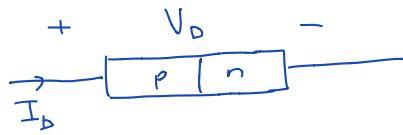


DIODE CIRCUITSpn Junction Diode

$$I_D = I_s \left( e^{\frac{V_D}{nV_T}} - 1 \right) \quad : \text{Shockley equation}$$

$I_s$ : reverse-bias saturation current

- depends on doping concentration
- proportional to cross-sectional area

For silicon pn junction:  $10^{-18} - 10^{-12} \text{ A}$

$$V_T : \text{thermal voltage}, V_T = \frac{k \cdot T}{e_q} \approx 26 \text{ mV} \quad @ 300 \text{ K}$$

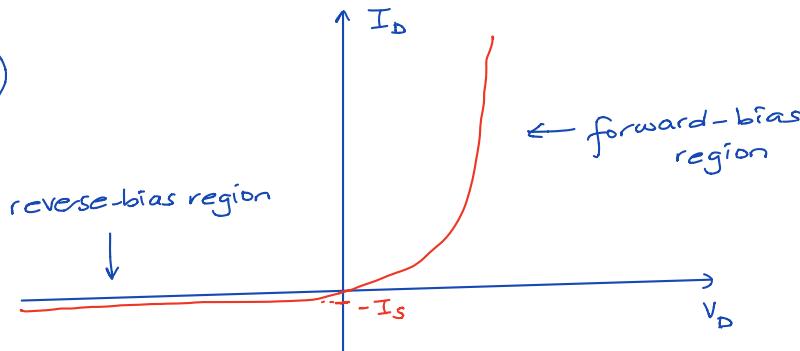
$n$ : emission coefficient,  $1 \leq n \leq 2$

@ low current levels,  $n \approx 2$

@ high current levels,  $n \approx 1$

Assume  $n \approx 1$  unless otherwise stated.

$$* I_D = I_s \left( e^{\frac{V_D}{nV_T}} - 1 \right)$$



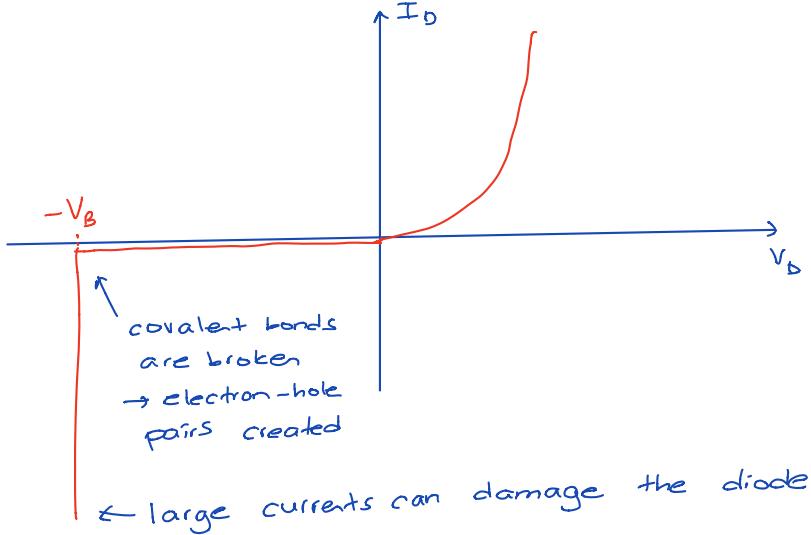
Passive device:  $P_D = I_D \cdot V_D \geq 0$  always

Example: pn junction @ 300K,  $n=1$ ,  $V_T = 26 \text{ mV}$ ,  $I_s = 10^{-14} \text{ A}$

$$* \text{when } V_D = 0.7 \text{ V}, I_D = I_s \left( e^{\frac{V_D}{nV_T}} - 1 \right) = 10^{-14} \left( e^{\frac{700 \text{ mV}}{26 \text{ mV}}} - 1 \right) \approx 4.93 \text{ mA} \Rightarrow \text{a small forward bias voltage can induce moderate current}$$

$$* \text{when } V_D = -0.7 \text{ V}, I_D = 10^{-14} \left( e^{\frac{-700 \text{ mV}}{26 \text{ mV}}} - 1 \right) \approx -10^{-14} \text{ A} \Rightarrow \text{in reverse bias, the current is virtually zero.}$$

\* In reality, there is also breakdown:

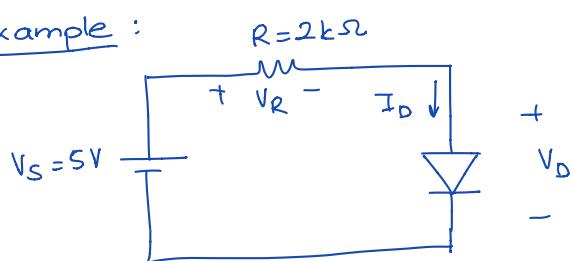


$$V_B \sim 50-200\text{V}$$

→ can be made smaller with larger doping (Zener diodes)

### Diode Circuits

Example:



For the diode, assume  $I_s = 10^{-13}\text{A}$ ,  $n=1$ ,  $V_T = 26\text{mV}$ .

$$\text{KVL: } V_S = V_R + V_D$$

$$V_S = I_D \cdot 2\text{k}\Omega + V_D$$

$$V_S = R \cdot I_s \left[ e^{\frac{V_D}{nV_T}} - 1 \right] + V_D$$

\* solving this equation is not easy.

method 1: Iterative approach

\* Try  $V_D = 0.6\text{V}$

$$V_S \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \cdot 10^3 \cdot 10^{-13} \left[ e^{\frac{600\text{mV}}{26\text{mV}}} - 1 \right] + 0.6 \text{ V}$$

$$5 \neq 2.7\text{V}$$

\* Try  $V_D = 0.65\text{V}$

$$V_S \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \cdot 10^3 \cdot 10^{-13} \left[ e^{\frac{650\text{mV}}{26\text{mV}}} - 1 \right] + 0.65 \text{ V}$$

$$5 \neq 15.05\text{V}$$

$V_D$

$0.6\text{V}$

$0.65\text{V}$

:

$0.619\text{V}$

Right-Hand Side

$2.7\text{V}$

$15.05\text{V}$

:

$4.99\text{V}$

]} after some iterations

Then,  $V_D = 0.619V$

$$I_D = \frac{5 - 0.619}{2k} = 2.19 \text{ mA} \quad \leftarrow \text{much easier}$$

$$\text{OR}, \quad I_D = 10^{-13} \left[ e^{\frac{619 \text{ mV}}{26 \text{ mV}}} - 1 \right] = 2.19 \text{ mA}$$

Method 1: Alternative: logarithmic iteration approach

$$V_S = R \cdot I_S \left[ e^{\frac{V_D}{nV_T}} - 1 \right] + V_D$$

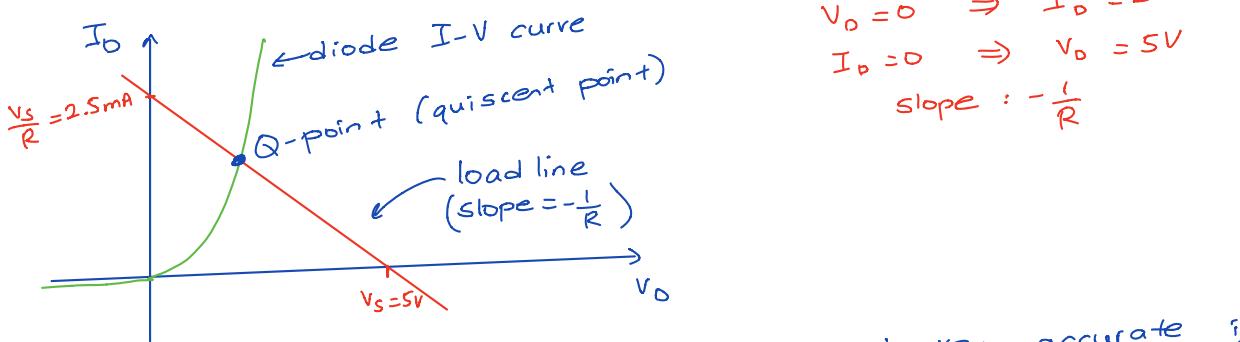
$$V_D = nV_T \cdot \ln \left( \frac{V_S - V_D}{R \cdot I_S} + 1 \right)$$

\* Try  $V_D = 0.6V$

$$V_D = 0.026 \times \ln \left( \frac{5 - 0.6}{2 \cdot 10^3 \cdot 10^{-13}} + 1 \right) = 0.619V \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{converges} \\ \text{a lot more} \\ \text{quickly!} \end{array}$$

