

Self-Study Summary Collection

Volume 1
Electronics

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Chapter 1

Digital Technology and Electronics

Resources

- <https://www.falstad.com/circuit/circuitjs.html>
- <http://www.32x8.com/var4kmapx.html>
- <https://www.tinkercad.com/dashboard?type=circuits&collection=designs>
- <https://www.symbolab.com/solver/system-of-equations-calculator>

1.1 Circuit Theory

1.1.1 Basic electrical quantities

Current

$i(A)$: amps

Positive repels Positive. Negative repels Negative. Positive and Negative force of attraction. Copper is commonly used in wires since there is only one electron in last orbital. This makes it easy to move therefore it is highly conductive.

$$I = q^-/\text{sec}$$

Current is charge per second.

Current is written from Positive to Negative. Since back in history Ben Franklin who studied electricity and came up with theories. However, they were unaware that electrons existed and therefore made the false assumption that the current goes from positive to negative. With in fact the electron is attracted to the positive end and therefore flows that way. Ben Franklin 1747. JJ Thompson 1897 e^- . However positive charge does exist like in your body then it would be true.

Electron current is from negative to positive. Conventional current (the current we know as) is from positive to negative.

Voltage

$v(V)$: volt

Voltage is similar to gravity. It is the potential difference in the two poles, in other words like potential energy like in the gravity analogy.

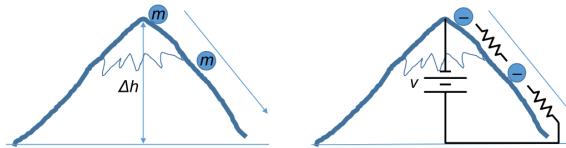


Figure 1.1: volt. From de

$$V = \frac{\Delta U}{q}$$

Where ΔU is the potential energy difference and q is charge particle

Power

Power is defined as the rate energy (U) is transformed or transferred over time. We measure power in units of joules/second, also known as watts. 1 watt = 1 joules / second)

An electric circuit is capable of transferring power. Current is the rate of flow of charge, and voltage measures the energy transferred per unit of charge. We can insert these definitions into the equation for power: $p = \frac{dU}{dt} = \frac{dU}{dq} \cdot \frac{dq}{dt}$. ($dU = \Delta U$)

$$p = v * i \quad (1.1)$$

1.1.2 Prefixes

Number	Prefix	Symbol	Note
10^{+10}	tera-	T	
10^{+9}	giga-	G	
10^{+6}	mega-	M	
10^{+3}	kilo-	k	the only > 1 prefix in lower case
10^0			
10^{-3}	milli-	m	
10^{-6}	micro-	μ	be careful μ mu doesn't turn into "m"
10^{-9}	nano-	n	
10^{-12}	pico-	p	

1.1.3 Unit grammar

Symbol name	example names	Symbol	example symbols	Named after
second	1 millisecond	s	$2ns$	
meter	300 kilometer	m	$35nm35$	
hertz	10 kilohertz	Hz	$100MHz$	Hertz
ohm	2 megohm	Ω	$47k\Omega$	Ohm
farad	10 picofarad	F	$220pF220$	Faraday
ampere	35 microamp	A	$65mA$	Ampère
volt	11 kilovolt	V	$5\mu V$	Volta

1.1.4 Ohm's law

- V (Voltage): V (volt)
- I (Current): A (amps)
- R (Resistance): Ω (omega)

$$V = IR \quad (1.2)$$

1.1.5 Circuit elements

1.1.6 Circuit terminology

- *Closed circuit* – A circuit is closed if the circle is complete if all currents have a path back to where they came from.

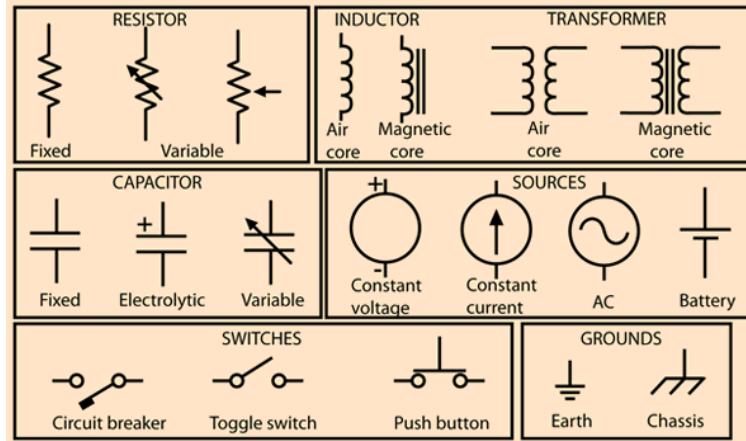


Figure 1.2: From Circuit elements

- *Open circuit* – A circuit is open if the circle is not complete if there is a gap or opening in the path.
- *Short circuit* – A short happens when a path of low resistance is connected (usually by mistake) to a component. The resistor shown below is the intended path for current, and the curved wire going around it is the short. Current is diverted away from its intended path, sometimes with damaging results. The wire shorts out the resistor by providing a low-resistance path for current (probably not what the designer intended).
- *Node* - Between elements
- *Branch* - path between two nodes.
- *Loop* - Close path in a circuit (Branch - Nodes + 1)

1.1.7 Series Resistor

$$R_{\text{series}} = R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n \quad (1.3)$$

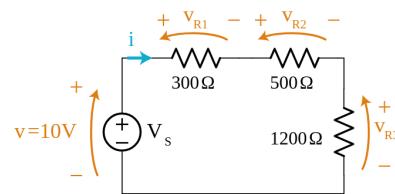


Figure 1.3: voltage distributes between resistors in series. From

$$R_{series} = 300\Omega + 500\Omega + 1200\Omega = 2000\Omega$$

$$i = \frac{v}{R_{series}} = \frac{10V}{2000\Omega} = 5mA$$

$$v_{R1} = i \cdot R1 = 5mA \cdot 300\Omega = 1.5V$$

$$v_{R2} = i \cdot R2 = 5mA \cdot 500\Omega = 2.5V$$

$$v_{R3} = i \cdot R3 = 5mA \cdot 1200\Omega = 6.0V$$

$10V - 1.5V - 2.5V - 6.0V = 0V$ Therefore correct

1.1.8 Parralel resistor

$$\frac{1}{R_p} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \quad (1.4)$$

$$R_{parallel} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}} \quad (1.5)$$

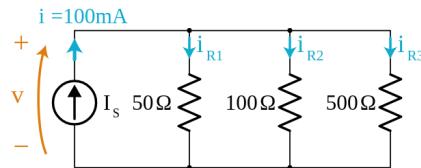


Figure 1.4: current distributes between resistors in parallel. From

$$R_{parallel} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}}$$

$$R_{parallel} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{0.02} + \frac{1}{0.01} + \frac{1}{0.002}} = \frac{1}{0.032} = 31.25\Omega$$

$$v = i \cdot R_{parallel} = 100mA \cdot 31.25\Omega = 3.125V$$

$$i_{R1} = \frac{v}{R1} = \frac{3.125V}{50\Omega} = 62.5mA$$

$$i_{R2} = \frac{v}{R2} = \frac{3.125V}{100\Omega} = 31.25mA$$

$$i_{R3} = \frac{v}{R3} = \frac{3.125V}{500\Omega} = 6.25mA$$

$100mA - 62.5mA - 31.25mA - 6.25mA = 0mA$ Therefore correct

1.1.9 Simplify resistor network

Start from the furthest point. Make parallel and serial resistors become one.

