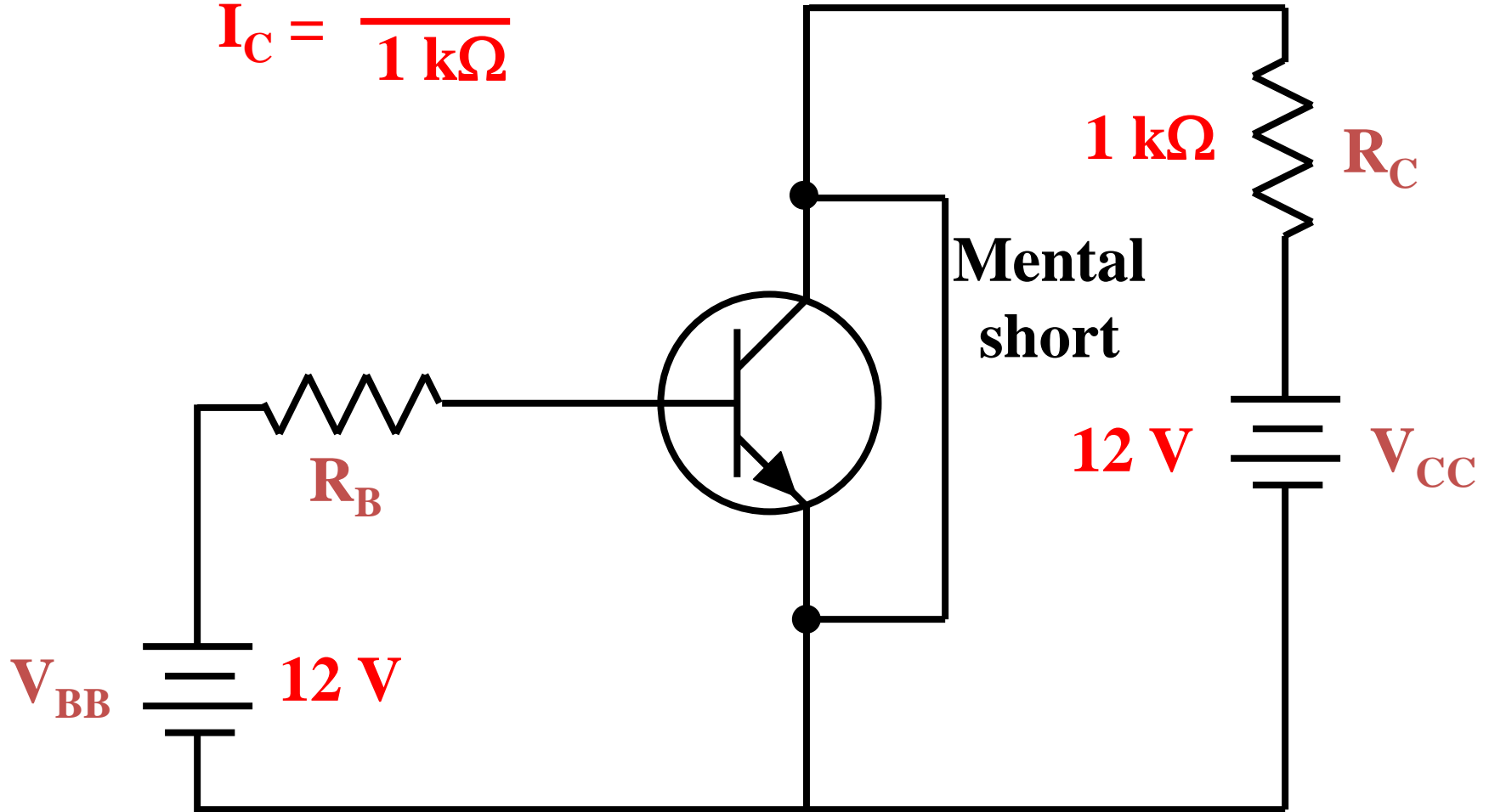


$$I_{C\text{sat}} = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C}$$

$$V_{CE} \approx 0 \text{ V}$$

# Understanding Saturation

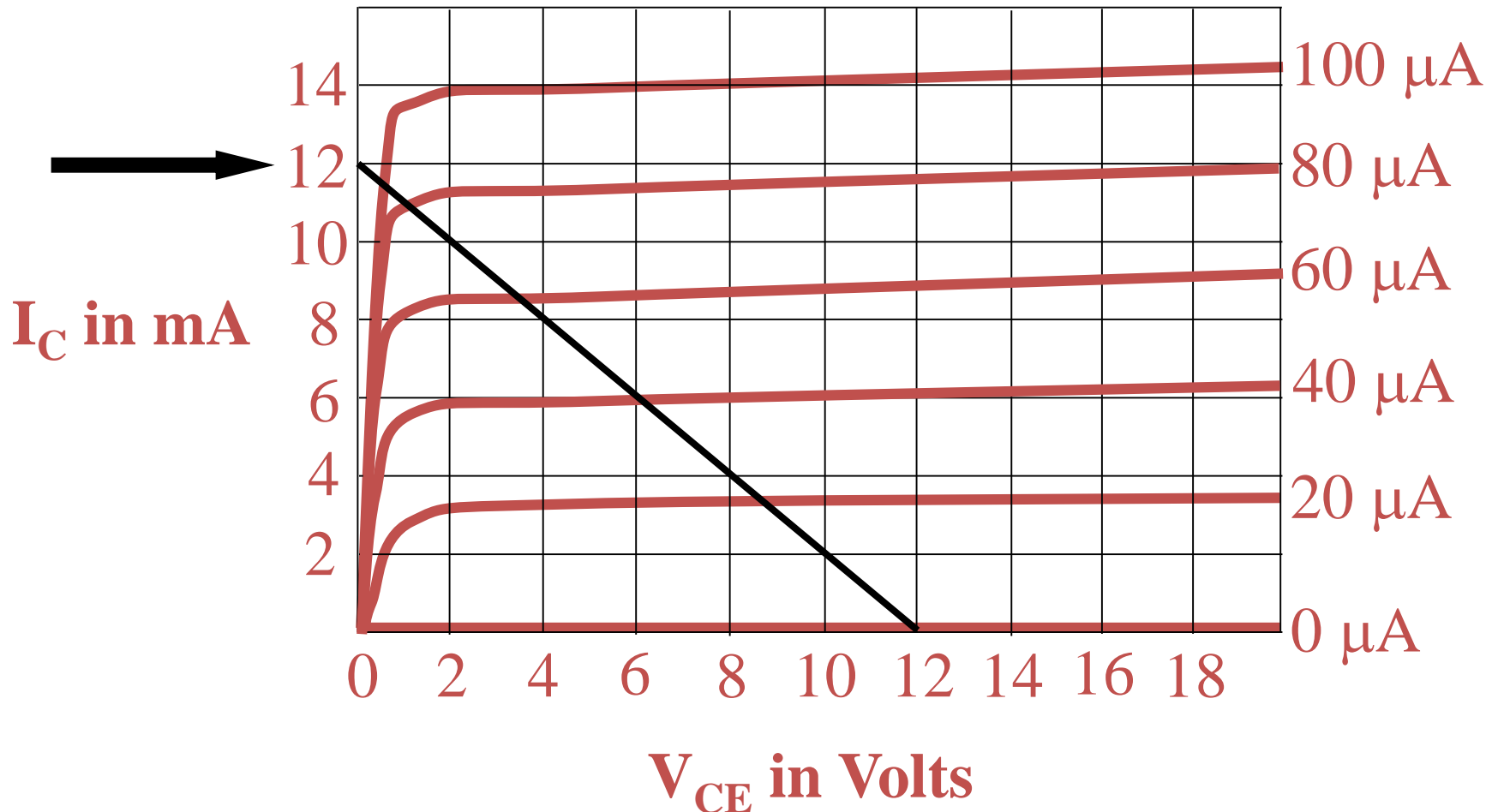
$$I_C = \frac{12\text{ V}}{1\text{ k}\Omega}$$



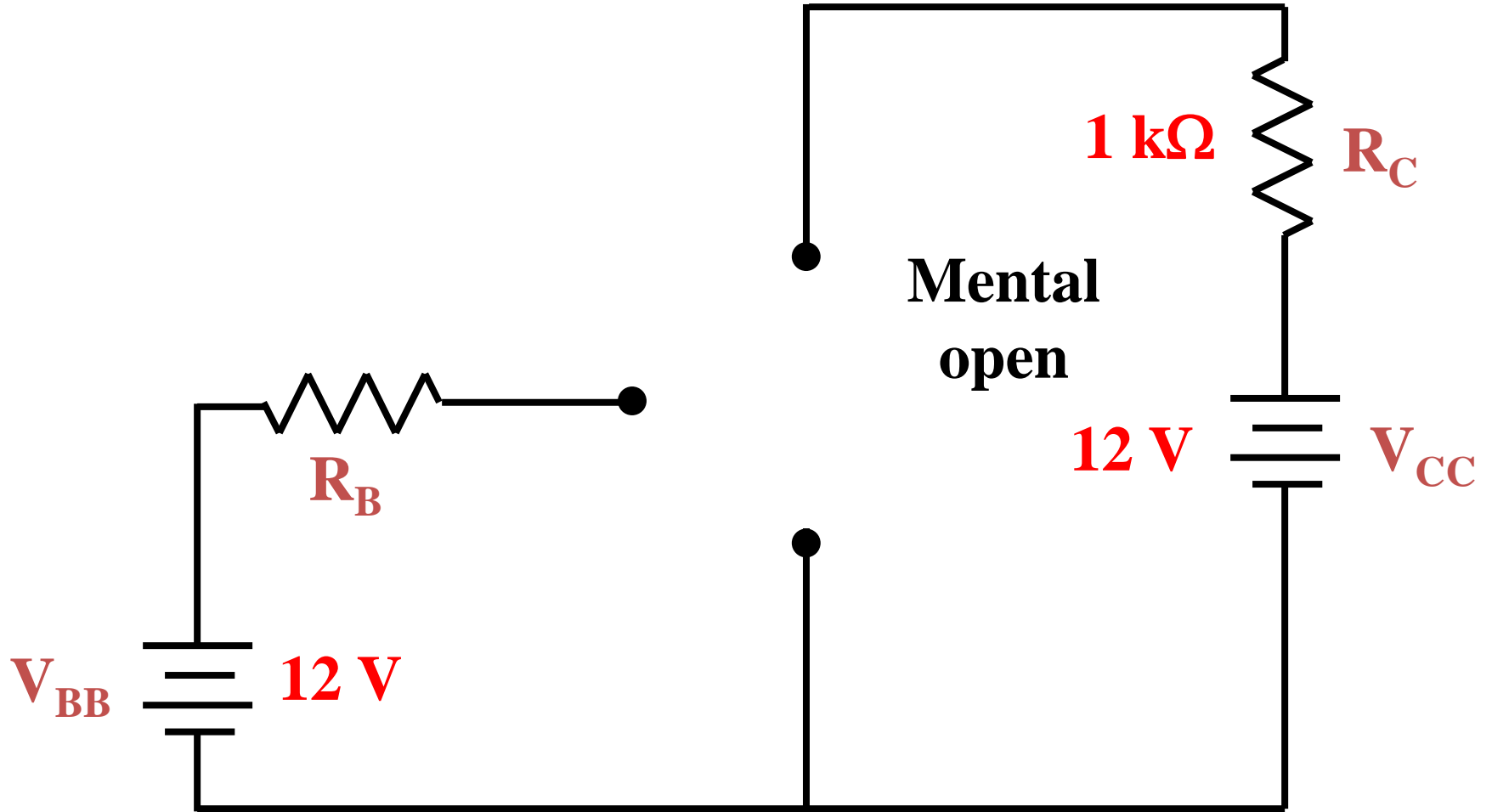
# Understanding Saturation

$$I_C = \frac{12\text{ V}}{1\text{ k}\Omega} = 12\text{ mA}$$

This is the **Saturation (maximum) current.**

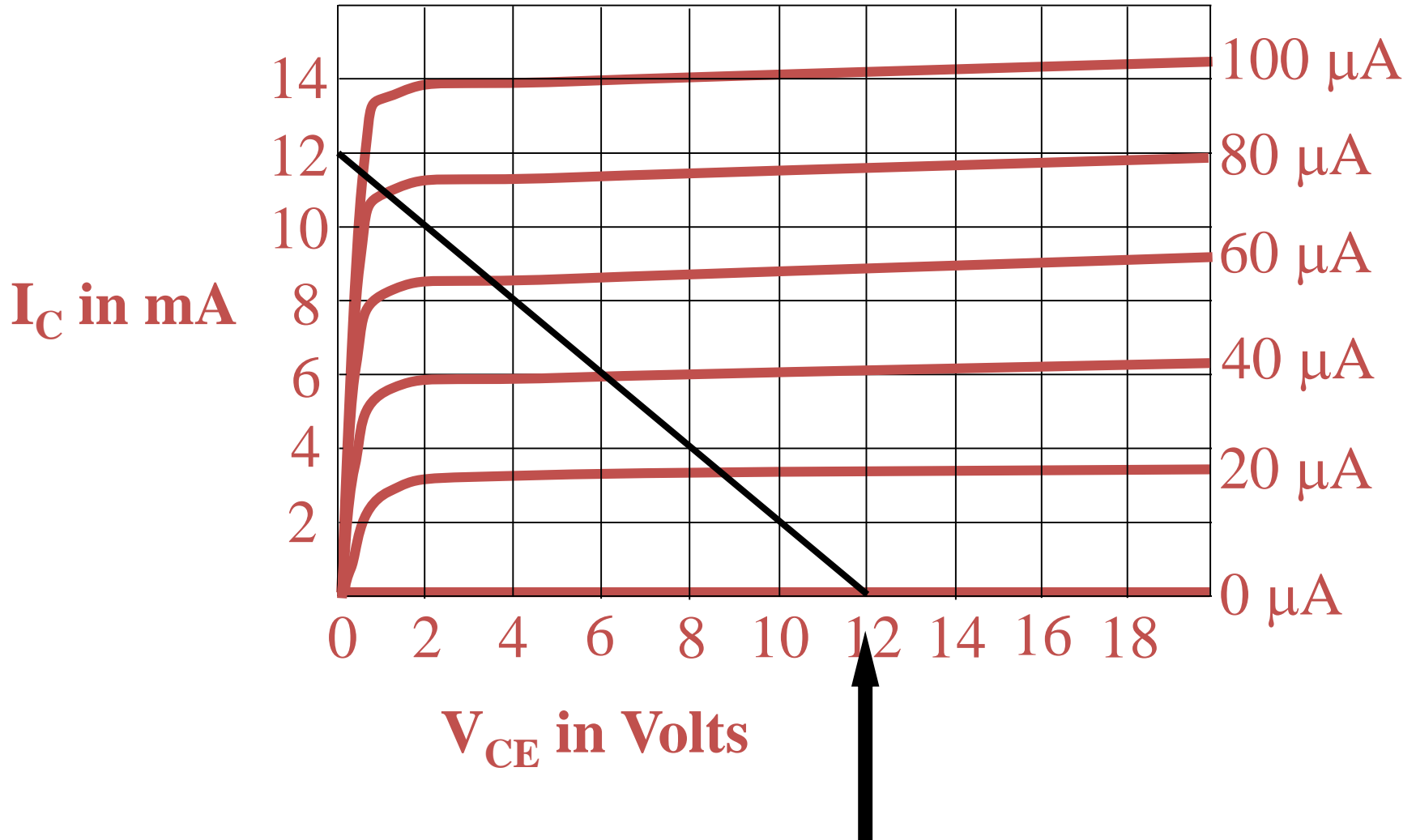


# Understanding Cutoff



# Understanding Cutoff

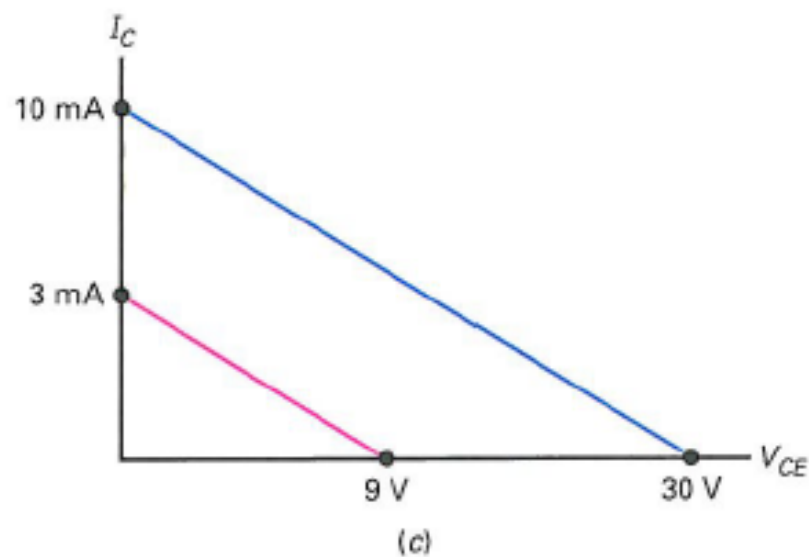
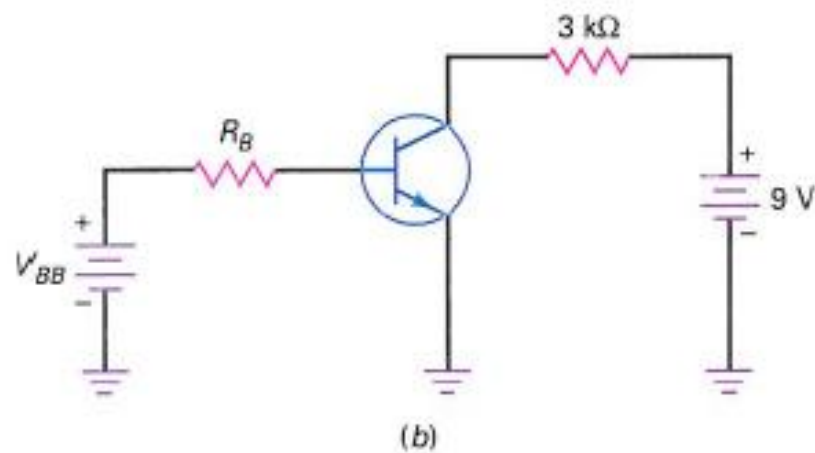
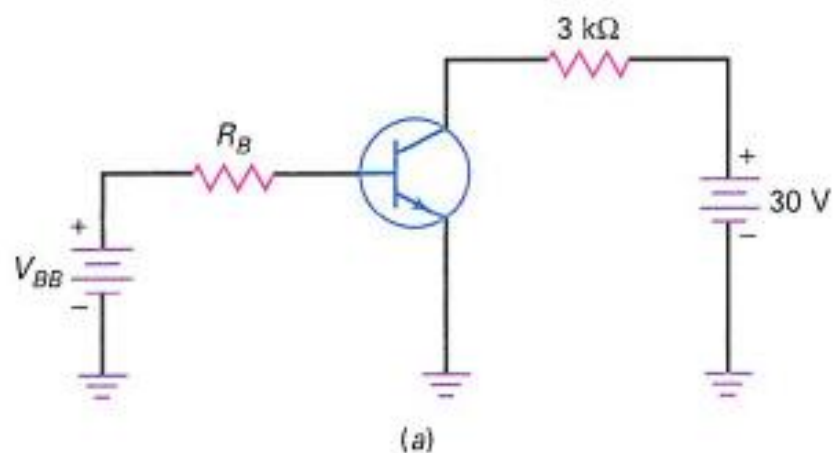
$$V_{CE(\text{cutoff})} = V_{CC}$$



## Example 7-1

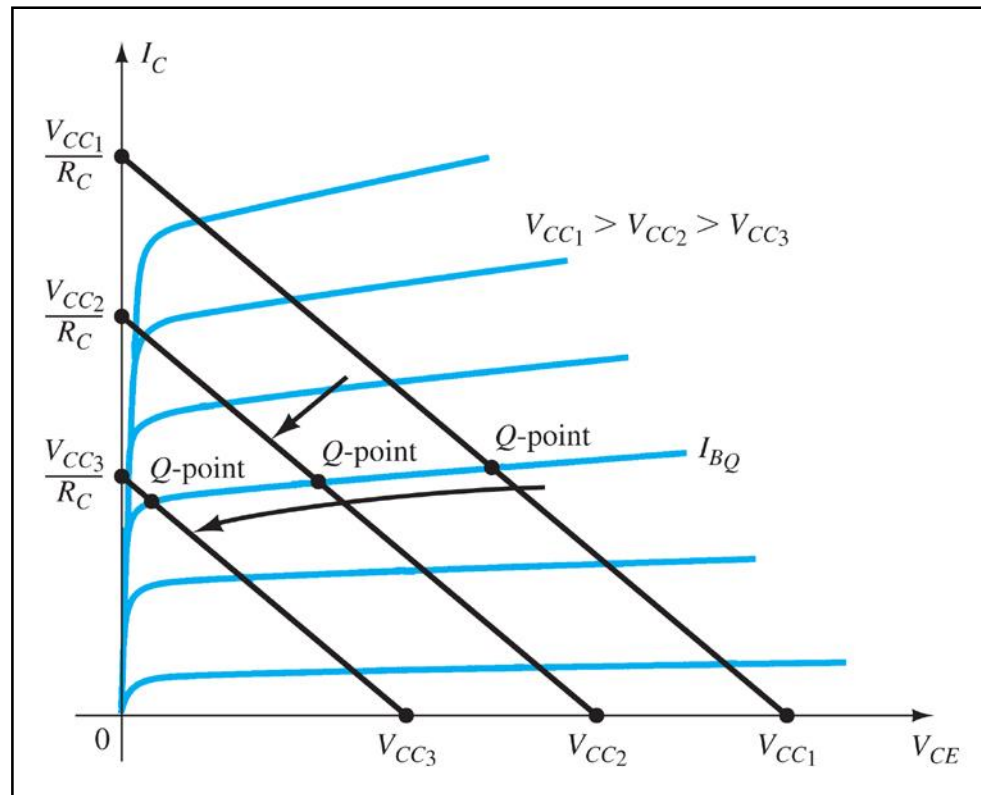
What are the saturation current and the cutoff voltage in Fig. 7-4a?