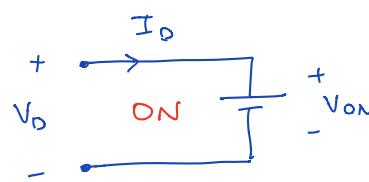
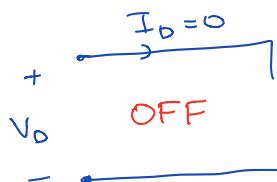
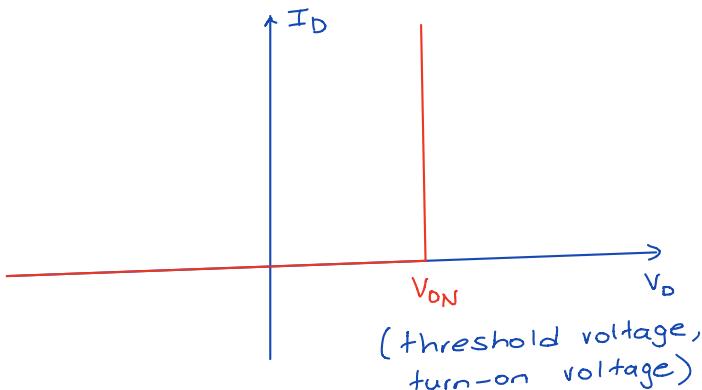
Method 2: Graphical approach

$$V_S = I_D \cdot R + V_D \Rightarrow I_D = \frac{V_S}{R} - \frac{V_D}{R} = \frac{5 - V_D}{2k\Omega} \quad \leftarrow \text{linear relationship between } V_D, I_D$$



\* This method is convenient and very accurate if you have a plotting tool (e.g., MATLAB)

Piecewise Linear model: a simplified model



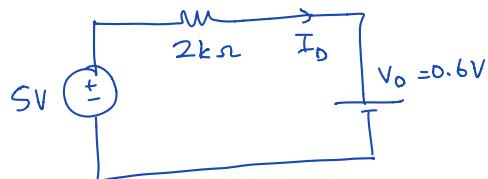
OFF:  $V_D < V_{ON}$ ,  $I_D = 0$

ON:  $I_D > 0$ ,  $V_D = V_{ON}$

For previous example:

\* Assuming ON state for diode,  $V_{ON} = 0.6V$

$$V_D = V_{ON} = 0.6V$$

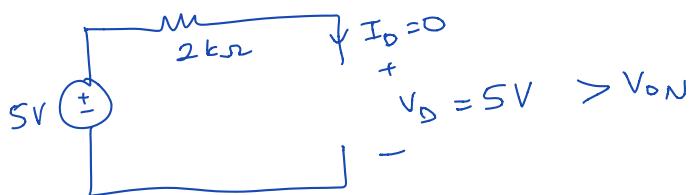


$$\text{Then, } I_D = \frac{5 - 0.6}{2k} = 2.2 \text{ mA}$$

Very close  
to previous result

\* If we assumed OFF state:

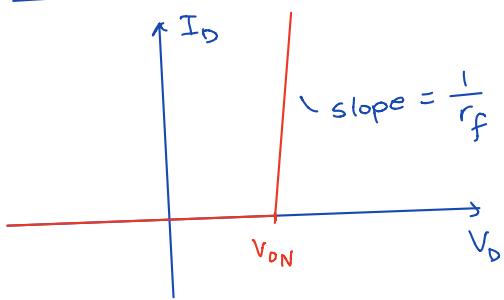
$I_D = 0$ , we assume  $V_D < V_{ON}$



Contradiction.

$\Rightarrow$  it cannot be the solution.

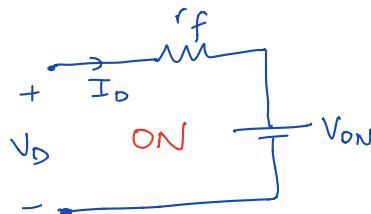
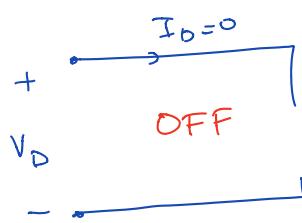
Improved model:



OFF:  $V_D < V_{ON}$ ,  $I_D = 0$

ON:  $I_D > 0$ ,  $V_D = V_{ON} + r_f \cdot I_D$

$r_f$ : Forward diode resistance



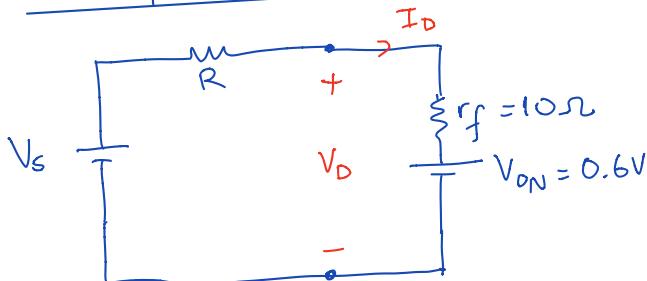
For previous example:

Assume ON operation,  $V_{ON} = 0.6V$ ,  $r_f = 10\Omega$

$$I_D = \frac{V_S - V_{ON}}{R + r_f} = \frac{5 - 0.6}{2 \cdot 10^3 + 10} = 2.19 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_D = I_D \cdot r_f + V_{ON} = 0.622 \text{ V}$$

much closer!!



since  $R \gg r_f$ , using  $r_f$  in the model does not make a huge difference.

In general for diode circuits:

\* Assume the diode is ON or OFF, solve circuit, and check your assumptions. In most cases, we ignore 'f' since it is typically small when compared to the resistances in the rest of the circuit

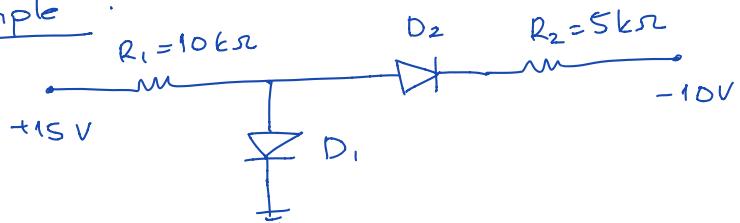
\* So, we typically use the following model:

$$\text{OFF} : V_D < V_{ON}, I_D = 0$$

$$\text{ON} : I_D > 0, V_D = V_{ON}$$

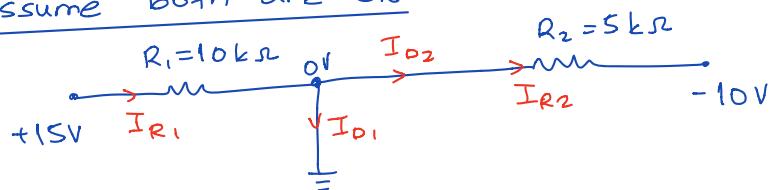
where  $V_{ON} \sim 0.6\text{-}0.7\text{V}$  for most diodes.

Example :



Assume ideal diodes,  
 $V_{ON} = 0$

\* Assume both are ON:



$V_{D1} = 0$       } short circuit  
 $V_{D2} = 0$

$$I_{R1} = \frac{15-0}{10k} = 1.5 \text{ mA}$$

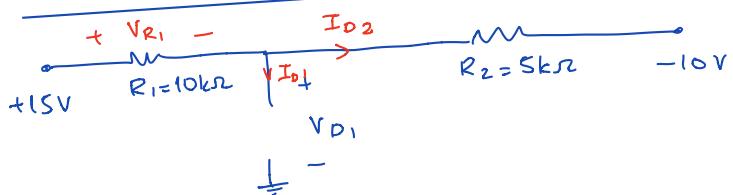
$$I_{R2} = I_{D2} = \frac{0-(-10)}{5k} = 2 \text{ mA} > 0 \quad \checkmark \quad I_{D2} > 0, \text{ O.K.}$$

$$\text{KCL} : -I_{R1} + I_{D1} + I_{D2} = 0$$

$$I_{D1} = -0.5 \text{ mA} < 0$$

X contradiction with  $D_1$  ON.  
we need  $I_{D1} > 0$

\* Assume  $D_1$  OFF,  $D_2$  ON:



$$I_{D1} = 0$$

$$I_{D2} = \frac{15-(-10)}{10k+5k} = 1.67 \text{ mA} > 0$$

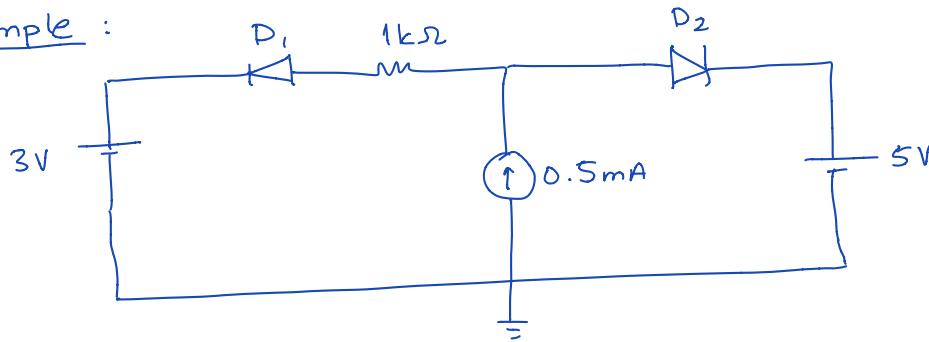
✓ O.K. for  $D_2$

$$\text{KVL} : 15 = V_{R1} + V_{D1} = R_1 \cdot I_{D2} + V_{D1}$$

$$V_{D1} = 15 - (10k \cdot 1.67 \text{ mA}) = -1.67 \text{ V} < V_{ON}=0 \quad \checkmark \quad \text{O.K.}$$

⇒ so, this is the solution.