1.1.10 Voltage divider

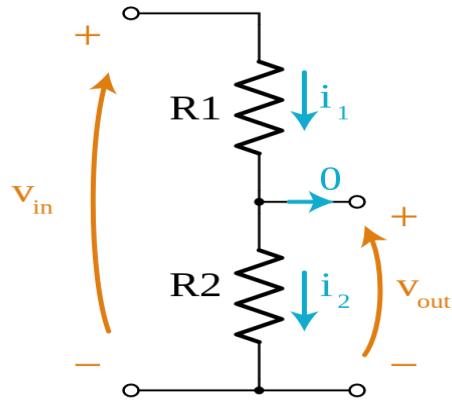


Figure 1.5: voltage-divider. From

$$\begin{aligned} v_{in} &= i(R_1 + R_2) \Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{R_1 + R_2} v_{in} \\ v_{out} &= iR_2 \Rightarrow v_{out} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} v_{in} \\ &= \frac{1}{\frac{R_1}{R_2} + 1} v_{in} \end{aligned}$$

1.1.11 Kirchhoff's laws

Kirchhoff's current law

KCL

$$\sum i_{in} = \sum i_{out} \quad (1.6)$$

Kirchhoff's voltage law

KVL

$$\sum_n V_n = 0 \quad (1.7)$$

$$\sum V_{rise} = V_{drop} \quad (1.8)$$

1.1.12 Node voltage method

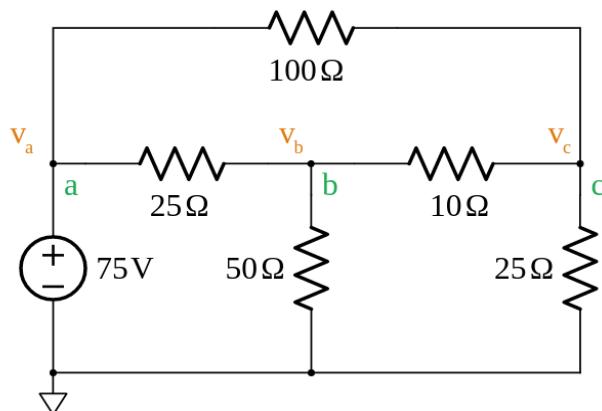


Figure 1.6: Example node voltage method. From

1. Assign a reference node (ground).

Assign it under Voltage source

2. Assign node voltage names to the remaining nodes.

See image for v_a , v_B , v_c , a , b , c

3. Solve the easy nodes first, the ones with a voltage source connected to the reference node.

V_a is the easiest since it is the same as the input $v_a = 75V$

4. Write Kirchhoff's Current Law for each node. Do Ohm's Law in your head.

$$\text{Node } b: +\frac{v_a - v_b}{25} - \frac{v_b}{50} + \frac{v_c - v_b}{10} = 0$$

$$\text{Node } c: +\frac{v_a - v_c}{100} - \frac{v_b - v_c}{10} + \frac{v_c}{25} = 0$$

5. Solve the resulting system of equations for all node voltages.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Node } b: & -\frac{v_b}{25} - \frac{v_b}{50} - \frac{v_b}{10} + \frac{v_c}{10} = -\frac{v_a}{25} \\ & \Rightarrow -\frac{8}{50}v_b + \frac{1}{10}v_c = -\frac{75}{25} = -3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Node } c: & +\frac{v_b}{10} - \frac{v_c}{100} - \frac{v_c}{10} + \frac{v_c}{25} = -\frac{v_a}{100} \\ & \Rightarrow +\frac{1}{10}v_b - \frac{15}{100}v_c = -\frac{75}{100} = -\frac{3}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Solve by gauseelimination and then get $v_b = +37.5V$, $v_c = +30V$

6. Solve for any currents you want to know using Ohm's Law.

$$i_{ab25\Omega} = \frac{75 - 37.5}{25} = 1.5A \text{ arrow pointing right}$$

$$i_{bg50\Omega} = \frac{37.5}{50} = 0.75A \text{ arrow pointing down}$$

$$i_{bc10\Omega} = \frac{37.5 - 30}{10} = 0.75A \text{ arrow pointing right}$$

$$i_{ac100\Omega} = \frac{75 - 30}{100} = 0.45A \text{ arrow pointing right}$$

$$i_{cg25\Omega} = \frac{30}{25} = 1.2A \text{ arrow pointing down}$$

1.1.13 Mesh current method

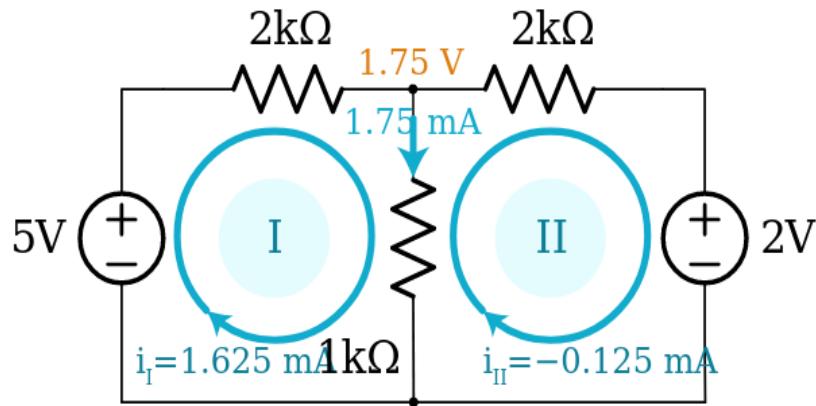


Figure 1.7: Mesh current method. From

Mesh I:

- + The voltage source – voltage drop over first resistor – voltage over second resistor = 0 (KVL)
- + $5V - 2000i_I - 1000(i_I - i_{II}) = 0$

Mesh II:

- + Voltage over first resistor – Voltage over second resistor – Voltage source
- + $1000(i_I - i_{II}) - 2000i_{II} - 2V = 0$

Gauseelimination gives us $i_{II} = -0.125 \text{ mA}$, $i_I = +1.625 \text{ mA}$