Calculate the saturation and cutoff values for Fig. 7-4b.





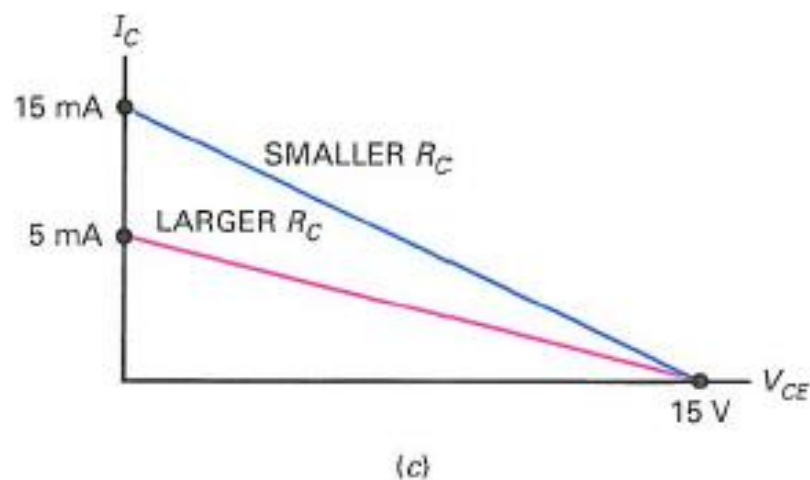
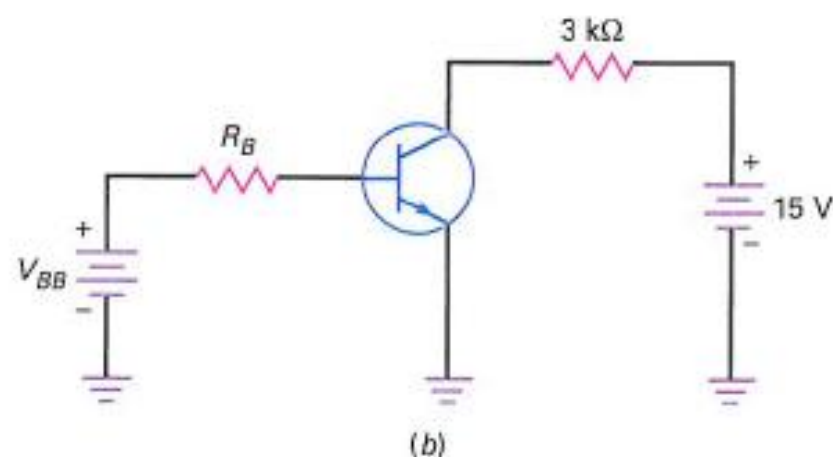
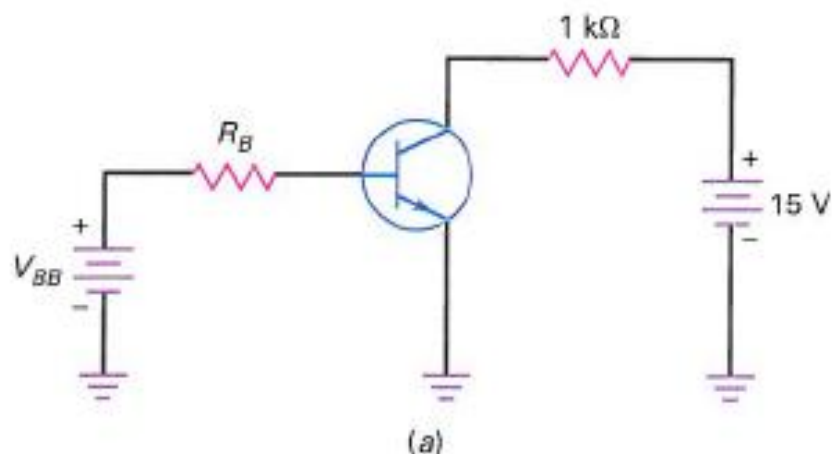
# The Effect of $V_{CC}$ on the Q-Point



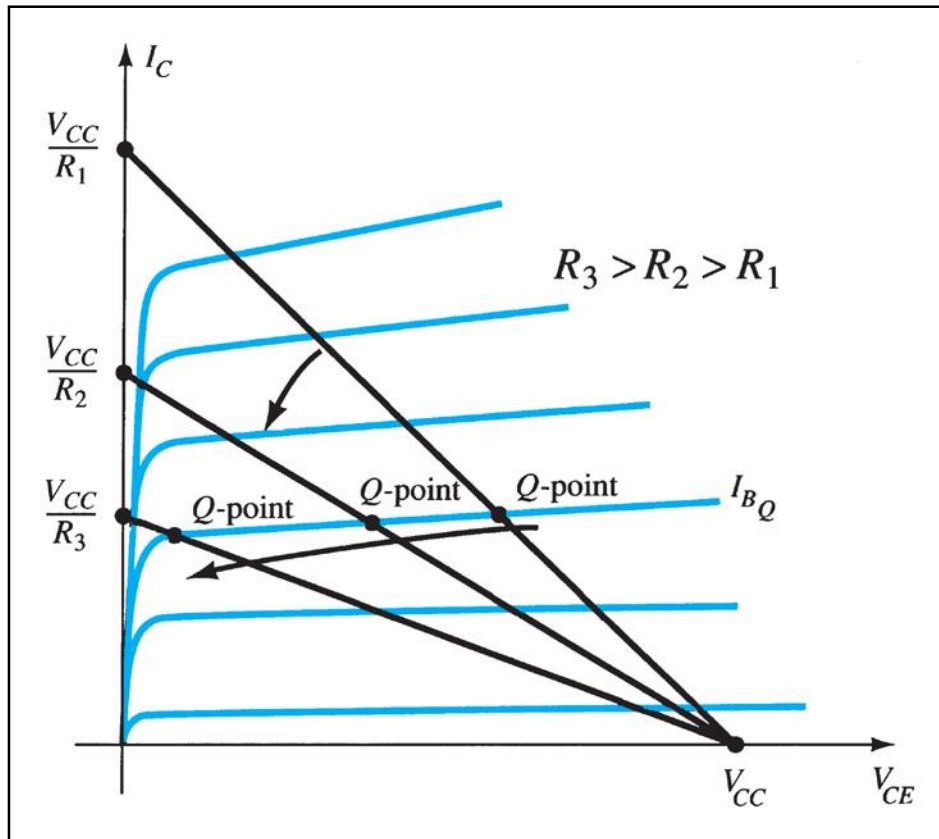
## Example 7-3

What are the saturation current and the cutoff voltage in Fig. 7-5a?

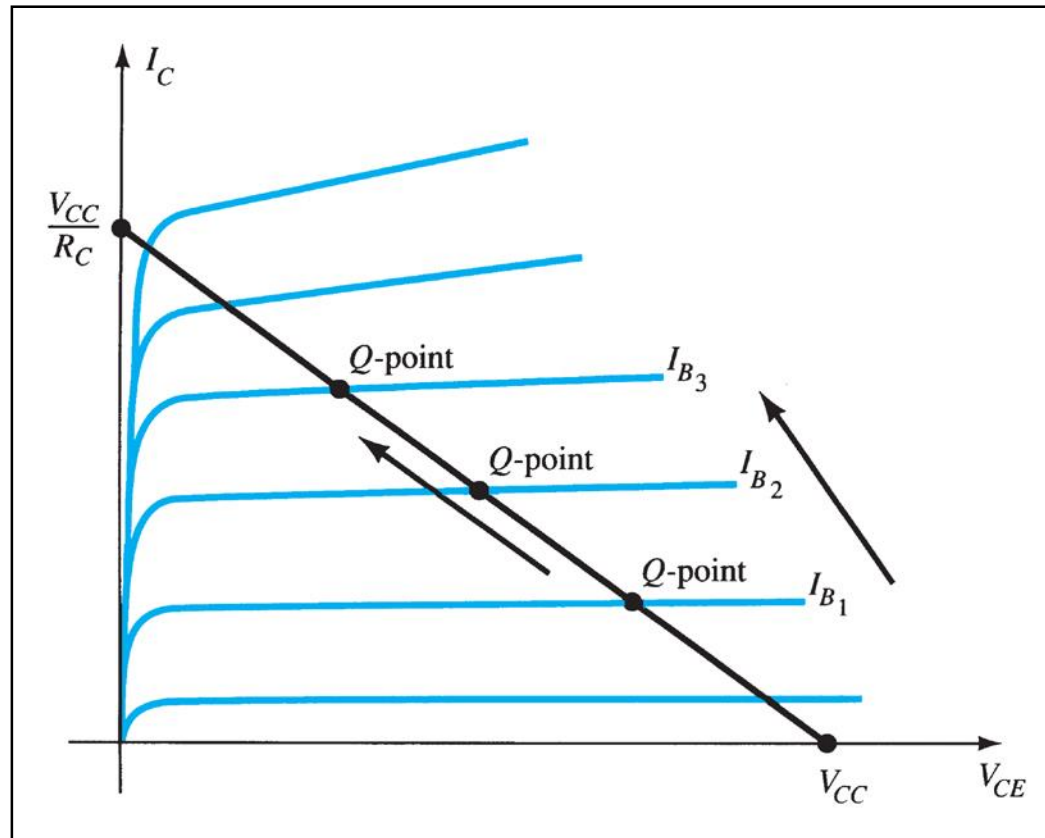
Calculate the saturation and cutoff values for Fig. 7-5b.



# The Effect of $R_C$ on the Q-Point



# The Effect of $I_B$ on the Q-Point

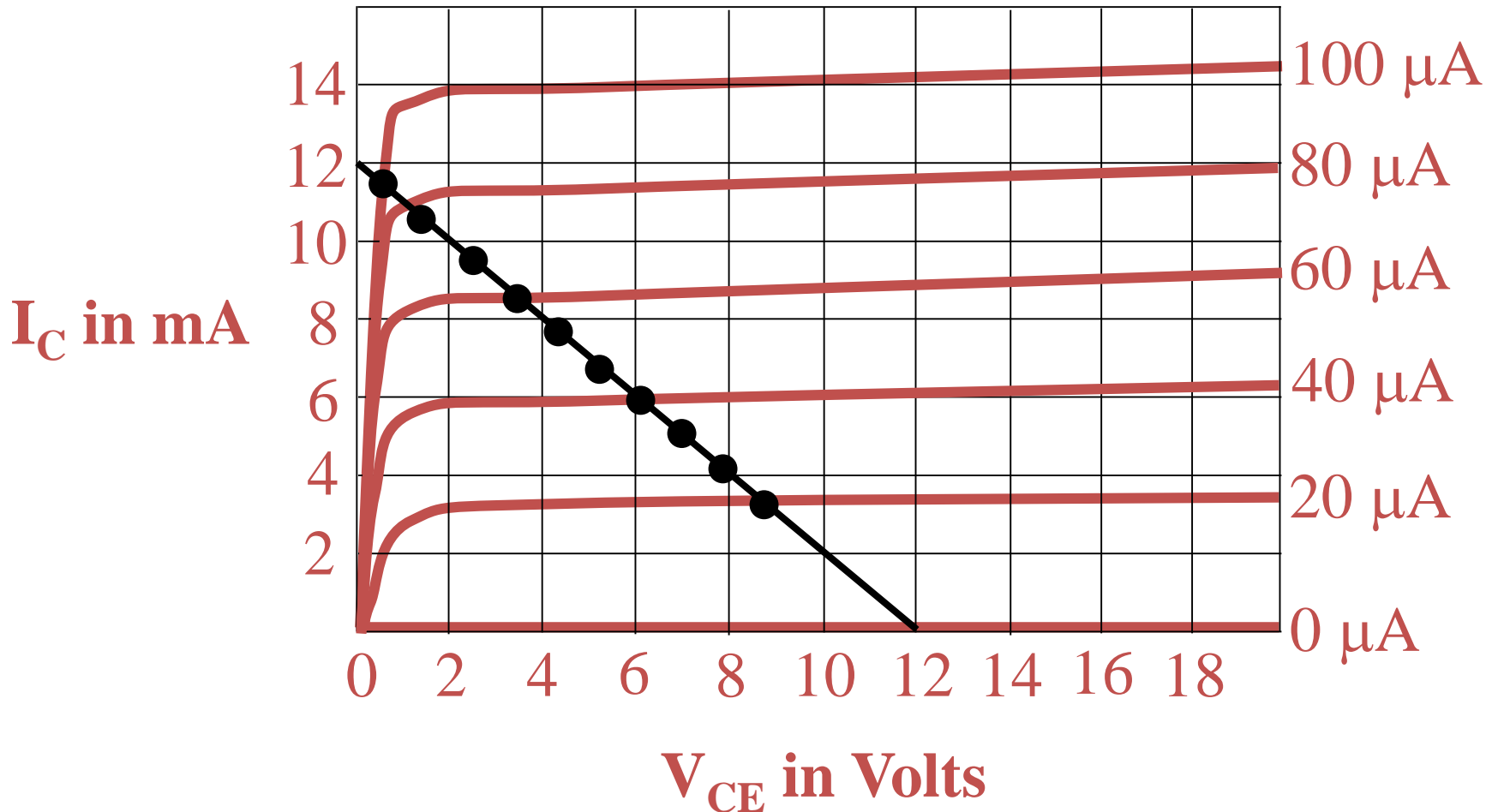


# Operating point

- Determined by:
  - ✓ Finding **saturation** current and **cutoff** voltage points
  - ✓ Connecting points to produce a **load** line
  - ✓ The operating (Q) point is established by the value of **base** current

# Operating point

A circuit can operate at any point on the load line.

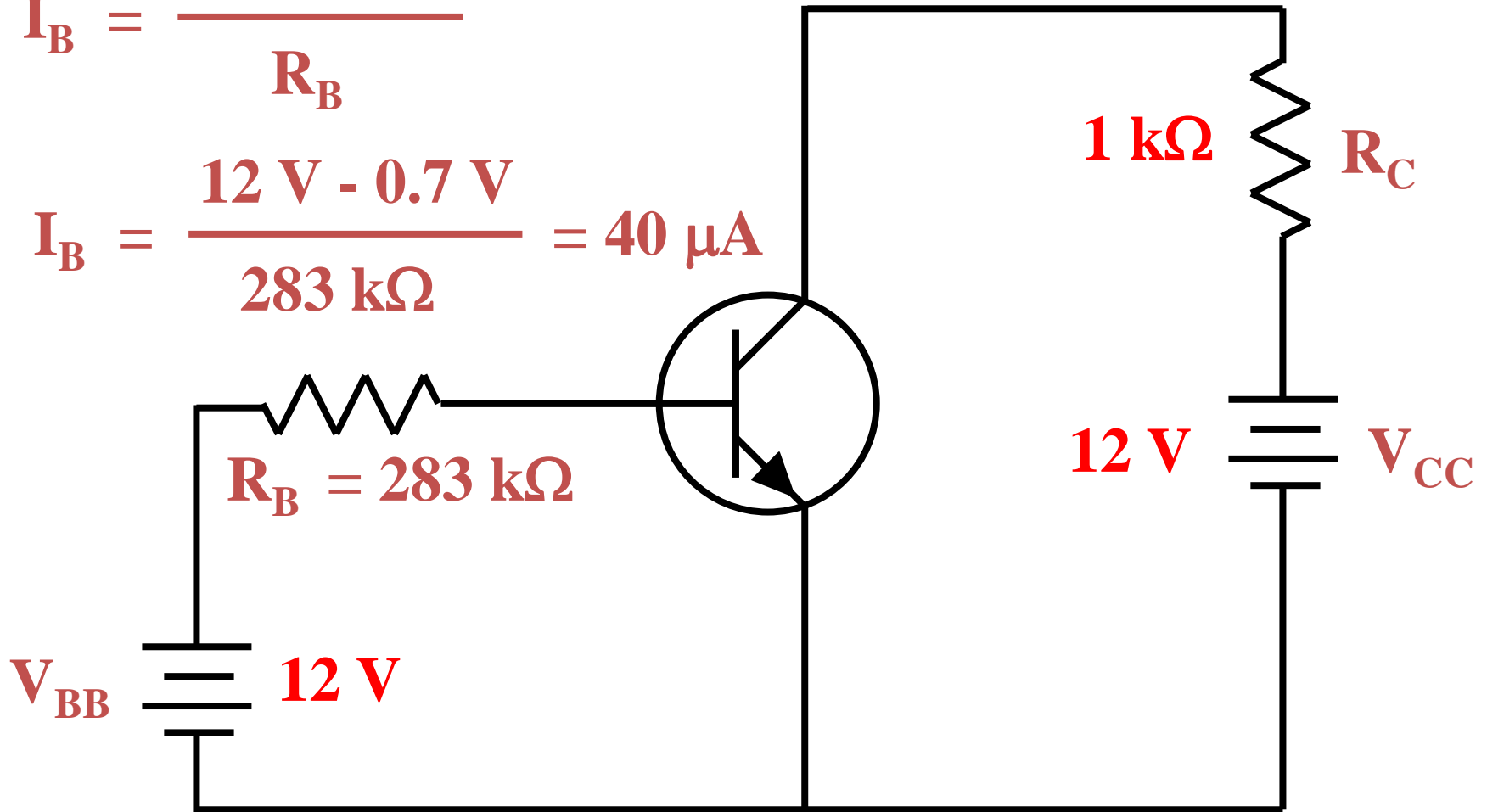


# Operating point

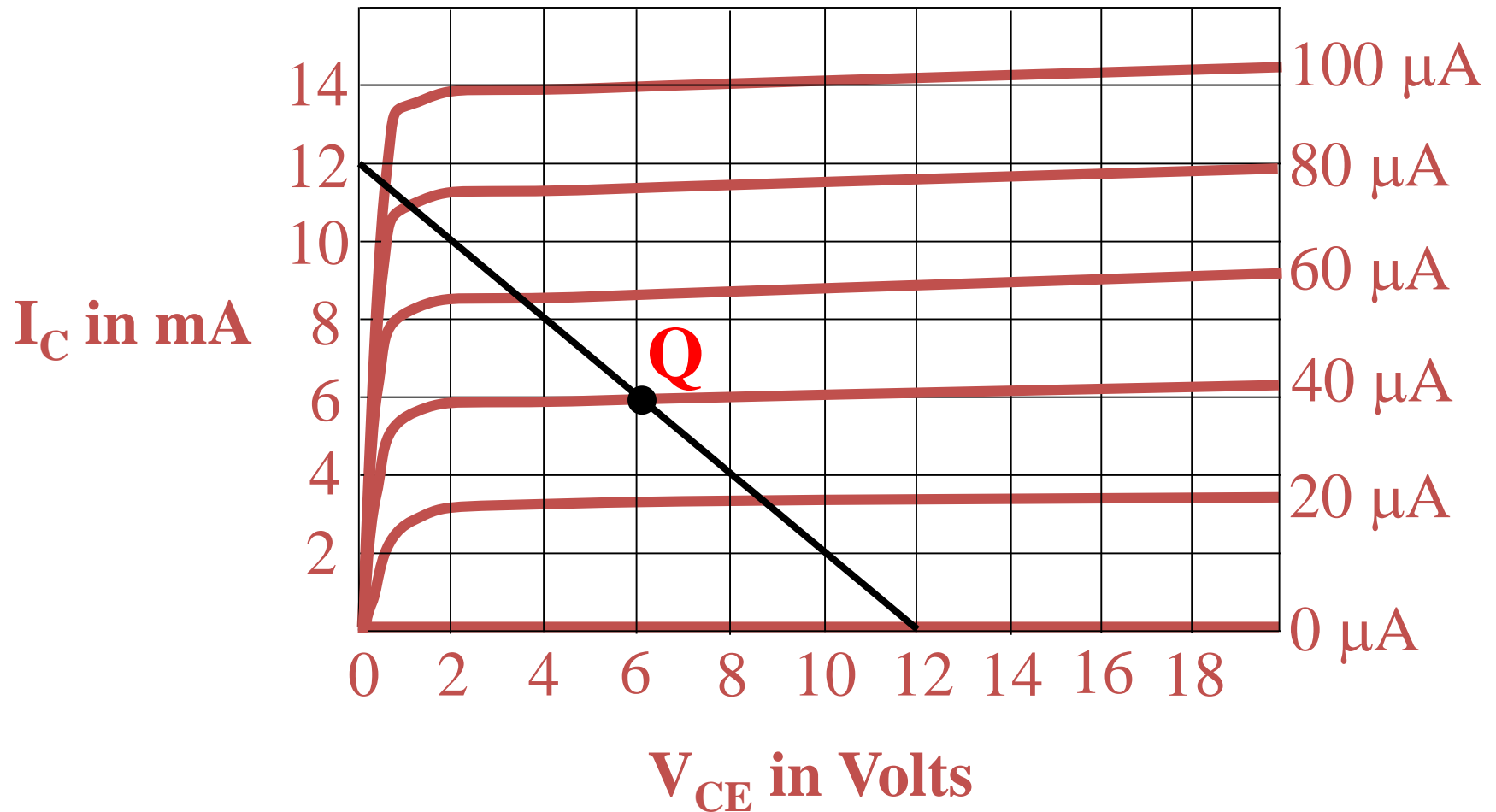
The operating point is determined by the base current.