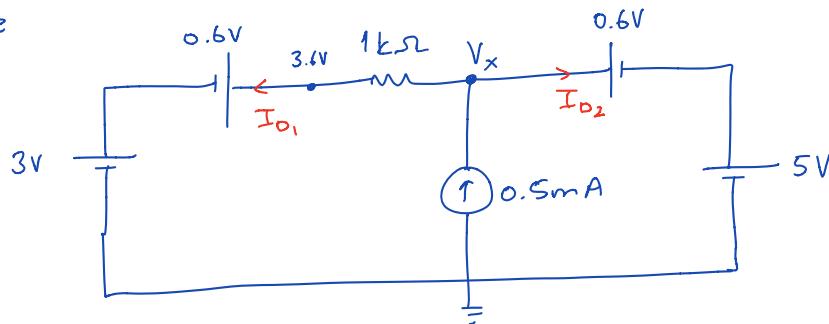
Example :



$$V_{DN} = 0.6V$$

\* Both diodes cannot be OFF, since 0.5 mA current has to flow somewhere

Assume both ON :

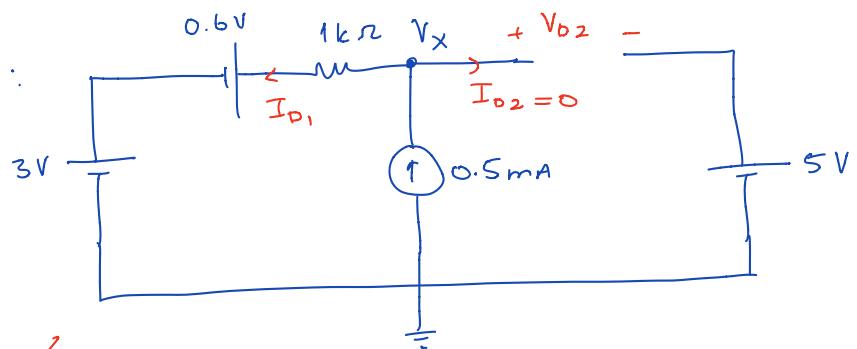


$$V_x = 5 + 0.6 = 5.6V$$

$$I_{D1} = \frac{V_x - 3.6}{1k} = \frac{5.6 - 3.6}{1k} = 2mA > 0 \quad \checkmark \text{ O.K.}$$

KCL at Vx :  $I_{D1} + I_{D2} = 0.5mA \Rightarrow I_{D2} = -1.5mA < 0$  ~~conflict~~

Assume D1 ON, D2 OFF :



$$I_{D1} = 0.5mA > 0 \quad \checkmark$$

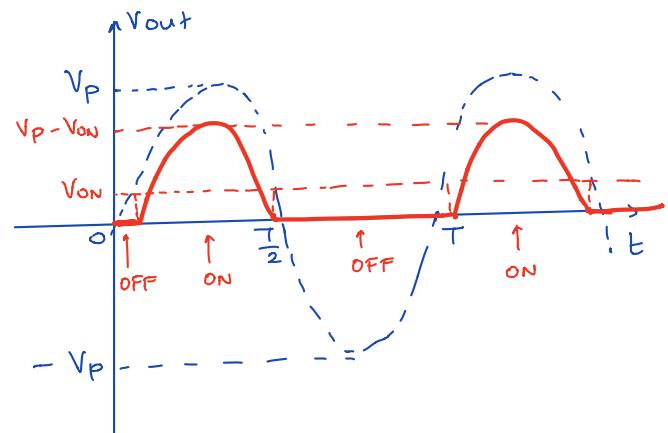
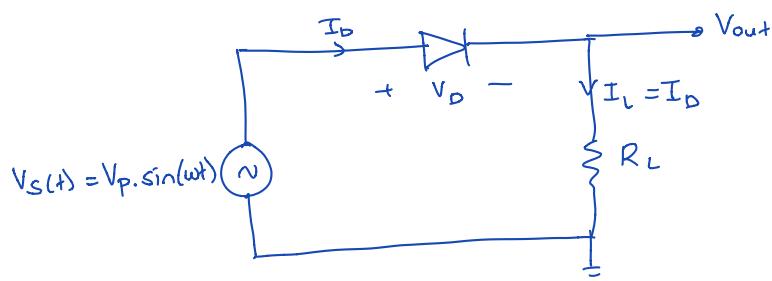
$$V_x = 3 + 0.6V + 1k \cdot I_{D1} = 3.6 + 0.5 = 4.1V$$

$$V_{D2} = V_x - 5 = 4.1 - 5 = -0.9V < V_{DN} \quad \checkmark$$

$\Rightarrow$  so, this is the solution

## Half-wave Rectifier:

- \* A rectifier is the first stage of a DC power supply. used in converting the AC signal to DC.



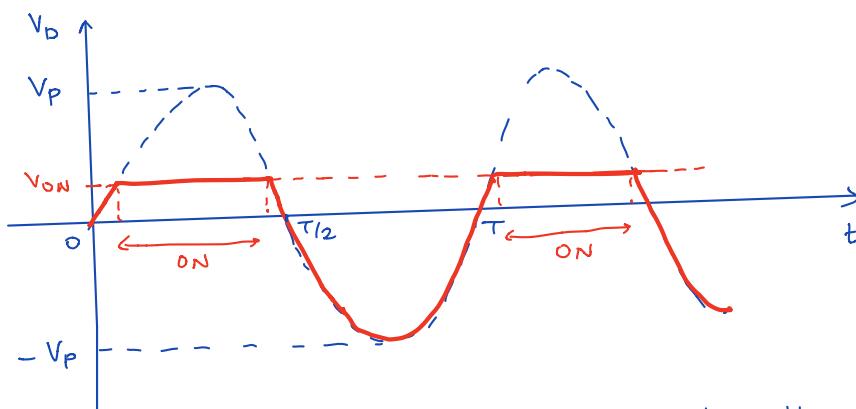
\* When  $V_s < V_{ON}$ , the diode is OFF  $\Rightarrow I_D = 0$ ,  $V_{out} = R_L \cdot I_D = 0$

\* When  $V_s > V_{ON}$ , the diode is ON  $\Rightarrow V_D = V_{ON}$   
 $V_{out} \approx V_s - V_{ON}$   
 $I_D = \frac{V_s - V_{ON}}{R_L}$

\*  $V_D = V_s - V_{out}$

$$= \begin{cases} V_s, & \text{when diode OFF} \\ V_{ON}, & \text{when diode ON} \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} V_s, & \text{when } V_s < V_{ON} \\ V_{ON}, & \text{when } V_s > V_{ON} \end{cases}$$



- \* The diode must be able to handle:
  - the peak current :  $I_{D,\max} = \frac{V_{out,\max}}{R_L} = \frac{V_p - V_{ON}}{R_L}$
  - $(-V_p)$  voltage in the reverse bias case.

\* Assume  $V_{ON} = 0$ ,  
Then, the diode conducts during half of the period,  
and the average  $V_{out}$  is not zero.

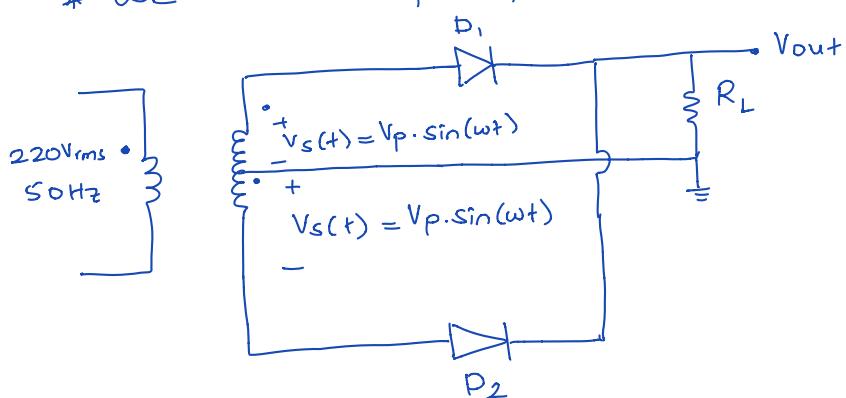
$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{out, avg} &= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T V_{out}(t) dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{T/2} V_p \sin(\omega t) dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{T} \left( -\frac{V_p}{\omega} \right) \cos(\omega t) \Big|_0^{T/2} = -\frac{V_p}{T \cdot \omega} \left[ \cos\left(\omega \cdot \frac{T}{2}\right) - 1 \right] \\
 &= -\frac{V_p}{T \cdot \frac{2\pi}{T}} \cdot \underbrace{\left[ \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T} \cdot \frac{T}{2}\right) - 1 \right]}_{-1} \\
 &= -\frac{V_p}{2\pi} (-2) = \boxed{\frac{V_p}{\pi}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}$

← non-zero average voltage at the output

### Full-wave Rectifier:

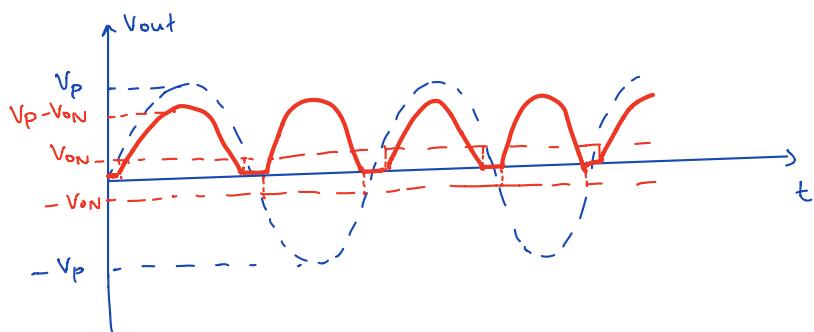
\* We lose half of the sinewave in half-wave rectifier.