1.1.14 Capacitor i-v equation

$$i = C \frac{dv}{dt}, v = \frac{1}{C} \int_0^T idt + v_0 \quad (1.9)$$

- C is the capacitance, a physical property of the capacitor (ex: $10\mu F$)
- $\frac{dv}{dt}$ reate of change for volt over time (ex: 100volts/second)

1.1.15 inductor i-v equation

$$v = L \frac{di}{dt}, \frac{1}{L} \int_0^T v dt + i_0 \quad (1.10)$$

- L is the inductance, a physical property of the inductor (ex: $1mH$)

- $\frac{di}{dt}$ is the rate of change for the current over time (ex: 300ampere/second)

1.1.16 RC circuit

RC natural response

When initializes the circuit with a voltage and the capacitor will then be charged. Then we disconnect the voltage source, the capacitor will act as a battery and edvenshula discharge.

$$v(t) = v_0 e^{-t/RC} \quad (1.11)$$

- Time constant: $\tau = RC$. It is the time it takes to charge the capacitor, through the resistor.
- v_0 is the voltage at $t = 0$

Example:

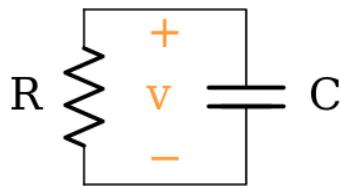


Figure 1.8: EX RC natural response. From

a. Write the expression for $v(t)$

$$v(t) = V_0 e^{-t/RC} = 1.4 e^{-t/(3k\Omega \cdot 1\mu F)} = 1.4 e^{-t/3ms}$$

b. What is $v(t)$ when $t = RC$?

$$\tau = RC = 3 \times 10^3 \cdot 1 \times 10^{-6} = 3ms$$

$$v(3ms) = 1.4 e^{-3ms/3ms} = 1.4 \cdot 1.4 \cdot 0.3679 = 0.515V$$

c. Plot $v(t)$

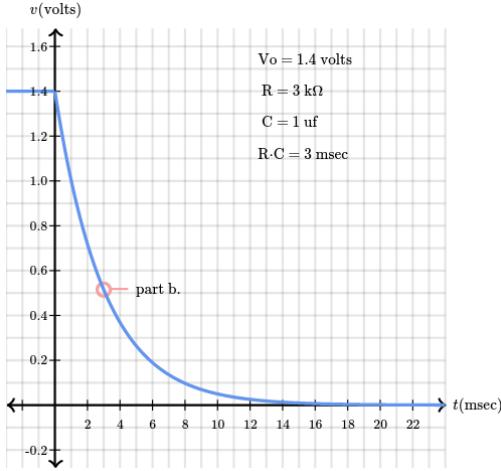


Figure 1.9: Plot RC natural response. From

RC step response

$$\text{Total} = \text{Forced response} + \text{Natural response} \quad (1.12)$$

- Forced response: No start charge on capacitor and connected voltage supply
- Total response: what the circuit actually response.

$$v(t) = V_s + (V_0 - V_s)e^{-t/RC} \quad (1.13)$$

- V_s is the height of the voltage step
- V_0 is the initial voltage on the capacitor

LC natural response

$$s^2 + 1/LC = 0 \quad (1.14)$$

Euler's identities

$$\begin{aligned} e^{+jx} &= \cos x + j \sin x \\ e^{-jx} &= \cos x - j \sin x \end{aligned}$$

where j is the name for $\sqrt{-1}$

Current function of time

$$i(t) = \sqrt{\frac{C}{L}} V_0 \sin \omega_o t \quad (1.15)$$

Natural frequency of LC circuit

$$\omega_0 \equiv \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} \quad (1.16)$$

RLC

The RLC end text circuit is the electronic equivalent of a swinging pendulum with friction.

$$s = \frac{-R \pm \sqrt{R^2 - 4L/C}}{2L} \quad (1.17)$$

$$s = -\alpha \pm \sqrt{\alpha^2 - \omega_o^2} \quad (1.18)$$

where $\alpha = \frac{R}{2L}$ and $\omega_o = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

1.2 Semiconductors

Semiconductors electrical conductivity is between conductors and insulators. The material becomes more “conductivity” or less resistance when the temprature rises. This behavier is oposite to that of metals.

1.2.1 Diodes

Ideal diodes

Cundoct electricity only one way. Current flowes threow Anode (A) to Cathode (K).

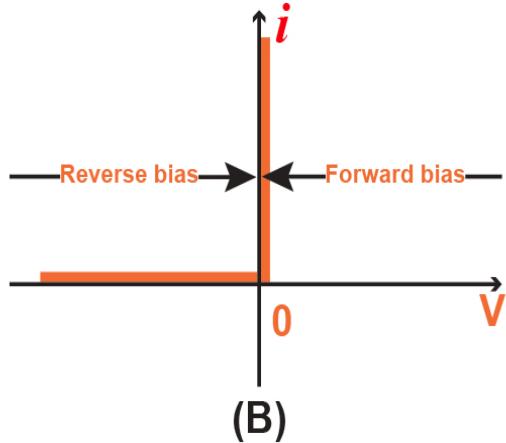


Figure 1.10: ideal diode iv-curv. From

Real diodes

reverse brakedown is when the diode lets negative current. On normal diodes it will perminantly fail, probably melts.

$$i = I_s(e^{qV_d/kT} - 1) \quad (1.19)$$

- k is boltsmans constant ($1.38 * 10^{-23} J/K$ Jouls/Kelvin) $0K = -273^{\circ}C$
- T is tempreture of device (kelvin)
- I_s is strucual current (silicon $10^{-12}A$), the small reverse current
- q is the charge of an electron ($1.1609 * 10^{-19}C$)

Difficult to use formula unless numerical analasys.