$$I_B = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_B}$$

$$I_B = \frac{12 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{283 \text{ k}\Omega} = 40 \text{ }\mu\text{A}$$



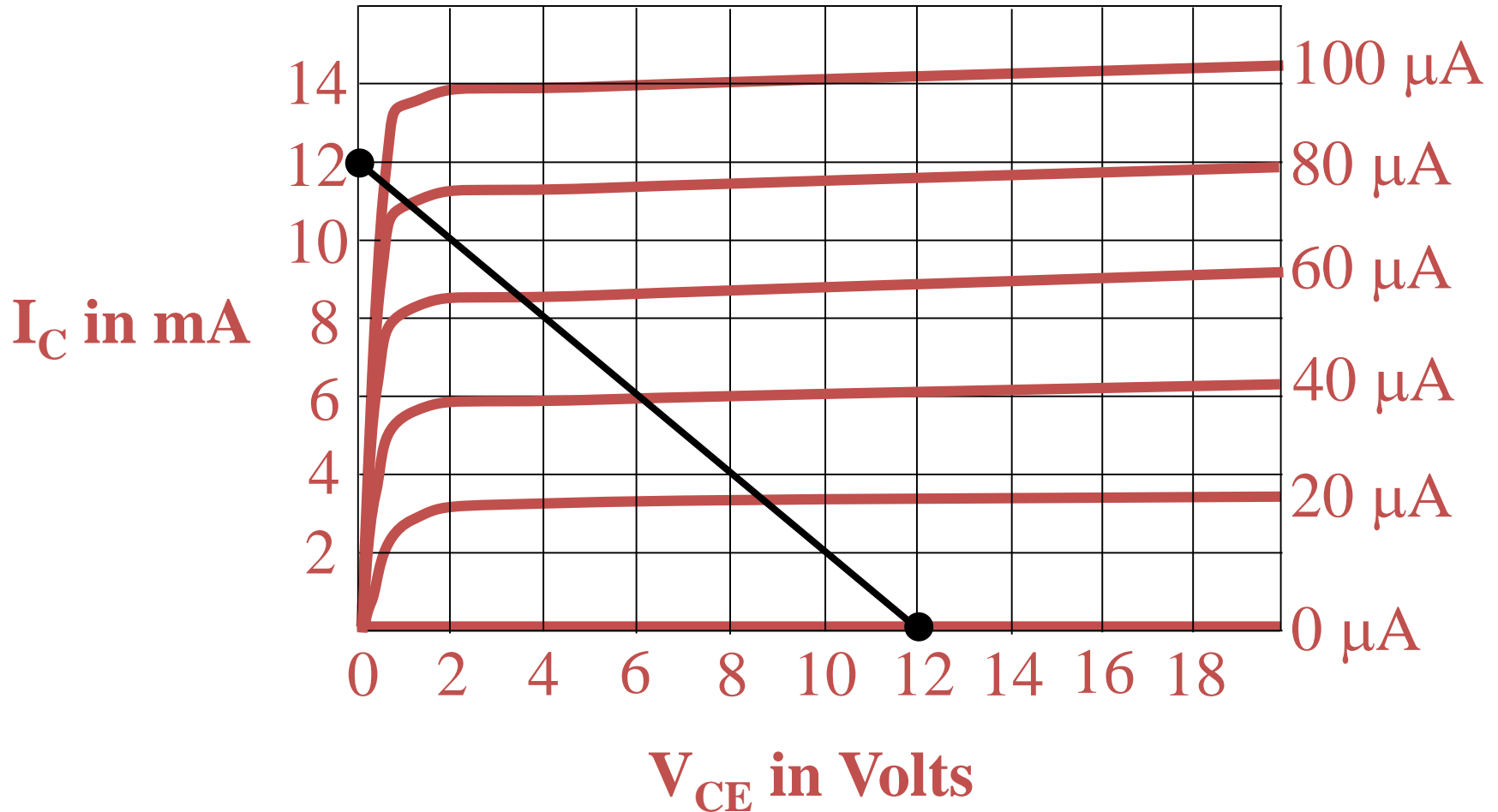
**The operating point is called the Q or quiescent point.**



**This Q point is in the linear region.**



**Saturation and cutoff are non-linear operating points.**



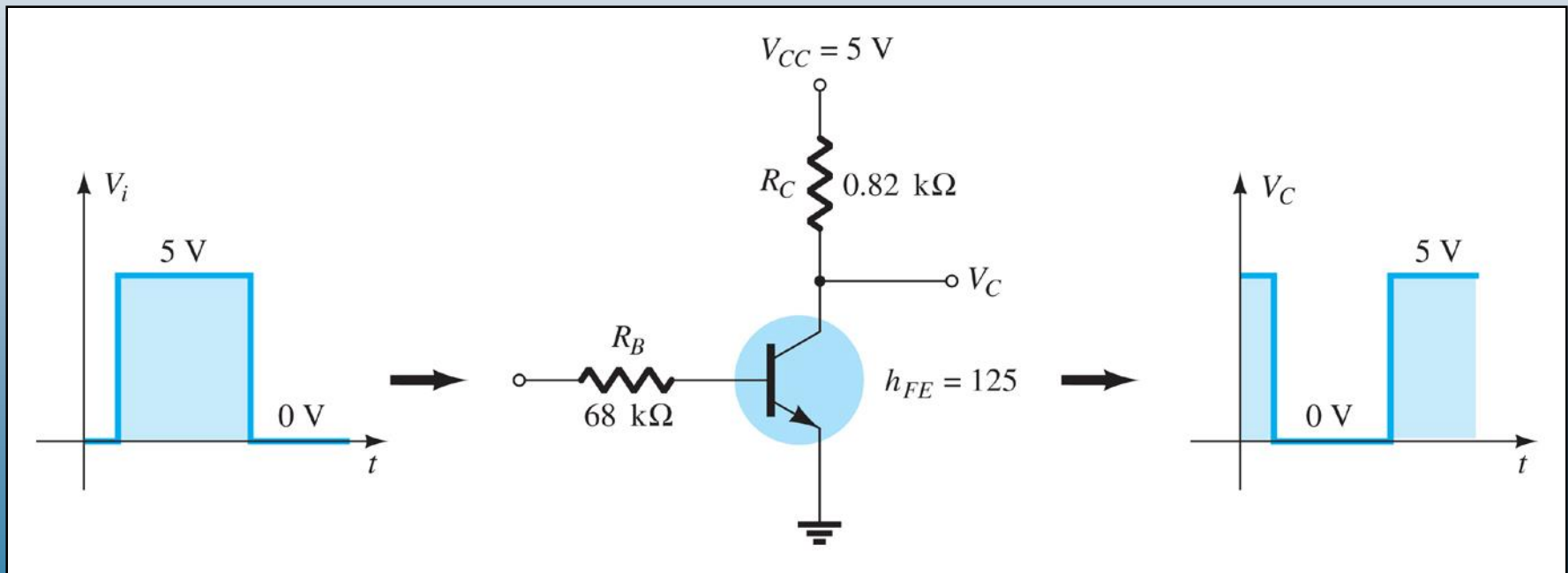
**These Q points are used in switching applications.**

# Transistor circuits

- Amplifying and switching
- **Amplifying** – Q point is in the active region
- **Switching** – Q point switches between saturation and cutoff

# Transistor Switching Networks

*Transistors with only the DC source applied can be used as electronic switches.*

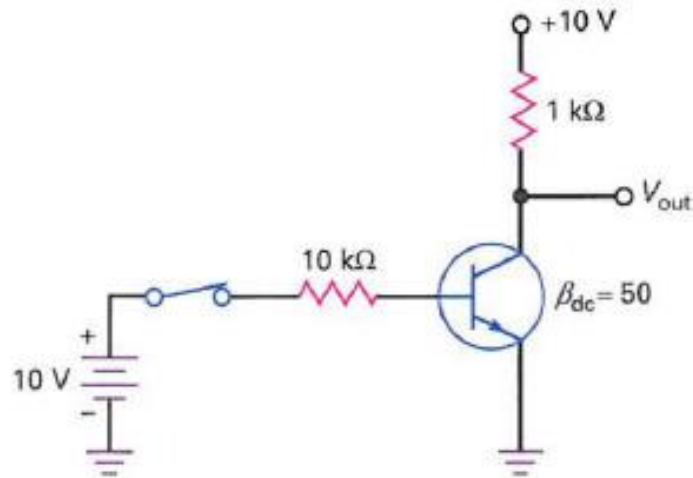


# Transistor Switch Using Base Bias

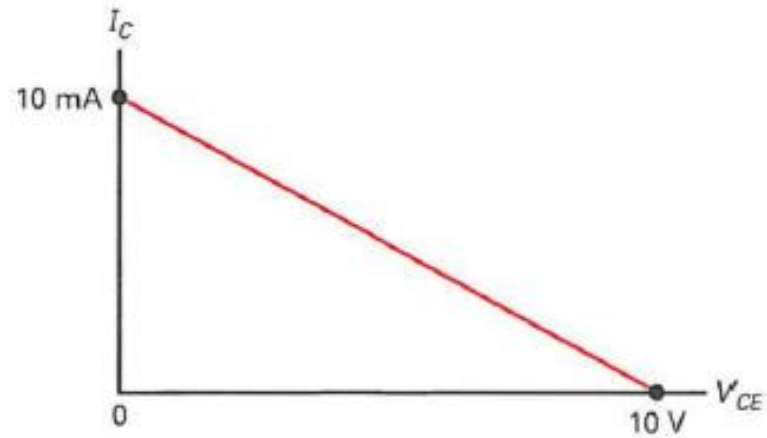
- Base bias is used
- The **Q point** switches between **saturation** and **cutoff**
- Switching circuits, also called **two-state circuits**, are used in digital applications

# Hard Saturation Used In Transistor Switches

Figure 7-8 (a) Hard saturation; (b) load line.



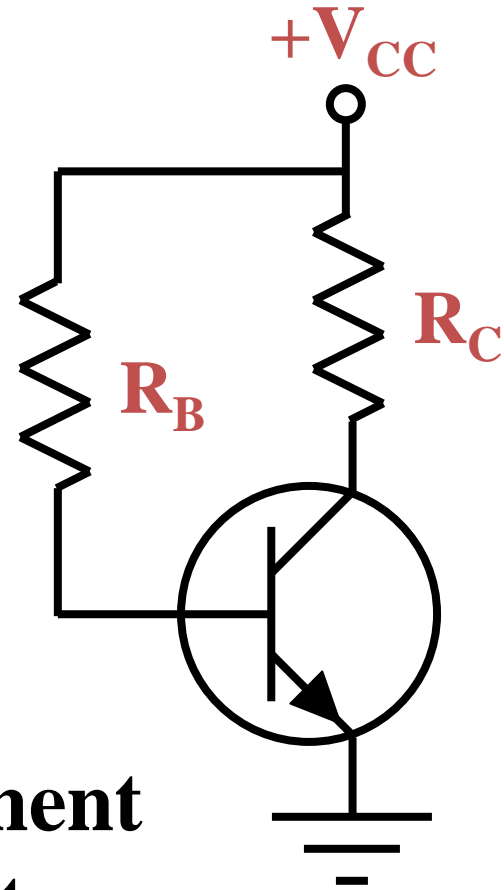
(a)



(b)

# Problems with Base bias

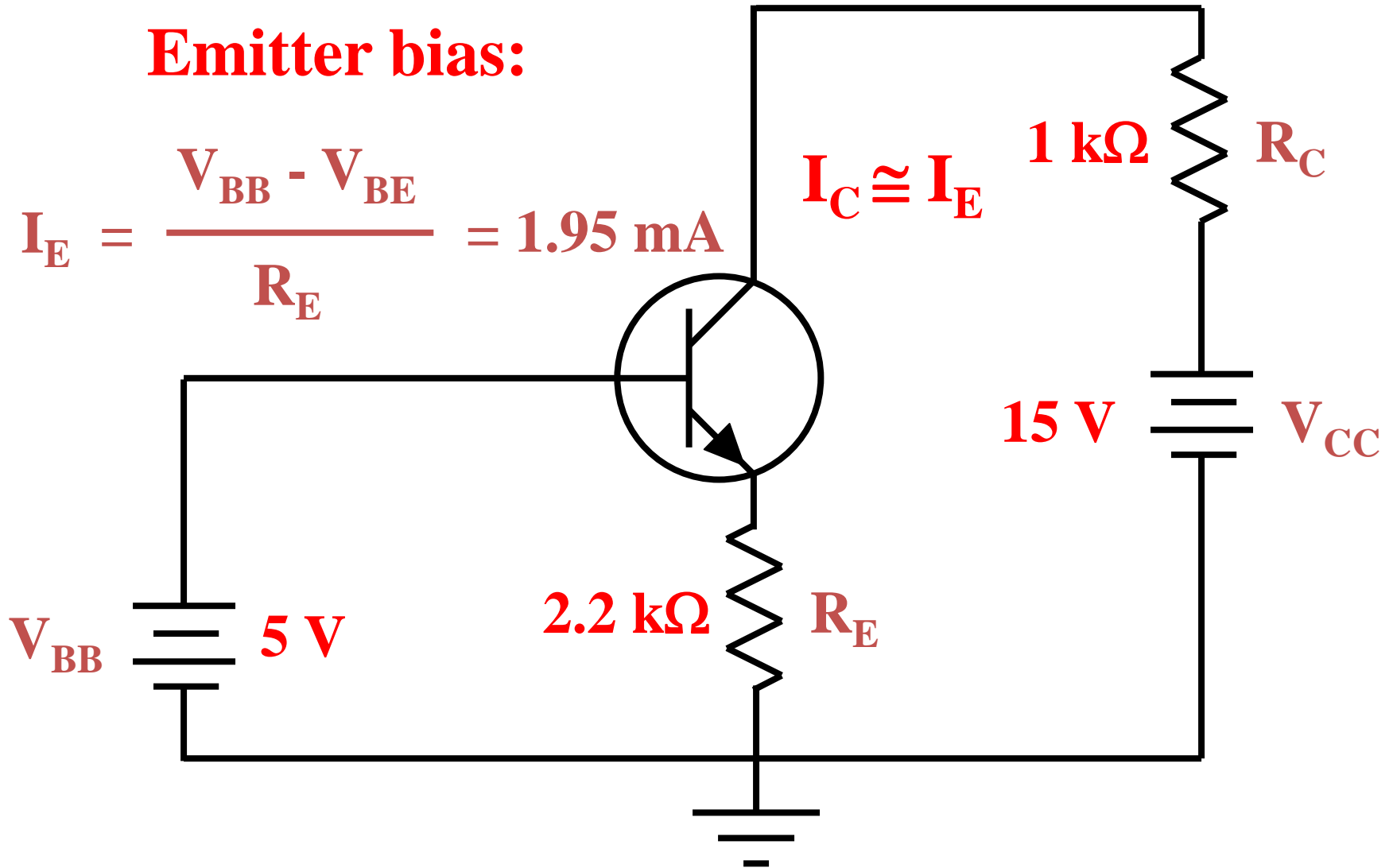
- The least predictable
- Q point moves with replacement
- Q point moves with temperature
- Not practical



## Emitter bias:

$$I_E = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_E} = 1.95 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_C \cong I_E$$



$$V_C = 15 \text{ V} - (1.95 \text{ mA})(1 \text{ k}\Omega) = 13.1 \text{ V}$$

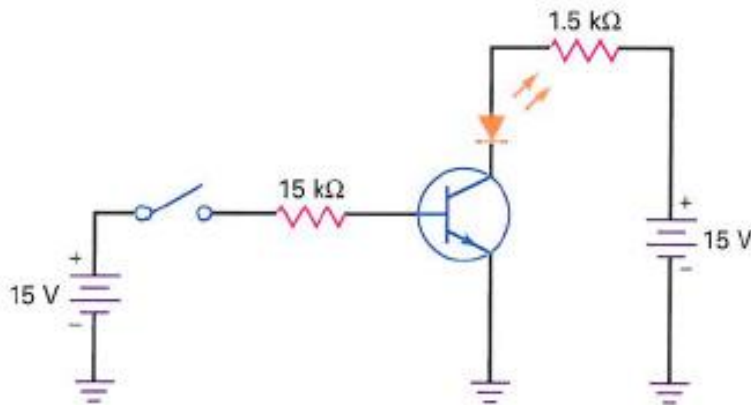
$$V_{CE} = 13.1 \text{ V} - 4.3 \text{ V} = 8.8 \text{ V}$$

# Comparing Base Bias and Emitter Bias

- Base bias is subject to variations in transistor current gain.
- Base bias is subject to temperature effects.
- Emitter bias almost eliminates these effects.
- The transistor current gain is not required when solving circuits with emitter bias.

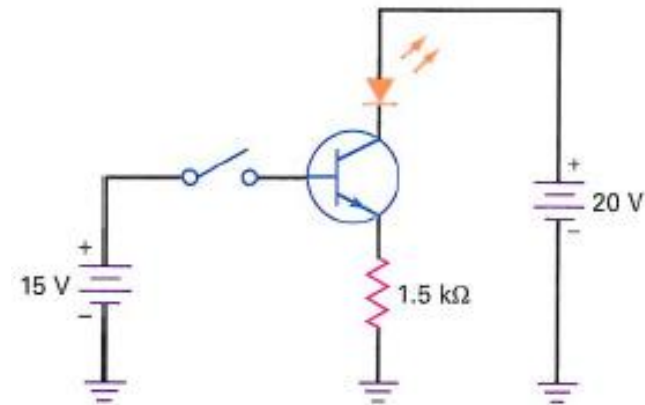


# Base-Biased and Emitter-Biased LED Drivers



(a)

Base-biased



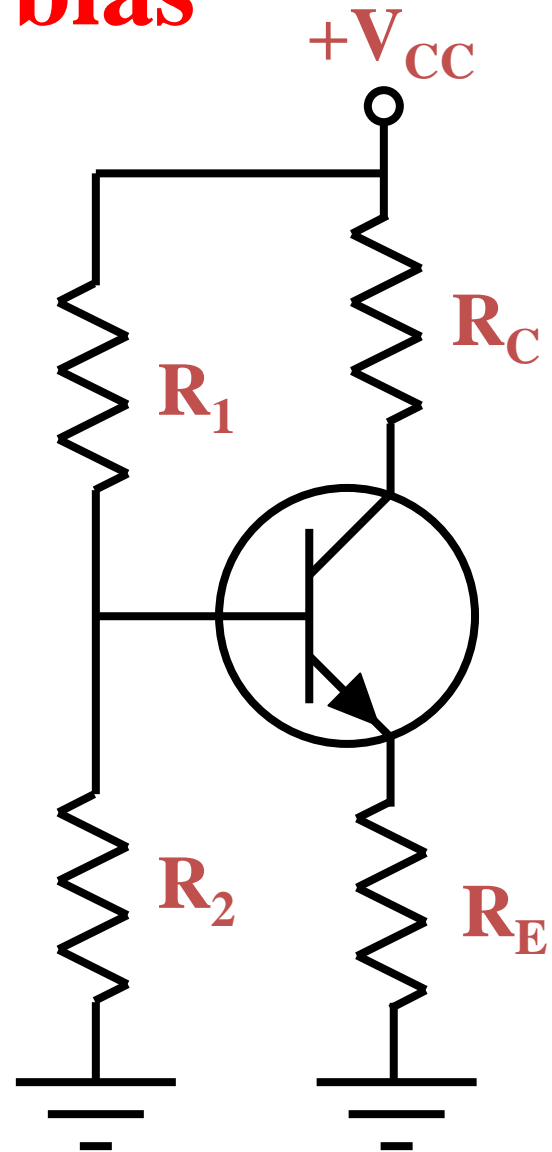
(b)

Emitter-biased

- The base-biased LED driver is designed to operate between cutoff and hard saturation
  - LED voltage drop changes LED current and brightness
- The emitter-biased LED driver is designed to operate between cutoff and active region
  - LED voltage drop has no effect on LED current