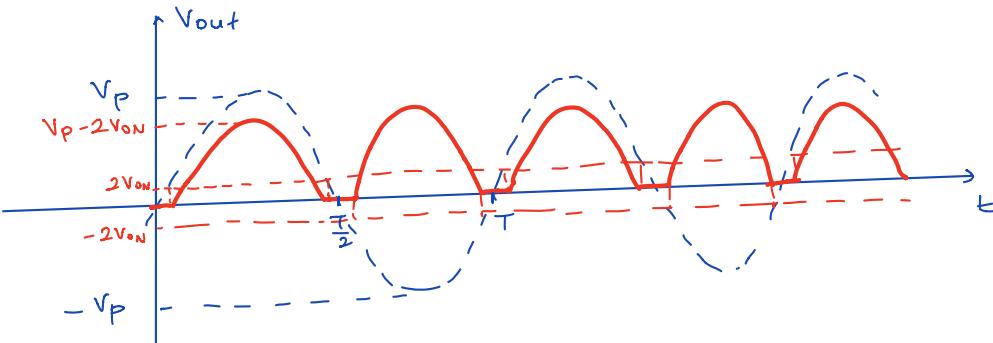
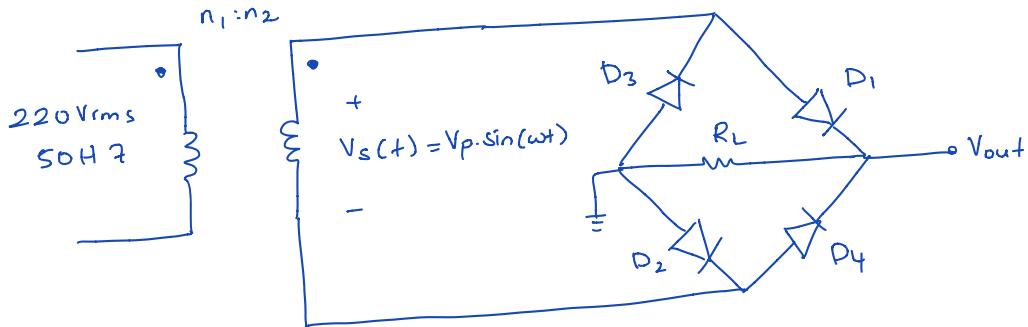
\* a center-tapped transformer

\*  $D_1$  will conduct during the positive half cycle.

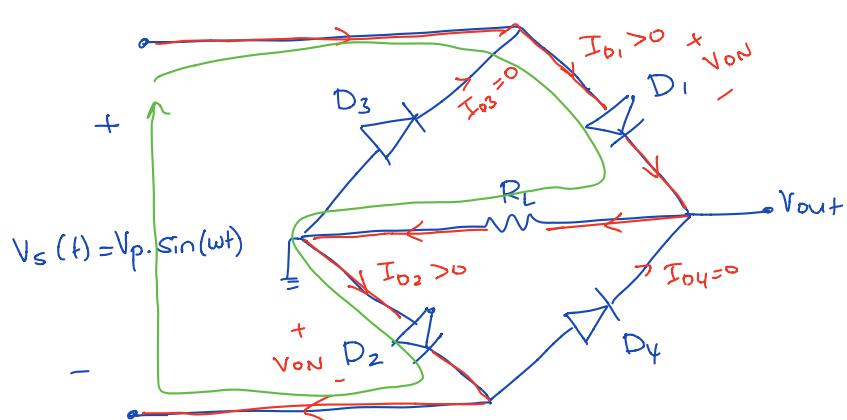
\*  $D_2$  will conduct during the negative half cycle.



### Another full-wave rectifier



\* When  $V_s$  is positive and sufficiently large (i.e.,  $V_s > 2V_{on}$ ):

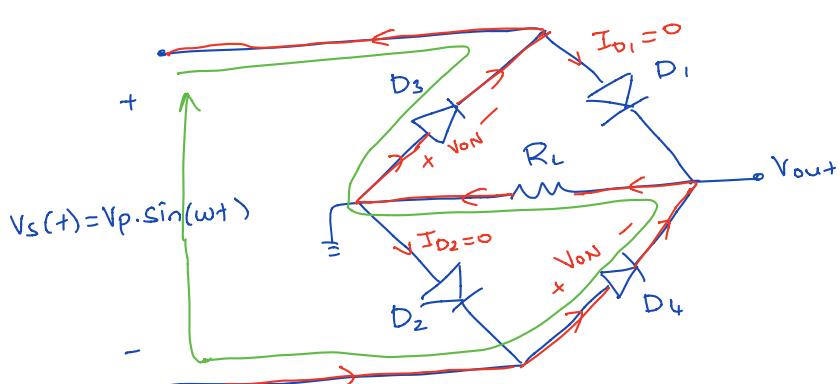


$D_1, D_2$  will be ON  
 $D_3, D_4$  will be OFF

$$\text{KVL: } V_{on} + V_{out} + V_{on} - V_s = 0$$

$$V_{out} = V_s - 2V_{on}$$

\* When  $V_s$  is negative and sufficiently large (i.e.,  $V_s < -2V_{on}$ )



$D_1, D_2$  will be OFF  
 $D_3, D_4$  will be ON

$$\text{KVL: } -V_{on} - V_{out} - V_{on} - V_s = 0$$

$$V_{out} = -V_s - 2V_{on}$$

\* So, overall,  $V_{out} = \begin{cases} |V_s| - 2V_{on}, & \text{when } |V_s| > 2V_{on} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

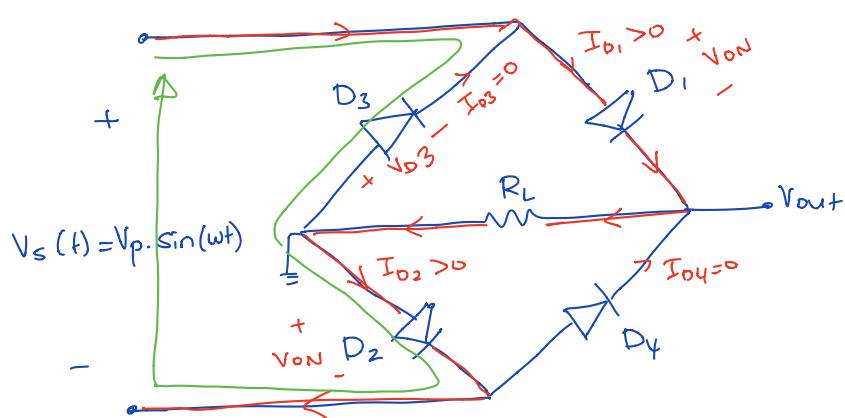
\* Turns ratio needed for the transformer:

If we want 9V peak at the output, with  $V_{ON} = 0.6V$   
 $9V = V_p - 2V_{ON} \Rightarrow V_p = 9 + 2 \times 0.6 = 10.2V$

On the primary side: 220 Vrms  $\Rightarrow$  peak voltage  $= 220 \times \sqrt{2}$   
 $= 311 V\text{-peak}$

Then, the turns ratio:  $\frac{n_1}{n_2} = \frac{311}{10.2} = 30.5$

\* The peak reverse diode voltage:



$$\text{KVL: } -V_{D3} + V_{ON} - V_S = 0$$

$$V_{D3} = -V_S + V_{ON}$$

Peak reverse diode voltage:

$$|V_{D3, \text{peak}}| = V_p - V_{ON}$$

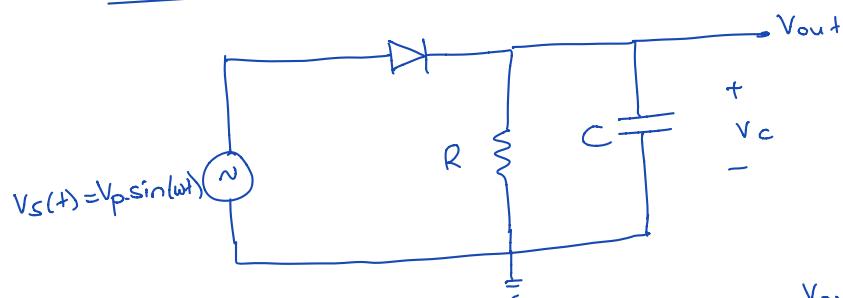
↳ same for other diodes

In our case,

$$|V_{D3, \text{peak}}| = 10.2 - 0.6 = 9.6V$$

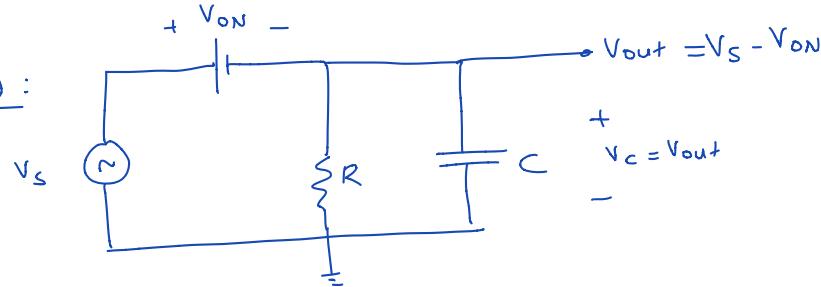
In the book, this is called peak inverse voltage (PIV).