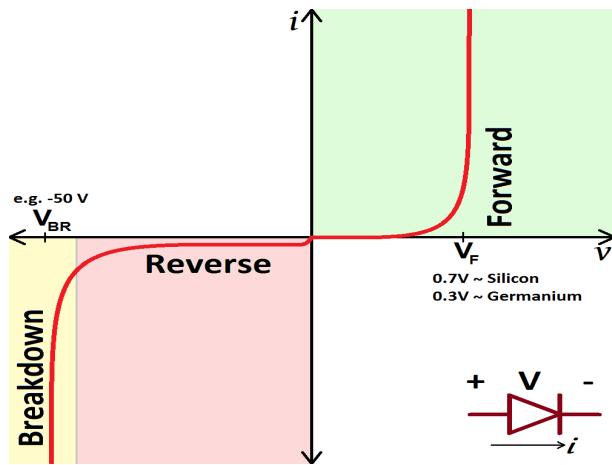


Figure 1.11: real diode iv-curv. From

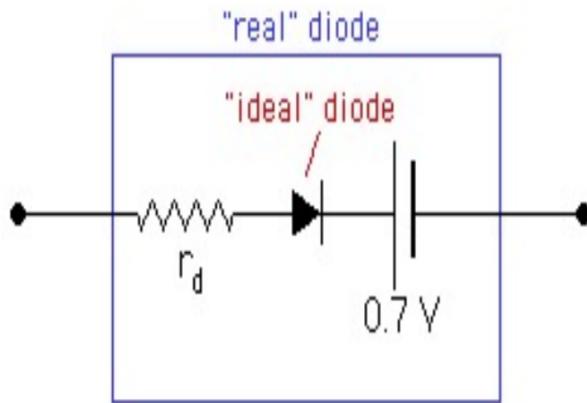
The DC model of a diode

Figure 1.12: real diode dc model. From

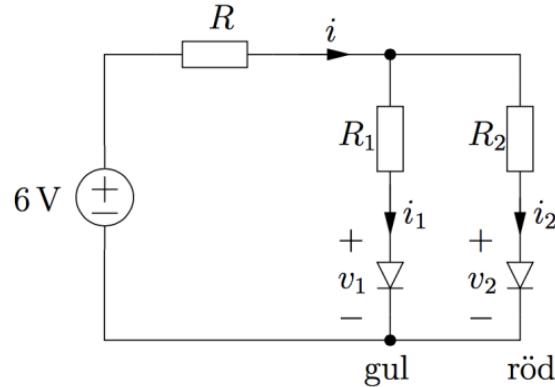
Example: diode

Figure 1.13: diodes example. From

$$i_1 = 40mA, v_1 = 2v$$

$$i_2 = 50mA, v_2 = 1.6v$$

Kirchhoffs strömlag: $i = i_1 + i_2 = 40mA + 50mA = 90mA = 0.09A$

Kirchhoffs spänningsslag: (Loop 1)

$$+ 6 - iR - R_1 i_1 - 2 = 0$$

Kirchhoffs spänningsslag: (Loop 2)

$$+ 6 - Ri - R_2 i_2 - 1.6 = 0$$

Vi har 3 okända och 2 eqvationer. Närmed så kan vi sätta ett värde på R sådant att motstanden ärstöre än noll

$$R = 20\Omega \Rightarrow R_1 = 55\Omega; R_2 = 52\Omega$$

Zener Diodes

Allows to enter and reenter the reverse breakdown without permanently failing. symbol. Just a lower voltage for reverse breakdown used for analog to digital conversion and vice versa and a voltage regulator.

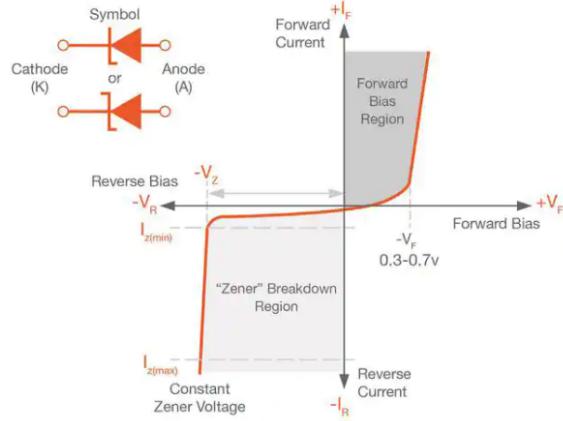


Figure 1.14: zener diode iv-curve. From

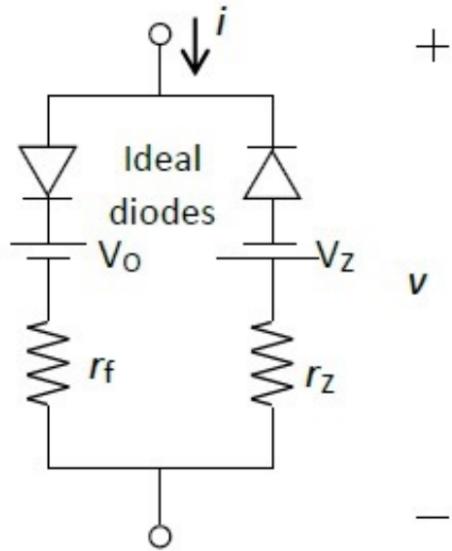


Figure 1.15: zener diode dc model. From

Example Let $V_{in} = 9V$ and $V_z = 5V$. Determent the minimum value of R if the maximum current is $20mA$ threw R , assume $R_L = \text{inf}$. Then determan the minimum resistance for R_L

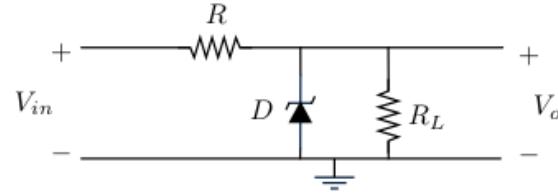


Figure 1.16: zener diode example. From

Let I be the current over R , I_1 the current over the zener diode and I_2 be the current over R_L .

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \frac{V_{in} - V_o}{R} \\ \Rightarrow R &> \frac{9 - 5}{20 \cdot 10^{-3}} \Omega = 200 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{KCL: } I = I_1 + I_2$$

$$I_1 = 0 \text{ if } R_L \text{ is to low}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= \frac{V_o - 0}{R_L} \\ \Rightarrow I &= I_2 \Rightarrow 20mA = \frac{5v}{R_L} \\ \Rightarrow R_L &> \frac{5}{20 \cdot 10^{-3}} \Omega = 250 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

1.2.2 Transistors

All Semiconductors are non linear. But we can use transistors with linear modules.
NPN and PNP symbols. Base (B), Collector (C) and Emitter (E)

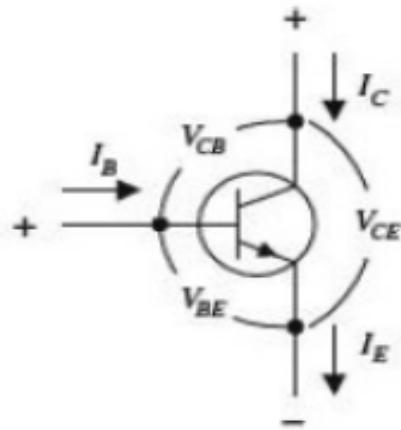


Figure 1.17: Transistor NPN. From

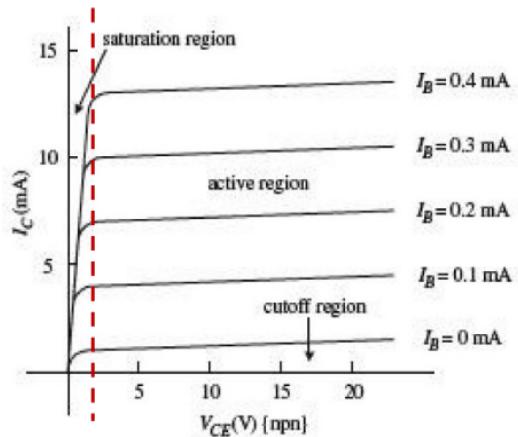


Figure 1.18: Transistor Operational mode. From

Transistor modes**Cutoff:** Open switch

$$I_B = I_E = I_C = 0$$

$$V_{BE}, V_{BC} < 0$$

Saturation: Closed switch

$$V_{CE} \leq V_{CE,sat}, I_B > 0$$

Active: Dependent current source

$$I_E = I_B + I_C, I_C = h_{FE} I_B = \beta I_B$$

$$V_{CE} > V_{CE,sat}, I_B > 0, V_{BC} = V_B - V_C < 0$$

Example: Transistor What is the largest value that R_B can have so that the transistor behaves as a switch (saturation mode)? The transistor has a current gain h_{FE} between 100 and 300. Suppose that $V_{CE,sat} = 0.2V$ and $V_{BE,sat} = 0.7$.