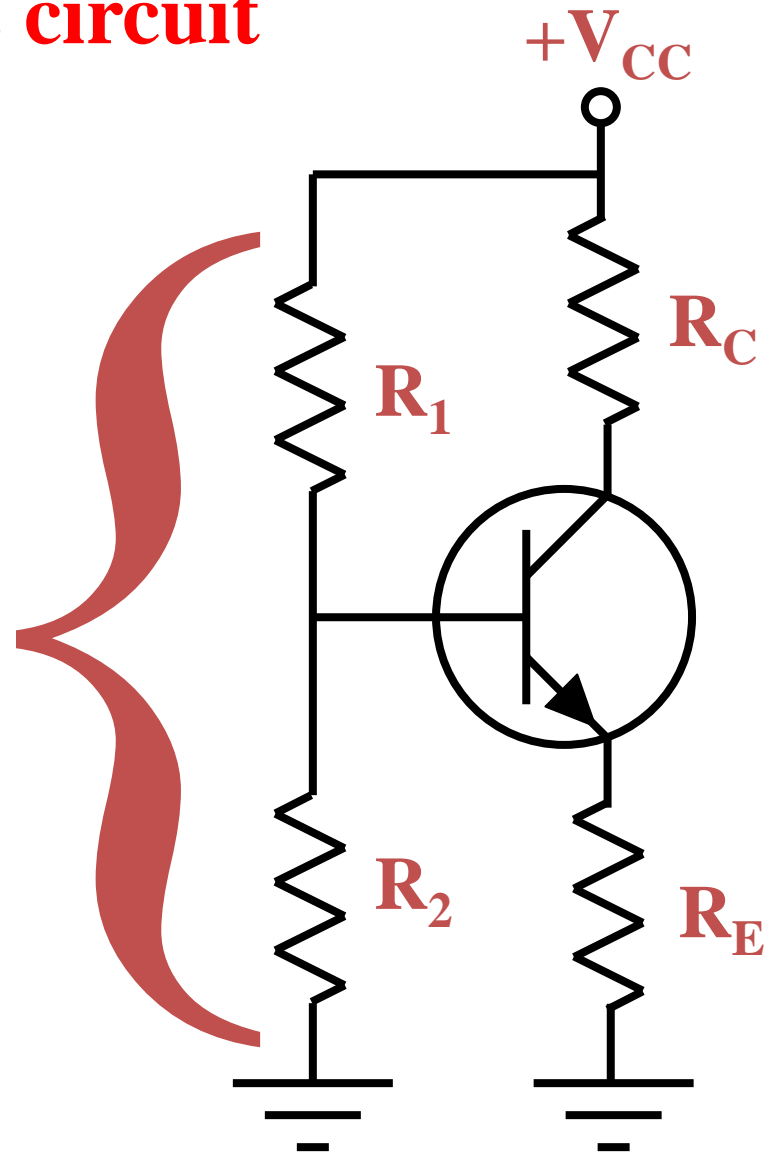
# Voltage divider bias

- Base circuit contains a **voltage divider**
- Most widely used
- Known as **VDB**
- **Very stable**
- **Eliminates the need for two supplies of emitter bias.**
  - Requires just 1 supply
- **The most popular**



# Voltage divider bias circuit

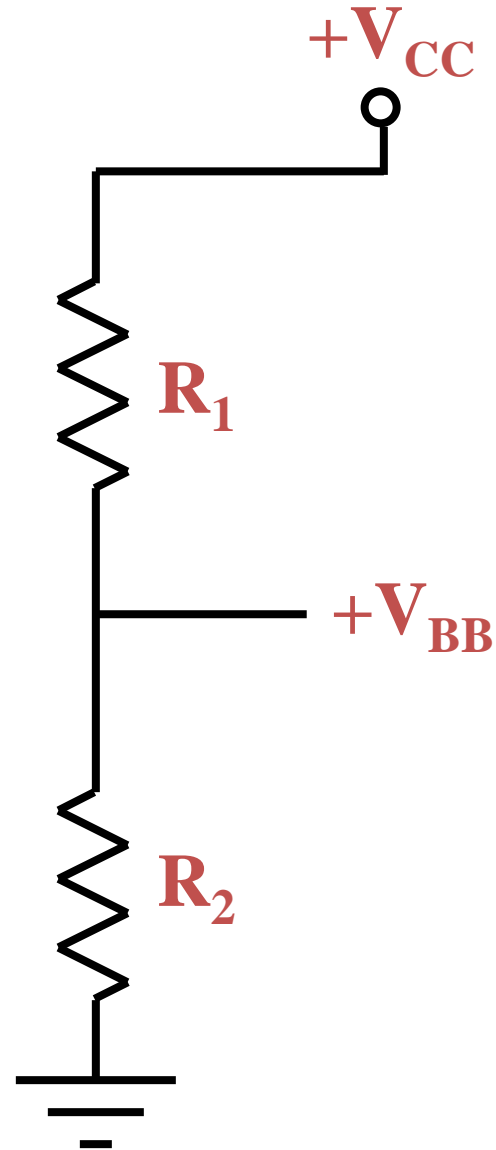
$R_1$  and  $R_2$  form  
a voltage divider



## Divider analysis:

$$V_{BB} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V_{CC}$$

**ASSUMPTION:** The base current is normally much smaller than the divider current.



**Now the circuit can be viewed this way:**

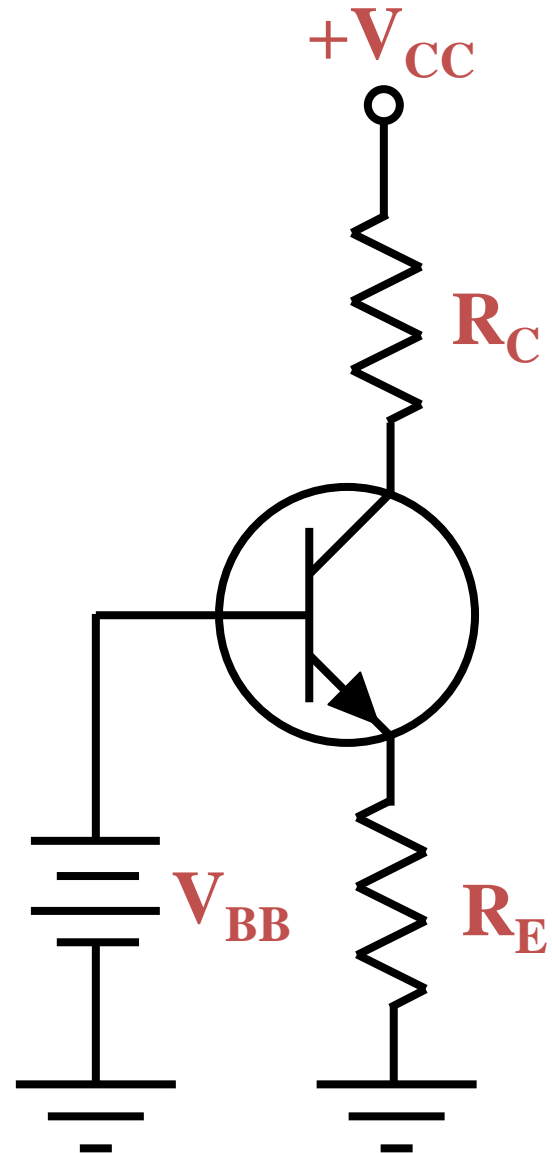
**To complete the analysis:**

$$I_E = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_E}$$

$$I_C \cong I_E$$

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

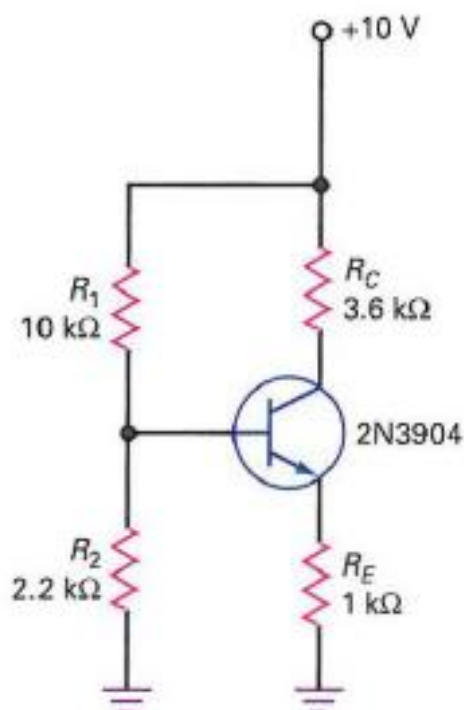
$$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E$$



## Example 8-1

Figure 8-2 Example.

What is the collector-emitter voltage in Fig. 8-2?



**SOLUTION** The voltage divider produces an unloaded output voltage of:

$$V_{BB} = \frac{2.2\text{ k}\Omega}{10\text{ k}\Omega + 2.2\text{ k}\Omega} 10\text{ V} = 1.8\text{ V}$$

Subtract 0.7 V from this to get:

$$V_E = 1.8\text{ V} - 0.7\text{ V} = 1.1\text{ V}$$

The emitter current is:

$$I_E = \frac{1.1\text{ V}}{1\text{ k}\Omega} = 1.1\text{ mA}$$

Since the collector current almost equals the emitter current, we can calculate the collector-to-ground voltage like this:

$$V_C = 10\text{ V} - (1.1\text{ mA})(3.6\text{ k}\Omega) = 6.04\text{ V}$$

The collector-emitter voltage is:

$$V_{CE} = 6.04\text{ V} - 1.1\text{ V} = 4.94\text{ V}$$

Here is an important point: The calculations in this preliminary analysis do not depend on changes in the transistor, the collector current, or the temperature. This is why the  $Q$  point of this circuit is stable, almost rock-solid.

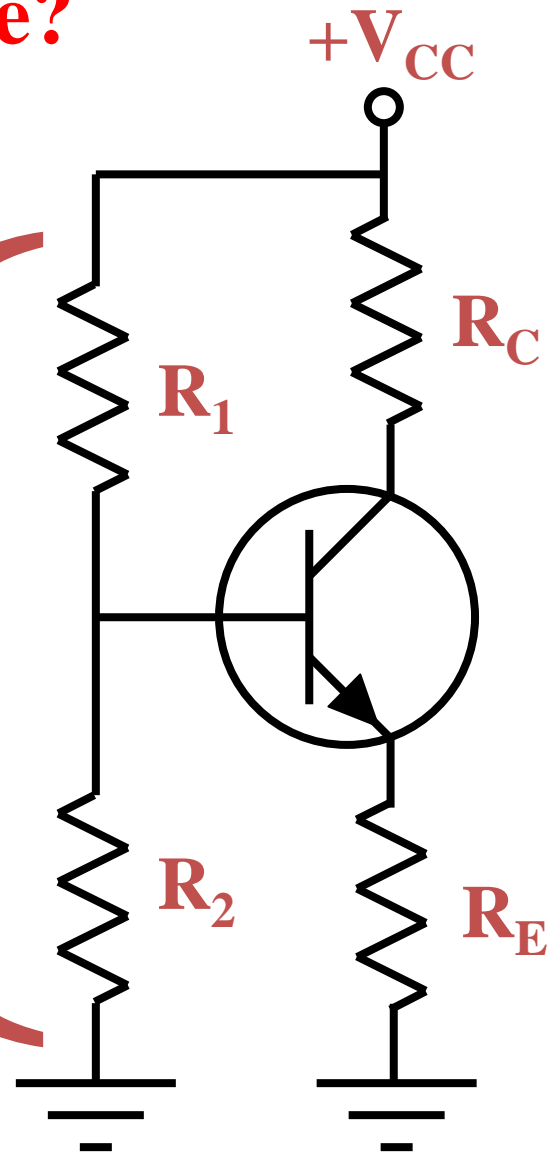
# VDB analysis

- The **base** current must be much smaller than current through the divider
- With the base voltage constant, the circuit produces a **stable Q point** under varying operational conditions

Is the divider a stiff source?

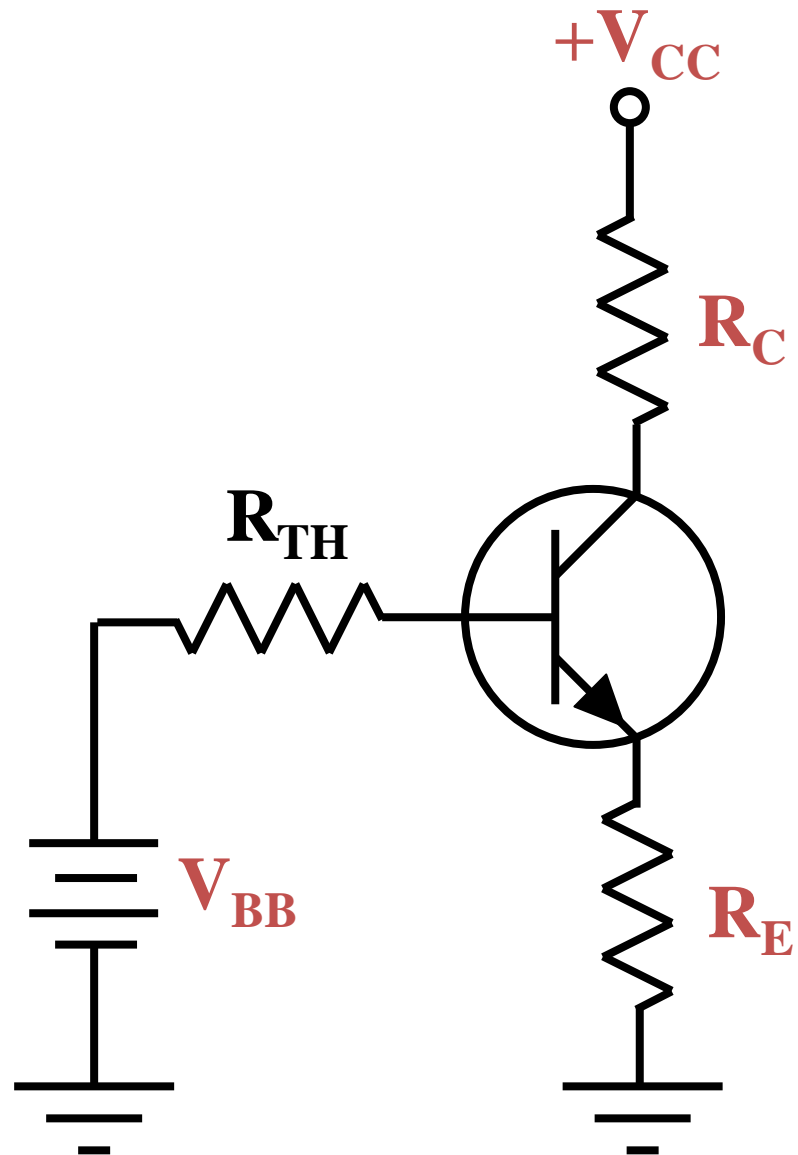
Find the Thevenin  
resistance.

$$R_{TH} = R_1 || R_2$$

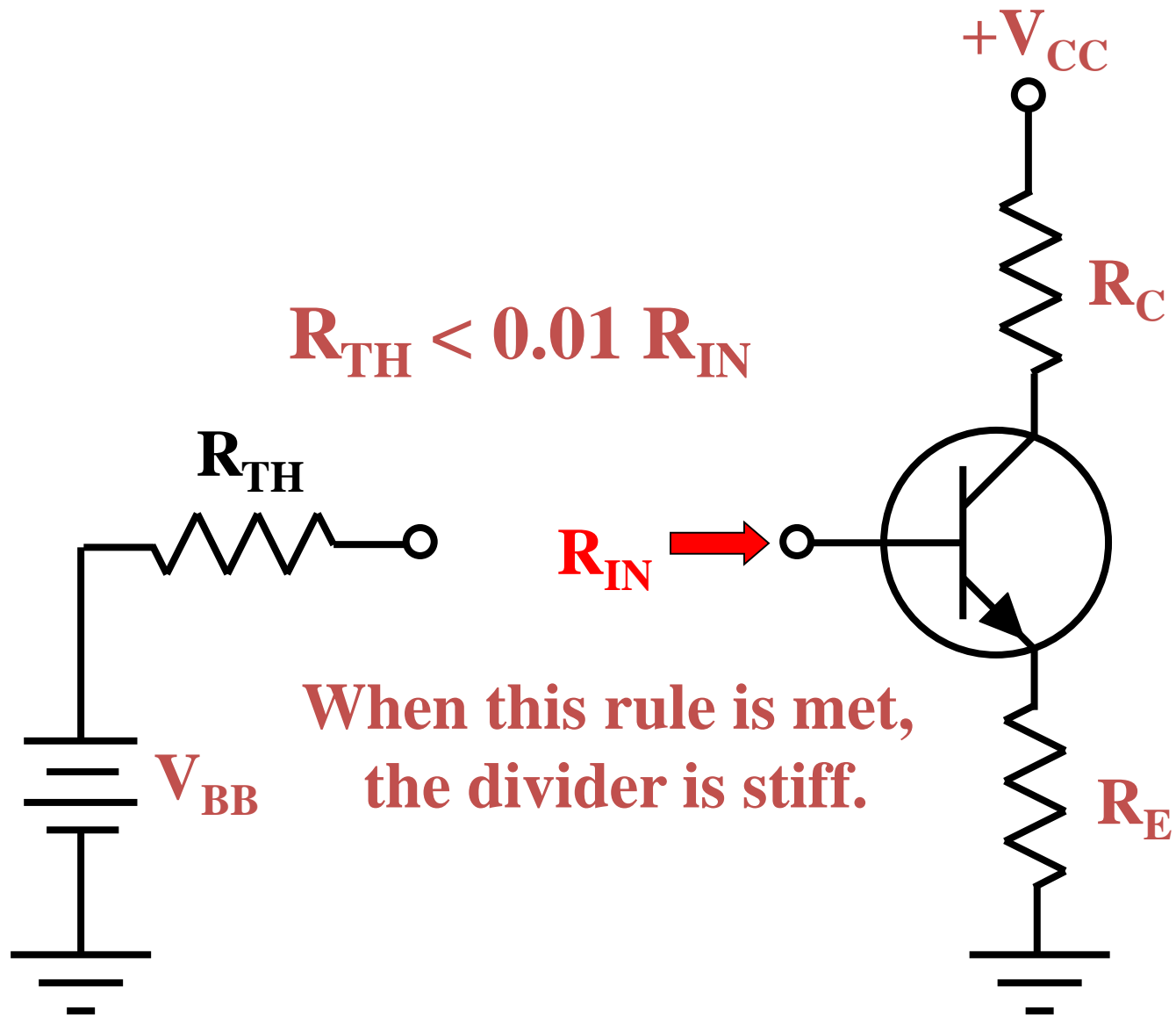




## A Thevenin model of the bias circuit:



# The 100:1 rule applied to the bias circuit:

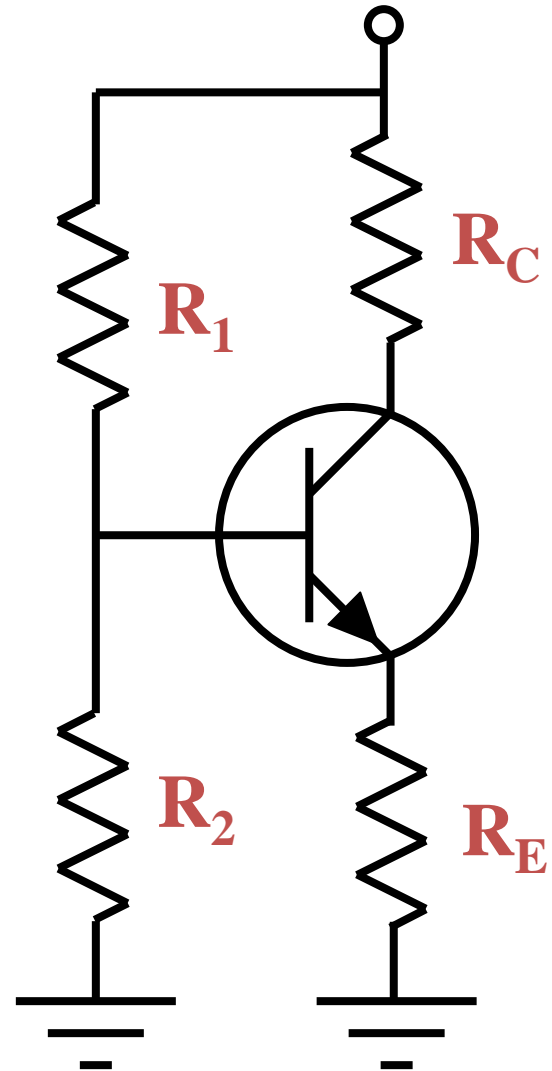


Sometimes a firm divider is chosen.  $+V_{CC}$

$$R_1 \parallel R_2 < 0.1 \beta_{dc} R_E$$

A closer approximation:

$$I_E = \frac{V_{BB} - V_{BE}}{R_E + \frac{R_1 \parallel R_2}{\beta_{dc}}}$$



# VDB load line and Q point

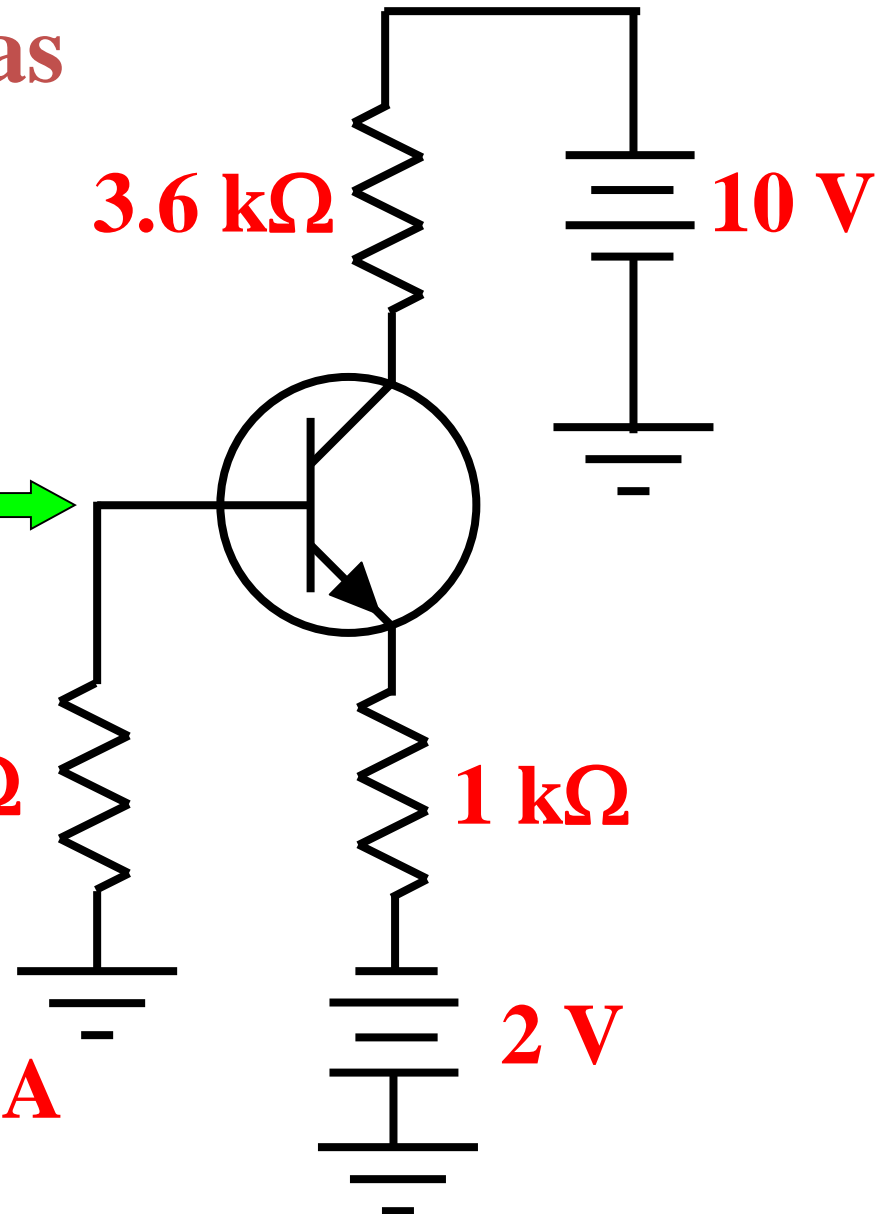
- VDB is derived from **emitter bias**
- The **Q point** is immune to changes in current gain
- The **Q point** is moved by varying the emitter resistor

# Two-supply emitter bias

$$I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{R_E}$$

Assume 0 V →

$$I_E = \frac{2 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{1 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.3 \text{ mA}$$

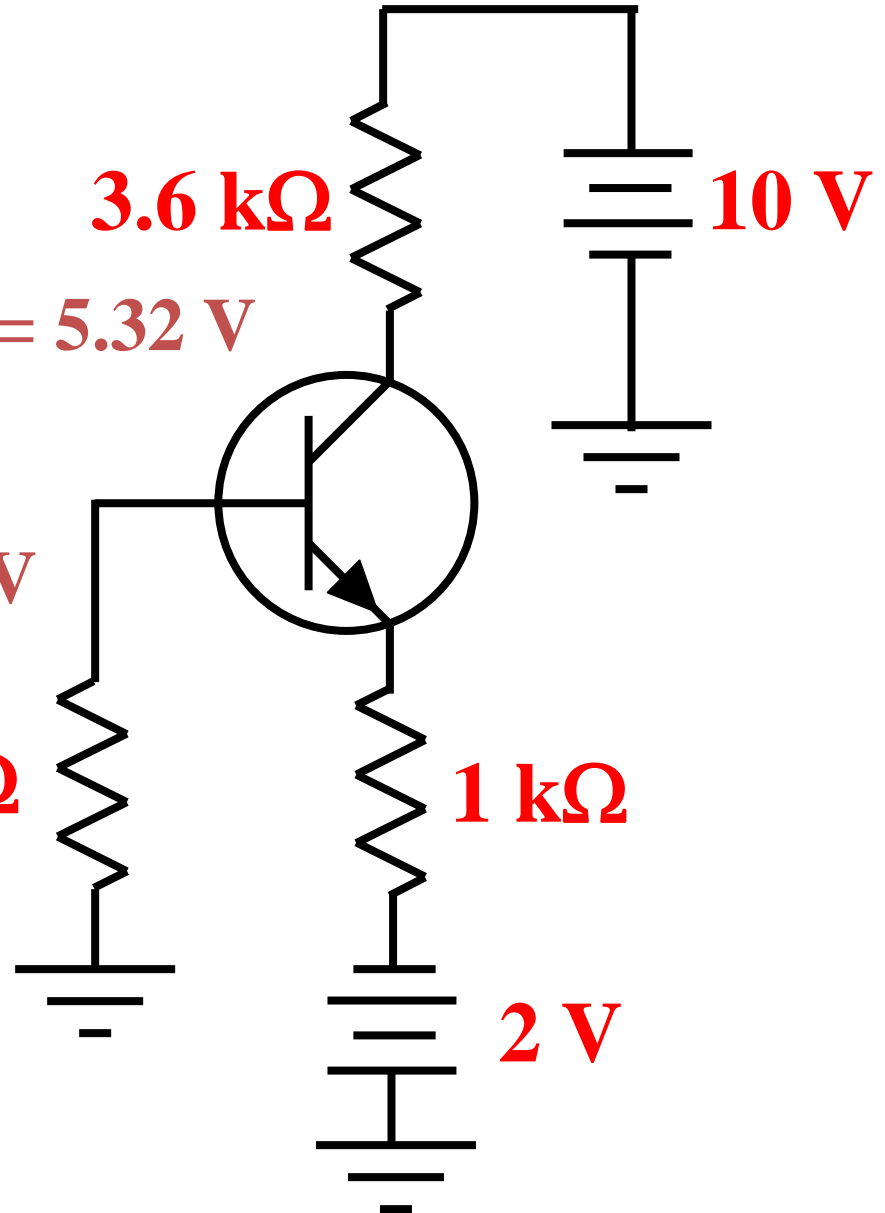


**Find the voltages:**

$$V_C = 10 \text{ V} - (1.3 \text{ mA})(3.6 \text{ k}\Omega) = 5.32 \text{ V}$$

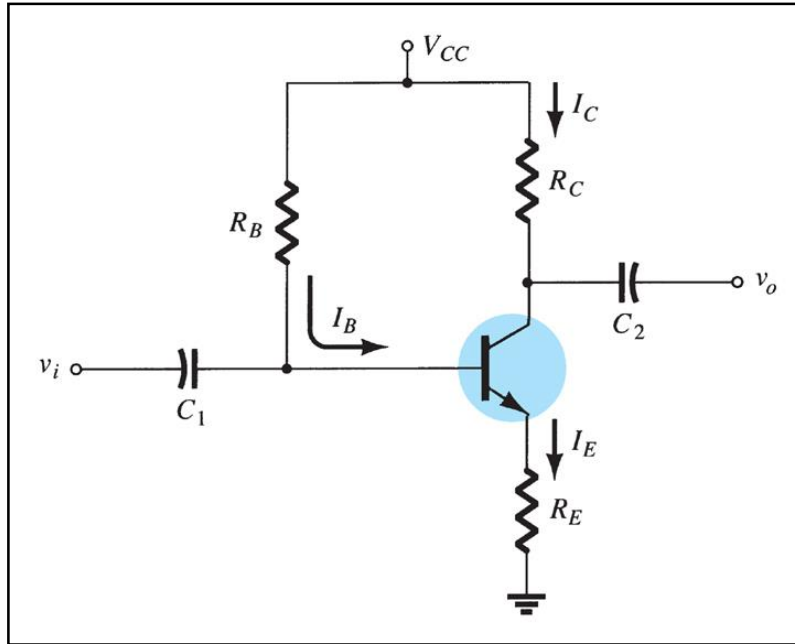
$$V_{CE} = 5.32 \text{ V} - (-0.7 \text{ V}) = 6.02 \text{ V}$$

**2.7 k $\Omega$**



# **Other Biasing Techniques**

# Emitter-feedback bias or Emitter-Stabilized Bias Circuit



- Adding an emitter resistor to base-bias stabilizes the circuit.
- **Uses Feedback Compensation**
- **Q point still moves**
- **Not popular**

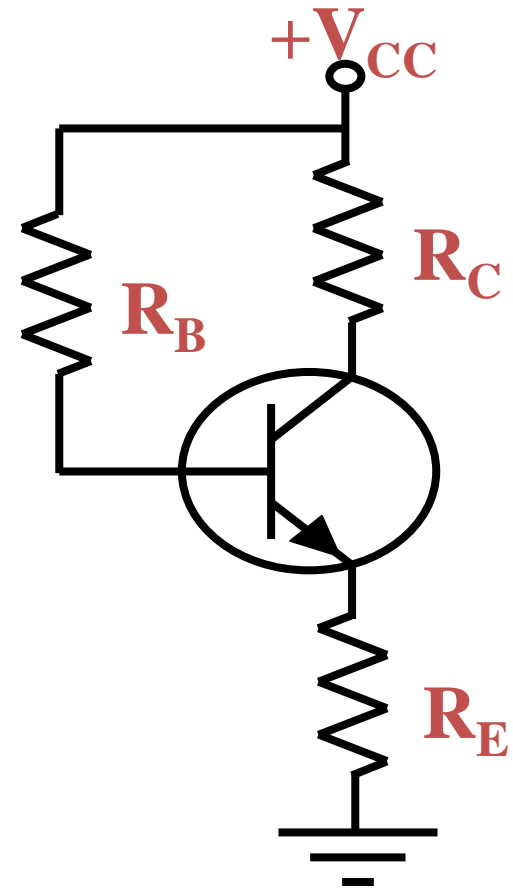
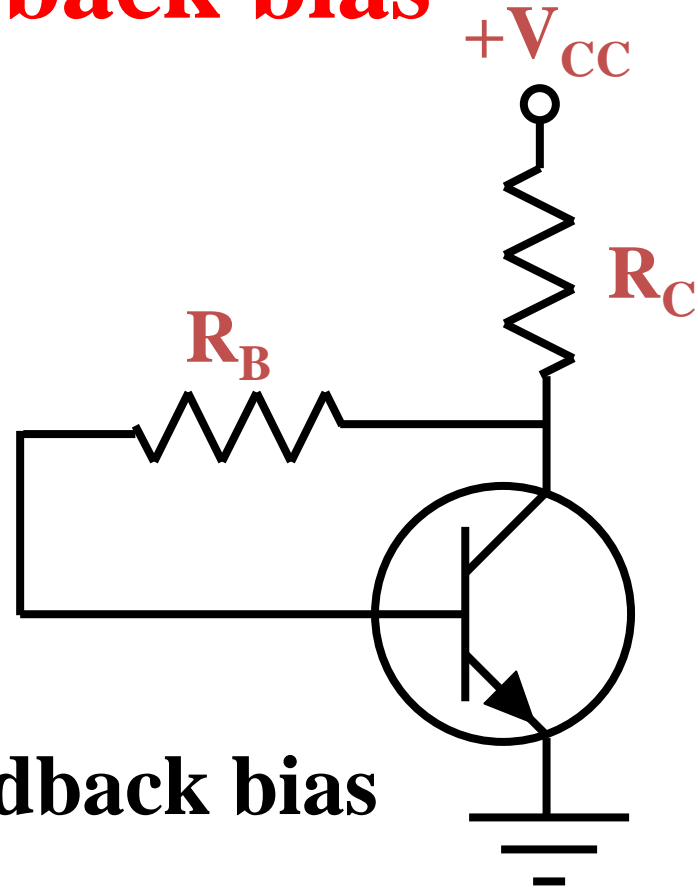


Figure: DC Equivalent Circuit



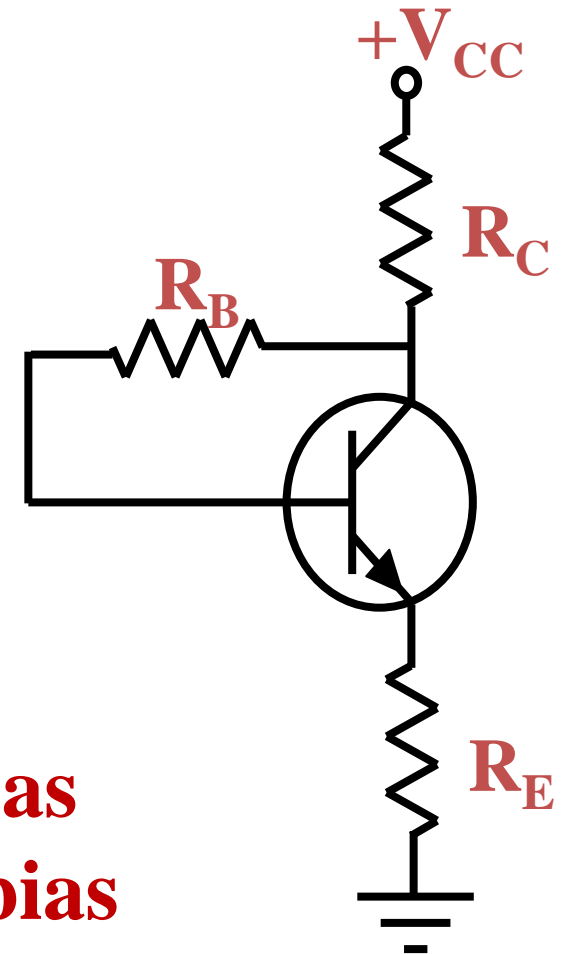
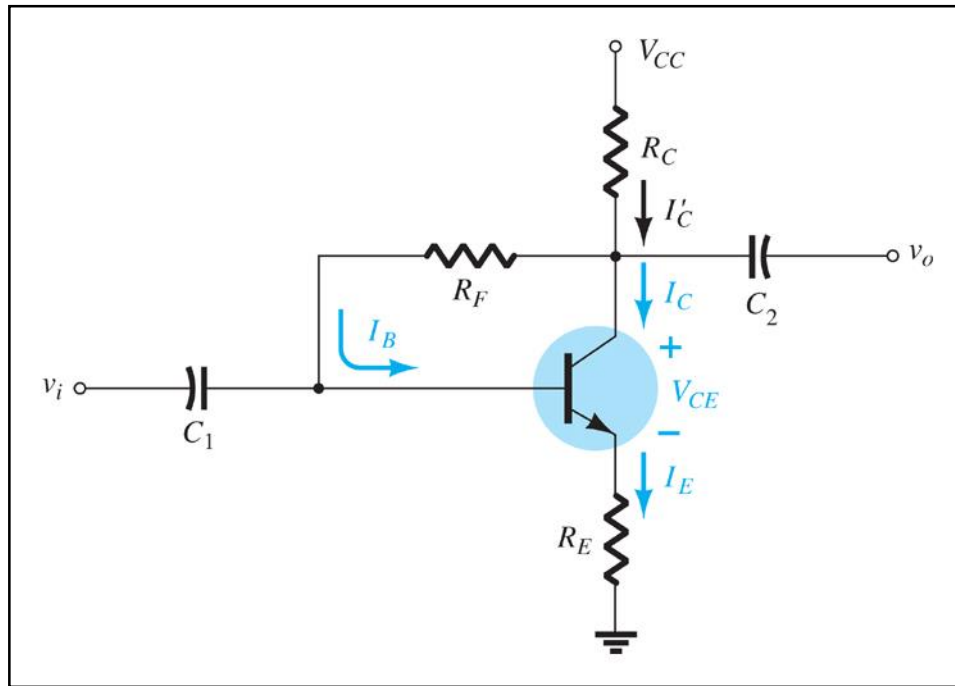
# Collector-feedback bias



- Better than emitter-feedback bias
- Q point still moves
- Some applications because of circuit simplicity

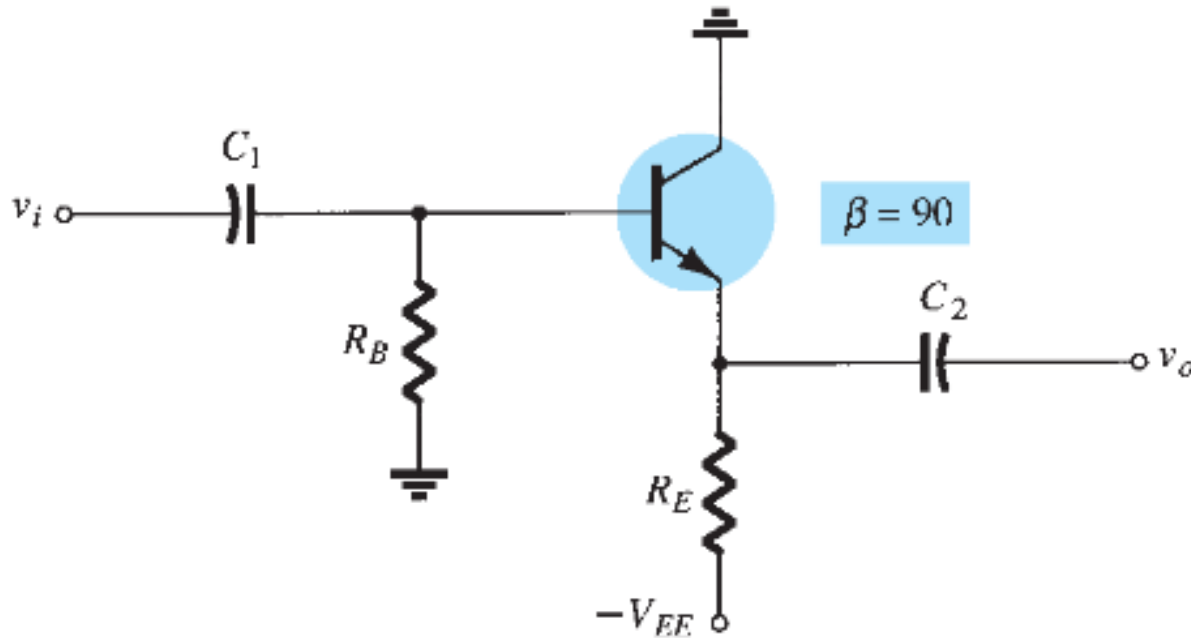
# Collector- and emitter-feedback bias:

Our text calls it **DC Bias With Voltage Feedback**



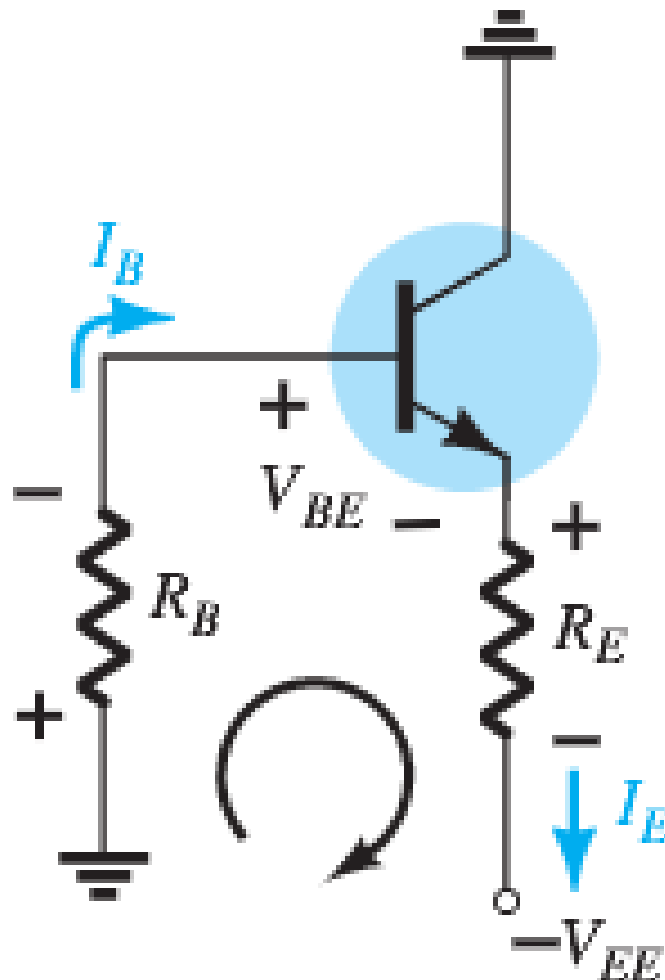
- Better than emitter-feedback bias
- Not as good as voltage-divider bias
- Limited application

# EMITTER-FOLLOWER CONFIGURATION



- The output is taken off the emitter terminal
  - In fact, any of the bias configurations can be used so long as there is a resistor in the emitter leg.