Rectifier with Filter:



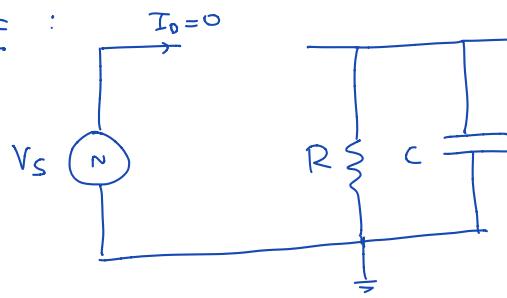
\* Assume initial capacitor voltage is 0.

\* when diode is ON:



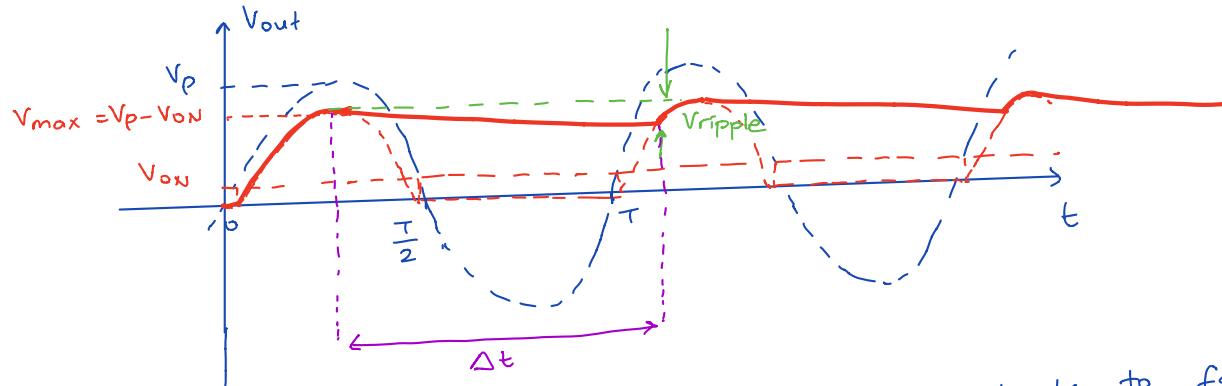
$V_{out}$  will rise with  $V_S$  initially.

\* when diode is OFF :

 $V_{out}$ 

↑

will decrease exponentially,  
with  $\tau = R.C$



\* when  $V_s$  reaches its max and starts to fall,  $C$  should discharge and the only path is through  $R$ . So, diode turns OFF. If  $\tau = R.C \gg T$ , then  $V_{out} (=V_c)$  remains relatively constant.

\* when diode turns back ON, capacitor charges again.  
\* This action converts AC to DC, and  $C$  is the filter capacitor.

\* The ripple voltage :

At the end of discharging:  $V_{out} = V_{max} e^{-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau}}$ ,  $\tau = R.C$   
and  $\tau \gg T$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ripple} &= V_{max} - V_{max} e^{-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau}} \\ &= V_{max} \left( 1 - e^{-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

\* Since  $\tau \gg T$ ,  $\Delta t \approx T \ll \tau$

$$\text{So, } e^{-\Delta t/\tau} = 1 - \frac{\Delta t}{\tau} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{Taylor series expansion for} \\ e^{-x} = 1 - x \quad \text{if } x \ll 1 \end{array} \right)$$

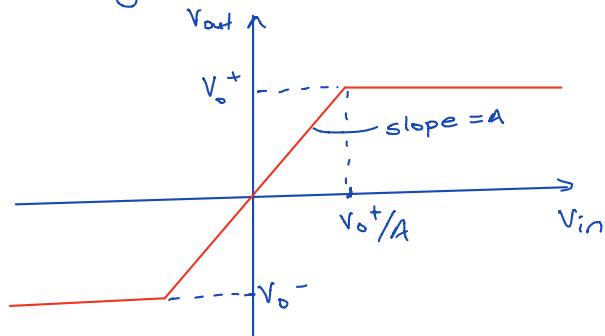
\* So,  $V_{\text{ripple}} = V_{\text{max}} \left( 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta t}{T} \right) \right) = \frac{V_{\text{max}} \cdot \Delta t}{T} \approx \frac{V_{\text{max}} \cdot T}{T} \Rightarrow T = \frac{1}{f}$

$$V_{\text{ripple}} = \frac{V_{\text{max}}}{f \cdot R C} \quad \text{for half-wave rectifier}$$

$$V_{\text{ripple}} = \frac{V_{\text{max}}}{2fRC} \quad \text{for full-wave rectifier (since } \Delta t \approx \frac{T}{2} \text{)}$$

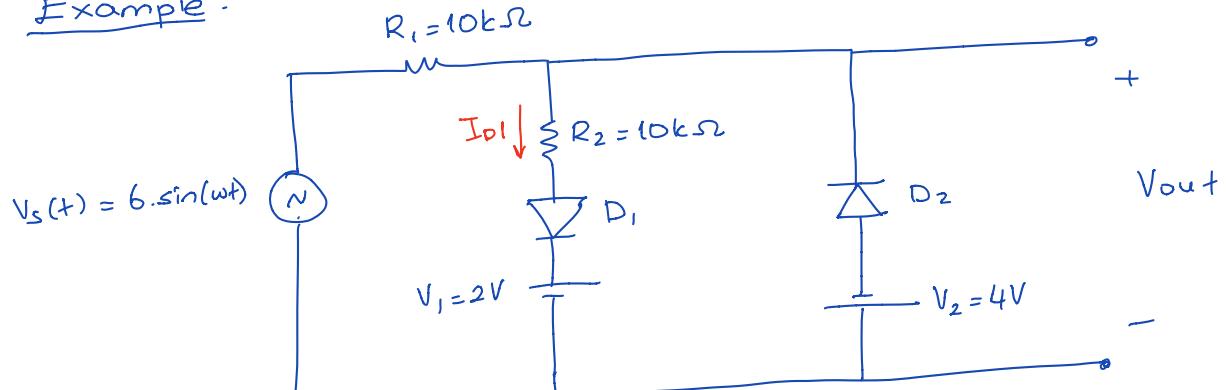
### Clippers

\* Limiter circuits used to eliminate (saturate) portions of a signal above or below specified values.



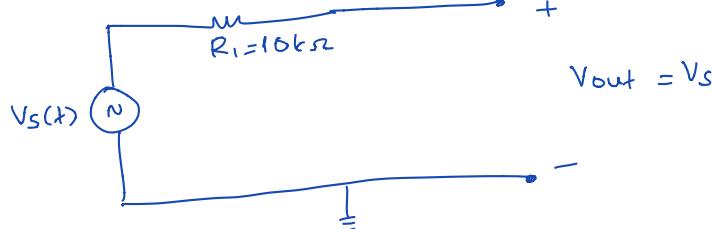
\* These circuits are used to prevent overvoltage on circuit elements

### Example:

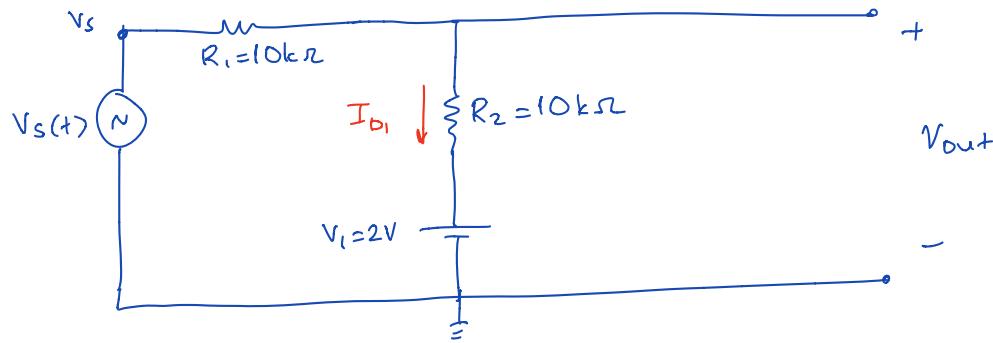


Assume diodes are ideal with  $V_{\text{ON}} = 0 \text{ V}$ .