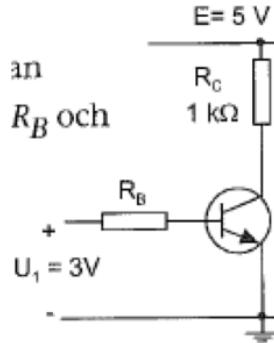


Figure 1.19: Transistor example. From

Om transistorn är bottnad (max current) gäller det att potatien i C (mellan R_C och transistorn)

$$\begin{aligned} V_{CE} &= V_C - V_E = V_C - 0 = V_{CE,sat} \\ V_C &= V_{CE,sat} = 0.2V \end{aligned}$$

⇒ Vi har då ett spänningssfall över R_C på $5 - 0.2 = 4.8V$.

$$R_C \cdot I_C = 4.8V \quad \text{Ohm's law} \Rightarrow I_C = \frac{4.8}{10^3} = 4.8mA$$

Vi vet att $I_C = \beta \cdot I_B$ men är ej säkra på β :s värde. Det kan vara så långt som 100.

Vi kan behöva $I_B = \frac{I_C}{100} = 48\mu A$ för att inte I_C ska bli för liten. Alltså: $I_B > 48\mu A$ för att garantera bottnad transistor.

Betrakta nu slingan där I_B går.

Potentialvandring: $U_1 - R_B I_B - V_{BE,sat} = 0$, $3 - R_B I_B - 0.7 = 0$
eller $2.3 = R_B I_B \Leftrightarrow I_B = \frac{2.3}{R_B}$

Använd olikhet $I_B > 48\mu A \Rightarrow \frac{2.3}{R_B} > 48\mu A \Rightarrow \frac{2.3}{48 \cdot 10^{-6}} > R_B$ eller $R_B < 47.9k\Omega$

1.3 AC Circuit Analysis & Filtering

Note: $G(\omega) = H(\omega)$

- *sinusoidal steady state* same as AC (analysis)
- *phasor* a complex number representation of sinusoid
- *transfer function* relationship with input and output voltage $G(j\omega) = \frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}}$
- *Impedance* representation of $\frac{v_{in}}{i}$ (z)
- *Angular frequency* $\omega = 2\pi f$ where f is frequency in Hz with cycles per second
- *Operational frequency* $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$v(t) = v_p \cos \omega t + \phi \quad (1.20)$$

Phasor 3 representations

- Rectangular form $z = x + jy$
- polar form
- exponential form $z = ze^{j\phi}$

Phasor conversion

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \phi &= \arctan \frac{x}{y} \\ x &= r \cos(\phi) \\ y &= r \sin(\phi) \\ e^{j\phi} &= \cos \phi + j \sin \phi \\ \cos \phi &= Re(e^{j\phi}) \\ \sin \phi &= Im(e^{j\phi}) \end{aligned}$$

Phasor operations

$$\begin{aligned} \text{addition: } z_1 + z_2 &= (x_1 + x_2) + j(y_1 + y_2) \\ \text{subtraction: } z_1 - z_2 &= (x_1 - x_2) + j(y_1 - y_2) \\ \text{multiplication: } z_1 z_2 &= r_1 r_2 / (\phi_1 + \phi_2) \\ \text{division: } \frac{z_1}{z_2} &= \frac{r_1}{r_2} / (\phi_1 - \phi_2) \\ \text{inverse: } \frac{1}{z} &= \frac{1}{r} / (-\phi) \\ \text{square root: } \sqrt{z} &= \sqrt{r} / (\phi/2) \\ \text{complex conjugate: } z^* &= x - jy \end{aligned}$$

Transfer function

$$H(j\omega) = |H(j\omega)| / \underline{H(j\omega)}$$

$$H(w) = \frac{v_o(w)}{v_i(w)}$$

Euler formula

$$e^{jx} = \cos x + j \sin x$$

$$e^{-jx} = \cos x - j \sin x$$

They are used to represent sinus wave.

We instead calculate with complex exponentials with euler formula instead of sinus waves