# EMITTER-FOLLOWER DC ANALYSIS



$$-I_B R_B - V_{BE} - I_E R_E + V_{EE} = 0$$

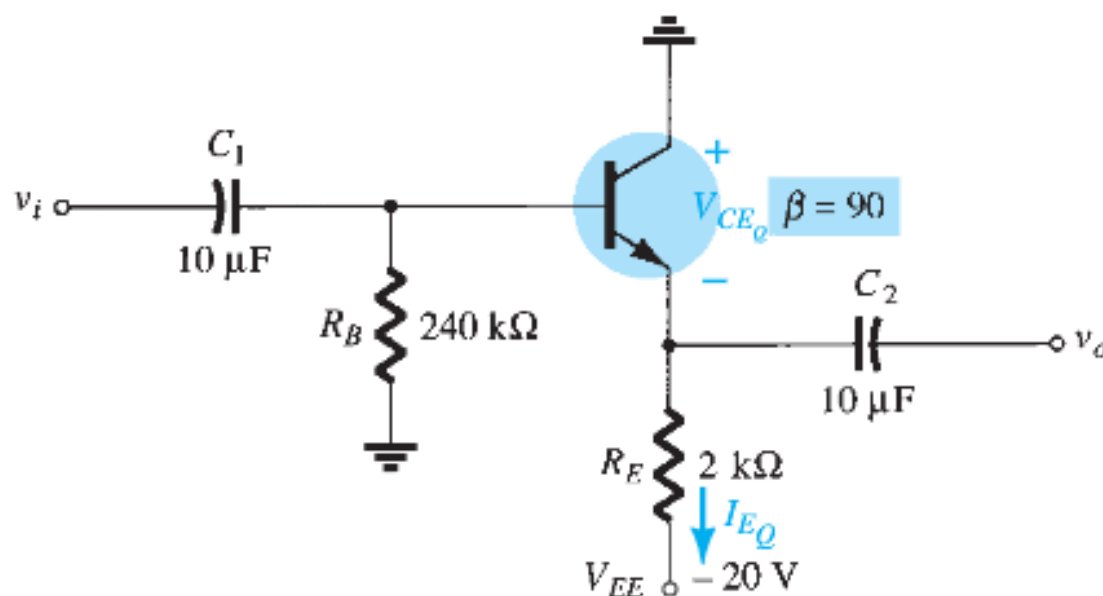
$$I_E = (\beta + 1)I_B$$

$$I_B = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{R_B + (\beta + 1)R_E}$$

$$-V_{CE} - I_E R_E + V_{EE} = 0$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{EE} - I_E R_E$$

**EXAMPLE 4.16** Determine  $V_{CE_Q}$  and  $I_{E_Q}$  for the network of Fig. 4.48.

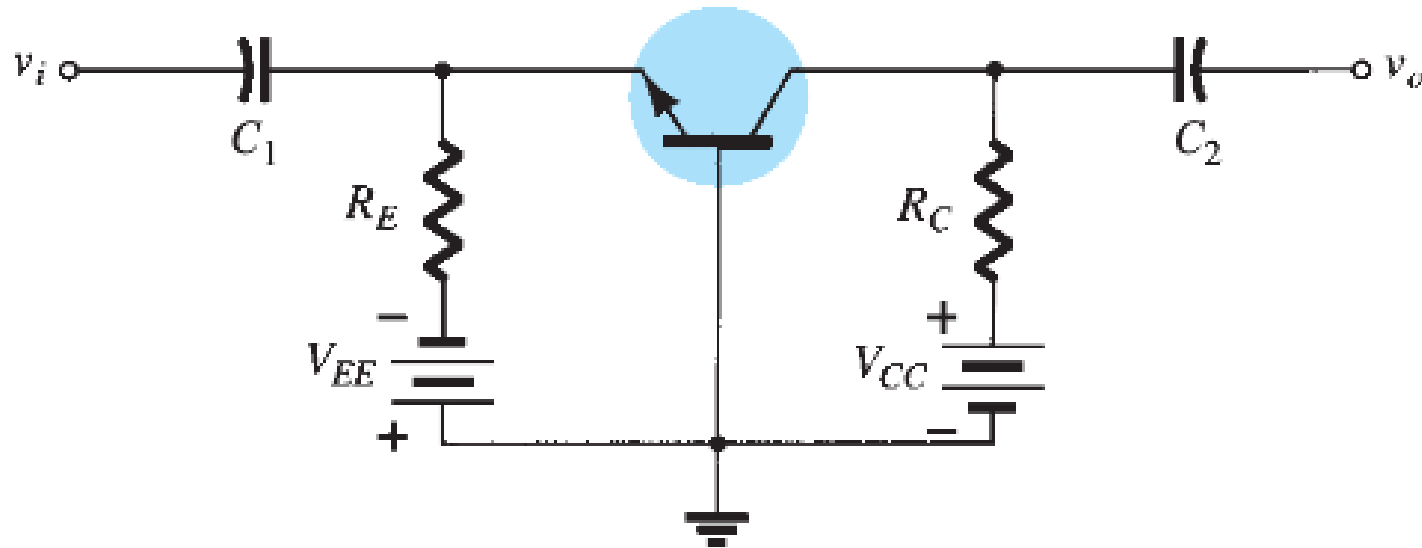


$$\begin{aligned} I_B &= \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{R_B + (\beta + 1)R_E} \\ &= \frac{20 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{240 \text{ k}\Omega + (90 + 1)2 \text{ k}\Omega} = \frac{19.3 \text{ V}}{240 \text{ k}\Omega + 182 \text{ k}\Omega} \\ &= \frac{19.3 \text{ V}}{422 \text{ k}\Omega} = 45.73 \mu\text{A} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{CE_Q} &= V_{EE} - I_E R_E \\ &= V_{EE} - (\beta + 1)I_B R_E \\ &= 20 \text{ V} - (90 + 1)(45.73 \mu\text{A})(2 \text{ k}\Omega) \\ &= 20 \text{ V} - 8.32 \text{ V} \\ &= \mathbf{11.68 \text{ V}} \end{aligned}$$

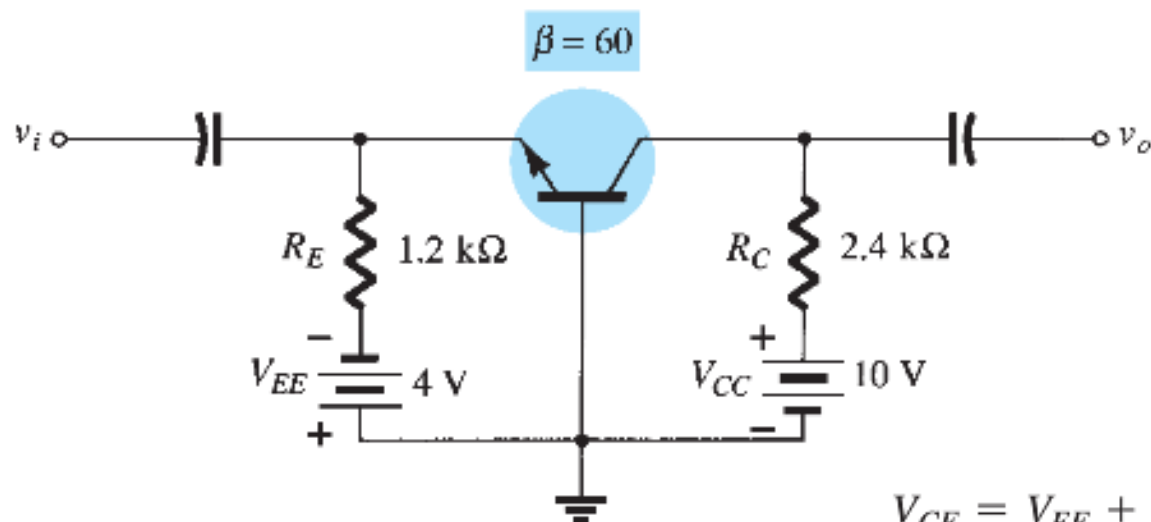
$$\begin{aligned} I_{E_Q} &= (\beta + 1)I_B = (91)(45.73 \mu\text{A}) \\ &= 4.16 \text{ mA} \end{aligned}$$

# COMMON-BASE CONFIGURATION



- The input signal is applied at the emitter terminal
- The base is at ground potential.
- It is a fairly popular configuration because in the ac domain it has a very low input impedance, high output impedance, and good gain.

**EXAMPLE 4.17** Determine the currents  $I_E$  and  $I_B$  and the voltages  $V_{CE}$  and  $V_{CB}$  for the common-base configuration of Fig. 4.52.



$$I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{R_E}$$

$$= \frac{4\text{ V} - 0.7\text{ V}}{1.2\text{ k}\Omega} = \mathbf{2.75\text{ mA}}$$

$$I_B = \frac{I_E}{\beta + 1} = \frac{2.75\text{ mA}}{60 + 1} = \frac{2.75\text{ mA}}{61}$$

$$= \mathbf{45.08\text{ }\mu\text{A}}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{EE} + V_{CC} - I_E(R_C + R_E)$$

$$= 4\text{ V} + 10\text{ V} - (2.75\text{ mA})(2.4\text{ k}\Omega + 1.2\text{ k}\Omega)$$

$$= 14\text{ V} - (2.75\text{ mA})(3.6\text{ k}\Omega)$$

$$= 14\text{ V} - 9.9\text{ V}$$

$$= \mathbf{4.1\text{ V}}$$

$$V_{CB} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = V_{CC} - \beta I_B R_C$$

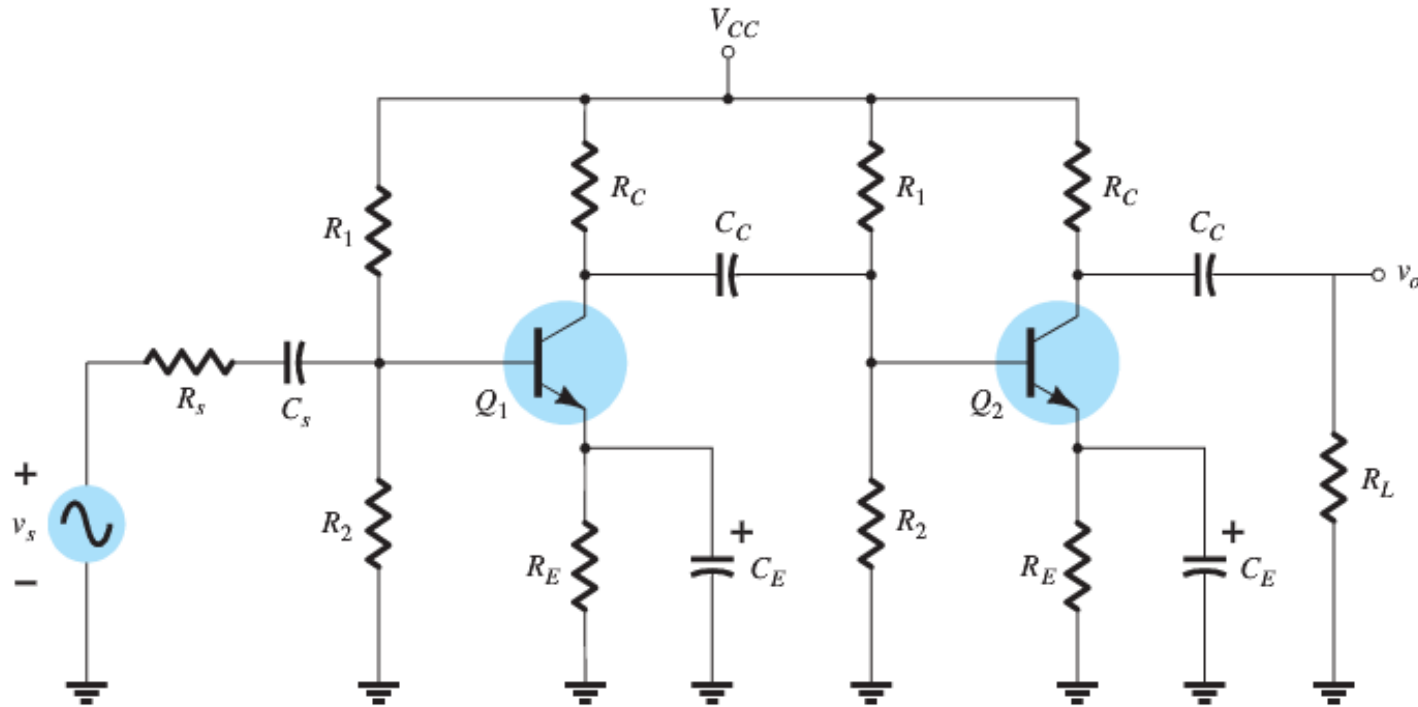
$$= 10\text{ V} - (60)(45.08\text{ }\mu\text{A})(24\text{ k}\Omega)$$

$$= 10\text{ V} - 6.49\text{ V}$$

$$= \mathbf{3.51\text{ V}}$$

# Multiple BJT Networks:

## R-C Coupled BJT Amplifiers

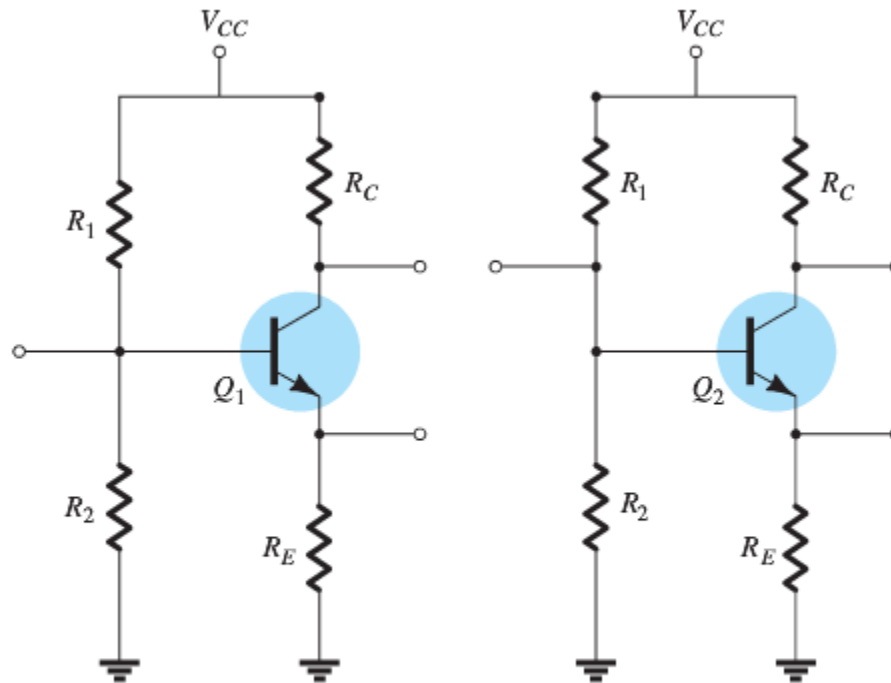


- The R–C coupling is probably the most common.
- The collector output of one stage is fed directly into the base of the next stage using a coupling capacitor  $C_C$
- The capacitor is chosen to ensure that it will block dc between the stages and act like a short circuit to any ac signal.



# Multiple BJT Networks:

## R-C Coupled BJT Amplifiers



**FIG. 4.65**

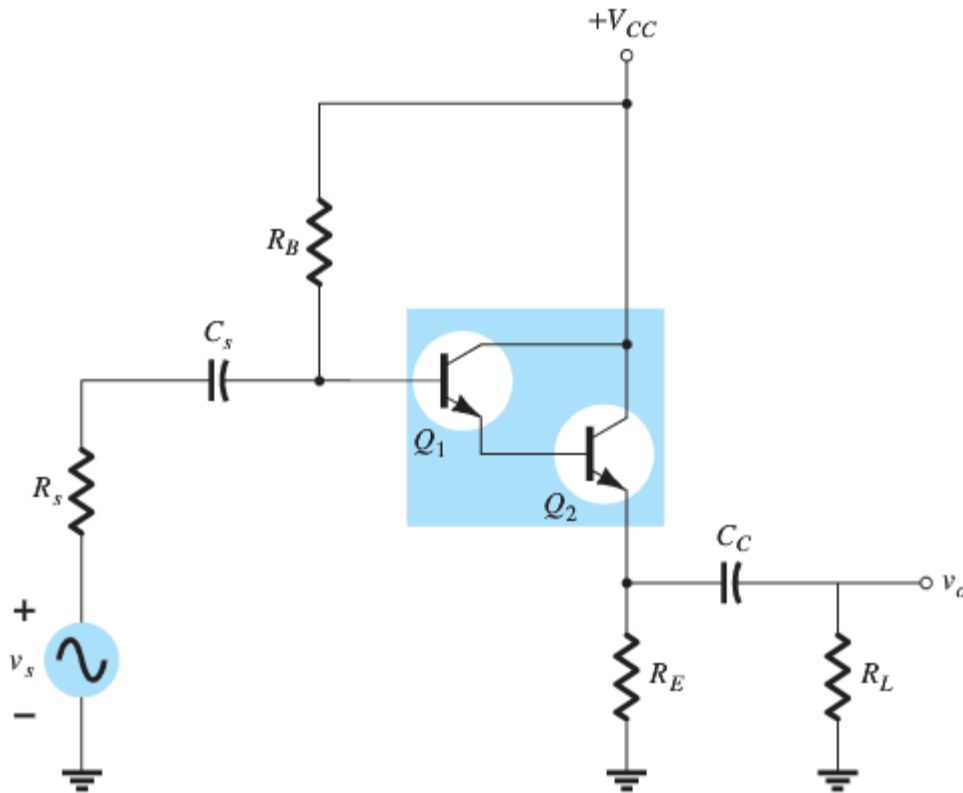
*DC equivalent of Fig. 4.64.*

- Substituting an open-circuit equivalent for  $C_C$  and the other capacitors of the network results in the two bias circuits

# Multiple BJT Networks:

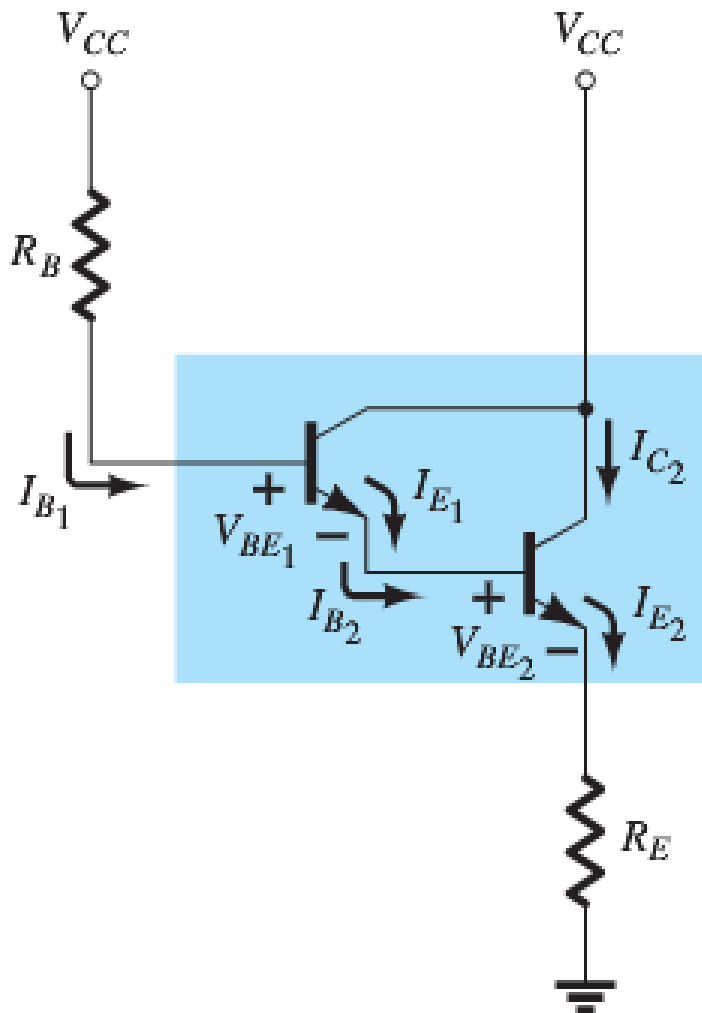
## The Darlington Configuration

- The output of one stage is directly fed into the input of the succeeding stage.