\* if  $-4V < V_s < 2V$ , D1 and D2 OFF



\* if  $V_s > 2V$ , D1 ON, D2 OFF

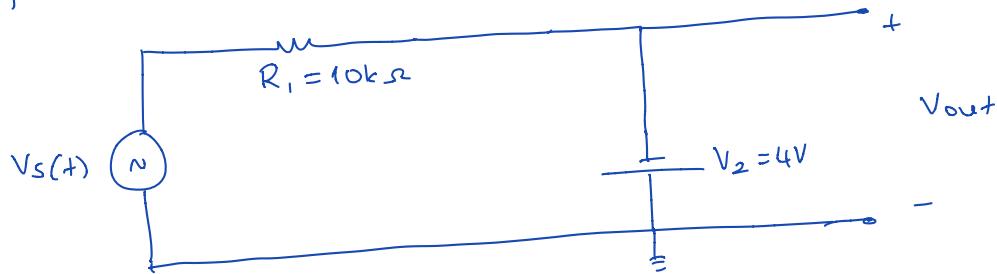


$$I_{D1} = \frac{V_s - V_1}{10k + 10k} = \frac{V_s - 2V}{20k}$$

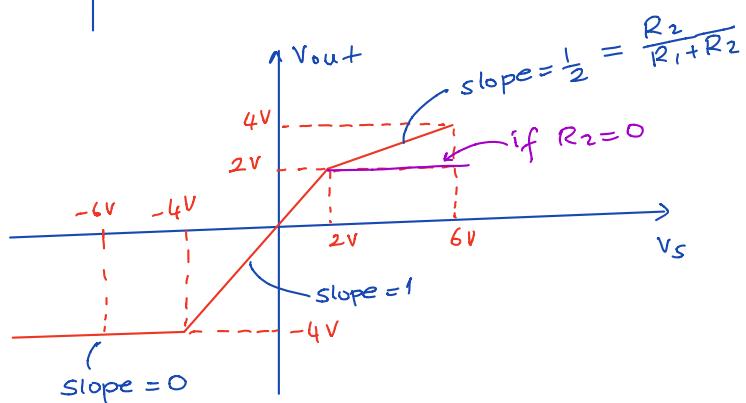
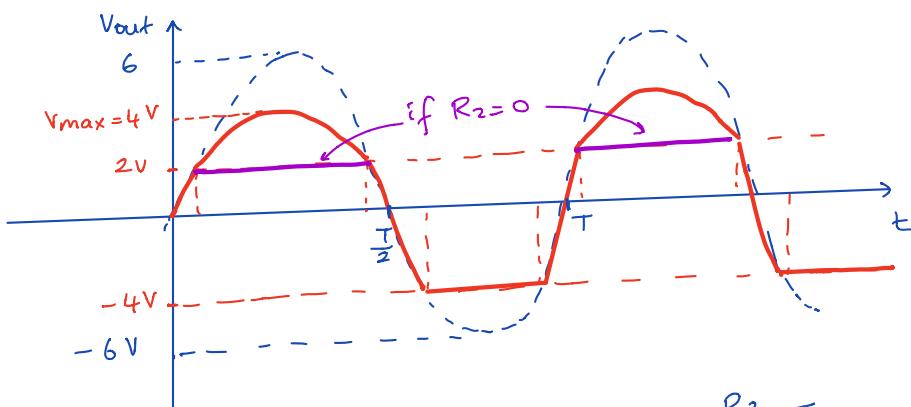
$$V_{out} = I_{D1} \cdot 10k + V_1 = \frac{V_s - 2V}{20k} \cdot 10k + 2V = \frac{V_s + V_1}{2} = \frac{V_s}{2} + 1V$$

$$\text{So, } V_{max} = \frac{6}{2} + 1 = 4V$$

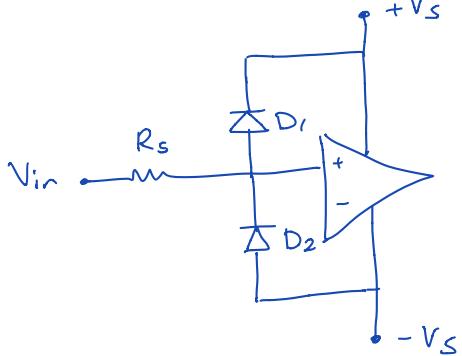
\* if  $V_s < -4V$ , D2 ON, D1 OFF :



$$V_{out} = -4V$$



- \* Electrostatic Discharge (ESD) protection (over-voltage protection)



$V_+ = V_{in}$  in the normal setting

- \* if  $V_{in} > V_s + V_{ON}$ , D1 turns ON.  
then  $V_+ = V_s + V_{ON}$

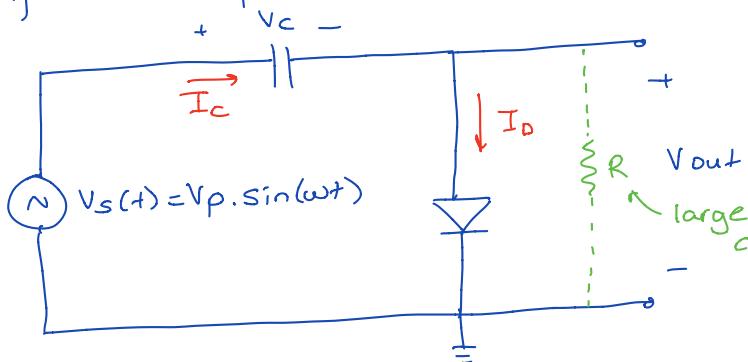
- \* if  $V_{in} < -V_s - V_{ON}$ , D2 turns ON.  
then  $V_+ = -V_s - V_{ON}$

- \* otherwise, both diodes are OFF,  
so they have no effect on the  
operation of the OPAMP.

Clampers: (a.k.a. Level Shifters, DC voltage restorers)

- \* shift the entire signal by a DC level.

- \* otherwise, the output waveform is an exact replica  
of the input waveform.

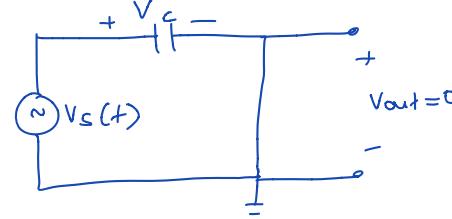
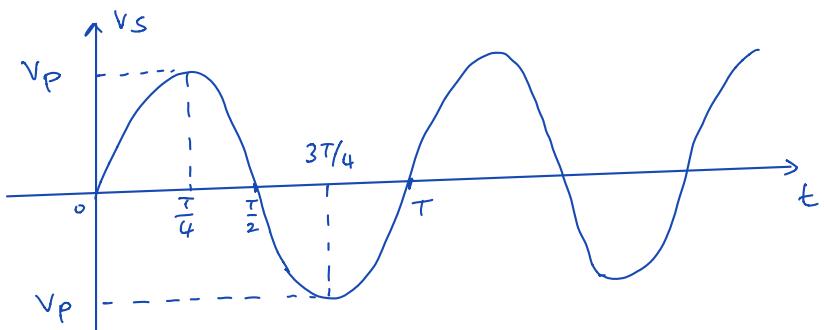


\* Assume  $V_{ON} = 0V$

\* Assume capacitor  
is initially not charged.

large resistance (in reality)  
capacitor can discharge only minimally  
(large  $\tau = RC$ )

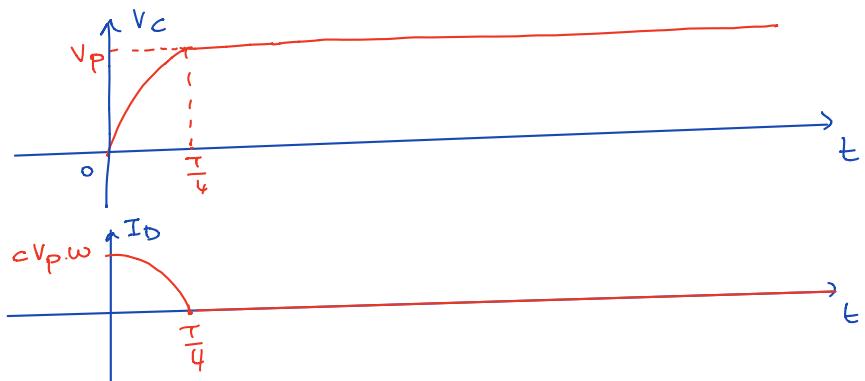
- \* During  $0 < t < \frac{T}{4}$ ,  
diode is ON.



$$V_{out} = V_{ON} = 0$$

$$V_c = V_s - V_{out} = V_s$$

$$\text{at } t = \frac{T}{4}, V_c = V_p$$



- \* Once  $V_s$  starts to fall from its peak,  
diode turns OFF.  
The capacitor cannot  
discharge (there is no  
path.)  $\Rightarrow V_c = V_p$

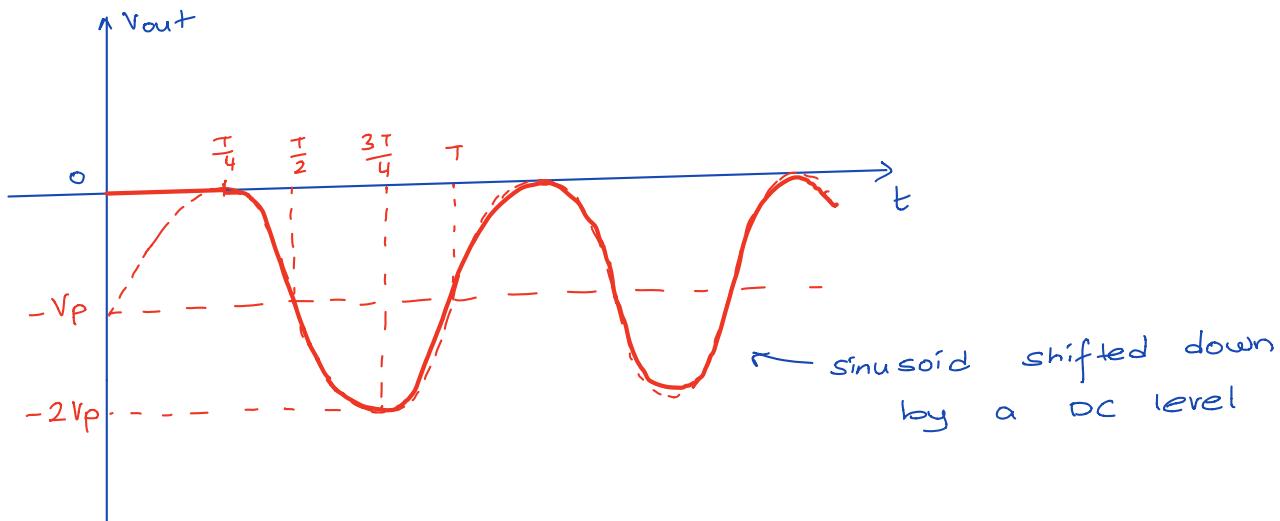
\* During this time ( $t > \frac{\pi}{4}$ ) :

$$\begin{aligned} V_{out} &= V_s - V_c \\ &= V_p \cdot \sin(\omega t) - V_p = V_p (\sin(\omega t) - 1) \end{aligned}$$