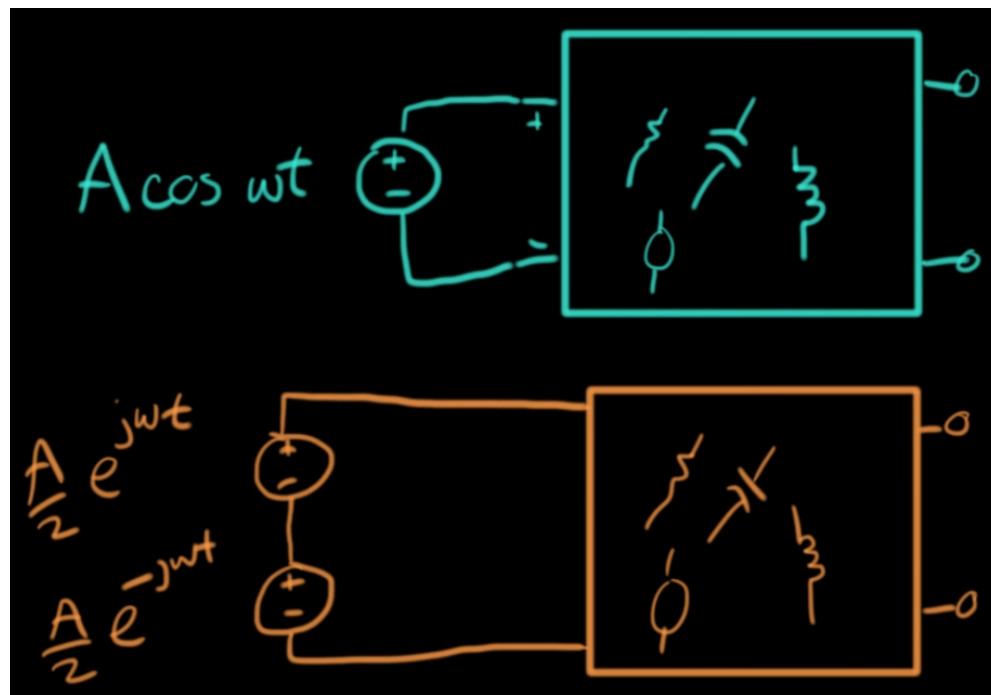


Figure 1.20: AC euler represent demostration. From

AC Resistor representation

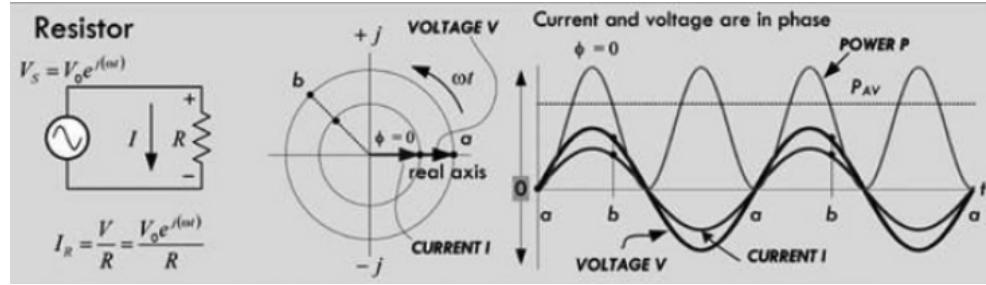


Figure 1.21: AC resistor represent. From

1.3.1 Impedance

Impedance $\frac{v_{in}}{i}$ (z)

$$\text{Resistor : } \frac{v}{i} = R$$

$$\text{Inductor : } \frac{v}{i} = jwl$$

$$\text{Capasitor : } \frac{v}{i} = \frac{1}{jwc}$$

1.3.2 Filters

The filter can either be active and passive filters:

- *Passive filters* only use active components like resistor, capacitor and inductor
- *Active filters* use opamp (can amplify output)

There are 4 common filtering types:

- *High-pass filter (HP)* lets higher frequency pass through
- *Low-pass filter (LP)* lets lower frequency pass through
- *Bandpass filter (BP)* within a frequency band. Can be combined with HP and LP in series
- *Notch filter* opposite of BP

Filters can be constructed as follows:

RC filter, RL Filter, LC filter, L-filter, π-filter and T-filter.

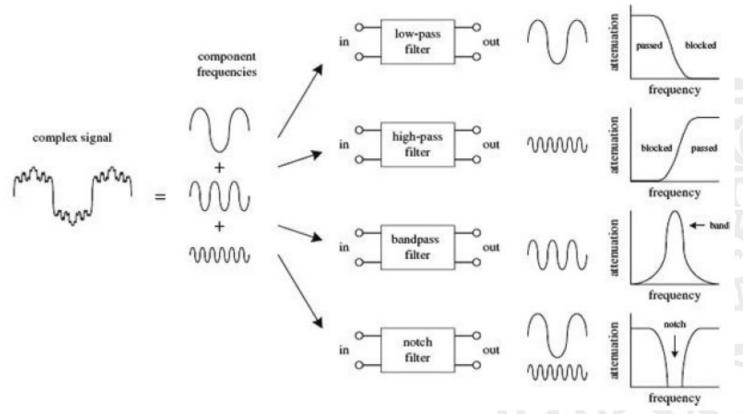


Figure 1.22: Signal filtering. From

Some resources to construct filters

- RF tools
- Filterwizard

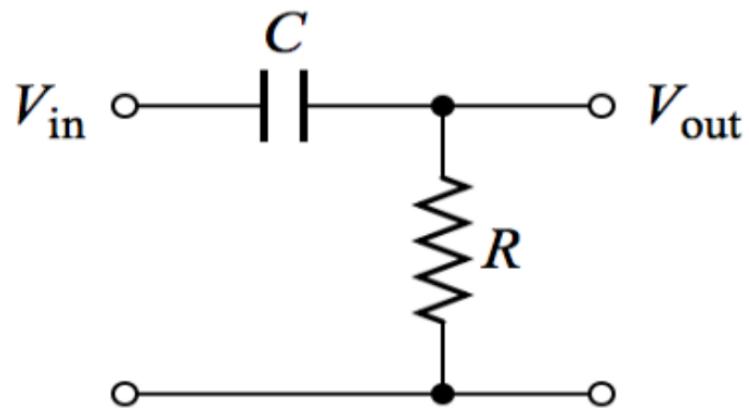
Example: HP filter

Figure 1.23: HP Filter Circuit.png. From

$$\begin{aligned}
V_{out} &= V_{in} \frac{z_R}{z_C + z_R} \quad \text{-From voltage divider circuit} \\
&= V_{in} \frac{R}{\frac{1}{j\omega c} + R} \quad \text{-From impedance axiom} \\
&= V_{in} \frac{\frac{R}{1}}{\frac{R(j\omega c) + 1}{j\omega c}} = V_{in} \frac{R(j\omega c)}{R(j\omega c) + 1}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore we get $G_{HP} = \frac{R(j\omega c)}{R(j\omega c) + 1}$

$$\begin{aligned}
|G_{HP}| &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{R\omega c}{\sqrt{R^2\omega^2c^2 + 1}} \\
&\Rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{R^2\omega^2c^2 + 1}}{\sqrt{2}} = R\omega c \\
&\Rightarrow \frac{R^2\omega^2c^2 + 1}{2} = R^2\omega^2c^2 \\
&\Rightarrow R^2\omega^2c^2 + 1 = 2R^2\omega^2c^2 \\
&\Rightarrow R^2\omega^2c^2 = 1 \\
&\Rightarrow R\omega c = 1 \\
&\Rightarrow R = \frac{1}{\omega c}
\end{aligned}$$

The following is given: $\omega = 2\pi f$, $1kHz$ for HP filter. The capacitor should not be larger than $2.2\mu F$. Therefore we chose $c = 1\mu F$, this gives us $R \approx 160\Omega$.

$$\begin{aligned}
arg(G_{HP}) &= arg\left(\frac{160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j}{160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j + 1}\right) \\
&= arg(160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j) - arg(160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j + 1) \\
&= \frac{\pi}{2} - arctan\left(\frac{160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f}{1}\right) \\
&= \frac{\pi}{2} - arctan\left(\frac{\pi \cdot f}{3125}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
arg(G_{HP}) &= arg\left(\frac{160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j}{160 \cdot 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot f \cdot j + 1}\right) \\
&\Rightarrow \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} / \phi_1 - \phi_2 \\
&\Rightarrow \frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{\sqrt{(0.32 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot f\pi)^2}}{\sqrt{(0.32 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot f\pi)^2 + 1}} / \arctan 0 - \arctan \frac{1}{0.32 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot f\pi} \\
&\Rightarrow arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = -\arctan \frac{1}{0.32 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot f\pi} \\
&= -\arctan \frac{1}{0.32 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot f\pi} \\
&= \frac{\pi}{2} - \arctan \frac{f\pi}{3125}
\end{aligned}$$