- If the output is taken directly off the emitter terminal, the ac gain is very close to 1 but the input impedance is very high
  - Attractive for use in amplifiers operating off sources that have a relatively high internal resistance.
- If the output taken off the collector terminal, the configuration would provide a very high gain

# The Darlington Configuration



$$I_{B_2} = I_{E_1} = (\beta_1 + 1)I_{B_1}$$

$$I_{E_2} = (\beta_2 + 1)I_{B_2} = (\beta_2 + 1)(\beta_1 + 1)I_{B_1}$$

Assuming  $\beta \gg 1$  for each transistor,

$$\beta_D = \beta_1 \beta_2$$

$$I_{B_1} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE_1} - V_{BE_2}}{R_B + (\beta_D + 1)R_E}$$

$$V_{BE_D} = V_{BE_1} + V_{BE_2}$$

$$I_{B_1} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE_D}}{R_B + (\beta_D + 1)R_E}$$

$$I_{C_2} \cong I_{E_2} = \beta_D I_{B_1}$$

$$V_{CE_2} = V_{CC} - V_{E_2}$$

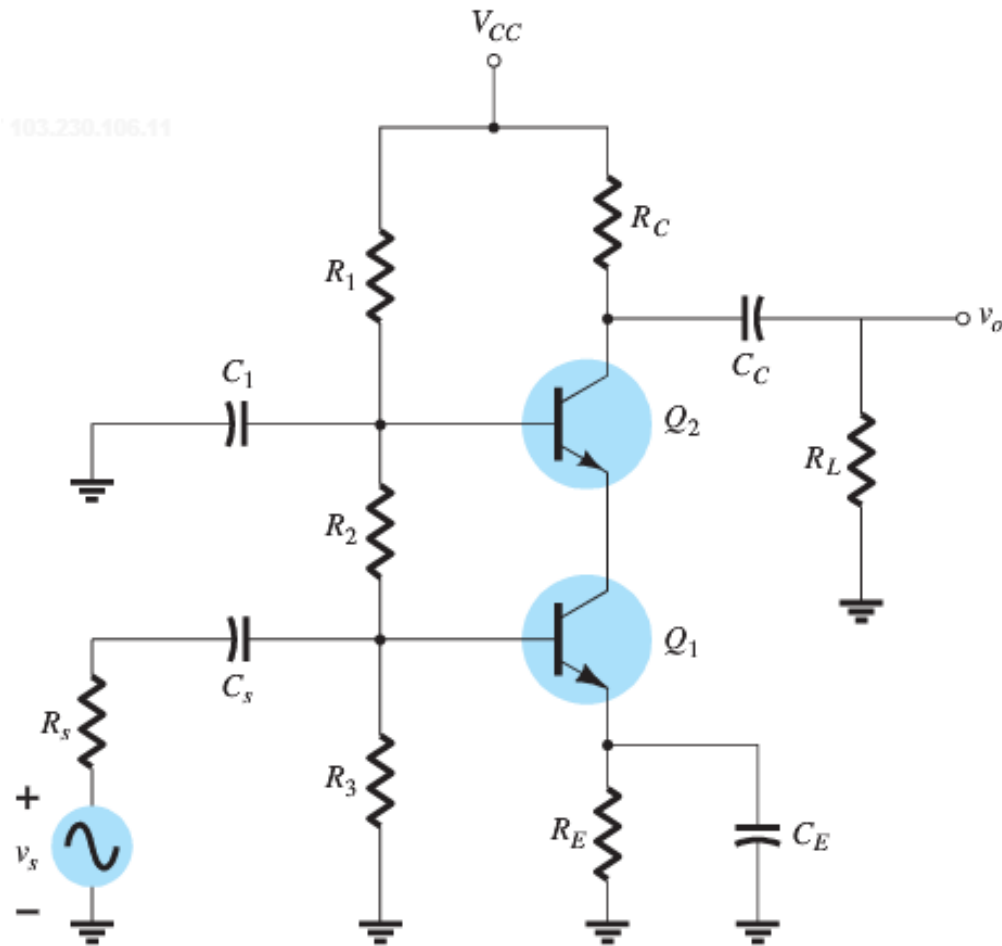
where

$$V_{E_2} = I_{E_2} R_E$$

**FIG. 4.67**

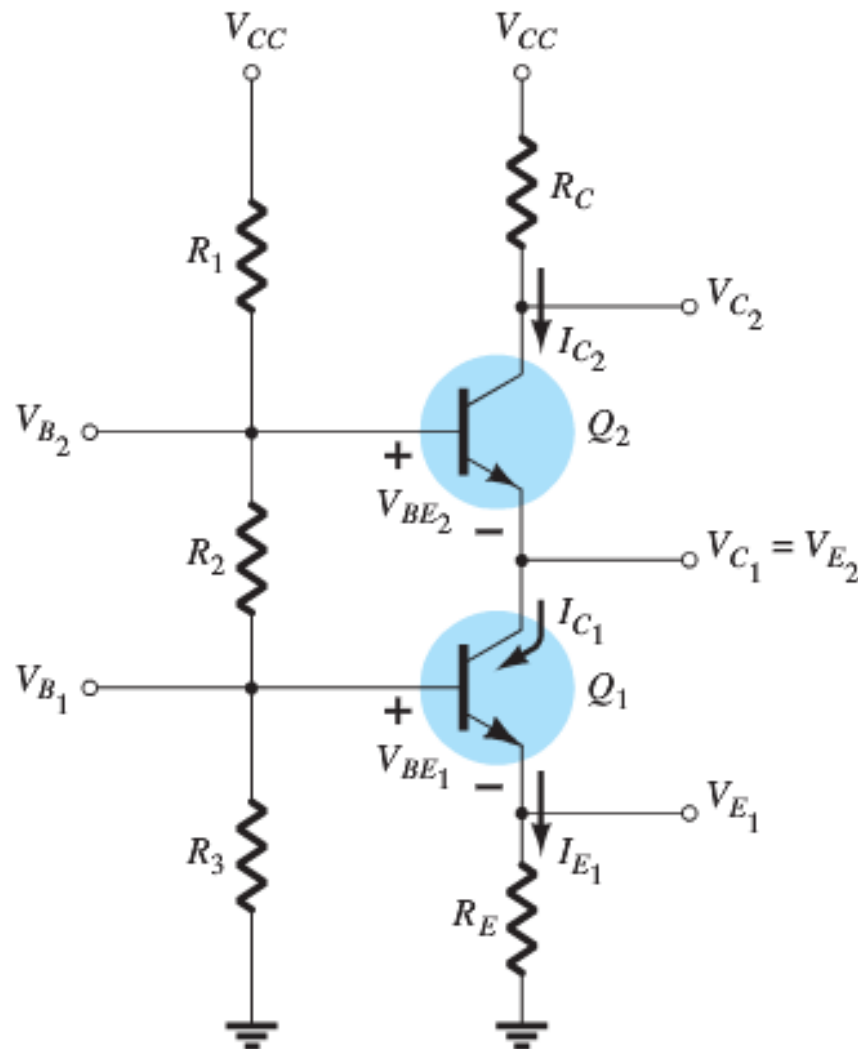
DC equivalent of Fig. 4.66.

# Multiple BJT Networks: The Cascode Configuration



- It ties the collector of one transistor to the emitter of the other.
- A network with a high gain and a reduced Miller capacitance (to be discussed later)

# The Cascode Configuration: DC Analysis



$$I_{R_1} \cong I_{R_2} \cong I_{R_3} \gg I_{B_1} \text{ or } I_{B_2}$$

$$V_{B_1} = \frac{R_3}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} V_{CC}$$

$$V_{B_2} = \frac{(R_2 + R_3)}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} V_{CC}$$

$$V_{E_1} = V_{B_1} - V_{BE_1}$$

$$V_{E_2} = V_{B_2} - V_{BE_2}$$

$$I_{C_2} \cong I_{E_2} \cong I_{C_1} \cong I_{E_1} = \frac{V_{B_1} - V_{BE_1}}{R_E}$$

$$V_{C_1} = V_{B_2} - V_{BE_2}$$

$$V_{C_2} = V_{CC} - I_{C_2} R_C$$

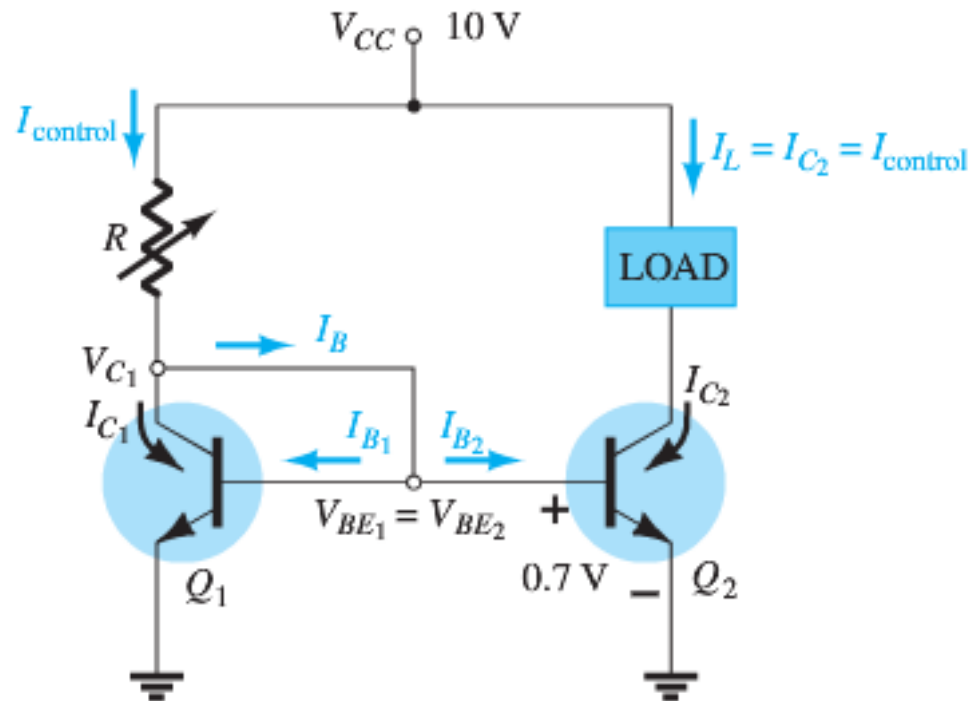
$$I_{R_1} \cong I_{R_2} \cong I_{R_3} = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

$$I_{B_1} = \frac{I_{C_1}}{\beta_1}$$

$$I_{B_2} = \frac{I_{C_2}}{\beta_2}$$

# CURRENT MIRRORS

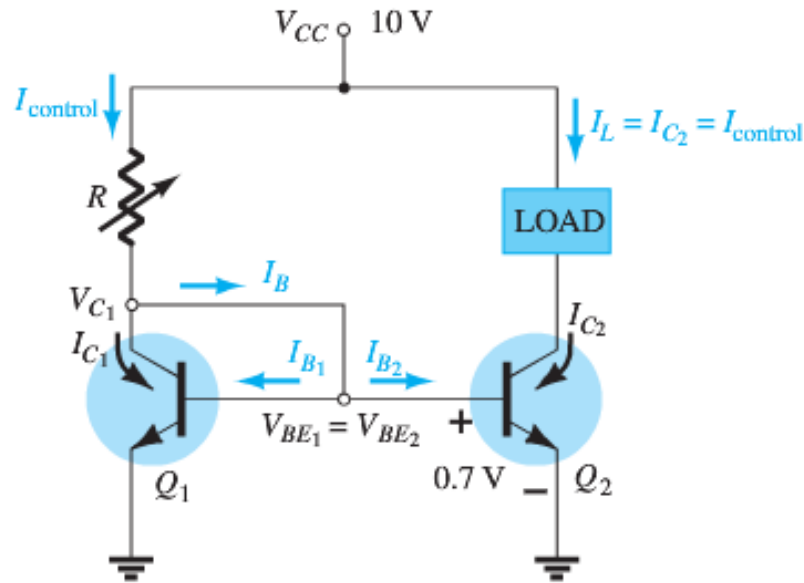
- A dc network in which the current through a load is controlled by a current at another point in the network



**FIG. 4.74**

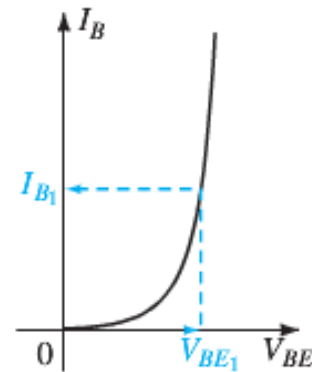
*Current mirror using back-to-back BJTs.*

# CURRENT MIRRORS



**FIG. 4.74**

*Current mirror using back-to-back BJTs.*



**FIG. 4.75**

*Base characteristics*

Assume identical transistors will result in  $V_{BE1} = V_{BE2}$  and  $I_{B1} = I_{B2}$

$$I_{\text{control}} = I_{C1} + I_B = I_{C1} + 2I_{B1}$$

$$I_{C1} = \beta_1 I_{B1}$$

$$I_{\text{control}} = \beta_1 I_{B1} + 2I_{B1} = (\beta_1 + 2)I_{B1}$$

$$I_{\text{control}} \cong \beta_1 I_{B1}$$

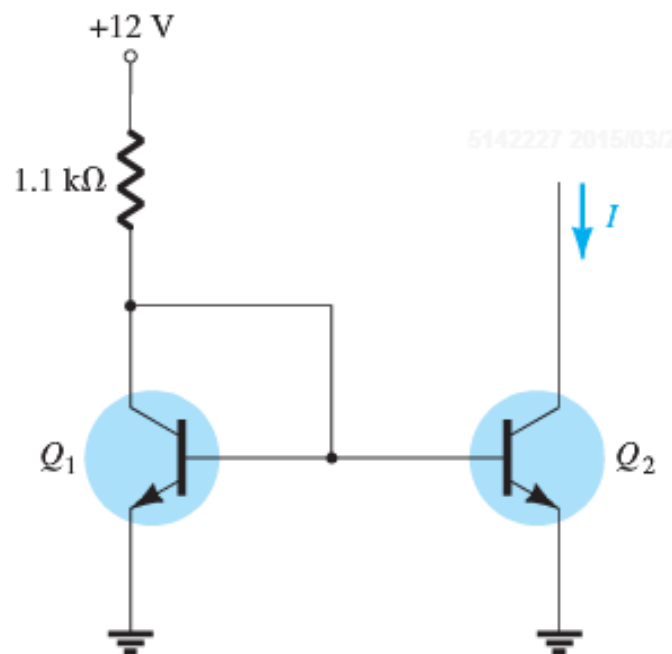
$$I_{B1} = \frac{I_{\text{control}}}{\beta_1}$$

$$I_{\text{control}} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R}$$

The resistor  $R$  can be used to set the control current

$I_L \uparrow I_{C2} \uparrow I_{B2} \uparrow V_{BE2} \uparrow V_{CE1} \uparrow, I_R \downarrow, I_B \downarrow, I_{B1} \downarrow I_{C1} \downarrow I_L \downarrow$   
 Note

**EXAMPLE 4.27** Calculate the mirrored current  $I$  in the circuit of Fig. 4.76.



**FIG. 4.76**

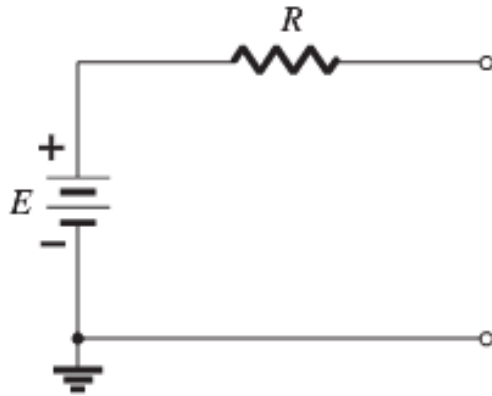
*Current mirror circuit for Example 4.27.*

**Solution:** Eq. (4.75):

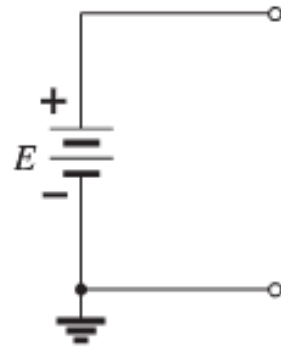
$$I = I_{\text{control}} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R} = \frac{12 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{1.1 \text{ k}\Omega} = \mathbf{10.27 \text{ mA}}$$



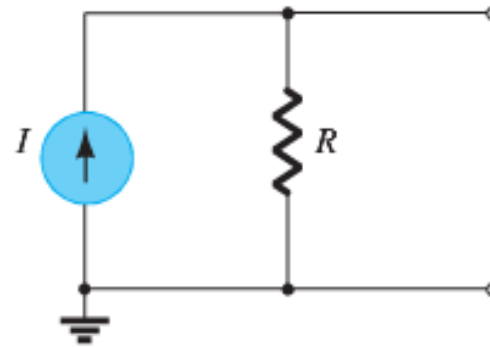
# CURRENT SOURCE CIRCUITS



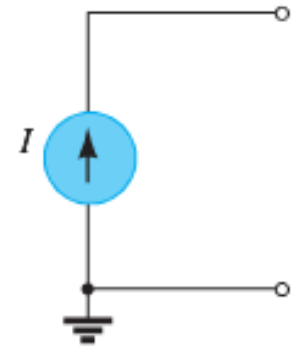
Practical  
voltage source



Ideal  
voltage source



Practical  
current source



Ideal  
current source

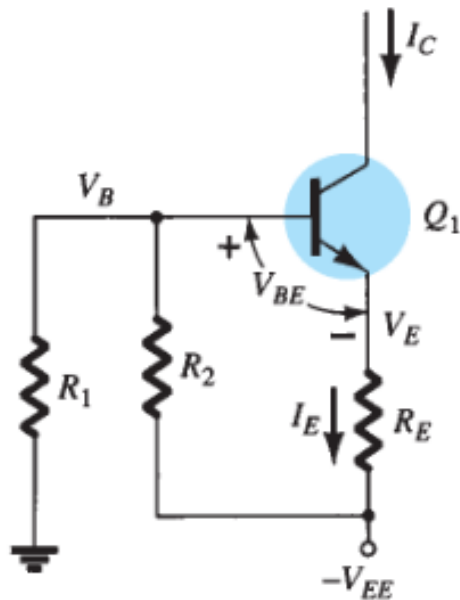
(a)

(b)

- An ideal current source provides a constant current regardless of the load connected to it.
- Constant-current circuits can be built using bipolar devices, FET devices, and a combination of these components.

# Bipolar Transistor Constant-Current Source

- Bipolar transistors can be connected in a number of ways to form constant-current sources



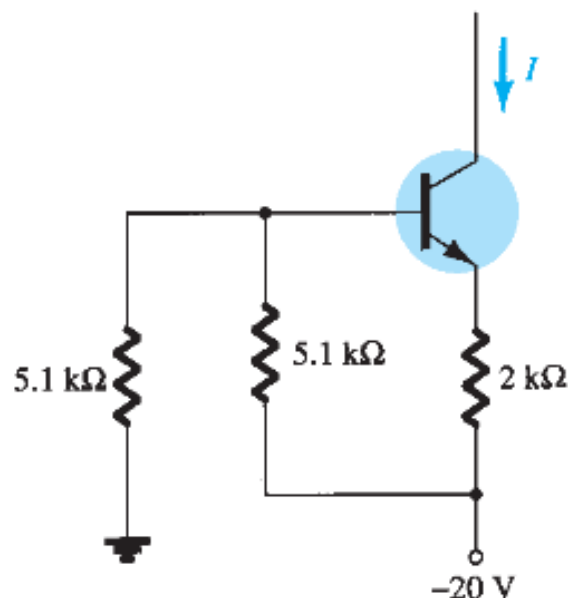
**FIG. 4.81**

*Discrete constant-current source.*

$$V_B = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} (-V_{EE})$$
$$V_E = V_B - 0.7 \text{ V}$$
$$I_E = \frac{V_E - (-V_{EE})}{R_E} \approx I_C$$

- $I_C$  is the constant current provided by the circuit.