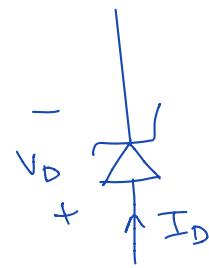
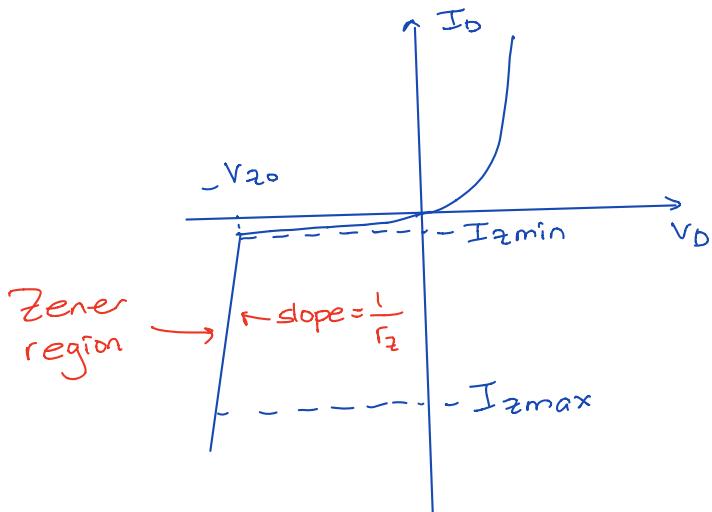
Also,

$$\begin{aligned} I_C = I_D &= C \frac{dV_C}{dt} = \begin{cases} C \frac{d}{dt} (V_p \cdot \sin(\omega t)) , & 0 < t < \frac{\pi}{4} \\ C \cdot \frac{d}{dt} (V_p) , & t > \frac{\pi}{4} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} C V_p \omega \cdot \cos(\omega t) , & 0 < t < \frac{\pi}{4} \\ 0 , & t > \frac{\pi}{4} \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{diode ON} \\ \rightarrow \text{diode OFF} \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

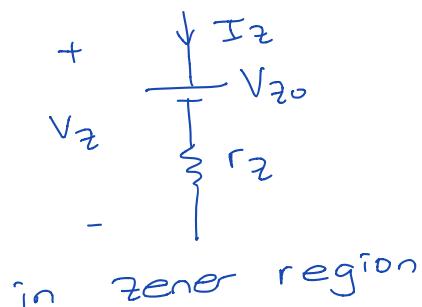
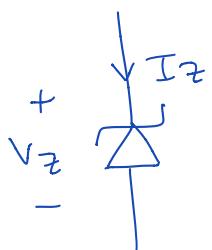
$$I_{D, peak} = C V_p \cdot \omega$$



## Zener Diode Circuits:

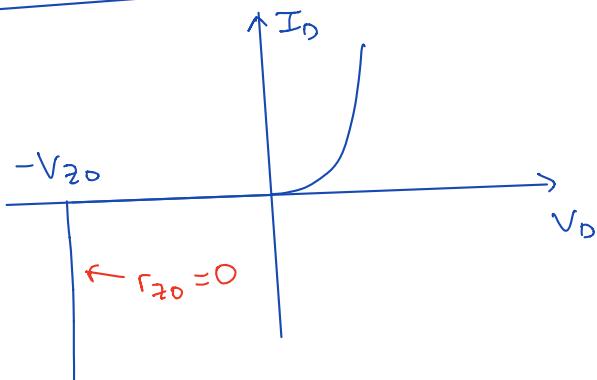


\* We almost always use Zener diodes in Zener region.

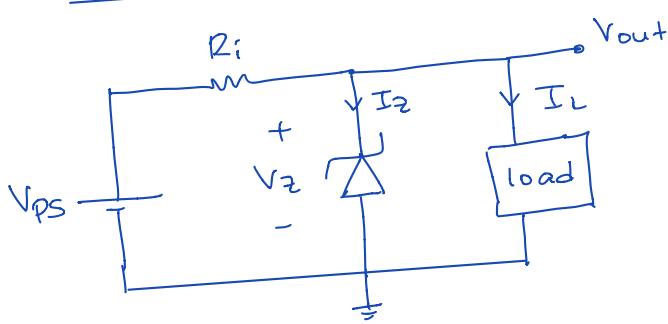


in Zener region

## Ideal Zener Diode



## Simple Voltage Regulator



Depending on the application,  $R_i$  and/or  $I_L$  has some limits.

Also,  $V_{PS}$  has some limits (max and min). We need to find  $R_i$  so that Zener limitations are not exceeded.

\* Zener limitations :

$I_{Z\max}$  : maximum allowable Zener current. Related to max. Zener power dissipation  $\approx V_{Z0} \times I_{Z\max} = P_{Z\max}$

$I_{Z\min}$  : to guarantee that we are in Zener region

Example: Consider a car radio operating from the car battery  $V_{PS}$ .

We know that  $V_{PS}$  has a certain range:

$$11V < V_{PS} < 13.6V$$

Load current  $I_L$  depends on how loud the radio is:

$$0 < I_L < 100mA$$

Zener properties:  $V_{Z0} = 9V$ . Assume  $r_2 = 0$

$$I_{Z\min} = 3mA = 0.003A$$

$$P_{Z\max} = 3W$$

Zener limitations are not violated.

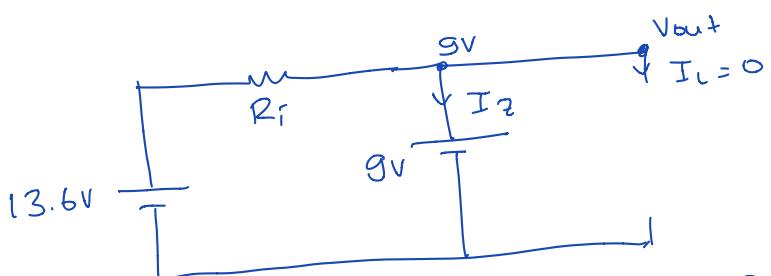
Find  $R_i$  so that

\* Not to exceed  $I_{Z\max}$ :

$$I_{Z\max} = \frac{P_{Z\max}}{V_{Z0}} = \frac{3W}{9V} = 0.333A = 333mA$$

$I_Z$  is max. when  $V_{PS}$  is max. and  $I_L$  is min:

$$V_{PS} = 13.6V, I_L = 0A$$



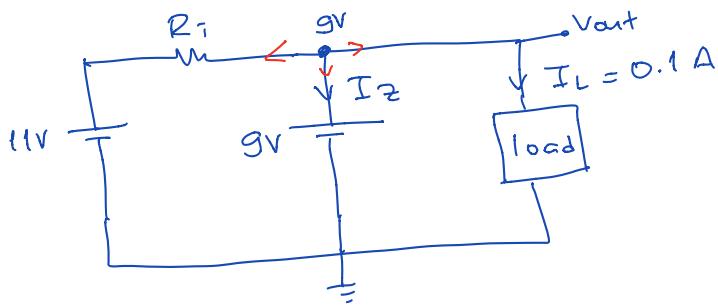
$$I_Z = \frac{13.6 - 9}{R_i} < I_{Z\max} = 0.33A$$

$$R_i > \frac{13.6 - 9}{0.33} = 13.85\Omega$$

\* Not to violate  $I_{Z\min}$ :

$I_Z$  is min. when  $V_{PS}$  is min. and  $I_L$  is max:

$$V_{PS} = 11V, I_L = 100mA = 0.1A$$



$$\text{KCL: } I_z + \frac{9-11}{R_i} + 0.1 = 0$$

$$I_z = \frac{11-9}{R_i} - 0.1 = \frac{2}{R_i} - 0.1 > I_{z\min} = 0.003 \text{ A}$$

$$\frac{2}{R_i} > 0.103 \Rightarrow R_i < \frac{2}{0.103} = 19.4 \Omega$$

\* So, the acceptable range for \$R\_i\$ is:

$$13.8 \Omega < R_i < 19.4 \Omega$$

\* So, we can choose \$R\_i = 15 \Omega\$.

For example, we can choose \$R\_i = 15 \Omega\$. Then, despite variations in \$V\_{ps}\$ and \$I\_L\$, we will always be in zener region, and \$V\_{out} = 9V\$.