Example: exponential representation

$$\begin{aligned}
H(j\omega) &= \frac{j\pi}{1 + j2\pi} = |H(j\omega)| e^{j\arg(H(j\omega))} \\
\Rightarrow |H(j\omega)| &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi^2}}{\sqrt{1^2 + 2^2\pi^2}} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{1 + 4\pi^2}}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\arg(H(j\omega)) &= \arg\left(\frac{j\pi}{1 + j2\pi}\right) = \arctan\left(\frac{0}{\pi}\right) - \arctan\left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right) \\
&= \frac{\pi}{2} - \arctan(2\pi) \\
\Rightarrow H(j\omega) &= \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{1 + 4\pi^2}} e^{j\arctan(2\pi)}
\end{aligned}$$

Series of filter

One can commbind filters to create more complex filters. The transfer function will be the multiplication of

$$G_{tot} = G_1 \cdot G_2 \cdot \dots \cdot G_n \quad (1.21)$$

The Gain will be the gain for each individual transfer function multiplied

$$|G_{tot}| = |G_1| \cdot |G_2| \cdot \dots \cdot |G_n| \quad (1.22)$$

The phase function is the sum of the phase functions

$$\text{Arg}(G_{tot}) = \text{Arg}(G_1) + \text{Arg}(G_2) + \dots + \text{Arg}(G_n) \quad (1.23)$$

Chapter 2

Op-Amp

Op-Amp is a type of amplifier for data signals. Saturates mean that it will become a state line since it can not become more than the input nor can it be less than what is going in the opposite direction. $v_0 = A(v^+ - v^-)$

The current to v^- and v^+ will be close to zero and in an ideal circuit will be zero.
We can say $v^- = v^+$ when there is a feedback loop (negative terminal and non-inverting amp).

2.1 Inside Op-Amp

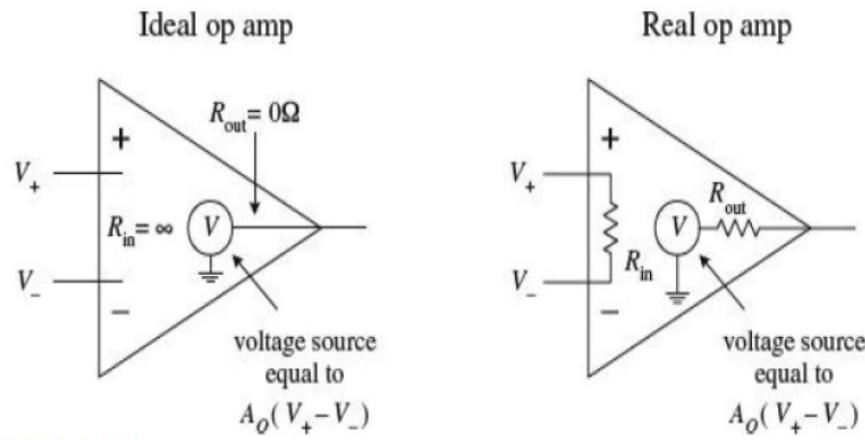


Figure 2.1: Inside opAmp. From

In ideal op amp the resistance will be infinity. However, in reality there is no infinite resistance therefore if one would have a voltage divider with larger resistance then the internal resistance the current will go through V_+ and V_- . The output is 0Ω so we will not have any voltage drop, not in reality, however.

2.2 Implementation of Op-Amp

Comparator

An op amp without negative feedback (a comparator)

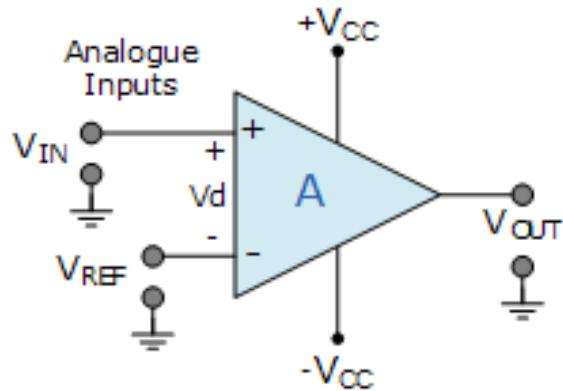


Figure 2.2: Op-Amp comparator. From

When $V_+ > V_-$ then $V_o = +V_{cc}$. When $V_+ < V_-$ then $V_o = -V_{cc}$

2.2.1 Non inverting (with feedback loop)

Amplifies the input but dose not change it sign (non inverting). An op amp with negative feedback (a non-inverting amplifier)