**EXAMPLE 4.29** Calculate the constant current  $I$  in the circuit of Fig. 4.82.



**FIG. 4.82**

*Constant-current source for  
Example 4.29.*

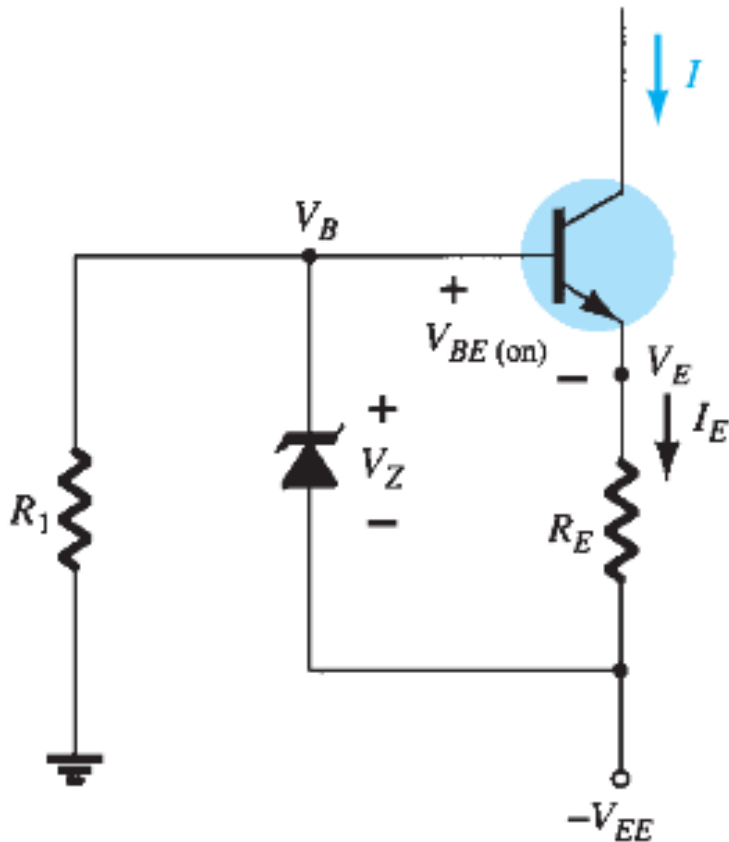
$$V_B = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2}(-V_{EE}) = \frac{5.1 \text{ k}\Omega}{5.1 \text{ k}\Omega + 5.1 \text{ k}\Omega}(-20 \text{ V}) = -10 \text{ V}$$

$$V_E = V_B - 0.7 \text{ V} = -10 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V} = -10.7 \text{ V}$$

$$I = I_E = \frac{V_E - (-V_{EE})}{R_E} = \frac{-10.7 \text{ V} - (-20 \text{ V})}{2 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

$$= \frac{9.3 \text{ V}}{2 \text{ k}\Omega} = \mathbf{4.65 \text{ mA}}$$

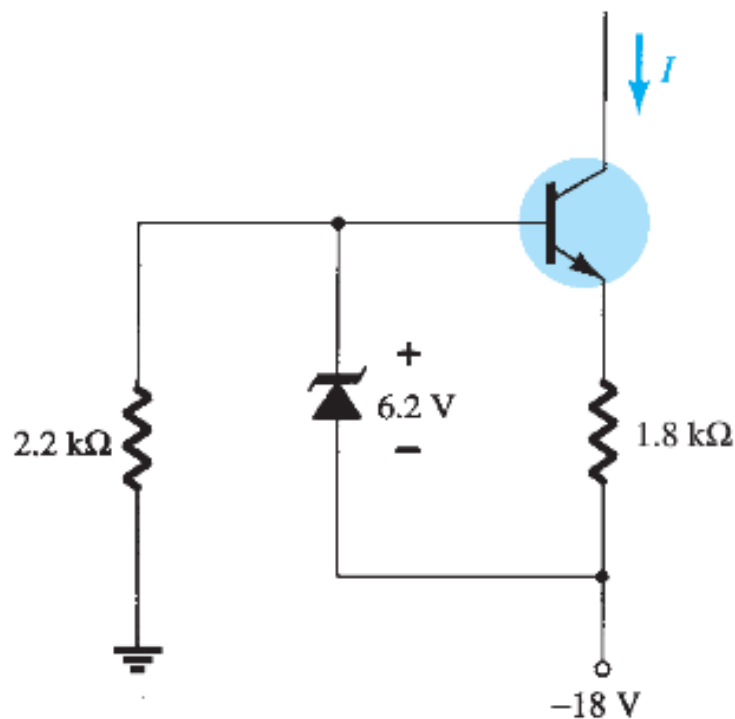
# Transistor/Zener Constant-Current Source



- Provides an improved constant-current source
- The constant current depends on the Zener diode voltage and the emitter resistor  $R_E$
- The voltage supply  $V_{EE}$  has no effect on the value of  $I$ .

$$I \approx I_E = \frac{V_Z - V_{BE}}{R_E}$$

**EXAMPLE 4.30** Calculate the constant current  $I$  in the circuit of Fig. 4.84.



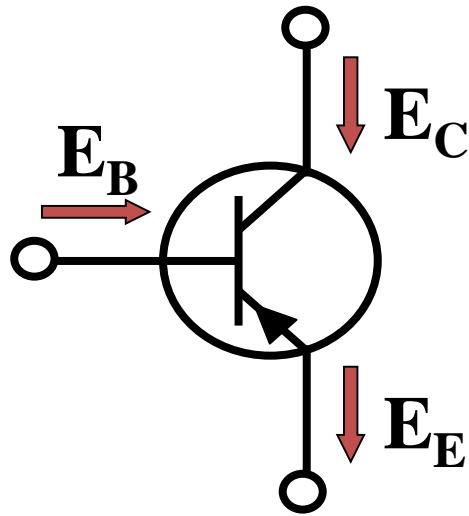
**FIG. 4.84**

*Constant-current circuit for Example 4.30.*

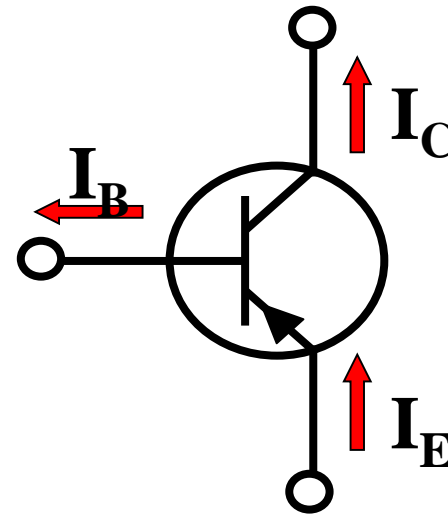
**Solution:**

$$\text{Eq. (4.83): } I = \frac{V_Z - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{6.2 \text{ V} - 0.7 \text{ V}}{1.8 \text{ k}\Omega} = 3.06 \text{ mA} \approx 3 \text{ mA}$$

# Biasing PNP Transistors



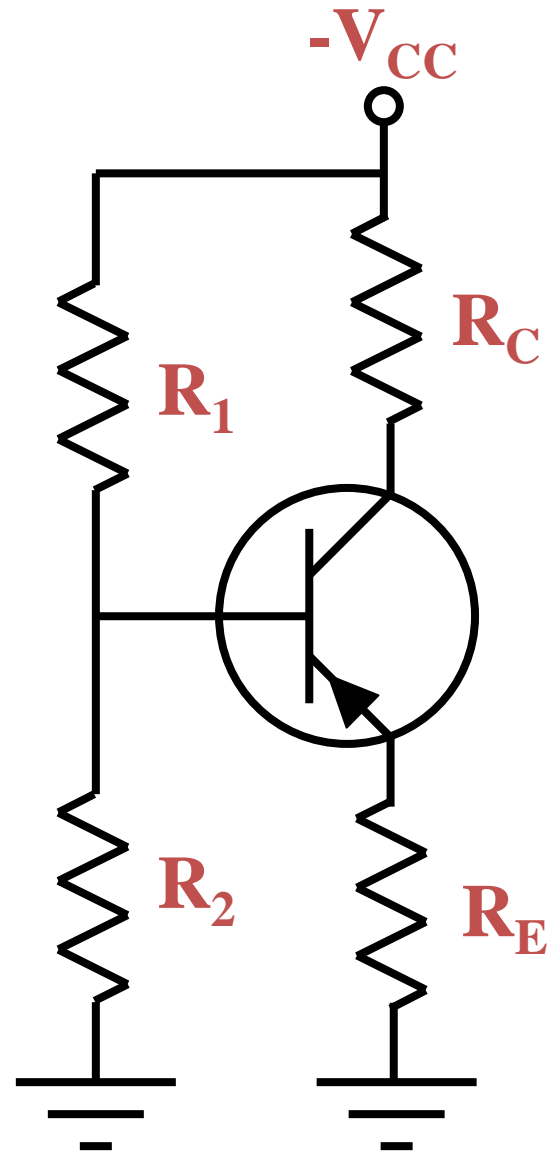
Electron flow



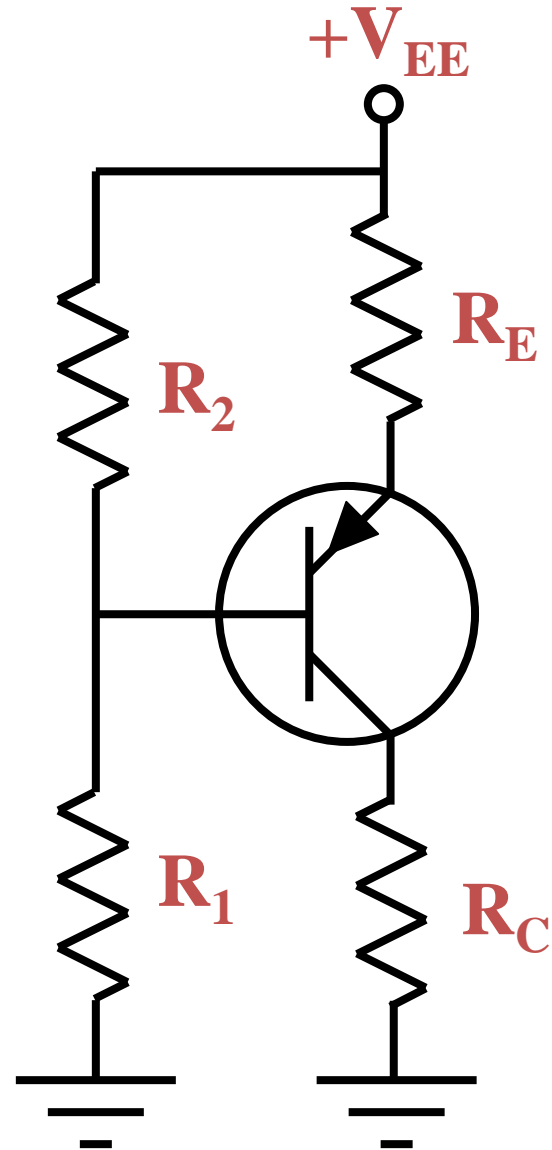
Conventional flow

- The analysis for *pnp* transistor biasing circuits is the same as that for *npn* transistor circuits.
  - The only difference is that the currents are flowing in the opposite direction.

# PNP Biasing with a negative supply



# PNP Biasing with a positive supply

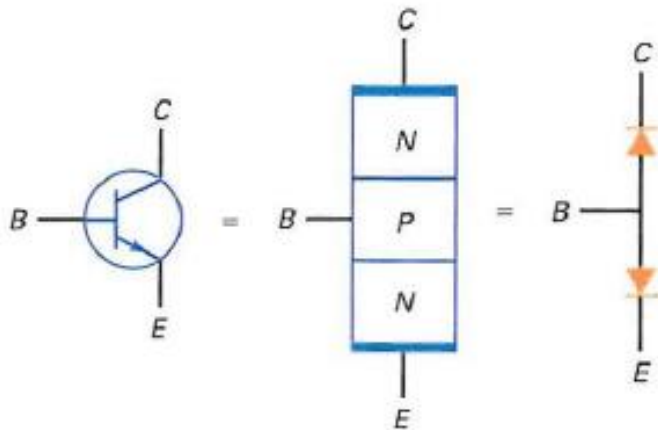




# Troubleshooting a transistor

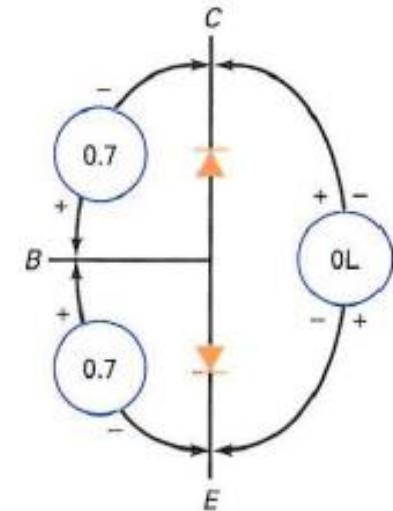
- Ohmmeter resistance tests
- DMM resistance or  $h_{FE}$  function tests
- In-circuit voltage measurements

# Troubleshooting: Out-of- Circuit Tests

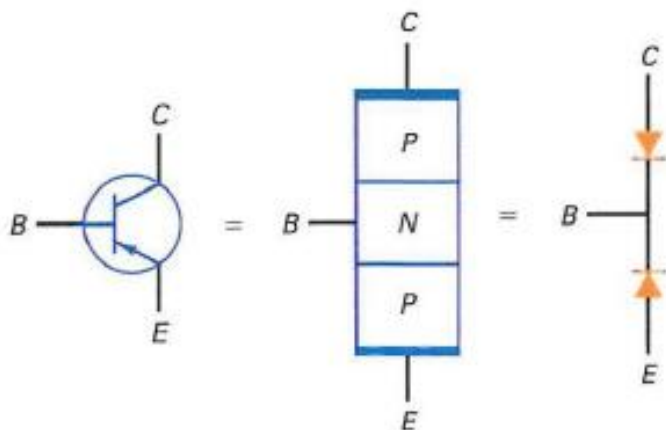


+	-	Reading
B	E	0.7
E	B	0L
B	C	0.7
C	B	0L
C	E	0L
E	C	0L

(a)

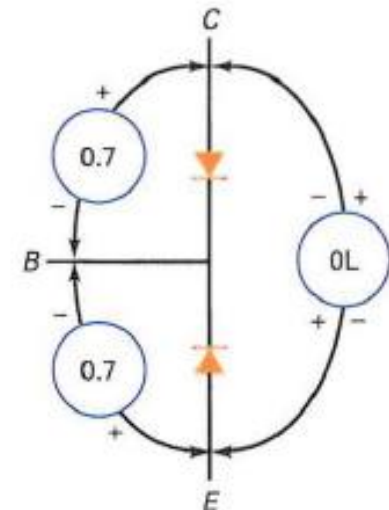


(b)



+	-	Readings
B	E	0L
E	B	0.7
B	C	0L
C	B	0.7
C	E	0L
E	C	0L

(a)



(b)

# In- Circuit Test: Transistor curve tracer

Figure 7-19 Transistor curve tracer test courtesy of Tektronix.

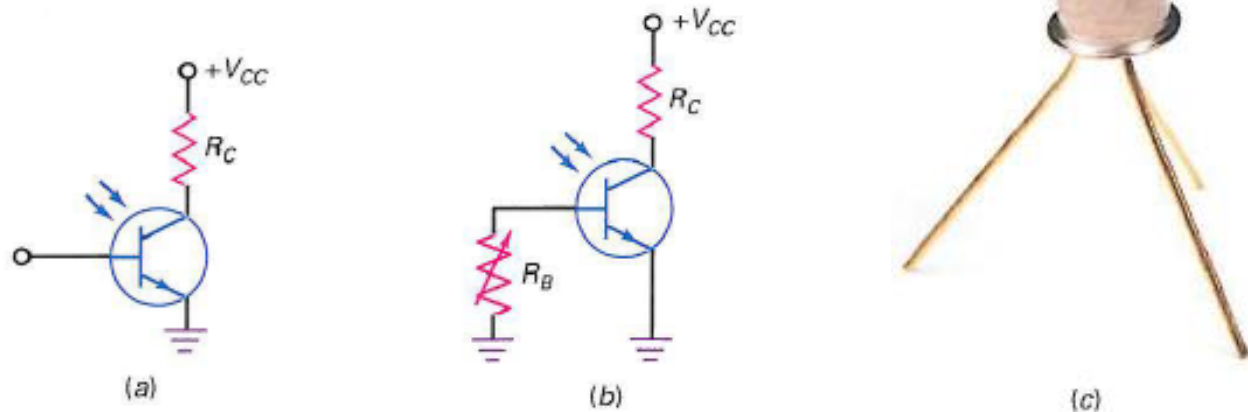


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# More Optoelectronic devices

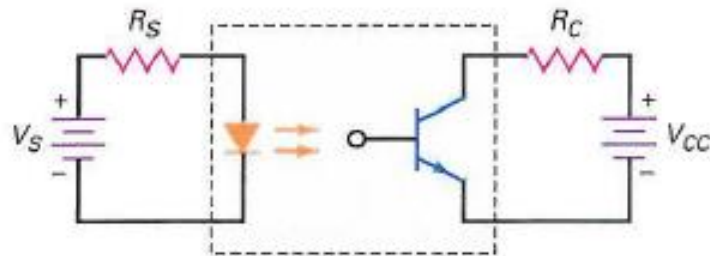
- A **phototransistor** has current gain and is more sensitive than a photodiode
- Combined with an LED, a phototransistor provides a more sensitive **optocoupler**

**Figure 7-22** Phototransistor.  
(a) Open base gives maximum sensitivity;  
(b) variable base resistor changes sensitivity; (c) typical phototransistor.

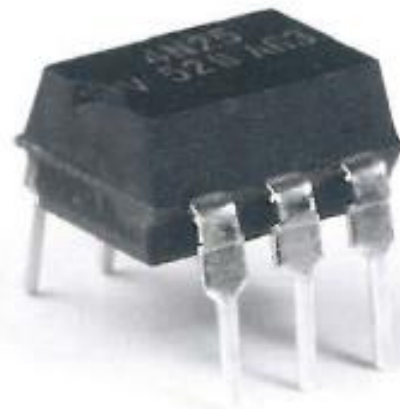


# Optocoupler with LED and phototransistor

Figure 7-23 (a) Optocoupler with LED and phototransistor; (b) optocoupler IC.



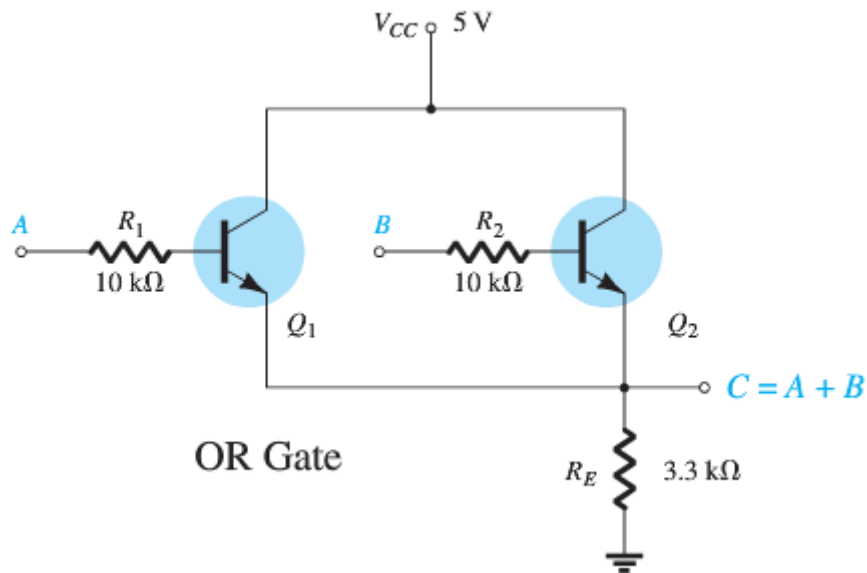
(a)



(b)

© Brian Moeskau/Brian Moeskau Photography

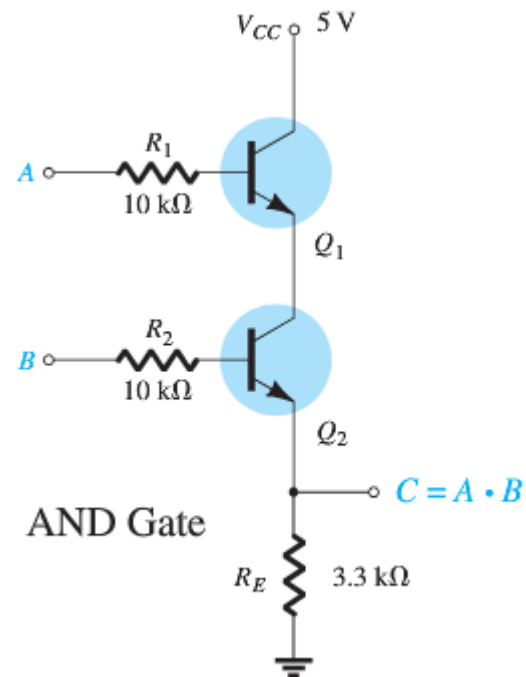
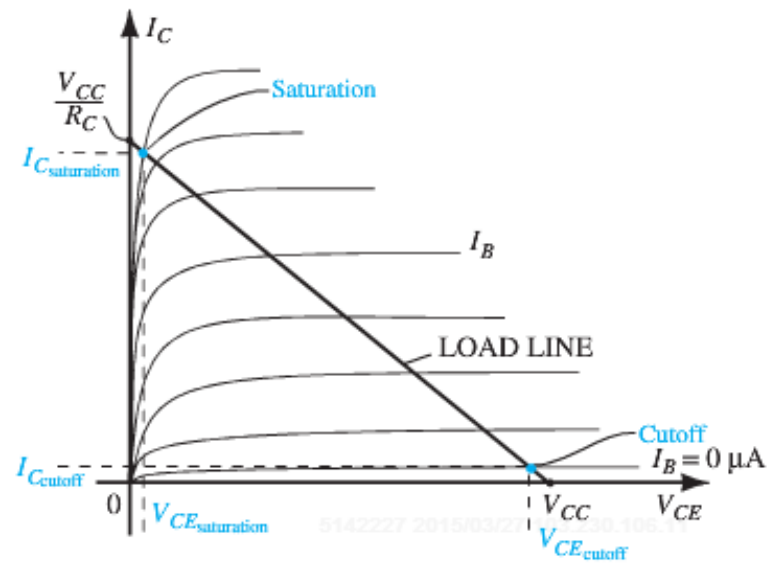
# Logic Gates



A	B	C
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

1 = high

0 = low



A	B	C
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1