### Load Regulation:

$$\text{L.R.} = \text{Load Regulation} \triangleq \frac{V_{out,\text{no-load}} - V_{out,\text{full-load}}}{V_{out,\text{full-load}}} \times 100 \%$$

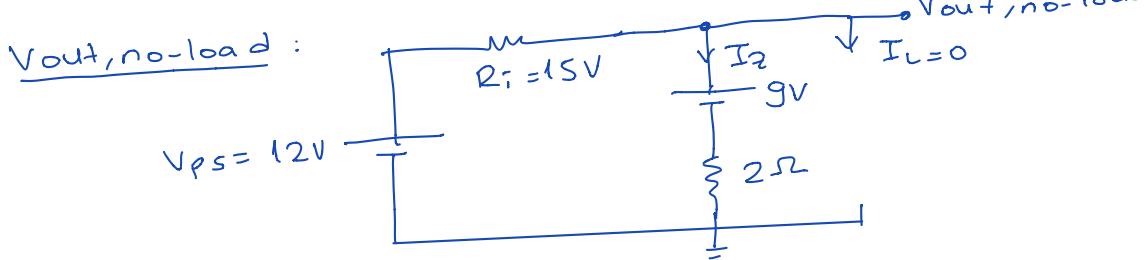
No-load means \$I\_L = 0\$  
Full-load means \$I\_L\$ is max.

\* Assume that \$V\_{ps} = 12V\$ and \$R\_i = 15 \Omega\$. In this case, no matter what \$I\_L\$ is (\$0 < I\_L < 100 \text{ mA}\$), \$V\_{out} = 9V\$, because we are always in zener region.

$$V_{out,\text{no-load}} = V_{out,\text{full-load}} = 9V$$

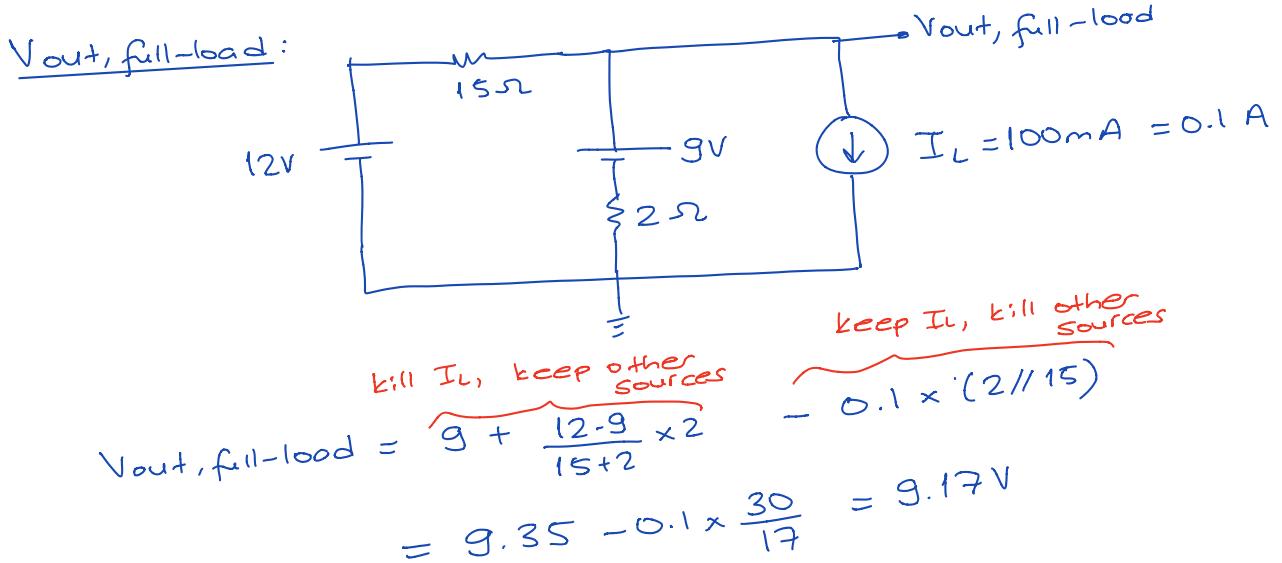
$$\Rightarrow \text{L.R.} = 0 \%$$

\* However, if \$r\_2 \neq 0\$, let's say \$r\_2 = 2 \Omega\$.



$$I_2 = \frac{12 - 9}{15 + 2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{out, no-load} &= g + I_2 \times 2 \\ &= g + \frac{12 - 9}{15 + 2} \times 2 = g + 0.35 = 9.35V \end{aligned}$$



\* So,

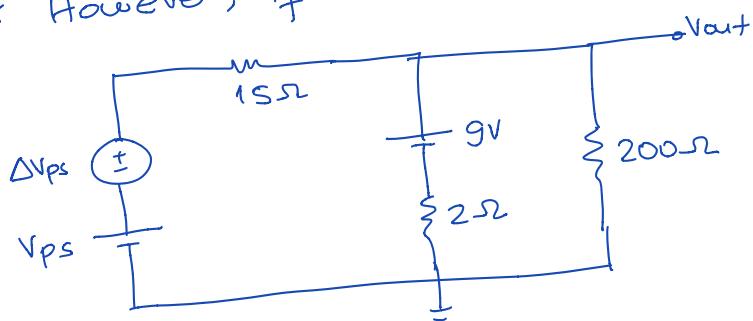
$$L.R. = \frac{9.35 - 9.17}{9.17} \times 100 = 1.96\% \approx 2\%$$

\* As  $I_L$  changes between 0mA and 100mA,  
 $V_{out}$  changes by only 2%.

### Source Regulation:

$$S.R. = \text{Source Regulation} = \frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{ps}} \times 100\%$$

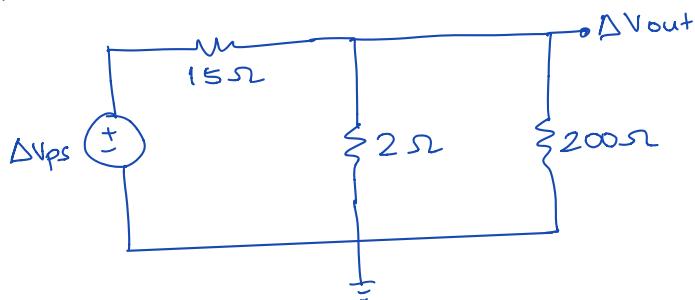
- \* If  $r_2 = 0$ , as long as we are in zero region,  
 $V_{out} = 9V$ ,  $\Rightarrow S.R. = 0\%$
- \* However, if  $r_2 \neq 0$ , let's say  $r_2 = 2\Omega$ :



Let's model the load  
as a  $200\Omega$  resistor  
( $R_L = 200\Omega$ )

$V_{out}$  has a part due to  $V_{ps}$ ,  $gV$ , and  $\Delta V_{ps}$ .  
We are interested in the part  $\Delta V_{out}$ , which is due to  $\Delta V_{ps}$ .

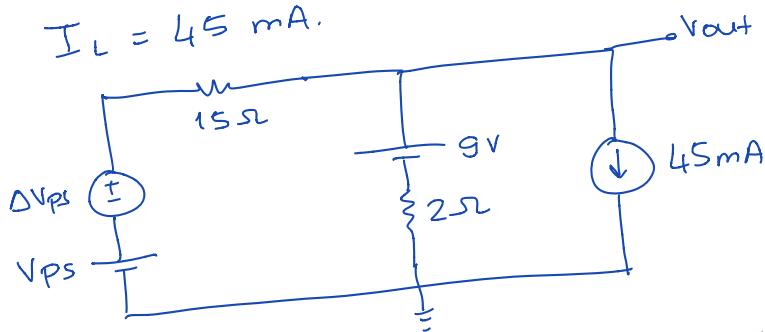
Kill V<sub>PS</sub> and g<sub>V</sub> sources:



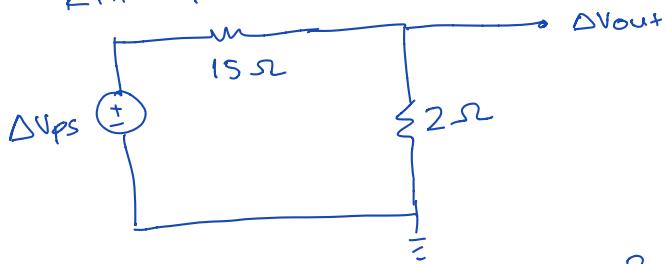
$$\Delta V_{out} = \frac{2//200}{15 + 2//200} \cdot \Delta V_{PS} = 0.1167 \Delta V_{PS}$$

$$\text{So, S.R.} = \frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{PS}} \times 100\% = 0.1167 \times 100 = 11.67\%$$

\* Let's consider another case when load is fixed to  $I_L = 45 \text{ mA}$ .



Kill V<sub>PS</sub>, g<sub>V</sub> and 45 mA sources:



$$\Delta V_{out} = \frac{2}{15+2} \cdot \Delta V_{PS} = \frac{2}{17} \Delta V_{PS}$$

$$\text{S.R.} = \frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta V_{PS}} = \frac{2}{17} \times 100 = 11.76\%$$

# What did we learn this semester?

- KCL, KVL, branch relations
- Node analysis, mesh analysis
- Linearity: Thevenin / Norton eq. circuits, superposition
- OPAMPS
- Dependent sources
- Signal Waveforms (impulse, unit step, ramp func., exponentials, sinusoids, damped sinusoids)
- First and second - order circuits, natural response, forced response.
- Sinusoidal steady-state, phasor analysis
- Complex power
- Laplace transform
- s-domain analyses
- zero-input response, zero-state response
- initial condition transformation
- transfer function, impedance
- impulse response, step response, convolution
- Diode circuits, rectifiers, clippers, clampers
- Zener diode circuits, voltage regulator.