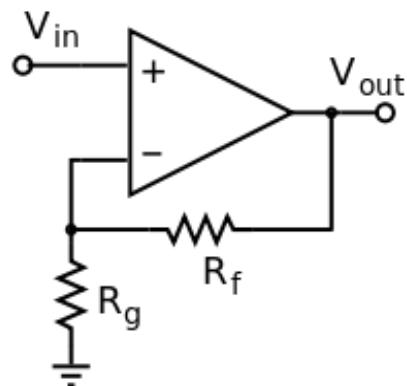


Figure 2.3: Op-Amp Feedback (Non inverting). From

2.2.2 Voltage follower

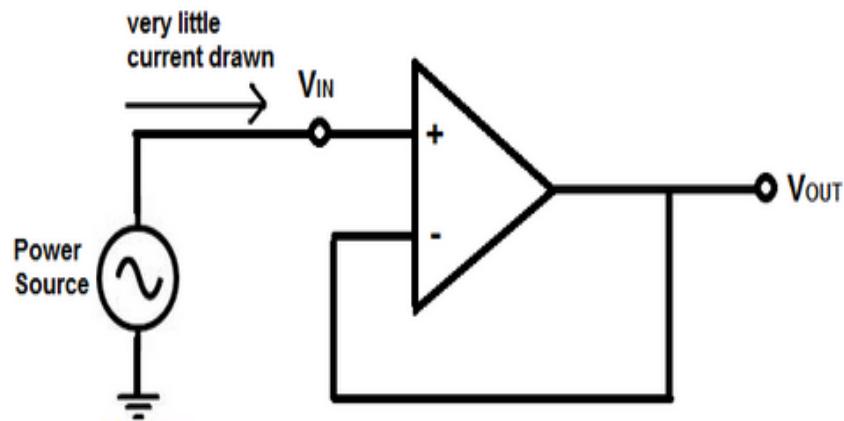


Figure 2.4: Op-Amp voltage follower. From

$$v_+ = v_- = v_{in} = v_{out}$$

2.2.3 Inverting

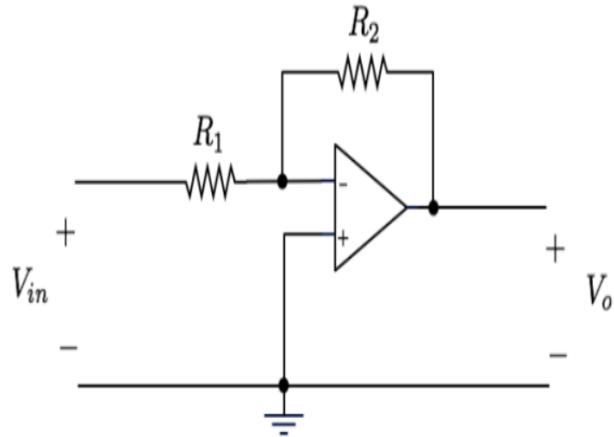


Figure 2.5: Op-Amp voltage follower. From

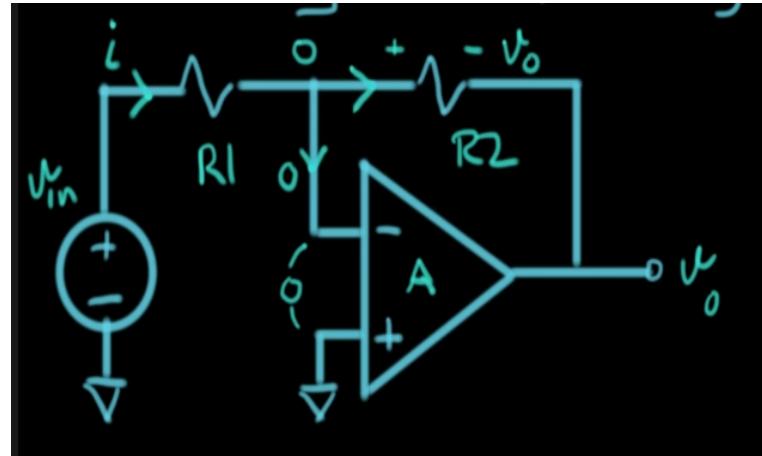


Figure 2.6: Op-Amp calculations for inverting. From

As seen from the image the current will be $i = v_{in}/R_1$ and $i = -v_0/R_2$. We combined them and get:
 $V_0 = \frac{-R_2}{R_1} V_{in}$

2.2.4 Summing

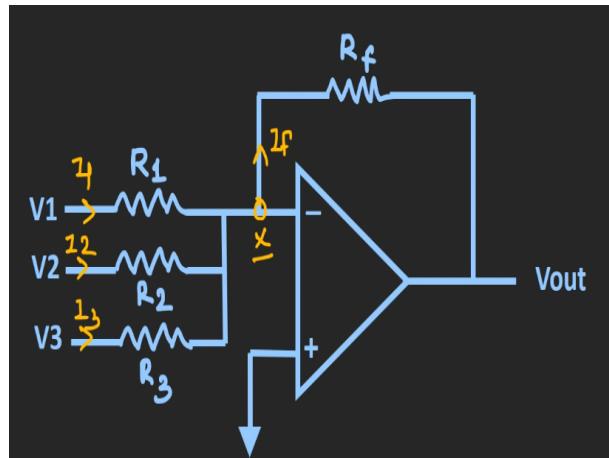


Figure 2.7: Op-Amp summing. From

$$\text{Applying KCL we get: } I_f = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 \frac{v_1 - 0}{R_1} + \frac{v_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} = \frac{0 - v_{out}}{R_f} \Rightarrow v_{out} = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2}V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3}V_3\right)$$

2.3 General example

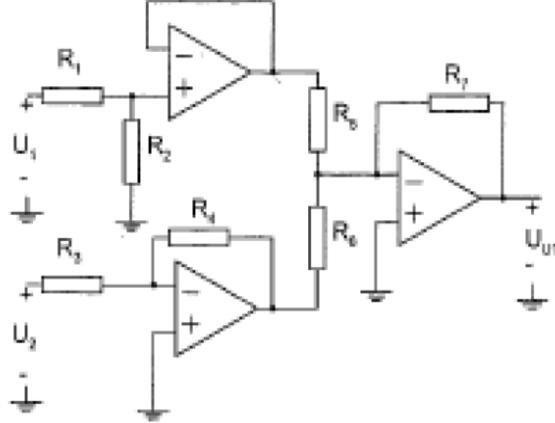


Figure 2.8: Op-Amp example. From

General observations: We can divide the circuit into three pieces. The one on the top is a *Voltage follower*, we can call it circuit 1. The one on the bottom is a *Inverting op-amp* as is the middle one. We can name the bottom one circuit 2 and the middle one is circuit 3.

We start with circuit 3:

We name node A between R_5 and R_6 . KCL: $I = I_5 + I_6$ and $I = I_7$ since there is no current in $-$ terminal.

$$I = \frac{-U_{out}}{R_7} = I_5 + I_6 = \frac{v_{O1}}{R_5} + \frac{v_{O2}}{R_6}$$

Because of Ohm's law and $v_{overresistor} = v_{head} - v_{tail}$.

To solve v_{O1} we need to solve circuit 1:

Applying KCL between R_1 and R_2 we get $I_1 = I_2 + I_3$ were $I_3 = 0$ since there is no current going in the $+$ terminal. $I_1 = I_2$ Ohm's law result in $\frac{U_1 - v_{O1}}{R_1} = \frac{v_{O1} - 0}{R_2}$ since in a voltage follow circuit

$$v^- = v^+ = v_{out}. \text{ We then get } v_{out} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} U_1$$

$$\text{then } I_5 = \frac{R_2}{(R_1 + R_2)R_5} U_1.$$

To solve v_{O2} we need to solve circuit 2:

KCL gives $I_3 = I_4$ since there is no current in $-$ terminal.

$$\text{Ohm's law } \frac{U_2 - v^-}{R_3} = \frac{v^- - v_{O2}}{R_4}.$$

$$v^- = v^+ = 0 \text{ with result in } \frac{U_2}{R_3} = \frac{-v_{O2}}{R_4}.$$

$$v_{O2} = \frac{-R_4}{R_3} U_2$$

$$\text{The current } I_6 = \frac{-R_4}{R_3 R_6} U_2$$

Going back to circuit 3:

$$I = I_5 + I_6 = \frac{R_2}{(R_1+R_2)R_5} U_1 + \frac{-R_4}{R_3R_6} U_2$$

results in $\frac{-U_{ut}}{R_7} = \frac{R_2}{(R_1+R_2)R_5} U_1 + \frac{-R_4}{R_3R_6} U_2$.

Final result: $U_{out} = -R_7 \left(\frac{R_2}{R_5(R_1+R_2)} U_1 - \frac{R_4}{R_3R_5} U_2 \right)$